## A Grammar of Agolle Kusaal

Revised Version

David Eddyshaw


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## Preface

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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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

Since December 2016 I have made substantial revisions to this grammar.
The orthography now conforms more closely to existing Kusaal written sources; the price of a slight increase in complexity of spelling rules is worth paying for the benefit of Ghanaian readers already familiar with such materials. I have included most of the revisions seen in the 2016 Kusaal Bible, which are improvements in almost all cases, except for an increased ambiguity in the marking of nasalisation 1.3.1. Many previous orthographic inconsistencies have been eliminated in the new Bible version.

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

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

Tonal nomenclature and notation previously reflected the close structural parallels with the tone systems of other Western Oti-Volta languages, but from a strictly language-internal standpoint it is more natural to describe the system in terms of high, mid and low tonemes. Altering the tone marking to reflect this, I have also made the notation much less abstract: the domain of tone marking is now the word rather than the punctuation group, and low tonemes are marked explicitly.

Reconsideration of the rôle of the focus particle $n \bar{\varepsilon}^{+/}$following the morphologically unmarked bare-stem form of the verb 22.2.2.1 has led to fairly extensive changes in the description of aspect, with greater stress on the dynamic/stative opposition in the verbal system, and (I hope) a clearer appreciation of the distinction between form and function in this complex area.

David Eddyshaw
Swansea, April 2018

## Introduction to the Grammar

Full understanding of any single part of a grammatical system may depend on also understanding the whole. I have tried to mitigate this problem by starting with a fairly extensive précis of the language in the Introduction before presenting a standard bottom-up account.

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

I have gleaned many helpful ideas from the Cambridge Grammar of the English Language (Huddlestone 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.

Kusaal lends itself readily to internal reconstruction. Illuminating comparative work is also feasible, given that there are quite extensive materials in and about several closely related languages. I have incorporated material of this kind where it seemed likely to be helpful or interesting.

A particular challenge to description is posed by Apocope, the deletion of underlying word-final vowels in most but not all contexts 2.2. Apocope removes the conditioning factors for phonological alternations which would otherwise have been non-contrastive. It affects morphology, rendering word forms which would result from the usual morphononemic rules ambiguous; rule operation is often disrupted to avoid this 6.2.1, sometimes so systematically that new regular subpatterns have been created 9.1. Apocope greatly complicates questions of phrase-level segmental and tone sandhi 8.5 8.2. It causes a number of short clitics to lose segmental representation altogether in most contexts, so that their presence is recognisable only from segmental and/or tonal effects on preceding words $\underline{8}$. Non-Africanists may find Kusaal interesting particularly because of these wide-ranging effects.

My working orthography 1.3 is close to the revised orthography of the 2016 Bible; as far as Agolle Kusaal is concerned, the revisions seem unlikely to cause much difficulty for readers familiar with older materials.

The missing $\iota$ is added for [ I$], \underset{\sim}{n}$ is used for $n$ when it is not a consonant but a nasalisation mark, and the writing of diphthongs is systematised by always using ei $u$ instead of e iu for non-moraic segments and iə uө rather than ie uo for the phonemic monophthongs realised [iə] [ue] 4.1.1. Word division accords more closely with the analysis of wordhood adopted in this grammar, and tones are marked.

All written sources are cited in their original orthography, with an accompanying transliteration into the working orthography of this grammar. The tone marking of written examples was supplied by me and rarely checked in detail with informants.

This grammar is the outcome of circumstances very different from the systematic fieldwork of a trained linguist. The morphology and such parts of the phonology as are original (essentially all the treatment of tone) derive from elicitation work with informants, for whose extraordinary patience in supplying and endlessly repeating forms I am very grateful. The treatment of phrase-level syntactic phenomena is largely based on work with these informants in elicitation and in exploring puzzling constructions I had encountered while attempting to communicate at work. All, especially WK, were alert to nuances and quick to see where I was going with enquiries; they readily came up with analogous or contrasting forms to help me. All four of my regular informants were first-language speakers of Agolle Kusaal, with essentially first-language level competence in English also. All were male, and around forty years old. I noted examples of conversation from many speakers, but recorded few examples of the usage of younger speakers specifically, though I noticed a few comments about the incorrect grammar of the young from my informants (surely a cultural universal.) I 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 19.8.1.3 are sparsely represented my data, and this has probably led to underestimation of their importance in the language as a whole.

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

The Bible versions are regarded by Kusaal speakers as being in good and idiomatic (if sometimes difficult) Kusaal. As translations, they nevertheless cannot be fully representative of the language.

The data on which this account is based are now twenty years old. The New Testament version available then was that of 1976; the 1996 revision adapted most foreign names to accord more closely with ordinary Kusaal spelling, but otherwise made no systematic orthographic changes. A decision was evidently made to replace all instances of the previously common indirect speech construction 29.3.2 with direct speech, and many other changes were made to improve the accuracy and clarity of the translation. The 2016 complete Kusaal Bible makes significant orthographic changes and shows considerable improvements in orthographic accuracy. There is some evidence of actual language change over this forty-year period 8.2.2, but some divergences between the spelling especially of older sources and the speech of my informants in the 1990's are probably simply matters of orthographic convention 8.5.3.

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

The complete 2016 Kusaal Bible is now available as an Android application.
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.

## Other Studies of Kusaal

The pioneers of Kusaal grammatical study were David and Nancy Spratt. I owe a great deal to their work in identifying the segmental phonemes of the language and creating a practical orthography. This standard orthography is not adequate for the needs of foreign learners or for scientific description, but its deficiencies are largely remedied with diacritics in David Spratt's "Introduction to Learning Kusaal." I found this work much the most useful previous account of Kusaal, despite its brevity (forty-two pages.) It was especially helpful in getting me started with the tonal system; although the description does not claim to be more than a preliminary sketch, it was invaluable in pointing me in the right direction, particularly as I had no previous experience with tone languages; at the time I first obtained a copy of Spratt's work I had got little farther than determining that tone was lexically contrastive in Kusaal. David Spratt's work has also been helpful in matters of lexicon. His Kusaal vocabulary uses the 1976 New Testament orthography, with its underdifferentiation of vowels, and does not mark tones, but it provided useful data for morphological study, especially of gerund formation.

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

More recently, numerous wide-ranging grammatical and lexical studies of the Toende Kusaal of Burkina Faso have been produced by Urs Niggli, who has also done considerable work with Kassem and Farefare, 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 "Dictionnaire" has been an excellent resource for Toende comparative material; it marks all vowel contrasts, and the most recent update also marks tone in many headwords. However, the tones are sometimes at variance with those given in Niggli's other works; comparison with Agolle Kusaal and with other Western Oti-Volta languages suggests that this may be because the effects of external tone sandhi have not always been allowed for.

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

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

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Abbreviations
(See also Interlinear Glossing Conventions below.)
AdvP Adverbial Phrase
an animate gender
ATR Advanced Tongue Root
BNY Bunkonbid ne Niis ne ba y&la (see Sources)
C Consonant
cb combining form (of nominal)
dipf dynamic imperfective (not stative)
DK Informant (see Sources)
ger gerund
H High toneme
ILK "An Introduction to Learning Kusaal" (David Spratt)
inan inanimate gender
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)
pl plural
rem Remoteness Marker
SB Informant (see Sources)
SF Short Form (of word capable of standing clause-finally)
sg singular
V Vowel
VP Verb Phrase (not "Verbal Predicator" 22)
WK Informant (see Sources)
1sg 2pl ... First Person Singular, Second Person Plural etc
```

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

## Interlinear Glossing

Abbreviations:

| ABSTR | Abstract | $\underline{9.1 .1}$ |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| AdV | Adverbial | $\underline{17}$ |
| AN | Animate Gender | $\underline{19.2 .2}$ |
| CNTR | Contrastive (Personal Pronouns) | $\underline{\underline{33.5}}$ |
| COMP | Complementiser (underlyingly $\grave{n}$ ) | $\underline{8.2 .2 .1 .1} \underline{31}$ |
| COP | Copula àen${ }^{\text {a }}$ |  |

## Personal Pronouns:

| 1SG 1PL | 1st sg/pl | $\underline{15.1}$ |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| 2SG 2PL | 2nd sg/pl | $\underline{15.1}$ |
| 3AN 3INAN | 3rd sg Animate/Inanimate | $\underline{15.1} 19.2 .2$ |
| 3PL | 3rd pl | $\underline{15.1}$ |
| 2PL.SUB | Postposed 2nd pl Subject | $\underline{28.2 .3}$ |

The linker particles kà and $y \bar{\varepsilon}$ are conventionally glossed "and" and "that" respectively throughout, though this very often does not reflect the true meaning in context 27.1.2.; similarly yà' 30.1 is glossed "if" in all cases. The empty particle $n \bar{\varepsilon}$ which follows objects of comparison which lack the article 21.1 is glossed "like."

Mass nouns 19.2.1 are not specified as sG or PL in the glossing; similarly, Invariable Verbs 11.2 are not labelled for aspect. The Base Form of Variable 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 $\underline{8}$. Prosodic Clitics $\underline{8.1}$ are represented by ${ }^{+} \varnothing$, and Liaison 2.3.2 is marked by .

For the purposes of interlinear glossing, I have adopted the concept of wordhood reflected in the traditional orthography. This entails a deviation from the Leipzig Glossing Rules for clitics. Clitics which the traditional orthography writes solid with their hosts, as if they were word fragments, are in both the working orthography of this grammar and in glossing joined to their hosts by hyphens (not =): these comprise Nominal combining forms, the Personifier particle $\dot{A}$-, and the Liaison Enclitics $n^{\varepsilon}$ Loc $n^{\varepsilon}$ rem ${ }^{\text {ya }}$ 2Pl.sub along with the LF of ${ }^{\circ}{ }^{\text {3an.ob }}$ 2.3. 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: pūטgv-n "inside", not pūvgט=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 $a d$ hoc to illustrate the particular rule in question.

Hausa words are cited in the orthography of Jaggar 2001, except that long vowels are written with double letters rather than macrons, as in Caron 1991. High tone is unmarked, low tone is marked with a grave, and a circumflex represents falling tone. Standard Kano forms are given, although the actual source of the loanwords in Kusaal is the Gaanancii lingua franca. Dialect variation in Hausa is surprisingly small, however, considering the wide area over which the language is spoken and its extensive use as a second language.

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

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

All my Francophone sources use the symbols $\iota v$ 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 $L$, macron for mid tone and $\downarrow$ for emic downstep. Absent tone marks in these languages represent lack of tonal information.

This colour is used for words cited in foreign languages, including Agolle Kusaal in the original orthography of written sources; this colour is reserved for words and word fragments written in the working orthography of this Grammar.

Internal and external hyperlinks appear like this.

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## Informants

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

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

| WK | (from Koka) | KT | (from Tempane) |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| DK | (from Kukpariga) | SB | (from Bawku) |

## Texts

From GILLBT (Ghana Institute of Linguistics, Literacy and Bible Translation), Tamale:

Bunkonbid ne Niis ne ba yzla
Būn-kóñbìd 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 Gbàunŋ

Bible Translations:

Wina'am Gbaun
Wínà'am Gbáun
"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

Kusaal Bible
1976 NT © World Home Bible League
1996 NT © The Bible League/GILLBT
2016 Complete Bible © GILLBT

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## 1 Introduction to Kusaal and the Kusaasi

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


Kusaal is the language of the Kusaasi, the majority ethnic group of the Bawku Municipal, Bawku West and Garu-Tempane Districts of the Upper East Region in the far northeast of Ghana, extending from the Red Volta river and the Gambaga Escarpment to the national borders with Burkina Faso and Togo. The smaller area west of the White Volta river, coinciding largely with Bawku West District, is called Toende in Ghanaian English (less often spelt "Tonde", and in French contexts "Tondé"), Toende Kusaal Tóכ̄n "in front, West", Agolle Kusaal ${ }^{1}$ Tùen ${ }^{\text {nદ. The larger }}$ eastern part is Agolle (less accurately spelt "Agole"), Kusaal Àg̀̀اء "Upper." The Ghanaian districts comprise most of Kūsáv̀g ${ }^{\text {ºn }}$ "Kusaasiland", but there are also a good number of Kusaasi settlements in the neighbouring part of Burkina Faso, west of the White Volta and south of Zabré, and a few over the border in Togo.

1) Superscript letters represent the parts of Kusaal words deleted in most contexts by Apocope 2.2. They play no part in the pronunciation of citation forms, and may be ignored in this section, along with the / tone mark which follows some superscripts.

### 1.1 The Kusaasi People

The name 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 ${ }^{\mathrm{m} /}$, called "pito" (Hausa fitoo) in English.

The Kusaasi are divided into numerous patrilineal exogamous clans (dう̀วg, "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 Gur- and Mande-speaking peoples, who nevertheless continued to provide the tèn-dàan-nàm ${ }^{\mathrm{a}}$. The founder of these kingdoms was Na Gbewa, whose seat was at Pusiga (Kusaal Pūsıg ${ }^{\mathrm{a} /}$ ) 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 have much in common culturally with their neighbours, especially the Mossi and Mamprussi. Traditional Kusaasi dress resembles that of the Mamprussi, Dagomba and Mossi, including the characteristic long-sleeved baggy smock bānāa=, called a "fugu shirt" in English (cf Kusaal fūug ${ }^{\text {/ }}$ "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 southern Ghana; similarly, of the roughly 5\% Muslims, most belonged to other ethnic groups.

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

Dìm $n \bar{\varepsilon}$ Wīn, dā tú'às nē Wīnné ${ }^{+} \varnothing$.
Eat:Imp with God:sg, neg.Imp talk with God:sg neg.
"Eat with God, don't talk with God."

Another warns against evildoing, but in these terms:

Wīn ny $\begin{gathered}\text { ḱ } \\ \text { kà } \\ \text { sinn. }\end{gathered}$
God:sg see and be.silent.
"God sees and is silent."

Everyday religious practice is concerned rather with local non-
anthropomorphic spirits, also called $w \bar{i} n^{n \varepsilon /}$. A $w \bar{i} n^{n \varepsilon /}$ resides in an object such as a stone or horn, which is a $b \bar{u} g r^{\varepsilon}$, often called a "fetish" in old ethnographic accounts; the implications of this term are however very misleading, as it is the wīn ${ }^{\text {nع/ }}$ that is significant, not its place of attachment.

An important rôle is played by the diviner, $b \bar{a}^{\prime} a^{=}$, who can seek guidance for a client (būgud ${ }^{\mathrm{a}}$ ) on all matters by casting lots. This rôle is distinct from that of the traditional healer; such healers themselves show considerable variation in approach from essentially herbalist to frankly occult.

A human being is understood as having four components: nìn-gbī $\eta^{3 /}$ "body";
 sense) "genius, spirit, a person's own spiritual self or double"; and kìkīrıs ${ }^{\varepsilon /}$, protective
spirits (called "fairies" in local English.) Men have three kìkīrıs ${ }^{\varepsilon /}$, women a fourth, because of the dangers of childbirth. (Throughout the cultural zone, three is the man's number, and four is the woman's.) There are thought to be wild kikirrs ${ }^{\varepsilon /}$ in the bush which are hostile and try to lead travellers astray. The term sīıg ${ }^{\text {a }}$ "life force", used to render "spirit" in Christian materials, is in traditional belief intimately associated with the individual's tutelary kikirıs ${ }^{\varepsilon /}$.

The key term $w i \bar{n}{ }^{\mathrm{n} \varepsilon /}$ has yet further senses, overlapping with the European concepts of fate or destiny: wīn-tój̀g ${ }^{\text { }}$, literally "bitterness of $w i \bar{n} n \varepsilon / "$ is "misfortune." This kind of $w_{i} n^{n \varepsilon /}$ as "pattern of one's life" may be hereditary, as part of a complex of ideas reminiscent partly of reincarnation, partly of what modern European culture might attribute to family resemblance or genetics. (The word $b \bar{v} g r^{\varepsilon}$ may also mean "a $w i ̄ n{ }^{n \varepsilon /}$ inherited from one's mother.")

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

### 1.2 The Kusaal Language

### 1.2.1 Language Status

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

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

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

### 1.2.2 Dialects

There is no standard dialect of Kusaal; every district has local peculiarities and my informants themselves show numerous small differences in speech. Bawku itself does not serve as a centre for the Kusaal language; as is typical for the zone, it is a multiethnic trading centre around a Muslim quarter or "zongo" (Hausa 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 one standard form.

The major dialect division in Kusaal is between Agolle and Toende. The differences are striking, considering the size of the Kusaasi area. The occurrence of Agolle Vowel Breaking 4.1.1 correlates with numerous other isoglosses, resulting in a sharp discontinuity between Agolle and Toende Kusaal, probably attributable to the depopulation of the border zone along the White Volta caused by the river blindness (onchocerciasis) prevalent in the region until quite recent times.

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

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

Agolle and Toende Kusaasi themselves agree that they constitute a single ethnic group, and that they speak dialects of a single language; this is perhaps
reinforced by a strong local folk-linguistic tendency to equate language and ethnicity (note the language names formed from ethnonyms in 35.4.) 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

The Gur Languages (Public Domain, created by Davius


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

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


This chart shows approximate relationships between some of the Niger-Congo languages mentioned in this account, omitting all but a few branches and individual languages. Precise subclassifications are often uncertain. For example, the Mande languages are the most divergent group, and may well not truly belong to the NigerCongo phylum at all; neither "Atlantic" nor "Kordofanian" seems to be a real unity; Twi has been said to belong to a "Kwa" branch of Niger-Congo, but the evidence that this is a valid node is weak; the relationship between Gur and Adamawa is unclear; Eastern Oti-Volta shows much more internal diversity than Western Oti-Volta, and its validity is harder to establish. Much existing work on the phylum is vulnerable to the methodological criticisms expressed in e.g. Campbell 2013. The inclusion in Niger-

Congo of groups like Mande and Kordofanian is at this point a long-range hypothesis, rather than a well-established linguistic grouping like Indo-European or Uto-Aztecan; to some extent, this is true even of Atlantic. Individual Niger-Congo branches can show comparable internal diversity to Indo-European; moreover, West Africa has probably always been characterised by widespread multilingualism and borrowing between languages, not only of lexicon but also of morphology and syntax. For West Africa (and beyond) as a Sprachbund see especially Güldemann 2007.

Nevertheless, there is uncontroversial evidence that at least the core of NigerCongo (Ethnologue's "Volta-Congo", corresponding to the branches after "Atlantic" in the chart above) is a true genetic grouping. Basic lexical items recur frequently, such as the roots seen in Kusaal biïg ${ }^{\text {a }}$ child", $d i{ }^{+}$"eat", $n \bar{u}^{+}$"drink", $k p i^{+}$"die", tìıg $g^{\text {a }}$ tree", àtán' ${ }_{\sim}^{+}$"three", tùbur ${ }^{\varepsilon}$ "ear", corresponding respectively to e.g. Fongbe ví, dù, nù, kú, átín, àt̀̀n, tó (Lefebvre 2002.) Guthrie's Proto-Bantu reconstructions parallel all of these except "child": -dí- "eat", -nú- "drink", kú- "die", -tí "tree", -tátù "three", -tú "ear"; his Proto-Bantu -tช́m- "send" corresponds to Kusaal tòm". The Potou-Akanic language group, which includes Twi/Fante and Gonja, here shows a regular sound correspondence $t \sim s$ : Twi $\varepsilon s a ̃ ~ " t h r e e ", ~ a s o ̃ ~ " e a r ", ~ s o m a ~ " s e n d ", ~ G o n j a ~ a ̀-s a ́ ~ " t h r e e ", ~$ kò-sówé "ear."

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

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

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

Volta language Ditammari has mu- for the affixes of this class (mūtiē "tree"), and although its close relative Nateni has -bu (tēēbu "tree"), the corresponding pronoun is $m u$ (Sambiéni p219.)

Among unpaired Kusaal flexional suffixes, the $-m^{m}$ characteristically seen with mass and abstract nouns like kù'өm "water" is probably cognate with the Bantu Class 6 prefix *ma- when used for mass terms and liquids, e.g. Swahili maji "water", (Gurmanche ñíma) and the $-\left.\right|^{\varepsilon}$ of language names like $K \bar{u} s a ́ a l^{\varepsilon}$ matches Bantu Class 11 */o- in the same meaning; cf Luganda, the language of the Baganda people.

Similarities may also be seen in verbal derivation by suffixes, in this context usually called "verbal extensions", after the term used in the study of Bantu languages, in which such processes are typically highly productive. However, at the level of Niger-Congo, there can be problems with correlating the form and function of these suffixes, and some processes may be areal phenomena, found even in AfroAsiatic and Nilo-Saharan (see Hyman 2007. ${ }^{2}$ )

Mande shows no trace of noun class affixes or Niger-Congo-type verbal extensions, nor much in the way of vocabulary unequivocally cognate to core NigerCongo. Some Kordofanian languages (e.g. Lumun, well described in Smits 2017) bear a striking typological similarity to core Niger-Congo, with robust noun class systems marked by often-paired prefixes and extensive agreement, and with a similar system of verbal extensions, but there is little correspondence in form, and once again, little lexical correspondence. Even with the Atlantic languages, typological resemblances are much more apparent than lexical, and affixes of similar meaning to those of core Niger-Congo often show dissimilar forms. On the other hand, the Potou-Akanic family to which Twi/Fante and Gonja belong is a well-established part of the core, preserving both cognate vocabulary and clearly related noun class affixes.

Many proposals for Niger-Congo subclassification rely heavily on lexicostatistics, a technique which is the more problematic as so many of the relevant languages are poorly documented; only detailed comparative work can provide a basis for accurate subclassification. In the case of some lower-level groupings much has been achieved already, very notably with Bantu; among languages closer to Kusaal, there is the work of Sambiéni 2005 on Eastern Oti-Volta. At a higher level, comparative work is generally at an early stage; see, however, numerous publications by Gabriel Manessy on Gur, and especially the publications of John Stewart on PotouAkanic and its relationships with Bantu and Atlantic.
2) For Gur, Hyman cites only Canu 1976 (pp180ff). Some of Canu's extensions involve segmentation of CVC roots as CV+C, where the CV- component is not attested as a root; others involve $C V V \sim C V C$ alternations of the type described in 6.1.1.1, where CVV allomorphs probably arose by lenition of the final consonant. However, Canu's second-position suffixes are true verb-deriving suffixes, with numerous cognates in other Western Oti-Volta languages; Kusaal is representative of the group 13.2.

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

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

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

One feature distinguishing these languages from the Northwestern group is the presence of a specific verbal inflection *-ma for positive imperatives. Various isoglosses cut across the Northwestern/Southwestern division, but most involve shared retentions, such as the preservation of noun-class based grammatical gender in Talni, Mampruli and Farefare but not Kusaal, Dagbani and Mooré 10, the retention of contrastive vowel glottalisation in Kusaal, Nabit, Talni and Farefare only 4.2.2, and the preservation of the contrast between non-initial /r/ and /d/ in Mooré, Agolle Kusaal (but not Toende), Talni and Nabit. The form of the singular pronoun "you" also cuts across the division, Kusaal going with the Northwestern languages:

| Dagbani | $a$ | Mampruli | $i$ |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| Nabit | $i$ | Talni | $i$ |
| Kusaal | fù | Mooré | fò |
| Farefare | fo | Dagaare | fo |

Judging by Buli fi the Kusaal and Northwestern forms seem conservative; Nawdm too has sg bé pl né. However, Gurmanche has 2nd singular à, plural ì, Konkomba has singular $i$, plural $n \iota$, and Moba has singular $\bar{a}$, plural $\bar{i}$ for the noncontrastive pronouns but $f i$, yīm for contrastive. (In these plural forms, the $y$-/ $\varnothing$ and the $n$ - both derive from ${ }^{*} n-8.2 .1 .2$.) The Moba pronouns suggest that other languages may have independently levelled and remodelled an original system with distinct contrastive and non-contrastive forms.

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

A subdivision of Southwestern Oti-Volta itself seems justifiable. Mampruli, Dagbani and Hanga share a considerable simplification of the inherited vowel system, with loss of glottalisation, contrastive nasalisation and the high vowel distinctions $i / I$ $u / v$, along with a lowering of original short $e$ in closed syllables to $a$, resulting in the development of a series of contrastively palatalised velars. On the other hand, Nabit and Talni are probably the closest relatives of Kusaal. Material on Nabit and Talni is collected in the dictionaries on Tony Naden's website (see sources); the Nabit data show a particularly close resemblance to Toende Kusaal. Giffen 2015 is an account of the creation of a Nabit orthography; her interesting discussion of the social and cultural setting suggests that Nabit has been swept up into the cultural and political orbit of the more distantly related Farefare. She mentions Talni in passing, and implies that Talni speakers understand Nabit to some extent. Nabit and Talni resemble Kusaal in having lost inherited final short vowels in citation forms. This is of course very common cross-linguistically (and seen also in Moba, the neighbouring Gurma language), but there are example sentences in the dictionaries on Tony Naden's website which suggest that Nabit and Talni may retain the final vowel at the end of negated clauses and of questions, just as with Kusaal Apocope 2.2:

| Nabit | La bi'ime. | "It is ripe" |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Toende | La bi'ı me. |  |
| Agolle | Lì bì'ig nē. |  |
|  | 3INAN ripen foc |  |
| Nabit | La na bu biige. | "It is not yet ripe." |
| Toende | La nan bu bi'ıge. |  |
| Agolle | Lì nàm $p \bar{u}$ | ${ }^{+} \varnothing$. |
|  | binan still neg.in |  |

Talni Bunpok doyam pu bokəra, buraa dəүam m bokət.
"A woman's kindred is not divided, a man's kindred is divided."
Toende Bupok dכgım bu bokıra, buraa dogım bokıt.
Agolle [Pư'ā] dú'àm pū búaákìdā ${ }^{+} \varnothing$, [dāū] dó'amì ø bưákìd. Woman:sG kindred neg.Ind split:DIPF NEG, man:sg kindred ser split:DIPF.

The Toende forms are from Niggli's dictionary, with the inflected forms bokıra and bi'ıge constructed on the basis of his grammatical works.

There are few examples, and the Talni data in particular seem equivocal, but if this unusual behaviour is indeed common to all three languages it would be
compelling evidence for a Kusaal-Nabit-Talni subgroup. There may be lexical isoglosses: for example, the common Kusaal verb $n \bar{\jmath} k^{\varepsilon /}$ "pick up" (Toende nj̀k) has a cognate in Nabit nok but not, as far as I have been able to discover, in any other Western Oti-Volta language. However, as with the loss of vowel distinctions in Mampruli-Dagbani-Hanga, the family tree model may misrepresent a historical reality where similarities may often be due to intensive contact between distinct languages in a milieu in which many people are multilingual.

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

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

Both Buli and Gurmanche have three-tone systems, and the three basically distinct Western Oti-Volta Tone Patterns can be systematically matched with these 7.1. However, although Western Oti-Volta Tone Pattern H corresponds to high tone in Buli, it corresponds to low in the Gurma languages:

| Kusaal |  | Gurmanche |  | Buli |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| sāan $^{\mathrm{a} /}$ | "stranger" | càanō | nícháanoā (ní- "person") |  |
| wáaf | "snake" | wà | wáab |  |
| nīf/ | "eye" | nùnbū | núm |  |

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

| $m \bar{\partial} g^{\text { }}$ | "grass" | múagū | mūub ("blade of grass") |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| $p u^{\prime}{ }^{\text {a }}{ }^{\text {a }}$ | "woman" | púa | nípōk (ní- "person") |
| tìl ${ }^{\text {a }}$ | "tree" | tībū | tiib |
| dう̀ ${ }^{\text {g }}$ | "room" | dīelī | dòk |
| (dèegò | Farefare id) |  |  |

Exceptions occur; tonal mismatches are bolded in

| sā'ab $^{\supset}$ | "TZ" | sāābū | sāāb |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| bïiga $^{\text {a }}$ | "child" | bígā | bíík |
| tùbur | "ear" | tūbīlī | tūrī |
| nuwāan | "monkey" | nmāāmō | wàaung |

Evidence from outside Oti-Volta suggests that it is languages with H tone corresponding to Pattern H (like Buli, Nawdm, and Western Oti-Volta) which have innovated: cf Chakali (Gurunsi) t往òmó "hare" = Kusaal sú'өク ${ }^{\text {a }}$ (Pattern H), váa "dog" $=$ Kusaal bāa= (Pattern O); Proto-Bantu -nùà "mouth" = Kusaal nj̄כrع/ (Pattern H), -tú "ear" = Kusaal tùbur ${ }^{\varepsilon}$ (Pattern L). If other innovations could be shown to correlate with this tonal inversion, it might form the basis of subgrouping within Oti-Volta, but a single phonological change seems insufficient. Moreover, it is not clear how the threefold tone pattern distinctions characteristic of Oti-Volta arose from a presumed Niger-Congo binary H/L opposition (for speculations see 7.1.)

Like Gurma, the Eastern Oti-Volta languages are distinctly different from Western Oti-Volta in both morphology and lexicon. Sambiéni 2005 provides considerable detail on the language group, which evidently shows much greater internal diversity than Western Oti-Volta. His work assumes that Eastern Oti-Volta is a valid node and attempts to reconstruct a protolanguage on that basis; it takes as given the validity of Manessy's subgrouping, which is apparently based on the shared initial-consonant developments $* g \rightarrow k,{ }^{*} g b \rightarrow k p$ and $*_{f} \rightarrow y$ along with ${ }_{v} \rightarrow f$ (also seen in Gurma.) The Eastern Oti-Volta languages in fact lack $v g b{ }_{f}$ altogether, while $g$ occurs only word-internally as an allophone of /k/; this might suggest an areal development. Manessy has *gb $\rightarrow k w$ for the neighbouring language Bulba/Nõõtre, which he classifies with Western Oti-Volta.

Of the four Eastern Oti-Volta languages Ditammari, Nateni, Byali and Waama, Ditammari resembles Gurmanche and Konkomba in that nouns usually appear with noun class prefixes and suffixes together. Apart from this, all four languages have noun class systems which seem conservative rather than marked by common innovations.

Ditammari and Nateni probably form a subgroup: like Gurma, they show L tone corresponding to Kusaal Pattern H, and in verb flexion they resemble each other closely, with some verbs opposing a perfective ending -a to an imperfective ending which is - $i$ after alveolar consonants but $-u$ otherwise, other verbs changing the stem tones, or dropping a derivational suffix from the perfective to make the imperfective, and many individual verbs behaving alike in both languages.

Byali seems to show mid tones for the most part where Western Oti-Volta has Pattern H; in verb flexion it opposes a perfective ending -sə to imperfective -u (including after alveolars.)

Waama has H tone correponding to Western Oti-Volta Pattern H. In verb flexion it shows a small group of verbs opposing final -i for perfective to $-u$ for imperfective, but most verbs form the imperfective by adding a suffix of the form -ri -di or -ti to the perfective form, again resembling Western Oti-Volta. (However, similar suffixes appear even in the Gurma languages as one of many ways of forming the imperfective, e.g. Konkomba -dع.) There are also some lexical isoglosses uniting Waama with Western Oti-Volta and Buli over against the other Eastern languages and Gurma, e.g. Waama wōmmā "entendre" (= Kusaal wòm", Buli wom) as against Byali cèsì or yō, Ditammari kèè or yō, Nateni yēkà, Gurmanche céngì "écouter"; Waama cáárō "forgeron" (= Kusaal sāeñ+, Buli chòa-bíik [chùōk "forge"]), versus Byali má-máárāū, Ditammari ōmáátà, Nateni málō, Gurmanche mááno; Waama yété pl yéyā "maison" (= Kusaal yīř̌/, Buli yérí), versus Byali tápúú, Ditammari tācĩžtà, Nateni hว̋ว̃tā. Waama also shares the change $* K \rightarrow y$ with Western Oti-Volta and Buli over against Gurma and Nawdm: Waam y ̃ní "deux" (= Kusaal [à]yí ${ }^{+}$, Buli [ngà]yè), versus Byali dyā, Ditammari dīání, Nateni déń, Gurmanche lé, Nawdm [?é]ré.

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

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

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

### 1.2.4 External Influences

In general, the languages of neighbouring regions have not obviously influenced Kusaal. Moba, for example, the neighbouring eastern language, has had no evident effect on Kusaal. The northern neighbours of the Kusaasi are the Bisa; indeed the Kusaal word for "north" is literally "Bisa Country" 35.3. Bisa territory is largely in Burkina Faso but extends just over the Ghanaian border, and many Bisa people have also settled in the villages among the Kusaasi, and in Bawku. However, Bisa people in Ghana use Kusaal as the areal lingua franca, and few others can communicate in their Mande language, which is at most remotely related to its Gur neighbours; once again, there seems to be no evidence of influence on Kusaal. In the west, Nabit and Talni resemble Kusaal closely enough that it is difficult to distinguish borrowing from common inheritance, but there is reason to suspect Farefare influence on Nabit and perhaps on Toende Kusaal too 1.2.3. With the neighbouring southern language, Mampruli, the issue is further complicated by the political history of the area 1.1, and by the fact that many local Mamprussi speak Kusaal rather than Mampruli, but some likely loanwords are identifiable. However, most loanwords in Kusaal 18.1 come from the two other languages most widely spoken within the Kusaasi area itself: Mooré and Hausa.

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

Most identifiable loanwords in Kusaal come from Hausa. The major centres of Hausa are in northern Nigeria and in Niger; it is the largest African language after Arabic by number of first-language speakers and is used by millions more as a lingua franca in the savanna zone of West Africa. In northern Ghana it has strong associations with Islam and with trade; it is usually a good guess to use Hausa to greet a stranger wearing Muslim dress. Hausa is an Afro-Asiatic language of the Chadic family, and is thus remotely related to Arabic and Hebrew but completely unrelated genetically to Kusaal; nevertheless, in matters of idiom, semantic range and even the kinds of distinctions encoded in its syntax and morphology, it shows numerous resemblances to its Niger-Congo neighbours. There are many ethnic Hàusàawaa in the Kusaasi area, especially in Bawku, but the language which has influenced Kusaal is the vehicular Gaanancii of northern Ghana. Though mutually intelligible with Standard (Kano) Hausa, Gaanancii among other differences lacks
gender, uses [z] for [ $\overline{d 3}$ ], monophthongises diphthongs, and drops the distinction between the glottalic consonants and their plain counterparts: for example, Standard Hausa Kin jì kôo? "Do you understand?" (addressing a woman) becomes Kaa zì kôo? Such features are largely the result of simplification by second-language speakers, rather than characteristic of Western Hausa dialects. ${ }^{3}$ Kusaal has far fewer Hausa loans than Dagbani or Mampruli, probably due to a much slighter exposure to Islam. (The Dagomba royal clan has been Muslim for centuries, though most Dagomba people are still, like the Kusaasi, adherents of traditional African beliefs and customs.) The use of Mooré alongside Hausa as an interethnic language in the far north of Ghana is probably also a factor.

The other major lingua francas of Ghana, Twi/Fante ("Akan") and English, have contributed comparatively little to Kusaal to date. In the mid 1990's few people outside Bawku were very proficient in either language unless they had been to school or lived in the south of the country, and very few native speakers of those languages can speak Kusaal. Perhaps 5-10\% of patients attending our clinics in Bawku at that time could communicate in English well enough for the purposes of medical consultation; the majority were most comfortable with Kusaal, with Hausa and Mooré about equal in second place, in both cases often as vehicular languages rather than mother tongues. ${ }^{4}$

As throughout the West African savanna, there are nomadic Fulbe in the Kusaasi area, chiefly engaged in cattle-raising. Traditional cataract surgery ("couching") is a Fulbe speciality in this region; the payment asked for is often a cow. There seems to be no evidence of borrowing from Fulfulde; nagge, plural na'i "cow" strikingly resembles Kusaal náaf ${ }^{\circ}\left(\leftarrow\right.$ *nāágfū) plural nïgí ${ }^{+}$, but this cannot be a loan into Kusaal itself, because the word and its distinctive flexion can be reconstructed to a stage prior to the Western Oti-Volta protolanguage (cf Buli nááb pl niígā.)
3) The far-western dialect of Ader in Niger (Caron 1991) has grammatical gender, though this is lacking in the eastern Hausa of Zaria and Bauchi (Caron 2013) which nevertheless still use feminine pronouns for female persons. Even in Nigeria, Hausa as an interethnic language lacks grammatical gender: I was once actually corrected by a Hausa mother-tongue speaker in Nigeria for using grammatical gender, on the grounds that it sounded unnatural in the speech of a foreigner.
4) I once communicated (after a fashion) with a patient via three intermediaries, the last of whom, a colleague, translated between Mooré and English for me. None of my colleagues could even identify the patient's language. The "middle" language was Dyula, a Mande language which is itself an important West African lingua franca; it is part of a dialect continuum which also includes Bambara, Maninka and Mandinka.

### 1.3 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 2.3.
$y$ represents [j]; kp gb represent [ kp ] [gb].
Between vowels within a word $k t p \eta$ are realised as [k:] [t:] [p:] [מ:] in very deliberate speech.

The vowel symbols a $\varepsilon$ כ $i u$ have IPA values, while $\iota v$ represent [ I [ [ v ] respectively. The allophony [I]~[i] and [ $\quad] \sim[\mathrm{u}]$ seen in non-root syllables 4.3 is ignored, only $\iota v$ being used. The symbols e o always represent [r] [ $\mho$ ]; they are used instead of $\iota v$ only as non-initial elements of diphthongs 4.2.3 and for the 3sg animate pronoun $o[\mho]$ along with the [ $\mho$ ] mora which precedes it in Liaison, which is written - 2.3.2.

|  | di'e | "receive" | [did] |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | pāe | "reach" | [phar] |
|  | bēog | "tomorrow" | [bعvg] |
|  | kpīon | "strong" | [kpion $]$ |
| but | dāog | "male" | [davg] |
|  | ò biig | "her child" | [vbi:g] |
|  | zū-ó | "steal him" | [zuv] |
|  | dà'•ò | "bought for him" | [daṽ] |

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

| gbàun | "book" | [gbaơn] |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| sj̄eñ | "witch" | [sว๊̃̃] |
| 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 $u$ ) other than $\underset{\sim}{i}$ :

| dà' | "buy" | [da] |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| dà'a | "market" | [da:] |
| kù'өm | "water" | [ $\mathrm{k}^{\mathrm{h}} \mathrm{\sim}_{\text {em m }}$ |
| pu'ā | "woman" | [phona] |
| dìā' | "get dirty" | [dİa] |

Nasalisation of vowels and diphthongs is marked by $\underset{\sim}{n}$ following the entire vowel or diphthong unless it is also glottalised, in which case the $\underset{\sim}{n}$ precedes the ' mark; $n \underset{\sim}{n}$ also precedes the raised dot of $\cdot 0$.

| tદ̄¢ñs | "lands" | [ ${ }^{\text {n}}$ z$\left.: s\right]$ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| ánsìb | "mother's brother" [ãsib] |  |
| $g \varepsilon \sim_{\sim}$ | "get tired" | [gz̃] |
| gēn' | "get angry" | [g̃̃] |
| gēñ' ${ }^{\text {d }}$ | id (dipf) | [gz̃: d$]$ |
| àn ${ }_{\sim}$ O. | "be him/her" | [ãõ] |

After initial $y$ or $w$ nasalisation is instead marked with $\underset{\sim}{n}$ before the $y$ or $w$ :
ñwām
"calabash" [w̃ãm]

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

| pìalıg | "white" | [ $p^{\text {hizlig] }}$ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| bū'өs | "ask" | [buess] |
| tiàk | "change" | [t' ${ }_{\text {In }}$ ak] |
| pūāk | "female" | [phorak] |
| kpià ${ }^{\prime}$ | "shape wood" | [kpıa |
| kià | "cut" | [ $\mathrm{K}^{\mathrm{h}} \mathrm{I}_{\text {a }}$ ] |

Contrast the phonemic diphthongs in e.g.

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

### 1.3.1 Written Materials

Written materials are cited in their original orthography; differences from the working orthography of this grammar are discussed below.

Tone is not marked. Groups of words hyphenated in this grammar are written solid, and the raised dot symbol • is replaced by word division 2.3.

The clusters II mm nn are very often written single prior to 2016.
KSS uses $n g$ throughout for $\eta$.
Older orthography writes e ofor $\varepsilon \nu, i$ 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 = biïg "child."

Word-final short -ı after $m n$ is usually written $\varepsilon$ in KB: p $\quad$ bane for $p \bar{\varepsilon}^{\prime}$-báni "sheep which ..." Mk 6:34; so in all cases with the relative pronouns one kane line bane 31.2.2 and with anכ'כnع "who?" before Liaison.

The root-vowel is consistently written as e in KB in the words ye "that" ten "land" keך "go" (base) ken "go" (dipf) for y $\bar{\varepsilon} t \bar{\varepsilon} \eta ~ k \bar{\varepsilon} \eta ~ k \bar{n} n$, 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 manŋa = mē "self."

The demonstrative and pronoun forms j̄n/ว́n/خ̀n خ̀pā are written on oŋa.

As in this grammar, e o are used non-initially in diphthongs for [r] [ $\mho$ ]. The phonemic monophthongs iə ue are written respectively as ie uo:

| pielig | pìlıg | "white" | [phiəlıg] |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| bu'os | bü'өs | "ask" | [bues] |

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 8.5.3:

| di'e | dī'e | "receive" | [diı] |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| zu o | zū•ó | "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", sv'oe = sū'e "own."

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

Traditional orthography uses e iu for non-moraic ei u and thus does not mark length in diphthongs consistently, but this is largely predictable 4.2.3, and the most important distinction is expressed by writing aae (or aaع) for ae versus ae for ae:
paae pāe "reach" [phar]

Word-medially, ambiguity remains only with aun

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

KB uses both au and au, spelling each individual word consistently, but not as marking any length distinction: thus yaug "grave" for yàug, but na'araug "ox" for nā'-dáv̀g; dau for dāu "man" but tavn for tāuñ "sibling of opposite sex."
ia ua do not occur medially, but ambiguity with ia ua is possible word-finally:

| kia | kià | "cut" | [ $\mathrm{k}^{\mathrm{h}} \mathrm{I}_{\text {a }}{ }^{\text {a }}$ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| sia | sīa | "waist" | [sia] |
| kua | kūā | "hoe" | [ $\mathrm{k}^{\text {² }}$ a] |
| sabua | sàbùa | "lover" | [sabua] |

These are the only examples in my data of unglottalised final ia ua, and the convention that ' is not written after $i$ when it represents $\underset{j}{ }$ disambiguates e.g

| kpi'a | kpi'a+ | "neighbour" | [Kpiad |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| kpia' | kpià' ${ }^{+}$ | "shape wood" | [kpıa] |

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

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

NT/KB write -ey- in Long Forms 2.2 corresponding to Short Forms where final $-y$ has become -e: vveya = vōyá Long Form of vūe "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 quite often written e:
sa(n)rega sārıgá "prison"

The 2016 orthography writes bieya for biēyá "elder same-sex siblings" etc, but suoya for sūēyá "roads", zuoya for zuēeya "hills" etc by analogy with the singulars. suor sūөr and zuor zūөr. Older sources write sueya, zueya.

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

| terns | tદ̄¢ñs | "lands" | [tn $\tilde{\varepsilon}: s]$ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| $g \varepsilon n^{\prime}$ | gēñ' | "get angry" | [g̃̃] |
| gen'ed | gēñ' $\frac{1}{}$ | id (dipf) | [gẽ:d] |
| nwam | ñwām | "calabash" | [w̃ãm] |

As prefix 14 vowels show no contrastive nasalisation 4.4, $n$ 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 $n$ :

| $k \varepsilon n$ (older kenn) | $k \bar{\varepsilon} n$ | "come" | (base) |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| $k \varepsilon n$ (older ken) | $k \bar{\varepsilon} n$ | "coming" (gerund) | $\left[k^{h} \tilde{\varepsilon}\right]$ |
|  | $\left[k^{h} \varepsilon n\right]$ |  |  |

Some NT/KB spellings represent variant forms different from those used by my informants; the words in question are probably loans from Toende Kusaal 18.1.

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

Wínà'am fāañ̃gíd fāañ̃gír are used when transliterating Bible verses. Fāañgíd fāangír have become independent words, used to avoid the homophony with fāand "robber" and fáañr "robbery."

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

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

Traditional word division differs somewhat from that adopted in this grammar. Beside the issues discussed in 2.3, focus- $n \bar{\varepsilon}^{+/}$is always written solid after à(n) from àen $n^{\text {a }}$ "be", and aspectual $n \bar{\varepsilon}^{+/}$is usually written solid with a preceding verb:
$O$ anc biig.
"He/she's a child."
Ò à n̄ bï̈g.
3AN COP FOC child:sg.

Bipun la po kpii, o gbisidne.
Bī-pún lā pū kpíi ${ }^{+} \varnothing$, ò gbìsıd n $\bar{\varepsilon}$.
Child-girl:sg art neg.ind die neg, zan sleep:dipf foc.
"The girl is not dead, she is sleeping." (Mt 9:24)
$N \bar{\varepsilon}$ "with" is written solid after $w \bar{\varepsilon} n^{n a / ~ " r e s e m b l e ": ~}$

Ka o nindaa wenne nintan ne.
Kà ò nīn-dáa w $\bar{n}$ n $n \bar{\varepsilon}$ 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 n $\bar{\varepsilon}$ appears as nwene: Ka o nindaa nwene winnig ne.
Texts sometimes mistake the stressed 2.4 final syllable of a Long Form 2.2 for a segmentally homophonous particle; this is rare in KB , however.

O ku nyane liebi m nya'andol la.

3AN neg.irr prevail ser become $\mathbf{1 S g}$ after-follower:sg neg.
"He cannot become my disciple." (Lk 14:26, 1996; 2016 nya'andっlla.)

Arezana ne dunia gaadvg po toi yaa
Àrazánà $n \bar{\varepsilon}$ dūnıya gáadòg pō tכ̄yá ${ }^{+} \varnothing$.
Heaven with world passing neg.ind be.difficult neg.
"The passing of heaven and earth is not difficult" (Lk 16:17, 2016)

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.

### 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 2.2), a feature shared with Nabit and Talni. (Clause-medial loss or reduction of word-final vowels is in contrast extremely common throughout the group.) Thus where Mooré has the citation form bíiga "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 bien $\leftarrow$ Latin bene; the Kusaal final vowel is still present in certain contexts. For example, it reappears clause-finally when the clause contains a negation or ends a question, with the final word appearing as a Long Form (LF):

```
O à n\overline{\varepsilon}}\mathrm{ bï̈g.
3AN COP FOC child:sg.
```

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

```
O à n\overline{\varepsilon}}\mathrm{ biigàa +ø? "Is he/she a child?"
3AN COP FOC child:SG PQ?
```

So too at the end of vocative phrases:

```
M bïiga +ø! "My child!"
1SG child:Sg voc!
```

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

Lì kā' gbīgımne ${ }^{+} \varnothing$. "It's not a lion."
binan 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 8.1, which have no segmental form of their own but show their presence by this effect on the preceding
word form. There are three different Prosodic Clitics, Negative neg, Vocative voc and Interrogative ( $\mathbf{P Q} / \mathbf{C Q}$ ), with different effects on preceding vowel length and tone. With interlinear glossing they are represented by ${ }^{+} \varnothing$, as above.

In citing word forms, superscripts $\underline{2.2 .1}$ will be used to write the parts of words which are dropped everywhere except before Prosodic Clitics and Liaison: biiga ${ }^{\text {a }}$ "child", gbīgımn ${ }^{\text {ne }}$ "lion", $k \bar{u} k^{a}$ "chair", dūk ${ }^{\jmath /}$ "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

## vïidé

"owls"
usually appears with Apocope as the Short Form viid with the same long vowel as biïs "children", shortened from biïse, while the singular Long Form

```
vīugó "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

```
vīug "owl"
```

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

```
āañdıga "black plum tree"
```

has the default epenthetic vowel ı before the flexion, and appears as āañ ${ }_{\sim}$ ıg after Apocope, whereas

```
gàadvgo
"passing" (gerund)
```

has rounding of the vowel to $v$ before the flexion $-g 0$, and after the loss of the final vowel this rounding itself becomes contrastive in the usual Short Form gàadvg.

Certain Liaison Words 8.2.1 cause a preceding word to appear, not as the usual clause-medial Short Form, but as a Long Form modified by the loss of all original vowel quality contrasts in the final mora. All non-contrastive personal pronouns fall into this category, for example:

| $\dot{M} p \bar{u} \quad b$ b́כdā ${ }^{+} \varnothing$. 1SG NEG.IND want NEG. | "I don't want to." <br> Long Form bj̀כdā preceding Negative Clitic. |
| :---: | :---: |
| M ${ }^{\text {a }}$ bóvdī_bá. | "I love them." |
| 1sG want 3PL.OB. | Modified Long Form bj̀دdī before Liaison. |
| M $p \bar{u} \quad z a ́ b \bar{\varepsilon}{ }^{+} \varnothing$. | "I haven't fought." |
| 1SG NEG.IND fight neg. | Long Form zàbs̄ 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 _, as above.
Apocope reduces several Liaison Words of the underlying form $C V$ to a single consonant. Thus with bj̀ $d^{\mathrm{a}}$ "wants, loves" and $f^{\rho}$ "you (sg)":

M̀ pū bj́วdī_f́ $\quad+\varnothing$. "I don't love you."
1SG Neg.ind want 2sG.ob neg. Long Form fo of the pronoun "you (sg)"

M̀ bj́כdī $f$. "I love you."
$\mathbf{1 S G}$ want 2SG.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 ${ }^{+} \varnothing$. "It's not a chair."
zinan neg.be chair:sg neg.

Lì kā' kūkı-né $\quad+\varnothing$. "It's not in a chair."
binan neg.be chair:sg-loc neg.
kūkı-n
chair:sG-Loc

Lì kā' dūkj́ ${ }^{+} \varnothing$. "It's not a pot."
binan neg.be pot:sg neg.

Lì $k \bar{a}^{\prime} \quad d \bar{u} k i ́-n \bar{\varepsilon} \quad{ }^{+} \varnothing$. "It's not in a pot."
binan neg.be pot:sg-loc neg.

```
dūkí-n
    "in a pot"
pot:SG-LOC
```

The 3sg animate object pronoun 0 "him/her" has the Long Form o [ $\mho$ ] 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 [ $\mho$ ], which is always written (with a preceding raised point) as $\cdot \circ$. Compare the forms with $f$ "you (sg)"

```
M pū bכ́כdī_fó + ø. "I don't love you."
1SG NEG.IND want 2SG.OB NEG.
```


with the forms with ${ }^{\circ}$ "him/her":



A Liaison Word form ${ }^{\mathrm{ya}}$ 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 2.2:

```
Gう̀sım! "Look!"
```

Look:IMP!
Gう̀sımī ø!
"Look ye!" by Apocope from gj̀sımī-yá
Look:IMP 2PL.sUB!

Liaison words are not all enclitic. Personal pronouns used as subjects or as proclitic determiners of a following noun or postposition also cause this inhibition of Apocope in the preceding word, as does one proclitic particle of the form à and all words beginning with certain derivational prefixes 8.2.2.

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

```
m̀ zūgú_\varnothing zàbıd lā zúg
1SG head:sG comp fight:DIPF ART upon
"because my head hurts" (Complementiser ǹ)
M zūgv_ \varnothing zábìd. "My head hurts." (Serialiser n)
1SG head:sg SER fight:DIPF.
```

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

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

Kusaal differs from most local languages in showing contrastive glottalisation of vowels; however, this feature is shared among Western-Oti Volta languages with neighbouring Nabit, Talni and Farefare 4.2.2.

Agolle Kusaal shows a systematic mismatch between phonetics and phonemics in the vowel system, because of Agolle Vowel Breaking 4.1.1 of earlier short and long $\varepsilon$ ว vowels, still preserved as phonetic monophthongs in the Toende Dialect. This has produced four monophthongal phonemes ia ua iə ue which are realised phonetically as diphthongs; as in the traditional orthography they are written in accordance with the realisation, but the orthography is to be regarded for phonemic purposes as using digraphs to write monophthongs. On top of these complications, Kusaal has developed an elaborate and asymmetrical system of phonemic diphthongs from fusion of vowels following deletion of intervocalic ${ }^{*} g$ and from the final fronting and rounding effects already mentioned; these processes all remain active in the morphophonemics.

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

There is a frequent tone overlay 22.6.1.1 affecting Verbal Predicators in main clauses, and pervasive tone sandhi phenomena, one only affecting nominals and
adverbs in certain Noun Phrase or postpositional constructions 8.4, and one which occurs regardless of syntax after most unbound words 8.3.

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 5.3.1.

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

| dỉ'əsídìb | "receivers" |
| :--- | :--- |
| bāpıdıb | "wise men" |
| gbīgımne | "lion" (longer form, as above) |
| áñìb | "mother's brother" |

The only consonant clusters possible within stems following the root are $k k t t$ מף $n n m m / I m n$, of which $k k t t p p$ מף are written and usually realised as single. Consonant clusters cannot occur word-initially or finally, except for final geminate -mm in Long Forms 8.1 (including "Apocope-Blocked" 6.4 forms like the quantifier $p a \overline{m m}$ "a lot") where there has been loss of syllabicity in an originally syllabic final $m$. (On $k p g b \underset{\sim}{n}$ ' see the note on orthography above.)

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

$$
\begin{array}{ll}
\text { pīpīrıg } & \text { "desert" } \\
\text { dìndēog } & \text { "chameleon" }
\end{array}
$$

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

Flexional suffixes have only a three-way vowel contrast $a / \iota / v$; this is also true of prefixes. Flexional suffix vowels are lost by Apocope in the surface Short Forms; when they are retained before Prosodic Clitics, $\iota v$ appear lowered to $\varepsilon$. Many different two-member consonant clusters may occur across word division because of the deletion of word-final short vowels by Apocope:

Gbīgım lā dāa kūod bún lā.
Lion:sG ART tns kill:dIPF donkey:sg art.


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

Flexion is entirely by suffixing. Productive stem derivation is also effectively all suffixal. Nominal stem prefixes do not usually have identifiable meanings and are not involved in regular derivational processes, but derivational prefixes derived from older flexions do occur in some quantifiers and adverbs 16.2.1 17.

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

| bīig | "child" | bīis | "children" |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| būטg | "goat" | būos | "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" |
| $t \bar{\varepsilon} \eta$ | "land" | tह̄عñs | "lands" |

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

| bōog ${ }^{\text {a }}$ "goat" | + pìlıg ${ }^{\text {a }}$ "white" | $\rightarrow$ bù-pìəlıg ${ }^{\text {a }}$ | "white goat" |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| bōoga "goat" | + si'a+ "another" | $\rightarrow$ bù-si'a+ | "another goat" |
| $k \bar{k} k^{\text {a }}$ "chair" | + pìalıg ${ }^{\text {a }}$ "white" | $\rightarrow$ kùg-pìlıg ${ }^{\text {a }}$ | "white chair" |
| $k u ̄ k^{\text {a }}$ "chair" | + kà $\mathrm{a}^{+/}$"this" | $\rightarrow$ kùg-kànā+/ | "this chair" |

In this grammar compounds are hyphenated, as above.

In most Gur languages the noun classes form a grammatical gender system, with pronoun and adjective agreement. Kusaal, like most other Western Oti-Volta languages, has abandoned grammatical gender in favour of a natural animate/inanimate gender opposition. Noun classes remain central to nominal morphology, with a few fossilised traces of agreement.

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

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

| $k \overline{0}^{+}$ | perfective | "kill" ( ${ }^{\text {m }}$ means that the vowel is long in the LF) |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| kūod ${ }^{\text {a/ }}$ | imperfective |  |
| ${ }_{\sim}^{n} y \bar{\varepsilon}^{+}$ | perfective | "see" |
| $n{ }_{\sim} y \bar{\varepsilon} t^{\text {a/ }}$ | imperfective |  |
| $v \bar{u} \\|^{\varepsilon}$ | perfective | "swallow" |
| $v o ̄ n^{\text {na/ }}$ | imperfective |  |

Variable Verbs also have an imperative flexion $-m^{a}$, appearing only in positive polarity when the verb carries the tone overlay of Independency Marking (see below.)
"Invariable Verbs" typically express body positions, relationships, or predicative adjectival senses. They have only a single finite form, which has either descriptive 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 mう̀r búp.
3an have donkey:sg.

Ò gìm.
3AN be.short.

There are two verbs "to be": bè "exist, be in a place" and àen "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 $e \underset{e}{ }$ and the nasalisation:

```
Ò à n\overline{\varepsilon}}\mathrm{ bïig. "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 $k a \overline{ }$ ' clause-medially:
Ò kā' bīiga ${ }^{+} \varnothing . \quad$ "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:

| $k u \bar{u} b^{\prime /}$ | "killing" |
| :---: | :---: |
| kōod ${ }^{\text {a/ }}$ | "killer" |
| kūodín ${ }^{\text {a }}$ | "killing implement" |

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

Syntactically, Kusaal is quite representative of Gur in general. It is strictly SVO, with indirect objects preceding direct objects:
$\grave{M}$ tís dự'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 $w \bar{v} v$ "like" ( $n \bar{\varepsilon}$ also links NPs and some AdvPs in the sense "and", but kà is "and" when linking VPs and clauses.)
However, in other respects Kusaal prefers head-final structures, with possessors, for example, always preceding their heads:
m̀ bïig
dāun lā bîg
Adverbs often appear as postpositions preceded by NP determiners:

```
t\varepsiloń\varepsilonbòl lā zúg "onto the table" (zūg "head")
```

The Liaison Word $n^{\varepsilon}$ mentioned above is a very general locative postposition. It too is here hyphenated to the preceding word, and in its Short Form is reduced to $n$ :

```
mù'arī-n
"in a lake" (mù'ar\varepsilon "lake", Long Form)
lake:sG-loc
```

The verb is preceded by proclitic particles expressing tense, mood and polarity. There is no agreement with any Noun Phrase, whether for person or number [see 28.2.3 for a marginal exception for some speakers]:

Gbīgım lā dāa kū búp lā.
Lion:sg ART tns kill donkey:sg ART.
"The lion killed the donkey."

Gbīgım lā dāa pū kū bún láa ${ }^{+} \varnothing$.
Lion:sg art tns neg.ind kill donkey:sg art neg.
"The lion didn't kill the donkey."

Gbīgıma lā dāa kū bún lā.
Lion:PL ART tns kill donkey:sg art.
"The lions killed the donkey."

Gbīgım lā sá kù bún lā.
Lion:sg ART tns kill donkey:sg ART.
"The lion killed the donkey yesterday."

M̀ dāa ny $y \bar{\varepsilon}$ gbīgım lā. "I saw the lion."
1SG TNS see lion:SG ART.

Bà dāa ñy $\bar{\varepsilon}$ gbīgım lā. "They saw the lion."
3PLTNs see lion:Sg ART.

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

```
Nīdıb kpîld. "People die."
Person:PL die:DIPF.
```

Nīdıb kpîd $n \bar{\varepsilon}$. $\quad$ "People are dying."
Person:PL die:DIPF Foc.

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

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

M̀ dāa kúès bòno_ $\varnothing$ tís dư'átà.
1Sg tns sell donkey:sg ser give doctor:sg.
"I sold a donkey to Doctor."

Kusaal is interesting in that the Verbal Predicate is specifically marked not for subordination but for its absence. Main clauses and Content Clauses have
Independency Marking 22.6 of the first Verbal Predicator, marked by a tone overlay affecting the first word of the Predicator, by the tonal behaviour of subject pronouns, a special imperative flexion and a particle yā which follows clause-final perfectives. The tone overlay marker is absent in negative polarity or Irrealis Mood and with various preverbal particles. Independency Marking itself is completely absent after the clause linker particle kà even in coordinating function in narrative:
Ò zàb dư'átà.
3AN fight doctor:SG.
Ò gj̀s 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 the different tones on the verbs in

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 gว̄s dư'átāa $+\varnothing$ !
NEG.IMP look.at doctor:SG NEG!
"Don't look at the doctor!" (Overlay absent with the negative)

| but | Ġ̀sı dự'átà! |
| :--- | :--- |
| 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' bj̀دd, m̀ ná tīsıff búg.
2SG if want, 1sG IRR give 2sG.ob donkey:sG.
"If you want, I'll give you a donkey."

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

Clauses are often downranked by insertion of the complementiser particle $\dot{n}$ (realised often as segmental $\varnothing$ ) after the subject:
gbīgım lá_ $\varnothing$ kū bún $\quad$ "the lion having killed the donkey"
lion:sG ART COMP kill donkey:sg ART

Relative clauses show a number of interesting features. They are internallyheaded; one type has the incorporated antecedent non-initially, e.g.

$$
\text { [Paul ǹ sj̄b gbáung-sīa } n \text { tís Efesus dím lā] Ø nuná. }
$$

Paul comp write letter-indf.inan ser give Ephesus one.plart ser this.
"This is [the letter Paul wrote to the Ephesians]." (NT heading)
where gbàun-si'a is gbàun "book" compounded with the post-determining pronoun s $\upharpoonright$ 'a which marks it as antecedent, and the entire sequence Paul ... lā is the relative clause. The "complementiser" is not the pronoun but the particle $\grave{n}$ (tonally distinct from Serialiser $n$ ) which follows the subject, so that the functions of a relative pronoun are here formally divided into two separate parts. Kusaal has, however, also developed an antecedent-initial relative clause type where the complementiser has fused with a preceding demonstrative to form a relative pronoun:
dàù-kànı pư'ā kpí lā "the man whose wife has died"
man-Rel.sG wife:sG die ART

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

```
Li à nē gbīgım lá kà m̀ nyc̄t.
3INAN COP FOC lion:sG ART and 1SG see:DIPF.
"It's the lion I see."
```

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

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

Apuzotyel da ane o saam biig ma'aa. Ka daar yinni ka biig la ne o saam zin'i sonsid. Ka biig la ti yel o saam ye ...
À-Pū-zót-ȳ̄l dá à né ò sàam bîg mà'aa.
PERS-NEG.IND-fear:DIPF-thing:SG tNS COP FOC 3AN father:SG child:SG only.
Kà dāar yīnní kà bīig lā né ò sàam zíñ'íø sכ̄ñ̃sıd. And day:sG one and child:sG ART with 3AN father:sg sit SER converse:DIPF. Kà bïig lā tí yह̀l ò sàam ȳ̄...
And child:SG ART afterwards say 3AN father:sg that...
"Fears-nothing was his father's only son. [And] one day the son and father were sitting talking. [And] then the son said to his father ..." KSS p35

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

3AN say that 3AN.cntr see lion:sg.
"He said that he (himself) saw a lion."

Ò y ỳl yદ́ ò ny $y$ g̀ gbīgım.
3AN say that 3an see lion:sg.
"He said that he (someone else) saw a lion."

Dau da be mori o po'a yimmir, ka po'a la ye on pu lem bood ye o sid la di po'a ya'ase.
Dāu dá bè_ ø mōrí_ò pư'à-yīmmír, kà pư'ā lā yé
Man:sg tns exist ser have 3AN wife-single:sg and wife:sG ART say
う̄n pū lém bj̀วd yर́ ò sīd lā dí pư'ā yá'as ${ }^{+}{ }^{+} \varnothing$.
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 are common; they have given rise to ellipted structures using $n$ for focussing subjects and kà for foregrounding other elements:

Gbīgımı $\varnothing$ kūטd bún lā.
Lion:sG SER kill:DIPF donkey:sG ART.
"A lion is killing the donkey."

M zūgu_ø zábìd. "My head is hurting."
1SG head SER fight:DIPF.
(Reply to "Where is the pain?")

Gbīgím kà m̀ dāa ñy $\bar{\sim}$. $\quad$ "It was a lion that I saw."
Lion:sg and 1sg tws see.

These patterns derive by ellipsis of $L \grave{i}$ à $n \bar{\varepsilon}$ "It is ..." before a serial-verb construction or before a Supplement Clause respectively.

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

Fò bój̀d bó ${ }^{+}$?
$\mathbf{2 S G}$ want what cQ

Bó kà fò ny ñtá ${ }^{+} \varnothing$ ? "What can you see?"

Gbīgıma_álá kà fù ny $\bar{\sim}$ ह̄tá $+\varnothing$ ?
Lion:PL Num:how.many and 2SG see:IPVF ca?
"How many lions can you see?"

Ànó'כnì_ ø kū bún lā ${ }^{+} \varnothing$ ?
Who ser kill donkey:sg art ca?
"Who has killed the donkey?"

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

1SG.CNTR EXIST FOC grass:SG-LOC.
or Mj̄əgú-n kà mām bé. "I'm in the bush." BNY p10
Grass:sg-loc and 1sG.cntr exist.
not
*Mכ̄コgú-n mām bé.
"I'm in the bush."

The particle $n \bar{\varepsilon}$ seen in several of the above examples interacts with verb Aspect, but may also focus either VP constituents or the entire VP 33.1.2. The rules determining its rôle in each case admit some ambiguity, but the aspectual meaning is normally preferred whenever it is syntactically and semantically possible 22.2.

## Morphophonemics

## 2 Words, Morae and Syllables

### 2.1 Word Classes

The open word classes comprise Verbs and Nominals, the latter subdivided into Nouns and Adjectives. There are closed classes of Quantifiers and Adverbs, along with Pronouns, Proquantifiers and Proadverbs. Pronouns used as postdeterminers behave like Adjectives, following a head noun which appears as a Combining Form, forming a compound in which the last element inflects to show the number of the head 19.6. Ideophones are treated in 19.8.1.3.

All other words are Particles. Most particles are bound words; exceptions include $\bar{\varepsilon} \varepsilon n n_{n}$ "yes" and áyìı "no." Particles include the article $I^{+}+/$and the deictic ñwà ${ }^{+}$ "this", the locative marker $n \bar{\iota}^{+/ \sim} \sim n^{\varepsilon}$, the prepositions $n \bar{\varepsilon}$ "with" and $w \bar{v} v$ "like" 21, particle-verbs and markers of tense, aspect and mood in Verbal Predicators 22, the focus particle $n \bar{\varepsilon}^{+/}$, the clause linkers kà and $y \bar{\varepsilon}$, the complementiser $\grave{n}$, the serial-VP linker $n$, VP-final $n \bar{a}^{+/}$""hither" and sà ${ }^{+}$"hence", and a number of clause-level words such as Conjunctions 27.1.3 and Emphatics 33.6.

### 2.2 Apocope

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

For example, "child" appears as the Short Form 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:

$$
\text { Ò à n } n \text { है bïg. } \quad \text { "She's a child." }
$$

3AN COP FOC child:sg.

Ò dāa ny $\begin{aligned} & \bar{\varepsilon} \text { bïig. } \\ & \text { 3AN tns see child:sg. }\end{aligned}=$ "She saw a child."
bīig lā nú'ùg "the child's hand"
child:sG ART hand:sG

The Long Form (here, biiga) 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 ${ }^{+} \varnothing$. "He/she is not a child."
3AN neg.be child:sg neg.

Ò dāa pū nȳ̄ bïiga ${ }^{+}$Ø.
3AN tns neg.Ind see child:sg neg.
"He/she did not see a child."

Àn'́'כnì $\varnothing$ dāa ñ̃ȳ bíigà ${ }^{+} \varnothing$ ?
Who sertns see child:sg ca?
"Who saw a child?"

M̀ bïiga +ø! "My child!"
1SG child:sg voc!

The Long Form also appears as a derivational feature in the citation form of some words 6.4. In proverbs and other archaic materials, a LF may be found ending a yà'-clause 8.1.1 30. Direct commands sometimes end in a LF 28.2.3.

The LF is not predictable in general from the shape of the SF alone (but see 2.2.2); however, the SF is always deducible 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 kt p but are written single in any case 1.3)
Word-final $y$ becomes e after short back vowels and zero elsewhere

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

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { ia } \rightarrow \text { ia ua } \rightarrow \text { una ia'a } \rightarrow i a^{\prime} \quad \text { ú'aa } \rightarrow \text { un'a }^{\prime} \\
& \text { ae } \rightarrow \text { ae } \quad \text { av } \rightarrow \text { aù } u i \rightarrow u i \\
& \text { Vaa } \rightarrow \text { Va Vee } \rightarrow \text { Ve Vov } \rightarrow \text { Vu }
\end{aligned}
$$

The term "Apocope" will be used throughout this grammar to refer exclusively to this specific phenomenon. It is treated descriptively as a single process, but historically the matter was certainly more complex; comparison with other Western Oti-Volta languages and internal evidence both suggest that loss of final vowel quality contrasts preceded complete vowel deletion clause-internally. Clause-internal total deletion (seen also in Mooré) was probably itself a stress-related process distinct from the clause-final Apocope characteristic of Kusaal, Nabit and Talni.

Examples:

Lì à n $\bar{\varepsilon} k \bar{k} k$. "It's a chair."
IINAN COP FOC chair:SG.

Kūk lā bódìg yā.
Chair:sg ART get.lost pfv.

Lì kā' kūka. ${ }^{+} \varnothing$. "It's not a chair."
binan neg.be chair:sg neg.

Lì à n $\bar{\varepsilon}$ kúkàa ${ }^{+} \varnothing$ ? "Is it a chair?"
IINAN COP FOC chair:SG PQ?

Ànó'כnì_ Ø ny $\begin{gathered} \\ \varepsilon\end{gathered}$ kúkà $^{+} \varnothing$ ? "Who saw a chair?"
Who ser 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 dūkóכ?
Ànó'כnì ny $\begin{gathered} \\ \text { dū } \\ \text { kó? }\end{gathered}$

Lì à $n \bar{\varepsilon}$ gbīgım.
Lì kā' gbīgımne.
Lì à nē gbígìmnes?
Ànó'כnì ñy $\bar{\varepsilon}$ gbígìmne?

Lì à n $\bar{\varepsilon}$ yáarìm.
Lì kā' yáarīmm.
Lì à nē yáarìmm?
Ànว́'כnì nyē yáarìmm?
"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?"

Bà à $n \bar{\varepsilon}$ gbīgıma.
Bà kā' gbīgımaa.
Bà à nē gbígımàa?
Ànó'วnì ny $\varepsilon$ gbígımà?

Ò̀ à nē dāu.
Ò kā' dāv.
Ò à nē dáv̀u?
Ànó'วnì nyē dáv?

Ò à $n \bar{\varepsilon}$ sāen ${ }^{2}$.
Ò kā' sāeñ.
Ò à n $n \overline{\text { sáèeñ? }}$
Ànכ́'כnì ny $\bar{\sim}$ sáen?

Lì à nē múi.
Lì kā' múí.
Lì à $n \bar{\varepsilon}$ múii?
Ànó'כnì nyē múi?

With verbal forms:

Kà ò siáák.
And 3AN agree.

Ò pū síák $\bar{\varepsilon}{ }^{+} \varnothing$.
3AN NEG.IND agree NEG.

Kà ò dīgı.
And 3AN be.lying.

Ò pū dīgıyá ${ }^{+} \varnothing$.
3AN neg.ind be.lying neg.

Kà ò vōe.
Ò pū vōyá.

Kà ò kūā.
Ò pū kūa.
"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?"
"And he agreed."
"He didn't agree."
"And she's lying down."
"She isn't lying down."

> "And she's alive."
> "She's not alive."
"And he farmed."
"He hasn't farmed."

| Kà ò kiá. | "And she cut (it)." |
| :--- | :--- |
| Ò pō Kía. | "She hasn't cut (it)." |
| Kà ò pāe. | "And he reached (it)." |
| Ò pō pāée. | "He hasn't reached (it)." |

The derivational type of Long Form appears in many adverbs and quantifiers. Thus with the Adjective bèdug "big" and the Adverb bèdugū "a lot":

```
Lì à n\overline{\varepsilon būn-b\varepsilońdòg. "It's a big thing."}
```

IINAN COP FOC thing-big:sG.

Lì kā' būn-bع́dugj̄ ${ }^{+} \varnothing$. "It's not a big thing."
binan neg.be thing-big:SG neg.

M̀ pú'ùs yā bédugū. "Thank you very much."
1sG greet PFV much.

### 2.2.1 Superscript Notation

The exact shape of a surface Long Form differs in different contexts: final vowel length may be neutralised; there may be tonal changes; lowering of final short $\iota \nu$ to $\varepsilon \supset$ is not seen in LFs used as derived forms, and so on.

Such differences are regarded as changes produced in the form of the Long Form by following particles. Clause-final LF types will be regarded as induced by following 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. The derivational LF types are taken as showing Apocope Blocking 6.4.

The Long Form is thus 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 type of clitic. For convenience, the LF form preceding the Negative Prosodic Clitic 8.1 will be taken as canonical. It shows underlying LF-final short $-\iota-v$ as $-\varepsilon-כ, *-m v *-m \iota$ as $-m m-m m$ and -iə -uө as -ia -ua 4.1.1; see below on tonemes.

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.

| biig $^{\text {a }}$ | "child" | $k \bar{u} k^{\text {a }}$ | "chair" |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| $d \bar{u} k^{3 /}$ | "pot" | siàk ${ }^{\text {d }}$ | "agree" |
| gbīgım ${ }^{\text {n }}$ | "lion" | yàarım ${ }^{\text {m }}$ | "salt" |
| dīgıya/ | "be lying down" | $z i ' y^{\text {ya }}$ | "be standing" |

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

| gbīgıma+ | "lions" | SF gbīgıma | LF gbīgımaa |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| mう̀ ${ }^{+}$ | "gazelles" | SF mうlı | LF mòīı |
| gวัก ${ }^{+}$ | "hunt" | SF gòn | LF gכ̄วn |
| tien ${ }^{+}$ | "inform" | SF tien | LF tiēen |
| kià ${ }^{+}$ | "cut" | SF kià | LF kīa |
| kuā ${ }^{+}$ | "hoe" | SF kuā | LF kūa |
| dāu ${ }^{+}$ | "man" | SF dāu | LF dāo |
| sāen ${ }^{+}$ | "blacksmith" | SF sāen | LF sāen |

(This use of ${ }^{+}$exploits the extent to which LFs can be predicted synchronically from SFs 2.2.2. More radical simplifications could be made: $+\varepsilon \mathrm{m}=0$ are in complementary distribution, as are ${ }^{\text {a ya. Separate symbols are used for clarity.) }}$

Superscript ${ }^{\text {a }}$ is written after a vowel symbol in two cases.
Words ending in LF ia'a ứ'aa are written with superscript ${ }^{\text {a }}$ rather than ${ }^{+}$to distinguish them from words ending in LF i'a u'a:

|  | kpià' ${ }^{+}$ | "shape wood" | SF kpinà | LF kpīa |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| but | diā'a | "get dirty" | SF dijā' | LF dịā'a |
|  | kuā+ | "hoe" | SF kūā | LF $k u ̄ a$ |
| but | $p u '{ }^{\text {a }}{ }^{\text {a }}$ | "woman" | SF pư'ā | LF pu'āa |

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

| $v \bar{e} e^{a /}$ | "be alive" | SF vūe | LF vōyá |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| $t \bar{j} e^{a /}$ | "be bitter" | SF t̄̄e | LF t̄̄yá |

Words with segmentally identical SF and LF and are written with ${ }^{\text {= }}$
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.)

The final M or H tone is realised on the rightmost vocalic mora of the LF; however, if a pitch rise would otherwise result within a single syllable, the first mora is delinked and the second toneme links to both morae 5.2; this process is tacitly assumed in Superscript Notation:

| fūug ${ }^{\text {/ }}$ | "shirt, clothes" | SF füug | LF füugó |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| $p \bar{a} e^{+/}$ | "reach" | SF pāe | LF pāée |
| nūa+/ | "hen" | SF nūa | LF nūáa |
| $y \overline{a b}^{+/}$ | "houses" | SF yā | LF yáa |
| $\overline{1 a}^{+/}$ | article 19.3 | SF 1 ā | LF láa |
| bèdugū+/ | "a lot" | SF bèdugū | LF bèdugóv |
| gāañ $=1$ | "Nigerian ebony" | SF gāan | LF gáañ |
| dāam ${ }^{\text {m/ }}$ | "millet beer" | SF dāam | LF dáamm |
| tāuñ ${ }^{+/}$ | "opposite-sex sib" | SF tāun | LF távon |
| mòl ${ }^{+}$ | "gazelles" | SF mj̀lı | LF mòlı̂ı |

If the sequence HM would result in one syllable, the M is delinked:

|  | Lì kā' yáarīmm. | "It's not salt (yàarım ${ }^{\text {m }}$ )." |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | Lì ká' ò tīımm. | "It's not her medicine." |
| but | Lì kā' tílmm. | "It's not medicine (tìmm)." |
|  | Li̇ ká' bà dā'a. | "It's not their market." |
| but | Lì kā' dá'a. | "It's not a market (dà'a=)." |

Similarly, when the Liaison enclitic ${ }^{0}$ "him/her" is attached to a verb Base Form ending in a root vowel, the first mora in the SF is delinked when a pitch rise would otherwise occur within the syllable; such forms are written with LF tones:
${ }_{n} y \bar{\varepsilon} \cdot o^{-0}$
"see him/her"
SF nyと́o
LF ny $\bar{\varepsilon} \cdot o ́-o$

Note that k̄̄•́= "kill him/her" represents the identical SF and LF kú•o.
Words like náaf ${ }^{\top}$ and nú'ùg ${ }^{\text {² }}$ coincide tonally in the surface LF because of H Spreading 5.3.1; such words are written in Superscript Notation with the SF tonemes.

$$
\text { Lì kā' nú'ugう }{ }^{+} \varnothing . \quad \text { "It's not a hand." }
$$

3INAN NeG.be hand:SG NEG.

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

### 2.2.2 Predictability of Long Forms

The LF can usually be predicted from the SF given the aspect of a verb, or whether a noun has human reference 9.1 . Historically expected forms may be replaced by such predicted forms, either as variants or throughout. Apocope frequently does not lead to loss of segmental contrasts despite deleting segments which condition preceding sound changes 6.3.2, 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 $\underline{8}$.

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

Apocope abolishes the contrast between Tone Patterns H and O in nominals with 2-mora stems, and where LFs lack contrasts present in SFs this is due to a late tone realisation rule 5.3.1. However, Tone Patterns are best described synchronically as suprasegmental stem features 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 I may or may not be geminated; -m may become -mn- instead of -mm-. However, given whether a noun has human reference, it is usually possible to identify its Noun Class and thus the correct LF 9.1. Variable Verb Base Forms end in -mm if the the SF ends in $-m$ and in $-\varepsilon$ otherwise; Dynamic Imperfectives and Invariable Verbs end in $-a$ with gemination of preceding $n / m$. Dynamic Imperfectives with SFs ending in $-m$ formerly had LFs in -mna, though not for my informants nor in KB:
...kà pū túmnā. "...and does not work." (2 Thess 3:11, 1996, written ka pu tum na 1.3.1; 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 fù bā'-bîg púg'á Herodiase ${ }^{+} \varnothing$.
binan 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)

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:

| sīa+ | "waist" | sàbùa+ | "girlfriend" |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| bāa= | "dog" 8.1 | $p a \overline{e^{+/}}$ | "reach" |
| nie ${ }^{+}$ | "appear" | $d u \bar{e}{ }^{+/}$ | "raise/rise" |
| kūgá+ | "stones" | widı ${ }^{+}$ | "horses" |
| $k \bar{v}^{+}$ | "kill" | mà ${ }^{+}$ | "mother" |
| $b \varepsilon ̇ d v g \bar{o}^{+/}$ | "a lot" 6.4 |  |  |

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

| diā'a | "get dirty" | $\leftarrow *$ diagı 6.1.1.1 | Farefare | dêgè |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| piāñ ${ }^{\text {a }}$ | "speak, praise" | $\leftarrow$ *piãgı | Farefare | рẽ̃gغ́ |
| du'àa | "bear, beget" | $\leftarrow$ *duagı | Farefare | dògè |
| $z{ }^{+}$ | "run" | 6.1.1.1 | Farefare | zòè |
| dāu ${ }^{+}$LF dāo | "man" | $\leftarrow$ *dawa | Mooré | ráoa |
| tāuñ ${ }^{+/}$LF távn | "opposite-sex sib" | $\leftarrow$ *tãwa | Mooré | tãoa |

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

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

| sāeñ | "blacksmith" | LF sāen or sānya |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| sj̄en | "witch" | LF sj̄eñ or sj̄nya |

All other cases involve Invariable Verbs 11.2, where LF -ya is regular except for a handful of bare root forms:

| dīgıya/ | "be lying down" | wà'e ${ }^{\text {ya }}$ | "be en route for" |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| $v o ̄ e^{\text {a/ }}$ | "be alive" | sō'e ${ }^{\text {ya/ }}$ | "own" |

Before Liaison, Invariable Verbs follow the general rule, prolonging any final short diphthong and then applying phrase-medial loss of fronting 8.5.3:

$$
\begin{array}{llllll}
s s^{\prime} e^{y a} / & \text { "own" } & +\iota^{+} & \text {"it" } & \rightarrow & s ́^{\prime} v I_{i}^{+/} \\
v \bar{u} e^{\mathrm{a} /} & \text { "live" } & +n^{\varepsilon} & \text { rem } & \rightarrow & v \bar{v} v-n^{\varepsilon /}
\end{array}
$$

Before Liaison 8.2.1 8.2.2 final affix-vowel quality is neutralised, but the same issues arise with verbs like diā'a versus kpià'+, gemination of Im $n$, and $m n \sim m m$ :
ya zuobid wusa kalli an si'em
yà zūөbíd wōsa kállì ø àn $s$ ̉əm
2PL hair:PL all number:sG COMP COP INDF.ADV
"how much the number of all your hairs is" (Lk 12:7)
nwene tiname ket bane tummi ti taali [sic] basid si'em la.
wēn nē tīnámì ø két bánì tùmmī tí tàalli_ $\varnothing$
resemble with 1PL comp let:DIPF REL.PL work:DIPF IPL fault:SG SER
básìd sỉəm lā.
throw.out:DIPF 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'घ̀d-nàm dáàmnī bá dāa ny $\begin{gathered}\text { ē láafiya }\end{gathered}$ and rel.pl and fairy-bad-pl trouble:DIPF 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 nye laafi)

### 2.3 Word Division

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

Traditional word-division conventions do not correspond to the grammatical analysis adopted here in all cases. Problematic areas relate to compound Noun Phrases and to Liaison Enclitics.

Traditional word division can be obtained from the orthography of this grammar by writing all hyphenated groups solid, and by replacing the raised dot symbol - by word division. (See also on the object pronouns $m f$ 2.3.2.)

### 2.3.1 Compound Noun Phrases

Kusaal is typical of the Oti-Volta languages in constantly using compounds within NP structure, often where most languages would employ independent nominals 19.6. The first element is a nominal "Combining Form" (cb 9.1), part of the regular paradigm of the open class of nominals, and typically a bare stem which has undergone word-final Apocope. Such Combining Forms occur freely and productively as pre-modifiers of following nouns, producing compounds of a type familiar in Indoeuropean languages, such as

| zīm-gbán'àd | "fisherman" | (zíin "fish") |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| wāb-kóvod | "elephant-killer" | (wābug "elephant") |
| bì-fūug | "children's shirt" | (bïig "child") |
|  | (i.e. suitable for children, child-sized) |  |

Specialised meanings are common:
pư'à-sāñ'am "adulterer", literally "wife-spoiler"

Besides this, Kusaal forms with complete freedom compounds where the preceding combining form is the head, and the following nominal is a dependent. This is the normal construction for both adjectives and post-determining pronouns:

```
būog
bù-pìalıg
bù-kàyā
bù-pìl-kà\etaā
wāb-píəlìg
wāb-títā'ar
```

"goat"
"white goat"
"this goat"
"this white goat"
"white elephant"
"big elephant"

There is no phonological difference between head-initial and modifier-initial compounds (the tonal sandhi rules, for example, are identical 8.4 8.3).

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

zipgban'ad<br>bukaŋa<br>yamug bipup

| zīm-gbán'àd | "fisherman" |
| :--- | :--- |
| bù-kànā | "this goat" |
| yàmmug-bī-pón | "slave girl" |

(Acts 16:16, 1976) 9.2.2

Combining forms are, however, not word fragments but clitic words, and compounds are not single words but a particular type of noun phrase. This accords with the structure of the language, in which compounding occurs continually where other languages would use uncompounded phrases. Compounds may even incorporate uncompounded elements 19.6.1:
[ānzúrıfà lá'-]māan "silversmith" ("[silver goods]-maker")

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

| kpùkpàrıg | "palm tree" | tītā'ar | "big" |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| wāb-títā'ar | "big elephant" | Nwāmpūrıl | "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 14.4.

### 2.3.2 Liaison

A number of Kusaal words, including all the non-contrastive personal pronouns, share the common phonological peculiarity that whether they are themselves bound or free, they prevent Apocope from applying to the preceding word, which appears as a Long Form but with loss of all original vowel quality distinctions in the final vowel mora, like a word-internal epenthetic vowel 8.2.

When such words have a SF which has a vowel of its own, they are written as separate words both in the traditional orthography and in this grammar:

Fu boدdi ti.
Fù bว́วdī tí.
2SG want 1PL.OB.

Ò yèl_àmēクá. $\quad$ "She spoke truly."
3AN say ADV:Self:ADV.
tì bàtán'
1PL NuM:three
biiisá àyí "two children"
child:PL num:two

So are all proclitic pronouns:

Bà gj̀sí_ bà bīis. "They looked at their children."
3PL look.at 3PL child:PL.

The Personifier Clitic à, 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" 19.10.

```
Awin
    "Awini" (personal name)
À-Wīn
PERS-personal.spirit:SG
```

The Serial VP linker $n$ 8.2.2.1.2 and the complementiser $n$ 8.2.2.1.1 are in some texts usually written $n$, sometimes preceded by a modified LF. For my informants, and in most texts, they are segmentally zero, with the preceding modified LF as the only sign of their presence apart from tone. In such cases the particles are represented by $\varnothing$ in interlinear glossing.
tīnámì_ $\varnothing$ zàb nà'ab lā "our having fought the chief" (ǹ-Clause)
1PL COMP fight chief:SG ART

Tīnámi_ø záb nà'ab lā. "We fought the chief." (n-focus)
1PL SER fight chief:sg ART
m̀ zūgú_ ø zàbıd lā zúg
1SG head:SG comp fight:DIPF ART upon
"because my head hurts"

M̀ zūgט_ $\varnothing$ zábìd. "My head hurts."
1SG head:sg SER fight:DIPF.

Three clitic object pronouns are reduced by Apocope to forms without any vowel. The 1 sg pronoun SF is realised as consonantal [m]. In KB it is written solid with the preceding word, but in the orthography of this grammar it is written separately, as in the traditional orthography prior to 2016.

```
Fu bככdim.
"You love me."
[fobכ:dim]
Fù bכ́כdī_m.
2Sg want 1sg.ob.
```

The 1sg Liaison Enclitic pronoun itself occurs before Liaison in

Fu noni mi $n$ gat bamaa?
Fù nónī_mī_ $n$ gát bámmáa $+\varnothing$ ?
2SG love 1SG.ob SER pass:IPFV DEM.DeI.PL PQ?
"Do you love me more than these?" (Jn 21:15, 1976)

The LF of the 2 sg pronoun is written as a separate word:

M pu bכวdi fo. "I don't love you."
M̀ pō bj́วdī_fó ${ }^{+} \varnothing$.
1SG NeG.IND want 2SG.OB Neg.

I write the SF separate as well, but 2016 orthography writes it solid with the preceding verb. Traditional orthography previously separated the final mora of the verb and joined it to the pronoun, creating spurious pronouns if uf.

```
2016 M bככdif.
1996 M bood if.
    M bóvdī_f.
    1SG want 2SG.OB.
1996 M nye uf.
    M n\y\varepsilońo_f.
    1SG see 25G.Ob.
1996 M gban'e uf.
    M gbán~'u_f.
    "I've grabbed you." [mgbã̃~~~}f
    15G seize 2SG.OB
```

The 3sg animate object pronoun ${ }^{\circ}$ [ $\mho$ ] "him/her" loses its entire segmental form when subject to Apocope 2.2, after causing the host final vowel mora to become [ $\quad$ ]; this rounded final mora remains to signal the silent presence of the pronoun. This LF-final vowel has traditionally been mistaken for the pronoun itself and written as a separate word. As a concession to tradition, the final vowel mora will be separated from the rest of the host by a raised point $\cdot \circ$. This always represents [ $\mho$ ] in the Short Form; in the Long Form the rounded LF-final mora unites with the [ $\mho$ ] of the pronoun to form long [ъ:]. The LF will be written as ending in $\cdot 0-0$.

| bj̀วdā | "wants" | $+$ | "him" $\rightarrow$ | bj̀วd•ó-o | (SF bj̀ ${ }^{\text {d }}$ ( $\bar{o}$ ) |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| kīa | "cut" | + 0 | "him" $\rightarrow$ | kìō-o | (SF kìo) |
|  | "see" | + | "him" | nу¢ $\bar{\varepsilon} \cdot o ́-o$ | (SF ппуย์o) |

Fu bood o. "You love her." [fobכ:dv]

Fù bóวd•ō_ø.
2SG want 3AN.OB.

Fu pu bכコd oo. "You don't love her." [fuphobכ:dv:]
Fù pū bว́כd•ó-o ${ }^{+} \varnothing$.
2SG NEG.IND want-3AN.OB NEG.


The Locative enclitic $n^{\varepsilon}$, the Remoteness Marker $n^{\varepsilon}$, and the enclitic 2 pl subject pronoun ${ }^{\text {ya }}$ after imperatives 8.2 .1 are also reduced to vowellessness by Apocope. They are traditionally written solid with the preceding word, as if they were flexions. However, the segmental and tonal changes involved with the these particles are of the same nature as those seen with object pronouns, and they follow (allomorphs of) complete words. The enclitic 2 pl subject ya is in complementary distribution with the proclitic subject pronoun yà for my informants (though not for all speakers 28.2.3) and the Locative Liaison Enclitic $n^{\varepsilon}$ is in complementary distribution with the ordinary enclitic particle $n \bar{\imath}^{+/}$20.3. Although the status of all Liaison Enclitics, including object pronouns, as separate phonological words is equivocal, as the evidence is entirely tonal 5.3.1, morphosyntactically all these enclitics are clearly words, not flexions; accordingly, unless reduced to segmental zero by Apocope, they are hyphenated to the preceding word in this grammar.

```
pōvgu-n}\mp@subsup{n}{}{\varepsilon/}\quad"inside
inside:sG-Loc
bう̀วdī-n
want-rem
```

The pronoun ya loses its entire segmental form in the SF 2.2, and its presence is revealed only by the word-final $-\iota$ on the preceding LF:

|  | gj̀sım ${ }^{\text {a }}$ | "look!" |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| SF | gj̀sımī ø | "look ye!" | Traditional: gosimi |
| LF | gj̀sımī yá | 28.2.3 | Traditional: gosimiya |
|  | Look.at:IMP 2PL.sUB |  |  |

### 2.4 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 $k k p p t t \eta$, where the first element is a non-vocalic mora, e.g. sú'өŋ SF "rabbit" has three morae, while the LF sú'өŋā has four.

A vocalic mora followed by a non-vocalic mora in the same word is closed; all others are vocalic open morae. Vocalic morae are the domain of tone, but not all vocalic morae bear a toneme 5.2 5.3.1.

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

Word stress falls on the root, except in LFs before a Prosodic Clitic, where it falls on the final affix vowel (unless this is has been deleted in the surface LF 8.1.) Prefixes and combining forms are not stressed.

Monosyllabic words with a short vowel do not have intrinsic stress. This applies not only to clitics, but even to monosyllabic verbal and nominal forms with a short vowel, like mè "build" (perfective) bù "donkey" $\bar{n}$ "he/she." Monosyllables with a long vowel, like mè ${ }^{d}$ "build" (dynamic imperfective) do have intrinsic stress.

Before pause, all intrinsically unstressed words acquire stress, including clitics like the article $\mathrm{I}^{+}{ }^{+}$. Even Liaison Enclitics 8.2.1 acquire stress, independent of their host, which retains its own stress.

Stress is important in allotony; downstepping before H tonemes is dependent on syllable structure and stress. See 5.3.2 for examples.

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

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { ditún ['dit:טן] "right hand", probably a derivative of di+ "eat" }
\end{aligned}
$$

|  | $b u ̄ t ı \eta^{\text {a }}$ | ['bvt:In] | "cup" (from bùd ${ }^{\varepsilon}$ "plant seeds" via the |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  |  |  | semantic development "planting implement" $\rightarrow$ "seed cup" $\rightarrow$ "cup in general") |
| pl | $b \bar{u} t u s^{\varepsilon}$ | [ v $^{\prime} \mathrm{th}^{\text {I }}$ : S ] | with a wholly exceptional apparent lengthening of an epenthetic vowel 6.2.1; probably reanalysis of the sg as prefix $b \bar{v}+$ stem $t \bar{\imath} \eta^{a}$ |

### 2.5 Ordering of Morphophonemic Rules

Agolle Vowel Breaking 4.1.1 and Primary Diphthongs 4.2.3 are part of the underlying word form prior to the application of any rules.

Consonant Assimilation/Epenthetic Vowel Insertion 6.2.1, Vowel Fusion 6.3.1, and Fronting/Rounding of vowel morae 6.3.2 all precede Apocope. Fronting/Rounding can be taken as following Epenthetic Vowel Insertion for simplicity.

Comparative material shows that Consonant Assimilation preceded deletion of *g and Vowel Fusion historically, but synchronically there is no need for ordering. After *CVVg- roots, flexions beginning with ${ }^{*} g$ are systematically avoided 12.1.1.1 9.1, and before other suffixes former ${ }^{*} g$ is reflected only in toneme allocation 7.2.1.1. Deletion of *g after short vowels, resulting in cases like sg zàk ${ }^{a} \leftarrow{ }^{*}$ zagga "compound" $\mathrm{pl} z a ̀ ' a s^{\varepsilon} \leftarrow *_{z a g s ı}$, can be regarded synchronically as a subtype of CVV~CV~CVC allomorphy 6.1.1.1. Internal evidence still shows its recent origin, however: stems in a'a ia'a v'a añ'a iann'a un'a in the r $r^{\varepsilon} \mid a^{+}$Class may still behave as consonant-final 9.3.4: bà'ar ${ }^{\varepsilon}$ "idol" (Farefare bàgrè), plural bà'a+ or bàda+; glottalisation is found in affix vowels only in pà' $\leftarrow$ *pag "earlier today" 4.4; and LF-final long vowels can be predicted from the SF everywhere except where i'a u'a fall together in Apocope with the ía'a v'a resulting from historical *g loss 2.2.2. The lateness of this change is supported by Haaf 1967, which has baga for bā'a "diviner" and winbagr for wīn-bá'àr "altar", alongside bab for the plural bā'aba "diviners."

External Sandhi of all types 8 naturally follows Apocope.
Tone Patterns 7.1 are described by allocating tonemes before Consonant Assimilation/Epenthetic Vowel Insertion and Vowel Fusion. The tonal overlay of Independency Marking 22.6.1.1 creates a new set of intrinsic tones; this needs only to precede external tone sandhi.

The tonal effects produced by Prosodic Clitics 8.1 and Liaison Enclitics 8.2.3 occur prior to L/M Raising and the effects of Fixed-L words, as is shown by the fact that the all-L tonemes resulting from the effect of the Interrogative Clitic on an all-M word are subject to L Raising 8.1. Tone Levelling within syllables 5.2 is the last in order of toneme-altering rules; it precedes the tone realisation rule H Spreading 5.3.1, which itself precedes the insertion of downsteps before H tonemes 5.3.2.

## 3 Consonants

### 3.1 Inventory and Symbols

The following consonant symbols are used:

| $k$ | $t$ | $p$ | $k p$ |  |  |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| $g$ | $d$ | $b$ | $g b$ |  |  |
| $\eta$ | $n$ | $m$ |  |  |  |
|  | $s$ |  |  | $f$ |  |$\quad h$

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.
$k t p \quad$ represent $\left[k^{h}\right]\left[t^{h}\right]\left[p^{h}\right]$ 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 in Agolle Kusaal (unlike Toende) still contrast with the unaspirated word-final $k t p$.
$k g \eta \quad$ The symbol $\eta$ is realised [ $\eta$ ] word-finally and [ $\eta:$ ] elsewhere. Original * $\boldsymbol{*}$, 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. 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:

$$
\begin{array}{lll}
\text { tóklàe }{ }^{+} & \text {"torch" } & \leftarrow \text { English "torchlight" } \\
\text { sógìàa }^{\mathrm{a}} & \text { "soldier" } & \text { (probably via Hausa soojà) }
\end{array}
$$

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 6.3.2 4.3.
Before $a$ and $\nu$ velars are pronounced further back, with some speakers even as uvulars:

$$
\text { kj̀bıgā= "hundred" [qwh } \quad \text { wbiga] }
$$

Underlying *g is deleted after aa iə uө aañ $\left.\underset{\sim}{\varepsilon}{\underset{\sim}{\sim}}^{\sim}\right)_{\sim}^{n}$ and their glottalised counterparts unless it stands before a rounded vowel; diphthongs may result 6.3.1. The effect of this $* g$ is still apparent in stem tone patterns 7.2.1.1. Historically, ${ }^{*} g$ has also been deleted after short oral or nasal a ia ưa, which then became glottalised 6.1.1.1.
are labiodental fricatives, found only word initially, after prefixes, and in the noun class suffix $-\rho$ :

| fūfūm |  |
| :--- | :--- |
| náaf | "envy" |

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

| Àláasìd (dáar ${ }^{\varepsilon}$ ) | "Sunday" | $\leftarrow$ Hausa Lahàdì ( $\leftarrow$ Arabic) |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| Dàsmáanì | عبد الرحمن | ¢Abdu-r-Raћma:n $(i)$ |

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

|  | "unplug" |
| :---: | :---: |
| غ̇nrıg ${ }^{\varepsilon}$ | "shift along" |
| $m \overline{d^{\varepsilon}}$ | "swell" |
| $m \bar{r} r^{\text {a/ }}$ | "have" |
| yàad ${ }^{\varepsilon}$ | "graves" |
| yāar ${ }^{\text {c/ }}$ | "scatter" |

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

$$
m \overline{d^{\varepsilon}} \quad \text { "swell" }
$$

$$
m \overline{y^{a /}} \quad \text { "have" }
$$

$$
\text { yàad }{ }^{\varepsilon} \quad \text { "graves" }
$$

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

| tīráàn $^{\mathrm{a}}$ | "neighbour" |
| :--- | :--- |
| àrazàk ${ }^{\text {a }}$ | "riches" |
| àrazánà |  |

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 $m$ :

| 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 |

$m$ 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 6.4. like the SF pāmm "a lot." The cluster patterns in many ways as if the second $m$ were syllabic, but it is currently consonantal, and in particular cannot bear a toneme 8.1.
is syllabic when representing various proclitic particles, and as the number prefix. It does assimilate, even when syllabic, to the position of a following consonant. The VP Serialiser particle $n$ and the clause Complementiser $\grave{n}$ are syllabic [ñ] for some speakers but my informants have consonantal, denasalised or zero reflexes instead.
$k p g b \quad$ are digraphs for the labiovelar double closures [ kp ] [ $\widehat{\mathrm{gb}}$ ]. 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 kùkpàrıg ${ }^{\text {a }}$ etc. Otherwise $k p g b$ are replaced by velars before rounded vowels; they are thus in complementary distribution with labialised velars, which could be ascribed to these phonemes rather than to the velars.

| kūm ${ }^{m}$ | "death" | cf $k p i+$ | "die" |  |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| kj̄ba+ | "bones" | cf Gurmanche | kpábá | id |
| kpàkūr ${ }^{\varepsilon /}$ | "tortoise" | cf Dagbani | kpàkpílí | id |

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

$$
\begin{array}{ll}
\text { bákpàè }^{+} & \text {"week" } \leftarrow \text { Hausa bakwài "seven" } \\
& \text { (also "week" in Gaanancii Hausa) }
\end{array}
$$

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

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { ny } \left.\bar{\varepsilon}^{+} \quad \text { "see" [ } \tilde{\varepsilon}\right] \\
& { }_{\sim}^{n} w a ̄ d ı g^{\text {a/ }} \text { "moon" [w̃ãdıg] } \\
& \text { ñ wé' " "beat" [ } \underset{\text { w̃ }}{ } \text { ] }
\end{aligned}
$$

Word-initial y w followed by contrastive nasalisation reflect earlier initial $\int \widehat{\square m}$ respectively, and similarly word-initial contrastively nasalised vowels are historically derived from initial $\eta$ :

| Dagbani | Kusaal |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| parip | ànron ${ }^{\text {a }}$ | "boat" |
| nyá [na] | $\sim_{\sim} \bar{q}^{+}$ | "see" |
| 刀me [fme] | ${ }_{\sim}^{n} w{ }^{\prime}{ }^{+}$ | "beat" |

Mooré shows the same developments as Kusaal. Niggli 2012 reports that some Toende speakers still have consonantal [ n ] [ Jm ] phonetically in these cases, although he regards these as allophones of $y w$ before nasalised vowels. Before $\iota / i$ original $n$ has often become $n$; see on the allomorphy of ya 8.2.1.2.
$Y$ and $w$ occur only syllable-initially. They are in complementary distribution with the the glides i/e and $u$ respectively, which do not form syllable boundaries but appear only after vowel symbols to mark short diphthongs 4.2.3 and before vowel symbols as part of the digraphs ia una (ie ue before $y$ ) which are realised as written but represent single vowels phonemically 4.1.1.

Consonantal $w$ occurs only root-initially, i.e. word-initially and after prefixes: wìəf "horse", dàwān ${ }^{\text {nع/ }}$ "pigeon", but consonantal $y$ occurs not only root-initially (yáana "grandchild", dàyūug ${ }^{\text {/ }}$ "rat") but also word-medially, before the vowel a: nכ̄yá+ "mouths."

When Apocope leaves $-y$ - as word-final after a short back vowel, it is replaced by e 2.2, and a short fronting diphthong results 6.3.2.

Synchronically, it is possible to regard all non-root-initial $-y$ - as epenthetic. Historically, $-y$ - probably reflects an original root-final palatal in $r^{\varepsilon} \mid a^{+}$Class plurals and ${ }^{\text {a }} \mid b^{\text {a }}$ Class singulars 6.1.1.1, * $K$ in the suffix -ya of Invariable Verbs 11.2, and original $*_{n}$ in the initial of the postposed 2 pl subject pronoun ya 8.2.1.2.

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

### 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.

```
~
"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 nominal prefix and the following stem, combinations of nasal and any possible word-initial consonant may occur, with assimilation of the position of articulation of the nasal to a following consonant other than $s$ or $z$, before which the nasal is realised as [ $\eta$ ].

| Kùndùn ${ }^{\text {a }}$ | "jackal" |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| $g u ̄ m p u ̄ z \varepsilon ̄ r^{\varepsilon /}$ | "duck" |  |
| dànkj̀ ${ }^{\text {a }}$ | "measles" | [dayk ${ }^{\text {h }}$ ¢ ${ }^{\text {a }}$ |
| zùnzว̀ ${ }^{\text {a }}$ | "blind" | [zชŋzวŋ] |

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 $\quad$ nn $m m \| m n$. 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 5.3.1 7.2.1 7.3.1.

Gemination of $\mathrm{mm} n \mathrm{n} / /$ before LF affix vowels is clearly audible, even where the LF-final vowel has been downranked before Liaison 8.2.1; the audio version of the 1996 NT for example provides numerous examples of dj̄ll•ó "follow him" (written
dol o) clearly read as [dıl: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 verb Dynamic 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 1.3.1]
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 [sic 1.3.1] ba daa nye laafiya
kà bàn kà kikīr-bé'ह̀d-nàm dáàmnī bá dāa ny $\begin{gathered}\text { Ē láafìya }\end{gathered}$
and rel.pL and fairy-bad-pl trouble:DIPF 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:

| $g b i ̄ g ı m^{\mathrm{n} \varepsilon}$ | SB | gbīgım$m^{\mathrm{m} \varepsilon}$ | WK | "lion" |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| $d u \overline{m^{\mathrm{n} \varepsilon}}$ | SB | dūm $^{\mathrm{m} \varepsilon}$ | WK | "knee" |

Exceptionally with $-n n$ - for $-m n$ - and a plural remodelled on the singular:

$$
\begin{array}{lll}
\underset{\sim}{n} w a ̄ n^{\mathrm{n} \varepsilon} & \text { SB } & \text { pl ñwāna+ (Lk 11:39, 1976) "calabash" } \\
\text { nām }
\end{array}
$$

Cf 1976 NT kobkennib = kj̀ñb-kīmmıba $\leftarrow$ *kỹb-kımdıba "herdsmen."
There is variation also with the agent nouns of $m$-stem verbs:
pe'es bane ka' konbkemma
pē'عs bánì kā' kónb-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 1.3.1].
m̀ nāan kú āa-n Kiristo tóm-tūmna ${ }^{+} \varnothing$.
1sg then neg.irr cop-rem 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 tomtomnib pii ne ayi' la yoda nwa.
Ò tòm-tōmnıb pïi né àyí lā yódà_ $\varnothing$ ñwà.
3AN work-worker:PL ten with num:two ARt name:pl Ser this.
"These are the names of his twelve servants." (Mt 10:2)

All examples of Dynamic Deverbal Adjectives from $m$-stem verbs in my data show -mm-before epenthetic vowels:
būn-túmmìr ${ }^{\varepsilon} \quad$ "useful thing"; plural tōmna+ is cited by some informants.
bù-sān'ammır ${ }^{\varepsilon}$ "goat for destruction, scapegoat" WK

The great majority of cases -mn- within words precede high front vowels; compare Focus-n $\bar{\varepsilon}^{+/}$, corresponding to me in Toende Kusaal, Mooré etc 33.1.2. 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 tomtumnib = tùm-tūmnıb "servants."

The consonants $r f s$ are sometimes shown by Tone Pattern allocation rules or by morphophonemics 6.2.1 to reflect underlying clusters 7.2.1.1, but unlike $k t p \eta$ they are never actually realised as geminates.

| tīntōnríg ${ }^{\text {a }}$ | "mole" (animal) | $\leftarrow * t i ̄ n t \bar{n} n r r i ́ g a ̄$ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| pílñ | "genet" | $\leftarrow$ *piónfō |
| níis ${ }^{\text {d }}$ | "birds" | $\leftarrow$ *niínsī |

## 4 Vowels

### 4.1 Inventory and Symbols

There are great differences in the range of vowel contrasts possible in different positions within a full word. Correlation with stress 2.4 is only partial, so the system is best regarded as involving positional prominence.

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

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

Affix Vowels have a three-way contrast in quality a $\iota v$ and also distinguish short and long vowels. Prosodic Clitics lower short $\iota v$ to $\varepsilon \supset$, which are here realised slightly closer than as root vowels 4.4.
a $\varepsilon$ ว $i u$ represent [a] [ $\varepsilon$ ] [ว] [i] [u].
$\iota v$ represent [r] [๒]. Because ATR harmony is non-contrastive and is ignored in the orthography, $\iota v$ may also represent [ $i \mathrm{i}[\mathrm{u}]$ in epenthetic and affix vowels 4.3.
e o always represent [r] [ $\mho$ ]. They replace $\iota v$ as non-initial components of diphthongs 4.2.3, except that [ $\quad \mathrm{J}]$ is written $v$ after $a$. In addition, the 3 sg animate pronoun [ $\mho$ ] is always written $o 15.1$. The sequence $\cdot o$ represents [ $\mho$ ] when it is a vowel mora rounded before the enclitic pronoun ${ }^{\circ}$ 8.2.1.1.

Long vowels are written with double symbols.
The symbol $\underset{\sim}{n}$ represents emic nasalisation 4.2.1, while ' represents glottalisation 4.2.2.
e $\underset{\sim}{i} u$ represent non-moraic glides; $e_{N}$ and $i$ are equivalent symbols for [ I ], and $u$ represents [ひ̃].

The vowel system shows a systematic mismatch between phonetics and phonemics.
iə uө are phonemic monophthongs but are realised phonetically as [iə] [uө]. Similarly, ia ua represent short monophthongs, realised [ז̃a] [ṽa], which appear as ie ue [ir] [ $\mathrm{v}_{\mathrm{I}}$ ] before $y$ word-internally. The orthography of this grammar follows the traditional system in representing these segments according to their phonetic realisation, but the symbols iz ue ia ua ie ue are regarded throughout as digraphs representing monophthongs 4.1 .1 . The letters $\partial \theta$ are used only in these digraphs.

## 4．1．1 Agolle Vowel Breaking

The sequences iə $u \theta$ ，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 6.3 .2 just like other monophthongs．They will be described as monophthongs throughout this grammar．

Toende Kusaal preserves these vowels as phonetic monophthongs，more open than the Toende close vowels corresponding to Agolle vowels which have expanded into the phonetic space vacated by Breaking to become open $\varepsilon$ ว $\varepsilon$ ع כ：

|  | Toende | Agolle |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | d＇́̇́m | diəm ${ }^{\text {ma }}$ | ＂man＇s parent－in－law＂ |
|  |  | sīəs ${ }^{\text {¢ }}$ | ＂waists＂ |
| but | té＇ét | $t{ }^{\prime}{ }^{\prime} \varepsilon d^{\varepsilon}$ | ＂baobab fruits＂ |
|  | $p e ̄ ' e ̄ s$ | $p \bar{\varepsilon}^{\prime} \varepsilon \varepsilon^{\varepsilon /}$ | ＂sheep＂plural |
|  | bó＇כs | $b u ̄ ' \theta s^{\varepsilon /}$ | ＂ask＂ |
|  | tóうn | tùen ${ }^{\text {ne }}$ | ＂before，in front＂ |
|  | kó＇う̄m | kù＇өm ${ }^{\text {m }}$ | ＂water＂ |
|  | sábó | sàbùa＋ | ＂lover，girlfriend＂ |
| but | póók | pכَ $g^{\text {／}}$ | ＂farm，field＂ |
|  | tōom | tวうom ${ }^{\text {m／}}$ | ＂depart，disappear＂ |
|  | zò | $z{ }^{+}$ | ＂run＂（Mooré zòe） |

The original Common Kusaal system probably preserved older diphthongs，like Mooré．While the ככ／ua sets usually correspond to Mooré oo，there is a different Toende／Agolle pairing when the Mooré cognates have ao：
bj̀̀t bj̀כda＂want，wish＂（Mooré bàoda）

There are gaps in the distribution of Agolle long oral $\varepsilon \varepsilon כ$ probably connected with their diphthongal origins．Some occurrences of $\varepsilon \varepsilon ว$ seem，however，to be due to levelling within paradigms which feature a suffix ending in $\nu$ ．The short vowels $\varepsilon \supset$ do not contrast underlyingly with ia ua，as explained below．
iə $u \theta$ only occur word－finally as the result of monophthongisation of word－final ia ua ie ue within a phrase before another closely connected word 8．5．3；this is not marked in writing in the case of ia ua：

$$
\begin{array}{lll}
\text { pī́ } t i ̄+l & \text { "wash us" } & \text { (pīe }{ }^{+/} \text {"wash") } \\
\text { dūó } t \bar{\imath}+/ & \text { "raise us" } & \text { (dūe }{ }^{+/ \text {"raise") }}
\end{array}
$$

| sīa $\bar{a}$ | "the waist" | [siəla] |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| sàbùa lā | "the girlfriend" | [sabuela] |

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

Word-final iə ue diphthongise to ia ua before Prosodic Clitics (not Liaison):

| LF | kīa | "cut" base form | $\left[k^{\text {nia }}\right]$ | cf $k i ̀ ə d^{a}$ | $\operatorname{dipf}$ |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| LF | kūa | "hoe" base form | $\left[k^{\text {nua }}\right]$ | cf $k u \bar{\theta} \theta d^{a /}$ | $\operatorname{dipf}$ |

Nasalised iən uen occur only in the inflexion and gerund formation of Fusion
 applies also to long vowels automatically nasalised after $m n$ 4.2.1. The vowels were distinct historically: compare nכ̄כr "times" (Mooré náooré) with nכ̄כr "mouth" (Mooré nóorè) 16.2.5.

The 1-mora vowels corresponding to 2-mora iə ue are ía una [ז̃a] [ṽa].
These, too, pattern as simple vowels throughout: sià $k^{\varepsilon}$ "agree" and buàk ${ }^{\varepsilon}$ "split" do not violate the constraint that full words begin with at most one consonant.

Apocope shortens final iə ue to ia ua:

| kià | "cut" | SF of $k i \bar{a} a$ |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| kuā | "hoe" | SF of $k u \bar{a} a$ |

Short $\varepsilon$ ว appear instead of ia una everywhere except before $k$ (and historical underlying ${ }^{*} g$, which has been deleted with lengthening and glottalisation of the preceding vowel 6.1.1.1.)

Almost all short $\varepsilon \supset$ are either of this origin, or derive from Apocope of $\varepsilon \varepsilon כ$.
bj̀k ${ }^{\top}$ "pit" contrasting with buè $k^{\varepsilon}$ "split" is due to the rounding change *ưakku $\rightarrow$ Jkku, see 6.3.2, 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 (*tg\&kkı), see 6.3.3. Presumably $n \bar{\jmath} k^{\varepsilon /}$ "pick up" is similarly derived by shortening of *nכدkkı; Toende Kusaal has nj̀k, with a variant form כ'כn (for *n'כg.)
ie ue [ir] [ひ̃I] appear in place of ia ua before $-y-$, which can occur only in the context of $r^{\varepsilon} \mid a^{+}$Class plurals of nominals with stems in iə and ue 6.1.1.1:

```
bīər \({ }^{\varepsilon /}\) "elder same-sex sib" pl biēyáa
sūөr \({ }^{\varepsilon /}\) "road" pl suēeyá+ KB suoya 1.3.1
```


## 4．2 Root Vowels

In root syllables the symbols a $\varepsilon$ ว $\iota i u$ have their default values of［a］［ $\varepsilon$ ］［ว］ ［ I ］［v］［i］［u］respectively．
$\iota$ is more central after velars and labials，and $v$ is slightly more front after alveolars and $y ; u$ in turn is noticeably fronted after alveolar consonants，which themselves may be realised as palato－alveolars before $u$ ．This is particularly common with $z$ ：［3yg］for zūg＂head＂3．1．

Long Vowels contrast with short in length alone，with no difference in vowel quality．They are written by doubling the vowel symbol 1.3 ．

## 4．2．1 Nasalisation

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

$$
\text { mè } \varepsilon d^{\mathrm{a}} \quad \text { "build" dipf }[\mathrm{m} \tilde{\mathrm{c}}: \mathrm{d}]
$$

Contrastive nasalisation is confined to root vowels．For the marking of nasalisation by the symbol $\underset{\sim}{n}$ in the working orthography of this grammar see 1．3． Nasalisation is lost on short vowels followed by nasal consonants．
（See also 8．5．2．）Historically，this accounts for the oral vowels in

| $w i ̄ n n \varepsilon /$ | ＂god，spirit＂ | Dagaare クmen |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| $w \bar{\varepsilon} n^{\text {na／}}$ | ＂resemble＂ | Dagbani ŋmani |
| $\overline{n^{\varepsilon}}$ | ＂he／she＂contrastive | Dagbani guna |


Many cases of nasalisation which are not automatic are explicable either as representing originally automatic nasalisation following earlier $\Omega \widehat{\eta m}$ ，or as the result of simplification of the clusters＊ns＊nf 6．2．1．
 the change of＊nf＊ns to $f s$ with nasalisation of the preceding vowel 6．2．1：

| but | niin ${ }^{\text {a }}$ | ＂bird＂ | cf plural | pīıní＋ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | pílñ | ＂genet＂ |  |  |
| but | zùuñd ${ }^{\text {¢ }}$ | ＂vultures＂ |  |  |
|  | zóvñf | ＂dawadawa seed＂ | cf plural | zōoní＋ |
|  | tèり－zòvñs ${ }^{\text {® }}$ | ＂foreign lands＂ | cf singular | tદ̀り－zı̀n ${ }^{\text {a }}$ |

Nasalised iən uөn occur only in Fusion Verbs 6．3．1．
 4.1.1 on the alternations $\varepsilon / i a$ and $\supset / u a^{\prime}$.) Short $i_{\sim} u_{N}$ arise only from shortening of iin uun by Apocope:

| sïinfol $^{2}$ | "bee" | cb | sīn- |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| zùung | "vulture" | cb | zùn- |

High nasalised vowels left word-initial by the loss of historical initial * $\boldsymbol{\eta}$ have been lowered to $\varepsilon \underset{\sim}{n} \supset \underset{\sim}{n}:$ cf $_{\text {jn }}^{n} b^{\varepsilon}$ "chew" and Dagbani nubi id.

### 4.2.2 Glottalisation

Glottalisation is confined to root vowels and the proclitic tense marker pà "earlier today." It does not affect vowel quality. For the marking of glottalisation by the symbol ' in the working orthography of this grammar see 1.3.

Glottalisation may be realised as a creaky-voiced glottal approximant [?] after the first vocalic mora, or the creakiness may be more widely spread within the vowel; but in either case, it behaves as a vowel feature and not a consonant (cf e/i u versus $y w$ below 4.2.3.) The flapping of initial $d$ mentioned above 3.1 occurs after $V$ ' as well as after $V$; and in general glottalised vowels pattern exactly like unglottalised vowels. The glottalisation which arises from deletion of ${ }^{\prime} g$ after a ia ua 6.3.1 does not differ phonetically from other types.

Tonal considerations confirm that ' is not a consonant. Thus

|  | $L i ̀ k a ̄ ' ~ m o ́ l ı f j ̄ . ~$ | "It's not a gazelle." |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| but $\quad$ Lì kā' $\downarrow$ nú'uḡ̄. | "It's not a hand." |  |
| like $\quad$ Lì kā' $\downarrow t i ́ ı g a ̄ . ~$ | "It's not a tree." |  |

differ in whether the H toneme is realised with a preceding downstep, because the sequence -lı- in mólıf5 is a separate unstressed syllable preceding the final stress on $-f \overline{5}$, whereas the ' in nú'ugj̄ is not a consonant and does not begin a syllable 5.3.2.

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

|  | Kà bà $g \bar{\varepsilon} n$ n. | "and they got tired" | is homophonous with |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | Kà bà $g \bar{\varepsilon}_{\sim}^{\prime}{ }^{\prime}$. | "and they got angry" |  |
| but | Bà g ¢̀ñ $n \bar{\varepsilon}$. | "they're tired" | differs in realisation from |
|  | Bà gèn' n̄. | "they're angry" |  |

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 some words for some informants.

| $k p \mathrm{~V}^{\prime} \eta^{\varepsilon}$ | "strengthen" |  | "set alight" |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| $n \bar{\prime}^{\prime} m s^{\varepsilon /}$ | "suffer" | $z \bar{z}^{\prime} m i s^{\varepsilon /}$ | "make equal" |
| $z a ̀ m ı s^{\varepsilon}$ | "learn, teach" | $n i ̄ 1 m^{\text {ne/ }}$ | "meat" |
| $k \bar{j}^{\prime} m^{\text {m/ }}$ | "hunger" | $y \overline{a ̃ ' ~}^{\prime} \mathrm{m}^{\mathrm{m} /}$ | "gall bladder; sense" |
| sù'クā+ | "well" | sù'm ${ }^{\text {m }}$ | "goodness" |

The adjective sùn $\eta^{2}\left(\mathrm{pl}\right.$ sòma+ ${ }^{+}$) "good" itself never has ' in my materials.
Tonal and structural considerations confirm that the vowels are short, but they are written long in the traditional orthography: kpع'ع la'aŋ ni'im kכ'כm ya'am su'vaa etc. In the 1996 NT and KB such cases are almost entirely confined to closed syllables: always namis zamis etc.

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

| and | Farefare | yó'úré | "name" | Kusaal | $y \bar{o}^{\prime} v r^{\varepsilon /}$ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | Farefare | kó'óm |  |  |  |
|  | Talni | kworm | "water" | Kusaal | kù'өm ${ }^{\text {m }}$ |
|  | Nabit | kpa'un | "guinea fowl" | Kusaal | $k p a ̄ ' \eta^{\text {º }}$ |
|  | Nabit | nonya'aŋ | "hen" | Kusaal | nう-nyá'à ${ }^{\text {a }}$ |

Nawdm, too, has $P$ in a number of words with Kusaal cognates showing glottalised vowels, e.g. mì-tâp "three" (in counting) = Kusaal ntán'; núp "arm, hand" = nú'ùg ${ }^{\text {J }}$. Vowel glottalisation is not predictable in these languages. In Kusaal it has interesting segmental effects in root-stems before a flexion beginning with a vowel 6.1.1.1. Manessy reconstructs implosive or glottalised consonants for the Oti-Volta protolanguage; vowel glottalisation might be a reflex of former glottalised consonants lenited after a root vowel.

### 4.2.3 Diphthongs

Kusaal has diphthongs of one or two morae, and also three-mora vowel sequences which, though realised as disyllabic with syllable division after the first mora 2.4, are structurally extra-long diphthongs; they always have identical second and third mora vowel qualities.
[ I ] is written $e(n o t \iota)$ after a $\supset v$, and [ $\mho$ ] is written $o$ (not $v$ ) after $i \iota \varepsilon$.
$i$ and $e$ are both realised [ $\left.{ }_{\Gamma}\right]$ except in $u i j$ and in the monophthong $i e$, where the realisation is [i]; [থ̃] is always written $u$.

| 1－Mora | 2－Mora |  |  | 3－Mora |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | ia | ［ia］ | iaa | ［ia：］ |
|  | ia＇a | ［İa ：］ |  |  |
|  | ua | ［ua］ | uaa | ［ua：］ |
|  | úaa | ［ṽą：］ | word－finally |  |
|  | 三 $\mathrm{v}^{\prime} \mathrm{a}$ | ［থ్సã］ | before consonants |  |
| ae［aI］ | ae | ［aI］ | aee | ［ar：］ |
| Јe［JI］ |  |  |  |  |
| ve［రİ］ | ve | ［JI］ |  |  |
| ui［ui］ | ui | ［ui］ | uii | ［ui：］ |
|  | ie | ［iI］ | iee | ［ii：］ |
|  | ue | ［UI］ | uee | ［Us：］ |
| au［aṽ］ | $a v$ | ［av］ | $a \cup v$ | ［av：］ |
|  | $i u$ | ［iu］ |  |  |
| ıU［IV］ | 10 | ［して］ |  |  |
|  | $\varepsilon \bigcirc$ | ［をひ］ |  |  |
| iau［ı్欠， |  |  |  |  |
|  | io | ［iv］ |  |  |

All diphthongs also occur nasalised；2－and 3－mora diphthongs also occur glottalised．ia＇a ua＇a v＇a are always glottalised；Apocope shortens them to ia＇una＇． The diphthongs $v^{\prime}$＇a $\tilde{N}_{N}$＇a appear as ú＇aa un＇aa respectively when LF－final． The digraphs ia ua represent single segments phonemically，but are realised as written．Written iə［iə］and ue［uө］，and their nasalised／glottalised forms，are the corresponding phonemically monophthongal long vowels 4．1．1，realised as falling diphthongs．All other sequences of dissimilar vowels are both phonetic and phonemic diphthongs； 3 －mora sequences are rising，and all others falling．
 diphthongs are the result of active morphophonemic processes：Fusion 6．3．1，and Fronting and Rounding both word－internally 6．3．2 and before Liaison Enclitics 8．2．1．1．Rounding diphthongs occur only word－finally and before velars；fronting diphthongs only word－finally and before $y$ ．

There is agreement in ATR between the morae of a ldiphthong，except with diphthongs resulting from fusion，fronting and rounding of iə $u \theta$ ，where second and third morae always remain［－ATR］，and with the additional diphthongs which arise as the result of the attachment of Liaison Enclitics after a word ending in a root vowel 8．2．1．The enclitic ${ }^{\circ}$［ $\mho$ ］＂him／her＂causes the preceding vowel mora to assimilate totally to［ $\mho$ ］，never［u］；the rounded mora is written $\circ$ 4．1 8．2．1．1：

| zū-ó-o | [zuv:] | "steal him" | LF |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| zū•ó | [zuv] | "steal him" | SF |

When the 2 pl subject enclitic ${ }^{\mathrm{ya}}$ is added to verb forms ending in $-\varepsilon$ like $b \grave{\varepsilon}^{+}$"be somewhere, exist", it creates the diphthong $\varepsilon \iota$, found only in this context:

| $b \bar{\iota} \iota y a ́ ~$ | $[b \varepsilon ı j a]$ | "be ye!" | LF |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| $b \bar{\varepsilon} \iota$ | $[b \varepsilon ı]$ | "be ye!" | SF |

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 glide components of short diphthongs:

| biāunk ${ }^{\text {a }}$ | [bİãơk] | "shoulder" | CVC |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| buàk ${ }^{\text { }}$ | [bũak] | "split" | CVC |
| dāu ${ }^{+}$ | [daṽ] | "man" | CV |
| gbàun ${ }^{\text { }}$ | [ ${ }^{\text {bbaun] }}$ | "book" | CVC |
| sjen | [sวัก ${ }^{\text {I }}$ ] | "blacksmith" SF | CV |
| tje | [ ${ }^{\text {h }}$ İI] | "be bitter" SF | CV |
| mùi ${ }^{+}$ | [mũi] | "rice" | CVCV |

Word-final -Ve -Vī -Vū behave exactly like word-final short root vowels in being followed by [?] before pause in statements 4.2.2:

Ò à $n \bar{\varepsilon}$ dāu. . [vanعdaতָ? ] "He is a man"

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

| $i \bar{a}^{+}$ | $[\mathrm{I} a]$ | "seek" |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| $y \bar{a}^{+/}$ | $[j a]$ | "houses" |

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

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

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

### 4.3 Epenthetic Vowels

As with the second morae of long vowels, the quality of epenthetic vowels would be predictable if it were not for Apocope deleting final rounded vowels. The default epenthetic vowel is $\iota$.
Before LF $-g^{\text {J }}-\eta^{\text {د }}$ the epenthetic vowel is $v$, remaining as such in the SF.

|  | āandı ${ }^{\text {a }}$ | $\leftarrow$ *ããdıga | "black plum tree" |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| but | gàadvg ${ }^{\text {a }}$ | $\leftarrow * g a a d ı g \nu$ | "(sur)passing" (gerund) |
| pl | mālıma+ | $\leftarrow *$ malımaa | "sacrifices" |
| but | mālun | $\leftarrow * m a l ı 0$ | "sacrifice" |

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

| $g b i ̄ g ı m ~ m^{\mathrm{n}}$ | [ ${ }^{\text {gbigim] }}$ | "lion" |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| yōgóm ${ }^{\text {ne }}$ | [jvgrm] | "camel" |
| kūgor ${ }^{\text {¢ }}$ | [ $\mathrm{k}^{\text {n ugur] }}$ | "stone" (ATR harmony, see below) |
| wābıd ${ }^{\text {¢/ }}$ | [wabid] | "elephants" |
| dūgud ${ }^{\text {/ }}$ | [dvgod] | "cooking pots" |
| $d$ ōgudíb ${ }^{\text {a }}$ | [dvgudib] | "people who cook" |
| pōogo-n ${ }^{\text {// }}$ | [phv:gvn] | "belly" ( $\left.p \bar{v} \cup g^{\text {a }}\right)+n^{\varepsilon}$ locative |

WK also 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:

```
    nóbìr }\mp@subsup{}{}{\varepsilon}\quad\mathrm{ "leg"
    kj̄loga "river"
yàmmug}\mp@subsup{}{}{\mathrm{ a }
or yàmmog}\mp@subsup{}{}{\circ
```

There is significant variation between speakers with rounding of epenthetic vowels after rounded root vowels. NT, ILK and KED have poogin for pōvgv-n ${ }^{\varepsilon /}$ "inside", KB povgin. The variation is not contrastive, and is significant only before word-final velars, where it can lead to reanalysis of the $g^{a}$ sg suffix as $g^{2}$ 9.3.2.1.

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

| $t \bar{\varepsilon} \eta^{a}$ | "land" | pl tēzns |  |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| but | $\leftarrow * t \varepsilon n s ı$ |  |  |
| $k u ̀ l ı \eta^{a}$ | "door" | pl kùlıs | $\leftarrow * k u l ı n s \iota$ |

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

|  | $t i s ı d^{\text {a }}$ | [ ${ }^{\text {h }}$ ISId] | "gives" |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| but | sigid ${ }^{\text {a/ }}$ | [sigid] | "lowers" |
|  | $b \bar{u} g u r^{\varepsilon}$ | [bvgur] | "spirit's dwelling" |
| but | kūgor ${ }^{\text {/ }}$ | [ $\mathrm{k}^{\text {hugur] }}$ | "stone" |
|  | yūgodır ${ }^{\text {e }}$ | [jugudir] | "hedgehog" |
|  | yūgúm ${ }^{\text {ne }}$ | [jvgum] | "camel" |

### 4.4 Affix Vowels

Except for nominal combining forms, and some Particle-Verbs 22.7.2, PostSubject Particles 27.1.4, and Emphatics 33.6, clitics have vowels showing the same set of vowel contrasts as the flexions of full words, as do prefixes 13.2.2; collectively, these are Affix Vowels.

There are three short affix vowels a $\iota v$, and three long aa $\iota v 0$.
Prosodic Clitics cause short LF-final $\iota v$ to be lowered to $\varepsilon \supset$, 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 6.4.

When the long affix vowels $ו \iota v$ are shortened by Apocope the resulting $\iota v$ are realised exactly like epenthetic vowels. Both short and long affix $\iota \cup ル v \cup$ are subject to ATR harmony under the same conditions as epenthetic vowels:

| mòlı̄ı | [mõlı:] LF | "gazelles" |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| mذ̀ı | [mỹlı] SF |  |
| wìdīı | [widi:] LF | "horses" |
| wìdı | [widi] SF |  |
|  |  |  |
| nīigíı | [nĩ:gr:] LF | "cows" |
| nïigí | [nĩ:gr] SF | (long root vowel) |

Harmony also occurs with $\iota v$ in prefixes, which are realised [i] [u] when the first mora of the root is $i$ or $u$ :

| tītā'ar ${ }^{\text {¢ }}$ |  | "big" |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| kòkj̄r ${ }^{\text {/ }}$ |  | "voice" |
| kìkīrıg ${ }^{\text {a/ }}$ | [ $\mathrm{k}^{\text {hi }}{ }^{\text {n }}$ irig] ${ }^{\text {a }}$ | "protective spirit" |
| sissi'əm ${ }^{\text {m }}$ | [sisi̇əm] | "wind" |
| dòndùug ${ }^{\text { }}$ | [dundu:g] | "cobra" |
| sīlınsíùng ${ }^{\text { }}$ | [silipsĩũg] | "spider" |
| vòlınvùuñ/દ | [vulimvũ:I] | "mason wasp" |

In nìn-tāa= "co-wife" [nintha:] the tense vowel probably reflects ATR harmony not crossing word division with the "bleached" prefix/cb nin 14.4.

ATR harmony is not contrastive (except in iu/io 6.3.2) and is ignored in the orthography, with $\iota v$ used throughout.

The vowel $\varepsilon$ appears for expected $\iota$ in various particles realised $n \bar{\varepsilon}$, with $n \bar{\iota}^{+/}$ found only as the non-Liaison Word allomorph of the locative marker. This may be due to phonetic nasalisation following $n$; nasalisation of affix vowels is never phonemic.

Glottalisation occurs in proclitic particles only in pà' $\leftarrow$ *pag "earlier today."
LF-final aa $ル$ appear in the $r^{\varepsilon} \mid a^{+}$and $f_{\mid} \iota^{+}$Class plural flexions. The SF-final vowels -a-ı in these plural forms behave like Apocope-Blocked forms before Liaison, with no prolongation of the vowel, except in the case of the form yáan ${ }^{\varepsilon}$, plural of yín ${ }^{\text {ne }}$ "(at) home", the irregular locative of $y \bar{i} r^{\varepsilon /}$ "house" 20.3.

LF-final aa u vo also arise from secondary prolongation in the LF of forms with Apocope Blocking 6.4, and LF-final vo by Liaison with the enclitic pronoun ${ }^{\circ}$ 8.2.1. All other cases are probably loanwords, like sūguró+ "forbearance."

The affix vowels $\iota$ and $v$ contrast consistently only after velars and wordinitially: $\iota$ is the default after alveolars, and $v$ after labials, labiodentals and labiovelars. Prefixes, however, show $v$ rather than $\iota$ before root $u / v$ (dòndùug ${ }^{\text { }}$ "cobra") and $\iota$ instead of $u$ before root $i / \iota(k p i ̄ k p i ̄ n n a / ~ " m e r c h a n t . ") ~ I n ~ f l e x i o n s ~-m m ~$ appears in place of *-mv; ı appears after labial consonants only in the base forms of Variable Verbs like zà $b^{\varepsilon}$ "fight" where it is probably analogical. Velars followed by affix-vowel $u$ could be internally reconstructed throughout as labiovelars (with 3sg ò $\leftarrow{ }^{*} \eta m \dot{o} 15.1 \mathrm{fn}$ ), but comparative evidence is against a historical origin of the Class suffix $-g^{\top}$ as $*-g b^{J}$. In any case, contrasts of rounded and unrounded affix vowels are found after alveolars outside Southwestern Oti-Volta. In Mooré and Farefare the plural suffix corresponding to singular -go is -do; -u appears as an imperfective verbal flexion after alveolars in Byali and Waama and so on. The 1pl pronoun tì "we" has the contrastive form tun in Toende Kusaal; compare e.g. Swahili tu-.

## 5 Tones

The tone system of Kusaal is structurally very similar to the two-tone terracing systems with emic downsteps seen very frequently among the neighbouring and related languages. The realisation is complicated by the fact that historical H tone followed by either L or downstep has become a new H toneme, higher than the original H , which is now the M (mid) toneme in a three-toneme system. The sequence ML cannot occur word-internally, but must become either HL or MH.

There are great constraints on tone patterns for single words, with nominals showing only three distinct basic patterns, and verbs only two. Intrinsic tone patterns are frequently changed by tone sandhi $8.3 \underline{8.4}$ and tone overlay 22.6.1.1.

### 5.1 Tonemes

There are three tonemes:

H High, marked with an acute:
ǵ́l|ع "egg"

M Mid, marked with a macron: bā ${ }^{\text {a }}$ "ring"
L Low, marked with a grave:

Every vocalic mora carries a toneme, except when this is delinked by Levelling 5.2 or H Spreading 5.3.1. When syllabic, $m n$ bear L toneme, except for Serialiser- $n$, 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. bēogu-n for b̄̄̄̄ḡ̄-n, púkj̀כñ for pókj̀う̀nr. After an acute mark, however, an unmarked mora is toneless, and the H toneme extends over both morae 5.3.1:

Lì kā' mólıfj $+\varnothing$. "It's not a gazelle."
binan 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 "bat", kùkpàrıg "palm tree."

The H toneme is in certain circumstances realised with a preceding phonetic downstep, lowering it to M level 5.3.2, but this is entirely a question of surface realisation, and does not affect the relationship of the H to following tonemes.

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

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

```
    m̀ sáam "my guests"
but m̀ gb\varepsiloń\varepsiloǹñm
"my sleep"
```


### 5.2 Levelling within Syllables

Only closed syllables may carry two different tonemes. Before word-final -mm, a syllable behaves as open tonally 7.2.1.

A pitch rise is not permitted within a syllable; the first toneme is delinked and the second applies to both morae. This process follows all external tone sandhi processes. It occurs 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 2.2.1; it applies also when the Remoteness Marker Liaison Enclitic $n^{\varepsilon}$ imposes M toneme on the second mora of a LL root vowel 8.2.3.

|  | sáam ${ }^{\text {ma }}$ | $\leftarrow *$ sāámmã | "guests" |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| LF | dáamm | $\leftarrow *$ dāámm | "beer" |
| LF | tīımm | $\leftarrow *$ tī̀mm | "medicine" |
|  | $m \bar{\varepsilon} \varepsilon-n^{\varepsilon /}$ | $\leftarrow m \bar{\varepsilon} \bar{\varepsilon}-n^{\varepsilon /}$ | "build" $m \grave{\Sigma}^{+}+\mathrm{rem} n^{\varepsilon}$ |

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

Dāu lā mé $\quad$-n ( $\leftarrow m \bar{\varepsilon} \bar{\varepsilon}-n) \quad$ "The man built (earlier today.)"
Man:sG ART build-Rem

### 5.3 Realisation Rules

These realisation rules apply after all toneme allocation by Tone Patterns 7.1, Insubordination Marking 22.6.1.1, external tone sandhi 8.3 8.4, and Levelling 5.2. $H$ Spreading precedes the insertion of downsteps before $H$ tonemes.

### 5.3.1 H Spreading

If two successive open morae 2.4 carry the tonemes HL, and the L mora is either the second mora of a root vowel or an epenthetic vowel, the L is delinked, and the H is realised across both morae, unless the L mora precedes Liaison.

```
Lì kā' mólıfj ' Ø. "It's not a gazelle."
zinan neg.be gazelle:sg neg.
```

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

The rule does not apply if either mora is closed:

Lì à nē mólìf. "It's a gazelle."
3INAN COP FOC gazelle:sg.

Bà à n̄̄ dỉəəsídìb. "They are receivers."
3PL COP FOC receiver:PL.

Lì kā' būn-sábìl/ह̄ $\quad+\varnothing$. "It's not a black thing."
zinan neg.be thing-black:sg neg.

Written intervocalic $k p t$ represent the clusters $k k t t p p$; thus

Ka ya pu siakida.
"But you did not agree." (Lk 13:34)
Kà yà pū siákìdā ${ }^{+} \varnothing$.
And 2PL NeG.IND agree:dIPF NEG.

Intervocalic $\square$ is sometimes treated as single; so in the 1996 NT of Rom 1:28
dine ka ba pu nar ye ba nipida. "things they should not be doing"
lìnı kà bà pū nār yદ́ bà nípìdā ${ }^{+} \varnothing$
or lìnı kà bà pū nār yé bà níyıdā ${ }^{+} \varnothing$
rel.inan and 3pl neg.ind must that 3pl do:dipF neg

H Spreading does not occur if the L mora falls on a root vowel or an affix vowel; thus with the word dàgj̀bıga "left hand", where the dà- is a derivational prefix before the root gj̀b-14:

```
Lì kā' dágòbıgā \({ }^{+} \varnothing\). "It's not a left hand."
zinan neg.be left.hand:sg neg.
```

With diga+ "dwarfs", where the -a is an affix vowel:

Bà à nē dígà. "They are dwarfs."
3PL COP FOC dwarf:PL.

H Spreading does not apply to a L mora preceding Liaison; thus

Kà j̄n zábì $f$. "And he fought you."
And 3AN.CNTR fight 2SG.OB.
shows the same final tones as

Lì à n $\bar{\varepsilon}$ mólìf. "It's a gazelle."
3INAN COP foc gazelle:sg.
but Ò $p \bar{u} \quad$ zábì $f \bar{\jmath} \quad+\varnothing$. "He didn't fight you."
3AN neg.ind fight 2sG.ob neg.

Lì kā' mólıfj ${ }^{+} \varnothing$. "It's not a gazelle."
binan neg.be gazelle:sg neg.

As a consequence of H Spreading, the LF tones of words like nú'ùg ${ }^{\text { }}$ "hand" coincide completely with those of words with H toneme over a long vowel because of 3-Mora Reduction 7.2.1.1 like náaf "cow."

Lì kā' nú'ugう ${ }^{+} \varnothing$. "It's not a hand."
binan neg.be hand:sg neg.

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

Superscript Notation 2.2.1 writes such words with the SF tones: náaf nú'ùg ${ }^{\top}$. The syllable-based nature of the rule for downstepping before H 5.3.2 means there is no downstep when the H and L do not fall in the same syllable:

```
Lì kā' nóbırē \({ }^{+} \varnothing\). "It's not a leg."
binan neg.be leg:sg neg.
```

Thus nú'ùg ${ }^{\top}$ matches nóbìr ${ }^{\varepsilon}$ tonally in the SF but náaf ${ }^{\top}$ in the LF:

Lì à nē nóbìr.
Lì à nē nú'ùg.
Lì à nē náaf.
Lì kā' nóbırē.
Lì kā' $\downarrow n u ́ ' u g ̄ ̄$.
Lì kā' $\downarrow n a ́ a f \bar{a}$.
"It's a leg."
"It's a hand."
"It's a cow."
"It's not a leg."
"It's not a hand."
"It's not a cow."

The rule for H Spreading given above raises certain theoretical problems.
The clusters kk tt $p p$ מף are in fact realised as single except in very slow speech, yet close the preceding syllable for the purposes of the rule. This could be encompassed by setting up a rule of degemination applying later than H Spreading, or by adding the condition that the HL morae should not be separated by an unvoiced plosive. The fluctuation in behaviour of $\eta$ may reflect that the rule is in fact changing in this way. In Tone Patterns kk tt מע also behave as clusters 7.2.1 7.3.1 but this can be explained in the same way as the tonal anomalies due to the simplification of impermissible consonant clusters 7.2.1.1.

A more serious difficulty is that H Spreading is sensitive to word division even in cases where this involves Liaison:

```
Ò pū zábì_fj \ +ø. "He didn't fight you."
3AN NeG.Ind fight 2sG.ob neg.
```



There is no phonological marker of word division in such cases apart from tones. The simplest approach is to accept that the tone system is sensitive to word divisions for which there is no segmental correlate. The division is in any case justifiable morphologically and syntactically 2.3.2.

A more natural analysis dispenses with H spreading, and regards the mora following H in such cases not as L but as intrinsically toneless. A mora is intrinsically toneless if its vowel is epenthetic, open in the LF and preceded by a mora with an intrinsic tone ( $\mathrm{L}, \mathrm{M}$ or H ), which is then realised over both morae. Medial kk tt pp are again treated as clusters. Second morae may unexpectedly carry H tonemes, when underlying segments have been deleted 7.2.1.1. When Tone Patterns are overridden by Independency Marking 22.6.1.1 or M Raising 8.4, new tonemes are allocated on the basis of the surface segmental shape. After Apocope, a toneme is allocated to the last vocalic mora of a SF if it was toneless, with M following preceding M, and L following H or L, except with words like náaf "cow" where the final vocalic mora remains toneless (as opposed to e.g. nú'ùg ${ }^{\text {ºn }}$ hand.")

Even in this scheme, no actual contrast in realisation between toneless morae and those with marked M or L can ever occur except after H , where the contrast is already marked in the orthography by the convention that any unmarked mora after H is toneless 5.1. These two analyses are thus descriptively equivalent, and the tonal orthography of this grammar is compatible with either.

### 5.3.2 Downstepping before $\mathbf{H}$

Downstep insertion applies after Levelling and H Spreading.

Downstep is inserted before H after:
H : always
M : if the next syllable is stressed and no L toneme intervenes

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

Downstep lowers H to the level of the last preceding M: thus, in MHM the final $M$ has the pitch of the first, but $\mathrm{M} \downarrow \mathrm{HM}$ 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 2.4 . Where relevant, bold type marks stressed and green marks unstressed syllables.

Kà m̀ gכ̄s لbún lā.
And 15G look.at donkey:SG ART.
"And I looked at the donkey."
but Kà m̀ gכ̄s bún lā bēogu-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:DIPF 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-sòn kā'e ${ }^{+} \varnothing$.
1SG.CNTR goat-good:SG NEG.be NEG.
"My good goat isn't there."

| Yō $\downarrow$ góm | kā'e ${ }^{+} \varnothing$. | "There's no camel." |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Camel:sg | neg.be neg. |  |

but Yūgúm lā kā'e ${ }^{+} \varnothing$. "The camel's not there."
Camel:sg art neg.be neg.

No downstep when L toneme intervenes before the stressed syllable:

Lì à ne $\downarrow$ náaf lā. "It's the cow."
IINAN COP FOC COW:SG ART.
but $L i ̀$ à $n \bar{\varepsilon}$ dóòg lā. "It's the hut."
IINAN COP FOC hut:SG ART.

The tonemes of the following syllable itself are not relevant:

Mān kókj̀m kā'e ${ }^{+} \varnothing$. "My leper isn't there."
1sG.cntr leper:sg neg.be neg.

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

LFs before pause transfer stress from the root to the affix:

Lì kā' nȳ̄̄ $\downarrow$ ríf $\bar{\sim}$ ${ }^{+} \varnothing$. "It's not an egusi seed."
binan neg.be egusi:sg neg.

Lì kā' púkj̀כñrē ${ }^{+} \varnothing$. "It's not a widow."
binan neg.be widow:sg neg.

Ànó'כnì_ø ny
Who ser see widow:sg ca?
"Who saw a widow?"

IINAN COP FOC widow:SG ART.

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

Ò pō yādı $\downarrow$ gídā ${ }^{+} \varnothing . \quad$ "He isn't scattering."
3AN NEG.IND Scatter:DIPF NEG.
but Ànó'כnì_ø yādıgídà ${ }^{+} \varnothing$ ? "Who is scattering?"
Who ser scatter:DIPF cQ?

Lì kā' bī- $\downarrow$ púnā ${ }^{+} \varnothing$. "It's not a girl."
3INAN NEG.be child-girl:sG neg.
but Lì kā' bī-púnàa $+\varnothing$ ? "Isn't it a girl?"
zINAN NEG.be child-girl:sG PQ?

Ò pū nyē $\downarrow s v^{\prime} \cup \mathbf{g a ̄}{ }^{+} \varnothing$. "She didn't find a knife."
3AN Neg.ind see knife:sg neg.
but Ànó'כnì_ ø ny
Who ser see knife:sg ca.
and Ò pū dúgè ${ }^{+} \varnothing{ }^{+} \varnothing$ ? "Didn't she cook?"
3AN NEG.IND Cook NEG PQ.

Downstep is inserted between any two adjacent H tonemes:

Kà ì ḡ̄s gél lā bēogu-n.
And 1sG look.at egg:SG ART morning-Loc.
"And I looked at the egg in the morning."
but $\dot{M}$ 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 bēogo-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 bēogo-n.
1sG look.at cow:SG ART morning-Loc.
"I looked at the cow in the morning."

## 6 Word Segmental Structure

This section treats the structure of free words, along with bound words 2.3 which have the same segmental and tonal form as free nominals. These comprise Combining Forms, and also some Emphatics 33.6, Conjunctions 27.1.3, particle-verbs 22.7.2 and Post-Subject Particles 27.1.4.

Clause linker particles, Verbal Predicator particles, the article, prepositions, the locative marker, and the bound pronouns resemble affixes of full words, with the same much-reduced "affix vowel" contrasts; for their tonal behaviour see 7.4. Enclitics of this type are subject to Apocope; in some cases this results in a SF consisting of a single consonant 2.3.2, or even a SF with no segmental form at all $\underline{8}$. Enclitics with SFs of the form CV behave as words with Apocope Blocking 6.4. Most proclitics other than nominal cbs have not undergone Apocope; some end in long vowels impossible for SFs: lغ̀ "but" 22.7.1 ny $\bar{\sim} \varepsilon$ "habitually" 22.7.2. 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 4.2.2.

### 6.1 Roots, Prefixes and Suffixes

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

$$
\begin{array}{lll}
\text { sāana/ }^{\text {a/un }} & \text { "stranger" } & \text { [sa:n] } \\
\text { unc }^{\mathrm{n} \mathrm{\varepsilon}} & \text { "dry season" } & \text { [Pu:n], [u:n] }
\end{array}
$$

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

| a | $j a / \varepsilon$ | ua/د |  |  | $i$ | $u$ | 1 | 0 |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| aa | iə | ue | $\varepsilon \varepsilon$ | כ | ii | uu | 11 | vo |

The digraphs represent monophthongs, short or long, affected by Agolle Vowel Breaking 4.1.1. At this underlying level, short ia ua are in complementary distribution with $\varepsilon \supset$ respectively 4.1.1, all long vowels have glottalised counterparts, and all vowels have contrastively nasalised counterparts except for iə uө ı v uvo. Short iu only occur nasalised after $m n$ and $n y n w \leftarrow \Omega \widehat{\eta m}$, however 4.2.1.

A few words contain the Primary Diphthongs av aun uil 4.2.3. Additional primary diphthongs ia'a v'a iañ ${ }_{\sim}^{\prime} a u_{\sim}^{n} ' a$ have arisen by a historical lenition of root-final *g 6.1.1.1.

Long vowels frequently undergo fronting or rounding of their second morae before fronted or rounded segments 6.3.2 8.2.1.1; deletion of final vowels by Apocope may then remove conditioning factors, creating contrastive diphthongs:

$$
\text { vīidíl } \quad \text { "owls" } \quad \text { but } \quad \mathrm{sg} \text { vīugal } \quad \text { "owl" }
$$

Only $b d g I m n s r$ occur as second consonants of roots.
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 comprise the consonants $g s n / d m$, with $r$ only in a few words which are probably loans. G s $n$ cannot follow another suffix at all, and / only does so in the combination -Im which derives abstract nouns from other nouns. The suffix $d$ occurs almost exclusively in nominal derivatives from verb stems and frequently supplants a preceding derivational suffix or is itself omitted. If there are three derivational suffixes the last two can only be $-d m$ or $-/ m$. 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 VCV CVn CVsın CVIın. They only occur in nominal stems. Their vowels are limited to the short affix vowels a $\iota$ and show no contrastive glottalisation or nasalisation. A few stems have two successive prefixes.

$$
\begin{array}{llll}
\text { tītā'ar_}^{\varepsilon} & \text { "big" } & \text { bùmbàrıga } & \text { "ant" } \\
\text { sīlınsíùngg } & \text { "spider" } & \text { tàsıntàlı } & \text { "palm of hand" }
\end{array}
$$

A stem may constitute a word by itself, or may add a single flexional suffix. The flexional suffixes are a ba ga sı fu ı rı lı aa go dı mm bu da ma na la. These draw their vowels from the set of affix vowels a $\iota v$ which here may be short or long:

| $a$ | $l$ | $v$ |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| aa | $l l$ | $v 0$ |

Affix vowels show no contrastive nasalisation or glottalisation.
Final - $m m$ represents - $m v$; 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 $\varepsilon$ ว.

Stem

| bii- | "child" | sg biïg ${ }^{\text {a }}$ | pl bïis $^{\text {® }}$ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| dう̀- | "hut" | sg dj̀ $\mathrm{g}^{\text {a }}$ | pl dう̀ ${ }^{\text {d }}$ |
| kù' $\theta$ - | "water" | $\mathrm{sg} k u{ }^{\prime} \mathrm{m}^{\mathrm{m}}$ |  |

Before vowel-initial flexions CVV root-stems become CVC; in productive forms always CVy or CVd 6.1.1.1:

| Stem | กว๊- | "mouth" | sg $n \bar{\partial} r^{\varepsilon /}$ | pl nכ̄yá ${ }^{+}$ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | yō'v- | "name" | sg $y \bar{u}^{\prime} u r^{\varepsilon /}$ | pl yōdá+ |

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

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

| kùndùna | "jackal" |
| :--- | :--- |
| $g \bar{m} m p u \bar{z} \bar{\varepsilon} r^{\varepsilon /}$ | "duck" |

Consonant clusters following the root vowel may only be kk tt pp nn mm II or $m n$. Other two-member consonant clusters only occur between words (including between the members of compounds) and word-internally in loanwords:

$n_{\sim}^{n w a ̄ d-b i ́ l a ~}$<br>bùrkìn ${ }^{\text {a }}$

"star" (for the hyphen see above 2.3)
"honourable/free/honest person" ( $\leftarrow$ Songhay)

All other pairs of consonants within words are separated by epenthetic vowels. Adjacent pairs of consonants either assimilate to a permitted cluster or a single consonant, or insert an epenthetic vowel, which is $\iota$ by default but may be rounded to $v$ by adjacent consonants or after a short rounded root vowel 4.3.

| Stem | nwād- "month" | $\begin{aligned} & +\mathrm{sg}-g a \\ & +\mathrm{pl}-\mathrm{sl} \end{aligned}$ |  | ñwādıgá ñwādısé | LF ñ~wādıg <br> LF nwādıs | $\begin{aligned} & \mathrm{SF} \\ & \mathrm{SF} \end{aligned}$ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Stem | kūg- "chair" | + sg -ga | $\rightarrow$ | kūka | LF kūk | SF |
|  |  | + pl -sı | $\rightarrow$ | kūguse | LF kūgus | SF |
| Stem | nób- "leg" | $+\mathrm{sg}-\mathrm{rl}$ | $\rightarrow$ | nóbırē | LF nóbir | SF |
| Stem | dūm- "knee" | + pl -aa | $\rightarrow$ | dūmaa | LF dūma | SF |
| Stem | dūm- "knee" | + sg-rı | $\rightarrow$ | dūmne | LF dūm | SF |

Deletion of word-final -כ after velars by Apocope may lead to a contrast between round and unrounded epenthetic vowels 6.3.2:

```
    āan~dıg}\mp@subsup{}{}{\mathrm{ a }
but gàadvg}\mp@subsup{}{}{\circ}\leftarrow*gaadıgv "(sur)passing" (gerund
```


### 6.1.1 Root Alternations

### 6.1.1.1 CVV~CV~CVC

The majority of roots ending in a root vowel show a long vowel before all consonant-initial flexional and derivational suffixes: $k \bar{u}^{+}$"kill" dipf $k \bar{u} v d^{a /}$.

Some root-stems with short CV- throughout are probably single-mora roots:

| $y i i^{\varepsilon /}$ | "house" | $y \bar{a}^{+/}$ | plural |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| $z \bar{a}^{+/}$ | "millet" |  |  |
| $\mathrm{Ki}^{+/}$ | "cereal, millet" |  |  |
| mùi ${ }^{+}$ | "rice" |  |  |
| bïla | "little" | bībss ${ }^{\text {e }}$ | plural |
| $z u ̄ g^{\prime /}$ | "head" | $z u ̄ t^{\varepsilon /}$ | plural |

The cbs of such words may behave tonally like nominal prefixes 7.2.4, probably because, unlike all other cbs, they have not undergone Apocope.

Various words showing short $C V$ - stems throughout have most likely levelled the short vowel which has arisen by phonological rule in one form 9.2.1.

Some roots ending in a vowel show short vowels before some consonant-initial suffixes and long vowels before others. Such roots fall into two categories.

When the long-vowel variant is glottalised, the vowel is always one of


Before flexional and derivational suffixes beginning with $* g$, the vowel is shortened and loses its glottalisation, while the ${ }^{*} g$ becomes $k k$ :

| $z z^{\text {a }}{ }^{\text {a }}$ | "compound" | $z a ̀ ' a s^{\varepsilon}$ | plural | ( $g^{\text {a }} \mid s^{\varepsilon}$ Class) |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 1āuk ${ }^{\text {a }}$ | "item of goods" | lā'ad ${ }^{\text {c }}$ | plural | ( $g \mid d^{\varepsilon}$ Class) |
| yàk ${ }^{\text {® }}$ | "unhang" | yà'al ${ }^{\text {¢ }}$ | "hang up" |  |
| piàunk ${ }^{\text {ºn }}$ | "word" | pinañ ${ }^{\text {a }}{ }^{\text {d }}$ | plural | ( $g \mid d^{\varepsilon}$ Class) |
| pưāk ${ }^{\text {a }}$ | "female" (adj) | $p o ̄ ' a s^{\varepsilon}$ | plural | ( $g^{\text {a }} s^{\varepsilon}$ Class) |
| pu'āa | "woman" | $p \bar{o}^{\prime} a b^{\text {a }}$ | plural | ${ }^{( }{ }^{\text {a }} \mathrm{b}^{\text {a }}$ Class) |
| bjk ${ }^{\text {² }}$ | "pit" | $b$ b̀' $^{\text {d }}{ }^{\varepsilon}$ | plural | ( $g \mid d^{\varepsilon}$ Class) |

 long i'a u'a, though not with the corresponding short vowels created from i'a u'a by Apocope 2.2.2. However, root-stems in a'a or an'a may either pattern like this or show the same behaviour as regular aa aan roots, as a lexical matter in each case:

$$
\text { dà'a= "market" } \quad \text { dà'as } s^{\varepsilon} \quad \text { plural } \quad\left(g^{a} \mid s^{\varepsilon} \text { Class }\right)
$$

Comparative evidence shows that the glottalisation in these stems is secondary to the deletion of an underlying historical root－final $* g$ ，and the $k k$ forms are the outcome of the regular consonant assimilation $* g g \rightarrow k k$ 6．2．1；compare the deletion of＊g after aa iə uө aañ $\varepsilon \varepsilon \underset{\sim}{n}{ }_{\sim}{ }_{\sim}^{n}$（and their glottalised counterparts）treated in 6．3．1， where the process of deletion is regarded as a synchronic rule．The deletion of $* g$ after short vowels is probably quite recent historically（see the end of 6．3．1．）

The LFs of Base Forms of verbs of this type end in a long vowel as usual：

$$
\text { piāñ~n'a "speak" base form piāñ'ad }{ }_{\sim}^{\mathrm{a} /} \text { dipf }
$$

The sole verbal form which is not a Variable Verb shows a fronting diphthong：

$$
k a ̄ ' e^{+} \quad \text { "not be" }
$$

Non－glottalised roots of this kind show the long vowel before suffixes beginning with $* g$ and the short vowel elsewhere．The explanation is probably again to be sought in deletion of root－final consonants，but in this case the process has occurred much earlier in the history of the Western Oti－Volta family，and the forms have been subject to considerable analogical levelling within paradigms．

Suffixes beginning with $* d$ change this to $t t$ ，and $* b$ changes to $p p$ ，but before suffixes beginning with $* g$ the long vowel remains：

| fūug ${ }^{\text {／}}$ | ＂clothing＂ |  | pl fūt ${ }^{\varepsilon /}$ |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| $p \bar{\nu}^{\text {g }}$／ | ＂field＂ |  | pl $p{ }^{\text {¢ }} t^{\varepsilon /}$ |  |
| dう̀ $\mathrm{g}^{\text { }}$ | ＂hut＂ |  | $\mathrm{pl} d \grave{\mathrm{t}}{ }^{\varepsilon}$ |  |
| dāog ${ }^{\text {a }}$ | ＂male＂ | cf | dāpa | ＂men＂ |
| t亏̄ $g^{\text { }}$ | ＂bitter＂ | cf | tōe ${ }^{\text {a／}}$ | ＂be bitter＂ |
| $g a ̄ a n{ }_{\sim}=1$ | ＂ebony tree＂ | cf | gāñ $r^{\varepsilon /}$ | ＂ebony fruit＂ |

Idiosyncratic singular forms are seen in the two ${ }^{a} \mid b^{a}$ Class nouns 2．2．2

$$
\begin{array}{lll}
\text { dāù } & \text { "man" } & \text { pl dāpa } \\
\text { tāunn } & \text { +/ } & \text { "opposite-sex sib" }
\end{array}
$$

The long vowel before a nominal singular suffix $-g^{\text {a }}$ or $-g^{\text { }}$ is usually generalised throughout the flexional paradigm．Thus the alternative plural forms occur

| fūug ${ }^{\text {／}}$ | ＂clothing＂ | pl fūud ${ }^{\text {／}}$ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| pכ̄วg ${ }^{\text {／}}$ | ＂field＂ | pl pj̄วd ${ }^{\text {／}}$ |
| $d \grave{\partial g}{ }^{\text { }}$ | ＂hut＂ | pl dう̀ $\mathrm{d}^{\varepsilon}$ |

and the plurals always show long vowels in

| dāug ${ }^{\text {a }}$ | "male" | pl dāad ${ }^{\text {ع }}$ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| tō ${ }^{\text { }}$ | "bitter" | pl tכ̄ว ${ }^{\text {¢ }}$ |
| gāañ $=1$ | "ebony tree" | pl gāans ${ }^{\text {¢/ }}$ |

Variable Verbs which show a short vowel before dynamic imperfective -ta invariably introduce it into the $-m^{\text {a }}$ imperative, with gemination of the $m$; from a historical point of view this too is due to analogical levelling:

| ${ }_{\sim}^{n} y \bar{\varepsilon}^{+}$ | "see" | dipf $n y \bar{\varepsilon} t^{\text {a/ }}$ | imp ñyèm ${ }^{\text {a }}$ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| $d \bar{v}^{+}$ | "rise" | dipf dōtal | imp dòm ${ }^{\text {a }}$ |
| $1 \mathrm{u}^{+}$or $\mathrm{li}^{+}$ | "fall" | dipf lùt ${ }^{\text {a }}$ or lit ${ }^{\text {a }}$ | imp lùm ${ }^{\text {a }}$ or $\mathrm{lim}^{\text {a }}$ |
| $z{ }^{+}$ | "run" | dipf ż̀ ${ }^{\text {a }}$ | imp zòm ${ }^{\text {a }}$ |
| $d i^{+}$ | "eat" | dipf dit ${ }^{\text {a }}$ | imp dìm ${ }^{\text {a }}$ |
| $y i^{+}$ | "emerge" | dipf $y \overline{i t}^{\text {a/ }}$ | imp yim ${ }^{\text {a }}$ |

The irregular verb
$k \bar{\varepsilon}^{+}$
"allow"
$\operatorname{dipf} k \bar{\varepsilon} t^{a /}$
$\left.\operatorname{imp} k \dot{\varepsilon}\right|^{\text {a }}$
does not show gemination of the initial of the unique suffix - ${ }^{2}$.
Before derivational suffixes the vowel is usually long:

| $d i s s^{8}$ | "feed" | cf | $d i^{+}$ | "eat" |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| vō'ug ${ }^{\varepsilon /}$ | "come alive" | cf | $v \bar{u} r^{\varepsilon /}$ | "alive" |
|  |  |  | $v \bar{e}^{\text {a/ }}$ | "be alive" |
|  |  |  | $v \bar{o} \mathrm{~m}^{\mathrm{m} /}$ | "life" |
| dàalım ${ }^{m}$ | "masculinity" | cf | dāpa | "men" |

There are exceptions with -s-:

| $g \bar{\sim} s^{\varepsilon}$ | "look" | $\operatorname{dipf} g \bar{\square} t^{\text {a/ }}$ | imp gòm ${ }^{\text {ma }}$ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  |  | or gj̄sıda/ | or gj̀sıma |
| $t i s^{\varepsilon}$ | "give" | dipf tit ${ }^{\text {a }}$ |  |
|  |  | or tissıda |  |
| $y \overline{i s}{ }^{\varepsilon}$ | "make go/come out" | $y i^{+}$ | "emerge" |

The causative $y \overline{i s}{ }^{\varepsilon}$ has a by-form $y \overline{i i} i^{\varepsilon /}$; this is clearly shown to be analogical by its gerund yïisíb ${ }^{\text {² }}$, the unique 3-mora stem in the $b^{\text { }}$ Class.


```
n亏̄-lój̀r^^ "fasting" ("mouth-tying")
fū-y\varepsiloń\varepsiloǹr` & "shirt-wearing" (WK, nonce-form)
```

There are two instances of a short vowel before $-r^{\varepsilon}$ ：

$$
\begin{array}{ll}
\text { nā'-lór } r^{\varepsilon} & \text { "place in the compound for tying up cows" WK } \\
\text { wìd-lōr }{ }^{\varepsilon /} & \text { "place in the compound for tying up horses" WK }
\end{array}
$$

As with glottalised alternating CVV $\sim C V$ types，the explanation of these phenomena probably lies in the deletion or assimilation of historical root－final consonants，but any such consonants have been lost in the related languages too，in most cases without trace．Nevertheless，Mooré evidence suggests that such roots originally had the form $* C V K$ or $* C V \beta$ ，where $* \AA * \beta$ represent palatal and labial（or labiovelar）consonants of some kind．（This＊$\kappa$ may be identifiable with the $* K$ of 6．2．1．1；the symbol＊$\beta$ is suggested by Manessy＇s demonstration that two distinct initial consonants have fallen together as Oti－Volta initial＊b：cf Chakali bช̃テ̃ク＂goat＂＝ Kusaal būvgá，bié＂child＂＝bïiga＇，but váà＂dog＂＝bāa＝，vóg＂shrine＂＝būgvrع．）

| Mooré | Kusaal |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| zòe | $z{ }^{+}$ | ＂run＂ |
| kósegà | kùkう̄r ${ }^{\text {g／}}$ | ＂voice＂ |
| lùi | lù ${ }^{+}$or $\mathrm{il}^{+}$ | ＂fall＂ |
| ráoa | dāu ${ }^{+}$ | ＂man＂ |
| rápa | dāpa | ＂men＂ |
| tão | tòn ${ }^{+}$ | ＂shoot＂ |
| tãpo［＂bow＂］ | tānp ${ }^{\text {a }}$ | ＂war＂ |

Allomorphs with a short vowel and a following geminate consonant may have originated from assimilation of root－final＊$\kappa$ with following alveolars and root－final＊$\beta$ with following labials．The CVV allomorphs seen before velars would result via a sequence of epenthetic vowel insertion，lenition of $* K / * \beta$ and development of a long vowel by Fusion．The monophthongs in verb base forms can be accounted for by levelling：SFs ending in a vowel correspond to LFs with the vowel lengthened in all cases except Invariable Verbs 2．2．2．Plurals corresponding to singulars with suffixes beginning with velars have generally aquired long vowels by levelling，and Variable Verbs with a short vowel preceding $-t^{a}$ in the dipf also show a short vowel in the $-m^{a}$ imperative（with gemination of $m$ ）in accordance with the strongly marked tendency to levelling within verb paradigms．

Roots ending in * $\kappa / * \beta$ may preserve the final consonant as $/ \mathrm{y} / \mathrm{or} / \mathrm{w} /$ before a vowel-initial suffix. Thus in the singulars of the ${ }^{\mathrm{a}} \mid b^{\mathrm{a}}$ nouns

| dāu ${ }^{+}$ | "man" 2.2.2 | pl dāp ${ }^{\text {a }}$ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| tāuñ ${ }^{+/}$ | "sib of opposite sex" | pl tānp $p^{\mathrm{a}}$ |
| sāen ${ }^{+}$ | "blacksmith" | pl sāañ $b^{\text {a }}$ |
| or sāeñ ${ }^{\text {a }}$ |  |  |
| sjen ${ }^{+}$ | "witch" | pl sว̄กn $\mathrm{b}^{\text {a }}$ |
| or sjenen ${ }^{\text {a }}$ |  |  |

Similarly, root-final *- $<$ - is preserved as $y$ before the flexion -a of the Invariable Verbs $t \bar{\jmath} e^{a /}$ "be bitter" and $v \bar{u} e^{a / ~ " b e ~ a l i v e, ~ a ̀ e n ~} n^{\text {a }}$ "be something/somehow" 11.2.

Preservation of root-final *-K- as y probably underlies the regular formation with root-stems in CVV or CV before the Noun Class plural suffix $-a^{+}$:

| kùk̄̄r ${ }^{\text {¢ }}$ | "voice" | pl kùkj̄yá+ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| $g a ̄ n r^{\varepsilon /}$ | "fruit of Nig | pl gānyá+ |
| bàlàar ${ }^{\text {e }}$ | "stick, club" | pl bàlàya+ ${ }^{+}$ |
| nว̄วr ${ }^{\text {c/ }}$ | "mouth" | pl nōyá ${ }^{+}$ |
| $z \bar{u} r^{\varepsilon}$ | "tail" | pl zūya+ |

The words with $\operatorname{sg} C V r^{\varepsilon}$ show the expected assimilation of $* R r \rightarrow * r r \rightarrow r$. The singulars in $C V V r^{\varepsilon}$ would represent the expected outcome for $* C V \beta$ root-stems; this would imply that the plurals would have to be the result of levelling of *CVwa+ to *CVya+ ${ }^{+}$there is comparative evidence that this has in fact taken place historically (see on Mooré náooré "leg", plural náoa below.) In current Kusaal, consonantal /w/ only occurs root-initially.

Synchronically, all these are simply CVV stems, and the rule is for the vowel to be shortened in the plural; this is clear from the changes in

| bïrr ${ }^{\text {g/ }}$ | "elder same-sex sibling" | pl biēyá ${ }^{+}$ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| sūөr ${ }^{\text {/ }}$ | "road" | pl suēyá+ |
| $z u ̄ ө r^{\varepsilon}$ | "hill" | pl |

where the plurals show ie ue vowels [ir] [ur] found only in this one context.
Taking the $-y$ - of these $r^{\varepsilon} \mid a^{+}$Class plurals as arising from root-final *K accounts for its different patterning from the $-y$ - of Invariable Verbs, which is probably derived from the initial * $\widehat{\text { of }}$ a suffix 11.2 ; before that, glottalised vowels remain long and the $-y$ - is not replaced by $d$ : sū'eya/ "own", cf sū'vlím ${ }^{m}$ "possession" 13.1.1.4.

A different rule of attachment of $-a^{+}$is followed after Root-stems in with glottalised long vowels $C V^{\prime} V$, which change to $C V d$ :

| $y \bar{U}^{\prime} \mathrm{r}^{\varepsilon /}$ | ＂name＂ | pl yūdá ${ }^{+}$ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| pذ̀n＇כ $r^{\varepsilon}$ | ＂cripple＂ | pl poñ ${ }^{\text {a }}{ }^{+}$ |
| tītā＇ar ${ }^{\text {a }}$ | ＂big＂ | pl tītāda＋ |
| $y u ̄ ' ө r^{\varepsilon}$ | ＂penis＂ | pl yuāda＋ |

Stems in historical＊－ag－＊－iag－＊－uag－（see above）may still inflect as CVC－ stems，or may show analogical forms with－$d$－：

| sià＇ar ${ }^{\text {E }}$ | ＂forest＂ | pl sinà＇a＋ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| bà＇ar ${ }^{\text {c }}$ | ＂idol＂ | pl bà＇a＋or bàda＋＊bagrı；Farefare bàgrè |
| bi̇āñ＇ar ${ }^{\text {／}}$ | ＂mud，riverbed＂ | pl biāñ＇á ${ }^{\text {d }}$ |
| $m o ̀ ' a r^{\varepsilon}$ | ＂reservoir，dam＂ | pl mu＇àa＋or mò＇ada＋ |
| zànkù＇ar ${ }^{\text {c }}$ | ＂jackal＂ | pl zànku＇àa＋${ }^{+}$or zànkù＇ada＋ |

In derivation，$-r$－is regularly deleted before alveolar suffixes，with glottalisation of the preceding root vowel 6．2．1．1．Accordingly，one hypothesis for this＂epenthetic $d$＂might be that it represents the regular reflex of root－final＊r after a short root vowel，with $* V r r \rightarrow V^{\prime} V r$ in flexion and remodelling of the cb on the basis of the sg：

$$
\begin{array}{rll} 
& \text { *yorrı } & \text { *yoraa } \\
\rightarrow \text { yō'ur } & \text { "name" } & \rightarrow \text { pl yōdá+ }
\end{array}
$$

The few current $C V r$－stems in the $r^{\varepsilon} \mid a^{+}$Class may all reflect＊rr：they comprise deverbal nominals from Invariable Verbs in $-r^{a}$ 13．1．1．1，along with the adjective in $y \overline{1}-$ pว́ñrà＋＂nearby houses＂and the noun kùkpàr ${ }^{\varepsilon}$＂palm fruit．＂

However，cognates in languages without glottalised vowels show no－$d$－or－r－： Mooré pl yóyà＝Kusaal yūdá＋＂names＂；Mooré pl põyá＝Kusaal pòñda＋＂cripples．＂ An explanation is suggested by Mooré náooré＂leg＂，plural náoa．The plural can be explained as showing retention of a root－final $w$ before $-a$ ，the $-y$－of original roots ending in＊y having not yet spread to náooré．The corresponding Toende Kusaal word n亏̄＇亏̄t has plural nכba（Agolle has remodelled sg nóbìr ${ }^{\varepsilon}$＂leg＂on pl nכ̄bá＋．）The parallel

```
pố'ot "cripple" pl pốra (= Agolle pכ̀nda+)
n亏̄'ว̄t "leg" pl noba
```

suggests that Kusaal $r / d$ and $b$ may sometimes be reflexes of glottalised equivalents of the $* K * \beta$ posited above．

Other cases of CVV roots alternating with CVC are unsystematic．Most seem to represent alternations between $d$ and $b$ respectively and the root－final palatal＊$K$ and labial＊$\beta$ hypothesised above：


### 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:

| zíi ${ }^{\text {a }}\left(\leftarrow *_{\text {ziím }}{ }^{\text {a }}\right.$ ā $)$ | zīmí ${ }^{+}$ | zīm- | "fish" |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| náaf $(\leftarrow$ *nāágfō) | nïigí ${ }^{+}$ | nā'- ( * *nāg-) | "cow" |
| wáaf ${ }^{( } \leftarrow *$ wāágfū $)$ | wiigí ${ }^{+}$ | wā'- ( $\leftarrow$ *wāg-) | "snake" |
| рїim ${ }^{\text {m/ }}$ | pīmá ${ }^{+}$ |  | "arrow" |
| yòvm ${ }^{\text {m }}$ | yòma+ |  | "year" |

In derivation the alternation appears too:

| tūuma+ | "work" noun | tòm ${ }^{\text {m }}$ | "work" verb |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| y ®̇ón | "one" | yīun ${ }^{\text {a }}$ | "single" |
| kāal ${ }^{\text {¢/ }}$ | "count" | kāı ${ }^{\text {/ }}$ | "number" |
| màal ${ }^{\text {c }}$ | "sacrifice" verb | mālun | "sacrifice" noun |
| tūulúg ${ }^{\text {a }}$ | "hot" | tōla/ | "be hot" |

The alternation in $y \bar{i} i s^{\varepsilon /} / y \bar{i} s^{\varepsilon}$ "make go/come out" is of a different origin 6.1.1.1.
There is no obvious rule governing this alternation in flexion or in zeroderivation. Before verb-deriving suffixes, however, the short allomorph always appears:

|  | pìslıg ${ }^{\text {a }}$ | "white" | $p \mathrm{c} / \stackrel{\mathrm{g}}{ }{ }^{\varepsilon}$ | "whiten" |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | $k p i ' o \eta^{3}$ | "strong" | $k p$ ' $^{\text {¢ }}$ | "strengthen" |
|  | lìว ${ }^{\text {² }}$ | "become" | $l$ lèbıg ${ }^{\text {® }}$ | "turn over" |
|  | tōológ ${ }^{\text {a }}$ | "hot" | $t u ̄ / g^{\varepsilon /}$ | "heat" |
|  | yāar ${ }^{\text {l }}$ | "scatter" | $y a ̄ d ı g^{\varepsilon /}$ | "scatter" |
|  | $d \bar{\varepsilon} \varepsilon \eta^{\text {a }}$ | "first" | $d \varepsilon \eta^{\varepsilon}$ | "go first" |
|  | $p i ə b^{\text {e }}$ | "blow" (flute) | pèbıs ${ }^{\varepsilon}$ | "blow" (wind) |
|  | yùul ${ }^{\text {® }}$ | "swing" intrans | yùlıg ${ }^{\text {¢ }}$ | "swing" transitive |
| cf | $\bar{\varepsilon} \varepsilon n b^{\text {¢ }}$ | "lay a foundation" |  | cf Mooré yêbgè id |

The only derivational suffix found after a CVVC allomorph is -/- in -lım-"-ness/-hood" 13.1.2:

```
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 6.3.3.

### 6.1.1.3 Glottalisation before Derivational Suffixes

Vowel-final roots become glottalised before derivational ${ }^{g}$ and ${ }^{s}$ in

| $k{ }^{+}$ | "break" intrans | $k{ }^{\prime}{ }^{\prime} \mathrm{g}^{\varepsilon}$ | "break" trans/intrans |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| k̇̀ ${ }^{\text {ºb }}$ | "broken" | kう̀'s ${ }^{\text {¢ }}$ | "break several times" |
| pう̀ ${ }^{\text {a }}$ | "be few" | pذ̀'วg ${ }^{\text {¢ }}$ | "diminish" |
| vōe ${ }^{\text {a/ }}$ | "be alive" | vō'ug ${ }^{\varepsilon /}$ | "make, come alive" |

### 6.2 Consonant Changes

For deletion of underlying ${ }^{*} g$ after aa iə uө aan $\varepsilon \varepsilon_{\sim}^{n}{\underset{\sim}{2}}_{\sim}^{n}$ see 6.3.1; for a


### 6.2.1 Consonant Clusters and Epenthetic Vowels

Adjacent consonants within a word must either assimilate to one of the clusters $k k p p t t$ صף mm nn II mn or insert an epenthetic vowel ( $\iota$ by default.) The clusters $k k$ $p p t t$ 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 $g d b m r s / f$.

Nasals usually take up the position of articulation of a following consonant, and then homorganic consonants mostly form clusters, with exceptions among alveolars, where changes attested in derivation have apparently been levelled in flexion 6.2.1.1.

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

| $1^{\text {st }} \downarrow 2^{\text {nd }} \rightarrow$ | $g$ | $d$ | $b$ | $m$ | $r$ | $s$ | $I$ | $f$ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| $g$ | $k k$ | $\partial$ | $\partial$ | $\partial$ | $\partial$ | $\partial$ |  |  |
| $d$ | $\partial$ | $t t$ | $\partial$ | $\partial$ | $\partial$ | $\partial$ |  |  |
| $b$ | $\partial$ | $\partial$ | $p p$ | $[m m]$ | $\partial$ | $\partial$ |  |  |
| $m$ | $\eta$ | $m n$ | $m m$ | $m m$ | $m n$ | $[\tilde{s} s]$ | $n n$ |  |
| $n$ | $\eta$ | $n n$ | $m m$ | $\partial$ | $n n$ | $\tilde{s} s$ | $n n$ | $\sim$ |
| $r$ | $\partial$ | $\partial$ | $\partial$ | $\partial$ | $r$ | $\partial$ | $t t$ | $\partial$ |
| $s$ | $\partial$ | $\partial$ | $\partial$ | $\partial$ | $\partial$ | $\partial$ |  |  |
| $I$ | $\partial$ | $n n$ | $\partial$ | $\partial$ | $I l$ | $\partial$ | $川$ | $\partial$ |

Potential pairs with ${ }^{*} y(* K)$ as the second consonant are an issue only with Invariable Verbs $\underline{11.2}$ and effectively belong to derivation rather than flexion.

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

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

$$
\begin{array}{ll}
b m \rightarrow m m & \text { only occurs after a short root vowel } \\
m s \rightarrow \tilde{i} s & \text { never occurs after a short root vowel; elsewhere it is optional. } \\
& \text { Assimilation and epenthesis occur side by side in many words. }
\end{array}
$$

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

| $t \bar{\varepsilon} \eta^{a}$ | "land" | pl | tह̄eñs ${ }^{\text {c }}$ | $\leftarrow *$ trnsı |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| $k u ̀ l ı n^{\text {a }}$ | "door" | pl | kùlıs | $\leftarrow *$ kulınsı |

Exceptionally, an epenthetic vowel becomes long before *ns in

$$
b \bar{t} t ı \eta^{a} \quad \text { "cup" } \quad \mathrm{pl} \quad b \bar{t} t ı s^{\varepsilon}
$$

This probably reflects a reanalysis of the form as nominal prefix $b \bar{u}+t i \bar{\eta}{ }^{\text {a }} \underline{2.4}$.

* $\boldsymbol{n f}$ becomes $f$ with nasalisation of a preceding root vowel, but there is no lengthening of a short preceding root vowel in the only case which occurs:

| $n i ̄ p^{\prime /}$ | "eye" | pl | nīní ${ }^{+}$ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| pínnf | "genet" | pl | pīní ${ }^{+}$ |

kùkpàr ${ }^{\varepsilon} \quad$ "palm fruit" pl kùkpàra+
The few stems in $-r$ - in the $r^{\varepsilon} \mid a^{+}$Class may all be derived from *rr 6.2.1.1.
$* r r \rightarrow r$ is an active process in phrase-level sandhi 8.5.1.
*ss inserts an epenthetic vowel in
pūsıg ${ }^{\text {a/ }}$ pūsıs ${ }^{\varepsilon /}$ pūs- "tamarind"

However, all other examples of $g^{a} \mid s^{\varepsilon}$ plurals ending in $-s s s^{\varepsilon}$ 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 $\underline{9.1}$, 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 $g^{\supset} \mid d^{\varepsilon} \underline{35.5 ; ~ p u ̄ s a^{+}}$in fact means "tamarind fruits."

Derivation precedes flexion in cluster development.
The -mm- and -nn- clusters derived from -*md- -*nd in Agent Nouns
13.1.1.1 and Dynamic Deverbal Adjectives 13.1.1.2.1 never undergo assimilation with the following initial consonant of a suffix:

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { kìm }{ }^{\mathrm{m}} \quad \text { "tend flock" } \quad \rightarrow \quad k \grave{n} b-k i ̄ m \text { na } \quad \text { "shepherd" } \\
& k \grave{\sim} \\
& \text { or } k \grave{\sim} n b-k i ̄ m n ı b^{a}
\end{aligned}
$$

| bùn ${ }^{\text {¢ }}$ | "reap" | $\rightarrow$ | būn-búnnìr ${ }^{\text {e }}$ | "thing for reaping" |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| tòm ${ }^{\text {m }}$ | "work" | $\rightarrow$ | būn-túmmìr ${ }^{\text {c }}$ | "useful thing" |
|  |  |  | tōmmır® DK WK | "useful" |
|  |  |  | tōmna+ ${ }^{+}$DK |  |
|  |  |  | tōmma ${ }^{+} \mathrm{WK}$ |  |
| gīlıg ${ }^{\text {g }}$ | "go around" | $\rightarrow$ | pu'à-gīnníg ${ }^{\text {a }}$ | "prostitute" |
| $k \bar{\varepsilon} \eta^{\varepsilon /}$ | "go" | $\rightarrow$ | bùn-kĒnnír ${ }^{\text {c }}$ | "moving donkey" |
| $v o ̄ l^{\varepsilon}$ | "swallow" | $\rightarrow$ | tì-vōnním ${ }^{\text {m }}$ | "oral medication" |
| tòm ${ }^{\text {m }}$ | "work" | $\rightarrow$ | tòmmím-tāa $=$ | "co-worker" |

Underived nominals which do not show assimilation probably also contain *d:

| sว̄nnır ${ }^{\text {¢ }}$ | sj̄nna+ | sòn- | "inner zàk wall" |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| sāngúnnìr ${ }^{\text {e }}$ | sāngónnà ${ }^{+}$ | sāngún- | "millipede" |
| sūmmır ${ }^{\text {e }}$ | sūmma+ | sùm- | "groundnut" |
| yīmmír ${ }^{\text { }}$ | yīmmá ${ }^{+}$ | yı̄m- | "solitary" (note tones) |

Stem-internal $k k p p t t$ クמ nn and $m n / m m \leftarrow * m d$ never assimilate further.
Tàm ${ }^{\mathrm{m}}$ "forget", zàm ${ }^{\mathrm{m}}$ "cheat, betray", dàm ${ }^{\mathrm{m}}$ "shake" and lèm ${ }^{\mathrm{m}}$ "sip, taste" are -mm- stems: in KB their dipfs are always written tammıd zammıd dammıd Iعmmıd, and they form 3-mora-stem type gerunds: tàmmug ${ }^{\top}$ zàmmug ${ }^{\top}$ dàmmvg ${ }^{\top}$ lغ̀mmug ${ }^{\top}$. The $m m$ has probably arisen by assimilation of $* b m \rightarrow m m$. Mooré has -mb-: zẫmbe "tricher", rẩmbe "remuer", lèmbe "goûter". These verbs do assimilate *mmm $\rightarrow \mathrm{mm}$ in the imperative 11.1.

Verbs with stems in $m m n n / I r(\leftarrow * r r)$ drop the ${ }^{*} d$ formant in deverbal nominals 13.1.1.1, so the question of assimilation does not there arise. However, unlike stems in $n n$ and in $m n / m m \leftarrow * m d$, stems in $I I r$ and in $m m$ of other origin than $* m d$ probably completely assimilate the following initial of the Noun Class suffix $-r^{\varepsilon}$. This has led to reanalysis of the SF forms with the sg suffix ${ }^{a}$ as being the result of attachment of $r^{\varepsilon}$, with new LFs and analogical plurals in $-a^{+}$9.3.1.1. The sg tones of the deverbal adjective in $k \grave{v} g-d \bar{\varepsilon} \mid \varepsilon /$ "chair for leaning on" (not *kùg-d $\bar{\varepsilon} \mid \varepsilon$ ) are probably analogical.

Single $m n$ forms may be followed by unexpected epenthesis as a strategy to avoid ambiguous SFs in Dynamic Imperfectives. The suffix suppletion used for this purpose in nominals 9.1 is not possible because there is only one regular dipf suffix.

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

| digı ${ }^{\text {® }}$ | $d i ̀ g ı n ı d^{\text {a }}$ | digınım ${ }^{\text {a }}$ | "lie down" |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| dìgınug ${ }^{\text {a }}$ |  |  | gerund |
| gว̀'วn ${ }^{\text {¢ }}$ | gう̀'onıda | gذ̀'วnım ${ }^{\text {a }}$ | "extend neck" |

Regular 2-mora stems in $n$ show assimilation in the dipf only:
bùn ${ }^{\varepsilon}$
bùnna
bùnım ${ }^{\text {a }}$
"reap"
būnıb ${ }^{\text {² }}$
gerund

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

| tכ̄כm ${ }^{\text {m/ }}$ | $\begin{gathered} \text { tóכm } \\ \text { or t⿹̄כmída } \end{gathered}$ | tう̀m ${ }^{\text {ma }}$ | "depart" |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| tóv ${ }^{\text {a }}$ |  |  | gerund |
| or tכ̄วmúg ${ }^{\text {a }}$ |  |  |  |
| kàrım ${ }^{\text {m }}$ | or kàrımıd ${ }^{\text {a }}$ |  |  |
| kàrun ${ }^{\text {² }}$ |  |  | gerund |
| or kàrımug ${ }^{\text { }}$ |  |  |  |

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:

| M̀ pū kárìmmā. | "I'm not reading." |
| :--- | :--- |
| M̀ kárìm n̄̄. | "I'm reading." |
| Kà bà kárımìd. | "And they were reading." |
| Kà bà kárìm. | only "And they read." |

2-mora $m$-stems regularly assimilate in the dynamic imperfective 11.1:

| tùm $^{\mathrm{m}}$ | tòm |  |  |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| wàm | tòm | "wa | "work" |
| wòm $^{\mathrm{ma}}$ | wòm | wa | "hear" |

Even here, NT/KB may have unassimilated forms to avoid ambiguity:
Lin wusa ka ya tumid, tumi li ...
Lìn wōsa kà yà tòmıd, tòmmī_ø...
Dem.inan all and 2PL do:DIPF, do:IMP 2PL.SUB ...
"Everything you do, do it..." (Col 3:23, 1996)
ka nan kpen womid ye $m$ bes li povgin nannanna la.
kà nán kpèn wòmıd yé m̀ bév_lì pōvgv-n nānná-nā lā.
and still still hear:DIPF that 1SG Exist 3INAN inside:sg-Loc now ART.
"and are still hearing that I am in it now." (Phil 1:30)

Examples of assimilation (for many others see $\underline{9} \underline{10} 11.1$ ):

| $\begin{array}{r} * g g \rightarrow k k \\ c f \end{array}$ | $\begin{aligned} & g i ̀ g ı s^{\varepsilon} \\ & k \bar{J} l ı s^{\varepsilon} \end{aligned}$ | "dumb people" <br> "river" | $\begin{aligned} & \mathrm{sg} \\ & \mathrm{sg} \end{aligned}$ | gìk ${ }^{a}$ <br> $k j ̄ ı g^{a}$ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| $\begin{array}{r} * d d \rightarrow \underset{ }{t t} \\ \text { cf } \end{array}$ | $\begin{aligned} & b u ̀ d^{\varepsilon} \\ & d \bar{u} g^{\varepsilon} \end{aligned}$ | "plant" <br> "cook" | dipf <br> dipf | bùt ${ }^{a}$ dūguda/ |
| $\begin{array}{r} * b b \rightarrow p p \\ \text { cf } \end{array}$ | $\begin{aligned} & s \overline{\jmath ̄} b^{\varepsilon} \\ & k p a ̀ r^{\varepsilon} \end{aligned}$ | "write" <br> "lock" | $\begin{aligned} & \text { ger } \\ & \text { ger } \end{aligned}$ | sว̄p/ <br> $k p a ̄ r ı b^{\top}$ |
| ${ }^{* l d} \rightarrow \underset{\text { cf }}{n n}$ | kj̀lıg ${ }^{\text {² }}$ <br> zūөbúg ${ }^{\text { }}$ | "bag" <br> "hair" | $\begin{aligned} & \mathrm{pl} \\ & \mathrm{pl} \end{aligned}$ | $k \grave{n}{ }^{n \varepsilon}$ <br> zūebíd ${ }^{\varepsilon}$ |
| $\text { *mg } \underset{\text { cf }}{\rightarrow \eta}$ | bùmıs ${ }^{\varepsilon}$ <br> ñwādıs ${ }^{\varepsilon /}$ | "donkeys" <br> "months" | $\begin{aligned} & \mathrm{sg} \\ & \mathrm{sg} \end{aligned}$ | $b \grave{\eta^{a}}$ ñwādıg ${ }^{\text {a/ }}$ |
|  | gbàna+ wābıd ${ }^{\varepsilon /}$ | "books" <br> "elephants" | $\begin{aligned} & \mathrm{sg} \\ & \mathrm{sg} \end{aligned}$ | gbàun ${ }^{\text {² }}$ <br> wābug ${ }^{\text {/ }}$ |
| $\begin{array}{r} * n r \rightarrow n \\ \mathrm{cf} \end{array}$ | $\begin{aligned} & \text { tāna+ } \\ & \text { dìga+ } \end{aligned}$ | "earths" <br> "dwarfs" |  | tānne <br> dìgıre |
| $\underset{\text { cf }}{* m r} \rightarrow \underset{\text { cf }}{m n}$ | $\begin{aligned} & \text { dūma+ } \\ & \text { n亏̄bá+ } \end{aligned}$ | "knees" <br> "legs" | sg sg | $\begin{aligned} & d u ̄ m^{\mathrm{n} \varepsilon} \\ & \text { nóbìr }{ }^{\varepsilon} \end{aligned}$ |
| $* / r \rightarrow \\|$ <br> cf | $\begin{aligned} & \text { gēlá+ } \\ & \text { kūgá+ } \end{aligned}$ | "eggs" <br> "stones" | sg sg | $g \varepsilon ́{ }^{\prime \varepsilon}$ kūgur ${ }^{\varepsilon /}$ |
| ${ }^{* n b} \rightarrow \underset{\mathrm{cf}}{m m}$ | sāana/ $n i ̄ d^{a /}$ | "stranger" <br> "person" | $\begin{aligned} & \mathrm{pl} \\ & \mathrm{pl} \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & \text { sáam }^{\text {ma }} \\ & \text { nīdıb }{ }^{\text {a/ }} \end{aligned}$ |
| $\underset{\text { cf }}{* m b} \rightarrow \underset{\text { cf }}{\rightarrow m}$ | $\begin{aligned} & \text { kìm } m^{\prime} \\ & \text { kàd } \end{aligned}$ | "tend flock" <br> "drive away" | $\begin{aligned} & \text { ger } \\ & \text { ger } \end{aligned}$ | $k i ̄ m^{m}$ $k a ̄ d b^{3}$ |

Language names 9.3.4.1:
*|| $\rightarrow$ II
Bùl ${ }^{\text {l }}$
"Buli"
cf Bùlss
"Bulsa"
Àg̀̀ ${ }^{\prime \prime}$
"Agolle Kusaal" cf Àgذ̀lı
"Agolle area"

| *rl $\rightarrow$ tt | $\begin{aligned} & B \bar{a} t^{\varepsilon /} \\ & Y a ̄ t^{\varepsilon /} \end{aligned}$ | "Bisa language" <br> "Yarsi language" | $\begin{aligned} & \mathrm{cf} \\ & \mathrm{cf} \end{aligned}$ | Bārıs ${ }^{\varepsilon /}$ <br> Yārıs ${ }^{\varepsilon /}$ | "Bisa people" <br> "Yarsi people" |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| $* m l \rightarrow n n$ | Dàgbānn $n$ / Yàan ${ }^{\text {nع }}$ | "Dagbani" <br> "Yansi language" | cf <br> cf | Dàgbāmma/ Yàamıs ${ }^{\varepsilon}$ | "Dagomba" <br> "Yansi people" |
| *nl $\rightarrow n n$ |  | "Farefare language" | cf | Gōrís ${ }^{\text {e }}$ | "Farefare people" |

Unexpected epenthesis is seen in

| Nwāmpūrı $\iota^{\varepsilon /}$ | "Mampruli" | cf |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| Kàmbònır | Nāmpūrıs $s^{\varepsilon / " M a m p r u s s i " ~}$ |  |

### 6.2.1.1 Consonant Changes in Derivation

Consonant assimilation in derivation differs from flexion mostly with pairs of alveolars which only undergo assimilation in derivation, and with underlying clusters having been reduced to single alveolar consonants. In addition, assimilation involving probable original ${ }^{*} C K$ clusters appears only in derivation.

In derivation ${ }^{*} V r C \rightarrow V^{\prime} V C$ where $C$ is $s / d$ or $n:$
gūr ${ }^{a /}$
gū'ulı/
gū'us ${ }^{\varepsilon /}$
gū'uda/
"guard"
"put on guard"
"take care,watch out"
agent noun

In sùnn ${ }^{\text {n }}$ "bow the head" -nn- may be the result of assimilation of $* r n * \ln$ or $* / d$ : cf sùra "have head bowed", Mooré sùri "être courbé, être penché", Toende sulug Mooré sùlgi "baisser la tête." KB has su'un.

The sequence -rıd- does occur with Agent Nouns invoving the suffix - $d$ - but there is vacillation in some cases, suggesting that the -rıd-forms are analogical; Agent Noun formation is the most regular and flexion-like among derivational processes by suffix 13.1.1, and hence the most exposed to analogy:

$$
\begin{array}{lc}
\text { kpārıd }^{\mathrm{a}} & \text { "lock-er" } \\
\text { gūrıd } \\
\text { gū' }^{\mathrm{a} /} \mathrm{d} d^{\mathrm{a} /} & \text { "guard" }
\end{array}
$$

$* V r r \rightarrow V^{\prime} V r$ may have formerly applied before the Noun Class suffix $-r^{\varepsilon}$ 6.1.1.1, but this rule has been replaced by $* V r r \rightarrow r$ in the few $r^{\varepsilon} \mid a^{+}$Class stems in $-r$, which may all be original stems in geminate *rr (from *rK, see below.)

Tones often reveal that surface $r$ represents an underlying cluster 7.2.1.1 e.g.
 12.1.1.1.1, which may reflect loss of a mora from *kïrr-. Original single $* r$ may have become *d after short root vowels 6.1.1.1:

| $g \bar{j} r^{a /}$ | DK | "have neck extended" |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| $g \bar{d} d ı g^{\varepsilon /}$ | DK | "look up, extend neck" |
| $y a ̄ a r^{\varepsilon /}$ |  | "scatter" |
| $y \bar{a} d ı g^{\varepsilon /}$ |  | "scatter" (for the shortening see 6.1.1.2) |

If so, $-r$ - has been restored by analogy in e.g. the gerund kīrıb/ "hurrying"; it is also seen in the ethnonyms $Y_{a ̄ r ı s^{\varepsilon /}} B \bar{a} r ı s^{\varepsilon /} \underline{35.4}$ and in ${\underset{\sim}{n}}_{n} r ı g^{\varepsilon}$ "shift along."

Single -I- apparently results from *dl in pil ${ }^{\varepsilon}$ "put (hat etc) on someone":
pid ${ }^{\varepsilon}$
pìdıg ${ }^{\varepsilon}$
pilı
pìlıg ${ }^{\varepsilon}$
cf
$y \grave{~}^{+}$
$y \varepsilon ̀ \varepsilon g^{\varepsilon}$
yદ̀ $\left.\right|^{\varepsilon}$
"put (hat etc) on"
"take (hat etc) off"
"put (hat etc) on someone"
"take (hat etc) off someone"
"dress oneself"
"undress oneself"
"dress another"

Single -s- may also represent an earlier cluster in some words. The Agent Nouns sjs ${ }^{\mathrm{a}}$ "beggar" and tis $s^{\mathrm{a}}$ "giver" drop the formant $-d$ - in the sg and have Tone Pattern L like 3-mora stems 9.3.1; in tis ${ }^{\varepsilon}$ "give" the -s- may have resulted from a rootfinal ${ }^{*} K$ assimilated to a following derivational $-s-6.1 .1 .1$. The similarly formed Pattern H verb gj̄s ${ }^{\varepsilon}$ "look" makes a Pattern HL gerund 12.1.1.1.1 like $k i ̈ r ~ " h u r r y " ~$ above; so too does sכ̄ns $s^{\varepsilon}$ "converse" 12.1.1.1.1.

Single - $n$ - may represent an original cluster after an epenthetic vowel within a stem. The word pïbın ${ }^{\text {ne }}$ pl pïbına+ "covering" 12.1.2 has single $-n$ - for my informants, but the corresponding Mooré word has -nd-: pibíndgà "couvercle." The Mooré equivalent of the assume-stance suffix -n- 13.2.1.1 is -nd-: zĩ "être assis", zĩndi "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 $a ̀ . "$ An original geminate origin for Kusaal -n- may explain the fact that the suffix never assimilates to a following consonant.

Consonant changes occur in the formation of Invariable Verbs 11.2 before a consonant which appears as $-y$ - when not assimilated.

If the Verb SF ends in vowel, the LF ends in -ya; stem-final root vowels become fronting diphthongs before the $-y-\underline{6.3 .2}$ and CVV roots adopt the allomorph CYy before -a 6.1.1.1:

| $s \bar{U}^{\prime} \mathrm{e}^{\mathrm{ya}}$ / | "own" | cf sū'olím ${ }^{\text {m }}$ | "possession" |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| tכea ${ }^{\text {a/ }}$ | "be bitter" | cf t亏̄) ${ }^{\text { }}$ | "bitter" |

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

```
dīgıya/ "be lying down"
vābıya/ "be lying prone"
```

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

| $d \bar{\jmath} \mathrm{la} /$ | "be with someone in a subordinate rôle" |
| :--- | :--- |
| $n \bar{\varepsilon} n^{\text {na/ }}$ | "envy" |
| $m \bar{\jmath} r^{\text {a/ }}$ | "have" $\quad$ cf gerund $m \bar{\jmath} r i ́ m ~$ |

These forms probably arose historically from a suffix *-Ka, with * , becoming -Iin derived nominals (cf * $n$ 8.2.1.2.) In Imperfective Gerunds of Relational Verbs 13.1.1.4, verbs with SFs ending in vowels show -l-, parallel to - $d$ - in Variable Verbs:

| sū'eya/ | "own" | $\rightarrow$ | sū'vlím |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| bj̀ |  |  |  |

Proto-Oti-Volta had palatal $*_{C} *_{f}{ }^{*} n$, which appear in Kusaal as s z ny respectively. Evidence for palatal *K is provided by the Gurma correspondences of Western Oti-Volta $y$-, which may be either $y$ - or I-; thus with the Moba words

| yommg | "slave" | Kusaal:yàmmıga <br> yaalim |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| yàarım |  |  |

Cf also the ancient loanword yūgúm ${ }^{\text {n }}$ "camel" (Farefare yógné, pl yugma, Mooré yógémdè) ultimately from Berber *a-ləqəm (Souag 2016); Koromfe logomde.
(Many languages have borrowed the word via Hausa ràaKumii instead.) If the primary adjective formant -I- 13.1.2 represents this same $* K$, it would explain the absence of any Adjectival Verbs like *sābı/a/, because *sabıKa would result instead in *sābıyal; Manessy's Dagbani sabla "be black" seems to be a ghost form.

No cases of stem-final $d$ occur in Invariable Verbs, probably due to a rule *VdKa $\rightarrow$ V'Vya:
gō'eyal WK "have neck extended"
$g \bar{j} d ı g^{\varepsilon / ~} \quad$ "extend neck"

### 6.3 Vowel Changes

The vowel changes described in this section apply before Apocope, being often conditioned by elements which are deleted by Apocope.

### 6.3.1 Consonant Deletion and Vowel Fusion

Kusaal makes no distinction between word-internal sequences of adjacent vowels and diphthongs, though three-mora diphthongs are realised as disyllabic 2.4.

Some diphthongs probably arose historically by fusion of adjacent vowels following the loss of intervocalic $* \beta * K$, but this leads to no significant synchronic alternations. For historical deletion of $* g$ after a ía u ua an íañ unañ see 6.1.1.1. With deletion of $* g$ after long vowels, there are numerous parallels with forms which preserve $g$, and in these cases it is therefore reasonable to treat the deletion and vowel fusion as synchronic processes.

Underlying *g is deleted after aa io uө aan $\boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{\sim} \boldsymbol{\sim}$ 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:

```
*aaga -> aa 8.1
*iəga ->iaa *izg\iota ->iee
*uөga ->uaa *uegı ->uee
*aagı -> aee
```

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

| but | $b u ̄ g^{\text {a }}$ |  | "goat" | pl būos ${ }^{\text {E }}$ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | bāa= | $\leftarrow$ *baaga | "dog" 8.1 | pl bāas ${ }^{\text {¢ }}$ |
|  | sīa+ | $\leftarrow *$ siaga | "waist" | pl Sİəs ${ }^{\text {e }}$ |
|  | sàbùa+ | $\leftarrow *$ sabuega | "lover" | pl sàbù ${ }^{\text {c }}$ |

The diphthongs aee iee uee appear in Variable Verbs with stems in＊Caag＊Cizg ＊Cueg and their glottalised counterparts（see below on the nasalised equivalents）； compare the forms with the suffix $*-g$－＂become，make＂seen in

| kpi＇${ }^{+}$ | $\leftarrow *$ kpi＇əgı | ＂approach＂ |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| kpi＇əs | $\leftarrow *$ kpi＇əsı | ＂neighbours＂ |
| cf | $t \bar{\varepsilon} b ı g^{\varepsilon /}$ |  |
| $t \bar{\varepsilon} b ı s i ́ r ~$ | ＂get／make heavy＂ |  |
|  |  | ＂heavy＂ |

There are many such＂Fusion Verbs＂，showing base forms ending in the diphthongs－ae－ie－ue 11．1，e．g．

$$
\begin{array}{ll}
p a \bar{e} e^{+/} & \leftarrow * p a a g \iota \\
d u \overline{e^{+/}} & \leftarrow * d u ө g \iota
\end{array}
$$

```
"reach"
"raise, rise"
```

The LF aee iee ue reduce to the two－mora diphthongs ae ie ue after Apocope．
There are no underlying nasalised iən uөn ；instead $\varepsilon \varepsilon \underset{\sim}{n} \overbrace{\sim}{ }_{\sim}^{n}$ appear 6．1． However，${ }^{* g}$ is deleted after nasal $\varepsilon \varepsilon \underset{\sim}{n} כ כ_{\sim}^{n}$（unlike their oral equivalents $\varepsilon \varepsilon$ כ 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：

| ＊ããga | $\rightarrow$ aan 8.1 | ＊ããgı | $\rightarrow$ aeen |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| ＊$\tilde{\varepsilon}$ ga | $\rightarrow$ iaan | ＊$\tilde{\varepsilon} \tilde{\varepsilon}$ ¢ | $\rightarrow$ ieen |
| ＊ว̃ว̃ga | $\rightarrow$ uaan | ＊ว̃ว̃gı | $\rightarrow$ ueen |

and likewise with the corresponding glottalised vowels．
The rule gives rise to alternations in nominals from the $g^{\text {a }} \mid s^{\varepsilon}$ Class between SF－final iañ uañ and word－internal $\varepsilon \varepsilon \underset{\sim}{n}{ }_{\sim}{ }_{\sim}^{n}$ before a consonant：

| ziñ ${ }_{\sim} \mathrm{a}^{+}$ | $\leftarrow * z \tilde{\varepsilon}{ }^{\prime} \tilde{\varepsilon} g a$ | ＂red＂$g^{\text {a }}{ }^{\varepsilon}{ }^{\varepsilon}$ Class sg |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| zèn ${ }^{\prime}$ ¢ ${ }^{\varepsilon}$ | $\leftarrow *$ z ${ }^{\prime}$＇$\tilde{\varepsilon}$ ¢ | ＂red＂$g^{\text {a }} \mathrm{s}^{\varepsilon}$ Class pl |
| zèn ${ }^{\prime} \varepsilon d^{\varepsilon}$ | $\leftarrow *_{z} \tilde{\varepsilon}^{\prime}$ ¢ $d \downarrow$ | ＂red＂$g^{\supset} \mid d^{\varepsilon}$ Class pl |
| dùan ${ }^{+}$ | $\leftarrow * d \tilde{ว ั}$ ga | ＂dawadawa＂sg |
| dう̀nns ${ }^{\text {® }}$ | $\leftarrow * d$ ว̃ว̃sı | ＂dawadawa＂pl |
| nūa＋／ | $\leftarrow * n ว ̃ ว ั g a ~$ | ＂hen＂ |
| nכֹวs ${ }^{\text {／}}$ | $\leftarrow * n \tilde{ว}$ ¢ ${ }^{\text {c }}$ | ＂hens＂ |
| Mùa＋ | $\leftarrow * M \tilde{\sim}$ ¢ ${ }^{\text {a }}$ | ＂Mossi person＂ |
| Mว̀วs ${ }^{\text {® }}$ | $\leftarrow$＊Mフ̃ว̃sı | ＂Mossi people＂ |
| Mj̀ $\mathrm{g}^{\text { }}$ | $\leftarrow$＊Mõว̃g | ＂Mossi country＂ |
| Mう̀ ${ }^{\text {® }}$ | $\leftarrow$＊M | ＂Mooré language＂ |

In derivation the rule causes alternation between Fusion Verb forms from historical＊－gl，ending in SF ien ueñ，and cognate forms with $\varepsilon \varepsilon_{\sim}^{n} \tilde{\sim}^{2}$ ：

| nie ${ }^{+}$ | $\leftarrow * n \tilde{\varepsilon} \tilde{\varepsilon} g$ ı | ＂appear＂ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| nè $1^{\varepsilon}$ | $\leftarrow * n \tilde{\varepsilon} \tilde{\varepsilon} / \iota$ | ＂reveal＂ |
| pūn＇ $\mathrm{e}^{+/}$ | $\leftarrow * p$ ว̃＇ว̃gı | ＂rot＂ |
|  | $\leftarrow * p \tilde{\prime}$＇亏̃lı | ＂cause to rot＂ |
| nyū＇e＋／ | $\leftarrow * y$ ว̃＇ว̃gı | ＂set alight＂ |
| nyう̄＇วs ${ }^{\text {¢／}}$ | $\leftarrow * y$ ว̃＇ว̃sı | ＂smoke＂（noun） |
| sūeñ ${ }^{+/}$ |  | ＂anoint＂ |
| sว̄n＋ | $\leftarrow *$ ¢ $\tilde{\sim}$ | ＂rub＂ |
| ziñ ${ }^{\text {a }}$ | $\leftarrow *_{z} \tilde{\varepsilon}^{\prime} \tilde{\varepsilon} g a$ | ＂red＂$g^{\text {a }} \mathrm{s}^{\varepsilon}$ Class sg |
| zèñ＇og ${ }^{\text {² }}$ | $\leftarrow *_{z} \tilde{\varepsilon}^{\prime} \tilde{\varepsilon} g{ }^{\text {6．3．2 }}$ | ＂red＂$\left.g^{\supset}\right\|^{\varepsilon}$ Class sg |

The fronting effect of＊－gı differs from the fronting caused by＊－y－6．3．2：
sūn＇e ${ }^{+/} \leftarrow$＊sõ＇Ĩgı $^{\leftarrow}$
＂become better than＂WK
sכ̄ñ＇$e^{\text {yal }} \leftarrow$＊s̃̃＇ว̃ya $^{2}$＂be better than＂

When aa io uө aan 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．

| náafo | $\leftarrow$＊nāágfū | ＂cow＂ | pl nïigí ${ }^{+}$ | cb nā＇－ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| dí＇ər ${ }^{\text {e }}$ | $\leftarrow * d\rceil$＇ágrī | ＂receiving＂ | cf dre ${ }^{+/}$ | ＂get＂$\leftarrow * d i$＇əgí |
| $v u ́ \otimes r^{\varepsilon}$ | $\leftarrow *^{*}$ Vūógrī | fruit of vúө引 | pl vūaá＝ |  |

Surface iən uen appear in just one context：Fusion Verbs with nasal vowels introduce iən uen into the Dynamic Imperfective，imperative and gerund forms：

```
    n\varepsiloǹ\varepsilonr㐍 "empty" (\leftarrow "clear")
but nìər}\mp@subsup{}{}{\varepsilon
```



```
but púñ'өr 
    pūn'өd a/
    gerund of nie+ "appear"
"cause to rot"
gerund of pūn}\mp@subsup{~}{}{\prime}\mp@subsup{e}{}{+/}\mathrm{ "rot"
dipf
```

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

|  | pūñ＇ $\mathrm{e}^{+/}$ | base pūñ＇өd ${ }^{\text {a／}}$ | dipf | púñ＇өr ${ }^{\text {c }}$ | ger | ＂ro |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| f | dūe ${ }^{+/}$ | base dūөd ${ }^{\text {a／}}$ | dipf | dúөr ${ }^{\varepsilon}$ | ger | ＂raise＂ |

Levelling in Variable Verb flexion and gerund formation is common, but the gerund vowels were probably not analogical historically. Gerunds like *pon'or or *neer are never found for púñ'өr ${ }^{\varepsilon}$ "rotting" or nìr $r^{\varepsilon}$ "appearing", but dipfs like pon'od $p \bar{n} \eta{ }_{\sim}^{c} \partial d$ do occur in texts. It would be surprising for gerunds to be subject to levelling before finite forms (cf 7.3) and the tonal evidence suggests a different analysis.

Fusion verbs lack any tonal evidence of a lost mora in the dipf 7.3.1: pūn'өd ${ }^{\mathrm{a} /}$ not *pún'eda "rot." This too might be the result of levelling; however, comparative evidence and irregularities in Variable Verbs 11.1.1 suggest that the dropping of a derivational suffix before the imperfective flexion may once have been common. Fusion Verbs may preserve this pattern, with ${ }^{\prime} g$ absent in the dipf by morphological rule; forms like pon'od $p \bar{\sim} \tilde{\sim}^{\prime} \partial d^{a /}$ also reflect this. The iə $\tilde{\sim}_{\sim}$ uen of gerunds correlate with tones showing underlying *g: púñ'өr ${ }^{\varepsilon}$ "rotting." Historically, ${ }^{*} g$ deletion probably followed insertion of an epenthetic vowel between the ${ }^{*} g$ and any following consonant; absorption of this vowel by the preceding iən uen resulted in sequences which, unlike other iən $u \neq n$, did not merge with $\varepsilon \varepsilon_{\sim}^{n} כ \overbrace{\sim}^{n}$, either as extra-long, or as already diphthongised phonologically.

### 6.3.2 Before *-ya *-gu *-kkv *-gクט

In the LF, vowels are subject to fronting before $y$ and to rounding before a following rounded vowel if a velar intervenes.

The affected second morae are always high [i] [I] [u] or [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 2.2:

| SF | vūe | LF | vōyá | "be alive" |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| SF | tje | LF | ţ̧á | "be bitter" |
| SF | sāeñ | LF | sāñya | "blacksmith" |
| SF | sj̄en | LF | sōnya | "witch" |

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

| SF | $s$ Su'e $^{\text {e }}$ | LF | sū'eyá | "own" sū'eya/ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| cf | sū'olím ${ }^{\text {m }}$ |  |  | "property" |
| SF | sōn'e | LF | sōn'eyá | "be better than" sכ̄n'e $\mathrm{e}^{\text {ya/ }}$ |

Rounding: Short unrounded root vowels become diphthongs in $u$ before LF *kku * טמ:

| gbàun ${ }^{\text {a }}$ | $\leftarrow *$ gbangu | "book" | pl gbàna+ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| lāuk ${ }^{\text {a }}$ | $\leftarrow$ *lakku | "goods i | "pl lā'ad ${ }^{\text {c }}$ |
| yīun ${ }^{\text {/ }}$ | $\leftarrow * y ı n \cup$ | "single" | pl yīná+ |
| sàbùa+ | $\leftarrow *$ sabuega | "lover" | pl sàbùes ${ }^{\text {® }}$ |

Tense $i$ does not become a diphthong in the only case in my materials:
nìn-gbīə ${ }^{2 /}$
"body"
pl nìn-gbīná+

The vowel may simply be taken from the alternative singular nin-gbin ${ }^{\varepsilon /}$.
Short ia becomes the short diphthong iaú:
biāūunk ${ }^{\supset} \leftarrow$ *biãkku "shoulder" pl biān̄n'ad ${ }^{\varepsilon}$

bj̀k ${ }^{3}$
$\leftarrow$ *buakko
"pit"
pl bù'ad ${ }^{\varepsilon}$

Long vowels undergo rounding of a back second mora before LF *gv * טמן. The second mora is always high.

| but | dàad ${ }^{\text {¢ }}$ |  | "logs" |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | dàug ${ }^{\text { }}$ | $\leftarrow * d a a g v$ | "log" |
|  | fēñ' $\varepsilon d^{\varepsilon /}$ |  | "ulcers" |
| but | fĒn'og ${ }^{\text {/ }}$ | $\leftarrow * f \tilde{f}^{\prime}$ ' $\varepsilon$ g 0 | "ulcer" |

The second mora of the long vowel ii becomes tense $u$, giving $i u$; this contrasts with the second mora of the long vowel iə, which becomes [ъ], giving io [iv]:

|  | vīug ${ }^{\text {/ }}$ | $\leftarrow * v i i g v$ | "owl" | pl vīid ${ }^{\text {¢/ }}$ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| but | dàbiog ${ }^{\text { }}$ | $\leftarrow$ *dabizgv | "coward" | pl dàbīəd ${ }^{\text {c }}$ |
|  | kpi'on ${ }^{\text {a }}$ | $\leftarrow$ *kpi'əŋŋט | "strong" | pl kpiəəma+ |

A parallel case with uu/uv does not occur, because of the rule *uөgv $\boldsymbol{\rightarrow \boldsymbol { \nu } \boldsymbol { \nu } \boldsymbol { g } \boldsymbol { v } : ~}$

```
    Sà'dàbj̀دg}\mp@subsup{}{}{\circ}\leftarrow*Sa'dabuөgv
cf Sà'dàbù0s}\mp@subsup{}{}{\varepsilon
    lām-fój̀g}\mp@subsup{}{}{\circ}\leftarrow*lam-fuөg
```

"place of the Sarabose clan"
"Sarabose clan members"
"toothless"
(lāmmel "gum" fùe+ "draw out")

The epenthetic vowel $l$ is rounded to $v$ before LF *-gv *-ŋט:

|  | $\bar{a} a{ }_{\sim}{ }^{\text {a }}$ dıg ${ }^{\text {a }}$ | $\leftarrow$ *ããdıga | "black plum tree" |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| but | gàadvg ${ }^{\text { }}$ | $\leftarrow * g a a d ı g \nu$ | "(sur)passing" (gerund) |
| pl | mālıma+ | $\leftarrow *$ malımaa | "sacrifices" |
| but | mālon | $\leftarrow *$ malınט | "sacrifice" |

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 4.2.2. It is preferable to make word-internal fronting and rounding rules precede Apocope 2.5. (A similar issue arises with so-called "Canadian Raising" in American English dialects which also show neutralisation by flapping of $t$ and $d$ after the vowel, where "writer" contrasts with "rider" in the vowels but with no phonetic contrast in the consonants themselves: Vance 1987.)

### 6.3.3 Length Constraints

See also on CVV ~ CVC root alternations 6.1.1.1.
Word-internally, long vowels are shortened before $k t p$ :

| gàad | "pass" | gàta | "pass" dipf |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| $t \bar{\varepsilon} \varepsilon g^{\varepsilon /}$ | "drag" ILK | $t \bar{\varepsilon} k^{\varepsilon /}$ | "pull" (*t |

Hausa loanwords show this to be phonological, not morphophonemic:

| àtìuk ${ }^{\text { }}$ | "sea" | $\leftarrow$ | tèeku | "sea" |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| kótù $^{+}$ | "court" | $\leftarrow$ | kootù | "court" ( English) |

3-mora vowel sequences 4.2.3 2.4 arise by Vowel Fusion 6.3.1 or by Liaison before the pronoun ${ }^{\circ}$ 8.2.1. They are reduced by Apocope to 2 -mora diphthongs in the SF. 3-mora diphthongs mostly occur word-finally in LFs, but can appear in SFs:
$v u ̄ a ́ a=\quad \leftarrow * v u ө g a a \quad$ "fruits of the vúөŋ ${ }^{a}$ tree"

A 3-mora monophthong appears with Apocope Blocking in mà'aa "only" (but LF mà'an $\underline{6.4}$ ); everywhere else, 3-mora monophthongs reduce to two morae 8.1.

Before Liaison, word-final 3-mora diphthongs are reduced to two morae and then monophthongised before all consonants except y 8.2.1; for the tones see 8.2.3.

### 6.4 Apocope Blocking

Certain full words have citation forms without Apocope. The form is like a LF, without the lowering of postconsonantal final $\iota v$ to $\varepsilon$ 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 19.8.1.2:

| bèdugū | "a lot" | $g^{\top} \mid d^{\varepsilon}$ | Class sg |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| sùnā | "well" | $\left.g^{\text {a }}\right\|^{\varepsilon}$ | Class sg |
| yīnní | "one" | $r^{\varepsilon} \mid a^{+}$ | Class sg |
| ànāasí | "four" | $\left.g^{\text {a }}\right\|^{\varepsilon}$ | Class pl |
| pāmm | "a lot" | $m^{\mathrm{m}}$ | Class |

A number of nouns ending in $-\iota^{+}$or $-\nu^{+} \underline{9.6}$ also display Apocope Blocking.
Words of one underlying mora also do not show Apocope, e.g yā+/ "houses", (SF yā LF yáa) and numerous enclitic particles.

Words with Apocope Blocking may display final extra-long simple vowels: mà'aa "only." They change final -mu to -mm: pāmm "a lot."

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

|  | Lì à $n \bar{\varepsilon}$ dójòg. | "It's a hut." |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | Lì kā' dóogō. | "It's not a hut." |
| with | Lì à nē bédvgō. | "It's a lot." |
|  | Lì kā' bédugúv. | "It's not a lot." |

Before Prosodic Clitics which neutralise preceding length distinctions, the final vowels of such LFs contrast in quality alone with $\varepsilon>$ 8.1.

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

| pāmm SF pāmnć LF | "a lot" | mà'aa SF mà'an LF | "only" |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| gùllım |  |  |  |


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

## 7 Word Tonal Structure

### 7.1 Tone Patterns

There are great constraints on the free occurrence of tonemes within words. Nominals show only three basic distinct overall patterns (labelled H, L and O), and verbs only two (H and LO.) Compounds have more tonal possibilities, being phrases composed of words with partly independent tones 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 7.5 .

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 6.2.1 and deletion of ${ }^{*} \underline{6.3 .1}$ ) 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:

| sīiñfol sg | sīiñ $^{\varepsilon /} \mathrm{pl}$ | sīn- cb | "bee" |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| píıñf | pīıní | pīın- | "genet" |

The difference is due to the fact that "bee" has a 2-mora CVV stem siin-, 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 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:

$$
\text { pò'us }{ }^{\text {a }} \quad \text { pō'usıdıb }{ }^{\text {a }} \quad \text { pò'us- } \quad \text { "worshipper" }
$$

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 ${ }^{\text {D }}$ "hand", but this can be accounted for by a late tone realisation rule 5.3.1. 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 $\underline{7.2 .3}$ 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 $\underline{6.4}$ with SFs ending in M toneme change to final H in the LF:

| SF yā | LF yáa | "houses" | yā+/ |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| SF bèdugū | LF bèdvgúv | "a lot" | bżdvgū+/ |

Superscript Notation writes $y \bar{a}^{+/}$bèdvg $\bar{v}^{+/}$by the usual convention 2.2.1. The only exception among free words is kj̀bıgā= "one hundred."

Surface Tone Patterns can be analysed as the outcome of internal tone sandhi acting on an underlying allocation of M or L to every underlying mora, vocalic or not. (Historically, all morae may in fact have once been vocalic, with deletion of non-root vowels between homorganic consonants and after nasals, but all that is necessary for this purpose is for all morae be underlying tone-bearing units.) This allocation precedes Apocope, and in particular precedes the deletion of *g 6.3.1 and development of consonant clusters 6.2.1. Forms which lose a mora by these processes show aberrant tonal patterns 7.2.1.1.

Roots may carry MM, ML, LM or LL tonemes. A derivational suffix may carry M or $L$, but may carry $M$ only if there are no preceding $M$ tonemes already. Before a derivational suffix ML roots become MM and LM roots become LL 7.5.

Flexional suffixes bear $M$ toneme unless preceded by stem-final $M$, when they dissimilate to L. The plural suffixes $-a^{+}$and $-\iota^{+}$bear the last stem toneme on the first mora, with the second mora showing the suffix toneme. The singular suffix ${ }^{\text {a }}$ displays the last stem toneme.

Three internal tone sandhi rules then produce the surface tonemes.
Rightward M Spreading causes ML to become MH, unless the consonants before and after the L mora have assimilated to form a consonant cluster, or the L mora is the second in a syllable, in which cases ML instead becomes HL. A stem mora beginning with $* m$ after a non-root M toneme is also not affected by M spreading: again, the M toneme becomes H instead.

Pattern $\mathbf{O}$ Raising is triggered by the attachment of any flexional suffix (including ${ }^{\mathrm{a}}$ ) to a stem with no intrinsic M tonemes; all tonemes in the entire word become M. It precedes L Spreading, but need not be ordered with respect to M spreading.

Rightward L Spreading applies after M spreading and Pattern O Raising. It causes all remaining LM to become LL, after which word-final LH becomes LM.

Following the application of internal tone sandhi, tone Levelling occurs within syllables 5.2 and all tonemes on non-vocalic morae are deleted.

Three basic Tone Patterns are distinguished, according to whether the stem has underlying initial $M$, underlying non-initial $M$, or no underlying $M$ toneme at all:

| Pattern Name |  | Intrinsic Stem Tonemes |  |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| Surface Tonemes in Nominals |  |  |  |
| Pattern H |  | MM... or ML... |  |
| initial M or H |  |  |  |
| Pattern L | L...M | initial L |  |
| Pattern O | L... | all-M in sg/pl; all-L in cb |  |

All Western Oti-Volta languages for which I have adequate tonal information have analogues of Patterns H, L and O; furthermore, the noun tone patterns of Buli correspond systematically to these, showing respectively $\mathrm{H}, \mathrm{L}$ and mid tone stems:

| nááb | "cow" | cf Kusaal náaf | id |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| tiìb | "tree" | cf Kusaal tìıg | id |
| būūk | "goat" | cf Kusaal būvga | id |

In the other Western Oti-Volta languages, Pattern O shows a regular alternation between all-H free forms and all-L cbs; in Buli, between all-mid free forms and all-L cbs, tonally identical to the cbs of the Buli equivalent of Pattern L.

Akanlig-Pare and Kenstowicz 2002 regard Mooré Pattern O stems as intrinsically tonally unmarked; they copy the H tone (= Kusaal M) of a flexional suffix but otherwise default to all-L. Olawsky 1999 similarly takes Dagbani Pattern O stems as intrinsically toneless, but he follows Anttila and Bodomo (on Dagaare) in attributing O Raising to stress. This is not workable with surface stress 2.4 in Kusaal. Even in Dagbani, stressed verb forms may have all-L tonemes. O Raising is in fact
triggered by the addition of any flexional suffix; as all flexional suffixes have intrinsic $M$ tone after all-L stems this is essentially equivalent to the tone-copying proposal. Note, however, that M derivational suffixes do not trigger the change.

These previous analyses require an underlying three-way contrast between M , L and unmarked tone-bearing units. (This distinction differs from that suggested in 5.3.1; all tone-bearing units in these unmarked stems would surface with either L or M tonemes.) The nominal Subpattern HL 7.2.1.2 demonstrates that roots can carry two tonemes, prompting the alternative analysis adopted here: Pattern O and L roots are LL and LM respectively, and O Raising is blocked by non-initial M tonemes ${ }^{5}$.

### 7.2 Nominals

Prefixed nominals differ in tones only in that the cbs of nominals with M nominal prefixes always have H toneme; sg and pl are unchanged. L nominal prefixes do not affect the stem tone pattern at all 7.2.4.

The tones of compounds are determined by external tone sandhi 8.4 8.3.
Nominals have three flexional forms 9.1. The combining form, which is the bare stem, is always affected by Apocope because it cannot be clause final.

Nominal examples will be given as sg, pl, cb.
Stem morae are counted exclusive of nominal prefixes.

### 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, it falls on the second mora, unless this is the second mora of a long vowel 5.2 , in which case the H appears written on the first mora, and the toneme covers both morae of the long vowel. Cbs have $M$ tonemes up until any third toneme, which is $H$.

| vōr ${ }^{\varepsilon /}$ | vōyá ${ }^{+}$ | $v \bar{o} r$ - | "alive" |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| yīr ${ }^{\text {// }}$ | $y \bar{a}^{+/}$ | yī- | "house" |
| fūug ${ }^{\text {/ }}$ | fūud ${ }^{\text {/ }}$ | fū- | "shirt, clothes" |
| $d \bar{u} k^{\prime /}$ | dūgud ${ }^{\text {/ }}$ | $d \bar{u} g$ - | "cooking pot" |
| nīda/ | nīdıbab | nīn- | "person" |
| nīfol | nīní ${ }^{+}$ | nīn- or nîf- | "eye" |
| kūgor ${ }^{\text {/ }}$ | kūgá+ | kūg- | "stone |

5) Toende Kusaal shows word-internal H after L in words where Agolle does not, such as zilím "langue", Agolle SF zìlım versus the Variable Verb sìbìg "punir" (Niggli, "La phonologie du Kusaal" pp 134ff), but this is probably leftward docking of a following H tone left floating by Apocope 8.3 rather than a survival of an earlier stem tone pattern; cf SF bùń LF bùná "âne", Agolle LF bùnā.

| $g \bar{J} t^{\text {a/ }}$ | gōtíb ${ }^{\text {a } / t \mathrm{t} /}$ | gう̄t- | "seer, prophet" |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| sābilíg ${ }^{\text {a }}$ | sābllís ${ }^{\text {c }}$ | sābıl- | "black" |
| yōgóm ${ }^{\text {me }}$ | yōgomá+ | yōgum- | "camel |
| sābílı | sābılá ${ }^{+}$ | sābıl- | "black" |
| sú' $\theta \eta^{\text {a }}$ / | sū'өmís ${ }^{\text {® }}$ | sū'өリ- | "rabbit" |
| sāan ${ }^{\text {a/ }}$ | sáam ${ }^{\text {ma }}$ | sāan- | "stranger, guest" |
| $d i ̄ ə s^{\text {a/ }}$ | di̇əsídìb ${ }^{\text {a }}$ | di̇əs- | "receiver" |
| sūgorída | sūgurídib ${ }^{\text {a }}$ | sūguríd- | "forgiver, forbearer" |
| kū'alín ${ }^{\text {a }}$ | $k{ }^{\text {chalís }}$ | kō'alín- | traditional smock |
| sáannìm ${ }^{\text {m }}$ |  |  | "strangerhood" |

LFs ending in long vowels or diphthongs, or in -mm (where the second $m$ was historically syllabic but is now consonantal) cannot carry a toneme on the final mora. The SF forms are regular, but if the LF final mora would have carried H toneme by the usual rules, the H is transferred to the next preceding vocalic mora which is not the last of a long vowel/diphthong 5.2 , replacing the previous toneme, which is always M. Superscript Notation still writes the acute tone mark at the end 2.2.1; such marks are interpreted as falling on the nearest preceding vocalic mora which is not the last in a long vowel or diphthong:

| nūa+/ | SF nūa | LF nūáa | "hen" |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| dāam ${ }^{\text {m/ }}$ | SF dāam | LF dáamm | "millet beer" |
| vūm ${ }^{\text {m/ }}$ | SF vūm | LF vómm | "life" |
| tāuñ ${ }^{+/}$ | SF tāun | LF távon | "opposite-sex sibling" |

### 7.2.1.1 Tonal Effects of Deleted Morae

Pattern H forms which have lost an underlying mora display the H toneme one place to the left of its expected position 7.2.1.1, prior to Levelling 5.2 within syllables. So when clusters are reduced to single consonants by assimilation 6.2.1

| niin ${ }^{\text {a }}$ | niis ${ }^{\varepsilon}$ * ns | niin- | "bird" |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| píıñf *nf | pīıní ${ }^{+}$ | pīın- | "genet" |
| nyōríf *rr | $n$ nyīrí ${ }^{+}$ |  | "egusi seed" |

With a nominal prefix 7.2.4 tīn-:

$$
\text { tīntj̄ñríga *rr tīntj̄nr rís }{ }_{\sim}^{\varepsilon} \quad \text { tīntóñr- } \quad \text { "mole" (animal) }
$$

So too with deletion of *g when no affix vowel follows 6.3.1:

| náaf 5.2 | $\leftarrow * n a ̄ a ́ g f \bar{u} \quad\left(\mathrm{cf} \mathrm{pl} \mathrm{niigió}{ }^{+}\right)$ | "cow" |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| wáaf | $\leftarrow * w a ̄ a ́ g f u ̄ ~(c f ~ p l ~ w i ̈ ̀ g i ́ ~) ~, ~$ | "snake" |
| yáab ${ }^{\text {a }}$ | $\leftarrow * y a ̄ a ́ g b a ̄$ | "grandparent" |
| vúөr ${ }^{\varepsilon}$ | $\leftarrow * v u ̄ e ́ g r i ̄ ~$ |  |

Here belong all regular gerunds in $-r^{\varepsilon}$ formed from Pattern H Fusion Verbs 11.1 which have phonologically-deleted ${ }^{*} g$ in the base form:

|  | náar ${ }^{\text {E }} 5.2$ | $\leftarrow * n a ̄ a ́ g r i ̄ ~$ |  | "end" |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| from | nāe ${ }^{+/}$ | $\leftarrow * n a ̄ a g i ́ ~$ |  | "finish" |
|  | dí'ər ${ }^{\varepsilon}$ | $\leftarrow * d i ̄$ ógrī |  | "receiving" |
| from | di' $e^{+/}$ | $\leftarrow * d \mathfrak{~} \quad$ gí |  | "get" |
|  | púñ'өr ${ }^{\text {c }}$ | $\leftarrow * p \tilde{\prime}$ 'ว̈grı̄ | 6.3.1 | "rotting" |
| from | pūñ' ${ }^{+/}$ | $\leftarrow * p \check{\prime}$ 'õgí |  | "rot" |

Fusion Verbs show evidence of ${ }^{*} g$ only in base forms and in gerunds; in dynamic imperfectives and in derived agent nouns $* g$ is absent:

```
nāada/
nāad}\mp@subsup{}{}{\mathrm{ a/}
```

"finish" dipf
"finisher"

### 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.

| nú'ùg ${ }^{\text { }}$ | nú'ùs ${ }^{\text { }}$ | $n \bar{u}^{\prime}-$ | "hand, arm" |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| à-gáòng ${ }^{\text {a }}$ | à-gáànd ${ }^{\varepsilon}$ | à-gāñ- | "pied crow" |
| nóbì ${ }^{\text { }}$ | nōbá+ | nכ̄b- | "foot, leg" |
| gर́l ${ }^{\text {¢ }}$ | gżlá ${ }^{+}$ | $g \bar{\varepsilon} /-$ | "egg" |
| gbéżñ ${ }^{\text {m }}$ | no pl | gbēn- | "sleep" |
| kísùg ${ }^{\text {a }}$ | kīsá ${ }^{+}$ | kīs- | "hateful, taboo" (adj) |
| ánsì ${ }^{\text {a }}$ | āns-nám ${ }^{\text {a }}$ | āns- | "mother's brother" |

Here belong the irregularly formed gerunds 12.1.1.1.1:

```
sכ́nssiga
gósìga
kìkírùg}\mp@subsup{}{}{`
```

"conversing"

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

```
"hurrying" (L prefix)
```

```

Olawsky treats words like Dagbani gálì＂egg＂（Kusaal gélı）as regular Pattern H，and cognates of regular Kusaal 2－mora Pattern H stems as a separate tone class．

Several HL words may have lost a stem mora historically；－s－\(-r\)－may represent older－ss－－rr－；cf also Mooré náooré＂leg＂gãoobgó＂pied crow＂，gốoém＂sleep．＂

\section*{7．2．2 Pattern L}

Pattern L comprises all nominals beginning with L in \(\mathrm{sg} / \mathrm{pl}\) ．All stem tonemes are L，except for non－root（third or fourth）morae preceding stem＊－m－（including cases where the \(m\) has undergone assimilation to \(\eta\) ），which are \(H\) ．
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|c|}
\hline sù＇ug \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & sù＇us \({ }^{\text {® }}\) & sù＇－ & ＂knife＂ \\
\hline zàk \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & \(z a ̀ ' a s^{\text {® }}\) & zà＇－ & ＂dwelling－compound＂ \\
\hline dìgır \({ }^{\text {E }}\) & diga \({ }^{+}\) & dìg－ & ＂dwarf＂ \\
\hline mうlı & 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 \(m e ̀ \varepsilon \eta^{\text {a }}\) & \(m\) memıs \({ }^{\text {® }}\) & mèzワ－ & ＂turtle＂ \\
\hline pùgudıb \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & pùgud－nàm \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & pùgud－ & ＂father＇s sister＂ \\
\hline sàam \({ }^{\text {ma }}\) & sàam－nàm \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & sàam－ & ＂father＂ \\
\hline dìəm \({ }^{\text {ma }}\) & dìəm－nàm \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & dìm－ & ＂man＇s parent－in－law＂ \\
\hline ànrup & ànrıma＋ & ànron－ & ＂boat＂ \\
\hline \multicolumn{3}{|l|}{kàron \({ }^{\text {ºr }}\) or kàrımog \({ }^{\text {a }}\)} & ＂reading＂（gerund） \\
\hline zùlon \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & zùlıma＋ & zùlon－ & ＂deep＂ \\
\hline yàlon \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & yàlıma＋ & yàlon－ & ＂wide＂ \\
\hline zilım \({ }^{\text {me }}\) & zilıma＋ & zìlım－ & ＂tongue＂ \\
\hline nう̀mıd \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & & & ＂lover＂ \\
\hline \multirow[t]{3}{*}{siilín \({ }^{\text {a }}\)} & \multicolumn{3}{|l|}{siilímis \({ }^{\varepsilon}\)} \\
\hline & \multicolumn{3}{|l|}{siilís \({ }^{\varepsilon}\)} \\
\hline & siilímà \({ }^{+}\) & siilín－ & ＂proverb＂ \\
\hline zàañsúp & zàañsímà \({ }^{+}\) & zàañsún－ & ＂dream＂ \\
\hline nכ̀ılím \({ }^{\text {m }}\) & & nכ̀nılím－ & ＂love＂ \\
\hline nכ̀pıdím－tāa＝ & 13．1．1．4 & & ＂fellow lover＂WK \\
\hline sùnıdím－tāa＝ & & & ＂fellow－helper＂ \\
\hline dàalím \({ }^{\text {m }}\) & dàalímis \({ }^{\varepsilon}\) & dàalím－ & ＂male sex organs＂ \\
\hline pò＇alím \({ }^{\text {m }}\) & pòalímis \({ }^{\varepsilon}\) & pù＇alím－ & ＂female sex organs＂ \\
\hline bi＇isím \({ }^{\text {m }}\) & & & ＂milk＂ \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

Nominals 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}

Note that the sg Noun Class suffix \({ }^{\text {a }}\) does not prevent a stem-final underlying M toneme from preventing O Raising (cf verbal dipf suffixes 7.3):
```

sàala sàalıba}\mp@subsup{}{}{\textrm{a}}\mathrm{ acal- "human"

```

Tonally exceptional in showing H before stem \(m\) on the second mora is
\[
\text { bùgúm }^{\mathrm{m}} \quad \text { no } \mathrm{pl} \quad \text { bùgúm- or bùgōm- "fire" }
\]

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

\subsection*{7.2.3 Pattern O}

Pattern O shows M throughout in \(\mathrm{sg} / \mathrm{pl}\) forms and L throughout in the cb .
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|c|}
\hline \(b \bar{u} g^{\text {a }}\) & \(b u ̄ s^{\varepsilon}\) & \(b\) bò & "goat" \\
\hline tān \({ }^{\text {n¢ }}\) & tāna \({ }^{+}\) & tàn- & "earth" \\
\hline \(s i d^{\text {a }}\) & \(s i ̄ d ı b^{\text {a }}\) & sìd- & "husband" \\
\hline pu'āa & \(p \bar{o}^{\prime} a b^{\text {a }}\) & pu'à- & "woman, wife" \\
\hline sā'ab \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & no pl & sà'- & "millet porridge" \\
\hline  & gbīgıma+ & gbigım- & "lion" \\
\hline \(\sim_{\sim}^{\text {n }}\), \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & \(\sim_{\sim}^{n w a ̄ a m ı s}{ }^{\text {¢ }}\) & nowàan- & "monkey" \\
\hline \(m \varepsilon \overline{\text { m }}{ }^{\text {a }}\) & \(m \bar{\varepsilon}\) dı \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & mèzd- & "builder" \\
\hline siākıd \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & siāāıdıba & siàkıd- & "believer" \\
\hline \(b u ̄ t ı \eta^{\text {a }}\) & \(b \bar{t} t u s^{\varepsilon}\) & bùtın- & "cup" \\
\hline \(m \bar{\varepsilon} \varepsilon d ı \eta^{\text {a }}\) & \(m \bar{\varepsilon} \varepsilon d \stackrel{s^{\varepsilon}}{ }\) & mèzdı - & "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 Opl (the cb would have had L tonemes in either case) 7.5.1:
\[
\begin{array}{llll}
\text { pò'vs } & \text { pō'vsıdıb } & \text { à̀'vs- } & \text { "worshipper" } \\
\text { kùөs } & \text { kūөsıdıb } & \text { kùөs- } & \text { "seller" }
\end{array}
\]

Pattern O nominals are all either root-stems or stems in \(m n\) or \(d\) (including stems where the \(d\) has been assimilated into a consonant cluster or \(t\) ); however, all three suffixes are also seen in Pattern L words.

The word gīŋlím \({ }^{m}\) "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 giiinlím \({ }^{m}\) id.

Pattern O all-M LFs become all-L at the end of questions 8.1:

\section*{Lì kā' gbígìmmeع?}
"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 yūgvdır \({ }^{\text {r }}\) & yūgoda+ & yùgod- & "hedgehog" \\
\hline nwāan \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & ñwāamıs \({ }^{\text {/ }}\) & nwàaŋ- & "monkey" \\
\hline bāpıd \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & bāpıdıba \({ }^{\text {a/ }}\) & bàmıd- & "wise man" \\
\hline kpārıdın \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & \(k p a ̄ r ı d ı s^{\varepsilon /}\) & 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 \({ }^{\text {me/ }}\) & zว̄эma \({ }^{+}\) & zว̀วm- & "fugitive" \\
\hline tādım \({ }^{\mathrm{m} /}\) & 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 Nominals with Prefixes}

On nominal prefixes generally see 14 . Tonally they are either M or L. L nominal prefixes do not affect the rest of the tone pattern of the prefixed nominal:
\begin{tabular}{lllll}
H & dàyūug \(^{\supset}\) & dàyūud \\
H & Bùsán & dàyū- & "rat" \\
L & kùkpàrıg \(^{\text {a }}\) & Bùsáàns \(^{\varepsilon}\) & kùkpàrıs \(^{\varepsilon}\) & Bùsān-
\end{tabular}

M toneme nominal prefixes do not affect the tone of the remaining stem in the sg or pl , but the cb always has a H toneme after the prefix:
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|c|c|}
\hline H & zı̄nzāunŋ/ & zīnzāná+ & zīnzáun- & "bat" \\
\hline H & Nwāmpūrıg \({ }^{\text {a/ }}\) & \({ }_{\sim}^{N w a ̄ m p u ̄ r ı s}{ }^{\text {¢/ }}\) & Nwāmpúr- & "Mamprussi person" \\
\hline H & gōmpūz \(\bar{\varepsilon}^{\text {r }}\) & gūmpūz̄̄yá \({ }^{+}\) & gōmpūzér- & "duck" \\
\hline H & tīnt̄̄nríg \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & tīntōnrís \({ }^{\text {® }}\) & tīntónr- & "mole" 6.2.1 \\
\hline H & pipiòrga/ & pīpīrıs \({ }^{\text {¢ }}\) & pīpír- & "desert" \\
\hline H & bāl̄̄rug \({ }^{\text {/ }}\) & bālērıd \({ }^{\text {l }}\) & bālćr- & "ugly person" \\
\hline H & pūkpāad \({ }^{\text {a/ }}\) & \(p \bar{k} k p a ̄ a d i ́ b^{\text {a }}\) & pūkpá- & "farmer" 14.4 \\
\hline O & fūfōm \({ }^{\text {me }}\) & fūfōma+ & fūfúm- & "envy; stye in the eye" \\
\hline L & sāmán \({ }^{\text {ne }}\) & sāmánà \({ }^{+}\) & sāmán- & "courtyard" \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

The examples labelled " H " might be Pattern O : the cb tonemes are as expected for Pattern O, and the LF-final sg/pl H tonemes might reflect a similar process to that resulting in LF-final H in other Pattern O words 7.2.3. There may be a limit on how many successive M morae can be tolerated within a word; cf 8.4 fn . With zīnzāná+ gūmpūzz̄yá+ compare WK's forms sg wālıg \({ }^{\mathrm{a}}, \mathrm{pl}\) wālıs \({ }^{\varepsilon}\) beside wālí+ "a kind of gazelle."

M Raising only follows forms which have undergone Apocope. One or two compounds behave tonally as if the first element were a prefix, with no neutralisation of stem tones in the \(\mathrm{sg} / \mathrm{pl}\), but only in the cb. All cases involve cbs as pre-modifiers rather than heads, and the cb stems are all probably originally of one mora:
\begin{tabular}{llll}
\(z u ̄ g-k \overline{0} g v r^{\varepsilon /}\) & \(z u ̄ g-k \bar{g} g a^{+}\) & zūg-kúg- & "pillow" 9.2.2 \\
\(k a ̄-w \bar{n} n n \iota r^{\varepsilon /}\) & \(k a ̄-w \bar{n} n a^{+}\) & \(k a ̄-w \varepsilon ́ n-\) & "corn"
\end{tabular}

\subsection*{7.3 Verbs}

Variable and Dynamic Invariable 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}

Variable Verbs have three finite forms 11.1. The \(-m^{a}\) imperative is found only (and always) with tone overlay 22.6.1.1 so it is unnecessary to treat it further here; Base and Dynamic Imperfective forms will be cited in that order. Dynamic Invariable Verbs have a single finite form which behaves tonally like the dipf of a Variable Verb.

The Tone Patterns of all regular deverbal nominals are predictable 7.5.1.

Variable Verbs show levelling of variant subpatterns in Pattern H and conflation of Patterns O and L . This was probably driven by regular falling together of the tone patterns in Base Forms. Nominal cbs show a collapse of Subpattern HL with regular Pattern H, and of Pattern O with L everywhere except with four-mora Pattern L stems. A similar process with Base Forms would create analogical pressure to level gerund tones. Tonally anomalous 2-mora stem gerunds survive with Subpattern HL and with Pattern L 12.1.1.1.1, testifying to a once more complicated picture: segmental and tonal levelling are seen proceeding in tandem in the two gerunds of \(k i ̄{ }^{\varepsilon}\) "hurry, tremble": kìkírùg \({ }^{\text {² }}\) and \(k i ̄ r ı b^{\nu /}\).

Pattern LO Dynamic Imperfectives have all-L stem tonemes, but the mora before Liaison is M, and the SFs are followed by the L Raising tone sandhi 8.3. Such stems have not become all-M, unlike Pattern O nominals with a M noun class suffix 7.2.3, because the flexions - \(\boldsymbol{d}^{\mathbf{a}}\) and -ya are composite, the result of adding \({ }^{\text {a }}\) to stems with suffixed \(-d\) - or \(-y-(*-K-)\), which have an intrinsic M toneme unless M already precedes, creating Pattern \(L\) type stems; this is parallel to the behaviour of Pattern L nouns with the Noun Class suffix \({ }^{\text {a }}\), e.g. sàala "human being" 7.2.2. This M toneme causes falling together of Patterns O and L in Dynamic Imperfectives; significantly, the Patterns remain distinct in Descriptive Verbs 7.3.3.

The different tonemes of 4-mora stem Pattern LO base forms like zàañsım \({ }^{\mathrm{m}}\) and dipfs like zàañsım ma "dream" from Pattern L nouns like zàañsún \({ }^{\text {n }}\) "dream" cb zàañsón- must be attributed to levelling of the verbal forms on the analogy of 2- and 3-mora Pattern LO stems.

Irrealis Mood triggers O Raising, presumably by treating the stem-final vowel of a Pattern LO Base Form as an affix, instead of part of the stem as in the Indicative. By analogy, the much less common Irrealis forms of Pattern LO Dynamic Imperfectives and Pattern L Descriptive Verbs also change all L tonemes to M.

\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, unless this is the second within a long vowel, when the H falls on the first mora.

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

However, the final vowel of the base form of 2-mora-stem verbs only shows the expected H toneme before Liaison Words; before Prosodic Clitics it carries M:
\begin{tabular}{ll} 
dūgí \(\bar{\iota}\) & "cooked it" \\
Ò pō dūge. & "He didn't cook."
\end{tabular}

The form before the Interrogative Clitic confirms that the pattern there is intrinsically MM, because it becomes LL like all other all-M sequences in this context:

Ò pū ḡ̄sع.
Ò pū gว́sઘ̀ \(\varepsilon\) ?
Ò pū \(d \bar{v} g \varepsilon\).
Ò pū dúgc̀ \(\varepsilon\) ?
Ò pū zábē.
Ò pū zábè \(\varepsilon\) ?
"She didn't look"
"Didn't she look?"
"She didn't cook."
"Didn't she cook?"
"She didn't fight."
"Didn't she fight?"

In Superscript Notation these LFs will be written as MM rather than MH.
Examples for Pattern H:
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|}
\hline \(n{ }_{\sim} \bar{\varepsilon}^{+}\) & nyz̄t \({ }^{\text {a/ }}\) \\
\hline \(k \overline{0}^{+}\) & kūod \({ }^{\text {/ }}\) \\
\hline \(d \bar{u} g^{\varepsilon}\) & dūgud \({ }^{\text {a/ }}\) \\
\hline piāñ \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & piān'ad \({ }^{\text {a/ }}\) \\
\hline \(k u ̄{ }^{\varepsilon}\) & kūnna/ \\
\hline yādıg \({ }^{\varepsilon /}\) & yādıgíd \({ }^{\text {a }}\) \\
\hline mj̄) & móon \({ }^{\text {na }}\) \\
\hline dīgı \({ }^{\text {g/ }}\) & dīgín \({ }^{\text {na }}\) \\
\hline \(n \bar{j} k^{\varepsilon / ~ / k k / ~}\) & nj̄kíd \({ }^{\text {a }}\) /kk/ \\
\hline lāním \({ }^{\text {m / }}\) / & lāním \({ }^{\text {ma / }}\) \\
\hline & dīgıyal \\
\hline & ti'ya/ \\
\hline & zāñla/ \\
\hline & gjola/ \\
\hline
\end{tabular}
"see"
"kill"
"cook"
"speak", "praise"
"go home"
"scatter"
"proclaim"
"lay down"
"take"
"wander searching"
"be lying down"
"be leaning" (objects)
"be holding"
"have neck extended"

As with nominals 7.2.1, complications arise with LFs ending in long vowels or diphthongs or in \(-m m\), where the final mora cannot bear a toneme. Again, the SFs are regular, but H allocated to a LF final mora is transferred to the next preceding mora which is not the last in a long vowel or diphthong, replacing its previous M toneme.


SF tว̄ァm LF tóวmm
```

pāe+/ "reach"
SF pāe LF pāée

```

As always, Superscript Notation writes the acute mark at the end 2.2.1. Fusion Verbs show no sign of \(* g\) in the dynamic imperfective tonally:
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|c|}
\hline \(p a ̄ e^{+/}\) & pāad \({ }^{\text {a/ }}\) & not *páad \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & "reach" \\
\hline di' \(e^{+/}\) & \(d i ' \partial d^{\text {a/ }}\) & not * dí' \(^{\prime} d^{\text {a }}\) & "get" \\
\hline pūn' \(\mathrm{e}^{+/}\) & pūn' \({ }^{\text {d }}{ }^{\text {a/ }}\) & not *púñ' \(\theta d^{\text {a }}\) & "rot" WK \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

Contrast the corresponding gerunds in \(-r^{\varepsilon}\) : páar \(d i^{\prime} \partial r^{\varepsilon}\) púñ \(_{\sim}^{\prime} \theta r^{\varepsilon}\).

\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 \(b \dot{u} d^{\varepsilon}\) & \(b u ̀ t a b\) & "plant" \\
\hline \(d i^{+}\) & \(d i t^{\text {a }}\) & "eat" \\
\hline \(m \dot{\varepsilon}^{+}\) & \(m e ̀ z d^{\text {a }}\) & "build" \\
\hline zàb \({ }^{\text { }}\) & \(z a ̀ b ı d^{\text {a }}\) & "fight, hurt" \\
\hline bùel \({ }^{\text {® }}\) & \(b u ̀ \theta n^{\text {na }}\) & "call" \\
\hline bj̀dıg \({ }^{\text {e }}\) & bj̀dıgıd \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & "get lost, lose" \\
\hline nì \({ }^{\text { }}\) & nìı \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & "do" \\
\hline màal \({ }^{\text {¢ }}\) & màan \({ }^{\text {na }}\) & "sacrifice" \\
\hline dìgın \({ }^{\text {E }}\) & dìgınıd \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & "lie down" \\
\hline wàpım \({ }^{\text {m }}\) & wàpım \({ }^{\text {ma }}\) & "waste away" \\
\hline siilım \({ }^{\text {m }}\) & siilım \({ }^{\text {ma }}\) & "cite proverbs" \\
\hline zàansım \({ }^{\text {m }}\) & zàansım \({ }^{\text {ma }}\) & "dream" \\
\hline & ziñ ija & "be sitting down" \\
\hline & tàbıya & "be stuck to" \\
\hline & tèn \(r^{\text {a }}\) & "remember" \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

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

Ò nà bj̄dıg.
OO kù zāb\varepsilon.
Ò kù bj̄dıg\varepsilon.
Ò kù bj̄dıgıda.
Ò kù būөnna.
O nà bj̄dıgı m.
Ò kù bj̄dıgı má.
OO nà bJ̄dıgı bá.
O kù bj̄dıgı báa.
Ò kù bj̄dıgıdı má.
Ò kù zābıdı má.
Ò kù zābıdın\varepsiloń.
Ò kù sïllmm.
but Ò kù lānímm.
"He'll get lost."
"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

```
"He'll get lost."
"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 \(\left.{ }^{\mathrm{m}}\right)\). ."

Such forms always cause L Raising:
O nà zāb ná'àb lā.
Ò nà gכ̄s 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):
\[
\begin{array}{cl} 
& \text { Ò kù zāb•ó-o. } \\
\text { or } & \text { Ò kù zāb } \cdot o-o . \\
& \text { Ò kù kād•ó-o. } \\
\text { or } & \text { Ò kù kād•o-o. }
\end{array}
\]
"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 bj̀dıgeع?
"Will I get lost?"

\subsection*{7.3.3 Descriptive Verbs}

Because their stems do not contain an intrinsically \(M\) suffix before the \({ }^{a}\) flexion, Descriptive Verbs maintain distinct Patterns O and L. Where consonant gemination occurs before \({ }^{\text {a }}\), it is either part of an adjectival stem or due to analogy (so with all m stems for WK 11.2.) Adjectives correspond to Descriptive Verbs with the same surface SF tones as the \(\mathrm{sg} / \mathrm{pl}\) of the adjective, HL being conflated with H :
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|c|c|}
\hline H & wāk \({ }^{\text {J/ }}\) & "long, tall" & wā'am \({ }^{\text {ma/ }}\) & "be long,tall" \\
\hline & būgusír \({ }^{\text {E }}\) & "soft" & būgus \({ }^{\text {a/ }}\) & "be soft" \\
\hline & vōr \({ }^{\text {g/ }}\) & "alive" & \(v\) ēe \({ }^{\text {a/ }}\) & "be alive" \\
\hline & zēmmóg \({ }^{\text { }}\) & "equal" & z \(\bar{\varepsilon} m^{\text {ma/ }}\) & "be equal" \\
\hline & Kísùg \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & "hateful, taboo" & \(k i s^{\text {a/ }}\) & "hate" \\
\hline L & vènnıg \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & "beautiful" & \(v \varepsilon n^{\text {na }}\) & "be beautiful" \\
\hline & zùlv \({ }^{\text {ºm }}\) & "deep" & zùlım \({ }^{\text {ma }}\) & "be deep" \\
\hline & pjodıg \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & "small" & pòวd \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & "be few, small" \\
\hline O & tכֹg \({ }^{\text {ºm }}\) & "bitter" & t⿹ea \({ }^{\text {a/ }}\) & "be bitter" \\
\hline & gīn \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & "short" & gīm \({ }^{\text {ma/ }}\) & "be short" \\
\hline & kpioo \({ }^{\text {² }}\) & "strong" & kpi'əm \({ }^{\text {ma/ }}\) & "be strong" \\
\hline & kpēeñm \({ }^{\text {m }}\) & "elder" & kpēzñm \({ }^{\text {ma/ }}\) & "be older than" \\
\hline & \(w \bar{n} n \iota^{\varepsilon}\) & "resembling" & \(w \varepsilon n^{\text {na/ }}\) & "resemble" \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

However, the all-M tones of verbs corresponding to Pattern O adjectives have been reanalysed as verbal Pattern H, with LF-final H toneme. They never become allL before the Interrogative Prosodic Clitic (specifically checked with WK and DK.)

All-L SFs become all-M in the Irrealis Mood, by analogy with dipfs 7.3:

Ò nà vēn. \(\quad\) "She'll be beautiful."

\subsection*{7.4 Quantifiers, Adverbs and Particles}

Quantifiers and Adverbs resemble nominals in segmental and tonal structure, often with Apocope Blocking 6.4. Some particles also have the segmental and tonal structure of nominals \(\underline{6}\).

Proclitic Liaison Words all have a single mora with a Fixed L toneme 8.3.1. Serialiser \(n\) is toneless and "transparent" to L Raising. Liaison Enclitics bear H after a host-final M toneme vowel and M otherwise; this M becomes H in the LF 8.2.3.

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. Pattern L are ñwà \({ }^{+}\)"this" 19.3 and sà \({ }^{+}\)"hence, ago" 23.7; Pattern O is the Independent Perfective marker yā+ 22.6.2.1.

Patterns H and O fall together in the SF, where both appear with a M toneme.
Pattern H enclitics change the M tone to H in the Long Form (compare the tonal behaviour of words with Apocope Blocking 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; so with the article \(l \bar{a}^{+/}\)versus the Independent/Perfective particle \(y \bar{a}^{+}\):
Lì à nē dój̀g lā.
"It's the hut."
Lì kā' dój̀g láa.
"It's not the hut."
but Ka o ba' ne o ma po ban ye o kpelim yaa.
Kà ò bā' né ò mà pū bán yé ò kpغ̀lım 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)

As usual before the Interrogative Prosodic Clitic 8.1, Pattern O becomes all-L; thus focus- \(n \bar{\varepsilon}^{+/}\)contrasts with \(y \bar{a}^{+}\)in
\begin{tabular}{lll} 
& Lì bj̀dıg n̄̄. & "It's lost." \\
& Lì bj̀dıg néع? & "Is it lost?" \\
but & Lì bj̀dıg yā. & "It's got lost." \\
& Lì bj̀dıg yàa? & "Has it got lost?"
\end{tabular}

\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 from common patterns in stems with different derivational suffixes but the same root.

Roots showing Subpattern HL in nominals 7.2.1.2 fall together with regular Pattern H in all other derived or cognate words:
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|c|}
\hline ánsì \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & "maternal uncle" & ānsín \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & "sister's child" \\
\hline kísùg \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & "hateful" & kīs \({ }^{\text {a/ }}\) & "hate" \\
\hline gósìg \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & "looking" & \(g \bar{j} s^{\varepsilon}\) & "look" \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

Pattern L roots also fall together with Pattern O. Pattern L roots can give rise to derived Pattern O stems (nā'am \({ }^{m}\) "chiefship" \(\leftarrow n a ̀ ' a b^{a}\) "chief"), suggesting that these mergers are not due to tone spreading rules, but to roots simply losing secondmora tonal contrasts before derivational suffixes.

After O/L roots, but not H roots, derivational suffixes themselves differ in tonal behaviour, implying that derivational suffixes can be \(M\) or \(L\), but that \(M\) is only permitted when the root has no M toneme.

Most derivational suffixes added to O/L roots produce Pattern L/LO stems. No stem with \({ }^{*} g * /\) or \({ }^{*}\) s as the final derivational suffix 13.1 is Pattern O: these suffixes therefore carry an underlying \(M\) toneme unless the preceding root does. This explains the regular assignment of 3- and 4-mora stem Pattern LO verb gerunds to Pattern L; most such stems would have always have been Pattern L.

Quite different is the \(* d\) of agent nouns, deverbal adjectives and instrument nouns 7.5.1: forms from Pattern LO verbs are Pattern O, but stems where the \(-d\) - is absent (not just assimilated) are Pattern L, with a change of Tone Pattern possible even within a single noun paradigm: pò'vs \({ }^{\text {a }}\) "worshipper", plural \(p v^{\prime} v s ı d ı b^{\mathrm{a}}\). This implies that the L toneme of \(* d\) has replaced the M of any preceding suffix, which seems tonologically implausible. However, formations with \(* d\) 13.1.1.2.1 either omit any preceding derivational suffix or omit the \({ }^{*} d\) itself in the most "derivational" forms, with retention of both suffixes becoming commoner as the formations become more productive and "flexional" 13.1.1.1: forms with a suffix restored before - \(d\) - probably preserve their original tone patterns despite segmental remodelling.

Imperfective Gerunds 13.1.1.4 with *d from Pattern LO verbs are Pattern L, as in bว̀วdım \({ }^{m}\) "will" and mèzdím-tāa= "fellow-builder" versus Pattern O bう̄วdır \({ }^{\varepsilon}\) "desirable" and \(m \bar{\varepsilon} \varepsilon d \iota \imath^{\text {a }}\) "building implement." Here *d must have M toneme, as it does in the finite forms 7.3.

Considerations like these, along with the levelling of Tone Patterns that has taken place in Variable Verbs 7.3, and the segmental, but not tonal, remodelling of cbs 9.2.2, show that it is not possible to describe synchronic Tone Patterns purely as the outcome of tonemes associated with particular segments.

It is exceptional for forms derived from H roots to show \(\mathrm{L}, \mathrm{O}\) or LO Patterns, or vice versa; this happens systematically only with "assume-stance" verbs 13.2.1.1.

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
gbāung/ "skin", "book" DK gbàunク² "book" WK

\subsection*{7.5.1 Tones of Deverbal Nominals}

All segmentally regular gerunds have predictable Tone Patterns:
\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|}{2-mora stem Perfective otherwise} & \begin{tabular}{l}
Pattern O \\
Pattern L
\end{tabular} \\
\hline \(d \bar{u} g^{\varepsilon}\) & "cook" & \(\rightarrow\) & dūgub \({ }^{\text {/ }}\) & \\
\hline \(n \overline{k^{\varepsilon /}}\) & "take" & \(\rightarrow\) & nう̄kír \({ }^{\text { }}\) & \\
\hline dīgıılı & "lay down" & \(\rightarrow\) & dīgılóg \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & \\
\hline \multirow[t]{2}{*}{\(m \varepsilon^{+}\)} & "build" & \(\rightarrow\) & \(m \bar{\varepsilon} \varepsilon b\) & \\
\hline & & \(\rightarrow\) & mèzdím-tāa= & "fellow-builder" \\
\hline sùn \({ }^{\text { }}\) & "help" & \(\rightarrow\) & sùpır \({ }^{\text {E }}\) & \\
\hline dìgın \({ }^{\text {E }}\) & "lie down" & \(\rightarrow\) & dìgınug \({ }\) & \\
\hline zàansım \({ }^{\text {m }}\) & "dream" & \(\rightarrow\) & zàansón \({ }^{\text {² }}\) & \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

Most segmentally irregular gerunds formed from root verbs are tonally regular.
Agent nouns and deverbal adjectives also have predictable Tone Patterns:
```

from Pattern H verbs
Pattern H
from Pattern LO verbs
containing derivational -d- Pattern O
otherwise Pattern L

```
\(-d\) - is not always present, being omitted regularly after certain longer verb stems. With nominals derived from Pattern LO verbs, forms with retained \(d\) (even when it is assimilated into a cluster as -mn- or -nn-) are Pattern O whereas those without it are Pattern L. The \(-d\) - is dropped in the sg and the cb, but not the pl, of agent nouns derived from 3-mora s-stem verbs, resulting in a regular change of tone Pattern within a single flexional paradigm:
\[
\text { pò'us }{ }^{\mathrm{a}} \quad \text { pō'usıdıb }{ }^{\mathrm{a}} \quad \text { pò'us- } \quad \text { "worshipper" }
\]

\section*{8 External Sandhi}

Kusaal shows a range of intricate external sandhi phenomena, comprising not only straightforward segmental contact phenomena 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 2.2, with its complete suppression before certain particles ("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 (see below.)

There is some evidence of a closer juncture between proclitic words and following hosts than between word-forms capable of ending a phrase and following dependents, including enclitics other than Liaison Words; however, finite verb forms often behave in this regard as if they were proclitic.

Thus, in segmental sandhi, proclitics and finite verb forms ending in a fronting diphthong show monophthongisation phrase internally, whereas this change does not take place with noun singular forms before uncompounded modifiers, or even before the article láa \(^{+/}\):
\begin{tabular}{lll}
\begin{tabular}{ll} 
sāeneñ lā \\
sàn-kànā
\end{tabular} & \begin{tabular}{l} 
"the blacksmith" \\
"this blacksmith"
\end{tabular} & \\
Ò sò'v lór. & "She owns a lorry." & \(s^{\text {ō'e eya/ "own" }}\) \\
Lì nàa nē. & "It is finished." & \(n a \bar{e} e^{+/}\)"finish"
\end{tabular}

Tone sandhi in a number of respects suggests a similar distinction \(8.3 \underline{8.4}\), but the tonal phenomena cannot be accounted for in purely phonological terms and probably reflect historical developments connected with Apocope rather than any synchronic differences in juncture.

Two groups of very common words lack all segmental realisation, with their presence only detectable through segmental and/or tonal effects on preceding words. Prosodic Clitics 8.1 cause the preceding word to appear as a LF instead of the usual SF. Four Liaison Enclitics 8.2 .1 are reduced to zero by Apocope. The 3sg animate object pronoun \({ }^{\circ}\) and the post-imperative 2 pl subject pronoun ya remain detectable after Apocope only by the changes induced by the Liaison preceding them.
Complementiser \(\grave{n}\) and Serialiser \(n\) may be realised as [n], but more often also appear only as segmental zero preceded by Liaison 8.2.2.1. In interlinear glosses Prosodic Clitics are written as \({ }^{+} \varnothing\), while these Liaison Enclitics are written \(\quad \varnothing\).

\subsection*{8.1 Prosodic Clitics}

All three Prosodic Clitics \({ }^{6}\) cause lowering of short LF-final \(\iota v\) to \(\varepsilon\) 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 -mv become -mm whenever the \(m\) is not geminated. The final \(m\) was presumably once syllabic, but the current realisation of - mm is [m:].
\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 & \(\leftarrow\) *dāamó \\
\hline \(v \bar{o} \mathrm{~m}^{\mathrm{m} /}\) & "life" & SF vūm & LF vómm & \(\leftarrow * v o ̄ m m u ́ ~\) \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

Word-final iz ue diphthongise to ia ua before Prosodic Clitics 4.1.1.
None of these changes occur before Liaison 8.2.1 8.2.2.
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 & \(b a ̄ a=\) & "dog" & SF bāa & LF bāa & \(\leftarrow\) *bāaga \\
\hline & \(k \bar{u} \cdot o^{\prime}=\) & "kill him" & \(k \bar{u}^{+}\)"kill & o "him/he & SF/LF [ \(\mathrm{k}^{\mathrm{h}} \mathrm{J}\) : \\
\hline
\end{tabular}
6) The concept of Prosodic Clitics is also useful in describing the syntax of negation 32.3 and in determining the structure of complex clauses 27.2. The Negative Clitic corresponds to an actual segmental clitic in Mooré, which uses ka as negative particle before the verb along with clause-final ye. Similarly, segmental vocative and interrogative clitics are common in West Africa.

The term "Prosodic Clitic" admittedly begs the question as to the origin of this behaviour. However, for clitic-like elements cross-linguistically which lack segmental form of their own see Spencer and Luís 2012: 5.5.1 on Tongan "definitive accent." Rotuman (Temathesis in Rotuman, Hans Schmidt 2003) has a much discussed system with some analogies to Apocope. The unusual Cameroonian Bantu language Nen (Nurse and Phillippson pp283ff) deletes word-final vowels unless the word has the underlying final tones LH, not only before vowel-initial words, but also before pause.

The Negative Prosodic Clitic appears at the end of a clause containing a negated or negative verb 22.5. Superscript Notation 2.2.1 represents LFs as they appear before the Negative Prosodic Clitic, both segmentally and tonally.
```

Lì à n\overline{\varepsilon}}\mathrm{ 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. "It's a cooking pot."
3INAN COP FOC pot:sg.

Lì \(k a ̄\) ' dūkó \({ }^{+} \varnothing\). "It's not a pot."
binan neg.be pot:sg neg.

Unlike short \(\iota \cup\), long final ı טט are not lowered:

Bà à ne móli. "They are gazelles."
3PL COP FOC gazelle:PL.

Bà kā' mól̄ı \({ }^{+} \varnothing\). "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 bïiga +\varnothing! "My child!"
1SG child:sg voc!
M bïis\varepsilon +\varnothing! "My children!"
1SG child:PL voc!

```

Dauu, mam pu baŋ fun pian'ad si'el la gbin ne.[sic 1.3.1]
Dāu \({ }^{+} \varnothing\), mām pū bán fún piāñ'ad sỉəl lā
Man:SG voc 1sG.CNTR NEG.IND understand 2SG:COMP speak:DIPF INDF.INAN ART gbínnē \({ }^{+} \varnothing\).
base:sg neg.
"Man, I don't understand the meaning of what you're saying." (Lk 22:60, 1996)

This is not a vocative noun form, but a particle following the entire NP: dau one an yadda nipida
dāu ónì àn yàddā-nípìdā \({ }^{+} \varnothing\)
man:Sg Rel.sg cop faith-doer:sg voc
"You man, who are a believer!" (1 Cor 7:16)

The Interrogative Prosodic Clitic ends questions. Final vowel length distinctions are neutralised to short in content questions, long in polar questions:
Lì à nē nóbìr. \(\quad\) It's a leg (nóbıre)."

3inan cop foc leg:sg.
Ànó'כnì_ø nyē nóbırè \(+\varnothing\) ? "Who saw a leg?"
Who ser see leg:sg ca?
\(L i ̀\) à \(n \bar{\varepsilon}\) nóbırè \(+\varnothing\) ? "Is it a leg?"
3INAN COP FOC leg:SG PQ?

Lì à \(n \bar{\varepsilon} d \bar{u} k\).
Ànó'כnì n̄ \(y \bar{\varepsilon}\) dūkó?
Lì à nē dūkój̀?

Lì à \(n \bar{\varepsilon} k \bar{u} k\).
Ànó'כnì ny \(\begin{gathered} \\ \text { kúkà? }\end{gathered}\)
Lì à né kúkàa?

Lì à \(n \bar{\varepsilon}\) gbīgım.
Àn'́'כnì nyē gbígìmne?
Lì à nē gbígìmnes?
"It's a cooking pot \(\left(d \bar{u} k^{\supset /}\right) . "\)
"Who saw a pot?"
"Is it a pot?"
"It's a chair \(\left(k \bar{u} k^{\mathrm{a}}\right) . "\)
"Who saw a chair?"
"Is it a chair?"
"It's a lion (gbīgım \({ }^{\mathrm{n} \mathrm{\varepsilon}) . " ~}\)
"Who saw a lion?"
"Is it a lion?"

The length neutralisation results in a five-way \(a \varepsilon \supset \iota \cup\) contrast in LF-final vowels by quality alone in this context:
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|}
\hline Àn'́'כnì ñyĒ kúkà? & "Who saw a chair \(\left(k u \bar{k}{ }^{\text {a }}\right.\) ) ?" \\
\hline  & "Who saw a house(yīr \({ }^{\varepsilon /}\) )?" \\
\hline  & "Who saw a hut (djे \(\mathrm{g}^{\text {}}\) )?" \\
\hline Ànó'วnì nyē móli? & "Who saw gazelles(mうlı+)?" \\
\hline Ànó'วnì nyē bédugú? & "Who saw a lot (bèdvg \({ }^{+}\)) ? \({ }^{\text {a }}\) \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

The Interrogative Prosodic Clitic induces a tonal change in the preceding LF. Kusaal is cross-linguistically unusual \({ }^{7}\) 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 L Raising 8.3. In Kusaal (unlike Dagbani) this lowering only affects the final word, not a sequence of several all-M words.

As part of the falling intonation, the last \(H\) tone syllable in the question is not preceded by downstep after a preceding \(M\) toneme even if the next syllable is stressed 5.3.2.
```

Ànכ́'כnì_\varnothing ny\varepsiloń bà bìiga + \varnothing?
Who ser see 3pl child:sG cQ?
"Who saw their child (bïig}\mp@subsup{}{}{\mathrm{ a}})\mathrm{ ?"

```
Ànó'วnì ny \(y\) ह̄ bíigà? "Who saw a child?" tonally identical to
Ànó'วnì ny \(\bar{\sim}\) sú'vgà? "Who saw a knife (sù'vg \({ }^{\mathrm{a}}\) )?"
Fù bój̀ bó? "What \(\left(b \bar{j}^{+}\right)\)do you want?"
Àn'́'כnì nyē zúcéyà? "Who saw hills (zūēya+ \({ }^{+}\)?"

Similarly with Pattern LO verbs in the Irrealis Mood:
```

M ná bj̄dıg. "I will get lost."
M ná bj̀dıg\varepsilon\varepsilon? "Will I get lost?"

```

With 2-mora stem Pattern H verb base forms:
Ò pū gว̄sع.
Ò pū gว́sè \(\varepsilon\) ?
Ò pū dūge.
Ò pū dúgè \(\varepsilon\) ?
"She didn't look"
"Didn't she look?"
"She didn't cook."
"Didn't she cook?"

\footnotetext{
7) This is not uncommon in West Africa, however: see, for example, Jaggar pp513, 525 on Hausa. Hausa also shows raising of the pitch of the last H tone preceding the fall in polar questions.
}

\section*{8．1．1 Presubject Long Forms}

There is often a pause after any element which precedes a clitic subject pronoun．Nevertheless，examples occur which are probably to be explained as Liaison before subject pronouns：

Fù ná kūl bēog．＂You＇ll go home tomorrow．＂
2SG IRR go．home tomorrow．
but Bēogú＿fù ná kūl．＂You＇re going home tomorrow．＂SB
Tomorrow 2SG IRR go．home．

All the examples in my materials of a LF ending a yà＇－clause 30.1 seem potentially explicable as Liaison before a subject pronoun：

Bup ya＇a kpi be＇ede，ba siido ne be＇ed．
Bùn yá＇kpì bē＇\(\varepsilon d \varepsilon[? b \bar{\varepsilon} ' \varepsilon d \iota]\) ，bà sìıd•ō \(\varnothing \quad n \bar{\varepsilon} b \bar{\varepsilon} ' \varepsilon d\) ．
Donkey：sG if die bad：PL，3PL flay：DIPF 3AN．OB Foc bad：PL．
＂When a donkey dies wrongly，they skin it wrongly．＂KSS p42

However，several conjunctions 27．1．3 have forms ending in LFs which resemble LFs preceding the Negative Prosodic Clitic rather than Liaison；thus KB consistently shows final－v in the Apocope－blocked 6.4 form bedegu for bèdvg \(\bar{v}^{+/}\)＂a lot＂，and equally consistently has final－כ in bכzugə for bう̄ zúgכ̄＂because＂，dinzugכ for dìn zúgכ̄ ＂therefore＂and alazugว for àlá zùgう̄＂therefore．＂This phenomenon is thus best regarded as an idiosyncratic derivational formation for conjunctions．

Ka o kaas bedegu．
＂And he wept greatly．＂（Genesis 27：38）
Kà ò kāas bédvgū．
And 3AN weep great：ADv．
bozugo ba zi＇one tomi m la naa．
bう̄ zúgj̄，bà zī＇ónì tòmı＿m lā náa \({ }^{\dagger} \varnothing\) ．
because 3pl neg．know rel．an send isg．ob art hither neg．
＂Because they do not know him who sent me here．＂（Jn 15：21）

\subsection*{8.2 Liaison}

Certain words cause a preceding word to appear, not in the usual clause-medial Short Form, but in the Long Form, modified by loss of vowel quality contrasts in the final mora. These Liaison Words may or may not be enclitic. Non-enclitic Liaison Words furthermore all share the distinctive tonal property of having an initial fixed L toneme not susceptible to change by tone sandhi 8.3.1, with the exception of the Serialiser \(n\), which is toneless.

\subsection*{8.2.1 Liaison Enclitics}

Certain enclitics cause the preceding host word to appear as a modified LF instead of a SF.

They comprise two sets:

Position 1:
\begin{tabular}{lll} 
Locative enclitic & \(n^{\varepsilon}\) & \(\underline{20.3}\) \\
Remoteness Marker & \(n^{\varepsilon}\) & \(\underline{30.1 .1}\) \\
Postposed 2pl subject pronoun & ya & \(\underline{28.2 .3}\)
\end{tabular}

The Locative enclitic attaches directly to nominal words; the Remoteness 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.

Position 2:
all bound personal pronoun objects 15.1
\begin{tabular}{lcc} 
& \(\frac{\text { Singular }}{}\) & \(\frac{\text { Plural }}{}\) \\
1st & \(m^{a}\) & \(t l^{+}\) \\
2nd & \(\mathrm{P}^{+}\) & \(\mathrm{ya}^{+}\) \\
3rd an & \({ }^{\circ}[v]\) & \(\mathrm{la}^{+}\) \\
3rd inan & \(l^{+}\) &
\end{tabular}

The pronouns either attach directly to a verb word or after either of the Position 1 clitics, Remoteness Marker \(n^{\varepsilon}\) or enclitic 2 pl subject ya. They are written as separate words, except with the 3 sg animate pronoun, which is altogether deleted by Apocope; the preceding host-final rounded vowel mora is written -o 1.3.

These words prevent Apocope applying to the preceding word, which retains its final affix vowel in downranked form with loss of quality contrasts. (See further 2.2.2.)

The downranked vowel is not epenthetic and occurs where epenthesis does not:
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|c|c|}
\hline \multirow[t]{2}{*}{dùm \({ }^{\text {m }}\)} & "bite" & & & \\
\hline & + ba+ "them" & \(\rightarrow\) & dùmı bā & "bite them" \\
\hline but & + suffix - \(b^{\text { }}\) & \(\rightarrow\) & \(d u ̄ m^{\text {mo }}\) & gerund "biting" \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

If the host word LF ends in a short vowel, this is downranked to \(\iota\) by default, rounded to \(v\) after \(g\) preceded by a rounded vowel unless the clitic begins with \(y\), and always rounded to \(\circ\) [ [ ] before \({ }^{\circ}\) "him/her" with which it fuses to create a long vowel -o-o [ъ:] in the LF 8.2.1.1. There is no ATR harmony; the added vowel is always lax.

LFs ending in \(-m m\) behave as \(-m V\) before Liaison:
\[
\begin{array}{lllll}
\text { tùm }^{\mathrm{m}} & \text { "send" } & +t \imath^{+} \text {"us" } & \rightarrow & \text { tòmı } t t^{+/} \\
& +0 \text { "him/her" } & \rightarrow & \text { tòm } \cdot o^{-0}
\end{array}
\]

LF-final -iə -uө remain as such before Liaison, not becoming -ia -ua 4.1.1.
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 8.5.3.

A back second mora of a long vowel is fronted to e [r] before Liaison Words beginning with \(y\), and any second mora is rounded to \(\cdot \circ\) [ \(\mho\) ] before the object pronoun o "him/her." In the LF, the 3sg animate object pronoun o combines with this preceding \(O\) to create long \(\cdot \circ-\circ\) [ \(\mathrm{J}:]\) after a consonant and three-mora diphthongs \(V \cdot O-O\) [ V :] after vowels 8.2.1.1.

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" & \(\rightarrow\) &  \\
\hline \(d \bar{u}^{\prime 2}\) & "pot" & \(+n^{\varepsilon}\) & "at, in" & \(\rightarrow\) & dūkí-n \({ }^{\text {c }}\) \\
\hline \multirow[t]{3}{*}{bう̀ \({ }^{\text {a }}\)} & "want" & \(+t \iota^{+}\) & "us" & \(\rightarrow\) & bj̀วdî tí \({ }^{+}\) \\
\hline & & \(+f\) & "you" & \(\rightarrow\) & bj̀ \({ }^{\text {ā }}\) fl \\
\hline & & + 0 & "him/her" & \(\rightarrow\) &  \\
\hline gòsıma \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & "look!" & + ya & "ye" & \(\rightarrow\) & gう̀sımī-ya/ \\
\hline \(p \bar{u} g^{\text {a }}\) & "inside" & \(+n^{\varepsilon}\) & "at" & \(\rightarrow\) & pōogu-n \({ }^{\varepsilon /}\) \\
\hline pjog \({ }^{\text {/ }}\) & "field" & \(+n^{\varepsilon}\) & "at" & \(\rightarrow\) & \(p \overline{ว g u ́-n ~}{ }^{\text {® }}\) \\
\hline yàug \({ }^{\text {² }}\) & "grave" & \(+n^{\varepsilon}\) & "at" & \(\rightarrow\) & yàogū-n \({ }^{\varepsilon /}\) \\
\hline kù'өm \({ }^{\text {m }}\) & "water" & \(+n^{\varepsilon}\) & "in" & \(\rightarrow\) & kù'emī-n \({ }^{\text {¢ }}\) \\
\hline tòm \({ }^{\text {m }}\) & "send" & \(+\iota^{+}\) & "it" & \(\rightarrow\) & tòmı \(1^{+}+\) \\
\hline tòm \({ }^{\text {m }}\) & "send" & \(+{ }^{\circ}\) & "him/her" & \(\rightarrow\) & tòm. \(0^{-0}\) \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

Bà bòวdī m．
Bà pū bóvdī má．
M̀ bóวdī \(f\) ．
M̀ pū bว́วdī fó．
M̀ bóวd•ō．
M̀ pū bว́วd•óo．
Bà bう̀วdī lí．
Bà pū bóכdī líı．
Bà bう̀วdī tí．
Bà pū bóวdī túı．
Bà bj̀วdī yá．
Bà pū bว́כdī yáa．
Bà bj̀odī bá．
Bà pū bว́วdī báa．

\section*{Gว̀sım！}

Gう̀sımī ø！
Look：IMP 2PL．sUB！
＂They love me．＂
＂They don＇t love me．＂
＂I love you．＂
＂I don＇t love you．＂
＂I love him／her．＂［ṃbכ：dv］
＂I don＇t love him／her．＂［ṃphซbכ：dv：］
＂They want it．＂
＂They don＇t want it．＂
＂They love us．＂
＂They don＇t love us．＂
＂They love you．＂
＂They don＇t love you．＂
＂They love them．＂
＂They don＇t love them．＂
＂Look！＂（to one person）
＂Look！＂（to several people）

Examples with host LFs ending in long vowels：
After CVV base forms：
\(k \bar{v}^{+}\)
＂kill＂

Kà bà kóv m．
Kà bà pū kúv mā．
Kà bà kúv f．
Kà bà pū kúv fj．
Kà bà kú•O．［ \(\mathrm{k}^{\mathrm{h}}\) ：\(] \quad\)＂And they killed him．＂
Kà bà pū kúo．
8.1

Kà bà Kúv bā．
Kà bà pū kúv báa．
＂And they killed me．＂
＂And they didn＇t kill me．＂
＂And they killed you．＂
＂And they didn＇t kill you．＂
＂And they didn＇t kill him．＂
＂And they killed them．＂
＂And they didn＇t kill them．＂

\section*{\(k i a ̀+\)}

Kà bà Kíə \(m\) ．
Kà bà pū kía mā．
Kà bà Kía f．
Kà bà pū kía f̄̄．
"cut"
＂And they cut me．＂
＂And they didn＇t cut me．＂
＂And they cut you．＂
＂And they didn＇t cut you．＂

Kà bà kía lī.
Kà bà pū kíə líı.
Kà bà kí•o. [kniv]
Kà bà pū kí•ō-o.
Kà bà Kíz tī.
Kà bà pū kíə tíı.
\({ }_{n} y \bar{\varepsilon}^{+}\)

Kà bà n̄
Kà bà pū n्रyع́ع mā.
Kà bà ny \(\begin{gathered} \\ \varepsilon \\ \text { f. }\end{gathered}\)
Kà bà pū ny \(\varepsilon\) ع́ \(f \bar{f}\).
Kà bà nyéo.
Kà bà pū nyzéoó-o.
Kà bà n्حyće bā.
Kà bà pū ñý́ báa.
"And they cut it."
"And they didn't cut it."
"And they cut him."
"And they didn't cut him."
"And they cut us."
"And they didn't cut us."
"see"
"And they saw me."
"And they didn't see me."
"And they saw you."
"And they didn't see you."
"And they saw her."
"And they didn't see her."
"And they saw them."
"And they didn't see them."

There is no ATR harmony when \({ }^{\circ}\) "him/her" causes complete assimilation of the final mora of the preceding LF:
zú•o
zū•ó-o
"steal him" SF
[zuv]
"steal him" LF [zuv:]

Three-mora vowel sequences reduce to two before Liaison:
\[
\text { dà'a= "market" }+n^{\varepsilon} \text { "at, in" } \rightarrow \quad \text { dā'an }{ }^{\varepsilon /} \text { 2.2.1 }
\]

Fusion Verbs also monophthongise the LF final to a long vowel (showing the same loss of fronting as in phrase-level sandhi 8.5.3):
\[
\begin{aligned}
& \text { pāe }{ }^{+/} \text {"reach" }+t^{+}{ }^{+} \text {"us" } \rightarrow \quad \text { páa } t \bar{l}^{+/} \\
& +f \text { "you" } \rightarrow \text { páa } f \\
& + \text { o "him/her" } \rightarrow \text { pā•óo } \\
& + \text { ya "ye" } \rightarrow \quad p a \bar{e} e^{-y a /} \\
& \text { рі̄e }{ }^{+/} \text {"wash" }+t \imath^{+} \text {"us" } \rightarrow \quad \text { pía } t \bar{\imath}{ }^{+/} \\
& +f \text { "you" } \rightarrow \text { pía } f \\
& + \text { o "him/her" } \rightarrow \text { pī•óo } \\
& + \text { ya "ye" } \rightarrow \quad \text { pie-ya/ }
\end{aligned}
\]
\[
\begin{array}{llll}
d u \bar{e}{ }^{+/} \text {"raise" } & +t \imath^{+} \text {"us" } & \rightarrow & d u ́ \theta ~ t i ̄ \\
& +f \text { "you" } & \rightarrow & d u ́ \theta f \\
& + \text { o "him/her" } & \rightarrow & d \bar{u} \cdot o^{-o} \\
& + \text { ya "ye" } & \rightarrow & d u \bar{e} e^{-y a l}
\end{array}
\]

Invariable Verbs with LFs ending in -ya make forms analogous to those of Fusion Verb base forms. They drop the ya, monophthongise diphthongs and prolong preceding short vowels (see further 2.2.2):
\[
\begin{aligned}
& \text { sō'eyal "own" }+\iota^{+} \text {"it" } \rightarrow \text { só'v } \AA^{+}+ \\
& v \overline{u ̄}^{\mathrm{a} /} \quad \text { "live" }+n^{\varepsilon} \text { rem } \rightarrow \quad v \bar{u} v-n^{\varepsilon /}
\end{aligned}
\]

Similarly, the form
\[
\text { àenen }^{\text {a }} \quad \text { "be" }+0 \text { "him/her" } \rightarrow \text { àn } \cdot 0^{-0}
\]
occurs in

Mane a o.
"I am he." (Jn 18:5, 1976)
Mānı ø áñ• \(\quad \varnothing\).
1SG.CNTR SER COP 3AN.OB.

\subsection*{8.2.1.1 Fronting and Rounding before Liaison Enclitics}

LF-final vowels before Liaison Enclitics are subject to fronting and rounding changes analogous to those which arise word-internally in Long Forms and are often left contrastive by Apocope 6.3.2.

Despite the similarities, these changes arise from a different set of rules. The input is the synchronic LF resulting from the application of all the vowel changes which precede Apocope 6.3. The outcome is also different; for example, ATR harmony never applies within the diphthongs which result from Liaison.

The default is for LFs ending in root vowels before Liaison to show the same segmental form as before the Negative Prosodic Clitic, and for all short affix vowels to become \(\iota\).

Fronting of the second mora of a LF-final long vowel occurs before the 2 pl object pronoun \(\mathrm{ya}^{+}\)and before the enclitic 2 pl subject pronoun \({ }^{\mathrm{ya}}\).
The object pronoun induces exactly the same fronting changes as are seen wordinternally before \(y\) 6.3.2 with any back second mora becoming \(e\) [ I\(]\) but no change with front second morae:
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|}
\hline \(k \bar{v}^{+}\) & & "kill" \\
\hline Kà bà kúe yā. & [ \({ }^{\text {h}} \mathrm{rlj}\) ] \(]\) & "And they killed you (pl)." \\
\hline Kà bà pū kúe yáa. & & "And they didn't kill you (pl)." \\
\hline kià \({ }^{+}\) & & "cut" \\
\hline Kà bà kíe yā. & [ \(k^{\text {niija] }}\) & "And they cut you (pl)." \\
\hline Kà bà pū kíe yáa. & & "And they didn't cut you (pl)." \\
\hline \({ }_{\sim}{ }^{\prime} \bar{\varepsilon}^{+}\) & & "see" \\
\hline Kà bà ñyće yā. & & "And they saw you (pl)." \\
\hline Kà bà pū ñyć yáa. & & "And they didn't see you (pl)." \\
\hline \(p a \bar{e}{ }^{+/}\) & & "reach" \\
\hline Kà bà páe yā. & & "And they reached you (pl)." \\
\hline Kà bà pū páe yáa. & & "And they didn't reach you (pl)." \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

Fronting before the enclitic 2 pl subject pronoun ya is subject to a different rule: the preceding mora is invariably replaced by [r], usually written \(e\) as normal. In most cases this has the same outcome as other fronting rules:
\begin{tabular}{lllllll}
\(k \bar{u}^{+}\) & "kill" & + ya & "ye" & \(\rightarrow\) & \(k \bar{u} e^{-y a /}\) & {\(\left[k^{h}{ }^{\text {vI }] ~}\right.\)} \\
\(k i a^{+}\) & "cut" & + ya & "ye" & \(\rightarrow\) & \(k \bar{e} \bar{e}^{-y a /}\) & {\(\left[k^{\text {hiI }]}\right.\)} \\
\(p a \bar{e} e^{+/}\) & "reach" & + ya & "ye" & \(\rightarrow\) & pāe-ya/ &
\end{tabular}

However, the replacement also affects front vowels:
\(b \grave{c}^{+} \quad\) "be" + ya "ye" \(\rightarrow \quad b \bar{\varepsilon} e^{-y a l} \quad[\mathrm{~b} \varepsilon\) ] written bei

Rounding of the second mora of the second mora of a LF-final long vowel occurs before the 3sg animate object pronoun \({ }^{\circ}\) [ъ] him/her", before which the default LF-final short \(\iota\) also becomes [ \(\mho\) ], written \(\cdot 02.3\).

The rule for second morae differs from the word-internal rounding rule operative in the LF before *kku *و ט 6.3.2: the second mora is invariably replaced by [ \(\mho\) ], even if it was rounded and/or tense: there is no ATR harmony.
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|c|c|c|c|c|}
\hline \(z \bar{u}^{+}\) & "steal" & + 0 & "him/her" & \(\rightarrow\) & \(z u ̄ \cdot 0^{-0}\) & SF [zuv] & LF [zuv:] \\
\hline \({ }_{\sim}{ }^{\text {n }} \bar{\varepsilon}^{+}\) & "see" & + 0 & "him/her" & \(\rightarrow\) & \(n \chi^{\text {a }} \cdot 0^{-0}\) & SF [j̃̃̃ひ] & LF [j̃̃̃ひ:] \\
\hline \(d i^{+}\) & "eat" & + 0 & "him/her" & \(\rightarrow\) & di \(\cdot 0^{-0}\) & SF [div] & LF [div:] \\
\hline kià \({ }^{+}\) & "cut" & \(+{ }^{\circ}\) & "him/her" & \(\rightarrow\) & \(\mathrm{ki} \cdot \mathrm{O}^{-0}\) & SF [ \(\mathrm{k}^{\text {hiv] }}\) & LF [ \(\mathrm{k}^{\text {niv: }}\) ] \\
\hline \(p a \bar{e}{ }^{+/}\) & "reach" & + 0 & "him/her" & \(\rightarrow\) & pā \({ }^{\text {óo }}\) & & \\
\hline pie \({ }^{+/}\) & "wash" & + 0 & "him/her" & \(\rightarrow\) & píóo & & \\
\hline dūe \({ }^{+/}\) & "raise" & \(+{ }^{\circ}\) & "him/her" & \(\rightarrow\) & dū \({ }^{\text {óo }}\) & & \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

After a consonant a LF-final short \(\iota\) becomes [ \(\mho\) ], also written \(\cdot 0\), before \({ }^{\circ}\); when the pronoun itself appears in its LF the two [ \(\mho\) ] vowels combine as long [ \(\mho:]\) :
```

b\grave{\partialda}}\mp@subsup{}{}{\mathrm{ a m}

```

The LF long vowel behaves as one syllable tonally with regard to Levelling 5.2:

M̀ bóวd•ō.
M̀ pū bכ́od•óo.
"I love him/her." [ṃbכ:dv]
"I don't love him/her." [ṃphซbכ:dv:]

Thus the SFs of both \({ }^{y a}\) and \({ }^{0}\), like Prosodic Clitics, have segmental effects on the form of the preceding word despite having zero as their own Short Forms 8 .

For some speakers, rounding of unrounded long vowel second morae and of the default LF-final short vowel \(/\) takes place also before the 2 sg object pronoun \(f\) "you":

Kà bà kía f. or Kà bà kío f.

Kà bà n्حyće f. or Kà bà ñyźo f.

Kà bà páa f.
or Kà bà páv f.
\(\dot{M}\) gbáñ'a \(f\).
or \(\dot{M}\) gbáñ \(v\) f.

Rounded forms are invariable in the 1996 NT version, though this may simply reflect an orthographic decision to write uf rather than if consistently for the supposed object pronoun "you."

There is never rounding word-internally before the \(f \iota^{+}\)Class singular suffix.

\subsection*{8.2.1.2 Allomorphy of the Subject Pronoun ya}

The enclitic 2nd Person Plural Subject pronoun ya adopts the allomorph -níbefore Liaison, both before pronoun objects and before àlá+ "thus" 22.4. The pronoun was historically *na, which regularly became *yã 3.1 with subsequent loss of emic nasalisation, as always with affix vowels 4.4. When the -a is deleted by Apocope, \(y\) is also deleted 2.2. When followed by a Liaison word, the vowel a was not deleted but became \(\imath\), before which \(\Omega\) became \(n\)-. (A similar development has occurred with the initial consonants of \(n i ̀ \eta^{\varepsilon}\) "do" \(=\) Toende Kusaal ẽn, the locative enclitic \(n^{\varepsilon} \sim n \iota^{+/}=\) Toende -l, and nìe \({ }^{+}\)"appear" \(=\)Toende yẽe.)
\(D \bar{a} \quad\) d̄̄llı yá \(\quad+\varnothing!\quad\) "Follow ye not!"
NEG.IMP follow 2PL.SUB NEG!

Dì'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.

Sidiba, nongimini ya pu'ab.
Sīdıba \({ }^{+} \varnothing, ~ n \grave{n ı m i ̄-n i ́ ~ y a ̀ ~ p u ̄ ' a b . ~}\)
Husband:pl voc, love:IMP-2PL.sUB 2PL wife:PL.
"Husbands, love your wives!" (Eph 5:25)

Biisє, siakimini ya du'adib nэya.
Bīise \({ }^{+} \varnothing\), siààımī-ní_ yà dō'adıb nóyà.
Child:PL voc, agree:IMP-2PL.sUB 2PL parent:PL mouth:PL.
"Children, obey your parents." (Eph 6:1)

Dìgī-ní_ àlá! "Keep ye on lying down!"
Be.lying-2PL.sub Adv:thus!

Dì'əmī-ní_ àlá! "keep ye on receiving!"
receive:IMP-2PL.sub ADv:thus!

Dì'əmī-nć lá /dì'əmī-n álá!

\subsection*{8.2.2 Non-Enclitic Liaison Words}

Non-enclitic Liaison Words comprise
\begin{tabular}{lll} 
proclitic personal pronouns & m̀ fù ò lì tì yà bà & \(\underline{15.1}\) \\
personifier clitics & à ǹ m̀ & \(\underline{19.10}\) \\
ànó'j̀n & "who?" & \\
\hline
\end{tabular}
along with all words beginning with
\begin{tabular}{lll} 
number prefixes & à bà bù & \(\underline{16.2 .1}\) \\
manner-adverb prefix & à & \(\underline{20.4}\)
\end{tabular}

All these words have an initial Fixed L Toneme 8.3.1.
Two other particles of the underlying form \(n\) are also Liaison Words:
\begin{tabular}{lll} 
Complementiser & \(\grave{n}\) & \(\underline{31}\) \\
Serialiser & \(n\) & \(\underline{26.1}\)
\end{tabular}

Clause Complementiser \(\grave{n}\) is Fixed-L, but VP Serialiser \(n\) has no toneme. The Complementiser is bound to the left as well as right, but Serialiser \(n\) may follow a pause, though even so it cannot be utterance-initial.

Even when proclitic, these words are like Liaison Enclitics in that the preceding word may appear as a modified LF with loss of quality distinctions in the downranked final affix vowel. Evidence for this is found in the allomorphy shown by the postposed 2 pl pronoun \({ }^{\text {ya }}\) equally before all Liaison Words 8.2.1.2, and in the lack of vowel lengthening before non-enclitic Liaison Words of words which have not undergone Apocope, such as kà, \(y \bar{\varepsilon}\) and the proclitic pronouns; this demonstrates that the phenomenon is due to inhibition of Apocope.

After a consonant, the quality of the downranked vowel preceding Liaison is determined by the Liaison Word, but is generally \(\iota\), rounding to \(v\) when the word ends in a velar preceded by a rounded vowel mora. (Many cases where in traditional orthography a word has seemingly gained a mysterious final -i or \(-u\) are due to this.)

Non-clitic words ending in a short root vowel prolong the vowel before Liaison.
Except with the clause Complementiser ì and with the VP Serialiser n (see below), this phenomenon is very limited in my informants' speech. It is only invariable in the case of a personal pronoun immediately preceded by a verb within the same verb phrase:

Tì gòsí_ bà bīis. "We looked at their children."
1PL look.at 3PL child:PL.
(Liason before bà "their")

Older written sources show the phenomenon more widely, though always within a phrase:
bane na yel Zugsobi ba tuuma a si'em la
bànı nà yह̄l Zūg-sób bà tōvmá_ø àn sỉəm lā
REL.PLIRR say head-one:SG 3PL deed:PL COMP COP INDF.ADV ART
"Those who will tell the Lord how their deeds are." (Heb 13:17, 1996)
(as read by WK, with a SF before bà tōvma.)
The audio version has ...Zūg-sóbí bà...

Words which do not have Apocope Blocking and which end in short root vowels prolong them before Liaison:
... [n] loo Abaa zuur "... tying Dog's tail" 19.10 KSS p20
...n lóo_À-Bāa zóvor
...ser tie pers-dog:sg tail:sg

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 àn'́'ว̀n "who?" 15.4, the Manner-Adverb prefix and the Personifier Clitic the LF-final vowel is \(/(v\) after a velar preceded by a rounded vowel):
```

O 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 [I] in these two cases, instead of the monophthongs aa iə ue usual before another word in the VP 8.5.3:
```

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 àeñ \({ }^{\text {a }}\) "be something" always appears as àañ, not àeñ.

Ka fu aan anכ'כne?
"And who are you?" (Jn 1:19)
Kà fù áañ ànó'כnغ̀ \(+\varnothing\) ?
And 2SG COP who cQ?

Before the Number Prefix \(a\) - the pre-Liaison vowel is instead \(-a\) :
\(\grave{M}\) mór nē biiisá_ àtán'. "I have three children."
1sG have foc child:pL num:three.
```

P\varepsiloǹ\varepsilondá_ àlá +\varnothing? "How many baskets?"
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 L Raising):
```

Nū'-bíbìs álá kà fù ny nḡtá ${ }^{+} \varnothing$ ?
hand-small:PL num:how.many and 2sG see:DIPF 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 \(-i\) 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 gj̀sú_ 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.

This distinctive sandhi behaviour before the Number Prefix \(a\) - as opposed to all other vowel-initial Liaison Words (even ò) can be explained historically. The number prefix originated as *\(\eta a\), the old \(r^{\varepsilon} \mid a^{+}\)Class agreement 16.2.1. Original word-internal * \(\eta\) has disappeared completely throughout Western Oti-Volta (synchronic non-initial \(\eta\) resulting always from *mg or *ng \(\rightarrow\) ) , whereas word-medial \(y\) w survive in many contexts. Initial \({ }^{*} \eta\) preceding unstressed vowels might be expected likewise to have disappeared early historically; and indeed in Dagbani, the number prefix is a- even though root-initial \(\eta\) is preserved in full words (クariŋ "boat", Kusaal ànron \({ }^{\text {n }}\).) Sandhi
effects may outlive complete phonetic disappearance of a consonant, as with the French "H aspiré." The data could be thus accounted for by supposing that *pa lost its initial consonant earlier than the Personifier Clitic or the manner-adverb prefix, representing (as it were) the "H muet" corresponding to the "H aspiré" left by later deletion of initials such as \(y\) or \(w\). However, putting this in synchronic phonological terms would be methodologically suspect in view of the absolute neutralisation (Kiparsky 1982) that has taken place, and would add nothing descriptively.

\subsection*{8.2.2.1 Particles of the Form \(n\)}

There are two extremely common particles with the underlying form \(n\) which are always bound to the right: the Complementiser within \(\dot{n}\)-Clauses 31, and the VP Serialiser particle 26.1. Both particles are Liaison Words, but appear in the form \(n\) preceded by a modified long form only in a minority of written materials, and even then, not consistently. My informants drop the \(n\) itself, so that the form of the preceding word alone signals the presence of these particles, except in the very common special case where they follow proclitic personal pronouns, where special fused forms result. This is also the commonest pattern in texts, and in KB the vast majority of instances of \(n\) follow foreign proper names, with most of the remainder following forms with Apocope Blocking. However, some older materials show \(n\) frequently in other contexts also, with or without a preceding LF-final reduced affix vowel. Segmentally, the two particles behave in a very similar way in Agolle Kusaal, but they differ tonally, and Toende Kusaal has segmentally different forms, using ne for the Complementiser and zero for the Serialiser.

Even texts which use \(n\) frequently nearly always show e or \(i\) after preceding nasal consonants, presumably by dissimilation. This may indicate that the varying spellings of the particles after consonants originally all represented high nasalised vowels, with syllabic nasals as allophones, but the vowels are not now nasalised in my informants' speech.

Complementiser \(\grave{n}\) is bound to the left as well as right, but Serialiser \(n\) can follow a pause, so that it is not always preceded by a modified Long Form. In such cases it always appears as a syllabic nasal assimilated to the position of articulation of the following consonant, and is written \(n\).

I will follow my informants' usage and the texts throughout; the position of the particles is marked \(\varnothing\) in interlinear glossing in cases where they lack any surface segmental realisation.

Written materials confirm that these particles are Liaison Words, as preceding forms preserve LF geminate consonants before the affix vowel, e.g.
```

ya zuobid wosa kalli an si'em
yà zūөbíd wūsa kálli_ \varnothing àn~~ s``əm
2PL hair:PL all number:SG COMP COP INDF.ADV
"how much the number of all your hairs is" (Lk 12:7)
tovm kane ka m tummi tisid Wina'am la.
tòvm-kànı kà m̀ tómmi_ \varnothing tísìd Wínà'am Iā
work-REL.SG and 1SG work:DIPF SER give:DIPF God ART
"The work which I do for God" (Rom 15:17)

```

\subsection*{8.2.2.1.1 Complementiser ǹ}

The post-subject complementiser \(\grave{n}\) always has a L toneme not subject to L Raising 7.4, causing a preceding M toneme to become H even when the particle has no segmental realisation itself. The marker combines with a preceding pronoun subject to produce a special set of pronouns 15.1.

Note the contrasts in
```

mán zàb nà'ab lā "I having fought the chief." (ǹ-Clause)
1SG:COMP fight chief:SG ART

```
Mānı_ Ø záb nà'ab lā. "I have fought the chief." (n-focus)
1sG.CNTR SER fight chief:sg ART
tīnámí_ \(\varnothing\) zàb nà'ab lā "we having fought the chief" (ì-Clause)
1PL COMP fight chief:SG ART
```

Tinámì_\varnothing záb nà'ab lā. "We have fought the chief." (n-focus)
1PL SER fight chief:sg ART

```

After words with Apocope Blocking, dropping of the /n/ segment leaves the tonal change of preceding \(M\) to \(H\) as the only sign of the presence of the particle:

> 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_ø zàb nà'ab lā
man:SG ART COMP fight chief:SG ART
"the man having fought the chief"
dāu lá \(\varnothing\) g \(\quad\) j̄s ná'àb lā
man:sg ART comp look.at chief:sg ART
"the man having looked at the chief"

\subsection*{8.2.2.1.2 Serialiser \(\boldsymbol{n}\)}

After pause WK realises this particle as a syllabic nasal assimilated to the position of the following consonant. Elsewhere, he has preceding LFs with the loss of final vowel contrast, while the particle itself has no segmental realisation:
```

Kà ò zóכ_ Ø k\overline{q}\eta nā. "And he came running"

```

And 3AN run SER come hither.

After a final short vowel which is not a non-clitic word root vowel, WK has has a consonantal nasal, assimilated to the position of the following consonant.

This pattern is the commonest in texts also, but forms also appear with the \(n\) preserved after the modified LF, and with \(n\) after a SF.

Zero also occurs as a realisation of this particle (as always in Toende Kusaal), particularly after verbs often used as "auxiliaries"; probably some or all "particleverbs" originated in this way. In other cases, the zero realisation is significantly more frequent in the NT text after words ending in \(-m-n-l\), perhaps reflecting complete assimilation to the preceding consonant, and also after words ending in vowels other than non-clitic short root vowels, i.e. after words ending in long vowels or with Apocope Blocking.

The \(n\) particle of Non-verbal Predicators \(\underline{25}\) is identical to the VP Serialiser \(n\) phonologically, and will be regarded as a specialised use of the same particle:

Bכ̄כ_ \(\varnothing\) lá \(+\varnothing\) ? "What's that?"
What ser that cq?

This particle \(n\) has no toneme itself; the LF-final toneme before it is M after a M toneme and L otherwise.

\subsection*{8.2.3 Tonemes before Liaison}

Liaison Enclitics themselves carry H toneme after host-final M toneme and M after L or H. The M becomes H before Prosodic Clitics:
\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 kúv bā

The Locative Enclitic \(n^{\varepsilon}\) does not alter the preceding toneme:
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|c|c|c|}
\hline \(p \bar{u} g^{\text {a }}\) & "inside" & \(+n^{\varepsilon}\) & "at" & \(\rightarrow\) pūogu-n \({ }^{\varepsilon /}\) & (Pattern O) \\
\hline biï \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & "child" & \(+n^{\varepsilon}\) & "at" & \(\rightarrow\) biigı- \(n^{\varepsilon /}\) & WK \\
\hline mù'ar \({ }^{\text {c }}\) & "dam, lake" & \(+n^{\varepsilon}\) & "at" & \(\rightarrow\) mò'arī-n \({ }^{\text {¢/ }}\) & \\
\hline pj̄og \({ }^{\text {/ }}\) & "field" & \(+n^{\varepsilon}\) & "at" & \(\rightarrow p \overline{\partial o g u ́-n ~}{ }^{\varepsilon}\) & \\
\hline yàad \({ }^{\text {¢ }}\) & "graves" & \(+n^{\varepsilon}\) & "at" & \(\rightarrow\) yàadī-n \({ }^{\text {/ }}\) & WK \\
\hline kūodíba & "killers" & \(+n^{\varepsilon}\) & "at" & \(\rightarrow\) kōodíbī-n \({ }^{\text {/ }}\) & WK \\
\hline dà'a= & "market" & \(+n^{\varepsilon}\) & "at" & \(\rightarrow\) dā'a-n \({ }^{\varepsilon /}\) for & \(-n^{\varepsilon /} \underline{5.2}\) \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

Note that in dūk lā póvgū-n \(n^{\varepsilon}\) "inside the pot", pūug \({ }^{\text {a }}\) "inside" shows the normal LF-final M after L/H despite being changed by M Raising 8.4.

The Remoteness Marker \(n^{\varepsilon}\) 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" & \(+n^{\varepsilon}\) & rem & \(\rightarrow\) dūgu-n \({ }^{\varepsilon /}\) \\
\hline & bj̀dıg \({ }^{\text {e }}\) & "lose" & \(+n^{\varepsilon}\) & rem & \(\rightarrow\) bj̀dıgī-n \(n^{\varepsilon /}\) \\
\hline & yādıg \({ }^{\varepsilon /}\) & "scatter" & \(+n^{\varepsilon}\) & rem & \(\rightarrow\) yādıgı-n \({ }^{\varepsilon /}\) \\
\hline dipf & kōod \({ }^{\text {a/ }}\) & "kill" & \(+n^{\varepsilon}\) & rem & \(\rightarrow\) kūodı-n \({ }^{\text {/ }}\) \\
\hline dipf & yādıgíd \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & "scatter" & \(+n^{\varepsilon}\) & rem & \(\rightarrow\) yādıgídī-n \(n^{\varepsilon /}\) \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

Dā ḋ̀lll-yá! "Follow ye not!"
\(m \grave{\varepsilon}^{+} \quad\) "build" \(\quad+n^{\varepsilon}\) rem \(\quad \rightarrow m \bar{\varepsilon} \varepsilon-n^{\varepsilon /}\) for \(m \bar{\varepsilon} \bar{\varepsilon}-n^{\varepsilon /} \underline{5.2}\)
Dāu lā méc-n "The man built (earlier today.)"

\section*{Before enclitic object pronouns, all Indicative Base Forms without the} Independency Marking tone overlay 22.6.1.1 change LF-final LM to LL and LFfinal MM to MH.

Verb base forms without tone overlay:
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|c|c|}
\hline  & "lose" & \(+m^{\text {a }}\) & "me" & \(\rightarrow\) bj̀dıgı \(\mathrm{m}^{\text {a }}\) \\
\hline \(d i^{+}\) & "eat" & \(+\iota^{+}\) & "it" & \(\rightarrow\) dì \(\stackrel{1}{l}^{+1}\) \\
\hline \(y a ̄ d ı g^{\varepsilon /}\) & "scatter" & \(+m^{\text {a }}\) & "me" & \(\rightarrow\) yādıgí ma \\
\hline \(d \bar{u} g^{\varepsilon}\) & "cook" & \(+l^{+}\) & "it" & \(\rightarrow\) dūgí \(\mathrm{li}^{+/}\) \\
\hline \(g \bar{s} s^{\varepsilon}\) & "look" & \(+{ }^{\circ}\) & "him/her" & \(\rightarrow \mathrm{g}\) ¢ s \(\mathrm{o}^{\prime} 0\) \\
\hline \(k \bar{u}^{+}\) & "kill" & \(+m^{\text {a }}\) & "me" & \(\rightarrow\) Kúv \(m^{\text {a }}\) for kōú ma \(\underline{\underline{5} 2}\) \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

Pattern H Fusion verb Base Forms behave exactly like CVV-stems:
\[
\begin{array}{llll}
\text { pāe } e^{+/} & \text {"reach" } & +m^{\mathrm{a}} \text { "me" } & \rightarrow \text { páa } m^{\mathrm{a}} \\
\text { dī } \mathrm{e}^{+/} & \text {"get" } & + \text { ba+ "them" } & \rightarrow \text { dí'ə bā}
\end{array}
\]

After other verb forms, the 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 \(\mathrm{m}^{\mathrm{a}}\) \\
\hline \(d i t{ }^{\text {a }}\) & "eats" & \(+\iota^{+}\)"it" & \(\rightarrow\) ditī lí+ \\
\hline yādıgíd \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & "scatters" & + ba+ "them" & \(\rightarrow\) yādıgídī bá+ \\
\hline kūod \({ }^{\text {a/ }}\) & "kills" & + ma "me" & \(\rightarrow\) kūטdí ma \\
\hline sū'eya/ & "own" & \(+\iota^{+}\)"it" &  \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

The sequence \(\cdot 0\)-o resulting from the LF of the 3 sg animate pronoun \({ }^{\circ}\) fusing with the vowel before Liaison behaves as one syllable tonally in Levelling 5.2:
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|}
\hline  & "I love him/her." & [mbo:dv] \\
\hline M̀ pū bóدd•ó-o. & "I don't love him/her." & [mp \({ }^{\text {heb }}\) [dv:] \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

Irrealis Mood forms of Pattern LO Verbs:

Ò nà bう̄dıgı m.
Ò kù bj̄dıgı má.
Ò nà bj̄dıgı bá.
Ò kù bj̄dıgı báa.
Ò kù bj̄dıgıdı má.
Ò kù zābıdı má.
Ò kù zāboó-o.
or Ò kù zābo-o.
"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 won't fight him."
"He won't fight him."

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

All non-enclitic Liaison Words begin with a Fixed-L toneme 8.3.1 except for Serialiser \(n\), which has no toneme.

Verbs before the Fixed-L Clitics show the same final tonemes as with Liaison Enclitics, except that M tonemes necessarily change to H 5.3.2.

Base forms without tone overlay:

Kà tì díl_bà dīıb. "And we ate their food."
And 1PL eat 3pL food.

Kà ò bódıgì_bà bòmıs. "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.

Dynamic Imperfective without tone overlay:

Kà tì dítí_ bà dīıb. "And we were eating their food."
And 1PL eat:DIPF 3PL food.

Nominal forms before Fixed-L Liaison Words end in H toneme as expected; I was not able to elicit such forms easily from informants, but there are a few examples in the 1996 audio NT.
bane na yel Zugsobi ba tuuma a si'em la
bànı nà yह̄l Zūg-sóbí bà tōomá_ \(\varnothing\) àn \(\operatorname{sỉəm~lā~}\)
ReL.pL IRR say head-one:sg 3pL deed:pL comp cop ind.adi art
"Those who will tell the Lord how their deeds are." (Heb 13:17, 1996)

Before complementiser-ǹ a final M tone becomes H :
dāu lá_ø dāa záb nà'ab lā
man:sg ART COMP tNs fight chief:sg ART
"the man's having fought the chief"

Before Serialiser- \(n\) the final toneme of a modified LF is \(M\) after \(M\) toneme and L otherwise. L Raising follows if and only if the preceding word would induce it 8.3.

M̀ nók sú'ugù Ø \(\varnothing\) kiá nīm lā.
1sG pick.up knife:sg Ser cut meat:sg ART.
"I cut the meat with a knife."
amaa o kena ye o tom tisi ba
àmáa ò \(k \bar{\varepsilon}\) nā ý́ ò tóm_ø tìsı_bā
but 3AN come hither that 3AN work Ser give 3pl.ob
"but he came to serve them" (Mt 20:28)

\subsection*{8.3 Initial L Raising}

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. The change cannot take place if the \(L\) toneme is Fixed-L 8.3.1; in that case any preceding \(M\) toneme necessarily becomes H instead 5.3.2.

\section*{L Raising follows}
all words, clitic or free, ending in M toneme
all other words which are not proclitic except
Verb Base Forms without the Independency tone overlay 22.6.1.1
Words with less than three tonemes, affected by M Raising 8.4.1 Words ending in an affix vowel with H toneme
bound subject pronouns 22.6.1.2 (including ellipted subjects 27.1.5.2) ò lì bà except preceding Independency Marking m̀ fù tì yà except preceding Independency Marking after y \(\bar{\varepsilon}\)

The Serialiser \(n\) is transparent to L Raising 8.2.3.
The Number and the Manner-adverb prefixes à 16.2 .117 are followed by L Raising of the stem, probably reflecting an origin in noun class agreement flexions with M toneme, like the bound subject pronouns.

L Raising crosses phrase boundaries if there is no intervening pause, but it does not occur after conjunctions 27.1.3 or pre-subject adjuncts 28.1.1.

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

Bà ñ~wè' ná'àb lā súnā. "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:

M̀ dìga lú yā. "My dwarfs have fallen down."
1SG dwarf:PL fall PFV.
but M̀ yōgumá lù yā. "My camels have fallen down."
1sG camel:PL fall PFV.

L Raising examples, with zà \({ }^{\varepsilon}\) "fight" gj̄s \(s^{\varepsilon}\) "look at" nà'ab \(b^{\text {a }}\) "chief": Kà-clause, without Independency Marking tone overlay; all subject pronouns are followed by raising; Base Forms are followed by raising only if ending in M:

Kà m̀ záb nà'ab lā.
Kà ò záb nà'ab lā.
Kà m̀ gj̄s ná'àb lā.
Kà ò gōs 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."

Main Clause, with Independency Marking; the verbs have tone overlay and are now both followed by L Raising; 3rd person pronouns are not followed by Raising:

M záb ná'àb lā.
Ò zàb ná'àb lā.
M gós ná'àb lā.
Ò gòs ná'àb lā.
"I've fought the chief."
"He's fought the chief."
"I've looked at the chief."
"He's looked at the chief."

A tonal minimal pair with a contrast between the object enclitic ba "them", which is followed by L Raising, and the proclitic bà "they, their", which is not:

Ò gj̀sī bá bédugū.
Ò gj̀sí bà bèdugū.
"She looked at them a lot." (ba object)
"She looked at a lot of them." (bà possessive)
\(L\) Raising has arisen from rightward \(M\) spreading ( \(H\) representing ML on a single mora 5.1.) With proclitics the only difficulty is with pronouns, which even when followed by L Raising are always L for my informants, though written with M in ILK and in Urs Niggli's materials. In current Agolle, they could here be regarded as followed by a floating \(M\) toneme. Floating tones could also account for SFs ending in H or L which are followed by L Raising; when an affix vowel is deleted by Apocope, its \(M\) toneme is left floating, while tonemes of stem-final morae (as in cbs or verb

Base Forms) are deleted altogether. However, it is more straightforward to specify the conditions for L Raising directly. Synchronically, L Raising after word-final L/H is primarily determined by grammatical category \({ }^{8}\). Flexionless singulars ending in L like mà "mother" zưà "friend" dư'átà "doctor", and words with cbs remodelled on a L-final sg, like lànnıg "squirrel" 9.2.2 distinguish a sg followed by L Raising from a cb which is not 9.7. The only Pattern LO Invariable Verb with no suffix, bè "be somewhere/exist", is followed by raising. Lè \(\varepsilon\) "but" is followed by raising when affected by Independency-Marking 22.6.1.1 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 (or sole) toneme which is invariably L, and is never subject to L Raising.

The Fixed-L words comprise all non-enclitic Liaison Words 8.2.2 except for Serialiser \(n\) 8.2.2.1.2, which is toneless, along with the linker particle kà "and":
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|}
\hline proclitic personal pronouns & m̀ fò ò lí tì yà bà \\
\hline personifier clitics & à- \(\grave{n}\) - \(\mathrm{m}^{-}\) \\
\hline \multicolumn{2}{|l|}{àn'́'j̀n \({ }^{\text {" }}\) who?"} \\
\hline Complementiser & ǹ 8.2.2.1.1 \\
\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 18.1.
If there is no intervening pause, a preceding \(M\) toneme must become \(H\) :

Bà kùvdī bá.
3PL kill:DIPF 3PL.OB.
but Bà kùvdí_bà būus.
3PL kill:DIPF 3PL goat:PL.

Lì à né à-dàalún. "It's a stork"
3INAN COP FOC PERS-stork:SG.
8) This is analogous to the "Consonant Mutations" of the Insular Celtic languages, where loss of word-final segments has caused what were once sandhi phenomena to become purely morphosyntactic processes. A similar but phonologically simpler development has occurred in South-Western Mande (Babaev, Kirill, "Zialo: the NewlyDiscovered Mande Language of Guinea" LINCOM 2010, pp39ff.)
ba diib \(n\) yit na'aten la na zug
bà díıb ǹ yīt ná'-tēŋ lā nā zúg
3PL food comp emerge:dipf king-land:sG Art hither upon
"because their food came from the king's land" (Acts 12:20, 1996)
wuu saa naani iank ya nya'aŋ n ti paae ya tuona la.
wōv sáa_ ø nāanı iáñk yà ñyá'aŋ n tí páe_yà tù̀na lā like rain:SG Comp then jump 2PL behind ser afterwards reach 2PL before.ADV ART "like when lightning leaps from East to West" (Mt 24:27, 1996)

\subsection*{8.4 Initial M Raising}

M Raising takes place exclusively within NPs and AdvPs. It occurs wherever L Raising would, with two exceptions: it does not follow contrastive pronouns (like mān "my") and it only follows free forms when they are dependents preceding the head.

Words beginning with M toneme are changed to a H-initial pattern, with any subsequent tonemes L throughout \({ }^{9}\). Uncompounded words changed by M Raising are only followed by L Raising or M Raising if they have more than two tonemes 8.4.1.

Pattern L and Subpattern HL words are not changed at all (except that L undergoes L Raising); Pattern H words beginning with H on a long vowel fluctuate.

\section*{\(M\) Raising follows any combining form ending in \(M\) toneme, regardless of whether the \(\mathbf{c b}\) is pre-modifier or head.}

Cb as head:
\begin{tabular}{llll} 
bù-pìəlıg & "white goat" & bù-pāalíga & "new goat" \\
bī-pún-pìəlıg & "white girl" & bī-pún-pāalíga & "new girl" \\
n亏̄-píəlìg & "white hen" & nכ̄-páalìga & "new hen"
\end{tabular}

Cb pre-modifier ( \(n \bar{\partial} r^{\varepsilon /}\) "mouth" cb n̄̄-, and dī'əs \({ }^{\mathrm{a} / ~ " r e c e i v e r " ~ p l ~ d i ̉ ə s i ́ d i ̀ b a): ~}\)
```

    n\overline{-dí'\partial̀s`a}
    pl nj̄-dí'əsìdıba

```
9) Unfortunately I did not think to check how words with M nominal prefixes behave with M Raising. e.g dāu lā tínt̀̀n ríg (?tíntう̀ñrıg) "the man's mole (tīntj̄ñríga)."

Nothing like M Raising seems to be described in other Western Oti-Volta languages. Historically, it perhaps arose from dissimilation in overlong strings of H (Kusaal M) tones, like Meeussen's Rule in Bantu; the initial H of affected words would result from L Raising of original L. As with L Raising 8.3, Apocope has complicated the picture; M Raising only occurs after forms which have undergone Apocope 7.2.4.

\section*{M Raising follows any dependent free form which would be followed by L Raising, except for a contrastive personal pronoun. \\ It applies to one word only; this may be a cb. \\ Examples: \\ No M Raising after personal pronouns: \\ m biig \\ m̀ tìıg \\ mān bïig \\ mān tíig \\ m̀ gbīgım \\ m̀ yūgúm \\ ```
"my child" (biigga) \\ "my tree" (tì וga) \\ "my child" \\ "my tree" \\ "my lion" (gbīgım}\mp@subsup{}{}{\textrm{n}\varepsilon} \\ "my camel" (yōgóm}\mp@subsup{}{}{\textrm{n}\varepsilon}
```}

No M Raising after words which are not followed by L Raising:
m̀ biēyá biiis
m̀ biēēyá fūud
"my elder same-sex siblings' children (biiis \({ }^{\varepsilon}\) )"
"my elder same-sex siblings' clothes (fūud \({ }^{\varepsilon /}\) )"

M Raising after all other dependent free Nominal Phrases:
dāu biig
dāu tíig
nà'ab biîg
dāu lā gbígìm
dāu lā yógòm
"a man's child" (vs dàu-bïiga "male child")
"a man's tree"
"a chief's child"
"the man's lion"
"the man's camel"

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

Bà tìs ná'àb lā bîg. "They've given (it) to the chief's child." 3PL give chief:SG ART child:sG. (M raising applied to biiga "child")

Bà tìs ná'àb lā bïig. "They've given the chief a child."
3PL give chief:SG ART child:sG. (No M raising applied to biiiga)

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

\section*{M Raising does follow any free head before a dependent:}

\author{
kūg-yínnì \\ but kūgor yīnní \\ wābug lā \\ wābıs piiga \\ wābıs piiga lā
}
"one stone" with yínnì as adjective 16.2.2
"one stone"
"the elephant"
"ten elephants"
"the ten elephants"

M Raising applies sequentially, reflecting the substructure of NPs and AdvPs.
If a head + adjective compound becomes a cb before another adjective or a post-determining pronoun, M Raising applies after the first adjective on the basis of whether the preceding cb now ends in M , regardless of its intrinsic tonemes:
```

bù-wJ̄k
nכ̄-wók
bù-wכ̄k-píəlìg
bù-wj̄k-páalìg
n亏̄-wók-pìalıg
nכ̄-wók-pāalíg

```
```

"tall goat"

```
"tall goat"
"tall hen"
"tall hen"
```

"tall white goat"

```
"tall white goat"
"tall new goat"
"tall new goat"
"tall white hen"
"tall white hen"
"tall new hen"
```

"tall new hen"

```

When M Raising applies to a the first component of an existing compound, the second component retains its M-Raising-induced pattern of initial H toneme followed by L tonemes even though the first element no longer ends in M toneme:
\[
\begin{aligned}
& \text { bù-pìalıg } \\
& \text { bù-pāalíg } \\
& \text { nō-píalìg } \\
& \text { n亏̄-páalìg } \\
& \text { dāu lā bú-pìəlıg } \\
& \text { dāū lā bú-pāalíg } \\
& \text { dāu lā nó-píalìg } \\
& \text { dāue lā nó-páalìg }
\end{aligned}
\]

Contrast
\(d \bar{o} g-k a ́ n a ̄\)
[sālıma dóg-]kànā
"white goat"
"new goat"
"white hen"
"new hen"
"the man's white goat"
"the man's new goat"
"the man's white hen"
"the man's new hen"
"this pot" ( \(d \bar{u} k^{3 /} \mathrm{cb} d \bar{u} g-\) "pot")
"this [golden pot]"

The order of successive applications of M Raising may also be revealed by the fact that uncompounded words with less than three tonemes affected by M Raising are not themselves followed by L or M Raising 8.4.1. Thus
[fūug dój̀g]
pò'usug [fúùg dój̀g]
```

"tent" (füug`/ "cloth", d\grave{วg` "house")}
(not *[pù'vsvg fúùg] dう̀วg)
"tabernacle" (pò'vsug}\mp@subsup{}{}{\mathrm{ O "worship")}

```

In Lì kā' [[[dāu lā bîg ] bīər] náàff zūvre.
"It's not the man's child's elder-same-sex-sibling's cow's tail." WK (bïiga "child" bīər \({ }^{\varepsilon /}\) "elder sib of same sex" náaf "cow" zūur "tail")
the nesting results in alternating absence of M Raising; the two-toneme words bîg náàf, having been themselves affected by M Raising, are not followed by it.

The final vowel mora before the Locative Enclitic \(n^{\varepsilon}\) always has M toneme, even when there is no Initial L Raising after the corresponding SF (see below):
```

    dāu lā pว́vgō-n
    dāu^ lā póvgū-n
    like dāun lā dóvgū-n

```
"in the man's field ( \(\left.p \bar{\partial} g^{\prime J}\right)\) "
"inside the man" (pūטga "inside")
"in the man's hut (dj̀ \(\mathrm{g}^{\text {² }}\) )"

\subsection*{8.4.1 Tone Raising after Words with M Raising}

Regardless of whether it has been subject to M Raising, the final element of a compound induces following L and M raising in accordance with the general rule 8.3, i.e. after all sg or pl forms except those ending -í or -á and after cbs ending in M:
```

    nj̄-wók díib
    like bù-wōk díỉb

```
"a tall hen's food" (dīı \(b^{\text { }}\) "food")
"a tall goat's food"

An uncompounded word affected by \(M\) Raising is not followed by \(L\) or \(M\) Raising unless it has three tonemes or more. \({ }^{10}\)

There is thus a difference in the tone sandhi following such words from that after Subpattern HL words 7.2.1.2 and Pattern L words changed to HL by L Raising.

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

Pattern L and Subpattern HL, not subject to M Raising:

\footnotetext{
10) If \(L\) raising after \(\mathrm{sg} / \mathrm{pl}\) SFs is attributed to a following floating M tone 8.3, this could be restated as M Raising changing a following sequence of three tonemes beginning with M (including floating tonemes) to HLL. 3- and 4-mora stems would then retain the following floating tone. The rule would apply prior to the tonal changes induced by a following locative Liaison Enclitic.
}
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|}
\hline bù \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & "donkey" & Dāu lā bún bódìg yā. \\
\hline ànrup & "boat" & Dāu lā ánrò̀ b bódìg yā. \\
\hline dう̀ \(g^{\text { }}\) & "house" & Dāu lā dójo g bódìg yā. \\
\hline à-gáòng \({ }^{\text { }}\) & "pied crow" & Dāu lā gávong bódìg yā. \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

Pattern H and O Nominals which have not undergone M Raising:
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|}
\hline wābug \({ }^{\text {/ }}\) & "elephant" & M̀ bi̇ēyá wābug bódìg yā. \\
\hline \(b a ̄ \eta^{\text {a }}\) & "ring" & M bi̇ēyá bāp bódìg yā. \\
\hline yūgodır \({ }^{\text {e }}\) & "hedgehog" & M̀ bi̇ēyá yūgodır bódìg yā \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

Pattern H and O Nominals which have undergone M Raising; two tonemes:
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|}
\hline wābug \({ }^{\text {/ }}\) & "elephant" & Dāu lā wábòg bj̀dıg yā. \\
\hline pjo \(g^{\text {/ }}\) & "field" & Dāu lā pój̀g bj̀dıg yā. \\
\hline bā \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & "ring" & Dāu lā bán bj̀dıg yā. \\
\hline \(p \bar{v}\) ¢ \(g^{\text {a }}\) & "inside" & Dāư lā póvog bj̀dıg yā. \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

With more than two tonemes:
yūgvdır \({ }^{\varepsilon}\) "hedgehog" Dāu lā yúgvdìr bódìg yā.

Words with initial H like náaf "cow" fluctuate, probably by analogy with words with Subpattern HL like à-gáv̀ng \({ }^{3}\), which are not subject to M Raising:
\[
\begin{array}{ll}
\text { náaf } \quad \text { "cow" } & \text { Dāū lā náàf bódìg yā. } \\
& \text { Dāū lā náàf bj̀dıg yā. }
\end{array}
\]

\subsection*{8.5 Segmental Contact Phenomena}

\subsection*{8.5.1 Consonant Assimilation}

Both the initial consonant and the emic nasalisation of the deictic n nwà \({ }^{+}\)"this" are lost when it appears as an enclitic after a word ending in a consonant:
biis ñwá
zàam ñwá
but pư'ā ñwá
\begin{tabular}{ll} 
"these children" & [bi:sa] \\
"this evening" & [za:ma] \\
"this woman" (e.g. as vocative) & {\(\left[p^{\text {ºvawã }}\right]\)}
\end{tabular}

The initial / of the definite article \(I^{+}+/\)assimilates totally to a preceding word final \(-r\), and \([r:]\) simplifies to \([r]\) :
yīr lā
pòkう̀วñr lā
"the house"
[jira]
"the widow"

Toende Kusaal shows this assimilation after all final consonants (Niggli 2012). The 1976 New Testament translation (especially Mark) occasionally shows forms like nidiba for nīdıb lā "the people."

Initial \(n\) of the focus particle \(n \bar{\varepsilon}^{+/}\)often assimilates completely to a preceding word-final \(d t n r / m\) in normal rapid speech. Subsequently [ \(r\) :] becomes [r] and [d:] becomes [d]:

Bà kpìid nē.
M zót nē.
M̀ mór nē bīisá àyí.
Lì pè'عl nē.
Lì sàñ'am nē.
\begin{tabular}{ll} 
"They're dying." & [ba kpi:d \(\varepsilon]\) \\
"I'm afraid." & [m zכt: \(\varepsilon]\) \\
"I have two children with me." & {\([m\) mor bi:sa:ji] } \\
"It's full." & [II ph \(\varepsilon: I: \varepsilon]\) \\
"It's spoilt." & [II sã̃:m: \(\varepsilon\) ]
\end{tabular}

Other accounts of Kusaal have taken this as a "progressive" flexion -dz/tz; in Toende Kusaal the assimilation of the equivalent particle \(m \varepsilon\) is invariable after consonants (Niggli 2012), making this interpretation natural enough.

Final nasal consonants of proclitics, cbs and nominal prefixes assimilate to the place of articulation of a following stop:
dànkj̀n
nīn-bámmā
"measles"
"these people"
[daŋkhəŋ]
[nimbam:a]

Before s z such word-final nasals are realised as [口]:
\begin{tabular}{lll} 
būn-zíidìr & "thing for carrying on head" & [bvyzi:dir] \\
nàm zī' & "still not know" & {\([\) nayzİ \(]\)}
\end{tabular}

In the case of nominal prefixes, where no unassimilated forms are available for control, I follow the traditional orthography in writing these nasals as \(n\) everywhere except before \(p b m\), where I write \(m\).

\subsection*{8.5.2 Loss of Nasalisation}

Word-final nasalised short vowels denasalise before a clitic with an initial nasal consonant (see on similar changes word-internally, 4.2.1):
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|}
\hline & ànwá & "like this" \\
\hline but & àwá nā & "like this here" \\
\hline & \(k \bar{\varepsilon} n^{+}\) & "come" \\
\hline but & \(k \bar{\varepsilon} n \bar{a}\) & "come hither" \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

Some unstressed CVn- elements lose nasalisation even when the following consonant is not a nasal. Thus with the compounds of sūnff "heart":
```

sū-málısìmm "joy"
sūn-kpí'ò\eta}\mp@subsup{\eta}{}{2}\quad"boldness

```
the NT and other sources write sukpi'on or sukpi'eup for the second word; similarly supeen "anger" for sūñ-p \(\varepsilon\) ह̀n \(n^{n \varepsilon}\). The loss of nasalisation here probably reflects the process of bleaching and phonological simplification which has created nominal prefixes from some original Combining Forms 14.4. KB has restored the nasalisation in writing: sunkpi'eup "boldness", sunpeعn "anger."

In the case of the verb àeñ \({ }^{\text {a }}\) "be something/somehow" there is loss of nasalisation before the focus particle \(n \bar{\varepsilon}^{+/}\)(for the loss of the \(e\) in this verb see below 8.5.3):
\begin{tabular}{ll} 
M̀ á n \(\bar{\varepsilon}\) dāū. & "I'm a man." \\
but \(L i\) àn \(n\) sónā. & "It's fine."
\end{tabular}

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

\subsection*{8.5.3 Loss of Fronting}

Fronting diphthongs arise from the fronting effect of *y on the second mora of a short or long vowel 6.3.2, or from vowel fusion before underlying final *gı 6.3.1.

Regardless of origin, fronting diphthongs occur only word-finally and before \(y\).
Nominal combining forms, and verb forms which are not phrase final, may not end in fronting diphthongs unless the next word begins with \(y\). Otherwise, the fronting diphthongs are replaced by the corresponding monophthongs 4.1.1:

sāeñ "blacksmith"
sāen lā "the blacksmith"
but sàn-kànā
"this blacksmith"
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|c|}
\hline Ò sò'v lór. & "She owns a lorry." & \(s \overline{S o}^{\prime} \mathrm{e}^{\text {ya/ }}\) & "own" \\
\hline Lì àn sónā. & "It's good." & àen \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & "be" 24.2 \\
\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 SER give head-one:SG ART.
"If we live, we live to the Lord." (Rom 14:8): vōe \({ }^{\mathrm{a} / ~ " b e ~ a l i v e " ~}\)

Ėñrıgım ø pāa dư'átà.
Shift.along:IMP SER reach doctor:sg.
"Shift along up to the doctor." (pāe+/ "reach")
\begin{tabular}{lll} 
Lì nàa nē. & "It is finished." & \(n a \bar{e} e^{+/}\)"finish" \\
Dúe w \(\bar{\varepsilon} l a ́ ? ~\) & "[You] arose how?" & ūee \(^{+/}\)"arise" \\
& (A morning greeting) &
\end{tabular}

See also the examples with Fusion Verb Base Forms before Liaison at 8.2.1.
The SF of the negative verb \(k \bar{a}^{\prime} e^{+}\)"not be" loses the final e before the particle \(n \bar{\varepsilon}\) or an object; \(k a ̄ ' e\) only occurs VP-finally:

Sכ' kae na nyani dol zugdaannam ayi'...

INDF.AN NEG.be SER IRR prevail SER 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 is a clause adjunct 24.1)

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

Word-final ia ua are also realised as [iə] [uө] within phrases 4.1.1, but the orthography does not reflect this:
sīa lā
sàbùa lā
\begin{tabular}{ll} 
"the waist" & [siəla] \\
"the girlfriend" & [sabuela]
\end{tabular}

This fronting loss is regular in my informants' speech, but NT orthography very frequently writes fronting diphthongs:
\begin{tabular}{lll} 
voen & for & vōon \\
Kristo da faacn ti & "would live" (Gal 3:21, 1996) \\
for & Kristo dá fāañ_tí \\
& Christ tns save 1PL.OB \\
& "Christ saved us." (Gal 5:1)
\end{tabular}

ILK too has several instances of \(m\) wa'e ne "I'm going" for \(\grave{m}\) wá'a n \(\bar{\varepsilon}\). However, the audio version of the NT consistently shows monophthongisation. Even in the NT, àen \(n^{a}\) "be something" always appears as aa and not aae before Liaison; while this might be due to lack of stress \(\underline{2.4}\), the rarity of the verb phrase-finally 24.2 would much reduce any analogical pressure to introduce phrase-final spellings into phrasemedial contexts. Many examples of apparent preservation of word-final fronting diphthongs involve fāeñ \({ }^{+/}\)"save", perhaps written faaenn specifically to distinguish the forms from those of fān+ "grab, rob"; the 1996 NT has two instances of the certainly spurious faaenm for imperative faanm; contrast KB Fu yadda ningir la faanf "Your faith has saved you." (Lk 7:50.) (Cf faangid "saviour" faangir "salvation" 18.1.)

Unequivocal orthographic errors in the 1996 NT, like Nonilim pu naae da for KB Nonilim po naada "Love does not come to an end." (1 Cor 13:8) confirm that the orthographic tradition has encompassed the writing of fronting diphthongs for undoubted monophthongs.

Accordingly, it seems probable that the absence of fronting loss in written materials is simply a graphic convention, writing words as they appear before pause.

For LF nyaine "brightly, clearly" (nyāené in the audio version) see 6.4.

\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 Widı-ñyá'ana "Woriyanga" (wid-nyá'ana "mare") and nwadibil (Mt 2:2, 1996) for ñwād-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 \({ }^{\mathrm{a}}\left|b^{\mathrm{a}}, g^{\mathrm{a}}\right| s^{\varepsilon}, g^{\supset}\left|d^{\varepsilon}, r^{\varepsilon}\right| a^{+}\)and \(f^{\supset} \mid \iota^{+}\)Noun Classes. Two unpaired non-count suffixes \(-b^{\mathrm{J}}-m^{\mathrm{m}}\) 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 19.2.2. A few isolated remnants of agreement will be pointed out as they occur.

The deletion of final vowels by Apocope can make the flexional forms that would be expected from straightforward application of phonological rules ambiguous, coinciding with another form from the same paradigm or from another word, or resembling it closely enough that confusion would be likely. This ambiguity may be avoided by substitution of a different flexional suffix for that expected for the Class \({ }^{11}\). (For Adjectives see 10.1.)

Such substitution has become regular in the case of Class \(g^{ગ} \mid d^{\varepsilon}\) stems ending in \(m n\) following a short vowel, which always use the plural suffix \(-a^{+}\)instead of \(-d^{\varepsilon}\), creating a \(g^{\top} \mid a^{+}\)Subclass 9.3.3.1.

Two further Subclasses have arisen by reinterpretation of SFs of one flexional suffix as the SF of a different suffix and remodelling of the LF 2.2.2. The \(r^{\varepsilon} \mid b^{\text {a }}\) Subclass of \({ }^{\mathrm{a}} \mid b^{\mathrm{a}}\) has reinterpreted SFs ending in \(m n r l\) as \(m^{\mathrm{m} \varepsilon} n^{\mathrm{n} \varepsilon} r^{\varepsilon} \|^{\mathrm{\varepsilon}}\) instead of \(m^{\mathrm{a}} n^{\mathrm{a}} r^{\mathrm{a}} \rho^{\mathrm{a}}\) 9.3.1.1, and the \(g^{\supset} \mid s^{\varepsilon}\) Subclass of \(g^{\mathrm{a}} \mid s^{\varepsilon} \underline{\text { 9.3.2.1 }}\) has reinterpreted SFs ending in \(g\) after a rounded vowel mora as \(g^{3}\) instead of \(g^{\text {a }}\).
11) cf Polish locatives, which show -u for regular -e in exactly those cases where -e would cause the loss of stem-final coronal plain/palatal contrasts (Inkelas, 3.1)

Two remaining Subclasses are semantically motivated：a Subclass of \({ }^{\text {a }} \mid b^{a}\) referring to older／important people uses \(b^{\mathrm{a}}\) as the singular suffix 9．3．1．2，and names of languages belong to a Subclass of \(r^{\varepsilon} \mid a^{+}\)with the singular suffix \(I^{\varepsilon}\) 9．3．4．1．

The regular Classes and Subclasses are thus as follows：
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|c|c|}
\hline \({ }^{\text {a }} b^{\text {a }}\) & \(s \overline{l d}^{\text {a }}\) & \(s i ̄ d ı b^{\text {a }}\) & sid－ & ＂husband＂ \\
\hline \[
\begin{aligned}
& r^{\varepsilon} \mid b^{a} \\
& b^{a}(\mathrm{sg})
\end{aligned}
\] & \begin{tabular}{l}
\(B i ̀ n{ }^{\text {ne }}\) \\
nà＇ab \({ }^{\text {a }}\)
\end{tabular} & \begin{tabular}{l}
Bìm \({ }^{\text {ma }}\) \\
nà＇－nàm \({ }^{\text {a }}\)
\end{tabular} & Bìn－ nà＇－ & \begin{tabular}{l}
＂Moba person＂ \\
＂chief＂
\end{tabular} \\
\hline \(g^{\text {a }} s^{\varepsilon}\) & \(b \bar{u} g^{\text {a }}\) & \(b u ̄ s^{\varepsilon}\) & bò－ & ＂goat＂ \\
\hline \(g^{\top} \mid s^{\varepsilon}\) & nú＇ùg \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & nú＇ùs \({ }^{\text {® }}\) & nū＇－ & ＂hand＂ \\
\hline \(g^{\supset} \mid d^{\varepsilon}\) & dう̀ \(\mathrm{g}^{\text { }}\) &  & dう̀ & ＂hut＂ \\
\hline \(g^{\text {J }} \mathrm{a}^{+}\) & gbàun \({ }^{\text { }}\) & gbàna＋ & gbàn－ & ＂book＂ \\
\hline \(r^{\varepsilon} \mid a^{+}\) & nכ̄כr \({ }^{\text {¢／}}\) & nכ̄yá＋ & n̄－ & ＂mouth＂ \\
\hline \(1^{\varepsilon}\) & Kūsáàlı & & & ＂Kusaal＂ \\
\hline \(\mathrm{flu}^{+}\) & mうlıf & \(m \grave{l}{ }^{+}\) & mうl－ & ＂gazelle＂ \\
\hline \(b^{3}\) & sā＇ \(\mathrm{ab}{ }^{\text {² }}\) & & sà＇－ & ＂porridge＂ \\
\hline \(m^{\mathrm{m}}\) & tìım \({ }^{\text {m }}\) & & tì－ & ＂medicine＂ \\
\hline
\end{tabular}
\(M\)－stems with long root vowels in the \({ }^{\mathrm{a}} \mid b^{\mathrm{a}}\) Class avoid the plural suffix \(b^{\mathrm{a}}\) 9．3．1． Some \(g^{\text {a }} \mid s^{\varepsilon}\) Class nouns with human reference have alternative plurals with \(b^{a}\) g．3．2． Countable nouns in the \(m^{\mathrm{m}}\) Class form plurals with \(-a^{+}\)or \(-s^{\varepsilon}\) or nàm \({ }^{\mathrm{a}}\) 9．4 9．3．7．The small \(f \iota^{+}\)Class has a few members with \(f^{\rho} \iota^{+}\)suffixes in only one number 9．3．5．The diminutive sg suffix－\(\rho^{\text {a }}\) is found in Kusaal only in the adjective bila＂little＂，（plural bïbıs \({ }^{\varepsilon}\) ）；it is more widespread in other Western Oti－Volta languages．

There are few other cases of irregular sg／pl pairing with nouns；examples are
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|c|c|}
\hline p \(\bar{\chi}^{\prime}\) og \({ }^{\text {／}}\) & \(p \overline{\bar{\prime}}{ }^{\prime} s^{\varepsilon /}\) & & \(p \bar{\varepsilon}^{\prime}-\) & ＂sheep＂ \\
\hline \multirow[t]{2}{*}{gbè＇og \({ }^{\text { }}\)} & \(g b \varepsilon ' \varepsilon d^{\varepsilon}\) & & \(g b \grave{c}^{\prime}-\) & ＂forehead＂ \\
\hline & gbèda＋ & & & \\
\hline \multirow[t]{2}{*}{bi̇āunk \({ }^{\text {a }}\)} &  & WK & bi̇àn＇ & ＂shoulder＂ \\
\hline & biāñ＇ada＋ & SB & & \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

The form of the sg suffix remains sufficiently clear in most SFs to identify the Noun Class correctly from this form alone，if it is known whether the word has human reference 19．2．2．Where this is not the case，there is often vacillation between
classes, suggesting that speakers do use these criteria to determine class membership; compare the Noun Class membership assignment of loanwords 9.7.

Nouns with sg SF ending in a long vowel, or in an unrounded vowel mora followed by a velar, belong to \(g^{\text {a }} \mid s^{\varepsilon}\); nouns ending in a rounding diphthong followed by a velar belong to \(g^{\supset} \mid d^{\varepsilon}\) or its \(g^{\supset} \mid a^{+}\)Subclass, except for a few in the \(g^{\supset} \mid s^{\varepsilon}\) Subclass


Human-reference nouns otherwise default to \({ }^{\mathrm{a}} \mid b^{\mathrm{a}}\) and its \(r^{\varepsilon} \mid b^{\mathrm{a}}\) Subclass, except for stems ending in a long vowel, which have been transferred to \(r^{\varepsilon} \mid a^{+}\)in Agolle Kusaal 9.3.1. The only \({ }^{\text {a }} b^{\mathrm{a}}\) sg SF ending in a long vowel is \(b a \bar{\prime} a^{\prime}=\) "traditional diviner." \(Z \bar{\partial} \supset m^{\text {ne }}\) "fugitive" is \(r^{\varepsilon} \mid a^{+}\). The \(b^{\text {a }}\)-singular Subclass of \({ }^{a} \mid b^{\text {a }}\) is responsible for most human-reference nouns ending in \(-b\) in the \(s g \mathrm{SF}\), and also for sàam \({ }^{\text {ma }}\) "father", dìəm \({ }^{\text {ma }}\) "man's parent-in-law", dàyáam \({ }^{\text {ma }}\) "woman's parent-in-law."

Mass nouns ending in SF \(m\) belong to the \(m^{\mathrm{m}}\) Class, and \(b / p\) to the \(b^{\text { }}\) Class. 2-mora stem gerunds in - \(m\) belong to \(b^{\text {J }}\) rather than \(m^{\mathrm{m}}\).

Names of languages belong to the \(I^{\varepsilon}\) Subclass of \(r^{\varepsilon} \mid a^{+}\).
Non-human-reference count nouns ending in In \(r\) belong to the \(r^{\varepsilon} \mid a^{+}\)Class, as do those ending in \(m\) apart from a few \(m^{m}\) Class count nouns like yām \({ }^{\mathrm{m} /}\) "gall, common sense" and hence "gall bladder", pūum \({ }^{\mathrm{m} /}\) "flower(s), flora", dàalím \({ }^{\mathrm{m}}\) "male sex organs", pù'alím \({ }^{m}\) "female sex organs." Piïm \({ }^{m /}\) "arrow" is a relic of a lost \({ }^{\boldsymbol{1}}{ }^{\varepsilon}\) Class.

\subsection*{9.1.1 Noun Class and Meaning}

As usual with noun class systems, there are correlations between class membership and meaning; exceptions are frequent, however. Phonologically motivated Subclasses have the same correlations with meaning as their main Classes.

The association of Noun Class and meaning can be exploited to change the significance of a stem 12.2 .

The \({ }^{a} \mid b^{a}\) 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 \(b^{a}\) as singular 9.3.1.2.

The \(g^{\text {a }} \mid s^{\varepsilon}\) Class has general membership but notably includes the great majority of tree names 3 .5, many larger animals, and tools. Almost all ethnic group names belong to \({ }^{\mathrm{a}} \mid b^{\mathrm{a}}\) or \(g^{\mathrm{a}} \mid s^{\varepsilon}\) (Zàngbèog \({ }^{\text { }}\) "Hausa" and Nàsāara+ "European" are the only exceptions in my materials); the place inhabited by the group has \(\mathrm{sg}-g^{\rho}\) 35.4.

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 35.5 , and most names of body parts 35.6 . Human-reference nouns in \(g^{\supset} \mid d^{\varepsilon}\) seem to be pejorative (bāl \(\bar{\varepsilon} r o g^{J / ~ " u g l y ~ p e r s o n ", ~ d a ̀ b i ̄ o g ~}{ }^{\supset}\) "coward", z亏̄lug \({ }^{\text {/ }}\) "fool.") Some nouns which historically belonged to \({ }^{\text {a }} \mid b^{\mathrm{a}}\) have been reallocated to \(r^{\varepsilon} \mid a^{+}\)for phonological reasons e.g. bïər \(r^{\varepsilon /}\) "elder same-sex sibling"; the process is less complete in Toende Kusaal 9.3.1.

The Subclass in - \(\boldsymbol{I}^{\varepsilon}\) includes all names of languages 9.3.4.1.

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

The \(b^{\text {J }}\) Class has only two members in my own materials that are not gerunds:
 written materials; WK has instead kïibú \({ }^{+}\)with cb kïib- which is probably a loan from the cognate Mampruli word 18.1. Niggli's "Dictionnaire" has Toende kí'ıp.

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 \(b^{\text {J }}\) 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 \(g^{\rho} r^{\varepsilon} b^{\text {² }}\) or \(m^{\mathrm{m}}\) by rule 12.1.1.1.

\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.

Thus the vowel length changes seen in CV-root-stems 6.1.1.1 are levelled in favour of the singular in e.g.
fūug \({ }^{\text { }}\) "clothing" pl fūt \({ }^{\varepsilon /}\) or fūud \({ }^{\varepsilon /}\)
and the short root vowel regularly seen before \(-y\) - in the plural of the \(r^{\varepsilon} \mid a^{+}\)Class has probably been carried over into the singular in e.g.
\[
\begin{aligned}
& g b \bar{\varepsilon} r^{\varepsilon /} \text { "thigh" gbēyá+ "thighs" } \\
& \text { gāñ } r^{\varepsilon / ~ " e b o n y ~ f r u i t " ~ g a ̄ n y a ́+~ " e b o n y ~ f r u i t s " ~} \\
& \text { cf gāañs } s^{\varepsilon /} \text { "ebony trees" }
\end{aligned}
\]

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 iən uen with \(\varepsilon \varepsilon \varepsilon_{\sim}^{n} \mathcal{O}_{\sim}^{n}\) 6.3.1:
\[
\text { nūa+/ "hen" nכ̄כs }{ }^{\varepsilon /} \text { "hens" }
\]

Such alternations are never levelled. However, the distribution of oral iə uө versus \(\boldsymbol{\Sigma}\) כ is strikingly different between the \(g^{\text {a }} \mid s^{\varepsilon}\) and the \(g^{\rho} \mid d^{\varepsilon}\) Classes. There are only a few stems with the root vowel iə (and none with \(u \theta\) ) before singular \(g^{\nu}\), such as


with \(t \varepsilon^{\prime} \varepsilon g^{\text {a }}\) "baobab". Moreover, there is an actual alternation in the stems used before \(g^{\text {a }} \mid s^{\varepsilon}\) and \(g^{ग} \mid d^{\varepsilon}\) suffixes with the adjective
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|c|}
\hline bi'a+ & \(b i ' \partial s^{\varepsilon}\) & bià'- & "bad" \\
\hline \(b \bar{\varepsilon}^{\prime} o g{ }^{\text {a }}\) & \(b \bar{\varepsilon}^{\prime} \varepsilon d^{\varepsilon}\) & bغ''- & \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

This suggests that the sequences *ع \(\varepsilon g a\) and *วכga might be subject to *gdeletion and vowel Fusion like *iəga *uөga * \(\tilde{\varepsilon} \tilde{\varepsilon} g a * \tilde{\partial ̃} \tilde{g}\) a 6.3.1, but if so, the vowels of Gうे \(g^{\mathrm{a}}\) and tè' \(\varepsilon g^{\mathrm{a}}\) would have to be due to levelling on the basis of the plural. This is very plausible with "member of the Goosi Clan", though less so with "baobab."

Another possible instance might be sàbùa+ "lover, girlfriend" ( pl sàbùөs \({ }^{\varepsilon}\) ) if this is connected with bj̀วda "want, love", and here levelling of the plural on the basis of the singular would be natural enough.
 which might not only apply before the flexion \(g^{\supset}\) but also account for the odd by-form of pìəlıg \({ }^{\text {a }}\) "white" seen in zū-péعlùg \({ }^{\text {º }}\) "bald", literally "white-headed." In this case, it would be dàbīog \({ }^{\text {" }}\) coward" which would have to be explained as exceptional.

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, and this may have been the original rule.

\subsection*{9.2.2 Combining Forms}

Nominal Combining Forms, lacking a flexional suffix and always subject to Apocope 9.1, would be often reduced by the usual rules to ambiguous forms. Often the expected cb has been replaced by a form which is segmentally but not tonally that of the singular. Again, this is regular with certain stem types.
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|c|}
\hline nīfl & nīní+ & nīn- or nīf- & "eye" \\
\hline ziñ'a+ & zèn' \({ }^{\text {c }}{ }^{\text {e }}\) & ziàñ'- or zèn '- & "red" (adjective) \\
\hline wāk \({ }^{\text {/ }}\) & \({w a ̄ ̄ ' a d^{\varepsilon /}}^{\text {/ }}\) & wā'- or wōk- & "long, tall" (adjective) \\
\hline tānp \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & & tànp- & "war" 6.1.1.1 \\
\hline zūg \({ }^{\text {/ }}\) & \(z u ̄ t^{\varepsilon /}\) & \(z u \overline{-}\) or zūg- & "head" \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

Mooré and Toende both show zu- consistently in cases where Agolle has zūg-:
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|c|}
\hline Mooré & Toende & Agolle & \\
\hline zusoaba & zùsóp & \(z u ̄ g\)-sób \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & "boss" \\
\hline zúkúká & zùkúk & \(z u ̄ g-k \bar{g} g \nu^{\text {E }}\) & "pillow" \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

Zūg-sj́b \({ }^{\mathrm{a}}\) "Lord" is very frequently read \(Z \bar{u}-\)-sýb \({ }^{\mathrm{a}}\) in the audio version of the NT. The cb of \(z u \bar{g}\) behaves tonally like a nominal prefix and the original form \(z \bar{u}-\) is probably a one-mora form that has not undergone Apocope 7.2.4.

The "regular" cb of nīf/ "eye" is nīn-, but as a head it appears as nīf-: (the form nin- is homophonous with the cb of nid \(d^{\mathrm{a} /}\) "person"):
```

nif-ká\etaā "this eye"

```

Nīn- still predominates as a pre-modifier: nīn-dáa= "face", nīn-tám \({ }^{\mathrm{m}}\) "tears", nīn-gótis \({ }^{\varepsilon}\) "spectacles." Gbàun \({ }^{\supset}\) "letter, book" now has the cb gbàun-, but the "regular" cb gbàn- still occurred as a generic argument in the 1976 NT e.g. gbanmi'id gbànmīid "scribe" ("book-knower") where later versions have gbaunmi'id. Similarly, the 1976 NT ziŋgban'ad zīm-gbáñ'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 ànron \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & ànrıma+ & ànron- & "boat" \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

So too with \(C V\)-stems in the \(r^{\varepsilon} \mid a^{+}\)and \(m^{m}\) Classes:
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|c|}
\hline \(g b \bar{\varepsilon} r^{\varepsilon /}\) & gbēyá+ & \(g b \bar{\varepsilon} r-\) & "thigh" \\
\hline kùkj̄r \({ }^{\text {g/ }}\) & kùk亏̄yá+ & kùkう̄r- & "voice" \\
\hline & & (but kòkj̄-títā'ar & "loud voice" NT) \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

Words like vōm \({ }^{\mathrm{m} /}\) cb vōm- "life", kūm \({ }^{\mathrm{m}}\) cb kùm- "death" probably do not belong to this type, but are most likely CVm - stems.

The cb may be remodelled after the plural if there is no sg extant:
no sg \(k \bar{I}^{+/} \quad k \bar{i}-\) or \(k a ̄-\quad\) "cereal, millet"

This may reflect a plural form with a distinct specialised meaning:
lā'af
līgıdı \({ }^{+}\)
là'- or lìg-
"cowrie" pl "money"

Two words have distinct sg- and pl-reference cbs:
\begin{tabular}{llll} 
dāu \({ }^{+}\) & dāpa & dàu- & sg dàp- pl \\
tāūn & "man, male person"
\end{tabular}

Disambiguation is clearly involved with some longer remodelled cbs:
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|c|}
\hline kj̀lıg \({ }^{\circ}\) lànnıga & \(k \grave{n}{ }^{n \varepsilon}\) lànnıs \({ }^{\varepsilon}\) & k̇̀lug－ lànnıg－ & \begin{tabular}{l}
＂bag＂ \\
＂squirrel＂
\end{tabular} \\
\hline kj̀lug－kànā lànnıg－pìalıg & \begin{tabular}{l}
＂this bag＂ \\
＂white squirrel＂
\end{tabular} & cf cb kj̀l－from cf cb làn－from & \begin{tabular}{l}
kう̄ı \(\iota g^{\text {a }}\)＂river＂ \\
lānnを＂testicle
\end{tabular} \\
\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 dāp & ＂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－pú＂slave girl＂not yàmmug bí－púp＂slave＇s girl＂19．8．1．5．

\section*{9．3 Noun Paradigms}

For tones see 7．2．Combining forms are frequently remodelled segmentally after the singular 9．2．2，regularly so with stems in \(m\) and \(n\) ．

The default for sg and pl is for Class Suffixes simply to attach after a stem－final epenthetic vowel or root vowel．Complications arise from rounding of stem－final vowels before the suffix \(g^{3}\) in singulars in \(-g^{3}-k^{3}-\eta^{3}\) ，deletion of \(* g\) after aa iə ue aan \(\varepsilon \varepsilon n n^{n}{\underset{\sim}{n}}^{n}\) with the \(g^{\text {a }} \mid s^{\varepsilon}\) Class sg，consonant assimilation instead of epenthesis in all classes，and the combination of root－vowel－final stems with the flexions \({ }^{\mathrm{a}} \mathrm{sg}, \iota^{+} \mathrm{pl}\) and \(a^{+}\)pl 6．1．1．1 9．3．1．

\section*{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 \(s i_{\text {d }}{ }^{\text {a }}\) & sīdı \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & sìd－ & ＂husband＂ \\
\hline sàal \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & sàalı \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & sàal－ & ＂human being＂ \\
\hline kpāad \({ }^{\text {a／}}\) & kpāadíb \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & kpāad－ & ＂farmer＂ \\
\hline kpikpīn \({ }^{\text {na／}}\) & kpīkpīnníba & kpīkpín－ & ＂merchant＂ \\
\hline sàam－pīta／ & sàam－pitíćb \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & sàam－pit－ & ＂father＇s younger brother＂ \\
\hline bì－pit \({ }^{\text {a／}}\) & bi－pitílib \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & bi－pit－ & ＂younger child＂ \\
\hline wād－tís \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & wād－tísì \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & wād－tís－ & ＂lawgiver＂NT \\
\hline zà＇－nj̄－gúr \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & zà＇－nj̄－gúrì \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & zà＇－n亏̄－gúr－ & ＂gatekeeper＂NT \\
\hline \(n i d^{\text {a／}}\) & nīdıbal & nin－irreg & ＂person＂ \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

Most deverbal agent nouns are completely regular:


Agent nouns from 3-mora stems in \(s\) regularly drop the \(d\) formant in sg and cb ; they show a regular shift between Tone Pattern L in the sg and Pattern O in the plural for agent nouns from Pattern LO verbs 7.2.3. Many also have nàm \({ }^{\text {a }}\) plurals 9.4.
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|c|}
\hline kùes \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & \(k u ̄ \theta s ı d ı b^{\text {a }}\) & kù̀s- & "seller" \\
\hline pù \({ }^{\text {a }}{ }^{\text {a }}\) & \(p \overline{0}^{\prime} u s ı d ı b^{\text {a }}\) & pò'us- & "worshipper" \\
\hline di'əs \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & di'əsıdıb \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & di'əs- & "receiver" \\
\hline tù'as-tò'as \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & tù'as-tū'asıdı \(b^{\text {a }}\) & tù'as-tù'as- & "talker" \\
\hline sīgısa/ & sīgısídìb \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & 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}
\(s \grave{s} s^{a}\) & \(s \bar{s} s ı d ı b^{a}\) & sj̀s- & "beggar" & \\
\(t i s^{a}\) & \(t i ̄ s ı d ı b^{a}\) & \(t i ̀ s-\) & "giver" & WK \\
\(k i \bar{s}{ }^{\text {a/ }}\) or \(k i \bar{s} \iota d^{a /}\) & \(k i ̄ s ı d i ́ b^{a}\) & \(k i ̄ s ı d-(o n l y)\) & "hater" &
\end{tabular}

These may be original 3-mora stem verbs with \({ }^{*} s s \rightarrow s\). There are also
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|c|}
\hline zàb-zà \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & zàb-zàb-nàm \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & zàb-zàb- & "warrior" \\
\hline & \(z a ̀ b-z a ̄ b ı d ı b^{\text {a }}\) & & \\
\hline  & gbān-záb-nàm \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & gbān-záb- & "leatherbeater" \\
\hline \({ }_{\sim}\) nīi-ték \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & \({ }_{\sim}\) nī-tékidı \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & & "rope-puller" \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

Exceptionally, consonant assimilation of *md does not appear in the plural in

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 2.2.2:
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|c|}
\hline dāu \({ }^{+}\) & & dāpa & dàu-, dàp- 6.1.1.1 "man" (vir) \\
\hline tāuñ \({ }^{+/}\) & & tānp \({ }^{\text {a/ }}\) & tāuñ-, tānp-6.1.1.1 "sib of opposite sex" \\
\hline sāeñ \({ }^{+}\) & WK & sāañ \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & sàn- "blacksmith" \\
\hline
\end{tabular}
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|c|c|}
\hline sāen \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & DK & & & \\
\hline sjen \({ }^{+}\) & WK & sว̄วñ \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & sòn- & "witch" \\
\hline sj̄en \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & DK & & & \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

There are also the two original \({ }^{*} g\)-stems
\begin{tabular}{llll} 
pư'āa \({ }^{\prime}\) *pưaga & pū'aba & pư'à- & "woman, wife" \\
\(b a ̄ ' a=~ \leftarrow * b a ' a g a ~\) & \(b a ̄ ' a b^{a}\) & bà'a- & "traditional diviner"
\end{tabular}

Some CVV stems introduce - \(d\) - in some forms but not others:
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|c|}
\hline wìd \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & wìt \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & wìld- & "hunter" \\
\hline sonn'odal &  & sכ̄n'od- & agent noun of s \(s \tilde{\sim}^{n} \mathrm{e}^{+/}\) "be better than" \\
\hline \(p \bar{k} k p \bar{a} a d^{\text {a/ }}\) &  & pūkpá- & "farmer" (but kpāada/ id is regular) \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

Sg final \(-v\) is dropped elsewhere in the paradigm of
pitú \({ }^{+}\)pitíba pit- "younger sibling of same sex"

Sàam-pīt \({ }^{\mathrm{a} /}\) "father's younger brother" and bì-pītal "younger child" are regular.
Historically, a solution to the problem of adding \(\mathrm{sg}^{\text {a }}\) to stems ending in a long vowel was to use the suffix \(r^{\varepsilon}\) in place of \({ }^{a}\); related languages, including Toende Kusaal, still keep the - \(b^{\text {a }}\) plural forms, but in Agolle Kusaal such words have acquired \(-a^{+}\)plurals and thus passed over entirely into the \(r^{\varepsilon} \mid a^{+}\)Class:
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|c|c|}
\hline Agolle & pùkว̀วñr \({ }^{\text { }}\) & pùkònya+ & \(r^{\varepsilon} \mid a^{+}\) & "widow" \\
\hline Toende & pókốót & pokõp & \(r^{\varepsilon} \mid b^{\text {a }}\) & \\
\hline Farefare & pokõore & pэkõpa & \(r^{\varepsilon} \mid b^{\text {a }}\) & \\
\hline Mooré & pùgkõoré & pugkõapa & \(r^{\varepsilon} \mid b^{\text {a }}\) & \\
\hline Agolle & dà-k̇̀つñ \({ }^{\text {c }}\) & dà-kj̀nya+ & \(r^{\varepsilon} \mid a^{+}\) & "bachelor" \\
\hline Toende & dákốot & dakõp & \(r^{\varepsilon} \mid b^{\text {a }}\) & \\
\hline Farefare & dàkõorè & dakõpa & \(r^{\varepsilon} \mid b^{\text {a }}\) & \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

Such transfers may account for several human-reference nouns found unexpectedly in \(r^{\varepsilon} \mid a^{+}\), e.g. bïər \(r^{\varepsilon /}\) "elder sibling of the same sex", pう̀n'ว \(r^{\varepsilon}\) "cripple", \(\underset{\sim}{n} y \bar{\varepsilon} ' \varepsilon r^{\varepsilon /}\) "next-younger sibling" (but Toende sg yẽ̌'et pl yẽra id) and maybe even pư'àsādır \(r^{\varepsilon /}\) "young woman", where the sg \(d\) might be introduced from the plural pu'àsādá+, where it would be due to \(C V^{\prime} V \sim C V d\) allomorphism 6.1.1.1 (cf \(p \bar{\varepsilon}^{\prime}-\) sá'a= "ewe
lamb.") However, cognate forms suggest that levelling has taken place in different directions in the different languages with this word:
\begin{tabular}{lllll} 
Toende & p'כ-sa'a & pכ'כ-sa'as & \(g^{\mathrm{a}} \mid s^{\varepsilon}\) & "young woman" \\
Farefare & pug-sarga & pug-sarsı & \(g^{\mathrm{a}} \mid s^{\varepsilon}\) & \\
Mooré & pùgsádà & pugsádbà & \({ }^{\text {a }} \mid b^{\mathrm{a}}\) &
\end{tabular}

Stems in a short root vowel followed by single \(m n /\) regularly adopt a sg form resembling that of the the \(r^{\varepsilon} \mid a^{+}\)Class 9.3.1.1. All other stems in \(-m\) have \(\mathrm{sg}-\mathrm{m}^{\mathrm{m}}\) instead of \(-m^{\mathrm{a}}: z^{\prime} \bar{'}^{\prime} \mathrm{m}^{\mathrm{m} /}\) "blind person" etc.

Stems in \(n\) undergo consonant assimilation in the pl: *nb \(\rightarrow m m:\)
\[
\text { sāanã sáam }{ }^{\text {ma }} \quad \text { sāan- "guest, stranger" }
\]

With \(m\)-stems the assimilation \(* m b \rightarrow m m\) would cause SF sg and pl to coincide segmentally, and also tonally except with Pattern H words. The homophony is avoided by using the plural suffix \(s^{\varepsilon}\) instead of \(b^{\text {a }}\) or by pluralising with the word nàm \({ }^{\text {a }} \underline{\text { 9.4 }}\) :
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|c|}
\hline kpīim \({ }^{\text {m/ }}\) & kpīimís \({ }^{\text {e }}\) & kpīim- & "dead person, corpse" \\
\hline \(z u ̄ ' ө m^{\mathrm{m} /}\) & \(z \bar{u}^{\prime} \mathrm{amís}^{\varepsilon}\) & zū'өm- & "blind person" \\
\hline tādım \({ }^{\mathrm{m} /}\) & tādımıs \({ }^{\text {® }}\) & tàdım- & "weak person" \\
\hline & tàdım-nàm \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & & \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

In two words WK freely accepted \(-b^{\mathrm{a}} \mathrm{pl}\) forms as LFs but not SFs, clearly showing that avoidance of ambiguity drives the variations:
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|}
\hline \multirow[t]{2}{*}{\(k p \varepsilon \bar{\varepsilon} \sim_{\sim} m^{\mathrm{m}}\)} & \multicolumn{2}{|l|}{kp̄̄¢ñmma LF-only WK} \\
\hline & kpèsñm-nàm \({ }^{\text {a }}\) kpèsñm- & "elder" \\
\hline \multirow[t]{2}{*}{bi'əm \({ }^{\text {m }}\)} & bi'əmma LF-only WK & \\
\hline & bi'əm-nàm \({ }^{\text {a }}\) bi'əm- & "enemy" \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

Ambiguity between sg and pl may instead by avoided by replacing the sg suffix a with \(g^{\text {a }}\); such words may then develop \(g^{\text {a }} \mid s^{\varepsilon}\) plurals as well:


\section*{9．3．1．1 \(\boldsymbol{r}^{\varepsilon} \mid \boldsymbol{b}^{\mathbf{a}}\) Subclass}

Stems in In mr following a short root vowel show forms in LF \(-\varepsilon\) with the preceding consonant doubled．This probably remodelled from the SF 2．2．2，which seems to show no flexion and could be the regular outcome of adding either－a or \(-r^{\varepsilon}\) ． Wherever the SF could not be the regular phonological result of the attachment of a \(\operatorname{sg}-r^{\varepsilon}\) suffix，ethnonyms with \(b^{\text {a }}\) plurals always show sg－a．

The assimilation＊nb \(\rightarrow m m\) takes place in the plural：
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|c|}
\hline Dàgbān \({ }^{\text {ne／}}\) & Dàgbāmma／ & Dàgbān－ & ＂Dagomba person＂ \\
\hline \(B i n^{\text {ne }}\) & \(B i m^{\text {ma }}\) & Bin－ & ＂Moba person＂ \\
\hline Kòtān \({ }^{\text {n／}}\) & Kùtāmma／ & Kòtān－ & member of EW＇s clan \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

An \(r\)－stem with an irregular stem change in the plural is seen in
\(M \overline{r^{\varepsilon}}{ }^{\varepsilon /}\)
Mósm \({ }^{\text {ma }}\)
\(M \bar{r} r-\)
＂Muslim＂

All other words in this Subclass are Agent Nouns with stems in \(-m m-/ I\) or \(-r(r)\) ， from Variable Verb stems in－mm and Invariable Verb stems in \(-I I-r(r)\) ．Not only do these show \(-\varepsilon\) LF sg forms but also analogical \(-a^{+}\)plurals．
or
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|c|c|}
\hline \(l\) lèm－lı̄m \({ }^{\text {ma }}\) & \(l\) lèm－lı̄mmı \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & lèm－lદ̀m－ & & ＂taster＂ \\
\hline \(l\) lèm－lı̄m \({ }^{\text {me }}\) & lغ̀m－lह̄mma \({ }^{+}\) & & & \\
\hline nyà＇an－djıla & nyà＇an－dう̀lı \(b^{\text {a }}\) & nyà＇an－dう̀l－ & NT & ＂disciple＂tones：WK \\
\hline ny \({ }^{\text {a }}\) ā＇an－dólı & ny yā＇an－dóllà \({ }^{+}\) & nyā＇an－dól－ & & WK＇s own forms \\
\hline gbàn－zāñ／la／ & gbàn－zāñllíb \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & gbàn－zāñl－ & & ＂one with a book in hand＂KT WK \\
\hline bù－zānla／ & bù－zāñllíb \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & bò－zāñl－ & & ＂goat－carrier＂ \\
\hline bù－zānı \({ }^{\prime \varepsilon /}\) & bò－zāñllá＋ & & & \\
\hline gbàn－m̄̄ra／ & gbàn－mōríb \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & gbàn－mう̄r－ & DK & ＂one who has a book＂ \\
\hline gbàn－tāra／ & gbàn－tāríba & gbàn－tār－ & DK & id \\
\hline bù－mōral & bù－mōríb \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & bù－mう̄r－ & & ＂goat－owner＂ \\
\hline bù－mう̄r \({ }^{\text {c／}}\) & bù－mōrá \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & & & \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

Agent Nouns with stems in \(n n\) or in \(m m / m n\) derived from＊md，like tòm－tūm \({ }^{\text {na }}\) ＂servant＂，do not show \(r^{\varepsilon} \mid a^{+}\)forms，because such stems do not show assimilation between the stem－final cluster and \(r^{\varepsilon}\) 6．2．1 and the SFs of the Agent Nouns and corresponding Dynamic Deverbal Adjectives therefore remain distinct．

\section*{9．3．1．2 \(b^{\mathbf{a}}\) as Singular}

A subclass of nouns referring to older／important people has－\(b^{\text {a }}\) in the sg ，and makes the plural with nàm \({ }^{\text {a }} \underline{\text { 9．4：}}\)
\begin{tabular}{llll} 
nà＇ab \(^{a}\) & nà＇－nàm \(^{a}\) & nà＇－ \\
yáab
\end{tabular}

With the consonant assimilation \(* m b \rightarrow m m\) ：
\begin{tabular}{llll} 
sàam \\
dìəm & sàam－nàm \({ }^{\text {ma }}\) & sàam－ & ＂father＂ \\
dàyáam & dìəm－nàma & dìəm－ & ＂man＇s parent－in－law＂ \\
& dàyāam－nám \({ }^{\text {ma }}\) & dàyāam－ & ＂woman＇s parent－in－
\end{tabular}

\section*{9．3．2 \(\boldsymbol{g}^{\mathrm{a}} \mid \mathbf{s}^{\boldsymbol{\varepsilon}}\) Class}

Straightforward examples include：
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|c|}
\hline \(b u ̄ g^{\text {a }}\) & \(b u ̄ \cup s^{\varepsilon}\) & bù－ & ＂goat＂ \\
\hline \(t{ }_{\text {c }}{ }^{\prime} \varepsilon g^{\text {a }}\) &  & tغ̇＇－ & ＂baobab＂ \\
\hline tìıg \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & tìls \({ }^{\text {c }}\) & tì－ & ＂tree＂ \\
\hline ñwādıga／ & \({ }_{\sim}^{n w a ̄ d}{ }^{\text {s／}}\) & ñwād－ & ＂moon，month＂ \\
\hline Īdıga＇ & 「うdss \({ }^{\text {／}}\) & 「フd－ & ＂corner＂ \\
\hline āandıg \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & āandıs \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & àand－ & ＂Vitex doniana＂ \\
\hline \(b u\)－dìbıg \({ }^{\text {a }}\) &  & bù－dìb－ & ＂male kid＂ \\
\hline kpiibıg \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & kpioibıs \({ }^{\text {e }}\) & kpiib－ & ＂orphan＂ \\
\hline yàmmıg \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & yàmmıs \({ }^{\varepsilon}\) & yàm－ & ＂slave＂ \\
\hline \(k \bar{l} \iota^{\text {a }}\) & \(k \bar{l} \iota^{\text {c }}\) & kうl－ & ＂river＂ \\
\hline kpùkpàrıg \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & kpùkpàrıs \({ }^{\text {® }}\) & kpòkpàr－ & ＂palm tree＂ \\
\hline pūsıg \({ }^{\text {a／}}\) & pūsıs \({ }^{\varepsilon /}\) & pūs－ & ＂tamarind＂ \\
\hline zว̄og \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & \(z \chi^{\text {cos }}\) & & ＂run，race＂12．1．1．1．1 \\
\hline \(b \overline{0} d ı g^{\text {a }}\) & & & ＂planting＂12．1．1．1．1 \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

Root－stems in Caa Ciə Cue delete the \({ }^{*} g\) of the sg suffix \(-g^{\text {a 6．3．1：}}\)
\begin{tabular}{llll} 
bāa \(=~ 8.1\) & bāas \(^{\varepsilon}\) & bà－ & ＂dog＂ \\
sīa \(^{+}\) & sīəs \(^{\varepsilon}\) & sià－ & ＂waist＂ \\
sàbùa \({ }^{+}\) & \({\text {sàbù } \theta s^{\varepsilon}}^{\text {sàbùà－}}\) & ＂lover，girlfriend＂
\end{tabular}

Nasal iañ uan here alternates with \(\varepsilon \varepsilon n \sim_{\sim}{ }_{\sim}^{n}\) n 6．3．1
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|c|}
\hline ziñ \({ }_{\sim}{ }^{+}\) & zغ̇n＇\({ }^{\prime} s^{\varepsilon}\) &  & ＂red＂（adjective） \\
\hline nū＇－ín \(\mathrm{a}^{+}\) & \(n u ̄ '-\varepsilon ́ n ' \varepsilon \grave{\sim}^{\varepsilon}\) & nū＇－Én＇－ & ＂fingernail＂ \\
\hline Mùa＋ & Mว̀วs \({ }^{\varepsilon}\) & Mう－ & ＂Mossi person＂ \\
\hline nūa \({ }^{+/}\) & nכ̄วs \({ }^{\text {／}}\) & nう̄－ & ＂hen＂ \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

Historical＊Cag－＊Ciag－＊Cuag－stems 6．1．1．1 show singulars with \(-k^{a}\) ：
\begin{tabular}{llll} 
zàk \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & zà＇as & zà＇－ & ＂compound＂ \\
pūāk \(k^{a}\) & \(p u{ }^{\text {a }} a s^{\varepsilon}\) & pư＇à－ & ＂female＂（adjective）
\end{tabular}

Stems in \({ }^{*} C V g\)－display consonant assimilation in the sg via \({ }^{*} g g \rightarrow k k\) ：
\begin{tabular}{llll} 
gìk \(k^{a}\) & gìgıs & gìg－ & ＂dumb person＂ \\
\(k \bar{u} k^{a}\) & kūgus \(^{\varepsilon}\) & kùg－ & ＂chair＂
\end{tabular}

Stems in \(-m\)－and－n－show \(\eta\)－in the sg，via＊mg \(\rightarrow \eta\) and＊ng \(\rightarrow \eta \eta\) ，and the cbs adopt the sg form；in the \(\mathrm{pl}{ }^{*} n s \rightarrow \tilde{i} \mathrm{~s} 6.2 .1\) whereas \(-* m s\)－remains with 2 －mora－ stems，but is frequently assimilated in longer stems．There are，however，no unequivocal three－of four－mora \(n\)－stems in this Class in any case．
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|c|}
\hline bā \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & bāañ \({ }^{\text { }}\) & bàn－ & ＂ring，chain，fetter＂ \\
\hline \(t \bar{\varepsilon} \eta^{\text {a }}\) & tह̄eñs \({ }^{\text { }}\) & tèn－ & ＂land＂ \\
\hline pà \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & pàans \({ }^{\varepsilon}\) & pàn－ & ＂power＂ \\
\hline bù \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & bùmıs \({ }^{\text { }}\) & bùn－ & ＂donkey＂ \\
\hline nā \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & nāmıs \({ }^{\text {c }}\) & nàn－ & ＂scorpion＂ \\
\hline sú＇өワ \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & sū＇өmís \({ }^{\text {e }}\) & sū＇өŋ－ & ＂rabbit＂ \\
\hline ñwāaŋ \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & \({ }_{\sim}^{n}\) nāamıs \({ }^{\text {® }}\) & ñwàa力－ & ＂monkey＂ \\
\hline níi \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & níis \({ }^{\text { }}\) & niì－ & ＂bird＂ \\
\hline & nīimís \({ }^{\text {c }}\) & & \\
\hline \(k \dot{l} \iota^{\text {a }}\) & kùlıs \({ }^{\text {c }}\) & Kùlın－ & ＂door＂ \\
\hline & kùlımıs \({ }^{\text {E }}\) & & \\
\hline Kū＇alín \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & kū＇alís \({ }^{\text {e }}\) & kū＇alín－ & sleeveless traditional \\
\hline & kū＇alímìs \({ }^{\varepsilon}\) & & smock \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

So too with all deverbal instrument nouns：
\(\begin{array}{lll}m \bar{\varepsilon} \varepsilon d ı \eta^{a} & \begin{array}{l}m \bar{\varepsilon} \varepsilon d ı s^{\varepsilon} \\ m \bar{\varepsilon} \varepsilon d ı m ı s^{\varepsilon}\end{array} & m \varepsilon ̀ \varepsilon d \iota \eta-\end{array} \quad\)＂building tool＂
pīəsín \({ }^{a}\)
pīəsís
pīəsímìs
pīəsín-
"sponge"
\(\leftarrow \mathrm{pi}^{+/}\)"wash (self)"

Various irregular stem alternations are seen in
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|c|}
\hline biig \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & biiis \({ }^{\text { }}\) & bī- or bì- & "child" \\
\hline bèrın \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & bèrıgıs \({ }^{\text {¢ }}\) & & a plant used for fibre \\
\hline tàmpūa+ & tàmp戸̄כs \({ }^{\text {® }}\) & tàmpj̀- & "housefly" DK (no \(\sim_{\sim}^{n}\) ) \\
\hline \(b \bar{t}\) ¢ \(\square^{\text {a }}\) & \(b \overline{\text { butus }}\) & bùtın- & "cup" 2.4 \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

Very irregular in both flexion and phonology, though apparently \(g^{a} \mid s^{\varepsilon}\) Class, is
```

sā\etaá+ sānsá+ [saŋsa] 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 dàsāañs \({ }^{\varepsilon}\) & & \\
\hline Yàay \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & Yàam \({ }^{\text {ma }}\) & Yàaŋ- & "Yanga, Yansi person" \\
\hline & or Yàamıs \({ }^{\varepsilon}\) & & \\
\hline & or Yàañs \({ }^{\varepsilon}\) & & \\
\hline Sà'dàbùa+ & Sà'dàbùeb \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & & clan name \(\underline{35.4}\) \\
\hline & or Sà'dàbùes \({ }^{\text {® }}\) & & \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

\subsection*{9.3.2.1 \(g^{\boldsymbol{P}} \mid s^{\varepsilon}\) Subclass}

Several \(s^{\varepsilon}\)-plural stems with rounded vowels have \(\operatorname{sg} g^{\nu}\), by reinterpretation of \(\left.g^{\mathrm{a}}\right|^{\varepsilon}\) Class sg as \(g^{\supset}\) when the SF forms coincide 2.2.2 9.1. WK avoids the change to \(-g^{\top}\) with human-reference nouns. No regular Deverbal Instrument Noun takes \(-g^{\top}\).

Some \(g^{\supset} \mid s^{\varepsilon}\) words have also acquired \(g^{\supset} \mid d^{\varepsilon}\) plurals by analogy, and some words originally of this type have probably passed entirely into the \(g^{\supset} \mid d^{\varepsilon}\) Class.
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|c|c|}
\hline & kūug \({ }^{\text {a/ }}\) & \(k u ̄ u s^{\varepsilon /}\) & \(k u \overline{-}\) & "mouse" \\
\hline \multirow[t]{2}{*}{or} & kūug \({ }^{\text {/ }}\) & & & \\
\hline & sò'ug \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & sò'us \({ }^{\text {e }}\) & \(s\) si' \(^{\prime}\) & "knife" \\
\hline \multirow[t]{3}{*}{or} & sò'ug & & & \\
\hline & nú'ùg \({ }^{\text { }}\) & nú'ùs \({ }^{\text {® }}\) & nū'- & "hand" \\
\hline & zùnzว̀ク \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & zònzว̀วñs \({ }^{\varepsilon}\) & zùnzว̀n- & "blind" (adjective) \\
\hline \multirow[t]{2}{*}{or} & zùnż̀ \({ }^{\text {º }}\) & & & \\
\hline & tદ̀n-zùn \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & tèn-zùuns \({ }^{\text {e }}\) & & "foreign land" \\
\hline but & & pinàñ'-zùna \({ }^{+}\) & & "foreign language" \\
\hline
\end{tabular}
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|c|}
\hline yóvo \({ }^{\text {ºm }}\) & yō'umís \({ }^{\text {® }}\) & yō'ט- & "night" \\
\hline zùung \({ }^{\text { }}\) & zùuñs \({ }^{\text { }}\) & zùñ- & "vulture" \\
\hline & zùund \({ }^{\text {c }}\) & & \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

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

Some \(m\)-stems belong to this type despite not having rounded root vowels, because the epenthetic vowel before the flexion was rounded by the \(-m\) - and the resulting SF reinterpreted as ending in \(g^{J}\) :
```

    yàmmvg}\mp@subsup{}{}{\mathrm{ WK yàmmıs}
    or yàmmug}\mp@subsup{}{}{\circ

```

Some \(g^{\supset} \mid s^{\varepsilon} m\)-stems were probably originally \(g^{\supset} \mid d^{\varepsilon}\), but have disambiguated the plural by substituting \(\mathrm{pl}-s^{\varepsilon}\) for \(-d^{\varepsilon}\) instead of the usual \(-a^{+}\)9.3.3.1:


Two words of this type drop -s- from the stem in the plural:
\[
\begin{array}{llll}
\text { wīlısún } & \text { wīlımís } & \text { wīlısún- } & \text { a kind of snail } \\
\text { yālısún } & \text { yālımís } & \text { yālısún- } & \text { "quail" }
\end{array}
\]

\subsection*{9.3.3 \(g^{3} \mid d^{\varepsilon}\) Class}

Before the sg \(-g^{3}-k^{3}-\eta^{2}\) stem-final vowels are rounded, changing epenthetic vowels to \(v\) and creating rounding diphthongs from root vowels 6.3.2 4.3.

All stems in \(m n\) following a short vowel belong to the \(g^{\supset} \mid a^{+}\)Subclass instead, along with all stems which include a derivational suffix 9.3.3.1.
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|c|}
\hline dàug \({ }^{\text { }}\) & dàad \({ }^{\varepsilon}\) & dà- & "piece of wood" \\
\hline fēñ'og \({ }^{\text {/ }}\) & fēñ' \({ }^{\prime} d^{\varepsilon /}\) & f®̄n'- & "ulcer" \\
\hline vīug \({ }^{\text {/ }}\) & vīid \({ }^{\varepsilon /}\) & vī- & "owl" \\
\hline vāong \({ }^{\text {/ }}\) & vāañd \({ }^{\text {/ }}\) & vāñ- & "leaf" \\
\hline \(m \overline{\partial g}{ }^{\text { }}\) & \(m \bar{\partial}{ }^{\text {d }}\) & mう- & "grass, bush" \\
\hline dòndùug \({ }^{\text { }}\) & dòndùud \({ }^{\text { }}\) & dòndù- & "cobra" \\
\hline dàbiog \({ }^{\text {² }}\) & dàbīəd \({ }^{\varepsilon}\) & dàbià- & "coward" \\
\hline
\end{tabular}
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|c|}
\hline & \(z u ̀ \theta d^{\varepsilon}\) & & ＂friendship＂ \\
\hline wābug \({ }^{\text {／}}\) & wābıd \({ }^{\text {¢ } /}\) & wāb－ & ＂elephant＂ \\
\hline zūebúg \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & zūebíd \({ }^{\text {¢ }}\) & zūөb－ & ＂（human head）hair＂ \\
\hline bālērug \({ }^{\text {／}}\) & bālērıd \({ }^{\text {／}}\) & bālćr－ & ＂ugly person＂ \\
\hline & or bālह̄rıs \({ }^{\text {／}}\) & & \\
\hline bēsug \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & \(b \bar{\varepsilon} s ı d^{\varepsilon}\) & 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：
\(d \grave{\partial g}{ }^{د} \quad d \grave{\partial} d^{\varepsilon}\) or \(d \grave{t} t^{\varepsilon} \quad\) dうे－＂hut，room；clan＂

So too \({ }^{p} \jmath g^{\partial /}\)＂farm，field＂，fūug \({ }^{\text {／}}\)＂clothing，shirt＂；exceptionally，the singular also shows a short vowel in the following word，probably a true 1－mora stem：
\(z u ̄ g^{\partial /} \quad z u ̄ t^{\varepsilon /} \quad z u \overline{-}\) or zūg－＂head＂

Historical＊Cag－＊Ciag－＊Cuag－stems 6．1．1．1 show singular \(-k^{3}\) ，and ua becomes \(\supset\) before \(-k^{3}\) 6．3．2：
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|c|c|}
\hline bj̀ \({ }^{\text { }}\) & \(b\) bu＇\(^{\text {a }}{ }^{\varepsilon}\) & & bu＇à－ & ＂hole，pit＂ \\
\hline 1うk \({ }^{\text {ºn }}\) & lù＇ad \({ }^{\text {¢ }}\) & & lu＇à－ & ＂quiver（for arrows）＂ \\
\hline lāuk \({ }^{\text { }}\) & lā＇ad \({ }^{\text {c }}\) & & là＇－ & ＂（item of）goods＂ \\
\hline biāuñ \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & biāñ～ad \({ }^{\text {c }}\) & WK & bi̇àn \({ }^{\prime}\) & ＂shoulder＂ \\
\hline & biāñ＇ada＋ & SB & & \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

Stems in CVd show－t－in the pl 6．2．1 via＊dd \(\rightarrow\) tt：
\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 \(* g g \rightarrow k k:\)
\(d \bar{u} k^{J /}\)
\(d \bar{u} g u d^{\varepsilon /}\)
\(d u ̄ g u b\) 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 \({ }^{\text {／}}\) & yว̄nn \({ }^{\text {n／}}\) & yゔ－ & ＂sack； 200 cedis＂ \\
\hline z̄̄log \({ }^{\text {／}}\) & \(z \bar{n}{ }^{\text {ne／}}\) & zう・ & ＂fool＂ \\
\hline sìlog \({ }^{\text {² }}\) & \(\sin ^{n \varepsilon}\) or sillss \({ }^{\varepsilon}\) & sil－ & ＂hawk＂ \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

The only \(m n\) stems making plurals with \(-d^{\varepsilon}\) are CVVC root-stems 6.1.1.2:
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|c|}
\hline làngáv \({ }^{\text {² }}\) & làngāamá+ & làngāon- & "crab" \\
\hline & làngáam \({ }^{\text {m }}\) & & \\
\hline
\end{tabular}
and the synonymous màngāón", the plural-only sūñ~-pé \({ }^{\text {n }} n^{n \varepsilon}\) "anger" and perhaps the placename Tèmpáann \({ }^{\text {ne }}\) "Tempane" 35.3.

\subsection*{9.3.3.1 \(g^{\boldsymbol{P}} \mid \mathbf{a}^{+}\)Subclass}

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

The expected \(u\)-glide is absent in the sg and cb of
nìn-gbīn \({ }^{د /} \quad\) nìn-gbīná+ nìn-gbīn- "body"
This may represent the influence ot the alternate \(\operatorname{sg}\) form nìn-gbinn \({ }^{n \varepsilon /}\). The formal plural nìn-gbīná \({ }^{\text {is often used for singular "body." }}\)

All regular gerunds of 3-mora and 4-mora stem Variable Verbs belong to the \(g^{J} \mid a^{+}\)Subclass except for those with stems in velars and Fusion Verbs 11.1, which have the singular suffix \(r^{\varepsilon}\) 12.1.1.1.
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|c|}
\hline gàadvg \({ }^{\text { }}\) & \(\leftarrow\) & \(g a ̀ a d^{\varepsilon}\) & "(sur)pass" \\
\hline lìabug \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & \(\leftarrow\) & lìə \({ }^{\text { }}\) & "become" \\
\hline dīgılóg \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & \(\leftarrow\) & dīgıı \({ }^{\text {¢ }}\) & "lay down" \\
\hline yāaróg \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & \(\leftarrow\) & yāar \({ }^{\text {¢/ }}\) & "scatter" \\
\hline sīgısúg \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & \(\leftarrow\) & sīgis \({ }^{\text {/ }}\) & "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" \\
zàañón & zàañsímà & zàansón- & "dream"
\end{tabular}

Gerunds of 3-mora \(n\)-stem verbs, uniquely, never assimilate *ng מן (just as they never assimilate *nd in their Dynamic Imperfectives 11.1 6.2.1.1
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|c|}
\hline digınug \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & \(\leftarrow\) & \(d i ̀ g ı n^{\varepsilon}\) & "lie down" \\
\hline  & \(\leftarrow\) & zìn'in \({ }^{\text {¢ }}\) & "sit down" \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

Gerunds of 3-mora \(m\)-stems may optionally not assimilate *mg \(\rightarrow\) מן:
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|c|}
\hline º́st & \(\leftarrow\) & \(t \bar{\partial} \mathrm{~m}^{\mathrm{m} /}\) & "depart, disappear" \\
\hline \multicolumn{4}{|l|}{or tכ̄วmúg \({ }^{\text {a }}\)} \\
\hline sàn'ט \(\square^{\text {J }}\) & \(\leftarrow\) & sàn \({ }^{\prime} \mathrm{am}^{\text {m }}\) & "destroy" \\
\hline \multicolumn{4}{|l|}{or sàn'amug \({ }^{\text { }}\)} \\
\hline kàron \({ }^{\text {² }}\) & \(\leftarrow\) & kàrım \({ }^{\text {m }}\) & "read" \\
\hline or kàrımug \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & & & \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

Gerunds of 4-mora \(m\)-stems always assimilate:
```

zàañsón}\mp@subsup{}{}{\top}\quad\leftarrow zàañsımm "dream"

```

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

Straightforward examples include:
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|c|}
\hline kūgur \({ }^{\text {/ }}\) & kūgá \({ }^{+}\) & kūg- & "stone" \\
\hline digl \(r^{\text {E }}\) & diga+ & dig- & "dwarf" \\
\hline \(b \bar{u} g \nu^{\varepsilon}\) & būga+ & bùg- & "abode of a \(w \bar{i} n^{\text {ne }}\) (spirit, god)" \\
\hline bàlànır \({ }^{\text {E }}\) & bàlàpa+ & bàlàn- & "hat" \\
\hline yūgodır \({ }^{\text {c }}\) & yūgoda+ & yŭgod- & "hedgehog" \\
\hline  & pư'à-sādá+ & pư'à-sād- & "young woman" \\
\hline nóbìr \({ }^{\text {c }}\) & nōbá+ & n̄̄b- & "leg" \\
\hline līıbır \({ }^{\text {c }}\) & līıba+ & lìb- & "twin" \\
\hline sう̄nnır \({ }^{\text {¢ }}\) & sכ̄nna+ & sòn- & "inner compound wall" \\
\hline sāngúnnìr \({ }^{\text { }}\) & sāngónnà \({ }^{+}\) & sāngón- & "millipede" \\
\hline bi'isır \({ }^{\text { }}\) & bi'isa+ & bi'is- & "woman's breast" \\
\hline sūmmır \({ }^{\varepsilon}\) & sūmma \({ }^{+}\) & sùm- & "groundnut" \\
\hline yı̄mmír \({ }^{\text {e }}\) & yīmmá+ & yı̄m- & "solitary" (adjective) \\
\hline
\end{tabular}
along with all gerunds of 3 -mora stem verbs in \(-k^{\varepsilon}-\eta^{\varepsilon}\) and undeleted \(-g^{\varepsilon}\) like:
\begin{tabular}{ll} 
yùugur & "delay" \\
n̄̄kír & "taking" \\
nìŋır & "doing"
\end{tabular}

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 \(z u \bar{u} r^{\varepsilon}\) & zūya+ & zù- & "tail" \\
\hline bīər \({ }^{\text {e/ }}\) & bi̇ēyá+ & biā- & "elder same-sex sib" \\
\hline zūөr \({ }^{\text {e }}\) & zūēa \({ }^{+}\) & zưà- & "hill" \\
\hline nכ̄כr \({ }^{\text {/ }}\) & nכ̄yá+ & nう- & "mouth" \\
\hline yว̀วr \({ }^{\text {e }}\) & уว̀у \({ }^{+}\) & уう- & "soldier ant" \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

Glottalised vowel stems:
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|c|}
\hline yō'ur \({ }^{\text {/ }}\) & yūdá \({ }^{+}\) & \(y \bar{u}^{\prime}-\) & "name" \\
\hline tītā'ar \({ }^{\text {c }}\) & tītāda+ & tītá'- & "big" (adjective) \\
\hline pذ̀ñ'ว \({ }^{\text {¢ }}\) & ṗ̀nda+ & pذ̀n'- & "cripple" \\
\hline  &  & \(\cdots{ }_{\sim} \chi^{\prime \prime}\) & "next-younger sibling" \\
\hline \(p o ̀-t \varepsilon \sim_{\sim}^{\prime} \varepsilon r^{\varepsilon}\) & pò-tènda \({ }^{+}\) & pò-tèn \({ }^{\text {c- }}\) & "mind" \\
\hline \(y u ̄ ' ө r^{\varepsilon}\) & yuāda+ & yư'өr-9.2.2 & "penis" \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

Stems in historical \(* g\) deleted after a short vowel which then becomes glottalised 6.1.1.1 may have forms made by analogy with these original glottalisedvowel stems:

similarly kùndù'ar \({ }^{\varepsilon}\) "barren woman".
nyā'ar \({ }^{\varepsilon}\)
nyā'a+
nyà'-
"root" ( \(\leftarrow\) *n \(\varepsilon g\)-)

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

Stems in deleted \({ }^{*} g\) after a long vowel include
\(v u ́ ө r^{\varepsilon} \quad\) vūaá＝vūө－＂fruit of vúөク a tree＂
and all Fusion Verb gerunds 11.1 like
\begin{tabular}{llll} 
gbáñ＇ar & \(\leftarrow\) & gbāñ＇e & ＂grab＂ \\
dí＇ər & \(\leftarrow\) & dī＇\(r^{+/}\) & ＂get＂ \\
dúөr & \(\leftarrow\) & dūè & ＂rise＂
\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}{|c|c|c|c|}
\hline \(g b \overline{\bar{r}} \mathrm{r}^{\varepsilon /}\) & gbēyá＋ & \(g b \bar{\varepsilon} r\)－ & ＂thigh＂ \\
\hline kùkj̄r \({ }^{\text {c／}}\) & kùkj̄yá \({ }^{+}\) & kùkう̄r－ & ＂voice＂ \\
\hline
\end{tabular}
 2 －mora stem verbs make gerunds in \(-r^{\varepsilon}\) instead of \(-b^{\text {J }}\) after a noun cb：
```

n亏̄-lój̀r\& "fasting" ("mouth-tying")
fū-y\varepsiloń\varepsiloǹr`\varepsilon

```

These set expressions show shortening of the vowel，but this is not productive：
```

nā'-lór\& "place in the compound for tying up cows"
wid-\ॅr r/ "place in the compound for tying up horses"

```

Stems in \(m n / r\) undergo consonant assimilation in the sg： \(* r r \rightarrow r \quad * / r \rightarrow \| \quad * n r \rightarrow n n \quad * m r \rightarrow m n\) ；on the instability of the cluster \(m n\) see 3．2．
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|c|}
\hline kùkpàr \({ }^{\text {E }}\) & kùkpàra＋ & kùkpàr－ & ＂palm fruit＂ \\
\hline Nwād－dár \({ }^{\text {E }}\) & & & ＂Venus＂ \\
\hline tān \({ }^{\text {ne }}\) & tāna＋ & tàn－ & ＂earth＂ \\
\hline \(k p a ̄ \square^{\text {ne }}\) & kpāna＋ & kpàn－ & ＂spear＂ \\
\hline \(m a ́ ' a n^{\text {ne }}\) & mā＇aná＋ & mā＇an－ & ＂okra＂ \\
\hline pïbın \({ }^{\text {ne }}\) & pībına \({ }^{+}\) & pibın－ & ＂covering＂ \\
\hline dūm \({ }^{\text {n }}\) & dūma＋ & dùm－ & ＂knee＂ \\
\hline zว̄m \({ }^{\text {ne }}\) & zว̄ma＋ & zว̀m－ & ＂fugitive＂ \\
\hline yòvm \({ }^{\text {ne }}\) & yòma＋ & yòum－ & ＂year＂6．1．1．2 \\
\hline
\end{tabular}
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|c|}
\hline \(g b i ̄ g ı m ~ \frac{~ n ~}{\text { n }}\) & gbīgıma+ & gbigım- & "lion" \\
\hline yōgóm \({ }^{\text {ne }}\) & yōgumá+ & yōgom- & "camel" \\
\hline  & gżlá \({ }^{+}\) & \(g \bar{\varepsilon} /-\) & "egg" \\
\hline \(u_{\text {úl }}\) & ìlá \({ }^{+}\) & ill- & "horn" \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

With unusual sandhi in the sg, and presumably analogical levelling
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|c|}
\hline  & \(\sim_{\sim}^{n w a ̄ n a+~ N T ~}\) & ñwàn- & "calabash" \\
\hline \({ }_{\sim}\) nwām \({ }^{\text {me }} \mathrm{WK}\) & ñwāma+ & ñwàm- & \\
\hline & SB WK NT & & \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

An exceptional suppletive plural, segmentally and tonally, is seen in
dāar \({ }^{\varepsilon}\) dābá+ dà- "day"

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" \\
\(y \bar{i} \bar{r}^{\varepsilon /}\) & \(y \bar{a}^{+/}\) & \(y \bar{i}-\) & "house"
\end{tabular}
\(Y i ̄ r^{\varepsilon /}\) also has the irregular locative forms sg yín \({ }^{\mathrm{n} \varepsilon} \mathrm{pl}\) yáan \(n^{\varepsilon} \underline{20.3}\).

\subsection*{9.3.4.1 \(\|^{\varepsilon}\) Subclass}

Language names 35.4 all belong to a \(r^{\varepsilon} \mid a^{+}\)Subclass partly formed with the suffix \(-l^{\varepsilon}\). The suffix is always \(-\left.\right|^{\varepsilon}\) after stems ending in a root vowel:
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|c|}
\hline Language & & Speakers & \\
\hline Kūsáàı \({ }^{\text {c }}\) & Kusaal & \(K \bar{u} s a ́ a s^{\varepsilon}\) & Kusaasi \\
\hline Bùsáàñ \({ }^{\text {k }}\) & Bisa & Bùsáàns \({ }^{\text {® }}\) & Bisa \\
\hline Mj̀ \({ }^{\text {® }}\) & Mooré & Mj̀ \({ }^{\text {® }}\) & Mossi \\
\hline Sìmīil \({ }^{\text {c }}\) & Fulfulde & Sìmiis \({ }^{\text {d }}\) & Fulbe \\
\hline Zàngbèz \(\varepsilon^{\varepsilon}\) & 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}{llll} 
Nàbır & Nabit & Nàbıdı \(b^{\text {a }}\) & Nabdema \\
Tùөnnır & Toende Kusaal & Tùөn & ne \\
Dàgbān & nє & Dagbani & Dàgbām
\end{tabular}
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|c|}
\hline \(B i n^{n \varepsilon}\) & Moba & Bìm \({ }^{\text {ma }}\) & Moba \\
\hline Yàan \({ }^{\text {ne }}\) & Yansi & Yàans \({ }^{\text {® }}\) & Yansi \\
\hline Gōrín \({ }^{\text {ne }}\) & Farefare & Gōrís \({ }^{\text {® }}\) & Farefare \\
\hline Tàlın \({ }^{\text {ne }}\) & Talni & Tàlıs \({ }^{\varepsilon}\) & Tallensi \\
\hline Bùl \({ }^{\text {l }}\) & Buli & Bùlıs \({ }^{\text {® }}\) & Bulsa \\
\hline Àgı̀ı & Agolle Kusaal & Àg̀jı \({ }^{\text {c }}\) & Agolle area \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

However, stems in \(-r\) - show the distinctive assimilation \(* r l \rightarrow t t\) 6.2.1:
\begin{tabular}{llll} 
Yāt \(t^{\varepsilon /}\) & Yarsi & Yārıs & Yarsi \\
\(B \bar{a} t^{\varepsilon /}\) & Bisa & Bārıs & Bisa
\end{tabular}

Unexpected epenthesis 6.2.1 occurs in:
\begin{tabular}{llll} 
Kàmbùnır & Twi & Kàmbùmıs & Ashanti \\
Nwāmpūrıl & & Mampruli & Māmpūrıs \\
N/ & Mamprussi
\end{tabular}

\subsection*{9.3.5 \(\boldsymbol{f}^{\top} \mid \iota^{+}\)Class}

The plural -८+ causes the stem vowels aa iə \(\varepsilon \varepsilon\) to undergo "umlaut" to ii. Straightforward examples for the \(f^{\rho} \iota^{+}\)Class are
\begin{tabular}{llll} 
mj̀lıf & mう̀ \(\iota^{+}\) & mう̀l- & "gazelle" \\
bīilíf & bīilí \(^{+}\) & bīil- & "seed" \\
nyīríf & nyīrí+ & nyīr- & "egusi" \\
zūríf & zūrí & zūr- & "dawadawa seed" \\
bōn-búvdìf & & & "plant"
\end{tabular}

Two 1-mora stem \({ }^{\rho} \mid \iota^{+}\)nouns are
no sg \begin{tabular}{l}
\(k \bar{i}^{+/}\) \\
cf Mampruli sg kaafu pl kyi id.
\end{tabular} kī- or \(k a \overline{-} \quad\) "cereal, millet"
no sg mùì \({ }^{+}\)mùi- "rice"
cf Mooré sg muiifu pl mùí id.

Two words have stems in *Caag- with deletion of \({ }^{*} \underline{6.3 .1}\) and also show root vowel length allomorphy 6.1.1.2:
\begin{tabular}{llll} 
náaf & nīigí \\
wáaf & wīigí & nā'- & "cow"
\end{tabular}

Stems in -n-show consonant assimilation in the \(\operatorname{sg}{ }^{*} n f \rightarrow \tilde{v} f\) 6.2.1:
\begin{tabular}{llll} 
nīfol & nīní+ & nīn- or nīf- & "eye" \\
píıñf & pīıní & pī̀n- & "genet" \\
Kíñf & Kïiní \(^{+}\) & & "millet seed" \\
zúvñf & zūטní & &
\end{tabular}

In the word
míif mïiní \(^{+} \quad\) "okra seed"
the singular is probably remodelled after an umlauted pl: cf má'an \({ }^{\text {ne "okra." }}\)
In two words stem \(-d\) - is lost in the sg:
\begin{tabular}{llll} 
wìaf & wìdı \(^{+}\) & wìd- & "horse" \\
lā'af & līgıdı &
\end{tabular}

Some words only have \(f^{\rho} \mid \iota^{+}\)Class suffixes in one number. This may reflect the obsolescence of the class as a whole (which has few members and many stem irregularities), but some cases may be relics of an older, more complex class system.
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|c|}
\hline ziin \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & zīmí+ & zīm- & "fish" \\
\hline wālıg \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & wālıs \({ }^{\text {e }}\) & wàl- & a kind of gazelle \\
\hline \multicolumn{4}{|c|}{or wālít tones sic WK} \\
\hline sībıg \({ }^{\text {a/ }}\) & sībí+ & sīb- & a kind of termite \\
\hline sīinf \({ }_{\sim}^{\prime \prime}\) & sïins \({ }^{\text {¢/ }}\) & sin- & "bee" \\
\hline \multicolumn{4}{|l|}{or siinga/} \\
\hline sūñfl & sūñá \({ }^{+}\) & \(s\) ¢̄ñ- & "heart" \\
\hline or sūuñ \(r^{\varepsilon /}\) & & & \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

One such word also irregularly deletes the final stem consonant of the cb:
kpā'ט́n
kpīiní+
\(k p a ̄ '-\)
"guinea fowl"

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

In my materials there are only two \(b^{\text {د }}\) Class nouns which are not gerunds:
\begin{tabular}{lll} 
sā'ab & sà'- & "millet porridge, TZ" \\
tānp & tànp- & "war" \(\underline{\text { 6.1.1.1 }}\)
\end{tabular}

Written sources also have \(k i^{\prime} i b^{3}\), probably \(k i ̄ ' \iota b^{\partial /}\) "soap", cf Toende \(k i^{\prime} \iota p\) in Niggli's "Dictionnaire." WK has instead kïibú+, most likely a Mampruli loan 18.1. However, all regular gerund forms of 2-mora stem Variable Verbs belong here:
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|c|}
\hline kūub \({ }^{\text {/ }}\) & \(\leftarrow\) & \(k \overline{0}^{+}\) & "kill" \\
\hline dōgub \({ }^{\text {/ }}\) & \(\leftarrow\) & \(d \bar{u} g^{\varepsilon}\) & "cook" \\
\hline \(d \overline{v^{\prime}} a b^{\text { }}\) & \(\leftarrow\) & du'àa & "bear, beget" \\
\hline \(k a ̄ d ı b^{\text { }}\) & \(\leftarrow\) & kàd \({ }^{\text {® }}\) & "drive away" \\
\hline pīlı \({ }^{\text { }}\) & \(\leftarrow\) & pill \({ }^{\text {c }}\) & "cover" \\
\hline kpārı \({ }^{\text { }}\) & \(\leftarrow\) & kpàr \({ }^{\varepsilon}\) & "lock" \\
\hline \(b a ̄ s ı b^{3}\) & \(\leftarrow\) & bàs \({ }^{\text {¢ }}\) & "abandon, go away" \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

Stems in \(b\) show \(-p\) - via \(* b b \rightarrow p p\)
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|c|}
\hline sjop \({ }^{3 /}\) & \(\leftarrow\) & s亏̄ \(b^{\varepsilon}\) & "write" \\
\hline \(1 \overline{p^{3 /}}\) & \(\leftarrow\) & \(1 \overline{b^{\varepsilon}}\) & "throw stones at" \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

Stems in \(m\) show the consonant assimilation \(* m b \rightarrow m m\)
\begin{tabular}{lll} 
kīm \\
mo & \(\leftarrow\) kìm \(^{\mathrm{m}}\) & "tend a flock/herd" \\
mòm \(^{\mathrm{m}}\) & \(\leftarrow\) wóm \(^{\mathrm{m}}\) & "hear"
\end{tabular}

Stems in \(n\) do not assimilate, however (cf 3-mora \(n\)-stem gerunds 9.3.3.1)
\[
\text { būnıb } b^{\supset} \quad \leftarrow b u ̀ n^{\varepsilon} \quad \text { "reap" }
\]

The verb yīs \({ }^{\varepsilon}\) "make go/come out" has the expected gerund yīs \(b^{\partial / ;}\) exceptionally the alternate form yïis \({ }^{\varepsilon /}\) also makes its gerund in the \(b^{\top}\) Class: yïisíb \({ }^{\top}\), probably the only noun in the \(b^{\top}\) Class which does not have a 2-mora stem.

\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 \({ }^{\text {a }}\) 9.4. Straightforward forms include:
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|}
\hline dāam \({ }^{\text {m/ }}\) & dā- & "millet beer, pito" \\
\hline \(z \bar{\iota} ı m^{\mathrm{m} /}\) & zī- & "blood" \\
\hline kù'өm \({ }^{\text {m }}\) & ku'à- & "water" \\
\hline  & & "dew" \\
\hline \(k \dot{d} d ı m^{\text {m }}\) & & "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 zāañsím \({ }^{\text {m }}\) & zāañs- & "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:
\(v \overline{y^{2}} \mathrm{~m}^{\mathrm{m} /}\)
\(k u \overline{m^{m}}\)
\(z \overline{\bar{m}} \mathrm{~m}^{\mathrm{m} /}\)
yā \(\mathrm{m}^{\mathrm{m} /}\)
\(m^{m}\) 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 bùgóm \({ }^{\text {m }}\) & & \multicolumn{2}{|l|}{bùgóm- or bùgūm- "fire"} \\
\hline pūum \({ }^{\text {m/ }}\) & & pūum- & "flowers, flora" \\
\hline biilím \({ }^{\text {m }}\) & & & "childhood" \\
\hline bi'isím \({ }^{\text {m }}\) & & & "milk" \\
\hline dàalím \({ }^{\text {m }}\) & dàalímis \({ }^{\varepsilon}\) & dàalím- & "male sex organs" \\
\hline pò'alím \({ }^{\text {m }}\) &  & pò'alím- & "female sex organs" \\
\hline piim \({ }^{\text {/ }}\) & pìmá \({ }^{+}\) & piom- & "arrow" 6.1.1.2 \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

Piiim \({ }^{\mathrm{m} /}\) "arrow" is a remnant of an old \(\left.{ }^{~}\right|^{\varepsilon}\) Class, preserved in e.g. the Gurma languages and Nawdm: cf Nawdm fí:mú "arrow", plural fí:mí.

\section*{9.4 nàm \(^{\text {a }}\) Plurals}

There is an alternative way of making plural nouns, with the word nàmá, used to pluralise any word which does not make a plural through the class system.

The word is not a suffix. It is construed as the NP head with the preceding noun as a pre-modifier; the modifier appears as cb if it is a count noun and as a formal \(\mathrm{sg} / \mathrm{pl}\) if it is a mass noun 19.2.1 19.7. Plurals with nàm \({ }^{\mathrm{a}}\) are made for:
(a) a few human-reference nouns which have a sg consisting of a bare stem alone:
\begin{tabular}{llll} 
mà \(^{+}\) & mà náma & mà- "mother" \\
(tone sic, behaving as uncompounded)
\end{tabular}
(b) Nouns which use the suffix \(-b^{a}\) as singular, and those where the usual plural stem differs from the sg or where the regular plural would be ambiguous 9.3.1.
(c) loanwords, unless they have been fitted into the Class system by analogy:
\begin{tabular}{llll} 
tìpa & tìp-nàm \({ }^{a}\) & tìp- & "healer" \\
bùrkìn & bùrkìn-nàm & bùrkìn- & "honourable person"
\end{tabular}
(d) several pronouns

(e) quantifiers used as Noun Phrase heads, e.g.
pïiga náma "tens"

Àyí námá_àyí á n̄̄ nāasí.
Num:two PL NUM:two cop foc four.
"Two two's are four."
(f) plural forms with singular meaning:
\begin{tabular}{ll} 
dà-pūvdá nàm \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & "crosses" \\
kūt nám \\
bé' \(\varepsilon d\) nám & \\
a & "nails"; sg also "iron" \\
& "evils"
\end{tabular}
(g) mass nouns used with count meanings:

> bùgúm nám \({ }^{\text {a }}\)
> sā'ab nám
> dāam náma
```

"fires, lights"
"portions of millet porridge"
"beers"

```
(h) forms with the Personifier particle \(\grave{A}-19.10\) :

À-zī'— \(\quad \varnothing\) kpí nàm kpîd né kà téñbid.
Pers-neg.know ser die pl die:dipf foc and tremble:Dipf
"Those who don't know death, are dying with a struggle." (Proverb) (i.e "It's a storm in a teacup.")

\subsection*{9.5 Plurals used as Singulars}

A number of words referring to uncountables or abstracts are plural in form:
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|}
\hline bān'as \({ }^{\text { }}\) & bàn'- & "disease" \\
\hline nyう̄'วs \({ }^{\text {// }}\) & nyう̄'- & "smoke" \\
\hline tàdımís \({ }^{\varepsilon}\) & & "weakness" \\
\hline \(z \overline{l ı m i ́ s ~}{ }^{\text {¢ }}\) & & "foolishness" \\
\hline \(m \bar{\varepsilon} t^{\varepsilon /}\) & \(m \bar{\varepsilon} t-\underline{9.2 .2}\) & "pus" \\
\hline kūt \({ }^{\text { }}\) & kùt- 9.2.2 & "iron" \\
\hline zù̀ \({ }^{\text {d }}\) & & "friendship" \\
\hline \(b \bar{u} d^{\varepsilon}\) & & "innocence" \\
\hline siind \({ }^{\text {¢/ }}\) & & "honey" \\
\hline nīn-púv̀d \({ }^{\text { }}\) & & "pus" \\
\hline wāad \({ }^{\text {¢ }}\) & & "cold weather" \\
\hline sūn-p ćèn \(^{\text {ne }}\) & & "anger" \\
\hline  & & "thirst" \\
\hline sālıma+ & sàlım- & "gold" \\
\hline sìda+ & sìd- & "truth" \\
\hline
\end{tabular}
\(K u ̄ t^{\varepsilon}\) is used not only as "iron" but also for "nail"; the original singular \(k u \bar{d} v g{ }^{\circ}\) appears in the personal name \(\grave{A}-K u ̄ d v g{ }^{\top} 35.2\).

So too with a number of irregularly formed abstract nouns from verbs:
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|c|}
\hline gēeñmís \({ }^{\text {® }}\) & "madness" & \(\leftarrow g \bar{\varepsilon} \varepsilon_{\sim} m^{\mathrm{m} /}\) & "madden, go mad" \\
\hline bùdımís \({ }^{\text { }}\) & "confusion" & \(\leftarrow\) bùdım \({ }^{\text {m }}\) & "confuse" \\
\hline titūmıs \({ }^{\varepsilon}\) & "sending" & \(\leftarrow\) tòm \(^{\text {m }}\) & "send" \\
\hline ziid \({ }^{\text {/ }}\) & "carrying on hea & \(\stackrel{\text { i }}{ }{ }^{+}\) & "carry on head" \\
\hline vūud \({ }^{\text {/ }}\) & "noise" & \(\leftarrow v \bar{u}^{+}\) & "make a noise" \\
\hline \(k \bar{n} n^{n \varepsilon /}\) & "arrival" & \(\leftarrow k \bar{\varepsilon} n^{+}\) & "come" \\
\hline piàñ'ad \({ }^{\text {e }}\) & "word, speech" & \(\leftarrow p i a ̄ n{ }^{\prime}{ }^{\text {a }}\) & "speak" (irreg. tones) \\
\hline
\end{tabular}
[sg piàunk \({ }^{\text {² }}\) exists, but the pl is generally used for "speech"]
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|c|}
\hline tēñ' \({ }^{\text {c }}\) cá \({ }^{+}\) & "thought" & cf tēñ' \({ }^{\text {casá }}\) yīnní & \begin{tabular}{l}
"one thought" \\
(Acts 4:32)
\end{tabular} \\
\hline di'əma+ & "festival" & \(\leftarrow d i ' \partial m^{m}\) & "play, not be serious" \\
\hline tōoma \({ }^{+}\) & "work" & \(\leftarrow\) tòm \(^{\text {m }}\) & "work" \\
\hline [sg tūטm \({ }^{\text {me }}\) & "deed"] & & \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

For nà'ası+ "honour", kābırí+, "permission to enter" and sūgurú+ "forbearance" see 9.6.

A single object may be referred to by the name of its parts:
\begin{tabular}{lll} 
& dà-pōvdá+ & "cross" \\
pl & dà-pōvdá nàm \\
cf & dà-pōvdír & "cross-piece"
\end{tabular}

A Kusaal plural may just happen to correspond to an English mass noun:
```

        lāuk```
    pl lā'ad\varepsilon
"goods"

```

A piece of West African history underlies
sg \begin{tabular}{ll} 
līgıdı+ \\
lā'af & "money"
\end{tabular}

See also on the \({ }^{\mathrm{a}} \mid b^{\mathrm{a}}\) Subclass with \(-b^{\mathrm{a}}\) as a sg suffix 9.3.1.2.

\subsection*{9.6 Nouns with Apocope Blocking}

A number of nouns ending in \(-\iota^{+}\)or \(-0^{+}\)seem to display Apocope Blocking 6.4:
\begin{tabular}{lll} 
būudı \(^{+}\) & bùud- & "tribe" \\
pïinı \(^{+}\) & pìin- & "gift"
\end{tabular}
along with the (apparently) deverbal abstract nouns:
\begin{tabular}{llll} 
nà'ası \({ }^{+}\) & "honour" & \(\leftarrow\) & nà'as \\
kābırí & "entry permission" & \(\leftarrow\) & kābır \(^{\varepsilon /}\)
\end{tabular}

This final \(-\iota^{+}\)is unlikely to represent the \(f{ }^{\rho} \iota^{+}\)Class plural: no singular \(f \rho^{+}\) Class word has an abstract meaning. Cognates of būudı+ in related languages suggest that the \(-d \iota\) component represents the equivalent of the \(g^{ગ} \mid d^{\varepsilon}\) Class plural: Farefare (Niggli's dictionary):

\author{
búúrí \\ bu-zãpka
}
"race, sort, espèce, clan"
"race étrangère"

Mooré (Niggli):

\section*{búudu}
"famille, espèce"

Nà'ası \({ }^{+}\)may similarly represent a \(g^{\mathrm{a}} \mid s^{\varepsilon}\) Class pl with Apocope Blocking.
Other words in final \(-\iota^{+}\)or \(-v^{+}\)are probably loanwords from related languages where citation forms do not undergo Apocope, e.g. WK's kïibú+ "soap" 18.1. Both \(k a ̄ b ı r^{+}\)and sūgurú+ are also unusual in having an apparent \(-r\) - derivational suffix, which is probably to be accounted for by their being loans 13.2.1.4.

\subsection*{9.7 Loanwords}

Some loanwords 18.1 are fitted into Noun Classes by analogy (cf 9.1):
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|c|}
\hline àrazàk \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & àrazà'as \({ }^{\text { }}\) & àrazà'- & "riches" \\
\hline & & & Hausa arzikii \\
\hline màliāk \({ }^{\text {a/ }}\) & màliā'as \({ }^{\text {¢/ }}\) & màliā'- & "angel" DK (Arabic) \\
\hline gādug \({ }^{\text {/ }}\) & \(g a ̄ t^{\varepsilon /}\) & gād- & "bed" Hausa gadoo \\
\hline  &  & İmbう'- & "garden" \\
\hline \(l o ́ r{ }^{\text {c }}\) & \[
\begin{aligned}
& \text { lóyà }{ }^{+} \text {tones sic } \\
& \text { or lómma }
\end{aligned}
\] & lór- & Hausa làmbuu "car, lorry" cf \(M \overline{r^{\varepsilon}}\) 9.3.1.1 \\
\hline àlópì \({ }^{\text {E }}\) & àlópìya+ & & "aeroplane" SB \\
\hline wādırı/ & wādá+ & wād- & pl "customs, law" \\
\hline
\end{tabular}
(English "order", via Hausa, with sg and cb back-formations)
Others make nàm \({ }^{\text {a }}\) plurals \(\underline{9.4}\) :
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|c|}
\hline \(g a ̄ d v^{+}\) & gādv-nám \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & \(g a ̄ d v-\) & "bed" WK \\
\hline \(k \dot{\varepsilon} \varepsilon k \grave{\varepsilon}^{+}\) & kèzkè-nàm \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & kè \(k\) k̇- & "bicycle" Hausa kèekè \\
\hline dāká+ & dāká-nàm \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & dāká- & "box" Hausa àdakàa \\
\hline tézbòl \({ }^{\text { }}\) & tézbùl-nàm \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & tદ́とbòl- & "table" \\
\hline Nàsāara+ & Nàsàar-nàm \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & Nàsàar- & "white person, \\
\hline & or Nàsàa-nàm \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & Nàsàa- & European" \(\underline{\text { 35.4; }}\) \\
\hline & & &  \\
\hline & & & "Christians". \\
\hline & & & cf Hausa Nàsaara \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

Loanwords ending in L or H toneme distinguish sg from cb by the fact that L Raising 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 nominal prefixes 7.2.4:
```

dūnıya+
dūnıyá-kànā

```
"world" (Arabic دنيا dunya:)
"this world"

\section*{10 Adjective Flexion}

\subsection*{10.1 Primary}

Kusaal adjectives differ from nouns in having a marked tendency to occur with suffixes from more than one noun class. This reflects the prehistory of the language, in which the noun classes triggered agreement and adjectives took the suffix of the head noun, which preceded as a combining form (effectively, the adjective stem was infixed between the noun stem and its suffix.) Kusaal, like most of its close relations, has lost the agreement system, but adjectives commonly remain extant with suffixes from more than one class, now usually in free variation:

From būvga "goat"
\begin{tabular}{lllll}
\(b u ̀-p i ̀ \partial l ı g^{\mathrm{a}}\) & bù-pìə/ıs \(s^{\varepsilon}\) & bù-pìəl- & \(\left(g^{\mathrm{a}} \mid s^{\varepsilon}\right)\) & "white goat" \\
bù-pìəl \({ }^{\varepsilon}\) & bù-pìəla+ & bù-pìəl- & \(\left(r^{\varepsilon} \mid a^{+}\right)\) & id
\end{tabular}

WK claims a meaning difference in intensity in gradable adjectives with suffixes of different classes, consistently ranking the singular suffixes \(g^{a} r^{\varepsilon} g^{\rho}\) in decreasing order, so that for example fū-píəlìg "white shirt" is whiter than fū-píàl id. However, DK specifically denied any difference of meaning.

A few traces of the agreement system remain 19.8.1.1. Some speakers still require the \(m^{m}\) suffix for agreement with mass or abstract nouns. This is probably driven by the strong association of the \(m^{m}\) Class with meaning; there is similarly a notable preference for plural \(s^{\varepsilon}\) over \(a^{+}\)for human reference:
\[
\begin{aligned}
& \text { nīn-sábılìs } \\
& \text { nīn-sábılà } \\
& \text { Zunà-wìis }^{\varepsilon}
\end{aligned}
\]

> "Africans"
> accepted by informants but much less common "Red Zoose Clan"
> though wìug \({ }^{\text {"red" is usually } r^{\varepsilon}\left|a^{+} \sim g^{\supset}\right| d^{\varepsilon} \text { type }}\)

The \({ }^{\text {a }} \mid b^{a}\) and \(f^{P} \iota^{+}\)suffixes are found only in set expressions and \(b^{3}\) never occurs. Most often, \(r^{\varepsilon} \mid a^{+}\)Class suffixes occur along with either \(g^{\text {a }} \mid s^{\varepsilon}\) or \(g^{\supset} \mid d^{\varepsilon}\) but not both. Historically, this may reflect an intermediate stage in the collapse of the old agreement system where \(g^{\text {a }} \mid s^{\varepsilon}\) and \(g^{\supset} \mid d^{\varepsilon}\) had fallen together. Some Mampruli dialects show a four-class agreement system, human \(\left(={ }^{\mathrm{a}} \mid b^{\mathrm{a}}\right)\), mass \(\left(=m^{\mathrm{m}}\right)\) and two others.

There are constraints on the occurrence of particular suffixes with particular stem finals, explicable by the tendency to avoid forms which would give rise to unclear or ambiguous SFs; compare Noun Flexion 9.1. Just as with nouns, plural \(d^{\varepsilon}\) is not used with \(m n\) stems or with stems over two morae long; in addition, neither \(s\)-stems nor 2 -mora \(m n\) stems use the plural suffix \(s^{\varepsilon}\), and deverbal adjective stems in \(g k \eta\) do not use the sg suffixes \(g^{\mathrm{a}} g^{\mathrm{J}} \underline{10.2}\).

Examples of adjectives with suffixes from more than one Noun Class:


Other primary adjectives use either \(g^{\text {a }} \mid s^{\varepsilon}\) or \(g^{\top} \mid d^{\varepsilon}\) suffixes but not both:
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|c|}
\hline wàbıg \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & wàbıs \({ }^{\text { }}\) & wàb- & "lame" \\
\hline wàbır \({ }^{\text {e }}\) & wàba \({ }^{+}\) & & \\
\hline vèn/lıg \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & \(v \varepsilon ̀ n / l s^{\varepsilon}\) vènlla+ & & "beautiful" \\
\hline \begin{tabular}{l}
\(v \varepsilon ̀ n n ı g^{a}\) \\
vènnır \({ }^{\varepsilon}\) rare
\end{tabular} & \begin{tabular}{l}
vènnıs \({ }^{\varepsilon}\) \\
vènna+
\end{tabular} & vèn- & "beautiful" \\
\hline
\end{tabular}
and similarly \(w \bar{\varepsilon} n n \iota r^{\varepsilon}\) "resembling."
\begin{tabular}{llll} 
sābulíga & sābulís & sābı- & "black" \\
sābílı & sābılá+ &
\end{tabular}
and similarly pāalíga "new" záall \({ }^{\text { }}\) "empty" bàañlıg \({ }^{\text {a }}\) "slim" pìəlıg \({ }^{\text {a }}\) "white"
tītā'ug rare tītāda+ tītá'- "big"
tītā'ar \({ }^{\varepsilon}\)
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|c|}
\hline \begin{tabular}{l}
nèog \({ }^{\text { }}\) \\
nè \({ }^{\varepsilon}{ }^{\varepsilon}\)
\end{tabular} & \begin{tabular}{l}
\(n \varepsilon ̀ \varepsilon d^{\varepsilon}\) \\
nèya+
\end{tabular} & \(n غ \grave{-}\) & "empty" \\
\hline \begin{tabular}{l}
wìug \(^{\text { }}\) \\
wiir \(^{\varepsilon}\)
\end{tabular} & wiid \(^{\varepsilon}\) wìya \({ }^{+}\) & wì- & "red" \\
\hline \begin{tabular}{l}
wāk \({ }^{\text {J/ }}\) \\
wā'ar \({ }^{\varepsilon /}\) rare
\end{tabular} & wā'ad \({ }^{\varepsilon /}\) wā'á' & \(w^{\text {a }}\) '- or \(w \overline{\text { a }}\) - & "long, tall" \\
\hline
\end{tabular}
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|c|}
\hline \begin{tabular}{l}
\(b \varepsilon ̇ d v g{ }^{\text {r }}\) \\
bèdır \({ }^{\varepsilon}\) rare
\end{tabular} & bèda+ & bèd- & "great" \\
\hline \(k u \bar{d} g{ }^{\text {a }}\) & \(k \bar{u} t^{\varepsilon}\) rare & kùd- & "old" \\
\hline \(k u \bar{d} \iota^{\varepsilon}\) & kūda \({ }^{+}\) & & \\
\hline
\end{tabular}
\(S\)-stems do not use pl \(S^{\varepsilon}\) :
\begin{tabular}{llll} 
būgusíga \\
būgusír & būgusá+ & būgus- & "soft"
\end{tabular}

Similarly mā'asír \(r^{\varepsilon}\) "cold, wet" mālısír \(r^{\varepsilon}\) "sweet" tēbısír \({ }^{\varepsilon}\) "heavy" lābısír \(r^{\varepsilon}\) "wide", and also


Stems in \(m n\) do not use \(\operatorname{sg} r^{\varepsilon}\), except for
\begin{tabular}{ll} 
sù \(\eta^{2}\) \\
sùm \(^{m \varepsilon}\) & sùma
\end{tabular}\(\quad\) sùg- "good"

As usual with adjectives, the singular may show either \(g^{\text {a }}\) or \(g^{2}\) but not both.
\begin{tabular}{llll} 
gīn \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & gīma & gìn- & "short" \\
\(d \bar{\varepsilon} \varepsilon \eta^{a}\) & & & "first" \\
& \(d \bar{\varepsilon} \varepsilon n s^{\varepsilon}\) & & \\
& \(d \bar{\varepsilon} \varepsilon m ı s^{\varepsilon}\) & \(d \varepsilon ̀ \varepsilon \eta-\) &
\end{tabular}

As with nouns, stems in \(m n\), and all 3-mora stems, use \(\mathrm{pl}-\mathrm{a}^{+}\)instead of \(-d^{\varepsilon}\). A number of adjectives with such stems can be regarded as simply belonging to the single \(g^{\top} \mid a^{+}\)Subclass (compare 9.3.3.1):
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|c|}
\hline dà-zēmmóg \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & dà-zह̄mmá \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & dà-zह̄m- & "equal piece of wood" \\
\hline tōológ \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & tūolá \({ }^{+}\) & tōol- & "hot" \\
\hline lāllúg \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & lāllá \({ }^{+}\) & lāl- & "distant" \\
\hline mìisug \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & mi'isa+ & mi'is- & "sour" \\
\hline wàun \({ }^{\text { }}\) & wàna+ & wàun- & "wasted, thin" \\
\hline kpīon \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & kpīəma+ & kpi'on- & "hard, strong" \\
\hline zùlon \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & zùlıma+ & zùlon- & "deep" \\
\hline
\end{tabular}
 with the probably originally 3-mora stems (via *rr \(\rightarrow\) r, *ss \(\rightarrow\) s 6.2.1):
\begin{tabular}{llll} 
yī-pónròg & yī-pónrà \\
kísò \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & kīsá+ & "īs- & "nearby house"
\end{tabular}

Other single-class adjectives are:
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|c|}
\hline puāk \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & \(p o ̄ ' a s^{\varepsilon}\) & pu'à- & "female" (human) \\
\hline nyá'ana & nyá'as \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & nyā'an- & "female" (animal) \\
\hline & or nnyā'amís \({ }^{\varepsilon}\) & & \\
\hline nyèesín \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & nyèznsís \({ }^{\text {® }}\) & nyèesín- & "self-confident" \\
\hline \(v \bar{o} r^{\varepsilon /}\) & vōyá \({ }^{+}\) & \(v \bar{r}\) r- & "alive" \\
\hline dāug \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & dāad \({ }^{\text {¢ }}\) & dà- & "male" \\
\hline tכֹ \(g^{\text { }}\) & tכ̄ \(d^{\varepsilon}\) & tう- & "bitter" \\
\hline
\end{tabular}
and other derivatives in -m-: vèñllín \(\eta^{a}\) "beautiful" mālısín \(\eta^{\text {a }}\) "pleasant" lāllína "distant."
Extremely irregular is
bïla
bībıs \({ }^{\varepsilon}\)
bìl- or bì-
"little"

The sg flexion -la is found more widely in other Western Oti-Volta languages, where it seems often to have a diminutive sense: thus Farefare (Niggli) nílá "chick", pìlà "lamb", bùdíblá "boy", púglá "girl", kílílá "young guinea fowl"; Mooré bìríblá "boy", bìpúglá "girl." The plural stem bib- is presumably reduplicated.

\subsection*{10.2 Deverbal}

Dynamic Deverbal Adjectives are derived with \(d\), the same formant as found in agent nouns (though the stems occasionally differ.) However the \(d\) in these forms may be assimilated or dropped by morphophonemic rule 13.1.1.2.1, so that not all Dynamic Deverbal Adjectives are current \(d\)-stems.

Dynamic Deverbal Adjectives take \(r^{\varepsilon} \mid a^{+}\)Class sg and pl. In addition, they may take another sg suffix; this is \(g^{\text {a }}\) for WK , but \(g^{\text {J }}\) for KT :
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|c|}
\hline kōodír \({ }^{\text {E }}\) & Kūodá \({ }^{+}\) & kūvd- & "murderous; \\
\hline kūodíg \({ }^{\text {a }}\) WK & & & liable to be killed" \\
\hline kōodúg \({ }^{\text {KT }}\) & & & \\
\hline
\end{tabular}
```

tōmmır\varepsilon
tūmna+ KT

```

Invariable verbs：
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|c|}
\hline sīnnír \({ }^{\text {e }}\) rare & sīnná＋ & sīn－ & ＂silent＂ \\
\hline \multicolumn{4}{|l|}{sīnníga} \\
\hline \(\left.d \bar{\varepsilon}\right|^{\varepsilon /}\) & d \(\overline{\text { c／lá }}\) & \(d \bar{\varepsilon} /-\) & ＂leaning＂ \\
\hline \(m \overline{\mathrm{r}}{ }^{\varepsilon /}\) & mōrá＋ & mכ̄r－ & ＂having＂ \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

Stems in \(g k \eta\) do not use the sg suffixes \(g^{\text {a }} g^{د}\) ：
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|c|}
\hline būn－túlıgìr \({ }^{\text {c }}\) & būn－túlıgà \({ }^{+}\) & & ＂heating thing＂ \\
\hline \({ }_{\sim}^{n w i ̄-t \varepsilon ́ k i ̀ r ~}{ }^{\text {e }}\) & ñwī－tćkà \({ }^{+}\) & \(\underset{\sim}{n} w i\)－ték－ & ＂pulling－rope＂ \\
\hline bōn－sónì r \({ }^{\text {e }}\) & būn－sónà \({ }^{+}\) & & ＂helpful thing＂ \\
\hline bì－nう̀力ı \({ }^{\text {E }}\) & bì－nว̀pa＋ & & ＂beloved child＂ \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

Adjectives derived from 4－mora stem verbs in \(-m\) in KT＇s speech take \(g^{\text {a }}\) or \(g^{\text { }}\) \(\operatorname{sg}\) and \(-a^{+} \mathrm{pl}\) ；they may drop the -m －in the plural：
\begin{tabular}{lll} 
nīn－pú＇alìn \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & nīn－pú＇alìma & \\
nīn－záañòn \({ }^{\text { }}\) & nīn－záañsà & ＂harmful person＂
\end{tabular}

Resultative Adjectives are derived with＊－／ım－．They inflect regularly as \(g^{\top} \mid a^{+}\) Subclass \(m\)－stems．KT（not WK）also has forms without－m－in both sg and pl ：
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|c|c|}
\hline kpiilón \({ }^{\text {² }}\) & kpiilímà \({ }^{+}\) & kpiilún－ & ＂dead＂ & WK \\
\hline nīn－kpílìg \({ }^{\text {² }}\) & nīn－kpiilima＋ & & ＂dead person＂ & KT \\
\hline gēeñlón \({ }^{\text {² }}\) & gēeñlímà \({ }^{+}\) & gēeñlón－ & ＂tired＂ & WK \\
\hline nīn－géeñlùg \({ }^{\text { }}\) & nīn－gと́ \(\mathrm{c}_{\sim} / \mathrm{ìma}{ }^{+}\) & & ＂tired person＂ & KT \\
\hline pغ̇＇عاט́n \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & pè＇ límà \(^{+}\) & pè＇عlón－ & ＂full＂ & WK KT \\
\hline & dūg－pé＇ \(1 a^{+}\) & & ＂full pots＂ & KT \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

\section*{11 Verb Flexion}

On the Remoteness Marker \(n^{\varepsilon}\) see 30.1.1; for the enclitic subject pronoun ya see 22.7.3. Both words have been taken as flexions in other accounts, and are traditionally written solid with the preceding verb.

\subsection*{11.1 Variable Verbs}

About \(90 \%\) of the verbs in my materials are Variable Verbs: prototypical verbs expressing activities, accomplishments and achievements, and inflecting for aspect.

The unmarked Base Form is used for the Perfective and Resultative aspects, and the Dynamic Imperfective aspect adds a flexional suffix \(-d^{a}\). The suffix \(-m^{a}\) marks Imperative Mood when and only when the verb word itself has tone overlay due to Independency Marking 22.6.2.2.

Tonal considerations show that \(-d^{\mathrm{a}}\) is historically composite, the result of adding a flexion -a to a derived stem in \(-d-7.3\), but synchronically verb conjugation is very regular, and there has presumably been considerable levelling.

Examples cite the unmarked Perfective/Resultative Base form, the Dynamic Imperfective and \(-m^{\text {a }}\) imperative in order. The \(-m^{\text {a }}\) imperative always shows tone overlay due to Independency Marking. 22.6.1.1.

Straightforward examples of verb inflexion include:
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|c|}
\hline \(k \bar{v}^{+}\) & kūod \({ }^{\text {a/ }}\) & kùum \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & "kill" \\
\hline kpغ̀ñ \({ }^{+}\) & \(k p \varepsilon \grave{\sim}^{\prime} \varepsilon d^{\text {a }}\) & kpèn \({ }^{\text {c }}\) ¢ \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & "enter" \\
\hline kià \({ }^{+}\) & \(k i ə d^{\text {a }}\) & kiəm \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & "cut" \\
\hline kuā+ & kūөd \({ }^{\text {a/ }}\) & kùөm \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & "hoe" \\
\hline gòn \({ }^{+}\) & gว̀วnda \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & gว̀วñ \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & "hunt" \\
\hline \(d \bar{u} g^{\varepsilon}\) & dūgud \({ }^{\text {a/ }}\) & dògum \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & "cook" \\
\hline yùug \({ }^{\text {® }}\) & yùugıd \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & yùugım \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & "delay, get late" \\
\hline \(y a ̄ d ı g^{\varepsilon /}\) & yādıgíd \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & yàdıgım \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & "scatter" \\
\hline piàño & piāñ'ada/ & piàn'ama & "speak; praise" \\
\hline du'àa & dò'ad \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & dò' \(\mathrm{mm}^{\text {a }}\) & "bear, beget" \\
\hline \(n \overline{k^{\varepsilon /}}\) & nj̄kíd \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & nj̀kım \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & "take" \\
\hline siàk \({ }^{\text {c }}\) & siàkıd \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & sinàkım \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & "believe, agree" \\
\hline \(g a ̄ \eta^{\varepsilon /}\) & gāpíd \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & gàmım \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & "choose" \\
\hline \(k p\) ' \(^{\text {n }}\) & kpè'pıda & kpغ̀'ทıma & "strengthen" \\
\hline kpàr \({ }^{\text {e }}\) & kpàrıd \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & kpàrım \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & "lock" \\
\hline sūgor \({ }^{\text {/ }}\) & sūgoríd \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & sùgurım \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & "forgive" \\
\hline bàs \({ }^{\text {c }}\) & bàsıd \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & bàsım \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & "go/send away" \\
\hline sīgıs \({ }^{\text {d }}\) & sīgısíd \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & sigısım \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & "lower" \\
\hline \(n \overline{a ̄}^{\prime} m s^{\varepsilon /}\) & nā'mısíd \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & nà'mısım \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & "(make) suffer" \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

Some root－stems in CVV－show a CV－allomorph in both Dynamic Imperfective and imperative，with \(-t\)－for \(-d\)－and \(-m m\)－for \(-m\)－6．1．1．1：
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|c|}
\hline \(d i^{+}\) & \(d i t^{\text {a }}\) & dìm \({ }^{\text {ma }}\) & ＂eat＂ \\
\hline \(n{ }_{n} \bar{\varepsilon}^{+}\) & \(n y \bar{z} t^{\text {a／}}\) & nyèm \({ }^{\text {ma }}\) & ＂see＂ \\
\hline
\end{tabular}
and so also \(\mathrm{li}^{+}, l \grave{u}^{+}\)＂fall＂\(d \bar{v}^{+}\)＂go up＂\(y \bar{i}^{+}\)＂go／come out＂zう̀＋＂run，fear．＂
Stems in－\(d\)－show \(-t\)－in the dipf via \(* d d \rightarrow t t\) ：
\begin{tabular}{llll} 
bùd \({ }^{\varepsilon}\) & bùt \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & bùdım \\
gàad \(^{\varepsilon}\) & gàt \(^{a} \underline{6.3 .3}\) & gàadım \(^{a}\) & ＂plant＂
\end{tabular}

Stems in／generate a cluster in the dipf via \(* / d \rightarrow n n \underline{6.2 .1}:\)
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|c|}
\hline \(v \bar{u} l^{\varepsilon}\) & \(v o ̄ n n{ }^{\text {na／}}\) & vòlıma & ＂swallow＂ \\
\hline màa \({ }^{\text {® }}\) & màan \({ }^{\text {na }}\) & màalım \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & ＂make；sacrifice＂ \\
\hline \(d i ̄ g ı^{\varepsilon /}\) & dīgín \({ }^{\text {na }}\) & dìgılıma & ＂lay down＂ \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

Only 2－mora stems assimilate \({ }^{*} b m \rightarrow m m\) ：
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|c|}
\hline \(l غ b^{\varepsilon}\) & \(l\) lèbıda \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & lèm \({ }^{\text {ma }}\) & ＂return＂ \\
\hline sכ̄ \(b^{\text {® }}\) & sj̄bıd \({ }^{\text {a／}}\) & sòm \({ }^{\text {ma }}\) & ＂write＂ \\
\hline lìz \({ }^{\text { }}\) & \(l i z b ı d^{\text {a }}\) & lìzbım \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & ＂become＂ \\
\hline \(\bar{\varepsilon} \varepsilon n b^{\text {／}}\) & ĒEnbíd \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & غ̀eñbım \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & ＂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 \({ }^{\text { }}\) & bùnna & bùnım \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & ＂reap＂ \\
\hline \(m\) ¢̄n \({ }^{\text {c }}\) & mう̄nna／ & mònım \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & ＂make porridge＂ \\
\hline gว̀＇วn \({ }^{\text {¢ }}\) & gò＇כnıd \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & gう＇כnıma & ＂extend neck＂ \\
\hline dìgın \({ }^{\text {¢ }}\) & dìgınıd \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & dìgınım \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & ＂lie down＂ \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

The nn－stem sùn \({ }^{\varepsilon} \underline{6.2 .1}\) does not assimilate at all：
sùn \({ }^{\text {ne }} \quad\) sùnnıd \({ }^{\text {a }} \quad\) sùnnım \({ }^{\text {a }}\)＂bow head＂

4－mora \(m\)－stems always assimilate \(* m d \rightarrow m n, m m\) ：
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|c|}
\hline siilım \({ }^{\text {m }}\) & siilım \({ }^{\text {ma }}\) & siilım \({ }^{\text {ma }}\) & ＂quote proverbs＂ \\
\hline lā力ím \({ }^{\text {m }}\) & lāpím \({ }^{\text {ma }}\) & làpım \({ }^{\text {ma }}\) & ＂wander searching＂ \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

3 -mora \(m\)-stems assimilate optionally 6.2.1:
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|c|}
\hline kàrım \({ }^{\text {m }}\) & kàrım \({ }^{m}\) & kàrım \({ }^{\text {ma }}\) & "read" \\
\hline & or kàrımıd \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & & \\
\hline tכ̄כm \({ }^{\text {m/ }}\) & tósm \({ }^{\text {ma }}\) & tòm \({ }^{\text {ma }}\) & "depart" \\
\hline & or tכ̄omíd \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & & \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

Stems in -mm- never assimilate in the Dynamic Imperfective, but simplify *mmm \(\rightarrow \mathrm{mm}\) 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 \({ }^{\text {m }}\) & dàmmıd \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & dàm \({ }^{\text {ma }}\) & "shake" \\
\hline \(l\) lım \({ }^{\text {m }}\) & \(l \varepsilon ̀ m m ı d^{\text {a }}\) & \(l \varepsilon m^{\text {ma }}\) & "sip, taste" \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

There are no verb stems of the form *CVbım, so these \(-m m\) stems can probably be ascribed to the assimilation \({ }^{*} b m \rightarrow m m\) at derivational level 6.2.1.

2 -mora stems normally assimilate:
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|c|}
\hline tòm \({ }^{\text {m }}\) & tòm \({ }^{\text {ma }}\) & tòm \({ }^{\text {ma }}\) & "work" \\
\hline wòm \({ }^{\text {m }}\) & wòm \({ }^{\text {ma }}\) & wòm \({ }^{\text {ma }}\) & "hear" \\
\hline kìm \({ }^{\text {m }}\) & \(k i m^{\text {ma }}\) & kìm \({ }^{\text {ma }}\) & "tend flock/herd" \\
\hline dùm \({ }^{\text {m }}\) & dùm \({ }^{\text {ma }}\) & dùm \({ }^{\text {ma }}\) & "bite" \\
\hline
\end{tabular}
but the NT/KB sometimes have unassimilated forms to avoid ambiguity 6.2.1.

Fusion Verbs are 3-mora stems with deleted \({ }^{*} g\) after aa iə uө aañ \(\varepsilon \varepsilon n \tilde{\sim}^{2}{\underset{\sim}{n}}^{n}\)
6.3.1. They show the stem with \(* g\) only in the Base Form and gerund, with all other forms dropping the \({ }^{*} g\) by morphological rule; this has implications for the toneme distribution of Pattern H stems 7.3.1. Base Forms before Liaison likewise drop the *g.
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|c|}
\hline fāeñ \({ }^{+/}\) & fāand \({ }^{\text {a/ }}\) & fàanm \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & "save" \\
\hline di'e \({ }^{+/}\) & \(d i ' z d^{\text {a/ }}\) & di'əm \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & "get, receive" \\
\hline dūe \({ }^{+/}\) & dūөd \({ }^{\text {a/ }}\) & dùөm \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & "rise, raise" \\
\hline pūñ \({ }^{\text {e }} \mathrm{e}^{+/}\) & pūn'ed \({ }^{\text {a/ }}\) & pùn'өm \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & "rot" WK \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

Contrast the tonemes of the Gerunds fáañ \(r^{\varepsilon} d i^{\prime} \partial r^{\varepsilon}\) dú'өr \(r^{\varepsilon}\) púñ \(_{\sim} \otimes r^{\varepsilon}\).
For the forms taken by Fusion Verb Base Forms before Liaison see 8.2.1.

\subsection*{11.1.1 Irregular}

Most irregularities involve the stem showing a derivational suffix in the Base Form which is dropped in the Dynamic Imperfective. A preceding derivational suffix is often dropped before derivational \(d\), so this may represent an older pattern which has been levelled out elsewhere. In some cases two distinct verbs may be involved, each associated by its precise meaning with particular aspects.

Kusaal has few irregular verbs; I list all that I have encountered below.
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|c|}
\hline \(g \bar{j} s^{\varepsilon}\) & \(g \bar{s} \iota^{\text {a }}{ }^{\text {a/ }}\) & gòsım \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & "look" \\
\hline & or \(g \bar{j} t^{\text {a/ }}\) & gòm \({ }^{\text {ma }}\) & \\
\hline \(t i s^{\varepsilon}\) & tìsıda & tisım \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & "give" \\
\hline & or tit \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & & \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

Before Liaison Word objects the Base Form may also be tì-, e.g. tì f "give you."
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|c|}
\hline \(y \grave{k} \|^{\varepsilon}\) & \(y غ ̇ t^{a}\) & \(y \grave{l} ı m^{\text {a }}\) & "say" \\
\hline wik \({ }^{\text {c }}\) & wiid \(^{\text {a }}\) 6.1.1.1 & wikım \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & "fetch water" \\
\hline iān \(k^{\varepsilon /}\) & jāñ'ad \({ }^{\text {a/ }}\) & iànkım \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & "leap, fly" \\
\hline gīlıge \({ }^{\text {/ }}\) & gīn \({ }^{\text {na/ }}\) & gìlıgım \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & "go around" \\
\hline \(k \bar{\varepsilon} \eta^{\varepsilon /}\) & \(k \bar{\varepsilon} n^{\text {na/ }}\) & kèm \({ }^{\text {ma }}\) & "go" \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

\section*{The verb}
\(d \varepsilon ̀ / \iota m^{m}\)
\(\left[d \bar{\varepsilon} \|^{\mathrm{la} /]}\right.\)
\(d \grave{l} / m^{m a}\)
is used as inchoative to \(\left.d \bar{\varepsilon}\right|^{l a /}\) "be leaning (of a person);" compare gù \({ }^{\varepsilon}\) dipf gùnna "suspend" beside the Stance Verb gìlla "be hanging."

Only two Variable Verbs are irregular in the actual flexional suffixes taken:
\(k \bar{\varepsilon}^{+}\)
\(k \bar{\varepsilon} t^{a /}\)
\(\left.k \dot{\varepsilon}\right|^{a}\)
"let, allow"
has -/a not \(-m^{\mathrm{a}}\), for the Imperative form with Independency Marking.
The verb
\(k \bar{\varepsilon} n^{+} \quad k \bar{\varepsilon} n^{\mathrm{a}} \quad k \varepsilon ̀ m^{\mathrm{a}} \quad\) "come"
has Dynamic Imperfective \(-n^{a}\) for \(-d^{\text {a }}\); this verb is also remarkable in always being immediately followed by \(n \bar{a}+/\) "hither" 23.7 which disambiguates the forms which are homophonous with those of \(k \bar{\varepsilon} \eta^{\varepsilon /}\) "go" above:
Kèm nā!
Kèm sá!
"Come!"
"Go!"
The verb
\[
\text { nכ̀n }{ }^{\varepsilon} \quad \text { nכ̀מımáa "love" }
\]
is morphologically regular, but is remarkable in that the base form always has Descriptive Aspect 11.2.2.1:
\begin{tabular}{lll}
\(\grave{M}\) nכ́nī f. & "I love you." & (Family, spiritual.) \\
\(\dot{M}\) bכ́כdī \(f\). & "I love you." & (Romantic, sexual.)
\end{tabular}

In WK's speech, the verb aligns with other imperfective forms in not being followed by the particle \(y \bar{a}^{+}\)when it is phrase-final and has undergone tone overlay due to Independency Marking 22.6.2.1.

M̀ nón.
"I like it." WK
(e.g. In reply to a question)

WK specifically stated that *M nכ́ yā was an impossible form.
The agent noun nว̀ıı \(d^{a}\) is tonally aberrant, with Pattern L instead of O. It is also remarkable as the only Pattern L 4-mora stem which is not a \(m\)-stem and does not have the stem tonemes LH.

Ò nう̀pıd kā'e.
"Nobody loves him." WK
("His lover does not exist.")

\subsection*{11.2 Invariable Verbs}

About 10\% of the verbs in my materials have only one finite form. As a lexical matter in each case, this may be Dynamic Imperfective or Descriptive Stative.

Four Descriptive Verbs consist of bare roots with no suffix:
\(m i^{+}\)
\(z \bar{l}^{\prime+}\)
\(b \grave{\varepsilon}^{+}\)
\(k \bar{a}^{\prime} e^{+}(\leftarrow * k a g ı)\)
"know"
"not know"
"be somewhere/exist"
"not be"

Though they resemble Variable Verb perfectives, the particle yā \({ }^{+}\)does not occur after them 22.6.2.1 and the Tone Pattern LO word bغे+ "be somewhere, exist" is
followed by L Raising 8.3. (The irregular Variable Verb nخ̀ \(\eta^{\varepsilon}\) "love" also behaves in these respects as Descriptive 11.1.1.)

All other Invariable Verbs have a flexional suffix showing LF-final -a.
Before this suffix, Dynamic Invariable Verbs historically showed a derivational suffix * \(\kappa\); for its combination with the preceding root see 6.2.1.1. Forms without * \(\Lambda\) appear in Perfective Gerunds, Agent Nouns and Dynamic Deverbal Adjectives. In Descriptive Verbs *K is either absent or has fused with the preceding root in all related words. (The \(-y\) - in the LFs of àen \({ }^{\text {a }}\) "be something/somehow", vūe \({ }^{\mathrm{a} /}\) "be alive" and tōe \({ }^{\mathrm{a} /}\) "be bitter" is root-final \(-y\)-preserved before the -a 6.1.1.1.)

This difference is reflected in Tone Patterns 7.3.3, but segmentally, there has been levelling. Dynamic Invariable verbs with roots ending in \(n / r\) have generalised the form with gemination due to *K to all related stems. For WK, Descriptive Verbs with roots in \(m\) have acquired a secondary gemination of the \(m\); this is not seen in written sources or found with other informants, and even for WK, Tone Pattern H 3 -mora-stem verbs have the tonemes which would be expected without gemination:
\begin{tabular}{llll} 
kpīəm \\
wā'am & na/ & not & *kpí'əm \\
mat & "be strong, hard" \\
*wá'am & na & "be long, tall" KT
\end{tabular}

The Dagbani cognate of \(k p i^{\prime} \quad \partial m^{m a /}\) "be hard" is kpema, confirming an original single -m-: Dagbani preserves long vowels always and only in originally closed syllables. (Dagbani maani sg mana pl = Kusaal má'an \({ }^{\mathrm{n} \varepsilon} \mathrm{sg}\) mā'aná+ pl "okra.")

\subsection*{11.2.1 Dynamic}

Most Dynamic Invariable Verbs are Stance Verbs:
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|c|}
\hline \multicolumn{3}{|l|}{igı \({ }^{\text {ya/ }}\)} & "be kneeling down" \\
\hline dīgıyal & & & "be lying down" \\
\hline vābıya/ & & & "be lying prone" \\
\hline làbıya & & & "crouch hidden behind something" \\
\hline tàbıya & & & "be stuck to something" \\
\hline \(z i ' e^{\text {ya }}\) & & & "be standing still" \\
\hline zìn'jiya & & & "be sitting down" \\
\hline tiojyal & & & "be leaning" (of an object) \\
\hline sùr \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & & & "have head bowed" \\
\hline \(\left.d \bar{\varepsilon}\right|^{\text {la/ }}\) & & & "be leaning" (of a person) \\
\hline gùla & & & "be hanging" \\
\hline gכ̄'eya/ & WK & \(\leftarrow * g \supset d y a\) & "have neck extended" 6.2.1.1 \\
\hline ḡ̄ra/ & DK & \(\leftarrow\) *gərya & \\
\hline gōla/ & KT & \(\leftarrow\) *golya & \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

Other Dynamic Invariable Verbs are
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|}
\hline wà' \({ }^{\text {ya }}\) & "travel to" \\
\hline \(\sin ^{\text {na/ }}\) & "be silent" \\
\hline dōla/ & "attend on, be with in a subordinate rôle" \\
\hline zāñla/ & "carry in one's hands" \\
\hline gūr \({ }^{\text {a/ }}\) & "guard" \\
\hline tèn \(r^{\text {a }}\) & "remember" \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

Stance Verbs are dynamic. They distinguish a continuous/progressive sense from a habitual/propensity sense with the focus particle \(n \bar{\varepsilon}^{+/}\)just like Dynamic Imperfectives of Variable Verbs 22.2.2.2, the derived Assume-Stance Verbs 13.2.1.1 cannot use the Base Form as a Resultative, as verbs expressing a change of state in the subject can 33.1.2.3, and it is not possible to form a Resultative Adjective 13.1.1.2.2 from a Stance Verb. With the non-stance Dynamic Invariable Verbs a stative interpretation would in any case seem forced.

For some informants, Stance Verb stems also occur with the Variable Verb dipf suffix \(-d^{a}\), here confined to the habitual/propensity meaning; other informants use the dipf of the derived Assume-Stance Variable Verb instead:
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|}
\hline & Ò ziñ̃'i nē. & "She's sitting down." WK KT \\
\hline & Ò pō zín'idā. & "She doesn't sit down" WK \\
\hline but & Ò pū zín'inidà. & "She doesn't sit down." KT \\
\hline & Ò ziñ 'i nes. & "She's sitting down." \\
\hline & Ò pū zín'idā. & "She doesn't sit down" WK \\
\hline but & Ò pū zín'inidà. & "She doesn't sit down." KT \\
\hline & Ò vàbı nē. & "He's lying prone." \\
\hline & Ò pū vābıdá. & "He doesn't lie prone." WK \\
\hline but & Ò pū vábınìdā. & "He doesn't lie prone." KT \\
\hline & Ò dìgı nē. & "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 zíldā. & "It (a defective tripod) doesn't stand up." WK \\
\hline & Lì tìi n̄. & "It's leaning against something." \\
\hline & Lì ti'id. & "It can be leant against something." WK \\
\hline
\end{tabular}
\begin{tabular}{ll} 
Lì pū tī'iyá. & "It's not leaning against something." \\
Lì pū tī'idá. & "It's not for leaning against something." WK
\end{tabular}

Other Dynamic Invariable verbs, like Variable Verbs, show no flexional distinction between the two Dynamic Imperfective meanings:
```

Ò sin.
O}\operatorname{sin}n\overline{\varepsilon}
"She's silent."
"She's keeping silent."
Ò zàn~l n\overline{\varepsilon} kólùg.
"He's holding a bag."
Ò zàñl kólòg.
Ò pū zāñllá.
"He holds a bag."
"He isn't holding/doesn't hold it."

```

Non-stance Dynamic Invariable Verbs have no separate derived inchoative Variable Verbs, but use the same Invariable Verb form in such senses:

\section*{Sin!}

Dìlī m.

Kà bà sīn.
And 3pL be.silent.

Dynamic Invariable Verbs make gerunds (whether Perfective or Imperfective) capable of expressing events, which can be used in the immediate-future construction with bj̀כd \({ }^{\text {a }}\) "want" + gerund 22.3.2. They make deverbal nominal derivatives by adding - \(d\) - to the stem, like Variable Verbs. Unlike Descriptive Verbs, they form not only agent nouns 13.1.1.1 but also Dynamic Deverbal adjectives 13.1.1.2.1, and Instrument Nouns 13.1.1.3. Stems in \(/ / n n r(r)\) drop the \(-d\) - formant in derivation, including in Agent nouns, with the exception of \(t \bar{\varepsilon} \tilde{\sim}_{\sim} r d^{\text {a }}\) "remember-er" and the variant gūrıda/ "guard" beside gū'uda/ and -gúra.

\subsection*{11.2.2 Descriptive}

Descriptive Verbs divide into two groups on the basis of agency.
Agentive verbs, like Dynamic Invariable Verbs and most Variable Verbs, can be used in direct commands and are capable of forming derived Agent Nouns 13.1.1.1. All these are transitive Relational Verbs. Non-agentive Descriptive Verbs are Adjectival Verbs, expressing predicative adjective meanings.

\subsection*{11.2.2.1 Relational}

Relational Verbs include
\begin{tabular}{|c|}
\hline àen \({ }^{\text {a }}\) \\
\hline \(b \grave{\varepsilon}^{+}\) \\
\hline \(k \bar{a}^{\prime} e^{+}(\leftarrow *\) kagı \()\) \\
\hline \(m \bar{r} r^{\text {a/ }}\) \\
\hline tāral \\
\hline sū'eya/ \\
\hline sכ̄ñ'e \({ }^{\text {ya/ }}\) \\
\hline \(m i^{+}\) \\
\hline \(z \bar{l}^{+}+\) \\
\hline \(n \bar{\varepsilon} n^{\text {na/ }}\) \\
\hline \(k i s^{\text {a/ }}\) \\
\hline z \(\bar{\varepsilon} m^{\mathrm{ma}}\) \\
\hline \(k p \bar{\varepsilon} \varepsilon_{\sim} m^{\mathrm{ma}}\) \\
\hline \(w \bar{\varepsilon} n^{\text {na/ }}\) \\
\hline
\end{tabular}
"be something/somehow" 6.1.1.1
"be somewhere/exist" (no Agent Noun)
"not be" (negative to both àen \({ }^{\text {a }}\) and \(b \dot{\varepsilon}^{+}\))
"have"
"have"
"own"
"be better than"
"know"
"not know"
"envy"
"hate"
"be equal to"
"be older than"
"resemble" 23.4

The verb bう̀ \(d^{\text {a }}\) "want, like" is formally the dipf of bj+ "seek", but has become an independent Relational Verb. Similarly the dipf of zj\({ }^{+}\)"run" is used as a Relational Verb "fear; experience emotion" with a direct object expressing the emotion and an indirect object expressing the cause of the emotion 23.1. The irregular Variable Verb \(n \grave{n} \eta^{\varepsilon}\) "love" has a finite form which is syntactically Relational 11.1.1 22.6.2.1.

\subsection*{11.2.2.2 Adjectival}

Adjectival Verbs express predicative adjectival meanings. They are intransitive, cannot be used in direct commands, and do not form Agent Nouns or gerunds.
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|c|}
\hline \(v \overline{e n}^{\text {a/ }}\) & "be alive" & vōr \({ }^{\text {ع/ }}\) & "alive" \\
\hline tje \({ }^{\text {a/ }}\) & "be bitter" & \(t \supset \supset g^{\circ}\) & "bitter" \\
\hline mā'as \({ }^{\text {a/ }}\) & "be cool" & mā'asír \({ }^{\text { }}\) & "cool" \\
\hline būgus \({ }^{\text {a/ }}\) & "be soft" & \(b u ̄ g u s i r^{\varepsilon}\) & "soft" \\
\hline \(t \bar{\varepsilon} b ı s^{\text {a/ }}\) & "be heavy" & \(t \bar{b} b ı \operatorname{sír}^{\varepsilon}\) & "heavy" \\
\hline mālısa/ & "be sweet" & mālısír \({ }^{\text {c }}\) & "sweet" \\
\hline lābısa/ & "be wide" & lābısír \({ }^{\text {c }}\) & "wide" \\
\hline mi'is \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & "be sour" & mi'isug \({ }^{\text { }}\) & "sour" \\
\hline vèn \({ }^{\text {na }}\) & "be beautiful" & vènnıg \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & "beautiful" \\
\hline vèn/la & "be beautiful" & vèn/lı \(g^{\text {a }}\) & "beautiful" \\
\hline lāıla/ & "be far" & lāllóg \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & "far" \\
\hline \(p\) pò \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & "be few" & pòjodıg \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & "few" \\
\hline
\end{tabular}
\begin{tabular}{llll} 
sùm \\
kpí'əm & "be good" & sùn & "be strong" \\
kpī'on & "good" \\
yàlım & ma & "be wide" & yàlın
\end{tabular}

With stem changes between adjective and verb:
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|c|}
\hline tōla/ & "be hot" & tōológ \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & "hot" \\
\hline ny \({ }^{\text {ches }}{ }^{\text {a }}\) & "be self-confident" & nyغ̀esín \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & "self-confident" \\
\hline wā'am \({ }^{\text {ma/ }}\) & "be long" & \(w \overline{\mathrm{k}}{ }^{\text {J/ }}\) & "long" \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

The verb nāra/ "be necessary" has a related adjective nàron \({ }^{\text {ºn }}\) "necessary" (??tone) but the verb is probably primary; it is much commoner than the adjective. The verb pj̀n \(r^{a}\) "be near (to)" has an adjectival form seen in WK's yī-pónrà̀ \({ }^{+}\)"nearby houses" but makes the Perfective Gerund pj̄nrıb \({ }^{\text {J }}\). The verb tūn'e "be able" occurs almost exclusively as an auxiliary verb in the Serial VP construction 26.3.1; it has no extant Long Form in my materials.

\section*{12 Stem Conversion}

Nominals may be formed by added Noun Class suffixes to a verb stem, or by using an existing noun stem in a different class.

\subsection*{12.1 Nominals from Verbs}

\subsection*{12.1.1 Perfective Gerunds}

Almost all Verbs other than Adjectival Verbs can form a gerund, a derived abstract noun which expresses the process, event or state described by the verb.

Gerunds play little rôle in the verb system itself, in contrast to languages like Hausa where they are an integral part of the formation of many tenses or aspects. Gerunds do make an immediate future construction with bj̀ \(d^{\text {a }}\) "want" 22.3.2:

Tìıg lā bój̀d lïg. \(\quad\) "The tree is about to fall."
Tree:sg art want fall:Ger.

This is only possible with gerunds that can have have event/process meanings, i.e. those derived from Variable Verbs and Dynamic Invariable Verbs. Relational Verbs have abstract nouns derived from their single forms, and like other Imperfectivebased forms occurring in certain contexts these are classified as "Imperfective" gerunds 13.1.1.4, but the term "gerund" will be used by default for the formations discussed in this section. Abstract nouns associated with Adjectival Verbs are not regarded as gerunds, although they show some syntactic resemblances 19.7.2.1.

Although gerunds can be expanded with arguments 19.9.2 the resulting NPs cannot be used adverbially to express attendant circumstances, nor as complements of verbs in place of Content Clauses.

The Tone Patterns of all regularly formed gerunds are predictable 7.5.1.

\subsection*{12.1.1.1 From Variable Verbs}

Variable Verbs freely form gerunds by adding the following Class Suffixes to the stem. The choice after 3-mora stems reflects avoidance of suffixes which would give rise to obscure SFs, with the usual \(-g{ }^{\top}\) replaced by \(-r^{\varepsilon}\) after stems ending in underlying \({ }^{*} g\). Those irregular 2-mora stem verbs which avoid the regular \(b^{\top}\) Class suffix similarly include a significant proportion of stems in \(-b\) and -m 12.1.1.1.1.

2-mora stems \(-b^{\nu}\) but \(-r^{\varepsilon}\) as final element of a compound
3-mora stems in *g
[surface \(\left.-g^{\varepsilon}-k^{\varepsilon}-\eta^{\varepsilon}-a e^{+}-i e^{+}-u e^{+}\right] \quad-r^{\varepsilon}\)
all others \(-g^{د}\)

Gerunds differ in flexion from other substantives in frequently resisting the assimilations *mg \(\rightarrow\) מף \({ }^{*} n g \rightarrow\) 6.2.1. They rarely shorten a CVV- stem before \(-r^{\varepsilon}\). 4 -mora stems in -sım -lım follow the rule and use \(-g\) :
\[
\begin{array}{llll}
\text { sìilım } & \text { "cite proverbs" } & \rightarrow & \text { siilún }{ }^{\mathrm{m}} \\
\text { zàañs } \mathrm{m}^{\mathrm{m}} & \text { "dream" } & \rightarrow & \text { zàañsún }
\end{array}
\]
but stems in *-gım drop the \(-m\) - and use \(-r^{\varepsilon}\) :
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|c|}
\hline wànım \({ }^{\text {m }}\) & "waste away" & \(\rightarrow\) & wànır \({ }^{\text {r }}\) \\
\hline lāním \({ }^{\text {m }}\) & "wander" & \(\rightarrow\) & lānír \({ }^{\text {c }}\) \\
\hline zàkım \({ }^{\text {m }}\) & "itch" & \(\rightarrow\) & zàkır \({ }^{\text {c }}\) \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

For examples of regular gerunds see 9.3 under Noun Flexion. 2-mora stems regularly use \(-r^{\varepsilon}\) not \(b^{\top}\) in compounds; see 19.7.1.
```

pư'à-dī\imathr }\mp@subsup{r}{}{\varepsilon}\quad\mathrm{ "marriage"
nīn-kóòr}\mp@subsup{\varepsilon}{}{\varepsilon}\quad\mathrm{ "murder"
dā-núùrr \& "beer-drinking"
mう-pïl| "grass roof"
fū-y\varepsiloń\varepsiloǹr`\varepsilon

```

\subsection*{12.1.1.1.1 Irregular Formations}

All of these have been verified as occurring in the bj̀วd "want" + gerund construction above.

Irregular 2-mora stem verbs 11.1.1 may have regular gerunds:
\begin{tabular}{llll}
\(t i ̀ s^{\varepsilon}\) & "give" & \(\rightarrow\) & \(t i \bar{s} \iota b^{\partial}\) \\
\(k \bar{\varepsilon}^{+}\) & "let" & \(\rightarrow\) & \(k \bar{\varepsilon} \varepsilon b^{\partial}\) \\
\(g \grave{̀} l^{\varepsilon}\) & "suspend" & \(\rightarrow\) & \(g \bar{l} / \iota b^{\nu}\)
\end{tabular}

However, with 2-mora stems almost 20\% of the regular verbs in KED use suffixes other than \(b^{\text {J }}\). A smaller number of these are also tonally irregular. No segmentally regular gerund in \(-b^{\nu}\) shows tonal irregularity. Forms with the suffix \(-g^{\nu}\) are Pattern L from Pattern LO verbs unless there are variant forms with \(g^{\text {a }}\) or \(s^{\varepsilon}\) and the formation is thus shown to belong in fact to the \(g^{\nu} \mid s^{\varepsilon}\) Subclass 9.3.2.1.

A high proportion of these verbs have stems in \(m\) or \(b\); the regular formation with - \(b^{\supset}\) has probably been avoided because it would create ambiguous SFs 9.1.

Examples:
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|c|c|c|}
\hline \(1 i^{+}\) & "fall" & \(\rightarrow\) & liig \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & & \\
\hline \(z i^{+}\) & "carry on head" & \(\rightarrow\) & ziid \({ }^{\text {/ }}\) & & \\
\hline bèn \({ }^{+}\) & "fall ill" & \(\rightarrow\) & bēn' \({ }_{\sim} s^{\varepsilon}\) & & \\
\hline \(k \bar{\sim} n^{+}\) & "come" & \(\rightarrow\) & \(k \varepsilon \bar{n}{ }^{n \varepsilon /}\) & & \\
\hline zj+ & "run" & \(\rightarrow\) & zūa+ & also & \(z \overline{3} g^{\text {a }}\) \\
\hline \(v \bar{u}^{+}\) & "make noise" & \(\rightarrow\) & vūug \({ }^{\text {/ }}\) & & \\
\hline piāñ \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & "speak" & \(\rightarrow\) & piàunk \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & (une & pected ton \\
\hline bùd \({ }^{\text {c }}\) & "plant" & \(\rightarrow\) & \(b \bar{d} d g^{\text {a }}\) & also & \(b u ̄ d u g{ }^{\text { }}\) \\
\hline \(y \grave{l^{\varepsilon}}\) & "say, tell" & \(\rightarrow\) & \(y \varepsilon ̀ l o g ~{ }^{\text {a }}\) & & \\
\hline \(k u \bar{l}{ }^{\varepsilon}\) & "go home" & \(\rightarrow\) & kūlıg \({ }^{\text {a/ }}\) & also & kūlog \({ }^{\text {/ }}\) \\
\hline tàns \({ }^{\varepsilon}\) & "shout" & \(\rightarrow\) & tànsug \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & & \\
\hline sכֹn \({ }^{\text {c }}\) & "converse" & \(\rightarrow\) & sónsíg \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & & \\
\hline \(g \bar{\jmath} s^{\varepsilon}\) & "look" & \(\rightarrow\) & gósìg \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & & \\
\hline sj̀s \({ }^{\text {c }}\) & "pray, beg" & \(\rightarrow\) & sj̄sıg \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & & \\
\hline \(k i r^{\varepsilon}\) & "hurry" & \(\rightarrow\) & kìkírùg \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & or & \(k i ̄ r b^{3 /}\) \\
\hline \(l غ ̇ b^{\varepsilon}\) & "return" & \(\rightarrow\) & \(l \overline{\mathrm{c}} \mathrm{b} \mathrm{g}^{\text {a }}\) & & \\
\hline \(t \varepsilon b^{\varepsilon}\) & "carry in both h & & & & \\
\hline & & \(\rightarrow\) & \(t \bar{b} b ı g^{\text {a }}\) & & \\
\hline \(k a ̀ n b^{\varepsilon}\) & "scorch" & \(\rightarrow\) & \(k a ̄ n{ }_{\sim}{ }^{\text {a }}\) & & \\
\hline う \(\sim_{\sim} b^{\varepsilon}\) & "chew" & \(\rightarrow\) & jnnbır \({ }^{\text {e }}\) & & \\
\hline \(l u ̄ b^{\varepsilon}\) & "buck" & \(\rightarrow\) & lūbır \({ }^{\text {/ }}\) & & \\
\hline zà \({ }^{\varepsilon}\) & "fight" & \(\rightarrow\) & zàbır \({ }^{\text {c }}\) & & \\
\hline \(t \varepsilon \chi^{\prime} b^{\varepsilon}\) & "tremble" & \(\rightarrow\) & tغ̇n \({ }_{\sim}\) & & \\
\hline tùm \({ }^{\text {m }}\) & "work" & \(\rightarrow\) & tūoma+ & & \\
\hline tòm \({ }^{m}\) & "send" & \(\rightarrow\) & tìtūmıs \({ }^{\text {E }}\) & & \\
\hline wòm \({ }^{\text {m }}\) & "hear" & \(\rightarrow\) & \(w \overline{\mathrm{o}} \mathrm{m}^{\mathrm{m}}\) & or & wòmmug \({ }^{\text {² }}\) \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

With 3-mora and 4-mora stem verbs there are very few irregularities in gerund formation. A few have plural-as-singular forms 9.5. The verb yīis \({ }^{\varepsilon /}\) "make go/come out" has yīisíb \(b^{\text {J }}\), like the alternate form \(y \bar{i} s^{\varepsilon}\) with regular yīsı \(b^{\nu /}\).

There are a number of abstract verbal nouns in the \(m^{\mathrm{m}}\) Class formed from 3mora verb stems in -s- which resemble gerunds in tone. They may owe their \(m^{m}\) Class membership to being Imperfective forms: for the dropping of the - \(d\) - formant compare Agent Nouns and Deverbal Adjectives 13.1.1.1 13.1.1.2.1:
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|c|c|}
\hline \(p \mathrm{v}^{\prime} \cup s^{\varepsilon}\) & "greet, thank" & \(\rightarrow\) & pù'usım \({ }^{\text {m }}\) & "worship" \\
\hline & & &  & \\
\hline \(k \bar{u}^{+}\) & "kill" & \(\rightarrow\) & nīn-kúvsìm \({ }^{\text {m }}\) & "murderousness" \\
\hline yōlıs & "untie" & \(\rightarrow\) & yōlısím \({ }^{\text {m }}\) & "freedom" \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

\subsection*{12.1.1.2 From Dynamic Invariable Verbs}

Dynamic Invariable Verbs mostly form Perfective Gerunds, adding class suffixes to the stem in a similar way to Variable Verbs and following the same tone pattern allocation rules 7.5.1. They are idiosyncratic with regard to the class suffix selected, however.


The Adjectival Verb pj̀ñ \(r^{\text {a }}\) also makes a Perfective Gerund:
pذ̀nr \(r^{a} \quad\) "be near" \(\quad \rightarrow \quad\) pJ̄nrıb
However, most Invariable Verbs, including the Dynamic type, with stems in // \(n n r(r)\) form Imperfective Gerunds 13.1.1.4.

\subsection*{12.1.2 Concrete Nouns}

Verb stems with noun class suffixes which deviate from the usual allocation rules are often not abstract gerunds but have concrete senses, such as the product of the action, the instrument used, or the place at which the action occurs.
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|c|}
\hline \(\bar{\varepsilon} \varepsilon n \sim_{\sim} i^{\varepsilon}\) & "(physical) foundation" &  & "laying a foundation" \\
\hline \(d \bar{u} k^{\prime /}\) & "cooking pot" & dūgub \({ }^{\text {/ }}\) & "cooking" \\
\hline dà' \({ }^{\text {a }}\) = & "market" & dā'ab \({ }^{\text {² }}\) & "buying" \\
\hline \(k \bar{u} k^{\text {a }}\) & "chair" & \(k \bar{u})^{\text {b }}\) & "resting on something" \\
\hline zūg-kūgvr \({ }^{\text {c }}\) & "pillow" & & \\
\hline suāk \({ }^{\text {a/ }}\) & "hiding place" & \(s \bar{U}^{\prime} a b^{\prime /}\) & "hiding" \\
\hline sj̄bıral & "piece of writing" & sj̄p/ & "writing, orthography" \\
\hline \(k u ̄{ }^{\varepsilon}\) & "iron, nail" 9.5 & \(k u ̄ d v b\) & "working iron" \\
\hline kùesım \({ }^{\text {m }}\) & "merchandise" & kùesug \({ }^{\text { }}\) & "selling" \\
\hline  & "wind" & \(p \varepsilon ̇ b ı s \cup g^{\circ}\) & "blowing of the wind; wind" \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

See also on pò'alím \({ }^{m}\) dàalím \({ }^{m}\) 13.1.2.

The forms vābır \({ }^{\varepsilon /} l a \bar{b} \iota^{\varepsilon /} d \bar{\imath} g \iota r^{\varepsilon /} \bar{i} g \iota r^{\varepsilon /}\) used by WK as gerunds of Stance Verbs 12.1.1.2 are used by KT as concrete nouns meaning "place for lying prone" etc, contrasting for him with gerunds vāp/ etc.

Three concrete deverbal nouns, from pìbı \(\iota^{\varepsilon}\) "cover", zànbı \(\iota^{\varepsilon}\) "tattoo", màa \(\|^{\varepsilon}\) "sacrifice" show single \(-n\) - in place of \(-l-:\).
\begin{tabular}{llll} 
pībınn & pībına+ & pìbın- & "covering" \\
zāñbın & ne & zāñbına+ & zàñıı- \\
māan \(^{\text {ne }}\) & māana & "tattoo" (NT "sign") \\
& màan- & "sacrifice"
\end{tabular}

Although my informants definitely had single \(-n\) - in these words, it is possible that this represents a secondary simplification of *nn; compare Mooré pìbíndgà "couvercle" 6.2.1.1. Toende, like Mooré, has Pattern L for these words: zãbín, màan. As \(n n\) is the regular reflex of *ld 6.2.1, these forms may be derivatives with *d in a sense related to its appearance in Instrument Nouns 13.1.1.3; compare tūөdır \({ }^{\varepsilon}\) "mortar", from tuà̀ "grind in a mortar." The Tone Pattern O is consistent with this.

It is exceptional for regularly formed gerunds to acquire concrete meaning, but a clearcut example is
\(d \grave{\iota} \iota b^{\text {コ }}\) "food"

Gerund forms may be abstract count nouns describing particular instances of the activity of the verb, and may then have plurals:
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|c|}
\hline \(z \overline{\partial g} g^{\text {a }}\) & \(z \bar{\partial} s^{\varepsilon}\) & & "race" \\
\hline bū'өsúg \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & bū'өsá \({ }^{+}\) & bū'өs- & "question" \\
\hline zàañsún & zàansímà \({ }^{+}\) & zàañón- & "dream" \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

Such words may be formally plural but construed as singular 9.5
\begin{tabular}{ll} 
di'əma+ & "festival" \\
píàn'ad & "word, language" \\
tह̄ñ' \(\varepsilon s a^{+}\) & "thought"
\end{tabular}


\subsection*{12.2 Nominals from Nominals}

The partial association of Noun Class and meaning 9.1.1 can be exploited to change the meaning of a stem.

Examples are the regular relationship between names of ethnic groups, which belong to the \({ }^{\mathrm{a}} \mid b^{\mathrm{a}}\) or \(\left.g^{\mathrm{a}}\right|^{\varepsilon}\) 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 \(-g^{\top}\) :
\begin{tabular}{lll} 
Kūsáa= sg & Küsáàs \(^{\varepsilon} \mathrm{pl}\) & Kusaasi person \\
Kūsáàl \(\varepsilon^{\varepsilon}\) & & Kusaal language \\
Kūsáv̀ \({ }^{\text { }}\) & & Kusaasi territory
\end{tabular}

See many examples in 35.4.
A further example of \(s g-g\) deriving associated place names is:
```

w\varepsiloǹ\varepsilond}\mp@subsup{}{}{\textrm{a}}\mathrm{ or wìıd}\mp@subsup{d}{}{\textrm{a}}\mathrm{ "hunter"
w\varepsiloǹog}\mp@subsup{}{}{\circ}\mathrm{ "deep bush"

```

The suffix \(-d^{\varepsilon}\) is found with some names of liquids which are not \(m^{m}\) Class 9.5; hence also
\begin{tabular}{ll} 
sïñ \(_{\sim} /\) & "bee" \\
siiñ \(_{\sim}^{\varepsilon /}\) & "honey"
\end{tabular}

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 \(g^{\supset} d^{\varepsilon}\) Class 35.5.

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 \(-g{ }^{2}\). When there is an associated Adjectival Verb, these abstracts bear a somewhat analogous relationship to the verb as gerunds do to Variable and Dynamic Invariable Verbs, and can, for example, be preceded by Combining Forms in senses resembling generic arguments before gerunds 19.7.1 19.7.2.1. However, such abstract nouns cannot be used in the immediate future construction with bう̀วda "want" 12.1.1, and unlike Imperfective Gerunds derived from Dynamic Invariable Verbs and Relational Verbs 13.1.1.4, which show the expected Tone Patterns for gerunds, they show the same tone pattern as the adjective.

Examples of Adjectival Verbs with corresponding abstract nouns:
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|c|}
\hline \(v \overline{e d}^{\text {a/ }}\) & "be alive" & \(v \bar{o} \mathrm{~m}^{\mathrm{m} /}\) & "life" \\
\hline sùm \({ }^{\text {ma }}\) & "be good" & sòm \({ }^{\text {m }}\) & "goodness" \\
\hline pj̀da \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & "be few" & pj̀วdım \({ }^{\text {m }}\) & "scarcity" \\
\hline vèn \({ }^{\text {na }}\) & "be beautiful" & vغ̀nnım \({ }^{\text {m }}\) & "beauty" \\
\hline vèn/la & "be beautiful" & vغ̇ñ/lım \({ }^{\text {m }}\) & "beauty" \\
\hline būgus \({ }^{\text {a/ }}\) & "be soft" & būgusím \({ }^{\text {m }}\) & "softness" \\
\hline \(t \bar{b} \iota^{\text {a/ }}\) & "be heavy" & tĒbısím \({ }^{m}\) & "weight" \\
\hline mā'as \({ }^{\text {a/ }}\) & "be cool, wet" & mā'asím \({ }^{\text {m }}\) & "coolness, damp" \\
\hline mālıs \({ }^{\text {a/ }}\) & "be sweet" & mālısím \({ }^{\text {m }}\) & "sweetness" \\
\hline lābıs \({ }^{\text {a/ }}\) & "be wide" & lābısím \({ }^{\text {m }}\) & "width" \\
\hline nyèes \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & "be confident" & nyèesım \({ }^{\text {m }}\) & "self-confidence" \\
\hline lāıla/ & "be far" & lāllóg \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & "distance" \\
\hline kpi'əm \({ }^{\text {ma/ }}\) & "be strong, hard" & kpion \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & "hardness, strength" \\
\hline yàlım \({ }^{\text {ma }}\) & "be wide" & yàlun \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & "width" \\
\hline mi'is \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & "be sour" & mìisug \({ }^{\text { }}\) & "sourness" \\
\hline t̄e \({ }^{\text {a/ }}\) & "be bitter" & tכֹ) \({ }^{\text { }}\) & "bitterness" \\
\hline zùlım \({ }^{\text {ma }}\) & "be deep" & zùlon \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & "depth" \\
\hline tōla/ & "be hot" & tūulúg \({ }^{\text {a }}\) or t & "heat" \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

Abstract nouns derived from other adjectives (often used as adverbs) include
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|c|c|}
\hline pìlıg \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & "white" & \(\rightarrow\) & pielım \({ }^{\text {m }}\) & "brightness" \\
\hline tītā'ar \({ }^{\text {c }}\) & "big" & \(\rightarrow\) & tītā'am \({ }^{\text {m }}\) & "multitude" \\
\hline pāalíg \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & "new" & \(\rightarrow\) & pāalím \({ }^{\text {m }}\) & "recently" \\
\hline bāañlíg \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & "quiet" & \(\rightarrow\) & bāañlím \({ }^{\text {m }}\) & "quietly" \\
\hline záal \({ }^{1 /}\) & "empty" & \(\rightarrow\) & zāalím \({ }^{\text {m }}\) & "emptily" \\
\hline \(k \bar{u} d u g{ }^{\text { }}\) & "old" & \(\rightarrow\) & \(k \bar{d} d ı m^{m}\) & "old times" \\
\hline nè̇r \({ }^{\varepsilon}\) & "empty" & \(\rightarrow\) & nè \(\varepsilon \mathrm{m}^{\mathrm{m}}\) & "for free" \\
\hline zēmmóg \({ }^{\text { }}\) & "equal" & \(\rightarrow\) & zēmmúg \({ }^{\text {ºm }}\) & "equality" \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

Some nouns referring to people form similarly derived abstract nouns:
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|c|c|}
\hline sāan \({ }^{\text {a/ }}\) & "guest" & \(\rightarrow\) & sāón \({ }^{\text { }}\) & "hospitality" \\
\hline kpē \(\sim_{\sim} m^{m}\) & "elder" & \(\rightarrow\) & kpēoñ \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & "eldership" \\
\hline sjeen \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & "witch" & \(\rightarrow\) & sว̄วng \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & "witchcraft" \\
\hline zưà & "friend" & \(\rightarrow\) & zùөd \({ }^{\text {c }}\) & "friendship" \\
\hline gbányà'a= & "lazy person" & \(\rightarrow\) & gbányà'am \({ }^{\text {m }}\) & "laziness" \\
\hline dàmà'a= & "liar" & \(\rightarrow\) & dàmà'am \({ }^{\text {m }}\) & "lying" \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

Human-reference noun stems may also form abstract \(m^{\mathrm{m}}\) Class derivatives with the derivational suffix -lım 13.1.2.

\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.

There are only six unequivocal derivational suffixes: \(-g-s-n-I-d-m\). A suffix \(-r\) occurs only in a few words, which are probably loans.
\(-g-s-n\) never follow another derivational suffix. \(-g\) and \(-s\) cause a preceding CVVC to become CVC, and a preceding oral ככ to become glottalised.
-/ follows another suffix only as part of the combination -Im.
\(-d\) is very productive in the formation of deverbal nominals; it often deletes a preceding suffix or is itself deleted. It does not derive verb stems.

No stem has more than 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 -Im.

The rules for consonant assimilation differ slightly from the rules operative in flexion, probably because they are less subject to analogical remodelling 6.2.1.1.

For Tone Patterns in derivation see 7.5.

\subsection*{13.1 Nominals}

\subsection*{13.1.1 From Verbs}

The deverbal derivational processes described below are very productive; agent noun formation in particular is almost flexional in its regularity and generality, though this is less true of Deverbal Adjective formation. Deverbal nominal derivation generally shows more analogical levelling than derivational processes elsewhere, in keeping with the strong Kusaal tendency to regularity and transparency in verb morphology.

The Tone Patterns of deverbal nominals are predictable 7.5.1.

\subsection*{13.1.1.1 Agent Nouns}

Agent nouns can be freely made from almost any verb whose semantics permit it. Informants readily supply isolated forms on demand, but in conversation and texts alike agent nouns usually occur as the second element of compounds. All belong to the \({ }^{\mathrm{a}} \mid b^{\mathrm{a}}\) Class (though Agent nouns derived from Variable Verbs with stems in -mm and from Invariable Verbs with stems in \(-I I-r(r)\) may also have \(r^{\varepsilon} \mid a^{+}\)Class forms 9.3.1.1.) Despite the regularity of formation, it is not unusual for agent nouns to have specialised meanings, as will be seen in some of the examples. The name "Agent Noun" is not altogether felicitous, as the form is often made from verbs whose subject is not an "agent", including transitive Descriptive Verbs; it is more nearly analogous to English deverbal derivatives in "-er". Whether the form is available for Descriptive Verbs correlates closely with whether the verb can be used in direct commands 11.2.2, both cases probably representing dynamic use of the verb in question.

The formant of Agent Nouns is the derivational suffix - \(d\), found also in Dynamic Deverbal Adjectives and probably historically related to the \(-d\) - of the Dynamic Imperfective flexion - \(d^{\text {a }}\). However, the tonemes differ, and derivational - \(d\) shows much less regularity in its mode of attachment, with some differences in this regard among different types of derived word.

These differences arise from a tendency in derivation to limit stem length, which may result in either the -d itself or the suffix preceding it being deleted. The absence or presence of the suffix affects the Tone Pattern of the stem in forms derived from Pattern LO verbs, with words having -d being Pattern O and those without it being L 7.5.1. Agent Nouns show more "regularisation" in this regard than Dynamic Deverbal Adjectives do.

Most Variable Verbs have an agent noun with a singular form segmentally identical with the dynamic imperfective. For tones see 7.5.1. If there are alternate forms, the less "regular" form appears as the agent noun.
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|c|c|c|}
\hline \(k \bar{u}^{+}\) & "kill" & \(\rightarrow\) & kūud \({ }^{\text {a/ }}\) & \multicolumn{2}{|l|}{"killer"} \\
\hline \(m \grave{\varepsilon}^{+}\) & "build" & \(\rightarrow\) & \(m \bar{\varepsilon} \varepsilon d^{\text {a }}\) & \multicolumn{2}{|l|}{"builder"} \\
\hline \(d i^{+}\) & "eat" & \(\rightarrow\) &  & \multicolumn{2}{|l|}{"eater"} \\
\hline \(g \bar{j} s^{\varepsilon}\) & "look" & \(\rightarrow\) & \(g \bar{t}{ }^{\text {a/ }}\) & \multicolumn{2}{|l|}{"seer, prophet"} \\
\hline \(d \bar{u} g^{\varepsilon}\) & "cook" & \(\rightarrow\) & dūgud \({ }^{\text {a/ }}\) & \multicolumn{2}{|l|}{"cook"} \\
\hline du'à \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & "bear, beget" & \(\rightarrow\) & dō'ad \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & \multicolumn{2}{|l|}{"elder relation"} \\
\hline \(k{ }^{\text {a }}{ }^{\varepsilon}\) & "drive away" & \(\rightarrow\) & saríyà-kāt \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & "judge" & 23. \\
\hline \(s\) s̄b \({ }^{\text {c }}\) & "write" & \(\rightarrow\) & sj̄bıd \({ }^{\text {a/ }}\) & "writer" & \\
\hline bùn \({ }^{\text { }}\) & "reap" & \(\rightarrow\) & būn \({ }^{\text {na }}\) & "reaper" & \\
\hline tòm \({ }^{\text {m }}\) & "work" & \(\rightarrow\) & tòm-tōm \({ }^{\text {na }}\) & "worker" & \\
\hline \(k i m^{m}\) & "tend flock" & \(\rightarrow\) & \(k \grave{\sim}\) & "herdsma & shep \\
\hline
\end{tabular}
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|c|c|c|}
\hline \(k p a ̀ r^{\varepsilon}\) & "lock" & \(\rightarrow\) & \(k p a ̄ r ı d^{\text {a }}\) & "lock-er" & \\
\hline \(g \mathrm{io}^{\text {s }}\) & "sleep" & \(\rightarrow\) & gbīsıd \({ }^{\text {a/ }}\) & "sleeper" & \\
\hline siàk \({ }^{\text {¢ }}\) & "believe" & \(\rightarrow\) & siààkıd \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & "believer" & \\
\hline iānk \({ }^{\text {¢ }}\) & "jump, fly" & \(\rightarrow\) & iān'ad \({ }^{\text {a/ }}\) & "flier" & 11.1.1 \\
\hline sùn \({ }^{\text {c }}\) & "help" & \(\rightarrow\) & sūpıd \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & "helper" & \\
\hline bà \({ }^{\text {® }}\) & "understand" & \(\rightarrow\) & \(b a ̄ \eta ı d^{\text {a }}\) & "wise man" & \\
\hline \(k \bar{\varepsilon} \eta^{\varepsilon /}\) & "go" & \(\rightarrow\) & \(k \bar{\varepsilon} n^{\text {na/ }}\) & "traveller" & 11.1.1 \\
\hline gàad \({ }^{\varepsilon}\) & "pass" & \(\rightarrow\) & tù̀n-gāt \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & "leader" & \\
\hline mう̄د| \({ }^{\text {/ }}\) & "proclaim" & \(\rightarrow\) & mכ̄I-mój̀n \({ }^{\text {na }}\) & "proclaimer" & \\
\hline màal \({ }^{\text {E }}\) & "sacrifice" & \(\rightarrow\) & màal-māan \({ }^{\text {na }}\) & "sacrificer" & \\
\hline pà'al \({ }^{\text {E }}\) & "teach" & \(\rightarrow\) & \(p a ̄ ' a n^{\text {na }}\) & "teacher" & \\
\hline sūgor \({ }^{\text {/ }}\) & "forbear" & \(\rightarrow\) & sūgoríd \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & "forgiver" & \\
\hline yō'um \({ }^{\text {m/ }}\) & "sing" & \(\rightarrow\) & yōom-yó'ùm \({ }^{\text {na }}\) & "singer" & \\
\hline & & & l yōom-yó'òmnı \(b^{\text {a }}\) & & \\
\hline sàn \({ }_{\sim}{ }^{\text {am }}\) & "spoil" & \(\rightarrow\) & \(p u\) 'à-sāñ'am \({ }^{\text {na }}\) & "adulterer" & \\
\hline & & & pư'à-sāñ̃'amıdıba & & \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

Pattern H Fusion Verbs 7.3.1 11.1, which delete the H toneme of the stem in the Dynamic Imperfective, show the same form for the agent noun:
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|c|c|}
\hline \(n a \bar{e}{ }^{+/}\) & "finish" & \(\rightarrow\) & \(n a ̄ a d^{\text {a/ }}\) & "someone who doesn't give up easily" WK \\
\hline \(d i e^{+/}\) & "receive" & \(\rightarrow\) & \(d i ̀ \partial d^{\text {a/ }}\) & "receiver" \\
\hline nwà' \({ }^{+}\) & "cut wood" & \(\rightarrow\) & ñwā'ad \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & "woodcutter" \\
\hline gbāñ'e+/ & "catch" & \(\rightarrow\) & zīm-gbán'àd \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & "fisherman" \\
\hline \(p i e^{+/}\) & "wash" & \(\rightarrow\) & pīəd \({ }^{\text {a/ }}\) & "washer" \\
\hline fāeñ \({ }^{+/}\) & "save" & \(\rightarrow\) & fāand \({ }^{\text {a/ }}\) & "saviour" WK \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

The NT/KB have faangid for "saviour"; see 18.
3 -mora stems in -s consistently drop the \(-d\) in the sg and cb :

\(N \bar{J}-\) dí'ə̀s \({ }^{\text {a }}\) represents the Ghanaian English "linguist." A chief does not directly address his people on formal occasions; the "linguist" speaks on his behalf. The custom is by no means confined to the region of the old Mossi-Dagomba states, where the chiefs were originally foreign invaders who may once have actually needed interpreters 1.1, but is a well-known feature of Akan culture. In Ghana, "linguist" typically refers to an Akan chief's spokesman or herald, the okyeame. The NT/KB use Wínà'am nó-dí'̇̀sa "God's linguist" for "prophet."

Some 2-mora stems also irregularly drop the -d in the sg and cb:
\begin{tabular}{lllll} 
zà \(b^{\varepsilon}\) & "fight" & \(\rightarrow\) & \begin{tabular}{l} 
zàb-zàb \({ }^{\text {a }}\) \\
gbān-záb
\end{tabular} & \begin{tabular}{l} 
"warrior" \\
"leather-beater,
\end{tabular} \\
tìs & & & & \begin{tabular}{l} 
leather-worker"
\end{tabular} \\
sj̀s \(^{\varepsilon}\) & "give" & "beg" & \(\rightarrow\) & tis \(^{\text {a }}\)
\end{tabular}

Stems in -mm-drop the \(-d\) - throughout; such nouns may use \(r^{\varepsilon} \mid a^{+}\)Class suffixes instead of \({ }^{\mathrm{a}} \mid b^{\mathrm{a}} \underline{9.3 .1 .1}\) (cf Invariable Verbs in \(n n / I r(r)\) below):
dàm \({ }^{m} \quad\) "shake" \(\quad \rightarrow \quad\)\begin{tabular}{cl} 
dàm-dām \\
dàm-dām \(m^{m \varepsilon}\)
\end{tabular}\(\quad\)\begin{tabular}{l} 
"shaker" \\
\((\) dipf dàmmıda)
\end{tabular}

The \(n n\)-stem sùn \({ }^{\text {ne }}\) "bow the head" 6.2.1 likewise drops \(-d\)-:
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|c|c|}
\hline sùn \({ }^{\text {ne }}\) & "bow head" & & \begin{tabular}{l}
sūnna \\
pl sūnnıba \({ }^{\text {a }}\) \\
cb sùn-
\end{tabular} & \begin{tabular}{l}
"someone who goes about with head bowed" \\
"deep thinker, close observer" WK \\
Contrast dipf sùnnıd \({ }^{\text {a }}\)
\end{tabular} \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

It does not seem possible to form agent nouns from 3-mora verb stems in \(-* g\) unless the consonant is either deleted or has assimilated with the root final consonant as \(-k-\) or \(-\eta-\). All exceptions I have discovered show forms with irregularly deleted \(-* g\)-:
\[
\begin{array}{lll}
\text { yādıg } g^{\varepsilon /} \text { "scatter" } & \rightarrow \bar{a} t^{a /} & \text { technical term for a } \\
& & \text { particular participant } \\
& \text { in a housebuilding } \\
& \text { ritual }
\end{array}
\]

Various irregular formations in my materials include:
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|c|c|}
\hline \multirow[t]{2}{*}{\(t \bar{\varepsilon} k^{\varepsilon /}\)} & \multirow[t]{2}{*}{"pull"} & \(\rightarrow\) & \({ }_{\sim}{ }^{\text {niolték }}{ }^{\text {a }}\) & "rope-puller" \\
\hline & & \multicolumn{3}{|c|}{pl \(\sim_{\sim}^{\text {niol-tékid }}\) dı \(b^{\text {a }}\)} \\
\hline nว̀ \({ }^{\text {® }}\) & "love" & \(\rightarrow\) & \(n \grave{n ı}{ }^{\text {a }}\) & "lover" Tones aberrant \\
\hline ti'əb \({ }^{\text {c }}\) & "heal" & \(\rightarrow\) & ti'əb \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & "healer" \\
\hline & & & Tones aberra primary, and dibbù "magic t & e noun is probably oanword (cf Hausa cery"; ultimately from n) "art of medicine") \\
\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}{lllll} 
siilım & "cite proverbs" & \(\rightarrow\) & \(\operatorname{sïin}^{\text {na }}\)
\end{tabular}\(\quad\) "speaker of proverbs"

Invariable Verbs with stems ending in vowels or in the plosives \(g b\) add - \(d\) - to form the agent noun stem:
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|c|c|}
\hline ziñ 'iya & "be sitting down" & \(\rightarrow\) & zin' \({ }^{\prime} \mathrm{id}^{\text {a }}\) & "sitter" \\
\hline \(z i '{ }^{\text {ya }}\) & "be standing still" & \(\rightarrow\) & \(z r^{\top} \partial d^{\text {a }}\) & "stander" \\
\hline \multirow[t]{3}{*}{\(m i^{+}\)} & \multirow[t]{3}{*}{"know"} & \multirow[t]{3}{*}{\(\rightarrow\)} & mi \({ }^{\text {ida/ }}\) & "knower" \\
\hline & & & gbàn-míid \({ }^{\text {a/ }}\) & "scribe" NT \\
\hline & & & & ("book-knower") \\
\hline \(z i ̄+\) & "not know" & \(\rightarrow\) & \(z i ̄ '\left(d^{\text {a/ }}\right.\) & "ignorant person" \\
\hline sō'eya/ & "own" & \(\rightarrow\) & sō'ud \({ }^{\text {a/ }}\) & "owner" \\
\hline sכ̄ñ' \(\mathrm{e}^{\text {ya/ }}\) & "be better than" & \(\rightarrow\) & sכ̄n \(\sim^{\prime} \mathrm{d}^{\mathrm{a} / \mathrm{pl}}\) s & 9.3.1 \\
\hline dīgıyal & "be lying down" & \(\rightarrow\) & \(d i ̄ g ı d^{\text {a/ }}\) & "lier-down" \\
\hline īgıya/ & "be kneeling" & \(\rightarrow\) & igıd \({ }^{\text {a/ }}\) & "kneeler" \\
\hline vābıya/ & "be lying prone" & \(\rightarrow\) & vābıd \({ }^{\text {a/ }}\) & "lier prone" \\
\hline làbıya & "be crouching" & \(\rightarrow\) & \(l a ̄ b ı d^{\text {a }}\) & "croucher in hiding" \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

Those with stems in \(n n \| r(r)\) drop the \(-d\) formant throughout, and thus show the same stem as the finite verb, with gemination as in the verb:


Agent nouns from stems in I \(r\) may use \(r^{\varepsilon} \mid a^{+}\)Class suffixes, thus falling together with the forms of the Dynamic Deverbal Adjectives 9.3.1.1.

There are variant formations with
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|c|c|}
\hline \(k i s^{\text {a/ }}\) & "hate" & \(\rightarrow\) & \(k i \bar{s}{ }^{\text {a/ }}\) or \(k i \bar{s} L^{\text {d }}{ }^{\text {a/ }}\) & "hater" \\
\hline tèn \(r^{\text {a }}\) & "remember" & \(\rightarrow\) & \(t E \bar{\sim} r ı d^{\text {a }}\) & "rememberer" \\
\hline \multirow[t]{3}{*}{\(g u ̄ r^{\text {a/ }}\)} & "be on guard" & \(\rightarrow\) & gūrıd \({ }^{\text {a/ }}\) & "guard" \\
\hline & & & gū'uda/ & "guard" \\
\hline & & & \(z a ̀ '-n \overline{-g u ́ r ~}{ }^{\text {a }}\) & "gatekeeper" \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

\subsection*{13.1.1.2 Deverbal Adjectives}

\subsection*{13.1.1.2.1 Dynamic}

In principle these adjectives have the same stem as the Agent Noun but with different class suffixes; however, Dynamic Deverbal 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 pre-modifier.

When used without a preceding noun cb, Dynamic Deverbal Adjective forms have the meaning of Agent Nouns:
\[
\text { kūvdír }{ }^{\varepsilon} \text { pl kūvdá }{ }^{+} \quad \text { "killer" }=k \bar{u} \cup d^{\mathrm{a} /} \mathrm{pl} \text { kūvdí } b^{\mathrm{a}}
\]

With a preceding cb the meanings differ:
```

pu'à-kūod}\mp@subsup{}{}{\textrm{a}/

```
pú'à-kōodír \({ }^{\varepsilon}\)

\footnotetext{
"woman-killer, killer of women"
"woman killer, murderous woman"
}

It is thus not useful to cite Deverbal Adjectives in isolation, but only in combination with a preceding modified noun combining form.
With Variable Verbs:
2 -mora stems all retain the \(* d\).


3-mora stems in \(* g\) drop -d in all cases except where the \({ }^{*} g\) derivational suffix is deleted in the Dynamic Imperfective, whether by regular rule 6.3.1 or otherwise 11.1.1. The dropping of \(-d\) is thus much more consistent than in agent nouns.
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|c|c|}
\hline gīlıg \({ }^{\text {¢/ }}\) & "go around" & \(\rightarrow\) & pu'à-gīnníg \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & "prostitute" \\
\hline sūeñ \({ }^{+/}\) & "anoint" & \(\rightarrow\) &  & "anointing oil" \\
\hline \(t u ̄ / ı g^{\varepsilon /}\) & "heat up" & \(\rightarrow\) & būn-tólıgìr \({ }^{\text {c }}\) & "heater, thing for heating" \\
\hline \(p\) ¢̀ııg \({ }^{\text {¢ }}\) & "whiten" & \(\rightarrow\) & bōn-pélıgìr \({ }^{\text {c }}\) & "whitening thing, whitener" \\
\hline \(y a ̄ d ı g^{\varepsilon /}\) & "scatter" & \(\rightarrow\) & būn-yátì \({ }^{\varepsilon}\) & "thing for scattering" cf agent noun yātal (above) \\
\hline jāan \(k^{\varepsilon /}\) & "fly, jump" & \(\rightarrow\) & būn-íáñodì \({ }^{\text {c }}\) & "flying creature" \\
\hline pàk \({ }^{\text {® }}\) & "surprise" & \(\rightarrow\) & y \(\bar{l}\)-pákìr \({ }^{\text {e }}\) & "disaster" \\
\hline \(t \bar{\varepsilon} k^{\varepsilon /}\) & "pull" & \(\rightarrow\) & \(\sim_{\sim}^{n w i ̄-t \varepsilon ́ k i ̀ r ~}{ }^{\text {e }}\) & "rope for pulling with" \\
\hline \(k \bar{\varepsilon} \eta^{\varepsilon /}\) & "go" & \(\rightarrow\) & \(b u ̀ 力-k \bar{\varepsilon} n n i ́ r{ }^{\varepsilon}\) & "donkey that doesn't sit still" \\
\hline
\end{tabular}
\begin{tabular}{lllll} 
sùn & "help" & \(\rightarrow\) & būn-súnìr & "helpful thing" \\
\(n \grave{\eta^{\varepsilon}}\) & "love" & \(\rightarrow\) & bì-nכ̀nır &
\end{tabular}

3-mora stems in -m retain the - \(d\), forming the consonant cluster -mm-:
\[
\text { sàn'am } \quad \text { "destroy" } \rightarrow \quad \text { bù-sāñ'ammır } \quad \begin{aligned}
& \text { "goat for destruction, } \\
& \text { scapegoat" WK }
\end{aligned}
\]

3-mora stems in -s all drop the -d:
\[
\begin{aligned}
& \text { pèlıs }{ }^{\varepsilon} \quad \text { "sharpen" } \rightarrow \quad \text { būn-pélısìr }{ }^{\varepsilon} \quad \text { "sharpening thing" }
\end{aligned}
\]

4-mora stems (all examples KT) all drop -d (whereas agent nouns drop stem-final -m):
\[
\begin{aligned}
& \text { siilım }{ }^{\mathrm{m}} \quad \text { "cite proverbs" } \\
& \rightarrow \quad b u ̄ n-s i ́ i l u ́ \eta^{2} \quad \text { "thing relating to proverbs" } \\
& \text { pò'alım }{ }^{\mathrm{m}} \text { "harm" } \rightarrow \text { nīn-pó'alìn }{ }^{a} \quad \text { "harmful person" } \\
& \text { pu'à-pò'alína "harmful woman" }
\end{aligned}
\]
\[
\begin{aligned}
& \text { pư'à-zàanssún }{ }^{3} \text { "dreamy woman" }
\end{aligned}
\]

The adjectives associated with Adjectival Verbs are not deverbal; Dynamic Deverbal Adjectives from Dynamic Invariable Verbs show the same stem as the Agent Noun 13.1.1.1:
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|c|}
\hline dīgıya/ & "be lying" \(\rightarrow\) &  & "donkey that lies down all the time" \\
\hline vābıya/ & "be prone" \(\rightarrow\) &  & "donkey that always lies prone" \\
\hline ziñ \({ }_{\sim}{ }^{\text {ya }}\) & "be sitting" \(\rightarrow\) & \(k u ̄ g-z i n \sim n^{\prime} i d i r^{\varepsilon}\) & "stone for sitting on" (i.e. not a būgur \({ }^{\varepsilon} \mathrm{WK}\) ) \\
\hline \(z \bar{a}_{\sim} l^{\text {la/ }}\) & "be holding" \(\rightarrow\) & nう̄-zán~ \({ }^{\text {l }}\) pl nj̄-zánlla+ & "hen for holding" \\
\hline d \(\bar{\varepsilon} \mathrm{l}^{\mathrm{l}} /\) & "be leaning" \(\rightarrow\) & \begin{tabular}{l}
nīn-d́́l| \\
nīn-déllà \({ }^{+}\)
\end{tabular} & "person you can lean on" WK \\
\hline & \(\rightarrow\) & \begin{tabular}{l}
\(k u ̀ g-\left.d \bar{\varepsilon}\right|^{\mid \varepsilon /}\) \\
pl kùg-dēllá+
\end{tabular} & "chair for leaning on" \\
\hline gòla & "be hanging" & & \\
\hline & \(\rightarrow\) & būn-gúl \({ }^{\text {E }}\) pl būn-gúllà \({ }^{+}\) & "thing for suspending" \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

\section*{13．1．1．2．2 Resultative}

Resultative Deverbal Adjectives are only derived from Variable Verbs with finite Resultative forms 22．2．2．1．Almost all such verbs are either intransitive or Patientive Ambitransitive 23．1，and the adjectives are not passive participles，but express resulting states．

There are no Resultative Adjectives from Stance Verb roots meaning e．g． ＂seated＂，＂standing＂or from Variable Verbs used passively e．g．＂eaten．＂

It is not clear how far the formation is productive．All my examples are from primary verbs，with no pairs like＂whitened＂beside＂white．＂

The formant is－lım－．It either deletes a preceding derivational suffix or is a formation made from roots alone；all examples show－lım after a CVV root．For the flexion see 10．2．
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|c|c|}
\hline kpi \({ }^{+}\) & ＂die＂ & \(\rightarrow\) & kpiilún \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & ＂dead＂ \\
\hline gēn \({ }^{+}\) & ＂get tired＂ & \(\rightarrow\) & gēeñlón \({ }^{\text {² }}\) & ＂tired＂ \\
\hline \(p \varepsilon^{\prime} \varepsilon^{\varepsilon}\) & ＂fill＂ & \(\rightarrow\) & pè＇عاט́n \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & ＂full＂ \\
\hline kj \({ }^{+}\) & ＂break＂ & \(\rightarrow\) & kכ̀ว \({ }^{\text {án }}\) & ＂broken＂ \\
\hline \(y \grave{\varepsilon}^{+}\) & ＂wear＂ & \(\rightarrow\) & yèعlúp & ＂worn＂（of a shirt） \\
\hline yj\({ }^{+}\) & ＂close＂ & \(\rightarrow\) & yว̀ว & ＂closed＂ \\
\hline pò＇alım \({ }^{\text {m }}\) & ＂harm＂ & \(\rightarrow\) & pò＇alón & ＂damaged＂ \\
\hline àeñ \({ }^{+}\) & ＂tear＂ & \(\rightarrow\) & àañlóp & ＂torn＂ \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

\section*{13．1．1．3 Instrument Nouns}

Instrument Nouns can be created at will by my informants whenever semantically appropriate from Variable and Dynamic Invariable Verbs，so long as the Dynamic Deverbal 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|c|}
\hline \(k \overline{0}^{+}\) & ＂kill＂ & \(\rightarrow\) & Kūvdín \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & ＂thing for killing with＂ \\
\hline ら＋ & ＂tie＂ & \(\rightarrow\) &  & ＂belt＂（＂waist－tying thing＂） \\
\hline \(d \bar{v} g^{\varepsilon}\) & ＂cook＂ & \(\rightarrow\) & dūgudín \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & ＂cooking utensil＂ \\
\hline \(s \overline{]^{\varepsilon}}\) & ＂write＂ & \(\rightarrow\) & sōbıdín \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & ＂writing implement＂ \\
\hline \(k p a ̀ r^{\varepsilon}\) & ＂lock＂ & \(\rightarrow\) & kpārıdın \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & ＂thing for locking＂ \\
\hline ñwà＇\({ }^{+}\) & ＂cut wood＂ & \(\rightarrow\) & ñwā＇adıク \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & ＂axe＂ \\
\hline \(p i e^{+/}\) & ＂wash self＂ & \(\rightarrow\) & pīədín \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & ＂thing for washing oneself＂ \\
\hline sò \({ }^{+}\) & ＂bathe＂ & \(\rightarrow\) & sūvdıワ \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & ＂sponge＂ \\
\hline \(g \bar{ว} s^{\varepsilon}\) & ＂look＂ & \(\rightarrow\) & nīn－gótì \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & ＂mirror＂ \\
\hline & & & nīn－gótis \({ }^{\text {c }}\) & ＂spectacles＂［nīn－＂eye＂］ \\
\hline
\end{tabular}
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|c|c|}
\hline \(b u ̀{ }^{\varepsilon}\) & "plant" & \(\rightarrow\) & \(b u ̄ t ı \eta^{\text {a }} 2.4\) & "cup" (in general; originally just "seed cup") \\
\hline pİəs \({ }^{\varepsilon /}\) & "clean" & \(\rightarrow\) & pīəsín \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & "cleaning implement" \\
\hline \(k u ̀ \theta{ }^{\varepsilon}\) & "sell" & \(\rightarrow\) & kūөsıワ \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & "professional salesperson" \\
\hline dā' \({ }^{+/}\) & "push" & \(\rightarrow\) & dā'adín \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & "pusher (person or thing)" \\
\hline zìn'jya & "be sitting" & \(\rightarrow\) & zīn'idın \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & "thing for sitting on" \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

\subsection*{13.1.1.4 Imperfective Gerunds}

Relational Verbs along with those Dynamic Invariable Verbs with stems in -II \(-n n-r(r) 11.2 .1\) make derived abstract nominals by adding the suffix \(-m\) - to the stem. These forms almost all belong to the \(m^{\mathrm{m}}\) Class. Vowel-stems add -lım-, where the -/may represent historical *K already assimilated to the preceding consonant in the stems in \(-I I-n n-r(r)\) and otherwise appearing as \(-y\) - before -a 11.2 .
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|c|c|}
\hline & \(s \bar{U}^{\prime} \mathrm{e}^{\text {ya/ }}\) & "own" & \(\rightarrow\) & sū'olím \({ }^{\text {m }}\) \\
\hline & \(m i^{+}\) & "know" & \(\rightarrow\) & mitilim \({ }^{\text {m }}\) \\
\hline & \(z i ̄+\) & "not know" & \(\rightarrow\) & zī'límm \({ }^{\text {m }}\) \\
\hline & àeñ \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & "be something" & \(\rightarrow\) & àañlím \({ }^{\mathrm{m}}\) \\
\hline & \(b \grave{\varepsilon}^{+}\) & "be somewhere" & \(\rightarrow\) & bėllím \({ }^{\text {m }}\) \\
\hline & kā'e \({ }^{+}\) & "not be" & \(\rightarrow\) & kā'alím \({ }^{\text {m }}\) \\
\hline & sכָn'e \({ }^{\text {ya/ }}\) & "be better than" & & has no gerund \\
\hline & \(m \bar{r}{ }^{\text {a/ }}\) & "have" & \(\rightarrow\) & mōrím \({ }^{\text {m }}\) \\
\hline & tāral & "have" & \(\rightarrow\) & tārím \({ }^{\text {m }}\) \\
\hline & nār \({ }^{\text {a/ }}\) & "be necessary" & \(\rightarrow\) & nārím \({ }^{\text {m }}\) \\
\hline & nēnna/ & "envy" & \(\rightarrow\) & nह̄nním \({ }^{\text {m }}\) \\
\hline & \(w \bar{\varepsilon} n^{\text {na/ }}\) & "resemble" & \(\rightarrow\) & \(w \bar{\varepsilon} n n i m^{\mathrm{m}}\) [?? misheard for wènním \({ }^{\mathrm{m}}\) ] \\
\hline & \(\sin ^{\text {na/ }}\) & "be silent" & \(\rightarrow\) & sīnním \({ }^{\text {m }}\) \\
\hline & d̄̄ıla/ & "accompany" & \(\rightarrow\) & dこ̄llímm \\
\hline & zāñla/ & "hold in the hand" & \(\rightarrow\) & zānllím \({ }^{\text {m }}\) \\
\hline & d \(\bar{\varepsilon} \mathrm{l}^{\text {a/ }}\) & "be leaning" (of a person) & \(\rightarrow\) &  \\
\hline & \(g u ̄ r^{\text {a/ }}\) & "guard" & \(\rightarrow\) & gūrím \({ }^{\text {m }}\) \\
\hline & tėn \(r^{\text {a }}\) & "remember" & \(\rightarrow\) &  \\
\hline & & & & tĒnrím \({ }^{\mathrm{m}}\) [?? misheard for tènrím \({ }^{\mathrm{m}}\) ] \\
\hline But & \(k i s^{a /}\) & "hate" & \(\rightarrow\) & kísòg \({ }^{\text {a }}\) \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

Unlike the adjectives associated with Adjectival Verbs, these forms obey the tonal rules for gerund formation, and are Pattern \(L\) when derived from Pattern \(L\) verbs; the third-mora \(L\) tone confirms that these are in fact \(m\)-stems 7.2.2.

Only Imperfective Gerunds from Dynamic verbs can be used in the immediate future construction with bj̀ \(d^{a}\) "want" 12.1.1.

Variable Verbs which have a Dynamic Imperfective form which has become an independent Descriptive Verb lexeme may also form Imperfective Gerunds; however, when formed from Pattern \(L\) verbs they do not show the third-mora \(H\) toneme:

\author{
bう̀วdım \({ }^{\mathrm{m}}\) \\ gว̀วndım \({ }^{m}\) \\ ż̀tım \({ }^{m}\)
}

```

contrast the Perfective Gerund bj}\mp@code{b}\mp@subsup{}{}{~}\mathrm{ "seeking"
"wandering" (gjָ~~
"fear" [M̀ zót n\overline{\varepsilon} "I'm afraid."]
contrast zכ̄כg` "running"

```

This probably simply means that the stems do not contain the formant -m-and have only three morae; compare the abstract nouns dàalım \({ }^{m}\) "masculinity", pò'alım \({ }^{m}\) "femininity" alongside dàalím \({ }^{\mathrm{m}}\) "male sex organs", pò'alím \({ }^{\mathrm{m}}\) "female sex organs" and biilím \({ }^{\mathrm{m}}\) "childhood" 13.1.2, and the variant forms of Resultative Adjectives which lack the \(-m\) - of the stem 10.2.

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 *womdugo.

Unequivocal Imperfective Gerund forms with -m-derived from almost all agentive verbs occur as pre-modifiers 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 Invariable Verbs with stems in \(-I I-n n-r(r)\) are identical to their usual Imperfective Gerunds:
\begin{tabular}{llllll}
\(m \bar{r}^{+}\) & "know" & \(\rightarrow\) & mī'ilím-tāa= & "partner in knowledge" & \\
\(z \bar{l}^{+}\) & "not know" & \(\rightarrow\) & zī'lím-tāa= & "partner in ignorance" & \\
\(b \grave{c}^{+}\) & "exist" & \(\rightarrow\) & bèllím-tāa= & "partner in existence" & WK \\
dj̄la/ & "be with" & \(\rightarrow\) & dj̄llím-tāa= & "fellow-companion" &
\end{tabular}

Forms from Variable Verbs are made with -m-added to the stem seen in the Dynamic Deverbal Adjective, but have the gerund tone pattern of Pattern L from Pattern L verbs, with H on the last vocalic mora:
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|c|c|}
\hline \(m \grave{\varepsilon}^{+}\) & "build" & \(\rightarrow\) & mèzdím-tāa= & "fellow-builder" \\
\hline \(d i^{+}\) & "eat" & \(\rightarrow\) & ditím-tāa= & "messmate" \\
\hline \(p \bar{v}^{+}\) & "share" & \(\rightarrow\) & pūvdím-tāa= & "fellow-sharer" \\
\hline kpغ̀n \({ }^{\prime}+\) & "enter" & \(\rightarrow\) & kpèñ'عdím-tāa= & "fellow-resident" \\
\hline
\end{tabular}
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|c|c|}
\hline \(z z^{\text {a }}{ }^{\varepsilon}\) & "fight" & \(\rightarrow\) & zàbıdím-tāa= & "enemy" \\
\hline \(d \overline{0} g^{\varepsilon}\) & "cook" & \(\rightarrow\) & dūgudím-tāa= & "fellow-cook" \\
\hline fān \({ }^{+}\) & "snatch" & \(\rightarrow\) & fāañdím-tāa= & "fellow-robber" \\
\hline tòm \({ }^{\text {m }}\) & "work" & \(\rightarrow\) & tòmmím-tāa= & "co-worker" \\
\hline pò'us \({ }^{\varepsilon}\) & "worship" & \(\rightarrow\) & pò'usím-tāa= & "fellow-worshipper" \\
\hline dìs \({ }^{\text {d }}\) & "feed" & \(\rightarrow\) & dìsím-tāa= & "fellow-feeder" \\
\hline sòn \({ }^{\text {c }}\) & "help" & \(\rightarrow\) & \[
\begin{aligned}
& \text { sùním-tāa= } \\
& \text { sùnıdím-tāa= }
\end{aligned}
\] & "fellow-helper" \\
\hline sinà \({ }^{\varepsilon}\) & "agree" & \(\rightarrow\) & sinàkím-tāa= & "fellow in agreement" \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

Stance Verbs may use -dım- or -lım- or even -nım-; the forms with -n- at least probably belong rather to the derived assume-stance Variable Verbs 13.2.1.1 with the usual loss of the formant \(-d\) - when a preceding derivational suffixe is retained.


For the irregular verb nว̀ \(\eta^{\varepsilon} \mathrm{WK}\) has two forms with different nuances 11.1.1
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|c|c|}
\hline nכ̀ \({ }^{\text {® }}\) & "love" & \(\rightarrow\) & nכ̀nılím-tāa= & "fellow liker" \\
\hline & & & nว̀mıdím-tāa= & "fellow lover" \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

\subsection*{13.1.1.5 Other Deverbal Formations}
-s- appears in a few concrete nouns derived from verbs:
\[
\begin{array}{lllll}
\text { dīgısá+ } & \text { "lairs" } & \leftarrow & \text { dīgıya/ } & \text { "be lying down" } \\
\text { dūvsá } & \text { "steps" } & \leftarrow & d \bar{v}^{+} & \text {"go up" }
\end{array}
\]
-m- derives nouns from verbal roots in
\begin{tabular}{lllll}
\(z \bar{\partial} \supset m^{\mathrm{m} \varepsilon}\) & "refugee" & cf & \(z^{+}\) & "run" \\
\(k p \grave{i} i m^{\mathrm{m} /}\) & "corpse" & cf & \(\mathrm{kpi}^{+}\) & "die"
\end{tabular}
-d- appears as an instrument noun formant instead of the usual -dım-in
tūөdır \({ }^{\varepsilon} \quad\) "mortar" \(\quad\) tu्रà \({ }^{+} \quad\) "grind in a mortar"
-b- possibly derives nouns from verbal roots in
\begin{tabular}{lllll} 
kpìibıg & "orphan" & cf & \(k^{2} i^{+}\) & "die" \\
dà'abır & "slave" & cf & \(d \grave{l}^{+}\) & "buy"
\end{tabular}

This -b may historically be connected with the stem of biig \({ }^{\text {a }}\) "child"; cf Gurmanche kpēbígā "orphan" with kpé "die" and bígā "child". Kusaal has no synchronic process to turn a root into a suffix, and both kpiib- and da'ab- would be possible root shapes themselves. However, there may be relics of such processes in
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|c|c|}
\hline bī-díbìn \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & "boy" & cf & Mooré bìríblá Kusaal dāú \({ }^{+}\) & \begin{tabular}{l}
"boy" \\
"man"
\end{tabular} \\
\hline bī-pón \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & "girl" & & Mooré bìpúglá Kusaal pu'āa & \begin{tabular}{l}
"girl" \\
"woman" ( \(\leftarrow\) *puaga)
\end{tabular} \\
\hline bïbıs \({ }^{\text {c }}\) & "small" plural & & bïla & "small" singular \\
\hline À-Sāan-dú \({ }^{+}\) & personal name & cf & \[
\begin{aligned}
& \text { sāanal } \\
& \text { dāu }{ }^{+}
\end{aligned}
\] & \begin{tabular}{l}
"stranger" \\
"man"
\end{tabular} \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

\subsection*{13.1.2 From Nominals}
-s- forms adjectives and cognate Adjectival Verbs.
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|c|c|}
\hline \begin{tabular}{l}
mā'asír \({ }^{\varepsilon}\) \\
mā'as \({ }^{\text {a/ }}\)
\end{tabular} & \begin{tabular}{l}
"cold, wet" \\
"be cold, wet"
\end{tabular} & cf & \(m a ̄ ' e^{+/}\) & "cool down" \\
\hline \(b u ̄ g u s i ́ r{ }^{\varepsilon}\) būgus \({ }^{\text {a/ }}\) & \begin{tabular}{l}
"soft" \\
"be soft"
\end{tabular} & cf & \(b \bar{u} k^{\varepsilon /}\) & "weaken" \\
\hline \(t \bar{b} b s_{i ́ r}{ }^{\varepsilon}\) \(t \bar{\varepsilon} b s^{\mathrm{a} /}\) & \begin{tabular}{l}
"heavy" \\
"be heavy"
\end{tabular} & cf & \(t \bar{z} b i g^{\varepsilon /}\) & "get heavy" \\
\hline
\end{tabular}
```

mìisug "sour" cf mi'ig}\mp@subsup{}{}{\Omega}\mathrm{  "get sour"
mi'isa

```
-d- (apart from its use to form deverbal nominals) features in a number of words where it has no evident derivational meaning:
```

    yügvdır
    lā'af
pl līgıdı+
pùgudıba

```
"hedgehog"
"cowrie"
"money" *lagid-
"father's sister"

It appears in a number of \({ }^{\mathrm{a}} \mid b^{\mathrm{a}}\) Class words where it is not found throughout the paradigm; so regularly in agent nouns from 3 -mora stems in -s- 13.1.1.1, but irregularly also in some words 9.3.1. In derivation compare
\begin{tabular}{lllll} 
Nàbıd \(d^{a}\) & "Nabdema" & but & Nàbır & "Nabit language" \\
Dàgáàd & "Dagaaba person" & \(=\) & Dagaare Dagao & \\
nīdıb \(b^{\mathrm{a} /}\) & "people" & \(=\) & Mooré nébà &
\end{tabular}
-m- appears in both concrete and abstract nouns, with no single common meaning:
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|c|c|c|}
\hline & bīəm \({ }^{\text {m }}\) & "enemy" & = & Mooré bézga & "bad, hostile" \\
\hline & tādım \({ }^{\mathrm{m} /}\) & "weak person" & cf & tàdıg \({ }^{\text {E }}\) & "become weak" \\
\hline & ānsín \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & "sister's child" & cf & ánsìb \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & "mother's brother" \\
\hline & yáapa & "grandchild" & cf & yáab \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & "grandparent" \\
\hline & \(\leftarrow\) *yāámgā & & & \(\leftarrow\) *yāágbā & \\
\hline & vúөŋ \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & "red kapok" & cf & vúer \({ }^{\text {¢ }}\) & "red kapok fruit" \\
\hline & \(\leftarrow * v u ̄ e ́ m g a ̄\) & & & \(\leftarrow * v u ̄\) égrī & \\
\hline & bi'isím \({ }^{\text {m }}\) & "milk" & cf & bi'isır \({ }^{\text {e }}\) & "breast" \\
\hline & yōgúm \({ }^{\text {ne }}\) & "camel" & & [ultimately \(\leftarrow\) B & er *a-ləqəm (Souag)] \\
\hline & gbīgım \({ }^{\text {n }}\) & "lion" & & & \\
\hline & zìlım \({ }^{\text {me }}\) & "tongue" & & & \\
\hline & ànrup & "boat" & & & \\
\hline & nā'am \({ }^{\text {m }}\) & "chiefship" & cf & nà'ab \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & "chief" \\
\hline cb & nà'am- & & & & \\
\hline & zōlımís \({ }^{\text {® }}\) & "foolishness" & cf & \(z \overline{l o g}{ }^{\text {/ }}\) & "fool" \\
\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
tàdımís \({ }^{\varepsilon} \quad\) "weakness" cf tādım \({ }^{\mathrm{m} /} \quad\) "weak person"
\(-m\) - is seen also in the adjectives
\begin{tabular}{llll} 
zùlun & "deep" & nyā̄lún & "wonderful" \\
yàlup & "wide" & nàron & "necessary"
\end{tabular}

As a second suffix added to adjectival stems -m- produces no change of meaning:
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|c|c|}
\hline nyèzsín \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & "self-confident" & cf & nуẏ̀ s \(^{\text {a }}\) & "be self-confident" \\
\hline vèñllín \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & "beautiful" & cf & \(v \underbrace{n}_{\sim} / l / g^{\text {a }}\) & "beautiful" \\
\hline mālısín \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & "pleasant" & cf & mālısíg \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & "pleasant" \\
\hline lāllín \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & "distant" & cf & lāllóg \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & "distant" \\
\hline
\end{tabular}
-Iım-derives abstract nouns from nominals. The -I- is perhaps the \(* K\) formant of Invariable Verbs 11.2 and may occur in some primary adjectives like
```

sābılíga "black" cf sj̄b}\mp@subsup{}{}{\varepsilon}\quad\mathrm{ "get dark"

```

However, there are no adjectives in -I- alongside these abstract nouns; this is true even in the case of parallel formations in simple -/- rather than -/ım-, like
\[
\begin{array}{lllll}
\text { dāu }{ }^{+} & \text {"man" } & \rightarrow & \text { dàalım } \mathrm{m} & \text { "masculinity" } \\
\text { pu्र'āa } & \text { "woman" } & \rightarrow & \text { pò'alım }
\end{array}
\]
versus dàalím \({ }^{m}\) "male sex organs", pù'alím \({ }^{m}\) "female sex organs", where the concrete meaning is presumably a metaphorical development from an original abstract sense, as with \(y a \bar{m} m^{\mathrm{m} /}\) "gall, common sense" \(\rightarrow\) "gall bladder" 9.1; cf the abstract sense of the parallel 4-mora stem formation biilím \({ }^{m}\) "childhood"; WK did not accept *biilım.

The suffix -/ım- constitutes the only exception to the rule that CVVC roots must appear as CVC allomorphs before a derivational suffix 6.1.1.2, and it can follow a preceding derivational suffix, even creating five-mora stems.
```

tītā'al\& "proud person" tr tītā'alım m "pride"
gin\etaa "short" giinnlímm
wj̄k> "long, tall"
sāana/ "guest, stranger" -> sáannìm}\mp@subsup{}{}{\textrm{m}}\quad\mathrm{ "strangerhood"
tīráàn}\mp@subsup{}{}{a}\quad\mathrm{ "neighbour" titráànnım
gīqa "short" 隹 gīllímm

```

\subsection*{13.2 Verbs}

Verbs have no derivational prefixes. All verb derivation is by suffixes, probably always added to roots rather than word stems. Clear meanings can often be recognised in suffixes, but there is no straightforward match of form and meaning.

Possible verb shapes are very constrained. Only two, three and four-mora stems occur. All four-mora stems end in \(m\), and CVVCm only occurs as CVV root \(+s \iota m\) or \(l ı m\), never CVVC root \(+m\). Some Adjectival Verbs have stems including the nominal derivational suffix seen in the corresponding adjective.

\subsection*{13.2.1 From Verbs}

\subsection*{13.2.1.1 From Stance Verbs}

Stance Verbs have derived Variable Verbs in \(-n^{\varepsilon} \underline{6.2 .1 .1}\) signifying "assume the stance" and in - \(\left.\right|^{\varepsilon}\) "make assume the stance"; all the \(-n^{\varepsilon}\) verbs are Pattern LO regardless, but the \(-^{\varepsilon}\) 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 \({ }^{\text {c }}\) & dīgılı \({ }^{\text {¢/ }}\) \\
\hline & vābıya/ & be lying prone & vàbın \({ }^{\varepsilon}\) & vābııl' \\
\hline & īgıyal & be kneeling & igın \({ }^{\varepsilon}\) & īgı \(\|^{\varepsilon /}\) \\
\hline & làbıya & be crouching hidden & làbın \({ }^{\varepsilon}\) & làbı \({ }^{\text { }}\) \\
\hline & ziñ ina & be sitting & ziñ \({ }_{\sim} i^{\varepsilon}\) & ziñ 'if \\
\hline & \(z i ' y^{\text {ya }}\) & be standing & \(z i ' ə n^{\varepsilon}\) & zi'əl \({ }^{\text {¢ }}\) \\
\hline & tijyal & be leaning (of thing) & ti'in \({ }^{\text {¢ }}\) & ti \(i^{\text {e/ }}\) \\
\hline WK & gว̄'eya/ & be looking up & \(g)^{\text {¢ }}\) ¢ \(n^{\varepsilon}\) & \\
\hline & sùr \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & have bowed head & sùn \({ }^{\text {n }}\) & sùn \({ }^{\text {ne }}\) [sic] \\
\hline & - & cover oneself & \(l i g ı n^{\varepsilon}\) & lìgı \({ }^{\text {E }}\) \\
\hline & - & perch (of bird) & zùen \({ }^{\text {c }}\) & zùel \({ }^{\text {¢ }}\) \\
\hline & - & perch (of bird) & yà'an \({ }^{\text { }}\) & yà'a/ \({ }^{\text {c }}\) \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

The Resultative 22.2.2.1 of zùe+ is used for "be perching":

Níin lā zúe nē. "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 suspended & \(g u ̀{ }^{\varepsilon}\) & \(g \grave{l}{ }^{\text {® }}\) \\
\hline tàbı \({ }^{\text {ya }}\) & be stuck to & tà \(b^{\varepsilon}\) & tàb \(\|^{\varepsilon}\) \\
\hline \(d \bar{\varepsilon} l^{\text {a/ }}\) & "be leaning" (person) & \(d \varepsilon l^{\prime} m^{m}\) & \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

\subsection*{13.2.1.2 Causatives}

Several derivational suffixes are found with a causative sense.
Patientive Ambitransitive verbs 23.1 frequently describe entry into a state. Such verbs frequently have no causative derivative.
-I- has been seen above as the causative suffix for Stance Verb roots; Verbs derived with \(-g\) - from nominal roots are usually Patientive Ambitransitives but may have separate causatives in -I- (see below 13.2.2.) Other roots forming causatives in -I- are
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|c|}
\hline \(g u \overline{r^{a /}}\) & "guard" & gū'ul \({ }^{\varepsilon /}\) & "put someone on guard" \\
\hline bāñ \({ }^{+}\) & "ride" & bāñ \({ }^{\text {a }}\) [ \({ }^{\text {d }}\) & "put someone on a horse/bicycle etc" \\
\hline zà \({ }^{\text {® }}\) & "fight" & zàbı \(\iota^{\varepsilon}\) & "cause to fight" \\
\hline du'àa & "bear, beget" & dò'a/ \({ }^{\text { }}\) & "make interest (of a loan)" \\
\hline \(y \grave{c}^{+}\) & "dress oneself" & yદ̀を \(\varepsilon^{\text {® }}\) & "dress another person" \\
\hline pid \({ }^{\text {E }}\) & "don hat/shoes/rings" & pil \({ }^{\text {c }}\) & "put hat/shoes/rings on another person" \\
\hline
\end{tabular}
-g- can be a causative or inchoative suffix with roots forming Invariable Verbs or intransitive Variable Verbs:
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|c|}
\hline dj̄ıla/ & "accompany" & \(d \bar{l} / \mathrm{g}^{\varepsilon /}\) & "make accompany" \\
\hline \(g \overline{\mathrm{ra}}{ }^{\text {a/ }}\) & "look up" DK & gう̄dıg \({ }^{\varepsilon /}\) & "make look up" DK \\
\hline zāñıla/ & "be holding" & zà \({ }^{\text {® }}\) & "pick up" \\
\hline tèn \(r^{\text {a }}\) & "remember" & tien \({ }^{+}\) & "bring to mind, remind" \\
\hline yùul \({ }^{\text {® }}\) & "swing" intransitive & yùlıg \({ }^{\text {c }}\) & "swing" transitive \\
\hline kj+ & "break" intransitive & \(k{ }^{\prime}{ }^{\prime} g^{\varepsilon}\) & "break" Pat. Ambitransitive \\
\hline
\end{tabular}
-s- is the usual causative suffix for Variable Verbs
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|c|}
\hline kpèn \({ }^{1+}\) & "enter" & \(k p \varepsilon \chi_{\sim}^{\prime} \varepsilon s^{\varepsilon}\) & "make enter" \\
\hline nie \({ }^{+}\) & "appear" & nè̇s \({ }^{\varepsilon}\) & "reveal" \\
\hline \(y i^{+}\) & "go/come out" & yīis \({ }^{\varepsilon /}\) or yīs \({ }^{\varepsilon}\) & "make go/come out" \\
\hline \(d i^{+}\) & "eat" & dìs \({ }^{\text {d }}\) & "feed" \\
\hline \(n \bar{u}{ }^{+}\) & "drink" & nüls \({ }^{\varepsilon /}\) & "make drink"; also nūlıg \({ }^{\text {g/ }}\) \\
\hline \(s i g{ }^{\varepsilon}\) & "go down" & sīgcs \({ }^{\text {/ }}\) & "lower" \\
\hline \(l{ }^{\text {che }}{ }^{\varepsilon}\) & "return" & \(l\) lèbıs \({ }^{\varepsilon}\) & "make return; answer" \\
\hline mu'àa \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & "suck" (of a baby) & mò'as \({ }^{\text {¢ }}\) & "give to suck" \\
\hline [Mooré tá & "arrive"] & tā'as \({ }^{\text {/ }}\) & "help to travel, walk" \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

It is also seen in
\begin{tabular}{llll}
\(z \bar{\varepsilon} m^{\text {ma/ }}\) & "be equal" & \(z \bar{\varepsilon}^{1} m ı s^{\varepsilon /}\) & "make equal" \\
\(k_{\text {piig }}{ }^{\varepsilon}\) & "go out (fire)" & kpìis \(^{\varepsilon}\) & "quench"
\end{tabular}
gūra/ "guard" has the causative \(\left.g \bar{u}^{\prime} u\right|^{\varepsilon / /}\) (cf gū'udala \({ }^{\mathrm{a} /}\), agent noun) but also has the derivative gū'us \({ }^{\varepsilon /}\) "take care, watch out"

\subsection*{13.2.1.3 Reverse Action}
-g-attached to dynamic verbal roots implies reversal:
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|c|}
\hline \(y \grave{z}^{+}\) & "dress oneself" & \(y \varepsilon ̇ \varepsilon g^{\varepsilon}\) & "undress oneself" \\
\hline pid \({ }^{\text {e }}\) & "put (hat etc) on" & pidıg \({ }^{\text {e }}\) & "take (hat etc) off" \\
\hline pil \({ }^{\text { }}\) & "put (hat etc) on s'one" & pilıg \({ }^{\text {e }}\) & "take (hat etc) off someone" \\
\hline ら+ & "tie up" &  & "untie" \\
\hline \(y^{+}\) & "close" & \(y)^{\prime} \mathrm{g}^{\text {® }}\) & "open" \\
\hline غ̇nd \({ }^{\varepsilon}\) & "block up" & غ̀ñ \({ }^{\text {che }}{ }^{\varepsilon}\) & "unblock" \\
\hline yà'al \({ }^{\text {¢ }}\) & "hang up" & yàk \({ }^{\text {c }}\) & "unhang" \\
\hline pà'al \({ }^{\text {¢ }}\) & "put on top" & pàk \({ }^{\text {c }}\) & "take off top" \\
\hline pibı \({ }^{\varepsilon}\) & "cover up" & pibıg \({ }^{\text {e }}\) & "uncover" \\
\hline (zū-píbìg \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & "hat") & & \\
\hline tàbıya & "be stuck to" & tàbıg \({ }^{\text {® }}\) & "unstick, get unstuck" \\
\hline là'as \({ }^{\text {¢ }}\) & "gather together" & lāk \({ }^{\text {c/ }}\) & "open" (eye, book) \\
\hline & & Mooré & lákè "un-stick together" \\
\hline & & Farefare & làkè "enlever, ouvrir" \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

Reversive -g- seems to be a peculiarity of the Western group within Oti-Volta; other Oti-Volta languages show alveolars in suffixes having this meaning: Konkomba pì:n "close" pì:rì "open", Moba Iwo "close" Iwot "open", Byali byá "close" byērá "open", Nawdm rów "has closed" rod "open." Proto-Bantu probably had both -vl- and -vk-, perhaps respectively transitive and intransitive. If there were two such suffixes in OtiVolta, it would be natural for the alveolar variant to be disfavoured in Western OtiVolta because of the adoption in that subgroup of -da as the regular Dynamic Imperfective flexion for almost all verbs capable of aspect flexion.

\subsection*{13.2.1.4 Other Deverbal Formations}
-s- may have a plural action sense:
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|c|}
\hline kj \({ }^{+}\) & "break" & kj̀'วs \({ }^{\text {¢ }}\) & "break several times" \\
\hline ton \({ }^{+}\) & "shoot" & tòn'כs & "hunt" \\
\hline pìə \({ }^{\text {c }}\) & "blow (flute etc)" & \(p \mathrm{c}\) ¢ \(\mathrm{s}^{\varepsilon}\) & "blow (wind)" \\
\hline & & pèbısım \({ }^{\text {m }}\) & "wind" \\
\hline làbıya & "crouch in hiding" & làbıs \({ }^{\text {¢ }}\) & "walk stealthily" \\
\hline vōea/ & "be alive" & \(v\) v̄'us \(^{\varepsilon /}\) & "breathe, rest" \\
\hline īānk \({ }^{\varepsilon /}\) & "fly, jump" & jāñ'as \({ }^{\text {¢/ }}\) & "leap, jump repeatedly" \\
\hline \(y a ̄ ' e^{+/}\) & "open mouth" &  & "open repeatedly" WK \\
\hline \(d i e^{+/}\) & "receive" & \(d i ̄ \partial s^{\varepsilon /}\) & "receive (many things)" \\
\hline
\end{tabular}
- \(\boldsymbol{g}\) - probably occurs with an inchoative meaning in the Base Forms of several irregular verbs 11.1.1, and also in
\[
\text { sכ̄ñ'e } e^{\text {ya/ }} \text { "be better than" } \quad \text { un'e }{ }^{+/} \text {"become better than" WK }
\]
-m-derives some Particle-Verbs 22.7.2:
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|c|c|}
\hline lèm & "again" & cf & \(l غ ̀ b^{\varepsilon}\) & "return" \\
\hline \multirow[t]{2}{*}{là'am} & "together" & cf & là'as \({ }^{\text {¢ }}\) & "gather together" \\
\hline & & also & là'am \({ }^{\text {m }}\) & "associate with", main verb \\
\hline dènım & "first" & cf & \(d \varepsilon \eta^{\varepsilon}\) & "go first" \\
\hline màlıgım & "again" & cf & & Toende malig "do again" \\
\hline
\end{tabular}
\(-\boldsymbol{g}\) - and \(-\boldsymbol{m}\) - occur with no clear meaning in
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|c|}
\hline fān \({ }^{+}\) & "rob, snatch" & fāeñ \({ }^{+/}\) & "save" (? "snatch back") \\
\hline lìə \({ }^{\text { }}\) & "become" & \(l\) lèbıg \({ }^{\text {¢ }}\) & "turn over" \\
\hline & & & Mooré lèbge "become" \\
\hline sכัn \({ }^{+}\) & "rub" & sūeñ \({ }^{+/}\) & "anoint" \\
\hline \(n \overline{]^{\varepsilon}}\) & "get fat" & nว̄bıg \({ }^{\varepsilon /}\) & "grow" (child, plant) \\
\hline \(n \bar{a}^{+}\) & "join" & \(n a ̄ e^{+/}\) & "finish"; compare \\
\hline \(k{ }^{\prime}{ }_{\sim} s^{\varepsilon}\) & "cough" & kj̀nsım \({ }^{\text {m }}\) & Hausa gamàa "join, finish" "cough" \\
\hline
\end{tabular}
\(-\boldsymbol{r}\) - appears in
\[
\begin{array}{ll}
\text { kābıř/ } & \text { "ask for admission" } \\
\text { sūgur } & \text { "forbear, be patient with" }
\end{array}
\]
\(K a \bar{b} \iota^{\varepsilon /}\) is probably connected with \(k a \bar{a} b^{\varepsilon /}\) "offer, invite", and Toende Kusaal has kábıs "frapper à la porte, informer, signaler." There seems to be no root *sūg-. Both words appear frequently in formulaic expressions 34 of a type which are often panregional and they may well be loanwords. The Agolle Kusaal verbs may be backformations from the nouns kābırí' and sūgurú \({ }^{+}\), in which the \(r ı / r v\) possibly originated in the equivalent of \(r^{\varepsilon} \mid a^{+}\)Class singular flexions 9.6.

\subsection*{13.2.2 From Nominals}
-g- derives many verbs from nominal roots, with the meaning "make/become ..." The same suffix occurs with verbal roots, where it is inchoative 13.2.1.4.
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|c|}
\hline nуう̄'วs \({ }^{\text {¢/ }}\) & "smoke" & nyū'e+/ & "set alight" \\
\hline nwiilg \({ }^{\text {a/ }}\) & "rope" & nwiil \({ }^{\text {¢/ }}\) & "make a rope" \\
\hline tādım \({ }^{\mathrm{m} /}\) & "weak person" & tàdıg \({ }^{\text {® }}\) & "become weak" \\
\hline kpì'a+ & "neighbour" & kpi' \({ }^{+}\) & "approach" \\
\hline \(z u ̄ r^{\varepsilon}\) & "hill" & zùe+ & "get higher, more" \\
\hline À-Tū \({ }^{\text {¢ }}\) & "Breech-Delivered" 35.2 & tùlıg \({ }^{\text {¢ }}\) & "invert" \\
\hline mā'asír \({ }^{\text {¢ }}\) & "cool, wet" & mā' \(\mathrm{e}^{+/}\) & "get cool, wet" \\
\hline & & ( \(m\) ā' \({ }^{\text {a }}\) 成 & "make cool, wet") \\
\hline būgusír \({ }^{\text {e }}\) & "soft" & \(b \overline{k^{\varepsilon /}}\) & "soften" \\
\hline \(t \overline{\mathrm{c}} \mathrm{lsicir}^{\varepsilon}\) & "heavy" & \(t \bar{\varepsilon} b g^{\varepsilon /}\) & "get/make heavy" \\
\hline \(g i \eta^{\text {a }}\) & "short" & gì \({ }^{\text {¢ }}\) & "scrimp" \\
\hline kpi'on & "strong" & \(k p \dot{\prime}^{\prime} \square^{\varepsilon}\) & "strengthen" \\
\hline \(v \overline{0} r^{\varepsilon /}\) & "alive" & \(v \overline{0}^{\prime} \mathrm{vg}^{\varepsilon /}\) & "make/come alive" \\
\hline pj̀ \({ }^{\text {dig }}{ }^{\text {a }}\) & "few" & pذ'วg \({ }^{\text {® }}\) & "diminish; denigrate" \\
\hline pìlıg \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & "white" & \(p \mathrm{c} / \iota g^{\varepsilon}\) & "whiten" \\
\hline sābılíg \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & "black" & sj̄bıg \({ }^{\text {¢ }}\) & "blacken" \\
\hline nīn-múa+ & \begin{tabular}{l}
"concentration" \\
("red eye")
\end{tabular} & \(m u ' e^{+}\) & "redden" \\
\hline \(k \bar{u} d u g{ }^{\text {a }}\) & "old" & kùdıg \({ }^{\text {e }}\) & "shrivel up, dry out, age" \\
\hline sòn \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & "good" & sùn \({ }^{\text {c }}\) & "help" \\
\hline tūológ \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & "hot" & \(t \bar{l} / \mathrm{g}^{\varepsilon /}\) & "heat up" \\
\hline mi'isug \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & "sour" & mi'ig \({ }^{\text {¢ }}\) & "turn sour" \\
\hline zùlı \({ }^{\text {² }}\) & "deep" & zùlıg \({ }^{\text {¢ }}\) & "deepen" \\
\hline lāllúg & "far" & lālıg \({ }^{\text {/ }}\) & "get to be far, make far" \\
\hline
\end{tabular}
\begin{tabular}{llll} 
màuk \(k^{\nu}\) & "crumpled up" & mà \(k^{\varepsilon}\) & "crumple up" \\
\(d \bar{\varepsilon} \varepsilon \eta^{a}\) & "first" & \(d \varepsilon \eta^{\varepsilon}\) & "precede" \\
\(n \varepsilon ̀ \varepsilon r^{\varepsilon}\) & "clear, empty" & nìe & "appear"
\end{tabular}

With the addition of \(-m\) as a second derivational suffix:
wàun \({ }^{\text {² }} \quad\) "wasted" \(\quad\) wàpım \({ }^{m}\) "waste away"
-I- can make causatives from nominal roots, often corresponding to an intransitive or Patientive Ambitransitive verb with derivational - \(g\)-:
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|c|}
\hline mā' \({ }^{+/}\) & "get cool" & mā'alı/ & "make cool" \\
\hline pūn' \({ }^{+/}\) & "rot" &  & "cause to rot" \\
\hline nie \({ }^{+}\) & "appear" & nèz \({ }^{\text {® }}\) & "reveal" \\
\hline  & "get wet" & wō'ol \(\|^{\varepsilon /}\) & "make wet" \\
\hline nyá'an \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & "behind" & nyā'al \({ }^{\text {¢/ }}\) & "leave behind" \\
\hline \(g \varepsilon \overline{o g}{ }^{\text { }}\) & "space between legs" & gēz \(\left.\right|^{\varepsilon /}\) & "put between legs" Tones sic \\
\hline \(l i k^{\text {a }}\) & "darkness" & lìgı \({ }^{\text {E }}\) & "cover up" \\
\hline
\end{tabular}
-lım- derives verbs from nominal roots, meaning "act as ..." or "make/become ...":
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|c|}
\hline \(p u^{\prime} \bar{a}^{\text {a }}\) & "woman" & pò'alım \({ }^{\text {m }}\) & "cook" \\
\hline pòn'วr \({ }^{\text {e }}\) & "cripple" & pòn'دlım \({ }^{\text {m }}\) & "cripple, get crippled" \\
\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" & bùgolım \({ }^{\text {m }}\) & "cast lots" \\
\hline & & & "cast lots" \\
\hline
\end{tabular}
\(-\boldsymbol{m}\) - appears deriving a verb from a nominal root in
\[
n \bar{\varepsilon} \varepsilon r^{\varepsilon /} \quad \text { "millstone" } \quad n \bar{\varepsilon} \varepsilon m^{\mathrm{m} /} \quad \text { "grind with a millstone" }
\]
-s- has a factitive sense in
\[
\text { zưà }+\quad \text { "friend" } \quad \text { zùes }{ }^{\varepsilon} \quad \text { "befriend" }
\]

\section*{14 Derivational Prefixes}

Kusaal freely forms compounds. In a compound, the non-final element is itself part of the paradigm of a nominal word, the "combining form." There is Apocope between the combining form and the following stem, so that many different twomember consonant clusters may occur across the junction. In this grammar combining forms are regarded as words rather than word fragments, and accordingly compounds are further treated under Syntax 19.6.

There are also many noun and a few adjective stems which have an element preceding the root which does not form part of the paradigm of any nominal. Such elements will be called nominal prefixes. No finite verb form shows a prefix. Morphologically, nominal prefixes are simply part of a complex stem, and have no identifiable meaning of their own. Most fall into a relatively few phonological types, with limited possibilities for vowel distinctions and for tones. Thus
\[
\begin{array}{ll}
\text { tītā'ar } & \text { "big" } \\
\text { tītā'am } \\
\text { bù-tītā'ar } & \text { "multitude" }
\end{array}
\]

Nominal prefixes have either M or L tonemes throughout. As a group, they differ in tonal behaviour from Combining Forms 7.2.4. 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; ı \(u\) become \(i u\) by ATR harmony before \(i u\) of an initial root mora. There is also a complex reduplicated type CVsın or CVIın. Stems with nominal prefixes are generally otherwise simple in structure, without derivational suffixes.

Nominal prefixes are derivational, in the sense that they are part of the stem, but even where parallel stems without prefixes or with different prefixes exist, there are no regular processes relating the various forms, unlike the cases of the manneradverb deriving prefix à- 20.4 and the number prefixes \(\underline{16.2 .1}\). Nominal prefixes are, however, notably common with words falling into particular semantic fields, such as words for small animals, reptiles and insects.

The line of demarcation between nominal prefixes and combining forms is not absolute, and a few prefixes evidently did originate as cbs 14.4. Others are apparently related to verbal negative particles 14.3. The decision as to whether to write a hyphen between the components of a complex word is not always straightforward, but nevertheless cbs and nominal prefixes are distinct in principle, with most cases also clearly distinguishable in practice. Thus, an element is a combining form if it is part of a nominal paradigm, if it ends in a consonant other than a nasal, if it has a vowel other than short a \(\iota v\) without glottalisation or contrastive nasalisation, or if it has \(M\) toneme and is followed by \(M\) Raising affecting
singular and plural forms. On the other hand, an element is a nominal prefix if it is formed by reduplication of the stem-initial consonant, or if it has M toneme and is not followed by M Raising affecting singular and plural forms.

Another piece of evidence for a basic distinction between combining forms and nominal prefixes is provided by cases like pùkj̀כñr \({ }^{\varepsilon}\) "widow", where the first element differs from the current combining form pu'à- "woman" in loss of glottalisation and replacement of the vowel by an allowable prefix vowel, but cognate Mooré and parallel Kusaal forms confirm that the resemblance of the prefix to the cb is not accidental 14.4. It is only possible to describe a combining form becoming a prefix because the two categories are distinguishable in principle.

Further complicating the picture are a good many stems with elements of no discoverable meaning preceding the final root which do not fit into any common segmental phonological prefix patterns, although tonally they do behave as nominal prefixes. Many such words can be identified as loanwords, but not all: in particular, many names of ethnic groups and of Kusaasi clans are of this type 18.

For the Personifier Clitic à- as part of some common nouns referring to living creatures see 19.10; it is not a prefix but a proclitic particle.

As prefix vowels, \(\iota\) and \(v\) are subject to ATR harmony 4.4, which is ignored in writing as it is non-contrastive.

\subsection*{14.1 Reduplication-Prefixes}

The simplest type of nominal prefix copies the initial \(C\) of the root, followed by a vowel which is most often \(\iota\), but rounded to \(v\) by neighbouring labial consonants. No cases occur with voiced stops or voiced fricatives.
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|}
\hline kùk̄̄r \({ }^{\text {/ }}\) & "voice" \\
\hline kùkj̀m \({ }^{\text {me }}\) & "leper" \\
\hline kikàn \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & "fig tree" \\
\hline kikīrıga' & "tutelary spirit" \\
\hline \(k[p] \dot{k} k\) àrıg \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & "palm tree" \\
\hline kpīkpīn \({ }^{\text {na/ }}\) & "merchant" \\
\hline kpàkūr \({ }^{\text {¢/ }}\) & "tortoise" \\
\hline tītā'ar \({ }^{\text {e }}\) & "big" \\
\hline titūmıs \({ }^{\varepsilon}\) & "sending" (tòm \({ }^{\text {m }}\) "send") \\
\hline tàtà \({ }^{\text {l }}\) & "palm of hand" \\
\hline pīpīrıg \({ }^{\text {a/ }}\) & "desert" \\
\hline fūfūm \({ }^{\text {m }}\) & "envy"; "stye" (believed to result from envy) \\
\hline sissi'əm \({ }^{\text {m }}\) & "wind" \\
\hline \(z a ̀-s i s s \bar{b} \iota^{\text {r }}\) & "evening" \\
\hline & (zà- cb of zàam \({ }^{\mathrm{m}}\) "evening", s亏̄b \({ }^{\varepsilon}\) "get dark") \\
\hline
\end{tabular}
\begin{tabular}{ll} 
lìlāalína & "swallow" \\
mîmīilím \\
mìmīilóg & "sweetness" \\
& id
\end{tabular}

More complex is a similar type with a final nasal consonant; voiced stops and fricatives may occur with this type:
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|}
\hline gùngūm \({ }^{\text {m }}\) & "kapok material" (gùm \({ }^{\text {m }}\) "kapok fruit") \\
\hline dùndùug \({ }^{\text {د }}\) & "cobra" \\
\hline dìndēog \({ }^{\text {/ }}\) & "chameleon" \\
\hline bìmbìm \({ }^{\text {m }}\) & "altar" \\
\hline bòmbàrıg \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & "ant" \\
\hline zònzı̀n \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & "blind" (zū'өm²/ "go/make blind") \\
\hline zīnzāun \({ }^{\text {/ }}\) & "bat" \\
\hline kinnkàn \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & "fig" \\
\hline tīntōnríg \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & "mole" \\
\hline pòmpj̄əg \({ }^{\text { }}\) & "housefly" (cf tàmpūa+ id 9.3.2) \\
\hline sīnsáañ \(=\) & a kind of tiny ant \\
\hline nכ̄b-púmpàup \({ }^{\text {² }}\) & "foot" \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

An even more complex type follows the reduplicated \(C V\) with \(-s ı n\) or -lın:

\author{
kpìsınkpìl \({ }^{\varepsilon}\) \\ tàsıntàl \({ }^{\varepsilon}\) \\ sïlınsíùng \({ }^{\circ}\) \\ sīlınsíù \({ }^{\text { }}\) \\ zīlınzíòg \({ }^{\text {ºn }}\) \\ vòlınvùuñ~اء \\ wàsınwàl \({ }^{\varepsilon}\) \\ nēsınnēog \({ }^{\text {/ }}\)
}
"fist"
"palm of hand"
"spider" \(\quad \mathrm{pl}\) sīlınsîñ̃ح \({ }^{\varepsilon}\)
"ghost" pl sīlınsî̀s \({ }^{\varepsilon}\)
"unknown" cf zī'+ "not know"
"mason wasp"
a parasitic gall on trees, called "mistletoe" in local English
"envious person" cf \(n \bar{\varepsilon} n^{\text {na/ }}\) "envy" WK others "centipede" \(=\) WK nà'-n \(\bar{\varepsilon} s \iota n n \bar{\varepsilon} o g^{ว /}\)

\subsection*{14.2 Da(n) ba(n) sa(n)}
dàwàlıg \({ }^{\text {a }}\)
dàyūug \({ }^{\text {/ }}\)
dàyáam \({ }^{\text {ma }}\)
dàtāa=
dàmà' \(a=\)
dàkiig \({ }^{\text {a }}\)
"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"
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|}
\hline dàwānn \({ }^{\text {ne/ }}\) & "pigeon" \\
\hline dādúk \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & a kind of large pot, cf dūk \({ }^{\text {/ / }}\) pot" \\
\hline dàtìu \({ }^{\text {J }}\) & "right hand" \\
\hline dàgj̀bıg \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & "left hand" \\
\hline bānāa= & traditional long-sleeved smock \\
\hline bàlàpır \({ }^{\text {c }}\) & "hat" \\
\hline bàlàar \({ }^{\text { }}\) & "stick, staff" \\
\hline bāl̄̄rug \({ }^{\text {/ }}\) & "ugly" cf \(1 \bar{\varepsilon} r^{\varepsilon}\) "get ugly" \\
\hline bàyĒog \({ }^{\text {/ }}\) & "betrayer of secrets" cf \(y \bar{\varepsilon} \varepsilon s^{\varepsilon /}\) "betray a secret" \\
\hline sākáròg \({ }^{\text { }}\) & "fox" \\
\hline sàbùa+ & "lover, girlfriend" ? bj̀ da "want, love" \\
\hline sāmán \({ }^{\text {ne }}\) & clear space in front of a zàk \({ }^{\text {a }}\) "compound" \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

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 18:
dànk̇̀n \({ }^{\text {º }}\)
sāngónnìrع
zànkù'ar \({ }^{\varepsilon}\)
Zàngbèog \({ }^{\text {ºn }}\)
màngávŋ \({ }^{\text {ºn }}\)
làngávク \({ }^{\text {² }}\)
nànzù'us \({ }^{\varepsilon}\)

The interesting word
nàyïiga
"measles"
"millipede"
"jackal"
"Hausa person"
"crab"
"crab"
"pepper"
is written na'ayiig in NT/KB as if it were a compound with the cb nā'- "cow", but it has a L toneme initially and the vowel is definitely not glottalised in WK's speech. Moreover, the sense is not confined to "cattle thief." The word is \({ }^{a} \mid b^{a}\) Class and the \(-g\) - belongs to the stem: pl nàyiig-nàma, though there is also an analogical \(g^{\mathrm{a}} \mid s^{\varepsilon} \mathrm{pl}\) nàyïis\({ }^{\varepsilon}\). There is a derived abstract noun nàyїigım \({ }^{\mathrm{m}}\) "thievery." Farefare has nàyìgà, pl nayigba or nayigsi; Dagbani has nayiza pl nayizsi and also tayiza id.

\subsection*{14.3 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{
Kùndò'ar \({ }^{\varepsilon}\) \\ nīn-pū-nānna/ \\ tùb-pū-wúmnìba
}

> "barren woman" cf dư'àa "bear, beget"
> "disrespectful person" cf \(n a ̄ n^{\varepsilon}\) "love, respect"
> "deaf people" (Rom 11:7)
> cf tùburع "ear", wòm" "hear."

However, most cases are not analysable in this way; they may be loanwords, or petrified forms whose origins are no longer transparent.
\[
\begin{array}{lc}
\text { kùndùn }{ }^{\text {a }} & \text { "jackal" } \\
\text { gūmpūz } r^{\varepsilon /} & \text { "duck" } \\
\text { dāmpūsāar } & \text { "stick" }
\end{array}
\]

The word
bān-kúś́lє bān-kús̄̄lá+ bān-kús̄̄l- "lizard" 7.2.1.2
has a first component which looks as if it is related to bàna "agama lizard" though the tone is unexpected if so.

\subsection*{14.4 Stranded Combining Forms}

Some original cbs have become partly bleached of their original meaning and/or simplified phonologically, and have consequently become detached from their regular paradigms after being ousted by new cbs based on analogy with sg forms 9.2.2. Here I list a few instances where an obvious similarity to a noun cb can be identified; some other non-reduplicating nominal prefixes may have originated in a similar way historically.
nìn "body" is accepted by WK as cb of nīna nīis [= Mooré ninga] but the word is rare; as a nominal prefix cf
\[
\begin{array}{ll}
\text { nìn-gbīnد } & \text { "human skin; body" } \\
\text { nìn-tāa= } & \text { "co-wife" }
\end{array}
\]
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}{lll} 
dà-pāala/ & "son, boy" & cf pāalíg "new" \\
dà-kj̀כnr \(r^{\varepsilon}\) & "son, bachelor" & cf àdàkón' "one" \\
compare pùkj̀כñr \(r^{\varepsilon}\) below
\end{tabular}
pò "woman" cf pữ'āa "woman" cb pư'à-. Identifiable in e.g.
\[
\text { pùkj̀כñ } r^{\varepsilon} \quad \text { "widow" }
\]
cf Mooré pùgkõoré "widow"
with Mooré pùgsádà "young woman"
\(=\) Kusaal pur'à-sādır \({ }^{\varepsilon /}\)
\(p \overline{0}-\quad\) "farm" cf \(p \bar{\jmath} \partial g^{J /}\) "field, farm", regular cb \(p \bar{\jmath}-\). Presumably present in
\[
p \overline{0} k p a \bar{a} d^{\mathrm{a} /} \quad \text { "farmer" }\left(=k p \bar{a} a d^{\mathrm{a} /} \text { id }\right)
\]

Tonally, too, this \(p \bar{v}-\) is a M prefix, not a combining form 7.2.4.
nà' "chief"(?) appears before a number of nouns signifying animals and insects, for reasons which perhaps relate to traditional folklore.
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|}
\hline nēsınnēog \({ }^{/}\) & "envious person" WK; others: "centipede" \\
\hline nà'-zว̀m \({ }^{\text {me }}\) & "locust" \\
\hline nà'-dàwān \({ }^{\text {ne/ }}\) & "pigeon" = dàwānn \({ }^{\text {n/ }}\) \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

For the idea of a possible background in folklore cf
\[
\begin{array}{ll}
\text { à-kj̄ra-dí̀̀mma } & \text { "praying mantis" } \\
& \text { ("hyena's parent-in-law") }
\end{array}
\]
and in general the various animal and bird names which incorporate the Personifier Clitic 19.10 like
\begin{tabular}{ll} 
à-dàalón & "stork" \\
à-gáòng & "pied crow" \\
à-mús & "cat"
\end{tabular}

\section*{15 Pronouns}

Pronouns occur as NP heads. Demonstrative, Indefinite and Interrogative pronouns may occur as post-determiners after a head, which is reduced to a cb, while the pronoun inflects to show the number of the head, as with adjectives.

\subsection*{15.1 Personal}
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|c|c|c|}
\hline \multirow{5}{*}{Sg} & & Proclitic & Enclitic & Free & Subject+̀̀ \\
\hline & 1st & \(\dot{m}\) & \(m^{\text {a }}\) & mān SF mánc̄ LF & mán \\
\hline & 2nd & fò & \({ }^{\circ}\) & fūn SF fúnc̄ LF & fón \\
\hline & 3 rd an & \(\grave{o l}^{12}\) [ช] & \({ }^{\circ}\) [ช] & \(\bar{\chi} n^{\varepsilon}\) & ón \\
\hline & 3rd inan & \(1 i ̀\) or di & \(\iota^{+}\) & \(1 \mathrm{l} \mathrm{n}^{\varepsilon}\) or dīn \({ }^{\varepsilon}\) & lín or dín \\
\hline \multirow[t]{3}{*}{Pl} & 1st & tì & \(t{ }^{+}\) & tīnám \({ }^{13}\) & tīnámì ø \\
\hline & 2nd & yà & ya+ & yānám \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & yānámì_ø \\
\hline & 3 rd & bà & \(b a^{+}\) & \(b a ̄{ }^{\varepsilon}\) & bán \\
\hline
\end{tabular}
"an" = animate, "inan" = inanimate: on gender see 19.2.2.
The clitic pronouns are all Liaison Words 8.2 7.4. The proclitics are used as non-contrastive subjects and as pre-determiners in NPs and AdvPs, and the enclitics as non-contrastive verb objects. For the realisation of the 3 sg animate \({ }^{0}\) see 8.2.1.1.

My informants all use \(l\) - forms throughout for 3sg inan; for bound objects, all speakers have only \(l\) - forms.

The " \(+n\) " forms are those used as subjects in \(\grave{n}\)-Clauses 31 .
The alternate form mām also occurs for 1st sg in any rôle.
The 2 nd pl subject has an enclitic form ya used after imperatives addressing more than one person 28.2.3 with the allomorph -ní- before Liaison 8.2.1.2.

Personal pronouns do not take modifiers and have no cb forms, but free forms may be used before relative pronouns (for which, see 31.2.2):

Fon kane buoli fo meך ... "You who call yourself ... (Rom 2:17)
Fōn kánì bùelı_fù 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 19.2.2.
12) Toende Kusaal has \(\tilde{v}\). The original form was probably * \(\widetilde{\eta m} v\), with later \(* \widetilde{\eta m} \rightarrow{ }^{*}\) before the rounded vowel. Cf also the Dagbani free pronoun guna \(=\) Kusaal \(\bar{\jmath} n^{\varepsilon}\). 13) 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 \({ }^{\text {a 9.4. }}\)

\subsection*{15.2 Demonstrative}

Some forms of Demonstrative pronouns are limited to usage either as NP heads or as post-determiners, while other forms may appear in both uses.

Head or Dependent:
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|c|c|}
\hline & Anima & Inanim & & Plural \\
\hline Long & う̀nā+/ & lìnā \({ }^{+/}\) & far & bàmmā \({ }^{+/}\) \\
\hline Short & う̀ \({ }^{\varepsilon}\) & \(1 \mathrm{inc}^{\text {¢ }}\) & far & bàn \({ }^{\text { }}\) \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

Head only:


Post-determining only:
\begin{tabular}{lll} 
Long & \(k a ̀ \eta \bar{a}^{+/}\) & \(k a ̀ \eta \bar{a}^{+/}\) \\
Short & \(k a ̀ n\) & \(k a ̀ n ~\)
\end{tabular}

Note the tone difference in the short series from the free 3rd person pronouns. The post-determining-only series is based on an obsolete \(g^{a} \mid s^{\varepsilon}\) Class pronoun kà, parallel to \(/ i\), originally \(r^{\varepsilon} \mid a^{+}\)Class. My informants use these forms for animate


Post-determining pronouns follow a noun cb. Some speakers allow sg and pl noun forms, but these probably have the tones of combining forms 19.5. After forms lacking cbs, like quantifiers and free pronouns the construction is formally appositional, cf 31.2.3 19.5.

Examples after combining forms:
dư'átà lā lór-kàn ā
bù-kànā Iā

After a quantifier:
bèdugō kápā

After a free pronoun:
fūn kánì bùol .. "you who call ..."

Post-determining pronouns follow any adjectives:
n̄̄-pí̀̀l-kànā "this white hen"

The "short" series are used for referents not in view, as interrogatives in the sense "which?" and (much the most commonly) as the basis of Relative Pronouns 31.2.2. The demonstratives do not distinguish near and far except with sg inanimate heads; elsewhere "that" can be specified by following the demonstrative with \(I^{+}+/\)(in other contexts the definite article) and "this" by following n n wà̀ (cf French ça ci.) This deictic use of \(l \bar{a}^{+/}\)is enabled by the fact that Demonstratives automatically make the NP definite 19.3.
```

dàun-kàpā sáàm
dàu-kàn sáàm
dàun-kà\etaā lā sáàm
dàun-kà\etaā nuwá sáàm
t\varepsiloǹn-kàn lā ná'àb
sān-kán lā

```

\subsection*{15.3 Indefinite}
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|c|}
\hline & Animate sg & Inanimate sg & Plural \\
\hline & sう̄'+ & Sīəla & sïaba \\
\hline Dependent-only & si'a+ & si'a+ & \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

The vowel is not glottalised in the plural. For NT WK, but not KT, the dependent-only inanimate \(s g\) is much commoner than \(s{ }^{\top} \partial^{\text {a }}\) used as a dependent. WK feels that for people \(s \bar{i}^{\prime} a^{+}\)is pejorative; NT occasionally has \(s \bar{J}^{\prime+}\) for inanimate: tèn-sכ̄' "a certain land." For indefinite pronouns in Relative Clauses see 31.2.1.

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 15G:Comp afterward say \(\mathbf{1 5 G}\) descend ART,
kà sכ̄' pón dènı \(\varnothing\) sīg sá.
and indf.an already before ser descend thither.
"when I'm then about to go down, someone else goes down first." (Jn 5:7)

Merri one an Magdalen ne Merri sכ'
Meeri ónì àn Magdalen n̄̄ Meeri sכ̄'
Mary rel.an cop Magdalen with Mary indf.an
"Mary who was Magdalen and another Mary" (Mt 28:1)

Winnig mor o meך venlim, ka nwadig me mor venlim si'a.
Wìnnıg mór ò mēך véñllìm kà ñ~wādıg mé mכ̄r véñllìm-sỉa.
Sun:sg have 3AN self beauty and moon:SG also have beauty-indF.inan.
"The sun has its own beauty and the moon, too, has another beauty."
(1 Cor 15:41)

M ná tī f tí-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:

Dàu-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 19.3 33.4:

Dāu dāa bé... "Once there was a man ..."
Man:sG tns exist ...

S̄̄'/sīəl mé-kàma means "anyone, anything, everyone, everything":

O nipid si'el mekama su'טŋa.
Ò nìpıd sīəə mé-kàma súpā.
3AN do:DIPF INDF.INAN also-whatever good:ADV.
"He does everything well." (Mk 7:37)

The particle is widespread in West Africa: cf Humburi Senni -kámâ "each." In negative clauses the indefinites mean "(not) ... anything", "(not) ... anybody":

Ka so' kudin ku len nyee li ya'asa.
Kà sכ̄' kūdım kú l̄̄m ny
And indf.an ever neg.irr again see zinan.ob again neg.
"Nobody will ever see it again." (Rev 18:21, 1996)

Sコ̄＇kā＇e \({ }^{+} \varnothing\) ．＂There＇s nobody there．＂
indf．an neg．be neg．
\(\grave{M} p \bar{u} \quad y \varepsilon ́ l\) sỉəla \(\quad+\varnothing . \quad\)＂I didn＇t say anything．＂
1SG NEG．IND say INDF．INAN NEG．

\section*{15．4 Interrogative}

\section*{Animate}
àn＇́＇j̀n \({ }^{\varepsilon} \quad\)＂who？＂

\section*{Inanimate}
bう̄＋＂what？＂

Plurals with nàma may be used if a specifically plural answer is being sought． The initial à－of ànó＇j̀n \(n^{\varepsilon}\) is Fixed－L and behaves like the Manner－Adverb prefix with regard to Liaison 8．2．2：

Nidib ayi＇nwa，ya bכدd ye m bas anכ＇כnع？
Nīdıb áyí ñ～wà，yà bój̀d yé m̀ bás ànó＇כnغ̀ \(+\varnothing\) ？
Person：PL num：two this，2PL want that 15G release who cQ？
＂Which of these two people do you want me to release？＂（Mt 27：21）

\section*{15．5 Reciprocal}

Tāaba＋＂one another＂appears as tāab clause－medially for some speakers．

Sùpımī ø tāaba．＂Help one another．＂
Help：Imp 2pl．sub each．other．

Tì yúùg n̄̄ tāaba．\(\quad\) It＇s been a long time．＂KT
1PL delay with each．other．

Bà dう̀l n̄̄ tāaba．＂They went together．＂（dj̄la／＂accompany＂） 3PL follow with each．other．

It occurs as an adjective in the meaning＂fellow－＂
ò tòm－tùm－tāaba
＂His fellow－workers．＂

The stem also occurs as an always－bound \(g^{\mathrm{a}} \mid s^{\varepsilon}\) Class noun in the same sense， seen after Imperfective Gerunds 13．1．1．4，and with nominal prefixes in nìn－tāa＝＂co－ wife＂and dàtāa＝＂enemy．＂

\section*{16 Quantifiers}

\subsection*{16.1 Quantifiers: Overview}

Formally, quantifiers resemble noun sg or pl forms, very frequently with Apocope Blocking 6.4; Numbers \(\underline{16.2 .1}\) are preceded by number prefixes.

Quantifiers can be classified as count or mass, but the distinction is only of significance when the quantified noun is mass type, in which case a count quantifier is ungrammatical; with count nouns there is no restriction and either type of quantifier is acceptable:
\begin{tabular}{lll} 
& nīdıb bédvgō & "a lot of people" \\
& nīdıb bábıgā & "many people" \\
& kù'өm bédvgō & "a lot of water" \\
not & *kù'өm bábıgā & *"many water"
\end{tabular}

Mass quantifiers are
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|}
\hline bèdug \({ }^{+/}\) & "a lot" \\
\hline pāmm SF pāmné LF & "a lot" (on the LF see 6.4) \\
\hline fiin \(=\) & "a little (liquid)" \\
\hline bỉəlá+ & "a little" \\
\hline \(w \overline{0}{ }^{\text {b }}=\) & "all" \\
\hline wūsa+ & "all" \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

Count quantifiers include the numbers, and also
\begin{tabular}{ll} 
bàbıgā\({ }^{+/}\) & "many" \\
kàlıgā̀+ & "few" \\
fāañ & "every" \\
zāñ'a= & "every" \\
kàm &
\end{tabular}

Kàma "every" occurs by itself as a quantifier and also before others:
sāŋá kám = sāŋá kám zāñ'a "all the time"

Quantifiers lack combining forms; when they appear as heads before postdetermining pronouns the usual free form is used.

\subsection*{16.2 Number Words}

\subsection*{16.2.1 Numbers: Overview}

Number words function as quantifiers, and also have forms used as adverbs; for "one", there are also post-determiners meaning "first."

Many number words show Apocope Blocking 6.4.
In all uses, the numbers 2 to 9 begin with an inseparable number prefix. Forms with number prefixes are all Liaison Words 8.2.2. Although unprefixed forms are not available for comparison, the number prefixes are probably followed by \(L\) Raising on the root of the number word.

The number prefixes represent fossilised noun class agreement prefixes. With the collapse of noun-class based grammatical gender 9.1 in favour of a system of natural gender 19.2.2 the old \({ }^{\mathrm{a}} \mid b^{\mathrm{a}}\) Class agreement pronouns ò bà have been generalised for animate while the old \(r^{\varepsilon} \mid a^{+}\)Class singular pronoun it 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 ga 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 16.2.2 represents original *na-.

Because of its origin from *na-, the à- number prefix, unlike all other aparticles and prefixes, causes a preceding LF-final vowel following a consonant to appear as -a rather than -ı 8.2.2:
```

biiisá_ àtán~' "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-:
```

Pè\varepsilondá_ àlá +\varnothing? "How many baskets?"

```

Basket:PL num:how.many cQ?
```

nìı_ 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:
\begin{tabular}{ll} 
tì bàtáñ' & "we three" \\
yà bàyópjee & "you seven" \\
bà bàyí & "they two"
\end{tabular}

The forms of the number words 2-9 used for counting 16.2.3 represent the old \(m^{\mathrm{m}}\) Class agreement, in the "abstract" sense of \(m^{\mathrm{m}} \underline{\text { 9.1.1: }}\)
\begin{tabular}{lll} 
ǹtán' & "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 16.2.5. It probably represents either an old \(b^{\mathcal{J}}\) or \(m^{\mathrm{m}}\) Class agreement.
àbùyí \({ }^{+}\)
àbòtáñ~ \({ }^{+}\)
àbùnāasí+
bùpiiga+
nכ̄כrím bùtáñ' \({ }^{+}\)
"twice"
"three times"
"four times"
"ten times"
"three times"

Numbers without prefixes show that, like all quantifiers, numbers are not subject to M Raising:
\begin{tabular}{lc} 
būטg yīnní & "one goat" \\
kūgur yīnní & "one stone" \\
būטs pīiga & "ten goats"
\end{tabular}

The noun, as here, is plural (except of course with yīnní \({ }^{+}\)) with the exception of units of measure which generally remain sg:

\author{
ȳ̄lugá àtáñ'
}
```

"\$600 [cedis]"
(y\overline{lug/ "sack" for £100/\&200; Hausa jàkaa.)}

```

\subsection*{16.2.2 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 & pisi \({ }^{+}\)[p \({ }^{\text {hisi] }}\) & 200 & kj̀bısí \({ }^{+}\)[ \(\mathrm{k}^{\text {ºbbisi] }}\) \\
\hline 3 & àtáñ'+ & 30 & pīs táñ \({ }^{+}\) & 300 & kj̀bıs táñ'+ \\
\hline 4 & ànāasí+ & 40 & pīs nāasí+ & 400 & kj̀bıs nāasí \({ }^{+}\) \\
\hline 5 & ànū \({ }^{+}\) & 50 & pīs nū \({ }^{+}\) & 500 & kj̀bıs nū+ \\
\hline 6 & àyúebò \({ }^{+}\) & 60 & pīs yúebò \({ }^{+}\) & 600 & kj̀bıs yúөbù \({ }^{+}\) \\
\hline 7 & àyópj̀e+ \({ }^{+}\) & 70 & pīs yópjè+ & 700 & kj̀bıs yópj̀e+ \\
\hline 8 & ànií= & 80 & pios 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; 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.
"Thousand" is a regular \(r^{\varepsilon} \mid a^{+}\)Class noun, tūsır \(r^{\varepsilon /: ~ t u ̄ s a ́ ~ a ̀ t a ́ n ' ~ " 3000 . " ~}\)
"Half" is pū-súk \({ }^{\text {a }}\) pl \(p \overline{0}\)-súgùs \({ }^{\varepsilon}\).
Other numbers are formed with \(n \bar{\varepsilon}\) "with, and":
kj̀bıs táñ' nē pīs yúөbù nē nū "three hundred and sixty-five"

11 to 19 have the special contracted forms
 pïi nā yīnní, pïi nā yí, pīi nā táñ' ... pīi nā wāe

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 àyípāà àtá \(\bar{a}^{+/}\)mean "two, three exactly." If I have four children

M̀ mór biisá àtán'. "I have three children."
1sG have child:PL num:three. is true, though misleading
but M̀ mór bïisá àtánā. "I have exactly three children." is false.

These forms can also be used after \(n \bar{\varepsilon}\) "and", as in pīi n \(\bar{\varepsilon}\) yínā "twelve exactly." They are exceptional in not permitting focus with the particle \(n \bar{\varepsilon}^{+/}\)33.1.2.2.

Yīnní+ can also be construed with a preceding noun cb:
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|c|}
\hline & kūg-yínnì \({ }^{+}\) & "one stone" (M Raising & 8.4) \\
\hline cf & kūgur yīnní+ & "one stone" (no M Raising & 19.9.1) \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

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- 16.2.1:
\begin{tabular}{ll} 
tì bàtán' & "we three" \\
yà bàyópj̀e & "you seven" \\
bà bàyí & "they two"
\end{tabular}

\subsection*{16.2.3 Counting Forms}

1 to 9 have different forms used in counting, lacking Apocope Blocking and using the number prefix \(\grave{n}\) - instead of à- 16.2.1. The \(\grave{n}\) is syllabic, and assimilates its position of articulation to the following consonant.
\begin{tabular}{llll}
1 & yēón or àdàkón' & 6 & ǹyúèb \\
2 & ǹyí & 7 & ǹpjée [tone sic] \\
3 & ǹtáñ' & 8 & ǹníi \\
4 & ǹnãas & 9 & ñwāe \\
5 & ǹnū & continuing pīiga, pīi nē yí as with quantifiers
\end{tabular}

Àdàkóñ' can also be used as a quantifier:
náaf àdàkóñ'
būvg àdàkón'

Lì ká' àdàkóñ'う \({ }^{+} \varnothing\). "It's not one."
binan neg.be num:one neg.

Referring to the numbers in the abstract, as in performing arithmetic, the quantifier forms are used, not the counting forms:

Àyí námá àyí á n̄̄ nāasí.
NUM:two PL NUM:two COP FOC four.
"Two two's are four."

\subsection*{16.2.4 Adjectives and Ordinal Constructions}
yı̄mmír \(\quad\) yı̄mmá+ \(\quad\) yı̄m- \(\quad\) "single, alone"
e.g. bì-yīmmír
wāb-yímmìr

\author{
"only child" \\ "solitary elephant"
}

There are two words meaning "one of a pair." nyàuk \({ }^{\top} \mathrm{pl}{\underset{\sim}{n}}^{\text {nad'ad }}{ }^{\varepsilon}\) is only used for eyes:
\begin{tabular}{ll} 
nīf-nyáuk & "one eye" \\
bà-nīf-ñyáuk & "one-eyed dog"
\end{tabular}
yīun \({ }^{\text {J/ }} \mathrm{pl}\) yīná \({ }^{\text {is }}\) is used for other normally paired body parts:

\author{
tùb-yīun \\ bì-tùb-yīná
}
"one ear"
"one-eared children"

The only single-word ordinal is
\(d \bar{\varepsilon} \varepsilon \eta^{a}\)
\begin{tabular}{ll}
\multicolumn{1}{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 sכ̄b-d́́غ̀り "first census" (Lk 2:2, 1976.)
The concept "first" can also be expressed by using yïigá+ "firstly" as a predeterminer:
yīigá kùm-vō'vgír
"first resurrection" NT.

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 pغ̀'عsa_ àyí lā
man-Rel.sG add.up.to num:two ART
"the second man" ("man who has added up to two")
lìnı pàasa_ àtán' lā
REL.INAN add.up.to NUM:three ART
"the third one"

Another is to use numbers as pre-dependents before dāana "owner of ..."; such phrases are then themselves used either as NP heads or as post-determiners:
àyí dāan lā "the second one"
būugá àtáñ' dāan lā "the third goat"

Yïigá dāan may be used for "first."
In a story in "Kusaal Solima ne Siilima" ordinal forms used in counting "first, second, third ..." appear without Apocope Blocking:
kJñ' daan, ayi daan, atañ' daan, anaas daan, anu daan, ayuөb daan, apJe daan, anii daan, awae daan, piig daan

My informants use the ordinary quantifier forms here.

\subsection*{16.2.5 Adverbs}

Multiplicatives (answering àbùlá? "how many-fold?") are expressed
\begin{tabular}{ll} 
yīmmú+ & "straight away, at once" \\
àbùyí+ & "twice" \\
àbùtán'+ & "three times" \\
àbùnāasí+ & "four times"
\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 yīnní \({ }^{+}\) & "once" \\
\hline & nכ̄כrá àtáñ' \({ }^{+}\) & "three times" \\
\hline or & nכ̄orím bùtán'+ & "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 nכ̄'כ̄t = Agolle nóbìr "leg". Original open and closed oo fall together when nasalised 4.1.1. For the semantics cf Hausa sàu ukù "three times" sau "foot(print)." Niggli's Dictionnaire
gives Toende nó'כt (tone sic) in the sense "fois" and even has nכba ayi beside nכ'כt ayi "deux fois." Agolle nכ̄כr "times" does not have a glottalised vowel, however.

Distributives ("two by two" etc) are reduplicated forms without Apocope Blocking; there is no M Raising of the second part except with 10, 100, 1000:
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|c|c|c|}
\hline 1 & yūn yīn & 10 & pïi pîg & 100 & kj̀bıg kóbìg \\
\hline 2 & àyí yí & 20 & pīsí piosí & 200 & kj̀bısí kóbısí or kj̀bıs yí yí \\
\hline 3 & àtán' táñ' & 30 & pīs tán' táñ' & 300 & kj̀bıs tán' táñ' \\
\hline 4 & ànāas nāas & 40 & piss nāas nāas & & etc \\
\hline 5 & ànū \(n u ̄\) & 50 & pīs nū nū & 1000 & tūsır túsìr \\
\hline 6 & àyúèb yúèb & 60 & pis yúèb yúèb & & \\
\hline 7 & àyópj̀e póe & 70 & pis yópje póe & & \\
\hline 8 & àníi níi & 80 & pīs níi níi & & \\
\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 àyว́pj̀è póe "weekly" ("by sevens of days")

\subsection*{16.3 Proquantifiers}

Quantifiers have corresponding proforms; the à- is the number prefix, and induces preceding LF-final -a not -ı 8.2.2; contrast the Proadverbs 17.1.
\begin{tabular}{lll} 
Demonstrative & \(\frac{\text { Indefinite }}{s i ̄ ə m}\) & \(\underline{\text { Interrogative }}\) \\
àlá \(^{+}\) & "some amount" & àlá+ \\
"so much/many" & "how much/many?"
\end{tabular}

\section*{17 Adverbs}

Adverbs can be broadly categorised as adverbs of time, place or manner. Many adverbs are formally identical to nouns, and the question may arise in such cases as to whether they should be regarded as simply adverbial uses of words which are in fact primarily nouns; the matter is rendered more complicated by the fact that AdvPs can be arguments of verbs in some circumstances 20.5, and that adverbs other than proforms may also appear as modifiers and determiners within NPs 19.7.2.3 19.8.2.3.

Unequivocal adverbs include the proadverbs listed in 17.1, along with various types which do not conform to ordinary noun structure.

Among time adverbs, these include
\[
\begin{array}{ll}
\text { zīná+ } & \text { "today" } \\
\text { sù'өs } & \text { "yesterday" } \\
\text { dūnná } & \text { "this year" }
\end{array}
\]

Various time words which resemble nouns in form nevertheless are distinguishable morphologically from nouns be the fact that they lack cb or pl forms, and syntactically in that they cannot be referred to by pronouns; these include
```

b\overline{\varepsilon}og}\mp@subsup{}{}{3}\mathrm{ "tomorrow"

```

The word
dāar \({ }^{\varepsilon}\)
"day after tomorrow/day before yesterday"
behaves similarly in this sense, but is homophonous with dāar \({ }^{\varepsilon}\) "day", which is a noun. Other words usable as time adverbs are also capable of being employed as fullfledged nouns 35.8:
```

yó'un
nintān}\mp@subsup{\eta}{}{a/
úunn\varepsilon

```
```

"night"

```
"night"
"heat of the day, early afternoon"
"heat of the day, early afternoon"
"dry season"
```

"dry season"

```

On the whole, such nouns are likely to appear with dependents of their own when used in time AdvPs, and words of this type can be treated as special instances of the general principle that any NP with reference to a time may be used as a time AdvP. Categorisation as true time adverbs can be restricted to those which (like manner adverbs) do not accept any dependents.

Locative adverbs comprise proforms along with Kusaasi place names; other locative AdvPs use the locative particle \(n \bar{\imath}^{+/} \sim n^{\varepsilon} \underline{20.3}\). It is not possible to use a noun other than a place name by itself as a place adverb, except for a limited set of nouns which are also used as postpositions 20.6, most notably zūg/ "head" in the sense "on, onto, owing to." Although the origin of such postpositions is transparent, synchronically the postpostions are separate lexical items from the homophonous nouns, and the process of zero-derivation that created them is no longer active.

Manner adverbs again include proforms; besides these there are several distinctive formations. Although various NP types can be used as manner AdvPs, as with time adverbs, true manner-adverbs cannot take any dependents.

Several adjective stems form manner-adverbs with an ending -ga+, i.e \(g^{\text {a }} \mid s^{\varepsilon}\) Class sg along with Apocope Blocking 6.4:
```

sònā+/
mā'asígā+/
tōolígā+/
gīŋa+ "shortly"
būgvsígā+/ "softly"
sàalínā+/ "smoothly"
ny\varepsiloǹ\varepsilonsínā+/
"well; very much"
"coolly"
"hotly"
"self-confidently"

```

Cf also yïigá+ "firstly" see 16.2.4.
Other manner-adverbs with Apocope Blocking include pāalú+ "openly", and
nyāe \({ }^{n \varepsilon /} \quad\) "brightly, clearly"

Even prior to 2016, the NT always writes the SF of nyāe \({ }^{\text {n } \varepsilon /}\) as nyain. This is probably simply a traditional orthographic anomaly; if it represents an actual variant, it might be a form containing the locative particle: nyāen \({ }^{\varepsilon /}\), but not only my informants but also the audio version of the NT always have [j̃ãĩ]; cf Toende yã́ı́ id (though \(\iota\) actually is the usual Toende equivalent of Agolle Locative \(n^{\varepsilon}\).) The LF nyāené is an instance of the addition of -ne to make secondary LFs, as in words with Apocope Blocking which do not end in short vowels 6.4.

The word shows the characteristic distribution of a manner-adverb rather than a noun, appearing as complement of àen \(n^{\text {a }}\) "be something" and as an adjunct:

Wina'am a su'um nyain.
Wínà'am án súm nyāe.
God cop good:Abstr brightly.
"God is light." (1 Jn 1:5, 1996)
．．．ke ka ti lieb nyain．
．．．ké kà tì líàb nyāe．
．．．cause and 1pL become brightly．
＂．．．make us light．＂（1 Jn 1：7）
．．．na nye lini nie nyain pamm
．．．nà ñy \(\bar{\varepsilon}\) línì nìe ñaāe pāmm
．．．IRR see rel．Inan appear brightly much
＂．．．will see a great light＂［＂what appears very brightly＂］（Mt 4：16，1976）

The manner－adverb prefix à－appears before some nominal stems which are also followed by Apocope Blocking 20．4：
\begin{tabular}{ll} 
àmēŋá＋ & ＂truly＂ \\
àsīda＋ & ＂truly＂ \\
ànínà &
\end{tabular}

The same prefix is also seen in a number of proadverbs and in the locative àgól \({ }^{\varepsilon}\)＂upwards＂20．3．Words with this prefix are all Liaison Words．The prefix is followed by \(L\) raising，like the number prefix，but differs from it in that it does not cause a preceding LF－final vowel mora to appear as－a 8．2．2．

A number of manner－adverbs are formed by reduplication of roots．

＂easily＂
tう̀＇つtう̄＋／＂straight away＂（Mooré taotao id）
kכ̄n＇כkj̄＋＂solely，by oneself＂

Conversion of abstract non－count nouns can produce Manner adverbs；so particularly with \(\mathrm{m}^{\mathrm{m}}\) Class abstracts．Some Adverbial Phrases of manner are formed by conversion of abstract nouns：
pāalím \({ }^{m} \quad\)＂recently＂（pāalíga＂new＂）

When noun forms are used as manner－adverbs in this way，they are like basic manner－adverbs in not accepting dependents．It this seems reasonable to regard this process as word－level zero－derivation．

Even concrete count nouns employed in an abstract generic sense can be used adverbially 20.4 but this is a syntactic rather than morphological process．

\section*{17．1 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 \\
zinn＇－sỉa＋ \\
＂somewhere＂
\end{tabular}} & \multicolumn{2}{|l|}{Interrogative} \\
\hline & \(k p \bar{\varepsilon}^{+}\) & ＂here＂ & & yáa ní \({ }^{+}\) & ＂where？＂ \\
\hline & kpz̄lá＋ & ＂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 \({ }^{\text { }}\) & ＂which day？＂ \\
\hline & sān－kán \({ }^{\text { }}\) & ＂then＂ & & \(b\)－wìn \({ }^{\text {ne }}\) & ＂what time of day？＂ \\
\hline \multirow[t]{3}{*}{Manner} & ànwá＋ & ＂like this＂ & \(s \bar{l}^{\prime} \quad m^{m}\) & wह̄lá \({ }^{+}\) & ＂how？＂ \\
\hline & àwá \(n \bar{a}^{+/}\) & ＂like this＂ & ＂somehow＂ & & \\
\hline & àlá＋ & ＂like that＂ & & & \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

The indefinites are used in Relative Clauses 31．2．1．
The à－of the Manner forms is the manner－adverb prefix and is preceded by the LF－final vowel \(-l\) ，while the à－of proquantifiers is the number prefix，and induces preceding LF－final－a not－ı 8．2．2 16．3．

Proforms expressing reason are formed with the postposition zūg \({ }^{\text {／20．6 }} \underline{\text { ：}}\) àlá zùg＂because of that＂，bう̄zúgう̀？＂why？＂（cf bう̄ zúgう̄＂because＂27．1．3．）

\section*{18 Unanalysable Complex Stems}

There are numerous words in Kusaal (not least the very name of the language, \(K \bar{s} s a ́ a ̀ I^{\varepsilon}\) ) which are more complex structurally than simple unprefixed stem types but are simply en bloc unanalysable units. Tonally, they most often resemble forms with nominal prefixes, though examples occur with an initial H toneme. They are often aberrant segmentally, for example in containing unusual consonant clusters, or showing contrastive nasalisation in the "prefix." By no means all of these are identifiable loanwords; in particular, many names of ethnic groups and clans fall into this category.

Examples of such complex stems include
```

Kūsáàs`
Nwāmpūrıs
Kùtāmma/
gbányà'a=

```
```

"Kusaasi"

```
"Kusaasi"
"Mamprussi"
"Mamprussi"
WK's clan
WK's clan
"lazy person" gonya'am "idleness" 1976 NT
"lazy person" gonya'am "idleness" 1976 NT
cf Dagbani gbinyayli "laziness"
```

cf Dagbani gbinyayli "laziness"

```

\subsection*{18.1 Loanwords}

As usual cross-linguistically, nouns form by far the largest group of identifiable loanwords. They are sometimes fitted into the noun class system by analogy 9.7. Analogy may also cause the initial à- of loanwords like àrazánà \({ }^{+}\)àrazà \({ }^{a}\) below to be treated tonally as Fixed-L 8.3.1.

Most loanwords were probably borrowed from Hausa in the first instance. Many such loans stand out prominently as foreign elements by their deviation from the typical structure of Kusaal words, with its limitation of possible vowel contrasts by position within the word and its restrictions on consonant distributions.

Among nouns borrowed from Hausa are
```

dāká+ "box" \leftarrowàdakàa
gādv+ "bed"
k\varepsiloǹ\varepsilonk\grave{\varepsilon}}\mp@subsup{}{+}{+}\mathrm{ "bicycle"
bákpàe+ + "week"

```

Identifiable verb loanwords are much less common, but there are examples:
```

dàam"m
bòg\varepsilon}\mp@subsup{}{}{\prime}\quad\mathrm{ "get drunk" }\leftarrow\mathrm{ bùgu
Hausa idiom: literally "get thoroughly beaten"

```

Quite a few function words are certainly loans, and probably from Hausa:
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|}
\hline àsć & "except" & \(\leftarrow\) sai \\
\hline kōv & "or" & \(\leftarrow k 00\) \\
\hline With báa & "not a..." 32.4 & \(\leftarrow\) bâa \\
\hline
\end{tabular}
bâa is part of the core Hausa system of negation, so Hausa is almost certainly the origin of the loan (though even here, compare Humburi Senni bá:y-à: "nothing.")

The existence of the same words in the Hausa even of Nigeria confirms that these are loanwords in Kusaal, but the actual immediate source of the borrowing is frequently not certain, because Hausa (like English) is not only a great lender of words to other languages but also a great borrower. Sometimes such words also occur in many other languages of the Sahel and Savanna: hālí+ "until", Hausa har, Kikara Songhay hálì id, possibly from Arabic حتى \(\hbar\) नatta: (etymology suggested in Heath 2005); İ̀mbう̀' \(g^{\text {º }}\) "garden", Hausa làmbuu, but also e.g. Humburi Senni làmbò "enclosed vegetable garden", where Heath speculates on a Songhay-internal connexion with làmbà, "lurk, hide (e.g. behind a wall or tree)", a word which in turn seems to be connected with the Kusaal Invariable Verb làbıya "be crouching, hiding behind something", Hausa laбèe id; cf also Kikara Songhay lá:bú "hide behind or under something." In the case of Kusaal làbıya and Hausa labèe, the coincidence of highly specific meanings with very similar forms is striking. However, if the Kusaal word is a loan, it has been remarkably well integrated into the language, with an Invariable Verb type Long Form in -ya 2.2.2 and Variable Verb assume-stance and make-assume-stance derivatives 13.2.1.1.

Hausa loans have travelled far in West Africa, with an entry point into Songhay via the Zarma and Kaado languages of Niger, e.g. Humburi tílásò "duty", Zarma, Kaado tílàs \(\leftarrow\) Hausa tiilàs. Accordingly, wide distribution does not in itself rule out Hausa origin or transmission.

Words of Arabic origin are frequent throughout the languages of the Sahel and Savanna; thus, among many others
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|c|c|}
\hline Tàláatà \({ }^{+}\) & "Tuesday" & \begin{tabular}{l}
Hausa \\
Arabic
\end{tabular} & \multicolumn{2}{|l|}{Tàlaatàa} \\
\hline \multirow[t]{5}{*}{láafiya+} & \multirow[t]{5}{*}{"health"} & Hausa & laafiyàa & id \\
\hline & & Mooré & làafí & id \\
\hline & & Kikara Songhay & Pàlà:fíyà & id \\
\hline & & Arabic & الحافية Pal- & fiya(tu) \\
\hline & & & "(the) we & ess" \\
\hline
\end{tabular}
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|c|c|}
\hline àrazàk \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & "riches" & \begin{tabular}{l}
Hausa \\
Mooré \\
Kikara Songhay \\
Arabic \\
cf plur
\end{tabular} & \begin{tabular}{l}
arzikii \\
àrzéká \\
Párzúkù \\
الرزق Par- \\
"(the) li \\
Par
\end{tabular} & \begin{tabular}{l}
id \\
id \\
"good luck" \\
(u) \\
hood" \\
(un)
\end{tabular} \\
\hline \multirow[t]{2}{*}{àrazánà \({ }^{+}\)} & \multicolumn{4}{|l|}{"heaven, sky"} \\
\hline & & \begin{tabular}{l}
Hausa \\
Mooré \\
Kikara Songhay \\
Arabic
\end{tabular} & àljannàa àrzãnà Pàljánnà Ral-fan الجنة "(the) ga & \begin{tabular}{l}
"heaven, paradise" id id a(tu) \\
n, paradise"
\end{tabular} \\
\hline \begin{tabular}{l}
yàddā+/ \\
yàdā WK
\end{tabular} & "assent" & \begin{tabular}{l}
Hausa \\
Gao Songhay Kikara Songhay probably Arabic
\end{tabular} & \begin{tabular}{l}
yàrda \\
yarda/ya \\
yárrè \\
يرضى yar \\
رضى rad
\end{tabular} & (verb) "consent"
id
id
3sg m ipfv of
"be satisfied" \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

Given the importance of Gaanancii as the lingua franca of northern Ghana, it is likely that such Arabic words have normally entered Kusaal via Hausa. In most cases this is impossible to prove or disprove, but occasionally there is a suggestive mismatch between the Hausa and the Kusaal forms, which more nearly resemble those of some other language. Mooré is a possible alternative intermediary for Arabic loanwords in Kusaal; Hausa influence in Mooré is, at least, certainly less than in Kusaal, and such words may have reached Mooré from other West African languages widely used by Muslims, such as Dyula or the various Songhay languages.

Thus màliāk \({ }^{\text {a/ }}\) "angel" (always malek in NT versions prior to 2016) is undoubtedly ultimately from the Arabic ملاك malPak(un) (itself, of course, a loanword.) The vocalism suggests an origin in Mooré màlékà, perhaps via Toende màlźk. The word is usually found in Christian materials, which would be consistent with an immediate source in Mooré and/or Toende Kusaal (see below.) None of these forms seems likely to be borrowed from the Hausa màlaa'ikàa, which is itself from the Arabic plural ملائكة mala:Pika(tu). A similar case in the realm of religion is Sōtáanà \({ }^{+}\) "Satan", corresponding to Mooré Sutãana (cf Bambara sitane) rather than Hausa shàidân, which is a learned form close to the Arabic شيطان faytª:n(u). Again, dūnıya+ "world" has the short \(u\) vowel of the Arabic دنيا dunya: rather than the long uu of Hausa duuniyàa; Niggle has Mooré dũniya. The all-M tonemes of dūnıya+ \({ }^{+}\)are surprising, but the limited possibilities for different word-internal tone contrasts in

Kusaal prevent straightforward copying of the tones of source languages and presumably result in analogy playing a great rôle in Tone Pattern assignment.

Loanwords from Songhay languages, probably borrowed via Mooré, include
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|}
\hline \multirow[t]{5}{*}{} & "honest person" \\
\hline & Dagbani bilchina "free, not slave" \\
\hline & Mooré bùrkĩná "free, noble" (as in "Burkina Faso") even Yoruba bọ̀rọkkìnní "gentleman" \\
\hline & cf Kikara Songhay bòrkǐn "noble (caste)"; \\
\hline & the first component is probably bj̀rj̀ "person." \\
\hline \multirow[t]{6}{*}{bàuno \({ }^{+}\)} & only as in e.g. ò kpèn' báungò. (kpèn \({ }^{+}\)"enter") \\
\hline & "He was circumcised." \\
\hline & cf Kikara Songhay bàngù "pool, spring" in the idiom \\
\hline & à húró bàngù, literally "He entered the pool." \\
\hline & (not "forest", as in some sources: Trimingham 1959) \\
\hline & Mooré kê bãongó (kê "enter" \(=k p غ ̇ n^{\prime+}\) ) \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

Loans from other Western Oti-Volta languages are difficult to distinguish from cognates; the vast majority of similar words are due to common inheritance and not borrowing. It is notable, however, that Kusaal speakers themselves very often ascribe forms which are not part of their own usage to Mooré influence.

As an illustration of the difficulties, a word shown to be a loan by its phonology is Wínnà'am" or Wínà'am" "God" (realised with -nn- by WK, but consistently Wina'am in the NT/KB and other written materials.) The word refers particularly to the Christian God; the Creator of traditional religion appears simply as Wīn \(n^{\mathrm{n} \mathrm{\varepsilon} /}\) in proverbs etc. Wínnà'am looks analysable as a compound of \(w i \bar{n} n \varepsilon /\) "god" and the stem of nà'aba "chief" or nā'am" "chieftaincy", but the tonal structure is unparalleled for an Agolle Kusaal compound (one would expect *Wīn-ná'àm), and the prevalence of the form Wínà'am with single -n- also shows that the form is not a synchronic compound within Agolle Kusaal. The earliest Christian missionary work among the Kusaasi began in Haute Volta (now Burkina Faso), using Mooré materials, so one possible source might be the corresponding Mooré word Wếnnàám. This would not account for the glottalised -a'a-; and while conceivably that might be due to the analogy of nà' \(a b^{\text {a }}\), it probably rather shows that the immediate source of the loan is not Mooré but the Toende Kusaal of Burkina/Haute Volta. Niggli's Dictionnaire has Wínā'am, which shows a tonal fall like the Agolle Wínà'am. Furthermore, all instances of the word in Niggli's materials show single -n-; Niggli's account implies (though it does not explicitly state) that contrastive gemination in Toende Kusaal is preserved only before the affix vowels of Long Forms.

A similar case is the odd form faangid used for "saviour" in the New Testament versions. Informants read it as [fã:gitd]; the preservation of \(g\) in this position 6.3.1 is almost completely isolated within Agolle Kusaal (the sole other example I have found is the strange gerund form zi' \(\partial g^{\mathrm{a}}\) of zi'e \({ }^{\text {ya }}\) "be standing" used by DK KT instead of KED zi'a+ 12.1.1.2.) The expected agent noun from fāen \({ }^{+/}\)"save" is fāañ \(d^{a /}\), which was probably avoided for the meaning "saviour" as it is identical to the agent noun of fān \({ }_{\sim}^{+}\)"rob, snatch", itself found in the NT as faand "robber." WK uses the identical agent noun form fāañ \(d^{\text {a/ }}\) for both verbs, specifically confirming both meanings.

As with Wínà'am, the forms may be loans from Toende Kusaal, where the deletion of \({ }^{*} g\) seems to be partial, with the details varying between speakers (Niggli, "La phonologie du kusaal.") Loss of *g is consistent word-finally after all long vowels (bíi "child" = bïig \({ }^{\mathrm{a}}, b \bar{\nu} \bar{u}\) "goat" \(=b \bar{u} g^{\mathrm{a}}\) ), and optional or absent otherwise:
```

páa "arriver" (Agolle pāe+ "reach")
Õ bu paage. "Il n'est pas arrivé." (Agolle Ò pū pāée.)

```

Niggli's "Dictionnaire" has both fãagıt and fãat for "sauveur", with fãat also glossed as "voleur, brigand."

A more everyday example is WK's form kiïbú cb kïib- "soap." Written sources have \(k i ' i b\), probably \(k i ̄ ' \iota b^{\jmath /}\) "soap", cf Toende \(k i ́ 1 ı p\) in Niggli's "Dictionnaire" (Farefare kí'íbj́.) The final \(-v\) of kīibú suggests borrowing from a related language which does not delete final short vowels in citation forms. The tense stem vowel further suggests that the source was the Mampruli kyiibu, as loss of the tense/lax distinction in the high vowels is characteristic of the subgroup of languages which includes Mampruli, Hanga and Dagbani, and in particular is not seen in Mooré.

Other words with singulars ending in \(-\iota^{+}\)or \(-v^{+} \underline{9.6}\) like kābırí+ "permission for entry" and sūgurú+ "forbearance" may similarly have originated as loans from other Western Oti-Volta languages.

A few loans from English are found. English is in most respects even less like Kusaal in phonological structure than Hausa is, and those loanwords which are sufficiently naturalised that they are used even by speakers unfamiliar with English have often undergone considerable changes:
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|}
\hline àlópì \({ }^{\text {¢ }}\) & "aeroplane"; perhaps a back-formation from [alopi[in] taken as a locative àlópìrīn \({ }^{\varepsilon /}\) \\
\hline du'átà \({ }^{+}\) & "doctor" (cf Dagbani dóyté id) \\
\hline tóklàe \({ }^{+}\) & "torch" \(\leftarrow\) "torchlight" \\
\hline \(1 \mathrm{l}^{\text {r }}\) & ```
"car, lorry"
    (often borrowed even in Francophone Africa:
cf Kabiyè lorríye, 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 *ľ̄yá 9.7.

Several loanwords of English origin have probably been transmitted via Hausa:
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|}
\hline kótù \({ }^{+}\) & "court" & Hausa kootù \\
\hline sógìà \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & "soldier" & Hausa soojà \\
\hline tع́عbòl \({ }^{\text {® }}\) & "table" & Hausa teebùr \\
\hline wādá+ & "law" & Hausa oodà ( \(\leftarrow\) English "order") sg wādırel \\
\hline & & cb wād- by back-formation \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

The only French loan identified in my materials is làmp \(\overline{\text { (i.e. l'impôt) "tax", as }}\) in làmpj̄-dí'̇̀s \({ }^{\text {a }}\) "tax gatherer", which is perhaps a legacy of early Bible translation activity by workers coming from Haute Volta (though it is found also in Dagbani.) There are naturally many more French loans in Burkina Faso Toende (Niggli 2014.)

I have identified few loans from Twi/Fante ("Akan"), the major lingua franca of southern Ghana; in part, this probably reflects my own lack of knowledge of that language. However, as of 1995, knowledge of Twi was certainly less common among the Kusaasi than knowledge of Hausa or Mooré.

Loans include
```

kj̄dv́+
sāafı+(?tones)
būrıyá+

```
\begin{tabular}{ll} 
"banana" & \(\leftarrow\) kwadu \\
"lock, key" & \(\leftarrow\) safẽ \\
"Christmas" & \(\leftarrow\)\begin{tabular}{l} 
bronya \\
\\
\\
\end{tabular}\(\quad\) (itself of unclear origin)
\end{tabular}

\section*{Syntax}

\section*{19 Noun Phrases}

\subsection*{19.1 Noun Phrases: Overview}

A Noun Phrase has a noun, pronoun or quantifier as head. If present, the article \(I^{+}{ }^{+/}\)occurs last in a NP 19.3. (For the sole exception, see 23.7.)

Dependent Nominal Phrases may precede the head, possibly recursively, as Pre-determiners. The meaning depends on the nature of the head: some heads have specialised rôles 19.9.3; with Quantifiers or pronoun heads the sense is partitive 19.9.1; pre-determiners of gerunds and similar nouns are subjects 19.9.2; predeterminers of all other heads are possessors 19.7.3.

A Nominal Phrase may be a Relative Clause 31.2. No dependents may occur with a Relative Clause apart from the article or a pre-determiner. Nominal Phrases may be formed by Coordination 19.4 or by Apposition 19.5.

As is characteristic of Oti-Volta, compounding 19.6 is pervasive in NP formation, often where most languages use uncompounded constructions. Closeness of syntactic binding need not be reflected in whether the components are compounded or not 19.6.1. Adjectives and post-determining pronouns regularly compound with the preceding head; accordingly the combining form is a regular part of the noun paradigm. Combining forms also function as Pre-modifiers, particularly before deverbal nouns in the rôle of arguments.

Uncombined NPs of various kinds also appear within NPs as pre-modifiers, and uncombined Quantifier and Adverbial Phrases may follow heads as post-determiners.

Personal pronouns accept only post-determining pronouns as dependents.

\subsection*{19.2 Noun Phrase Categories}

\subsection*{19.2.1 Number}

Number is a category only of nouns and pronouns, along with quantifiers when heading Quantifier Phrases. Agreement is confined to pronouns. Verbal Predicators show no agreement with any argument (on plural-subject imperatives see 28.2.3.) However, in noun + adjective and noun + post-determining pronoun compounds, it is the dependent which inflects to show the number of the head noun cb 19.8.1.

Kusaal resembles English in distinguishing between count nouns, with singular and plural, and mass nouns which normally make no such distinction, and characteristically refer to liquids or substances or abstractions. Abstract nouns may be count nouns; so, for example with gerund forms which can be interpreted as referring to particular instances of the action of the verb:
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|c|}
\hline \(z \bar{\partial} g^{\text { }}\) & \(z \bar{\partial}\) ¢ \({ }^{\text {¢ }}\) & & "race" \\
\hline bū'өsúg & bū'өsá+ & \(b u ̄ ' ө s-\) & "question" \\
\hline zàañsún & zàañsímà+ & zàañsón- & "dream" \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

Some abstract count nouns are formally plural but construed as singular \(\underline{9.5}\)
\begin{tabular}{ll} 
di'əma+ & "festival" \\
píàn'ad & "word, language" \\
\(t \overline{\text { ñ }}\) ' \(\varepsilon s a^{+}\) & "thought"
\end{tabular}

Cf \(t \bar{\sim} n{ }^{n} ' \varepsilon s a ́ ~ y i ̄ n n i ́ ~ " o n e ~ t h o u g h t " ~(A c t s ~ 4: 32) . ~\)
Typical underived mass nouns belong to the \(b^{3}\) and \(m^{m}\) Noun Classes, which do not have paired \(\mathrm{sg} / \mathrm{pl}\) suffixes 9.1 , but some are formally plural 9.5, and gerunds of 3mora stem verbs regularly show \(\operatorname{sg} r^{\varepsilon}\) or \(g^{\rho}\) suffixes 12.1.1.1.

The count/mass distinction is significant in the choice of quantifiers 16.1 and when plurals are formed with nàm \({ }^{\text {a }} \underline{\underline{9} .4}\), and it affects the meaning of constructions with preceding NPs as dependents 19.7.

Mass nouns can be used in count senses 9.4 (as in English):
dāam nám "beers"

Count nouns can be used in mass senses, where number distinctions are irrelevant 19.7.2.2:
fūug dj́ว̀g
cf fūug
dàad bún-nám
cf dàad
```

"tent" (cloth hut)
"item of clothing, shirt"
"wooden things"
"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 20.4:
```

M k\varepsiloń\eta nכ̄bá. "I went on foot." SB
1sG go leg:PL.
WK corrected this to
M k\varepsiloń\eta n\varepsilon̄ nכ̄bá, (n\overline{\varepsilon "with")}

```

\subsection*{19.2.2 Gender}

Gender is marked only in pronouns. It is natural, distinguishing animate from inanimate. Not only human beings, but also supernatural beings, "fairies" and the like have "animate" gender. Without a context, my informants all rejected
```

*Ò à n\overline{\varepsilon}}\mathrm{ náaf. attempted "It is a cow."
3AN COP FOC COW:SG.

```

Nevertheless, the Bible versions and other written materials often do use the animate pronouns for higher animals:

Bung ya'a bood ye o lubuf, fu po nyeti o tubaa.
Bùn yá' bj̀วd yદ́ ò lūbú_ \(f\),
Donkey:sG if want that 3AN throw.off 2sG.ob,
fù pū ny \(\bar{\sim} t i ́\) ò tùbāa \({ }^{+} \varnothing\).
2SG NEG.IND See:DIPF 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_ ì nī, ì zùlon ná pāe ò sàlıbır.
And horse:sg if descend binan loc, zinan depth irr reach 3an bridle:sg.
"If a horse goes down in it, its depth will reach its bridle." (Rev 14:20)

In stories where animals speak, they are naturally assigned animate gender. Trees, which are animate in the traditional Kusaasi world view, may also have animate gender:

Tiig wela bigisid on a si'em.
Tìıg wélà bigısıd ón àn sỉəəm.
Tree:sG fruit:PL show:DIPF 3AN:COMP COP INDF.ADV.
"The fruit of a tree shows what ["how"] it is." (Mt 12:33, 1976)

In the 1996 version the gender has been changed to inanimate:

Tiig wela bigisid lin a tisi'a.
Tìg wélà bigısıd lín àn tí-sỉa.
Tree:sG fruit:PL show:IMPF IINAN:COMP COP tree-INDF.INAN.
"The fruit of the tree shows what tree it is." (Mt 12:33, 1996)

When body parts are metaphorically represented as having opinions in this New Testament passage, they have animate gender:

Nobir ya'a yelin ye, on pu a nu'ug la zug, o ka' ningbin nii, lin ku nyapin keen ka o ka' nipgbin nii.
Nóbìr yá' yદ̀l̄̄-n yē, ón pō án nú'ùg lā zúg,
Leg:sg if say-rem that 3AN:Comp neg.ind cop hand:sg Art upon,
ò kā' nín-gbīn níı \({ }^{+} \varnothing\), līn kú nȳā ı-n_ \(\quad \varnothing\)
3AN neg.be body-skin:sg loc neg, dem.inan neg.irr accomplish-rem ser
kēq-n kà ò kā' nín-gbīn níl \({ }^{+} \varnothing\).
cause-rem 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 ne bílīa. \(\quad\) "He/she/it is a baby."
3AN/3INAN COP FOC child-baby:SG.

The relevant distinction thus appears to be 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 does make 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 \(\underline{9.1} \underline{2.2 .2}\), 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 19.8.1.5; except for morphological reasons, probably only human-reference heads can be used with appositional Relative Clauses 31.2.3.

There has been a change, apparent to some extent already in the NT versions but complete in the speech of my informants, in the alignment of gender and number. An earlier opposition of an animate gender which distinguished singular from plural over against an inanimate gender which used the same forms for both numbers (resembling that described for modern Dagbani by Olawsky) has been replaced by a system which distinguishes animate/inanimate in the singular but has no gender distinction in the plural. In older sources inanimate pronoun forms are used indifferently for sg or pl , occasionally with nàm \({ }^{\text {a }}\) plurals to avoid ambiguity. Although the 1976 NT uses the independent inanimate gender demonstrative pronoun \(n \bar{\varepsilon}^{\prime+/}\) as sg and pl, with \(n \bar{\varepsilon} '-n a ́ m^{a}\) also as a plural form, it already consistently uses the animate plurals bàmmā \({ }^{+/}\)bàn \(^{\varepsilon}\) of the dependent pronouns for inanimate, and my informants use all animate plural forms freely for both genders:

Bà à n \(\bar{\varepsilon}\) 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-káhā, う̄n sáñ'àm n \(\overline{\text { an }}\).
Eye-dem.del.SG, 3AN.CNTR spoil foc.
"This eye, it's spoilt." KT
\(\dot{M} p \bar{u} \quad\) nyē.ó-o \(\quad{ }^{+} \varnothing\). \(\quad\) I can't find it [a stethoscope]" (Overheard)
1SG NEG.IND See-3AN.OB NEG.
sālıma lá'àd né ò būtıs "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 àen \(n^{\text {a }}\) "be something":

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*{19.2.3 Person}

Person is a category confined to personal pronouns. The Verbal Predicator shows no agreement with any argument 22.1 (with a marginal exception for some speakers with plural commands 28.2.3.) 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.
Bùn yá' bう̀วd yé ò lūbú_f,
Donkey:sg if want that 3AN throw.off 2sG.ob,
fù pū nyz̄tí ò tùbāa \({ }^{+} \varnothing\).
2SG NEG.IND see:DIPF 3AN ear:PL NEG.
"If a donkey wants to throw you off, you don't see his ears." KSS p44
(i.e. "If there's a will, there's a way.")

The 3rd Person plural is used as a non-specific "they" for turning passive constructions actively, much as in English:
```

Bà yว̀วdī $f$ súnàa ${ }^{+}$?

```

3PL pay:DIPF 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 the the object can be construed as the grammatical subject in a Serial VP construction 26.1, e.g.

\section*{Diib wusa nari ba di.}
"All foods may be eaten." (Rom 14:20)
Dīıb wūsa nárì_ ø bà dí.
Food all must ser 3pl eat.

There are formal means of distinguishing different third persons by the use of pronoun ellipsis 27.1.5.2 and logophoric use of the free pronouns 29.3.2.

\subsection*{19.3 The Article Iā+/}

The two words \(I^{-}+/\)and ñwà \({ }^{+}\)presumably originated as corresponding deictics "that" and "this." Although nuwà 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 n \(n w{ }^{+}{ }^{+}\), in the Non-verbal Predicators \(n ~ l a ̄, n\) ñwà \(2 \underline{5}\) and after demonstratives 15.2.


Nwà á \(n \bar{\varepsilon}\) bïig. \(\quad\) "This is a child." WK; tones sic.
This COP FOC child:sG.

Both \(I_{\bar{a}}{ }^{+/}\)and \(\underset{\sim}{n} w{ }^{+}+\)always stand finally in the NP (though this entire phrase may be a pre-determiner within another NP) except for the marginal case where a VP-final particle occurs in an \(\grave{n}\)-Clause, when it may follow the article attached to the clause 23.7.

As the definite article, \(l \bar{a}^{+/}\)corresponds in many cases to English "the", marking referents as specific and already established. However, unlike "the", \(I \bar{a}^{+/}\)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:

\section*{mān}

À-Wīn
Bj̀k
"me"
"Awini"
"Bawku"

Nor is it used with abstract mass nouns, which do not distinguish definite from indefinite (compare the neutralisation of the referring/non-referring distinction implied in their construction when they appear as pre-modifiers 19.7.2.2):

Nonilim pu naada.
Nònılím pū nāadá \({ }^{+} \varnothing\).
Love neg.ind finish:DIPF neg.
"Love does not come to an end." (1 Cor 13:8)
\(L \bar{a}^{+/}\)is not used in vocatives:

Bïiga \(+\varnothing\) ! "Child!"
Child:sg voc!

This contrasts with nwà \({ }^{+}\), which is common in vocatives 28.2.4:

Bīis ñwá!
"Children!" [bi:sa]

There is no indefinite article: a NP with no \(\mathrm{a}^{+/}\)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 bïig "child" in

M bïig kā'e \({ }^{+} \varnothing\). "I've no child" WK
1SG child:SG NEG.be NEG.
and with the complement of àeñ \({ }^{\text {a }}\) "be something" when used ascriptively 24.2:

Ò à \(n \bar{\varepsilon}\) bï̈g. \(\quad\) "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 33.4:

Dau da be mori o biribing
Dāu dá bè_ ø mōrí_ò bī-díbìn
Man:sg tns exist ser have 3an 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 nyyz̄ dáu kà ò yō'ur búèn Aneas.
ADV:there and 3AN see man:sg and 3AN name:sg call:DIPF 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", \(\mathrm{Ia}^{+/}\)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:DIPF 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 bigısıd lín àn tí-sỉa.
Tree:Sg fruit:PL SER show:IMPF 3INAN:COMP COP tree-INDF.INAN.
"It's the fruit of the tree that shows what tree it is." (Mt 12:33)
\[
\begin{array}{ll}
\text { Kusaas ye ... } & \text { The Kusaasi say ..." KSS p16 } \\
& \text { drawing the moral of a story. }
\end{array}
\]

Generic reference core arguments are incompatible with a Verbal Predicator with the particle \(n \bar{\varepsilon}^{+/}\)in its aspectual sense 33.1.2.3.

A possessive pre-determining NP ending in \(I^{+}+/\)makes the following head definite, and the head does not itself take the article:
```

    dư'átà lā bîg
    not *dư'átà lā bîg lā

```

Pronouns and personal names as possessive pre-determiners do not have this effect; only pre-determiners with the article, and demonstrative pronouns 15.2, automatically make their NPs definite:

Wínà'am máliāk
Wínà'am máliāk lā

> "an angel of God"
"the angel of God"
m biig
m̀ bïig lā
```

"my child" (at first mention)
"my child" (previously mentioned)

```

In the passage

Pu'a so' da be mor o bipun ka kikirig dol o. Ka o wom Yesu yela, ka keך igin o tuon. Ka sכs Yesu ye o kadim kikirig la yis o biig la ni.
Pự'à-sכ̄' dá bè_ \(\varnothing\) mór ò bī-púp kà kìkīrıg
Woman-indf.an tns exist ser have 3an child-girl:sg and fairy:sg

follow 3an.ob. And 3an hear Jesus about, and go ser kneel.down
ò tù̀n. Kà sós Yesu yé ò kàdım kíkīrıg lā_ø yís
3AN in.front. And beg Jesus that 3AN drive.out:IMP fairy:Sg ART SER expel
ò biïg lā ní.
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-pú "her daughter" on first introduction, but does occur in ò biilg lā "her child" after the reference is established, just as with nouns without possessive pre-determiners.

Compare

M̀ bïig kā'e \({ }^{+} \varnothing\). \(\quad\) I've no child" WK
1SG child:Sg neg.be neg.

M̀ bïig lā kā'e \({ }^{+} \varnothing\). "My child's not there" WK
1SG child:SG ARt neg.be neg.

Note also the characteristic idiom at first introduction of a new possessed referent seen in two of the examples above:

Pu'a so' da be mor o bipun
Pư'à-sכ̄' dá bè_ ø mór ò bī-pún
Woman-indf.an tns exist ser 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_ \(\varnothing\) mōrí_ò bī-díbìn
Man:sg tws exist ser have 3an child-boy:sg
"Once there was a man who had a son ..." KSS p35
further demonstrating that pronoun possessors do not automatically entail definiteness of the head.

Compare the use of y \(\bar{\varepsilon} l a ́+~ " a b o u t " ~ o f ~ a s ~ a ~ p r e-m o d i f i e r ~ i n ~ N P s ~ e v e n ~ w h e n ~ i t ~ h a s ~\) a definite pre-determiner itself 19.7.2.3, and the fact that postpositions (including the null allomorph of the locative marker 20.3) may function for focus purposes as pragmatically non-recoverable despite following a definite pre-determiner 33.1.2.4.

Certain words consistently lack the article after a pronoun possessor even if they are specific old information, however; this may be a question of uniqueness within the particular context, occurring for example with words like \(b_{\bar{\prime}}{ }^{+/}\)or sàam \({ }^{\text {ma }}\) "father." (It is possibly a feature characteristic of kinship terms or words that rarely appear without a possessor 35.1.)

An opposition between forms with and without the article, rather than definite versus indefinite, is seen in the distribution of the empty particle \(n \bar{\varepsilon}\) which follows complements of comparisons 21.1 when they lack the article, even if they are proper names or other NPs which do not normally appear with \(I \bar{a}^{+/}\).

For an unambiguously indefinite specific meaning like "some, another" the Indefinite pronouns are used 15.3.

Nā'-síəbà ónbìd n̄̄ mכ̄כd.
Cow indf.pl chew:DIPF Foc grass:PL.
"Some cows are eating grass."

An Indefinite pronoun is necessary to make the head indefinite after a predeterminer with the article:
```

du'átà lā bí-sō' "a child of the doctor's"

```
doctor:SG ART child INDF.AN

The number yīnní \({ }^{+}\)"one" is sometimes used to introduce a new referent:

Farisee dim nid yinne da bs
Farisee dím nìd yīnní dà bè ...
Pharisee individual.pl person:sg one tns exist ...
"There was one man of the Pharisees ..." (Jn 3:1)

However, yīnní here is not bleached to the simple sense of an indefinite article; rather, the construction is parallel to e.g.
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Dapa atan' n da be. "There were once three men." KSS p16
Dāpá_àtán' n dá b\varepsiloǹ.
Man:PL Num:three SER TNS ExIST

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\subsection*{19.4 Coordination}

Coordination is characteristically a feature of NPs, but also occurs with AdvPs, with the exception of those headed by manner adverbs.

The coordinating particles for "or" are b̄̄६ or the Hausa loanword \(k \bar{v} v\). Here the two words are synonymous; the only place where they consistently have different senses is in the formation of polar questions 28.2.2. Both, like English "or", are by default taken as exclusive "or" but admit the inclusive interpretation "or both." This can be spelt out explicitly:

Bïig lā kūv dāu lā kōo bà wūsa
child:SG ART or man:SG ART or 3PL all
"The man, or the child, or both" WK

The particle for "and" for Nominal Phrases is \(n \bar{\varepsilon}\). This \(n \bar{\varepsilon}\) is fundamentally the same word as the preposition "with" 21.1; the conjunctions \(b \bar{\varepsilon} \varepsilon\) and \(k \bar{v} v\) can be used in a parallel way, but the categories of (true) Conjunction and Preposition could probably in any case be conflated 27.1.3. \(N \bar{\varepsilon}\) links only nominal words and phrases, and never clauses unless they are first nominalised, so it is not possible to merge Conjunctions-Prepositions with Clause Linker Particles (kà y \(\bar{\varepsilon}\).)

Consistent with this analysis of \(n \bar{\varepsilon}\) "and", it is not possible to omit coordinating particles in a series of three or more items

\section*{À-Wīn né À-Būgur né À-Nà'ab "Awini, Abugri and Anaba"}

Nor can \(n \bar{\varepsilon}\) be used to join two words with the same referent: dú'átà \(n \bar{\varepsilon}\) ná'àb cannot be "someone who is a doctor and a chief."

Coordinated dependents within compounds are not permitted:
\begin{tabular}{ll}
\(*[b \bar{\varepsilon} \eta i ́ d ~ n \bar{\varepsilon}\) & \(k i]\) Kúès \\
& \begin{tabular}{l} 
not possible for "seller of \(b \bar{\varepsilon} \eta i ́ d ~ n \bar{\varepsilon}\) \\
(bī"
\end{tabular} \\
& unity like "fish and chips", "lox and bagels")
\end{tabular}

However, free NPs with coordinated components may be dependents:
o nya'andدlib pii ne yi "his twelve disciples" (Mt 26:20)
ò nyà'an-ḋ̀llıb pīi n̄ yí
3AN after-follower:PL ten with two

sālıma n̄ ānzúrıfà lá'àd "gold and silver goods"
gold with silver item:PL

The latter two cases are ambiguous, as in English: this is because of an alternative interpretation as ellipsis of the first of two repeated heads within a coordination of two parallel dependent + head NPs (cf 27.1.5.1):
[dư'átà nē ná'àb lā] lóyà
[dư'átà lóyà] n \(\bar{\varepsilon}\) [ná'àb lā lóyà]
[sālıma nē ānzúrıfà] lá'àd
[sālıma lá'àd] n \(\bar{\varepsilon}\) [ānzúrıfà lá'àd]
"the cars of [Doctor-and-the-chief]"
"[Doctor's cars] and [the chief's cars]"
"[gold-and-silver] goods"
"[gold goods] and [silver goods]"

Not all such cases involve ellipsis, however; apart from the possibility of two distinct meanings in the examples above, one of which excludes ellipsis, this is also clear from cases like
ānzúrıfà nē sālıma lá'-māan "silver- and goldsmith"
silver with gold item-maker:sG

This cannot be a case of ellipsis, because it is not possible to coordinate dependent combining forms, and \(n \bar{\varepsilon}\) cannot join two NPs with the same reference.
*ānzúrıfà lá'- nē sālıma lá'-māan
(impossible)
ānzúrıfà lá'-māan nē sālıma lá'-māan
(necessarily two different people)

Coordinated heads may not share articles or determiners.
Both articles are necessary in:
pư'ā lā nē dāu lā "the woman and the man"
woman:SG ART with man:SG ART

Both instances of \(\grave{m}\) "my" are needed in
m ba'abiis ne m saamnama
m̀ bā'-bîs né ì sàam-nàmā \({ }^{+} \varnothing\)
1SG father-child:PL with \(\mathbf{1 S G}\) father-PL voc
"my siblings and [my] fathers!" (Acts 7:2)

Yīigá+ "firstly" 19.7.3 is an exception:
yiiga saŋgbaun ne tengbaun ne atzuk
yïigá sàn-gbàun n̄̄ tह́n-gbàun né àtìuk
firstly heaven-skin:sG with earth-skin:sG with sea:sG
"the first heaven and earth and sea" (Rev 21:1)

Coordinated heads may share modifiers; even coordination of cb heads before an adjective appears in

Ka m nye sangbaup ne tengbaung paal.
Kà m̀ ny \(y \bar{\varepsilon}\) sán-gbàun- n \(\bar{\varepsilon}\) tén-gbàun -páal
And 1sg see heaven-skin- with earth-skin-new:sg.
"And I saw a new heaven and a new earth." (Rev 21:1)

Pre-modifiers can be shared so long as they are not cbs:

Kūsáàl sólımà nē 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
\begin{tabular}{ll} 
sālıma bútìıs n \(\bar{\varepsilon}\) díısímà & "gold cups and spoons" \\
gold cup:PL with spoon:PL & ("all of them gold", KT)
\end{tabular}

However, KT WK both agreed that
sālıma lá'àd n \(\bar{\varepsilon}\) būtııs
must mean "gold goods and [not gold] cups", WK offering the correction
sālıma lá'àd né ò būtıss "gold goods and (gold) cups" WK
gold item:PL with 3AN cup:PL
where ò refers to sālıma. (See 19.2.2 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 bútìı nē [sālıma] díısímà "gold cups and [gold] spoons" (I am grateful to Tony Naden for this suggestion.)

\subsection*{19.5 Apposition}

Titles and other NPs may precede personal names in apposition:

Na'ab Agrippa
"King Agrippa." (Acts 25:13)

Li pu nar ye fu di fu ba'abiig po'a Herodiase.
Lì pū nār yé fù dí fù bā'-bîg pừá Herodiase \({ }^{+} \varnothing\).
binan neg.ind must that 2sg take 2sg father-child:sg wife:sg Herodias neg.
"It's not right for you to marry your brother's wife Herodias." (Mt 14:4, 1996)
... lebis ye, eenn, o zua Asibigi \(n\) kabirid.
... \(\varnothing\) lèbıs y \(\bar{\varepsilon}, ~ \bar{\varepsilon} \varepsilon n ̃, ~ o ̀ ~ z u ̛ a ̀ ~ A ̀-S i ̄ b ı g ı ~ n ~ k a ̄ b ı r i ́ d . ~\)
...SER reply that, Yes, 3AN friend:SG PERS-termite:Sg SER ask.admission:DIPF.
"...replying that, Yes, it was his friend Termite asking for admission." KSS p12

It is unclear whether the second element is subject to M Raising. However, the fact that the Personifier Clitic \(\dot{A}\) - is not omitted in these cases shows that the relationship is not dependent-head 19.10.

Personal pronouns in apposition use free forms 33.5:

Man Paul [...] pu'usidi ya. "I, Paul ... greet you." (2 Thess 3:17)
Mān Paul [...] pú'usìdī_yá.
1sG Paul greet:DIPF 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 19.8.1.5. "Appositional" Relative Clauses again probably always have human reference, and again the second element has adjectival function 31.2.3. I have no other examples where the second component is not a personal name.

Apposition is to be distinguished from constructions before post-determining pronouns when the head has no combining form, as with quantifiers, or has a coordinated structure 19.4, and from cases where the Combining Form has the segmental, but not tonal, form of the singular 9.2.2 15.2. 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 & Nう̄-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:
\[
\begin{array}{lll}
\text { lànnıg-kànā } & \text { "this squirrel" } & \text { WK } \\
\text { dàp-bàmmā } & \text { "these men" } & \text { WK }
\end{array}
\]

The many examples of Siig Sun in the 1996 NT audio version are likewise clearly read as Sìıg-sòn (or Súĭg-sùn with L Raising) or Sì-sùn, not *Sīıg-sún.

Among my informants, SB showed a much greater tendency to produce segmental sg forms before post-determining pronouns, and even adjectives, than my other informants, who generally rejected such formations.

\subsection*{19.6 Compounding}

Like other Oti-Volta languages, Kusaal shows abundant productive formation of compound nominals. Kusaal compounds fall into two basic types, depending on whether the combining form is the head or a pre-modifier. Compounding is the standard construction for head nouns with following dependent adjectives and Determiners 19.8.1 19.8.2.1:
\begin{tabular}{ll} 
būvga & "goat" \\
bù-pìəlıg & "white goat" \\
bù-kànā+/ & "this goat" \\
bù-piəl-kà \(\eta \bar{a}^{+/}\) & "this white goat"
\end{tabular}

It is also the normal construction for a generic concrete noun when preceding a head as a modifier 19.7.2.1 or as a generic argument to a deverbal noun 19.7.1:
\[
\begin{array}{ll}
\text { nà'ab lā wíàf zūvr } & \text { "the chief's horse's tail" } \\
\text { but nà'ab lā wíd-zōvr } & \text { "the chief's horse-tail" }
\end{array}
\]

Regardless of which element precedes, the last stem shows the noun class suffixes which mark number for the head. Preceding stems appear as combining forms, characteristically in the shape of bare stems which have undergone Apocope,
though analogical remodelling based on the form of the singular is common, and indeed regular with some stem types 9.2.2. Compounding is so productive that the combining form is a regular part of noun and adjective flexion 9.1, treated under nominal morphology.

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.

\subsection*{19.6.1 Complex Compounds}

Compounds may have compounds as components, most commonly as a result of the addition of an adjective or post-determining pronoun to an existing compound, in which case the binding to the new element is weaker than that within the existing compound:
\[
\begin{aligned}
& \text { [bù-pìəl-]kànā } \\
& \text { [nīn-wók-]pìəlıg } \\
& \text { [zà'-nכ̄-]píəlìg }
\end{aligned}
\]
```

"this [white goat]"
"white [tall person]"
"white gate" ("white [compound-mouth]")

```

A compound may appear as a generic argument to a following deverbal noun:
```

[zà'-nう̄-]gúr
[[zà'-nj̄-]gúr-]kà\etaā

```
```

"gate-keeper"

```
"gate-keeper"
"this [gate-keeper]"
```

"this [gate-keeper]"

```

Kusaal also possesses bahuvrihi adjectives 19.8.1.4 formed by zero-derivation of a noun-adjective compound to an adjective:
\begin{tabular}{ll} 
nīf-nyáuk & "one eye" \\
bù-[nīf-ñyáuk] & "[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 àen \(n^{\text {a }}\) "be something":

> Kùg-kànā á n̄̄ nōb-wók.

Chair-dem.dei.sg cop foc leg-long:sg.
"This chair is long-legged." WK

Adjectival combining forms can only be used before another adjective or before a post-determining pronoun. If a noun + adjective compound is used as a generic argument it must adopt a sg or pl form:
```

    fü-z\varepsilońñdà kùөs "seller of red (i.e. dyed) cloth"
    not *fü-z\varepsilońn'-kùes

```

Compounds may contain uncompounded elements within their structure, because regardless of whether compounded or not modifiers bind tighter than generic arguments, which bind tighter than determiners. Generic non-count NPs referring to substances appear as pre-modifiers within other NPs 19.7.2.2:
```

sālıma bútìp
ānzúrıfà n\overline{\varepsilon sālıma lá'àd}

```
```

"gold cup"

```
"gold cup"
"silver and gold goods"
```

"silver and gold goods"

```

Even if they consist of phrases rather than single words, they therefore bind more tightly to a following cb used as a generic argument than the cb does to a following deverbal noun:
\begin{tabular}{cll} 
& [ānzúrıfà lá'-]māan & "silversmith" ("[silver goods]-maker") \\
[ānzúrıfà nē sālıma lá'-]māan & "silver- and goldsmith" \\
cf & {\([f u ̄-z \varepsilon ́ n ̃ d a ̀] ~ k u ̀ ө s ~\)} & "[dyed cloth]-seller" \\
& & with an adjective post-modifier (see above)
\end{tabular}

If the cb is itself a pre-modifier, the the construction is nested, with the cb binding to the following head and the preceding unbound pre-modifier applying to the whole resulting compound:
```

sālıma [zá'-nכ̄эr] "golden gate" ("golden [compound-mouth]")
zūgú-n [níf-gbáu\eta] "upper eyelid" ("upper [eye-skin]")

```

Determiners, whether preceding or following the head, and whether compounded or uncompounded, have the loosest binding:
```

[sālıma bútì-]kànā "this [gold cup]"
[[sālıma lá'-]màan-]kà\etaā "this [[gold-item]-maker]"
ò [[sālıma lá'-]māan] "her [[gold-item]-maker]"

```

\subsection*{19.7 Dependents Preceding the Head}

The head of a NP may be preceded by dependents, which may be nominal combining forms, thus creating compounds, or may be free NPs or AdvPs. Only one preceding dependent is permitted, but the resulting NP may itself recursively serve as the head of a NP with yet another preceding dependent. Combining forms come last in such a sequence, and pre-determiners precede pre-modifiers:
```

Wínà'am [pú'vsùg [fúùg dój̀g]]
"tabernacle" (God's [worship [cloth hut]])

```

The structure reflects the nature of the preceding dependent: all generic count nouns appear as combining forms, and generic mass nouns also do but only as arguments to deverbal nouns; all other pre-dependents appear uncompounded. With most head nouns, a preceding dependent NP with definite and/or count reference is a possessor, while AdvPs or indefinite mass NP are pre-modifiers expressing either qualities or the material of which the head consists. AdvPs of various kinds also occur as pre-modifiers, and one quantifier as a pre-determiner. With certain types of head the pre-determiner + head construction has specialised meanings 19.9.

Preceding uncompounded dependents induce M Raising in the following word if they are followed by L Raising; if M Raising is absent, it demonstrates that the construction is in fact head + dependent not dependent + head. Combining Forms in all rôles are followed by M Raising if they end in M toneme 8.4.

\subsection*{19.7.1 Generic Arguments to Deverbal Nouns}

If the head is a deverbal noun, it may be preceded by a Combining Form representing a generic argument. The argument is a cb irrespective of whether the argument is a count or mass noun.
```

dā-núùr` }\mp@subsup{}{}{\varepsilon
g\overline{\varepsilon}-kúès}\mp@subsup{}{}{\mathrm{ a m}

```

With agent nouns of transitive verbs the cb almost always represents an object. Agent nouns from intransitives may have an AdvP or indirect object cb argument:
```

bùl-sīgıd"a/ "well-diver" (bùlıg}\mp@subsup{}{}{\mathrm{ a "well")}
tùөn-gāta}\mp@subsup{}{}{\mathrm{ a m ( "leader" gàad túèn "He's gone ahead")}
nyà'an-djlla "disciple" (nyá'a\etaa "behind")
(d\overline{\jmathla/ "accompany")}
pu'à-lā'ad a "laugher at women" WK
(Ò Ià'ad pū'ab "He laughs at women")

```

These compounds can be freely coined，and their meanings are generally transparent：
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|}
\hline nīn－kúv̀d \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & ＂murderer＂ \\
\hline  & ＂goat－killer＂ \\
\hline nj̄－kóvod \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & ＂hen－killer＂ \\
\hline pu＇à－kūod \({ }^{\text {a／}}\) & ＂woman－killer＂ \\
\hline nう̄－záñ \({ }^{\text {c }}\) & ＂holder of hens＂ \\
\hline wìd－kù \({ }^{\text {a }}{ }^{\text {a }}\) & ＂horse－seller＂ \\
\hline \(b u ̀-k u ̀ \theta s^{\text {a }}\) & ＂goat－seller＂ \\
\hline sàlım－kùes \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & ＂gold－seller＂ \\
\hline dā－núùd \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & ＂beer－drinker＂ \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

However，there are many idiomatic or set expressions．Further examples：

\author{
zīm－gbán＇àd \({ }^{\text {a }}\) \\ nう̄－dí̀̇̀s \({ }^{\text {a }}\) \\ tàn－mē \(\varepsilon d^{a}\) \\ làmp̄̄－dí＇̇̀s \({ }^{a}\) \\ gbàn－mīida／ \\ pu＇à－sān＇am \({ }^{\text {ma }}\) \\ zà＇－n亏̄－gúr \({ }^{\text {a }}\) \\ dà－kīəd \({ }^{\text {a }}\) \\ kう̀nb－kīm \({ }^{\text {na }}\)
}
```

"fisherman" ("fish-catcher")
"chief's spokesman" ("command-receiver")
Ghanaian English "linguist"
"builder" (tānn\varepsilon "earth")
"tax collector" (French l'impôt)
"scribe" NT ("book-knower")
"adulterer" ("woman-spoiler")
"gate-keeper" (zà'-nכ̄כr夏 "gate")
"wood-cutter"
"herdsman"
(k\grave{ñnb- as cb of būn-kónbùg}\mp@subsup{}{}{`} "tame animal")

```

My informants freely create and cite agent nouns in isolation，but it is unusual in practice for agent nouns to appear without a pre－dependent cb；in my materials only bāpıd \(d^{\text {a }}\)＂wise man＂，siā̄ııd \(d^{a}\)＂believer＂，sūクıda＂helper＂（of the Holy Spirit，NT）， fāand \(d^{\text {a／}}\)＂robber＂＂Saviour＂occur often．With monosyllabic agent nouns there is often a preceding cognate stem as cb．This is perhaps a cognate object in：
```

màal-māanna
zī-zîlda
"sacrificer"
"carrier-on-head"

```
but generally it seems to be simply a reduplication of the agent noun stem：
```

tù'as-tù'asa}\mp@subsup{}{}{\mathrm{ a m}
zàb-zàba}\mp@subsup{}{}{\mathrm{ a m}

```
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|}
\hline \(z \grave{t-z \bar{t}}{ }^{\text {a }}\) & ＂racer，athlete＂ \\
\hline tòm－tōm \({ }^{\text {na }}\) & ＂worker＂ \\
\hline \(l\) lım－lım \({ }^{\text {ma }}\) & ＂taster，sipper＂ \\
\hline zàm－zām \({ }^{\text {ma }}\) & ＂cheat＂ \\
\hline dàm－dām \({ }^{\text {ma }}\) & ＂shaker＂ \\
\hline tàm－tām \({ }^{\text {ma }}\) & ＂forgetful person＂ \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

Cb pre－dependents occur with deverbal instrument nouns，in object or adverbial senses：
```

sià-lכ̄\partialdí\etaa "belt" (waist-tying thing)
nīn-gótì\etaa
nīn-gótìs}\mp@subsup{}{}{\varepsilon}\mathrm{ "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 12．1．1．1．

If the underlying verb is transitive，a cb pre－dependent cannot be a subject．It is most often an object：

> pừà-dīırér
> nīn-kúvir \({ }^{\varepsilon}\)
> dā-núùr \({ }^{\varepsilon}\)
> Sāmán-pī́r \({ }^{\varepsilon}\)
> bùgúm-tכ̄วñ \(r^{\varepsilon}\)
> nう̄-ĺ́j̀ \({ }^{\varepsilon}\)
> nว̄-póว̀r \({ }^{\varepsilon}\)
> nう̄-náà \({ }^{\varepsilon}\)
> nīn-báàl-zว̄วr \({ }^{\varepsilon}\)

It may represent an AdvP：
mう̀－pīl \({ }^{1 \varepsilon}\)
kùm－vō＇vgír \({ }^{\varepsilon}\)
```

"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" (pj}+ "swear"
"covenant" (nā+ "join")
"pity" (Ò z\grave{t`ō nīn-báalìg. "He has pity on him")}

```
```

"grass roof" ("covering with grass")
"resurrection"
(O` vò'vg kümın. "He came alive from death.")

```

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-kj́ว̀r\&
nū'-módìr` win-liir  sūn-sán~'ù\eta`
sōñ-p\varepsiloń\varepsiloǹn}\mp@subsup{n}{}{n\varepsilon

```
```

"breaking a leg" (kj+ is intransitive)

```
"breaking a leg" (kj+ is intransitive)
"swelling of the hand"
"swelling of the hand"
"sunset"
"sunset"
(Winnıg lí yā. "The sun has set/fallen.")
(Winnıg lí yā. "The sun has set/fallen.")
"sorrow"
"sorrow"
(M sūñ~f sáñ'àm n\overline{\varepsilon.}."My heart is spoilt"
(M sūñ~f sáñ'àm n\overline{\varepsilon.}."My heart is spoilt"
= "I'm sad.")
= "I'm sad.")
"anger" (M}\mathrm{ sūñf pćlìg n白. "My heart is white.")
```

"anger" (M}\mathrm{ sūñf pćlìg n白. "My heart is white.")

```

\section*{19．7．2 Modifiers}

Nominal pre－modifiers cannot be specific．They vary in form depending on the nature of the dependent．AdvP pre－modifiers may contain constituents with specific reference，but as AdvPs they do not themselves refer．

\section*{19．7．2．1 Generic Count Nouns}

A count noun as a pre－modifier must appear as a Combining Form．
Compounds with a count noun pre－modifier are freely created，but resemble the compounds seen in other languages more closely than the type with Combining Form heads preceding adjectives and post－determining pronouns 19．8．Set forms with individualised lexical meanings often occur when the Combining Form is dependent， but rarely when it is a head before an adjective and，naturally，never with post－ determining pronouns．

Note the contrast between a generic pre－modifier and a pre－determiner in e．g．
```

bïig fúùg
bì-fūug
nà'ab Iā wíàf zūvr
nà'ab lã wíd-zūטr
"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 pre－modifiers have a very general quasi－adjectival sense．The resulting compounds are very liable to develop specialised lexical meanings：
\[
\begin{aligned}
& \text { wāb-móวgū-n WK } \\
& \text { zà'-n亏̄כr } \\
& \text { mà-bïig } \\
& \text { bā'-bîg } \\
& \text { tह̀n-bïig } \\
& \text { nàsàa-sìlvg }
\end{aligned}
\]
＂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

\section*{ku'à-nwïig}
```

"current" ("water-rope")
[cb from a mass noun, see below]

```

WK has the exceptional forms
```

náaf-bì'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 L Raising after náaf-.)

A cb pre-modifier of a deadjectival abstract noun may have a sense much like a generic argument:
```

süñ-kpí'òn د "boldness" ("heart-strength")
sūñ-má'asìm"m "joy" ("heart-coolness")
(M sōñf má'e yā. "I'm joyful.")
nìn-tōllímm}\mp@subsup{}{}{m}\quad\mathrm{ "fever" ("body-heat")
wīn-tój̀g
"ill fate" ("fate-bitterness")

```

Cases like these resemble those where the second element is a gerund 19.7.1, but deadjectival nouns are not gerunds 12.2 , and such constructions are not limited to cases where corresponding Adjectival Verbs exist:
```

pù-pìlım"m

```

\subsection*{19.7.2.2 Generic Non-count NPs}

Pre-modifers may also consist of Nominal Phrases with generic non-count reference. If they have abstract senses, they ascribe a quality to the head:
```

nā'am kúk
nā'am sú'vlìm
pù'usug dój̀g
tūlıgír bún
dūgub dút
līgıdı túvmà

```
```

"throne" ("chieftaincy chair")
"kingdom" ("chieftaincy possession")
"temple" ("worship house")
"heater" ("heating thing" = būn-túlıgìr}\mp@subsup{}{}{\varepsilon}
"cooking pots"
"expensive work" (lïgıdl+ "money")

```

Language names may appear as abstract nouns describing an ethnic group:
\begin{tabular}{ll} 
Kūsáàl yír n̄̄ kūөb & "Kusaasi houses and agriculture" \\
Nàsāal búgúm & "electricity" ("European fire")
\end{tabular}

NPs with concrete mass sense express the material of which the head consists. Most often the pre-modifier is a single noun:
sālıma bútìn "golden cup"

Count nouns may appear if used in a mass sense 19.2.1:
\begin{tabular}{ll} 
fūug dój̀g & "tent" (cloth hut) \\
dàad bón-nám & "wooden things" (dàvg \({ }^{\text {د }}\) "piece of wood")
\end{tabular}

NPs formed by coordination may occur in this use:
sālıma nē ānzúrıfà lá'àd "gold and silver goods"

Such pre-modifiers are referential, and can be the antecedents of pronouns:
sālıma lá'àd né ò būtıs "gold goods and [gold] cups" WK \(\underline{19.4}\)

Contrast the non-referential use of mass nouns as generic arguments to deverbal nouns:
\begin{tabular}{ll} 
sàlım-kù̀s & "gold-seller" \\
dā-núùd & "beer-drinker"
\end{tabular}

Cb forms of abstract non-count nouns do sometimes occur as pre-modifiers:
tànp-sōb \({ }^{\text {a }}\)
pù-pìəl-nīda/
pù-pìəl-sว̄b \({ }^{\text {a }}\)
but pò-pìəlım sób \({ }^{\text {a }}\)
pò-pìl-tōvma \({ }^{+}\)
but pò-pìəlım tóvmà \({ }^{+}\)
"warrior" (tāñp \({ }^{\text {Tw }}\) "war")
"holy person" (Rom 5:7, 1996)
"holy person" (Rom 3:10, 1996)
"holy person" (Mt 10:41, 1996) etc
"holy actions" (Rom 6:13, 1996)
"holy actions" (Mt 5:10, 1996)

An interesting case involving a concrete mass noun is the compound ku'à-ñwiig "current" ("water" + "rope.") This perhaps represents "aquatic rope" in contrast to *kù'өm ñwiîg "a rope made of water"; the construction with concrete mass premodifiers may be limited to the specific sense "made of ..."

\subsection*{19.7.2.3 Adverbial Phrases}

Like indefinite mass nouns, AdvPs as pre-dependents are pre-modifiers (contrast the determiner sense of AdvPs following the head 19.8.2.3.)

AdvPs as pre-modifiers may not be proadverbs. I do not have any examples of time AdvPs used as NP pre-modifiers.

Examples of AdvP pre-modifiers:

> būgusígā dáàn
> dūnıya ní nìn-gbīn
> kù'өmī-n bón
> kù'өmī-n dín
> kJ̄lıgo-n nó-dáv̀g
"softly-softly sort of person"
"earthly body"
"water creature"
"aquatic one"
"crayfish" ("in-the-river cock")

Although the AdvPs in cases like

> dàtìù níf
> dàgذ̀bıg níf
> zūgú-n níf-gbáun
> tēทı-n níf-gbáurn

> "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 tēnı-n níf-gbánà "lower eyelids" shows that the construction is actually modifying, not determining.

Postpostional phrases with yह̄lá+ "about" 20.6 appears as pre-modifiers, not pre-determiners. Adverbs, including postpositions, behave as generic non-count NPs syntactically; they are not made specific by a definite pre-determiner:

Kūsáàs kúèb nē yīr yélà gbàung "A book about Kusaasi houses and agriculture" dàun-kànā lā yélà gbàun \(\quad\) "a book about that man" WK

In the same way, locative AdvPs, including Kusaal place names with no locative particle 20.3, may occur as uncompounded pre-modifiers:

\section*{Bj̀k dím "Bawku people"}

The head of locative AdvPs is the locative particle itself, with a zero allomorph in the case of locative AdvPs such as Kusaal place names which are "intrinsically locative" 20.3; like other postpositions, this is never itself referential and is not itself rendered specific even though it has a specific pre-determiner. See also on locative complements and their focus behaviour 33.1.2.4.

\subsection*{19.7.3 Determiners}

The quantifier yïigá+ "firstly" appears as a pre-determiner "first", e.g.
yïigá sāa zúg n̄̄ t̄̄ŋ "the first heaven and earth"

Count and/or definite reference NPs as preceding dependents before noun heads are also determiners.

If the head itself is a determiner (i.e. a pronoun or quantifier) the construction is partitive 19.9.1.

NP pre-determiners before gerunds and other abstract nouns describing events or processes are interpreted as subjects:

Dāu lā kúlòg dāa mālısí m.
Man:Sg ARt return.home:GER tns be.sweet 1sG.ob.
"The man's return home pleased me."

Jesus kúm dá-pōodá zug "Jesus' death on the cross"
Jesus death cross:sG upon

Further expansion of such NPs is possible 19.9.2.
 heads have specialised senses with pre-determiners 19.9.3.

In all other cases, pre-determiners express possessors.

\section*{m̀ bïig}
dāu lā bîg
dāu lā bí̀̀r 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 19.3 .

The partitive sense with determiner heads is not possible with noun heads:
nīdıb lā gígìs
"the dumb ones of
[i.e. belonging to] the people"
Not possible as "among the people" WK.

\subsection*{19.8 Dependents Following the Head}

Dependents follow a head noun in the order adjective(s), Quantifier, determining pronoun or AdvP, Article.

It is characteristic of Kusaal and of other Oti-Volta languages that the normal construction with both adjectives 19.8.1 and post-determining pronouns is that they follow the head noun, which is itself reduced to a Combining Form, while the dependent inflects to show the number of the head. Quantifiers do not have combining forms, and so are not compounded with a following post-determining pronoun. (See further on apposition parallel to compounding 19.5.) For Quantifiers as post-determiners see 19.9.1.

Compounds where the combining form is the head are formed absolutely freely with completely transparent meaning, and correspond to uncompounded constructions in most other languages. It is largely because of such head-first compounds that the combining form needs to be treated as a standard part of the nominal paradigm, and it is in these cases particularly that cbs remodelled segmentally on the basis of the singular form (or even the plural) 9.2.2 are frequent.
\[
\begin{aligned}
& \text { būטga } \\
& \text { bù-pìlıga } \\
& \text { bù-kànā+/ } \\
& \text { bù-pìəl-kànā+/ }
\end{aligned}
\]
\[
\begin{aligned}
& \text { "goat" } \\
& \text { "white goat" } \\
& \text { "this goat" } \\
& \text { "this white goat" }
\end{aligned}
\]

Compounds with post-determining pronouns naturally cannot be lexicalised; compounds with adjectives do occasionally develop specialised individual lexical meanings, though much less often than modifier-first compounds.

For my informants WK and DK, a noun preceding a post-determining pronoun must appear as a combining form, but SB accepts preceding \(\mathrm{sg} / \mathrm{pl}\) forms; I did not record the tones of such forms and therefore do not know if the change is merely segmental remodelling or reflects a different construction (compare 9.2.2 and also náaf-bi'isím "cow's milk" 19.7.2.1.) Thus for SB:
```

    ?náaf-kà\etaā
    ?nāaf-kánā
    ?náaf kánā
    cf nā'-kánā

```

\subsection*{19.8.1 Adjectives}

Adjectives as modifiers always follow the head.
Adjectives do not appear without a preceding noun head, except to a very limited extent as complements to àen \(\tilde{N}^{\mathrm{a}}\) "be something/somehow" 24.2.

The combination noun + adjective is almost invariably rendered with noun cb before the adjective, which inflects as sg pl or cb on behalf of the head noun. My informants can sometimes be induced to accept sg + adjective but never produce such forms spontaneously.
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|c|}
\hline \(b u ̄ g^{\text {a }}\) & "goat" & \(b u ̄ 0 s^{\varepsilon}\) & "goats" \\
\hline bù-pìlıg \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & "white goat" & bù-pìlıs \({ }^{\text {e }}\) & "white goats" \\
\hline bù-sùn \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & "good goat" & bù-sùma+ & "good goats" \\
\hline nūa+/ & "hen" & nכ̄כs \({ }^{\text {/ }}\) & "hens" \\
\hline nj̄-píalìga & "white hen" & nכ̄-píalìs \({ }^{\text {e }}\) & "white hens" \\
\hline nכ̄-són & "good hen" & n̄̄-sómà \({ }^{+}\) & "good hens" \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

A second adjective or a post-determining pronoun can follow a first adjective, which thus itself appears as a cb:
\begin{tabular}{ll} 
nīn-wók-pìəlıg \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & "white tall person" \\
n亏̄-pí̀̀l-kànā
\end{tabular}

However, a noun + adjective compound cannot form a cb to be used as the generic argument of a deverbal noun; a sg/pl form appears instead:
```

    fü-z\varepsilońñdà kùөsa a "seller of red (i.e. dyed) cloth"
    not *fü-z\varepsilońñ'-kùөs}\mp@subsup{}{}{a

```
i.e. adjective cbs may only precede other adjectives or post-determining pronouns. Compounds with adjectives occasionally develop specialised lexical meanings:
```

nū'-bíla}\mp@subsup{}{}{a}\mathrm{ "finger" ("small hand")
tì-sābılímm}\mp@subsup{}{}{m}\quad\mathrm{ a traditional remedy ("black medicine")

```

Several names of plant and tree species are formed in this way:
gว̀ñ'-sābılíga Haaf gosabliga "Acacia Hockii" ("black thorn")

\subsection*{19.8.1.1 Class Agreement}

There are isolated set forms showing traces of the old agreement system:
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|}
\hline \multirow{3}{*}{cf} & là'-bīəlíf NT & "small coin" \\
\hline & lā'af & "cowrie" \\
\hline & bỉəlá+ & "a little" \\
\hline \multirow{3}{*}{cf} & dà-si'ə \(\mathrm{r}^{\varepsilon}\) & "some day; perhaps" \\
\hline & dāar \({ }^{\text {¢ }}\) & "day" \\
\hline & si'a+ & "some" \\
\hline \multirow{3}{*}{cf} & dàbıs-si'ər \({ }^{\varepsilon}\) & "some day" \\
\hline & dàbısır \({ }^{\text {e }}\) & "day" \\
\hline & sỉa+ & "some" \\
\hline \multirow{3}{*}{cf} & pu'à-pāala/ & "bride" \\
\hline & pu'āa & "wife" \\
\hline & pāalíg \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & "new" \\
\hline \multirow{3}{*}{cf} & dà-pāala/ & "young man, son" \\
\hline & dāu\({ }^{+}\) & "man" \\
\hline & pāalíg \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & "new" \\
\hline
\end{tabular}
where the adjectives do not normally occur with these class suffixes.
There remains a rule in WK's speech (not DK's) and in written materials requiring \(m^{\mathrm{m}}\) 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 \({ }^{\text {m }}\) & literally "black medicine", a specific traditional remedy \\
\hline & tì-vōnním \({ }^{\text {m }}\) & "oral medication" ("swallowing medicine") \\
\hline & tì-kūטdím \({ }^{\text {m }}\) & "poison" ("killing medicine") \\
\hline & kpān-sว́วñdim \({ }^{\text {m }}\) & "anointing oil" (kpāañm \({ }^{\mathrm{m} /}\) "oil, grease") \\
\hline & būn-bóدdìm \({ }^{\text {m }}\) & \begin{tabular}{l}
"desirable thing" \\
(1 Cor 14:1, referring to nว̀מılím \({ }^{m}\) "love")
\end{tabular} \\
\hline but & būn-bóวdìr \({ }^{\text { }}\) & "desirable thing" BNY p17, referring to a sheep \\
\hline & būn-ñyと́tìm \({ }^{\text {m }}\) & "the visible world" \\
\hline but & \(b \bar{n}-n y^{\prime}\) ¢́tì \({ }^{\varepsilon}\) & "a visible object" \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

The exceptional character of the \(m^{\mathrm{m}}\) Class in this matter is presumably due to its strong semantic association with the meanings "liquid" and "abstract."

\subsection*{19.8.1.2 Downtoning}

Adjectives may show Apocope Blocking \(\underline{6.4}\) as a downtoner (all examples KT):
Lì à nē fū-píəlìgā.
Lì à nē fū-píəlìgā lā.
"It's a whitish shirt."
"It's the whitish shirt."
Lì à \(n \bar{\varepsilon}\) wíùg.
Lì à \(n \bar{\varepsilon}\) wíugū.
"It's red."
fū-wíugū
"It's reddish."
Lì à nē tītā'arı.
"the reddish shirt"
"It's biggish."

This seems to be possible only with singular forms.

\subsection*{19.8.1.3 Ideophones}

Adjectives cannot themselves take adverbs as modifiers. In e.g.
\[
\text { Lì à nē píalìg pāmm. } \quad \text { "It's very white" }
\]
the adverb pāmm must be taken with the copula verb rather than the adjective; it is not possible to say
```

*fū-píəlìg pāmm lā

```
attempted "the very white shirt"

However, in any syntactic rôle an adjective may be immediately followed by an ideophone with intensifying force. As is common cross-linguistically, ideophones often display unusual phonological features. An ideophone is specific to a particular adjective, along with any cognate Adjectival Verb.
\[
\begin{array}{ll}
\text { Lì à nē píəlìg fáss fáss. } & \text { "It's very white." } \\
\text { Lì à n } n \text { sābılíg zím zím. } & \text { "It's deep black." } \\
\text { Lì à nē zín'a wím wím. } & \text { "It's deep red." }
\end{array}
\]

Ideophones are not limited to use with adjectives as complements of àeñ \({ }^{\text {a }}\) "be something/somehow" but occur with adjectives in their normal modifier rôle:
\[
\begin{array}{lll}
\text { Lì à nē fū-zíñ'a wím wím. } & \text { "It's a deep red shirt." } & \text { WK } \\
\text { M̀ nyé fū-zíñ'a wím wím. } & \text { "I've seen a deep red shirt." } & \text { WK }
\end{array}
\]
\begin{tabular}{lll} 
Fū-zín'a wím wím bé. & "There's a deep red shirt." & WK \\
\(\dot{M}\) bój̀d fū-zíñ 'a wím wím lā. & "I want the deep red shirt." & WK
\end{tabular}

Adjectival Verbs may take ideophones as intensifiers; they share the ideophone of the corresponding adjective:

Ò à nē wōk tólıîll.
Ò à n \(\bar{\varepsilon}\) gīŋ tírıgà.

Ò wà'am tólıìll.
O 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 nē bé' \(\varepsilon d\) 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

Ò tòm pāmm.
Ò tòm hālí.
Ò ż̀ pāmm.
Ò zò hālí.
"She's worked hard."
"She's worked hard." 21.2
"She's run a lot."
"She's run a lot."

However, many verbs can be followed by "onomatopoeic" words which resemble ideophones at least in phonology:

Ò zว̀t 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*{19.8.1.4 Bahuvrihis}

The combination noun + adjective may be used as a bahuvrihi adjective itself:

Lì à nē nū'-kpíilón.
Bīig lā á nē nū'-kpíilón.
Ò à nē bí-[nū'-kpiilún].
"It's a dead hand."
"The child is dead-handed."
"He's a dead-handed child."

In constructions like bì-nū'-kpiílón \({ }^{\text {د }}\) "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'-kpîm \({ }^{m}\), and in such constructions the adjective may even be plural despite singular reference of the whole noun + adjective compound:
bì-tùb-kpīda+
plural bì-tùb-kpīda nám \({ }^{\text {a }}\)
or bì-tùb-kpīdıs \({ }^{\varepsilon}\)
bì-tùb-līıd \(d^{\varepsilon}\)
"child/children with blocked ears" ( \(1 \overline{+}+\) "block up")

Accordingly, the construction is zero-derivation of a noun-adjective compound to an adjective, and not modification of an adjective by a cb.

Other examples of bahuvrihis:
kùg-nכ̄b-wók \({ }^{\text {º }}\)
\(k u ̀ g-n \bar{b} b-w a ́ ' a^{\prime} d^{\varepsilon}\)
zūg-máuk \({ }^{\text {º }}\)
plural zūg-má'àd \({ }^{\varepsilon}\)
zù-w \({ }^{2} k^{3 /}\)
nว̄b-gín \({ }^{\text {a }}\)
zū-pé \(\varepsilon / \dot{u} g{ }^{د}\)
plural \(z \bar{u}-p \varepsilon ́ \varepsilon / a^{+}\)
lām-fój̀g \({ }^{\circ}\)
plural lām-fój̀d \({ }^{\varepsilon}\)
(Plural analogical from sg, which shows the regular change *uөgu \(\rightarrow\) ว \(\boldsymbol{\partial g}\) )

The two adjectives "one of a pair" 16.2 .4 are often used in bahuvrihis: nyàuk \({ }^{\top} \mathrm{pl}\) ñà \(^{\prime} \mathrm{ad}^{\varepsilon}\) for eyes:
\[
\begin{array}{ll}
\text { nīf-nyáuk } & \text { "one eye" } \\
\text { bà-nīf-ñyáuk } & \text { "one-eyed dog" }
\end{array}
\]
yīun \(\eta^{J / p l}\) yīná \({ }^{+}\)of other paired body parts:
\begin{tabular}{ll} 
tòb-yīun \(\eta^{\prime}\) & "one ear" \\
bì-tùb-yīná+ & "one-eared children" \\
nכ̄b-yíun & "one-legged" \\
nū'-yíun & "one-handed"
\end{tabular}

\subsection*{19.8.1.5 Nouns as Adjectives}

Human-reference nouns may be used as adjectives modifying other humanreference nouns. This is particularly common with \({ }^{a} \mid b^{\text {a }}\) Class words:
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|}
\hline only & bì-sāanal or bì-sáana \({ }^{\text {a }}\) bù-sáan \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & \begin{tabular}{l}
"stranger-child" \\
"stranger goat"
\end{tabular} \\
\hline & bi-kprim \({ }^{\text {m/ }}\) & \\
\hline or & bì-kpiilún \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & "dead child" \\
\hline only & bù-kpìilún \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & "dead goat" \\
\hline & bì-dāu \({ }^{+}\) & \\
\hline or & bì-dāog \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & "male child" \\
\hline only & bù-dāog \({ }^{\text { }}\) & "male goat" \\
\hline & bì-pư'āa or bì-pưāk \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & "female child" \\
\hline & bì-zū'өm \({ }^{\mathrm{m} /}\) & \\
\hline or & bì-zùnż̀ \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & "blind child" \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

The same behaviour is also seen with some Agent Nouns:
pứà-zàañ sa "dreamy woman" KT
nīn-nén na "envious person"
bì-sīnna/ or bì-sinnníg \({ }^{\text {a }} \quad\) "silent child"
only bù-sīnníg \({ }^{\text {a }}\) or bù-sīnnúg \({ }^{\text {ºn }}\) "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 \(g^{\mathrm{a}} \mid s^{\varepsilon}\) or \(r^{\varepsilon} \mid a^{+}\)Class:
```

pu'à-kūvdíga}\mp@subsup{}{}{\mathrm{ a m}
pú'à-kōvd}\mp@subsup{|}{}{\textrm{a}/}\quad\mathrm{ only "killer of women"

```

This is true also of forms derived from verbs which are usually intransitive:
```

pu''à-lā'adıga
pu_'à-/ā'ada
"laugher at women"

```

Nouns not in the \({ }^{\mathrm{a}} \mid b^{\mathrm{a}}\) Class are used adjectivally express bodily defects:
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|}
\hline bì-zùnż̀ \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & "blind child" \\
\hline bìgìk \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & "dumb child" \\
\hline bì-wàbır \({ }^{\text {c }}\) & "lame child" \\
\hline bì-bālērug \({ }^{\text {ºn }}\) & "ugly child" \\
\hline bì-pう̀ñ'כr \({ }^{\varepsilon}\) & "crippled child" \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

Other examples include:
nàsàa-biig \({ }^{\text {a }}\)
yàmmug-bī-púna
yàm-bī-pón \({ }^{a}\)
cf yàmmug bí-púna
bī-pún-yàmmuga
nà'-bïiga
bì-nà'ab \({ }^{\text {a }}\)
dàu-biig \({ }^{a}\)
cf bì-dāu \({ }^{+}\)

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 12.2.

\subsection*{19.8.2 Determiners}

\subsection*{19.8.2.1 Pronouns}

Pronouns may follow a NP head as post-determining pronouns. The head then normally appears as a combining form. Demonstrative, Indefinite and Interrogative pronouns occur in this construction.

Like Quantifiers, pronouns also occur as NP heads. Some pronouns have forms used only as heads or only as post-determiners 15.2 15.3.

\subsection*{19.8.2.2 Quantifiers}

Quantifiers as NP dependents follow the head, except for yï̈gá+ "firstly"
19.7.3. The head only appears as a cb, optionally, with in a few cases with yīnní \({ }^{+}\) "one" and in a few fixed expressions 16.2.2; uncompounded post-dependents are not subject to M Raising 16.2.2:
\begin{tabular}{ll} 
kūgur yīnní+ & "one stone" \\
but & Kūg-yínni
\end{tabular}

I do not have any examples of co-occurrence with adjectives; when quantifiers precede post-determining pronouns the construction is probably always to be taken as a quantifier head with a pre-determiner, not a post-determining quantifier.
\begin{tabular}{ll} 
nīdıb bédvgō & "a lot of people" \\
nīdıb bédvgō lā & "the lot of people, the crowd" \\
nīdıbá àyí & "two people" \\
nīdıbá àyí lā & "the two people"
\end{tabular}

The head + post-dependent quantifier construction contrasts in meaning with the partitive sense of a pre-determiner + Quantifier Phrase head 19.9.1.

Quantifiers as post-dependents can be coordinated: this is the mechanism for the creation of numbers other than simple digits, tens or hundreds 16.2.2.

\section*{o nya'andっlib pii ne yi}
ò nyà'an-ḋ̀llıb pīi n̄ yí
3AN after-follower:pL ten with two
"his twelve disciples" (Mt 26:20)

\subsection*{19.8.2.3 Adverbial Phrases}

AdvPs following a NP head are post-determiners. Proadverbs do not occur in this use. There is no compounding or M Raising.

Contrast the pre-modifying use with the post-determining in
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|}
\hline & mj̄ogu-n wábùg lā \\
\hline but & wābug mj̄دgu-n lā \\
\hline
\end{tabular}
"the wild elephant" ("What kind of elephant?")
"the elephant in the bush" ("Which elephant?")

I do not have any unequivocal examples of time adverbs in this position; in
ñwādıs yóv̀m lā póvgū-n "months in the year" SB
the postposition phrase is formally locative, though used in a metaphorical temporal sense.

The manner-adverb amēŋá "really, truly" occurs meaning "genuine, real":

J̄n sכ̄b á n̄ dư'átà amēyá lā.
3AN.CNTR individual.AN COP FOC doctor:SG ADV:real:ADV ART
"That one's the real doctor."

When an abstract noun with verbal sense has a preceding NP functioning as subject, resulting in a type of clause nominalisation 19.7.3, a following AdvP may occur which represents an adjunct in the corresponding clause structure, but such adjuncts may also even be prepositional phrases, which are not found elsewhere as NP dependents, and even VP-final particles may occur. Accordingly, this is best regarded as a distinct clause nominalisation process rather than part of NP structure as such; see further 19.9.2.

> ya antu'a morim koto ni ne taaba la
> yà àntư'à-mכ̄rím kótù ní n̄̄ 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)

\subsection*{19.9 Specialised NP Heads}

\subsection*{19.9.1 Determiners}

Pronouns and quantifiers are determiners. They occur as post-dependents 19.8.2, but also frequently as NP heads.

NPs headed by determiners are equivalent syntactically to other NPs in their abilities to form arguments of VPs:

う̀nā lā ké nā.
Bàmmā lā ké nā
Pāmm ké nā.
Bèdugū ké nā.
Bèdugū lā ké nā.
Àyí ké nā.
Àyí lā ké nā.
"That one came."
"Those ones came.".
"Many came."
"Many came."
"The crowd came"
"Two came."
"The two came."

They manifest the NP category of number.
Quantifier heads pluralise with nàm \({ }^{\text {a }}\)
màlīāk-nám túsà pïiga nám "tens of thousands of angels"

Àyí námá_àyí á nē nāasí.
NUM:two PL NUM:two COP Foc four.
"Two two's are four."

NPs headed by Quantifiers may have post-determining pronouns; as quantifiers have no combining forms, there is no compounding:

Ka ti ye ti nye diib yaani moogin nwa diis nidib bedego bama nwa?
Kà tì yé tì nyȳ dīıb yáa ní mj̄כgo-n ñ~ ná
And 3pL say 3pL find food where loc grass:sG-Loc this
\(\varnothing\) dìıs nīdıb bédugū bámā ñ~wá \(+\varnothing\) ?
SER feed person:PL many dem.del.pl this cQ?
"Where are we going to find food in this wilderness to feed this crowd of people?" (Mt 15:33, 1996: KB nimbama nwa wosa "all these people")
nīdıb bédugū bánì k̄̄ nā lā
person:PL much rel.pl come hither art
"the crowd of people who have come"

All cases where quantifiers are followed by post-determining pronouns are probably quantifier-headed, not NPs with quantifiers as dependents.

There is a contrast between a NP with a noun head and a post-determiner (pronoun or quantifier) as a dependent 19.8.2, and a NP with a determiner head which is itself preceded by a NP pre-determiner; the latter construction is partitive. The position of the article \(l \bar{a}^{+/}\)may distinguish the two constructions.

NP with a post-determiner:
\begin{tabular}{llll} 
nīdıb bédugū & "a lot of people" & bèdvgū & dependent \\
nīdıb bédugū lā & "the lot of people, the crowd" & bèdvgū & dependent \\
nīdıbá àyí & "two people" & àyí & dependent \\
nīdıbá àyí lā & "the two people" & àyí & dependent \\
nīn-síabà & "certain people" & síəbà & dependent
\end{tabular}

NP with a determiner head and a NP pre-determiner:
\begin{tabular}{llll} 
nīdıb lā bédugū & "a lot of the people" & bèdugū & head \\
nīdıb lá àyí & "two of the people" & àyí & head \\
yà sכ̄' & "some one among you" & s̄̄' & head \\
nīdıb lā síabà & "certain of the people" & síabà & head \\
nīdıb síabà & "certain ones among people" & síabà & head
\end{tabular}
nīdıbá_ àtán' lá ànó'ว̀n ...
person:PL Num:three ART who ...
"who, among the three people ...?"

The determiner head can be a \(\grave{n}\)-Clause:

Pa'alimi ti nidiba ayi' nwa fon gan so'
Pà'alımī tí nīdıbá àyí ñwá fón gāa sj̄'
Teach:Imp 1PL.OB person:PL num:two this 2SG:COMP choose indf.AN
"Tell us which of these two people you have chosen" (Acts 1:24)

\subsection*{19.9.2 Gerunds and Deverbal Abstract Nouns}

Gerunds can take NP pre-determiners as subjects 19.7.3.

Dāu lā kúlùg dāa mālısí m.
Man:sg ARt return.home:Ger tns be.pleasing 1sG.ob.
"The man's return home pleased me."

A generic object argument may also occur as a Combining Form, and adjunct AdvPs may follow the head:
ninsaalib yadda 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-mōrím kótù ní n̄ tāaba lā
2PL case-have:Ger court:sg Loc with each.other ART
"your going to law with each other in court" (1 Cor 6:7, 1976)

VP-final particles may occur too 23.7:

Ninsaal Biig la lebug la na
Nīn-sáàl Bîg lā lébùg 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
Kristo kúm dá-pōodír 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.

\subsection*{19.9.3 Mē \(\eta^{a / ~ d a ̄ a n}{ }^{\mathbf{a}} \operatorname{sō}^{\mathbf{a}} \operatorname{būn}^{n \varepsilon /}\)}

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 20.6.) \(\boldsymbol{M} \overline{\boldsymbol{\varepsilon}} \boldsymbol{\eta}^{\mathrm{a} /}\) "self" is used indifferently for \(\mathrm{sg} / \mathrm{pl}\), always with a pre-determiner:
```

```
m̀m\overline{\varepsilon}
```

```
m̀m\overline{\varepsilon}
yà m\overline{\eta}
yà m\overline{\eta}
nà'ab lā mén
nà'ab lā mén
chief:sg ART self
chief:sg ART self
Bà nyź\varepsilon_bà mह̄\eta. "They've seen for themselves."
Bà nyź\varepsilon_bà mह̄\eta. "They've seen for themselves."
3PL see 3PL self.
```

```
3PL see 3PL self.
```

```
"Christ's death on the cross" (1 Cor 1:18)
"Self" forms must be used for verb arguments referring back to the clause subject :
\(\grave{M} \underset{\sim}{n} W \varepsilon^{\prime} \varepsilon \_m\) m̄̄ŋ. \(\quad\) "I hit myself."
1sG hit \(\mathbf{1 S G}\) self.
not *M̀ \({ }_{\sim}^{n} w \varepsilon \varepsilon^{\prime} \bar{\varepsilon} m\) or *M̀ ñ \(w \varepsilon^{\prime}\) 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
3PL NeG.IND clean:DIPF 3PL hand:PL like 3INAN:COMP be.proper INDF.ADV ART
kà dítā \({ }^{+} \varnothing\).
and eat:dipf neg.
"They don't wash their hands properly before they eat." (Mt 15:1)

When ordinary pronouns are permissible, using \(m \bar{\varepsilon} \eta\) implies contrast:
\(\grave{M}\) pía_ \(亠\) m̀ \(m \bar{\varepsilon} \eta\) nú'ùs. \(\quad\) I washed my own hands."
1sG wash 1sG self hand:PL.

Fù mēŋ kūט bí-lìaa \(\quad+\varnothing\) ? "Yourself or the baby?"
25G self or child-baby:sG CQ? ("Which of you needs the doctor?")
The derived manner-adverb amēná+ "really, truly" can be used after a sg or pl to mean "genuine, real" and there is an adjectival form \(m \bar{\varepsilon} \eta i^{\varepsilon} r^{\varepsilon}\) seen in e.g.
\(y \bar{\varepsilon} l-m \varepsilon ́ \eta \grave{r} r^{\varepsilon} \quad\) "truth" ("genuine matter")

Dāan \({ }^{\text {a }}\) "owner of ...", nàma pl , always has a preceding dependent NP or AdvP. In a few set forms this is a generic count noun cb:
\[
\begin{array}{ll}
\text { yī-dáàn }{ }^{a} & \text { "householder" }=y i ̄-s \grave{b} b^{a} \quad \text { Hausa mài gidaa } \\
\text { tह̀n-dāann } & \text { literally "land-owner": traditional earth-priest }
\end{array}
\]

Normally, the possession is expressed by a free NP, definite or indefinite:

> lór dáàna
> bōvg dáàn
> kù'өm dáàn
> tìə dáà \({ }^{\text {a }}\)
> dāam dáàn \({ }^{\text {a }}\)
> pj̄כg lā dáàn \({ }^{\text {a }}\)
"car owner"
"goat owner"
"water owner"
"bearded man" Hausa mài geemùu
"beer owner"
"the owner of the field" (Mt 21:40)

Zu-wok daan po gangid bugum.
Zù-wj̄k dáàn pū gápìd búgúmm \({ }^{+} \varnothing\).
Tail-long:sG owner:SG NEG.IND step.over:DIPF fire NEG.
Proverb: "One with a long tail doesn't step over a fire."
(If you have family commitments you shouldn't take risks.) KSS p38

An abstract possession refers to a quality, as with Hausa mài, or Arabic ذو
pò-pìəlım dáàn \({ }^{\text {a }}\) "holy person"

Manner-adverbs can appear in the same sense as abstracts before dāanáa
būgusígā dáàn \({ }^{\text {a }}\) "softly-softly sort of person" WK

See 16.2.4 on the use of dāan \({ }^{\text {a }}\) with numbers to make ordinal expressions.
\(\mathbf{S}_{\overline{1}} \boldsymbol{b}^{\mathrm{a}}\) "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}{|c|c|c|}
\hline Animate & sg & \(s \overline{j o}^{\text {a }}\) \\
\hline Animate & pl & dim \({ }^{\text {a }}\) \\
\hline Inanimat & /pl & \(d i ̀ n{ }^{\text {ne }}\) \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

With noun or pronoun pre-determiners 19.7.3 the meaning is possessive:
mān dínn \({ }^{\text {n }}\)
"my one, mine"
À-Wīn dím
"Awini's family"

Fōn píánn'àd n̄̄ tīnám dín.
2SG.CNTR speak:DIPF FOC 1PL.CNTR individual.INAN.
("We can't speak your language but ...") "You're speaking ours."

Abstract NPs and AdvPs 19.7.2.2 19.7.2.3 preceding sj̄ba are pre-modifiers:
pù-pìəlım súb \({ }^{\text {a }}\)
pl pù-pìəlım díma \({ }^{\text {a }} \quad\) "holy person" (pù-pìəlım \({ }^{m}\) "holiness")
dūnıya ní dìnne
Bj̀k dím
"earthly one" (1 Cor 15:44)
"Bawku people"

The quantifier yïigá+ "first" is a pre-determiner, as always 19.7.3:
yīigá sכ̄b \({ }^{\mathrm{a}} \quad\) "first (person)" beside yīig-sób \({ }^{\mathrm{a}}\) id

Specialised senses may be found with cb pre-modifiers:
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|}
\hline \(y \overline{1}-\) só \(^{\text {b }}\) & "householder" & ( \(\overline{i ̄}^{\text {r }}\) / "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" & ( \(n\) īf/ "eye") \\
\hline tànp-sōb \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & "warrior" & (tānp \({ }^{\text {² }}\) "war") \\
\hline zūg-sśb \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & "boss" NT "Lord" & (zūg \({ }^{\text {/ }}\) "head") \\
\hline pl zūg-sób-nàm \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & & \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

The expression \(\bar{\jmath} n s \bar{\jmath} b^{a}\) 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 \({ }^{\text {a }}\) like inanimate pronouns:
\[
\text { Bōn-námá_àlá kà fù nyz̄tá }+\varnothing \text { ? }
\]

Thing-PL Num:how.many and 2sG see:DIPF 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 àen \({ }^{\text {a }}\) "be" 24.2 .

Dīıb á n̄ būn-súp. "Food is good." ("Food is a good thing.")
Food cop foc thing-good:sg.

Some adjectives cannot be used as NP heads at all, so būn- is necessary in:
būn-vór \({ }^{\varepsilon} \quad\) "living thing"
Even those that can, cannot have any dependents apart from ideophones or articles, so būn- is also necessary in:
būn-píàl-kàpā+/ "this white one"

Deverbal Adjectives cannot be used as NP heads while retaining adjectival meaning; with no preceding cb they are interpreted as Agent Nouns 13.1.1.2.1. Thus
```

    būn-kúvdìr r "thing to do with killing"
    but kōodír\varepsilon

```

WK requires an adjective to take the \(m^{m}\) Class suffix if the sense is abstract 19.8.1.1.

Note the idioms
bōn-gín \({ }^{\text {a }}\) "short chap" (informal, humorous)
būn-kúdùg \({ }^{\text { }} \quad\) "old man" (the normal expression)
(but pú'à-nyá'ana "old woman")

Būn also occurs with abstract 19.7.2.2 pre-modifiers:
tūlıgír bún \({ }^{\text {ne }} \quad\) "heating thing, heater" \(=\) būn-túlıgìr \({ }^{\varepsilon}\)

With an AdvP pre-modifier:
kù'өmīn bón \({ }^{\text {ne }} \quad\) "water creature"

Note that while būn is a "thing", tangible or abstract, dìn is purely a semantically empty head, with only number and gender specified:
kù'өmīn dín \({ }^{\text {ne }} \quad\) "the (non-human) one in the water, aquatic one"

\subsection*{19.10 Personifier Clitics}

Indigenous Kusaasi personal names are always preceded by the personifier clitics \(\grave{A}\) - or \(\grave{N}-/ \grave{M}\)-; \(\grave{A}\) - is the default, with \(\grave{N}-/ \grave{M}\) - appearing before adjective stems. \(\grave{M}\) - is found before labial consonants. These are all Liaison Words. This \(\grave{A}-\), like the manneradverb prefix à-, 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. \(\grave{A}-\), but not \(\grave{N}-/ \grave{M}_{-}\), are deleted after a pre-determiner.

Personal names can pluralise with nàma; such plurals can certainly mean e.g. "more than one (person called) Awini"; I do not know if they can also bear the cum suis meaning "Awini and his companions (etc.)"

> À-Wīn
> tì Wīn

\footnotetext{
"Awini"
"our Awini"
}
\begin{tabular}{ll}
\(\grave{M}\) Wīn & "my Awini" \\
À-Wīn-kánā & "this Awini" \\
À-Wīn nám & "Awinis" \\
Ǹ-Dāog & "Ndago" \\
tì Ǹ-Dāog & "our Ndago"
\end{tabular}

In speech, \(\grave{A}\) - is used before most foreign names also, though the NT (unlike the Mooré Bible) uses the names without the proclitic (and often in English spelling.)

À-Mūusa
À-Yīisa
À-Sīimóว̀n
"Moses"
"Jesus"
"Simon"

For examples of Kusaasi names see 35.2.
NT has some personifications of abstractions: À-Sàn'صט "Destruction, Abaddon."

In stories where animals are characters, animal names take \(\grave{A}\)-:
À-Bāa
"Mr Dog"

A number of animal and bird names incorporate the clitic as part of the common noun, without any implication of personification; among such nouns are
 loanword à-mús \({ }^{\varepsilon}\) "cat."

Examples:
à-dàalón "a stork"
m̀/mān dáalón "my stork"

1SG/1SG.CNTR stork:SG
dāu lā dáalón "the man's stork"
man:SG ART stork:SG
Lì à né à-dàalún.
BINAN COP FOC PERS-stork:SG.
\(\grave{M}\) ny \(y\) á à-dàalón. \(\quad\) I've seen a stork."
1SG see PERS-stork:SG.

The à- clitic is not simply elided after a pre-determiner but is completely replaced, as is apparent from the L Raising affecting the stem. The clitic à- thus behaves in its formal syntax like a pre-determining personal pronoun, and when nominalising a whole phrase or clause, it is analogous to a non-contrastive subject pronoun 19.10.1. \(\dot{A}\) - is also phonologically similar to the clitic pronouns 15.17 .4 8.2.2. All this may reflect a historical origin as an indefinite third-person pronoun "someone", perhaps related to the Mooré 3rd person singular pronoun yẽ~a.

\subsection*{19.10.1 With VPs and Clauses}

Verb Phrases can be nominalised by the Personifier Clitic \(\grave{A}-19.10\), which takes the place of a subject pronoun, in the sense "someone who ...":

\section*{Atom sכ'}

À-tùm sכ̄'
pers-send indf.an
"Siloam" ("Someone sent someone else") \(\underline{23.1}\) (Jn 9:7)

Apo-kpen'-bano dim
À-pū kpén' bàungo dím
PERS-NEG.IND enter circumcision individual:PL
"the Uncircumcised" 18.1 (Eph 2:11)

This is common in proverbs and similar set expressions:

À-dāa yćl kā' tílimm \({ }^{+} \varnothing\).
pers-tins say neg.have medicine neg.
"Did-say has no remedy." (No use crying over spilt milk.)

À-ñȳ \(n \bar{\varepsilon}\) nīf són'工_ À-wùm tùba.
PERS-see with eye:sG be.better.than Pers-hear ear:PL
"Saw-with-eye beats Heard-with-Ears" (Seeing is believing.)

À-Kīdıgı ø Bū'өs
Pers-cross ser ask
"Crossed over and asked" (name of the constellation Orion.)
Apozotyel "Doesn't-fear-trouble", character in KSS p35.
À-P \(\bar{v}-z o ́ t-y \bar{\varepsilon} \mid\)
PERS-NEG.IND-run:DIPF-thing:SG

The expected final LF in this expression, induced by the Negative Clitic paired with \(p \overline{0}\), is seen only when the name is clause-final:

Apozotyel da ane o saam biig ma'aa.
À-Pū-zót-y \(\bar{l}\) dá à né ò sàam bîg mà'aa.
PERS-NEG.IND-run:DIPF-thing:SG tNS COP FOC 3AN father:SG child:SG only
"Fears-nothing was his father's only child." KSS p35

In some cases, \(\grave{A}\) - appears before the subject of an entire clause, as a predeterminer with the meaning "someone whose ...":

Bà kèn né À-nà kúv_m̀ nūa yír, kà bà pū kén
3PL go:DIPF FOC PERS-IRR kill 1SG chicken:SG house:SG and 3PL NEG.IND go:DIPF
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 Nכ̄os bé. "There are chickens, chickens exist."]

À-Tìım bódìg yā
PERs-medicine get.lost PFv
Personal name 35.2, literally "Someone's medicine has got lost."

Nominalisations with à- can pluralise with nàmá

À-zī'_ \(\quad \varnothing\) kpí nàm kpî̀d né kà ténbid.
pers -neg.know ser die pl die:dipf foc and tremble:dipf.
"Those who don't know death, are dying with a struggle." (Proverb)
(i.e "It's a storm in a teacup.")

\section*{20 Adverbial Phrases}

\subsection*{20.1 Adverbial Phrases: Overview}

Adverbial Phrases characteristically appear as Adjuncts within clauses and VPs. To a more limited extent they may appear as arguments of verbs 20.5, or (with the exception of proadverbs) within NPs as determiners or modifiers 19.7.2.3 19.8.2.3.

Adverbial Phrases may have morphologically distinctive Adverbs as heads, or may represent adverbial uses of NPs; such NPs have the usual structural possibilities for NPs. Otherwise, the range of structures for AdvPs is more limited. Adverbs with a preceding NP determiner are limited to specialised Postpositions 20.6. Absolute Clauses occur as Adverbs of Time/Circumstance 31.1, while Relative Clauses with pronouns expressing place or manner occur as corresponding types of AdvP. Coordination of AdvPs is possible only for those expressing time and place.

There is a basic syntactic distinction between AdvPs expressing Time, Circumstance or Reason on the one hand, and AdvPs expressing Place or Manner on the other. AdvPs expressing time, circumstance or reason usually appear as Clause adjuncts 28.1.1 before the clause subject, or as VP Adjuncts 23.6. while AdvPs expressing place or manner may appear as VP Adjuncts but not as Clause Adjuncts; they may only precede the clause subject by preposing with kà 33.2.
```

Thus *M\check{Jgú-n mām b\varepsiloń. for "I'm in the bush."}
Grass:SG-LOC 1SG.CNTR EXIST.

```
is corrected by WK to

> Mכ̄دgú-n kà mām bé. "I'm in the bush."
> Grass:sG-Loc and 1sG.CNTR ExISt.

\subsection*{20.2 Time and Circumstance}

Adverbial Phrases expressing time may be instantiated by time Adverbs
17, but are very often simply nouns or NPs with temporal meanings, and no special marking; for examples see 35.8 .

No formal distinction is made between a point in time and a period over which a state of affairs persists:

Fù ná kūl bēog.
2SG IRR return.home tomorrow.
"You'll 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 \(\overline{\text { ® }} 0\) ogo-n \(\quad n \bar{\varepsilon}\) záàm kà fù ná nīŋ tí-kànā.
Morning-loc with evening and 2sG irr do medicine-dem.del.sg.
"You'll use this medicine morning and evening."

Adverbial Phrases expressing circumstances are typically Absolute Clauses; such clauses are also frequently used to express time 31.1.1.

\subsection*{20.3 Place}

The core adverb of place is Locative Particle, which has two allomorphs. Strictly speaking, the head of locative AdvPs is the locative particle itself, with a third zero allomorph accompanying the "intrinsically locative" forms discussed below; like other postpositions, this is never itself referential even though it has a predeterminer. This analysis is supported by the use of locatives as NP pre-modifiers 19.7.2.3 and by the behaviour of focus marking with locative complements in the verb phrase 33.1.2.4.

The form \(n \bar{\iota}^{+/}\)is used after words ending in a vowel in SF, after pronouns and after loanwords; the Liaison Enclitic \(n^{\varepsilon}\) is used elsewhere:


Yīre/ "house" has the exceptional sg and pl locative forms yín \({ }^{\text {nع }}\) yáa-n \({ }^{\varepsilon}\) which have the particular nuance "home", as in the parting formula 34:

Pù'usım yín. "Greet (those) at home." i.e. "Goodbye."

Note also the locative adverb yìma "outside."

The article \(\bar{I}^{+}+\)may precede or follow the locative particle:
mù'arīn lā
or
mò'ar lā ní "in the lake"

Quantifiers may also follow the locative particle:
```

m gbana ni wusa
"in all my letters" (2 Thess 3:17, 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 fu nini.
Kèm Siloam búlugū-nı_ø píə fù nīní.
Go:Imp Siloam well:sg-Loc ser wash 2sg eye:pl.
"Go to the well of Siloam and wash your eyes." (Jn 9:7)

Ka Suntaana kprn' Judas [...] sunfun.
Kà Sūtáanà kpén' Judas [...] súñfi-n.
And Satan enter Judas [...] heart:sG-Loc.
"Satan entered Judas' heart." (Lk 22:3)

Ka Pailet len yi nidibin la na ya'asi yeli ba ye...
Kà Pailet lém yī nīdıbí-n lā nā yá'àsı_ø yélī_bā yē...
And Pilate again emerge person:PL-LOC ARt hither again ser say \(\mathbf{3 P L} . \mathbf{o b}\) 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'ā-n.
Ò bè siá'arī-n.
Ò bè pコ̄כgú-n.
Ò bè yín.
Ò bè sākulí-n.
Ò bè mכ̄วgu-n.
Ò bè kJ̄lıgı-n
Ò bè tūטmı-n.
"He's at market."
"He's at the bush."
"He's at the farm."
"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 20.6.

Ò dìgıl gbáun lā técbòl 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."

My informants tend to use postpositions in cases where the NT versions have the locative particle alone.

Kusaasi place names, many postpositions, and a number of other adverbs and proadverbs 17.1 are "intrinsically locative." Syntactic considerations 19.7.2.3
33.1.2.4 suggest such words should in fact be regarded as accompanied by a zero allomorph of the locative particle:

Ò bè Bók.
Ò bè Tદ́mpáan.
Ò kèn Bók.
Ò dìgıl gbáup lā tézbòl lā zúg.
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|}
\hline dàtiun \({ }^{\text { }}\) or ditún \({ }^{\text { }}\) & "righthand" & \\
\hline dàgj̀bıg \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & "lefthand" & \\
\hline  & "upwards" & \\
\hline lâlít \({ }^{+}\) & "far off" & (? lāl ní+ \\
\hline
\end{tabular}
agวิ|દ or àgว̄lá+
lālıí \({ }^{+}\)
"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"
"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 kpēláa?
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 \(n \bar{\iota}^{+/}\)or paraphrases like

For examples of Kusaasi place names see 35.3.
Proforms used in locative heads of Relative Clauses are intrinsically locative, and consequently so is the Relative Clause as a whole 31.2:
biig la \(n\) be si'el la
bïig lá ǹ bè sỉəl lā
child:SG ART COMP EXIST INDF.INAN ART
"the place where the child was" (Mt 2:9, 1976)
ka mori fo ken zin'ikane ka fo pu booda.
kà mכ̄rí_ fù_ ø kēŋ Zíñ'-kànı kà fù pū bכ́כdā \({ }^{+} \varnothing\).
and have 2SG.ob ser go place-rel.sg and 2sg neg.ind want neg.
"and take you where you do not want." (Jn 21:18)

Some words incorporate \(n^{\varepsilon}\) always, whether used as locatives or not:
```

    t\varepsiloǹ\eta-pōvgu-n\varepsilon/
    "village"
    pl t\varepsiloǹ\eta-pūvd\iota-n

```

Note also the time expressions:
\[
\begin{aligned}
& b \bar{\varepsilon} o g^{\supset} \\
& \text { b̄̄ogu-n }{ }^{\varepsilon /} \\
& \text { sān-sí̄̄-n lā } \\
& \text { yīigí-n }
\end{aligned}
\]
"tomorrow"
"morning"
"at one time, once..." 27.1.3
"at first"

Locative forms with or without the locative particle may appear as modifiers or determiners within a NP 19.7.2.3 19.8.2.3.

Locative AdvPs can be coordinated:

Nyalima na be winnigin ne nwadigin ne nwadbibisin.
Nyālımá nà bē wínnìgī-n nē ñ~wādıgí-n n̄ \(\quad \underset{\sim}{n} w a ̄ d-b i ́ b ı s i ̄-n . ~\)
Wonder:PL IRR EXIST sun:SG-LOC with moon:SG-Loc with moon-small:PL-Loc.
"There will be wonders in the sun, moon and stars." (Lk 21:25)

Reason-why AdvPs are construed like Place AdvPs, with a metaphorical extension of the sense of the postposition zūg "upon" 20.6; similarly for proforms:
àlá zùg \({ }^{\text {D }}\) "therefore"
bう̄ zúg \({ }^{\text {º }}\) "why?"
dìn zúg \({ }^{\text {D }}\) "therefore"

\subsection*{20.4 Manner}

Adverbial Phrases expressing manner may again be instantiated by proforms; there are also morphologically distinctive manner-adverb word types \(\underline{17 .}\)

Manner AdvPs cannot be coordinated.
Reduplication of nouns forms a number of distributive Manner AdvPs:

\section*{dàbısır dábısìr}
zīñ'ig zín'ìg
"day by day"
"place by place"

Reduplication of number words is similarly distributive 16.2.5.
Reduplication of manner-adverb words themselves is intensifying:
àm \(\bar{\eta}\) á \(m \bar{\eta} \eta a ́\)
àsídà sídà

M̀ wóm Kūsáàl brəəlá. \(\quad\) I know Kusaal a little."
1sG hear:DIPF Kusaal slightly,

M wóm bỉəl bỉəl. "I understand a very little."
1sG hear:DIPF little little.
"very truly"
"very truly"

\section*{-}

A very common form of Manner AdvP is a Relative Clause using the proform sī \(\partial m^{\mathrm{m}}\) "somehow" as head: see 31.2.1.

Manner-adverbs resemble generic mass nouns in their syntactic behaviour in some respects, and conversely some \(m^{m}\) Class abstract nouns derived from adjective stems are zero-derived to manner adverbs 17 . On a syntactic level, even count nouns used in generic senses are encountered as AdvPs:

M kén nว̄bá.
1sG go leg:PL.
"I went on foot." SB; WK corrected this to M̀ kén nē nכ̄bá, using n̄ "with."
A prepositional phrase with \(n \bar{\varepsilon}\) occurs parallel to a count plural used adverbially in

À-ny \(\bar{\varepsilon}\) n̄ \(\quad\) nīf són'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.)

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.
3PL look.at 1 PL. OB all.
"They've looked at us all." WK (for: Bà gj̀sí tì wūsa. 3PL look.at iPL all.)

This is not a universal property of quantifiers:
Bà gòsī tí bédugū.
Bà gòsí tì bèdugū.
"They've looked at us a lot." WK
"They've looked at a lot of us." WK

Numbers have specific forms for the adverbial meaning "so many times"
16.2.5; 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

\subsection*{20.5 AdvPs as Verb Arguments}

The prototypical use of AdvPs is as adjuncts within the VP, or for Time or Circumstance AdvPs, as Clause Adjuncts:

Fù dúe wह̄lá \({ }^{+}\)ø?
2SG rise how cQ?
literally "How did you rise?"; morning greeting.
(The form dúe of the verb dūe "rise" shows that the following word is part of the same phrase 8.5.3.)

BĒogú_ fò ná kūl.
Tomorrow 2sG IRR return.home.
"You're going home tomorrow." SB

However, AdvPs also occur as verb arguments.
AdvPs of all types can appear as subjects of the verb àena "be something /somehow" 24.2. Adjectival verbs may also have an AdvP subject:

Yin venl, ka poogin ka'a su'um.
Yìn véñl kà pōogu-n kā' súmm \({ }_{\sim}\) †.
Outside be.beautiful and inside:sg-Loc neg.be good:Abstr neg.
"Outside is beautiful but inside is not good." (Acts 23:3, 1996)

Absolute Clauses may appear as subjects:

Kristo da kpii ti yela la ke ka ti ban nomilim an si'em.
Kristo_ø dà kpìi_ tì yēlá lā ké kà tì bán
Christ comp tns die \(\mathbf{1 p L}\) about art cause and 1pl realise
nว̀nllím_ \(\varnothing\) àn sỉəm.
love comp cop indf.adv
"Christ dying for us makes us understand what love is like." (1 Jn 3:16)

Apart from this AdvPs do not usually appear as subjects: the sentence

Sònā bé. "OK it is." WK
Good:Adv exist.
is probably to be analysed as involving a metalinguistic use of sùnā.
The verb àen \({ }^{\text {a }}\) characteristically takes a manner-adverb or derived abstract noun complement in preference to an adjective 24.2.

Kusaal frequently uses manner-adverb proforms instead of pronouns with abstract reference as verb objects:

Ò nìní_àlá. "She did that." ("thus")
3AN do adv:thus.

Dā nípì àláa +ø! "Don't do that!" ("thus")
NEG.IMP do adv:thus neg!

Relative Clauses with the proform \(s \imath^{\top} \partial m^{\mathrm{m}}\) "somehow" as head are accordingly used after verbs of cognition, reporting and perception of the type that take Content Clause complements 29.3, to express the sense "say [etc] what ...":

Fu wom ban yet si'em laa?
Fù wóm bán yغ̀t sỉəm láa +ø?
2SG hear:DIPF 3PL:COMP Say:DIPF INDF.ADV ART PQ?
"Do you hear what they are saying?" (Mt 21:16)

Tiig wela bigisid on a si'em.
Tìıg wélà bìgısıd ón àn sỉəm.
Tree:sG fruit:PL show:DIPF 3AN:COMP COP INDF.ADV.
"The fruit of a tree shows what ["how"] it is." (Mt 12:33, 1976)

Verbs with appropriate meanings frequently take locative AdvPs as complements, rather than as Adjuncts 23.3. Differing sandhi behaviour of \(k\) ā'e "not be" with respect to losing the final e 8.5.3 may reflect whether a following locative AdvP is a VP complement or an adjunct:

Dāu lā kā' dóכgū-n láa \({ }^{+} \varnothing\).
Man:sg art neg.be room:sg-Loc Art neg.
"The man is not in the room."

Dāu kā'e dóכgō-n láa \({ }^{+} \varnothing\).
Man:sg neg.be room:sG-loc art neg.
"There's no man in the room."

\subsection*{20.6 Postpositions}

Postpositions are adverbs with a pre-determiner 19.7.3. Most such adverbs are either literal locatives or metaphorical extensions of locatives. Postpositional phrases are AdvPs and can be preposed with kà 33.2 freely, unlike prepositional phrases with \(n \bar{\varepsilon}\) 21.1. Regardless of the definiteness of their pre-determiners, postpositions continue to behave syntactically like generic non-count nouns, so that postpositional phrases as NP pre-dependents are modifiers rather than determiners 19.7.2.3.

Postpositions may not be coordinated, but their pre-determiners may be:
tinam ne fon suogine? "between us and you?" (Mt 8:29)
tīnám \(n \bar{\varepsilon}\) fūn súvgū-né \(\quad+\varnothing\) ?
\(\mathbf{1 P L}\) with 2SG between-Loc PQ?

Many postpositions are readily recognisable as special uses of ordinary nouns. Some postpositions are AdvPs including the locative particle.
```

zūg>

```
tદ́عbùl lā zúg
```

"onto" (zūg}\mp@subsup{}{}{\prime/}\mathrm{ "head")
"onto the table"

```
\(Z \bar{u} g^{J /}\) is frequently used metaphorically to express a reason "because of ..."
mān zūg
dāu lā zúg
bう̄－zúgう̀？
＂on account of me＂
＂on account of the man＂
＂why？＂（cf bう̄ zúḡ̄＂because＂27．1．3）

With an Absolute Clause as pre－determiner：

Mán \(\quad \underset{\sim}{n w e ̀ ' ~ d a ̄ u ~ l a ̄ ~ z u ́ g ~ k a ̀ ~ p o l i c e ~ g b a ́ n ̃ ' a ~ m . ~}\)
1SG：COMP strike man：Sg ART upon and police seize 1SG．ob．
＂Because I struck the man the police arrested me．＂

Although Reason AdvPs are，as here，frequently preposed with kà \(\underline{33.2}\) ，they may occur as clause－level presubject adjuncts 28．1．1：

Pian＇akane ka m pian＇tisi ya la zug，ya ane nyain．
Píàño＇－kànı kà m̀ pīāñ～\(\varnothing\) tísi yā lā zúg，yà á nē nyāe．
Word－rel．sG and 1SG speak Ser 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）
```

zūgú-n}\mp@subsup{}{}{\varepsilon
t\varepsiloń\varepsilonbòl lā zúgō-n
t\varepsilon̄\etaírr "under" (t\varepsilon̄\etaa "ground")
t\varepsiloń\varepsilonbùl lā t\varepsiloń\etaìr

```
＂on＂
＂on the table＂
＂under＂（tह̄ \(\eta^{\text {a }}\)＂ground＂）
＂under the table＂

Also as a locative adverb by itself：

Gう̀sım t̄̄nír！
pūogo－\(n^{\varepsilon /}\)
dūk lā póvgū－n

Metaphorical：
ñwādıs yóv̀m lā póvgū－n＂months in the year＂
```

bābá+
m̀ nכ̄bá bàba

```
sìsòvgū-n \(n^{\varepsilon /}\)
tīnám nē fūn sísòvgou－n
＂Look down！＂，more commonly Gj̀sım tēpı－n！
＂inside＂（pūvga＂belly，inside＂）
＂in the pot＂
＂beside＂（bābıre／＂sphere of activity＂）
＂beside my feet＂
＂between＂
replaced by sùvgū－n \(n^{\varepsilon /}\) in KB
＂between us and you＂
```

tùөn n\varepsilon
dāká lā túèn

```
"in front of"
"in front of the box"

As an adverb with no pre-determiner:

Gj̀sım túèn! "Look to the front"
gbìn \({ }^{\mathrm{n} \varepsilon} \quad\) "at the bottom of" (gbìn \({ }^{\mathrm{n} \mathrm{\varepsilon}}\) "buttock")
zūer lā gbín "at the foot of the mountain"
nyá'ana "behind; after (time)" (nyá'ana "back")
lì nyá'an a \(\quad\) "afterwards" as a presubject adjunct 28.1.1

NĒ'ná nyá'àn kà ò kūl.
dem.dei.inan after and 3AN return.home.
"After this she went home."
\(s^{\prime} \overline{a n}^{\varepsilon /}\) "into/in the presence of" "in the opinion of"
Wínà'am sá'àn
"in the sight of God"

Fò ná dỉ'e tílim pư'á-bàmmā lā sá'àn.
2SG IRR receive medicine woman-dem.del.pl art among.
"You'll get the medicine from those women."
\(y \bar{\varepsilon} l a ́+\)
Bà yèl•ō ø mān yēlá wōsa.
3PL say 3AN.OB 1SG.CNTR about all
"They told him all about me."
kう̄n'כ \({ }^{n}\) j̄
m̀ kj̄ñ'okj̄
1sg by.self
cf àdàkóñ' "one" 16.2.3
"by myself"

\section*{21 Prepositions}

There are two basic prepositions: \(n \bar{\varepsilon}\) "with" and \(w \bar{v} v\) "like"; others are either loanwords or originated from serial-verb constructions. Prepositional phrases function as clause adjuncts. They do not form components of Noun Phrases (except for báa yīnní 21.2.)

Neither prepositions, nor their objects, can be coordinated.
For prepositional phrases as verb complements see 23.4.

\subsection*{21.1 Core Prepositions}
\(\boldsymbol{n} \overline{\boldsymbol{\varepsilon}}\) is "with" in both the "accompanying" and instrumental senses. The \(n \bar{\varepsilon}\) "and" which coordinates NPs and AdvPs 19.4 is presumably fundamentally the same word, although in that sense it is parallel in usage to \(b \bar{\varepsilon} \varepsilon\) and \(k \bar{u} v\) "or", which do not behave as prepositions.

WK has forms of \(n \bar{\varepsilon}\) with bound personal pronouns:
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|}
\hline \(n i ́ m a\) & nítī+/ \\
\hline níf \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & ní yā \({ }^{+/}\) \\
\hline \(n \cdot 0^{-0}\) [nช̃(:)] & ní bā+/ \\
\hline ní 1 l̀+ & \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

The ne o of the 1996 NT version is frequently read [ñ̃] in the audio version.
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. The H toneme on the preposition in WK's forms with ní is difficult to explain; compare perhaps the tonemes of Pattern H 2-mora stem verbs before object pronouns 7.3.1.

Examples for \(n \bar{\varepsilon}\) :

Lìgıním_ fù nīf né fò nú'ùg.
Cover:IMP 2SG eye:sG with 2sG hand:sG.
"Cover your eye with your hand."

Bà \(k \varepsilon ̀ \eta ~ n \bar{\varepsilon}\) nכ̄bá. "They've gone on foot." WK
3PL go with leg:PL.

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."
(Proverb. Be grateful for God's generosity and don't complain.)

Kulim ne sumbogosom.
Kùlım nē sùmbūgusím.
Return.home:IMP with peace.
"Go home in peace." (Mk 5:34)
[Bárıkà né fù] k \(\bar{n} n \quad k \bar{\varepsilon} n\).
[Blessing with 2sG ] arrival arrival.
"Welcome!" (a greeting template \(\underline{34}\) )
\(\grave{M}\) géñ' \(\quad\) ह́́ fù. "I'm angry with you." SB
1SG get.angry:PRV with 2SG.
\(\boldsymbol{w} \boldsymbol{v} \boldsymbol{v}\) "like" occurs often after w \(\bar{\varepsilon} n^{\text {na/ "resemble" introducing its complement; the }}\) preposition \(n \bar{\varepsilon}\) also frequently occurs instead of \(w \overline{0} v\).

The object of comparison, whether introduced by wōv or by \(n \bar{\varepsilon}\) after \(w \bar{\varepsilon} n^{\text {na/ }}\), is followed by an empty particle \(n \bar{\varepsilon}\) after any object which does not already have the article \(\bar{l}^{+}{ }^{+/}\), even if it is a pronoun, or is specific:
\begin{tabular}{ll}
\(w \bar{u} v\) mān \(n \bar{\varepsilon}\) & "like me" \\
\(w \bar{u} v\) bún \(n \bar{\varepsilon}\) & "like a donkey"
\end{tabular}

Ka o nindaa wenne nintay ne.
Kà ò nīn-dáa \(w \bar{\varepsilon} n \quad n \bar{\varepsilon}\) 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)

Alazugว məri ya'am wov wiigi ne...
Àlá zùḡ̄, mòrī yā'm wōv wïigí n \(\bar{\varepsilon} . .\).
Therefore, have sense like snake:pl like...
"Therefore, be wise as serpents ..." (Mt 10:16)

Wōט, w \(\bar{n} n w \bar{u}\), and \(w \bar{n} n n \bar{\varepsilon}\) can also be used for "about" with numbers. The object is not followed by the redundant \(n \bar{\varepsilon}\) in this case:
\[
\text { wōv tūsá àyí } \quad \text { "about 2000" }
\]
like thousand:PL num:two

The object of a comparison is often a si'əm Relative Clause:

Ò zj̀t wōvbún ì ż̀t sỉəm lā.
3AN run:DIPF like donkey:sG comp run:DIPF IndF.ADV ART.
"He runs like a donkey runs."

With pronoun objects WK has
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|}
\hline \(w \bar{v} v\) mān LF mán̄ & wóv tì \\
\hline wōv fōn LF fónc̄ & wóv yà \\
\hline wōo \({ }^{\text {¢ }}{ }^{\text {n }}\) & wóv bà \\
\hline wóv lì & \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

H toneme again appears before the Fixed-L pronouns.
WK permits phrases introduced by wōv to be preposed with kà 33.2 , but rejects this construction for \(n \bar{\varepsilon}+\mathrm{NP}\) :

Wōu bún né kà ò zót.
Like donkey:sG like and 3AN run:DIPF.
"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."

A clausal object of \(w \overline{0} v\) is typically a relative clause with \(s \bar{\imath} \not \partial m\) 31.2.1, but wō can also be construed with a following Content Clause 29.3:

M pian'adi tisidi ya wov ya ane \(m\) biis ne.
M̀ piáñ'adī_ø tísidī yá wōט yà á né m̀ bīis n̄̄.
1SG speak:DIPF SER give:DIPF 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 Loanwords}

Báa (Hausa bâa "not exist") is used to express constituent negation. It takes an object like a preposition; see further 32.4 .

Two Hausa loanwords which are used as conjunctions 27.1.3 are also used as prepositions. For pronoun objects they use the free forms.
às \(\boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon}=\) "except for" \((\leftarrow\) Hausa sai)
àséع Wínà'am "except for God" (calquing the Twi gye Nyame)
hālít "up to and including"; cf Hausa har, but this is a word found extremely widely
 2005.)

O daa pun ane ninkuvd hali pin'ilugun sa.
Ò dāa pón à nē nīn-kúv̀d hālí pīn'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)

Before a manner-adverb hālí means "even" or just "very"

Lì tj̀e hālí bédugū. "It's very difficult."
zinan be.bitter until much.

The adverb itself may be ellipted:
Lì tòe hālí.
"It's very difficult."

Hālı́ in the adverbial sense "even" may be preposed with kà 33.2:

Hali ka nidib mor ban'adnam na.
Hālí kà nīdıb mכ̄r báñ'àd-nàm nā.
Even and person:PL have sick.person-pl hither.
"People even brought the sick" (Acts 5:15)

\subsection*{21.3 Compound Prepositions}

Expressions deriving from Serial VP constructions with an auxiliary following the main VP 26.3.2 have given rise to compound prepositions:

W̄̄n \(\boldsymbol{n} \overline{\boldsymbol{\varepsilon}} X\) and \(\boldsymbol{w} \overline{\boldsymbol{\varepsilon}} \boldsymbol{n} \boldsymbol{w} \overline{\boldsymbol{u}} \boldsymbol{\boldsymbol { v }} X\) have become prepositional phrases, to the extent that the entire sequence \(w \bar{\varepsilon} n+\) preposition + object can be preposed with kà 33.2 , and a change of polarity can occur before it:

Da lo ya nindaase, wenne foosug dim la niyid si'em la.
Dā ló yà nīn-dáas̄ \({ }^{+} \varnothing\), wह̄n n̄̄ fj̄כsúg dím lá \(\varnothing\)
Neg.IMP tie 2PL eye-face:pl neg, resemble with puff:GER individual.pl art comp nìpıd sïəm lā.
do:DIPF INDF.ADV ART.
"Don't screw up your faces like the hypocrites do." (Mt 6:16, 1976)

The compound preposition là'am n्̄反 "together with" likewise derives from a serial-verb construction:
...mər ya'am yinne la'am ne ten'عsa yinne.
... mכ̄r yā'm yīnní là'am n̄̄ tēñ'عsá yīnní.
... have sense one together with thought one.
"... had one mind together with one thought." (Acts 4:32)

Hālí also forms compound prepositions:
Hālí nē and hālí là'am nē are found before \(\grave{n}\)-Clauses with the meaning "despite, even though":
hali ne man daa sobi tisi ya si'em la, m daa pu sobi li
hālí nē mán dāa sj̄bı_ø tísì_ yā sīəm lā
even with 1sG:COMP tNs write SER give 2PL.OB INDF.ADV ART
\(\grave{m}\) dāa \(p \bar{u}\) s \(\quad\) bí_ \(l \bar{\imath} \ldots\)
ISG tNS NEG.IND write 3INAN.OB ...
"Though I wrote to you like that, I did not write it ..." (2 Cor 7:12)

Hali la'am ne on daa an yelsum wusa daan la, o da lieb nכמdaan...
Hālí là'am n̄̄ ón dāa án yēl-súm wōsa dáàn lā,
Even together with 3AN:COMP tws COP matter-goodness all owner:SG ART,
ò dà lìəb nכ̄ク-dáàn...
3AN tws become poverty-owner:sG...
"Although he possessed every blessing, he became poor..." (2 Cor 8:9)

Hālí báa means "even":
Hali baa lampodi'esidib me niyid ala.
Hālí báa làmpJ̄-dí'əsìdıb mé nìpıd àlá.
Even tax-receiver:PL also do:DIPF ADv:thus.
"Even tax-collectors do that." (Mt 5:46)

Hali baa bama wusa ya'a na zo ka basif, man ku basi fo.
Hālí báa bàmmā wūsa yá' nà zó kà básì f,
Even dem.del.pl all if irr run and abandon 2sG.ob,
\(m a ̄ n\) kú bāsı f́́ \(+\varnothing\).
1SG.CNTR NEG.IRR abandon 2SG.ob neg.
"Even if they all run away and leave you, \(I\) will not leave you." (Mt 26:33)

\section*{22 Verbal Predicators}

\subsection*{22.1 Structure}

The core of the Kusaal verb phrase is a Verbal Predicator, consisting of a verb word along with clitics which, along with verb flexion, mark tense, aspect, mood and polarity. Other clitics are also phonologically dependent on the Verbal Predicator; as they may intervene between the verb and the predicator category particles, they are also described in this section 22.7, although they are not part of the Verbal Predicator syntactically. They comprise "Particle-Verbs", a heterogeneous group of words expressing notions like repetition and sequence of events, which immediately precede the verb itself, and enclitic pronouns following the verb, comprising the enclitic 2 pl subject pronoun and all the non-contrastive personal pronoun objects.

The Verbal Predicator is subject to Independency Marking 22.6. This is primarily a tone overlay 22.6.1.1, but there are associated segmental features: the particle \(y \bar{a}^{+}\)after phrase-final Perfective forms 22.6.2.1 and the Variable Verb Imperative flexion \(-m^{a}\) appear only when the tone overlay is present.

The system cleanly separates tense, marked by proclitic particles, from aspect, primarily marked by verb flexion. As is common cross-linguistically, future reference is marked by mood. Negative markers vary with mood. Mood itself is marked primarily by such preverbal particles, but the verb flexion \(-m^{\text {a }}\) of Variable Verbs is a portmanteau marker of Imperative Mood along with positive polarity and Independency 22.6.2.2 11.1.

The Verbal Predicator shows no agreement. Apparent number agreement in imperatives is due to the incorporation of the postposed 2 nd pl subject pronoun ya.

The Verbal Predicator thus consists of a single verb word, along with proclitic and enclitic particles which occur in a fixed order:
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|c|c|c|c|c|}
\hline & Tense & & Mood & \(\mathrm{P} / \mathrm{Vb}\) & & LE1 & LE2 \\
\hline 1 le & dàa & nàm & \(\varnothing\) ø \(\bar{\nu}^{\prime}\) & pòn & VERB & \(n^{\varepsilon}\) & \(m^{\text {a }}\) \\
\hline & sàa & & \(\varnothing\) ¢ \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & lèm & & ya & f \\
\hline & \(\varnothing\) & & nà \(\leftrightarrow k \dot{u}\) & tì & & & - \\
\hline & pà' & & & kpغ̀lım & & & \(1{ }^{+}\) \\
\hline & sà & & & là'am & & & \(t{ }^{+}\) \\
\hline & dāa & & & dèyım & & & ya \({ }^{+}\) \\
\hline & dà & & & \({\underset{\sim}{n}}^{\text {¢ }} \bar{\varepsilon} \varepsilon(t ı)\) & & & \(b a^{+}\) \\
\hline & & & & ... & & & \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

All elements other than the verb are optional; however, the ø marks places where the absence of any particle from a particular column can be contrastive.

The particles in the column "Mood" also mark polarity: Positive \(\leftrightarrow\) Negative.
P/Vb "Particle-Verbs" 22.7.2; LE1, LE2 are Liaison Enclitic slots 22.7.3.
For lè "but" see 22.7.1; for nàm "still" see 22.3.
Aspect-focussing \(n \bar{\varepsilon}^{+/}\)is formally a Verb Phrase particle which immediately follows the Verbal Predicator 33.1.2.1.

Verbs of the majority Variable type mark aspect by flexion 11.1.
Tone Pattern LO verbs have all-M tones in the Irrealis Mood 7.3.

\subsection*{22.2 Aspect}

Like a great many West African languages, Kusaal has a verbal system dominated by aspect rather than tense. The basic distinction is Perfective versus Imperfective, with imperfective further subdivided into Dynamic and Stative.
Variable Verbs distinguish aspects by flexion: the unmarked Base Form is perfective or (resultative) stative, the form marked with the suffix *-da is dynamic (not stative) imperfective, and the form with *-ma is used for imperative when the verb word itself has the Independency tone overlay 11.1 22.6.1.1. Invariable Verbs have a single form which is either dynamic imperfective or (descriptive) stative by default.

Directly following a verb with stative or dynamic imperfective aspect, with no words other than Liaison Enclitics intervening, the VP focus particle \(\boldsymbol{n} \overline{\boldsymbol{\varepsilon}}^{+/}\)33.1.2 applies to the aspect, limiting its time reference or marking a contrast with another time at which the state of affairs expressed by the verb did not obtain; the meaning might be paraphrased "at the time referred to in particular." With Dynamic Imperfective forms this marks a distinction which is analogous to the difference between English "progressive" (with \(n \bar{\varepsilon}^{+/}\)) and "habitual" (without \(n \bar{\varepsilon}^{+/}\)) aspects; for Stative Imperfectives see 22.2.2.1.

This aspectual use of \(n \bar{\varepsilon}^{+/}\)is possible only with positive polarity and indicative mood; in other cases although the corresponding meaning differences may occur, they are unmarked. In Passive constructions the actual meanings signalled by the aspectual use of \(n \bar{\varepsilon}^{+/}\)may not occur 33.1.2.3.

The focus particle \(n \bar{\varepsilon}^{+/}\)is not permitted at all in certain syntactic contexts, and may not appear a second time in aspectual sense if it is already present focussing a constituent; again the corresponding aspectual distinctions are unmarked 33.1.2.1.

\subsection*{22.2.1 Perfective}

The unmarked Base Form of Variable verbs has Perfective Aspect by default. With Variable Verbs which express a change of state in subject or object only, the Base Form may have Resultative Stative Aspect 22.2.2.1.

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. It 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 22.3.3. With most verbs this straightforwardly expresses a completed event or process where the time is unspecified, resembling the English "present perfect." As with the English tense/aspect, this very absence of time specification creates the implication that the event is still currently relevant:
```

Ò kpì yā.
3AN die prv.

```

Sāa dāa ní.
"It rained." (before yesterday.)
Rain tns rain.
```

Sāa pá' nì yā. "It rained." (earlier today.)

```
but Sāa ní yā.
"It has rained."
Rain rain PFv.
The time is unspecified: "Perhaps the grass is still wet, or I am explaining that the area is not really a desert." (WK)

Other events and processes can be conceptualised as being simultaneous with the moment of utterance, so that the Perfective is appropriate. This resembles the English use of the simple present as an instantaneous present:

\footnotetext{
Ò yદ̀l \(y \bar{\varepsilon} \ldots\)
"He says ...." (translating for the foreign doctor)
3AN say that ..
}

Performatives naturally fall into this category:
```

M pú'ùs yā.
1SG greet PFv.
M sliák 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:
```

M ny\varepsiloń nū'-bíbısá_ àtán~'.

```
1sG see hand-small:PL num:three.
"I can see three fingers."
M̀ tદ́ñ'દ̀s kà ... "I think that ..."
1sG think and...

In Serial VP constructions and in complex clauses, the choice of Perfective over Imperfective implies that the event is complete. Consequently, with Serial VPs the order of VPs when the first has perfective aspect is iconic, with constituent order constrained to follow event order 26.1. Thus while English might say: "Two men stood with them, dressed in white", Kusaal must have

Ka dapa ayi' yє 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 SER 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:

Nwādısá_àtán' kà fù ná mכ̄r bīig lā \(n\) k \(\bar{\varepsilon}\) nā.
Month num:three and 2sG IRR have child:sg art ser come hither.
"Bring the child here in three months." ("having the child, come here.")

With Absolute Clauses as presubject adverbs expressing past "when" the temporal relationship to the main clause is determined by aspect, with a perfective in the Absolute Clause implying priority and an imperfective simultaneity 31.1.1. In the same way, narrative generally features chains of tense-unmarked Sequential Clauses
28.3.2 with Perfectives describing events strictly in order, but Imperfectives can occur with no implication of succession 28.3.2.1.

\subsection*{22.2.2 Imperfective}

\subsection*{22.2.2.1 Stative}

Stative Aspect in Kusaal divides into Descriptive and Resultative aspects. The single imperfective finite form of an Invariable Verb may have Descriptive Aspect as a lexical matter 11.2.
Ò gìm.
"She's short."
3AN be.short.
Lì zùlım.
binan be.deep.
\(\grave{M}\) mór pư'ā. \(\quad\) "I have a wife."
1sG have wife:sg.
M̀ bóวdī \(f\). "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 Descriptive Verbs similarly do not usually appear with the particle \(n \bar{\varepsilon}^{+/}\)in its aspectual sense:
```

    M mór lór. "I have a car."
    1sg have car:sg.
    not *M̀M mórnēlór.

```

However, this is not a dynamic/stative distinction in Kusaal, but a distinction between processes and states which are presented as temporary/contingent or as abiding/intrinsic. Descriptive 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 aspectual if there is an explicit time reference in the clause itself 33.1.2.3 or if the following constituent does not permit focussing with \(n \bar{\varepsilon}^{+/}\)33.1.2.2.

With Variable Verbs which express a change of state in the subject the unmarked Base Form may have either a perfective or a Resultative Stative meaning:

Lì bj̀dıg yā.
3INAN lose pFv.

Lì bj̀dıg nē.
zinan lose foc.
"It's got lost."
"It's lost."

Resultative Statives, as expressing contingent or temporary states, are typically followed by the particle \(n \bar{\varepsilon}^{+/}\)in its aspectual sense:

Ò kpì nē.
3AN die foc.

Lì sànn'am n̄̄.
ZINAN spoil Foc.
\(\dot{M} g \varepsilon ́_{\sim}^{n} \quad n \bar{\varepsilon}\).
1sG get.tired foc.
\(\grave{M}\) géñ्ح' \(n \bar{\varepsilon} . \quad\) "I'm angry."
1sG get.angry foc.

Bà kùdug n̄̄.
3PL grow.old foc.

Lì bj̀dıg nē.
zinan lose foc.

Ò wàbılım n \(\overline{\text {. }}\)
3an lame foc.

Ò gè \(\varepsilon_{N}\) m \(n \bar{\varepsilon}\).
3AN madden foc.

Lì pè' \(\varepsilon\) l \(n \bar{\varepsilon}\).
"It's full."
3INAN fill Foc.

Lì y ỳ n̄.
binan close foc.

M búg \(n \bar{\varepsilon}\).
1sG get.drunk Foc.
"He's dead."
"It's spoilt."
"I'm tired."

寝
"They're old."
"It's lost."
"She's lame."
"She's mad."
sne s mau.
(Not temporary, but still contingent.)

The Resultative Stative meaning arises from the nature of the verb rather than being imposed by the particle, which has its normal sense "at the time referred to in particular." However, aspectual \(n \bar{\varepsilon}^{+/}\)is not compatible with the Perfective Aspect, so a Variable Verb Base Form followed by aspectual \(n \bar{\varepsilon}^{+/}\)must be taken as Resultative.

It is not always clear that there is an implied contrast with a time at which the state of affairs expressed was not in force, e.g.

Ò lèr \(n \bar{\varepsilon} . \quad\) "He's ugly."
3AN get.ugly \(\boldsymbol{F o c}\).

Lì pèlıg nē. "It's white."
3INAN whiten FOc.

Lì sj̀bıg nē. "It's black."
3INAN blacken foc.

Lì mù̀ nē. \(\quad\) It's red."
3INAN redden foc.

The translations as supplied by WK above do not seem to imply a change from any previous state; the matter needs further investigation.

Most verbs expressing a change of state in the subject are intransitives like \(k p i^{+}\)"die" or Patientive Ambitransitives 23.1 like bj̀dıg "lose, get lost." The only other transitive verbs I have found in this category express putting on clothing:


With Variable Verbs, only those expressing a change of state in the subject can have Resultative aspect, with the sole exception of the irregular verb nj̀ \(\eta^{\varepsilon}\) "love", which has a Base Form with Descriptive Aspect 11.1.1. After all other Variable Verb Base Forms, \(n \bar{\varepsilon}^{+/}\)cannot be aspectual and must be interpreted as focussing either a VP constituent or the entire VP 33.1.2.3.

\subsection*{22.2.2.2 Dynamic}

The Dynamic Imperfective is marked morphologically in Variable Verbs with the flexion *-da 11.1. The single imperfective finite form of Invariable Verbs may be Dynamic, as a lexical matter 11.2.

Like the Stative, the Dynamic Imperfective can be followed by the particle \(n \bar{\varepsilon}^{+/}\) in its aspectual sense "at the time referred to in particular."

Without \(n \bar{\varepsilon}^{+/}\), this aspect implies that the subject has a propensity to the achievement, accomplishment or activity expressed by the verb (often called "habitual aspect"):
Ò j̀ñbid.
3AN chew:DIPF.

Nīdıb kpîld. "People die."
Person:PL die:DIPF.

Nïigí j̀nbıd mj̄כd. "Cows eat grass."
Cow:PL chew:DIPF grass:PL.

Nïigí j̀ñbıd n̄̄ mכ̄כd. "Cows eat grass." ("What do cows eat?")
Cow:PL chew:DIPF Foc grass:PL. Aspectual \(n \bar{\varepsilon}^{+/}\)is not possible with a generic subject: Constituent focus 33.1.2.4.

Nïigí lā ónbìd mōJd. "The cows eat grass."
Cow:PL ART chew:DIPF grass:PL.

Nīigí lā óñbìd mכ̄כd lā.
Cow:PL ART chew:DIPF grass:PL ART.
"The cows eat the grass."

Nā'-síabà ónbìd mう̄כd. "Some cows eat grass."
Cow-INDF.PL chew:IPF grass:PL.

Nā'-síəbà ónnbì mj̄od lā.
Cow-IndF.pL chew:DIPF grass:PL ART.
"Some cows eat the grass."

M zíñ'i.
"I sit."
1SG be.sitting.

M̀ zánl dāká lā. "I carry the box in my hands."
1SG carry.in.hands box:SG ART.
With \(n \bar{\varepsilon}^{+/}\), Dynamic Imperfective typically has a meaning analogous to the English "progressive" or "continuous."

Ò j̀n nbıd n̄̄. "He's chewing."
3AN chew:DIPF Foc.

M̀ zíñ́i n̄. \(\quad\) "I'm sitting."
1sG be.sitting foc.

M̀ záñ \(n \bar{\varepsilon}\) dāká lā.
1sG carry.in.hands foc box:Sg ART.
"I'm carrying the box in my hands."

As with the English progressive, the sense with verbs describing events rather than processes is typically "time-limited habitual." The plural subject without lā 19.3 contributes to making this the natural interpretation in

Nīdıb kpîld nē. "People are dying."
Person:PL die:DIPF Foc.

\subsection*{22.3 Tense}

\subsection*{22.3.1 Tense Particles}

Tense particles come first in the Verbal Predicator, preceded only by lغ̀ \(\varepsilon\) "but." They are mutually exclusive. The markers are
```

dàa "day after tomorrow"
sàa "tomorrow"
\varnothing
pà'
sà
dāa
dà
present, or unmarked 22.3.3
"earlier today"
"yesterday"
before yesterday
before the time marked by dāa

```

The day begins at sunrise. Thus the common morning greeting:

Fù sá gbìs wह̄lá \({ }^{+}\)? "How did you sleep yesterday?" i.e."last night"
2SG tNs sleep how ca?

The future tense markers require Irrealis Mood, except for cases where the main clause has been ellipted before a subordinate clause of purpose; in this case the verb may have future tense marking with the Imperative Mood:

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. Some speakers seem not to use dà at all; the NT has numerous parallel passages where the same events are narrated in one passage with dāa and in another with dà. However when both markers occur, dà always expresses a time prior to dāa; this is one way the language can express a "pluperfect." (Others are the preservation of original tense markers in indirect speech 29.3.2, relative tense marking in \(\grave{n}\)-Clauses within Sequential Clauses 28.3.2 and the use of the particleverb tì 22.7.2.)

The auxiliary tense particle nàm means "still" or with a negative "yet." It can occur after the tense marker ø:
```

Tìım lā nám bè\varepsilon +}\varnothing\mathrm{ ? "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 pīñ'il lā
world:sg comp still neg.ind begin ART
"before the world began" (Mt 25:34) ("The world having not yet begun.")
\(\grave{M}\) nám zī'_ \(\quad \varnothing\) ny \(\bar{\varepsilon}\) gbīgımne \({ }^{+} \varnothing\).
1sG still Neg.Know ser see lion:sg neg.
"I've never seen a lion." SB (see 26.3 on serial-verb idioms)

\subsection*{22.3.2 Other Constructions for Tense}

My informants use the Remoteness Marker \(n^{\varepsilon}\) 30.1.1 to make an earlier-today past with indicative meaning:

M̀ ónbıdī-n sūmma. "I was eating groundnuts."
1SG chew:DIPF-REM groundnut:PL.

This implies "and now I'm not"; a sort of anti-current-relevance which may be the link with the typical hypothetical use. No examples seem to occur in the NT.

Kusaal does not use tense-unmarked Indicative imperfectives for immediate future (like English "I'm going home.") The common expression at leave-taking
\[
\dot{M} \text { kúl } \quad \text { yā. equivalent in usage to "I'm going home." }
\]

1sG return.home pFv.
instead uses a perfective verb form as an instantaneous present 22.2.1.
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.

Yo' מטט bood gaadug, ka beog bכod nier.
Yóvon bj́j̀d gáadòg 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 Variable and Dynamic Invariable Verbs, which can be interpreted as expressing an event or process.
(b) using the construction subject \(+y \bar{\varepsilon}\)-Purpose Clause. (Compare subject \(+y \bar{\varepsilon}\) Content Clause 29.3.) This construction does require an animate subject.
```

M y\varepsiloń m̀ kuā sūmma. "I'm going to hoe groundnuts."
1SG say 1SG hoe groundnut:PL.
M y\varepsiloń m̀ kiá nı̄m. "I'm going to cut meat"
1SG say 15G cut meat:sG.

```

\subsection*{22.3.3 Implicit Tense Marking}

Tense markers are frequently absent. As a basic principle, explicit marking is not needed when the time reference is recoverable from the linguistic context. However, the occurrence of tense markers is not arbitrary, and in some contexts the past tense markers 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:

Nīdıb kpîd n̄̄. "People are dying."
Person:PL die:DIPF Foc.

Nīdıb kpîd. "People die."
Person:PL die:DIPF.

M zíñ'i nē. \(\quad\) I'm sitting down."
1sG be.sitting foc.

Ò gìm.
3AN be.short.

M mór pư'ā.
\(\mathbf{1 s G}\) have wife:sg.

Ò kpì nē.
"She's dead."
3an die foc.

In isolation, it it is not possible to construe expressions like these as e.g. "People were dying." With Perfective aspect, similarly, the sense without an explicit context must be perfective-present or instantaneous present 22.2.1:
Ò kpì yā.
3AN die prv.

Ò \(y \grave{\varepsilon} l y \bar{\varepsilon} \ldots \quad\) "He says ...." (translating for the foreign doctor)
3AN say that ...

M pú'ùs yā.
"(I) thank you." cf Hausa Naa goodèe.
\(\mathbf{1 S G}\) greet prv.

M siák yā.
"I agree."
15G agree PFv.
M̀ ñý nū'-bíbısá_ àtán'. "I can see three fingers."
15G see hand-small:PL Num:three.

M̀ téñ'દ̀s kà ... \(\quad\) II 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 the Remoteness Marker:
```

    M sá zàb ná'àb lā sú'ө̀s.
    1SG TNS fight chief:SG ART yesterday.
    and M̀ záb ná'àb lā sú'ès.
1sG fight chief:sG ART yesterday.
both acceptable as "I fought the chief yesterday."
Fù sáa nà kūl.
2SG TNS IRR return.home.
and Fù sáa nà kūl bह\overline{og.}
2SG TNS IRR return.home tomorrow.
and Fù nà kūl b\overline{og.}
2SG IRR return.home tomorrow.
... all acceptable for "You'll go home tomorrow."
cf Fù ná kūl.
2SG IRR return.home.
"You will go home." (later today, tomorrow, next week ...)
M pá' j̀n~bıdī-n sūmma.
1SG TNS chew:DIPF-REM groundnut:PL.
and M̀M כ́nbıdī-n sümma.
1SG chew:DIPF-REM groundnut:PL.
"I was eating groundnuts earlier today."
(today-past sense of the Remoteness Marker)

```

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 28.3.2.

\subsection*{22.4 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. For the Remoteness Marker \(n^{\varepsilon}\) see 30.1.1.

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 the periphrastic constructions described under Tense 22.3.2. It is used instead of the Irrealis in clauses with yà' "if", though with some exceptions in negative polarity \(\underline{30.1}\). It is the only mood which permits the use of the particle \(n \bar{\varepsilon}^{+/}\)in aspectual meaning.

Imperative Mood is negated by dā. In Variable Verbs with tone overlay due to Independency Marking it shows a special inflection \(-m^{\text {a }} 22.6 .2 .211 .1\) but otherwise the verb word coincides in form with the Indicative.
\[
\text { Ò vùl tílm kà ò nóbìr pō záb } \bar{\varepsilon}^{+} \varnothing \text {. }
\]

3AN swallow medicine and 3an leg:sg neg.ind fight neg.
"She took medicine and her leg didn't hurt." WK

Ò vùl tílm kà ò nóbìr dā zábē \({ }^{+} \varnothing\).
3AN swallow medicine and 3AN leg:sg neg.Imp fight neg.
"She took medicine so her leg wouldn't hurt." WK

Note that the clause introducer particle kà permits either construction 27.1.2. The \(-m^{\text {a }}\) imperative of Variable Verbs is Perfective by default:
Kう̀ñsım! "Cough!"

Imperatives without tone overlay from Independency Marking make perfective/dynamic imperfective distinctions in the usual way by verb flexion:
```

Dā kóñs\overline{\varepsilon}+\varnothing! "Don't cough!"
NEG.IMP cough NEG!

```
(To a patient during an eye operation under local anaesthetic, who just has coughed.)
```

Dā kónsıdā +ø! "Don't cough!"
NEG.IMP Cough:DIPF NEG!

```
(Explaining before the operation what to avoid throughout)

Whether or not it carries the distinctive flexion \(-m^{\text {a }}\), Imperative Mood is followed by the enclitic 2 pl subject pronoun \({ }^{\text {ya }}\) in direct commands to several people 28.2.3.

The particle \(n \bar{\varepsilon}^{+/}\)cannot appear in its aspectual sense with the Imperative, but àlá "thus" after Imperatives imposes continuous/progressive meaning:

Dìm!
Dìmí àlá!
"Eat!"
"Carry on eating!"

Informants contract the -í-à- 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!

Kù̀sımī-ní_ àlá kī \(n\) tísıdī bá.
Sell:IMP-2PL.sUb adv:thus millet SER give:DIPF 3PL.ob.
"Keep ye on selling millet to them."

Invariable Verbs used as imperatives frequently add àlá:

Dìgí àlá! "Keep on lying down!" [digila] [digala]
Zi'é àlá! text zi'ela
"Be still!" (Jesus to the storm, Mk 4:39, 1976)

Dìgī-ní_ àlá! "Keep (ye) on lying down." [diginila] [diginala]
Be.lying.down-2PL.sub adv:thus!

Āa-ní_ àlá bāañ lím! "Be (ye) quiet!"
COP-2PL.SUB ADV:thus quiet:ABSTR!

Bēe-ní_ àlá ànínā! "Be ye there!"
EXIST-2PL.SUB ADv:thus ADv:there!

Imperative Mood is used in direct commands and prohibitions and in subordinate clauses expressing purpose. Imperative Mood also follows another Imperative in the serial-verb construction.
```

Gう̀sım!
"Look!"

```

Look:IMP!
Gう̀sımí_ø! "Look ye!"

Look:IMP 2PL.sUB!
\begin{tabular}{ll}
\(D \bar{a} \quad g \bar{s} s{ }^{+} \varnothing!\) & "Don't look!" \\
NEG.IMP look NEG!
\end{tabular}

Kèl kà ò gj̄s! "Let her look!"
Cause:Imp and 3AN look!

Kદ̀m nā n gj̄s！＂Come and look！＂
Come：Imp hither ser look！

Dう̀！
＂Follow！＂
Follow！

Dìll̄ ø！
＂Follow ye！＂
Follow 2PL．sub！

Dう̀lī m！
Follow 1sG．ob！

Dう̀lī－ní＿m！＂Follow ye me！＂
Follow－2PL．sub 1sG．ob！

Mòr nīn－báalìg！
＂Have pity！＂
Have eye－pity！

Irrealis Mood expresses future statements and questions and has the preverbal mood markers 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
\(n \bar{\varepsilon}^{+/}\)cannot occur in aspect marking function．Perfective aspect occurs much more often than Imperfective．

Irrealis Mood with past tense markers is conditional（not future－in－the－past．）
Ò dāa ná zāb ná＇àb lā．
3AN tNS IRR fight chief：sg ART．
＂He would have fought the chief＂（but didn＇t）

For the use of this form in clauses with yà＇＂if＂see 30．1．

\section*{22．5 Polarity}

Verbal Predicator negation markers are preverbal particles which combine this function with mood marking．They appear after tense markers but before Particle－ Verbs．The negation markers induce the appearance of a clause final Negative Prosodic Clitic which causes the clause－final word to appear in Long Form 8．1；on the position of the clitic see further 32.3 ．

Aspectual use of \(n \bar{\varepsilon}^{+/}\)is not possible with Negative Polarity 33．1．2．3．

Indicative Mood is negated by \(p \bar{v}\) (for some speakers \(b \bar{v}\), as in Toende Kusaal.) Imperative Mood is negated by dā; conversely, forms which are negated by dā are Imperative. Irrealis Mood is negated by kù, which replaces the positive Irrealis marker nà. Younger speakers sometimes use kù for pū, but none of my informants accepts this.

Ò zàb ná'àb lā. "He's fought the chief."
3AN fight chief:sG ART.

Ò pū záb nà'ab láa \({ }^{+} \varnothing\).
3AN neg.ind fight chief:sG art neg.
"He hasn't fought the chief."

Zàm ná'àb lā! "Fight the chief!"
Fight:IMP chief:sg ART!

Dā záb nà'ab láa \({ }^{+} \varnothing\) ! "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 \({ }^{+} \varnothing\).
3AN neg.IRr fight chief:sg art neg.
"He won't fight the chief."

There are four Negative Verbs, which are equivalent to negative particle + positive verb 32.1.1 mit "see that it doesn't happen that...", zī'+ "not know", kā'e \({ }^{+}\) "not be, not have", and kà'asıg \(\bar{\varepsilon}\) (LF only) "not exist."

\subsection*{22.6 Independency Marking}

The Verbal Predicator of a main clause 28.1 or Content Clause 29.3 is marked as Independent. The marking is absent in all subordinate clause types other than Content Clauses, and all VPs in a Serial VP chain after the first. It is also absent in all clauses introduced by kà other than Content Clauses, regardless of whether they are subordinate or insubordinate 27.2 28.3.2. The marker is primarily a tonal overlay, but has associated segmental manifestations.

\subsection*{22.6.1 Tonal Features}

\subsection*{22.6.1.1 Tone Overlay}

The tone overlay of Independency Marking is manifested only on Verbal Predicators in Positive Polarity and Indicative or Imperative Mood. It affects only the first word in the Predicator capable of carrying it: first the preverbal particle lغ̀ \(\varepsilon\) "but" 22.7.1, next any Particle-Verb, then the verb itself. Preverbal particles which have intrinsic M tonemes (past tense marker dāa, Particle-Verb ny \(\bar{\varepsilon} \varepsilon\) ) 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 L Raising, 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 zàb \({ }^{\varepsilon}\) "fight" gכ̄s \({ }^{\varepsilon}\) "look at" nà'aba "chief"):
\[
\begin{array}{ll}
\text { Kà } \text { m̀ záb nà'ab lā. } & \text { "And I've fought the chief." } \\
\text { Kà ò záb nà'ab lā. } & \text { "And he's fought the chief." } \\
\text { Kà } \grave{m} \text { gj̄s ná'àb lā. } & \text { "And I've looked at the chief." } \\
\text { Kà ò gכ̄s ná'àb la. } & \text { "And he's looked at the chief." }
\end{array}
\]

Intrinsic tones with preverbal particles having intrinsic \(M\) tonemes:

Ò dāa záb nà'ab lā. "He didn't fight the chief."
Ò dāa gว̄s ná'àb lā. "He didn't look at the chief."

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 kā'e+ "not be, not have" and zī'+ "not know":

Dāu lā kā' ná'abā \({ }^{+} \varnothing\). "The man isn't a chief."
Man:sg art neg.be chief:sg neg.

Bùn-bāñ'ad zī' y \(\quad\) 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)

Intrinsic tones in subordinate clauses, without Independency Marking:
\begin{tabular}{ll} 
Ò yá' zàb nà'ab lā. & "If he fights the chief." \\
Ò yá' gכ̄s ná'àb lā. & "If he looks at the chief." \\
Ón zàb nà'ab lā. & "He having fought the chief" \\
Ón gכ̄s ná'àb lā. & "He having looked at the chief."
\end{tabular}

Tone overlay manifesting Independency Marking in main clauses:
M̀ záb ná'àb lā. \(\quad\) "I've fought the chief."
Ò zàb ná'àb lā. "He's fought the chief."
M gós ná'àb lā.
Ò gว̀s ná'àb lā.
Ò sà zàb ná'àb lā.
Ò sà gòs ná'àb lā.
"I've looked at the chief."
"He's looked at the chief."
"He fought the chief yesterday."
"He looked at the chief yesterday."

Tone overlay in Content Clauses, which have Independency Marking 29.3:

Bà yèl yé ò zàb ná'àb lā.
3PL say that 3AN fight chief:SG ART.
"They say he's fought the chief."

Bùn-bāñ'ad zī' y \(\quad t \bar{\varepsilon} \eta \quad\) tóllā \({ }^{+} \varnothing\).
Donkey-rider:SG neg.know that ground:sg be.hot neg.
"The donkey-rider doesn't know the ground is hot."
(T̄̄ŋ tól. "The ground is hot." tūla/ "be hot")

Examples for the M of the final host mora before Liaison, using the verbs bj̀dıg \(g^{\varepsilon}\) "lose", yādıg \(g^{\varepsilon /}\) "scatter" and the clitics \(m^{\text {a }}\) "me" ba+ "them":
Intrinsic tones:
\begin{tabular}{lll} 
bj̀dıgı \(m^{\mathrm{a}}\) & bj̀dıgıdī \(\mathrm{m}^{\mathrm{a} /}(\mathrm{dipf})\) & bj̀dıgı \(b \bar{a}^{+/}\) \\
yādıgí \(m^{\mathrm{a}}\) & yādıgídı̄ \(\mathrm{m}^{\mathrm{a} /(d i p f)}\) & yādıgí \(b \bar{a}^{+/}\)
\end{tabular}

After tone overlay:
\begin{tabular}{lll} 
bj̀dıgī \(m^{\mathrm{a} /}\) & bj̀dıgıdī \(m^{\mathrm{a} /}\) & bj̀dıgī bá+ \\
yàdıgı̄ \(m^{\mathrm{a} /}\) & 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. "They kill them."
3PL kill:DIPF 3PL.OB.
with
Bà kùvdí bà būus
3PL kill:DIPF 3PL goat:PL.
and
Bà gj̀s•ō_ø.
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*{22.6.1.2 Absent L Raising after Subject Pronouns}

Bound pronoun subjects are normally followed by L Raising despite their own fixed L tonemes 8.3 8.3.1.

However, the third persons ò lì bà are never followed by L Raising when the following Verbal Predicator has Independency Marking.

Examples with zà \(b^{\varepsilon}\) "fight" gj̄s \({ }^{\varepsilon}\) "look at" nà'ab \({ }^{\text {a }}\) "chief":
Without Independency Marking (Sequential Clause 28.3.2):

Kà m̀ záb nà'ab lā.
Kà ò záb nà'ab lā.
Kà m̀ ḡ̄s ná'àb lā.
Kà ò g⿹̄龴 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."

With Independency Marking:

M záb ná'àb lā.
Ò zàb ná'àb lā.
M gós ná'àb lā.
Ò gòs ná'àb lā.
"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 L Raising before a Verbal Predicator with Independency Marking, unless they are immediately preceded by y \(\bar{\varepsilon}\) "that" (here introducing a Content Clause 29.3):
```

    Ò t\varepsiloňñ\mp@code{'\varepsilons kà ò zàb ná'àb lā.}
    3AN think and 3AN fight chief:sG ART.
    "He thinks he's fought the chief." WK
    Ò t\varepsiloṅñ'\varepsilons kà m̀ záb ná'àb lā.
    3AN think and 1SG fight chief:SG ART.
    "He thinks I've fought the chief."
    but Ò yèl y\varepsiloń ò zàb ná'àb lā.
3AN say that 3AN fight chief:SG ART.
"He says he's fought the chief."
and Ò yèl yć m̀ zàb ná'àb lā.
3AN say that 1SG fight chief:sG ART.
"He says I've fought the chief."

```

Absence of L Raising after bound subject pronouns is independent of tone overlay and is still seen when tone overlay is absent, e.g. when the Verbal Predicator has Irrealis Mood, or there is a preverbal particle carrying a M toneme:
Ò kù zāb ná'àb láa +ø.
ban neg.irr fight chief:sg art neg.
"He will not fight the chief."

Ò lè \(\varepsilon\) dāa záb nà'ab lā.
zan but tns fight chief:sg art.
"But he did fight the chief."
```

Ò yह̀l y\varepsiloń ì nà zāb ná'àb lā.
3AN say that 1SG IRR fight chief:SG ART.
"He says I'll fight the chief."

```

\subsection*{22.6.2 Segmental Features}

There are two segmental features of Independency Marking. They occur when and only when the verb word itself has undergone tonal overlay, and are therefore absent whenever the verb is preceded by the preverbal particle lè \(\varepsilon\) "but", by a particle verb, or by a preverbal particle with M toneme. Similarly, they are absent when the predicator has Irrealis Mood or Negative Polarity. Verbs which have intrinsic L tonemes have unchanged stem tonemes after overlay, but these segmental features and the following L Raising show its presence.

\subsection*{22.6.2.1 Perfective yā+}

Any perfective verb form affected by the tone overlay of Independency Marking which would otherwise be phrase-final (without even an enclitic following) is followed by the enclitic particle \(y \bar{a}^{+}\).

This particle is tonally unique among enclitic Particles bearing \(M\) toneme as being Pattern O: when the LF occurs in questions, the toneme is L not H 7.4 .

Lì bj̀dıg yā. "It's got lost."
zinan get.lost prv.

Lì bj̀dıg yàa \({ }^{+}\)?? "Has it got lost?"
3INAN get.lost PFV PQ?

The phrase-final constraint on the appearance of \(y \bar{a}^{+}\)may reveal that a final element is a clause adjunct rather than a VP complement 33.3:

Ya yidigya bedegu.
Yà yídìg yā bźdugū.
2PL go.astray PFV much.
\(\grave{M}\) pú'ùs yā bédugū. "Thank you very much."
1sG greet pFv much.
"You are very much mistaken." (Mk 12:27)

NT usually writes this particle as -eya, but informants show no trace of Liaison, and KB writes ya solid with a preceding normal Base Form. Further examples:
Sāa ní yā.
Rain:SG rain PFv.

\section*{Ò zàb yā.}
"She's fought."
3AN fight prv.

Ò gว̀s yā. "She's looked."
3AN look PFV.

Ò sà zàb yā. \(\quad\) "She fought (yesterday.)"
3AN tNS fight pFv.

M̀ tén'ǹs kà lì lù yā. "I think it's fallen down." (content clause)
1sG think and zinan fall PFV.

Non-final:
Ò zàbī m.
"He's fought me."

3AN fight 1sg.ob.
Ò gj̀sī m. "He's looked at me."
3AN look.at 1sG.OB.

When the tone overlay of Independency Marking is absent, so is the particle:
Sāa dāa ní. "It rained." (M preverbal particle)
Rain:sg tws rain.

Ò nà zāb.
3AN IRR fight.
Ò dāa záb.
3AN tns fight.

Kà ò záb.
And 3an fight.
Kà ò gj̄s.
And 3an look.

Ò pū záb \(\bar{\varepsilon}{ }^{+} \varnothing\).
"He's not fought." (Negative Polarity)
3AN neg.ind fight neg.
Ò \(p \bar{u} \quad g \bar{s} s{ }^{+} \varnothing\).
"He's not looked." (Negative Polarity)
3AN Neg.ind look neg.

Descriptive Stative, not perfective:
Ò gìm.
Ò mi'.
Ò ǹ̀.
"She's short."
"She knows."
"She loves him." 11.1.1

\subsection*{22.6.2.2 Imperative -ma}

Imperatives of Variable Verbs which are affected by the tone overlay of Independency Marking adopt the flexion \(-m^{\mathrm{a}}\) 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 \(\underline{3}\)

Without tone overlay on the verb word:
\begin{tabular}{ll} 
Dā \(\quad g \bar{s} s \varepsilon+\varnothing!\) & "Don't look!" (Negative Polarity) \\
NEG.IMP look NEG! & \\
Kह̀l Kà ò gj̄s! & "Let her look!" \\
Cause:IMP and 3AN look! & (No Independency Marking: subordinate)
\end{tabular}

Kદ̀m nā n gכ̄s! "Come and look!"
Come:IMP hither SER look! (No Independency Marking after ser)

With overlay, but not a Variable Verb:

> Ḋ̀llī m! \(\quad\) "Follow me!"
> Follow 1sG.ob!
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|}
\hline \begin{tabular}{l}
Ḋ̀lli-ní m! \\
Follow-2PL.sub 1sG.OB!
\end{tabular} & \begin{tabular}{l}
"Follow ye me!" \\
(-ní- for -ya *na before Liaison 8.2.1.2)
\end{tabular} \\
\hline Di'əm! & "Receive!" \\
\hline Dì'əmī ø! & "Receive ye!" \\
\hline Receive:IMP 2PL.sub! & \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

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!" \(\underline{22.4}\)
Receive:IMP-2PL.sub ADv:thus!

\subsection*{22.7 Clitics Bound to the Predicator}

Clitic Subject Pronouns 15.1 are bound to the predicator, and linked with it to the extent that they are involved in the tonal manifestations of Independency Marking 22.6.1.2. Post-subject particles 27.1.4 capable of following clitic subject pronouns are phonologically bound bound to the predicator.

In this section I will treat lغ̀ \(\varepsilon\) "but", along with Particle-Verbs, on the grounds that they intervene between tense/aspect markers and the verb, and Liaison Enclitics, which precede the focus particle \(n \bar{\varepsilon}^{+/}\)when it is an enclitic aspect marker.

\subsection*{22.7.1 Lè \(\varepsilon\) "but"}
lı̀ \(\varepsilon\) "but", like a particle-verb, prevents the tone overlay of Independency Marking from falling on the verb, and is then itself followed by L Raising. Lè precedes even tense particles.

Kà ò lદ́ 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 pià̀n'ad lā lé kù gāade \({ }^{+} \varnothing\).
And \(\mathbf{1 s g}\) speech art but neg.irr pass neg.
"But my words will not pass away. (Mt 24:35, 1996)

Bà lèє záb nà'ab lā. "But they've fought the chief." WK 3PL but fight chief:SG ART.

Kà bà lé \(\varepsilon\) zàb nà'ab lā. "But they've fought the chief." WK And 3PL but fight chief:sg ART.

Lè záb nà'ab lā! "But fight the chief!" WK
But fight chief:sG ART!

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 corrected e.g.
*Lèع gósìm ná'àb lā! attempted: "But look at the chief!"
But look.at:IMP chief:sG ART!
to Lદ̀ g \(̄\) s ná'àb lā.
But look.at chief:sg ART.

\subsection*{22.7.2 Particle-Verbs}

Particle-verbs are of varied character, united only by their position immediately before the verb. Some, at least, originated from older serial-verb constructions. All carry the Independency Marking tone overlay in place of the following main verb (cf lદ̀ "but" 22.7.1.) A derivational suffix -m- is present in several Particle-Verbs 13.2.1.4.
pòn "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."
lèm "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 lદ́m 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.
\(\grave{M}\) nīf lém zábìd n̄̄. "My eye is hurting again."
1sG eye:sg again fight roc.

Ka so' kudin ku len nyee li ya'asa.
Kà sō' kūdım kú lह̄m ñýv́_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)
\(\boldsymbol{k p}\) ह̀lım "still" with a following imperfective; "immediately afterwards" before a perfective (compare the Latin continuo "immediately.") It occurs also as a main verb "remain, still be." KB has the reduced form kpèn.

Ka o kpelim zu'om.
Kà ò kpélìm zū'өm.
And 3an immediately go.blind.
"Immediately he went blind." (Acts 13:11, 1996: KB Ka o kpen zu'om.)
\(m\) biig Josef nan kpen vue.
\(\grave{m}\) bïig Josef nán kpèn vōe.
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'am \({ }^{m}\) 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 tws together die with 3AN.
"so all people died together with him." (2 Cor 5:14)
 \(D \varepsilon \eta^{\varepsilon}\) is used with the same meaning in serial-verb constructions 26.3.)

Ka Wina＇am pun denim nye bunsuma ye o tisi ti．

And God already beforehand see thing－good：pl that 3an give \(\mathbf{1 P L} . \mathbf{o b}\).
＂God previously found good things in advance to give us＂（Heb 11：40，1976）
màlıgım＂again＂（cf Toende Kusaal malig＂do again＂）

Amaa man pian＇ad la ku maligim gaade．
Àmáa m̀̀ piànñ＇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）
 and displays no tone overlay from Independency Marking．

Ò ñ⿰氵巨̄ zábìd ná＇àb lā．
3AN usually fight：DIPF chief：sG ART．
＂He＇s accustomed to fight the chief．＂WK

Ò ñy \(\bar{\sim} \varepsilon\) gj̄sıd ná＇àb lā．
3AN usually look．at：DIPF chief：sG ART．
＂He＇s accustomed to look at the chief．＂WK

Ò dāa ñ \(y \bar{\varepsilon} \varepsilon\) zábìd ná＇àb lā．
3AN tNs usually fight：DIPF chief：sG ART．
＂He was accustomed to fight the chief．＂WK

Ò \(\bar{\varepsilon} \varepsilon \underset{\sim}{n t i ́ ~ z a ̀ b ı d ~} n \bar{\varepsilon}\) ná＇àb lā．
3AN usually fight：DIPF FOC chief：SG ART．
＂He＇s accustomed to fight the chief．＂KT

Ò \(\bar{\varepsilon} \varepsilon n ̃ \sim\) tí zìñ＇i kpēlá．＂She＇s accustomed to sit there．＂KT
3AN usually be．sitting there．

Ò ह̄eñ tí dīgı kpēlá．＂She＇s accustomed to lie there．＂KT 3AN usually be．lying there．
tì＂afterwards＂conveys accomplishment or completion；the main verb is perfective．
It occurs often in serial VPs；for hālí tì pāa ．．．＂up until＂see 31．1．2．It is common with the Irrealis，perhaps in a＂future perfect＂sense．
hali ka Herod ti kpi.
hālí kà Herod tí kpì.
Until and Herod afterwards die.
"Until Herod had died." (Mt 2:15)

Kèm_ \(\varnothing\) tí ny \(\begin{gathered}\text { dư'átà. }\end{gathered}\)
Go:IMP SER afterwards see doctor:SG.
"Go to see the doctor." SB

Noraug kv ti kaas zina nwaa, ka fo na ki'isim nככra atan'.
Nō-dáv̀g kú tī kāas zīná ñwāa \({ }^{+} \varnothing\)
Hen-male:sg neg.IRR afterwards cry.out today this neg
kà fù ná kī'ısí_m nכ̄כrá_ àtáñ~'.
and 2SG IRR deny 1sG.ob occasion:sg num:three.
"The cock will not have crowed this day before you deny me three times."
(Lk 22:61)

\subsection*{22.7.3 Liaison Enclitics}

Liaison Enclitics precede all other Verb Phrase complements and also precede the focus particle \(n \bar{\varepsilon}^{+/}\)in all its senses. There are two slots, and a Predicator may have two successive Liaison Enclitics.

The first slot may be occupied by one of the two clitics ya " 2 pl subject of direct command" or \(n^{\varepsilon}\) the Remoteness Marker 30.1.1; there are no circumstances in which they might occur together, as the Remoteness Marker is only found with Indicative and Irrealis Moods. For my informants, the 2 pl subject enclitic is an allomorph of the normal proclitic subject pronoun yà, but for some speakers it has become a plural imperative marker 28.2.3.

These two clitics are tonally alike; both always change the toneme of the last preceding host vowel mora to M , and themselves have H toneme.

The second slot for Liaison Enclitics is for bound object pronouns. There is no formal distinction between direct and indirect objects. Only one clitic object pronoun may occur; cases where a verb has a non-contrastive direct and indirect object pronoun are expressed by ellipsis of a pronoun 23.1 or by periphrasis with a serialverb construction using tìs \({ }^{\varepsilon}\) "give" 26.3.

\section*{23 Verb Phrases}

A Verb Phrase consists of a Verbal Predicator followed by complements and adjuncts.

There is no recursive embedding as with the NP, but Verb Phrases are frequently concatenated within a single clause in the Serial VP construction 26.
"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 23.1.

NP and AdvP complements can be classified as direct and indirect objects, as predicative complements, or as locative complements.

\subsection*{23.1 Transitivity and Objects}

Indirect objects precede direct, and objects precede other complements, except in cases of extraposition or dislocation due to weight 33.3. A clitic pronoun before a noun object therefore cannot be the direct object:
*M̀ dāa tísílī ná'àb lā.
1sg tns give zinan.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:
da ku nidaa, da zuuda
dā kū nīdá \({ }^{+} \varnothing\), dā zūudá \({ }^{+} \varnothing .\).
neg.imp kill person:sg neg, neg.imp steal:DIPF 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:
\[
\text { Ò pū zámm }{ }^{+} \varnothing . \quad \text { "She didn't cheat him/her." }
\]

3AN neg.ind cheat neg.

Transitive Invariable Verbs always require a complement, and again there is necessarily an anaphoric sense if none is explicitly present. Thus with àeñ \({ }^{\text {a }}\) "be something/somehow":

Mānı ø án dứ'átà àmáa fōn pū ányā \({ }^{+} \varnothing\).
1SG.CNTR SER COP doctor:SG but 2SG.CNTR NEG.IND COP NEG.
"I'm a doctor but you aren't."

Mānı ø án dư'átà kà fūn mén áeñ.
1SG.CNTR SER COP doctor:Sg and 2SG.CNTR also COP.
"I'm a doctor and you are too."

Particular cases of null anaphora appear with direct objects preposed with kà 33.2 31.2.2 and with Supplement Clauses 29.2.

In replies to questions and reponses to commands, null anaphora of complements may refer to an antecedent in the previous speaker's words:
Q. Fò mór gbāun láa \({ }^{+} \varnothing\) ? "Do you have the letter?"

2sG have letter:SG ART PQ?
A. \(\bar{\varepsilon} \varepsilon n ̃, \grave{m}\) mór.

Yes, 1sG have.
Q. Fù bว́วd•ó-o \(+\varnothing\) ?

2SG want-3AN.OB PQ?
A. Áyìı, m̀ pū bว́כdā \({ }^{+} \varnothing\). "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 gbāñ'ad
REL.PL steal:DIPF person:PL SER seize:DIPF
"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:DIPF

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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:

> Fù tóm bj́-tùvma + \(\varnothing\) ? "What (work) are you doing?"
> 2SG work:DIPF what-work cQ?

Ka ya ninkuda zaansim zaansima.
Kà yà nīn-kúdà zàañ̃sım záañsímà.
And 2PL person-old:PL dream:DIPF 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}{|c|c|c|c|}
\hline \(y^{+}\) & "close" & \(n a \bar{e}{ }^{+/}\) & "finish" \\
\hline zà'mıs & "learn/teach" & nā'mıs \({ }^{\text {/ }}\) & "suffer/make suffer" \\
\hline bj̀dıg \({ }^{\text {e }}\) & "lose, get lost" & bàs \({ }^{\varepsilon}\) & "go/send away" \\
\hline dūe \({ }^{+/}\) & "raise/rise" & mā'e+/ & "get cool" \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

Many, though not all, Patientive Ambitransitive verbs express a change of state and can use the base stem form as a Resultative Stative 22.2.2.1:

Kùlın lā yó nē. "The door is closed."
Door:sG ART close foc.
\(\grave{M}\) náa tūuma lā. \(\quad\) I've finished the work."
1sG finish work ART.

Tōoma lā náa n \(\bar{\varepsilon}\). \(\quad\) "The work is finished."
Work ART finish foc.

Conversely, most Variable Verbs capable of forming a Resultative are Patientive Ambitransitive, though there are also some intransitive-only verbs like kpi+ "die."

Almost any verb can potentially take an indirect object expressing benefit, interest etc (this could lead to ambiguity in principle):
Ò dùgū_m.
"He cooked (for) me."
3AN cook 1SG.Ob.

Lì màlısi_ m. "I like it." ("It's sweet for me.")
zinan 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.
\(\dot{M}\) 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 tís•ō ø dāká.
1SG give 3AN.OB box:SG.
Dā tís•ò ø si'əla \({ }^{+} \varnothing\).
neg.imp give 3AN.ob indf.inan neg.
"Don't give her anything!"
\begin{tabular}{ll} 
Dā tís \(\bar{\varepsilon}+\varnothing!\) & "Don't give it to her!" \\
NEG.IMP give nEG. & \\
\(\dot{M} \quad t i ́ s ~ y a ̄ . ~\) & "I've given it to him." \\
1SG give PFv. &
\end{tabular}

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 ż̀ X nīn-báalìg "have pity on X ", nìn X yàddā "believe X , believe in X ", zว̀ X dābíàm "fear X" 11.2.2.1, siàa X nכ̄כr "obey X", ñwè' X nú'ùg "make an agreement with X."

Wina'am na kad nidib poten'esua'ada saria.
Wínà'am ná kād nīdıb pú-tèn'-sū'adá sàríyà.
God IRR drive person:PL inside-mind-secret:PL judgment.
"God will judge people's secret thoughts." (Rom 2:16, 1996)

Biise, siakimini ya du'adib пэуа.
Bïise \(\quad+\varnothing\), sìàkımī-ní_ yà dō'adıb nóyà.
Child:PL voc, agree:IMP-2PL.SUB 2PL parent:PL mouth:PL.
"Children, obey your parents." (Eph 6:1)

Ò ż̀t•ō_ \(\quad\) nīn-báalìg.
3AN feel.emotion:DIPF 3AN.OB eye-pity.
"She has pity on him."

Bà zòt•ō_ ø dābíàm.
3PL feel.emotion:DIPF 3AN.ob fear.
"They are afraid of him."

Bà nìn•ō_ \(\quad\) yáddā. "They believed her."
3PL do 3AN.OB assent.

Ò ñ~と̀' ná'àb lā nú'ùg. "He made an agreement with the king." 3AN strike king:SG ART hand:sg.

\subsection*{23.1.1 Passives}

For passive meaning expressed by an empty bà "they" as subject see 19.2.3. 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 nū\({ }^{+}\)"drink", to be used passively with no formal change:
\(\grave{M}\) 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.

With Invariable Verbs, only the Dynamic group may be used as Passives.
Passives are limited aspectually to expressing punctual events 33.1.2.3. The verb \(s \overline{b^{2}}{ }^{\varepsilon}\) "write" is a specialised usage of \(s \bar{\jmath} b^{\varepsilon}\) "make/go dark", and is Patientive Ambitransitive despite the English translation. It can form a Resultative:

Gbàung lā sób yā. "The letter has been written."
Letter:sg ART write PFv.

Gbàung lā sób n̄̄. "The letter is written."
Letter:sG ART write foc.

The Dynamic Imperfective \(\operatorname{sj} b ı d^{\text {a/ }}\) seems to accept intransitive use only when some adverbial modification is present:

Gbàna sóbìd zīná. "Letters get written today." WK
Letter:PL write:DIPF today.

Gbàung lā sóbìd súpā. "The letter is writing well (i.e. easily.)" WK
Letter:SG ART write:DIPF good:ADV.

\subsection*{23.1.2 Middle Uses of Intransitives}

The assume-stance verbs 13.2.1.1, rather than the make-assume-stance series, are often used transitively for parts of one's own body:

Lìgıním_ fù nīf nદ́ fù nú'ùg.
Cover:IMP 2sG eye:sG with 2sG hand:sg.
"Cover your eye with your hand."

Thus Dìgıním_ fò nú'ùg. "Put your hand down."
Lie.down:IMP 2sG hand:sG.
is commoner than

Digılím_ fò nú'ùg. "Put your hand down."
Lay.down:IMP 2sG hand:sG.

Similarly nìe+ "appear" is usually intransitive, corresponding to transitive nè \(\left.\varepsilon\right|^{\varepsilon}\) "reveal", but nìe \({ }^{+}\)is much more frequent than nè \(\left.\right|^{\varepsilon}\) before ò \(m \bar{\varepsilon} \eta^{a / ~ " h i m / h e r s e l f " ~ e t c . ~}\)

Ka o nie o meŋ 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*{23.2 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.
Kह̀l kà ì líabì fò tòm-tōm yūnní.
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 àen \({ }^{\text {a }}\)
1SG COP FOC 2SG work-worker:SG.

Àeñ \({ }^{\text {a }}\) "be something/somehow" 24.2 takes a predicative complement:

Ò à ne biig. "She is a child."
3AN COP FOC child:sg.

M̀ kā' dư'átāa \({ }^{+} \varnothing\). "I'm not a doctor."
1SG neg.be doctor:sg neg.

As with other transitive Invariable Verbs, the complement is obligatory 23.1.
Transitive verbs may have a predicative complement after the direct object. With verbs are used in the relevant senses, this complement is compulsory.

The verb pòd \({ }^{\varepsilon}\) "name, dub" has as first object a NP with the head \(y \bar{u}^{\prime} u r^{\varepsilon /}\) "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 3an name:sg that Jesus.
"And you will call him Jesus." (Mt 1:21)

Ka o pud biig la yo'vr Yesu.
Kà ò púd bīig lā yú'ùr Yesu.
And 3an dub child:sg art name:sg Jesus.
"And he called the child Jesus. " (Mt 1:25)

The verb bùe \(\left.\right|^{\varepsilon}\) "call, call out, summon" can be used in the Dynamic Imperfective with an object expressing the person named and the name as a complement, again possibly introduced by y \(\bar{\varepsilon}\) :
on ka ba buon ye Pita la
j̀n kà bà búèn ȳ̄ Pita lā
REL.AN and 3PL call:DIPF that Peter ART
"who was called Peter" (Mt 10:2)

The verb is often used passively 23.1 .1 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-só' kà ò yō'ur búèn Joon.
man-Indf.AN and 3AN name:sG call:dIPF John.
"a man called John." (Jn 1:6)

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The verb màa \(\varepsilon^{\varepsilon}\) "make" is used with an object and a resultative predicative complement in the 1976 NT in Acts 8:9

Ka o maal o men nintita'ar.
Kà ò máàl ò mēŋ nīn-títā'ar.
And 3AN make 3an self person-great:sg.
"He made himself out to be a great man."

The 1996 NT version has instead

Ka o du'osi o men ye o ane nintita'ar.
Kà ò dū'өsí_ò mēy yé ò à nē nīn-títā'ar.
And 3AN elevate 3AN self that 3AN COP FOC person-great:sg.
"He made himself up that he was a great man."

A resultative predicative kà-clause:
...ka la'am maan gigis ka ba wum ka pia'ad.
...kà lá'àm màan gígìs kà bà wóm kà piāñn'ad.
...and together make:DIPF dumb:PL and 3PL hear:DIPF and speak:DIPF.
"...and even makes the dumb hear and speak." (Mk 7:37, 1976)

The verb \(n y \bar{\varepsilon}^{+}\)"see, find" can take a Supplement kà-clause as a predicative complement 29.2:

M̀ dāa ñ y \(\bar{\varepsilon}\) dāu lá kà ò án ná'àb.
1sg tws see man:sg art and 3AN cop chief:sg.
"I saw the man as a chief."

M̀ dāa \(p \bar{v} \quad \underset{\sim}{y} y \bar{\varepsilon}\) dāu lá kà ò án ná'abā \({ }^{+} \varnothing\).
1sG tns neg.ind see man:sg art and ban cop chief:sg neg.
"I didn't see the man as a chief."

\subsection*{23.2.1 Manner-adverbs}

Manner-adverbs behave syntactically in many respects like abstract mass nouns, and indeed may arise from such noun usages 20.4 . One such instance is in their common usage as predicative complements.

Kusaal characteristically uses proadverbs of manner 17.1 as predicative complements in place of pronouns with abstract reference. i.e. the language says "be/do how" rather than "be/do what."
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Dā níyì àláa + ø! "Don't do that!" ("thus")
neg.imp do adv:thus neg.

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Fu wom ban yet si'em laa?
Fò wóm bán yغ̀t sỉəm láa \({ }^{+} \varnothing\) ?
2SG hear:DIPF 3PL:COMP Say:DIPF 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 àn sỉəm.
Tree:SG fruit:PL show:DIPF 3AN:COMP COP INDF.ADV.
"The fruit of a tree shows what ["how"] it is." (Mt 12:33, 1976)

The Indefinite proadverb \(s{ }^{\top} \partial m^{\mathrm{m}}\) is particularly commonly used in this way as head of a Relative Clause 31.2.1.

Transitive verbs like nìn \({ }^{\varepsilon}\) "do, make" màal \(\left.\right|^{\varepsilon}\) "make" may be followed by àlá+ "thus" or w \(\bar{\varepsilon} l a^{+}\)"how?" with following subordinate clause of purpose:

M na nip wala ka nye faangire?

1SG IRR do how and find salvation ca?
"What must I do to get saved?" (Acts 16:30)

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 24.2:

Lì à nē zāalím.
Lì à nē būgusígā.
Lì à súnā.
"It's empty."
"It's soft."
"It's good."

\subsection*{23.3 Locative Complements}

Locative AdvPs 20.3 occur as complements after verbs of position and movement. Some verbs require a locative complement, and its absence is anaphoric.

M yí Bj̀k. \(\quad\) "I left Bawku."
1sG emerge Bawku.

M yí yā. \(\quad\) "I've left [there]."
1sG emerge prv.

Others do not; so with \(k \bar{\varepsilon} \eta^{\varepsilon /}\) "go, walk" dìgın \(n^{\varepsilon}\) "lie down" dīgıı \(\left.\right|^{\varepsilon / ~ " l a y ~ d o w n ": ~}\)
...ka po tun'e kenna..
\(\ldots k a ̀ p \bar{u} \quad t u ̄ n ̃{ }_{\sim}^{\prime} e_{-} \varnothing\) k \(n n a ́{ }^{+} \varnothing\).
ban neg.ind be.able ser go:dipf neg.
"who couldn't walk." (Acts 14:8)
but Ò kèn Bók.
3AN go Bawku.
Ò dìgın yā. "He's lain down."
3an lie.down pfv.
but Dìgınım kpē! "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 gbáung lā tézbòl lā zúg.
3AN lay.down book:SG ART table:SG ART upon.
"She's put the book on the table."

The verb \(b \grave{\varepsilon}^{+} \underline{24.1}\) without a complement is "exist":

Wínà'am bé.
"God exists."
God Exist.

Àláafù bé• O_ ø.
"He's well." ("Health exists for him.")
Health exist zan.ob.
(Indirect object but no complement.)

With a locative complement, \(b \grave{\varepsilon}^{+}\)means "be in a place":

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*{23.4 Prepositional Phrases as Complements}

Wēnna/ "resemble" usually takes a phrase introduced by \(n \bar{\varepsilon}\) or \(w \bar{v} v \underline{21.1}\).

Ka o nindaa wenne nintan ne.
Kà ò nīn-dáa wēn n̄̄ nīntāך n \(\bar{\varepsilon}\).
And 3an eye-face:sg resemble with sun:sg like.
"His face is like the sun." (Rev 10:1, 1996)

With other verbs it can be difficult to distinguish phrases with \(n \bar{\varepsilon}\) as complements from NP objects or complements preceded by Focus-n \(\bar{\varepsilon}^{+/}\)33.1.2, unless the \(n \bar{\varepsilon}\) occurs in contexts where focus is prohibited like \(\grave{n}\)-Clauses. Thus yī \(n \bar{\varepsilon} \mathrm{X}\) occurs in the sense "come from X " and the metaphorical sense "arise from X ":

M yí n̄̄ Bók. "I come from Bawku." SB
1sG emerge foc Bawku.

Yadda ninir yitne labaar la wommug ni.
Yàddā-nípìr yít nē lábāar lā wómmòg ní.
Assent-doing emerge:DIPF foc news ARt hearing Loc.
"Faith comes from hearing the news." (Rom 10:17)

However, constructions with the same meaning but within a \(\grave{n}\)-Clause lack \(n \bar{\varepsilon}\) :

Meeri one yi Magdala "Mary who came from Magdala"
Meeri ónì yī Magdala
Mary rel.an emerge Magdala
(Mk 16:9, 1996)

A probable case of a verb taking a prepositional phrase as complement in a metaphorical sense is d̄̄/la/ "accompany a person in subordinate rôle", which with \(n \bar{\varepsilon}\) means rather "be in accordance with":

Li dolne lin sob Wina'am gbaunon si'em la ye ...
Lì dj̀l \(n \bar{\varepsilon}\) lín sj̄b Wínà'am gbáungū-n sỉəm lā y \(\bar{\varepsilon} \ldots\)
3INAN follow with 3InAN:COMP 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)

\subsection*{23.5 Clausal Complements}

Certain verbs require a following clause with a Verbal Predicator in Imperative Mood introduced by a linker particle kà or \(y \bar{\varepsilon}\) 29.1. 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-clause, while if \(n \bar{a} r^{a /}\) appears without there is a necessarily anaphoric sense; mit appears with a NP object in the sense "beware of..." 32.1.1.

The verb bj̀ \(d^{\text {a }}\) "want, love" takes a \(y \bar{\varepsilon}\)-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 \(y \bar{\varepsilon}\)-purpose clause complement to express "waiting for an event"; both in this case and elsewhere the "purpose" sense is reduced to mere expectation.

Verbs of cognition, reporting, and perception have as complement a Content
 such verbs have an anaphoric sense without such an object.

The verb àeñ \({ }^{\text {a }}\) "be something/somehow", which is uniquely flexible in the variety of different types of argument it may appear with, may take a clause introduced by \(y \bar{\varepsilon}\) as a complement too 24.2 .

Supplement Clauses 29.2 may appear as predicative clausal complements.

\subsection*{23.6 Adjuncts}

Adjuncts of all types occur as the last element in the VP. Several VP adjuncts may occur together. Main Clauses and Content Clauses with a Verbal Predicator may contain clause-level adjuncts preceding the subject 28.1.1.

VP Adjuncts may be AdvPs, prepositional phrases, or subordinate clauses.

Bà dìt \(n \bar{\varepsilon}\) sā'ab dó-kànā lā póvgū-n.
3PL eat:DIPF 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:

Fù bj́j̀d bó +ø? "What do you want?"
2SG want what cQ?
\(\grave{M}\) bój̀d ý́ fù kūl. \(\quad\) "I want you to go home."
1sG want that 2sG return.home.

Content clauses \(\underline{29.3}\) are always complements:

Bùn-bāñ'ad zī' y \(\bar{\sim}\) t \(\bar{\eta} \eta \quad\) tóllā \({ }^{+} \varnothing\).
Donkey-rider:sG neg.know that ground:sg be.hot neg.
"The donkey-rider doesn't know the ground is hot."

\subsection*{23.7 Verb-Phrase-Final Particles}

The particles nā "hither" and sà "hence; ago" follow any complements. The verb \(k \bar{\varepsilon} \tilde{\sim}^{+}\)"come" is invariably used with nā; the imperative SF \(k \dot{\varepsilon} m\), 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 nā or sà respectively: kèm nā! "come" kèm sá! "go!"

Examples:

M̀ mór kú'èm náa \(\quad\) Ø ? "Shall I bring water?" SB
\(\mathbf{1 s G}\) have water hither PQ?
bùgúm lā yít yáa ní ná \(+\varnothing\) ?
Fire ART emerge:DIPF where Loc hither ca?
"Where is the light coming from?"

Fò yí yáa ní ná \({ }^{+} \varnothing\) ?

2sG emerge where toc hither ca?
"Where have you come from?" WK

Sà is often used temporally, for "since" or "ago":

O daa pun ane ninkuvd hali pin'ilugun sa.
Ò dāa pón à nē nīn-kúv̀d hālí pīn'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)

Fu na ban li nya'aŋ sa.
Fù ná bán lì nyá'aŋ sá.
2SG IRR realise zinan behind since.
"You will come to understand afterwards." (Jn 13:7, 1976)

Lazarus pun be yaugun la daba anaasi sa.
Lazarus pón bè yávgū-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:

Kદ̀m nā \(n\) ḡ̄s. "Come and look!" SB
Come:Imp hither ser look.

Man ya'a po keとn na tu'asini ba ...
Mān yá' \(p \bar{v}\) k \(\bar{\varepsilon}\)-n nā_ \(\varnothing\) tú'asī-ní_bā...
1SG.CNTR if neg.ind come-rem hither Ser talk-rem 3pl.ob...
"If I had not come to talk to them ..." (Jn 15:22)
\(N \bar{a}^{+/}\)and sà \({ }^{+}\)often follow any article \(\overline{\mathrm{a}}{ }^{+/}\)ending an \(\grave{n}\)-Clause containing them:
```

ba diib n yit na'ate\eta la na zug
bà dīıb ǹ yīt ná'-tēŋ lā nā zúg

```

3PL food comp emerge:DIPF king-land:sG ART hither upon
"because their food came from the king's land" (Acts 12:20, 1996)

Closely parallel constructions may show either nā lā or lā nā:
ñwādıg kánì kēn nā lā
```

month REL.SG come:DIPF hither ART
"next month" SB
dunia kane ken la na
dūnıyá-kànı kēn lā nā
world-rel.sg come:dipf art hither
"the world which is coming" (Lk 20:35)

```
\(M\) diib ane ye \(m\) tum one tomi \(m\) la na bכدdim naae.
\(\grave{M}\) dīıb á nē yé m̀ tóm j̀nı tòmı \(m\) lā nā bóvdìm \(\varnothing\) nāe.
1SG food cop foc that 1sG work rel.an send 1sG.ob art hither will ser finish.
My food is that I do the will of him who sent me completely. (Jn 4:34)
ti tom one tom man na la tovma.
tì tóm j̀nı tòm mān nā lā tōoma
1PL work rel.an send 1sG.CNTR hither art work
"Let us do the work of him who sent me." (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 yîbb 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 Bîg lā lébùg lā nā
Person-smooth:sg Child:sg ART return:GER ART hither
"the return of the Son of Man" (Mt 24:27)

\section*{24 The Verbs "to be"}

\subsection*{24.1 Bغ̀+ "be somewhere, exist"}
\(B \grave{\varepsilon}^{+}\)is followed by L Raising even when not subjected to tone overlay by Independency Marking; it is formally as well as semantically imperfective.

With no associated locative \(b \grave{\varepsilon}^{+}\)means simply "exist":

Wínà'am bé.
God Exist.

Àláafù bé.O-ø.
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" if the locative is a complement 33.1.2.4, but "exist in a place" if the locative is a clause adjunct:

Mam bene moogin.
Mām bé nē mj̄ogv-n.
1SG.CNTR EXIST FOC grass:SG-LOC.

\section*{Moogin ka mam be.}

Mว̄əgú-n kà mām bé. (kà-preposed locative)
Grass:sg-loc and 1sG.cntr exist.

Dāu lā bé n̄̄ dó-kànā lā púvgō-n.
Man:sg art exist foc hut-dem.dei.sg art inside:sg-loc.
"The man is inside that hut." (Reply to "Where is that man?"; focus on locative)
Dàu-sכ̄' bé dó-kànā lā póvgū-n.
Man-indf.an exist hut-dem.del.sg art inside:sg-Loc.
"There's a certain man in that hut." (focus on subject)
\(B \grave{\varepsilon}^{+}\)is common in Presentational Constructions 33.4.
For the corresponding negative \(k \bar{a}^{\prime} e^{+}\)see 32.1.1. *pū bé is not used.
\(B \grave{\varepsilon}^{+}\)plays a rôle analogous to a "passive" to \(m \bar{\jmath} r^{a / ~ " h a v e " ~ i n ~ c o n s t r u c t i o n s ~ l i k e: ~}\)
\(\dot{M}\) 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 \({ }^{+} \varnothing\). "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.

B̄ēení àlá ànínā. "Be ye there!" [be:nala anina]
ExIST-2PL.SUB ADV:thus ADV:there.

\section*{24.2 Àenn \({ }^{\mathbf{a}}\) "be something/somehow"}

The e of the SF of àen \({ }^{a}\) is always lost except on the rare occurrence of the word phrase finally 8.5.3.

Ò à ne biig. \(\quad\) "She is a child."
3AN COP FOC child:sG.

Lì àn súnā.
"It's good."
3INAN COP good:ADV.
but Mānı ø án dư'átà kà fūn mén áeñ
1SG.CNTR SER COP doctor:SG and 2SG.CNTR also cop.
"I'm a doctor and you are too."

The usual negative uses the negative verb kā'é \({ }^{+}\)"not be":

M̀ kā' dư'átāa \({ }^{+} \varnothing\). "I'm not a doctor."
1SG NEG.BE doctor:SG NEG.

However, pū áen can occur, for example in contrasts:

Mānı \(\varnothing\) án dứátà àmáa fūn pū ányā \({ }^{+} \varnothing\).
1SG.CNTR SER COP doctor:SG but 2SG.CNTR NEG.IND COP NEG.
"I'm a doctor but you aren't."

Àen \({ }^{\mathrm{a}}\) can be used in direct commands:
Àn bāañlím! "Be quiet!"
COP quiet:ABSTR!
Āa-ní_ àlá bāañlím! "Be (ye) quiet!"
COP-2PL.sUB ADV:thus quiet:ABSTR!

As with English copular clauses, the sense may be ascriptive or specifying (cf Huddlestone and Pullum p266.) If it is ascriptive, the complement is non-referring, and normally focussed with \(n \bar{\varepsilon}^{+/}\)33.1.2.4 if permitted 33.1.2.1 33.1.2.2:
Ò à nē bïig.
"She is a child."
3AN COP FOC child:sg.

Ò à nē bíigàa \({ }^{+}\)? ? "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 33.1.1:

Mane an konbkem sup la.
Mānı ø án kóñb-kìm-sùn
lā.
1SG.CNTR SER COP animal-tender-good:SG ART.
"I am the good shepherd." (Jn 10:11)

Mane a o.
"I am he." (Jn 18:5, 1976) 8.2.1.
Mānı ø áño_ ø.
1SG.CNTR SER COP 3AN.OB.

Nobibisi a mam disun.
Nō-bíbısì ø án mām dí-sùy.
Hen-small:PL SER COP 1sG.CNTR food-good:sG.
"Chicks are my favourite food." BNY p13

Nع'عクa an Yesu [...] yaanam yعla.
NĒ'口á àn 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 \({ }^{2} e n^{2}\) is definite, the construction is usually specifying, with the subject in focus:
\(\dot{M}\) á \(n \bar{\varepsilon}\) dư'átà. \(\quad I ' m\) a doctor." ("What do you do?")
1SG COP FOC doctor:SG.
Ascriptive.
but Mānı_ Ø án dư'átà lā. "I'm the doctor." ("Which one is the doctor?")
1SG.CNTR SER COP doctor:SG ART. Specifying.

However, definite complements may be in focus as "pragmatically nonrecoverable" because of their internal structure or other factors: see 33.1.2.4.

Àen \({ }^{\mathrm{a}}\) 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 20.5:

Zīná a n \(\bar{\varepsilon}\) dá'a. "Today [time] is market."
Today cop foc market:sg.

Yin venl, ka poogin ka'a su'um.
Yìn véñl kà pōvgu-n kā' sómm \({ }^{+} \varnothing\).
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 nว̀nılyā sīəm lā á nē bédugū.
1SG:COMP love 2PL.OB INDF.ADV ART COP FOC much.
"How much I love you [manner], is a lot." (2 Cor 7:3, 1976)

Àen \({ }^{\text {a }}\) 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 19.8.1.3.

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 19.8.1.5.) More often, compounds with nīn"person" or būn- "thing" + adjective 19.9.3 are used:

Ò à n̄ nīn-sún. \(\quad\) "She's a good person."
3AN COP FOC person-good:sg.

Dīıb á \(n \bar{\varepsilon}\) būn-súy. \(\quad\) "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 post-determining pronoun; thus only

Lì à nē būn-píàl-kànā. \(\quad\) "It is this white one."

Àen \(n^{\text {a }}\) often takes a manner-adverb or deadjectival abstract noun as complement 23.2.1. Such constructions are ascriptive, using \(n \bar{\varepsilon}^{+/}\)where syntactically permissible:

Lì à n \(\bar{\varepsilon}\) ná'anā. "It's easy."
3INAN COP FOC easily.

Lì à n̄̄ zāalím. "It's empty."
3INAN COP FOC empty:Abstr.
Lì à nē būgusígā. "It's soft."
3INAN COP FOC soft:ADV.

Lì àn súnā. "It's good." 33.1.2.2
3INAN COP good:ADV.

Possible complements of àen \({ }^{\text {a }}\) also include Circumstance AdvPs 31.1 and Complement Clauses:
\(M\) diib ane ye \(m\) tum one tomi \(m\) la na boدdim naae.
\(\grave{M}\) dīıb á n̄ yé m̀ tóm j̀nı tùmı \(m\) lā nā bóvdìm \(\varnothing\) nāe.
1SG food cop foc that 1sg work rel.an send 1sg.ob art hither will ser finish.
My food is that I do the will of him who sent me completely. (Jn 4:34)

\section*{25 Non-Verbal Predicators}

Non-verbal Predicators may only occur in Main Clauses and Content Clauses. There are four types (X standing for a NP):

X n lā.
X n ñwá.
\(\mathrm{X} n\) wá nā.
X lía?
"That is X."
"This is X."
"This here is \(\mathrm{X} . "\)
"Where is X?"

The particle \(n\) in these forms is the same phonologically as VP Serialiser \(n\) 8.2.2.1.2 and is here regarded as a special use of the same particle.

The three forms which are not in themselves questions can be used to make content questions with an interrogative pronoun as "X."

Clauses with a Non-verbal Predicator cannot include any pre-subject elements other than linker particles, nor any post-subject particles, nor be focussed.

Examples:

Kùlıクı \(\varnothing\) lā. "That's a door."
Door:sg ser that.
\(B \bar{\varepsilon} o g 0^{-} \varnothing\) lā.
"See you tomorrow" ("That's tomorrow.")
Tomorrow SER that.

Fù mà lā lía + \(\quad\) ?
2sG mother:sG ART be.where ca?
"Where is your mother?" WK

Ka awai la dia [sic]?
"But where are the nine?" (Lk 17:17, 1976)
Kà àwāe lā lía + Ø?
And num:nine art be.where ca?

Bう̄כ_ø lá +ø? "What's that?"
What ser that co?

Non-verbal Predicators may have a serial-verb construction appended to them, or there may be a Supplement kà-clause 29.2 modifying \(X\); kà is used to introduce a subject different from X , the serial-verb construction otherwise. The resulting constructions are variants of \(n\)-clefting and kà-clefting 33.1.1 33.2.

Anכ'on nwaa yisid nidib tovmbع'عdi basida?
Ànó'j̀n_ø ñ~wáa_ø yīsıd nīdıb túv̀m-bž'عdı_ø básıdà + ?
Who ser this ser expel:DIPF person:PL deed-bad:PL ser throw.out:DIPF cQ?
"Who is this who drives people's sins out?" (Lk 7:49)

J̄nı_ ø lá kà fù dāa nnyz̄t.
3AN.CNTR SER that and 2sg tns see:dipf.
"This is he whom you saw." WK

Ànכ́'כnì_ø ñwá kà tì ny \(\bar{\sim}\) tá \({ }^{+} \varnothing\) ?
Who ser this and 1PL see:DIPF cQ?
"Who is this that we can see?"

What ser that and 1sG see:DIPF ca?
"What is that that I can see?"

\section*{26 Serial Verb Phrases}

\subsection*{26.1 Serial Verb Phrases: Overview}

Kusaal makes extensive use of serial verb constructions. A clause may contain a single verb phrase or Non-verbal Predicator, or may add potentially any number of further verb phrases each preceded by the Serialiser particle \(n^{14}\). (For the realisation of this particle, see 8.2.2.1.2.) Complements and VP adjuncts (even clauses) may be incorporated within such chains of VPs.

> 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 \(\bar{\varepsilon} \eta\) n yó'כ̀g sārıgá dój̀g
> But and head-one:sg angel:sg tns go ser open prison:sg house:sg
> zá'-nכ̄כr lā yō'ט-kán, \(n\) mכ̄rí_bā \(n\) yīis yín. compound-mouth:SG ART night-dem.sG, SER have \(\mathbf{3 P L}\).ob Ser 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-sכ̄' dūen zíe lá'asòg lā nīdıb sísòvgū-n, And man-indf.an rise ser stand assembly:SG ARt person:PL among-loc, \(n\) án Parisee níd kà ò yō'ur búèn Gamaliel, \(n\) án ónì ser cop Pharisee person:sg and 3AN name:sg call:dipf Gamaliel, ser cop rel.an pà'an Wínà'am wádà lā yźlà, kà lém àn yō'ur dáàn teach:DIPF God law ART about, and again cop name:sG owner:sg nīdıb sá'àn.
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)

Verb phrases within such a chain may be coordinations of component verb phrases linked by kà "and" or b \(\bar{\varepsilon} \varepsilon / k \bar{u} v\) "or" 26.2.
14) Many accounts of serial verb constructions specify that there must be no linking element by definition. However, in exactly parallel cases Toende Kusaal has zero for this Agolle particle \(n\), and it seems arbitrary to deny the label to the Agolle construction because of a mere phonological difference. Other Western Oti-Volta languages mostly show \(n\) at least in slow speech; Dagaare (Bodomo 1997) has zero.

Normally only the first Verbal Predicator carries tense and polarity particles, which apply to the entire chain, but verbs each retain the Remoteness Marker \(n^{\varepsilon}\), and while initial Irrealis Mood marking applies to the whole chain, a predicator following an Indicative may be in the Irrealis, in which case it will be marked itself.

The particle-verb tì is often found with non-initial VPs.
Change in polarity within a chain is rare; if there is a change of polarity the construction is normally replaced by coordination of Serial VPs \(\underline{26.2}\) or a Supplement Clause (the only case where a Supplement Clause can have the same subject as the main clause before it 29.2):

Ka dau daa zin'i Listra ni ka pu tun'e kenna.
Kà dāu dāa zíñ'ilistra ní kà pū tūñ'e_ Ø kēnná \({ }^{+} \varnothing\).
And man:sg tns sit Lystra loc and neg.ind be.able ser go:dipf neg.
"There was a man in Lystra who could not walk." (Acts 14:8, 1996)

Ka Joon kena כככר ka po nuud daam
Kà Joon k \(\bar{\varepsilon}\) nā \(\varnothing\) l̄כد nכ̄כr kà pū nūud dáamm \({ }^{+} \varnothing\). And John come hither ser tie:dipf mouth:sg and neg.ind drink:dipf beer neg. "John came, fasting and not drinking beer." (Mt 11:18)

A change from positive to negative polarity is possible, however:
```

Ya sieba be kp\varepsilonla ku kpii as\varepsilon\varepsilon ba ti ny\varepsilon Wina'am na'am la.
Yà sīəba b\varepsiloń kp\overline{lá_\varnothing kú kpïi +\varnothing, às\varepsiloń\varepsilon bà nà tì}
2PL INDF.PL EXIST here SER NEG.IRR die NEG, except 3PL IRR afterwards
ny\varepsiloǹ Wínà'am ná'àm lā.
see God kingdom art.

```

There are some of you here who will not die before they see the kingdom of God." (Lk 9:27)

This is probably licensed by the presentational character of the main VP 33.4.
Verbal Predicators in a chain each have their own aspect marking, which need not necessarily be the same throughout.

In all serial-verb chains the order of events, if they are not simultaneous, is iconic; it must be reflected in the order of the VPs 22.2.1.

Which VP in a chain is semantically the "principal" verb phrase is not determinable from the order; many verbs have characteristic "auxiliary" or subordinate rôles in chains and whether they precede or follow the "main" verb depends on their own semantics.

A Serial VP can be attached after a Non-verbal Predicator 25:

\section*{Anכ'כn nwaa yisid nidib tovmbع'عdi basida?}

Who ser this ser expel:DIPF person:PL deed-bad:PL ser throw.out:DIPF ca?
"Who is this who drives people's sins out?" (Lk 7:49)

Common patterns with verbs without specialised Serial-VP uses include
(a) main VP + imperfective VP expressing accompanying events:

Ka Ninsaal Biig la kena dit ka nuud...
Kà Nīn-sáàl Bïig kēn nā \(\varnothing\) dít kà nūud...
And Person-smooth:sG child:sG come:DIPF hither ser eat:DIPF and drink:DIPF...
"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 yé fū-píəlà ø zi'e bà sā'an.
And man:PL Num:two dress shirt-white:PL SER stand 3PL among.
"Two men dressed in white were standing with them." (Acts 1:10)
(c) main VP + perfective VP in Irrealis or Imperative Mood, expressing purpose.

Amaa m po mor antu'a zugv o yela na sэbi tis na'atita'ar laa.
Àmáa m̀̀ pū mōr ántù'a zúgú_ò yह̄lá_ \(\varnothing\) nà sכ̄bı_ \(\varnothing\) tís
But 1SG neg.ind have case:sg upon 3an about ser irr write ser give
ná'-tītā'ar láa +ø.
king-great:sg ART neg.
"But I have no case about him to write to the Emperor." (Acts 25:26)

Man ya'a po kern na tu'asini ba ...
Mān yá' \(p \bar{v} \quad k \bar{\varepsilon} \varepsilon-n \quad n a ̄ \_\varnothing\) tú'asī-ní_bā...
1SG.CNTR if neg.Ind come-rem hither ser talk-rem 3PL.ob...
"If I had not come to talk to them ..." (Jn 15:22) Note rem on both verbs.

Kèm_ \(\varnothing\) tí \(\quad\) ny \(\bar{\varepsilon}\) dư'átà.
Go:IMP SER afterwards see doctor:sG.
"Go and see the doctor."

The Serial VP construction seems always to imply some subordination; the equivalent in translation in European languages would often be a participle modifying the main verb subject.

\subsection*{26.2 Coordination}

VPs in serial-verb constructions can be coordinated with kà "and", b \(\bar{\varepsilon} \varepsilon\) "or", \(k \bar{v}\) "or"; \(b \bar{\varepsilon} \varepsilon\) and \(k \bar{\nu} v\) are here synonymous.
```

Bà b\varepsiloń\varepsilon_ànínā n wā'ad b\varepsilon̄\varepsilon yó'vm yō'umá.
3PL EXIST ADV:there SER dance:DIPF or sing:DIPF song:PL.
"They're in the process of dancing or singing."

```
ka ken ... n ian'asid ka pian'ad n du'osid Wina'am yu'ur su'una.
kà \(k \bar{\varepsilon} \eta \ldots n\) īāñ'asíd kà piāñ'ad \(n\) dū'өsíd
and go ... SER leap:DIPF and praise:DIPF SER elevate:DIPF
Wínà'am yú'ùr súnā.
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.
Sógíà-sכ̄' kā'e \(n\) tóm kà yכ̄כd ò mēyá \({ }^{+} \varnothing\).

Soldier-indf.an neg.be ser work:Dipf and pay:dipf 3an self neg.
"No soldier works and pays for himself." (1 Cor 9:7, 1976)

\subsection*{26.3 Auxiliary Verbs in Serial VPs}

Certain verbs have characteristic specialised meanings in Serial VP constructions. Variable Verbs of this type agree in aspect with the main VP verb.

\subsection*{26.3.1 Preceding the Main VP}
b̀̀ \({ }^{+}\)"exist, be somewhere" + ànínā "there" + imperfective "be in the process of ..."
Ò bè ànínā n ñ~wé'غेd biiig lā.
3AN EXIST ADV: there SER beat:DIPF child:SG ART.
"He's currently beating the child."
àen \({ }^{\mathbf{a}}\) "be something/somehow" : the construction seen in

Li ane o sidi su'oe li.
Lì á né ò sīdı_ ø súv \({ }^{\text {_li. }}\)
binan cop foc ban husband:sg ser own zinan.ob.
"It's her husband who owns it." (1 Cor 7:4)
is parallel to the Supplement kà-clause type 29.2 but with the subject of the main clause as antecedent. By ellipsis, this construction gives rise to \(n\)-focus 33.1.1.
zī'+ "not know": nàm zī' \(n+\) perfective "never have X-ed"
\(\dot{M}\) nám zī'_ \(\quad{ }_{\sim}{ }_{\sim} y \bar{\varepsilon}\) gbīgımne \({ }^{+} \varnothing\).
1SG still Neg.know ser see lion:sg neg.
"I've never seen a lion." SB
\(\mathbf{z a ̀ m}^{\boldsymbol{\varepsilon}}\) and \(\boldsymbol{n} \overline{\boldsymbol{\Sigma}} \boldsymbol{k}^{\boldsymbol{\varepsilon} / ~ " p i c k ~ u p, ~ t a k e " ~ w i t h ~ o b j e c t ~ " u s i n g " ~(o f ~ a ~ l i t e r a l ~ o b j e c t ~ a s ~ i n s t r u m e n t) ~}\)

M̀ nók sú'vgò \(\varnothing\) kiá nīm lā.
1sG pick.up knife:sg ser cut meat:SG ART.
"I cut the meat with a knife."

M̀ zání m̀ nú'ugù ø sī's dāká lā.
1sG pick.up 1sG hand:sg ser touch box:sg art.
"I touched the box with my hand."

Not ??M zání m̀ nú'ùg kà sī's dāká lā.
1sG pick.up 1sg hand:sg and touch box:SG ART.
( "I picked up my hand and touched the box.")
\(\boldsymbol{m} \overline{\boldsymbol{\Sigma}} \boldsymbol{r}^{\mathbf{a} /}\) "have" + object "bringing" with motion verbs:

Day:PL num:seven and 2sG have 3AN.ob ser come hither.
"Bring her here in a week." WK
d̄̄ıla/ "accompany in subordinate rôle, attend"

Bà dj̀ll•ō_ Ø_ Ø k \(\bar{\eta}\) Bók.
3PL follow 3AN.OB SER go Bawku.
"They went to Bawku with him."

Beginning verbs naturally precede:
Ka Pita pin'ili pa'ali ba
Kà Pita pīñ́il_ø pá'alì_bā.
And Peter begin ser teach 3pl.ob.
"Peter began to tell them." (Acts 11:4)

Tì dénì ø tís•ò_ø lór.
1PL precede ser give zan.ob car.
"We previously gave him a car." (dè \(\eta^{\varepsilon}\) "do/go first")

Ka dau sכ' duoe zi'en la'asug la suvgin ...
Kà dàu-sכ̄' dūe_ø zí'èn là'asug lā súvgū-n ...
And man-indf.an rise ser 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:

M̀ kénìø pīə nú'ùs. "I went and washed my hands."
1SG go SER wash hand:PL.
\(\boldsymbol{s u}^{\prime} \mathbf{a}^{\mathbf{a}}\) "conceal" is used in this construction for "secretly":

Ka Na'ab Herod su'a buol banidib la ...
Kà Nà'ab Herod sú'ā_ ø búèl bāpıdıb lā...
And king:sg Herod conceal ser ask understander:PL ART...
"Herod secretly called for the wise men ..." (Mt 2:7)


Ka m nyan dunia. \(\quad\) I have overcome the world." (Jn 16:33)
Kà m̀ ñ nāa dūnıya.
And isG overcome world:sg.

As a Serial-VP auxiliary it means "carry out successfully, prevail in":

M pū nyāŋı \(\varnothing\) záb nà'ab láa \({ }^{+} \varnothing\).
1SG Neg.ind prevail ser fight chief:sg art neg.
"I wasn't able to fight the chief."

Unlike English "can", nyāan \({ }^{\varepsilon /}\) expresses events and not states. Thus, to express present ability or inability, the auxiliary is in the Irrealis Mood:

M kú nyā̄ŋ』 \(\varnothing\) záb nà'ab láa \({ }^{+} \varnothing\).
lsG neg.IRR prevail ser fight chief:sg art neg.
"I can't fight the chief." ("I won't succeed in fighting the chief.")

If the main verb is Imperfective the auxiliary is imperfective too:
wad line nyayedin ketin ka nidib voen,
wād-línì nyānídī-n_ ø k \(\bar{\varepsilon} t i ́-n \quad k a ̀ ~ n i ̄ d ı b ~ v o ̄ v-n ~\)
law-rel.inan prevail:DIPF-REM SER cause:dIPF-REM and person:PL be.alive-rem.
"a law which could make people live." (Gal 3:21, 1996)
tūn'e means "be able"; it almost always occurs as an auxiliary. A rare example of independent use appears in:
ba daa tis ka li zemisi ba papi na tun'e si'em
bà dāatís kà lì zēmísì bà pànı ø nà tūñ'e sỉəm
3PL tns give and zinan become.equal 3pl strength comp irr be.able indf.adv
"They gave as much as their strength would permit" (2 Cor 8:3)

I have no examples of the LF, but there are no Dynamic Imperfective forms in \(-d^{a}\) and tūn'e occurs before both Perfective and Imperfective main verbs. The verb is thus Invariable. Unlike ñyāg \({ }^{\varepsilon /}\), tūñ \({ }^{\prime}\) 'e expresses a state, and both Indicative and Irrealis Moods can express present ability or inability.
ka li ku tun'e su'a.
kà lì kú tūñ̃'e_ \(\varnothing\) sư'āa \({ }^{+} \varnothing\).
and binan neg.irr be.able ser hide neg.
"which cannot be hidden" (Mt 5:14)

So' kae' na tun'e dol na'anam ayii.
Sכ̄' kā'e_ \(\varnothing\) ná tūñ'e_ \(\varnothing\) d̄̄l ná'-nàmá_ àyíi \({ }^{+} \varnothing\).

\section*{ind.an neg.be ser irr be.able ser follow king-pl num:two neg.}
"Nobody can serve two kings." (Mt 6:24, 1976)

Fo tun'e nyzt si'ela?
Fù túñ'e_ \(\varnothing\) nyz̄t sí'əlàa \({ }^{+} \varnothing\) ?
2sG be.able ser see:dipf INDF.INAN PQ?
"Can you see anything?" (Mk 8:23)

O po tun'e pian'ada.
Ò pū tūñ̃'e_ \(\varnothing\) piāñn'adá \({ }^{+} \varnothing\).
3AN NEG.IND be.able ser speak:DIPF neg.
"He could not speak." (Lk 1:22)
Tūn'e occurs as auxiliary to nnyān \({ }^{\varepsilon /}\) used as a main verb in
bozugo ba ku tun'e nyane ba mena.

because 3pl neg.irr be.able ser control bpl self neg.
"because they cannot control themselves." (1 Cor 7:5, 1996)

\subsection*{26.3.2 Following the Main VP}
\(\boldsymbol{t}_{\mathbf{i}} \boldsymbol{s}^{\varepsilon}\) "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 ser give person-smooth:sg neg but 2sg lie
\(n\) tís nē Wínà'am Sí-sùn..
ser 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)
\(\dot{M}\) dāa kúès bùnu_ \(\varnothing\) tís dư'átà.
1sg tns sell donkey:sg ser give doctor:sg.
"I sold a donkey to the doctor."

Not *M̀ dāa kúès bòn kà tís dư'átà.
1SG tNs sell donkey:sg and give doctor:sg.
("I sold a donkey and gave it to the doctor.")
\(\boldsymbol{g} \mathbf{a d a d}^{\varepsilon}\) "pass, surpass" can be used in comparisons:

Isaac kárìm_ ø gát John.
Isaac read:DIPF SER pass:DIPF John.
"Isaac reads better than John." SB
À-Wīn gím \(\varnothing\) gát À-Būgur.
PERS-Awini be.short SER pass:DIPF PERS-Abugri.
"Awini is shorter than Abugri." SB

Fu sid מכמ mam gat bamaa?
Fù síd nכ̀ mām_ø gát bámmáa \({ }^{+} \varnothing\) ?
\(\mathbf{2 S G}\) truly love 1sG SER pass:DIPF DEM.DeI.PL PQ?
"Do you really love me more than these?" (Jn 21:15)
gàlıs \(\boldsymbol{s}^{\varepsilon}\) "get to be too much" (as in Sāa gálìs yā "There's too much rain") is used intransitively for "too much":
Ò dì \(n\) gálìs.
"She's eaten too much."
3AN eat ser exceed.

Dā kárìm gbánà ø gálısidā +ø.
NEG.IMP read:DIPF book:PL SER exceed:DIPF NEG.
"Don't read books too much."
\(\boldsymbol{b a}^{\boldsymbol{\varepsilon}}{ }^{\varepsilon}\) "send/go away" is used for "away, off, out":

Bà yìis dāu lā_ø bás. "They threw the man out."
3PL expel man:sG ART SER throw.out.

Anכ'on nwaa yisid nidib tovmbع'عdi basida?

Who SER this SER expel:DIPF person:PL deed-bad:PL SER throw.out:DIPF ca?
"Who is this who drives people's sins out?" (Lk 7:49)

Ending verbs naturally follow the main VP:
Ò dìl ø nāe.
"He's finished eating."

3AN eat ser finish.

Ò dìఒ \(\varnothing\) tíg. \(\quad\) "She's eaten to satiety."
3AN eat ser become.satiated.

Motion verbs occur here with meanings like local prepositions e.g.

Ò kàt kíkīr-bé'घ̀d-nàm \(n\) yīisíd nīdıb.
3AN drive:DIPF fairy-bad-PL SER expel:DIPF person:PL.
"He drives evil spirits out of people."

Jesus ban'ad bun \(n\) kpen'ed Jerusalem
Jesus_ø bāñ'ad bún \(n\) kpéñ'غ̀d Jerusalem
Jesus comp ride:DIPF donkey:sG SER enter:DIPF Jerusalem
"Jesus riding a donkey into Jerusalem" (picture caption, NT 1976)

Ènrıgım_ ø páa_m.
Shift.along:IMP SER reach 1sg.ob.
"Shift along up to me." (pāe+/ "reach")
\(\boldsymbol{w} \overline{\boldsymbol{\varepsilon}} \boldsymbol{n}^{\boldsymbol{n a} /}\) "be like": as a main verb it occurs as in e.g.

Ka o nindaa wenne nintan ne.
Kà ò nīn-dáa wह̄n n̄̄ nīntān n \(\bar{\varepsilon}\).
And 3AN 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)
\(W \bar{\varepsilon} n\) is very common in Serial VP constructions. The verb is followed by a prepositional phrase as complement, using either wōv "like" or \(n \bar{\varepsilon}\) "with" 21.1. Any object without the article \(l \bar{a}^{+/}\), even a pronoun or proper name, is followed by a meaningless \(n \bar{\varepsilon} . W \bar{\varepsilon} n\) is used before numbers and measurements for "about, approximately." Numbers as NP heads are not followed by the meaningless \(n \bar{\varepsilon}\) :

Li ane wov maila ayi' ne.
Lì à n \(\bar{\varepsilon}\) wōv maila àyí n \(n\).
binan 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 án wōv kóbıgā n̄ pīsí.
and 3PL number:sG cop like hundred with twenty
"and their number was about 120." (Acts 1:15)
\(W \bar{\varepsilon} n+\) complement sequences have been reanalysed as prepositional phrases to a considerable degree 21.3.
là'am \({ }^{\mathbf{m}}\) "together" is also found as a particle-verb 22.7.2. In là'am n \(\bar{\varepsilon}\) "together with" the expression has become a compound preposition 21.3. It appears as a main verb meaning "associate with":

Bà pū lá'amìd tāabaa \({ }^{+} \varnothing\).
3PL NEG.IND associate:DIPF each.other NEG.
"They don't associate together."
\(\boldsymbol{y}^{\boldsymbol{\prime}} \mathbf{a s}^{\boldsymbol{\varepsilon}}\) or \(\boldsymbol{y}^{\prime} \mathbf{a s}^{\mathbf{a}}\) "again" usually lacks \(n\) and has become effectively an adverb, preposable with kà 33.2. ILK glosses the word as "repeat", but I have no example of its use as a main verb.

Ya'as ka mos... "Again I looked ..." (Rev 5:11, 1976)
Yà'as kà m̀ gj̄s...
Again and isg look...

\subsection*{26.4 Serial VPs Introduced by hālí+}

Hālı́+ 21.2 can introduce Serial VPs in the sense "until":
...ka ken ia arakon' kane bodig la hale n ti nye o?
...kà k \(\varepsilon\) ŋ_ ø íá àdàkóñn'-kànı bj̀dıg lā
...and go ser seek num:one-rel.sg get.lost art
hālí \(n\) tì nyē.ó-o \({ }^{+} \varnothing\) ?
until SER afterwards see-3AN.OB CQ?
"... and go and look for the one which is lost until he finds it?" (Lk 15:4, 1996)

Ba da ditne, ka nuud, ka dit pu'ab, ka pu'ab kun sidib, hali ti paae dabiskan ka Noa kpen' anrupun la.
Bà dà dìt n̄̄, kà nūud, kà dít pō'ab, kà
3PL tNS eat:DIPF Foc, and drink:DIPF, and take:DIPF wife:PL, and
pō'ab kūn sīdıb, hālíl tí pāe dábìs-kàn wife:PL return.home:DIPF husband:PL until SER afterwards reach day-REL.SG kà Noa kpéñ ànropū-n lā. and Noah enter boat:sg-Loc ART.
"They were eating and drinking and marrying and being given in marriage up until Noah entered the boat."
(Lk 17:27, KB; the 1996 NT has ... kun sidib n ti paae ...)

Ka be mכogin hali ti paae saŋkane ka o yis o mey paalu ni Israel dim san'an.
Kà bé mכ̄כgo-n hālíq tì pāe sān-Kánì and exist grass:sg-Loc until ser afterwards reach time-rel.sg
kà ò yís ò mēŋ pāalú nì Israel dím sá'àn. and 3an emerge 3an self openly loc Israel individual.pl among.
"... and remained in the bush until the time when he showed himself openly to the Israelites." (Lk 1:80)

\section*{27 Clauses}

\subsection*{27.1 Structure}

Kusaal is strictly SVO; deviations not achieved by kà-preposing 33.2 always represent extraposition or dislocation 33.3. Indirect objects precede direct, and objects precede other complements.

Verb phrases can be concatenated by Serial VP constructions 26.
Except in certain special circumstances 27.1.1 all clauses require a subject NP.
Clause-level particles may occur at various points within the clause structure. These comprise clause-linker 27.1.2 and post-subject 27.1.4 particles along with Emphatics 33.6.

VP adjuncts may follow each VP. Clause-level adjuncts may follow the last VP; it is generally not possible to distinguish these formally from adjuncts of the last VP itself, unless the VP ends in a particle confined to VP-final position 33.3 27.2. Clauselevel adjuncts may also precede the subject, but only in Main or Content Clauses 28.1.1, and only if they express time or circumstance.

Main Clauses and Content Clauses have similar structures. Both display Independency Marking on the first Verbal Predicator 22.6, and have structural possibilities not permitted to clauses of any other type: they may contain Non-verbal Predicators \(\underline{25}\) or lack a predicator altogether 28.2.4, and they can show clefting or preposing with kà, or focus with \(n \bar{\varepsilon}^{+/} . N \bar{\varepsilon}^{+/}\)may follow a Verbal Predicator, precede a verb complement or adjunct, or appear clause-finally 33.1.2.

\subsection*{27.1.1 Subjects}

A VP subject must normally be present; Kusaal is not a pro-drop language, and requires, for example, dummy subject pronouns for impersonal constructions such as

Lì tùl. "It (weather) is hot."
zinan be.hot.

Lì àn sónā. "It's good."
3INAN COP good:ADv.
(Contrast Mooré yaa sõama, with no pronoun)

Lì nàr kà fù kūl. "It's necessary for you to go home."
3INAN must and 25G return.home.

The dummy pronoun is 3sg inanimate; animate ò is not found. The dummy subject 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 ȳ̄...
If neg.be-rem adv:thus, \(\mathbf{1 S g}\) then neg.irr say-rem 2PL.ob that...
"If it were not so, I would not have told you that ..." (Jn 14:2)

Omission of the 2 sg subject pronoun is required in direct commands, unless a presubject adjunct is present. In the contexts where the 2 sg pronoun is deleted, the 2 pl subject pronoun is transferred to follow the verb as an enclitic.

After clause linker kà "and" a pronoun repeating the subject of the previous clause is deleted 27.1.5.2 (though its tone-raising effect remains 8.3.)

Absence of subject pronouns in other cases is due to ellipsis 27.1.5; such structures are informal and are "corrected" by reinsertion of pronouns when informants' attention is drawn to them. This will therefore not be taken to invalidate the general principle that clauses require explicit subjects. Any L Raising induced by the ellipted pronoun 8.3 remains.
Náe yàa \({ }^{+} \varnothing\) ?
"[Have you] finished?"

Finish PFV PQ?

This is particularly common in greeting formulae like
```

    Gbís wह̄lá?
    "How did you sleep last night?"
for Fù sá gbìs wēlá ${ }^{+} \varnothing$ ?
2SG tns sleep how ca?

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Dúe wēlá?
literally "(You) arose how?"
for Fù dúe wēlá \({ }^{+}\)?
2SG arise how cQ?

\subsection*{27.1.2 Clause-linker Particles}

The Clause-linker particles kà "and" and \(y \bar{\varepsilon}\) "that" are placed before the subject (which may itself be ellipted after kà 27.1.5.2.) Conjunctions almost always precede any clause-linker particles 27.1.3. When other clausal elements precede kà before the subject, the construction is probably to be understood as kà-preposing instead 33.2. "Resumptive" \(y \bar{\varepsilon}\) in longer passages of indirect speech frequently precedes clause-linking kà 29.3.3, but otherwise the clause-linker particles are mutually exclusive; apparent exceptions always arise from ellipsis 27.1.5.1.

While \(y \bar{\varepsilon}\) is invariably subordinating, kà may be coordinating or subordinating.
The glosses "and" and "that" are inadequate; both particles are used in a variety of constructions with meanings that vary considerably.
kà introduces subordinate clauses of purpose or result ..... 29.1
subordinate clauses expressing a relative sense ..... \(\underline{29.2}\)
from which derives kà-preposing ..... \(\underline{33.2}\)
subordinate content clauses ..... 29.3
sequential clauses ..... 28.3.2
\(\boldsymbol{y} \bar{\varepsilon}\) introduces subordinate clauses of purpose or result ..... \(\underline{29.1}\)
subordinate content clauses ..... 29.3

The meaning is largely determined by the nature of the clauses; for example, purpose clauses contain Imperative Mood, and Content Clauses show main-clause type structural features. \(Y \bar{\varepsilon}\) has different tonal effects with a following bound subject pronoun depending on the construction 8.3.

\subsection*{27.1.3 Conjunctions}

No single group of words in Kusaal corresponds to English conjunctions. The particles kà "and" and \(y \bar{\varepsilon}\) "that" need to be treated separately 27.1.2. Some words translatable as English conjunctions are presubject adjuncts 28.1.1. The term "conjunction" will here be reserved for forms which either do not occur together with clause-linkers at all, or precede them, whereas presubject adjuncts follow. When there are no clause-linkers, conjunctions precede adjuncts. Thus
```

kūv
"or" (\leftarrow Hausa)
b\overline{\varepsilon}\varepsilon
"or"

```
never appear before or after kà, while
```

àmáa
hālí
às\varepsiloń\varepsilon
"but" (cf Arabic اما Pamma: "as for")
"until" (cf Arabic حتى \hbaratta:); preposition 21.2
"unless" (cf Hausa sai); preposition 21.2

```
occur overwhelmingly more often before kà than after it. The 1996 NT version has 92 examples of the order àmáa kà, 99 of hālı́ kà and 49 of àść kà; in the KB versions:

Ka sieba la' o. Amaa ka sieba yعl ye ...
Kà sīəba lá'•O_ø. Àmáa kà sīəba yह́l yह̄...
And indf.pl laugh zan.ob. But and indf.pl say that...
"Some laughed at him, but others said..." (Acts 17:32)
... zin'in anina hali ka Herod ti kpi.
... zíñ'ìn ànínā, hālí kà Herod tí kpi.
... sit adv: there, until and Herod afterwards die.
"...remaining there until Herod had died." (Mt 2:14)

Amaa baa yinne ku lu tenin kpii, asé ka li aan ya Ba' Wina'am bכગdim.
Àmáa báa yīnní kù lū tēŋı-n_ \(\quad\) kpií \({ }^{+} \varnothing\), àsर́ \(\varepsilon\) kà lì
But not.one neg.IRr fall ground:sg-Loc ser die neg, unless and zinan
áañ_yà Bā' Wínà'am bóvdìm.
cop 2PL father:sg God:sg will.
"But not one of them will fall to the ground and die, unless your Father God agrees to it." (Mt 10:29)

The 1996 NT has just one example each of the orders kà àmáa, kà hālí and kà àsćع. Thus

Ka na'ab la sunf sa'am, ka amaa on po saam tuon la zug ka o tis noor ye ba tisim bipup la on bood si'el.
Kà nà'ab lā sūñf sáñ'àm, kà àmáa ón pj̄ sáam
And king:sG ART heart:sG spoil, and but 3AN:COMP swear stranger:PL túèn lā zúg kà ò tís nכ̄כr yé bà tìsım bī-pún lā before ART upon and 3AN give command:sG that 3PL give:IMP child-girl:sG ART ón bj̀วd sỉəl.

\section*{3AN:COMP want INDF.INAN.}
"The king was sad, but because he had sworn in front of guests he commanded that they give the girl what she wanted." (Mt 14:9, 1996: KB amaa on po)

Conjunctions also precede \(y \bar{\varepsilon}\) (both as linker and "resumptive" \(y \bar{\varepsilon}\) 29.3.3):

Wina'am daa pu gani ti ye ti tum dian'ad tovma, amaa ye ti be nyain.
Wínà'am dāa pū gāní_ tī yर́ tì tóm dīā'ad tóvmà \({ }^{+} \varnothing\),
God tns neg.ind choose 1pl.ob that 1PL work dirt work neg, àmáa ý́ tì bé ñㅁāe.
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)

Adjuncts appear after clause-linking kà; any following kà is not clause-linking but kà-preposing 33.2. Time and circumstance adjuncts are not often kà-preposed.

For example, a rough count of the text of the 1996 NT shows with nannanna nānná-nā+/ "now" and lin a si'em la lín à sỉəm lā "as things stand":
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|c|}
\hline & \(\underline{\mathrm{X} \text { alone }}\) & kà X & X kà \\
\hline nānná－nā＋／ & 33 & 28 & 4 \\
\hline lín à sỉəəm lā & 4 & 6 & 0 \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

Similarly sān－sí＇ə̄n lā＂at one time，once ．．．＂is a presubject AdvP：
saŋsi＇en la ya da ka＇yinni ne Kiristo
sān－sí＇亏̄－n lā，yà dà kā＇yīnnín n Kiristo
time－indf．in－loc art 2pl tns neg．be one with Christ
＂at one time you were not one with Christ．＂（Eph 2：12，1996）

Ka saysi＇en la tinam mey da ane zon
Kà sān－sí＇亏̄－n lā tīnám mēŋ dá à n̄̄ zכ̄n．
And time－IndF．INAN－LOC ART IPL．CNTR self tns COP FOC fool：PL
＂and once we ourselves were fools＂（Titus 3：3，1996）

Constructions based on zùḡ̄（see 8．1．1），like dìn zúgj̄＂therefore＂bj̄ zúgכ̄ ＂because＂are conjunctions like \(k \bar{\nu} \cup / b \bar{\varepsilon} \varepsilon\)＂or＂which do not usually occur with clause linkers at all．\(B \bar{\jmath}\) zúḡ̄，though stigmatised as an Anglicism in ILK，is in fact freely used in the NT／KB for＂because．＂

Police gbán＇a＿m bj̄ zúgó m̀ ñ～nwé dāu lā．
Police seize 1sg．ob because \(\mathbf{1 s g}\) hit man：sg art．
＂The police arrested me because I hit the man．＂（ILK）

However，the corresponding types with Apocope，like àlá zùg＂therefore＂dìn zúg＂therefore＂，can be used either as \(k \bar{v} ט / b \bar{\varepsilon} \varepsilon\)－type conjunctions or as AdvPs；in the latter case，if they precede the subject they must be kà－preposed because they do not express time or circumstance 20．1．This results in a characteristic pattern：all combinations with kà occur except kà X（1996 NT again）：
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|c|c|}
\hline & X alone & kà X & \(\underline{X}\) kà & kà X kà \\
\hline dìn zúgう & 208 & 2 & 0 & 0 \\
\hline dìn zúg & 39 & 2 & 69 & 17 \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

Unlike the NT，WK also treats nānná－nā＋／＂now＂in this way，accepting

Nānná－ná ì á n̄̄ ná＇àb．＂Now I am a chief．＂
Now－hither 1sG cop foc chief：sg．

Nānná-ná kà m̀ áñ ná'àb. "Now I am a chief."
Now-hither and 15G cop chief:sg.

Kà nānná-ná kà m̀ án ná'àb. "And now I am a chief."
And now-hither and 15G cop chief:sg.
but rejecting
*Kà nānná-ná m̀ án ná'àb
*Kà nānná-ná m̀ á nē ná'àb.
"And now I am a chief."

Conjunctions have no effect on clause structure or on the occurrence of tense marking in narrative 28.3.2. A subordinating conjunction would therefore have to be regarded as preceding a Content Clause 29.3. Usually the meaning is not consistent with subordination and the issue does not arise; sometimes, although the English translation suggests subordination, the Kusaal construction is shown to be otherwise by the position of the Negative Prosodic Clitic. Thus with àsće "unless":

O kv kpii, asec o ti nye Zugsวb Kristo la.
Ò kù kpïi \({ }^{+} \varnothing\), àsé ò tì nyè Zūg-sว́b Kristo lā.
ban neg.irr die neg, unless 3an afterwards see head-one:sg Christ art.
"He will not die, without seeing the Lord's Christ." (Lk 2:26)

However, the preposition wōv "like" 21.1 may introduce formally subordinate clauses with Content/Main Clause features like focus-n \(\bar{\varepsilon}^{+/}\):
ka tuumbe'ed ku len so'e ti wuu ti aa li yamugo.

and work-bad:PL neg.IRR again own 1pl.ob like 1pl cop zinan 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.
\(\grave{M}\) piáñ'adī_ø tísidī yá wōv yà á né m̀ bīis nē.
1SG Speak:DIPF SER give:DIPF 2PL.OB like 2PL COP FOC 1SG child:PL like.
"I talk to you as if you were my children." (2 Cor 6:13)

Hālí "until" and àséع "unless, except for" 21.2 occur both as conjunctions and as prepositions, suggesting that these categories could be merged. \(N \bar{\varepsilon}\) appears both as \(n \bar{\varepsilon}\) "with" and as "and" coordinating NPs 19.4, but cannot link clauses which have not first been nominalised; however, conjunctions are in any case a separate category from clause linker particles like kà "and."

\subsection*{27.1.4 Post-Subject Particles}

Several particles marking subordinate clause types follow the subject, including yà' "if" ... nāan "then" 30.1 30.1.2 and the complementiser ǹ 31; sādıgím "since" follows \(\grave{n}\) 31.1.1. Other particles found in this slot are
sìd "truly"

Ò sid à \(n \bar{\varepsilon}\) zz̄lug. \(\quad\) "He really is a fool."
3AN truly cop foc fool:sg.
Ò sìd dāa á nē ná'àb. "Truly, he was a chief." WK
3AN truly tns cop foc chief:sg.
\(\boldsymbol{k} \bar{l} / \iota \boldsymbol{m}\) or \(\boldsymbol{k} \overline{\boldsymbol{u}} \boldsymbol{\iota} \iota \boldsymbol{m}\) "always" ( \(\leftarrow\) Hausa) seems only to be found with negatives:

Ka so' kudin ku len nyee li ya'asa.

And indf.an ever neg.irr again see zinan.ob again neg.
"Nobody will ever see it again." (Rev 18:21, 1996)
nyāan or nāan 30.1.2 "next, afterwards"

Ka Yesu tans ne kukJtita'ar ka nyaan kpi.
Kà Yesu táñs n̄̄ kúkj̄-títā'ar kà ñ̃āan 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", like yà', is followed by Indicative Mood with future meaning:

Ya yinni pa'a ti bu'osi \(m\) ye ...
Yà yīnní pá' tì bū'esí_m ȳ̄...
2PL one perhaps ask 1sG.OB that...
"One of you will perhaps ask me ..." (Rom 9:19, 1976)
\(\boldsymbol{y} \mathbf{v}\) 'טn "then, next"

Manoa yo'on da baŋ ye o ane Zugsכb maliak.
Manoa yō'un dá bàn yé ò à n̄ 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*{27.1.5 Ellipsis}

Ellipsis is a spectrum. Informal ellipsis may be constantly used by speakers but is liable to be declared incorrect if their attention is drawn to it; it does not affect the meaning of the clause in which it occurs. More systematic ellipsis often implies anaphora or a similar repetition of preceding material. In yet more formalised cases the ellipted type has become an autonomous construction with its own meaning.

Bound words, by definition, can never be left standing alone after ellipsis of the word to which they are bound but must be ellipted along with it; however, many types of bound particle or pronoun are themselves subject to ellipsis.

Cases where I invoke ellipsis as a descriptive and explanatory device are with yes/no questions ending in kúv or béع 28.2.2; indirect commands 29.1 29.3.1; ellipsis of complements of verbs 23.1; kà-preposing and \(n\)-focus 33.1.1 33.2; hālí as intensifier 21.2; ambiguity with coordinated modifiers and determiners in the NP and cases where a pre-modifier applies to a coordinated head 19.4; and omission of aspect-marking \(n \bar{\varepsilon}\) in replies to questions \(\underline{\text { 33.1.2.3. }}\). Implicit tense marking 22.3.3 could also reasonably be classified as a form of ellipsis.

\subsection*{27.1.5.1 Coordination and Ellipsis}

Ellipsis is involved in many cases of coordination within NPs 19.4.
Ellipsis of repeated elements in clause coordination is common, e.g.
\[
\begin{aligned}
& \text { Dāu lā nyé bī-díbìn kūu bī-púnàa + } \varnothing \text { ? } \\
& \text { Man:sG ART see child-boy:sG or child-girl:sG PQ? } \\
& \text { "Did the man see a boy or a girl?" }
\end{aligned}
\]

The surface form \(k a ̀ y \bar{\varepsilon}\) "but in order that ..." is always the result of ellipsis; the two particles cannot co-occur in a clause, unless the \(y \bar{\varepsilon}\) is "resumptive" 29.3.3, in which case it precedes the \(k a ̀\). Thus in the sequence \(k a ̀ ~ y \bar{\varepsilon}\), a clause must have been ellipted between the two particles:
\[
\text { M̀ pō tísì_f gbáung lā yé fù kúөsì_líl }{ }^{+} \varnothing \text {, }
\]

1SG Neg.ind give 2SG.ob book:SG ART that 2SG sell uinan.ob neg,
kà yé fù kárìm.
and that \(2 \mathbf{2 s G}\) read.
"I didn't give you the book so you'd sell it, but [I gave it] so you'd read it."

\subsection*{27.1.5.2 Null Anaphora of Subjects}

For null anaphora of VP complements see 23.1.
Clause subjects are required to be explicitly present, with cross-linguistically common exceptions like the subjects of direct commands 27.1.1. Dummy subject pronouns (always 3sg inanimate) are required in impersonal constructions like

\section*{Lì tòl.}

Lì à sónā.
Lì nàr kà fò kūl.
"It (weather) is hot."
"It's good."
"It's necessary for you to go home."

However, subject pronouns are regularly deleted after the clause linker particle kà when they would have the same reference as the subject of the preceding clause. The L Raising that would follow the pronoun remains 8.3. Pronouns after kà introducing a Content Clause are not subject to this 29.3, and Supplement Clauses 29.2 usually have different subjects from the main clause, so this is characteristic of Sequential Clauses 28.3.2. It can occur with a kà-purpose clause too 29.1:
\(M\) na nip wala ka nye faangire?
\(\dot{M}\) ná nīŋ wēlá kà nỹ̄ fāañgírè \({ }^{+} \varnothing\) ?
1SG IRR do how and find salvation ca?
"What must I do to get saved?" (Acts 16:30)

A non-deleted subject pronoun after kà thus usually signals a change of subject. A conversation may be reported simply by Kà ò ý́l ... kà ò yél ... with each ò marking a switch of speaker.

Kusaal is strict in requiring a pronoun to refer to the last grammatically possible antecedent; with the collapse of gender agreement 15.1 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."
*Pư'ā lā dá' dāká kà ò k \(\quad\) ŋ Bók.
Woman:sg ART buy box:sg and 3AN go Bawku.
("The woman bought a box and it went to Bawku")
Pư'āb lā dá' dāká kà kēŋBók.
Woman:PL ARt buy box:sG and go Bawku.
"The women bought a box and went to Bawku."

Pư'āb lā dá' dāká kà bà k \(\bar{\eta} \eta B \partial ́ k\).
Woman:PL ART buy box:sg and 3pL go Bawku.
"The women bought a box and they went to Bawku."
(acceptable but unusual with bà \(=p \bar{v}^{\prime} a b\) )
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 daa yit la, ka nye dau ...
Bán dāa yīt lā, kà ny \(\bar{\varepsilon} \bar{\varepsilon}\) dāu ...
3PL:COMP TNS emerge:DIPF ART, and see man:SG...
"As they were going together, (they) saw a man ..." (Mt 27:32)

Ban wom ne'عクa la ka sin.
Bán wòm nē'ná lá kà sīn.
3PL:COMP hear dem.del.inan art and be.silent.
"After they heard this they fell silent." (Acts 11:18)

\subsection*{27.2 Downranking, Insubordination and Independency Marking}

Clauses are either main or subordinate. The clearest criterion for subordination is whether a clause precedes or follows a Negative Prosodic Clitic induced by a negative Verbal Predicator in the preceding clause. Although placement before the Negative Clitic necessarily implies that a clause is subordinate, the converse is not always true: in the case of constructions which by default involve negative raising, if the subordinate clause is, exceptionally, outside the scope of the negation semantically, the Negative Clitic placement is also exceptional and precedes the subordinate clause 32.2 32.3; such cases are marginal, however.

Subordinate Clauses can be divided formally into those marked by a postsubject particle and those preceded by a clause-linker particle. (On the question of subordination with Conjunctions see 27.1.3.) The post-subject-particle types, yà'clauses \(\underline{30}\) and \(\grave{n}\)-Clauses \(\underline{31}\) are AdvPs or NPs and there is no ambiguity regarding their embedded character. All lack Independency Marking 22.6.1.1.

Subordinate clauses may also be introduced by \(y \bar{\varepsilon}\) "that" or kà "and, that." Both particles introduce subordinate clauses of several kinds which appear last within their main clauses, just before any Negative Prosodic Clitic 32.3, as verb phrase complements or clause adjuncts. Particular verbs may prefer or require a complement clause with one or the other particle, and Supplement Clauses always use kà, but elsewhere the two particles are often equivalent.

Among subordinate clauses introduced by \(y \bar{\varepsilon}\) or kà there is a basic distinction between, on the one hand, Purpose and Supplement Clauses which lack Independency Marking, focus, clefting, kà-preposing and independent tense marking, and on the other hand Content Clauses which show both Independency Marking and a full range of possible structures: Main Clauses in terms of formal internal structure, they function as subordinate clauses by Downranking.

Purpose Clauses 29.1 thus lack Independency Marking, clefting and kàpreposing, and they show tense marking only if the main clause itself is ellipted:

Ò sáa zàb nà'ab lā. "He should fight the chief tomorrow."
3AN tns fight chief:SG ART.

Their Verbal Predicators have Imperative Mood:
\(\grave{M}\) pū bój̀d ý́ fù k \(\bar{\varepsilon} \eta\) Bók \(\overline{\mathfrak{v}}{ }^{+} \varnothing\).
1sg neg.ind want that 2sg go Bawku neg.
"I don't want you to go to Bawku."

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

Complement Clauses 29.2 show similar structural limitations; they have Verbal Predicators with Indicative or Irrealis Mood, and have quasi-relative meaning:
\(\grave{M}\) dāa pō ny \(y \bar{\varepsilon}\) dāu lá kà ò án ná'abā \({ }^{+} \varnothing\).
1SG tns neg.ind see man:sg art and ban cop chief:sg neg.
"I didn't see the man as a chief."

Content Clauses 29.3 have the full range of structural possibilities of Main Clauses. They functions as arguments of verbs of cognition, reporting, and perception; like Purpose and Complement Clauses, they are always subordinate:
```

M po y\varepsilonl ye nככr ауวрэi ma'aan\varepsilon\varepsilon.
M pō y\varepsilońl y\overline{\varepsilon} nכ̄כr ày\partiaĺpj̀e má'an\overline{e +\varnothing.}
1SG NEG.IND say that occasion:SG Num:seven only NEG.
"I don't say, only seven times." (Mt 18:22)

```

Bòn-bāñ'ad zī' yē tēŋ túllā \({ }^{+} \varnothing\).
Donkey-rider:sG neg.know that ground:sg be.hot neg.
"The donkey-rider doesn't know the ground is hot."

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)

The linker kà, despite the label "and" which I have adopted for it consistently in the glossing, like \(y \bar{\varepsilon}\) very often introduces subordinate Purpose and Content Clauses :
ka pu nar ka ba buolim ye Tumtumma
kà pū nár kà bà búelì \(m\) y \(\bar{\varepsilon}\) Túm-tūmma \({ }^{+} \varnothing\).
and neg.ind must and 3PL call \(\mathbf{1 S G . O B}\) that work-worker:sg neg.
"and ought not to be called an apostle" (1 Cor 15:9)

M̀ tén'ès kà nïigí lā ón
1SG think and cow:PL ART chew:DIPF Foc.
"I think the cows are eating." WK

Kà also introduces clauses which are not subordinate either by the criterion of Negative Prosodic Clitic placement or in lacking main-clause structural features. This use of kà to coordinate semantically and structurally independent clauses is especially characteristic of narrative 28.3.2, where potentially long series of Sequential Clauses 28.3.2 are each introduced by kà so long as the sequence of events is proceding in order. So, for example

Apuzotyel da ane o saam biig ma'aa. Ka daar yinni ka biig la ne o saam zin'i sonsid. Ka biig la ti yel o saam ye ...
À-Pū-zót-ȳ̄l dá à né ò sàam bîg mà'aa.
PERS-NEG.IND-fear:DIPF-thing:SG tNS COP FOC 3AN father:SG child:sG only.
Kà dāar yīnní kà bīig lā né ò sàam zíñ'íø sj̄ñ̃sıd. And day:sG one and child:sG ART with 3AN father:sG sit ser converse:dIPF. Kà bīig lā tí yह̀l ò sàam y \(\quad\)...
And child:SG ART afterwards say 3AN father:sG that...
"Fears-nothing was his father's only son. [And] one day the son and father were sitting talking. [And] then the son said to his father ..." KSS p35
where the second kà is preposing the time expression dāar yīnní "one day", where kàpreposing is a structural feature not found in subordinate clauses 33.2 .

\section*{All clauses introduced by kà other than Content Clauses lack}

Independency Marking on the Verbal Predicator, including Sequential Clauses.
Historically, kà was perhaps always subordinating (compare \(n \bar{\varepsilon}\) "and" connecting NPs, which is essentially the same word as the preposition \(n \bar{\varepsilon}\) "with" 19.4.) This promotion of subordinate clauses to main-clause function is Insubordination, defined in Evans 2009 as "the conventionalised main-clause use of what, on prima facie grounds, appear to be formally subordinate clauses."

The criterion of Negative Prosodic Clitic placement breaks down in cases where a subordinate clause has to be excluded from the scope of a negation in the main clause, which can give a spurious appearance of insubordination 32.3:

Ka li pu yuuge ka o pu'a me kena.
Kà lì pū yúug \(\bar{\varepsilon}^{+} \varnothing\), kà ò pư'ā mé \(k \bar{\varepsilon}\) nā.
And zinan neg.ind delay neg, and zan wife:sg also come hither.
"Not much later, his wife came too." (Acts 5:7)

However, in examples like
\[
\text { Ò vòl tílm kà ò nóbòr pū záb } \overline{+}+\varnothing .
\]

3an swallow medicine and 3an leg:sg neg.ind fight neg.
"She drank medicine and her leg didn't hurt." ( \(p \bar{u}\) negative Indicative)
it is not possible to make the first Verbal Predicator negative without the corresponding Negative Clitic appearing before the kà. Accordingly, the construction is simply a mini-narrative and the second clause is Sequential. In
```

Amaa Wina'am keya ka ya an nככr yinne n\varepsilon Yesu Kristo.
Amáa Wínà'am k\varepsiloń yá kà yà án~ nכ̄כr yīnní n\overline{\varepsilon 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)

```
the phrase-final perfective marker yā 22.6.2.1 appears before a subordinate kà-clause after \(k \bar{\varepsilon}^{+}\)"cause" 29.1, but this represents extraposition \(\underline{33.3}\) of a subordinate clause from the VP to clause-adjunct position, not coordination. Clauses of the type introduced by linker particles are themselves coordinated with kà "and" kūv/b̄̄є "or", not \(n \bar{\varepsilon}\) like \(\grave{n}\)-Clauses:
\(\grave{M}\) bój̀d ȳ̄ dāu lā k \(\bar{\eta}\) dá'ā-n, kà pữ'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*{28 Main Clauses}

\subsection*{28.1 Structure}

Main clauses show numerous structural possibilities which are not found in subordinate clauses other than Content Clauses, which are structurally identical, and regarded as downranked main clauses 29.3. Both clause types display characteristic Independency Marking on the first Verbal Predicator 22.6. They may contain Nonverbal Predicators \(\underline{25}\) or even lack a predicator altogether 28.2.4. They can be focussed or clefted or prepose elements with kà; Focus-n \(\bar{\varepsilon}^{+/}\)occurs at most once in a main or content clause, following a Verbal Predicator, before a verb complement or adjunct, or clause-finally \(\underline{33}\). Main and Content Clauses may contain time, circumstance or reason-why adjuncts before the subject.

\subsection*{28.1.1 Clause-Level Adjuncts Preceding the Subject}

Main Clauses and Content Clauses with a verbal predicate may contain adjuncts which precede the subject and follow any clause linker particle. Such adjuncts may only express time, circumstance or reason, not place or manner. AdvPs expressing place or manner can only be placed before the subject by preposing with kà 33.2. Thus the AdvP may precede the subject in e.g.

Bēogú fò ná kūl.
Tomorrow 2SG IRR return.home.
"You're going home tomorrow." SB
but not in

> *Mכ̄دgú-n mām bé. for "I'm in the bush."
> Grass:SG-LOC 1SG.CNTR EXIST.
which is corrected by WK to

> Mכ̄دgú-n kà mām bé. "I'm in the bush."
> Grass:SG-LOc and 1sG.cNTR ExISt.

Permissible pre-subject adjunct types may be any AdvPs or clauses expressing time, circumstances, or reason, such as Absolute Clauses, sādıgím-clauses 31.1.1, AdvPs like àlá zùg, dìn zúg "therefore"; lì nyá'ana "afterwards", yà'-clauses "if/when ...", hālı́ + ǹ-Clause "although ...", "even though ... ", yā'a + NP "as for ...", lín à \(s i ̉ ə m\) lā "as things stand", àsīda "truly."

Some AdvPs of this kind, like Absolute Clauses, lì ñyá'an ả or dìn zúg may also occur preposed with kà; others, like yà'-clauses or sādıgím-clauses, may not. Pre-subject adjuncts are not followed by L Raising 8.3.

\subsection*{28.2 Clause Types}

Main Clauses, along with the structurally similar Content Clauses, can be classified into declarative, interrogative and imperative types. Declarative main clauses are the unmarked default. Interrogatives comprise Content and Polar question types, and the Imperative type are commands. There are also minor clause types with Non-verbal Predicators or no predicator at all.

\subsection*{28.2.1 Content Questions}

Content questions (except for lìa 25) contain an interrogative pronoun or determiner; the final word of the question appears as a LF with a tone perturbation due to the final Interrogative Prosodic Clitic 8.1.

There is no special interrogative word order; however if the interrogative word is the subject (or part of the subject NP) it is always \(n\)-focussed 33.1 .1 when syntactically possible, and other interrogatives are very often also fronted with kà 33.2, obligatorily so in the case of bj in the sense "why?" (compare the parallel construction with a demonstrative pronoun expressing a reason in Dìn kà Kūsáàs \(y \bar{\varepsilon} . .\). "That is why the Kusaasi say ..." KSS p16.)

> Ànó'כnì ø nyē bíigà \(\quad\) \(\varnothing\) ?
> Who ser see child:sG cQ?
> "Who has seen a child?"

Fò bój̀ bó \({ }^{+}\)? ?What do you want?"
2SG want what ca?

Bó kà fù kúmmà + ? "Why are you crying?"
What and 2sG weep:DIPF cQ?

For "which?" the short demonstratives are used:
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|}
\hline Linを? & & "Which one?" \\
\hline Nīf-kánc̀? & & "Which eye?" \\
\hline Nīn-kánغ̀? & & "Which person?" \\
\hline Fò bj́j̀d línè & \({ }^{+}\)? & "Which do you want?" \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

2SG want Dem.INAN CQ?

Note the short final LF vowels 8.1; these are content, not polar, questions. Used after a cb, as a dependent pronoun, \(b \bar{j}^{+}\)is a determiner: "what?":
```

nā'-bó "what cow?" WK DK
(not náaf bó,
only possible in the sense "What, of a cow's?")
bò-bj
dā-bう́ "what beer?"
"what goat?"

```

Bj̀- can be used as a pre-modifier, querying a description: "what sort of ...?"

Fò tóm bj́-tòvma \({ }^{+}\)?
2SG work:DIPF what-work cQ?
"What kind of work do you do?"

Bo yir ka ya na me' n tis mane?
Bj̀-yír kà yà ná m̄ \(n\) tís mánè \({ }^{+} \varnothing\) ?
What-house:sg and 2PL IRR build SER give 1SG.CNTR CQ?
"What kind of house will you build for me?" (Acts 7:49, 1996)

The compound bj̀-būudı+ "what kind of?" can be used as a post-determiner:
nā'-bó-būudı
dā-bó-būudı

Note the idiom:

Fò á nē bó- bùudı \({ }^{+} \varnothing\) ? "What tribe do you belong to?"
2SG COP FOC what sort cQ?
"what kind of cow?"
"what kind of beer?"

The focus particle \(n \bar{\varepsilon}^{+/}\)may not be used in content questions; this applies also to aspect-focus \(n \bar{\varepsilon}^{+/}\).

Dāu lā nứ biíg.
Man:sg ART see child:sg.

Ànó'כnì_ \(\varnothing\) ny \(\bar{\varepsilon}\) bíigà \(\quad+\varnothing\) ? "Who has seen a child?"
Who ser see child:sg cQ?

Man:SG ART see who cQ?
or Ànó'خ̀n kà dāu lā ny \(y\) र́ع \({ }^{+} \varnothing\) ?
Who and man:sg ART see cQ?
"Whom did the man see?"
```

Bà kòvd n\overline{\varepsilon}}\mathrm{ būus. "They're killing goats."
3PL kill:DIPF FOC goat:PL.

```

Ànó'วnì_ø kūטd búvsè \({ }^{+} \varnothing\) ?
Who ser kill:DIPF goat:PL CQ?
"Who is killing goats?" Progressive sense without n \(\bar{\varepsilon}\).

Ànó'j̀n bïigı ø nuwá \({ }^{+} \varnothing\) ? "Whose child is this?"
Who child:Sg SER this cQ?

Bó kà fù kúөsìda \({ }^{+}\)? ? What are you selling?"
What and 2sG sell:DIPF cQ? Progressive sense possible without \(n \bar{\varepsilon}\).

Fù bว́j̀d bó +ø? "What do you want?"
2SG want what cQ?

Fò bój̀ n̄ bó \({ }^{+} \varnothing\) ? "What do you want it with?"
2sG want with what ca? WK confirms that \(n \bar{\varepsilon}\) must be "with" here.
\(\grave{M}\) á n̄ dāu. \(\quad\) I am a man."
1SG COP FOC man:SG.
\(\dot{M}\) án bó + ? ? "What am I?"
1sG COP what cQ?

Fù wá'e yáa +ø? "Where are you going?"
2sG go where cQ?

Bùgóm lā yít yáa ní ná \({ }^{+} \varnothing\) ?
Fire ART emerge:DIPF where Loc hither ca?
"Where is the light coming from?"

\subsection*{28.2.2 Polar Questions}

Polar questions are of two types. One is exactly like a statement but with final LF and tone changes due to the Interrogative Prosodic Clitic; in this case the neutralisation of LF-final vowel length is to long 8.1. There are no restrictions on focus \(n \bar{\varepsilon}\). The answer expected is \(\bar{\varepsilon} \varepsilon \sim_{\sim}^{2}\) 28.2.4.
```

Dāun lā nyy\varepsiloń bíigàa + Ø? "Has the man seen a child?"
Man:SG ART see child:SG PQ?
Bà kùvd n\overline{\varepsilon} búvsè\varepsilon +\varnothing? "Are they killing goats?"
3PL kill:DIPF FOC goat:PL PQ?
M á n\overline{\varepsilon dáv̀v +\varnothing? "Am I a man?"}
1SG COP FOC man:SG PQ?
Fù pū wómmàa +\varnothing +\varnothing? "Don't you understand?"
2SG NEG.IND hear:DIPF NEG PQ? (expects \overline{\varepsilon}\varepsilonn, here "no")

```

Note that the Negative Prosodic Clitic neg is effectively lost before the Interrogative Prosodic Clitic cQ or PQ.

The second type of polar question follows the ordinary statement form with either bé (expecting disagreement, with áyìı) or kóv (expecting agreement, with \(\bar{\varepsilon} \varepsilon n \sim \sim\).) NT rarely uses \(k \bar{v} v\) in this way. These are evidently the words for "or", with ellipsis of the rest of a tag question "or isn't it?" etc; such constructions are common in local languages, and indeed "or?" is used like this in local English.
Dāu lā nyé bïig kúv \({ }^{+} \varnothing\) ?
Man:sg ARt see child:sg or PQ?
"Has the man seen a child?" (I expect so.)

Dāu lā nyغ́ bïig bé \({ }^{+} ø\) ?
Man:SG ART see child:sG or PQ?
"Has the man seen a child?" (I expect not.)

\section*{28．2．3 Commands}

For indirect commands，see 29.1 29．3．1．
In a direct command the subject is 2 nd person；in accordance with a cross－ linguistically common pattern，a singular pronoun is deleted，and a plural subject pronoun is placed immediately after the verb，in Kusaal assuming the Liaison enclitic form \({ }^{\text {ya }}\) ；for the realisation of ya see 8．2．1 and 8．2．1．2．Thus

Fò gós bïig lā．＂You（sg）have looked at the child．＂
2SG look．at child：SG ART．

Yà gós bïig lā．＂You（pl）have looked at the child．＂
2PL look．at child：sG ART．
but Gòsım bïig lā！＂Look（sg）at the child！＂
Look．at：IMP child：sG ART！

Gう̀sımī ø bīig lā！＂Look（pl）at the child！＂
Look．at：IMP 2PL．sUB child：SG ART！

Gう̀sım tēŋı－n！＂Look（sg）down！＂
Look：IMP ground：sG－Loc！

Gう̀sımī＿ø t̄̄ŋı－n！＂Look（pl）down！＂
Look：IMP 2PL．SUB ground：sG－Loc！

Dā ḡ̄s tēŋı－nદ́ \(\quad+\varnothing!~ " D o n ' t ~(s g) ~ l o o k ~ d o w n!" ~\)
neg．IMP look ground：sG－Loc neg！

neg．imp look 2PL．sub ground：sG－Loc neg！
＂Don＇t（pl）look down！＂

Dā gフ̄sع \({ }^{+} ø!\quad\)＂Don＇t（sg）look．＂
NEG．IMP look NEG！

Dā gj̄sı＿yá \(\quad\) Ø！＂Don＇t（pl）look．＂
neg．imp look 2PL．sub neg！

No pronoun changes occur after presubject elements，e．g yà＇－clauses 30．1：

Fo ya'a mor pu'a, fon da mכدd ye fo bas oo.
Fù yá' mōr pừ'ā, fūn dā mכ̄כd yé fù bás•ō-o +ø.
2SG if have wife:sG, 2SG Neg.Imp struggle:dIPF that 2SG abandon-3AN.OB NEG.
"If you have a wife, don't try to leave her." (1 Cor 7:27)

Nor do they occur in quoted direct commands within indirect speech 29.3.1, even when the addressee is the same as in the original utterance:

Ò yèl yé bà gว̀sım tēŋ८-n.
3AN say that 3PL look:IMP ground:sG-Loc.
"She said to them: Look down!" WK

Ò yદ̀l yદ́ fù gว̀sım t \(\bar{\eta} \eta \iota-n\).
3AN say that 2SG look:IMP ground:sG-Loc.
"She said to you sG: Look down!"

Ò yદ̀l yદ́ yà gว̀sım tēpı-n.
3AN say that 2PL look:IMP ground:sG-Loc.
"She said to you PL: Look down!"

However, some speakers do still keep the enclitic ya after the verb even when there is a pronoun subject before it:

Ò yદ̀l yદ́ bà gว̀sımī ø tēŋı-n.
3AN say that 3PL look:IMP 2PL.sUB ground:sG-Loc.
"He said to them: Look down!" WK

Similarly in a serial-verb construction, where WK treats ya as a pronoun and, consistently with this, does not repeat it:

Kèmī ø nā \(n\) gj̄s!
Come:Imp 2PL.sub hither ser look!
"Come (ye) and look!"
such speakers have

Kと̀mī ø nā \(n\) gj̄sı_ø!
Come:IMP 2PL.sub hither ser look 2PL.sub!
"Come (ye) and look!"

For these speakers \({ }^{\mathrm{ya}}\) is no longer a pronoun but an imperative plural marker.
Direct commands which consist only of a verb, or a verb with a following enclitic subject pronoun, occasionally end in a Long Form like that preceding a Negative Prosodic Clitic:
```

G\grave{sımā!}
"Look!"
Gj̀sımīyá!
"Look! (plural)

```

\subsection*{28.2.4 Clauses without Predicators}

Some particles and phrases occur characteristically as complete utterances:

Tう.
Báp.
N fá!
"OK." (= Hausa tôo)
"Wallop!"
"Well done!"

Some of these are onomatopoeic; others are widely shared among local languages. "Yes" is \(\bar{\varepsilon} \varepsilon n ; \sim\) "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 n\varepsiloń\varepsilon +\varnothing? "Is it finished?"
ZINAN finish FOC PQ?

```
\(\bar{\varepsilon} \varepsilon n\).
Áyìı.

Lì pū nāée \({ }^{+} \varnothing{ }^{+} \varnothing\) ? "Isn't it finished?"
binan neg.ind finish neg pQ?
"Yes."
"No"
\(\bar{\varepsilon} \varepsilon n ̃\).
Áyìı.
"No."
"Yes."

Vocative phrases usually either precede a main clause, or stand alone.
Vocatives may take the form of NPs followed by the Vocative Prosodic Clitic 8.1:
```

M bïiga +\varnothing! "My child!"
1SG child:sG voc!
M bïise + ø! "My children!"
1SG child:PL voc!

```

M pư'ā né m̀ bīise \({ }^{+} \varnothing\) !
1SG wife:sG with 1SG child:PL voc!
"My wife and my children!"
\(\dot{M}\) dìəmmā \({ }^{+} \varnothing\), bó kà fù kúөsìda \({ }^{+} \varnothing\) ?
1sG parent.in.law:sg voc, what and 2sg sell:DIPF cQ?
"Madam 35.1, what are you selling?"

Vocative phrases often end in ñ wà "this":
\begin{tabular}{llll} 
Bīis ñwá! & [bi:sa] & "Children!" & 8.5.1. \\
Pư'āñá! & {\(\left[p^{h}\right.\) থָawã] } & "Woman!" & \\
Zכ̄n ñwá & {\([z כ \mathrm{n}: \mathrm{a}]\)} & "Fools!" &
\end{tabular}

This structure is sometimes simply exclamatory:

Nwāamıs ñwá! [ w̃ã:misa] "Monkeys!" (From a passenger in my car, on suddenly catching sight of some.)

\subsection*{28.3 Insubordinate kà-Clauses}

\subsection*{28.3.1 Coordination of Main Clauses}

Coordinated main clauses agree in type as declarative, interrogative or imperative. They are coordinated with kà "and", \(k \bar{\nu} v\) "or", \(b \bar{\varepsilon} \varepsilon\) "or". It is possible to regard \(k \bar{v} v b \bar{\varepsilon} \varepsilon\) as conjunctions, but the position with kà is more complex because it can occur alongside conjunctions. Even in coordinating function, kà introduces an Insubordinate clause without Independency Marking on the Verbal Predicator 27.2.

Coordination of statements with kà outside of narrative has a similar sense to English "and" (though kà ... lè \(\varepsilon\) is "but" 22.7.1.)

Coordination of commands with kà is quite common:

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 is not common. It is seen in alternative questions like

\(\mathbf{2 5 G}\) get.drunk foc PQ? Or 2sG go.mad PFV or PQ?
"Are you drunk? Or have you gone mad?"

\subsection*{28.3.2 Narrative and Sequential Clauses}

Kusaal narrative joins clause after clause with kà, corresponding to zero in English. Such clauses are again Insubordinate, but without Independency Marking on the Verbal Predicator 27.2. Tense marking in narrative is the norm for all main clauses without kà unless they contain an explicit time expression; clauses introduced by kà, on the other hand, usually only have tense marking to signal that they disrupt the narrative flow, as with flashbacks or descriptive passages \({ }^{15}\). 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.

Ka Yesus daa an yoma pii ne ayi' la, ka ba ken malola wov ban eعnti nipid si'em la. Ka malv la dabisa naae la, ka ba Iعbidi 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 án yómà pīi né àyí lā, kà bà k \(\bar{\sim} \eta\) málòn And Jesus comp tns cop year:PL ten with num:two ART, and 3PL go sacrifice:sg
 ART like 3PL:COMP usually do:DIPF Ind..ADV ART. And sacrifice:SG ART day:PL comp nāe lā, kà bà lébıdì ø kūn. Kà Yesu kpélìm finish ART, and 3PL return:DIPF SER return.home:DIPF. And Jesus remain Jerusalem ténī-n kà ò bā' né ò mà pū Jerusalem land:sG-Loc and 3AN father:sG with 3an mother:sg neg.ind
 realise that 3AN remain PFV neg. 3PL tns think that 3AN accompany foc bà tèn-dìm lā, kà k \(\bar{\eta} \ldots\)
3PL land-individual.pl ART, and go...
"When Jesus was twelve years old, they went to Jerusalem to sacrifice as they were accustomed to. When the days of sacrifice were over, they were going home, but Jesus remained behind in Jerusalem, and his father and mother didn't realise that he had stayed. They thought that he was accompanying their fellow-countrymen. And they went ..." (Lk 2:42-44)
15) It is common in Africa for non-initial clauses in narrative to resemble subordinate clauses: Hausa narrative, for example, uses the Focus Perfective, otherwise found in relative clauses and in clefting (Jaggar 2001 pp161ff pp526ff, Caron pp171ff), and the Kordofanian Talodi language Lumun has á "and, while" followed by the Dependent Perfective, used elsewhere in purpose clauses and in coordinated commands following the Imperative (Smits pp363, 652.) Consistent narrative tense-marking behaviour of this kind is not seen in Mooré or Dagbani, which seemingly also lack subordinate-type tonal marking following a coordinating clause linker 27.2.

Most clauses without tense marking in narrative thus show initial kà, but some begin with an Absolute Clause, itself usually without tense-marking, followed by kà. Note these patterns of tense marking with Absolute Clauses preceding main clauses (from Mark, Luke, and Acts 1-14, 1976 version):
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|c|c|c|}
\hline \multicolumn{2}{|c|}{ Tense Markers } & A, B & A kà B & kà A, 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 \(\grave{n}\)-Clauses within narrative is expected, because they mark tense relative to the narrative timeline rather than absolutely (see below.) Absent tense marking in A-kà-B type main clauses probably signifies that even tenseunmarked Absolute Clauses licence implicit tense marking in main clauses 22.3.3.

Conjunctions precede the linking kà of Sequential Clauses 27.1.3, and have no effect on the tense marking behaviour:

Ka sieba la' o. Amaa ka sieba yel ye ...
Kà sīəba lá'•O_ø. Àmáa kà sīəba yह́l yह̄...
And indf.pl laugh 3an.ob. But and indf.pl say that...
"Some laughed at him, but others said..." (Acts 17:32)

Ka o ma daa a siakid. Amaa ka o saam daa a Greek nid.
Kà ò mà dāa án siākıd. Àmáa kà ò sàam dāa á
And 3AN mother:sg tns cop believer:sg. But and 3an father:sg tns cop
Greek níd.
Greek person:sg.
"His mother was a believer, but his father was a Greek." (Acts 16:1, 1976)
"Resumptive" \(y \bar{\varepsilon}\) in indirect speech also has no effect on the licencing of the dropping of explicit tense marking in kà-clauses in narrative 29.3.3.

A subject pronoun can be ellipted, not only after kà coordinating clauses when the preceding clause has a subject with the same reference, but also after kà when it is preposing an Absolute Clause with a subject with the same reference 27.1.5.2:

Ban daa yit la, ka nye dau ...
Bán dāa yīt lā, kà nyyē dāu ...
3PL:COMP tNs emerge:DIPF ART, and see man:sG...
"As they were going together, (they) saw a man ..." (Mt 27:32)

The possible occurrence of pre-subject adjuncts demonstrates that Sequential Clauses are not only semantically but structurally main clauses, not subordinate. Sequential Clauses also differ from subordinate clauses in permitting the particle \(n \bar{\varepsilon}\) in its constituent-focussing sense.

In the genealogy of Jesus in Luke 3:23ff, which moves backwards in time, there are dozens of consecutive examples in the 1996 version of

> kà X sáàm dá à nē Y "and X's father was Y"
> and X father:sG tns cop foc Y
whereas the genealogy in Matthew 1.1 ff has dozens of clauses of the pattern
kà X dự'á Y "and X begat Y."
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 nē Uria pư'á. Kà Solomon dư'á Rehoboam...
tws 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 sometimes change to Sequential Clauses; 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.
\(\grave{N}\)-Clauses normally mark tense independently and absolutely:

J̄n dāa ñȳ̄t súnā ón dāa án bílīa láa \({ }^{+} \varnothing\) ?
3AN.CNTR TNS see:DIPF good:ADV 3AN:COMP TNS COP child-baby:SG ART PQ?
"Did he see well when he was a baby?"
but within a series of Sequential Clauses in narrative they mark tense relative to the narrative timeline:

Kà bà nyy \(\bar{\sim}\) dáu-kànı sà kū ná'àb lā.
And 3PL see man-Rel.sG tns kill chief:sg art.
"And they saw the man who killed the chief the day before."

Kà bà nígón pà' yèll_bā sỉəm lā.
And 3pL do 3AN:COMP tNs say 3PL.OB indf.adV art.
"And they did what he'd told them earlier that day."

\subsection*{28.3.2.1 Aspect}

The typical aspect seen in narration is naturally the Perfective. Asked to comment on the acceptability of kà-clauses without tense marking presented in isolation, informants interpreted them as narrative Sequential Clauses, and rejected interpretations with other aspects. The particle \(n \bar{\varepsilon}\) was taken as necessarily marking constituent focus rather than aspect:

Lì bj̀dıg nē. "It's lost."
zinan get.lost foc.

Kà lì bódìg n̄̄.
And 3INAN get.lost foc.
Rejected by WK as ill-formed; accepted after some thought by DK, explaining the expression as contradicting "someone hid it", i.e. as contrastive VP focus.

Bà kùdıg n̄. "They're old."
3PL get.old FOc.

Kà bà kúdìg nē. "And they're old."
And 3pl get.old foc.
Rejected by WK; accepted by DK with the gloss "You're saying they're old when he promised to give you new ones" i.e. contrastive focus on the VP.

With any tense marker, the aspectual meaning becomes freely acceptable to WK and DK, because the clause is no longer taken as Sequential:

Kà lì dāa bódìg nē. "And it was lost."
And binan tns get.lost foc.

Kà bà sá kùdıg n̄.
Kà bà dāa kúdìg nē.
Kà bà dá kùdıg n \(\bar{\varepsilon}\).
all acceptable as "and they were old."

In an appropriate context in actual texts, other aspects are perfectly possible:

Ka ba due keך. Ka ban ken la, Jesus gbisid ne.
Kà bà dūe_ø kēŋ. Kà bán kēn lā, Jesus gbīsıd nē.
And 3PL arise ser go. And 3pl:comp go:Impf Art, Jesus sleep:Dipf 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.)

Ka on kpen' la, o yeli ba ye [...]. Ka ba la'ad o.
Kà ón kpèñ'lā, ò yéli_ bā y \(\bar{\sim}\) [...]. Kà bà lá'ad•ō_ ø.
And 3AN:COMP enter ART, 3AN say 3pl.ob that ... and 3pl laugh:dipf 3an.ob. "After he came in, he said to them [...]. But they laughed (dipf) at him." (Mk 5:39-40)

Even in narrative, kà can mark coordination rather than sequence. The tense marker of the preceding clause is still not repeated, but again any aspect is possible:

Ba da pu mor biiga, bozugo Elizabet da ane kundu'ar, ka babayi la wusa me kudigne.
Bà dà pū mōr bīiga \({ }^{+} \varnothing\), bכ̄zúḡ̄ Elizabet dá à \(n \bar{\varepsilon}\)
3pltas neg.ind have child:sg neg, because Elizabeth tns cop foc
kúndò'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.)

Ka siakidib wusa bane be Judea ne Galilee ne Samaria daa mor sumalisim. Ka ba kal paasid. Ka ba yadda nipir nobugid.
Kà siā̄kıdıb wūsa bánì bé Judea nē Galilee n̄̄ Samaria
And believer:PL all rel.plexist Judea with Galilee with Samaria
dāa mōr sū-málısìm. Kà bà kāl páasìd. Kà bà
TNS have heart-sweetness. And 3PL number:SG increase:IPVF. And 3PL
yàddā-nípìr nכ̄bıgíd.
assent-doing grow:IPvF.
"All the believers who were in Judea and Galilee and Samaria were joyful. Their numbers were increasing and their faith was growing." (Acts 9:31, 1976)

\section*{29 Subordinate Clauses after kà and \(y \bar{\varepsilon}\)}

\subsection*{29.1 Purpose Clauses}

Purpose Clauses can be introduced by either \(y \bar{\varepsilon}\) or kà. They have Imperative Mood. There is no Independency Marking and hence no special -ma flexion of Variable Verbs, but the mood is apparent in the use of dā, not pū or kù, as the negation particle.

Purpose Clauses may appear as main clause adjuncts, and are then most often introduced by \(y \bar{\varepsilon}\) :

Bà tìs•ō_ø kú'èm yर́ 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 \(f\) tíìm ý́ fù zàbır bás.
1SG IRR give 2SG.OB medicine that 2SG pain go.away.
"I'll give you medicine so your pain will go away."
\(\grave{M}\) ná tī \(f\) tî̀m yé fò nīf dā záb \({ }^{+} \varnothing\).
1SG IRR give 2SG.ob medicine that 2sG eye:sg neg.Imp fight neg.
"I'll give you medicine so your eye won't hurt."

Kà + Purpose Clause is also possible as an adjunct:

M na nip wala ka nys faangire?

1SG IRR do how and find salvation cQ?
"What must I do to get saved?" (Acts 16:30)

Purpose Clauses frequently appear as complements of particular verbs. Some such verbs prefer either \(y \bar{\varepsilon}\) or kà specifically; thus bう̀วda "want" takes \(y \bar{\varepsilon}+\) Purpose Clause. Answers to Fù bój̀d bó? "What do you want?" might be

M̀ bój̀d yé ò kūl.
1SG want that 3AN return.home.
"I want him to go home."

M̀ bj́ว̀d yé ì kūl.
1SG want that 1sG return.home.
"I want [me] to go home."
\(\grave{M}\) bj́j̀d ý́ fù dā kūlє \({ }^{+} \varnothing\).
1sG want that 2sg neg.Imp return.home neg.
"I want you not to go home."
cf \(\dot{M} p \bar{v} \quad\) bój̀d ý́ fù kūle \({ }^{+}\).
1SG NEG.IND want that 2sG return.home neg.
"I don't want you to go home."

Verbs expressing necessity or permission, e.g nāra/ "be obliged to" (negated "be obliged not to"); mכ̄r sūөr "be allowed to" (literally "have a way [to]") usually take y \(\bar{\varepsilon}\) when used personally:

Fù pū nār yé fù níg àláa \({ }^{+} \varnothing\).
2SG Neg.ind must that 2sG do adv:thus neg.
"You're not allowed to do that."

Yà mór sūer yé yà kūl.
2PL have way:SG that 2PL return.home.
"You may go home."

With impersonal expressions kà may be used instead of \(y \bar{\varepsilon}\) :

Lì nàr yદ́/kà fô kūl.
3inan must that/and 25G return.home.
"You must go home."

Lì pū nār yध́ fò kūle \({ }^{+}\)ø.
binan neg.ind must that 2sg return.home neg.
or Lì pū nár kà fù kūle \({ }^{+} \varnothing\).
3INAN NEG.IND must and 2SG return.home neg.
"You must not go home."

Sūөr bé yé/kà tì kūl.
Way:sG exist that/and ipl return.home.
"We may go home." (" There's a way that ...")

Never *Lì pū nārá kà fù kūl 27.2. So too with lì à [nc̄] tīlás "it is necessary", either particle may be used:

Li a tilas ye m ken Jerusalem.
Lì àn tīlás yर́ m̀ k \(\bar{\sim} \eta\) Jerusalem.
3inan cop 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:DIPF ADv:thus.
"I must do that." (1 Cor 9:16, 1996)

Certain verbs require a Purpose Clause introduced by kà as complement. Thus mit "see that it doesn't happen that ...", a defective verb used only in the imperative 32.1.1:

Mid ka ya maali ya tuom suma nidib tuon ye ba gos.
Mìt 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.
"See that you don't do your good deeds in front of people so they'll look."
(Mt 6:1)

So too \(k \bar{\varepsilon}^{+}\)"let, leave off" in the sense "let, cause that" which makes periphrastic causatives.

Ti ké kà bà lébısi_tī. "We made them reply to us."
\(\mathbf{1 P L}\) cause and 3PL reply \(\mathbf{1 P L} . \mathbf{o b}\).

Ò kè kà bà pū kūlє \(\quad{ }^{+}\).
3AN cause and 3PL Neg.Ind return.home neg.
"He caused them not to go home." (Indicative)

The irregular imperative \(\left.k \dot{\varepsilon}\right|^{a}\), followed by a kà-clause with Imperative Mood, creates a way of expressing indirect commands, including first and third persons:

Kह̀l kà ò gj̄s tēŋı-n.
Cause:Imp and 3AN look ground:sg-Loc.
"Let him look down."

Dā ké kà dābíàm bé \(\bar{\varepsilon} \quad+\varnothing\) !
neg.imp cause and fear exist neg.
"Don't be afraid." ("Let fear not exist.")

Kह̀l [or Kèlí_ ø ] kà tì pú'ùs Wínà'am.
Cause:IMP cause:IMP 2PL.sub and 1PL greet God.
"Let us praise God."

In informal speech kèl kà ... is often ellipted 27.1.5, leaving the lack of Independency Marking as the only sign that the clause is an indirect command:

Ò gう̄s tह̄ŋı-n. "Let her look down."
3AN look ground:sg-Loc. (No Independency Marking, so no tone overlay on gj̄s.)
"Let us praise God."
(homophonous with "We thank God.")

M̀ gj̄s nīf lā.
1sG look. at eye:sg ART.
"Let me look at the eye."
(No tone overlay on gj̄s.)
cf \(\dot{M}\) gós nīf lā.
"I've looked at the eye."
1sG look. at eye:SG ART.
(Independency marked: tone overlay on gós.)

M dígınદ̀ \({ }^{+}\)?
1sG lie.down PQ?
"Am I to lie down?"
(No Independency Marking: no imp -má

Tì záb ná'àb lā.
1PL fight chief:sg ART.
"We've fought the chief."
(Independency: Tone overlay on záb seen in the following \(L\) raising 22.6.1.1)

Tì záb nà'ab lā.
"We should fight the chief."
1PL fight chief:sG ART.
(No Independency: No tone overlay on záb.)

Another tonal minimal pair with and without Independency Marking:

Ò zàb ná'àb lā.
3AN fight chief:sg ART.
but Ò záb nà'ab lā. 3AN fight chief:sG ART.
"He should fight the chief."
(No Independency: No tone overlay on záb.)

Absence of Independency Marking here forces interpretation as a subordinate clause, with an ellipted main clause \(\dot{M}\) bój̀d \(y \bar{\varepsilon} . .\). "I want that ..." or Kह̀l kà... .

The "purpose" sense of a Purpose Clause is sometimes very attenuated:

Ka ba gban'e ba kpen'عs sanrega ni ye beog nie.
Kà bà gbáñ'a_bā ø kpén'ès sārıgá nī yह̄ b̄̄og níe.
And 3PL seize \(\mathbf{3 P L} . \mathbf{O B}\) SER put.in prison:sG loc that morning appear.
"They seized them and put them in prison until tomorrow should come." (Acts 4:3)

The verb gūr \({ }^{\text {a/ "be on guard, watch, wait for" in the sense of "waiting for an }}\) event" may take as complement either a NP headed by gerund, or a Purpose Clause, again with this attenuated sense:

Nidib la daa gur 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)
dap bans gur ye ba zugdaan naan pu'adiir di'ema zin'igin kul na
dàp-bànı gūr yé bà zūg-dáàn nāan pư'á-dīır díəmà
man-REL.PL wait that 3PL head-owner:SG be.there wife-taking:SG feast:PL
zín'igī-n ø kūl nā
place:sG-Loc ser return.home hither.
"men who are waiting for their lord [being] at a wedding feast to return ..."
(Lk 12:36)
... gur ye pu'a la du'a ka o onb biig la.
... gūr yē pư'ā lā dư'á kà ò ónnb bīig lā. watch that woman:SG ART bear and 3AN eat child:SG ART.
"...waiting for the woman to give birth so that he could devour her child."
(Rev 12:4)

Purpose can also be expressed by Serial VPs 26, or by the particle-verb tì 22.7.2.

\subsection*{29.2 Supplement Clauses}

A subordinate kà-clause with Indicative or Irrealis Mood and without Independency Marking is a supplement (Huddlestone and Pullum 2002 pp1350 ff.) attached to a NP anchor, usually though not invariably the NP directly preceding the kà, but not the main clause subject (with one exception discussed below.) The kàclause contains a pronoun referring to this NP, which is ellipted if it is a verb direct object 23.1. The sense is usually that of a non-restrictive relative clause:

Asce line an be'ed ma'aa ka m na tun'e niŋ.

Only rel.inan cop bad only and isg irr be.able ser do.
"It's only that which is bad that I can do." (Rom 7:21)

Li ane ya taaba bane pu'usid Wina'am ka li nar ka ya kad saria.
Lì à né yà tāaba bánì pò'usıd Wínà'am kà lì nár
3INAN COP FOC 2PL fellow rel.pl greet:DIPF 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)

Dau sכ' da be Sizerea, ka o yo'vr buon Konelius.
Dàū-s̄̄' dá bè Sizerea kà ò yō'vr búèn Konelius.
Man-Indf.AN tns exist Caesarea and 3an name:sg call:dIpF Cornelius.
"There was a man in Caesarea whose name was Cornelius." (Acts 10:1)

Anina ka o nye dau ka o yo'vr buon Aneas.
Àníná kà ò nyyz̄ dáu kà ò yō'ur búèn Aneas.
ADV:there and 3AN see man:sg and 3AN name:sg call:DIPF Aeneas.
"There he found a man whose name was Aeneas." (Acts 9:33)

The main clause may have a Non-verbal Predicator 25:

J̄nı \(\varnothing\) lá kà fù dāa ñ \(y \bar{\varepsilon} t\) t.
3AN.CNTR SER that and 2SG TNS see:dipf.
"This is he whom you saw." WK

Ànó'כnì ø ñ~wá kà tì ny ȳ̄tá \({ }^{+} \varnothing\) ?
Who ser this and 1PL see:DIPF CQ?
"Who is this that we can see?"

What ser that and 1SG see:DIPF CQ?
"What is that that I can see?"

The construction is not permitted if the subject of the main clause is the same as the subject of the kà-clause; a serial-verb construction then is used instead, in a parallel way.

Supplement clauses are the basis of kà-clefting and kà-preposing 33.2.
Supplement kà-clauses with definite NPs as anchors may occur in the sense of predicative complements 23.2 in place of Content Clauses 29.3.

Examples (KT's translations) with an indefinite NP as anchor:

M̀ dāa \(\underset{\sim}{n} y \bar{\varepsilon}\) dáu kà ò án ná'àb.
1sG tNs see man:sg and 3an cop chief:sg.
"I saw a man who was a chief."
\(\grave{M}\) dāa \(p \bar{v} \quad\) nyē dáu kà ò án ná'abā \({ }^{+} \varnothing\).
1SG TNS NEG.IND see man:SG and 3AN COP chief:Sg Neg.
"I didn't see a man who was a chief."
\(\grave{M}\) dāa \(p \bar{u} \quad \underset{\sim}{n} y \bar{\varepsilon}\) ná'àb kà ò án bāl̄̄rvgó \({ }^{+} \varnothing\).
1sG tns Neg.Ind see chief:sg and 3an cop ugly:sg neg.
"I didn't see a chief who was ugly."

With a definite NP as anchor:

M̀ dāa ñ yē dāu lá kà ò án ná'àb.
1SG tNs see man:Sg ART and 3AN COP chief:Sg.
"I saw the man as a chief."

M dāa pū nyy \(\bar{\varepsilon}\) dāu lá kà ò án ná'abā \({ }^{+} \varnothing\).
1SG tns neg.ind see man:sg art and ban cop chief:sg neg.
"I didn't see the man as a chief."

KT did not accept the readings "I saw the man, who was a chief" or "I didn't see the man, who was a chief."

KT rejected some similar sentences as ill-formed.
neg before \(k a\), making the subordinate reading impossible:
*M̀ dāa \(p \bar{v} \quad \underset{\sim}{n} y \bar{\varepsilon}\) dáv \({ }^{+} \varnothing\) kà ò án ná'àb.
1SG tns neg.ind see man:Sg neg and 3an cop chief:sg.
*M̀ dāa pū \(\quad\) nyē ná'abá \({ }^{+} \varnothing\) kà ò án bāl̄̄rug.
1SG tns neg.ind see chief:sg neg and 3an cop ugly:sg.

Tense marking in the subordinate clause:
*M̀ dāa pū nи~ \(y \bar{\varepsilon}\) dāu lá kà ò dāa án ná'abā \({ }^{+} \varnothing\).
1sg tns neg.ind see man:sg art and ban tns cop chief:sg neg.

Focus marking in the subordinate clause:
*M̀ dāa pū ny \(\quad\) ḡāu lá kà ò á nē ná'abā \({ }^{+} \varnothing\).
1SG tns neg.ind see man:sg art and ban cop foc chief:sg neg.
*M̀ dāa pū ñ \(y\) ह̄ dāu lá kà ò dāa á n̄̄ ná'abā \({ }^{+} \varnothing\).
1SG tNS NEG.IND see man:SG ART and 3AN tNS COP FOC chief:SG NEG.

Supplement Clauses are essentially in complementary distribution with Serial VPs 26.1, replacing these when the subject and/or polarity do not agree with those of the main clause. A Supplement Clause has the same subject as the main clause only when it replaces a Serial VP because of polarity change, e.g.

Dau sכ' da be Listra tengin an pכn'כri zin' o noba zug ka po tun'e kenna.
 Man-indf.an tns exist Lystra land:sg-Loc ser cop cripple:sg ser sit 3an leg:PL zùg kà pū tūn'e_ \(\varnothing\) kह̄nná \({ }^{+} \varnothing\).
upon and neg.ind be.able ser go:dipf neg.
"There was a man in Lystra who was crippled and sat on his legs and could not walk." (Acts 14:8)

Compare also \(n\)-focus versus kà-preposing constructions 33.1.1 33.2.

\subsection*{29.3 Content Clauses}
\(Y \bar{\varepsilon}\), and less often kà, may introduce clauses displaying Independency Marking on the Verbal Predicator 22.6. They show all the structural features possible for main clauses, such as focus and foregrounding. They occur very frequently representing passages of indirect speech, but are also found much more generally after verbs of cognition, reporting, and perception as Content Clauses. Kusaal content clauses are thus downranked main clauses functioning as subordinate clauses.

Verbs taking content clauses as objects include
\begin{tabular}{llll}
\(\left.y \grave{\varepsilon}\right|^{\varepsilon}\) & "say" & wòm \({ }^{\mathrm{m}}\) & "hear" \\
\(n y \bar{\varepsilon}^{+}\) & "see" & \(t \bar{n} \tilde{n}^{\prime} \varepsilon s^{\varepsilon /}\) & "think" \\
\(m i^{+}\) & "know" & bàn & "come to know" \\
\(p a ̀ ' a l^{\varepsilon}\) & "teach, show" & kàrım & "read" \\
\(z \bar{l}^{\prime+}\) & "not know" & &
\end{tabular}

Although the tone is different, \(y \bar{\varepsilon}\) is presumably connected with y \(\left.\grave{\varepsilon}\right|^{\varepsilon}\) "say, tell." It occurs by itself in the sense y \(\grave{\varepsilon} l y \bar{\varepsilon}\) : Wínà'am y \(\bar{\varepsilon}\)... "God says: " Compare the immediate future construction with subject \(+y \bar{\varepsilon}\)-Purpose Clause 22.3.2.

Except in indirect speech 29.3.1, content clauses are normally declarative. The equivalent of an interrogative main clause is a Relative Clause headed by an indefinite pronoun 31.2.1, and the equivalent of an imperative main clause is a subordinate Purpose Clause 29.1.

Fu wom ban yet si'em laa?
Fò wóm bán yغ̀t sỉəm láa \({ }^{+} \varnothing\) ?
2SG hear:DIPF 3PL:COMP Say:DIPF INDF.ADV ART PQ?
"Do you hear what ["how"] they are saying?" (Mt 21:16)

Bà nà yह̄l•O_ø ón nà nīŋ sỉəm.
3PL IRR Say 3AN.OB 3AN:COMP IRR do INDF.ADV.
"They will tell him what he is to do."

Lì nàr yé/kà fù kūl.
3inan must that/and 2sG return.home.
"You must go home."

An Absolute Clause 31.1 cannot be used as the object of a verb of cognition, reporting, or perception; for "know (etc) the fact that ..." Content Clauses must be used.

Another possibility for the object of such verbs is NP + ȳ̄lá "about" 20.6.
In WK's speech \(y \bar{\varepsilon}+\) content clause is usual, but he prefers kà + content clause after \(t \bar{\varepsilon} \tilde{\sim}^{\prime} \varepsilon s^{\varepsilon /}\) "think"; the structure is otherwise the same, and this therefore constitutes an exception to the rules that kà is never followed by Independency Marking, and that kà deletes a following subject pronoun with the same reference as the preceding subject:

Ò tદ̀ñ'عs kà ò zàb ná'àb lā.
3AN think and 3AN fight chief:SG ART.
"He thinks he's fought the chief." WK
\(\grave{M}\) tह́ñ'દ̀s kà ò à nē dự'átà.
1SG think and 3AN COP FOC doctor:SG.
"I think she's a doctor." WK

M̀ tén'દ̀s kà ò lù yā. "I think she's fallen." WK
1sG think and 3AN fall pFv.
\(\grave{M}\) téñ' ' kà m̀ lú yā. \(\quad\) I think I've fallen" WK
1SG think and 1sG fall pFv.

M téñ'غ̀s kà nīigí lā ónbìd.
1SG think and cow:PL ART chew:DIPF.
"I think the cows eat." WK

M̀ téñ'モ̀s kà nïigí lā óñbid nē.
1sG think and cow:PL ART chew:DIPF Foc.
"I think the cows are eating." WK

NT/KB sometimes has kà + content clause after other verbs, and \(y \bar{\varepsilon}+\) content clause after \(t \bar{\varepsilon} \tilde{\sim}^{\prime} \varepsilon s^{\varepsilon /}\).

Ya pon wom ka ba da yعl ye...
Yà pón wòm kà bà dá yह̀l yह̄...
2PL previously hear and 3PL TNs say that...
"You previously heard that they had said ..." (Mt 5:43)
...yanam banim ka li san'aun li'el ya.
...yānám bànım kà lì sàñ'ט lí̀̀̀l yā.
...2PL.CNTR realise:IMP and 3inAN destruction approach PFV.
"Know that its destruction has come near." (Lk 21:20)

Ka ya ten'es ye mood ye m ma'e nidib sunf bee?
Kà yà téñ'દ̀s yદ́ m̀ mכ̄כd yर́ m̀ mā'e nīdıb súñf bદ́ \({ }^{+} \varnothing\) ?
And 2PL think that 1SG strive:DIPF that 1SG cool person:PL heart:sG or PQ?
"And do you think that I am trying to please people?" (Gal 1:10, 1976)

Pronouns are changed throughout in the Content Clause to reflect its setting, on the same basis as in English "indirect speech."

The free personal pronouns have logophoric 29.3.2 meaning in Content Clauses.

Tense and mood marking is always the same as in the equivalent main clause. Pluperfect and future-in-the-past meanings may result:

Ò dāa yह́l yé bà dāa kūl.
3AN tns say that 3pL tns return.home.
"She said that they had gone home."

Tì dāa tz̄ñ '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."

Examples of main-clause type structural features within content clauses:
ban mi' ye biig la kpine la zug
bán mī yē bïig lā kpínē lā zúg
3PL:COMP know that child:SG ART die foc ART upon
"because they knew that the child was dead" (Lk 8:53)
where focus-n \(\bar{\varepsilon}^{+/}\)occurs in a content clause within an Absolute Clause. (The second article lā marks the end of the Absolute Clause.)

Bòn-bān'ad zī' yē tēŋ túllā \({ }^{+} \varnothing\).
Donkey-rider:sG neg.know that ground:sg be.hot neg.
"The donkey-rider doesn't know the ground is hot."
(Tह̄ŋ túl. "Ground is hot."; tūla/"be hot")

There is tone overlay due to Independency Marking on tōla/. The final LF is induced by the Negative Prosodic Clitic belonging with the negative verb in the superordinate clause.

Content Clauses also appear after wōv "like" 21.1; the construction involves a subordinate rather than main clause, as is demonstrated by e.g.
ka tuumbe'ed ku len so'e ti wuu ti aa li yamugo.
kà tòvm-bē'عd kú lह̄m sú'ט_tī wōv tì áañ_lì yàmmugj̄ \({ }^{+} \varnothing\). and work-bad:pl Neg.IRR again own 1PL.OB like 1pL COP 3INAN slave:sg NEG. "and that sin will not again own us as if we were its slave." (Rom 6:6, 1996)

See further 27.1.3 on conjunctions and prepositions.

\subsection*{29.3.1 Direct and Indirect Speech}

After a speech-verb \(y \bar{\varepsilon}\) may introduce the words of the direct speech itself, unaltered except for the presence of "resumptive" \(y \bar{\varepsilon}\) at intervals 29.3.3. This is an uncommon strategy in written materials prior to the 1996 NT Version; in the 1976 version it seems to be chosen mostly for direct utterances of Jesus.

More commonly, the original direct speech is downranked to a content clause or series of coordinated content clauses, with personal pronouns altered throughout as in English indirect speech. The free personal pronouns are used logophorically 29.3.2 as in all Content Clauses. All other features of the original main clauses, including tense marking and Independency Marking, are unchanged as usual.

Such passages of indirect speech may be kept up for very long stretches; the 1976 NT version has examples extending over several pages. The 1996 revision consistently replaces all indirect speech with direct, however.

Pronouns are changed even within a vocative in indirect speech:

O zuanam ne o saamnama, ye ba kelisim.
Ò zưà-nàm né ò sàam-nàmā \({ }^{+} \varnothing\), yદ́ bà kह̀lısım!
3AN friend-PL with 3AN father-PL voc that 3PL listen:IMP!
(Acts 7:2, 1976)
for \(\dot{M}\) zưà̀-nàm né \(\grave{m}\) sàam-nàmā \({ }^{+} \varnothing\), kèlısımī ø! 1sG friend-PL with 1SG father-PL voc, listen:IMP 2PL.sub!
"My friends and my fathers, listen!"

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 kúkór kà lì yī áràzánà ní nā ȳ̄,
And 1sg hear God voice:sg and zinan emerge heaven loc hither that
ò nīdıbá \({ }^{+} \varnothing\), yદ́ bà yìmī \(\varnothing\) t \(\quad\) Ø̄ 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)

These examples also illustrates the fact that the indirect speech construction differs from other types of content clause in that it may feature imperative clauses as content clauses, which elsewhere would be replaced by subordinate clauses of purpose.

In such quoted direct commands the usual deletion of a 2 nd sg subject and change of 2 pl subject to enclitic ya does not occur; this is true even when the addressee is the same as in the original utterance so that the pronouns remain 2nd person. Some speakers still keep the enclitic ya after the verb even when there is a pronoun subject before it; see the second example above, and 28.2.3.

Indirect-speech quoting of imperatives provides an alternative way of expressing indirect commands to the use of purpose clauses 29.1; as with that construction, the main clause and linker may be altogether ellipted 27.1.5 informally:
```

M y\varepsilońl y\varepsiloń ò g\grave{sım tह̄\eta\iota-n.}
1SG say that 3AN look:IMP ground:SG-Loc.
"I said she should look down."

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Ò gう̀sım tह̄ŋı-n. "She should look down."
3AN look:IMP ground:sG-Loc.

M̀ tદ́ñ'દ̀s kà tì pú'usìm Wínà'am.
1SG think and 1PL greet:IMp God.
"I think we should praise God."

Tì pú'v̀sım Wínà'am. "We should praise God."
1PL greet:IMP God.

A main clause of interrogative type can be downranked in indirect speech too:

Ka Peter bu'os o ye, Ananias, ye bo ka o ke ka Sutaana kpen' o suunrin...
Kà Peter bū'өs‘ó_ø ȳ̄ Ananias, ȳ̄ bó kà ò ḱ́ kà Sūtáanà
And Peter ask zan.ob that Ananias, that what and 3an cause and Satan
kpèn \({ }^{\prime}\) 'ò sūuñrí-n... \({ }^{+}\)?
enter 3AN heart:sG-Loc ... cQ?
"Peter asked him: Ananias, why did you let Satan enter your heart ...?"
(Acts 5:3, 1976)

Similarly with a main clause without a predicate structure 28.2.4:

Ò yèl ȳ̄ báp. \(\quad\) "She said 'Bap!'"
3AN say that Bap.

\subsection*{29.3.2 Logophoric Pronouns}

Within Content Clauses personal pronouns are altered throughout as in English indirect speech, except in directly embedded passages of direct speech 29.3.1.

The free 3rd person pronouns have logophoric sense. In contexts where bound pronouns could have occurred instead (i.e. where they are contrastive 33.5) they refer to the speaker(s), replacing 1st persons of the original utterance. Bound 3rd persons may also have this sense, but the free pronouns are much commoner, especially as subjects, even when no ambiguity would otherwise result.

Thus "He said: I will kill them.'" is usually

Ò yદ̀l ȳ̄ j̄n ná kúv_bā.
3AN say that 3AN.CNTR IRR kill 3PL.Ob.
 be the equivalent of "He(1) said: 'He(2) will kill them.'" So e.g (all 1976 NT version):
```

Festus tans Paul ye o geem ne ... ka Paul lebis ye on pu geem.
Festus táñs Paul y\varepsiloń ò g\varepsiloǹ\varepsilonñ~m n\overline{\varepsilon}... kà Paul l\varepsilońbìs
Festus shout Paul that 3aN go.mad foc ... and Paul reply
y\overline{\varepsilon} j̄n p\overline{ \ g\varepsiloń\varepsilonnnmm +\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)

```
Wina'am ye ... arazana ane on na'am kuk ... bo yir ka ba na me \(n\) tis one?
Wínà'am yé... àrazánà á n \(\bar{\varepsilon}\) う̄n nā'am kúk
God say:that...heaven:sG COP FOC 3AN.CNTR realm chair:sG
... bj̀-yír kà bà ná m \(\bar{\varepsilon} n\) tís j̀ne \({ }^{\dagger} \varnothing\) ?
... what-house:sg and 3PL IRR build SER give 3AN.CNTR CQ?
"God says: .... heaven is his throne ... what house will they build for him?"
(Acts 7:49)
for Àrazánà á né m̀ nā'am kúk
Heaven cop foc 1sG realm chair:sg
... bj̀-yír kà yà ná mē \(n\) tísi_mà \({ }^{+} \varnothing\) ?
... what-house:sg and 2PL IRR build SER give 1sg.ob cQ?

\subsection*{29.3.3 Resumptive \(y \bar{\varepsilon}\)}

Regardless of whether a passage is direct or indirect speech, if it is longer than two or three clauses "resumptive" \(y \bar{\varepsilon}\) is inserted at intervals of roughly every third clause, after any conjunctions but before clause-linker kà; this is the only way that \(y \bar{\varepsilon}\) and kà occur together apart from ellipsis 27.1.2 27.1.5.1.

Ye ka Paul yel ye o bood ye o kpelim sarega ni.
Yદ́ kà Paul yél yદ́ ò bj̀วd yદ́ ò kpélìm sārıgá nī.
That and Paul say that 3AN want that 3AN remain prison:Sg Loc.
" .... but that Paul said he wanted to remain in prison...(Acts 25:21, 1976)
... amaa ye ba yaanam da pu bood ye ba siak o noore
... àmáa yદ́ bà yāa-nám dá pū bój̀d yé bà siák•ò_ø
... but that 3PL ancestor-PL tns NEG.IND want that 3PL agree 3AN.OB nว̄วrย́ \(\quad+\varnothing\).
mouth:sg neg.
(within a speech) " ... but their ancestors did not want to obey him"
(Acts 7:39, 1976)

Amaa ye ka on yeli ba ye ...
Àmáa yé kà う̄n yćlì_bā y \(\bar{\varepsilon} . .\).
But that and 3AN.CNTR say 3pl.ob that...
"But he [the speaker] had said to them ..." (Acts 25:16, 1976)

Alazug ye Wina'am sadigim tisi ba piini kan ka o daa tisi ti la...
Àlá zùg ȳ̄ Wínà'am ø sādıgím tísì bā pīinıkán kà ò dāa Thus that God comp since give 3pl.ob gift rel.sg and ban tns tísì_tī lā...
give 1pl.ob art.
"Thus, since God had given them the gifts that he had given us ..."
(Acts 11:17, 1976)

Alazug ye ka on ke ka ba mor o ba sa'an na ...
Àlá zùg yé kà う̄n 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)

Dinzugo ye ba kel tikpeedug...
Dìn zúgj̄ yદ́ bà kह̀l...
Therefore that 3PL let:IMP ...
"Therefore they should leave off disturbance ..." (Acts 19:36, 1976)

Resumptive \(y \bar{\varepsilon}\) may be placed between a clause-level presubject adjunct and the subject, or between a vocative NP and the following clause:

Nanana ye o zuanam, ye o ban ye...
Nānná-nā yé ò zưà-nàm, yદ́ ò bàn ȳ̄...
Now-hither that 3AN friend-PL, that 3AN understand that ...
"Now, his friends should understand that..."
(Acts 3:17, 1976)

Ka nanana ye o nipi ba Wina'am ne o popielim pia'ad la nu'usin...
Kà nānná-nā yé ò nìpı̄ bá Wínà'am né ò pù-pìəlım
And now-hither that 3AN do 3PL.OB God with 3AN inside-whiteness piáñ'àd lā nú'usī-n...
speech art hand:PL-Loc...
"And now he committed them to God and the words of his holiness.."
(Acts 20:32, 1976)

O zuanam ne o saamnama, ye ba kelisim.
Ò zưà-nàm né ò sàam-nàmā \({ }^{+} \varnothing\), yध́ bà kह̀lısım! 3AN friend-PL with 3AN father-PL voc that 3PL listen:IMP!
"His friends and my fathers should listen." (Acts 7:2, 1976)

\section*{30 Conditional Clauses}

\subsection*{30.1 Conditional Clauses: 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, m̀ yá' lèb nā, m̀ ná yóo_f.
2sG if want, \(\mathbf{1 S G}\) if return hither, \(\mathbf{1 S G}\) IRR pay \(\mathbf{2 S G} . \mathbf{O B}\).
"If you want, when I return, I will pay you."

Ya'-clauses occur immediately before the subject of the main clause, after any other pre-subject adjuncts, clause-linker particles or conjunctions.

There must be a non-zero subject after a yà'-clause; even direct commands do not, as usual, delete the 2nd person subject pronoun 28.2.3; 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.
Fù yá' mכ̄r pừ'ā, fūn dā mכ̄כd yé fù bás•ō-o +ø.
2SG if have wife:sG, 2SG Neg.Imp struggle:dIPF that 2SG abandon-3AN.OB NEG.
"If you have a wife, don't try to leave her." (1 Cor 7:27)

Other speakers permit bound pronouns:

Bung ya'a bood ye o lubuf, fu po nyeti o tubaa.
Bùn yá' bj̀วd yé ò lūbú_f,
Donkey:sG if want that 3AN throw.off 2sG.0B,
fù pū nyz̄tí ò tùbāa +ø.
2SG NEG.IND See:DIPF 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 33.2:

2sG if look here, what and 2sG see:DIPF ca?
"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.
S̄̄' yá' kù tūm, j̄n dā díı \({ }^{+} \varnothing\).
indf.an if neg.irr work, ban.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 dislocation due to weight (cf \(\underline{33.3}\) ), notably in constructions meaning "it would be better if ...":

Li naani so'on ba ya'a nokin neertita'are loon kollin o niggoonr ka zaŋ o lobi bas kolugin, n gati
Lì nāanı sכ̄n'כ-n, bà yá' nj̄kı-n nēer-títā'arı ø \(1 \bar{\sim}-n \_\varnothing\)
binan then be.better-rem 3pl if take-rem millstone-big:sg ser tie-rem ser
kólī-n j̄n nín-gว̀วr kà zán•̀̀ ø ø l̄bı_
put.around.neck-REM 3AN.CNTR body-neck:SG and take 3AN.OB SER throw
\(\varnothing\) bás kj̄lugu-n, \(n\) gát...
SER abandon river:SG-Loc SER pass:DIPF...
"It would have been better if they had fastened a big millstone round his neck and thrown him into the river, than ..." (Lk 17:2, 1996)

Dinzug li naan a su'um ba ya'a pu du'an dau kanaa.
Dìn-zúg lì nāan án súm bà yá' pū dó'ā-n dáú-kànáa +ø.
Thus zinan then cop good:Abstr 3pl if neg.ind bear-rem man-dem.dei.sg neg.
"So it would have been better for that man not to have been born."
(Mk 14:21, 1996)

In archaic materials like proverbs, yà'-clauses sometimes end in a LF (but see 8.1.1 for an alternative analysis):

Bun ya'a kpi be'ede, ba siido ne be'ed.

Donkey:sG if die bad:PL, 3PL flay:DIPF 3AN.OB Foc bad:PL.
"When a donkey dies wrongly, they skin it wrongly." KSS p42
("Make the best of a bad job.")

\subsection*{30.1.1 Remoteness Marker \(\boldsymbol{n}^{\boldsymbol{\varepsilon}}\)}

The Remoteness Marker Liaison Enclitic \(n^{\varepsilon}\) can attach to any verb form in Indicative or Irrealis Mood; it is not compatible with the Imperative Mood. With Serial VPs, if \(n^{\varepsilon}\) is found in the first predicator it is repeated in all 26.1.

In much its commonest function, the particle has a meaning analogous to the modal remoteness expressed by the use of the English preterite in non-temporal usage (Huddlestone and Pullum pp 148ff.) It expresses a hypothetical or unlikely state of affairs; it is frequently accompanied by the post-subject particle nāan( \(ا\) ) 30.1.2, which creates a contrary-to-fact interpretation. It is most often seen, without nāan( (), in yà'-clauses, and with or without nāan( () in apodoses 30.2 30.3, but also appears both with and without nāan( \(ا\) ) in other main and subordinate clause types.

In main clauses, \(n^{\varepsilon}\) without \(n a \bar{a}(\iota)\) is most often seen in bj̀วdīn "might wish":
m pa'ati nye ka ya pu wenne wuu man boodin ye ya aan si'em laa.
m̀ pá' tì ny \(\varepsilon\) kà yà pū wēn n
15G perhaps see and 2PL neg.Ind resemble with
wōo mán bj̀วdī-n yé yà áa-n sỉ’əm láa \({ }^{+} \varnothing\).
like 1sG:COMP want-Rem that 2PL COP-REM INDF.ADV ART NEG.
"I will perhaps find you not as I might wish."(2 Cor 12:20, 1996)

Man boodin ne yaname naan aan ma'asiga bee yaname naan aan tuuliga.
Mān bj́כdī-n nē yānámì ø nāan áa-n mā'asígā bē
1SG.CNTR want-REM with 2PL COMP then COP-REM cold:ADV or
yānámì ø nāan áa-n tōolígā.
2PL COMP then COP-REM hot:ADV.
"I might wish you had been cold or you had been hot." (Rev 3:15, 1996)

The enclitic can be used temporally as a today-past, implying specifically that the state of affairs described no longer obtains 22.3.2:

M \(\grave{M}\) ónbıdī-n sūmma.
1SG chew:DIPF-REM groundnut:PL.
"I was eating groundnuts." ("and now I'm not.")

The modal sense, though it occurs much more frequently, is probably secondary to this temporal function.

\subsection*{30.1.2 Nāan(ı) "in that/which case"}

The post-subject particle nāan(ı) is distinct from ñ yāan "next, afterwards, then", but nāan (never nāanı) occurs commonly in the same sense as ñyāan. Thus in the parallel NT passages from the 1996 version:

Fu na ki'is noor atan' ye, fu zi' ma, ka noraug nyaan kaas.
Fò ná kī'ss nכ̄כr àtán' yé fù zí'l mā \({ }^{+} \varnothing\),
2SG IRR deny occasion:sg num:three that 2Sg neg.know 1sg.ob neg,
kà n亏̄-dáv̀g ñํāan 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's mān nכ̄כr àtán' kà nכ̄-dávg
2SG IRR deny 1sG.cNTR occasion:sg num:three and hen-male:sg
nāan kāas nכ̄כr 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 ñyāan is probably a form of ñyá'an a "behind, after" with loss of glottalisation and assimilation of the final nasal because of its proclitic status 4.2.2 8.5.1. The particle nāan(l) itself seems to have a core locative and logical sense "be(ing) there/thus, in that case" which has presumably broadened for speakers who use it in the sense of nyāan to temporal "then", unless the falling-together of the forms is simply phonological or dialectal.

There are examples in NT/KB of nāan(l) used as an auxiliary verb with its own locative complement in both the Serial VP construction and in Supplement Clauses:
```

M nye ka Sutaana naane arazana ni n lu wenne saa yiti iank si'em la.
M nyy\varepsiloń kà Sōtáanà nāaní_ \varnothing àrazánà ní n lù_\varnothing wह̄n n\overline{\varepsilon}
1sg see and Satan be.there ser sky loc ser fall ser resemble foc
sáa_ \varnothing yïtl_ \varnothing iāñk sỉəm lā.
rain:sG COMP emerge:DIPF SER leap INDF.ADV ART.
"I saw Satan [being] in heaven fall like lightning." (Lk 10:18, 1996)

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Ka nwadbibis na naan agola lit tepin na.
Kà ñ~wād-bíbìs ná nāan àgólà ø lít tēŋı-n nā.
And moon-small:PL IRR be.there adv:above ser fall:DIPF ground:sg-Loc hither.
"And the stars [being] above will fall to earth." (Mk 13:25)
dap bans gur ye ba zugdaan naan pu'adiir di'ema zin'igin kul na
dàp-bànı gūr yé bà zūg-dáàn nāan pư'á-dīır dí'əmà
man-rel.pL wait that 3PL head-owner:sG be.there wife-taking:sG feast:PL
zíñ'igī-n_ ø kūl nā
place:sG-Loc ser return.home hither.
"men who are waiting for their lord [being] at a wedding feast to return ..." (Lk 12:36)
yinni piiga wusa puugin ka li naan o yaab Abraham nu'usin
yīnní pïga wūsa púvgú-n kà lì nāan ò yáab Abraham
one ten all inside:sG-Loc and zinan 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)

The form nāanı thus evidently originated in nāan followed by Serialiser \(n\), but I will omit ser in the interlinear glossing henceforward for simplicity.

In main clause statements nāan(l) without \(n^{\varepsilon}\) is most often a by-form of nyāan as described above. By far the most cases of modal nāan(l) appear in the apodoses of Conditional Clauses 30.3. Elsewhere the meaning is "in that case, matters being thus", and has a contrary-to-fact implication when the Remoteness Marker is also present. Especially in Absolute Clauses, nāan(ı) without the Remoteness Marker may be effectively equivalent to yà' "if/when."

In non-conditional main clause contexts it appears most often in the NT/KB with bj̀วda "want, wish" to convey a hypothetical "might have wished":

M naan bovdin ye ya sid aan na'anam.
M̀ nāan bóvdī-n yé yà sìd āa-n ná'-nàm.
\(\mathbf{1 S G}\) then want-rem that 2PL truly cop-rem king-pl.
"I might have wished you really were kings." (1 Cor 4:8)

Other examples do occur, in both Main Clauses and Content Clauses:

Ka so' naam mori [sic] pe'is kobuga ka yinni bodige?
Kà sכ̄' nāan mכ̄r pē'عs kóbıgá kà yīnní bj̀dıge \({ }^{+} \varnothing\) ?
And IndF.AN then have sheep:PL hundred and one get.lost \(\mathbf{P Q}\) ?
"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 àn súm ȳ dāu yūnní nāan kpí nīdıb lā yélà Øø gàad...
zinan cor good that man:sg one then die person:PL ARt about ser pass ...
"It is better if one man should die for the people than ..." (Jn 11:50)

Nāan(l) also appears in subordinate clauses. Examples are not common in KB, which usually simply shows the Irrealis marker nà where the older versions have nāan.

Subordinate clauses introduced by kà or \(y \bar{\varepsilon}\) :

Li su'm ka fu daa naan zapin m ligidi \(n\) su'an banki ni.
Lì sù'm kà fù dāa nāan zání-n_ ì līgıdı
3INAN be.good and 2SG TNS then take-REM 1SG money
\(n\) sū'a-n bánkì ní.
ser hide-rem bank:sg loc.
"You should have put my money in the bank." (Mt 25:27, 1976)

Ka m bood ye li naani pun nipin sa.
Kà m̀ bój̀d yé lì nāanı pón nìpī-n sá.
And 1sg want that uinan then already do-rem hence.
"I wish it had happened already." (Lk 12:49, 1976)

Relative Clauses:

M daa pu bood ye nimbane naan tisini m sumalisim la keen ka m moren susa'aŋa.
\(\dot{M}\) dāa pū bj́j̀d ȳ̄ nīn-bánì nāan tísī-ní_ \(m\)
1SG TNS NEG.IND want that person-ReL.PL then give-rem 1sG.OB
sō-málısìm lā kēe-n kà m̀ mōrı-n sū-sáñ'ànā \({ }^{+} \varnothing\).
heart-sweetness art cause-rem and 1sg have-rem heart-spoiling neg.
"I did not want those who should have given me joy to give me sorrow."
(2 Cor 2:3, 1996)
... fun di'em o wov fun naan di'enim si'em la.
...fūn dì'əm•ō_ \(\varnothing\) wōv fún nāan dī'ə-ní_ ì sìəm lā.
... 2SG.CNTR receive:Imp 3AN.OB like 2SG:COMP then receive-rem 1sG.OB INDF.ADV ART.
"Welcome him as if you were welcoming me." (Philemon 1:17)

Absolute Clauses:

Bo a na'ana ne man naan yelin ka li nipine?
\(B \bar{\jmath}\) án ná'anā n̄ mán nāan yélí-n kà lì nínī-né \(+\varnothing\) ?
What cop easily with 1sG:comp then say-rem and uinan do-rem co?
"What is easier for me to have said might happen?" (Lk 5:23, 1996)

Hale baa m meyi naani moren suekane na keen ka m nwe' nyo'og ne saalib yela laa.
Hālí báa m̀̀ mēní_ ø nāanı mōrı-n sūā-kánì nà kēe-n
Even not \(\mathbf{1 s G}\) self comp then have-rem way-rel.sg irr cause-rem

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)

Fun naani tum be'ed ka ba sigis uf ne kpisipkpil ka fu sin ka mor suguru, li su'um a bo?
Fón nāanı tóm bē'عd kà bà sīgısú_ \(f \quad n \bar{\varepsilon}\) kpísìnkpil 2SG:Comp then do bad and 3pl put.down 2sG.ob with fist:sg kà fù sín kà mכ̄r sūgurú, lì sùm án bó \({ }^{+} \varnothing\) ? and 25G be.silent and have forbearance, zinan 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)

Ka li su'um ye ya namis yaname naan nipid line dol suer... n gat yanam na tum line pu dol suere ka namis.
Kà lì sòm yé yà nā'mıs yānámí ø nāan nípìd línì And sinan be.good that 2PL suffer 2PL comp then do:dipf rel.inan d̄̄l sūөr... n gát yānám_ø nà tūm línì pū d̄̄l follow way:SG...SER pass:DIPF 2PL COMP IRR do REL.INAN NEG.IND follow sūөŕ́ \({ }^{+\varnothing}\) kà nā'mıs.
way:sG Neg and suffer.
"It is better that you suffer if you are doing what is right ... than that you do what is wrong and suffer." (1 Pet 3:17, 1996)

Ningbin naan be ka siig kae＇ka li a zaalim la，ala men ．．．
Nìn－gbín \(\varnothing\) nāan bé kà sīıg kā＇e kà lì án zāalím lā， Body－skin：sg comp then exist and spirit：sg neg．be and uinan 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 sכ̄＇nā＇mısíd tóòm－bàmmā námī－né \(+\varnothing\) ，
But neg．imp cause and 2plindf．an suffer：dipf deed－dem．del．pl pl－loc neg，
ón nāanı án nīn－kúv̀d ．．．
3AN：Comp then cop person－killer：sG．
＂But do not let any of you suffer for acts like these，whether as a murderer ．．．＂
（1 Pet 4：15，1996）

Nopir lem kae＇gaad nidi naan kpi o zuanam zugo．
Nう̀yır lém kā＇e＿ø gáàd nīdí＿ø nāan kpí
Love again neg．be ser pass person：sg comp then die
ò zưà－nàm zúgう \({ }^{+} \varnothing\) ．
3AN friend－pl upon neg．
＂There is no love greater than if a person dies for his friends．＂（Jn 15：13，1996）
wenne wuu saa naani iank ya nya＇ap n ti paae ya tuona la
wह̄n n \(\bar{\varepsilon}\) wōv sáa＿\(\varnothing\) nāanı iáñ̃k yà nyá＇aŋ
resemble with like rain：sG comp then jump 2PL behind
\(n\) tí páe＿yà tù̀ena lā
SER afterwards reach 2PL before．ADV ART
＂like when lightning leaps from East to West＂（Mt 24：27，1996）

Ba wenne zunzoŋ naani ve＇ed zunzop ne．
Bà wēn nē zúnzว̀ク \(\quad \varnothing\) nāanı vē＇ed zúnzว̀ク né．
3PL resemble with blind．person：sG comp then lead：DIPF blind．person：sg like．
＂They are like when a blind person leads a blind person．＂（Mt 15：14，1996）

Ka namisug ne＇ena wenne po＇a naani sa＇a ye o du＇a ne．
Kà nā＇mısúg nह̄＇pá wह̄n n̄̄ pư＇á \(\varnothing\) nāanı sā＇
And suffering dem．del：INAN resemble with woman：sG comp then strain
yé ò dư＇á \(n \bar{\varepsilon}\) ．
that 3an bear like．
＂This suffering is like when a woman labours to give birth．＂（Mt 24：8，1996）
wuu kunduna naan lusi ba men ne pe'es gbana n kpen' pe'esin.
wōv kúndòna_ø nāan lūsí_bà mēŋ n \(\bar{\varepsilon}\) p \(\overline{\text { ' }} \varepsilon\) s gbánà
like jackal:PL comp then wrap 3pl self with sheep:PL skin:PL
\(n\) kpèñ' \(\varepsilon\) s pz̄' \(\varepsilon\) sí-n.
ser enter sheep:pl-Loc.
"Like when jackals wrap themselves in sheepskins to go among sheep."
(Mt 7:15, 1996)

\subsection*{30.2 Open}

Conditional clauses without the Remoteness Marker \(n^{\varepsilon}\) or nāan( \()\) 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 pre-subject adjunct 31.1, 28.1.1. 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 tovma, o di'ed yoวd.
Nīd yá' tùm tūuma, ò di'əd yכ̄כd.
Person:sG if work:DIPF work, 3AN receive:DIPF pay.
"If a person works, he gets pay." (Rom 4:4)

Ka Kristo ya'a da po vo'טg kumine, alaa ti labasu la mכוֹlug la ane zaalim.
Kà Kristo yá' dà pū vō'vg kūmı-nદ́ \({ }^{+} \varnothing\), àláa_ tì làba-sùn
And Christ if tns neg.ind come.alive death-Loc neg, adv:thus 1PL news-good:sg lā móวlòg 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)

Fu ya'a kenna, fun on morim waad fukane ...
Fù yá' kēn nā, fūn j̄n mōrí_m̀ wāad fú-kánì ...
2SG if come:DIPF hither, 2SG.CNTR also have 1sG cold clothing-rel.sg ...
"When you come, bring my warm clothes that ..." (2 Tim 4:13)

Brog ya'a nie fo na wom o pian'ad.
Bēog yá' nie, fù ná wóm ò pìàñ'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."

Būn-píəlìg bé fù nīf lā púvgū-n. Fù yá' bう̀כd, tì ná
Thing-white:sg exist 2sg eye:sg Art inside:sg-Loc. 2sg if want, \(\mathbf{1 P L}\) IRR
yīis, kà fù ná nyyē súpā 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."

Fù yá' síàk, tì ná dīglí́_ \(f\).
2SG if agree, \(\mathbf{1 P L}\) IRR lay.down 2sG.OB.
"If you agree, we'll put you to bed. [i.e. admit you to hospital]"

Negative polarity with non-past reference in the yà'-clause:

M ya'a po kene, Supid la ku keєn ya ni naa.
\(\grave{M}\) yá' pū kēpé \({ }^{+} \varnothing\), sūpıd lā kú kéعñ~_yà nī náa \({ }^{+} \varnothing\).
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.
Sj̄' yá' kù tōm, j̄n dā díl +ø.
indf.an if neg.IRR work, 3AN.CNTR Neg.IMP eat neg.
"If anybody will not work, let him not eat." (2 Thess 3:10, 1976)

\subsection*{30.3 Hypothetical}

If the Remoteness Marker \(n^{\varepsilon}\) 30.1.1 occurs in the yà'-clause, it also occurs in the main clause. Here the Remoteness Marker has an effect similar to the nontemporal use of the preterite in English conditional constructions.

The particle nāan( \(ا\) ) does not occur in a yà'-clause. If it is also absent in the main clause, there is no contrary-to-fact implication; such main clauses usually have Irrealis Mood.

Wief ya'a sigin li ni, li zulun na paaen o salabir.
Wìəf yá' sīgí-n ì̀ nī, lì zùlon ná páa-n ò sàlıbır.
Horse:sg if descend-rem 3inan loc, zinan depth irr reach-rem 3an bridle:sg.
"If a horse went down in it, its depth would reach its bridle." (Rev 14:20, 1976)

Nobir ya'a yelin ye, on pu a nu'ug la zug, o ka' nipgbin nii, lin ku nyapin keen ka o ka' ningbin nii.
Nóbìr yá' yह̀l̄̄-n y \(\bar{\varepsilon}\), ón \(p \bar{u}\) án nú'ùg lā zúg,
Leg:sg if say-rem that 3AN:COMP NEG.IND COP hand:SG ART upon,
ò kā' nín-gbīn níl \({ }^{+} \varnothing\), līn kú nyāŋı-n_ \(\quad \varnothing\)
3AN NeG.be body-skin:SG LOC NEG, Dem.inan neg.IRR accomplish-rem Ser
\(k \bar{\varepsilon} \varepsilon\)-n kà ò kā' nín-gbīŋ níl \({ }^{+} \varnothing\).
cause-rem 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)

Ya ya'a aan zunzoos, ya pu morin taale.
Yà yá' āa-n zúnzכ̀כñs, yà pū mōrı-n táàll̄̄ \({ }^{+} \varnothing\).
2PL if cop-rem blind.person:PL, 2PL neg.ind have-rem fault:Sg neg.
"If you were blind, you wouldn't be guilty ." (Jn 9:41, 1976; 1996 ya ku moren)

\subsection*{30.4 Contrary-to-Fact}

If the main clause has nāan(ı) there is a contrary-to-fact implication:

Man ya'a pu kesn na tu'asini ba, ba naan ku morin taale.
Mān yá' pū k \(\bar{\varepsilon} \varepsilon-n ~ n a ̄ \_~ \varnothing ~ t o ́ ' a s i ̄-n i ́ ~ b a ̄, ~ b a ̀ ~ n a ̄ a n ~ k u ́ ~\)
1SG.CNTR if NEG.IND Come-rem hither ser talk-rem 3PL.ob, 3PL then neg.irr mכ̄rı-n táàll \(\bar{\varepsilon}{ }^{+} \varnothing\).
have-rem 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 Zugsכb one an na'atita'ar la dapuudir zugo.
Bà yá' dāa mỉi-ní_ İ, bà nāan kú kpā'a-n Zūg-sób ónì
3PL if tns know-rem binan.ob, 3pl then neg.irr fasten-rem head-one:sg rel:AN
àn ná'-tītā'ar lā dá-pōodá zùgう \({ }^{+} \varnothing\).
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'a ka'ane alaa, m naan ku yeline ya ye ...
Yà' kā'a-ní_ àlá, m̀ nāan kú yēlı-ní_ yā ȳ̄...
If Neg.be-rem adv:thus, \(\mathbf{1 S G}\) then Neg.IRR say-REM 2PL.OB that...
"If it were not so, I would not have told you that ..." (Jn 14:2)

Ya ya'a mi'in line na tisi ya sumbogusum zina nwa, li naan aan so'vm!
Yà yá' mīi-n línì nà tīsı yá súmbūgusím zīná ñwá,
2PL if know-rem rel.inan irr give 2PL.OB peace today this,
ì nāan āa-n súm!
3INAN then COP-REM good:Abstr.
"If you had known this day what would have brought you peace, that would have been good." (Lk 19:42)

Ya ya'a siakin Moses ya naan siakin man men.
Yà yá' sijàkī-n Moses, yà nāanı síákī-n mān mén.
2PL if believe-rem Moses, 2PL then believe-rem 1sG.cntr also.
"If you had believed Moses you'd have believed me too." (Jn 5:46)

Li ya'a aane \(m\) men ganir ka \(m\) tummin tuum kana, \(m\) naani di'edin nyood.
Lì yá' āa-ní_ m̀ mēŋ gáhìr kà m̀ tómmī-n tóv̀m-kàhā, 3INAN if cop-rem 1sg self choice and 1sG work:DIPF-Rem work-dem.del.sg, \(\dot{m}\) nāanı dỉədı-n nyว̄วd.
1sG then receive:DIPF-REm pay.
"If it had been my own choice that I did this work, I would be getting pay." (1 Cor 9:17, 1976)

Contrary-to-fact conditions in the past are also sometimes marked by combining the Irrealis Mood with past tense marking:

Bozugə Josua ya'a da tisini ba vo'usum zin'ig, Wina'am da kv Iem pian' dabis-si'a yعla ya'ase.
Bj̄ zúgj̄ Josua yá' dà tìsī-ní_ bā vō'usím zíñ'ìg, Wínà'am dá kù
Because Joshua if tns give-rem 3pl.ob resting place:sg, God tNs neg.IRR
lह̄m píāñ' dábìs-sỉa y 1 là yà'as \({ }^{+} \varnothing\).
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, but without a yà'-clause:

Ò dāa ná zāb ná'àb lā.
3AN tNS IRR fight chief:SG ART.
"He would have fought the chief" (but didn't)
WK confirmed this meaning, as against "He was going to fight the chief."

\section*{31 Ǹ-Clauses}

Kusaal transforms complete clauses into AdvPs or NPs by inserting the postsubject particle \(\grave{n}\). (For the realisation of the particle, see 8.2.2.1.1.) The \(n\) by itself is a complementiser, which turns the original clause "X" into an Absolute Clause 31.1 signifying "it being the fact that X." \(N\)-Clauses also form the basis of Kusaal Relative Clauses, though in the commonest type the complementiser particle has fused with a preceding demonstrative pronoun to create what is synchronically simply a relative pronoun 31.2.2.

All types of \(\grave{n}\)-Clause have independent tense marking (relative to the narrative timeline within a series of Sequential Clauses, however 28.3.2.)

They cannot use the Imperative Mood; Irrealis appears instead:

Yaname na mor sam si'a ane ye ya מכn taaba.
Yānámì ø nà mōr sām-sí'a á nē yé yà nóntāaba.
2PL COMP 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 have any pre-subject elements or be \(n\)-focussed, but Relative Pronouns are often preposed with kà 31.2.2.

If the \(\grave{n}\)-Clause has a negative Verbal Predicator, it only shows a final LF if the \(\grave{n}\)-Clause is itself clause-final in the superordinate clause:

Nīn-bánı pō dít ná kpī.
Person-rel.pl neg.ind eat:dipf irr die.
"People who don't eat will die." WK

M̀ ñý́ nīn-bánì pū dítā \({ }^{+} \varnothing\).
1sG see person-rel.pl neg.ind eat:DIPF neg.
"I've seen some people who don't eat."
\(\grave{N}\)-Clauses can contain other \(\grave{n}\)-Clauses, serial-verb constructions and subordinate clauses:
ban mi' ye biig la kpine la zug
bán mī ȳ̄ bīig lā kpín \(\bar{\varepsilon}\) lā zúg
3PL:COMP know that child:SG ART die foc Art upon
"because they knew that the child was dead" (Lk 8:53)

Paul \(n\) sob gbaun si'a \(n\) tis Efesus dim la nwa.
Paul ǹ sj̄b gbáun-sỉa \(n\) tís Efesus dím lā Ø n ñwá. Paul comp write book-indf.inan ser give Ephesus individual.plart ser this. "This is the letter Paul wrote to the Ephesians." (1996 NT heading)

Ka m tuuma lin ka \(m\) tum \(n\) tis Zugsob la ke ka yanam a yadda ninidib.
Kà m̀ tōoma lín kà m̀ tóm \(n\) tìs Zūg-sób lā
And 1sG work rel.inan and 1sg work ser give head-one:sg art
ké kà yānám án yáddā-nípìdıb.
cause and 2PL.CNTR COP assent-doer:PL.
"My actions which I did for the Lord led to you being believers."
(1 Cor 9:1, 1996)
dàu-kànı bj̀วdý́ ò záb nà'ab lā
man-rel.sg want that 3AN fight chief:SG ART
"the man who wants to fight the chief"

Ba mi' on daa tum si'em, on daa be ba sa'an sansa wusa, daadin [sic] ka o daa paae Asia so'olim la na sa.
Bà mì' ón dāa túm sỉəm ón dāa bé bà sā'an
3PL know 3AN:COMP tNs work:DIPF INDF.ADV 3AN:COMP TNS EXIST 3PL presence sānsá wūsa, dàa-lìn kà ò dāa pāe Asia sú'vlìm lā nā sá. time:pl all, day-rel.inan and 3AN tns reach Asia realm art hither ago. "They knew what he'd been doing all the time he'd been with them since the day he had arrived in the province of Asia" (Acts 20:18, 1976)

They can contain coordinated clauses and verb phrases:
dāun lá ǹ dāa \(k \bar{\varepsilon} \eta\) dá'ā-n, kà pư'ā lā dāa \(k \bar{\varepsilon} \eta\)
Man:sg ART COMP tns go market:SG-Loc and woman:SG ART tws go
pכ̄כg lā zúg
field:SG ART upon
"because the man went to market and the woman went to the farm" WK
mam pu sa'amidi ba la'ad, ka me pu diti ba ki la.
mán pū sáñ'amìdí_bà lā'ad, kà mé pū dítí_ 1SG:COMP NEG.IND spoil:DIPF 3PL goods:PL and also NEG.IND eat:DIPF bà kī láa \({ }^{+} \varnothing\).

3PL millet ART NEG.
"that I don't spoil their property or eat their millet" BNY p20
\(\grave{N}\)－Clauses are NPs or AdvPs and may take the article \(I^{+}+/\)，but they cannot take modifiers or post－determining pronouns．They can participate in forming larger NPs or AdvPs as pre－determiners，and may also themselves have pre－determiners：
```

ba diib n yit na'ateŋ la na zug
bà dīıb ǹ yīt ná'tēŋ lā nā zúg

```
3PL food comp emerge:DIPF king-land:sG ART hither upon
"because their food came from the king's land" (Acts 12:20, 1996)
Pa'alimi ti nidiba ayi' nwa fon gan sכ'
Pà'alımī tí nīdıbá àyí ñ⿰亻⿱㇒士口儿 fón gāā sכ̄'
Teach:Imp 1PL.OB person:PL num:two this 25G:COMP choose indf.AN
"Tell us which of these two people you have chosen" (Acts 1:24)

The article \(l \bar{a}^{+/}\)is not repeated a second time after an \(\grave{n}\)－Clause which ends in a NP with \(I^{+}+\)．

If the clause contains the VP－final particles nā\({ }^{+/}\)＂hither＂sà \({ }^{+}\)＂hence＂these may follow an article \(\mathrm{Ia}^{+/}\)belonging to the \(\grave{n}\)－Clause 23．7．
\(\grave{N}\)－Clauses，like other NPs／AdvPs，are coordinated with \(n \bar{\varepsilon}\)＂and＂\(k \bar{v} \cup / b \bar{\varepsilon} \varepsilon\)＂or．＂
．．．pa＇ali ba on daa nyє Zugsכb la suorin，ka o pian＇tis o si＇em， ne Saul n mכוכ Yesu yela ne sunkpi＇eun Damaskus tenin si＇em．
．．．pá＇alì＿bā ón dāa ñȳ Zūg－sób lā sūerí－n，kà ò
．．．teach 3pL．OB 3AN：COMP tns see head－one：sG ART road：sg－Loc and 3AN piāñ＇—ø tís•○＿ø sỉəm，n̄̄ Saul n mうَכl Yesu yélà speak ser give 3AN．OB indf．adv with Saul comp proclaim Jesus about n̄̄ sūñ－kpí＇òn Damaskus ténī－n sỉəm． with heart－strength Damascus land：sG－Loc Indf．adv
＂．．．informing them how he had seen the Lord on the road and He had spoken to him，and how Saul had preached boldly about Jesus in Damascus．＂
（Acts 9：27）

The first \(\grave{n}\)－Clause itself contains two subclauses linked by kà．

\subsection*{31.1 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 clause prior to the insertion of \(\grave{n}\) :

Dāu lā dāa záb nà'ab lā.
Man:sg ARt tns fight chief:sg art
"The man fought the chief."
dāu lá_ø dāa záb nà'ab lā
Man:sg Art comp tns fight chief:sg Art
"the man having fought the chief"

Absolute Clauses always take the article \(l \bar{a}^{+/}\).
The characteristic use of Absolute Clauses is as adverbs of circumstance or time. Like other adverbs, they have limited use as verb arguments, most often as the complement of àeñ \({ }^{\text {a }}\) "be", though occasionally as subjects:

Dine ks ka m a saalbiis zua la ane
mam pu sa'amidi ba la'ad ka me pu diti ba ki la.
Dìnı ké kà m̀ án sáàl-bïis zúá lā á nē mán
Rel.SG cause and 1sG cop smooth-child:pl friend:sg art cop foc 1sg:Comp
\(p \bar{u}\) sáñ'amìdí_bà lā'ad kà mé pū dítí_ bà kī láa \({ }^{+} \varnothing\).
NEG.IND spoil:DIPF 3PL goods:PL and also NEG.IND eat:DIPF 3PL millet ART NEG.
"What makes me a friend of human beings is
that I don't spoil their property or eat their millet." BNY p20

Kristo da kpii ti yela la ke ka ti ban noilim an si'em.
Kristo_ø dà kpìi_ tì yēlá lā ké kà tì bán
Christ comp tns die 1PL about art cause and 1pl realise
nว̀クılím_ \(\varnothing\) àn sỉəm.
love comp cop indf.adv
"Christ dying for us makes us understand what love is like." (1 Jn 3:16)

Absolute Clauses are accordingly not used as objects of verbs of perception or communication; either Relative Clauses with siəəm 31.2.1 or Content Clauses 29.3 appear in this function.

\subsection*{31.1.1 Time/Circumstance Adjuncts}

Absolute Clauses are the usual way of expressing past "when." They may occur as adjuncts in the pre-subject position of main clauses 28.1.1, or preposed with kà 33.2, or less commonly as adjuncts clause-finally. Kusaal is stricter than English in requiring constituent order to reflect event order (cf Serial VPs 26.1), so the clausefinal position is usually confined to cases where the Absolute Clause expresses a state of affairs rather than a single event:

J̄n dāa ñ yēt súnā, ón dāa án bílīa láa \({ }^{+} \varnothing\) ?
3AN.CNTR TNS see:DIPF good:ADv, 3AN:COMP 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 yélì_bā...
And 3PL:COMP eat:DIPF 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 meך ...
Kà bán yī lā, kà Zūg-sób máliāk níe ò m̄̄ŋ...
And 3PL:COMP emerge ART and head-one:sg angel:sg appear 3AN self
"After they had left, an angel of the Lord showed himself ..." (Mt 2:13, 1996)

Absolute Clauses with sādıgím "since, because" immediately following the complementiser-ǹ occur in the pre-subject adjunct position of a main clause 28.1.1 and express "reason why":

Tiname sagidim aan o biis la, ti da ten' \(\varepsilon s\)...

1PL COMP since COP 3AN child:PL ART, 1PL NEG.IMP think ...
"Since we are his children, we should not think ..." (Acts 17:29)

Wina'am Siig Sun sadigim tisi ti vum paal la, keli ka ti beilim dolne o boodim la.
Wínà'am Sí-sùn \(\varnothing\) sādıgím tísìtī vūm-páàl lā,
God spirit-good:sg comp since give 1pl.ob life-new:sg art
kèlí_ ø kà tì bèllím dכ̄l né ò bj̀วdım lā.
cause 2PL.sub and 1PL existence follow with 3AN will ART
"Since God's Holy Spirit has given us new life,
let our lives be in accord with his will." (Gal 5:25, 1996)

On sadigim niy ala la, o sid na tisi ti si'el mekama wusa la'am ne o.
J́n sādıgím nīŋ álá lā, ò sìd nà tīsı_tí sīəl
3AN:COMP since do adv:thus ART, 3AN truly IRR give 1PL.OB INDF.INAN
mékàma wōsa lá'àm né ò.
altogether all together with \(\mathbf{3 A N}\)
"Since he has done this, he will certainly give us everything together with him."
(Rom 8:32, 1976)

For Absolute Clauses with post-subject nāan(ı) see 30.1.2.

\subsection*{31.1.2 With Prepositions and Postpositions}

Absolute Clauses occur after hālí nē or hālí là'am nē "although"

Hali la'am ne on daa an yelsum wusa daan la
Hālí là'am nē ón dāa án yēl-súm wōsa dáàn lā
Even together with 3AN:COMP TNs cop matter-goodness:SG all possessor ART
"though he was the possessor of every blessing" (2 Cor 8:9)

Similarly after hālí n tì pāa ..."up until the time when ..." \(\underline{26.3}\)
\[
\begin{aligned}
& \text { hālí n tì pāa tīnámì_ } \quad \varnothing \quad \text { kūl } \\
& \text { Up.to SER afterwards reach 1PL }
\end{aligned}
\]

Before the postposition zūg/ "on account of", Absolute Clauses form reasonwhy AdvPs used as adjuncts:

Ka ba la'as taaba n deni nye Blestus one a na'ab Herod samanna'ab la n maal suer ye o nwe' na'ab nu'ug, ba diib n yit na'aten la na zug.
Kà bà lá'às tāaba \(n\) déyì ø ny \(\begin{gathered} \\ \text { Blestus }\end{gathered}\)
And 3PL gather each.other ser do.first ser see Blastus
ónì àn ná'àb Herod sāmán-nà'ab lā \(n\) máàl sūөr
rel.an cop king:sg Herod courtyard-chief:sg art ser make way:sg
yદ́ ò n nwé' nà'ab nú'ùg, bà dīıb ǹ yīt ná'-tह̄ך
that 3AN strike king:SG hand:SG, 3PL food comp emerge:DIPF king-country:sG
lā nā zúg.
ART hither upon
"They gathered together after first seeing Blastus, king Herod's chamberlain, to get him to make an agreement with the king, because their food came from the king's land." (Acts 12:20, 1996)

When they contain perfective forms, such Absolute Clauses may need to be preposed with kà 33.2 to match the word order to event order 22.2.1:

Mán ñ~ \(\quad\) 'g' dāu lā zúg kà police gbán'a_m.
1SG:COMP strike man:Sg ART upon and police seize \(\mathbf{1 S G} . \mathbf{o b}\).
"Because I struck the man the police arrested me."

It is commoner for causation to be simply implied by a pre-subject Absolute Clause or by a Sequential Clause construction:

Mán ñ~ \(\quad\) '̀' dāu lā, kà police gbáñ'a_m.
1sG:COMP strike man:SG ART and police seize 1SG.Ob.
"I having struck the man, the police arrested me."

M ñ \(W\) र́' dāu lā, kà police gbán'a_m.
1sG strike man:sg art and police seize 1SG.ob.
"I struck the man and the police arrested me."
\(y \bar{\varepsilon} l a ́+\) "concerning" appears after an Absolute Clause in section headings in the NT:

Jesus n kpen' Jerusalem la yela
Jesus ǹ kpèñ' Jerusalem lā yと́là
Jesus comp enter Jerusalem Art about
"[about] Jesus entering into Jerusalem."

The NT favours Absolute Clauses alone as picture captions:

Ban meed yir "A house being built"
Bán mèzd yïr
3PL:COMP build:DIPF house:sG

Paul n sobid gbon nwa "Paul writing this letter"
Paul ǹ sj̄bıd gbáung ñwá
Paul comp write:DIPF letter:sG this

\subsection*{31.2 Relative Clauses}

Kusaal Relative Clauses are internally headed, so that the antecedent is included in the Relative Clause itself. The antecedent is either a pronoun or has a pronoun as a post-determiner. Relative Clauses fall into two types: those where the antecedent is initial within the Relative Clause, which use Relative Pronouns, and those where it is not initial, which normally use Indefinite Pronouns. The Relative Clause subject is followed by \(\grave{n}\) in the type where the antecedent is not initial; in the initial-antecedent type this was also the case originally, but synchronically such clauses are most straightforwardly treated as headed by unitary Relative Pronouns.

Relative Clauses are normally restrictive in meaning, except when the construction is appositional 31.2.3, and usually even then. Compare 29.2 on Supplement kà-clauses, used typically with a non-restrictive relative meaning.

\subsection*{31.2.1 Non-Initial Antecedents}

When the incorporated antecedent is not initial, it is in the great majority of cases an Indefinite Pronoun, or has an Indefinite Pronoun as post-determiner. Noninitial antecedents can be direct objects, VP complements or adjuncts:
```

J́n yèl sī'əl lā kā' sídāa +ø.

```
3AN:COMP say ind.inan art neg.be truth neg.
"What he says is not true" SB
dāu lá_ø zàb nà'-sכ̄' lā
man:SG ART COMP fight chief-indf.AN ART
"the chief whom the man fought"
nà'ab lá_ \(\varnothing\) zàb sīəba lā
chief:sG ART COMP fight indf.pL ART
"those whom the chief fought"

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:comp send indf.an art neg.irr surpass rel.an send ban.ob art neg.
"The 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 sj̄b gbáun-sìa \(n\) tís Efesus dím lā
Paul comp write letter- indf.inan ser 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:COMP know indf.INAN now cop foc small.ADv
"What I know now is small." (1 Cor 13:12)
nà'ab lá_ø kpì sān-sí'a lā
chief:sg Art comp die time-INDF.INAN ART
"(at) the time the chief died"

Locative Relative Clauses headed by \(s i{ }^{\prime}{ }^{\prime} l^{\mathrm{a}}\) are frequent in "where, whither" senses; neither the pronoun nor the Relative Clause have the locative particle:

Fù kén fón bj̀วd sī'əl.
2SG go 2SG:COMP want INDF.INAN.
"You went wherever you wanted." cf Jn 21:18.
biig la \(n\) be si'el la zugin
bïig lá ǹ bè sỉəl lā zúgū-n
child:SG ART COMP EXIST INDF.INAN ART head-LOc.
"over where the child was" (Mt 2:9, 1976)

Objects of Invariable Verbs are not usually relativised using kà-preposed Relative Pronouns. (Kà-preposing is unusual in general with such objects 33.2.)

Yaname na mor sam si'a anc ye ya מכn taaba.
Yānámì ø nà mōr sām-sí'a á nē yé yà nóntāaba.
2PL COMP 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)

Examples with preposing do occur 31.2.2; however, as with kà-preposing generally, this is probably ungrammatical with predicative complements.

Thus always e.g.

M mi' fun an so'
"I know who you are." (Lk 4:34)
M mí' fún àn sכ̄'.
1sG know 2sG:COMP COP INDF.AN

Tiig walaa bigisid lin an tisi'a.
Tìıg wélàa_ø bìgısıd lín àn tí-sỉa.
Tree:sg fruit:PL SER show:IMPF 3INAN:COMP COP tree-IndF.INAN.
"It's the fruit of the tree that shows what tree it is." (Mt 12:33)

Si' \(\partial m^{\mathrm{m}}\), the form of the indefinite pronoun system with the mass \(m^{m}\) Class suffix, is frequent in adverbial use as "somehow" and also as indefinite quantifier "some amount." Kusaal frequently uses manner-adverbs as predicative complements 23.2.1. Accordingly, relative clauses with si'əm are common as objects of verbs of cognition, reporting, and perception:

Kristo da kpii ti yela la ke ka ti baŋ nכמilim an si'em.
Kristo_ø dà kpìi_ tì yz̄lá lā ké kà tì bán
Christ comp tns die \(\mathbf{1 p L}\) about art cause and 1pl realise
nว̀מılím_ø àn sỉəm.
love comp Cop indf.adv
"Christ dying for us makes us understand what love is like." (1 Jn 3:16)

The article \(\bar{a}^{+/}\)has its usual function with si'əm Relative Clauses:

M̀ mí' mán nà nīp sỉəm.
1SG know 1SG:COMP IRR do INDF.ADV.
"I know what to do."

M̀ mí' mán nà nīn sỉəəm lā.
1SG know 1SG:COMP 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 \(s i{ }^{i} \partial m\) and past tense marking have \(l \bar{a}+/ ; 75 \%\) lacking \(l \bar{a}+/\) have Irrealis Mood. Cf the two standing expressions
ón bj̀วd sỉəm "as he wishes"
3AN:COMP want INDF.ADV
lín àn sỉəm lā "as things are"

Yદ̀ \(\left.\right|^{\varepsilon}\) "say, tell" tends to take a sī'əm 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 \(y\) ह̀ \(\cdot \bar{O}\) _ \(\varnothing\) bán nìn \(s i ’ ə m\) lā.
3PL say 3AN.OB 3PL:COMP do INDF.ADV ART
"They told him what they'd done"

Bà nà yēlıf fún nà nīp \(f i ̄ ə m\).
3PL IRR tell 2SG.OB 2SG:COMP IRR do INDF.ADV.
"They'll tell you what to do."

Pà'al \({ }^{\varepsilon}\) "teach, inform", surprisingly, typically takes a Relative Clause object without lā:

Bà pà'al•ō bán nìn sỉəm.
3PL inform 3AN.OB 3PL:COMP do INDF.ADV.
"They informed him of what they'd done."

Other verbs taking a si'əm Relative Clause as an object are

Gàad \({ }^{\varepsilon}\) "pass, surpass" in comparing actions:

Mam tum bedegu gaad ban tom si'em la.
Mām tóm bédugū Ø gáàd bán tòm sỉəm lā.
1SG.CNTR work much SER pass 3PL:COMP work INDF.ADV ART
"I've worked much harder than (how) they have." (2 Cor 11:23)

Gbān \({ }_{\sim} e^{+/}\)"catch" is used with a sī’əm Relative Clause idiomatically for "decide what to do":

M gbáñ'e mán nà nīn sỉəm.
1SG seize 1SG:COMP IRR do INDF.ADV.
"I've decided what to do."

With verbs of doing a \(s \upharpoonright\) ’ \(ə m\) Relative Clause can be a manner-adverb:

Bà nìn ón yèlı_bā sỉəm lā.
3PL do 3AN:COMP tell 3PL.OB INDF.ADV ART.
"They did as he'd told them."
which could answer Bà nìp bó? or Bà nìn àlá? "What/how did they do?"
Like other AdvPs si'əm Relative Clauses can be verb subjects:

Man nopi ya si'em la ane bedego.
Mán nخ̀nıyā sīəəm lā á nē bédugū.
1SG:COMP love 2PL.OB INDF.ADV ART COP FOC much.
"How much I love you, is a lot." (2 Cor 7:3, 1976)

Sア’əm Relative Clauses occur often as objects of wōv "like" and \(w \bar{\varepsilon} n^{n a / ~ " r e s e m b l e " ~}\)

Ò zว̀t wōvbúpù \(\varnothing\) zว̀t sỉəm lā.
3AN run:DIPF like donkey:SG COMP run:DIPF INDF.ADV ART
"He runs like a donkey (runs.)"
...ka ya na ke ka nidib dıl man wov ziiggba'adibi gban'ad zimi si'em la.
...kà yà ná ké kà nīdıb d̄̄l mān wōv zīin-gbán'adìb_ Ø
...and 3PL IRR cause and person:PL follow 1sG.CNTR like fish-catcher:PL comp
gbān'ad zīmí sīəm lā.
catch:DIPF fish:PL INDF.ADV ART
"... you will make people follow me like fishermen catch fish." (Mt 4:19)

Hālí (là'am) n̄ "although", alongside its use with Absolute Clauses 31.1.2 can take a \(\boldsymbol{\iota}\) ’əm Relative Clause in the sense "despite how...":
hali ne man daa sobi tisi ya si'em la
hālí nē mán dāa sj̄bı_ø tísì yā sīəm lā
even with 1SG:COMP tNS write SER give 2PL.OB indf.ADV ART
"despite how I wrote to you" (2 Cor 7:12)

Occasionally determiners other than Indefinite Pronouns can form non-initial antecedents of Relative Clauses: for example, ordinal expressions:

Paul n sob gbaun yiiga daan \(n\) tis Korint dim la nwa.
Paul ǹ sj̄b gbáun yīigá dāan \(n\) tís
Paul comp write letter:sg firstly owner:sg SER give
Korint dím lā_ø ñwá.
Corinth individual.pL ART SER this.
"This is the first letter which Paul wrote to the Corinthians." (NT heading)

Perhaps parallel, but with the deictic ñwà+ "this" instead of a determiner, is

Zugsob yel ye, Hali ne man voe nwa...
Zūg-sכ́b yél yē, Hālí n̄̄ mán vōe nwá ...
head-one:sg say that even with 1sG:comp be.alive this ...
"The Lord says: As I live .." (Rom 14:11)

\subsection*{31.2.2 Initial Antecedents}

The commonest type of Relative Clause begins with a Relative Pronoun or an NP with a Relative Pronoun as a post-determiner. 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 complementiser, which is itself invariably realised \(\varnothing\) in this case.
```

M ny\varepsiloń dáu-kànı \varnothing zàb nà'ab lā.

```

1sG see man-dem.sg comp 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 pre-determiner 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 Paulb\varepsiloń lā
house-dem.sg and isg.cntr Paul exist art
"the house where I, Paul, am" (Rom 16:23, 1976)
on buudi ka Jew dim kis
̀̀n 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
gbàun-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 nipiri pu zu'oe
dàu-kànı yàddā-nípìrı ø pō zú'e lā
man-rel.sG assent-doing:SG COMP NEG.IND become.great ART
"a man whose faith is not great..." (Mt 14:31)
the complementiser 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 + Complemetiser combinations, and where sources use the historically expected forms j̀n 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 nyé 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. Complementiser- \(\grave{n}\) is ne in Toende, and Serial-n is segmentally, at least, ø. Thus Abubakari 2011 (using her orthography):
\(N\) sa nye buraa kanne da da'a gbana la.
"I saw the man who bought the book."

With ne before \(k a\) in relative clauses:

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."

If the antecedent is the subject within a Relative Clause，or a pre－modifier of the subject，a Relative Pronoun is the only possible construction：
```

bànı zàb nà'ab lā "those who fought the chief"
REL.PL fight chief:SG ART
M nyý dáur-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 gbaunon line an nyovopaal dim gbaup la
nīn－bánì yōdá sכ̄b Pē＇－bíl lā gbáunū̄－n línì
person－rel．pL name：PL write Lamb：SG ART book：SG－LOC rel．INAN
àn ñ⿰亻⿱㇒⿻二亅㇒
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）

It is also the only possible way to relativise an indirect object，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 the corresponding gap within the relative clause，unless it is an inanimate－gender verb object：

One ka ba tis o ka li zu＇oe，ba me mor puten＇عr ye o na lebis line zu＇oe．
J̀nı kà bà tís•ò＿ø kà lì zú＇e，bà mè mòr
rel．an and 3pl give 3AN．OB and zinan become．much，3pL also have
pó－tèn＇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）

Búraa sō dāa bệ ànīa，ôn kà mān néōn dāa túm lā．
Būrá－sō＇dāa bé ànínā，j̀n kà mān n̄ \(\bar{\varepsilon} n\) dāa tóm lā．
Man－indf．An tns exist adv：there，rel．an and isg with 3AN tns work：DIPF 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 sō＇e Damaskus lā person－rel．sg and king：sg Aretus cause and 3an own Damascus art ＂the person whom King Aretus had caused to possess Damascus＂（2 Cor 11：32）
nimbane ka ya ten'es ye ba ane tuongatib la
nīn-bánì kà yà tēñ'عs yé bà à nē túèn-gātíb lā
person-rel.pl and 2PL think that 3PL COP FOC ahead-passer:PL ART
"those whom you consider to be leaders" (Gal 2:6)
line [1996 lin] ka Kristo bood ye ti pian' la
lìnı kà Kristo bój̀d yé tì pīāñ 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 pre-determiner 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] poug ka o mor la
bì-kànı póvòg kà ò mōr lā
child-rel.sg belly:sg and 3an have art
"the child which she is pregnant with" (Mt 1:20)
("child whose pregnancy she has")

Direct objects, complements and adjuncts may also be relativised by kàpreposing, in this case alongside constructions with non-initial antecedents 31.2.1. There is usually no resumptive pronoun in these cases (compare null anaphora in Verb Phrases 23.1):

Gbaup kane ka Jerusalem kpeenmnam daa sob la nwa.
Gbàun-kànı kà Jerusalem kpéènñm-nàm dāa s̄̄b lā_ø ñ nwá.
Letter-rel.sg and Jerusalem elder-PL tns write ART SER this.
"This is the letter that the elders of Jerusalem wrote."
(heading, Acts 15:23, 1996)
nà'-kàn kà dāu lā záb lā
chief-rel.sG and man:SG ART fight ART
"the chief whom the man fought"
bàn kà nà'ab lā záb lā "those whom the chief fought."
ret.pl and chief:SG ART fight ART
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)
yعltoدd ayวpэi bans ka maliaknama ayวpoi mor la
ȳ̄l-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)
sān-kán kà nà'ab lā kpí lā
time-rel.sg and chief:sg art die art
"at the time the chief died"

A resumptive pronoun can occur:
niykane [1996 niykan] ka ba gban'e o la
nīn-kánì kà bà gbán'•O_ø lā
person-rel.sg and 3pl seize 3AN.ob art
"a person whom they have seized" (Acts 25:16)

It is not clear whether there is anything but a stylistic difference between Relative Clauses with non-initial antecedents and those with kà-preposed Initial Antecedents in cases where either would have been permissible. In particular, despite the use of Indefinite Pronouns as determiners, non-initial antecedents can be definite old information, e.g.

Ka bugum dit tey tita'asi'a la nyכ'כs dot ne agol sana dine ka' benne.
Kà bùgóm_ø dit tén-tītá'-sỉa lā nyó'j̀s dòt né
And fire comp eat:DIPF land-big-IndF.INAN ART smoke ascend:DIPF FOC àgól sāŋá 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 ten tita'ar "the great city of Babylon" (Rev 18:21)

There is no focus or foregrounding sense with kà-preposing in Relative Clauses. Kà-preposing in subordinate clauses is seen only here.

Relative clauses with locative reference do not take the locative \(n \bar{\imath}^{+/} \underline{20.3}\) :
yikan ka mam Paul be la yidaan
yī-kán kà mām Paulbé 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)

\subsection*{31.2.3 Appositional Relative Clauses}

Written materials frequently show constructions with a human-reference NP followed by a Relative Clause introduced by one or banc. Before one, the preceding word never appears as a combining form. Examples may even show antecedents with a coordinate structure, which must represent appositional constructions:

Mam Paul ne Timoti bane an Yesu Kristo tomtumnib la sכbid gbaun kaŋa
Mām Paul nē Timoti bánì àn Yesu Kristo tóm-tūmníb
1sG.cntr Paul with Timothy rel.pl cop Jesus Christ work-worker:PL
lā sj̄bıd gbáun-kànā...
art write:DIPF letter-Dem.Dei.sG ...
"I, Paul, and Timothy, who are servants of Jesus Christ, are writing this letter." (Phil 1:1)

On apposition elsewhere with human reference see 19.5 19.8.1.5.
Appositional constructions are necessary, regardless of gender, when the antecedent cannot appear as a combining form, e.g. with coordinate structures or quantifiers (compare 19.5 15.2) or after a form with the Locative Liaison Enclitic:
```

sanlima laas ay>pi line ka Wina'am one be saja line ka' ben la sunpezn
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

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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 gbaugun line an nyovopaal dim gbaup la
nīn-bánì yūdá sj̄b PĒ'-bíl lā gbáunū-n línì
person-rel.pL name:PL write Lamb:SG ART book:SG-LOC rel.inan
àn nyjó-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)

An appositional relative clause may follow a noun with a post-determining pronoun of its own:
kokor kana lini yi arazana ni la na
kùkj̄r-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)

Appositional clauses with Demonstratives as relatives are usually restrictive. Relative Clauses with non-initial antecedents may also be used in apposition:

Ka Yesu ken Nazaret, ban da ugus o ten si'a la.
Kà Yesu kēŋ Nazaret bán dà ūgus•ó_ \(\varnothing\) tèn-sì'a lā.
And Jesus go Nazareth 3pl:comp tns raise 3an.ob land-indf.inan art.
"And Jesus went to Nazareth, where he was raised." (Lk 4:16)

\subsection*{31.2.4 Article with Relative Clauses}

With relative pronouns other than \(s i \quad \partial m\) the function of the article after a relative clause is straightforward; of necessity, absence of the article also does duty for what with nouns is expressed by indefinite post-determining pronouns.
J̄n sכ̄b á \(n \bar{\varepsilon}\) dáúu-kànı sà k̄ \(n a ̄\) sú'ès lā.

3AN.CNTR individual.SG COP FOC man-rel tns come hither yesterday art
"That one's the man who came yesterday."

Man-rel.pl want that 3pl see \(\mathbf{2 S G} . \mathbf{o b}\) 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 nē Sīıg
rec.an bear with spirit:sg
one tomi m la na
j̀nı tòmı \(m\) lā nā
rel.an send 1sG.ob art hither

\section*{32 Negation}

\subsection*{32.1 Negation of Clauses}

Negation of clauses is achieved by using a negative marker particle in the Verbal Predicator 22.5 along with a clause-final Negative Prosodic Clitic 8.1.

Ti pu bכدd ye dau kaŋa aan ti na'aba.
Tì pū bj́j̀d yē dáu-kàpā áañ tì nà'abā +ø.
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)
\(P \bar{u}\) negates the Indicative, as above; Imperative is negated with dā:
\(\operatorname{Dìm} n \bar{\varepsilon}\) 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."

The negative particle ku replaces the positive Irrealis marker nà:

Amaa man pian'ad la kv maligim gaade.
Àmáa m̀ piàñ'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)

\subsection*{32.1.1 Negative Verbs}

There are four negative verbs, functionally equivalent to negative particle + verb: they are followed by a clause final Negative Prosodic Clitic, and they do not undergo tone overlay from Independency Marking 22.6.1.1.
\(\boldsymbol{m i ̀ t}\) (always imperative) "see that it doesn't happen that ..." is construed with a following kà-clause of purpose 29.1. In address to more than one person it may or may not have the usual postposed 2 pl subject enclitic \({ }^{\text {ya }}\) : mitī.

Mit ka ya maal ya tuumsuma nidib tuon ye ba gosi yaa.
Mit kà yà máàl yà tòvm-sòma nīdıb túèn
neg.Let.IMP and 2PL do 2PL deed-good:PL person:PL before
yદ́ bà gว̄sí yáa \({ }^{+} \varnothing\).
that 3PL look. at 2PL.OB NEG.
"See that you don't do your good deeds in front of people so they'll look at you." (Mt 6:1, 1976)

In KB, this word appears throughout as invariant mid, without a following Negative Clitic: Mid ka ya maali ya tovm soma nidib tuon ye ba gos.

Mit also appears with a NP object in the sense "beware of ..."; it is not followed by the Negative Prosodic Clitic in that case:

Miti ziri nodi'esidib bane kene ya sa'an na la.
Mittī ø zīrínj̀-díəsìdıb bánì kēnní_ yà sā'an nā lā.
Beware 2PL.sUB lie mouth-receiver:PL Rel.pL come:DIPF 2PL among hither ART.
"Beware of false prophets who come among you." (Mt 7:15, 1996)
\(z^{\mathbf{i}}{ }^{\text {'+ }}\) "not know" normally replaces negative particle + mi':

Bùn-bāñ~'ad zī' ȳ t̄̄ŋ túllā \({ }^{+} \varnothing\).
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, however:

M biig Solomon ane dasan, ka po mi' wov lin nar si'em.
\(\dot{M}\) bïig Solomon á nē dá-sāŋ, kà pū mīi
1sG child:sg Solomon foc cop young.man:sg, and neg.ind know wūv lín nār sīəmm \({ }^{+} \varnothing\).
how 3inan:COMP be.proper indf.adv neg.
"My son Solomon is young, and does not know how things ought to be."
(1 Chronicles 22:5)
kā'ee "not be, not have" appears as kā' in close connexion with a following word 8.5.3. It is the negative to both "be" verbs, àena "be something/somehow" and bè \({ }^{+}\)
 quite common; pū áeñ is rare but can be found in contrastive contexts like

Mānı_ ø án dữ'átà àmáa fūn pū ányā \({ }^{+} \varnothing\).
1SG.CNTR SER COP doctor:sg but 2SG.CNTR NEG.IND COP NEG.
"I'm a doctor, but you're not."

Examples:

Dāu lā kā' dóכgū-n láa \({ }^{+} \varnothing\).
Man:sg art neg.be room:sg-Loc art neg.
"The man is not in the room."

Dāu lā kā' bïiga \({ }^{+} \varnothing\).
Man:sg art neg.have child:sg neg.
"The man hasn't got a child."

Dāu lā kā' ná'abā \({ }^{+} \varnothing\). "The man isn't a chief."
Man:sg art neg.be chief:sg neg.

Dāu lā kā'e \({ }^{+} \varnothing\). "The man isn't there."
Man:sg art neg.be neg.

Dāu kā'e dóvgū-n láa \({ }^{+} \varnothing\).
Man:SG neg.be room:sG-LoC ART neg.
"There's no man in the room."

Pư'ā lā mór bīig àmáa dāư 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."
\(\boldsymbol{k a ̀ ' a s ı g \overline { \varepsilon }}\) (LF always, as the word only appears clause finally) "not exist"
Ò biïg ká'asìgē \({ }^{+}\). \(\quad\) "She has no child."
3AN child neg.exist neg.

\subsection*{32.2 Negative Raising}

Negative Raising occurs in a way generally analogous to negative raising in English. It is normal with verbs taking purpose-clauses as complements:

Ti pu bood ye dau kana aan ti na'aba.
Tì pū bój̀d ȳ̄ dáu-kànā áañ tì nà'abā \({ }^{+} \varnothing\).
1PL NEG.IND want that man-Dem.DEI.SG COP 1PL king:SG NEG.
"We don't want this man to be our king." (Lk 19:14)

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

It occurs with a Content Clause following \(t \bar{\varepsilon} n{ }_{\sim}^{\prime} \varepsilon s^{\varepsilon /}\) "think":

Tiname sagidim aan o biis la, ti da ten'es ye Wina'am bellim nwene bada bane ka ninsaal nok sanlima beє anzurifa beє kuga, ten'esi maal ne o nu'usع.
Tīnámì_ø sādıgím áañ~o biīs lā, tì dā tēñ' \(\varepsilon\) y ȳ̄
1PL COMP Since COP 3AN child:PL ART 1PL NEG.IMP think that
Wínà'am béllím wēn n̄ bádà bànì kà nīn-sáàl
God existence resemble with idol:pl rel.pl and person-smooth:sG

take gold or silver or stone:pl SER think SER make
nદ́ ò nú'us̄̄ \({ }^{+} \varnothing\).
with 3AN hand:PL NEG.
"Since we are his children, we should not think that God's existence resembles idols which a human being thinks to make by hand using gold or silver or stone." (Acts 17:29)

Contrast Content Clauses after \(m i^{+}\)"know" or bà \(\eta^{\varepsilon}\) "realise":

Bùn-bāñ'ad zī' ȳ̄ tē 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."

Ka o ba' ne o ma pu ban ye o kprlim 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)
ka o lé po baŋ ye li ane one.
kà ò lદ́ع pū báp y乏́ lì à nē כ̄nع \({ }^{+} \varnothing\).
And zan but neg.ind realise that binan cop foc ban.Cntr neg.
"but she didn't realise it was him." (Jn 20:14)

Negative raising similarly occurs with Supplement Clauses attached to a NP as an anchor 29.2, when the anchor is the object of a verb like \(n y \bar{\varepsilon}^{+}\)"see, find" used in the sense "see as...":
\(\grave{M}\) dāa \(p \bar{u} \quad \underset{\sim}{n} y \bar{\varepsilon}\) dāu lá kà ò án ná'abā \({ }^{+} \varnothing\).
ISG tns neg.ind see man:sg art and zan cop chief:sg neg.
"I didn't see the man as a chief." KT

It is not seen after verbs expressing existence; so in particular with constituent negation constructions involving clefting \(\underline{32.4}\) and a formally subordinate Supplement Clause:

Di len ka' fun yel si'el la zug, ka ti nip o yadda.
Lì lèm kā' fún yèl sỉəl lā zúg kà
zinan again Neg.be 2sG:Comp say indf.inan art upon and
tì níy•ò_ø yáddáa +ø.
1PL do 3AN.OB assent neg.
"It is no longer because of what you said that we believe in him." (Jn 4:42)

Lì kā' mān bïig kà fù ñ~wé' \(\bar{\varepsilon}{ }^{+} \varnothing\).
zinan neg.be 1SG.CNTR child:sg and 2sG beat neg.
"It's not my child that you've beaten."

\subsection*{32.3 Position of the Negative Prosodic Clitic}

The Negative Prosodic Clitic 8.1 normally appears at the end of the clause containing the negated verb, passing over all subordinate clauses:

Ti pu bood ye dau kana aan ti na'aba.
Tì pū bój̀d ȳ̄ dáu-kànā áañ tì nà'abā \({ }^{+} \varnothing\).
1PL Neg.ind want that man-dem.dei.sG cop 1PL king:SG neg.
"We don't want this man to be our king." (Lk 19:14)

Subordinate clauses only fall within the semantic scope of the negation when the main clause verb induces negative raising 32.2.

However, if a construction which by default would imply negative raising occurs exceptionally with the subordinate clause excluded from the negative scope, the Negative Prosodic Clitic is placed before the subordinate clause:
on nye ka Yesu pu pie o nu'use ka nyaan di la.
ón nyé kà Yesu pū píe ò nú'usé \({ }^{+} \varnothing\) kà
3AN:COMP see and Jesus neg.IND wash 3AN hand:PL NEG and
ñāaan dí lā
then eat ART
"when he saw that Jesus didn't wash his hands before eating"
(Lk 11:38, 1996: KB on nye ka Yesu pu pie o nu'us ka nyaan di la.)

Nidib be ka pu tum si'ela ye ba a popielim dim, ka kudun nin Wina'am one ke ka tuumbe'ed dim lieb popielim dim o tuon la yadda.
Nīdıb bé kà pū tóm sỉəla \({ }^{+} \varnothing\) yé bà án
person:PL exist and neg.ind work:DIPF IndF.INAN NEG that 3PL COP
pú-pìalım dím, kà kūdım níp Wínà'am
inside-whiteness individual.pL and ever do God
ónì ké kà tòvm-bē'عd dím líàb
rel.an cause and work-bad:pl individual.pl become
pò-pìəlım dím ò tù̀n lā yáddā.
inside-whiteness individual.pl 3AN before Art assent.
"There are people who haven't done anything that they become blessed, but have believed in the God who causes sinners to become blessed before him." (Rom 4:5, 1976)

The Negative Clitic is dropped at the end of \(\grave{n}\)-Clauses containing a negative unless they are themselves clause final in the main clause, and also before the article \(1 \overline{a ̄}^{+/}\):
m bi'emnam bane pu bכ̛d ye \(m\) an na'abi su'oe ba la
m̀ bì'əm-nàm bánì pū bj́j̀d yé m̀ án ná'abì ø sú'ט_bā lā
1SG enemy-PL REL.PL NEG.IND want that 1SG COP king:SG SER 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 nih si'ela, o pu'usim dכog la na lieb zaalim.
Bà yá' pū níg sỉəəla \({ }^{+} \varnothing\), ò pù'usım dój̀g lā
3PL if NEG.IND do INDF.AN NEG 3AN worship house:SG ART
ná līəb zāalím.
ire become empty:Abstr.
"If they don't do anything, her temple will become of no account." (Acts 19:27)

Apparent exceptions in the NT seem all to involve yà' clauses ending in words with final vowels or final \(-m\), and probably do end in the Negative Clitic in reality.

With clauses with two VPs coordinated with \(b \bar{\varepsilon} \varepsilon / k \bar{v} v\) "or", if the first VP is negated with the scope extending over both VPs, the Negative Clitic ends the whole clause and may optionally precede the \(b \bar{\varepsilon} \varepsilon / k \bar{v} v\) also.

\subsection*{32.4 Constituent Negation}

Clefting is the usual way of achieving constituent negation, using the patterns

Li 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 ..."

For example:

Sכ' kae na nyapi dol zugdaannam ayi'...

indf.AN Neg.be Ser irr prevail SER follow head-owner:PL num:two ...
"Nobody can serve two masters." (Mt 6:24)

Sogia so' kae' n tum ka yood o mena.
Sógi̇à-sכ̄' kā'e \(n\) túm kà yכ̄כd ò mēyá \({ }^{+} \varnothing\).
Soldier-indf.an neg.be ser work:dipf and pay:dipf 3AN self neg.
"No soldier works and pays for himself." (1 Cor 9:7, 1976)

Lì kā' mān bïig kà fù nu~wé' \(\bar{\varepsilon}{ }^{+} \varnothing\).
binan neg.be 1Sg.CNTR child:sg and 2sg beat neg.
"It's not my child that you've beaten."

Another method is to use the particle báa 21.2 (Hausa bâa "not exist") as báa + NP extraposed from a negated clause:

Bà pū \(k \bar{\varepsilon}\) náa \({ }^{+} \varnothing\), báa yīnní.
3PL neg.ind come hither neg, not one.
"They didn't come, not one."

Báa yīnní can be used as a NP, or as a dependent following a NP head. The meaning is "not one", with a negative concord of the clause Verbal Predicator, e.g.

Amaa ba pu nyani nye line tu'al baa yinne.
Àmáa bà pū ny \(y\) āpı Ø ny \(\left.\begin{array}{c} \\ \text { línì tù'al [ } \\ \\ \varnothing\end{array}\right]\) báa yīnní.
But 3pl neg.ind prevail ser 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 pō yél ȳ̄ ón mōr
and person:sg not one neg.ind say that 3AN:Comp have
sīəl lā, う̄nı ø sú'U_líl +ø.
ind.inan art ban.cntr ser own binan.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.
Fù dō'adıb báa yīnní kā'é kà ò yō'ur búèn àláa \({ }^{+} \varnothing\).
2SG relative:PL not one NEG.BE and 3AN name:sG call:DIPF ADv:thus NEG.
"Not one of your relatives is named thus." (Lk 1:61)

Relative clauses can also be used for constituent negation:

Da mor nowr yinne ne bane ka' yadda nipidib la ye ya nip si'ela.
Dā mכ̄r nכ̄כr yīnní nē bánì kā' yáddā-nípìdıb lā neg.imp have mouth:sg one with rel.pl neg.be assent-doer:plart yદ́ yà níp sỉəla \({ }^{+} \varnothing\).
that 2PL do indf.INAN NEG.
"Do not agree with those who are not believers to do anything." (2 Cor 6:14)

\section*{33 Information Packaging}

\subsection*{33.1 Focus: Overview}

The term "Focus" is used significantly differently in different grammars, and cross-linguistically it is not clear that there is even a fundamental common core to the concept. Apart from the theoretical challenges, the matter is difficult to investigate in practical terms. I had little acquaintance with these issues when I had access to Kusaal speakers, and it is not easy to remedy this retrospectively from my limited data. Much of this section is therefore very tentative.

As a starting point, I adopt the formulation from Lambrecht 1994:
"[Focus] is the UNPREDICTABLE or pragmatically NON-RECOVERABLE element in an utterance. The focus is what makes the utterance into an assertion."

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 Huddleston and Pullum, p1424, foregrounded elements in English need not be focussed.

Two syntactic devices in Kusaal relate to Focus: subject focussing with Serialiser-n 33.1.1, and the use of the particle \(n \bar{\varepsilon}^{+/}\)33.1.2. Clefting constructions with the clause linker kà and corresponding ellipted types relate to foregrounding rather than Focus 33.2, 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 \(l \bar{a}^{+/} 19.3\) interacts with the focus mechanisms described below.

\subsection*{33.1.1 Subject Focus: Serialiser-n}
\(N\)-clefting uses a serial-verb construction in the sense of a relative clause with the subject as antecedent, after a main clause with \(L \grave{i}\) 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 meŋ ningbinaa. Li ane o pu'a so'oe li.

Kà dāun mé pū súv ò mēp nín-gbīnáa \({ }^{+} \varnothing\).
And man:sg also neg.ind own 3AN self body-skin:pl neg.
Lì á né ò pu'ā_ \(\varnothing\) sóv_lī.
binan Cop foc ban wife ser own binan.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 (Huddlestone and Pullum p1416) the construction has an implicature of exhaustiveness and exclusiveness: it is the wife (only), not the husband, who is the owner.

The main clause may instead have a Non-Verbal Predicator 25:
```

Anכ'כn nwaa yisid nidib tovmb\varepsilon'\varepsilondi basida?
Àn亏́'j̀n_\varnothing nuwáa_\varnothing yīsıd nīdıb tóv̀m-b\overline{''\varepsilondı_\varnothing básıdà +\varnothing?}
Who ser this ser expel:DIPF person:PL deed-bad:PL ser throw.out:DIPF cQ?
"Who is this who drives people's sins out?" (Lk 7:49)

```
\(N\)-focus presumably arose from \(n\)-clefting by ellipsis of everything but the NP in the main clause. The focussed element stands first, with the rest of the clause introduced by \(n\), phonologically identical to the Serial VP particle 8.2.2.1.2. The clause lacks Independency Marking but has independent tense marking, unlike a noninitial VP. (Compare tense marking in ellipted indirect commands 22.3.1.)

The meaning of this construction is focus rather than foregrounding:

Wáafù ø dúm•ō_ø. "A snake bit him." WK
Snake:sg SER bite 3AN.ob.
would be a felicitous reply to "What's happened?" as well as "Did a dog bite him?"
The focus meaning presumably arose to fill the gap caused by the fact that a clause subject cannot be focussed with \(n \bar{\varepsilon}\) 33.1.2.

Focus rather than foregrounding is also demonstrated by the fact that
Interrogative Pronouns as subjects are always \(\boldsymbol{n}\)-focussed. As a subject ànó'j̀n "who" thus always appears as ànó'כ \(n\) [añ̃:ni] (always NT ano'one, KB anכ'כח.)
\[
\begin{aligned}
& \text { Àn'́'כnì_ } \varnothing \text { kābırídà } \quad \text { + } \text { ? } \\
& \text { Who SER ask.for.entry:DIPF CQ? } \\
& \text { "Who is asking permission to enter?" }
\end{aligned}
\]

Clauses containing interrogative pronouns may not contain focus-n \(\bar{\varepsilon}^{+/}\), an incompatibility which seems most readily explained by analysing interrogative pronouns as intrinsically focussed, though this is only syntactically manifested when they are subjects.

Furthermore, the focus particle \(n \bar{\varepsilon}^{+/}\)in all its rôles is excluded from clauses which are \(n\)-focussed, with verb aspect distinctions present but unmarked, as in other cases of formal exclusion of the marker 33.1.2.1:
\begin{tabular}{ll}
\(\dot{M}\) zūgu_ \(\varnothing\) zábìd. & "My head is hurting." \\
\(\mathbf{1 S G}\) head SER fight:DIPF. & (Reply to "Where is the pain?")
\end{tabular}
cf \(\dot{M}\) zūg lā pú'alìm n̄̄. "My head is hurting."
1sG head Art damage:DIPF Foc. (Reply to "What's the matter with you?")

Accordingly, the ellipted construction with Serialiser \(n\) after the subject represents focus, parallel to the use of \(n \bar{\varepsilon}\) with other clause constituents.

\subsection*{33.1.2 VP Constituent and VP Focus: \(\boldsymbol{n} \bar{\varepsilon}^{+/}\)}

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 21.1; on distinguishing constituent-focus \(n \bar{\varepsilon}^{+/}\)from the preposition see 23.4.

Greater difficulty arises over the distinction from the \(n \bar{\varepsilon}^{+/}\)which is part of the aspect system \(22.2^{16}\), and which actually represents a specialised use of the same particle to focus the verb aspect. The aspect marker is subject to the same formal constraints on appearance as the focus marker, and \(n \bar{\varepsilon}^{+/}\)cannot appear twice in a clause to mark both focus and aspect 33.1.2.1. The aspectual sense normally prevails wherever semantically and formally possible; otherwise, the particle is interpreted as constituent focus. When aspectual \(n \bar{\varepsilon}^{+/}\)is excluded only by formal constraints, different verbal aspects still appear but are unmarked.

\subsection*{33.1.2.1 Contexts where \(n \bar{\varepsilon}^{+/}\)cannot Appear}
\(N \bar{\varepsilon}^{+/}\)cannot appear in either constituent focus or aspectual sense
(a) if the subject has \(n\)-focus
(b) in subordinate clauses other than Content Clauses
(c) in content questions
\(\boldsymbol{N} \overline{\boldsymbol{\varepsilon}}^{+/}\)may only occur once in a clause; this not necessarily in the first VP of a Serial VP chain:
16) In Dagbani, two different particles, mi and la, correspond to Kusaal \(n \bar{\varepsilon}^{+/}\), but they are in complementary distribution with no meaning difference to shed light on \(n \bar{\varepsilon}^{+/}\); together, they show much the same range of senses. Mampruli ni shares the initial \(n\) of \(n \bar{\varepsilon}^{+/}\), but in the related languages the corresponding particles mostly have \(m\)-: Dagbani mi, Mooré me, Nabit and Farefare me; even Toende Kusaal has me.

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 ser give person-smooth:sg neg but 2sg lie
\(n\) tís nē Wínà'am Sí-sùn..
ser 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, aspect distinctions are unmarked. This constraint reveals that Aspectual \(n \bar{\varepsilon}^{+/}\)is a specialised use of Focus-n \(\bar{\varepsilon}^{+/}\).

Examples of exclusion of Focus- \(n \bar{\varepsilon}^{+/}\):
Exclusion with \(N\)-focussing of the subject:
\(\dot{M}\) zūgo_ø zábìd. "My head is hurting/hurts." (No aspectual \(n \bar{\varepsilon}^{+/}\))
1sG head SER fight:DIPF.
Reply to "Where is the pain?"

Ànó'כnì ø dít sá'abう̀ \({ }^{+} \varnothing\) ?
Who ser eat:DIPF porridge ca?
"Who eats/is eating millet porridge?" (No aspectual \(n \bar{\varepsilon}^{+/}\))

Exclusion of \(n \bar{\varepsilon}^{+/}\)in subordinate clauses:
In \(\grave{n}\)-Clauses:

Ò dāa á n̄̄ bīig. \(\quad\) "She was a child."
3AN TNS COP FOC child:sg.
but ón àn bīig lā zúg "because she's a child"
3AN:COMP COP child:SG ART upon

M̀ yí nē Bók. \(\quad\) "I come from Bawku." SB
1sG emerge foc Bawku.
and Yadda nipir yitne labaar la wommug ni.
Yàddā-nípìr yít nē lábāar lā wómmòg ní.
Assent-doing emerge:DIPF foc news ARt hearing Loc.
"Faith comes from hearing the news." (Rom 10:17)
but Meeri one yi Magdala
Meeri ónì yī Magdala
Mary rel.an emerge Magdala
"Mary who came from Magdala" (Mk 16:9, 1996)

In Subordinate Supplement Clauses:

M̀ dāa \(p \bar{u} \quad \underset{\sim}{n} y \bar{\varepsilon}\) dāu lá kà ò án ná'abā \({ }^{+} \varnothing\).
ISG tNs Neg.ind see man:Sg art and 3AN CoP chief:Sg neg.
"I didn't see the man as a chief."
not *M̀ dāa pū nyē dāu lá kà ò á nē ná'abā.

Contrast an Insubordinate Sequential clause 28.3.2 introduced by kà, showing aspectual \(n \bar{\varepsilon}^{+/}\):

Ka ba due keŋ. Ka ban ken la, Jesus gbisid ne.
Kà bà dūe_ø k \(\bar{\eta}\). Kà bán \(k \bar{\varepsilon} n \quad l a ̄, ~ J e s u s ~ g b i ̄ s ı d ~ n \bar{\varepsilon}\).
And 3PL arise ser go. And 3pl:comp go:Impf Art, Jesus sleep:Dipf foc.
"So they started out. As they were travelling, Jesus was sleeping." (Lk 8:22-23, 1976)

Exclusion of \(n \bar{\varepsilon}^{+/}\)in content questions: aspect-marking \(n \bar{\varepsilon}^{+/}\):

Bó kà fù kúөsìda \({ }^{+} \varnothing\) ? "What are you selling/do you sell?"
What and 2sG sell:DIPF cQ?

Fò kúesìd bó +ø? "What are you selling/do you sell?"
2sG sell:DIPF what cQ?

Bó kà fù kómmà \(+\varnothing\) ? "Why are you crying/do you cry?"
What and 2sG cry:DIPF cQ?

Fò nípìd bó \(+\varnothing\) ? "What are you doing/do you do?"
2SG do:DIPF what ca?

Fù wá'e yáa +ø? "Where are you going (just now)?"
2SG go where cQ?

Exclusion of \(n \bar{\varepsilon}^{+/}\)in content questions: constituent-focus \(n \bar{\varepsilon}^{+/}\):

Mām án bó +ø? "What am I?"
1SG.CNTR COP what cQ?

Fù áañ_ànó'כnè +ø? "Who are you?"
2SG COP who CQ?

Fò bój̀ n \(\bar{\varepsilon}\) bó \(+\varnothing\) ? "What do you want it with?"
2sG want with what \(\mathbf{c Q}\) ? \(\quad N \bar{\varepsilon}\) must be interpreted as preposition (WK)

Focussing a constituent, thereby leaving aspect distinctions unmarked because \(n \bar{\varepsilon}^{+/}\)cannot be used twice:
\(\grave{M}\) pó'usidī_ \(f \quad n \bar{\varepsilon} . \quad\) "I'm greeting you."
1SG greet:DIPF 2SG.OB FOC.

M púvsìd n̄̄ ná'àb lā. "I'm greeting the chief."
1SG greet:DIPF Foc chief:SG ART.

Ò kùөsıdī_bá n̄̄. "She's selling them."
3AN sell:DIPF 3PL.OB FOC.
but Ò kùөsıd sūmma lā n̄̄.
3AN sell:DIPF groundnut:PL ART FOC.
"She sells/is selling the groundnuts." ("They're not free.")
\(\grave{M}\) pó'usìd ná'àb lā \(n \bar{\varepsilon}\). "I greet/am greeting the chief."
1SG greet:DIPF chief:SG ART Foc.

\subsection*{33.1.2.2 Words which cannot be Focussed with \(n \bar{\varepsilon}^{+/}\)}

Certain words do not prevent Focus-n \(\bar{\varepsilon}^{+/}\)from being used in the clause (unlike Interrogative proforms 33.1.2.1), but cannot themselves be focussed with \(n \bar{\varepsilon}^{+/}\). Words which behave like this include sùnā̄+/ "good", sòm \({ }^{m}\) "good", bē' \(\varepsilon d^{\varepsilon}\) "bad" sìda+ "truth" when used as adverbs, and the "two, three exactly" quantifier forms àyínā+/ àtápā+/ 16.2.2. AdvPs formed by coordinating such words and NPs with these quantifiers as dependents share the same property.

> Lì àn sónā. "It's good."

3INAN COP good:ADV.

Lì àn súm. "It's good."
IINAN COP good:ABSTR.

Lì àn bē' \(\varepsilon d\).
"It's bad."
zinan Cop bad:Abstr.
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Lì àn sídà. "It's true."
3INAN COP truth.

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[ye ka] o sariakadib a sum ne sida.
ò sàríyà-kādıb án súm nē 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 aspectually, limitating the state described to a particular time period, even with Descriptive Verbs and even if there is no explicit time marker in the clause (cf 33.1.2.3):

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 án súnā. "It was good." WK
3INAN TNS COP good:ADV.

Lì dāa á nē súpā. "At the time, it was good." WK
3INAN TNS COP FOC good:ADV.
\(=\) Sān kán lā, lì dāa á nē sónā.
Time dem.sg art, zinan tns cop foc good:Adv.

Lì à n \(\bar{\varepsilon}\) súnā. \(\quad\) It's good." ("Now; it wasn't before." WK)
3INAN COP FOC good:ADV.

Emphatics \(\underline{33.6}\) do not behave in this way:
bכzugว o ane fo biig men.
bう̄ zúgó ò à né fù bï̀g mén.
Because 3AN cop foc 2sG child:sg also.
"Because he is your child too." (Genesis 21:13)

\subsection*{33.1.2.3 Contexts where \(n \bar{\varepsilon}^{+/}\)cannot be Aspectual}
\(N \bar{\varepsilon}^{+/}\)as focus marker of VP complements and adjuncts precedes the focussed constituent. If this constituent follows the verb, there is a potential ambiguity between the focus particle and the aspect marker. The default interpretation is as aspectual, but this interpretation may be ruled out by the position of the particle, by incompatibility of Mood or Polarity, by Passive use of the verb, by impossibility of a Resultative reading of a Variable Verb Base Form, by the absence of an explicit time marker with Descriptive Verbs, or by the fact that the subject has generic status.

Aspectual use of \(n \bar{\varepsilon}^{+/}\)requires that it follow the verb word directly, with at most Liaison Enclitics intervening; if not, the relevant aspectual distinctions are unmarked:

> Ò kùөsıdī_bá n̄̄. "She's selling them." (Aspectual)

3AN Sell:DIPF 3PL.OB FOC.
but Ò kù̀sıd sūmma lā n̄̄.
3AN sell:DIPF groundnut:PL ART FOC.
"She sells/is selling the groundnuts." (VP focussed: "They're not free.")
\(N \bar{\varepsilon}^{+/}\)may only be used aspectually if the Verbal Predicator has positive polarity; if not, the relevant aspectual distinctions are again unmarked:
Ò zàbıd.
"He fights."
3AN fight:DIPF.
Ò zàbıd \(n \bar{\varepsilon}\). \(\quad\) "He's fighting."
3AN fight:DIPF Foc.
but Ò pū zábıdā \({ }^{+} \varnothing . \quad\) "He's not fighting"/"He doesn't fight."
3AN Neg.IND fight:DIPF NEG.

The Predicator must have Indicative Mood for aspectual use of \(n \bar{\varepsilon}^{+/}\). It is not clear if the relevant distinctions occur at all in the Irrealis.

In direct commands \(n \bar{\varepsilon}^{+/}\)may occur only as the VP-final marker of constrastive focus on the entire VP 33.1.2.5. It cannot be aspectual or focus a constituent.

> Ò gj̀sıd n \(\bar{\varepsilon}\). 3AN look:DIPF FOC.

Gj̀sım kpē.
"Look here!"
Look:Imp here.
but Gう̀sım n \(\bar{\varepsilon}\).
Look:IMP FOC.

Ò à \(n \bar{\varepsilon}\) bāañlím. "She is quiet."
3AN COP FOC quiet:ABSTR.
but Àn bāañlím!
COP quiet:ABSTR.
"Look!" ("Don't touch." WK)
"Be quiet!"

However, a following àlá "thus" imposes a continuous/progressive imperfective sense on the verb, in a similar sense to \(n \bar{\varepsilon}^{+/}\)with a Dynamic Imperfective 22.4.

Passive constructions 23.1.1 may only express punctual events, and are thus limited to Perfective aspect, along with Dynamic Imperfective forms in the propensity/habitual sense only. Accordingly, the particle \(n \bar{\varepsilon}^{+/}\)can never be interpreted aspectually with passives.
(All interpretations WK):

Dāká lā záñl nह̄. "The box is portable by hand."
Box:Sg ART carry.in.hands foc. not "The box is being carried."

Dāká lā zîd nē. "The box is for carrying on the head."
Box:sg ART carry.on.head foc. ("Not in the hands.")

Dāam lā núùd. "The beer gets drunk."
Beer ART drink:DIPF.

Dāam núùd zīná. "Beer gets drunk today."
Beer drink:DIPF today.
but Dāam lā núùd nē. Only "The beer is for drinking."
Beer ART drink:DIPF Foc. ("Not for throwing away.") not "The beer is being drunk."
*Dāam núùd n̄̄. rejected by WK altogether

Contrast the intransitive use of Patientive Ambitransitive verbs expressing changes of state 23.1:

M̀ yój̀d nē kúlìn lā. "I'm closing the door."
1SG close:DIPF Foc door:SG ART.

Kòlı lā yój̀d n̄̄. "The door is closing."
Door:SG ART close:DIPF Foc.

Ò tòlıgıd \(n \bar{\varepsilon} . \quad\) "He's heating it up."
3AN heat.up:DIPF Foc.

Lì tòlıgıd n̄̄. "It's heating up."
3INAN heat.up:DIPF FOC.

Lì mà'ad nह̄. "It is getting cool" (dipf of mā'e+/ "get cool")
3INAN get.cool:DIPF FOC.
but Lì mà'an n \(\bar{\varepsilon}\).
3INAN COol:DIPF Foc.
"It gets cooled." (contrastive focus on the VP)
Not "It is getting cool"
(dipf of the causative mā'al \({ }^{\varepsilon /}\) "cool" as passive)

A Variable Verb Base Form can only be interpreted as a Resultative Stative if it expresses a change of state in the subject.
\(\dot{M}\) dá' bún. \(\quad\) I've bought a donkey."
1sG buy donkey:sG.
("What have you done?")
\(\dot{M}\) dá' n \(\bar{\varepsilon}\) búp. \(\quad\) I've bought a donkey."
1sG buy Foc donkey:sG. ("What have you bought?")

M̀ pū dá' bùnā \(\quad\) Ø. "I haven't bought a donkey."
1SG NEG.IND buy donkey:SG NEG.

M pū dá' nē búnā \({ }^{+} \varnothing\).
ISG Neg.IND buy foc donkey:sG Neg.
"I haven't bought a donkey." ("I bought something else.")

Note that Assume-Stance verbs do not express a change of state in the subject, because Stance Verbs are not Stative in Kusaal 11.2.1. Accordingly, the Base Form of an Assume-Stance verb cannot accept a Resultative reading:

Ò dìgıl nē. \(\quad\) He's laid it down." ("I thought he'd pick it up.")
3AN lay.down foc.

Ò dìgın n̄̄.
3AN lie.down foc.
"He's lain down." DK: "Someone calls at your house and gets no answer; he thinks you're out but I'm explaining that you've gone to bed."
WK: "You've said: the child looks filthy. I'm replying: He's been lying down."

Ò zi'ən \(n \bar{\varepsilon} . \quad\) "She's pregnant." (Not "She's stood still.")
3AN stand.still Foc.

With Descriptive Verbs, aspectual \(n \bar{\varepsilon}^{+/}\)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:
Ò gìm.
3an be.short.
but Ò gìm n \(\bar{\varepsilon}\).
3AN be.short foc.

Lì zùlım. "It's deep."
zinan be.deep.
but Lì zùlım nē.
"It's deep."
zinan be.deep foc.

Lì vèn.
"It's beautiful."
3inan be.beautiful.
but Li vèn \(n \bar{\varepsilon} . \quad\) "It's beautiful." (Focus on the verb.)
zinan be.beautiful foc.

M mór pư'ā.
1sG have wife:sG.
but M mór nē pư'ā.
1sG have foc woman:sG.
"I have a woman."
(not "wife": implies an irregular liaison, WK)

The verb àeñ \({ }^{\text {a }}\) "be something/somehow" is characteristically followed by \(n \bar{\varepsilon}^{+/}\) focussing its complement 24.2:
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Ò à n̄ bï̈g.

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3AN COP FOC child:sg.

Descriptive 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 aspectual \(n \bar{\varepsilon}^{+/}\)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 nē. "It's beautiful." (Focus on the verb.)
zinan be.beautiful foc.
but Nānnánā, lì vèn nē.
Now, zinan be.beautiful foc.
"Just now, it's beautiful."

Sān kán lā, lì dāa zúlım nē.
Time dem.sg art, zinan tns be.deep foc.
"At that time, it was deep."

Mò'ar lā dāa zúlìm n̄̄. "The lake was deep."
Lake:sG ART tns be.deep foc. (Implying, "Now it's shallow." WK)

Lì dāa v ह́n \(\quad n \bar{\varepsilon} . \quad\) "It was beautiful."
binan tns be.beautiful foc. WK: "I gave you a cup, and it was OK then, but you've spoiled it."

Lì dāa būgus nē. "It was soft." ("Now it isn't.")
binan tns be.soft foc.

Aspectual interpretation of \(n \bar{\varepsilon}^{+/}\)is also forced when the following constituent does not permit focussing with \(n \bar{\varepsilon}^{+/}\)33.1.2.2.

A generic subject is not semantically compatible with the use of \(n \bar{\varepsilon}^{+/}\)in aspectual function:

Nīigí j̀ñbıd \(n \bar{\varepsilon}\) mj̄כd. "Cows eat grass." ("What do cows eat?")
Cow:PL chew:DIPF foc grass:PL.

A form like niigí is in itself ambiguous between generic and specific indefinite interpretations (like English "cows" versus the explicitly specific-indefinite "some cows") but the specific sense is only likely in the context of explicit introduction of a new discourse element 19.3. By context, pronoun subjects also can be generic or specific:
\begin{tabular}{lll} 
Bà j̀nbıd \(n \bar{\varepsilon}\) mj̄כd. & "They (cows in general) eat grass." \\
3PL chew:DIPF FOC grass:PL. & or "They (particular cows) are eating grass."
\end{tabular}

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-sōñ'e bỉəlá y ỳla.
Leper:PL tws 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 aspectual sense is omitted in replying to polar questions or responding to questions by repeating the verb:

A: Gう̀sım!
B: M̀ gósìd!
A: Fù gósìd né \(\varepsilon\) ?
B: \(\quad \dot{M}\) gósìd!
"Look!"
"I'm looking!"
"Are you looking?"
"I'm looking!"

This probably simply represents the cross-linguistically common phenomenon of ellipsis in declarative replies to questions 27.1.5.

\subsection*{33.1.2.4 VP Constituent Focus}
(See 33.1.2.3 for the constituent-focus sense of \(n \bar{\varepsilon}^{+/}\)in the examples below.)
Focus on an indefinite object represents it as "unpredictable or pragmatically non-recoverable" information, as for example in supplying an answer to a content question; this is ordinary focus 33.1:
\begin{tabular}{ll} 
M̀ dá' \(n \bar{\varepsilon}\) bún. & "I've bought a donkey." \\
1SG buy \(\boldsymbol{F O C}\) donkey:SG. & ("What have you bought?")
\end{tabular}

Nïigí j̀nhbıd n̄̄ mう̄כd. "Cows eat grass."
Cow:PL chew:DIPF Foc grass:PL. ("What do [generic] cows eat?")

However, under the scope of a negative, focus is likely to be contrastive:

M̀ pō dá' nē búnā \({ }^{+} \varnothing\).
1SG neg.ind buy foc donkey neg.
"I haven't bought a donkey." ("I bought something else.")

Definite objects/predicative complements normally have old-information status, making the ordinary-focus sense of "unpredictable or pragmatically nonrecoverable" unlikely; hence \(n \bar{\varepsilon}^{+/}\)before a definite object is usually aspectual:

Nïigí lā ónbìd n̄̄ mכ̄כd lā.
Cow:PL ART chew:DIPF foc grass:PL ART.
"The cows are eating the grass."

Nā'-síəbà óñbid nē mכ̄כd lā.
Cow-Ind..pL chew:DIPF Foc grass:PL ART.
"Some cows are eating the grass."

If focus does occur with old-information arguments, it is contrastive.

Fu pu ma' n tis ninsaala, amaa fu ma' n tis ne Wina'am Siig Sun.
Fù pū má' \(n\) tìs nīn-sáalā \({ }^{+} \varnothing\), àmáa fù mà'
2SG neg.ind lie ser give person-smooth:sg neg but 2sg lie
\(n\) tís nē Wínà'am Sí-sùn..
ser 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)

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,
Rel.INAN and idol-sacrificer:PL sacrifice:DIPF SER give:DIPF idol:PL ART
bà màannı \(\varnothing\) tísid \(n \bar{\varepsilon}\) kíkīrıs kà pō máànnı
3PL sacrifice:DIPF SER give:DIPF FOC fairy:PL and NEG.IND sacrifice:DIPF
\(\varnothing\) tísìd Wínā'amm \({ }^{+} \varnothing\).
ser give:DIPF God neg.
"That which idol-worshippers sacrifice to an idol, they sacrifice to demons and they don't sacrifice to God." (1 Cor 10:20)

The predicative complement of àena "be something/somehow" in its ascriptive sense 24.2 is non-referring and almost prototypically "unpredictable or pragmatically non-recoverable", and therefore is naturally preceded by \(n \bar{\varepsilon}\) for ordinary focus:
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O à n\overline{\varepsilon}}\mathrm{ bïig. "She is a child."
3AN COP FOC child:sg.

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Ò dāa á n̄̄ bïig. "She was a child."
3AN TNS COP FOC child:SG.

Ò à nē nīn-sún. "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.

Ò à \(n \bar{\varepsilon}\) bāañlím. "She is quiet."
3AN COP FOC quiet:ABSTR.

Lì à n̄̄ zāalím. "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 díəmìd nē dúañ gbínnī-n. Bà zà'mısıd nē
Child:PL ART play:DIPF foc dawadawa:SG base:sG-Loc. 3PL learn:DIPF foc būla wá'àb. Bà à né À-Pām bîs.
bula dance:sG. 3PL COP FOC PERS-Apam child:PL.
"The children are playing under a dawadawa tree. They are learning the bula dance. They are Apam's children." KKY p6
(The father Apam has already been mentioned, as have the children, but the fact that the children belong to Apam is new.)

Ka bumbuvda bane lu gכn'כs suvgin la ane bane wom pian'ad la, ka...
Kà būn-búvdà bànı lù gכ̀ño sos súvgū-n lā á nē
And thing-planting:PL REL.PL fall thorn:PL among-LOC ART COP FOC
bánì wòm píàñon'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)

Here, proper names are non-referential (cf Huddlestone and Pullum p402):

O yo'ur na ane Joon. "His name will be John." (Lk 1:60)
Ò yō'ur ná ā n̄̄ Joon.
3AN name:SG IRR COP FOC John.

Ò à né À-Wīn. \(\quad\) "He is Awini."
3AN COP FOC PERS-Awini.

As with objects, when the complement falls under the scope of the negative (here with the negative verb \(k \bar{a}^{\prime} e^{+}\)"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:
```

M á nē dư'átà.
"I'm a doctor."

```

1SG COP FOC doctor:SG.

M̀ kā' dư'átāa \({ }^{+} \varnothing\). "I'm not a doctor."
1SG NEG.be doctor:SG NEG.
\(\grave{M}\) kā' nē dự'átāa \({ }^{+} \varnothing\). "I'm not a doctor." ("I'm a lab assistant.")
1SG NEG.BE FOC doctor:SG NEG.

Focus on a Locative complement 23.3 typically involves a definite predeterminer of a locative postposition or an old-information place name, but the fact that a referent is at a known place is often new information resulting in ordinary focus on the locative. The head of a locative AdvP is the locative particle, with a zero allomorph for Kusaal place names 20.3; like other postpositions, it is not itself referential even though it has a pre-determiner. (Cf locative pre-modifiers 19.7.2.3.)

Dāư lā bé nē dó-kànā lā púvgū-n.
Man:sg art exist foc hut-dem.dei.sg art inside-loc.
"The man is inside that hut." (Reply to "Where is that man?")

Mam bene moogin. "I'm in the bush." BNY p8
Mām bé nē mכ̄כgu-n.
1SG.CNTR EXIST FOC grass:SG-Loc.

M̀ yí nē Bók. "I come from Bawku." SB
1sG emerge foc Bawku.

Yadda nipir yitne labaar la wommug ni.
Yàddā-nípìr yít nē lábāar lā wómmòg ní.
Assent-doing emerge:DIPF 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 a clause adjunct:

Dàu-sכ̄' bé dó-kànā lā póvgū-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 nē záàm. "We eat millet porridge in the evening." 1PL eat:DIPF porridge Foc evening. ("When do you eat porridge?")

\subsection*{33.1.2.5 VP Focus}

When \(n \bar{\varepsilon}\) is placed finally in the VP and cannot be interpreted as aspectual, there is focus on the entire VP; this is usually contrastive, reflecting the fact that non-contrastive "ordinary" focus on the VP is the default state implied by the unmarked construction of a clause with a VP.
Examples (cf 33.1.2.3 for the the constituent-focus sense of \(n \bar{\varepsilon}^{+/}\)here):

Gว̀sım nē.
"Look!" ("Don't touch." WK)
Look:IMP FOC.

Ò kù̀sıd sūmma lā n̄̄.
3AN sell:DIPF groundnut:PL ART FOC.
"She sells/is selling the groundnuts." ("They're not free.")

Ò gìm n̄. "He's short." ("I was expecting someone taller.")
3AN be.short foc.
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Lì zùlım n̄̄. "It's deep."
zinan be.deep foc.

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\(\grave{M}\) bóวdī_f n̄̄. \(f\) really love you."
1SG want 2SG.OB Foc.
Ò dìgıl n̄̄. "He's laid it down." ("I thought he'd pick it up.")
3AN lay.down foc.

Ò dìgın n̄̄. \(\quad\) "He's lain down."
3AN lie.down foc.
DK "Someone calls at your house and gets no answer; he thinks you're out, but I'm explaining that in fact you've gone to bed."

Kà lì bódìg n̄̄.
And 3INAN get.lost foc.
"It's lost."
Contradicting "someone hid it." 28.3.2.1

Dāká lā záñl nē. "The box gets carried in the hands."
Box:Sg ART carry.in.hands foc. ("Not on your head.")

Dāká lā zîdd nē.
Box:SG ART carry.on.head:DIPF Foc.
"The box is for carrying on the head." ("Not carrying in the hands.")

Dāam lā núùd nē. "The beer is for drinking."
Beer ART drink:DIPF Foc. ("Not washing with!")

Lì mà'an n̄̄. "It gets cooled."
3INAN get.cool:DIPF Foc. ("Not heated!")

An idiomatic use, perhaps developed from pragmatic non-recoverability for social reasons (i.e. marking a euphemism), is seen in
Ò zi'ən \(n \bar{\varepsilon}\).
"She's pregnant." (Not "She has stood still.")

3AN stand.still \(\mathbf{F O C}\).

\subsection*{33.2 Clefting and Preposing with kà}

Kà-clefting arises from constructions with Supplement kà-clauses 29.2 in a way similar to the development of \(n\)-clefting from Serial VPs:

Asce line an be'ed ma'aa ka ma tun'e niy.

Only rel.inan cop bad only and isg irr be.able ser do.
"It's only that which is bad that I can do." (Rom 7:21)

Once again, there is an implicature of exhaustiveness and exclusiveness, in this case made explicit by mà'aa "only."

The preposed element may be extracted from a subordinate clause:

Li ane ya taaba bane pu'usid Wina'am ka li nar ka ya kad saria.
Lì à né yà tāaba bánì pò'usıd Wínà'am kà lì nár
binan Cop foc 2pl fellow rel.pl greet:dipf God and binan must
kà yà kád sàríyà.
and 2PL drive judgment.
"It is your fellow-worshippers of God whom you must judge." (1 Cor 5:12)

The main clause may again have a Non-Verbal Predicate:

J̄nı ø lá kà fò dāa ñy \(\begin{gathered} \\ t\end{gathered}\).
3AN.CNTR SER that and 2SG tNs see:DIPF.
"This is he whom you saw." WK

Ànó'כnì ø ñ~wá kà tì nyz̄tá \({ }^{+} \varnothing\) ?
Who SER this and IPL see:DIPF CQ?
"Who is this that we can see?"
\(B \bar{J} \_\varnothing\) lá kà m̀ ny \(y\) ह̄tá \({ }^{+} \varnothing\) ?
What ser that and 1SG see:DIPF 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 23.1.

Bó kà fù kúөsìda \({ }^{+}\)? \(\quad\) "What are you selling?"
What and 25G sell:DIPF cQ?

Unlike the construction with \(n\), the effect of \(k\) à-preposing remains foregrounding, not focus. Preposing with kà is compatible both with \(n\)-focus and with the occurrence of the focus particle \(n \bar{\varepsilon}^{+/}\):

> Bỉəəl bỉál kà kōlıg pé'غ̀l n̄̄.

Little little and river:sG get.full foc.
"Little by little, and a river is full." (Proverb)

Dinzug ka mam Paul n be sarega ni Yesu Kiristo zug yanam buudbane ka' Jew dim la yela.
Dìn-zúg kà mām Paul n bé sārıgá nī Yesu Kiristo zúg yānám That-upon and 1sg.cntr Paul ser 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)

Kà-foregrounding of VP objects containing interrogative pronouns is very common. There is no syntactic movement rule for interrogative pronouns/proforms:

\section*{Bùgúm lā yít yáa ní ná \(+\varnothing\) ?}

Fire ART emerge:DIPF where Loc hither ca?
"Where is the light coming from?"
but \(b \bar{\jmath}\) "what?" is very often preposed with kà, as in the example above; preposing is required if the sense is "why?" rather than "what?":
```

    Bó kà fù kúmmà? "Why are you crying?"
    cf *Fò kúm bó? *"What are you crying?"

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This construction with bó kà... is by far the most frequent way of rendering "Why?", and most cases of b'́ kà... have this meaning, but foregrounding bj̄ in the normal sense "What?" occurs too:

Bכ ka ti na nipع?
"What are we going to do?" (Acts 21:22)
Bó kà tì ná nìnع \({ }^{+} \varnothing\) ?
What and 1PL IRR do cQ?

Other queried NP objects in content questions are often preposed with kà:

Nū'-bíbısá àlá kà fò ny n̄tá \({ }^{+} \varnothing\) ?
Hand-small:PL Num:how.many and \(\mathbf{2 5 G}\) see:DIPF ca?
"How many fingers can you see?"

Kà-preposing can also be used to extract an interrogative pronoun from a prepositional phrase; the original position must be filled by an anaphoric pronoun:

Ka anכ'כnam ka Wina'am sunf da pelig ne ba yoma piisnaasi la?
Kà ànó'j̀n-nàm kà Wínà'am sóñ dá pèlıg né bà
And who-PL and God heart:sg tns go.white with 3PL
yòma pīs nāasí lá \({ }^{+} \varnothing\) ?
year: PL tens four ART CQ?
"And who was God angry with for forty years?" (Heb 3:17)

As interrogative pronouns are intrinsically focussed, these constructions, like other cases of preposing with kà, are best regarded as foregrounding, not focus.

Preposing the object of an Invariable Verb is uncommon, and interrogative pronouns in such cases usually remain in situ:

Fù bój̀d bú +ø? "What do you want?"
2SG want what co?

Examples do occur:

Niggbin bo buudi ka ba na ti mora?
nìn-gbīn bó-būudí kà bà ná tī mōrá \(+\varnothing\) ?
Body-skin:sG what-sort and 3PL IRR afterwards have cQ?
"What kind of body will they have?" (1 Cor 15:35)

Predicative complements do not seem to permit preposing. Thus, the interrogative pronouns are left in situ in:

Mām án bó +ø? "What am I?"
1sG.CNTR COP what cQ?

Kà fù áañ_ ànó'כnغ̀ \(+\varnothing\) ? "Then who are you?"
And 2sG COP who cQ?

Adjuncts are often preposed with kà; there is probably a contrast between foregrounding with kà and focussing with \(n \bar{\varepsilon}\) :

Nwādısá_àtán' 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 n̄̄ záàm.
1PL eat:DIPF porridge foc evening.
"We eat millet porridge in the evening."
Reply to "When do you eat porridge?"

Kà-preposed elements cannot be clause subjects, as is to be expected if the construction has arisen from ellipsis, because a Supplement Clause normally has a different subject from its main clause.

The only structure other than a NP (including \(\grave{n}\)-Clauses) or AdvP that I have found preposed with kà is wōv "like" + object:

Wōv bún né kà ò zót.
Like donkey:sg like and 3AN run:DIPF.
"It's like a donkey that he runs."
*Né m̀ nú'ùg kà m̀ sī'ls.
*With \(\mathbf{1 s g}\) hand:sg and \(\mathbf{1 s G}\) 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 31.2.2. Manner, place and reason adjuncts can only precede the subject by kà-preposing, and Absolute Clauses as adjuncts must often precede the main clause subject so that constituent order parallels event order 22.2.1 27.2 26.1 31.1.1 28.3.2:
```

Mán ñ~w\varepsiloǹ' dāu lā zúg kà police gbáñ'a_m.
1SG:COMP hit man:SG ART upon and police seize 1SG.Ob.
"Because I hit the man, the police caught me." ILK

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\subsection*{33.3 Extraposition and Dislocation}

A NP or AdvP placed after a distinctively phrase-final verb form must be an extraposed clause adjunct rather than part of the VP. The commonest cases involve manner-adverbs, where the effect seems to be to intensify the adverb:

Ya yidigya bedegu.
Yà yídìg yā bédugū.
2PL go.astray PFV much.
\(\grave{M}\) pú'ùs yā bédugū. "Thank you very much."
1sG greet pFv much.
"You are very much mistaken." (Mk 12:27)

NP objects (other than pronouns) can be extraposed; the sense seems to be that the extraposed element is contrary to expectation:

Ò ny nè 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 3AN buy.

Leftward dislocation of objects and complements on the basis of weight, without clefting or kà-preposing, occurs in e.g.

Wilkane beє m ni ka pu wanna, m Ba' nwaadi li ne [sic: 1996 n] basid.
Will-kànı bè _ò ní kà pū wénnā \({ }^{+} \varnothing\),
Branch-rel.sg exist 1sG loc and neg.ind bear.fruit:IPVF neg.
m̀ Bā' ñ \(\underset{\sim}{ }\) á'adī_lí \(n\) básìd.
1SG father:SG cut:DIPF 3INAN.OB SER throw.out:DIPF.
"A branch which is in me and does not bear fruit, my father cuts out." (Jn 15:2)

One ka ba tis o ka li zu'oe, ba me mor poten'عr ye o na lebis line zu'oe.
J̀nı kà bà tísò ø kà lì zú'e, bà mè mòr
rel.an and bpl give zan.ob and zinan become.much, 3pl also have
pó-tèñ'عr yé 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 right-dislocated to follow the object in

Mam Paul ... tisid gbon kaŋa Wina'am nidib bane a sida dim ka a yinni ne Jesus Christ Efesus tenin la.
Mām Paul...tísìd gbáun-kànā Wínà'am nídìb bànı àn
1sG.cntr Paul ... give:dipf book-dem.del.sg God person:pl rel.plcop sídà dím kà án yīnní n̄ Jesus Christ Efesus ténī-n lā. truth individual:pL and cop one with Jesus Christ Ephesus land:sg-Loc ART "I, Paul ... give this letter to God's people who are truthful and one in Jesus Christ in Ephesus." (Eph 1:1, 1976; KB ...gbaun kaŋa tisid Wina'am...)

\subsection*{33.4 Presentational Constructions}

A number of constructions are employed to introduce new entities into discourse. The NPs referring to the entities are, naturally, characteristically indefinite; it is in this context that absence of the article \(I^{+}+/\)typically reflects an indefinite but specific rather than generic reference 19.3. The NP may (but need not) have an Indefinite post-determining pronoun or number.

The verb bغे+ "be somewhere/exist" is frequent in presentational clauses, often with a following Serial VP construction \(\underline{26}\) or Supplement Clause 29.2.

Dau da be mori o po'a yimmir
Dāu dá bè_ ø mōrí_ò pư'à-yīmmír
Man:sg tns exist ser have zan wife-single:sg
"There was a man who had one wife." KSS p26

Pu'a so' da be mor o bipun ka kikirig dol o.
Kà pư'à-sכ̄' dá bè \(\varnothing\) mכ̄r ò bī-pún kà kìkīrıg dכ̄ll•ó_ Ø.
And woman-Indf.an tns exist ser 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. \(\quad\) There were once three men." KSS p16
Dāpá_àtáñ' \(n\) dá bè.
Man:PL NuM:three SER TNS ExIST

Other verbs expressing location can introduce the subject as a new topic, and verbs of finding, seeing etc can introduce their objects in a similar way.

Ka dau daa zin'i Listra ni ka pu tun'e kenna.
Kà dāu dāa ziñ 'ilistra ní kà pū tūñ'e_ \(\varnothing\) k \(\bar{\sim} n n a ́ ~+\varnothing . ~\)
And man:sg tns sit Lystra loc and neg.ind be.able ser go:dipf 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 ny \(\bar{\sim}\) dáu kà ò yō'ur búèn Aneas. ADV: there and 3AN see man:sg and 3AN name:sg call:dIPF Aeneas. "There he found a man whose name was Aeneas." (Acts 9:33)

Change of polarity within a Serial VP construction, which is otherwise unusual, may occur with presentational constructions:

Ya sieba be kpela ku kpii ases ba ti nye Wina'am na'am la.
Yà sīəba bé kpह̄lá ø kú kpïi \({ }^{+} \varnothing\), às \(\varepsilon\) ع bà nà tì
2PL INDF.PL exist here ser neg.IRr die neg, except 3PL IRR afterwards
nyè Wínà'am ná'àm lā.
see God kingdom art.
There are some of you here who will not die before they see the kingdom of God." (Lk 9:27)

\subsection*{33.5 Free and Bound Personal Pronouns}

There are environments in which only free pronoun forms are possible.
\begin{tabular}{lll} 
Isolation: & Mánह̀? & "Me?" \\
Apposition: & mān Paul & "I, Paul" \\
Coordination: & tīnám n̄̄ fūn & "us and you" \\
Before Relative Pronouns: & fūn-kánì ... & "you, who ..."
\end{tabular}
and for some speakers, the 2nd persons before direct commands after a yà'-clause 30. In these contexts the free pronoun forms are simply allomorphs of the bound pronouns; but in other contexts, the choice of a free pronoun over bound implies contrast. For the special case of logophoric use see 29.3.2.

A personal pronoun which is focussed 33.1 must be contrastive:

Mane an konbkem su la.
Mānı \(\varnothing\) án kóñb-kìm-sòn lā.
1SG.CNTR SER COP animal-tender-good:SG ART.
"I am the good shepherd." (Jn 10:11)

Bà ny \(n\) ह̀ \(n \bar{\varepsilon}\) mān. \(\quad\) They have seen me."
3PL see FOC 1SG.CNTR.

Funs mi', ka man zi'.
Fōnı ø mī, kà mān zī'l \({ }^{\text {º }} \varnothing\).
2SG.CNTR SER know, and 1SG.CNTR neg.know neg.
"You know but \(I\) do not know." (Rev 7:14)

Subordinate clauses cannot show any of the other markers of focus:

Li nar ka on du ka man sie.
Lì nàr kà j̄n \(d \overline{0}\), kà mān sīe.
zinan must and ban.cntr rise, and 1sG.CNTR lower.
"He must increase and I must decrease." (Jn 3:30)

Contrastive pronouns as subjects of \(\grave{n}\)-Clauses are distinguishable from the usual non-contrastive fused \(\grave{n}\)-Clause pronoun subject series 15.1:
wuu mane a si'em la.
wōv mánì ø àn \(S\) T’əm lā.
like 1SG.CNTR COMP COP INDF.ADV ART.
"as I am." (1 Cor 7:7, 1996)

\subsection*{33.6 Emphatics}

I have borrowed the term "Emphatic" from Jeffrey Heath's Songhay grammars (e.g. Heath 2005 pp202ff.) The category corresponds quite well to Huddlestone and Pullum's "Focussing Modifiers" in English (pp586ff); however, this "focus" is not "Informational Focus" of the kind discussed in 33.1 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 occur after top-level NPs or AdvPs within clauses. They relate the NP or AdvP to the discourse context. Those which are not loanwords share the unusual morphological feature of forming the LF by adding -ne to the SF 6.4.
\(\boldsymbol{m} \grave{\varepsilon}\) DK KT SB NT mèn WK; clause finally (all sources) mèn \({ }^{\varepsilon}\) "also, too"

> bכzugว o ane fu biig men.
> bj̄ zúǵ́ ò à né fù bïg 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 27.1.5.2:

Wina'am tisid ... ka me tisid ...
Wínà'am tísìd ... kà mé tısıd...
God give:IPvF ... and also give:DIPF
"God gives ... and [God] also gives ..." (1 Cor 15:38)
mà'aa (LF mà'anē) "only"

Asec line an be'ed ma'aa ka ma tun'e nip.
Àsć línì àn \(b \bar{\sim} ' \varepsilon d\) má'àa kà \(\grave{m}\) ná tūñ̃'e_ \(\varnothing\) níp.
Only rel.inan cop bad only and isg irr be.able ser do.
"It's only that which is bad that I can do." (Rom 7:21)
(Kà-foregrounding of the NP, which also implies exclusiveness 33.2.)
gòl/ım \({ }^{\text {n }}\) "only"

M̀ nín̄̄lí m̀ gòllım. "I did it myself alone."
1SG do zinan.ob 1SG only
\(\boldsymbol{k j ̀}^{\boldsymbol{t}} \mathrm{a}^{\mathrm{n} \mathrm{\varepsilon}}\) "at all"

Áyìı kj̀tàa.
"Not at all."

The added -ne of the LF of these words is found also with the quantifier pāmm SF pāmné LF "a lot" and the adverb ñ yāen \({ }^{\text {ne/ "brightly, clearly" 6.4. }}\)

The loanword hālı́, in addition to its many other rôles, can be used preceding a top-level NP in the sense "even":

Hali toumbs' \(\varepsilon d\) dim niyid ala.
Hālí tòvm-bē'ed dím nípìd àlá.
Even deed-bad:PL individual:PL do:DIPF ADv:thus.
"Even sinners do that." (Lk 6:33)

\section*{Lexicon}

\section*{34 Greetings and Other Formulae}
(a) Enquiries after health.
[Fù sá] gbìs wēlá?
Dúe wēlá?

Nīntāŋ á wēlá?
Yó'ט \(\quad\) á wēlá?
Fù yī-dímàa?
Nìn-gbīnáa?
Fù sìdaa?
Pư'ā nē bíisc̀ \(\varepsilon\) ?
"How did you sleep?"
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 bé \(\varepsilon\) bá.
... for them.
(b) Blessings

These follow the pattern
```

Bárıkà n\varepsiloń fù ... "Blessing with your ..."

```
with the introductory words usually ellipted; the reply to all of these is Náa.
\[
\begin{aligned}
& \text { Kēn kēn. "Welcome!" Kēn, gerund of kēñ "come" } \\
& \text { cf Hausa: Barkà dà zuwàa. } \\
& \text { "Good evening." } \\
& \text { literally "(Blessing on your) work!" } \\
& \text { Interpreted to include practically anything } \\
& \text { which could be regarded as work, and hence } \\
& \text { probably the commonest daytime greeting. }
\end{aligned}
\]
\(N \bar{\varepsilon}\) sóñ \(n s ı\) ā.

Né fù būrıyá-sùn.

Nह́ fò 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 sónā.
Kpèlımī sóm.

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
\begin{tabular}{ll} 
M̀ pú'ùs yā. & "Thankyou." \\
& \begin{tabular}{l} 
reply Tjे, or Pò'usug kā'e. \\
\\
"No thanks (sc. needed.)"
\end{tabular} \\
M̀ pú'ùs yā bédugū. & "Thank you very much." \\
Gáafàra. & ( \(\leftarrow\) Arabic) "Pardon me, sorry." \\
& \begin{tabular}{l} 
Also (like Ghanaian English "sorry") used \\
simply to empathise with misfortune, with no \\
implication of apology as such.
\end{tabular}
\end{tabular}
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|}
\hline Kābır kābırı́! & 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.) \\
\hline Dìm sūgurú. & "Please forgive me." \\
\hline M̀ bélìm nē. & "I beg you." Not equivalent to "please"; Kusaasi etiquette does not demand a spoken equivalent of the English "please." \\
\hline \multirow[t]{2}{*}{X lábāar á wēlá?} & "What is the news of X ?" \\
\hline & A common initial reply is Dīıb má'àa. "Only food." i.e. "good" \\
\hline \multirow[t]{3}{*}{M̀ mכ̄r kú'èm náa?} & literally "Shall I bring water?" \\
\hline & Traditional first words to guest. \\
\hline & Reply for "No, thank you" is Kù'өm á sóm. ("Water is good.") \\
\hline \multirow[t]{2}{*}{Wīn yél sídà.} & "Bless you!" (after a sneeze.) Literally \\
\hline & "God speaks truth"; WK explained: "If you sneeze, it means someone elsewhere is praising you." \\
\hline Fù wóm Kūsáalı̀ ? & "Do you understand [literally "hear"] Kusaal?" \\
\hline Ėeñ, m̀ wóm. & "Yes, I do." \\
\hline Áyùl, m̀ pū wómmā. & "No, I don't." \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

\section*{35 Structured Semantic Fields}

\subsection*{35.1 Kinship Terms}

Though my informants readily cite them in isolation, kinship terms seem in actual usage to be always possessed. Thus ì sàam "my father", nīn-só' sáàm "someone's father" etc.

Pervading the whole system is the importance of birth order among same-sex siblings, and its irrelevance between siblings of opposite sex. Some basic terms, such as those for siblings, do not in themselves distinguish sex, in a way that is surprising from a European perspective. Seniority goes by family branch, so I am senior to you if my parent is senior to your parent of the same sex, regardless of our own ages. Seniority among wives is determined by marriage order and is also independent of actual age. Age, as opposed to seniority, is in itself of little significance and many people do not know their own ages exactly.

My
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|}
\hline Father & is my & sàam \({ }^{\text {ma, }}\), less formally \(b \bar{a}^{++/}\) \\
\hline Father's elder brother & & sàam-kp \(\bar{\varepsilon}\) nnm \({ }^{\text {m }}\) \\
\hline Father's younger brother & & sàam-pīt \({ }^{\text {a/ }}\) \\
\hline Father's sister & & pùgudıb \({ }^{\text {a }}\) \\
\hline My & & \\
\hline Mother & is my & mà \({ }^{+}\) \\
\hline Mother's elder sister & & \\
\hline or senior co-wife & & mà-kpēzñm \({ }^{\text {m }}\) \\
\hline Mother's younger sister & & \\
\hline or junior co-wife & & mà-bïla or mà-pīt \({ }^{\text {a/ }}\) \\
\hline Mother's co-wives & are my & mà nám \({ }^{\text {a }}\) \\
\hline Mother's brother & is my & ánsìb \({ }^{\text {a }}\) \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

I am my mother's brother's ānsína; to all the other relatives above I am biiiga "child" or specifically dà-kj̀כñr \(r^{\varepsilon}\) "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. Kusaasi tend to find the English usage of the same term for them as for blood relations bizarre.

My
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|c|}
\hline \multirow[t]{3}{*}{Grandparent} & \multirow[t]{4}{*}{is my} & yáab \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & Sex can be specified as \\
\hline & & Ơ yāa-dáu \({ }^{+}\) & \\
\hline & & O̧ yāa-pu'áa & \\
\hline Grandchild & & yáan \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

These words are also used for ancestor/descendant.

My
Elder sibling of my own sex is my bīər \({ }^{\varepsilon /}\)
Younger sibling of my own sex is my pitú \({ }^{+}\)
Sibling of opposite sex is my tāuñ+

These words are also used for cousins, with seniority, as always, going by family branch.

My
Wife is my yī-pú'áa or simply pứ'āa
Wife's parent dìəm \({ }^{\text {ma }}\) Sex can be specified as
\[
\text { ơn dì̀m-dāú }^{+}
\]
̣̂ dìəm-pūāka
Wife's sibling dàkïiga Sex can be specified as
\[
\text { ơ' dàkì̀-dāúu }^{+}
\]

Ọ dàkì-puāka \({ }^{\text {a }}\)

Dìəm \({ }^{\mathrm{ma}}\) is also used as polite address by a man to an unrelated woman of similar or greater age to himself but not old enough to be called mà my mother." Parents-in-law are greatly respected, but with siblings-in-law there is a traditional reciprocal joking relationship; certain whole ethnic groups are said to bear this relationship to each other, called "playmate" in local English. At Bùgúm-t亏̄כñ \(r^{\varepsilon}\), 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' dàkiig \({ }^{\text {a }}\). My
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|}
\hline Husband is my & \(s i d^{\text {a }}\) \\
\hline \multirow[t]{2}{*}{Husband's parent} & dàyáam \({ }^{\text {ma }}\) Sex can be specified as \(0^{\text {ar }}\) dàyāam-dáu \({ }^{+}\) \\
\hline & O+ dàyāam-pưák \({ }^{\text {a }}\) \\
\hline Husband's elder brother & sid-kpē \(\varepsilon\) nm \({ }^{\text {m }}\) \\
\hline Husband's younger brother & sid-bīla \\
\hline Husband's sister & sid-pūāk \({ }^{\text {a }}\) \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

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 pun'à- \(\bar{\varepsilon} l i ́ n{ }^{a}\).

\subsection*{35.2 Personal Names}

Kusaasi personal names are mostly formed by the Personifier Clitic \(\grave{A}-\underline{19.10}\) followed by common nouns, but a few based on adjective stems are preceded by \(\grave{N}^{-}\), becoming \(\dot{M}\) - before labial consonants. There are also some less common names with the clitic \(\grave{A}\) - followed by a whole verb phrase, or even by a clause. Most names of foreign origin also take the \(\grave{A}\) - clitic: À-Sïimój̀n "Simon"; none take \(\grave{N}-/ \grave{M}_{-}\)-

Many names relate to birth circumstances. Kusaasi do not use surnames traditionally; although everyone knows his or her clan, and indeed at least part of its genealogy, clan names are not used as surnames, as they are with the Mossi.

A relatively few personal names account for a large proportion of all individuals; \(\grave{A}-W \bar{n} n\) and \(\grave{A}-B \bar{u} g u r\) are especially common as names for males. Identification of particular individuals often requires further enquiries about kindred or residence.

On the form in which Kusaal personal and place names appear in Englishlanguage contexts see 35.3.1.
Examples:
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|c|}
\hline À-Wīn \({ }^{\text {ne/ }}\) & Awini & \(w_{\text {İ }}{ }^{\text {ne/ }}\) & "personal god, genius" \\
\hline À-Būgur \({ }^{\text {e }}\) & Abugri & \(b \bar{u} g r^{\varepsilon}\) & "object where a wīn \({ }^{n \varepsilon /}\) resides"; also a \(w \bar{u}^{n \varepsilon /}\) inherited from one's mother's side \\
\hline À-Nà'ab \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & Anaba & nà'ab \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & "chief" but in the sense "afterbirth" (because a chief leaves his house after his retainers) \\
\hline À-Fūug \({ }^{\text {/ }}\) & Afugu & füug \({ }^{\text {/ }}\) & Name for sole survivor of twins "clothing" for child born with a caul \\
\hline À-Tū \({ }^{\text {¢ }}\) & Atuli & tùlıg \({ }^{\text {¢ }}\) & "invert" for breech-delivered child \\
\hline À-Tìg \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & Atiga & tìıg \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & "tree" \\
\hline
\end{tabular}
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|c|}
\hline À-Sāan \({ }^{\text {a/ }}\) & Asana & sāan \({ }^{\text {a/ }}\) & "guest, stranger" \\
\hline À-Sāan-dó+ & Sandow & sāan \({ }^{\text {a/ }}\) & "guest" + dāu \({ }^{+}\)"man" \\
\hline À-Tàmpūur \({ }^{\text {e }}\) & Tampuri & tàmpōor \({ }^{\text { }}\) & "ashpit, rubbish tip" \\
\hline À-Dūk \({ }^{\text {/ }}\) & Aruk & \(d \bar{u} k^{3 /}\) & "pot" \\
\hline & & & These two names are given to children born alive after previous stillbirths; they come from the apotropaic practice of throwing away the dead child or just burying it in a pot to avoid attracting malevolent spiritual attention. \\
\hline À-Kūdvg \({ }^{\text { }}\) & Akudugu & \(k u ̄ d v g{ }^{\text {a }}\) & "piece of iron (as a būgure)" As a common noun displaced by the plural-as-sg \(k u ̄ t^{\varepsilon}\) \\
\hline Ǹ-Dāug \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & Ndago & dāog \({ }^{\text { }}\) & "male" \\
\hline \(\grave{M}\)-Puāk \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & Mpoaka & punāk \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & "female" \\
\hline \(\dot{M}-\operatorname{Bïl}^{\text {a }}\) & Mbillah & billa \(^{\text {a }}\) & "little" \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

The younger sibling of \(\dot{A}-W i ̄ n n{ }^{n \varepsilon /}\) may be called \(\grave{A}\)-Wīn-bíla "Awimbillah", of \(\dot{A}-\) Kūdvg \({ }^{\text {, }}\), À-Kud-bïla "Akudibillah" etc. Names for girls may follow the pattern \(\dot{A}-W i ̄ n-\) púáka "Awimpoaka."

A whole clause \(\underline{19.10 .1}\) is seen as a birth-circumstance personal name in
À-Tìım bódìg yā "The medicine has got lost."

Many Kusaasi traditionally had non-Kusaasi names as yet another method of breaking a cycle of stillbirths or early deaths, via pretended adoption by a "stranger"; hence Fulfulde names like Jambeedu, and along similar lines
\begin{tabular}{lll} 
À-Zàngbèog & Azangbego Zàngbèog \({ }^{\text {ºn }}\) & "Hausa person" \\
À-Nàsà-pūāka & Anasapoaka & \\
& & "European woman"; also a birth- \\
& & circumstance name for a \\
& \\
& & child delivered by a European \\
& midwife.
\end{tabular}

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.


\author{
"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 \(\{A b d u-r\)-Raћma:n(i)

KKY p6 has the interesting girl's personal name Amoryam, which looks like an adaptation of the Arabic name مريم Maryam(u) "Mary" as À-Mכ̄r Yām "Has Common Sense."

Christians use English (or French) baptismal names in speaking European languages, and in official contexts use their Kusaal personal names as "surnames."

\subsection*{35.3 Place Names}

For the form in which Kusaal personal and place names appear in Englishlanguage contexts see 35.3.1.

Many, though by no means all, Kusaal place names have transparent meanings.
John Turl maintains a site dedicated to Ghanaian toponymy, with much of interest both for the Kusaasi area and elsewhere. His research has helped me improve this section considerably. He does not always concur with my analyses: consult his site for details.

Place names include:
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|}
\hline \(B \grave{k}{ }^{\text { }}\) & Bawku & "pit, geographical depression" \\
\hline Kūk \({ }^{\text {a/ }}\) & Koka & "mahogany tree" \\
\hline Kùkpàrıg \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & Kokpariga & "palm tree" \\
\hline Tèmpáan \({ }^{\text {ne }}\) & Tempane & perhaps "new villages" \\
\hline Mu'à-nכ̄כr \({ }^{\text {c/ }}\) & Mogonori & "lakeside" ("lake-mouth") \\
\hline \(B\) às-yว̄nn \({ }^{\text {ne/ }}\) & Basyonde & "abandon sacks" ?reason for name \\
\hline Kügor \({ }^{\text {/ }}\) & Kugri & "stone" \\
\hline \(B \bar{u} g u r^{\varepsilon}\) & Bugri & būgur , object housing a \(w i ̄ n n\) ne/ "spirit" \\
\hline Widì-nyá'an \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & Woriyanga & archaic for wìd-nyá'an \({ }^{\text {a }}\) "mare" \\
\hline Bì-nà'ab \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & Binaba & "prince" \\
\hline Gàarv \({ }^{+}\) & Garu & probably Hausa gàaruu "wall around town or compound" \\
\hline Wiid-nà'ab \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & Widinaba & "chief of the clan Wiid \({ }^{\text {a }}\) \\
\hline Pūsıga/ & Pusiga & "tamarind" \\
\hline
\end{tabular}
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|}
\hline Til \({ }^{1 / 1}\) & Tilli & "tree trunk" cf Toende Kusaal tíl id (Hasiyatu Abubakari, p.c.) \\
\hline Mi'isıg \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & Missiga & Explained locally as from "mission" i.e. the Assemblies of God mission around which the village grew; perhaps influenced by mi'isug \({ }^{\circ}\) "dunking" (not in my materials, but cf Toende mi'isuk "baptism", KED mi'is "duck someone") \\
\hline Pùlıma Kú'èm \({ }^{\text {m }}\) & Pulimakom & "water by pùlıma+ (grass sp)" \\
\hline Wìdāan \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & Widana & for Wìd-dāana "Horse-Owner", title of a chief's n̄̄-dí'̇̀s \({ }^{\text {a }}\) "linguist" (spokesman/counsellor.) Usual informal name for Pulimakom, as the seat of this particular linguist. \\
\hline Dènnug \({ }^{\text { }}\) & Denugu & No known meaning \\
\hline Sā-bíla & Zebilla & "small grass"? \\
\hline Sā-píalìg \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & Sapeliga & "Isoberlinia Doka" ("white grass") \\
\hline Kıl-tā'amís \({ }^{\text { }}\) & Kultamse & "dog almonds" ("river shea trees") \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

WK thought that the first component of the names Sā-bíla and Sā-píəlìg \({ }^{a}\) was a plant used in making brooms. *Sāa=/ does not occur in my data (only sāa= "rain") or in Niggli's dictionary, but the cognate sáagá is glossed in his Farefare dictionary as "a kind of grass used for making brooms", and the Mampruli/Dagbani cognate saa refers to a grass Sporobolus subglobosus A. Chev (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 19.8.1 19.7.2.1, especially with names for plant and tree species: John Turl has located a careful 1935 report by an assistant agricultural officer which lists among local trees in the Farefare/Nabit area sapelaga Isoberlinia doka; it seems likely that this is the meaning of sā-píəlìgả. The report also lists ta-anga "Butyrospermum parkii" (Kusaal tá'an \({ }^{\mathrm{a}}\) ), and kulta-anga "Andira inermis", so kj̀l-tá'an \({ }^{\mathrm{a}}\) is probably this "dog almond."
\[
\text { Kùlugún }{ }^{\text {ºn }} \quad \text { Kulungungu } \quad \text { ? kòl-gùna "river-kapok" }
\]

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" ( \(n g=[\eta]\) ); Prost notes an adjectival suffix -da "s'appliquant aux grandes choses ou marquant intensité."
\begin{tabular}{lll} 
Àg̀̀ \(l^{\prime} \varepsilon\) & Agolle & \begin{tabular}{l} 
the Kusaasi area east of the White \\
Volta; cf àgólı "upwards"; for the
\end{tabular} \\
Tù̀n
\end{tabular}

For points of the compass, WK gave as accepted terms
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|}
\hline N & Bārog \({ }^{\text {/ }}\) & "Bisa country" \\
\hline E & Nyá'an \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & "behind" \\
\hline S & Zuēya+ & "hills" (i.e. the Gambaga Escarpment) \\
\hline W & Tùөn \({ }^{\text {ne }}\) & "in front" \\
\hline
\end{tabular}
reflecting the traditional Kusaasi orientation, opposite to the Muslim one.
Words referring to ethnic groups and clans consistently have place names formed from the same stem with the suffix \(-g^{2}\). These can be nonce-formations and need not necessarily refer to any established political entity or permanent settlement:
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|}
\hline Kòtāun \({ }^{\text {/ }}\) & any place inhabited by the clan Kòtāmma/ \\
\hline Kūsávò \({ }^{\text {ºn }}\) & "Kusaasiland" \\
\hline Mj̀ \(\mathrm{g}^{\text { }}\) & \begin{tabular}{l}
"Mossi country" \\
(Mว̀วg Ná'àb \({ }^{\text {a }}\) "Moro Naba, King of the Mossi")
\end{tabular} \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

Places outside \(K \bar{u}\) sáv̀ \(^{\supset}\) generally do not have Kusaal names (an exception is Sānkáàns \({ }^{\varepsilon}\) "Sankanse" in Burkina Faso.) For "Accra" the Twi-derived name Ankara is usual. Niggli's Dictionnaire has Toende Wa'arok for "Ouagadougou", but I could not elicit any Agolle equivalent. The form looks like *Wā'adóg \({ }^{\text {J }}\) "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.

Curiously, there seems to be no Agolle Kusaal proper name for the White Volta river, which is simply kJ̄luga "river"; presumably this is simply because it is the only real river within \(K u \bar{s} a ́ u ̀{ }^{\circ}{ }^{J}\).

\subsection*{35.3.1 Kusaal Personal and Place Names in English}

When speaking English or French, Kusaasi cite Kusaal personal and place names in a guise which resembles the Long Form, showing the underlying final vowel without Apocope: thus \(\grave{A}-W i ̄ n n^{n \varepsilon /}\) from Wìdı-nyá'an \({ }^{\text {a }}\) will introduce himself as "Awini" from "Woriyanga." Similarly "Kusaasi" for Kūsáàs \({ }^{\varepsilon}\), "Bawku" for Bj̀ \({ }^{\top}\), and many other examples in 35.2 and 35.3 .

If this behaviour were confined to personal names, it might plausibly be attributed to the incorporation of the Vocative Prosodic Clitic, but, as has been seen, it is equally characteristic of place names. Moreover, the form "Woriyanga" for Widı-nyá'an a 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 Wìdāana rather than Mampruli Wuddaana "(title of) a chief's linguist" and female personal names like "Awimpoaka" À-Wīn-pưáka even show the characteristic Agolle Kusaal vowel breaking, in contrast to the Toende form Awinpska (Niggli.) Again, the personal name "Akudugu" À-Kūdvg \({ }^{\text {ºn }}\) shows the postvocalic - \(d\) - characteristic of Agolle Kusaal rather than Mampruli. The Toende place name \(T_{i}{ }^{\varepsilon / \varepsilon /}\) "Tilli" corresponds to Toende Kusaal tíl and Farefare tílé "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 \(\grave{A}-D \bar{u} k^{J /}\).

\subsection*{35.4 Ethnic Group and Clan Names}

Names for the group belong to the \({ }^{a} \mid b^{a}\) or \(g^{\mathrm{a}} \mid s^{\varepsilon}\) Classes (apart from Zàngbèog \({ }^{\text {² }}\) "Hausa" and Nàsāara+ "European") and their language to the \(I^{\varepsilon}\) Subclass of \(r^{\varepsilon} \mid a^{+}\). The place they inhabit has the suffix \(-g{ }^{\text { }}\).
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|c|c|}
\hline Ethnic gp sg & Ethnic gp pl & Language & Place & \\
\hline Kūsáa= & Kūsáàs \({ }^{\varepsilon}\) & Kūsáàl \({ }^{\text {e }}\) & Kūsávò \({ }^{\text { }}\) & Kusaasi \\
\hline \({ }_{\sim}^{N} w a ̄ m p u ̄ r ı g^{\text {a/ }}\) & \(\sim_{\sim}^{\text {Nwāmpūrıs }}\) / & Nwāmpūrılı \({ }^{\text {¢/ }}\) & Nwāmpūrog \({ }^{\text {/ }}\) & Mamprussi \\
\hline Bārıga/ & Bārıs \({ }^{\varepsilon /}\) & \(B a ̄ t^{\varepsilon /}\) & Bārog \({ }^{\text {/ }}\) & Bisa \\
\hline Mùa+ & Mj̀ss \({ }^{\text {® }}\) & Mj̀ \({ }^{\text {¢ }}\) & Mj̀ \({ }^{\text {J }}\) & Mossi \\
\hline Dàgbān \({ }^{\text {ne/ }}\) & Dàgbāmma/ & Dàgbān \({ }^{\text {ne/ }}\) & Dàgbāun & Dagomba \\
\hline \(B i n^{\text {ne }}\) & Bim \({ }^{\text {ma }}\) & \(B i n^{n \varepsilon}\) & Biun \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & Moba \\
\hline Sìmiig \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & Sìmiis \({ }^{\text { }}\) & Sìmīil \({ }^{\text {c }}\) & Simiug \({ }^{\text { }}\) & Fulbe \\
\hline Yàan \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & Yàans \({ }^{\varepsilon}\) & Yàan \({ }^{\text {ne }}\) & & Yansi \\
\hline Gōrín \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & Gōrís \({ }^{\text {® }}\) & Gōrínn \({ }^{\text {ne }}\) & & Farefare \\
\hline Yārıga/ & Yārıs \({ }^{\text {/ }}\) & Yāt \({ }^{\varepsilon /}\) & & Yarsi \\
\hline Zàngbèog \({ }^{\text { }}\) & Zàngbèzd \({ }^{\varepsilon}\) & Zàngbè \(\left.\right|^{\varepsilon}\) & & Hausa \\
\hline Bùlıg \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & Bùlıs \({ }^{\text { }}\) & Bùlı & & Bulsa \\
\hline Tàlına & Tàlıs \({ }^{\text {E }}\) & Tàlın \({ }^{\text {ne }}\) & & Tallensi \\
\hline Nàbıd \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & \(N a ̀ b ı d ı b^{\text {a }}\) & Nàbır \({ }^{\text { }}\) & & Nabdema \\
\hline Bùsán \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & Bùsáàns \({ }^{\varepsilon}\) & Bùsáàn \(/^{\text {E }}\) & & Bisa \\
\hline Nàsāara+ &  & \(N a ̀ s a ̄ a l^{\varepsilon}\) & & European \\
\hline Kàmbòn \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & Kàmbùmıs \({ }^{\text { }}\) & Kàmbùnır \({ }^{\text {E }}\) & & Ashanti \\
\hline
\end{tabular}
\(B \bar{a} r ı s^{\varepsilon /}\) is "Bisa" generally, not just the Bareka; Bìm \({ }^{\text {ma }}\) similarly is "Moba" in general, and not only the Bemba (WK.)

Note


Kusaasi clan names include，among many others：
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|c|}
\hline Singular & Plural & Place & \\
\hline Kòtān \({ }^{\text {n } / ~}\) & Kùtām \({ }^{\text {ma／}}\) & Kòtāun \({ }^{\text {／}}\) & WK＇s clan \\
\hline \multirow[t]{4}{*}{Zùa＋} & Zù̀s \({ }^{\text {¢ }}\) & & \\
\hline & Zưà－sābılís \({ }^{\text { }}\) & & subclans \\
\hline & Zuà－wiil \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & & \\
\hline & or Zưà－wìis \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & & \\
\hline Wiid \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & Wiid－nam \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & Wiidug \({ }^{\text { }}\) & \\
\hline Nàbıd \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & \(N a ̀ b ı{ }^{\text {d }}{ }^{\text {a }}\) & Nàbıdug \({ }^{\text {J }}\) & \\
\hline Gjog \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & Gう̀s \({ }^{\varepsilon}\) & Gjog \({ }^{\text { }}\) & \\
\hline \multirow[t]{3}{*}{Sà＇dàbùa＋} & Sà＇dàbù \({ }^{\text {S }}{ }^{\varepsilon}-b u ̀ b^{\text {a }}\) & Sà＇dàbj̀ \({ }^{\text { }}\) & \\
\hline & Nà＇dàm \({ }^{\text {ma }}\) & Nà＇daun \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & \\
\hline & Gòm－dìm \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & Gòm \({ }^{\text {me }}\) & \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

Nàbıd \({ }^{\text {a }}\) as a clan name is different from the ethnic group＂Nabdema＂（WK．）

\section*{35．5 Trees and Fruits}

Tree names are almost all \(g^{\text {a }} \mid s^{\varepsilon}\) Class，like tìı \(g^{\text {a＂tree＂；their fruits are Classes }}\) \(r^{\varepsilon} \mid a^{+}\)or \(g^{\top} \mid d^{\varepsilon}\) ．
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|c|c|}
\hline Tree sg & Tree pl & Fruit sg & Fruit pl & \\
\hline āañdıg \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & āandıs \({ }^{\text {e }}\) & āandır \({ }^{\text {e }}\) & āanda＋ & Vitex doniana \\
\hline dùan \({ }^{+}\) & dう̀วns \({ }^{\text {® }}\) & dう̀nng \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & dう̀วnd \({ }^{\text {¢ }}\) & dawadawa \\
\hline gāañ \(=1\) & gāañ \({ }^{\varepsilon /}\) & \(g \mathrm{a}_{\sim} \mathrm{r}^{\varepsilon /}\) & gānyá \({ }^{\text {d }}\) & Nigerian ebony \\
\hline gùn \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & gùmıs \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & gòm \({ }^{\text {m }}\) & gùma＋ & kapok \\
\hline kikàn \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & kikàmıs \({ }^{\text { }}\) & kikàm \({ }^{\text {me }}\) & kikàma＋ & fig tree \\
\hline kpùkpàrıg \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & kpùkpàrıs \({ }^{\text {® }}\) & kpòkpàr \({ }^{\text {¢ }}\) & kpùkpàra＋ & palm \\
\hline pūsıga＇ & pūsıs \({ }^{\text {／}}\) & pūsırı／ & pūsá \({ }^{+}\) & tamarind \\
\hline sīsíbìga & sīsíbis \({ }^{\text { }}\) & sīsíbìr \({ }^{\text {c }}\) & sīsíbà \({ }^{+}\) & neem \\
\hline tá＇an \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & tā＇amís \({ }^{\text { }}\) & tá＇am \({ }^{\text {me }}\) & tā＇amá＋ & shea butter \\
\hline \(t \varepsilon{ }^{\prime} \varepsilon g^{\text {a }}\) & \(t \varepsilon{ }^{\prime} \varepsilon s^{\varepsilon}\) & \(t \varepsilon ̇ ' o g ~>~\) & \(t{ }^{\prime}{ }^{\prime} \varepsilon d^{\varepsilon}\) & baobab \\
\hline vúөク \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & vūөmís \({ }^{\varepsilon}\) & vúөr \({ }^{\varepsilon}\) & vūaá＝ & red kapok \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

The stems for＂red kapok＂and its fruit are slightly different：tree＊vuөm－fruit＊vueg－

\subsection*{35.6 Body Parts}

Most human and animal body parts belong to the Classes \(r^{\varepsilon} \mid a^{+}\)and \(g^{\top} \mid d^{\varepsilon}\) :
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|c|}
\hline biāunk \({ }^{3}\) & "shoulder" & bïən \({ }^{\text {ne }}\) & "shin" \\
\hline bi'isır \({ }^{\text {c }}\) & "woman's breast" & dūm \({ }^{\text {me }}\) & "knee" \\
\hline \(g b a ̄ u \eta^{3}\) & "animal skin; lip, eyelid" & \(g b \bar{\varepsilon} r^{\varepsilon /}\) & "thigh" \\
\hline gbè'og \({ }^{\text { }}\) & "forehead" & gbin \({ }^{\text {nع }}\) & "buttock" \\
\hline gbìn-vว̀วñr \({ }^{\varepsilon}\) & "anus" & \(g \bar{u} r^{\varepsilon}{ }^{\varepsilon}\) & "ridge of back" \\
\hline úll & "horn" & \(k \bar{b} r^{\text {r }}\) & "bone" \\
\hline  & "hair" & kpenndır \({ }^{\text {e/ }}\) & "cheek" \\
\hline kpisukpill \({ }^{\text {l }}\) & "fist" & lām \({ }^{\text {me/ }}\) & "gum" \\
\hline lān \({ }^{\text {ne }}\) & "testicle" & lùgur \({ }^{\text {¢ }}\) & "organ, member" \\
\hline nìn-gbin \({ }^{\text {a/ }}\) & "human skin, body" & nìn-gう̀วr \({ }^{\text {e }}\) & "neck" \\
\hline nóbùr \({ }^{\text {² }}\) & "leg" & nכ̄b-pómpàun \({ }^{\text {² }}\) & "foot" \\
\hline nכ̄วr \({ }^{\text {¢/ }}\) & "mouth" & \(\underset{\sim}{n} y\) ̄n \({ }^{\text {ne/ }}\) & "tooth" \\
\hline nуวうว \({ }_{\sim}^{\text {¢ }}\) & "intestines" & nуj̄'วg \({ }^{\text {/ }}\) & "chest" \\
\hline nyว̄วr \({ }^{\text { }}\) & "nose" & \(p \varepsilon n^{\text {ne }}\) & "vagina" \\
\hline pūor \({ }^{\text {/ }}\) & "stomach" & sכ̄วñr \({ }^{\text {¢ }}\) & "liver" \\
\hline tàsıntàl \({ }^{\text {¢ }}\) & "palm" & tàtàl \({ }^{\text {l }}\) & "palm" \\
\hline tìn-gūur \({ }^{\text {¢ }}\) & "chin" & tùb-kpì \({ }^{\text { }}\) & "half of jaw" \\
\hline tùbur \({ }^{\text {e }}\) & "ear" & yìr \({ }^{\text {e }}\) & "jaw" \\
\hline \(y u ̄ ' ө r^{\varepsilon}\) & "penis" & zàñ1 \({ }^{1 \varepsilon}\) & "umbilicus" \\
\hline zìlım \({ }^{\text {m }}\) & "tongue" & zūg \({ }^{\text {/ }}\) & "head" \\
\hline zūөbúg \({ }^{\text { }}\) & "human head hair" & \(z \bar{u} r^{\varepsilon}\) & "tail" \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

There are significant exceptions, however:
\(g^{\mathrm{a}} \mathrm{s}^{\varepsilon}\) Class:
\begin{tabular}{ll} 
nú'ùg & "hand" \(\underline{9.3 .2 .1}\) \\
nū'-bíla & "finger" \\
nū'-ín'a+ & "fingernail" \\
nכ̄b-ín'a+ & "toenail" \\
nyá'ana & "back"
\end{tabular}
perhaps as the prototypical tool.
but nū'-dáv̀g \({ }^{\text {º }}\) "thumb"
nכ̄b-bíla "toe"
sīa+ "waist"
tìə \({ }^{\text {a }}\) "beard"
\(f^{P} \iota^{+}\)Class:
\begin{tabular}{ll} 
nīfol & "eye" \\
sià-nīf/ & "kidney" \\
sūñf/ & "heart"
\end{tabular}
as a "small round thing"?
as a compound of "eye"
beside sūuñr \(r^{\varepsilon /} \quad r^{\varepsilon} \mid a^{+}\)Class

\subsection*{35.7 Colour Terms}

Kusaal, like many local languages, has a basic three-colour system:
\begin{tabular}{lll} 
zèn'og & "red" & covering all reddish shades \\
sābılíg & colour \\
pìəıg & "black" & covering all darker shades of colour \\
& "white" & covering all lighter shades of colour
\end{tabular}

Wiug \({ }^{\text {P }}\) "red" is synonymous with \(z{\underset{\sim}{n}}^{\prime}{ }^{\prime} o g^{\text { }}\). Kusaal has many more or less standardised expressions for colour (e.g. wōv 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.

\subsection*{35.8 Time Expressions}

Answers to bう̀-wìn \({ }^{\text {ne }}\) "what time of day?"
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|c|}
\hline bēogu-n \({ }^{\text {¢/ }}\) & "morning" & àsùbá+ & "dawn" ( \(\leftarrow\) Arabic) \\
\hline bèk \(k\) kèong \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & "very early morning" & zàam \({ }^{\text {m }}\) & "evening" \\
\hline win-liir \({ }^{\text {e }}\) & "sunset" & yó'ט \({ }^{\text {² }}\) & "night" \\
\hline win-kj̀ \(\sim_{\sim} r^{\varepsilon}\) & "sunset" & nīntā \(\eta^{\text {a/ }}\) & "heat of the day, early afternoon" \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

Winn \({ }^{\text {ne }}\) "time of day" (cf wìnnıg \({ }^{\text {a }}\) "sun"), always with a pre-determiner.
There are no traditional expressions for clock time; NT/KB adapts from Hausa:
kérıfà àtáñ "three o'clock" Hausa: karfèe ukù

The deictic particle ñwà "this" is commonly attached to time words:
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|c|}
\hline zàam ñwá & "this evening" & [za:ma] & \\
\hline yó'un ñwá & "tonight" & [yర్ల:מ:a] & 8.5.1 \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

The day begins at sunrise, not sunset as with Muslims.
Answers to būn-dáàre "which day?":
\begin{tabular}{llll} 
zīná+ & "today" & sù'өs \\
\(b \bar{\varepsilon} o g^{\text {a }}\) & "tomorrow" & dāar & "yesterday" \\
& & "day after tomorrow/ \\
& & day before yesterday"
\end{tabular}

Weekday names are from Arabic via Hausa, the seven-day week being a Muslim importation. The traditional "week" is a three day market cycle, differing from village to village and carrying on regardless of any weekdays or festivals. Many older speakers do not use weeks at all, but count in days instead.
\begin{tabular}{llll} 
Àláasìd dáàr \({ }^{\varepsilon}\) & "Sunday" & Àtínì dáà \(r^{\varepsilon}\) & "Monday" \\
Àtàláatà dáàr & "Tuesday" & Àlárıbà dáàr \(r^{\varepsilon}\) & "Wednesday" \\
Àlàmíisì dáà \(r^{\varepsilon}\) & "Thursday" & À(r)zúmà dáàr \(r^{\varepsilon}\) & "Friday" \\
Àsíbıtì dáàr \(r^{\varepsilon}\) & "Saturday" & &
\end{tabular}

Dāar \({ }^{\varepsilon}\) "day" is "twenty-four hour period" (nīntān "day as opposed to night") and is used with pre-determiners to specify a particular day; the word dàbıstr \({ }^{\varepsilon}\) 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 fò ná l \(\bar{b} b\) nā.
Àláasìd dáàr kà fù ná lह̄b nā.
Tì kpślìm ànínā dábısà bỉəlá.

Longer periods of time:
\begin{tabular}{lll} 
dābá àyópj̀e & "week" & also bákpàe \(\leftarrow\) Hausa bakwài "seven" \\
\(n \underset{\sim}{n} w a ̄ d ı g^{\text {a/ }}\) & "moon, month" & \\
\(n \sim n w a ̄ d-k a ́ n i ̀ ~ k e ̄ n ~ n a ̄ ~ l a ̄ ~\) & "next month" & ("the month which is coming") \\
ñwād-kánì gàad lā & "last month" & ("the month which has passed")
\end{tabular}

There are two seasons:
sēoñ \({ }^{\nu} \quad\) "rainy season" úun \({ }^{\text {ne }} \quad\) "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 wìnne; "time" as in "several times" is nכ̄כr 16.2.5. Examples with sāná+:
\begin{tabular}{llll} 
sān-kánह̀? & "when?" & sān-kán lā & "at that time" \\
sāná kám & "all the time" & sāná bèdvḡ̄ & "a long time" \\
sānsá bèdvgō & "many times" & sāpá br̉əlá & "for/in a short time"
\end{tabular}

\section*{36 Minimal Pairs}

In this section I will note only a few instances from two areas where traditional orthography has been deficient: the tense/lax distinction in monophthongal high vowels, and tone.

\subsection*{36.1 Tense and Lax Vowels}

There are few minimal pairs for the contrast \(u / v\) in short root vowels and very few indeed for \(i / \iota\); there is no contrast in the corresponding nasal short vowels 4.2.1. There is a robust contrast between long uu/vv and long \(i i / u\), and thus between the corresponding vowels shortened by Apocope, but even here it is difficult to find true minimal pairs; lì "fall", for example, certainly contrasts phonetically with lì "it", but the words contain a root vowel and an affix vowel respectively.

Minimal and near-minimal pairs include
\begin{tabular}{llll} 
lìdıg & "astonish, be amazed" & lìdıg & "turn a shirt" WK \\
sīd & "husband" \\
sībıg & \begin{tabular}{l} 
antelope species KED
\end{tabular} & \begin{tabular}{l} 
sībıg
\end{tabular} & "be silent" \\
& & "termite"
\end{tabular}

Although contrasts do thus exist in short \(i / \iota ~ u / v\) even when these are not the result of Apocope, written sources show great fluctuation in the writing of e/lo/v, and it may well be that in many contexts a three-way contrast is not demonstrable.

Contrasts among the short root vowels seem to be often found only after particular classes of preceding consonant, especially with \(i / \iota\); this is perhaps connected with the loss of the original palatal consonants in Western Oti-Volta.

\subsection*{36.2 Tones}

Tone functions more as a syntactic marker than to distinguish lexemes, and words often undergo alteration of their tone patterns by tone sandhi or overlay. Lexical tone has a low functional load, and the absence of tone marking in the traditional orthography causes no great difficulty to Kusaasi experienced in reading the language. Minimal pairs exist, however; among other examples are
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|c|c|}
\hline & àgólı \({ }^{\text {l }}\) & "upwards" & Àgı̀ & "Eastern Kusaasiland" \\
\hline & bā \(\square^{\text {a }}\) & "ring, chain" & bà \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & "agama lizard" \\
\hline & \(b \overline{o b}^{\prime} a r^{\varepsilon /}\) & "skin bottle" & \(b\) b̀'ar \(^{\varepsilon}\) & "hole" \\
\hline & būk \({ }^{\text {/ }}\) & "weaken" & \(b \dot{\text { b }}{ }^{\varepsilon}\) & "cast lots" \\
\hline & dāog \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & "male" & dàug \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & "piece of wood" \\
\hline & \(d i ̄ g r^{\varepsilon /}\) & "lying-place" & dìgir \({ }^{\text {e }}\) & "dwarf" \\
\hline & dúer \({ }^{\text {E }}\) & "raising" (gerund) & \(d u ̄ ө r^{\varepsilon /}\) & "stick" \\
\hline & gā \({ }^{\varepsilon /}\) & "choose" & \(g\) àn \({ }^{\text { }}\) & "step over" \\
\hline & gbāun \({ }^{\text {a/ }}\) & "skin", "book" DK & gbàun \({ }^{\text {² }}\) & "book" WK \\
\hline & \(k u \overline{k^{\text {a/ }}}\) & "mahogany tree" & kùk \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & "ghost" \\
\hline & \(k \bar{u} k^{\text {a }}\) & "chair" & & \\
\hline & \(m a ̄ k^{\varepsilon /}\) & "measure" & màk \({ }^{\varepsilon}\) & "crumple up" \\
\hline & \(m \overline{\partial g} g\) & "bush, wilderness" & Mjे \(g^{\text { }}\) & "Mossi realm" \\
\hline & \(n \bar{\varepsilon} \varepsilon m^{\mathrm{m} /}\) & "grind with millstone" & nغ̀ \({ }^{\text {m }}\) & "emptiness; for free" \\
\hline & \(n \bar{\varepsilon} \varepsilon r^{\varepsilon /}\) & "millstone" & \(n \varepsilon\) ¢ \(r^{\varepsilon}\) & "empty" \\
\hline & níis \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & "birds" & niis \({ }^{\text {d }}\) & "bodies" \\
\hline & pid \({ }^{\varepsilon}\) & "get bloated" & pìd \({ }^{\text {d }}\) & "put on hat, shoes etc" \\
\hline & pīas \({ }^{\text {/ }}\) & "wash" & pìs \({ }^{\varepsilon}\) & "fool somebody" \\
\hline & sáam \({ }^{\text {ma }}\) & "guests" & sàam \({ }^{\text {ma }}\) & "father" \\
\hline & sāam \({ }^{\text {m/ }}\) & "mash up" & & \\
\hline & siāák/ & "suffice" & siàk \({ }^{\text {¢ }}\) & "agree" \\
\hline & w \(\bar{\varepsilon}^{\text {og }}{ }^{\text { }}\) & "cheap/common thing" & wèog \({ }^{\text {² }}\) & "deep bush" \\
\hline & yáan \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & "grandchild" & Yàan \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & "Yansi, Yanga person" \\
\hline & yīdıg \({ }^{\text {g/ }}\) & "untie" & yidıg \({ }^{\text {e }}\) & "go astray" \\
\hline & \(y{ }^{+}\) & "pay" & yj\({ }^{+}\) & "close" \\
\hline SFs: & lābss \({ }^{\text {a/ }}\) & "be wide" & làbıs \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & "walk stealthily" \\
\hline cbs: & nā'-kánā & "this cow" & nà'-kànā & "this chief" \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

Certain particles differ in tone alone:
\begin{tabular}{llll} 
dāa & "two days ago" & dàa & "day after tomorrow" \\
dā & negative Imperative & dà & "before two days ago"
\end{tabular}

\section*{37 General Vocabulary}

Words are ordered by Short Forms.
Vowel glottalisation, and the distinctions \(n / n, ~ ә / e / e / \varepsilon, i / \iota / i, \theta / o / \nu\) and \(u / v / u\) 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 follow the entry for the Combining Form of 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 \(g^{\supset} \mid d^{\varepsilon}\) or \(r^{\varepsilon} \mid a^{+}\). Variable Verbs are listed under the Base Form.

Variable Verb Dynamic Imperfectives and imperatives are listed only where irregular. Gerunds, Agent Nouns and Dynamic Deverbal Adjectives are not listed unless they show some irregularity of form or a specialised meaning.

Personal names and Kusaasi place names are not listed below: see 35.2 35.3 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 18.1.

Binomial names of plants taken from Haaf (see sources) are likely to be reliable; he checked the identifications with local botanical experts.

Abbreviations:
\begin{tabular}{llll}
\(a d j\) & Adjective & \(a d v\) & Adverb \\
\(a g t\) & Agent Noun & \(c b\) & Combining Form \\
\(\operatorname{dipf}\) & Dynamic Imperfective & \(g e r\) & Gerund \\
\(i m p\) & Imperative & \(i v\) & Invariable Verb \\
\(n\) & Noun & \(p l\) & Plural \\
\(q\) & Quantifier & \(r e s\) & Resultative \\
\(s g\) & Singular & \(v v\) & Variable Verb
\end{tabular}

\section*{A}
à-
āandı \(g^{a}\)
\(p l \quad\) āandıs \({ }^{\varepsilon}\)
cb àañd-
āandır \({ }^{\varepsilon}\)
pl āanda+
àañs \({ }^{\varepsilon}\)
àbùlá+
àbòyí \({ }^{+}\)àbòtáńn' \({ }^{+}\)àbònāasí \({ }^{+}\)
à-dàalún \({ }^{\text {º }}\)
\(p l\) à-dàalís \({ }^{\varepsilon}\) à-dàalímiss
cb à-dàalón-
àdàkóñ'+
àen \({ }^{\text {a }}\)
ger àañ \({ }_{\sim}\) ím \(^{m}\)
àen \({ }^{+}\)
res adj àañ \({ }^{\prime} \eta^{\circ}\)
à-gáving \({ }^{\text { }}\)
pl à-gáàñd \({ }^{\varepsilon}\)
cb à-gāñ-
àgólı \({ }^{\text {l }}\) à \(g \overline{l a} l a ́+\)
Àg̀̀ \({ }^{\prime \prime}\)
à-kj̄ra-díàm \({ }^{\text {ma }}\)
pl à-kj̄ra-díàm-nàm \({ }^{\text {a }}\)
àlá+
àlá+
àláafù \({ }^{+}\)

Àláasìd dáàr \({ }^{\varepsilon}\)
Àlàmíisì dáàr \({ }^{\varepsilon}\)
Àlárıbà dáàr \({ }^{\varepsilon}\)
àlá zùg \({ }^{\text {² }}\)
àlópìr \({ }^{\varepsilon}\)
pl àlópìya \({ }^{+}\)
àmáa=
àm \(\bar{\varepsilon} \eta a^{+}\)
àmí

Personifier proclitic 19.10
n. black plum tree, Vitex doniana 35.5
n. black plum fruit \(\underline{35.5}\)
\(v v\). tear
how many-fold? 16.2.5
\(a d v\). twice, three times etc \(\underline{16.2 .5}\)
n. stork \(\underline{19.10}\)
q. one 16.2.3
\(i v\). be something/somehow 24.2 8.5.3 8.5.2
\(v v\). get torn
adj. torn
n. pied crow 19.10
\(a d v\). upwards
n. Agolle district of Kusaasi territory
n. Agolle Kusaal dialect
n. praying mantis \(\underline{19.10}\)
adv. thus 17.1
q. so many; how many? 17.1
n. health; in greetings \(\underline{34}\) cf láafiya \({ }^{+}\)
\(\leftarrow\) Arabic العافية Pal-乌a:fiya(tu)
n. Sunday \(\underline{35.8} \leftarrow\) Arabic
n. Thursday \(35.8 \leftarrow\) Arabic
n. Wednesday \(35.8 \leftarrow\) Arabic
therefore 28.1.1 17.1
\(n\). aeroplane \(\leftarrow\) English
but 27.1.3 \(\leftarrow\) Hausa \(\leftarrow\) Arabic
\(a d v\). really, truly 20.4
amen \(\leftarrow\) Arabic \(ا\) Tمين; in replies to greetings \(\underline{34}\)
à-mús \({ }^{\varepsilon}\)
pl à-mús-nàma \({ }^{\text {a }}\)
ànāasí \({ }^{+}\)
àní \({ }^{+}\)
àníi=
àní \(n a \bar{a}^{+/}\)
ànígà \({ }^{+}\)
ànó'ว̀n \({ }^{\varepsilon}\)
ànrup \({ }^{3}\)
pl ànrıma+
cb àñrop-
āns \({ }^{\varepsilon}\)
ánsìb \({ }^{a}\)
pl āñs-nám \({ }^{a}\)
cb āns-
ānsıgé
ānsín \({ }^{a}\)
pl āñsís \({ }^{\varepsilon}\)
cb āñsıク-
àntù' \(a^{=}\)
\(p l\) àntù'es \({ }^{\varepsilon}\)
cb àntư'à-
àn \(\bar{u}^{+}\)
ànwá+
ānzúrıfà \({ }^{+}\)
àrazàk \({ }^{\text {a }}\)
pl àrazà'as \({ }^{\varepsilon}\)
cb àrazà'-
àrazánà+
Àrzúmà dáàr \({ }^{\varepsilon}\)
àséع
Àsíbıtì dáàr \({ }^{\varepsilon}\)
àsīda+
àsùbá \({ }^{+}\)
àtáñ'+
Àtàláatà dáàr \({ }^{\varepsilon}\)
àtánā+/
Àtínì dáàr \({ }^{\varepsilon}\)
àtìuk \({ }^{\text {² }}\)
àwánā+/
n. cat 19.10; cf Hausa mussàa id
q. four 16.2.2
\(a d v\). there 17.1
q. eight 16.2.2
\(a d v\). there 17.1
\(a d v\). promptly 20.4
who? 15.4
\(n\). boat (written aarup in the 1976/1996 NT)
\(v v\). pluck (leaves)
n. mother's brother 35.1
\(\nu \nu\). break at an angle
n. (man's) sister's child 35.1
n. lawsuit
\(q\). five 16.2.2
\(a d v\). like this 17.1
\(n\). silver
Hausa azùrfaa \(\leftarrow\) Berber *a-z̧rəf, Souag 2016
n. wealth, riches \(\leftarrow\) Arabic الرزق Par-rizq(u)

Generally used in pl
n. heaven, sky \(\leftarrow\) Arabic الجنة Pal-fanna(tu)
n. Friday \(35.8 \leftarrow\) Arabic
except, unless 21.2 27.1.3 \(\leftarrow\) Hausa sai
n. Saturday \(35.8 \leftarrow\) Arabic
\(a d v\). truly 20.4
n. dawn \(\leftarrow\) Arabic الصباح Pas \({ }^{〔}-s^{\uparrow} a b a: \hbar(u)\)
q. three 16.2.2
n. Tuesday \(35.8 \leftarrow\) Arabic
q. three exactly 16.2 .2
n. Monday \(35.8 \leftarrow\) Arabic
\(n\). sea \(\leftarrow\) Hausa tèeku
\(a d v\). like this \(\underline{17.1}\)
àwāe \({ }^{+}\)
àyí \({ }^{+}\)
áyìı
àyínā+/
àyว́pjè \({ }^{+}\)
àyúebò \({ }^{+}\)

\section*{B}
bà
\(b a^{+}\)
bā'+/
pl bā'-nám \({ }^{\text {a }}\)
cb bā'-
bāa= pl bāas \({ }^{\varepsilon}\)
cb bà-
bā'a=
pl bā'ab \({ }^{\text {a }}\)
cb bà'a-bà'a-kj̀lug \({ }^{\text {º }}\)
pl bà'a-kj̀nn \({ }^{\text {ne }}\)
cb bà'a-kう̀l-
bā'a=
pl bā'as \({ }^{\varepsilon}\)
cb bà'-
\(b a ̀ ' a n^{\text {n }}\)
pl bà'ana+
cb bà'an-
bàañ/ıg \({ }^{\text {a }}\)
pl bàañ \(/ \mathrm{ss}^{\varepsilon}\)
bāañ~íg \({ }^{\text {a }}\)
bāañ \({ }_{\sim}\) ím \(^{\mathrm{m}}\)
bà'ar \({ }^{\varepsilon}\)
pl bàda+ bà'a+
cb bà'-
bābá+
bàbıgā+/
bákpàe \({ }^{+}\)
cf \(b a \bar{b} b r^{\varepsilon /}\) sphere of activity
\(q\). nine 16.2.2
q. two \(\underline{16.2 .2}\)
no 28.2.4
q. two exactly 16.2 .2
q. seven 16.2.2
q. six 16.2.2
they, their (Proclitic) 15.1
them (Enclitic object) 15.1
\(n\). father 9.4
n. \(\operatorname{dog}\)
n. traditional diviner
n. diviner's bag
n. peg to hang things on
n. stocks (punishment)
adj. narrow, slender
adj. quiet
\(a d v\). quietly
\(n\). idol
beside, postposition 20.6
q. many 16.1
\(n\). week \(\leftarrow\) Hausa bakwài "seven"
bàlàar \({ }^{\varepsilon}\)
pl bàlàya+
cb bàlà-
bàlànır
pl bàlàna+
cb bàlàn-
bālērug \({ }^{2 /}\)
pl bālērıd \({ }^{\varepsilon /} b a ̄ / \bar{\varepsilon} r ı s^{\varepsilon /}\)
cb bālér-
bàmmā+/
bàn \({ }^{\varepsilon}\)
bán
bān \({ }^{\varepsilon}\)
bāñ' \({ }^{+}\)
bānāa=
pl bānāas \({ }^{\varepsilon}\)
cb bànà-
bàn'ad \({ }^{\text {a }}\)
pl bàñ'ad-nàma
bān'al \({ }^{\varepsilon /}\)
bāñ'as \({ }^{\varepsilon}\)
cb bàñ'-
bàn-dāug \({ }^{\text {º }}\)
pl bàn-dāad \({ }^{\varepsilon}\)
cb bàn-dà-
bān-kúsé|l
pl bān-kúsēlá+
cb bān-kúsēl-
bā \({ }^{a}\)
pl bāañs \({ }^{\varepsilon}\)
\(c b\) bàn-
bàna
bà \({ }^{\varepsilon}\)
báp
Bārıga/
pl Bārıs \({ }^{\varepsilon /}\)
cb Bār-
bárıkà \({ }^{+}\)

Bārug \({ }^{\text {/ }}\)
bàs \({ }^{\varepsilon}\)
n. stick, staff, club
n. hat
adj. ugly cf \(/ \bar{\varepsilon} r^{\varepsilon}\) "get ugly"
these, those (Demonstrative 15.2)
these, those (Demonstrative 15.2)
they (Subject of \(\grave{n}\)-Clause) 15.1
they, them (Contrastive) 15.1
\(v v\). ride
\(n\). traditional "fugu" smock
tone sic in my materials; ?error for bāná\(n\). ill person
\(v v\). make to ride (horse, bicycle)
n. pl as sg disease
n. crocodile
n. lizard
n. ring, chain, fetter
n. agama lizard
\(v v\). come to know
wallop!
n. Bisa person 35.4; not only the Bareka, WK
n. blessing; in greetings \(\underline{34}\)
\(\leftarrow\) Arabic بركة baraka(tun)
n. Bisa country; North 35.3
\(v v\). go away; abandon
\(B a ̄ t^{\varepsilon /}\)
bàtán' \({ }^{+}\)
bàuno \({ }^{+}\)
bày \(\bar{\varepsilon} o g^{\text {/ }}\)
bàyí \({ }^{+}\)
bàyópj̀e+
bè \({ }^{+}\)
ger bèllím \({ }^{\mathrm{m}}\) sic
bēdıg \({ }^{\varepsilon /}\)
\(b \varepsilon ̀ d u g^{د} b \varepsilon ̇ d ı r^{\varepsilon}\)
pl bèda+
cb bèd-
bèdugū \({ }^{+/}\)
\(b \bar{\varepsilon} \varepsilon\)

bèlım \({ }^{\mathrm{m}}\)
bèls \({ }^{\varepsilon}\)
\(b \bar{\varepsilon} n^{n \varepsilon}\)
pl bēna+
cb bèn-
bèn' \({ }^{+}\)
ger \(\quad\) \(\bar{\varepsilon} \tilde{N}^{\prime} \varepsilon s^{\varepsilon}\)
bèñsıg \({ }^{\varepsilon}\)
bè \(\eta^{\varepsilon}\)
bēníd \({ }^{\varepsilon}\)
cb bēn-
bēníd nē \(k \bar{i}+/\)
bēnír
pl bēná+
\(c b\) bēŋ-
\(b \bar{\varepsilon} o g{ }^{3}\)
bēogu-n \({ }^{\varepsilon /}\)
\(b \bar{\varepsilon}^{\prime} \circ g^{\text {D }}\) bi'a+

cb bè'- bìà'-
\(b \varepsilon ̀ r ı \eta^{a}\)
pl bèrıgıs \({ }^{\varepsilon}\) sic
n. Bisa language 35.4
q. three (after personal pronoun 16.2.2)
\(n\). found only as in
Ò kpèn' báunù. "He was circumcised."
\(\leftarrow\) Songhay "pool"; for the idiom 18.1
betrayer of secrets cf \(y \bar{\varepsilon} \varepsilon s^{\varepsilon /}\)
\(q\). two (after personal pronoun 16.2.2)
\(q\). seven (after personal pronoun 16.2.2)
\(i v\). exist; be in a place 24.1
\(v v\). go rotten
adj. great
q. much, a lot 16.1
or 27.1.2 28.2.2
\(n\). very early morning
\(v v\). beg
\(v v\). comfort
\(n\). end
\(v v\). fall ill
\(v v\). serve soup
\(v v\). mark out a boundary
n. pl bean leaves

Vigna unguiculata (Haaf)
\(n\). beanleaf-and-millet, a traditional snack
\(n\). brown bean
n. tomorrow 35.8

Kà bēog níe kà ... "The next day ..."
n. morning 35.8
adj. bad
n. a plant used for fibre (KED)
Hibiscus cannabinus (Haaf)
bērıga+
cb bèrıg-
\(b \bar{\varepsilon} s \cup g{ }^{\text {ºn }}\)
\(p l \quad b \bar{\varepsilon} s \iota d^{\varepsilon}\)
cb bès-
biāñ'ar \({ }^{\varepsilon}\)
pl biāã'adá+ biāñ'á
cb biān'-
biāunk \({ }^{\text {J }}\)
pl biān'ad \({ }^{\varepsilon}\)
cb biàñ'-
bīálغ
pl bīəlá \({ }^{+}\)
bìə \({ }^{\varepsilon}\)
biəəlá+
bīəl bỉəl
brəm \({ }^{m}\)
pl bi'əm-nàma bi'əmma LF
cb bì'əm-
bīən \(^{\text {ne }} \quad\) n. shin
pl bīəna+
cb bìən-
bīər \({ }^{\varepsilon /}\)
pl bièēá \({ }^{+}\)
cb biā-
bi'əs \({ }^{\varepsilon}\)
bigls \({ }^{\varepsilon}\)
biig \({ }^{\text {a }}\)
pl biiis \({ }^{\varepsilon}\)
\(c b\) bì- bī-
bī-díbìn \({ }^{\text {a }}\)
bì-līa+
bì-nà'ab \({ }^{\text {a }}\)
bì-pītal
pl bì-pītíb \({ }^{\text {a }}\)
cb bì-pīt-
bī-póna
bi'ig \({ }^{\varepsilon}\)
biilíf
\(n\). boy
n. baby
\(n\). prince
n. girl
\(v v\). ripen, become pregnant
n. seed
pl leaves of bèrıŋ used for soup (KED)
\(n\). a kind of wide-mouthed pot
n. wet mud, black mud; riverbed
n. shoulder
adj. naked
\(v v\). accompany
q. a little 16.1
q. and \(a d v\). a very little; little by little
\(n\). enemy
\(n\). elder sibling of the same sex
\(v v\). doubt
\(v v\). show, teach
n. child
n. father's younger brother 35.1
pl bïilí \({ }^{+}\)
cb biil-
biilím \({ }^{\mathrm{m}}\)
bīım \({ }^{\mathrm{m} /}\)
\(c b \quad b i ̄-\)
bìisím \({ }^{m}\)
bìisır \({ }^{\varepsilon}\)
pl bi＇isa＋
cb bi＇is－
bila
pl bïbcs \({ }^{\varepsilon}\)
cb bìl－or bì－
bìlg \({ }^{\varepsilon}\)
bilım \({ }^{m}\)
bìmbìm \({ }^{\text {m }}\)
pl bìmbìma＋
cb bìmbìm－
\(B i n^{n \varepsilon}\)
pl Bìm \({ }^{\text {ma }}\)
cb Bìn－
\(B i ̀ n n \varepsilon\)
binn \({ }^{n \varepsilon /}\)
Bìun \({ }^{3}\)
bう \({ }^{+}\)
bう̀วda \({ }^{a}\)
ger bう̀دdım \({ }^{m}\)
\(b \bar{j}^{+}\)
cb bj̀
bう̀－būudı＋
bう̄－zúgう̄
bう̀－wìnn \({ }^{\text {n }}\)
bj̀bıg \({ }^{\varepsilon}\)
bj̀dıg \({ }^{\varepsilon}\)
bう̀dう̀bう̀dう \({ }^{+}\)
bうk \({ }^{\top}\)
pl bù＇ad \({ }^{\varepsilon}\)
cb bư＇à－
bj̄sır \({ }^{\varepsilon}\)
pl bう̄sa＋
cb bう̀s－
\(b \bar{u}^{+}+\)
n．childhood
n．soup，stew
n．milk（human or animal）
\(n\) ．woman＇s breast
adj．little，small
\(v v\) ．roll（transitive）
\(v v\) ．roll（intransitive）
\(n\) ．altar NT（KED：＂mound or pillar of earth＂）
n．Moba，Bimoba person \(\underline{35.4}\)
not only Bemba，WK
n．Moba language 35.4
n．excrement（possibly Tone Pattern O）
n．Moba country 35.4
\(v v\) ．seek
dipf used for：
want，like，love（sexual，romantic）
imperfective gerund＂will＂13．1．1．4
what？why？ 15.4
what sort of ．．？
because 27．1．3；why？ 17.1
what time of day？
\(v v\) ．wrap round，tie round
\(\nu v\) ．lose，become lost
\(n\) ．bread（？ultimately \(\leftarrow\) English）
n．pit
n．a kind of small，very poisonous snake
\(v v\) ．beat
buàk \({ }^{\varepsilon}\)
bù'ar \({ }^{\varepsilon}\)
pl bu'àa+
cb bư'à-
bū'arel
pl bu'āá+
cb bu'ā-
bùd \({ }^{\varepsilon}\)
ger \(b \bar{v} d ı g^{a} b u ̄ d v g\)
bùdım \({ }^{m}\)
bùdımís \({ }^{\varepsilon}\)
bù'e+
bùg \({ }^{\varepsilon}\)
būgud \({ }^{\text {a }}\)
bùgulım \({ }^{\mathrm{m}}\)
\(b \bar{u} g u r^{\varepsilon}\)
pl būga+
cb bòg-
bùgúm \({ }^{m}\)
cb bùgōm- bùgóm-Bùgúm-tכ̄כñ \(r^{\varepsilon}\)
būgusa/
būgusíga būgusír \({ }^{\varepsilon}\)
pl būgusá \({ }^{+}\)
cb būgus-
būgusígā+/
būgusím \({ }^{\mathrm{m}}\)
\(b u ̄ k^{\varepsilon /}\)
bùk \({ }^{\varepsilon}\)
bùl \({ }^{\varepsilon}\)
bùl \({ }^{\varepsilon}\)
Bùl \({ }^{\varepsilon}\)
Bùlıg \({ }^{\text {a }}\)
pl Bùlss
cb Bùl-
bùlıg \({ }^{\text {a }}\)
pl bùlıs \({ }^{\varepsilon}\)
cb bùl-
bùmbàrıg \({ }^{\text {a }}\)
pl bùmbàrss \({ }^{\varepsilon}\)
cb bùmbàr-
\(v v\). split
\(n\). hole
n. skin bottle
\(v v\). plant seeds
\(v v\). get confused
\(n\). confusion
\(\nu v\). pour out
\(v v\). get drunk; cf Hausa bùgu id
n. client of a \(b a \bar{\prime} \cdot a=\) (traditional diviner)
\(v v\). cast lots
\(n\). dwelling-place of a \(w \bar{\iota} n^{n \varepsilon}\) (localised spirit);
also a \(w_{\bar{l}} n^{n \varepsilon}\) inherited from one's mother
n. fire
n. Fire Festival
\(i v\). be soft
adj. soft, weak
\(a d v\). softly \(\underline{20.4}\)
\(n\). softness, weakness
\(\nu v\). weaken
\(v v\). cast lots
\(v v\). germinate, ooze
\(v v\). astonish
n. Buli language 35.4
n. Bulsa person \(\underline{35.4}\)
n. well, pond
n. ant
bùn \({ }^{\varepsilon}\)
\(b u ̄ n{ }^{\mathrm{n} \varepsilon /}\)
pl būná+ būn-nám \({ }^{\text {a }}\)
cb būn-
būn-búvdiff
būn-gín \({ }^{\text {a }}\)
būn-kóñbùg \({ }^{\text {² }}\)
pl būn-kónbid \({ }^{\varepsilon}\) cb kう̀nb-
būn-kúdùg \({ }^{\text { }}\)
būn-dáàr \({ }^{\varepsilon}\)
bùna
pl bùmıs \({ }^{\varepsilon}\)
cb bùn-
bùn \({ }^{\varepsilon}\)
bùel \({ }^{\varepsilon}\)
bùer \({ }^{\varepsilon}\)
pl buè̀ya+
cb bùà-
\(b u ̄ ' \theta S^{\varepsilon}\)
ger bū'өsóg \({ }^{\text { }}\)
bù-pīiga
būráa=
būrıyá \({ }^{+}\)
bùrkìn \({ }^{\text {a }}\)
pl bùrkìn-nàm \({ }^{\text {a }}\)
cb bùrkìn-
Bùsáàñ \({ }^{\varepsilon}\)
Bùsána
pl Bùsáàñ \(s^{\varepsilon}\)
cb Bùsān-
\(b u ̄ t ı \eta^{a}\)
pl būtus \({ }^{\varepsilon}\)
cb bùtın-
\(b u ̄ v d^{\varepsilon}\)
būudı+
cb bùud-
\(v v\). reap, harvest
\(n\). thing (concrete or abstract) 19.9.3
n. plant
n. short chap (informal, joking)
\(n\). animal
used as \(c b\)
\(n\). old man
which day? 17.1
\(n\). donkey
\(v v\). take a short cut
\(v v\). call, summon
Ò yō'vr búèn X. "She is called X." 23.2
n. grain store, silo
\(\nu v\). ask
\(n\). question
\(a d v\). ten times 16.2.5
\(n\). man, male adult; in ILK but characteristically
Toende Kusaal; no examples in NT. See dāu \({ }^{+}\)
\(n\). Christmas \(\leftarrow\) Twi/Fante bronya
\(n\). free person; honourable person
\(\leftarrow\) Songhay, probably via Mooré 18.1
n. Bisa language 35.4
n. Bisa person 35.4
\(n\). cup (in general;
etymologically \(\leftarrow\) "seed planting [cup]")
irregular 6.2.1 2.4
n. pl as sg innocence
\(n\). kind, sort, ethnic group
\(b \bar{v} v g^{a}\)
pl būus \({ }^{\varepsilon}\)
\(c b\) bù-
bù-dìbıga
n. male kid

D
dà
dā
dàa
dāa
dà'
dà'a=
\(p l d a ̀ ' a s^{\varepsilon}\)
cb dà'-
dà'abır \({ }^{\varepsilon}\)
dàalım \({ }^{m}\)
dàalím \({ }^{\mathrm{m}}\)
pl dàalímis \({ }^{\varepsilon}\)
dāam \({ }^{m /}\)
cb dā-
dā-núùr \({ }^{\varepsilon}\)
dā-bínn \({ }^{\text {ne }}\) cb dā-bín-
dàam \({ }^{m}\)
dāana
pl dàan-nàm \({ }^{\text {a }}\)
cb dàan-
dāar \({ }^{\varepsilon}\)
pl dābá+
cb dà-
dà-pïiga+ \({ }^{+} \quad\) n. ten days
dābíàm \({ }^{\mathrm{m}}\) tone sic
dàbīog \({ }^{\text {º }}\)
pl dàbīəd \({ }^{\varepsilon}\)
cb dàbià -
dàbısır \({ }^{\varepsilon}\)
pl dàbısa+
cb dàbıs-
dādúk \({ }^{J}\)
dā'e \({ }^{+/}\)
n. day (as one of several)
\(n\). a kind of large pot
before two days ago, Tense Particle 22.3.1
"not" with Imperative Mood 22.5
day after tomorrow, Tense Particle 22.3.1
before yesterday, Tense Particle 22.3.1
\(v v\). buy
n. market
n. slave
n. masculinity
n. male organs
n. millet beer, "pito"
\(n\). beer-drinking
\(n\). residue of beer; NT "yeast"
\(v v\). disturb, trouble; cf Hausa dàamaa id
n. owner of ... 19.9.3
n. day, 24-hour period \(\underline{35.8}\)
\(n\). fear
n. coward
\(v v\). push; blow (of wind)

Dàgáàd \({ }^{\text {a }} \quad\) n．Dagaaba person（L toneme prefix sic）
pl Dàgáadìb \({ }^{\text {a }}\) Dàgáàd－nàm \({ }^{\text {a }}\)
cb Dàgáàd－

Dàgbān \({ }^{\text {ne／}}\)
pl Dàgbāmma／
cb Dàgbān－

Dàgbān \({ }^{\text {ne／}}\)
Dàgbāun \({ }^{\text {／}}\)
dàgj̀bıg \({ }^{\text {a }}\)
dāká＋
pl dāká－nàma
cb dāká－
dàkiig \({ }^{\text {a }}\)
pl dàkīis \({ }^{\varepsilon}\)
cb dàkì－
dàkì－dāū \({ }^{+}\)
dàkì－puāka
dàkì－tùa＋
dà－kう̀əñr \({ }^{\varepsilon}\)
pl dà－kj̀nya＋
cb dà－kう̀n－
dàm \({ }^{m}\)
dipf dàmmıd \({ }^{\text {a }}\)
dàmà＇a＝
dàmà＇am \({ }^{m}\)
dàmà＇ar \({ }^{\varepsilon}\)
dāmpūsāar \({ }^{\varepsilon}\)
dànkう̀ク
dà－pāala／
dà－sāク \({ }^{a}\)
\(p l \quad\) dà－sāañ \(s^{\varepsilon}\) dà－sām \({ }^{m a}\)
cb dà－san－
dà－tāa＝
pl dà－tāas \({ }^{\varepsilon}\)
cb dà－tà－
dàtiun \({ }^{\text {J }} \quad\) n．right－hand
dāu \({ }^{+}\)
\(n\) ．man（as opposed to woman）
cb dàul－dàp－
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|}
\hline dàug \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & & \(n\) n. piece of wood, log \\
\hline \(p l\) & dàad \({ }^{\varepsilon}\) & \(p l\) also: wood (material) \\
\hline \(c b\) & dà- & \\
\hline & dà-kīəd \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & n. wood-cutter \\
\hline & dà-kpí \(\partial d^{\text {a }}\) & n. carpenter \\
\hline & dà-pūodír \({ }^{\varepsilon}\) & n. cross-piece \\
\hline & \(p l ~ d a ̀-p \bar{v}{ }^{\text {a }}\) + & \(n\). used as sg cross NT \\
\hline dāug \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & & adj. male \\
\hline \(p l\) & dāad \({ }^{\text { }}\) & \\
\hline \(c b\) & dà- & \\
\hline dàwàlıg \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & & \(n\). hot humid season before the rains \\
\hline dàwān \({ }^{\text {ne/ }}\) & & \(n\). pigeon \\
\hline \(p l\) & dàwāná+ & \\
\hline \(c b\) & dàwān- & \\
\hline dàyáam \({ }^{\text {ma }}\) & & n. husband's parent 35.1 \\
\hline \(p l\) & dàyāam-nám \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & \\
\hline \(c b\) & dàyāam- & \\
\hline & dàyāam-dáu \({ }^{+}\) & \(n\). husband's father \\
\hline & dàyāam-púák \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & \(n\). husband's mother \\
\hline dàyūug \({ }^{\text {/ }}\) & & \(n\). rat \\
\hline pl & dàyūud \({ }^{\text {/ }}\) & \\
\hline \(c b\) & dàyū- & \\
\hline dèmır \({ }^{\text {E }}\) & & n. mat, pallet, bed \\
\hline pl & dèba+ & \\
\hline \(d \varepsilon \bar{\varepsilon} \eta^{\text {a }}\) & & q. first 16.2.4 \\
\hline pl &  & \\
\hline \(c b\) & dغ̀をŋ- & \\
\hline \(d \bar{\varepsilon}{ }^{\text {la/ }}\) & & \(i v\). lean on something (of a person) \\
\hline ger &  & \\
\hline dèlım \({ }^{\text {m }}\) & & \(v \nu\). begin to lean \\
\hline \(d \bar{\varepsilon} \eta^{\text {a }}\) & & \(n\). accidental bruise \\
\hline pl & \(d \bar{\varepsilon} m s^{\varepsilon}\) & \\
\hline \(c b\) & dغ̀り- & \\
\hline \(d \varepsilon \eta^{\varepsilon}\) & & \(v v\). go, do first \\
\hline dèpım & & beforehand, Particle-Verb 22.7.2 \\
\hline dì & & it, its (Proclitic) \(15.1=i\) \\
\hline
\end{tabular}
\(d i^{+}\)
dipf dit \({ }^{\text {a }}\)
imp dìm \({ }^{\mathrm{ma}}\)
ger dīıb \({ }^{\text {ºn }}\)
diā'a
diā'ad \({ }^{\varepsilon /}\)
\(d i e^{+/}\)
dìəm \({ }^{\text {ma }}\)
pl dìəm-nàm \({ }^{\text {a }}\)
cb dìəm-
dìəm-dāu \({ }^{+}\)
dìəm-pūāk \({ }^{\text {a }}\)
di' \(\partial m^{m}\)
di'əma+
\(d i \not \partial s^{\varepsilon /}\)
dīgıyal
ger \(\quad\) dīkal \(\mathrm{KT} d i ̄ g ı r^{\varepsilon /}\) WK
dīgısá+
dīgı \(\left.\right|^{\varepsilon /}\)
digın \({ }^{\varepsilon}\)
digır \({ }^{\varepsilon}\)
pl diga+
cb dìg-
dìs \({ }^{\varepsilon}\)
agt dìssa
dìsún \({ }^{3}\)
\(p l\) dìısímà+ dìssís \({ }^{\varepsilon}\)
cb dìısún-
dim \({ }^{\text {a }}\)
\(d i n^{n \varepsilon}\)
dín
\(d i ̄ n^{\varepsilon}\)
dìndēog \({ }^{\text {/ }}\)
\(p l\) dìnd \(\bar{\varepsilon} \varepsilon d^{\varepsilon /}\)
cb dìnd \(\bar{\varepsilon}\) -
dìndìıs \({ }^{\text {a }}\)
dìn zúg \({ }^{\text {ºn }}\)
\(v v\). eat, receive
\(n\). food
Ò dì pú'ā. "He's married a wife."
Ò dì ñyán. "She's ashamed."
\(v v\). get dirty
\(n\). dirt
\(v v\). receive, get
\(n\). wife's parent 35.1 ; also polite address by a man to an unrelated woman of similar or greater age
n. wife's father
\(n\). wife's mother
\(v v\). play, not be serious
n. festival
\(v v\). receive (many things)
\(i v\). be lying down
n. pl lairs
\(v v\). lay down
\(v v\). lie down
n. dwarf
\(v v\). feed
n. glutton
n. spoon
dummy head pronoun, animate pl 19.9.3
dummy head pronoun, inanimate 19.9.3
it (Subject of \(\grave{n}\)-Clause) 15.1
it (Contrastive) \(15.1=l \bar{\imath} n^{\varepsilon}\)
\(n\). chameleon
\(n\). glutton
therefore 17.1
ditún \({ }^{3}\)
dì－zכ̄rug／
pl dì－zว̄rá＋
cb dì－zכ̄r－
dj̄／a／
ger dj̄llím \({ }^{m}\)
\(d \overline{\jmath ̄} / g^{\varepsilon /}\)
dう̄ \(\mathrm{s}^{\varepsilon /}\)
dう̄n／ıg \({ }^{\varepsilon /}\)
dう̀n＇วs \({ }^{\varepsilon}\)
dう̀ว \(g^{3}\)
pl \(\quad d \grave{\partial} d^{\varepsilon} d \grave{t} t^{\varepsilon}\)
cb dう－
dう̀วg bî̀ \({ }^{\text {a }}\)
dう̀วng \({ }^{3}\)
pl dう̀ \(\underset{\sim}{n} d^{\varepsilon}\)
cb dう̀n－
\(d \bar{v}^{+}\)
\(\operatorname{dipf} d \bar{v} t^{a /}\)
imp dòm \({ }^{\text {ma }}\)
dư＇àa
agt \(d \bar{v}^{\prime} a d^{a}\)
dò＇al \({ }^{\varepsilon}\)
dō＇am \({ }^{m}\)
dùañ \({ }^{+}\)

cb dう̀ñ－
dư＇átà \({ }^{+}\)
dūe \({ }^{+/}\)
\(d \bar{u} g^{\varepsilon}\)
\(d \bar{u} k^{2 /}\)
pl dūgud \({ }^{\varepsilon /}\) dút \(^{\varepsilon}\)
\(c b\) dūg－ \(d u ̄ g-p \varepsilon^{\prime}{ }^{\prime} l a+\)
dùm \({ }^{m}\)
\(d u ̄ m^{m \varepsilon} d u ̄ m^{n \varepsilon}\) pl dūma＋ cb dùm－
n．right－hand：see dàtìun \({ }^{\text {² }}\)
n．crumb
iv．accompany in a subordinate rôle Ànó＇כnı̀ dప̄llı́ fj̀？＂Who has come with you？＂ （to an elderly patient．）
Bà dj̀l nē tāaba．＂They went together．＂
\(\nu v\) ．make accompany，send along with
\(\nu v\) ．investigate，trace
\(\nu v\) ．stretch oneself
\(v \nu\) ．water plants
\(n\) ．house，hut；clan
n．（house）cat
n．dawadawa fruit 35.5
\(v v\). go up
\(v v\) ．bear，beget
\(n\) ．elder relation
\(v v\) ．make interest（of a loan）
\(n\) ．birth
n．dawadawa 35.5
Parkia clappertoniana［＝biglobosa］（Haaf）
\(n\) ．doctor \(\leftarrow\) English
\(\nu v\) ．raise，rise
\(v v\) ．cook
n．cooking pot
\(n\) ．full pots
\(v v\) ．bite
n．knee
dòndùug \({ }^{\text {º }}\)
pl dòndùud \({ }^{\varepsilon}\)
cb dòndù-
dūnıya+
cb dūnıyá-
dūnná+
\(d u ̄ \eta^{a}\)
pl dūmıs \({ }^{\varepsilon}\)
cb dùn-
\(d u ̄ \theta r^{\varepsilon /}\)
pl dưēyá+
cb dūā-
\(d u ̄ ' \theta S^{\varepsilon /}\)
dùr \({ }^{a}\)
dū'un \({ }^{\varepsilon /}\)
dū'uním \({ }^{m}\)
cb dū'un-
dōvsá \({ }^{+}\)

\section*{E}
\(\bar{\varepsilon} \varepsilon \underset{\sim}{n}\)
\(\bar{\varepsilon} \varepsilon n_{n}\) or \(\bar{\varepsilon} \varepsilon{\underset{\sim}{n}}\) tí
\(\bar{\varepsilon} \varepsilon n b^{\varepsilon /}\)
\(\bar{\varepsilon} \varepsilon n \operatorname{N}^{\text {ír }}{ }^{\varepsilon}\)
غ̀n \(b s^{\varepsilon}\)
غ̀nd \({ }^{\varepsilon}\)
غ̀ñ \(d ı g^{\varepsilon}\)
غ̀nrıg \({ }^{\varepsilon}\)

\section*{F}
fāañ \(=\)
fāen \({ }^{+/}\)

fān \({ }^{+}\)
fáss
fā \(\varepsilon g^{\varepsilon /}\)
f \(\bar{n}{ }_{\sim}^{\prime}{ }^{\prime}{ }^{\prime}{ }^{\text {/ }}\)
\(p l\) f̄̃ñ \({ }^{\prime} \varepsilon d^{\varepsilon /}\)
cb fĒñ'-
n. cobra
\(n\). world \(\leftarrow\) Arabic دنيا dunya:
9.7
\(a d v\). this year 35.8
\(n\). mosquito
n. stick
\(v v\). lift up, honour
\(i v\). be many
\(\nu v\). pass water (ger recorded as dū'unóg \({ }^{\text {}}\) )
n. urine
n. pl. steps
yes 28.2.4
see \(\sim_{\sim} y \bar{\varepsilon} \varepsilon\), ny \(\bar{\varepsilon} \varepsilon\) tí Particle-Verb 22.7.2
\(\nu \nu\). lay a foundation
\(n\). foundation 12.1.2
\(\nu v\). scratch
\(v v\). block up, plug up
\(\nu v\). unblock, unplug
\(v v\). shift along (e.g. a bench)
q. every 16.1
\(\nu v\). save
n. saviour 18.1
\(v v\). grab, rob
ideophone for pìə/ıga "white" 19.8.1.3
\(v v\). (of food) get old, cold
n. ulcer
fiəb \({ }^{\varepsilon}\)
fi'ig \({ }^{\varepsilon}\)
fiin \(=\)
fitlá \({ }^{+}\)
fว̄วs \({ }^{\varepsilon /}\)
ger fֹ̄วsúg \({ }^{\text { }}\)
fù
\(f\)
fùe \({ }^{+}\)
fūfōm \({ }^{\text {me }}\)
pl fūfūma+
cb fūfúm-
fón
fūn SF fón \(\overline{\mathrm{L}} \mathrm{LF}\)
fūug \({ }^{\text {/ }}\)
pl fūud \({ }^{\varepsilon /}\) fūt \(t^{\varepsilon /}\)
cb fū-
\(v v\). beat
\(v v\). cut off
q. a little (liquid) 16.1
\(n\). lamp \(\leftarrow\) Hausa fitilàa
\(v v\). blow, puff (wind)
\(n\). hypocrisy NT
you, your sg (Proclitic) 15.1
you sg (Enclitic object) 15.1
\(v v\). draw out
\(n\). envy; also: stye (believed to result from envy)
you \(s g\) (as subject of \(\grave{n}\)-Clause) 15.1
you sg (contrastive) 15.1
\(n\). shirt, clothing
pl also: cloth

\section*{G}
gàad \({ }^{\varepsilon}\)
gáafàra
gà'al \({ }^{\varepsilon}\)
gà' \(a m^{m}\)
gāañ \(=\) /
pl gāañ \({ }^{\varepsilon /}\)
cb gān-
\(g\) àas \({ }^{\varepsilon}\)
\(g a ̄ d v^{+} g a ̄ d v g^{\prime /}\)
pl gādu-náma gāt \({ }^{\varepsilon /}\)
cb gād- gādu-
gàlım \({ }^{m}\)
gàlıs \({ }^{\varepsilon}\)
\(g a ̄ n r^{\varepsilon /}\)
pl gāñá \({ }^{+}\)
cb gāñ \(r\) -
gàn \({ }^{\varepsilon}\)
gān \({ }^{\varepsilon /}\)
gbāñ'e \({ }^{+/}\)
gbányà'a=
gbányà'am \({ }^{m}\)
\(v v\). pass, surpass \(\underline{26.3 .2}\)
sorry (in formulae, 34)
\(v v\). button up
\(v v\). grind teeth
n. Nigerian ebony 35.5

Diospyros mespilliformis (Haaf)
\(v v\). pass by
\(n\). bed \(\leftarrow\) Hausa gadoo
\(v v\). joke
\(v v\). exceed, get to be too much
\(n\). fruit of Nigerian ebony 35.5
\(v v\). step over
\(\nu v\). choose
\(v v\). catch
n. lazy person 18
n. laziness; 1976 NT gonya'am
gbàun \({ }^{3}\)
pl gbàna+
cb gbàn- gbàun-
\(g b a ̄ u \eta^{3 /}\)
pl gbāná+
cb gbān- gbāunŋ-
gbéżñ \(m^{m}\)
cb gbēn-
\(g b \varepsilon^{\prime} o g{ }^{\text {ºn }}\)
pl gbè' \(\varepsilon d^{\varepsilon}\) gbèda+
cb gbè'-

\section*{\(g b \bar{\varepsilon} r^{\varepsilon /}\)}
pl gbēyá+
cb \(g b \bar{\varepsilon} r-\)
\(g b i ̄ g ı m^{\mathrm{n} \varepsilon}\)
pl gbīgıma+
cb gbìgım-
gbìn \({ }^{\text {ne }}\)
pl gbìna+
cb gbìn-
gbìn-vว̀วñr \({ }^{\varepsilon}\)
gbīs \({ }^{\varepsilon}\)
g \(\left.\bar{\varepsilon}\right|^{\varepsilon /}\)
\(g \bar{\varepsilon} \varepsilon_{\sim}^{n} m^{m /}\)
pl \(\quad\) gēعñmís \({ }^{\varepsilon}\)
gé \(\varepsilon n \eta^{a}\)
\(p l \quad g \bar{\varepsilon} \varepsilon n \sim_{m}\) ís \(^{\varepsilon}\)
\(\left.g \varepsilon ́\right|^{\mid \varepsilon}\)
pl gēlá+
cb gēl-
\(g \bar{\varepsilon} \tilde{N}^{+}\)
res adj gēeñ lón \({ }^{\text {² }}\)
gēñ \({ }^{\prime+}\)
\(g \varepsilon \bar{\varepsilon} g{ }^{3}\)
gïinlím \({ }^{\mathrm{m}}\)
gik \({ }^{\mathrm{a}}\)
pl gìgıs
cb gìg-
gīlıg \({ }^{\varepsilon /}\) dipf gīnna/
\(n\). book WK
n. animal skin WK; animal skin, book DK
n. sleep
\(n\). forehead; shore of a lake
n. thigh
\(n\). lion
\(n\). buttock; base (e.g. of a mountain); meaning as postposition \(\underline{20.6}\)
\(n\). anus
\(v v\). sleep
\(\nu v\). place between one's legs; Pattern H
\(\nu v\). go mad, madden
n. pl as sg madness
n. madman
n. egg
\(v v\). get tired
adj. tired
\(v v\). get angry
n. place between one's legs; Pattern O
n. shortness
n. or adj. dumb
\(v v\). go around 11.1.1
gīm \({ }^{\mathrm{ma}}\)
\(g i \eta^{a}\)
pl gīma＋
cb gìn－
gì \({ }^{\varepsilon}\)
gīna＋
gīpılím \({ }^{\text {m }}\)
\(g \bar{\partial} d ı g^{\varepsilon /} g \grave{'} n^{\varepsilon}\)

gว̀n \({ }^{+}\)
dipf gว̀วnd \({ }^{\text {a }}\)
ger gذ̀כñ \({ }^{2} \mathrm{~m}^{\mathrm{m}}\)
Gう̀ \(g^{a}\)
pl Gう̀כs \({ }^{\varepsilon}\)
\(G \grave{\partial} g^{3}\)
gว̀＇วn \({ }^{\varepsilon}\)
gう̄ra／
\(g \bar{\jmath} s^{\varepsilon}\)
dipf \(g \bar{s} s d^{\mathrm{a} /} g \overline{\jmath^{a /}}\)
imp gう̀sım \({ }^{\text {a }}\) gว̀m \({ }^{\text {ma }}\)
ger gósìg \({ }^{\text {a }}\)
agt \(g \grave{t}{ }^{\mathrm{a} /}\)
\(g u ̀ l^{\varepsilon}\)
\(\operatorname{dipf} g u ̀ n^{\text {na }}\)
gùla \({ }^{\text {a }}\)
\(g e r g \bar{l} / b^{3}\)
gòllım \({ }^{\text {ne }}\)
gùm \({ }^{m \varepsilon}\)
pl gòma＋
Gòm \({ }^{\text {me }}\)
gūmpūz̄̄r \(r^{\varepsilon /}\)
pl gōmpūzēyá＋
cb gūmpūzér－
gùn＇a＋
pl gj̀n＇כs
cb gว̀ñ＇－
gùngōm \({ }^{\mathrm{m} \varepsilon} \quad\) n．kapok material
gùna
pl gùmıs \({ }^{\varepsilon}\)
cb gòn－
\(i v\) ．be short
adj．short
\(v v\) ．scrimp
adv．shortly 20.4
\(n\) ．shortness
\(v v\) ．look up
\(i v\) ．be looking up
\(v v\) ．hunt
wander
13．1．1．4
n．clan name 35.4
\(n\) ．place of the Goosi clan
\(v v\) ．look up
\(i v\) ．be looking up
\(v v\) ．look
n．seer，prophet
\(v v\) ．suspend
\(i v\). be suspended
only；Post NP／AdvP Particle 33.6
n．kapok fruit 35．5；also＂thread＂WK
n．place of the clan Gòm－dìm \({ }^{\text {a }} \underline{35.4}\)
n．duck
n．thorn
n．kapok tree 35.5
Ceiba pentandra（Haaf）
\(g u ̄ r^{a /}\)
ger gūrím \({ }^{m}\)
Gōrínn \({ }^{n}\)
Gōrín \({ }^{a}\)
pl Gōrís \({ }^{\varepsilon}\)
gū'ule/
gò'olım \({ }^{m}\)
gùur \({ }^{\varepsilon}\)
pl gùya+
cb gù-
gūur \({ }^{\varepsilon}\)
pl gūya+
cb gò-
gū'us \({ }^{\varepsilon /}\)
\(g u ̄ ' u s^{\varepsilon}\)

H
hālí \({ }^{+}\)

I
iā+
iāñ'as \({ }^{\varepsilon /}\)
iān \({ }^{\varepsilon /}\)
ger īān'adad
agt \({ }_{2} a \bar{\sim} n^{\prime} a d^{\mathrm{a} /}\)
īgıya/
ger \(\quad i k^{\mathrm{a} /} \mathrm{KT} \overline{\mathrm{g}} \mathrm{rlr}^{\varepsilon /} \mathrm{WK}\)
\(\bar{g} \|^{\varepsilon /}\)
igın \({ }^{\varepsilon}\)
ú। \({ }^{\varepsilon}\)
pl īlá \({ }^{+}\)
cb īı-
\(\bar{s} s r^{\varepsilon}\)
pl īsa+
cb is-
\(i s{ }^{\prime} g^{\varepsilon}\)
\(i v\). be on guard, watch for \(\underline{29.1}\)
n. Farefare language \(\underline{35.4}\)
\(n\). Farefare person \(\underline{35.4}\)
\(v v\). put on guard
\(v v\). become half-ripe
\(n\). upland; bank of river
n. ridge of back
\(v v\). take care, watch out
\(\mathrm{n} p l\). half-ripe fruit
until, up to and as far as 27.1.3 \(\underline{26.4} \underline{21.2}\)
Probably ultimately \(\leftarrow\) Arabic حتى \(\ddagger\) 左atta:
\(\nu v\). seek
\(v v\). leap
\(v v\). leap, fly 11.1.1
\(i v\). be kneeling
\(\nu v\). make to kneel
\(v v\). kneel down
\(n\). horn
n. scar
\(v v\). get up early
```

K
kà
kāab}\mp@subsup{}{}{\varepsilon/
kāal\varepsilon/
kāas}\mp@subsup{}{}{\varepsilon/
kà'asıg\overline{ LF only}
kābıg}\mp@subsup{}{}{\varepsilon/
kābır午
ger kābırí'
kàd}\mp@subsup{}{}{\varepsilon
kàd sàríyà
agt sàríyà-kāta
kā'e+
ger kā'alímm
kā|l\varepsilon/
pl kālá+
cb kāl-
kàlıgāa
kàma
Kàmbùnır夏
Kàmbù\etaa
pl Kàmbùmıs}\mp@subsup{}{}{\varepsilon
cb Kàmbòn-
kàn}\mp@subsup{}{}{\varepsilon
kàn}\mp@subsup{~}{}{\varepsilon
ger kāñbır
kànā+/
kàra
kàrım}\mp@subsup{}{}{m
kàs㲎a/
pl kàs\tilde{tíb}
k\mp@subsup{\overline{\varepsilon}}{}{+}
dipf k\overline{\varepsilon}\mp@subsup{t}{}{\textrm{a}}
imp kè/a
k\varepsilonे\varepsilonk\grave{\varepsilon}
pl k\varepsiloǹ\varepsilonk\varepsiloǹ-nàma
cb k\varepsiloǹ\varepsilonk\varepsiloǹ-
k\grave{\varepsilons}\mp@subsup{}{}{\varepsilon}
kèlıs
and, that 27.1.2 28.3.2
vv. offer, invite
vv. count
vv. cry out, weep; (cock) crow
iv. not exist 32.1.1
vv. ladle out (liquid)
vv. call out asking for admission 34
n. calling out for admission
vv. drive away
vv. judge 23.1
n. judge NT
iv. not exist, not be, not have 32.1.1 8.5.3
n. number
q. few 16.1
q. every 16.1
n. Twi language 35.4
n. Ashanti person 35.4
this, that (Demonstrative 15.2)
vv. scorch
this, that (Demonstrative 15.2)
iv. be few
vv. read
n. witness; testimony; ?ultimately Songhay, cf
Humburi Senni kàsé:tè "inform in advance"
plural witnesses
vv. let, cause to ... 11.1.1 29.1
n. bicycle }\leftarrow\mathrm{ Hausa kèekè
vv. listen

```
\(k \bar{\varepsilon} n^{+}\)
\(\operatorname{dipf} k \bar{n} n^{a /}\)
\(\operatorname{imp} k \varepsilon m^{a}\)
ger \(k \bar{\varepsilon} n^{n \varepsilon /}\)
\(k \bar{\varepsilon} n k \bar{\varepsilon} n\)
\(k \bar{\varepsilon} \eta^{\varepsilon /}\)
\(\operatorname{dipf} k \bar{\varepsilon} n^{n a /}\)
imp kèm \({ }^{\text {ma }}\)
agt \(k \bar{\varepsilon} n^{n a /}\)
kérıfà or kárıfà
\(k{ }^{+}{ }^{+\prime}\)
cb kī- kā-
kì-dà'ar \({ }^{\varepsilon}\)
pl kì-dà'ada+
\(k a ̄-w \bar{\varepsilon} n n \iota r^{\varepsilon}\)
pl kā-wēnna \({ }^{+}\) cb kā-wén-
kià \({ }^{+}\)
\(k i ̄ d ı g^{\varepsilon /}\)
À-Kīdıgı Bū'өs
kïibú \({ }^{+}\)
cb kī̈b-
Kiiñ \({ }_{\sim}\)
pl Kīiní \({ }^{+}\)
kìss
\(k_{i ̄}{ }^{\prime} s^{\varepsilon /}\)
kikàm \({ }^{m \varepsilon}\)
pl kìkàma+
kìkàn \({ }^{\text {a }}\) kìnkàn \({ }^{\text {a }}\)
pl kìkàmıs \({ }^{\varepsilon}\)
cb kìkàn-
kìkīrıg \({ }^{\text {a/ }}\)
pl kìkīrıs \({ }^{\varepsilon /}\)
\(v v\). come 11.1.1; always with nā 23.7
welcome! \(\underline{34}\)
\(v v\). go; walk 11.1.1
disambiguated with sà 23.7
n. traveller
from Hausa Karfèe; in telling time 35.8
n. cereal, millet
n. purchased millet
n. corn
\(v v\). cut
\(v v\). cross over, meet
\(n\). the constellation Orion
n. soap WK; probable Mampruli loan 18.1;
written materials \(k i^{\prime} i b^{3}\), probably \(k i{ }^{-1}\left(b^{3 /}\right.\)
n. millet seed
\(v v\). listen
\(v v\). deny
n. fig 35.5
n. fig tree 35.5

Ficus capensis (Haaf)
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 \(k i k i \bar{r} ı s^{\varepsilon /}\) hostile to man live in the bush. "Their feet are attached backwards to confuse trackers." WK
cb kìkīr-
kìkīr-bé'z̀d \({ }^{\varepsilon}\)
kīlım \({ }^{\mathrm{m} /}\)
\(n\). NT evil spirit, demon; KB just uses kikīrıga/ \(v v\). become, change into
\(k i ̀ m{ }^{m}\)
agt \(k \grave{\sim} n{ }_{\sim} b-k i ̄ m{ }^{\text {na }}\)
\(k i ̄ r^{\varepsilon}\)
ger kıkírùg \({ }^{\text {J }}\) kīrıb \({ }^{\text { }}\)
\(k i ̄{ }^{\text {a／}}\)
ger kísùg \({ }^{\text {D }}\)
agt \(k i \overline{s^{\mathrm{a} /}} k i \bar{s} d^{\mathrm{a} /}\)
Kísùg \({ }^{\text {ºn }}\)
\(k{ }^{+}\)
res adj kj̀כlón
kj̀bıgā kj̀bısí＋
\(k \bar{b} b r^{\varepsilon}\)
pl kj̄ba＋
cb kj̀b－
kj̄dú \({ }^{+}\)
\(k \grave{\prime}{ }^{\varepsilon}\)
\(k \bar{\jmath} / \iota g^{a}\)
\(p l \quad k \bar{\jmath} / s^{\varepsilon}\)
cb kjl－
kōlugv－n nó－dávig \({ }^{\text {º }}\)
\(k \grave{l v g}{ }^{\text {º }}\)
\(p l \quad k \grave{n}{ }^{n \varepsilon}\)
cb kj̀lug－
\(k \bar{\partial} m^{\mathrm{m} /}\)
cb kj̄m－
\(k \underset{\sim}{n} n b g^{\top}\)
pl \(k{ }^{2} n{ }_{\sim}^{n} b ı d^{\varepsilon}\)
cb kう̀ñb－
agt \(k \grave{\sim} n b-k i ̄ m{ }^{\text {na }}\) \(p l\) kj̀n \(b-k i ̄ m m ı b^{a}\)
kう̄ñ \({ }_{\sim}{ }^{\prime}{ }^{\circ}{ }^{+}\)
\(k \grave{\sim}{ }_{\sim} s^{\varepsilon}\)
\(k \grave{\sim} n s ı m^{m}\)
\(k \grave{\prime} g^{\varepsilon}\)
\(k う ' ว s^{\varepsilon}\)
\(k \grave{t a ̀ a n \varepsilon ~}\)
kótù \({ }^{+}\)
kpà＇a＝
pl kpà＇a－nàma
\(\nu \nu\) ．tend flock，herd
\(n\) ．herdsman，shepherd
\(v \nu\) ．hurry，tremble
\(i v\). hate
adj．hateful，taboo
\(\nu \nu\) ．get broken，break（intransitive）
adj．broken
q．one hundred，two hundred 16．2．2
\(n\) ．bone
\(n\) ．banana \(\leftarrow\) Twi kwadu
\(\nu \nu\) ．put something around the neck
\(n\) ．river
n．crayfish
n．sack，bag

9．2．2
\(n\) ．hunger
n．animal hair or human body hair；cf zūөbúg \({ }^{\text {ºn }}\)
also used as \(c b\) of būn－kón \({ }_{\sim} b u ̀ g^{\supset}\) animal
\(n\) ．shepherd，herdsman
\(a d v\) ．alone，by oneself \(\underline{20.4}\)
\(v v\) ．cough
\(\nu v\). cough
\(\nu \nu\). break（transitive or intransitive）
\(v v\). break several times
at all；Post NP／AdvP Particle 33.6
\(n\) ．lawcourt \(\leftarrow\) English，probably via Hausa
n．rich person
\(k p a ̄ a d^{a /}\)
pl kpāadíb \({ }^{\text {a }}\)
cb kpāad-
\(k p a ̀ ' a m^{m}\)
\(k p a ̄ a n m^{m /}\)
cb kpān-
kpān-són'odìm \({ }^{m}\)
\(k p a ̀ k u ̄ r^{\varepsilon /}\)
pl kpàkūyá+
cb kpàkōr-
\(k p a ̄ n^{\mathrm{n} \varepsilon}\)
pl kpāna+
cb kpàn-
\(k p a ̀ n d r^{\varepsilon}\)
pl kpànda+
cb kpàñ-
\(k p a ̀ r^{\varepsilon}\)
\(k p a ̄ r-k\) źòng \({ }^{\top}\)
pl kpār-kéżñ̃̃d \({ }^{\varepsilon}\)
cb kpār-kéñ-
kpā'ט́n
pl kpīiní \({ }^{+}\)
cb kpā'-
\(k p \bar{\varepsilon}^{+}\)
kpē \(n_{\sim} m^{m}\)
pl kpè \({ }_{\sim}^{n} m\)-nàm \({ }^{\text {a }}\)
cb kpè \(\mathrm{c}_{\mathrm{N}} \mathrm{m}\) -
kpēeñm \({ }^{\text {ma/ }}\)
kpēlá+
kpèlım
\(k p \varepsilon ̀ ̀ \iota m\) m
kpèn
kpèn \({ }^{\prime}+\)
kpēñ \({ }^{2} \iota^{\varepsilon /}\)
pl kpēñ́á+
cb kpēñ
kpèñ' \(\varepsilon s^{\varepsilon}\)
\(k p \dot{\prime}^{\prime} \eta^{\varepsilon}\)
kpēoñ \({ }^{\text {² }}\)
\(k p i+\)
res adj kpiilún \({ }^{\text {² }}\)
n. farmer, cultivator
\(n\). riches
n. grease, ointment
\(n\). anointing oil
n. tortoise
n. spear
n. baboon
\(v v\). lock
n. rag
n. guinea fowl
\(a d v\). here 17.1
\(n\). elder
\(i v\). be older than
\(a d v\). here 17.1
still; immediately after, Particle-Verb 22.7.2
\(v v\). remain
reduced form of the Particle-Verb kpغ̀lım
\(\nu v\). enter
n. cheek
\(v v\). make enter
\(v v\). strengthen
\(n\). seniority
\(v v\). die
adj. dead
kpì'a+
pl \(k\) ki'əs \(^{\varepsilon}\)
cb kpià'-
Kpià'+
\(k p i ̀ e^{+}\)
kpīəm \({ }^{\mathrm{ma}}\)
\(k p i ̀ i b ı g^{a}\)
pl \(k p i i b ı s^{\varepsilon}\)
cb kpìib-
kpìig \({ }^{\varepsilon}\)
kpīim \({ }^{\mathrm{m} /}\)
pl kpīimís \({ }^{\varepsilon}\)
cb kpīim-
\(k p i ̀ i s^{\varepsilon}\)
kpīkpīnna/
pl kpīkpīnníba
cb kpīkpín-
\(k p i ' o \eta^{3}\)
pl kpīəma+
cb kpì'on-
kpìsınkpìlı
pl kpisınkpila+
cb kpìsınkpìl-
kpìsukpill \({ }^{\text {l }}\)
\(k p u ̀ k p a ̀ r^{\varepsilon}\)
pl kpùkpàra+
kpùkpàrıga
pl kpùkpàrıs \({ }^{\varepsilon}\)
cb kpùkpàr-
kpùkpàun \({ }^{3}\)
pl kpùkpàma+
cb kpòkpàun-
kù
\(k \bar{v}^{+}\)
\(k \bar{v}^{+}\)
kūā+
kū'alína
pl Kū'alímìs \({ }^{\varepsilon}\) v̄̄'alís \({ }^{\varepsilon}\)
cb kū'alín-
\(k u ̀ d^{\varepsilon}\)
n. neighbour
\(v v\). shape wood with axe etc
\(\nu v\). approach
\(i v\). be strong, hard
n. orphan
\(\nu v\). go out (fire)
\(n\). dead person, corpse
\(v \nu\). quench (fire)
n. merchant
adj. strong, hard
n. fist
\(n\). fist
n. palm tree fruit 35.5
n. palm tree 35.5
(Probably Borassus akeassii or aethiopum)
n. arm, wing
not; negates Irrealis Mood 22.5
\(\nu v\). kill
\(\nu v\). gather, threaten (of rain)
Sāa kú yā. "It looks like rain."
\(\nu v\). hoe, farm
\(n\). sleeveless traditional smock
\(\nu v\). work iron
kùdıg \({ }^{\varepsilon}\)
\(k \overline{0} d ı m^{m}\)
\(k \bar{u} d u g{ }^{\top} k \bar{d} d \iota^{\varepsilon}\)
pl \(k \bar{u} d a^{+} k \bar{u} t^{\varepsilon}\)
cb kùd－
\(k u ̄ d v g{ }^{\text { }}\)
pl kūt \({ }^{\varepsilon}\)
cb kùt－
kūgur \({ }^{\varepsilon /}\)
pl kūgá＋
cb kūg－
\(k \bar{u} k^{a}\)
pl kūgus \({ }^{\varepsilon}\)
cb kùg－
\(k \bar{u} k^{a /}\)
kùk̇̀m \({ }^{m \varepsilon}\)
pl kùkj̀ma \({ }^{+}\)
cb kùkj̀m－
kòkう̄r \({ }^{\varepsilon /}\)
pl kùkj̄yá＋
cb kùkう̄r－
kùkpàrıg \({ }^{\text {a }}\)
\(k u ̄{ }^{\varepsilon}\)
ger kūlıg \({ }^{\mathrm{a} /}\)
kūlım
kòlın \({ }^{\text {a }}\)
pl kùlımıs \({ }^{\varepsilon} k \dot{l} / s^{\varepsilon}\)
cb kùlı力－
kùm \({ }^{\mathrm{m}} \quad v v\) ．cry，weep
\(k u ̄ m^{m}\)
cb kùm－
kùm－vō＇vgír \({ }^{\varepsilon}\)
kùndù＇ar \({ }^{\varepsilon}\)
pl kùndò＇ada＋
cb kùndư＇à－
kùndòn \({ }^{\text {a }}\) n．jackal，hyena
pl kùndùmıs \({ }^{\varepsilon}\) kùndùna \({ }^{+}\)
\(v v\) ．shrivel up，dry out，age
\(n\) ．the olden days
adj．old
n．iron，nail；sg obsolete except in names \(\underline{35.2}\)
pl used as sg \(\underline{9.5}\)
n．stone
n．chair
n．mahogany tree，Khaya senegalensis（Haaf）
\(n\) ．leper
n．voice
see \(k p u ̀ k p a ̀ r ı g^{a}\) id
\(v \nu\) ．return home；
transitive＂marry＂（woman subject，man object）
always，Post－Subject Particle 27．1．4
\(n\) ．door
n．death
n．resurrection NT
n．barren woman
\(k u ̀ ' ө m{ }^{m}\)
cb kú'à-
kú'à-nūud \({ }^{\varepsilon /}\)
ku'à-ñwiiga/ pl ku'à-nwīis \({ }^{\varepsilon /}\)
\(k u ̀ \theta s^{\varepsilon}\)
\(k u ̀ r k u ̄ r^{\varepsilon /}\)
pl kùrkūyá+
cb kùrkūr-
Kūsáa=
pl Kūsáàs \({ }^{\varepsilon}\)
cb Kūsá-
\(K \overline{u ̄ s a ́ a ̀ l}{ }^{\varepsilon}\)
Kūsáv̀g \({ }^{\text {ºn }}\)
Kùtānnel
pl Kùtāmma/
cb Kùtān-
Kùtāun \({ }^{\text {/ }}\)
kūט
kūug \({ }^{\text {a/ }} k u ̄ u g^{\text {/ }}\)
pl kūus \({ }^{\varepsilon /}\)
cb kū-
kùv/ \({ }^{\varepsilon}\)

L
\(l \bar{a}^{+/}\)
là'+
lā'af
\(p l \quad\) līgıdı+
cb lìg-là'-
là'-bīəlíf
láafiya+
là'am
là'am \({ }^{m}\)
là \(a s^{\varepsilon}\)
làbāar \({ }^{\varepsilon}\)
cb làbà-
n. water
n. thirst
\(n\). current in a river
\(v v\). sell
n. pig
n. Kusaasi person 35.4
n. Kusaal language 35.4
n. Kusaasi country \(\underline{35.4}\)
n. member of WK's clan
n. country of clan Kutamba
or 27.1.2 28.2.2 \(\leftarrow\) Hausa
\(n\). mouse
\(\nu v\). get drunk
definite article 19.3
\(\nu v\). laugh
n. cowrie
n. cowries; money
n. small coin
n. health \(\leftarrow\) Arabic العافية Pal-؟a:fiya(tu) replaced throughout by laafe láafi in 1996 NT
together, Particle-Verb 22.7.2
\(\nu \nu\). associate with; together with 26.3
\(\nu \nu\). gather together (transitive)
Bà là'as tāaba "They gathered together."
n. news \(\leftarrow\) Arabic الالاخبار pal-paxba:r(u)
làbı \({ }^{\varepsilon}\)
làbın \({ }^{\varepsilon}\)
làbıs \({ }^{\varepsilon}\)
lābısa／
lābısíga lābısír \(^{\varepsilon}\)
pl lābısá \({ }^{+}\)
cb lābıs－
lābısím \({ }^{m}\)
lāk \({ }^{\varepsilon /}\)
lāla／
lālıg \({ }^{\varepsilon /}\)
lāllí＋
lāllína
pl lāllís \({ }^{\varepsilon}\)
cb lāllín－
lāllúg \({ }^{\text {² }}\)
pl lāllá＋
cb lāl－
lām \({ }^{\mathrm{m} \varepsilon /}\)
pl lāmá＋
cb lām－
lām－fj́ว̀g \({ }^{\text {º }}\) pl lām－fój̀d \({ }^{\varepsilon}\)
làmp̄̄－dí＇̀̀s \({ }^{a}\)
lānn \({ }^{\text {n }}\)
pl lāna \({ }^{+}\)
cb làn－
làngávク \({ }^{3}\)
pl làngáam \({ }^{\text {me }}\) làngāamá \({ }^{+}\)
cb làngāon－
lànnıg \({ }^{\text {a }}\)
pl lànnıs \({ }^{\varepsilon}\)
cb lànnıg－
Iā＇\({ }^{\varepsilon /}\)
lāním \({ }^{m}\)
「āuk
pl lā＇ad \({ }^{\text {ع }}\)
cb là＇－
\(i v\) ．be crouching，hiding behind something cf Hausa laбèe＂crouch behind something to eavesdrop＂ 18.1
\(v v\) ．make crouch behind something
\(v v\) ．crouch behind something
\(v v\) ．walk stealthily
\(i v\) ．be wide
adj．wide
\(n\) ．wideness
\(v v\) ．open（eye，book）
\(i v\) ．be distant
\(v v\) ．get to be far，make far
\(a d v\) ．far off
adj．distant
adj．distant
\(n\). gum（of tooth）
adj．toothless 19．8．1．4
n．tax collector 18 （French l＇impôt）
n．testicle
n．crab（cf màngávク \({ }^{\text {º }} \mathrm{id}\) ）
n．squirrel

9．2．2
\(v v\) ．set alight
\(v v\) ．wander around searching
\(n\) ．item of goods
pl goods
là'صט
pl là'ama+
\(l \varepsilon b^{\varepsilon}\)
ger l̄̄bıga
\(l\) lèbıg \({ }^{\varepsilon}\)
\(l\) lèbıs
lદ̀
lદ̀m
\(l غ ̀ m^{m}\)
\(\operatorname{dipf} \quad\) lèmmıda
\(l \bar{\varepsilon} r^{\varepsilon}\)
lì
\(l^{+}\)
\(1 i^{+}\)
\(\operatorname{dipf}\) lita \({ }^{\text {a }}\)
\(\operatorname{imp} \quad\) lìm \({ }^{\text {ma }}\)
ger lïig \({ }^{\text {a }}\)
\(\bar{l}^{+}\)
lìa
lìdıg \({ }^{\varepsilon}\)
lìdıg \({ }^{\varepsilon}\)
lìəb \({ }^{\varepsilon}\)
il̀ə \({ }^{\text {® }}\)
líə \(\eta^{a}\)
pl līəmís \({ }^{\varepsilon}\)
cb līə-
lig \({ }^{\varepsilon}\)
lìgı \({ }^{\varepsilon}\)
ligın \({ }^{\varepsilon}\)
l̄ıbır
pl līıba+
cb lìıb-
līka
\(p l \quad l i ̄ g i s^{\varepsilon}\)
lìlāalín \({ }^{\text {a }}\)
pl lìlāalís \({ }^{\varepsilon}\) Milāalímìs \({ }^{\varepsilon}\)
cb lilāalín-
lín
līn \({ }^{\varepsilon}\)
lìn \({ }^{\varepsilon}\)
lìná \({ }^{+}\)
\(n\). fishing net
\(v v\). return (intrans)
\(v v\). turn over
\(\nu v\). answer; send back; divorce (wife)
but, Verbal Predicator particle 22.7.1
again, Particle-Verb 22.7.2
\(v v\). sip, taste
\(v v\). get ugly
it, its (Proclitic) 15.1
it (Enclitic object) 15.1
\(v v\). fall
\(v v\). block up
where is ...? 25
\(v v\). turn a shirt WK
\(v v\). astonish, be amazed
\(\nu v\). become
\(\nu v\). approach, come near
\(n\). axe
\(\nu v\). patch
\(v v\). cover
\(v v\). cover oneself
n. twin
n. darkness
n. swallow
it (subject of \(\grave{n}\)-Clause) 15.1
it (Contrastive) 15.1
that (Demonstrative 15.2)
that (Demonstrative 15.2)
\(\check{J}^{+}\)
\(1 \overline{b^{\varepsilon}}\)
ほ̄bıdíg \({ }^{\text {a }}\)
pl l̄̄bıdís \(^{\varepsilon}\)
IJdıg \({ }^{\text {a／}}\)
pl \({ }^{\text {IJ }} d i s^{\varepsilon /}\)
cb Īd－
1亏dıg \({ }^{\varepsilon /}\)
1うk \({ }^{\top}\)
pl lò＇ad \({ }^{\varepsilon}\)
cb lư＇à－
ノう̀mbう̀＇ g \(^{\text {º }}\)
pl lı̀mbう̀＇ว \(d^{\varepsilon}\)
cb İmbう̀＇－
\(1 \eta^{a}\)
pl Īmıs \(^{\varepsilon}\)
cb מלן
／
1 ＇́r \(^{\varepsilon}\)
pl lóyà \({ }^{+}\)lóכm \({ }^{\text {ma }}\)
cb lór－
\(1 u{ }^{+}\)
dipf lùt \({ }^{\text {a }}\)
imp lùm \({ }^{\text {ma }}\)
\(l u ̄ b^{\varepsilon}\)
ger lūbıre／
lūg \({ }^{\varepsilon}\)
lùgur \({ }^{\varepsilon}\)

M
\(\dot{m}\)
\(m^{a}\)
mà＋
pl mà nám \({ }^{\text {a }}\)
cb mà－
mà－biig \({ }^{\text {a }}\)
mà－bīla
mà－kpē \(\varepsilon n m^{m}\)
mà－pīta／
\(v v\) ．tie
\(v v\) ．throw stones at
\(n\) ．water drawing vessel
n．corner
ほ̄dıgín kúg－sún \({ }^{\text {º }}\)＂cornerstone＂NT
\(v v\) ．untie
n．quiver（for arrows）
n．garden \(\leftarrow\) Hausa làmbuu
n．a kind of frog
\(\nu v\) ．go across river，road etc
n．car，lorry \(\leftarrow\) English
\(v v\) ．fall
\(v v\) ．buck，kick，struggle，throw off rider
\(v v\) ．swim
n．organ，member

I，my（Proclitic） 15.1
me（Enclitic） 15.1
\(n\) ．mother
（mother＇s sisters／co－wives）Tone sic．
n．sibling with same mother
n．mother＇s younger sister or junior co－wife
\(n\) ．mother＇s elder sister or senior co－wife
\(n\) ．mother＇s younger sister
```

mà'+
mà'aa SF mà'an\overline{\varepsilon LF}
màal\varepsilon
agt màal-māanna

```
mā'a| \({ }^{\varepsilon /}\)
\(m a ̄ a n^{\mathrm{n}}\) ع
    pl māana+
    cb màan-
\(m a ́ ' a n^{\mathrm{n}} \varepsilon\)
    pl mā'aná+
    cb mā'an-
mā'as \({ }^{\text {a/ }}\)
mā'asíg \({ }^{\text {a }}\) mā'asír \(^{\varepsilon}\)
    pl mā'asá+
    cb mā'as-
mā'asígā+/
mā'asím \({ }^{\text {m }}\)
mādıg \({ }^{\varepsilon /}\)
mā'e+/
màk \({ }^{\varepsilon}\)
\(m a ̄ k^{\varepsilon /}\)
màliāk \({ }^{\mathrm{a} /}\)
pl màliā'as \({ }^{\varepsilon /}\) màliāk-nám \({ }^{a}\)
cb màliā'-
màlıgım
mālısa/
mālısíg \({ }^{\text {a }}\) mālısír \({ }^{\varepsilon}\)
    pl mālısá+
    cb mālıs-
mālısím \({ }^{m}\)
mālısín \({ }^{\text {a }}\)
    pl mālısís \({ }^{\varepsilon}\)
    cb mālısín-
mālun
    pl mālıma+
    cb màlv-
mām
I, me \(\underline{15.1}\)
\(v v\). lie, deceive
only; Post NP/AdvP Particle 33.6
\(\nu v\). prepare, sacrifice
\(n\). sacrificer; used for "priest" in the NT, but in traditional usage just a worker who conducts the actual slaying for the the tèn-dāan \({ }^{\text {a }}\)
earth-priest himself
\(\nu v\). make cool, wet
\(n\). sacrifice
n. okra
\(i v\). be cool, wet
adj. cool, wet
\(a d v\). coolly 20.4
\(n\). coolness, wetness
\(v v\). overflow, abound
\(\nu v\). cool down
\(v v\). crumple up
\(v v\). measure, judge
n. angel \(\leftarrow\) Arabic ملاك malPak(un) 18.1
written malek in NT versions before 2016
again; Particle-Verb 22.7.2
\(i v\). be sweet, pleasant
adj. sweet, pleasant
n. sweetness
adj. sweet, pleasant
n. sacrifice

I, me 15.1
mán
mān SF mán \(\overline{\text { LF }}\)
màngáv \({ }^{\text {J }}\)
pl màngáam \({ }^{\text {me }}\) màngāamá＋
cb màngāon－
màuk \({ }^{\top}\)
pl mà＇ad \({ }^{\varepsilon}\)
\(m \dot{\varepsilon}^{+}\)
\(m \varepsilon ̀ m e ̀ n^{\varepsilon}\)
mè－kàma
\(m \bar{\varepsilon} d^{\varepsilon}\)
\(m \varepsilon ̀ \varepsilon \eta^{a}\)
pl mèzmis \({ }^{\varepsilon}\)
cb mè \(\_\)－
\(m \varepsilon ̀ l ı g ı m{ }^{m}\)
\(m \bar{\varepsilon} \eta^{\mathrm{a} /}\)
mēnír \({ }^{\varepsilon}\)
\(m \bar{\varepsilon} t^{\varepsilon /}\)
cb mēt－
\(m i^{+}\)
ger mīilím \({ }^{m}\)
agt gbàn－míid \({ }^{\text {a／}} \quad\) n．scribe NT
míif
pl mïiní＋
\(m_{i} i^{\varepsilon}\)
mi＇is \({ }^{\text {a }}\)
mìisug \({ }^{\text { }}\)
pl mi＇isa＋
cb mi＇is－
mīlıg \({ }^{\varepsilon /}\)
mìmīilím \({ }^{\mathrm{m}}\) mı̀mīilúg \({ }^{\text { }}\)
mit
\(m{ }^{+}\)
\(m \bar{\jmath} d^{\varepsilon}\)
\(m \bar{\partial} d ı g^{\varepsilon /}\)
mう̀ı
pl mう̀lı＋
cb mう̀－
\(m \overline{n^{\varepsilon}}\)
mכ̄n
\(v v\) ．refuse to lend

I（as subject of \(\grave{n}\)－Clause）\(\underline{15.1}\)
I，me（contrastive） 15.1
n．crab（cf làngávクゝ id）
adj．crumpled up
\(\nu v\) ．build
too，also；Post NP／AdvP Particle \(\underline{33.6}\)
－soever 15.3
\(v v\) ．mash up
n．turtle
n．dew
self 19．9．3
adj．genuine
n．pl as sg pus
iv．know
n．okra seed
\(v v\) ．become sour
\(i v\) ．be sour
adj．sour
\(v v\) ．get dirty
\(n\) ．sweetness
see that it doesn＇t happen that．．．32．1．1
Always mid in KB
\(v \nu\) ．strive，struggle
\(v v\) ．swell
\(v v\) ．be patient，endure
n．gazelle
\(\nu v\) ．grind millet to make \(s a \overline{ }{ }^{\prime} a b^{\top}\) porridge
```

mכ̄og`
n. grass; "bush"
pl m弓ॅכd
cb mうे-
mう̀-pill\varepsilon
n. grass thatch
Mう̀כg}\mp@subsup{}{}{\circ
Mכ̀כg Ná'àba
m亏̄כ/\&/
agt mכ̄دl-mój̀nna
Mכ̀כ/\varepsilon
Mכ̄r\&/
pl Móэm}\mp@subsup{}{}{\mathrm{ ma}
cb Mう̄r-
m\overline{rral iv. have, possess; mōr nā "bring" 23.7}
ger mōrím}\mp@subsup{}{}{m
Mùa+
pl Mכ̀כss
cb M\grave{-}
mu'àa
múàka
pl mò'as}\mp@subsup{}{}{\varepsilon
cb mú'à-
mù'ar
pl mư'àa+ mò'ada+
cb mu'à-
mù'as}\mp@subsup{}{}{\varepsilon
mù'e+
mùi+
cb mùi-
mùl\varepsilon
mùm}\mp@subsup{}{}{m
vv. bury

```

\section*{N}
\(n^{\varepsilon} n i^{+/}\)
nà
\(n \bar{a}^{+/}\)
\(n \bar{a}^{+}\)

Clause Complementiser particle \(\underline{31}\)
VP Serialiser particle 26.1
Personifier proclitic before an adjective 19.10
Remoteness Marker Enclitic 30．1．1
Locative Enclitic 20.3
Positive Irrealis Mood marker 22.4
hither：VP－final particle 23.7
\(v \nu\) ．join
náa
\(n a ̀ \cdot a b^{a}\)
pl nà'-nàma \({ }^{\text {a }}\)
cb nà'-
nà'-bïiga
náaf
pl nïigí+
cb nā'-
nā'-lór \({ }^{\varepsilon}\)
nā'-dáv̀ \({ }^{\text { }}\)
pl nā'-dáàd \({ }^{\varepsilon}\)
cb nā'-dá-nā'-dá-kūөdír \({ }^{\varepsilon}\)
nā'am \({ }^{m}\)
cb nà'am-
nāan
nāan or nāanı
nà'anā+/
nà'as \({ }^{\varepsilon}\) ger nà'ası+
\(N a ̀ b d^{a}\)
\(p l \quad N a ̀ b ı d ı b^{a}\)
cb Nàbıd-
\(N a ̀ b ı d v g{ }^{\circ}\)
\(N a ̀ b r^{\varepsilon}\)
Nà'dàm \({ }^{\text {ma }}\)
Nà'dàun \({ }^{\text {J }}\)
nà'-dàwānn \({ }^{\text {n/ }}\)
nāe+/
nàm
nàma \({ }^{\text {a }}\)
nā'mıs \({ }^{\varepsilon /}\)
nān \({ }^{\varepsilon}\)
nà'-n̄̄sınn̄̄̄og/
nānná+
nānná-nā+/
nànzù'us \({ }^{\varepsilon}\)
\(n a ̄ \eta^{a}\)
pl \(\quad\) nāmıs \({ }^{\varepsilon}\)
cb nàn-
reply to greetings invoking blessings \(\underline{34}\)
\(n\). chief, king
n. prince, princess
n. cow
\(n\). place in compound for tying up cows
n. ox
\(n\). ox for ploughing
n. chieftaincy, kingdom
next, afterwards = ñ~~āan
then, in that case, being thus/there 30.1.2
\(a d v\). easily 20.4
\(v v\). honour
\(n\). honour
n. Nabdema person \(\underline{35.4}\)
n. Nabdema country
n. Nabit language 35.4
n. clan name 35.4
\(n\). place of clan Nadamba
n. pigeon KED (= dàwānn \({ }^{\mathrm{n} \varepsilon /}\) )
\(\nu \nu\). finish
still, yet; auxiliary tense particle 22.3.1
pluraliser 9.4
\(\nu v\). persecute, suffer
\(v v\). love, respect, appreciate
\(n\). centipede WK
\(a d v\). now 17.1
\(a d v\). now 17.1
n. pepper ?tones
n. scorpion
\(n a ̄ r^{a /}\)
ger nārím \({ }^{m}\)
nàron \({ }^{3}\)
pl nàrıma+
\(c b\) nàron-
\(\begin{array}{ll}\text { Nàsāal } & \text { n. English/French language } \\ \text { Nàsāara } & \\ & \text { n. European person } \leftarrow \text { Arabic }{ }^{+} \text {Nasª:ra: }\end{array}\)
pl Nàsàa-nàm \({ }^{\text {a }}\) Nàsàar-nàm \({ }^{\text {a }}\)
cb Nàsàa- Nàsàar-
Nàsàa-bïiga \(\quad\) n. European child
nàyïig \({ }^{\text {a }}\)
pl nàyìig-nàm \({ }^{\text {a }}\) nàyìis \({ }^{\varepsilon}\)
nàyïigım \({ }^{\mathrm{m}} \quad n\). thievery
nà'-ż̀m \({ }^{\text {me }} \quad n\). locust
\(n \bar{\varepsilon}\)
\(n \bar{\varepsilon}^{+/}\)
\(n \bar{\varepsilon}^{+/}\)
\(n \bar{\varepsilon}^{1+/}\)
nèz/ \({ }^{\varepsilon}\)
nè \(m^{m}\)
\(n \bar{\varepsilon} \varepsilon m^{\mathrm{m} /}\)
\(n \bar{\varepsilon} \varepsilon r^{\varepsilon /}\)
nèzs \({ }^{\varepsilon}\)
nè \(\varepsilon s \mathrm{~m}^{\mathrm{m}}\)
\(n \varepsilon \overline{m-n \varepsilon ́} \mathrm{c}^{\varepsilon}{ }^{\varepsilon}\)
pl nēm-néyà \({ }^{+}\)
nह̄nna/ ger nēnním \({ }^{\mathrm{m}}\)
nē'ทá+
\(n \varepsilon ̀ o g{ }^{\text {nè }}\) ner \({ }^{\varepsilon}\)
pl nè \(\mathrm{d}^{\varepsilon}\) nèya+
cb nغे-

pl nēsınnغ̀ \(d^{\varepsilon /}\)
cb nēsınné-
ǹ fá!
\(n \bar{i}+1\)
\(n{ }^{+}\)
\(i v\). be obliged to; impersonal: to be necessary with following purpose clause \(\underline{29.1}\)
negated: "be obliged not to"
adj. necessary
preposition: with 21.1
linking NPs and AdvPs: and 19.4
after objects of \(w \bar{v} v\) and \(w \bar{\varepsilon} n^{\text {na/ }} \underline{21.1}\)
focus particle 33.1.2; aspectual marker 22.2
this (pronoun) 15.2
\(v v\). reveal
\(a d v\). for free
\(\nu v\). grind with a millstone
\(n\). millstone
\(v v\). reveal
n. light
n. someone who grinds
\(i v\). envy
this (pronoun) 15.2
adj. empty
\(n\). envious person WK; others: centipede

Well done! 28.2.4
locative enclitic 20.3 see \(n^{\varepsilon}\)
\(v v\). rain
```

nīda/

```
\(p l\) nīdıba/
cb nīn-
nīn-sáàla \({ }^{a}\)
\(p l\) nīn-sáalìb \({ }^{a}\) cb nīn-sáàlnīnpūnānna/
pl nīnpōnānníb \({ }^{\text {a }}\)
cb nīnpōnán-
nīn-sábılìs \({ }^{\varepsilon}\)
nìe \({ }^{+}\)
\(n i f^{\prime}\)
pl nīní \({ }^{+}\)
cb nīn- nif-
nïf-gbáun \({ }^{\text {² }} \quad\) n. eyelid
nīf-sób \({ }^{\text {a }}\)
nīf-nyáuk \({ }^{\top}\)
nīn-dáa=
nīn-gótìn \({ }^{a}\)
pl nīn-gótis \({ }^{\varepsilon}\)
nīn-kúgudìg \({ }^{\mathrm{a}}\)
pl nīn-kúgudìs \({ }^{\varepsilon}\)
nīn-tá'à \(m^{m}\)
nīn-múa+
\(n i i \eta^{a}\)
pl nï̀mís \({ }^{\varepsilon}\) níis \({ }^{\varepsilon}\)
cb nī̈у-
\(n \bar{\imath} m^{\mathrm{n} \varepsilon /} n i \overline{1} m^{\mathrm{n} \varepsilon /} \quad\) n. meat
pl nīmá+
cb nīm-
nīn-báalìg \({ }^{a}\)
nīn-báàl-zว̄כr \({ }^{\varepsilon}\)
nīn-dáa=
pl nīn-dáàs \({ }^{\varepsilon}\)
cb nīn-dá-
n. pity
n. person
n. human being
\(n\). disrespectful person
n. Africans
\(v v\). appear, reveal
n. eye
\(n\). miser
adj. one-eyed 16.2.4 19.8.1.4
\(n\). face
n. mirror
n. spectacles, glasses
n. eyebrow
n. tear(s)
\(n\). concentration ("eye-redness")
\(n\). bird
n. pity:

Ò ż̀t•ō nīn-báalìg. "He has pity on him."
\(n\). face
\(n i \eta^{a}\)
\(n\). body (uncommon)
pl niīs \({ }^{\varepsilon}\)
cb nìn- nìn-
nìn-tūllím \({ }^{m}\)
nìn-tāa=
pl nìn-tāas \({ }^{\varepsilon}\)
cb nìn-tà-
nìn-gbīə \({ }^{\text {/ }}\)
pl nìn-gbīná+
cb nìn-gbīn-
nìn-gว̀วr \({ }^{\varepsilon}\)
nīn-púv̀d \({ }^{\varepsilon}\)
nīntā \({ }^{\text {a/ }}\)
pl nīntāañs \(s^{\varepsilon /}\)
cb nintán-
\(n i \eta^{\varepsilon}\)
ǹ la
ǹnāas
ǹníi
ǹnū
n ñ wá
n ñ wá nā
\(n{ }^{+}\)
nว̄ \({ }^{\varepsilon}\)
nว̄bıg \({ }^{\varepsilon /}\)
nóbìr \({ }^{\varepsilon}\)
pl n̄̄bá+
cb nว̄b-
nכ̄b-bíl \({ }^{\text {a }} \quad n\). toe
nכ̄b-yíun \({ }^{3}\)
nว̄b-íñ'a+
nכ̄b-púmpàun \({ }^{\text { }}\)
\(n \bar{n} k^{\varepsilon /}\)
nว̀ク \({ }^{\varepsilon}\)
agt nذ̀מıd \({ }^{a}\)
nว̄n \(n^{2 /}\)
cb מכ̄-
nכ̄-dáàn \({ }^{a}\)
nכ̀מılím \({ }^{m}\)
adj. one-legged 16.2.4 19.8.1.4
\(n\). toenail
\(n\). foot
\(v v\). pick up, take up
\(v v\). love (verb; family, spiritual)
Descriptive Stative aspect 11.1.1
agent noun: irregularly Pattern L
\(n\). poverty
n. poor person
n. love (noun)
\(v v\). do
that is ... 25
\(q\). four 16.2 .3
q. eight 16.2 .3
\(q\). five 16.2 .3
this is ... 25
this here is ... 25
\(v v\). tread
\(v v\). get fat
\(v v\). grow (e.g. child, plant)
\(n\). leg, foot
pl ñ~āamıs \({ }^{\varepsilon}\)
cb ñ~àan-
nכ̄כr
n. mouth; command, message, opinion
n. Chief's "linguist", who speaks on his behalf on all official occasions 13.1.1.1 fn
n. prophet NT
\(n\). fasting
("mouth-tying"; idiom throughout W Africa)
n. covenant
n. oath
n. lip
times 16.2.5
times 16.2.5
q. seven 16.2.3
q. three 16.2.3
\(v v\). drink
\(n\). hen
n. cock
n. (specifically female) hen
the Pleiades
\(v v\). make drink
\(v v\). make drink
n. hand, arm
\[
p l \quad \text { nú'ùs }{ }^{\varepsilon}
\]
cb nū'-

> nū'-bíla
> \(\quad\) pl nū'-bíbìs
nū'-dávo \({ }^{\text {º }}\)
\(n \bar{'}-y i ́ u \eta^{3}\)
nū'-íñ \({ }^{2} a^{+}\)
\(p l n u ̄ '-\varepsilon ́ n{ }^{\prime}{ }^{\prime} s^{\varepsilon}\)
cb nū'-દ́n'-
\(n u ̄ '-w \varepsilon ́ n n^{\prime} \varepsilon d^{a}\)
nwà \({ }^{+}\)
n~~ā' \({ }^{+}\)
nัwāaŋ \({ }^{\text {a }}\)
.
nう̄-nyá'à \(\eta^{a}\)
Nכ̄-ñyá'àn-nć-ò-Bīis
nūlıg \({ }^{\varepsilon /}\)
nūlss \({ }^{\varepsilon /}\)
nú'ùg \({ }^{\text { }}\)
nū'-bí
n. thumb
adj. one-armed 16.2.4 19.8.1.4
\(n\). fingernail
n. mediator
this 19.3
\(v v\). smash, break up
n. monkey
ñwādıga
\(n\) ．moon，month
pl \(\sim_{\sim}^{n w a ̄ d i s}{ }^{\varepsilon /}\)
cb ñwād－
ñwād－bíla
pl ñwād－bíbìs \({ }^{\varepsilon}\)
Nwād－dár \({ }^{\varepsilon}\)
\({ }_{\sim}^{n} w a ̀ ' e^{+}\)
ñwāe
\({ }_{\sim}^{n} w a ̄ m^{\mathrm{m} \varepsilon}{ }_{\sim}^{n} w a ̄ n^{\mathrm{nc}}\)
n．star
\(n\) ．Venus
\(v v\) ．cut wood
\(q\) ．nine 16．2．3
n．calabash
pl ñ～wāma＋ñwāna＋
cb ñ～～àm－ñwàn－
Nwāmpūrıga／
n．Mamprussi person 35.4
n．Mampruli language 35.4
n．Mamprussi country
\(\nu v\) ．beat
ñwè＇X nú＇ùg＂make an agreement with X＂
ñwと̀＇ñ⿰氵亏̄＇วg＂boast＂
\(n_{n}\) wiig \({ }^{\text {a／}}\)
pl \({\underset{\sim}{n}}^{n i i} s^{\varepsilon /}\)
cb n nwi－
nwi－ték \({ }^{\text {a }} \quad\) n．rope－puller
pl ñwī－tékìdı \(b^{a}\) cb ñwī－t́́k－
\({ }_{\sim}{ }^{n} \omega \overline{-}-t \varepsilon ́ k i ̀ r^{\varepsilon} \quad\) ．rope for pulling
pl ñwī－tékà \({ }^{+}\)
ñwïig \({ }^{\varepsilon /}\)
ny yā＇alal
nyāan
nyá＇an \({ }^{a}\)
pl nyá＇as \({ }^{\varepsilon}\) nyā＇amís \({ }^{\varepsilon}\)
cb nyā＇aŋ－
nyá＇an \({ }^{\text {a }}\)
nyà＇an－dうlla nyà̀＇an－djılı
n．rope n．
\(v v\) ．make a rope
\(v v\) ．leave behind
next，afterwards；Post－Subject Particle 27．1．4
adj．female（animal）
pl nyà̀＇an－dう̀lla＋nyà＇an－dう̀llıba
cb nyà＇an－dうl－
nyā＇ar \({ }^{\varepsilon}\)
pl nyā＇a＋
cb nyà＇－
nyāe \({ }^{\mathrm{n} \varepsilon /}\)
n．root
behind，postposition 20.6
n．disciple NT；tones unexpected，Pattern L
．
\(a d v\) ．in the light，brightly，clearly 20.3
nyā̄lún \({ }^{\text {² }}\)
pl nyāāımá＋
cb nyālon－
nyàn \({ }^{\text {ne }}\)
nyān \({ }^{\varepsilon /}\)
nyàuk \({ }^{\top}\)
pl nyà＇ad \({ }^{\varepsilon}\)
\(n_{n} \bar{\varepsilon}^{+}\)
\(\operatorname{dipf}{\underset{\sim}{n}}^{n} t^{t^{a /}}\)
imp ñèm \({ }^{\text {ma }}\)

ny \(\bar{\varepsilon}^{\prime} \varepsilon r^{\varepsilon /}\)
pl ñ \(y\) ह̄dá \({ }^{+}\)
cb ny \({ }^{\prime}\)－
ny \(\varepsilon\) ह̀s \({ }^{\text {a }}\)
nyèzsım \({ }^{\mathrm{m}}\)
nyèzsín \({ }^{\text {a }}\)
\(\left.p l \sim_{n} y \varepsilon\right)^{\prime \prime}\) ís \(^{\varepsilon}\)
cb ny
nyと̀とsínā＋／
ǹyí
nyı̄nñ／
pl nyīná \({ }^{+}\)
cb nyīn－
nyīríf
pl nyīrí＋
nуว̄ว \({ }^{\varepsilon}\)
nуว̄＇วg／
nуว̄ว \({ }^{\varepsilon}\)
pl nัขј̄ya＋
cb nyう̀－
nyう̀－vōr \({ }^{\varepsilon /}\)
pl ñyう̀－vōyá＋ cb ñyう̀－vōr－ nyう̀－vōr－páàl \({ }^{\varepsilon}\)
nyว̄＇วs \({ }^{\varepsilon /}\)
ǹyúèb
nуūur \({ }^{\varepsilon /}\)
pl ñyūyá＋
cb nyū－
adj．wonderful
n．shame
Ò dı nyán．＂He＇s ashamed．＂
\(\nu v\) ．overcome 26.3
adj．only（eye）16．2．4 19．8．1．4
\(v v\) ．see，find
ny
habitually，Particle－Verb 22．7．2
\(n\) ．next－younger sibling
\(i v\) ．be self－confident
n．self－confidence
adj．self－confident
\(a d v\) ．self－confidently 20.4
q．two 16．2．3
n．tooth
n．a kind of edible seed，egusi
Colocynthis citrullus（Haaf）
n．intestines
n．chest
n．nose；breath
n．life
n．new life NT
n．smoke
q．six 16．2．3
n．yam

\section*{0}
ò［v］
－LF［ v ］
ón
う \(n^{\varepsilon}\)
\(う n^{\varepsilon}\)
う̀n \(b^{\varepsilon}\)
ger \(\bar{\sim} \sim_{\sim}^{n b} r^{\varepsilon}\)
̀̀ā＋／
うวss

P
pà＇
pà＇al \({ }^{\varepsilon}\)
agt \(p a \bar{\prime} \cdot a n^{\text {na }}\)
pl pā＇annıb \({ }^{\text {a }}\)
cb pà＇an－
pà＇al \({ }^{\varepsilon}\)
pāalíg\({ }^{a}\) páal \({ }^{\text {l }}\)
pl pāalís \({ }^{\varepsilon}\) pāalá \({ }^{+}\)
cb pāal－
pāalím \({ }^{m}\)
pāalú \({ }^{+}\)
pàañlón \({ }^{\text {² }}\)
pl pàañlímìs \({ }^{\varepsilon}\)
pàam \({ }^{m}\)
pàas \({ }^{\varepsilon}\)
pāe \({ }^{+/}\)
pàk \({ }^{\varepsilon}\)
pàk \({ }^{\varepsilon}\)
pāmm SF pāmné LF
pàn＇alım \({ }^{\text {m }}\)
pànsıg \({ }^{\varepsilon}\)
pàna
pl pàañs \({ }^{\varepsilon}\)
cb pàn－
pà＇tì
he，she，his，her（Proclitic） 15.1
him，her（Enclitic object）15．1 8．2．1．1
he，she（subject of \(\grave{n}\)－Clause） 15.1
he，she（Contrastive） 15.1
this，that（animate sg Demonstrative） 15.2
\(v v\) ．chew
this，that（animate sg Demonstrative） 15.2
\(v v\) ．warm oneself
Ò j̀วsıd nē búgúm lā．
＂She＇s warming herself at the fire．＂
earlier today，Tense Particle 22．3．1
\(v v\) ．teach，inform
n．teacher
\(v v\) ．put on top of something
adj．new
\(a d v\) ．recently 20.4
\(a d v\) ．openly 20.4
\(n\) ．spider＇s web
\(v v\) ．receive a gift
\(v v\) ．add up to，amount to
\(v v\) ．reach
\(v v\) ．surprise
\(v v\) ．take off from the top
q．much，a lot 16.1 6．4
\(v v\) ．dedicate
\(v v\) ．lack
n．power
perhaps；Post－Subject Particle 27．1．4
\(p \varepsilon ̀ b s^{\varepsilon}\)
pèbısım \({ }^{\mathrm{m}}\) pغ̀bısug \({ }^{\text { }}\)
\(\left.p \varepsilon{ }^{\prime} \varepsilon\right|^{\varepsilon}\)
res adj pغ̀'عlún \({ }^{\text {º }}\)
\(p \varepsilon{ }^{\prime} \varepsilon s^{\varepsilon}\)
\(p \varepsilon \grave{\iota} g^{\varepsilon}\)
\(p \varepsilon ̀ l s^{\varepsilon}\)
\(p \varepsilon n^{n \varepsilon}\)
\(p \bar{\varepsilon}^{\prime} \eta^{\varepsilon /}\)
pèog \({ }^{\text { }}\)
pl pغ̀ \(d^{\varepsilon}\)
\(c b \quad p \varepsilon े-\)
\(p \bar{z}^{\prime} \circ g^{2 /}\)
pl p \(\bar{\varepsilon}^{\prime} \varepsilon s^{\varepsilon /}\)
cb p \(\bar{\varepsilon}^{\prime}-\)
\(p \bar{\varepsilon}\) '-sá' \(a=\)
\(p \bar{\varepsilon} s g^{\varepsilon /}\)
piā+
piāñ~ \({ }^{\text {a }}\)
ger piàunk \({ }^{\top}\)
pl pià \({ }_{\sim}^{n}{ }^{\prime} a d^{\varepsilon}\) cb piàñon'-piààn'-zùna+
pibıg \({ }^{\varepsilon}\)
pìbı \({ }^{\varepsilon}\)
\(p i ̈ b ı n^{n \varepsilon}\)
pl pïbına+
cb pibın-
pid \({ }^{\varepsilon}\)
pīd \({ }^{\varepsilon}\)
pidıg \({ }^{\varepsilon}\)
pie \({ }^{+/}\)
\(p i ̀ b^{\varepsilon}\)
pìəlıga pìəlı
pl pìala+ pìəlıs \({ }^{\varepsilon}\)
cb pìal-
pèzlug \({ }^{\text {º }}\)
pìalım \({ }^{\mathrm{m}}\)
pìəs \({ }^{\varepsilon}\)
рїәs \({ }^{\varepsilon /}\)
piiga+
\(v v\). blow (of wind)
\(n\). wind
\(\nu v\). fill
adj. full
\(v v\). add up to, amount to
\(v v\). whiten, go white
\(\nu v\). sharpen
n. vagina
\(\nu v\). borrow; knock over WK
n. basket
n. sheep
\(n\). ewe lamb
\(v v\). sacrifice
\(v v\). dig up
\(\nu v\). speak, praise
n. word
plural: language
n. foreign language
\(\nu v\). uncover
\(v v\). cover up
n. covering 12.1.2
\(v v\). put on (hat, shoes, rings)
\(v v\). get bloated
\(v \nu\). take off (hat, shoes, rings)
\(\nu v\). wash (part of one's own body)
\(v v\). blow (e.g. flute)
adj. white
in zū-péعlùgد "bald; grey haired" 19.8.1.4
\(n\). whiteness
\(v v\). fool someone
\(v v\). wash
q. ten 16.2.2

рїm \({ }^{m /}\)
pl pīmá＋
cb pīm－
pílñf
pl pīıní＋
cb pīın－
pïnı \({ }^{+}\)
cb pìin－
pil \({ }^{\varepsilon}\)
pìlıg
pīn＇il｜
pīpīrıga／
pl pīpīrıs \({ }^{\varepsilon /}\)
cb pīpír－
pisis \({ }^{+}\)
pītú＋
pl pītíb \({ }^{\text {a }}\)
cb pit－
\(p \bar{j}^{+}\)
pう̀nd \({ }^{\varepsilon}\)

рう̀n＇כוım
pう̀n＇วr \({ }^{\varepsilon}\)
pl ṗ̀nda＋
cb ṗ̀ñ＇－
ṗ̀ñ \({ }^{a}\)
ger pכ̄nrub \({ }^{\text { }}\)
pう̀ว \(d^{a}\)
pう̀วdıga pj̀วdır \({ }^{\varepsilon}\)
pl pj̀วda＋
cb pう̀วd－
pj̀วdım \({ }^{m}\)
p \(\bar{\partial} g^{2 /}\)
pl pj̄כd \(d^{\varepsilon /} p \bar{\jmath} t^{\varepsilon /}\)
cb pj̄－
pう̀＇วg \({ }^{\varepsilon}\)
pう̄כr \({ }^{\varepsilon /}\)
n．arrow
n．genet
\(p l\) as \(\operatorname{sg} n\) ．gift
\(v v\) ．put（hat，shoes，rings）on someone
\(\nu v\) ．take（hat，shoes，rings）off someone
\(v v\) ．begin
\(n\) ．desert
q．twenty 16．2．2
n．younger sibling of the same sex \(\underline{35.1}\)
\(v \nu\) ．swear
\(\nu v\) ．crouch down
\(v v\) ．cause to rot
\(v v\) ．cripple，get crippled
n．cripple
\(i v\). be near
\(i v\) ．be few，small
adj．few，small
n．fewness
n．field，farm
\(v v\) ．diminish，denigrate
\(n\) ．＂slogan＂of a clan，part of its traditional
genealogy WK；\(\leftarrow p \bar{J}^{+}\)＂swear＂，cf Farefare pote，
pore＂nom de famille，nom par lequel on jure＂
and also＂serment＂
not：negates Indicative Mood 22.5
\(p \bar{v}^{+}\)
\(p u{ }^{\prime}{ }^{\text {à }}{ }^{a}\)

\section*{puāk \({ }^{\text {a }}\)}
pl pū'aba
cb pu'à-
\(p u ̛ ̀ a ̀-d i ̄ ı r^{\varepsilon}\)
pú'à- \(\varepsilon\) lín \({ }^{a}\)
pư'à-gīnníga

pu'à-nyá'a \(\eta^{a}\)
pl pư'à-nyá'as \({ }^{\varepsilon}\)
pu'à-pāala/
\(p u{ }^{\prime}\) à-sādıré
pứà-sāñ~'am \({ }^{\text {na }}\)
\(p u{ }^{\prime}\) 'à-yùa' \({ }^{+}\)
pl \(p \bar{v}^{\prime} a s^{\varepsilon}\)
pò'alım \({ }^{m}\)
pò'alım \({ }^{m}\)
res adj pò'alún \({ }^{\text {º }}\)
pò'alım \({ }^{m}\)
pò'alím \({ }^{m}\)
pl pò'alímiss \({ }^{\varepsilon}\)
cb pò'alím-
pùd \({ }^{\varepsilon}\)
pūdıg \({ }^{\varepsilon /}\)
pùgudıb \({ }^{\text {a }}\)
pl pùgud-nàma \({ }^{\text {a }}\)
cb pògud-
pùkj̀כñ \(r^{\varepsilon}\)
pl pùkj̀nya+
cb pòk̇̀ñ
\(p u ̄ k p a ̄ a d^{a /}\)
pl pūkpāadíba
cb pōkpá-
pùlıma+
pùmpj̄כg
pòn
pūñ' \(e^{+/}\)
\(v v\). divide
n. woman, wife

Ò dì pu'ā. "He's married a wife."
n. marriage
\(n\). fiancée
n. prostitute
n. prostitute
\(n\). old woman
n. bride
\(n\). young woman
\(n\). adulterer
\(n\). daughter
adj. female (human only)
\(v v\). cook
\(v v\). harm, damage
adj. damaged
\(n\). femininity
\(n\). female sex organs
\(v v\). name
\(v v\). divide, share out
n. father's sister 35.1
n. widow
n. farmer
irreg. cb; contrast kpāada/
\(n\). a species of grass, Imperata cylindrica (Haaf)
\(n\). housefly
previously, already Particle-Verb 22.7.2
\(v v\). rot
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pūsıga/

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pl pūsss \({ }^{\varepsilon /}\)
cb pūs-
pūsırel
pl pūsá+
\(p \overline{0}\)-súk \({ }^{\text {a }}\)
\(p l\) pū-súgùs \({ }^{\varepsilon}\)
\(p \bar{t} t^{\varepsilon /}\)
pūum \({ }^{\mathrm{m} /}\)
cb pūum-
pūvg \({ }^{\text {a }}\)
\(c b\) pò-
pò-pìalım \({ }^{\mathrm{m}}\)
pò-tèn' \(\varepsilon r^{\varepsilon}\) pl pò-tèñda+ cb pò-tèñ'-
n. tamarind \(\underline{35.5}\)
n. tamarind fruit \(\underline{35.5}\)
\(n\). half 16.2.2
n. pl as \(s g\) contents of stomach WK
\(n\). flowers
\(n\). inside, belly
Pư'ā lā mór pōvg "The woman is pregnant."
pōogo- \(n^{\varepsilon /}\) inside, postposition 20.6
\(n\). holiness
n. mind
n. stomach
\(v v\). greet, worship, thank
n. worship
\(n\). thanks
NT "temple"

\section*{S}
pl sāas \({ }^{\varepsilon}\)
cb sà-
sāa zúg \({ }^{\text {º }}\)
sāa díndēogว/ "rainbow" ("rain chameleon")
n. sky
n. millet porridge,
"TZ", the staple food of the Kusaasi
cb sà'-
sāafı \({ }^{+}\)?tones
\(n\). lock, key \(\leftarrow\) Twi safẽ
```

sàala
pl sàalıb a
cb sàal-
sàal-bïig}\mp@subsup{}{}{a
n. human being
pl sàal-bïis}\mp@subsup{}{}{\varepsilon
sàalínā+/
sàamma
pl sàam-nàma
cb sàam-
sàam-kp\varepsilon̄\varepsilonn~m}\mp@subsup{}{}{m}\quadn.father's elder brother
sàam-pīta/
pl sàam-pitííb
cb sàam-pït-
sāamm/
sā'an}\mp@subsup{}{}{\varepsilon/
sāana/
pl sáam}\mp@subsup{}{}{ma
cb sāan-
sáannìm}\mp@subsup{}{}{m}\quadn.\mathrm{ strangerhood
sàb\varepsilon̄og}\mp@subsup{}{}{\circ
pl sàb\varepsilon̄\varepsilond
cb sàb\varepsiloǹ-
sābılíg}\mp@subsup{}{}{a}\mathrm{ sābíll\& adj. black
pl sābılís}\mp@subsup{}{}{\varepsilon}\mathrm{ sābılá+
cb sābıl-
sàbùa+ }\mp@subsup{}{}{+}\quadn.lover, girlfriend
pl sàbù0s}\mp@subsup{}{}{\varepsilon
cb sàbùà-
Sà'dàbj̀og }\mp@subsup{}{}{\mathrm{ a m [ place of the clan Sarabose 35.4}
Sà'dàbùa+ }\mp@subsup{}{}{+}\mathrm{ n. clan name: 35.4
pl Sà'dàbù0S}\mp@subsup{}{}{\varepsilon}\mathrm{ Sà'dàbùөb}\mp@subsup{}{}{\mathrm{ a}
sādıgím since, because 27.1.4 31.1.1
sāen}\mp@subsup{}{}{+}\mathrm{ or sāen}\mp@subsup{n}{}{a} n. blacksmith
pl sāañba
cb sàn-
sākárùg}\mp@subsup{}{}{\circ} n. fo
pl sākárìd}\mp@subsup{}{}{\varepsilon
cb sākár-
sàlıbır }\mp@subsup{}{}{\varepsilon}\quad\mathrm{ n. bridle

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sālıma+
n.pl as sg gold
cb sàlım-
sàlım-kù0sa }\mp@subsup{}{}{\mathrm{ a m}
sāmn\varepsilon/
pl sāmá+
cb sām-
sām-kpá'àsa
sāmán n\varepsilon
pl sāmánà+
cb sāmán-
Sāmán-piór}\mp@subsup{}{}{\varepsilon
sàn'amm
sāngónnìr}\mp@subsup{}{}{\varepsilon
pl sāngónnà+
cb sāngón-
sā\etaá+
pl sānsá+
cb sān-
sān-kán}\mp@subsup{}{}{\varepsilon}\quadadv. then; when
sān-sí'\partial̄n lā
sāpál\varepsilon
adv. at one time, once ... 27.1.3
n. Harmattan part of the dry season úun n\varepsilon
sārıgá+
sàríyà+ or sc̀ríyà+
cb sàríyà-kāta
sāuga/
pl sāadl
cb sā-
sàvk }\mp@subsup{}{}{3}\mathrm{ n. mote of dust
pl sà'ad
sāón`` n. hospitality
s\grave{\varepsilon}
dipf s\varepsiloǹ\varepsilond}\mp@subsup{}{}{\textrm{a}
s\varepsilon̄ongg
si+
sia+
siaa+
pl sīəs}\mp@subsup{}{}{\varepsilon
cb silà-
sià-\כodína
sià-nīf/ n. kidney
siā'a|\&/
n. debt
$n$. household servant
$n$. open space in front of a zàk ${ }^{\text {a }}$ compound
$n$. traditional New Year ceremony
$v v$. spoil, get spoiled, get broken; destroy
$n$. millipede
n. time 35.8 9.3.2
$a d v$. then; when?
$a d v$. at one time, once ... 27.1.3
$n$. Harmattan part of the dry season úun ${ }^{\text {ne }}$
$n$. prison $\leftarrow$ Hausa sarkàa "chain"
n. law $\leftarrow$ Arabic شريعة Jari:Sa(tun)
n. judge NT
n. broom, brush
n. mote of dust
$n$. hospitality
$v v$. transplant
n. rainy season
$v v$. skin, flay
some, any (sg) 15.3
n. waist
n. belt ("waist-tying-thing")
$n$. kidney
$v v$. get to be enough

```
sià'ar \({ }^{\varepsilon}\)
pl sià'a+
cb sià'-
siàk \({ }^{\varepsilon}\)
sīāk \({ }^{\varepsilon /}\)
sībıga/
pl sibí \({ }^{+}\)
cb sīb-
sid
sida+
pl sid-
\(s \bar{d} d^{a}\)
pl sīdı \(b^{a}\)
cb sìd-
sid-bīla \({ }^{\text {a }}\)
sìd-kpē \(\tilde{\sim}_{n}{ }^{m}\)
sid-pūāk \({ }^{\text {a }}\)
\(\mathrm{sie}^{+/}\)
sīaba \({ }^{+}\)
siəə \({ }^{\text {a }}\)
s「əm \({ }^{m}\)
\(s i ̄ g{ }^{\varepsilon}\)
sīgis \({ }^{\varepsilon /}\)
sīgısír \({ }^{\varepsilon}\)
pl sīgısá+
\(s i ̄ ı g^{a}\)
pl \(\quad\) sī \(s^{\varepsilon}\)
cb sì-
Sì-sùn \({ }^{3}\)
siilım \({ }^{m}\)
siilín \(\eta^{a}\) siilún \(\eta^{2}\)
\(p l \quad\) siilís \(^{\varepsilon}\) siilímìs \(^{\varepsilon}\) siilímà \({ }^{+}\)
cb siilín-
siind \({ }^{\varepsilon /} \quad\) n. honey
siiinfol siing \({ }^{\text {a/ }}\)
\(n\). bee
pl \(\operatorname{siinn} s^{\varepsilon /}\)
cb \(\sin _{\sim}-\)
\(n\). forest (WK), wilderness
\(v v\). agree (cf Mooré sàke id)
\(\nu v\). suffice (cf Mooré sékè id)
\(n\). a kind of termite
truly, Post-Subject Particle 27.1.4
n. pl as sg truth
n. husband 35.1
\(n\). husband's younger brother
\(n\). husband's elder brother
\(n\). husband's sister
\(v v\). descend, be humbled
some(ones), any (ones) 15.3
something, anything 15.3
somehow, anyhow 15.317 .1
\(v v\). descend
\(v v\). lower
n. stopping-place
\(n\). shade, personal spirit (KED);
used in NT for "spirit"; in traditional belief rather "Lebenskraft" (Haaf) "vital energy", closely associated in concept with an individual's tutelary kìkīrss \({ }^{\varepsilon /}\) (qv)
n. Holy Spirit NT
\(v v\). cite proverbs
n. proverb
\(s i ̄^{-1}\left(s^{\varepsilon /}\right.\)
sīlınsíùg \({ }^{\text { }}\)
pl sīlınsîs \({ }^{\varepsilon}\)
sīlınsíùng \({ }^{\text {º }}\)
pl sīlınsiñnd \({ }^{\varepsilon}\)
sìlug \({ }^{\text { }}\)
\(p l \quad \sin ^{n \varepsilon} \operatorname{sill}^{\varepsilon} s^{\varepsilon}\)
cb sìl-
sìm \({ }^{m}\)
Sìmiïg \({ }^{\text {a }}\)
pl \(\quad\) Sìmiiis \({ }^{\varepsilon}\)
cb Sìmì-
Sìmïil \({ }^{\varepsilon}\)
Sìming \({ }^{\text { }}\)
\(\sin ^{n a /}\)
ger \(\quad\) sinním \({ }^{m}\)
sīnsáañ \(=\)
\(\sin { }^{a}\)
pl \(\quad \sin \cap n^{\varepsilon} s^{\varepsilon}\)
cb sìn-
sī' \(\eta^{\varepsilon /}\)
sīsíbìg \({ }^{a}\)
pl sīsíbis \({ }^{\varepsilon}\)
cb sīsíb-
sīsíbìr \({ }^{\varepsilon}\)
pl sīsíbà \({ }^{+}\)
sisì'əm \({ }^{m}\)
sìsòvgū-n \({ }^{\varepsilon /}\)
síún
pl \(\quad\) sỉimís \({ }^{\varepsilon}\)
cb sỉun-
sう̄'+
sว̄b \({ }^{\text {a }}\)
\(s \overline{b^{\varepsilon}}{ }^{\varepsilon}\)
\(s \bar{\jmath} b r^{\varepsilon /}\)
sj̄bıg \({ }^{\varepsilon /}\)
sjeen \({ }^{+}\)or sj̄en \({ }^{\text {a }}\)
pl sว̄כñb \(b^{a}\)
cb sう̀n-
sógiàa \({ }^{a}\)
\(v v\). touch
n. ghost
n. spider
n. hawk
\(v v\). sink in a liquid
n. Fulbe person, Fulani 35.4
\(n\). Fulfulde language
n. place of the Fulbe
\(i v\). be silent
n. a kind of tiny ant
\(n\). a kind of very big pot
\(v v\). begin
n. neem tree 35.5

Azadirachta indica (Haaf)
n. fruit of neem tree 35.5
n. wind, storm
between, postposition 20.6 KB suvgun
n. a kind of large dish
some(one), any(one), animate sg 15.3
dummy head pronoun, animate sg 19.9.3
\(v v\). go/make dark; usually "write"
\(n\). piece of writing \(\underline{12.1 .2}\)
\(v v\). blacken
n. witch
n. soldier \(\leftarrow\) English
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sว̄lu\eta`/     pl sכ̄lımá+ sכ̄n+ sōn'e}\mp@subsup{}{}{\textrm{ya}/     agt sכ̄n~'\partialda/                 pl sכ̄ñ'วba/                 cb sכ̃ñ'วd- sכ̄nnır     pl sכ̄nna+     cb sòn- sכ~nss     ger sóñsìga sכ̄כng`
sכ̄כnr \&
pl sōnya+
cb sòn-
sj̀s}\mp@subsup{}{}{\varepsilon
ger sj̄sıga
agt sj̀s}\mp@subsup{}{}{\textrm{a}
sù+
su'a`a
sunāka/
sūen}+
sü'eya/
ger sō'vlímm
sügvrer
sūgoró+
sùmm
sùmma
sùmbūgosím}\mp@subsup{}{}{m
sūmmır
pl sūmma+
cb sùm-
sūm-dúgvdà+
n. groundnuts for cooking WK
vv. bow one's head 6.2.1
ger sùnnır \& or sùnnvg}\mp@subsup{}{}{\top
agt sün na n. deep thinker, close observer WK
sūñ'e+/
n. story
vv. rub
iv. be better than
n. courtyard dividing wall
vv. converse, talk with
n. witchcraft
n. liver
vv. ask
n. beggar
vv. take a bath
vv. do secretly, hide
n. hiding place
vv.anoint
iv. own
n. property
vv.show forbearance, be patient with
n. forbearance
n. goodness; well 20.4 24.2
iv. be good
n. peace
n. groundnuts
vv. become better than

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sōñfol sūuñrr/
pl sōnyá+
cb sūñ-
sūñ-kpí'ò\eta}\mp@subsup{}{}{~
sōn-má'asìm}\mp@subsup{}{}{m
sūñ-málısìm}\mp@subsup{}{}{m
cb sūñ-málìs-
sōñ-p\varepsiloń\varepsiloǹn}\mp@subsup{n}{}{n\varepsilon
sūñ-sáñ'ùn` sù\eta\varepsilon sùn` sùm m
pl sòma+
cb sòn-
sùnä+/
sú'ө品
pl sū'өmís}\mp@subsup{}{}{\varepsilon
cb sū'өŋ-
sūer }\mp@subsup{}{}{\varepsilon/
pl sulēyá+
cb su^ā-
sù'өsa
sù'0s}\mp@subsup{}{}{\varepsilon
sùra
sùsว̀mm}\mp@subsup{}{}{m
Sūtáanà+
sōvg\varepsilon/
sò'vga sù'vg
pl sù'vs
cb sù'-

```
\(n\). heart
n. boldness 19.7.1
\(n\). joy
\(\grave{M}\) sūñf má'e yā. "My heart has cooled."
= "I'm joyful."
\(n\). joy
n. anger
\(\grave{M}\) sōñ \(p\) pélìg nē. "My heart is whitened."
= "I'm angry"
n. sorrow
\(\dot{M}\) sūñ f sáñ'àm nē. "My heart is spoilt"
= "I'm sad."
\(v v\). help
adj. good
\(a d v\). well 20.424 .2
n. rabbit
n. road;
"permission" in sūөr bé, mכ̄r sūөr 29.1
n. yesterday 35.8
\(v v\). trick
\(i v\). have one's head bowed
n. grasshopper
n. Satan
\(v v\). wither (leaves) WK
n. knife

\section*{T}
tāa \(=\) tāas \(^{\varepsilon}\)
tāaba \({ }^{+}\)tāab
tā'adır \({ }^{\varepsilon}\)
pl tā'ada+
cb tà'ad-
tàal \({ }^{1 \varepsilon}\)
pl tàala+
cb tàal-
tá'am \({ }^{\text {m }}\)
pl tā'amá+
tá'a \({ }^{\text {a }}\)
pl tā'amís \({ }^{\varepsilon}\)
cb tā'aŋ-
tā'as \({ }^{\varepsilon /}\)
tà \({ }^{\varepsilon}\)
tàbı \({ }^{\text {ya }}\)
tàbıg \({ }^{\varepsilon}\)
tàbı \({ }^{\varepsilon}\)
tàdıg \({ }^{\varepsilon}\)
tādım \({ }^{\mathrm{m} /}\)
pl tàdım-nàm \({ }^{\text {a }}\)
cb tàdım-
tàdımís \({ }^{\varepsilon}\)
Tàlın \({ }^{\text {ne }}\)
Tàlına
pl Tàlss
cb Tàlın-
tàm \({ }^{m}\)
dipf tàmmıd \({ }^{\text {a }}\)
tàmpūa+
pl tàmpj̄כs \({ }^{\varepsilon}\)
cb tàmpう̀-
tàmpūur \({ }^{\varepsilon}\)
cb tàmpò-
tān \({ }^{n \varepsilon}\)
pl tāna+
cb tàn-
tàn-mē \(\varepsilon d^{a}\)
\(n\). builder
tānp \({ }^{3}\)
tànp-s̄̄b \({ }^{a}\)
\(\tan { }_{\sim} s^{\varepsilon}\)
ger tànsug \({ }^{\text { }}\)
tāral
ger tārím \({ }^{m}\)
tàsıntàl \({ }^{\varepsilon}\)
tàtàlı
tāuñ \({ }^{+/}\)
pl tānp \(p^{\text {a/ }}\)
cb tāuñ tānp-
\(t \varepsilon ̀ b^{\varepsilon}\)
ger tēbıg \({ }^{a}\)
\(t \bar{\varepsilon} b \iota^{\varepsilon /}\)
tह̄bıs \({ }^{\mathrm{a} /}\)
\(t \bar{b} b ı s_{i ́ g}{ }^{a} t \bar{b} b ı s_{i} r^{\varepsilon}\)
pl tēbısá+
\(c b\) tēbıs-
tz̄bısím \({ }^{m} \quad n\). heaviness
tézbùl \({ }^{\varepsilon}\)
pl tદ́ \(\varepsilon\) bùl-nàm \({ }^{\text {a }}\)
\(t \bar{\varepsilon} \varepsilon g^{\varepsilon /}\)
\(t\) ṫ' \(^{\prime} \varepsilon g^{a}\)
pl \(\quad t \grave{\varepsilon}^{\prime} \varepsilon s^{\varepsilon}\)
cb tè'-
\(t \bar{\varepsilon} k^{\varepsilon /}\)
\(t \varepsilon \tilde{\sim}_{n} b^{\varepsilon}\)
ger tènbug \({ }^{\text { }}\)
tغ̀n' \({ }^{\prime} \varepsilon s^{\varepsilon}\)
tēn' \({ }_{\sim} s^{\varepsilon /}\)
ger tēñ' \(\varepsilon s a^{+}\)
tèñ \(r^{a}\)
ger tēnrıb or \(t \bar{\varepsilon} n{ }_{\sim}\) ím \(^{m}\)
n. war
n. warrior
\(v v\). shout
Wìnnıg tánsid \(n \bar{\varepsilon}\). The sun is shining.
iv. have; more typical of Toende Kusaal;

NT always has the Agolle word \(m \bar{\partial} r^{\mathrm{a} /}\) instead
n. palm of hand
n. palm of hand
n. sibling of opposite sex \(\underline{35.1}\)
\(v v\). carry in both hands
\(v v\). get heavy
\(i v\). be heavy
adj. heavy
\(n\). table \(\leftarrow\) English
\(v v\). drag (ILK)
n. baobab 35.5

Adansonia digitata (Haaf)
\(v v\). pull
\(\nu v\). tremble, struggle
\(v v\). remind
\(v v\). think
\(n\). thought
\(i v\). remember
tone sic; ??misheard for tènrím \({ }^{\mathrm{m}}\)
\(t \bar{\varepsilon} \eta^{a}\)
n．land
pl \(\operatorname{tz}^{2}\) nñ \(s^{\varepsilon}\)
cb tèn－
tèy－bïig \({ }^{\text {a }} \quad n\) ．native
tèn－dāana \({ }^{\text {a }}\)
\(n\) ．traditional earth－priest
tદ̀n－dū＇adıg \({ }^{\text {a }}\)
\(n\) ．native land
tèn－pūטgט－n \({ }^{\varepsilon /}\)
pl tèn－pōodı－n \({ }^{\varepsilon /}\)
tદ̀ \(y\)－zùn \({ }^{\text {² }}\)
pl tèク－zòvñ̃s \({ }^{\varepsilon}\)
tह̄ŋı－n \({ }^{\varepsilon /}\)
tモ̄ทír \({ }^{\varepsilon}\)
tèog \({ }^{\text { }}\)
\(p l t \varepsilon \grave{c d}^{\varepsilon}\)
t है＇\(^{\prime}{ }^{\text {º }}\)
pl tè＇\(\varepsilon d^{\varepsilon}\)
tì
\(t{ }^{+}\)
tì
tià＇al \({ }^{\varepsilon}\)
tià \({ }^{\varepsilon}\)
tァə \(b^{\text {a }}\)
ti＇əb \({ }^{\varepsilon}\)
tien \({ }^{+}\)
tien \({ }^{+}\)
tìəク \({ }^{\text {a }}\)
pl tìəmıs \({ }^{\varepsilon}\)
cb tìəク－
tìəク－gūטr \({ }^{\varepsilon}\)
\(t i g^{\varepsilon}\)
ger tīgır \({ }^{\varepsilon}\)
triya／
ger tiob \({ }^{2}\)
tìıg \({ }^{\text {a }}\)
pl tìs \({ }^{\varepsilon}\)
cb tì－
ticilel
n．chin
\(v v\) ．become sated
n．glut
\(i v\). be leaning（object）
n．tree
\(v v\) ．lean something
downward；＂under＂as postposition \(\underline{20.6}\)
downward；＂under＂as postposition 20.6
n．nest
n．baobab fruit 35.5
we，our（Proclitic） 15.1
us（Enclitic object） 15.1
Particle－Verb conveying completion 22．7．2
\(\nu v\) ．come next
\(v v\) ．change
\(n\) ．healer
\(v v\) ．heal；ultimately
\(\leftarrow\) Arabic tiibb（un）＂medicinal art＂
\(\nu v\) ．inform WK（＂remember＂KED）
\(v v\) ．stretch out
\(n\) ．beard
tìım \({ }^{m}\)

\(\operatorname{dipf}\) tìsıda tit \({ }^{a}\)
agt tisa
tītā＇alı
tītā＇alım \({ }^{m}\)
tītā＇am \({ }^{\text {m }}\)
tītā＇\(u g^{\supset}\) tītā＇ar \({ }^{\varepsilon}\)
pl tītāa \({ }^{+}\)
cb tītá＇－
tう
tう̀ \(d^{\varepsilon}\)
tうea \({ }^{\text {a／}}\)
tóklà \({ }^{+}\)
tólılìl
tólìb
tòn \({ }^{+}\)
tòn＇วs \({ }^{\varepsilon}\)
n．medicine
n．poison（killing－medicine）
n．＂black medicine＂
（a particular traditional remedy）
\(n\) ．oral medication
\(v v\) ．begin to lean
n．necessity \(\leftarrow\) Hausa tiilàs \(\underline{29.1}\)
\(v v\) ．survive，be saved
we（Subject of \(\grave{n}\)－Clause） 15.1
we，us（Contrastive） 15.1
n．mole（animal）
\(n\) ．healer（see \(t i \not \partial b^{\mathrm{a}} i d\) ）
n．neighbour，peer
n．neighbourliness
ideophone for gīna short 19．8．1．3
\(v v\) ．give
also tì before enclitic pronouns：tì \(f\)＂gave you＂
n．proud person
\(n\) ．pride
n．multitude
adj．big，great

OK 28．2．4（＝Hausa tôo）
\(v \nu\) ．give to the poor，share
\(i v\) ．be bitter，difficult
\(n\) ．torch \(\leftarrow\) English＂torchlight＂
ideophone for \(w \bar{j} k^{3 /}\) tall 19．8．1．3
onomatopoeic word 19．8．1．3
\(v v\) ．shoot
\(v v\) ．hunt
tכ̄วg \({ }^{3}\)
pl t亏̄כd \({ }^{\varepsilon}\)
cb tう－
tכう \(\mathrm{m}^{\mathrm{m} /}\)
tう＇つtラ̄＋／
tuà \({ }^{+}\)
tunà－bīla
tu＇àa
tù＇al \({ }^{\varepsilon}\)
tò＇as \({ }^{\varepsilon}\)
tùbur \({ }^{\varepsilon}\)
pl tùba＋
cb tùb－
tùb－kpir \({ }^{\varepsilon}\)
tùb－ȳūun
tōla／
tùlıg \({ }^{\varepsilon}\)
tōlıg \({ }^{\varepsilon /}\)
tòm \({ }^{\mathrm{m}}\)
ger tōom \({ }^{m \varepsilon}\)
pl tōvma＋
cb tòvm－
tòvm－b \(\bar{\varepsilon}^{1} \varepsilon d^{\varepsilon} \quad n\) ．bad deeds
tòvm－b \(\bar{\varepsilon}^{1} \varepsilon d\)－dím \({ }^{\text {a }} n\) ．sinners NT
agt tòm－tōm \({ }^{\text {na }}\)
tòm \({ }^{m}\)
ger tìtūmıs \({ }^{\varepsilon}\)
tūñ＇e
tūөdır \({ }^{\varepsilon}\)
pl tūeda＋
cb tùөd－
tù̀n \({ }^{\mathrm{n} \mathrm{\varepsilon}} \quad\) in front；as postposition 20．6；West tù̀n－gāt \({ }^{a}\)
Tùөn \({ }^{n \varepsilon}\)
Tùennır \({ }^{\varepsilon}\)
tūsıř／
tòtūl₹
tōolígā \({ }^{+/}\)
n．worker
\(n\) ．leader
adj．bitter，difficult
\(v v\) ．depart，disappear
\(a d v\) ．straight away \(\underline{20.4}\)
\(v v\) ．grind in a mortar
n．pestle
\(v v\) ．speak，plead in court
\(v v\) ．condemn in court
\(v v\) ．talk
n．ear
\(n\) ．half of jaw
adj．one－eared 16．2．4 19．8．1．4
\(i v\) ．be hot
\(\nu v\) ．invert
\(v v\) ．heat up
\(v \nu\) ．work
n．deed
n．deeds；work
\(v v\) ．send
For the polysemy with＂work＂，compare Hausa àikaa＂send＂，aikàtaa＂work＂
\(i v\) ．be able 26.3
n．mortar
\(n\) ．Toende part of Kusaasiland
n．Toende dialect of Kusaal
n．thousand 16．2．2
\(n\) ．upside－down thing cf tùlıg \({ }^{\varepsilon}\)
adv．hotly \(\underline{20.4}\)
tūטlúg \({ }^{\text {ºn }}\)
pl tōolá \({ }^{+}\) cb tōol-

\section*{U}
\(u ̀ d v g{ }^{\circ}\)
\(p l \quad \dot{u} t^{\varepsilon}\)
cb ùd-
ūgus \({ }^{\varepsilon /}\)
ù \({ }^{\varepsilon}\)
\(\bar{u} k^{\varepsilon}\)
òm \({ }^{m}\)
úun \({ }^{n \varepsilon}\)

V
vābıya/
ger vāp \({ }^{3 /}\) KT vābıre/ WK
vābı \(\left.\right|^{\varepsilon /}\)
vàbın \({ }^{\varepsilon}\)
vāung \({ }^{\text {/ }}\)
pl vāand \({ }^{\varepsilon /}\)
cb vān-
\(v \bar{\varepsilon}^{\prime+}\)
\(v \bar{\varepsilon}^{\prime} \varepsilon g^{\varepsilon /}\)
vèn \({ }^{\text {na }}\)
vèñla
vèn/lıga
pl vèñllıs \({ }^{\varepsilon}\) vèn \({ }_{\sim}^{l} a^{+}\)
cb vèñ/-
vèñllína
pl vèñlís \({ }^{\varepsilon}\)
cb vèñllín-
vènnı \(g^{\text {a }}\) vènnır \({ }^{\varepsilon}\)
pl vènnıs \({ }^{\varepsilon}\) vènna+
cb vèn-
vènnım \({ }^{m}\)
\(v i{ }^{+}\)
vīk \({ }^{\varepsilon /}\)
adj. hot
n. (piece of) chaff
\(v v\). bring up a child
\(v v\). vomit
\(v v\). bloat
\(v v\). close eyes
n. dry season 35.8
\(i v\). be lying prone
\(\nu v\). make lie prone
\(v v\). lie prone
\(n\). leaf
\(v v\). lead
\(v v\). drag
\(i v\). be beautiful
\(i v\). be beautiful
adj. beautiful
adj. beautiful
adj. beautiful
\(n\). beauty
\(v v\). uproot
\(v v\). uproot
vīug \({ }^{\text {/ }}\)
pl vïid \({ }^{\varepsilon /}\)
cb vī-
\(v \bar{u}^{+}\)
ger vūug/
vūud \({ }^{\varepsilon /}\)
\(v \bar{u} e^{a /}\)
\(v \bar{\prime}{ }^{\varepsilon}\)
vòlınvùuñ \({ }^{l \varepsilon}\)
\(v \bar{u} m^{\mathrm{m} /}\)
\(c b\) vūm-
\(v \bar{m}-p a ́ a ̀ l^{\prime \varepsilon}\)
vúөクロ
pl vūөmís \({ }^{\varepsilon}\)
\(v u ́ ө r^{\varepsilon}\)
pl vūaá=
cb vū -
\(v \bar{u} r^{\varepsilon /}\)
pl vōyá+
cb vōr-
\(v \bar{v}^{\prime} v g^{\varepsilon /}\)
vט̄'us \({ }^{\varepsilon /}\)
vō'usím \({ }^{\text {m }}\)

W
wā'+
wāad \({ }^{\text {/ }}\)
wáaf
pl wīigí \({ }^{+}\)
cb wā'-
wāal \({ }^{\text {ع/ }}\)
wā'alím \({ }^{\text {m }}\)
wā'am \({ }^{\mathrm{ma}}\)
wàbıg \({ }^{\mathrm{a}}\) wàbır \(^{\varepsilon}\)
pl wàbıs \({ }^{\varepsilon}\) wàba+
cb wàb-
wàbılım \({ }^{m}\)
wābug \({ }^{\text {/ }}\)
\(p l{w a ̄ b ı d^{\varepsilon /}}^{\text {p }}\)
cb wāb-
n. owl
\(v v\). make a noise
n. noise
\(i v\). be alive
\(\nu v\). swallow
n. mason wasp
\(n\). life
\(n\). new life
n. red kapok 35.5

Bombax buonopozense (Haaf)
\(n\). fruit of red kapok 35.5
adj. alive
\(\nu v\). come, make alive
\(\nu v\). breathe, rest
n. resting
\(v v\). dance
\(n\). cold weather
n. snake
\(\nu v\). sow, scatter seed
\(n\). length
\(i v\). be long, tall
n. or adj. lame
\(v v\). make, go lame
n. elephant
wādır \({ }^{\varepsilon /}\)
pl wādá+
cb wād-
wād-tís \({ }^{\text {a }}\)
wà'e \(e^{y a}\)
wālıg \({ }^{\text {a }}\)
pl wāls \({ }^{\varepsilon}\) wālí' tone sic
cb wàl-
wànım \({ }^{\mathrm{m}}\)
wàsınwàl \({ }^{\varepsilon}\)
wàun \({ }^{3}\)
pl wàna+
cb wàun-
\(w \varepsilon ̀ \varepsilon d^{a}\)

\(\left.w \bar{\varepsilon}\right|^{\varepsilon}\)
\(\left.w \bar{\varepsilon}\right|^{\mid \varepsilon /}\)
pl wēlá \({ }^{+}\)
cb w \(\bar{l}-\)
wēlá+ or wālá \({ }^{+}\)
wēnna/
ger \(w \bar{n} n n i ́ m ~{ }^{\mathrm{m}}\)
\(w \bar{\varepsilon} n n ı{ }^{\varepsilon}\)
wと̀og \({ }^{\text { }}\)
\(w \bar{\varepsilon} o g^{د /}\)
\(p l \quad w \bar{\varepsilon} \varepsilon d^{\varepsilon /}\)
widıg \({ }^{\varepsilon}\)
wìff
pl widı \({ }^{+}\)
cb wìd-
wìd-lכ̄r \({ }^{\varepsilon /}\)
wìd-dāug \({ }^{\text { }}\)
wìd-nyá'ana
wìd-zūur \({ }^{\varepsilon}\)
wìıd \({ }^{a}\)
pl wìı \({ }^{\text {a }}\)
cb wì̀d-
Wiid \(^{a}\)
pl Wiid-nàm \({ }^{\text {a }}\)
cb Wiid-
n. law (English "order" via Hausa)
plural as sg: law
n. lawgiver NT
\(i v\). be en route for
\(n\). a kind of gazelle
\(v v\). waste away
\(n\). a parasitic gall on trees, called "mistletoe" in local English adj. wasted, thin
see wìıd \({ }^{\text {a }}\)
\(\nu v\). be left unsold (KED) but see \(w \bar{\varepsilon} o g^{د /}\)
\(v v\). bear fruit
\(n\). fruit
how? 17.1
\(i v\). resemble; in KB w \(w n \bar{\varepsilon}\) appears as nwene ??misheard for wènním \({ }^{m}\); cf the adjective ... adj. resembling (Pattern O, confirmed by WK)
\(n\). deep bush
n. cheap thing sold in abundance WK
\(v v\). scatter
\(n\). horse
\(n\). place for tying up horses in a compound
n. stallion
n. mare
\(n\). horsetail
\(n\). hunter
n. clan name 35.4

\section*{Wiidvg \({ }^{\text { }}\)}
wiig \({ }^{\text {a/ }}\)
wìım \({ }^{\mathrm{m}}\)
wik \(^{\varepsilon}\)
\(\operatorname{dipf}\) wìid \(^{a}\)
wil \(^{1 \varepsilon}\)
pl wila+
cb wil-
wīlısún
pl wīlımís \({ }^{\varepsilon}\)
cb wīlısún-
wím
\(w i ̄ n^{\mathrm{n} \varepsilon /}\)
pl wīná+
cb wīn-
wīn-tój̀g \({ }^{\text {º }}\)
Wínà'am \({ }^{m}\)
wìnnıg \({ }^{\text {a }}\)
cb wìn-
wìn-lïir \({ }^{\varepsilon}\)
wìn-kう̀ว \(\underset{\sim}{n} r^{\varepsilon}\)
wìug \(^{\text {T }}\) wìir \(^{\varepsilon}\)
pl wìya+ wìid \(^{\varepsilon}\)
cb wì-
\(w \bar{j} k^{\rho /} w a ̄ ' a r^{\varepsilon /}\)
pl wā'á+ wā'ad \({ }^{\varepsilon /}\)
cb wכ̄k-wā'-
wùm \({ }^{\mathrm{m}}\)
wūsa+
\(w \bar{u} v^{+}\)
\(w \overline{0}\)
wō'vg \({ }^{\varepsilon /}\)
wō'ט/ש/

Y
yà
ya+
ya
\(y \bar{a}^{+}\)
\(n\). place of the clan Wiid
\(n\). whistle
\(n\). sickness, disease ("worse than bāñ \({ }_{\sim} a s^{\varepsilon "} \mathrm{WK}\) ) \(v \nu\). fetch water 11.1.1
n. branch
n. a kind of snail 9.3.2.1
ideophone for zìn'a+ red 19.8.1.3
n. God; god; spiritual double, genius; destiny
n. misfortune
n. (Christian) God 18.1
n. sun; talent
n. sunset
\(n\). sunset
adj. red
adj. long, tall
\(\nu v\). hear; understand (a language)
q. all 16.1
\(q\). all 16.1
like, resembling \(\underline{21.1}\)
\(\nu v\). get wet
\(v v\). make wet
you, your pl (Proclitic) 15.1
you pl (Enclitic object) 15.1
you pl, Enclitic Subject after imperative
15.1 28.2.3

Independent Perfective particle 22.6.2.1
yà'
yáa
yā'a
yáab \({ }^{\text {a }}\)
pl yāa-nám \({ }^{\text {a }}\)
cb yāa-
yāa-dáú \({ }^{+}\)
yāa-pứ'áa
yà'al \({ }^{\varepsilon}\)
yà'an \({ }^{\varepsilon}\)
Yàan \({ }^{\text {ne }}\)
yáa ní \({ }^{+}\)
yáaŋa
pl irr yáas \({ }^{\varepsilon}\)
cb yāaŋ-
Yàan \({ }^{\text {a }}\)
pl Yàam \({ }^{\text {ma }}\) Yàamıs \({ }^{\varepsilon}\) Yàas \(^{\varepsilon}\)
cb Yàaŋ-
yāar \({ }^{\varepsilon /}\)
yàarım \({ }^{m}\)
cb yàar-
yà'as \({ }^{\text {a }}\) yà'as \({ }^{\varepsilon}\)
yā'as \({ }^{\varepsilon /}\)
yàddā yàdā
yàddā-nípìr \({ }^{\varepsilon}\)
yādı \(g^{\varepsilon /}\)
agt \(y a ̄{ }^{a /}\)
yā'e+/
yàk \({ }^{\varepsilon}\)
yàlım \({ }^{\text {ma }}\)
yālısún \({ }^{3}\)
pl yālımís \({ }^{\varepsilon}\)
cb yālısón-
yàlon \({ }^{3}\)
pl yàlıma+
cb yàlon-
if, when \(\underline{30}\)
\(a d v\). whither? 17.1
as for ... 28.1.1
n. grandparent, ancestor 35.1
n. grandfather
\(n\). grandmother
\(v v\). hang up; make perch (bird)
\(v v\). perch (of a bird)
\(n\). Yansi language (apparently Mooré now) adv. where? 17.1
n. grandchild, descendant 35.1
(consistently without nasalisation)
n. Yansi person 35.4
\(v v\). scatter
n. salt
again 26.3
\(v v\). open repeatedly
\(n\). faith, trust \(\leftarrow\) Hausa yàrda; probably
\(\leftarrow\) Arabic يرضى yardª: \(18.1 \underline{23.1}\)
\(n\). belief
\(v v\). scatter
irreg. agent noun:
technical term for a participant in a housebuilding ritual
\(v v\). widen, open (mouth)
\(v v\). unhang, unhook
\(i v\). be wide
n. quail 9.3.2.1
adj. wide
\(y a ̄ m^{m \varepsilon}\)
pl yàma+
cb yàm-
yām \({ }^{m /}\)
cb yām-
yàmmıg \({ }^{\mathrm{a}}\) yàmmug \({ }^{\mathrm{a}}\) yàmmug \({ }^{\text { }}\)
pl yàmmis \({ }^{\varepsilon}\)
cb yàm-
yānámì
yānám \({ }^{\text {a }}\)
Yārıga/
pl Yārıs \({ }^{\varepsilon /}\)
cb Yār-
\(Y a ̄ t^{\varepsilon /}\)
yàug \({ }{ }^{\circ}\)
pl yàad \(^{\varepsilon}\)
\(y \bar{\varepsilon}\)
\(y \bar{\varepsilon}\)
\(y \grave{\varepsilon}^{+}\)
res adj yદ̀عlún’
\(y \varepsilon ̀ \varepsilon g^{\varepsilon}\)
yદ̀ \(\ell^{\varepsilon}\)
\(y \varepsilon \bar{\varepsilon} s^{\varepsilon /}\)
\(y \grave{l^{\varepsilon}}\)
\(\operatorname{dipf} y \grave{t^{a}}\)
ger yદ̀lug \({ }^{\text { }}\)
\(\left.y \bar{\varepsilon}\right|^{\mid \varepsilon /}\)
pl y \(\bar{l}\) áa \(^{+}\)
cb yēl-
y \(\bar{l}\)-ménìr \({ }^{\varepsilon}\)
y \(\bar{\varepsilon}\)-nárù \({ }^{\text {² }}\)
yह̄l-pákir \({ }^{\varepsilon}\)
\(y \bar{\varepsilon} l\)-sú'adìr \({ }^{\varepsilon}\)
\(y \bar{\varepsilon} \eta i ́ m{ }^{m}\)
yદ̀og \({ }^{\text { }}\)
\(p l y \varepsilon ̀ \varepsilon d^{\varepsilon}\)
y zón
n. hay WK
\(n\). gall; gall bladder; common sense WK yā' \(m^{\mathrm{m} /}\).
n. slave
you \(p l\) (Subject of \(\grave{n}\)-Clause) 15.1
you pl (Contrastive) 15.1
n. Yarsi 35.4 ; also called Kantonsi; said to have been originally of Manding/Dyula origin
\(n\). Yarsi language (no longer Dyula/Bambara, but a Western Oti-Volta language)
n. grave, tomb
that 29.129 .329 .3 .3
be about to ... 22.3.2
\(v v\). dress oneself
\(a d j\). worn (e.g. of a shirt)
\(v v\). undress oneself
\(\nu v\). dress someone
\(v v\). betray a secret
\(v v\). say, tell
n. matter, affair
as postposition: about 20.6
n. truth
n. necessity
n. disaster
n. confidential matter
\(v v\). oscillate (like waves)
\(n\). bird's crop;
person displaced from family (KED)
q. one 16.2.3
\(y i^{+}\)
dipf yīt \({ }^{\mathrm{a} /}\)
imp yìm \(^{\mathrm{ma}}\)
yìdıg \({ }^{\varepsilon}\)
yīdıg \({ }^{\varepsilon /}\)
yìər \({ }^{\varepsilon}\)
yïigá+
yïig-sób \({ }^{a}\)
\(y \overline{i n} s^{\varepsilon /}\)
ger yiīsíb \({ }^{\text { }}\)
yīmmír
pl yīmmá \({ }^{+}\)
cb yīm-
yīmmú \({ }^{+}\)
yīnní+
\(y i \eta^{a}\)
\(y \bar{i} r^{\varepsilon /}\)
pl \(y \bar{a}^{+/}\)
\(c b\) yī-
yī-dáàn \({ }^{\text {a }} \quad\) n. householder
yī-sób \({ }^{\text {a }} \quad\) n. householder
pl yī-sób-nàm \({ }^{a}\) yī-dím \({ }^{\text {a }}\) yī-pónrùg \({ }^{\text {º }}\)
pl yī-póñrà \({ }^{+}\)
\(y \overline{-}\)-sígıdìr \({ }^{\varepsilon}\)
yínne
\(p l y a ́ a n^{\varepsilon}\)
\(y \bar{i} s^{\varepsilon}\)
yīun \({ }^{\text {/ }}\)
pl yīná+
\(y{ }^{+}\)
res adj yว̀داט́n \({ }^{\text {ºn }}\)
\(y \bar{j}^{+}\)
ger \(y \bar{\partial} \partial d^{\varepsilon /}\)
\(y \bar{l} s^{\varepsilon /}\)
yว̄lısím \({ }^{m}\)
ȳ̄lug \({ }^{\text {/ }}\)
pl \(y \bar{\square} n^{\mathrm{n} \varepsilon /}\)
cb ȳ̄l-
\(y \grave{'} \mathrm{~g}^{\varepsilon}\)
\(v v\). open
\(v v\). go, come out
\(v v\). go astray
\(v v\). untie
n. jaw
q. firstly \(16.2 .4 \underline{20.4}\)
\(n\). first person 19.9.3
\(\nu v\). make go/come out, extract
adj. solitary, lone 16.2.4
\(a d v\). straight away, at once \(\underline{16.2 .5}\)
q. one 16.2.2
\(a d v\). outside
\(n\). house
\(n\). members of the household
\(n\). neighbouring house
n. lodging-house
at home
\(v \nu\). make go/come out, extract
adj. single- 16.2.4 19.8.1.4
\(v v\). close
adj. closed
\(\nu v\). pay
n. pay
\(v v\). untie
\(n\). freedom
n. sack, moneybag, £100, \(\$ 200\) (200 cedis)
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yว̀эr\varepsilon
pl y\grave{ya+}
cb y\grave{-}
yuà̀+
yùbıga
pl yùbis
cb yùb-
yügvdır}\mp@subsup{}{}{\varepsilon}\quad\mathrm{ n. hedgehog
pl yügvda+
cb yùgod-
yōgóm}\mp@subsup{}{}{m\varepsilon}\mathrm{ yōgómm n
n. camel
pl yōgumá+
cb yōgum-
yùlıg}\mp@subsup{}{}{\varepsilon
vv.swing (transitive)
yüñ'e +/
vv. set alight
yū'өr'\varepsilon
pl yūāda+
cb yù'өr-
yùug}\mp@subsup{}{}{\varepsilon
yùul\varepsilon
yū'umm/
agt yōvm-yú'v̀m na
pl yōom-yó'v̀mnıba
yú'um
n. song
pl yō'vmá+
cb yō'vm- or yōvm-
yòvm}\mp@subsup{}{}{m\varepsilon
pl yòma+
cb yòvm-
yòvm-pāalíga}\mp@subsup{}{}{\mathrm{ a }}\mathrm{ n. new year
yō'on
then, next 27.1.4
yט́'ט\eta
pl yō'vmís}\mp@subsup{}{}{\varepsilon
cb yט̄'ט-
yō'vre/
n. name
pl yōdá+
cb yō'-

```
\(y \bar{u} v r^{\varepsilon}\)
pl yōya+
cb yù-
n. water pot
n. millet
adj. empty
\(a d v\). emptily
\(n\). evening
\(n\). evening
\(v v\). dream
n. soup; not "fish soup", unlike (according to Tony Naden) the Mampruli cognate
cf Toende zãasím "soupe à viande" (Niggli)
n. dream
zàañsún \({ }^{\text {º }}\)
zāañs-
pl zàañsímà \({ }^{+}\)
cb zàañsún-
zà \(b^{\varepsilon}\)
ger zàbır \({ }^{\varepsilon}\)
agt zàb-zàba
agt gbān-záb \({ }^{\text {a }}\)
zàbı \({ }^{\varepsilon}\)
zàk \({ }^{\text {a }}\)
pl zà'as \({ }^{\varepsilon}\)
cb zà'-
zà'-nכ̄כr \({ }^{\varepsilon /} \quad\) n. gate
zà'-n亏̄-gúr \({ }^{\text {a }}\)
zàkım \({ }^{m}\)
zàlına
pl zàlımıs \({ }^{\varepsilon}\)
cb zàlı力-
zàm \({ }^{m}\)
dipf zàmmıd \({ }^{\text {a }}\)
agt zàm-zām na \(n\). cheat
\(z a ̀ ' m ı s^{\varepsilon}\)
n. gatekeeper
\(v v\). itch
n. electric eel
\(v v\). cheat
\(v v\). learn, teach
zāñ'a=
zàn \({ }_{\sim} a s^{\varepsilon}\)
zàno \({ }^{1} 1^{\varepsilon}\)
zāñbın \({ }^{\text {ne }}\)
pl zāñbına+
cb zàñbın-
Zàngbè \(\left.\right|^{\varepsilon}\)
Zàngbèog \({ }^{\text {º }}\)
pl Zàngbèzd \({ }^{\varepsilon}\)
zàngùөm \({ }^{\text {me }}\)
pl zàngùema+
cb zàngù̀m-
zànkù'ar \({ }^{\varepsilon}\)
pl zànku'àa+ zànkù'ada+
cb zànkúà-
zāñ la/ iv. be holding, carrying in hands
ger zāñllím \({ }^{m}\)
zàn \(\|^{\varepsilon} \quad\) n.umbilicus
zàn \({ }^{\varepsilon}\)
\(z \bar{\varepsilon} m^{\mathrm{ma}}\)
ger zēmmóg \({ }^{\circ}\)
zē'mıs \({ }^{\varepsilon /}\)
zēmmóg \({ }^{\text {² }}\)
pl zēmmá+
cb zēm-
\(z i ̄^{+} \quad v v\). carry on one's head
ger zīid \({ }^{\varepsilon /}\)
agt zī-zîd \({ }^{\text {a }} \quad\) n. carrier on the head
\(z i ̄+\)
agt zī'ıda/
ger zī'límm
\(z i ' e^{y a}\)
ger \(\quad\) zi \(a^{+}\)KED; DK KT \(z i 亍 ə g^{a}\)
zi'ə \({ }^{\varepsilon}\)
\(z i ̀ ə n^{\varepsilon}\)
\(z \bar{\iota} \quad m^{m /}\)
cb zī-
iv. not know 32.1.1
\(n\). ignorant person
q. every 16.1
\(v v\). refuse
\(v v\). tattoo, mark skin
\(n\). tattoo; NT "sign"
n. Hausa language 35.4
n. Hausa person 35.4
n. wall
n. jackal
\(v v\). pick up, take up
\(i v\). be equal
\(v v\). make equal
adj. equal
\(i v\). be standing
(exceptional phonology 18 12.1.1.2)
\(v v\). make to stand
\(\nu v\). stand still
Ò zi'ən n̄. "She's pregnant."
n. blood
ziín \({ }^{\text {a }}\)
pl zīmí+
cb zīm-
zīm-gbán'à \(d^{a}\)
zìlım \({ }^{m}\)
pl zìlıma+
cb zìlım-
zīlınzíùg \({ }^{\text {a }}\)
zím
zīná \({ }^{+}\)
zìn' \(a^{+}\)zèñ \({ }^{\prime} v g^{\text { }}\)

cb zغ̀ñ'-
zìn'iya
ger ziñ~ig \({ }^{\text {a }}\)
pl zinn'is \({ }^{\varepsilon}\)
cb zìn-
ziñ수́ \({ }^{\varepsilon}\)
ziñ \({ }_{\sim}^{\prime} i n^{\varepsilon}\)
zīnzāun \(\eta^{\text {J/ }}\)
pl zīnzāná+
cb zīnzáun-
zīrí'
\(z{ }^{+}\)
\(\operatorname{dipf} z\) zta \(^{\text {a }}\)
imp ż̀m \({ }^{\text {ma }}\)
ger zūa+ zう̄əg \({ }^{\text {² }}\) gerunds "run"
ger ż̀tım \({ }^{m} \quad\) imperfective gerund "fear" 13.1.1.4
pl zう̄эma+
cb zว̀эm-
\(z \bar{r} r g^{a /}\)

Ò z̀̀t•ō nīn-báalìg. "He has pity on him"
\(\nu v\). castrate
n. foolishness
\(n\). fool
\(n\). flour
n. refugee, fugitive
\(n\). fish
n. fisherman
\(n\). tongue
adj. unknown
ideophone for sābılíg \({ }^{\text {a }}\) black 19.8.1.3
today 35.8
adj. red
\(i v\). be sitting
gerund, also "place"
\(v v\). make sit, seat
\(v v\). sit down
n. bat
\(n\). lie, untruth
\(v v\). run; fear; experience emotion
n. small child WK
zj̄rug \(/\)
pl zōrá+
\(z \bar{u}^{+}\)
zuà \({ }^{+}\)
pl zùà-nàma
cb zưà-
Zùa+
pl Zùөs \({ }^{\varepsilon}\)
pl Zưà-wìis \({ }^{\varepsilon}\) Zuà̀-wiib \({ }^{\text {a }}\)
pl Zunà-sābulís \({ }^{\varepsilon}\)
zù' \({ }^{+}\)
zù \({ }^{+}\)
zūg \({ }^{\text {/ }}\)
pl \(z \bar{u}^{\varepsilon /}\)
cb zūg-zū-zūg-dáàn \({ }^{\text {a }}\)
\(z u ̄ g-k u ̄ g u r^{\varepsilon}\)
pl zūg-kūga+ cb zūg-kúg-zūg-máuk \({ }^{\text {J }}\)
pl zūg-má'àd \({ }^{\varepsilon}\) zūg-sób \({ }^{\text {a }}\)
\(z u ̄-p \varepsilon ́ \varepsilon / u ̀ g{ }^{\top}\)
pl zū-péعlà \({ }^{+}\) \(z u ̄-p i ́ b i g^{a}\)
zùlıg \({ }^{\varepsilon}\)
zùlım \({ }^{\text {ma }}\)
zùlon \({ }^{3}\)
pl zùlıma+
cb zùlon-
zùlon \({ }^{3}\)
zònzz̀̀na zùnzว̀ク \({ }^{\text {º }}\)
pl zònzว̀วñ~s \({ }^{\varepsilon}\)
cb zùnzว̀う-

pl zūөbíd \({ }^{\varepsilon}\)
cb zūөb-
n. piece
\(v v\). steal
\(n\). friend
n. clan name \(\underline{35.4}\)
subclans of Zoose
\(v v\). get higher, more
\(\nu v\). perch, get on top (? variant of zù' \(e^{+}\))
\(n\). head; as postposition 20.6;
\(z u ̄ g u ́-n^{\varepsilon}\) is also used as a postposition
9.2.2
\(n\). boss, master (replaces zūg-sób \({ }^{\text {a }}\) in KB for meanings other than "the Lord")
n. pillow
adj. crushed-headed 19.8.1.4
\(n\). boss; NT Lord
(Often read as \(z \bar{u}\)-sób in the audio NT)
adj. bald, grey-haired 19.8.1.4
n. hat
\(v v\). deepen
\(i v\). be deep
adj. deep
n. depth
adj. blind
n. friendship
zùel \({ }^{\varepsilon}\)
zū'өm \({ }^{\mathrm{m} /}\)
pl zū'өmís \({ }^{\varepsilon}\)
cb zū'өm-
\(z u ̄ ' ө m^{m /}\)
zùөn \({ }^{\varepsilon}\)
\(z u ̄ ө r^{\varepsilon}\)
pl zưēya+
cb zunà-
zùes \({ }^{\varepsilon}\)
zūríf
pl zūrí+
cb zūr-
zúvñf \({ }^{\circ}\)
pl zōoní \({ }^{+}\)
zùung \({ }^{\text { }}\)
pl zùuns \({ }^{\varepsilon}\) zùund \(^{\varepsilon}\)
cb zùn-
\(z \bar{u} u r^{\varepsilon}\)
pl zūya+
cb zù-zù-wう̄k \({ }^{\text {/ }}\)
\(v v\). make to perch
\(n\). blind person
\(v v\). go blind, make blind
\(\nu v\). begin to perch
\(n\). hill
\(v v\). befriend
\(n\). dawadawa seed
n. dawadawa seed
n. vulture
n. tail
adj. long-tailed 19.8.1.4```

