# A Grammar of Jalkunan (Mande, Burkina Faso) 

Jeffrey Heath (University of Michigan)<br>Language Description Heritage Library (online) with backup copy at Deep Blue, University of Michigan (online)

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color coding:
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blue regular phonological transcriptions for Jalkunan
green reconstructions, phonetic representations, underlying phonological representations, and regular transcriptions for other languages

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## 1 Introduction

### 1.1 Mande languages

Languages of the Mande family are widely spoken in central and southern Mali, southwestern Burkina Faso, northern Côte d'Ivoire, and Guinea-Conaky. There are extensions into Ghana, Sierra Leone, Liberia, Guinea-Bissau, Gambia, and Senegal. Among the best-known languages in the family are the Manding group including Bambara, Jula, and Mandinka.

The spread of Mande beyond northern Guinea-Conakry and southern Mali into this broader region is attributable to the expansion of the medieval Mande empire (12th-14th C.), and more recently to extensive networks of Jula-speaking merchants. In Burkina, the area including Bobo Dioulasso (second-largest city in Burkina) and points north and west of that city is mostly populated by speakers of Mande languages. As its name (Bobo "Jula"-sso) suggests, the city is itself a hybrid of old-stock Bobo and newer Jula-speaking populations. There is also another important Mande block in west central Burkina including the Marka and Samo languages. These two main Mande blocks are separated by speakers of Bwamu, a Gur language. Especially in Mali, the Bwamu people and language are confusingly (for foreigners) called "Bobo."

The medieval Mande expansion was less intensive in the plateau west of the Banfora to Bobo Dioulasso line in SW Burkina, and in the mountainous Mali-Burkina border to their west. This area remains mostly populated by several Senoufo groups and by speakers of various Gur languages like Toussian, Turka, Wara, and Natioro. Other than a few strictly Jula-speaking villages, the only Mande language spoken near Jalkunan is Dzuungo, which is not closely related genetically.

Using a more-or-less current model of the language family, the Mande languages of Burkina Faso have the genetic relationships in (1). A few languages of the immediately adjacent part of southeastern Mali are included, in italics. The first genetic split is east/west. The west then splits into central-southwest and northwest. Two central-SW divisions represented in Burkina are Manding, which includes Jula, and the very small Jogo-Jeri division, to which Jalkunan belongs. Many of the non-Jula Mande languages of western Burkina and the adjacent southeast of Mali belong to northwestern Mande.
(1)

| divisions | languages |
| :--- | :--- |
| eastern | Bisa, Samo |
| western |  |
| central-SW |  |
| Jogo-Jeri | Jalkunan |
| Manding | Jula, Bolon, Marka, Sininkere |
| northwestern |  |
| Samogo <br> Soninke-Bobo | Dzuungo, Seenku, Bankagooma, Jowulu, Duungooma <br> Bobo Madaré, Konabéré |

### 1.2 Jalkunan language

### 1.2.1 Geography and ethnohistory

The language described here is spoken in Blédougou (or just Blé) and Kinkinkan in the Cascades province of far southwestern Burkina Faso. The ethnicity is called jàl (plural jàl-á-à-nū ) in Jalkunan, and either Blé or Jali ~ Diali in local French.

Blédougou is a cluster of physically discontinuous settlements (quartiers) treated administratively as one village (with one chef de village). The village of Kinkinkan was formerly a fourth quartier of Blédougou, but since 1983 it has been a separate village with its own chef de village. The area comprised by Blédougou and Kinkinkan is a small part of the plateau west of Banfora in extreme southwest Burkina Faso, in the département of Loumana, in the province of Léraba, in the région of Cascades. Blédougou and Kinkinkan constitute a pocket surrounded by villages speaking other languages (Senoufo, Jula, Natioro, and the languages/dialects of blacksmiths, leatherworkers, and potters). Coordinates in (2) are in degrees, minutes, and decimal fractions (000 to 999 ) of minutes.
(2) villages names in Jalkunan N latitude W longitude quartiers
a. Blédougou jàlsà-dù

| Soba | $g b \varepsilon^{n} S \varepsilon ́-d u ̀ ~$ | 1033.164 | 05 | 16.409 |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| Fanora | fónò | 1034.270 | 05 | 15.760 |
| Kòn | 1033.572 | 05 | 15.892 |  |

b. Kinkinkan $\quad k \grave{\varepsilon}^{n}$-k $\varepsilon^{n}$-káà ${ }^{n} \quad 1035.057 \quad 0515.413$

Fanora itself is a dispersed cluster of small settlements, but has a single chef de quartier.
The population of Kinkinkan is said to have been originally ethnic Senoufo who were linguistically Jalkunan-ized. Because it is somewhat more isolated and traditional than Blédougou, its children are said to be more proficient in Jalkunan than are the children in Blédougou.

The settlement history of Blédougou is described in the (ethno-)historical text 2016_01, which along with two other texts is presented in this volume, following chapter 19.

There are schools at Blédougou (primary and secondary) and Kinkinkan (primary). Both villages are on the piste that begins at Timba to the north, and runs south-south-east past Kinkinkan and then Blédougou and on to Kangoura and Tagbasoni. Timba (N 1037.345 x W 0514.241 ) is the oldest Natioro-speaking village but also includes Senoufo, blacksmiths, and a few Fulbe. Other Natioro-speaking villages are in the nearby département of Sindou to the north and north-east: Kawara, Sindoukorony, Dinaoro, and Fafasso. Kangoura, which is 1-2 km south of Blédougou ( N 1033.572 x W 0515.892 ), is a cosmopolitan village with four quartiers within walking distance of each other, inhabited by Jula, Senoufo, blacksmiths, and leatherworkers-potters. An elder in Blédougou told me that the Jula of Kangoura came from near Sikasso in Mali in precolonial times. Blacksmiths (forgerons) and leatherworkers-potters (cordonniers) in the zone have their own languages, which have not been adequately investigated. The blacksmiths are thought to speak a variety related to Dzuungo (Mande language spoken around Orodara). The zone south of Kangoura (e.g. Tagbasoni) is Senoufo, and there are more Senoufo villages west of Timba.

There are small groups of Fulfulde-speaking cattle herders (Fulbe) in the region, as there are almost everywhere in interior West Africa. They live either on the edge of villages, or in camps in the bush. Fulbe women enter all the villages of the zone to sell milk, but are not a significant linguistic influence on Jalkunan or other languages.

### 1.2.2 Classification

Jalkunan has been classified as part of the Jogo-Jeri division of the Manding-Jogo branch of Mande. The Jogo-Jeri division consists entirely of the Jogo (aka Ligbi) language spoken by a small population on the Côte d'Ivoire-Ghana border, plus Jeri-Jalkunan.

As of this writing $(12 / 2016)$ there is an unresolved issue whether Jalkunan is a distinct language, or one of two dialects of a single language. The positions at this date by the Glottolog and Ethnologue websites are as follows:
(3) a. Glottolog

Jeri language, with two dialects:
Jeli, code jeri1241
Jalkunan, code jalk1242 or jeri1242
b. Ethnologue (SIL) two languages

Jeri Kuo, ISO (639-3) code jek
Jalkunan, ISO (639-3) code bxl

Until now the only published material on Jalkunan was Prost (1968), so the people doing these classifications were essentially shooting in the dark. It is now possible to state with
confidence that Jeli (Jeri Kuo) and Jalkunan are distinct languages, whose morphosyntactic differences (beginning with pronouns) would make mutual intelligibility impossible. See the appendix for data and discussion.

In Jalkunan, the noun $j \grave{\varepsilon} l(\grave{\varepsilon})$ (suffixed forms $j \grave{c} l-l a ́ ~ s i n g u l a r ~ a n d ~ j e ̀ l-l a ́-a ̀-n u ̄ ~ p l u r a l), ~ w h i c h ~$ may be cognate to "Jeli" and "Jeri," denotes members of a pottery-making caste who are present at the nearby mostly Jula-speaking village of Kangoura ( 1 km from Blédougou), the village of Kawara (Natioro- and Jula-speaking) between Timba and Sindou, and at Sindou (the provincial capital). The jèl-lá-à-nū are said to speak a distinctive dialect of Jula, not Jalkunan. Oddly, there are no significant blacksmith, leatherworker, potter, or other artisan castes resident in Blédougou itself.

The Jalkunan-speaking people of Blédougou refer to themselves by a distinct but phonologically similar ethnonym jàl (suffixed jàl-á singular and jàl-á-à-nū plural). Blédougou village is called jàlsà-dù, of which dù is probably a frozen locative marker, though the form now functions as a noun (not as a PP). The sà syllable is obscure, but it might be a compound final related to sàà 'house; village'. The traditional local etymology of jàlsà-dù is a contraction of [jál-á-à ${ }^{n}$ sàá] dù 'in the house (=village) of tse-tse flies', in honor of the biting flies (stem jálá) who, the story goes, were there to "welcome" the first settlers; see text 2016_01@01:04. The language itself is called jàlìkùn (suffixed jàlìkù-ná ), less often without nasalization jàlìkù (suffixed jàlìkù-ró ).

### 1.3 Previous and contemporary study of Jalkunan

### 1.1.1 Prost (1968)

R. P. André Prost, a giant of West African and especially Burkina linguistics, authored numerous works of his own and and collaborated with long-term missionaries and others to produce still-valuable grammars, dictionaries, and sketches of languages in multiple families. The 14-page sketch he made of Jalkunan (Prost 1998), based on a few days' work with a young student he encountered in an undisclosed location, brought the language to the attention of West Africanists. As Prost stated in his paper, the material was preliminary, and he did not attempt tonal markings. Nevertheless, in a very short time and under less than ideal circumstances he was able, characteristically, to describe the essentials of this language. His short paper presents a basically correct analysis of NP morphosyntax, and provides some insights into the verbal system, as well as giving a basic lexicon (mostly without tones).

### 1.1.2 Our fieldwork

As an extension of an NSF-funded project directed by me and focused on Dogon and on the language isolate Bangime, Vu Truong (then a recent B.A. graduate of Brandeis) undertook fieldwork on Jalkunan out of the project's Burkina base in Bobo Dioulasso during the period 2012-14. In fall 2014 he enrolled in the University of Chicago Ph.D. program in Linguistics.

I had some involvement with Jalkunan during that time period. Truong and I made initial contact with Blédougou in 2012, and a native speaker (Wamara Traoré) was recruited to work with Truong in our base in Bobo. I returned to Blédougou twice during that period for threeday visits to collect flora-fauna vocabulary and to collect flora specimens. Later, I directed a workshop on Jalkunan grammar, with Mr. Traoré, as part of the International Conference on Mande Languages, held in Bobo Dioulasso in 2014.

Truong was unable to return to Burkina during school year 2016-17, the project's deadline for promised products. I took a leave of absence from University of Michigan in school year 2016-17 to complete fieldwork on Jalkunan and several other languages that were covered in the grant. I worked with Mr. Traoré during September-November 2016 to produce this grammar as well as a substantial lexical spreadsheet. In the body of the grammar he is referred to as "my assistant."

### 1.1.3 Acknowledgements

The fieldwork by myself and the first year of fieldwork by Truong were funded by the National Science Foundation, Documenting Endangered Languages program, grant BCS1263150 (2013-17).

I and my team thank the people of Blédougou for their warm hospitality and cooperation.I am especially indebted to my assistant, Wamara Traoré. He is a resident of Blédougou but was willing to relocate to our base in Bobo Dioulasso for several months to work first with Truong and later with me. He is a traditional hunter as well as farmer. With some hunter colleagues he led my team on the flora-collecting trips in the vicinity of Blédougou.

## 2 Sketch

This sketch describes basic features of the language, all of which are described more fully in later chapters.

### 2.1 Phonology

### 2.1.1 Segmental phonology

Basic consonants that can occur word-initially include voiceless obstruent like $k$ and $s$, voiced obstruents like $g$ and (marginally) $z$, nasals, lateral $l$, and (marginally) $h$. Other consonants that can occur intervocalically are tap $r$ and glottal stop ?.

There are seven vowel qualities with two high vowels $\{i u\}$, four mid-height vowels including an ATR opposition $\{\mathrm{e} o\}$ versus $\{\varepsilon \rho\}$, and a low vowel a. ATR harmony is evident in some combinations, for example negative enclitic $=r \bar{e} ? \sim=r \bar{\varepsilon} ?$, which follows the ATR value of the preceding syllable. However, overall ATR harmony is not strict. All qualities occur in nasalized and oral forms, and as short or long vowels, for a total of $7 \times 2 \times 2=28$ vowel phonemes.

### 2.1.2 Syllabic shapes and tone levels

The canonical syllable is $C v$ or $C v V$ ( $v v=$ long vowel or vowel sequence). $C v v$ may be lexical or it may be due to contraction at a boundary.

There are three tone levels H, M, and L. Most syllables are level-toned. However, contour tones HL, HM, LH, MH, and LHL can be expressed on single syllables.

### 2.1.3 Tonal effects of +3 Sg versus -3 Sg forms

3Sg pronouns and regular singular NPs (defined as those that are morphologically capable of ending in nominal suffix -ra) differ from all other NPs and from non-3Sg pronouns in their tonal effects on immediately following words, including postpositions, possessums, perfective verbs, and preverbal objects of perfective verbs. I refer to the two classes repeatedly in this grammar as +3 Sg and -3 Sg . Personal names and other singular NPs that are not morphologically capable of ending in the nominal suffix are included in -3 Sg . For example, postposition $d \grave{\varepsilon} \sim d \dot{\varepsilon}$ 'with' is L-toned in 3 Sg à $d \grave{\varepsilon}$ 'with him/her' and in dí d $\grave{\varepsilon}$ 'with a/the child', but H-toned in 3 Pl èè ${ }^{n}$ dé 'with them (nonhuman) and in dí-rá-àn dé 'with (the) children'.

The four M-toned pronominals ( $1 \mathrm{Sg} m \bar{a}, 2 \mathrm{Sg} w \bar{o}, 2 \mathrm{Pl} \bar{e} \bar{e}^{n}$, and alternative 2 Pl mǎāa are including in -3 Sg . However, this is partially masked by M-Spreading from the pronoun into some following words (postpositions and some possessums).

Given the +3 Sg versus -3 Sg split, one analytical possibility is to attribute a floating L-tone (or an ablaut-controlling power that has similar effect) to the +3 Sg elements. In this analysis, the unmarked form of postpositions etc. is the form that occurs following -3 Sg elements. The issue is discussed in §3.8.3.5 and (for detail relevant for specific constructions) in many sections later in the grammar.

### 2.1.4 Segmental phonological rules

Because of the $C v(v)$ syllable norm there are few segmental phonological processes other than $v v$-Contraction. However, consonants may come together secondarily due to deletion of vowels (Syncope).

Initial tap $r$ in suffixes and enclitics is nasalized to $n$ after nasal syllables. $r$-Nasalization is conspicuous since two of the most important morphemes in the language are the ubiquitous nominal suffix -ra $\sim-r o$ and the negative enclitic $=r \bar{e} ? \sim=r \bar{\varepsilon} ?$.

Voiceless stops $k$ and $t$ are subject to optional voicing intervocalically, e.g. $k \rightarrow g$. It is difficult in some cases to determine which voicing value is underlying. There are a few similar cases where medial nasal-stop clusters lose the oral stop, e.g. $\eta g \rightarrow \eta$.

### 2.2 Nouns, NPs, and pronouns

Basic linear order is Poss-N-Adj-Num. Plurality is marked by suffixes. There is no plural marking in NPs that contain a nonsingular numeral.

### 2.2.1 The nominal suffix

The most distinctive feature of Jalkunan nouns and NPs is what I call the "nominal" suffix, which occurs in some but not all syntactic contexts. It occurs word-finally on nouns, or on the adjective in an N-Adj sequence. It is not affected by the presence or absence of a preceding possessor. The abbreviation "Nom" in interlinears may suggest "nominative" (case), but this is not altogether unfortunate, since the distribution of the suffix overlaps in part with that of nominative (subject) case in other languages.

Broadly speaking, the nominal suffix is present at the end of NPs that can be described as prosodically independent of following words. This is the case in isolation (citation forms), predicate nominals, and postverbal nouns used as adverbs (without a postposition). With one exception, the nominal suffix cannot be used in combinations where the NP is closely phrased with a following word, i.e. when the NP functions as object of a following verb, intransitive subject followed by the verb, possessor of a following noun, left conjunct in a conjoined NP, NP complement of a postposition, or NP followed by a discourse particle like 'only'. The
syntactic function that sits on the fence is subject: the nominal suffix is absent when immediately followed by a nonpronominal object NP, but present before the imperfective subject enclitic and present in combinations with certain pronominal objects.

There is a plural suffix which, for regular nouns, is added to the nominal suffix. They cooccur on unmodified nouns, and they co-occur on the adjective in noun-adjective sequences. Plurals have their own word-final nominal suffix, so the full form of a plural noun is N-NomPl -Nom with two distinct nominal suffixes. The medial -Nom- is obligatory before the plural suffix in all syntactic positions, but the word-final -Nom following the plural suffix is subject to syntactic restrictions, and in fact is more restricted than the word-final -Nom on singular nouns.

Example: noun mè $1 \grave{\varepsilon}^{n}$ (variant mìlìn) 'person', with nominal suffix mè $\mathrm{\varepsilon}$ हो-ná from $/ m \grave{\varepsilon} 1 \grave{\varepsilon}^{n}$-rá/. The bare form $m \grave{\varepsilon} 1 \grave{\varepsilon}^{n}$ (tonal variant $m \grave{\varepsilon} P \varepsilon^{n}$ in some contexts by tone sandhi) is required when the noun functions as possessor, object, or postpositional complement. Suffixed mè $\mathrm{\varepsilon}$-ná the form used in isolation, in clause-final position (postverbal object or adverb), in subjects before the imperfective enclitic, and in subjects immediately followed by pronominal objects (perfective aspect). The plural is mè $\grave{\varepsilon}$-ná-àn 'people', becoming $m \varepsilon ̀ T \varepsilon ̀-n a ́-a ̀-n u ̄ ~ w i t h ~ a ~ f i n a l ~ n o m i n a l ~ s u f f i x ~ i n ~ c i t a t i o n s ~ a n d ~ c l a u s e-f i n a l l y . ~$

### 2.2.2 Possession

There is no segmental possessive (genitive) morpheme. Possessors, whether pronominal or nonpronominal, directly precede the possessed noun (possessum). The possessum undergoes tonal changes, the details depending on the possessum's input (lexical) tones, on the category of the possessor, and on whether possession is alienable or inalienable (the latter includes body parts and kin terms).

For example, ní-ná 'tooth' is lexically H-toned. It has possessed forms like mā nī-nā 'my tooth', à nì-ná 'his/her tooth', and mù?ùn ní-ná 'our tooth'. The $\{\mathrm{L}(\mathrm{H})\}$ tones of 'his/her tooth' are standard for nouns with 3 Sg possessors, alienable or inalienable. However, the application of M-Spreading in 'my tooth' and the $\{\mathrm{H}(\mathrm{H})\}$ tones of 'our tooth' (not automatically carried over from lexical tones) are features of inalienable possession. See §6.2.2 for details.

### 2.2.3 Pronominal categories

Jalkunan is unusual among Mande languages in sharply distinguishing human from nonhuman pronominal categories in the third person. Even human-like protagonists of animal tales like hyena and hare in text 2016_02, are generally treated as nonhuman for this purpose, with occasional slippage into human.

The basic forms of the pronouns, along with reflexive possessor forms, are in (4). All of these are proclitics. A distinct set of independent pronouns occurs clause-finally and in isolation. When a $1 \mathrm{st} / 2$ nd-person proclitic is repeated with the same reference within a tightly phrased construction (adjoined same-subject clause, reflexive object or possessor), the second
occurrence is subject to reduction. Of special interest are reflexive proclitics, which show a segmental convergence (except for nasalization in the 1 Sg ) between human third person and first person on the one hand, and between nonhuman third person and second person on the other. The segmentally convergent categories are distinguished by tones in the reflexive possessor paradigm ( M for $1 \mathrm{st} / 2 \mathrm{nd}$, L for third). For discussion see $\S 18.1 .1$.
(4) Pronominal proclitics

| category | basic | reflexive possessor (§18.1.1) |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 1 Sg | $m \bar{a}$ | $\bar{a}^{n}$ |
| 2 Sg | wō | $\bar{e} \sim \overline{1}$ |
| 1 Pl | mù ${ }^{\text {an }}{ }^{\text {n }}$ | $\bar{a} \bar{a}^{n}$ |
| 2 Pl | $\bar{e} \bar{e}^{n}$ | $\bar{e} \bar{e}^{n} \sim \bar{i}^{1}{ }^{n}$ |
| 3SgHum | à | à (or ${ }^{\text {a }}$ ) |
| 3SgNonh | è | è ~ì |
| 3PlHum | àà ${ }^{n}$ | àà ${ }^{n}$ |
| 3PINonh | èè ${ }^{n}$ | $\grave{e ̀}{ }^{n} \sim \grave{i l}^{n}$ |

The other well-documented Mande language with a roughly similar distinction in third person pronouns is Jowulu (or Jo) in the Mali-Burkina border area (I thank Valentin Vydrine for pointing me to this language). Jowulu distinguishes masculine, feminine, and neuter in the 3Sg. It distinguishes human versus nonhuman in the 3Pl (Carlson 1993: 23). The forms are 3 MascSg ú, 3 FemSg ní, 3 HumPl kí, and 3 NonhPl yìrì (for typographic reasons I modify Carlson's tonal accents, so that acute $=$ high and double acute $=$ superhigh). The Jowulu forms do not appear to be cognate to the Jalkunan forms, with the possible exception of nonhuman plural (Jowulu yìrì, Jalkunan è̀ ${ }^{n}$ ).

### 2.3 Postpositions

There are several basic monosyllabic or bisyllabic postpositions (simple locative and several more specific spatial categories, plus instrumental, comitative, and benefactive). They are subject to the tonal processes mentioned above, appearing L-toned after singular NPs or pronouns and H-toned (arguably their lexical tone) after -3 Sg NPs or pronouns, except that M-toned pronouns ( $1 \mathrm{Sg}, 2 \mathrm{Sg}, 2 \mathrm{Pl}$ ) spread their M-tone into the postposition. Thus kìnà ~kíná ~ kīnā 'in front of' in sàá kìnà (</sàà kìnà/) 'in front of the house', sàà-rá-à ${ }^{n}$ kíná 'in front of the houses', and mā kinnā 'in front of me'.

### 2.4 Verb inflection

TAM categories are expressed by a combination of verbal suffixation, tonal ablaut, and grammatical particles and enclitics such as future sà and negative $=r \bar{e} ? \sim=r \bar{\varepsilon} ?$. Disregarding the particles and enclitics, (5) illustrates word-level distinctions with one intransitive verb
 effects of preceding +3 Sg and -3 Sg NPs (including pronouns). These alternations occur only in positions where the verb is immediately preceded by an NP (as opposed to an inflectional particle or subject enclitic). For intransitives this alternation is limited to the perfective, for transitives it occurs in all indicative and deontic inflections. The subject-focus perfective (with M-tones) is limited to intransitives.
'come' 'buy'
a. indicative inflections perfective subject-focus perfective imperfective progressive (positive) progressive (negative)

$$
\text { sغ̀́ } \sim \text { ś́é } \quad \text { sàní~ sánī }
$$

$S \bar{\varepsilon} \bar{\varepsilon}$
(n. a.)
sáá
sànà ~ sáná
sé-yá sànì-yá ~ sání-yá
sè-yá~sé-yá
sànì-yá~ sání-yá
b. deontic inflection
imperative
$s \bar{a}$
$s \check{a}^{n} \sim s a^{n}$
c. subordinated forms
adjoined
adjoined (defocalized)
in 'if' clause
quoted imperative
sá
sà
$s \bar{a} \quad s \check{a}^{n} \sim s a^{n}$
$s \bar{a} \quad s \check{a}^{n} \sim s$ án $^{n}$
d. nominalization
verbal noun (suffixed)
séé (séé-rá ) sànì (sàn-ná)

### 2.5 Main clauses and constituent order

Simple main clauses are of the types in (6). Additional variations can be produced by adding spatiotemporal adverbs and adjoined (non-argument) PPs either before the subject (S) or after the verb.
composition label
a. S-infl-V
intransitive
S-infl-V-O
intransitive plus postverbal "object" (VO transitive)
S-infl-V-PP
intransitive plus postpositional phrase
b. S-infl-O-V ordinary transitive (OV transitive)
S-infl-O-V-O ditransitive ('give' etc.)
c. S-infl-3SgNonh-V
pseudo-transitive ('go')
S-infl-ReflO-V
pseudo-reflexive (middle)

The sequences S-infl-V and S-infl-O-V are tightly bound and do not allow interruptions by adverbs or other elements, which may however occur before or after. The inflectional elements, "-infl-" in (6), that can precede the VP (V... or OV...) are these: the imperfective subject enclitic $/ \mathrm{H}+=\varnothing /$ (in present, future, and progressive clauses) which is realized if at all as final H-tone, future particle sà (following the imperfective enclitic), and prohibitive particle bí. There is no pre-VP inflectional marker in perfectives.

Negation, not shown in (6) above, is a clause-final enclitic $=r \bar{E}$. Prohibitives (negative imperatives) have both a pre-VP inflectional particle bí and clause-final $=r \bar{E}$ ? . Addition of the negative enclitic causes subtle tonal changes earlier in the clause (§10.2.3), including omission of the imperfective subject enclitic.

Examples of the intransitive types in (6a) above are in (7).


Examples of OV transitive and ditransitive verbs, cf. (6b) above, are in (8). A ditransitive like 'give' is essentially the combination of an OV transitive with an additional postverbal object. The preverbal object denotes the theme (the entity given), the postverbal object denotes the recipient.
a. zàkî̀ mā báprī(ī) type
Z 1 Sg hit.Pfv
'Zaki hit me.
b. zàkî̀

Z water give.Pfv 1Sg-Indep
'Zaki gave water to me.'
type perfective OV transitive
perfective ditransitive

Examples of pseudo-transitive, true reflexive, and pseudo-transitive (middle) clauses, cf. (6c) above, are in (9). The only pseudo-transitive verb is 'go' (imperfective wàá, one of two 'go' verbs). It has a nonreferential, pro-forma nonhuman 3 Sg object, in part of its paradigm (§10.1.1.2). True reflexives are special cases of regular OV transitives where the object happens to be coindexed with the subject. Such true reflexive objects are expressed with a reflexively possessed noun yé?ré which functions like English -self (§18.1.2). Pseudoreflexives have only reflexive pronominal proclitics in preverbal object position. Such clauses function as middles, similar to Romance (pseudo-)reflexives (§10.1.1.3).

```
a. tàgà-ré= è
                                è wěē
                                    wěē type
    sheep-Nom 3SgNonh go.Pfv
    'The sheep-Sg went (away).'
    (</tàgà-rá è/) perfective pseudo-transitive
b. zàkîı [ná yè?ré] bàprí
    Z [3SgHumRefl self] hit.Pfv
    'Zakii hit himself.' perfective true reflexive
c. zàkî̀ ná jòPrí
    Z 3SgHumRefl jump.Pfv
    'Zakii jumped.' perfective pseudo-reflexive (middle)
```


### 2.6 Focalization

For third person pronouns, focalization (in subject, object, or other function) can be directly expressed by changing the form of the pronoun. For example, regular human 3 Sg subject proclitic à is replaced by focalized pronoun à-wò. The same forms are used elsewhere as third-person logophorics.

For noun-headed NPs and 1st/2nd person pronouns, no such morphological marking of focalization occurs. There is also no fronting of focused constituents. The remaining possibility is indirect marking of constituent focalization by some modification of the verb. The only such modification is a special M-toned form of perfective intransitive verbs when the preceding subject is focalized.

Both the morphological marking of 3 Sg and the M -toned perfective subject-focus verb are illustrated in (10a), compare unfocalized (10b). These examples also illustrate the wide clausal scope of negation in focalized (10a) versus its narrow VP scope in (10b).
a. à-wò
$S \bar{\varepsilon} \bar{\varepsilon}=r \bar{\varepsilon} ?$
Hum-3SgFoc come.Pfv.SbjFoc=Neg
'It wasn't he-or-she [focus] who came.'
b. à
$S \grave{\varepsilon} \grave{\varepsilon}=r \bar{\varepsilon} ?$
3SgHum come.Pfv
'He/She didn't come.'

Focalization is covered in chapter 13 along with interrogation, which is closely related.

### 2.7 Relative clauses

Relative clauses, covered in chapter 14, are internally-headed. The head NP can be subject, object, possessor, or postpositional complement. It occurs in its normal position within its clause (in situ, not fronted or extracted), and is marked by addition of mì particle (distinct from demonstrative mí 'this'). An example is (11).
(11) $\left[\begin{array}{lll}{[\text { ó }=\varnothing} & \text { làáà } \quad \text { jí-yá } & n \grave{j}]\end{array}\right.$
[2Sg=Ipfv [house Rel] see-Prog there]
'that house that you-Sg see there.'

### 2.8 Adjoined clauses

I use the term "adjoined clause" to denote the second of two clauses, including a reduced second subject pronoun and a special adjoined form of the second verb, that combine tightly without completely losing their biclausal nature. The first verb typically contracts with the second subject pronoun, partially masking the underlying form of the latter. Contractions of two input vowels are indicated by the enclitic boundary $=$ after the first word. This construction class is described in $\S 15.2$. An example is (12).
$\left.\begin{array}{llllll}\text { (12) } & {\left[\begin{array}{ll}\text { à } & b a ́=]\end{array}\right.} & {[\text { á }} & j a ̀ P a a^{n}\end{array}\right] \quad\left[\begin{array}{ll}y i ́ & d u ̀\end{array}\right]$
'He/She fell down into the water.' (</à bě à jà?àn/)

## 3 Phonology

### 3.1 Internal phonological structure of stems and words

### 3.1.1 Syllables

Open syllables are the norm. Monosyllabic words and stems may be $C v$ or $C V V$ ( $v=$ any vowel quality). Final $C v L$ with sonorant $L$ is possible, especially in nouns, but in some cases it is due to Apocope (final-vowel deletion). Syncope can also occur at stem-suffix boundaries in nouns. See $\S 3.6 .2$.2.-3 for these vowel deletion processes. Medial clusters are either of the homorganic nasal plus voiced stop type (e.g. mb), which are arguably better analysed as nasalized vowel plus stop, or less often clusters like ml whose first member has to be syllabified with the preceding vowel (§3.2.2).

### 3.1.2 Metrical structure

In the absence of overt stress, metrical (rhythmical) structure in African languages of this zone is most apparent in patterns of vocalic reduction (to schwa or zero). Certain positions in Jalkunan are especially relevant.

First, stem-initial $C v C v$ allows Syncope of $v_{1}=i$ and sometimes of $v_{1}=e$ when $C_{2}$ is $l$. The tone of the syncopated vowel is retained; I show it in (13) as rising tone on the following vowel, but phonetically the L-tone begins on the lateral.

$$
\begin{array}{ll}
\text { bìlí~ bòlí~ blǐ } & \text { 'gave' }  \tag{13}\\
\text { bèlé ~ bòlé ~ blě } & \text { 'passed' }
\end{array}
$$

Words like flā ' 2 ', glàyù 'nightjar', kláá 'ring (on finger)', and slāā 'daytime' that now usually begin with a $C l$ cluster likely originated in this way, and $i$ can still occur in artifically slow pronunciations.

Second, the medial syllable of word-final $\ldots C v C v C v$ can syncopate. This is most apparent in nouns and adjectives when followed by the nominal suffix -ra. Stems ending in $n v, l v$, and $r v$ are the most favorable frames, resulting in $n n$, $l l$, and $r r$ after Syncope (and assimilation of suffixal $r$ to $n$ or $l$ ).

| noun | suffixed | gloss |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| a. búlú | búl-lá | 'caterpillar, grub' |
|  | būtūnī | būtūn-nā |


| b. bònò | bòn-ná <br> fénén-ná | 'kite (hawk)' <br> fén |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| c. kānā | kān-nā | 'red' |
| sàmàrà | sàmàr-rá | 'shoes' |

Word-final $\ldots C v C v C v$ can also occur within a stem, and when the medial vowel is $\{i u\}$ and the flanking consonants are propitious, Syncope is an option: fúnúnà ~ fúnnà 'become inflated or swollen' (imperfective).

Some nouns and adjectives ending in $\{i u\}$ like those in (14a) optionally apocopate wordfinally in clause-medial position. There is much variation from one stem to another, and some free variation for individual stems, in my assistant's speech.

### 3.2 Consonants

The consonantal phonemes are in (15).

## Consonants

|  | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 9 |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| labial | $p$ | $b$ | $m$ | $f$ | $V$ |  | $W$ |  |  |
| alveolar | $t$ | $d$ | $n$ | $S$ | $z$ | $l$ | $r$ |  |  |
| glottalized |  |  |  |  |  |  | $P r$ |  |  |
| alveopalatal | $c$ | $j$ | $n$ |  |  |  | $y$ |  |  |
| velar | $k$ | $g$ | $\eta$ |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| labial velar | $k p$ | $g b$ | $n m$ |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| laryngeal |  |  |  |  |  |  |  | $?$ | $h$ |

key to columns: 1. aspirated voiceless stops and affricates; 2. voiced stops and affricates; 3. nasals, 4. voiceless fricatives (including sibilants); 5. voiced fricatives (including sibilants); 6. lateral; 7. other sonorants (taps, semivowels); 8. glottal stop; 9. laryngeal (aspiration)

The orthography differs from IPA as indicated in (16).
(16) a. $c$ is IPA [ $\mathrm{t} f]$
b. $\quad j$ is [ $\left.\mathrm{d}_{3}\right]$
c. $\quad r$ is a $\operatorname{tap}[r]$
d. $\quad P r$ is a tap with simultaneous glottal stop [ $\left.r^{\prime}\right]$
e. ligatures are omitted for labial velars (but they are unit phonemes)

### 3.2.1 Comments on specific consonants

### 3.2.1.1 $h$

This consonant is attested only initially in loanwords: hééré 'well-being', hín = in (669a).

### 3.2.1.2 ?

Glottal stop $?$ is common stem-medially between two short vowels: bú?ún 'liver', dó? $\bar{o}$ 'younger brother'. It does not occur word- or stem-initially, or word- or stem-finally. It does occur finally in negative enclitic $=r \bar{E} ?$ when it is clause-final ( $\S 10.2 .1$ ), and in clause-final emphatic particle $d \bar{\varepsilon} ?(\S 19.3 .2)$. See, however, the comments in $\S 10.2 .2$.

Usually ? within a stem is flanked by short vowels of identical quality, but not necessarily with the same tone. Additional nominal examples are bà $1 a ̀$ 'wild onion', zérèné 'wild date tree (Balanites)', bòPòkáán 'tall grass spp. (Hyperthelia, Diheteropogon)', and níinààñ-tù?ùgú 'praying mantis'. Aspectual alternations such as imperfective dà $1 a ̀$ and E-stem perfective $d \grave{\varepsilon} P \varepsilon ́$ for the verb 'let go, set free' show that this vocalic harmonization is systematic at least for verbs. Exceptions are wò?ùl-dí(-rà) 'mid-sized honey bee sp.' and ní?ह́náá 'get wet'.

Allophonic nasalization of the vowel preceding ? is carried over to the vowel that follows it. There are many words like 1 Pl pronoun mù ${ }^{2}{ }^{n}$ that have an initial $N_{V}$ syllable (nasal consonant plus short vowel that is automatically nasalized), followed by a glottal initial syllable with a clearly nasalized vowel. Although the nasalization of both vowels is automatic, I transcribe it in this case to avoid confusing readers.

### 3.2.1.3 $r$ and $? r$

Tap $r$ and glottalized $\operatorname{Pr}$ do not occur word-initially. The only exception in my data is rāābā 'Wednesday', a borrowing (ultimately Arabic). They do not occur word-finally, except in words like má?r̀ 'mango' when apocopated from má?rù.
$r$ does occur occasionally as first member of medial $C C$ clusters, followed by an obstruent: bàrkár 'herb sp. (Leucas)', màrfá 'rifle'.

Other than this, both $r$ and $2 r$ are limited to medial intervocalic position. $r$ also occurs in the negative enclitic $=r \bar{E}$ ?, which usually follows a vowel. However, Syncope/Apocope can create $C r$ clusters, which can feed $C C$-adjustment rules like $r$-Lateralization and $r$-Deletion.

Pr is phonetic [ $r^{\prime}$ ] with simultaneous glottal stop and (weak) tap. One could argue that it is a cluster of $?$ with $r$, but the simultaneity of the glottal and rhotic articulations argues for unit phoneme status. Its frequency is another argument for this. An alternative analysis is that it is the result of Syncope from /ivr/ with some vowel $v$. This might be justified diachronically (I don't know), but there is no good evidence for it synchronically. For example, nominal suffix -ra (or variant) allows Syncope of a preceding vowel under some conditions, but there are no cases of e.g. $C v ? v$-rà syncopating to $C v 1$-rà [Cvf’à]. Examples of non-syncopation are dè̀è-rá 'cream of millet' and jóPó-rá 'Jula person'.

Examples of $\operatorname{Pr}[\mathrm{r}$ ’] are the nouns gúmà Prà 'palm-frond bed’, nókò?rò 'face', bóPró 'loam', wó?ró 'thigh', fá?rā ‘cave', kó?rō 'night', yè?rè 'néré tree' (Parkia), má?ì ~ máPrù 'mango', and the verbs kà?rà 'break, snap', béPr巨̄ 'yam (Dioscorea)', jò?rò 'jump', bàPrà 'hit', tò?rò 'sell', nう̀Prò 'affix', sèprà 'sweep', sònsón Prà 'squat', and kòPrìyáà 'get old'. I have no examples involving preceding high vowel $i$ or $u$, but a following $i$ or $u$ is allowed, as shown by examples above and by several I-stem perfectives of the verbs above (kà?rí 'broke', etc.).

### 3.2.1.4 ?n

Usually sonorants other than $r$ are separated from a preceding glottal stop by at least an echo vowel. However, só?ń 'shrew (Crocidura)', with suffix só?ń-ná, was heard with more or less simultaneous glottal closure.

### 3.2.1.5 $Z$

$z$ is uncommon initially and seems to be limited to loanwords, and to cultural vocabulary that can be suspected of being loanwords: zá?àmé 'rice cooked with sauce in it', zé 1 ह̀né 'wild date tree (Balanites)'. There are several examples of $z$ intervocalically, but they too are flora-fauna or other cultural items: sìzó 'scissors’ (< French), táábìz̀̀yó 'Abdim’s stork', sénzé 'waterbuck' (also in Jula), $k \grave{̀} \grave{j}^{n} z i^{n}$ 'fruit of tree sp. (Annona)'. Prost already noted that medial $s$ is sometimes pronounced $z$. I have observed this in the semi-reduplicative verb $s \grave{o}^{n} S 0^{n}$ Prà 'squat', often pronounced $S \grave{o l}^{n} Z O^{n}$ Prà.

### 3.2.1.6 V

$v$ is uncommon initially and unattested medially. My examples of word-initial $v$ are florafauna terms: vìlàn 'fat mouse (Steatomys)', vègè-kùn', one of two synonyms for 'wild grape tree (Lannea)', vóó 'large arthropod sp. (wind spider?)', vj̀̀n'-v $\bar{\jmath} \bar{\jmath}^{n}$ 'mud-dauber wasp' (onomatopoeic).

In formulae like $C v C v$, the symbol $v$ represents any vowel, and vv represents any vowel sequence or long vowel. It is necessary to use lowercase $v$ for typographic reasons, i.e. to allow tone diacritics.

### 3.2.1.7 $p$ versus $k p$

As already observed by Prost, $p$ appears to be absent from native lexicon and occurs in borrowings and in cultural lexical items that are likely to have been borrowed. Stem-initial $p$ is attested in pél̄̄ 'chili pepper', pándàl 'pants', pòsón 'poison' (< French), pítòl 'bulbul (bird)', and pòtò-pòtó 'jatropha (tree)’. Medial $p$ occurs in álà-pèrén̄-kán 'thunder', tápétí
'plastic sandals' (local French tapète), kápòn 'daba (hoe) for light chopping', and sīpītí 'Saturday' (< Arabic).

Labial velar $k p$ (a unit phoneme) is common word-initially in native vocabulary: kpáán 'die', kpóóló ‘time(s)', $k p \bar{\jmath}$ 'foot', etc.

### 3.2.1.8 Variation in intervocalic stop voicing ( $\mathrm{k} / \mathrm{g}$ and $t / \mathrm{d}$ )

Voiceless obstruents are common stem- and word-initially. When they occur intervocalically within a stem, $k$ varies with $g$ and $t$ varies with $d$. The voiceless stop is preferred in careful speech, especially at the intersection of a preceding L-tone and a following H-tone (hence often in perfectives). My assistant regularly corrected my pronunciation accordingly, but in ordinary speech style he generally pronounced $g$ and $d$.

In dàkós 'catch (something thrown)', the voiceless $k$ is consistent. I suspect this is because it is treated as a compound dà-kój, so the $k$ is initial within its stem. However, there are some similar verbs such as dá- ${ }^{\star}$ káa $^{n} \sim$ dá- ${ }^{\downarrow}$ gáá ${ }^{n}$ 'finish' that behave tonally like compounds but that do show $k \sim g$ alternation.

In reduplicated nouns tòtó 'giant pouched rat' and tété 'tick', I have only heard $t$ medially. However, apparently reduplicated kùkù $\sim$ kùgù 'stone' does show $k \sim g$ variation medially.

Other verbs showing intervocalic $k \sim g$ (cited here in the imperfective +3 Sg ) are mùkò ~ mùgò 'shape into a ball', nàkà ~ nàgà 'ask (question)', còkò ~ cògò 'peck', sj̀kò ~ sògò 'pick up (on ground)', wùkò ~ wùgò 'flip over', yèkà ~ yègà 'stone-grind', and lèkè-lékà ~ lègè̀-légà 'tickle'. bègà (or bègè ) 'cut, slice' was almost always heard with $g$ but a $k$ variant was recorded once. Adjective: bákúnī ~ bágúnī 'short' (apparently a frozen compound, cf. synonym gúnī ‘short'). Nouns: dùkù ~ dùgù ‘the bush (outback)', dîkínī ~ dīgínī 'man'.

Verbs with intervocalic $t \sim d$ are dùtòl̀ $\sim$ dùdòl̀ 'show' and dùtó?ónó $\sim$ dùdó?ónó 'shut (door, eyes)'. Adjectives: wút̄̄~wúd̄̄ 'new', kútō~kúdō ‘old’, kítā ~kídā ‘bad’.

These lists are not exhaustive, and it may be that numerous other stems with medial intervocalic $g$ or $d$ can be pronounced with the voiceless stop in careful speech. However, hypercorrection is also a lurking possibility.

I have no examples of $p$ varying with $b$ or of $k p$ varying with $g b$.

### 3.2.1.9 $\mathrm{k} / \mathrm{g}$ versus $\mathrm{c} / \mathrm{j}$ before front vowel

There is very little difference in my assistant's pronunciation between $k \varepsilon$, $c \varepsilon$, $k i \varepsilon$, and $c i \varepsilon$, or between $g \varepsilon, j \varepsilon, g i \varepsilon$, and $j i \varepsilon$, and likewise with other front vowels $i$ and $e$. In other words, k is partially palatalized before front vowels, and $i$ in Cie is articulated only briefly. My assistant does, however, have clear intuitions about the correct pronunciation of each individual word, and I generally follow them.

### 3.2.2 Consonant clusters

### 3.2.2.1 Word- and morpheme-initial $C C$ clusters

$k p$ and $g b$ are units, not clusters, so they are excluded here.
Initial $C C$ clusters are of the form $C l$ or $C y$, rarely $C r$. Some if not all are probably due to historical Syncope of a short high vowel. If there is no synchronic evidence for an underlying vowel, I recognize an initial cluster.

```
a. initial Cl
noun or numeral
        flā 'two'
    klāā 'mouse'
    glàyù 'nightjar (bird)'
compound final
    táá-blà?à-bláPá 'firefly'
b. initial Cy
noun
    fy\varepsiloǹ\varepsiloǹ 'wind (n)'
c. initial Cr
    noun
        bràà-kù" ' 'fromager tree'(Ceiba)
```

In cases like bèlé ~ bòlé $\sim$ blé (and tonal variants) 'pass', I take the full form (bèlé) as underlying.

### 3.2.2.2 Medial geminated $C C$ clusters

$n n$ is attested medially in a few items of cultural vocabulary: kònnìgì 'glue tree (Cordia)', tònnı̀l 'tiger-beetle larva', and nàmùnná 'stirring-stick'.
$n n, l l$, and $r r$ occur in nouns at the suffixal boundary.

| stem | with suffix | gloss |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| sàfàlì | sàfàl-lá | 'donkey' |
| sàmàrà | sàmàr-rá | 'shoes' |
| sánū | sán̄-nà | 'gold' |

In most cases geminates at the suffixal boundary result from Syncope of a stem-final short vowel. However, there are also some nouns that end in one of the relevant sonorants (at least, I have not heard them with final high vowels): sùkár 'sugar', bèr(è)fán 'blanket', jén 'ax', kōl
'cotton'. These too have geminated sonorants in the suffixed form: sùkár-rà, bèr(è)fán-nà, jén-ná, kōl-là.

### 3.2.2.3 Medial non-geminate $C C$ clusters

$k p, g b, y m$, and $\operatorname{Pr}$ are analysed here as unit consonants, not clusters.
Homorganic nasal plus voiced stop clusters are well-attested: kámbà?rà 'Abyssinian roller (bird)', pándàl 'pants', bàlànjúrú 'amaranth', sāทgé 'mosquito net', sèngbáá ‘bamboo'. However, these could also be interpreted as nasalized vowel plus stop. For example, fôm-bèè 'fun' contains fô $^{n}$ 'fun'.

Other true nongeminate $C C$ clusters are uncommon but a few have been recorded, chiefly or exclusively in noun stems. Those that do not occur only at obvious compound boundaries are in (19).
cluster example gloss
a. Cl

| ml | kámléwòtóólū | 'galago (mammal)' |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| fl | màflánì-kíī | 'tree spp. (Parinari, Maranthes)' |

b. $C y$
fy tàfyél 'square fan'
c. $1 C$

| Im | sàlmátàànkéé | 'thrush (bird)' |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| ln | bòln-á | 'hitching post for goat' (suffixed form) |

lk bálkún 'tree sp. (Khaya)'
$l W$ dòlwáálī 'ground-dwelling termite'
d. $r C$ and $2 r C$
rf màrfá 'gun'
rt kórtòò gbó?ó 'paper wasp sp.'
rn cérná 'cricket’
$r W$ jérwòtó 'snail'
Prc bā?rcēē 'fight (n)'
e. $N C$ with voiceless stop or affricate

| $\eta k p$ | cíínkpèrì-kún | 'tree sp. (Entada)' |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| $\eta k$ | gbénká-kú ${ }^{n}$ | 'tree sp. (Bridelia)' |
| $n c$ | bèlèncín | 'uncle' (synonym bé $)$ |

### 3.2.2.4 Word-final $C C$ clusters

Word-final clusters are virtually nonexistent in Jalkunan, where even final single consonants are restricted. I have recorded bòln 'hitching post' before modifiers or verbs: bòlǹ flā 'two hitching posts', mā bòln̄ jì́ 'I saw a hitching post'. The $n$ is not noticeably syllabic. The suffixed form is bòln-á.

### 3.3 Vowels

The inventory is (20), omitting tones.
oral
uu
oo
ง
aa
$\varepsilon \varepsilon$
ee
ii
nasal

| $u^{n}$ | ${u u^{n}}^{o^{n}}$ |
| :--- | :--- |
| $o^{n}$ |  |
| $\rho^{n}$ | $\rho \rho^{n}$ |
| $a^{n}$ | $a a^{n}$ |
| $\varepsilon^{n}$ | $\varepsilon \varepsilon^{n}$ |
| $e^{n}$ | $e^{n}$ |
| $i^{n}$ | $i^{n}$ |

### 3.3.1 Short and (oral) long vowels

Both short and long vowels occur frequently in monosyllabics. A few examples among many are in (21).
(21)

```
a. Cv monosyllabics
    nouns
        dí 'child'
        kp\overline{ 'foot'}
        bé 'uncle'(synonym bèlèncín)
        pronouns
        mā}\quad1\textrm{Sg}\mathrm{ proclitic
        wō 2Sg proclitic
        adjectives
        gbó 'big'
        n\varepsiloń 'good'
numerals
        flā '2'(in some contexts flāa,, see comments after (125))
        verbs
        s\grave{~ só 'know'(perfective)}
        sā 'come' (imperative)
```

| b. CVV monosyllabics |  |
| :--- | :--- |
| nouns |  |
| kóō | 'back (body)' |
| féē | 'calabash' |
| lóó | 'mask' |
| gbí̄ | 'boil (on skin)' |
| adjectives |  |
| táā | 'hot' |
| kpēē | 'white' |
| numerals |  |
| táá | 'ten' |
| verbs |  |
| bàà | 'fall' (imperfective) |
| sàà ~ sáá | 'build' (imperfective) |

In nonmonosyllabic stems, long vowels are less common than short vowels in all positions. Nonmonosyllabic verbs especially tend to have only short vowels. The most common shape that does include a long vowel is $C v v C v$, followed by $C v C v V(22 \mathrm{a}-\mathrm{b})$. Medial long vowels in trisyllabics occur in a few loanwords (22c).
(22)
a. $C v v C v(v)$
nouns

| jààgbè | 'courage' |
| :---: | :---: |
| bò̀ró | 'sack' |
| báárá | 'work (n)' (synonym wálí) |
| numerals |  |
| sóóló | '5' |
| búúlī | 'thousand' |
| verbs |  |
| mìilîĩ ~ mílílī | 'think' (perfective; also variants with $r$ for $l$ ) |
| fêèní~ féénī | 'untie' (perfective) |
| màà-sèz ~ máa | 'bow, bend over' (perfective) |

b. $C v C v V$
nouns

| dálòò | 'civet (mammal)' |
| :--- | :--- |
| jàngbáā | 'cat' (and other variants) |

verbs
mùníī~ múníl 'crawl’ (perfective)
nèn $\varepsilon \bar{\varepsilon} \sim$ néné $\bar{\varepsilon} \quad$ 'taste' (perfective)
c. $C v C v v C v$

| nouns |  |
| :--- | :--- |
| tùbààbú | 'white person' |
| lìmààmí | 'imam' |

### 3.3.2 Nasalized vowels

Short and long nasalized vowels have the same distribution as oral short and long vowels. Any vowel quality can be nasalized. Because a syllable-initial nasal consonant induces phonetic nasalization of the vowel, the examples given here involve syllables beginning with oral consonants.
(23)
a. Cv monosyllabics
nouns

| $s \varepsilon^{n}$ | 'thing' |
| :--- | :--- |
| tón | 'arrow' |
| demonstratives |  |
| mí | 'this' |
| verbs |  |
| $k p a ́ a ́ n$ | 'die' (imperfective) |
| $b \varepsilon^{n} \sim b \varepsilon^{n}$ | 'draw (water)' (imperative) |
| $k i{ }^{n}$ | 'fly away; jump' (imperative) |

b. $C V V$ monosyllabics
nouns

| cíín ${ }^{n}$ | 'breast' |
| :---: | :---: |
| $g b a ́ a{ }^{n}$ | 'shoulder' |
| $k w e ́ e^{n}$ | 'crops' |
| $d \grave{\grave{3}}{ }^{n}$ | 'dance (n)' (variant dòò ) |
| kùù ${ }^{\text {n }}$ | 'penis' |
| pronouns |  |
| $\bar{e} \bar{e}^{n}$ | 2Pl proclitic |
| àà ${ }^{n}$ | human 3Pl proclitic |
| verbs |  |
|  | 'steal' (imperfective) |
| jóson ${ }^{\text {n }}$ | 'fear' (imperfective) |
| $k p a ̀ a^{n} \sim k p a a^{n}{ }^{\text {a }}$ | 'kill' (imperfective) |

In nonmonosyllabics, it is easiest to find phonemically nasalized vowels word-finally than initially or medially, where vocalic nasalization is more strongly associated with nasal consonants. Some long nasalized vowels are in (24). These include some $C v C V V$ stems with nasalized medial $C$, on the grounds that phonemic nasalization is more readily heard in final long than short vowels.
a. nonfinal long nasalized vowel

| nouns <br> cîín'-yí <br> verbs | 'milk' (compound "breast-water") |
| :--- | :--- |
| fǜ̀ ${ }^{n}$ vúnó | 'sprinkle (grains)' (imperfective) |

b. final long nasalized vowel or diphthong

```
nouns
    jàngbáāa}= 'cat'(variants include jà\etamáán'
verbs
    d\grave{\jmath}\mp@subsup{\hat{o}}{}{n}~d\mp@code{ó}\mp@subsup{\hat{o}}{}{n}\quad 'step on'(imperfective)
    kiàn}~\mathrm{ Níà ' 'fly away' or 'jump' (imperfective)
```

Some nonmonosyllabics with short nasalized vowels are in (25). Nonfinal phonemically nasalized vowels are rare, excluding automatically nasalized vowels following a nasal consonant. Final phonemic nasalized vowels are common. In glottal stems like búpún 'liver', both vowels are fully nasalized.
(25) a. nonfinal short nasalized vowel
nouns cínWù 'termitary’
b. final short nasalized vowel
nouns
dúlé ${ }^{n} \quad$ 'fishing apparatus'
búpúú 'liver'
gbírín 'wilderness'
$g b a ̄ a ̄ j e^{n} \quad$ 'tea'
fààndán 'pauper'
sàà-bín 'roof'
[for verbs see just below]
Several verb stems have morphologically regular alternations between Cvnv (e.g. imperfective) and $C V^{n}$ (e.g. imperative).

| imperfective <br> $+3 S g$ | imperative <br> $+3 S g$ | gloss |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| dòǹ̀ | $d \check{c}^{n}$ |  |
| gbènà | $g b \check{c}^{n}$ | 'chew' |
| jàPánà | $j a ̆$ áa | 'throw' |
|  |  | 'descend' |

In some stems, however, an expected final short nasalized vowel in the imperative is denasalized, see §3.6.2.5 below.

The vowel of a $N V$ or $N V V$ syllable, where $N$ is a nasal consonant, is treated as nasalized in the phonology. This is especially relevant to $n \sim r$ alternations in nominal suffix -ra and in negative enclitic $=r \bar{E} R$, see $\S 3.6 .1 .1$. I do not normally transcribe vocalic nasalization in such cases since it is redundant, but a good case could be made that I should. One might also extend this to vowels preceding nasal consonants. My assistant regularly corrected my pronunciation, especially when words were broken up artifically into syllables. For example, he insisted in syllabifying $g b \varepsilon ̀ n a ̀ ~ ' t h r o w ' ~ a s ~ g b \grave{\varepsilon}{ }^{n}$ plus nà ${ }^{n}$. Examples with fully nasalized final $N_{V V}$ syllable include $k \bar{u} m \bar{\varepsilon} \bar{\varepsilon}$ [kūm $\left.\bar{\varepsilon}:^{n}\right]$ 'food' and mòmó $\bar{\varepsilon}$ [mò ${ }^{\mathrm{n}} \mathrm{m} \mathrm{o}^{\mathrm{n}} \bar{\varepsilon}^{\mathrm{n}}$ ] 'carried on back' (perfective +3 Sg ).

Stems ending in $N_{V} ?_{V}$ are likewise treated as ending in a nasalized vowel, thereby triggering $r$-Nasalization in a following nominal suffix or negative enclitic. To avoid confusion I add the nasalization diacritic at the end of transcriptions of such stems, but as with $N_{V}$ and $N_{V V}$ syllables the vocalic nasalization is automatic. Examples are the pronoun mù? ${ }^{n}$ ' 'we', noun bìnáPán 'herb sp. (Ceratotheca)' with suffixed form bìnáPá-ná, and verb kòmá ${ }^{2}$ an 'knead, stir' with negation kòmá?à $=n \bar{\varepsilon} ?$.

### 3.3.3 Initial vowels

Initial vowels $a$ and e occur in pronominals ( $2 \mathrm{Pl} \bar{e} \bar{e}^{n}$, human 3 Pl àà ${ }^{n}$, human 3 Sg à, nonhuman 3 Pl è̀̀ ${ }^{n}$, nonhuman 3 Sg è ). These pronominals occur clause-initially in subject or possessor function, and except when clause-initial they are typically contracted with preceding vowels.

In stems (nouns, adjectives, numerals, verbs, adverbs), initial vowels are rare. I can cite only a handful of nouns (27), the first of which ('God') also occurs as compound initial, see (141). The initial vowels in such stems do not normally undergo $v v$-Contraction.

| álā | 'God' |
| :--- | :--- |
| àlàmàń | 'fine (n)' |
| ìkájè ${ }^{n}$ | 'shrub sp. (Alchornea)' |
| òòlú | 'women's ululation' |

### 3.3.4 Stem-final vowels

Almost all stems ends in vowels (exceptions are nouns). All vowel qualities are attested.

### 3.3.5 Vowel sequences

### 3.3.5.1 $\supset \varepsilon$ and oe diphthongs

The diphthong $\rho \varepsilon$ occurs in verbs ending in $\rho 0$ that add a mid-height front vowel $\varepsilon$ in the perfective. However, in medial position this diphthong is trimmed back to $っ$. For example, 'enter’ is cited as imperfective sóó. Its perfective form sòé ~ só $\varepsilon$ occurs clause-finally, but is
usually trimmed to s̀̀～só clause－medially．More problematically，this perfective is heard with long but monophthongized vowel before the negative enclitic：sò̀ $=r \bar{\varepsilon} ? \sim s o ́ ⿱ ㇒ 日 勺=r \bar{\varepsilon} ?$ ．It is optionally shifted to＋ATR in this negative form，hence variants sòò $=r \bar{e} ? \sim$ sóó $=r \bar{e} ?$ ．Cos verbs that have tones in the imperfective，and nonmonosyllabic $C o C o s$ verbs，do not show the shift to＋ATR in my data．See（28a）below for data．

There are a few lexically + ATR bisyllabic verbs with diphthong oe in perfectives（28b）． This diphthong is even less stable that $\leadsto \varepsilon$ ，and even clause－finally it monophthongizes sporadically as ee．

The other vowel quality，not already $\{e \varepsilon\}$ ，in verbs with E－stem perfectives is the low vowel a．The expected diphthong \＃a monophthongizes as $\varepsilon \varepsilon$（28c）．

The verbs in（28a－b）have E－stem perfectives．Verbs that instead have I－stem perfectives are in（28c）．In most of these verbs，here exemplified by＇return＇and＇point at＇，the perfective ends in a Ci syllable．However，there are a number of stems such as＇understand＇and ＇hammer＇that end in úà or éà in the imperfective and therefore in úī or éī in the I－stem perfective．

| imperfective | perfective | PfvNeg | gloss |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| $+3 \mathrm{Sg} \sim-3 \mathrm{Sg}$ | $+3 \mathrm{Sg} \sim-3 \mathrm{Sg}$ | +3 Sg |  |

a．perfective ends in $\Omega \varepsilon$ diphthong

| sóó | sò̀̀～sóé | Sò̀̀ $=r \bar{\varepsilon} ?$ | ＇enter＇ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  |  | $\sim$ sòò $=$ rē？ |  |
| bós | bò $\sim$ bó | $b \grave{\partial ̀}=r \bar{\varepsilon} ?$ | ＇exit＇ |
|  |  | $\sim b o ̀ o ̀=r e ̄ ? ~$ |  |
| kò̀～kóó | kò $\sim$ Kóé | $k \grave{̀} \grave{=}=r \bar{\varepsilon} ?$ | ＇count＇ |
|  |  | $\sim k o ̀ o ̀=r \bar{e} ?$ |  |
| sò̀～sóó | sò̀̀ $\sim$ sóé | sı̀̀ $=r \bar{\varepsilon} ?$ | ＇put（sth）in＇ |
|  |  | $\sim$ sòò $=$ rē？ |  |

shift to + ATR in perfective negative not attested

| mò̀～móó | mò $\sim$ móǵ | $m \grave{o}=r \bar{\varepsilon} ?$ | ＇rub，wipe＇ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  |  | $j \grave{o}$＝$n \bar{\varepsilon}$ ？ | ＇steal＇ |
| dう̀ ${ }^{n} \sim d o ́ \hat{}{ }^{n}$ | $d \grave{\varepsilon^{n}} \sim d o \bar{\varepsilon}^{n}$ | dò $=n \bar{\varepsilon}$ ？ | ＇step on＇ |
| mòmój̀ mómój | mòmó $\bar{\varepsilon} \sim$ mómó $\bar{\varepsilon}$ | mòmó $\bar{\rho}=n \bar{\varepsilon}$ ？ | ＇carry on back＇ |

b．perfective ends in oe

| tòlò | tòlóē $\sim$ tólē | tòlóē $=$ rē？ | ＇point at＇ |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
|  | $(+3 \mathrm{Sg}$ also tòléē $)$ |  |  |
| bóló | bòlóē $\sim$ bólōē | bòló $=$ rē？ | ＇be born＇ |
| kòrrój̀ $\sim$ kórróò | kòrróé $\sim$ kórróé | kòrró $=$ rē？ | ＇drag＇ |

c. perfective ends in $\varepsilon \varepsilon$

| kpáá ${ }^{\text {n }}$ | $k p \varepsilon \grave{\varepsilon}^{n} \sim k p \varepsilon \varepsilon^{n}{ }^{n}$ | $k p \grave{\varepsilon} \grave{\varepsilon}=n \bar{\varepsilon} ?$ | 'die' |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  |  | $\sim$ kpèè $=n \bar{e} ?$ |  |
| bàà |  | $b \grave{\varepsilon} \grave{\varepsilon}=r \bar{\varepsilon} ?$ | 'fall' |
|  |  | $\sim b e ̀ e ̀=r e ̄ ? ~$ |  |
| tá?á |  | $t \grave{\varepsilon} \ \grave{\varepsilon}=r \bar{\varepsilon} ?$ | 'go' |
|  |  | $\sim$ tè C è $=r$ rē? |  |
| dó- ${ }^{\text {sááá }}$ | dò-séé ~ dó-Sع́é | $d o ̀-s \varepsilon \varepsilon^{\varepsilon} \underline{=}=r \bar{\varepsilon}$ ? | 'add' |
|  |  | $\sim$ dò-séé $=$ rē? |  |

d. perfective ends in high vowel (always + ATR)

| búló | bùlí~ búlī | bùlí= rē? | 'return, go back' |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| dùtòlò $\sim$ dútóló | dùtòlí $\sim$ dútólí | dùtòlí $=$ rē? | 'point at' |
| fâàmúà $\sim$ fáámúà | fầàmúī $\sim$ fáámúī | fâàmúī = rē? | 'understand' |
| gbèngbéà $\sim$ gbéngbéà | gbè̀gbéí $\sim$ gbéngbéíi | gbèngbéī=rē? | 'hammer (sth)' |

### 3.3.5.2 ie and ia

(28d) above also shows that diphthongs ea and ua can occur in imperfectives.
Some verbs have Cie segmental shape in the imperfective, in some cases varying with Cia. If they have E-stem perfectives, the perfective and imperfective may be homophonous at the morphological level (29a). If they have I-stem perfectives, the two aspects are clearly distinguished. When the consonant is palatoalveolar $(j, c, n)$ the $i$ in Cis or Cia is faint.
imperfective perfective $\operatorname{PfvNeg}(+3 \mathrm{Sg})$ gloss
a. ic in both imperfective and E-stem perfective
$j \grave{\varepsilon} \sim j i ́ \varepsilon ́ \varepsilon \quad j \grave{\varepsilon} \stackrel{\sim}{\sim} \sim j i ́ \varepsilon \quad j \grave{\varepsilon} \grave{\varepsilon}=r \bar{\varepsilon} ? \quad$ 'see'
(imperfective also jìà ~jíá )
fì̀ $\sim$ fíé $\quad$ fì̀ $\sim$ fí $\quad$ fì $=r \bar{\varepsilon} ? \quad$ 'blow'
$c i \grave{\varepsilon} \sim c i ́ \varepsilon \quad c i ̀ \varepsilon ̀ \sim c i ́ \varepsilon \quad c i ̀ \varepsilon=r \bar{\varepsilon} ? \quad$ 'arrive'
b. is in imperfective, I-stem in perfective

|  | mǐ̄ $\sim m i \overline{1}$ | $m \grave{1 i ́}=n \bar{e} ?$ | 'drink' |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| лì̀ $\sim$ níg | лйі̆~ $\sim$ nī̆ | $n \grave{1 i c ́}=$ nē? | 'spend night' |
| nià ~ níà | nǐĩ~nî̀ | $n \grave{1}$ = $=n \overline{\text { en }}$ ? | 'divide' |

### 3.4 ATR and related issues

### 3.4.1 ATR Harmony

The key ATR (advanced tongue root) opposition is -ATR $\{\varepsilon \rho\}$ versus + ATR $\{\mathrm{e} o\}$, i.e. involving mid-height vowels. Within simple (noncomposite) stems, including aspect-marked verb stems, harmony is respected. For example, tòlóé 'rotted' and b̀̀ $\varepsilon$ 'exited' are perfective forms of verbs, ending in the perfective stem-final e or $\varepsilon$, the choice based on ATR value of the rest of the stem.

ATR Harmony is also central to the variation between $=r \bar{e} ?$ and $=r \bar{\varepsilon} ?$ variants of the allpurpose clause-final negative enclitic (§10.2), and that between $=\bar{e}$ and $=\bar{\varepsilon}$ variants of the 'it is’ enclitic (§11.2.1.1). It has no effect on the nominal suffix -ra (and variants), progressive suffix -ya, or other suffixes that do not contain mid-height vowels.

The two ATR-harmonizing enclitics mentioned bring out the covert ATR value of high and low vowels. This allows us to classify all vowel qualities as either +ATR or -ATR (30).

$$
\begin{array}{ll}
-\mathrm{ATR} & \{\varepsilon \rho a\}  \tag{30}\\
+ \text { ATR } & \{\text { e o i } u\}
\end{array}
$$

For example, the negative enclitic takes the form $=r \bar{\varepsilon} ?$ after a syllable containing the low vowel $a(31 a)$ as well as one containing overtly -ATR $\{\varepsilon \rho\}$. The enclitic takes the form $=r \bar{e} ?$ after a syllable containing a high vowel $\{i u\}$ (31b) as well as one containing overtly + ATR $\{$ e $o\}$. See $\S 10.2$ for more examples.

$$
\begin{array}{ll}
\text { a. è } s a ́ ~ t s a ́ a ́=r \bar{\varepsilon} ? & \text { 'It will not come.' }  \tag{31}\\
\text { b. é } \varnothing \text { kìí }=n \bar{e} ? & \text { 'It did not fly.' } \\
\text { bí= } 1 \text { gù }=n \bar{e} ? & \text { '(Don't shorten it!' }
\end{array}
$$

The ATR-harmonic class of a verb is not constant. For example, the progressive suffix -yá requires + ATR vocalism, so -ATR stems must shift Lexically -ATR $C V v$ verbs shift to + ATR, optionally before the negative clitic (if the verb has no contour tones), and obligatorily before the progressive suffix (§10.3.2.4).

| $\begin{align*} & \text { imperative }  \tag{32}\\ & +3 \mathrm{Sg} \end{align*}$ | perfective $+3 \mathrm{Sg}$ | imperfective $+3 \mathrm{Sg}$ | progressive $+3 \mathrm{Sg}$ | gloss |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| +ATR in progressive only |  |  |  |  |
| $d \varepsilon$ č | $d \varepsilon ̀ \varepsilon ์$ | $d \grave{\varepsilon}$ ¢ | dè-yá | 'heat (sb)' |
| mう̀ | mう̀ | mò | mò-yá | 'rub' |

$C \varepsilon \varepsilon$ and $C o s$ verbs also optionally shift to + ATR in the perfective when the negative enclitic is added ( $\S 10.2 .3$ ).

In addition, several verbs shift from +ATR in the perfective and imperative to -ATR in the imperfective stem ( $\S 10.1 .2 .3$ ). This is likely because imperfectives often end in -ATR $a$ or $\varepsilon$, and in some cases an original vowel of this type has spread its -ATR quality leftward.

| imperative | perfective | imperfective | gloss |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| +3 Sg | +3 Sg | +3 Sg |  |

shift to -ATR in imperfective

| Wě | wěē | Wह̀ $\varepsilon$ e | 'bathe $(\mathrm{sb})$ ' |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| dàkó | dàkói | dàkój̀ | 'catch (sth thrown)' |

Given that $i$ and $e$ are + ATR, while $a$ is $-A T R$, the recurrent opposition within third person pronouns between nonhuman $e \sim i$ and human a takes on a kind of sound-symbolic character: $+\mathrm{ATR}=$ nonhuman and -ATR = human. In reflexive possessor pronouns, this is expanded by including second person pronouns in the + ATR group and first person pronouns in the -ATR group (§18.1.1).

### 3.4.2 e/i alternation

Alternations between $e$ and $i$ (both + ATR) occur primarily in pronouns. The e variant occurs in isolation and clause-initially, while the $i$ variant is typical of contractions with the final vowel of the preceding word. The most important affected pronouns are these:

| e-variant | i-variant |  |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| $\grave{e}$ | $\grave{i}$ | nonhuman 3 Sg |
| $\bar{e}$ | $\bar{l}$ | 2 Sg (in some contexts, e.g. reflexive) |
| $\grave{e} \mathrm{e}^{n}$ | $\grave{i}{ }^{n}$ | nonhuman 3 Pl |
| $\bar{e} \bar{e}^{n}$ | $\overline{1}^{n}$ | 2 Pl |

The most transparent instances of shift from e to $i$ occur when the pronominal immediately follows future sà, either as object or as possessor of object. The 2 Pl morpheme escapes contraction as regular object but not as pseudo-reflexive object.
(35) Future plus preverbal object
a. $\quad$ sí=ì nonhuman 3 Sg
b. $\quad s i ̀=i ̀ 2 S g$ (pseudo-reflexive)
c. $\quad s_{1}=i^{n} \quad$ nonhuman 3 Pl
d. sà één ${ }^{n} \quad 2 \mathrm{Pl}$ (object)
sì $=i^{n} \quad$ pseudo-reflexive

Somewhat similar contractions occur in two-clause adjunction constructions, see §15.2.1.3 below.

The verb 'go' (perfective tè $2 \dot{\varepsilon} \sim t \varepsilon ́ P \varepsilon ́$, imperfective táPá ) has a variant form tílí as first verb in a two-clause adjunction construction, i.e. a construction where the first verb usually contracts with the following pronominal second subject. It is likely that this originated in combinations where the verb was followed by an e-initial pronoun, most often nonhuman 3 Sg $\grave{e}$, which becomes $i$ in contractions. The $i$-vowel idiosyncratically spread leftward to the first syllable of 'go'. For a similar case involving high vowel $u$ for expected +ATR $o$, see túú from tós 'stay' in (426).

| a. $\quad[j e ̀ r-r a ́=\varnothing$ <br> [lion-Nom=Ipfv | $t i ́ p=]$ | [1] | $b$ |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | go.Pfv] | [3SgNonh | stand.Adjn | mouth] |
| 'The lion went |  |  |  | @ 02:40) |

b. [è tíl =] [í bàà fō $\rightarrow$ ]
[3SgNonh go.Pfv] [3SgNonh put.down.Ipfv until-]
'It went and put it down all the way to-' (2016_01 @ 03:31)

### 3.5 Verb-stem ablaut

Each regular verb occurs in a number of TAM inflections. These are distinguished from each other partly by inflectional morphemes that follow the subject NP, and partly by verb-stem modifications (tonal and suffixal).

As explained in $\S 10.1 .2$, the imperfective stem has the most lexically specific information (vocalism, tone), and I generally use it as a citation form. However, it often ends in $\varepsilon$ or a that is absent in other TAM forms (perfective, imperative), and the -ATR quality of this vowel may spread leftward, as in (33) above. The perfective is characterized by a final front vowel $\{i$ e $\varepsilon\}$, which can be analysed either as a suffix or as a mutation of the final-vowel (also spreading to the preceding syllable over a medial glottal stop). Perfectives with final midheight e or $\varepsilon$ (E-stem) form one subset of perfectives, the choice between $e$ and $\varepsilon$ depending on ATR-harmonic class (37a). Perfectives with final $i$ (I-stem) are a second subset (37b).

| imperfective | perfective +3 Sg | gloss |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| a. nìnáà | nìné | 'forget' |
| wàá | Wěē | 'go' |
| dà 2 à | $d \grave{\varepsilon} \uparrow \varepsilon ́(\bar{\varepsilon})$ | 'escape' |
| b. búló | bùlí | 'return' |
| díbé | dìbí | 'be extinguished' |

### 3.6 Segmental phonological rules

### 3.6.1 Processes affecting consonants

### 3.6.1.1 $\quad r$-Nasalization $(/ \mathrm{nr} / \rightarrow n n, / \mathrm{Nv}-\mathrm{r} / \rightarrow N v-n)$

A suffix- or enclitic-initial tap $r$ is nasalized to $n$ following a nasal consonant or a nasal syllable. The latter is defined as $N v(v)$ or $C v(v)^{n}$, i.e. a syllable either beginning with a nasal consonant or containing a nasalized vowel.
$r$-Nasalization applies to nominal suffix -ra $\sim-r o$ (tone variable) and to negative enclitic $=r e ? \sim=r \varepsilon$.
a. kàr-mū $\bar{u}^{n}$ 'holy man', with nominal suffix kàr-mū $\bar{u} \bar{u}=n \bar{a}$
b. náā-nà $=\varnothing$ 'it's a woman', negated as náā-nà $=\varnothing=n \bar{\varepsilon}$ ?

Counterexamples are rare cases like the noun céngò ~ cén $\quad$ ’̀ 'middle', where $\eta g$ is in the process of simplifying to $\eta$ via $\eta \eta$. In principle, $r$-Nasalization of the nominal suffix should apply after variant céyŋò but not after variant céngò, whose oral stop $g$ should prevent nasalization from spreading rightward. However, the actual forms are céngò-rò ~ cénŋ̀̀-r̀̀ without nasalization of the suffix (§8.3.4.4).

Intervocalic $m$ in a few stems fails to nasalize the suffix or enclitic: bòmò-rá 'stomach', làmó-rà 'tax'. In at least some cases this reflects an older form with *mb or *mp (cf. French l'impôt 'tax').

### 3.6.1.2 $r$-Lateralization $(/ / \mathrm{r} / \rightarrow l l)$

Tap $r$ assimilates to an immediately preceding $l$, resulting in a geminated 11 . As with $r$-Nasalization (preceding section), this process affects nominal suffix $-r a \sim-r 0$ and negative enclitic $=r e \sim=r \varepsilon$. Several examples are in (47a) below beginning with 'grub'.
$r$-Lateralization typically occurs after stem-final short-vowel deletion before a consonant. This is the case with the basic nominal suffix -ra (and variants). When the preceding stem ends in a vowel, the suffixal consonant is always $r$ (or nasalized $n$ ). When the stem-final vowel is apocopated, an $/ \mathrm{lr} /$ cluster may be created, and this shifts to 11 , probably reflecting difficulty in articulating a tap following a lateral approximant. For example, sìnyélé 'charcoal' has an apocopated suffixed form $s i^{n} y e ́ l-l a ̀, ~ e v i d e n t l y ~ f r o m ~ / s i ̀ n y e ́ l e ́-r a ̀ / ~ v i a ~ a p o c o p a t e d ~$ /sì ${ }^{\text {n }}$ yél-rà/.

For a different way to avoid $1 r$ clusters, the following section.

### 3.6.1.3 $r$-Deletion $(/ \mathrm{lr} / \rightarrow 1)$

There are also some nouns ending in $l v(v=$ any short vowel $)$ after which the nominal suffix has the form $-a \sim-0$ (tone depends on noun stem) replacing the stem-final vowel. For
example, yálā 'hole, pit' has suffixed form yál-à for expected \#yálā-rà. yálā and yál-à differ only in tone. A near-homonym yálá 'bone' with $/ \mathrm{H} /$ melody is homophonous to its own suffixed form yál-á, though my hyphen distinguishes them orthographically. kàkàlà 'grass sp. (Loudetia)' has suffixed form kàkàl-á since nouns with /L/ melody have an H-toned suffix, but unsuffixed kàkàlà becomes kàkàlá by Final Tone-Raising before a word beginning in L-tone, so in this case there is partial (contextual) homophony. These homophony issues are not serious as the presence or absence of the nominal suffix is syntactically conditioned (for example, a clause-final noun is always suffixed). In any event the homophonies are limited to apocopating stems with final a or $\rho$ vowel, since the nominal suffix always has one of these vowels.

Further examples are (47a) below beginning with 'medication'.
The simplest phonological analysis is that /lvr/ apocopates (or syncopates) to /lr/ and the $r$ is then deleted. In this analysis, $/ \mathrm{lr} /$ is avoided either by r-Lateralization (preceding section) to 11 or by $r$-Deletion to ungeminated $l$, the choice being determined lexically by the stem. An alternative derivation is assimilation to $/ 11 /$ followed by degemination to $l$, but the only cases of this degemination would be those ultimately from $/ \mathrm{lr} /$, and no general distaste for 11 clusters is observable.

### 3.6.1.4 Deletion of intervocalic sonorants before diminutive -lī

Though not a productive process, there are a number of cases where a final syllable from the set $\{l v n v r v\}$, i.e. an alveolar sonorant plus any short vowel, loses the sonorant before diminutive suffix $-l \bar{i}$ or variant. The resulting vowel cluster contracts. An example is kà?rà 'unmarried young woman (about 18-25)', diminutive kàà-lì 'girl (to adolescence)'. There are additional minor phonological idiosyncracies of these diminutives; see $\S 4.2 .1$ for examples and discussion.

### 3.6.2 Processes affecting vowels

### 3.6.2.1 $\quad v V$-Contraction

Two vowels come together, within a word or at a boundary, in several contexts. Wordinternally, and frequently at boundaries, two adjacent vowels contract. Forms beginning with vowels are grammatical elements, especially pronominals. Almost all stems (nouns, verbs, adjectives, numerals, adverbs) begin with consonants, and the few exceptions beginning with vowels do not systematically contract. This limits opportunities for $v v$-Contraction at stemstem or particle-stem boundaries.

Word-internally, the clearest case of $v v$-Contraction is plural suffix - $\grave{a}^{n}$, which is added to the nominal suffix. The latter has variants -rà, -rá, -nà, and -ná, the choice determined by the tones and nasality of the stem. If the final stem-syllable has a back rounded vowel, there are additional free variants with $\rho$ instead of $a$. All of these variants combine with plural $-\grave{a}^{n}$ to


Since the rounded variants are optional, one can't be sure whether / $\mathrm{oa} /$ always, or just optionally, becomes 90 as opposed to $a$ a.

The word-boundary (including enclitic-boundary) examples involve words ending in a vowel (i.e. essentially any word) followed by one of the vowel-initial pronouns, in almost any grammatical function that can be expressed by proclitics. The relevant pronouns are those in (39), omitting some tonal variants.

| a. reflexive possessor |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 1Sg | $\bar{a}^{n}$ |  |
| 1 Pl | $\bar{a} \bar{a}^{n}$ |  |
| 2 Sg | $\bar{e}$ |  |
| b. multiple functions (nonreflexive) |  |  |
| 2 Pl | $\bar{e} \bar{e}^{n}$ |  |
| 3 SgHum | à ( $\sim \grave{a}^{n}$ ) | except object ná |
| 3 SgNonh | è | except object ní |
| 3PlHum | àà ${ }^{n}$ | except object náà ${ }^{\text {n }}$ |
| 3PlNonh | è̀ ${ }^{n}$ | except object niî ${ }^{n}$ |

Since there are only two vowel qualities in the second vowel of the contracting $v V$ sequence, we cannot determine the outputs for all possible combinations.
$v v$-Contraction can make morphosyntactic parsing difficult. The distinction between clause adjunction (§15.2) of the type [... verb ${ }_{1}$ ] [subject verb ${ }_{2} \ldots$ ] and verb compounding (§15.3) of the type $\left[\ldots\right.$ verb $_{1}-$ verb $\left._{2} \ldots\right]$ mainly involves the presence versus absence of a pronominal subject before verb $_{2}$. Since subjects of adjoined clauses are always pronominal and in most cases vocalic (à, è, etc.) they normally contract with the final vowel of verb ${ }_{1}$. In theory, the quality features and length of the surface vowel should allow identification of an underlying vocalic proclitic, but in practice there are indeterminate cases. Furthermore, some subordinated clause types begin with an optional complementizer à (§15.2.1.4) preceding a pronominal subject, and the possibility of $v V$-Contraction can make it difficult to know when the complementizer is present underlyingly.

In general, the vowel quality of the second contracting vowel, i.e. the vowel of the pronominal proclitic, survives or leaves a trace (such as ATR switch) in the resulting long contracted vowel. In these contractions, $e$ in a proclitic is raised to $i$, so the usual contracted vowels are aa and ii.

The tones of the inputs are sometimes preserved, as in the nominal plurals illustrated above. However, in some combinations involving pronominal proclitics either there is an unexpected initial H-tone (e.g. Cb́v̀ from /Cv̀ v̀/), or an expected H-tone shifts to the left (e.g. $C$ v́v̀ from $/ \mathrm{C} \grave{v}$ v́/). I incline to treat the first pattern as an extension of Final Tone-Raising, which elsewhere (among other things) converts LL\#L to $\mathrm{LH} \# \mathrm{~L}$, e.g. /Cv̀Cv̀ C̀̀/ $\rightarrow C \hat{v} C$ v́ $C \grave{v}$ (§3.8.3.1). In the aberrant $/ C \grave{v} \grave{v} / \rightarrow C$ ${ }^{\prime} \grave{V}$ cases, the tone of the preceding element is irrelevant. I attribute the second pattern to Leftward H-Shift (§3.8.3.7). However, this process is closely associated with vv-Contraction, and disentangling the two is difficult.

One of the most common first elements in contractions is future particle sà, which can precede object pronouns. It combines with the proclitics in (39b) above as shown in (40). Combinations with third person object pronouns exemplify the extended form of Final ToneRaising mentioned above, e.g. /sà à/ $\rightarrow$ sá=à. The only other vowel-initial object pronoun, $2 \mathrm{Pl} \overline{\bar{e}} \bar{e}^{n}$, does not consistently contract with the future morpheme in my data, and (like other $1 \mathrm{st} / 2$ nd person object proclitics in this position) it is raised to H-toned (40a).
a. $2 \mathrm{Pl} \quad s a ̀+\bar{e} \bar{e}^{n} \quad \rightarrow$ sà (é)én
b. 3SgHum sà + à $\quad \rightarrow$ sá=à
$3 \mathrm{SgNonh} \quad$ sà + è $\quad \rightarrow$ sí=ì
3PlHum $\quad s a ̀+$ àà $^{n} \quad \rightarrow$ sá $=a ̀(\grave{a})^{n}$
3PINonh $\quad s a ̀+\grave{e ̀ ~ e ̀ ~}^{n} \quad \rightarrow$ sí= $\grave{i}(i)^{n}$

A wider range of first vowels can be garnered from combinations of verbs with postverbal objects or postpositional complements. Vowel qualities attested in $C V$ verbs are $\{\rho \varepsilon$ e $a\}$ (including nasalized $a^{n}$ ). All seven vowel qualities are attested as final short vowels in nonmonosyllabic verbs. There is some variation in contractions depending on speech style, but representative results are in (41).

$$
\begin{equation*}
\text { verb } \quad+3 \text { SgHum à }+3 \text { SgNonh è gloss } \tag{41}
\end{equation*}
$$

a. monosyllabic verb

| $k p \bar{a}^{-}$ | $k p \bar{a}^{n}=\grave{a}^{n}$ | $k p \bar{e}^{n}=\grave{e}^{n}$ | 'die' (imperative) |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| $s \bar{\square}$ | $s \bar{\nu}=\grave{j}$ | $s \bar{O}=\grave{o}$ | 'enter' (imperative) |
| bè $\varepsilon$ | $b a ́=a ̀$ | $b e ́=e ̀$ | 'fall' (perfective +3 Sg ) |
| Sદ̀ ${ }^{\text {c }}$ | sá $=$ à | $s e ́=e ̀$ | 'come/bring' (perfective +3 Sg ) |
| wě | $W \hat{\varepsilon}=\grave{\varepsilon}$ | $w e ́=e ̀ ̀$ | 'bathe' (imperative) |

b. nonmonosyllabic verb

| tìgè | $t \grave{g} \mathrm{~g}=\grave{\varepsilon} \grave{\varepsilon}$ | $t i ̀ g=i \grave{l}$ | 'pound' (imperfective +3 Sg ) |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| nìné | nín $=\grave{\varepsilon}$ ¢̀ | nín = ì̀ | 'forget' (perfective +3 Sg ) |
| bēlē | $b \bar{e} l=\grave{\varepsilon} \grave{\varepsilon}$ | $b \overline{e l} 1=$ èè | 'pass' (imperative) |
| tig ${ }^{\text {i }}$ | tìg $=\hat{\varepsilon} \dot{\varepsilon}$ | tìg $=1$ ì | 'pound' (imperative +3 Sg ) |
| bùgú | bùg = ¢́j | bùg = óò | 'butcher' (imperative +3 Sg ) |
| búló | búl= ò | búl = òò | 'return' (imperfective) |
|  |  | $(\sim b u ́ l=u ̀ ~)$ |  |
| dàkó | dàk $=$ óo | dàk = óò | 'catch' (imperative +3 Sg ) |

The distinction between $a$ (as in human 3 Sg à ) and $\mathrm{e} / \mathrm{i}$ (as in nonhuman 3 Sg è $/ \mathrm{i}$ ) as second vowel is expressed in the contracted vowel as -ATR $\{\varepsilon \rho a\}$ versus $+A T R\left\{\begin{array}{c}\text { o } i u\end{array}\right\}$. For the nonmonosyllabic stems in (41b), the contracted vowel may surface as a short vowel.

Some of the forms in (41) above also illustrate Leftward H-Shift. The LH-toned inputs in the left-hand column, bèq́, sèध́, and wě in (41a) plus nìnย́ in (41b) shift the H-tone to the
leftmost mora in the contracted combinations. However, the bisyllabic imperatives in (41b) do not shift.

For CaPa and $C \varepsilon P \varepsilon$ verb stems, as with imperfective/perfective forms of táPá 'go' and dà?à 'receive', the quality features of the contracted vowel extend leftwardc to the first syllable (a kind of imbrication), suggesting that such stems are treated (in this context) as having a single vowel quality. The human/nonhuman distinction is then expressed by CaPa or $C \varepsilon\{\varepsilon$ versus $C e$ Pe or $C i P i$ (42).

| verb | +3 SgHum à | +3 SgNonh è | gloss |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| tá?á | tá ${ }^{\text {a }}$ à | $t e ́ p=$ è | 'go' (imperfective) |
| tè̀ | $t \bar{\varepsilon}\}=\grave{\varepsilon}$ |  | 'go' (perfective +3 Sg ) |

In verbs whose full stem shape is trisyllabic $C v C v n v$, the truncated imperative is $C v C v^{n}$ or for some stems denasalized $C v C v(\S 3.6 .2 .5)$. In either case, the $n$ reappears when a vowel-initial form is encliticized (§3.6.3.1). This happens when a vowel-initial third-person pronominal PP follows the imperative verb. The reappearance of $n$ blocks $V v$-Contraction. This is the case with imperatives of jàPánà 'descend' and sìdánà 'ascend' (43).

| verb | +3SgHum à | +3 SgNonh è | gloss |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| jà áa $^{n}$ | jà $\mathrm{Pàn}=$ á | jà ${ }^{\text {ààn }=1}$ | 'descend' (imperative) |
| sìdá ${ }^{n}$ | sìdàn = á | sìdàn = í | 'ascend' (imperative) |

The encliticized vowel in jà $1 a ̀ n=$ á and other forms in (43) is H-toned in all examples. This can be attributed either to word-internal tone sandhi, or to Final Tone-Raising, since the 3 Sg proclitic is always immediately followed by a postposition or possessed noun which has the initial L-tone required by a preceding +3 Sg word (44).

| jà २àn $=$ | [í/á | $d \grave{\varepsilon}]$ |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| descend.Imprt | $[3 \mathrm{SgNonh} / 3 \mathrm{SgHum}$ | with $]$ |
| 'Go down with it/with him-or-her!' |  |  |

### 3.6.2.2 Syncope or epenthesis?

Short high vowel $i$ appears in extra-short (clipped) and centralized form in the contexts $C_{-} r v$ and $C_{-} l v(v=$ any vowel). For example, dí 'child' combines with the nominal suffix as dí-rá, which is often heard as [dórá] with a clipped schwa-like vowel.

Where the $C_{-} r v$ or $C_{-} l v$ sequence is internal to a stem, reanalysis as $C r v$ or $C l v$ may be in progress. This seems to be the case with the numeral flā ' 2 ' and the second word in fó?ó glān 'flour from roasted millet grains', among other examples. A brief schwa is sometimes heard, as in [ $f \bar{\jmath} l \bar{a}]$. One could argue that it is epenthetic, but in syllable-by-syllable pronunciation my assistant sometimes syllabifies as fī.lā.

A similar example is fìlí ~ fílí 'threw' (perfective). In the first tonal variant, which follows a +3 Sg object, the first vowel is reduced to a clipped schwa but nonetheless bears the initial L-tone, so one hears [f àlí]. In the monotonal variant fílí, which follows a -3 Sg object, there is no clear schwa: [flí].

### 3.6.2.3 Apocope

Final short vowels in nonmonosyllabic stems and words, especially but not exclusively $\{i u\}$, are deleted under some conditions. In general, Apocope occurs when the relevant word is phrased with a following word, rather than prepausally (or in isolation). In cases where a word that can occur prepausally with the final vowel preserved loses this vowel at lest optionally before any following element beginning with $C V$ (suffix, enclitic, or word), I refer to the final-vowel deletion as Apocope. I prefer to reserve Syncope for vowel-deletion not involving stem- or word-final position (preceding section). However, there is little practical difference between Apocope and Syncope in this language.

Singular nouns and adjectives occur in two basic forms, one with word-final nominal suffix -ra or variant (obligatory prepausally, before the imperfective enclitic, and in perfectives before some object pronouns), the other without (in positions where it is phrased with a following word). My three elicitation frames for singular nouns, designed to bring out lexical tones and segments, involve a) the suffixed form (prepausal) showing the nominal suffix, b) the form before numeral flā 'two', and c) the form as direct object before a verb beginning with L-tone (jié 'saw' with a -3 Sg subject such as 1 Sg ). The second environment flattens an HM noun to HH (§3.8.3.2). The third environment is favorable to Final ToneRaising (which may be disregarded for present purposes). In general, the best choice for lexical representation of segments and tones is the third environment after undoing Final Tone-Raising.
(45a-c) and other data not presented here show that the stem-final vowel is not apocopated after an obstruent, glottal stop, or cluster. Unit phoneme $2 r$ is not a cluster and does allow Apocope (45d), most obviously with 'mango' but also in the suffixed form of 'soil' ( $</$ bó?ró-ró/ by Apocope and $r$-Deletion).
suffixed 'two __s' '(I) saw __' gloss
a. medial obstruent

| fūgū-rā | fūgū | fūgú | 'blind person' |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| sìbì-rá | sìbì | sìbí | 'meat' |

b. medial glottal
mìrì-ná mì?ìn mì?î́n 'person' ( mèp $\left.{ }^{n}{ }^{n}\right)$
c. medial cluster
fúrnó-rà fúrnó fúrnó 'burner'
d． $2 r$ is not a cluster

| mápr̀－rá | mápr̀ | mápr̀～máPrù | ＇mango＇ |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| bópr－ó | bópró | bó？ró | ＇soil＇ |

Some $C v L V$ stems with medial sonorant $L$ do not apocopate in any position（46a－c）in my current data．It is difficult to determine whether Apocope has applied with Cvyi and Cvwu stems，with homorganic semivowel and short vowel（46d）．（46）has all relevant $C v C v$ stems in my working lexicon（excluding flora－fauna）from the first month of fieldwork．
suffixed 'two __s' '(I) saw __' gloss
a．medial nasal

| dínē－nà | díné | dínē | ＇religion，Islam＇ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| dòŋò－ná | dòyò | dòクó | ＇termitary＇ |
| dùnú－nò | dùnú | dùnú | ＇cylindrical tomtom＇ |
| jéné－nà | jéné | jéné | ＇shed，stall＇ |
| jínā－nà | jíná | jínā | ＇devil，djinn＇ |
| kún̄̄－nà | kúnó | kúnō | ＇wooden bowl＇ |
| níní－nà | níní | níní | ＇tongue＇ |
| nร̄nó－nò | nэ̄nó | nэ̄nó | ＇milk＇ |
| són̄̄－nว̀ | sónó | són̄ | ＇maize＇ |
| ～sôn－nò |  |  |  |
| $\eta$ |  |  |  |
| bíní－nà | bígí | bígí | ＇granary＇ |
| céクò－rò | céno | cénò | ＇middle＇ |
| kàクá－nà | kàyá | kàyá | ＇froth，foam＇ |
| kpàyà－ná | kpàyà | kpàyá | ＇soap＇ |
| kpēŋū－n̄ | kpēŋū | kpēnú | ＇dike＇ |
| lōŋá－nà | lōทá | lōná | ＇hourglass tomtom＇ |
| nว̀yว̀－nó | nònò | nòyó | ＇friend＇or＇side＇ |
| tòyゝ̀－nó | tòy | tòyó | ＇cauldron＇ |
| m |  |  |  |
| bòmò－rá | bòmò | bòmó | ＇stomach＇ |
| jàmù－nà | jàmù | jàmú | ＇surname＇ |
| jèmé－nà | jèmé | jèmé | ＇tall basket＇ |
| jōmé－nà | j $\bar{m} \mathrm{~m}$ ¢́ | $j \grave{m}$ ¢́ | ＇bag＇ |
| lāmó－rà | lāmó | lāmó | ＇tax＇（＜Fr．l＇impôt） |
| sōmé－nà | sว̄mé | $s \overline{\text { د̄m }}$ | ＇marrow＇ |
| tàmà－ná | tàmà | tàmá | ＇spear＇ |

b．medial semivowel
síyá－rà síyá síyá＇type，sort＇

| c. medial liquid |  |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 1 |  |  |  |
| fîlā-rà | fílā | fílá | 'Pullo, Fulbe person' |
| mēló-nò | mēlón | mēlón | 'watermelon' |
| yūlō-nā | $y u \bar{l} \bar{o}^{n}$ | $y u \bar{l} \bar{o}^{n}$ | 'couscous steamer' |
| $r$ |  |  |  |
| gbírī-nà | gbírín ${ }^{\text {n }}$ |  | 'wilderness' |
| d. doubtful cases (homorganic yi,wu) |  |  |  |
| yi |  |  |  |
| nàyí-rà | nàyí | nàyí | 'tears (n)' |
| sóyí-ná | sóyín | Sóyî ${ }^{\text {n }}$ | 'strap' |
| gòyì-rá | gòyì | gòyí | 'gravel' |
| kōyī-rā | kōyī | kōyí | 'belly' |
| wu |  |  |  |
| cín Wù-ró | cín ${ }^{n}$ Uù | cín ${ }^{\text {n }}$ ù̀ | 'low termitary' |

In bòmò-rá 'stomach' and làmó-rà 'tax' in (46a), the failure of suffixal $r$ to nasalize suggests recently departed pronunciations with medial nasal-stop cluster, which in the case of 'tax' is consistent with the foreign source.

Apocope does, however, often occur in one or more forms of many other $C v L v$ stems. In those cases where the stem takes the form $\operatorname{CvL}(v)$ in unsuffixed contexts but bisyllabic $C v L-a / s$ or $C v L-L a / s$ in the suffixed form, rather than trisyllabic $C v L v-r a / s$, Apocope has evidently applied in the suffixed form, i.e. /CvLv-ra/ $\rightarrow / \mathrm{CvL}-\mathrm{ra} /$ followed by adjustments to $/ L r /$ (e.g. $/ \mathrm{lr} / \rightarrow l l$ by $r$-Lateralization or $\rightarrow 1$ by $r$-Deletion). In this analysis, the difference between ungeminated $C v L-a / o$ and geminated $C v L-L a / s$ is a choice between two $C C$-cluster processes, both of them fed by Apocope. In 'medication', 'road', and 'ear' in (47a) there is at least an optional shift from -ATR to +ATR in the $C v C$ form; compare $b \bar{o} l$ as compound initial from b̄̄1̄̄ 'hand’ in (137) in §5.1.1.
suffixed 'two __s' '(I) saw __' gloss
a. medial 1

| Apocope before 'two', /l-r/ cluster realized as 1 |  |  |  |
| :---: | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| bél-á | bélé ~ bél | bélé | 'medication' |
| ból-ó | ból | bóló | 'hand' |
| cál-à | cél | cálā | 'road' |
| jùl-ó | jùl | jùló | 'leaf' |
| kól-ó | kól | kóló | 'hill, mountain' |
| kpòl-ó | kpòl | kpòló | 'skin' |
| sòl-ó | sòl | sòló | 'gear' |
| tál-á | tál | tálá | 'sun' |
| tól-ò | tól | tólō | 'ear' |
| wàl-á | wàlà | wàlá | 'urine' |
| wál-à | wál $\sim$ wálá | wálā | 'noise' or 'shout' |


| wùl-á | wùl | wùlá | 'dog' |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| yál-á | yál | yálá | 'egg' or 'bone' |
| yál-à | yál | yálā | 'hole' |

Apocope before 'two', /1-r/ cluster realized as 11

| búl-lá | búl | búlú | 'grub' |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| dál-lá | dál | dálí | 'jar' |
| jél-lá | jél | jélé | 'cowry' |
| kél-lá | kél | kélé | 'courtyard' |
| jîl-là | níl | nílī | 'eyes' |
| pēl-là | pél | pél̄̄ | 'chili pepper' |
| súl-lá | súl | súlú | 'shade' |
| túl-lá | túl | túlúl | 'metal' |
| wál-lá | wál | wálí | 'work (n)' (synonym báárá ) |

no Apocope before 'two', /l-r/ realized as 1
bál-áa bálán bálá ${ }^{n}$ 'balafon (xylophone)'
kál-á kálá kálá 'neighborhood, home'
no Apocope before 'two', /l-r/ cluster realized as 11

| bàl-lán | bàlàn | bàlán | 'Senoufo person' |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| ~ bàl-ná |  |  |  |
| tél-lá | télé | télé | 'oil' |
| wèl-lá | wèlè | wèlé | 'scales; bark' |
| yèl-là | yélé | yélē | 'thorn' |

b. medial $n$

Apocope before 'two', /n-r/ cluster realized as nn

| sán̄-nà | sán | sánū | 'gold' |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| tàn-ná | tàn | tàná | 'totem' |

no Apocope before 'two', /n-r/ cluster realized as nn

| kpén-ná | kpéné | kpéné | 'shin' |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| kún-ná | kúnú | kúnú | 'village' |
| mùn-ná | mùnù | mùnú | 'rice (crop) |

c. medial $m$
no Apocope before 'two'
nóm-nà nóm nómī 'skullcap'
d. medial $r$

Apocope before 'two'

| sér̄-rà | sér | sérī~sér | 'prayer' |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| wár̄-rà | wár | wárī | 'money' |

no Apocope before 'two'

| màr-rá | màrà | màrá | 'chronic malaria' |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| sáŕr-rà | sárá | sárā | 'tobacco' |
| wór̄-rà | wóró | wórō | 'kola nut' |

e. medial Pr

| Apocope before 'two' and sometimes 'see', /ir-r/ realized as Prr |  |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| fápr-à | fá?ŕ | fá?rā | 'cave' |
| kàPr-á | kàpr̀ | kà?rá | 'unmarried woman' |
| mápr̀-rá | má?r̀ | mápì | 'mango' (variant) |
|  | ~ márrù | ~ márrù |  |
| ṡ̀ $2 r-a ́$ | s¢̀ ¢ ¢ | sè̀ e ¢́ | 'porridge woman' |

no Apocope before 'two', /?r-r/ realized as Pr

| wó?r-ó | wó?ró | wó?ró | 'thigh' |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| bé?r-à | bé?r̄̄ | béPré | 'yam'(Dioscorea) |
| kó?̄̄n-nà | kó?ró | kó?rō | 'night' (suffixed form implies |
|  |  |  | /kó?rōn') |
| bà?r-á | bà?rà | bà?rá | 'calabash tomtom' |

A small number of $C v L$ stems appear not to have a lexical final vowel, even in object function. Unless further study brings out a vowel-final object form, these nouns do not require synchronic Apocope.

| suffixed | 'two __s' | '(I) saw __ | gloss |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| jén-ná | jén | jén | 'ax' |
| bûl-là | búl | bûl | 'inheritance' |
| sôl-là | sō1 | sō1 | 'weeding daba' |
| kōl-là | kōl | kōl | 'cotton (crop)' |
| tòn-ó | tòn | tǒn | 'heap' |

### 3.6.2.4 Monophthongization

Monophthongization as a synchronic process applies most clearly in verbs of the monosyllabic diphthongal shape $C o \varepsilon$. These are perfective verb stems like bò $\varepsilon$ ~ bó $\varepsilon$ 'exited', when they are followed by a negative enclitic. The result in this case is bò̀̀=r $\bar{\varepsilon} ? \sim b o ́ o ́=r \bar{\varepsilon} ?$ 'did not exit', or variants bòò = rē? $\sim$ bóó $=r \bar{e} ?$ with optional shift to + ATR vocalism.

Exactly how to formulate Monophthongization is not transparent. One obvious possibility is to take the bivocalic form bòé as input and simply spread the features +back and +rounded from the first mora into the second, in specified morphological positions. An alternative is to argue that the final $\varepsilon$ is clipped, and the resulting /bì/ is then lengthened. A possible argument in favor of the clipping analysis is that the H-tone on $\varepsilon$ in bò $\dot{\varepsilon}$ is also absent from the negative form. One might then compare 'exit' (49a) with other verbs (49b-c).

| positive | negative | gloss |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| a. à bò | à bò̀ $=r \bar{\varepsilon}$ ? | 'he/she did (not) exit' |
|  | $(\sim$ à bòò $=$ rēp $)$ |  |
| b. é kī̆ ${ }^{n}$ | é kiı̀ $=$ nē? | 'it did (not) fly' |
| c. è $^{\text {gun }}$ | $b i ́=1 ́ g u ̀=n \bar{e} ?$ | '(don't) shorten it!' |

One could argue that the final moras of 'exit' (49a) and 'fly' (49b), along with their tones, are clipped before the negative clitic, leaving /bò/ and /ǩ̌/, and that these are lengthened to bò̀ and kì́. Since é kií = nē? demonstrates that a C $\grave{V} \bar{V}$ form is possible on the surface before the negative clitic, it is not obvious why bò would have to drop its final H -tone, unless this were part of a clipping process. On the other hand, (49c) shows that a monomoraic $C \hat{v}$ form is allowable before the negative morpheme, so the motivation for a lengthening process in (49a-b) is unclear.

It is difficult to ascribe alternations like bò $\sim$ bó $\varepsilon$ 'exited' versus negative bò̀̀=r $\bar{\varepsilon} ? \sim$ $b o ́ s=r \bar{\varepsilon} ?$ to regular $v v$-Contraction, since there is no reason why this process should apply only when the negative enclitic is present. There are similar cases that could be handled by
 same way as perfective bò $\dot{\sim}$ ~ bó $\varepsilon$ 'exited' is related to imperfective bóó, so an underlying $/ \mathrm{sa} \varepsilon /$ is plausible. Realization of /aع/ as $\varepsilon \varepsilon$ fits into the stem-plus-proclitic contractions in (41) above.

### 3.6.2.5 Denasalization of final vowel in imperatives

Alternations of the type imperfective dòǹ, imperative $d \grave{ }{ }^{n}$ 'chew' were included in (26) in $\S 3.3 .2$ above and are analysed in $\S 3.6 .3 .1$ below. In some $(C v) C v N v$ stems, the expected nasalization of the final vowel in the imperative is absent or optional. The likely diachronic sequence was imperative ${ }^{*}(\mathrm{Cv}) \mathrm{Cvn} \rightarrow(\mathrm{Cv}) \mathrm{Cv}^{\mathrm{n}}$ (loss of final $*_{\mathrm{n}}$ with subphonemic vocalic nasalization then becoming phonemic) $\rightarrow(C v) C v$ (loss of vocalic nasalization). All relevant stems underwent the first shift (loss of $*_{n}$ ) but only some have (so far) undergone the second shift.

| Pfv +3 Sg | $\mathrm{Ipfv}+3 \mathrm{Sg}$ | Imprt +3 Sg | gloss |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| kòní | kònò | kǒ | 'enlarge' |
| sèbé | sèbénà | sèbé | 'write' (< Jula) |
| là 2 àní | làPànàà | làrá | 'lift with effort' |
| sìdàní | sìdànà | sìdá | 'burn' |
| kùlónì | kùlónò | kùló | 'tie' |
| gìlénī | gìlénà | gìlé | 'hang up' |

There is apparently some inter-informant variation in which stems are affected. I cannot identify a clear predictor (phonological or morphological) for which stems denasalize and which don't.

As shown in the following section, the word-final *n that was lost in these imperatives reappears when a vowel-initial pronominal is encliticized. This prevents VV -Contraction from applying.

### 3.6.3 Processes affecting vowels and consonants

### 3.6.3.1 Final Truncation in imperative verbs

Imperative and imperfective forms of verbs are generally closely related, but the ending of the imperative stem is shorter than than of the imperfective. A vowel or an entire syllable at the end of the imperfective is absent from the imperative.

There are two analytical options: a) the imperfective adds a suffix to the basic stem, which is identical or similar to the imperative; b) the imperative undergoes final truncation. Some examples are in (51). Further data are in chapter 10.

$$
\begin{equation*}
\text { Ipfv }+3 \text { Sg } \quad \text { Imprt }+3 \text { Sg } \quad \text { gloss } \tag{51}
\end{equation*}
$$

a. long versus short vowel

| dè̀ | $d \check{\varepsilon}$ | 'heat (sth)' |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| b̀̀ | $b \bar{o}$ | 'take out' |
| bàà | $b a ̆$ | 'put down' |
| kpààn | kpǎn | 'kill' |
| nènéc̀ | nèné | 'taste (sth)' |
| dòYoyáà | dòYòyá | 'shrink (sth)' |

b. final $N_{V}$ versus zero

| kònò | kǒ | 'expand (sth)' |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| bènà | $b \varepsilon^{n}$ | 'draw water' |
| kànà | kă | 'ruin (sth)' |
| gbàràlánà | gbàłàlá | 'become thin; dry off' |

c. final high vowel

| jì̀ | jǐ | 'see; get' |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| bàlà | bàlì | 'stop' or 'consent' |
| tùwôn | ť̆n |  |
| bìl̀ | bìlí | 'apply hide covering' |

The examples in (51a) have a final long vowel in the imperfective corresponding to a short vowel in the imperative. One could derive either from the other, by a lengthening or a shortening rule.

In (51b), at first sight it looks impossible to derive the imperfective from the imperative, since there is no correlation of final nasalized vowel in the imperative with the final $n v$ syllable in the imperfective; note also 'kill' in (51a) and 'apply hide covering' in (51c). However, the truncated imperatives in (51b), including those like 'expand (sth)' that otherwise end in an oral vowel such as kpǒ 'expand', "grow" a final $n$ when phrased with a following enclicized vowel-initial pronominal (52a). This does not happen with the lexically nasalized vowels in 'kill' or 'apply hide covering' (52b-c).
a. sàá kòn $=\quad\left[\begin{array}{l}a ́ \\ a^{n}\end{array}\right]$
house expand.Imprt [3SgHum Benef]
'Expand-2Sg the house for him/her!' (sàà ; /kǒn à/ ?)
b. klāá $\quad k p \grave{a}^{n}=\quad\left[\begin{array}{ll}{[a} & k \grave{\varepsilon}^{n}\end{array}\right]$ mouse kill.Imprt [3SgHum Benef]
'Kill-2Sg the mouse for him/her!'
$\begin{array}{lllll}\text { c. } & \grave{e} & t \grave{u}^{n}= & {[a} & \left.k \grave{\varepsilon}^{n}\right] \\ & \text { 3SgNonh } & \text { apply.hide.Imprt } & {[3 S g H u m} & \text { Benef] }\end{array}$
'Cover-2Sg it with hide for him/her!'

One option is to argue that the $n$ is the final underlying segment of the imperative, which is probably etymologically correct, see $\S 3.6 .2$. 5 above. In this case, one could simply add a final vowel to the imperative to produce the imperfective. However, it is not clear how the final vowel quality of the imperfective could be predicted from the vocalism of the imperative, either in (51b) or (51c) above. Furthermore, an alternative analysis of kòn á in (52a) above is to transcribe kò = ná, treating the $n$ as added to the encliticized 3Sg pronoun by $n$-Epenthesis §3.6.3.2.

I therefore opt for a subtractive derivation of the imperative from the imperfective. The key is to delete the final vocalic mora (short vowel, or prolongation of a long vowel); this can be followed by Final $n$-Deletion and any other indicated processes affecting consonants that have become word-final.

### 3.6.3.2 $n$-Epenthesis

Third-person object pronouns begin with $n$ when directly preceded by a subject pronoun. The $n$ is not found in other forms of the same pronouns (subject, possessor), and does not occur in object pronouns following nonpronominal subjects, or in clause-initial position (imperatives). Typical forms (omitting some tonal variants) are in (53).

| category | subject etc. | object after pronominal subject |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| 3SgHum | à | ná |
| 3SgNonh | è | ní |
| 3PlHum | àà | náán |
| 3PlNonh | èè ${ }^{n}$ | $n \hat{1}^{n}$ |

The addition of $n$ is accompanied by a shift in vowel quality from $e$ to $i$ in the nonhuman forms. The same shift occurs after future sà (§10.3.2.3), resulting in 3 SgNonh sí=ì and 3PINonh $s i ́=i \grave{i l n}$.

Since the additional $n$ occurs chiefly in pronoun-pronoun combinations, it could be thought of as a linker between pronominal subjects and objects (§3.7.3). For example, $2 \mathrm{Sg} \rightarrow 3 \mathrm{SgHumObj}$ could be transcribed $w \bar{o}=n=i ́ 1$ rather than as $w \bar{o} n i ́$. The latter is the transcription I generally use.

For the possibility that $n$-Epenthesis is at work in imperatives followed by vowel-initial pronominal PPs, see the preceding section.

### 3.7 Clitics and linkers

### 3.7.1 Proclisis and enclisis of pronominals

I refer loosely to the most common pronominal forms, for example 1 Sg mā, human 3 Sg à, and nonhuman 3 Pl è̀ ${ }^{n}$, as "proclitics." However, there is a mismatch between syntax and phonology in this respect. Consider a construction of the type (54), typical of clauseadjunctions.


Syntactically and semantically, each pronoun functions as subject of its clause and it is bracketed with the following verb as shown. This bracketing is also reflected tonally, in that the category of the pronoun $(+3 \mathrm{Sg}$ versus $-3 \mathrm{Sg})$ has a tonal effect on at least the onset of the verb (and sometimes the entire verb).

However, the segmental phonology favors enclisis (in the form of $v v$-contraction) of Pron $_{2}$ to $\mathrm{Vb}_{1}$, across the syntactic brackets. Disregarding the syntactic brackets, the result is (55), where $=$ indicates enclisis (contraction).

$$
\begin{equation*}
\operatorname{Pron}_{1} \mathrm{Vb}_{1}=\operatorname{Pron}_{2} \mathrm{Vb}_{2} \tag{55}
\end{equation*}
$$

This segmental enclisis occurs in all combinations of the type ... X [Pron Y], where X is any word within the same prosodic phrase, and Y is more or less anything (verb, postposition, possessum, discourse particle).

If we include a floating tone T associated with the pronoun and allow T to dock on the following word, we can formalize the input-output relationship as (56).

```
input: ...X] [Pron+T Y...
output: ...X=Pron }\mp@subsup{}{}{T}\textrm{Y}..
```

An example is (57). The floating LH-tones associated with human 3 Sg à as possessor are realized on the possessum to its right. However, /à/ itself contracts with /wèz/, a clause-medial variant of perfective wěē 'go'.

| $m \bar{a}$ | ní | w $\grave{\varepsilon}$ = | [ $¢ \varnothing$ | sàà] | mà |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  |  | wèé | [「à + LH | sàà |  |
| 1Sg | 3SgNonh | go.Pfv | [[3SgHum | house] | on] |

Such phonological enclisis is noticeable only when the pronominal in question begins with a vowel, permitting $v v$-Contraction with the final vowel of the preceding word. Third person pronominals are vowel-initial in most syntactic contexts: human 3 Sg à, human 3 Pl àà ${ }^{n}$, nonhuman 3 Sg è, nonhuman 3 Pl èèn. However, in some positions (chiefly preverbal objects after nonzero subject) these pronominals "grow" an initial $n$ that blocks $v v$-Contraction, see $n$-Epenthesis (§3.6.3.2). Among 1st/2nd person categories, 2Pl $\bar{e} \bar{e}^{n}$ is vocalic, while other categories have consonant-initial forms in nonreflexive contexts ( 1 Sg mā, $2 \mathrm{Sg} w \bar{o}, 1 \mathrm{Pl}$ mù? $\grave{u}^{n}$ ). However, as reflexives within a clause and as as subjects of adjoined clauses, all pronominals have vocalic form (e.g. 1 Sg mā is replaced by reflexive possessor $\bar{a}^{n}$ ).

### 3.7.2 Enclitics

In contrast to the segmental phonological enclisis just described, there are a few independent morphemes that are always encliticized. There is no clitic movement; these are not secondposition (Wackernagel's) enclitics (58).
(58) Syntactic enclitics
a. $=r \bar{E} P($ i.e. $=r \bar{e} P \sim=r \bar{\varepsilon} ?) \quad$ negative (clause-final)
b. $=\bar{E}($ (i.e. $=\bar{e} \sim=\bar{\varepsilon}) \quad$ 'it is' (identificational)
c. $[\mathrm{H}+=\varnothing]$ (i.e. floating H-tone) imperfective or 'be' (hosted by subject)
(58a-b) have vowels that acquires their ATR value by harmonizing with the final vowel of the host word. The third is a floating tone that docks on the host.

### 3.7.3 Linkers

Linkers are morphemes (or phonological modifications) that occur only in specific combinations of the type $\mathrm{X} \mathrm{Y} \rightarrow$ X-Link-Y. In the relevant Jalkunan cases, the linker is structurally associated with the Y element.
$n$-Epenthesis (§3.6.3.2) is a possible instance. It inserts initial $n$ primarily in third person object pronouns, e.g. human 3 Sg ná (versus the usual proclitic à). There is no general epenthesis rule of the type $/ \mathrm{v}_{1} \mathrm{v}_{2} / \rightarrow v_{1}-n-v_{2}$, so taking the nasal to be a morphosyntactically determined linker is reasonable.

Also relevant are processes that occur in words preceding nàà 'here' and dè 'there (definite)', but not other spatiotemporal adverbs such as bá 'over there'. In predicate function ('be here/there'), a linking enclitic $=\bar{n} \sim=$ ì appears on the subject, following the regular 'be' enclitic $/ \mathrm{H}+=\varnothing /$ which consists of an H -tone. The spatial adverb is usually clause-final, followed if at all only by sentence enclitics like negative $=n \bar{E}$ ? If the subject is a singular noun or other NP ending in the nominal suffix (which is required by the 'be' enclitic), the suffix changes its vowel from a (or assimilated $\varsigma$ ) to e (59b). Other subjects, including pronouns like 3 Sg à, show no vocalic change. See §11.2.3.2 for more examples and details.

$$
\begin{array}{lll}
\text { a. } & \text { zàk } \hat{\imath}=\varnothing=n ́ \quad \text { nàà / dè }  \tag{59}\\
& \text { Zaki=be=Link } \quad \text { here / there.Def } \\
& \text { 'Zaki is present here/there-Definite.' }
\end{array}
$$

b. tàgà-ré $=\varnothing=$ ǹ nàà
sheep-Nom=be=Link here
'The sheep-Sg is here.' (< tàgà-rá )
In adverbial as opposed to predicative function, nàà 'here' and dè 'there (definite)' are again clause-final, followed only by sentence enclitics like negative $=n \bar{E}$ ? Preceding verbs and most other elements elements undergo a terminal modification. The final $\varepsilon$ in perfective $C v \varepsilon$ is trimmed off, and vowels shift from -ATR to +ATR. In some cases a short vowel is lengthened, and the tone may be raised to H (erasing the distinction between +3 Sg and -3 Sg tones). Where the modification is phonologically additive, one can transcribe as e.g. sé=é nàà, with the long vowel broken up by the enclitic boundary marker $=$.

|  | input | with adverb | gloss |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | $s \bar{a}$ | sé = é nàà | 'Come here!' |
|  | à $\ \stackrel{\text { ċé }}{ }$ | à sé = é nàà | 'He/she came here.' |
|  | $m a ̄$ sé | $m a ̄ ~ s e ́=e ́ ~ n a ̀ a ̀ ~$ | 'I came here.' |
|  | $m a ́=\varnothing$ sà sáá | $m a ́=\varnothing$ sé = é nàà | 'I will come here.' |
|  | má $=\varnothing$ sé-yá | $m a ́=\varnothing$ sé-yé = é nàà | 'I am coming here.' |
|  |  | bó =ó nàà | 'Exit (=leave) here!' |
|  | à bǫ̀ | à bó =ó nàà | 'He/She exited here.' |
|  | $m a ̄$ bóé | mā bó =ón nàà | 'I exited here.' |
|  | má $=\varnothing$ sà bós | $m a ́=\varnothing$ bó $=$ ó nàà | 'I will exit here.' |


| c. bà | bé = é nàà | 'Fall here!' |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| à bè | à bé = é nàà | 'He/She fell here.' |
| mā béz | $m a \overline{~ b e ́ ~=~ e ́ ~ n a ̀ a ̀ ~}$ | 'I fell here.' |
| má $=\varnothing$ sà bàà | $m a ́=\varnothing$ sà bé $=$ é nàà | 'I will fall here.' |
| d. fidí | fidí nàà | 'Run here!' |
| à fidí | à fídī nàà | 'He/She ran here.' |
| mā fídī | mā fídī nàà | 'I ran here.' |
| má $=\varnothing$ sà fidéè | má $=\varnothing$ sà fídì nàà | 'I will run here.' |
| e. Sìdán | sìdàń nàà | 'Ascend here!' |
| à sìdánī | à sìdán̄ nàà | 'He/She ascended here.' |
| mā sídánī | mā sìdán nàà | 'I ascended here.' |
| má $=\varnothing$ sà sìdànà | má $=\varnothing$ sìdán nàà | 'I will ascend here.' |

In the first item in (60e), sìdàń nàà, I do not take the final nasal on the verb as a linker $=n$. Rather, imperative truncation from /sidana/ to sida ${ }^{n}$ is blocked by nàà 'here'.

If there are postverbal constituents, such as NPs, PPs, or some adverbs, they too are affected by such modifications. Especially noteworthy is linker $=\grave{n}$ on postverbal singular nouns like ' $a /$ the sheep-Sg'.

$$
\begin{equation*}
\text { final element } \quad \text { with adverb } \quad \text { gloss of final element } \tag{61}
\end{equation*}
$$

| a. ... tàgà-rá | ... tàgà-ré = ì nàà | 'a/the sheep-Sg' |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| ... tàgà-rá-à-n̄ | ... tàgà-rá-à-ń nàà | '(the) sheep-Pl' |
| ... jáā-nà | . . . náā-nè = è nàà | '(a/the) woman' |
| $\ldots$.. náā-nà-à-n̄ | ... náā-nà-à-ń nàà | '(the) women' |
| ... mā-n̄ | ... mā-n̄ nàà | 'me' (postverbal) |
| ... à-yà | $\ldots$.. à-yé = é nàà | 'him/her' (postv |
| b. ... [à dè] | ... [à dé = é] nàà | 'with him/her' |
| ... [àà ${ }^{n}$ dé] | $\ldots$.. [àà ${ }^{n}$ dé $=$ é] nàà | 'with them' |
| ... [à mà] | ... [à mé = é] nàà | 'on him/her' |
| ... [àà ${ }^{\text {n }}$ má] | ... [àà ${ }^{n}$ mé = é] nàà | 'on them' |
| ... [è tò] | ... [è tó = ó] nàà | 'in it' |
| ... [èè ${ }^{n}$ tó] | $\ldots$... [è̀ ${ }^{n}$ tó = ó] nàà | 'in them' |
| ... [è dù] | ... [è dú=ú] nàà | 'in it' |
| ... [èè ${ }^{n}$ dú] | $\ldots .$. [èè $\left.{ }^{n} d u ́=u ́\right] ~ n a ̀ a ̀ ~$ | 'in them' |

However, temporal adverbs like $f \hat{1}$ 'today' follow the 'here' or 'there' adverb and so are unaffected.

Clause-final past marker $k \dot{\varepsilon}(\S 10.4)$, the negative enclitic $=r \bar{E} ?$, and experiential perfect dú (§15.1.1.3) trigger vocalic changes on preceding words partially similar to those induced by nàà and dè in (61b). The final $\varepsilon$ in $C v \varepsilon$ is trimmed, and the remaining vowel shifts to
+ATR and is lengthened. However, these morphemes do not raise tones of the preceding word, and they do not occur with a nasal linker $=n$.

### 3.8 Tones

There are three tone levels, $\mathrm{H}[\mathrm{igh}], \mathrm{M}[\mathrm{id}]$, and $\mathrm{L}[\mathrm{ow}]$. Contour tones on single syllables are HL, HM, LH, and MH. Contour tones occur chiefly on word-final syllables, including monosyllabic words, and may reflect Apocope, e.g. /Cv̀Cv́/ $\rightarrow C \check{v} C$. Tone patterns like $C \hat{v} \check{C} C \bar{v}$ rather than $\# C \hat{v} \hat{V} C \hat{v}$ show that monomoraic final $C_{V}$ syllables do not allow contour tones in words where tones can be aligned with moras or syllables.

Using $x$ for any vowel, the tone diacritics used here are those in (62).

| $\dot{x}$ | H |
| :--- | :--- |
| $\grave{x}$ | L |
| $\bar{x}$ | M |
| $\hat{x}$ | HL |
| $\check{x}$ | LH |
| $\grave{x}$ | HM |
| $\tilde{x}$ | MH |

There are no ML- or LM-toned syllables.
My use of $\vec{x}$ (HM, i.e. high falling to mid) is distinct from "correct" IPA usage of this diacritic, where it is "mid falling." This does not create ambiguities in Jalkunan, which lacks ML ("mid falling") syllables.

Where a syllable contains a long vowel, I add a tonal diacritic to each symbol. For example, long aa can appear as level-toned áá (H), àà (L), or āā (M); as bitonal áà (HL), áā (HM), àá (LH), and āá (MH); and as tritonal àâ or equivalently ǎà (LHL).

Where a syllable contains a short vowel and a coda sonorant, I put a tonal diacritic on the sonorant only if its tone differs from that of the vowel. Thus level-toned án, àn, and ān, but contour-toned áǹ, àń, and so forth. The letter $l$ does not lend itself to accents typographically, so a contour tone must be indicated on the vowel: âl, ăl, âl, âl.

### 3.8.1 Lexical tone patterns

### 3.8.1.1 Lexical tone melodies for unsegmentable noun stems

Representations of lexical melodies for nouns can refer to the stem only, or can include the tone of the nominal suffix (-ra or variant), which is present in some syntactic positions. I prefer to show suffixal tone in parentheses, especially where it is lexically determined.

When the stem-melody ends in an L- or M-tone, the suffixal tone is predictable. I indicate this by the double-headed arrow in (63), as in $/ \mathrm{L} / \Rightarrow / \mathrm{L}(\mathrm{H}) /$. Since the suffixal tone is predictable, in most contexts I use the simpler label such as /L/ for the melody. In some
melodies ending in H -tone, there is a lexically specified (i.e. otherwise unpredictable) choice between $(\mathrm{H})$ and $(\mathrm{L})$ as suffixal tone. In these cases, the suffixal tone is always included in the melodic formula, e.g. $/ \mathrm{H}(\mathrm{L}) /$ versus $/ \mathrm{H}(\mathrm{H}) /$.

Stems ending in L-tone are classified in (63). The suffix is H-toned in all cases, so the suffixal tone can be omitted in formulae for the lexical melodies.

| melody | stem | with suffix | gloss |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| stem ends in L-tone |  |  |  |
| /L/ $\Rightarrow / \mathrm{L}(\mathrm{H}) /$ | bù | bù-ró | 'excrement' |
|  | sàà | sàà-rá | 'house' |
|  | bòpò | bòPò-rá | 'ashes' |
|  | jòlokò | jòl̀kj̀-ró | 'chain' |
| $/ \mathrm{HL} / \Rightarrow / \mathrm{HL}(\mathrm{H}) /$ | kápòn | kápòn-ná | 'daba (type)' |
|  | nókò?rò | nókòpr-ó | 'face' |
|  | kpásù?ù ${ }^{\text {a }}$ | kpásùPù-ná | 'week' |
|  | kókóbà 2 à | kókóbà ${ }^{\text {à-rá }}$ | 'leper' |
| $/ \mathrm{LHL} / \Rightarrow / \mathrm{LHL}(\mathrm{H}) /$ | mìsírì | misírì-rá | 'mosque' |
|  | tóóゝ | tòólò-ró | 'okra' |

Stems ending in M-tone are in (64). If the entire stem is M-toned, M-Spreading extends the M-tone to the suffix (64a). However, if the stem ends in a falling HM tone sequence, the suffix is always L-toned (64b). This tone-dropping also applies to following modifiers.
melody stem with suffix gloss
a. stem with level M-tone

| $/ \mathrm{M} / \Rightarrow / \mathrm{M}(\mathrm{M}) /$ | $j u \bar{u}$ | $j \bar{u}-r \bar{o}$ | 'millet' |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | gbāā | $g b a ̄ a ̄-r a ̄$ | 'stick' |
|  | bāPā | $b a ̄ P a ̄-r a ̄$ | 'porridge' |
|  | k $̄ 1 \bar{\jmath} k \overline{0}$ |  | 'talk (n)' |
|  | tūlūkānā | tūlūkān-nā | 'gold' |
|  | dūnīnā | dūnīnā-nā | 'world' |

b. stem ending in falling ...HM-tone (stem must be at least bimoraic)

| $/ \mathrm{HM} / \Rightarrow / \mathrm{HM}(\mathrm{L}) /$ | féē | féē-rà | 'calabash' |
| :---: | :--- | :--- | :--- |
|  | bûl | būl-là | 'inheritance' |
|  | búpū${ }^{n}$ | búPū-nà | 'liver' |
|  | bé?rē | bé?r-à | 'yam' |
|  | múúlī | múūl-là | 'ridge in field' |
|  | nínáPān | nínáPā-nà | 'scorpion' |


| $/ \mathrm{LHM}(\mathrm{L}) / \Rightarrow / \mathrm{MHM}(\mathrm{L}) /$, in two subgroups: |  |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| $C v v C v$ | bèżnī | bèźnī-nà | 'sesame' |
|  | see comment below | ~ bèźn-nā |  |
|  | tòśう | tốlō-rò | 'okra' |
|  | see comment below | ~ tòsl-1ā |  |
| longer | jàbálā | jàbálā-rà | 'white cowpea' |
|  |  | ~ jàbāl-lā |  |
|  | sùkár | sùkář-rà | 'sugar' |
|  | bàné? $\bar{\varepsilon}$ | bànépē-rà | 'fatigue' |
|  | nàRálī | nàrâl-là | 'grain of sand' |
| /MHM/ $\Rightarrow$ | M(L)/ jāngbbálā | jāทgbál-à | 'tail' |

'Sesame' and 'okra', the bisyllabic $C \bar{v} \bar{v} C \bar{v}$ stems in the /LHM(L)/ category above that are subject to optional Syncope before the nominal suffix, would be expected to have unsyncopated $C \hat{v} \bar{v} C \bar{v}-C \grave{v}$ and syncopated $C \bar{v} \bar{v} C-C \grave{v}$, the latter showing that the fall from H to M is audible in the coda to the long first syllable. Unsyncopated $C \hat{V} \dot{V} C \bar{V}-C \grave{V}$ is correct (bèźnīnà, t̀̀ól̄-rò ). However, my assistant preferred syncopated $C \bar{V} \bar{V} C-C \bar{V}$ for these relatively short
 right rather than to the left, for expected \#tòl-là with the M-tone on the onset of the geminated 11 .

Stems ending in H-tone are in (65). Those in (65a) have H-toned suffix, i.e., the final H -tone of the stem spreads into the suffix. They are either level H-toned throughout, or end with two H-toned moras. A terminal $C$ v́L syllable with final sonorant is treated as two syllables on the assumption that it is syncopated from /Cv́Lv́/. The stems in (65b) have L-toned suffix. Some of them are have level H-toned stem proper, indicating that the distinction between $/ \mathrm{H}(\mathrm{H}) /$ and $/ \mathrm{H}(\mathrm{L}) /$ is unpredictable from the tones of the stem itself and must be lexically marked. The other stems in (65b) are contoured, with a single terminal H-toned syllable on the stem, and all such stems appear to require suffixal L-tone.
melody stem with suffix gloss
a. stem with final H-tone, plus H-toned suffix

| $/ \mathrm{H}(\mathrm{H}) /$ | dí | dí-rá | 'child' |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
|  | náá | náá-ná | 'sauce' |
| kól | kól-ó | 'agama lizard' |  |
|  | jó?ó | jó?ó-rá | 'Jula (person)' |

$/ \mathrm{LH}(\mathrm{H}) /($ stems are $C \grave{v} C \bar{v} C \hat{v}$ or syncopated $C \grave{v} C \hat{V} C$ with final sonorant)

| sìnáRán | sìnáPá-ná | 'roselle' |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| màkár | màkár-rá | 'pity (n)' |

b. stem with final H-tone, plus L-toned suffix

| /H(L)/ | $j i^{1}$ | jí-nà | 'market' |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | bé | bé-rà | 'uncle' |
|  | kpésé | kpésé-rà | 'chewstick' |
|  | wáátí | wáátí-rà | 'time' |
|  | héżré | hézré-rà | 'well-being' |
|  | fóróbó | fóróbó-rò | 'ox' |

$/ \mathrm{LH}(\mathrm{L}) /$ (these stems end in a single H -toned $C v$ syllable)

| $/ \mathrm{MH} / \Rightarrow / \mathrm{MH}(\mathrm{L})$ | pòsón | pòsón-nò | 'poison (n)' |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | dò̧òró | dòròró-rò | 'heat' |
|  | nı̀¢òmé |  | 'camel' |
|  | jūfá | jūfá-rà | 'pocket' |
|  | sizzó | Sīzó-rà | 'scissors' |
|  | gbātá | gbātá-rà | 'shed' |
|  | $g b a ̄ a j e^{n}$ | gbāājé-nà | 'tea' |
|  | nāpgó | nāngó-rà | 'garden' |
|  | nāmākú | nāmākú-rò | 'ginger' |
| $/ \mathrm{LMH} / \Rightarrow / \mathrm{LMH}(\mathrm{L})$ | kòlōsí | kòlōsír-rà | 'rosary' |
|  | bòyākí | bòyākí-rà | 'guava' |
| $/ \mathrm{HLH} / \mathrm{l} / \mathrm{HLH}(\mathrm{L})$ | dáykùtó | dápkùtó-rò | 'nape' |
|  | gbélèmá | gbélèmá-nà | 'cassava' |

(66) illustrates the three-way tonal distinction for monosyllabic nouns with a single tone.
(66) type gloss isolation 'two _'s' 'I saw _'

| $/ \mathrm{H}(\mathrm{H}) /$ | 'breast' | cîí-ná | cîín flā | mā cîín jìé |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| $/ \mathrm{M} / \Rightarrow / \mathrm{M}(\mathrm{M}) /$ | 'hair' | cī̄-nā | cīīn flā | mā ciîn jìé |
| $/ \mathrm{L} / \Rightarrow / \mathrm{L}(\mathrm{H}) /$ | 'village' | sàà-rá | sàà flā | mā sàá jié |

For the fieldworker, /L/ melody is most easily distinguished from both $/ \mathrm{H}(\mathrm{H}) /$ and $/ \mathrm{M} /$ by its rising as opposed to level pitch in the isolation form (i.e. by its H-toned suffix). / $\mathrm{M} /$ melody is most easily distinguished from $/ \mathrm{H} /$ by its rising pitch before words beginning in L-tone, represented here by 'I saw _'.
(67) repeats $/ \mathrm{H} /$ 'breast' from the preceding array and adds two new stems.

| type | gloss | isolation | 'two _'s' | 'I saw _' |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
|  |  |  |  |  |
| $/ \mathrm{H}(\mathrm{H}) /$ | 'breast' | cíí-ná | cíín flā | mā cíín jié |
| $/ \mathrm{H}(\mathrm{L}) /$ | 'wall' | kógó-rò | kógó flà | mā kógó jī́ |
| $/ \mathrm{HM} / \Rightarrow / \mathrm{HM}(\mathrm{L}) /$ | 'calabash' | féē-rà | féé flà | mā féē jìé |

$/ \mathrm{H}(\mathrm{H})$ / is most easily distinguished from $/ \mathrm{H}(\mathrm{L}) /$ by the tone of the suffix in the isolation form The two melodies also have similar effects on following modifiers. /HM/ is distinguished
from $/ \mathrm{H}(\mathrm{L})$ / by its stepwise descending pitch in the isolation form. This distinction cannot be made when the stem is monomoraic $C \hat{v}-$, hence suffixed $C \hat{v}-C \hat{v}$. The stem is too short to allow stepwise descending pitch to be audible; there are no $\# C \hat{v} C \grave{v}$ words in Jalkunan. An example is $j i ́ n ~ ' m a r k e t ', ~ s u f f i x e d ~ f o r m ~ j i ́-n a ̀ . ~ T h i s ~ s t e m ~ c o u l d ~ t h e o r e t i c a l l y ~ e i t h e r ~ b e ~ / H(L) / ~ o r ~$ $/ \mathrm{HM} / \Rightarrow / \mathrm{HM}(\mathrm{L}) /$, in the latter case with the M unrealized. For bureaucratic purposes I classify such stems as $/ \mathrm{H}(\mathrm{L}) /$.

### 3.8.1.2 Lexical tone patterns for adjectives and numerals

Adjectives normally do not occur in isolation. Predicate adjectives are really inchoative verbs. Within NP, adjectives follow nouns. In N-Adj combinations, the tones of the adjective are subject to tonal ablaut, making it tricky to determine their lexical tones. The analysis of adjectives and N -Adj combinations in §6.3.1 suggests that adjectives have lexical tone melodies $/ \mathrm{L} /$, $/ \mathrm{M} /, / \mathrm{H}(\mathrm{L}) /$, $/ \mathrm{HM}(\mathrm{L}) /$ (in two varieties), and $/ \mathrm{H} /$. The falling melodies $\mathrm{H}(\mathrm{L}) /$ and $/ \mathrm{HM}(\mathrm{L}) /$ are the most common. In $\S 6.3 .1$ itself I use lowercase, e.g. /l/ and $/ \mathrm{h} /$, for adjectival melodies to more clearly distinguish them from the melodies of the nouns they modify.

Numerals may occur either with or without a modified noun. When they occur alone, their lexical tones are easily heard. Simple (monomorphemic) numerals from ' 2 ' to ' 10 ' have either / $\mathrm{M} /$ or $/ \mathrm{H} /$ melody, while dúlì ' 1 ' is /HL/. wà?à 'thousand' is /L/-toned. In N-Num combinations, numerals are subject to tonal ablaut similar to that affecting adjectives in N -Adj combinations.

### 3.8.1.3 Lexical tones for verbs

For many OV transitive verbs, tones are entirely determined by the grammatical context. Whenever a verb is immediately preceded by an NP (including pronouns), at least its initial tones are determined grammatically. For example, the imperfective of 'hit' is bà?rà after a +3 Sg NP and bá?rá after a -3Sg NP (for definitions see §3.8.3.5).

However, intransitive verbs (including ambi-valent verbs when used intransitively) are protected from the $+3 \mathrm{Sg} /-3 \mathrm{Sg}$ effect by a post-subject imperfective enclitic or future particle. In this context, the lexical melody appears, either /H/ or /L/. For example, sáá 'come' and búlú 'return' have /H/ melodies, while bàà 'fall' and sènà 'sprout' have /L/ melody.

Some stems have a contoured tone, typically /LHL/, as with sìdánà 'ascend' (imperfective). In this case, the tonal effect of the $+3 \mathrm{Sg} /-3 \mathrm{Sg}$ opposition applies to the portion of the stem to the left of the lexical H-tone. For example, the perfective forms of 'ascend' are +3Sg sìdánī and -3Sg sídánī. In -3Sg sídánī, the first two syllables form a H-toned terrace, but the final M-toned syllable is unaffected. Transitives can also have contoured tones with a lexical medial H-tone, which again protects final nonhigh-toned syllables from the $+3 \mathrm{Sg} /-3 \mathrm{Sg}$ effect. For example, 'dunk, submerge' has imperfectives $+3 S g$ tùnúnà and $-3 S g$ túnúnà, with consistently L-toned final syllable.

### 3.8.2 Grammatical tone patterns

### 3.8.2.1 Grammatical tones for verb stems

Verbs occur in several tonal forms depending on the inflectional (TAM) category. In general, the imperfective stem is the most useful indicator of lexical tones. In positive utterances, Intransitive imperfectives immediately follow either the imperfective subject enclitic (floating H-tone) or future sà, and so have only a single tonal form, which is lexically specified and unaffected by the usual +3 Sg versus -3 Sg opposition. Angled brackets as in $<\mathrm{HL}>$ indicate contour tones in a single syllable.
(68) Imperfective tones (noncomposite intransitive verbs, positive clauses)

$$
\text { melody } \quad \text { syllable sequence example (Ipfv) }
$$

a. monosyllabics

| /L/ | L | bàà ‘fall' |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| /H/ | H | sóś 'enter' |

b. bisyllabics

| /L/ | L.L | kànà 'be ruined' |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| /LHL/ | L. $<$ HL> | fidége 'run' |
| /HL/ | H.L | gbógò '(dog) bark' |
| /H/ | H.H | díbé 'be extinguished' |

c. trisyllabics

| /L/ | L.L.L | [absent] |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| /LHL/ | L.H.L | jàPánà ‘descend' |
| /HL/ | H.H.L | télénà 'go straight' |
| /H/ | H.H.H | láPánáá 'wake up' |

d. quadrisyllabics (uncommon)

| /L/ | L.L.L.L | [absent] |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| /LHL/ | L.L.H.L | gbà?àlánà ‘dry off; become thin' |
| /HL/ | H.H.H.L | náPámíá 'err' |
| /H/ | H.H.H.H | [absent] |

Each OV transitive (verb with preverbal objects) has two imperfective tonal forms depending on whether the preceding object is treated as +3 Sg or -3 Sg as defined in §3.8.3.5. It is not entirely obvious that one or the other of these forms is lexically basic, though I incline to take the more widely distributed -3 Sg form. Both are shown in (69) along with a suggested melody in partially formulaic notation with @ as a variable. If the -3 Sg form is taken as lexically primary, the melodies can be rewritten with H replacing @ when not already followed by H.

Imperfective tones (noncomposite transitives)

$$
\begin{array}{ll}
\text { melody } & \text { syllable sequence } \quad \text { example (Ipfv) } \\
& +3 \mathrm{Sg} \quad-3 \mathrm{Sg}
\end{array}
$$

a. monosyllabics

| /@/ | L | H | bàà~ báá 'put down' |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| /@HL/ | $<$ LHL> | $<\mathrm{HL}$ | kòô~ kóó 'count' |

b. bisyllabics

| (@/ | L.L | H.H | bà?rà ~ bá?rá 'hit' |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| (@HL/ | L. $<\mathrm{HL}>$ | $\mathrm{H} .<\mathrm{HL}>$ | dèrég̀ $\sim$ dérég̀ 'squeeze' |

c. trisyllabics

| /@/ | L.L.L | H.H.H | dùtòlà ~ dútóló 'point at' |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| /@HL/ | L.H.L | H.H.L | gìlénà ~ gílénà 'hang up' |
| $/ @ \mathrm{H} /$ | L.L.H | H.H.H | wòlò-báá ~ wóló-báá 'pick out' |

d. quadrisyllabics (uncommon)

| /@/ | L.L.L.L | H.H.H.H | [absent] |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| /@HL/ | L.L.H.L | H.H.H.L | firìkíé~ fíríkíg 'hobble (animal)' |
| " | L.H.H.L | H.H.H.L | dùtó?óǹ̀~ dútó?ónò 'cover with <br> blanket' |
| /@H/ | L.L.L.H | H.H.H.H | [absent] |

Ambi-valent (labile) verbs whose intransitive versions are level-toned /L/ or /H/ (lexical choice) have transitive counterparts with /@/. In other words, the +3 Sg versus -3 Sg opposition completely determines tones of the transitive versions. Monosyllabic examples: bàà 'fall' and transitive bàà ~ báá 'put down', versus sóó 'enter' and transitive sòj̀~sóś 'put in'. Bisyllabic examples: kànà 'be ruined' and transitive kànà ~ káná 'ruin', díbé 'be extinguished' and transitive dìbè~díbé 'extinguish'. A trisyllabic example is láPánáá 'get up' and transitive làłànàà ~ láPánáá 'life, raise'. In all these cases, the lexical melody is observable only in positive intransitives.

### 3.8.2.2 Grammatical tones for noun stems

The lexical tone melodies of nouns are described in §3.8.1.1 above. The tones of the noun may be modified by tone sandhi processes, principally Final Tone-Raising (LL\#L becomes LH\#L, MM\#L becomes MH\#L).

More interestingly, nouns undergo tonal ablaut processes when preceded by a possessor. This takes the form of word-level tone overlays $\{\mathrm{L}(\mathrm{H})\},\{\mathrm{L}(\mathrm{L})$, or $\{\mathrm{H}(\mathrm{H})\}$ on the noun, in some cases even including its nominal suffix when present. The choice between overlays depends on the lexical tone melody and alienable/inalienable status of the possessum and on
the grammatical category of the possessor ( +3 Sg versus -3 Sg ), with M-toned possessors triggering M-Spreading on inalienables only. Details in §6.2.2.

### 3.8.2.3 Grammatical tones for adjectives and numerals

N-Adj and N-Num combinations subject both the noun and the modifier to constructionspecific tonal ablaut patterns. In the modifier, $/ \mathrm{M} /$ and $/ \mathrm{H} /$ melody may drop to L under some conditions. These patterns are discussed in detail in $\S 6.3 .1 .1$ and $\S 6.4 .2$.

### 3.8.3 Tone sandhi processes

### 3.8.3.1 Final Tone-Raising (LL\#L-to-LH\#L, MM\#L-to-MH\#L)

This rule dissimilates a final L - or M -tone to H -tone at a word boundary before an L -tone. It is most systematic when the word on the left has at least two moras with identical non-high tones. Examples are the proclitic pronouns mù̀ù̀ ${ }^{n}(1 \mathrm{Pl})$, $\bar{e} \bar{e}^{n}(2 \mathrm{Pl})$, àà ${ }^{n}$ (human 3 Pl ) and è̀̀ ${ }^{n}$ (nonhuman 3 Pl ), which become mùpún, $\overline{e ́ e ́ e n}^{n}$, àáan , and èén, respectively, before an L-tone.
$C v$ pronouns $1 \mathrm{Sg} m a \bar{a}, 2 \mathrm{Sg} w o ̄$, human 3 Sg à, and nonhuman 3 Sg è, do not undergo FinalTone Raising. Focalized or logophoric 3 Sg à-wò (human) and è-wò (nonhuman) do undergo it, though not consistently. Monomoraic nouns like wù 'head' do undergo it: mā wǔ jî́ 'I saw a/the head'. It does not apply at compound boundaries, see (142a-b), (144b), (146a-b), (150a).

Final Tone-Raising of the LL\#L-to-LH\#L type at noun-adjective boundaries is exemplified by jù?ún gbòpò-rá 'black wrap (garment)' from L-toned nù?ùn 'wrap (n)', see (188) in §6.3.1.1. The only L-initial numerals are forms with wà $1 a ̀$ 'thousand' (§4.6.1.4), so there are few opportunities for N -Num sequences to undergo Final Tone-Raising.

In certain morphological combinations, an expanded version of Final Tone-Raising of the type $\mathrm{L} \# \mathrm{~L}-$ to- $\mathrm{H} \# \mathrm{~L}$ and $\mathrm{M} \# \mathrm{~L}-$ to- $\mathrm{H} \# \mathrm{~L}$ seems to be needed. In this version, a monomoraic $(C) \grave{V}$ morpheme is raised to $(C) v$ before an L-tone regardless of the tones of preceding words. See the discussion of human 3 Sg á and 1 Sg má for expected à and mā in negative present-tense examples in (326b,d) and (327a), and (complicated by $v v$-Contraction) that of $s a ́=a ̀$ and $s i ́=\grave{i}$ (future plus third-person object) in (352c-d).

The expanded version of Final Tone-Raising operates, for example, when future sà contracts with an immediately following third person pronominal (functioning either as preverbal object, or as possessor of a preverbal object), as in $/$ sà à $\rightarrow$ sá $=$ à (human 3 Sg object) and /sà è/ $\rightarrow S_{1}=$ ì (nonhuman 3 Sg object). See (352) in §10.3.2.3 for the full set of relevant forms. The same process likely occurred historically in now-fused $n$-initial third person object forms like human 3 Pl náà and 3 Sg ná in perfective clauses (§3.6.3.2, §4.3.1.3). 3 Pl object náà has its own final L-tone, and 3 Sg object ná is always followed by an L-initial verb. Another relevant case, not involving contraction, is the unexpected tone-raising of 3 Sg à and è to á and é as subjects of some negative clauses (§10.2.3), as with human 3 Sg á in (516a) in §15.1.1.3.

Warning: subject NPs and pronouns of LL or MM type can also have their final mora raised by the floating H-tone of the imperfective and 'be' enclitics. These combinations are homophonous to forms that have undergone Final Tone-Raising. Orthographically, I distinguish the floating H cases by transcribing mù $u^{n}=\varnothing$, etc., showing a segmentally null (but tonally overt) enclitic. This potential ambiguity arises only in subject function.

### 3.8.3.2 H-Leveling

This process accounts for the spreading of H-tone rightward up to a word-boundary. The typical effects are those in (70).
(70) $\mathrm{HM} \# \mathrm{~L} \rightarrow \mathrm{HH} \# \mathrm{~L}$
$\mathrm{HM} \# \mathrm{M} \rightarrow \mathrm{HH} \# \mathrm{M}$

This process is not fully productive. It does not apply to HM-toned nouns before the nominal suffix (tán̄ $\rightarrow$ tán̄-nà 'deep basket', wárī $\rightarrow$ wár̄-rà 'money', búg $\bar{u} \rightarrow$ búgū-rò 'Fulbe hut').
$\mathrm{HM} \# \mathrm{~L} \rightarrow \mathrm{HH} \# \mathrm{~L}$ is probably operative in noun-adjective combinations, e.g. kúr $\bar{u}^{n}$ 'boat' in kúrún gbòPò-rá 'black boat', kúrún kàn-nà 'red boat', and kúrún gbò-rá 'big boat', see $\S 6.3 .1 .1$. It is also probably operative in similar noun-numeral combinations, e.g. kúrún flà 'two boats’ and kúrún sòòlò 'five boats’ §6.4.2.1). /HM/ melody of nouns is automatically $/ \mathrm{HM}(\mathrm{L}) /$, where the L-tone appears on a nominal suffix or, as in these cases, on a postnominal modifier. Elsewhere the modifiers (other than gbò?ò-rá 'black') in the examples just given have non-low tones: kān-nā, gbó-rà, flā, and sóóló.

Also HM-toned are -3 Sg intransitive perfective $C v C V$ verbs like intransitive fídī 'ran' in e.g. mā fídī 'I ran'. The $C v C V$ shape readily allows H-tones in non-perfective forms (imperative, imperfective), so the HM tones of fídī are distinctive. When another word follows, I hear fídī (HM) before H-tone (71a), but fídí (HH) before M- and L-tone (71b-c), as suggested in (70) above.

$$
\begin{array}{llll}
\text { a. } & \text { mā } & \text { fídī } & \text { Sísà }{ }^{n}  \tag{71}\\
& \text { 1Sg run.Pfv } & \text { now } \\
& \text { 'I ran now.' } &
\end{array}
$$

b. mā fídí [kālā làrà-rá]

1Sg run.Pfv [neighborhood place-Nom]
'I ran to the neighborhood.'
c. mā fídí nàà

1 Sg run.Pfv here 'I ran here.'

Singular nouns of $/ \mathrm{HM}(\mathrm{L})$ / melody appear as H -toned before L -initial perfective verbs. This is why nouns of this melody are H-toned in the 'I saw _' context, which I use as part of the
tonal profile of noun stems in my lexical spreadsheet, see (66-67), (86-87), and (91). For singular nouns this frame is $m \bar{a}_{-} j i \varepsilon$.

### 3.8.3.3 M-Spreading, (suffixal) H-Spreading, and Tone-Polarization

Consider the unsuffixed noun and adjective stems, and the corresponding forms with nominal suffix, in (72). The nominal suffix is required in certain morphosyntactic positions (§6.1.2).

```
stem suffixed
gloss
```

a. M-toned noun or adjective

| dāā | dāā-rā | 'mouth' |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| fīl̄ | fīl-lā | 'dust' |
| $k \bar{\jmath} \eta \bar{\jmath} l \overline{1}$ | $k \bar{\eta} \eta \bar{\jmath} l-l \bar{a}$ | 'bohor reedbuck' |
| $k a \overline{n a ̄}$ | kān-nā | 'red' |

b. H-toned noun or adjective suffix is H-toned, /H/ melody
nígí nígí-rá 'leech'
súmáá súmáá-ná 'long'
suffix is L-toned, /H(L)/ melody
kpésé (+L) kpésé-rà 'chewstick'
$g b e ́(+\mathrm{L}) \quad g b e ́-r a ̀ \quad$ 'fresh'
c. L-toned noun or adjective

| kpì̀ | kpì̀-rá | 'baobab leaves' |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| gbòPò | gbòPò-rá | 'black' |

d. contour-toned noun or adjective

| mìsírì | mìsírì-rá | 'mosque' |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| nó?j̀sí $(+\mathrm{L})$ | nó?òsí-rà | 'chameleon' |
| kúmā $(+\mathrm{L})$ | kúmā-nà | 'cold' (adjective) |

It is clear that M-Spreading occurs in (72a), since the M-toned form of the suffix occurs exclusively after M-toned stems. There are no lexical exceptions (i.e. no M-toned stems that do not have an M-toned suffix). The basic formula is $/ \bar{x} y / \rightarrow / \bar{x} \bar{y} /$, where the macron indicates M-tone.

The possible H-Spreading in (72b) is more doubtful. Leaving aside the M-Spreading cases in (72), the nominal suffix appears in H-toned form (-rá etc.) after some H-toned stems and all stems whose final syllable is L-toned. It appears in L-toned form (-rà etc.) after the remaining H -toned stems, and after contour-tones stems ending in H - or M -tone. This ragged distribution makes it difficult to determine the underlying tone of the suffix.

If we opt for underlying L-toned /-rà/, we might argue for an H-Spreading rule to account for nígí-rá and súmáá-ná in (72b), and for a morphologically retricted Tone Polarization rule to account for the H-toned suffix in kpìì-rá and gbò?ò-rá in (72c) and mìsírì-rá in (72d). The formulae would be $/ \#$ x́ y/ $\rightarrow$ \#́x ý (H-Spreading) with \# here indicating stem onset to exclude contour-toned stems, and $/ \ldots$ x̀ ỳ/ $\rightarrow \ldots \grave{x} \dot{y}$ (Tone Polarization), respectively. To account for the remaining cases of L-toned suffix, we could posit a floating L associated lexically with the second subset of H-toned nouns, accounting for kpésé-rà and gbé-rà in (72b), and supplied automatically to stems with final ...LH and final ...HM contours. On this aspect, see Floating L-Docking (§3.8.3.4 below).

That M-Spreading is a fairly productive process is confirmed by the fact that it also applies to several combinations beginning with M-toned pronominal proclitics ( $1 \mathrm{Sg} m \bar{a}, 2 \mathrm{Sg}$ $w \bar{o}$, and $2 \mathrm{Pl} \overline{\mathrm{e}} \bar{e}^{n}$ ). Some of these are listed and exemplified in (73).
(73) M-Spreading involving M-toned pronominal
gloss comparisons
a. $\operatorname{PPs}$ (§8.1-3)
mā $k \bar{\varepsilon}^{n} \quad$ 'for me' mù ${ }^{n}{ }^{n} k \varepsilon^{n}$ 'for us’
à $k \grave{\varepsilon}^{n}$ 'for him/her'
b. inalienable possession (§6.2.2)

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { mā kj̄yī-rā 'my belly' mùpùn }{ }^{n} \text { ḱ́yí-rá 'our belly' } \\
& \text { à kòyì-rá 'his/her belly' } \\
& \text { mā kj̀n-nó ‘my honey' (alienable) }
\end{aligned}
$$

c. negative perfective verbs (§10.3.1.1) $m a \overline{ } b \bar{\varepsilon} \bar{\varepsilon}=r \bar{\varepsilon} ? \quad$ 'I didn't fall' mā bé $\varepsilon$ 'I fell'
mù $\grave{u ̀ n}^{n} b \varepsilon \varepsilon \varepsilon=r \bar{\varepsilon} P$ 'we didn't fall'
à $b \grave{\varepsilon} \grave{\varepsilon}=r \bar{\varepsilon} ?$ 'he/she didn't fall'
d. negative future verbs (§10.3.2.3) mā $s \bar{a}$ sáá $=r \bar{\varepsilon}$ ? 'I won't come' mù ìn $^{n}$ sá sáá $=r \bar{\varepsilon}$ ? 'we won't come' má $=\varnothing$ sà sáá 'I will come'
e. positive plural imperative ( $\S 10.5 .1 .1$ )
$\bar{e} \bar{e}^{n}$ fīdī 'run!-2Pl'
fìdí 'run!-2Sg'
$\bar{e} \bar{e}^{n}$ bí fìdì $=$ rēp 'don't- 2 Pl run!’
f. kú auxiliary (§15.1.1.1)
mā kū jiímàà 'I begin to weep' mù?ùn kú jìímàà 'we begin to weep'
à kú jiímàà 'he/she begins to weep'


Among the combinations where an M -toned pronominal fails to spread the M -tone to a following word are positive perfective S-V intransitives (subject-verb) and S-O-V transitives (subject-object or object-verb), and alienable possessives (possessor-possessum). Some of these are illustrated in the right column of (73) above. The upshot is that M-Spreading, while quite common, is morphosyntactically restricted.

While the syntax of M-Spreading is idiosyncratic, the fact that it occurs with inalienable but not alienable possession may be revealing. Inalienable possession is (cross-linguistically) a tighter morphosyntactic relationship than alienable possession. This suggests that M-Spreading applies to a narrowly circumscribed domain, unlike productive tone-sandhi processes that can apply across a wide range of word and phrase boundaries.

In the same vein, it is interesting that adjectives with lexical $/ \mathrm{M} /$ melody form tonal terraces with a following nominal suffix, and that when the adjective drops to L-tone under the influence of a preceding noun, it brings the tone of the suffix down with it. Thus kānā 'red’ (including brown), suffixed kān-nā (after M-Spreading), and noun-adjective combination kpésé kàn-nà 'red chewstick'. Compare this with a lexically H-toned adjective súmáá 'long': suffixed súmáá-ná, noun-adjective kpésé sùmàà-ná 'long chewstick'. kān-nā drops as a whole to kàn-nà, and therefore remains tonally flat. When súmáá-ná drops, only the stem is affected (sùmàà ), and the tone of the nominal suffix is determined only then, so it is H-toned after the now L-toned adjective, just as it is H-toned after an L-toned noun.

### 3.8.3.4 Floating-L Docking (certain nouns and adjectives)

Some nouns and adjectives have lexical tone melodies that include a final floating L-tone that is realized, if at all, on a suffix or on a following modifier. This is distinct from the tonal effect of +3 Sg versus -3 Sg NPs on following verbs, postpositions, and NPs.
(74) which presents several nouns in their bare form, along with their suffixed forms and their combinations with the M-toned adjective 'red' and the H-toned adjective 'long'.

$$
\begin{array}{lllll} 
& \text { noun } & \text { gloss } & \text { suffixed } & \text { 'red' } \tag{74}
\end{array} \text { 'long’ }
$$

b. kpésé 'chewstick’ kpésé-rà kpésé kàn-nà kpésé sùmàà-nà
kúrū̄ ${ }^{n}$ 'boat' kúrú-nà kúrún $k a ̀ n-n a ̀ ~ k u ́ r u ́ n ~ s u ̀ m a ̀ a ̀-n a ̀ ~$
tòfá 'boat' tòfá-rà tòfá kàn-nà tòfá sùmàà-nà
mōtó 'motorcycle' mōtó-rà mōtó kàn-nà mōtó sùmàà-nà

The stems in (74a) are followed by H-toned suffixes and by modifiers that preserve their nonlow lexical tone melodies, though in the case of 'fish' the adjective is downstepped. The stems in (74b) are followed by L-toned suffixes and modifiers. This suggests that all of the stems in (74) have a following L-toned element that is realized either on the nominal suffix or on the entire following modifier. This is the case for nouns of melodies like $/ \mathrm{H}(\mathrm{L}) /$ and $/ \mathrm{HM}(\mathrm{L}) /$, where the parenthesized L represents the floating L-tone.

For an interesting case of floating M that docks on the following word, see 2 Sg subject /é $+\mathrm{M} /$ and 2 Pl subject /één $+\mathrm{M} /$ in adjoined clauses (§15.2.1.3). These pronominals are elsewhere M-toned ( $\bar{e}, \bar{e} \bar{e}^{n}$ ).

For a floating H -tone as the subject enclitic for imperfective-system verbs and for locational 'be', see §10.3.2.1.

### 3.8.3.5 Tonal effects of +3 Sg versus -3 Sg on following words

A superficially similar, but not lexically specified, process takes the form of a pervasive split between two classes of NPs (including pronouns) that have different tonal effects on a following possessum, verb, postposition, or NP. The two groups are shown in (75). By "regular singular NPs" is meant any NP that would, in isolation, end in the nominal suffix (-ra or variant). This excludes personal names, see (79) below, and some other singular NPs as well as all nonreflexive plural NPs.
nonpronominal NPs pronominals
a. -3 Sg , followed by H -tone (or lexical tone)
plural NPs $1 \mathrm{Pl}, 3 \mathrm{Pl}$ (human and nonhuman)
personal names $\quad 1 \mathrm{Sg}, 2 \mathrm{Sg}$ (if no M-Spreading)
NPs ending in dò 'one' 3 Sg logophoric/focalized -wò
NPs ending in relative mì kpé 'what?'
some WH-interrogative words
reciprocal nù?ùn
b. +3 Sg , followed by L-tone
regular singular NPs $\quad 3 \mathrm{Sg}$ (human and nonhuman) reflexive yé?ré

Omitted from this inventory are $1 \mathrm{Sg}, 2 \mathrm{Sg}$, and 2 Pl pronominals. This is because, in their primary forms, they are M-toned. They trigger M-Spreading onto many following elements (postpositions, inalienable possessums, imperative verbs, etc.). M-Spreading masks their
assignment to one or the other of the two groups in (75). See, for example, the postposition paradigms in chapter 8, the inalienable part of the possessed noun paradigms in §6.2.2.1-3, and the 1 Sg object of imperative in (101a) in §4.3.1.3. However, there are some following elements that do not undergo M-Spreading after $1 \mathrm{Sg}, 2 \mathrm{Sg}$, and 2 Pl pronominals. These elements are alienable possessums and most nonimperative verbs, and they allow us to allocate $1 \mathrm{Sg}, 2 \mathrm{Sg}$, and 2 Pl to the -3 Sg group.

Alienable possessums are only partially germane to the issue at hand, since they undergo tonal ablaut for all possessor categories. The relevant point here is that there is a split between +3 Sg possessors and all other possessors. +3 Sg possessors (nonpronominal and pronominal) control $\{\mathrm{L}(\mathrm{H})\}$ overlay on the possessum. For lexically /L/-melody alienable possessums, this is indistinguishable from the $\{\mathrm{L}(\mathrm{H})\}$ controlled by other possessors (§6.2.2.1). However, lexically M-toned and H-toned alienable possessums appear with the same $\{\mathrm{L}(\mathrm{H})\}$ overlay after 3 Sg possessors, but these possessums have $\{\mathrm{L}(\mathrm{L})\}$ overlay after other possessors (all plurals, plus 1 Sg and 2 Sg ); see $\S 6.2 .2 .2-3$ below. This shows that another part of the tonal morphosyntax makes the division in (76), with some NP-types omitted.

> nonpronominal NPs pronominals
a. -3 Sg , followed by $\{\mathrm{L}(\mathrm{H})\}$ alienable possessum (all lexical tonal types) all plural NPs $\quad 1 \mathrm{Pl}, 2 \mathrm{Pl}, 3 \mathrm{Pl}$ (human and nonhuman) personal names $\quad 1 \mathrm{Sg}, 2 \mathrm{Sg}$
b. +3 Sg , followed by $\{\mathrm{L}(\mathrm{L})\}$ alienable possessum (unless lexically L-toned) regular singular NPs 3 Sg (human and nonhuman)

In other words, here it's basically 3 Sg against everything else $(-3 S g)$, rather than all singulars against all plurals.

Stronger evidence that the split is +3 Sg versus -3 Sg (everything else) comes from combinations of pronominal subjects with perfective intransitive verbs, and from combinations of pronominal objects with transitive verbs. M-Spreading does not apply in these contexts.

The only nonimperative verbs that can directly follow the subject, without an intervening aspectual particle or enclitic, are perfective intransitives. These verbs have a tone pattern beginning LH after a 3 Sg pronoun or regular singular NP, and a tone pattern beginning H after all other pronouns (including 1 Sg and 2 Sg ) and after plural pronouns and NPs, personal names, and singular NPs that cannot end in the nominal suffix. For example, the paradigm of perfective 'fell' in (331) in §10.3.1.2 distinguishes only two tonal forms of the verb, +3 Sg bè $\varepsilon$ and $-3 \mathrm{Sg} b \varepsilon \varepsilon \varepsilon$. A subset of that paradigm, showing the behavior of 1 Sg and 2 Sg , is reproduced here as (77).

| a. -3 Sg |  |
| :---: | :---: |
| $m a ̄ ~ b e ́ \varepsilon ์ ~$ | 'I fell' |
| Wō béé | 'you-Sg fell' |
| $m u ̀ p{ }^{n}{ }^{n}$ bé | 'we fell' |
| $\bar{e} \bar{e}^{n}$ bég | 'you-Pl fell' |
| àà ${ }^{n}$ béé | 'they (human) fell' |
| b. +3 Sg |  |
| à bèz | 'he/she fell' |

The split falls along the same lines in combinations of pronominal objects with transitive verbs. For example, in perfective paradigms of transitives like 'hit', 1 Sg and 2 Sg objects have either M- or L-toned form, depending on the subject category. In either case, the following verb begins with H-tone (báprī 'hit'), as it does when it follows any plural object (pronominal or nonpronominal) or a personal name. By contrast, 3 Sg objects (pronouns and regular singular NPs) require a following verb beginning with L-tone (e.g. bàrrí 'hit'). Subject category does not affect verbal tones in these transitives since the subject is not adjacent to the verb. In (78a), 1 Sg object mā or mà and 2 Sg object wō or wò is followed by H -initial bárrī, the same tonal form used after plural objects in (78b). 3 Sg human object ná and regular singular NPs are followed by L-initial bà?rí (78c). For fuller data and analysis see especially §4.3.1.3.

|  | wō mà bárrī | 'You-Sg hit-Past me.' |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | à mā báprī | 'He/She hit-Past me.' |
|  | mā wò báprī | 'I hit-Past you-Sg.' |
|  | à wō bá?rī | 'He/She hit-Past you-Sg.' |
| b. | $\bar{e} e^{n}$ mù ${ }^{\text {a }}$ n ${ }^{\text {n }}$ báprī | 'You-Pl hit-Past us.' |
|  | à dí-rá-ă ${ }^{\text {n }}$ bá?rī | 'He/She hit-Past the children. |
|  | mā ná bà2rí | 'I hit-Past him/her.' |
|  | à ná bà 2 rí | 'He/She hit-Past him/her.' |
|  | mù̀ùn dí bà rrí | 'We hit-Past the child.' |

The evidence shows that there is a pervasive distinction between +3 Sg and -3 Sg (the latter including 1 Sg and 2 Sg ) with respect to tonal effects on following elements. In those contexts where $1 \mathrm{Sg}, 2 \mathrm{Sg}$, and 2 Pl (the three M -toned pronominals) trigger M-Spreading, this masks the assignment of these three categories to the +3 Sg and -3 Sg division, which in this case approximates a simple singular versus plural opposition.

The category " +3 Sg " in the +3 Sg versus -3 Sg split is limited to NPs based on ordinary nouns (those that can end in the nominal suffix, even when the suffix is absent). It does not include personal names. For example, the personal name bákàrì is followed by the H -toned form of a postposition, as in (79a), and by the H-initial form of an immediately following verb, as in (79b-c). As alienable possessor, bákàrì also imposes $\{\mathrm{L}(\mathrm{L})\}$ rather than $\{\mathrm{L}(\mathrm{H})\}$
tone on a following possessum. In all these respects, bákàrì and other personal names pattern with the -3 Sg side of the split.


The +3 Sg category also does not include NPs ending in specific indefinite dò 'one' (§6.5.2), NPs ending in relative mì (§14.2), or WH-interrogative words (§13.2.2-8). All of these NP types have the same tonal effect on following words as plural NPs and non-3Sg pronouns do.

The tonal effects of +3 Sg but not -3 Sg NPs also affect immediately following NP constituents. This is observed in perfective transitives, where no inflectional morphemes intervene between subject and preverbal object. /H/-melody yí?é 'fish' drops its first syllable after a +3 Sg word, becoming yìé ( 80 a ). /L/-melody wùlà 'dog' is unaffected by a preceding -3 Sg word (80b). The second syllable of wùlá in (80a-b) has undergone Final Tone-Raising before the L-initial verb, which is not relevant to the current discussion.

| a. dí | yìPé / wùlá | dòní |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
|  | child | fish / dog | eat.meat.Pfv

'A/The child ate $\mathrm{a} /$ the fish- $\mathrm{Sg} / \mathrm{dog}$.'
$\begin{array}{lll}\text { b. dí-rá-à }{ }^{n} & \text { yípé / wùlá dòní } \\ \text { child-Nom-Pl } & \text { fish / dog } & \text { eat.meat.Pfv } \\ \text { '(The) children ate a/the fish-Sg/dog.' }\end{array}$

There are four possible ways to describe these tonal effects.
(81) a. $\quad+3 \mathrm{Sg}$ NPs have a floating L-tone that docks on the following word;
b. -3 Sg NPs have a floating H-tone that docks on the following word;
c. both (a) and (b);
d. +3 Sg and -3 Sg are abstract syntactic categories that induce ablaut effects on following words.

Analyses (81a-c) are conventional phonological solutions. Underlying phonological segments and tones are posited. Tone sandhi, in the form of a second floating-tone docking rule, takes care of the surface outputs. Of these three analyses, I favor (81a), since +3 Sg NPs require following L-tone on NPs as well as verbs and postpositions, while -3Sg NPs do not affect following NPs. (81a) also captures the insight that the +3 Sg category is very restricted ( 3 Sg pronouns plus singular NPs that can elsewhere appear with a final nominal suffix), while the -3 Sg category is a collection of disparate NP types.
(81d) is a morphotonological analysis involving categorially controlled ablaut effects. One way to implement it would be to argue that a final suffix that occurs in isolation has been deleted in " +3 Sg " words in the relevant contexts, viz., the (singular) nominal suffix for nouns and the independent suffix for pronouns. The L-tone on the onset of the following word is a vestige of the deleted suffix. This analysis deserves consideration, but it would work better for nouns than for adjectives. One can plausibly argue that the underling form of the singular nominal suffix is L-toned -rà, so if the L-tone survives the segmental deletion of the suffix we have our floating L. Extending this subtractive analysis to pronounsis trickier, see (108) in §4.3.1.4.

### 3.8.3.6 LH-to-L before nonlow tone

Word-final rising-toned $<\mathrm{LH}>$ syllables flatten to L-toned before a nonlow (H or M ) tone. This affects monosyllabic +3 Sg perfective verb forms like mè $\begin{gathered}\text { 'did' (82a). It arguably }\end{gathered}$ affectes +3 Sg dè 'said’ (82b) if we derive it from /dě/.
a. $\bar{e} \bar{e}^{n} \quad\left[\begin{array}{ll}k u ́ & n \varepsilon ̀\end{array}\right] \quad m \grave{\varepsilon} \quad\left[\begin{array}{ll}m a ̄ & k \bar{\varepsilon}^{n}\end{array}\right]$

2 Pl [thing good] do.Pfv [1Sg Benef]
'You-Pl have done a good thing for me.' (2016_02@ 02:08)
b. à dè é!

3SgHum say.Pfv hey!
'He said, "hey!"' (2016_02@ 01:15)

This process occurs frequently to monosyllabic stems before negative enclitic $=r \bar{E} R$, sometimes along with the shift to +ATR. For example, à s $\begin{aligned} & \text { è } \\ & \text { 'he/she came' is negated as à }\end{aligned}$ $s \grave{\varepsilon} \grave{\varepsilon}=r \bar{\varepsilon} p(+\mathrm{ATR}$ variant à sèè $=r \bar{e} ?)$ 'he/she didn't come'.

Bisyllabic L.H-toned stems are not systematically flattened before a nonlow tone. For example, à bùlí 'he/she returned' is negated as à bùlú = rē? 'he/she didn't return', preserving the L.H syllable sequence.

There is likewise no systematic flattening of falling tones before an L-tone. For example, á $=\varnothing$ fidéè 'he/she runs' is negated as á= $\varnothing$ fid $\varepsilon$ è $=r \bar{\varepsilon}$ ? 'he/she doesn't run'. Similarly, mā náà ${ }^{n}$ nágī 'I asked them' is negated as mā náàn nágī $=r \bar{e} ? ~ ' I ~ d i d n ' t ~ a s k ~ t h e m . ' ~$

### 3.8.3.7 Leftward H-Shift

This process converts word-initial LHL to HL in prosodically light $C v(v)$ and $C v C v$ words. It often occurs in conjunction with contraction involving a following element.

Clear examples of this involve $C \grave{v} C \tilde{v}$ verbs (preceded by +3 Sg NPs) when they contract with a following vowel. For example, à bàlí 'he/she accepted' combines with nonhuman 3 Sg postverbal object pronoun ì-yà as shown in (83a). The leftward shift of the H-tone results in word-level homophony with the corresponding -3 Sg (here, human 3 Pl ) form of the verb, which already begins in an H -tone (83b).
a. à
bál=
ì-yà
/bàlí/
3SgHum accept.Pfv Nonh-3Sg
'He/She agreed to/accepted it (proposal or invitation).'
b. àà ${ }^{n} \quad$ bál $=\quad i ̀-y a ̀ ~$
/bálī/
3PlHum accept.Pfv Nonh-3Sg
'They agreed to/accepted it.'

Leftward H-Shift also applies to the first of two verbs in tightly-knit clause adjunctions, where it has the effect of suppressing the usual distinction between $\{\mathrm{LH}\}$ overlay on +3 Sg perfective verbs and the H -initial tones of -3 Sg perfective verbs (§15.2.1.2). For example, the simple main clause è fidí 'it ran' shows the usual $\{\mathrm{LH}\}$ tones for a +3 Sg perfective verb, but the H -tone shifts leftward in the adjunction construction (84a).

| [è | fíd $^{\text {a }}$ ] | [1] | s] |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| [3SgNonh | run.Pfv] | [3SgNonh | enter.Adjn] |
| 'It (=animal) ran in.' (</è fidí/ plus /è só/) |  |  |  |

Again this results in surface neutralization of the tonal distinction between +3 Sg and -3 Sg tonal forms of verbs (è fìdí 'it ran' versus èèn fídī 'they-Nonhuman ran'). As explained in $\S 15.2 .1 .2$, this is not a categorial merger, just an accidental by-product of Leftward H-Shift. The neutralization does not apply to trisyllabics, which are unaffected by Leftward H-Shift; see (523a-b) in §15.2.1.2.

### 3.9 Continuity-marking clause-final M-toned prolongation

The final vowel in the word that ends an intonation group (typically a clause or two closely adjoined clauses, occasionally a smaller phrasal constituent) is prolonged slightly with terminal M-tone to indicate continuity with a following intonation group. The latter usually follows in short order, but hesitation pauses are possible. I indicate this using phonological rather than special intonational notation.

Two examples occur in (85). Postposition 'under' shifts from kúdó ( -3 Sg tonal form) to kúdós at the end of the first intonation group. Postposition dù ( +3 Sg tonal form) shifts to dǔū (i.e. phonetic [dùúū]) at the end of the second group. Examples like dǔū suggest that a final L-toned syllable can sometimes "overshoot" on the high side before finishing at M-tone level.

| B: bon, <br> B: well, | è̀ ${ }^{n}$ <br> 3PINon | $\begin{array}{ll}  & \text { tá?á }  \tag{85}\\ \text { nh } & \text { go.Adjn } \end{array}$ | cíé <br> arrive.Pfv | [ $c$ ciī <br> [[thicket | dò] one] | kúdós], <br> under], |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| èè ${ }^{n}$ | tá?á | sós | [[cíi | ${ }^{\text {'mí] }}$ | dǔū], |  |
| INonh | go.Adjn | enter.Adjn | [[thicket | Dem] | in], |  |
| è̀ ${ }^{n}$ | [jèré | dì-cá-á ${ }^{\text {n }}$ ] | séé |  | ${ }^{\text {jij}}$, |  |
| 3plNonh | [lion ch | child-Nom-Pl] | lie.dow | VblN | see. |  |

B: "Well, they went and arrived under (=at) a thicket (dense forest). They went into that thicket. They saw the lion cubs lying down.' (2016_02@ 01:10))

Continuity intonation is common with clause-final perfectives. Like other verbs, perfectives are frequently final in clauses and therefore in intonation groups. Even in elicitation of simple perfective positive verb forms, my assistant very often produced forms with this feature. This was especially the case for perfectives in final ílike jàmúlīi $\bar{i}) \sim$ jámúlī$(\bar{i})$ 'change', where the M-toned prolongation is shown in parentheses. The prolongation is absent when negative enclitic $=r \bar{E} ?$ is added: $+3 \mathrm{Sg} j a ̀ m u ́ l \bar{l}=r e \bar{?}$ and -3 Sg jámúlī$=r \bar{e} ? ~ ‘ d i d n ’ t ~ c h a n g e ' . ~$

## 4 Nominal, pronominal, and adjectival morphology

### 4.1 Nouns

### 4.1.1 Simple nouns and suffixes

Most nouns are morphologically capable of occurring with or without a nominal suffix ("-Nom" in interlinears). The primary form of the suffix is -ra (tones depend on those of the stem). Both the consonant and the vowel are subject to modification. The tap $r$ becomes $n$ after a nasal syllable (e.g. na or $b a^{n}$ ) or after a nasal consonant (due to Syncope of a final vowel); see r-Nasalization (§3.6.1.1). After $l$, either the tap $r$ either disappears as in wùl-á 'dog', by $r$-Deletion (§3.6.1.3), or it assimilates and becomes $l$, as in dàràl-lá 'mat', by $r$-Lateralization (§3.6.1.2). The vowel $a$ of the suffix optionally assimilates to $\rho$ after a syllable that has a back rounded vowel $\left\{\begin{array}{lll}u & o & 0\end{array}\right\}$, as in kùdò-rá ~ kùdò-ró 'monitor lizard'. Warning: I do not constantly give both -ra and -ro variants, either here or in the lexical spreadsheet, since the two are always interchangeable after back rounded vowels.

As explained more fully in chapter 6 on NP structure, the presence or absence of the nominal suffix, and if present its location, depends on what modifiers occur in the NP, and on the syntactic function (subject, object, possessor, complement of postposition, etc.) of the NP as a whole. For present purposes one can think of the suffixed form as the independent (or absolute) form of the noun, obligatory in citation and other independent forms and occurring under some conditions as clausal subject. The bare (unsuffixed) form is used when the noun is followed by certain modifiers (which in some cases themselves bear the nominal suffix), when the unmodified noun is directly governed by a transitive verb or by a postposition, and under some conditions optionally for subjects.

Nouns with no following modifier may be pluralized by adding plural suffix $-\grave{a}^{n}$ after the nominal suffix (which in this case is obligatory). A further plural nominal suffix -nū is added to $-\grave{a}^{n}$, but only in specific syntactic positions. Thus dí-rá 'child', plural dí-rá-àn or dí-rá-à-nū 'children' depending on syntactic position. dí-rá-à-nū may be apocopated to dí-rá-à- $\bar{n}$, resulting in a final heavy HLM-toned syllable.

### 4.1.1.1 Simple monotonal nouns

Information about lexical tone melodies of nouns is also provided, in a different arrangement, in §3.8.1.1.

Array (86) below presents suffixed, pre-modifier, direct object (before an L-initial verb such as jì' 'saw'), and independent plural forms of simple (uncompounded) nouns of monotonal (noncontoured) melody, i.e. $/ \mathrm{H}(\mathrm{H}) /$, $/ \mathrm{M} /$, and $/ \mathrm{L} /$. For the first two, the suffix adopts the tone of the stem, resulting in $\mathrm{H}-\mathrm{H}$ and $\mathrm{M}-\mathrm{M}$ at word level (86a-b). I specify the first type as $/ \mathrm{H}(\mathrm{H})$ / since, as shown in the following section, there are also some H -toned
stems that take L-toned suffix, hence $/ \mathrm{H}(\mathrm{L}) /$ melody. The hyphens in H-H etc. represent the morpheme boundary in the suffixed forms. An /L/-toned stem, by contrast, has an H-toned suffix (86c). This suggests a tone-polarization process (§3.8.3.3). jì́'saw' triggers Final Tone-Raising on nouns of /L/ and /M/ melodies (§3.8.3.1).

$$
\begin{equation*}
\text { gloss } \quad \text { suffixed modified 'I saw _' plural } \tag{86}
\end{equation*}
$$

a. $\mathrm{H}-\mathrm{H}</ \mathrm{H}(\mathrm{H}) /$

| 'child' | dí-rá | dí | dí | dí-rá-à-nū |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| 'water' | yí-rá | yí | yí | yiír-rá-à-nū |
| 'father' | $j \varepsilon^{n}$-ná | $j \varepsilon^{n}$ | $j \varepsilon^{n}$ | $j \varepsilon^{n}-n a ́-a ̀-n u ̄ ~$ |

b. $\mathrm{M}-\mathrm{M}</ \mathrm{M} /$

| 'stick' | $g b a ̄ a ̄-r a ̄$ | $g b a ̄ a ̄$ | $g b a ̄ a ́ ~$ | $g b a ̄ a ̄-r a ̄-a ̀-n u \bar{u}$ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 'belly' | kōyī-rā | kōyī | kōyí | $k \bar{\jmath} y \overline{1}-r a ̄-a ̀-n u \bar{u}$ |
| 'foot' | $k p \bar{\jmath}-r \bar{\jmath}$ | kp̄ | kpó | $k p \bar{\jmath}-r \overline{\text {-j̀-nu }}$ |
| 'millet' | $j u \bar{u}-r \bar{o}$ | $j \bar{u}$ | jú | $j u \bar{u}-r \bar{o}-\grave{o}-n \bar{u}$ |
| 'hand' | b乞̄l-ऽ | bō1 | bōló | b̄̄l-ṑ̀-nū |


| c. L-H $</ \mathrm{L} /$ |  |  |  |  |
| :---: | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| 'head' | wù-ró | wù | wǔ | wù-ró-ò-nū |
| 'sheep' | tàgà-rá | tàgà | tàgá | tàgà-rá-à-nū |
| 'bull' | yìgì-rá | yìgì | yìgí | yìgò-rá-à-nū |
| 'goat' | bàà-rá | bàà | bàá | bàà-rá-à-nū |
| 'stone' | kùgù-rá | kùgù | kùgú | kùgù-rá-à-nū |
| 'house' | sàà-rá | sàà | sàa | sàà-rá-à-nu |
| 'dog' | wùl-á | wùl | wùlá | wùl-á-à-nu |
| 'mat' | dà?àl-lá | dàPàl(ì) | dà?àlí | dà?àl-lá-à-nū |

### 4.1.1.2 Simple bitonal and tritonal nouns

A fair number of simple (uncompounded) nouns have a contoured melody. Those that take an L-toned nominal suffix are in (87a-f). They include all stems ending in a falling HM contour, but also many stems ending in H-tone. Those that take an H-toned nominal suffix are in ( $87 \mathrm{~g}-\mathrm{i}$ ). They include all stems ending in an L-toned syllable. The biggest problems for analysis are a) the fact that most LH-toned stems have an L-toned suffix but a few have an H-toned suffix ( $87 \mathrm{f}, \mathrm{i}$ ), and b) the fact that some H-toned stems have an L-toned suffix (87b), in contrast to the H-toned stems in the preceding section which have an H-toned suffix (86a).
gloss suffixed modified 'saw X' plural
a. $\mathrm{HM}-\mathrm{L}</ \mathrm{HM} /$

| 'maize’ | són̄̄-nò | sónó | són̄̄ | són̄-nò-ò-nū |
| :--- | :--- | :---: | :--- | :--- |
|  | ~són̄-nò (syncopated) |  |  |  |
| 'woman' | náā-nà | náá | náā | náā-nà-à-nū |
| 'mother' | nîi-nà | níín | níī | niî-nà-à-nū |

b. $\mathrm{H}-\mathrm{L}</ \mathrm{H}(\mathrm{L}) /$
'road' cál-à cél cál-à cál-à-à-nū
c. $\mathrm{MH}-\mathrm{L}</ \mathrm{MH} /$
'shed, stall’ gbātá-rà gbātá gbātá gbātá-rà-à-nū
d. LHM-L </LHM/
'mirror' dùbâl-là dùbál dùbāl dùbāl-là-à-nū
e. MHM-L < /MHM/

| 'man' dîkín-nà | dīkíní | dỉkínī | dīkín̄-nà-à-nū |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
|  | $\sim$ dīkín | $\sim$ dīkín | $(k \sim g$ in all forms $)$ |

f. LH-L $</$ LH $(\mathrm{L}) /$
'wonder (n)' bàrrá-rà bàrrá bàrrá bàrrá-rà-à-mū
g. $\mathrm{HL}-\mathrm{H}</ \mathrm{HL} /$
'hornbill' tákòò-rá tákò tákj̀̀̀ tákj̀̀̀-rá-à-nū
h. LHL-H < /LHL/
'tree sp.' ìkájè-ná ìkájěn ìkájèn ìkájè-ná-à-nū (Alchornea)
i. LH-H $</ \mathrm{LH}(\mathrm{H}) /$
'vulture' yààfóó-rá yààfóó yààfóó yààfóó-rá-à-nū

### 4.1.1.3 Vocatives

A few nouns denoting close relationships have a vocative form distinct from the regular referential form. A 1 Sg possessor is understood but not overt in the vocative. Some of the vocatives also occur in Jula.
referential vocative gloss of vocative

| nòyò | nàà | '(my) friend!' |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| $j \varepsilon^{n}$ | bàá | 'Dad!' |
| níí~ néé | náà | 'Mom!' |
| gū $\bar{u}^{n}$ | kòr-cíé | 'elder brother!' |
| dó?ó | dó?ó-cíé | 'younger brother!' |

Plurals do not seem to be in use, but my assistant did accept nàà-nū 'friends!' as vocative.

### 4.1.1.4 'So-and-so’ (wó-ró )

'So-and-so' forms (French un tel, etc.) are functions over personal names, in vocative and referential function. Example: 'if someone bumps into you, tell him "Hey So-and-So, ...".,

The Jalkunan form is suffixed wó-ró or unsuffixed wó 'So-and-so', plural wó-ró-nǔ ~ wó-ró-ň. This form is also used by hunters to avoid uttering the name of an animal they are hutning or have just killed. An example occurs in text 2016_02@ 01:33.

### 4.2 Derived nominals

### 4.2.1 Diminutive nouns with suffix $-l \bar{i} \sim-n \bar{i}$

A number of nouns have a diminutive derivation with suffix $-l \bar{i} \sim-l i ̀$, nasalizing to $-n \bar{i} \sim-n i ̀$ after a nasal syllable $\left(N v, C v^{n}\right)$. If the input noun has a final sonorant-vowel syllable, the sonorant is deleted and the vowels contract into a long vowel (§3.6.1.4). The vocalism of kpúú-lī 'toe’ is probably analogical to that of búú-lī ‘finger', but a sound-symbolic preference for long high vowels in diminutives may also be at work, as more clearly in wíi-lī 'puppy'. Except for 'rope', the typical tone patterns are either (L)H-toned stem plus M-toned diminutive suffix (from non-L-toned input), or all L-toned (from L-toned input).

Diminutives can denote a small instance of a normally larger entity (89a), a digit as opposed to a hand or foot (89b), or a juvenile human (89c) or animal (89d). A special application to ethnicities is in (89e).
noun gloss diminutive gloss

| a. $g b a \bar{a}$ | 'stick, wood' | gbáá-li | 'twig' |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| mò | 'rope' | mòó-nī | 'rope' |
| jèné | 'shed, booth' | $j \bar{\varepsilon} \bar{\varepsilon}-n \bar{l}$ | 'small shed/booth' |
| b. b $\bar{\square} \overline{0}$ | 'hand' | búú-lī | 'finger' |
| kp亏 | 'foot' | kpúú-1ī | 'toe' |



The Natioro and Wara are two relatively small-population ethnic groups living north and northwest of Blédougou. Their languages, distantly related to the core Gur language family, seem to be closely related. The Natioro are immediately neighbors of Jali people (§1.2.1), while Wara are farther away. Loanwords based on French "Natioro" and "Wara" are also nowadays in use (text 2016_01@04:31).

Diminutives, like other regular nouns, take the nominal suffix in the syntactic positions that require it. For example, gbáá-lī 'twig' plus nominal suffix is gbáā-l-là, plural gbáā-l-là-àn and with final nominal suffix gbáā-l-là-à-nū.

For similar diminutives of adjectives, see $\S 4.5 .2$ below.
A number of nouns that have a diminutive-like ending such as $l \bar{l}$, and that have senses compatible with diminutivity or that are often expressed by diminutives in other languages of the zone, but that do not correspond to an unsuffixed Jalkunan noun known to me, are in (90). The cases in (90a) are the best candidates to be original diminutives. For example, díkáálī 'young girl' resembles díkíí-nī 'young boy' in (89c) above. The possible cases in (90b) are more speculative.
noun gloss
a. díkáálī 'young girl'
jìmíílī 'ant'
kóólī 'kidney'
dūūnī 'wide-mouthed gourd'
cèyálī 'star'
jà?álī 'grain of sand'
bèźnī 'fonio (grain)'
tàfý́lī 'square palm-leaf fan'
wàrálī 'stool'
dàPàlì 'mat'
màràlì 'knife'
b. fìlàní 'twin'
múúlī 'ridge in plowed field'
sàfàlì 'donkey'
tùmùlì 'shea-tree caterpillar' (also tùmùlù )

The $\bar{i} \sim \grave{i}$ of the diminutive suffixis is often deleted by Apocope/Syncope. Representative forms of one diminutive noun are in (91).
(91) diminutive suffixed 'I saw X' 'two X's' gloss
búú-lī búū-l-là mā búū-l jìé búúl flà 'finger'
~ mā búú-lī jìé

### 4.2.2 Verbal nouns

The most clearly nominal derivative of a verb stem has no overt derivational suffix but does allow the nominal suffix (-ra or variant) to be added in those syntactic positions that require the suffixed form. This verbal noun occurs as a complement in certain constructions, either as an independent NP or as part of a PP (92).
(92) a. PP complement of bàlà 'prevent (from)' with postposition mà 'on' (§17.4.2);
b. preverbal NP object of bàlà 'cease (doing)' (§17.4.3);
c. postverbal NP complement of bàlà or sǒjn 'consent (to)' (§17.4.4);
d. postverbal NP complement of nìnáà 'forget (to do)' (§17.4.5);
e. postverbal NP complement of $j$ jón 'be afraid (to do)' (§17.4.6);
f. preverbal NP complement of dàà-sóp̀̀ 'begin' (§17.4.7);
g. preverbal or postverbal NP complement of dá-káán 'finish' (§14.4.8).

The form of this verbal noun depends on the syllable count of the verb. Verbal nouns of nonmonosyllabic verbs are in the lefthand columns of (93), followed by their main indicative forms for comparison. For the intransitives, disregard " +3 Sg " in column headings except perfective.
(93) Nonmonosyllabic verbal nouns

\[

\]

a. intransitive

| fïdì | fîdì-rá | fìdí | fîdéè | fìdí | 'run' |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| sénī | sćn̄-nà | sèní | sènà | $s \bar{\varepsilon}^{n}$ | 'sprout' |
| wálī | wâl-là | wàlí | wálà | wālī | 'shout' |
| sìdánī | sìdán̄-nà | sìdánī | sìdánà | sìdá ${ }^{n}$ | 'ascend' |
| jà $1 a ́ n \overline{1}$ | jà $2 a ́ n$-nà | jà $\mathrm{Qánī}$ | jàránà | jà ${ }^{\text {an }}$ | 'descend' |
| bànย์¢ $\bar{\varepsilon}^{n}$ | bàné? $\bar{\varepsilon}-$ nà | bànéq $\bar{\varepsilon}^{n}$ | bàná?à ${ }^{n}$ | bàn $\bar{\varepsilon} T \bar{\varepsilon}^{n}$ | 'get tired' |


| sètè | sè̀è-rá | sèpé | sà 2 à | ( $\bar{e}) ~ s a \bar{a} \bar{a}$ | 'sit' |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| tìgì | tìgì-rá | tigqí | tìgè | tìgí | 'pound in mortar' |
| tò?rì | tò?r̀-rá | tò2rí | tò?rò | tò?rí | 'sell' |
| kùlónī | kùlón̄-nà | kùlónì | kùlóno | kùló | 'tie' |

For most of the nonmonosyllabic verbs in (93), the verbal noun consists segmentally of the I-stem, as in the perfectives. 'Get tired' and 'sit' do not have I-stems, but their verbal nouns are similar vocalically to their perfectives. Note, however, the shift to + ATR $e$ from $\varepsilon$ in the verbal noun of 'sit'.

Verbal nouns of monosyllabics are illustrated in (94). Here the shift to +ATR is unmistakable. For the intransitives, the lexical tone is clear in the imperfective, but suppressed by the $+3 S g$ versus $-3 S g$ tone opposition in the perfective. 'Come' and 'exit' are H-toned, while 'fall' is L-toned. This lexical tone is reflected also in the verbal noun. For transitives, the verbal noun is L-toned.
(94) Monosyllabic verbal nouns

| VblN |  | Pfv | Ipfv | Imprt | gloss |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| bare | suffixed | $+3 \mathrm{Sg}$ | $+3 \mathrm{Sg}$ | $+3 \mathrm{Sg}$ |  |
| séé | séé-rá | Sع̀É | sáá | $s \bar{a}$ | 'come' |
| bóó | bóó-rá | bว่ย์ | bóó | $b \bar{\square}$ | 'exit (v)' |
| bèè | bèè-rá | bè $\varepsilon$ | bàà | bà | 'fall' |
| mè̀ | mè̀-rá | mèz | màà | mǎ | 'do' |
| sòò | sòò-rá | Sòíli | sò̀ | Sǒ | 'wait for' |

For compound verbal nouns including an incorporated object noun, see §5.1.3.

### 4.2.3 Deadjectival abstractive nouns

Examples (95a-b) gives some examples of nouns denoting abstract adjectival qualities. They appear to be verbal nouns derived from related inchoative verbs ('become ADJ'), rather than from the adjective itself. This is clear in 'length', and 'size', where the adjective and inchoative are suppletive or otherwise sharply distinct in form, and where the verbal noun follows the inchoative. As modifier, 'deep' is a construction based on the inchoative. However, the verbal noun 'redness' does respect the lexical $/ \mathrm{M} /$ melody of the adjective, which is disguised in the inchoative (since intransitive verbs cannot have M-toned imperfectives).

| VblN |  | with suffix | gloss |  | inchoative |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  |  |  |  | Pfv +3 Sg | Ipfv |
| a. | sì̀n ${ }^{n}$-bèè <br> tòò-bèè |  | sòjn ${ }^{n}$-bèè-rá <br> tòò-bèè-rá | 'length, height' 'depth' | súmáá | sj̀̀ ${ }^{n}$-bè $\varepsilon$ <br> tòò-bèz | sı̀̀ ${ }^{n}$-bàà <br> tòò-bàà |
| b. | kóní <br> kānā | kón-ná kān-nā | 'size, bigness' 'redness' | (gbó) <br> kānā | kòní kànàní | kónó <br> kánná <br> (< káníná) |

### 4.2.4 Instrument nominals absent

No derivational mechanism for deriving uncompounded instrument nominals (e.g. 'blower', 'scraper') is known. For compounds specifying the function of an entity, see §5.1.7 below.

### 4.2.5 Simple agentives ( $X$ míîī-nà )

Agentives are occasionally expressed by an uncompounded verbal noun, or other noun denoting an activity type, plus míīi-nà 'person'. For the latter’s $\{\mathrm{HM}(\mathrm{L})\}$ tone overlay, see §5.1.1.
a. klénī
'hunt (n), hunting (n)'
b. klén̄ mínī-nà
'hunter'

However, in practice occupational agentives are normally based on compound verbal nouns, and have senses like 'iron-hitting person' = 'blacksmith'. See §5.1.4 for discussion and examples.

### 4.2.6 Lexically reduplicated noun stems

A large number of noun stems have two or more identical adjacent syllables or two-syllable sequences, and therefore have a reduplicative appearance. In general the unreduplicated base does not occur separately. The $\operatorname{Cv} \operatorname{Cv}(\ldots)$ examples are arguably too short to be clearly analysed by native speakers as reduplicative, so I do not hyphenate them (97a-b). kùkù~ kùgù 'stone' is especially shaky because of the voicing variation in the medial stop, whereas all three $t_{-} t_{-}$examples in (97a) have consistent unvoiced $t$ medially (§3.2.1.8). The stems with bimoraic repetition ( $97 \mathrm{c}-\mathrm{d}$ ) are more obviously reduplicative and I indicate this by hyphenation. These are mostly flora-fauna terms. Some of the bird and insect names are onomatopoeic.

| a. kùkù~ kùgù | 'stone' |
| :---: | :---: |
| nэ̄nó | 'milk' |
| tòtó | 'giant pouched rat' (Cricetomys) |
| tūtú | 'puff adder' (Bitis) |
| tété | 'tick' |
| $s \bar{u}^{n} s \bar{u}^{n}$ | 'spur-winged goose' |
| bíbí | 'winged termite' |
| $b u u^{n} b u^{n}$ | 'red kapok tree' |
|  | 'eagle-owl' |
| b. Sèsèz̀ | 'tree sp.' (Cassia) |
| $1 \varepsilon$ lı́ह́b̄̄ | 'pot-scraper' |
| kàkàlà | 'awned grass sp.' (Loudetia simplex) |
| sésègélē | 'awned grass sp.' (Loudetia togoensis) |
| c. káán ${ }^{\text {n }}$ kàà ${ }^{\text {n }}$ | 'pied crow' |
| pòto-pı̀tó | 'jatropha tree' |
| kilí-kilì | 'piapiac (bird)' |
| ŋméz-ŋmè̀ | 'spur-winged lapwing' |
| mén-mén | 'weaver ant' (Oecophylla) |
| $v \grave{\partial} \grave{j}^{n}-v \overline{\bar{s}} \bar{j}^{n}$ | 'mud-dauber wasp' |
| d. mà á-màrànì | 'bug in maize flowers' |

A different reduplicative pattern is seen in the village name $k \hat{\varepsilon}^{n}-k \varepsilon^{n}-k a^{2}{ }^{n}$ ‘Kinkinkan'.
There are also several compounds in which either the initial or the final has a repetitive segment, either $C V$ (98a) or bisyllabic (98b).
a. dóóñ-pı̀pòr̀̀
b. mén $\varepsilon$-mén $\check{\varepsilon}-j \tilde{\varepsilon}^{n}$
táá-blàrà-blàáá
'thorny tree (Flacourtia)'
'bush sp. (Cochlospermum)'
‘firefly’ (cf. tāā ‘fire’)

A possible case of reduplication with a vocalic change is the initial in níinàà-tù tug gú 'praying mantis'. This type of reduplication, with $a$ in the repetition replacing $i$ or another vowel in the preceding segment, is fairly common in languages of the zone. However, 'praying mantis' and the village name mentioned above, $k \grave{\varepsilon}^{n}-k \varepsilon^{n}-k a ́ a a^{n}$, are the only Jalkunan examples in my current data.

### 4.3 Pronouns

### 4.3.1 Basic personal pronouns

The categories are first, second, human third, and nonhuman third, intersecting with a binary singular/plural distinction. The sections below describe pronominal forms as subjects, objects, possessors, and postpositional complements in nonreflexive contexts. Most such pronominals are proclitic to a following word or phrase.
$1 \mathrm{st} / 2 \mathrm{nd}$ persons have distinct forms in constructions involving coindexation with an antecedent. These are covered later in the grammar. For reflexive possessor, which segmentally merges first person with third human, and second person with third nonhuman, see $\S 18.1 .1$. For the second subject in a same-subject two-clause adjunction, see $\S 15.2 .1 .3$.

### 4.3.1.1 Subject pronominals

Subject pronominal proclitics occur in the same clause-initial position as subject NPs. Nonpronominal NPs are not doubled by (resumptive) 3 Sg or 3 Pl subject pronouns.

Since Jalkunan clause structure is S-infl-O-V-X-Neg, subject pronouns (like other subjects) are immediately followed by the inflectional (aspectual) particles if there is one. If not, as in perfectives and in some negative imperfectives, subject proclitics are immediately followed by the first word of the VP, either an object NP or an intransitive verb. There are some tonal interactions between subject pronouns and following words or inflectional particles. The forms in (99) are basic.
(99) Subject pronouns
regular
a. singular

1st/2nd
$1 \mathrm{Sg} \quad m a \bar{a}$

2Sg wō
3rd
3 SgHum à
3SgNonh è
b. plural

| 1Pl | mù $\grave{u}^{n}$ |
| :--- | :--- |
| 2Pl | $\bar{e} \bar{e}^{n}$ |
| 3PlHum | àà |
| 3PlNonh | èè ${ }^{n}$ |

The plurals in (99b) are bimoraic. They are either M- or L-toned, and in either case they are subject to Final Tone-Raising when followed by an L-tone, resulting in mù?ún ${ }^{n}$, ēén, àán, and èé ${ }^{n}$.

There is one puzzling textual example of human 3 Sg à-mà instead of the usual à, in subject function; see text 2016_04@ 00:23. Nonhuman 3Sg è-yà, normally a postverbalobject form, is attested once in subject function in text 2016_02@ 04:22.

Further detail on these pronominals in combinations where they precede verbs or inflectional particles are given in chapter 10. Forms of repeated subjects in clause adjunctions are presented in $\S 15.2 .1 .3$. The 1 st/2nd person forms are quite different from those given in the present section.

### 4.3.1.2 Possessor pronouns

The possessor pronouns are identical to the subject pronominal proclitics. They precede the possessum, without a genitive morpheme. The paradigm, and examples with alienable 'sickle' and inalienable 'father' are in (100).
(100) Possessor pronouns

|  | possessor | wùròtò-ró ‘sickle’ | jé-ná 'father' |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| a. singular |  |  |  |
| $1 s t / 2 n d$ |  |  |  |
| 1 Sg | $m \bar{a}$ | mā wùròtò-ró | $m \bar{a} j \bar{\varepsilon}-n \bar{a}$ |
| 2 Sg | wō | wō wùròtò-ró | wō $j \bar{\varepsilon}-n \bar{a}$ |
| 3 rd |  |  |  |
| 3 SgHum | à | à wùròtò-ró | à jè-ná |
| 3 SgNonh | è | è wùròtò-ró | è jè-ná |

b. plural

| 1 Pl | mùpù ${ }^{\text {n }}$ | mùpún wùròtò-ró | mù? ${ }^{\text {n }}$ jé-ná |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 2 Pl | $\bar{e} \overline{\mathrm{e}}^{n}$ | $\overline{\text { ēen }}$ wùròtò-ró | $\bar{e} \bar{e}^{n} j \bar{\varepsilon}-n \bar{a}$ |
| 3 PlHum | àà ${ }^{n}$ | àá ${ }^{n}$ wùròtò-ró | àà ${ }^{n} j$ ć-ná |
| 3PlNonh | è̀ ${ }^{n}$ | èén wùròtò-ró | è̀̀ ${ }^{n} j \varepsilon$-ná |

The tones of the possessed noun depend on alienability and on the type $(+3 \mathrm{Sg},-3 \mathrm{Sg}$, M-toned) of the possessor. See $\S 6.2$ for details.

If the possessor of a non-subject NP in a clause is coindexed with the clausemate subject, as in 'I saw my father', the possessor takes reflexive form. See §18.1.1.1 for details and paradigms.

### 4.3.1.3 Preverbal object pronouns

This section describes regular (nonreflexive) objects. When the preverbal object is coindexed with the clausemate subject, the object takes full or reduced reflexive form. For full reflexive objects, including noun yé?ré ~ yé?ré, see §18.1.2. Reduced reflexive objects, not including yéfré ~ yéqré, occur in pseudo-reflexive clauses (§10.1.1.3), which resemble middle (mediopassive) reflexives in Romance languages.

Regular object pronouns resemble subject and possessor pronouns, but show more variation in form, mainly because of morphophonological interaction with preceding subjects or with intervening inflectional particles. This section covers preverbal objects. Postverbal objects (without a postposition) have distinct forms (\$4.3.1.6 below).

Nonreflexive object pronouns occur clause-initially only in singular-addressee positive imperative verbs, which have no overt subject and no overt inflectional morpheme. All pronominal categories except 2 Sg and 2 Pl may occur clause-initially in this context. Examples with singular imperative 'hit!' and clause-initial object pronoun are in (101).
(101) Preverbal object pronouns

| a. singular |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| $1 s t / 2 n d$ |  |  |
| 1 Sg | $m a ̄ ~ b a ̄ p r i ̄$ | 'Hit-2Sg me!' |
| 2Sg | - |  |
| 3 rd |  |  |
| 3 SgHum | à bàprì | 'Hit-2Sg him/her!' |
| 3 SgNonh | è bà 2 rì | 'Hit-2Sg it!' |
| b. plural |  |  |
| 1 Pl | mù̧ùn ${ }^{\text {n }}$ bárrí | 'Hit-2Sg us!' |
| 2P1 | - |  |
| 3PlHum | àà ${ }^{\text {n }}$ báprí | 'Hit-2Sg them (human)!' |
| 3PINonh | èè ${ }^{n}$ báprí | 'Hit-2Sg them (nonhuman)!' |

The object pronouns in (101) are identical to the corresponding subject and possessor pronouns presented in (99) and (100) above. One supposes that $2 \mathrm{Sg} w \bar{o}$ and $2 \mathrm{Pl} \bar{e} \bar{e}^{n}$, with M-tones, would also occur as such clause-initially if they were allowed syntactically. Secondperson objects of imperatives take reflexive form, either abbreviated (§10.1.1.3) for pseudoreflexives or full for ordinary transitives ( $\$ 18.1 .2 .2$ ).

Except in singular-addressee positive imperatives, objects are immediately preceded either by the subject (perfective), by the subject plus imperfective $/ \mathrm{H}+=\varnothing /$ enclitic (present, progressive), by future particle sà, or by prohibitive particle bí. This section focuses on the forms used in perfective-aspect clauses, where no inflectional morpheme intervenes between subject and object. The forms of object pronouns that follow the imperfective enclitic and the particles just mentioned are presented in relevant sections of §10.3.

In (102a), what are elsewhere M-toned 1 Sg and 2 Sg pronouns appear in either M-toned form (after an L-toned pronominal subject) or in L-toned form (after an H- or M-toned pronominal subject). Singular nonpronominal subjects occur either with or without their nominal suffix when followed by a 1 st/2nd person object (102b). All 1st/2nd person object pronouns function as -3 Sg , requiring a tonal form of the verb that at least begins with H -tone. There is no M-Spreading from object pronominal to verb.
(102) $1 \mathrm{Sg} / 2 \mathrm{Sg}$ object pronouns after various subjects (perfective)

|  | 'X hit me' | 'X hit you-Sg' |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| a. pronominal subjects |  |  |
| object L-toned |  |  |
| 1 Sg | - | mā wò báprī |
| 2 Sg | wō mà bá?rī | - |
| 2 Pl | ēe ${ }^{n}$ mà báprī | - |
| object M-toned |  |  |
| 3 SgHum | à mā báPrī | à wō báPrī |
| 3 SgNonh | è mā báprī | è wō bá?rī |
| 1 Pl | - | mù?ù ${ }^{\text {wō báPrī }}$ |
| 3 PlHum | àà ${ }^{n}$ mā báprī | à̀ ${ }^{n}$ wō bá?rī |
| 3PlNonh | è̀èn ${ }^{n}$ ā báprī | è̀ ${ }^{n}$ wō báprī |

b. nonpronominal subjects (<mè $\grave{c}^{n}$, fūgū, jó?ó, sálén ${ }^{n}$ nó?òmé)
'person' mè $\mathrm{\varepsilon}$-ná mà bá?rī mè $\mathrm{\varepsilon}$-ná wò bá?rī
$\sim m \grave{\varepsilon} T \varepsilon^{n}$ mà bá?rī $\sim m \grave{\varepsilon} \varepsilon^{n}$ wò báprī
'blind one'
fūgū-rá mà bá?rī fuugū-rá wò bá?rī
~ fūgú mà báPrī ~ fügú wò bá?rī
'Jula person' jóPó-rá mà bá?rī jóPó-rá wò bá?rī
~jó?ó mà báPrī ~jó?ó wò báPrī
'labeo fish' sálé-ná mà bá?rī sálé-ná wò báprī
$\sim$ sálén mà bá?rī ~sálén wò bá?rī
'camel' nó?ذ̀mé-nà mā bá?rī nóभòmé-nà wō bá?rī
~ nó?ว̀mé mà bá?rī ~nó?̀̀mé wò bá?rī

A historically interesting alternative 2 Sg preverbal object pronominal $\bar{e}$ occurs instead of $w \bar{o}$ in formulaic imprecations, as in álé $=\bar{e} ~ n \varepsilon ́ ~ s o ̀ ~ ' M a y ~ G o d ~ h a v e ~ y o u ~ e n t e r ~(t h e r e) ~ i n ~ g o o d ~$ health!' (§10.5.3.2). This is likely an archaism, showing that $\bar{e}$ was not always restricted to reflexive contexts, as it generally is now. If $2 \mathrm{Sg} \bar{e}$ originally occurred in at least some nonanaphoric contexts, this implies that the currently dominant 2 Sg form wō may be an innovation, at least in preverbal object function. See also the discussion at the end of §4.3.1.7.

In (103) below, 3Sg pronouns are the objects. The verb therefore has L-initial tonal form. After a pronominal subject (103a), these object pronouns begin with a semi-epenthetic linking consonant $n$ not found in the subject pronouns. One could also analyse the nasal as a subjectobject linking morpheme $n$-, but since it only occurs with third person object pronouns it
belongs to the morphology or morphophonology; see $n$-Epenthesis (§3.6.3.2 and §3.7.3). The overt vowel in the nonhuman 3 Sg object is $i$ rather than $e$, hence ní when combined with the linker. This vowel shift is elsewhere associated with vocalic contractions. The H-tones of the 3Sg object pronouns ná (human) and ní (nonhuman), versus the usual L-toned forms of these pronouns (à, è ~ì ), has no transparent explanation, but since the following verb always begins with L-tone one might ascribe it to an expanded and morphologically restricted variant of Final Tone-Raising, of the form L\#L to H\#L (§3.8.3.2). L-toned nà and nì do occur in object function when immediately preceded by the imperfective subject enclitic, see (347b) in §10.3.2.2.

3 Sg subject acting on 3 Sg object (human or nonhuman) has variant forms without the linker $n$. For human 3 Sg subject, á $\varnothing$ optionally substitutes for either à ná (human object) or à ní (nonhuman object). Similarly, for nonhuman 3 Sg subject, é $\varnothing$ optionally replaces either è ná (human object) or è ní (nonhuman object). One could attempt to account for á $\varnothing$ phonologically, by vv-Contraction from /à à/ and from /à è/, and to account for é $\varnothing$ by vv-Contraction from /è à/ and from /è è/. However, we would have expected long-vowel outputs from contraction of two short vowels. Even the vowel quality is problematic in á $\varnothing$ rather than expected é $\varnothing$ or perhaps í $\varnothing$ as output of /à è/, compare /sà è/ $\rightarrow s i ́=i ̀$ (future plus nonhuman 3 Sg ). The H-tones in á $\varnothing$ and é $\varnothing$ are also a problem, but (recalling that a verb following a 3 Sg object must begin with L-tone) we could imagine derivations like /à à Cv̀.../ $\rightarrow$ /à á Cv̀.../ (Final Tone-Raising) $\rightarrow$ /á Cv̀.../ (vv-Contraction combined with Leftward H-Shift), among other possibilities.

Nonpronominal subjects require the nominal suffix (-ra or variant) before 3 Sg pronominal objects (103b), which here occur in $n$-less form /à/ and /è/. There are no variants without the nominal suffix as there are before $1 \mathrm{st} / 2 \mathrm{nd}$ person objects. The final $\mathrm{a} / \mathrm{b}$ of the
 column). The clitic boundary symbol = indexes $V v$-Contraction between subject and object.
(103) 3 Sg object pronouns after various subjects

|  | '__ hit him/her' | '__ hit it' |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| a. pronominal subjects |  |  |
| 1 Sg | mā ná bà rrí $^{\text {a }}$ | mā ní bà 2 rí |
| 2 Sg | wō ná bà ${ }^{\text {rí }}$ | wō ní bà?rí |
| 3 SgHum | à ná bàprí | à ní bà?rí |
|  | ~ á $\varnothing$ bà2rí | ~ á $\varnothing$ bà?rí |
| 3 SgNonh | è ná bàprí | è ní bà?rí |
|  | ~ é Ø bà?rí | ~ é $\varnothing$ bà Prí |
| 1 Pl | mùpùn ná bàprí | mù?ù ${ }^{n}$ ní bà $\mathrm{rí}$ |
| 2 Pl | c̄ē ${ }^{n}$ ná bà ${ }^{\text {arí }}$ | ēē ${ }^{n}$ ní bà ${ }^{\text {a }}$ ní |
| 3 PlHum | àà ${ }^{n}$ ná bà 2 rí | àà ${ }^{n}$ ní bà?rí |
| 3PlNonh | è̀ ${ }^{n}$ ná bàprí | è̀ ${ }^{n}$ ní bà?rí |

b. nonpronominal subjects

| 'person' |  | $m \varepsilon ̀ \backslash \hat{\varepsilon}^{n}-n e ́=$ è bà 2 rí |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 'blind one' | fūgū-rā= à bà2rí | fūgū-rē = è bàprí |
| 'Jula person' | jóPó-rá = à bà?rí | jó?ó-ré = è bà?rí |

3Sg preverbal object forms à and è have optional nasalized variants $\grave{a}^{n}$ and $\grave{e}^{n} \sim \grave{i}^{n}$ in contractions. See, for example, $\mathrm{e}^{n}$ in (301a-b) in §10.1.1.2.

Examples (104a-c) below illustrate the choice between contracted and uncontracted 3Sgon 3 Sg subject-object combinations. The contracted variant (104a) does not specify humanness of object. The fully spelled-out variants (104b-c) do specify it.
a. á
$\varnothing$
bà?rí $3 \mathrm{SgHum} \quad 3 \mathrm{SgObj}$
hit.Pfv
'He-or-she hit-Past him-or-her/it.'
b. à
ná
bà?rí
3SgHum 3SgHumObj hit.Pfv
'He-or-she hit-Past him-or-her.'

| c. à | ní | bà2rí |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
|  | 3 SgHum | 3 SgNonhObj |

'He-or-she hit-Past it.'

There are occasional examples in the recorded texts of what appears to be nonhuman 3 Sg ì-yà and $3 \mathrm{Pl} \grave{i}-y a ̌-\bar{a}^{n}$ in preverbal object position. Singular ì-yà is regular only in postverbal object position, where it contracts with the final vowel of the verb, as in (83a-b) above. It never occurred in preverbal object position in elicitation. Plural $3 \mathrm{Pl} \grave{i}-y a \check{a}-\bar{a}^{n}$ is not otherwise attested. Given how the $e \sim i$ alternation works in pronominal forms, it is likely that the isolation and underlying forms are è-yà and è-yǎ- $\bar{a}^{n}$. However, the initial vowel is lost by contraction in the textual examples. Initial-vowel loss is also fairly common with focal or logophoric 3Sg à-wò (human) and è-wò (nonhuman). The relevant textual examples of preverbal (è-)yà and (è-)yǎ- $\bar{a}^{n}$ are in (105). Perhaps the closest comparison is to uncommon pseudo-reflexive variants, nonhuman 3 Sg è-yàá and nonhuman 3 Pl è̀̀ ${ }^{n}$-yàà nîi1n, see discussion following (307) in §10.1.1.3.
a. èé
(è-)yà bègè
sísàa $\overline{a n}^{n}$
3PlNonh (Nonh-)3SgObj cut.Pfv now
'They cut-Past it now.' (2016_02 @ 04:39)
b. á $\quad \varnothing$-yă-ā $\bar{a}^{n}$ bó dóò
3SgHum Nonh-3Obj-Pl take.out.Adjn also
'She took them (inanimate) out.' (2016_04@ 00:52)

The alternatives are è̀ ${ }^{n} n i ́$ in (105a) and à nîil ${ }^{n}$ in (105b).

Array (106) below presents plural pronominals objects. Epenthetic or linking $n$ occurs in the 3 Pl object forms after pronominal subjects, except that 3 Sg subject on 3 Pl object is optionally expressed as just áà ${ }^{n}</ \mathrm{a}$ àà ${ }^{\mathrm{n}} /$. The n does not occur with 3 Pl object $\bar{e} \overline{\mathrm{e}}^{n} \sim$ è̀ ${ }^{n}$, making it easier to distinguish 2 Pl from nonhuman 3 Pl .
(106) Plural object pronouns after various subjects
'_ hit us' '_ hit you-Pl' '_ hit them' $\quad$ (human/nonhuman)
a. pronominal subjects

| 1Sg | - | $m a \bar{e} \bar{e}^{n}$ báprī | $m a ̄ ~ n a ́ a ̀ ~ n / n i ̂ i ̣ ~ b a ́ p r i ̄ ~$ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 2 Sg | wō mù ${ }^{\text {a }}{ }^{\text {n }}$ báprī | - | Wō náà ${ }^{n} / n i i ̂ c^{n}$ báprī |
| 3 SgHum | à mùPư ${ }^{n}$ báPrī | à è̀ ${ }^{n}$ báprī | à náà ${ }^{\prime} / n i i ̂^{n}$ báprī |
|  |  |  | á (à) $\grave{a}^{n}$ báPrī |
| 3 SgNonh | è mù ${ }^{\text {a }}{ }^{n}$ báPrī | è è̀̀ ${ }^{n}$ báprī | è náà ${ }^{n} / n i 11^{n}$ báprī |
| 1 Pl | - | mù ${ }^{\text {a }}{ }^{n} \bar{e}^{\text {en }}{ }^{n}$ báprī | mù?ù ${ }^{n}$ náà $n / n 1 i^{n}$ báprī |
| 2 Pl | ēén mù ${ }^{\text {n }}{ }^{n}$ bá?rī | - | $\bar{e} \bar{e}^{n}$ náàa $n / n i 1_{1}{ }^{n}$ báPrī |
| 3 PlHum | à̀ ${ }^{n}$ múpún bá?rī | àà ${ }^{n} \bar{e}^{n}{ }^{n}$ báprī | àà ${ }^{n}$ náà ${ }^{n} / n i 110^{n}$ bá?rī |
| 3PINonh | è̀ ${ }^{n}$ múpún ${ }^{\text {b }}$ báPrī | èè ${ }^{n} \bar{e}^{\text {en }}$ n báprī | èè ${ }^{n}$ náà ${ }^{n} / n i 11^{n}$ bá?rī |

b. nonpronominal subjects

| 'person' | $m \varepsilon ̀\rangle \grave{c}^{n}-n a ́$ |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | ... mùpù ${ }^{\text {n }}$ báprī | ... $\bar{e}^{\text {en }}$ n bárrī | $\ldots$...àà $/$ èè ${ }^{n}$ báprī |
| 'blind one' | fūgū-rā... |  |  |
|  | ... mù? ${ }^{n}$ báprī | $\ldots \bar{e}^{\text {en }}$ n bá?rī | $\ldots$.. àà $/$ /è ${ }^{n}$ báprī |
| 'Jula person' | jópó-rá ... |  |  |
|  | ... mù ${ }^{\text {a }}$ báPrī | $\bar{e} \bar{e}^{n}$ bá?rī | .. àà ${ }^{n} / \mathrm{èe}^{n}$ báprī |

With nonpronominal subjects (106b), the nominal suffix on the subject is obligatory before 3 Pl object, optional before 1 Pl and 2 Pl .

In one greeting formula it appears that 2 Pl object $\bar{e} \bar{e}^{n}$ is expanded as $n \bar{i} \bar{\imath}^{n}$, with the same initial $n$ and the same vowel raising as in nonhuman 3 Pl object $n \hat{1}^{n}$.

| kpé | $n \overline{1} \overline{1}^{n}$ | kéē | dè |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| what? | 2P1Obj | affect.Pfv | there.Def |

### 4.3.1.4 Independent, logophoric, and predicative pronouns

The independent forms in (108) can be used in isolation, i.e. not as arguments of a verb. Except for 3 Sg , which has special postverbal object forms, the independent forms also occur as postverbal objects; see $\S 4.3 .1 .6$ below. In $1 \mathrm{Sg} m \bar{a}-\bar{n}$ and $2 \mathrm{Sg} w \bar{o}-\bar{n}$, the nasal suffix is
usually not extendible word-finally, but it keeps the M-tone of the pronominal and it is optionally pronounced syllabically as $-n \bar{u}$.

In the 3 Sg and 3 Pl forms, a distinction is made between independent pronouns, which can have the same functions as e.g. $1 \mathrm{Sg} m \bar{a}-\bar{n}$, and logophoric pronouns, which are coindexed to a quoted author (§18.3). For human 3 Sg , the only difference between independent à-wò-n(ù) and logophoric à-wò is the presence of the final $-n(\grave{u})$ in the independent form. Likewise for nonhuman 3Sg è-wò-n(ù) and logophoric è-wò. For human 3Pl, the independent-pronoun and logophoric are expressed by unrelated forms. Independent àà-ńn àà-nú is just the regular human 3 Pl proclitic àà $^{n}$ plus the independent pronominal suffix -nú. By contrast, the human 3 Pl logophoric is à-mǎā, which has its own independent form à-mǎā-n. Likewise nonhuman 3 Pl independent èè-ń ~ èè-nú, logophoric è-mǎā, and independent logophoric è-mǎā-n̄.
(108) Independent and logophoric pronouns
isolation
a. $1 \mathrm{st} / 2 \mathrm{nd}$

| 1 Sg | $m a \overline{-} \bar{n} \sim m a \bar{a}-n \bar{u}$ | $m \bar{a}-n i ́=\varnothing=i$ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 2 Sg | $w \bar{o}-\bar{n} \sim w \bar{o}-n \bar{u}$ | $w \bar{o}-n i ́=\varnothing=i$ |
| 1 Pl | mù?ú-ń ~ mùpú-nú | $m u ̀ p u ́ n-n i ́=\varnothing=\grave{i}$ |
| 2 Pl | $\bar{e} \bar{e}-\bar{n} \sim \bar{e} \bar{e}-n \bar{u}$ | $\bar{e} \bar{e}^{n}-n i ́=\varnothing=i ̀$ |
| 2 Pl | mǎā-n̄~ mǎā-nū | mǎā-ní $=\varnothing=\grave{i}$ |

b. 3 Sg

3SgHum

| Logo | à-wò |  |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| Indep | à-wò-n $n$ à-wò-nù | à-wò-ní= $\varnothing=\grave{i}$ |
| Logo Indep | $[=$ Indep $]$ |  |
| 3 SgNonh |  |  |
| Logo | è-wò |  |
| Indep | è-wò- $n \sim$ è-wò-nù | è-wò-ní= $\varnothing=\grave{i}$ |
| Logo Indep | $[=$ Indep $]$ |  |

c. 3 Pl

3PlHum

| Logo | à-mǎā |  |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| Indep | àà-ń~ àà-nú | àà-ní $=\varnothing=\grave{1}$ |
| LogoIndep | à-mǎā-n̄ $\sim$ à-mǎā-nu | à-mǎā-ní $=\varnothing=\grave{1}$ |

3PlNonh

| Logo | è-mǎā |  |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| Indep | èè-ń $\sim$ èè-nú | èè-ní $=\varnothing=\grave{i}$ |

è-mǎā-n̄~ è-mǎā-nū
è-mǎā-ní= $\varnothing=i ̀$

### 4.3.1.5 Pronouns with discourse-functional particles

Examples with 'too' (§19.1.2.1) and topical 'as for' (§19.1.1) are in (109) below. For 1st/2nd persons, independent pronouns are not usual in these combinations, so simple proclitic pronouns are used (109a). For third person, there is a choice between pronominal clitics (109b) and emphatic-logophoric pronouns (109c). M-Spreading into the particle occurs after pronouns ending in M-tone.
(109) Pronouns with discourse-functional particles
$\qquad$
oo' 'as for
a. 1st/2nd persons

M-toned pronoun

| 1 Sg | mā dō?ō |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 2 Sg | wō dō?ō | wō kōnī |
| 2 Pl | $\bar{e} \bar{e}^{n}$ dōo ${ }^{\text {co }}$ | $\bar{e} \bar{e}^{n} k \bar{y}^{\prime} n \bar{i}$ |
| M-final pronoun |  |  |
| 2 Pl | mǎā dō?ō | mǎā kōnī |
| other |  |  |
| 1 Pl | mùpù ${ }^{n}$ dópo | mù?ùn ${ }^{\text {k }}$ |

b. simple third person
\{LH\} on particle

| 3SgHum | à dò?ó | à kòní |
| :---: | :--- | :--- |
| 3SgNonh | è dò?ó | è kòní |
| $\{H\}$ on particle |  |  |
| 3PlHum | ààn dóró | ààn kóní |
| 3PlNonh | èè ${ }^{n}$ dóró | èè ${ }^{n}$ kóní |

c. independent/logophoric third person
\{H\} on particle
3SgHum à-wò dó?ó à-wò kóní
3SgNonh è-wò dó?ó è-wò kóní

M-Spreading into particle
3PlHum à-mǎā dō?ō à-mǎā k̄̄nī
3PINonh è-mǎā dō?ōo è-mǎā k $\overline{\text { }} n \overline{1}$

### 4.3.1.6 Postverbal object pronouns

Postverbal NPs in bare form (without postpositions) can function as indirect objects of 'give' or 'show' (§8.1.1) or as postverbal objects of a few verbs like báPrá or màPà 'touch' that do not have preverbal objects (§11.1.2.2). These are the only syntactic functions that allow a
pronoun to occur clause-finally. This is illustrated by a nonpronominal NP in (110a) and a pronoun in (110b).

| a. | à | bà?ŕ |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |$\quad$ dí-rá

b. à

| à | bà?ŕ |
| :--- | :--- |
| 3 SgHum | touch.Pfv |

$m \bar{a}-\bar{n}$
'He/She touched me.'

The forms of pronouns used in this context are in (111). The 3 Sg forms (111c) are unique to this syntactic function. All other pronominal categories use their independent forms. The final $-n$ in (111a-b) is usually not syllabic (-nū etc.) clause-finally.

> Postverbal object pronouns
a. M-toned pronominal

| 1 Sg | $m \bar{a}-\bar{n}$ |
| :--- | :--- |
| 2 Sg | $W \bar{\jmath}-\bar{n}$ |

b. other plural pronominal

1Pl mù?nú-ń
3PlHum àà-ń~ àà-nú
3PINonh èè-ń~ è̀̀-nú
c. special 3 Sg forms

3 SgHum à-yà
$3 S g N o n h \quad i ̀-y a ̀ ~(</ e ̀-y a ̀ /) ~$

Although these forms are often clause-final, they are not changed when they happen to be followed by another element such as the negative enclitic, as with $1 \mathrm{Sg} m \bar{a}-n=n \bar{e} ?$ in (367c).

### 4.3.1.7 2 Pl function of mǎā

The 3Pl logophoric forms à-mǎā (human) and è-mǎā (nonhuman) in (108c) above are suppletive, or at least have an $m$ not present in the usual 3Pl pronominals (human à à ${ }^{n}$, nonhuman è̀̀ ${ }^{n}$ ).

The presumably etymologically related form mǎā, without a vocalic prefix, can optionally replace $2 \mathrm{Pl} \bar{e} \overline{{ }_{e}}{ }^{n}$ in any function (e.g. subject, object, possessor, postpositional complement). This replacement is moderately common in my assistant's speech in elicited utterances as
well as natural speech. mǎā ends in M-tone and is treated like M-toned pronouns (including $2 \mathrm{Pl} \overline{\mathrm{e}} \bar{e}^{n}$ ) with respect to its tonal effect on following words (2d-e).


The relationship between unprefixed variant 2 Pl mǎā and prefixed logophoric or focalized 3 Pl à-mǎā (human) and è-mǎā (nonhuman) raises the issue whether $2 \mathrm{Sg} w \bar{o}$ (invariant for subject position and nearly so in other nonreflexive contexts) might be related to the -wò morpheme in prefeixed 3Sg logophoric or focalized à-wò (human) and è-wò (nonhuman). This historical issue is worth pursuing. The alternative 2 Sg form $\bar{e}$, which is regular in reflexives and (with H-tone) in subjects of adjoined clauses, and which is still used in nonreflexive object function in imprecations, has a better Mandé pedigree than wō does. The semantic-pragmatic basis for a connection between second person on the one hand and third person logophoric-focalized is unknown.

### 4.4 Determiners

There is no definite determiner 'the' distinct from demonstratives. NPs without determiners can be translated as indefinite or definite depending on context. However, significant new (hence indefinite) referents can be introduced into narrative discourse with dò 'one’ (§6.5.2).

### 4.4.1 Demonstratives

### 4.4.1.1 'This/that' (mí)

The all-purpose demonstrative is mí, with nominal suffix mí-nà. The plural is mí-nà-àn, or mí-nà-à-nū with nominal suffix. The use of the nominal suffix is determined by the morphosyntactic environment.

The demonstrative may be used absolutely, i.e. as a one-word NP. It may also follow a noun (and any adjective or numeral). Examples in (113) are with sàà 'house', gbāā 'stick', and yípé 'fish'.

| a.sàà mí-nà <br> gbāā mí-nà <br> yípé mí-nà | 'this house' <br> 'this stick' <br> 'this fish' |
| :--- | :--- |
| b.sàà mí-nà-à-nū <br> gbāā mí-nà-à-nu <br> yípé mí-nà-à-nū | 'these houses' <br> 'these sticks' <br> 'these fish' |

### 4.4.1.2 'This/that' (mî̀ ) plus near- and far-distal particles

An alternative demonstrative form mií occurs in independent (citation) forms and predicates, but not in NPs that have subject, object, or other functions within clauses and phrases. It is followed by nè or downstepped ${ }^{\downarrow} b a ́$. The difference is spatial, with nè unmarked, and ${ }^{\downarrow} b a ́ a$ marked form denoting a second location farther away; compare demonstrative adverbs nàà 'here' and bá 'over there'. The plural of mî̀ is mî́-ín, with a nasalized plural ending similar to plural suffix $-\grave{a}^{n}$ and variants for nouns. (Compare plural relative mì- ${ }^{n}, \S 14.2$ ).

Examples are in (114). sàà 'house' and $g b \bar{a} \bar{a}$ 'stick' undergo Final Tone-Raising before the initial L-tone of miîn.
unmarked distant
a. sàá mì́ nè
gbāá mìí nè
yíqé mî́ nè

| sàá mî̀ bá | 'that house' |
| :---: | :---: |
|  | 'that stick' |
| yî̧é miò 'bá | 'that fish' |

b. sàá mií-īn nè
gbāá mîí-in nè
yíqé mî́-īn $n \grave{\varepsilon}$

| sàá mîi-īn bá | 'those houses' |
| :---: | :---: |
| gbāá mî̀i-ī bá | 'these sticks' |
| yị̂é mîi-i ${ }^{n}$ bá | 'these fish' |

### 4.4.2 Demonstrative adverbs

### 4.4.2.1 Locative adverbs

Some basic spatial adverbs are in (115). Some contain demonstrative mí.
form gloss
a. nàà 'here'
nà mínè 'here' (mí'this')
b. bá 'over there'
c. dè 'there' (discourse-definite)
d. $n \grave{\varepsilon} \quad$ 'here/there' (weak demonstrative, phrase-final)
$n \grave{\varepsilon}(115 \mathrm{~d})$ is default demonstrative adverb, and may be a phonetically attritted offshoot from nàà 'here'. nદ̀ occurs in contexts where the proximate/distant opposition is unnecessary, such as in presentatives (§4.4.3). It occurs in relative head NPs whose relative marker mì is incompatible with demonstrative mí 'this/that' as in (487). Further examples are (471b) and (473c).
nàà 'here' and dè 'there (definite)', but not nè or bá, combine in phonologically irregular ways with some preceding words. As predicates ('be here', 'be there'), nàà and dè require a linking enclitic $=n ́$, as in zàkîll $=\varnothing=$ ń dè 'Zaki is present there'. As nonpredicative adverbs, preceding verbs and some other elements have their final vowel lengthened, raised to H-tone, and/or shifted to +ATR. The tonal and ATR shifts may extend leftward to a nonfinal syllable. These modifications can be analysed as linking enclitics and transcribed with = indexing $v V$-Contraction. Some examples are in (116).

| regular | with dè or nàà | gloss |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| $s \bar{a}$ | sé = é nàà | 'Come here!' |
| $\bar{e}$ wǎ | $\bar{e}$ wè =é dè | 'Go there!' |
| à bùlí | à búl =ú dè | 'He/She went back there' |
| ààn $b u ́ l i ̄$ | ààn búl = ú dè | 'They went back there.' |

The linking enclitics in (116) are difficult to segment since they are modifications of input vowels, but the enclitic notation does warn readers that an extension due to the spatial adverb has occurred.

On linkers see §3.7.3.

### 4.4.2.2 Emphatic and approximative demonstrative adverbs

My assistant indicated that emphatic 'right here' and approximative 'around here' are best expressed using làrà 'place' with a demonstrative. In (117a), "in this place" (perhaps accompanied by a gesture) is more emphatic than the simple adverb nàà 'here'. The assistant phrased '(somewhere) around here' as "here near this place" (117b) or "(somewhere) around this place" (117c).
a. à

| à | $b$ |
| :--- | :--- |
| 3 SgHum |  |

$\begin{array}{ll}b \grave{\varepsilon} & \text { [[làrà } \\ \text { fall.Pfv } & {[[\text { place }}\end{array}$ mí] t̀̀
3SgHum fall.Pfv [[place Dem] in]
'He/She fell right here.'
b. à bè [[làrà mí] gilé nàà $]$
3SgHum fall.Pfv [[place Dem] near here]
'He/She fell (somewhere) around here.'
c. $\left[\begin{array}{lll}{[\text { à̀ }} & \text { fà } \\ \text { fá }\end{array}\right] \quad$ t̀̀ $]$
[[place Dem around] in]
'somewhere around this place (=here)'

Version (117c) is also the basis for a textual example with a relative clause 'the place around which ...' (2016_04@03:45).

### 4.4.3 Presentatives ('here's/there's ...!')

The basic presentative construction is $X=\varnothing$ ǹ 'here's X !' or 'there's X !' Here $/ \mathrm{H}+=\varnothing$ / is the locational 'be' enclitic and $n \grave{\varepsilon}$ is a semantically weak 'there' (default spatial adverb).
a. zàkiī= $\varnothing$ ǹ̀
$\mathrm{Z}=\mathrm{be} \quad$ there
'Here's/There's Zaki.'
b. $\begin{array}{lll}{[d i ́} & \left.k p \varepsilon ́ q r-\mathrm{a}-a^{n}\right]=\varnothing & n \grave{\varepsilon} \\ \text { [child } & \text { small-Nom-Pl]=be } & \text { there } \\ \text { 'Here's the young child!' }\end{array}$

Pronominal forms include má= $\varnothing$ nè 'here I am', á $=\varnothing$ nè 'here/there he/she is!', and àà $^{n}=\varnothing n \grave{\varepsilon}$ 'here/there they are!'

The final nè may combine with a progressive verb, such as 'be coming' and 'be sleeping'. In this case I gloss $/ \mathrm{H}+=\varnothing /$ as imperfective ( $=\mathrm{Ipfv}$ ), as usual before present, future, and progressive verbs, but there is no real difference between locational 'be' and the imperfective enclitic.

| a. | zàkîil $=\varnothing$ | sé-yá | $n \varepsilon ̀$ |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
|  | $\mathrm{Z}=\mathrm{Ipfv}$ | come-Prog | there |
|  | 'Here comes Zaki!' |  |  |

b. mùpún $=\varnothing$ sé-yá nè
$\mathrm{Z}=\mathrm{Ipfv}$ come-Prog there
'Here we come!'
c. á= niì bè-yá nè

3SgHum=Ipfv sleep(n) fall-Prog there
'There he is, sleeping!' (French le voilà qui dort! )

French counterparts voici $X$ and voilà $X$ are derived from the imperative of the verb 'see', and another option in Jalkunan is based on the imperative of 'look (at)', with the focal entity as object.
$\begin{array}{lll}\text { a. } & \text { zàkı̂ı lé } \\ \text { Z } & \text { look.Imprt } \\ & \text { 'Look-2Sg at Zaki (over there)!' }\end{array}$
b. dí lě
child look.Imprt
'Look-2Sg at the child (over there)!'
c. dí-rá-à ${ }^{n}$ lé
child-Nom-pl look.Imprt
'Look-2Sg at the children (over there)!'

### 4.5 Adjectives

For NP exemplars used as modifiers, e.g. 'fresh grass' in the sense 'green', see §5.2.2.

### 4.5.1 Simple adjectives

Adjectives follow nouns. In an N-Adj combination with no following modifiers, the nominal suffix -rà, -nà, etc. is added once, to the adjective. The plural suffix -à ${ }^{n}$ and variants, and in favorable syntactic contexts its own nominal suffix -nū, are added to the "singular" nominal suffix on the adjective.

In N -Adj combinations, tonal changes apply to the noun and/or the adjective. Some of these are predictable tone-sandhi processes. Others are morphosyntactically conditioned ablaut processes. A full discussion of N -Adj combinations and relevant tonal processes is in §6.3.1 below. There I argue that the lexical tones of the adjective are best identified when
they follow L-toned nouns. I assume that analysis here. However, the focus at the moment is on the semantic classes of primary adjectives. This excludes deverbal adjectives, which are presented in §4.5.3 below.

| semantic type | adjective | suffixed | gloss |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| a. color | gbò?ò <br> kānā <br> kpēē | $\begin{aligned} & \text { gbò?ò-rá } \\ & \text { kān-nā } \\ & \text { kp } \bar{e} \bar{e}-r a \bar{a} \end{aligned}$ | 'black' <br> 'red' <br> 'white' |
| b. dimension | gbó <br> kpé?rē <br> gbá?álá <br> súmáá <br> gúnī <br> bákúnī | gbó-rà <br> kpépr-à <br> gbá?álá-rà <br> súmáá-ná <br> gúnī-nà <br> ~gū̄̄-nà <br> bákúnī-nà <br> ~ bákún̄-nà | 'big' <br> 'small' <br> 'thin' <br> 'long' <br> 'short' <br> 'short' |
| c. temperature | táā <br> kúmā | táā-rà <br> kúmā-nà | 'hot' <br> 'cold' |
| d. evaluation | nє́ <br> kítā | né-nà <br> kítā-rà | 'good' <br> 'bad' $(t \sim d)$ |
| e. state | gbé <br> kútō <br> wútō | gbé-rà <br> kútō-rò <br> wútō-rò | 'fresh' <br> 'old' $(t \sim d)$ <br> 'new' $(t \sim d)$ |
| f. miscellaneous | wéé | wéé-rà | 'other' |

### 4.5.2 Diminutive adjectives with $-l \bar{i} \sim-n \bar{i}$

The $-l \bar{i}$ suffix (nasalized variant $-n \bar{i}$ ) that forms nominal diminutives (§4.2.1) is also productive with basic adjectives. The adjective kpíílī 'small' is only attested in diminutive form.

The construction N Adj-Dim, where an otherwise ordinary adjective is morphologically diminutivized, occurs chiefly with flora-fauna species terms that end in a color adjective 'red' (including brown), 'white', or 'black'. The same N-Adj combinations do not usually occur minus the diminutive marking, and in some cases the noun itself is not attested elsewhere. Examples, excluding obvious bahuvrihis (§5.2.1.1), are in (122). Duikers are goat-like wild mammals.
a. kāā-nī 'red-Diminutive' < kānā 'red'
diminutive adjective M-toned

| màPá-màPà kāā-nī | (unattested) | 'red bishop (bird)' |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| wá?rá $k$ āā-nī | wá?rà 'hawk', | 'buzzard' |
| tòòlù kāā-nī | tòòlù 'bat' | 'fruit bat sp. (Micropteropus)' |
| jáá kāā-nī | jáá 'duiker' | 'red-flanked duiker' |

diminutive adjective L-toned
tò?r kàà-nú tò?rò 'frog' 'reed frog'
diminutive adjective $H$-toned
jìmíílī káá-ní jìmíílī 'ant' 'small brown ant sp.'
b. kpēē-lī 'white-Diminutive' < kpēē 'white’
diminutive adjective $M$-toned jáá kpēē-lī jáá ‘duiker’ 'bush duiker'

diminutive adjective M-toned jáá gbō१ō-lū jáá ‘duiker’ 'yellow-backed duiker'

It is also possible for a lexicalized diminutive noun to take a nondiminutive adjective, as in gbáá-lì kānā 'tree spp. (Monotes, Hymenocardia)', literally "stick-Dim red." See also 'small brown ant sp.' at the end of (122a) above.

### 4.5.3 Deverbal adjectives with $t o ́ \sim t \boldsymbol{t}^{n}$

Many adjectival senses have no dedicated primary adjective. Instead, the "adjective" is constructed by adding tó $\sim t \grave{o}^{n}$ (apparently in free variation), or with the nominal suffix tó-ró $\sim$ tó-nó, to a form of the corresponding intransitive (inchoative) verb. The known cases are in (123). The modifying form shown is the surface form after $s \varepsilon^{n}$ 'thing', representing nouns that have a final floating L (cf. suffixed sé-nà 'thing').

```
verb (Ipfv) after s\mp@subsup{\varepsilon}{}{n}}(+\textrm{L}) 'thing' glos
```

a. modifying form of verb ends in $i$ (or zero after Syncope)

| bàPàlánà | bàPàlán 'tó-ró | 'skinny' |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| díá, jàà | dì tó-ró | 'sweet' |
| féźnà | fèénì tó-ró | 'full' |
| kónó | kòn tó-ró | 'fat; wide' |
| nธ์? ${ }^{\text {n }}$ | nù ${ }^{\text {un }}$ tó-ró | 'smooth; soft' |
| nùnò | пùnì tó-ró | 'sour' |


| nî́énáá | jìrèn(ì) tó-ró | 'wet' |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| tòlo | tòl-tóró | 'rotten' |

b. modifying form of verb ends in ee

| cáá | cèè tó-ró | 'ripe (and hard)' |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| $d \grave{\varepsilon}$ ¢̀ | dèè tó-ró | 'hot' |
| gbàà | gbèè tó-ró | 'hard; difficult' |
| fyénćè | fyènéé 'tó-ró | 'weak; lightweight' |
| júgúyáà | jùgùyée 'tó-ró | 'nasty' |
| compositive verbs with -bàà |  |  |
| fòPò-bàà | fòPò-bèè tó-ró | 'distant' |
| kùdò-bàà | kùdò-bèè tó-ró | 'heavy' |
| nè̇̇-bàà | nè̇èbèè tó-ró | 'bitter' |
| tòò-bàà | tòò-bèè tó-ró | 'deep' |

c. modifying form of verb ends in low or back vowel

| mòô | mòò tó-ró | 'cooked' |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| kàPáá | kà $a ̀ ~ t o ́-r o ́ ~$ | 'coarse' |

The vocalism of the forms of the verb before tó-ró has a mix of I-stem and shift to +ATR, similar to verbal nouns (§4.2.2). 'Coarse’ (123c) does not shift to +ATR, perhaps because the verb is prosodically heavy ( CaCaa ).

In N -Adj sequences, nouns of $/ \mathrm{H} /$ and $/ \mathrm{L} /$ melodies require adjectival forms beginning with H -tone, replacing the L-tone in the forms shown: (yííé/yìgì) kúdó-béé tó-ró '(fish/cow) heavy', etc. Nouns of $/ \mathrm{M} /$ melody spread the M -tone into the modifying form: klāā kūd $\overline{\bar{c}}-b \bar{e} \bar{e}$ t̄̄-rō 'heavy mouse'.

### 4.6 Numerals

### 4.6.1 Cardinal numerals

### 4.6.1.1 '1’(dúlì )

Numeral ' 1 ' is dúlì. A preceding noun omits its final suffix.
with ' 1 ' gloss suffixed singular

| wùl dúlì | 'one dog', | wùl-á |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| kùkù dúlì | 'one stone', | kùkù-rá |
| gbāā dúlì | 'one stick', | gbāā-rā |
| dí dúlì | 'one child' | dí-rá |

In counting (' $1,2,3, \ldots$ ) ' 1 ' is dúúlì with long vowel.

For dúlí kùn 'be equal/same', i.e. numeral dúlì plus copula $k \grave{u}^{n}$, see §12.2.1.

### 4.6.1.2 ' 2 ' to ' 10 '

The numerals from ' 2 ' to ' 10 ' are shown in (125). There is no plural marking, and no nominal suffix. The "counting" forms are used in recited numerals without modified nouns (' $1,2,3$, ...'). They are the most reliable indicator of lexical tone. Numerals ' 6 ' to ' 9 ' appear to contain a frozen formative ma- plus a version, often irregular, of ' 1 ' to ' 4 ', respectively. This points to an original base of ' 5 '. This morphology is most transparent for ' 8 ' vis-à-vis ' 3 '.

| gloss | counting | lexical tone |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| '2' | flā | /M/ (for flāā see comments below) |
| '3' | sīgbō | $/ \mathrm{M} /$ |
| '4' | nāānī | $/ \mathrm{M} /$ |
| '5' | sóóló | /H/ |
| '6' | mī-īlō | /M-MM/ |
| '7' | mà-álā | /L-HL/ |
| '8' | mà-sīgbō | $/ \mathrm{L}-\mathrm{H} /$ |
| '9' | má-nānì | /H-ML/ |
| '10' | táá | /H/ |

A long-voweled variant flāā ' 2 ' occurs in NP-internal position. This occurs a) before the nominal suffix as in the bahuvrihi compound (149) and as in 'the two of them' in text 2016_02@ 02:40, b) before a postposition as in (224b), and c) before a relative marker as in (486a).
táá ' 10 ' may have recently had a nasalized vowel, to judge by its distributive reduplication táá-náá, see (134) below.

When these numerals are added to a noun (or adjective), the mà- formative in ' 7 ' and ' 8 ' is raised to H -tone (the same formative in ' 9 ' is already H ).

Examples with /L/-melody kùkù ~ kùgù 'stone’ (suffixed singular kùgù-rá ) are in (126).

| (126) gloss | 'stone' | tone change |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| ' 2 ' | kùgù flā |  |
| '3' | kùgù sīgbō |  |
| '4' | kùgù nāānī |  |
| '5, | kùgù sóóló |  |
| '6' | kùgù mī-īlō |  |
| '7' | kùgù má-álā | yes |
| ' 8, | kùgù má-sīgbō | yes |
| '9' | kùgù má-nānì |  |
| '10, | kùgù tāā |  |

Combinations with /M/-melody noun gbāā 'stick, wood' (suffixed gbāā-rā ) are in (127).

| gloss | 'stick' | tone change |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| '2' | gbāā flā |  |
| '3' | gbāā sīgbō |  |
| '4' | gbāā nāānī |  |
| '5' | gbāā sōō $1 \bar{o}$ |  |
| '6' | gbāā mī-īlō |  |
| '7' | gbāā má-álā |  |
| '8' | gbāā má-sīgbō | yes |
| '9' | gbāā má-nānì |  |
| '10, | gbāā tāā |  |

Combinations with /H/-melody noun yílé 'fish' (suffixed yípé-rá) are in (128).

| gloss | 'fish' | tone change |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| '2' | yípé flā |  |
| '3' | yípé sīgbō |  |
| '4' | yípé nāānī |  |
| '5' | yípé sóóló |  |
| '6' | yípé mī-īlō |  |
| '7' | yípé má-álā | yes |
| '8' | yípé má-sígbō | yes |
| '9' | yípé má-nānì |  |
| '10' | yípé tāā |  |

When a noun with final floating L-tone is followed by a numeral, the L-tone is realized on the numeral. The exception is ' 9 ', the only numeral ' 2 ' to ' 10 ' that consistently has a falling tone pattern. Floating L-Docking with these numerals involves more extensive spreading than that seen in N-Adj combinations, since here it wipes out underlying nonlow tones rather than merely pushing them rightward. (129) illustrates with náā 'woman' (suffixed náā-nà ), whose lexical melody is /HM/. náā itself becomes náá before L-tone, see H-Leveling (§3.8.3.2).

| (129) gloss | 'woman' | tone change |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| '2' | náá flà | yes |
| '3' | fáá sìgbò | yes |
| '4' | jáá nàànì | yes |
| '5' | jáá sòòlò | yes |
| '6' | náá mì-ìlò | yes |
| '7' | náá mà-àlà | yes |
| '8' | náá mà-sìgbò | yes |

```
`9' náá má-nānì
`10' náá tàà yes
```

In careful speech, the underlying nonlow tones of the numerals in may reappear in the examples in (129).

### 4.6.1.3 Decimal/vigesimal multiples (' 20 ' to ' 200 ') and combinations

The multiples of ' 10 ' are in (130) below. The system is vigesimal, with jálámā ' 20 ' taking the compound initial forms jén- (in '30') and jáān- (elsewhere) before single-digit numerals. Oddnumbered decimals above ' 20 ' add -f-tàà (after flā '2' and sīgbō ' 3 ') or -tàà (after higher decimals), cf. táá ' 10 '. -tàà also occurs in irregular ' 30 ', where it has similar additive sense ('plus 10 '), and in ' 200 ', where it has direct scope over ' 20 ' $(20 \times 10=200)$. The use of different allomorphs for '20' avoids homophony between '30' ('20 plus 10') and '200' ('ten 20s'). Final -tàà in the decimal terms is L-toned and therefore triggers Final Tone-Raising of preceding L- and M-toned stems (' 130 ', ' 170 '), likely also $-r$ in $-r$ - tàà ( ${ }^{\prime} 50$ ', ' 70 '). H tones following jáā ${ }^{n}$ are phonetically downstepped, but in jáān-sóóló-tàà ' 110 ' the middle stem -sóóló- is still higher-pitched than -tàà, and in jáã"-má-álà ' 140 ' má-á is higher-pitched than là, so I do not attribute the lowered pitch of e.g. -sóóló- to Floating-L Shift triggered by jáān-

| gloss | form |
| :---: | :---: |
| ' 10 ' | táá |
| '20' | jálámà |
| '30' | jén-tàà |
| '40' | jáa ${ }^{n}$-flā |
| '50' | $j a \overline{a n}^{n}$-flā-ŕ-tàà |
| '60' | $j a ́ a{ }^{n}$-sīgbō |
| '70' | $j a ́ a{ }^{n}$-sīgbō-ŕ-tàà |
| '80' | $j a ́ a \bar{n}^{n}-n a ̄ a ̄ n \overline{1}$ |
| '90' | jáañ-nāāń-tàà |
| '100' | jáān-sóóló |
| ' 110 ' | jáan-sóóló-tàà |
| '120' | jáã ${ }^{n}$-mī-īlō |
| '130' | jáa ${ }^{n}$-mī-īló-tàà |
| '140' | jáan ${ }^{\text {n }}$-má-álà |
| '150' | jáān-má-álà-tàà |
| '160' | jáã ${ }^{\text {n-má-sīgbō }}$ |
| '170' | $j a ́ a \overline{a r}^{n}$-má-sīgbō-ŕ-tàà |
| '180' | jáān-má-nānì |
| '190' | jáān-má-nānì-tàà |
| '200' | jáān-táá |

Single-digit numerals may follow the decimal and vigesimal terms to form composite numerals like ' 11 ' and ' 56 '. ' 10 ' adds what looks like the nominal suffix -rā (i.e. as in /tāā-rā/), raised to -rá before the single-digit term (131), which is dropped to $\{L\}$.

| gloss | '10 plus ...' | digit |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| '11', | tāā-rá dùlì | dúlì |
| '12' | tāā-rá flà | flā |
| '13' | tāā-rá sìgbò | sīgbō |
| '14' | tāā-rá nàànì | nāāní |
| '15' | tāā-rá sòòò | sóóló |
| '16' | tāā-rá mì-ìlò | mī-īlō |
| '17' | tāā-rá mà-àlà | mà-álà |
| '18' | tāā-rá mà-sìgbò | mà-sígbó |
| '19' | tāā-rá mà-nànì | má-nānì |

All decimal terms from ' 20 ' up add a linking morpheme tú (§7.1.2) before the tone-dropped single-digit term.

| gloss | '20 plus ...' | '30 plus ...' | digit |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
|  | '21/31' | jálámà tú dùlì | jáān-sīgbō-ŕ-tàà tú dùlì | dúlì

### 4.6.1.4 'Thousand'

'Thousand' is either wà $1 a ̀$ or búúlī, the latter also meaning 'finger'. For ' 1000 ', the numeral ' 1 ' is added to the 'thousand' term. After wà?à, single-digit terms from ' 2 ' to ' 5 ' are tonedropped. These tone-dropped digit terms, along with ' 6 ' to ' 8 ' which already begin in an L-tone, induce Final Tone-Raising to wà?á (left data column). After búúlili, '2' and '3' are tone-dropped but others are not.

| gloss | with wà ${ }^{\text {à }}$ | with búúlì 'finger' |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| '1000' | wàPà dúlì | búúlī dúlì |
| '2000' | wà?á flà | búúlī flà |
| '3000' | wà?á sìgbò | búúlī sìgbò |


| '4000' | Wà Pá nàànì | búúlī nāānī |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| '5000' | wàPá sòòlò | búúlī sóóló |
| '6000' | wàPá mì-ìlò | búúlī mì-ìlò |
| '7000' | wàPá mà-álà | búúlī mà-álà |
| '8000' | wà?á mà-sīgbō | búúlī mà-sīgbō |
| '9000' | wàPà má-nānì | búúlī má-nānì |
| '10,000' | wàPá tàà | búúlī tāā |

### 4.6.1.5 Currency

In languages of the zone except French, currency is calculated based on a unit equal to 5 francs CFA (the smallest coin in use). . The unit term is wárī (suffixed wár- -rà ). 100 FCFA is expressed as wár jàlàmà ' 20 money units'

There is also a special term kùmól for the unit equivalent to 2000 FCFA'. To specify exactly '2000 francs', the phrasing is kùmól dúlì with dúlì '1'. kùmól flā is '4000 francs CFA', and so forth.

### 4.6.1.6 Reduplicated or iterated distributive numerals

As in many other languages of the zone, numerals are initially reduplicated ( CV - ) or completely iterated to express distributivity ('two each', 'two by two', 'two at a time', etc.). Reduplication occurs with ' 1 ' and with ' 4 ' through ' 7 '. ' 4 ' and ' 5 ' have the same unusual tone pattern in their reduplicated forms, in spite of having different tones in their baic forms. Iteration occurs with ' 3 ', ' 8 ', and ' 9 '. Since ' 2 ' and ' 10 ' are usually monosyllabic, the distinction between reduplication and iteration is moot for them. The form for ' 10 ' is irregular segmentally, but has the same tones as those for ' 4 ' and ' 5 '. For each numeral, (134) shows the distributive form used in isolation (as an adverb), and that used after the noun mììn 'person', as in mììi ${ }^{n}$ flá-flā 'two people at a time'. Forms that begin with L-tone in isolation begin with H-tone after mìpin.

| numeral | gloss | distributive |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  |  | isolation | after mììn 'person' |
| dúlì | '1' | dú-dúlì | dú-dúlì |
| flā | '2' | flà-flā | flá-flā |
| sīgbō | '3' | sìgbò-sīgbō | sígbó-sīgbō |
| nāānī | '4' | ná-nāānī | ná-nāānī |
| sóóló | '5' | só-sōōlō | só-sōōlō |
| mī-īlō | '6' | mì-mī-īlo | mí-mī-īlo |
| mà-álà | ${ }^{7} 7$ | mà-má-álà | má-má-álā |
| mà-sīgbō | '8' | mà-sīgbō-mà-sīgbō | má-sīgbo-má-sīgbō |
| má-nānì | '9' | má-nānì-má-nānì | má-nānì-má-nānì |
| táá | '10' | táá $=$ nāā | táá-nāā |

The irregular consonantism in táá-nàà 'ten each' may be a historical vestige of a variant (not used by my assistant) for simple táá ' 10 ' that had a nasalized vowel and may still have it dialectally (Truong's lexicon renders ' 10 ' as $t \bar{a}^{n}$ ).
(135) illustrates one context that distributive numerals can be used in. Here the distributive is attached to miPin 'person' even though this is redundant.

| mìrì-ná-à ${ }^{n}$ | $S \dot{\varepsilon}$ | $\left[m i \not i^{n}\right.$ | flá-flā] |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| person-Nom-Pl | come.Pfv | $[$ person | two-two $]$ |
| 'The people came two by two (two at a time).' |  |  |  |

dú-dūlī 'one by one' can also mean 'scattered, here and there, isolated, infrequent'.

### 4.6.2 Ordinal adjectives

### 4.6.2.1 'First' (dáálá ) and 'last' (kùdórìmà-nà )

'First' as modifying adjective (not adverb) is dáálá, with nominal suffix dáálá-rá, obscurely related to dúlì ' 1 '. Examples are $s \varepsilon^{n}$ dààlà-rá 'the first thing' (the noun has a floating L) and dí dáálá-rá 'the first child’ (<dí-rá ).

### 4.6.2.2 Other ordinals (suffix -nā-)

The forms in (136) show the nominal suffix, which as usual is absent in syntactic positions that disallow it. The ordinal suffix is usually M-toned and requires an M-toned nominal suffix. In 'sixth', however, the whole stem including -nà- is L-toned, so the suffix is H-toned -ná. Interlinear gloss is "-Ord".
form gloss
a. single-digit numeral

| flā-nā-nā | 'second' |
| :--- | :--- |
| Sīgbō-nā-nā | 'third' |
| náání-nā-nā | 'fourth' |
| sóóló-nā-nā | 'fifth' |
| mì-ìlò-nà-ná | 'sixth' |
| mà-álà-nā-nā | 'seventh' |
| mà-sīgbō-nā-nā | 'eighth' |
| má-nànì-nā-nā | 'ninth' |
| táá-nā-nā | 'tenth' |

b. decimal
jálámà-nā-nā 'twentieth'
c. decimal plus single-digit numeral
tāā-rá dùlì-nā-nā 'eleventh'
d. hundred jáān -sóóló-ŋā-nā 'hundredth'

### 4.6.3 Fractions and portions

The noun $g \grave{u}^{n}$ (with nominal suffix gù-nó ) has a range of translations including 'piece' or 'half'. It is a homonym of 'mortar (for pounding)'.

## 5 Nominal and adjectival compounds

Nominal compounds are right-headed. The compound initial is a noun (without the nominal suffix), or in some cases a locative PP (§5.1.8). Tonal changes apply mainly to the final (the head of the compound).

### 5.1 Nominal compounds

A considerable number of nouns are transparently composite, in the sense that one or both elements can be identified. In other cases just one element is attested elsewhere, and in still others no element can be identified, but the noun sounds like a compound due to multisyllabicity or tonal pattern.

In the two most productive patterns for transparent compounds, the final has either $\{\mathrm{HM}\}$ overlay with the automatically associated L surfacing on the nominal suffix or on a following word ( $\$ 5.1 .1$ just below), or the final has $\{\mathrm{L}(\mathrm{H})\}$ overlay ( $\$ 5.1 .2$ ). Compounds that do not fit into a productive type are best left to the lexicon.

### 5.1.1 Noun-noun compounds with $\{\mathrm{HM}\}$-toned finals

This construction is typical of transparent right-headed noun-noun compounds. The final denotes a class of entities, and the initial denotes something associated with the relevant subclass.

Compounds with b̄̄̄̄̄ 'hand' as initial are in (137). The regular compound initial is bōl with +ATR vowel. The finals have $\ldots\{\mathrm{HM}\}$ overlay. The isolated form in (137d) shows a different initial (originally diminutive), and it has an LH-toned final of the sort covered in the following section.
(137)

Initial is from $b \bar{\jmath} \bar{l}-\bar{\sigma}$ 'hand'

$$
\begin{array}{lll}
\text { compound } & \text { gloss } & \text { final }
\end{array}
$$

a. noun-noun with recognizable final
b. noun plus verbal noun
bōl-dégē-rà 'menstruation' dègà 'not fit, be unable to enter'
c. noun plus final not attested as simple noun
bōl-sābárā-rà 'palm (with fingers)' cf. kp̄̄-sābárā-rà 'sole'
d. archaic initial, cf. diminutive búū-l (búú-lī), final LH-toned
búlú-nìn-ná 'fingernail' cf. kpúlí-nìn-ná 'toenail' (variant búlí-nìn-ná)

Some other compounds with HM final are in (138). This pattern is popular with compounds ending in life-form terms such as 'snake' and 'fish'.
$\begin{aligned} \text { a. kàà-yílē-rà } \quad \text { 'spiny eel (Mastacembelus)' } & \text { kàà-rá ‘snake' } \\ & \text { yí?é-rá ‘fish' }\end{aligned}$
b. cì-káā-rà 'snake sp. (Psammophis)' (? cìì-rá 'borassus palm')
kàà-rá ‘snake’
c. kùgù-sáā-rà 'stone house' kùgù-rá 'stone, rock' (medial $k \sim g$ ) sàà-rá 'house'

For compounds of this type with spatial PP as initial, see §5.1.8.

### 5.1.2 Possessive-type compounds with $\{\mathrm{L}(\mathrm{H})\}$-toned finals

In this type, the initial is a noun (without nominal suffix) and keeps its lexical tones. The final is also a noun but has $\{\mathrm{L}(\mathrm{H})\}$ overlay, erasing its lexical tones. $\{\mathrm{L}(\mathrm{H})\}$ is elsewhere the overlay on possessed nouns following a +3 Sg possessor. For example, sàà-rá 'house' combines with dāā-rā 'mouth' to form sàà dàà-rá 'doorway'. As this suggests, this compound type is popular with whole-part relationships. (139) gives a range of compounds denoting parts of a staple crop plant and an insect found inside it.
(139) Initial is $j \bar{u}$ 'millet'
compound gloss final
a. noun-noun with recognizable final

## final already /LH/-toned

| jū-fì-ná | 'millet flowers' | fì-ná ‘flower' |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| jū-jùl-ó | 'millet leaf' | jùl-ś 'leaf' |
| jū-nàmà-ná | 'millet root' | nàmà-ná 'root' |

final becomes LH

| jū-dì-rá <br> (varia | 'grain of millet' <br> -rà ) | dí-rá 'child' |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| jū-gbàà-rá | 'millet stem or head' | $g b a \bar{a}-r a \bar{a}$ 'stick, wood' |
| jū-yì-rá | 'millet sap (juice)' | yírrá 'water' |
| jū-bùl-lá | 'millet grub' | búl-lá 'grub' |

b. noun plus compound final unattested as simple noun

$$
j \bar{u}-k \bar{u}-n \bar{\jmath} \quad \text { 'millet plant' } \quad \text { (cpd. final only) }
$$

Most of the compounds of 'millet' have LH-toned final (139a), respecting the $\{\mathrm{L}(\mathrm{H})\}$ overlay associated with preceding +3 Sg words. The exception is $j \bar{u}-k \bar{u}-n \bar{\jmath}$ (variant $j \bar{u}-k \bar{u}-n \bar{a})$ in (139b), where the M-tone of $j \bar{u}$ spreads into the final. This final combines with many flora-species terms to denote the entire plant. It is not attested as an independent noun in this sense, though kù-nó is the name of one tree species (Diospyros).

Similar compounds for 'peanut' are in (140). The initial keeps its L.L.H tone sequence. 'Peanut plant' (140b) is tonally compatible with the compounds in (140a).
(140) Initial is càRàcí-rà 'peanut'

> compound gloss final
a. noun-noun with recognizable final
final already /LH/-toned càPàcí-bà-ná 'peanut greens’ cf. bà-ná 'palm frond' cà?àcí-tò-ró 'peanut shell (pod)' tò-ró 'shell'
final becomes $L H$
cà?àcí-nàà-ná 'peanut sauce’ náá-ná ‘sauce’
b. noun plus compound final unattested as simple noun cà?àcí-kù-ná 'peanut plant' (cpd. final only)

The next set (141) has álā 'sky; God' (suffixed ál-là ) as initial. The initial flattens to H-tone before the L-initial final by H-Leveling (§3.8.3.2). The examples in (141b) have a verb (or verbal noun) medially and can be bracketed [God [verb-noun]].
(141) Initial is ál-là 'sky; God'
compound gloss final
a. noun-noun with recognizable final
final already LH

| álá-jò̀̀-ró | 'vine (Cassytha)' | jò̀̀-ró 'fishnet' |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| álá-kpòl-ó | 'sky' | kp̀̀l-ó 'skin' |
| álá-yìgì-rá | 'cloud' | yìgì-rá 'cow' |
| álá-mà?àl-lá | 'rainbow' | mà?àl-lá 'knife' |

b. noun-verb-noun
álá-pèrén̄-ká-nà 'thunder $(\mathrm{n})$ ' pérénà 'make noise', $k a^{n}$ 'voice'
álá-màPà-ká-nà 'thunder (n)' mà?à-kán 'speak-voice'
c. final obscure or unattested separately

| álá-mìnì-mìril-á | 'velvet mite' | (? mìrì 'person') |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| álá-tìríl-lá | 'helmet-shrike (bird)' | (unattested) |

### 5.1.3 Compounds with final verbal noun

For simple verbal nouns, see $\S 4.2 .2$. Transitive verbal nouns may incorporate an unmodified object noun as a compound initial. The final méé- ~ mèè- from the verb màà 'do' occurs both in compounds ('farm work', 'dancing') based on independently existing noun-verb collocations, and in compounds ('pounding, 'drawing (water)') whose initial it itself a verbal noun (142a). Other compound verbal nouns have the regular transitive verb as final, while the initial denotes a representative object type (142b). The tone of the verb stem, e.g. méé- ~ mèè-, is spread from the initial, but in the case of H-H combinations the second element may be lightly downstepped (not indicated in transcription).

| a. mùù-mè̀ | mùù-mè̀̀-ná | 'farm work' ("field-doing") |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| dòò-mèè | dòò-mèè-ná | 'dancing' ("dance-doing") |
| tígí-méé | tígí-méé-rá | 'pounding (grain in mortar' ("pounding-doing") |
| bén-méé | bén-méé-rá | 'drawing water (at well)' ("drawing-doing") |
| b. sígí-séé | sígí-séé-rá | 'singing' ("song-singing") |
| fóPó-téé | fóPó-téé-rá | 'rifle-shooting' (includes 'hunting') |
| sàà-sèè | sàà-sèè-rá | 'construction' ("house-building") |
| yî?é-só?ó | yî́é-só?ó-rá | 'fishing' ("fish-catching") |

Final Tone-Raising does not apply at the boundary between initial and final in these compounds; see 'farm work' and 'dancing' in (142a). This is also the case in compounds with PP initials (§5.1.8).

### 5.1.4 Agentive compounds with final \{HM-toned mílī-nà 'person'

Compounds denoting classes of persons defined by an occupation or other distinctive behavior are generally three-part compounds consisting of a characteristic object, a transitive verb with vowel shifted to +ATR (as in verbal nouns), and the noun 'person'. The latter undergoes an $\{\mathrm{HM}\}$ overlay (§5.1.1): míīin, suffixed mípī-nà (143a). Uncompounded 'person' is mì $\grave{l}^{n} \sim m \grave{\varepsilon} \uparrow \grave{\varepsilon}^{n}$ with /L/ melody. (143b-c) bring out the importance of the incorporated noun, since some high-frequency verb stems occur in collocations that have very different senses. As in verbal-noun compounds (preceding section), 'do' occurs not only when the agentive is based on a regular noun-verb collocation as in 'dancer' and 'farmer', but also as a device to create agentives from transitive verbs without an overt object, as in 'seller' and 'buyer'. Thus a seller is a "selling-do person" (143d).

> agentive gloss
verb ( $\mathrm{Ipfv}+3 \mathrm{Sg}$ )
a. fó?ó-tēē mípī-nà
tùlù-bà?rì mípī-nà
gbàà-bègè míī-nà sóPó-tòPrì mípī-nà gùn-tìgì mílī-nà yí-bèn míīi-nà

$$
\text { sìbì-kpè̀n }{ }^{n} \text { mílī-nà }
$$

'rifle-shooter'
'iron-beater, blacksmith
'woodworker'
'woodseller'
'mortar-pounder'
'water draw-er'
'meat-killer (hunter)'
'leatherworker'

| tè̀ | 'shoot' |
| :--- | :--- |
| bà?rà | 'hit' |
| bègg̀ | 'cut' |
| tò?rò | 'sell' |
| tigg̀̀ | 'pound' |
| bènà | 'draw water' |
| kpàà | 'kill' |
| tùwôn | 'apply hide' |

b. sígí-séé mípī-nà 'song-singer' sàà 'sing; build'
sàà-sèè-mílī-nà 'house-builder' sàà 'sing; build'
c. nùpún-sòlì mípī-nà 'clothes-sewer/-weaver' sòlò 'weave; sew' wù-s̀̀lì mílī-nà 'hair-braider' sòlò 'weave; sew'
d. dòò-mèè míī1-nà 'dancer'

| màà | 'do' |
| :--- | :--- |
| màà | 'do' (= 'cultivate' $)$ |
| màà | 'do' |
| màà | 'do' |

These decriptive agentives, e.g. 'iron-beater' = 'blacksmith', are distinct from caste names like $t \grave{~}^{n}$ 'member of blacksmith caste', j̀̀l̀̀ 'member of potter caste', and fòǹ̀ 'member of leatherworker caste'. These terms denote inherited social categories that are traditionally associated with the relevant trade.

### 5.1.5 Compounds with dí 'child' and $b \bar{o} \bar{o}$ 'fruit'

For animal species, diminutives are often used to denote juveniles ('chick', 'puppy'); see §4.2.1. An alternative is a compound with dí 'child', such as wùl dì-rá 'puppy'.

For trees, '(large) fruit' is bōō, and this is often compounded: má $\bar{r} \bar{r}$ bòò-ró 'mango fruit', bòyākí bòò-rš 'guava fruit'.

### 5.1.6 'Owner of X ' compounds (māā-nā )

māā-nā 'owner' (including the nominal suffix) can create a range of compounds denoting either a proprietor of an entity (such as a selling stand or rifle), or a nominal characteristic such as a beard or a hunched back. Usually māā-nā is M-toned, which does not fit into either of the productive compound types ( $\$ 5.111-2$ ). In (144b) it is L-toned after a bimoraic /L/-melody initial.

$\begin{array}{clll}\text { b. jègì } & \text { 'hump' } & \text { jègì màà-ná } & \text { 'hunchback' } \\ \text { gj̀yì } & \text { 'money } & \text { gỳyì màà-ná } & \text { 'rich person' }\end{array}$

### 5.1.7 Instrumental relative compounds ('drinking/bathing water') (-mī-)

If an entity has two or more subtypes with distinct functions, the subtypes can be distinguished by adding a compound final based on a verb. Functional subtypes of yí 'water' and télé 'oil' are in (145). The final consists of a +ATR form of the verb plus -mì- (with nominal suffix -mī-nà ). The final has $\{H M\}$ overlay, so the larger compound is of the tonal type covered in §5.1.1, but unlike other such compounds it is semantically left-headed.

| compound | gloss | $<\mathrm{verb}(\mathrm{Ipfv}+3 \mathrm{Sg})$ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| a. yí míí-mī-nà yí wéé-mī-nà | 'drinking water' 'water for bathing' | miè 'drink' (Pfv mǐĭ) wè̀ 'bathe' |
| b. télé kúní-mī-nà télé móó-mī-nà | 'eating (cooking) oil' 'body oil' | $\begin{aligned} & \text { kùnò 'eat (meal)' } \\ & \text { mòj 'rub' } \end{aligned}$ |

It is not clear which (if any) other grammatical element in the language -mī- is related to, historically or synchronically. Leading candidates include verbal noun -mè̀ $\sim$-mèè 'doing' (imperfective màà 'do') and relative marker mì.

### 5.1.8 Compounds with PP initials

Many flora-fauna species are defined by habitat, and some diseases are defined by bodily location. These concepts lend themselves to expression by compounds of the type [X-Postp]Y, for example "[water-in]-bird" = 'aquatic bird (sp.)'. The postposition is dù 'in' for unbounded habitats or to 'in, into' for bounded zones that can be entered and exited from. See $\S 8.3 .3 .1-2$ on these postpositions. Some examples of compounds are in (146).
compound gloss literal
a.

| [gòl-t̀̀]-kláā | 'shaggy swamp rat' |
| :--- | :--- |
| [sàà-tò]-tóólū | 'insectivorous bat' |
| [k $k y i ̄-t \grave{]}]-t \varepsilon^{n}$ | 'stomach ulcer' |

> "[river-in]-mouse"
> "[house-in]-bat"
> "[belly-in]-wound"
b. [mùù-dù]-káān
'grass sp. (Microchloa)'
"[field-in]-grass"
[fìdī-dū]-kpá 'false zaban’ "[thicket-in]-zaban"
[cíí-dù]-címíílī 'brown babbler' "[dense.foliage-in]-sparrow"
[dùgù-dù]-tólóká 'wild fig’ "[the.bush-in]-fig.tree"
[dùgù-dù]-dándálī 'wild yam' "[the.bush-in]-yam"
[yí-dù]-nínáPá" 'water scorpion (insect)' "[water-in]-scorpion"

Final Tone-Raising fails to apply within the PP. Independently, 'in the bush' is dùgú dù and 'in the field' is mùú tò, while 'in/at the house' is sàá tò and 'in/at the river' is gòló tò. The final syllable/mora of the noun in these PPs has undergone Final Tone-Raising. This does not happen in the compounds., where the noun functioning as postpositional complement has its lexical melody.

Instead, if the final does not already begin with an H-tone, its initial tone is raised. In (146b), this has happened in [cíí-dù]-címíílī 'brown babbler' < cìmílilī 'sparrow' and in [dùgù-dù]-tólóká 'wild fig' < tòlókā 'fig tree'. Another example: L-toned wùl 'dog' becomes HM-toned in [dùgù-dù]-wúlāa 'jackal', i.e. "[the.bush-in]-dog". These tone patterns show that the final has the $\{\mathrm{HM}\}$ overlay (§5.1.1).

### 5.2 Adjectival compounds

In addition to the adjectives covered in the sections below, see $\S 4.5 .3$ for deverbal adjective modifiers with $t o ́ \sim t \delta^{n}$.

### 5.2.1 Bahuvrihi compounds

In bahuvrihi compounds, the initial is a noun denoting a feature of the referent, such as a body part, and the final is an adjective or numeral modifying the feature. The entire bahuvrihi may modify the referent noun or may occur absolutely, with implied but covert head noun.

### 5.2.1.1 With adjectival compound final

In (147), the bahuvrihi 'black-headed' modifies the noun 'sheep'. Both 'head' and 'tail' shift their onsets to H-toned. After 'head', 'black' shifts from LL to HM, whose associated final L is realized on the nominal suffix. In 'black-tailed', the falling HM tones of jángbálā 'tail' requires a following L-toned 'black'.

```
tàgà wú-gbórō-rà / jángbálá-gbòrò-rá
    sheep head-black-Nom / tail-black-Nom
    'black-headed/black-tailed sheep' (< wù, gbò?ò, jā\etagbálā )
```

Adjectival bahuvrihis that turned up in lexical elicitation are in (148). 'Tail' is jā̄gbálā as simple noun, and the elicited 'black-tailed' above preserves this trisyllabic form, but in lexicalized bahuvrihis it shortens to $j \varepsilon^{n}$ - as compound initial (148a-b).

$$
\begin{equation*}
\text { form } \quad \text { gloss } \quad \text { literal } \tag{148}
\end{equation*}
$$

a. noun-adjective(-diminutive) bahuvrihi as modifying adjective

| wárrá $k p \grave{j}^{n}-k a \bar{a}-n \bar{i}$ | 'gabar goshawk' | "hawk foot-red-Dim" |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| yîpé jén-káná | 'characin (fish)' | "fish tail-red" |
| $j i b i ̀ ~ j \varepsilon^{n}$-sùmàà | 'parakeet' | "parrot tail-long" |

b. noun-adjective(-diminutive) bahuvrihi as independent noun

| $j \hat{\varepsilon}^{n}$-kpēē-lī | 'white-tailed mongoose' 'tail-white-Dim" |
| :--- | :--- |
| $j \hat{\varepsilon}^{n}$-sùmàà | 'whydah (bird), |

### 5.2.1.2 With numeral compound final

A numeral may fill the final spot in a bahuvrihi, often after a body-part noun (149). In this construction the numeral can be immediately followed by the nominal suffix if the morphosyntactic position requires it. ' 2 ' and ' 3 ' have their final vowels lengthened.

```
yìgì wú-flāā-rā / wú-sīgbōō-rā / wú-táā-rà
cow head-two-Nom / head-three-Nom / head-ten-Nom
'two-/three-/ten-headed cow'
```


### 5.2.2 Exemplars as adjectives

Two color terms not included in the core white-black-red trio contain a morpheme -má-, or with nominal suffix -má-nà. In one example the preceding stem is already composite (150a). There is also a third compound adjective (150c).
after floating L
a. $\quad \grave{i}^{n}$-kè̀̀nè-má(-nà)
b. bùlòrà-má(-nà)
c. yè?rè-fóPó(-rá)
elsewhere
bî' ${ }^{\text {n }}$-kéźné-má(-nà) 'green'
búlórá-má(-nà) 'blue'
yé?ré-fó?ó(-rá) 'yellow’
'Green' is expressed in the zone as 'fresh grass', i.e. a noun-adjective NP that semantically modifies another noun. 'Fresh grass' in non-color contexts is expressed in Jalkunan as káán gbé-rà ( $k \bar{a} \bar{a}^{n}$ ' grass', gbé 'fresh'). There is another noun bín 'grass, straw', which is evidently the initial in $b \grave{i}^{n}$-kè̀̀nè-má(-nà), but the second element is not otherwise attested.
'Blue' terms in the zone are said to go back to the brand name (based on French bleu) of a former detergent product.
'Yellow' is 'néré tree' plus 'powder, flour', as in many West African languages. It refers to the bright yellow meal (flour) covering the seeds in pods of this tree (Parkia biglobosa). This meal is edible, with a sweet taste, and is sold in markets throughout West Africa.

All of these terms are of the exemplar type, taking an object from the lived environment (vegetation, detergent) as the prototype for the color.

## 6 Noun Phrase structure

### 6.1 Organization of NP constituents

### 6.1.1 Linear order of unpossessed NPs

This section focuses on linear order of key elements within unpossessed NPs. The examples also happen to bring out the distribution of the nominal suffix (-Nom) and of the plural suffix within the NP itself. The nominal suffix is allowed in some but not other higher-level morphosyntactic environments (§6.1.2-3).

The unpossessed NPs in (151) are headed by sàà 'house', which is followed in most examples by an adjective and/or a numeral.
example
type
a. sàà-rá
[n]
house-Nom
'(a) house'
b. sàà-rá-à-nū (~ sàà-rá-à-n )
[n]
house-Nom-Pl-Nom
'houses'
c. sàà
né-nà
[ $\mathrm{n}-\mathrm{a}$ ]
house
good-Nom
'(a) good house'
d. sàà
né-nà-à-nū (~ né-nà-à-n )
[n-a]
house good-Nom-Pl-Nom
'good houses'
e. sàà dúlì
[n-num]
house one
'one house'
f. sàà sīgbō
house three
'three houses'
g. sàà dé dúlì [n-a-num]
house good one 'one good house'
h. sàà jé $\quad$ sīgbō $\quad$ [n-a-num]
house good three
'three good houses'

The linear order illustrated so far is maximally N-Adj-Num. A demonstrative ('this/that') may follow this sequence (152).
(152)
a. sàà mí-nà
[n-dem]
house Dem-Nom
'this house'
b. sàà mí-nà-à-n (~ mí-nà-à-nū $) \quad[\mathrm{n}$-dem]
house Dem-Nom-Pl-Nom
'these houses'
c. sàà mé mí-nà [n-a-dem]
house good Dem-Nom
'this good house'
d. sàà mé mí-nà-à-n $\quad$ [n-a-dem] house good Dem-Nom-Pl-Nom 'these good houses'
$\begin{array}{llll}\text { e. } \begin{array}{lll}\text { sàà } & \text { sīgbō } & \text { mí-nà-à- } \bar{n}\end{array} & \text { [n-num-dem] } \\ \text { house three } & \text { Dem-Nom-Pl-Nom } & \\ & \text { 'these three houses' } & & \end{array}$

The examples in (153) below add the universal quantifier ('all') to the various NPs types already given. Addition of 'all' has no effect on the form of the preceding elements. The type (153c) with numeral plus 'all' was difficult to elicit, except with a following verb.
(153)
a. sàà-rá-āa
bú?ú-nū
[n-quant]
house-Nom-Pl all-Pl
'all (of) the houses'
$\begin{array}{llll}\text { b. } & \begin{array}{ll}\text { sàà } & n \varepsilon ́-n a ̄-a^{n}\end{array} & \begin{array}{l}\text { búpú-nū } \\ \text { house }\end{array} & \text { good-Nom-Pl } \\ \text { 'all (of the) } & \text { good houses' } & & \end{array}$
c. sààa sīgbō búpú-nū [n-num-quant]
house three all-Pl
'all three (of the) houses'
d. sàà $\operatorname{sig} g b o ̄ \quad$ mí-nà-à ${ }^{n}$ búpú-nū [n-num-dem-quant]
house three Dem-Nom-Pl all 'all three of these houses'

### 6.1.2 Distribution of singular nominal suffix (-ra etc.)

Forms of singular nouns with and without a nominal suffix are presented in $\S 4.1$ above. It remains to specify the morphosyntactic contexts in which the suffix occurs.

The first issue is where the nominal suffix occurs within the NP, when the NP occurs in a position requiring it. The suffix can be added to an unmodified noun (154a), or to an NP-final adjective or demonstrative (154b-c). In general it is not present when the NP ends in a numeral (154d).
a. sàà-rá
house-Nom
'(a/the) house'
b. sàà né-ná
house big-Nom
'(a/the) big house'
c. sàà mí-nà
house Dem-Nom
'this house'
d. sàà sīgbō
house three
'three houses'

The higher-level morphosyntactic functions that require, allow, or disallow the nominal suffix for singular NPs are summarized in (155).
a. require the suffix
prepausal
independent function (citation form, preclausal topic)
postverbal object or adverb
"trapped" by a following encliticized element
subject of clause immediately before third-person object or possessor pronoun subject of clause immediately before an inflectional enclitic
subject of clause immediately before a nonverbal predicate
b. allow but do not require the suffix
"trapped" by a following encliticized element
subject of clause immediately before $1 \mathrm{st} / 2$ nd person object or possessor pronoun filling a gap left to its right
subject of clause immediately before a numeral as object NP
c. disallow the suffix
object preceding its verb
subject of clause immediately preceding its verb
subject of clause immediately preceding an object NP beginning with a noun
complement preceding its postposition
left (first) conjunct in ' X and Y ' conjunction
possessor preceding its possessum
preceding a discourse-functional morpheme ('too', 'as for')
All of the positions that disallow the suffix (155c) are those where the NP is immediately followed by another word or phrase of a specific grammatical type. Labelling this following element X , one can imagine an earlier stage where the suffix *-ra in *[NP-ra X] was caught in a weak metrical position, where it was attritted and eventually deleted.

The positions that require or allow the suffix are heterogenous. They include a) all contexts where the suffix is prepausal, i.e. where there is no following X; b) contexts where the suffix fuses phonologically with a following encliticized element, including third-person clitics (which are always vowel-initial in this context) and less systematically $1 \mathrm{st} / 2 \mathrm{nd}$ person clitics (whose mostly begin with consonants); and c) contexts where the following predicate is defective (verbless predicate, or object NP with its noun slot empty).

For examples of these syntactic positions and further discussion (especially of subject function), see §6.1.4-5 below. The "singular" nominal suffix is also part of the plural suffix complex, see the following section. In this combination, the "singular" nominal suffix is protected by virtue of being nonfinal in the word, and it its presence here is not subject to syntactic restrictions.

### 6.1.3 Distribution of plural nominal suffix ( $-n \bar{u}$ )

The plural suffix $-\grave{a}^{n}$ is added to the noun plus the singular nominal suffix, forming suffix combinations like -nà- $\grave{a}^{n}$, -rà $-\grave{a}^{n}$, and -rá- $\grave{a}^{n}$ depending on the phonological form of the singular nominal suffix. The plural has its own nominal suffix $-n \bar{u}(\sim-\bar{n})$, hence $-\bar{a}-n \bar{u}$ in combinations like -nà-à-nū.

| gloss |  | singular |  | plural |  |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :---: |
|  |  | unsuffixed | suffixed | unsuffixed |  | suffixed

The syntactic contexts requiring the plural nominal suffix are a subset of those that apply to the singular nominal suffix, which are summarized in (155a) above. As in the singular, the plural nominal suffix is obligatory in prepausal position (citation form, postverbal object or adverb). However, the plural nominal suffix does not occur in the "trapped" positions in (155a).

Relevant data are in the following two sections.

### 6.1.4 Nominal suffixes in subject function

In subject function, a singular NP that is capable of ending in a nominal suffix (e.g. $\mathrm{N}, \mathrm{N}-\mathrm{Adj}$, N -Dem) takes the nominal suffix when immediately followed by some but not other elements.

The nominal suffix is disallowed in subject NPs that are immediately followed by object NPs that begin with nouns (157a-b), or subject NPs that are followed directly by (intransitive) verbs (158a-b). Here \# means ungrammatical.
$\begin{array}{lll}\text { a. náā (\#náā-nà) } & \text { tàgá } & \text { jì́ } \\ \text { woman (\#woman-Nom) } & \text { sheep } & \text { see.Pfv }\end{array}$
'(A/The) woman saw a/the sheep.'
$\begin{array}{llll}\text { b. jáā-nà-án }(\text { \#náā-nà-à-nū) } & \text { tàgá } & \text { jì́ } \\ & \text { woman-Nom-Pl (\#woman-Nom-Pl-Nom) } & \text { sheep } & \text { see.Pfv }\end{array}$ '(The) women saw a/the sheep.'
a. jáā (\#náā-nà) sè
woman (\#woman-Nom) come.Pfv
'(A/The) woman came.'
b. jáā-nà-àn (\#náā-nà-à-nū) Sع́
woman-Nom-Pl (\#woman-Nom-Pl-Nom) come.Pfv '(The) women came.'

In transitives with a pronominal object directly following the subject, the phonological encliticization of the object pronoun onto the noun favors presence of the nominal suffix, but only in singular subject NPs.
(159a-b) have human 3 Sg object à in cliticized form. For singular 'sheep' as subject, the clitic requires the (singular) nominal suffix on the subject (159a). However, plural 'sheep' as subject occurs in the form tàgà-rá-à ${ }^{n}$ without its fnal nominal suffix, contracting with the
cliticized object pronoun $=a ̀$ as tàgà-rá $-\bar{a}^{n}=\grave{a}^{n}(159 b)$. In this and following examples the ungrammatical forms of the subject NP are omitted; the points to note are the presence/absence of "-Nom" immediately preceding the object pronoun (cliticized or not).
a. tàgà-rá $=$ à
à $\quad j i ̀ \varepsilon$
sheep-Nom $=3 \mathrm{SgHum}$ see.Pfv
'The sheep-Sg saw him/her.'
b. tàgà-rá-ā $\bar{a}^{n} \quad \grave{a}^{n} \quad j i \varepsilon ́$
sheep-Nom- $\mathrm{Pl}=3 \mathrm{SgHum}$ see.Pfv
'The sheep-Pl saw him/her.'

The pattern is similar with human 3 Pl object àà $^{n}$ (160a-b). However, the pile-up of a-vowels in the plural-subject combination (160b) leads to further vocalic contractions, so that (160a) and (160b) can become indistinguishable in allegro speech. The two are also only slightly distinct from (159b) above, but the tonal difference in the verb $(+3 \mathrm{Sg}$ versus $-3 \mathrm{Sg})$ helps to distinguish (159b) from (160a-b).
a. tàgà-rá $=\quad$ àà ${ }^{n}$ jíध
sheep-Nom= 3PlHum see.Pfv
The sheep-Sg saw them.'
b. tàgà-ráá $\left(-\bar{a}^{n}\right)=\quad$ àà ${ }^{n} \quad j i ́ \varepsilon ́$
sheep-Nom $(-\mathrm{Pl})=3 \mathrm{PlHum} \quad$ see.Pfv
'The sheep-Pl saw them.'
$1 \mathrm{Sg}, 2 \mathrm{Sg}$, and 2 Pl object pronouns favor the presence of the word-final nominal suffix on singular subjects (161a-b), though variants without the singular nominal suffix are allowed, see (102b) in $\S 4.3 .1 .3$. 1 Sg and 2 Sg pronominals begin with consonants, so they do not contract with preceding sufficed nouns. $1 \mathrm{Pl} \bar{e} \bar{e}^{-n}$ is vowel-initial but it too usually does not contract. The final nominal suffix on plural subjects is again absent (161c).

| a. | tàgà(-rá) | $m a ̄ / w o ̄$ | jíǵ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | sheep-Nom | $1 \mathrm{Sg} / 2 \mathrm{Sg}$ | see.Pfv |
|  | 'The sheep-Sg saw me/you-Sg.' |  |  |
| b. | tàgà(-rá) | $\bar{e} \bar{e}^{n}$ |  |
|  | sheep-Nom | 2 Pl | see.Pfv |
|  | 'The sheep-Sg saw you-Pl.' |  |  |
|  | tàgà-rá-à ${ }^{n}$ | $m \bar{a} / w \bar{O}$ | jíq́ |
|  | sheep-Nom-P1 | $1 \mathrm{Sg} / 2 \mathrm{Sg}$ | see.Pfv |
|  | 'The sheep-Pl saw me/you-Sg. |  |  |

1 Pl object mù?ù ${ }^{n}$, the most noun-like of the pronouns prosodically, can be preceded by either suffixed or unsuffixed singular subjects (162a), and (like other pronouns) it requires the unsuffixed form of a plural subject (162b).
a. tàgá / tàgà-rá mù?ùn jí́
sheep / sheep-Nom 1 Pl see.Pfv
‘The sheep-Sg saw us.'
$\begin{array}{llll}\text { b. } & \text { tàgà-rá-à } & \text { mùPù } \\ & \text { sheep-Nom-Pl } & \text { 1Pl } & \text { jí́ } \\ & \text { 'The sheep-Pl saw us.' } & \end{array}$

In perfective transitives (S-O-V... order), if the object consists of or begins with a numeral (i.e. when the implied noun heading the object NP is omitted), the subject optionally has the nominal suffix. This makes little sense syntactically, but it has the advantage of pre-empting a mis-parsing in which the numeral is taken to be part of the subject. See (655) in §19.2.1.4 ("hare took one") for a textual example.

When the subject is followed by imperfective enclitic $/ \mathrm{H}+=\varnothing /$, which consists solely of H-tone (not always overt), the nominal suffix is required on singular subjects but disallowed with plural subjects. This applies to positive present, future, and progressive clauses. Examples with future sà are (163a-b). The situation is the same for subjects with the same $/ \mathrm{H}+=\varnothing /$ enclitic, followed only by a locational expression in the 'be (somewhere)' construction ( $163 \mathrm{c}-\mathrm{d}$ ).
(163)
a. tàgà-rá $=\varnothing$
sà $\quad s \bar{a}$
sheep-Nom=Ipfv Fut come.Ipfv
'The sheep-Sg will come.'
b. tàgà-rá- $\bar{a}^{n}=\varnothing$ sà $s \bar{a}$
sheep-Nom=Ipfv Fut come.Ipfv
'The sheep-Sg will come.'
$\left.\begin{array}{lrl}\text { c. } & \begin{array}{l}\text { tàgà-rá }=\varnothing \\ \text { sheep-Nom=be }\end{array} & \text { [mùú } \\ \text { 'The sheep-Sg is in the field.' } & \text { dù] }\end{array}\right]$

Subjects are immediately followed by nonverbal predicates (without intervening enclitics) only in negative copula and locational predicates. See §11.2.3.4 for discussion and examples.

### 6.1.5 Nominal suffixes in other syntactic functions

For a summary of syntactic functions disallowing the nominal suffix on the final word of a singular NP, see ( 155 c ) in §6.1.3 above. Examples illustrating these contexts, and one that does require the suffix (postverbal NP), will now be given. Here as elsewhere \# means ungrammatical.

Preverbal object NPs may not end in a nominal suffix (164a-b). However, postverbal NPs (indirect objects of 'give' and 'show', objects of the few VO transitive verbs, and nouns functioning as adverbs without a postposition) occur in clause-final position and therefore require the nominal suffix, for plural as well as singular NPs (164c-d).
(164)

| a. | mā | jáā (\#náā-nà) | jìé |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
|  | 1 Sg | woman (\#woman-Nom) | see.Pfv |

'I saw a/the woman.'
b. mā jáā-nà-à ${ }^{n}$ (\#náā-nà-à-nū) jíz

1Sg woman-Nom-Pl (\#woman-Nom-Pl-Nom) see.Pfv
'I saw (the) women.'
c. mā wár bilí dírá (\#dí)

1 Sg money give.Pfv child-Nom
'I gave the money to the child.'
d. mā wár bìlí dí-rá-à-nū (\#dí-rá-àn $)$

1 Sg money give.Pfv child-Nom-Pl-Nom
'I gave the money to the children.'

NPs functioning as complements of postpositions may not end in a nominal suffix (165a-b).
(165)

| a. | $m \bar{a}$ | $s \varepsilon$ | [nááa (\#náā-nà) | $d \grave{\varepsilon}]$ |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
|  | 1 Sg | come.Pfv | [woman (\#woman-Nom) | with] |

'I came with (=brought) a/the woman.'
b. mā sé [náā-nà-àn (\#náā-à-nū) dé]

1 Sg come.Pfv [woman-Nom-Pl (\#woman-Nom-Pl-Nom) with]
'I came with (=brought) saw (the) women.'
The left conjunct of an ' X and Y ' conjunction may not end in a nominal suffix (166a-b). The right conjunct, not at issue here, may or may not end in a nominal suffix, depending on the syntactic position of the entire conjoined NP.
a. jáá (\#náā-nà)
woman (\#woman-Nom)
bù̀ù mā-n
'(a/the) woman and me'
and $\quad 1$ Sg-Indep

```
b. náã-nà-àn (#náã-nà-à-nū) búrú mā-n
woman-Nom-Pl (#woman-Nom-Pl-Nom) and 1Sg-Indep
'(the) women and me'
```

A possessor NP may not end in a nominal suffix. The possessum that follows it, not at issue here, may or may not end in a nominal suffix, depending on the syntactic function of the entire possessed NP.
a. Jáā (\#náā-nà)
woman (\#woman-Nom)
tàgà-rá
sheep-Nom
'(a/the) woman's sheep-Sg'
b. náā-nà-àn (\#náā-nà-à-nū)
woman-Nom-Pl (\#woman-Nom-Pl-Nom)
tàgà-rá
'(the) women's sheep-Sg'

The discourse particle dò?ò 'also, too' likewise disallows nominal suffixes (168a-b).
a. Jáā (\#náā-nà)
dò?ò
woman (\#woman-Nom) also
'(a/the) woman too'
$\begin{array}{lll}\text { b. náā-nà-à }{ }^{n} \text { (\#náā-nà-à-nū) } & \text { dó?ó } \\ & \text { woman-Nom-Pl (\#woman-Nom-Pl-Nom) } & \text { also } \\ & \text { '(the) women too' } & \end{array}$

### 6.2 Possession

### 6.2.1 Addition of a possessor to an NP

The possessor precedes the noun and its modifiers. Addition of a possessor affects the tones, but generally not the order or suffixation of the following words (169a-b,e). An exception to this is that adding a possessor to an NP ending in a nonsingular numeral allows optional addition of nominal and plural suffixes to the numeral (169c-d).
a. ádámá
sàà-rá
[poss-n]
A house-Nom
'Adama's house'
b. $w \bar{o}$
sàà-rá-à ${ }^{n}$
[poss-n]
2Sg house-Nom-Pl
‘your-Sg houses’

| c. | wó | sàà | sígbó <br> sígbó-rá-à |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| $2 S g$ house <br> three-Nom-Pl  | [poss-n-num] |  |  |

### 6.2.2 Alienable and inalienable possession

The alienable/inalienable distinction is made in some but not all possessor-possessum combinations. Where the distinction is overt, it is expressed by tones on the possessum. Inalienables are kin terms and body parts.

The data in the following sections can be summarized in (170). Parentheses indicate tones of the nominal suffix of the possessum.

| possessum | alienable possessor |  |  | inalienable possessor |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | +3 Sg | -3 Sg | M | +3 Sg | -3 Sg | M |



The generalizations are those in (171).
(171) a. +3 Sg possessor always requires $\{\mathrm{L}(\mathrm{H})\}$;
b. M-Spreading occurs in inalienable but not alienable possession;
c. inalienable -3 Sg possessors control $\{\mathrm{H}(\mathrm{H})\}$ on the possessum;
d. alienable -3 Sg (including M) possessors control $\{\mathrm{L}(\mathrm{H})\}$ on $/ \mathrm{L} /$, and control $\{\mathrm{L}(\mathrm{L})\}$ on $/ \mathrm{M} /$ or $/ \mathrm{H} /$

### 6.2.2.1 Lexically /L/-melody nouns as possessums

Noun stems that consist of L-toned syllables always have an H-toned nominal suffix, e.g. wù-rś 'head', nù?ù-nś 'wrap (n)'.
(172) shows the tonal behavior of these nouns when they follow an M-toned possessor pronoun ( $1 \mathrm{Sg}, 2 \mathrm{Sg}$, or 2 Pl ). Inalienables (all examples known to me with this lexical tone melody are body parts) become M-toned. This is attributable to M-Spreading, with the M-tone originating in the possessor (172a). Alienables have the same tones as when unpossessed (172b), though comparison with data in the following sections will suggest that this is the accidental effect of an $\{\mathrm{L}(\mathrm{H})\}$ overlay.
(172) /L/-melody noun as possessum after M-toned possessor pronoun
noun gloss 'my_, 'your-Sg_, 'your-Pl_,

| a. inalienables |  | M-Spreading | M-Spreading | M-Spreading |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| wù-ró | 'head' | $m a ̄ ~ w u ̄-r o ̄ ~$ | $w \overline{~ w u ̄-r o ̄ ~}$ | $\bar{e} \bar{e}^{n} w \bar{u}-r \bar{o}$ |
| nì-ná | 'blood' | mā nī-nā | $w o ̄ n i ̄-n a \bar{a}$ | $\bar{e} \bar{e}^{n} n \overline{1}-n \bar{a}$ |
| sò-nó | 'heart' | mā s | wō s̄̄-nう̄ | $\bar{e} \bar{e}^{n}$ S $\overline{0}-n \bar{\nu}$ |
| nù?ù-nó | 'intestine' | $m a ̄ ~ n u ̄ P u ̄-n \bar{o}$ | $w o ̄ ~ n u ̄ ? \bar{u}-n \bar{o}$ | $\bar{e} \bar{e}^{n} n \bar{u} P \bar{u}-n \bar{s}$ |
| b. alienables |  | \{L(H) \} | \{L(H) \} | \{L(H) \} |
| kj̀-nó | 'bird' | mā kò-nó | wō kò-nó | $\bar{e} \bar{e}^{n}$ kj̀-nó |
| gù-nó | 'mortar' | mā gù-nó | wō gù-nó | ēē ${ }^{n}$ gù-nó |
| mò-nó | 'rope' | mā mò-nó | wō mò-nó | ēē ${ }^{n}$ mò-nó |
| tù-ró | 'millet cake' | mā tù-ró | wō tù-ró | $\bar{e} \bar{e}^{n}$ tù-ró |
| tò?ò-rá | 'pot, jar' | mā tò O -̀rá | wō tò?ò-rá | ēen ${ }^{n}$ tò ${ }^{\text {àòrá }}$ |
| jù?ù-nó | 'wrap (n)' | mā nùpù-nó | wō nù ${ }^{\text {ù-nó }}$ | ēē ${ }^{n}$ nù ${ }^{\text {àù-nó }}$ |

Array (173) below shows combinations of these /L/-melody nouns with 1 Pl and 3Pl (human and nonhuman) possessor pronouns. In their basic (underlying) form, these pronouns are L-toned and bimoraic. Inalienable nouns, including the nominal suffix, are subject to an $\{\mathrm{H}(\mathrm{H})\}$ overlay after these possessors (173a). Alienables have the same tones as when unpossessed; again, we will see that this is accidental, due to an $\{\mathrm{L}(\mathrm{H})\}$ overlay. Since the alienable possessums begins with L-tones, a preceding bimoraic L-toned possessor undergoes Final Tone-Raising in (173b), e.g. mù ${ }^{n}{ }^{n} \rightarrow$ mù?ún.
(173) /L/-melody noun as possessum after other plural possessor pronouns

| noun | gloss | 'our __' | 'their __' |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  |  |  | human | nonhuman |
| a. inalienables |  | \{ $\mathrm{H}(\mathrm{H})$ \} | \{H(H) \} | \{ $\mathrm{H}(\mathrm{H})$ \} |
| wù-ró | 'head' | mùpùn wú-ró | àà ${ }^{\text {núr-ró }}$ | èè ${ }^{n}$ Wú-ró |
| nì-ná | 'blood' | mùnùn ní-ná | ààn ní-ná | èèn $n i ́-n a ́$ |
| sò-nó | 'heart' | mù?ù ${ }^{n}$ só-nó | àà ${ }^{n}$ Só-nó | èè ${ }^{n}$ só-nó |
| nù?ù-nó | 'intestine' | mù?ù ${ }^{n}$ núpú-nó | àà ${ }^{\text {núpú-nó }}$ | è̀̀ ${ }^{n}$ nú?ú-nó |


| b. alienables |  | $\{\mathrm{L}(\mathrm{H})$ \} | $\{\mathrm{L}(\mathrm{H})$ \} | $\{\mathrm{L}(\mathrm{H})$ \} |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| kò-nó | 'bird' | mùpún kò-nó | àà ${ }^{\text {n }}$ kònó | èè ${ }^{\text {n }}$ kò-nó |
| gù-nó | 'mortar' | mùpûn gù-nó | àà ${ }^{\text {n }}$ gù-nó | èè ${ }^{n}$ gù-nó |
| mò-nó | 'rope' | mù?ún mò-nó | ààn mò-nó | èén ${ }^{\text {m }}$ mò-nó |
| tù-ró | 'millet cake' | mù?ún tù-ró | àán tù-ró | èèn tù-ró |
| tò?ò-rá | 'pot, jar' | mù?ún tòTò-rá | àá ${ }^{n}$ tòYò-rá | èèn tò?ò-rá |
| nù?ù-nó | 'wrap (n)' | mùpún nù?ù-nó | ààn nùpù-nó | èe ${ }^{n}$ nù ${ }^{\text {àù-nó }}$ |

After 3 Sg possessor pronouns, /L/-melody nouns have the same tonal form that they have when unpossessed. As noted above, this is accidental, since the possessed forms have an $\{\mathrm{L}(\mathrm{H})\}$ overlay that mimics the unpossessed tones. After a 3 Sg possessor, there is no tonal distinction between alienable and inalienable.
(174) /L/-melody noun as possessum after 3 Sg possessor pronoun

| noun | gloss | 'his/her __' | 'its |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| a. inalienables |  | \{L(H) \} | \{L(H) $\}$ |
| wù-ró | 'head' | à wù-ró | è wù-ró |
| nì-ná | 'blood' | à nì-ná | è jì-ná |
| sò-nó | 'heart' | à sò-nó | è sò-nó |
| nùpù-nó | 'intestine' | à nùpù-nó | è nùpù-nó |
| b. alienables |  | \{L(H) \} | \{L(H) $\}$ |
| kò-nó | 'bird' | à kò-nó | è kò-nó |
| gù-nó | 'mortar' | à gù-nó | è gù-nó |
| mò-nó | 'rope' | à mò-nó | è mò-nó |
| tù-ró | 'millet cake' | à tù-ró | è tù-ró |
| tòPò-rá | 'pot, jar' | à tò?ò-rá | è tòPò-rá |
| jù?ù-nó | 'wrap (n)' | à nù?ù-nó | è nù?ù-nó |

It is indeterminate whether the $\{\mathrm{L}(\mathrm{H})\}$ overlay also applies to the possessum in those contexts where the nominal suffix is absent for syntactic reasons. A form like à wù-ró 'his head' appears as à wǔ without the suffix. However, because singular possessed NPs like 'his head' are syntactically +3 Sg , and so require that the following word begin with an L-tone, the rising tone of à wǔ can always be accounted for by Final Tone-Raising, i.e. by tone sandhi.

### 6.2.2.2 Lexically /M/-melody nouns as possessums

In (175) below, 'my' is the representative for all M-toned pronouns (including 2 Sg and 2 Pl ), 'his/her' represents both L-toned 3Sg pronouns (human and nonhuman), and 'our' represents all L-toned plural pronouns (1Pl, 3PlHum, 3PlNonh). Again, inalienable is distinct from alienable, except in the 3 Sg forms.

The 3 Sg possessors control a rising $\{\mathrm{L}(\mathrm{H})\}$ overlay on the possessum, whether alienable or inalienable. Unlike the case with /L/-melody noun stems (preceding section), this overlay is audible for the M-toned nouns.

The inalienables have the same tone patterns with these / $\mathrm{M} /$-melody nouns as with the /L/-melody nouns described above. M-toned possessors like 'my' spread the M-tone into the noun, including the nominal suffix. L-toned plural possessors control $\{\mathrm{H}(\mathrm{H})\}$ on the possessum.

For alienables, both 'my' and 'our' possessor types control $\{\mathrm{L}(\mathrm{L})\}$ on the possessum. The domain of the overlay includes the nominal suffix of the possessum, if present. In the 'our' type, the L-toned possessor must therefore undergo Final Tone-Raising before the L-initial possessum.
(175) /M/-melody noun as possessum after possessor pronouns

| noun | gloss | 'my _ , | 'his/her__' | 'our |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| a. inalienables |  | M-Spreading | \{L(H) \} | $\{\mathrm{H}(\mathrm{H})$ \} |
| kp̄̄-rō | 'leg' | $m a ̄ ~ k p \bar{\jmath}-r \bar{\jmath}$ | à kpò-ró | mù?ùn kpó-ró |
| kōyī-rā | 'belly' | mā kōyī-rā | à kòyì-rá | mù ${ }^{\text {n }}$ º́l $k$ yí-rá |
| $g \bar{g} g \overline{-}-r \bar{o}$ | 'chest' | $m a \overline{~ g} \overline{\mathrm{~g}} \bar{\jmath}-r \bar{\jmath}$ | à gògò-ró | mùpùn gógó-ró |
| b. alienables |  | \{L(L) \} | \{L(H) \} | \{L(L) \} |
| k $\overline{-}-\bar{\jmath}$ | 'honey' | mā kò-nò | à kò-nó | mù un $^{n}$ kò-nò |
| $j u \overline{-r}$ rō | 'millet' | mā jù-rò | à jù-ró | mùPún jù-rò |
| bāPā-rā | 'porridge' | mā bàrà-rà | à bà?à-rá | mùPún bà ${ }^{\text {à-rà }}$ |
| k $\bar{\rho} 1 \bar{\jmath} k \bar{\jmath}-r \bar{\sim}$ | 'talk (n)' | mā kòlòkò-rò | à kòlı̀kò-ró | mùpún $k$ kılokjorò |

### 6.2.2.3 Lexically /H/-melody nouns as possessums

The nouns in (176) have $/ \mathrm{H}(\mathrm{H})$ / melody, including the nominal suffix. The possessed forms of these nouns have the same tone patterns as the $/ \mathrm{M} /-$ melody nouns discussed in the preceding section. 3 Sg possessors control $\{\mathrm{L}(\mathrm{H})\}$ overlay on both alienable and inalienable nouns. Inalienables undergo M-Spreading after M-toned possessor pronouns like 'my'. They have an $\{\mathrm{H}(\mathrm{H})\}$ overlay after other plural possessor pronouns like 'our', as they do after all possessors. Alienables drop to $\{\mathrm{L}(\mathrm{L})\}$ after both the 'my' and 'our' types, and the nominal suffix is included in its domain.
/H/-melody noun as possessum after possessor pronouns

| noun | gloss | 'my _ , | 'his/her__' | 'our |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| a. inalienables |  | M-Spreading | $\{\mathrm{L}(\mathrm{H})$ \} | $\{\mathrm{H}(\mathrm{H})$ \} |
| ní-ná | 'tooth' | mā nī-nā | à nì-ná | mù?ùn ní-ná |
| sú-nó | 'nose' | $m \bar{a} s u \bar{u}-n \bar{\nu}$ | à sù-nó | mù?ùn sú-nó |
| jé-ná | 'father' | $m a ̄ ~ j \bar{\varepsilon}-n \bar{a}$ | à jè-ná | mù?ùn ${ }^{\text {j }}$ ¢-ná |
| dí-rá | 'child' | $m a ̄ d i ̄-r a ̄$ | à dì-rá | mù2ùn dí-rá |
| tóPó-rá | 'name' | $m a ̄ ~ t o ̄ p o ̄-r a ̄ ~$ | à tò O -rá | mù ${ }^{\text {a }}$ n tóPó-rá |
| b. alienables |  | \{L(L) \} | $\{\mathrm{L}(\mathrm{H})$ \} | \{L(L) \} |
| yí-rá | 'water' | mā yì-rà | à yìrá | mù?ún yìrà |
| bí-ná | 'grass' | mā bì-nà | à bì-ná | mùRún bì-nà |
| yî?é-rá | 'fish' | mā yị̀è-rà | à yì?è-rá | mùpún yì̧è-rà |

### 6.2.2.4 Contour-toned nouns as possessums

Inalienable nouns bèlèncí(-nà) 'uncle', níní(-nà) 'tongue', búpū-nà 'liver', representing $/ \mathrm{LLH} /$, $/ \mathrm{H}(\mathrm{L}) /$, and $/ \mathrm{HM}(\mathrm{L}) /$, follow only in part the script summarized in (170) above. 1 Sg forms show M-Spreading through the stem but not into the suffix: mā bēlēncī-nà (variant mā bèlèncí-nà), mā nīnī-nà, but mā búpū-nà. Human 3 Sg possessor: à bèlèncí-nà, à nìní-nà, but à búpū-nà. -3 Sg exemplified by 1 Pl possessor: mù?ùn béléncí-nà, mù?ùn níní-nà, but mù?ùn búpū-nà.

Alienable nouns checked were bìrìkí(-rà) 'brick', sìnápán(-nà) 'roselle', bíní(-nà) 'granary', kápòn(-ná) 'daba', só?ō(-rò) 'firewood', and ìkájè(-ná) 'tree sp. (Alchornea)'. Мy assistant kept lexical melodies rather than applying overlays: mā/à/mù?ún bìrìkí-rà and so forth for the others.

### 6.2.2.5 Tone of modifiers following inalienably possessed noun

In this section the issue is the tonal treatment of Poss-N-Adj and Poss-N-Num combinations.
In simple possessor-possessum combinations, the possessor undergoes no tonal changes other than simple tone sandhi (Final Tone-Raising before L-toned possessum). The possessum that follows it does undergo tonal ablaut, after which the possessum (with or without its final nominal suffix) has one of the following tone patterns, using bisyllabics as examples: MM, HH, LL, LH. Of these, MM and HH are limited to inalienable possession, LL is limited to alienable possession, and LH occurs in both types of possession.
a. MM (inalienable only, M-toned pronominal possessor)

$$
\begin{array}{ll}
\text { 'my head' } & m \bar{a} w \bar{u}-r \bar{o} \\
\text { 'my tooth' } & m \bar{a} n \bar{i}-n \bar{a}
\end{array}
$$

b. HH (inalienable only, -3 Sg possessor)

$$
\text { ‘our head’ mù?̀̀n }{ }^{n} \text { wú-ró }
$$

'our tooth' mù?ù ${ }^{n}$ ní-ná
c. LL (alienable only, -3 Sg possessor)
'my millet' mā jù-rò
'my fish' mā yì?è-rà
'our millet' mù?ún jù-rò
'our fish' mùPún yì?è-rà
d. LH
$-3 S g$, alienable only

| 'my rope' | mā mò-nó |
| :--- | :--- |
| 'our rope' | mùpùn mò-nó |

+3 Sg, alienable or inalienable
'his/her head' à wù-ró
'his/her tooth' à nì-ná
'his/her rope' à mò-nó
'his/her millet' à jù-ró
'his/her fish' à yìpè-rá

When an adjective is added to a possessor-possessum combination, we need to determine whether the domain of the ablaut overlay that applies to the possessum includes the adjective.
(178) below presents Poss-N-Adj combinations. In (178a), M-Spreading may go all the way to the adjective, although pronunciation is somewhat variable.

In (178b-c), the possessum has a level-toned ablaut overlay $\{\mathrm{H}(\mathrm{H})\}$ or $\{\mathrm{L}(\mathrm{L})\}$. This level tone extends to the end of the adjective, erasing the adjective's lexical tones (178a-c). In the case of $\{\mathrm{H}) \mathrm{H})\}$, the adjective is downstepped (178b).

The $\{\mathrm{L}(\mathrm{H})\}$ overlay extends its L-tone only to the final syllable of the noun, while the adjective surfaces with its lexical tones. Since the noun cannot have an overt nominal suffix before a modifier, the final H of $\{\mathrm{L}(\mathrm{H})\}$ which was destined for the suffix is unexpressed. Furthermore, the L-toned noun does not undergo Final Tone-Raising before an L-toned adjective ('our black rope', 'his/her black fish'). This is the case for $\{\mathrm{L}(\mathrm{H})\}$ whether controlled by +3 Sg possessors (178e) or by -3 Sg possessors (178d).
a. possessum M-toned by M-Spreading (mā nī-nā 'my tooth')

| mā $n \overline{1} g b \bar{o} ? \bar{o}-r a \bar{a}$ | 'my black tooth' | $g b o ̀ ? o ̀ ~ ' b l a c k ' ~$ |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| mā $n \overline{1} k a ̄ n-n a \bar{a}$ | 'my red tooth' | kānā 'red' |
| mā $n i ̄ ~ s u ̄ m a ̄ a ̄-n a ̄ ~$ | 'my long tooth' | súmáá 'long' |

b. possessum with $\{\mathrm{H}(\mathrm{H})\}$ ) overlay (mùpùn ní-ná ‘our tooth') mù?ù ${ }^{n}$ ní $\downarrow g b o ́ ? o ́-r a ́ ~ ' o u r ~ b l a c k ~ t o o t h ' ~ g b o ̀ ? o ̀ ~ ' b l a c k ' ~$ mù?ùn ní tkán-ná 'our red tooth’ kānā 'red' mù?ùn $n i ́$ tsúmáá-ná 'our long tooth' súmáá 'long'
c. possessum with $\{\mathrm{L}(\mathrm{L})\}$ overlay (mù?ún yì?è-rà 'our fish')
mù?ún yì?è gbò?ò-rà 'our black fish' gbò?ò 'black'
mù?ún yì?è kàn-nà 'our red fish' kānā 'red' mùpún yị̀è sùmàà-nà 'our long fish' súmáá 'long'
d. possessum with $\{\mathrm{L}(\mathrm{H})\}$ overlay, -3 Sg possessor (mù?ún mò-nó 'our rope')
mù?ún mò gbòPò-rá 'our black rope' gbòPò ‘black'
mù?ún mò kān-nā 'our red rope' kānā 'red'
mùpún mò súmáá-ná 'our long rope' súmáá 'long'
e. possessum with $\{\mathrm{L}(\mathrm{H})\}$ overlay, +3 Sg possessor (à yì̀è-rá 'his/her fish')
à yìPè gbòlò-rá 'his/her black fish' gbò?ò 'black'
à yìlè kān-nā 'his/her red fish' kānā 'red'
à yì ${ }^{2}$ súmáá-ná 'his/her long fish' súmáá 'long'

In simple N -Num combinations without a possessor, regular tone sandhi applies (including Floating L-Docking), but there is no tonal ablaut as such. When a possessor is added, the obvious issue (as with Poss-N-Adj sequences above) is whether the tone overlay that the possessor controls on the possessed noun stops with that noun or also extends to the numeral. It turns out, however, that there is also a morphological issue. In Poss-N-Num combinations, unlike simple N -Num, the numeral is often (though not always) provided with a plural suffix, which then also requires a preceding nominal suffix. The plural suffix $-\grave{a}^{n}$ may itself be followed by a final nominal suffix $-\bar{n} \sim-n \bar{u}$, in syntactic positions that allow it (i.e. prepausally).
(179) illustrates Poss-N-Num combinations. (179a) and (179d-e) are tonally parallel to (178a) and (178d-e) above. (179b-c) show that the domain of overlays $\{H(H)\}$ and $\{L(L)\}$ do not extend to the numeral, so here there is a divergence between Poss-N-Num in (179b-c) below and Poss-N-Adj in (178b-c) above.
a. possessum M-toned (mā nī-nā 'my tooth')
mā nī Sīgbō-rā-à-n
mā nī sōōl-lā-à- $\bar{n}$
mā nī mà-Sīgbō-rā-à-n

| 'my three teeth' | sīgbō ' 3 ', |
| :--- | :--- |
| 'my five teeth' | sóóló ' 5 ' |
| 'my eight teeth' | mà-sīgb ${ }^{\text {' } 8,}$ |

b. possessum H-toned (mùpù ${ }^{n}$ ní-ná 'our tooth')
mù?ùn ní sīgbō-rā-à-n̄ 'our three teeth' sīgbō '3'
mù?ùn $n i ́ ~ t s o ́ o ́ l-l a ́-a ̀-n ̄ ~ ' o u r ~ f i v e ~ t e e t h ' ~ s o ́ o ́ l o ́ ~ ' 5 ' ~$
mù?ùn ní mà-sīgbō-rā-à-n̄ 'our eight teeth' mà-sīgbō ' 8 '
c. possessum L-toned (mù?ún yì?è-rà 'our fish')
mùpún yìpè sīgbō-rā-à-n 'our three fish' sīgbō '3'
mù?ún yìpè sóól-lá-à-n 'our five fish' sóóló '5'
mùPún yìPè má-sīgbō-rā-à-n 'our eight fish' mà-sīgbō ' 8 '
d. possessum LH-toned, -3 Sg possessor (mù $\mathrm{u}^{n}$ mò-nó ‘our rope')
mùpún ${ }^{n}$ m̀̀ sīgbō-rā-à-̄̄ 'our three ropes' sīgbō '3'
mùpún mò sóól-lá-à-n 'our five ropes' sóóló' 5 '
mùPún mò má-sīgbō-rā-à-n 'our eight ropes' mà-sīgbō ‘ 8 '
e. possessum LH-toned, +3 Sg possessor (à yị̀è-rá 'his/her fish')
à yì è sīgbō-rā-à-n̄ 'his/her three fish' sīgbō '3'
à yìRè sóól-lá-à-n 'his/her five fish' sóóló '5'
à yị̀è má-sīgbō-rā-à-n $\quad$ 'his/her eight fish' mà-sīgbō ' 8 '

For sóóló, alongside the apocopated sóól-lá-à-n̄ there is an unreduced variant sóóló-ráà-à-n.

### 6.2.3 Recursive possession

In combinations of the type [X's Y]'s Z, possession is recursive. The nominal suffix may occur only on the final possessum Z in favorable syntactic positions. Therefore the nominal suffix in 'my cat' or 'my uncle' in (180b) is absent in (180c). Both possessums have the tones we expect from rules given above.
a. jàngbáā wù-ró
cat head-Nom
'the head of the cat'
b. mā jànbáā-rà / bé-rà
1 Sg cat-Nom / uncle-Nom
'my cat/uncle'

c. | [mà | jànbáā / bé $]$ | Wù-ró |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| $\left[\begin{array}{ll}1 \mathrm{Sg} & \text { cat } / \text { uncle }]\end{array}\right.$ | head-Nom |  |
| 'the head of my cat/my uncle.' |  |  |.

### 6.2.4 Default possessum (mì )

The morpheme mì is used when no specific possessum is overt, compare English mine, French le mien, etc. In syntactic positions requiring the nominal suffix, the form is singular mì-nà, plural mì-ná-à-nū. For the singular, one would have expected \#mì-ná with H-toned suffix instead of mì-nà, on the model of monomoraic /L/-melody nouns like nì-ná 'blood'. However, (181) shows mì-nà with the exception of the 3 Sg possessor forms. However, the expected H-tone does materialize consistently in the plural form mì-ná-à-nū, for all pronominal possessors.
(181) Pronouns with default possessum mì ( +3 Sg mǐ)

|  | with suffix | without suffix |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 1 Sg | mā mì-nà | mā mì |
| 1 Pl | mù ${ }^{\text {un }}$ mì-nà | mù?ún mì |
| 2 Sg | wō mì-nà | wō mì |
| 2 Pl | ēén mi-nà | $\bar{e} e^{n} m i$ |
| 3 SgHum | à mì-ná | à mǐ |
| 3SgNonh | è mì-ná | è mǐ |
| 3PlHum | àan ${ }^{\text {n }}$ mi-nà | àán mì |
| 3PlNonh | c̀è ${ }^{n}$ mìnà | èén ${ }^{n} \mathrm{lì}$ |

Nonpronominal NP possessors take mì $\sim$ mí based on the usual +3 Sg versus -3 Sg distinction. The suffixed singulars are then mì-ná (now with the expected H-toned suffix) and mí-nà, respectively. Thus dí mì-ná 'the child's', dí-rá-àn mí-nà 'the children's', zàkîì mí-nà 'Zaki’s'.

Examples with default possessums as subjects of their clauses are in (182). The nominal suffix is absent in this function when directly followed by a verb (182a) or by a noun-initial NP. The suffix does appear in perfectives when directly followed by a pronominal clitic, especially third person (182b). L-toned mì is subject to Final Tone-Raising (to mř) before an L-tone (182a), but the rise is not always audible and mǐ is sometimes realized as something like [mī].
a. [mã
mǐ]
sè $\varepsilon$
[1Sg Poss]
come.Pfv
'Mine has come.'

```
b. [mā mì-n=] é wěē
[1Sg Poss-Nom] 3SgNonhObj go.Pfv
'Mine has gone (away).'(variant mì-n= í wěe` )
```

In non-subject functions (e.g. object or nonsubject possessor), the possessor takes reflexive form if it is coindexed with the subject (183).
a. $m \bar{a}$
[nāān ${ }^{n}$ mǐ] dòní
$1 \mathrm{Sg} \quad[1 \mathrm{SgRefl}$ Poss] eat.meat.Pfv
'I have eaten (=devoured) mine.'
b. bákàr $=$ [áà mì] dòní

B [3SgHumRefl Poss] eat.meat.Pfv
'Bakari has eaten (=devoured) his (own).' (/bákàrì à mì dòní/)
c. mā $\left[\left[n a ̄ a a^{n} \quad m i ̌\right] \quad w u ̌\right] ~ t e ̌ e ̄ ~$
$1 \mathrm{Sg} \quad[[1 \mathrm{SgRefl}$ Poss] head] shatter.Pfv
'I have shattered (=crushed) the head of mine (=my lion cub).' (2016_02 @ 01:42)

For the use of this default possessum construction in predicates with 'it is X ' enclitic ('it's mine', etc.), see $\S 11.5 .3 .2$.

### 6.3 Core NP (noun plus adjective)

### 6.3.1 Noun plus regular adjective

In the combination N -Adj, the nominal suffix and plural suffix, if required by the wider morphosyntactic context, are added to the adjective, and the noun stem is bare.
a. jáā-nà
woman-Nom
'a/the woman'
b. jáā jè-ná
woman good-Nom
'a/the good woman'
c. náā jı̀̀-ná-à-nū
woman good-Nom-Pl-Pl-Nom
'(the) good women'

Tonal interactions in N -Adj combinations are described with examples in the following sections. The table in (185) anticipates and summarizes the results. Where N -Adj combinations are discussed in this chapter, to distinguish nominal from adjectival lexical melodies and surface tones, I use lowercase ( 1 m h ) for the latter. Lexical melodies of the noun are shown on top, in uppercase (L M H). The hyphen indicates the break between the adjectival stem and the nominal suffix, so H l-h means H-toned noun followed by L-toned adjective with H-toned nominal suffix. The final $(\mathrm{L})$ or $(\mathrm{H})$ is shown in the nominal melodies even where redundant.
(185) Noun-adjectival tonal patterns (summary)

| adj | noun |  |  |  |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | /H(H)/ | /M(M)/ | /L(H)/ | $\begin{gathered} \text { /H(L)/ } \\ \text { /HM(L)/ } \end{gathered}$ | /LH(L)/ | /MH(L)/ |
| $/ \mathrm{m}(\mathrm{m}) /$ | H m-m | M m-m | a) $\mathrm{L} \mathrm{m}-\mathrm{m}$ <br> b) L 1-h | H 1-1 | LH 1-1 | MH 1-1 |
| /1(h)/ | H 1-h | MH 1-h | a) LH 1-h <br> b) L 1-h | H 1-h | LH 1-h | MH 1-h |
| /h(h)/ | $\mathrm{H}^{+} \mathrm{h}-\mathrm{h}$ | M h-h | L h-h |  |  |  |
| /h(1)/ | H h-1 | M h-1 | L h-1 |  |  |  |
| /hm)1) | H hm-l | M hm-1 | L hm-1 |  |  |  |
| /hm(1)/inv |  |  |  | H hm-1 | LH hm-1 | MH hm-1 |

Final Tone-Raising and low-level downstep in $\mathrm{H}^{\downarrow} \mathrm{h}-\mathrm{h}$ are the only tonal modifications on adjectives that follow a level-toned noun (/H/, /M/, or /L/). Factoring this out, the following generalizations can be made.
a. Before an adjective, $/ \mathrm{HM}(\mathrm{L}) /$ merges with $/ \mathrm{H}(\mathrm{L}) /$;
b. Nouns with associated $\{\mathrm{L}$ ) drop $/ \mathrm{m} /$ adjectives to $1-1$ (so that even the suffix is L-toned);
c. The same nouns with associated (L) shift all other adjectives to $/ 1-\mathrm{h} /$, except invariant /hm(l)/ adjectives which are unaffected
d. There are two types of $/ \mathrm{L}(\mathrm{H})$ / melody nouns, one of which ('person') irregularly merges tonally with a following $1(\mathrm{~h})$ or $\mathrm{m}(\mathrm{m})$ adjective to form $\mathrm{L} 1-\mathrm{h}$, the other being phonologically regular.

Most of the processes in (186) are akin to tone-sandhi rules but are arguably morphologically specialized. (186a) could be treated as a special case of H-Leveling (§3.8.3.2). (186c) could be analysed phonologically as two different versions of Floating-L Docking (§3.8.3.4). (186b) could be analysed in the same way as (186c), with the further twist that M-Spreading has previously applied to the adjective-suffix combination, forming a tonally rigid terrace, so when the floating L lowers the tones of the adjective the suffix is included.

### 6.3.1.1 Tones of noun-adjective combinations

Adjectives representing various tonal types are in (187). The lexical tones for 'red' and 'black' are unmistakable, but those of the other four require discussion.

| (187) | adjective | tones | with suffix |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
|  | gloss |  |  |
| kānā | $/ \mathrm{m}(\mathrm{m}) /$ | kān-nā | 'red' |
| gbò?ò | $/ \mathrm{l}(\mathrm{h}) /$ | gbò?ò-rá | 'black' |
| súmáá | $\mathrm{h}(\mathrm{h}) /$ | súmáá-ná | 'long' |
| gbó | $\mathrm{h}(\mathrm{l}) /$ | gbó-rò | 'big' |
| táā | $/ \mathrm{hm}(\mathrm{l}) /$ | táā-rà | 'hot' |
| wúdō | $/ \mathrm{hm}(\mathrm{l}) /$-invariant | wúd̄̄-rò | 'new' |

The adjectives in (187) combine with nouns of various tone classes as shown below. Apologies for semantically nonsensical combinations. We must jointly consider tonal processes affecting the noun (other than low-level tone sandhi) and those affecting the adjective.

The most straightforward adjectival type is the $/ \mathrm{l}(\mathrm{h}) /$-toned 'black' (188). In the ' N -adj tones" column, any tones of the noun that are different from those in isolation (i.e. in the " N tones" column) are underlined.

```
gbòPò 'black' (/l/ melody)
```

| noun | N tones | with Adj | N -adj tones | gloss |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| yîPé | /H(H)/ | yílé gbò ${ }^{\text {cò-rá }}$ | H 1-h | 'fish' |
| gbāā | /M(M)/ | gbāá gbò?ò-rá | MH 1-h | 'stick' |
| nùpùn ${ }^{\text {n }}$ | /L(H)/-a | jù ${ }^{\text {an }}$ gbò $\mathrm{lò}$-rá | L H $^{\text {l-h }}$ | 'wrap (n)' |
| mìhì ${ }^{\text {n }}$ | /L(H)/-b | mìlịn gbòpò-rá | L 1-h | 'person' |
| kpésé | /H(L) / | kpésé gbò?ò-rá | H 1-h | 'chewstick' |
| kúrū ${ }^{n}$ | /HM(L) / | kúrún gbò?ò-rá | H 1-h | 'boat' |
| tòfá | /LH(L)/ | tòfá gbòPò-rá | LH 1-h | 'brick' |
| mōtó | /MH(L)/ | mōtó gbò?ò-rá | MH 1-h | 'motorcyc |

'Black' has invariant $\mathrm{L}(\mathrm{H})$-toned form throughout, but there are some tonal processes affecting the preceding noun. 'Wrap (n)' goes from L.L to L.H before an L-tone by Final Tone-Raising (§3.8.3.1). Irregular 'person', also L.L, does not undergo this process. The merger of $/ \mathrm{HM}(\mathrm{L}) /$ with $/ \mathrm{H}(\mathrm{L}) /$ nouns, here 'boat' and 'chewstick', is typical of all N-Adj combinations; see H-Leveling (§3.8.3.2).

In (189), the adjective is lexically $/ \mathrm{m} /$-toned 'red'. There is now a split into three sets of surface forms. I take the $\mathrm{m}(\mathrm{m})$-toned adjective in (189a) to reflect lexical $/ \mathrm{m}(\mathrm{m}) /$ melody. The adjective becomes l(h)-toned in (189b), by ablaut, and l(l)-toned in (189c), in both cases by Floating-L Docking (§3.8.3.4).
noun $\quad \mathrm{N}$ tones with $\operatorname{Adj} \quad \mathrm{N}$-adj tones gloss
a. adjective M-toned

| yíPé | /H(H)/ | yípé kān-nā | H m-m | fish' |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| gbāā | /M(M)/ | $g b a ̄ a ̄ ~ k a ̄ n-n a ̄ ~$ | M m-m | 'stick' |
| nù?ù ${ }^{n}$ | /L(H)/-a | $n u ̀ ? u{ }^{n} k a ̄ n-n a ̄$ | L m-m | 'wrap (n)' |

b. adjective LH-toned (irregular)
mì?ìn /LH/-b mì̀ìn kàn-ná L l-h 'person'
c. adjective L-toned

| kpésé | $/ \mathrm{H}(\mathrm{L}) /$ | kpésé kàn-nà | H 1-1 | 'chewstick' |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| kúrū${ }^{n}$ | $/ \mathrm{HM}(\mathrm{L}) /$ | kúrún kàn-nà | $\underline{\mathrm{H}} 1-1$ | 'boat' |
| tòfá | $/ \mathrm{LH}(\mathrm{L}) /$ | tòfá kàn-nà | $\mathrm{LH} 1-1$ | 'brick' |
| mōtó | $/ \mathrm{MH}(\mathrm{L}) /$ | mōtó kàn-nà | $\mathrm{MH} 1-1$ | 'motorcycle' |

The split between the adjectival tones in (189a) and (189c) above correlates with the tones of the nominal suffix following the same nouns when unmodified. The nouns in (189a) have non-low nominal suffixes (yí?é-rá, gbāā-rā, nù?ù-ná). Those in (189c) have L-toned suffixes (kpésé-rà, kúrú-nà, tòfá-rà, mōtó-rà ). The nouns in (189b) therefore have the ability to drop tones in a following suffix, or in a following adjective. Notably, the entire adjective including its nominal suffix is dropped to $1(1)$, which suggests a morphotonological process (tonal ablaut) rather than simple floating L. By contrast, irregular 'person' in (198b) has suffixed form mìrì-ná, with the same tones as suffixed nù̀ù-ná 'wrap (n)'. However, the adjective after 'person' has l-toned stem (and, if present, h-toned suffix). This could be analysed as an $\{1(\mathrm{~h})\}$ overlay, or as a floating L-tone that spreads to the end of the adjectival stem only.

The paradigms of 'big' (representing monomoraic $C V$ stems) in (190) and 'hot' (representing bimoraic or heavier stems) in (191) below each split into one set of combinations with h-initial (all-h or hm) adjective and another with $l(h)$-toned adjective due to a floating L-tone from the noun. 'Big' is gbó-rà in (190a) and gbò-rá in (190b). 'Hot' is táā-rà in (191a) and tàà-rá in (191b). The tones of these adjectives correlate with the tones of the nominal suffixes when added directly to the relevant unmodified nouns, and suggest that the nouns in (190b) and (191b) have a floating L-tone that spreads into the adjective (stem only). There is also a small class of $C v C v$ adjectives represented by wúd̄̄ ~ wútō 'new' in (192) that have the same $\mathrm{hm}(\mathrm{l})$ tones as 'hot' in (191a), but do not shift to l-h after nouns with floating L. This type is labeled "hm(l)-invariant."
(190)
$g b o ́ ~ ‘ b i g ’(/ h(l) /$ melody) (suffixed gbó-rà, irregular variant gbó-nà )
noun N tones with Adj N -adj tones gloss
a. adjective h-l

| yíqé | /H(H)/ | yílé gbó-rà | H h-1 | 'fish' |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| gbāā | /M(M)/ | $g b a ̄ a ̄ ~ g b o ́-r a ̀ ~$ | M h-1 | 'stick' |
| nù?ù ${ }^{n}$ | /L(H)/-a | jù̂ùn ${ }^{\text {gbó-rà }}$ | L h-1 | 'wrap (n)' |
| mì?în | /L(H)/-b | mìri ${ }^{n}$ gbó-rà | L h-1 | 'person' |

b. adjective l-h

| kpésé | $/ \mathrm{H}(\mathrm{L}) /$ | kpés $\varepsilon$ gbò-rá | H 1-h | 'chewstick' |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| kúrū̄n | $/ \mathrm{HM}(\mathrm{L}) /$ | kúrún gbò-rá | H 1-h | 'boat' |
| tòfá | $/ \mathrm{LH}(\mathrm{L}) /$ | tòfá gbò-rá | LH 1-h | 'brick' |
| mōtó | $/ \mathrm{MH}(\mathrm{L}) /$ | mōtó gbò-rá | MH 1-h | 'motorcycle' |

(191) táā 'hot' (/hm(l)/ melody)
noun N tones with Adj N -adj tones gloss
a. adjective hm-l

| yíPé | /H(H)/ | yípé táā-rà | H hm-l | 'fish' |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| $g b a ̄ a ̄$ | /M(M)/ | gbāā táā-rà | M hm-1 | 'stick' |
| jù̀ù ${ }^{\text {n }}$ | /L(H)/-a | jùPù ${ }^{n}$ táā-rà | L hm-1 | 'wrap (n)' |
| mì̀ìn | /L(H)/-b | mì̀ìn táā-rà | L hm-1 | 'person' |

b. adjective 1-h

| kpésé | $/ \mathrm{H}(\mathrm{L}) /$ | kpésé tàà-rá | H 1-h | 'chewstick' |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| kúrū${ }^{n}$ | $/ \mathrm{HM}(\mathrm{L}) /$ | kúrún tàà-rá | H 1-h | 'boat' |
| tòfá | $/ \mathrm{LH}(\mathrm{L})$ / | tòfá tàà-rá | LH 1-h | 'brick' |
| mōtó | $/ \mathrm{MH}(\mathrm{L}) /$ | mōtó tàà-rá | MH 1-h | 'motorcycle' |

wútō~ wúdō 'new' (/hm(1)/-invariant melody)
noun $\quad \mathrm{N}$ tones with Adj N -adj tones gloss
adjective hm-1 (regardless of preceding noun type)

| yîRé | /H(H)/ | yîQé wútō-rò | H hm-l | 'fish' |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| $g b a ̄ a ̄$ | /M(M)/ | gbāā wútō-rò | M hm-1 | 'stick' |
| jù̀ ${ }^{\text {a }}{ }^{\text {n }}$ | /L(H)/-a | nù?ù ${ }^{n}$ wútō-rò | L hm-l | 'wrap (n)' |
| mìlị ${ }^{\text {n }}$ | /L(H)/-b | mìpî ${ }^{\text {wútō-rò }}$ | L hm-1 | 'person' |
| kpésé | /H(L)/ | kpésé wútō-rò | H hm-l | 'chewstick' |
| kúrū ${ }^{n}$ | /HM(L)/ | kúrún ${ }^{\text {nútō-rò }}$ | $\underline{\mathrm{H}} \mathrm{hm}-1$ | 'boat' |


| tòfá | $/ \mathrm{LH}(\mathrm{L}) /$ | tòfá wútō-rò | $\mathrm{LH} \mathrm{hm-1}$ | 'brick' |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| mōtó | $/ \mathrm{MH}(\mathrm{L}) /$ | mōtó wútō-rò | $\mathrm{MH} \mathrm{hm-1}$ | 'motorcycle' |

Comparing 'big' and 'hot' to the consistently L-toned 'black' in (188) above, we see that taking 'big' and 'hot' to be lexically L-toned on the basis of (190b) and (191b) would not work. Instead, these stems have lexical melody $/ \mathrm{h}(\mathrm{l}) /$ or $/ \mathrm{hm}(\mathrm{l}) /$, as seen in (190a) and (191a), and become $\mathrm{l}(\mathrm{h})$ only after the noun types that have an associated floating L-tone. 'New' is like 'hot' except that it is unaffected by a floating L coming in from the noun.
'Long' in (193) below is the most tonally complex of the adjectives considered here. It surfaces with $h$, downstepped ${ }^{\star} h$, and 1 tones (193). Since its tonal forms are distinct both from the clearly $/ \mathrm{l}(\mathrm{h}) /$-toned 'black' in (188) above and from the clearly $/ \mathrm{m}(\mathrm{m}) /$-toned 'red' in (189) above, 'long' is best analysed as lexically $/ \mathrm{h}(\mathrm{h}) /$-toned. This is the tonal form that it has after a level-toned noun (193a). Its $1(h)$-toned form sùmàà-ná in (193b) can be explained in the same way as 1 (h)-toned gbò-rá 'big' and tàà-rá 'hot' in (190b) and (191b) above, viz., as due to a floating L-tone associated with nouns that spreads rightward across the adjective stem.
súmáá ‘long’ (/h(h)/ melody)
noun N tones with Adj N -adj tones gloss
a. adjective h-h

| yí?é | /H(H)/ | yílé 'súmáá-ná | $\mathrm{H}^{+} \mathrm{h}-\mathrm{h}$ | fish' |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| $g b a ̄ a ̄$ | /M(M)/ | gbāā súmáá-ná | M h-h | 'stick' |
| nù̀ù ${ }^{n}$ | /L(H)/-a | nùlù ${ }^{n}$ súmáá-ná | L h-h | 'wrap (n)' |
| mìhî ${ }^{\text {n }}$ | $/ \mathrm{L}(\mathrm{H}) /=\mathrm{b}$ | mìYị ${ }^{\text {n }}$ úmáá-ná | L h-h | 'person' |

b. adjective l-h

| kpésé | $/ \mathrm{H}(\mathrm{L}) /$ | kpésé sùmàà-ná | H 1-h | 'chewstick' |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| kúrū̄n | $/ \mathrm{HM}(\mathrm{L}) /$ | kúrún sùmàà-ná | H 1-h | 'boat' |
| tòfá | $/ \mathrm{LH}(\mathrm{L}) /$ | tòfá sùmàà-ná | LH 1-h | 'brick' |
| mōtó | $\mathrm{HH}(\mathrm{L}) /$ | mōtó sùmàà-ná | MH 1-h | 'motorcycle' |

The downstepped H-tone in yípé ‘súmáá-ná (193) sounds impressionistically like M-tone. However if 'long fish' were \#yí sūmāā without the nominal suffix, its final syllable would be affected by Final Tone-Raising before an L-tone. Instead, ${ }^{\text {tsúmáá in (194) has level pitch. }}$

| $m a ̄$ | [yíPé | 'súmáá] | jìє́ |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| 1 Sg | $[$ fish | long $]$ | see.Pfv |

'I saw a/the long fish.'

### 6.3.1.2 Inventory of basic adjectives by tonal type

The basic adjectives (excluding morphologically complex deverbal adjectives) are organized into tonal types in (195). As with nouns, adjectival $/ \mathrm{h}(\mathrm{l}) /$ and $/ \mathrm{hm}(\mathrm{l}) /$ melodies are not distinguishable in $C V$ stems. $/ \mathrm{h}(\mathrm{l}) /$ and $/ \mathrm{hm}(\mathrm{l}) /$ are predominant tonal melodies for simple adjectives. The forms shown are those that follow an L-toned noun.

| tone melody | adjective | suffixed | gloss |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| a. $/ 1(\mathrm{~h}) /$ | gbò?ò | gbò?ò-rá | 'black' |
| b. $/ \mathrm{m}(\mathrm{m}) /$ | $\begin{aligned} & \text { kānā } \\ & \text { kpēē } \end{aligned}$ | $k a ̄ n-n a ̄$ <br> $k p e \bar{e}-r a ̄$ | 'red' <br> 'white' |
| c. $/ \mathrm{h}(\mathrm{l}) /$ | $\begin{aligned} & \text { kú } \\ & \text { gbó } \\ & \text { gbé } \\ & \text { né } \\ & \text { ná } \end{aligned}$ | kú-rò <br> gbó-rà <br> gbé-rà <br> né-nà <br> ná-nà | 'dead' <br> 'big' <br> 'fresh' <br> 'good' <br> 'foreign' |
| d. $/ \mathrm{hm}(\mathrm{l}) /$ | táā <br> kúmā <br> kítā <br> kútō <br> gúnī <br> bákúnī | táā-rà <br> kúmā-nà <br> kítā-rà <br> kútō-rò <br> gúnī-nà <br> ~gū̄$-n a ̀$ <br> bákúnī-nà <br> ~ bákún̄-nà | 'hot' <br> 'cold' <br> 'bad' $(t \sim d)$ <br> 'old' $(t \sim d)$ <br> 'short' <br> 'short' |
| e. $/ \mathrm{hm}(\mathrm{l}) /$-invariant | kpé?rē wútō | kpérr-à wútō-rò | $\begin{aligned} & \text { 'small' } \\ & \text { 'new' }(t \sim d) \end{aligned}$ |
| f. $/ \mathrm{h}(\mathrm{h}) /$ | ná <br> wéé <br> dáálá <br> súmáá <br> gbá?álá | ná-ná <br> wéérá <br> dáál-lá <br> súmáá-ná <br> gbáPálá-rá <br> ~ gbáPál-lá | 'foreign' <br> 'other' <br> 'first' <br> 'long' <br> 'thin; dry' |

### 6.3.1.3 Adjective sequences

The combinations in (196) below include a noun and two adjectives. The outermost (=leftmost) adjective in the English glosses (right-hand column) corresponds in each case to
the outermost (=rightmost) Jalkunan adjective. In some cases a different adjectival order would be preferred, but I am here focusing on tones.

| a. | kpésé | kpèè | súmáá-ná | 'long white chewstick' |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | kpésé | gbò?ò | súmáá-ná | 'long black chewstick' |
|  | kpésé | gbò?ò | gbó-rà | 'big black chewstick' |
|  | kpésé | sùmàà | né-nà | 'good long chewstick' |
|  | kpésé | sùmàà | $g b o ̄ ? \bar{o}-r$ ā | 'black long chewstick' |
|  | kpésé | tàà | $g b o ̄ ? \bar{o}-r a ̄$ | 'black hot chewstick' |
|  | jù̀ứ | gbò?ò | gbó-rà | 'big black wrap' |
| b. | yî́é | káná | súmáá-ná | 'long red fish' |
|  | yî́é | káná | gbó-rà | 'big red fish' |
| c. | jù̀ ${ }^{\text {a }}$ | súmáá | gbó-rà | 'big long wrap' |
|  | jù̀ừ ${ }^{\text {n }}$ | súmáá | kān-nā | 'red long wrap' |
| d. | jù̀ù ${ }^{\text {n }}$ | táá | gbò-rá | 'big hot wrap' |
|  | yî́é | táá | sùmàà-ná | 'long hot fish' |
| e. | yíré | 'súmáá | gbó-rà | 'big long fish' |
|  | yî?é | 'súmáá | gbò?ò-rá | 'black long fish' |

The first stage of derivations is tonal adjustments involving the noun and the first adjective, as though the second adjective were absent. Nouns with associated floating L, like kpésé 'chewstick', drop tones of any immediately following adjective. In this case, if the adjective itself elsewhere has a floating L (táā +L 'hot'), its floating tone is eliminated, i.e. the final adjective is unaffected by it. H-toned súmáá 'long’ is downstepped after an H-toned noun. An L(H)-toned noun like 'wrap (n)' undergoes Final Tone-Raising before an l(h)-toned adjective, as in 'big black wrap' at the end of (196a).

After this first stage, the first adjective is $1(\mathrm{~h})$-toned in (196a), m(m)-toned in (196b), $h(h)$-toned in (196c), hm(l)-toned in (196d), and downstepped ${ }^{\star} h(h)$-toned in (196e). The next stage is the interaction between the two adjectives.

In (196a) the first adjective retains this $\mathrm{l}(\mathrm{h})$-tone, but the associated H -tone destined for the nominal suffix cannot be realized since the suffix is not allowed. The first adjective is therefore 1-toned. Furthermore, it fails to undergo Final Tone-Raising even when it is followed by an l-toned syllable ('black long/hot chewstick'). Instead, tonal dissimilation is achieved by raising gbò?ò from $1(\mathrm{~h})$ to $\mathrm{m}(\mathrm{m})$. One way to think of this is that the suffixal (h) in the $1(\mathrm{~h})$ tone of the first adjective does not disappear entirely, rather it partially raises the tone of the second adjective, from $l(h)$ to $m(m)$.

In (196b), the stem of the $m(m)$-toned first adjective kānā is raised to h-toned. This then forces downstep on the following H-toned súmáá-ná.

No changes occur in (196c), where each word surfaces with its underlying tones.

In (196d), hm(l) táā has not been modified in the first stage, so its stem flattens to h-toned and its floating (1) drops the tones of the second adjective.

In (196e), súmáá has been downstepped in the first stage. No further changes occur when the second adjective is added. That downstepped ${ }^{+}{ }^{\star}$ súmáá rather than M-toned sūmāā is the correct analysis is shown by the fact that it does not undergo Final Tone-Raising before the L-toned adjective gbò?ò 'black'.

These tonal processes apply in a similar way to N -Adj-Num sequences (§6.4.2).

### 6.3.2 Expansions of adjective

### 6.3.2.1 Adjectival intensifiers

Predicate adjectives (i.e. inchoative adjectival verbs) can be intensified with bélé 'pass' (197a-b). 'Become hot' (perfective dè $\sim$ dé ) shifts to + ATR dèê in (197a-b). This might have originated as an adjunction construction with nonhuman 3 Sg è and 3 Pl è̀̀ ${ }^{n}$ preceding 'pass', contracting as in /dè́ è/ $\rightarrow$ dèê. However, I did not hear a nasalized vowel in (197b), so an actual adjunction does not seem to be present (synchronically).
a. yí dèê
bélé
water become.hot.Pfv
pass
'The water is very hot.'
$\begin{array}{lll}\text { b. yí-rá-à } & \text { déê } & \text { bélé } \\ \text { water-Nom-Pl } & \text { become.hot.Pfv } & \text { pass }\end{array}$
'The waters are very hot.'

The same 'pass' verb is common in comparatives (chapter 12).

### 6.3.2.2 'Good to eat'

In (198), the adjectival predicate (inchoative adjectival verb) is modified by a postverbal noun in adverbial function indicating the context.

| $y \bar{e} g \bar{e}-k u^{n}$ | $d i ̀$ | $k u \bar{m} \bar{\varepsilon} \bar{\varepsilon}-n a \bar{a}$ |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| tree | be.sweet.Pfv | meal-Nom |

'The tree is good to eat.'

### 6.4 NPs including a numeral

The forms of numerals are given and discussed in $\S 4.6$ above.

### 6.4.1 Nominal suffixation in the presence of a numeral

In the absence of a numeral, a simple noun has a nominal suffix (-ra or variant). in isolation and in some phrasal contexts. It is pluralized by adding a plural suffix - ${ }^{n}$, to which may be added, in isolation and in a few syntactic contexts, an additional nominal suffix. Thus dí 'child’, with suffix dí-rá, plural dí-rá-àn 'children', with suffix dí-rá-à-nū. If an adjective follows the noun, the nominal suffix and the plural suffix are attached to the adjective: dí nદ́-nà-àn or suffixed dí né-nà-à-nū 'good children'. See §4.1.1 for details.

When a numeral is added to the mix, both the nominal suffix and the (redundant) plural suffix are disallowed.
a. dí (\#dí-rá)
dúlì
child (\#child-Nom) one
'one child'
b. dí (\#dí-rá-à ${ }^{n}$ flā
child (\#child-Nom-Pl two
'two children'
$\left.\begin{array}{lll}\text { c. dí } \quad \text { ń } & (\# n \varepsilon ́-n a ̀-a ̀ ~ \\ \end{array}\right) \quad$ flā
child good (\#good-Nom-Pl) two
'two good children'

This constraint is relaxed when the N -Num sequence is preceded by a possessor or by an NP in partitive function. All suffixes can be added in Poss-N-Num sequences, e.g. mù?ún yì yè sīgbō-rā-à- $\bar{n}$ 'our three fish', see $(179 \mathrm{c})$ above. In the partitive construction, the simple nominal suffix is usual, to judge by ààn flāā-rā 'the two of them' in text 2016_02@ 02:40.

### 6.4.2 Tones of noun plus numeral

### 6.4.2.1 Noun plus unsegmentable numeral

Morphologically noncomposite numerals are m-toned or h-toned, except for one of two synonyms for 'thousand' (wà?à ). In this section I use lowercase for numeral tones, as I did for adjectives in preceding sections. m-toned numerals are flā ' 2 ', sīgbō ' 3 ', and nāānī ' 4 '. h-toned numerals are sóóló ' 5 ' and táá ' 10 '. For bimorphemic ' 6 ' to ' 9 ' see the following section.

The tonal patterns in N -Num combinations are similar to those of N -Adj combinations described above.

Combinations of m-toned numerals with nouns of various tone classes are in (200). The numeral remains m-toned after level-toned nouns, i.e., the nouns that take a non-low nominal suffix when unmodified: yí?é-rá 'fish', gbāā-rā 'stick', nù?ù-ná 'wrap (n)' (200a). The numeral drops to l-toned when the noun comes with a floating L-tone (200b).
(200)

Nouns with m-toned ' 2 ', ' 3 ', and ' 4 '
noun N tones with Num $\quad$-num tones gloss
a. numeral M-toned
yípé $/ \mathrm{H}(\mathrm{H})$ / yípé flā / sīgbō/nāānī $\quad \mathrm{H} m(\mathrm{~m}) \quad$ 'fish'
gbāā $\quad / \mathrm{M}(\mathrm{M}) / \quad g b a ̄ a ̄ ~ f l a ̄ / s i ̄ g b o ̄ / n a ̄ a ̄ n \bar{i} \quad \mathrm{Mm}(\mathrm{m}) \quad$ 'stick'
nù?ù ${ }^{n} \quad / \mathrm{L}(\mathrm{H}) / \quad$ nù?ù ${ }^{n}$ flā/sīgbō / nāān̄̄ $\quad \mathrm{L} \mathrm{m}(\mathrm{m}) \quad$ 'wrap (n)'
b. numeral L-toned

| kpésé | /H(L)/ | kpésé flà / sìgbò / nàànì | H 1 | 'chewstick' |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| kúrū ${ }^{n}$ | /HM(L)/ | kúrún flà / sìgbò / nàànì | H 1 | 'boat' |
| tòfá | /LH(L)/ | tòfá flà / sìgbò / nàànì | LH 1 | 'brick' |
| mōtó | /MH(L)/ | mōtó flà / sigbò / nàànì | MH 1 | 'motorcycle' |

The h-toned numerals combine with the same nouns in (201) below. The h-tones of the numerals are heard as such after a level-toned noun, except for downstep after an $\mathrm{H}(\mathrm{H})$-toned noun (201a). They drop to 1 after nouns with a final floating L (201b).
(201) Nouns with h-toned '5' and ' 10 '

$$
\text { noun } \quad \mathrm{N} \text { tones } \quad \text { with Num } \quad \text {-num tones } \text { gloss }
$$

a. numeral h-toned (sometimes downstepped)

| yî?é | /H(H)/ | yípé 'sóóló / 'táá | H m(m) | 'fish' |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| gbāā | /M(M)/ | gbāā sóóló / táá | Mm (m) | 'stick" |
| nù?ù ${ }^{n}$ | /L(H)/ | jù̀ù ${ }^{n}$ Sóóló / táá | L h(h) | 'wrap (n)' |

b. numeral 1-toned

| kpésé | /H(L)/ | kpésé sòoloo / tàà | H 1(1) | 'chewstick' |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| kúrū ${ }^{n}$ | /HM(L)/ | kúrún sòolò / tàà | $\underline{\mathrm{H}} 1(1)$ | 'boat' |
| tòfá | /LH(L)/ | tòfá sòòlò / tàà | LH 1(1) | 'brick' |
| mōtó | /MH(L)/ | mōtó sòòlò / tàà | MH 1(1) | 'motorcycle' |

### 6.4.2.2 Noun plus bimorphemic numeral '6' to ' 9 '

Numerals ' 6 ' to ' 9 ' are bimorphemic, consisting of initial ma- or mi- representing the base ' 5 ' (but unrelated to sóóló ' 5 ' or to $b \bar{\jmath} 1 \overline{1}$ 'hand') plus a more or less distorted form of ' 1 ' through '4'.
' 7 ' to ' 9 ' are bimorphemic beginning with mà- $\sim$ má-. The last numeral in this sequence, má-nānì ' 9 ', is unique in resisting tonal changes. ' 7 ' and ' 8 ' have má- drop to mà- after nouns associated with a floating L-tone (202b). '9' usually does not; an exception is tāā-rá mà-nànì
' 19 ' in (131) above. The remaining syllables, -álà for ' 7 ' (irregularly related to flā ' 2 ') and -sīgbō (identical to ' 3 '), are invariant tonally.
(202) Nouns with bimorphemic numerals ' 7 ' to ' 9 '
noun N tones with Num N-num tones gloss
a. numeral begins with H-toned má-

| yî?é | /H(H)/ | yílé má-álà | H hl | 'fish' |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  |  | yî́é má-sīgbō | H hm |  |
|  |  | yî́é má-nānì | H hml |  |
| $g b a ̄ a ̄$ | /M(M)/ | gbāā má-álà | M hl | 'flour' |
|  |  | gbāā má-sīgbō | M hm |  |
|  |  | gbāā má-nānì | M hml |  |
| nù?ù ${ }^{n}$ | /L(H)/ | jù̀ùn má-álà | L hl | 'wrap (n)' |
|  |  | nù?ùn má-sīgbō | L hm |  |
|  |  | nùpùn má-nānì | L hml |  |

b. numeral begins with L-toned mà- ('7', ' 8 ') or H-toned má- ('9')

| kpésé | /H(L)/ | kpésé mà-álà | H lhl | 'chewstick' |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  |  | kpésé mà-sīgbō | H lmm |  |
|  |  | kpésé má-nānì | H hml |  |
| kúrū ${ }^{n}$ | /HM(L)/ | kúrún mà-álà | $\underline{\mathrm{H}} \mathrm{lhl}$ | 'boat' |
|  |  | kúrún mà-sīgbō | $\underline{\mathrm{H}} \mathrm{lmm}$ |  |
|  |  | kúrún ${ }^{\text {n }}$ má-nānì | $\underline{\mathrm{H}} \mathrm{hml}$ |  |
| tòfá | /LH(L)/ | tòfá mà-álà | LH lhl | 'brick' |
|  |  | tòfá mà-sīgbō | LH lmm |  |
|  |  | tòfá má-nānì | LH hml |  |
| mōtó | /MH(L)/ | mōtó mà-álà | MH lhl | 'motorcycle' |
|  |  | mōtó mà-sīgbō | MH lmm |  |

mī-īlo ' 6 ' is even more opaque, though etymologically it presumably consists of a variant of mà- ~ má- plus a variant of dúlì ' 1 '. Unlike ' 7 ' to ' 9 ', mī-īlō patterns tonally as though unsegmentable. Therefore, like ' 2 ' to ' 4 ', it has stem-wide m-toned and 1-toned forms.
(203) Nouns with ml-toned '6'
noun N tones with Num N-num tones gloss
a. entire numeral is M-toned

| yípé | /H(H)/ | yî́é mī-īlō | H m(m) | 'fish' |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| gbāā | /M(M)/ | gbāā mī-īlō | Mm (m) | 'flour' |
| nù̀ù ${ }^{n}$ | /L(H)/ | jù̀ù ${ }^{n}$ mī-īlō | L mm | 'wrap (n)' |

b. entire numeral is L-toned

| kpésé | $/ \mathrm{H}(\mathrm{L}) /$ | kpésé mìillò | H 11 | 'chewstick' |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| kúrū ${ }^{n}$ | $/ \mathrm{HM}(\mathrm{L})$ / | kúrún mì-ìlò | $\underline{\mathrm{H} ~ 11}$ | 'boat' |
| tòfá | $/ \mathrm{LH}(\mathrm{L}) /$ | tòfá mì-ìlò | LH 11 | 'brick' |
| mōtó | $/ \mathrm{MH}(\mathrm{L}) /$ | mōtó mì-ìlò | MH ll | 'motorcycle' |

### 6.4.2.3 N -Adj-Num sequences

The combination N -Adj-Num behaves tonally like N -Adj-Adj. First, tonal operations apply between the noun and the adjective. Nouns like 'chewstick' with associated floating L drop the tones of the adjective, also erasing any floating L associated with this adjective ('hot'). h-toned súmáá 'long' becomes m-toned after an $\mathrm{H}(\mathrm{H})$-toned noun like 'fish'. An L-toned noun undergoes Final Tone-Raising before an L-tone ( $n u ̀ ̀ u u^{n} \rightarrow$ nù ${ }^{n} u^{n}$ ).

This is then the input to the next stage, where the adjective and the numeral interact tonally. h-toned sóóló '5' drops to l-toned after an adjective with undeleted floating L (táā 'hot'), and the hm stem tones of táā flatten to h . m-toned $k p e \bar{e} e$ 'white' and kānā 'red' are raised to h -toned before any numeral.

| a. kpésé | kpèè | sóóló | 'five white chewsticks' (<kpēē ) |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| kpésé | tàà | sóóló | 'five hot chewsticks' (<táā) |
| nù?ún | gbò? | sóóló | 'five black wraps' |
| yî?é | kpéé | ${ }^{\text {s }}$ Sóóló | 'five white fish' ( $<k p \bar{e} \bar{e}$ ) |
| yî?é | táá | sòòlò | 'five hot fish' (<táā ) |
| nù?ù ${ }^{n}$ | súmáá | ${ }^{\text {s }}$ Sóóló | 'five long wraps' |
| yípé | súmáá | sóóló | 'five long fish' |
| b. yípé | káná | sīgbō | 'three red fish' |
| kpésé | tàà | sīgbō | 'three hot chewsticks' |
| yî?é | táá | sìgbò | 'three hot fish' |
| nù?ù ${ }^{n}$ | súmáá | sīgbō | 'three long wraps' |

### 6.5 NP with determiner

### 6.5.1 Noun plus demonstrative mí

The basic demonstrative mí was described in §4.4.1. It is tonally distinct from relative mì and from default possessum mì, among other segmentally similar morphemes (see Index).
a. wùlà
mí(-nà)
dog Dem(-Nom)
'this/that dog'

```
b. wùlà mí-nà-àn(-nū)
    dog Dem-Nom-Pl(-Nom)
    'these/those dogs
c. dí
    'mí(-nà)
    child Dem(-Nom)
    'this/that child'
d. dí 'tmí-nà-àn (-nū)
    child Dem-Nom-Pl(-Nom)
    'these/those children'
```


### 6.5.2 Noun plus specific indefinite dò 'one'

[ $X$ dò], where X is some noun, mean 'a (certain/specific) X '. dò is likely related to numeral dúlì ' 1 '. [ $X$ dò] occurs in my data exclusively at the introduction of a discourse reference (person, place, thing) into a narrative or other extended discourse. Although the NP ending in dò is third singular referentially, it behaves like -3 Sg NPs in its tonal effect on following words. For example, jíe 'see' at the end of example (206) is the H-toned verb form used after -3 Sg objects.

| (206) | èè ${ }^{n}$ | kú begin | klé-nà, |  |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | 3PINonh |  |  | (n)-N |  |  |
|  | bon, | èè ${ }^{n}$ | tá?á | [yálá | dò] | jíé |
|  | well, | 3PINonh | go.Adjn | [hole | one] | see.Pfv |

'They (hare and hyena) were hunting. Well, they went and saw a hole.' (< yálā ) (2016_02 00:49)
dò is always L-toned in this construction (i.e. modifying a noun), and can trigger Final ToneRaising on the noun: sàá dò 'a house' (sàà ), kùgú dò 'a stone' (kùgù ).
dò can occur absolutely, i.e. without a modified noun, in the sense 'one' (as in 'I saw one yesterday') or, with reference to masses, 'some' (as in 'I have brought you some').

| (207) | è |  |  | dò | bílí = | í-yà, |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | 3 SgNonh |  |  | one | give.Ipfv | Nonh-3SgObj, |
|  | [yálā | tòó] | dè |  |  |  |
|  | [hole | in] | the |  |  |  |
|  | 'He (=hare) went and gave some (more) to him (=hyena).' (2006_02 03:35) (/bilí èyà/, tòó < tò ‘in') |  |  |  |  |  |

There is a plural dó- $\bar{o}^{n}$ 'certain ones'. It is used in a set-partitioning context, as in 'some stayed here, (while) some (others) left'.
(208)
àà ${ }^{n}$

3PlHum come.Adjn
dó-ō ${ }^{n}$ bó = yà dè, [àà ${ }^{n}$ sá],
certain-Pl exit.Pfv=Link there.Def, [3PlHum come.Adjn]
'When they (had) arrived in Damana (village), some (of them) left there, they came ...' (2016_01 00:47)

This plural dó- $\bar{o}^{n}$ should be distinguished from the phonetically similar dǒ $\bar{o}$ that functions as an extended form of dò with a linker $=\bar{n}$, before nàà 'now' or dè 'there (definite)' (209).
(209) àà ${ }^{n}$ bár $\bar{r}$ ilí $\left[m \varepsilon ̀ ? \varepsilon^{n} d o ̌ \bar{o}\right]=\bar{n}$ nàà

3PlHum money give.Pfv [person one]=Link here
'They gave money to someone here.'

### 6.6 Universal and distributive quantifiers

bùpù ~ búpú is discussed here as a quantifier. The same form is used as an 'and' conjunction (§7.1).

### 6.6.1 Universal 'all' (bù?ù ~ bú?ú )

This universal quantifier can be used with countable or mass NPs (210a-b). The tonal form is búpú except bùpù after a +3 Sg pronoun or NP , and būp̄ū after an M-toned pronominal. With a countable NP, it may add a plural nominal suffix -nú ( $\rightarrow-n \bar{u}$ after the M-toned variant) where syntactically allowed, including in isolation or clause-finally. With a mass NP, the suffixed form is bù?ù-ná, which appears to derive from an earlier nasalized form *bù?ùn $\sim^{*}$ bú?ún .

| a. [dí | kpé?r-à-à ${ }^{n}$ | bú?ú] | wèê |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| [child | small-Nom-Pl | all] | go.Pfv |
| All of the children have gone. |  |  |  |

b. kò-nó- $\bar{o}^{n}$ [jū bùpù] dónī
bird-Nom-Pl [millet all] devour.Pfv
'The birds ate all the millet.'
$\begin{array}{lllll}\text { c. à } & \text { tàgá } & \text { bìlí } & \text { [mù?ù }{ }^{n} & \text { búPú-nú }] \\ \text { 3SgHum } & \text { sheep } & \text { give.Pfv } & {[1 \mathrm{Pl}} & \text { all-Nom }] \\ & \\ & \end{array}$

The full set of pronominal combinations is in (211).
(211) a. M-toned pronominal
$\bar{e} \bar{e}^{n} b \bar{u} ? \bar{u}-n \bar{u} \quad$ 'all of you- Pl '
b. +3 Sg pronominal
è bùpù-nú 'all of it (nonhuman)'
c. other $-3 S g$ pronominal
mù?ùn búpú-nú 'all of us'
ààn búpú-nú 'all of them (human)'
è̀̀ ${ }^{n}$ búpú-nú 'all of them (nonhuman)'

A variant bìgì-ná 'entirety' for bù Pù-ná was recorded in a text (2016_01@03:20).

### 6.6.2 Distributive 'each'

bùpù ~ bú?ú 'all' can also be used in distributive contexts. In (212), the speaker states that he gave 200 units ( $=1000$ francs CFA) to each child, not a total of 200 units to the children as a group.

| (212) | $m a ̄$ | jáān -tàá | bìlí | [dí | kpé?rē | dù-dúlì | bù?ù-nú] |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
|  | 1Sg | 200 | give.Pfv | [child | small | Rdp-one | each-Nom] |
|  | 'I gave 200 (currency units) to each child.' |  |  |  |  |  |  |

Distributivity is expressed mainly by keeping 'small child' singular in form, and by adding the reduplicated numeral 'one’, i.e. 'one by one, one at a time, singly' (§4.6.1.6).

## 7 Coordination

### 7.1 NP coordination

### 7.1.1 $N P$ conjunction (' X and Y ') with bùpù ~ búpú

The conjunctive particle is bù $u ̀$ ~ búpú, which is also the universal quantifier 'all' (§6.6.1 above). In careful pronunciation, bù?ù occurs after +3 Sg NPs, and bú?ú after -3 Sg NPs , except $b \bar{u} ? \bar{u}$ by M -Spreading after an M -toned pronominal. In allegro speech, reduced pronunciations occur (e.g. bù?) and the pitch may be lower than the tone markings suggest.

When the left conjunct is a singular NP that can elsewhere end in a nominal suffix, the suffix is disallowed. A plural left conjunct likewise omits its final nominal suffix -nū (213c). When the entire conjoined NP is uttered in isolation or in a position requiring a final nominal suffix, the suffix occurs on the right conjunct (213a-c). In (213b), tàgà becomes tàgá before the L-toned bùpù by Final Tone-Raising.
(213)
a. dīkín
bùpù
jáā-nà
man and woman-Nom
'(a/the) man and (a/the) woman' (cf. suffixed dîkín̄-nà )
b. tàgá bù?ù bàà-rá
sheep and goat-Nom
'(a/the) sheep and (a/the) goat' (cf. suffixed tàgà-rá, bàà-rá )
c. dīkín̄-nà-à ${ }^{n}$ bú?ú jáā-nà-à-nū
man-Nom-Pl and woman-Nom-Pl
'(the) men and women'

When the coordinands are pronouns, the left conjunct has simple proclitic form, while the right conjunct has independent form with suffix $-\bar{n}$ or variant.
a.

| $m \bar{a}$ | $b \bar{u} P \bar{u}$ | $w \bar{o}-\bar{n}$ |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| 1 Sg | and | 2 Sg -Indep |

'me and you-Sg'
b. à bù?ù mā-n̄
3 SgHum and 1Sg-Indep
'he/she and me'

| c.ààn <br> 3PlHum <br> 'they and us' | búpú <br> and | mù?ú-nú <br> 1Pl-Indep |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| d. mù?ù |  |  |

### 7.1.2 tú 'along with’

In one textual segment of the type $X$, tú $Y$ with a pause after $X$, tú appears to be a kind of afterthought conjunction: ' X , along with Y '. The speaker is presenting the topic of a tale that he is about to narrate. It is notable that 'hyena' has its nominal suffix, as it does in isolation.

| súrúkú-rà, | tú | $c r^{n}$ | dè |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| hyena-Nom, | along.with | hare | there.Def |
| '(Tale of) hyena, along with hare.' | $\left(2016 \_02 @\right.$ | $00: 38$ |  |

For tú in composite numerals and other add-on quantities, see (132) in §4.6.1.3 and (280c) in $\S 8.5 .6 .7$. The possibility of an etymological connection with tós 'stay, remain', whose forms include túú, see (274), is worth consideration.

### 7.1.3 ' X and Y ' with a modifier or postposition

Non-quantifying modifiers such as adjectives and demonstratives that have scope over all conjuncts are avoided. Instead, the modifier is repeated on each conjunct. This indicates that conjunction of NPs occurs at a high syntactic level. This is illustrated by the demonstrative in (216a) and the adjective 'black' in (216b).
a. [náá mí-nà-àn] búpú $\left[\begin{array}{ll}\text { nigiñ } & m i ́-n a ̀-a ̀ n] ~\end{array}\right]$
[woman Dem-Nom-Pl] and [man Dem-Nom-Pl]=Ipfv
sí=í wàá
Fut=3SgNonhObj go.Ipfv
'These women and (these) men will go.'

```
b. [náā gbò`ò-rá-àn] bú{ú [diggíní gbò?ò-rá-ãn]=\varnothing
    [woman black-Nom-Pl] and [man black-Nom-Pl]=Ipfv
    sí=í wàà
    Fut=3SgNonhObj go.Ipfv
    'The black women and (black) men will go.'
```

When the universal quantifier bù?ù ~ búpú has scope over the entire conjoined NP, it is not usually repeated on each conjunct. This may be due in part to its homophony with (or its secondary use as) the 'and' conjunction (217). In theory this could be parsed as '[(some/the) women] and [(all) the men] ...', but the normal interpretation is with wide scope.

| $[[$ náã-nà-àn | búpú | dígíní | bùh̀̀ $]$ | sí=í | wàá |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| $[[$ woman-Nom-Pl | and | man $]$ | all | Fut=3SgNonhObj | go.Ipfv |
| 'All the women and men will go.' |  |  |  |  |  |

If a numeral has scope over the entire conjoined NP , no single-clause construction is available. My assistant rephrased 'Six [men and women] will go' as (218), using 'people' as the quantified noun and reducing 'men and women' to an extraposed clarifying comitative PP in partitive-like function.


When a possessor has scope over both or all conjuncts, as in ' X 's $[\mathrm{Y}$ and Z$]$ ', if the possessor is repeated it normally takes the form of a reflexive possessor (§18.1.1). This is clear in the case of $1 \mathrm{st} / 2$ nd person possessors, most of which have distinct forms for reflexive possessor (219a). There is no overt difference for third person possessors, but I assume that here too the possessor is reflexive (219b). A conjunction of the type ' X and [X's Y]', where the first conjunct is coindexed to the possessor of the second conjunct, also has a reflexive possessor (219c), though only 1st/2nd person pronouns have overtly distinct reflexive possessor forms.
$\begin{array}{lllll}\text { a. } & {\left[\begin{array}{lll}\text { mā } & \left.j \varepsilon^{n}\right] & \text { bù?ùu }\end{array}\right.} & {\left[\bar{a}^{n}\right.} & \text { níī-nà }] \\ & {[\mathbf{1 S g}} & \text { father }] & \text { and } & {[\mathbf{1 S g R e f l}}\end{array}$ 'my father and (my) mother'
b. [zàkîil jén] bùpù [á nìi-ná] [Z father] and [3SgHumRefl mother-Nom] 'Zakix's father and (his ${ }_{x}$ (own)) mother' (or: 'Zakix's father and his/her ${ }_{y}$ (someone else's) mother'

```
c. mā bū१ā= [勍n j\varepsiloń-ná]
    1Sg and [1SgRefl father-Nom]
    'I and my father'
```

I have also heard examples where the repeated pronominal possessor is elided. Therefore (220a) with repeated pronominal possessor has a variant (220b) with zero second possessor. 'Goats' in (220b) is therefore subject to the tonal influence of the -3 Sg 'and' conjunction, compare (213b) above.
a. [[mā tàgà-rá-àn $\left.{ }^{n}\right]$ bù?ù [ $\bar{a}^{n}$ bàà-rá-àn$\left.]\right] \quad \varnothing$ wèé [[1Sg sheep-Nom-Pl] and [1SgRefl goat-Nom-Pl]] 3SgNonhObj go.Pfv 'My sheep- Pl and (my) goats have gone away.'
b. [mā tàgà-rá-àn ${ }^{n}$ bùPù báá-rá-àn ${ }^{n}$. $\varnothing$ wèé [1Sg sheep-Nom-Pl] and goat-Nom-Pl] 3SgNonhObj go.Pfv 'My sheep-Pl and (my) goats have gone away.'

Postpositions need not be repeated after each conjunct (221).

| (221) | à | $s \grave{\Sigma}$ | [ $[$ té | bùpù | súkár̄] | $d \grave{\varepsilon}]$ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | 3SgHum | come.Pfv | [tea | and | sugar] | with] |
|  | 'He/She | ght tea a | gar | < sùk |  |  |

### 7.2 Disjunction (wálímà, wáā)

Disjunction ('or') is closely related to yes/no interrogation. wálímà 'or' occurs in paired twosentence interrogatives, where the second sentence is disjunctive to the first.

| Wō | sà | táPáā, | wálímà | wō | sà | túū | nàà |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| 2 Sg | Fut | go.Ipfv, | or | 2 Sg | Fut | stay.Ipfv | here |
| 'Will you go, | or will you stay?' (tóó $\rightarrow$ túū before nàà $)$ |  |  |  |  |  |  |

When the disjuncts in an interrogative context are NPs, a disjunction wāà may be used.

| (223) | $m \bar{a}-\bar{n}$ | Wāà | zàkîı |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
|  | 1Sg-Indep | or | Z |
|  | '(Do you want) $)$ | me or Zaki?' |  |

In practice, disjunction of NPs and similar constituents is difficult to elicit. French cues containing them usually led to rephrasings like (224a-b) with a topic-like preposed conjoined NP in partitive function, followed by a sentence with a single NP resuming the two.
(224)
a. [[yí?é bùpù síbí] dè] wō nòn dónó [[fish and meat] with] 2 Sg which? eat.Ipfv
'Between fish and meat, what do you-Sg eat?'
b. [zàkîì bùpù bákàrì flāā dò
$\left[\begin{array}{llll}Z & \text { and } B & \text { two Comit }]\end{array}\right.$
[mì̀ìn dúlí] sí= í wàá
[person one] Fut $=3$ SgNonhObj go
'Between the two of Zaki and Bakari, one person will go.'

An alternative is to use ou bien more or less as in French. This is now quite common in local languages.

## 8 Postpositions and adverbials

Jalkunan has a full set of postpositions, which combine with preceding NPs to form postverbal adverbial phrases of various types. The NP occurs without its word-final nominal suffix. Pronouns take their usual proclitic forms. Before an L-toned postposition, nouns and bimoraic or longer pronouns subject to Final Tone-Raising. Most postpositions are tonally sensitive to the +3 Sg versus -3 Sg opposition (§3.8.3.5) among their complements, but most postpositions are also subject to M-Spreading from M-toned pronominals. Postpositions beginning with L-tone trigger Final Tone-Raising on a preceding L- or M-toned noun or bimoraic pronoun.

### 8.1 Dative and benefactive

### 8.1.1 No dative postposition with 'give' or 'show'

There is no dative postposition for the indirect object (recipient) of 'give' or 'show'. The indirect object is expressed by a bare postverbal object NP. The preverbal object denotes the theme. Postverbal NPs require the final nominal suffix if they are morphologically capable of having it; postverbal pronouns take independent form.

| a. | mā | wár | bilíi | zàkí |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
|  | 1Sg money | give.Pfv | $\mathbf{Z}$ |  |
|  | 'I gave the money to Zaki.' |  |  |  |


| b. mā | wár | bìlì | $w \bar{\sigma}-\bar{n}$ |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
|  | 1Sg | money | give.Pfv |$\quad$ 2Sg-Indep

'I gave you-Sg the money.'
c. mā sàá dùdòl $\quad\left[\begin{array}{ll}\bar{a}^{n} & j \bar{\varepsilon}-n \bar{a}]\end{array}\right.$
1 Sg house show.Pfv [1Sg father-Nom]
'I showed the house to my father.'
8.1.2 Dative mà~ má after 'say'

Dative postposition mà occurs with the indirect object of 'say' verbs.

| a. | mā | $[n-1 ́$ | bùrù $]$ | tó? $\bar{\varepsilon}$ | [bákàrì | mà $]$ |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
|  | 1 Sg | $[$ Obj-3SgNonh | all $]$ | say.Pfvv | $[\mathrm{B}$ | Dat $]$ |
|  | II told it all (=everything) to Bakari.' |  |  |  |  |  |

$\begin{array}{llllll}\text { b. mā } & \text { Síní } & \text { tò } 1 \grave{\varepsilon} & {[n a ́ a ̄} & \text { mà] } & =n \bar{\varepsilon} ? \\ & 1 \mathrm{Sg} & \text { anything } & \text { sayPfv } & {[\text { woman }} & \text { Dat] }\end{array}$
'I didn't say anything to the woman.' (< sínī )
c. mā síní tò?è [náā-nà-à ${ }^{n}$ má] =né?

1 Sg anything say.Pfv [woman-Nom-Pl Dat] =Neg
'I didn't say anything to the women.'

For mà as a spatial postposition 'on', see §8.3.3.3.

### 8.1.3 Benefactive $k \grave{\varepsilon}^{n} \sim k \varepsilon^{n}$

The complement of this postposition is an NP denoting the beneficiary of an action. The forms are $k \grave{\varepsilon}^{n}$ after +3 Sg , and $k \varepsilon^{n}$ after -3 Sg except $k \bar{\varepsilon}^{n}$ by M -Spreading after M -toned pronominal.
(227)
a. $w$
$w \bar{o} \quad S \varepsilon$
2Sg come.Pfv [tea with] [1Sg Benef]
'You-Sg brought me some/the tea.'
$\begin{array}{lllll}\text { b. mā } & \text { bāārá } & \text { mè-yá }= & \text { [ámádú } & \left.k \grave{\varepsilon}^{n}\right] \\ & 1 \mathrm{Sg} & \text { work(n) } & \text { do-Prog } & {[\mathrm{A}} \\ \\ & \text { 'I work for Amadou.' } & & & \text { Benef }]\end{array}$

See also (52a-c).
For the sense 'chez, at the place of X ', see $\S 8.3 .3 .4$ below.

### 8.2 Instrumental and comitative

### 8.2.1 Instrumental-comitative $d \grave{\varepsilon} \sim d \dot{\varepsilon}$

The form is $d \grave{\varepsilon}$ after +3 Sg , $d \dot{\varepsilon}$ after -3 Sg except $d \bar{\varepsilon}$ after M-toned pronominal. In (228), the complement of $d \grave{\varepsilon} \sim d \varepsilon$ denotes an instrument.
a. mù?ùn
gbāá bègé
[jén
$d \grave{]}$
1 Pl wood cut.Pfv [ax with]
'We chopped the wood with an ax.' (gbàà )

c. àà ${ }^{n}$ sóé [fàgá dè]

3P1 enter.Pfv [force with]
‘They entered by force.' (= ‘They barged in.') (fàgà )
d. tàgà-rá-á ${ }^{n} d \varepsilon$
sheep-Nom-Pl with
'with (the) sheep-Pl'

This postposition is also part of the 'bring' and 'take (there)' constructions. The verb is intransitive 'come' or 'go', followed by a PP with $d \grave{\varepsilon} \sim d \dot{\varepsilon}$ denoting the theme (the transported entity).

| a. | $s \bar{a}$ | $[t e ́$ | $d \grave{c}]$ |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |

come.Imprt [tea with]
'Bring the tea!'
b. sininì má sà tá ${ }^{2}$ á [tàgá dè] jí-nà
tomorrow 1Sg Fut go.Ipfv [sheep with] market-Nom 'Tomorrow I will take (=convey) the sheep-Sg to the market.'

The verb bié 'hold' has a similar syntax, see (298b).
One could describe the 'bring/take' (i.e. 'convey') function of $d \grave{\varepsilon} \sim d \varepsilon$ as comitative. In any event it is not instrumental since the tea and the sheep in (229) are not means of transportation. However, more general comitative contexts require a different postposition (see the following section).

As predicate following 'be' subject enclitic, PPs with $d \grave{\varepsilon} \sim d \varepsilon$ denote temporary possession (custody), see §11.5.2.1.

### 8.2.2 Comitative dò ~ dó

The forms are dò after +3 Sg , dó after -3 Sg except $d o \overline{\text { after }} \mathrm{M}$-toned pronominal. This postposition normally takes a human complement, denoting accompaniment.

| a. | mā | bāārá | mè-yá | $[$ [zàkí | dò $]$ |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
|  | 1 Sg | work(n) | do-Prog | $[\mathrm{Z}$ | Comit $]$ |

'I work with Zaki.' (< bāārā)
b. mā bāārá mè-yá [dí-rá-àn dó]

1Sg work(n) do-Prog [child-Nom-Pl Comit]
'I work with (the) children.' (< bāārā )
c. bákàrí tè̀è-yá [mā dō]

B go.Prog [1Sg Comit]
'Bakari is going (on a trip) with me.'

PPs with dò $\sim$ dó may occur as predicates after the 'be' subject enclitic, denoting co-presence (accompaniment), see §11.5.2.2.

For postposition dò ~ dó in temporal PPs with noun 'day', see (553a) in §15.4.1.
Postposition dò $\sim$ dó is functionally distinct from NP-final specific indefinite dò 'one' (§6.5.2). An etymological relationship cannot be excluded.

### 8.3 Spatiotemporal postpositions

### 8.3.1 Locative, allative, and ablative functions

As generally in languages of the zone, the distinction between static locative ('in', 'at', 'on'), allative ('to'), and ablative ('from') is expressed by directionally sensitive verbs and other predicates, not by PPs. (231a-c) illustrate this for the postposition to 'in'. The context is (static) locative in (231a), allative in (213b), and ablative in (213c).
a.

| má $=\varnothing \quad[$ sàá |
| :--- |$\quad$ tò]

$1 \mathrm{Sg}=\mathrm{be} \quad[$ house
'I am in the house.' $(<$ sàà $)$


### 8.3.2 Temporal adverbs and place names without a postposition

Simple temporal adverbs like 'at night' and 'during the dry season' are expressed with postverbal nouns without a postposition. NPs end in their nominal suffix where morphologically possible (232a-b).


| b. | Zàkí | bāārā | mà |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| Z | work(n) | kó2̄̄-nà |  |
|  | 'Zaki works at night.' |  |  |

Place names likewise generally occur without a postposition, as with the village/city names in (233). However, jálsá-dù 'Blédougou', the chief Jalkunan-speaking community, may itself contain a frozen locative postposition dù (§8.3.3.2).

$$
\begin{array}{ll}
\text { má }=\varnothing & \text { jàlsà-dù / bòbó }  \tag{233}\\
1 \mathrm{Sg}=\mathrm{be} & \text { Blédougou / Bobo } \\
\text { 'I am in Blédougou / Bobo Dioulasso.' }
\end{array}
$$

One term for 'village' is kúnú. The suffixed form kún-ná can function as a locational without a postposition. In (234) it has a nominal suffix, as also in (466a).

```
má=\varnothing kún-ná
    1Sg=be village-Nom
    'I am in the village.'
```

Very often kúnú in this adverb-like function occurs without the nominal suffix, as in (257b), (425a-b), (572a-b), compare morphologically simplified English in town or at home.

### 8.3.3 Basic monosyllabic locative postpositions

### 8.3.3.1 Locative tò~ tó 'in'

This postposition places the moveable entity (trajector) inside a container or other bounded space.

| a. mā | $k \delta^{n}$ | sò | [bı̀rsó | tò] |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 1 Sg | honey | put.Pfv | [sack | in] |
|  | I put the honey in the sack.' $\left(k \bar{J}^{n}\right)$ |  |  |  |

b. mā nī wと̌ bàànfórò [káar tò]

1 Sg 3 SgNonhObj go.Pfv $\mathrm{B} \quad[$ bus in]
'I went to Banfora by (=in the) bus.' (w $<$ < wěē )
c. má $=\varnothing$ [kálá tò]
$1 \mathrm{Sg}=\mathrm{be} \quad$ [home in]
'I am at home.'

Further examples are (561), (663), text 2016_02@00:57 and @ 03:48, and text 2016_04@ 00:03.

More abstractly, this postposition takes as complement a form of nùù 'tracks, trail' with possessor (X) in the sense 'in the place of $X$ ', as when a new village chief takes over the position of his predecessor. An example is [nà nùú] tò 'in his tracks/place' in text 2016_01@ 03:59. Compare English big shoes to fill or (follow) in X's footsteps in similar contexts.

Another abstract function of tò occurs in text 2016_02@ 02:05: wó tò 'that's why ...' or perhaps '(it's) in that (context) that ...'.

As with other monosyllabic postpositions, this one has L-toned form to after a +3 Sg NP or pronoun as illustrated above, and an H-toned form tó after -3 Sg NPs and pronouns.. Compare bò̀ró tò 'in the sack' in (235a) above with its plural in (236)

```
bòò-ró-òn tó
sack-Nom-Pl in
'in (the) sacks'
```

It is $t \overline{0}$ by M -Spreading after M -toned pronominals ( $1 \mathrm{Sg}, 2 \mathrm{Sg}, 2 \mathrm{Pl}$ ), a combination that is elicitable but rare.

This postposition may be used in in temporal PPs (237); a variant occurs in text 2016_04 (a) 03:40

| [è | sò?ó $]$ | tò |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| $[3$ SgNonh | day $]$ | in |
| 'on that day' |  |  |

### 8.3.3.2 Locative dù ~ dú 'in, inside of'

This postposition combines with nouns that denote an enclosing field (not a container as such). It is most common in a small number of high-frequency combinations with singular nouns conceptualized as denoting an extended or unbounded zone that an individual can be surrounded by (238).

| locative | gloss | noun |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| kàán dù | 'in the bush (outback)' | kàà ${ }^{n}$ |
| mùú dù | 'in the field' | mù̀̀ |
| yí dù | 'in (the) water' | yí |
| yēgē̄-k $\bar{u}^{n} d u ̀$ | 'in the tree' | yēgē-k $\bar{u}^{n}$ |
| sàá dù | 'in (the) house, at home' | sàà |

sàá dù can also mean 'traveling, on a trip', as in (553a).
The -3 Sg variant dú is uncommon but is exemplified by mùù-ná-àn dú 'in the fields'. I cannot cite an M-toned form since this postposition does not easily take $1 \mathrm{st} / 2 \mathrm{nd}$ person pronouns as complements.

In spite of yí dù 'in (the) water', postposition tò ~ tó occurs in contexts like 'bathe in the river', see gòló tò 'in(to) the river' in text 2016_04 @ 00:03. 'In (the) water' with dù conceptualizes an unbounded mass of water that surrounds a trajector, as in describing the habitat of fish. 'In(to) the river' with to is conceptualized as a bounded zone that one may
enter and exit. The opposition between $d u ̀ \sim d u ́$ and $t \grave{\sim} \sim t \leq$ also occurs in compound initials; see (146a-b).
jàlsà-dù 'Blédougou', the main Jalkunan-speaking community, probably contains a frozen locative postposition. "-dougou" is a common compound final in Jula-Bambara and other village and city names (Ouagadougou, etc.).

For dù in the abstract context '(say it) in (language X)', see text 2016_01 @ 00:12.

### 8.3.3.3 Locative mà ~ má 'on'

This postposition expressed position on, or motion onto or off from, a horizontal or vertical surface, or on a large object that can be thought of as having a surface.
a. kùgù-rá= $\varnothing$ [dàràlí mà]
stone-Nom=be [mat on]
'The stone is on the mat.'
b. zàkîin sé?éní [kùgú mà]

Z sit.Stat [stone on]
'Zaki is sitting on a rock.'
c. sīnāān-ná $=\varnothing \quad$ [sàà-gún mà]
gecko-Nom=be [wall on]
'The gecko is on the wall.'
d. kùkú bè $[m a ̄ a \bar{a}]$
stone fall.Pfv [1Sg on]
'The stone fell on me.' (<bغ̀ $)$
e. kùkù-rá-à ${ }^{n}$ má
stone-Nom-Pl on
'on the stones'

See also text 2016_02@02:12 (‘stood on its feet') and @ 04:43 ('sprinkled grains on it'). mà is also part of the composite postposition 'behind' (§8.3.4.3).

This is also the common postposition with 'courtyard' as in kélé mà, see text 2016_04@ $00: 19$, which is often translatable as '(at/to) home'. Multiple houses/apartments may be centered on a courtyard, which then defines the household residence. mà can also be used with 'house' if not conceptualized as an enclosure, see '(arrived) at the first house' in text 2016_04@01:38.

Abstract senses of mà ~ má include 'about' in 'ask X [about Y]', see text 2016_01@ 00:02 (line 2). It occurs in complements of 'prevent' (§17.4.2).

For dative use of mà with 'say', see $\S 8.1 .2$. See also the 'prevent' construction (§17.4.2).

### 8.3.3.4 $k \grave{\varepsilon}^{n} \sim k \varepsilon^{n}{ }^{\prime}$ chez'

This postposition means 'chez $X$ ', i.e. 'at the residence/place of $X$ '. For benefactive function of this postposition, see §8.1.3.
(240)
$\begin{array}{llll}\text { a. mùpún } & \text { wà } & {[z a ̀ k i ̂} & \left.k \varepsilon^{n}\right] \\ 1 \mathrm{Pl} & \text { go } & {[Z} & \text { chez }]\end{array}$
'Let's go to Zaki's place!'
b. [dí kpépr-à-à $\left.{ }^{n}\right] \quad k \varepsilon^{n}$
[child young-Nom-Pl] chez
'at the children's place'

See also text 2016_02 @ 04:22 (lion's den) and 2016_04@ 01:43 (chief's house).

### 8.3.3.5 glà ~ glá 'next to'

This postposition denotes position very close to the landmark. It need not be to the side of the landmark (so I gloss 'next to' rather than 'beside').

| (241) | tones | noun | gloss | PP |
| ---: | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | gloss

After a -3 Sg NP the postposition is H-toned glá.
(242)
$\begin{array}{ll}\text { gbāā-rá-à }{ }^{n} & \text { glá } \\ \text { stick-Nom-Pl } & \text { next.to } \\ \text { 'next to the sticks' } & \end{array}$

Pronominal examples are in (243). The M-toned pronouns spread the M-tone into the postposition (243a). The remaining pronouns follow the singular/plural division seen in nouns (243b-c).
a. mā glā 'next to me'
wō glā 'next to you-Sg'
$\bar{e} \bar{e}^{n} g l a ̄ \quad$ 'next to you-Pl
b. mùPùn glá 'next to us'
ààn glá 'next to them (human)'
è̀̀ ${ }^{n}$ glá 'next to them (nonhuman)'

```
c. à glà 'next to him/her'
è glà 'next to it'
```

Examples are in (244).
a. bákàrí $=\varnothing \quad[m \bar{a} \quad g l \bar{a}]$
$\mathrm{B}=\mathrm{be} \quad[1 \mathrm{Sg}$ next.to]
'Bakari is next to me.'
$\begin{array}{llll}\text { b. } & \bar{e} & \text { sāpā } & \text { [bákàrì } \\ & \text { 2SgRefl } & \text { sit.Imprt } & \text { glá] } \\ & \text { B } & \text { next.to] }\end{array}$
'Sit down next to Bakari!' ('sit' is pseudo-transitive)

One could argue for a bisyllabic representation gìlà. If so, Syncope to glà is more or less automatic.

### 8.3.3.6 kìnà ~ kíná 'in front of'

This is the literal 'in front of' postposition denoting a spatial relationship. kinà follows +3 Sg complements, kíná follows -3 Sg , except that M-Spreading occurs after M-toned pronouns (1Sg mā kīnā, 2Sg wō kīnā, 2Pl $\left.\bar{e} \bar{e}^{n} k i ̄ n a ̄\right) . ~$
a. má $=\varnothing$ [sàá kìnà]
1Sg=be [house in.front.of]
'I am in front of the house.'
b. má $=\varnothing$ [náā-nà-à ${ }^{n} \quad$ kíná]
$1 \mathrm{Sg}=\mathrm{be} \quad$ [woman-Nom-Pl in.front.of]
'I am in front of the women.'
$\begin{array}{llll}\text { c. } & \bar{e} & s \bar{a} P \bar{a} & {[m \bar{a}} \\ & \text { 2SgRefl } & \text { sit.Imprt } & {[1 S g} \\ & \text { in.front.of }]\end{array}$
'Sit down in front of me!'

See also text 2016_04@ 03:20 ('her breasts were thrown in front of her'). This postposition is most felicitous in contexts like these where the landmark has a natural front-back orientation (person, animal, house). However, it can be used with unoriented landmarks (a tree, a well) to denote position relative to the axis linking the landmark to an observer's position. (246) would make sense if the 3 Sg referent is close to the well in such an observational configuration.

| á $=\varnothing$ | $[$ kòlín | kìnà $]$ |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| $3 \mathrm{SgHum}=$ be | $[$ well(n) | in.front.of] |
| 'He/She is in front of the well.' $($ kòlìn $)$ |  |  |

For the temporal sense 'before X', see $\S 8.3 .5 .1$ below.
kìnà occurs with the verb 'fear, be scared of', denoting the feared entity. This phrasing is more spatially concrete than that of English.

| má $=\varnothing$ | $j o^{n}$-yá | [zàkîı | kìnà $]$ |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| $1 \mathrm{Sg}=\operatorname{Ipfv}$ | fear-Prog | $[\mathrm{Z}$ | in.front.of $]$ |

'I am scared of Zaki.'

### 8.3.3.7 náà 'in the presence of'

When the context is 'in the presence of X ' where X is a respected individual or office-holder, rather than simple spatial 'in front of X ', náà is used. Unlike normal postpositions, this one is invariant tonally.
(248) àán jàà tópó [màà náā]

3PlHum cause(n) tell.Adjn [owner in.presence]
'They explained the matter in the presence of the chief.' (2016_03@ 10:46)

### 8.3.3.8 fúúlú ‘between'

This postposition appears to require a plural landmark, whether a simple plural pronoun or noun or the conjunction of two singulars. The form is therefore always H -toned fúúlú.

| a. | $\left[\begin{array}{lll}m a \bar{a} & b \bar{u} P \bar{u} & w \bar{o}] \\ & {[1 \mathrm{Sg}} & \text { and }\end{array} \quad 2 \mathrm{Sg}\right]$ | fúúlú |  |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
|  | 'between you-Sg and me' |  |  |

b. mừ̛̀̀̀ fúúlú

1Pl between
'between us'
c. [zàkí bù?ù bákàrì] fúúlú
[Z and B] between
'between Zari and Bakari'

### 8.3.3.9 kpà in temporal expressions

This morpheme is attested in expressions with temporal nouns ('day', 'year', etc.), either by itself (functioning like a postposition) or preceding locative tò $\sim$ tó.

| a. | [è | sò?ó | kpà $]$ |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
|  | [3SgNonh | day | Temp $]$ |$\quad$ in

b. [è̀ jè $k$ kà̀] mā cíé [sàá dù] [3SgNonh year Temp] 1 Sg be.Past [house in] 'In that year, I was away (traveling).'

Nonhuman 3 Sg è is a "possessor" in (250a-b).
See also the complex postposition kpǎ-mà ~ kpá-mà and its variant kpǎ-nò ~ kpá-nò indicating goal or pursued target (§8.4.3).

### 8.3.4 Complex and multisyllabic spatial postpositions

### 8.3.4.1 gbòlゝkò~ gbólókó 'over/above' or 'on top of'

This postposition is L-toned gbòlı̀kò after +3 Sg , gbólókó after -3 Sg , and $g b \bar{\jmath} l \bar{\jmath} k \bar{\jmath}$ after M-toned pronominal (e.g. mā gb̄̄̄̄̄k̄ 'above me'). The sense is either 'over/above X', denoting position on a vertical axis passing through the landmark X but without contact (251a-b), or 'on top of $X$ ', involving contact (251c).
a. kj̀-nó- $\bar{o}^{n}=\varnothing \quad$ [sàá gbòlòkò]
bird-Nom- $\mathrm{Pl}=$ be [house above]
'The birds are (in flight) over the house.' (sàà )
b. kò-nó- $\bar{o}^{n}=\varnothing \quad$ [sàà-rá-àa ${ }^{n} \quad$ gbólókó]
bird-Nom-Pl=be [house-Nom-Pl above]
'The birds are (in flight) over the houses.'
c. bákàr sìdánī [sàá gbòlòkò]

B ascend.Pfv [house on.top.of]
'B has gone up onto the house (=the roof).'

An abstract sense '(burden/fallout be) on X ' is illustrated in text 2016_02@ 04:51.

### 8.3.4.2 kùtò~ kútó 'under'

This postposition is kùtò after +3 Sg complements, kútó after -3 Sg , and kūtō after an M-toned pronoun (mā kūtō 'under me'). It might contain locative tì $\sim$ tó at least etymologically.
a. kùgù-rá $=\varnothing$ [dà?àlí kùtò]
stone-Nom=be [mat under]
'The stone is under the mat.' (< dà?àlì )

'The stones are under the mats.'

The sense 'under' can be stretched to 'in (a dense or canopied forest)', see (652).

### 8.3.4.3 kùtóró mà ~ kútóró mà 'behind'

This is a complex postposition combining mà 'on' with a stem kùtóró after +3 Sg complement, kútóró after -3Sg, and kūt̄̄rō after M-toned pronoun. One suspects that it originated as a PP based on a noun 'back (of body)' or 'base'. Its historical relationships to kóo 'back (of body)' and to the final in tàá-kùdù 'foundation (of house)' are unclear.
a. má $=\varnothing$ [[sàá kùtóró] mà]
$1 \mathrm{Sg}=$ be [[house behind] on]
'I am in front of the house.'
b. má $=\varnothing$ [[náā-nà-à ${ }^{n}$ kútóró] mà]
$1 \mathrm{Sg}=$ be [[woman-Nom-Pl behind] on]
'I am in front of the women.'
c. $\bar{e}$ [ā?āa $\quad[m \bar{a}$ kūtōrō] mà]

2 SgRefl sit.Imprt [[1Sg behind] on]
'Sit down behind me!'

See also text 2016_01@ 00:28. For the temporal sense 'after', see §8.3.5.1 below.

### 8.3.4.4 cěygò-rò~ céngò̀-rò 'in the middle of'

'In the middle of X ' is expressed by a possessed form of the noun céngò ~ cénŋò 'middle', ending in its nominal suffix, rather by than a PP as such. The $g$ may be elided, but if so the nasal is prolonged and the metrical shape is preserved. The suffixed form céngò-rò ~ cénŋ̀̀-rı̀ always has suffixal $r$ rather than nasalized $n$ in my data.
(254)
a. cálā cè̀
road middle-Nom
'in the middle of the road'
b. cál-à-à ${ }^{n}$ céngò-rò
road-Nom-Pl middle-Nom
'in the middle(s) of the roads'

### 8.3.5 Temporal postpositions

In addition to the sections below, see also 'on that day' in (237) above, with to 'in'.

### 8.3.5.1 Temporal uses of 'in front of' and 'behind'

'In front of' can mean 'before', and 'behind' can mean 'after', when combined with an NP used as a temporal reference point.
a. sér
kìnà
prayer in.front.of
'before the prayer'
b. [sér kùtóró] mà
[prayer behind] on
'after the prayer'
'Over' and 'under' are not attested in a temporal (or abstract quantitative) sense, as in 'over (=more than)' or 'under (=less than)' a quantity.

### 8.3.5.2 $f \bar{o} \sim f \bar{\jmath}$ 'until/all the way to'

$f \bar{o} \sim f \bar{\circ}$ precedes rather than follows the adverb or NP that it has scope over. The sense may be spatial ('all the way to') or temporal ('until'). It is often emphatic.
a. mā fídī bàànfórò [fō jàlsà-dù $]$
1 Sg run.Pfv $\mathrm{Ba} \quad[$ until Bl$]$
'I ran from Banfora (city) all the way to Blédougou.'
$\begin{array}{llllll}\text { b. } & \text { mùpún } & \text { sà } & \text { wál } & \text { màà } & {[f \overline{0}} \\ & \text { 1Pl } & \text { Fut } & \text { work(n) } & \text { díní }] \\ & \text { 'We'll work until tomorrow.' } & & {[\text { until }} & \text { tomorrow }]\end{array}$

For a different function of $f \bar{\Omega}$, perhaps from French il faut, see §17.1.4.

### 8.3.5.3 fùùrù 'until, within (time span)'

This morpheme is not, strictly speaking, a postposition and it does not show tone variation. It occurs in temporal phrases beginning with a temporal adverb meaning 'from now, hence(forth)', such as sánì or yàní, continuing with an NP denoting a duration, and ending with fùùrù.
(257)
a. mù?ún sà kwéē bègé màà]

| 1Pl | Prog crops | cut | do.Ipfv] |
| :--- | :---: | :--- | :--- |
| sánì | [[yēé | kpèn-dáā] | fùùrù̀ $]$ |

'We'll harvest the crops within a month from now.'
b. má sí=ì wàá kúnú

1Sg Fut=3SgNonh go.Ipfv village
yàní [kpásò?ò flā] fùùrù
from.now [week two] until
'I will go to the village within two weeks.'
8.3.5.4 wòǹ̀ ~ wónś 'still on (a topic)'

This postposition occurs in a construction with locational 'be'. It presupposes that the subjects (often plural) have been discussing a topic.
a. mù̀ún $=\varnothing$ [nì wònò $]$

1Pl=be [3SgNonh still.on]
'We are still talking about it.'
b. mùhù ${ }^{n} \quad[n i ́ \quad$ wònò $]=n \bar{\varepsilon}$ ?

1Pl $\quad[3 \mathrm{SgNonh} \quad$ still.on $]=\mathrm{Neg}$
'We are not still talking about it.'
See text 2016_02 @ 04:51.

### 8.4 Purposive and possessive postpositions

### 8.4.1 Purposive-causal 'for, because of' (kùdù ~ kúdú )

In (259a), 'for money' can be expressed by either the postposition mà 'on' or the dedicated purposive postposition kùdù. Only kùdù occurs in (259b), where 'for God' has the sense 'without expectation of (earthly) reward'.
a. mā wálí mè-yá [wár mà / kùdù ]
1 Sg work(n) do-Prog [money on/for]
'I work for money.'
$\begin{array}{llllll}\text { b. } & \text { mā } & \text { wár } & \text { bìl= } & \text { á-yà } & \text { [álà } \\ & 1 \mathrm{Sg} & \text { money } & \text { give.Pfv } & \text { Hum-3SgObj } & \text { [God } \\ & \text { for }]\end{array}$
'I gave him/her some money for God (=freely).' (</bìlí à-yà/)

### 8.4.2 Custodial wù ~ wú

This postposition is used after a verb like 'put X [into Y ]', and specifies that the container (e.g. a pocket or bag worn with a neck strap) is in the custody (temporary possession) of the individual denoted by the complement.

| càPàcí | $c i ́=$ | $[i ̀$ | wùū $]$ |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| peanut | be.put | $[3 \mathrm{SgNonh}$ | Custod $]$ |

'(Unshelled) peanuts had been put in his control (=into his sack).' (2016.02 at 01:42)

This postposition lends itself to reflexive pronominals, where the postpositional complement is coindexed with the clausemate subject, as in 'I put X [into my (pocket/bag)]', compare English I socked it away. Examples are (261) with 'it' as preverbal object and (262) with 'peanuts' as preverbal object. The verbs are perfectives bèz ~ bèz 'put (object) down' (261) and cì́ $\sim c i ́ \varepsilon ́ ~ ' p u t ~ o r ~ p o u r ~(m a s s, ~ m a n y ~ s m a l l ~ o b j e c t s) ~ i n ' ~(262) . ~$.

| $m a \bar{a}$ <br> mù?ùn ${ }^{n}$ | ní | $\begin{align*} & b a ̀=\left[\grave{a}^{n}\right.  \tag{261}\\ & b a ̀=\left[\grave{a}^{n}\right. \end{align*}$ | wú] <br> wú] | 'I put it in (e.g. my pocket/bag) 'We put it in.' |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| W $\bar{O}$ | ní | $b \grave{e}=\left[{ }^{\text {e }}\right.$ | wú] | 'You-Sg put it in.' |
| $\bar{e} \bar{e}^{n}$ | ní | $b \grave{e}=\left[\mathrm{e}^{n}\right.$ | wú] | 'You-Pl put it in.' |
| à | ní | $b a ̀ m e{ }^{\text {a }}$ | wù] | 'He/She put it in.' |
| àà ${ }^{n}$ | ní | $b a ́=\left[a^{n}\right.$ | wú] | 'They-Hum put it in.' |
| è | ní | $b e{ }^{\text {c }}$ [é | wù] | 'It put it in.' |
| è̀ ${ }^{n}$ | ní | $b e ́=\left[\mathrm{e}^{n}\right.$ | wú] | 'They-Nonh put it in.' |

(262)

| $m a \bar{a}$ mù?ún ${ }^{n}$ | cà $a ̀$ cí càràcí | $\begin{aligned} & \text { cì }= \\ & \text { cì }= \end{aligned}$ | $\left[\grave{\varepsilon}^{n}\right.$ $\left[\grave{\varepsilon}^{n}\right.$ | wú] wú] | 'I put peanuts in (e.g. pocket) 'We put peanuts in.' |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Wō | cà 2 àcí | $c \grave{1}=$ | [1] | wú] | 'You-Sg put peanuts in.' |
| $\bar{e} \bar{e}^{n}$ | cà?àcí | $c i ̀=$ | $\left[i^{n}\right.$ | wú] | 'You-Pl put peanuts in.' |
| à | cà?àcí | cìé $=$ | [ ${ }^{\text {e }}$ | wù] | 'He/She put peanuts in.' |
| àà ${ }^{n}$ | cà?àcí | $c i e ́=$ | $\left[\grave{\varepsilon}^{n}\right.$ | wú] | 'They-Hum put peanuts in.' |
| è | cà 2 a cí | $c i ́=$ | [1] | wù] | 'It put peanuts in.' |
| è̀è ${ }^{n}$ | cà?àcí | cí $=$ | $\left[i^{n}\right.$ | wú] | 'They-Nonh put peanuts in.' |

### 8.4.3 Goal postposition kpǎ-mà ~ kpá-mà or kpǎ-nò~ kpá-jò

kpǎ-mà ~ kpá-mà functions synchronically more or less like a single postposition in spite of the hyphens. It can mean 'for' (purposive) or 'in(to) the presence of (someone)'. It can also express the target of 'pursue'. In general it denotes the goal. Forms are kpǎ-mà (after +3 Sg ), $k p a \bar{a}-m a ̀ ~(a f t e r ~ M-t o n e d ~ p r o n o m i n a l), ~ a n d ~ k p a ́-m a ̀ ~(a f t e r ~ o t h e r ~-3 S g) . ~$.
a. $\left.\begin{array}{cc}m \bar{a} & S \varepsilon ́\end{array}\right]$
[wár $k p a ́-m a ̀] ~$
[1Sg come.Pfv] [money goal] 'I came for the money.'
b. $\left[\begin{array}{ll}m \bar{a} & s \varepsilon ́\end{array}\right]$
[1Sg come.Pfv]
[wō kpā-mà]
'I came to you (into your presence).'
c. jèr-rá= $\varnothing$ sí=í sàà [mā kpā-mà]
lion-Nom=Ipfv Fut=3SgNonhRefl pursue.Ipfv [1Sg goal]
'The lion will pursue me.'

See text 2016_02@00:23, 00:39, and 03:09.
 context: text 2016_02@02:27 and @ 00:35

The variant kpǎ-mà ~ kpá-mà is probably a frozen combinations of kpáná 'follow' (in adjoined form $k p a^{n}$ ) and an original PP with postposition mà 'on' such as human 3 Sg à mà. It is no longer possible to insert a postpositional complement before -mà in kpá-mà. The verb kpáná still exists, but it requires one of the postpositions presented above.

| (264) | mā | kpánī | [zàkîı | kpá-mà / kpá-nò] |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
|  | 1 Sg | follow.Pfv | $[Z$ | goal $]$ |
|  | 'I followed Zaki.' |  |  |  |

### 8.4.4 ná after plural ethnicity name

This postposition (or at least postposition-like element) follows plural ethnicity names and is therefore always H-toned. It is attested with the verb 'exit' in the sense 'extend beyond'.

```
mā bó [jàl-á-àn-ì / kòò-rá-àn / bòbó-rà-àn / bàl-lá-àn ná]
1Sg exit.Pfv [Jali-/Natioro-/Bobo-/Senoufo-Nom.Pl ethnicity]
```

'I went beyond the Jali/Natioro/Bobo/Senoufo ethnicity.'
ná may be related to the adjective ná 'foreign', suffixed ná-nà. However, it is clearly not adjectival in (265), where it follows plural-marked nouns. In true N -Adj combinations, the nominal suffix and plural suffix(es) are added to the adjective while the noun is bare.

### 8.4.5 kósò ' 'because of’

kósò ${ }^{n}$ is a noun-like element that functions like a postposition 'because of', explaining a reason or cause. It is tonally invariant: mā kósò 'because of me', dí kósò 'because of the child', etc.
kósò ${ }^{n}$ occurs in the expression wò kósò ${ }^{n}$ with focalized 3 Sg complement (or possessor) in the sense 'that [focus]'s why ...'. See $\S 13.1 .5$ on resumptive focalizations of this type.

### 8.5 Other adverbs (or equivalents)

### 8.5.1 'Like, similar to’ (gbó-nò )

I take $g b o ́-n \grave{~ t o ~ b e ~ a ~ n o u n ~(s u f f i x e d ~ f o r m ~ i m p l i e s ~} g b \delta^{n}$ as the stem). It immediately follows an NP denoting the comparandum. There are no tonal interactions like those in possessorpossessum combinations.

| a. | $\begin{align*} & w o ́=\varnothing  \tag{266}\\ & 2 \mathrm{Sg}=\mathrm{Ipfv} \end{align*}$ | wálí work(n) | màà do.Ipfv | [náā <br> [woman | gbó-nว̀] <br> manner-Nom] |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 'You-Sg work like a woman.' |  |  |  |  |  |
| b. | $m a ́=\varnothing$ | wálí | màà | [à | gbó-nò] |
|  | $1 \mathrm{Sg}=\mathrm{Ipfv}$ | work(n) | do.Ipfv | [3SgHum | manner-Nom] |
|  | 'I work like him/her.' |  |  |  |  |

### 8.5.2 Extent ('a lot', 'a little')

Words with these meanings can be adverbs (non-argument postverbal nouns) or, in some cases, NPs capable of functioning as arguments (subjects, preverbal objects).
f́én 'a lot' can be either an adverb (267a) or an NP (267b). (267b) shows that it behaves like $\mathrm{a}+3 \mathrm{Sg} \mathrm{NP}$ with respect to its tonal effect on a following word, so 'give.Pfv' is +3 Sg bilí intead of -3 Sg bílī.


| b. à | $f$ ég | bìlí | $m \bar{a}-\bar{n}$ |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| 3SgHum | a.lot | give.Pfv | 1Sg-Indep |
|  | 'He/She gave me a lot.' |  |  |

See also the comparative construction in (446b).
For 'a little' the adverb (postverbal noun) is $n \bar{\varepsilon} R \bar{\varepsilon} k \bar{\varepsilon}$ 'a little' (268a-b).
a. à
jiím $\bar{\varepsilon} \quad n \bar{\varepsilon} P \bar{\varepsilon} k \bar{\varepsilon}$
3SgHum weep.Pfv
a.little
'He/She wept a little.'
$\begin{array}{llll}\text { b. á } & \text { bìlí } & m \bar{a}-\bar{n} & n \bar{\varepsilon} R \bar{\varepsilon} k \bar{\varepsilon} \\ & \text { 3SgHum } & \text { give.Pfv } & 1 \text { Sg-Indep } \\ & \text { a.little }\end{array}$
'He/She gave me a little.'

The noun dòj̀nì can mean 'a little' or, in temporal contexts, 'a little while' (hence 'soon').
a. [à
dò̀̀nì
bílī mā-n̄]
[3SgHum
a.little
give.Pfv
1Sg-Indep]
'He/She gave me a little.'
b. [sánì dò̀̀nì] [zàkî $=\varnothing \quad$ 'sáá]
[by a.little] [Z=Ipfv come.Ipfv]
'Zaki will come by (=within) a little while.'

See also (570).

### 8.5.3 'Exactly' (kpé?é-nū~ kpè?è-nù )

Exactness of a quantity is specified by adding kpé?é-nū after the numeral. After the numeral ' 1 ' the form is kpè e èn( $\grave{u})$. The core sense is 'only, not more than' (§19.1.3).
a. tàgà jáān-flā
sheep twenty-two
'forty sheep'
b. [tàgà jáāan-flā kpéré-nū] tó?rí
[sheep twenty-two exactly] sell.Imprt
'Sell-2Sg exactly forty sheep!'
c. [tàgà dúlí kpè̀è-n] tó?rí
[sheep one exactly] sell.Imprt
'Sell-2Sg exactly one sheep!'
For the sense 'precisely X ' (i.e. X and no-one else) where X denotes a person or other referent, see the emphatic ' X himself' construction in §18.1.2.3.

### 8.5.4 Evaluation

### 8.5.4.1 'Well' and 'badly'

Evaluations of how well an activity was performed are phrased not with adverbs like English well and badly, rather by adding evaluative adjectives to a nominal complement. Only né 'good' is common; the clause containing it can be negated to translate 'bad(ly)'.

'He/She works well.' (lit. "... does good work")
b. ààn $=\varnothing \quad[$ sígí $\quad \pi \varepsilon ́] \quad s a ̀ a ̀=r \bar{\varepsilon} ?$
3PlHum=Ipfv [song good] sing.Ipfv=Neg
'They sing badly.' (lit. "... sing bad songs")

### 8.5.4.2 'Proper, right, (socially) normal' (nàànéè ~ náánéè )

A predicate characterizing an action as socially correct (normal, proper, right), or with negation as incorrect, is expressed by variants of imperfective nàánà ~ náánà 'become good/better, improve'. The form used is nàànéè $\sim$ náán $\varepsilon$ è, trimmed to nààná $=\sim$ nááná $=$ before the negative enclitic.
a.

| $\left[{ }^{\text {a }}=\varnothing\right.$ | mì | mé-yá] |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| [3SgHum=Ipfv | Rel |  |
| $[$ è | nàànéè / nààná $=n \bar{\varepsilon}$ ?] |  |
| [3SgNonh |  | l.Ipfv / be.n |

'What he/she is doing is normal / isn't normal.'

```
b. è̀̀ }\mp@subsup{}{}{n}\quad\mathrm{ náánég}/ nááná =n\overline{\varepsilon}
    3PINonh be.normal.Ipfv / be.normal.Ipfv =Neg
    `They (e.g. actions) are normal / aren't normal.'
```


### 8.5.5 Manner adverbs ('like this/that')

The basic noninterrogative manner adverb ('like this/that', 'so', 'thus') is nán $\bar{\varepsilon}$. It may be historically connected in some way with nàà 'here' and/or nè 'here/there'.
a. è
3SgNonh
mà
nán̄̄
'Do-2Sg it like this!'
b. $\begin{array}{lll}\text { bí } & \text { wálí } & \text { mà } \\ & \text { Proh } & \text { work(n) } \\ & \text { do.Imprt } & \text { nán }=n \bar{\varepsilon} ? \\ \text { like.this }=\text { Neg }\end{array}$
'Don't-2Sg work (do the work) like that!'

There is also an adverb yààlàà 'thus'. It occurs in a narrative where it resumes a situation that has been described, before the next foregrounded event appears.
(274)

| $\underline{d o n c}$ | ààn $^{n}$ | tú=ú | yààlàā, ... |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| so | 3PlHum | stay.Pfv=Link | thus,... |

'So, they remained thus (=in that situation), (until) ....' (2016_04@00:23)

### 8.5.6 Spatiotemporal adverbials

### 8.5.6.1 Temporal adverbs

Some of the major temporal adverbs are in (275). See also §8.5.6.7-8 below.
a. fì
lò
wòsó? ${ }^{n}$ n tò
wòsó? ${ }^{n}$ n tóó dè
káātò
sísà ${ }^{n}$
'today; nowadays'
'yesterday; formerly, in the old days'
'day before yesterday'
'a few/several days ago'
'now' (current time)
'now' (also in Jula; discourse marker, see §19.3.1)
b. Síní
'tomorrow; in the future'
síní kéné
'day after tomorrow'
síní kéné kútórò-mà

```
c. bùlù
    wò n\varepsiloń\varepsiloǹ mà = éé dè
    n\overline{\varepsilon}\overline{\varepsilon}-Wè
    nìnà
    'last year'
    'a few/several years ago'
    'next year'
    'this year'
```


### 8.5.6.2 Spatial adverbs

The following are the main spatial adverbs.
a. álà mà 'above, upward, on top'
dò?ó mà 'below, down, under'
b. Wòrò-dúgú 'in the south' ("kola-nut place", cf. wóró 'kola nut')
kòrò-dúgú 'in the north' ("salt place", cf. kòò 'salt')
tál-bàà tó-nò 'in the west' ("sun-fall at")
tál-fìdè tó-nò 'in the east' ("sun-rise at")
c. kùdóró mà 'in the rear'
kìnà 'forward; in front'
'Right hand' is tùkùnì ból-ò with b̄̄1̄̄̄'hand' and a compound initial or possessor. 'Left hand' is nòkòlı̀ ból-ò.

### 8.5.6.3 '(Go) straight' (télénà )

Adverbial 'straight, directly (to somewhere)' in the context of motion is expressed by the intransitive verb 'go straight' with imperfective télénà and perfective tèlénī $\sim$ télénī, rather than by an adverb.

| mùP̀̀̀ | télénī | $f \bar{y}$ | jàlsà-dù |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| 1Pl | go.straight.Pfv | all.the.way | Blé |
| 'We went straight (=directly) to | Blédougou (village).' |  |  |

### 8.5.6.4 'Apart, separate’ (dáná )

The adverb dáná may occurs after an NP, or more typically in parallelistic constructions repeated after two contrasting NPs.
(278) jáá-nà-án $=\varnothing \quad$ dáná, dígí-nà-án $=\varnothing \quad$ dáná
woman-Nom- $\mathrm{Pl}=$ be apart, man-Nom- $\mathrm{Pl}=\mathrm{be}$ apart
'Women and men separate(ly)'

Such a phrase is usually attached as a kind of adverbial adjunct to some main clause, but it has its own sentence-like prosody.

### 8.5.6.5 'Always' and 'never'

There is no dedicated adverb 'always'. The sense is expressed by the phrase '(at) all time(s)' (279a). Similarly, there is no dedicated 'never' adverb. The sense is roughly expressed by an emphatic construction whose core sense is 'not $\ldots$ at all' (279b).
a. á $=\varnothing$ [wálí né] màà [wá $\begin{aligned} & \text { átí bùpù-nū] }\end{aligned}$
3SgHum=Ipfv [work(n) good] do.Ipfv [time all-Pl]
'He/She always does good work.'
b. á $=\varnothing$ [wálí jé] màà fésé-fésé $=r \bar{\varepsilon}$ ?

3SgHum=Ipfv [work(n) good] do.Ipfv at.all=Neg
'He/She never does good work.'

### 8.5.6.6 'Still', 'since', '(not) yet'

For 'still' see $\S 8.3 .5 .4$. For '(ever) since' see $\S 15.4 .3$, and the 'keep VPing' construction with tó 'stay' in §15.1.1.2. For $t \bar{\jmath}=n \bar{\varepsilon} ?$ '(not) yet' see §15.4.4.2.

### 8.5.6.7 'By, between now and' (sánì and yàní~ jàní)

sánì followed by a temporal expression defines a time interval beginning with the present, cf. French d'ici or one sense of German bis (280a). There is also a synonym yàní ~ jàní(280b-c).
a. [sánì
wúláára] [zàkî̀= $\varnothing$
'sáá $]$
[from.now evening] [Z=Ipfv come.Ipfv]
'Zaki is coming by (=no later than) this evening.'
$\left.\begin{array}{llll}\text { b. } & {\left[m u ̀ ? u^{n}=\varnothing\right.} & \text { sà } & \text { kwéén} \text {-bègé }\end{array}\right]$ màà $] ~ 子 \begin{array}{lll}{[1 \mathrm{Pl}=\mathrm{Ipfv}} & \text { Fut } & \text { crops-cut.VblN }\end{array}$ do.Ipfv]
'We'll harvest the crops one month from now.' (<kwéén , bègè )
c. $\left[m u ̀ P u u^{n}=\varnothing\right.$ sà wálí màà $]$
[1Pl=Ipfv Fut work(n) do.Ipfv]
jàní [yēē dúlì] tú [kpásò?ì flā]
from.now [month one] plus [week two]
'We'll do the work in a month plus a couple of weeks (=a month and a half) from now.'

### 8.5.6.8 'Already' (kàbán , náánì )

These two elements meaning 'already' may occur separately or in combination.
a. bákàr téq=

B go.Pfv
[à búl=] [ò sá] kàbán
[3SgHum return.Adjn] [3SgHum come.Adjn] already
'Bakari went and has already come back.'
b. à kú [mè $\varepsilon^{n} \quad$ kpà-mà $]$ náánī

3SgHum begin [person goal] already
'He/She is already stalking the person' (2016_04@00:39)
c. [mí-nà-à ${ }^{n}$ dú dù] kàbán náánī dóō]
[Dem-Nom-Pl [water in] already already too]
'(She saw that) those (women) were already in the water.' (2016_04@00:48)

### 8.5.7 Expressives

Jalkunan does not seem to make much use of lexical expressive adverbials. The two tales that have been transcribed have plenty of nonlexical interjections of the "ah!" and "ooh!" type. However, there is only one good textual example of a lexical expressive:

| Wábáẁ, é fidì |  |  |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| whoosh!, | 3SgNonh | run.Adjn.Defoc |
| 'Whoosh! | He (=warthog) ran away.' (2016_02 @ 04:54) |  |

The translation 'whoosh!' is misleading since the English form is a semi-onomatopoeia, whereas wábáẁ is a an expressive adverb with a lexical sense and non-iconic (arbitrary) phonological form. There are probably more such forms that would turn up in a larger text collection.

## 9 Verbal derivation

### 9.1 Reversive verb derivation absent

No reversive derivation or productive reversive phrase type was observed. Reversive-like senses are expressed by dedicated lexical items or by semantic extensions. 'Unlock' is expressed as $d \hat{\varepsilon} \hat{\varepsilon}$ 'open (door)', which can also be used in the sense 'uncover, remove blanket from (sb)'. 'Take out, remove' is simply the transitive use of 'exit, go out', with no derivational morpheme. There is a dedicated lexical item for 'untie' (f $£ \grave{\varepsilon}$ ǹàà ), functioning as reversive for the phonologically unrelated 'tie, bind' (kùlónà ) as well as for 'hobble (animal, with rope)' (firìikíyà ).

### 9.2 Morphological causative derivation absent

There is no productive morphological causative. For alternations, using the same ambi-valent verbs, like intransitive 'fall' and transitive 'knock down', see $\S 9.4$ below.

If no simple lexical item can express the sense intended, a periphrastic causative using the verb 'put down' (imperfective bàà) and a postverbal nominalized verb can fill the bill.

| mā | ná | bè | fídì-rá |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| 1Sg | 3 SgHumObj | put.down.Pfv | run.VblN-Nom |
| 'I made him/her run.' |  |  |  |

### 9.3 Morphological passive derivation absent

There is likewise no morphological passive derivation. If a specific agent is overt, it is the subject. There is no difference in Jalkunan between 'I was robbed by the bus driver' and 'The bus driver robbed me.' Nonspecific or generalized agency is expressed by 'they' as subject (284).

| (284) | à à | $m \bar{a}$ | $j \check{c^{n}}$ |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
|  | 3Pl | 1Sg | rob.Pfv |

'I was robbed.' ("They robbed me.")

### 9.4 Ambi-valent (labile) verbs without suffixal derivation

Ambi-valent (or labile) verbs can function intransitively and transitively, by definition. Since pronominal objects are nonzero in form, the existence of a preverbal object is sufficient to
indicate transitive status of the verb. Ambi-valent verbs are very common in Jalkunan. 'Fall' and 'cause to fall, knock down' (also 'put down') are exemplified in (285).
(285)
a. à
bè̀
3SgHum fall.Pfv
'He/She fell.'
b. mā ná bè $\varepsilon$

1Sg 3SgHumObj make.fall.Pfv
'I made him/her fall.'

Some of the most common ambi-valent verbs are in (286). In the imperfective columns, the parenthesized tonal forms are those not used in the intransitive (positive), which does not make the $+3 \mathrm{Sg} /-3 \mathrm{Sg}$ distinction.

| Pfv | Ipfv |  | gloss (intr) | gloss (tr) |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| $+3 \mathrm{Sg}$ | $+3 \mathrm{Sg}$ | -3Sg |  |  |
| bèz | bàà | (báá) | 'fall' | 'knock down, put down' |
| bว̀¢ | (bゝ̀) | bós | 'exit, go out' | 'take out' |
| sว̀ย | (sjò) | sós | 'enter' | 'put in' |
| $k p \bar{\varepsilon} \varepsilon^{n}$ | (kpàà ${ }^{\text {a }}$ | kpáá ${ }^{\text {n }}$ | 'die' | 'kill' |
| kàrrí | (kà?rà) | káprá | 'snap, be broken' | 'snap, break (sth)' |
| bií | (bì) | bíz | '(fire) be lit' | 'light (fire)' |
| $m e ̀ \varepsilon ์$ | (màà) | máá | 'be done, happen' | 'do' |

The transitive in each case is semantically the causative of the intransitive.

### 9.5 Deadjectival inchoative and factitive verbs

Most basic adjectives have an associated verb that can be used as inchoative (' X become ADJ') or factitive (' $Y$ make X become ADJ'). Inchoatives, like other intransitives, have a single form in positive imperfective clauses. For factitives, which (like other transitives) distinguish +3 Sg and -3 Sg tonal forms, the +3 Sg form is given in parentheses. The -3 Sg form (not shown) replaces the initial L -tones of the +3 Sg form with H -tones.

$$
\begin{equation*}
\text { adjective } \quad \text { gloss } \quad \text { inchoative Ipfv (factitive Ipfv }+3 \mathrm{Sg} \text { ) } \tag{287}
\end{equation*}
$$

a. transparently related adjective and verb

| $k p \overline{e ̄}$ | 'white' | kpéz (kpı̀̀ ) |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| kānā | 'red' | kánáná ~ kánná (kànnà) |
|  | 'black' | gbò̧ò (gbì̧ò) |
| nغ́ | 'good' | nàánà (nàánà) |


| gbá?álá | 'thin; dry' | gbà?àlánà (gbà?àlánà) |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| kúmā | 'cold' | kúmà (kùmà) |
| kítā | 'bad' | kìtàlíà (kìtàlía) |
| gúnī | 'short' | gùnò (gùnò) |

b. suppletive or highly irregular

| táā | 'hot' | $d \grave{\varepsilon} \grave{\varepsilon}$ (dı̀̀े) |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| súmáá | 'long' | sòjn-bàà (sj̀ ${ }^{n}$-bàà) |
| kútō | 'old' | kòPrìyáà |

A number of other verbs also denote intransitive changes of state, but do not correspond to any of the few true (morphologically simple) adjectives in the language. One can, however, construct nominal modifiers from verbs like these phrasally (§4.5.3). Parenthesized forms are +3 Sg factitives (i.e. transitives).

| inchoative (factitive) | inchoative gloss |
| :---: | :---: |
| ní?ćnáá (nìpènàà) | 'become wet' |
| dóPóyáà (dòPòyáà) | 'shrink, become small' |
| tòlo | 'rot' (factitive unknown) |
| jáá (jàà) | 'become sweet, delicious' |
| kónó (kònò) | 'grow, become big, widen' |
| gbà?àlánà (gbà?àlánà) | 'dry off' |
| gbàà (gbàà) | 'become difficult or expensive' |
| $n \varepsilon$ ¢̇-bàà (nદ̀દ̀-bàà) | 'become bitter(-tasting)' |
| ŋùnò (ŋùnò) | 'become sour' |

### 9.6 Incorporated object in compound verbs

OV transitives have a preverbal object slot that is often filled by a noun without its nominal suffix. (There are no definite or all-purpose indefinite markers.). This makes it difficult to distinguish object-verb sequences from compounds of a verb with an incorporated object. A further difficulty is the absence of genitive/possessive morphology in possessed NPs. Consider (289).

| má $=\varnothing$ | sárā | mùúú | mè-yá |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| $1 \mathrm{Sg}=\mathrm{Ipfv}$ | tobacco | field | do-Prog |
| 'I grow tobacco.' (mùu $)$ |  |  |  |

'Field' plus 'do' is a standard collocation meaning 'do farm work'. The question is the status of 'tobacco'. The options are a) to treat sárā mùú, whether analysed as a nominal compound ('tobacco-field') or as a possessed NP ('tobacco's field', 'field of tobacco'), as the object of 'do', or b) to analyse mùú as an incorporated noun, leaving sárā as a true syntactic object.

If we take 'tobacco' out, the result is (290).

| má $=\varnothing$ | mùú | mè-yá |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| $1 \mathrm{Sg}=\mathrm{Ipfv}$ | field | do-Prog |
| 'I do farming.' |  |  |

Here the options are a) to treat 'field' as a conventionalized object of 'do', or b) to analyse mùú as an incorporated noun, making the noun-verb combinations a derived intransitive verb (cf. to duck-hunt versus to hunt ducks).

A pronominal object is also possible. In (291), 'it' could refer to a specific crop mentioned in preceding discourse.

| má $=\varnothing$ | nì | mùú | mè-yá |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| $1 \mathrm{Sg}=\mathrm{Ipfv}$ | 3 SgNonhObj | field | do-Prog |
| 'I grow it.' |  |  |  |

Here a stronger case can be made for taking 'field-do' as a compound verb functioning syntactically as transitive, with nì as its direct object. However, even here nì could also be parsed as a possessor of 'field', since there is no difference in form between an object proclitic to a verb and a possessor proclitic to a noun. A possessed noun reading would entail that 'its field' in (291) is the preverbal object (and no noun-verb compound need be recognized). This type of possessed NP analysis is clear in cases like (292) where for semantic reasons nà cannot be construed as a direct object 'him/her' (as in \#'I work-do him').

| (292) | má $=\varnothing$ | [nà | wàlí $]$ | mè-yá |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
|  | $1 \mathrm{Sg}=\mathrm{Ipfv}$ | $[3 \mathrm{SgHum}$ | work] | do-Prog |
|  | 'I do his/her work.' |  |  |  |

The absence of case-marking of objects, and of overt genitive or possessive morphemes, leaves only tone patterns as possible evidence to distinguish simple object nouns before simple transitive verbs from incorporated objects in noun-verb compounds (whether transitive or intransitive). In (292) above, work (wálí) has the $\{\mathrm{L}(\mathrm{H})\}$ overlay associated with +3 Sg possessors. In (293), it has the $\{\mathrm{L}(\mathrm{L})\}$ overlay associated with alienable -3 Sg possessors, but then undergoes Final Tone-Raising before the initial L-tone of the verb.

| (293)á $=\varnothing$ $[m a ̄$ wàlí | mè-yá <br>  <br> 3SgHum=Ipfv <br>  <br>  <br>  <br>  $\mathrm{He} /$ She does my work.' | $[1 \mathrm{Sg}$ | work $]$ |
| :--- | :---: | :---: | :---: |

Returning to (289) above, the LH tones of mùú 'field' (lexical mùù ) could be due to FinalTone Raising before an L-tone, as clearly in (290) above, or they could reflect the $\{\mathrm{L}(\mathrm{H})\}$ overlay on possessums following +3 Sg possessor ('tobacco').
(294) shows perfective VPs with 'bury' and a pronominal object. The issue is whether kù 'corpse' is incorporated into the verb sò $\mathcal{\sim} \sim$ só $\varepsilon$ 'put in (perfective)', or is possessed by the
pronoun. For example, is the 1 Sg version literally 'corpse-put me' (compound) or 'put [my corpse]' (possessum)?

| $m a \overline{ }$ | kú | sóé | 'buried me' | (variant mā $\left.k \bar{u} s \bar{\nu}^{\prime} \bar{\varepsilon}\right)$ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| ná | kù | Sóé | 'buried him |  |
| náà ${ }^{\text {n }}$ | kú | ${ }^{\text {s }}$ ¢́é | 'buried them |  |

In (294) the pronoun has a clear tonal effect on kù 'corpse', reflecting the $+3 \mathrm{Sg} /-3 \mathrm{Sg}$ opposition. This is compatible with a possessive reading, as in 'put [my/his-or-her/their corpse(s)'. However, the forms in (294) above are tonally distinct from those in (295) below, which have the same morphemes but which clearly involve possession. To begin with, the verb now has the LH tones of a perfective verb following a +3 Sg object. Secondly, M-Spreading has applied to 'my corpse' ( $m \bar{a} k \bar{u}$ ), although $k \bar{u}$ is later subject to Final ToneRaising to kú (MH-tone). M-Spreading is regular for inalienable possessums after M-toned pronominal possessors. Third, 'his/her corpse' has LH-toned noun, which can be ascribed either to an $\{\mathrm{L}(\mathrm{H})\}$ overlay (controlled by a +3 Sg possessor) or to Final Tone-Raising (tone sandhi).

| (295) | [mā | kú] | Sว̀é | 'put my corpse in' |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | [ ${ }^{\text {á }}$ | kǔ] | Sว̀é | 'put his/her corpse in' |
|  | [ áa $^{n}$ | kú] | Sว̀é | 'put their corpse in' |

These considerations suggest that (294) exemplifies a transitive compound construction [ $\mathrm{NP}_{\text {obj }} \mathrm{N}-\mathrm{Vb}$ ], while (295) exemplified a regular transitive construction with inalienably possessed object [[Poss N$]$ obj Vb ]. However, the two constructions do not have sharp boundaries.

Some other cases that I initially took to be compounds turned out to pattern tonally as (inalienably) possessed object constructions. For example, 'scare' and 'bother' in (296-7) behave tonally like (295) rather than (294) above.

| (296) | [mā | jāá] | bègé | 'scared me' |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | [ $n$ á | jàá] | bègé | 'scared him/her' |
|  | [ náà $^{n}$ | jáá] | bègé | 'scared them (human)' |
| (297) | [mā | ná] | kpàní | 'bothered me' |
|  | [ $n a ́$ | nǎ] | kpàní | 'bothered him/her' |
|  | [ áa $^{n}$ | ná] | kpàní | 'bothered them (human)' |

Further examples of verb-verb compounds are presented in §15.3.1-2. See also discussion of 'be healthy' (405a-b) in §11.1.2.6.

## 10 Verbal inflection

### 10.1 Inflection of regular indicative verbs

### 10.1.1 Valency

### 10.1.1.1 Intransitive and transitive

For purposes of this chapter, the relevant distinction is between intransitive verbs (defined here as verbs that do not take a preverbal object) and transitive verbs (those that do take a preverbal object). Given this definition, intransitives are distinctive in that, in the perfective, they directly follow the subject without an intervening inflectional morpheme or object NP. Similarly, intransitive verbs occur clause-initially in the imperative. For a more complex and syntactically oriented presentation of valency, see §11.1.1-2.

Some verbs that translate as transitive, and that normally take a postverbal complement of some sort, are (morphologically) intransitive in the sense that they do not allow a preverbal object. In (298a-b), the "object" takes the form of a postverbal PP. In (298c-d), the verbs normally require an object, but this NP appears postverbally (with no postposition).
a. $s \bar{a} \quad[$ sùkár $\bar{r} d \grave{\varepsilon}]$
come.Imprt [sugar with]
'Bring (the) sugar!'
b. $b \overline{1} \quad[g b a ̄ a ́ d \grave{c}]$
hold.Imprt [stick with]
'Hold-2Sg the stick!'
c. bàlì Wár-rà
accept.Imprt money-Nom
'Accept-2Sg the money!'
d. báPrī dàPàl-lá
touch.Imprt mat-Nom
'Touch-2Sg the mat!'

### 10.1.1.2 Pseudo-transitive verb 'go' (wàá)

There are two verbs translatable as 'go'. One is táPá, whose morphosyntax is that of a simple intransitive verb. The other is wàá, which takes an obligatory but apparently nonreferential
nonhuman 3 Sg object. The distinction can be observed in the imperative, where only wǎ takes an obligatory object pronoun.

$$
\begin{equation*}
\text { verb }(\mathrm{Ipfv}+3 \mathrm{Sg}) \quad \text { gloss } \quad \text { imperative } \tag{299}
\end{equation*}
$$

| a. wàá | 'go' | è wǎ |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| b. tá?á | 'go' | táPá |

The pro-forma nonhuman 3 Sg "object" of a pseudo-transitive occurs in some but not all syntactic environments. The perfective aspect conjugations of pseudo-transitive 'go', true intransitive 'come', and true transitive 'hit' (here with a true nonhuman 3 Sg object) are presented side by side in (300) below. The pseudo-transitive has an overt nonhuman 3 Sg object ní only in (300a) for 1 Sg and 2 Sg subject, where it aligns with the transitive. With other subject categories, the pseudo-transitive has no overt object and aligns segmentally with the intransitive paradigm (300b-c).
(300) Perfective paradigms including pseudo-transitive 'go'

| subject | 'go' | 'come' | 'hit it' |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
|  | pseudo-transitive | intransitive | transitive (OV) |


| a. $1 \mathrm{Sg} / 2 \mathrm{Sg}$ |  |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 1Sg | mā ní wěē | $m a ̄$ sćé | mā ní bà?rí |
| 2 Sg | wō ní wěē | WŌ $\frac{\text { ćé }}{}$ | wō ní bà?rí |
| b. 3 Sg |  |  |  |
| 3 SgHum | á= $\varnothing$ wěē | à $S$ c̀ ${ }^{\text {c }}$ | à ní bà2rí |
|  |  |  | á $\varnothing$ bàprí |
| 3SgNonh | é $=\varnothing$ wěē | è $S$ ¢̀ $\varepsilon$ ¢ | è ní bà?rí |
|  |  |  | é $\varnothing$ bà2rí |
| c. other |  |  |  |
| 1 Pl | $m u ̀ p u ́ n=\varnothing$ wěē | $m u ̀)^{n}{ }^{n}$ Séq | mù2ùn ní bàprí |
| 2 Pl | $\bar{e} e^{n}=\varnothing$ wěē | $\bar{e} \bar{e}^{n}$ S $\varepsilon$ ¢́ | ēe ${ }^{n}$ ní bà 2 rí |
| 2 Pl | $m a ̌ a ̄=\varnothing$ wěē | măā $s$ ćé | mǎā ní bàprí |
| 3 PlHum | àà ${ }^{n}=\varnothing$ wěē | àà ${ }^{n}$ Sé | àà ${ }^{n}$ ní bàprí |
| 3PlNonh | èè ${ }^{n}=\varnothing$ Wěē | è̀ ${ }^{n}$ S $\varepsilon$ 生 | èè ${ }^{n}$ ní bàrrí |

However, the tones of the subject pronouns in (300b-c) suggest that a segmentally covert object morpheme is present, even though the morphology is not identical to true transitive morphology. á $=\varnothing$ wěē 'he/she went' and é $=\varnothing$ wěē in (300b) have H-toned 3 Sg proclitics á and é. This differs from L-toned à and è in the corresponding forms for 'come'. However, it matches the alternative options for 'hit it', which I transcribe as á $\varnothing$ bàPrí and é $\varnothing$ bàPrí, where $\varnothing$ represents a segmentally deleted 3 Sg object pronominal (§4.3.1.3). In (300c), the
rising tones in the subject proclitics for 'go' are ambiguous; they could reflect the tonal residue of a segmentally deleted object pronominal, or they could be due to Final ToneRaising. However, this raising rule could be relevant only because the verb wěē 'went' begins with an L-tone, unlike corresponding forms of intransitive 'came'. These tones of the verb imply that a covert 3 Sg object morpheme is virtually present in the 'go' column even in (300c), compare nonhuman 3 Sg ní before L-initial transitive verb bà?rí. I therefore transcribe mù $u^{n}=\varnothing$ wěē and so forth, attributing both the final H -tone on the pronoun and the initial L-tone on the verb to an otherwise hidden 3Sg object morpheme.

An overt nonhuman 3 Sg object marker also occurs when wěe 'went' is directly preceded by a nonpronominal NP that is morphologically capable of ending in the nominal suffix (-ra or variant). The suffix is required in this case, but it contracts with the 3 Sg object, both in pseudo-transitive (301a) and true transitive (301b). The nonhuman 3Sg object pronoun takes the allomorph è or $\grave{e}^{n}$.
a. dí-ré=
$\grave{e}\left({ }^{n}\right)$
wěē
child-Nom 3SgNonhObj
go.Pfv
'The child went.' (<dí-rá )

| b. dí-ré $=$ | è $\left({ }^{n}\right)$ | bà2ríī |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| child-Nom | 3SgNonhObj | go.Pfv |
|  | 'The child hit it.' $(<$ dí-rá $)$ |  |

The structure in (301a) is paralleled in (302a), where an adjective is added to the subject noun. This is because adjectives can take the nominal suffix, which in this construction is obligatory. By contrast, noun-numeral sequences (302b) and personal names (302c) do not have the nominal affix as subject NPs, and there is no segmentally overt nonhuman 3 Sg object marker between them and pseudo-transitives.
a. [tàgà
gbó-rè $=] \quad$ è $\left({ }^{n}\right)$
Wěē
[sheep big-Nom] 3SgNonhObj go.Pfv
'The big sheep-Sg went.' (<gbó-rà )


When the verb is preceded by a nonzero inflectional particle, the pro forma nonhuman 3 Sg object is again obligatory before a pseudo-transitive (303a). Compare true intransitive (303b).
a. dí-rá= $\varnothing$ sí=ì wàá
child-Nom=Ipfv Fut=3SgNonhObj go.Ipfv
'The child will go.' (optionally pronounced sí=í wàá by H-Leveling)
b. dí-rá $=\varnothing$ sà sáá
child-Nom=Ipfv Fut come.Ipfv
'The child will come.'

I conclude that 'go' (imperfective and citation form wàá ) is basically a transitive with a nonreferential nonhuman 3 Sg object, but that it has some irregularities especially in the perfective.
wàá 'go' verb is one of the verbs that shows an ATR alternation in the perfective. Clausefinally the +ATR form with e-vowel is used (304a-b). Clause-medially the unmarked form is -ATR with $\varepsilon$-vowel (304a-d), unless the following element (such as dè 'there' or nàà 'here') requires a + ATR preceding form (304e).
a. á=
$\varnothing$
wěē
$3 \mathrm{SgHum}=3 \mathrm{SgNonhObj}$
go.Pfv
' $\mathrm{He} /$ She went (away).'
b. $\begin{array}{lll}\text { àá } \\ & \varnothing & \text { wěē } \\ & \text { 3PlHum }= & \text { 3SgNonhObj } \\ & \text { 'They went (away).' } & \text { go.Pfv }\end{array}$
c. á/àà $=\quad \varnothing \quad$ wèz $\quad\left[\begin{array}{lll}\text { àbí } & d \grave{\varepsilon}] & b a ́\end{array}\right.$
$3 \mathrm{SgHum} / 3 \mathrm{PlHum}=3 \mathrm{SgNonhObj}$ go.Pfv [meat with] over.there
'He-or-she/They took the meat over there.'
d. $a^{=}$
$3 \mathrm{SgHum}=\quad 3 \mathrm{SgNonhObj}$
'He/She went to Blédougou.'
e. $a^{=}$
$3 \mathrm{SgHum}=\quad 3 \mathrm{SgNonhObj}$
'He/She went there-Definite.'
wè $\quad$ jàlsà-dù
go.Pfv Blédougou
wèé dè
go.Pfv there.Def

### 10.1.1.3 Pseudo-reflexive (middle) verbs

These verbs have an obligatory preverbal object that is coindexed to the subject. They resemble pseudo-reflexive verbs in Romance languages in form and function. However, unlike Romance, Jalkunan morphologically distinguishes pseudo-reflexive objects, which have the same reduced form as reflexive nonsubject possessors (§18.1.1), from true reflexive objects (§18.1.2).

Pseudo-reflexives can be easily distinguished from intransitives since their singularaddressee imperatives begin with an overt 2 Sg reflexive proclitic $\bar{e}$ (305).

```
verb (+3Sg Ipfv) gloss imperative
```

a. motion

| jò?rò | 'jump' | $\bar{e} j \bar{o}$ Prī |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| kìà | 'fly away' | $\bar{e} k i{ }^{n}$ |
| mùńnà | 'crawl' | $\bar{e} m u \bar{n} \overline{1}$ |

b. stance

| sàà | 'lie down' | $\bar{e} S \bar{a}$ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| bàlà | 'stand; stop' | ē bāl |
| sà a à | 'sit' | $\bar{e}$ sāTā |
| cònjólà | 'squat' | è cōnjōlō |
| sô ${ }^{n}$ Sóprà | 'squat' | $\overline{\mathrm{e}}$ So${ }^{n}$ SōPrī |
| mààsá | 'bow, bend over' | ē māāsā |

This pseudo-reflexive pattern is regular for basic stance verbs (305b) and for a few motion verbs emphasizing locomotion mechanism (305a). However, most basic motion verbs are simple intransitives. Their singular-subject imperatives are not preceded by proclitics (306).

| verb | gloss | imperative |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| sáá | 'come' | $s \bar{a}$ |
| bós | 'exit' | $b \bar{o}$ |
| sóá | 'enter' | $s \bar{o}$ |
| sìdánà | 'ascend' | sìdá |
| jàPánà | 'descend' | jà2án |
| fìdè | 'run' | fidí |
| cíध́ | 'arrive' | $c \overline{1}$ |

Perfective paradigms of two pseudo-reflexive verbs are in (307). The (pseudo-)reflexive object pronouns are identical (or nearly so) to the reflexive possessor proclitics used with preverbal objects, see the perfective column in (626) in §18.1.1.4.

Perfective pseudo-reflexive paradigms
subject 'sit' 'jump'
a. M-toned pronominal

| 1 Sg | $m a ̄ ~ n a ̄ \bar{a}^{n}$ S $\varepsilon$ ¢ $\bar{\varepsilon}$ | mā nāā ${ }^{n}$ jóPrī |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 2 Sg |  | wō nīī jóprī |
| 2 Pl |  |  |

b. M-final pronominal

2 Pl
$m a ̌ a ̄ n i ̄ i ̄ n ~ s \varepsilon ́ q \bar{\varepsilon}$
mǎā nīīn jóprī
c. 3 Sg pronominals

d. other plural pronominals

| 1 Pl |  | mù?ún ${ }^{n}$ nàà ${ }^{\text {jóarprī }}$ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  |  | $\sim$ mù?ùu $^{n}$ nāāa ${ }^{\text {a }}$ jórrī |
| 3PlHum | àà ${ }^{n} n a ́ a{ }^{n}$ S ć $\bar{\varepsilon} \bar{\varepsilon}$ | àà ${ }^{n}$ náà ${ }^{n}$ jóprī |
| 3PINonh | è̀ ${ }^{n} n i ̂ 1 i^{n}$ séq $\bar{\varepsilon}$ | è̀ ${ }^{n}$ nîil ${ }^{n}$ jó?rì |

There is one textual example in which è-yàá occurs instead of nonhuman 3 Sg pseudoreflexive è ní, namely è-yàá $\varnothing$ bàlí 'it (=lion cub) stood up'. For the discourse context, which involves a repetition, see text 2016_02@ 02:12. My assistant indicated that the 3P1 counterpart would be è̀̀ ${ }^{n}$-yàà nîiln bálī, showing that yàà is part of the subject pronominal and is followed by the reflexive object (here nonhuman 3Pl nîiln ). What relationship (if any) yàà has to the much better attested but strictly 3 Sg -yà (human à-yà, nonhuman è-yà contracting as ì-yà ), used almost exclusively in postverbal objects, is unclear. See also the discussion following (104a-c) of rare nonhuman 3 Sg ì-yà and $3 \mathrm{Pl} \grave{i}-y a ̌-\bar{a}^{n}$ variants in (nonreflexive) preverbal object function.

Paradigms for 'sit' in various non-perfective inflections (present, future, progressive) are in (308). One small detail to notice is the tones of $s a ́=\grave{a}^{n}$ and $s i ́=i^{n}$ in the 3 Pl future examples, versus $s a ̀=\grave{a}^{n}(1 \mathrm{Sg}, 1 \mathrm{Pl})$ and $s \grave{l}=i^{n}(2 \mathrm{Pl}) .3 \mathrm{Sg}$ future $s a ́=a ́$ (human) and $s i ́=i ́$ (nonhuman) have undergone H -Leveling (§3.8.3.2).
(308) Non-perfective pseudo-reflexive paradigms for 'sit'
subject 'sit(s)' 'will sit' 'be sitting'
a. M-toned pronominal

$$
1 \mathrm{Sg} \quad m a ́=\varnothing \text { nàà }^{n} \text { sápá } \quad \text { má }=\varnothing \text { nàà }{ }^{n} \text { sépé-yá }
$$

$$
m a ́=\varnothing \text { sà }=\grave{a}^{n} \text { sáPá }
$$

$$
2 \mathrm{Sg} \quad \text { wó }=\varnothing \text { nì̀ sá?á } \quad \text { wó }=\varnothing \text { nìì sé?é-yá }
$$

$$
w o ́=\varnothing \text { sì= ì sá?á }
$$

2 Pl

$$
\begin{gathered}
\bar{e} e^{n}=\varnothing \text { nììn }{ }^{n} \text { sáPá } \quad \bar{e} e^{n}=\varnothing \text { nì̀n } n \text { sépé-yá } \\
\bar{e} e^{n}=\varnothing s i ̀=i^{n} \\
\text { sáPá }
\end{gathered}
$$

b. M-final pronominal

2 Pl

$$
\begin{gathered}
\text { mǎā }=\varnothing \text { nìin } \text { sáPá } \quad \text { mǎ } \bar{a}=\varnothing \text { nìi } n \\
\text { mǎǎ }=\varnothing \text { séPé-yá }=i^{n} \text { sáPá }
\end{gathered}
$$

c. 3 Sg pronominals

$$
\begin{aligned}
& 3 \text { SgHum á }=\varnothing \text { nà sàpà } \quad \text { á }=\varnothing \text { nà sè?è-yá } \\
& \text { á }=\varnothing \text { sá }=\text { á sà } 2 a ̀ \\
& 3 \mathrm{SgNonh} \quad \text { é }=\varnothing \text { nì sà } \mathrm{a} \text { à } \quad \text { é }=\varnothing \text { nì sèrè̀-yá } \\
& \text { é }=\varnothing s i ́=\text { í sà } 1 a ̀
\end{aligned}
$$

d. other plural pronominals

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { 1Pl mù?ún }=\varnothing \text { nàà }{ }^{n} \text { sá?á mù?ún }=\varnothing \text { nàà }{ }^{n} \text { sé?é-yá } \\
& \text { mù? } \hat{u}^{n}=\varnothing \text { sà }=\grave{a}^{n} \text { sá?á } \\
& 3 \mathrm{PlHum} \quad \text { àán }=\varnothing \text { nààn }{ }^{n} \text { sáPá àá } n=\varnothing \text { nàà }{ }^{n} \text { séré-yá } \\
& \text { àá }{ }^{n}=\varnothing s \text { á }=\grave{a}^{n} \text { sáPá } \\
& \text { 3PlNonh è̀én }=\varnothing \text { nì̀n } \text { sápá èe } e^{n}=\varnothing \text { nì̀n }{ }^{n} \text { sépé-yá } \\
& \text { èè }{ }^{n}=\varnothing s i ́=i^{n} \text { sápá }
\end{aligned}
$$

### 10.1.2 Structure of verbal paradigms

### 10.1.2.1 Stem alternations for intransitive verbs

Each verb has four basic stems: perfective, imperfective, progressive, and imperative. The progressive has a suffix -yá. The three other stems have less transparently affixal structure, but differ chiefly in their final segment(s), especially the final vowel. We can posit a primary perfective/imperfective split, and think of the imperative as (usually) a shortened form of the imperfective.

Additional tonal variants are created by interactions with preceding NPs (including pronouns). This applies to transitives in all TAM categories, and to intransitives in the perfective. By contrast, in positive clauses, imperfective and progressive forms of intransitive verbs are always immediately preceded by an inflectional morpheme, which do not affect verb tones but which protect the verb from tonal interactions with subjects. Singular-subject imperative forms of intransitives are clause-initial, and so of course have no tonal interactions with subjects.

Further tonal and segmental modifications are created by tone sandhi and some further tonal adjustments triggered by a negative enclitic or by a following word.

Examples of intransitive paradigms follow. (309) has perfectives ending in mid-height e or $\varepsilon$ (E-stem). Final long vowels ( $\varepsilon \varepsilon$ ) and diphthongs ( $i \varepsilon, \circ \varepsilon, o e$ ) in the perfective take their full form clause-finally and in isolation, but lose the second mora clause-internally. For perfectives, the tonal form that follows a -3 Sg NP is under the one that follows a +3 Sg NP and slightly indented.
(309) Intransitives (E-stem perfective)

| Pfv Ipfv Imprt Prog |  |  |  |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| +3 Sg |  |  |  |
|  |  |  |  |
| -3 Sg |  |  |  |


| cદ̀¢ | cáá | - | cé-yá | 'ripen, harden' |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| céq́ |  |  |  |  |
| $g b \varepsilon$ ¢́ | gbàà | - | gbè-yá | 'become difficult' |
| $g b \varepsilon ́ \varepsilon ์$ |  |  |  |  |
| jè ${ }^{\text {c }}$ | jáá | - | jé-yá | 'become sweet' |
| jéq์ |  |  |  |  |
| $s \grave{\varepsilon} \varepsilon{ }^{\prime}$ | sáá | $s \bar{a}$ | sé-yá | 'come' |
| sé $\varepsilon$ |  |  |  |  |
| $k p \underline{\varepsilon} \grave{\varepsilon}^{n}$ | $k p a ́ a a^{n}$ | $k p \bar{a}^{n}$ | kpén-yá | 'die' |
| kp $\varepsilon^{\text {e }}{ }^{\text {n }}$ |  |  |  |  |
| bè̇ | bàà | bà | bè-yá | 'fall' |
| béq์ |  |  |  |  |
| kpèz | kpéq | - | kpé-yá | 'turn white' |
| kpéé |  |  |  |  |
| dè ${ }^{\text {c }}$ | $d e ̀ \grave{c}$ | $d \check{\varepsilon}$ | dè-yá | 'get hot' |
| déé |  |  |  |  |
| bò ${ }^{\text {c }}$ | bóś | $b \bar{\jmath}$ | bó-yá | 'exit' |
| bó |  |  |  |  |
| Sò ${ }^{\text {c }}$ | sós | $s \bar{\square}$ | só-yá | 'enter' |
| sóé |  |  |  |  |
| ciè | cié | $c \overline{1}$ | cí-yá | 'arrive' |
| cíé |  |  |  |  |
| $t \varepsilon ̇$ ¢́ | tá?á | $t a \bar{a} \bar{a}$ | tè̀è-yá | 'go' |
| $t \varepsilon ์ ? \bar{\varepsilon}$ |  |  |  |  |
| $d \grave{\varepsilon} \mathrm{q} \dot{\varepsilon}(\bar{\varepsilon})$ | dà 2 à | dà 2 à | dè̀è-yá | 'escape' |
| dé $\bar{\varepsilon} \bar{\varepsilon}(\bar{\varepsilon})$ |  |  |  |  |
| kùmé | kúmà | - | kùmá-yà | 'cool off' |
| kúm̄ |  |  | ~ kùmé-yà |  |
| bèlé(ē) | bélé | bēlē | bélé-yá | 'pass' |
| bélē(̄) |  |  |  |  |
| лìné | nìnáà | nìnà | nìné-yà | 'forget' |
| níne |  |  |  |  |
| gbj̀ ${ }^{\text {ché }}$ | gbò? | gbò? | gbòPò-yá | 'turn black' |
| gbó? $\bar{\varepsilon}$ |  |  |  |  |
| tòlóe | tòlo | tólò | tòlò-yá | 'rot' |
| tólē (see comment below) |  |  |  |  |
| jî̀me | jiímàà | jî́mà | jiímè-yà | 'weep' |
| jíímè |  |  |  |  |


| bàné $\bar{\varepsilon}^{n}$ | báné $\bar{\varepsilon}^{n}$ | bàná?à ${ }^{n}$ | bànéré-yà | 'get tired' |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| báné? $\bar{\varepsilon}^{n}$ |  |  |  |  |
| dò?òyéē dó?óyéē | dó?óyáà | dóPóyà | dó?óyé-yà | 'shrink' |
| kòPrìyéē | kòPrìyáà | kò?rìyá | kòPrìyé-yà | 'grow old' |
| kópríyéē |  |  |  |  |

tòlóe 'rot' ( +3 Sg perfective) has been heard as tòló, tòlóé, and tòléē. Of these tòlóē is structurally correct, but the oe diphthong is marginal in Jalkunan (§3.3.5.1). tòló is regular non-clause-finally after the $\bar{e}$ is trimmed. My assistant produced only tólē for the -3 Sg perfective, suggesting that a fall from H to M -tone favors Monophthongization.

The intransitives in (310) have perfectives ending in $i$ (I-stema). Nonmonosyllabic perfectives ending in a long vowel ii are trimmed to $i$ clause-medially. This affects 'think' and 'worsen'.
(310) Intransitives (I-stem perfective)

| Pfv | Ipfv | Imprt | Prog | gloss |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| bií bíī | bíg | - | bí-yá | 'be lit' |
| bùlí búlī | búló | $b u ̄ 1 u ̄$ | búlú-yá | 'return' |
| dibí díbī | díbé | - | díbí-yá | 'be extinguished' |
| fidí <br> fídī | fidée | fidí | fidí-yà | 'run' |
| kòní <br> kónī | kónó | $k \bar{o}$ | kóní-yá | 'grow' |
| gùní gúní | gùnò | $g \check{u r ~}^{n}$ | gùnì-yá | 'become short' |
| ŋùníī ทúníī | ŋùnò | - | Đùnì-yá | 'become sour' |
| nàánī náánī | jàánà | nǎ | jàánì-yà | 'improve' |
| mìlíī <br> mílíī | mílíià | mī1̄ī | mílílíyà | 'think' |
| jà $1 a ́ n i ̄$ jáPánī | jà 1 ánà | $j a ̀ p a{ }^{n}$ | jà2ánì-yà | 'descend' |
| sìdánī sídánī | sìdánà | sìdá | sìdánì-yà | 'ascend' |
| kànàní kánání | kán(á)ná | - | kánání-yá | 'turn red' |


| kìtàlíi <br> kítálíl | kìtàlíà | - | kìtàlí-yà 'worsen' |
| :---: | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| gbà àlánī <br> gbáPálánī | gbàPàlánà | gbàPàlá | gbàPàlání-yà 'become thin or dry' |

Array (311) gives fuller sets of forms for three intransitives, including negative forms.

| (311) | category | 'come' | 'fall' | 'descend' |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | Pfv +3 Sg |  | $b \varepsilon \grave{\varepsilon}$ | jà ${ }^{\text {ánī }}$ |
| Pfv +3 Sg Neg |  | $s \grave{\varepsilon} \grave{\varepsilon}=r \bar{\varepsilon} ?$ | $b \grave{\varepsilon} \grave{\varepsilon}=r \bar{\varepsilon}$ ? | $j a ̀$ án $=n \overline{\text { en }}$ ? |
|  |  | $\sim s e ̀ e ̀=r e ̄ ? ~$ | $\sim b e ̀ e ̀=r e ̄ ? ~$ |  |
|  | Pfv -3Sg | Sع́É | béq́ | jáPánī |
| Pfv -3Sg Neg |  | $s \varepsilon \bar{\varepsilon}=r \bar{\varepsilon} ?$ | $b \varepsilon ́ \varepsilon=r \bar{\varepsilon}$ ? | jáPán $=n$ ē? |
|  |  | $\sim$ séé $=$ rē? | $\sim$ béé $=$ rē? |  |
|  | Ipfv | sáá | bàà | jà $2 a ́ n a ̀$ |
|  | Ipfv Neg | sáá $=r \bar{\varepsilon} ?$ | $b a ̀ a ̀=r \bar{\varepsilon} ?$ | jà 2 ánà $=n \bar{\varepsilon}$ ? |
|  | Prog | sé-yá | bè-yá | jàránì-yà |
|  | Prog Neg | $s e ́-y a ́=r \bar{\varepsilon} ?$ | $b e ̀-y a ́=r \bar{\varepsilon} ?$ | jàPánì-yà $=r \bar{\varepsilon}$ ? |
|  | Imprt | $s \bar{a}$ | bà | jà ${ }^{\text {áa }}$ |
|  | Proh | bí $s$ a $=r \bar{\varepsilon}$ ? | bí bà $=r \bar{\varepsilon}$ ? | bí jà 1 à $=n \bar{\varepsilon}$ ? |
|  | Imprt Pl | $\bar{e} \bar{e}^{n} s \bar{a}^{\text {a }}$ | $\bar{e} \bar{e}^{n} b \bar{a}$ | $\bar{e} \bar{e}^{n} j \bar{a} P \bar{a}^{n}$ |
|  | Proh Pl | $\bar{e} \bar{e}^{n} b i ́ s \bar{a}=r \bar{\varepsilon} ?$ | $\bar{e} \bar{e}^{n}$ bí bà $=r \bar{\varepsilon}$ ? | $\bar{e} \bar{e}^{n}$ bí jà $2 \mathfrak{a ̀}=n \bar{\varepsilon} ?$ |
|  | Verbal noun | $s \overline{e ̄} \bar{e}$ | bó bèè | jà 1 ánī |

10.1.2.2 Stem alternations for transitive verbs

Transitive verbs have paradigms similar to those described above for intransitives, and many stems switch easily between intransitive and transitive contexts. However, transitives in all9TAM categories (including imperfective, progressive, and imperative) are immediately preceded by NPs and therefore have two tonal variants, one with initial L-tone (after +3 Sg NPs) and the other with initial H-tone (after - 3 Sg NPs).

The difference between intransitives and transitives is striking in their imperfectives, for example. Intransitives (including monosyllabics and $C v C V$ ) in positive clauses have a single form, whose tone is lexically assigned (unpredictable). Transitives have L-initial and H-initial forms, correlated with the category of the preceding NP. For some transitives, the respective L- and H-tones spread rightward to the end of the stem, so no lexical tones need be positied. However, prosodically heavy transitives with shapes like $C v v C v$ and $C v C v C v$ may have lexically specified H -tones in noninitial moras.
（312）Transitives（E－stem perfective）

| Pfv | Ipfv | Imprt | Prog | gloss |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| $+3 \mathrm{Sg}$ | $+3 \mathrm{Sg}$ | $+3 \mathrm{Sg}$ | ＋3Sg |  |
| －3Sg | －3Sg | －3Sg | －3Sg |  |
| $b \varepsilon ̇ \varepsilon ์$ | bàà | $b a ̌$ | bè－yá | ＇put down＇ |
| bé $\varepsilon$ | báá | bá | bé－yá |  |
| jè ${ }^{\text {c }}$ | jàà | jǎ | jè－yá | ＇sweeten＇ |
| jéq́ | jáá | já | jé－yá |  |
| dèz | dè̀̀ | $d \varepsilon$ ¢ | dè－yá | ＇heat（sth）＇ |
| déé | déé | dé | dé－yá |  |
| $m \grave{\varepsilon} \varepsilon ์$ | $m \varepsilon ̀ \varepsilon ̀$ | $m \varepsilon ̌$ | mè－yá | ＇hear＇ |
| mé $\varepsilon$ | $m \varepsilon ́ \varepsilon ์$ | $m \varepsilon ́$ | mé－yá |  |
| bう̀ ${ }^{\text {c }}$ | bò̀ | bǒ | bò－yá | ＇remove＇ |
| bóé | bóó | bó | bó－yá |  |
| mว̀ $\varepsilon$ | mゝ̀ | mó | mò－yá | ＇rub＇ |
| mó ${ }^{\text {c }}$ | móó | móó | mó－yá |  |
| jì | jị̀ | $j i ̆$ | jì－yá | ＇see＇ |
| jíq́ | jíq | jí | jí－yá |  |
| $d \grave{\varepsilon^{n}}$ | dうへへ ${ }^{n}$ | dうo ${ }^{n}$ | dòn ${ }^{\text {－yá }}$ | ＇step on＇ |
| dós $\bar{\varepsilon}^{n}$ | dósin | dós ${ }^{n}$ | dón－yá |  |
| $j \grave{\varepsilon^{n}}$ | $j \grave{\partial} \hat{o}^{n}$ | jòs ${ }^{\text {n }}$ | jòn－yá | ＇rob＇ |
| $j \bar{\varepsilon}^{\underline{E}}$ | $j$ jô $^{n}$ | jós ${ }^{n}$ | jon－yá |  |
| yěē | $y \varepsilon \hat{\varepsilon}^{\hat{\varepsilon}}$ | yèé | yè－yá | ＇send（sb）＇ |
| yéē | yéê | yéé | yé－yá |  |
| fié | fîe | fié | fè－yá | ＇fan（v）＇ |
| fíq | fîê | fîé | fé－yá |  |

Similar paradigms for transitive verbs with I－stem perfectives are in（313）．
（313）Transitives（I－stem perfective）

| Pfv | Ipfv | Imprt | Prog | gloss |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| ＋3Sg | $+3 \mathrm{Sg}$ | $+3 \mathrm{Sg}$ | $+3 \mathrm{Sg}$ |  |
| －3Sg | －3Sg | －3Sg | －3Sg |  |
| kií | kì̀ | kiı́ | kì－yá | ＇sow＇ |
| kíī | kíg | kíí | kí－yá |  |
| mì | mìe～mìà | mǐ | mì－yá | ＇drink＇ |
| míī | míé～míá | mí | mí－yá |  |
| dèini | $d \varepsilon ̀ \check{\varepsilon}$ | dèí | dè－yá | ＇open＇ |
| déīi | déq̇ | déí | dé－yá |  |


| kèéi | $k \dot{\varepsilon} \dot{\varepsilon}$ | kèé | kè-yá | 'call' |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| kéēī | kéq | kéé | ké-yá |  |
| jùlí | jùlo | jùlí | jùlì-yá | 'push' |
| júlī | júló | júlí | júlí-yá |  |
| bà?rí | bà?rà | bà?rí | bàPrì-yá | 'hit' |
| bá?rī | báPrá | bá?rí | báPrí-yá |  |
| sìní | sìnà | $S \check{I V}^{n}$ | sìnì-yá | 'dig' |
| sínī | síná | Sín ${ }^{n}$ | síní-yá |  |
| fâàlî | fâàlà | fâàlí | fâàlí-yà | 'gather up' |
| fáálíl | fáálá | fáálí | fáálí-yá |  |
| sèz̀ní | sèz̀nà | $s \grave{\varepsilon} \varepsilon^{n}$ | sèz̀nì-yá | 'collect wood' |
| séénī | sćéná | S $\varepsilon \varepsilon^{n}{ }^{\text {n }}$ | sćéní-yá |  |
| kùlónì | kùlónò | kùló | kùlónì-yà | 'tie' |
| kúlónì | kúlónò | kúló | kúlónī-yā |  |
| dìmìní | dìmìnàà | dìmí | dìmìnì-yá | 'hurt (sb)' |
| dímíní | dímínáá | dímí | dímíní-yá |  |

Full transitive paradigms including negative forms for three transitive verbs are in (314) below. 'Put is the same stem as intransitive 'fall' in (309) above, i.e. it is one of many ambi-valent (labile) stems. In the sense 'put down' it is not accompanied by the noun bó. The tone of transitive verbal nouns, like that of indicative verbs, depends on the category $(+3 \mathrm{Sg}$ or -3 Sg ) of the preceding object.

| category | 'taste' | 'put down' | 'push' |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Pfv +3 Sg | nènée | $b \varepsilon$ é | jùlí |
| Pfv Neg +3 Sg | $n \varepsilon ̀ n \varepsilon \bar{\varepsilon}=n \bar{\varepsilon} ?$ | $b \grave{\varepsilon} \grave{\varepsilon}=r \varepsilon ́ q$ | $j u ̌ l=l \bar{e} ?$ |
| Pfv -3Sg | nénéē | bé | júlī |
| Pfv Neg -3Sg | $n \varepsilon ์ n \varepsilon \bar{\varepsilon}=n \bar{\varepsilon}$ ? | $b \varepsilon \varepsilon ์=r \varepsilon ́ ?$ | $j u ́ l=l \bar{e} ?$ |
| $\mathrm{Ipfv}+3 \mathrm{Sg}$ | nènéè | bàà | jùlo |
| Ipfv +3 Sg Neg | $n \varepsilon ̇ n \varepsilon ́ \grave{\varepsilon}=n \bar{\varepsilon} ?$ | $b a ̀ a ̀=r \varepsilon ́ ?$ | $j u ̀ l \grave{=}=r \varepsilon$ ? |
| Ipfv -3Sg | nènéè | báá | júló |
| Ipfv -3Sg Neg | $n \varepsilon ์ n \varepsilon ́ \varepsilon ̀=n \bar{\varepsilon} ?$ | báá $=r \bar{\varepsilon} ?$ | $j u$ úló $=r \bar{\varepsilon} ?$ |
| Prog +3 Sg | nèné-yá | bè-yá | jùlì-yá |
| Prog +3 Sg Neg | nèné-yá $=r \bar{\varepsilon}$ ? | $b e ̀-y a ́=r \bar{\varepsilon} ?$ | jùlì-yá $=r \bar{\varepsilon}$ ? |
| Prog -3Sg | néné-yá | bé-yá | júlí-yá |
| Prog -3Sg Neg | néné- yá $=r \bar{\varepsilon}$ ? | bé-yá $=r \bar{\varepsilon} ?$ | júlí-yá $=r \bar{\varepsilon}$ ? |
| Imprt -3Sg | nèné | bà | jùlí |
| Proh Sg | $n \varepsilon ̀ n \varepsilon ์=n \bar{\varepsilon} ?$ | $b a ̀=r \varepsilon ́ ?$ | jùl = lé? |
| Imprt Pl | néné | bá | júlí |
| Proh Pl | $n \varepsilon ́ n \varepsilon ́=n \bar{\varepsilon} P$ | $b a ́=r \bar{\varepsilon} ?$ | $j u ́ l=l \bar{e} ?$ |
| VblN | néné~ nènè | béé ~ bèè | júlí ~ jùlì |

### 10.1.2.3 Analysis of verb-stem alternations

The imperfective is the best option for a citation form, since it often has lexical information that is masked in the other forms. For example, a final vowel in the imperfective may be converted to a front vowel in the perfective and clipped off in the imperative. For intransitives, the tone of the imperfective is also unpredictable and therefore lexically specified, while that of the perfective in particular is determined by the preceding NP.

Relevant inflectional morphemes that can occur next to the verb are post-subject inflectional morphemes on the left and the negative enclitic on the right. The post-subject morphemes are future sà (and variants), imperfective $/ \mathrm{H}+=\varnothing /$, and prohibitive bí. They immediately precede intransitive verbs, but are separated from transitive verbs by the object. The negative enclitic is added to the final word of the clause, which is often (but not always) the verb.

Word-final perfective diphthongs are truncated when the verb is not clause-final, including when it is followed only by the negative enclitic. For example, $\partial \varepsilon$ and $o i$ lose their second elements in this position.

The post-subject particles do not interact tonally with the verb. Addition of the negative enclitic directly to the verb is useful in checking the latter's vowel length and tone. However, the negative marker does induce some phonological changes when it encliticizes directly on the verb. Since the verb is now non-clause-final, the truncation of verb-final diphthongs mentioned above takes place. Especially in monosyllabic and $C_{V}$ ?v perfectives, -ATR vowels are optionally shifted to +ATR before the negative enclitic (and some other clause-final morphemes). The +ATR shift then cycles back into the enclitic itself, which is subject to ATR Harmony. These phenomena are illustrated by bゝ̀ 'exited' becoming negative bj̀ $=r \bar{\varepsilon}$ ? varying with bòò =rē? 'did not exit'.

The perfective stem ends in a front vowel $\{i$ e $\varepsilon\}$. As indicated above, when this vowel is the final element in a perfective diphthong, it is deleted except when clause-final. The imperfective normally ends in a low or -ATR vowel from the set $\{\varepsilon a \rho\}$, rarely +ATR $o$. All known verbs with final $e(e)$ in the perfective and imperative, and most with final $o$ in the perfective and imperative, shift this vowel to the -ATR counterpart or to $a$ in the imperfective. In (315), all verb forms are of the +3 Sg tonal type if transitive, or if perfective intransitive. Our focus here is on vowel qualities, not tones.

| imperative | perfective | imperfective |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| $+3 S g$ or intr | $+3 S g$ | $+3 S g$ or intr |


| wě | wěē | Wと̀̀े | 'bathe (sb)' |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | $\sim W \varepsilon ̌ \bar{\varepsilon}$ (non-clause-finally) |  |  |
| tě | těē |  | 'shatter (sth)' |
| yě | yěē | $y \grave{\varepsilon} \hat{\varepsilon}$ | 'send on mission' |
| dèí | dèíí | $d \grave{\varepsilon} \hat{\varepsilon}$ | 'open' |
| bègé | bègé | bègè ~ bègà | 'cut' |
| dàkó | dàkóī | dàkóò | 'catch (sth thrown)' |

b. no shift to -ATR in imperfective

| kō | kòní | kónó | 'grow' |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| lě | lèní | lènà | 'look at' |
| sèprí | sèprí | sè?rà | 'sweep' |

The progressive systematically shifts -ATR vowels to +ATR (in the broad sense, including high vowels). Therefore even stems that have -ATR vowels in the positive imperative, perfective, and imperfective shift it to +ATR before progressive -yá. The known exceptions are multisyllabic verbs with an initial -ATR vowel, and may be morphologically segmentable.
imperative perfective imperfective progressive gloss
a. + ATR in progressive only

| $d \check{\varepsilon}$ | $d \grave{\varepsilon} \varepsilon$ | $d \grave{\varepsilon} \varepsilon े$ | dè-yá | 'heat (sb)' |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| mòó | mò | mò̀ | mò-yá | 'rub' |

b. initial -ATR in heavy stem preserved in progressive
kò?rìyá kò?rìyée kò?rìyáà kj̀Prìyé-yà

The imperative is usually closely related to the imperfective. However, where the perfective and imperfective diverge in vocalism (simple ATR shift, or perfective $i$ versus imperfective -ATR or low vowel), the imperative sides with the perfective. Factoring this out, the imperative is best derived from the imperfective by stem-final reduction (shortening a final long vowel, deleting a final short vowel). See $\S 3.5$ for fuller discussion.

### 10.1.3 Reduplicated verb stems

Some verbs have a reduplicative appearance. Those with a monosyllabic repeated segment are least transparently reduplicative (317a), but in some cases they might have been shortened by Syncope. Those with a bisyllabic repeated segment are more obvious (317b). There is an iconic element insofar as most verbs in (317b) denote actions that tend to be repetitive or prolonged in real life (317b). Two examples are iterations of independently occurring verbs, adding an emphatic or repetitive element (317c).
a. $C V N-$ or $C V^{n}$ -

```
    gbèngbéà 'hammer (sth)'
    pèmp\varepsiloń?rà 'engage energenticially in (activity)'
    sòn 'sórrà 'squat'
possibly syncopated from CvCv-
    j\varepsilońnj\varepsilońná '(group) scatter'
```

```
b. lèkè-lékà 'tickle' ( }k~g
    mèn\varepsiloǹ-mén\varepsiloǹ 'grope, feel one's way'
    mùgù-múgò 'break up lumps'
    \etaùnù-\etaún\grave{ 'groan' or 'murmur'}
    y\varepsiloǹgغ̀-y\varepsilońg\varepsiloǹ '(chicken) scratch the ground'
    yùgù-yúgò 'shake (sth)'
    kòlòn-gólónà 'roll'
    múnú-múnn\grave{ 'spin, rotate'}
c. bègè-bégà 'chop (with ax)' bègg̀~ bègà 'cut'
    d\varepsiloǹn-d\varepsilońnà 'stalk (one's prey)' déná 'follow'
```

The data show that the reduplicant does not exceed $C v C v$ - shape even when the base is trisyllabic. 'Stalk (one's prey) in (317c) confirms that $C v L$ - reduplicant may have been syncopated. The forms shown in (317a-c) are imperfective, so the base ends in $\{$ a $\rho \varepsilon\}$, but this vowel is not copied onto the reduplicant, which is invariant across TAM inflections.

### 10.2 Negation

10.2.1 Clause-final negative enclitic $=r \bar{E} ?(=r \bar{e} ? \sim=r \bar{\varepsilon} ?)$

The all-purpose negative enclitic $=r \bar{\varepsilon} ? \sim=r \bar{e} ?$ (or variant, see below) is used with all types of predicate, including negative imperatives (prohibitives). On the segmentability of the final glottal stop, see $\S 10.2$.2 below.

The enclitic is hosted by the otherwise clause-final word. It is therefore separated from the verb only if there is a postverbal constituent such as a bare postverbal NP (318a) or a PP (318b).

| a. mù?ún $=$ $1 \mathrm{Pl}=$ | $\varnothing$ | wèz | bòbó $=$ rē? |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | 3 SgNonhObj | go.Pfv | Bobo $=\mathbf{N e g}$ |
| We didn' | o to Bobo (city) |  |  |

b. mā dó-ś́ [kòó mà $]=n \bar{\varepsilon}$ ?

1 Sg add.Pfv [salt on]=Neg
'I didn't add salt.' (kòò )

Since Jalkunan is an S-infl-O-V-X-Neg language, the postverbal position X is often vacant, and the negative clitic is therefore very often hosted by the verb.

Both the consonant and the vowel of the enclitic are subject to phonological alternations. The citation form $=r \bar{E} ?$ takes the tap $r$ as basic, and is neutral as to $\varepsilon$ versus e. Since tap $r$ is not normally allowed word-initially, and since the $r$ in $=r \bar{E}$ ? is subject to the same kind of modifications as seen with nominal suffix -ra (and variants), I transcribe the negative morpheme as an enclitic rather than as a free particle.
$r$-Nasalization (§3.6.1.1) converts $r$ to $n$ after a nasal syllable, such as Na or $\mathrm{Ca}^{n}$, i.e. after a syllable with nasal consonant onset or one with a nasalized vowel. It also applies when the enclitic directly follows a nasal consonant, though follows Apocope of a final vowel and so reduces to the Na case.
a. à
3 SgHum forget.Pfv $\quad\left[\begin{array}{ll}\text { meat } & \text { on }]=\mathbf{N e g}\end{array}\right.$
'He/She didn't forget the meat.'
b. à
$k p \grave{\varepsilon} \dot{\varepsilon}=n \bar{\varepsilon} ?$
3SgHum die.Pfv=Neg
'He/She didn't die.' (<kp $\left.{ }^{2} \varepsilon^{n}\right)$
c. nù?ù-nó-ò ${ }^{n} \quad$ gbáPálán $=n e ̄ ?$
garmet-Nom-Pl dry.off.Pfv=Neg
'The clothes didn't dry.' (< gbá?álánī )
$r$-Lateralization (§3.6.1.2) occurs only when the tap $r$ is immediately preceded by 1 , after Apocope of a final vowel. The result is an 11 cluster over the enclitic boundary (320a). This process also occurs when the expected result after Apocope would be $\operatorname{rr}$ (320b). Apocope in these examples is optional, so fuller forms like bà $P r^{\prime} 1=r \bar{e} ?$ are also possible, and preferred in careful speech.
a. mā nāāa $\quad$ bál $=l \bar{e} ?$
$1 \mathrm{Sg} \quad 1 \mathrm{SgRefl}$ stand.Pfv=Neg
'I didn't stand/stop.' (< bálī )
$\begin{array}{lll}\text { b. } & \text { mā } \quad \text { ná } & \text { bǎ } 21=l \bar{e} ? \\ & \text { 1Sg } & \text { 3SgHum } \\ & \text { 'I didn't hit him/her.' }(<\text { bà?rí })\end{array}$

ATR Harmony (§3.4.1) determines the surface vowel quality of the enclitic, $\varepsilon$ or $e$. However, when the enclitic directly follows a verb, a $C_{V V}$ verb itself optionally shifts from -ATR to
 Apocope, the enclitic surfaces with $\varepsilon$ after a syllable with $\left\{\begin{array}{l}\text { a } \varepsilon \rho \\ \rho\end{array}\right.$, and with $e$ after a syllable with $\{i u$ e $o\}$. As usual, a is treated as -ATR and high vowels are treated as +ATR. Apocope of the final word of the host word applies after ATR Harmony and does not affect the ATR value of the negative enclitic, as shown by bí=í bāl=l̄̄? '(don't) stop!' where +ATR e in the negative enclitic is required by the apocopated (or syncopated) /i/.
a. -ATR

| $a$ | é $=\varnothing$ sà $s a \bar{a}$ | è sá $t s a ́ a ́=r \bar{\varepsilon} ?$ | 'it will (not) come' |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| $\varepsilon$ | mā ní jìé | mā ní jì̀ $=r \bar{\varepsilon} ?$ | 'I did (not) see it' |
| 0 | é $=\varnothing$ sà tò̀̀̀ | è sá tòl $=l \bar{\varepsilon} ?$ | 'it will (not) rot' |

b. +ATR

| i | $\bar{e}$ bālī | $b^{\prime}=1$ í $b \bar{a} l=l \bar{e} ?$ | '(don't) stop!' |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | é kǐ̆ ${ }^{\text {n }}$ | é kiı̀ $=$ nē? | 'it did (not) fly' |
| $u$ | è $k \check{u ̛ n}^{n}$ | $\mathrm{bí}^{\prime}$ í $k u ̀=n \overline{\mathrm{e}}$ ? | '(don't) eat it!' |
|  | è $g \check{u ̛ n}^{n}$ | $b i ́=1 ́ g ~ g u ̀ ~=~ n e ̄ ? ~$ | '(don't) shorten it!' |
| e | è lě | $b i ́=i ́ l e ̀ ~=~ r e ̄ ? ~ ? ~$ | '(don't) look at it!' |
|  | é $=\varnothing$ wěē | é $=\varnothing$ wèé $=r$ rē? | 'it went/didn't go' |
|  | è tòlóé | è tòló $=$ rē? | 'it rotted' |
| $o$ | è dàkó | bí = í dàkó= rē? | '(don't) catch it!' |

The tone of the enclitic is consistently M when clause-final. Adding the enclitic makes it easy to confirm tonal markings, except for final $<\mathrm{LH}>$-toned syllable, see (323) below. The negative enclitic also makes it easy to determine the basic vowel length of the stem-final syllable of verbs.
host tones positive negative gloss
a. monosyllabics

| H | èe ${ }^{n}$ dé $\varepsilon$ ' | $\begin{aligned} & \grave{e} e^{n} d \dot{\varepsilon} \varepsilon=r \bar{\varepsilon} ? \\ & (\sim \text { déé }=r \bar{e} ?) \end{aligned}$ | 'They got/didn't get hot.' |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  |  | $m a \bar{a}$ náà ${ }^{n} j i ́ \varepsilon=r \bar{\varepsilon}$ ? <br> $(\sim j i ́ e ́=r e ̄ p)$ | 'I saw/didn't see them.' |
| L | á $=\varnothing$ nàà | á $=\varnothing$ nàà $=n \bar{\varepsilon}$ ? | 'He/She is(n't) here.' |
| M | á $=\varnothing$ sà sáá | à sá ${ }^{\top}$ Sáá $=r \bar{\varepsilon}$ ? | 'He/She will (not) come.' |
|  | má $=\varnothing$ sà sáá | $m a ̄ ~ s a \overline{~ s a ́ a ́ ~}=r \bar{\varepsilon}$ ? | 'I will/won't come. |
|  | á $=\varnothing$ sà bóó | à sá ${ }^{ \pm} \mathrm{bó}$ = $=r \bar{\varepsilon}$ ? | 'He/She will (not) exit.' |
|  |  | $(\sim$ bóó $=r$ ē? $)$ |  |
| < $\mathrm{HM}>$ | ${ }_{\text {èè }}{ }^{n}$ bíī | $\grave{e ̀ ~}^{n}{ }^{\text {bíli}}=r e \bar{e} ?$ | 'They caught/didn't catch fire.' |
| <LH> | è dèz | $\grave{e} d \grave{\varepsilon} \grave{\varepsilon}=r \bar{\varepsilon}$ ? | 'It got/didn't get hot.' |
|  |  | $(\sim$ dè̀̀ $=r$ rē? $)$ |  |
|  | è biíl | è bìí $=$ r $\bar{e}$ ? | 'It caught/didn't catch fire.' |

b. nonmonosyllabics

| LL | é $=\varnothing$ sà tòlo | $\begin{aligned} & \text { è sá tòl̀ }=r \bar{\varepsilon} ? \\ & (\sim \text { tòlò }=r e \bar{e} ?) \end{aligned}$ | 'It will (not) rot.' |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| HH | sóóló $=\varnothing=$ è | sóólóó $=\varnothing=r$ ē? | 'It's (not) five.' |
|  | yípé-ré $=\varnothing=\grave{\varepsilon}$ | yî́é-rá $=\varnothing=r \bar{\varepsilon}$ ? | 'It's (not) a fish.' |
|  | é $=\varnothing$ sà kónó | è sá ${ }^{\text {t }}$ kónó $=$ nē? | 'It will (not) grow.' |
| MM | $m \bar{i}-\mathrm{l} l o ́=\varnothing=$ è | $m \bar{i}-\mathrm{i} l o ́=\varnothing=r e ̄ ?$ | 'It's (not) six.' |
|  | $j \bar{u}-r$ ¢́ $=\varnothing=\grave{\varepsilon}$ | $j u \bar{u}-r o ́=\varnothing=r \bar{\varepsilon} ?$ | 'It's (not) millet.' |
|  | $g b a ̄ a ̄-r \varepsilon ́=\varnothing=\grave{\varepsilon}$ | $g b \overline{a ̄ a}-r a ́=\varnothing=r \bar{\varepsilon} ?$ | 'It's (not) a stick.' |
| LH | à fìdí | à fìdí $=$ rē? | 'He/She ran.' |
|  | wùl-á $=\varnothing=$ ¢ | wùl-á $=\varnothing=r \bar{\varepsilon}$ ? | 'It's (not) a dog.' |
|  | bòbó $=\varnothing=$ è | $b o ̀ b o ́=\varnothing=r e ̄ ?$ | 'It's (not) Bobo Dioulasso (city).' |
| HM | à̀ ${ }^{n}$ fídī | àà $^{n}$ fídī $=r \bar{e} ?$ | 'They ran (didn't run).' |
|  | è kìtàlí | è kìtàlí $=$ rē? | 'It got worse (didn't get worse).' |
|  | mā ná bà?rí | mā ná bà Prí=lē? | 'I (didn't) hit him/her.' |
| HL | á $=\varnothing$ kìtàlíà | à kìtàlíà $=r \bar{\varepsilon}$ ? | 'It worsens/doesn't worsen.' |

$<\mathrm{LH}>$-toned syllables, which occur in +3 Sg forms of monosyllabic perfective and imperative verbs, flatten to L before the enclitic (323a-c). This avoids surface $C \check{v} C \bar{v}$ and $C \bar{v} \bar{v} C \bar{v}$ sequences. When an apparent $C \grave{v} \bar{V}$ verb instead preserves its rising tones before the negative enclitic, which happens with Cií verbs, this suggests that these forms are structurally bisyllabic, i.e. /Cì.(y)í/ (323d).
a. positive imperative
prohibitive

$$
\begin{array}{ll}
\text { è } g \check{u}^{n} & \text { 'Shorten it!' }  \tag{323}\\
b i ́=1 ́ g u ̀ ~=n \bar{e} ? & \text { 'Don't shorten it!' }
\end{array}
$$

b. positive perfective à $s \grave{\varepsilon} \varepsilon ́$
negative perfective à $S \grave{\varepsilon} \grave{\varepsilon}=r \bar{\varepsilon}$ ?
'He/She came.'
'He/She didn't come.'
$(\sim$ sè̀̀ $=r \bar{e} ?)$
c. positive perfective
mā ná jì̀́ 'I saw him/her.'
negative perfective mā ná jì̀ $=r \bar{\varepsilon}$ ?
'I didn't see him/her.'
$(\sim j i ̀ ̀ ̀=r \bar{e} ?)$
d. positive perfective è bì́ 'It caught fire.'

$$
\text { è bì̀ }=r e \bar{e} ? \quad \text { 'It didn't catch fire.' }
$$

10.2.2 Status of the glottal stop in negative $=r \bar{E} ?$

Although the negative enclitic is always heard with the glottal stop when clause-final, there is some evidence that the glottalization is analytically detachable from the enclitic.

First, the yes/no interrogative enclitic may be added after the negative enclitic. In other combinations, the interrogative enclitic has forms like $=a ̀ \sim=\grave{a}$ and $=y a ̀ ~(§ 13.2 .1) . ~ T h e ~$ combination of the negative and interrogative enclitics is $=r=a ̀ \sim=r=\grave{a}$, the latter after a back rounded vowel.
a. àán $=\varnothing \quad$ tǔ $\quad k a ̀=r=a ̀$
3PlHum=Ipfv millet.cakes want.Stat=Neg=Q
'Don't they like millet cakes?' (< tù )
b. àà ${ }^{n}$
búló $=r=$ ̀̀
3PlHum return.Ipfv=Neg=Q
'Won't they go back?'

There is also a textual passage where a clause ending in negative $=r \bar{E} ?$ is paired with a contrasting positive clause that has a final glottal stop (325). This raises the possibility that the final glottal is, or was formerly, a truth-conditional emphatic that has now come to occur almost entirely with the negative enclitic.
$\left[\left[m \grave{\varepsilon} P \varepsilon^{n} \quad\right.\right.$ bùpù $\left.] \quad s \varepsilon=?\right] \quad[[j a ́ a ̄ \quad k u ́ d \bar{o}$ mí] sèè $=r$ ēp]
[[person all] come.Pfv] [[woman old Dem] come.Pfv=Neg]
'All the (other) people came, but that old woman didn't come.' (2016_04@03:00)

The situation is complicated by the use in local Jula of final glottal stops in a range of sentence types. Since all Jalkunan speakers are bilingual this could affect their Jalkunan speech.

### 10.2.3 Tonal reverberations of clause-final negation

The presence of a clause-final negator has some unexpected reverberations for the morphotonology of the beginning of the clause (subject plus inflectional particles).
'they ...' 'he/she ...' 'I ...'
a. perfective

| ààn ${ }^{n}$ ع́é |  | $m a ̄$ sćé | '.. came’ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| àà ${ }^{n} S \varepsilon \varepsilon^{\varepsilon}=r \bar{\varepsilon} ?$ | à $S \grave{\varepsilon} \grave{\varepsilon}=r \bar{\varepsilon} P$ | $m \bar{a} s \bar{\varepsilon} \bar{\varepsilon}=r \bar{\varepsilon} 2$ | didn't come' |

(also negative variants with +ATR séé=rē? )
b. present (imperfective stem begins with H -tone)

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { àà }{ }^{n} \text { sáá }=r \bar{\varepsilon} ? \quad \text { à } s a ́ a ́=r \bar{\varepsilon} ? \quad m a \bar{a} s a \bar{a}=r \bar{\varepsilon} ? \quad \text { '... do(es)n't come' }
\end{aligned}
$$

c. future

$$
\begin{array}{lll}
\text { àán}=\varnothing ~ s a ̀ ~ s a ́ a ́ ~ & a ́=\varnothing \text { sà sáá } & \text { má }=\varnothing \text { sà sáá ' } \ldots \text { will come' } \\
\text { àà }^{n} \text { sá tsáá }=r \bar{\varepsilon} P \text { à } s a ́ ~ t s a ́ a ́ ~ & =r \bar{\varepsilon} ? & \text { mā sā sáá }=r \bar{\varepsilon} P \text { ' } \ldots \text { won't come' }
\end{array}
$$

d. present (imperfective stem begins with L-tone)

$$
\begin{array}{llll}
\text { àán }^{n} \varnothing \varnothing \text { bàà } & \text { á }=\varnothing \text { bàà } & \text { má }=\varnothing \text { bàà } & \text { '... falls' } \\
\text { àà }^{n} b a ̀ a ̀=r \bar{\varepsilon} ? & \text { á bàà }=r \bar{\varepsilon} ? & \text { má bàà }=r \bar{\varepsilon} ? & \text { '... do(es)n't fall' }
\end{array}
$$

e. progressive

| àà ${ }^{n}=\varnothing{ }^{\text { }}$ Sé-yá | á $=\varnothing$ 'sé-yá | $m a=\varnothing$ se-ya |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| àà ${ }^{n}$ sé-yá $=r \bar{\varepsilon}$ ? | à sè-yá $=r \bar{\varepsilon}$ ? | $m a ̄ ~ s e ́-y a ́ ~=~ r \bar{\varepsilon} ? ~ ' . . . ~ a r e n ' t / i s n ' t / a m ~ n o t ~ c o m i n g ' ~$ |
| àa $^{n}=\varnothing$ bè-yá | á $=\varnothing$ bè-yá | má $=\varnothing$ bè-yá ' $\ldots$ are/is falling' |
| àà $^{n}$ bé-yá $=r \bar{\varepsilon}$ ? | à bè- yá $=r \bar{\varepsilon}$ ? | $m a \overline{~ b e ́-y a ́ ~}=r \bar{\varepsilon}$ ? ' $\ldots$ aren't/isn't/am |

In negative perfectives (326a) LH-toned $s \grave{\varepsilon} \varepsilon$ flattens to $s \bar{\varepsilon} \dot{\varepsilon}$ before the M-toned enclitic; see LH-to-L before nonlow tone (§3.8.3.6). M-Spreading occurs after M-toned pronominal subjects (here 1 Sg ).

In the non-perfective inflections (326b-e), the imperfective subject enclitic $/ \mathrm{H}+=\varnothing /$, consisting of a floating H-tone, disappears in most negative combinations. Therefore human 3 Pl àà ${ }^{n}$, which combines with the floating H -tone as /ààn $\mathrm{H} / \rightarrow$ àán ${ }^{n}$ in the positive examples in (326b-e), is heard as L-toned àà ${ }^{n}$ in the negative examples in (326b,c,e). Likewise, human 3 Sg à is raised to /à $\mathrm{H} / \rightarrow$ á in the positive examples in (326b-e), but not in the negative examples in ( $326 \mathrm{~b}, \mathrm{c}, \mathrm{e}$ ).

When the imperfective subject enclitic disappears, an intransitive progressive becomes sensitive to the +3 Sg versus -3 Sg opposition among subjects (326e). In the positive, 'be coming' is sé-yá, where the stem sé- shows the lexical H-tone of 'come' also seen in its imperfective sáá. Compare bè-yá, progressive of 'fall', with L-toned bè- as in imperfective bàà. When negation causes deletion of the imperfective subject enclitic, the lexical tones vanish, and the tones of both 'not be coming' and 'not be falling' are determined entirely by the preceding subject, just as in all transitive progressives.

Future morpheme sà unexpectedly becomes H-toned under negation, except when M-Spreading has occurred. Thus human 3 Pl àà ${ }^{n}$ sá, human 3 Sg à sá, but 1 Sg mā $s \bar{a}(326 \mathrm{c})$.

The other morphemes that unexpectedly become H-toned in the negative in (326) are monomoraic subject proclitics. Human 3 Sg is normally L-toned à in the absence of the imperfective enclitic, and indeed it is L-toned as expected under negation in (326a-c) and (326e). However, in (326d), where it precedes a lexically L-toned imperfective verb, it surfaces as H-toned á, hence á bàà $=r \bar{\varepsilon} ?$ 'he/she doesn't fall'. The 1 Sg counterpart is likewise má bàà $=r \bar{\varepsilon}$ ? Some kind of tone-raising process is at work here that is not taken care of by the regular tone sandhi rules.

Historically, it may be that the unexpected H-tones in future sá in (326c), and/or in the 3 Sg and 1 Sg pronouns á and má in (326d), are traces of one or two ancient H-toned negative morphemes that once occurred in the "-infl-" zone in S-infl-O-V-X-Neg, so that negation could be expressed both at the beginning and at the end of VPs, in the fashion of French ne ... pas and analogues in many languages.

However, synchronically, the pronominal-subject cases (á and má) in (326d) are sufficiently close to the regular Final Tone-Raising rule that I incline to treat them as extensions of this rule. In its regular form, the rule accounts unproblematically for 3 Pl àá from /ààn/ in àáa bàà $=r \bar{\varepsilon}$ ? 'they don't fall' in ( 326 d ). The same àà ${ }^{n}$ remains L-toned in àà ${ }^{n}$ sáá $=r \bar{\varepsilon} ?$ 'they don't come' (326b), which has exactly the same categorial structure as àán bàà $=r \bar{\varepsilon}$ ?, but differs in that imperfective bàà 'fall(s)' is lexically L-toned, while sáá 'come(s)' is lexically H-toned. The raising under negation of 3 Sg à to á, and of 1 Sg mā to má, likewise occurs only before L-toned bàà in (326d), and fails to occur before H-toned sáá in (326b). These details indicate a (morpho-)phonological solution, as opposed to one based directly on grammatical formatives like the imperfective subject enclitic. I therefore posit an extended, but morphologically restricted, version of Final Tone-Raising that applies in the negative forms in (326d). While the regular Final Tone-Raising rule converts LL\#L to LH\#L, and $\mathrm{MM} \# \mathrm{~L}$ to $\mathrm{MH} \# \mathrm{~L}$, and requires at least two level-toned nonhigh moras before the boundary, the expanded version converts $\mathrm{L} \# \mathrm{~L}$ to $\mathrm{H} \# \mathrm{~L}$ and $\mathrm{M} \# \mathrm{~L}$ to $\mathrm{H} \# \mathrm{~L}$, without reference to any preceding tones. That this expanded Final Tone-Raising is not broadly productive, and indeed is very restricted, is shown by human 3 Sg à $s \grave{\varepsilon} \varepsilon$ 'he/she came' and à $s \grave{\varepsilon} \grave{\varepsilon}=r \bar{\varepsilon}$ ? 'he/she didn't come' in (326a), along with many similar examples, cf. the paradigm in (331) below. Similar conclusions apply to negative nonverbal predicates, see especially the discussion in §11.2.3.4 below.

It is not possible to account for the raising of future sà to sá in (326c) by extending Final Tone-Raising to it, since in e.g. à sá ‘sáá = r $\bar{\varepsilon}$ ? 'he/she won't come', sá is followed by an H-tone rather than by an L-tone. So for future sá under negation we have no choice but to recognize an ad hoc morphotonological rule with no real phonological or grammatical basis. The only hypothesis that I can think of to account for H-toned sá historically is to posit an ancient H-toned negative morpheme, adjacent to the future morpheme, and assume that it disappeared segmentally but left its H-tone behind. Another interesting synchronic fact that is relevant to this matter is that future sà remains L-toned in the future-in-past construction with cí sà 'was going to (VP)', see (369b) below.

Further examples of negative present-tense sentences, this time transitives with an object noun directly following the subject, are in (327a-c). Again, subject pronouns including human 3Sg à and 1 Sg mā undergo Final Tone-Raising only before an L-tone (327a), not before M- or H-tones ( $327 \mathrm{~b}-\mathrm{c}$ ). These examples show that the tone-raising to á and má does not depend on the adjacency of the verb. Rather, it occurs only before an L-tone.
a. àà ${ }^{n}$ / á / má wùlá dònò $=n \bar{\varepsilon}$ ?

3PlHum / 3SgHum / 1Sg dog eat.meat.Ipfv=Neg
'They/He-or-she/I do(es)n't eat dog (meat).' (< wùlà )
b. ààn $/$ à $/ m a ̄ \quad$ yíré $\quad$ dònj̀ $=n \bar{\varepsilon} ?$

3PlHum / 3SgHum / 1Sg fish eat.meat.Ipfv=Neg
'They/He-or-she do(es)n't eat fish.'

$$
\begin{array}{lll}
\text { c. } \quad & \text { à̀̀n} / \text { à } / m \bar{a} & \text { gbāá } \quad \text { dòǹ̀ }=n \bar{\varepsilon} ? \\
& \text { 3PlHum } / 3 \text { SgHum } / 1 \mathrm{Sg} & \text { wood } \quad \text { eat.meat.Ipfv=Neg } \\
\text { 'They/He-or-she do(es)n't eat wood.' }(<g b a \bar{a} \bar{a})
\end{array}
$$

See also the data on positive versus negative experiential perfects in §15.1.1.3.

### 10.3 Indicative tense-aspect categories

This section covers perfective, present, future, and progressive categories, which are expressed within verbal morphology, in the nonperfective cases in combination with the imperfective subject enclitic.

Some additional tense-aspect categories are expressed by constructions that include auxiliaries. The main ones are:

- durative inceptive ('begin doing') with kú (§15.1.1.1);
- continuative ('keep doing') with tóó~ túú (§15.1.1.2)
- experiential perfect ('have ever done') with dú(§15.1.1.3).


### 10.3.1 Perfective

There is one basic perfective category. The perfective is the standard way to report an already completed (i.e. past) event.

| a. | $m a ̄$ | sìbí | dòní(ī) |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | 1 Sg | meat | eat.meat.Pfv |  |
|  | 'I ate (the) meat.' |  |  |  |
| b. | á= | $\varnothing$ | wèé | bòbó |
|  | $3 \mathrm{Sg}=$ | 3 SgNonhObj | go.Pfv | Bobo |
|  | 'He-o | went to Bobo | ity).' |  |

One would expect that the perfective is also used in antecedent clauses in ordinary conditional constructions. However, there is a special verb form used in antecedents, see (566) in §16.1.2.

### 10.3.1.1 Subjects of perfective verbs

Subjects of perfective verbs, pronominal and nonpronominal, have their regular tones (subject to local tone sandhi processes). Thus 1 Sg pronoun mā, human 3 Pl pronoun àà ${ }^{n}$, and human 3 Sg à all have their distinctive lexical tones. This distinguishes perfectives from the entire imperfective system (present tense, future tense, progressive), which require an imperfective enclitic $/ \mathrm{H}+=\varnothing /$.

### 10.3.1.2 Form of perfective verb

The perfective is expressed by the $\mathrm{E} / \mathrm{I}$-stem of the verb (i.e. the E-stem for some verbs and the I-stem for others), with no post-subject inflectional particle. The E/I-stem ends in a front vowel from the set $\left\{\begin{array}{l}\text { e } e \\ \varepsilon\end{array}\right\}$, which may be subject to deletion. There are two large subclasses of verbs. For one, the perfective is the E-stem, when verbs end in mid-height e or $\varepsilon$, the choice depending on the ATR category of the final syllable of the stem. However, in some contexts -ATR $\varepsilon$ optionally becomes +ATR $e$, for example when followed by negative enclitic $=r \bar{E}$ ', by past $k \tilde{\varepsilon}$, spatial adverbs nàà 'here' and dè 'there (definite)', and some other elements. For the remaining stems, the perfective is the I-stem, with final $i$. There is a broad but nonrigorous correlation with prosodic weight: perfectives of $C V v$ are mostly E-stems, those of trisyllabics are mostly I-stems, and those of $C v C V$ verbs are more evenly split.

Perfective verbs are always immediately preceded by an NP (including pronominal proclitics). For each intransitive or transitive perfective stem, there are two tonal forms, based on whether the verb is preceded by a +3 Sg or -3 Sg NP (§3.8.3.5). There is no M -Spreading from preceding M -toned pronominals. The +3 Sg form begins with an L-tone, the -3 Sg form with an H-tone. Most $C_{v V}$ stems have $+3 \operatorname{Sg} C \bar{v} \bar{v}$ and $-3 \mathrm{Sg} C \tilde{v}$. There are also several cases of $+3 \operatorname{Sg} C \check{v} \bar{v}$ or $C \hat{v} \tilde{v}$ versus $-3 \mathrm{Sg} C \hat{v} \bar{v}$, suggesting that these verbs have a lexical H-tone medially. Bisyllabic $C v C v$ stems are $+3 \mathrm{Sg} C \hat{V} C \hat{v}$ and $-3 \mathrm{Sg} C \hat{v} C \bar{v}$ (the latter with final M-tone). Heavy stems, e.g. $C_{V C v v}, C v v C v, C v C v C v$, and $C v C v C v C v$, have a lexical H-tone in a noninitial syllable. If this H -tone begins in a medial syllable, the final syllable is normally M-toned. This ...HM-toned ending is a distinctive feature of perfectives. In stems with a lexical H -tone (medial or final), the +3 Sg versus -3 Sg opposition affects only the tones of the syllable(s) preceding the lexical H-tone.

Sample perfectives of intransitive verbs (those with no preverbal object, i.e. including VO transitives) are in (329). The forms shown are those that occur clause-finally, and are therefore not subject to the trimming of second moras in final $C_{V V}$ syllables.

Perfective verbs (intransitive, prepausal)

$$
\begin{equation*}
+3 \mathrm{Sg} \quad-3 \mathrm{Sg} \quad \text { gloss } \tag{329}
\end{equation*}
$$

| a. E-stem (-ATR $\varepsilon$ ) monosyllabic |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| bèz | béq | 'fall' |
| d $\grave{\varepsilon} \varepsilon{ }^{\text {c }}$ | déé | 'get hot' |
| sc̀ | s¢́と | 'come' |
| $k p \grave{\varepsilon ̇ \varepsilon ̇ n}{ }^{n}$ | kpéén | 'die' |
| bj̀ | bóe | 'exit' |
| sว̀ | งจ์์ | 'enter' |
| CvCv (bimoraic) |  |  |
| nìné | nín $\bar{\varepsilon}$ | 'forget' (VO) |
| dè $\frac{1}{}$ ¢́ | déq¢ $\bar{\varepsilon}$ | 'escape' |
| tèेร์ | $t \varepsilon$ ¢ $\bar{\varepsilon}^{\text {c }}$ | 'go' |


| heavy jìim̄ $\bar{\varepsilon}$ | ${ }^{\text {jíimm }}$ ¢ | 'weep' |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| b. E-stem (+ATR e, less common) |  |  |
| monosyllabic |  |  |
| bèé | béé | 'be sated (full after eating)' |
| těē | tée | 'be shattered' |
| nonmonosyllabic |  |  |
| tòlóe | tólē(̄) | 'rot' |
| ~ tòlée |  |  |
| yèèléē | yéélée | 'melt' |
| wàwáwē | wáwáwē | 'yawn' |
| c. I-stem (stems with final $C v$ ) |  |  |
| CvCv stem |  |  |
| bùlí | búlī | 'return' |
| fìdí | fídī | 'run' |
| CvCvv stem |  |  |
| CvCvCv stem |  |  |
| sìdánī | sídánī | 'ascend' |
| jà $1 a ́ n i ̄$ | jáPánī | 'descend' |
| tùnùní | túnúní | 'become lost' |
| CvCvCvCv stem |  |  |
| gbà?àlánī | gbáPálánī | 'become thin' or 'dry off' |
| d. I-stem (stems with final $C V V$ ) |  |  |
| CvV stem |  |  |
| nıī | nîi | 'spend night' |
| sòîi | sóī | 'wait' |
| CvCvv stem |  |  |
| jààbíli | jáábíl | 'reply' |
| mìlini | mííliĩ | 'think' |

I-stem perfectives with final short ílike those for 'return' and 'run', are sometimes extended as $1 \overline{1} \sim i \bar{i}$, mimic-ing lexical final long vowels like 1 íl $\sim i \bar{i}$ in verbs like 'think'. In principle, the final long vowel in bùlîī 'returned' should occur only in continuity intonation in discourse, while that in mìliíl 'thought' should be regular in all clause-final or isolation pronunciations (cf. imperfectives bùlò and mìilíà ). However, there is some raggedness in my data on this point, and the distinction is not so clean as these considerations suggest. For example, one would expect consistent perfective fìdíī for 'ran', since imperfective fîdéè has $C v C V V$ shape, but in fact the perfective often ends in a short vowel (fìdí).

Perfective forms ending in $\{\overline{\bar{I}} \bar{e} \bar{\varepsilon} \bar{\varepsilon}\}$, like those in (329) above, occur prepausally, i.e. in isolation and clause-finally. Clause-medially, a final front vowel marking the perfective is
subject to deletion by trimming when it is part of a long vowel or diphthong. For example, bò̀ 'exited' $(+3 S g)$ becomes bò. Before the negative enclitic such forms have long vowels, suggesting a Monophthongization rule (§3.6.2.4), e.g. $/ \supset \varepsilon / \rightarrow 00$, as in bj̀̀े=r $\bar{\varepsilon} ? \sim b o ̀ o ̀=r e ̄ ?$ 'did not exit' $(+3 \mathrm{Sg})$. What isn't clear is whether Monophthongization applies to the output of trimming (in which case the vowel must be lengthened, if the stem is monosyllabic), or whether it applies to the full $C v V$ syllable.

As with all verbs, the negative enclitic is hosted directly by the verb only if there are no postverbal constituents (which is most of the time, but not all of the time). If the verb and the negative enclitic are separated, the form of the perfective verb is not influenced by the enclitic. (330) compares clause-final and clause-medial (exemplified by negative) perfective forms, and gives imperfective counterparts for comparison.

$$
\begin{equation*}
 \tag{330}
\end{equation*}
$$

a. final $i$ or $i i$, no systematic trimming

Cii


CvCi
bùlí búlī bùlú $=$ rē? búlū $=$ rē? búló 'return'
CvCvCi (subject to Syncope)
sìdánī sídánī sìdáǹ $=n \bar{e} ? \quad$ sídáǹ $=n e ̄ ? \quad$ sìdánà $\quad$ 'ascend'
final Cii
mìilîi mílíī mìilií $=$ rē? míílií $=$ rē? míílià 'think'
b. final $e$ in Coe trimmed medially, no lengthening
tòlóē tólēē tòló = rē? tólō=rē? tòl̀̀ 'rot'
~ tòléé
c. Monophthongization

| bò | bóé | $b \grave{\grave{c}}=r \bar{\varepsilon}$ ? | bóó $=r \bar{\varepsilon}$ ? | bóó | 'exit' |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  |  | $\sim$ bòò $=$ rē? | $\sim$ bóó $=$ rē? |  |  |
| $b \grave{\varepsilon} \varepsilon ์$ | $b \varepsilon ́ \varepsilon ์$ | $b \grave{\varepsilon} \grave{\varepsilon}=r \bar{\varepsilon}$ ? | $b \varepsilon ́ \varepsilon \bar{\varepsilon}=r \bar{\varepsilon}$ ? | bàà | 'fall' |
|  |  | $\sim$ bèè $=r$ ē? | $\sim$ béé $=$ rē? |  |  |
| $d \grave{\varepsilon} \varepsilon ์$ | dé $\varepsilon$ | $d \grave{\varepsilon} \grave{\varepsilon}=r \bar{\varepsilon} ?$ | $d \bar{\varepsilon} \dot{\varepsilon}=r \bar{\varepsilon} ?$ | $d \varepsilon \grave{c}^{\text {e }}$ | 'get hot' |
|  |  | $\sim$ dèè $=r e ̄ ?$ | $\sim$ déé $=$ rē? |  |  |

When the final $\{\overline{1} \bar{e} \bar{\varepsilon} \bar{\varepsilon}\}$ is deleted, the underlying length of the final vowel is revealed. For example, although bùlí 'returned' can be pronounced bùlíí, mimic-ing perfectives like mìlíī 'thought', when the negative enclitic is added the form bùlúl $=r \bar{e} ?$ shows that 'return' ends in $C V$ while the form mìilííl = rē? shows that 'think' ends in $C V V$. This distinction is confirmed by their imperfectives (búlú and mìlíà ). We might therefore analyse the perfectives (omitting initial tones) as underlying /bulúī/, /niîī/, /miilííi/, /sidánī/, /tolóé/, /boงé/, /becé/ (or /baaé/),
and /boァé/. This way, the underlying vowel length appears automatically when the final vowel is trimmed off.

Clause-finally and in isolation, monosyllabic perfectives like those in (330c) above are usually pronounced with short vowels. For example, 'got hot' is heard as [dž] ( +3 Sg ) and [d $\varepsilon$ ] $(-3 \mathrm{Sg})$, and 'exited' is heard as [do $\varepsilon$ ] $(+3 \mathrm{Sg})$ and [dóc $(-3 \mathrm{Sg})$. That these are structurally long vowels is shown by their negative forms (and confirmed by their imperfectives). I do not indicate the phonetic shortening in my normal transcription.

A representative intransitive perfective paradigm is 'fall' in (331). The initial tone of the verb is determined by the +3 Sg or -3 Sg category of the preceding subject, except that M-toned pronominals ( $1 \mathrm{Sg}, 2 \mathrm{Sg}, 2 \mathrm{Pl}$ ) spread the M -tone, in the negative only. Negative variants with + ATR vowels (e.g. 3Sg bèè $=r e \bar{p}$ ) are omitted in this array.
(331) Perfective paradigm (intransitive)
'__f
fell' $\qquad$ didn't fall'

| a. -3 Sg perfective |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| pronouns, M-toned |  |  |
| 1 Sg | mā béé | $m \bar{a} b \bar{\varepsilon} \bar{\varepsilon}=r \bar{\varepsilon} ?$ |
| 2 Sg | $w o ̄$ bé $\varepsilon$ | $W \bar{O} b \bar{\varepsilon} \bar{\varepsilon}=r \bar{\varepsilon} ?$ |
| 2 Pl | $\bar{e} \bar{e}^{n}$ bég | $\bar{e} \overline{\mathrm{e}}^{n} b \bar{\varepsilon} \bar{\varepsilon}=r \bar{\varepsilon}$ ? |

other plural pronouns

| 1 Pl | mùpùn ${ }^{\text {bég }}$ |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 3PlHum | àà ${ }^{n}$ bég | àà $^{n} b \bar{\varepsilon}^{\prime} \varepsilon=r \bar{\varepsilon} ?$ |
| 3PINonh | èè ${ }^{n}$ bég | $\grave{e ̀}{ }^{n} b \varepsilon \varepsilon^{\prime}=r \bar{\varepsilon} ?$ |
| plural noun |  |  |
| 'people' |  | $m \grave{\varepsilon} 1 \grave{\varepsilon}-n a ́-\grave{a l}^{n} b \varepsilon \varepsilon^{\varepsilon}=r \bar{\varepsilon}$ ? |
| personal nam |  |  |
| 'Bakari' | bákàr bég | bákàr béz $=r \bar{\varepsilon}$ ? |

b. +3 Sg perfective
pronouns
$3 \mathrm{SgHum} \quad$ à $b \grave{\varepsilon} \dot{\varepsilon} \quad$ à $b \grave{\varepsilon} \grave{\varepsilon}=r \bar{\varepsilon} ?$
$3 \mathrm{SgNonh} \quad$ è $b \grave{\varepsilon} \dot{\varepsilon} \quad$ è $b \grave{\varepsilon} \grave{\varepsilon}=r \bar{\varepsilon}$ ?
singular nouns

| 'person' | $m \varepsilon ̀ P \varepsilon^{n}$ bèz | $m \grave{\varepsilon} P \hat{\varepsilon}^{n}$ b $\grave{\varepsilon} \grave{\varepsilon}=r \bar{\varepsilon} ?$ | $\left.(<m \dot{c}\rangle \grave{\varepsilon}^{n}\right)$ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 'wall' | kógó bèz | kógó bè̀ ${ }^{\text {a }}=r \bar{\varepsilon}$ ? |  |
| 'fish' | yîpé bèz | yílé bè ${ }^{\text {c }}=r \bar{\varepsilon}$ ? |  |
| 'onion' | $j a ̄ b a ́ ~ b e ̀ \varepsilon ์ ~$ | $j a ̄ b a ́ ~ b \grave{\varepsilon} \dot{\varepsilon}=r \bar{\varepsilon}$ ? | $(<j a ̄ b \bar{a})$ |
| 'brick' | tòfá bèz | tòfá bèz̀ $=r \bar{\varepsilon}$ ? |  |

Perfective forms for transitives that can take a range of objects are in (332). Imperfective stems are shown for comparison.
(332) Perfective paradigm (transitive)

\[

\]

a. E-stem (-ATR $\varepsilon$ )
monosyllabic

| bèz | béq | $b \grave{\varepsilon} \grave{\varepsilon}=r \bar{\varepsilon} ?$ | $b \varepsilon \bar{\varepsilon} \varepsilon=r \bar{\varepsilon} ?$ | bàà | 'put down' |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| dèż | dé $\varepsilon$ | $d \grave{\varepsilon} \grave{\varepsilon}=r \bar{\varepsilon} ?$ | $d \bar{\varepsilon} \varepsilon \underline{\varepsilon}=r \bar{\varepsilon} ?$ | $d \bar{\varepsilon} \bar{\varepsilon}$ | 'heat (sth)' |
| cìe | cíé | $c \grave{\varepsilon} \grave{\varepsilon}=r \bar{\varepsilon} ?$ | $c^{\prime \prime} \bar{\varepsilon}=r \bar{\varepsilon}$ ? | cìz | 'put (in sth)' |
| dう̀ ${ }^{n}$ | $d o ́ \bar{\varepsilon}^{n}$ | dòó $=n \bar{\varepsilon}$ ? | $d o ́ \bar{s}=n \bar{\varepsilon} ?$ | dǒo ${ }^{n}$ | 'step on' |
| $j \grave{\varepsilon^{n}}$ | $j \bar{c}^{\underline{\varepsilon}}{ }^{n}$ | $j \grave{o ́}=n \bar{\varepsilon} ?$ | $j$ jo $\bar{\sim}=n \bar{\varepsilon} ?$ | $j \grave{j ̌ ~}{ }^{n}$ | 'rob' |

nonmonosyllabic

dèr $\varepsilon \bar{\varepsilon} \quad d \varepsilon ́ r \bar{\varepsilon} \bar{\varepsilon} \quad d \varepsilon ̀ r \varepsilon ́=r \bar{\varepsilon} ? \quad d \varepsilon ́ r \bar{\varepsilon}=r \bar{\varepsilon} ? \quad$ dáPá 'squeeze'

mòmó $\bar{\varepsilon}$ mómó $\bar{\varepsilon}$ mòmós $=n \bar{\varepsilon}$ ? mómós$=n \bar{\varepsilon}$ ? mòmóo 'carry on back'
b. E-stem (+ATR e)
monosyllabic

| yěē | yée | yèé $=$ rē? | yée $=r \bar{e}$ ? | $y \dot{\varepsilon} \hat{\varepsilon}$ | 'send (on a mission)' |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| těē | téē | tèé $=r$ ē? | tée $=r$ ē? | $t \bar{\varepsilon} \hat{\varepsilon}$ | 'shatter' |
| nonто gèrr | $\begin{aligned} & \text { yllab } \\ & \text { gèrr } \end{aligned}$ | $\text { gèrré }=\text { rē? }$ | gérré $=r$ ē? | gèrréà | 'belch' (onomatopoeic) |

c. I-stem

| dèîi | déīi |  | $d e ́ i ̄ 1=n \bar{e} ?$ | $d \varepsilon ́ \varepsilon ์$ | 'open (door); uncover' |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| nonmonosyllabic |  |  |  |  |  |
| bàPrí | báprī | $b a ̌ 2 l=l \bar{e} ?$ | $b a ̄ p l=l \bar{e} ?$ | bà?rà | 'hit' |
| (variants bà $2 \hat{r}=r \bar{e} 2$, bá $2 \bar{r}=r \bar{e} ?$ ) |  |  |  |  |  |
| dàkóī | dákóī | dàkóō $=$ rē? | dákóō $=$ rē? | dàkô | 'catch (sth thrown)' |
| gìlénī | gílénī | gìlén̄ $=n$ ē? | gílén̄ = nē? | gìlénà | 'hang up' |

Examples with 'he/she hit ' are in (333). The variants with á $\varnothing$ instead of à ná or à ní for 3 Sg object are difficult to model, see (103a) and discussion preceding it. The variant á (à)à ${ }^{n}$ for expected \#à ààn ${ }^{n}$ may be a special case of Final Tone-Raising (before an L-tone).
$\qquad$ ,
a. take "other" perfective form

| pronouns |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 1 Sg | à mā báprī | à mā báp $\bar{r}=r \bar{e} ?$ |
| 2 Sg | à Wō báprī | à $W$ ō báp $\bar{r}=r \bar{e} ?$ |
| 1 Pl | à mù?ù ${ }^{n}$ bá?rī | à mù ${ }^{\text {a }}{ }^{n}$ báq $\bar{r}=r e ̄ ?$ |
| 2 Pl | à $\bar{e} \bar{e}^{n}$ báprī | à $\bar{e} \bar{e}^{n}$ báp $\bar{r}=r e \bar{e} ?$ |
| 3PlHum | á àà ${ }^{n}$ báprī | á àà ${ }^{n}$ báp $\bar{r}=r e \bar{e} ?$ |
|  | ~ à náà(à ${ }^{n}$ bá?rī | $\sim$ à náà $(\hat{a})^{n}$ báp $\bar{r}=r e ̄ ?$ |
| 3PlNonh | á è ${ }^{n}$ báprī | á è ${ }^{n}$ báp $\bar{r}=r e \bar{?}$ ? |
|  | $\sim$ à nîı(î) ${ }^{n}$ bá?rī | $\sim$ à nı̂ıl(î) ${ }^{n}$ báp $\bar{r}=r e \bar{e} ?$ |
| plural noun |  |  |
| 'people' | à mèpè-ná-à ${ }^{n}$ báprī | à $m \grave{\varepsilon}$ ¢ $\grave{\varepsilon}-n a ́-a^{n}{ }^{n}$ bápr $=r \bar{e} ?$ |

b. 3 Sg perfective form
pronouns

| 3 SgHum | à ná bàprí | à ná bà T ¢ $=$ rē? |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | ~ á $\varnothing$ bà?rí | $\sim$ á $\varnothing$ bà? |  |
| 3SgNonh | à ní bà?rí | à ní bà Q ¢r $=r$ ē? |  |
|  | ~ á $\varnothing$ bà 2 rí | $\sim$ á $\varnothing$ bà c ¢́ $=$ rē? |  |
| singular nouns |  |  |  |
| 'person' | à mèp $\varepsilon^{n}$ bàprí | à mè $\mathrm{E} \varepsilon^{n}$ bà $2 \hat{r}=r \bar{e} ?$ | $\left.(<m \grave{\varepsilon}\rangle \grave{\varepsilon}^{n}\right)$ |
| 'wall' | à kógó bàprí | à kógó bà l ¢r $=$ rē? | (<kógō) |
| 'fish' | à yì le bà?rí | à yìpé bà r = $=$ rē? | (< yị̂é ) |
| 'onion' | à jābá bà?rí | à jābá bà r ¢ $=r e \bar{e}$ ? | (<jābā) |
| 'brick' | à tòfá bà?rí | à tòfá bà 2 ŕ $=$ rē? | (<tòfá) |

For the perfective paradigm of pseudo-transitive 'go', see §10.1.1.2.

### 10.3.2 Imperfective positive system

The present tense (no preverbal inflectional particle) and future tense (preverbal inflectional particle sà ) both use of the imperfective stem; the two are distinguished by a post-subject particle sà which occurs in the future.

The imperfective stem ends in a or less often $\varepsilon$. The latter may reflect earlier *a via contraction, e.g. *ea $\rightarrow \varepsilon(\varepsilon)$. Vocalic contractions are indeed common. Typical imperfective shapes for monosyllabics are Caa, Coo, Ceq, Cir, and Cia, the last two often in free variation. Typical imperfective shapes for CvCv bisyllabics are $\mathrm{CiCa}, \mathrm{CuCo}$, and several types of $C V_{1} C v_{1}$ with repeated non-high vowel (usually -ATR $C o C o, C a C a$, and $C \varepsilon C \varepsilon$, less often +ATR CoCo and $C e C e$ ). Trisyllabics generally end in a (or $\grave{\jmath}$ after a back rounded vowel).

Intransitive imperfective stems have a lexical tone observed in positive utterances, and are invariant in form (in positive clauses), e.g. sáá 'come(s)' versus bàà 'fall(s)'. Unlike
perfectives, imperfectives never end in M-tones. Many of the longer imperfectives have contour-toned melodies including a lexically specific medial H , most often L... HL as in fidéè 'run(s)', jàPánà 'descend(s)', and sègèléà 'limp(s)', but HL is attested in gbógò 'bark(s)'. Transitives are preceded by objects, which may be +3 Sg or -3 Sg in tonal type, so transitives have variable tone at least on the onset (the part preceding a lexical H-tone, if present). For example, 'put down' (the transitive counterpart of 'fall') has imperfective bàà after +3 Sg and báá after -3 Sg object. Some bisyllabic and even longer transitives similarly have an all-L versus all-H split, e.g. +3 Sg sànà $\sim-3 \mathrm{Sg}$ sáná ‘buy' and a rare trisyllabic stem without lexical medial H-tone like +3 Sg sìdànàà $\sim-3 \mathrm{Sg}$ sídánáá. However, many bisyllabics and most polysyllabics end in a falling HL pattern, i.e. a lexical H-tone and automatic final L-tone, following the variable $\mathrm{L}(+3 \mathrm{Sg})$ or $\mathrm{H}(-3 \mathrm{Sg})$ onset, e.g. sèlà $\sim$ s là 'carve $(\mathrm{s})$ ', dùtó?ónò ~ dútó?ónò 'shut(s), cover(s)' and fìrìkíè ~ fíríkíè 'hobble(s) (an animal)'. A final H-tone is rare and is perhaps limited to frozen compounds, e.g. sà $2 a ̀ t a ́ a ́ ~ ~ s a ́ ? a ́ t a ́ a ́ ~ ' c o o k ~(m e a t, ~ v e g e t a b l e s) ' . ~$.

The other indicative category of the imperfective system is the progressive, which has a suffix -yà ~ -yá and no preverbal inflectional particle. It shifts at least final-syllable vowels to +ATR and shortens $C V V$ to $C v$. Its tones are related to those of the imperfective stem, most obviously in intransitives: sé-yá 'is coming' (imperfective sáá), bè-yá 'is falling' (imperfective bàà ).

The vocalism of the imperative resembles that of the imperfective stem in some verbs, but many imperatives are truncated or else end in the I-stem, versus final -ATR a or $\varepsilon$ for the imperfective (§10.5.1).

### 10.3.2.1 Enclitic $/ \mathrm{H}+=\varnothing /$ on subjects in the imperfective system

In comparison with perfectives, imperfective-system predicates (present, future, and progressive) require a form of the subject pronoun with the final (or only) tone raised. This tonal form occurs in positive clauses; for negative clauses see $\S 10.2 .3$. Conjugation paradigms for the present tense are in (334); the transcription will be amended later in this section.
'exit (v)' 'fall'

| 1 Sg | má 'bóó | má bàà |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 2 Sg | wó 'bóś | wó bàà |
| 1 Pl | mù ${ }^{\text {a }}{ }^{\text { }}$ bóó | mù ${ }^{\text {n }}$ n bà |
| 2 Pl | ēé ${ }^{n}$ ¢ $b$ ¢́ | ēén bàà |
| 3 SgHum | á 'bós | á bàà |
| 3 SgNonh | é tbós | é bàà |
| 3PlHum | àá ${ }^{\text { }}$ bós | àán bàà |
| 3PlNonh | èe ${ }^{n}$ tbós | èén ${ }^{\text {bàà }}$ |

The tone-raising occurs not only before L-tones ('fall'), but also before H-tones ('exit'), which are then usually downstepped in this combination. If the tone-raising had been limited
to 'fall', it could be accounted for by tone sandhi (Final Tone-Raising), since the verb begins with an L-tone. However, this tone sandhi rule cannot account for the other subject tones for 'fall', nor for any of the subject tones for 'exit'. It is therefore necessary to recognize an enclitic $/ \mathrm{H}+=\varnothing /$, segmentally zero but with an H-tone that is realized on the final mora (or only mora in some cases) of the pronoun. (334) can therefore be revised notationally as (335). The presence of $=\varnothing$ enclitic in the transcription indicates that the H-tone has attached to the host pronoun.
'exit (v)' 'fall'
$1 \mathrm{Sg} \quad$ má $=\varnothing$ bóś $\quad$ má $=\varnothing$ bàà
2Sg wó $=\varnothing$ Łbóś $\quad$ ó $=\varnothing$ bàà
$1 \mathrm{Pl} \quad$ mùpún $=\varnothing$ $b$ ó $\quad$ mù?ún $=\varnothing$ bàà
$2 \mathrm{Pl} \quad \bar{e} e^{n}=\varnothing$ $b$ ós $\quad \bar{e} e^{n}=\varnothing$ bàà
$3 \mathrm{SgHum} \quad$ á $=\varnothing$ $b$ b́s $\quad$ á $=\varnothing$ bàà
$3 \mathrm{SgNonh} \quad$ é $=\varnothing$ $b$ bó $\quad$ é $=\varnothing$ bàà
3PlHum àán $=\varnothing^{\text {t}}$ bós $\quad$ àá ${ }^{n}=\varnothing$ bàà
3PINonh $\quad$ èé ${ }^{n}=\varnothing^{\text {t }}$ bós $\quad$ èé $n=\varnothing$ bàà
$/ H+=\varnothing /$ also occurs after nonpronominal subject NPs. It is audible in the final syllable of 'Bakari' in (336a). For nouns like 'fish' in (336b) that already end in an H-tone, there is no audible change. Singular nouns with falling HL or ML tone contours also show no consistent tonal effect attributable to $/ \mathrm{H}+=\varnothing /(336 \mathrm{c}-\mathrm{d})$.
a. bákàrí= $\varnothing \quad$ 'bó́s / bàà
$B=I p f v \quad$ exit.Ipfv / fall.Ipfv
'Bakari goes out/falls (regularly).' (< bákàrì )
b. yîpé-rá $=\varnothing \quad$ ${ }^{\text {}}$ bóś / bàà
fish-Nom=Ipfv exit.Ipfv / fall.Ipfv
'The fish goes out/falls (regularly).' (< yí?é-rá)
c. jàngbáá-rà $=\varnothing$ bóś/bàà
cat-Nom=Ipfv exit.Ipfv / fall.Ipfv
'The cat goes out/falls (regularly).'
d. búpū-nà $=\varnothing \quad$ bóó / bàà
liver-Nom=Ipfv exit.Ipfv / fall.Ipfv
'The liver comes out/falls (regularly).'

When the subject is a plural noun, if the isolation form ends in L-toned -rà-àn ${ }^{n}$, there is a final rise due to the $/ \mathrm{H}+=\varnothing /$ enclitic (337a). If the isolation form ends in HL-toned -rá-à ${ }^{n}$, I usually hear the form with imperfective enclitic as - rá $-\grave{a}^{n}=\varnothing$ with no overt tonal effect of the
enclitic. However, I sometimes hear it as -rá- $\bar{a}^{n}$ with final M-tone (337b). If this is correct, $/ \mathrm{H}+=\varnothing /$ can (inconsistently) limit the fall of the final mora to M rather than all the way to L .

| a. | jàngbáá-rà- $-a^{n}=\varnothing$ | yípé | dòǹ̀ |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| cat-Nom- $\mathrm{Pl}=\mathrm{Ipfv}$ | fish | eat.meat.Ipfv |  |
|  | '(The) cats eat fish (regularly).' |  |  |

$$
\begin{array}{ll}
\text { b. } & \text { yí?é-rá-à }{ }^{n}=\varnothing \\
& \sim \text { yípé-rá- } \bar{a}^{n}=\varnothing \\
& \text { fish-Nom-Pló / bàà } \\
& \text { '(The) fish-Pl go out/fall (regularly).' }
\end{array}
$$

The imperfective enclitic $/ \mathrm{H}+=\varnothing /$ is also regular on all subjects preceding future particle sà (338a).

| má $=\varnothing /$ mùPún $n=\varnothing /$ àà $n=\varnothing$ | sà | bós |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| $1 \mathrm{Sg}=\mathrm{Ipfv} / 1 \mathrm{Pl}=\mathrm{Ipfv} / 3 \mathrm{PlHum}=\operatorname{Ipfv}$ | Fut | exit.Ipfv |
| 'I/we/they will go out.' |  |  |

Imperfective subject clitic $/ \mathrm{H}+=\varnothing /$ prevents +3 Sg and -3 Sg subjects from having their distinct tonal effects on following words. For example, the distinction between +3 Sg and -3 Sg subject in imperfective (339a) has no tonal effect on the object 'fish'. By contrast, in the perfective counterparts (339b-c), 'fish' has different tones (L.H versus H.H) depending on the category of the immediately preceding subject.
a. $\quad \dot{a}=\varnothing / a ̀ a^{n}=\varnothing$
łyí?é
dう̀nò
3SgHum=Ipfv/3PlHum=Ipfv fish eat.meat.Ipfv
‘He/She eats fish.' (< yíłé )
b. à yì?é dòní

3SgHum fish eat.meat.Pfv
' $\mathrm{He} /$ She ate a/the fish.'
c. àà ${ }^{n}$ yílé dòní

3PlHum fish eat.meat.Pfv
'They ate a/the fish.'

Further imperfective examples are in (340).
a. $\quad e ́=\varnothing$
${ }^{\downarrow}$ yí mìà
3SgNonh=Ipfv water drink.Ipfv
'It (=sheep) drinks water.'
b. á= $\quad$ Łnínápā kpàà ${ }^{n}$

3SgHum=Ipfv scorpion kill.Ipfv
'He/She kills a scorpion (regularly).'
c. á $=\varnothing$ bā?á mìà

3SgHum=Ipfv porridge drink.Ipfv
'He/She drinks porridge.' (<bā? $\bar{a})$
d. á= $\varnothing$ jû kùnò

3SgHum=Ipfv millet eat.Ipfv
'He/She eats millet.' $(<j \bar{u})$
e. á $=\varnothing$ kūm̄̄é kùnò

3SgHum=Ipfv meal eat.Ipfv
'He/She eats a meal.' (<kūm $\bar{\varepsilon} \bar{\varepsilon})$
f. má $=\varnothing /$ mù ún $^{n}=\varnothing /$ àà ${ }^{n}=\varnothing \quad$ tyípé dònò
$1 \mathrm{Sg}=\mathrm{Ipfv} / 1 \mathrm{Pl}=\mathrm{Ipfv} / 3 \mathrm{PlHum}=\mathrm{Ipfv} \quad$ fish eat.meat.Ipfv
'I/we/they eat fish.'
g. á= $\quad$ àà ${ }^{n} \quad$ báprá

3SgHum=Ipfv 3PlHum hit.Ipfv
'He/She hits them (regularly).'
h. jàngbáá-rà $=\varnothing$ yípé dònò
cat-Nom=Ipfv fish eat.meat.Ipfv
' $\mathrm{A} /$ The cat eats fish.'
i. bákàrí $=\varnothing$ Łyí?é dònò
$B=I p f v \quad$ fish eat.meat.Ipfv
'Bakari eats fish.'

Imperfective enclitic $/ \mathrm{H}+=\varnothing /$ can be equated morphemically with the locational 'be (present)' subject enclitic $/ \mathrm{H}+=\varnothing /(\S 11.2 .3 .1)$, exemplified in (341).

| bákàrí $=\varnothing$ | $[$ kálá | t̀̀ $]$ |
| :--- | :---: | :---: |
| $\mathrm{B}=$ be | $[$ home | in $]$ |
| 'Bakari is at home.' |  |  |

A linking enclitic $=n ́=\grave{n}$ is added to the 'be' enclitic before some spatial adverbs (§11.2.3.2). This does not happen with the imperfective clitic, probably because it cannot be immediately followed by such adverbs.

### 10.3.2.2 Present

As in other imperfective-system categories, in the present tense the subject is followed by imperfective enclitic $/ \mathrm{H}+=\varnothing /$. The enclitic adds an H -tone to subject pronouns and requires a final nominal suffix on noun-headed subject NPs. The verb is in the imperfective form without further inflectional morphology. Intransitive verbs, which directly follow the enclitic $/ \mathrm{H}+=\varnothing /$, have a single imperfective form (in positive clauses), not varying tonally (or otherwise) by subject category. Regular (OV) transitive verbs are preceded by the object and therefore have two distinct tonal forms, depending on whether the object is +3 Sg or -3 Sg (§3.8.3.5).

This inflectional category is a general present, for example describing regularly occurring activities.
a. só?óó-sò mò má= $\varnothing$ nà bà?rà
day-day $\quad 1 \mathrm{Sg}=\mathrm{Ipfv} \quad 3 \mathrm{SgHumObj} \quad$ hit.Ipfv
'Every day I hit-Present him/her.'
b. só?óó-sò mò má $=\varnothing$ nàà ${ }^{n}$ báprá
day-day $\quad 1 \mathrm{Sg}=\mathrm{Ipfv} \quad 3 \mathrm{PlHumObj}$ hit.Ipfv
'Every day I hit-Present them.'
c. má $=\varnothing$ sìbí bègà
$1 \mathrm{Sg}=\mathrm{Ipfv}$ meat cut.Ipfv
'I (regularly) cut-Present (the) meat.' (< sìbì)
d. má= $\varnothing$ ’yî́é-rá-à ${ }^{n}$ bégá
$1 \mathrm{Sg}=\mathrm{Ipfv}$ fish-Nom-Pl cut.Ipfv
'I (regularly) cut-Present (the) fish-Pl.'
$\begin{array}{lllll}\text { e. } \begin{array}{lll}\text { néénc̀ } & \text { má }=\varnothing & n i ̀ \\ \text { year-year } & 1 \mathrm{Sg}=\mathrm{Ipfv} & 3 \mathrm{SgNonhObj}\end{array} & \text { wàá } & \text { go.Ipfv } & \text { Bobo }\end{array}$
'Every year I go to Bobo (city).'
Conjugation paradigms of the present forms of two intransitive verbs with initial L-tone are in (343). They illustrate the tone-raising enclitic on the subject (inaudible on singular 'woman' because of its falling tone pattern), and the constant form of the imperfective of intransitive verbs. For additional paradigms see the preceding section.
'run' 'descend'

| 1 Sg | má $=\varnothing$ fìdéè | má $=\varnothing$ jà?ánà |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| 2 Sg | $w o ́=\varnothing$ fìdéè | $w o ́=\varnothing$ jà?ánà |


$\bar{e} e^{n}=\varnothing$ fìdéè $\quad \bar{e} e^{n}=\varnothing$ jà?ánà

| 3 SgHum | á $=\varnothing$ fìdéè | $a ́=\varnothing$ jà $a ́ n a ̀ ~$ |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| 3 SgNonh | é $=\varnothing$ fîdéè | é $=\varnothing$ jà Pánà |

3PlHum $\quad$ àà $n=\varnothing$ fîdég̀ $\quad$ àán $=\varnothing$ jà?ánà
3PlNonh $\quad$ èèn $=\varnothing$ fîdég̀ $\quad$ èèn $=\varnothing$

| 'woman' náā-nà $=\varnothing \ldots$ | ... fîdéè | $\ldots$ jà?ánà |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| 'women' náā-nà-án $=\varnothing \ldots$ | ... fîdéè | $\ldots$ jà?ánà |

Two more paradigms, this time with intransitive verbs whose imperfectives begin with H -tone, are in (344). The H-tone is downstepped after the final H -tone of the subject.
'think’ 'go'

| 1 Sg | má $=\varnothing{ }^{\text { }}$ mílilià | má $=\varnothing$ ttá?á |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 2 Sg | $w o ́=\varnothing$ 'míílíà | $w o ́=\varnothing$ tárá |
| 1 Pl | mù ${ }^{\text {a }}{ }^{n}=\varnothing{ }^{\text {d }}$ míílíà | mù?ún $=\varnothing$ 'tápá |
| 2 Pl | $\bar{e} e^{n}=\varnothing{ }^{\downarrow}$ míílíà | $\bar{e} \bar{e}^{n}=\varnothing$ 'tápá |
| 3SgHum | á $=\varnothing{ }^{\text {¢ }}$ mílílià | á $=\varnothing$ 'tá?á |
| 3SgNonh | é $=\varnothing{ }^{\text {d }}$ mílílià | é $=\varnothing$ ttá?á |
| 3PlHum | àa ${ }^{n}=\varnothing{ }^{\downarrow}$ míílíà | àà ${ }^{n}=\varnothing$ 'táPá |
| 3PlNonh | èe ${ }^{n}=\varnothing{ }^{\text {d }}$ míílíà | èè ${ }^{n}=\varnothing$ 'tápá |
| 'woman' náā-nà = $\varnothing \ldots$ | ... mílília | ... táPá |
| 'women' náā-nà-án $=\varnothing \ldots$ | $\ldots{ }^{\text {a mińliáà }}$ | ... ${ }^{\text {tápá }}$ |

In the case of 'go', the downstepped H is so low that it sounds closer to L than to M , but it still behaves as H-toned phonologically. It does not undergo Final Tone-Raising before an L-tone, so the two syllables of tárá in (345a) have the same pitch. Its pitch is also higher than that of a following M-toned negative enclitic $=r \bar{\varepsilon} ?$ in (345b).
a. má= $\varnothing$ tááá bòbó
$1 \mathrm{Sg}=\mathrm{Ipfv}$ go.Ipfv B
'I go (regularly) to Bobo Dioulasso.'
b. má tá tá= r $\bar{\varepsilon}$ ?

1Sg go.Ipfv=Neg
'I don't go.'

A sample of intransitives showing positive/negative tonal relationships in the present is in (346). Optional +ATR negative variants are omitted.
(346) Intransitive imperfectives
positive negative gloss
a. H-toned

| bóś | bóś $=r \bar{\varepsilon} ?$ | 'exit (v)' |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| só́ | $s$ só $=r \bar{\varepsilon} ?$ | 'enter' |
| kpáán | kpáá $=n \bar{\varepsilon} ?$ | 'die' |
| sáá | sáá $=r \bar{\varepsilon} ?$ | 'come' |
| tá?á | tá?á $=r \bar{\varepsilon} ?$ | 'go' |
| búló | búló $=r \bar{\varepsilon} ?$ | 'return' |

b. L-toned
bàà bàà $=r \bar{\varepsilon} ? \quad$ 'fall'
$d \grave{\varepsilon} \grave{\varepsilon} \quad d \grave{\varepsilon} \grave{\varepsilon}=r \bar{\varepsilon} P \quad$ 'become hot'
c. contour-toned

| fidéè | $f i d \bar{\varepsilon} \stackrel{\varepsilon}{\varepsilon}=r \bar{\varepsilon} ?$ | 'run' |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| mílíà | mílíà $=$ rē-? | 'think' |
| sìdánà | sidánà $=n \bar{\varepsilon}$ ? | 'ascend' |
| jàránà | $j a ̀$ ánà $=n \bar{\varepsilon}$ ? | 'descend |

A sample OV-transitive conjugation is (347). The tonal form of the verb depends on the category of the immediately preceding object: bà?rà after +3 Sg , bá?rá after -3 Sg . The third person object pronouns have their usual $n$-initial form. All pronominal objects are L-toned (perhaps originally downstepped H or M ).
object 'he/she hits __'
a. -3 Sg object

| 1 Sg | $\underline{a}=\varnothing$ | mà | báprá |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 2 Sg | $\underline{a}=\varnothing$ | wò | bá?rá |
| 2 Pl | $\underline{a}=\varnothing$ | è̀ ${ }^{n}$ | bá?rá |
| 1 Pl | $\underline{a}=\varnothing$ | mù ${ }^{\text {a }}{ }^{\text {n }}$ | bá?rá |
| 3 PlHum | $\underline{a}=\varnothing$ | nàà ${ }^{\text {a }}$ | bá?rá |
| 3PINonh | $\underline{a}=\varnothing$ | $n \grave{i ̀ n}{ }^{\text {a }}$ | báprá |
| 'the children' | á $=\varnothing$ | dí-rá-à ${ }^{n}$ | bá?rá |
| 'Bakari' | $\underline{a}=\varnothing$ | bákàrì | bá?rá |

b. +3 Sg object

| 3SgHum | á $=\varnothing$ | nà | bà?rà |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| 3SgNonh | á $=\varnothing$ | nì | bà?rà |
| 'the child' | á $=\varnothing$ | dí | bà?rà |

More examples of transitive present-tense forms are in (348).
(348) Transitive present tense

| positive | negative |  | gloss |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| +3 Sg | -3 Sg | +3 Sg | -3 Sg |

a. level-toned

| bà?rà | bá?rá | $b a ̀ p \grave{r}=r \bar{\varepsilon} P$ | $b a ́ p r=r \bar{\varepsilon} 2$ | 'hit' |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| bègè | bégé | $b \grave{\varepsilon} g \grave{\varepsilon}=r \bar{\varepsilon} ?$ | $b \varepsilon ́ g \varepsilon ́=r \bar{\varepsilon}$ ? | 'cut' |
| billè | bílé | bìl $\grave{\varepsilon}=r \bar{\varepsilon}$ ? | bíl $\bar{\varepsilon}=r \bar{\varepsilon}$ ? | 'give' |
| bònò | bònò | $b \grave{n}$ ¢ $=n \bar{\varepsilon}$ ? | bónó $=n \bar{\varepsilon}$ ? | 'pour out' |
| dùtòlo | dútóló | dùtòl̀ $=r \bar{\varepsilon}$ ? | dútóló $=$ r $\bar{\varepsilon}$ ? | 'point at' |
| dìmìnàà | dímínáá | dìmìnàà $=n \bar{\varepsilon}$ ? | dímínáá $=n \bar{\varepsilon}$ ? | 'hurt (sb)' |

b. contour-toned

| dàkójo | dákój | dàkóò $=r \bar{\varepsilon}$ ? | dákóò $=r \bar{\varepsilon}$ ? | 'catch (sth thrown)' |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| kùlónò | kúlónò | kùlónò $=n \bar{\varepsilon}$ ? | kúlónò $=n \bar{\varepsilon}$ ? | 'ti |
| dùtó?ónò | dútó?ónò | dùtó?ónò $=n \bar{\varepsilon}$ ? | dútó?ónò $=n \bar{\varepsilon}$ ? | 'cover (sb)' |
| firìkį́ | fîríkíè | firìkíc̀ $=r \bar{\varepsilon}$ ? | fíríkį́̇ $=r \bar{\varepsilon}$ ? | 'hobble (animal)' |

### 10.3.2.3 Future (sà )

Future particle sà occurs in post-subject position, preceding the entire VP (including any preverbal objects). The verb takes the same imperfective form as in the present. The positive conjugation has the imperfective $/ \mathrm{H}+=\varnothing /$ subject enclitic, as also in the present and
progressive paradigms, and the future particle sà is L-toned. In the negative conjugation, there is no enclitic on the subject, the M -toned subject pronouns spread the M into the future particle which therefore surfaces as $s \bar{a}$ (349a), and the other pronouns are followed by H-toned sá (349b). See $\S 10.2 .3$ above for comments about the tonal changes under negation.
subject '__ will run' '__ will not run’
a. sā by M-Spreading in negative

| 1 Sg | $m a ́=\varnothing$ sà fidéè | $m a \overline{s a ̄}$ fidé ${ }^{\text {c }}=r \bar{\varepsilon}$ ? |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 2 Sg | $w o ́=\varnothing$ sà fidéż | $W \bar{o} s a \bar{a}$ fidé $\grave{\varepsilon}=r \bar{\varepsilon}$ ? |
| 2 Pl | $\bar{e} e^{n}=\varnothing$ sà fidégè | $\bar{e} \bar{e}^{n}$ sā fìd́ċ $=r \bar{\varepsilon}$ ? |
| 2 Pl | $m a ̌ a ̄ n=\varnothing$ sà fidég̀ | $m a ̌ a ̄ n ~ s a ̄ ~ f i d e ́ e ̀ ~=r \bar{\varepsilon} ?$ |

b. H-toned sá in negative, pronominal subject

| 1 Pl | mù?ún $=\varnothing$ sà fidéè | mù ù $^{n}$ sá fid ${ }^{\text {ćè }}=r \bar{\varepsilon}$ ? |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 3 SgHum | á $=\varnothing$ sà fidéé | à sá fidéè $=r \bar{\varepsilon}$ ? |
| 3SgNonh | é $=\varnothing$ sà fidéè | è sá fídé ¢ $=r \bar{\varepsilon}$ ? |
| 3 PlHum | àà ${ }^{n}=\varnothing$ sà fiddé̀ | àà ${ }^{n}$ Sá fidécè $=r \bar{\varepsilon}$ ? |
| 3PINonh | èè ${ }^{n}=\varnothing$ sà fidéè | è̀ ${ }^{n}$ Sá fidécè $=r \bar{\varepsilon}$ ? |

c. H-toned sá in negative, nonpronominal subject

| 'the child' | dí-rá $=\varnothing$ sà fidéè | dí-rá sá fidée $=$ rē ? |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 'the children' | dí-rá-ă $\overline{-a}^{n}=\varnothing$ sà fidéè | dí-rá-à ${ }^{n}$ sá fidéè $=r \bar{\varepsilon}$ ? |

In (350), the imperfective verb is H-toned tá?á. In the negative conjugation, it is downstepped after the H-toned variant sá (350b). In the negative column of (350a), the sā appears to drop slightly in pitch before the H-toned verb. I take this to be a low-level dissimilation (a kind of downstep), and I observe that $2 \mathrm{Pl} \overline{\mathrm{e}} \overline{\mathrm{e}}^{n}$ has flat pitch, as it would before an M (or H ) tone rather than before an L-tone.
subject 'will go' 'will not go'
a. 1 Sg

2 Sg
2 Pl
2 Pl

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { má }=\varnothing \text { sà táPá mā sā táPá }=r \bar{\varepsilon} ? \\
& w o ́=\varnothing \text { sà táPá } \quad W o ̄ \text { sā táPá }=r \bar{\varepsilon} \text { ? } \\
& \bar{e} e^{n}=\varnothing \text { sà táPá } \quad \bar{e} \overline{e n}^{n} \text { sā táPá }=r \bar{\varepsilon} \text { ? } \\
& \text { mǎāa }=\varnothing \text { sà tá?á } \quad \text { mǎāan } s a ̄ ~ t a ́ P a ́ ~=r \bar{\varepsilon} ?
\end{aligned}
$$

b. 1 Pl

3 SgHum
3SgNonh
3PlHum
3PlNonh
mùPún $=\varnothing$ sà táRá
á $=\varnothing$ sà tá?á
é $=\varnothing$ sà táPá
àà ${ }^{n}=\varnothing$ sà tá?á
è $e^{n}=\varnothing$ sà tá?á
$m u ̀ P \grave{u}^{n}$ sá ${ }^{\dagger}$ táPá $=r \bar{\varepsilon}$ ?
à $s a ́ ~ t a ́ ? a ́ ~=r \bar{\varepsilon} ?$
è $s$ á $^{\dagger}$ tá?á $=r \bar{\varepsilon} ?$
àà ${ }^{n}$ sá ${ }^{\dagger}$ tá 2 á $=r \bar{\varepsilon}$ ?
è̀ ${ }^{n}$ sá ${ }^{\dagger}$ tá?á $=r \bar{\varepsilon}$ ?

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { c. 'the child' dí-rá= } \varnothing \text { sà táPá dí-rá sá }{ }^{\dagger} \text { táPá }=r \bar{\varepsilon} ? \\
& \text { 'the children' dí-rá-ă } \bar{a}^{n}=\varnothing \text { sà táPá dí-rá-àn } \text { sá }{ }^{~} \text { tá?á }=r \bar{\varepsilon} \text { ? }
\end{aligned}
$$

Transitive verbs are preceded by an object (NP or pronoun). The verb is therefore separated from the future particle sà and does not interact with it tonally. The verb is imperfective in form (as in the present tense) and has the usual tonal variants depending on whether it is immediately preceded by a +3 Sg or -3 Sg object. 'Hit' is therefore L-toned in (351a) but H-toned in (351b).
a. má= $\varnothing$ sà dí bà?rà
1 Sg=Ipfv Fut child hit.Ipfv
'I will hit the child.'
$\begin{array}{lllll}\text { b. } & \text { má }=\varnothing & \text { sà } \quad \text { dí-rá-àn } & \text { bá?rá } \\ & 1 \mathrm{Sg}=\mathrm{Ipfv} & \text { Fut } & \text { child-Nom-Pl } & \text { hit.Ipfv } \\ & \text { 'I will hit the children.' } & \end{array}$

Consider now the interactions between sà and immediately following object pronouns. We have seen above that sà itself is L-toned after all subjects in the positive conjugation. (352) below shows how this sà combines with object pronouns in positive transitives. In (352a), the usually M-toned pronouns become H-toned as objects after sà. Since in this construction they are always followed by an H -initial verb, this verb is downstepped. In (352b-d), the other object pronouns have their usual L-toned forms. The future particle is L-toned sà before $1 \mathrm{st} / 2 \mathrm{nd}$ person objects (352a-b), but becomes H-toned sá before third person objects (352c-d), though the phonology is obscured somewhat by vv-Contraction. This tone raising arguably results from an extended form of Final Tone-Raising (normally LL $\rightarrow$ LH or MM $\rightarrow$ MH before \#L, but here $\mathrm{L} \rightarrow \mathrm{H}$ before \#L). Nonhuman third person forms have vowel quality $i$ rather than $e$ in the contraction. In 3 Pl object forms $s a ́=a ̀(\grave{a})^{n}$ and $\left.s i ́=i(i)\right)^{n}$, the length of the object pronoun vowel is usually not audible because of contraction with the vowel of sá.
(352) Object pronouns in the positive transitive future
object sà plus object example with 'he/she hit'

| a. 1 Sg | sà má | á $=\varnothing$ sà má ${ }^{\text {háprá }}$ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 2 Sg | sà wó | á $=\varnothing$ sà wó ${ }^{\text {hápáá }}$ |
| 2 Pl | sà één | á $=\varnothing$ sà (é)én ${ }^{\text {t }}$ báPrá |

b. 1 Pl sà mù?ù ${ }^{n} \quad$ á $=\varnothing$ sà mù? ${ }^{n}$ bá?rá
$\begin{array}{lll}\text { c. } & \text { 3PlHum } & s a ́=a ̀(a ̀)^{n}\end{array} \quad$ á $=\varnothing s$ á $=a ̀(a ̀)^{n}$ bá?rá

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { d. 3SgHum sá=à á= } \varnothing \text { sá=à bà?rà } \\
& 3 \text { SgNonh } \quad s i ́=i ̀ \quad a ́=\varnothing s i ́=i ̀ ~ b a ? r a ̀ ~
\end{aligned}
$$

 since they are always followed by an L-tone.

When a future clause is negated, we saw above that there is a split in subject pronouns between those that are followed by $s \bar{a}$ (due to M-Spreading) and those that are followed by H-toned sá. This tonal split has no effect on a following object pronoun. Using $1 \mathrm{Sg} m \bar{a} s \bar{a}$ (or, when the object is first person, 2 Sg wō $s \bar{a}$ ) and human 3 Sg à sá as examples, (353) shows how these combine with object pronouns. The verb is 'hit' in all examples. In (353a), the three normally M-toned pronouns become L-toned. The other object pronouns have their usual L-toned forms (353b-c). Therefore all object pronouns in the future negative are L-toned.
(353) Object pronouns in the negative future transitive
object $\quad m a \bar{a} / W \bar{o}$ sā plus object à sá plus object

b. 1 Pl Wō $s a \bar{a}$ mù?ùn báPrá-r $\bar{\varepsilon}$ ? à sá mùPù ${ }^{n}$ báPrá $=r \bar{\varepsilon}$ ?

3PlHum mā $s \bar{a}=a ̀(a ̀)^{n}$ bá?rá- $r \bar{\varepsilon} ? \quad$ à $s a ́=a ̀(a ̀)^{n}$ báPrá $=r \bar{\varepsilon}$ ?
3PINonh mā $S \bar{i}=i ̀(i))^{n}$ báprá-r $\bar{\varepsilon}$ ? à $\left.S i ́=i ̀(i)\right)^{n}$ báprá $=r \bar{\varepsilon}$ ?

sà occurs most often in predications about the future. However, some elicited and textual examples appear to denote processes in progress. See, for example, (556b) in §15.4.3. In the following textual example, hyena is stuck in a pit at a critical point in a narrative:
$\begin{array}{lll}\text { súrúkú-rı̀ }=\varnothing & \text { sí=ì } & j i ̀ ́ \varepsilon \\ \text { hyena-Nom=Ipfv } & \text { Fut=3SgNonh } & \text { see.Ipfv }\end{array}$
'Hyena was considering (how to escape).' (2016_02 @ 02:19)
10.3.2.4 Progressive (-yà~ -yá)

The progressive is expressed by its own verb form ending in suffix -yá, realized as -yà after stems with contour tones. In positive clauses, the subject has the same $/ \mathrm{H}+=\varnothing /$ enclitic as the other imperfective system categories. The subject pronouns therefore have the same H -toned
form in progressive (355a) as in present (355b), in contrast to their nonhigh tonal forms in perfective (355c).
a. má $=\varnothing /$ á $=\varnothing$ sìbí bègè-yá
$1 \mathrm{Sg} / 3 \mathrm{SgHum}$ meat cut-Prog
'I am/He-or-she is cutting (the) meat.' (< sìbì )
b. má $=\varnothing /$ á $=\varnothing \quad$ sìbí bègà ( $\sim b \varepsilon ̀ g e ̀)$
$1 \mathrm{Sg} / 3 \mathrm{SgHum}$ meat cut.Ipfv
'I cut/He-or-she cuts the meat (regularly).'
c. mā/à sìbí bègé
$1 \mathrm{Sg} / 3 \mathrm{SgHum}$ meat cut.Pfv
'I/He-or-she cut-Past the meat.'

Each intransitive progressive has a single tonal form in positive clauses, since progressive verbs directly follow the subject with its imperfective clitic (356). The vocalism of the progressive is + ATR, so it is difficult to determine whether the progressive form is most closely relative to the perfective or to the imperfective. For monosyllabic stems and some bisyllabics, the tones of intransitive progressives are based on those of the imperfective. However, intransitive 'go' (progressive tè e -yá versus imperfective tá?á) irregularly has divergent tones in the two forms. The suffix is H-toned -yá except when the imperfective ends in a HL falling pattern ('forget', 'ascend', 'descend', 'think', 'run').
(356) Intransitive progressives compared to imperfective \& perfective

$$
\begin{array}{cccc}
\text { Prog } & \text { Pfv }+3 \text { Sg } & \text { Ipfv } & \text { gloss }
\end{array}
$$

a. $\rho$ to $o$ before -ya suffix

| bó-yá | bò | bóá | 'exit' |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| só-yá | sj̀ | sóó | 'enter' |

b. a or $\varepsilon$ to e before -ya suffix

| sé-yá | sè $\varepsilon$ | sáá | 'come' |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| kpén-yá | $k p \check{c}^{n}$ | kpáá ${ }^{n}$ | 'die' |
| dè-yá | dè $\varepsilon$ | $d e ̀$ è | 'become hot' |
| nìné-yà | nìné | nìnáà | 'forget' |
| tè $\mathrm{Yè}-\mathrm{yá}$ | tè 1 É | tá?á | 'go' |
| jiímè-yá | jî̀m $\bar{\varepsilon}$ | ji1̇màà | 'weep' |


| c. $i$ or $u$ before -ya suffix imperfective ends in a |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| sìdánī-yà sidánī | sìdánà | 'ascend' |
| jàPánī-yà jà?ánī | jàPánà | 'descend' |
| mílíl-yà mìilíī | mílíià | 'think' |
| imperfective ends in $\varepsilon$ |  |  |
| fidí-yà fidí | fidéè | 'run' |
| imperfective ends in 0 |  |  |
| búlú-yá bùlí | búló | 'return' |

Transitive progressives, like other transitive verbs, are subject to tonal modifications based on whether the immediately preceding object is +3 Sg or -3 Sg , as explained in §3.8.3.5 and elsewhere.
a. má $=\varnothing$ nà
bà?rì-yá
$1 \mathrm{Sg}=\varnothing \quad 3 \mathrm{SgHumObj} \quad$ hit-Prog
'I am hitting him/her.'

| b. má=nàà báPrí-yà  <br>  $1 \mathrm{Sg}=\varnothing$ 3PlHumObj <br>  'I am hitting them.' hit-Prog |  |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
|  |  |

Some further examples of the forms of transitive progressives are in (358).
progressive $+3 \mathrm{Sg} \quad$ progressive $-3 \mathrm{Sg} \quad \mathrm{Ipfv}+3 \mathrm{Sg} \quad$ gloss

| bè-yá | bé-yá | bàà | 'put down' |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| dè-yá | dé-yá | $d \grave{\varepsilon} \grave{\varepsilon}$ | 'heat (sth)' |
| dòn-yá | dón-yá | dǒjo ${ }^{n}$ | 'step on' |
| $j \mathrm{jo}^{n}$-yà | $j j^{n}$-yà | $j{ }^{\text {cos }}{ }^{n}$ | 'rob' |
| cì-yá | cí-yá | cìe | 'speak' |
| bà?rì-yá | báPrí-yá | bàprà | 'hit' |
| sò?ò-yá | sóPó-yà | sòrò | 'catch' |
| mòmó-yà | mómó-yà | mòmóò | 'carry on back' |

Intransitive positive and negative conjugations are in (359).
(359) subject 'am going out' 'am not going out'
a. 1 Sg
má $=\varnothing^{\downarrow} b o ́-y a ́$
$m a ́=\varnothing{ }^{\downarrow} b o ́-y a ́=r \bar{\varepsilon} ?$
2 Sg
$w o ́=\varnothing{ }^{\downarrow} b o ́-y a ́$
$w o ́=\varnothing{ }^{\downarrow} b o ́-y a ́=r \bar{\varepsilon} ?$
2 Pl
$\bar{e} e^{n}=\varnothing{ }^{\downarrow} b o ́-y a ́$
$e^{n}=\varnothing{ }^{\downarrow} b o ́-y a ́=r \bar{\varepsilon} ?$

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { b. } 1 \mathrm{Pl} \\
& \text { 3SgHum } \\
& \text { mù?ún }=\varnothing \text { bó-yá } \\
& \text { mù } u^{n}=\varnothing{ }^{\dagger} b o ́-y a ́=r \bar{\varepsilon} ? \\
& \text { 3SgNonh } \\
& \text { á }=\varnothing \text { } b o ́-y a ́ \\
& { }^{\prime}=\varnothing^{\downarrow} b o ́-y a ́=r \bar{\varepsilon} ? \\
& \text { 3PlHum } \\
& \text { é }=\varnothing \text { } b o ́-y a ́ ~ \\
& \text { é }=\varnothing{ }^{\downarrow} b o ́-y a ́=r \bar{\varepsilon} ? \\
& \text { 3PlNonh } \\
& \text { àán }=\varnothing^{\text {t }} \text { bó- yá } \\
& \text { àán }=\varnothing^{\downarrow} b o ́-y a ́=r \bar{\varepsilon} ? \\
& \text { èèn }=\varnothing \text { bó-yá } \\
& \text { è èn }=\varnothing{ }^{\downarrow} b o ́-y a ́=r \bar{\varepsilon} ? \\
& \text { c. 'the child' } \\
& \text { dí-rá }=\varnothing \text { bó-yá } \\
& d i ́-r a ́=\varnothing{ }^{\downarrow} b o ́-y a ́=r \bar{\varepsilon} ? \\
& \text { 'the children' } \\
& \text { dí-rá-ā } \bar{a}^{n}=\varnothing \text { bó-yá } \\
& \text { dí-rá-à }{ }^{n} \text { bó-yá }=r \bar{\varepsilon} \text { ? }
\end{aligned}
$$

## $10.4 c i \grave{\varepsilon} \sim c i \varepsilon{ }^{\prime}$ 'was/were' and past morpheme $k \varepsilon$

There are two ways to shift the temporal reference point (against which TAM values are calculated) from the moment of speaking to some point in the past. This is not the same as "past tense" in e.g. English, which uses the moment of speaking as the reference time.

In clauses that include the imperfective or 'be' subject enclitic, this enclitic is replaced by the verb ciè ~ciغ́ 'was/were'. ciè ~cié immediately follows the subject. ciè follows +3 Sg subjects, cié follows -3 Sg subjects. Factoring out the time shift, cìé $\sim$ cí́ behaves syntactically like the imperfective enclitic and occurs in the same constructions, e.g. with following future, progressive, or "present" ( $\rightarrow$ past habitual) predicates. Unlike the imperfective and 'be' enclitics, which are omitted in negative clauses, the 'was/were' verb occurs in negative as well as positive clauses.

The intransitive verb 'arrive' has perfective cì́ $\sim$ cí́ and imperfective cíq. This verb, or a homophone, also means 'be able to' (§17.3.1). It is possible that the 'was/were' verb is an offshoot of either the perfective or imperfective of 'arrive'. I incline toward the imperfective.

For other clause types that do not allow the imperfective or 'be' subject enclitic, shifting the temporal reference point to the past is accomplished by adding an invariant clause-final past morpheme ké. This morpheme converts simple perfective ('did') to past perfect ('had done', §10.4.9). $k \varepsilon$ also combines with some statives, including 'know' (§10.4.3) and adjectival predicates 'be ADJ' (§10.4.5), the results being translatable 'knew' and 'was/were ADJ'.

A verb immediately preceding $k \dot{\varepsilon}$ usually shifts at least its final syllable to + ATR, and final $\varepsilon$ in $\{\varepsilon \varepsilon \supset \varepsilon$ i $\}$ is trimmed. Examples are (363a-b) in $\S 10.4 .3$, (371c) in $\S 10.4 .9$, (373) in $\S 10.4 .11$, (553a) in §15.4.1, and (570-571) in §16.4.

Concerning the origin of $k \varepsilon$, one possible lead is the verb 'leave, abandon', which has imperfective kàà and perfective $k \grave{\varepsilon} \sim k \varepsilon$.

The following sections illustrate constructions that ciì $\sim c i \varepsilon$ 'was/were' and past morpheme $k \varepsilon$ occur in. For the past perfect with $k \varepsilon$ in the antecedent clause in counterfactuals, and ciè $\sim$ cié in the corresponding consequent clause, see $\S 16.4$.

### 10.4.1 Past-time form of copula construction with ciè $\sim$ cié

Examples (360a-c) are past-time versions of clauses with final copula. There is no imperfective or 'be' enclitic on the subject in either positive or negative forms.


| b. mù?ù |  |  |  |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| 1 Pl | cíé | jáā-nà-à ${ }^{n}$ | $k$ ún $^{n}$ |
|  | be.Past | woman-Pl | Cop |

'We were women.'

| c. mù̀ù ${ }^{n}$ | cíé | náā-nà-à ${ }^{\text {n }}$ | $k u^{n}=n \bar{e} ?$ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 1 Pl | be.Past | woman-Pl | Cop |
| 'We we | omen.' |  |  |

Example (360a) corresponds to present-time $j^{-1}{ }^{\downarrow} n \varepsilon ́=\varnothing=\grave{\varepsilon}(</ j i ́-n a ̀=H=\grave{\varepsilon} /$ ) 'it's a market' with identificational 'it is' enclitic and with a covert "subject" (§11.2.1.1), while (360b) corresponds to copular clause mùpún $=\varnothing$ náā-nà-à ${ }^{n} k u^{n}$ 'we are women' with overt subject (§11.2.2.1). In other words, the present-time opposition between the 'it is' construction and the copula construction is neutralized in the past-time forms.
10.4.2 Past-time form of locational 'be (somewhere)' with ciè ~ cié

Examples (361a-c) illustrate past time forms of the locational 'be (somewhere)' construction.
cíé $=$ é in (361a) is prolonged and shifted to + ATR (also raised to H-tone in the +3 Sg form) due to the following nàà 'here' (§4.4.2.1).
a. mā / bákàrì / à
cíé = é
nàà
$1 \mathrm{Sg} / \mathrm{B} / 3 \mathrm{SgHum} \quad$ be.Past=Link here
'I / Bakari / He-or-she was here.'
b. tàgá
cì̀
[mùú
dù]
sheep
be.Past
[field
in]
'The sheep-Sg was in the field.'

| c. | tàgà-rá-à ${ }^{n}$ | cíध́ | [mùú | dù] |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| sheep-Nom-Pl | be.Past | [field | in] |  |
|  | 'The sheep-Pl were in the field.' |  |  |  |

$\begin{array}{llll}\text { d. yípé } & c i ̀ e & {[y i ́} & d u ̀] \\ & \text { fish } & \text { be.Past } & {[\text { water }}\end{array}$
'The fish-Sg was in the water.'

Negative past-time forms are in (362a-b).
a. à
3Sg
cì̀
be.Past
[mùú
$d \grave{u}]=r e \bar{e} ?$
'He/She was not in the field.'
b. bákàrì
cíé [mùú
$d \grave{u}]=r e \bar{e} ?$
B be.Past [field In]=Neg
'Bakari was not in the field.'
10.4.3 Past-time forms of 'know' (ké) and 'want' (cì̀ ~ cíé )

With 'know', cf. $\S 11.2 .6 .1$, the past morpheme $k \varepsilon$ follows the predicate. Perfective sò 'know', which occurs in stative present-time contexts, becomes +ATR and long-voweled sò=ò before ké.
a. mā/à
ní
$1 \mathrm{Sg} / 3 \mathrm{SgHum} \quad 3 \mathrm{SgNonhObj}$
sò $=\grave{o}$
$k \varepsilon ́$
'I/He-or-she knew it.'
b. $m a \bar{a} / a ̀$
ní
sò $=\grave{o}$
$k \dot{\varepsilon}=r \bar{\varepsilon} ?$
$1 \mathrm{Sg} / 3 \mathrm{SgHum} \quad 3 \mathrm{SgNonhObj}$ know.Pfv=Link
Past
'I/He-or-she didn't know it.'

The past-time version of 'want' is illustrated in (364). cì̀ $\sim$ cí $\varepsilon$ 'was/were' replaces the imperfective enclitic that occurs on the subject in the present-time version (§11.2.6.2).
a. mù ${ }^{2}{ }^{n}$ cí́ $\quad$ yí kà

1 Pl be.Past water want.Stat
'We wanted some water.'
b. mù ${ }^{n}{ }^{n}$ cíé yí kà $=r \bar{\varepsilon}$ ?

1 Pl be.Past water want.Stat=Neg
'We didn't want water.'
10.4.4 Past-time forms of possessive predicates with cìè~cíg

Positive and negative past-time forms of the 'have' construction (§11.5.1) are in (365a-b).
(365)

| a. | tàgá | cì | $[m a \bar{a}$ |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| sheep | be.Past | ká $]$ |  |
|  | 'I had a sheep.' | $[1 \mathrm{Sg}$ | Poss $]$ |

b. wár $c i ̀ ̀ ~[m a ̀ ~ k a ́] ~=r \bar{\varepsilon}$ ?
money be.Past $\quad[1 \mathrm{Sg} \quad$ Poss $]=\mathrm{Neg}$
'I didn't have any money.'

The past-time form of the ' $Y$ belong to $X$ ' construction (§11.5.3.1) is illustrated in (366a-b).
(366)

| a. | $\left[\begin{array}{llll}\text { sàà } & \text { mí }\end{array}\right.$ | cì̀̀ | $\left[\begin{array}{ll}\text { bákàrí } & \text { mì }\end{array}\right.$ | kù $^{n}$ |  |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
|  | $[$ house | Dem $]$ | be.Past | $\left[\begin{array}{ll}\mathrm{B} & \text { Poss }]\end{array}\right.$ | be |
|  | 'This/That house was Bakari's.' |  |  |  |  |

b. [sàà mí] cìè [bákàrí mì] kù =nē?
[house Dem] be.Past [B Poss] be=Neg
'This/That house was not Bakari's.'
10.4.5 Past-time forms of comparatives with $k \varepsilon$

Past morpheme $k \varepsilon ́$ follows a perfective or stative main verb. It precedes bèlé '(sur)pass', which expresses an asymmetrical comparison (367). This construction may occur in any asymmetrical comparative clause type. For present-time counterparts see $\S 12.1$.

'My rope was longer than yours-Sg.'
b. a

| à | $f \grave{\jmath}^{n}$ | $k \varepsilon ́$ |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| 3 SgHum | better | Past |

[(blé) mā-n]
'He/She was better than me.'
c. à

3SgHum better Past
'He/She was not better than me.'
10.4.6 Past habitual (positive and negative) with cì̀ $\sim$ cí $\varepsilon$
'Was/were' replacing the imperfective subject enclitic turns a present-tense form (§10.3.2.1-2) into a past habitual, denoting a recurrent or stable situation during an extended time interval that ended before the here-and-now of the speech event. 'Was/were' precedes the VP, which has a simple imperfective verb.
(368)
a. bákàrì
cíé
bàà
B be.Past fall.Ipfv
'Bakari used to fall.'
b. bákàrì cíe bàà =r $\bar{\varepsilon}$ ?

B be.Past fall.Ipfv
'Bakari didn't use to fall.'
10.4.7 Future-in-past with ciè $\sim c^{\prime} \dot{\varepsilon}$

Adding 'was/were' to a predicate with future particle sà expresses an eventuality that was, or seemed likely to be, imminent at the reference time in the past. 'Was/were' replaces imperfective subject enclitic $/ \mathrm{H}^{+}=\varnothing /$ and takes the trimmed form cì $\sim$ cí before sà. Future sà remains L-toned in this combination even before L-toned verb in the negative version (369b).
(369)
a. bákàrì cí sà bàà

B be.Past Fut fall.Ipfv
'Bakari was going to/was about to fall.'
b. bákàrì cí sà bàà =rē?

B be.Past Fut fall.Ipfv=Neg
'Bakari wasn't going to/was about to fall.'
10.4.8 Past progressive (positive and negative) with cì̀ $\sim c i \varepsilon$

Addition of 'was/were' to a progressive clause shifts the reference point to the past.

| a. | mā | cíg | sibí | bègè-yá |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :---: | :---: |
|  | 1 Sg | be.Past | meat | cut-Prog |
|  | 'I was cutting (the) | meat.' $(<$ sibì $)$ |  |  |

b. mā cíé sibí bègè-yá $=r \bar{\varepsilon} ?$

1 Sg be.Past meat cut-Prog=Neg
'I wasn't cutting (the) meat.'

Past progressives typically function as background for another foregrounded event in narratives. An example is (554).

### 10.4.9 Past perfect (positive and negative) with $k \varepsilon$

By shifting the temporal reference point into the past, a simple perfective verb (e.g. 'I ate') becomes a past perfect ('I had [already] eaten'). Here the past morpheme follows the inflected verb and any postverbal constituents. ké has H-tone, so the preceding dòní in (371a-b) undergoes LH-to-L (§3.8.3.6). Monosyllabic perfectives like $s \grave{\varepsilon} \varepsilon ́ \sim s \in ́ \varepsilon ́ ~ ' c a m e ' ~ a n d ~ b \grave{\varepsilon ́ ~} \sim$ bóé 'exited' are trimmed of the final $\varepsilon$, re-lengthened, and shift to +ATR before $k \varepsilon$ (371c).

| a. | $m a ̄$ | sìbí | dònì | $k \dot{\varepsilon}$ |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
|  | 1 Sg | meat | eat.meat.Pfv | Past |
|  | 'I had eaten (the) meat.' (sìbì , dòní ) |  |  |  |

b. $m a \bar{a}$

1 Sg meat eat.meat.Pfv
$k \dot{\varepsilon}=r \bar{\varepsilon} ?$
1 Sg meat eat.meat.Pfv
Past $=$ Neg
'I hadn't eaten (the) meat.'
c. $m a \bar{a} \quad s e ́=e ́ / b o ́=o ́ \quad ~ t k \varepsilon ́ ~$

1 Sg come./exit.Pfv=Link Past
'I had come/gone out.' (<sćé, bóé )
10.4.10 Past experiential perfect with cì $\sim c^{\prime \prime} \varepsilon$
'Was/were' may be added to an experiential perfect clause (§15.1.1.3). The sense is that the event in question had occurred at some point before the reference time in the past (372a).

A negative counterpart was somewhat problematic. My assistant was uncomfortable with the expected parallel negative form (372b), though he did not reject it. He suggested an alternative phrasing including a perfective form of 'stay, remain' (372c), see §15.1.1.2. A literal gloss would be something like "I had remained [(I) not seeing an elephant]."

```
a. mā cí\varepsiloń gbǎn jì̀ dú
    1Sg be.Past elephant see.Pfv ExpPf
    'I had (once) seen an elephant.'(<gbà n, ji\varepsiloń)
```

b. mā cíé gbǎn jìì dú=rē?
1 Sg be.Past elephant see.Pfv ExpPf=Neg
'I had never seen an elephant.'
c. mā tóó cíé [ý gbǎn jì̀ $=r \bar{\varepsilon} ?]$
1 Sg stay.Pfv be.Past [1Sg elephant see.Pfv=Neg]
'I had never seen an elephant.' (='I remained without having seen ...')

### 10.4.11 Past stative of stance verb (absent)

My assistant did not approve of combinations of stative forms of stance verbs (ending in ní) with the past morpheme. He preferred a past perfect based on the perfective form of the active verb, with the resulting state implied rather than stated.

| (373) | mị̀ì-ná-à ${ }^{n}$ | sé?é | ${ }^{\star} k \varepsilon ́$ |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
|  | person-Nom-Pl | sit.Pfv | Past |

'The people had sat down (=were seated).' (<sé? )

### 10.5 Imperatives and Hortatives

### 10.5.1 Commands

### 10.5.1.1 Imperatives and prohibitives

Each verb has an imperative form. It is generally closely related to the imperfective, but shorter at the end, suggesting a trimming process (subtractive morphology), see §3.6.3.1 for discussion. The negative enclitic $=r \bar{E} ?$ may be added to form the prohibitive. As in other negative clauses, if there is a postverbal constituent such as a PP, the verb and the (clausefinal) negative enclitic are separated.

The positive singular-addressee imperative consists simply of the verb, with no overt subject pronominal (374a). The positive plural-addressee imperative has the regular 2 Pl subject $\bar{e} \bar{e}^{n}$, which triggers M-Spreading into the verb (374b). In the prohibitive, in addition to the clause-final negative enclitic, there is a post-subject inflectional morpheme bí (374c). For plural-addressee prohibitive, bí is preceded by 2 Pl proclitic $\bar{e} \overline{\mathrm{e}}^{n}$ (374d).
a. fìdí
'run-2Sg!'
b. $\bar{e} \bar{e}^{n}$ fīd $\overline{1}$ 'run-2P1!'
c. bí fìdì=rē? 'don't-2Sg run!'
d. $\bar{e} \bar{e}^{n}$ bí fìdì $=r e \bar{e} ? \quad$ 'don't- 2 Pl run!'

Examples of intransitive imperatives and prohibitives are in (375). Many singular imperatives are LH-toned, flattening to L-toned before the M-toned negative enclitic (§3.8.3.6). The imperfective is given for comparison. H-toned imperfectives correspond to M-toned imperatives, which however remain distinct from L-toned imperatives.

| imperative | prohibitive |  | Ipfv | gloss |  |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| Sg | Pl | Sg | Pl |  |  |

a. imperative stem M-toned (imperfective H - or HL-toned)
imperfective $H$-toned

| $s \bar{\jmath}$ | $\bar{e} \bar{e}^{n} s \bar{\jmath}$ | bí $s \bar{s}=r \bar{\varepsilon}$ ? | $\bar{e} \bar{e}^{n}$ bí ${ }^{\prime} \bar{o}=r \bar{\varepsilon}$ ? | sóó | enter' |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| $b \bar{\square}$ | $\bar{e} \bar{e}^{n} b \bar{\jmath}$ | bí $b \bar{\nu}=r \bar{\varepsilon}$ ? | $\bar{e} \bar{e}^{n}$ bí $b \bar{s}=r \bar{\varepsilon} ?$ | bós | 'exit' |
| $s a \overline{ }$ | $\bar{e} \bar{e}^{n} s \bar{a}^{\prime}$ | bí $s \bar{a}=r \bar{\varepsilon}$ ? | $\bar{e} \bar{e}^{n}$ bí $s \bar{a}=r \bar{\varepsilon} ?$ | sáá | me' |
| $k p \bar{a}^{n}$ | $\bar{e} \bar{e}^{n} k p \bar{a}^{n}$ | bí $k p \bar{a}^{n}=n \bar{\varepsilon} ?$ | $\bar{e} \bar{e}^{n}$ bí $\mathrm{kp} \bar{a}^{n}=n \bar{\varepsilon}$ ? | kpááa ${ }^{n}$ | 'die' |
| tāpā | $\bar{e} \bar{e}^{n}$ tà $2 \bar{a}$ | bí tāpā =rē? | $\bar{e} \bar{e}^{n}$ bí tāpā $=r \bar{\varepsilon}$ ? | táPá | ${ }^{6} \mathrm{go}$ |

imperfective HL-toned

b. imperative L-toned except due to M-Spreading (imperfective L-toned)
bà $\bar{e} \bar{e}^{n} b a \bar{a} \quad$ bí bà $=r \bar{\varepsilon} ? \quad \bar{e} \bar{e}^{n}$ bí bà $=r \bar{\varepsilon}$ ? bàà 'fall'
dà?à $\bar{e} \bar{e}^{n} d a \overline{p a}$ bí dàPà $=r \bar{\varepsilon} ? \quad \bar{e} \bar{e}^{n}$ bí dà $2 a ̀=r \bar{\varepsilon} ? \quad$ dà?à $\quad$ 'escape'
c. imperative LH-toned (trimmed from imperfective $C \grave{v} C \hat{v} \grave{v}$ )
fìdí $\quad \bar{e} \bar{e}^{n}$ fìdī $\quad$ bí fìdì $=r e ̄ ? \quad \bar{e} \bar{e}^{n}$ bí fìdì $=r e ̄ ? \quad$ fìdéè 'run'
d. imperative LHL-toned (imperfective $C$ v̀v́ $C \grave{v} V ̀$ or $C \grave{v} C$ v́ $C \grave{v}$ )
jî́mà $\bar{e} \bar{e}^{n} j i ̄ 11 m a ̄ ~ b i ́ ~ j i ̀ i m a ̀ ~=n \bar{\varepsilon} ? ~ \bar{e}^{n}$ bí jìimà $=n \bar{\varepsilon} ?$ jî́màà 'weep'
sìdá $\quad \bar{e} \bar{e}^{n}$ sīdā bí sìdà $=r \bar{\varepsilon} ? \quad \bar{e} \bar{e}^{n}$ bí sìdà $=r \bar{\varepsilon} ? \quad$ sìdánà 'ascend'
[nasal variants sìdán, bí sìdà $=n \bar{\varepsilon} ?$, etc.]
jà $a^{n} \quad \bar{e} \bar{e}^{n} j \bar{a} P \bar{a}^{n}$ bí jàrà $=n \bar{\varepsilon} ? \quad \bar{e} \bar{e}^{n}$ bí jà $1 a ̀=n \bar{\varepsilon}$ ? jà $1 a ́ n a ̀ ~ ' d e s c e n d '$
$s \bar{a}$ 'come!' becomes sé=é in the combination sé=é nàà 'come here', showing the usual vocalic modifications before 'here' and 'there' adverbs. è wǎ 'go!' likewise becomes è wè =é in the combination è wè =é dè 'go there (definite)!'

In transitive imperatives, the verb is subject to the usual tonal variation, beginning with L-tone after +3 Sg object and with H -tone after -3 Sg object. (376) illustrates +3 Sg forms.

|  | è | bà?rí hit.Imprt |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | 3SgNonh |  |  |
| 'Hit-2Sg it!' |  |  |  |
|  | $\overline{e ́ e ~}^{n}$ |  | $\varnothing$ | bà̀rí |
|  | $\bar{e} \overline{e s}^{n}$ | ní | bà r í |
|  | 2P1 | 3 SgNonh | hit.Imprt |
|  | 'Hit-2Pl it | two variant |  |

c. $\bar{\varepsilon} \varepsilon^{n} \quad \varnothing \quad$ bà?rí
ēēn ná bàPrí
2Pl 3SgHum hit.Imprt
'Hit-2Pl him/her!' (two variants)
d. bí= í bàpì =rē?

Proh $=\quad 3 \mathrm{SgNonh} \quad$ hit.Imprt=Neg
'Don't-2Sg hit it!' (variant bà $1=l \bar{e} P, \S 3.6 .1 .2$ )
e. $\bar{e}$

2P1 Proh= 3SgNonh hit.Imprt=Neg
'Don't-2Pl hit it!'

Examples (377a-e) show the -3 Sg forms, here nonhuman 3Pl. When a stem like 'hit' that lacks a lexical H-tone shifts from $\{\mathrm{LH}\}$-toned +3 Sg imperative bà?rí to $\{\mathrm{H}\}$-toned -3 Sg báPrí, there is no drop to final M-tone as there is with perfectives ( +3 Sg bà?rí, -3 Sg báprī $)$.
(377)
a. $\grave{e ̀ ̀ e}^{n}$
bá?rí
3PINonh hit.Imprt
'Hit-2Sg them (nonhuman)!'
b. $\quad \bar{e} \bar{e}^{n}=\quad \grave{e}(\grave{e})^{n} \quad$ báPrí
ēē ${ }^{n} \quad n i ̂ i 1{ }^{n} \quad b a ́ ? r i ́ ~$
2Pl 3PlNonh(Obj) hit.Imprt
'Hit-2Pl them (nonhuman)!' (two variants)
c. $\bar{\varepsilon} \bar{\varepsilon}^{n}=\quad \grave{\varepsilon}(\grave{\varepsilon})^{n} \quad$ báprí $\quad\left(</ \overline{\text { é }}{ }^{\mathrm{n}}\right.$ àà $\left.{ }^{\mathrm{n}} /\right)$
ēē ${ }^{n}$ náà ${ }^{n}$ bá?rí
2Pl 3PlHum(Obj) hit.Imprt
'Hit-2Pl them (nonhuman)!' (two variants)
d. $b i ́=\quad \grave{i}(i ̀)^{n} \quad$ bá?ŕ $=r e ̄ ?$

Proh $=\quad$ 3PlNonh hit.Imprt=Neg
'Don't-2Sg hit them (nonhuman)!'
e. $\bar{e} \bar{e}^{n} \quad b i ́=\quad i ̀ i(i)^{n} \quad$ bá?ŕ $=r e \bar{e} ?$

2Pl Proh= 3PlNonh hit.Imprt=Neg
'Don't-2Pl hit them (nonhuman)!'

Additional transitive examples are in (378). The imperfectives given for comparison are the 3Sg forms (beginning with L-tone). The prohibitive inflectional morpheme bí and objects are omitted to save space.
(378)

| imperative |  | prohibitive |  | Ipfv | gloss |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| +3Sg | -3Sg | $+3 \mathrm{Sg}$ | -3Sg | $+3 \mathrm{Sg}$ |  |
| $d \check{~}$ | $d \varepsilon{ }^{\prime}$ | $\ldots d \grave{\varepsilon}=r \bar{\varepsilon}$ ? | $\ldots d \bar{\varepsilon}=r \bar{\varepsilon}$ ? | $d \grave{\varepsilon}$ ¢ | 'heat (sth)' |
| $j \check{~}$ | jí | $\ldots j i=r e \bar{e} ?$ | $\ldots j \hat{l}=r \bar{e}$ ? | jì̀ | 'see' |
| bǎ | bá | $\ldots \mathrm{bà}=r \bar{\varepsilon}$ ? | $\ldots \mathrm{bá}=r \bar{\varepsilon}$ ? | bàà | 'put down' |
| $k p a^{n}$ | $k p a^{n}$ | $\ldots k p a ̀=n \bar{\varepsilon}$ ? | ... kpá $=n \bar{\varepsilon}$ ? | kpàà ${ }^{n}$ | 'kill' |
| bǒ | bó | $\ldots b \grave{j}=r \bar{\varepsilon} ?$ | $\ldots b \bar{s}=r \bar{\varepsilon}$ ? | bjò | 'remove' |
| bà̀rí | báprí | $\ldots b a ̀ p r i ̀ r e \bar{e} ?$ | $\ldots$... bápŕs $=r e \bar{e}$ ? | bà?rà | 'hit' |
| $f \grave{\varepsilon} \hat{\varepsilon}^{n}$ | $f \varepsilon \varepsilon^{n}{ }^{n}$ |  | ... $f$ ¢́¢ $=n \bar{\varepsilon}$ ? | fèz̀nàà | 'untie' |
| dùtó? ${ }^{\text {n }}$ | dútópos ${ }^{\text {a }}$ | $\ldots$ dùtó? ${ }^{\text {a }}=n \bar{\varepsilon}$ ? | $\ldots$... dútó? ${ }^{\text {a }}=n \bar{\varepsilon} ?$ | dùtó? ${ }^{\text {ánò }}$ | 'shut' |
| fîrikí | firikí | $\ldots$... fìrìkì $=$ rēe? | ... fíríkíl $=$ rē? | firìikià | 'hobble |
|  |  |  |  |  | (animal)' |

The verbs that have +ATR perfectives (at least prepausally) contrasting with -ATR imperfectives are + ATR in the imperative (379). This is because the original final -ATR vowel a or $\varepsilon$ on imperfectives does not occur in imperatives.

| (379) | imperative |  | prohibitive |  | $\begin{gathered} \text { Pfv } \\ +3 \mathrm{Sg} \end{gathered}$ | $\begin{aligned} & \text { Ipfv } \\ & +3 S g \end{aligned}$ | gloss |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | $+3 \mathrm{Sg}$ | $-3 \mathrm{Sg}$ | $+3 \mathrm{Sg}$ | -3Sg |  |  |  |
|  | Wě | wé | $\ldots w e ̀=r \bar{e} ?$ | $\ldots w e ́=r e \bar{e} ?$ | wěē | $W \grave{\varepsilon}$ ¢̀ | 'bathe (sb)' |
|  | tě | té | $\ldots t$. ${ }_{\text {è }}=r$ ē? | $\ldots t e ́=r e ̄ ?$ | těē | $t \varepsilon ̀ \grave{\varepsilon}$ | 'shatter (sth)' |
|  | yě | yé | $\ldots$. y è $=r$ ēp | ... yé $=r$ ē? | yěē | $y \varepsilon \grave{\varepsilon}^{\hat{\varepsilon}}$ | 'send on mission' |
|  | dèí | déí | $\ldots$. dèè $=r$ rē? | $\ldots$ déé $=$ rē? | dèîí | $d \grave{\varepsilon}$ ¢ | 'open' |
|  | bègé | bégé | $\ldots$. bègè $=$ rē? | $\ldots$... bégé $=$ rē? | bègé | $b \grave{g} g$ è | 'cut' |

10.5.1.2 Imperative verb after future sà

Although imperatives normally occur without future tense marking, there is a textual passage where this combination does occur. yálí in (380) is clearly imperative rather than imperfective (yàlà~ yálá ) in form.

$$
\begin{array}{lllll}
\text { àà }^{n}=\varnothing & \text { sòró }= & {\left[\grave{o}^{n}\right.} & s i ́=i^{n} & \text { yálí }] \\
\text { 3PlHum=Ipfv } & \text { do.then.Ipfv } & {[3 \mathrm{PlHum}} & \text { Fut }=3 \mathrm{PlNonh} & \text { take.Imprt }]
\end{array}
$$

"(She said:) We were then going to take them afterwards.' (2016_04@ 01:23)

### 10.5.2 Hortatives

### 10.5.2.1 Hortative ( 1 Pl plus imperative or quoted imperative)

The hortative ('let's do!') has overt 1 Pl subject mù?ừ. Hortatives, unlike imperatives, make no distinction between singular and nonsingular addressee.

The form of the verb in hortatives is the same as in the quoted imperative ( $\$ 10.5$.3.1 below). That is, a special M-toned quoted imperative is used for intransitive verbs (381b), and the regular imperative stem, with its +3 Sg and -3 Sg tonal variants, is used for transitives (381c). In the high-frequency 'let's go!' (381a), from irregular pseudo-transitive wàá 'go' (§10.1.1.2), wà is tonally simplified from regular imperative wǎ as seen in è wă 'go!-2Sg'.
a. mù?ún $=$
$\varnothing$
wà
1Pl 3SgNonhObj go.Imprt
'Let's go!' (pseudo-transitive)
b. mù̀ùn $\quad$ b̄̄/būlū / fidī / ninnā/ sīdān
1Pl exit(v)/return/run/forget/ascend.Imprt
'Let's go out/go back/run/forget/go up!'
c. mùqùn $k u \bar{m} m \bar{\varepsilon} \bar{\varepsilon} k u^{n}$
1Pl meal eat.Imprt
'Let's eat (a meal)!'
d. mù̀̀̀un wúlá bà ${ }^{n}$ rì
1Pl dog hit.Imprt
'Let's beat the dog!'

### 10.5.2.2 Hortative negative (1 Pl plus bí)

The hortative negative has the initial 1Pl subject pronoun as in the positive hortative. It is otherwise identical to the prohibitive: preverbal particle bí, imperative stem, and clause-final negative enclitic $=r E$ ?
a. mù̀̀̀̀ ${ }^{n} \quad b i ́=\quad i ́$
$i \quad$ wà $=r \bar{\varepsilon} ?$
1 Pl Proh 3SgNonhObj
'Let's not go!'
b. mù̀ $\grave{u}^{n}$ bí bà $=r \bar{\varepsilon}$ ?
1Pl Proh fall.Imprt=Neg
'Let's not fall!'

| c.mùPù   <br>  bí wùlá | bà2r $=l \bar{\varepsilon} P$ |  |  |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| 1 Sg | Prof | $\operatorname{dog}$ | hit.Imprt=Neg |

'Let's not beat the dog!' (< wùlà )

### 10.5.3 Quoted deontics (imperative and hortative)

### 10.5.3.1 Quoted imperative

An original imperative may be quoted. The higher quotative verb is perfective positive $d \grave{\varepsilon} \sim$ $d \varepsilon$ 'said' (383a-b) if an actual quotation is being reported.

| a. | zàkî̀ | $d \varepsilon$ | $[m a ̄$ | $s a \bar{l} / f i ̄ d \bar{\imath}$ |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| $Z$ | say.Pfv | $[1 \mathrm{Sg}$ | come./run.QuotImprt | now $]$ |
|  | Z Zaki told me to come/to run now.' |  |  |  |

b. mā dé [à $s$ ā $/$ fīdī $]$

1 Sg say.Pfv [3SgHum come./run.QuotImprt]
'I told him/her to come/to run.'
c. $m \bar{a} \quad d \bar{\varepsilon} \quad\left[a ̀ a^{n} \quad s \bar{a} / f i ̄ d i ̄\right]$

1 Sg say.Pfv [3PlHum come./run.QuotImprt]
'I told them to come/to run.'

Intransitive quoted imperatives are in (384). It is identical segmentally to the imperative, differing from the imperfective (which often shifts to -ATR or adds a final +ATR vowel). However, while the imperative may be M, L, or LH-toned, the quoted imperative is strictly M-toned for intransitives. Interlinear gloss is ".QuotImprt." The same M-toned forms occur in conditional antecedent clauses; see (566) in §16.1.2.
quoted Imprt imperfective imperative gloss
a. monosyllabic
imperative $M$-toned

| $b \bar{\jmath}$ | bóś | $b \bar{\jmath}$ | 'exit (v)' |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :--- |
| $s \bar{a}$ | sáá | $s a \overline{ }$ | 'come' |
| $s \bar{\rho}$ | sóó | $s \bar{\jmath}$ | 'enter' |
| imperative L-toned |  |  |  |
| $b \bar{a}$ | $b a ̀ a ̀$ | $b a ̀$ | 'fall' |
| $k a \bar{a}$ | $k a ̀ a ̀$ | $k a ̀$ | 'abandon' |


| b. nonmonosyllabic imperative $M$-toned |  |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| tārā | táPá | tāPā | 'go' |
| būlū | búló | būlū | 'return' |
| wālī | wálà | wāāī | 'shout' |
| mīı̄ıī | míílià | mīı̄lī | 'think' |
| imperative LH-toned |  |  |  |
| fîdī | fìdéė | fìdí | 'run' |
| sīdā | sìdánà | sìdá( ${ }^{(1)}$ | 'ascend' |

For transitive verbs, there is no distinction between imperative and quoted imperative. In both, the tones depend on whether the preceding object NP is +3 Sg or -3 Sg . I will use ".Imprt" rather than ".QuotImprt" in interlinears. Transitive quoted imperatives are illustrated in (385).
a. mā dé [à bàPrì]

1 Sg say.Pfv [3SgHum child hit.Imprt]
'I told him/her to hit the child.'
b. mā dé [à dì-rá-à ${ }^{n}$ báPrí]

1 Sg say.Pfv [3SgHum child-Nom-Pl hit.Imprt]
'I told him/her to hit the children.'

For more on the syntax of quoted imperatives, see $\S 17.2 .4 .1$.

### 10.5.3.2 Imprecations and blessings

Imprecations and blessings of the type 'may God VERB X!' have a structure similar to that of quoted imperatives, but they lack the higher 'say' clause. The archaic variant 2 Sg object pronominal $\bar{e}$ (instead of the usual $w \bar{o}$ ) is typical of such formulae.
(386) álé $=\bar{e}$ गह́ sò

God 2 Sg good put.in.Imprt
'May God have you enter (there) in good health!' (< álà )

### 10.5.3.3 Quoted prohibitive

A quoted prohibitive includes regular prohibitive forms including the prohibitive particle bí. A subject pronoun, not present in the regular prohibitive, is added.
(387)
a. bí fìdì = rē?

Proh run.Imprt=Neg
'Don't-2Sg run!'
b. mā dé [à bí fìdì=rēp]

1 Sg say.Pfv [3SgHum Proh run.QuotImprt=Neg
'I told him/her not to come/not to run.'

### 10.5.3.4 Quoted hortative

A quoted hortative predicate has the same form as a regular hortative. However, if the original 'we' did not include the current speaker or addressee, the subject pronominal category is adjusted from 1 Pl to human 3 Pl (388b).
(388)

| zàkîı | $d \varepsilon$ | [mù ún $^{n}=$ | $\varnothing$ | wà |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Z | say.Pfv | [1P1 | 3 SgNonhObj | go.Imprt] |
| 'Zak | let's g | with 1Pl | ject) |  |

b. zàkîı dé [bákàr mà] [àán $=\quad \varnothing \quad$ wà]

Z say.Pfv [B on] [3PlHum 3SgNonhObj go.Imprt]
'Zaki said to Bakari, let’s go!' (with 3Pl subject)

## 11 Clause and predicate structure

### 11.1 Clausal constituents

There is no case-marking as such, except that object pronouns have some distinctive forms. Subjects, preverbal objects, and postverbal objects are clearly distinguished from each other by linear position and other properties.

### 11.1.1 Subjects

### 11.1.1.1 Subjects in indicative main clauses

The subject NP (whether noun-headed or pronominal) occurs clause-initially, preceded optionally by setting adverbs like 'yesterday' (which may also occur postverbally). Subjects always precede preverbal direct objects. The two are adjacent but always in this linear order in simple perfective transitives (389a). Subjects are also immediately followed by imperfective subject enclitic $/ \mathrm{H}+=\varnothing /$, realized overtly (if at all) as a final H -tone on the subject (389b). Future particle sà immediately follows this imperfective enclitic, preceding a preverbal object if one is present (389c).
(389)

| a. | mā | yííé | dòní(ī) |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
|  | $\mathbf{1 S g}$ | fish | eat.meat.Pfv |
|  | 'I ate a/the fish.' |  |  |

b. má $=\varnothing$ ’yí?é dònò
$\mathbf{1 S g}=\mathrm{Ipfv}$ fish eat.meat.Ipfv
'I eat fish.' (</mā=H .../)
c. má $=\varnothing$ sà yílé dònò
$\mathbf{1} \mathbf{S g}=$ Ipfv Fut fish eat.meat.Ipfv
'I will eat a/the fish.' (</mā=H sà .../)

NPs that are morphologically capable of ending in the nominal suffix (-ra or variant) omit this suffix in subject function (390). The exceptions involve combinations with pronominal object clitics, which fuse with subject NPs and trap the nominal suffix (§4.3.1.3).
(390)
tàgá bòé
sheep exit(v).Pfv
'A/The sheep-Sg went out.' (< tàgà )

Other than this, there is no special morphology for subject NPs or pronouns. For example, subject pronominal proclitics like $1 \mathrm{Sg} m \bar{a}$ in (389a-c) above have the same form as corresponding proclitics used as possessor or postpositional complements. There is minor variation in form due to tone sandhi, e.g. Floating-H Docking in (389b-c).

The subject of a clause may bind a reflexive (§18.1.1-2).

### 11.1.1.2 Subjects of imperative and hortative verbs

Imperatives and hortatives have subjects with the same syntactic properties as subjects of indicative clauses. Although singular-addressee imperatives have no overt subject (391a), the covert subject may bind a reflexive if the verb is transitive (391b).
(391)
a. $b \bar{\jmath}$
exit(v).Imprt
‘Go-2Sg out!'
b. [ē yé?ré] bà?rì
[2SgRefl self] hit.Imprt
'Hit-2Sg yourself!'

Hortatives ('let’s go!’) have overt 1 Pl subjects (§10.5.2.1).

### 11.1.1.3 Meteorological and temporal subject-verb collocations

Some meteorological and temporal expressions are subject-verb collocations.
a. kó?ró bé
night fall.Pfv
'Night has fallen.' = 'It's gotten dark out.'
b. sláá yèlèní
daytime day.break.Pfv
'Day has broken.' = 'It's gotten light out.'
c. kán $\quad$ sè ${ }^{n}$
rain(n) rain.fall.Pfv
'It rained.'
d. kán bàlí(ī)
rain(n) stand.Pfv
'The rain has stopped.'
$\begin{array}{lll}\text { e. yí-kó } & \text { S̀̀́ } \\ & \text { rainy.season } & \text { enter.Pfv }\end{array}$
f. tálá fìdé
sun regrow.Pfv
'The sun rose.'
g. tálá bèz
sun fall.Pfv
'The sun set.'

### 11.1.1.4 Emotional and physiological subject-verb collocations

Some terms for emotions and body functions also involve subject-verb collocations. In (393a), bó? $\bar{\partial}^{n}$ appears to be a specialized variant, attested only in this collocation, of búp $\bar{u}^{n}$ 'liver'.
a. [zàkîì bórōn] là?àní
[Z liver] get.up.Pfv
'Zaki is angry.' (lit. "Zaki's liver has arisen.")
b. [zàkîì kóyí] jà= á-yà
[Z belly] become.good.Pfv= Hum-3SgObj
'Zaki is happy.' (</jě à-yà/)
c. $\left[\begin{array}{ll}m a ̄ & u^{n}\end{array}\right]$ těē
[1Sg nose] be.shattered.Pfv
'I have a nosebleed.'

### 11.1.1.5 Physiological states ('be hungry' etc.)

Physiological states of persons are normally expressed with the name of a condition (e.g. 'hunger') as subject. The subject has the 'be' enclitic (floating H-tone), which requires that the nominal suffix be overt for singular NPs. The experiencer follows as a postverbal NP, either an NP (with nominal suffix) or an independent pronoun. The construction is therefore literally of the type "hunger is me."

| a. | kò?ò-rá $=\varnothing$ | $m a \overline{-} \bar{n}$ |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
|  | hunger-Nom=be |  |
|  | 'I am hungry.' |  |

b. mìkál-à $=\varnothing \quad$ mā-n̄
thirst-Nom=be $\quad 1$ Sg-Indep
'I am thirsty.'
c. fùnén-ná= $\varnothing$ mā-n̄
heat(n)-nom=be $\quad 1 \mathrm{Sg}$-Indep
'I am (=feel) hot.' (also with d̀̀̀ว̀ró-rà replacing synonym fùnén-ná)
d. niì-ná= $\varnothing \quad m \bar{a}-\bar{n}$
sleep(n)-Nom=be 1 Sg-Indep
'I am sleepy.'

With 'cold (n)', the favored construction has an explicit verb 'exit (v), go/come out' (395a). This may be to avoid confusion with a verbless construction that has the conventional sense 'have fever (malaria)' (395b).
a. kùmāā-ná= $\varnothing$
‘bós
$m \bar{a}-\bar{n}$
cold(n)-Nom=Ipfv exit.Ipfv 1Sg-Indep
'I am (=feel) cold.'
$\begin{array}{ll}\text { b. } & \text { kùmāā-ná }=\varnothing \\ \text { cold(n)-Nom=Ipfv } & m \bar{a}-\bar{n} \\ \text { 'I have fever (malaria).' }\end{array}$
11.1.2 Transitives and ditransitives

### 11.1.2.1 Preverbal objects of OV verbs

Most transitive verbs require a preverbal object (noun-headed or pronominal). The object follows the subject and any inflectional particles (such as future sà) or post-subject enclitics. As with subjects (except when fused to an object pronoun), possessors, and postpositional complements, a preverbal object NP that is morphologically capable of ending in the nominal suffix -ra (or variant) omits it (396a-b). In the perfective only, the subject and object may be directly adjacent, in which case a +3 Sg subject like 'child' in (396b) requires initial L-tone on the object noun.

```
a. mā tàgá b\grave{\varepsilon}
    1Sg sheep take.out(v).Pfv
    'I took the sheep-Sg out.' (< tàgà, suffixed tàgà-rá)
b. dí yì?é bj̀\varepsilon
    child fish take.out(v).Pfv
    `A/The child took a/the fish out.' (< yíqé, suffixed yí?é-rá)
```

There is some morphological specialization of object pronouns. In particular, third person pronominal objects have forms beginning in $n$ that do not occur in other functions. There are also some slightly irregular tonal alternations in pronominal subject-object combinations. The details vary depending on the clause-level inflectional category (perfective, present, future, progressive); see $\S 4.3 .1 .3$ and the various sections in $\S 10.3$ for data and discussion.

### 11.1.2.2 Postverbal NPs without postpositions

Some verbs have an object-like postverbal bare NP with no postposition, but no preverbal object. They are like intransitive verbs that allow a postverbal complement, and the tones of the verb bring this out. The expressions "postverbal object" and "VO transitive verb" are used loosely. For ditransitives 'give' and 'show' that have both a preverbal object and a postverbal bare NP, see the following section.

If the bare postverbal NP is morphologically capable of ending in a nominal suffix, the suffix is required in this position. If the postverbal object is pronominal, it has independent form for $1 \mathrm{st} / 2 \mathrm{nd}$ person categories and for 3 Pl , and special forms used as postverbal objects (and rarely in other functions) for 3 Sg , namely human à-yà and nonhuman /è-yà/ $\rightarrow$ ì-yà (§4.3.1.6).

The regular OV transitive verb bàprà ~ báprá means 'hit'. There are many examples of 'hit' with a preverbal object in this grammar, e.g. ( 340 g ) above. The same verb, cited as imperfective bá?rá, occurs as a VO verb with the less violent sense 'touch' (397a-b). It has a synonym also with VO syntax, namely mà?à 'touch' (397c).
a. má $=\varnothing$ sà bápr $=\quad$ à-yà
$1 \mathrm{Sg}=\mathrm{Ipfv}$ Fut touch.Ipfv Hum-3SgObj
'I will touch him/her.' (< bá?rá )
b. má $=\varnothing$ sà bá?rá ${ }^{\text {t dí-rá }}$
$1 \mathrm{Sg}=$ Ipfv Fut touch.Ipfv child-Nom
'I will touch the child.'
c. náā mè?é mā- $\bar{n}$
woman touch.Pfv 1Sg-Indep
'The woman touched me.'

Only a few other verbs with object-like postverbal NP (and no preverbal object) have been recorded. One is sóś 'help (someone)' (398a),.
a.
$\begin{array}{llll}\text { má }=\varnothing & \text { sà } & \text { sóś } & \text { wō-n } \\ 1 \mathrm{Sg}=\mathrm{Ipfv} & \text { Fut } & \text { help.Ipfv } & \text { 2Sg-Indep }\end{array}$ 'I will help you-Sg.'

| b. mùPùn | kpánī | [zàkîì | kpá-mà $]$ |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| 1 Pl | follow.Pfv | $[Z$ | goal $]$ |
|  | 'We pursued Zaki.' |  |  |

bélé in the sense 'pass, go past (something)' can also be mentioned, though one could argue that the postverbal NP functions adverbially. It does appear to be a VO transitive in the sense 'surpass' in comparatives, e.g. (367a) above and text 2016_02 @ 04:22 ('tastier than tears').
'Forget' can occur with a postverbal object-like NP.

| (399) | mā | nín $\bar{\varepsilon}$ | zàkîı̀ |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
|  | 1 Sg | forget.Pfv | Z |
|  | 'I forgot (about) Zaki.' |  |  |

'Forget' can also take postverbal verbal-noun complements in the sense 'forget (to do)' (§17.4.5). There are a few other verbs of this type: 'consent (to do)' (§17.4.4) 'be afraid (to do)' (§17.4.6).

The verb kpáná in the sense 'be adjacent to, abut' takes a postverbal NP. In the sense 'pursue', this verb requires a PP, see (403c) below. In fact, most postverbal NPs are postpositional complements rather than bare NPs. An example is the benefactive PP in (400a), with postposition $k \grave{\varepsilon}^{n} \sim k \varepsilon^{n}(\S 8.1 .3)$. For verb-PP collocations, see $\S 11.1 .2 .4$ below.

| $m a ́=\varnothing$ | sà | sáá | $[$ téé | $d \grave{\varepsilon}]$ | $[w \bar{O}$ | $\left.k \bar{\varepsilon}^{n}\right]$ |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| $1 S g=$ Ipfv | Fut | come.Ipfv | $[$ tea | with $]$ | $[2 S g$ | Bene |

'I will bring you-Sg some tea.'

### 11.1.2.3 Ditransitives

Ditransitive verbs 'give' and 'show' combine the characteristics of OV and VO transitives. The preverbal object denotes the theme (entity transferred or shown). The postverbal NP, with no postposition or other case-marking, denotes the recipient. If the recipient is a pronoun it takes independent (i.e. prepausal) form (401a-b). See §8.1.1 for more examples.

| a. à | tàgá | blí / dùd̀̀lí | mā-n |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
|  | 3SgHum | sheep | give.Pfv/show.Pfv |$\quad$ 1Sg-Indep

b. zàkî̀ dé [Wō tàgá $b l=\quad$ ह́-Wò-ǹ $]$

Z say.Pfv [2Sg sheep give.Pfv Hum-Logo-Indep]
'Zaki $i_{x}$ said that you-Sg gave a sheep to him ${ }_{x}$.' (</bìlí à-wò-ǹ/)

### 11.1.2.4 Verb-PP collocations

Some postpositions form collocations with verbs. One important combination is 'come' or 'go' plus a PP with instrumental-comitative $d \grave{\varepsilon} \sim d \varepsilon ́ ~ ' w i t h ', ~ m e a n i n g ~ ' b r i n g ' ~ o r ~ ' c o n v e y, ~$ deliver, take (sth/sb, there)'. Either of the two stems for 'go', intransitive tálá or pseudotransitive wàá, in addition to sáá 'come', may be used in this construction. Examples in (402a-c) have sìbi 'meat' as the theme (transferred entity).

| a. | $s \bar{a}$ | $[$ sibí | $d \grave{\varepsilon}]$ |
| :--- | :--- | ---: | :--- |
|  | come.Imprt | $[$ meat | with $]$ |
|  | 'Bring-2Sg the meat!' |  |  |

$\begin{array}{llllll}\text { b. } & \text { è } & \text { wà } & {[\text { sìbí }} & d \grave{\varepsilon}] & \text { bá } \\ & \text { 3SgNonh } & \text { go.Imprt } & {[\text { meat }} & \text { with }] & \text { over.there }\end{array}$
'Take-2Sg the meat over there!'
c. tāTā $\left.\begin{array}{ll}\text { sìbí } & d \grave{\varepsilon}\end{array}\right]$ bá
go.Imprt [meat with] over.there
'Take-2Sg the meat over there!'
'Hold' is another sense that requires this postposition (403a). The 'on' postposition is required with 'add’ (403b), and also with the Arabic loan yàfáà ‘forgive, pardon'. In the sense 'pursue (someone)', kpáná requires a PP with goal postposition kpá-mà or variant (403c), see §8.4.3.
(403)

| a. | $b \bar{l}$ | [gbāá | $d \grave{\varepsilon}]$ |
| :--- | :--- | :---: | :---: |
|  | hold.Imprt | [stick | with $]$ |
|  | 'Hold-2Sg (onto) the stick!' |  |  |

$\begin{array}{llll}\text { b. à } & \text { dò-ś́ } & {[\text { [sùkár }} & \text { mà }] \\ & \text { 3SgHum } & \text { add.Pfv } & {[\text { [sugar }} \\ \text { on] }\end{array}$
'He/She added some sugar.'


### 11.1.2.5 Verbs used with onomatopoeias

The verb màrà (elsewhere 'touch') may occur preceding an imitation of a sound, cf. English it went "blurp!" (404a). An alternative is to combine cì̀ ~ cíé 'say, utter' with tòłว̀ 'say (something)', flanking the imitation of the sound.
a. mómîl-là $=\varnothing$ mè $\varnothing$ è̀-yá " sound] "
vehicle-Nom=Ipfv make.sound-Prog 'The car is going "[sound]",

| b. mómílī vehicle | $c \grave{e ̀ ~}$ | "[sound] " | tò̀ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | say.Pfv |  | say.Adjn |
| 'The car went "[sound]", |  |  |  |

### 11.1.2.6 Lexicalized object-verb combinations

As in other languages there are many object-verb collocations. In (405a-b), the noun wée (variants wèè after 3 Sg NP /pronoun, wēē after M -toned pronominal) combines with verb kéé (perfective) or kéà (imperfective) to mean 'be healthy, be cured, be feeling better (recovering from illness/injury)'. Its negation is the normal way to say 'be sick' (405b). Noun wée is not attested elsewhere. For verb kée compare (107). wéé does not appear to be a noun morphologically. Although ostenibly singular it does not require initial L-tone on the verb. The combination of the two elements is a candidate for compound-verb status (§9.6).
a. à

| à | Sà | Wéé |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| 3 SgHum | Fut | health | kéà

3SgHum Fut health affect.Ipfv
'He/She is healthy; he/she has recovered (from illness/injury).'

$$
\begin{array}{lll}
\text { b. à } & \text { wèè } & \text { kéé }=\text { rē? } \\
\text { 3SgHum } \quad \text { health } & \text { affect.Pfv=Neg } \\
& \text { 'He/She is sick (not healthy).' } &
\end{array}
$$

Some transitive verbs are compatible with many objects in ways reminiscent of English get, pick, take, and the like. The verb bàà (imperfective) means 'fall' as intransitive, and its most straightforward sense as transitive is 'put down'. Slight variations include 'knock down' and 'lay out [mat]'. It combines naturally enough with yálá 'egg' to form yálá bàà 'lay egg'. However, it also combines with a range of other objects in more abstract senses (406).

| collocation | gloss | noun |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| $f \check{n g ~}^{n}$ bàà | 'have fun, play (v)' | fo ${ }^{n}$ 'fun (n)' |
| nií bàà | 'sleep (v)', also 'freeze' | niì 'sleep (n)' |
| kpáPā bàà | 'shout (v), cry out' | kpáPā 'shout (n)' |
| gàán bàà | 'wage war, fight (v)' | gàà ${ }^{\text {c }}$ combat ( n ) |
| nùú bàà | 'draw a line' | nùù 'tracks' |
| dí bàà | '(plant) bear ripe fruit' | dí 'child' |
| dàà-núúlī bàà | 'spit without hawking' | dàà-núúlī 'saliva' |
| símí bàà | 'breathe' | símí ‘breath' |

```
òòlú bàà 'ululate, cry for joy' òolú 'women's ululation'
àlàmàń bàà
'assess a fine'
àlàmàn 'fine (n)'
```

The intransitive verb bóó 'exit, go out, leave' has a transitive counterpart bj̀̀̀ ~ bóś 'take out, remove', with extended senses 'take off, doff (a garment)' and 'pick (any fruit)'. It also occurs in a range of specific collocations.

| collocation | gloss | noun |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| kōlōkō bò̀ | 'cough (v)' | kōlōkō 'cough (n)' |
| káā bòj̀ | 'hawk and spit' | káà 'spittle' |
| kón bò | 'collect honey from apiary' | kón 'honey' |
| tá?álí bòo | 'walk' | táPálí 'walking (n)' |

Another versatile verb that occurs in multiple contexts is sàà (imperfective), distinct from 'come' (imperfective sáá ). As intransitive, sàà combines with subject kán 'rain (n)' to mean 'rain (v)', as in $k$ án $^{n}$ s̀े 'it rained'. As pseudo-reflexive it means 'lie down', as in mā nāān $s \varepsilon ́ \varepsilon$ 'I lay (=laid myself) down'. As a transitive verb, its most general sense is 'build', but it can also mean 'set out (garment) to dry in sun'. It also has the transitive collocations in (408).
(408) collocation gloss noun

| Sígí sàà | 'sing (a song)' | sígí 'song' |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| $c \varepsilon^{n}$ sàà | 'tell a story' | $c \varepsilon^{n}$ 'tale' |

### 11.1.2.7 Cognate nominals

Jalkunan does not make extensive use of cognate nominals as objects of verbs, e.g. 'sing a song', 'run a run', etc. One possible case is bó, in the combination bó bàà 'fall'. The verb bàà has a range of senses including 'put down' and intransitive 'be put (somewhere)'. Addition of bó clarifies the sense.

## 11.2 ' $\mathrm{Be}^{\prime}$, 'become', 'have', and other statives and inchoatives

### 11.2.1 'It is' clitics

### 11.2.1.1 Positive identificational 'it is $\mathrm{X}^{\prime}(=\grave{\varepsilon},=\bar{\varepsilon},=\grave{e},=\bar{e},=\bar{i})$

The 'it is' enclitic occurs in clauses of the simple type 'it is X', where 'it' denotes a referent established by discourse or physical context and X provides further identification of this referent.

The examples below suggest that the 'it is X ' enclitic, consisting of a front vowel with M- or L-tone, is added after the locational 'be' subject enclitic $/ \mathrm{H}+=\varnothing /$, which consists only
of a floating H-tone. Subject pronouns take independent form, e.g. $1 \mathrm{Sg} m \bar{a}-\bar{n}(\bar{u})$, and in the case of third person pronouns they take independent focalized (or logophoric) form. The $-n \bar{u}$ independent pronominal suffix combines with the 'it is X ' enclitic as phonetic [níi], so I transcribe e.g. mā-ní = $\varnothing=\overline{1}$ 'it's me', analysed as $/ m \bar{a}-n \bar{u}=H=\overline{1} /$. Likewise, nominal subjects have the nominal suffix (-ra or variant) where morphologically possible (i.e. with common nouns but not personal names), see (411a-c) below.

The 'it is X ' enclitic itself takes the form $=\overline{1}$ after a high vowel. $/ \overline{\mathrm{u}}=\mathrm{H}=\overline{\mathrm{i}} /$ in pronouns contracts as $\overline{1}=\varnothing=\bar{i}(409 \mathrm{a}, \mathrm{d}, \mathrm{e})$.
a. mā-ní= $\varnothing=\bar{i}$

1 Sg -Indep=be=it.is
'It's me.'
b. bákàrí= $\varnothing=\bar{i}$
$B=b e=i t . i s$
'It's Bakari.' (< bákàrì )
c. ámádú $=\varnothing=i$
$\mathrm{A}=\mathrm{be}=$ it.is
'It's Amadou.' (ámádù )
d. $\grave{a}-w o ̀-n i ́=\varnothing=\grave{i}$

Hum-3SgFoc-Indep=be=it.is
'It's him/her.'
e. à-mǎā-ní $=\varnothing=i ̀$

Hum-3PlFoc-Indep=be=it.is
'It's them (human).'

If the preceding stem is a noun that cannot end in the nominal suffix (for example, personal names), if the stem ends in a mid-height or low vowel, the 'it is X ' enclitic is $=\bar{e} \sim=\bar{\varepsilon}$. The choice between $=\bar{e}$ and $=\bar{\varepsilon}$ depends on the ATR quality of the stem (410a), cf. §3.4.1. The low vowel $a$ is -ATR, and it usually combines with the enclitic as $\varepsilon=\varnothing=\grave{\varepsilon}$ (410b).
a. kóló $=\varnothing=\bar{e}$
$\mathrm{K}=\mathrm{be}=$ it.is
'It's Kolo (personal name).'
b. wámàré $=\varnothing=\bar{\varepsilon}$
$\mathrm{W}=\mathrm{be}=$ =it.is
'It's Wamara (personal name).' (/wámàrà $=\mathrm{H}=\bar{\varepsilon} /$ )

If X is a common noun, as is often the case, the clitic follows the nominal suffix whether the noun is singular or plural. The result for singular nouns is always $-r \varepsilon \in=\varnothing=\grave{\varepsilon}$ or (if the stem is
nasal) $-n \varepsilon=\varnothing=\grave{\varepsilon}$, in either case with final L-tone (411a-c). In (411c) L-tone in the $/ H(L) /$ melody of the stem, audible on the suffix in jí-nà, is realized as downstep. Corresponding plurals have $-a ̀-n i ́=\varnothing=\bar{i}($ from $-a ̀-n \bar{u})$ with final M-tone (411d).
a. tàgà-ré $=\varnothing=\grave{\varepsilon}$
sheep-Nom=be=it.is
'It's a sheep.' (< tàgà-rá )
b. náā-né= $\varnothing=\grave{\varepsilon}$
woman-Nom=be=it.is
'It's/She's a woman.' (< náā-nà )
c. $\quad j i^{-} n n \varepsilon=\varnothing=\grave{\varepsilon}$
market-Nom=be=it.is
'It's a/the market.' (/jí-nà $=\mathrm{H}=\grave{\varepsilon} /$ )
d. tàgà-rá-à-ní $=\varnothing=\overline{1}$
sheep-Nom-Pl-Nom=be=it.is
'It's/They're sheep-Pl.'

This construction should be conducive semantically to specific indefinite dò (§6.5.2). However, I have observed the combination of do and the 'it is' enclitic, which is realized as $-d o ̀ e ́=\varnothing=\bar{e}$, only with the semantically light nouns $s \varepsilon^{n}$ 'thing' (suffixed śénà ), where it seems to be obligatory, and $m \grave{\varepsilon} \uparrow \grave{\varepsilon}^{n}$ and variants 'person' (suffixed mè $1 \hat{\varepsilon}$-ná), where it is optional.
a. $\quad s \varepsilon^{n}$-dòé $=\varnothing=\bar{e}$
thing-one=be=it.is
'It's something.' (\#śe- ${ }^{\downarrow} n \varepsilon=\grave{\varepsilon}$ rejected by assistant)
b. $m \varepsilon ̀ ̀ \varepsilon^{n}-d \grave{o ́}=\varnothing=\bar{e}$
person-oner=be=it.is
'It's someone.' (mغ̀ $1 \grave{\varepsilon}-n \varepsilon ́=\varnothing=\grave{\varepsilon}$ is also acceptable)

For past time, the identificational enclitic is replaced by the verb cì̀ $\sim$ cí 'was/were', and copula $k \grave{u}^{n} \sim k u^{n}$ comes at the end (§10.4.1). This indicates that the identificational 'it is X ' construction merges with the copular (' X is Y ') construction in the past-time forms.
11.2.1.2 'It is not X ' $(=r \bar{E}$ ? $)$

The 'it is X ' construction described above is negated by attaching the negative enclitic $=r \bar{E} ?$, realized as $=r \bar{\varepsilon} ?$ or $=r \bar{e} ?$ depending on ATR value of the preceding syllable, to the X element. The morphology and tones of the X NP are the same as in the positive, so I again
postulate that the locational 'be' subject enclitic $/ \mathrm{H}+=\varnothing /$ is present before the negative enclitic. The independent 1 Sg pronoun is elsewhere $m \bar{a}-\bar{n} \sim m \bar{a}-n \bar{u}$, so the medial $i$ in $m \bar{a}-n=\varnothing=1=n \bar{e} ?$ (413a) may be a direct reflex of allomorphs of the positive 'it is' enclitic which has a front vowel (preceding section).
a.. $m \bar{a}-n=\varnothing=i=n \bar{e} ?$

1Sg-Indep=be=it.is=Neg
'It isn't me.' ( $</$ mā-nū $=H=\overline{1}=r \bar{E}$ T/)
b. bákàr $=\varnothing=\varnothing=r \bar{e} ?$

Bakari=be=it.is=Neg
'It isn't Bakari.' (< bákàrì )
c. tàgà-rá $=\varnothing=\varnothing=r \bar{\varepsilon}$ ?
sheep-Nom=be $=\mathbf{i t} . \mathbf{i s}=\mathbf{N e g}$
'It's not a sheep.'
d. náã-nà $=\varnothing=\varnothing=n \bar{\varepsilon}$ ?
woman-Nom=be=it.is=Neg
'It's not a woman.'
e. tàgà-rá-à-ń $=\varnothing=\varnothing=n \bar{e}$ ?
sheep-Nom=be=it.is=Neg
'It's/They're not sheep-Pl.' ( $</-n \bar{u}=\mathrm{H}=/$ )

### 11.2.2 Copula

### 11.2.2.1 Positive ' X is $\mathrm{Y}^{\prime}\left(k \grave{u}^{n} \sim k u^{n}\right)$

The copula is $k \grave{u}^{n}(+3 \mathrm{Sg})$ or $k u^{n}(-3 \mathrm{Sg})$. The construction is $X=$ 'be' $Y k u^{n}$ meaning ' X is Y '. X here is the starting point, such as a pronoun, and it takes the 'be' subject enclitic. The nominal suffix is therefore required on singular NPs that are capable to ending in it (414c). However, plural subject NPs omit their final plural nominal suffix -n̄̄ (414b,d). A pronoun in X function takes regular proclitic form, e.g. 1 Sg mā becoming má $=\varnothing$ with the enclitic, not independent $m \bar{a}-\bar{n}(414 a)$. Y specifies a class to which X belongs or an identity that X is coreferential with. Y does not take a word-final nominal suffix before $k \grave{u}^{n}$.
a. má= $\varnothing$
náā / tàgá
$k \grave{u}^{n}$
1Sg=be woman / sheep
Cop
'I am a woman/a sheep.' (< tàgà)
b. mùpún $=\varnothing \quad$ náā-nà-à ${ }^{n} /$ tàgà-rá-à ${ }^{n} \quad k u u^{n}$
$1 \mathrm{Pl}=$ be $\quad$ woman- / sheep-Nom-Pl Cop
'We are women/sheep-Pl.'
c. jáā-nà $=\varnothing \quad$ bàláa ${ }^{n} \quad k \grave{u}^{n}$
woman-Nom=be Senoufo Cop
'The woman is a Senoufo (ethnicity).' (< bàlà ${ }^{n}$ )
d. jáā-nà-án $=\varnothing \quad$ bàl-lán ${ }^{n} \grave{a}^{n} \quad k u^{n}$
woman-Nom- $\mathrm{Pl}=$ be $\quad$ Senoufo-Nom-Pl Cop
'The women are Senoufos (ethnicity).' (< náā-nà-à ${ }^{n}$ )
e. $m a ́=\varnothing$
bákàr
$k u^{n}$
$1 \mathrm{Sg}=\mathrm{be} \quad$ Bakari
Cop
'I am a Bakari (name).'

For past time, e.g. 'we were women', see §10.4.1.

### 11.2.2.2 Negative ' X is not $\mathrm{Y}^{\prime}(k u ̀=n \bar{e} ?$, plural $k u ́=n \bar{e} ?)$

Copular ' X is Y ' (preceding section) is negated by adding the negative enclitic $=r \bar{E}$ ?. Because of the nasality of $k \grave{u}^{n} \sim k u^{n}$, the enclitic always takes nasal form $=n \bar{e}$ ?. The 'be' subject enclitic is absent, as in some other imperfective negative constructions. However, singular subjects nouns have their final nominal suffix (415c). Human 3 Sg subject à is raised to á only before an L-tone (415d-e), as in other negative clauses.
a. mā/à
jáā
$k u ̀=n \bar{e} ?$
$1 \mathrm{Sg} / 3 \mathrm{SgHum}$ woman $\mathbf{C o p = N e g}$
'I am/He-or-she is not a woman.'
b. mù?ù ${ }^{n}$ náā-nà-à ${ }^{n}$ / tàgà-rá-à ${ }^{n} \quad k u ́=n e ̄ ?$

1Pl woman- / sheep-Nom-Pl Cop=Neg
'We are not women/sheep-Pl.'
c. jáā-nà
woman-Nom
bàlán
Senoufo
$k u ̀=n \bar{e} ?$
Cop=Neg
'The woman is not a Senoufo (ethnicity).'
d. à
yì?é
$k u ̀=n \bar{e} ?$
3SgHum fish Cop=Neg
'He/She is not a fish.' (< yí?é )

```
e. á bàlán 
    3SgHum Senoufo Cop=Neg
    'He/She is not a Senoufo (ethnicity).'
```

On the absence of the 'be' subject enclitic in these negative sentences, see comments in §11.2.3.4 below.

### 11.2.3 Existential and locative quasi-verbs and particles

The past-time counterpart of the locational 'be (present)' construction, e.g. 'I was (somewhere)', replaces the 'be' enclitic by cì̀ $\sim$ cí $\varepsilon$ 'was/were', see $\S 10.4 .2$. The nasal linker $=n$ is absent in this past-time version. The following subsections cover 'be (present)' with reference to present or generalized time.

### 11.2.3.1 Positive ' X is present (somewhere)'

The construction treated here is of the form ' X be [location]', with any locational phrase ('here', 'in the village', etc.). Except in the specific cases of 'be here' and 'be there', locational 'be' is expressed by the subject enclitic $/ \mathrm{H}+=\varnothing /$. This may be identified morphemically with the imperfective subject enclitic $/ \mathrm{H}+=\varnothing /$. Examples with noun-headed subjects are in (416).
a. bákàrí= $\varnothing$ [mùú / yí dù]
$\mathrm{B}=\mathbf{b e} \quad$ [field / water in]
'Bakari is (present) in the field/in the water.' (< mùù )
b. búgū-rà-án $=\varnothing$ [dùgú dù]
hut-Nom- $\mathrm{Pl}=$ be [the.bush in]
'The huts are (out) in the bush.' (<dùgù )
c. tàgà-rá-à ${ }^{n}=\varnothing \quad$ [mùú dù]
sheep-Nom- $\mathrm{Pl}=\mathbf{b e} \quad[$ field in]
'The sheep are in the field.' (< mùù )
d. náā-nà-án $=\varnothing$ [bíní t̀̀]
woman-Nom- $\mathrm{Pl}=\mathbf{b e} \quad$ [granary in]
'The women are inside the granary.'
e. dīgín̄-nà-án $=\varnothing \quad[y i ́ \quad d u ̀]$
man-Nom- $\mathrm{Pl}=$ be [water in]
'The men are in the water.'

```
f. dīgín̄-nà \(=\varnothing \quad[y i ́ \quad d u ̀]\)
    man-Nom=be [water in]
```

'The man is in the water.'

Pronoun subjects also show the final H-tone even before an H-tone, confirming that the 'be' enclitic is present.

```
má/mùPún
1Sg/1Pl/3Pl/2Pl/3SgHum =be [water in]
'I am/we are/they are/you-Pl are/he-or-she is in the field.'
```


11.2.3.2 ' X is here/there' with linker $=\bar{n} \sim=\grave{n}$

When the locational expression is a simple demonstrative adverb nàà 'here' or dè 'there (definite)', locational 'be' is seemingly expressed by an enclitic whose most common tonal form is $=n$ (variant $=$ ín) instead of (just) by segmentally zero $/ \mathrm{H}+=\varnothing /$. In addition, a final nominal suffix (e.g. -ra ) in singular nouns shifts its vowel to $e$. This argues for anderlying form / = in $/(418 \mathrm{c})$. However, there is no similar vocalic change of final a in plural nouns or in pronouns (418d-e).

Because of the tones in combinations like human 3 Sg [áń] rather than rising \#[àń], I assume that the enclitic $=\bar{n}$ is added after the $/ \mathrm{H}+=\varnothing /$ enclitic, which accounts for raising $/ \mathrm{a} /$ to á. This interpretation reduces $=n$ to the status of a linker. In this light, it is doubtful that $=n$ is itself intrinsically H -toned, as opposed to just bearing the H -tone of the $/ \mathrm{H}+=\varnothing /$ under favorable conditions. In fact, the linker is heard as L-toned $=\grave{n}$ when preceded by an H -toned vowel (418c), though not by a rising-toned vowel (418e).
a. zàkî̀ $=\varnothing=$ ń dè
$\mathrm{Z}=\mathrm{be}=$ Link there.Def
'Zaki is present (here/there).'
b. bákàr $=\varnothing=$ ń nàà
$\mathrm{B}=\mathrm{be}=$ Link here
'Bakari is here.'
c. tàgà-ré $=\varnothing=$ ǹ nàà
sheep-Nom=be=Link here
'The sheep-Sg is here.' (< tàgà-rá )
d. tàgà-rá- $\bar{a}^{n}=\varnothing=$ ń nàà
sheep-Nom- $\mathrm{Pl}=\mathrm{be}=$ Link here
'The sheep- Pl are here.'

$$
\begin{array}{lll}
\text { e. } & \text { á }=\varnothing=\grave{n} / \text { má }=\varnothing=\grave{n} & \text { nàà } \\
& 3 \mathrm{SgHum}=/ 1 \mathrm{Sg}=\mathrm{be}=\text { Link } & \text { here } \\
& \text { 'He-or-she is } / \mathrm{I} \text { am here.' } & \\
& & \text { nàà } \\
\text { f. àá }=\varnothing=n & \text { here } \\
& \text { 3PlHum=be=Link } & \text { 'They are here.' (heard approximately as [àāń]) }
\end{array}
$$

Because the nasal linker is found only with 'here' and 'there', and not with other spatial adverbs like bá 'over there' (see just below), an alternative analysis of the nasal as the initial segment of the demonstrative adverbs is not out of the question. However, representations like ńnàà and ńdè would have unique syllabic shapes in Jalkunan, and in adverbial (as opposed to predicative) function a vocalic rather than nasal extension of preceding words occurs. Another reason for the enclitic analysis is that the tone of the nasal depends on that of the preceding morphemes.

### 11.2.3.3 ' X is over there' (bá)

For the distant deictic category ('over there'), bá occurs after $/ \mathrm{H}+=\varnothing /$. There is no linker.
a. bákàrí= $\varnothing \quad$ ${ }^{\text {bá }}$
$\mathrm{B}=$ be $\quad$ over.there
'Bakari is over there.'
b. àáa $=\varnothing \quad{ }^{\prime} b a ́$

3PlHum=be over.there
'They are over there.'
c. bákàrí= $\varnothing \quad{ }^{\downarrow} b a ́=r \bar{\varepsilon}$ ?
$\mathrm{B}=$ be $\quad$ over.there $=\mathrm{Neg}$
'Bakari isn't over there.'

### 11.2.3.4 Negative ' X is not present/ X is absent (somewhere)'

The positive ' X is present (somewhere)' (preceding section) is negated by adding negative enclitic $=r \bar{E} ?$ in its usual range of variants to the locational expression (i.e. clause-finally). My assistant omitted the $=$ ń linker before dè 'there (definite)' but not before nàà 'here' (420d-e).

$$
\begin{array}{lll}
\text { a. bákàrí / á / àáan } & \text { [mùú } & \text { dù] }=r e \bar{?}  \tag{420}\\
\mathrm{~B} / 3 \mathrm{SgHum} / 3 \mathrm{PlHum} & \text { [field } & \text { In] }=\text { Neg }
\end{array}
$$

'Bakari is not / He-or-she is not / They are not in the field.' (bákàrì)
b. bákàr / à / ààn ${ }^{n}$ [yí dù] =rē?

B/3SgHum/3PlHum [water In] =Neg
'Bakari is not / He-or-she is not / They are not in the water.' (bákàrì )
c. tàgà-rá / tàgà-rá-àn ${ }^{n}$ [yí dù] =rēp
sheep-Nom / sheep-Nom-Pl [water In] =Neg
'The sheep- Sg is not/The sheep- Pl are not in the water.'
d. zàkî̀=ń

Z=Link here =Neg
e. zàkî̀ dè $=r e ̄ ?$

Z there.Def =Neg
'Zaki is absent (from here/there).'

There is an issue in these data, and those in §11.2.2.2 above, as to whether the 'be' enclitic $/ \mathrm{H}+=\varnothing /$ is present in the negative sentences. Possible evidence in favor of the presence of the enclitic is a) the H-tone of human 3 Sg á in (420a), and b) the overt nominal suffix -rá on singular 'sheep' in (420c). Evidence against the presence of the enclitic is the final L-tones in bákàr, à, and ààn as subjects of (420b) in contrast to (420a). In several other examples above, a final H-tone on the subject is ambiguous; it could be attributed either to the 'be' enclitic or to tone sandhi (Final Tone-Raising).

I have argued in §10.2.3 above that the imperfective enclitic, which is probably identical to the 'be' enclitic, is absent in negative clauses (perfective, imperfective, etc.). Consistent with that, I maintain that the 'be' enclitic is absent in (420) as well as in (415) above. The evidence of examples like (420b) is decisive. The H-toned 3 Sg subject á only occurs before an L-tone. It occurs before mùù 'field' in (420a) but not before H-toned yí 'water' in (420b). This points to a morphophonological analysis of H-toned á in (420a), viz., a morphologically restricted extended offshoot of Final Tone-Raising of the type L\#L-to-H\#L, as explained in §10.2.3.

The presence of the nominal suffix -rá in singular tàgà-rá 'sheep' in (420c) would be automatic if the 'be' enclitic were present. However, it is not necessary to posit the presence of the enclitic for this purpose. The presence or absence of a word-final nominal suffix is determined by the NPs morphosyntactic context. Some contexts require the suffix, some disallow it. To account for its overt presence in examples like (420c), we merely need to include this context (subject immediately followed by nonverbal predicate) in the list of positions requiring the nominal suffix, see (155) above.
11.2.4 Other stative locational and positional quasi-verbs

### 11.2.4.1 Stative locational quasi-verbs ('be in/on') absent

Expressions like ' X be in/on/at Y ' where Y is a spatial reference ('in the fields', 'on the mat', etc.), are expressed by predicate PPs. The subject takes the 'be' enclitic $/ \mathrm{H}+=\varnothing /$. There are no semantically stative verbs with built-in spatial meanings like 'be in' or 'be on'.
a. kùgù-rá $=\varnothing$ [dà?àlí mà]
stone-Nom=be [mat on]
'The stone is on the mat.'
$\begin{array}{lcc}\text { b. náā-nà- }-a^{n}=\varnothing & \text { [mùú } & \text { dù] } \\ \text { woman-Nom- } \mathrm{Pl}=\text { be } & \text { [field } & \text { in] } \\ \text { 'The women are in the field(s).' }\end{array}$

See §11.2.3.1 for more examples.

### 11.2.4.2 Stative stance/position verbs

The active (i.e. aspectually marked) verb 'sit (down)' is pseudo-reflexive sà?à (perfective $s \grave{\varepsilon} P \bar{\varepsilon}$ $\sim s \varepsilon ́ q \bar{\varepsilon})$, see (305b) above. In addition to active forms, the verb has stative forms denoting stable position as shown in (422). Unlike 'want' and 'have', these derived statives do not allow the imperfective subject enclitic $/ \mathrm{H}+=\varnothing /$. This suggests that derived statives are perfective aspectually.
a. àà ${ }^{n}$ séréní
3PlHum sit.Stat
'They are sitting (=seated).'
$\begin{array}{ll}\text { b. à } & \text { sèPènín } \\ & \text { 3SgHum } \\ & \text { sit.Stat } \\ & \\ & \mathrm{He} / \text { She is sitting }(=\text { seated }) . '\end{array}$

Array (423) shows the relationships between active and stative forms of the three most important stance verbs. The statives end in ní. The vowel quality of the stem preceding ní shifts to + ATR. Since + ATR e can correspond to either -ATR $\varepsilon$ or $a$, it is indetermine whether the stative is more closely related to the active imperfective or to the active perfective.

| active |  | stative (3Sg) | gloss |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Ipfv | Pfv +3 Sg |  |  |
| sà $1{ }^{\text {à }}$ | sè 1 É | sèPèní | 'sit' |
| bàlà | bàlí | bàlní | 'stand' |
| sàà | Sèદ | sèèní | 'lie down' |

From a text I can add another stative verb, bèèní $(+3 \mathrm{Sg}) \sim$ bééní $(-3 \mathrm{Sg})$, related to bàà 'put down' (perfective bèź~bé ) and to intransitive bàà 'fall'.
cíí-ná-à ${ }^{n}$ bééní kénénènà
breast-Nom-Pl be.put.down.Stat outside
'The breasts were (=had been) set down outside (of the water).'

The variant tùùnì ~ túúní from the verb tóó 'stay, remain' may be another case; see (513a-b) below.

My assistant rejected my proposed combinations of these stative forms with the past morpheme ('was sitting', etc.). He preferred past perfect forms based on the active perfective ('had sat down', etc.); see §10.4.9.

### 11.2.5 'Stay', 'become', and 'happen' predicates

### 11.2.5.1 'Stay, remain' (tóó )

This is an active (aspect-marking) verb. The basic forms are perfective tò $\sim$ tóg (subject to the usual clause-medial trimming) and imperfective tóó.
a. à
kúnú / bá
3SgHum stay.Pfv village / over.there
'He/She stayed in the village / over there.' (< tò $\varepsilon$ )


The high-frequency demonstrative adverbs 'here' and 'there (definite)' require a variant túú in both perfective and imperfective contexts. One might have expected tóó, as in (372c) and other examoles. However, this is not the only case where a shift to +ATR has also raised the vowel to high; see tîlí from tá?á 'go(es)' in (36a-b). The adverbs 'here' and 'there (definite)' require similar + ATR extensions on verbs and some other elements (§4.4.2.1).
a. à
túúu nàà/dè
3SgHum stay.Pfv here/there.Def
'He/She stayed here/there.'
b. á= $\varnothing$ sà túúú nàà / dè

3SgHum=Ipfv Fut stay.Ipfv here / there.Def
'He/She will stay here/there.'
See §15.1.1.2 for functions of tó $\begin{aligned} & \text { as an auxiliary with another following VP. }\end{aligned}$

### 11.2.5.2 'Become, be transformed into’ (jámúlò)

' X become (=be transformed into) Y ' where Y is an NP denoting a type of entity is expressed by the verb jámúlò (imperfective) or jàmúlī ~ jámúlī (perfective). This is followed by the Y NP and by the copula $k \grave{u}^{n} \sim k u^{n}(427 \mathrm{a}-\mathrm{b})$. The transitive counterpart ' X transform Z into Y ' adds an object before jámúl̄̄(427c).
(427)
a. à
jàmúlī
[mìirin $\left.{ }^{n} k p e ̄ e ́\right] ~$
$k{ }^{n}{ }^{n}$
3SgHum be.transformed.Pfv
[person white] Cop
'He/She turned into a white person.'
b. á $=\varnothing$ sà jámúlı̀ $\quad\left[\begin{array}{lll}\text { mììn } & \text { kpēé }] & k \grave{u}^{n}\end{array}\right.$

3SgHum=Ipfv Fut be.transformed.Ipfv [person white] Cop
'He/She will turn into a white person.'
c. mā zàkî̂ jámúlī [mìłìn kpēé ${ }^{n}$ kù ${ }^{n}$

1 Sg Z transform.Pfv [person white] Cop
'I turned Zaki into a white person.'

### 11.2.5.3 'Happen’

'Happen, take place, occur' with reference to an event is expressed by máá 'be done', i.e. the intransitive counterpart of màà ~ máá ‘do', compare French se faire.

| $\left[\begin{array}{ll}\text { accident } & \text { ò }\end{array}\right]$ | $m \varepsilon ́ \varepsilon$ |  |
| :--- | :---: | :--- |
| $\left[\begin{array}{l}\text { accident }\end{array}\right.$ | one $]$ | be.done.Pfv |
| 'An accident happened.' |  |  |

### 11.2.6 Mental and emotional statives

### 11.2.6.1 'Know' (sò etc)

This is a transitive verb that takes a preverbal object, typically nonhuman 3 Sg (ní and variants) in the abstract sense 'it' referring to some state of affairs (429a-b). Variants without ní object (429c) are elicitable with difficulty and do not appear to be in common use. For present-time knowledge the perfective is used: sò $(+3 \mathrm{Sg}) \sim$ só $(-3 \mathrm{Sg})$. The subject does not have an imperfective enclitic (429a-b,d). The final H-tones on the pronouns in (429c) are due to Final Tone-Raising.
a. mā / mù?ùn ${ }^{n}$ ààn
ní sò
1Sg/1Pl/3PlHum 3SgNonhObj know.Pfv
'I/We/They know (it).'
b. mā / mù?ù
ń
3SgNonhObj
$s \grave{\grave{j}}=r \bar{\varepsilon} ?$
$1 \mathrm{Sg} / 1 \mathrm{Pl}$
know.Pfv=Neg
'I/We don't know it.' (<ní)
c. mùpún $/$ àáa ${ }^{n}$

$$
s \grave{\Delta}=r \bar{\varepsilon} p
$$

1Pl / 3PlHum know.Pfv=Neg
'We/They don't know (it).'
d. à
yǐ sì
3SgHum water know.Pfv
'He/She knows the water.' (yí)

Past-time 'knew' is sòò ké, see $\S 10.4 .3$. The perfective 'know' verb is lengthened and switched to +ATR in this and some other combinations.

An imperfective sò̀ $(+3 \mathrm{Sg}) \sim$ sóś $(-3 \mathrm{Sg})$ is elicitable, chiefly in future contexts ('will know'). Similarly, an imperative sǒ ( 3 Sg object) or só ( 3 Pl object) was elicited. The imperfective sj̀̀̀~sóó is homophonous with that of 'wait' (perfective sòíī~sóī ).

### 11.2.6.2 'Want, like’ (kà~ ká)

In simple clauses with NP object ('want it', 'want that', 'want what?'), this is a transitive verb. The form kà ~ ká, probably stative rather than aspect-marked, occurs in this construction when it has reference to the present time. The subject has the imperfective enclitic (final H-tone) in the positive (430a-b) but not negative (430c).

[^0]b. mù?ún $=\varnothing \quad$ tyí kà
$1 \mathrm{Pl}=\mathrm{Ipfv}$ water want.Stat
'We would like some water.'
c. mā yípé kà $=r \bar{\varepsilon}$ ?
$1 \mathrm{Sg} \quad$ fish
want.Stat=Neg
'I don’t like/want fish.'

The "object" may take specific indefinite form with dò.
(431)
a. má $=\varnothing$ [gbāá dò] ká
$1 \mathrm{Sg}=\mathrm{Ipfv}$ [stick one] want.Stat
'I want a stick.'

| b. | $m \bar{a}$ | $[g b a ̄ a ́$ | dò $]$ |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | | ká $=r \bar{\varepsilon} ?$ |  |
| :--- | :--- |
|  | 1 Sg | | stick |
| :--- |

'I don't want a stick.'

For future time (432) was elicited. I interpret máá as an intransitive counterpart of (imperfective) màà ‘do’, i.e. 'be done, happen' (§11.2.5.3). The construction is therefore "we will happen to want water tomorrow."

| mù 1 un $^{n}=\varnothing$ | sà | máá | yí | kà | Síní |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| $1 \mathrm{Pl}=\mathrm{Ipfv}$ | Fut | be.done.Ipfv | water | want.Stat | tomorrow |
| 'Tomorrow we will want some water.' |  |  |  |  |  |

For past time ('wanted'), see §10.4.3.
With a clausal complement ('want to go', 'want X to go'), the verb normally takes imperfective form kóó~kò̀ and is followed by the complement (§17.1.1).

For a homophone $k a ̀ \sim k a ́ ~ i n ~ t h e ~ ' h a v e ' ~ c o n s t r u c t i o n, ~ s e e ~ § 11.5 .1 . ~$

### 11.3 Quotative verb

### 11.3.1 'Say’ (tò?j̀, cì̀, d̀̀~dé)

As transitive verb with a nonhuman 3Sg object, or other NP object such as 'that', the 'say' verb is tò々j̀ or cì̀ (cited as imperfectives).
(433)
a. $m \bar{a}$
ní
tı̀̀ $\bar{\varepsilon}(\bar{\varepsilon})$
1Sg 3SgHumObj
say.Pfv
'I said it.'

```
b. mā ní cié
    1Sg 3SgHumObj say.Pfv
    [= (a)]
```

The 'say' verb used with a following quotation is $d \dot{\varepsilon}(+3 \mathrm{Sg})$ or $d \varepsilon$ ( -3 Sg ), in the perfective positive only (i.e. when the quoted matter was actually uttered or thought by someone). This verb combines with a preceding subject, as in è dè 'it (animal) said: "..."'. It is replaced by tò̧ò under negation (434b).
a. à dé= [á-wò sà sáá]
3SgHum say.Pfv [Hum-3SgLogo Fut come.Ipfv]
' $\mathrm{He}_{\mathrm{x}} /$ She $_{\mathrm{x}}$ said that he $\mathrm{e}_{\mathrm{x}} /$ she $_{\mathrm{x}}$ would come.' (</dè à-wò/)
b. á $=\varnothing$ tò?ó $=$ rē? $\quad[$ à-wò $\quad$ sà sáa $]$

3 SgHum 3 SgObj say.Pfv=Neg [Hum-3SgLogo Fut come.Ipfv]
' $\mathrm{He}_{\mathrm{x}} /$ She $_{\mathrm{x}}$ didn't say that he $\mathrm{e}_{\mathrm{x}} /$ she $_{\mathrm{x}}$ would come.'

For the tonal and segmental phonology of $d \grave{\varepsilon} \sim d \varepsilon$ in combination with a following third person subject pronoun, see $\S 17.2$. 2 below.

### 11.4 Adjectival predicates

Perfective forms of deadjectival inchoatives ('become ADJ', §9.5), can function like stative predicates. In other words, ' X became long/short' can mean ' X is long/short'.
a. [mā mǒ] sò̀n ${ }^{n}$-béé / gùní(ī)
[1Sg rope] become.long.Pfv / become.short.Pfv
'My rope is long/short.'
b. [mā mǒ] $\quad s \grave{\partial}{ }^{n}-b \grave{\varepsilon} \grave{\varepsilon}=r \bar{\varepsilon} p / g u ̌ n=n \bar{e} ?$
[1Sg rope] become.long.Pfv=Neg / become.short.Pfv=Neg
'My rope is not long/short.' (/gùní = nē?/)

### 11.5 Possessive predicates

### 11.5.1 'Y be had by X' (kà~ ká)

In the basic predication of possession translatable as ' X have Y ', the possessum Y is the subject (!) and hosts the 'be (somewhere)' enclitic $/ \mathrm{H}+=\varnothing /$. This is followed by the possessor X and a possessive morpheme kà $(+3 \mathrm{Sg}) \sim$ ká $(-3 \mathrm{Sg})$. The construction therefore resembles English ' Y belong to X ', but it has the sense of ' X have Y ' where X is topical (often pronominal) and Y may be indefinite or a new discourse referent.

It is difficult to determine the stem-class (stative verb? postposition?) of kà ~ ká, which has no other variants. The fact that it does not surface with M-tone after an M-toned pronominal is a point in favor of a stative verb analysis, since $C V$ postpositions do allow M-Spreading ( $m \bar{a} d \bar{\varepsilon} \bar{\varepsilon}^{\text {'with }}$ me', etc.). Examples are in (436).
a. tàgà-rá = $\varnothing$
[mā
ká]
sheep-Nom=be $\quad[1 \mathrm{Sg} \quad$ Poss $]$
'I have a sheep.'
b. tàgà-rá $=\varnothing$ [bákàr ká]
sheep-Nom=be [B Poss]
'Bakari has a sheep.'
c. tàgà-rá-ā $\bar{a}^{n}=\varnothing \quad$ [bákàr ká]
sheep-Nom- $\mathrm{Pl}=$ be $\begin{array}{ll}{[\mathrm{B}} & \text { Poss }]\end{array}$
'Bakari has some sheep.'
d. bákàrí= $\varnothing$ [mā ká]
$\mathrm{B}=$ be $\quad[1 \mathrm{Sg} \quad$ Poss $]$
'I have Bakari.'
e. dí-rá= $\varnothing$ [tàgá kà]
child-Nom=be [sheep Poss]
'The sheep has a child (=lamb).' (< tàgà )

| f. | dí-rá $=\varnothing$ | [tàgà-rá-à ${ }^{n}$ | ká] |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
|  | child-Nom=be | [sheep-Nom-Pl | Poss] |
|  | 'The sheep-Pl have a child (=lamb).' |  |  |

The paradigm with possessor is (437).
(437)
a. M-toned pronouns

| 1 Sg | mā ká |
| :--- | :--- |
| 2 Sg | wō ká |
| 2 Pl | $\bar{e}^{n}{ }^{n} k a ́$ |

b. other plural pronouns

| 1Pl | mùpùn $k a ́$ |
| :--- | :--- |
| 3PlHum | àà $^{n}$ ká |
| 3PlNonh | è̀ ${ }^{n}$ ká |

c. 3 Sg pronouns

| 3 SgHum | à kà |
| :--- | :--- |
| 3 SgNonh | è kà |

d. singular noun

$$
\text { 'sheep-Sg' tàgá kà } \quad(<\text { tàgà })
$$

e. plural noun
'sheep- Pl ' tàgà-rá-àn ká

The relationship between this 'have' construction and the 'want' construction is an interesting question. Both look like stative clauses, with imperfective clitic on the subject, followed by an NP and kà ~ ká. However, in the 'have' construction (§11.2.6.2) the subject (i.e. possessum) is normally nonhuman, while in the 'want' construction the subject is normally human.

The predicate is negated in the usual way by adding enclitic $=r \bar{\varepsilon}$ ? clause-finally. The imperfective subject enclitic is absent, as usual in negatives. A singular NP as subject ends in the nominal suffix before third-person pronominals, and optionally before other pronominals. Note the absence of the suffix in tàgá before a nonpronominal NP in (438d).
a. wár̄ $\quad[m a \bar{a} \quad k a ́]=r \bar{\varepsilon} ?$
money [1Sg Poss]=Neg
'I don't have any money.' (< wárī )
b. wár-rá=
money-Nom
[à
[3SgHum
'He/She doesn't have any money.'
c. wář-rá
money-Nom
[mù?ù ${ }^{n}$
$k$ ḱ $]=r \bar{\varepsilon} ?$
'We don't have any money.'
d. tàgá zàkîì ká=r $\bar{\varepsilon}$ ?
sheep Z Poss=Neg
'Zaki doesn't have a sheep.'

An apparent nominalization ká-nà occurs in (452a) in §12.2.1 below, raising the possibility of an original nasalized form ${ }^{*} k a^{n}$. However, the examples in (438a-c) above do not nasalize negative enclitic $=r \bar{\varepsilon} p$.

For past-time counterparts with cì̀ $\sim$ cíg 'was/were' preceding the combination of subject and kà~ ká, see §10.4.4.

### 11.5.2 ' X be with Y '

### 11.5.2.1 Predicate is PP including postposition $d \grave{\varepsilon}$ 'with'

For instrumental-comitative $d \grave{\varepsilon} \sim d \varepsilon ́$ see $\S 8.2 .1$. The phrasing ' X be [with Y ]' can be used to describe attributes, whether temporarily possessed (439a) or inherent (439b). A PP based on postposition $d \grave{\varepsilon} \sim d \varepsilon^{\prime}$ 'with' is the predicate. The possessor is the subject.
a. tàgà-rá $=\varnothing$ [mòó-n̄ dè]
sheep-Nom=be [rope-Dim with]
'The sheep has a rope on it.' (< mòó-nī $)$
b. tàgà-rá $=\varnothing \quad[g b o ̌ \quad d \grave{\varepsilon}]$
sheep-Nom=be [horn with]
'The sheep has horns.' (<gbò )

### 11.5.2.2 Predicate is comitative PP with dò $\sim d o ́$

For the comitative postposition dò $\sim$ dó see $\S 8.2 .2$. Comitative PPs may be predicative after the 'be' subject enclitic or the 'was/were' verb, denoting co-presence (accompaniment). The subject and postpositional complement are usually both human, but the subject may be extended to animals. In negative versions (440c), the 'be' enclitic is absent, note the tones of 'Bakari', but nominal subjects ('sheep') do show the nominal suffix.
a. tàgà-rá $=\varnothing /$ bákàrí $=\varnothing \quad[m \bar{a} \quad d \bar{o}]$
sheep-Nom=be / B=be $\quad[1 \mathrm{Sg} \quad$ with $]$
'A sheep/Bakari is with me.' (i.e. 'I have a sheep/Bakari with me.')

| b. tàgá | cì̀ | $[m \bar{a}$ | d $\bar{o}]$ |  |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
|  | sheep-Nom | be.Past | $[1 \mathrm{Sg}$ | with $]$ |
|  | 'A sheep was with me.' |  |  |  |

$\begin{array}{lcll}\text { c. } \begin{array}{lcl}\text { tàgà-rá } / \text { bákàr } & {[m \bar{a}} & d \bar{o}]\end{array} & =r \bar{e} ? \\ \text { sheep-Nom=be / B=be } & {[1 \mathrm{Sg}} & \text { with }] & =\mathrm{Neg} \\ & \text { 'A sheep/Bakari is not with me.' } & & \end{array}$

### 11.5.3 'Y belong to X ' predicates

### 11.5.3.1 $Y=$ 'be' $[X$ mǐ] kùn 'belongs to X '

In this construction, the possessum Y is the known starting point, and its belonging to X is predicated. Y is the subject, with 'be' subject enclitic (final H-tone), and this subject must be
overt (minimally a proclitic pronoun). The subject is followed by the possessor X , the default possessum mì (invariant for number), and the copula $k \grave{u}^{n}$. The combination $/ \mathrm{mì} \mathrm{kùn}$ / undergoes Final Tone-Raising to mǐ kù ${ }^{n}$. The tone rise is difficult to articulate on a $C V$ morpheme and the tendency is to flatten it phonetically into a pitch level similar to M-tone. The rising pitch is most easily heard after an L-tone as in human 3 Sg à mǐ kù ${ }^{n}$ (it) is his/hers'. Since $k \grave{u}^{n}$ always follows mǐ in this construction, and since mǐ is treated tonally as a normal singular noun, $k \grave{u}^{n}$ does not vary tonally for possessum number. If X is a nonpronominal NP, it omits the nominal suffix before mì $k \grave{u}^{n}$ (441d), as usual with possessors. However, the subject Y does have the nominal suffix where morphologically possible.

| a. | $[$ sàà | mí-nà $]=\varnothing$ | $[$ bákàrí | mǐ $]$ |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |$k^{n}{ }^{n}$

'This/That house is Bakari's.'

[house Dem-Nom-Pl]=be [B/Z Poss] Cop
'These/Those houses are Bakari's/Zaki's.'
c. [sàà mí-nà] $=\varnothing$ [náā-nà-án mǐ]] kù ${ }^{n}$
[house Dem-Nom]=be [woman-Nom-Pl Poss] Cop
'This/That house belongs to the women.'
$\begin{array}{lllll}\text { d. } & {[\text { sàà }} & \text { mí-nà }]=\varnothing & {[\text { náā }} & \text { mǐ }]]\end{array}$ kù $^{n}$
'This/That house belongs to the woman.'

| e. bákàrí $=\varnothing /$ é $=\varnothing$ | $[m a ̄$ | $m i ̌]$ | $k u ̀{ }^{n}$ |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| B=be $/ 3 S g N o n h=$ be $\quad[1 \mathrm{Sg}$ | Poss $]$ | Cop |  |
| 'Bakari/It belongs to me.' |  |  |  |

```
f. \# [mā \(m i ̄] \quad k \grave{u}^{n}\)
    \# [1Sg Poss] Cop
    [intended sense: 'It belongs to me.']
```

The pronominal paradigm is (442).
(442)

| 1 Sg | [mā mǐ] kù ${ }^{n}$ |
| :---: | :---: |
| 2 Sg | [wō mî] kù ${ }^{n}$ |
| 1 Pl | [mù?ún mí] kùn ${ }^{\text {n }}$ |
| 2 Pl | [ $\left.\overline{\text { é }}^{n} \mathrm{mì}\right] k \mathrm{u}^{n}$ |


| 3 SgHum | [à mǐ] kù ${ }^{n}$ |
| :---: | :---: |
| 3 SgNonh | [è mī] kù ${ }^{n}$ |
| 3PlHum | [àán mì] kù ${ }^{n}$ |
| 3PlNonh | [èe $\left.{ }^{n} \mathrm{mì}\right]$ kù ${ }^{\text {n }}$ |

Negative examples are (443a-b). They match the positive version except for addition of the clause-final negative enclitic and the absence of the 'be' subject enclitic, hence bákàr (< bákàrì ) rather than bákàrí= $\varnothing$ in (443b).
$\begin{array}{ll}\text { a. } & {[\text { sàà }} \\ {[\text { house }} & \text { mí-nà }] \\ & \text { Dem-Nom }]\end{array}$
[bákàrí
mǐ] $\quad k \grave{u}^{n} \quad=n \bar{e} ?$
[house Dem-Nom] [B Poss] be =Neg
'This/That house is not Bakari's.'
$\begin{array}{lllll}\text { b. bákàr } & {\left[\begin{array}{ll}m a ̄ & m i ̌\end{array}\right]} & k \grave{n}^{n} & =n \bar{e} ? \\ \mathrm{~B} & {[1 \mathrm{Sg}} & \text { Poss }] & \text { Cop } & =\text { Neg }\end{array}$
'Bakari doesn't belong to me.'

For past-time counterparts, see $\S 10.4 .4$.

### 11.5.3.2 $[X$ mì-n $]=\varnothing=\grave{\varepsilon}$ '(it) is $X$ 's'

This is simply the 'it is $X$ ' construction, where instead of a simple NP X we have a default possessum for the possessor X , i.e. ' X 's (possession)' (§6.2.4). The default possessum after pronouns is mì, here with nominal suffix mì-ná, combining with the 'be' enclitic and the 'it is' enclitic as $m i ̀-n \varepsilon=\varnothing=\grave{\varepsilon}$. The plural is regular: mì-nà-àn $n-n i ́=\varnothing=\overline{1}$. In this construction, the "subject" Y is optional and when overt it can be considered a preclausal topic.
a. sàà-rá
[mā
mì-né $] \quad=\varnothing=\grave{\varepsilon}$
house-Nom [1Sg
Poss-Nom] =be $=$ it.is
'The house is mine.'
b. $[m \bar{a} \quad m \grave{\imath}-n \varepsilon ́] \quad=\varnothing=\grave{\varepsilon}$
[1Sg Poss-Nom] =be =it.is
'It's mine.'
c. $\left[m a ̄ a ̀-n a ̀-a ̀ n{ }^{n}-n i ́\right] \quad=\varnothing \quad=\overline{1}$
[1Sg Poss-Nom-Pl-Nom] =be =it.is
'They're mine.'

## 12 Comparatives

### 12.1 Asymmetrical comparatives

### 12.1.1 Adjectival verb plus blé '(sur)pass'

Adjectival predicates (e.g. 'X be long/short') are expressed by perfective forms of inchoative verbs, see $\S 9.5$ and $\S 11.4$. (445b) is a comparative based on the simple noncomparative clause (445a). It features the adjoined verb bèlé (~ bélē) 'pass', cf. English surpass. It is often syncopated to blé especially in comparative constructions. The 'pass' verb is immediately followed by the comparandum, which could be described as a postverbal object. The same 'pass' verb in simple noncomparative clauses also optionally takes a postverbal object, as in ' X passed Y '. Negation is by the usual clause-final negative enclitic (445c).
(445)

b. [mā mǒ] sj̀j̀n -b̀̀ [blé [Wō mì-nà $]]$ [1Sg rope] become.long.Pfv [pass.Adjn [2Sg Poss-Nom]] 'My rope is longer than yours-Sg.'
c. $[m a \bar{a} \quad m o ̌] \quad$ sì̀n ${ }^{n}-b \grave{\varepsilon} \quad[b l e ́ \quad[W \bar{o} \quad m i ̀-n a ̀ ~] ~] ~=~ n \bar{\varepsilon} ?$ [1Sg rope] become.long.Pfv [pass.Adjn [2Sg Poss-Nom]]=Neg 'My rope is not longer than yours-Sg.'

For past-time contexts ('was longer' etc.) with $k \varepsilon$, see $\S 10.4 .5$.

### 12.1.2 Nonadjectival verb plus blé '(sur)pass'

The same construction is used when the main predicate is based on a nonadjectival verb. The main clause has its usual complements, and is followed by the 'pass' clause with postverbal object.

| a. zàkı̂ı | $k u \bar{m} \bar{\varepsilon} \varepsilon$ | kùnò | [blé | $m \bar{a}-n]$ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Z | meal | eat.Ipfv | [pass.Adjn | 1Sg-Indep] |
| 'Zaki | more | d than I ( |  |  |

b. zàkî̀ [wár fér ${ }^{n}$ ] bìlí mā-n̄ [blé bákàrì]

Z [money a.lot] give.Pfv 1 Sg-Indep [pass.Adjn 1 Sg-Indep]
‘Zaki gave me more money than Bakari (gave me).'
'Zaki gave more money to me than (he gave to) Bakari.'

The ambiguity of (446b) depends on whether Bakari is construed as a giver or as a taker.

### 12.1.3 'Be better' $\left(f \grave{o}^{n} \sim f \tilde{o}^{n}\right)$

In this construction, the predicate is $f \grave{j}^{n} \sim f \tilde{f}^{n}$, obeying the usual +3 Sg (L-tone) versus -3 Sg (H-tone) pattern for monosyllabic verbs. blé 'pass' is redundant in this case but it is optionally present.
(447)

$\begin{array}{llll}\text { b. à } & \text { fò }^{n} & \text { [(blé) } & \text { mā-n] } \\ & \text { 3SgHum } & \text { better } & \text { [(pass.Adjn) } \\ & \text { 1Sg-Indep] }\end{array}$
'He/She is better than me.'
c. à
fò ${ }^{n} \quad$ [(blé)
$m \bar{a}-n]=n \bar{e} ?$
3SgHum better [(pass.Adjn) 1 Sg-Indep]=Neg
' $\mathrm{He} /$ She is not better than me.'

Quantitative 'more' is expressed using the main verb 'abound, be(come) many/much' and the usual 'pass' phrase.
(448)
$\left.\begin{array}{llll}\text { a. } & \text { jàngbáā } & \text { féénī } & \text { [blé }\end{array}\right)$ wùl-á-à-nū]
b. àà ${ }^{n}$ féénī [blé mù?ú-nú]

3Pl abound.Pfv [pass.Adjn 1Pl-Indep]
'There are more of them than of us.'

For past time (with past marker $k \dot{\varepsilon}$ at the end of the first clause, preceding blé ), see §10.4.5.

### 12.1.4 'Best'

No dedicated single-clause superlative construction was elicited. (449) is not strictly superlative, but in context it can sometimes have this implication, as the variant free translation with 'the singer' suggests.
$\begin{array}{llllll}\text { (449) } & \text { zàkîıl } & {[[\text { sìgì-sèè }} & \left.m \varepsilon ́ ? \bar{\varepsilon}^{n}\right] & \text { nč }] & k \grave{u}^{n} \\ \mathrm{Z} & {[[\text { song-sing.VblN }} & \text { person }] & \text { good }] & \mathrm{Cop}\end{array}$ 'Zaki is a/the good singer.' ( $\rightarrow$ 'Zaki is the best singer').

To get an unambiguously superlative reading, a set must be specified as a preposed topic-like NP in partitive function, followed by a regular comparative clause.

| [sìgì-sèè | mé? $\bar{\varepsilon}-n a ̀-a ̀ n ~$ | búPú-nú] | zàkîıl | fón $^{n}$ |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| [song-sing.Vbln | person-Nom-Pl | all-Nom] Z | better |  |
| '(Out of) all the singers, Zaki is better (=the best).' |  |  |  |  |

### 12.1.5 'A fortiori' (càPá dóò )

The sense 'all the more so' is expressed by càpá dóò in this textual passage (hyena speaking).
(451)

'(If) someone's (=an animal's) tears are delicious, its meat all the more so.' (2016_02 @ 04:14)

### 12.2 Symmetrical comparatives

### 12.2.1 'Be equal, same’ (dúlí kùn $)$

dúlí (< dúlì '1’) plus copula $k \grave{u}^{n} \sim k u^{n}$ means 'be equal'. As usual in positive copular clauses (§11.2.2.1), the subject has the 'be' enclitic. For deadjectival abstractive 'length' (= 'height') in (452a) see (95a).
(452)

b. [[zàkî̀ bú?úu mā] dè]
$\left[\begin{array}{llll}{[Z} & \text { and } & 1 \mathrm{Sg}] \quad \text { with }]\end{array}\right.$
[mù?ù ${ }^{n}$ búpú] wár-māā háké $=\varnothing$ dúlí kùn
[1Pl all] money-owner extent=be equal Cop
'With (=between) Zaki and me, we are both equally rich.'

## 13 Focalization and interrogation

### 13.1 Focalization

There is no relinearization of constituents when one of them is focalized, except that 'why?' may be fronted. There is no focus morpheme, but 3 Sg and 3 Pl pronouns have special focalized (also logophoric) forms distinct from their proclitics. Perfective intransitive verbs have a special M-toned subject-focus form, but in all other clause types the same verb forms are used with and without focalized constituents. Except for perfective intransitive subjects and focalized third person pronouns, there is no reliable way to mark constituent focalization.

### 13.1.1 Subject focalization (M-toned verb, third person pronouns)

The distinction between ' X fell' and subject-focalized 'It was $\underline{X}$ [focus] who fell' is expressed by the tones of the verb. In unfocalized main clauses, a perfective intransitive verb has LH or LHM tones after a +3 Sg subject (453a) and H or HM tones after a -3 Sg subject (453b-d). In intransitive perfectives, where a verb immediately follows the subject, the verb has an M-toned subject-focus ("SbjFoc") form for all focalized subjecs. For $C_{V V}$ verbs, this form may sound short-voweled ( $C_{\bar{V}}$ ) when clause-final, but it is structurally $C_{V V}$ and is heard as such before the negative enclitic (454a-d).
a. à
$b \stackrel{\varepsilon}{\varepsilon} / b \grave{\varepsilon} \stackrel{\varepsilon}{\varepsilon}=r \bar{\varepsilon} ?$
3SgHum fall.Pfv / fall.Pfv=Neg
'He/She fell / didn’t fall.'


In addition, a 3 Sg subject pronoun has a focalized form (identical to its logophoric form) with -wò rather than the regular proclitic form, hence à-wò (human) as in (454a) or è-wò
(nonhuman). A 3 Pl subject pronoun likewise takes the focalized (or logophoric) form à-mǎā (human) as in (454b) or è-mǎā (nonhuman). My assistant did not accept regular nouns like 'sheep' or 'woman' in this construction.
a. à-wò
$b \bar{\varepsilon} / b \bar{\varepsilon} \bar{\varepsilon}=r \bar{\varepsilon} ?$
Hum-3SgFoc fall.Pfv.SbjFoc (=Neg)
'It was / wasn't he-or-she [focus] who fell.'
b. à-mǎā
$b \bar{\varepsilon} / b \bar{\varepsilon} \bar{\varepsilon}=r \bar{\varepsilon} ?$
Hum-3PlFoc fall.Pfv.SbjFoc (=Neg)
'It was / wasn't they [focus] who fell.'
c. $m \bar{a} \quad b \bar{\varepsilon} / b \bar{\varepsilon} \bar{\varepsilon}=r \bar{\varepsilon}$ ?
$1 \mathrm{Sg} \quad$ fall.Pfv.SbjFoc $(=\mathrm{Neg})$
'It was / wasn't I [focus] who fell.'
d. zàk $\hat{1} \quad b \bar{\varepsilon} / b \bar{\varepsilon} \bar{\varepsilon}=r \bar{\varepsilon}$ ?
Z fall.Pfv.SbjFoc $(=\mathrm{Neg})$
'It was / wasn't Zaki [focus] who fell.'

Intransitive perfectives without medial H-tones like 'fall' have simple M-toned form under subject focus. Longer stems have forms like fīdī̀ 'ran' and sīdānī̀, with a terminal fall from M to L.

This tonal marking of subject focus on the verb is limited to perfective intransitives. It does not apply to present, future, or progressive inflections even for intransitives. In these TAM categories, and in transitives, the only indicator of subject focalization is the form of third person subject pronouns. (455a-b) are positive future clauses with human 3 Sg and 3 Pl subject focus, respectively. They are negated as $(455 \mathrm{c}-\mathrm{d})$, showing the usual tonal patterns of the future negative (§10.3.2.3).
(455)
a. à-wó $=\varnothing$ sà bàà
Hum-3SgFoc=Ipfv Fut fall.Ipfv
'It's he-or-she [focus] who will fall.' (à-wò )
b. $\begin{array}{lll}\text { à-mǎā }=\varnothing & \text { sà } & \text { bàà } \\ \text { Hum-3PlFoc=Ipfv } & \text { Fut } & \text { fall.Ipfv } \\ & \text { 'It's they [focus] who will fall.' } & \end{array}$

d. à-mǎā

Hum-3PlFoc
Fut
bàà $=r \bar{\varepsilon}$ ?
fall. $\mathrm{Ipfv}=\mathrm{Neg}$
'It isn't they [focus] who will fall.'

For other subject categories (1st/2nd person pronouns, nonpronominal third persons) there is no overt distinction between unfocalized and focalized clauses in these non-perfective categories (456).
a. má $=\varnothing$ sà bàà
1 Sg Fut fall.Ipfv
'I will fall.' or 'It's $\underline{I}$ [focus] who will fall.'
b. zàkîl= $\varnothing$ sà bàà

Z Fut fall.Ipfv
'Zaki will fall.' or 'It's Zaki [focus] who will fall.'
c. $m a \bar{a} \quad$ bàà $=r \bar{\varepsilon}$ ?

1 Sg Fut fall.Ipfv=Neg
'I won't fall.' or 'It isn't I [focus] who will fall.'
d. zàkî̀
sá
bàà $=r \bar{\varepsilon}$ ?
1 Sg
Fut
fall.Ipfv=Neg
'Zaki won't fall.' or 'It isn't Zaki [focus] who will fall.'

Even in perfectives, if the verb is transitive, so that the subject is not adjacent to the verb, the verb does not distinguish unfocalized from focalized subjects. The distinction can be made by the choice of simple or focalized third person subject pronoun, so (457a-b) clearly have focalized subjects. No distinction can be made for 1 Sg or other subjects, so (457c) could have either an unfocalized or a focalized subject.

[^1]d. tàgá sìbí dònî́l dǒn=nē?
sheep meat eat.meat.Pfv $(=\mathrm{Neg})$
‘The sheep-Sg ate/didn’t eat (the) meat.'
or 'It was(n't) the sheep-Sg [focus] who ate (the) meat.'

In (457a), à-wò does not undergo Final Tone-Raising. à-wò and è-wò do sometimes undergo this process, but not consistently.

### 13.1.2 Focalization of preverbal objects

The form of the transitive verb does not by itself index focalization of a preverbal object (or subject), except in the 'why?' construction (§13.1.4). Object focalization can be expressed by the form of a third person focalized pronoun in the same way as for subjects (458a-b). The initial $n$ and H -tone that appear on third person preverbal object pronouns (e.g. human 3 Sg ná ) also apply to focalized forms with -wò (458a-b).
a. mā
ná-wò
bá?rì̀
1Sg HumObj-3SgFoc
hit.Pfv
'It was him-or-her [focus] that I hit.'
$\begin{array}{lll}\text { b. } & \text { mā } & \text { nā-mǎā } \\ \text { 1Sg } & \text { HumObj-3PIFoc } & \text { bá?rì̀ } \\ & \text { hit.Pfv }\end{array}$

There is no overt distinction between unfocalized and focalized objects for other object categories (459a-b).
a. à
mā bá?rī̄
3SgHum 1Sg hit.Pfv
'He/She hit me' or 'It was me [focus] who(m) he/she hit.'
b. mā zàkíi bá?rī

1Sg Z hit.Pfv
'I hit Zaki.' or 'It was Zaki [focus] that I hit.'

### 13.1.3 Focalization of postverbal NPs

As with preverbal objects, postverbal objects and postpositional complements can mark focalization only by using focalized third person pronouns (same forms as third person logophoric). The postverbal human 3 Sg indirect object is unfocalized in (460a) but focalized in (460b).
a. mā
tàgá bíl=
à-yà
1Sg sheep give.Pfv Hum-3SgObj
'I gave a/the sheep-Sg to him/her.' (</bìlí à-yà/)
b.


The complement of the postposition is unfocalized in (461a) but focalized in (461b).
(461)
$\begin{array}{llll}\text { a. } & m a ̄ & s e ́= & {\left[(e ̀) e^{n}\right.} \\ & 1 \mathrm{Sg} & \text { come.Pfv } & {[\mathbf{3 P l N o n h}} \\ & \text { with }]\end{array}$
'I brought them (e.g. sheep).' (</sع́ èèn/)
b. māá $=$ [è-mǎā $d \bar{\varepsilon}]$

1Sg come.Pfv [Nonh-3PIFoc with]
'It was them [focus] (e.g. sheep) that I brought.' (</sé è-mǎā/)

### 13.1.4 Defocalized (perfective) adjoined verb

kpé kùdù 'why?' ("for what?") is the only WH-interrogative in my data that moves from postverbal to clause-initial position. This fronting is optional but common. When it is fronted, a following perfective intransitive verb is optionally modified, shifting to L-tone and trimming a final vocalic segment. In (462), therefore, a shortened and L-toned form bò may occur instead of the regular perfective verb bó $\bar{\varepsilon}$.

| $\left[\begin{array}{lll}{[k p \varepsilon ́} & k u ̀ d u ̀\end{array}\right] \quad$ ō | $b o ́ \varepsilon$ |  |  |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| / bò |  |  |  |
| $[$ what? | for $]$ | $2 S g$ | exit.Pfv / exit.Adjn.Defoc |
| 'Why did you-Sg come/go up?' |  |  |  |

Other defocalized intransitive verbs in this construction include sà 'come' and sìdà (or sìdà ${ }^{n}$ ) 'ascend', see (474b) and (475) in §13.2.3. These forms are identical segmentally to the adjoined form (§15.2.1.1), which trims final vowels in the same way. However, intransitive verbs with H-toned imperfectives (sáá 'come', bós 'exit') keep the H-tone in the regular adjoined form (sá, bó), whereas all defocalized adjoined verbs are L-toned (sà, bò ).

It is more difficult to identify defocalized adjoined transitive verb forms, whose +3 Sg adjoined form is already L-toned. However, I tentatively recognize this in clauses where an expected LH-toned perfective verb (after +3 Sg object) surfaces as L-toned, like bà?rì for expected bà?rí 'hit-Past' in (463a) below.

A focalized subject apparently does not induce this tonal defocalization of the verb, though the presence of an interrogative enclitic makes the morphology nontransparent. See (471c) in §13.2.2 below.

### 13.1.5 Topic then focalized resumptive

One common discourse strategy is to present an NP as preclausal topic or to present a clause denoting or summarizing a situation, then resume it with a focalized third person pronoun. This is especially common in 'that's why ...' contexts, i.e. explaining a purpose or cause. For abstractions as well as concrete nonhuman entities the pronoun is è-wò or variant 'it' (463b-c), but the vocalic prefix is sometimes elided to leave just wò as in (463a).


### 13.2 Interrogatives

### 13.2.1 Polar and tag questions

### 13.2.1.1 Polar (yes/no) interrogatives (yà )

The yes/no interrogative marker has variants yà (as in Jula) and contracted $=a ̀ \sim=\grave{j}$. The yà variant is exemplified in (464). Monosyllabic $C v V$ verbs are usually shortened to $C v$ before yà. This includes elision of the final $\varepsilon$ in Cos perfectives, e.g. that of bó $\varepsilon$ ~ bò ' 'exited' which becomes bó yà ~ bǒ yà (464a-b) The underlying $\varepsilon$ does, however, prevent contraction to $\# b \check{o}=\grave{\jmath} \sim \# b \check{o}=\grave{\jmath}$. In effect, the underlying $/ \varepsilon /$ becomes, or fuses with, the $y$ of the interrogative allomorph yà. Other verbs ending in $\varepsilon$, including Cie perfectives, retain the $\varepsilon$ before yà $(464 \mathrm{c}-\mathrm{d})$. The preservation of -ATR vowels $\varepsilon$ and $\rho$ avoids confusion with the progressive verb form (suffix -yá after +ATR stem).

[^2]| b. dí | $s \varepsilon ̌ / b o ̌$ | yà |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| child | come./exit.Pfv | Q |

'Did the child come/go out?' (<sè́e, bう̀ $)$
c. à Sìdánī / tè̀é / cìé yà

3SgHum ascend.Pfv/go.Pfv/arrive.Pfv Q
'Did he/she go up/go/arrive?'
d. $w o \bar{o}$ tāá jì $\quad$ yà

2 Sg fire see.Pfv Q
'Did you-Sg see the fire?'

The contracting (encliticized) variant $=\grave{a} \sim=j$ is exemplified in (465). Contraction is clear in (465a), where imperfective bóś (which has no underlying final $\varepsilon$ ) combines with =à as $b o ́=j$. It is more difficult to determine whether enclisis/contraction occurs after a in (465b), but since nasalization extends to the end of $k p a^{n}=\grave{a}^{n}$ I favor a contraction analysis. There is no contraction (or other evidence of enclisis) after $\varepsilon$ (465c).
a. zàkî̀= $\varnothing$
sà

$$
\mathrm{Z}=\mathrm{Ipfv} \quad \text { Fut } \quad \text { exit.Pfv=}=\mathbf{Q}
$$

'Will Zaki go out?’ (< bóó)

$$
\begin{equation*}
b b^{\prime}=\grave{\jmath} \tag{465}
\end{equation*}
$$

b. á $=\varnothing \quad$ sà $\quad$ sá $=a ̀ /$ nìná $=a ̀ / k p a^{n}=\grave{a}^{n}$
3SgHum=Ipfv Fut come.Ipfv= $\mathbf{Q} /$ forget.Ipfv= $\mathbf{Q} /$ die.Ipfv= $\mathbf{Q}$
'Will he/she come/forget/die?' (< sáá, nìnáà, kpáá" )
c. $\begin{array}{lll}\text { á }=\varnothing & \text { sà } & \text { cíé } / \text { fidé } \\ & \text { 3SgHum=Ipfv } & \text { Fut } \\ & \text { arrive.Ipfv / run.Ipfv } & \text { Q } \\ & \text { 'Will he/she arrive/run?' }(<\text { fidéè }) & \text { Q }\end{array}$

In the preceding examples, the interrogative particle immediately followed the verb. In (466) below, it follows a postverbal constituent. When it contracts with preceding H-toned á or ó, neither the long vowel nor the initial H-tone of the particle is audible after contraction: $\ldots a ́=a ̀, \ldots o ́=\grave{j}(466 a-b)$. However, when it contracts with preceding L-toned à or $\grave{j}$ the result is a long <LHL> syllable: $\ldots \grave{a}=\hat{a}, \ldots \grave{\jmath}=\hat{\jmath}(466 \mathrm{c}) .(466 \mathrm{~d})$ illustrates àà after personal names, which triggers LL\#L-to-LH\#L (Final Tone-Raising) with 'Bakari' and 'Amadou'. /zàkîì àà/ is realized as zàkí áà in allegro speech.
(466)
a. $k a^{n}$
$s \grave{\varepsilon}$
kún-ná = à
$\operatorname{rain}(\mathrm{n}) \quad$ rain-fall.Pfv village-Nom=$=\mathbf{Q}$
'Has it rained in the village?' (< kún-ná )

c. $w o ̄ n i ́ \quad$ bè [sàá tò] $=\hat{\jmath} /$ [dà2àlí mà $]=\hat{a}$

2 Sg 3 SgNonhObj put.Pfv [house in] $=\mathbf{Q} /\left[\begin{array}{ll}\text { mat } & \text { on }]=\mathbf{Q}\end{array}\right.$
'Did you-Sg put it in the house/on the mat?' (< sàà, dà?àlì )
d. Wō ní bìlí bákàrí àà
ámádú àà
zàkí áà
2Sg 3SgNonhObj give.Pfv Z Q
'Did you-Sg give it to Bakari/Amadou/Zaki?' (< bákàrì, ámádù, zàkîì )

For clause-final wà 'whether' in quoted polar interrogatives, see §13.2.9.2 below. This wà may be related to wálímà 'or', see (467) below and §7.2.

### 13.2.1.2 Negative polar interrogative

In an overtly disjunctive interrogative ('yes or no?'), each of the two clauses has at least a subject and a regular inflected verb. Often the second clause is the negation of the first. (Negative interrogatives were difficult to elicit except in this construction.) The combination of negative enclitic $=r \bar{E} ?$ and the interrogative particle is realized as $=r=a ̀(467)$.

13.2.1.3 Negative imperfective interrogative $=r \grave{\varepsilon}=\bar{\varepsilon}^{n}$ as hortative

In (468), a negative interrogative with the special form $=r \grave{\varepsilon}=\bar{\varepsilon}^{n}$ instead of $=r=$ à produces a kind of negative present interrogative clause, literally 'Do we not take the lion cubs?' It functions as a (positive) hortative, cf. English Shall we not ...? with rhetorical-question force.

| mù?ún $^{n}$ | $[j$ èré | dì-rá-àn $\left.^{n}\right]$ | yálá $=r \grave{\varepsilon}=\bar{\varepsilon}^{n}$ |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| 1 Pl | $[$ lion | child-Nom-Pl $]$ | take. $\mathrm{Ipfv}=\mathbf{N e g}=\mathbf{Q}$ |

'Shall we not take the lion cubs?' (2-16_02@01:15)

### 13.2.1.4 Approval tag question ( $k \grave{\varepsilon}$ )

Clause-final $k \dot{\varepsilon}$ (distinct from past morpheme $k \varepsilon \in$ ) is attested in textual passages where it functions as a tag yes-no question marker asking the listener to confirm his/her approval for the speaker's next action, or to confirm the truth of the speaker's statement.
(469) W: [I want you to tell it to me.]

| S: [jàlì-kú | dù] | dó?ó | $k \stackrel{\text { ch }}{ }$ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| [Jalkunan | in] | also | tagQ |
| g |  |  |  |

(470)

```
má=\varnothing sà bél-dè kè
    1Sg=Ipfv Fut begin.Ipfv tagQ
    'Shall I begin (telling the tale)?(2016_02@ 00:38)
```

$k \grave{\varepsilon}$ may also follow a negative interrogative with enclitic complex $=r=a ̀$. See (519) in §15.1.1.5.

### 13.2.2 'Who?' (mā?āā, mā?ā-nı̌ )

Content interrogatives like 'who?', 'what?', 'how?', 'when?', and 'which?' are intrinsically focal.

The human interrogative noun is mā $2 \bar{a}^{n}$, usually in the extended form mā $\bar{a}-n \check{y}$ ( $\rightarrow$ māPā-nì before H-tone). If 'who?' is subject and the predicate is clause-final, a final interrogative enclitic consisting of a floating L-tone is added. It is inaudible if the final word already ends in an L-tone, but is audible in other cases, for example before perfective verbs ( $471 \mathrm{c}-\mathrm{d}$ ).
a. mā?ā-nı̌ $=\varnothing=\grave{i}=\varnothing$
who?-Indep=be=it.is=Q
'Who is it?'
b. māPā-nı̌= $n \grave{\varepsilon}=\varnothing$
who? $=$ Indep=be there $=$ Q
'Who is it?' (variant māPá nè )
c. māPā(-nì) $\quad S \dot{\varepsilon}=\grave{\varepsilon} / t \varepsilon ́\{\varepsilon ́=\grave{\varepsilon} / b o ́=\grave{\varepsilon}$
who?-Indep come./go./exit.. $\mathrm{Pfv}=\mathrm{Q}$

d. mā?ā ${ }^{n}$ bó fì
who? exit(v).Pfv today
'Who went out today?' (< bóع́)
e. $[m a ̄ a \bar{a}-n i ̌ \quad$ sàá $]=\varnothing \quad n \grave{\varepsilon} /=\grave{\varepsilon}$
[who?-Indep house]=be there $/=\mathrm{Q}$
'Whose house is that?'
f. zàkî māāān bárrì=ì

Z who? hit.Pfv=Q
'Who(m) did Zaki hit?'
g. zàkî̀ māāā-nì báprì=ì

Z who? hit.Pfv= Q
‘Who(m) did Zaki hit?’
h. $w \bar{o} \quad m \bar{a} T \bar{a}^{n} \quad j i ́ \bar{\varepsilon}=\grave{\varepsilon}$
$2 \mathrm{Sg} \quad$ who? see.Pfv=Q
'Who(m) did you-Sg see?'
(variant $w o \overline{~ m a ́ ? a ́-n i ̀ ~ j i ́ \varepsilon ́=} ̀ \grave{\varepsilon}$ )

If the queried individuals are known to be nonsingular, a specifically plural form mā $\overline{\mathrm{a}} \overline{\mathrm{a}} \bar{a}^{n}$ or márá-nì-ìn may be used (472).

$$
\begin{array}{ll}
m \bar{a} \uparrow \bar{a}-n i ̀=\bar{i} / m \bar{a} P \bar{a}=\bar{a}^{n} & s \bar{\varepsilon}=\bar{\varepsilon}  \tag{472}\\
\text { who?-Indep-Pl / who?-Pl } & \text { come.Pfv.SbjFoc=Q } \\
\text { 'Who-Pl came?' } &
\end{array}
$$

### 13.2.3 'What?' (kpé), ‘with what?', 'why?'

The nonhuman interrogative noun is $k p \varepsilon \varepsilon$ 'what?'. It is treated as +3 Sg with regard to tonal effects on following words.
a. kp $\quad m \grave{\varepsilon} \varepsilon ́=\grave{\varepsilon}$
what? be.done. $\mathrm{Pfv}=\mathrm{Q}$
'What happened?'
b. $w \bar{o} \quad k p \varepsilon ́ \quad j i \bar{\varepsilon}=\grave{\varepsilon}$
$2 \mathrm{Sg} \quad$ what? see.Pfv=Q
'What did you-Sg see?'
c. $k p \varepsilon ́=\varnothing \quad n \grave{\varepsilon}$
what?=be there
'What's that (there)?'
d. $k p \varepsilon ́=\varnothing=\grave{\varepsilon}$
what? $=$ be $=$ it.is
'What is it?'
$\begin{array}{lllll}\text { e. } & \text { wó }=\varnothing & \text { sà } & \text { kpé } & \text { kùnò } \\ & 2 \mathrm{Sg}=\mathrm{Ipfv} & \text { Fut } & \text { what? } & \text { eat.Ipfv } \\ & \text { 'What will you-Sg eat?' } & \end{array}$
'With what?' and 'why?' are PPs containing 'what?'
a. wó $=\varnothing$ mùú màà $\quad[k p \varepsilon ́ \quad d \grave{~}]$
$2 \mathrm{Sg}=\mathrm{Ipfv}$ field cultivate.Ipfv [what? with]
'What do you-Sg do farm work with?' (< mùù )
b. [kpé kùdù] wō sà/sìdà
[what? for] 2 Sg come./ascend.Adjn.Defoc
'Why did you-Sg come/go up?'

The verb forms in (474b) are defocalized adjoined verbs in perfective function, identical segmentally to regular adjoined verb forms (e.g. sá 'come', sìdà 'ascend') but always L-toned.

A circumlocation for 'why?' is illustrated in (475). The final verb is again a defocalized adjoined verb in perfective function.
(475) [kpé bóō dè] [ēén sà / bò/sìdà]
[what? exit.Pfv there.Def] [2Pl come./exit./ascend.Adjn.Defoc]
'What happened there (so that) you-Pl came/went out/went up?'

### 13.2.4 'Where?' (mì, dóò )

The simple interrogative locative adverb is mì. As an adverb it occurs postverbally.
a. $w o ́=\varnothing \quad$ mì
$2 \mathrm{Sg}=\mathrm{be} \quad$ where?
'Where are you-Sg?'
$\begin{array}{llll}\text { b. } & \text { wó }=\varnothing & \text { ttáPá } & \text { mì } \\ & 2 \mathrm{Sg}=\mathrm{Ipfv} & \text { go.Ipfv } & \text { where? } \\ & \text { 'Where are you-Sg going?' }\end{array}$
c. wō bó mì

2 Sg exit.Pfv where?
'Where did you leave?' (=Where do you come from?) (< bó $\varepsilon$ )

```
d. mù{ún}=\varnothing\mathrm{ sà kūm}\overline{\varepsilon}\varepsilon\mp@code{kùnó mì
    1Pl=Ipfv Fut meal eat.Ipfv where?
    'Where will we eat?' (< kùnò )
```

For the roughly synonymous làrá $n \grave{j}^{n} t$ 's 'in which place?' see $\S 13.2 .7$ below. This is the only 'where?' form that my assistant accepts in predicative function ('it's where?').

A clause-final word dóó can function as predicative 'be where?' It may be related to dè 'there (definite)'.

| (477) | àà ${ }^{n}$ dóò |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
|  | 3PlHum be.where? |
|  | 'Where are they?' |

### 13.2.5 'How?' (mànâ )

The manner interrogative is mànâ. As an adverb it occurs postverbally.
a. mù?ún $=\varnothing$
sí=ì
màà mànâ
1Pl=Ipfv Fut=3SgNonhObj do.Ipfv how?
'How (=What) will we do?'
b. mǎā $=\varnothing$ mùú màà mànâ

2P1=Ipfv field cultivate.Ipfv how?
'How do you-Pl do farm work?'
c. $e ́=\varnothing$ mànâ

3SgNonh=be how?
'How is it?'
d. à mànâ

3SgHum how?
'What's up?'

### 13.2.6 'How much/many?' (sòló ~ sóló )

The quantificational interrogative is soló, heard with this rising tone pattern in isolation and after nouns like náá 'woman' with $\mathrm{HM}(\mathrm{L})$ and similar falling tone patterns. In other combinations where it is noninitial it is H -toned sóló.
a. sòló $=\varnothing=$ è
how.much?=be=it.is
'How much is it?'
b. [tàgà sóló] $=\varnothing \quad$ wō ká $=$ à
[sheep how.many?] $=\mathrm{Ipfv} \quad 2 \mathrm{Sg} \quad$ Poss $=\mathrm{Q}$
'How many sheep do you-Sg have?'

Further examples showing the tone split are in (480).
(480)
a. sòló after +3 Sg
náā sòló = è 'It's how many women?'
b. sóló after - 3 Sg
dí sóló = è 'It's how many children?'
yípé sóló = è 'It's how many fish?'
tàgà sóló = è 'It's how many sheep?'
sàà sóló = è 'It's how many houses?'
mù? ̀̀ ${ }^{n}$ sóló 'how many of us?'

The distributive adverbial is sòlò-sóló= è 'it's how much (each)?', a common phrase in markets. The ordinal is sóló= ná 'how many-eth?' (French quantième).

### 13.2.7 'Which?' (nò )

The adjectival interrogative 'which?' is no. Its L-tone can induce Final Tone-Raising on the preceding noun; there are no other tonal interactions.

$$
\begin{array}{llll}
\text { wó }=\varnothing & {[[\text { sàá }} & \text { nò }] & \text { tó }]=\text { ò }  \tag{481}\\
2 S g=\text { be } & {\left[\begin{array}{ll}
\text { house } & \text { which? }]
\end{array} \text { in }\right]=\mathrm{Q}} \\
' \text { Which house are you-Sg in?' }(<\text { sàà })
\end{array}
$$

Some other important interrogative phrases are based on 'which?' after a semantically light noun. The combination with là à 'place' and locative postposition, i.e. 'in which place?', functions as a near-synonym of mì 'where?' (§13.2.4 above).

| [ $W \bar{o}$ | sàà-rá $]=\varnothing$ | [[là?á | nı̀] | tó] |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| $[2 \mathrm{Sg}$ | house-Nom]=be | [[place | which?] | In ] |
| 'Where is your-Sg house?' |  |  |  |  |

For 'when?' interrogatives with forms of the '(at) which time' type, see the following section.

### 13.2.8 'When?’ (wá?átí nò-nò )

The most general temporal adverbial interrogative is a combination of the noun '(point in/period of) time' with the interrogative adjective 'which?'

| wó $=\varnothing$ | tsáá | [wá?átí | nò-ǹ̀ $]$ |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| 2Sg=Ipfv $\quad$ come.Ipfv | [time | which?-Nom $]$ |  |
| 'When do you-Sg come?' |  |  |  |

Other similar combinations can be made by using a different temporal noun, as in súpún nò-nò '(on) which day?'.

### 13.2.9 Quoted interrogative

### 13.2.9.1 Quoted content interrogative

Content interrogatives are replaced under quotation by the corresponding semantically light noun ('who?' $\rightarrow$ 'person', 'where?' $\rightarrow$ 'place', etc.). This noun is the (internal) head of a relative clause, which may be preposed as a topical NP. For example, 'I don't know [who will go]' is expressed as 'the person who will go, I don't know it.' The final 'it' in this translation is nonhuman singular, denoting the abstract situation.
a. $\left[\left[m \bar{\varepsilon} 2^{n} \quad m i ̀\right]=\varnothing \quad\right.$ sí=ì wàà $]$,
[[person Rel]=Ipfv Fut=3SgNonh go.Ipfv],
$m \bar{a} \quad n i ́ \quad s \grave{j}=r \bar{\varepsilon} ?$
1Sg 3SgNonhObj know.Pfv=Neg
'Who will go, I don’t know (it).'


### 13.2.9.2 Quoted polar interrogative (wà )

If the quoted interrogative is a yes/no interrogative, the quoted clause ends in wà 'whether'. In (485) the 'whether' phrase is preposed, like a preclausal topic.


## 14 Relativization

Relative constructions in Jalkunan internally headed. The "relative clause" is therefore an NP. Relatives are restrictive rather than parenthetical.

### 14.1 Basics of relative clauses

The major features of Jalkunan relative constructions are summarized below.

- the head NP remains in its regular position within the relative construction (in situ);
- there is no "upstairs" head NP outside of the relative construction proper;
- relative marker mì is attached at the end of the head NP;
- there is no nominal suffix (-ra etc.) preceding mì within the head NP, and often no nominal suffix on mì itself;
- the head NP is pluralized by changing mì to $m i ̌-i^{n}$;
- headless relatives have mì or $m i ̌-I^{n}$ without an overt head noun;
- an intransitive perfective verb takes M-toned form (as in subject focalization) after a subject head NP;
- the entire relative construction may be an argument in a larger sentence, or it may be preposed as a topical NP, later resumed by a third person pronoun.


### 14.2 Relative marker mì

Relative marker mì is added at the end of the head NP. Its L-tone distinguishes it from demonstrative mí 'this, that'. It is homophonous with interrogative mì 'where?', and (more suggestively) to default possessum mì.

In elicitation, relative mì does not allow a nominal suffix even in syntactic environments that normally require it; see especially (498b-c) before third-person object pronominal and (506) as bare postverbal NP below. However, I do have two textual examples with apparently suffixed mì-nà (2016_02 @ 03:16 and @ 04:22). I note that demonstrative mí 'this/that' (§4.4.1.1) does regularly allow the nominal suffix ( $\rightarrow$ mí-nà ), as does default possessum mì $(\rightarrow$ mì-nà, §6.2.4). It is possible that I misunderstood these textual examples.

In subject relatives, mì may be directly followed by the imperfective or 'be' subject enclitic (floating H-tone). Its tone remains L in this case; see (484a) above. However, before an L-tone it may undergo Final Tone-Raising and surface as mř, see text 2016_01@ 02:29.

The plural of relative mì is mì- $\bar{i}^{n}$. Plurality is not otherwise marked on the head NP. Thus sàá mì 'the house that $\ldots$ ', plural sàá mì $\bar{i}^{n}$ 'the houses that $\ldots$ '. There is no (singular) nominal suffix between mì and the plural ending, which confirms that the nominal suffix is
not usually added to mì. Near-homonyms are demonstrative mì́ and its plural mìi-ín (§4.4.1.2).

Except in intransitive perfective subject relatives which require an M-toned verb, mì belongs to the -3 Sg rather than +3 Sg category with regard to its tonal effect on following words. As a result, when mì occurs at the end of a preverbal object, the following verb begins with H-tone. This applies, for example, to transitive bà Prí~ bá?rī 'hit (perfective)' in wō [yìgí mì] bá?rī 'the cow that you-Sg hit-Past', see (499b) in §14.5.2 below for mark-up. Likewise, when mì occurs at the end of an NP complement to a following postposition, the postposition takes H-toned form as it does after other -3 Sg complements. For example, $d \grave{\varepsilon} \sim d \bar{\varepsilon}$ 'with' is H-toned in mùPùn gbāá bègé [[jéné mì] dé] 'the ax with which we chopped the wood', see (507b) in §14.5.5 below for mark-up. Plural mǐ-īn, like all plural NPs, also belongs to the -3 Sg category for tonosyntactic purposes.

### 14.3 Head NP

The internal head NP may include a numeral, in which case the plural form of the relative marker ( $m \check{\check{-}} \bar{i}^{n}$ ) is required (486a). The internal head may also include the 'all' quantifier bù?ù ~ búpú, which follows $m i ̌-i ̄ n(486 b)$.
$\begin{array}{llllll}\text { a. } & {[[y i ̀ g i ̀ ~} & \text { flāā } & \left.\text { mì- } \bar{i}^{n}\right] & b \bar{\varepsilon}] & \text { èén }=\varnothing \\ & {[[\mathbf{c o w}} & \text { two } & \text { Rel-Pl }] & \text { fall.Pfv.SbjFoc }] & \text { 3PlNonh=be } \\ \text { 3ìn } & \text { where? }\end{array}$
'Where are the two cows that fell?'

```
b. \(\left[\begin{array}{lll}W o ́=\varnothing & [s a ̀ a ́ ~ m i ̌-i n ~ b u ́ p u ́] ~ j i ́-y a ́ ~ n e ̀] ~\end{array}\right.\)
    [2Sg=Ipfv [house Rel-Pl all] see-Prog there]
    zàkı̂ mí-nà-à-nú = \(\varnothing=\overline{1}\)
    Z Poss-Nom-Pl-Nom=be=it.is
    'All the houses that you-Sg see (there) are Zaki’s.'
```

The usual immediately postnominal demonstrative mí does not co-occur with the segmentally identical relative mì. Instead, my assistant added a minimal 'there' demonstrative adverb nè after the relative-clause verb to express the relevant sense, as in (487a-b) below and (486b) above.

'The house that you-Sg see there is Zaki’s.' (</mí-ná $=\grave{\varepsilon} /$ )
b. $\left[\begin{array}{llll}w o ́=\varnothing & {\left[\begin{array}{ll}\text { sàá } & \text { mì- }{ }^{n}\end{array}\right] \quad j i ́-y a ́ ~ n e ̀ ~}\end{array}\right.$
[2Sg=Ipfv [house Rel-PI] see-Prog there]
zàkî mí-nà-à-nú $=\varnothing=\overline{1}$
Z Poss-Nom-Pl-Nom=be=it.is
'The houses that you-Sg see there are Zaki's.'

### 14.3.1 Restrictions on the head of a relative clause

A pronoun may function as internal head, though the relative is topicalized in the examples I have and a resumptive pronoun occurs in the following main clause. H-toned mí in (488b) is due to the following nàà 'here'.
a. [[mù̀ $u^{n}$
$\left.m \check{i}-i^{n}\right]=\varnothing=\grave{n}$ nàà]
[[1Pl Rel-Pl-Nom]=be=Link here]
[mù ${ }^{2} \mathrm{u}^{n}$ sá tá?á $=r \bar{\varepsilon}$ ? $]$
[1Pl Fut go.Ipfv=Neg]
'We who are here, we will not go.'
b. $[[m \bar{a} \quad m i ́]=\varnothing=\grave{n}$ nàà $] \quad\left[\begin{array}{ll}m a \bar{a} & s a \\ t a ́ r a ́ & =r \bar{\varepsilon} ?]\end{array}\right.$
$[[1 \mathbf{S g} \quad$ Rel $]=$ be $=$ Link here $] \quad[1 \mathrm{Sg}$ Fut go.Ipfv=Neg $]$
'I who am here, I will not go.'

### 14.3.2 Conjoined NP as head

When a conjoined NP like 'men and women' in (489a) becomes a relative head, relative marker mì (plural mì-in ) may be added to both conjuncts (489b-c), though in elicitation the marker was sometimes limited to the second conjunct. My assistant added a resumptive 3P1 subject pronoun àà ${ }^{n}$ in (489b-c), but it may encliticize to and contract with the preceding right conjunct.

b. [[dīgín m̌̌-īn] bú?ú [náa $\left.\left.m i ̌-a^{n}=\right]\right]$ àà ${ }^{n}$ nú?ún báprī] [[man $\quad$ Rel-Pl] and [woman Rel-Pl]] 3PlHum Recip hit.Pfv] àá ${ }^{n}=\varnothing \quad$ mì
3PlHum=be where?
'Where are the men and the women who fought (each other)?'
(/mì-īn ààn/)
c. [[dīgínī mì] búpú [náā mì=] áá ${ }^{n}$ nú?ún ${ }^{n}$ báprī]
[[man Rel] and [woman Rel] 3PlHum Recip hit.Pfv]
à $a^{n}=\varnothing \quad$ mì
3PIHum=be where?
'Where are the man and the woman who fought (each other)?'

### 14.3.3 Headless relatives

Headless relatives did not readily occur in elicited utterances but popped up in recorded narratives. (490a-b) are subject relatives.
a. mì jàlsà-dù
sع́q₹é
Rel Blédougou establish.Pfv
'the one (=person) who established (=founded) Blédougou'
(2016_01@ 01:28)
b. mǐ-īn jàlsà-dù $\quad \varepsilon^{n} q \varepsilon \bar{\varepsilon}$

Rel-Pl Blédougou establish.Pfv
'the ones (=people) who established (=founded) Blédougou'
(2016_01 @ 02:34)

Example (491) is an object relative. The head is not actually zero here, but it is limited to (underlying) object pronoun è (nonhuman 3Sg).

```
bon, [cìné= [è mì] bóó=] [\varnothing bàli]
well, [hare-Nom [3SgNonh] Rel take.out.Pfv] [3SgNonhRefl stand.Pfv]
    'Well, the one (lion cub) that hare took out stood up.' (2016_02 02:12)
    [/cì-ná [è mì] bó(\varepsiloń) [è bàlí]/]
```


### 14.4 M-toned perfective verb in subject relatives

As in subject focalization, subject relativization requires that an intransitive perfective verb (the only verb type that can immediately follow the subject without an intervening enclitic or inflectional morpheme) be M-toned.
(492a-b) are regular perfective intransitive main clauses. The verb 'came' is LH-toned after a +3 Sg subject, and H -toned after a -3 Sg subject. After the relativized subjects in ( $492 \mathrm{c}-\mathrm{d}$ ), the verb has M-tone in both cases. The interlinear has "Pfv.SbjFoc" as in focalization.
a. digínī
sร̀ $\varepsilon$
man come.Pfv
'A/The man came.'


The M-tone is easier to hear if a negative enclitic is added.
(493)
a. dìgínī mì s $\bar{\varepsilon} \bar{\varepsilon}-r \bar{\varepsilon} ?$
man Rel come.Pfv.SbjFoc
'the man who didn't come'
b. digíñ $\quad m \check{l-i} i^{n} \quad s \bar{\varepsilon} \bar{\varepsilon}-r \bar{\varepsilon} ?$
man Rel-Pl come.Pfv.SbjFoc
'the men who didn't come'

### 14.5 Grammatical relation of relativized-on NP

### 14.5.1 Subject relative clause

The simple main clause in (494a) becomes a subject relative clause in (494b). In both cases, yig̀̀ 'cow' lacks its nominal suffix (yìgì-rá). The perfective intransitive verb 'fall' takes M-toned subject-focus form in (494b).
a. yìgí bè̀
cow fall.Pfv
'A/The cow fell.' (< yìgì)
b. [[lyìgí mì] bē] é= $\varnothing \quad$ mì
[[cow Rel] fall.Pfv.SbjFoc] 3SgNonh=be where?
'Where is the cow that fell?'

Examples involving negation are (495a-b). Shifted +ATR variants are omitted.
a. yìgí $\quad b \grave{\varepsilon} \dot{\varepsilon}=r \bar{\varepsilon} ?$
cow fall.Pfv
' $\mathrm{A} /$ The cow didn't fall.'


The subject becomes plural in (496a-b). The polarity is positive as in (494a-b) above. Plurality is marked on the relative morpheme.
a. yìgì-rá-à ${ }^{n}$
bé $\varepsilon$
cow-Nom-Pl fall.Pfv
'A/The cows fell.'
$\begin{array}{lllll}\text { b. } & {[[y \grave{̀ g i ́}} & \left.m i ̀-i^{n}\right] & b \bar{\varepsilon}] & \text { èèn }=\varnothing \\ & {[\mathbf{c o w}} & \text { Rel-Pl }] & \text { fall.Pfv.SbjFoc }] & \text { 3PlNonh=be }\end{array}$
'Where are the cows that fell?'

Negative counterparts of the plural-subject type are (497a-b).
(497)
a. yìgì-rá-à ${ }^{n}$
$b \bar{\varepsilon} \dot{\varepsilon}=r \bar{\varepsilon} ?$
cow-Nom-Pl
fall.Pfv
'A/The cows didn't fall.'
b. [[yìgí mì-in] $\quad b \bar{\varepsilon} \bar{\varepsilon}=r \bar{\varepsilon} P] \quad$ èèn $=\varnothing \quad$ mì
[[cow Rel-PI] fall.Pfv.SbjFoc=Neg] 3PINonh=be where?
'Where are the cows that didn't fall?'

Further examples are in (498). In (498b-c) the object proclitics are human 3 Sg á and human 3 Pl áàn ${ }^{n}$, not their $n$-initial variants ná and náà, but with the same tones.

[person Rel-Pl] =Link here] [3PlHum Fut go.Ipfv.Neg]
'The people who are here, they won't go.'
b.

| [[kàá | mì] | á | nìní] |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| [[snake | Rel] | 3SgHumObj | bite.Pfv] |
| é $=\varnothing$ |  | mì |  |
| 3 SgNonh |  | where? |  |
| Where | snak | that bit him/he? |  |

c. [[kàá mì-Ø] áà ${ }^{n}$ jínī]
[[snake Rel] 3PlHumObj bite.Pfv]
èe ${ }^{n}=\varnothing \quad$ mì
$3 \mathrm{SgNonh}=\mathrm{be} \quad$ where?
'Where are the snakes that bit them?'

### 14.5.2 Preverbal object relative clause

The object remains in its usual preverbal position, and ends in relative mì.
(499)
a. mā yìgí bà rrí(ī)
1 Sg cow hit.Pfv
'I hit-Past a/the cow.' (< yìgì )
$\begin{array}{llllll}\text { b. } & {\left[\begin{array}{lll}W o & {[y i ̀ g i ́ l} & m i ̀\end{array}\right]} & \text { báPrī }] & \text { é }=\varnothing & \text { mì } \\ {\left[\begin{array}{lll}2 S g & {[\mathbf{c o w}} & \text { Rel }]\end{array} \quad \text { hit.Pfv }\right]} & 3 S g N o n h=b e & \text { where? } \\ \text { 'Where is the cow that you-Sg hit-Past?' }\end{array}$
c. [wó $=\varnothing$ màá jíá] [zàkî̀ mì-né] $=\varnothing=\grave{\varepsilon}$
[2Sg=Ipfv [house Rel] see.Ipfv] [Z Poss-Nom]=be=it.is
'The house that you-Sg see belongs to Zaki.' (< sàá, /mì-nà $=\mathrm{H}=\grave{\varepsilon} /$ )

See also text 2016_02@00:38 ('the story that I will tell') and @ 02:30 ('the hole that I showed you').

Plural objects are in (500).
a. mā yìgì-rá-à ${ }^{n}$ bá?rī(ī)
1Sg cow-Nom-Pl hit.Pfv
'I hit-Past a/the cows.'
$\begin{array}{llllll}\text { b. } & {\left[\begin{array}{lll}\text { Wō } & {[y i ̀ g i ́ ~} & m i ̀-i ̄\end{array}\right]} & \text { báPrī }] & \text { èe } e^{n}=\varnothing & \text { mì } \\ {[2 S g} & {[\text { cow }} & \text { Rel-Pl }] & \text { hit.Pfv }] & 3 P l N o n h=\text { be } & \text { where? } \\ & \text { 'Where are the cows that you-Sg hit-Past?' }\end{array}$

Negative counterparts of singular-object (499a-b) above are (501a-b).
(501)
a. mā yìgí bà̀ŕ $=r \bar{e} ?$
1 Sg cow hit.Pfv=Neg
'I didn't hit a/the cow.' (</bà?rí = rē?/)


Negative counterparts of plural-object (500a-b) are (502a-b).
(502)
a. mā yìgì-rá-à ${ }^{n} \quad$ bá? $\bar{r}=r e \bar{e} ?$
$1 \mathrm{Sg} \quad$ cow-Nom-Pl hit.Pfv=Neg
'I didn't hit a/the cows.' (</bá?rī = rē?/)
 [2Sg [cow Rel-Pl] hit.Pfv=Neg] 3PlNonh=be where? 'Where are the cows that you-Sg didn't hit?'

In elicitation a default (indefinite) nonhuman object, cf. English what I ate, is expressed as 'thing' (503). It may be that headless mì is also possible, cf. §14.3.3 above.
(503) [mā $\left[\begin{array}{ll}s \varepsilon^{n} & m i ̀\end{array}\right]$ kúnī] sìbì-rá $=\varnothing=r \bar{\varepsilon} ?$
[1Sg [thing Rel] eat.meal.Pfv] meat-Nom=be=Neg
'What I ate wasn't meat.'

### 14.5.3 Possessor relative clause

A possessor may be relativized on. (504a) has a possessed NP as subject. In (504b) the possessor ('man') is relativized on. This is distinct from relativizing on the entire possessed NP with the possessum 'house' as NP-head (504c).
$\begin{array}{llll}\text { a. } & {\left[\begin{array}{lll}{[\text { dīgín }} & \text { mí] } & \text { sàá }]\end{array} \begin{array}{l}\text { bèz } \\ \\ \\ \\ \\ \\ \text { 'Than }\end{array} \quad \text { Dem }\right]} & \text { house }] & \text { fall.Pfv }\end{array}$
b. [[dīgíñ mǐ] sàá bè ] mì
[man Rel] house fall.Pfv.SbjFoc] 3SgHum=be where?
'Where is the man whose house fell?'
c. [[dīgíñ mí] sàa mì b̄̄̄] é= $\quad \begin{array}{llll} & \text { mì }\end{array}$ [man Dem] house Rel fall.Pfv.SbjFoc] 3SgNonh=be where? 'Where is this man's house that fell?'

It isn't immediately clear from these examples whether or not the 'house' has normal possessum tones in (504b) as it clearly has in (504a) and (504b). This is because the LH-tones in sàá could either reflect the / $\mathrm{LH} /$ tone overlay on possessums (after 3 Sg possessor), or be due to tone sandhi (Final Tone-Raising, i.e. LL\#L-to-LH\#L before L-toned relative mì).

The situation is clarified in (505a-b). Unpossessed 'father' is $j \dot{\varepsilon}$-ná including the nominal
 '(the) man' is relativized on, 'father' reverts to its lexical (unpossessed) tones (505b).
a. dīgíní jè-ná
man father-Nom
'(the) man's father' (< dīkínī~ dīgínī )
b. [[dígín mì] jé-n= é wèè] á= $=\varnothing$ mì
[[man Rel] father-Nom 3SgNonh go.Pfv] 3SgNonh=be where? 'Where is the man whose father went away?' (</jé-ná è/)

In other words, relativizing on the possessor breaks the normal (tono-)syntactic bond between possessor and possessum. This conclusion is supported by the tone of the main verb in (504b) above, $b \grave{\varepsilon}$ (trimmed from regular perfective $b \grave{\varepsilon} \dot{\varepsilon}$ ), compare the subject-focus perfective $b \bar{\varepsilon}$ in $(504 c)$. The difference is that the whole possessed NP is relative head in (504c) while only the possessor is relative head in (504b).

### 14.5.4 Postverbal object or adverb relative clause

A postnominal NP (object or adverb) may also be relativized on. In (506), a manner adverbial noun is the head
jàlsà-dù sé?É $\quad$ [sè $\mathrm{cè}$-cógō mì]

Blédougou sit.Pfv [sit.VblN-manner Rel]
'(I ask you about) the way Blédougou was settled.' (2016_01@ 00:02)

See also text 2016_04@00:44 ('a way [for him/her] to get him/her’).

### 14.5.5 Relativization on the complement of a postposition

The NP complement of a postposition may be relativized on. Main clause (507a) has an instrumental PP. The postposition has its +3 Sg tonal form ( $d \grave{\varepsilon}$ ) since the complement is a regular singular noun ('ax'). In (507b) the complement NP is relativized on. The relative morpheme intervenes between this NP and the postposition itself. The postposition then takes its -3 Sg tonal form ( $d \varepsilon$ ).

| a. mùr̀un | $g b a ̄ a ́$ | bègé | [jéné | de] |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 1P1 | stick | cut.Pfv | [ax | with] |

'We chopped the wood with an ax.'
b. [mùhù ${ }^{n}$ gbāá bègé [jéné mì] dé]]
$[1 \mathrm{Pl}$ stick cut.Pfv [[ax Rel] with]]
é $=\varnothing \quad$ mì
3SgNonh=be where?
'Where is the ax with which we chopped the wood.'

Further examples are (484b).
For spatiotemporal adverbial relative clauses of this structure, see $\S 15.4 .1$ (temporal) and §15.5.1 (spatial).

## 15 Multi-verb constructions and adverbial clauses

### 15.1 Auxiliary-like constructions with aspectual value

Some constructions combine a regular VP denoting an eventuality type with what appears to be another verb in auxiliary function. The sense is aspectual in a broad sense (including perfect).
kú and tó precede the main VP, while dú follows it.

### 15.1.1.1 Durative inceptive kú 'begin, set about' plus imperfective

A durative inceptive construction with kú after the subject, followed by an imperfective VP but without the imperfective subject enclitic $/ \mathrm{H}+=\varnothing /$, is common in narrative. It indicates the onset and extended duration, often also high energy level, of a purposeful activity. Contextual translations are 'begin' and 'set about (doing)', cf. French se mettre à, depending on whether the emphasis is on the onset or the continuation of the activity. Typical contexts are setting off (on a long walk), weeping, and digging a pit.
kú has no transparent relationship to any regular verb, though it has some phonological similarity to kò̀ 'give'. kú may also be followed by a noun denoting an activity; see (206) in §6.5.2 ('hunting').

The pronominal paradigm of 'begin (extended) weeping' is (508). The form is kú, except $k \bar{u}$ by M -Spreading after an M-toned subject pronominal (508a). The absence of L-toned \#kù after a +3 Sg NP suggests that kú is not a true verb. The imperfective intransitive verb has its regular tonal form.
$\qquad$ begin (extended) weeping'
a. $1 \mathrm{Sg} \quad$ mā kū jiímàà

2Sg wō kū jiímàà
$2 \mathrm{Pl} \quad \bar{e} \bar{e}^{n}$ kū jiímàà
b. $1 \mathrm{Pl} \quad$ mù?ù ${ }^{n}$ kú jiímàà

3SgHum à kú jîímàà
3SgNonh è kú jî́màà
3PlHum ààn kú jiímàà
3PlNonh èèn ${ }^{n}$ ku jiímàà
$\begin{array}{ll}\text { c. 'the child' } & \text { dí-rá kú jiímàà } \\ & \text { 'the children' } \\ \text { dí-rá-àn } \text { kú jìímàà }\end{array}$

A textual example is (509). Here the verb is transitive.

| [[kı̀rò | $1 \grave{\square}]$ |  | bélé] |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| [ [elder.brother |  |  | pass.A |  |
| [è | kú | [yálā | mí] | sìnà] |
| [3SgNonh | begin | [hole | Dem] | dig.Ipf |

'Elder brother warthog moved over and began digging that hole' (2016_02@ 03:20)

This construction is stylistically marked ans is very common in tales. See also (554), (568), text 2016_02@ 01:24, @ 01:28, @ 01:54, @ 02:05, @ 02:56 and text 2016_04@ 00:06, @ 00:39, @01:57, and @ 03:42.

In text 2016_02@03:39, a kú construction is repeated verbatim to emphasize extended duration ('he was digging, he was digging').

For simple 'begin (something)' or 'begin (doing)' with no emphasis on duration or energy level, the verb dàà-só?ó is used (§17.4.7). For simple 'keep (doing)' after the onset has already been presented, see the following section.

### 15.1.1.2 tóś (túú ) 'stay' as continuative auxiliary ('keep doing')

The verb 'stay, remain (somewhere)' is tós (cited in the imperfective). In the relevant adjoined constructions it occurs with variants including +ATR tòò ~ tóó and tùù ~ túú. It can be used abstractly to emphasize extended duration of a situation. (510) is a typical example of a narrative filler after a situation has been described, preceding the next foregrounded event. The human 3 Sg counterpart is à tú = ú yààlà $(\bar{a})$ with the same H -toned adjoined verb form túú. Here yààlà(ā), attested in my data only in this example, apparently has the same tonal and vocalic effect as nàà 'here' and dè 'there' on the preceding word .


An example with tóó is (373c).
A construction with the 'stay' verb plus a second clause is the best way to translate 'still' (positive) or '(not) yet' (negative). The second clause usually seems to be a kind of perfective clause, but with some features of clause adjunction, especially with respect to the pronominal subject (when coindexed to the first subject). The pronominal second subject is subject to contraction and is recoverable only by its ATR effect (tóó $\rightarrow$ tóó) and/or by its tonal effect on the adjoined verb. In some examples the second subject seems to be completely absent.
a. $\quad$ é $=\varnothing$
[3SgNonh
[à tóó] [wèè kéé $=$ rē?]
[3SgHum stay.Adjn] [health be.healthy.Pfv]=Neg
'Up to today (=even now), he/she's still sick.'
b.. zàk

Z stay.Adjn [3SgHum come.Pfv=Neg]
'Zaki hasn't come yet.' = 'Zaki still hasn't come.' (</tóó à/)
c. zàkîı tóś $\quad \varnothing \quad$ kūm $\bar{\varepsilon} \varepsilon \quad k u ̌ n]=n \bar{e} ?$

Z stay.Adjn [3SgHum meal eat.Pfv]=Neg
'Zaki hasn't eaten (a meal) yet.' (/kùní= nē?/)
d. à̀à

3PlHum
tó $=$
$\left[\grave{j}^{n}\right.$
$s \varepsilon ́ \varepsilon=r \bar{\varepsilon} \bar{\varepsilon}]$
come. $\mathrm{Pfv}=\mathrm{Neg}$ ]
'They haven't come yet.'
e. mā tóó $[\varnothing \quad s \grave{\varepsilon} \grave{\varepsilon}=r \bar{\varepsilon}$ ? $]$
$1 \mathrm{Sg} \quad$ stay.Adjn $\quad[(1 \mathrm{Sg}) \quad$ come.Pfv=Neg]
'I haven't come yet.'

See also (556a-b), with 1 Sg subject, but in one case pseudo-reflexive (hence with 1 Sg reflexive $\bar{a}^{n}$ ) resulting in tó $=\bar{\sigma}^{n}$, the other a regular transitive, with + ATR tóo hinting at an earlier adjoined *tóó ìn.

The 'stay' verb can also be added before the kú construction described in the preceding section. The sense is 'keep VP-ing' (512).
(512) [àà ${ }^{n}$ tóó] [(à)à ${ }^{n}$ kú dòó màà]
[3PlHum stay.Adjn] [3PlHum begin dance(n) do.Ipfv]
[àà ${ }^{n}$ tóó] [(à)à ${ }^{n}$ kú cíí-ná-à ${ }^{n}$ contrôler ],
[3PlHum stay.Adjn] [3PlHum begin breast-Nom-Pl check]
'They (=the people) kept dancing. They (=girl and young man) kept checking their
(=the women's) breasts.' (2016_04@01:57) (< dòò )
tós 'stay' may also occur with a verbal-noun complement. In this case, tùùu ~ túú is followed by a syllabic extension ni that continues the same tone (tùùnì ~ túúní) (513a-c). I interpret this as a stative (non-aspect-marking) form of the otherwise active (aspect-marking) verb tóó. See §11.2.4.2 for statives of stance/position verbs that end in ní.

[^3]

### 15.1.1.3 Experiential perfect 'have ever' (dú )

The sense 'have (ever)' is expressed by dú following another VP. The subject is followed by the imperfective enclitic $/ \mathrm{H}+=\varnothing /$, reflecting the fact that an experiential perfect denotes a state extending into the present. The main verb looks like a verbal noun in most cases, so the construction may be compared to those described in $\S 17.4$ below. However, the verb may really be a perfective, with $C_{v v}$ stems undergoing vocalic changes before dú like those they undergo before several other clause-final elements. A preceding object noun is not incorporated into the verb (514a-b).
a. wó= $\varnothing \quad g b a ̆ n \quad j i ̀ l / k p e ̀ e^{n} /$ bèè $/$ sànì $/ b a ̀ 2 r r(i) \quad d u ́=w \grave{~}$
$2 \mathrm{Sg}=\mathrm{Ipfv} \quad$ elephant see./kill./put.down./buy./hit.Pfv $\quad \operatorname{ExpPf}=\mathrm{Q}$
'Have you-Sg ever seen/killed an elephant?' (<gbàn $)$


' $\mathrm{I} /$ They have (once) seen/killed a fish.'
$\begin{array}{llll}\text { c. } \begin{array}{lll}\text { á }=\varnothing & \text { mà } & \text { bápr } \\ \text { 3SgHum=Ipfv } & \text { 1Sg } & \text { hit.Pfv }\end{array} & \text { Ex́ } \\ \text { ExpPf }\end{array}$
' $\mathrm{He} /$ She has (once) hit me.'
$\begin{array}{lllll}\text { d. } & \text { má }=\varnothing & \text { sàá } & \text { sè̀ } & \text { dú } \\ & 1 \mathrm{Sg}=\mathrm{Ipfv} & \text { house } & \text { build.Pfv } & \text { ExpPf }\end{array}$
'I have (once) built a house.'
e. má $=\varnothing$ sàà-rá-àn ${ }^{n}$ séé dú
$1 \mathrm{Sg}=\mathrm{Ipfv}$ hosue build.Pfv ExpPf
'I have (once) built some houses.'

As the paradigm of 'have (ever) ascended' in (515) shows, the form of the verb plus dú is invariant for subject category in intransitive positive clauses. The final M-tone in sidán (apocopated < sidánī ) is evidence for perfective rather than verbal-noun form (cf. verbal noun sìdánì ).

|  | $\begin{equation*} 1 \mathrm{Sg} \tag{515} \end{equation*}$ | $m a ́=\varnothing$ <br> $m u ̀ ? u^{n}=\varnothing$ | sìdán̄ <br> sìdáñ | ${ }^{\text {t }} \text { dú }$ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| b. | 2Sg | $w o ́=\varnothing$ | sìdán | 'dú |
|  | 2 Pl | $\bar{e} \bar{e}^{n}=\varnothing$ | sìdáñ | 'dú |
| c. | 3SgHum | $\underline{a}=\varnothing$ | sìdáñ | 'dú |
|  | 3PlHum | àan $^{\prime}=\varnothing$ | sìdáñ | ${ }^{\text {t }}$ dú |
| d. | 3SgNonh | é= $\varnothing$ | sidáñ | 'dú |
|  | 3PINonh | $\dot{\text { èe }}{ }^{n}=\varnothing$ | sìdáñ | 'dú |

Negative versions add the usual clause-final negative enclitic. The imperfective subject enclitic is now absent, as seen clearly in (516b). Human 3Pl ààn in (516a) reflects regular Final Tone-Raising, while H-toned human 3 Sg á in (516a) is attributable to a more restricted version of that rule that also applies in some contractions; see discussion in §10.2.3 and at the end of §3.8.3.1.
a.

| ààn/á | sìdán | dú $=r \bar{e} ?$ |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| 3PlHum / 3SgHum | ascend.Pfv | ExpPf=Neg |

'They have/He-or-she has not ever gone up.'
b. ààn $/$ à yípé jiì $\quad d u ́=r e ̄ ?$
3PlHum / 3SgHum fish see.Pfv ExpPf=Neg
'They have/He-or-she has not ever seen a fish.'

### 15.1.1.4 tàà ~ táá with 'arrive'

This auxiliary is attested only in perfective clauses with following cì 'arrived'. I can detect little semantic difference between forms with and without tàà ~ táá. Etymologically, tàà ~ táá may be a contraction of the adjoined (and imperfective) verb tá?á 'go’, see (85) in §3.9, but if so the two forms of 'go' have diverged synchronically. A further difficulty is that the form cié could be parsed as either a perfective or an adjoined verb (or for that matter an imperfective, which however wouldn't fit the context)..


| b. | à | tàà |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
|  | cì́ |  |
| 3SgHum | go(?) | arrive.Pfv |

One possibility is that tàà-cié $\sim$ táá-ciè is now a compound verb.

### 15.1.1.5 sí in interrogatives

This element occurs in a text in a clause ending with tag question marker $k \grave{\varepsilon}$ (518). It follows the subject, like future sà. The latter occurs in combinations like $s i ́=i ̀$ when contracted with following object pronouns. However, both the form and the sense of the two morphemes are divergent. I gloss sí provisionally as "Q" in interlinears since it is attested only in a question.

| (518) | è | Sí | $w o ̄$ | ká | $k \grave{\varepsilon}$ |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
|  | 3SgNonh | Q | 2 Sg | have | tagQ |

'You-Sg must have it, don't you?' (2016_04@ 03:12)

The context is that one woman is interrogating another woman concerning a stolen item. (518) amounts to an accusation that the addressee stole the item and still has it in her possession. My assistant offered a negative counterpart (519).

| (519) | è | Sí | $w o ̄$ | $k a ́=r=a ̀$ | $k \grave{\varepsilon}$ |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
|  | 3SgNonh | Q | 2 Sg | have $=\mathrm{Neg}=\mathrm{Q}$ | $\operatorname{tagQ}$ |

### 15.2 Clause adjunction

In this type of multi-verb construction, a regular main clause with normal TAM marking is followed (often without a prosodic break) by an adjoined clause. The latter has a) a reduced subject pronoun coindexed to the subject of the first clause, and b) an adjoined (".Adjn") form of the verb that is not marked for TAM category. Contractions are common between the final vowel of the first verb and the pronominal subject of the adjoined clause, which is normally vowel-initial, see (525) below. The contractions can obscure the underlying representations especially of the adjoined subject pronominal. There is also occasionally a complementizer à at the beginning of the second clause. It too gets involved in vocalic contractions, and it is not always possible to determine whether it is present.

The two clauses can denote either co-events belonging to a single complex event (as in 'fall' plus 'descend' meaning 'fall down'), or sequenced events (as in 'go and come back').

### 15.2.1 Forms of verbs and subject pronouns in adjunctions

### 15.2.1.1 Adjoined verb form in the second (adjoined) clause

The verb in the adjoined clause in this construction is segmentally identical to the imperative, which in some cases involves trimming a final vowel in comparison to the imperfective. However, adjoined and imperative verbs may differ tonally.

The relationship between intransitive adjoined verbs and the primary TAM-marked mainclause intransitive forms are presented in (520). For intransitives, the tonal form of adjoined verbs is invariant; it does not depend on the +3 Sg versus -3 Sg status of the preceding subject proclitic. Intransitive imperatives are M-toned (520a-b) except for stems that have a lexical H-tone medially (520c). By contrast, intransitive adjoined verbs are either H- or L-toned (following the lexical tone in the imperfective).
(520) Form of verb in adjoined clause (intransitive)
Pfv -3Sg Ipfv Imprt adjoined gloss

| a. $\frac{\text { ćé }}{}$ | sáá | $s \bar{a}$ | sá | 'come' |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| bóย์ | bóó | $b \bar{\square}$ | bó | 'exit' |
| só ${ }^{\text {c }}$ | sóś | $s \bar{\square}$ | só | 'enter' |
| bé $\varepsilon$ | bàà | bà | bà | 'fall' |
| b. búlī | búló | $b u ̄ 1 \bar{u}$ | búlú | 'return' |
| c. já?ánī | jàPánà | jà2án | $j a ̀$ à ${ }^{n}$ | 'descend' |
| sídánī | sìdánà | sìdá( ${ }^{n}$ ) | sìdà( ${ }^{n}$ ) | 'ascend' |
| fídī | fìdéè | fìdí | fìdì | 'run' |

Adjoined forms of OV transitives are in the rightmost columns of (521) below. They are tonally sensitive to $+3 \mathrm{Sg} /-3 \mathrm{Sg}$ split in preceding objects, like transitives in all other TAM categories. They are segmentally identical to imperatives. In fact, the only difference between imperative and adjoined transitives is that the +3 Sg form of imperatives has LH-tones while the +3 Sg adjoined form is L-toned.

| Pfv | Ipfv | Imprt |  | adjoined |  | gloss |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| +3Sg | $+3 \mathrm{Sg}$ | $+3 \mathrm{Sg}$ | $-3 \mathrm{Sg}$ | $+3 \mathrm{Sg}$ | -3Sg |  |
| dòní | dònò | $d \check{c o}^{n}$ | $d 0^{n}$ | $d \grave{j}^{n}$ | $d o^{n}$ | 'eat (meat)' |
| bùgú | bùgò | bùgú | búgú | bùgù | búgú | 'skin (animal)' |
| sàní | sànà | sǎn | sá ${ }^{n}$ | sà ${ }^{n}$ | sá ${ }^{n}$ | 'buy' |
| tò?rí | tò?rò | tò?rí | tórrí | tòPrì | tórrí | 'sell' |

The short vowels in adjoined verbs like sá 'come' (520a) and $d \grave{j}^{n} \sim d \delta^{n}$ 'eat meat' (521) are unmistakable when the negative enclitic is added: $s a ́=r \bar{\varepsilon} ?, d \grave{\jmath}=n \bar{\varepsilon} p \sim d o ́=n \bar{\varepsilon} ?$.

Examples of adjoined verbs occur in various sections of this chapter.
15.2.1.2 Form of the verb in the first (main) clause

The first verb in the adjunction structure has a regular TAM form, for example perfective. However, in addition to $v V$-Contraction, a tonal modification is observed if the stem has no more than two syllables ( $C v v, C v C v$ ). In simple clauses, human and nonhuman +3 Sg subject pronouns control an $\{\mathrm{LH}\}$ overlay on an immediately following verb: à bè $\varepsilon$ 'he/she fell', è $b \grave{\varepsilon} \varepsilon ́$ 'it fell', à fìdí 'he/she ran', è fìdí 'it ran'. All -3Sg pronominal categories begin with H-tone, e.g. béé and fídī. In clause adjunctions, the first verb usually contracts with the reduced subject of the adjoined clause. The $\{\mathrm{LH}\}$ overlay on the first verb after +3 Sg subjects then appears to disappear with verbs of one or two moras, and the first verb ends up with initial H-tone ( $b \dot{\varepsilon}=$, fídī $=$ ), just as it does after -3 Sg subjects. For example, 'run' has the same tones with nonhuman 3 Sg subject in (522a) as it does with the corresponding plural subject in (522b).
a. [è fíd $=] \quad[i ̀$
[3SgNonh run.Pfv] [3SgNonh
só]
'It (=animal) ran in.' (</è fidí è só/)
b. [è̀ ${ }^{n} \quad$ fíd $\left.=\right] \quad\left[i \grave{i}{ }^{n} \quad\right.$ só $]$
[3PlNonh run.Pfv] [3PlNonh enter.Adjn]
'They (=animals) ran in.'

This looks at first sight like a categorial merger of +3 Sg with -3 Sg verb forms, but it isn't. It results from Leftward H-Shift (§3.8.3.7), which applies to the +3 Sg forms. That no categorial merger is involved is seen clearly when the first verb in the adjunction is trisyllabic. In (523a-b), +3Sg sìdánī 'ascended’ remains tonally distinct from -3 Sg sídánī as first verbs in adjunctions.

|  | [è | sìdán $=$ ] | [1́ | $j a ̀$ à ${ }^{n}$ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | [3SgNonh | ascend.Pfv] | [3SgNonh | descend.Adjn] |
|  | 'It (=animal) went up and came (back) down.' |  |  |  |
|  | [mù ${ }^{\text {a }}{ }^{n}$ | sídánì = ] | [ín | jà ${ }^{\text {à }}{ }^{n}$ ] |
|  | [1P1 | ascend.Pfv] | [1P1 | descend.Adjn] |
|  | 'We went up and came (back) down.' |  |  |  |

### 15.2.1.3 Form of coindexed second subject pronoun in adjoined clause

The adjoined subject pronoun usually contracts with the final vowel of the first verb, as in (524a) and other examples above and below. Except in artificially deliberate speech style, only a few vocalic sequences like $i$ a are uncontracted (524b).
a. [wō bé=] [é jà ${ }^{2}{ }^{n}$ ]
[2Sg fall.Pfv] [2Sg descend.Adjn] 'You-Sg fell down.' ([béé ē])

| b. $\mathrm{a}_{\text {à }}{ }^{\text {a }}$ | fídī] | $\left[(\hat{a}) \mathrm{a}^{n}\right.$ | só] |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| [3P1Hum | run.PPfv] | [3PlHum | enter.Adjn] |
| 'They ran |  |  |  |

Allowing for vv -Contraction, we can account for surface forms of adjunctions with third person subjects by positing the usual 3 Sg and 3 Pl subject proclitics before the adjoined verb, e.g. human 3 Pl àa ${ }^{n}$ in (524b) and nonhuman 3 Sg è in (522a) above. However, this does not work for $1 \mathrm{st} / 2$ nd person subjects, which have a special set of subject proclitics for adjoined verbs.
(525) proposes underlying forms for adjoined subject proclitics and shows some of the forms they take in contractions. Rounded-vowel variants are due to assimilation from nonfinal vowels in the first verb, e.g. búl = ú from /búlī é/ and búl=ò from /búlī à/ in (527a-e) below, see also (536).
(525)

Adjoined subject proclitic

| category | in adjoined clause <br> typical forms <br> underlying | in main clause |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |


| a. $\begin{aligned} 1 \mathrm{Sg} \\ 1 \mathrm{Pl}\end{aligned}$ | $=(i) n,=(\hat{u}) n$ |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | $=(i) n,=(\hat{u}) n$ | /ì̀n/ | mù ${ }^{\text {un }}{ }^{n}$ |
| b. 2 Sg | $=1,{ }_{\text {l }}=$ ú | /é + M/ | ${ }^{\text {wo}}$ |
| 2 Pl | $=\hat{i}^{n},=u^{n}$ | /één $+\mathrm{M} /$ | $\bar{e} \bar{e}^{n}$ |
| c. 3 HumSg | $=\mathrm{a}$, $=$ ò | /à | à |
| 3 HumPl | $=\grave{a}^{n},=\grave{j}^{n}$ | /àà ${ }^{\text {/ }}$ | àà ${ }^{n}$ |
| d. 3 NonhSg | $=i$, $=$ ù | /è/ | è |
| 3 NonhPl | $=i^{n},=\grave{u}^{n}$ | /è̀ ${ }^{\text {/ }}$ | è̀è ${ }^{n}$ |

Some observations:
a. Underlying vowel-length is usually masked by contraction;
b. 1 Sg and 1 Pl have unique suppletive forms /in/ and/ìn/ with final nasal consonant (not just vowel nasalization) and a high (+ATR) vowel that is often not overt;
c. The ATR split in this paradigm is therefore -ATR human third person versus +ATR for all others (1st/2nd plus nonhuman third);
d. 2 Sg has a suppletive form /é/, segmentally similar to $\bar{e}$ as 2 Sg reflexive possessor or pseudo-reflexive object;
e. $2 \mathrm{Sg} / 2 \mathrm{Pl}$ forms are H -toned, not M-toned as elsewhere, but they come with a floating M -tone that drops a following H-tone on the adjoined verb to M (but does not affect a following L-tone);
f. The usual +3 Sg versus -3 Sg tonal effect on the adjoined verb is absent $(3 \mathrm{Sg}$ subject, like 3 Pl and first person, allows following L- or H-tones)

The second-person floating M can be seen at work in the (a) and (b) examples in (527-9). In (527) the focus is on the tones of yípé 'fish' and kúmání 'sparrow', which remain H-toned in (527d-e) even after +3 Sg pronoun, but drop to M-toned /yī? $\overline{\mathrm{e}} /$ and /kūmānī/ in (527a-c). The M-tones of the final syllables then undergo Final Tone-Raising before the L-toned verb in (527a-b).
a. [wō búl=] [ú yị̄é/kūmāní dì ${ }^{n}$ ]
[2Sg return.Pfv] [2Sg fish / sparrow eat.meat.Adjn] 'You-Sg again ate a fish.' (/búlī é/, yî?é, kúmání)
b. [ $\left[\bar{e} \bar{e}^{n} \quad\right.$ búlú $\left.=\right] \quad\left[i^{n} \quad y i ̄ ? e ́ / k u ̄ m a ̄ n i ́ ~ d \grave{~ n}\right]$
[2P1 return.Pfv] [2Pl fish/sparrow eat.meat.Adjn]
'You-Pl again ate a fish/sparrow.'
c. $\left[\bar{e} \bar{e}^{n} \quad\right.$ búlúlú $] \quad\left[i^{n} \quad\right.$ yī?ē-rá-à $\left.{ }^{n} \quad d \delta^{n}\right]$
[2Pl return.Pfv] [2Pl fish-Nom-Pl eat.meat.Adjn]
'You-Pl again ate fishes.'
d. $[a ̀ ~ b u ́ l=] \quad[\grave{~ y i ̀ p e ́ ~ / ~ k u ́ m a ́ n i ́ ~ d \grave{n}}$ ]
[3SgHum return=] [3SgHum fish/sparrow eat.meat.Adjn]
'He/She again ate a fish/sparrow.'
e. $\left[\right.$ à búl=] [ò yípé-rá-à $\left.{ }^{n} \quad d o^{n}\right]$
[3SgHum return=] [3SgHum fish-Nom-Pl eat.meat.Adjn]
'He/She again ate fish-Pl.'

In (528) below, observe the tones of the adjoined verb 'touch'. With non-2nd person subject (528c), the adjoined form of this verb is bá?rí (or bá?r by Apocope). When the subject is 2 Sg (528a) or $2 \mathrm{Pl}(528 b)$, the floating M-tone fills only the first syllable of báprí~ bápf́, resulting in bāprí ~bā?f́. On this evidence, the way the floating M is applied differs from noun (527) to verb (528).
a. [wō búl= [ú bā? $=$ úr mā-n]
[2Sg return.Pfv] [2Sg touch.Adjn 1 Sg -Indep]] 'You-Sg again touched me.'
b. [ēē ${ }^{n}$ búlúú=] [ín bā? ${ }^{n} \hat{r}$ mā-n]
[2P1 return.Pfv] [2Pl touch.Adjn 1Sg-Indep] 'You-Pl again touched me.'
c. [à búl=] [ò bápf́ mā-n]
[3SgHum return.Pfv=] [3SgHum touch.Adjn 1 Sg -Indep]
'He/She again touched me.'
(529) shows how H-toned adjoined sá 'come' (529c) drops to M-toned sā after second-person subject ( $529 \mathrm{a}-\mathrm{b}$ ). The distinction is easy to hear when negative $=r \bar{\varepsilon} ?$ is added.
a. [wō búl $=] \quad[u ́ \quad s \bar{a}(=r \bar{\varepsilon} ?)]$
[2Sg return.Pfv] [2Sg come.Adjn(=Neg)]
'You-Sg again came/didn't again come.'
b. [ $\bar{e} \bar{e}^{n} \quad$ búlú $\left.=\right] \quad\left[i^{n} \quad s \bar{a}(=r \bar{\varepsilon} ?)\right]$
[2Pl return.Pfv] [2Pl come.Adjn(=Neg)]
'You-Pl again came/didn't again come.'"


In deliberate speech, including "informant-ese," the adjoined clause may be upgraded to its normal main-clause form, e.g. with 1 Pl mù̀ $\mathrm{Y}^{n}$ instead of (i)n. This seems to have happened in (537c) in § 15.2.2.3.

### 15.2.1.4 Complementizer à 'that' in clause adjunctions

Complementizer à occurs in occurs in factive complements of 'hear (that ...)' (§17.1.3.1) and in quoted clauses 'said (that ...)' (§17.2.1). It is not usually present at the beginning of an adjoined clause. However, it can be difficult to determine whether it is present, since this position is rife with vocalic contractions. Consider (530).

| [mā | só | dí-kp $\left.\mathrm{E}^{2} r-\mathrm{a}-\mathrm{a}^{n}-n=\right]$ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 1Sg | help.Pfv | child-young-Nom-Pl-Indep] |
| [ā | àá ${ }^{n}$ | sìdà] |
| [that | 3PlHum | ascend.Adjn] |

'I helped the children go up.'

The relevant input can plausibly be taken to be $/ \ldots-$ àn-àn $^{n}$-nū à àà ${ }^{n}$ sìdà/. This portion is heard as [àànāàán ${ }^{n}$ ìdà], and the rather long [āàán ${ }^{n}$ in the middle is compatible with the presence of à 'that' before the second subject.

The reason that I suspect the presence of complementizer à in (530) is that the verb 'help' does have à in other similar examples, see (537a-d) in §15.2.2.3. However, it would be unwise to extrapolate from 'help' to other adjunction constructions, since those with 'help' involve a subject switch at the clause boundary while other constructions require same subjects.

### 15.2.2 Clause adjunction expressing a single complex event

### 15.2.2.1 Adjoined co-event clauses

In (531a), the first clause 'he/she fell' is quickly followed by adjoined 'he/she descended', pronounced with no prosodic break. The adjoined subject proclitic contracts with the final vowel of the first verb. (531b) has the same content except for 1 Sg subjects.
a. $[a ̀$ bá $]$ jà jàجàn ${ }^{n}$ [yí dù] [3SgHum fall.Pfv] [3SgHum descend.Adjn] [water in] 'He/She fell down into the water.' (</à bě à jà?àn/)

| b. [mă | $b e ́=]$ | [ì | jà $\left.{ }^{\text {a }}{ }^{n}\right]$ | [yí | dù] |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| [1Sg | fall.Pfv] | [!Sg | descend.Adjn] | [water | in] | 'I fell down into the water.' (</mā bé ìn jà?àn/ )

In this construction, the two clauses denote co-events, i.e. different aspects of what is conceptualized as a single event. In many such combinations the second verb denotes direction of motion while the first verb denotes a more general action.

A pronominal-subject paradigm for this verb pairing is in (532), omitting the final PP 'into the water'. Leftward H-Shift (§3.8.3.7) has applied to $/ \mathrm{b} \varepsilon /$ in the 3 Sg subject cases (532c).

| a. | 1 Sg |  | bé= | (i) $\grave{n}$ | $j a ̀ ̀ a a^{n}$ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | 1 Pl | mùpù ${ }^{\text {n }}$ | bé= | (i) $\grave{n}$ | $j a ̀$ à ${ }^{n}$ |
| b. | 2 Sg | Wō | bé = | é | $j a ̀$ à ${ }^{n}$ |
|  | 2 Pl | $\bar{e} \bar{e}^{n}$ | $b e ́=$ | (é) $e^{n}$ | $j a ̀ 2 a^{n}$ |
| c. | 3SgHum | à | bá= | à | $j a ̀$ àn ${ }^{\text {n }}$ |
|  |  | (variant | $b \varepsilon=$ | $\grave{\varepsilon}$ ) |  |
|  | 3PlHum | àà ${ }^{n}$ | bá= | (à) $\grave{a}^{n}$ | $j a ̀$ à ${ }^{n}$ |
| d. | 3 SgNonh | è | $b e ́=$ | è | $j a ̀ a^{n}{ }^{\text {a }}$ |
|  | 3PINonh | èè ${ }^{n}$ | bé= | (è) $\grave{e}^{n}$ | $j a ̀$ àa ${ }^{\text {n }}$ |

Similar combinations of 'run' with 'enter' are in (533a-b).
a.
[3SgHum run.Pfv] [3SgHum
só]
'He/She ran in.' (</à fidí à só/ )
b. [mā
fíd $=] \quad$ [ìn
[1Sg run.Pfv] [1Sg
'I ran in.' (</mā fídī à ${ }^{\text {n }}$ só/) só]
enter.Adjn]

The full pronominal paradigm is (534). Again, Leftward H-Shift (§3.8.3.7) has applied to /fîdí/ in (534c).
a. 1 Sg mā fíd $=$ ìn só
1Pl mù? ${ }^{n}$ fíd $=$ ìn só
b. $2 \mathrm{Sg} \quad$ wō fíd $=\quad i ́ \quad s \bar{o} \quad</$ wō fídī é +M só/
(uncontracted variant wō fídī é sō)
$2 \mathrm{Pl} \quad \bar{e} \bar{e}^{n} \quad$ fíd $=\quad(\hat{1}) 1^{n} \quad s \bar{\jmath}$
(uncontracted variant wō fídī één ${ }^{n} s \bar{o}$ )
c. 3SgHum à fíd $=$ è só </à fìdí à só/
3PlHum à̀à fídī (à)à ${ }^{n}$ só
d. 3SgNonh è fíd $=$ ì só
3PINonh è̀è ${ }^{n}$ fídī $=\quad$ (ì)ì ${ }^{n}$ só

2 Sg subject is distinguished from nonhuman 3 Sg by the tones of the adjoined subject proclitic and by those of the adjoined verb. Likewise for 2Pl versus nonhuman 3Pl.

### 15.2.2.2 búló ‘return’ plus adjoined clause ('do again’)

The verb búló 'return, go back' (perfective bùlí ~ búlī) may combine with a following adjoined clause of the type described above. In this combination, búló means 'repeat, VP again' with no reference to motion (535b). If motion is in fact involved, it is expressed by the adjoined verb (535a).
a. [à
búl $=$ ]
[̀
sá]
[3SgHum return.Pfv] [3SgHum
come.Adjn]
'He/She came again.' (/à bùlí à sá/)


A pronominal-subject paradigm of ' X came again' is (536). The first verb is again perfective bùlí ~ búlī. The u-vocalism in the first syllable is carried over into the contracted vowels. The restriction of + ATR to human third person is evident. The 3 Sg forms have undergone Leftward H-Shift (§3.8.3.7) from /bùlí/.
a. 1 Sg mā búl= ùn sá
1Pl mù?̀̀n ${ }^{n}$ búl $=$ ùn sá
b. $2 \mathrm{Sg} \quad$ ō $\quad b u ́ l=\quad u ́ \quad s a \bar{u}$
$2 \mathrm{Pl} \quad \bar{e} \bar{e}^{n} \quad$ búl $=\quad$ úún ${ }^{n} \quad s a \bar{a}$
c. 3 SgHum à búl $=$ ò sá </à bùlí à sá/

3PlHum àà ${ }^{n} \quad b u ́ l=\quad(\grave{l}) \grave{j}^{n}$ sá
d. 3 SgNonh è búl $=$ ù sá

3PINonh è̀è ${ }^{n} \quad$ búl $=$ ùùu $^{n}$ sá

### 15.2.2.3 'Help' (sóó ) plus adjoined clause

The verb 'help' in simple clauses takes a postverbal object. This may be expanded by adding an adjoined clause. The adjoined clause may begin with à 'that' (§15.2.1.4), which encliticizes to and contracts with a final $-n \bar{u}$ of pronouns or plural nouns. For example, if there is an internal prosodic break in (537a), it occurs after mā-n $\bar{a}$. The examples in (537) end in adjoined sìdà 'ascend', whose L-tones favor Final Tone-Raising on a preceding morpheme.

| a. | [zàkîî $[\mathrm{Z}$ | só <br> help.Pfv | $\begin{aligned} & m a \bar{a}-\bar{n}] \\ & \text { 1Sg-Indep] } \end{aligned}$ | [ā <br> [that | $\begin{aligned} & n ́ \\ & 1 \mathrm{Sg} \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & \text { sìdà] } \\ & \text { ascend.Adjn] } \end{aligned}$ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 'Zaki helped me go up.' (</mā-nū à (ì)ǹ sìdà/) |  |  |  |  |  |  |
|  | $\begin{aligned} & {[m \bar{a}} \\ & {[1 \mathrm{Sg}} \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & \text { só } \\ & \text { help.Pfv } \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & \text { zàkî̀] } \\ & \text { Z] } \end{aligned}$ | [á= <br> [that= | $\begin{aligned} & \varnothing \\ & 3 \mathrm{SgHum} \end{aligned}$ | sìdà] <br> ascend.Adjn] |
| 'I helped Zaki go up.' (</à à sìdà/) |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| c. | [Wō | só | mù?ú-nú] |  | sìd |  |
|  | [2Sg | help.Pfv | 1Pl-Indep] | [1Pl |  | end.Adjn] |
|  | 'You-Sg helped us go up.' (here with uncontracted second subject) |  |  |  |  |  |

```
d. [mā só dí-kp\varepsilońrr-à-à-n=]
1Sg help.Pfv child-young-Nom-Pl-Indep]
[\overline{a}}\mathrm{ àán }\mp@subsup{}{}{n}\mathrm{ Sìdà]
[that 3PlHum ascend.Adjn]
'I helped the children go up.' (</-à-àn}\mathrm{ -nū à/)
```

'Help' is the only adjoined construction known to me that requires a change in subjects, which may account for the presence of the à complementizer; see §15.2.1.4.

### 15.2.2.4 Adjoined kà?rà ~ ká?rá 'finally VP'

In simple main clauses, kà?rà ~ ká?rá (cited in the imperfective) means 'break, snap (sth)' (transitive) or '(e.g.) stick snap' (intransitive). As an adjoined verb, it combines with the preceding VP to mean 'VP finally' or 'eventually VP', implying a period of time before the event is completed. Two occurrence of ká?rá are in textual passage (538).

| (538) | à | $s \grave{\Sigma}$ | ká?rá | sísà ${ }^{n}$, |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | 3SgHum | come.Pfv | do.finally.Adjn | now, |
|  | à | sè | tóró | ká?rá, |
|  | 3 SgHum | come.Pfv | while | do.finally.Adjn, |
|  | 'She even | lly came | rived). While sh | he was finally co |
|  | The dance | was in progr | s).’(2016_04@ | 03:17) |

See also text 2016_02@03:09, and text 2016_04@03:25.

### 15.2.3 Clause adjunction expressing event sequences

### 15.2.3.1 Simple same-subject event sequences

Two sequenced events with the same agent may combine loosely to form a macro-event. In (539a-b) the first clause happens to be perfective since the macro-event has been completed, but nonperfective versions (e.g. future) are also possible. The second clause has an adjoined verb form that is not specified for tense-aspect (539a). In (539b) the adjoined clause is itself a two-clause adjunction.



Two adjoined clauses occur in the textual passage (540).


In narratives, the adjoined clause type can become a generalized narrative form, not necessarily closely connecting the relevant event to previous events. This is because tenseaspect marking is mostly unnecessary in describing events that are understood to be sequenced in time, as in most narratives. Adjoined clauses therefore compete with simple perfective clauses. In (540) above, the two adjoined clauses represent a restart of the narrative after a false start.

Additional textual examples, not closely tied to a preceding event, are (541a-c). In (541c) I cannot determine whether the French loan commencer is also in adjoined form.
a. cì-ná
búlú [Ø-wò má] sísàāa
hare-Nom=Ipfv return.Adjn [Nonh-3SgFoc on] now 'Thereupon [focus] Hare went back now.' (2016_02 @ 04:59)
$\begin{array}{llc}\text { b. wábáẁ, é } & \text { fìdì } \\ \text { woosh!, } & \text { 3SgNonh } & \text { run.Adjn } \\ & \text { 'Woosh! He ran away.' }\left(2016 \_02 @ 04: 54\right)\end{array}$

In (542a-b), the TAM category, expressed only in the first clause, is future. This has no effect on the form of the adjoined clause, which does not mark TAM.
a. [zàkîi sà tápá] [à búlú]
[Z Fut go.Ipfv] [3SgHum return.Adjn]
'Zaki will go and return (=come back).'


When the subject is a $1 \mathrm{st} / 2$ nd person pronominal, the nonfinal clauses have special vowelinitial forms of the adjoined subject proclitic; see the general paradigm (525) above. There is often not much left phonetically of the proclitic after contraction, but is may determine at least the ATR value of the contracted vowel, as in $(543 \mathrm{c}) .1 \mathrm{Sg}$ and 1 Pl adjoined proclitics are usually indistinguishable (543a-b).
a. [mā tép=] [èn búl=] [ùn sá]
[1Sg go.Pfv] [1Sg return.Adjn] [1Sg come.Adjn]
'I went and came back.' (/mā té?é ìn búlú ìn sá/)
b. [mù?ùn ${ }^{n}$ té? $=$ ] [èn búl=] [ùn sá]
[1P1 go.Pfv] [1Pl return.Adjn] [1P1 come.Adjn]
'We went and came back.'
c. $[w o ̄ ~ t e ́ ? ~=] ~[e ́ ~ b u ̄ l=] ~[u ́ l l ~ s a ̄] ~$
[2Pl go.Pfv] [2Sg return.Adjn] [2Sg come.Adjn]
'You-Sg went and came back.' (</wō té? $\varepsilon$ é é būlū é sā/ )


When the two clauses have OV transitive verbs and share an object, an object often appears just once, before the first verb. In the adjoined clause, this creates an apparent combination of an adjoined subject proclitic immediately followed by a transitive verb without an intervening object, e.g. 'devour, eat meat' in (544a). This appearance is deceptive, since the tonal form of the final adjoined verb is determined by the object category ( +3 Sg versus -3 Sg ). I therefore posit an underlying 3 Sg object in the adjoined clause in each of ( $544 \mathrm{a}-\mathrm{c}$ ). Whether its deletion is due to a regular phonological rule I leave open, compare main clauses á $\varnothing$ bàprí and é $\varnothing$ bà 9 rí in (103a) above. When the object is 3 Pl or $1 \mathrm{st} / 2$ nd person, it can appear overtly in the adjoined clause (544d-e).

[3PlHum meat burn.Pfv] [3PlHum 3SgObj eat.meat.Adjn]
'They roasted and ate the meat.' (</sidàní àà ${ }^{\text {è }}$ dò ${ }^{\mathrm{n}} /$ )
b. $\left[\begin{array}{lllll}a ̀ & \operatorname{sìbí} & \operatorname{sid}(a ̀ n)=]\end{array}\left[\begin{array}{lll}\text { á } & \varnothing & d \grave{o}^{n}\end{array}\right]\right.$
[3AfHum meat burn.Pfv] [3SgHum 3SgObj eat.meat.Adjn]
'He/She roasted and ate the meat.' (</sìdàní à)
c. [mā sà tàgá fòlò-sá] [ń $\varnothing$ [ $\varnothing$ bùgù]
[1Sg Fut sheep slaughter.Ipfv] [1Sg 3SgObj skin(v).Adjn]
'I will slaughter and skin (and butcher) the sheep-Sg.'
d. [à tàgà-rá-à $\left.\grave{a}^{n} \quad \operatorname{sid}(a ̀ n)=\right] \quad\left[a ̀=\quad\right.$ (à) $\left.{ }^{n}{ }^{n} d o^{n}\right]$
[3AfHum sheep-Nom-Pl burn.Pfv] [3SgHum 3PIObj eat.meat.Adjn] 'He/She roasted and ate the sheep-Pl.'


Good examples of two-part macro-events are combinations of antonymic motion verbs, like 'ascend' and 'descend' or 'enter' and 'exit' (545a-b).
a. [zàkî̀ sìdán=] [á jà̀an$\left.{ }^{n}\right]$
[Z ascend.Pfv] [3SgHum descend.Adjn]
'Zaki went up and came (back) down.' (</sìdánī/ )


An adjoined clause may also be added to an imperative first clause (546). (546a) shows the effect on būlū of the floating M after the 2 Sg proclitic. In (546b), dè 'there (definite)' requires an H-toned linking form búl=ú of the preceding word, canceling the floating M-tone from the 2 Sg subject proclitic (§4.4.2.1).


### 15.2.3.2 Adjoined kàà 'leave, abandon'

In main clauses, kàà 'leave, abandon' takes a postverbal object-like NP which is usually followed by a spatial adverb ('here' or 'there'). This verb may also occur in adjoined clauses, in the form kà. The first clause usually has a verb of transportation or positioning (547a-b). The NP denoting the abandoned entityo reappears in pronominal form in the adjoined clause. Final Tone-Raising applies to the proclitic subjects of 'leave' in these examples.

```
a. [mā tò?ó b\grave{\varepsilon}=]
    [1Sg waterjar put.down.Pfv]
    [и́ kè= é-yè =è dè]
    [1Sg leave.Adjn Nonh-3SgObj=Link there.Def]
    'I put down the waterjar and left it there.' (</tò`ò b\varepsiloň/, /ń kà è-yà dè/)
    [è-yà with /a/ }->\mathrm{ ee before dè ]
```

b. $\left.\left[\begin{array}{l}\text { à } t \varepsilon ̀ P \varepsilon ́ ~\end{array} m \bar{a} \quad d \bar{\varepsilon}\right]\right]$
$[3 \mathrm{Sg}$ go.Pfv [1Sg with]]
$\begin{array}{llll}\text { [á } & \text { kà } & m a ̄-\bar{n} & d e ̀]\end{array}$
[3SgHum leave.Adjn 1Sg-Indep there.Def]
'He/She took (=conveyed) me (there) and left me there.'

### 15.2.4 Negation of clause adjunction

When an adjunction construction expressing a single macro-event is negated, there is just one instance of the clause-final negative enclitic, at the end.

| (548) | $[$ à | búl=] | $[\grave{y}$ | sá $]=r \bar{\varepsilon} ?$ |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
|  | $[3 \mathrm{SgHum}$ | return.Pfv $]$ | $[3 \mathrm{SgHum}$ | come.Adjn $]=\mathbf{N e g}$ |

'He/She did not come (back) again.' (/bùlí à sá/)

### 15.3 Verb-verb compounds

### 15.3.1 Verb combinations

If the second verb in an adjunction-like construction is not preceded by even a reduced subject pronominal, so that the two verbs are directly adjacent, we can speak of verb-verb compounds.

In (549), 'run' and 'exit' are adjacent. fìdì is the regular adjoined form for the verb 'run'; here it undergoes regular Final Tone-Raising to fìdí before L-toned bò 'exit'. The unusual feature is the tone of bò, since its normal adjoined form is bó, preserving the lexical H-tone also found in imperfective bóó.

| (549)súrúkú-rò commencer è fìdí | bò |  |  |  |  |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| hyena-Nom | begin |  | $3 S g N o n h$ | run.Adjn | exit.Adjn |

'Hyena began running away.' (2016_02@ 02:27)

No subject pronominal may intervene between fìdí and bò in this construction: èè ${ }^{n}$ fîdí bò 'they (animals) ran away', mùpún fìdí bò 'we ran away'. This appears to be an old adjunction construction that is in the process of becoming a verb-verb compound.

### 15.3.2 Frozen but possibly composite verb stems

Criteria for distinguishing compound intransitive verbs from object-verb collocations are given in $\S 9.6$. There are also many stems that function as simple verbs but that may be at least etymologically composite.

For example, two verbs (one of which has two variants) appear to begin with an element wòlò- ~ wóló-. All forms shown are imperfective.
(550) wòlò-báá 'pick out (selectively)' or 'untangle'
wòlò-máá (variant of wòlò-báá )
wòlò-kónò 'welcome (a guest)' or 'encounter'

The second elements might be related to bàà 'put down', màà 'do', and possibly kónó 'become wide'. There is also a verb wòlònàà 'strip off (leaves)'.

Several inchoative verbs related to adjectives (§9.5) end in -bàà (551).
(551)

| fòlò-bàà | 'go far away' |
| :--- | :--- |
| kùdj̀-bàà | 'become heavy' |
| nغ̀̀े-bàà | 'become bitter' |
| sòjn-bàà | 'become long' |
| tòò-bàà | 'become deep' |

Some other verbs that may be composite, at least etymologically, are in (552).
a. nùPùn ${ }^{n}$-yáà
jùgù-yáà
b. dàà-sò
dàà-só?ó
'be familiar with (place)'
'begin'
c. dá- ${ }^{+k}$ káa $^{n}$
'(sth) finish, end'
dá- ${ }^{\perp}$ kpááa
'die' (cf. kpáán 'die')
d. bèl-màà
dó- ${ }^{\text {tsáá }}$
'treat, care for (medically)'
kù-sóó
'add'
màà-kúmà
'bury’ (kù 'corpse')
mà-dímínà
'get better' (adjective núpún tó )
'become nasty' (adjective júgúyéé tó )
rinse' (cf. kùmà 'make cold')
'wound (sb)' (cf. dìmìní 'hurt (sb)')

### 15.4 Temporal adverbial clauses

15.4.1 Temporal relative clause ('[at] the time when ...')

A temporal noun ('time', 'day', 'year', etc.) may be relativized on (§14.5.5) to produce a temporal adverbial clause ('the time/day/year when ...'). The relevant postposition is optionally present ('at the time / on the day / in the year when ...'). The postposition is present in (553a) but not in (553b).

＇On the day when you－Sg came，I had gone away on a trip．＇（＜té？$\varepsilon$ ）
b．［［n̄̄̄́⿱亠乂匕 mì］［mā nòyó］dè－k $\left.{ }^{n}\right]$
$\left[\begin{array}{ll}{[\text { year }} & \text { Rel }] \quad[1 S g ~ f r i e n d] ~ f i n i s h . P f v] ~\end{array}\right.$
$m \bar{a}$ wál mè̀ $=n \bar{\varepsilon}$ ？
1Sg work（n）do．Pfv＝Neg
＇The year my friend passed away，I didn＇t do any work．＇
（＜n $\bar{\varepsilon} \bar{\varepsilon}$ ，nòǹ̀，wálí）

## 15．4．2 Backgrounded imperfective or progressive clauses

An nonperfective clause may function as background to another without an overt subordinator．Progressive clauses lend themselves well to this background character（554）．

| $[$ zàkîl | $c i ́ z$ | sò－yà $]$ | $[m a ̄$ | kú | bóá $]$ |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| $[\mathrm{Z}$ | be．Past | enter－Prog $]$ | $[1 S g$ | begin | exit．Ipfv $]$ |

＇（As）Zaki was entering，I began to leave．＇

A simple present－tense clause is used in this way in（555）．
（555）má $=\varnothing$ niì màà，$g b \bar{\sigma}-n \overline{\bar{v}}$ sà sóś
$1 \mathrm{Sg}=\mathrm{Ipfv}$ sleep（n）do．Ipfv，thief－Nom Fut enter．Ipfv
＇While I was sleeping，the thief was about to enter．＇

If there is a spatial separation between two activities that overlap in time，a construction with tóró＇while＇may be used．See §15．4．5 and example（538）in §15．2．2．4．However，my assistant did not accept this construction in a context like that of（555）where the sleeper was presumably inside the house that was about to be broken into．

## 15．4．3＇Since ．．．’ clauses（kàbí）

A simple＇since ．．．＇clause can be formed by preposing kàbí＇since＇to a regular perfective clause（556a）．A more elaborate version of e．g．＇since yesterday＇is a two－clause combination ＇it took it（＝picked it up）yesterday（and）it will put it down today＇（556b）．This＂pick up ．．． put down＂construction specifying temporal bookends occurs widely in languages of the zone．
a. [kàbí mā sé]
[since $\quad 1 \mathrm{Sg} \quad$ come.Pfv]
$m \bar{a} \quad t o ́=\quad\left[{ }^{\bar{s}^{n}} \quad\right.$ wéé $]=r e \bar{e} ?$
$1 \mathrm{Sg} \quad$ stay.Pfv [1SgRefl bathe.Pfv]=Neg
'Since I came, I haven't bathed (yet).' (</tóó $\overline{\mathrm{a}}^{\mathrm{n}} /$ )
b. [é
[3SgNonh.3SgNonh
[è $\quad$ sí=í
[3SgNonh Fut=3SgNonhObj put.down.Ipfv today
$m a \bar{a} \quad$ tóō $\quad[\varnothing \quad k u ̄ m \bar{\varepsilon} \varepsilon \quad$ kùñ $]=n e \bar{e} ?$
1 Sg stay.Pfv $\quad[1 \mathrm{Sg}(?)$ meal eat.Adjn $]=\mathrm{Neg}$
'From yesterday through today (=since yesterday), I haven't eaten.' (/kùní = nē?/)
For the 'stay' verbs in these examples, see discussion after (511) in §15.1.1.2.

### 15.4.4 Chronological reversal ('before ...' clauses)

### 15.4.4.1 With sı̀r̀̀ ‘do then'

'Before ...' with clausal scope is expressed using the auxiliary verb sòrò (imperfective, not attested in perfective form), which means 'do then' (cf. English proceed to $V P$ ). The subject takes the imperfective enclitic. sòr̀̀ is followed by an adjoined clause. In (557c), the twoclause construction with s̀̀rò is itself adjoined to the preceding clause, to judge by 2 Sg adjoined subject procliic é instead of 2 Sg imperfective $w o ́=\varnothing$.
a. [mù̀ $\mathrm{un}^{n}$ só]
[1P1 enter.Pfv]
$\begin{array}{llll}{[k a ́-n a ́=\varnothing} & \text { sòr }= & {[\varnothing} & \text { sá]] } \\ \text { [rain-Nom=Ipfv } & \text { do.then.Ipfv } & {[3 \text { SgNonh }} & \text { rain.fall.Adjn] ] }\end{array}$
'We went in before the rain fell.'
b. [zàkî̀
è
wěē]
$\left[\begin{array}{ll}Z & 3 S g N o n h \\ \text { go.Pfv }\end{array}\right.$
$[m a ́=\varnothing \quad$ sòr̀̀ $=\quad[\grave{~} \quad$ sá $]]$
[1Sg=Ipfv do.then.Ipfv [1Sg come.Adjn]]
'Zaki went away before I came.’
c. [nù̀ù-ná-à ${ }^{n}$
wé = ]
[garment-Nom-Pl wash.Imprt]

| [é | sı̀r $=$ | [í= | $\varnothing$ | wà ]] |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| [2Sg | do.then.Adjn | ${ }^{2} 2 \mathrm{Sg}$ | 3 SgNonh | go.Adjn]] |

'Wash the clothes before you-Sg go.'

A pronominal subject paradigm expanded from 'before I came' in (557b) above is (558) below. My assistant had some difficulties with the first person forms in particular. The second person forms (558b) differ sharply in tones.
(558)
'Before came'
a. 1 Sg
má $=\varnothing \quad$ sòrò $=n$
sá
1Pl
mù?ún $=\varnothing$
sòrò $=\quad n$
sá
$\begin{array}{llll}\text { b. } & 2 \mathrm{Sg} & \text { wó }=\varnothing & \text { sòr }=1 \\ 2 \mathrm{Pl} & \bar{e}^{n}=\varnothing & \text { sòr }=i^{n} 1^{n} & s \bar{a} \\ & & s \bar{a}\end{array}$
$\begin{array}{llll}\text { c. } & \text { 3SgHum } & \text { á }=\varnothing & \text { sòr }= \\ \text { 3SgNonh } & \text { é }=\varnothing & \text { sòr }=\varnothing & \text { sá } \\ & \text { sá }\end{array}$

15.4.4.2 With $t \bar{\jmath}=n \bar{\varepsilon} ?$ 'not yet'

An alternative 'before ...' clause is illustrated in (559). Synchronically we have preclausal $f \bar{\jmath}$ 'all the way to, until', then the positive clause followed by $t \bar{\jmath}=n \bar{\varepsilon} ?$.

'Well, before they reached the lion, (before) they arrived now, hare said to hyena: ...' (2016_02@00:33) (<mà )

### 15.4.4.3 $t \bar{\jmath}^{n}$ 'first' (adverb)

The nasal in $t \overline{\bar{y}}=n \bar{\varepsilon} ?$ 'not yet' (see preceding section) presupposes a nasalized vowel in $t \overline{\bar{y}}$. The form $t \bar{\nu}^{n}$ without the negative enclitic is in fact attested clause-finally in a positive clause, in the adverbial sense 'first' (i.e. before another event).

| $m a ̄$ | ná | lè | $t \bar{o}^{n}$ |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| 1Sg | 3SgHum | look.at.Imprt | first |
| 'Let me look at him | first (=before you do)!' (2016_02@ 03:04) |  |  |

### 15.4.5 tóró~ tónó ‘while’

This particle can be glossed 'while'. It anticipates a paired second clause that expresses a simultaneous activity in a distinct location.

| $m a ̄$ | $c i ́ \varepsilon$ | bàrí-mèè | tóró, |  |
| :--- | :---: | :--- | :--- | :---: |
| 1 Sg | speak.Pfv | conversation-do.VblN | while, |  |
| gbō-n̄̄ | sà | sóó | [sàá | tò] |
| thief-Nom | Fut | enter(v).Ipfv | [house | in] |

'While I was conversing (elsewhere), the thief was entering the house.' (sàà )

One can catch the flavor of this by rephrasing the translation as 'I was conversing (outside); meanwhile, the thief was entering the house.' See also (538) in §15.2.2.4. If there is no spatial separation, the backgrounded clause is a simple progressive or present main clause (§15.4.2).
tóró ~ tónó in the sense 'while' may also follow verbal nouns, in durative complements of perception verbs (§17.1.3.2). tóró ~ tónó also occurs in purposive clauses (§17.5.1).

The historical relationship between tóró~ tónó and tón (preceding sections) is unclear.

### 15.5 Spatial and manner adverbials

### 15.5.1 Spatial adverbial clause ('where ...’)

Relativizing on the complement (a noun like 'place') of a postposition (§14.5.5) creates an NP denoting a location. The NP can be used adverbially, following a verb, or as in (562) it can function as an argument of the verb.


### 15.5.2 Manner adverbial clause (kómì ‘as')

The noun cógō 'manner' can take a verbal-noun complement. The resulting NP can function as an NP argument in a higher clause (563).

| $m a \bar{a}$ | [sàá-dèè | cógó $]$ | $s \grave{j}=r \bar{\varepsilon} P$ |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| 1 Sg | [house-open. VblN | manner] | know.Ipfv=Neg |
| 'I don't know how to open the door (to the house).' |  |  |  |

kómì 'as' (French comme) may be preposed to a regular clause (without cógō ) as a manner adverbial (564).

| (564) | má $=\varnothing$ | wàlí | mè-yá |  |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
|  | $1 \mathrm{Sg}=\mathrm{Ipfv}$ | work(n) | do-Prog |  |
|  | $[k o ́ m i ̀ ~$ | zàkîı= $\varnothing$ | wàlí | mè-yá $]$ |
|  | $[$ as | $\mathrm{Z}=\operatorname{Ipfv}$ | work(n) | do-Prog |
|  | 'I work like (=the same way) Zaki works.' (wàlì ) |  |  |  |

For preclausal èmmè kómì, see §19.2.3.2.

## 16 Conditional constructions

### 16.1 Hypothetical conditional with $n \bar{i}{ }^{\prime} \mathbf{i f}$ '

### 16.1.1 Regular antecedent clause

Examples are in (565). Particle $n \bar{i}$ (sometimes heard as $n \bar{e}=$ in contractions) is clause-initial in the antecedent. The consequent clause is a regular main clause, normally future, present, or imperative. The verb form (in some cases M-toned) in the antecedent clause (".Antec" in interlinears) is discussed in the following section.

b. $n \bar{i}$ wō kā mā-n̄,
if $\quad 2 \mathrm{Sg}$ abandon.Antec 1 Sg-Indep,
má $=\varnothing \quad$ wò kpáá ${ }^{n}$
$1 \mathrm{Sg}=\mathrm{Ipfv} \quad 2 \mathrm{Sg} \quad$ kill.Ipfv
'If you-Sg leave me, I'll kill you.'
c. nī zàkî mā báprī,
if $\quad \mathrm{Z} \quad 1 \mathrm{Sg} \quad$ hit.Antec,
má $=\varnothing$ nì wàá
1Sg=Ipfv 3SgNonhObj go.Ipfv
'If Zaki hits me, I'll go away.'
d. nī bō bóó bà là lāā
if 2 Sg fall(n) fall.Antec, get.up.Imprt
'If you-Sg fall, get up!'
e. nī ààn ${ }^{n}$ búl=ú dè,
if 3PlHum return.Antec=Link there.Def,
àa $a^{n}=\varnothing \quad$ sà $=\quad$ à à ${ }^{n} \quad$ kpáá ${ }^{n}$
3PlHum=Ipfv Fut 3PlHum kill.Ipfv
'If they go back there, they (=others) will kill them.'
(/būlū/ modified by the following dè )

```
f. n\overline{\imath}}\mathrm{ zàkî̀ }s\overline{a}=r\overline{\varepsilon}\mathrm{ ?
    if Z come.Antec=Neg
    'if Zaki doesn't come'
```


### 16.1.2 Form of verb in antecedent clause

Some of the examples in the preceding section have intransitive verbs in the antecedent. ("Intransitive" here includes VO transitives.) The antecedent functions semantically as perfective, and there is no imperfective subject enclitic. However, the verb is not the usual perfective one.

Additional forms of intransitive verbs in the antecedent (rightmost data column), compared to other forms of the same verbs, are in (566) below. The form shown for 'fall' occurs when the preverbal cognate nominal bóó is omitted.
(566) Form of verb in conditional antecedent (intransitive)
Pfv-3Sg Ipfv Imprt adjoined 'if’ gloss
a. $C v v$ stems
imperative M-toned

| Sع́ع́ | sáá | $s \bar{a}$ | sá | $s \bar{a}$ | 'come' |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| bóé | bós | $b \overline{0}$ | bó | $b \overline{0}$ | 'exit' |
| sóé | sóó | $s \bar{\square}$ | só | $s \bar{\square}$ | 'enter' |
| imperative L-toned |  |  |  |  |  |
| bé | bàà | bà | bà | $b \bar{a}$ | 'fall' |

b. bisyllabic stems

| bùlí | búló | būlū | búlú | būl̄̄ | 'return' |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| fìdí | fìdéè | fidí | fìdì | fìdī | 'run' |

c. trisyllabic stems (in some cases reduced to bisyllabic)


The data show that the form in intransitive conditional antecedents is segmentally identical to the imperative, but it is M-toned even when the imperative is L - or LH-toned. The forms are therefore identical to those of the quoted imperative, see (384) in §10.5.3.1.

If the antecedent clause is an OV transitive, the antecedent form of the verb is identical to the imperative, with tones depending on the category $(+3 \mathrm{Sg}$ or $-3 \mathrm{Sg})$ of the preceding object. Again this is consistent with the form of the quoted imperative.
(567)
a. nī mā dí bà?rì/jì/jà ${ }^{2}$ à $^{n}$
if $\quad 1 \mathrm{Sg} \quad$ child hit./see./take.down.Antec
'if I hit/see/take down the child'

| b. | $n i ̄$ | $m a ̄$ | díŕrá-àn $^{2}$ | báPrí / jí / jáqán |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| if | 1 Sg | child-Nom-Pl | hit./see./take.down.Antec |  |
| 'if I hit/see/take down the children' |  |  |  |  |

## 16.2 'Even if ...' (álì )

álì 'even' may replace $n \bar{i}$ 'if' in the antecedent. In this case, the speaker asserts that whether or not the antecedent event is realized, the consequent event will be realized.

| (568) | $[$ álì | ká-ná | tkú | sáá | Síní $]$ |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :---: | :---: |
| $[$ even | rain(n)-Nom | begin | rain.fall.Ipfv | tomorrow] $]$ |  |
| $[$ má $=\varnothing$ | nì | wàá | $[$ mùú | dù $]]$ |  |
| $[1 S g=\operatorname{Ipfv}$ | $3 S g N o n h O b j$ | go.Ipfv | $[$ field | in $]]$ |  |
|  | 'Even if it rains tomorrow, I'll go to the field(s).' $(<$ mùù $)$ |  |  |  |  |

### 16.3 Willy-nilly disjunctive antecedents with wò ('whether X or Y ...')

In this construction, two juxtaposed perfective clauses that have complementary truth conditions are followed by a non-perfective clause (e.g. future or imperative). Typically the second perfective clause is the negation of the first, but it may also denote some other mutually exclusive state of affairs. The truth of the final non-perfective clause is asserted as independent of the truth of either of the perfective clauses. The particle wò 'whether' occurs at the end of both perfective clauses, following even the negative enclitic. In the combination $=r \bar{E}$ ? plus wò, the negative enclitic drops its final glottal stop, which occurs only at clause boundaries.

'Whether it rains or doesn't rain, I'll go to the field(s).'

### 16.4 Counterfactual conditional

Adding past particle ké or the intrinsically past-time verb cì $\sim$ cíe 'was/were' (§10.4) converts a simple conditional into a counterfactual. Both the antecedent and the consequent are time-shifted to a reference time in the past by one or the other of these forms. In (570), the
antecedent has $k \varepsilon$ and the consequent has ciè. This is the common pattern since the antecedent is semantically a past perfect and the consequent is semantically imperfective (future-in-past).
(570) [nī kán dò̀̀n sé=é $\left.{ }^{n} k \varepsilon ́\right]$
[if rain(n) a.little rain.fall.Pfv=Link Past]
[sónó cì̀ nàá-nà]
[maize be.Past goodness-Nom]
'If it had rained a little, the maize (crop) would have been good (=grown well).' (< dò̀nnì, séé )

A somewhat complex textual example is (571). It was spoken as a concluding "moral" for a long tale, describing how women used to be able to take off their breasts for washing, and the events that ended that situation.


```
'If it (=breasts) could (still) be taken off, people would constantly steal (other)
people's breasts.'(2016_04@ 03:42) (cì < ciev, /tóó ààn kú/)
```


## 17 Complement and purposive clauses

### 17.1 Full-clause complements

### 17.1.1 'Want' (kò̀̀ ) with clausal complement

For simple transitive 'want' with NP object see $\S 11.2 .6$.2. In the following sections I describe clausal complements. A distinction is made between same- and different-subject constructions. In both subtypes, the second clause has an overt subject.

### 17.1.1.1 Same-subject imperfective subordinated clause

Same-subject examples are in (572a-c). The subordinated clause is in the present tense (imperfective subject enclitic, imperfective form of verb). In (572b), the negative enclitic occurs at the very end but has scope over the entire construction.
a. má $=\varnothing$ kòò $\quad[m a ́=\varnothing$ nì wàà kúnú]
$1 \mathrm{Sg}=\mathrm{Ipfv}$ want.Ipfv [1Sg=Ipfv 3 SgNonhObj go.Ipfv village $]$
'I want to go to the village.' (wàá )
b. má $=\varnothing$ kò̀̀ $\quad[m a ́=\varnothing$ nì wàà kún] $=$ nē?
$1 \mathrm{Sg}=\mathrm{Ipfv}$ want.Ipfv [1Sg=Ipfv 3 SgNonhObj go.Ipfv village]=Neg
'I don't want to go to the village.' (kúnú )
c. má $=\varnothing$ kj̀̀̀ $\quad[m a ́=\varnothing \quad$ fìdéè $]$
$1 \mathrm{Sg}=\mathrm{Ipfv}$ want.Ipfv [1Sg=Ipfv run.Ipfv]
'I want to run.'

Combinations of 'want' with different pronouns in the same-subject subtype are in (573). The subjects of the two clauses are coindexed in these combinations. The 1 st/2nd person subordinated subject pronouns after kì̀ are not reduced, indicating that the subject pronouns are not encliticized to kj̀̀ in the fashion of many adjunction constructions. However, adjunction-like enclisis and tonal modifications do occur for 3 Pl subordinated subject; note the falling tones on the subject pronouns (573d). In the 3 Sg cases, the subordinated subject is logophoric in form (human à-wò and nonhuman è-wò before contractions). If kj̀̀ contracts fully with a following nonhuman 3 Sg è the result is +ATR kòò, factoring out tone sandhi.

| a. | 1 Sg | $m a ́=\varnothing$ | kı̀̀ | $[m a ́=\varnothing$ | fìdéè] |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | 1 Pl | mù?ún $=\varnothing$ | kò̀ | $\left[m u ̀ ? u{ }^{n}=\varnothing\right.$ | $f i ̀ d \varepsilon ́ \varepsilon ̇] ~$ |
| b. | 2 Sg | $w o ́=\varnothing$ | kò̀ | [ $W$ ó $=\varnothing$ | fìdéc̀] |
|  | 2 Pl | $\bar{e} \bar{e}^{n}=\varnothing$ | kò̀ | $\left[\overline{\mathrm{e}} \bar{e}^{n}=\varnothing\right.$ | $f i ̀ d \varepsilon ́ e ̀] ~$ |
| c. | 3SgHum | $a^{\prime}=\varnothing$ | kjó= | $[\grave{o}-w \grave{o}=\varnothing$ | fìdéċ] |
|  | 3 SgNonh | é $=\varnothing$ | kòó= | $[\grave{o}-w o ̀=\varnothing$ | fìdéè] |
| d. | 3PlHum | àa ${ }^{n}=\varnothing$ | $k \grave{=}$ | $\left[\hat{j o ~}^{n}=\varnothing\right.$ | fìdéc̀] |
|  | 3PINonh | èe $e^{n}=\varnothing$ | kj̀̀ | $\left[\right.$ éè $^{n}=\varnothing$ | fìdéè] |

### 17.1.1.2 Different-subject imperative subordinated clause

'Want' also allows combinations with disjoint subjects. In this case, the complement is imperative rather than present tense (imperfective). The imperfective subject enclitic is therefore absent in the subordinated clause. Since (by stipulation) the subjects are not coindexed in this subtype, a 3 Sg subordinated subject pronoun has regular (nonlogophoric) form. Compare same-subject logophoric (574a) with different-subject nonlogophoric (574b).
a. zàkı̂̀= $\varnothing$ kòó $=$
$[\grave{\jmath}-W \grave{o}=\varnothing$
fìdéè]
$\mathrm{Z}=\mathrm{Ipfv}$ want.Ipfv [Hum-3SgLogo=Ipfv run.Ipfv]
'Zaki ${ }_{\mathrm{x}}$ wants (himself) $\mathrm{x}_{\mathrm{x}}$ to run.' (</kò̀̀ à-wò/)
b. zàkî̀= $\varnothing$ kı̀̀̀= [à
$\mathrm{Z}=\mathrm{Ipfv}$ want.Ipfv [3SgHum run.Imprt]
'Zaki ${ }_{\mathrm{x}}$ wants him/her $\mathrm{y}_{\mathrm{y}}$ to run.'

Different-subject combinations are tabulated in (575). No phonological enclisis has been observed. The subject of 'want' is open-ended and omitted, but it must be distinct from the subordinated subject. The tones of the imperative verb 'run' depend on the $+3 \mathrm{Sg} /-3 \mathrm{Sg}$ opposition in the preceding pronoun, except that M-Spreading occurs after M-toned pronouns.

Different-subject 'want'
a. M-toned subject pronouns

| 1 Sg | $\ldots$ kj̀̀̀ | $[m a \overline{ }$ | fīd $d \bar{l}]$ |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| 2 Sg | $\ldots$ kò̀ | $[W \bar{o}$ | fīdī $]$ |
| 2 Pl | $\ldots k \grave{̀}$ | $\left[\bar{e} \bar{e}^{n}\right.$ | fīdī $]$ |

b. other -3 Sg pronouns

| 1 Pl | ... kò̀ | [mùpù ${ }^{\text {n }}$ | fídí] |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 3PlHum | ... kj̀̀ | [àà ${ }^{\text {n }}$ | fídí] |
| 3PINonh | ... kı̀̀ | [è̀ ${ }^{n}$ | fídí] |

c. +3 Sg pronouns

| 3 SgHum | $\ldots$ kj̀̀ | $[a ̀$ | fìdí $]$ |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| $3 S g N o n h$ | $\ldots$ kòj̀ | $[$ [è | fìdí $]$ |

### 17.1.2 'Know that ...' plus factive complement clause

For the simple transitive verb 'know' see $\S 11.2 .6 .1$. This verb takes a preverbal NP object, usually a nonhuman 3 Sg object pronoun (ní or variant). This can be elaborated by adding a factive clause, in main-clause form. For example, (576a) is embedded without change into (576b).
a. $\left[\begin{array}{cc}m a ̄ & j \varepsilon^{n}\end{array}\right]$ sc̀ $\varepsilon$
[1Sg father] come.Pfv
'My father came/has come.'
$\begin{array}{llllll}\text { b. } & m \bar{a} & \text { ń } & \text { sì } & {\left[\left[\begin{array}{ll}m \bar{a} & j \tilde{\varepsilon}^{n}\end{array}\right]\right.} & s \grave{\varepsilon} \dot{\varepsilon}] \\ & \text { 1Sg } & \text { 3SgNonhObj } & \text { know.Pfv } & {\left[\begin{array}{ll}1 S g & \text { father }]\end{array}\right.} & \text { come.Pfv }] \\ & \text { 'I know that my father has come.' } & (<m a \bar{a} n i ́)\end{array}$

Since the complement of 'know' is a kind of thought quotation, it can take a logophoric pronoun coindexed with the knower. The logophoric human 3 Sg pronoun à-wò in (577a) expresses this coindexation. Logophoric human 3Pl à-măā ( $\rightarrow$ á-măā) does likewise in (577b). The alternative is a simple (non-anaphoric) 3 Pl pronoun (577c), which is obligatory for disjoint reference and attested (i.e. optional) for coindexed reference. Complementizer à 'that' is perhaps optionally present in these examples, but because of contractions it difficult to tell in many examples, especially with third-person subordinated subject. See §17.2.1-2 on the morphophonological difficulties of analysing such combinations.

```
a. zàkî í
    Z 3SgNonhObj know.Pfv
```



```
    [that Hum-3SgLogo=Ipfv Fut= 3SgNonhObj go.Ipfv]
    'Zaki knows that he (himself) will go.'(í for more common ní)
```



### 17.1.3 'See/find/hear (that) ...'

### 17.1.3.1 With factive (propositional) complement

Verbs of propositional recognition such as 'see (that ...)', 'hear (that ...)', and 'find, discover (that ...)' take regular main clauses as complements denoting facts (states of affairs). The complementizer à is sometimes present, as in (578a) and probably before contraction in (578c). A coindexed 3 Sg subject takes logophoric form (578c).

| a. | mā | ní |  | $m \bar{\varepsilon}$ | [á | zàkî̀ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | 1Sg | 3SgNonhObj | hea | hear.Pfv | [that | Z |
|  | 'I heard (it) that Zaki has come.' |  |  |  |  |  |
|  | mā | $t i ́ p=$ | [1] |  |  | jì̀] |
|  | 1Sg | go.Pfv |  | [3SgNon |  | see.Adjn] |
|  | [mî̀i | í-à ${ }^{n}$ | Wغ́غ |  | [mùú | dù]] |
|  | [pers | -Nom-Pl | go.Pfv |  | field | in]] |

'I went and saw (=it) that the people had gone to the fields.'
(variant wéé)
c. á $\quad \varnothing \quad$ è

3SgHum 3SgObj hear.Pfv
[á $\quad \varnothing$-wò sá tá $\quad$ tá $=r \bar{\varepsilon} ?]$
[that Hum-3SgLogo Fut go.Ipfv=Neg]
'He ${ }_{x}$ heard (it) that he ${ }_{x}$ isn't going.' (< mě, à à-wò )

### 17.1.3.2 Direct-perception type (durative complement)

When the speaker reports having seen an actual event, the complement may be reduced to an imperfective VP with its agent appearing in object position (579a). The imperfective is used even when the event was effectively instantaneous, as with 'fall'.
a. mā zàkíi jíé bóó/ sáá / bàà
1 Sg Z see.Pfv exit(v).Ipfv / come.Ipfv / fall.Ipfv
'I saw Zaki go(ing) out / come(ing) / fall(ing).'
$\begin{array}{llllll}\text { b. } & m a ̄ & \text { zàkîí } & \text { jíq́ } & \text { [dí-kpé?r-à-à }{ }^{n} & \text { bá?rá] } \\ & 1 \mathrm{Sg} & \mathrm{Z} & \text { see.Pfv } & \text { [child-small-Nom-Pl } & \text { hit.Ipfv] } \\ & \text { 'I saw Zaki hit(ting) the children.' } & \end{array}$

It is also possible to add tóró ~ tónó 'while’ (§15.4.5) to a verbal noun (§4.2.2) complement, emphasizing the durative or progressive aspect of the event.

| (580) | mā | zàkîì | jí́́ | ['bóó / 'séé / bèè | tónó] |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
|  | 1 Sg | Z | see.Pfv | [exit./come./fall.VblN | while] |
|  | 'I saw Zaki going out/coming.' |  |  |  |  |

For tóró~ tónó in purposive clauses, see §17.5.1.
17.1.4 Obligational (f̄́s 'it must be') with present or future clause

A preposed $f \overline{0}$, which suspiciously resembles French il faut but might also be identified Jalkunan-internally with $f \overline{\mathrm{n}}$, 'all the way to, until' (§8.3.5.2), functions as an impersonal 'it must be that ...' and is followed by a present or future clause.

| (581) | $f \bar{\rho}$ | $[m a ́=\varnothing$ | nì | wàà | kúnú $]$ |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
|  | must | $[1 \mathrm{Sg}=\mathrm{Ipfv}$ | 3 SgNonhObj | go.Ipfv | village $]$ |

'I must go to the village.'

### 17.2 Quotative complements

A perfective indicative main clause like (582a) may function without change as a quotation after a verb of saying if there is no update of indexicals (582b).
a. $k a^{n}$
$s \grave{\varepsilon}$
kúnú
rain(n) rain.fall.Pfv
village
'It rained in the village.'
b. zàkî̀ dé [kán $\quad$ nè kúnú]

Z say.Pfv [rain(n) rain.fall.Pfv village]
'Zaki said that it rained in the village.'
However, some other types of clause undergo adjustments when they are quoted. The following sections discuss 'that' complementizers, pronominal adjustments, and and clauselevel TAM adjustments.

### 17.2.1 à as quotative 'that' complementizer

A quoted indicative clause optionally begins with à 'that'. In the majority of elicited quoted indicative clauses, à was absent (at least segmentally), but my assistant indicated in each case that it could be added. It is present in (583a) but not in the synonymous (583b).

| a. | zàkî̀ | dé | là | bákàrí $=\varnothing$ | sà | sáá $]$ |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
|  | Z | say.Pfv | [that | B | Fut | come.Ipfv] |
|  | 'Zaki said that | Bakari will come.' |  |  |  |  |

b. zàkî̀ dé [bákàrí= $\varnothing$ sà sáá]

Z say.Pfv $\quad[B=I p f v \quad$ Fut come.Ipfv $]$
'Zaki said (that) Bakari will come.'
I speculate (subject to correction by Mande-ists) that there may be a historical connection between complementizer à 'that' and the initial vowel of human third-person logophoric pronouns, singular à-wò and plural à-mǎā. The à- in these pronouns is frequently masked by contractions. Unless an etymological source is found for the complementizer, one possibility is reinterpretation of (apparent) alternations between à-wò and simple wò, and between à-mǎā and simple mǎā. Or, reversing the direction of etymology, these logophoric pronouns may have originally been wò and mǎā, and acquired their initial à- by reanalysis of 'that' clauses beginning with the complementizer. Also relevant to this is the possible historical relationship between third person à-wò and à-mǎā on the one hand and second person pronouns $w \bar{o}(2 \mathrm{Sg})$ and mǎā ( 2 Pl , alongside $\bar{e} \bar{e}^{n}$ ).

Synchronically, the issue is how to parse examples like ( $584 \mathrm{a}-\mathrm{b}$ ) below where a quoted clause begins with a third person logophoric subject. Contraction, or rather the possibility of contraction, makes this parsing difficult. In (584a), phonetic [àwò] could be parsed with or without the à complementizer. In (584b), phonetic [wò] seemingly has neither the complementizer à nor the human prefix à-, but we can't rule out the possibility that at least one of these morphemes is present and has been elided by VV -Contraction.

| a. zàkî̀ Z | $d \varepsilon$ d | [à | (a)-wò $=\varnothing$ | sà | sáá |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | say.Pfv | [(that) | (Hum-)3SgLogo=Ipfv | Fut | come.Ipfv] |
|  | or: | [à-wò |  |  |  |
|  |  | [Hum-3 | SgLogo |  |  |

'Zaki ${ }_{x}$ said that he ${ }_{x}$ (himself) will come.'

| b. zàkî̀ | $d \varepsilon ์$ | [ $\varnothing$-wò | sà | sáá $]$ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Z | say.Pfv | [Hum-3SgLogo | Fu | come.Ipfv] |
| [= (a)] |  |  |  |  |

In (585a-b) below, dé is structurally H-toned since it follows a personal name (which is treated as -3 Sg in its tonal effect on a following verb). However, its pitch is usually below that of normal H-tones. This might simply reflect its status as a high-frequency, quasigrammatical morpheme. Alternatively, there might be a hidden L-toned complementizer à that contracts with dé.
a. $\left.\begin{array}{lll}\text { bákàrì } & d \varepsilon & {[z a ̀ k i ̂ i=\varnothing} \\ \text { B } & \text { say.Pfv } & \text { sà } \\ \text { [Z=Ipfváá } & \text { Fut } & \text { come.Ipfv }]\end{array}\right]$
'Bakari said Zaki will come.'
b. zàkî̀ dé [bákàrí= $\varnothing$ sà sáá]
Z say.Pfv [B=Ipfv Fut come.Ipfv]
'Zaki said Bakari will come.'
17.2.2 Combination of $d \grave{\varepsilon} \sim d \varepsilon \varepsilon^{\prime}$ say' with third person subject pronoun

Examples like (586a-b) show that there is no morphosyntactic difference in TAM marking when the clause is quoted. The quoted clause in (586b) has the same imperfective verb form and the same imperfective subject enclitic as the unquoted (586a), in both present and future versions.
a.

| bákàrí $=\varnothing$ | (sà) | yípé | dòǹ̀ |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| $\mathrm{B}=\mathrm{Ipfv}$ | (Fut) | fish | eat.meat.Ipfv |

'Bakari eats/will eat fish.'

| b. | $m \bar{a}$ | $d \varepsilon$ | $[(a ̀)$ | bákàrí $=\varnothing$ | (sà) | yípée | dòǹ̀ $]$ |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
|  | 1Sg | say.Pfv. | $[$ (that) | $\mathrm{B}=\mathrm{Ipfv}$ | (Fut) | fish | eat.meat.Ipfv] $]$ |
|  | 'I said that Bakari eats/will eat fish.' |  |  |  |  |  |  |

However, when the quoted clause of the imperfective aspectual family (present, future, progressive) begins with a third person subject pronoun (à̀, è, à àn ${ }^{n}$ èèn ${ }^{n}$, the resulting tones require explanation. Typical pronunciations of the relevant combinations including the
imperfective subject enclitic are shown in (587). The perfective-subject form is shown on the left to make the point that the imperfective ends in H -tone due to the imperfective enclitic.

|  | unquoted |  | quoted imperfective |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | Pfv | Ipfv | 'he/she said | 'I said |
| 3SgHum | à | $\dot{a}=\varnothing$ | à $d \varepsilon$ ćà $=\varnothing$ | $m a \overline{d \varepsilon}$ à $=\varnothing$ |
| 3 SgNonh | è | é $=\varnothing$ | à $d \bar{\varepsilon}$ è $=\varnothing$ | $m a \overline{d \varepsilon}$ è $=\varnothing$ |
| 3 PlHum | àà ${ }^{n}$ | àà ${ }^{n}=\varnothing$ | à $d \bar{\varepsilon}(\hat{a}) \mathrm{a}^{n}=\varnothing$ | $m a ̄ d \varepsilon$ (à) ${ }^{n}{ }^{n}=\varnothing$ |
| 3PINonh | è̀è ${ }^{n}$ | $\grave{e} e^{n}=\varnothing$ | à dé (è) ${ }^{n}=\varnothing$ | $m a ̄ d \varepsilon ́(e ̀) e^{n}=\varnothing$ |

What all the 'he/she said __' and 'I said __' combinations have in common is that the imperfective enclitic does not have the usual final-tone raising effect as seen in unquoted clauses. This aspect of the problem can be explained provided we can account for the falling tone patterns in the morphemes preceding the enclitic. This is because suffixed nouns with falling final tone pattern, like náā-nà 'woman', also show no tonal effect when the imperfective enclitic is added: náā-nà $=\varnothing$.

Consider first the 'I said __' column. Here the 'say' verb is H-toned dé by virtue of following a -3 Sg subject pronoun, in this case $1 \mathrm{Sg} m \bar{a}$. We can therefore posit underlying forms like those in (588). The null sign representing the segmentally absent imperfective enclitic is omitted.

> underlying surface

| 3 SgHum | /mā dé à H/ | $m a ̄ d \varepsilon ́=a ̀ ~$ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 3 SgNonh | /mā dé è H/ | $m a \bar{d}$ ¢́ $=$ è |
| 3PlHum | $/ \mathrm{mā}$ dé àà ${ }^{\mathrm{n}} \mathrm{H} /$ | $m \bar{a} d \bar{\varepsilon}=(\grave{a}) \grave{a}^{n}$ |
| 3PlNonh | $/ \mathrm{mā}$ dé èè ${ }^{\mathrm{n}} \mathrm{H} /$ | $m a ̄ d \varepsilon ́=(\grave{e})$ |

These forms can be understood if the third person subject pronoun (à, etc.) first encliticizes to the 'say' verb $d \varepsilon$, producing falling tone patterns, as in $d \varepsilon=a ̀$. In the plural combinations, the length of the pronominal vowel is reduced, except in careful speech, so that /d $\varepsilon$ àà ${ }^{n}$ / is for practical purposes realized as $d \dot{\varepsilon}=\grave{a}^{n}$. When the floating H-tone of the imperfective subject clitic is added to this falling-toned cluster, it has no effect, as is the case when it is added to a noun that ends in falling tones (HM or HL).

Now consider the 'he/she said __' column in (587) above. Here we would expect L-toned $d \grave{\varepsilon}$ 'said' since it follows a +3 Sg subject, but in fact the usual pronunciation is with H-toned $d \varepsilon$, as in the 'I said __' forms.

Since the third person proclitics are all underlyingly L-toned (à, à à ${ }^{n}$, etc.), one possibility is that $d \dot{\varepsilon}$ undergoes Final Tone-Raising to $d \varepsilon$ before an L-tone, prior to (and preventing) docking of the floating H of the imperfective enclitic (589).
(589) 'He/She said that ...

| 3SgHum...' | 3SgNonh...' | 3PlHum...' | 3PINonh..., |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| /à dè à H/ | /à dè è H/ | /à dè àà ${ }^{\mathrm{n}} \mathrm{H} /$ | /à dè èè ${ }^{\mathrm{n}} \mathrm{H} /$ | underlying |
| /à dé à H/ | /à dé è H/ | /à dé àà ${ }^{\mathrm{n}} \mathrm{H} /$ | /à dé èè ${ }^{\mathrm{n}} \mathrm{H} /$ | tone-raising |
| /à dé= à H/ | /à dé= è H/ | /à dé $=(\mathrm{a}) \mathrm{a}^{\mathrm{n}} \mathrm{H} /$ | /à d $\varepsilon=(\mathrm{e}) \mathrm{è}^{\mathrm{n}} \mathrm{H} /$ | enclisis |
| /à dé=à/ | /à d $\varepsilon=$ è/ | /à d $\varepsilon=(\mathrm{a}) \mathrm{a}^{\mathrm{n}} /$ | /à dé $=(\mathrm{e}) \mathrm{e}^{\mathrm{n}} /$ | no docking of H |

The derivation of these forms becomes even more complex if we posit the presence of the complementizer à. The underlying forms would now be of types (590a-b).

| $/$ mā dé à àà ${ }^{\mathrm{n}} \mathrm{H} /$ | 'I said that they (will) ...' |
| :--- | :--- |
| /à dè à àà $\mathrm{H} /$ | 'he/she said that they (will) ...' |

$v v$-Contraction can account for the reduced vocalism, but the underlying presence of an additional à allows for alternative ways to analyse the tone patterns. In particular, when à 'that' occurs between two L-toned syllables, it could undergo Final Tone-Raising, and then trigger Leftward H-Shift, which typically occurs in conjunction with $v v$-Contraction.
(591) 'He/She said that ...

3SgHum..., 3PlHum...'

| /à dè à à H/ | /à dè à àà ${ }^{\mathrm{n}} \mathrm{H} /$ | underlying |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| /à dè á à H/ | /à dè á àà ${ }^{\mathrm{n}} \mathrm{H} /$ | tone-raising |
| /à dé = à H/ | $/ \mathrm{a}$ dé $=(\mathrm{a}) \mathrm{a}^{\mathrm{n}} \mathrm{H} /$ | Leftward H-Shift and vV-Contraction |
| /à dé=à/ | /à dé= (à)à ${ }^{\text {n }}$ | no docking of H |

Yet another wrinkle is the possibility that $d \grave{\varepsilon}$ in 3 Sg à $d \grave{\varepsilon}$ 'he/she said' is underlying/ď̌/, consistent with the usual $+3 \mathrm{Sg}\{\mathrm{LH}\}$ overlay on verbs. The final H-tone might end up being the overt H-tone of dé in (589) above. This would make Final Tone-Raising unnecessary, and would also make it moot whether the à complementizer is present.
(592) 'He/She said that ...

3SgHum ..., 3PlHum ...'

| /à dě à H/ | /à dě àà ${ }^{\mathrm{n}} \mathrm{H} /$ | underlying |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| /à dé = à H/ | /à dé $=(\mathrm{a}) \mathrm{a}^{\mathrm{n}} \mathrm{H} /$ | Leftward H-Shift and $v V$-Contraction |
| /à dé=à/ | /à dé $=(\mathrm{a}) \mathrm{a}^{\mathrm{n}} /$ | no docking of H |

Some examples showing the combinations of 'say' with 3 Sg subject proclitic and with a noun-headed subject NP 'sheep' plus the imperfective subject enclitic are in (593).
a. bákàr dé $[=$ à $=\varnothing /$ tàgà-rá $=\varnothing$ yípé dònò $]$

B say.Pfv [3SgHum=Ipfv/sheep=Ipfv fish eat.meat.Ipfv]
'Bakari ${ }_{x}$ said that he-or-she ${ }_{y} /($ the $)$ sheep eats fish.'
b. bákàr dé $[=a ̀=\varnothing /$ tàgà-rá $=\varnothing$ sà yîíé dòǹ̀ $]$

B say.Pfv [3SgHum=Ipfv/sheep=Ipfv Fut fish eat.meat.Ipfv]
'Bakari ${ }_{x}$ said that he-or-she ${ }_{y} /($ the $)$ sheep-Sg will eat fish.'
c. bákàr dé $[=a ̀=\varnothing /$ tàgà-rá $=\varnothing$ yípé dònù-yá $]$ B say.Pfv [3SgHum=Ipfv/sheep=Ipfv fish eat.meat.Prog] 'Bakari ${ }_{x}$ said that he-or-she ${ }_{y} /($ the $)$ sheep is eating fish.'

The phonology of the 'be (present)' subject enclitic is the same as that of the homophonous and probably identical imperfective subject enclitic $/ \mathrm{H}+=\varnothing /$. The 'be' enclitic is followed by a locational expression ('be here', etc.) as in (594).
a. $\quad$ á $=\varnothing /$ tàgà - rá $=\varnothing$
[mùú
dù]
3SgHum=/sheep-Nom=be [field in]
'He-or-she/(the) sheep-Sg is in the field(s).' (mùu )
b. bákàr dé= [à= $\varnothing$ / tàgà-rá $=\varnothing \quad[m u ̀ u ́ u d u ̀]]$

B say.Pfv [3SgHum=/sheep-Nom=be [field in]]
'Zaki ${ }_{x}$ said that he-or-she ${ }_{y} /($ the $)$ sheep is in the field(s).'
17.2.3 Pronominal category adjustments in quotations

In ordinary main clauses, most pronouns are proclitics (subject, object, postpositional complement, possessor). When an original main clause is quoted, pronominal categories are modified in two ways (595a-b).
a. original 1 Sg pronouns are replaced by logophoric 3 Sg pronouns;
b. other original pronouns are updated if they refer to the current speaker or addressee.

The effect of (595a) can be seen when indicative sentence (596a) with 1 Sg subject is quoted (596b). The form of the subject pronoun in the quoted clause is logophoric 3 Sg pronoun à-wò rather than the usual human 3 Sg subject proclitic à. The latter does occur in (596c), where the subjects of the main and quoted clauses are disjoint.

| a. | má $=\varnothing$ | sà | sáá |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| 1Sg $=$ Ipfv | Fut | come.Ipfv |  |
|  | 'I will come.' |  |  |

b. zàk̂̂ı $d \varepsilon=\quad[(a ̀-) W o ̀ \quad$ à sáá $]$
child-Nom-Pl say.Pfv [Hum-3SgLogo Fut come.Ipfv]
'Zaki $\mathrm{X}_{\mathrm{x}}$ said that he $\mathrm{x}_{\mathrm{x}}$ (himself) would come.'
c. zàkî̀ dé= [à sà sáá]
child-Nom-Pl say.Pfv [3SgHum Fut come.Ipfv]
'Zaki ${ }^{\mathrm{x}}$ said that he $\mathrm{y}_{\mathrm{y}} /$ she $_{\mathrm{y}}$ (someone else) would come.'

For more detail on logophoric pronouns, see $\S 18.3$.
The 2 Sg subject in (597a) is updated as a 1 Sg subject pronoun in (597b), since the addressee in the original utterance (597a) is identical the current speaker of (597b). The subscript indices for the free translations in (597a) and (597b) are coordinated.
$\begin{array}{llll}\text { a. } & w \bar{o} & \text { mà } & \text { bá } 1 \mathrm{ri} \\ & \mathbf{2 S g} & \mathbf{1 S g} & \text { hit.Pfv }\end{array}$
'You-Sg hit-Past mex.' (addressed by X to Y)
b. zàkîı dé [à mā ná-wò bárrī]

Z say.Pfv [that $\mathbf{1 S g}$ HumObj-3SgLogo hit.Pfv]
'Zaki $\mathrm{i}_{\mathrm{x}}$ said that $\mathrm{I}_{\mathrm{y}}$ hit-Past him $\mathrm{x}_{\mathrm{x}}$.' (current speaker is Y )

My assistant did not update original second person vocatives in this manner. The original 2 Sg independent pronoun $W \bar{o}-\bar{n}$ in (598a) has vocative function (compare simple prohibitive bí $s \bar{a}=r \bar{\varepsilon} ?$ 'don't come!' without an overt 2 Sg subject pronoun). When the original addressee becomes the current speaker, (598a) can be quoted as (598b). The vocative is still $2 \mathrm{Sg} w \bar{o}-\bar{n}$, not 1 Sg mā-n̄ or a third-person form.
a. $w \bar{o}-\bar{n}$
bí
$s \bar{a}=r \bar{\varepsilon} ?$
2Sg-Indep Proh come.Imprt=Neg
'(Hey) you-Sg ${ }^{y}$, don't- $2 \mathrm{Sg}_{\mathrm{y}}$ come!' (addresseed by X to Y)
b. zàkî̀ dé $\left[\begin{array}{ll}m a ̄ & m a ̄\end{array}\right]\left[\begin{array}{ll}W-\bar{n} & b i ́\end{array} s \bar{a}=r \bar{\varepsilon} ?\right]$
Z say.Pfv [1Sg with] [2Sg-Indep Proh come.Imprt=Neg
'Zaki $i_{x}$ said to $\mathrm{me}_{\mathrm{y}}$, "(hey) you-Sg , don't-2Sg $_{\mathrm{y}}$ come!", (spoken by Y)
17.2.4 Jussive complement (reported imperative or hortative)

### 17.2.4.1 Quoted imperative

There is a quoted imperative (in interlinears "QuotImprt") verb form. It is based on the regular imperative stem, but for intransitive verbs it is always M-toned, see (384) in $\S 10.5 .3 .1$. It is identical in form to the one used in conditional antecedents, see (566) above.
a. bà
fall.Imprt
'Fall-2Sg!'
b. mā dé [à bā]

1 Sg say.Pfv [3SgNonh fall.QuotImprt
'I told him/her to fall.'

Representative intransitive quoted imperatives with various subject pronouns are shown in (600). These can all be embedded in a quotative context as in (599b) above.

| 1 Sg | 1 Pl | 3 SgHum | 3 PlHum | gloss |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| $m a \overline{b a}$ | mù?ù ${ }^{n}$ bā | à $b \bar{a}$ | $\grave{a ̀ a n}^{n} b \bar{a}$ | 'fall' |
| mā $s$ a | mùnù ${ }^{n} s a \overline{ }$ | à $s$ a | àà ${ }^{n} s \bar{a}$ | 'come' |
| mā būlū | mù?ù ${ }^{n}$ būlu | à būlū | àà ${ }^{n}$ būlū | 'return' |
| mā fīdī | mùpù ${ }^{n}$ fīdī | à fīdī | àà ${ }^{n}$ fīdī | 'run' |
| mā sīdā | mù ${ }^{\text {a }}$ n sīdā | à Sīdā | àà ${ }^{n}$ Sīdā | 'descend |

There is no special quoted imperative verb form for transitives. (601a,c) are transitive imperatives, and $(601 b, d)$ are their quoted counterparts. The regular imperative stem is used in both contexts, with the usual tonal distinction (bà?rì ~ báprí) depending on whether the preceding NP (the object) is +3 Sg or -3 Sg .
(601)
a. tàgá bà?rì
sheep hit.Imprt
'Hit-2Sg the sheep-Sg!' (< tàgà )
b. à dè [mā tàgá bà?rì]

3SgHum say.Pfv [1Sg sheep hit.Imprt]
' $\mathrm{He} /$ She told me to hit the sheep-Sg.'
c. tàgà-rá-à ${ }^{n}$ bá?rí
sheep-Nom-Pl hit.Imprt
'Hit-2Sg the sheep-Pl!'
d. à dè [mā tàgà-rá-à ${ }^{n}$ bá?rí]

3 SgHum say.Pfv [1Sg sheep-Nom-Pl hit.Imprt]
'He/She told me to hit the sheep-Pl.'

Imprecations like 'may God VERB X!' have some features in common with quoted transitive imperatives but they lack a higher 'say' clause. See §10.5.3.2 and (667) in §19.4.

### 17.2.4.2 Quoted prohibitive

The quoted prohibitive consists of the main-clause prohibitive, as in (602a), plus an overt subject (adjusted to the current speech event) and the framing 'say' clause (602b).
(602)
a. bí bà $=r \bar{\varepsilon} ? / s \bar{a}=r \bar{\varepsilon} ?$

Proh fall.Imprt=Neg / come.Imprt=Neg 'Don't-2Sg fall/come!'
b. à $d \grave{\varepsilon} \quad[m a \bar{a} \quad b i ́ \quad b a ̀=r \bar{\varepsilon} P / s \bar{a}=r \bar{\varepsilon} ?]$ 3SgHum say.Pfv [1Sg Proh fall.Imprt=Neg/come.Imprt=Neg] 'He/She told me not to fall/come.'

### 17.2.4.3 Quoted hortative

The quoted hortative is based on the main-clause hortative. The 'say' clause may have an overt indication of who was addressed ('X said to me, "..."'). The hortative clause has an overt plural subject, updated for current speech-event participant roles. See §10.5.3.4 for examples.

### 17.3 VP complements

### 17.3.1 'Be able to, can' (cíé )

This verb may be a special case of the verb 'arrive', which has imperfective cíé and perfective cì $\sim$ cí́. It distinguishes a simple imperfective VP complement for nonpast time ('can') from a past-time construction ('could') with the 'was/were' verb plus adjoined clause.

### 17.3.1.1 cíé with imperfective VP complement for nonpast time

In present-time and gnomic (timeless) contexts, as in English $X$ can $V P$, the subordinated event is potential but not necessarily actualized. Invariant imperfective cí́ follows a subject NP with imperfective enclitic and is itself followed by a subjectless imperfective VP. The complement may be omitted if obvious (603e). Negation comes at the end of the complement (with wide scope), but it does not affect the form of the subject or 'can' verb.
a. $\quad \grave{a ̀}^{n}=\varnothing$
cí́ sìdánà / sáá
3PlHum=Ipfv can.Ipfv ascend.Ipfv / come.Ipfv
'They can go up/come.'


The future counterpart has a similar structure but adds the future particle sà. It usually implies that the capability is not true at the time of speaking but will be during some future time interval.
a. $\quad a_{a} a^{n}=\varnothing$
sà cíé
sìdánà / sáá
3PlHum=Ipfv Fut can.Ipfv
ascend.Ipfv / come.Ipfv
'They will be able to go up/come.'
b. $\quad$ àá $^{n}=\varnothing$
sà cí́
sìdánà $=n \bar{\varepsilon}$ ? $/$ sáá $=r \bar{\varepsilon}$ ?
3PlHum=Ipfv Fut can.Ipfv
ascend.Ipfv / come.Ipfv
'They will not be able to go up/come.'
c. à àa ${ }^{n}=\varnothing$ sà cíé [twálí màà $]$

3PlHum=Ipfv Fut can.Ipfv [work(n) do.Ipfv]
'They will be able to do the work.'

### 17.3.1.2 cì́ $\sim$ cí́ plus adjoined clause for past tense 'could'

For past time, which implies that the eventuality denoted by the subordinated clause was in fact realized, the 'can' (= 'arrive') verb takes perfective form cì $\sim$ cí $\varepsilon$ and there is no imperfective subject enclitic. cié $\sim$ cíé is followed not by a VP as in nonpast contexts, rather by an adjoined clause (§15.1) as in (605a-b). This perfective cié $\sim$ cí 'could' is grammatically distinct, and in part tonally distinct, from cì̀ ~ cí́ 'was/were' (§10.4).
a. àà ${ }^{n}$ cí́ $\quad\left[a ̀ a^{n} \quad\right.$ sìdà]

3PlHum can.Pfv [3PlHum ascend.Adjn]
'They were able to go up.'

| b. ààn | $c i ́ \varepsilon$ | $\left[(a ̀) \grave{a}^{n}\right.$ | $s a ́=r \bar{\varepsilon} ?]$ |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
|  | 3 PlHum | can.Pfv | $[3 P 1 H u m$ | come.Adjn=Neg]

'They were not able to come.'
c. àà ${ }^{n}$ cíé $\quad\left[(a ̀) \grave{a}^{n} \quad\right.$ wálí mà]

3PlHum can.Pfv [3PlHum work(n) do.Adjn]
'They were able to do the work.'
( $605 \mathrm{a}-\mathrm{c}$ ) show no contractions of cíe with the following subject pronominal, but such contractions do occur in allegro speech. Examples are in (606) below. The tonal distinction between +3 Sg cì́ and -3 Sg cíé is neutralized here, perhaps due to Leftward H-Shift (§3.8.3.7) in 3 Sg subject forms $(606 \mathrm{c})$, e.g. à cí $=\grave{\varepsilon}$ sá </à cì ${ }^{\text {à à sá/. The drop of sá 'come' to } s a \bar{i}}$ in 606b), right-hand column, is normal in adjunctions, where second-person adjoined subject proclitics come with a floating M . The vowel length of 3 Pl subject proclitics is partially respected in spite of contractions. $1 \mathrm{Sg} m a \bar{a} c i ́=$ ín sìdà has undergone H -Leveling (§3.8.3.2) from $/ c i ́=~ i ̀ n / ~ b e f o r e ~ a n ~ L-t o n e, ~ b u t ~ 1 P l ~ m u ̀ ̀ u ̀ ~ i n ~ c i ́=~(i) i ̀ n ~ s i ̀ d a ̀ ~ f r o m ~ / c i ́=~ i ̀ ̀ n / ~ p r e s e r v e s ~ a ~$ falling contour before sìdà at least in careful speech. 3Pl forms like ààn cí= $\begin{gathered} \\ \varepsilon^{n}\end{gathered}$ sìdà ( 606 d ) show Final Tone-Raising before L-toned sìdà, an even clearer sign that their vowels can be treated as long in spite of contraction.

$$
\begin{equation*}
\text { 'could go up' } \quad \text { 'could come’ } \tag{606}
\end{equation*}
$$

| a. 1 Sg <br> 1Pl | mā cí = ín sìdà mù $\mathrm{u}^{n}{ }^{n}$ cí $=(i)$ ìn sìdà | $\begin{aligned} & \text { mā cí = ìn sá } \\ & \text { mù?ù }{ }^{n} \text { cí= ìn sá } \end{aligned}$ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| b. 2 Sg <br> 2 Pl | $\begin{aligned} & \text { wō cí= í sìdà } \\ & \bar{e} \bar{e}^{n} c i ́=i^{n} \text { sìdà } \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & w \bar{o} c i ́=i ́ l \\ & l^{\prime} \\ & \bar{e} \bar{e}^{n} c i ́=i^{n} \\ & \hline \end{aligned}$ |
| c. 3 SgHum 3 SgNonh | $\begin{aligned} & \text { à cí}=\text { è sìdà } \\ & \text { è cí }=i ̀ ~ s i ̀ d a ̀ ~ \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & \text { à cí= ̀̀ sá } \\ & \text { è cí= ì sá } \end{aligned}$ |
| d. 3PlHum 3PINonh | $\begin{aligned} & \text { ààn } c i ́=~ \varepsilon ̀ \varepsilon^{n} \text { sìdà } \\ & \text { èèn }^{n} c i ́=~ \grave{1} 1^{n} \text { sìdà } \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & \text { àà }{ }^{n} c i ́=\text { (à)à }{ }^{n} s a ́ \\ & {\grave{e} e^{n}}^{n} c i ́=(i) \grave{l}^{n} s a ́ \end{aligned}$ |

### 17.4 Nominal complements

Nominal complements are based on verbal nouns (§4.2.2) along with their complements, or sometimes on other deverbal nominals that denote actions.

### 17.4.1 Durative time-of-day predicates plus nominal complement

'Spend the (whole) daytime' is expressed as 'make fall the afternoon' (607a). 'Spend the (whole) night (doing something)' is expressed as 'do the night' (607b). These expressions emphasize duration, and the latter is distinct from intransitive nì̀ ~ níe 'spend the night' in the sense of 'stay over(night) (somewhere)'. A main clause with a durative time-of-day predicate may co-occur with a following verbal noun which denotes an activity that filled the relevant time interval.

| a. | mā $\quad$ wúlá | bè | mùù-mèè-ná |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
|  | $1 \mathrm{Sg} \quad$ afternoon | make.fall.Pfv | field-do.VblN-Nom |
|  | 'I spent the (mid-)day farming.' |  |  |

b. zàkîı kópró mè dòò-mèè-ná

Z night do.Pfv dance- do.VblN-Nom
'Zaki spend the night dancing.'

### 17.4.2 'Prevent' (bàlà ) plus PP complement

The verb 'prevent, block, obstruct' is imperfective bàlà ~ bálá and perfective bàlí ~ bálì. It is the transitive counterpart of 'stop, stand', which has pseudo-reflexive morphosyntax (§10.1.1.3). In the transitive sense 'prevent', its preferred complement is a PP with postposition mà 'on' following a verbal noun, see (93) in §4.2.2. L-toned verbal nouns like bèè and fìdì in (608a) and tòPrì in (608b) undergo regular Final Tone-Raising before L-toned mà.

```
a. ká-ná mā bálì
    rain-Nom 1Sg prevent.Pfv
    [[séé/ bóó/ bèé/ fìdí/ sìdánì] mà]
    [[come/exit/fall/run/ascend.VblN] on]
```

    'The rain prevented me from coming / going out / falling / running / going up.'
    b. è mā bálì ...
3SgNonh 1 Sg prevent.Pfv
... [wálí-méé mà]
$\ldots$ [work(n)-do.VblN on]
... [tàgá tò?rí mà]
$\ldots$ [sheep sell.VblN] on]
'It prevented me from ... doing the work/selling the sheep.'

| c. | è | $m a ̄$ | bálì | [Sóó | mà $]$ | [sàá |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
|  | 3SgNonh | 1 Sg | prevent.Pfv | [enter.VblN on] | [house | in] |
|  | 'It prevented me from entering the house.' $(<$ sàà $)$ |  |  |  |  |  |

17.4.3 'Cease' (bàlà ) plus preverbal verbal noun complement

The same verb (imperfective bàlà) illustrated above in the sense 'prevent' can also mean 'cease, no longer engage in (an activity)'. In this sense has a preverbal object in the form of a verbal noun (609a). (609b) has an alternative phrasing with just 'beer' as postverbal object of 'fall', while the verb 'drink' is understood but not overt.
a. $m \bar{a}$
[dí-kpé?r-à-à ${ }^{n}$ bá?rí]
'I have stopped hitting children.'
$\begin{array}{llll}\text { b. } & m \bar{a} & b \dot{\varepsilon} & \text { dòl-ó } \\ & 1 \mathrm{Sg} & \text { fall.Pfv } & \text { beer-Nom } \\ & \text { 'I've given up beer.' } & \end{array}$
bàlí(ī)
$1 \mathrm{Sg} \quad$ [child-young-Nom-Pl hit.VblN] prevent.Pfv
17.4.4 'Consent' (bàlà or sǒj̀ ${ }^{n}$ ) with postverbal verbal-noun complement

The verb 'stand, stop' (imperfective bàlà, perfective bàlí ~ bálī) takes a postverbal verbalnoun complement with final nominal suffix (-rá and variants) (610a-b). There is no pseudoreflexive morphology in this construction. The clausal complement may be replaced by a nonhuman 3 Sg pronoun ì-yà ' it ' $(610 \mathrm{c}-\mathrm{d})$. In $(610 \mathrm{c}-\mathrm{d})$, /bàlí ì-yà/ is realized as bál $=$ ì-yà after Leftward H-Shift.
a. à
bàlì séé-rá / bóó-rá /
bàlí bèè-rá / fìdì-rá / sìdán̄-nà
3SgHum accept.Pfv come./exit.VblN-Nom / fall./run./ascend.VblN-Nom
'He/She agreed to come/to come out/to fall/to run/to go up.'
b. à bàlì wálí-méé-rá
3SgHum accept.Pfv work(n)-do.VblN-Nom
'He/She agreed to do the work.'
$\begin{array}{llc}\text { c. } \begin{array}{ll}\text { à } & \text { bál }= \\ & \text { ì-yà } \\ & \text { 3SgHum }\end{array} & \text { accept.Pfv } & \text { Nonh-3Sg }\end{array}$
'He/She agreed to/accepted it (proposal or invitation).' (/bàlí ì-yà/)
d. $a^{=}=\varnothing$

3SgHum=Ipfv Fut accept.Pfv Nonh-3Sg
'He/She will agree to/accept it (proposal or invitation).'

The verb sǒj̀ (cited in imperfective form) 'accept (doing), be willing (to do)' has the same syntax. Leftward H-Movement has occurred in (611b).
a. à
sı̀ó ${ }^{n} \quad$ Łwálí-méé-rá
3SgHum accept.Pfv work(n)-do.VblN-Nom
'He/She agreed to do the work.'
b. a

| à | $s o ́(o ́)^{n}$ | ì-yà |
| :--- | :--- | :---: |
| 3SgHum | accept.Pfv | Nonh-3Sg |

'He/She agreed to/accepted it (proposal or invitation).' (/sòs ${ }^{\text {n }}$ ì-yà/)

### 17.4.5 'Forget' (nìnáà ) with postverbal verbal-noun complement

This verb (imperfective nìnáà, perfective nìné ~ nín $\bar{\varepsilon}$ ) can take a postverbal object denoting the forgotten entity (399). In the sense 'forget [to VP]', the object is a verbal noun (612).
(612) à Jìné séé-rá

3SgHum forget.Pfv come.VblN-Nom
' $\mathrm{He} /$ She forgot to come.'
17.4.6 'Be afraid to' $\left(j \sigma^{\prime} \delta^{n}\right)$ with postverbal verbal-noun or future complement

In simple ' $X$ fear $Y$ ' clauses, the verb $j$ jón 'fear, be afraid of' (cited in the imeprfective_takes a PP complement with postposition kìnà ~ kíná 'in front of’ (§8.3.3.6). If the complement is a same-subject VP ('be afraid to do'), it is in verbal-noun form (613a). If the complement is a full clause with disjoint subject ('be afraid that ...'), it thas the form of a complete future clause. A logophoric 3 Sg pronoun expresses a non-subject that is coindexed to the subject of 'be afraid' (613b).

$$
\begin{array}{llll}
\text { a. } & \text { zàkîıl= } \quad \text { jáón } & \text { séé-ré=é } & \text { nàa }  \tag{613}\\
\mathrm{Z}=\mathrm{Ipfv} \quad \text { be.afraid.Ipfv } & \text { come.VblN-Nom=Link } & \text { here } \\
& \text { 'Zaki is afraid to come here.' }(\text { séé-rá }) &
\end{array}
$$

b. zàkî̀ $=\varnothing \quad j o^{n}$ - yá
$\mathrm{Z}=\mathrm{Ipfv} \quad$ be.afraid.Prog
[má $=\varnothing \quad$ sà $=\quad$ (à-)wò báPrá]
[1Sg=Ipfv Fut Hum-3SgLogo hit.Ipfv]
'Zaki ${ }_{x}$ is afraid that I will hit him ${ }_{x}$.'
17.4.7 'Begin' (dàà-só?j̀ ) with preverbal verbal noun complement

This OV transitive verb takes an object denoting an activity. This object may be a simple noun like '(a) dance' or a verbal noun. dàà-sópò is likely a combination of dāā 'mouth' and s̀̀ $\grave{j} \sim$ só? ' 'catch', following a regional phrasing pattern.

| a. | à | wálā | dàà-sf́? $\bar{\varepsilon}$ |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
|  | 3SgHum | shout(n) | begin.Pfv |

b. má= $\varnothing$ sà wálí-méé dàà-só?ó
$1 \mathrm{Sg}=\mathrm{Ipfv}$ Fut work(n)-do.VblN begin.Ipfv
'I will begin to do the work.'
c. kūm $\bar{\varepsilon}$-kúní dàà-sóró
meal-eat.VblN begin.Imprt
'Begin-2Sg eating!'

This verb gets competition now from French loanword commencer (text 2016_02@ 02:27 and @ 03:39, text 2016_04@ 02:06).

See also kú 'set about (doing)', an auxiliary-like element denoting the onset and the extended duration and energy level of an activity (§15.1.1.1).

### 17.4.8 'Finish' (dà-káán $\sim$ dá- ${ }^{-} k a a^{n}$ ) ) with verbal-noun subject or complement

Example (615a) is a simple transitive sentence. To indicate that the action is completed, one option is a verbal noun as object, followed by transitive 'finished' (615b). Transitive forms include $d \grave{\varepsilon}-k \varepsilon^{n} \sim d \varepsilon ́-k \varepsilon^{n}$ (perfective) and dà-káán $\sim d a^{-} k{ }^{-} k a^{n}$ (imperfective), plus variants with $g$ for $k$. Alternatively, the agent may be the intransitive subject of 'finish', followed by a postverbal object in the form of a verbal noun ( $615 \mathrm{c}-\mathrm{d}$ ). In dá- ${ }^{〔}$ káán , except when followed by the negative enclitic, a slight downstep is audible (suggesting compound morphology).

| a. | mā | làrá | sè 2 rí $(\bar{I})$ |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
|  | 1Sg | place | sweep.Pfv |
|  | 'I swept (the place).' $(<$ làrà $)$ |  |  |

b. mā là a à-sè 2 rí dè-g $\varepsilon^{n}$

1Sg place-sweep.VblN finished.Pfv
'My sweeping (the place) has finished.'
c. má $=\varnothing$ sà [là 2á sè̀?r] dá- ${ }^{-}$káán
$1 \mathrm{Sg}=\mathrm{Ipfv}$ Fut [place sweep.VblN] finish.Ipfv
'I will finish sweeping (the place).'
d. mā dē-gén là ${ }^{n}$ à-sèrrì̀-rá

1Sg finish.Pfv place-sweep.VblN-Nom
'I have finished sweeping (the place).'

| e.à $d \grave{\varepsilon}-g \grave{\varepsilon}^{n}$ $k \bar{u} m \bar{\varepsilon} \bar{\varepsilon}-k u \bar{u}-n a \bar{a}$ <br>  3SgHum finish.Pfv | meal-eat.VblN-Nom |
| :--- | :---: | :--- |

### 17.5 Purposive and causal clauses

17.5.1 Same-subject purposive clause (tóró ~ tónó )

Adding tóró ~ tónó to the verb of a VP that follows a motion clause expresses or at least strongly implies purpose. If there is a postverbal constituent as in (616d), it follows tóró, which is postverbal rather than clause-final. The main verb is in verbal-noun form.

b. [mā sé] [wál séén̄ tóró] [1Sg go.Pfv] [work(n) look.for.VblN Purp] 'I came to look for a job.' (séénī )
c. $\left[\begin{array}{ll}a ̀ \\ \text { à }] \text { [yí bén̄ tóró] }\end{array}\right.$
[3SgHum come.Pfv] [water draw.water.VblN Purp]
'He/She came to draw water (at a well).' (< bénī )
d. $[m a ̄$ sé] [’sóó tóró wō-n]
[1Sg go.Pfv] [help.VblN Purp 2Sg-Indep]
'I came in order to help you-Sg.'

Note also á wèé [klén̄ tònò] 'he/she went hunting', with klén 'hunt (noun)'.
tóró ~ tónó also means 'while' in backgrounded durative clauses, see §15.4.5 and (580) in §17.1.3.2. This raises the possibility that e.g. 'I came to look for a job' (616b) should be compared to English I came looking for a job. However, in the other examples of (616) such a translation would be awkward.

### 17.5.2 Causal ('because') clause (bùgóór̄̄ )

In (617), bùgóórē 'because' is followed by a regular indicative clause explaining the reason or motive for the eventuality denoted by the preceding main clause.

'I will stay at the house, because Zaki is sick.'

## 18 Anaphora

This chapter covers anaphoric elements (reflexive, reciprocal, logophoric) that are coindexed with a specific antecedent. It does not cover ordinary third-person pronouns.

### 18.1 Reflexive

Reflexives in Jalkunan are of two types. One uses reflexive pronominal proclitics, which are distinct from regular pronouns for $1 \mathrm{st} / 2$ nd persons but not for third person (§18.1.1). Such proclitics function as reflexive possessors of nonsubject NPs, and as postpositional complements, i.e. pronominals that are non-heads within phrases (NP, PP). They also occur in pseudo-reflexive (middle) clauses. The other type, more similar to English -self reflexives, makes use of a (reflexively possessed) noun yéPré (§18.1.2). Forms based on possessed yé?ré function as objects, both preverbal and postverbal. In both types, the antecedent is the clausemate subject.

### 18.1.1 Reflexive possessor of nonsubject NP

This construction occurs when the possessor of a nonsubject NP is coindexed with the clausemate subject. The reflexive possessor is pronominal. The basic forms, subject to modifications due to contractions and morpheme fusion, are those in (618) below. The same forms are used in reflexive postpositional complements (§18.1.1), and in preverbal object position in pseudo-reflexives (§10.1.1.3). Nonreflexive forms are shown for comparison.

> reflexive possessor
> regular $\quad n$-initial

| 1 Sg | $\bar{a}^{n}$ | $n a \bar{a}{ }^{n}$ | $m a \overline{ }$ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 2 Sg | $\bar{e} \sim \bar{i}$ | $n \backslash i ̄ 1$ | wō |
| 1 Pl | $\bar{a} \bar{a}^{n}$ | $n a \bar{a}{ }^{n}$ | mùpù ${ }^{\text {n }}$ |
| 2 Pl | $\bar{e} \bar{e}^{n} \sim \overline{i n}^{n}$ | $n \overline{11} \overline{i n}^{n}$ | $\bar{e} \bar{e}^{n}$ |
| 3SgHum | à ( $\sim a^{n}$ ) | ná | à |
| 3SgNonh | è $\sim$ | ní | è |
| 3PlHum | àà ${ }^{n}$ | náá ${ }^{n} \sim n a ̀ a^{n}$ | àà ${ }^{n}$ |
| 3PINonh | $\grave{e} \grave{e}^{n} \sim \grave{1 ı}^{n}$ | $n 111{ }^{n} \sim n i \grave{1}{ }^{n}$ | è̀è ${ }^{n}$ |

The $n$-initial variants occur in preverbal object NPs following the subject (but not after the future particle); see §18.1.1.4 below for details. Reflexive possessors are limited to nonsubject NPs and are therefore always non-clause-initial, except in singular-addressee imperatives as in $\left[\bar{e} j \varepsilon^{n}\right]$ nàkì 'ask your-Sg father!'. Therefore the regular forms (those without initial $n$ ) usually undergo $V_{V}$-Contraction with the preceding word. Contraction masks the length of the long vowels in the plural forms. In practice, therefore, 1 Sg and 1 Pl reflexive possessor forms are often indistinguishable from each other in regular as well as $n$-initial reflexive possessor series, so the $1 \mathrm{Sg} / 1 \mathrm{Pl}$ opposition in the "regular" column is idealized and arguably misleading. Other possessor-number oppositions ( $2 \mathrm{Sg} / 2 \mathrm{Pl}$, human and nonhuman $3 \mathrm{Sg} / 3 \mathrm{Pl}$ ) rely more on nasalization than on length.

Third person pronouns do not overtly distinguish reflexive from nonreflexive forms, although I do include "Refl" in interlinear glosses based on syntax and semantocs. Since the third person categories are those for which reflexives would have the greatest disambiguating function (He saw himself versus He saw him), disambiguation does not seem to play a role here. Instead, the reduction occurs in the $1 \mathrm{st} / 2 \mathrm{nd}$ person possessors. It takes the unusual form of an almost total segmental (but not tonal) merger of first person with human third person, and of second person with nonhuman third person. The segmentally merged forms remain distinct due to the generalization of M -tone among $1 \mathrm{st} / 2 \mathrm{nd}$ persons, versus L-tone for third persons. The only segmental difference is that the 1 Sg form is nasalized while the human 3 Sg form is not consistently nasalized (though it occasionally is). The relationships are brought out by rearranging the categories in the fashion of (619).

Reflexive possessors

> M-toned
> L-toned

| 1Sg | $\bar{a}^{n}$ |
| :--- | :---: |
| 3SgHum | à $\left(\sim a^{n}\right)$ |
| 1Pl | $\bar{a} \bar{a}^{n}$ |
| 3PlHum | $\grave{a}^{n}$ |


| 2Sg | $\bar{e} \sim \bar{i}$ |
| :--- | :---: |
| 3SgNonh | $\grave{e} \sim \grave{i}$ |
| 2Pl | $\bar{e} \bar{e}^{n} \sim \overline{1} \overline{1}^{n}$ |
| 3PlNonh | $\quad \overline{e ̀} \grave{e}^{n} \sim \grave{i} \grave{l}^{n}$ |

Though the basic 3 Sg reflexive forms are à (human) and è (nonhuman), my assistant sometimes nasalizes their vowels. In the case of human $3 \mathrm{Sg} \grave{a} \sim \grave{a}^{n}$, the nasalized variant differs only tonally from 1 Sg reflexive possessor $\bar{a}^{n}$.

This sound-symbolic merger of third human with first person, and of third nonhuman with second person, results in a typologically extraordinary binary category. Whether it is unique in the world's languages I cannot say. Other Mande languages may not be a good place to look, since most of them do not distinguish $\pm$ human or $\pm$ animate in third person
pronouns. Diachronically, one suspects that the starting point for the Jalkunan development was the segmental identity of $2 \mathrm{Pl} \bar{e} \bar{e}^{n}$ with nonhuman 3 Pl èè ${ }^{n}$, and (in proto-Jalkunan) that of archaic 2 Sg object variant $\bar{e}$ (preserved in imprecations) with nonhuman 3 Sg è. If this is correct, the pattern (segmental identity, but M versus L tone) then spread analogically to first person forms, with 1 Sg mā determining their -ATR value.

Except for objects in imperatives with second person possessor, as in [ $\left.\bar{e} j \varepsilon^{n}\right]$ nàkì 'ask your-Sg father!', reflexive possessors do not occur clause-initially. Since they begin with vowels, and since preceding words normally end in vowels, they are generally subject to $v v$-Contraction.

Teasing apart the reflexive possessor vowels from their contractions with preceding words, (620) proposes underlying paradigms for alienables. The tones of the possessums are what we would expect for these nouns, based on the patterns described in $\S 6.2 .2$ above. The $\{\mathrm{LH}\}$ tone overlay for possessums after 3 Sg possessors is regular. Rising tones in $\bar{a} a^{n}, ~ \grave{e ̀} e^{n}$, and $\bar{e} e^{n}$ are due to Final Tone-Raising (tone sandhi) before an L-tone.

Reflexively possessed alienables

|  | 'fish' (yílé ) |  | 'bird' $\left(k \grave{j}^{n}\right)$ |  | 'fire' (tāā ) |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 1 Sg | $\bar{a}^{n}$ | yì?è-rà | $\bar{a}^{n}$ | kò-nó | $\bar{a}^{n}$ | tàà-rà |
| 2 Sg | $\bar{e}$ | yì?è-rà | $\bar{e}$ | kò-nó | $\bar{e}$ | tàà-rà |
| 1 Pl | $\bar{a} a^{n}$ | yìRè-rà | $\bar{a} a^{n}$ | kò-nó | $\bar{a} a^{n}$ | tàà-rà |
| 2 Pl | $\bar{e} e^{n}$ | yì?è-rà | $\bar{e} \overline{e ́ n}^{n}$ | kò-nó | $\bar{e} e^{n}$ | tàà-rà |
| 3 SgHum | à | yì?è-rá | à | kò-nó | à | tàà-rá |
| 3 SgNonh | è | yì?è-rá | è | kò-nó | è | tàà-rá |
| 3PlHum | àá ${ }^{n}$ | yì?è-rà | àá ${ }^{n}$ | kò-nó | àá ${ }^{n}$ | tàà-rà |
| 3PlNonh | èé ${ }^{n}$ | yì?è-rà | èé ${ }^{n}$ | kò-nó | èé ${ }^{n}$ | tàà-rà |

Array (621) below shows forms for inalienables. The notable point is that M-Spreading does not occur after M-toned reflexive possessors, though M-Spreading does occur after these possessors in nonreflexive contexts. Therefore $1 \mathrm{st} / 2 \mathrm{nd}$ person reflexive possessors are lumped into the -3 Sg category, i.e. they have the same tonal effects on following inalienable nouns as do 3 Pl reflexive possessors. The result is a binary split, for all alienably possessed nouns, between +3 Sg and -3 Sg reflexive possessors. For example, 1 Sg reflexive $\bar{a}^{n} j \dot{\varepsilon}-n a ́$ 'my (own) father' in (621) shows no M-Spreading and has the same nominal tone as ààn jéná 'their father'. By contrast, nonreflexive inalienable mā $j \bar{\varepsilon}-n \bar{a}$ 'my father' does show M-Spreading; see (176a) in (§6.2.2.3).
(621) Reflexively possessed inalienables

|  | 'father' $\left(j \varepsilon^{n}\right)$ |  | 'child' (dí) |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 1 Sg | $\bar{a}^{n}$ | jé-ná | $\bar{a}^{n}$ | dí-rá |
| 2 Sg | $\bar{e}$ | jé-ná | $\bar{e}$ | dí-rá |
| 1 Pl | $\bar{a} \bar{a}^{n}$ | jé-ná | $\bar{a} \bar{a}^{n}$ | dí-rá |
| 2 Pl | $\bar{e} \bar{e}^{n}$ | jé-ná | $\bar{e} \bar{e}^{n}$ | dí-rá |
| 3 SgHum | à | jè-ná | à | dì-rá |
| 3 SgNonh | è | jè-ná | è | dì-rá |
| 3PlHum | àà ${ }^{n}$ | jé-ná | àà ${ }^{n}$ | dí-rá |
| 3PlNonh | èè ${ }^{n}$ | jé-ná | èè ${ }^{n}$ | dí-rá |

Reflexive possessors also occur on noninitial conjuncts in conjoined NPs, either of the type ' X 's [Y and Z]' phrased as '[X's Y] and [Refl $\mathrm{R}_{\mathrm{x}} \mathrm{Z}$ ', or of the type ' X and [X's Y]', phrased as ' $X$ and $\left[\operatorname{Refl}_{x} Y\right]$. See (219a-c) in §7.1.3 for examples.

### 18.1.1.1 Reflexive possessor of postverbal NP

In (622), the relevant possessum is postverbal. Therefore it can have no morphological or tonal interactions with subjects or with post-subject inflectional (TAM) particles. Vocalic contractions are indicated by the enclitic boundary symbol $=$. The tone-lowering effect of /HM(L)/-toned 'money' overrides Leftward H-Shift in (622a, c).

1Sg money give.Pfv [1SgRefl father-Nom]
'I gave (the) money to my father.'
$\left(/\right.$ wárī +L bìlí $\overline{\mathrm{a}}^{\mathrm{n}} / \rightarrow\left(/\right.$ wárī +L bíl $\left.=\overline{\mathrm{a}} \overline{\mathrm{a}}^{\mathrm{n}} /\right) \rightarrow$ wár bìl $=$ àà ${ }^{n}$
b. wō sà wár $\quad$ bìlì $=\quad[i ̀ \quad j \varepsilon ́-n a ́] ~$
2Sg Fut money give.Ipfv [2SgRefl father-Nom]
'You-Sg will give the money to your father.' (< bìlè ī )
c. wár blì $=\quad[i ̀ \quad j \varepsilon ́-n a ́] ~$
money give.Imprt [2SgRefl father-Nom]
'Give-2Sg the money to your father!'

### 18.1.1.2 Reflexive postpositional complements

The reflexive forms used in postpositions are identical to the reflexive possessor forms. The reflexive noun yé?ré found in subject-object reflexives is absent.
a. mā dèrèké $j i ̀=\quad\left[\bar{a}^{n}\right.$
1 Sg boubou see.Pfv [1SgRefl under]
'I found the boubou (=garment) under myself.' (< dèrèkè̀, jì́ $\rightarrow j i ̀)$
b. ēée ${ }^{n}$ dèrè̀ké $j \grave{\imath}=\quad\left[\overline{1} \bar{i}^{n} \quad k u \bar{t} \bar{\jmath}\right]$

2 Pl boubou see.Pfv [2P1Refl under]
'You-Pl found the boubou under yourselves.'
c. Wō dèrèké $j i ̀=\quad[\bar{i} \quad k u ̄ t \overline{0}]$

2 Sg boubou see.Pfv [2SgRefl under]
'You-Sg found the boubou under yourself.'

### 18.1.1.3 Reflexive possessors in conjunctions

In a conjunction of the type ' X and [ X 's Y ]', where the possessor inside the right conjunct ' X 's Y ' is coindexed with the left conjunct X , reflexive possessor forms are used. This is transparent when X is a first or second person pronoun (624a). It is not overt when X is a third person pronoun or NP, since these forms do not distinguish reflexive from nonreflexive possessor (624b). However, I gloss the ambiguous 3 Sg possessor in (624b) as reflexive by analogy to $1 \mathrm{st} / 2$ nd person reflexive forms.


### 18.1.1.4 Reflexive possessor of preverbal object

In the examples to follow, the possessed NP is a preverbal object, so the construction in Jalkunan is of the type [ $\mathrm{NP}_{\mathrm{x}}$ Infl [Refl $\left.\mathrm{N}_{\mathrm{x}} \mathrm{N}\right]$ Verb]'. A pronominal subject, inflectional morpheme (if any), and reflexive possessor can become partially fused.

In (625), k $\bar{y} y \overline{1}$ 'belly' (inalienable) and bāpā 'porridge' (alienable) take their regular possessed tonal forms, namely kóyí (except 3 Sg possessed kj̀yí), and bà $2 a ̀$ (except 3 Sg possessed bà Pá). bà?à becomes bà?á secondarily by Final Tone-Raising before an L-tone in several examples witn other than 3 Sg possessor ( $625 \mathrm{~b}, \mathrm{~d}, \mathrm{~h}$ ).

| a. | $m a ̄$ | [ $n a \bar{a} \bar{n}^{n}$ | kóyí] |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | 1 Sg | [1SgRefl | belly] | see.Pfv |
| 'I saw my belly.' |  |  |  |  |
|  | $m \bar{a}$ | [nāã ${ }^{n}$ | bà?á] | jìz |
|  | 1 Sg | [1SgRefl | porridge] | see.Pfv |
|  | 'I saw my porridge.' |  |  |  |
| c. | mùpù ${ }^{\text {n }}$ | [ ${\overline{n a ̄}{ }^{\text {a }} \text { n }}$ | kóyí] | jìz |
|  | 1P1 | [1PlRefl | belly] | see.Pfv |
|  | 'We saw our belly.' |  |  |  |
| d. | mù?ùn | [ $n a ̄ a{ }^{n}$ | bà?á] | jì¢ |
|  | 1P1 | [1P1Refl | porridge] | see.Pfv |
|  | 'We saw our porridge.' |  |  |  |
| e. | à | [ná | kòyí] belly] | jì́ see.Pfv |
|  | 3SgHum | [3SgHum |  |  |
|  | 'He ${ }_{\mathrm{x}}$ saw (variant | his $_{\mathrm{x}}$ (own) <br> ‘́ [ kòyí] jı |  |  |

f. à̀ [ná bà?á] jì́

3SgHum [3SgHumRefl porridge] see.Pfv
'He ${ }_{\mathrm{x}}$ saw his ${ }_{\mathrm{x}}$ (own) porridge.'
(variant á [Ø bà2á] jìé)
g. àà ${ }^{n}$ [náà ${ }^{n}$ kóyí] jìé

3PlHum [3PlHumRefl belly] see.Pfv
'They ${ }_{x}$ saw their ${ }_{x}$ (own) belly.'
h. àà ${ }^{n}$ [náà ${ }^{n}$ bà?á] jìé

3PlHum [3PlHumRefl porridge] see.Pfv
'They ${ }_{x}$ saw their ${ }_{\mathrm{x}}$ (own) porridge.'

Combinations of subjects, inflectional morphemes, and reflexive possessors for preverbal objects are in (626). As usual, the present and future have an imperfective enclitic $/ \mathrm{H}+=\varnothing /$ on the subject (in positive sentences). In the perfective and present, which have no segmentally nonzero inflectional morpheme separating subject from object, $n$ separates them. This is the same $n$ that occurs in combinations of a pronominal subject with a third-person
pronominal object (e.g. human 3 Sg ná $)$, see §3.6.3.2. The $n$ does not occur in the future, which has a nonzero inflectional morpheme sà.

> perfective present future imperative

| 1 Sg | $m a \bar{n} n \bar{a} \bar{a}^{n}$ | $m a ́=\varnothing$ nāā ${ }^{n}$ | $m a ́=\varnothing$ sà $=\grave{a}^{n}$ | - |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  |  | $\sim$ má $=\varnothing$ nàà ${ }^{n}$ |  |  |
| 2 Sg | $W^{\text {a }}$ nīī | $w o ́=\varnothing$ nī̀ | $w o ́=\varnothing$ sì $=\grave{i}$ | $\varnothing \bar{e}$ |
|  |  | $\sim w o ́=\varnothing$ nì̀ ${ }^{n}$ |  |  |
| 1 Pl | $m u ̀ h \grave{u}^{n} n a \bar{a}{ }^{n}$ | mù?ún $=\varnothing$ nāāa ${ }^{n}$ mù ${ }^{\text {a }}{ }^{n}=\varnothing$ sà $=\grave{a}^{n}$ |  | - |
|  |  | $\sim$ mù?ún $=\varnothing$ nàà |  |  |
| 2 Pl | $\bar{e} \bar{e}^{n} n \overline{1} \bar{i}^{n}$ | $\bar{e} e^{n}=\varnothing n \overline{11}{ }^{n}$ | $\bar{e} \bar{e}^{n}=\varnothing s i ̀=i^{n}$ | $\bar{e} \bar{e}^{n} n \stackrel{1}{1}$ |
|  |  | $\sim \bar{e} e^{n}=\varnothing$ nì ${ }^{n}$ |  |  |
| 3 SgHum | à ná | á $=\varnothing$ nà |  | - |
|  | ~á |  |  |  |
| 3 SgNonh | è ní | $e ́=\varnothing$ nì | é $=\varnothing$ sí= ${ }^{\prime}$ | - |
|  | $\sim$ é |  |  |  |
| 3PlHum | àà ${ }^{n} n a ́ a{ }^{n}$ | àá ${ }^{n}=\varnothing$ nàà ${ }^{n}$ | àa ${ }^{n}=\varnothing s a ́=\grave{a}^{n}$ | - |
| 3PlNonh | èè $n \hat{11}^{n}$ | $\grave{c}^{\text {en }}=\varnothing$ nì ${ }^{n}$ | $\grave{\text { èe }}{ }^{n}=\varnothing s i ́=i^{n}$ | - |
| Sg NP | (n)á | $=\varnothing(n) a ̀$ | $=\varnothing$ sá $=$ à |  |
| Pl NP | (n)áà ${ }^{\text {n }}$ | $=\varnothing(n) a ̀ a ̀ n ~$ | $=\varnothing$ sá $=\mathrm{a}^{n}$ |  |

These forms, specifically including the $n$-initial $1 \mathrm{st} / 2 \mathrm{nd}$ person forms, are identical (or nearly so) to those used (without a possessum) as pseudo-reflexive objects. See (307) in §10.1.1.3.

Etymologically, $1 \mathrm{Sg} *_{n a \bar{a}} \bar{a}^{\mathrm{n}}$ was probably distinct from $1 \mathrm{Pl} *_{n a ̄} \bar{a}^{\mathrm{a}}$, and $2 \mathrm{Sg} *_{n \overline{1}} \overline{1}$ was probably distinct from $2 \mathrm{Pl} *_{n \overline{1}} \overline{1}_{1}{ }^{\mathrm{n}}$, but $V V$-Contraction and the neutralization of vocalic nasality after a nasal consonant have led to mergers. 2 Sg and 2 Pl are still distinguished by nasality in the future combinations ( $s i=i ̀ v e r s u s ~ s i ̀=i n)$.

In (627) the subjects are nonpronominal NPs.
a. zàkí [ná
wùlá] bà?rí
Z [3SgHumRefl dog] hit.Pfv
'Zaki ${ }_{\mathrm{x}}$ hit-Past his $\mathrm{X}_{\mathrm{x}}$ (own) dog.'
[homophonous with '"Zaki ${ }_{\mathrm{x}}$ hit-Past his/her $\mathrm{r}_{\mathrm{y}}$ dog.']
b. [zàkí bù?ù bákàrì] náàn ${ }^{n}$ wùlá bà?rí
[Z and B] 3PlHumRefl dog hit.Pfv
'Zaki ${ }_{x}$ and Bakari ${ }_{\mathrm{y}}$ hit their $\mathrm{x}_{\mathrm{xy}}$ (own) dog.'
[homophonous with 'Zaki ${ }_{x}$ and Bakari ${ }_{y}$ hit-Past their dog.'] $^{\text { }}$ '

Imperative and prohibitive examples are in (628).
a. [e
wùlá]
bà?rì
[2SgRefl dog] hit.Imprt
'Hit-2Sg your-Sg dog!'
b.

| $b i ́=$ | $[i ́ l$ | wùlá/ dórō $]$ | bà $r=$ lé $?$ |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| Proh | $[2 \mathrm{SgRefl}$ | dog/younger.brother $]$ | hit.Imprt=Neg |

'Don't-2Sg hit your dog/your younger brother!'
c. $\bar{e} \bar{e}^{n} \quad b i ́=\quad\left[(i ̂) 1^{n} \quad\right.$ wùlá $\left./ d o ́ ? \bar{o}\right] \quad$ bà?r $=$ lé?

2Pl Proh [2PlRefl dog/younger.brother] hit.Imprt=Neg
'Don't-2Pl hit your dog/your younger brother!'

### 18.1.2 Reflexive object (yé?ré ~ yé?ré)

Explicit subject-object reflexives of the type ' X hit [X's self]', i.e. with coindexed subject and object, require a reflexively possessed noun-like word yé?ré, comparable to -self in English reflexives. It does not allow a nominal affix and has no morphological plural, so its status as a noun must be qualified. yé?ré is also used as an emphatic (§18.1.2.3 below) but it is not attested as an ordinary noun. A -ATR variant yéqré is also used occasionally by my assistant, see (630b) below. A following verb treats yé?ré as +3 Sg for tonal purposes (§3.8.3.5), so this verb is L- or LH-toned depending on inflectional category in (629a-b), cf. also (632a-b). Likewise the postposition 'with' is L-toned dè in (633) below.
a. mā [nāāa ${ }^{n}$ yé?ré] bà?rí
$1 \mathrm{Sg} \quad[1 \mathrm{SgRefl}$ self] hit.Pfv
'I hit-Past myself.'
$\begin{array}{lllll}\text { b. } & \text { mā } \quad \text { sà }= & {\left[\text { à }^{n}\right.} & \text { yéPré }] & \text { bàPrà } \\ & \text { 1Sg Fut }= & {[1 \text { SgRefl }} & \text { self }] & \text { hit.Ipfv } \\ & \text { 'I will hit myself.' } & & & \end{array}$

### 18.1.2.1 Reflexive postverbal NP

In (630), the reflexive is a postverbal NP, so the reflexive possessor pronoun lacks the initial $n$ and contracts with the final vowel of the verb.

| a. | $m \bar{a} \quad$ bápr $=\quad\left[\grave{n}^{n}\right.$ | yé?ré $]$ |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
|  | $1 \mathrm{Sg} \quad$ touch.Pfv $\quad[1 \mathrm{SgRefl}$ | self] |
|  | 'I touched myself.' $(<$ báPrī $)$ |  |



### 18.1.2.2 Reflexive preverbal object

The paradigm for indicative clauses with a reflexive preverbal object is (631). The basic tonal form is yépré, becoming yèpré with the $\{\mathrm{LH}\}$ pattern associated with 3 Sg subjects. M-toned $y \bar{e}$ Pre $\bar{e}$ in the $1 \mathrm{Sg}, 2 \mathrm{Sg}$, and 2 Pl perfective is due to M -Spreading from M-toned pronominals.

$$
\begin{equation*}
\text { perfective } \quad \text { present } \quad \text { future } \tag{631}
\end{equation*}
$$

$1 \mathrm{Sg} \quad$ mā $n a \bar{a}^{n}$ yē?rē $\quad$ má $=\varnothing$ nààn yépré $\quad$ má $=\varnothing$ sà $=$ à $^{n}$ yé?ré

2Sg wō nīī yēPrē $\quad w o ́=\varnothing$ nìì yé?ré $\quad w o ́=\varnothing$ sì $=$ ì yé?ré
$1 \mathrm{Pl} \quad$ mù?ùn $n a \bar{a}^{n}$ yé?ré mùpú $=\varnothing$ nàà ${ }^{n}$ yé?ré mù?ún $=\varnothing$ sà $=\grave{a}^{n}$ yé?ré
$2 \mathrm{Pl} \quad \bar{e} \overline{e ́}^{n} n i \bar{i}{ }^{n}$ yépré $\quad \bar{e} e^{n}=\varnothing$ nìi ${ }^{n}$ yé?ré $\quad \bar{e} e^{n}=\varnothing s i ̀=i ̀ n ~ y e ́ p r e ́ ~$
$2 \mathrm{Pl} \quad$ mǎā nīī yé?ré $\quad$ mǎā $=\varnothing$ niì ${ }^{n}$ yéPré $\quad m a ̌ a ̄=\varnothing$ sì $=i^{n}$ yé?ré

3 SgHum à ná yèpré $\quad$ á $=\varnothing$ nà yè?ré $\quad$ á $=\varnothing$ sá $=$ á yè?ré
á yè?ré
3 SgNonh è ní yè?ré
é $=\varnothing$ ní yè?ré é $=\varnothing$ sí=í yè2ré
3 PlHum à̀ ${ }^{n} n$ náà ${ }^{n}$ yépré à à ${ }^{n}=\varnothing$ nàà ${ }^{n}$ yépré àáa $=\varnothing ~ s a ́=\grave{a}^{n}$ yépré
3 PINonh èè nîil ${ }^{n}$ yépré $\quad$ èén $=\varnothing$ nìi ${ }^{n}$ yé?ré èè $n=\varnothing s i ́=\overline{i n}^{n}$ yépré
$\mathrm{Sg} \mathrm{NP} \quad(n)$ á yèPré $\quad=\varnothing$ nà yèPré $\quad=\varnothing$ sá $=$ á yè̀ré
$\mathrm{Pl} \mathrm{NP} \quad(n)$ áà ${ }^{n}$ yérré $\quad=\varnothing$ nàà ${ }^{n}$ yé?ré $\quad=\varnothing s a ́=a^{n}$ yépré

The imperative is illustrated in (632a-b).
(632)
a. $\bar{e}$
yé?ré
bà?rì
2SgRefl self hit.Imprt
'Hit yourself!'
b. $\bar{e} \bar{e}^{n} \quad n \overline{1} \overline{i n}^{n} \quad$ yépré bàprì

2Pl 2P1Refl self hit.Imprt
'Hit yourselves!'
18.1.2.3 Emphatic nonreflexive use of yé?ré ~ yé?ré

In (633), yépré added directly to an NP (here a pronoun) functions somewhat like emphatic, nonreflexive myself in English. In (633) I prefer to translate with the adverb personally. There
is no anaphoric link to the clausemate subject or other antecedent. Instead, the point is that Zaki refuses to speak to anyone else, such as an underling.

```
(633)
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|c|c|c|}
\hline zàkî̀ & \(k{ }^{\prime}=\) & & [う-wó & kj̀j̀kó & ciè] \\
\hline Z & want.Ipfv & & [Hum-3SgLogo & talk(n) & speak.Adjn] \\
\hline [[mā & yépré] & dè] & & & \\
\hline \({ }^{[1 S g}\) & self] & with] & & & \\
\hline
\end{tabular}
```


### 18.2 Reciprocal

### 18.2.1 Reciprocals (nù̀ù̀n

This morpheme behaves like a possessed inalienable with lexical melody /L/, cf. (172a) in §6.2.2.1. Its morphosyntax resembles that of reflexive yéfré. However, as a preverbal object it allows more contractions than yépré does with pronominal subjects. It is intrinsically plural and has no morphologically plural form. The sense is reciprocal ('each other').

The tonal effect of nùhù ${ }^{n}$ on a following word is that of a -3 Sg NP in the sense of §3.8.3.5. As a result, a following verb is H -toned at least in its onset. This is exemplified by perfective bárrī 'hit' in (636a-b) below as well as in (489a-c).

### 18.2.1.1 Reciprocal postverbal object

In (634), the reciprocal phrase is a postverbal object.

| a. | mù ${ }^{\text {un }}{ }^{n}$ | bápr $=$ | $\left[\overline{a ̄ a ̄}{ }^{n}\right.$ | nū$\left.\urcorner \bar{u}^{n}\right]$ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | 1 Pl | touch.Pfv | [1PIRefl | Recip] |
|  | 'We touched each other.' (< báprī ) |  |  |  |

b. $\bar{e} \bar{e}^{n} \quad b a ́ p r=\quad\left[\overline{i ̄} \bar{i}^{n} \quad j \bar{u} \hat{\imath} \bar{u}^{n}\right]$

2P1 touch.Pfv [2P1Refl Recip]
'You-Pl touched each other.'
c. àà ${ }^{n} \quad$ bápr $=\quad\left[\begin{array}{l}\text { àa } \\ \\ {[\text { nú?ún }}\end{array}\right]$

3PlHum touch.Pfv [3PlHumRefl Recip]
'They touched each other.'

### 18.2.1.2 Reciprocal preverbal object

The paradigm for combinations of preverbal reciprocal objects with various (always plural) subjects and with post-subject inflectional morphemes is (635).

|  | perfective | present | progressive |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 1 Pl |  | mù?ú $=\varnothing$ nàà ${ }^{n}$ núPún | mù?ún $=\varnothing$ sàà ${ }^{n}$ nú?úun |
|  | mùpà $=\grave{a}^{n}$ núpún |  |  |
| 2 Pl | $\bar{e} \bar{e}^{n} n \overline{1} \overline{1}^{n} n \bar{u} P \bar{u}^{n}$ | $\bar{e} e^{n}=\varnothing$ nìi ${ }^{n}$ núpún | $\bar{e} e^{n}=\varnothing$ sì̀ ${ }^{n}$ núpún ${ }^{n}$ |
| 3PlHum | à̀ ${ }^{n}$ náán $n u ́ p u u^{n}$ | à ${ }^{n}=\varnothing$ nááa ${ }^{n}$ núpú ${ }^{n}$ | à̀ ${ }^{n}=\varnothing$ sáà ${ }^{n}$ núpú ${ }^{n}$ |
| 3PlNonh | èè nîın $n u$ ?ún | èe ${ }^{n}=\varnothing$ nîil ${ }^{n}$ núpún | èe ${ }^{n}=\varnothing$ sîî ${ }^{n}$ júpún |
| Pl NP | (n)áà ${ }^{n}$ núpú ${ }^{n}$ | $=\varnothing$ náà ${ }^{n}$ núpú ${ }^{n}$ | $=\varnothing$ sáà ${ }^{n}$ júpú ${ }^{n}$ |
|  | $\sim$ ¢ $\chi^{\text {ù }}$ ù ${ }^{\text {n }}$ |  |  |

A transitive verb following nù ${ }^{n}{ }^{n}$ takes its -3 Sg form, beginning with an H-tone, e.g. bá?rī 'hit (perfective)'.

The variant $\varnothing$ núpún after plural noun (which then ends in plural -à ${ }^{n}$ ) might be thought of as a contraction, but the tonal patterns are not completely consistent with this. The two variant constructions are illustrated in (636a-b).
a. dí-rá-à ${ }^{n}$ [náà ${ }^{n}$ núPún $\left.{ }^{n}\right]$ báPrī
child-Nom-Pl [3PlHumRefl Recip] hit.Pfv
'The children hit-Past each other.'

nù ${ }^{2} \grave{u}^{n}$ in (636b) is tonally distinct from núpún in (636a). One possible analysis is that the final L-tone of náà ${ }^{n}$ in (636) has survived deletion of this pronominal and has spread onto the reciprocal morpheme.

### 18.3 Logophoric third person pronouns

### 18.3.1 Third person singular logophoric

Logophoric 3 Sg pronouns indicate coindexation with the author of the quotation. When simple main clause ( 637 a ) is quoted, if the simple human 3 Sg subject à is replaced by logophoric 3 Sg pronoun à-wò, this tells the listener that the quoted author (Zaki) is sick (637b). If this replacement is not made, the reference is to a third person other than Zaki (637c).

3SgHum health(n) be.healthy.Pfv=Neg
'He/She is sick.'
b. zàkîı $d \dot{\varepsilon}=$ [̀̀-ẁ $(\grave{o}) \quad$ wèè kéé $=r e \bar{e} p]$

Z say.Pfv [Hum-3SgLogo health(n) be.healthy.Pfv=Neg]
'Zaki ${ }_{\mathrm{x}}$ said that he $\mathrm{x}_{\mathrm{x}}$ is sick.' (/dé à-wò/)
c. zàkî̀ dé [à wèè kéé = rē?]

Z say.Pfv [3SgHum health(n) be.healthy.Pfv=Neg]
' Zaki $_{\mathrm{x}}$ said that he $\mathrm{y}_{\mathrm{y}} /$ she $_{\mathrm{y}}$ is sick.'

The same procedure may be used with nonsubject pronouns. Addition of logophoric -wò marks coindexation when added to human 3 Sg preverbal object ná (638a). This distinguishes it from (638b) where the reference is to a distinct third person.
a. zàkîı dé [wō ná-wò báprī]
Z say.Pfv [2Sg HumObj-3SgLogo hit.Pfv]
'Zaki $\mathrm{Z}_{\mathrm{x}}$ said that you-Sg hit him $_{\mathrm{x}}$.'
$\begin{array}{lllll}\text { b. } & \text { zàkîıl } & d \varepsilon ́ & {[W \bar{o}} & \text { ná } \\ \mathrm{Z} & \text { say.Pfv } & {[2 \mathrm{Sg}} & \text { 3SgHumObj } & \text { bàPrí }] \\ & \text { hit.Pfv }]\end{array}$

These examples also show that singular logophoric (or focalized) -wò, unlike regular 3 Sg pronominal proclitics, is treated as -3 Sg in the sense of $\S 3.8 .3 .5$ for tonal purposes. In other words, -wò does not require that the following word begin with L-tone. Perfective 'hit' is therefore bá?rī with initial H-tone after -wò in (638a), but bà?rí with initial L-tone after a regular 3 Sg pronominal in (638b). Similarly, comitative postposition dò $\sim$ dó takes H-toned form after -Wò in (640a) below, versus L-toned dò after regular 3Sg à in (640b).

For third-person pronouns as postverbal objects, the distinction is made by using logophoric pronoun in its independent form (including the final $-\bar{n}$ ) to mark coindexation (639a), versus the usual postverbal object forms such as human 3 Sg à-yà in uncoindexed contexts (639b).
a. zàkî
dé [wō bá?r=
à-wò-ǹ]
Z say.Pfv [2Sg touch.Pfv Hum-3SgLogo-Indep]
'Zaki ${ }_{\mathrm{x}}$ said that you-Sg touched him $_{\mathrm{x}}$.'
b. zàkî̀ dé [wō bápr $=$ à-yà $]$
Z say.Pfv [2Sg touch.Pfv Hum-3SgObj]
'Zaki ${ }_{x}$ said that you-Sg touched him $_{\mathrm{y}} /$ her $_{\mathrm{y}}$.'

Similarly, in PPs the logophoric pronoun (human 3Sg à-wò ) marks coindexation in (640a), while the simple human 3 Sg proclitic à is not coindexed (640b).
(640)
a. zàkî̀ dé $[W \bar{\imath} \quad s=$
[á-wò
dó7]
Z say.Pfv [2Sg come.Pfv [Hum-3SgLogo Comit]]
'Zaki ${ }_{\mathrm{x}}$ said that you-Sg came with him $_{\mathrm{x}}$.' (</sé à-wò/)

Z say.Pfv [2Sg come.Pfv [3SgHum with]
'Zaki ${ }_{x}$ said that you-Sg came with him $_{y} /$ her $_{\mathrm{y}}$.' (</sé à dò/)

The same is true of possessors of nonsubject NPs (641a-b).
(641)
$\begin{array}{llll}\text { a. } & \text { zàkîı } & d \varepsilon ́ & {[[a} \\ \mathrm{Z} & \text { say.Pfv }\end{array}$
[[à-wò wùlá=] è
3SgNonh
wěē]]
'Zaki ${ }_{x}$ said that his ${ }_{x}$ dog went away'
$\begin{array}{llllll}\text { b. } & \text { zàkîıl } & d \varepsilon ́ & {[[a ̀} & \text { wùlá }=] & \text { è } \\ \mathrm{Z} & \text { say.Pfv } & {[[\mathbf{3 S g H u m}} & \operatorname{dog}] & 3 S g N o n h & \text { wǒē }]] \\ & \text { go.Pvv }]\end{array}$
'Zaki ${ }_{\mathrm{x}}$ said that his $\mathrm{s}_{\mathrm{y}} / \mathrm{her}_{\mathrm{y}}$ dog went away'

### 18.3.2 Third person plural logophorics

Example (642a) has a 1 Pl subject pronoun. When it is quoted by a different speaker, it is expressed as a 3 Pl logophoric based on mǎā, i.e. human à-mǎā (642b), in animal tales also nonhuman è-mǎā. If there is no coindexation, the simple human 3 Pl ààn ${ }^{n}$ is used (642c).
a. mù?ún $=\varnothing$ sà sáá
$1 \mathrm{Pl}=\mathrm{Ipfv} \quad$ Fut come.Ipfv
'We will come.'
b. dí-rá-à ${ }^{n}$ dé [à-mǎā $=\varnothing \quad$ sà sáá]
child-Nom-Pl say.Pfv [Hum-3PILogo=Ipfv Fut come.Ipfv]
'The children ${ }_{x}$ said that they $y_{x}$ (themselves) would come.'
c. dí-rá-à ${ }^{n}$ dé $\quad\left[a ̀ a^{n}=\varnothing \quad\right.$ à sáá]
child-Nom-Pl say.Pfv [3PlHum=Impf Fut come.Ipfv]
'The children ${ }_{x}$ said that they $y_{y}$ (=others) would come.'

I have made the point in $\S 17.2 .1$ and elsewhere that quotative complements optionally begin with complementizer à 'that', but that contractions make it difficult to determine whether it is present before human third person pronominals in examples like ( $642 \mathrm{~b}-\mathrm{c}$ ).

An example with 3Pl logophoric independent pronoun as postverbal object (of a ditransitive verb) is (643).
(643) dí-rá-à ${ }^{n}$ [ [ $\quad$ ō tàgá bìlí à-mǎā-n] child-Nom-Pl say.Pfv [2Sg sheep give.Pfv Hum-3PILogo-Indep] 'The children ${ }_{x}$ said that you-Sg gave a sheep to them $\mathrm{m}_{\mathrm{x}}$.'

### 18.3.3 First and second persons

No logophoric use of independent pronouns occurs with $1 \mathrm{st} / 2 \mathrm{nd}$ persons ( $644 \mathrm{a}-\mathrm{b}$ ). There is no need for overt coindexation with the main-clause subject in these examples since the reference of each occurrence of a $1 \mathrm{st} / 2 \mathrm{nd}$ person pronouns is directly indexed to the participants in the speech event.
a. mā dé $[m a ̄ \quad w e ̄ e ̄ ~ k e ́ e ́=r e ̄ p] ~$

1 Sg say.Pfv [1Sg health(n) be.healthy.Pfv=Neg]
'I said that I was sick.'
b. $w \bar{o}$ d $\bar{\varepsilon}$ [wō wēè kéé $=r e ̄ ?]$

2 Sg say.Pfv [2Sg health(n) be.healthy.Pfv=Neg]
'You-Sg said that you-Sg were sick.'

## 19 Grammatical pragmatics

### 19.1 NP-final discourse-functional elements

### 19.1.1 kòní~ kóní 'as for’ (topic)

This particle follows NPs, usually clause-initial or preclausal, that switch from a previous topical referent to a new one. The form is +3 Sg kòní, -3 Sg kóní except kōnī after M-toned pronouns. 3 Sg pronouns usually (but not always) take the fuller "focalized" form with -wò. The $-n$ suffix (or variant) that occurs in independent pronouns is absent. Array (645) repeats data from (109) in §4.3.1.5.

$$
\begin{equation*}
\text { independent } \quad \text { 'as for } \mathrm{X} ' \tag{645}
\end{equation*}
$$

a. 1st/2nd person pronouns with final M-tone

| 1 Sg | $m \bar{a}-\bar{n}$ | $m a \overline{ } k \bar{n} n \overline{1}$ |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| 2 Sg | $w \bar{o}-\bar{n}$ | $w o ̄$ $k \bar{n} n \overline{1}$ |
| 2 Pl | $\bar{e} \bar{c}-\bar{n}$ | $\bar{e} \bar{e}^{n} k \bar{n} n \overline{1}$ |
| 2 Pl | mǎā- $-\bar{n}$ | mǎā $k \bar{n} n \overline{1}$ |

b. focalized or logophoric third person pronouns

| 3SgHum | à-wò-n | à-wò kóní |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| 3SgNonh | è-wò-n | è-wò kóní |
| 3PlHum | à-mǎā- $\bar{n}$ | à-mǎā k $n \bar{n}$ |
| 3PINonh | è-mǎā-n | è-mǎā $k \bar{n} n \overline{1}$ |

c. +3 Sg pronouns

3SgHum - à kòní
3SgNonh - è kòní
d. other -3 Sg pronouns

| 1Pl | mùPú-n(ú) | mù?u ${ }^{n}$ kóní |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| 3PlHum | àà-ń, àà-nú | àà $^{n}$ kóní |
| 3PINonh | èè-ń, èè-nú | èè $^{n}$ kóní |

A NP with kóní may be preclausal. If so it is prosodically set off, and a resumptive pronoun occurs in the following clause. Or the topical NP with kóní may function as subject of the clause, with no coindexed resumptive and no prosodic break. The latter is exemplified by mù̀̀̀n ${ }^{n}$ kóní '(as for) us' as clause subject in text 2014_04@ 01:14.

### 19.1.2 'Also' and 'again'

### 19.1.2.1 'Also, too' (dò Yò~ dó?ó )

The particle dò $o ́$ ~ dó?ó normally occurs at the end of an NP, which may be a pronoun. The LH-toned form follows +3 Sg forms, the H -toned form follows -3 Sg forms, and M -toned pronouns trigger M-Spreading. The LH-toned forms flatten to L-toned before a word beginning in a nonlow tone if there is no prosodic break (§3.8.3.6). This is the case in (646c) and (648a) below and in many examples in the texts. An NP ending in the particle is treated as -3 Sg with regard to its tonal effect on following words.

Noun-headed NPs with this particle are exemplified in (646a-d).
(646)
a. dí dò?ó
child too
'the child too'
b. dí-rááà dóró
child-Nom-Pl too
'the children too'
c. [dí dò̀ò $s$ éé
[child too] come.Pfv
'The child too came.'
d. [dí-rá-àn ${ }^{n}$ dó?ó] séé
[child-Nom-Pl too] come.Pfv
'The children too came.'

The pronominal paradigm is (647), repeating data from (109). M-toned dō $\bar{o} \bar{o}$ occurs by assimilation in (647a). The -3 Sg form dó?ó is the only possibility in (647b). 3 Sg pronouns (647c) have optional -wò for focalization (or logophoricity). The 'also' particle is H-toned after wò, otherwise L-toned.
(647) Pronominal paradigm of 'also, too'
a. $1 \mathrm{st} / 2 \mathrm{nd}$ person pronouns ending in M-tone

| 1 Sg | mā dōpō |
| :---: | :---: |
| 2Sg | wō dō? $\bar{o}$ |
| 2 Pl |  |
| 2 Pl | mǎā dō |

b. focalized or logophoric third-person pronouns

3 SgHum à-wò dó?ó
3 SgNonh è-wò dóró
3 PlHum à-mǎā dō? $\bar{o}$
3PlNonh è-mǎā dō?ō
c. +3 Sg pronouns

3 SgHum à dò?ó
3 SgNonh è dò?ó
d. other -3 Sg pronouns

| 1Pl | mù?ùn dó?ó |
| :--- | :--- |
| 3PlHum | ààn dóró |
| 3PlNonh | è èn ${ }^{n}$ dóqó |

Like English also, dòPó ~ dóPó can have the metapragmatic sense 'moreover, furthermore', as when the speaker provides additional information to the addressee. However, in Jalkunan the particle is expressed as part of an NP rather than as a preclausal adverb. An example is text 2016_04@00:29.

Other textual examples of dòró ~ dó?ó are: text 2016_01@ 00:28, @ 02:20, @ 02:56, @ 03:16; text 2016_02@ 01:49; and text 2016_04@ 00:16, @ 01:01, @ 01:48, @ 02:33, @ 03:25.

### 19.1.2.2 'Again' (dò $\begin{gathered}\text { ó ~ dó } o ́ ~) ~\end{gathered}$

There are two ways to say e.g. 'X came again.' One is a two-clause construction with 'return, repeat' as the first verb (§15.2.2.2). The second is with dò ${ }^{\prime}$ ó $\sim$ dó?ó at the end of the subject NP. Simple perfective examples are in (648).
(648)

[3SgHum again] come.Pfv
'He/She came again.'
b. $[m \bar{a} d \bar{o} ? \bar{o}]$ sध́
[1Sg again] come.Pfv
'I came again.'
c. [mù?ù ${ }^{n}$ dópó] séé

1 Pl again] come.Pfv
'We came again.'

That dò?ó ~ dó?ó is part of the subject NP is clearly shown by the position of a post-subject enclitic or future particle (649).
(649) [à dòPó] $=\varnothing$ sà sáá
[3SgHum again]=Ipfv Fut come.Ipfv
'He/She will come again.'

Possible ambiguity between the senses ' X come again' and '[ X too] come' can be avoided by using the alternative construction with 'return' in the 'again' sense.

### 19.1.2.3 dó? 'again' and its negation dóró $=r \bar{\varepsilon} ?$ 'no longer'

A -ATR form dóró is attested in positive clauses in text 2016_01@ 00:12, 2016_02@03:35, and in text 2016_04@ 02:58. I have glossed it 'again' or 'also' but the nuances are hard to pin down. Unlike dò?ó ~ dó?ó, this particle is adverbial, not limited to NP-final position.
'Not again' or 'no longer' can be expressed by clause-final dó?ó=rē?, i.e. 'again' plus the negative enclitic.

| cíí-ná-à | cíé | wó?ró | dó?́́ $=r \bar{\varepsilon} P$ |
| :--- | :--- | :---: | :---: |
| breast-Nom-pl | can.Ipfv | be.detached.Ipfv | again=Neg |
| 'Breasts could no longer be taken off.' $\left(2016 \_04 @ 03: 37\right)$ |  |  |  |

Other instances of dó $\mathbf{o}^{\prime}=r \bar{\varepsilon} ?$ are in text 2016_04@03:16 and @ 03:40.

### 19.1.2.4 Clause-final dóò

There is also a form dóò without glottal stop, whose relationship to dò Pó ~ dó?ó and to dó?ó is unclear. It is clause-final rather than NP-final in text 2016_02@ 04:14 and text 2016_04@ $00: 16$, @ 00:48, @ 02:03. However, it appears to be NP-final in one textual example: 2016_04@03:10. Glossing is difficult.

### 19.1.3 'Only' (kpè Pè- ~ kpé?é- )

This element is added at the end of an NP to indicate that the predicate is true for this and no other referent. It takes the form kpèhè after a numeral, and a slightly augmented form kpèlè̀-n(ù) ~ kpé?é-nū after other NPs. For a related sense 'exactly' see §8.5.3.
(651)
a. à
[jáān-táá
kpè̂è̀] bílī
$m a ̄-\bar{n}$
3SgHum [twenty-ten only] give.Pfv 1Sg-Indep
'He/She gave me only 200 (currency units).'
b. mā [jàlsà-dù kpé?é-n] jíÉ

1 Sg [Blédougou only-Indep] see.Pfv
'I saw Blédougou only.'
c. $[m \bar{a}$ kpè?è-ǹ $]$ śé
[1Sg only-Indep] come.Pfv
'Only I came.'

[1Sg sheep only-Indep]=Ipfv 1 Sg have
'I have only my sheep-Sg.'

### 19.2 Preclausal or clause-initial discourse markers

### 19.2.1 Paragraph introducers

### 19.2.1.1 'Well, ...’ (bon)

As a clause-initial discourse particle marking a shift in time or location, French bon occurs frequently in narrative texts. It is unstressed, sometimes almost inaudible on tape, and optionally followed by a slight pause. (652) occurred in the middle of a narrative, preceded by '(Hare) knew where a lion was lying.'
(652) bon, èè ${ }^{n}$ tá ${ }^{\text {Pá cíé [ }}$ [cií dò] kúdón̄],...
well, 3PINonh go.Adjn arrive.Pfv [[thicket one] under], ...
'Well, they went and arrived under (=at) a thicket (dense forest), ...' (2016_02 @ 01:10)

### 19.2.1.2 è-yá sòrò ‘now (it happened that ...’)

è-yá sòr̀̀, usually abbreviated as yá sòr̀̀, occurs preclausally in the sense 'now it happened that ...', where English now is used as an unstressed clause-initial narrative-break marker (rather than as a time adverb). It contains è-yà (nonhuman 3Sg pronoun) and sòr̀̀ 'do then', which occurs elsewhere in 'before ...' clauses (§15.4.4.1).
(653)

| [yá | sòrò | [à | dò2ò] |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| [3SgFoc | do.then.Ipfy] | [3SgHum | too] |
| cíz | [káméé-1 | dò] | ká |
| be.Past | [young.man-Dim | one] | have |

'Now (it happened that) she furthermore had a young man (=fiancé).' (2016_04 @ 00:29)

### 19.2.1.3 kàà-sòrò 'now (it happened that ...')

This functions in the same way as yá sòrò and contains the same element sòrò, but the initial element is opaque. The form is said to occur in Jula as well.

| nàà! | mùpún | $\varnothing$ | wà, |
| :--- | :--- | :---: | :--- |
| friend! | 1 Pl | 3SgNonhObj | go.Imprt, |
| kàà-sòrò, |  | cì-náā, | [false start omitted], |


| it.happened.that, | hare-Nom, |  |  |  |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| è̀ | [jèré | bòò | lá?à $]$ | dàà-sò |
| 3 SgNonh | $[l i o n$ | exit.VblN | place $]$ | know(place).Pfv |

'(Hyena said:) "Friend, let's go!" Now it happened that hare knew the lion's exit place.’(2016_02@ 01:04)

### 19.2.1.4 wálàà ~ wàláà 'there it is!'

French voilà in the form wálàà ~ wàláà and variants, can be used to confirm an interlocutor's comment that fits with what the speaker has been saying (cf. one use of English there you are!). It can also be a simple hesitation marker or paragraph opener. In (655) it is one of three discourse markers, perhaps reflecting speaker hesitation before uttering a clarification of the preceding discourse.

| èè ${ }^{n}$ | bé $=$ |  | [(è) ${ }^{\text {n }}$ |  | wú], |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 3PINonh |  | .Pfv | [3PlNo |  | Custod], |
| wálàà, | bon, | Sísà ${ }^{n}$ | cì-ná | dúlì | yàlíī |
| okay, | well, | now | hare-Nom | one | take.P |

'They (=hare and hyena) put (the lion cubs) in their custody (i.e. in sacks). There it is, well, now, hare took one (and hyena took the other).' (2016_02@ 01:15/01:24)
19.2.2 Clause-initial intensifiers

### 19.2.2.1 'Lo, ...' (jàPá)

This particle occurs clause-initially or preclausally, framing a surprising or dramatic event in a narrative. (656) is a textual example. Hyena had been told to do something else with the powdered salt so his action was surprising.

| (656) | é! | jàPá | súrúkú | kòò-fóPó | mògé $\bar{\varepsilon}$ |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
|  | hey! | lo! | hyena | salt-powder | suck.Pfv |

'Hey, lo! hyena sucked the powdered salt.'(2016.02@ 03:25)

### 19.2.2.2 'Even' (álì, fō )

Clause-initial álì, the local variant of a widespread regional form, means 'even'. It usually has primary scope over the subject (657a). For VP or other non-subject scope, a different phrasing
including a distinct form like $f \bar{o}$ 'all the way to, as far as' (also clause-initial) must be used (657b).
(657)
$\begin{array}{lllllll}\text { a. álì } & \text { dí-kpé?rè } & \text { cíé } & {[[\text { wálí }} & \text { mí }] & \text { màà }] \\ & \text { even } & \text { child-small } & \text { can.Ipfv } & {[[\text { work(n) }} & \text { Dem }] & \text { do.Ipfv }]\end{array}$
'Even a small child can do this work.'
b. [mā nírā] ŋùnù ḱ, [sध́n dò] kùdù,
[1Sg face] be.sour.Pfv Past, [thing one] for
fō mā jíimē
all.the.way.to 1 Sg weep.Pfv
'I was sad ("my face was sour"), because of something, to the point that I wept.'

### 19.2.3 Discourse-continuity markers

### 19.2.3.1 donc 'so'

French donc is used somewhat like bon, but it is much less common in my texts. It appears to indicate continuity, more or less as in French. (658) follows a description of a situation, and tells us that the situation continued for a while.

| (658) | donc | àà ${ }^{n}$ | $t u ́=u ́$ | yààlàā, ... |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | so | 3 PlHum | stay.Adjn=Link | thus, |
|  | 'So they remained thus (=in that situation),...' (2016 04 @ 00:23) |  |  |  |

This is background material and is followed by a new section in the narrative.

### 19.2.3.2 èmmè kómì 'so'

These two particles occur together in preclausal position. kómì is probably French comme 'as, like'. The following clause generally summarizes preceding discourse.
(659) èmmè kómì àà ${ }^{n}$ cíé gàán bàà
so like 3PlHum be.Past combat(n) wage.Ipfv
'(They also waged war.) So, they used to wage war.' (2016_01@ 03:05) (<gàà ${ }^{n}$ )
19.2.4 Adversative discourse markers

### 19.2.4.1 'But, ...' (mè )

Clause-initial mè (French mais) occurs several times in the texts. An example:
(660)

'They were hunters, but they also waged war (=were warriors).' (2016_01@ 02:56)

### 19.2.4.2 'Otherwise' (nóò-té, yàbùgór $\bar{\varepsilon}^{n}$ )

These clause-initial discourse elements are difficult to parse. The first is exemplified in (661). Decomposition into morphemes is difficult.

| Wō-ní= ì | nóò-té | $m a ̄$ | $c i ́$ | wàá | kúnú |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| 2Sg-Indep=it.is | otherwise | 1 Sg | be.Past | go.Ipfv | village |
| 'It's you, otherwise I would have gone home.' |  |  |  |  |  |

The second is exemplified in (662). The context is similar to that for nóò-té.

| (662) | zàkî̀ | $m \bar{a}$ | sóPéé |  |  |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| Z | 1 Sg | catch.Pfv |  |  |  |
|  | yàbùgór $\bar{\varepsilon}^{n}$ | $m a ̄$ | cíé | bákàrì | báprá |
| otherwise | 1 Sg | be.Past | B | hit.Ipfv |  |

'Zaki caught (=restrained) me, otherwise I would have hit Bakari.'
yàbùgór $\bar{\varepsilon}^{n}$ can also function as clause-initial 'anyway, ...', coming back to the main discourse theme after a digression. See 2016_01 @ 02:24. For bùgáórē ‘because’ see §17.5.2.
19.2.4.3 Self-correction àfy 'or rather'

An example is (663).

'When they went to bathe in the river, oops! rather when they started out...' (2016_04@00:06)

### 19.3 Clause-final discourse-functional morphemes

### 19.3.1 'Now' (sísìn ${ }^{\text {}}$ )

In narrative, sísàn 'now' (also in Jula and perhaps a borrowing) is very common clausefinally. Its discourse function is to mark a slight temporal interval between the just described eventuality and a new event. Since it often looks forward to the next clause, it often has continuity intonation (terminal prolongation and M-tone), transcribed sísà $\bar{a}^{n}$.
 well, 3PINonh [lion child-Nom-Pl] lie.down.Pfv see.Pfv now, è dè é! 3SgNonh say.Pfv hey!
'Well, they saw the (two) lion cubs lying down now. He (=hare) said, "hey, ...", (2016_02 @ 01:15)

### 19.3.2 Emphatic $d \bar{\varepsilon} ?$

Clause-final $d \bar{\varepsilon} ?$ is rather general emphatic. In (665), it indicates mild surprise.

| [wō | nàyí] | dì | $d \bar{\varepsilon}$ ?, | mon vieux |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| [2Sg | tears] | become.delicious.Pfv | Emph, | my old man |
|  |  | re are tasty!' (2016 | ( 04: |  |

In (666), there may be an admonitive element in addition to simple emphasis.

| (666) | má $=\varnothing$ | $[[w \bar{o}$ | Síbí $]$ | dò $]$ | ká | $d \bar{\varepsilon} ?$ |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
|  | 1Sg $=\operatorname{Ipfv}$ | $[[2 S g$ | meat $]$ | with $]$ | want.Stat | Emph |
|  | 'I sure want (to eat) a piece of your flesh!' | $\left(2016 \_01 @\right.$ | $04: 29)$ |  |  |  |

### 19.4 Greetings

Several Jula greetings are in use. An example is àní sògó mà 'good morning' and its reply àm báà. In some other cases there is a slight difference in pronunciation between Jula and Jalkunan. A greeting for a person at work or in the fields is ànì céè, a slight prosodic variation on Jula ànì cé $\rightarrow$. An arriving visitor or returning traveler is greeted with è dánsè 'welcome!'.

An extended greeting sequence occurs at the beginning of text 2016_02. The examples below were elicited to supplement that.

Departing travelers are sent off with a blessing for a safe return. Such formulae are somewhat difficult to parse; see §10.5.3.2. The subject is álāà 'God', here /álá/ before $v v$-Contraction. In (667a), the 2 Sg object is archaic $\bar{e}$ rather than $w \bar{o}$ as usual in imprecations.

In (667b) the 2 Pl object $\bar{e} \bar{e}^{n}$ is regular. 'Put you in' is understood as meaning 'bring you back (here)'.
(667)
a. álé $=\quad \bar{e} \quad j \bar{\varepsilon} \quad$ só
God 2Sg good put.in
‘May God put you-Sg (back) in well!'
b. álé $=\quad(\bar{e}) \bar{e}^{n} \quad j \bar{\varepsilon} \quad$ só

God 2Sg good put.in
'May God put you-Pl (back) in well!'

An alternative blessing, not necessarily presupposing a return, is (668).
(668) álá cálá nùpùn ${ }^{n}$-yá

God road make.good.Imprt
'May God make the road good (=safe)!'

Some wishes expressed during condolence visits to the bereaved survivors of a deceased person are in (669).
a. á

| álá | hín $=$ |
| :--- | :--- |
| God | relieve.Imp |

'May God relieve him/her.'
$\begin{array}{lccc}\text { b. álá } & \text { [kùtóŕ́ } & \text { má] } & \text { kùmà } \\ & \text { God } & \text { [behind } & \text { on] }\end{array} \quad$ cool.Imprt $\quad$.

Good wishes for life and health during the next year, like (670), are given on major religious holidays.

| (670) álá | $n \bar{\varepsilon} \bar{\varepsilon}$-Wè | bílí | mù?ú-nú |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
|  | God | next.year | give.Imprt | 1Pl-Indep

## Texts

I recorded seven texts from three speakers in October 2017. I have so far transcribed and translated texts 01,02 , and 04 . The first is an account of the settlement of Blédougou. The second is an animal tale, and the third is a tale about proto-humans.

## Text 2016_01: History

narrator: Traore Soungalo (S) with Traore Wamara (W)


W: 'I want to ask you-Sg about the manner of settling of Blédougou. The way (=how) Blédougou was settled, I want you-Sg to tell (it) to me.'

```
00:12 S: [jàlì-kú dù] dó?ó kè,
    S: [Jalkunan in] also tagQ,
    W: [jàlì-kú dù]
    W: [Jalkunan in]
    S: 'In Jalkunan (language) too?'
    W: '(Yes,) in Jalkunan.
    [k\varepsiloǹ tag question §13.2.1.4]
```

00:14 S: [[jàlsà-dù sé?é sè?è cògò yá mì]=yà],
S : [[Blédougou sit.Pfv sit.Vbl manner ?? Rel]=Q
jàl-á-à ${ }^{n}$ cíé [fóPó-tèè mé? $\left.\bar{\varepsilon}-n a ̀-a^{n}\right] \quad k u u^{n}$
Jali-Nom-Pl be.Past [powder-shoot.VblN person-Nom-Pl] Cop,
S: 'The way Blédougou was settled? The Jali people were hunters ("powder-
shooters").


S: ‘The Jali people left (=came from) Mande. They proceeded to go to Kankan.
[bóg 'exited', here shortened because nonfinal in clause; Mande refers to the area in southern Mali and northern Guinea-Conakry where the medieval Mande Empire was loosely centered]

00:28 S: [àà ${ }^{n}$ dóró] cíé
S: [3PlHum also] be.Past

àà ${ }^{n}$ búlú $\quad\left[\left[(a ̀)\right.\right.$ à $^{n} \quad$ kútóró $] \quad$ mà $]$,
3PlHum return.Adjn [[3PlHumRefl behind] on],
S: ‘They were also warrior kings. They turned around and went back.'
[ $<$ Jula kèlè-másâ 'warrior king']
00:33 S: [àà ${ }^{n}$ sá], [àà ${ }^{n}$ sá $\quad$ 'bélé]
S: [3PlHum come.Adjn], [3P1Hum come.Adjn pass] [àà ${ }^{n}$ tárá] [(à)à ${ }^{n}$ sápá kóròwáárī-wààngóló], [3PlHum go.Adjn] [3PlHum sit.down.Adjn Côte d'Ivoire-Ouanggolo],

S: 'They came, they came and they kept going and they settled at Côte d'IvoireOuangolo.'
[Ouangolodougou, or Ouangolo for short, denotes a pair of communities separated (widely) by the Burkina-Côte d'Ivoire border, so the country names are used as compound initials to specify which one]

00:40 S: jàlsà-dù dúpúnín-né= $=$ jàl-á-à-nū,
S: Blédougou land-Nom=it.is, Jali-Nom-Pl-Nom,
àà ${ }^{n}$ bóé kómì [fóró-tè̀è méqé-nà-à-nū]=ỳ,
3PlHum exit.Pfv as [powder-shoot.VblN person-Nom-Pl-Nom]=it.is,
àà ${ }^{n}$ ś́ fééní = yà dè, 3PlHum come.Pfv become.many=Link there.Def,

S: 'It's Blédougou's land. They left (=came from) (there). The Jali (people), as they were hunters, they came and multiplied there.'
[dù?ùnìnì 'country', here "possessed"]
00:47 S: [àà bélé] [àà ${ }^{n}$ sá dàmàànád,
S: [3PlHum pass.Adjn] [3P1Hum come.Adjn D],
àà ${ }^{n}$ sá cíé dàmààná,

3PlHum come.Adjn arrive.Adjn D,
dó-ō${ }^{n} \quad$ bó = yà dè, [àà ${ }^{n}$
certain-Pl exit.Pfv=Link there.Def, [3PlHum come.Adjn],

[3PlHum come.Adjn] [3PlHum sit.Adjn Blédougou],
S: 'They moved on and came to Damana. When they (had) arrived in Damana, some (of them) left there, they came, they came and sat (=settled) in Blédougou.'
[Damana, large village SE of Blédougou near Côte d'Ivoire border]

00:59
S: bon, ŋ́ jàlkù-róō,
S: well 1Pl Jalkunan-Nom, mù?ún $=\varnothing \quad$ tnì mà?à jàlsà-dù 1Pl 3SgNonhObj name(v).Ipfv Blédougou

S: 'Well, (in) our Jalkunan (language), we call it (=Blédougou village) jalsadu.' [ŋ́ reduced from mù? ${ }^{n}$ 1Pl]

01:04 S: jál-á-àāã, jál-á-à ${ }^{n}$ féénī kéē nàà,
S: tsetse-Nom-Pl, tsetse-Nom-Pl become.many.Pfv Past here, [wò kósò ${ }^{n}$ àà ${ }^{n}$ dé jàlsà-dù, [3SgFoct because] 3PlHum say.Pfv Blédougou, [jál-á-à ${ }^{n}$ sàá] dù, [tsetse-Nom-Pl house] in,

S: 'Tse-tse flies, There were lots of tse-tse flies here. That's why they said (=called the village) jalsadu, (contracted from) "in the house (=village) of the tse-tse flies".'
[jálá 'tse-tse fly'; Past kモ́ $\rightarrow$ kéē before demonstrative adverb nàà, can be transcribed $k e ́=\bar{e}$ nàà with encliticized linker]

01:11 S: bon, jó?ó-kú-rò, à-mǎā ${ }^{n}$ dé béré-dùgù,
S: well, Jula-language-Nom, Hum-3Pl say.Pfv stick-village, $\left[\begin{array}{ccc}m e ̀ ̀ \grave{\varepsilon}^{n} & \text { kpè̀̀-rá-àn }\end{array} \quad \varnothing \quad\right.$ jàmúlī, [person white-Nom-Pl] 3SgObj change.Pfv,

B: 'Well, in Jula (language), it's they (=Jula people) [focus] who say (=call the village) béré-dùgù ("wooden.stick-village"). The white people changed it.'
[à-mǎā human 3Pl focused pronoun §13.1.1]

01:18 S: àà ${ }^{n}$ ní mà?àn, Blédougou,
S: 3PlHum 3SgNonhObj say.Adjn, B, nóòté [è tò?ònì béré-dùgù], otherwise [3SgNonh be.named B], jàl-kù-róo, jàlsà-dù, [jál-á-à ${ }^{n}$ sàá] dù, Jalkunan-Nom, J, [tsetse-Nom-Pl house] in,

S: '(And) they called it Blédougou. Otherwise, it was (originally) named béré-dùgù. In Jalkunan (language), jàlsà-dù, (from) "in the house (=village) of the tse-tse flies".,

01:28 S: jàlsà-dù [sé?é kú-rò] nè,
S : Blédougou [sit.Vbl matter-Nom] here, mì jàlsà-dù sépé $\varepsilon$, dràmànù-gbé, Rel Blédougou establish.Pfv, DG, à-wò jàlsà-dù sé? $\varepsilon$ é, Hum-3Sg Blédougou establish.Pfv,

| $[$ à | sá $]$ | [dò̀̀ré | bòlò $],$ |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| $[3 \mathrm{SgHum}$ | come.Adjn $]$ | $[\mathrm{D}$ | give.birth.Adjn], |

'There's the (manner of) Blédougou's settling. The one who established Blédougou, (he was) Dramanu Gbe. It was he [focus] who established Blédougou. He (then) came and gave birth to (=had a child) Doore.'
[à-wò human 3Sg focus §13.1.1; dゝ̀òrè (name)]


W: 'So it's like Dramanu Gbe gave birth to (=had a son) Dore. Dramanu Gbe's son was (named) with (=by) Doore.'

S: '(He was called) with Doore. Dramanu Gbe's son was (named) with Doore.'
[dè 'with' here with names, cf. 'by the name of $X$ ']

01:57 S: dò̀̀rè dì-kàmà-náā, còn૧ònú dè,
S: D child-male-Nom, Tch with
còn º̀pú dì-kàmà-náā, è-wó [sìbírì dè],
Tch child-male-Nom, Nonh-3Sg [S with],
[sibírì dì-kàmà-ná] [kùgùlì dé],
[S child-male-Nom [K with],
S: Doore's son, (he was named) with Tcho'ongou. Tcho'ongou's son, (he was named) with Sibiri. Sibiri's son (was named) with Kuguli.
[è-wò here for expected human à-wò]


S: 'Kuguli's son, (he was named) with Seydou. We, in Senoufo language he (was called) Zample, but he was (really) called Seydou.'

$$
[m \grave{\varepsilon}=\text { French mais] }
$$

02:20 S: wáláā, kùgùlì dì-kàmá dò?ó,
S : so.there, K child-male too,
[è-wò dó?ó] [bàjárà dé],
[Nonh-3Sg too] [B with], à-wò $\quad d \varepsilon ́-k p \varepsilon^{n} \quad k a ́ a ̄ t o ̀, ~$ Hum-3Sg die.Pfv now,

S: 'So there. Kuguli's son too (=his other son), he too (was named) with Badiara. It was he (=Badiara) [focus] who died recently.'
[My assistant clarifies: Badiara was the son of Kuguli the elder son of Sibiri, while Seydou was son of Baba the younger son of Sibiri, i.e. Seydou and Badiara were paternal cousins]

02:29 S: sòlòmánī, [mè $1 \varepsilon^{n} \quad$ mǐ] $=\varnothing$ [jàlsà-dù sàà-màá] kùn fì,
S: S, [person Rel]=be [Blédougou house-chief] Cop today, è-wó [sòlòmán dé], Nonh-3Sg [S with],

S: '(As for) Suleyman, the person who is the village chief today, he is (named) with Suleyman.
[sàà-màà 'village chief']

02:34 S: wáláā, mǐ-īn jàlsà-dù sé? $\varepsilon$ é,
S : so.there, Rel-Pl Blédougou establish.Pfv, àà ${ }^{n}$ bélé, è-wó nè, 3PlHum pass.Adjn, Nonh-3Sg here, yàbùgór $\bar{\varepsilon}^{n}$ nànkó?rósààdù, jàl-á-à-ń= $\varnothing \quad$ dè, anyway N, Jal-Nom-Pl-Nom=be there.Def,

S: 'So there. The ones who established Blédougou, they have passed (away), that [focus] is it. Anyway, at Niankorodougou, Jali people are present.'
[Niankorodougou is 14 km south of Blédougou]


S: 'They [focus] call(ed) him Surojigi Gbe. They call(ed) his name Surojigi Gbe, (at) Niankorodougou.'
[cf. à mǎā tópó kè̀̀ 'their name was called']

02:50 S: jàl-á-à-nū mè à-màà ${ }^{n}$ kónténì
S: Jali-Nom-Pl-Nom but Hum-3PlFoc count.Pfv jànkóPrósààrè déé-dè, Niankorodougou there.Def-there.Def,
'The Jali people, however, they are counted (=considered to be) (from) Niankorodougou there.'
[kónténì < French compter, in Jalkunan kòs 'count; consider']

02:56 S: [jàlsà-dù séré-kùdò-ró] $=\varnothing \quad$ [mí dè],
S: [Blédougou establish.VblN-reason-Nom]=be [Dem with],
è-wó nè [fóPó-tèè mé? $\bar{\varepsilon}-n a ̀-a ̀ n ~-n i ́]=\overline{1}$,
Nonh-3Sg here [gun-shoot.VblN person-Nom-Pl-Nom]=it.is,

| $m \varepsilon ̀$ | $\left[a ̀ a^{n}\right.$ | dó?ó $]$ | $c i ́ \varepsilon$ | gàáa | bàà, |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| but | $[3 \mathrm{PlHum}$ | too $]$ | be.Past | $\operatorname{war}(\mathrm{n})$ | wage.Ipfv, |

S: 'The explanation (reason) of Blédougou's establishment is with this. That [focus] is it, they were hunters, but they also waged war (=were warriors).'
[kúd̄̄ 'reason, explanation', gààn 'combat (n)'; 'hunter' is literally 'gun-shooter' so it easily transitions to 'warrior']

| 03:05 | W : èmmè <br> W: so | kómì <br> like | àà ${ }^{n}$ <br> 3PlHum | cíé be.Past | gàà ${ }^{n}$ <br> combat(n) |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | S: wàláà, | kèlè-másáw, war(n)-king, |  | gààn-māsá-rà-à-n, |  |  |
|  | S: so.there, |  |  | war(n)-king-Nom-Pl-Nom |  |  |
|  | fóró-tèè |  |  |  |  |  |
|  | gun-shoot.VblN | person-Nom-Pl-Nom |  |  |  |  |
|  | W : fó?ó-tè̀ | $m \varepsilon ́ P \bar{\varepsilon}-n a ̀-a ̀-\bar{n}$ |  |  |  |  |
|  | W: gun-shoot. | person-Nom-Pl-Nom |  |  |  |  |
| W: 'So, they used to wage war.' |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| S: 'That's it. Warrior kings, warrior kings, (and) hunters.' |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| W. 'Hunters.' |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| [kèlè-másáw 'war king' is Jula, Jalkunan equivalent is gààn-māsá] |  |  |  |  |  |  |

03:16 W: [àà ${ }^{n}$ dó?ó] cíé gàán màà,
W: [3PlHum too] be.Past war(n) do.Ipfv,
S : wàláà
S: so.there
$\mathrm{W}:$ [dóówèè dó?ó] $=\varnothing$ dè dóró $=r \bar{\varepsilon}$ ?
W: [nothing again]=be there.Def again=Neg
W: 'They also made war.'
S: ‘That’s it.'
W: 'There's nothing more.'

03:20 S: dóówèè, [jàlsà-dù sépé-kùdó bù?ú] nè,
S: nothing, [Blédougou establish.VblN-reason all] there, $m e ̀$ jàlsà-dùū, [màrà mí kúrr bùpù-ná] but Blédougou, [commune Dem oldest all-Nom] jàlsà-dù kúrr bìgì-ná, Blédougou oldest all-Nom,

S: 'Nothing. There (you have) all the explanation of the establishment of Blédougou. But Blédougou is the oldest of all (villages) of this commune. Blédougou is the oldest of all.'
[A commune is an administrative divisions including several villages; kúrr with unusual final trill (but note variant kùrú below) seems to be an expressive adverbial]

| $03: 27$ | $\mathrm{~W}:$ | jàlsá | kùrú | [màrà | mí | bù?ù-ná] |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
|  | $\mathrm{W}:$ | Blédougou | oldest | [commune | Dem | all-Nom] |

S: kúrr bù̀ù-ná,
S: oldest all-Nom,
W: ‘Blédougou is the oldest (village) in this whole commune.'
S: 'The oldest of all (of the commune).'
[jàlsà variant of jàlsà-dù]

03:31 W: súdúū
W: Sindou
$\mathrm{S}:$ súdúū, [é $\varnothing$ sòróó nàà $]$
 [3SgNonh go.Pfv] [3SgNonh put.down.Ipfv until -, ] $f \bar{o} \rightarrow \quad$ wàn ${ }^{n} \quad[f \bar{o} \rightarrow \quad$ kóròwáárì -, nàgkàràmádùgù], until Wan[golo]- [until Côte d'Ivoire-, N],

| $[$ è̀ | bù?ú $]=\varnothing$ | [jàl | dùrù̀nìní $]$ | $k$ ǹ $^{n}$ |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| $[3$ SgNonh | all $]=$ be | [Jali | territory $]$ | Cop |

W: '(As for) Sindou.'
S: 'Sindou, it caught it here, it went and put it down all the way to-, all the way to Wan[golo]- all the way to Côte d'Ivoire, (to) Niankaramadougou (village). It's all Jali territory.'
[súdú 'Sindou' is the provincial capital, 16 km driving distance northeast of Blédougou; speaker started to say 'all the way to Ouangolo' then corrected; /è tè $\} \dot{\varepsilon}$ [è bàà]/ ; dùrùnìnì 'territory']

03:42 W: nànkàràmádùgù
W: N

| $\mathrm{S}:$ | jà̀nkàràmádùgù, | [è | bù?ú $]=\varnothing$ | [jàl | dùrùnìní] |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |$\quad$ kùn ${ }^{n}$,

W: 'Niankaramadougou.'
S: 'Niankaramadougou. It's all Jali territory.’
03:48 S: jàl-á-à-ñ, [jàlá mǐ-īn] sé?é kéē dè,
S: Jali-Nom-Pl-Nom, [Jali Rel-Pl] sit.Pfv Past there.Def [mù?ùn $\quad$ bù?] $=\quad$ ój $^{n} \quad$ ś, [1Pl all] 3PlHum know.Pfv,

S: ‘Jali (people), the Jali who settled there, we all know them.
[past $k \grave{\varepsilon} \rightarrow$ kéé (+ATR, lengthened) before demonstrative adverb dè §4.4.2.1; /bù?ù ààn"/]

03:52 S: [[jàl dù?ùnìní] mààn] tòొò ké fàà,
S: [[Jali territory] owner] name(n) Past F,


S: 'The name of the owner of the Jali territory (in Ouangolo) was Fa. The name of the owner of the Jali territory (in Ouangolo) was Fa.'

W: ‘Fa.'


S: 'But (he was) a child (=native) of Jali. Fa came (=went) and died, but Bema is in his tracks (=has taken his place).'
[sífor sé 'came'; bēmā (name); nùù 'tracks, trail’ and hence 'place, position']

| $04: 03$ | $\mathrm{~W}:$ | $[f a ̀ a ̀$ | sá | ${ }^{\downarrow} k p$ án $\left.^{n}\right]$ |
| ---: | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
|  | $\mathrm{W}:$ | $[\mathrm{F}$ | come.Pfv | die.Adjn $]$ |

$\mathrm{S}: ~ b e \overline{m a ́}=\varnothing$ [[nà nùú] tò]
$\mathrm{S}: \mathrm{B}=$ be $\quad$ [[3Sg place] in]
$\mathrm{W}:$ bēmá $=\varnothing \quad[[$ nà nùú] tò]
$\mathrm{W}: \mathrm{B}=\mathrm{be} \quad[[3 \mathrm{Sg}$ place] in]
$\mathrm{S}:$ à nùú, [à nùú] tò
S: 3SgHum place, [3SgHum place] in
$\mathrm{W}: ~ b e \overline{m a ́}=\varnothing$
W : $\mathrm{B}=\mathrm{be}$
S : [à nùú] tò
S: [3SgHum place] in
W : [à nùú] tò
W: [3SgHum place] in
W: 'Faa came (=went) and died.'
S: 'Bema is in his tracks (=has taken his place).'
W : 'Bema is in his tracks (=has taken his place).'
S: 'His tracks. In his tracks.'
W: 'Bema is.'
S: 'In his tracks.'
W: 'In his tracks.'
[sá for sé 'came']

04:07 W: èè, jàl dǐ, èmmè kómì-
W: eh, Jali child, so like-
$\mathrm{S}: \quad j a ̀ l-$ [fàà dí-kámá-né] $=$ غ̀
S: Jali - $\quad[\mathrm{F} \quad$ child-male-Nom $]=$ it.is
W: [fàà dí-kámá-ná] -

W: [F child-male-Nom]
$\mathrm{S}: \quad$ bēmā dè
S: B there.Def
$\mathrm{W}: ~ b e ̄ m a ̄ ~ d e ̀ ~$
W: B there.Def
W: ‘Eh, a child (=native) of Jali, so as-'
S: 'Jali-. He's Fa's son.'
W. 'Fa's son ...

S : ‘ $\ldots$. is Bema there.'
$\mathrm{W}: ~ ‘ . .$. is Bema there.'

04:13 W: wàngóló
W: W
$\mathrm{S}:$ wàngóló, kóròwáárì, [jàl dù?ùnìné] $=$ è,
S: W, Côte d'Ivoire, [Jali territory]=it.is,
W: ‘Ouangolo (village).'
S: ‘Ouangolo, (in) Côte d'Ivoire, it's Jali territory.'

04:21 W: èmm̀̀ kómì, [jàlsà-dù sé?é cógó bùpú] $=\varnothing$ -
W: so like, [Blédougou sit manner all]=be] -
$\mathrm{S}: \quad$ [è bùpú $]=\varnothing \quad n$ è,
S: [3SgNonh all]=be there,
W : èmmè kómì jàlsà-dù méع́
W : so like Blédougou be.made.Pfv
kómì è kúrù [lámínī mí sàá fè̀ ${ }^{n}$ ]
like 3 SgNonh oldest [surroundings Dem house many]
S: kúrr bù?ù-nú, jàlá kúrr bù?ù-nú, oldest all-Pl, Jali oldest all-Pl,
W: 'So the entire manner of Blédougou's establishment is-,
S: 'It's all there.'
W: 'So like Blédougou was made, like it's the oldest (village) of many (=all) the villages of the surrounding area.'

S: 'The oldest of all. The oldest of all Jali (country).'

04:31 $\mathrm{S}: n \bar{e}=\bar{e} \quad b \bar{\jmath} \quad$ [jàl-á-à ${ }^{n}$ ná], wá?rá-rá-à-n̄
S: if 2 Sg exit.Antec [Jali-Nom-Pl ethnicity] Wara-Nom-Pl-Nom
W: wáPrá-rá-à-n̄
W: Wara-Nom-Pl-Nom
$\mathrm{S}: \quad$ wáPrá-rá-à-n̄, nàcòr-r-ó-ò-n̄,
S: Wara-Nom-Pl-Nom, Natioro-Nom-Pl-Nom,
S: 'If you-Sg go beyond the Jali ethnicity, the Wara people.'
W: 'Wara people.'
S: 'The Wara people (and) the Natioro people.'

## [wáprá, nàcòrò]


S: 'The people who come after us, that [focus] is (with) the people of Konadougou.
W: ‘The people of Konadougou.'

04:44 S: [mā kòní] mì só [jàlsà-dù kú-rò]
$\mathrm{S}:$ [1Sg Topic] Rel know.Pfv [Blédougou matter-Nom]
è-wó $=\varnothing \quad n \grave{\varepsilon}$
Non-3Sg=be there
S: 'As for me, what I know about the matter of Blédougou, that [focus] is it.'

## Text 2016_02: Tale of hyena, hare, and lion

narrator: Traore Be (B), with Traore Wamara (W)
$\begin{array}{ll}\text { 00:00 } & \text { W: àní sj̀ }{ }^{\text {ró mà }} \\ & \text { W: Good morning [< Jula] }\end{array}$
B : àm báà
B: [reply]
W : kùnù-mé? $\varepsilon$-nà-à-ń= $\varnothing$ dóò
W : village-person-Nom- $\mathrm{Pl}=\mathrm{be} \quad$ be.where?
B: [àà ${ }^{n} \quad$ búpú $]=\varnothing=$ ǹ dè
B: [3PlHum all]=be=Link there.Def
W: kpé $n \overline{i ̄}{ }^{n} \quad k e ́=\bar{e} \quad d e ̀$
W: what? 2Pl have=Link there.Def
B: [àa ${ }^{n} \quad$ búpú $]=\varnothing=$ ǹ $d e ̀$
B: [3PlHum all]=be=Link there.Def
W : kùnù-méqé-nà-à-ń= $\varnothing$ dóò
W: village-person-Nom-Pl-Nom=be be.where?
B: [àà ${ }^{n}$ búpú] $=\varnothing=$ ǹ dè
B: [3PlHum all]=be=Link there.Def
$\mathrm{W}: ~ d i ́-\mathrm{a}$ á-à-ń= $=\varnothing$ dóò
W: child-Nom-Pl-Nom=be be.where?
B: [àà ${ }^{n}$ bú?ú] $=\varnothing=$ ǹ $d e ̀$
B: [3PlHum all]=be=Link there.Def
W : náā-nà-à-ń= $\varnothing$ dóò
W: woman-Nom-Pl-Nom=be be.where?
B: [àà ${ }^{n}$ búpú] $=\varnothing=$ ǹ dè
B: [3PlHum all]=be=Link there.Def
$\mathrm{W}: ~ d i ́-\mathrm{rá}-\mathrm{a}-\hat{\mathrm{c}}=\varnothing$ dóò
W: child-Nom-Pl-Nom=be be.where?
B: [àà ${ }^{n} \quad$ búpú $]=\varnothing=$ ǹ $\quad$ dè
B: [3PlHum all]=be=Link there.Def
W: ‘Good morning.'
B: [reply]
W: ‘Where are the people of the village (=family)?'
B: ‘They are all there.'
W: ‘What (trouble) has (=has afflicted) you-Pl there?'
B: ‘They are all there.'
W: 'Where are the children?'
B: ‘They are all there.'
W: 'Where are the women?'
B: ‘They are all there.'
W: 'Where are the children?'

B: ‘They are all there.'
[the opening greetings are in Jula (green); kpé nīīn kéē dè contains 2Pl $\bar{e} \bar{e}^{n}$ with unusual nasal onset (cf. third-person objects with initial n); ká 'have' modified to $k \bar{e}=\bar{e}$ before dè 'there']

00:12 B: $k p \varepsilon ́=\varnothing=\grave{n} \quad d e ̀$
B: what?=be=Link there.Def
W : $\operatorname{sín} \overline{1}=n \bar{e} ?$
W: anything=Neg
B: [kìdà gbó] = $\varnothing$ dóò
B: [old.man] =be be.where?
$\mathrm{W}: ~ a ́=\varnothing=\grave{n} \quad d e ̀$
W: 3Sg=be=Link there.Def
B: [nàà kúd̄̄] bù?ù-ń
B: [woman old] all-Pl
W : $a^{=} \varnothing=$ ǹ dè
W: 3Sgbe=Link there.Def
B: 'What (problem) is there?'
W : 'Nothing is there?'
B: 'And the old man (=your father)?'
W : 'He is there.'
B: 'And all the old women (=your mother)?'
W: 'She is there.'

00:18 W: sópóñ-nò
W: morning-Nom
B: sóṕón̄-ǹ̀ kíbérég̀, sín̄ dè =rēe?
B: morning-Nom greeting, anything there $=$ Neg
W : ànì-ké tìbè-rá,
W : thanks greeting-Nom, àlá mù?ù ${ }^{n}$ jह́mé,
God 1Pl help.Imprt, àlá mùpùn ${ }^{n}$ sábábú nà, God 1Pl cause make.good.Imprt, àlá mù?ù ${ }^{n}$ géríyé? $f$ fè̀ $\varepsilon^{n}$ God 1Pl luck untie.Imprt
W: '(What news) in the morning?'
B: 'Morning greetings. There is nothing.'
W: 'Thanks for the greetings. May God help us, may God keep us on the right track, may God untie (=release) our luck.'
[ànì-ké < Jula; kibèr $\varepsilon$ と́ '(morning) greeting'; sàbàbú 'cause, reason' and gèrìyè̀̀̀ 'luck' are tone-raised by mù?ùn' as possessor \$6.2.2.1; transitive imprecations use the imperative stem \$10.5.3.2]
$00: 28 \mathrm{~W}:$ kìdá $=\varnothing \quad d e ̀=r e ̄ ?$
W : trouble=be there=$=\mathrm{Neg}$ má= $\varnothing$ kò̀
$1 \mathrm{Sg}=\mathrm{Ipfv}$ want.Ipfv

| [wō | $\left[c \varepsilon^{n}\right.$ | dò] | sá | [mā | $\left.\left.k \bar{\varepsilon}^{n}\right]\right]$ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| [2Sg | [tale | one] | narrate.Imprt | [1Sg | Benef]] |
| ómì | mā | mį́ | $\left[c \varepsilon^{n}\right.$ | $m \grave{\varepsilon}]$ |  |
| like | 1Sg | do.long | e.Pfv [tale | hear.Adjn] |  |
| $m a ́=\varnothing$ | kjò | [wō | dùgù-dù]-[síb |  | cé |

$1 \mathrm{Sg}=\mathrm{Ipfv}$ want.Ipfv [2Sg [the.bush-In]-[meat-Nom-Pl] tale narrate.Imprt]
W: 'There's no trouble. I would like you to tell a tale for me, as I have not heard a tale for a long time. I want you to tell a story of wild animals.'
[kómì < French comme]

00:38

| 3 B: mā <br> B: 1 Sg |  |  | mè $\varepsilon$, hear.Pfv |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| = $\varnothing$ | sà | bél-dè | k , |
| $1 \mathrm{Sg}=\mathrm{Ipfv}$ | Fut | begin.Ipfv | tagQ, |
| bon, | má $=\varnothing$ | sà [cén | mì] sàà, |
| well, | $1 \mathrm{Sg}=\mathrm{Ipfv}$ | v Fut [tale | Rel] narrate.Ipfv, |
| rúkú-rà |  | cín | dè, |
| hyena-Nom, |  | along.with hare | there.Def, |
| $m a ́=\varnothing$ | sí= | ì-wò | $c \varepsilon^{n} \quad$ tsáá |
| $1 \mathrm{Sg}=\mathrm{Ipfv}$ | Fut= | Nonh-3Sg | tale narrate |

B: 'I have understood. Shall I begin? Well, the story that I will tell, (it's a tale of) hyena, along with hare. I will tell that tale about it.'
[cin 'hare']

00:49 B: bon, súrúkú- súrúkú bù?ù cì-náā,
B: well, hyena- hyena and hare-Nom,


3PINonh go.Pfv hunt(n)-Nom, 3PlNonh begin hunt(n)-Nom, bon, è̀ ${ }^{n}$ tá?á [yálá dò] jí̂́, well, 3PINonh go.Adjn [hole one] see.Pfv,

B: 'Well, hyena, hyena and hare. They went hunting. They were hunting. Well, they went and saw a hole.'
[klénī 'hunting' or more generally 'going around in the bush'; yálā 'hole'; specific indefinite dò introducing a new discourse referent \$6.5.2]



B: 'Well, hare said to hyena, "This hole, can you enter (it) here?" Hyena said, "Younger brother, I won't be able to enter (=fit into) this hole.",
[/sóś nàà/ $\rightarrow$ sóō nàà 'here' with + ATR before demonstrative adverb; dó?ó-cí́ vocative of dó?ó 'younger brother' §4.1.1.3]

01:0
B: friend! hare-Nom, 3 SgNonh lion-[false start]
mù?ún ${ }^{n}$
1 Pl è
cì-náā, è jèré- è [jèré bòò lápà] dàà-sò, 3SgNonh [lion exit.VblN place] know(place).Pfv,

B: (Hyena:) "Friend, let's go!" Now it happened that hare, [false start omitted] he knew the lion's exit place (=entrance to lion's den).,
[nàà! vocative of nòỳ̀ 'friend' §4.1.1.3; kàà-sòrò §19.2.1.3]

01:10 B: bon, è̀̀ ${ }^{n}$ táPá cíé [cíī dò] kúdó̄],
B: well, 3PlNonh go.Adjn arrive.Pfv [[thicket one] under],
$\left.\begin{array}{llllll}\text { èè } & & \text { táPá } & \text { sóó } & {\left[\begin{array}{lc} \\ \text { cíli } & \text { mí }]\end{array}\right.} & \text { dǔū }\end{array}\right]$, 3PINonh go.Adjn enter.Adjn [[thicket Dem] in], èè ${ }^{n}$ [jèré dì-rá-àn ${ }^{n}$ séé $\begin{array}{ll}\text { tí, }\end{array}$ 3plNonh [lion child-Nom-Pl] lie.down.VblN see.Adjn,

B: "Well, they went and arrived under (=at) a thicket (dense forest). They went into that thicket. They saw the lion cubs lying down.'

B: well, 3PlNonh [lion child-Nom-Pl] lie.down.Pfv see.Pfv now, è dè é!, mùpún ${ }^{n}$ [jèré dì-rá-àn $\left.{ }^{n}\right] \quad$ yálá $=r \grave{\varepsilon}=\bar{\varepsilon}^{n}$, 3 SgNonh say.Pfv hey!, 1Pl [lion child-Nom-Pl] take. $\mathrm{Ipfv}=\mathrm{Neg}=\mathrm{Q}$, èèn $=\varnothing \quad[j e ̀ r \varepsilon ́ ~ d i ̀-r a ́-a ̀ n ~ n ~ y a ́ l i ́ ~ S i ́ s a ̀ n, ~, ~$ 3PlNonh=Ipfv [lion child-Nom-Pl] take.Pfv now, è̀̀ ${ }^{n} \quad$ bé $=\quad$ [(̀̀ $\grave{e ̀ ~}^{n} \quad$ wú $]$, 3PlNonh put.in.Pfv [3PlNonhRefl Custod],

B: 'Well, they saw the (two) lion cubs lying down now. He (=hare) said, "hey, shall we not take the lion cubs?' They took the lion cubs now, they put (the cubs) in their custody (i.e. in sacks)."
[béé 'put' (perfective); custodial postposition wù ~wú 'in the custody of (in a sack or pocket)'§8.4.2]

| $01: 24$ | B: | wálàà, | $\underline{\text { bon }}$, | sísàn $^{n}$ | cì-ná | dúlì | yàlíli, |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
|  | B: | there.it.is!, | well, | now | hare-Nom | one | take.Pfv, |


| [súrúkú-rà | dúlì | yàlì] | [è̀ ${ }^{n}$ | kú | 'tá?á] |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| [hyena-Nom | one | take.Pfv] | $[3 P I N o n h ~$ | begin | go.Ipfv] |

'There it is, well, now hare took one and hyena took one (=the other). They went away then.'

01:28

| $\begin{aligned} & \mathrm{B}: \\ & \mathrm{B}: \end{aligned}$ | èè ${ }^{n}$ <br> 3PINonh | kú begin | táRá go.Ipfv | $\begin{aligned} & \text { klén̄-t̄̄rō } \\ & \text { hunt(n) } \end{aligned}$ | sísì ${ }^{n}$, |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | è̀ ${ }^{n}$ | táPá | kón | [jèré | $\bar{\varepsilon}]$, |
| well, | 3PINonh | go.Adjn | encount | lio | with |

B: 'Now they set off hunting. Well, they went and encountered (=met with) the lion.'
01:33 B: bon, fō è̀̀ ${ }^{n}$ cíé [jèř́ mà ] t̄̄=n $\bar{\varepsilon}$ ?,
B: well, until 3PINonh arrive.Pfv [lion on] yet=Neg, è̀̀ ${ }^{n}$ cíé sísàà $^{n}$, cĭ ${ }^{n}$ dè [súrúkú màā], 3PINonh arrive.Pfv now, hare say.Pfv [hyena Dat], é! nàà! mùpùn ${ }^{n}$ wó-ró-n $\quad$ kpáá ${ }^{n}=n \grave{\varepsilon}=\bar{\varepsilon}^{n}$, hey! friend! 1Pl so.and.so-Pl kill.Ipfv=Neg=Q, mù?ún $=\varnothing \quad{ }^{n}$ kpán $\quad$ bùgórè $\bar{\varepsilon}$, 1Pl=Ipfv kill.Imprt otherwise= $=$,
 1Pl=Ipfv kill.Imprt [1Pl put.Adjn= [1PlRefl Custod]],

B: 'Well, before they reached the lion, (before) they arrived now, hare said to hyena: "Shall we not kill the so-and-sos? Let's kill (them), otherwise-. Let's kill and put (them) in our custody (=in sacks)!" ,
[Hunters use wó-ró ‘So-and-so’ (plural wó-ró-nŭ~ wó-ró-ň, §4.1.1.4) as a euphemism for the name of whatever animal they have killed; $=r \bar{\varepsilon}=\bar{\varepsilon}^{n}$ negative interrogative as hortative §13.2.1.3; mù̀?ưn $=\varnothing$ 'kpáán reduced from mù?̀̀ ${ }^{n} n \hat{1}^{n}{ }^{~}$ 'kpán 'let's kill themNonhuman!'; 1 Pl ì as second subject in same-subject adjoined clause §15.2.1.3]

01:42 B: bon, cìná [è bòló] sò [bórókó tòj],
B: well, hare-Nom [3SgNonhRefl hand] put.in.Pfv [sack in]
càràcí càràcí cí= [ì wùū],
peanut - peanut be.put.Pfv [3SgNonh with.self]
é $=\varnothing \quad$ càràcí tè̀e
3SgNonh=Ipfv peanut snap.open.Ipfv,

| é! | nàà | $m \bar{a}$ | $\left[\left[n a ̄ a a^{n}\right.\right.$ | mǐ $]$ | wǔ $]$ | těē, |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| hey! | friend | 1 Sg | $[[1 \mathrm{SgRefl}$ | Poss $]$ | head $]$ | shatter.Pfv, |

B: ‘Well, hare put his hand (=paw) into the sack. (Unshelled) peanuts had been put in his control (=into his sack). He cracked open a peanut (by pressing on the tip of the shell). (Hare said): "Hey, friend! I have shattered (=crushed) the head of mine (=my lion cub)!"
[tè < těè ; cracking open a peanut shell imitates the sound of crushing a skull; bj̀ló <

bunch or mass of grains or other small objects like peanuts; nāá mì 'mine' (reflexive), cf. nīí mì 'yours' (reflexive)]

01:49 B: bon, súrúkú wō nánámá,
B: well, hyena 2 Sg idiot,
[wō dō?ó] $=\varnothing$ 'búlú sísàà ${ }^{n}$,
[2Sg also]=Ipfv return.Ipfv] now,
$\left[\begin{array}{ll}\bar{e} & \text { mì }] ~ w u ̌] ~ t e ̀ ̀, ~\end{array}\right.$ [2SgRefl Poss] head] shatter.Pfv, é $\varnothing$ bè= $\varnothing$ wé $]$ [jūfá tò=ó] dè, 3SgNonh 3 SgObj put.Pfv [3SgNonhRefl Custod] [pocket in=Link] there,

B: '"Well, hyena, you idiot (=gullible one). You too go back now, (you) have shattered the head of yours (=your lion cub)." He (=hyena) put it in his pocket there.'
[quotation is addressed by the narrator to hyena as character in the story, bè $=\dot{e}<$ bě è wù/, tò $\rightarrow$ tòò before dè]

01:54 B: è̀̀ ${ }^{n}$ kú wàá,
B: 3PlNonh begin go.Ipfv,
èè ${ }^{n}$ tá?á kíé sísàān ${ }^{n}$, 3PINonh go.Adjn arrive.Pfv now, è̀̀n tárá wòlòkó [jèré dè], 3PINonh go.Adjn encounter [lion with],

B: 'They went (=continued on) then. They went and arrived now, they went and encountered the lion.'


B: 'They went and they saw the lion. Hey, the lion frightened them. (Hare said:) "Hey elder brother lion, where are you coming from? We have gone out to hunt.'

| $\begin{array}{lll} 02: 05 & \text { B: } & m \\ & \text { B: } & 21 \end{array}$ | $\begin{aligned} & m a ̌ a ̄=\varnothing \\ & 2 \mathrm{Pl}=\mathrm{Ipfv} \end{aligned}$ | ex |  | mì, where? |  | ${ }^{\text {jíkj] }}$ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| kómì | $\dot{m}=\varnothing$ | sá |  | [[wō | dí-rá-à ${ }^{\text {n }}$ ] |  |
| as | $1 \mathrm{Pl}=\mathrm{Ipfv}$ |  | Adjn | [[2Sg | child-Nom-Pl] | see.Pfv] |
| àà ${ }^{n}$ | kú | jiím |  |  |  |  |
| 3PlHum | begin | wee |  |  |  |  |
| [wó | tò | mù?ù | $n \hat{11}^{n}$ |  | yálí, |  |
| [3SgFoc | in] | 1Pl | 3 PlN | nhObj | take.Pfv, |  |

B: '(Lion:) "Where have you come from?" (Hare:) "We came and saw your cubs, they were weeping. That [focus] 's why we took (them).",
[< jî́màà 'weep' (Ipfv)]

02:08
 3PlNonh take.out.Imprt,

B: '(Hare:) "We will give them to him (=you)." (Lion:) "Oh, you-Pl have done something good for me. Take-2Sg them out!"
['give' with postverbal object denoting the recipient; cubs are here treated pronominally as though human; bíl = í-yà < /bílદ́ ì-yà/ ; abstract kú instead of concrete $s \varepsilon^{n}$ 'thing' in kú nè ; è̀̀ ${ }^{n}$ bó is addressed to hare (not hare and hyena), compare $\bar{e} \bar{e}^{n}{ }^{\text {è }}{ }^{n}$ bó pronounced [éè(: $)^{\mathrm{n}}$ bó] addressed to two persons]

02:12

| B: bon, <br> B: well, | [cì-né = <br> [hare-Nom | [è <br> [3SgNonh] | $\begin{aligned} & \text { mì] } \\ & \text { Rel } \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & \text { bóó] } \\ & \text { take.out.Pfv] } \end{aligned}$ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| $[\varnothing$ | bàlì], |  |  |  |
| [3SgNonh | stand.Pfv], |  |  |  |
| è-yàá | $\varnothing$ | bál= | [[è | kpò-ró] |
| 3SgNonh | 3SgNonhRefl | stand.Pfv | [ 33 SgNonh | foot-Nom] |

B: 'Well, the one (=cub) that hare took out stood up. It stood on its feet.'
[bóó $\varnothing<$ bóé è/; è-yàáa $\varnothing$ bàlí variant of pseudo-reflexive è ní bàlí 'it stood', cf. nonhuman $3 P l$ è̀ ${ }^{n}$-yàà nîin ${ }^{n}$ bálī (§10.1.1.3); /bàlí è/ contracts as bál $=$ è ; [è kpò-ró] mà with optional nominal suffix before postposition ]

02:16


B: 'Well, hyena took his (lion cub) out. It stood-. It couldn't stand on its feet. Its head was shattered (crushed).'

02:19 B: è dè àý!, nàà [à mànâ],
B: 3SgNonh say.Pfv hey!, friend! [3SgHum how?], àý!, áà, bon, súrúkú-rò = $\varnothing \quad$ sí=ì jíé, hey!, ah!, well, hyena-Nom=Ipfv Fut=3SgNonh see.Ipfv,
cógóyá wèé-yà $=r \bar{\varepsilon}$ ?,
way.to.escape go-Prog=Neg,
B: 'He (=lion) said, "Hey, friend, how is it? (=what's up?). Hey, ah!" Well, hyena was considering (how to escape), (but) there was no way out (way to escape).'
[à mànâ 'what's up?' §13.2.5; 'will see it' in the sense 'considered (what to do) ']

02:27 B: súrúkú-rò $=\varnothing$ commencer è fidí bò,
B: hyena-Nom=Ipfv begin 3 SgNonh run.Adjn exit.Adjn.Defoc, $j$ jèr-rá $=\varnothing \quad$ kpán $\quad$ [súrúkú kpǎ-nò], lion-Nom=Ipfv follow.Adjn [hyena goal],

B: 'Hyena began to run away. Lion followed his tracks.'
['begin' probably adjoined verb after subject with imperfective enclitic, likewise 'follow' in the second clause; kpǎ-nò §8.4.3]

02:30
$\mathrm{B}: \underline{\text { bon cǐn dè [súrúkú mà], }}$
B: well hare say.Pfv [hyena Dat], nàà mā [yálā mì] dúdōl wō-nū dé?, friend 1 Sg [hole Rel] show 2Sg-Indep Emph, [è-wò lá?ā] lè dé?,
[Nonh-3Sg place] look.at.Imprt Emph,
B: 'Well, hare said to hyena: "friend, the hole that I showed you, you should look at it (carefully).",

02:34 B: nàà mā [yálā mì] dúdōl wō-nū,
B: friend 1 Sg [hole Rel] show 2Sg-Indep, [è-wò lápà] lè dé?, [Nonh-3Sg place] look.at.Imprt Emph,

B: '(Hare, repeating:) "friend, the hole that I showed you, you should look at it (carefully).",

02:36
B: bon
Sísààn ${ }^{n}$,
B: well
now,
súrúkú-rò $=\varnothing$ táqá [yálā mí] jì sísàn ${ }^{n}$,
hyena-Nom go.Ipfv [hole Dem] see.Adjn now, è sò [[yálā mí] t̀̀], 3SgNonh enter.Pfv [[hole Dem] in], è sò sísà ${ }^{n}$ [[yálā mí] tò], 3SgNonh enter.Pfv now [[hole Dem] in],

B: 'Well, now, hyena went and saw that hole now. He went into that hole. He went into that hole now.'

02:40 B: [jèr-rá= $\quad$ típ=] [í bǎl dāā],
B: [lion-Nom=Ipfv
go.Adjn] [3SgNonh stand.Adjn mouth],

| bon | $\left[{ }_{\text {àà }}{ }^{\text {n }}\right.$ | flāā-rā] |  |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| well | [3PlHum | two-Nom] |  |  |  |
| má?à | $=\varnothing$ | sà | [yálā | mí] | sìnà, |
| who? | dep=Ipfv | Fut | [hole | Dem] | dig.Ipfv, |
| è-yà | mì ${ }^{\text {in }}$ |  | $j \grave{1}$ ¢ $=r \bar{\varepsilon}$ ?, |  |  |
| Nonh |  |  | see.Pfv= |  |  |

B: 'The lion went and stopped at the edge (of the hole).' Well, who (=which one) of the two of them (lion and hare) would dig up that hole? They didn't find anyone (to dig).'
[adjoined verb (variant of táPá 'go') after subject with imperfective enclitic; The 'who?' question is the narrator's wondering, not a quotation]
$\mathrm{B}: \underline{\text { bon kòrò } \quad \text { と̌, } \text { [dùgù-dù]-[fíy } \bar{\varepsilon} \text {-rà], }}$
B: well, elder.brother warthog, [the.bush-In]-[pig-Nom], $w o ̄$ sé klé tàrà bóó dè, 2 Sg come.Pfv walk.around go exit(v) there,

B: 'Well, big brother warthog, you came walking around and you went and appeared (=came out) there.'
[kòrò lě '(my) older brother warthog' < Jula, cf. Jalkunan mā gùùn ${ }^{n}$ fíyē-rà ]

02:50

| $\mathrm{B}:$ | è | $d \grave{\varepsilon}$ | é, | kòrò |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| $\mathrm{B}:$ | 3SgNonh | say.Pfv | hey!, | elder.brother |
| warthog, |  |  |  |  | $s e ̄ \quad n a ̀-m i ́-n \varepsilon ̀$, come.Imprt here,



B: 'He (=lion) said, "hey!, elder brother warthog! Come here! Oh, hyena has gone into this hole. Come and dig him out to give (him) to me!",
[warthog is a good digger; </sē ì/]

02:56 B: bon, [dùgù-dù]-[síyē-rà] sé $=\quad\left[\varnothing=\right.$ wò má] sísàn ${ }^{n}$,
B: well, [the.bush-In]-[pig-Nom] come.Pfv [Nonh-3SgFoc on] now, è kú [yálā mí] sìnà, 3SgNonh begin [hole Dem] dig.Ipfv,

B: 'Well, thereupon [focus] warthog came now. He began digging that hole.'


B: 'It was he [focus] who was digging up that hole now. Well, hare was about to see him (=hyena). Warthog was about to reach hyena.'

03:04

|  | B: è | búlú | sísà ${ }^{n}$, |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| B: | $3 S g N o n h$ | return.Adjn | now, |

è dè [kòrò lě]

3SgNonh say.Pfv [elder.brother warthog]
$b \bar{\jmath}$-dè b̄̄-dè b̄̄-dè, mā ná lè tōn, get.away! get.away! get.away!, 1 Sg 3 SgHumObj look.at.Imprt first,

B: 'He (=hare) turned around now. He said, "elder brother warthog, get away from there! Let me look at him first!",
[b̄̄-dè specialized contraction of bō dè 'go out/away from there!'; lě 'look at' (imperative after $+3 S g$ )]

03:09


B: 'He (=hare) bent over eventually. He looked at hyena in the hole. He (=hare) gave him (=hyena) some powdered salt.'
[màà-sáá 'bend over' includes sáá 'come'; </billí è-yà/]

03:13

| B: è | kòò-fó?ó | bìl $=$ | í-yàā, |  |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| B: | 3SgNonh | salt-powder | give.Pfv | Nonh-3Sg, |

è dè $=$ [é mà] sísàn ${ }^{n}$ [kòò-fó?ó mí-nà] nè, 3SgNonh say.Pfv [3SgNonh Dat] now [salt-powder Dem-Nom] there,

B: 'When he had given him the powdered salt, he (=hare) said to him (=hyena) now, "Here's the powdered salt.",
[presentative 'here's $X$ ', §4.4.3]

03:16


B: '(Hare:) "Here it is. When elder brother warthog puts his head (in the hole), you (=hyena) must toss powdered salt in (warthog's) eyes!",
[fìé $<$ Jula ]

03:20 B: bon, è bóó bàl, kòrò jàrá-
B: well, 3 SgNonh exit(v) stand.Pfv, elder.brother lion-,

| [[kı̀rò | $1 \grave{]}$ |  | bélé] |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| [ [elder.brother |  | warthog] | pass. |  |
| [è | kú | [yálā | mí] | sìnà $]$, |
| [3SgNonh | begin | [hole | Dem] | dig.Ipfv], |
| búgúrì |  | búgúrì | búgúrì |  |
| digging.sound |  |  |  |  |

B: 'Well, he (=hare) stood aside. Elder brother lion- (correction) elder brother warthog moved over and began digging that hole, buguri! buguri! buguri! (sound of digging),

03:25

| $\mathrm{B}: ~ e ́!~$ | jà?á | súrúkú | kòò-fó?ó | mùgége, |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| $\mathrm{B}:$ | hey! | lo! | hyena | salt-powder | suck.Pfv,

bon, é jì̀ $\quad[$ é $=\varnothing \quad$ nì $\quad$ sìnì-yá $]$ well, 3 SgNonh.3SgObj see.Pfv [3SgNonh=Ipfv 3SgNonhObj dig-Prog]
[é $=\varnothing$ nì sìnì-yá]
[3SgNonh=Ipfv 3SgNonhObj dig-Prog]
[é= $\varnothing$ nì sìnì-yá],
[3SgNonh=Ipfv 3SgNonhObj dig-Prog],
B: 'Hey, lo! hyena sucked the powdered salt. He (=hare) saw him (=warthog) digging it, digging it, digging it.'

03:31 B: [lip smack] cì-ná sí=ì jìé,
B: [lip smack] hare-Nom Fut=3SgNonhObj see.Ipfv, mā nònゝ̀-nó kè, à wòmí mùgéq, 1 Sg friend Top, 3SgHum Dem suck.Pfv,
'Tsk! Hare considered what to do. (Hare, to himself:) "My comrade (=hyena) has sucked that (=salt).

03:35

| B: | é |  |  | tònó | [bèlè | dópó] |
| :--- | :---: | :---: | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | sísàn,,

B: 'He (=hare) approached (the hole) again now. He went and gave some (more) to him (=hyena).
['approach' is a pseudo-reflexive verb, cf. Spanish acercarse; yálā tò 'in the hole', prolonged before dè 'there']

03:39 B: bon, sísààa ${ }^{n}$ [kòrò lè dóPó] commencer,
B: well, now [elder.brother warthog too] begin, [è kú sìnà] [è kú sìnà], [3SgNonh begin dig.Ipfv] [3SgNonh begin dig.Ipfv],

B: 'Well, now elder brother warthog too began. He was digging, he was digging.'
['began' in Jalkunan: dàà-só?ó]

03:42
B: bon, á! súrúkú
Sí=ì jì̀,
B: well, ah! hyena
Fut $=3 \mathrm{SgNonh}$
see.Ipfv, é= $\varnothing$ kòò-fóró bò , 3SgNonh=Ipfv salt-powder take.out.Ipfv,
é = $\varnothing$ cìè jèré ó súrúkú, 3SgNonh=Ipfv put.Ipfv lion oh! hyena, é = $\varnothing$ cì̀ $\quad\left[[k \grave{r} r \grave{~} \quad l \grave{c}] \quad\right.$ nīl-là-à $\left.{ }^{n}\right]$ tó], 3SgNonh=Ipfv pour.Ipfv [[elder.brother warthog] eye-Nom-Pl] in], [dùgù-dù]-síyé jīl-là-à-nū sísàn ${ }^{n}$, [the.bush-in]-pig eye-Nom-Pl-Nom now,

B: 'Well, ah!, hyena considered what to do. He took out the powdered salt. He put (it) in lion's-oh, hyena, he sprayed (it) into elder brother warthog's eyes, (into) warthog's eyes now.'

03:48

| B: éqérépé | $\left[s \varepsilon^{n}\right.$ | dò $]$ | bé | $[[m a ̄$ | nìl $]$ | tò $],$ |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| B: eh-eh! | $[$ thing | one $]$ | fall.Pfv | $[[1 \mathrm{Sg}$ | eye $]$ | in $],$ |

 [thing one] fall.Pfv [[1Sg eye-Nom-Pl] in],

B: '(Warthog:) "Ouch! Something has fallen into my eye! Something has fallen into my eyes.",

03:51
B: bon, jèr $\bar{\varepsilon} \quad d \bar{\varepsilon} \bar{\varepsilon}, \quad s=\quad[\bar{e} \quad d \grave{\varepsilon}]$
B: well, lion say.Pfv, come.Imprt [3SgNonh with] mā ní fié ń lè, 1Sg 3SgNonhObj blow 3SgNonh look.at,

B: 'Well, lion said (to warthog), "bring it (=your eyes), so I may blow on it and look at it.",

$$
[</ \text { sā }[\text { è dè }] /, n ́</ \text { ní } /]
$$

03:56
$\mathrm{B}: ~ e ̀$-wò [sì́ pílì] fì̀̀ púù!
B: 3SgNonh [pig eye] blow.Pfv poof!
kòò-rá $=\varnothing$ wórrí bèé [[è nílī] tò],
salt-Nom=Ipfv fall.off fall.Pfv [[3SgNonh eye] in],
[jèré jílī] tò, [jèré dàá] tò, [lion eye] in, [lion mouth] in,

B: 'He (=lion) blew into pig's (=warthog's) eyes, poof! The salt fell out into his eye(s), into lion's eye(s), into lion's mouth.'

04:04
ìyé $\rightarrow$ kòr̀̀
B: oh! hey!,
elder.brother warthog, [wō jàyí] dì d $\bar{\varepsilon}$ ?, mon vieux, [2Sg tears] become.delicious.Pfv Emph, my old man,

B: '(Lion said:) "oh, hey! Elder brother warthog! Man, your tears sure are tasty!'

04:08

| $\begin{array}{ll} 8 & B: \\ & B: \end{array}$ | $\begin{array}{ll} \frac{\text { bon, }}{\text { well, }} & \text { dó?ó } \\ \hline \end{array}$ | rother | $k i^{n}$, <br> hare, |  | $\begin{aligned} & k \grave{i}^{n} \\ & \text { hare } \end{aligned}$ | $d \bar{\varepsilon} \bar{\varepsilon}$, say.Pfv, |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| ćè! | kòrò | $1 \varepsilon$ er, |  | ¢́è! | jèré, |  |
| hey! | elder.brother | wartho |  | hey! | lion, |  |
| WO | nánámá | $k{ }^{\text {u }}{ }$ | fà, |  |  |  |
| 2 Sg | idiot | Cop | no?, |  |  |  |

B: 'Well, younger brother hare, hare said: "Hey, elder brother warthog! Hey, lion! You (=lion) are an idiot, aren't you?",

04:14 B: [mì̀în jàyí] dì kún ${ }^{n}{ }^{n}$,
B: [person tears] become.delicious.Pfv Cop oh!,

| $[$ è | Sìbí $]$ | càPá | dóò, |  |
| :--- | :--- | :---: | :--- | :--- |
| $[3 \mathrm{SgNonh}$ | meat $]$ | all.the.more | too, |  |
| $\left[\begin{array}{lcl}\mathrm{e} & \text { Sìbí }] & \text { dì }\end{array}\right.$ | $d \bar{\varepsilon} ?$ |  |  |  |
| 3 SgNonh | meat | become.delicious.Pfv | Emph |  |

B: '(Hare said:) "(If) someone's (=an animal's) tears are delicious, its meat all the more so, its meat is (all the more) delicious!",
[/dǐ/; copula kún used here as a kind of connector between two clauses; cà?á dóò 'all the more, a fortiori']


B: 'Ah, well, the situation was turning around (=being inverted) now, on lion(correction:) on pig (=warthog) now.'

04:22 B: [dóó cin] búlú,
B: [younger.brother hare] return.Pfv,


B: 'Younger brother hare went back. He went to lion's place (=den). (Hare to lion:)
"The way elder brother warthog's meat is tasty, it is tastier than tears.'
[cógó-yá mì-nà equivalent to cógó mì]
on] now,
èè ${ }^{n}$ búlúū, è dè á!, kòrò lè ,
3PlNonh return.Pfv, 3SgNonh say.Pfv ah!, elder.brother warthog,
má $=\varnothing$ [[wō síbí] dò] ká d $?$,
$1 \mathrm{Sg}=\mathrm{Ipfv} \quad[[2 \mathrm{Sg}$ meat] one] want.Stat Emph,

B: 'Thereupon [focus] they went now. They went back (to the hole). He (=lion) said, "Ah! Elder brother warthog, I sure want (to eat) a piece of your flesh!"

04:35


B: 'They (=lion and hare) took out a knife then. They cut a (piece of) flesh out of the warthog's thigh.'
['flesh' usually sìbì-bún with 'meat' as initial, but here in compound with the more specific body-part 'thigh']

04:39
B: 3PlNonh
(è-)y
Nonh-3SgObj cut.Adjn now, bìlì [dó?ó cì-náā], 3SgNonh.3SgObj give.Pfv [younger.brother hare-Nom], [é $\varnothing$ sìdà], [3SgNonh 3 SgObj roast.Imprt],

B: 'They cut it now. He (=lion) gave it to younger brother hare for him (=hare) to roast it.'
[ /è-yà/ for the usual ní nonhuman 3Sg preverbal object ]

04:43
B: é
B: 3 SgNonh
kòò-fóPó
salt-powder fùùn ${ }^{n}$ иúní $=\quad[i ́ \quad m a ̀]$, sprinkle.grains.Pfv [3SgNonh on], bìl $=\quad$ í-yà $]$, [3SgNonh 3SgObj give.Pfv Nonh-3SgObj],

B: 'He (=hare) took out the powdered salt. He sprinkled it (=salt) on it (=flesh), and he gave it to him (=lion).'

04:45
B: jèr-ré $=$ è-yà
dònî́,
B: lion-Nom Nonh-3SgObj eat.meat.Pfv,
è dè íī̀! mon vieux, ìyà, 3SgNonh say.Pfv ooh! my.old.man, oh!, á [kòrò lě]
ah! [elder.brother warthog]

| $[W \bar{O}$ | sībī | yépré $]$ | dǐī, |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| $[2 \mathrm{Sg}$ | meat | self $]$ | be.sweet.Pfv, |

B: 'Lion devoured it (=meat). He said "ooh, my old man, oh, ah elder brother warthog, your meat (itself) is delicious!",
[ $<w \bar{o}$ sībī ‘your meat/flesh', dǐ ]

04:51

| $\mathrm{B}:$ | èéen $^{n}=\varnothing$ | $[n i ̀$ | wòǹ̀ $],$ |
| ---: | :--- | :--- | :---: |
| $\mathrm{B}:$ | $3 \mathrm{PlNonh}=\mathrm{be}$ | $[3 \mathrm{SgNonh}$ | still.on $],$ |
| $[$ kòrò | $1 \check{\varepsilon}]$ | $s i ́=\overline{1}$ | jìáā, | [elder.brother warthog] Fut=3SgNonh see.Ipfv, kú mí-nàà, é= $\varnothing$ sà lábán $=$ [ì gbòlòkò], matter Dem-Nom, 3SgNonh=Ipfv Fut end.up.Ipfv [3SgNonh on.top.of]

B: 'They were (talking) about it. Elder brother warthog considered it, that matter (=situation). It would end up (landing) on him.'
[wònò variant of wònù , lábánà < Jula lábân, gbòlòkò ~ gbólókó 'on']

04:54

B: wábáẁ
B: whoosh!,
é
3SgNonh


B: 'Whoosh! He (=warthog) ran away. Lion pursued him, pursued him, pursued him.'
[é fidì adjoined form, for perfective è fidí 'it ran', é H-toned by special Final ToneRaising; /š̌ [è kpá-nı̀]/ as a complex treated as a pseudo-reflexive verb, jèr-ré= èn nasalized variant of jèr-ré= è ]

04:59 B: cì-ná $=\varnothing$ búlú $\varnothing \varnothing$-wò má] sísàà ${ }^{n}$
B: hare-Nom=Ipfv return.Adjn [Nonh-3SgFoc on] now,

| è | $d \grave{\varepsilon}$ | [súrúkú | màā], | nàà, nàà, |
| :--- | :--- | :---: | :--- | :--- |
| 3SgNonh | say.Pfv | [hyena | on], | friend!, friend! |
| bó, | bó, | bó, |  | bó, |
| exit.Imprt, | exit.Imprt, | exit.Imprt, | exit.Imprt, |  |

B: 'Thereupon [focus] hare (who initially accompanied lion on the pursuit of warthog) went back now. He said to hyena: "friend, friend! Come out! Come out!",
[adjoined verb with imperfective subject enclitic; cf. cǐn bùlí(ī) 'hare returned' ]

05:02
$\mathrm{B}:$ súrúkú bòó= [Ø-wò má] sísàn ${ }^{n}$ kj̀rò -
B: hyena exit.Pfv [Nonh-3SgFoc on] now, [false start]
èè ${ }^{n}$ fidì, èén ${ }^{n}$ 3PlNonh run.Adjn.Defoc, 3PlNonh go.Adjn.Defoc,

B: 'Thereupon [focus] Hyena came out now. Elder brother-. They (=hyena and hare) ran, they went (away).'
[bòé 'exited'; èén fìdì and èén wà are defocalized adjoined verbs]

05:05
B: è̀è ${ }^{n}$
B: 3PlNonh
cíé
arrive.Pfv
cál-à,
road-Nom,
è dè nàà $[m a ̄ \quad k p \varepsilon ́ ~ t o ̀ ? o ́ ~[W o ̄ ~ m a ̄]], ~$
3 SgNonh say.Pfv friend! [1Sg what? say.Pfv [2Sg on]],

B: 'They reached (a point on) the road. He (=hare) said: "friend, what did I say to you-Sg?",
[t̀̀?ó for tò?દ́ (perfective)]

05:07


B: '(Hyena said:) "friend, it could not be said, oh! I said that that hole is small. Lo, I was able to go into that hole.",

05:11


B: 'Ah! What I saw, I have put (it) down in its place. There is its place.'
[reduced from mā ní bě [è-wò ... ; variant of the standard tale ending is 'I picked it up, I have put it (back) down']

## Text 2016_04: A brief history of breasts

narrator: Traore Lassina (L) with Traore Wamara (W)


00:03 L: dáálá-mā-nāā, kàà-l-á-āa
L: old.times-Nom, young.woman-Dimin-Nom-Pl
cíé ${ }^{\text {t }}$ tá $2=\quad\left[(a ̀) \grave{a}^{n}\right.$ wé [gòló tò $\left.]\right]$,
be.Past go.Ipfv [3PlHumRefl bathe.Adjn [river in]],
L: 'In the old days, (adolescent) girls used to go and bathe in the river.'
[kàà-lì 'girl', diminutive < kà?rà 'young woman']

00:06 L: [né $=$ àà ${ }^{n}$ tāPā]
L: [if 3PlHum go.Antec]
[(à)àn ${ }^{n}$ [géló tò $\left.]\right]$ hén,
[3PlHumRefl bathe.Adjn [river in] oops!,
àfō $n=$ áà $^{n} \quad$ kú tá?á
or.rather if 3PlHum begin go.Ipfv [àà ${ }^{n}=\left(\right.$ àà $\left.{ }^{n}\right)$ wéé tónó] [3PlHum 3PlHumRefl bathe.Adjn Purp]

L: 'When they went to bathe in the river, oops! rather when they started out in order to bathe, ...,
[/ní ààn/; àfó (< Jula) in self-corrections; wéz 'bathe' $\rightarrow$ wéé ]

00:10 L: àà ${ }^{n}$ cí gòl-dàà-rá,
L: 3PlHum arrive.Adjn river-mouth-Nom, àà ${ }^{n}=\quad\left[\right.$ áà ${ }^{n} \quad$ cíí-ná-à $\left.{ }^{n}\right] \quad$ wúpr $=$ 3PlHum [3PlHumReflPoss breast-Nom-Pl take.off.Pfv [àà $\left.{ }^{n} \quad s \bar{a}\right]$, [3PlHum set.out.to.dry.Adjn],

L: 'They would then arrive at the river bank and take their breasts off and set them out in the sun to dry.'

00:12 L: àán $=\varnothing$ sòrò [àán jà ${ }^{n}{ }^{n}$ [yí dù]],
L: 3PlHum=Ipfv do.then.Ipfv [3PlHum descend.Adjn [water in]], àà ${ }^{n}$ náà ${ }^{n}$ tímín [àà ${ }^{n} \quad$ WÉ] 3PlHum 3PlHumReflObj do.well.Pfv [3PlHum bathe.Adjn] àà ${ }^{n}$ bó [Ø kà?rà] Sísàn , 3PlHum exit.Pfv [3PlHum break.Adjn] now,

L: 'They would (then) proceed to go down into the water. They bathed well. Then they finally came out (of the water).'
[sòr̀̀ 'do then' in 'before ...' clause paired with another clause, §15.4.4.1; kà?rà 'break' adjoined to another verb means 'do eventually' with no paired clause §15.2.2.4]

00:16 L: $n=$ áà ${ }^{n}$ bó dóò,
L: if 3PlHum exit.Antec also, [àà ${ }^{n}$ dóró $]=\varnothing$ sà cíí-ná-à ${ }^{n}$ wé ${ }^{n}{ }^{n}$ dáná], [3PlHum too]=Ipfv Fut breast-Nom-Pl wash.Ipfv [3PlNonh apart]

L: 'When they came out, they also washed the breasts separately.'

00:19 L: àà ${ }^{n}$ néè ${ }^{n}$ nóprí [[è̀ ${ }^{n}$ núú] tò],
L: 3PlHum 3PlNonhObj put.back [[3PlNonh place] in], à áa $=\varnothing$ sòrò [àà ${ }^{n}$ sá [kélé mà]], 3PlHum=Ipfv do.then.Ipfv [3PlHum come.Adj [courtyard on]],

L: 'They put them (=breasts) on in their place, before they came home.'
[nう̀?rò 'affix, post (e.g. on wall)']


L: 'So, they remained thus (=in that situation). There was an old woman there. She was after a (certain) girl. She was stalking her.'
[tóó $\rightarrow$ túú before yààlàà 'thus'; à-mà instead of à for human $3 S g$ subject; cíE 'was/were' lengthened and + ATR before dè 'there'; dèn-dénà 'stalk (one's prey)', lexicalized reduplication of déná 'follow']

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00:29 L: [yá sòrò] [kàà-lì mí dò?óō],
    L: [now do.then.Ipfv] [young.woman-Dim Dem too],
    [yá sòrò] [à dò?ò] cí\varepsiloń [káméē-1 dò] ká,
    [now do.then.Ipfv] [3SgHum too] be.Past [young.man-Dim one] have,
    L: 'Now (it happened that) this girl furthermore, now (it happened that) she furthermore had a young man (=fiancé).'
[(è-)yá sòr̀̀ 'now (it happened that)' as preclausal discourse marker]
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00:33 L: [à cì̀-ná-à ${ }^{n}$ n $\varepsilon$ é,
L: [3SgHum breast-Nom-Pl be.good.Pfv]
èè ${ }^{n}$ bálí [bàlì cógō-rà $]$,
3PlHum stand.Pfv [stand manner-Nom]

L: 'Her breasts were beautiful, they stood the right way (=didn't sag).'


L: 'They (= women) went after (=looking for) their breasts now. They kept bathing. The old woman too left there (=the village).

00:39 L: wó $=\varnothing$ sò̀ mìpì-ná $=\varnothing$ kú mì?în dènnénà
$\mathrm{L}: 2 \mathrm{Sg}=\mathrm{Ipfv}$ know.Ipfv person-Nom=Ipfv begin person stalk.Ipfv à kú [mèrén kpà-mà] náánī, 3SgHum begin [person goal] already,

L: 'You-Sg know that (if) someone is stalking someone, (if) he/she is already stalking the person ...'
[náán̄~náánī 'already’]

00:44 L: wó $=\varnothing \quad$ s̀̀̀
L: 2Sg=Ipfv know.Ipfv
 [3SgHum=Ipfv $\quad 3 \mathrm{SgHumObj}-] \quad[3 \mathrm{SgHum}=\operatorname{Ipfv} \quad 3 \mathrm{SgHumObj}-]$
á $=\varnothing \quad$ [fè̀̀lé bù?ù] lájèní bègà 3SgHum=Ipfv [method all] pile.up cut.Ipfv pourque á $=\varnothing$ màà [cògò-yá mí] so.that $3 \mathrm{Sg}=\mathrm{Ipfv}$ be.done.Ipfv [manner Rel] à 3SgHum 3SgHumObj see.Imprt,

L: 'You-Sg know that he/she will accumulate and cut (=use) any methods, in order to find a/the way (for him/her) to get him/her.'
[lájèní < Jula, cf. Jalkunan céé-nù?ùmá 'pile up']

00:48 L: àà ${ }^{n}$ tú $=$ [Ø-yà kòǹ̀] dóò,
L: 3PlHum stay.Pfv [Nonh-3Sg still.on] too,
à
3SgHum go.Pfv see.Adjn
[mí-nà-à ${ }^{n}$ [yí dù] kàbán náánī dóō]
[Dem-Nom-Pl [water in] already already too]
L: 'They were still like that (=in that situation). She (=old woman) went and saw that those (women) were already in the water.'
[bèèní ~ béénī stative < bàà 'put down']
à [kàà-lí outside,

3SgHum [young.woman-Dim breast-Nom-Pl] choose.Adjn,
cì̀-ná-à ${ }^{n}$
wólóbá, á yǎ-ā ${ }^{n}$ bó dóò, 3SgHum 3PlNonhObj take.out.Adjn also,

L: 'The breasts were (=had been) set down outside (of the water). She picked out the breasts of the young woman. She took them out.'
[bééní stative < bàà 'put down' §11.2.4.2; occasional nonhuman 3Pl preverbal object è-yǎ-ān, see discussion following (104) in §4.3.1.3]

00:57 L: [à [ná mì-ná-àn] bó]
L: [3SgHum [3SgHumObj
Poss-Nom-Pl] take.out.Adjn]
[á= $\quad \varnothing$-yàà ${ }^{n}$ sá
[3SgHum Nonh-3Pl set.out.Adjn
[[[kàà-lí mǐ] nùú] tò]]
[[[young.woman-Dim Poss] place] in]], à sá [lkàà-lí cì̀-ná-àn] dé]
3SgHum come.Adjn [[young.woman-Dim breast-Nom-Pl] with [kélé mà]
[courtyard on]
L: 'She (=old woman) took off her own (breasts), and she laid them down in the place of the young woman's (breasts). She brought the girl's breasts to the courtyard (=to her home).'

01:01 L: [kàá-1 dò?ò] sє́ $\bar{\varepsilon}$,
L: [young.woman-Dim too] come.Pfv, jùn"-nò?̀̀-náā — [jùnò?ò-máá-ná-à ${ }^{n} \quad$ bú?ú-n=] co.wife-woman - [co.wife-owner-Nom-Pl all-Pl] [áà ${ }^{n}$ cíí-ná-àn ${ }^{\text {n }}$ yálī, [3PlHumRefl breast-Nom-Pl] take.Pfv,

L: 'The girl came also (to where the breasts had been left). The co-wives (=her companions), the co-wives all took their breasts.'
['co-wives' here used loosely to mean '(woman's) companions' cf. námù?ù 'comrade, peer']

01:05 L: [à-Wó mì-nà-àn ${ }^{n}$ jéé $=r e \bar{e}$,
L: [Hum-3Sg Poss-Nom-Pl] see.Pfv=Neg,
à [[[лáá kúdó] mì-ná-àn $\left.{ }^{n}\right]$ béé $=$ jí 3SgHum [[[woman old] Poss-Nom-Pl] be.put.down.VblN see.Pfv] [[[à-wó mì] bèè lá?ā-rà [[[Hum-3SgFoc Poss] be.put.down.Pfv place-Nom

L: 'She (=the girl) didn't find hers. She found the old woman's (breasts) put down where her own (breasts) had been put down.'
[ [ $X$ nòś] tò variant of [ $X$ nùúú] tò 'in the place of $X$ ']
01:09


L: 'She picked them (=breasts) up. She was unwilling to attach them in the place for attaching her own (breasts). She brought them into the courtyard (=to her home).'
[could also be phrased [[à wól] mì] nùù-nś with logophoric 3 Sg; negative $=n \bar{\varepsilon} ?$ with scope over entire clause including 'accept'; < [à sě] [è̀èn dé]]

01:12 L: [à Sá=]
L: [3SgHum come.Adjn]
[à sí=ì dóló kàméē-l-là $]$,
[3SgHum Fut=3PINonh show.Ipfv young.man-Dim-Nom]
L: 'She came and was going to show them to the young man (=fiancé).'
01:14 L: à dè á!
L: 3SgHum say ah!
[mù?ùn ${ }^{n}$ kóní] ttéqघ́ fì [yí dù]
[1Pl Topic] go.Pfv today [water in]

[1Pl=Ipfv go.Ipfv] [1PlRefl bathe.Ipfv]
L: ‘She said: "ah! (As for) us, we went to the water today. We (regularly) go (there) to bathe.",

01:17 L: ì tá?á ‘ $c$ cíé, wó $=\varnothing$ sj̀̀
L: 1 Pl go.Adjn arrive.Adjn $2 \mathrm{Sg}=\mathrm{Ipfv}$ know.Ipfv mù ${ }^{\text {un }}{ }^{n}=\varnothing \quad$ dèlé 1Pl=Ipfv be.accustomed=Ipfv
$k \grave{j}=\quad\left[\begin{array}{ll}\grave{j}^{n} & c i ́ 1-n a ́-\grave{a}^{n}\end{array}\right] \quad$ bó, begin [1PlRefl breast-Nom-Pl] take.out.Adjn, ààn $^{n}=\varnothing \quad$ sòró $=\quad\left[\grave{j}^{n} \quad\right.$ tár $=\quad\left[(a ̀) a ̀ n ~^{n} \quad\right.$ wé $\left.]\right]$ 1Pl=Ipfv do.then.Ipfv [1Pl go.Adjn [1PlRefl bathe.Adjn]

L: '(Girl:) We arrived (there). You-Sg know that we are accustomed to taking off our breasts before we go (into the water) to bathe." "
[/kúààn/]

| $01: 22$ | L: | $n \bar{\imath}$ | mù̀h̀̀ $^{n}$ | [nàà ${ }^{n}$ | wéé | dà-kán $^{n}$ |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
|  | L: | if | 1 Pl | [1PIRefl | bathe.VblN] | finish.Antec, |

mù?ún $=\varnothing$ sòró sá
$1 \mathrm{Pl}=\mathrm{Ipfv}$ do.then.Ipfv come.Adjn
[cíí-ná-à ${ }^{n}$ wé [èè ${ }^{n}$ dáná]]
[breast-Nom-Pl wash.Adj [3PlNonh apart]
L: '(Girl:) "When we had finished bathing, we proceeded to come to wash our breasts separately.",

01:23 àán $=\varnothing \quad$ sòró $=\quad\left[\grave{o}^{n} \quad\right.$ sí $=i^{n} \quad$ yálí $]$
3PlHum=Ipfv do.then.Ipfv [3PlHum Fut=3PlNonh take.Imprt]
[àà ${ }^{n}$ nîin nó?rí [[(i) ìn nùú] tò $\left.{ }^{n}\right]$,
[1Pl 3PlNonhObj affix.Pfv [[3PlNonh place] in]],
L: '(Girl:) "We were then going to take them afterwards. We put them (=breasts) on in their place."
[imperative yálí after future particle §10.5.1.2]

01:25 L: mā sé, bùpú mì jíg,
$\mathrm{L}: 1 \mathrm{Sg}$ come.Pfv, all Poss see.Pfv, $m a \bar{a} \quad\left[\begin{array}{ll}n a ́ a ́ n & m i ́\end{array} \quad j i ̀ ̀=r \bar{\varepsilon} ?\right.$, $1 \mathrm{Sg} \quad[1 \mathrm{SgRefl}$ Poss] see.Pfv=Neg,

L: ‘(Girl:) "I came. Everyone (else) saw (=found) theirs. I didn't see (=find) mine.",

01:27 L: mè [mā mì jí́ [[[án mì] nùú] tò $]$ ]
L: but [1Sg Rel see.Pfv [[[1SgRefl Poss] place] in]] è-wó nè, Nonh-3Sg here,

L: '(Girl:) "But what I found in the place of my own, that [focus] is it.",

01:29 L: à d $\quad b a ̄ a ̄ s i ́=\grave{\varepsilon}=r \bar{\varepsilon} ?$
L: 3SgHum say.Pfv problem=it.is=Neg àán $=\varnothing \quad$ sà $\quad$ kélénà, $\quad$ sàà-màà-ná-à ${ }^{n} \quad k \grave{\varepsilon}^{n}$, 1Pl=Ipfv Fut take.a.walk.Ipfv, house-owner-Nom-Pl chez,

L: 'He (=young man) said, "it's no problem. We'll take a walk, to the house of the village chiefs.",

01:34 L: [nī àà ${ }^{n}$ kī̄̄ dè]
L: [if 3PlHum arrive.Antec there.Def] ààn ${ }^{n}$ kú nàg cíé màà, 3PlHum begin ask.Ipfv speak 3Pl, $\left[\begin{array}{ll}n \bar{i}= & \text { è } i ̄]\end{array}\left[\begin{array}{ll}\mathrm{mi} & \text { ká }] \text { [à ná-màà - ] }\end{array}\right.\right.$ [if 3SgNonh be.seen.Antec] [Rel have] [3SgHum 3PlHumObj -], àà ${ }^{n}$ nîin ${ }^{n}$ dá?á-rà, 3SgHum 3PlNonhObj dispossess.VblN-Nom,

L: 'When they arrived there, they began to ask. (Young man:) "if it is found, the one who has (it), (what about) our taking them away (from him)?",
[cíદ 'speak'; [à ná-màà -] is a false start]
$\begin{array}{lllll}01: 38 & \mathrm{~L}: & \text { à } & d \grave{\varepsilon} & \grave{j}^{n} \text { クó }^{n}, \\ & \text { L: } & \text { 3SgHum } & \text { say.Pfv } & \text { yes!, }\end{array}$
slāā yèlèníi, àán $=\varnothing \quad$ wèé
daytime day.break.Pfv, 3PlHum=3SgNonh go.Pfv [[sàà dààlá] mà], mìrì-ná-à ${ }^{n}$ lá?ā-rà, [[house first] on], person-Nom-Pl place-Nom,

L: '(Girl:) "Yes!" Day broke. They went to the first house (=neighborhood), the place of the people (=where people were).'

01:43 L: àà ${ }^{n}$ táPá cíí=yà dè
L: 3PlHum go.Adjn arrive.Adjn=Link there.Def [cìndá tmí-nà], [neighborhood Dem-Nom], [àà ${ }^{n}$ bélé] [àà ${ }^{n}$ ś] [sàà-màá kèn]], [3PlHum pass.Adjn] [3PlHum enter.Adjn [house-owner chez]],

L: 'They went and arrived there, (in) that neighborhood. They went on and entered the house of the neighborhood chief.'
[The village was divided into neighborhoods (quartiers), each with its own chief]

01:46 L: àà ${ }^{n}$ só [sàà-màá k ${ }^{n}$ ],
L: 3PlHum enter.Adjn [house-owner chez]], àáa ${ }^{\text {nàà tó?ó [màà jáā], }}$ 3PlHum problem tell.Adjn [owner in.presence],

L: 'When they entered the house of the chief, they explained the problem.'

01:48 L: [à màà]
$\mathrm{L}: \quad[3 \mathrm{SgHum}$ owner]


L: 'The chief called all his people. When the husband too went, he took a guitar with him.'
[cf. $3 P l$ subject àá $=\varnothing$ sàlì-féé yàlá $=\left[(a ̀) a ̀{ }^{n}\right.$ bóभj̀], bòभ̀̀ 'hold’ used only in adjunction to 'take' etc.]

01:53 L: à tèpè cíé kà?rà sísàn,
L: 3SgHum go.Pfv arrive..Adjn do.finally now, $\left[\begin{array}{lll}a ́=\varnothing & \text { sìgí kè } \bar{\varepsilon}] \text {, } \quad \text { à kú sàlí bà?rà }],\end{array}\right.$ [3SgHum=Ipfv song sing.Ipfv], [3SgHum begin guitar beat.Ipfv]

L: 'Eventually he arrived now. He began singing, he began playing the guitar.'

| $01: 57$ | $\mathrm{~L}:$ | mè? $̀$-ná-à ${ }^{n}=\varnothing$ |
| ---: | :--- | :--- |
|  | L: person-Nom-Pl | come.Ipfv |


| $\left[\right.$ àà ${ }^{n}$ | tóó $]$ | $\left[(a ̀) \grave{a}^{n}\right.$ | kú | dòó | màà $]$ |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| $[3 \mathrm{PlHum}$ | stay.Adjn] | $[3 \mathrm{PlHum}$ | begin | dance(n) | do.Ipfv] |
| $[$ à̀à | tóó $]$ | $\left[(a ̀) \grave{a}^{n}\right.$ | kú | cí1́-ná-à ${ }^{n}$ | contrôler $],$ |
| $[3 \mathrm{PlHum}$ | stay.Adjn] | $[3 \mathrm{PlHum}$ | begin | breast-Nom-Pl | check] |

L: 'The people were coming. They (=the people) kept dancing. They (=girl and young man) were checking their (=the women's) breasts.'

01:59 L: né $=$ àà $^{n}$ jì [mí ${ }^{\text {t } k a ́], ~}$
L: if 3PlHum see.Antec [Rel have], à à ${ }^{n}=\varnothing \quad$ nì dà?à, $3 \mathrm{Pl}=\mathrm{Ipfv} \quad 3 \mathrm{SgNonhObj} \quad$ take.away.Ipfv,

L: 'In case they saw (it) on the one who had (it), they would take it away.'

| $02: 03$ | $\mathrm{~L}:$ | àà $^{n}$ | táá | cìz | premièrement, |
| ---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :--- | :--- |
| $\mathrm{L}:$ | 3PlHum | go(?) | arrive.Pfv | first, |  |
| àà $^{n}$ | ná-màà | kééì |  | dóò, |  |
| 3PlHum | HumObj-3PlFoc | call.Pfv | also, |  |  |

L: 'They (girl and boy) arrived for the first time. It was them (=dancers) [focus] that they (girl and boy) called.'
[tàà ~ táá now an auxiliary used with 'arrive’ §15.1.1.4, see also 02:38 below]

02:06 L: à-màà $\quad$ ś́ sísààa ${ }^{n}$,
L: Hum-3Pl come.Pfv now, àà ${ }^{n}$ sígí commencer, 3PlHum song begin,

L: 'It was they (villagers) [focus] who came now. They (=girl and boy) began the song.'

02:10 L: à dè
L: 3SgHum say.Pfv
kó nnérí wéè
friend hey!
ìká yégé-yégé túnúnà
my breasts be.lost
kó nnérí Wéè
friend hey!
j̀ká yégé-yégé túnúná
my breasts be.lost

L: ‘She said (=sang)
[song]
[song]
"Hey friend, My breasts are lost. Hey friend, My breasts are lost."
[song (green type) is in a kind of archaic Jula]
02:15 L: è-yáá-sòr̀̀ cií-ná
L: it.happened.that breast-Nom

| [dáárámā | míîī-nà-àn $]=\varnothing$ | cíí | kè $\grave{\varepsilon}$ | [kó | yégé-yégé] |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| [old.times | person-Nom-Pl]=Ipfv | breast | call.Ipfv | $[$ | breast] |

L: 'It happens that breast, the people of old called breast "ko yege-yege.",
02:18 L: kó nnérí wéè
friend hey!
ŋ̀ká yégé-yégé túnúná
my breasts be.lost
kó nnérí wéè
friend hey!
ìká yégé-yégé túnúná
my breasts be.lost
L: ‘She said (=sang)
"Hey friend,
My breasts are lost.
Hey friend,
My breasts are lost."
[the song is in a kind of Jula with some Jalkunan features]
02:22 L:

| né $\quad$ tùn | yénká |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| 1Sg $\quad$ Past | have |
| yégé-yégé | $\quad$ blà |

breasts put.down [pond edge-Nom]
jàrá ìjká yégé-yégé túnúná
lo! my breasts be.lost
L: ‘(She sang:)
"I had (them).
I put my breast(s) down on the edge of the pond
Lo, my breasts are lost."
02:26 L: cégékùrù cégékùrù
cégékùrù cégékùrù
cégékùrù cégékùrù

```
c\varepsilońg\varepsilońkùrù cég\varepsilońkùrù
c\varepsilońg\varepsilońkùrù cégékùrù
```

L: ‘(She sang:)
"cegekuru cegekuru" (repeated)

02:30
.
L: ha! [Nonh-3Sg
$m e ̀ 2 \grave{\varepsilon}-n a ́-\grave{a}^{n} \quad$ bù? $\left.=\right]$
person-Nom-Pl all]
á $=$ (à)à ${ }^{n}$ pém-pé?rà [dòó mà] kàrà-sán, 3PlHum 3PlHumRefl be.energetic [dance(n) do.Adjn] only,

L: 'Ha! All of the people (on the other side), they were energetically dancing.'
[pém-pé?rà reflexive verb 'be energetically occupied (in an activity)', followed by verbal noun or imperfective clause, especially 'dance' or 'do farming' (no intransitive examples elicitable)]

02:33 L: [[à dò?ó] lè]
L : [[3SgHum too] look.Pfv]
$\left[\begin{array}{lll}\text { àa } \\ & = & \text { jìà }\end{array}\right.$ dè $=r e \bar{?}$,
[3PlHum 3PlObj see.Pfv there.Def=Neg], [[àà ${ }^{n}$ dóró] bélé] [àán $=\varnothing$ Wàà kíná],
[[3PlHum too] pass.Adjn] [3PlHum=Ipfv go.Adjn ahead],
L: 'She looked again. They didn't see (them) there. They went on ahead.'

02:38 L: [àà ${ }^{n}$ dó?ó] táá cié,
L: [3Pl too] go(?) arrive.Pfv, àà ${ }^{n}=\quad \varnothing \quad$ sál sàà-màà-ná, 3PlHum 3SgObj inform.Pfv house-owner-Nom,

L: 'They again arrived (there). They explained it to (=informed) the chief.'
[tàà ~ táá (§15.1.1.4), see 02:03 above; preverbal object of sálí is 3SgNonh in abstract sense 'it']

02:40 L: [[à-màà dóPó] mè?è-ná-à ${ }^{n}$ bá]
L: [[Hum-3PlFoc too] person-Nom-Pl commission.Adjn] [àán $=~ \varnothing$ tò?̀̀ [[kálá mìrîn bù?ù] má]] [3PlHum 3SgObj tell.Ipfv [[neighborhood person all] on]]
'He (=chief) also commissioned the people. They (girl and boy) told it to all the people of the neighborhood.'

02:42 L: [[àà ${ }^{n}$ búpú dóPó] ${ }^{\text {ºb́ }}$ ],
L: [[3PlHum all too] exit.Adjn], [àà ${ }^{n}$ dó?ó] sá cìé, à dè, [3PlHum too] come.Adjn arrive.Adjn, 3SgHum say.Pfv,
'They (=people) all left then. They (girl and boy) came (there) again. She said (=sang):'

```
02:44 L:
                    kó nnérí Wéè
            friend hey!
                            ̀̀ká yégé-yégé túnúná
                            my breasts be.lost
            kó nnérí wéè
            friend hey!
            j̀ká yégé-yégé túnúná
            my breasts be.lost
L: 'She said (=sang)
"Hey friend, My breasts are lost. Hey friend, My breasts are lost." [the song is in a kind of Jula with some Jalkunan features]
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|}
\hline né từ \({ }^{\text {n }}\) & yénká & \\
\hline 1Sg Past & have & \\
\hline yégé-yégé & blà & [kò dáá-rà \\
\hline breasts put.down & [pond & edge-Nom] \\
\hline jà?á j̀ká & yégé-yégé & màyè dè? \\
\hline lo! my & breasts & be.lost \\
\hline
\end{tabular}
L: ‘(She sang:)
"I had (them).
I put my breast(s) down on the edge of the pond
Lo, my breasts are lost."
[this repetition used màyè dè? instead of túnúná 'become lost']
\begin{tabular}{ccc}
\(02: 54 \mathrm{~L}:\) & \(c \varepsilon ́ g \varepsilon ́ k u ̀ r u ̀ ~\) & cégékùrù \\
& cégékùrù & cégékùrù \\
& cégékùrù & cégékùrù \\
& cégékùrù & cégékùrù \\
& cégékùrù & cégékùrù
\end{tabular}
L: ‘(She sang:)
"cegekuru cegekuru" (repeated)
02:58 L: bon, àán \(=\varnothing\) jíí= yà dè d \(\quad\) à \(\bar{\jmath}=r \bar{\varepsilon} ?\),
L: well, 3PlHum 3PlObj see.Pfv=Link there.Def again=Neg, [àà \({ }^{n}\) dó?ó] wà kíná dópó bèlè,
[3PlHum too] go.Adjn ahead again pass.Adjn,
L: 'Well, they didn't find them there either. They went on ahead.'
[bèlè 'pass' probably transitive adjoined bèlè ~ bélé here, compare intransitive adjoined bélé]
```



L: 'They went and arrived there. As soon as they began singing, all the (other) people came, but that old woman didn't come.'
[Glottal at end of $s \varepsilon=$ ? '(they) came' is in parallel with that of the contrasting negative marker $=r \bar{E} ?$ in the paired clause, $\S 10.2 .2]$

03:04 L: já? $=$ à $=\varnothing=\grave{n}$ dè,
L: lo! 3SgHum=be=Link there.Def, sàà-màá dè áy!, à-mí dóò, house-owner say.Pfv hey!, Hum-Dem be.where?,

L: '(Then) lo!, there she was. The chief said, "hey! where is she?",
$[</$ jà 1 á á $=\varnothing=$ ǹ dè/ $]$

03:07 L: [à kòní] [kélé mèé dè]
$\mathrm{L}: \quad[3 \mathrm{SgHum}$ Topic] [courtyard on there] àà ${ }^{\text {ná }}$ nàéí,

3PlHum 3SgHumObj call.Pfv
L: '(The people said:) "As for her, she is in the courtyard." They called her.'
[[kélé mà] plus dè]

03:09 L: [[sàà-màá yè?nà] lá?á]
L: [[house-owner self] get.up.Adjn]
$\left[\begin{array}{llll}\varnothing & \text { wǎ }= & {[a ̀} & k p a ́-m a ̀ ~\end{array}\right]$
[3SgHum go.Adjn [3SgHum goal]
L: 'The chief himself got up and went for (=to find) her.'

03:10 L: [àà ${ }^{n}$ dóò] wō kéē
L: [3PlHum also] 2Sg call.Pfv
kòlògó cíć $\varepsilon$, talk(n) speak.Imprt,

L: ‘(Chief:) "They have called for you-Sg. Speak!"

| 03:12 | L. | $\left[m \bar{q} 1 \varepsilon^{n}\right.$ | bùpù | sá] | [Wō | $t u ́=\bar{u}$ | dè], |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | L: | [person | 11 | come.Adjn] | [2Sg | stay.A | there.Def] |
|  | wōtùm | f́ḟè | è | sí | wō | ká |  |
|  | guilty |  | 3 SgNonh | Q | 2 Sg | have |  |

L: '(Chief:) "Everybody (else) came (but) you stayed there. (You) look guilty, YouSg must have it (=the pair of breasts), don't you?'
[tó plus dè ; wōtùmáfèz̀ said to be a Jula expression identifying the guilty party; sí in emphatic question with tag kè, §15.1.1.5]


L: 'She eventually came (=arrived). While she was belatedly coming (=arriving), no! The dance was in progress (here).'
[bèèní-yà progressive of stative of bàà 'put down'; tóró 'while' implies a spatial separation of this event and the other one, cf. English meanwhile (§15.4.5); rén not otherwise attested but seems to be associated with 'be put']


L : 'She began dancing on the way as she was coming, so much so that her breasts were thrown in front of her.'
[flé~ fîlé 'throw (them)']

03:25 L: [kàá-l dòYò] ká=yè dè péw!
L: [young.woman-Dim too] leave.Adjn=Link there.Def totally
[à tú dòò-rá ká?rá sísàn ${ }^{n}$ ]
[3SgHum remain.Pfv dance(n)-Nom do.finally.Adjn now]
[kàà-lá mùnù $=$ [à jókò?r-ò] yéw!], [young.woman-Dim veer.Adjn] [3Sg face-Nom] Emph!],

L: 'The girl left it (=said nothing) entirely. She continued dancing. The girl (while dancing) moved over directly in front of her (=old woman).'
[cf. ká = yè nàà 'left here']

03:29 L: [á= [Ø cì̀-ná-à $\left.{ }^{n}=\right]$ sámá=]
L: [3SgHum [3SgHum breast-Nom-Pl] pull.Adjn]

| $\left[(a ̀){ }^{\text {a }}{ }^{n}\right.$ | bo | [ $\left[\right.$ èè ${ }^{n}$ | núú] | tin |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| [3PlNonh |  | [[3PlNonh | place] | in] |  |
| [á | [ $\varnothing$ | $b 1=$ |  |  | [è |

[3SgHum [3SgHum Poss-Nom-Pl] give.Adjn Hum-3Sg [Link there.Def]
L: 'She pulled off her (=old woman's) breasts from their place (on the old woman).'
[</sámá] [èè ${ }^{n}$ bó] ; </bìlì à-yà [è dè]/ ]

03:33 L: à bùpù [cāl-
L: 3SgHum and husband [kámélé màà-ná=] (à)à ${ }^{n}$ núpú ${ }^{n}$ yál $=$ [young.man owner-Nom] 3PlHum Recip take.Adjn [(à)à ${ }^{n}$ sá [kélé mà $]$, [3PlHum come.Adjn [courtyard on]],

L: 'She and (the) husband- (or rather) (she and) the young man took each other (=rode) and came into the courtyard (=home).'
[< yálí]

03:37 L: è-wò mé sààbú kù ${ }^{n} n \varepsilon$,
L: Nonh-3Sg do.Pfv reason Cop there, cí1́-ná-à ${ }^{n}$ cíé wó?ró dó?ó $=r \bar{\varepsilon} ?$, breast-Nom-pl can be.detached.Adjn again=Neg,

L: 'That [focus] is what caused (that) breasts could not be taken off any longer.'
[sààbú variant of sàbàbú 'reason, cause']

03:40 L: cíí-ná-à ${ }^{n}$ kólí [[(è-)wò súpún] tò]
L: breast-Nom-pl be.stuck [[Nonh-3Sg day] in] èè ${ }^{n}$ cié wó?ró dó?ó= $=\bar{\varepsilon}$ ? , 3PlNonh can be.removed.Adjn again $=\mathrm{Neg}$,

L: 'Breasts were (permanently) attached, on that day. They could not be taken off thereafter.'
[kólí < French (se) coller 'be firmly attached, be glued' via Jula, cf. Jalkunan nó?ró]

| $03: 42$ | $\mathrm{~L}:$ | né $=$ | é | $c i ̀$ | $k \varepsilon ́$ | wó?ró |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
|  | $\mathrm{L}:$ | if | $3 S g N o n h$ | can | Past | be.removed.Adjn | $m e ̀ p \grave{\varepsilon}-n a ́-a^{n}$ cíq́ tó= $\grave{j}^{n} \quad k u ́$ person-Nom-Pl be.Past stay.Ipfv [3PlHum begin $\left[\begin{array}{lll}{[m e ̀ p e ̀-n a ́-a ̀ ~} \\ & \left.\text { cíí-ná-à }{ }^{n}\right] & \left.j 0^{n}\right]\end{array}\right.$ [[person-Nom-Pl breast-Nom-Pl] steal.Adjn]

L: 'If it (=breasts) could (still) be taken off, people would constantly steal (other) people's breasts.'
[counterfactual conditional using past-time morphemes §16.4]

L: 1 Sg Dem see.Pfv [[place Rel] around in]
mā ní-yà bé= [é dè]
1Sg NonhObj-3Sg put.down.Pfv [Link there]
L: 'The place around which I saw (=found) this (tale), I have put it (back) down there.'
[standard tale ending]

## Appendix: Jalkunan versus Jeri (Jeli Kuo)

Jeri (Kuo) ~ Jeli (Kuo) is spoken by members of a leatherworker caste of Mande origin in several villages or quartiers in the vicinity of Korhogo, a large city in north central Côte d'Ivoire. The zone is dominated by ethnic Senoufou.

Literature on Jeri of Côte d'Ivoire is as follows. Kastenholz (1991-MS), eventually published as Kastenholz (2001), provides a word-list and background comments, growing out of a wider dialectal survey. Tröbs (1998) is only substantial grammatical work; see also Tröbs (2013) on an issue involving postpositions. Literature on Jeri ethnicity includes Frank (1995) and Launey (1995).

After writing this grammar I received a copy of Tröbs (1998), kindly mailed to me in West Africa by Valentin Vydrine. A brief perusal of this book is sufficient to show that Jalkunan and Jeli are far from being mutually intelligible dialects of a single language

Tröbs states that Jeli has two tone levels (1998: 73). Jalkunan has three levels.
Consider, to start with, the primary forms of pronouns in the two varieties, used in all core morphosyntactic functions. Jeli data from Tröbs (1998: 112-113).
(i) Pronouns

|  | Jeli | Jalkunan |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 1 Sg | nà | $m \bar{a}$ |
| 2Sg | í | wō |
| 3 Sg | i | à (human) |
|  |  | è (nonhuman) |
|  |  | ná (human object) |
|  |  | ní(nonhuman object) |
| 1 Pl | à | mù ${ }^{\text {u }}{ }^{n}$ |
| 2 Pl | ò | $\bar{e} \bar{e}^{n}$ |
| 3 Pl | ní | àà ${ }^{\text {(human) }}$ |
|  |  | è̀̀ ${ }^{n}$ (nonhuman0 |
|  |  | náà ${ }^{\text {n }}$ (human object) |
|  |  | $n 1 \widehat{11}^{n}$ (nonhuman object) |

Including Jalkunan reflexive possessor and pseudo-possessor pronominals would bring the two languages closer. However, the huge differences in pronominal forms in core nonreflexive functions (subject, object, possessor, complement of postposition) would suffice to exclude mutual intelligibility, even though many lexical items are cognate.

Some additional function-to-function correspondences are presented in (ii). One can identify some cognates, but there are again too many differences to suggest same-language status.
(ii) Other grammatical morphemes

|  | Jeli | Jalkunan |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| nominal suffix | - | -ra (and variants) |
| genitive (alienable): |  |  |
| animate | -ra~-na | - |
| inanimate | -ka | - |
| default possessum | $n u$ | mì |
| plural of noun | -ni | -àà ${ }^{\text {or }}$-àà-nū |
| 'this' | $m \varepsilon$ | mí |
| 'that (definite)' | Wo | - |
| 3Sg logophoric | - | -wò |
| definite | -o | - |
| focus (NP) | NP ${ }_{s i}$ | - |
| focus (pronoun) | Pron ta | - |
| relative marker | mi, plural mi-ni | mì, plural mǐin |
| 'in' | ton | tò~tó, dù $\sim d u ́$ |
| 'on' | ma | mà ~ má |
| benefactive | suy | $k \grave{\varepsilon}^{n} \sim k \varepsilon^{n}$ |
| perfective | (zero) VP | (zero) VP |
| 'be (somewhere)' | -a | $=\varnothing$ (floating H-tone) |
| imperfective | -a VP | $=\varnothing \mathrm{VP}$ |
| future | -a VP -yゝ̀ | $=\varnothing$ sà VP |
| perfect | wa VP | - |
| 'keep VPing' | -a ri VP | tóó 'stay' plus adjoined clause |
| past (time shift) | nbe | $k \varepsilon ́$ (clause-final), ciè ~ cíq́ 'was' |
| prohibitive | $m a(s a) ~ V P ~ t \varepsilon ~$ | bí $\mathrm{VP}=r \bar{E}$ ? |
| negative | $t \varepsilon(\operatorname{lpfv}$ also $n d \varepsilon$ ) | $=r \bar{E} ?$ |
| 'if' | $n i \operatorname{Sbj}$ sa | $n \overline{1} \ldots$ |

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## Abbreviations and symbols

| Abbreviations |  |
| :---: | :---: |
| Adj | adjective |
| Adjn | adjoined (form of verb) |
| ATR | advanced tongue root (vowel feature) |
| Benef | benefactive postposition |
| C | consonant (in formulae like CvCV ) |
| Comit | comitative (postposition) |
| Custod | custodial (postposition) |
| Def | (discourse-)definite (demonstrative) |
| Dem | demonstrative |
| Emph | emphatic (clause-final particle) |
| ExpPf | experiential perfect |
| Foc | focus |
| Fut | future |
| H | high (tone) |
| Hum | human |
| Ipfv | imperfective |
| Imprt | imperative |
| Indep | independent (pronoun) |
| L | a) low (tone) |
|  | b) any sonorant (in formulae like $C v L$ ) |
| Link | linker |
| Loc | locative |
| Logo | logophoric |
| N | a) noun (in e.g. 'N-Adj") |
|  | b) nasal consonant (in formulae like $C v N$ ) |
| (n) | noun, in interlinear glosses like 'work(n)' |
| Neg | negative |
| Nom | nominal suffix (§6.1.2-3) |
| Nonh | nonhuman |
| NP | noun phrase |
| Num | numeral |
| O | object (in e.g. "S-infl-O-V-") |
| Obj | object |
| Ord | ordinal |
| OV | transitive verb with preverbal object |
| Pf | perfect (in "experiential perfect") |


| Pfv | perfective |
| :--- | :--- |
| Pl | plural |
| Poss | possessive, possessor |
| Postp | postposition |
| PP | postpositional phrase |
| Prog | progressive |
| Proh | prohibitive |
| Pron | pronoun |
| Purp | purposive |
| Q | question |
| Rdp | reduplication |
| Recip | reciprocal |
| Refl | reflexive |
| S | subject (in e.g. "S-infl-O-V-") |
| Sbj | subject (in "subject focus") |
| Sg | singular |
| Stat | stative |
| Temp | temporal postposition (§8.3.3.9) |
| V | verb (in e.g. "S-infl-O-V-") |
| v | vowel (in e.g. CVCV) |
| Vb | verb |
| (v) | verb, in interlinear glosses like 'fight(v)' |
| VblN | verbal noun |
| VO | transitive verb with postverbal object |
| VP | verb phrase |
|  |  |

## Symbols

| $*$ | reconstructed |
| :--- | :--- |
| $\#$ | ungrammatical, unacceptable, unattested |
| á, à, â, ǎ, à | tones on vowels (or syllables) <br> $<\ldots>$ <br> $/ \ldots /$ |
| contour tones on one syllable, e.g. $<\mathrm{HL}>$ or $<\mathrm{LH}>$ <br> a) lexical tone melody, e.g. $/ \mathrm{LH} /, / \mathrm{H} /$ |  |
| $\{\ldots\}$ | b) underlying or lexical representation <br> a) tone overlay, e.g. $\{\mathrm{HL}\},\{\mathrm{H}\},\{\mathrm{L}\}$ |
| $[\ldots]$ | b) enclosing any set, e.g. $\{u$ a $i\}$ <br> a) phonetic (IPA) representation, e.g. [bǔ:]; or phrasal grouping <br> b) syntactic brackets <br> downstep |
| $=$ | clitic boundary <br> prolongtion |

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| doo | a) dóò, 'be where?', §13.2.4 |
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| dò?ò ~ dó?ó | 'also, too' or 'again', §19.1.2 |
| dò̀nì | 'a little' or 'a (little) while', §8.5.2 |
| du | a) dù $\sim d u ́ \quad$ postposition 'in, inside of', §8.3.3.2 |
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|  | in 'belong to' predicates, §11.5.3.2 |
| $f \varepsilon^{\prime} \varepsilon^{n}$ | 'a lot', §8.5.2 |
| fō | 'it must be', §17.1.4 |
| $f \grave{j}^{n} \sim$ fón $^{n}$ | 'be better', §12.1.3 |
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|  | b) $f \bar{\rho}$, 'must', §17.1.4 |
|  | c) fō 'even', §19.2.2.2 |
| fúúlú | postposition 'between', §8.3.3.8 |
| füùrù | 'until, within (time span)', §8.3.5.3 |
| gbó-nò | 'like, similar to', §8.5.1 |
| glà~glá | postposition 'next to', §8.3.3.5 |
| $/ \mathrm{H}+=\varnothing /$ | a) subject enclitic in imperfective-system clauses (present, future, progressive), §10.3.2.1 |
|  | b) 'be' subject enclitic, §11.2.3.1 |
| $=\overline{1}$ | identificational 'it is X ' enclitic, §11.2.1.1 |
| $=(i) n$ | 1 Sg or 1 Pl subject of adjoined clause, §15.2.1.3 |
| jámúlò | 'become, be transformed into', §11.2.5.2 |


| kà ~ ká | a) 'want' (see also kóó~ kò̀̀ ), §11.2.6.2 complements, §17.1.1 past time, §10.4.3 |
| :---: | :---: |
|  | b) 'have', §11.5.1 |
| kàà | 'leave, abandon' in clause adjunctions, $\S 15.2 .3 .2$ |
| kàbá ${ }^{n}$ | 'already', §8.5.6.8 |
| kàbí | 'since', §15.4.3 |
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| $k \varepsilon$ | a) $k \dot{\varepsilon}$, past time, $\S 10.4$ in counterfactual, §16.4 |
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|  | c) $k \dot{\varepsilon} \sim k \varepsilon$, perfective of 'leave, abandon', $\S 10.4$ |
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|  | benefactive, §8.1.3 |
|  | 'chez', §8.3.3.4 |
| kìnà ~ kíná | postposition 'in front of', §8.3.3.6 |
| kómì | 'as', §15.5.2 |
| kósò ${ }^{n}$ | 'because of', §8.4.5 |
| kóó~ kò | 'want', with clausal complement, §17.1.1 |
| kóní | 'as for', §19.1.1 |
| kpà | postposition in termporal expressions, §8.3.3.9 |
| kpǎ-mà~ kpá-mà | purposive postposition (goal), §8.4.3 |
| kpǎ-nò~ kpá-nò | purposive postposition (goal), §8.4.3 |
| kpé | 'what?', §13.2.3 |
| kpè Pe - ~ kpéré- | 'only’, §19.1.3 |
|  | kpéPé-nū ~ kpè?è-nù, 'exactly', §8.5.3 |
| kú | durative inceptive 'begin', §15.1.1.2 |
| kùdù ~ kúdú | purposive-causal postposition ('for' or 'because of'), §8.4.1 |
| $k \grave{u}^{n} \sim k u^{n}$ | copula, in ' X is Y ', §11.2.2.1-2 in 'belong to' predicates, §11.5.3.1 |
| kùtò ~ kútó | postposition 'under', §8.3.4.2 |
| -lī $\sim-l i ̀$ | diminutive suffix on nouns and pronouns, §4.2.1, §4.5.2 |
| ma | a) mā, 1 Sg pronoun, $\S 3.3$ |
|  | má $=\varnothing, 1 \mathrm{Sg}$ imperfective subject |
|  | mà, 1 Sg preverbal object pronoun after some subjects, §3.3.1.3 |
|  | b) mà ~ má postposition |
|  | 'on', §8.3.3.3 |
|  | for indirect object of 'say', §8.1.2 |
|  | c) -má- in two exemplar-type composite adjectives, §5.2.2 |
|  | d) à-mà once for human 3 Sg subject à, end of §4.3.1.1 |
|  | e) má- ~ mà- prefix in numerals '7' to '9', §4.6.1.2, §6.4.2.2 |
| māā | 'owner', in compounds, §5.1.6 |


| mǎā | a) 3 Pl logophoric or focalized à-mǎā (human), è-mǎā (nonhuman), §13.1, § 18.3 |
| :---: | :---: |
|  | b) 2 Pl pronoun mǎā, §4.3.1.7 |
| màrà | 'touch' with postverbal object, §11.1.2.2 as auxiliary with onomatopoeias, $\S 11.1 .2 .5$ |
| $m \bar{a} P \bar{a}^{n}, ~ m a ̄ P a \bar{a}-n \check{~}$ | 'who?', §13.2.2 |
| mànâ | 'how?', §13.2.5 |
| mi | a) mì, default possessum, §6.2.4 in predicates, §11.5.3.1-2 |
|  | b) mí, demonstrative, §4.4.1.1 |
|  | c) mì, relative marker, $\S 14.2$ |
|  | d) mì, 'where?', §13.2.4 |
|  | e) -mī- in instrumental compounds, $\S 5.1 .7$ |
|  | f) mī-prefix in numeral mī-īlo ' 6 ', §4.6.1.2 |
| mî̀ | demonstrative, §4.4.1.2 |
| mǐ-ī ${ }^{n}$ | plural relative marker, §14.2 |
|  | 'person' <br> in agentive compounds, §5.1.4 |
| mù?ùn | 1 Pl pronoun, §3.3 |
| $n$ | a) $=(i) n, 1 \mathrm{Sg}$ or 1 Ok subject of adjoined clause, $\S 15.2 .1 .3$ |
|  | b) $=$ ń $\sim=n ̀$, linker before 'here' and 'there' in predicates, §11.2.3.2 |
| na | a) ná, human 3 Sg preverbal object, §4.3.1.3 |
|  | b) -nà~ -ná, nominal suffix, nasalized from -rà~ -rá, §2.2.2.1, §4.1.1, §6.1.2 |
|  | c) ná, after plural ethnicity name, §8.4.4 |
| naa | a) nàà 'here', §4.4.2.1 with linkers, §3.7.3, §11.2.3.2 |
|  | b) náà ${ }^{n}$ human 3 Pl preverbal object, §4.3.1.3 |
|  | c) $n \bar{a} \bar{a}^{n}, 1 \mathrm{Sg}$ and 1 Pl reflexive possessor of object, $\S 18.1 .1$ |
| náánì | 'already', §8.5.6.8 |
| $=n \bar{e} ? \sim=n \bar{\varepsilon} ?$ | clause-final negative enclitic, nasalized from $=r \bar{e} ? \sim=r \bar{\varepsilon} ?, \S 10.2$ in negative copula ' X is not Y ', $\S 11.2 .1 .2$ |
| $n \bar{\varepsilon} P \bar{\varepsilon} k \bar{\varepsilon}$ | 'a little', §8.5.2 |
| ni | a) $n \overline{1}$, 'if', §16.1 |
|  |  ~ -lì, §4.2.1, §4.5.2 |
|  | c) possible temporal morpheme in sánì and yàní 'by..., between now and ...' and náánì 'already' |
|  | d) ní, nonhuman 3 Sg preverbal object, §4.3.1.3 |
|  | e) ní or $n i ̀ \sim n i ́ a s ~ f i n a l ~ s y l l a b l e ~ i n ~ d e r i v e d ~ s t a t i v e ~ v e r b s, ~ § 11.2 .4 .2, ~$ §15.1.1.2 |
| $n$ nī | a) perfective 2 Sg pseudo-reflexive (middle), §10.1.1.3 |
|  | b) perfective 2 Sg reflexive possessor of preverbal object, §18.1.1 |


| $n i i^{n}$ | a) n $\widehat{11}^{n}$, nonhuman 3 Pl preverbal object, §4.3.1.3 |
| :---: | :---: |
|  | b) $n \overline{1} \bar{i}^{n}, 2 \mathrm{Sg}$ and 2 Pl reflexive possessor of preverbal object, $\S 18.1 .1$ |
|  | c) $n \overline{1} \bar{i}^{n} \sim n i \grave{1}{ }^{n}, 2 \mathrm{Pl}$ pseudo-reflexive, §10.1.1.3 |
| -nò~ -nó | nominal suffix, nasalized and rounding-assimilated from -rà ~ -rá, §2.2.2.1, §4.1.1, §6.1.2 |
| $-n \bar{u}$ | plural nominal suffix, §6.1.3 |
| -nā- | ordinal suffix, §4.6.2.2 |
| jáà | postposition, 'in the presence of', §8.3.3.7 |
| nàànéè~ náánég̀ | 'proper, right', §8.5.4.2 |
| jàní | '(from now) until ...', §8.5.6.7 |
| nò | 'which?', §13.2.7 |
| nù?ù ${ }^{n}$ | reciprocal, §18.2.1 |
| -rà ~ -rá | nominal suffix, §2.2.2.1, §4.1.1, §6.1.2 |
| $=r \bar{e} P \sim=r \bar{\varepsilon}$ Q | clause-final negative enclitic, $\S 10.2 .1$ |
|  | in 'it is not X' construction, §11.2.1.2 |
| $=r \grave{\varepsilon}=\bar{\varepsilon}^{n}$ | negative imperfective interrogative as hortative, §13.2.1.3 |
| -rò~ -ró | nominal suffix, rounding-assimilated from -rà ~ -rá, §2.2.2.1, §4.1.1, §6.1.2 |
| sà | a) future tense, $\S 10.3$.2.3 |
|  | b) with imperative verb, $\S 10.5 .1 .2$ |
| sánì | 'by ..., between now and ...', §8.5.6.7 |
| sí | in interrogatives, §15.1.1.5 |
| sísà̀ ${ }^{\text {n }}$ | 'now', §19.3.1 |
| sòló~ sóló | 'how much?' or 'how many?', §13.2.6 |
| sò | 'know', §11.2.6.1 |
|  | complements, §17.1.2 |
|  | past time, §10.4.3 |
| sóś | 'help' (verb), §15.2.2.3 |
| sòrò | 'do then' |
|  | in 'before ...' clauses, §15.4.4.1 |
|  | in 'it happened that ...' constructions, §19.2.1.2-3 |
| tàà ~ táá | auxiliary with 'arrive', §15.1.1.4 |
| $\left.t o{ }^{( }\right)$ | a) $t$ ¢ $\sim$ tó, postposition 'in', §8.3.3.1 |
|  | in compound initial, §5.1.8 |
|  | b) tó $\sim t \delta^{n}$, in deverbal adjectives, $\S 4.5 .3$ |
|  | c) $t \bar{o}^{n}$, 'first' (adverb), §15.4.4.3 |
|  | d) $t \bar{\jmath}=n \bar{\varepsilon} P$ 'not yet', §15.4.4.2 |
| tóó | tóś~ túú, verb 'stay, remain', §11.2.5.1 |
|  | as continuative auxiliary 'keep doing', §15.1.1.2 |
| tò? | 'say (something)', §3.3.1 |
| tóró ~ tónó | a) same-subject purposive clause, $\S 17.5 .1$ |
|  | b) 'while', §15.4.5 |
| tú | a) 'along with', §7.1.2 |
|  | b) 'plus' (quantify of time), §8.5.6.7 |


| túú | see tóó |
| :---: | :---: |
| wà | quoted polar interrogative, §13.2.9.2 |
| waa | a) Wàá 'go', §10.1.1.2 |
|  | b) wáà, 'or', §7.2 |
| wálímà | 'or', §7.2 |
| wo | a) $w \bar{o}$ |
|  | $w o ́=\varnothing, 2 \mathrm{Sg}$ imperfective subject |
|  | wò, 2 Sg preverbal object pronoun after some subjects, §3.3.1.3 |
|  | c) wò, 3 Sg logophoric or focalized à-wò (human), è-wò (nonhuman), often truncated to $\varnothing$-wò, $\S 13.1, \S 18.3$ |
|  | d) wò, 'whether (or not), clause-final §16.3 |
| wònò ~ wónó | 'still on (a topic)', §8.3.5.4 |
| wó-ró | 'So-and-so', §4.1.1.4 |
| ya | a) -yà ~ -yá, progressive suffix on verbs, §10.3.2.4 |
|  | b) yà polar (yes/no) interrogative, § 13.2.1.1 |
|  | c) à-yà (human) and è-yà (nonhuman) 3 Sg postverbal objects, §4.3.1.6 |
| yàní | 'by ..., between now and ...', §8.5.6.7 |
| yépré ~ yérré | reflexive, §18.1 |

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[^0]:    a. wó $=\varnothing \quad{ }^{\downarrow} k p \varepsilon ́$
    $2 \mathrm{Sg}=\mathrm{Ipfv} \quad$ what?
    kà
    'What do you want?'

[^1]:    a. à-wò sìbí dòníí / dǒn $=n$ ē?

    Hum-3SgFoc meat eat.meat.Pfv (=Neg)
    'It was(n't) he-or-she [focus] who ate (the) meat. (</dòní = nē?/)
    b. à-mǎā sìbí dòníí / dǒn $=n$ ē?

    Hum-3PlFoc meat eat.meat.Pfv (=Neg)
    'It was(n't) they [focus] who ate (the) meat.
    c. mā sìbí dòníī / dǒn $=n \bar{e} ?$

    1 Sg meat eat.meat.Pfv $(=\mathrm{Neg})$
    'I ate/didn't eat (the) meat.'
    or 'It was(n't) I [focus] who ate (the) meat.'

[^2]:    a. zàkîl / dí-kpé?r-à-àn / wō

    Z / child-young-Nom- $\mathrm{Pl} / 2 \mathrm{Sg}$
    sé/ bó yà
    ‘Did Zaki/the children/you-Sg come/go out?’ (< séq́, bóq́)

[^3]:    a. à
    tùùnì
    3SgHum stay.Stat mùù-mèè-rá
    field-do.VblN-Nom
    'He/She keeps farming.'

