

ASPECTS OF BANGIME PHONOLOGY, MORPHOLOGY, AND MORPHOSYNTAX

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I dedicate this dissertation to the Bangande for entrusting my ears and tongue with their language, my mind and heart with its meaning, and to Marshall Mathers for shining the light during the night so that I could write the words that were before only spoken.

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Preface

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Abbie Hantgan

ASPECTS OF BANGIME MORPHOLOGY, PHONOLOGY AND MORPHOSYNTAX

This dissertation provides a description of aspects of the phonology, morphology, and morphosyntax of Bangime. Bangime is a language isolate spoken in the Dogon language speaking area of Central Eastern Mali. Although the Bangande, the speakers of Bangime, self-identify with the Dogon, their language bears practically no resemblance to the surrounding Dogon languages. Bangime has limited productive morphological processes whereas Dogon languages are agglutinating, with productive morphemes to indicate inflectional and derivational verbal and nominal processes.

Bangime has a complex tonal system. General tendencies of the tonal patterns are described, with the many exceptions which frequently occur also outlined. Nominal tonal melodies are apparent in plural forms. Objects in verb phrases receive tonal agreement with tones on the verb in accordance with the subject of the sentence.

The tense, aspect, and mood system of the language is also complicated. Inflectional marking on the verb, auxiliaries, and the word order all contribute to the indication of the tense, aspect or mood of the sentence. An overview of these multifaceted phonological and morphological processes is provided in this dissertation with hypotheses as to how the language might have evolved.

Procedure

The Human Subjects approval number is #08–13242. All the data included in this study were recorded using a Marantz PMD660 Professional Portable Digital Recorder with a Shure SM48S–LC Microphone and were analyzed using the program Praat. Microsoft Excel was used for plotting vowel formant values and storing lexical items. SIL Fieldworks was used to analyze texts. Transcriptions are either /phonemic/ or [phonetic] and are written in IPA format. Lexical items are listed in citation form unless otherwise noted. Long vowels are represented by the notation {vv}, with tone marked on both vowels of the sequence. Tones are marked with an acute accent for high {´}, a grave accent for low {`}, and a combination for rising {˘}. Morpheme boundaries are indicated with a dash { – } in between morphemes for suffixes and an equals sign { = } for clitics. The terms root and stem are defined by Aronoff (1994). A superscript {ⁿ} following a target vowel or approximant is used to represent nasality. When available, two examples are shown, otherwise the sole example found is shown. TAM markers are abbreviated and translated. Postpositions have varying meanings which do not translate directly so PP is used in lieu of a gloss. Hyperlinks are underlined and written in blue throughout the dissertation which lead to the section mentioned.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

Acknowledgments.....	v
Preface	vi
Abstract.....	Error! Bookmark not defined.
Procedure	viii
Abbreviations.....	xix
CHAPTER 1. INTRODUCTION TO THE BANGIME LANGUAGE AND SPEAKERS.....	1
1.1 INTRODUCTION	1
1.2 LOCATION	2
1.3 PREVIOUS RESEARCH ON BANGIME	4
1.4 METHODOLOGY	6
1.5 DEMOGRAPHICS	8
1.6 ETHNOGRAPHY	9
1.7 CLASSIFICATION	11
1.8 LANGUAGE OVERVIEW	17
1.8.1 Phonology	17
1.8.2 Morphology.....	20
1.8.3 Syntax	29
1.8.4 Greeting Sequences.....	36
1.9 BANGIME: ‘A SECRET LANGUAGE’	37
1.10 CONCLUSION.....	41
1.11 ORGANIZATION	43
CHAPTER 2. PHONOLOGICAL FEATURES.....	45
2.1 INTRODUCTION TO THE PHONEMIC INVENTORY OF FEATURES	45
2.2 VOWELS.....	46
2.2.1 Diphthongs.....	47

2.2.2	Length	52
2.2.3	Vowel Quality	57
2.2.4	Nasalization.....	59
2.2.5	Vowel Inventory	60
2.3	CONSONANTS	61
2.4	LABIAL CONSONANTS.....	61
2.4.1	Coronal Consonants	64
2.4.2	Dorsal Consonants	67
2.4.3	Glottal Consonant	70
2.5	TONE.....	70
2.5.1	Tonal Correspondences with Syllable Structure	71
2.5.2	Tone generalizations	75
2.6	SYLLABLES	76
2.6.1	Minimal Word.....	76
2.6.2	Syllable Structure.....	77
2.6.3	Clitics and Affixes	82
2.6.4	Generalizations about the Syllable.....	84
2.7	SUMMARY OF FEATURES.....	84
CHAPTER 3. NOUN TYPES.....		85
3.1	NOUN ROOTS	85
3.2	NOUN STEMS	86
3.2.1	Plural Allomorphy.....	87
3.2.2	Segmental Type One (-∅, =nε).....	90
3.2.3	Segmental Type Two (V ⁿ , =ndε).....	91
3.2.4	Segmental Type Three (Cε, =nε)	92
3.2.5	Segmental Noun Type Four (+ε, -mi=nε).....	95
3.2.6	Segmental Noun Type Five (rV, rV=nε).....	96
3.2.7	Segmental Noun Type Six (-r, =ndε).....	97

3.3	TONAL MELODIES ON NOUNS	99
3.3.1	Tone Type One: High Stem	100
3.3.2	Tone Type Two: Low Stem	100
3.3.3	Tone Type Three: High Stem.....	101
3.3.4	Tone Type Four: Low Stem	102
3.3.5	Tone Type Five: Falling-Tone Stem.....	102
3.3.6	Tone Type Six: Rising-Tone Stem.....	103
3.4	AUGMENTATIVE.....	103
3.4.1	Tone Type One	104
3.4.2	Tone Type Two.....	105
3.4.3	Tone Type Three.....	106
3.4.4	Tone Type Four.....	106
3.4.5	Tone Type Five	107
3.4.6	Tone Type Six.....	107
3.5	SUMMARY OF THE NOUN STEM.....	108
CHAPTER 4. NOMINAL DERIVATION: SUFFIXATION		110
4.1	SUFFIXES IN BANGIME	110
4.2	DIMINUTIVE	110
4.2.1	Plural Diminutives	111
4.2.2	Language.....	112
4.2.3	Inhabitant of Village	113
4.2.4	Quality of X	114
4.2.5	Tonal patterns on the diminutive suffix	114
4.3	AGENTIVE.....	116
4.3.1	Agentive with Verbs	117
4.3.2	Other Morphemes with the Agentive and 'owner'.....	118
4.3.3	Grammaticalized Agentive.....	119
4.4	SUMMARY OF NOMINAL SUFFIXES.....	120

CHAPTER 5. NOMINAL INFLECTION: PROCLITICS.....	121
5.1 PROCLITICS IN BANGIME.....	121
5.2 NOMINAL POSSESSION	121
5.3 TONAL PATTERNS ON THE POSSESSIVE PROCLITIC.....	127
5.3.1 First and Third Person Possessive proclitics	127
5.3.2 Tone Type One Nominals	128
5.3.3 Tone Type Two.....	128
5.3.4 Tone Type Three.....	130
5.3.5 Tone Type Four.....	131
5.3.6 Tone Type Five	132
5.3.7 Tone Type Six.....	133
5.4 PLURAL POSSESSIVES.....	133
5.5 SECOND SINGULAR POSSESSIVE PROCLITICS	134
5.5.1 Tone Type One Nouns	134
5.5.2 Tone Type Two Nouns	135
5.5.3 Tone Type Three.....	136
5.5.4 Tone Types Four - Six	137
5.6 PLURAL SECOND SINGULAR POSSESSIVE STEMS.....	138
5.7 GENITIVE NASAL WITH THE SECOND SINGULAR POSSESSIVE PROCLITIC	138
5.8 SUMMARY OF POSSESSIVE PROCLITICS	139
5.9 DEFINITE MARKER.....	140
5.9.1 Definite Plural Nouns.....	142
5.9.2 Definite Objects	142
5.9.3 Definite Marker and Demonstrative.....	143
5.9.4 Obligatory Definite Nouns.....	144
5.9.5 Definite with Diminutive and Augmentative Morphemes	146
5.10 SUMMARY OF NOMINAL PROCLITICS	147
CHAPTER 6. GENITIVAL REFERRING EXPRESSIONS	148

6.1	NOMINAL DERIVATION	148
6.2	PLURAL GENITIVE CONSTRUCTIONS	149
6.3	GENDER MARKING.....	152
6.4	DIMINUTIVE GENITIVE CONSTRUCTIONS	153
6.5	AUGMENTATIVE GENITIVE CONSTRUCTIONS	155
6.6	GENITIVE CONSTRUCTIONS WITH MULTIPLE SUFFIXES.....	157
6.7	GENITIVE ADJECTIVAL CONSTRUCTIONS	160
6.8	COMBINATIONS OF GENITIVE PHRASES.....	161
6.9	AGENTIVE GENITIVES	162
6.10	GENITIVE WITH POSTPOSITION	164
6.11	DEFINITE GENITIVES	164
6.12	MODIFYING PHRASES AS STEMS.....	167
6.13	GENITIVE PHRASES WITH ADJECTIVE.....	168
6.14	COMPLEMENTIZER	170
6.15	PHRASES.....	170
6.16	SUMMARY OF WORD-FORMATION PROCESSES	171
6.17	GENITIVE CONSTRUCTIONS AS STEM AND AS PHRASE	171
CHAPTER 7. NOMINAL PHRASES		173
7.1	THE NOUN PHRASE	173
7.2	TONE ON ADJECTIVES	174
7.3	PLURAL MODIFIED NOUNS.....	174
7.4	ALTERNATING ADJECTIVES	177
7.5	DIMINUTIVE SUFFIX ON ADJECTIVAL PHRASES.....	178
7.6	PROCLITICS ON ADJECTIVE PHRASES	182
7.7	REDUPLICATED ADJECTIVES	185
7.8	SYNTACTIC PROCESSES IN THE NOUN PHRASE.....	185
7.8.1	Conjoined Nouns	185
7.8.2	Conjoined Adjectives.....	187

7.8.3	Copula and Adjectives	188
7.8.4	Incompletive /daw/ with Modifiers	188
7.8.5	Negated Adjectives	190
7.8.6	Complementizer with Adjectives	191
7.9	NOUN IN PLACE OF ADJECTIVE	191
7.10	QUANTIFIERS.....	192
7.10.1	All	193
7.10.2	A lot	194
7.10.3	Small	195
7.10.4	Numerals	196
7.11	ADVERB	196
7.12	SUMMARY OF MODIFIERS.....	197
CHAPTER 8. VERB TYPES.....		198
8.1	INTRODUCTION TO INFLECTIONAL CLASSES.....	198
8.2	VERB CLASS ONE: /CVC _{VELAR} / OR /CVR/.....	199
8.3	VERB CLASS TWO: /CV _[MID] / VERBS	203
8.4	VERB CLASS THREE: /CV ⁿ /.....	206
8.5	VERB CLASS FOUR: /CVN/.....	208
8.6	VERB CLASS FIVE: /CVM/.....	210
8.7	SUMMARY OF VERB CLASSES 1 - 5.....	214
8.8	OTHER VERB TYPES.....	215
8.8.1	[kii] Verbs	215
8.8.2	Unclassified Verbs	217
8.9	SUMMARY OF VERB TYPES.....	220
CHAPTER 9. CASE STUDIES IN DERIVATIONAL PROCESSES.....		221
9.1	INTRODUCTION	221
9.2	MOTION VERBS.....	221

9.3	[-R-] SUFFIXATION: MOTION SALIENT	222
9.4	NASALIZATION: PLACE SALIENT	223
9.5	INFLECTIONAL PARADIGMS.....	224
9.6	ROOT-INITIAL CONSONANT NASALIZATION: THE CASE OF [MUU ⁿ].....	225
9.6.1	Inflectional Paradigm for [muu ⁿ]	226
9.7	SUMMARY OF BU- AND MU- VERBS.....	226
9.8	TRANSITIVE NASAL.....	226
9.8.1	[m mun-d-a] ‘put in(side)’	228
9.9	HIGH FRONT VOWEL: CULMINATION	229
9.10	ROOT INITIAL CONSONANT DEVOICING: DIRECTION.....	231
9.10.1	[puu ⁿ] ‘sprout’	231
9.10.2	[pun-d-a] ‘weed’	231
9.10.1	Inflectional Marking	231
9.11	SUMMARY OF BU-, MU-, AND PU- VERBS.....	232
9.12	CASE STUDY TWO: CAUSATIVE OR EFFERENTIAL.....	234
9.13	CASE STUDY THREE: NOUNS FROM VERBS	236
9.14	OVERVIEW OF AFFIXATION ON VERBS	237
CHAPTER 10.	VERB PARTICLES.....	238
10.1	OVERVIEW OF TAM PARTICLES.....	238
10.2	PERFECTIVE ASPECT	239
10.3	INCOMPLETIVE PARTICLE /DAW/	239
10.3.1	Present Incompletive Aspect.....	240
10.3.2	Future Tense.....	243
10.3.3	Existential	244
10.4	COMPLETIVE	244
10.4.1	Completive aspect	244
10.4.2	Perfect Aspect	246
10.4.3	Stative Aspect	247

10.5	MOOD	252
10.5.1	Irrealis	252
10.6	COPULA.....	253
10.7	QUESTION PARTICLES	254
10.8	SUMMARY OF VERB PARTICLES AND TAM.....	256
CHAPTER 11. WORD ORDER.....		257
11.1	OVERVIEW OF WORD ORDER	257
11.2	SUBJECT-VERB-OBJECT	258
11.2.1	Perfective	258
11.2.2	Completive aspect.....	259
11.2.3	Perfect Aspect	259
11.2.4	Irrealis Mood.....	260
11.3	SOV	260
11.3.1	Incomplete Aspect	260
11.3.2	Subjunctive Mood.....	261
11.4	OSV	262
11.5	PASSIVE.....	262
11.6	TOPICALIZATION	263
11.6.1	Topicalization on Verb.....	264
11.6.2	Topicalization on Object.....	266
11.6.3	Topicalization Changes in other Tenses.....	266
11.6.4	Verbs with no Word Order Variation.....	268
11.7	SUMMARY OF WORD ORDER AND TAM.....	269
CHAPTER 12. COGNATE ACCUSATIVES AND REDUPLICATION.....		270
12.1	COGNATE NOMINALS AS OBLIGATORY OBJECTS	270
12.2	PERFECTIVE.....	270
12.3	COMPLETIVE ASPECT.....	271

12.4	PERFECT ASPECT.....	272
12.5	DEFINITE NOUN.....	273
12.6	TRULY REDUPLICATED VERBS.....	273
12.7	NOUNS WHICH ARE SEGMENTALLY INDISTINGUISHABLE FROM VERBS.....	274
12.8	INFLECTIONAL PARADIGMS FOR REDUPLICATED VERBS.....	274
12.9	PHRASAL VERBS.....	275
12.10	SUMMARY OF COGNATE ACCUSATIVES AND REDUPLICATION.....	276
CHAPTER 13. TONAL AGREEMENT PATTERNS FOR PERSON.....		277
13.1	OVERVIEW OF TONAL AGREEMENT PATTERNS.....	277
13.2	PERFECTIVE.....	278
13.3	PERFECT ASPECT.....	283
13.3.1	Monosyllabic Verb Stems.....	283
13.3.2	Disyllabic Stem.....	286
13.4	VERB PHRASE WITH AN OBJECT.....	289
13.4.1	Monosyllabic Verb Root.....	290
13.4.2	Bisyllabic Verb Stems.....	295
13.5	COMPLETIVE ASPECT.....	299
13.5.1	Completive aspect Particle without Object.....	300
13.5.2	Completive aspect with Object and Overt Pronoun.....	301
13.5.3	Completive aspect with Plural Object and Overt Pronoun.....	302
13.5.4	Completive aspect with No Object and Pronoun, Verb: 'eat'.....	303
13.5.5	Completive aspect with Object, Verb: 'eat'.....	304
13.5.6	Completive aspect with Object and Truncated Pronoun, Verb: 'eat'.....	305
13.5.7	Completive aspect with Truncated Pronoun, Verb: 'go'.....	306
13.6	INCOMPLETIVE.....	308
13.7	SUMMARY OF PERSON TONAL MARKING.....	312
CHAPTER 14. NEGATION.....		314

14.1	OVERVIEW OF THE NEGATIVE MARKER	314
14.2	WORD ORDER IN A NEGATED CLAUSE	314
14.3	NEGATIVE ADJECTIVAL PREDICATE	315
14.4	NEGATIVE IN A POSSESSIVE NOUN PHRASE.....	316
14.5	TONAL EFFECTS OF THE NEGATIVE ON NOUN STEMS	316
14.5.1	Simple Nouns.....	316
14.5.2	Complex Nouns	319
14.5.3	Summary of the Negative effects on the NP	320
14.6	NEGATIVE VERB PHRASE	320
14.6.1	VC2 Stems	320
14.6.2	Timing in the Negative VC2 Stem.....	322
14.6.3	Intransitive Stems with the [-r] Suffix	325
14.7	TRANSITIVE VERBS	325
14.8	INTRANSITIVE VERBS	326
14.8.1	Exceptional Patterns.....	327
CHAPTER 15. CONCLUSION.....		329
Bibliography		332
Appendix I: Comparative Wordlists		335
Appendix II: Comparitive Wordlists.....		351
Appendix III: Nouns by Categories		353
Appendix IV: Examples of Other Reduplicated Verbs		366
Appendix V: Chief Texts 1 - 10.....		367
Appendix VI: Chief Map		407
Appendix VII: Tiga Texts.....		410
Appendix VIII: Numerals		489
Appendix IX: Quantifiers		495
Appendix X: Texture Experiment.....		499
VITA.....		529

Abbreviations

COMP	Complementizer
CPL	Completive
'CV	Downstep
FUT	Future
GP	Generic Present
GEN	Genitive
H	High
IMP	Imperative
IMPV	Imperfective
INC	Incompletive
IRR	Irrealis
L	Low
OBJ	Object
PRF	Perfect
PFV	Perfective
~2	Persons other than second
PP	Postposition
PROH	Prohibitive
RED	Reduplication
RV	Root Vowel
STAT	Stative
SBJ	Subject
T	Transitive

Chapter 1. Introduction to the Bangime Language and Speakers

1.1 Introduction

Bangime, [bàŋgímè] or [bàŋgíè], is a language isolate spoken in the mostly Dogon-inhabited area of Central-Eastern Mali. The language was recently separated from its classification as a Dogon language, an unclassified branch of languages within Niger-Congo. The estimated total number of Bangime speakers ranges between 1,200 (Lewis 2009) and 3,000 (Blench 2007). There are seven Bangime-speaking villages. The data are from my fieldwork done in the largest village, Bounou. There is no published description or documentation of Bangime other than Roger Blench's word list and language overview (Blench 2007).

The description of Bangime is a priority for West African linguistics primarily because of its status of an isolate or as a potential missing link to discovering the history of the Dogon people and their languages. While the purpose of this dissertation is to provide a description and analysis of aspects of the Bangime phonological, morphological, and morphosyntactical system, and not to justify its status as a language isolate, I posit that Bangime did have contact with the Dogon languages at a very early stage in the development of the Dogon languages. A possible source of that contact includes either the ancient Tellem people, remains from whom are found surrounding the Bangande villages, or another pre-Dogon group. Another option is that of integration with other ethnicities during the Trans-Atlantic slave trade in the 15th century. While I do not consider Bangime to be a Dogon language, it is important to note that there are similarities in the lexicon that are the result of more than simple borrowings.

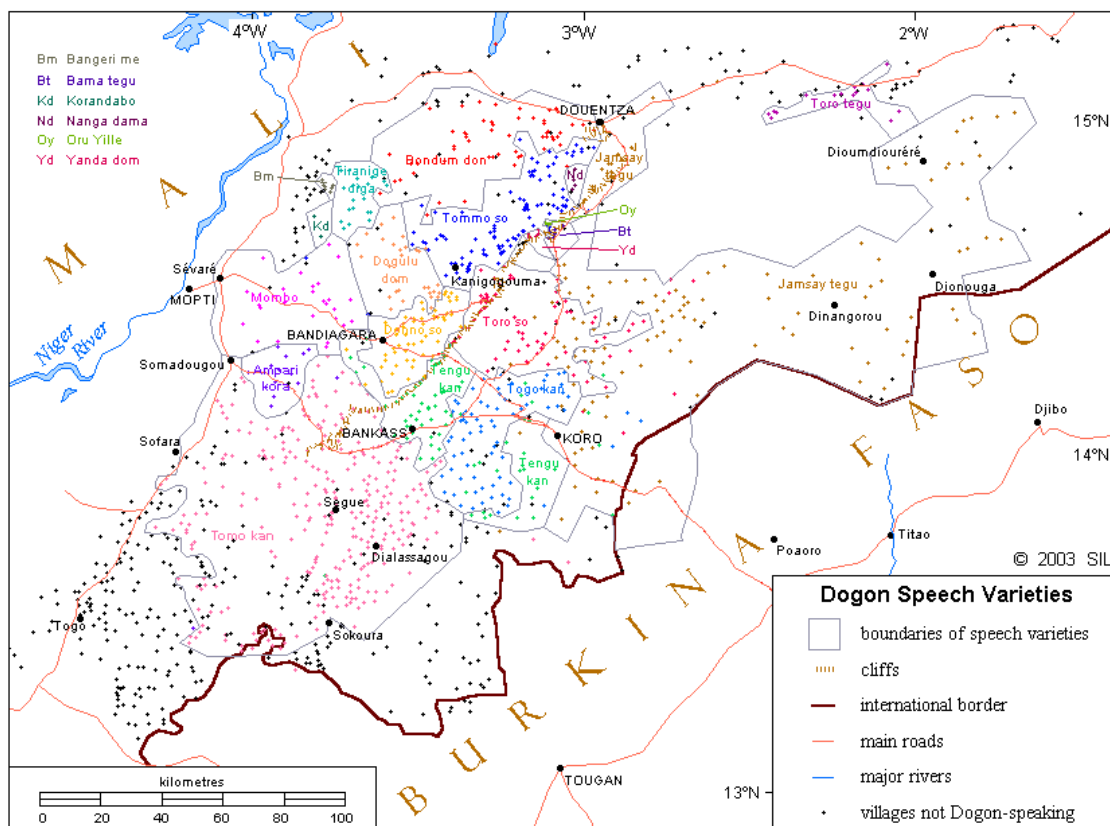
This introductory chapter is organized as follows, §1.2 - §1.6 present the Bangande, the speakers of Bangime, and indicate their location and demographics. Section 1.7 discusses the

language's previous classification as a member of the Dogon language family. Section §1.8 compares Bangime to surrounding languages, with special attention to differences from the Dogon language group. Section §1.9, the conclusion to the chapter, reveals 'deeper' aspects of Bangime and outlines hypotheses as to how Bangime became a divergent language. The information concerning the ethnography and history of the Bangande is extracted from texts which are cited throughout the chapter and included in their entirety in the appendices.

1.2 Location

The Bangande live in the cliffs among the Dogon and self-identify with the Dogon ethnicity. The area in which Bangime is spoken relative to other Dogon languages is illustrated in (1).

(1) Dogon Languages Map (Hochstetler, et al. 2004: 57)



As shown on the map, surrounding villages speak Tiranige, a Dogon language, Niononkhe, a dialect of Bozo, one of the Mande languages, and Fulfulde, a language of the

Atlantic branch, all of which are in the Niger-Congo language phylum. The Bangande are familiar with each of these languages, but they mainly speak either Fulfulde or Bamana as the preferred method of communication between ethnic groups, including the Dogon. In addition, according to oral histories,¹ people of the Bozo ethnicity of the Mande group once lived where the Niononkhe speakers, also known as Jenaama, are found, although the Bangande are not familiar with any Bozo language.

The Bangande claim that they originated among the Dogon as far back as Mande origins. The Dogon claim a common ancestor with the Mande people and are estimated to have lived among the Mande between 1230 and 1430 AD (Mayor, et al 2005).² From there, according to the chief of Bounou, the largest of the seven villages, the Bangande came from a Dogon village called Kanugogina, near modern-day Sanga.³ Bounou is considered to be the capitol of the seven Bangande villages.⁴ From there, they moved as one clan and founded a village at a site atop the cliffs of their present location, known as Yege. It is estimated by the village elders that the Bangande moved from Yege at least five hundred years ago.⁵ From there, they split into seven villages, which are now situated in the District of Goundaga, Commune of Kargue. There have been conflicts over the ownership of the valley, described in narratives (Chief 1.9).

These villages are listed and specifically located at the following coordinates

(North/West): Bounou, the largest (14:47:50/ 3:45:40), Baraa (14:48:20/3:45:30), Nyana

¹ Extract from Appendix VII: Text XIII: Tiga 3

² Appendix VI: Chief map (history of from where Bounou moved), Text: 'Bangande migration story'

³ Appendix VI: Chief map (history of from where Bounou moved), Extract from text: 'Origins of Bounou'. Dieterlen (1941) describes a similar dispersal of the Dogon populations from a village called Kani-na.

⁴ Appendix I: Chief III, Lines 4 - 6

⁵ This estimate is based on oral histories of how and when colonialism and the slave trade in the respective villages began. (extracts from texts: 'Tiga story about People going to Tete', 'Chief 1 - 10') There are also a number of Tellem houses and cave paintings which the Bangande claim to have found in the area upon settlement; this requires the expertise of an archeologist to identify the age of the paintings and houses to discern when they were created.

(14:48:10 3:46:50), Digari (14:47:40/ 3:46:50), Doro (14:49:20/ 3:47:20), Dieni (14:47:10/ 3:45:50), and Due (14:48:20/ 3:47:00) (Hochstetler, et al. 2004: 59). The villages are geographically isolated. Access to the villages is gained by travelling on the single paved road, approximately 25km south-east of Konna, that stretches north-east from Bamako, the capitol of Mali, to the city of Gao. These villages are situated in the north-west of the Dogon plateau, and are reached by an unpaved road, located on the main road between Sevaré and Gao. Upon reaching Konna at approximately 660 kilometers north east of Bamako, one then travels on an unpaved path through the Jewol valley towards the Bandigara cliff range; during the rainy season, (June - September/October), however, this road can only be accessed by a five-hour donkey cart ride, due to the flooding of the valley. The path ends at the cliff face where the journeyer then ascends to the village of Bounou, the largest of the Bangime-speaking villages.

1.3 Previous Research on Bangime

Since research began on the Dogon languages and culture in the 1950's, linguists and anthropologists have noted the distinctiveness of Bangime, although it was classified within the Dogon language group. The Bangande self-identify with the Dogon people and their languages. Bangime was reclassified in 2009 as one of the world's fifty isolate languages; a language with no traceable connections to any other living language (Lewis 2009). This classification was due in large part to the work of Roger Blench (2005, 2007), Stefan Elders (2006), and Hantgan (2009).

Prior to my work, the most recent fieldwork on Bangime was done by the late Stefan Elders, who spent approximately six months in Bounou from 2006 to 2007.⁶ Roger Blench (2005, 2007) gives an overview of the language, and it is to him that the 'discovery' of the

⁶Stefan Elders' notebooks are available at Leiden University library.

language is credited, although Plungian & Tembine (1994) and Calame-Griaule (1956) mention the language briefly in their overviews of the Dogon languages. In addition, three word lists have been published: Bertho (1953: 433 - 434) includes an 80 item word list under the language heading Yèni, Durieux's (1988) 100 item list is included in Hochstetler et al. (2004: 99 -105), and Blench includes an extensive vocabulary list in his summary of the language.

Bangime has been mentioned briefly in the literature under various names, Dyèni or Yèni (a name of one of the Bangime-speaking villages) (Bertho 1953), Numadaw or Numa-daw (DNAFLA/DRLP 1981; Plungian & Tembine 1994), or Noumandan (Togo 1984) (a part of the Bobo greeting sequence),⁷ Elebo (origin unsure, possibly referring to the word *lobbo*, a Fulfulde word meaning 'beautiful') (Plungian & Tembine 1994), and most commonly, Banger-me, Bangeri-me, Bangeri me, or Bangi Me (Blench 2005, 2007; Calame-Griaule 1956; Hochstetler, Lee, & Durieux-Boon 2004; Plungian & Tembine 1994). The speakers call their language [bàngímè] and find the pronunciation [bàngérímè] unacceptable. However, similar pronunciations are found in one text, Chief 5, lines 5, 7.

The term the speakers use to refer to themselves, [baŋga], means 'hidden', 'furtive', or 'secret' in many Dogon languages, and the bound suffix [-mɛ], among other things, refers to languages, in Bangime. The speakers of the language refer to their ethnicity as Bangande [bàngà=ndé] (the afore referenced [baŋga] plus the plural clitic), within the Dogon ethnic group.

I have chosen to use the endonym, Bangime [bàngímè]⁸ written without a space between 'Bangi' and 'me', to reference the language and Bangande for the speakers of the language. I translate the name of the language as 'secret language' in a combination of Dogon and Bangime.

⁷It is common to name Dogon languages by their introductory greeting interjection; however this greeting is part of the Bobo language.

⁸ The reason for the realization of /bàngérímè/ to [bàngímè] as an addition of a suffix [-rV] is explained in §3.2.7.

1.4 Methodology

My fieldwork to date includes an internship from June - August, 2008 in Bounou and Douentza funded by the Indiana University International Enhancement Grant, collection and analysis of data for the grammatical sketch and lexicon from May - August 2009 in Bounou and Sevaré supported by the National Science Foundation grant numbers PA 50643-04, BCS-0537435, DEL-0853364 "Dogon Languages of Mali" and dissertation research from June 2010 to January 2011 in Bounou and Sevaré, funded by the Fulbright-Hays Doctoral Dissertation Grant "The Essentials of Language Documentation: The Pen is a Hoe and the Notebook is a Field", and the National Science Foundation Doctoral Dissertation Improvement grant BCS-1024347 "Doctoral Dissertation Research: Documentation of Bangime, a Language Isolate", and from June 2012 - January 2013 in Burkina Faso with the support of the National Science Foundation grant numbers PA 50643-04, BCS-0537435, DEL-0853364 "Dogon Languages of Mali". My time was equally divided between Bounou the cities of Douentza and Sevaré. The Dogon and Bangime Linguistics Project base was situated in Douentza to better access the Dogon villages until the political situation caused the north of Mali to become unstable and we moved to Sevaré. My schedule is such that I spend two weeks in Bounou and two weeks in the city. Before acquiring a generator during my dissertation research, I did not have access to electricity and thus recorded sparingly and wrote all of my data by hand in notebooks which I re-transcribed into the computer during my time in the city.

Methods of fieldwork included direct elicitation for four hours each morning with one of two primary consultants. Elicitation sessions were conducted mostly in Fulfulde, but also in French and Bamana until such time as I was proficient in Bangime during my third research trip. Afternoons were spent gathering and recording texts and songs, finding and identifying flora and

fauna species, and visiting and photographing culturally significant sites with secondary consultants. Other methods included elicitation of lists such as recipes, inquiring about descriptions of events, and participating in conversational speech. The texts which were gathered during these sessions were transcribed, glossed, translated, and analyzed through the help of the primary consultants. I instructed two secondary consultants to write and read in Bangime and one was successful at transcribing his own tone. Data were gathered from the two primary consultants Ali Karambe and Tiga Baade during the three research trips spent in Bounou from (June - August) 2008, (May - August) 2009, (July - December) 2010, and from Adama Dicko #2 and Chief Soh Dicko in Burkina Faso in (June - December) 2012. Additional consultants included Adama Dicko #1, Adama Dicko #2, village Chief So Dicko, Ende Yalkwe, Baba 'Koori' Dicko, Kondi Baade, Samba Basiri, Sunko Bakoro, Fatimata Dicko, Telema Baade, Julde Koulibaly, Kadija Basiri and Bintu Dicko.

The lexical data used in the study are from the Bangime Dictionary, which can be found at the Dogon and Bangime Linguistics website, www.dogonlanguages.org. Lexical items for the dictionary were either elicited or are from texts. All lexical items are stored in the SIL Program FieldWorks which has been an invaluable resource for this project due to its ability to interlinearize narratives and add words to the lexicon. Many, but not all, of the narratives I collected are included in the appendices of this dissertation, interlinearized with FieldWorks.

Originally, 4,477 lexical items were obtained out of the 7,589 terms listed in the Comparative Dogon Lexical Spreadsheet. While each word in the spreadsheet was asked, the unattained items had no Bangime equivalents. However, the final version of the Bangime lexicon contains only 2283 items. The bulk of this was due to multiple entries for a lexical item which were merged into one entry with multiple meanings. Also, calque translations were

omitted. Some words referring to sacred practices or beliefs were omitted from the dictionary by request of the village elders. Flora and fauna were elicited by Stefan Elders and subsequently me using species lists and assistance from Jeffrey Heath. I collected specimens with the assistance of my language consultants and Fulani herders for the more unusual species which were identified or confirmed by either Dr. Heath or the botanists with whom he collaborates.

All the data used in this dissertation were recorded using a Marantz PMD660 Professional Portable Digital Recorder with a Shure SM48S–LC Microphone and were analyzed using the program Praat. Vowel quality, vowel and consonant length, nasalization, and tone were first transcribed impressionistically and subsequently recorded and analyzed digitally by plotting vowels, using pitch tracks, and measuring length.

Collaborations are underway with geneticists who have recently published information concerning the genetic uniformity of the Dogon people (Tishkoff, Reed, Friedlaender, Ehret, Ranciaro, Froment et al. 2009). Floyd Reed is a colleague of mine from college who made one exploratory trip to Mali while I was there in December 2010, and is in the process of making contacts to secure permissions and funding for this potential collaboration to continue.

1.5 Demographics

Some Bangande who practice Islam are found among the villages which were formerly situated atop the cliffs but have now moved down to the plains. Bounou remains atop the boulders due to the amount of water which inundates the surrounding canyon during the rainy season, and thus, probably because of its geographic isolation, villagers who practice animism are found there. This is of interest linguistically as some lexical items associated with traditional practices required the permission of the village elders or were forbidden to be recorded in any manner (written or oral) until they gained my full trust during my last field trip to Bounou in 2010.

The Bangande are mainly farmers, although many do perform some animal husbandry and hunting activities. Blench (2007: 3) states, “their distinctive names for crops suggest that they were farmers prior to the expansion of Dogon in their area”. This is of interest historically because it also implies that the Bangande may have lived among the Bandiagara cliffs before the Dogon occupied the area, as few Dogon loan words for agriculture items are found in Bangime. Examples of crop names are found in the lexicon, available at dogonlanguages.org.

1.6 Ethnography

The Bangande consider themselves and their language to be Dogon as well, despite the fact that there is no mutual intelligibility between Bangime and surrounding Dogon languages, and the Dogon people’s constant insistence that the Bangande are not Dogon. The Bangande dress similarly to the Dogon, such as the distinctive women’s indigo-dyed, hand-woven cotton fabric, silver earrings worn on the side of their noses and along their ears. The men, particularly the elders, all carry the leather hide and snake skin bag, unique to Dogon men.

Although Islam is beginning to become pervasive in the community, beer continues to be brewed, but not the commonly found Dogon millet variety. Among the Bangande, only sorghum beer is found. The Bangande do not have a tradition of using masks, unlike many of the Dogon people, and yet many Dogon in the north-western sections of the escarpment do not have any tradition of using masks. However, the cowry shell and leather uniforms which the Bangande men wear on certain occasions are reminiscent of Dogon-performance attire. Familiar from Dogon culture are carved locks; however, carved doors and statues are absent, perhaps due to Islamic influence. The caves surrounding the villages, remains of villages formerly inhabited by the Tellem, are used, although less and less frequently, for the storage of grains and as burial

grounds.⁹ Otherwise, there is no evidence of additional traditional rites unique to the Dogon, and some of the Bangande customs seem particular to the Bangande themselves, such as a hunting ritual, [lòòngá],¹⁰ performed when the rain has lapsed during the rainy season.

There are two classes among the Bangande, the royal and the slave class. According to oral histories,¹¹ many people of various ethnicities in Mali were kidnapped by Fulani enslavers during the time of the trans-Atlantic slave trade in the 15th century. Children were often taken when they wandered from the village or went out seeking water and wood for cooking, by placing a sack over their heads and carrying them on horses to a faraway place so that they could not find their way back home. Some of these captives would escape, and the Bangande are said to have allowed slaves of other ethnicities to integrate into their culture, and learn their language.

Although it is currently impermissible to buy, sell, or trade slaves in Mali, slaves are still owned by some Bangande families. Slave ownership follows the mother; it is compared to that of animal husbandry: If a Bangime has a male slave, he owns none of his descendants. Marriages are only between members of the slave caste. A female slave owner must pay a price to a male slave owner in order to allow her to marry him. All of their children belong to the owner of the female slave. If a slave owner has only male slaves and they die, he owns no more slaves, but if an owner owns a female and she has children, those children remain his slaves.

There are differences in the speech of descendants of the slave and royal classes. The ‘true’ Bangande, members of the culture who can trace their lineage back to the original settling of the clan in this area, claim that the reason is because they refuse to share authentic Bangime

⁹ Photographs of these areas and the cave paintings found within them as well as other relevant sites will be made available to the public in a future publication.

¹⁰ This word is a non-integrated borrowing from Dogon (Bunoge).

¹¹ Appendix VII: Tiga Texts: Text XI: Tiga 1

with outsiders, members of the slave class included. For instance, the complexities in tonal patterns described in this dissertation are based on the speech of members of the royal class. The tonal patterns found in the speech of the descendants of the slave class are more regularized.

1.7 Classification

The classification of Bangime has been problematic for some time and for various reasons. Although Bangime was classified as a Dogon language within Niger-Congo (Gordon 2005; Williamson & Blench 2000), it has recently been classified as a language isolate (Lewis 2009). This is primarily because the Bangande self-identify with neighboring Dogon people and their language group. However, Bangime bears no resemblance to Dogon except in some vocabulary items and grammatical markers. Further, while some Bangime words are similar to words found in Dogon languages, there is no one language in which find all of these lexical similarities may be traced, nor are the similarities are found solely among the languages spoken in the Bangime-speaking area. The estimated twenty Dogon languages and sixty dialects have limited contact with one another and are each geographically isolated along the Bandiagara cliff range.¹²

Each of the researchers who has encountered Bangime since the 1950's has noted, even in his or her brief time investigating the language that Bangime clearly lies outside the realm of what constitutes Dogon. Bertho (1953: 413 - 414), one of the first to note variations among the Dogon languages, placed Bangime apart from them due to the lack of shared core vocabulary items.¹³ Bertho also stated that Bangime is markedly different from the Mande or Fula languages spoken in the area. He hypothesized that, if Bangime is related to the Dogon languages, it split off at an early stage in the language's development. He thus writes,

¹² See <http://lmap.org/search.html?q=Dogon> for the exact coordinates of the areas in which each language is spoken.

¹³ His comparative word list is included in Appendix II.

“Le dialecte Dyéni ou Yéni des Dogon du canton de Leol-Géou est le plus aberrant ; néanmoins, il se distingue nettement du Bozo-Mandé et du Peul. Il possède d’ailleurs autant de radicaux Voltaïques que les autres dialectes Dogon ; mais ces radicaux ne sont pas les mêmes radicaux Voltaïques que ceux conservés par les autres dialectes Dogon, comme si le dialecte Dyéni s’était séparé d’ancêtre Voltaïque soit à une autre époque que les autres dialectes, soit en un autre point du groupe Voltaïque, lequel, comme on le sait, s’étend de Sikasso au Soudan jusqu’à la frontière de Nigéria.”¹⁴

Blench (2005: 16) concurs that Bertho’s word list is fairly accurate and does not show any evidence for cognates among the Dogon, or Gur, languages, since, at that time, the Dogon languages were considered to be part of the Gur, or Voltaïque, group of languages.

Blench (2005: 15 - 16, 2007: 3) was the first to state that Bangime is an isolate, based on his own and Hochstetler’s (2004: 99 - 105) comparative Dogon word lists showing that lexical similarities with Dogon are below ten percent. The lowest percentage of lexical similarities among the 20 Dogon languages is 40 percent (K. Prokhorov, p.c.). According to my own data, out of 262 core, or resistant to borrowing, lexical items, 30 Bangime words have, other than minor vowel and tonal differences, identical equivalents in Dogon languages, i.e. about 11%. The entire Swadesh list for Bangime compared with Dogon is given in Appendix I. Note from the representative comparisons in (2) that the Dogon languages listed are geographically dispersed (data from Heath 2013).

(2) Lexical Comparisons

	<u>Gloss</u>	<u>Bangime Word</u>	<u>Dogon Word</u>	<u>Dogon Language</u>
a.	father	bóó	bóò	Ben Tey, Bankan–Tey

¹⁴ “The Dyeni or Yeni dialect of the Dogon from the Leol–Géol canton shows the highest deviation from the norm, nonetheless, it is clearly distinct from Bozo-Mande and Fulani. It also possesses as many Voltaic [Gur] roots as the other Dogon dialects; but these roots are not from the same Voltaic roots as those conserved by the other Dogon dialects, as if the Dyeni dialect had parted from its Voltaic ancestor either in a different period from the other dialects, or at a different location within the Voltaic group, a group which, as is well-known, extends from Sikasso in the Sudan up to the borders of Nigeria.” (my translation)

b.	hair	kúqì	kùjá	Bankan–Tey
c.	little	dágà+jè	dágáj, dáyá	Nanga, Gourou
d.	braid	múnd–á	mùnd–ó	Nanga
e.	mouth	nóò	nòó	Nanga
f.	paper	dóò	dóò	Dogul Dom
g.	shave	kàá(–rà)	káá	Tommo–so
h.	garlic	túúmè	túmè, tùmè	Najamba, Mombo
i.	forest	dúgú	dùgú, dògù	Tiranige, Bunoge
j.	slave	kómè	kómé, kómbè	Tiranige, Bunoge

As I state in the introduction, I hypothesize that Bangime had contact with Dogon at an early stage in the development of the Dogon languages. This is because, based on my current study of Bangime phonology, I show that many of the core lexical items, shown in Appendix III, with representative examples in (3), actually do closely resemble those found in some Dogon languages, having undergone consistent sound changes.

(3) Lexical Comparisons

	<u>Gloss</u>	<u>Bangime Word</u>	<u>Dogon Word</u>	<u>Dogon Language</u>
a.	who	jéà	àjé, àà	various
b.	rain	jóò ⁿ	jàrí, àjǎn	Ben Tey, Nanga, Najamba
c.	man	góò ⁿ	àřá	various
d.	tie	bàà	mòó	Bankan Tey
e.	wilderness	nàá	òřóó	various

The suggested sound changes for the words in (3) are shown in (4) and the processes by which the Dogon words could have evolved into words in Bangime and vice versa are in (4).

(4) Suggested Sound Correspondences

	<u>Dogon</u>	<u>Bangime</u>
a.	j	j
b.	ř	g
c.	m	b
d.	n	ř

(5) Integration of Borrowings

	<u>Gloss</u>	<u>Proposed Constraint</u>	<u>Example of Change</u>
a.	who	*onsetless syllables	Dogon aje → jea Bangime
b.	rain	*nasalized low vowels	Dogon ajan → jaan → joɔn Bangime
c.	man	*sonorant onsets	Dogon ařa → řaa ⁿ → gaa ⁿ → goɔn Bangime
d.	tie	*nasalized low vowels	Bangime baan → maan → moɔn Dogon
e.	wilderness	all rules:	Dogon ɔřɔɔ ⁿ → ařaa ⁿ → řaa → naa Bangime

[Onsetless syllables](#), common among Dogon languages, are uncommon in Bangime. As in (5a), metathesis has occurred to form acceptable syllables in Bangime from those in Dogon. Bangime words do not have codas. The example (5b) would undergo metathesis to form an onset, and then the final nasal would become nasalization on the preceding vowel. Words with nasalized [a] are found in Bangime, but nasalization of vowels is [restricted](#). A mid vowel becomes [-ATR] before a liquid, nasal, or nasalization. The example (5c) would undergo the same metathesis process of (5a) and (5b), but sonorant onsets, particularly [r], are not permitted in Bangime. The change in place and manner of articulation from [r] to [g] is unusual, triggered by the fact that the rhotic onset is impermissible, another instance is found in Bangime of a rhotic alternating with a velar stop. The augmentative marker [bořo] is derived from the adjective

[bogo] ‘big’.¹⁵ Next, by a process of [vowel lowering](#), mid back vowels in Dogon systematically appear as low in Bangime, and vice versa. As with (5b), the vowel raises to prevent a nasalized low vowel from emerging. The final two cases seem to reverse the process.

Many Dogon languages do not have any words with a phonetic final, nasalized, low vowel. Again, the change in manner of articulation in the initial consonant of the word is without explanation, but the vowels of the Dogon word are assumed to be nasalized, as the word begins with a nasal. Perhaps it is for this reason that the vowels could not remain as low. The final example (5e) incorporates all the proposed constraints. Again, it is proposed that the nasalization of the [ɾ̃] spreads onto the subsequent vowels. Metathesis occurs to provide an onset, but a rhotic is not an acceptable onset, so the nasalized [ɾ̃] becomes [n]. Since the change from nasalized [ɾ̃] to a nasal [n] did not occur in (5c), it appears that different processes occurred in words which originated in Bangime and those which came from Dogon. Three different scenarios seem plausible from the lexical similarities: (1) Bangime could have borrowed words from a Proto Dogon language, (2) a Proto Dogon language could have borrowed words from Bangime, or (3) both a Proto Dogon language and Bangime could have borrowed words from a third source language.

Evidence for borrowing from Dogon also can be seen in plurals. In Bangime, many nouns have a frozen, diminutive suffix. In polysyllabic words with a lexicalized diminutive suffix, a root-final vowel changes its value when the diminutive suffix is followed by the plural clitic. For example, a root-final [e] in the word ‘star’ [tòrè–mé] becomes [o], [tòrò–mì=ndé].

¹⁵ The reason that the marker [bõõ] is considered to be an augmentative, more closely bound to the noun than the adjective [bogo] is based on its tonal effects, specifically (a) its tonal effect on the noun it follows and (b) the effects of the noun on the marker. A curious example of the augmentative being reduplicated was found in a text [nnii kama ŋ kindu p̄ɔɛ bõõ bõõ], ‘they dug a very big well’. Otherwise, the behavior of the augmentative resembles that of a morpheme which is tightly bound to the noun stem.

I argue that the underlying form for ‘star’, and the other roots in which a change is observed, can be viewed in the plural form. In many Dogon languages, the word ‘star’ is [tóró]. The reason why the proposed underlying back vowel shifts front is one of identity harmony, as we see that a word which ends in [o], such as [dòrò] ‘Doro (village)’, does not front the root-final vowel to [e] before suffix [-ma] with a back vowel, [dòrò-má], ‘inhabitant of Doro’, not [*dòrè-má].

The word ‘onion’ [záǵé-è], plural [záǵá-mì=ndé], shows a similar pattern. The word ‘onion’ may also be a borrowing as it is pronounced [ǵábà] in some Dogon languages and Bamana, as [gabu] in Fulfulde. The final vowel is apparent in the plural form.

Data documented by Roger Blench (2005, 2007), Stefan Elders (2006), Hantgan (2009) and my work in progress are beginning to show that, while Bangime is not a Dogon language, there is a hitherto unseen connection.

Indeed, as Calame-Griaule (1956: viii) states,

“D’un autre point de vue, l’étude du petit dialecte appelé /báñeri mé/, parlé par une petite fraction de Dogon à l’extrême Nord-Ouest du pays, et qui, bien que reconnu comme «dogon» par les autres, semble présenter des caractères totalement aberrants, serait fort utile pour établir des critères d’appartenance linguistique.”¹⁶

I am in accordance with the view that Bangime is not related linguistically to Dogon. The grammatical structure is almost entirely lacking in Dogon features, as shown in the following subsections, which provide an overview of the main features of Bangime. The estimated 20 Dogon languages and 60 dialects show clear linguistic correlates and geneticists have recently published information concerning the genetic uniformity of the Dogon people (Tishkoff, et al. 2009). In particular, one of the co-authors of this paper, Floyd Reed, states,

¹⁶ “From another point of view, the study of the little dialect called Bangerime, spoken by a small Dogon group in the extreme northwest of the Dogon-speaking area, which, although recognized by the others as ‘Dogon’, seems to have some totally deviant features, would be very useful in establishing criteria for the linguistic affiliation of Dogon.” (my translation)

“The Dogon (at least the samples from Bandiagara) have a very distinctive genetic signature compared to other West Africans, so I think there may be a lot of potential to learn more about the Bangande history from genetic studies” (p.c.). The following section provides comparisons between Bangime and Dogon in other areas of the language.

1.8 Language Overview

The goal of this section is to provide a comparison to the Dogon language group and to give an overview of the unique features of the language that support the classification of the language as an isolate. This section provides an overview of the features that distinguish Bangime from the Dogon languages and others within the Niger-Congo branch. The reader is encouraged to refer to this section throughout the work, as it gives a brief overview of some of the defining features of the language. The subsections include a comparison of the main aspects of the phonological, morphological, and syntactic system of the language compared with other area languages.

1.8.1 Phonology

Here I present the vocalic and consonantal inventory and alternations, and compare these to the Dogon languages. The full phonological system of Bangime given in §2.1.

Bangime has seven vowels /i e ε a ɔ o u/. The vowel inventory of Bangime is similar to the vowel inventories found in the Dogon languages. Vocalic processes differ in Bangime and Dogon in that the former has [disharmonic sequences](#) of [+ATR] and [−ATR] vowels within a word and even tautosyllabically. As shown above and in the [comparative word list](#), words which are otherwise to Dogon have a disharmonic vocalic sequence in Bangime, whereas the Dogon word has a harmonic sequence of vowels. Although one would expect [ATR] vowel harmony to

be an active process in Bangime, as it is in most languages of West Africa, in Bangime it is not. Other than before a nasal, disharmony rarely occurs among Dogon languages.¹⁷

The lack of [ATR] vowel harmony is also unusual because most languages in area, those belonging to the Niger-Congo language family, are known for their widespread occurrence of [ATR] vowel harmony systems (Casali 2008).

The proposed consonant inventory for Bangime, compared with the most widely found sounds among the Dogon languages, is shown in (6). Allophonic variants are listed below their phonemes, and consonants which differ between the two languages, are in red and bold.

(6) Consonant Inventory

Bangime	/b	p	t	d	k	g	m	n	ŋ	ɲ	r	s	ɛ	j	ʒ	ɥ	w/	(phonemes)
	[v		ʃ			ɣ					ĩ	ʃ		ʝ	ɟʒ		ũ/	(allophones)
Dogon	/b	p	t	d	k	g	m	n	ŋ	ɲ	r	l	s	j	z		w/	
			ʃ			ɣ					ĩ			ʝ	ɟʒ		ũ/	

As with the vocalic system, Bangime and the Dogon languages have similar consonantal phonemes. However, a difference between the two is the labial-palatal approximant, /ɥ/, and the alveolo-palatal fricative, /ɛ/, which are phonemes in Bangime. Neither occurs in Dogon and fricatives in general are rare, if not absent, among Dogon languages.¹⁸ [Examples](#) show the alveolo-palatal fricative, /ɛ/, and the labial-palatal approximant, /ɥ/, occurring before vowels of various heights and degrees of backness, only not before the high front vowels, as would be expected if the segments were allophones of another phoneme. The voiced labiodental approximant, [v], is an allophone of a voiced bilabial stop /b/ in Bangime that may also have an

¹⁷ Many of the [-ATR] vowels in Bangime appear before nasals or nasalized segments in potential borrowings from Dogon languages.

¹⁸ One phonological feature which is shared with the Dogon is the lack of the voiceless labiodental fricative /f/, though this could be a socio-linguistic phenomenon, since borrowed words are often pronounced with a [p], as the Dogon substitute, or [b/β].

intermediate fricative allophone [β], (instrumental phonetic study is needed on this point), and the voiced velar stop /g/ alternates with the voiced velar fricative [ɣ] intervocally. This latter alternation is found among Dogon languages, although the former, /b/ ~ [v], is not.

As shown in the phonemic inventory comparison, nasalization appears on approximants among the Dogon languages as well as in Bangime. In Bangime, a nasal stop cluster becomes a nasalized approximant via an [aspectual change](#) in verbs. The closest Dogon counterparts, according to Heath (p.c.), are cases of syncope of CṼV– to CVn– before a consonantal suffix, and, (in Toro Tegu only), of CṼV to CVm– in the same environment. These can be taken as consonant-cluster adjustment processes and do not have the more abstract transformational character of the Bangime alternations.

The syllable structure of Bangime is different than that found in Dogon. Codas are permissible in Dogon but appear as co-articulation or as secondary features on vowels in Bangime. Bangime has a set of labialized and palatalized consonants word-initially. Labialized and palatalized word-initial consonants (C^wV and C^jV) may occur in free variation with syllabic C_wV and C_jV sequences, respectively, as they do in some Dogon languages (e.g. Tomo Kan).

Nasals represent another area of differentiation. Nasals are typically homorganic with the following consonant. The many instances of homorganic nasal segments found in Bangime arise from phonologically occurring [geminate](#) segments, the [genitive morpheme](#), the [transitive marker](#) for verbs, and [person marking](#) for non-second person subject and object.

As shown in (7), bisyllabic words which begin with a nasal are preceded by a nasal. This nasal is homorganic for alveolar and bilabial nasals, and alveolar for palatal and velar nasals. Word-internally, geminate nasals are either alveolar or bilabial.

(7) Geminate Nasals

<u>Word Initial</u>			<u>Word Internal</u>		
	<u>Stem</u>	<u>Gloss</u>		<u>Stem</u>	<u>Gloss</u>
a.	nníjà	mother	aa.	mmìnná	door
b.	mmírò	bee	bb.	bìmmè	heart
c.	ɲàà	Niana (village)	cc.	*CVɲ.ɲV	
d.	ɲàmbá	sheep	dd.	*CVɲ.ɲV	

Words which have a word-medial geminate nasal (7aa - bb) may have an initial geminate nasal. The word (7aa) [mminna] ‘door’ has an allomorph [mmiɲa]. Both allomorphs permit initial geminate nasals. Bisyllabic words with word-internal nasal-stop sequences, such as (7d), permit initial geminate nasals. Additionally, words with a heavy initial syllable such as [nniè-ré] ‘woman’ permit initial geminate nasals. Most bisyllabic words have either a heavy-light or light-heavy combination with long vowels in either the first or second syllable, but not both. Trisyllabic words with initial nasals do not permit geminate nasals. Trisyllabic words do not permit heavy syllables.

Therefore, while Bangime and Dogon have similar underlying phonemic inventories, the surface phonetic representations of vowel and consonant phonemes differs due to differences in phonotactics and phonological processes.

1.8.2 Morphology

One of the main attributes of Bangime that differentiates it from the Dogon languages is its lack of segmental, bound morphology. Like many Niger-Congo languages, Dogon languages are agglutinating. Bangime is isolating. Although there are some semi-productive [verbal suffixes](#) and [clitics](#), the only productive, segmental, bound suffix found in the language is a [diminutive](#),

suffixed to nouns. Inflection on [verbs](#) is somewhat fusional, with only some verb classes having distinct inflectional suffixes. I present an overview of Bangime morphological marking on nouns and verbs in comparison with those in Dogon in this section.

Bangime has no evidence of noun class marking or any remnants of one other than the diminutive frozen suffix [diminutive suffix](#) and a [frozen \[-r\] suffix](#), the latter is found on some nouns with an undetermined meaning. Residual noun class markers are found among most Dogon languages. With the exception of those that have undergone word-final phonetic attrition, all Dogon languages use suffixes to distinguish human (or animate) from nonhuman (or inanimate) in singular nouns, and either make a similar distinction in the plural, or avoid plural marking of nonhuman/inanimate nouns. Some Dogon languages also have class agreement suffixation between adjectives and nouns.

One exception to the lack of noun class markers in Bangime is the case of familial relations, where the suffix *-ru* occurs. In comparing the use of this suffix with Dogon kin terms, a peculiarity arises in that these nouns do not receive the human/animate singular suffix. The Dogon human/animate singular suffix **-nu* (attested as *-ñu*, *-nu*, *-n*) is generally (although not absolutely) avoided in Dogon kin terms (Heath, p.c.). It is reasonable to connect Dogon non-kin singular **-nu* with Bangime kin plural *-ru* if the alveolar approximant lost nasalization. If so, Bangime borrowing a suffix and assigning it the opposite meaning provides an intriguing example of the language's tendency towards using elements which oppose features in other languages, further explored in the discussion [below](#). Examples are shown in (8) of the kin term plural suffix *[-ru]* in Bangime.¹⁹

¹⁹ The Dogon language Yanda sporadically uses the kin plural suffix *-jè* (Heath 2010), in examples *dèdè-jè*, 'fathers' *nìřá-jè*, 'father's sister', *nì-jè*, 'mothers', *bàbá-jè*, 'grandfathers' and *sèzú-jè*, 'grandmothers', but this is

(8) Bangime Kin Terms Plural

	<u>Noun</u>	<u>Gloss</u>
a.	bòò-rú	fathers
b.	nníjà-rú	mothers
c.	gógó-rú	father's wives (borrowing from Fulfulde)
d.	tìndé-rú	grandfathers
e.	tíé-rú	grandmothers

(9) Bangime Demonstrative Plural

	<u>Noun</u>	<u>Gloss</u>
a.	kàà=rú	these things near the speaker
b.	méé=rú	those things far from the speaker

Dogon languages are rich in suffixation, but none has been found with prefixation.

Although Bangime shows very little of what could be considered bound morphology, there are what pre-clitics to indicate [possession](#) and [definiteness](#). Dogon languages usually mark definiteness and possession as enclitics which follow a noun, but may also use a pre-clitic to indicate possession as well. Comparisons are shown in (10).

(10) Possession in Dogon and Bangime

	<u>Dogon (Bondu-so)</u>			<u>Bangime</u>		
a.	mí	ɲgw-èè		aa.	máá=	kúré+mè
	1.S.POSS	dog-NCL3.L			1.S.POSS	dog+DIM
	my dog				my dog	
b.	ɲgw-èé	mí	jè	bb.	kùrè+mé	mè
	dog-NCL3	1.S.POSS	DEF		dog+DIM	1.S.POSS
	my dog				my dog	

the only other parallel that could be found. Here, the fact that 'grandfather' and 'grandmother' are derived from the same root is interesting, but there are no other roots with the same connection.

In some Dogon languages, nouns agree in number and animacy with adjectives and demonstratives, and verbs agree with pronominal-subject categories. In Bangime, there is no agreement for plural except in [complementizer phrases](#). Also, [tonal agreement](#) for subject is marked on a verb and an object where present. The plural in Bangime is a clitic [=nɛ] ~ [=ndɛ]. The homophonous marker [nɛ] is found as a singular in some Dogon languages, such as Yanda Dom.

Another difference in the noun phrase is that the tone-lowering found on possessed nouns, which is widespread among Dogon languages, is not found in Bangime. Although complex tonal patterns are found in the possessive pronoun-possessed noun paradigms in Bangime, tone lowering is not one of them. However, a tone-lowering process is triggered by the [definite article](#) in Bangime.

Compounding is a productive means of creating new lexical items in Dogon. While [phrasal forms](#) are common in lieu of one-stem lexical items, compounding as a process for forming new lexical items is absent in Bangime.

Particularly in verbs, Dogon languages express inflectional and derivational morphology through the use of multiple suffixes. Therefore, there is a significant difference morphologically in the formation of verbs in Bangime and in the Dogon languages.

Forms for the word ‘I write’ in two Dogon languages are compared with Bangime in (11). Shown in the examples, the negative imperfective and negative perfective aspect are formed through a combination of suffixes in Dogon languages; in Bangime, the only difference between the two sentences is the tone on the final vowel of the phrase. Note that the word for ‘write’ in each of the languages is similar, suggesting a borrowing if the whole Dogon word, including the negative marker, is considered.

(11) ‘I write’

Jamsay (Heath, 2008)

tòŋò-gó-m	tòŋò-lú-m
write-NEG.IMPV-1S	write-NEG.PRF-1S

I do not write

I did not write

Tiranige (Heath, 2012)

nónó-rá-j ⁿ	nónó-ní-j ⁿ
write-NEG.IMPV-1S	write-NEG.PRF-1S

I do not write

I did not write

Bangime	m	bíè	n	ɲógòndó	m	bíè	ɲógòndò
	1S	NEG	T	write.IMPV	1S	NEG	write.PRF

I do not write

I did not write

Comparison of the forms for the word ‘write’ in Jamsay and Tiranige, two Dogon languages, with the form in Bangime (11), show that although the verbs are similar, the morphology differs. The examples from Jamsay are representative of typical Dogon morphology. Although negation and aspect are expressed through a portmanteau morpheme in the Jamsay verb, the stem is composed of three discernible morphemes, two of which are suffixes. In the sentence from Bangime, there are three separate morphemes, none of which has affixal properties. Also, the order of the constituents in the Dogon verb stem, person, tense, and negation, is to follow the verb root, whereas person and negation precede the verb stem in Bangime.²⁰ Tone in Dogon is a property of the verb root; although the lexical tone can be overridden by inflectionally or derivationally-controlled tone overlays. In Bangime, tone is an inflectional morpheme which interacts with the tone of the verb stem to indicate aspect.

²⁰ Person is proclitic/prefixed for 1st/2nd persons in western Dogon, e.g. Penange and Bunoge, and partially in Tiranige.

Bangime also differs from the agglutinating Dogon languages in that [tense, aspect, and mood](#) markers are unbound morphemes. Verbs in Bangime are divided into different [classes](#) based on transitivity, phonological shape, and semantic category, whereas verbs in Dogon mostly take the same inflection, with the exception of change-of-state verbs.

Among examples of derivational morphology, semi-productive bound morphemes on verbs in Bangime include the efferential and the afferential. The term efferential was coined by Newman (1983) to mean ‘away from’ referring to the Hausa marker which had been previously been termed the causative. Afferential is therefore, ‘towards’.

The efferential in Bangime [-nd-], is reminiscent of a causative morpheme, [-nd-], found in some Dogon languages. However, as Heath (p.c.) points out, the most widespread causative among the Dogon languages is *-mV, although *-ndV and *-kV/-gV are also fairly widespread as secondary (archaic) causatives.²¹ Additionally, Songhay, of the Nilo-Saharan family, has *-andi* causatives.

(12) efferential -nd-V (cf. Newman 1983)

	<u>Gloss</u>	<u>Incompletive</u>		<u>efferential</u>	<u>Gloss</u>
a.	eat	díj-à	aa.	dìj-à-nd-á	feed
b.	drink	nniè	bb.	nnié-nd-è	give to drink
c.	send	dè-ĩ-é	cc.	dè-r-é-nd-á	make send
d.	fear	pì-ĩ-á	dd.	pí-r-ú-nd-ú	make afraid
e.	run	tígì	ee.	tígí-nd-á	drive
f.	learn, study, read	káràà	ff.	kárá-nd-á	teach

²¹ In Najamba (Dogon), causatives of this form include a limited set of verbs, including, *ìl-é*, ‘go up’, *ìlá-ndí* ‘cause to ascend’, *bèlí-yé*, get up, *bèlá-ndí*, ‘cause to get up’, *tíng-é*, ‘pass by’, *tíngá-ndí*, ‘cause to pass by’.

The efferential morpheme is suffixed to the incomplete verb stem, which differs depending on the class of the verb. The fact that the derivational suffix is attached after the inflectional suffixes is unusual. This is discussed further in Chapter 9.

The afferential process in Bangime is initial-consonant mutation but it is not productive. The only neighboring language with initial-consonant mutation is Fulfulde. However, the Fulfulde does not have a process which resembles the afferential in Bangime. The most similar morpheme is the reversive which is a suffix [-t-] on the verb stem in Fulfulde.

(13) Bangime Afferential Initial Consonant Mutation

<u>Mutation</u>	<u>T</u>	<u>Root</u>	<u>Gloss</u>	<u>T</u>	<u>Reversive</u>	<u>Gloss</u>		
t ~ d	a.	n	t̥ɪn-d-á	start	aa.	n	d̥ɪn-d-á	stop
m ~ b	b.	m	m̥ùn-d-á	dress, enter	bb.	m	b̥ùn-d-á	undress, exit
n ~ ɲ	c.	n	ɲàw	give	cc.	n	ɲàw	take
t ~ ʒ	d.	-	t̥é-r-ò	sit	dd.	-	ʒé-r-ò	stand up

Note that among the alternations, the stem-initial consonant [t] (13a, d) alternates with [d] in (13a) and [ʒ] in (13dd). I propose that in the underlying forms (possibly a historical remnant), the initial consonants of these words differ, as there is evidence for this word-internally when comparing Dogon with Bangime lexical items in (14).²² Although these verbs were the only ones found in the language in which a root was changed to adopt the afferential meaning by the change in the initial consonant, a process of nasalization of the final vowel of the verb root also creates the same change in meaning.

²² If the Bangime words are borrowed from Dogon, [dɪ́ndá] > [tɔ́ró, túmnó] ‘stop’, [jɪ̀è] > [ɪ̀njè] ‘rise’, [dɪ́nda] > [ɪ̀jɛ́] ‘stand’, but see [tɪ́é] ‘sit’ > [tɪ̀jɛ́] ‘stand’, would be reasonable suggestions since onsetless syllables are very rare word-initially in Bangime.

(14) Bangime Afferential Nasalization

	<u>Gloss</u>	<u>T</u>	<u>Perfect</u>	<u>Perfective</u>	<u>Incompletive</u>	<u>Completive</u>
a.	take out	m	bún-d-ì	bún-d-ì	bún-d-à	bún-d-à
b.	come from	m	báà	bú-r-àà	báà	bú-r-àà
c.	come out of	–	búù ⁿ	búù ⁿ	bú-ĩ-à	bú-ĩ-à
d.	exit (-hum)	–	bírè	bírè	bírè	bírè
e.	go in, enter	m	mún-d-ì	mún-d-ì	mún-d-à	mún-d-à
f.	come in	–	múú ⁿ	múú ⁿ	mù-ĩ-á	mù-ĩ-á
g.	enter (-hum)	–	míndè	míndè	míndè	míndè

Verbs which refer to movement ‘inwards’ or ‘towards’ the speaker are nasalized. The verb (14b) ‘come from’ is not nasalized, but (14c) ‘come out of’ is. The nasalized form is used in narratives, Text XI: Tiga 1.11, TEXT VIII: Chief 7.1, Text II: Chief 2.3, to refer to situations in which someone or something has come out of somewhere previously mentioned. Other examples of verbs with nasalization to indicate the afferential on verb roots without efferential counterparts are /koⁿ/ ‘break’, /kuⁿ/ ‘gather, meet’, /miⁿ/ ‘swallow’, and /piⁿ/ ‘fear’. Verb classes are further examined in Chapter 8 - 9.

A nasal precedes transitive verbs, with examples shown in (17). A verbal suffix [-r] has not been precisely defined yet, since the suffix is found in different aspects depending on the verb. In some verbs which are preceded by the transitive nasal, the [r] becomes [d] after a nasal. Examples given in (15).

(15) –r–

	<u>Gloss</u>	<u>T</u>	<u>Perfect</u>	<u>Perfective</u>	<u>Incompletive</u>	<u>Completive</u>
a.	hit	n	dég–ù	dég–è	dég–è	dég–è
b.	put	m	píé	píé	pìè	pé–r–ò
c.	chew	n	téè ⁿ	téè ⁿ	tá–w̃–àà	tám–b–à
d.	halve	ŋ	g ^w èn–d–ì	g ^w èn–d–ì	g ^w èn–d–è	g ^w èn–d–è
e.	crouch	–	súm–b–ò	súm–b–ó–r–ò RED	súm–b–ó–r–ò	súm–b–ò
f.	return	–	kwà ŋ kí	kó–r–à ŋ kí	kì ŋ kó–r–ò	kò–r–ò ŋ kí
g.	dig	ŋ	kíndū	kíndū	kíndū	kíndū

Examples in (16) show a transitive suffix [–r̃], from Ibi-so, a dialect of Toro-so.

(16) Stative/Transitive Alternation in Ibi-so (Dogon)²³

	<u>Stative</u>	<u>Gloss</u>		<u>Transitive</u>	<u>Gloss</u>
a.	sínn–í	carry on back	aa.	sínn–í–r̃	put on (sbs) back
b.	íŋí–í	stand up, stop(person)	bb.	íŋí–í–r̃	stop (sth)
c.	ìní–í	bathe	cc.	ín–ú–r̃	bathe (sb)
d.	tùŋ–í	kneel	dd.	tùŋ–ù–r̃	make kneel
e.	dùw–í	carry on head	ee.	dú–ú–rú	put on (sbs) head
f.	díi ⁿ	lie down	ff.	(î) dù–nú	have lie down, put to sleep
g.	dèé ⁿ	sit down	gg.	dàà–nú	have sit, seat
h.	tág–í	put ones shoes on	hh.	tág–á–'rá	put shoes on (sb)
i.	pág–í	tie ones belt on	ii.	pág–á–rá	tie belt on (sb)
j.	bàŋ–í	hide (oneself)	jj.	bàŋ–á–r̃á	hide (sb, sth)

²³ Data are from the author and are available at dogonlanguages.org.

Not only is the Dogon transitive suffix homophonous with the [-r] suffix in Bangime, the vowel height harmony patterns are the same. It is likely that the [-r] suffix in Bangime was borrowed from the transitive suffix in Dogon, but that its usage is frozen and the meaning differs since the [-r-] suffix in Bangime appears with both transitive and intransitive verbs.

Shown in the examples in (17), transitive verbs are preceded by a nasal as in (17a - e), while intransitive verbs (17aa - ee) are not.

(17) Transitive Marker

	<u>T</u>	<u>Verb</u>	<u>Gloss</u>		<u>Verb</u>	<u>Gloss</u>
a.	n	túraà	wash (s.o.)	aa.	bírè	leave, go out
b.	ŋ	kò-ĩ-ò	break	bb.	wòrè	go
c.	n	t ^w áà	reach	cc.	bù-ĩ-á	exit
d.	m	màà	build	dd.	jàà	die
e.	m	bàà	tie	ee.	bíjù	ripen

The verb stems listed in (17) are in the positive incompleted aspect. Shown in §9.8, there are few verbs which have transitive-intransitive counterparts.

1.8.3 Syntax

In the syntactic category of Bangime grammar, the attributes of the language which separate it from the Dogon languages are the word order changes based on the tense, aspect, or mood of the clause, and the tonal indexing of the subject on the verb and object if present.

As noted above, in some Dogon languages, nouns agree in number and animacy with adjectives and demonstratives, and verbs agree with pronominal-subject categories. In Bangime, there is no other form of agreement except that the plural clitic marks both an NP and the relative complementizer.

The postpositions in Bangime do not have a single meanings that translate easily into Western concepts of container and figure. Both [húⁿ] and [ko] may be translated as ‘to’ in (19a - b) yet as ‘on’ and ‘with’ in (19c - d), respectively. Further, English ‘to’ is represented with the postposition [waji] in (19e - f), but as ‘than’ in textual examples such as Chief 1.19. The example (19c) is of further interest as the verb is clause final; the unmarked tense is normally object final.

Although at the phrase level Bangime is head initial, with noun-postposition and noun-modifier word order (except DEF N and POSS N), at the clause level, the basic constituent order depends is either SVO, SOV, or OSV. The [ordering of constituents](#) in the sentence depends on the tense/aspect/mood of the clause. This is highly unusual, with surrounding languages of the Mande and Dogon language groups all being strict SOV languages and languages of the Atlantic group, such as Fulfude, being strictly SVO.

Person marking is optionally marked by pronouns, but is obligatorily indexed tonally on the verb and object when present. As is further elaborated upon in Chapter 13, the first and third singular person markers have three allomorphs, the morpheme [mi], a nasal, or tone on the verb and/or object noun, if present.

The [perfect aspect](#) requires a non-second person nasal that precedes the perfect clitic, labeled [~2], in addition to the pronominal subject. It is unclear why the subject is obligatorily marked before the [perfect clitic](#) [kéè], unless the marker means ‘finish’ and the sentence is taken to mean, ‘I drank cream; I finished it’. Second person is a short [a] and second person plural is a long [aa], both precede the completive morpheme.

The tonal alternations represent [tonal agreement for person](#). The object noun is part of the tone alternations, which is interpreted to be a single tone contour for verb+object.

(20) Nasal as Non-Second Person Marker

mí	n	níé	H	bòò ⁿ	L	ŋ	kéè	n dè	n	níé	H	bòò ⁿ	L	ŋ	kéè
1.S	T	drink	1	cream	1	~2	PRF	1.PL	T	drink	1	cream	1	~2	PRF

a. I had drunk cream.

d. We had drunk cream.

á	n	nìè	L	bóó ⁿ	H	á	kéè	áà	n	nìè	L	bóó ⁿ	H	á	kéè
2.S	T	drink	2	cream	2	+2	PRF	2.PL	T	drink	2	cream	2	+2	PRF

b. You had drunk cream.

e. You (pl) had drunk cream.

mì	n	nìè	L	bóó ⁿ	H	ŋ	kéè	n nì	n	nìè	L	bóó ⁿ	H	ŋ	kéè
3.S	T	drink	3	cream	3	~2	PRF	3.PL	T	drink	3	cream	3	~2	PRF

c. S/he had drunk cream.

f. They had drunk cream.

In sentences in the [perfect aspect](#) or those in another aspect with two clauses (21), the subject is marked twice. As before the perfect clitic, non-second persons (21a - c, f) are marked in the second clause by a nasal, and second person subject clauses (21b, e) are marked by [a] in the second clause. The subject and object pronouns are the same.

(21) Person Marking in Clauses

a.	∅	kóó	wòrè	n	ṽáá	à	ṽámbá	kùù ⁿ
	~2	CPL	go.1.S	~2	buy.1.S	DEF	sheep.1	market

I bought the sheep [at] market. lit. 'I went, I bought the sheep, [at] market.'

b.	á	kóó	wórè	à	ṽàá	á	ṽámbà	kùù ⁿ
	2.S	CPL	go.2.S	+2	buy.2.S	DEF	sheep.2	market

You (sg) bought the sheep [at] market.

c.	∅	kóó	wòrè	à	ṽàá	á	ṽámbà	kùù ⁿ
	~2	CPL	go.3.S	+2	buy.2.S	DEF	sheep.3	market

He bought the sheep [at] market.

d.	ndè	kóó	wòrè	n	ṽàá	á	ṽámbá	kùù ⁿ
	1.PL	CPL	go.1.PL	~2	buy.1.P	DEF	sheep.1	market

We bought the sheep [at] market.

e.	àà	kóó	wórè	à	ɥàá	á	ɲámbà	kùù ⁿ
	2.PL	CPL	go.2.pl	+2	buy.2.P	DEF	sheep.2	market

You (pl) bought the sheep [at] market.

f.	nnìì	kóó	wóré	n	ɥáá	ǎ	ɲàmbà	kùù ⁿ
	3.PL	CPL	go.3P	~2	buy.3.P	DEF	sheep.3	market

They bought the sheep [at] market.

The person marker is a nasal (21a, c - d, f) for non-second persons and [a] for second persons singular (21b) and plural (21e). The nasal or [a] also precedes the second stem of [reduplicated verbs](#). While a subject pronoun is obligatory, object pronouns may be omitted as shown throughout Text I: Chief I.

A feature which is not shared by any surrounding language to my knowledge is the use of tonal marking on the verb and object if present. Subject and TAM are marked by a combination of segmental and autosegmental features. Shown in sentences (22) - (26), the aspects perfect and perfective, and completive and incompletive, are marked by inflectional suffixation on the verb (Chapter 8 - 9), particles (Chapter 10), and the placement of the object in the sentence (Chapter 11). The subject is marked by a nasal or [a], and tone on either the verb, object, or both.

The verb given in the examples /deg/ ‘hit’ is a transitive verb in verb Class One. The perfective is an unmarked aspect in Bangime. The verb receives no inflectional marking other than the root vowel, and there are no verb particles. The word order for the perfective is SVO. Verbs in the perfective are not marked with the transitive morpheme, rather, as before the perfect particle, the verb is preceded by a nasal for non-second persons and [a] for second persons singular and plural. High tone marks the vowel of the verb stem in the first person and low tone for third person. When an object is present, it surfaces with a polar tone, the opposite tone, to the verb.

(22) Perfective

	First Person		Third Person
a.	∅ n ^{HL} [dég-é	nnìè-rè]	b. ∅ n ^{LH} [dég-è
	~2 ~2 hit-RV. ^{1S}	woman	~2 ~2 hit-RV. ^{3S}
			woman

I have hit a woman.

He has hit a woman.

The perfect aspect is differentiated from the perfective by the addition of the perfect clitic [kèè], and the high vowel suffix on the verb. The word order is not changed, and neither are the tones. The transitive nasal precedes the verb in the perfect aspect, but the secondary person marking precedes the perfect clitic.

(23) Perfect

	First Person		Third Person
a.	∅ n ^{HL} [dég-ú	nnìè-rè] η kèè	b. ∅ n ^{LH} [dég-ù
	~2 T ^{1.S} hit-PRF	woman ~2 PRF	~2 T ^{3.S} hit-PRF
			woman ~2 PRF

I had hit a woman.

He had hit a woman.

The incomplete aspect can be viewed as being complementary to the completive aspect. The incomplete /daw/ and completive /kamaa/ particles both follow the subject, and the verb has the default, root vowel as the suffix. The differences lie in the word order and, consequently, surface tone patterns. The verb precedes the object in an incomplete clause and the high tone associated with the first person and low tone for third person continues to be marked on the verb.

(24) Incomplete

	First Person		Third Person
a.	∅ dá	[nnìè-rè n dég-é] ^{HL}	b. ∅ ná
	~2 IMPV	woman T hit-RV. ^{1S}	~2 IMPV
			woman T hit-RV. ^{3S}

I am hitting a woman.

He is hitting a woman.

In the completive aspect, the object follows the verb and is marked with a low tone in the first person and a high tone in the third person on the suffix vowel. The tone is assigned at the clause, rather than word, level.

(25) Completive

	First Person						Third Person				
a.	Ø	kóó	n	[dég-è	nníé-ré] ^{HL}	b.	Ø	kóó	n	[dég-é	nnìè-rè] ^{LH}
	1.S	CPL	T	hit-RV	woman ^{1.S}		3.S	CPL	T	hit-RV	woman ^{3.S}

I hit a woman.

He hit a woman.

The future is formed in one of two ways depending on whether or not the sentence has an object. Even if the verb is transitive, if no object is specified (24a), the word order is subject-verb, followed by the secondary person marking (nasal or low vowel) and the incompletive particle. If an object is included, the future tense is formed with the object first, followed by the incompletive particle and the verb.

(26) Future

a.	àdámà	n	dég	-è	n	náv.
	Adama	T	hit	-RV	~2	INC

Adama will hit.

b.	á	jám+bē	ná	n	dèg	-è	-L
	DEF	child	INC	T	hit	-INC	3

He will hit the child. (*the child is being hit by him) [á jámbē mì ná n dèg-è àdámà ŋ kò]

The future tense with an object is not to be interpreted as the passive, marked by the passive morpheme [mì].

Shown in (27), an object pronoun is not obligatory. The subject is indicated by the pronoun at the beginning of the sentence and by tone, high for first person and low for third person, on the pronoun and the verb suffix vowel.

(27) Person Tonal Marking on Verb with Object Pronoun

a. mǐ n dég -é -H
 1S T hit RV 1

I hit him.

b. mǐ n dég -è -L
 3S T hit RV 3

He hit me.

1.8.4 Greeting Sequences

A curiosity in Bangime are the greeting sequences shown in (28), or rather, lack thereof. Most, if not all, African languages are known for their lengthy call and response greeting sequences. Bangime has the normal question-type of greetings, but there are few responses which are not borrowings from Arabic, and many are simply intonational prolongations of the greeting itself.

(28) Greeting Sequences

<u>Greeting</u>	<u>Gloss</u>	<u>Response</u>	<u>Gloss</u>
dôó	morning greeting	dóòó	morning greeting
k ^w ě hère n jéw	did [you] wake in peace?	hámdùrùlájì	Praise be to God (Arabic)
tíjà	afternoon greeting	tíjààà	afternoon greeting
k ^w ě hère tùrú	did [you] spend the day in peace?	hámdùrùlájì	Praise be to God
à kòò n ɛ̀ìè=ndé	your family ('house owner')	kí sè bíníjù	no problems
à p ^w ìè nà jáá=ndè (male)	wife and children	kí sè bíníjù	no problems
à kàndéé nàá jáá=ndè (female)	husband and children	kí sè bíníjù	no problems
à nà náá	you and the field (greeting for sme returning from the fields)	nàà dà ŋ wíi	field(s) are there

Since many of the speakers of the language are not Muslim, the clearly Arabic responses are curious. Note that, in addition to the relative simplicity of these greetings, there is no introductory [pòó] or final [tàárè] common to every Dogon language. The one similarity between the Bangime greeting sequence and those of Dogon languages is the afternoon introductory greeting [tija], which is also used in the neighboring Dogon language Tiranige.

Thus, the key grammatical aspects of Bangime which separate it from other languages in the area in which it is spoken in Central-Eastern Mali are (1) disharmonic sequences for the feature [ATR] tautosyllabically and tautomorphemically, (2) lack of bound morphology, (3) person agreement marking on objects in the verb phrase, and (4) word order specified by tense. Among the core vocabulary items, some lexical items bear strong resemblances with Dogon languages, and consistent sound changes are found between Bangime and potentially related Dogon words. The Dogon languages themselves vary extensively and lexical correspondences between Bangime and the Dogon languages are found in a geographically widely distributed area. Although Bangime is not a Dogon language, I hypothesize that the language had a connection to, or borrowed from, the Dogon languages at a time when the Dogon languages were more cohesive. Suggestions as to why the Bangime speakers drew so heavily upon the vocabulary of Dogon and not the grammar are outlined in the following subsections.

1.9 Bangime: ‘a secret language’

During the last few months of my second to last fieldwork trip, it became clear that elicited lexical items were not the same as those used in natural conversation. The elicited items were often loanwords. These contrast with the periphrastic expressions used in speech. For example, the word given for ‘fence’ [sáàⁿ], suggests a loan word from Bamana [saaⁿ], but in every day usage, the phrase [bùřá míndé ɔ̀rúgí dóò à gòmè màá kéré], translated as, ‘stick(s) put into the

ground so that people may pass next to the rice’, is employed to describe, in this instance, a fence surrounding the rice fields. In fact, ‘sáàⁿ’ is unacceptable for any type of fencing if one is speaking the “true” language. Further examples of so-called “deep Bangime” are shown in (29).

(29) “Deep Bangime”

- | | | | | | | |
|----|---|----------------------------------|-----------------|---------------------------|--------------------------|------------------------------|
| a. | kóndzé
beer
‘drunk’ | hà
until | máà
3.S.POSS | ɲàrikí
thoughts/spirit | à
IRR | dóó
pass |
| b. | sííbíè
eye
black things (to)
‘sun glasses’ | n
GEN | tããá
hide | ɲ
GEN | kéè
thing | póó ¹ ré
black |
| c. | gòò ⁿ =né
men
men inside a house
‘prison’ | kóò
house | ɲ
GEN | kò
PP | | |
| d. | ǰíí ⁿ
strength
strong person
‘policeman’ | -ɛíè ⁿ
AGENT/owner | | | | |
| e. | bùù ⁿ
powder
powder which has been sweetened
‘cake’ | mé
CONJ | ná
INC | mì
PASS | déé-rè
sweet | |
| f. | kíngèè
skin
‘banana’ | b ^w íé
red | máà
3.S.POSS | n ɲòó
meat | ɲ ^w íè
oil | |

The Bangande language consultants did not inform me of this “deep Bangime” language until the last two months of fieldwork, after a span of three years on three separate trips. They claim that the language is a means by which they can speak about others without them understanding. When outsiders inquire about the language, the Bangande adamantly refuse to reveal or discuss it.

Halliday (1976) discusses the concept of “anti-languages”, languages which have been constructed by “anti-societies” based on the need for secrecy. As mentioned above, the name of the language and people, ‘Banga’, is literally translated as ‘secret’ by many (although curiously not neighboring)²⁴ Dogon peoples, meaning ‘secret language’. Halliday describes anti-languages as involving either a partial or complete relexicalization of the established language, but that these languages usually adopt the same grammar with a substituted vocabulary. The substituted vocabulary pertains to the activities of the anti-society. Kennings, or periphrastic terms like those shown in (29) above, are very common among this type of language.

Secret or anti-languages are common throughout Africa, even among the Dogon (Lala 2000). “Langues spéciales” have been described for some time in Africa (Van Gennep 1908 in Moñino 1991). Hudson (1995) specifically notes how secret languages in Ethiopia either substitute vocabulary or alter syllable structures in order to confuse listeners. The Mau Mau fighters in Kenya also used metaphors to communicate in a secret language “Uma Uma”, which in Kikuyu means “get out, get out” (William Kanyi Wamathai, p.c.). Childs (2003) gives further examples from a secret language used in the Kisi-speaking area of Liberia, known as “kpéléméíyé” and a possibly related language, “lòndùé”. The latter language is of unknown origin although the former not only transposes syllables, it also reverses meanings from its source language. The translation of “kpéléméíyé” is ‘garden leavings’, ‘the few things that are left after the plants are uprooted’. The meaning, ‘garden scraps tossed away’, is an ironic name as the language is of high importance to its speakers. The use of opposite meanings is a common feature of varieties of slang (Eble 1996) and languages spoken by elders in Burkina Faso

²⁴ Jamsay [bájá], Togo Kan [báj], Yorno So [bàŋ-íí jéé], Tommo-So [bàŋí-jé], Yanda Dom [bǎn-jé\\bàn-jà-lí], Ben Tey [bàngì-jí] (see map above for the locations of these languages).

(Showalter, p.c.). Both of these techniques are found in “deep Bangime”. For instance, the names for plants used in ritualistic ceremonies are often based on the opposite of the color of the bark or flower, i.e. a white barked tree is called, literally, ‘black-eyed’, while the black variety of the species is ‘white-eyed’. It is here noted that Dogon initiates of the Sigui festival are known to speak a secret language.

The secret language hypothesis is based on a hierarchical social structure among the Bangande. As discussed in the introduction, among the estimated 1500 - 3000 speakers of Bangime, only about a fourth can trace their lineage to the original clan who settled the area. The others were, and are to this day, enslaved by the royal class within the Bangande and are of mixed races, ranging from Dogon to Mande, to unknown, as their ancestors were captured by Fulani and other ethnicities as young children and prevented from knowing from which village they came so as not to escape.²⁵

How the slaves came into Bangande society remains a mystery. According to oral histories,²⁶ the Fulani enslavers at one point in time attacked a group of the Fulani slave caste, seeking to capture them. The Fulani slave caste asked the Bangande, who were at that time solely composed of the royal class, for help. The present-day chief’s grandfather, Giyamo Maamani, was chief at the time. According to the story, the Bangande clan’s last name was then changed from Banaande to Dicko as a result of their helping the Fulani slaves overcome the Fulani enslavers.

²⁵ Tiga 3

²⁶ Chief 5

In Mali, last names are of the utmost importance as they indicate the ethnicity and the village of a person. Among the Dogon, the last name Dicko is not found. Most Dogon villages comprise of one last name. While Dicko is the most common last name in Bounou and the other Bangime-speaking villages, other last names are Bakoro, Baade, Basaga, Basseri, Koulibali, Konde, Karambe, Guindo, Samasekoro, and Yelkoye.

My hypothesis is that the Fulani enslavers actually captured the Bangande at this time and renamed them Dicko because slaves took the last name of their owners. To further this claim, there is no word in the language for last name, the Bangande either borrow the word from Fulfulde, [jamoore], or say, literally, ‘second name’.²⁷ Given the importance of last names and their significance to ethnic identity in Mali, this is highly unusual in this geographic area.

A likely story for the etymology of the name ‘Banaande’ /bànáándè/ is that the name derives from ‘Bangande’ /bàngá=ndè/, nasals and intervocalic velar stops commonly delete in the language as has been shown. Thus, the people’s true last name is unknown. The only name that is exclusively used for the Bangande is found among the ‘royal class’ people, ‘Baade’, which also likely comes from the same source. Certainly, enslavement would give cause for the Bangande to use a separate language from their captors. A fuller understanding of ‘deep Bangime’ could reveal the true roots of Bangime among the languages of Africa.

1.10 Conclusion

The classification of Bangime and the Dogon languages as a whole has been unreliable for several reasons. Based on the lack of lexical and grammatical similarities with Dogon languages or other languages within Mali or surrounding countries, the classification of the language remains as an isolate. The task now is to discover from where the language’s speakers came, and

²⁷ Even the word for ‘name’, [nî], is of interest as it is homophonous with the word for ‘say’.

whether the people have any genetic relation to the Dogon as they claim. In the meantime, the description of Bangime set out in this dissertation provides the only description of the language thus far, and may help eventually in solving a greater mystery of the origin of the Dogon languages as well.

The Dogon language group had been misrepresented as one language (Bendor-Samuel, Olsen, & White 1989), but current research estimates 18 to 20 separate Dogon languages and over 60 dialects (Heath 2008; Hochstetler et al. 2004). This diversity and complexity is due to the Dogon peoples' geographic inaccessibility; they have until recently been confined to secluded, sometimes concealed, villages within the rocky Bandiagara escarpment and various isolated nearby mountains. Although Marcel Griaule, his team members Germaine Dieterlen and Michel Leiris and his daughter, Geneviève Calame-Griaule, have published studies on a variety of topics since the 1930s, including the Dogon languages, much of this work is widely criticized by those who dispute Griaule's methodology (van Beek 1991). Their generalizations about Dogon language and culture based on one language do not apply to the rest of the Dogon area. Even Leiris (n.d.) found Griaule's badgering of speakers inappropriate and unproductive, leading to incorrect data. Many of Griaule's Dogon language consultants have now admitted to playing games and misleading him. Publications on Dogon languages from Leiris and Calame-Griaule continue to be criticized for top-down elicitation techniques.

The classification of languages is critical to tracing cultural history and lineage (Blench 2006). The Dogon languages lack certain features, such as a full noun class system, that are common among languages of the Niger-Congo family, to which the Dogon languages have been assigned, causing some historical linguists to doubt their common ancestry (Williamson & Blench 2000). Further, the classification of the Dogon languages has fluctuated between the Gur

or “Voltaic” (Bertho 1953; Greenberg 1963) and Mande (Delafosse 1952) sub-branches, but since significant links with either remain inconclusive, they are now not linked with any subgroup (Gordon 2005), which makes determining their history difficult.

1.11 Organization

This dissertation provides a description of aspects of the morphophonology of Bangime. Since this is the first published description of the language, the first chapter is dedicated to providing an overview of all aspects of the language in comparison to surrounding languages, particularly those in the Dogon group since it is among them that the language is spoken. The phonetic inventory of the features found in the language is covered in 2.1. Chapter 3 illustrates noun stems and their underlying segmental and autosegmental representations based on their behavior with accompanying clitics. Nouns are divided into six segmental categories and six tonal categories. Evidence is inconclusive at this time as to the link between the segmental and autosegmental categories and there is at least one nominal suffix which has an undetermined meaning. Known nominal clitics and suffixes are presented in Chapter 4, and pro-clitics follow in Chapter 5. The tonal interactions between morphemes associated with the noun and nominal stems are thoroughly discussed. Word-formation processes that go beyond the stem are shown in 6.1. The main non-affixal word-formation process is the genitive construction. Compounding is not a means available in the language, thus two nouns are connected with the genitive morpheme, a nasal which takes the place of the initial consonant of the possessed noun. Genitive constructions can act as stems semantically in that they may be modified or affixed in a manner similar to stems. However, the phonology of the genitive construction acts as a phrase. Chapter 7 gives an overview of the modifiers found in the language. Adjectives must modify a noun; an adjective does not surface in isolation. Quantifiers act in the same way, but a difference lies in a

plural NP as the plural clitic follows the entire NP in the case of an adjective, but follows the noun and precedes a quantifier. There is only one negative marker, which may precede or follow an NP. Because the same negative marker negates a verb phrase, it and its tonal effects are presented in the final chapter, Chapter 14. An unusual attribute of the language is the fact that a noun as an object in a verb phrase is tonally affected by the subject of the phrase. The person marking is often not overtly marked but is marked tonally on the object noun. This is presented in Chapter 13.

The second part of the dissertation covers the verb phrase. Because the tense, aspect, and mood (TAM) system of the language is complex, it is broken up into three chapters. The verb root is introduced first in Chapter 8. Verb roots are abstract representations of an underlying form; a verb stem always emerges with tense, aspect, or mood and person tonal marking. Links between form and meaning of proposed underlying verb roots illustrate that verbs may have even more abstract underlying forms which indicate general senses, such as movement or types of actions. Verb roots are grouped into five basic classes based on the ways the inflectional affixes affect the verb phonologically and semantically. Chapter 9 presents the verb particles, which, along with the inflectional categories presented in the previous chapter, specify the tense and aspect of a sentence. In Chapter 11, the word order for each TAM category is presented. The derivational categories of verbs are presented in Chapter 9. Some verbs may be reduplicated and some must surface with an obligatory nominative accusative as an object. These verbs and the manner in which they appear with other constituents in a sentence are shown in Chapter 12. The tonal patterns on the verb phrase, the person marking on the verb and object nouns, are shown in Chapter 14.

Chapter 2. Phonological Features

2.1 Introduction to the Phonemic Inventory of Features

Because Bangime has very few productive, segmental morphological processes, allomorphy in the traditional sense is limited. There is extensive variation, much of which appears to be inconsistent. For this reason, the frequency of occurrence of each feature is given in the context of where it occurs. This chapter lists and provides justification for the postulated phonemic inventory of features in Bangime.

The vocalic inventory is illustrated in §2.2, followed by the consonantal inventory in §2.3. Phonological processes which affect vowels include mid vowel laxing or becoming [-ATR] before sonorants, front vowel raising in monosyllabic environments, and back vowel lowering in bisyllabic words. Long vowels, (two vowels of the same quality and height), are restricted to certain syllables in a word. In lieu of long vowels, diphthongs are common, especially ones consisting of combinations of front vowels. Contrasting [ATR] qualities may co-occur tautosyllabically to form a diphthong. Consonants undergo phonetically triggered lenition intervocalically and aspectually conditioned nasalization spreading.

Autosegmental features tone and syllable structure are presented in §2.5 and §2.6, respectively. A minimal word length prevents underlyingly short vowels from surfacing in monosyllabic words, but does not apply to clitics or affixes. Bisyllabic words have either two light syllables or one heavy and one light syllable, but, with few exceptions, do not have two heavy syllables. Trisyllabic words do not have heavy syllables. Geminate nasals are often found word-initially but seldom word-medially. Glides in the nucleus of a syllable are moraic, but not syllabic. Glides are tone-bearing in moraic position. The mora is the tone-bearing unit.

Most words, particularly nouns, begin with a high tone, and most suffixes (some of which are frozen or suffixal remnants) have a low tone; thus, most words have a falling tonal melody.

Verbs do not surface without grammatical tone which interacts with the underlying tone of the verb root.

2.2 Vowels

Although minimal pairs are found based on vowel length, quality, tone, and nasalization, each of these values is largely predictable. That is, while each of these features can be contrastive, the contrasts may, and often are, neutralized in the contexts explained in this chapter. In some cases, only a single word may have the vowel quality listed. The number of words found in the lexicon for each feature is shown in the columns above the examples presented.

Phonetically, Bangime has a seven vowel system presented in (30).

(30) Phonemic Vowel Inventory

/i e ε a ɔ o u/

Vowel length and nasalization are predictable based on the length of the word. Values for [ATR] are also predictable. Combinations of vowels may occur without an intervening segment. Vowels which occur in the same syllable are considered diphthongs. The inventory of diphthongs is shown in (31).

(31) Diphthongs

[ie iε εe ee ae ɔo oɔ]

Diphthongs are pronounced as one vowel, or, in careful speech, may be pronounced separately, which raises the question as to whether or not there is a syllable break. The high front vowel may combine with a mid front [\pm ATR] vowel or the low vowel to form diphthongs but the high back vowel may not combine with any other vowel tautosyllabically.

2.2.1 Diphthongs

Vowels of different heights, backness, and [\pm ATR] values may co-occur tautosyllabically. Three diphthongs are found among front vowels: [ie], [iɛ], and [eɛ]. Examples in (32) illustrate that a monosyllabic word with front non-low vowels may have nine possible meanings based on tone and vowel quality combinations. The number of words with the vowel sequence is listed above each column, but the tones listed in the lefthand column only refer to the words shown.²⁸

(32) Front Vowel Diphthong Minimal Pairs

		<u>[ie]</u>	<u>(25 words)</u>		<u>[iɛ]</u>	<u>(73 words)</u>		<u>[eɛ]</u>	<u>(55 words)</u>
LL	a.	nnìè	rainy season	aa.	nnìè	yesterday	aaa.	nnèè	sun
LH	b.	nnìé	woman	bb.	——		bbb.	nnèé	bean
HH	c.	——		cc.	nníé	milk	ccc.	——	
HL	d.	nnîè	drink.1S	dd.	nníè	greet.1S	ddd.	nnèè	four

Monosyllabic words may contrast solely on the basis of vowel quality. Those listed in (32) are divided into those with two low tones (32a - aaa), two high tones (32cc), or a combination of low-high (32b, bbb) or high-low (32d - ddd) tones. Further examples of monosyllabic words that contrast minimally for front vowel diphthongs are shown in (33).

(33) Front Vowel Diphthong Minimal Pairs

	<u>Word</u>	<u>Gloss</u>		<u>Word</u>	<u>Gloss</u>		<u>Word</u>	<u>Gloss</u>
a.	b ^w íè	mosquito	aa.	b ^w íé	red	aaa.	b ^w èè	leg
b.	ɸìè	ascend.3S	bb.	ɸíé	moon	bbb.	ɸíè	water
c.	kínǵéè	skin	cc.	kínǵíè	room			

²⁸ Another possibility is that the consonant is palatalized before front vowels and labialized before back vowels and that the co-articulation appears on the vowel as well. This matter is left to further research.

- d. gɛŋgíè salt dd. gěŋgíè metal
 e. pééréè key ee. péééré a lot adj.

The diphthong [iɛ] is common in words which contrast solely on the basis of tone (33a - aa), (33b - bb). The examples (33aa) and (33bb) show another near minimal pair for monosyllabic words which begin with the consonant [b^w] or [ɟ]. Bisyllabic words may also contrast for diphthong quality; this is in part due to the [frozen suffix](#) [ɛ] found on many nouns.

The low vowel also combines with the front [-ATR] vowel [ɛ] to form a diphthong in nouns and adjectives with the frozen suffix (26a - c), or the diminutive suffix (26d - e), but not tautomorphemically.

(34) Low Vowel Diphthong

[aɛ] (5 words)

- a. tíyà+è peanut
 b. záyá+è onion
 c. dáyá+è small
 d. páyá-è container-DIM
 e. d^wà-è tree-DIM

The low vowel [a] does not to co-occur tautosyllabically with other vowels, except in the above listed words with the mid front [frozen suffix](#) following the low vowel.

Minimal pairs with back vowel diphthongs are also found but not to the extent of front vowel diphthongs. The high back vowel [u] may not combine with either of the mid back vowels tautosyllabically.

(35) Back Vowel Diphthong Minimal Pairs

	[ɔɔ]	(17 words)	[oɔ]	(50 words)
a.	bóó	father	aa. bóò	border
b.	njóó	travel	bb. njòó	meat

In summary, among monosyllabic stems, three contrasts are found regularly in the distribution of diphthongs. Mid [+ATR] and [-ATR] front vowels co-occur tautosyllabically and contrast with mid and high front vowels, as shown in examples (32) - (33). The high front vowel may co-occur with a mid front [\pm ATR] vowel. The low vowel [a] may combine with the mid [-ATR] vowel as was shown in (34). Mid back vowels may co-occur tautosyllabically but the high back vowel (35) does not. Among bisyllabic stems, diphthongs occur typically in the final syllable (33) of nouns, but may also appear in the initial syllable of adjectives. Many nouns surface with final front vowel diphthongs, a consequence of a [frozen diminutive suffix](#).

Because the distribution of long vowels of the same quality is limited, diphthongs form in cases where long vowels are not permitted, and therefore consist of two morae. While words may contrast on the basis of the vowel quality of the diphthong, in three cases, diphthong formation is predictable. As discussed in detail below, there is a [minimal word](#) constraint of two morae. Therefore, one instance in which diphthongs surface where long vowels would occur is in monosyllabic stems, due to a dispreference for long vowels, discussed in detail below.

The second case of predictable diphthongs is when the [ATR] quality of a vowel contributes to its ability to surface as either long or short. The high vowels [i u] do not have surface [-ATR] counterparts *[ɪ ʊ], and thus it is possible for long high vowels to surface. However, this does not account for the lack of mid and high back vowels combining to form diphthongs.

The third situation which requires a diphthong is before a nasal or rhotic. Mid vowels become [-ATR] before a sonorant in many words, even if it creates a vowel quality difference tautosyllabically.

The vowels which may not combine tautosyllabically insert a glide. The intervocalic glide transcribed in the words in which there is a clear syllable break is not very prominent, either perceptually, or on a spectrogram, but words such as those in (36) are usually pronounced as two syllables rather than as diphthongs. Alternatively, words such as those listed in (28a - i) may be pronounced with palatalization or labialization on the initial consonant and loss of a vowel and its tone, with an additional vowel added to fulfil the minimal word requirement.

(36) Impermissible Diphthongs

	<u>Vowels</u>	<u>Word</u>	<u>Allomorph</u>	<u>Gloss</u>	<u>Frequency</u>
a.	i.a	dìjá	~ d'íáá	eat	15 words
b.	a.i	mmàjí	~ mààj	okra	4 words
c.	u.i	mmúwí	~ m ^w íí	today	3 words
d.	u.iɛ	púwíè	~ p ^w íè	wife	17 words
e.	u.ɛɛ	búwéè	~ b ^w éè	red.	2 words
f.	u.o	kúwò	~ k ^w òò	shoulder, wing	5 words
g.	u.o	bùwó	~ b ^w óó	herd	5 words
h.	u.a	nṅùwà	~ nnùṅà	prepare	1 word
i.	i.o	kìwó	—	metal fire-starter	5 words
j.	o.i	sógóji	—	toenail	2 words
k.	i.u	píjù	—	blow v.	8 words

The combinations [au], [ei], [ɛi], [ou], [ɔu] or [ui] do not occur, even with an intervocalic glide. This suggests that upgliding sequences, rising vocalic height and falling sonority, within a syllable or even across syllable boundaries, are not favored. Certain vowel sequences only occur with a small set of intervening consonants. The vowel sequences which are disfavored with the fewest number of allowable intervening consonants are [uCu] only when C = [r], [uCO] only when C = [w], [ECa] only where C [m], and [OCi] only when C = [nd]. The sequence [iCo] may be split when C = [r] or [j], [aCu] with C = [r] or [g], and [aCi] when C = [ŋg] or [j]. The remaining vocalic sequences seem to be split by almost any of the permitted, word-internal consonants.

Examples of vowel hiatus are shown in (37) using the diminutive suffix [-ɛ]. When the diminutive suffix is attached or is frozen to a noun with a mid front vowel in the root, such as [dóré+ɛ] ‘bird’, there is no need for an intervening consonant. However, if the final vowel of the root is a back vowel, the root is often separated by a consonant or a glide.

(37) Diminutive Suffix Consonant Insertion

	<u>Stem</u>	<u>Gloss</u>	<u>Diminutive Stem</u>	<u>Gloss</u>
a.	góò+mpá	step	góò+mbè	little step
b.	tótò	anvil	tótò-mé	little anvil
c.	dúgú	forest	dúgú-wè	little forest
d.	kó-ró-gò	basket	kórógò-jè	little basket

Some words freely alternate between the segments which separate the final vowel of the stem and the diminutive, as seen in the name for the language [báŋgí-jè] ~ [báŋgí-mè]. Further, some permissible vowel sequences are separated by a glide between the noun root and the frozen diminutive suffix; this suggests that glide-insertion may not resolve hiatus, but rather lengthen a

word to two syllables. The glide insertion process can be observed in words that alternate between one and two syllables respectively such as [bìé] ~ [bì.jé] ‘baby’, [bì=ndé] ‘babies’. In other cases, the allomorphs of the diminutive suffix may be used to emphasize a word; the sentence Magic Cat.26 uses two forms of the noun /tuŋu+mɛ/ ‘cat’ consecutively.

2.2.2 Length

Vowel length is largely predictable in Bangime, with few words contrasting on the basis of vowel length alone. The data in (38) illustrate the distribution of long vowels for each vowel found in the language. Examples of where short vowels surface are shown in the first column and long vowels in the second column. The first example of each pair of words shows monosyllabic environments, the second pair shows the first syllable of a bisyllabic word, and the third pair shows the second syllable of a bisyllabic word. Trisyllabic words only surface with short vowels, thus no examples are given. A bisyllabic word has, with only one exception, a long vowel in either the first or second syllable, but not in both. Asterisks indicate length combinations that are not attested in the corpus. The frequency of each type of vowel length is shown in the column next to the examples.

(38) Vowel Length Distribution

		<u>Stem</u>	<u>Gloss</u>	<u>Frequency</u>		<u>Stem</u>	<u>Gloss</u>	<u>Frequency</u>
i/ii	a.	mi	1/3.S	3 clitics/sfx, 0 words	aa.	píí	sauce	25 words, 2 clitics
	b.	mmírò	bee	29 words	bb.	sííbîê	eye	2 words
	c.	kùrí	dust	1 sfx, 121 words	cc.	*CCii	—	0
e/ee	d.	*Ce	—	0	dd.	téé	older sibling	2 words
	e.	térò	sit	126 words	ee.	*Cee.CV	—	0
	f.	sórè	know	171 words (58 [-re] sfx)	ff.	símèè	rock	2 words
ε/εε	g.	nné	1.pl	2 clitics/sfx, 0 words	gg.	*Cεε	—	0
	h.	nnéré	uncle	5 words	hh.	*Cεε.CV	—	0
	i.	gírímè	rabbit	1 sfx, 114 words	ii.	tùréé	hyena	1 word
a/aa	j.	nà	particle	3 particles/sfx	jj.	nnàà	cow	17 words, 6 clitics/sfx
	k.	báaréè	Acacia sp.	170 words	kk.	báákò	beautiful	1 word
	l.	mmìfà	door	1 sfx, 244 words (52 [-ra] sfx)	ll.	káráá	new	33 words
o/oo	m.	tò pò	only ('one only')	1 word	mm.	kòdò	house	9 words
	n.	mmòré	sugar cane	318 words	nn.	póórò	cloud	1 word
	o.	mmírò	bee	1 sfx, 202 words (50 [-ro] sfx)	oo.	sígòdò	week	3 words
ɔ/ɔɔ	p.	kò n nó	doorway	1 word	pp.	*Cɔɔ	—	0
	q.	dóréè	bird	201 words	qq.	*Cɔɔ.CV	—	0
	r.	bòndó	alive	5 words, 1 sfx	rr.	*CV.Cɔɔ	—	0
u/uu	s.	-ru	familial plural	1 sfx	ss.	kùù ^a	egg	15 words (14 nasalized)
	t.	bùřá	stick	386 words	tt.	pùùpá	bellows	6 words
	u.	píjù	blow	94 words (33 [-ru] sfx)	uu.	bùrùù	seed, kind	1 word

Examples (38a - c, aa - cc) show the distribution of the vowels [i] and [ii]. The high front vowel [i] does not contrast with long [ii] in the initial syllable of a bisyllabic word (38b, bb). A counter-example to the generalization that there are no words with a long [i] in the initial position of a bisyllabic word is [síbíè] ‘eye’, which is an unusual word in that it contains two heavy syllables. In the final syllable of a bisyllabic word (38c, cc), only the short mid front vowel appears.

The mid front [+ATR] vowel [e] and the [-ATR] mid front counterpart [ɛ] are limited in their distribution as long vowels.²⁹ Examples include [símèè] ‘rock’, [téé] ‘older sibling’ for the [+ATR] vowel and [tùréé] ‘hyena’ for the [-ATR] vowel. No examples of mid front long vowels of the same [±ATR] value were obtained in the initial syllable of a bisyllabic word.

The low, back vowel [a] displays a contrast for length in all environments. The contrast for length in monosyllabic words is shown (38j - jj). The low vowel [a] may appear as long in either the first (38kk) or the second (38ll) syllable of a bisyllabic word. Words such as [ɲàmbà-rá] ‘sheep’ and [páyá-rà] ‘container’ illustrate that [a] is permitted in trisyllabic and longer words, to the exclusion of [aa]. The low vowel [a] [appears as long](#) after [r] in bisyllabic words.

Similar to the front counterparts, the mid back [±ATR] vowels occur as long vowels infrequently anywhere except in a monosyllabic word (38mm, nn). An exception is [pòòrò] ‘cloud’. In all other environments, the mid back vowels appear as short (38m - r). Recall that the mid back vowel becomes [\[-ATR\]](#) in some words before a sonorant such as a nasal or rhotic.

The high back vowel [u], like the low vowel [a], appears in all environments (38s - u, ss - uu), and, like [a], is long in the final vowel of a bisyllabic word after [r] (38uu). Therefore, all vowels except mid front vowels may appear as short in any environment.

²⁹ Whether the vowels are differentiated on the basis of advanced tongue root or tenseness is yet to be determined.

A [minimal word](#) consists of two morae, therefore, other than in grammatical markers; many of the permissible vowels are not appear as short in a monosyllabic word. Many words display identity [harmony](#). The following table in (39) summarizes where long vowels frequently surface in each syllable of a word.

(39) Summary of Long Vowel Occurrence

<u>Vowel</u>	<u>Monosyllabic</u>	<u>Bisyllabic First Syllable</u>	<u>Bisyllabic Second Syllable</u>
ii	+	–	–
ee	–	–	–
εε	–	–	–
aa	+	–	+
oo	+	–	–
ɔɔ	+	–	–
uu	+	+	–

Mid vowels appear as [diphthongs](#) rather than long. One position where high front long vowels are common is in monosyllabic words. Long high front and mid vowels are in complementary distribution in monosyllabic stems. A raising rule applies; further predictions about vowel quality discussed [below](#). For example, [adjectives](#) must follow a dummy noun [kii], derived from the noun [keε] ‘thing’. I hypothesize the monosyllabic form of the noun is [kii] and the bisyllabic form [keε].³⁰ The adjective follows the dummy noun to form a binary foot.

(40) Vowel raising in monosyllabic stems

/EE/ → [ii] /#C__#

Another instantiation of vowel raising in the dummy noun is before the diminutive suffix /ε/. The noun is represented as bisyllabic [kiri] ‘thing’ before the diminutive suffix [kiri–ε] ‘little thing’ not *[keε–ε]. We will see that some root vowels raise to [i] in the plural [diminutive](#) stem.

³⁰ The word [kéè] ‘thing’ is a clear case of a bisyllabic word rather than a diphthong, because it has a falling tonal melody in its surface form and because of the alternation with [kii]. Most words with two adjacent vowels, however, are not clear as to the distinction between one and two syllables. The matter is left to future research.

The mid back vowels are also in complementary distribution with [a]. The low vowel can be long in all environments, but mid back long vowels are almost entirely limited to monosyllabic words. Another instance of the low vowel [a] becoming mid [o] is seen in a verb paradigm. The verb [kwà̃̀ŋ kii] ‘able’ becomes [kɔ̃̀-ró-nd-ĩ] ‘unable’. The appearance of either a diphthong or a low vowel instead of a mid back long vowel is attributed to the position in a syllable. It is possible as well that an underlying long /aa/ surfaces as [oo] in monosyllabic words; however, this is yet to be confirmed. These proposed phonological patterns have implications for the origins of [lexical similarities with Dogon languages](#).

Next, we see from the additional data in (41) that [a] and, less frequently, [u] is long in the second syllable of a bisyllabic word after [r].

(41) Long Low Final Vowels

	<u>Stem</u>	<u>Gloss</u>
a.	báraá	Baara (village)
b.	báraà	remain
c.	mmàráà	like/want
d.	mmàràà	build
e.	pàràà	amass
f.	síràà	horn
g.	kùráá	birth
h.	súraà	look
i.	túraà	bathe
j.	búruù	seed, kind

I propose that the stems in (41) are underlyingly /CVrV/ and that the final vowel lengthens after [r]. The vowel lengthening rule would be prevented from applying to stems like [ɸùúr-á] ‘kill–RV’ because of the constraint against long vowels in both syllables of a bisyllabic word. Although long vowels do not appear in trisyllabic words, most trisyllabic words with [r] in the final syllable are parsable into a stem plus the [-r] suffix in both [nouns](#) and [verbs](#).

The mid front and back vowels of both [+ATR] and [-ATR] values are in complementary distribution among monosyllabic stems. Long mid front vowels [ee] and [εε] are rare; long mid back vowels [oo] and [ɔɔ] occur more freely. This is examined in detail [below](#).

2.2.3 Vowel Quality

As shown above, disharmonic sequences of vowels may co-occur tautosyllabically. The quality of vowels in polysyllabic words is often predictable. Particularly among [verbs](#), vowels are homogeneous for height and backness throughout the stem, but not for the value [ATR].

There are few productive bound morphemes on nouns; the [plural](#), [augmentative](#), and [diminutive](#) do not trigger or undergo harmony. The vowel of the [-r] suffix undergoes backness and height harmony with root. Examples are shown in (42) suffixed with [-r] when permissible.

(42) Identity Harmony

	<u>Stem</u>	<u>Gloss</u>
a.	gíndí	gums
b.	kérénd-é	slide, slither
c.	pégé-r-è	lean
d.	báŋgá-r-à	carry on shoulder
e.	tóŋó-r-ò	truth
f.	múgúnd-ú	make a fist

Some mid back vowels surface as [–ATR] before the alveolar nasal [n] and rhotic [r], demonstrated in the examples in (43). The mid front vowel also becomes [–ATR] in the same environments, but the tendency is not as robust.

(43) [+ATR] and [–ATR] effects before Sonorants

<u>Rule</u>	<u>Gloss</u>	<u>UR</u>	<u>PR</u>	<u>Exceptions</u>
/o/ → [ɔ]/_n	horse	/bòó/	vòó=ndè	tégò=ndé ‘face’
/o/ → [ɔ]/_n	scythe	/kóó ⁿ /	kóó ⁿ	kóó ⁿ ‘dry.PRF’
/o/ → [ɔ]/_r	bird	/dóré/	dóré+è	tégó=rò ‘face’
/e/ → [ɛ]/_n	wind, air	/pébé/	pévè=ndé	dégé=ndé ‘heads’
/e/ → [ɛ]/_n	agent	/ɛɛ ⁿ /	ɛè ⁿ	péé ⁿ ‘ladder’
/e/ → [ɛ]/_r	wind, air	/pébé/	pévè–rè	nniè–rè ‘woman’

The laxing process even occurs before nasalization, which partially explains why so many monosyllabic words are disharmonic for the feature [ATR]. In bisyllabic words, [r] and [n] are common intervocalic consonants, so the surface [ATR] value of the stem vowel(s) is often affected. There are few productive bound morphemes in the language, so the effects of root-affix vowel harmony are difficult to determine. The nasal-consonant sequence in the plural clitic triggers the change in vowel quality in mid vowels, but a stem-internal nasal-stop sequence usually does not, possibly due to the [status of the nasal](#) in various environments.

Additionally, the contrast between mid vowels may be neutralized before the velar plosive [g]. Minimal pairs are shown in (44).

(44) [+ATR] and [-ATR] effects before Velar Plosive

	<u>Stem</u>	<u>Gloss</u>		<u>Stem</u>	<u>Gloss</u>
a.	bógó	help	aa.	bógó	big, old
b.	kógó	rake (v.)	bb.	kógó	basket
c.	tógò	termite mound	cc.	tógò	carve (gourd)

The reason for some vowels being realized as [-ATR] before [g] and others as [+ATR] before [g] is yet to be determined, but may relate to the origins of the words. The words in the left column are similar to words which in Dogon had word-internal nasals or sonorants. Those in the right column relate to those which have obstruents. Examples of words which illustrate disharmony in [ATR] value of mid vowels after [g] are also found, particularly among [verbs](#).

2.2.4 Nasalization

Nasalization of vowels is only found in monosyllabic words. Many monosyllabic words have nasalized vowels. Since monosyllabic words in isolation consist of long vowels by necessity, it is assumed that both vowels are nasalized although further phonetic measurements need to be performed.³¹ Words with vowels of all qualities contrast on the basis of nasalization alone, but only one word with a long [uu] which was not nasalized was found; it is a borrowing from Bamana (44f). Many of the Bangime words in which nasalization is found have word-final or word-internal sonorants in Dogon.

(45) Minimal pairs: Nasalization

<u>Alternation</u>		<u>Stem</u>	<u>Gloss</u>		<u>Stem</u>	<u>Gloss</u>
ii/ĩĩ	a.	zíí	cry	aa.	zíí ⁿ	blood
iε/ĩẽ	b.	p ^w íè	wife	bb.	p ^w íè ⁿ	leaf

³¹ It is also possible that these vowels are not nasalized but rhotocized or exhibit some other autosegmental property, but measurements need to be performed to determine the quality of the vowels in question.

eɛ/ěě	c.	kéè	thing	cc.	kéè ⁿ	there
aa/ãã	d.	báá	tie	dd.	báá ⁿ	monitor lizard
oo/õõ	e.	vòó	horse	ee.	bòó ⁿ	powder
uu/ũũ	f.	kúù	yam	ff.	kúù ⁿ	egg

The sole factor which predicts nasalization of vowels is word length: no polysyllabic words are found with nasalized vowels unless the word has an impermissible vocalic sequence such as [gàzɛ̃ⁿ] ‘world’. It is likely that the reason for the lack of bisyllabic words with nasalized vowels is due to the underlying representation of nasalization. The nasalized vowels are underlyingly nasal consonants in coda position which are prevented from surfacing word-finally.³² Word-internally, in polysyllabic words, nasals may surface in coda position as is discussed in §2.6. In verbs, a root with nasalized vowels spreads the feature to the [-r] suffix. [Consonants](#), particularly sonorants [ɾ̃ ʝ̃ ỹ̃], may be nasalized word-internally, but whether or not the nasalization is spread to the vowels is yet to be determined.

2.2.5 Vowel Inventory

Based on the above observations, the underlying vowel inventory includes seven short vowels: /i e ɛ a ɔ o u/. Mid vowels may become [-ATR] before nasals and rhotics. The distribution of the mid vowels and the high front vowel is limited. In monosyllabic, but not bisyllabic words, the high front vowel may appear long. Mid vowels become diphthongs consisting of different vowel heights or qualities in both monosyllabic or bisyllabic words. The low and the high back vowel appear as long in the final syllable of a bisyllabic word. It was shown in 2.3.1 that contrastively

³² A secondary hypothesis is that the words with nasalized final vowels were originally bisyllabic and the nasalization represents the remnants of a lost syllable.

nasalized diphthongs and long vowels occur in monosyllabic words. Nasalization is limited to these environments and is not an underlying property of vowels.

2.3 Consonants

The phonemic consonantal inventory is presented in (46) with allophones shown in red and marginal phonemes (those which appear only in borrowings) in blue.

(46) Inventory of consonants

	Bilabial	Alveolar	Post-alveolar	Alveolo-palatal	Palatal	Velar	Labial-Palatal	Labio-velar	Glottal
Plos	p b	t d				k ɡ			
Nasal	m	n			ɲ	ŋ			
Prenas Plos	^m p ^m b	ⁿ t ⁿ d				^ŋ k ^ŋ ɡ			
Fricat		s	ʃ ʒ	ç		ʁ			h
Affric				tʃ					
Approx	v	r			j		ɥ	w	
Nasal Approx		ɹ̃			ʝ			w̃	
Lateral Approx		l							

2.4 Labial Consonants

Labial consonant phonemes are /b p^m b^m p^m m/. The voiced labiodental approximant, [v], is an allophone of a voiced bilabial stop /b/ that may also have an intermediate allophone fricative allophone [β]. The data in (47) illustrate the tendency for /b/ to become [v] before the mid front, [–ATR] vowel [ɛ]. Especially in nouns, before the mid front [–ATR] vowel, the voiced bilabial stop becomes a voiced labiodental approximant. The differences in a prenasalized stop and a nasal-stop sequence are discussed in §2.6.2.

(47) $b \rightarrow v/_\varepsilon$

	<u>Stem</u>	<u>Gloss</u>		<u>Stem</u>	<u>Gloss</u>
a.	póbè-rè	hatch	aa.	pívé-rè	dove
b.	sábé-ré	heal	bb.	pévé-rè	wind
c.	tíbí-rí	fall	cc.	kévèè	there

Other words which surface with an initial [v], but may also be pronounced with [b], are [vòò] ‘field’ and [vòó] ‘horse’. An interaction appears between the rule stated here and the above stated rule that mid vowels become [-ATR] before nasals and rhotics. The word /pibe-ré/ ‘dove’ may appear as either [pívé-rè] or [pívè] in isolation. This suggests that the process which lenites the stop to the approximant before the [-ATR] vowel applies before the underlyingly [+ATR] vowel becomes [-ATR]. The laxing of the mid vowel occurs when the vowel precedes a rhotic or nasal. The [-r] suffix must be added before the vowel or consonant processes occur.

Bilabial stops contrast with prenasalized bilabial stops word-internally. The penultimate [ᵐb] found in many nouns is an allomorph of the [diminutive suffix](#).

(48) [CVmbV] and [CVbV]

	<u>Word</u>	<u>Gloss</u>		<u>Word</u>	<u>Gloss</u>
a.	gómbiè	tunnel	aa.	góbíè	water lettuce
b.	tém+bíè	small rock	bb.	tébé+rè	weigh down
c.	kárám+bè	monkey sp.	cc.	kárábá	calabash sp.

Examples (48b - bb) and (48c) are composed of two morphemes, a noun root and a frozen morpheme which is either altered or deleted in the plural stem. The words (48a - aa) and (48cc) are stems without any parsable morphemes.

The voiceless bilabial stop is commonly found word-initially, with 151 examples found in the corpus. Intervocally, there are 110 words with [p], but only ten words with nasal-stop sequences (49aa, bb) or prenasalized stops [mp] (49cc).

(49) [CVpV]

	<u>Word</u>	<u>Gloss</u>		<u>Word</u>	<u>Gloss</u>
	110 words			10 words	
a.	tòpáá	goat bag	aa.	tómpà	path
b.	dápàrí	machete	bb.	gómpà	push
c.	bèṛé n dīpòò	herb sp.	cc.	góòmpá	step

The word-internal bilabial nasal [m] alternates with a nasalized glide [w̃] through a [phonological alternation](#) (50) and through a [morphological aspectual change](#) (51). The bilabial nasal as a phoneme appears word-initially and word-internally with no restrictions. The bilabial nasal (50a - c) alternates a nasalized vowel (50aa - cc) in the words listed in (50).

(50) [m ~ j]

	<u>Word</u>	<u>Allomorph</u>	<u>Gloss</u>
a.	símà	aa. síjò ⁿ	white adj.
b.	pímà	bb. píjò ⁿ	smell v.
c.	túmá	cc. tóò ⁿ	blacksmith n.

Examples of the alternation for the adjective ‘white’ are found in §7.4. As noted above, no polysyllabic words are found with nasalized vowels, unless, as in these examples, the word is prevented from surfacing with one syllable due to vowel hiatus. Also, nasalization is not a property of vowels. The nasalized variants with word internal glides in (50aa - bb), therefore, are underlyingly monosyllabic but the vowel sequence [iɔ] is banned tautosyllabically. In (50c),

the labialization of the nasal spreads to the low vowel, causing it to become round. A similar process can be seen in the [completive aspect particle](#) and its allomorphs.

A nasal stop cluster alternates with a nasalized approximant via an [aspectual change](#) in verbs. Examples illustrating the alternation are shown in (51).

(51) [mb ~ ã]

	<u>Incompletive</u>	<u>Completive</u>	<u>Gloss</u>
a.	tàm–b–à	tà–ã–à	chew/bite
b.	kám–b–à	ká–ã–à	age
c.	sàm–b–á	sà–ã–á	spray

2.4.1 Coronal Consonants

Coronal consonant phonemes are /d tnd nt n r s ʒ/. Non-assimilated borrowings may contain [l].

Word-internally, the voiced alveolar stop [d] is usually preceded by a nasal. Examples of words which permit the voiced alveolar stop to appear without a nasal intervocalically are listed in (52) with near minimal pairs of prenasalized alveolar stops.

(52) [d ~ nd]

	<u>Word</u>	<u>Gloss</u>		<u>Word</u>	<u>Gloss</u>
	82 words			246 words	
a.	gàdá gádà	hobbles	aa.	gàndà	place
b.	p ^w ídò	stupid	bb.	pónd–ò	search–INC

As noted previously for prenasalized bilabial stops, prenasalized alveolar stops also alternate with nasalized alveolar approximants through an aspectual change. Examples are shown in (53). The inflectional process is explained in detail in Chapter 8.

(53) [nd ~ ñ]

	<u>Incompletive</u>	<u>Completive</u>	<u>Gloss</u>
a.	mmún-d-á	mmú-ñ-á	move into
b.	kón-d-ò	kó-ñ-ò	break (in half)
c.	pún-d-á	pú-ñ-á	(plant) grow
d.	bòn-d-ó	bò-ñ-ó	live

The voiceless alveolar stop rarely occurs in word-medial position. Words with word-medial [t] are listed in (54). One word was found with a nasal followed by a [t] (54e).

(54) [CVtV] : 5 words

	<u>Word</u>	<u>Gloss</u>
a.	bít-á	finish-INC
b.	mmótù	dull
c.	párátì	furtive
d.	tótò	anvil
e.	pántà	spotted

The voiceless alveolar stop [t] alternates with the affricate [tʃ] via a low-level phonetic rule. The affricate appears optionally word-initially before the high front vowel. Words such as [tʃíé] ~ [tíé] ‘grandmother’ and [tʃíè] ~ [tíè] ‘one’ exemplify this process. In a similar manner, the voiceless postalveolar fricative [ʃ] occurs in free variation with the alveolar fricative [s] before the high front vowel as in [síbíè] ~ [ʃíbíè] ‘eye’.

Examples in (55) show the distribution of the voiced postalveolar fricative [ʒ], the prenasalized voiced alveolo-palatal affricate [ʎ], and the voiced palatal glide [j].

(55) [j ~ ʒ ~ dʒ]

	<u>Stem</u>	<u>Gloss</u>		<u>Stem</u>	<u>Gloss</u>
a.	jé-r-ò	get up.PRF	aa.	n ʒìè-wàj	1S stand up-STAT
b.	gàʒé ⁿ	world	bb.	gàndʒà	fonio
c.	kúgúzà	crumple	cc.	kündʒàrá	old (adj. for trees)

The voiced postalveolar fricative never occurs before back, non-high vowels. A palatal glide in word-initial position becomes a postalveolar fricative before high vowels, so that [júmbá-r-à] ‘pull’ is pronounced [ʒúmbá-r-à], and [jìé] ‘honey’ as [ʒìé], but [jàá+mbè] ‘child’ is never *[ʒàá+mbè]. The palatal glide in word-initial position (55a) alternates with a postalveolar fricative after a nasal (55aa). Following a word-internal nasal, (55b - c), an affricate contrasts with the fricative (55bb - cc).

The alveolo-palatal fricative (56a - b) and labial-palatal approximant (56c - e) occur before non-low vowels, but the former also occurs before the low vowel.

(56) [ç] and [ɥ]

	<u>Word</u>	<u>Gloss</u>
a.	ɛùrí	fly
b.	-ɛèè ⁿ	agentive
c.	kúɥì	hair
d.	ɥíè	water
e.	ɥá-ràà	buy.CPL

The liquid [l] is infrequently found in word-initial position and [r] never appears; the former only being found among non-assimilated borrowings such as [lóŋgá] from Bunoge (Dogon) [lówóŋgà], meaning ‘collective hunt’.

As a phoneme, the palatal nasal [ɲ] only occurs before mid back and low vowels [a o ɔ]. A [geminate](#) palatal nasal [ɲɲ] does not occur; instead a palatal nasal is preceded by an alveolar nasal [ɲɲ] if the word is no longer than two syllables (57d).

(57) [ɲ]

	<u>Word</u>	<u>Gloss</u>
a.	ɲògómé	camel
b.	ɲógòndó	write
c.	ɲó ⁿ -éíè ⁿ	vampire
d.	ɲháɲgò	soul
e.	ɲháw	take

2.4.2 Dorsal Consonants

In a manner similar to the voiced bilabial stop, the voiced velar stop (58a - b) spirantizes before [-ATR] vowels, however, unlike the bilabial stop, the velar stop becomes a fricative before back vowels (58aa - bb). The velar stop does not spirantize before a vowel which becomes [-ATR] before a nasal (58c), or an approximant (58d). Certain words, such as (58dd), spirantize the velar stop following a low vowel, but not before a mid vowel (58d). Alternatively, the spirantization could have been caused by the final [ɛ] via a long-distance effect.

(58) [g ~ ɣ]

	<u>Stem</u>	<u>Gloss</u>		<u>Stem</u>	<u>Gloss</u>
a.	tág-ú	agree-PRF	aa.	táy-á	agree-RV
b.	sóg-ú	close-PRF	bb.	sóɣ-ó	close-RV
c.	mógó-nd-ó	ferment	cc.	mòɣ-ó	rot-RV
d.	kégé-rè	mat	dd.	záɣé+è	onion

Verbs with roots which end in a velar stop, such as those shown in examples (58a - c), mark the perfect with a change of vowel for the final suffix rather than the stop-nasal sequence alternating with the nasalized approximant shown for the verbs [above](#).

The velar nasal occurs both word-initially and word-internally, although it is usually followed by a stop word-medially. Word-internally, the voiced velar stop contrasts with the prenasalized voiced velar stop as shown in examples in (59).

(59) [g ~ ŋg]

	<u>Stem</u>	<u>Gloss</u>		<u>Stem</u>	<u>Gloss</u>
a.	páyá-rà	container	aa.	páŋgá-rà	cave
b.	tégó-ró	face, front	bb.	téŋgó-ró	wide
c.	máy-à	shake-RV	cc.	máŋgá-r-à	assemble.PRF

The voiceless velar [k] is restricted to word-internal position with exceptions given in (60). I do not consider compounding to be an active process, but the words in (59b - d) could be combinations of roots plus the word [kéè] ‘thing’, since the syllable structure of the word in (59d) is so unusual for the language. A nasal may precede a voiceless velar stop (59e - f).

(60) [CVkV]

	<u>Stem</u>	<u>Gloss</u>
a.	báákò	beautiful
b.	kòòké	shoe
c.	póóké	soap
d.	ŋórkéè	leopard
e.	dóŋkà	skylight
f.	tóŋkà	hobble

The labio-velar approximant deletes in word-final position as shown in the allomorphs of the incompletedive or copula particle /daw/ and the verb ‘take’ /ɲaw/ in (61).

(61) Deletion of /w/

a.	àà 2.PL	dà INC	àá 2.PL	n T	túráà wash	you (pl) are washing (yourselves)
b.	múwí today	ɲà CONJ	tígé also	àw̃ 2.PL		today me and you (pl)
c.	d ^w àà tree	bógò big	dà COP	kèbé PP		there is a big tree there
d.	sìmèè–bóřó rock=AUG		dàw̃ COP	kèbé PP		there is a big rock there
e.	ɲàá take/pick up		à DEF	tèé (bǎrà tea (kettle	ɲ kò) PP)	take the tea (in the kettle)
f.	ɲàw̃ take/pick up		à DEF	tòòpá goat bag		pick up the goat bag
g.	dà INC	ɲá meat	n T	déřé grill		he is grilling meat
h.	dà INC	ɲàw̃ meat	dèřè grill	ɲw̃ié ⁿ oil	ɲ kó PP	he is grilling meat with oil

The sentence (61a) illustrates that the pronoun /aw/ [2nd person plural] deletes the final /w/ before both consonants. The /w/ remains phrase-finally in (61b). Also note (61a) that the incompletedive particle /daw/ deletes its vowel unexpectedly before the following vowel. Examples (61c - d) show regular and apparent under-application of the glide-deletion process respectively in the copula, thought to be the same particle as the incompletedive /daw/. The sentences (61e - f) are examples of over-application and regular, respectively since the /w/ in the second example is not expected to be deleted before the vowel. The final pair (61g - h) shows

another instance of under-application and regular application before a voiceless stop. Two of the examples above in which the word-final glide is deleted (61a, g) contain a syllabic nasal.

2.4.3 Glottal Consonant

Although the glottal fricative /h/ is included in the phonemic inventory of Bangime, it is generally found only in words borrowed from Fulfulde or Arabic.

(62) [h]

	<u>Stem</u>	<u>Gloss</u>
a.	hù ⁿ	postposition
b.	há ⁿ	irrealis particle
c.	há	until

2.5 Tone

Bangime is a tonal language. There are two privative tones, high and low. The tone-bearing unit is the mora. On monosyllabic words with two morae, level tones may combine to form rising or falling melodies. Rising tones may appear on monomoraic syllables in word-initial position. Rising tones on monomoraic words usually appear after a velar consonant. A phonetic mid tone which is the result of a non-automatic downstep predictably appears on the final syllable of a bisyllabic word when the initial syllable is heavy and carries a high tone. The mid tone represents a downstepped phonemic underlying high tone in this position (cf. péé¹ré (62b) versus déémè (62a), and the absence of HH.H toned CvvCv indicated in (62)).³³

Most stems in Bangime [surface](#) with a pitch change at the syllable or mora break; however, shown in (63), there are exceptions to this generalization. Verbs always surface with a

³³ The possibility that a mid or downstepped tone occurs in lieu of a high tone in other contexts has been explored in depth and I am still debating the issue as the data are variable and thus remain inconclusive. I leave this matter to further research.

[grammatical tone](#) so the generalizations about tonal contrasts are shown mostly on nouns. Some nouns surface with a tone that differs from their underlying tones, as shown in detail in Chapter 3. Stems which contrast solely on the basis of tone are typically found among monosyllabic stems (63a - e, aa - ee), but examples of bisyllabic words with the [frozen nominal suffix](#) which contrast for tone alone are shown in (63f - ff).

(63) Minimal Pairs: Tone

<u>Contrast</u>		<u>Stem</u>	<u>Gloss</u>	<u>Stem</u>	<u>Gloss</u>
<u>Vowels</u>	<u>Tone</u>	<u>Monosyllabic</u>			
éè/èè	HL/LL	a.	téè	straight	aa. tèè forge.3SG
íé/ìè	HH/LL	b.	b ^w íé	red	bb. b ^w ìè mosquito
àá/àà	LH/LL	c.	nnàá	wilderness	cc. nnàà cow
òó/òò	LH/LL	d.	vòó	horse	dd. vòò field
ùú ⁿ /ùù ⁿ	LH/HL	e.	kùú ⁿ	hip	ee. kùù ⁿ market
<u>Vowels</u>	<u>Tone</u>	<u>Bisyllabic</u>	<u>Gloss</u>	<u>Stem</u>	<u>Gloss</u>
CV.Cíè/CV.Cíé	HHL/LHL	f.	zèmbíè	bag	ff. zèmbíè road

Excluding [grammatical](#) and [underlying tone](#), surface tonal contrasts are mostly found among monosyllabic stems. The reason for this is hypothesized to be that, in polysyllabic words, a change in tone usually occurs somewhere in the word. That is, a word with more than one syllable with an underlyingly /H/ tone emerges as [HL] rather than [HH].

2.5.1 Tonal Correspondences with Syllable Structure

Tone does not seem to correspond with the height or backness of the vowel but does show correspondances with the syllable structure of the word. Section 2.6 describes the syllable structures present in the language. Monosyllabic words may have high, low, or a combination of

high-low or low-high tones. Each mora bears a tone. The vowel [ɛ] which is found among many nouns is analyzed as being a frozen suffix bearing a low tone. Monosyllabic words which begin with a high tone are more common than those which begin with a low tone. An equal number of falling and high toned monosyllabic words are found; almost an equal number of rising and low toned words are found. Examples are shown in (64).

(64) Surface Tones on Monosyllabic [CVV] Words

Word	a. béè	b. b́ó	c. v̀òó	d. nnàà
Gloss	gerbil	father	horse	cow
PR	HL	HH	LH	LL
Frequency	17 words	17 words	4 words	5 words

Most monosyllabic words with nasalized vowels have level high tones. As with monosyllabic words with oral vowels, words with an initial high tone are more common than words which begin with a low tone. As mentioned [above](#), all but one word with a long [u] is nasalized. Examples are shown in (65).

(65) Surface Tones on Monosyllabic Nasalized [CVVⁿ] Words

Word	a. túù ⁿ	b. báá ⁿ	c. bàá ⁿ	d. nnì ⁿ
Gloss	ant	lizard	knife	mouse
PR	HL	HH	LH	LL
Frequency	9 words	12 words	6 words	5 words

There are few bisyllabic words with level tones. Bisyllabic words with level high tones are less common than those with level low tones. The most common tonal melody on bisyllabic words is a high-low sequence with a high tone on the first syllable and a low tone on the second syllable. Examples are shown in (66).

(66) Surface Tones on Bisyllabic [CV.CV] Words

Word	a.	páyà	b.	téró	c.	bùfá	d.	njàrà
Gloss		container		show		stick		God
PR		HL		HH		LH		LL
Frequency		18 words		2 words		11 words		8 words

Bisyllabic words with a final long vowel have an overall preference for a high tone on the ‘root’ (the stem minus the frozen affix) and a low tone on the frozen affix, as shown in examples like (59b). Many bisyllabic nouns with long final vowels have a [diminutive](#) [+ε] frozen suffix which bears a low tone. Most bisyllabic nouns with final long vowels and trisyllabic words with the sequence [Vr] end with a low tone on the final syllable.

Tonal melodies which occur infrequently are shown in (67). No words with tones *[HHH], *[LLL], [*LLH], or *[HLH] were obtained among the words collected with the syllable structure [CV.CVV]. Since there are no bisyllabic words with long vowels without a contour melody, I suggest that these words must have at least one high and one low tone, and that words which are underlyingly /HHH/ emerge as [HH.[!]H]. The locus of the tone or pitch change is at the syllable boundary for stems without frozen suffixes (67a, c) and at the morpheme boundary for words with a frozen suffix (67b, d).

(67) Surface Tones on Bisyllabic [CV.CVV] Words

Word	a.	bíròdò	b.	bíréè	c.	tòpáá	d.	gùwíè
Gloss		shrub sp.		flame		goat bag		earth
PR		H.LL		H.HL		L.HH		L.HL
Frequency		1 words		13 words		1 word		2 words

The diminutive frozen suffix variants [+mɛ] and [+bɛ] typically occur in bisyllabic words with an initial long vowel that surfaces with the tonal melody [HHL]. This suggests that most monosyllabic roots (i.e. without the diminutive suffix) are high toned, as was shown for monosyllabic stems above in (64). One word was found with the tonal melody [HLH], [gòòmpá] ‘step’. The only all low toned word found was the number ‘three’ [tààrò]. Therefore, as with bisyllabic words with a long final vowel, those with a long initial vowel also have at least one high and one low tone. Similarly, the locus of the change in pitch is at the syllable boundary (68c) or the morpheme boundary for nouns with frozen suffixes (68a, e).³⁴

(68) Surface Tones on Bisyllabic Words [CVV.CV]

Word	a. déémè	b. péé'ré	c. kòòké	d. tààrò	e. nniéré
Gloss	millet grain	a lot	shoe	three	woman
PR	HH.L	HH.M	LL.H	LL.L	LH.L
Frequency	10 words	3 words	3 words	1 word	2 words

Trisyllabic words are often suffixed with the frozen suffix [+rV] where [V] is an underspecified vowel. The frozen suffix is usually low (68a), but may also surface as high (68d). As with the stems presented thus far, most trisyllabic words begin with a high tone. Level low toned trisyllabic words are uncommon, with only one word found in the corpus, and level high toned trisyllabic words were not found. As with bisyllabic words, the tonal melody *[H.L.H] is not found among trisyllabic stems. The majority of trisyllabic words follow the same pattern as other stems: the locus of the change in pitch is either at a morpheme boundary (68a) or at the final syllable boundary (68b). The examples like (68d) are exceptions to these generalizations.

³⁴ The evidence for these nouns being interpreted as having frozen suffixes is shown in Chapter 2.

(69) Surface Tones on Trisyllabic Words [CV.CV.CV]

Word	a. gíwàrà	b. zòrògú	c. tàyàrà	d. tùkú-rú
Gloss	hat	chain	window frame	buttock
PR	H.H.L	L.L.H	L.L.L	L.H.H
Frequency	18 words	3 words	1 word	2 words

A bisyllabic word with an initial high tone and a long vowel or a word-internal nasal-consonant sequence often surfaces with a downstepped tone on the second syllable. The downstepped tone is analyzed as a process of tone lowering of an underlying H-tone after a heavy syllable, since word-internal nasals after consonants are treated as syllable codas in bisyllabic words. Non-derived downstepped tones are not found among trisyllabic words, but [diminutive-plural](#) noun stems often arise with a downstepped tone on the diminutive suffix.

(70) Predictable Downstepped Tone

	<u>Stem</u>	<u>Gloss</u>
a.	póó'ré	black
b.	bén'dé	long
c.	dóm'bó	hole
d.	dám'bá	fill

2.5.2 Tone generalizations

The tonal contours found among Bangime words are as follows: HL is very common and LH occurs but is less common. Words with level low and high tones which are not [grammatical](#) tones are most often found on monosyllabic words. The tonal melody [LHL] occurs often but *[HLH] is unattested, except in one word. Most words which have a high-low tonal melody in which the low tone is on the final mora have either the lexicalized diminutive or frozen [-r]

suffix, suggesting that the root of such words is underlyingly high, the suffix low. The tone of words without a frozen suffix is not predictable. If a word does not contain a frozen suffix, but does have a change in pitch, the locus of the pitch change is at final syllable boundary.

2.6 Syllables

Most content words consist of (1) one syllable with two morae, (2) two syllables with either a light-light, light-heavy, or heavy-light combination, or (3) three syllables, all of which are light. There is a minimal word constraint of two morae, and a maximal word constraint of three syllables. Onsetless syllables are uncommon and codas do not occur word-finally. [Homorganic nasals](#) which precede a word are pervasive in the language, both as morphological markers and as phonologically determined segments. Syllable onsets word-initially show a preference for less sonorous segments whereas onsets word-internally are more sonorous.

2.6.1 Minimal Word

Most words with only one mora are not permitted in isolation. Clitics, affixes, and [certain verb stems](#) may appear as monosyllabic with one mora.³⁵ All monosyllabic words, excluding particles and grammatical markers, have either long vowels or a vowel-glide combination in isolation. A monosyllabic word which has an underlying short vowel is compensated by lengthening or adding another mora in isolation. The underlying form of a monosyllabic word can be viewed when it is preceded or followed by a segment which contributes to the weight of the syllable or the word, such as the [plural marker](#). The examples in (71) are all the words in the

³⁵ There are some verb stems with the [+ATR] mid, back vowel [o] which may surface as CV in the incomplete aspect. Examples include [so] 'know', [wo] 'go', and [no] 'hear'. The fact that only [+ATR] mid, back vowels may surface in monomoraic environments likely has a correlation with the fact that mid, back vowel diphthongs are less common than front vowel diphthongs in that the mid, front vowels must arise as bimoraic diphthongs where mid, back vowels may arise as a single vowel.

language which were found to be underlyingly monosyllabic, as can be seen when the stem is followed by the plural clitic; these words surface with two morae in the singular.

(71) Minimal Words with Monomoraic Roots

	<u>Singular</u>		<u>Plural</u>	<u>Gloss</u>
a.	nnì	aa.	nnì=ndé	hand
b.	ʒíí	bb.	ʒí=ndè	root
c.	tíí ⁿ	cc.	tí=ndè	tail
d.	kíí ⁿ	dd.	kí=ndè	canoe
e.	bíí ⁿ	ee.	bí=ndè	goat
f.	péé ⁿ	ff.	pé=ndè	ladder
g.	kóò	gg.	kó=ndè	house
h.	tóò	hh.	tó=ndè	ppl of Demangari (village)

Most of the underlyingly monosyllabic words in the language consist of high, front vowels (71a - e), many are nasalized (71c - f), and most have high tones (71a - f). The example (71g) shifts from [+ATR] to [-ATR] since, as noted previously, most mid back vowels become [-ATR] before a nasal (with the singular example in (71f) being an exception).

2.6.2 Syllable Structure

Many words in Bangime have identical vowels in each syllable, as discussed in detail [previously](#).

While sonorous consonants are rarely found word initially, non-sonorous consonants can be found both word-initially and word-internally.

(72) Frequency Consonant Distribution by Syllable Environment

	<u>Word-Initial</u>	<u>Frequency</u>	<u>Word-Internal</u>	<u>Frequency</u>
a.	#r	0 words	VrV	777 words
b.	#w	50 words	VwV	327 words
c.	#j	101 words	VjV	263 words
d.	#n	173 words	VnV	57 words
e.	#g	136 words	VgV	299 words
f.	#b	193 words	VbV	212 words
g.	#d	207 words	VdV	82 words
h.	#s	234 words	VsV	147 words

The following give examples of each type of syllable found in Bangime. The [predictability of vowel length](#) indicates that many words, especially nouns, have long final vowels, and trisyllabic stems have short vowels.

Onsetless words are very uncommon in the language. The list in (73) constitutes all the words thus far found without onsets (aside from non-integrated borrowings from Arabic).

(73) Onsetless Syllables

<u>Syllable Structure</u>		<u>Particle</u>	<u>Gloss</u>
V	a.	à	DEF
	b.	á	CHAIN
	c.	á	2 nd SG
	d.	áà	2 nd PL
V.CV	e.	ímà	here

Many words which begin with a nasal are preceded by another nasal. The pre-word nasal can be either a [grammatical marker](#) or a predictably occurring segment. Monosyllabic words which begin with a nasal (74a - b) are preceded by a nasal. A velar nasal precedes most words which begin with the glide [w] (74c - d). Bisyllabic words having two light syllables and an initial nasal (74e - f) are preceded by a nasal. Bisyllabic words having heavy syllables with initial nasals have a preceding nasal (74g - h). Geminate nasals are possible word-internally (74i - j), but words with word-internal geminate nasals are not preceded by an initial nasal (74j).

Nasals which follow stops word-internally in bisyllabic words with short vowels are moraic (74k - l). But are prenasalized stops in bisyllabic words with long vowels in either syllable or trisyllabic words (74m - r). Trisyllabic words usually have word-internal prenasalized stops in the penultimate syllable. Initial nasals in trisyllabic words are not geminate nasals, for example [námbórò] ‘resources’. Despite the restrictions on an initial geminate nasal, the initial nasal seems to not contribute to the weight of the syllable since underlyingly monosyllabic words such as /nni/ ‘hand’ surface with a long vowel [nnii]. No nasals bear independent tones, i.e., if viewed on a spectrogram, it is clear that a nasal merely carries the tone of the preceding segment, which in all cases is a tone-bearing unit.

(74) Nasals

<u>Syllable Structure</u>		<u>Word</u>	<u>Gloss</u>	<u>Frequency</u>
N.NVV	a.	n.nìè	yesterday	13 words
	b.	n.nàá	wilderness	
ŋ.wV	c.	ŋ.wí.mà	twist	4 words
	d.	ŋ.wó ⁿ	walk	
N.NV.CV	e.	m.mí.rò	bee	12 words
	f.	n.nó.rè	hear	
N.NV.CV	g.	n.nòò.rè	bone	23 words

	h.	n.niè.rè	woman	
CVN.NV	i.	vìm.mè	heart	2 words
	j.	m.mìn.ná	door	
CVN.CV	k.	tàŋ.kó	garden egg	30 words
	l.	dám.bá	fill	
CVN.CVV	m.	kán.dèè	husband	5 words
	n.	kíŋ.gèè	skin	
CVV.NCV	o.	jáá.mbè	child	2 words
	p.	gòò.mpá	step	
CV.NCV.CV	q.	gú.mbá.rà	wasp	21 words
	r.	pó.mbó.rò	ditch	

Glides are found in coda position. Monosyllabic words must surface as bimoraic with a mora being a vowel or a glide.

(75) Monosyllabic Words

<u>Syllable Type</u>		<u>Stem</u>	<u>Gloss</u>	<u>Frequency</u>
CVG	a.	káw	it	35 words
	b.	déw	mar	
CGV	c.	kwà	throat	2 words
	d.	kwà	able	
CVG ⁿ	e.	gáw ⁿ	good	1 word
CVV	f.	kèè	thing	73 words
	g.	uíé	moon	
CVV ⁿ	h.	bí ⁿ	goat	44 words
	i.	zòò ⁿ	rain, sky	
C ^G VV	j.	b ^w èè	leg	45 words
	k.	d ^w àà	tree	
C ^G VV ⁿ	l.	p ^w íè ⁿ	leaf	8 words
	m.	t ^w í ⁿ	bud, flower	

The glide [w] often appears in moraic position. All the words with [w] in moraic position also contain the low vowel [a]. The reason for this may be because [w] is the surface form of [o/ɔ] since the low and mid back vowels *[ao], *[oa] do not combine to form diphthongs. The glide [j] does not often appear in moraic position, but the [stative suffix](#), [-wɛ] ~ [-waj] is an exception. Co-articulation is noted above, but, like nasalization, most stems with labialization (75j - m) are monosyllabic.

Bisyllabic words have a long vowel in either the first (76a - b) or second syllable (76c - d). Two exceptions (76e - f) are found; the second is a diminutive form of [koa] ‘fig’.

(76) Bisyllabic Words with Heavy Syllables

<u>Syllable Structure</u>		<u>Stem</u>	<u>Gloss</u>	<u>Frequency</u>
CV.CVV	a.	pé.réè	key	23 words
	b.	bá.ráà	remain	
CVV.CV	c.	póó.rò	cloud	23 words
	d.	níí.rù	breathe	
CVV.CVV	e.	síí.bíè	eye	2 words
	f.	kóà.bèè	agave sp.	

Some bisyllabic and all trisyllabic words have light syllables.

(77) Polysyllabic Words with Light Syllables

<u>Syllable Structure</u>		<u>Stem</u>	<u>Gloss</u>	<u>Frequency</u>
CV.CV	a.	bò.rò	tomorrow	57 words
	b.	dé.gè	head	
CV.CV.CV	c.	gí.wà.rà	hat	24 words
	d.	pá.gà.rà	container	

I hypothesize that all morphemes were originally maximally one syllable. This can be viewed in the limited morphology of the language; many polysyllabic words have frozen affixes.

Further, nasals serve to connect constituents, clitics, or a phrase, so the nasals found word-internally could have once been grammatical markers between two words.

2.6.3 Clitics and Affixes

The determining factors for discerning whether a morpheme is a clitic or an affix in Bangime are syllable structure and the ability of other morphemes to intervene. Content words which are unbound in Bangime include nouns and verbs. Adjectives must follow a ‘dummy’ noun [kî], which is a monosyllabic allomorph of the bisyllabic [kéê]. On nouns, the plural is considered to be a clitic because it follows adjectives rather than a noun directly in a [noun phrase](#). However, the segmental and tonal properties of the plural marker tie it closely to the noun root in the manner outlined in Chapter 4. Some nouns also are conjoined with frozen affixes shown in Chapter 4 as well.

Other inflectional morphemes which follow the noun in the noun phrase are the diminutive and augmentative. The diminutive is a suffix. The diminutive has segmental allomorphs which are determined by the noun root. The diminutive has a low tone which interacts with a noun root. The augmentative, on the other hand, is not a suffix or a clitic, but a bound word. Derived from the adjective [bogo], the augmentative [bõño] follows a noun directly and no morphemes may intervene between it and the noun root.³⁶ The augmentative morpheme does not contribute to the syllabicity of the noun root; it is toneless like the plural clitic and receives a polar tone to that of the noun root. The augmentative behaves similarly to an adjective in that it causes the genitive marker to be deleted in a [genitive phrase](#).

The morphemes which precede a nouns are the definite marker, a set of possessive pronouns, and the genitive nasal. If one of the possessive prefixes or the definite marker

³⁶ The possible Dogon counterpart of this word is [gara], ‘big’, or [gàrà-řá] ‘to make smth bigger’, from Jamsay.

precedes a noun which begins with an initial nasal-nasal sequence, the initial nasal deletes.

Otherwise, the syllabicity of the noun stem is unaffected. Since none of these morphemes affect the syllabicity of the noun stem, none is considered a bound affix. These markers, save for the genitive nasal, have tones which interact with the noun in the manner shown in Chapter 5.

Associated with verbs are inflectional suffixes, described in Chapter 8, and derivational suffixes, analyzed in Chapter 9. Verb particles expressing tense, aspect, and mood distinctions, discussed in Chapter 9, are affected by the subject pronouns tonally and segmentally, but do not affect the verbs they precede.

As noted, a nasal precedes many nouns and verbs. The first and third person pronouns may be represented as a nasal preceding objects, verbs or verb particles. The pronoun nasal does not bear tone independent of the word it precedes. The pronoun nasal does not contribute to the syllabicity of a noun or a verb; however, it does appear to affect the verb particle in the manner outlined in Chapter 8. The pronoun nasal is considered to be more closely bound to the verb particle than it is to content words, nouns and verbs. The transitive marker, also a nasal, is shown to affect the syllabicity of the verb stem in Chapter 14.

The table in (78) summarizes the properties of the bound morphemes found in Bangime.

(78) Bound Morphemes

	<u>Syllabicity</u>	<u>VH</u>	<u>Intervene</u>	<u>Deletes</u>	<u>Tone Bearing</u>	<u>Tone Effects</u>	<u>Type</u>
GEN	no	no	no	yes	no	no	proclitic
POSS	no	no	no	no	yes	yes	bound word
DEF	no	no	no	no	yes	yes	bound word
AGENT	yes	no	no	no	yes	yes	suffix
DIM	yes	no	no (?)	no	yes	yes	suffix
AUG	no	no	no	no	yes	no	bound word
PL	yes	no	yes	no	yes	no	enclitic
ADJ	no	yes	yes	no	yes	no	bound word
TRANS	yes	no	no	no	no	no	prefix
Sbj-N/V	no	no	no	no	no	no	—

Sbj-TAM	yes	no	no	no	no	yes	prefix
INC	yes	no	yes	no	yes	yes	——
CPL	yes	no	no	no	yes	yes	——
NEG	no	no	yes	no	yes	yes	clitic

2.6.4 Generalizations about the Syllable

There is a minimal word constraint in Bangime: a word must have at least two morae.

Disyllabic footing is binary, with most words consisting of a light-light, heavy-light or light-heavy combination. Trisyllabic syllables are limited to one mora per syllable.

The phonotactics of the language determine the available syllable types in Bangime, and many phonological processes occur at syllable boundaries rather than at morpheme boundaries, as the language has little affixal morphology.

2.7 Summary of Features

The vowel inventory of Bangime consists of seven vowels with length and nasalization being largely, but not entirely, predictable. Front vowels often combine to make diphthongs. Tense or [+ATR] mid vowels become lax or [–ATR] before sonorants. Due to the lack of affixal processes, most phonological effects are seen word-medially at syllable boundaries. Word-initially, syllable onsets are limited to the less sonorous consonants. Word-internally, or intervocalically, consonants may be lenited to become more sonorous. Onsetless syllables are very rare and syllable codas limited to syllable position. Consonants may be pre-nasalized, nasalized, or labialized. Tone is determined grammatically or by frozen suffixes.

Chapter 3. Nouns Types

3.1 Noun Roots

As shown in the previous chapter, the number of possible words in Bangime is limited by vowel quality, vowel length, syllable structure, and tonal melody. The first type of word to be examined in detail is nouns. The affixal and tonal patterns found on nouns are less complex than those found on verbs. Bare noun roots never surface without a tonal melody and, in some cases, are followed by a suffix or clitic. The noun stem, therefore, consists of a noun root plus a tonal melody, and sometimes a frozen or productive noun suffix or a clitic. The underlying tones and segmental forms of noun roots may be determined from their tonal and vocalic behavior in a stem. Permissible noun stems are shown in (79).

(79) Noun Stems

- | | | | |
|----|------|---------------------------------|--------|
| a. | noun | =ndε ~ =nε | |
| | ROOT | PLURAL | |
| b. | noun | +ε | |
| | ROOT | frozen or productive diminutive | |
| c. | noun | +mi | =ndε |
| | ROOT | DIMINUTIVE | PLURAL |
| d. | noun | -r | |
| | ROOT | frozen suffix | |
| e. | noun | ∅/*-r | =ndε |
| | ROOT | | PLURAL |
| f. | noun | -bɔ̃ŋo | |
| | ROOT | AUGMENTATIVE | |
| g. | noun | -bɔ̃ŋo | =ndε |
| | ROOT | AUGMENTATIVE | PLURAL |

The derivational morphemes, the diminutive and the augmentative are expressed with a suffix and a bound morpheme respectively. The plural is an inflectional morpheme, which is a clitic. Noun roots may surface in the singular with either a frozen or lexicalized diminutive suffix (79b) or a semi-frozen [-r] suffix with an undetermined meaning (79d). These markers are mutually exclusive; a noun does not surface with both a lexicalized diminutive and the [-r] suffix. The plural marker can follow the diminutive (79c) or the augmentative (79g), but not the [-r] suffix (79d). The productive diminutive suffix has the same shape as the lexicalized diminutive in both the singular and plural.

Because the plural and augmentative stems show the underlying tone of a word, noun stems are examined in detail in this chapter. The plural clitic also shows the underlying vowel length. First, in §3.2, noun roots are shown with the plural clitic to illustrate the segmental behavior and categorization of underlying noun roots. Next, in §3.3, noun stems are examined again with the plural clitic so as to understand the underlying tonal melodies found on noun roots. Section 3.4 illustrates the noun root with the augmentative. Lastly, §3.5 gives a summary of noun root types before discussing noun suffixes in the following chapter.

3.2 Noun Stems

Noun stems are categorized into six types based on segmental and [tonal](#) attributes. Examples of each type are shown in the subsections below with further examples found in the [appendix](#).

There is no agreement in nouns between the suffix or clitic it receives and other constituents in the noun phrase, except in two cases, the diminutive, and the plural in complementizer phrases.

Nouns types do not seem to fit into semantic categories.^{37/38}

(80) Segmental Categories of Nouns

Noun Type	Singular	Plural	Noun Type	Singular	Plural
I.	–∅	=nε	II.	V ⁿ	= ⁿ dε
III.	ε	=nε	IV.	+ε	–mi=nε
V.	r	r=nε	VI.	–r	=nε

Noun Types III and V involve frozen or lexical [ε] or [r], so [r] deletion before the plural does not apply to category V. The diminutive suffix, frozen or productive, surfaces as [mi] before the plural clitic in noun type IV. The plural clitic depends on the final tone of the preceding morpheme for its tone; it is always the polar opposite.

3.2.1 Plural Allomorphy

The plural has two segmental allomorphs, [ndε] and [nε]. The two plural allomorphs seem to be in free variation, as most words were recorded pronounced with either form, even by the same speaker. The most common instance of the plural clitic is [ndε] so the forms which were given with [nε] are underlined or highlighted in blue throughout the manuscript, and are listed in (81).

³⁷ The concept of ‘animacy’ is somewhat vague in Bangime due to the speakers’ animistic heritage. Nouns are described as being either ‘dead’ or ‘alive’. For example, shoes are merely dead animal’s skins or a table represents a tree which was once alive. The only noun thus far found in the language that is specifically indicated as being inanimate, ‘never alive’, is a culturally unmentionable object for the Bangande and thus cannot be stated explicitly here.

³⁸ While there is no overt gender distinction in Bangime, all nouns are considered either male or female, husband and spouse, except ‘sky’, ‘earth’, and ‘water’ which consist of both genders. These relations are determined spatially; all male objects are above female ones. For example, even though ‘breast’ is inherently female, in Bangime [súqè] ‘breast’ is male with his wife being [kǒrèè] ‘stomach’. More of these relations are found in the lexicon, available at <http://dogonlanguages.org/>.

(81) [nɛ] Plural in Nouns

	<u>Singular</u>	<u>Plural</u>	<u>Gloss</u>
a.	kíɛ̀	kíɛ̀=ɛ̀nɛ̀	luggage, belongings
b.	dʷíɛ̀	dʷíɛ̀=ɛ̀nɛ̀	clay
c.	záà	záà=ɛ̀nɛ̀	death
d.	kóó ⁿ	kóó=ɛ̀nɛ̀	pestle
e.	góò ⁿ	góò=ɛ̀nɛ̀	man
f.	kóò ⁿ	kóó=ɛ̀nɛ̀	scythe
g.	bíí ⁿ	bíí=ɛ̀nɛ̀	goat
h.	sáɣì	sáɣì=ɛ̀nɛ̀	eighth
i.	tàŋà	tàŋà=ɛ̀nɛ̀	ear
j.	kúrí	kúrí=ɛ̀nɛ̀	dust
k.	kómè	kómè=ɛ̀nɛ̀	slave
l.	kóórò	kóórò=ɛ̀nɛ̀	fetish
m.	málpá	málpá=ɛ̀nɛ̀	rifle
n.	páŋgà	páŋgá=ɛ̀nɛ̀	cave
o.	kúndù	kúndú=ɛ̀nɛ̀	log
p.	síɣòó	síɣòó=ɛ̀nɛ̀	day
q.	gùzèè	gùzèè=ɛ̀nɛ̀	weed
r.	gèŋgíɛ̀	gèŋgíɛ̀=ɛ̀nɛ̀	metal
s.	gèŋgíɛ̀	gèŋgíɛ̀=ɛ̀nɛ̀	crocodile

t.	déémè	déémé=nè	seed	
u.	dúúgú	dúúgú=nè	forest	
v.	nnòò.rè	nnòò.rè=né	bone	
w.	góòmpá	góòmpà=né	step	
x.	gìwàrà	gìwàrà=né	hat	
y.	táyàrà	táyàrà=né	Fulani house	
z.	kùrùbé	kurubε=nε	guts, basket	
aa.	góòmpá	góòmpà=né	step	
bb.	gúmbára	gúmbára=nè	wasp	
cc.	nàmbàrà	nàmbàrà=né	trick	
dd.	kùwómbè	kùwómbè-mé=nè	aardvark	
ee.	gúmbè jágáè	gùmbé=nè jáyáè	wild onion	
ff.	zèèja púřá	zèèjá púřá=nè	lazy	
gg.	gàndzà	gàndzà-bóřó=nè	fonio	
hh.	mmírò	mmíró=nè m páyá	bees' hive	
ii.	ma-řa	mà=né	mermaid	
jj.	púndá-rà	púndi=né	weed	
kk.	tómbó-rò	tómbó=nè	dry place	
ll.	n nié-rè	n nié=nè	woman	
mm.	ηàmbà-rá	ηηámbā=nè	sheep	
nn.	jàá+ mbè	jáá=nè	child	
oo.	zìbéé	jìbè=né	person	

pp.	bám̀bàrà	bàmbàrà=nè	Bambara	
qq.	bòndí	bòndì=né	Bondu	
rr.	kòrò b̀r̀r̀	kòrò b̀r̀r̀=né	Songhai	
ss.	pú̀ndà	pú̀ndé-è	pú̀r̀à=né	Fulani
tt.	kómè	kómé=né	slave	
uu.	póó'ré	kì póó'ré=né	African	
vv.	bàŋgà, bààŋí-jé	bàŋà=né	Banga	
ww.	tùbàkú	tùbàkù=né	Toubab	
xx.	pùùtá	pùùtá=né	Fulani enslaver	
yy.	púúndà	p ^w ándà=né	Fulani	
zz.	tóò	tóó=né	Tommo	

The plural clitic is one of many morphemes which alternates between a nasal and a nasal-stop sequence. Many of the nouns listed with the [nɛ] morpheme may also appear with the [ndɛ] allomorph. Many nouns, presented in §3.2.5 below, have a lexicalized diminutive suffix which, in the plural stem, surfaces as [mi]. The nouns which have a lexicalized diminutive suffix never surface with the [nɛ] plural, always with the [ndɛ] allomorph.

3.2.2 Segmental Type One (-∅, =nɛ)

The first segmental type consists of nouns with no suffixation in the singular and either the suffix [=ndɛ] or [=nɛ] in the plural. The tonal alternations on the plural clitic are discussed [below](#).

Examples of nouns which are categorized into Type One are shown in (82).

(82) Segmental Type One: 281 Nouns

	<u>Singular</u>	<u>Plural</u>	<u>Gloss</u>
a.	tóḁ	tó=ndè	ppl of Demangari (village)
b.	nnàà	nnàà=ndé	cow
c.	kìwó	kìwò=ndé	firestarter
d.	dóm ^h bó	dómbò=ndé	hole
e.	tòpáá	tòpáá=ndè	goat bag

Type one nouns are of any [permissible word length](#), monomoraic and monosyllabic (82a), bimoraic and monosyllabic (82b), bisyllabic (82c), bisyllabic with word-internal nasal-stop sequence (82d), or bisyllabic with a long final vowel (82e). Trisyllabic type one nouns are less common. Mid vowels become [-ATR] before a nasal (82a, c - d) as discussed in detail in [Chapter 2](#). All the final vowels of the nouns in Type One are oral vowels.

3.2.3 Segmental Type Two (Vⁿ, =ndɛ)

Type Two nouns all have a nasalized vowel. There are no polysyllabic words with [nasalized vowels](#). Although the plural clitic may appear as [=nɛ] or [=ndɛ] on most words, it appears as [=ndɛ] following nasalized nouns. The nasalization of the vowel is redundant before the plural clitic and is thus not marked.

(83) Segmental Type Two: 83 Nouns

	<u>Singular</u>	<u>Plural</u>	<u>Gloss</u>
a.	sòḁ ⁿ	sò=ndé	shirt, clothing
b.	tóḁ ⁿ	tóḁ=ndé	blacksmith
c.	póḁ ⁿ	póḁ=ndé	meal
d.	péé ⁿ	pé=ndè	ladder

e.	t ^w éé ⁿ	t ^w éé=ndè	basket (small)
f.	nnìì ⁿ	nnìì=ndé	mouse
g.	t ^w íí ⁿ	t ^w íí=ndé	flower

[Recall](#) that a minimal word requirement prevents a monomoraic word from surfacing, but before the plural clitic, a word may surface with one vowel, as in the examples (83a, d). The words in noun Type Two are organized together because these all have nasalized vowels. One explanation is that nasalized words are underlyingly /CVN/ but surface as [CVV] since codas are prevented from surfacing. The nasalization from the noun root spreads to the plural clitic which, instead of emerging with a geminate nasal, dissimilates to [nd].

3.2.4 Segmental Type Three (Cε, =nε)

Type Three and Type Four noun roots end in a sequence which is homophonous with the [diminutive](#) suffix. All stem lengths are possible in Type Three except monomoraic, monosyllabic stems.

(84) Segmental Type Three: 116 Nouns

	<u>Singular</u>	<u>Plural</u>	<u>Gloss</u>
a.	kíè	kíè=ndé	branch
b.	b ^w íè	b ^w íè=ndé	mosquito
c.	nníé	nníé=ndè	milk
d.	géŋgíè	géŋgíé=ndè	salt
e.	kómè	kómé= <u>n</u> è	slave
f.	gǐmèè	gǐmèè=ndé	watermelon
g.	déémè	déémé= <u>n</u> è	seed
h.	sàgòmè	sàgòmè=ndé	letter

i.	v̀immè	v̀immè=ndé	heart
j.	síbíè	síbíé=ndè	eye
k.	dórómbíè	dórómé=ndè	clay

Some nouns in both Type Three and Type Four delete one of the final vowels of the stem before the plural suffix. As noted above, nouns may alternate between the two plural clitic allomorphs [nɛ] and [ndɛ], in seemingly free variation. If an informant indicated that one variant was preferred to the other, it is marked with the preferred variant and is underlined.

Many nouns end with a long vowel or a diphthong. As noted above, the minimal word requirement that a word have at least two morae is not necessarily met before the plural clitic. Similarly, nouns with long vowels or diphthongs are often shortened before the plural marker. Minimal pairs in (85) show three possibilities: the high front vowel of the final diphthong deletes in the plural but the vowel quality is unchanged (a), the same vowel deletes and the vowel quality changes (b), or no deletion occurs (c). The reason for these differences is unknown at this time.

(85) Vowel Deletion

	<u>Singular</u>	<u>Plural</u>	<u>Gloss</u>
a.	gěŋgíè	gěŋgé=ndè	metal
b.	gèŋgíè	gèŋgé=nè	crocodile
c.	géŋgíè	géŋgíé=ndè	salt

Further examples of vowel deletion (85a - c, f) or changes in vowel height (85d - e) in the plural form are shown in (86).

(86) Vowel Deletion or Raising before Plural

	<u>Singular</u>	<u>Plural</u>	<u>Gloss</u>
a.	bír _{ɛ̃} è	bír _{ɛ̃} =ndè	fire
b.	kù _{ɪ̃} é	kù _{ɪ̃} é=ndè	calabash
c.	gù _{wɪ̃} è	gù _{wɪ̃} é=ndè	earth
d.	nnèè	nnèè=ndé	sun
e.	p ^w í _{ɛ̃} ⁿ	p ^w é _{ɛ̃} =ndè	leaf
f.	kárán _{gɪ̃} è	kárán _{gɪ̃} é=ndè	shroud, trap

The changes in vowel height before the plural clitic differ, compare (86d) with (86e), depending on whether or not the final vowel of the word is nasalized. The [agentive suffix](#) also changes the height of the vowels in the morpheme from /ii/ following words without nasalization to [iɛ] or [eɛ] following words with nasalization.

Consonants are also sometimes deleted before the plural clitic. Similar to Meinhof's law in Bantu, the sequence [mb] is sometimes (87a - b) but not always (87c - d) reduced before the [nd] of the plural suffix.

(87) Consonant Deletion

	<u>Singular</u>	<u>Plural</u>	<u>Gloss</u>
a.	dóró _m bíè	dóró _m é=ndè	clay
b.	dú _r ú _m bè	dú _r ú _m é=ndè	bracelet, ring
c.	dà _ŋ àmbé	dà _ŋ àmbé=ndè	zorilla (polecat)
d.	kárámbè	kárámbé=ndè	patas monkey

The frequency of the words in (87a - b) compared to those in (87c - d) may be a reason why the first two were acquired with and without the deleted segments yet the other two were not. Other words which end in the sequence [bɛ] which are interpreted as having the lexicalized diminutive in a semi-productive manner include the following pairs: [jàám̩bɛ̀] ‘child’ ~ [jàà=ndé] ‘children’, [góòmpá] ‘step’, [góòmbɛ̀] ‘little step’, [kóà] ‘plant sp.’, [kóàbɛ̀] ‘small subspecies of koa’, and [bóróm̩bɛ̀] ~ [bóróm̩] ‘young man’, [bòró=ndè] ‘young men’.

3.2.5 Segmental Noun Type Four (+ɛ, -mí=nɛ)

As in Type Three nouns, those in Type Four end in a mid front vowel. The difference lies in the behavior in the plural stem. Type Four Noun Roots end with a lexicalized, i.e. segmentable but obligatory, diminutive suffix, [ɛ], and an intervening consonant [w, m, b] after back vowels. In the plural, the diminutive suffix emerges as [mi]. Although the referents of the nouns in Type Four are not all small, the nouns in this group are all marked with what is considered to be a frozen or obligatory [diminutive](#) suffix. The nouns in this type are unable to be ‘doubly’ marked as being diminutive. That is, to indicate that a Type Four noun root is a small variety of the object, the adjective ‘small’ is used instead of another instantiation of the diminutive suffix.

(88) Segmental Type Four: 23 Nouns

	<u>Singular</u>	<u>Plural</u>	<u>Gloss</u>
a.	bì+é	bíé+ ¹ mí=ndè	baby
b.	wùrɛ̀+è	wùrɛ̀+ ¹ mí=ndè	karite tree
c.	gédɛ̀+è	gèdɛ̀+ ¹ mi=ndè	gecko (generic)
d.	séŋɛ̀+é	séŋɛ̀+ ¹ mí=ndè	watermelon
e.	dóré+è	dóré+ ¹ mí=ndè	bird (generic)
f.	zágɛ̀+è	záyá+ ¹ mí=ndè	onion

g.	pé <u>r</u> é+è	pé <u>r</u> é+'mí=ndè	key
h.	kùrì+jèé	kùrì+mì=ndé	dog
i.	dùdú+wè	dùdú+mí=ndè	bird (sp)
j.	ɲògò+ <u>w</u> é	ɲògò+mì=ndé	fish (sp)
k.	pié+mè	pií+mì=ndé	reed flute
l.	tòrè+mé	tòrò+mì=ndé	star
m.	gírímè	gírímé='mi=ndè	hare (generic)
n.	gũm+bí	gũmbí='mí=ndè	owl

The diminutive suffix may appear as simply [ɛ] (88a - g), with the nasal-vowel allomorph (88k - l), or the glide-vowel allomorph (88h - j). Some diminutive nouns lose a final root vowel in the plural, in addition to the final diminutive suffix becoming [ɛ], such as in (88b - g), possibly because these words have underlying [-ATR] vowels. When the augmentative follows nouns suffixed with the lexicalized diminutive, the frozen suffix may remain, such as in [ʒáɣá+è-bóŋò] 'big onion', but the [mi] allomorph does not appear in the plural form of the noun-augmentative [ʒáɣá+è-bóŋó=ndè] 'big onions'.

3.2.6 Segmental Noun Type Five (rV, rV=nɛ)

Type Five and Type Six nouns are also similar to each other in that the nouns in these two classes have at least two syllables, one of which, usually the final syllable, has [r] as an onset. As with the nouns which end in the suffix vowel [ɛ] and its allomorphs, there are two types of nouns which end in a sequence [rV]: those which are a part of the root and appear in either singular or plural form, and those which are suffixes and do not appear in the plural form.

(89) Segmental Type Five: 119 Nouns

	<u>Singular</u>	<u>Plural</u>	<u>Gloss</u>
a.	bòrò	bòrò=ndé	tomorrow
b.	mmírò	mmíró=ndè	bee honey bee
c.	búríù	búríú=ndè	seed kind
d.	póórò	póóró=ndè	cloud
e.	gíwàrà	gíwàrà=ñé	hat
f.	táyàrà	táyàrà=ñé	Fulani house
g.	nàmbàrà	nàmbàrà=ñé	trick
h.	kàràṅgó	kàràṅgò=ndé	long hourglass-shaped drum
i.	kórónò	kórónó=ndè	donkey

Some mid back vowels do not [undergo laxing](#) before the nasal of the plural (89a - b, d), while those in longer roots do (89h - i). The [-r] suffix in some words is not found in the final syllable (89h - i); this can be compared to the suffix shown for the Type Six noun (89i).

3.2.7 Segmental Noun Type Six (-r, =ndɛ)

As with Type Five nouns, Type Six nouns contain a sequence of [rV], usually in the final syllable. Unlike Type Five nouns, but similar to many [verb stems](#), noun stems in Type Six have a suffix [-r]. Although it would be tempting to suggest that the [-r] suffix in Type Six nouns is a truncated form of the augmentative [-bòṅ], comparable to the diminutive suffix in Type Four Noun Roots, the nouns in Type Six may be made diminutive either without the [-r] suffix, such as [ṅàmbá-è], or with it as in [ṅàmbá-rà-è] ‘little sheep’. However, a counterexample is [bòṅgò-rò] ‘belly button’ with diminutive [bòṅ-wíè] ‘little belly button’. Type Six nouns add the augmentative when qualified as being a large object.

(90) Segmental Type Six: 21 Nouns

	<u>Singular</u>	<u>Plural</u>	<u>Gloss</u>
a.	nnìé-rè	nnìé=ndè	woman
b.	pévè-rè	pévè=ndé	wind
c.	tégò-rò	tégò=ndé	face, forehead
d.	súmbí-rì	súmbì=ndé	nose
e.	páyá-rà	páyá=ndè	container (any)
f.	gúmbá-rà	gúmbà=ndé	wasp
g.	kámbá-rā	kámbá=ndè	pliers
h.	ɲàmbà-rá	ɲàmbá=ndè	sheep
i.	kó-ró-gò	kógó=ndè	basket
j.	jí-rí-ɲgí	jíɲgí=ndè	fan

The [-r] suffix is a less productive suffix than the lexicalized diminutive suffix and it does not appear in the plural stem in any form. The only case in which the [-r] suffix may appear in the plural is if the diminutive is also suffixed to the noun, as in [ɲàmbá-rà-¹mí=ndè] ‘small sheep.PL’. (The augmentative plural stem is [ɲàmbá-bóřò=ndé]). Nouns in Type Six do not undergo laxing of the root-final vowel before the plural clitic. The tone of the vowel following the [-r] suffix is usually low when it appears at the end of the stem. The tone of the root undergoes a change after the [-r] suffix is deleted in the manner described in the following section. Another defining feature of Type Six nouns is an [mb] cluster found in many of the noun stems. The [rV] and [mb] sequences found among [verbs](#) are significant as well.

However, I am unaware of the specific meaning of the nominal [-r] suffix at this time.³⁹ Many, but not all, of the nouns in this category are [verbal nouns](#), and some nouns may be derived from verbs using the [-r] suffix.

3.3 Tonal Melodies on Nouns

Noun stems are also organized into six categories, based on tonal patterns. The six tonal patterns do not correspond with the six segmental categories illustrated in the previous section; however, the tonal classification of the noun root is based on its realization in the plural form. In all cases the plural clitic has a tone opposite to that of the immediately preceding tone (tone polarization). The underlying tone of the noun stem is seen in the plural form, as demonstrated in (91).

(91) Tonal Categories found on Noun Stems

	<u>UR Tone</u>	<u>Singular</u>	<u>Plural</u>		<u>UR Tone</u>	<u>Singular</u>	<u>Plural</u>
I.	/H/	C'v'v'	C'v'v'=ndè	II.	/L/	C'v'v'	C'v'v'=ndé
III.	/H/	C'v'C'v'	C'v'C'v'=ndè	IV.	/L/	C'v'C'v'	C'v'C'v'=ndé
V.	/HL/	C'v'C'v'	C'v'C'v'=ndé	VI.	/LH/	C'v'C'v'	C'v'C'v'=ndè

Most nouns in the first and second tonal classes are monosyllabic. Most roots with level tone melodies, those which are able to surface without a pitch change somewhere in the stem, are monosyllabic, but not all monosyllabic stems have level tone melodies.⁴⁰ All stems which surface with level tones in the singular also surface with level tones in the plural. Nouns of the third and fourth types have the same tones underlyingly as nouns in the first and second types but the stems are mostly polysyllabic. The underlying tones of nouns in the fifth and sixth types

³⁹ Some [verbs](#) exhibit a semantic relationship between a stem with and without a [-r] suffix. The same has not been found among most nouns. However a possible example could be argued for [níéré (hùⁿ)] 'dry season' and [níé (hùⁿ)] 'wet season'.

⁴⁰ Relating back to the question as to what constitutes a diphthong or as each vowel as its own independent syllable.

have high-low and low-high sequences, respectively, with an obligatory pitch change at either the syllable break in the singular or the morpheme break in the plural. Each tonal type is explained in detail in the following sections. Stems of each tonal type are listed in Appendix IV.

3.3.1 Tone Type One: High Stem

Monosyllabic noun stems may surface with a level tone melody, either high or low. Shown in (92) are examples of monosyllabic noun stems with high tones. The plural clitic is low-toned.

(92) Tone Type One: 39 Nouns

	<u>Singular</u>	<u>Plural</u>	<u>Gloss</u>
a.	ɛ́í H	ɛ́í=ndè HH=L	food
b.	níé H	níé=ndè HH=L	milk
c.	bóó ⁿ H	bóó=ndè HH=L	millet porridge

Type One nouns which are not monosyllabic include [dúgú] ‘forest’, [túmí], ‘amulet (waist)’, [póó^lké] ‘soap’, and [jí-rí-ŋjí] ‘fan’. The root tone is unchanged in the singular and plural forms among roots in the high tone stem type. The plural clitic takes a polar tone opposite that of the noun. [Certain vowels](#) become [-ATR] before the nasal of the plural clitic.

3.3.2 Tone Type Two: Low Stem

As with [Tone Type One](#), the low tone stem is common among monosyllabic nouns, but there are six instances of low tone bisyllabic roots: [bìmmè] ‘heart’, [bòrò] ‘tomorrow’, [dèwò] (also [déw] ‘mar’, [gàndzà] ‘fonio’, [ŋàmbà] ‘false sorghum’ and [tànà] ‘ear’. The tones on the noun root are the same in singular and plural. The plural clitic is high-toned.

(93) Tone Type Two: 29 Nouns

	<u>Singular</u>	<u>Plural</u>	<u>Gloss</u>
a.	vòò L	vòò=ndé LL=H	field
b.	èìè L	èìè=ndé LL=H	termite
c.	tàṅà L	tàṅà=ndé L.L=H	ear

Therefore, most singular, monosyllabic nouns may surface with level tones. The underlying tone of the noun is seen before the plural clitic. Some bisyllabic nouns may surface with level tones in the singular and plural as well, but most have a contour tone in the singular surface stem.

3.3.3 Tone Type Three: High Stem

Noun stems such as those shown in (94) are underlyingly high, as shown in the plural form, but surface with a change in pitch at the (usually penultimate) syllable boundary in the singular form.

(94) Tone Type Three: 57 Nouns

	<u>Singular</u>	<u>Plural</u>	<u>Gloss</u>
a.	ṽíè HL	ṽíé=ndè HH=L	water
b.	mírò H.L	míró=ndè H.H=L	bee
c.	kóròṅò H.H.L	kóròṅó=ndè H.H.H=L	donkey

Although most nouns in this tone type are polysyllabic, exceptions are [béè] ‘gerbil’, [téè] ‘palm’, [kʷéè] ‘bark’, [kéè] ‘thing’, and [ṽíè] ‘water’. As noted above in §2.5, there is a possibility of interpreting these words as bisyllabic.

3.3.4 Tone Type Four: Low Stem

Low tone stems which consist of two or more syllables behave in the same manner as high tone stems. In the singular stem, Type Four Noun Roots emerge with a low-high tonal melody.

However, the plural form reveals that the tones of the noun are underlyingly low.

(95) Tone Type Four: 54 Nouns

	<u>Singular</u>	<u>Plural</u>	<u>Gloss</u>
a.	bùřá L.H	bùřà=ndé L.L=H	stick
b.	dàmá L.H	dàmà=ndé L.L=H	hoe
c.	ɛùrí L.H	ɛùrì=ndé L.L=H	fly

The nouns with suffixes in segmental [Type Six](#), such as [tùkù-rú], plural [tùkù=ndé], are categorized in this tonal type since the root is low with a high tone on the suffix which is deleted with its tone in the plural. One exception is [ɲàmbà-rá], plural [ɲàmbá=ndè] which falls into Tone Type Five, as the rise tonal pattern appears in the singular and plural forms.

3.3.5 Tone Type Five: Falling-Tone Stem

Falling-tone stems appear, from the singular form of the noun, to be the same as high tone stems of Tone Type Three. However, as seen in the plural form, the noun stem has a falling melody in both the singular and the plural forms. The plural clitic is high-toned.

(96) Tone Type Five: 41 Nouns

	<u>Singular</u>	<u>Plural</u>	<u>Gloss</u>	
a.	nníjà H.L	nníjà=ndé H.L=H	mother	(or) nníjà-rú
b.	pévé-rè H.H.L	pévè=ndé H.L=H	wind	
c.	gúmbà-rà H.L	gúmbà=ndé H.L=H	wasp	

Examples in which the tone of the [-r] suffix and the plural morpheme differ provide further evidence for the underlying tones on the noun root. The [-r] morpheme is a suffix. The underlying tone of the noun root is overlaid onto the entire stem.

3.3.6 Tone Type Six: Rising-Tone Stem

The rising-tone stem is like Tone Type Four in the singular form. The difference is that, in the plural form of Tone Type Five nouns, the rising tonal pattern surfaces on both the singular and the plural, and the plural clitic is low toned.

(97) Tone Type Five: 30 Nouns

	<u>Singular</u>	<u>Plural</u>	<u>Gloss</u>
a.	vòó LH	vòó=ndè LH=L	horse
b.	gàz'é ⁿ L.H	gàz'é=ndè L.H=L	world
c.	bìròndó L.L.H	bìròndó=ndè L.L.H=L	corn

As with the falling tone melody stem, the rising tone melody may occur on stems of any length or syllable type but polysyllabic words are more common. The nouns in segmental [Type Six](#), such as [nié-rè], [nié=ndè] ‘woman’, are in Tone Type Five. In these examples both the [-r] suffix vowel and the plural clitic are the opposite tone of the noun root, which has a rising tonal pattern. The sole environments where the underlying tone of the noun emerges are before the plural clitic and the augmentative.

3.4 Augmentative

The augmentative noun stem is segmentally formed with the addition of the bisyllabic morpheme [-bòřo], which is related to the [adjective](#) [bogo], meaning ‘big’. Although the augmentative is considered to be a bound morpheme, morphologically between an affix and a clitic, it is found in

one instance in a text to be reduplicated, giving the impression that it may constitute a separate word. The example is found in TEXT VI: Chief VI .29, and the matter is left to future research. Autosegmentally, the augmentative stem surfaces with the same six tonal types as the plural stem, illustrated in (98).

(98) Augmentative Tonal Patterns

	UR Tone	Singular	Augmentative		UR Tone	Singular	Augmentative
I.	/H/	C'v'	C'v'-bòřò	II.	/L/	Cv̀v̀	Cv̀v̀- bóřó
III.	/H/	C'v'cv̀	C'v'cv̀- bòřò	IV.	/L/	Cv̀cv'	Cv̀cv̀- bóřó
V.	/HL/	C'v'cv̀	C'v'cv̀- bóřó	VI.	/LH/	Cv̀cv'	Cv̀cv̀- bòřò

The augmentative, like the plural, adopts the opposite tone as the final tone of the noun root. As noted above, most polysyllabic stems have pitch contours rather than level tones. However, since the augmentative has two syllables, the locus of the pitch change fluctuates. That is, the pitch change may arise on either the initial or the final syllable of the augmentative, and the final tone from the noun variably spreads onto the initial syllable of the augmentative.

3.4.1 Tone Type One

Type One nouns surface with a high tone in the singular, plural, and augmentative stems. The augmentative morpheme surfaces with a falling tonal pattern; the change of pitch occurs on either the final syllable (99a - b) of the noun-augmentative stem or the augmentative emerges with the opposing tone on both syllables (99c).

(99) Tone Type One with Augmentative

	<u>Singular</u>	<u>Augmentative</u>	<u>Gloss</u>
a.	ɛ́í HH	ɛ́í–bó̃rò HH.H–L	food
b.	túú ⁿ HH	túú ⁿ –bó̃rò HH.H–L	thorn
c.	síí ⁿ HH	síí ⁿ –bò̃rò HH.L–L	shadow

The noun either spreads its final tone to the first syllable of the augmentative morpheme (99a - b), causing it to emerge high with the final syllable of the augmentative low, or the augmentative morpheme surfaces with both tones low (99c), opposite the high tone of the noun.

3.4.2 Tone Type Two

A Tone Type Two noun root follows the same pattern as a Tone Type One root; the noun root's underlying tones are seen before the augmentative.

(100) Tone Type Two with Augmentative

	<u>Singular</u>	<u>Augmentative</u>	<u>Gloss</u>
a.	vòò L	vòò–bó̃rò LL.H–H	field
b.	ɛ̀ìè L	ɛ̀ìè–bó̃rò LL.H–H	termite
c.	tàṅà L	tàṅà–bó̃rò LL.H–H	ear

In most of the examples of low-toned nouns, the augmentative stem splits the tonal melody at the morpheme boundary between the noun and the augmentative, but it is possible for the locus of the pitch change to be on the first syllable of the augmentative.

3.4.3 Tone Type Three

Recall from the previous discussion concerning the plural clitic that plural stems with underlyingly high-toned noun roots and more than one syllable emerge with a falling melody in the singular stem but a high tone in the plural. The underlying form of the noun may also be seen in the augmentative stem.

(101) Tone Type Three with Augmentative

	<u>Singular</u>	<u>Augmentative</u>	<u>Gloss</u>
a.	dégè H.L	dégé–bǝ̀rò H.H.L–L	head
b.	mírò H.L	míró–bǝ̀rò H.H.H–L	bee
c.	kóróḡò H.H.L	kóróḡó–bǝ̀rò H.H.H.H–L	donkey

The augmentative surfaces with the final high tone of the noun root spread on to the initial syllable, except (101a) where both syllables of the augmentative are low.

3.4.4 Tone Type Four

Underlyingly low stems surface in their underlying forms before the augmentative.

(102) Tone Type Four with Augmentative

	<u>Singular</u>	<u>Augmentative</u>	<u>Gloss</u>
a.	bùřá L.H	bùřã–bǝ̀rò L.L.H–H	stick
b.	dámá L.H	dãmà–bǝ̀rò L.L.L–H	hoe
c.	èurí L.L.H	èurì–bǝ̀rò L.L.L–H	fly

Among the nouns shown, the final low tone of the noun is spread to the augmentative in each case except (102a). The underlyingly low toned noun roots tend to be more regular with respect to tonal assignment in the augmentative than the other tonal classes.

3.4.5 Tone Type Five

As seen in the plural stem, the falling tone stem has a high-low contour in the singular and before the augmentative, indicating that the underlying tonal melody of the nouns in this class is fall.

(103) Tone Type Five with Augmentative

	<u>Singular</u>	<u>Augmentative</u>	<u>Gloss</u>
a.	nníjà H.L	nníjà–bóřó HL.H–H	mother
b.	dóòbè H.L	dóòbè–bóřó H.L.H–H	adze
c.	pévé–rè H.H.L	pévé–rè–bóřó H.H.L.H–H	wind

In each of the examples, the tone of the noun root does not spread onto the initial syllable of the augmentative form, which is high, in opposition to the low tone of the root final mora.

3.4.6 Tone Type Six

The nouns in Type Six surface with a rising tonal pattern in the singular, plural, and augmentative stem.

(104) Tone Type Six with Augmentative

	<u>Singular</u>	<u>Augmentative</u>	<u>Gloss</u>
a.	vòó LH	vòó–bóřò LH.H–L	horse
b.	gèngé L.H	gèngé–bóřò L.H.H–L	metal

c.	nniè-rè L.L.H	nniè-bóřò L.L.H.H-L	woman
d.	řàmbà-rá L.L.H	řàmbà-bóřò L.H.H-L	sheep

Each of these noun roots spreads its final high tone to the augmentative morpheme, which then ends in a low tone, opposite that of the final high tone of the rise stem.

3.5 Summary of the Noun Stem

Noun stems fall into six categories based on segmental properties: words with oral vowels, monosyllabic words with nasalized vowels, and words with a final mid front vowel, (a lexicalized diminutive suffix), words with a sequence of [Vr], and words with a suffix [-r]. Nouns with lexicalized suffixes [-ε] and [-r] can be determined by their behavior in the plural form where the lexicalized diminutive appears as [mi] and the [-r] suffix is deleted. The function of the [-r] suffix is yet to be determined. Nouns also are organized into six tonal categories, but the segmental and tonal categories do not seem to overlap in any way.

A summary of the singular, plural, augmentative, and noun roots is shown in (105).

(105) Summary of Nominal Structure

	<u>SING</u>	<u>PL</u>	<u>AUG</u>	<u>ROOT</u>
a.	C'v'v'	C'v'v'=ndè	C'v'v'-bó.řò	C'v'v'
b.	C'v'.C'v'	C'v'.C'v'=ndè	C'v'.C'v'-bò.řò	C'v'.C'v'
c.	C'v'.C'v'	C'v'.C'v'=ndè	C'v'.C'v'-bó.řò	C'v'.C'v'
d.	C'v'.C'v'	C'v'.C'v'=ndé	C'v'.C'v'-bó.řó	C'v'.C'v'
e.	C'v'v'	C'v'v'=ndé	C'v'v'-bó.řó	C'v'v'
f.	C'v'.C'v'	C'v'.C'v'=ndé	C'v'.C'v'-bó.řó	C'v'.C'v'
g.	C'v'.C'v'	C'v'.C'v'=ndé	C'v'.C'v'-bò.řó	C'v'.C'v'
h.	C'v'.C'v'	C'v'.C'v'=ndè	C'v'.C'v'-bó.řò	C'v'.C'v'

Tonally, noun roots are either /H/ (105a - b), /HL/ (105d - e), /L/ (105e - g), or /LH/ (105h). Most polysyllabic noun roots have a change in pitch at the syllable or morpheme boundary, but monosyllabic roots may surface with level tones. High (105a) and low (105e) toned monosyllabic roots differ with respect to tonal assignment in the augmentative stem. The high tone root spreads a high tone onto the first mora of the augmentative morpheme but the low tone root does not. In Tone Classes Three (105b - c) and Four (105f - g) two tonal assignment patterns are possible. Tone Class Five (105d) also has a different pattern of tonal assignment from that of Tone Class Six (105h). The underlying cause for the variation is the topic of future research.

Chapter 4. Nominal Derivation: Suffixation

4.1 Suffixes in Bangime

As shown in the previous chapter, the plural and augmentative markers are closely tied to the noun stem, but do not change the segmental characteristics of a noun stem. The plural marker is considered a clitic because modifiers may intervene between it and the noun. Morphologically, the augmentative behaves differently than the plural. For instance when [modifiers](#) follow a noun stem, the augmentative is more tightly bound to the noun stem than the plural clitic since the augmentative follows the noun directly but the plural follows the modifier. The augmentative and the plural morphemes, being underlyingly toneless, undergo tone polarity to adopt the tone opposite to that of the noun root.

Two derivational suffixes have been found in Bangime, the diminutive and its associated meanings, discussed in §4.2 and the agentive, covered in §4.3. The diminutive suffix has its own tone(s) which interact with the noun stem. The tone of the agentive is altered by the stem to which it attaches. The agentive, in most cases, derives nouns from verbs. The morphemes discussed in this chapter are considered suffixes due to the tonal effects caused and the inability to insert constituents between the noun and these markers. Also, the diminutive and the agentive morphemes interact with the segmental context of the noun root at the morpheme boundary.

4.2 Diminutive

The diminutive suffix [-ɛ] may be attached to most nouns, and indicates that the referent is 'little'. Three additional suffixes are homophonous with the diminutive suffix. These are a suffix which derives the name of a language from the people who speak it, an inhabitant of a village, and a suffix which gives the meaning 'quality of X'.

As with the [lexicalized diminutive](#), the productive diminutive has five [allomorphs](#), shown in (106). Many nouns exhibit seemingly free variation among the allomorphs, especially [mɛ ~ jɛ ~ ɛ]; one noun may be pronounced several ways.

(106) Diminutive Allomorphs

	<u>Singular</u>	<u>Gloss</u>	<u>Diminutive Stem</u>	<u>Gloss</u>
a.	nàà	cow	nnà-é, nnèé	little cow, calf
b.	kóò ⁿ	pestle	k ^w éè ⁿ	little pestle
c.	tótò	anvil	tótò-mé	little anvil
d.	dúgú	forest	dúgú-wè	little forest
e.	kó-ró-gò	basket	kó-ró-gò-jè	little basket

Some monosyllabic words, such as (106a - b), may change both vowels of the stem to coalesce with the diminutive suffix. In longer stems (106c - e), the suffix appears with its own syllable onset. The final segment of the root noun determines the suffix allomorph. The underlying form of the suffix is proposed to be /-ɛ/, with either nasal (106c) or glide (106d - e) insertion as a strategy to prevent hiatus between vowels of different backness. It was shown in §2.2.1 that vowels of different backness values do not co-occur tautosyllabically. Although not all words with final [u] take the allomorph which begins in [w] (106d), it would be reasonable to suggest that the glide [w] usually follows the high back vowel to prevent hiatus with the suffix.

4.2.1 Plural Diminutives

The diminutive suffix always surfaces as [-mi] in the plural, and often has a high (107c) or downstepped (107a - b) tone.

(107) Diminutive Plural Stem

	<u>Singular</u>	<u>Diminutive</u>	<u>Plural</u>	<u>Gloss</u>
a.	nnàà	nnà-é	nnáé-'mí=ndè	little cows, calfs
b.	vòó	vòó-mè	vòó-'mí=ndè	little horses, colts
c.	kóróńò	kóróńò-mè	kóróńò-mí=ndè	little donkey, foals

The diminutive suffix may indicate that a noun is 'little' or it may refer to the offspring of an animal. The tonal patterns on the diminutive suffix are discussed in §4.2.5 below.

4.2.2 Language

Names of languages are derived from the names of ethnicities or speakers using a suffix which is homophonous with the diminutive morpheme. The plural is then formed from the name for the speakers or ethnicity since the [mi] suffix is not used.

(108) Bangande Area Languages and Speakers/Ethnicities

	<u>Speakers</u>	<u>Language</u>	<u>Plural</u>	<u>Gloss</u>
a.	tómè	tómè	tómé=ndè	Tommo
b.	píé ⁿ	píé-è ⁿ	píé=ndè	Ampan
c.	bòndí	bòndì-jé	bòndì=né	Bondu (Dogon)
d.	sáwà	sáwá-è	sámí=ndè	Kargue (Marka)
e.	púndà	púndé-è	púrà=né	Fulani
f.	tóó	tóó-wè	tóó-wè=ndé	Duleri
g.	b ^w ówò	b ^w ó-è	b ^w ó-è=ndé	Bobo
h.	bám-bá-rà	bám-bá-è	bám-bá-rá=nè	Bambara
i.	bànggè-rí+mè	bànggí-jè	bànggá=ndè	Banga

j.	kómè	púndé-è	kómé= <u>n</u> è	Fulani (slave caste)
k.	kòrò bòrò	sòṅé-è	kòrò bòrò= <u>n</u> é	Songhai
l.	sórógò	sáṅé-è	sórógò= <u>n</u> dé	Bozo

There is variation in the singular and plural patterns found in the names for ethnicities and languages. Some names of languages and their speakers are identical in form (108a). Others add the suffix [-ɛ] (108b - l) with consonant insertion to prevent hiatus (108c, f, i), in the manner described [above](#). Certain names of languages differ slightly from the name of the speakers (108d - e), or have nothing in common between the two (108j - l). [Recall](#) that nasal-consonant sequences alternate with nasalized approximants in a variety of contexts. Just as the [-r] suffix and the diminutive are mutually exclusive, nouns of the type which have the [-r] suffix (108h - i), are shown to delete the [-r] suffix in the name of languages, but are inconsistent in the plural.

4.2.3 Inhabitant of Village

The suffix which indicates that one is an inhabitant of a certain village is also homophonous with the diminutive suffix when the stem is in the plural, although not in the singular form.

(109) Seven Bangime-Speaking Villages

	<u>Village</u>	<u>Singular</u>	<u>Plural</u>	<u>Gloss</u>
a.	ʒìé	ʒě-mà	ʒě-mí=ndè	Dieni
b.	dʷíè	dʷè-má	dʷè-mí=ndè	Due
c.	bùù ⁿ	bù-má	bù-mì=ndé	Bounou
d.	báráà	bárá-mà	bárá-mí=ndè	Baraa
e.	ɲàná	ɲàná-má	ɲàná-mí=ndè	Nyana
f.	dòrò	dòrò-má	dòrò-mí=ndè	Doro

Bimoraic and monosyllabic words (109a - d) lose a mora in derived stems.

4.2.4 Quality of X

Only two stems have been found with this meaning; certain expressions, such as the beauty of a man, require use of the suffix [gò-mè ~ gʷòⁿ-jè báákò] ‘beautiful man’. Others are given (110).

(110) Quality of Noun

	<u>Noun</u>	<u>Gloss</u>	<u>Quality of</u>	<u>Gloss</u>
a.	pàà ⁿ	friend	pà-mè	friendship
b.	gòò ⁿ	man	gò-mè	masculinity

As with the inhabitants of a village, the noun is lengthened in the non-derived stem.

4.2.5 Tonal patterns on the diminutive suffix

Unlike the plural and augmentatives illustrated [above](#), the diminutive suffix does not adopt the opposite tone of the noun. The majority of nouns take a low tone allomorph [mɛ] of the diminutive suffix in the singular and a downstepped tone in the plural, as shown in (111).

(111) Diminutive Suffix [-mɛ] ~ [-^lmí]

	<u>Noun</u>	<u>Singular</u>	<u>Diminutive</u>	<u>Diminutive=Plural</u>
a.	mosquito	bʷiè	bʷíé-mè	bʷíé- ^l mí=ndè
b.	mouse	nnì ⁿ	nníí-mè	nníí- ^l mí=ndè
c.	mongoose	síí ⁿ	síí-mè	síí- ^l mí=ndè
d.	lion	kíé	kíé-mè	kíé- ^l mí=ndè
e.	goat	bíi ⁿ	bíí-mè	bíí- ^l mí=ndè
f.	house	kóò	kóó-mè	kóó- ^l mí=ndè
g.	bee	mírò	míró-mè	míró- ^l mí=ndè
h.	stick	bùǎ	búǎ-mè	búǎ- ^l mí=ndè
i.	woman	nnié-rè	nníé-rè-mè	nníé-ré- ^l mí=ndè
j.	donkey	kóróṅò	kóróṅò-mè	kóróṅò- ^l mí=ndè

Irrespective of underlying tonal distinctions, most monosyllabic nouns with surface low tones (112a - b), high tones (112c - d), or high-low tones (112e - f) emerge as high in the singular and plural diminutive stem, with the diminutive suffix surfacing as low in the singular and downstepped high in the plural. Bisyllabic words with high-low (112g) and low-high (112h) tones follow the same pattern, as do low-high-low trisyllabic nouns stems (112i - j).

Other noun stems, including certain bisyllabic nouns with long final vowels (112), take the diminutive suffix with a high tone in the singular stem.

(112) Diminutive Suffix [-mé]

	<u>Gloss</u>	<u>Singular</u>	<u>Diminutive</u>	<u>Diminutive=Plural</u>
a.	person	ʒìbéé	ʒìbíé-mé	ʒìbíé- ¹ mí=ndè
b.	road	ʒímbéè	ʒímbé-mé	ʒímbé- ¹ mí=ndè

As noted [above](#), the sequence [bɛ] is an allomorph of the diminutive suffix. However, it does not emerge as [mi] in the plural of these nouns unless the diminutive is specified. The fact that the final vowel of the noun root is deleted in (112b) but not in (112a) is curious.

Nouns which consist of only low vowels [a] may take the diminutive allomorph [ɛ]. Those shown in (113) have either low (113a) or high (113b) tones on the diminutive suffix.

(113) Diminutive Suffix [-ɛ]

	<u>Gloss</u>	<u>Singular</u>	<u>Diminutive</u>	<u>Diminutive=Plural</u>
a.	sheep	ŋàmbà-rá	ŋjàmbá+ɛ	ŋjàmbá- ¹ mí=ndè
b.	cow	nnàà	nnà+ɛ	nnáé- ¹ mí=ndè

Further, the example (113b) illustrates a case in which the diminutive suffix remains [-ɛ] rather than becoming [-mi] before the plural clitic. Also, note that the word-initial nasal is omitted in the noun stem (113a) since it has [three syllables](#), yet it is not deleted in the diminutive

or the diminutive-plural stem. This is likely due to the fact that the plural clitic does not contribute to the maximal syllable count of three syllables.

Many nouns which are suffixed with the [-jɛ] variant of the diminutive have a high tone.

(114) Diminutive Suffix [-jɛ]

	<u>Singular</u>	<u>Diminutive</u>	<u>Gloss</u>
a.	bòndí	bòndì-jɛ́	Bondu person
b.	kùrè+mé	kùrì-jɛ́	dog

The noun [kùrè+mé] ‘dog’ is a noun of the segmental Type Four. The diminutive stem is not doubly marked, but it does have a different allomorph of the diminutive suffix (114b).

The tonal data suggest that the diminutive suffix has a low tone which interacts with the noun root, and differs from the plural clitic and the augmentative bound word, presented in the previous chapter, which are toneless. As in many Dogon languages for which the diminutive is [ii], a grammaticalized form of the word for ‘child’ or ‘baby’ [ii], the diminutive in Bangime may be a grammaticalized form of the word ‘baby’ [bìɛ́]. The word [bi+ɛ] is a possible borrowing from Fulfulde *bi* ‘child’ or ‘baby’ with the lexicalized diminutive suffix.

4.3 Agentive

The agentive suffix is also a case of grammaticalization of a noun, /ɛiɛⁿ/ ‘owner’. The verb ‘herd’ (115a) and the noun ‘field’ (115b) are homophonous. These words are suffixed with the agentive to exemplify the difference tonally and segmentally between adding the agentive suffix and using the word from which it derives, ‘owner’.

(115) Agentive Suffix

	<u>Phrase</u>	<u>Gloss</u>
a.	vòwó -ɛèè ⁿ herd v. agentive	herder

- b. vòwó n eéèⁿ field's owner
 field n. GEN owner

The difference between the stem (116a) and the phrase (116b) is the tonal contours. A stem, in general, has one contour melody, whereas a phrase is composed of separate words, all with their own melodies. The agentive attaches to simple verbs, verbs with object nouns, or even the complementizer, to create nouns.

4.3.1 Agentive with Verbs

After a simple verb, the toneless agentive suffix surfaces with a low tone. Verbs in the agentive construction are marked in [incompletive](#) aspect, which has the [word order](#) SOV.

(116) Verb-Agentive

	<u>Agentive construction</u>	<u>Gloss</u>	
a.	zùó ⁿ sorcery	–eéè ⁿ agentive	vampire
b.	zóó ⁿ dance	–eéè ⁿ agentive	dancer
c.	déè cultivate	–eéè ⁿ agentive	farmer
d.	síí sew	–eéè ⁿ agentive	tailor

The agentive suffix may also attach to a verb phrase with a direct object. The agentive suffix has a low tone after each verb, but a falling tonal melody in the final example (117). The change in tone could be due to this example being a low-toned verb.

(117) Noun–Verb–Agentive

	<u>Phrase</u>			<u>Gloss</u>	<u>Translation</u>
a.	n̄òó meat/fish	ɛ́í ⁿ take	–ɛ̀è ⁿ agentive	fish taker	fisherman
b.	gìé cotton	n dèg–é T hit–RV	–ɛ̀è ⁿ agentive	cotton hitter	weaver
c.	kòò house	mmàà build	–ɛ̀é ⁿ agentive	house builder	mason

Since the word order is object-verb in the above examples, I suggest that the agentive, in a manner similar to the plural clitic, attaches to the verb phrase. However, I am unsure of the reason why the first example (117a) does not have the transitive nasal preceding the verb but (117b) does.

4.3.2 Other Morphemes with the Agentive and ‘owner’

The examples in (118) show alternate forms of the agentive suffix.

(118) Other–Agentive

	<u>Phrase</u>			<u>Gloss</u>	<u>Translation</u>
a.	sàbè–rè heal–rv	zìè do	–ɛ́í ⁿ AGENT	doer of healing	healer
b.	kòòmbè beetle	ɛ́í ⁿ tail	ɛ̀é ⁿ owner	beetle with a tail	sp. of scorpion with long tail
c.	mè COMP	–ɛ́í ⁿ AGENT	kwà voice	dígá n talk GEN	kî he who can thing talk the talk bard

The first example (118a) is like those above in that it is a verb phrase with a direct object which is a cognate noun. The agentive morpheme may surface with high vowels [ii] (118a, c), in contrast with the examples above, in which it had vowels like those in the example of the noun (118b). Since the word ‘owner’ follows the potentially homophonous word ‘tail’ (118b), the

example could be a case of dissimilation. The phrasal stem (118c) is an example of the agentive suffixing to the complementizer morpheme. In a manner similar to a [modifier](#), the expected genitive nasal is omitted between the head noun and the possessed noun. The reciprocal, ‘each other’ has a similar form [siiⁿ], and may be related.

4.3.3 Grammaticalized Agentive

An example of a flora species which uses the word ‘owner’ rather than the agentive is (119).

(119) Phrases with [ɛɛɛⁿ] ‘owner’

	<u>Phrase</u>	<u>Gloss</u>	<u>Translation</u>
a.	d ^w à+è zíí ⁿ cɛɛ ⁿ tree blood owner	blood tree	bush sp.
b.	d ^w à+è zíí ⁿ cɛɛ ⁿ =ndè tree blood owner PL	blood trees	bush sp. PL
c.	*d ^w à+è =ndɛ zíí ⁿ cɛɛ ⁿ	*blood trees	

This Euphorbia species emits a liquid (latex) when cut; therefore, it is described as ‘blood tree’ or ‘[the] tree with blood’. The [genitive nasal](#) is omitted, and the plural clitic, shown in (119b), illustrates that the tone of the agentive suffix is actually high. The phrase syntactically acts as a unit, the plural clitic may not be suffixed to the first noun (119c). The augmentative also follows the phrase [dégé–cèèⁿ] ‘chief’ (lit. ‘head owner’), [dégé–cèèⁿ–bòrò] ‘a big chief’ as does an adjective [dégé–cèèⁿ báákò] ‘a beautiful chief’.

Another flora species (120) employs the noun ‘owner’. The genitive nasal is omitted.

(120) Phrases with ‘owner’ (cont)

<u>Phrase</u>	<u>Translation</u>	<u>Gloss</u>
béndì–bándéè kúzú cɛɛ ⁿ winding hair owner	winding (plant) with hair	vine sp.

In this flora species name, the head of the phrase is actually a verb, yet it describes the noun. The noun 'owner' has its own tonal melody, which makes it different from the agentive.

4.4 Summary of Nominal Suffixes

The nominal suffixes discussed include the diminutive [-ε] and the agentive [-œεεⁿ]. The clitics illustrated in the previous chapter - the plural and the augmentative - differ from the diminutive suffix presented in this chapter by their tonal behavior. The afore mentioned plural and augmentative do not bear tone of their own and polarize to the tone of the noun or adjective they follow. The diminutive suffix in Bangime bears its own tone. The diminutive is proposed to have a low tone which interacts with the tone of the noun stem. Also, the vowel of the diminutive is often preceded by a consonant. The consonant insertion prevents certain vowels from coalescing. Another purpose for consonant insertion is to create a syllabic onset.

Another set of potential suffixes is found among possessives noted in the following chapter, but sufficient data has not yet been gathered to determine their prosodic status.

Chapter 5. Nominal Inflection: Proclitics

5.1 Proclitics in Bangime

In addition to the clitics and suffixes described in the previous chapters, Bangime also has the following nominal proclitics: the genitive, possessive, and definite. The genitive morpheme is a nasal which precedes a possessor noun. The genitive marker is an alveolar nasal /n/ which assimilates the place of the following consonant if that consonant is bilabial or velar. The possessive pronouns consist of the personal pronouns plus /a/. The definite marker is /a/. The possessive and definite proclitics are specified tonally and interact with the noun root. Although the definite and possessive pronouns affect the tone of the noun, these are considered proclitics rather than prefixes because the markers do not contribute to the [syllable weight](#) of the word. An overview is given in §5.2 of where a possessive proclitic or a genitive nasal is used. Then, §5.3 gives an in-depth presentation of the tonal patterns on the possessive stem with a concentration on the first and third persons, as the sole difference between these two forms is tone. The definite marker is introduced in §5.9. The tones on the definite marker are also discussed.

5.2 Nominal Possession

There are two ways to express possession in Bangime: the genitive nasal and a set of possessive pronouns. A possessive pronoun may substitute for the genitive nasal in most phrases, but a genitive nasal may not be used in lieu of a possessive pronoun.

The possessive pronouns are listed in (121). As noted above, the possessive pronouns are considered proclitics because the length of the possessive proclitics do not vary before a noun, as one might expect if they were part of the noun stem, since this would have consequences for the [syllable structure](#). Each of the possessive pronouns has its own tone, which interacts with the

noun to which it precedes. This section topicalizes on the tonal patterns of the singular possessive pronouns, as data for the plural pronouns is not as abundant.

(121) Possessive Pronouns

1.S	máá=	1.PL	ndɛ maa=
2.S	a=	2.PL	aa=
3.S	màà=	3.PL	nii maa=

Each of the possessive pronoun preclitics consists of the personal pronoun plus /a/. The tone of the persons other than first and third person singular have yet to be discerned. Discussed in this chapter, the manner in which the tone of the possessive pronoun interacts with the noun is complicated and differs for each noun in the paradigm.

There is a second set of possessive pronouns. Although I have very little data for this second set, they are listed in (122), with examples in (123) for descriptive completeness. Possessive pronoun suffixes follow a noun, the demonstrative [kaw] ‘that’, or the plural demonstrative [kaa–ru] ‘those’, and are used to describe alienable nouns and non-kin terms.

(122) Possessive Pronouns

<u>Gloss</u>	<u>Pronoun</u>	<u>Gloss</u>	<u>Pronoun</u>
mine/my	muw̃ɛ ~ mɛ		
mine	mi muw̃ɛ	mi mɛ	ours
yours	a muw̃ɛ	a mɛ	yours (PL)
his/hers	muw̃ɛ ~ mɛ		theirs
his/hers	mi muw̃ɛ	mi mɛ	

The examples of the possessive pronoun clitic are shown in (123) illustrate that the morpheme may also surface with a low vowel and a nasal rather than a glide, word-internally.

The tones of the morpheme also vary. The predictability of the properties of this morpheme are left to further research.

(123) Possessive Pronoun Examples

a.	nù		ɲáw	múwě̀	ɲ	kéè	
	come.PRF		take	POSS	~2	PRF	I came [to] take mine.
b.	à	ɲàw	à	múwě̀	à	kéè	
	2.S	take	2.S	POSS	2	PRF	You took yours.
c.	nù	á	ɲáw	múwě̀	ɲ	kéè	
	come.PRF	CHN	take	POSS	~2	PRF	He came to take his.
d.	n dè	ɲáw		múwě̀	ɲ	kéè	
	1.PL	take		POSS	~2	PRF	We took ours.
e.	níí	ɲà	níí	mámé	ɲ	kéè	
	3.PL	take	3.PL	POSS	~ 2	PRF	They took theirs.
f.	nù	ɲáw	à	mámè	~	máwè	
	come.PRF	take	2.S	POSS		POS	Come take yours (IMP).
g.	áá	ɲàw	áá	mámé	à	kéè	
	2.PL	take	2.PL	POSS	2	PRF	You (pl) took yours.
h.	níí	nù	ɲáw	múwě̀	ɲ	kéè	
	3.PL	come.PRF	take	POSS	~ 2	PRF	They came [to] take mine.

An example of the use of the use of this possessive pronoun preceding, rather than following, a noun in lieu of the common possessive proclitics was found in one text, Text VI: Chief VI, line 31. This was the only example of this type.

As shown in (124), a resumptive possessive proclitic is used when the possessor is a proper name, a pronoun, or inalienable. The genitive nasal can be used with a possessor that is a common name, and with inalienable items, such as kin terms or body parts. Both the possessive pronoun and the genitive nasal are omitted from the possessive phrase when a modifier follows an inalienably possessed noun, so the possessor is juxtaposed to the possessee, see (124b - c).

(124) Possessive Proclitics

<u>Possessive Pronoun</u>	<u>Genitive Nasal</u>
<u>possessor is...</u>	<u>possessor is...</u>
common name (126a - d)	common name (126aa - dd)
child (126b, d)	child (126bb, dd)
friend (126a, c)	friend (126aa)
proper name (127)	pronoun (Chief 1.8)
<u>possessee is...</u>	<u>possessee is...</u>
body parts (126f, 127a)	body parts (126e, ee, ff, 130)
child (126a, c)	child (126aa)
friend (126b, c)	friend (126bb, cc, dd)
modified (127d, deleted in 127b - c)	modified (deleted)
pronoun	

Sample possessive phrases are shown in (125) to illustrate the differences between the possessive proclitic and the genitive nasal. The tonal patterns on the possessive proclitic are discussed in §5.3.

(125) Possessive Proclitic and Genitive Nasal Examples

a.	máà	páà ⁿ	máà	jáá+mè	aa.	máà	páà ⁿ	n	jáá+mbè
	1S.P	friend	3S.P	child		1S.P	friend	GEN	child
	my friend's child					my friend's child			
b.	màá	jáá+mè	máà	páà ⁿ	bb.	máá	jáá+mè	m	páà ⁿ
	1S.P	child	3S.P	friend		1S.P	child	GEN	friend
	my child's friend					my child's friend			
c.	máà	páá ⁿ	máá	jáà=ndé	cc.	máá	jáà=ndé	m	páá=ndé
	1S.P	friend	3S.P	child=P		1S.P	child=PL	GEN	friend=P
	my friend's children					my children's friends			

d.	máá	já+mbè	màà	páá=ndè	dd.	máá	já+mbè	m	páá=ndè
	1S.P	child	3S.P	friend=P		1S.P	child	GEN	friend=P
	my child's friends					my child's friends			
e.	màá	ɲámbà	m	b ^w èè	ee.	màá	ɲámbà	m	b ^w èè=ndé
	1S.P	sheep	GN	leg		1S.P	sheep	GEN	leg=PL
	my sheep's leg					my sheep's legs			
f.	màà	ɲámbàrà	màà	b ^w éé	ff.	kàw màà	ɲámbàrà	m	b ^w èè=ndé
	3S.P	sheep	3S.P	leg		3S.P	sheep	GEN	leg=PL
	his sheep's leg					his sheep's legs			

When the possessor is a pronoun, the possessive proclitic is used. Further, if the possessor is itself a pronominally possessed noun, either a resumptive possessive proclitic (125a - f) or the genitive nasal (125aa - ff) can be used. However, by comparing examples (125a - aa), we see that the inalienable noun 'child' is marked for possession by use of the possessive proclitic or the genitive nasal. This can be compared to the lack of differences between (125e - f, ee - ff) in which either the possessive proclitic or the genitive nasal may be used.

A proper name as a possessor uses the possessive proclitic rather than the genitive nasal.

(126) Possessors with Proper Name

	<u>Phrase</u>	<u>Translation</u>
a.	kàdíjá màá= dégè Kadija 3SG.POSS head	Kadija's head
b.	kàdíjá dégè síjò ⁿ Kadija head white	Kadija's white head
c.	kàdíjá b ^w éè síjò ⁿ Kadija leg/foot white	Kadija's white foot
d.	kàdíjá màá= kòò síjò ⁿ Kadija 3SG.POSS house white	Kadija's white house

A proper name as a possessor (126a) does not take the genitive marker, but the resumptive possessive proclitic. As with the genitive phrases, a proper name as a possessor

(126b - c) omits the possessor proclitic when an adjective follows an inalienable possessed noun. An alienable possessed noun (126d) followed by an adjective does not omit the possessive morpheme.

Further, the genitive proclitic (127) - (128) is used to describe possession by animals and objects, while resumptive possessive proclitics (129) are generally used with humans.

(127) Genitive with Possessive Construction

tùréé m bíé m pé
hyena GEN droppings GEN PP

Hyena's droppings in [the granary]. (Hyena and Hare 1: 66)

Described in detail in §6.1, a genitive phrase may function as a semantically cohesive unit, as in (128), a 'belt' is literally a 'pant's rope'.

(128) Inanimate Possessor

<u>Genitive Phrase</u>	<u>Translation</u>
táwáá m bójéé pant GEN rope	'belt'

In describing honey, a speaker said the phrase shown in (129). The inalienable noun 'hand' takes the genitive marker after the noun 'person'.

(129) Human Possessor

máà n dáw [zìbìè n nì hùⁿ]^L
stick person GEN hand PP.3S

It sticks to a person's hand. (Texture Experiment, C1: 15.2)

Note that, if the lack of the genitive nasal is interpreted to indicate inalienability, 'hand' and 'foot' are considered less alienable than 'head', since 'hand' and 'foot' take the genitive nasal while 'head' does not.

5.3 Tonal Patterns on the Possessive Proclitic

The tone of the possessed noun affects the possessive morpheme and vice versa. The tonal patterns are very complex, and may involve a stress-tone interaction that will be the topicalization of future studies. Although the algorithm which derives the patterns has not yet been determined, data are listed here, organized by person and then by tonal properties. Most nouns act differently with respect to tone; there seem to be no nouns that represent an overall pattern, so as many nouns as are semantically possible as possessed nouns are shown with their various patterns.⁴¹

5.3.1 First and Third Person Possessive proclitics

The possessor pronoun proclitics are segmentally the same for first and third persons. The distinction between first and third persons is tonal. The first and third person possessive proclitics are both segmentally [maa]. The most productive tonal pattern on the possessive proclitic is a high tone on the first person and a high-low tonal melody on the third person. I posit the morpheme [maa] as being underlyingly toneless. First person is represented underlyingly with a high tone, third person with a low tone. The manner in which the tones are assigned to the possessive proclitic and subsequently to the noun stem are not completely clear, so the different patterns are shown in the following tables. (Underlying tonal melodies of nouns are listed in the left column with surface possessive tonal patterns on the right.)

⁴¹ Many nouns which semantically would not make sense in English are commonly used as possessed nouns in Bangime due to the rich animacy properties of most nouns. For example, a person's 'life force' is 'his/her wind', and the 'sky's man/woman' are the sun/moon, respectively.

5.3.2 Tone Type One Nominals

[Recall](#) that noun roots are organized into six types based on tonal properties. Tone Type One nouns are underlyingly high and surface with high tones in both the singular and plural stems. Nouns which are underlyingly high and emerge as high are primarily found among monosyllabic stems.

(130) Tone Type One /H/ → [H]

	<u>Noun</u>	<u>POSS</u>	<u>Stem</u>	<u>Person</u>	<u>Gloss</u>
a.	shadow	máá=	sí ⁿ	1.S	my shadow
	/sí ⁿ /	máà=	sí ⁿ	3.S	his shadow
b.	moon	máà=	qíé	1.S	my moon
	/qíé/	màà=	qíé	3.S	his moon

With the possessive proclitic, two patterns were obtained. The possessive proclitic emerges high (130a) in the first person. This is expected since the first person is a high tone and the possessive proclitic is posited as being toneless. The first person singular possessive proclitic (130b) is an exception. The noun itself also emerges with a high tone on at least the first mora. The example (130b) has a contour melody on the proclitic, but a level high tone on the noun.

The third person singular possessive proclitic surfaces with either low tones (130b) or a high-low pattern (130a). As will be shown, most nouns appear with at least one low tone in the third person possessive construction. The two nouns shown in (130) are exceptions to the generalization, however, there were few nouns of Tone Type One that were obtained for the possessive paradigm.

5.3.3 Tone Type Two

Class Two nouns are underlyingly low and emerge as low in the unpossessed singular and plural. Possessed forms are shown in (131).

(131) Tone Type Two /L/ → [L]

	<u>Noun</u>	<u>POSS</u>	<u>Stem</u>	<u>Person</u>	<u>Gloss</u>
a.	mosquito /b ^w ìè/	máá= màà=	b ^w íé b ^w íè	1.S 3.S	my mosquito his mosquito
b.	leg /b ^w èè/	máá= màà=	b ^w éé b ^w éè	1.S 3.S	my leg his leg
c.	mouse /nì ⁿ /	máá= màà=	nní ⁿ nní ⁿ	1.S 3.S	my mouse his mouse
d.	arm /nì/	máá= màà=	nní nní	1.S 3.S	my arm his arm
e.	field /boo/	máá= màà=	vóó vóó	1.S 3.S	my field his field
f.	sun /nèè/	máá= màà=	nníé nníé	1.S 3.S	my sun his sun
g.	termite /èìè/	máà= màà=	éíè éíè	1.S 3.S	my termite his termite
h.	ear /tànà/	máá= màà=	tánà tánà	1.S 3.S	my ear his ear
i.	heart /bìmmè/	máá= màà=	bìmmè bìmmè	1.S 3.S	my heart his heart
j.	sky /dògò/	máá= màà=	ṅàrà n dògò ṅàrá n dògò	1.S 3.S	my sky his sky

As shown above, the first person singular proclitic surfaces with high tones and the third with either high-low (131a - e) or low (131f - j) tones. The noun then emerges with all high tones (131a - f), or low in two words (131i - j), high-low in two words (131g - h). Nouns in the third person singular are not as uniform as the nouns in the first person. Some nouns emerge as high in both persons (131c - e), others as high-low in both persons (131g - h), and still others as high-low only in the third person (131i - j). The nouns in Type Two pattern more regularly than

those in Type One with respect to the possessive first and third person proclitics. Note that nouns with low tones also behave more regularly than those with high tones with respect to the tonal assignment in the augmentative stem.

5.3.4 Tone Type Three

Tone Type Three nouns are similar to those in Type One in that they have underlyingly high tones. In the unpossessed singular, however, they emerge with high-low tones. Possessed forms are shown in (132).

(132) Tone Type Three /H/ → [HL]

	<u>Noun</u>	<u>POSS</u>	<u>Stem</u>	<u>Person</u>	<u>Gloss</u>
a.	thing /kéé/	máá= màà=	kéè kéè	1.S 3.S	my thing his thing
b.	bee /míró/	máá= màà=	mírò mírò	1.S 3.S	my bee his bee
c.	water /tíé/	máá= màà=	tìè tìè	1.S 3.S	my water his water
d.	throat /kwá/	máá= màà=	kwà kwà	1.S 3.S	my throat his throat
e.	basket /kó-ró-gó/	máá= màà=	kórógò kórógò	1.S 3.S	my basket his basket
f.	thigh /tóngó-ró/	máá= màà=	tóngò tóngò	1.S 3.S	my thigh his thigh
g.	eye /síbíé/	máá= màà=	síbíè síbíè	1.S 3.S	my eye his eye
h.	breast /súyé/	máá= màà=	súyè súyè	1.S 3.S	my breast his breast
i.	beard /sámbó/	máá= màà=	sámbò sámbò	1.S 3.S	my beard his beard

j.	hair /dégé/	máá= màà=	dègè kújù dégè kújù	1.S 3.S	my hair his hair
k.	dove /píbé-ré/	máà= màà=	pívé pívè	1.S 3.S	my dove his dove
l.	leaf /p ^{wí} é ⁿ /	máá= màá=	p ^{wí} é ⁿ p ^{wí} é ⁿ	1.S 3.S	my leaf his leaf
m.	house /kó/	máá= màá=	kòò kòò	1.S 3.S	my house his house
n.	scythe /kóó ⁿ /	máá= màá=	kóò ⁿ kóò ⁿ	1.S 3.S	my scythe his scythe
o.	milk /níé/	màá= màà=	nníè nníè	1.S 3.S	my milk his milk
p.	goat /bí ⁿ /	màá= màà=	bì ⁿ bì ⁿ	1.S 3.S	my goat his goat
q.	belly button /bóṅgó-ró/	màá= màà=	bóṅwíè bóṅwíè	1.S 3.S	my belly button his belly button

Like the preceding examples, the first person possessive proclitics emerge with high tones (132a - n), with exceptions (132o - q) only having high on the second mora of the possessive proclitic. Nouns from Type Three surface, like those in Type One, with high-low tones after the first person singular, although exceptions are found (132i - k, n). The third person possessive proclitic is low among stems of this class (132d - k), (132oo - q), but exceptions high-low (132a - c), and the unusual low-high (132l - n) are also found.

5.3.5 Tone Type Four

Nouns in Type Four are underlyingly low (when unpossessed) and surface with a low-high pattern in the singular and a low tone in the plural. Possessed forms are shown in (133).

(133) Tone Type Four /L/ → [LH]

	<u>Noun</u>	<u>POSS</u>	<u>Stem</u>	<u>Person</u>	<u>Gloss</u>
a.	pick axe /dàmà/	máá= màà=	dáwá dáwà	1.S 3.S	my pick axe his pick axe
b.	stick /bùřà/	máá= màà=	búřá búřá	1.S 3.S	my stick his stick
c.	stomach /kòrè/	máá= màà=	kóríè kóríè	1.S 3.S	my stomach his stomach

As with nouns from Tone Class Two, it appears that the first person possessive proclitic and the noun stem receive high tones. The third person has a low tone on the second (133a - b) or both (133c), morae of the possessive proclitic. The noun is high (133b) or high-low (133a, c).

5.3.6 Tone Type Five

Unpossessed nouns in Class Five are like those in Class Three on the surface but, since they appear with the contour melody over the noun root in the plural, are underlyingly high-low.

Possessed forms are in (134).

(134) Tone Type Five /HL/ → [HL]

	<u>Noun</u>	<u>POSS</u>	<u>Stem</u>	<u>Person</u>	<u>Gloss</u>
a.	roof support /kíè/	máá= màà=	kíè kíè	1.S 3.S	my roof support his roof support
b.	lion /kíè/	máá= màà=	kíè kíè	1.S 3.S	my lion his lion
c.	nose /súmbì/	máá= màà=	súmbì súmbí	1.S 3.S	my nose his nose
d.	mouth /nóò/	máá= màà=	nnóó nnóó	1.S 3.S	my mouth my mouth

Here we see that the tonal behavior of the possessive proclitic is quite regular: the first person is consistently high and the third person is low. The tonal behavior of the nouns,

however, fluctuates, but resembles that of the general patterns in Class One and Three, both of which also have high tones on the noun stem, again suggesting that a high tone on the stem interacts in a specific manner with the tone of the possessive proclitic. The specific ways in which it interacts are yet to be determined.

5.3.7 Tone Type Six

Nouns in the final tonal class, Six, are underlyingly low-high. The patterns found among the possessive constructions for the nouns in Type Six are sporadic.

(135) Tone Class Six /LH/ → [LH]

	<u>Noun</u>	<u>POSS</u>	<u>Stem</u>	<u>Person</u>	<u>Gloss</u>
a.	horse /vòó/	máá= màà=	vóò vóò	1.S 3.S	my horse his horse
b.	wilderness /nàá/	màá= máá=	nnáà nnáà	1.S 3.S	my wilderness his wilderness
c.	earth /gùwíé/	máá= màà=	gùwíè gùwíè	1.S 3.S	my earth his earth
d.	woman /níé-ré/	máá= màà=	nníé-rè nníé-rè	1.S 3.S	my woman his woman
e.	corn /bíròndò/	máà= màà=	bíròndò bíròndò	1.S 3.S	my corn his corn

The tonal patterns on the possessive preclitics are as expected for the first and third person in some of the possessive constructions (135a, c, d), and most regular pattern on the possessed noun is high-low (135a, b, d, e).

5.4 Plural Possessives

Only one example of a plural possessed stem was obtained. It is shown in (136) to indicate that, as with singular possessed nouns, the tone of the possessive overrides the tone of the citation form, which in turn affects the tone of the plural clitic.

(136) Plural Possessive: Hand

	[nnì]	[nnì=ndé]	
a.	máá= nníí	máá= nníí=ndè	my hand(s)
b.	màà nníí	màà nníí=ndè	his hand(s)

The tone of the possessive pronoun is spread onto the noun. The tone of the plural clitic becomes the opposite of the surface, rather than the non-possessed, tones of the noun stem.

5.5 Second Singular Possessive Proclitics

The second person possessive proclitic is a short [a]. The second plural possessive proclitic is long [aa] but the second singular pronoun may also lengthen to [aa]. The difference between the singular second person and the plural is then determined by tone. The tones of the noun are also altered. Nouns that acted alike for the first and third possessive pronouns are not necessarily linked in the same way in the second person. Further, whereas there is a tendency for the first person possessive proclitic to surface with high tones and the third person with low tones, the second person varies. Many possessed nouns surface with a high tone.

5.5.1 Tone Type One Nouns

Possessed Type One nouns are often expressed with a high tone on the proclitic and the noun.

(137) Tone Type One Nouns

	<u>Gloss</u>	<u>Noun</u>	<u>POSS</u>	<u>Gloss</u>
a.	moon	ɸíé /H/	áá=ɸíè HH=HL	your moon
b.	milk	nníé /H/	áá=nníé HH=HH	your milk

Although the two nouns in (137) are in the same tonal class, their interaction with the possessive preclitics differ, suggesting an underlying segmental difference.

5.5.2 Tone Type Two Nouns

Nouns in Type Two also show a variety of tonal patterns after the possessive proclitic.

(138) Tone Type Two Nouns

	<u>Gloss</u>	<u>Noun</u>	<u>POSS</u>	<u>Gloss</u>
a.	sun	nnèè /L/	áá=nnéè HH=HL	your sun
b.	heart	bìmmè /L/	áá=bímmé HH=HH	your heart
c.	ear	tàṅà /L/	áá=tàṅà HH=LL	your ear
d.	mouse	nnì ⁿ /L/	àà=nnî ⁿ LL=HL	your mouse
e.	arm	nnì L	àà=nní LL=HH	your arm
f.	cow	nnàà /L/	áà=nnáá HL=HH	your cow
g.	mosquito	b ^w íè /L/	áà=b ^w íè HL=HL	your mosquito
h.	leg	b ^w èè /L/	áà=b ^w éè HL=HL	your leg
i.	termite	ɛìè /L/	áà=ɛíè HL=HL	your termite

All of the nouns roots in Type Two have low tones. If the second person singular possessive proclitic is proposed to be high, as it appears in (138a - c), then the tonal behavior of the noun stems is inexplicable. It seems more likely that the second person singular possessive proclitic has a contour melody [HL] as it appears in (138g - i) that is overlaid upon the low-toned stems. This would leave (138d - e) as exceptions.

5.5.3 Tone Type Three

Type Three Nouns are those which are high underlyingly but surface with a high-low tonal melody. These nouns end in high tones after the second person possessive proclitic.

(139) Tone Type Three Nouns

	<u>Gloss</u>	<u>Noun</u>	<u>POSS</u>	<u>Gloss</u>
a.	throat	kwà /H/	áá=kwá H=HH	your throat
b.	belly button	bóŋwíè, bóŋgó-rò /H/	áá=bóŋwíé HH=HHH	your belly button
c.	beard	sémbò/sámbó /H/	áà=sámbó HL=HH	your beard
d.	nose	sùmbí, sùmbí-rí /HL/	áà=sùmbí HL=HH	your nose
e.	thing	kéè /H/	áà=kéè HL=HL	your thing
f.	water	qíè /H/	áà=qíè HL LL	your water
g.	eye	síbíè /H/	áà=síbíè HL=HHHL	your eye
h.	breast	súqè /H/	áà=súqè HL=HL	your breast
i.	thigh	tóŋgó-rò /H/	áá=tóŋgó HH=HL	your thigh

The proclitic surfaces as either high (139a - b, i) or high-low (139c - h). All of the nouns shown have at least one high tone. As with the first person singular possessive proclitic, the second person has a high tone that interacts with the high tone of the noun stem.

5.5.4 Tone Types Four - Six

The examples for the nouns in Tone Types Four to Six are sparse, but the second person possessive paradigm does continue to show that there is at least one high tone on the possessive proclitic and the noun stem.

(140) Noun Class Four

<u>Noun</u>	<u>POSS</u>	<u>Stem</u>
stomach	kóré+é /HL/	áà=kóríè HL=HHL

Although only two nouns from Class Five were available with the second person singular possessive proclitic, it is of interest that the homophonous nouns shown in (141b) appear the same with the proclitic, suggesting that the property affected is one of the features associated with the type of noun stem, rather than with a specific word.

(141) Noun Class Five

	<u>Noun</u>	<u>POSS</u>	<u>Stem</u>
a.	mouth	nnóó /HL/	áá=nnóó HH=HH
b.	roof support lion	kíé kíé /HL/	áà=kíè áà=kíè HL=HL

One example was found in which the possessive proclitic had a glide following the vowel (141b). As shown [above](#), the [w] often deletes after the low vowel [a] among particles.

(142) Noun Class Six

	<u>Noun</u>	<u>POSS</u>	<u>Stem</u>
a.	wilderness	nnàá /HL/	áá=nnàà HH=HL
b.	earth	gùwíè /HL/	áw=gúwíè HL=HL

5.6 Plural Second Singular Possessive Stems

The examples given in (143) illustrate that, as shown previously, the tone of the possessive proclitic interacts with the noun stem, which in turn interacts with the plural clitic.

(143) Plural Possessives

a.	<u>sun</u>	<u>Plural</u>	<u>2nd Possessive</u>	<u>2nd Possessive Plural</u>
	nnèè	nniè=ndé	áá=nniè	áá=nniè=ndé
	/L/	L=H	H=HL	HH=HL=H
b.	<u>milk</u>	<u>Plural</u>	<u>2nd Possessive</u>	<u>2nd Possessive Plural</u>
	nnié	nnié=ndè	áá=nnié	áá=nnié=ndè
	/H/	HH=L	HH=HH	HH=HH=L

In the plural possessed noun construction, the possessive pronoun first overlays its tones onto the noun stem. Then, the plural clitic takes a tone which is the opposite of the noun.

5.7 Genitive Nasal with the Second Singular Possessive proclitic

When the second singular possessive proclitic co-occurs in a phrase with the genitive nasal, as shown in (144), the possessed nouns are altered by the second person possessive proclitic. This differs from the first person possessive proclitic shown above in which only the first noun of the genitive phrase was affected.

(144) Genitive Possessives

	<u>Singular</u>		<u>Gloss</u>		<u>2nd Singular Possessive</u>				
a.	ɲára	n	dógò		áá=	ɲára	n	dógò	
	God	GEN	roof	sky	2.POSS	God	GEN	roof	your sky
b.	dègè	ɲ	kúqí		áà=	dègè	ɲ	kúqì	
	head	hair	GEN	hair	2.POSS	head	GEN	hair	your hair

The first mora of the second noun (144a) and the second mora of the second noun (144b) are altered after the second person possessive proclitic.

5.8 Summary of Possessive Proclitics

The following underlying tones are posited for the singular possessive proclitics, and the most common tonal effects on nouns are summarized in (145).

(145) Tones of the Singular Possessive Paradigms

<u>Proclitic</u>	<u>Tone</u>	<u>Gloss</u>	<u>/L/ Noun</u>	<u>/H/ Noun</u>
maa	HH	1.S.POSS	H	HL
aa	HL	2.S.POSS	H	HL
maa	LL	3.S.POSS	LH	L

Although the details of the analysis are not completely clear, I posit the tones of the first and third person as being high and low, respectively. The tones which mark first and third person on [verbs](#) show the same patterns of adding a high for first person and a low for third person. The possessive morphemes are analyzed as clitics rather than affixes since two heavy syllables in a word are dispreferred. Further, I propose that the possessive proclitic is the low vowel /a/. The non-second person singular nasal precedes the possessive pronoun so that the possessive proclitics for the singular persons could be represented as [m-aa]. In general, the third person singular possessor is low-toned [màà] before an initial high tone on the noun, and rising tone [màá] before an initial low tone. A noun with underlying low tones acts differently than one with high tones, suggesting that the low toned words are perhaps better analyzed as toneless, with differences inter-tonal-type being segmental.

5.9 Definite Marker

The definite marker is a monosyllabic, monomoraic, low vowel [a]. Because the definite marker is affected by and affects a noun, but does not add to the syllabicity of the noun stem, it is, like the possessive pronouns, considered a proclitic on the noun stem and bears its own tone. Similar to the possessive pronouns, the definite marker precedes the noun. Also like the possessive pronouns, the definite marker involves a complex tonal interaction with the noun it precedes. In many cases, the tone of the definite marker either lowers the tones of the noun, or surfaces with the opposite tone of the noun root. Nouns with at least one high tone surface with a low tone on the definite marker, shown in examples in (146).

(146) Definite Marker [à]

	<u>Indefinite</u>	<u>Gloss</u>	<u>Definite</u>	<u>Gloss</u>	<u>Tone Type</u>
a.	gɛŋgiè	a salt	à=gɛŋgiè	the salt	3
b.	kóò ⁿ	a scythe	à=kóó ⁿ	the scythe	3
c.	p ^w íé ⁿ	a leaf	à=p ^w íé ⁿ	the leaf	3
d.	kóò	a house	à=kóò	the house	3
e.	kó-ró-gò	a basket	à=kògò	the basket	3
f.	gɛŋgiè	a crocodile	à=gɛŋgiè	the crocodile	6
g.	góò ⁿ	a man	à=góò ⁿ	the man	5
h.	nníjà	a mother	à=nníjà	the mother	5

One exception to the generalization that the definite marker assumes a tone opposite to that of the noun root is (146e). The surface effects on the noun following the definite marker are yet to be resolved, as, similar to the possessive construction, each noun appears to be different. Some noun such as (146a) and (146f) above neutralize the noun roots' tonal differences in the

definite form. Although in words with initial geminate nasals (146h), one of the nasals is deleted after the definite morpheme, the definite is not considered to be a prefix because the initial nasal does not contribute to the syllabicity of the noun stem.

The definite marker may also surface with a high tone, as shown in examples in (147).

(147) Definite Marker [á]

	<u>Indefinite</u>	<u>Gloss</u>	<u>Definite</u>	<u>Gloss</u>	<u>Tone Class</u>
a.	zìbèé	a person	á=zìbèè	the person	2
b.	pívé-rè	a dove	á=pívé	the dove	3
c.	kórógò	a donkey	á=kórógò	the donkey	3
d.	pévé-rè	a wind	á=pévé-rè	the wind	5
e.	ḡàmbà-rá	a sheep	á=ḡámbá-rà	the sheep	6
f.	bìròndó	corn	á=bíróndò	the corn	6
g.	nnìé-rè	woman	á=nníé-rè	the woman	6

These nouns show that the tone of the definite marker is not always low, nor does it take the opposite tone of the noun in all cases. Neither the tonal effects nor the variation between the segmental forms such as the appearance or deletion of the [-r] suffix, as in examples (147b) vs. (147d) and (147e, g), are completely understood at this time, but there appears to be a tendency for the definite marker to assume a tone opposite to that of the tone of the initial syllable in the singular form, which in turn spreads onto the initial syllable of the definite noun. In other words, if a noun has an initial low tone in the singular, the definite marker emerges as high [á] as does the initial tone of the definite noun [á cv.cv]. If the noun has an initial high tone in the singular, the opposite pattern surfaces: [à cv.cv]. The following syllables in the word are affected differently depending on the syllable structure of the word.

5.9.1 Definite Plural Nouns

Plural nouns may be made definite with the addition of the definite proclitic.

(148) Definite Plural Nouns

	<u>Plural</u>	<u>Gloss</u>	<u>DEF Plural</u>	<u>Gloss</u>
a.	zìbè=n(d)é	people	á=zìbè=ndé	the people
b.	kóróńó=ndè	donkeys	á=kòròńò=ndé	the donkeys
c.	nníjà=ndé	mothers	à=níjà=ndé	the mothers

As with the possessive construction, the tones of the definite marker overlay the noun stem before the plural clitic is added. Examples (148a) ‘the people’ and (148c) ‘the mothers’ show that the singular and plural definite stems may have the same tones, but (148b) ‘the donkeys’ diverges. Numerous examples of the definite morpheme are found throughout Text V: Chief V in Appendix I. In the narrative, the definite morpheme appears to block the polar tonal process of the plural clitic. Since in all the elicited examples the plural clitic adopts the opposing tone to the noun stem, the cause of the blocking of the polar tone in the text is unknown.⁴²

5.9.2 Definite Objects

An object noun in a verb phrase (149) may appear as indefinite (149a) or definite (149b). The examples in (149c - d) illustrate the use of the definite marker with the demonstrative.

(149) Definite Marker with Objects

a.	nè	méè	kúru+bè	.
	give	1.S	basket	

Give me a basket.

⁴² The definite plural construction is another possible instantiation of the downstepped high tone. Examples such as ‘road’ [jèmbíè] [à 'jém'bé=ndé] and ‘bag’ [jém'bē] [à jèmbè=ndé] were elicited with either a high or a downstepped high depending on the speaker. This matter is left to future research.

- b. nè mé à= kùrù+bè .
give 1.S DEF basket

Give me the basket.

- c. nàw à= kùrù+bé káw nò .
give DEF basket DEM bring

Give that basket to me.

- d. nà(w) á= kùrù+bé káw (nò) wàj .
give DEF basket DEM bring PP

Give that basket to me.

The demonstrative [kaw] is glossed ‘it’ when used alone and ‘that’ when used in combination with the definite marker. The demonstrative follows the noun, the definite precedes it. The singular, indefinite tones for the noun ‘basket’ are seen in the sentence in (149a). The definite marker causes the noun to surface with low tones when clause-final (149b), but with low tones on all but the final mora if the noun precedes the demonstrative morpheme (149c - d).

5.9.3 Definite Marker and Demonstrative

If a noun phrase contains a definite noun and is followed by the demonstrative [káw], the tone(s) of the noun lower, and the demonstrative remains with its lexical tones, as shown in (150).

(150) Definite Demonstratives

	<u>DEF</u>	<u>Noun</u>	<u>Demonstrative</u>	<u>Gloss</u>	<u>Noun Root</u>
a.	à= DEF	b ^w èè leg	káw DEM	that leg	b ^w èè /L/
b.	à= DEF	kòòrèè stomach	káw DEM	that stomach	kóréè /HL/
c.	à= DEF	dègè head	káw DEM	that head	dégè /H/
d.	à= DEF	zìbèè person	káw DEM	that person	zìbéé /LH/

The noun ‘person’ (150d) has a low-high toned root which remains low after the definite marker in the singular, (compare with the plural (148a)).

Similar to the quantifier clitic (§7.10), the demonstrative follows the plural clitic, and takes its own plural marker. [Recall](#) that the demonstrative takes a plural marker that differs from the nominal marker. The examples in (151) illustrate the tonal effects of the noun and the demonstrative in plural noun phrases.

(151) Plural Definite Demonstratives

	<u>DEF</u>	<u>Noun</u>	<u>DEM</u>	<u>PL</u>	<u>Gloss</u>	<u>Noun Root</u>
a.	à=	zìbèè	káw	–rú		zìbéeé
	DEF	person	DEM	PL	these people	/LH/
b.	à=	kòò	káw			kóò
	DEF	house	DEM		that house	/H/
c.	à=	kòò=ṅé	kàà	–rú		
	DEF	house=PL	DEM	–PL	these houses	

The example (151a) shows the same noun ‘person’ as (150d) above. The tones on the noun are the same, lowered by the definite marker, and the demonstrative is unaffected by the definite marker. Next, compare (151b - c). Although the tonal scope of the definite marker only consists of the noun (151b), and does not include the plural clitic (151c), the tone on the demonstrative is low following the plural clitic (151c), and surfaces with long vowels rather than a vowel and the glide.

5.9.4 Obligatorily Definite Nouns

Many animal and plant species are obligatorily preceded by the definite marker. The effects of the definite marker on the noun stem seem to be more regular when it is obligatory than when it is added to mark the noun as being definite.

Bird species are often [genitive](#) or [adjectival](#) phrases. Nouns in such phrases illustrate the scope of the tone of the definite marker. The first examples (152a - b) are genitive phrases showing the tone-lowering of the initial nouns, ‘woodpile’ and ‘rain’, respectively, which possess the noun ‘bird’, occurring tonally in [citation form](#). Contrast the singular, indefinite form of ‘bird’ [dóré+è] (152a - b) with the low-toned definite form (152c - d).

(152) Bird Species: Citation Tone-Lowering

	<u>Definite</u>	<u>Noun Stem</u>			<u>Translation</u>	<u>Gloss</u>	<u>Noun Root</u>
a.	à= DEF	sàndzà woodpile	n GEN	dóré+è bird	the woodpile’s bird	warbler	sàndzà /H/
b.	à= DEF	zòò ⁿ rain	n GEN	dóré+è bird	the rain’s bird	cuckoo sp	zòò ⁿ /HL/
c.	à= DEF	dòrè+è bird	bírí b è thin		the thin bird	golden sparrow	dóré+è /H/
d.	à= DEF	dòrè+è bird	dáá INC	m T	béndè long	the long bird	hoopoe

Each of these examples undergoes tone lowering after the definite proclitic. The scope of the pitch-lowering is limited to the initial noun stem, shown by the examples in (153), illustrating that words that follow the noun are not considered part of the noun stem.

(153) Beetle Species: Agentive

	<u>Definite</u>	<u>Noun</u>	<u>Modifiers</u>	<u>Agentive</u>	<u>Gloss</u>	<u>Noun Root</u>
a.	à= DEF	kòòmbè beetle	bírí b èè thin		beetle sp.	kóómbè /H/
b.	à= DEF	kòòmbè beetle	éí ⁿ tail	–éé ⁿ AGENT	water scorpion	
c.	à= DEF	kòòmbè beetle	bír é fire	–éé ⁿ AGENT	firefly	

No matter what the underlying tone or syllable length of the noun, the noun which is marked with the obligatory definite in a name of a species of insect or animal is lowered after the definite marker. Other constituents in the noun phrase are not lowered, as shown in (154).

(154) Ant Species

	<u>Definite</u>	<u>Noun</u>	<u>Modifiers</u>		<u>Gloss</u>	<u>Noun Root</u>
a.	à= DEF	tùmbè ant	kúú ⁿ hip	jèngì+jéè thin	ant sp.	túmbè /HL/
b.	à= DEF	tùmbè ant	póó ^l ré black		ant sp.	

Although (154a) is a genitive phrase, the genitive nasal has been deleted because a modifier follows the noun. Only the tones on the noun are lowered. The example (154b) shows an adjective directly following a noun but the modifier's tones are not affected.

5.9.5 Definite with Diminutive and Augmentative Morphemes

Whereas words which follow a noun are not part of the noun stem and are thus unaffected by the tone-lowering effects of the definite, bound morphemes are part of the noun stem, and thus are affected. As shown in examples using the noun 'beetle', the effects of tone-lowering from the definite marker which were observed above in (152) are blocked by the addition of the [diminutive](#) or the [augmentative](#). The plural clitic has the opposite tone of the final suffix of either the diminutive suffix or the augmentative.

(155) Diminutive and Augmentative with Definite and Plural

	<u>Beetle</u>	<u>Plural</u>	<u>Diminutive</u>	<u>Augmentative</u>
	kóóm̀b̀è	kóóm̀b̀é=ndè	kóóm̀è-m̀è	kóóm̀b̀é-b̀óř̀ò
	<u>Definite Phrase</u>			<u>Gloss</u>
a.	à= DEF	kóóm̀è beetle	-m̀è DIM	the little beetle

- b. à= kóómbé -bóřò
 DEF beetle AUG the large beetle
- c. à= kóómé -'mí =ndè
 DEF beetle DIM PL the little beetles
- d. à= kóómbé -bóřó =ndè
 DEF beetle AUG PL the large beetles

The definite marker is low but the tones of the noun are not lowered, these remain high, in each of these examples, whereas in the names of species in (153) above the same noun's 'beetle' tones were lowered. The reason for this is proposed to be because the tonal effects of the definite marker differ when it is obligatory, or because the effects of the morphemes which follow the noun. The tonal effects of the definite proclitic interact with bound morphemes, clitics, or suffixes. Note also that the [b] of the [mb] sequence of the diminutive allomorph is deleted when the diminutive suffix is attached (153c).

5.10 Summary of Nominal Proclitics

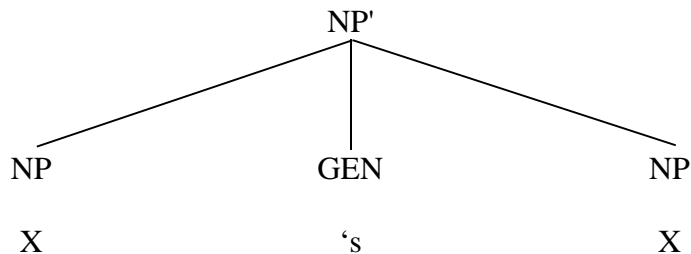
Proclitics found on nouns are the possessive pronouns and the definite marker. Because the possessive pronoun proclitics are affected by the tones of the person marker, the interactions of the proclitics shown in this chapter are not as consistent as with the plural and augmentative shown in the previous chapter. The tonal interactions of the proclitics affect the noun stem, but not unbound words which follow the noun. Clitics and suffixes which follow the noun interact with the tone of the definite proclitic, though not those of possessive proclitic, suggesting that the definite is more closely bound to the noun root than the possessive pronouns. Because most elements in the noun phrase follow rather than precede the noun, it is difficult to draw further conclusions about the boundedness of the proclitics.

Chapter 6. Genitival Referring Expressions

6.1 Nominal Derivation

As shown in the previous two chapters, there are only two productive derivational suffixes on nouns, the diminutive [-ɛ] and the agentive [-ɕiɛⁿ]. There is one derivational suffix [-bɔ̃ŋo] and one inflectional clitic, the plural [=ndɛ]. There is also a set of productive inflectional proclitics: possessive pronouns and a definite marker. Although all these processes are available in the language, Bangime does not use affixation or cliticization as a primary resource to create new lexical items. In the previous chapter the genitive marker was shown to be a means to express possession. In addition to this, many noun phrases are formed by the conjoining of constituents with the genitive marker. Such genitive phrases function semantically to refer to a single object. The syntactic structure of the genitive phrase is represented using the tree diagram in (156).

(156) Genitival Construction



We find an exceptional array of genitive constructions which can be observed especially in the names of flora and other descriptive or ‘deep Bangime’ terms.⁴³ As shown in the previous chapter, a genitive construction begins with the possessor noun and is followed by the noun which is possessed, connected by a nasal. Examples are shown in (157) using the insect ‘bee’.

⁴³ The reader is encouraged to review the Bangime dictionary available at <http://dogonlanguages.org/bangime.cfm> for the exact glossing of the flora and fauna terms used in this chapter.

(157) Genitive Expressions: ‘bee’

<u>Possessor</u>	<u>Possessed Nouns</u>			
mírò	páyá-rà	táárè	kòò	b ^w iè
/H/	/H/	/H/	/H/	/L/
bee	container	wax	house	leg

	<u>Stem</u>	<u>Gloss</u>	<u>Translation</u>
a.	mírò m b ^w iè	bee’s leg	bee’s leg
b.	mírò m páyá	bee’s hive	beehive (man-made, wooden)
c.	mírò n táárè	bee’s wax	beeswax
d.	mírò ŋ kóò	bee’s house	beehive (natural) or honeycomb

The head noun ‘bee’ is a [high tone stem](#), Tone Type Three, the noun surfaces with a falling tonal melody in the singular and a high tone in the plural and the augmentative. By comparing the root tones of each possessed noun with the tones in the genitive phrases, we see that there is no tonal change. The fact that the tones are not changed from their root form, just as in adjective phrases, shown in §7.2 below, indicates that the elements of genitive phrases function phonologically and syntactically as separate words in a phrase, rather than as one stem. Semantically, however, these constructions typically refer to one object. The reason for the lack of the [-r] suffix in (157b) is unknown.

6.2 Plural Genitive Constructions

To further illustrate the syntactic properties of the genitive phrase, we examine the interaction of the plural clitic in the genitive phrase in (158).

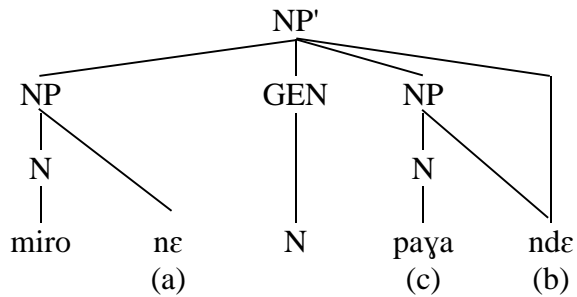
(158) Plural Genitive Phrases

	<u>Stem</u>	<u>Gloss</u>	<u>Translation</u>
a.	mírò m b ^{wi} è=ndé	bee's legs	
b.	míró=ndè m b ^{wi} è=ndé	bees' legs	
c.	míró= <u>n</u> è m páyá	bees' hive	
d.	mírò m páyá=ndè	bee's hives	beehives, bee's hive
e.	mírò n tááré=ndè	bee's wax(es)	beeswax(es)
f.	mírò η kóó=ndè	bee's houses	beehives

Example (158a) shows that when the possessor is singular, and the possessed noun plural, the plural marker follows the noun which is possessed. If the possessor is plural (158b), the plural clitic can also occur following the both the possessor and the possessee. The phrase (158c) can be compared to the phrase (158d). The possessor noun in the phrase (158c) is plural and marked as such. The phrase (158d) could be translated as indicating that there are many beehives, or one bee having multiple hives. The last two examples (158e - f) are also ambiguous in that they can either indicate one bee having many waxes and houses (hives), or multiple bees having multiple waxes and multiple hives. As with possessive and definite constructions, the plural clitic takes a tone opposite to the final tone of the phrase-final noun stem.

The diagram shown in (159) illustrates the syntactic difference between a genitive phrase which refers to many bees with one hive (159a), one which indicates many bees with many hives (159b), and a phrase which is translated as one bee with many hives (159c).

(159) Plural Genitive Phrase



In all cases, the plural clitic takes the opposite tone of the noun to which it attaches in the manner outlined in (160), which illustrates the use of genitive constructions for names of flora.⁴⁴

(160) Flora Species

	<u>Genitive Expression</u>			<u>Gloss</u>	<u>Translation</u>	
	<u>Possessor</u>		<u>Possessee</u>			
a.	kórójò donkey	=ndè =PL	n GEN	tàɲà ear	=né =PL donkeys' ears	
b.	kórójò donkey		n GEN	tàɲà ear	donkey's ear	aloe
c.	kórójò donkey		n GEN	tàɲà ear	=né PL donkey's ears	aloes
d.	jáá child	=né PL	n GEN	tópàà goatskin bag	children's goatskin bag	plant sp.
e.	jàà child	=né PL	n GEN	tópàà goatskin bag	=ndé PL children's goatskin bags	plant sp.PL

⁴⁴ Further examples show the expected nominal tonal patterns in genitive phrases:

eùrí ɲ kúɥì fly's wing
eùrí-ndé ɲ kúɥì flies' wing
eùrí ɲ kúɥì-ndè fly's wings

The first example (160a) is a regular genitive phrase, referring to the ears of multiple donkeys. The second genitive phrase (160b) is the name of a species of aloe which resembles the ear of a donkey, or it could simply refer to the ear of a donkey. The plural marker following the second noun of (160c) indicates either multiple ears (i.e. one donkey and its ears) or multiple plants. The third phrase (160d) is the name of a plant species which is small, and looks like a bag. It is marked with the plural on both of the nouns, as the bag belongs to children (160e). The phrase is homophonous with ‘children’s goat bag’, many children with one bag.

6.3 Gender Marking

The genitive construction is also used to indicate the gender of animals, as shown in (161).

(161) Animal Genders

<u>Possessors</u>	<u>Possessed Nouns</u>				
ɲàmbà-rá	nnàà	vòó	góò ⁿ	nnié-ré	bìé
sheep	bovine	horse	man/ male	woman/ female	baby/ young
/LH/	/L/	/LH/	/HL/	/LH/	/H/
	<u>Singular</u>	<u>Plural</u>		<u>Gloss</u>	<u>Translation</u>
a.	ɲàmbà-rá ɲ góò ⁿ	ɲàmbà-rá ɲ góò=ndé		male of sheep	ram
b.	ɲàmbà-rá n nié-ré	ɲàmbà-rá n nié=ndè		female of sheep	ewe
c.	nnàà ɲ góò ⁿ	nnàà ɲ góò=ndé		male of cow	bull
d.	nnàà n nié-ré	nnàà n nié=ndè		female of cow	cow
e.	vòó ɲ góò ⁿ	vòó ɲ góò=ndé		male of horse	stallion
f.	vòó n nié-ré	vòó n nié=ndè		female of horse	mare

The fact that the noun which indicates gender follows the noun referring to the animal specifies that the entire noun phrase is marked as being male or female, not the specific noun.

The second noun, which specifies the gender of the animal, is not considered an [adjective](#) since the genitive nasal is not deleted. Although it was shown in §4.2.4 that certain nouns may take a suffix to derive the meaning ‘quality of X’, the nouns shown here do not have the suffix [-ε]. The reason for this may be due to semantic denotations such that the examples above can be translated as ‘the gender *of* an animal’.⁴⁵ Switching the order of the two nouns, [góòⁿ η ηàmbàrá], gives the reading ‘a man’s sheep’, showing that the head of a genitive phrase is the initial noun, followed by a nasal to link the second noun.

With gendered phrases for animals, we see that the plural may only be attached to the second noun. Hence, these phrases refer to a single, gender specified, noun.

6.4 Diminutive Genitive Constructions

Another example of a genitive expression is that referring to young animals. The diminutive morpheme is obligatorily suffixed to a possessor noun which is followed by the genitive nasal and the word [bì+é] ‘baby’ or ‘young’. The constructions shown in (162) are interpreted as meaning either ‘offspring of animal’ or ‘young animal’.

(162) Animal Offspring

	<u>Genitive Expression</u>		<u>Gloss</u>	<u>Translation</u>
a.	ηàmbàrà-è sheep-DIM	m GEN	bì+é baby	sheep’s baby lamb
b.	nnà-é cow-DIM	m GEN	bì+é baby	cow’s baby calf
c.	bú-wè ~ υòó-mè horse-DIM	m GEN	bì+é baby	horse’s baby colt

⁴⁵ The augmentative morpheme is also not permitted to intervene in these phrases: [ηàmbàrà η góòⁿ=bóòò] but [*ηàmbara bōō η góòⁿ]. The plural clitic and diminutive suffix are [ηàmbá-rà m bíé=ndè mí=ndè n nié-rè] ‘sheep’s ewes’.

The tonal behavior of the [diminutive](#) suffix differs from that of the plural in that the diminutive carries its own tone and does not adopt a tone opposite that of the noun root. Shown with the possessor noun, the diminutive has allomorphs [ɛ] (163a - b) ~ [wɛ ~ mɛ] (163c), and is usually low toned but sometimes emerges as high (163b). The tone of the possessed noun is unchanged. The tone of the diminutive is unaltered by the genitive or the noun possessor.

The distribution of the diminutive suffix in the genitive construction is similar to that of the plural clitic. As shown in examples of the usage of the plural clitic in a genitive phrase (161), the examples in (163) show that the diminutive suffix may attach to the first (163a), second (163b), or both (163c) nouns. However, the difference lies in the interpretation of the genitive construction as a phrase or as a stem. The diminutive, being a suffix, may only attach to a noun stem, not a noun phrase.

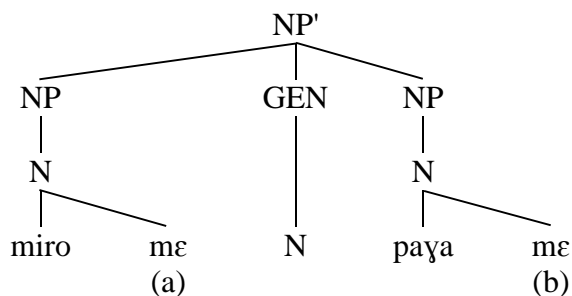
(163) Genitive with Diminutive

	<u>Genitive Expression</u>				<u>Gloss</u>	
a.	mmíró bee	-mè DIM	m GEN	páyà container	a little bee's hive	
b.	mmírò bee	m GEN	páyà container	-mè DIM	a little beehive	
c.	mmíró bee	-mè DIM	m GEN	páyà container	-mè DIM	a little bee's little hive
d.	mmíró bee	-bóřò AUG	mmírò bee	páyà container	dágá+è small	a large bee's small beehive
e.	góò ⁿ man	n GEN	tòpáá goatbag	-mè DIM	a man's little goatbag	
f.	góò ⁿ man	n GEN	tòpáá goatbag	dágá+è small	a man's small goatbag	

The example (164a) refers to the hive of a little bee, and (164b) marks the second noun as diminutive. To indicate that a little bee has a little hive, as (164c), each noun is marked with the diminutive and the nouns are linked with the genitive marker. To describe a large bee, using the [augmentative](#), the noun is repeated. The second noun is followed by the adjective ‘small’ (which is obligatorily suffixed with the diminutive) rather than the diminutive suffix alone. Note that the genitive nasal is omitted after the augmentative (164d). In expressions that do not use the augmentative, (164e - f), the diminutive or the adjective are acceptable to qualify the second noun as being little or small.

The diagram in (164) illustrates that a diminutive suffix only attaches to noun stems.

(164) Diminutive within the NP



The plural clitic may attach to either the noun phrase as a whole, or a noun, as was illustrated in (159), but the diminutive suffix only attaches to nouns.

6.5 Augmentative Genitive Constructions

The examples of the use of the augmentative with genitive constructions (165) illustrate that the genitive nasal is deleted after, but not before, the augmentative morpheme. The genitive nasal precedes the noun, which in turn is followed by the augmentative (165c, f, h, k), but is omitted following the augmentative (165d, e, g, j). Other instances where the genitive nasal is deleted are in [inalienable](#) possessive constructions and when an [adjective](#) modifies a possessed noun in a genitive construction. The augmentative tonal effects in the genitive construction are shown.

(165) Augmentative and Genitive

	<u>Augmentative</u>	<u>Gloss</u>
a.	mmíró–bóřò	large bee
b.	páyá–bóřò	large container
c.	mmírò <u>m</u> páyá–bóřò	bee's large hive, large beehive
d.	mmíró–bóřò páyá	large bee's hive
e.	mmíró–bóřò b ^w iè	large bee's leg
f.	mmíró <u>ŋ</u> b ^w iè–bóřò	bee's large leg, large bee-leg
g.	mmírò–bóřò kúyì	large bee's wing
h.	mmírò <u>ŋ</u> kúyì–bóřò	bee's large wing, large bee-wing
i.	èurí–bóřó	large fly
j.	èurí–bóřó kúyì	large fly's wing
k.	èurí <u>ŋ</u> kúyì–bóřò	fly's large wing, large fly-wing

As in the plural genitive phrases, the augmentative in the phrases in (165) may be attached to the first (165a - b), second (165c - d), or even both nouns, as in [d^wàà–bóřó tíngá–bóřò] 'large tree's large branches'. Like the plural, the augmentative may refer to the nouns within the phrase (as being large), or may referred to the object which is represented by the entire genitive phrase (as being large). Some examples, such as (165c, f, h, k) are ambiguous as to the semantic scope of the augmentative. The genitive nasal is omitted after a noun which is followed by the by the augmentative; this does not correspond to the plural or diminutive patterns, but it does correspond to the modifier. The augmentative morpheme is morphologically in between a modifier and a clitic, so this is a somewhat expected pattern.

From the examples in (165) - (166), it is clear that the tone of the augmentative, like that of the plural, is unaffected by the phrase; it is the stem to which the augmentative attaches directly that gives the augmentative its polar tone.

Certain plants may employ the augmentative to indicate subspecies, as shown in (166). Although the genitive nasal is not used in these examples, they are included here to illustrate another means of word formation.

(166) Adjective Phrases

	<u>Phrase</u>	<u>Translation</u>	<u>Gloss</u>
a.	gàndzà		fonio
b.	gàndzà =ndé		fonio (PL)
c.	gàndzà bíríbíè	thin fonio	fonio sub sp.
d.	gàndzà bíríbé =ndè	thin fonios	fonio sub sp. (PL)
e.	gàndzà -bóřó	large fonio	fonio sub sp.
f.	gàndzà -bóřó =nè	large fonios	fonio sub sp. (PL)

The examples (166a - b) show the species name for the grain ‘fonio’ in the singular and plural, accompanied by subspecies names (166c - f), which refer to ‘thin’ and ‘large’ varieties. The behavior of the augmentative does not differ when it is an integral part of a species name.

6.6 Genitive Constructions with Multiple Suffixes

As was shown in §6.4, the diminutive may be used in combination with the genitive morpheme in a noun phrase to refer to the offspring or animals. To show that the diminutive suffix and the plural clitic are combined in a genitive phrase in at least five different ways, the plural forms of animal offspring are shown in (167).

(167) Genitive Diminutive Plural Phrases

	<u>Phrase</u>	<u>Gloss</u>	<u>Translation</u>
a.	ηάμβά=ndè m bì+έ	sheeps' (PL) baby	lamb
b.	ηάμβά-ρά m bí=ndè mí=ndè	sheep's babies	lambs
c.	nnà-έ m bíέ-'mí=ndè	cow's babies	calves
d.	nnàà=ndé m bíέ-'mí=ndè	cows' babies	calves
e.	bú-jè m bíέ-'mí=ndè	horse's babies	foals

The plural clitic may follow the head noun of the genitive phrase (168a), with deletion of the [-r] suffix, indicating there are multiple sheep with one lamb. Whereas we saw previously that 'sheep' was marked with the diminutive when the phrase indicated 'lamb', with the plural diminutive construction, the diminutive marker is not attached to the head noun before the plural clitic, i.e. it is not [*ηάμβά-mí=ndè m bíε].

The example (168b) is also curious in that, not only is the word for 'baby' marked with the plural clitic, the [mi] allomorph of the [diminutive-plural stem](#) is also marked with the plural clitic. Each of the examples in (167) can be denoted as plural in this manner, that is, by doubly marking the stem for plural, as illustrated in (167d). When animal offspring are marked for gender, the constructions are also doubly marked for plural. For example, [ηάμβά-ρά m bíέ=ndè mí=ndè nnìέ-rè] means 'female lambs'.

The third example, (167c), illustrates that the plural marker is added to the end of the phrase when the diminutive is attached, such as in the word for a cow's calves. To indicate that there are multiple cows with multiple calves (167d), the plural clitic follows both nouns.

The final example (168e) is like that of (168c), and illustrates the allomorph for ‘baby’ with the diminutive suffix and the plural both attached to the final noun. The tones are unaltered from the uncombined plural and diminutive suffixes shown above (161).

The augmentative may also be combined with the plural, as shown in in (168).

(168) Genitive Plural Augmentative Phrases

<u>Possessor</u>	<u>Possessed Nouns</u>		
d ^w àà	p ^w íè ⁿ	kíè	tíngà
/L/	/H/	/HL/	/HL/
tree	leaf	branch	trunk

	<u>Genitive Expression</u>				<u>Gloss</u>
a.	d ^w àà tree	m GEN	p ^w íè ⁿ leaf		tree’s leaf
b.	d ^w àà tree	m GEN	p ^w éé leaf	=ndè PL	tree’s leaves
c.	d ^w àà tree	m GEN	p ^w íè ⁿ leaf	–bóřò	tree’s large leaf
d.	d ^w àà tree	m GEN	p ^w íè ⁿ leaf	–bóřó =ndè	tree’s large leaves
e.	d ^w àà tree	ŋ GEN	kíè branch		tree’s branch
f.	d ^w àà tree	ŋ GEN	kíè branch	=ndé PL	tree’s branches
g.	d ^w àà tree	ŋ GEN	kíè branch	–bóřó AUG	tree’s large branch
h.	d ^w àà tree	ŋ GEN	kíè branch	–bóřó =ndè AUG PL	tree’s large branches
i.	d ^w àà tree	n GEN	tíngà trunk		tree’s trunk

- j. d^wàà n tíngá =ndè tree's trunks
tree GEN trunk PL
- k. d^wàà n tíngá –bóřò tree's large trunk
tree GEN trunk AUG
- l. d^wàà –bóřó =ndè tíngá =ndè large trees' trunks
tree AUG PL trunk PL

The word 'leaf' has two allomorphs; a front vowel diphthong in the singular and a mid vowel diphthong in the plural. The root tones of the noun surface before the plural and augmentative in the manner described in Chapter 3 and are unaffected by the genitive construction. The plural clitic follows the augmentative (168d, h) and may follow each of the constituents in the genitive construction (168l). Note that, as with the augmentative genitive constructions above, the genitive nasal is omitted after the augmentative (168l).

6.7 Genitive Adjectival Constructions

Genitive constructions may act as a stem when they are modified by an adjective, in that the adjective follows the entire genitive construction and its affixes. The genitive marker follows the possessor noun (169a - b), and the possessee is modified by the augmentative. [Recall](#) that the genitive nasal is not deleted when the augmentative follows the second noun.

(169) Genitive Augmentative Plural Adjective Phrases

	<u>Genitive Expression</u>						<u>Gloss</u>
a.	d ^w àà	m	p ^w íé ⁿ	–bóřò	gǔjé+è (grass green)	káraà new)	tree's large green leaf
	tree	GEN	leaf	AUG			
b.	d ^w àà	m	p ^w íé ⁿ	–bóřò	gǔjé+è (grass green)	káraà =ndé new)	tree's large green leaves
	tree	GEN	leaf	AUG		PL	

As in a noun phrase which is not a genitive construction, the adjective follows the augmentative, and the plural clitic is attached after the adjective, at the end of the noun phrase. The plural clitic adopts polar tones to the noun that it follows. The tonal-syntactic implications of the plural are discussed in detail in Chapter 4.

6.8 Combinations of Genitive Phrases

A series of possessed nouns may be linked by repeated insertion of the genitive nasal. Examples of a series of possessor-possessed nouns acting as stems are found among flora terms. Thus far we have seen possessive constructions where the plural or other suffixes may intervene. Among flora terms, such as those in (170), the genitive and plural clitic intervene within the ‘stem’.

(170) Genitive Phrases: Flora Species

<u>Possessors</u>	<u>Possessed nouns</u>
bî ⁿ búwò tìgàè gìmà	
goat herd peanut fruit (sp)	
/H/ n/a /L/ /L/	

	<u>Genitive Expression</u>	<u>Gloss</u>	<u>Translation</u>
a.	bî ⁿ m búwò goat GEN herd (v.)	goat's herder	goat herder
b.	bî m b ^w ò =ndé goat GEN herd PL	goat's herders	goat herders
c.	[bî ⁿ m búwò] n tìgàè goat GEN herd GEN peanut	goat's herder's peanut	
d.	[[bî ⁿ =ndé m b ^w ò] n tìgàè] =ndé goat PL GEN herd GEN peanut PL	goats' herder's peanuts	herb sp.
e.	[[bî ⁿ m b ^w ò =ndé] n tìgàè] =ndé goat GEN herd PL GEN peanut PL	goat's herders' peanuts	herb sp.PL

f.	bî ⁿ	m	b ^w ò	=ndé	n	tìgàè			
	goat	GEN	herd	PL	GEN	peanut			goat's herders' peanut
g.	*bî ⁿ	m	b ^w ò	n	tìgàè	=ndé			*goat's herder's peanuts
h.	bî ⁿ	m	b ^w ò	=ndé	ŋ	gìmà	~gìjò ⁿ		
	goat	GEN	herd	PL	GEN	fruit sp.			goat herders' fruit sp. vine sp.
i.	bî ⁿ	m	b ^w ò	=ndé	ŋ	gìjò	=ndé	goat herders' fruit	
	goat	GEN	herd	PL	GEN	sp.	PL	sp.'s	vine sp.PL

The example (170a) is a simple genitive phrase like those shown thus far, with its corresponding plural stem (170b). The difference is that the possessed word is a verb 'herd, tend (a flock)', rather than a noun as has been shown thus far. The nominal form of the verb 'herd' is 'herder', formed with the [agentive suffix](#). The example (170c) is a genitive phrase which possesses a second genitive phrase, and translates as shown. Unlike the genitive phrases shown thus far, the phrase (170d) includes the suffixed plural within the first NP. In fact, to make the herb species plural (170e), both nouns must be followed by the plural morpheme. The example (170g) shows that it is impermissible to make this construction plural by adding the plural morpheme only to the end of the phrase. Instead (170f), both the first and final nouns are followed by the plural clitic. The plural following the entire phrase (170g) is permissible only when it refers to the name of an herb species, but not acceptable with the sum of the individual word's glosses. A second flora species using the same 'goat herder' expression (170h) is shown with its corresponding plural (170i), and literal translation, as indicated below each phrase.

6.9 Agentive Genitives

The verb 'herd' is used with 'goat' in the name of a plant species which is often eaten by goat herders. Agentive constructions also productively employ the genitive construction as shown in (171), but the possessed noun is phrase-initial rather than final as has been presented in examples thus far.

(171) Agentive Genitive Phrases

	<u>Genitive Expression</u>				<u>Gloss</u>
a.	dégé head head owner's village	ɛɛ̀ɛ̀ ⁿ owner	n GEN	díjǎ village	village chief
b.	búwó herd herder's goats	-ɛ̀ɛ̀ɛ̀ ⁿ AGENT	m GEN	bíí goat	=ndè PL goat herder
c.	kéwɛ̀ɛ̀ɛ̀ ⁿ steal.NOM stealer of shoe	-ɛ̀ɛ̀ɛ̀ ⁿ AGENT	kéwɛ̀ɛ̀ɛ̀ ⁿ steal	máá= POSS	kókè shoe shoe thief
d.	kóŋgé drum drum beater is drumming	n dógó T beat	-ɛ̀ɛ̀ɛ̀ ⁿ AGENT	náá INC	kóŋgé drum drum beater

The initial example (171a) utilizes the noun ‘head’ with the agentive as a stem, which in turn possesses the noun ‘village’. The phrase may also be stated with the nouns reversed so that the village, in effect, possesses the chief: [díjǎ n dégé ɛ̀ɛ̀ɛ̀ⁿ], with the genitive nasal, but not with the possessive proclitic *[dégé ɛ̀ɛ̀ɛ̀ⁿ máá=díjǎ]. The second example (171b) creates the noun ‘herder’ from the verb ‘herd’, which in turn acts as a stem to possess ‘goats’. The plural marker may not be interpreted to mark ‘goat’ or the entire phrase in this example. To indicate multiple herders, ‘herders of goats’, both nouns would be denoted as plural.

Example (171c) is unusual since the language already has a [nominalized verb](#) for the word ‘steal’. However, the term for a ‘thief’ is rendered with the agentive (171c). The genitive alternative is impossible here [*kúùⁿ/kéwɛ̀ɛ̀ɛ̀ⁿ-ɛ̀ɛ̀ɛ̀ⁿ ŋ kókè]. The example (171d) also repeats the word ‘drum’ and seems to topicalize on the action of the drummer beating a drum rather than possessing one since the [incompletive particle](#) is used rather than the genitive nasal.

6.10 Genitive with Postposition

Although [postpositions](#) typically do not co-occur with the genitive, one postposition, [ŋ kò], glossed as ‘inside’, is always preceded by it. I analyze this as the [root](#) of ‘stomach’ [kò+ríé], preceded by the genitive marker, as the use of ‘stomach’ to refer to ‘inside’ is an areal feature for West African languages and it is shown in its full form in certain narratives (Tiga 1.150).

(172) Postposition as Genitive Construction

à=	bòjéè	sùéè	máà=	tópàà	ŋ	kò .
DEF	rope	descend	1.S.POSS	goat bag	GEN	PP

The rope descends into my goat bag.

Other postpositions (and the completive particle) are preceded by a secondary personal pronoun which agrees with the subject of the clause.

6.11 Definite Genitives

As shown in §5.9.4, certain flora terms are obligatorily denoted as being [definite](#).

(173) Genitive Definite Phrase

à=	tùbàkú	n	wúré+è
DEF	foreigner	GEN	Shea tree

The foreigner’s Shea tree (tree sp.)

[Recall](#) that the definite marker often lowers (at least) the initial tones of the noun it precedes, especially when it is obligatory. In (173) we see that the tone-lowering only spreads to the penultimate syllable of the initial noun of the genitive phrase.

Multiple phrases are shown in (174) with ‘tree’ and ‘head’ plus the adjective ‘white’ in order to illustrate the loss of the genitive marker with adjective phrases, and the fact that the definite marker does not induce the loss of any segment in the phrase. The phrases (174a - c) are simple phrases while the phrase (174d) is the name of an herb species with a white flower.

(174) Inanimate Definite Possessor Subject

	<u>Genitive Expression</u>			<u>Gloss</u>	<u>Translation</u>
a.	(à) DEF	dègè head	síjò ⁿ white		the white head
b.	d ^w àà tree	n GEN	dégè head		tree's head
c.	à DEF	d ^w àà tree	n GEN	dégè head	the tree's head
d.	à DEF	d ^w àà tree	dègè head	síjò ⁿ white	the tree's white head Amaranthaceae sp.

The example (174a) shows that the definite marker affects the noun tonally. The phrase (174b) is like those presented thus far in that an inanimate possessor with an inalienable possessed noun may be marked with the genitive nasal. The phrase (174c), the definite counterpart phrase to (174b), shows again that the definite marker does not affect any word beyond the noun stem it precedes. Even though the genitive marker is absent when the possessed noun is followed by the adjective 'white', (174d) the scope of the tone-lowering of the definite is confined to the noun stem.

As was indicated in examples of the [augmentative](#) in a genitive phrase, certain types of genitive phrases do not employ the homorganic nasal. Several more such phrases were obtained that do not contain the nasal marker, as shown in types of flora species in (175).

(175) Genitive Phrases with Omitted Nasal

gúmbè baboon	gúmbé=ndè baboon	gúmbè dáyá+è small baboon	gúmbé–bórò large baboon
jáyá+è onion	jáyá–mí=ndè onions	jáyáè–bórò large onion	

	<u>Genitive Expression</u>			<u>Gloss</u>	<u>Translation</u>
a.	gúmbé baboon	jáyá+è onion		baboon's onion	plant sp.
b.	gúmbé baboon	jáyá-mí onion-DIM	=ndè =PL	baboon's onions	plant sp.PL
c.	gúmbé baboon	jáyá+è onion	dáyá+è small	baboon's small onion	plant sp. small
d.	gúmbé baboon	jáyá+è onion	-bóřó AUG	baboon's large onion	plant sp. large

First, the nouns ‘baboon’ and ‘onion’ are shown with suffixes and modifiers to illustrate that there are no idiosyncrasies with these words in isolation. However, when paired to form the word for the plant species (175a), which literally translates as ‘baboon’s onion’, [*gúmbè n jáyá+è] is not permitted. Additionally, combinations of ‘baboon’ as a possessor of other objects such as ‘peanuts’, are not grammatically correct, although they are semantically understood. The reason for the lack of the genitive marker in the phrases above is unknown. Most flora species do use the genitive nasal between constituents. Other flora species with the noun ‘baboon’ as the head of the phrase and do employ the genitive marker include [gúmbé m pódⁿ] ‘baboon’s meal’, [gúmbé η káràŋgò] ‘baboon’s vine’, [gúmbé n kà m bò], and [gúmbé n tò], (my assistant is unaware of the meaning of the final components of these final two phrases).⁴⁶

In (176) we find another example of a phrase which is interpreted with a possessive meaning, yet lacks the genitive morpheme, possibly because the possessed noun is in an

⁴⁶ Further, the omission of the nasal in genitive phrases does not seem to be an indicator of inalienable possession as two flora species, literally [ŋàmbárá súmbí] ‘sheep’s nose’ and [pùndà n tójí] ‘Fulani man’s penis’, are inconsistent with this hypothesis. The fact that peanuts are a taboo plant may contribute to the idiosyncrasy.

inalienable relationship with the possessor noun. The final vowel and tone of the possessor noun root differs between the examples (176a) and (176b).

(176) Genitive Phrases with Omitted Nasal (cont)

- | | | | | | |
|----|-------------------------------------|--------|---------|----------|-------------|
| a. | tùré+é | bóó | síngí+è | | |
| | raised bed | father | sorghum | | |
| | A raised bed's father (is) sorghum. | | | herb sp. | |
| b. | túrè+è | bóó | síngí | =ndè | herb sp. PL |
| | raised bed | father | sorghum | PL | |

Further, a subtle semantic distinction can be made with the presence or absence of the genitive nasal, as shown by the contrasting examples in (177).

(177) Adjective and Genitive Distinction

- | | | | | | | |
|----|---------------------------|------|-----|---------------------|-----|------|
| a. | gòò ⁿ | bógó | aa. | gòò ⁿ | m | bógó |
| | man | big | | man | GEN | big |
| | an important or old man | | | a tall or fat man | | |
| b. | nìè | bógó | bb. | nìè | m | bógó |
| | woman | big | | woman | GEN | big |
| | an important or old woman | | | a tall or fat woman | | |

An expression commonly found among West African languages refers to a person who is important or old as 'big', (177a - b). To distinguish this meaning from the adjective's meaning as describing a person as 'big', 'tall', or 'fat', the genitive marker is used (177aa - bb).

6.12 Modifying Phrases as Stems

Thus far we have seen that, despite the phonological and syntactic behavior of various terms referring to flora, fauna, and domesticated animal species, semantically compound-like elements are possessive phrases, which use the genitive marker to connect two or more elements in a

phrase. Now we see that not only genitive case marking, but also possessive proclitics, adjectives and [complementizers](#) may be used for cultural and botanical terminology.

A possessive pronoun is used instead of the genitive nasal to form stems in (178).

(178) Possessive Phrases

	<u>Possessive Phrase</u>			<u>Gloss</u>	<u>Translation</u>
a.	mún-d-ì enter-PRF	màà= 3.S.POSS	zìé smoke	its smoke entered	torch
b.	jáá child	=ndè PL	máá= 3.S.POSS	súqíè chicken	children's chicken butterfly
c.	máà= 3.S.POSS	nóó mouth	mún-d-à enter-RV	míndà enter	entering its mouth border, limit

The initial clause (178a) has an unusual word order, given that the verb is marked as being in the perfect aspect, which is normally SVO. The second example (178b) is a noun phrase in which a plural noun possesses another noun. The second noun is preceded by the possessive proclitic, whose tonal allomorphs and effects are described in Chapter 5. The example (178c) may be contrasted with that of (178a) in terms of word order and inflectional marking. The possessed noun may be the subject of the clause (178a), or the object (178c).

6.13 Genitive Phrases with Adjective

As has been shown, many names of plant species are formed using a genitive phrase (179). The subspecies may be differentiated with modifying adjectives (180b - c).

(179) Genitive Phrases with Adjective

	<u>Genitive Expression</u>					<u>Gloss</u>	<u>Translation</u>
a.	kùzè dassie	n GEN	ní hand	n GEN	tèè palm	dassie's hand's palm	herb sp.

- b. kùzɛ́ n níí n téè téŋò
 dassie GEN hand GEN palm wide dassie's hand's wide palm herb sub sp
- c. kùzɛ́ n níí n téè téŋò =ndè
 dassie GEN hand GEN palm wide PL plural of wide variety of herb sp.

Among the flora subspecies' names which are formed with an adjective, the adjective may be interpreted as following the possessed noun (179b) or the genitive phrase as a whole (179c). The plural of the subspecies is (179c). The plural clitic follows the adjective, which modifies the entire phrase, as was mentioned previously in describing the examples shown in (169). Even though adjectives usually suppress the genitive nasal, the genitive nasal is not omitted (179b - c) even though the adjective [téŋó-rò] 'wide' is present.

Color adjectives may also be used to differentiate fauna sub-species. The word [kéréndé kéè] 'a slithering thing' refers to any type of snake, while modifying it as 'black' restricts the stem to only the viper.

(180) Adjective Phrase

<u>Phrase</u>			<u>Gloss</u>	<u>Translation</u>
kéréndé slither	kéè thing	póó'ré black	a black slithering thing	viper snake

While an argument could be made that the example in (180) is one exception to the generalization that compounding is not an active process in Bangime, I do not analyze it as such. The phrase could be considered a compound. The noun 'thing' follows the verb 'slither' rather than preceding it, [kéè n kéréndé], which would be the expected way to indicate that a thing is being pulled. Alternatively, this could also be due to [word order fluctuation](#). Further, note that if there was a genitive nasal between the constituents, it would be omitted because of the adjective which follows the noun.

6.14 Complementizer

The complementizer [mɛ] is productively used to join two phrases in a sentence. The example in (181) shows that the complementizer is yet another means to in create names of flora items.

(181) Complementizer Phrase

	<u>Complementizer Phrase</u>					<u>Gloss</u>	<u>Translation</u>
a.	à	gùzèè	mé	=nè	píjò ⁿ		
	DEF	weed	COMP	PL	smell	the weeds which smell	herb sp.
b.	à	gùzèè	=né	mé	=nè	píjò ⁿ	
	DEF	weed	PL	COMP	PL	smell	the weeds which smell herb sp. PL

While the the plural clitic follows the complementizer morpheme (181a), the name of the plant is translated as shown to refer to a single plant. The complementizer is denoted as plural when it modifies a plural noun. To make the noun plural (181b), the noun is followed by the plural clitic in addition to that which follows the complementizer.

6.15 Phrases

Throughout this description, we have seen that phrases can be, and often are, used as a means of creating new lexical items by describing the lexical item, rather than by creating an arbitrary term. In fact, fully formed sentences may also be used for lexical reference.

(182) Sentence

<u>Sentence</u>					<u>Gloss</u>	<u>Translation</u>
déw	n	uíè	náw	tígí-rí		
pond	GEN	water	INC	run-INC	pond's water is running	river

In (182) we see a fully-formed, grammatically intact and correct phrase understood to be a lexical item. The sentence 'a pond's water is running' refers to a 'river'.

6.16 Summary of Word-Formation processes

The most productive means of creating new lexical items is to employ the genitive morpheme, a nasal which precedes the possessed noun. The genitive is an alveolar nasal which assimilates the place of a bilabial or velar initial consonant of the following noun since all nouns are vowel-final. The genitive morpheme may connect most nouns to create new lexical items. Genitive constructions may be modified by adjectives and may be made plural. A genitive construction acts as a stem (183a), in that it is modified by one adjective and makes up the noun phrase before the verb, in (183b) the plural clitic follows the genitive phrase, and in (183c) the plural clitic follows the genitive construction and the modifier.

(183) Role of the Genitive Construction in an NP

a.	n	náà	nnáá	m	bìè	síjò ⁿ	dég-è	bùřá	ŋ	kò
	~2	INC	cow.1S	GEN	baby	white	hit-RV	stick	GEN	PP

I am hitting a white calf with a stick.

b.	n	náà	nnéé	m	bíé	=ndè	dég-è	bùřá	ŋ	kò
	~2	INC	cow.DIM.1S	GEN	baby	PL	hit-RV	stick	GEN	PP

I am hitting calves with a stick.

c.	n	náà	nnéé	m	bìè	síjò=ndè	dég-è	bùřá	ŋ	kò
	~2	INC	cow.DIM.1S	GEN	baby	white=PL	hit-RV	stick	GEN	PP

I am hitting white calves with a stick.

Syntactically, the plural attaches to the noun phrase, but phonologically, the plural clitic only depends on the tone of the last word in the phrase.

6.17 Genitive Constructions as Stem and as Phrase

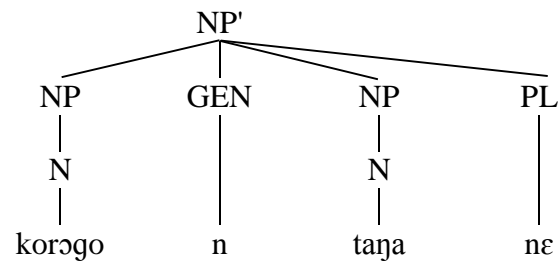
Bangime has no way to create a compound. The genitive phrase is considered a derivational process because it creates lexical items that refer to what, in English, we refer to as compounds. This is the primary strategy for creating new lexical items. Because Bangime has so little bound

morphology, it follows that this is a syntactic process rather than a morphological one. The fact that both nouns can be pluralized makes it more like a phrase. In essence, Bangime uses phrases to refer to what English refers to using compounds.

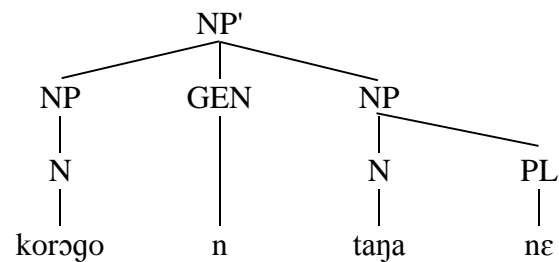
Whereas semantically there is no difference between a genitive construction that acts like a ‘phrase’ and one that is glossed as a ‘stem’, syntactically the difference is represented as shown in the tree diagrams in (184).

(184) Genitive Constructions as Stem and as Phrase

a. Phrase



b. Stem



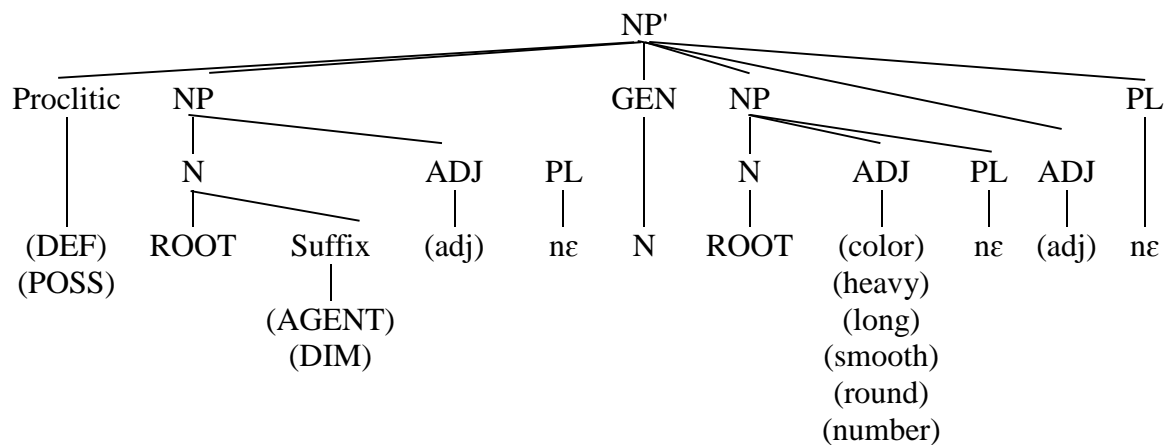
When the genitive phrase represents what we, in English, refer to as a compound meaning ‘aloe’ or in Bangime ‘donkey’s ears’ (184a), the plural is attached at the level of the entire noun phrase. When the phrase is represented as referring to a donkey’s ears (184b), the plural attaches directly to the second NP node in the phrase, but not the entire NP. Tonally, however, there is no difference between the two phrases.

Chapter 7. Nominal Phrases

7.1 The Noun Phrase

As illustrated in the previous chapters, a noun may appear with proclitics, suffixes, the genitive marker, and/or the plural clitic. The plural clitic may follow the noun directly in the noun phrase. Modifiers, introduced in this chapter, with some examples of the type of modifiers found in the language listed in the diagram, follow a noun, but precede the plural clitic. The syntactic structure of the noun phrase is represented in the diagram in (185).

(185) Noun Phrase



In a genitive phrase, the genitive nasal is deleted either when an adjective or the augmentative follows the noun. An adjective may modify the possessor noun in a genitive phrase, the possessed noun, or the entire noun phrase, similar to the plural clitic. An adjective phrase consists of a head adjective and any additional modifiers. An [adjective](#) must follow a noun; it may not be pronounced in isolation. If no noun is formally indicated as being modified, the word ‘thing’ [kî] (derived from are [kiri] with allomorph [keɛ]) is substituted for a noun.

7.2 Tone on Adjectives

In an adjective phrase, the tone of adjectives are not changed, nor do adjectives change, the tone of the noun being modified. Thus, each noun was elicited with every adjective in (186), but the examples are not duplicated for each noun-adjective combination. All nouns operate in the same manner; there is no difference based on the tonal or segmental category of the noun root.

(186) Noun Adjective Phrases

	<u>N + ADJ</u>		<u>NOUN</u>	<u>Gloss</u>	<u>ADJ</u>	<u>Gloss</u>
a.	gúmbá-rà mèřè	<	gúmbá-rà	wasp	mèřè	heavy
b.	ɲàmbá-rá pódó'ré	<	ɲàmbá-rá	sheep	pódó'ré	black
c.	mmírò b ^w íè	<	mmírò	bee	b ^w íè	red
d.	kórónò símà	<	kórónò	donkey	símà	white
e.	nníjà bógó	<	nníjà	mother	bógó	big
f.	zìbée dáyà+è	<	zìbée	person	dáyà+è	small

Even though an adjective is not an independent word in the sense that it cannot stand on its own without a noun or the ‘dummy’ noun [kii], an adjective is neither affected nor does it affect the tone or the segmental properties of the noun it follows.

7.3 Plural Modified Nouns

The plural clitic normally follows the entire noun phrase, similar to the [genitive](#), as shown in the examples in (187). Because all noun phrases with modifiers take a low-toned plural clitic and the final tone of the adjective surfaces as high, the plural clitic shows that the tone of most adjectives is high-low phrase-finally but underlyingly the tone on most adjectives is high.

(187) Plural Clitic on Adjective Phrases

	Noun:	<u>rope</u>	<u>stick</u>	<u>road</u>
	<u>Adjective</u>	bójéè	bùřá	zímbéè
a.	long	bójéè bén'dé	bùřá bén'dé	zímbéè bén'dé
b.	PL	bójéè béndé=ndè	bùřá béndé=ndè	zímbéè béndé=ndè
c.	straight	bójéè dín'dá	bùřá dín'dá	zímbéè dín'dá
d.	PL	bójéè díndá=ndè	bùřá díndá=ndè	zímbéè díndá=ndè
e.	smooth	bójéè míró–mírò	bùřá míró–mírò	zímbéè míró–mírò
f.	PL	bójéè míró–mírò=ndè	bùřá míró–mírò=ndè	zímbéè míró–mírò=ndè
g.	old	bójéè síéndè	bùřá síéndè	zímbéè síéndè
h.	PL	bójéè síéndé=ndè	bùřá síéndé=ndè	zímbéè síéndé=ndè

Adjectives following singular nouns either surface with final downstepped tones (187a, c), because a bisyllabic word with a heavy initial syllable surface as downstepped after a high tone, or with low tones (187e, g). Before the plural clitic (187b, d, f, h), the tones of most adjectives are high. As noted above, an adjective must follow a noun. If no noun is present, the adjective follows the dummy noun [kii] derived from [kee] ‘thing’; the plural clitic always must come after the adjective so an example such as ‘wide things’ is [kî ténjò–ndè], not [*kii–ndè tejo].

Because the adjective is unbound from the noun stem, the noun surfaces before the adjective with its singular, or citation, form tones. The examples in (188) show a variety of nouns in the singular, plural, augmentative, diminutive, and plural diminutive forms with adjectives to illustrate the contrast between the tonal effects of morphemes which are closely bound to the noun and those which are less closely bound.

(188) Tonal effects of Nouns on Adjectives

	<u>Noun Phrase</u>	<u>Gloss</u>
a.	nnàà cow	cow
b.	nnàà =ndé cow PL	cows
c.	nnàà -bòřó cow AUG	large cow
d.	nná -è dáyà+è cow -DIM small	small cow
e.	nnàá -mí =ndè cow DIM PL	-mí =ndè DIM PL small cows
f.	nnàà póó'ré cow black	black cow
g.	nnàà bùqíè cow red	red cow
h.	nnàà bógo cow big	big cow
i.	nnàà góò ⁿ cow man	bógo big big bull
j.	nnàà bóndò cow alive	alive cow
k.	nnàà pééré cow many	many cows
l.	ṅàmbá sheep	bógo big big sheep
m.	ṅàmbá sheep	bógó =ndè big PL big sheep
n.	ṅàmbá sheep	póó'ré black black sheep
o.	ṅàmbà-rá sheep	póóré =ndè black PL black sheep

The first noun, ‘cow’ (188a), is of the [Type Two](#) noun tonal pattern, as seen with the plural and the augmentative morphemes. The diminutive stem has its own tonal pattern. Compare the tonal behavior of the noun with suffixes and clitics (188a - e) to the same noun with adjectives (188f - k). The noun is unchanged from its underlying form in all cases except with the diminutive suffix. Further, when an adjective is followed by the plural morpheme, the underlying tone of the adjective surfaces, and the plural takes the opposite tone of the adjective, not that of the noun being modified. The noun ‘sheep’ (188l - o) is shown with the same adjectives to illustrate that the tonal behavior of the adjective remains unchanged with all nouns. The reason for the presence of the [-r] suffix in (188o), but not in (188l - n) is unknown.

7.4 Alternating Adjectives

Two adjectives have been found with segmental allomorphs, the colors ‘black’ and ‘white’. These two adjectives have cultural significance, as was discussed in Chapter 1 (§1.9). Also, among [verbs](#) in particular, there is a productive morpho-phonological alternation in words with word-internal nasalized sonorants, nasals, and nasal-consonant clusters. The adjectives ‘black’ and ‘white’ participate in a similar type of allomorphy except that the conditioning factor appears to be phonological rather than morphological. The nasalized allomorph of the adjective ‘white’ follows a polysyllabic word with non-low vowels, or a monosyllabic word with low vowels (189), while the form with the word-internal nasal follows nouns with low vowels (190) which also have nasals or nasalized segments.

(189) Black and White, Allomorphy 1

	<u>Noun</u>	<u>White</u>	<u>Noun</u>	<u>Black</u>	<u>Gloss</u>
a.	símèè	síjò ⁿ	símèè	póó'rí	rock
b.	nàà	síjò ⁿ	nnàà	póó'rí	cow
c.	d ^w àà	síjò ⁿ	d ^w àà	póó'rí	tree

(190) Black and White, Allomorphy 2

	<u>Noun</u>	<u>White</u>	<u>Noun</u>	<u>Black</u>	<u>Gloss</u>
a.	ηàmbà-rá	símà	ηàmbà-rá	póó'ré	sheep
b.	tàηà	símà	tàηà	póó'ré	ear
c.	dàwá	símà	dàwá	póó'ré	pick axe

The adjective white can be represented as /siVⁿ/ underlyingly, with the final vowel being determined by the harmony patterns of the noun which it modifies. The adjective 'black' is more opaque. Textual examples of the usage of the high front vowel allomorph of 'black' are seen in Text XII, Tiga 2.87.

7.5 Diminutive Suffix on Adjectival Phrases

In addition to marking nouns, the diminutive can also be used productively to mark adjectives.

The diminutive suffix usually attaches to the adjective (191), but may also doubly mark both constituents in the adjective phrase (192).⁴⁷

⁴⁷ The examples are excerpts from a texture experiment in which subjects were asked to put their hands into a box which contained an object that they could not see. They then described what they felt. The experiment was conducted by Brian Cansler in conjunction with the Max Planck Institute for Psycholinguistics in Nijmegen, The Netherlands. The transcriptions and glosses are my own.

(191) Diminutive with Nominalizer and Adjective

	<u>UR Adj</u>	<u>Noun</u>	<u>Adjective</u>		<u>Gloss</u>	<u>Translation</u>
a.	/míró míró/ smooth	kî NOM	míró mírò smooth	-mè DIM	small smooth thing	(it is) little (and) smooth
b.	/pégé pégè/ light	kî NOM	pégí pégì light	-jè DIM	small light thing	(it is) little (and) light
c.	/múgùlò/ round	kî thing	múgùl round	-ìè DIM	small round thing	(it is) little (and) round

Similar to the noun-adjective phrases denoted as being plural, the examples (192a - c) are interpreted to be suffixed with the diminutive on the adjective rather than on the noun phrase. This is due to the fact that ‘thing’ serves as a dummy noun in these noun phrases. The non-diminutive forms of the adjectives are shown to the left of the examples. The fact that the diminutive alters the underlying form of the adjective also demonstrates that the diminutive is suffixed directly to the adjective.

Whereas above (191) the diminutive was suffixed only onto the adjective, in (192c) below, it is also suffixed to the noun. Some adjectives, such as ‘small’ (192a - b) and ‘short’ (192c), obligatorily surface with the lexicalized diminutive suffix.

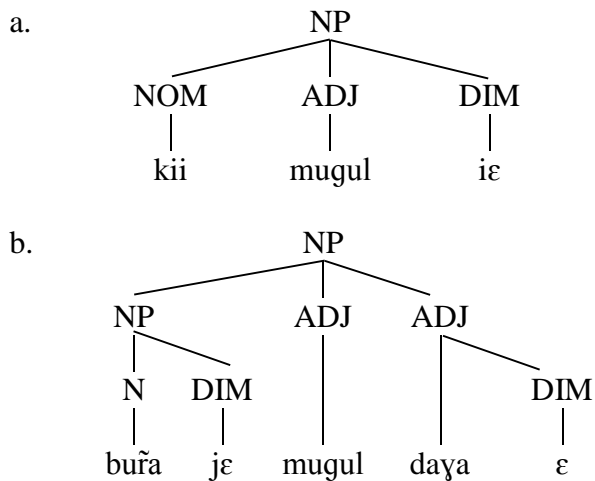
(192) Diminutive with Noun and Adjective

		<u>Noun Phrase</u>		<u>Translation</u>
a.	/bũǎ/ stick	bũí-jè stick-DIM	múgùlò round	dáyá+è small (it is) a small round stick
b.		káw DEM	bũí-jè stick-DIM	dáyá+è small that (is) a small stick
c.		bũí-mè stick-DIM	dúgí+jè short	(it is) a short stick

Tones of the stem to which the diminutive is suffixed are altered in the manner described in §4.2, but the rest of the noun phrase is unaffected. The final vowel of the noun ‘stick’ /buã/ is raised to [i] before the diminutive suffix.

The diagrams in (193) illustrate the syntactic difference between the diminutive as a suffix on the noun phrase (193a) and on the adjective alone (193b).

(193) Diminutive Suffixation



The adjective phrase in (194) shows that even if there are two adjectives, the diminutive is suffixed only to the final adjective in the adjective phrase.

(194) Diminutive with Two Adjectives and Nominalizer

<u>Adjective Phrase</u>					<u>Translation</u>
kíí	síjò ⁿ	kî	dérébì	-è	(it is) white, (it is) little (and) soft
thing	white	thing	soft	DIM	

It is a small, soft, and white. (Text Exp, Consultant 1 Response: 5.2)

The behavior of the diminutive is different in an adjective phrase than in a genitive phrase. In the genitive phrase it was shown that the diminutive could not mark the phrase as being ‘little’, but was suffixed to each word in the phrase. In the adjective phrase, the diminutive may serve to mark either the noun, the adjective, or the phrase as a whole.

Verbs may also serve as modifiers. When a verb acts as a modifier, the nominalizer follows the verb. If the object is being described as being ‘little’ by the diminutive, the diminutive marks the final word in the phrase. In the example in (195), a form of the the noun ‘thing’ (functioning as a nominalizer) is suffixed with the [-r] morpheme.

(195) Diminutive with Verb and Nominalizer

<u>Noun Phrase</u>	<u>Translation</u>	<u>Gloss</u>
dáràà kí-rí-jè be.slick thing-DIM	a little slick thing	it is a little slick thing (10.3)

As shown in §4.2, the diminutive marker surfaces as [mi] before the plural clitic.

Adjectives which have the lexicalized diminutive follow the same pattern. In referring to a small brush with one set of tines which are longer on one side than the other (196), the speaker adds both the diminutive and plural clitics to the final adjective in the phrase.

(196) Diminutive with Adjective and Plural

à	tàá	káw	bén'dé	à	tàá	káw	kî	dùgí-mí=ndè
DEF	half	DEM	long	DEF	half	DEM	<u>thing</u>	<u>short-DIM=PL</u>

the half that (is) long, the half that (is) a short thing

‘The half, it is long, the (other) half of the thing, it (is) short.’ (Tex Exp Consultant 2: 24.4)

One of the only nouns which elicits the ‘quality of X’ meaning of the diminutive suffix is shown in (197), because the adjective ‘beautiful’ requires its usage with the noun ‘man’. This adjective phrase is glossed simply as ‘a beautiful man’. The suffix seems to indicate the quality of a man’s beauty because of the various interpretations of the [diminutive](#).

(197) Diminutive as Quality of X with Adjective

<u>Adjective Phrase</u>	<u>Translation</u>
gòò -mè ~ -jè man DIM DIM	báákò beautiful
‘beautiful manliness’	a beautiful man

7.6 Proclitics on Adjective Phrases

Proclitics, the [definite marker](#), and [possessive pronouns](#) affect the tone of the noun they precede, but not that of the adjective that follows. As a reminder, the tonal effects of the definite and possessive morphemes are shown in (198) with the noun ‘sheep’ /ɲàmbá/.

(198) Definite and Possessor Tonal effects

	<u>Noun Phrase</u>			<u>Gloss</u>	
a.	à-	ɲàmbà	-rà		
	DEF-	sheep			the sheep
b.	à-	ɲàmbà	-rà	káw	
	DEF-	sheep		DEM	that sheep
c.	màà=	ɲámbá	-rà		
	POSS	sheep			his sheep
d.	àdámà	màà=	ɲámbá	-rà	
	Adama	POSS	sheep		Adama’s sheep

The definite marker (198a - b) often lowers the tones of the noun it precedes, but not those of constituents which follow the noun, such as the demonstrative (198b). The third person singular possessive prefix (198c - d) often surfaces with a low tone, and in the case of ‘sheep’, the tones on the noun root emerge as high. A proper noun may precede the possessive pronoun (198d) but its tones are unaffected by the clitic. Further textual examples of the effects of the definite marker compared with that of the possessor are shown in Text XII, Tige 2.32 - 34, 36.

The examples below illustrate that the possessive pronouns do not affect the tone of a numeral (199), the augmentative (200), or an adjective (201).

(199) Possessor with Numeral

	<u>Noun Phrase</u>				<u>Gloss</u>
a.	ɲàmbá-rá	nnìè			four sheep
	sheep	four			
b.	àdámà	màà	ɲámbá-rà	nnìè	Adama's four sheep
	Adama	3.POSS	sheep	four	

(200) Possessor with Augmentative

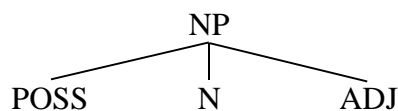
	<u>Noun Phrase</u>				<u>Gloss</u>
a.	ɲàmbá	-bóřò			large sheep
	sheep	AUG			
b.	àdámà	màà	ɲámbá-rà	-bóřò	Adama's large sheep
	Adama	3.POSS	sheep	AUG	

(201) Possessor with Adjective

	<u>Noun Phrase</u>				<u>Gloss</u>
a.	ɲàmbá	síjò ⁿ			white sheep
	sheep	white			
b.	àdámà	màà	ɲámbá-rà	síjò ⁿ	Adama's white sheep
	Adama	3.POSS	sheep	white	

By comparing the examples (a - b) in both sets, the first of each shows the noun phrase without a possessive pronoun. We see that the possessive pronoun only affects the noun it directly precedes. As with morphemes which follow the noun phrase, the possessive proclitic only affects the noun tonally but syntactically it has the entire noun phrase in its scope. This is shown in the diagram in (202).

(202) Possessive Pronoun with Adjective



While the above examples showed the tonal effects of the possessive on adjectives, numerals, and augmentatives, the ordering of these morphemes is shown in the phrases in (203) and (204). An adjective follows the augmentative, and the plural clitic follows at the end of the noun phrase (204b). The plural acquires a low tone, opposite that of the adjective's underlying high tone. A numeral may not directly follow a possessor–noun–augmentative–adjective phrase. Instead, a new noun phrase is added, using the nominalizer 'thing'.

(203) Possessor with Adjective and Augmentative

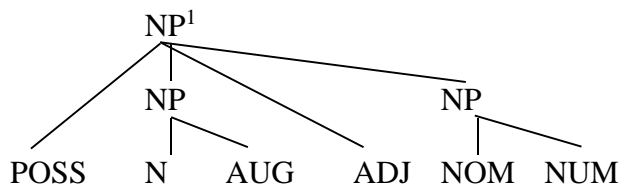
	<u>Noun Phrase</u>					<u>Gloss</u>
a.	àdámà	màà=	ɲámbá-rà	-bóřò	síjò ⁿ	
	Adama	3.POSS	sheep	AUG	white	Adama's large white sheep
b.	àdámà	màà=	ɲámbá-rà	-bóřò	síjò =ndè	
	Adama	3.POSS	sheep	AUG	white PL	Adama's large white sheep (PL)

(204) Possessor with Adjective, Augmentative, and Numeral

	<u>Noun Phrase</u>						<u>Gloss</u>	
	àdámà	màà=	ɲámbá-rà	-bóřò	síjò ⁿ	kíí	nnìè	
	Adama	POSS	sheep	AUG	white	NOM	four	Adama's four fat white sheep

The syntactic structure of (204) is shown in the diagram (205).

(205) Possessive with Noun Phrase and Modifiers



7.7 Reduplicated Adjectives

Some adjectives are reduplicated, with examples shown in (206).

(206) Reduplicated Adjectives

	<u>Phrase</u>	<u>Translation</u>
a.	kíí gúní–gáñi thing uneven	dáyàè It is a little bit uneven. small
b.	kî kú–kàjì thing bumpy	It is bumpy.
c.	kíí míró–mírò thing smooth	It is smooth.

As with other categories of [reduplicants](#), the tonal melody is commonly high, with phrase-final lowering (206a, c), but certain words have a different melody (206b). Some reduplicants copy the root in its entirety (206c), others undergo segmental changes (206a - b).

7.8 Syntactic Processes in the Noun Phrase

Syntactic processes, such as conjunction and negation, are also found with nouns and adjectives.

7.8.1 Conjoined Nouns

Two nouns may be conjoined by the particle /daw/. The particle is homophonous with the [incompletive marker](#) and can be used to mean ‘and’ or ‘or’ depending on the context. As with the incompletive marker, the coordinating conjunction /daw/ has allomorphs [daw ~ naw ~ naa ~ da ~ na]. Examples are shown of the coordinating conjunction in sentences shown in (207) - (209), and the subordinating conjunction in (210) - (213).

(207) Conjunction [da]

tíndè	gíjò ⁿ	dá	ámírí	wùrò .
grandfather	Giyon	CONJ	chief	Jewol

The chief’s grandfather Giyon and the chief of Jewol. (Chief 6.25)

(208) Conjunction [naa]

dínè hùⁿ náà kó m pè .
 morning PP CONJ afternoon

Morning and night/afternoon. (Tiga 5.15)

(209) Conjunction [naw]

gìrìmè náw tùréé kóó niṅá nnì á wòré bündá kíé m bié .
 rabbit CONJ hyena CPL say 3.PL CHN go out lion GEN baby

The rabbit and the hyena said they will go make move out the lion's baby. (Adama.37)

Each of the sentences illustrates that two nouns may be conjoined with the particle /daw/.

The reason for the allomorphy is yet to be determined. More examples of the coordinating conjunction are found in counting numerals, shown in Appendix VIII.

Examples of the use of the particle /daw/ to mean ‘or’ are shown in (210) - (212).

(210) Conjunction [na]

há jáálà ɥìè ɖjímbò à mmáá ná ɥìè wàà mmáá ?
 IRR whether water cold 2.SG want CONJ water hot want

Do you want cold water or do you want hot water? (Short Language Profile.21)

(211) Conjunction [daa]

jà ɥáá-rà mótò Máriaám dáà ɥùrù síjà ?
 QU buy motorcycle Maria CONJ Luisa

Who bought a motorcycle, Maria or Luisa? (Short Language Profile.20)

(212) Conjunction [naa]

à bòró+mé kàá-rú nè há n síè
 DEF boy DEM-PL PL IRR ~2 firewood

nà n éíé náà nì zúmbà nàw ?
 COOR T carry on head CONJ 3.PL pull INC

Are those boys carrying or pushing the log? (Topicalization Predicate.58)

The first example conjoins two noun phrases and the second example conjoins two nouns. The third example shows the conjunction of two noun phrases and that the conjunction is homophonous with the incompletive particle. Further examples of subordinating conjunctions are found in the Short Language Profile, Appendix I.

The phrase in (213) illustrates that each conjoined noun constitutes its own noun phrase as both nouns are marked with the plural clitic.

(213) Conjunction with Plural Clitic

kàà -rú tígè nní jíè -wàj p^wìè =ndé náw bòró =ndè
 DEM PL also 3.PL become STAT girl PL CONJ boy PL

Those also, they became young women and young men. (Tiga story about Tete.222)

Even though both ‘girl’ and ‘boy’ are plural, the plural marker may not mark them both at once, but must follow each noun separately.

7.8.2 Conjoined Adjectives

Adjectives, however, are not conjoined in the same manner as nouns. Nouns require the conjunction /daw/, but adjectives do not take an overt morpheme to express conjunction as shown in the adjective phrases in (214).

(214) Conjoined Adjectives

	<u>Adjective Phrase</u>				<u>Translation</u>
a.	kî	dérébè	jimbō		
	NOM	soft	cold		(it is) soft (and) cold
b.	kî	múgúl-ée	mèřè	dáyà+è	
	NOM	round-DIM	heavy	small	(it is) round, heavy, (and) small

The first adjective phrase (214a) is a conjoined combination of an adjective and a verb. The verb is not describing the adjective. The second adjective phrase (214b) conjoins three adjectives. Note that all the adjectives are marked with the diminutive suffix except ‘heavy’.

7.8.3 Copula and Adjectives

There are no predicate adjectives; ‘it_[noun] is X_[adj]’ and ‘a X_[adj] X_[noun]’ are expressed the same.

An adjective phrase may be ambiguous for tense or aspect, for an example see Chief 1.12. The verb [wo–re] ‘go’ can be used as a copula with adjectives, as shown in examples in (215).

(215) /wo/ as Copula

- a. á= wáárì wò gáàⁿ
2.S.POSS work go good

Your work is good.

- b. nì màá= pááⁿ –mè wò déé
3.PL POSS friend quality go sweet

Their friendship was sweet. (Tiga 5.1)

- c. múwí hó wò gáàⁿ wàj
today EMPH go good STAT

Today is good. (Tiga’s story: 77.1)

Another use of [wore] ‘go’ as a conjunction with verbs is found in a narrative, Tiga 3.15.

In most examples, the stem appears in the root form [wo], but Tiga 1.29 represents an example of the stem with the [–r] suffix. Most adjectives do not use an overt copula. Shown below, verbs used as adjectives are preceded by the [incompletive particle](#).

7.8.4 Incompletive /daw/ with Modifiers

The incompletive particle [daw] and its [allomorphs](#) may be employed as a copula as well.

(216) ‘it is X’

	<u>Adjective Phrase</u>					<u>Gloss</u>	<u>Translation</u>
a.	n	dáw	kú kájì	kírì	–jè	it is an uneven	it is small and
	~3	INC	<u>be.uneven</u>	<u>thing</u>	<u>DIM</u>	thing	uneven
b.	há	níṅà	náw	mánàà	déréb–fè	one would say it	it resembles a little
	IRR	say	INC	<u>plastic</u>	<u>soft–DIM</u>	is a soft piece of	soft piece of
						small plastic	plastic

(Texture Experiment: Consultant 1 Response: 34.2, 37.1)

The modifier ‘be uneven’ (216a) is a verb, while the modifier ‘soft’ (216b) is an adjective. The incompleted particle in the first phrase is used with the verb ‘be uneven’, but the incompleted particle (216b) is used with the verb ‘say’. A verb is distinguished from an adjective because the former does not necessitate the nominalizer [kii] and may follow the particle [daw]. For example the adjective ‘soft’, [kî déréb–íè] ‘it is soft’ but *[daw derébe].

(217) Verb ‘squishy’

	<u>Copular Phrase</u>		<u>Translation</u>
a.	kíí thing	múgú–múgù squishy	it is squishy
b.	dáw INC	múgú–múgù be squishy	it is squishy
c.	náà INC	múgú–múgù be squishy	it is squishy

The stem /mugu/ ‘squishy’ may act as an adjective and follow the nominalizer [kii]

(217a). The incompleted marker is not used with the nominalizer. The modifier translates as ‘it is (adjective) X’ when the particle (217b) or its allomorph (217c) is used.

Other examples of verbal modifiers may not modify a noun, nor are they used with the particle morpheme.

(218) Verb ‘slick’

	<u>Modifier Phrase</u>			<u>Translation</u>
a.	dáràà be.slick			it is slick.
b.	dáràà slick	kírí NOM	–jè DIM	it is squishy

- c. n sóré ŋ kii dáràà
 ~2 sure slick (I am sure) it is squishy

The first example (218a) illustrates that the word ‘slick’ may stand alone as its own phrase, without an overt noun to modify. This type of verb may precede a nominalizer (218b) or be used in a sentence (218c). A question arises as to whether the modifiers described in this section should be considered change-of-state verbs. These modifiers may not be used with the [stative-completive](#) suffix [-wɛ], as shown by narrative examples such as Chief 1.12.

7.8.5 Negated Adjectives

Adjectives are negated in the same manner as [nouns](#), with the marker [bie]. Unlike an adjective without the negative marker, which must take [kii], there is no overt noun expressed in a negated adjective phrase. The tones of the adjective are unaffected by the negative marker, as shown in Chapter 14.

(219) Negated Adjectives

	<u>Adjective Phrase</u>	<u>Translation</u>
a.	bíè míró–mírò NEG smooth	(it) is not smooth
b.	bíè mèǹǹè NEG heavy	(it) is not heavy

The negative marker is described in greater detail in Chapter 14. There it is shown that the negative marker also serves as a copula.

7.8.6 Complementizer with Adjectives

Complementizers may also be used to indicate that an adjective modifies a noun.

(220) COMP + adjective

	<u>Noun Phrase</u>			<u>Gloss</u>	<u>Translation</u>			
a.	sóò ⁿ shirt	mè COMP	dáyàè small	a shirt which is small	(it is) a small piece of fabric			
b.	dóò paper	mè COMP	dáyáè small	a piece of paper which is little	(it is) a little piece of paper			
c.	mè COMP	dá INC	màà COP	á sîè now	kî thing	múgú–múgù squishy	–mè –DIM	it is small (and) squishy

That which is here now is a small, squishy thing.

A noun may be modified by an adjective with the use of the complementizer located in between the noun and the modifier (220a - b). More complex phrasing may also be employed (220c), where the complementizer begins the phrase. Note that there is no diminutive agreement on the nouns in the noun phrase.

7.9 Noun in Place of Adjective

In certain instances, nouns may be used in a manner to express qualities commonly expressed in other languages with adjectives.

(221) Noun ‘hair’ as Adjective ‘hairy’

	<u>Phrase</u>		<u>Gloss</u>	<u>Translation</u>
a.	dúg–á have–RV	kúqì hair	It has hair.	It is hairy.
b.	kúqí hair	èè ⁿ owner	It is a hair owner.	It is hairy.

A phrase which uses the verb ‘have’ (221a) or the [agentive](#) morpheme (221b) with the noun ‘hair’ expresses the object as being ‘hairy’. Additional examples appear in Appendix VIII.

The phrase in (222) illustrates another way to express ‘hairiness’ using the possession.

(222) Expressions with ‘hair’

<u>Noun Phrase</u>	<u>Gloss</u>	<u>Translation</u>
màá= kòrò η kúqí 3S.POSS stomach GEN hair	its stomach’s hair	(it has) a hairy inside (Texture Experiment: Consultant 1 Response: 29.2)

The third person singular possessive pronoun is the subject, which possesses the noun, ‘stomach’, which in turn possesses the noun ‘hair’, to express that the inside of an object is has hair or is ‘hairy’.

7.10 Quantifiers

The quantifiers in Bangime are listed in (223) with extensive examples listed in Appendix X.

(223) Quantifiers

	<u>Quantifier</u>	<u>Gloss</u>
a.	=pàà ⁿ	all
b.	=péèrè	a lot
c.	=péé ⁿ	a lot
d.	=dám'bá	a lot (for inanimates)
e.	=déwàj	a lot
f.	=jáá'rí	very
g.	máà=	almost
h.	=pòò	only or just

Each of the quantifiers listed is presented with examples in the following subsections.

7.10.1 All

As with adjectives, quantifiers must be preceded by a noun or the dummy noun [kii], ‘thing’. If quantifier ‘all’ is used with a noun other than ‘kii’, the noun must be preceded by the definite marker [a].

(224) ‘All’ with Nouns

ɥáá támatí ɲ kíí pààⁿ !
buy.IMP GEN thing all

Buy all the tomatoes!

The nasal in the sentence (224) is the genitive marker so that the meaning is literally, ‘buy all *of* the tomatoes’.

Examples of plural nouns with quantifiers in (225) show that the plural clitic precedes a quantifier, whereas it follows an adjective.

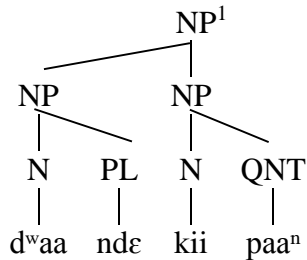
(225) Quantifiers with Plural Nouns

	<u>Noun Phrase</u>				<u>Gloss</u>
a.	d ^w àà tree	=ndé PL	kî thing	pàà ⁿ all	all the trees
b.	ʒìbìè person	=ndé PL	kî thing	pàà ⁿ all	<u>all</u> the people
c.	kùɥé calabash	=ndè PL	kî thing	pàà ⁿ all	all the calabashes

The tone of the plural clitic is unaffected by the morpheme that follows it, in the case of a quantifier phrase, the nominalizer. The plural clitic may optionally mark both the noun itself and the quantifier as is illustrated in examples in (225). An example from a narrative of a possessed plural noun followed by a quantifier, Chief 7.10, illustrates that the tone of the possessive proclitic changes that of the possessed noun, but not the quantifier which follows the plural noun.

The diagram in (226) illustrates the relationship of the quantifier to the noun in the noun phrase.

(226) Quantifiers in the NP



Because the quantifier, in essence, constitutes its own phrase, it follows the noun phrase in which the plural is found. The plural follows the noun, and the quantifier follows a dummy noun, each in separate noun phrases within the larger NP.

7.10.2 A lot

The quantifying adjective ‘many’ [(kî) péé¹ré] is used to modify nouns. The noun which the quantifier modifies is not obligatorily marked for number. The following nouns represent examples with the modifier ‘many’ in (227).

(227) ‘many’ with Nouns

	<u>Gloss</u>	<u>Noun</u>	<u>‘many’</u>
a.	wasp	gúmbàrà	péé ¹ ré
b.	bee	mmírò	péé ¹ ré
c.	donkey	kóròṅò	péé ¹ ré
d.	mother	nnijá	péé ¹ ré
e.	person	zìbéeé	péé ¹ ré
f.	sheep	ṅàmbá	péé ¹ ré

The modifier ‘many’ does not change the tone of the noun it quantifies. The nouns above are assumed to be plural since they are modified with the quantifier ‘many’, but excerpts from texts illustrate the quantifier ‘many’ used with a noun explicitly denoted as being plural.

(228) ‘many’ with Plural Nouns

- a. né kòò sùrà à kíè=ndé péé'ré à kùùⁿ káraá ŋ kò.
1.PL CPL look DEF thing=PL many DEF market find GEN PP

We looked (at) many things in the new market. (Adama 2 -1 2010: 19)

- b. káraà -L bì =ndé péé'ré
receive 3.S baby PL many

She received many babies. (Tiga story about People going to Tete: 109)

In this section we continue to see examples which show that quantifiers function in a manner slightly different from adjectives. These two examples illustrate that when a noun is denoted as overtly plural, the plural clitic is attached to the noun instead of the larger phrase.

A quantifier may be used in a verb phrase if it is used to mark the object of a verb (229).

(229) ‘many’ in a Phrase

<u>Phrase</u>	<u>Translation</u>
n díí s'wî péé'ré ~2 eat.PRF food many	I ate a lot (of) food.

The quantifier ‘many’ may be translated as ‘a lot’ in non-count nouns.

7.10.3 Small

The word [dáyàè], with the obligatory or lexicalized diminutive suffix, functions both as an adjective meaning ‘small’ and as an adverb meaning ‘a little’, depending on what it modifies.

(230) A little bit ~ small

	<u>Adjective Phrase</u>			<u>Translation</u>
a.	bójéè	dáyàè		It is a small rope.
	rope	small		
b.	kúṣiè	dáyàè		It is a small calabash.
	calabash	small		
c.	kíí	gúní gáñi	dáyàè	It is a little bit uneven.
	thing	be.uneven	small	

When the word [dayæ] modifies nouns such as ‘rope’ (229a) or ‘calabash’ (229b) it functions as an adjective. However, when it modifies a verb (229c), it functions as an adverb, although there is no segmental, or tonal change in the word.

7.10.4 Numerals

Numerals follow the noun they quantify. The numerals one to two thousand are listed in Appendix VIII. Plural nouns which are quantified by numerals are not marked with the plural.

(231) Numeral with Noun

máà	jòó	há	n	dèw̃	bùú ⁿ	tààró
PROH	respond	until	T	full	<u>time</u>	<u>three</u>

Do not respond until (you are called) three times. (Tiga 5.19)

The clause is object-final, however, in any word order, the numeral and noun act as a cohesive unit in the location within a sentence.

7.11 Adverb

Adverbs modify verbs and adjectives. An example adverb [jáár'ré] is shown modifying verbs (232) and adjectives (233).

(232) Adverb with Verb

	<u>Sentence</u>	<u>Translation</u>
a.	n tígè jáá'ré ~2 run a lot	I run a lot.
b.	n páw n dóó jáá'ré ~2 take GEN sleep a lot	I sleep a lot.
c.	n zìé wáárì jáá'ré ~2 do work a lot	He works a lot.

The adverb, like other modifiers, follows the word to which it refers.

(233) Adverb with Verb

	<u>Clause</u>	<u>Translation</u>
a.	bógò jáá'ré big/old very	very old or big
b.	à gúzè káraà jáá'ré DEF grass new very	very green
c.	à wáárì gáá ⁿ jáá'ré 2.SG work good very	Your work is very good.

Adverbs, like other modifiers, follow the word they modify. An adverb does not change the word it modifies, nor is it changed, either tonally or segmentally.

7.12 Summary of Modifiers

Adjectives are not stand-alone words in Bangime, they must modify a noun, even if it is a dummy noun such as [kii] 'thing'. The plural clitic follows an adjective, which follows a noun. Quantifiers, on the other hand, act as clitics that follow a noun, singular or plural. Tones of nouns are unaffected by an adjective or a modifier. Certain nouns, such as flora and fauna species, are differentiated on the basis of modifiers alone. Verbs may also act to modify a noun, and adverbs may modify verbs or adjectives.

Chapter 8. Verb Types

8.1 Introduction to Inflectional Classes

There are 496 verbs in the corpus. Verb roots, like noun roots, do not surface without affixation and tonal overlays. Most verb roots surface with either an additional vowel to meet the minimal word requirement of two morae, or with morphological marking in the form of inflectional suffixes. The tone of the verb stem, discussed in Chapter 13, is determined by the tense/aspect of the clause, and the subject person marking of the verb phrase. Unlike the tone on noun stems, the tone on verb stems is not clearly discernible by the affixation or cliticization of elements in the verb phrase.

The inflectional morphology of the verb stem is based on the syllable shape of the verb root, i.e., the verb without any suffixes. Verb roots are grouped into five inflectional classes with the suffixation patterns for each type shown in the table in (234).

(234) Inflectional Classes

		Verb Particles and Inflectional Marking			
Particles		<u>INC</u>	<u>PRF</u>	<u>PRF</u>	<u>PRF</u>
<u>Class</u>	<u>Canonical Syllable Shape</u>	daw	kéè/wé	kɔo	∅
1	/CVC _{velar} /	–root vowel	–u	–root vowel	–rv
2	/CV _{mid vowel} /	ROOT	ROOT	–r–root vowel	ROOT
3	/CV ⁿ /	–ř–root vowel	ROOT	–nd–root vowel	ROOT
4	/CV _n /	–nd–root vowel	–nd–i	–nd–root vowel	–nd–i
5	/CV _m /	–mb–rv–r–rv	–mb–rv	–mb–root vowel	–mb–rv–r–rv

The verb particles, listed above each inflectional category and presented in detail in Chapter 9, signify the aspect of the clause. The particle /daw/ marks the incomplete aspects: the present and future tenses. The particle [kɔo] marks the completive tense which does not naturally occur outside the realm of oral histories and tales. The particles [kɛ̀ɛ̀] and [wɛ] indicate the perfect for an activity verb, and the stative for change-of-state verbs, respectively. The final vowel of the stem is a high vowel in the perfect and perfective aspect (the latter in Verb Class 4 only) and a copy of the root vowel (which is subject to height harmony as described in §8.2) in the ‘default verb stem’, that which is used in all other tense and aspects. The [-r] and its allomorphs [ĩ ~ d ~ b] may mark purposiveness which occurred in a non-present time and is discussed in Chapter 9.

This chapter is devoted to giving a description of the different types of verb stems, how each of the verb classes patterns segmentally, and the affixes which follow each verb stem and their meanings. Here, I show that the differences in the inflectional patterns on verb stems are due to the underlying representation of roots. This idea is further developed in the next chapter where I propose that the form and meaning of the verb roots are related. Each of the following sections provides examples and lists verb roots for the five categories.

8.2 Verb Class One: /CVC_{velar}/ or /CVr/

Verb roots in Class One typically end in a velar consonant. The verb ‘hit’ /deg/ is a representative verb for VC1. The verb root always surfaces with a final vowel so that the syllable shape of the stem is [CV.CV]. The final vowel (RV) of the verb stem is determined by the TAM category and the height, backness, and [ATR] value of the root vowel. Verb stems in Class One are suffixed with either a vowel determined by the root vowel (235a - c) or the vowel

[u], as in (235d).⁴⁸ The transitive nasal marker precedes VC1 stems only in the incomplete (235a) and complete (235b). Examples using the verb ‘hit’ in phrases are shown in (235).

(235) Verb Phrases: /deg/ ‘hit’

Incomplete

- a. àdámá ná á nníé –ré –H n dèg –è –L
 Adama INC DEF woman 3 T hit RV 3

Adama is hitting the woman.

Complete

- b. àdámá kó n dég –é –H à nìè –rè –L .
 Adama CPL T hit RV 3 DEF woman 3

Adama hit the woman.

Perfective

- c. àdámá dèg –è –L níé –ré –H .
 Adama hit RV 3 woman 3

Adama has hit the woman.

Perfect

- d. àdámá dèg –ù –L á níé –ré –H kèè .
 Adama hit PRF 3 DEF woman 3 PRF

Adama had hit the woman.

⁴⁸ The aspect which is glossed as being ‘perfective’ has been difficult to elicit and to translate accurately. Also, the verbs were given with both the high [u] and the mid [ɛ] vowel as acceptable in the perfective aspect. The tense ‘complete’ is mostly used in texts and is glossed here tentatively as such. Verbs may also vary in this tense/aspect for word order and inflectional marking without apparent changes in meaning. Both of these aspects will be examined in detail in future research.

A list of all the VC1 verb roots is shown in (236). The majority of verb roots in VC1 with the shape CVC end in a voiced velar segment (236a - n) or [-r] (236o - t). The [l] in (236s) is unusual in general for Bangime and is probably a non-integrated borrowing.

(236) VC1: 19 verbs

Gloss	Root	Default	Perfect
<u>/CV_[MID]g/</u>			
a. hit	deg	dèg-é	dèg-ú
b. close	sog	sóg-ó	sóg-ú
c. weave (a basket)	gog	góg-ó	góg-ú
d. beat	dog	dóg-ó	dóg-ú
<u>/CV_[LO]g/</u>			
e. touch, light (a fire)	dag	dáy-á	dág-ú
f. shake, jiggle	mag	mày-á	màg-ú
g. cut, fix, set (the date)	jag	jày-á	jàg-ú
h. agree, grab	tag	táy-à	tág-ù
i. ruin, bad	jaŋ	jàŋ-à	jàŋ-ù
<u>/CV_[HI]g/</u>			
j. have	dug	dùg-á	dùg-ú
k. wash (smth)	pug	pùg-á	pùg-ú
l. bury	mug	mùg-á	mùg-ú
m. ask	sig	sìg-á	sìg-ú
<u>/CV_[MID]r/</u>			
n. scoop (off dirty things)	ger	gér-è	gèr-ú
<u>/CV_[LO]r/</u>			
o. remain	bar	bár-àà	bàr-ù
<u>/CV_[HI]r/</u>			
p. pierce (ear)	sur	súr-á	súr-ú
q. kill	ɸuur	ɸùr-á	ɸùr-ú
r. drip	bil	bíl-à	bíl-ù
s. detach, unbutton	pir	pír-àà	pír-ù

As shown in the first column of stems (236a - e, o), the mid vowels in verb roots in VC1 undergo height harmony with the suffix vowel in the default stem. It was shown in §2.2.3 that some mid vowels become [-ATR] before the velar plosive, however each of these words shows that the [ATR] value of the suffix is always [-ATR] after [g]. Verb roots which contain low (236f - j, p) and high (236k - n, t) vowels are suffixed with a default [a] in the default stem. Here, we see a similarity to some Dogon languages in that only mid vowels have a [±ATR] surface alternation. I suggest that the mid vowels in verb stems undergo [ATR] harmony at some level in the derivational process and that [a] is a default vowel which is suffixed to the high and low vowels because they do not have [±ATR] counterparts. As has been shown, many stems are disharmonic for the feature [ATR].

Recall that a final low vowel is long after [-r] (236p, t). The final [a] is prevented from lengthening if the initial syllable is already heavy (236r) as two heavy syllables are uncommon in a bisyllabic word.

The perfect stems take the high back vowel [u] as the suffix. All the verbs found in the VC1 are transitive, except ‘drip’. The final vowel of the verb stem is the non-high allomorph in all forms except the perfect. The uninflected or chaining form which follows an inflected verb, such as shown in textual examples, Text VI: Chief VI.11, is also the non-high vowel. For this reason, I consider the vowel to be a default vowel which does not contribute to the inflectional marking on the stem.

An alternative analysis for the verb roots in VC1 is to suggest that the final [g], [ŋ], or [r] consonant is a suffix, since all the other verb classes are composed of a root plus a suffix [-r]. However, an instance of a Class One verb which is suffixed with [-r] is found in TEXT VI: Chief 6.30. The sentence is unusual in that the indirect object is in subject position.

8.3 Verb Class Two: /CV_[mid]/ Verbs

The verb roots in Class Two are vowel-final. Unlike verb roots in Class One, verb roots in Class Two may surface without suffixation. The [minimal word constraint](#) which was shown to apply to noun stems applies to verb stems as well, causing /pe/ to surface as [pie] in the verb stems not suffixed with [-r] (237a - c). The suffix [-r] precedes the root vowel (237d) which marks completive tense of Class Two stems. The meaning of the [-r] suffix itself has been elusive. The final vowel of the Verb Class Two stem agrees with the vowel of the verb root in height, but not in backness. The transitive nasal marker appears before a VC2 stem in all tenses, rather than just the incomplete and completive, as it did in VC1 verbs. Example phrases are shown in (237) using a representative VC2 root, /pe/ ‘put’.

(237) Verb Phrases: /pe/ ‘put’

Incompletive

- a. kàdíjǎ ná á págǎ –H m píè –L .
 Kadija INC DEF pot, container 3 T put 3

Kadija is putting the pot down.

Perfective

- b. kàdíjǎ m píé –H à pàgǎ –L .
 Kadija T put 1 DEF pot, container 3

Kadija has put the pot down.

Perfect

- c. kàdíjǎ m píé –H à pàgǎ –L ŋ kéẽ .
 Kadija T put 1 DEF pot, container 1 ~2 PRF

Kadija had put the pot down.

Completive

- d. kàdíjǎ kóó m pé -r -ó -H à pàgà -L
 Kadija CPL ~2 put -r- RV 1 DEF pot, container 1

Kadija put the pot down.

The verb roots in Class Two are divided into two categories based on the underlying [ATR] value of the vowel of the verb root. Verb roots in the first group have [+ATR] vowels; the stems are shown in (238). The completive verb stem is formed with [-r] suffixed to the root followed by a non-high vowel that has the opposite front/back value to the root vowel. In the other tenses, verb stems with [+ATR] vowels emerge with a short vowel, if the root vowel is back (238a - b), and a high-mid vowel combination, if the root vowel is front (238c - d).

(238) VC2: 4 [+ATR] CV Verbs

	<u>Gloss</u>	<u>Root</u>	<u>Completive</u>	<u>Default</u>
		<u>/CV_[BK]/</u>		
a.	hear	no	nó-r-è	nó
b.	know (a fact)	so	só-r-è	só
		<u>/CV_[FR]/</u>		
	do, make,			
c.	become	je	jé-r-ò	zîè
d.	put	pe	pé-r-ò	pîè

The examples (238a - b) illustrate that the minimal word requirement does not need to be met for mid back [+ATR] vowels but it does for mid front [+ATR] vowels (238c - d). Discussed in Chapter 2, a preference for diphthongs over long vowels is common. All the short vowel roots in VC2 are [+ATR]. There are no roots with [+ATR] high vowels.

Verb Class Two roots with [+ATR] root vowels and those with [-ATR] root vowels behave slightly differently. The suffix vowel is predictable based on the vowel in the root.

The suffix is mid, and obtains its backness and [ATR] value from the root vowel. As with VC1 stems, a root with a low vowel copies the low vowel, but the high vowel emerges with [e].

(239) VC2: 8 [-ATR] CV Verbs

	<u>Gloss</u>	<u>Root</u>	<u>Completive</u>	<u>Default</u>
		<u>/CV_[FR]/</u>		
a.	drink	nɛ	nnìè-r-è	nnìè
b.	lick	dɛ	déé-r-è	déè
c.	lose	tɛ	téé-r-è	téè
		<u>/CV_[BK]/</u>		
d.	respond	jɔ	jóó-r-ò	jóò
e.	pass	dɔ	dóó-r-ò	dóó
f.	mix	sɔ	sóó-r-ò	sóò
		<u>/CV_[LO]/</u>		
g.	reach	t ^w a	t ^w áà-r-à	t ^w áà
h.	build	ma	mmàà-r-à	màà

There are no high vowel roots in Verb Class Two, possibly because high vowels do not have [-ATR] counterparts. [Recall](#) that a mid vowel becomes lax or [-ATR] before nasals and rhotics. Final low vowels do not lengthen after the [-r] suffix in roots with long vowels (239g - h) because of the dispreference for bisyllabic words with two heavy syllables. Most VC2 verbs are transitive.

To summarize thus far, Class One verbs have roots which consist of /CVg/ or /CVr/. The root vowel, the suffix for the default stem agrees in height, but not harmonic value, with mid root vowels, and [a] with high and low root vowels. The perfect stems are suffixed with [u]. Class Two verb roots are /CV/. The completive stem is formed with the suffixation of [-r] and the root vowel. Stems with [+ATR] root vowels are suffixed in the default stem with a vowel that has the same height, but the opposite backness value of the root vowel. Verb Class Two roots with

[–ATR] vowels are suffixed with a vowel which harmonizes to the backness and height of the root vowel but adopts the opposite [ATR] value.

8.4 Verb Class Three: /CVⁿ/

As with VC2 verb stems, those in Class Three are suffixed with [–r] in the completive aspect. Like verb Class One stems, but unlike verb Class Two stems, the completive and incompletive verb stems are grouped together, as are the perfect and perfective stems. In Verb Class Three, the incompletive and completive aspect stems are analyzed as consisting of a verb root plus the suffix [–r], with the nasalization from the root vowel surfacing as a nasal, so that the liquid [–r] assumes the place and manner of the final nasal and becomes a stop. Since low vowels are often associated with labials in Bangime, the example verb root /teⁿ/ ‘bite, chew’, shown in (240), is proposed to have allomorphs [ta^{w̃}] and [tam] when suffixed with [–r]. As with VC2 stems, each tense has the appearance of the transitive nasal.

(240) Phrases using VC3 verb stem /teⁿ/ ‘bite, chew’

Incompletive

a. dà n ηóó –H n tá –^{w̃} –à –L
 INC T meat 3 T chew –r– RV 3

He is eating meat.

Completive

b. kóó n tá^m –b –à –L màá= –H b^wéè –H
 CPL T chew –r– RV 3 POSS 1 foot 3

It bit my foot.

Perfective

- c. n tɛ́ɛ̃ⁿ –H n ɲòò –L .
 T chew 1 T meat 1

I have eaten meat.

Perfect

- d. n tɛ́ɛ̃ⁿ –H n ɲòò –L kɛ̀ɛ̀ .
 T chew 1 T meat 1 PRF

I ate meat.

All VC3 roots consist underlyingly of a consonant followed by one nasalized vowel, shown in (241).

(241) VC3: 35 CVⁿ Verbs

	<u>Gloss</u>	<u>Root</u>	<u>INC</u>	<u>CPL</u>	<u>PRF</u>
		/CV/	CVG ⁿ		
a.	bite	ta ^m	tá-ĩ-àà	tám-b-à	tɛ̀ɛ̃ ⁿ ɲ kɛ̀ɛ̀
b.	fill	da ^m	déè(w) ⁿ	dám-b-á	déè ⁿ ɲ kɛ̀ɛ̀
c.	cold, turn off	ji ⁿ	jì-ĩ-ó	jím- ^l b-ó redup	dʒíi ⁿ ɲ wé – it's cold/ dʒíi ⁿ kɛ̀ɛ̀ – turn off
		/CV _[MID] /	CVr ⁿ		
d.	cook	de ⁿ	dè-ĩ-è	dén-d-è	déè ⁿ ɲ kɛ̀ɛ̀
e.	break	ko ⁿ	kó-ĩ-ò	kón-d-ò	kò-ĩ-ò wè/kóó ⁿ wàj
		/CV _[HI] /			
f.	meet	ku ⁿ	kú-ĩ-à	kún-d-à	kúú ⁿ ɲ kɛ̀ɛ̀
g.	move into	mu ⁿ	mù-ĩ-á	mún-d-à	mùù ⁿ wàj
h.	sprout	pu ⁿ	pú-ĩ-à	pún-d-à	púú ⁿ wàj ~ púwè
i.	swallow	mi ⁿ	mí-ĩ-à	mín-d-à	míi ⁿ ɲ kɛ̀ɛ̀
j.	send	tu ⁿ	tú-ĩ-à	tún-d-ò RED	tú-ĩ-á ɲ kɛ̀ɛ̀
k.	lay smth down	bi ⁿ	bí-ĩ-à	bín- ^l d-ó RED	bíi ⁿ ɲ kɛ̀ɛ̀

The incomplete and complete are suffixed with [-r]. The nasalization from the root vowel spreads to the [-r] suffix in the incomplete. An additional nasal or nasalization process changes the [-r] suffix to a nasal-consonant sequence in the complete aspect, but it is not clear from where the additional nasalization comes. The vowel which follows the [-r] suffix is either a default [a] for high (241e - i) and low (241a - b) root vowels, or a mid vowel for roots with mid vowels (241d - e). The root low-vowels (241a - b) raise to mid vowels in the perfective and perfect aspects, so it may be that all the root vowels in this class are [+ATR]. Three verbs with high vowels are suffixed with a mid back vowel in the perfect aspect and a reduplicated stem. As explained below for Class Five verbs, there is some variation among the final vowels of reduplicated stems.

Some variation is also found in the perfect and perfective in that the verb root surfaces without the [-r] suffix but with an additional vowel to meet the minimal word requirement (241a - d, f - h, j), or it surfaces in the same manner as the default stem (241e, i). In at least two verbs (241e, h), either form was acceptable with no reported change in meaning. An example of the verb /tun/ 'send' being used in the perfective aspect is found in Magic Cat.1 - 2.

8.5 Verb Class Four: /CVn/

The difference between verb roots in Class Three and those in Class Four is the presence of a nasal coda rather than a nasalized final vowel. Furthermore, whereas VC3 verbs are suffixed with [-r] in the incomplete and complete, but not in the perfective and perfect, verbs in VC4 are suffixed with [-r] in all categories, and the [-r] suffix becomes a stop after the nasal segment of the verb root. Similar to Verb Class One roots, the suffix vowel of the verb stem, shown in examples in (242), with the verb /g^wen/ 'split,' is a vowel predicted by the root vowel in the incomplete (242a) and complete (242b) aspects, or a high vowel [i] in the perfective (242c)

and perfect (242d) aspects. Therefore, like the verbs in Class Three and Class One, the verbs in Class Four pattern together in the incomplete and completive aspect and similarly in the perfect and perfective aspect.

(242) Phrases with VC4 /g^wɛn/ ‘split’

Incomplete

- a. àdámá ná ηóó -H η g^wɛn -d -ɛ̃ -L
 Adama INC meat 3 ~2 split -r- RV 3

Adama is splitting meat (fish).

Completive

- b. àdámá kóó g^wɛn -d -ɛ̃ -L á ηóó -H .
 Adama CPL split -r- RV 3 DEF meat 3

Adama split meat (fish).

Perfective

- c. àdámá g^wɛn -d -ì -L á ηóó -H .
 Adama split -r- PRF 3 DEF meat 3

Adama has split meat (fish).

Perfect

- d. àdámá g^wɛn -d -ì -L ηóó -H η kɛ̀ɛ̀ .
 Adama split -r- PRF 3 meat 3 ~2 PRF

Adama had split meat (fish).

Similar to the process of determining the final vowels in VC1 - 4, the final vowel of the verb stem is the same as the root vowel, if the root vowel is mid and [+ATR] (242a, c), but is a default low vowel in [-ATR] mid vowel (242b, d), high (242e - f), and low (242g - h) roots. The perfect and perfective final vowel is also like the final vowel of the perfect in VC1 stems in that it is a high vowel, but for VC4 stems it is a front rather than a back vowel.

(243) VC4: 68 verbs

	<u>Gloss</u>	<u>Root</u>	<u>INC/CPL</u>	<u>PFV</u>	<u>PRF</u>
<u>V-nd</u>					
a.	split	g ^w ɛn	g ^w ɛn-d-a/ɛ	g ^w ɛn-d-ì	g ^w ɛn-d-ì η kɛ̀ɛ̀
b.	broken make move	gajɛn	gájɛ́n-d-à	gájɛ́n-d-ì	gájɛ́n-d-ì wàj
c.	into, enter	mun	mún-d-à	mún-d-ì	mún-d-ì η kɛ̀ɛ̀
d.	hide	dan	dán-d-à	dán-d-í mì	dan-d-ì mi η kɛ̀ɛ̀
<u>r-V_[LO]-nd</u>					
e.	fatigue	ban	bán-d-à	bá-r-án-d-à	bán-d-ì wàj
f.	weed	pun	pún-d-à	pún-d-á-r-à	pun-d-ì η kɛ̀ɛ̀
<u>r-V_[MID]-nd</u>					
g.	stretch	bɔn	mí bó-r-òn-d-a	bó-r-òn-d-ì mì	bó-r-òn-d-ì mì η kɛ̀ɛ̀
h.	pick	pon	pó-r-ón-d-ò	pó-r-ón-d-ì	pó-r-ón-d-ì η kɛ̀ɛ̀

The verbs in Class Four are all transitive, except /gajɛn/ ‘break’ i.e. ‘become broken’.

There are two patterns of suffixation among the data for VC4: stems are the same in the perfective and perfect/stative (243a - e, h), or have the addition of another [-r] suffix in the incomplete and complete (243f - g). The reason for this is unknown but possibilities are explored in Chapter 9. Verbs with the addition of the morpheme [mi] (244d, h) are reflexive.

8.6 Verb Class Five: /CVm/

Verb stems in VC5 consist of a root with a bilabial nasal coda, which then causes the suffix [-r] to assimilate in place and manner. As with some VC6 verbs, an additional [-r] suffix is attached after a copy of the root’s final vowel in the incomplete and complete aspects. The perfective aspect is formed by reduplication of the default stem. Sentences in (244) illustrate that the [-r] suffix is associated with verbs in the incomplete (244a) and perfective (244b) in VC5 stems but not suffixed in the stative (244c) or complete (244d) stems.

(244) Phrases with VC5 /sum/ ‘crouch’

Incompletive

- a. n dàá sùm -b -ó -r -ò -H
 -2 INC crouch -r- RV -r- RV 1

I am crouching.

Perfective

- b. sùm -b -ó -r -ò -H
 crouch -r- RV -r- RV 1
- sùm -b -ó -r -ò -H (RED)
 crouch -r- RV -r- RV 1

I have crouched.

Stative

- c. sùm -b -ò wàj
 crouch -r- RV STAT

Adama crouched.

Completive-Stative

- d. àdámá kóó sùm -b -ò wàj
 Adama CPL crouch -r- RV STAT

Adama was crouched.

Most of the verbs in VC5 are change-of-state verbs. As shown by the verbs listed in (245), the final vowel of the verb stem is determined by the root vowel: underlying mid vowels receive a copy of the root vowel as the final vowel of the stem (245a - c), and the intersuffixal vowel in examples (245b - c), although not (245a). One root with a high back vowel (245d) patterns with the mid back vowels while another (245e) patterns with the high and low vowels. High (245e - f) and low (245g - h) vowels receive a default low vowel as in the other aspects.

(245) VC5: 35 verbs

	<u>Gloss</u>	<u>Root</u>	<u>INC/PFV</u>	<u>STAT/CPL</u>
		<u>/CV_[FR]/</u>		
a.	lean, hammer	tɛm	tém-b-í-r-è	tém-b-è
		<u>/CV_[BK]/</u>		
b.	pinch	kom	kóm-b-ó-r-ò	kóm-b-ó
c.	dent outward	ɲom	ɲóm-b-ó-r-ò	ɲóm-b-ò
d.	crouch	sum	súm-b-ó-r-ò	súm-b-ò
		<u>/CV_[HI/LO]/</u>		
e.	pull	jum	júm-b-á-r-à	júm-b-à
f.	push downwards	tiŋ	tíŋ-g-á-r-à	tíŋ-g-ā
g.	cradle	baŋ	bá-ŋg-à-r-à	báŋ-g-à
h.	mash	kam	kám-b-á-r-ā	kàm-b-á

Another property of VC5 stems is their tendency to [reduplicate](#). Shown in (246), the perfective aspect of a VC5 stem is a reduplicated form (246c) of the verb stem. The reduplicated form of the verb (246c) appears with the [-r] suffix, or with an intervening nasal, but not both, bearing on the question of timing discussed in Chapter 14. The correspondence between the nasal and the [-r] suffix is also seen in negative phrases. Examples (246d - e) and the sentences in (246) show that there is also a correlation between the [incompletive marker /daw/ allomorphy](#) and the nasal, which may appear between reduplicated stems.

(246) Tense and Aspect in VC5 Stems

	<u>T/A</u>	<u>search</u>	<u>carry on shoulder</u>	<u>pull</u>
a.	PRF	kúm-bò ŋ kɛ̀ɛ̀	báŋgà(-ra) ŋ kɛ̀ɛ̀	zúm-bá-rà ŋ kɛ̀ɛ̀
b.	CPL	kóò ŋ kúm-bó-rò	kóò m báŋgà	kóò n zúm-bá-rà
c.	PFV	kúm-bó-ró kúm-bó-rò	báŋgá(-ra) (m) báŋgà(-ra)	zúm-bá-rá zúm-bá-rà

- d. INC dáw̄ kúm-bó kúm-bò ——— dáà zúm-bá-rà
- e. INC dáà kúm-bò ŋ kúm-bò

These examples show that the contribution of the [-r] suffix differs depending on the verb. The perfective is formed with the [completive marker](#) [ŋ kɛ̀ɛ̀] with all transitive verbs. The [-r] suffix, however, is optional in some verbs, as shown in (246a). For example, with the verb /baŋga/ ‘carry on shoulder’ the suffix is obligatory, while in others, such as /zum/ ‘pull’, it is optional. In still others, like /kum/ ‘search’, the suffix is absent. An example of variation in the [-r] suffix with /kum/ ‘search’ is seen in Tiga 1.14 - 16 in which the suffix is only used with the first person singular, not the third persons singular or plural.

The completive aspect (247b) is marked by [kɔo] and the [-r] suffix, obligatorily with verbs /kum/ ‘search’ and /zum/ ‘pull’, but optional with /baŋga/ ‘carry on shoulder’.

Each stem represented in (247) may employ the [-r] suffix in the perfective, and each is reduplicated. The incompletive aspect, formed with /daw/ or its allomorphs, was not found for /baŋga/ ‘carry on shoulder’, but the [-r] suffix variation remains for the other two verbs. These examples make pinning down the exact function of the [-r] suffix quite difficult. In (247) we see the alternations for the verb /kum/ ‘stroll’ and the particles in the incompletive aspect.

(247) Timing in Sentences

- a. mùwì n dáw̄ kúmbó kúmbò.
today ~2 INC stroll

Today, I am strolling.

- b. nniè n dá kúmbò ŋ kúmbò à gúzá ŋ kò.
yesterday ~2 INC stroll DEF grass GEN PP

Yesterday, I was strolling in the grass.

The incomplete particle allomorphs are discussed in Chapter 9. The two sentences show that at least one determining factor of the allomorphy is prosodic timing. The reduplicated stem and the incomplete particle have the same number of syllables in both sentences.

8.7 Summary of Verb Classes 1 - 5

Most verb stems in Bangime can be categorized into five classes based on the behavior of the stem with inflectional marking. The table in (248) summarizes the verb stems which have been illustrated thus far.

(248) Summary of Verb Classes 1 - 5

<u>VC</u>	<u>Root</u>	<u>INC</u>	<u>CPL</u>	<u>PRF</u>	<u>PFV</u>	<u>T/I</u>
1	CVg	-ε, ɔ, o, a	-ε, ɔ, o, a	-u	-ε, ɔ, o, a	T
2	CV	root	-r-ε, ɔ, o, a	root	root	T
3	CV ⁿ	-ĩ-ε, ɔ, o, a	-d-ε, ɔ, o, a	root	root	Both
4	CVn	-d-ε, o, a	-d-ε, o, a	-d-i	r-a/-d-i	T
5	CVm	-b-i, o, a-r-ε, o, a	-b-i, o, a-r-ε, o, a	-b-i, o, a	-b-i, o, a(-r-ε, o, a)/ REDUP	I

The function of the [-r] suffix, what it contributes to the verb stem, is not known at this time, as it is associated with different tenses and aspects, depending on the verb class. Possible meanings for the suffix are explored in Chapter 9. The incomplete and complete are marked the same on the verb stem, except in classes One and Two and the addition of a nasal in Class Three, showing that the particles differentiate the tense. I hypothesize that the [-r] suffix has allomorphs [ĩ d b], in Verb Classes 3 - 5. The nasalization or nasal from the root accounts for the processes of [-r] assimilation in each case, except for the [d] in VC3.

8.8 Other Verb Types

Most verb roots that are not phrasal verbs, i.e. verbs consisting of more than one stem which are more compositional in nature, can be classified into the above five classes.

8.8.1 [kii] Verbs

Another type of verb has the dummy noun [kii] ‘thing’ as a direct object, much in the manner that [adjectives](#) cannot surface without the dummy noun. As indicated in Chapter 11, the direct object precedes the verb in present tense constructions and follows it in completive aspect constructions. Examples of verbs which necessitate the dummy object are shown in (249), with the inflectional patterns for this type of verb shown in (250).

(249) ‘kii’ Verbs: 15 Stems

	<u>Stem</u>	<u>Gloss</u>	<u>Related Forms</u>
a.	kórà ñ kii	return	kórò > ‘change’
b.	díjà ñ kí	increase	díjà > ‘eat’
c.	témbó ñ kí	instruct	témbò > ‘learn’
d.	k ^w áà ñ kii	able	kóróndī > ‘unable’
e.	sóré ñ kii	recognize	sórè > ‘know’
f.	ségó ñ kí	pass over, step over	/sege-ro/
g.	jágù ñ kí	attack	jág-à > ‘cut’
h.	búraà ñ kii	pay for	búraà > ‘go out’
i.	à sáá wè ñ kí	remember	à sáá wè > ‘to descend’
j.	kòrò a kii	transform	
k.	jémbè à kí	flatter, glorify	
l.	dígá kii nà kórò wàj	explain	dígà > ‘say’, kóróndá > ‘give advice’

m.	nìgùndù à kíkí	console, rest	gúndú > ‘whisper’
n.	nínù n dá à kì	pacify	nìnà > ‘say’
o.	té wè ñ kíkí	forget	téré–wè > ‘lost’
p.	dó ñ kíkí	leave	dó > ‘bring’

The examples (249a - j) were given in citation form with a nasal preceding [kii] and those in (249j - n) with a vowel. [Recall](#) that the alternation between the nasal [ŋ] and the vowel [a] before the dummy noun [kii] is based on the subject; all persons are represented with the nasal except second persons, which require [a]. Certain examples especially that of (249c), lead me to believe that this form is the true causative expression (as compared to the ‘efferential’ discussed in the following chapter).

(250) Inflectional Paradigms : [kii] Verbs

	<u>Gloss</u>	<u>PRF</u>	<u>IMP</u>	<u>INC</u>	<u>FUT</u>	<u>PRF</u>
a.	return	kórà ñ kíkí	kórà á kíkí	dá ñ kíkí n kórò	ná kíkí ñ kórò	
b.	able	kwà ñ kíkí	——	dá ñ kíkí kwà		kwà ñ kíkí ñ kéké
	<u>Gloss</u>	<u>CPL NEG</u>	<u>INC NEG</u>			
a.	return	bíé kórà ñ kíkí	bíé kíkí ñ kòrò			
b.	able	bíé kwà ñ kíkí	bíé ñ kíkí ñ kwà			

The verbs which take [kii] as an obligatory direct object have the same inflectional marking in the incompletive aspects as in future and imperative mood because the ‘kii’ verbs’ TAM category does not depend on inflectional marking but on word order. The verbs with ‘kii’ can be compared to the verbs take obligatory cognate accusative direct objects, shown in Chapter 12, since those are verb/cognate noun stems. Examples of a verb with the [kii] morpheme is shown in Chief 2.1, 5 to utilize the [kii] morpheme even if an object is present. Further, the noun

phrase as an object is shown to appear after the verb stem and before the [kii] morpheme, which illustrates that the morpheme is not bound to the stem.

8.8.2 Unclassified Verbs

Although the majority of verbs pattern in one of the ways described above, other verb stems change in ways that are not consistent with any of the five categories. Some verbs, such as those listed in (251), do not change segmentally in any TAM category.

(251) Verbs with no Change

	<u>Gloss</u>	<u>Incompletive</u>	<u>CPL/PFV</u>	<u>Perfect</u>
a.	resemble	dógòńó	dógòńó	—
b.	look	súraà	súraà	—
c.	prepare, repair	ńùwà	núnjà	núnjà ń kéeè
d.	grill, burn	síwò	síwò	síwò ń kéeè
e.	blow	píjù	píjù	píjù ń kéeè

Verbs (251a - b) cannot be used in the perfect aspect. The others are transitive, but have no morphological change on the verb stem in any aspect and are only differentiated by the particles used in the phrase. The verb (251c) changes the intervocalic consonant [ń ~ w] in seemingly free variation.

Two other stems, shown in (252), have a syllable shape similar to those in VC2 but without suffixation.

(252) Possible VC2 Stems

	<u>Gloss</u>	<u>Incompletive</u>	<u>CPL/PFV</u>	<u>PRF/STAT</u>
a.	go out	bírè	bírè	bírè wàj
b.	take	síè	síè	síè ń kéeè

Examples of verbs which could be categorized as VC4 stems, although they do not take the same suffixation as those above, are listed in (253).

(253) Possible VC4 Stems

	<u>Gloss</u>	<u>Incompletive</u>	<u>CPL/PFV</u>	<u>Perfect</u>
a.	dig	kíndū	kíndū	kíndú η kéè
b.	wait	déη'gó	déη'gó	déηgó η kéè
c.	enter	mín'dé	mín'dé	mín'dé

Other verbs, with examples in (254) and (255), somewhat resemble those in VC1, but there are significant differences, such as the suffixation of [r] in the incompletive and completive aspects (254a) and in the perfect and stative forms (254b).

(254) Possible VC1 Stems

	<u>Gloss</u>	<u>Root</u>	<u>INC/CPL/PFV</u>	<u>PRF/STAT</u>
a.	run	tig	tíg-í-r-ì	tìg-è wàj
b.	shatter	pen	pén-d-ìè/ pén-d-ū	pén-d-ú wè pé-ré-nd-ì η kéè

The intransitive verb 'run' can also be represented as [tigi] in the perfective aspect. Examples of the usage of the various forms of 'run' are found in Text XII, Tíga 2.94 - 97. The second example, /pen/ 'shatter', follows the suffixation patterns as those above, but is not [g] or [-r] final in the root. It is an intransitive verb.

Two verbs shown in (255) pattern similarly to the verbs in VC1 in that the suffix [a] or [u] appears in the incompletive and completive, and the root vowel appears with the default stem. These roots differ from those in VC1 in that they are vowel-final.

(255) Possible VC1 Stems

	<u>Gloss</u>	<u>Default</u>	<u>PRF</u>
a.	eat	díj-à	díi ŋ kɛ̀ɛ̀
b.	respond	kìj-á	kî wàj
c.	ripe, ready	bìj-ú	bî wàj
d.	give	náw	nîi ŋ kɛ̀ɛ̀

The verbs are vowel-final as seen in the perfect aspect (255a) or stative (255b - c). These stems differ from those in VC1 in that the [a] or [u] suffix does not pattern in the expected manner shown above. The verb /bi/ ‘ripe’ or ‘ready’ is intransitive and /di/ ‘eat’ is transitive. Another vowel-final root is /ni/ ‘give’ (255d) with representative examples in Chief 7.12, 14, 30.

One verb is shown in (256) that patterns in a similar manner to those in Verb Class Three, but the roots differ. The verb is commonly used in the language, and it has multiple meanings, including ‘rub’ and ‘clean by scrubbing’, that pattern similarly to those found in VC3, but it is not nasalized on the final vowel. The verb /gija/ ‘scrub’ is transitive and appears with the [-r] suffix only in the incomplete.

(256) Possible VC3 Stem

<u>Gloss</u>	<u>Incomplete</u>	<u>Default</u>	<u>Perfect</u>
scrub	gíjǎ-r-à	gíjǎ	gíjǎ ŋ kɛ̀ɛ̀

Other verbs with meanings that are similar to those in VC5, in that they are stative verbs, are shown in (257). These verbs also have roots which end in bilabial nasals, but they pattern differently than those shown above with respect to the suffixation of [-r]. The only verb among these that suffixes the [-r] is (258c), and then only in the incomplete.

(257) Possible VC5 stems

	<u>Gloss</u>	<u>INC/CPL</u>	<u>PFV</u>	<u>PRF/STAT</u>
a.	fold	dém-b-ìè	dém-b-ì	dém-b-ì wè
b.	roll, turn	góm-b-îè	góm-b-îè	gòm-b-è/i η kéeè
c.	search, wander	kúm-b-ó-r-ò	kúm-b-ó kúm-b-ò	kúm-b-ò η kéeè
d.	carry (child) on one's back	kúm-b-ò	kúm-b-ò	kúm-b-ò η kéeè

Most verbs are not homophonous in the same aspect, but ‘search’ and ‘carry on one’s back’ is an exception.

8.9 Summary of Verb Types

Whereas noun stems have very little morphology, much of which is obligatory or frozen, verb stems in Bangime have elaborate morphological processes. However, as shown in the following chapter, not all of the morphological processes are easily parsable into form and meaning.

Chapter 9. Case Studies in Derivational Processes

9.1 Introduction

Most derivational processes in Bangime that affect verbs are no longer productive and are usually not transparent. Verb stems which are similar in shape and meaning are examined in this chapter with respect to their use of suffix [-r-]. We will see that deixis, place and motion salience, and valency are some relevant factors in understanding the role(s) of [-r-].

9.2 Motion Verbs

There are three sets of verbs with a similar shape: *bu-* stem verbs, *mu-* stem verbs, and *pu-* stem verbs, each with a bilabial consonant followed by a high vowel, all of which relate to motion.

(258) Perfective Stems for /bu/ Verbs (non-deictic)

- | | | | |
|----|--------------|------------------|-------------------------------------|
| a. | Intransitive | baa | go away |
| b. | Intransitive | bu-r-aa | move away from (salient motion) |
| c. | Intransitive | buu ⁿ | move out of or away from; move into |
| d. | Transitive | m bun-d-a | take out |
| e. | Intransitive | bire | exit (culminative) |

(259) Perfective Stems for /mu/ Verbs (deictic)

- | | | | |
|----|--------------|------------------|---------------------|
| a. | Intransitive | muu ⁿ | come in(side) |
| b. | Transitive | m mun-d-a | put in(side) |
| c. | Intransitive | minde | enter (culminative) |

(260) Perfective Stems for /pu/ Verbs

- | | | | |
|----|--------------|------------------|----------------|
| a. | Intransitive | puu ⁿ | sprout |
| b. | Transitive | m pun-d-a | weed, pull out |

In the previous chapter, verb stems were organized into five main classes, largely based on the patterns of suffixation of an underlying /-r-/ with an unspecified meaning. The suffix [-r-] is found after vowel-final roots in the completive aspect. A nasalized allomorph [-r̃-] occurs after a root that ends in a nasalized vowel in the incompletive aspect but as [-d-] in the completive aspect. In roots which end in an alveolar or a bilabial nasal consonant, the

allomorphs [-d-] and [-b-] occur, respectively, in all TAM forms. The [-r-] suffix is not productive; most verbs in which [-r-] is found do not have stems with unsuffixed counterparts.

9.3 [-r-] Suffixation: Motion Salient

There is one verb which does have a basic stem and an [-r-] suffixed stem which can be used interchangeably, as shown in the sentences in (261).

(261) [baa] ‘go away’ vs. [buraa]

- a. n ní kóò bàà bónḡó-rò .
 ~2 PL CPL go away-RV Bongoro

They went away from Bongoro.

- b. n ní kóò bú-r-àà bónḡó-rò .
 ~2 PL CPL go away-r-RV Bongoro

They went away from Bongoro. ([Chief map 13.1](#))

It was shown in §2.2.4 that there are no monosyllabic Bangime words with non-nasalized high back vowels. Thus, I analyze the stem [baa] as the counterpart of [bu-r-aa].⁴⁹ The same speaker gave both forms with the same translation, ‘go away from’. While the meaning of [-r-] is still not completely clear, with further examples shown in this chapter, I propose that the suffix contributes the meaning ‘salience of motion’. As shown in the sentences in (261), the forms [baa] and [bu-r-aa] are only interchangeable in the completive and incomplete aspects; in the perfective, only [bu-r-aa] is used, and neither is used in the perfect.

Another use of the non-suffixed form [baa] ‘go away from’ is [báámà], a coalesced form of the verb [baa] plus the word [ima] ‘here’, said to children or others to ‘go away from here’. Further examples of the use of [bu-r-aa] to mean ‘move away from’ are found in Chief 1.5, 13, Chief 7.8, Chief 7.52, and Tiga 1.1. The meaning of the stem [bu-r-aa] can also be changed to

⁴⁹ Historically, this was probably bu-a, which became bwaa > baa.

mean metaphorically ‘come from’, as shown in (262). In this case, the word order is S-LOC-V, as opposed to S-V-LOC in the previous examples.

(262) Sentence with [bu-r-aa] meaning ‘come from’

nníí	mmándé	m	bú	-r	-àà
3.PL	Mande	T	move	-r-	RV

They come from Mande. (Origins of Bangande)

In this sentence, the focus is on the place of origin rather than on the motion, as was the case for the sentences shown thus far.

9.4 Nasalization: Place Salient

A third verb related to *baa* and *buraa* is *buuⁿ*, which has a nasalized vowel. I propose that this nasalization found on some verb stems, those in Verb Class Three, was once a productive derivational process that has now become a lexicalized or frozen attribute of those stems. Just as [baa] and [bu-r-aa] appear to be used interchangeably to mean ‘go away’ in the completive aspect, the sentences in (263) ostensibly illustrate that [buuⁿ] may be exchanged for [bu-r-aa] in the perfective aspect. However, note that these two sentences are sequential in the text, suggesting a subtle semantic difference.

(263) [buuⁿ] ‘move out of, away from, into’

a.	n	níí	bùù ⁿ	dàà ⁿ .
	~2	PL	move from	Daan

They have moved away from Daan.

b.	n	níí	bù-r-àà	dàà ⁿ .
	~2	PL	go away-r-RV	Daan

They have gone away from Daan. ([Chief 7.14 - 15](#))

Although the speaker provided the same translation in both cases, I propose that a subtle difference actually exists; while suffix [-r-] appears to place salience on the motion of the action, nasalization appears to place salience on the place. Although both verbs denote motion away from a place, the first example (263a) places more salience on place or source of the motion, (263b) more salience on the motion itself. Thus, in this text, the first sentence could be translated as, “we came from *Daan*”, and the second, “we *came* from Daan”.

The form [buuⁿ] is a Verb Class Three stem, which means that it is suffixed with [-r-] in the completive aspect, shown in (264).

(264) Completive Aspect [-r̃-]

kàamá	-H	bú	-r̃	-à	ŋ	wí
CPL	3	move	-r-	INC	GEN	PP

He [the ancient king] moved away from *there*. ([Chief 3.51](#))

Whereas both [baa] and [bu-r-aa] can be used in the completive aspect with the same translation, only the suffixed form of [buuⁿ], [bu-r̃-a] is used in the completive aspect. The difference between [bu-r-aa] and [bu-r̃-a] is that, in addition to the nasalization, a low vowel [a] often appears as long after [r], but not after nasalized [r̃].

Another difference lies in the use of the imperative. The form [báámà] means ‘go away from here’, but the imperative of [búúⁿ] means ‘go into’ if both speaker and listener are standing outside. Additional examples from narratives of [buuⁿ] are Chief 2.2, Tiga 1.9, 11.

9.5 Inflectional Paradigms

In Chapter 8, the [inflectional verb category](#) was shown to be predictable in its suffixation patterns within the [TAM](#) categories. I propose that the underlying verb root /bu/ surfaces as [baa] due to restrictions on high back oral vowels in monosyllabic words. The stem [baa] is the base to which [-r-] attaches and/or nasalization is applied. Because these processes are no

longer productive, the verb shape determines its inflectional patterns and therefore verb class.

The paradigms for each stem related to [baa] are shown in (265) - (266).

(265) [baa] ‘go away from’, [bu-r-aa] ‘move away from’

<u>Gloss</u>	<u>INC</u>	<u>CPL</u>	<u>PFV</u>	<u>STAT</u>
go away from	báà	báà	báà	—
move away from	bú-r-àà	bú-r-àà	—	—

(266) Verb Class Three [buuⁿ] ‘move away from’

<u>Gloss</u>	<u>INC</u>	<u>CPL</u>	<u>PFV</u>	<u>STAT</u>
move away from	búu ⁿ	bú-ĩ-à	búu ⁿ	búu ⁿ -wàj

9.6 Root-Initial Consonant Nasalization: The case of [muuⁿ]

The examples in (267) illustrate that [muuⁿ] is always used deictically to mean ‘come in’ to where the speaker is located.

(267) Sentences with [muuⁿ] ‘come in’

- a. múúⁿ come in! (when speaker is inside)
come in.IMP
- b. múúⁿ-wàj s/he came in
come in-STAT
- c. tùréé bíê mú -ĩ -á ímà
hyena NEG enter -r- RV here

Hyena does not come inside here (the village).
(Why Hyenas do not Come into Bounou.6)

The first sentence (267a) is the imperative form of the verb [mmuⁿ]. When the speaker is inside, s/he says [múúⁿ] to tell a person to ‘come in’. Because the verb is intransitive, the perfect aspect is formed with the stative suffix (267b), rather than the perfect particle [kéè]. In an incomplete sentence (267c), the suffix [-r-] is added to the verb root /muⁿ/. The nasalization from the verb root is spread onto the suffix so that it surfaces as [-ĩ-].

9.6.1 Inflectional Paradigm for [muuⁿ]

As shown in Chapter 8, verb stems are organized into five main classes based on the inflectional marking on the verb stem. The stem [muuⁿ] is in Verb Class Three.

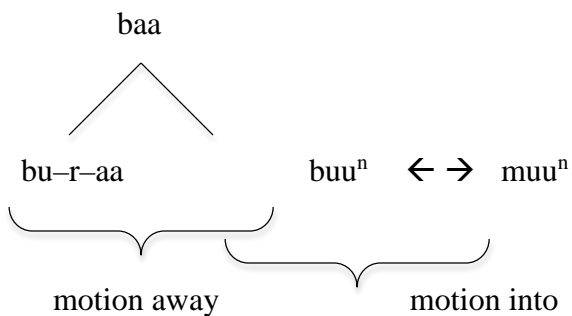
(268) Inflectional Marking on [muuⁿ]

<u>Gloss</u>	<u>INC</u>	<u>CPL</u>	<u>PFV</u>	<u>STAT</u>
come in(side)	mù-ĩ-á	mù-ĩ-á	múú ⁿ	múú ⁿ wàj

9.7 Summary of bu- and mu- verbs

We can summarize the differences between the *bu-* and *mu-* verbs seen so far in the following way. The *bu-* verbs are non-deictic. The verb *baa* is a neutral form meaning motion away. The verbs *bu-ra-aa* and *buuⁿ*, both derived historically from *baa*, also indicate motion away, but the former places salience on the source, the latter on the motion. The verb *muuⁿ*, which appears to be derived from *buuⁿ* via nasalization of the initial consonant, is deictic, denoting motion into and toward the speaker; *buuⁿ* is now its non-deictic counterpart. These are shown in (269).

(269) Motion Verbs



9.8 Transitive Nasal

In addition to the processes the suffixation of [-d-] and the nasalization of the verb root vowel, another way of changing the meaning of these verbs is to add a nasal to the beginning and to the end of the verb root. Class Four Verbs are transitive with final nasal segments. The Class Three stem [buuⁿ] has a Class Four counterpart [m bun-d-a], with examples shown in (270).

(270) [bun-d-a] ‘take out’

- a. há jí à búuⁿ
 until blood CHN move out

Until blood had come out. (Chief 2.24)

- b. n dàà kéé m bun-d-à
 ~2 INC thing T take-r-RV

I am taking something out.

Shown in the sentence (270a), the verb [buuⁿ], in addition to ‘move out’, may also mean ‘come out’. The verb [buuⁿ] not only indicates motion away, it also indicates motion out of. The transitive counterpart of this verb (270b) means ‘take out’. Further examples are shown in (271).

(271) Sentences with Verb [m bun-d-a]

- a. m bún -d -ī kîè ŋ kékè
 ~2 take -r- PRF branch ~2 PRF

It [the tree] grew [caused to come out] took out a branch.

- b. à góóndí+mè m bún -d -ī màá súqè ŋ kékè
 DEF caracal T take -r- PRF 3.POSS breast ~2 PRF

The caracal had taken off its udder. Chief 10 21:1

- c. nnìè zìé húⁿ mé =nè dá à kàsó ŋ kò
 yesterday night PP COMP PL INC DEF jail GEN PP

- nníí m bún -d -ī n dégé ŋ kékè
 3.PL T take -r- PRF ~2 himself ~2 PRF

Last night, those who were in jail took themselves out [escaped]. (Short Lang Profile: 38)

Recall that transitive verbs are preceded by a nasal. I propose that the transitive nasal is added to the verb [buuⁿ]. An additional nasal segment appears in the verb root. I propose that the initial nasal, the transitive nasal, spreads its manner to the nasalized final vowel of the stem so that the [uⁿ] becomes [n] and that [r] becomes [d] following the stop to form the transitive.

9.8.1 [m mun-d-a] ‘put in(side)’

Just as the transitive of [buuⁿ] is [m bun-d-a], the transitive form of [muuⁿ] is [m mun-d-a].

The verb [m mun-d-a] ‘put in’ is also a VC4 transitive stem. An argument is added so that the meaning of the verb changes from ‘come in’ or ‘move into’ to ‘put (something) in’.

(272) Sentences with [m mun-d-a] ‘enter, put in’

- a. à tómpà ŋ kò mé m mún -d -à
 DEF window GEN PP COMP T enter -r- FV

The window through which he has entered. (Dahl 1985: 60.1)

- b. à bíè k^wáá kí m mún -d -ì kòòké
 2.S NEG able T put -r- PRF shoe

há ɥíé k^wáá kí ɥíé d^wàà hùⁿ
 IRR ascend able ascend tree PP

You cannot wear shoes to climb a tree. (Adama 07: 3.1)

- c. nníí kòò m mún -d -à à bíréè à síè ŋ kò
 3.PL CPL T put -r- RV DEF fire DEF firewood GEN PP

They put the firewood in the fire. (Rabbit and Hyena 1: 40.1)

In the case of the verb root [muuⁿ], the transitive nasal is added to an intransitive verb and changes its meaning. Although both verbs [muuⁿ] and [mu-nd-a] are translated in the examples above to mean ‘enter’, the transitive stem may also mean ‘put in’ or ‘make enter’, suggesting a causative relationship.

Further examples from narratives of the verb stem [mun-d-a] translated as ‘put in’ are used to refer to installing gutters (How to Build a House: 11.1) and the storing of millet (Rabbit and Hyena 1: 11.1).

The inflectional affixation patterns for [buuⁿ] and [muuⁿ] differ from those for [m bun–d–a] and [m mun–d–a]. The nasalized roots are in Verb Class Three and the roots with nasal codas are in Verb Class Four, thus the suffixation differs. This further supports the hypothesis that the five verb classes were historically grouped according to the meaning of the verb stem, which was marked on the verb root through derivational consonant and vowel changes. Inflectional paradigms for these two stems are comparable, as shown in (273) - (274).

(273) Verb Class Four [bun–d–a] ‘take out’

<u>Gloss</u>	<u>T</u>	<u>INC</u>	<u>CPL</u>	<u>PFV</u>	<u>STAT</u>
take out	m	bún–d–à	bún–d–à	bún–d–ì	bún–d–ì ŋ kɛ̀ɛ̀

(274) Verb Class Four [mun–d–a] ‘put inside’

<u>Gloss</u>	<u>T</u>	<u>INC</u>	<u>CPL</u>	<u>PFV</u>	<u>PRF</u>
put in(side)	m	mú–nd–à	mú–nd–à	mú–nd–ì	mú–nd–ì ŋ kɛ̀ɛ̀

9.9 High Front Vowel: Culminative Verbs

One further process derives a verb whose use and function can be considered ‘culminative’.

(275) [bire] ‘exit.CUL

à	nàà	kíè	=ndé	nî	bíré	–wàj
DEF	wilderness	thing	PL	3.PL	go out	STAT

The wild animals go out. (Movie 1.3)

This was the only example of the verb [bire] ‘go out’, but the verb stem [minde] ‘enter’ is an intransitive verb stem, which, similar to [bire], does not change its suffixation in any TAM category. The stem [minde] is found with animals (hyena and lion) as subjects entering a cave (Adama 07: 59), a human entering a forest (Chief 10: 18), a caracal entering among goats (Chief 10: 3), bees entering a beehive (Beehive: 44), a man entering a house (Tiga 2: 107), and a rabbit putting something inside his mouth (Rabbit and Hyena 1: 30). Since each of these examples

involves human and animal subjects, as do the examples shown thus far for [m mun–d–a], it would be tempting to suggest that it is the object or place being entered that determines the verb used. However, because the sentences in (276) refer to the same objects, the choice of verb must be based on something else.

(276) Sentences with [minde] ‘enter’

- a. ná m mún –d –ì há máá níí míndè
 COND T enter –r– PRF IRR 3.S.POSS hand enter

Once it [the smoke] has entered [the apiary], they put their hands in [the apiary].
 (Beehive: 11.1)

- b. η káw náá m mún –d –á
 ~2 able INC T enter –r– INC
- míndè à mìrò m páyá η kò
 enter DEF bee GEN container GEN PP

We are able to put [our hands] inside the apiary. (Beehive: 44.1)

The verbs [bire] above and [minde] here are both used almost exclusively in combination with another verb, and always after an event has taken place. These verbs are considered to have a ‘culminative’ meaning; they conclude an action that has taken place.

The inflectional paradigms for these verbs are shown in (277) - (278).

(277) Inflectional Marking on [minde] ‘enter.culminative’

<u>Gloss</u>	<u>INC</u>	<u>CPL</u>	<u>PFV</u>	<u>STAT</u>
enter.CUL	míndè	míndè	míndè	míndè–wàj

(278) Inflectional Marking [bire] ‘exit.culminative’

<u>Gloss</u>	<u>INC</u>	<u>CPL</u>	<u>PFV</u>	<u>STAT</u>
exit .CUL	bí–r–è	bí–r–è	bí–r–è	bí–r–é–wàj

9.10 Root Initial Consonant Devoicing: Direction

The final set of roots to be examined comprises the verbs [puuⁿ] ‘sprout’ and [pun–d–a] ‘weed’.

These are comparable to [buuⁿ] and [muuⁿ], but involve a slightly different type of motion.

9.10.1 [puuⁿ] ‘sprout’

The verb [puuⁿ] ‘sprout’ is an intransitive Class Three stem, like [buuⁿ] ‘move out’ and [muuⁿ] ‘come in(side)’. An example of its usage is shown in (279).

(279) Sentence with [puuⁿ] ‘sprout’

à déémè púúⁿ–wàj
DEF millet sprout–STAT

The millet sprouted.

As with the verbs above, the transitive, Verb Class Four counterpart of [puuⁿ] ‘sprout’ is [pun–d–a] ‘weed’.

9.10.2 [pun–d–a] ‘weed’

The same process of transitivization as shown [above](#) changes the valency of the verb. An example of the use of the transitive verb in the perfective aspect is shown in (280).

(280) Sentence with [pun–d–a] ‘weed’

àdámá m pún–d–à gǔzèè.
Adama T weed–r–RV weed

Adama has pulled weeds.

An additional difference between the verbs of the [pu] set is in the inflectional marking.

9.10.1 Inflectional Marking

The verbs ‘weed’ and ‘sprout’ are in the inflectional classes Four and Three respectively. The verb ‘sprout’ (281a) follows the expected pattern for a Verb Class Three stem. The verb ‘weed’ (281b) has an additional [–r–] suffix in the perfect aspect.

(281) Inflectional Marking on [puuⁿ] and [pun-d-a]

	<u>Gloss</u>	<u>T</u>	<u>INC</u>	<u>CPL</u>	<u>PRF</u>	<u>PFV-STAT</u>
a.	sprout	–	pú-ĩ-à	pú-nd-à	púù ⁿ	púù ⁿ wàj ~ púwě
b.	weed	m	pún-d-à	pún-d-ì	pún-d-á-r-à	pún-d-ì ŋ kɛ̀ɛ̀

Shown in §8.5 and §8.6, some verbs in Class 4 and 5 necessitate an addition [-r-] suffix.

The reason for the additional [-r-] suffix is yet to be determined.

9.11 Summary of *bu-*, *mu-*, and *pu-* verbs

Three sets of verbs which relate to movement begin with a bilabial consonant and a high vowel.

The most basic of these three sets of verbs is [baa] ‘go away from’. From examining the difference between (282a) [baa] ‘go away from’ and (282b) [bu-r-aa] ‘move away from’ I hypothesize that a once productive process derived a salience on motion by the suffixation of [r].

Another once productive process, nasalization of the final vowel of the verb root, focuses the salience on the place as the verb (282c) [buuⁿ] ‘move out of’ exemplifies. The fact that the verb which is considered a culmination of the previously described events (282d) does not alter its suffixation in any TAM category speaks to the once productive derivational properties of [r] and nasalization on the verb root. The transitive morpheme, (282e) [m bun-d-a] ‘take out’, is a somewhat productive process in which a nasal precedes and follows a verb root and adds an argument. The proposed reversive is more precisely analyzed as a change in deixis. The nasalization which changes the root-initial consonant to a nasal from a plosive (282f) [muuⁿ] ‘come in’, adds a deictic meaning to the stem. The culminative and transitive counterparts (282g - f) have changed the root-final nasalized vowel to a nasal coda. Finally, the initial consonant is devoiced (282i - j) and the direction of movement is one of up and down rather than in and out. Further, the fact that the root /mu/ indicates movement ‘to the inside’ and the root /bu/ ‘to the

outside’ could be significant since the locative prefix commonly found among Bantu languages /mu-/ means ‘into, inside’.

(282) Case Study One Verbs

	<u>Gloss</u>	<u>T</u>	<u>INC</u>	<u>CPL</u>	<u>PFV</u>	<u>PRF-STAT</u>
a.	go away from	–	báà	báà	báà	——
b.	move away from	–	bú-r-àà	bú-r-àà	——	——
c.	move out of	–	bú-ĩ-à	búù ⁿ	búù ⁿ	bú-ĩ-à
d.	exit.CUL	–	bírè	bírè	bírè	bírè
e.	take out	m	bún-d-à	bún-d-ì	bún-d-ì	bún-d-à
f.	come in(side)	–	mù-ĩ-á	múú ⁿ	múú ⁿ	mù-ĩ-á
g.	enter.CUL	–	míndè	míndè	míndè	míndè
h.	put in(side)	m	mún-d-à	mún-d-ì	mún-d-ì	mún-d-à
i.	sprout	–	pú-ĩ-à	púù ⁿ	púù ⁿ	pún-d-à
j.	weed	m	pún-d-à	pún-d-ì	pún-d-á-r-à	pún-d-ì

Other verbs which encode deixis are verbs of ascending and descending as follows:

[sqèè] ‘descend’ (if both speaker and listener are above), and [sááⁿ] ‘descend’ (if the speaker is below and the listener is above), ɸèè ‘ascend’ (if both speaker and listener are below) náw ‘ascend’ (if the speaker is above and the listener is below). The verb [ɸèè] ‘ascend’ is used with the [r] suffix one time, in a text, Chief 8.7. Other verbs which could be considered to be related by the once productive processes described above are shown in (283).

(283) Verb Pairs

	<u>Gloss</u>	<u>T</u>	<u>INC</u>	<u>CPL</u>	<u>PFV</u>	<u>PRF-STAT</u>
a.	sit	–	tíè	té-r-ò	tíè	tíè
b.	get up	–	zìè	zè-r-ò	zìè	zìè
c.	start	n	tìn-d-á	tìn-d-á	tìn-d-á	tín-d-ì
d.	stand, stop	n	dìn-d-á	dìn-d-á	dìn-d-á	dín-d-ì
e.	cold	–	jím-b-ò	jím-b-ò RED	jìì ⁿ	jím-b-ì
f.	cool, turn off	n	dzì-ĩ-ó	dzím-b-ò	dzìì ⁿ	dzì-ĩ-ó

A change in initial consonant is seen between the forms (283a) [tie] ‘sit’ and (283b) [zie] ‘get up’. One verb expresses movement which is the opposite of the other, as are (283c) [tin-d-a] ‘start’ and (283d) [din-d-a] ‘stand, stop’. Further, the second pair are the transitive counterparts of the first pair. The final pair (283e - f) are in an intransitive and transitive relationship. The verb [ɛíéndè] ‘ignite’ which also means ‘turn on’ bears no relation to the verbs shown above in the manner described thus far.

9.12 Case study two: Causative or Efferential

Newman (1983) presents evidence for a morpheme in Hausa which had been interpreted as giving a causative meaning being better glossed as efferential, meaning "action away". The verb pairs he presents from Hausa have a relationship of action away from the referent.

In Bangime, a somewhat productive process derives the efferential from a verb stem in the completive aspect with the addition of [-nd-]. The addition of the efferential suffix resembles that of the addition of the transitive. A nasal precedes and follows the verb root so that the suffix, proposed to be also underlying [r], becomes [d]. The stem is then inflected following the [Class Four](#) pattern described above. It should be noted, however, that the verbs listed as inherent VC4 stems above are not analyzed as efferential stems derived from roots. Examples are given in the following tables based on the vowel of the verb root. Because the additional suffix is attached to the stem, rather than the root, the final vowel of the entire stem is determined, not by the root vowel, but by the stem final vowel.

(284) CV_[MID]

	<u>Root</u>	<u>Class</u>	<u>Gloss</u>	<u>Incompletive</u>		<u>Efferential</u>	<u>Gloss</u>
a.	ne	2	drink	nnìè	aa.	nnín-d-è	give to drink
b.	gwe	—	move away	gúwè	bb.	gúweń-d-è	separate, halve
c.	de	3	send	dè-ĩ-é	cc.	dé-r-én-d-à	cause to send

d.	pe	2	put	píè	dd.	pín-d-ò	put upon
e.	bi	3	lay	bí-ĩ-á	ee.	bín-d-ò	lay out
f.	muwo	—	wet	mmúwò	ff.	mùwón-d-á	soak
g.	tingo	—	wake up	tíŋ'gó		~ múwón-d-ò	
					gg.	tíŋgín-d-á	wake s.o. up
						~ tíŋgón-d-ó	

Roots whose final vowels are mid and front are suffixed with a mid front vowel as the root vowel (284a - b) and the final vowel of the stem (284aa - bb). Then, in words with longer stems, such as (284c), the vowel which follows the efferential suffix is a default low vowel (284cc). Verb Class Two roots with [+ATR] vowels were shown in §8.3 to take a root vowel which has the opposite value in backness as the root; the same is true for the efferential stem (284dd). The pattern (284e) is unexpected.

(285) CV_[HI]

	<u>Root</u>	<u>Class</u>	<u>Gloss</u>	<u>Incompletive</u>		<u>Efferential</u>	<u>Gloss</u>
a.	di	1-?-	eat	díj-à	aa.	dìj-àn-d-á	feed
b.	tig	1-?-	run	tígì	bb.	tíg-ín-d-á	drive
c.	pi	3	fear	pìĩ-á	cc.	pí-r-ún-d-ú	make afraid

The stems with high vowels (285a - c) suffix a default low vowel a vowel (285aa - bb) or a vowel with the same height and backness as the final vowel of the stem (285cc).

(286) CV_[LO]

	<u>Root</u>	<u>Class</u>	<u>Gloss</u>	<u>Incompletive</u>		<u>Efferential</u>	<u>Gloss</u>
a.	sa ⁿ	3	descend	sáá ⁿ	aa.	sàn-d-á	drop
						~ sáwòn-d-ò	
b.	kar	—	learn, study, read	kàràà	bb.	kár-án-d-á	teach

Low vowel roots suffix a low vowel (286a - bb), unless the stem ends in a mid vowel as is a possible variation for (286aa).

Examples from narratives further illustrate the meaning of the stem. The examples (284d) ‘put’ and (284dd) ‘put upon’ with usage shown in the narrative Text XII, Tíga 2.106, show that the difference between the two verbs is one of valency. There is one example of the verb [diga] ‘say, talk’ as [dĩngi–nd–a], translated as ‘repeat’ (Tíga 1.156). Another, Text XII, Tíga 2.6 is an example of ‘eat’ marked with [nd] yet it does not translate as ‘feed’ as (285a) above, and in Line 52 of the same narrative the word [pɛrɛ] ‘lead’ has the counterpart [pɛrɛ–nd–i] ‘explode, shatter, burst, smash’. This semantic relationship is one of going out or away from. Further, the example above (284b) /guwɛ/ ‘move away’ is likely related to the VC1 root /guu/ ‘throw’, which provides further evidence for the difference in verb class being one of derivational affixation. Another example of the efferential morpheme is Tíga 1.34.

9.13 Case study three: Nouns from Verbs

The third use of a semi-productive suffix [–r–] is to derive verbs from nouns. It was noted in Chapter 3 that many nouns with [–r] suffixes could also be used as verbs. In (287) are verbs which are derived from nouns. It should be noted that all the verb stems have an [–r] suffix in them, or an allomorph of the [–r] such as [d] (287aa - bb).

(287) Nominal Verbs

	<u>Stem</u>	<u>Noun</u>		<u>Stem</u>	<u>Verb</u>
a.	kóó–rì	war	aa.	kórón–d–à	make war
b.	gìè–né	broom	bb.	gìèn–d–í	sweep
c.	díé+bíè	ax	cc.	díé–rè	carve
d.	túm+bíè	message	dd.	tú–ř–à	send

- | | | | | | |
|----|------------|--------|-----|------------|---------------------|
| e. | tém+bìè | brick | ee. | tém+bí-ré | hammer |
| f. | kám-b-á-rā | pliers | ff. | kám-b-á-rā | pull out a splinter |

Note that not all semantically related verbs have any segmental similarity, or that the similarity is the same as the above described patterns. Some related verbs are shown in (288).

(288) Other Relationships

	<u>Stem</u>	<u>Gloss</u>		<u>Stem</u>	<u>Gloss</u>
a.	bímbó	slightly	aa.	jímbò	slowly
b.	déé-rè	sweet	bb.	déé-rù	sour
c.	kágájà	scratch (by smth else)	cc.	kǒgǒzò	scratch oneself, rake, rub
d.	kúbújá	squeeze	dd.	kùgùjà	crumple (paper or clothing)
e.	kówón-d-ò	dry	ee.	mógón-d-ó	wet

While the changes in vowels and consonants seem to correspond with roots with similar meanings and form in the above verb stems, patterns are not productively found in the language.

9.14 Overview of Affixation on Verbs

It was shown in the previous chapter that verb stems are grouped into verb classes according to the suffixation patterns in inflectional categories. However, there are suffixes which have been difficult to accurately gloss. In this chapter, possible meanings of the [-r] suffix were provided. The [-r] suffix has been glossed as efferential following Newman's (1983) discussion of efferential meaning that so-called causatives in Hausa seem to indicate that an action away from the speaker. The same process of an action away from the speaker is found in the relationship between the verbs which are suffixed with [d], although not [r] (cf. the discussion of verbs of movement). The meaning of the [-r] suffix on nouns may also be related to the [-r] suffix on verbs since many nouns with the [-r] suffix are verbal nouns.

Chapter 10. Verb Particles

10.1 Overview of TAM Particles

In addition to inflectional suffixation based on verb category (shown in the previous two chapters), the TAM category of a clause is further specified by verb particles. As shown in the previous chapters, each tense and aspect particle is paired with inflectional marking on the verb stem, and each verb class has its own set of inflectional patterns. Most verb particles directly precede the verb except the perfect clitic and the stative suffix. The future marker is an allomorph of the incomplete, but follows rather than precedes the verb. The verb particles are listed in (289).

(289) Verb Particles

<u>Tense</u>		<u>Aspect</u>		<u>Mood</u>					
FUT	INC	CPL	PFV	PRF	STAT	IRR	PROH	IMP	
=/daw/	/daw/=	/kama/=	∅	=kéè	-/waj/	ha=	maa=	∅	

The verb particles that indicate tense is the future. The verb aspects indicated by particles are incomplete (INC), complete (CPL), perfect (PRF) and stative (STAT). The verb moods are the irrealis (IRR), prohibitive (PROH), and imperative (IMP). Examples of each verb particle are given in this chapter. The perfective is unmarked by any particles. Because the incomplete aspects and aspects are all marked with the verb particle /daw/, they are presented together in §10.3. In §10.4 the complete aspect and complete aspect markers are discussed. The modal categories are shown in §10.5. The copula is shown in §10.6. In the interest of descriptive completeness, question particles are presented in §10.7. Most of the examples used in this chapter involve the verb ‘cultivate’. Supplemental examples are from narratives.

10.2 Perfective Aspect

The simplest form of a sentence is tentatively glossed as the perfective aspect. The perfective is expressed solely by the [verb stem](#) and the [placement](#) of constituents within the phrase, without TAM auxiliaries.

- (290) n déé déè .
 1.S millet seed cultivate
 I have cultivated.

The verb /de/ ‘cultivate’ is a VC2 stem (Chapter 8) and takes ‘millet seed’ as an obligatory object (290). Certain verbs, such as /de/ ‘cultivate’, shown in Chapter 12, require a cognate accusative i.e. a noun derived from the verb. The perfective word order is SVO. Illustrated in Chapter 11, the word order of the sentence also changes based on the TAM of the clause. The reason the gloss of the aspect is tentative is that examples from narratives comparing the ‘perfective’ to the completive aspect such as Chief 7.2 and 4 make determining the exact definition difficult. The same verb is used, with the same suffixation on the verb, and may be even glossed the same. Thus, the term ‘perfective’ and ‘completive’ are used in this dissertation with the matter of refining the definition left to further research.

10.3 Incompletive Particle /daw/

All incompletive clauses are marked with the particle /daw/. The placement of the particle within the sentence helps to determine the tense or aspect of the phrase. The incompletive aspect or incompletive particle has several allomorphs: [n da] ~ [na] [naw] ~ [na] and [daw] ~ [da]. The incompletive particle allomorphy is based on the subject of the sentence so that /na/ becomes [da] after the non-second person nasal as in examples, [n da noo] ‘I am coming’, [a na noo] ‘you are coming’, but there are exceptions.

10.3.1 Incompletive Aspect

When the incompletive particle /daw/ precedes a verb, the clause is interpreted to be in the incompletive aspect. In an incompletive clause, the subject is marked by a phrase-initial nasal for [non-second persons](#), and the transitive [nasal marker](#) precedes a transitive verb. The verb agrees with the subject for person by [tonal marking](#). The inflection on the verb differs for each verb class; (291) is with a VC2 stem.

(291) n dàá **déé** n **dèè** .
 1.S INC millet seed 1.S cultivate

I am cultivating.

(292) n dáà n **dèé** .
 1.S INC T cultivate

I cultivate.

The verb in (259) is not marked with the [-r] suffix, which, in VC2 stems, marks the completive aspect. Therefore, the particle /daw/ indicates that the clause is in the incompletive aspect, and the lack of [-r] suffix shows that the verb stem is also in the incompletive aspect. The presence of the object before the verb indicates that this sentence is in the incompletive aspect; the lack of it in (292) means that the sentence is in the completive aspect.

Some sentences in the incompletive aspect are ambiguous with respect to time. Temporal adverbials may be used in order to specify when the event took place. For instance, ‘always’ or ‘every day’ modifies the phrase as being habitual (293).

(293) n dàá (~ ná) **déé** n **dèé** bá píè .
 1.S INC millet seed 1.S cultivate all the time

I am cultivating every day.

The temporal adverb ‘today’ (295) can be used to specify when the action is happening.

The completive aspect may be differentiated from the incompletive by the addition of a temporal marker such as ‘yesterday’ (296), (297). The verb is preceded by the incompletive particle.

(294) n nàw kúmbó kúmbò .
1.S INC stroll

I am strolling.

(295) mùwì n dáw kúmbó kúmbò .
today 1.S INC stroll

Today I am strolling.

(296) nnìè , nàw kúmbó kúmbò .
yesterday INC stroll

Yesterday I was strolling.

(297) nnìè , n dá kúmbó kúmbò à gúzé η kò .
yesterday 1.S INC stroll DEF grass GEN PP

Yesterday, I was strolling in the grass.

The completive/incompletive distinction may also be differentiated with the verb /wore/ ‘go’, accompanied by the incompletive particle (298) or alone (299).

(298) n dáà wòrè kúmbó kúmbò .
1.S INC go stroll

I am going strolling.

(299) n nnìè wòrè kúmbó kúmbò .
1S yesterday go stroll

Yesterday I went strolling.

The incomplete particle marks a phrase with ‘go’ as something which is ‘going to happen’ in the future (300), while the completive aspect marker indicates that the event occurred in the complete (301).

(300) n dáw wórè n déè .
 I INC go T cultivate
 I am going to cultivate.

(301) ŋ kó wórè déè .
 I CPL go cultivate
 I went to cultivate.

The default [word order](#) for a declarative incomplete sentence is S-AUX-O-V. A definite direct object follows the incomplete particle, as shown in (302). An indefinite direct object (303) or a pronominal object (302) may also precede the incomplete particle.

(302) n nàw à b̀̀̀ kàw n d̀̀̀ .
 1.S INC DEF field DEM ~2 cultivate.RV
 I am cultivating this field.

(303) b̀̀̀ ná n d̀̀̀ .
 1S.field INC ~2 cultivate.RV
 I am cultivating a field.

(304) kàw ná n d̀̀̀ .
 1S.DEM INC ~2 cultivate.RV
 I am cultivating that.

Thus, the incomplete aspect is formed with a segmental subject pronoun and/or tonal marking on the verb and object, the particle /daw/ or its [allomorphs](#), and the verb, which for most verb classes does not have suffixation. Modifiers follow the object noun but precede the verb.

10.3.2 Future Tense

The future tense in a sentence without an object, shown in (305), is formed in with the same constituents, in the same manner as the incomplete, except that the incomplete particle follows the verb and invariably [naw]. A transitive verb is preceded by the transitive nasal. The subject nasal may be differentiated from the transitive nasal when the subject is in the second person, illustrated [above](#).

(305) n déé n náw̃ .
T cultivate ~2 INC

I will cultivate.

When a sentence in the future tense has an object, the object may be inferred from the sentence as shown in (306), or the object may surface clause-initially as shown in (307). The incomplete marker then either follows the verb (306) - (308) or the object (309). Here, word order is OSV.

à nníè-ré niṅá àdámà n dég -è n náw̃.
DEF woman say Adama T hit RV ~2 INC

The woman said Adama will hit (her).

níí máà= jíbéé nè gúṽ -ì náw̃.
3.PL POSS person PL throw PRF INC

Their people will be thrown. (Chief 3: 16.1)

(308)

sé máà= pààⁿ sṽéè nàá jìè hǔⁿ jáá náw̃
COND 3S.POSS friend descend wilderness night PP die FUT

If his friend goes to the wilderness at night, he will die. (Story 9:1)

á já+m'bé ná n dèg -è -L
DEF child INC T hit RV 3

He will hit the child.

10.3.3 Existential

The incomplete particle /daw/ may be combined with a postposition to express that an object is present or exists.

(310) /daw/ as Existential

ɲ kámá ní ɲà [néè] sé sɛ̀ɛ̀ n dàw málpa dá ɲ wì
3.SG CPL say that COND COND descend ~2 INC rifle EXIST GEN PP

He said if you go down, there will be a rifle. (Tiga 5.13)

à jàà=ndé péèrè n dóò ~ daa ɲ wì à kóò ɲ kò.
DEF child=PL a lot GEN EXIST GEN PP DEF house GEN PP

There are a lot of children in the house. (Syntactic 17.1)

When the particle /daa/ is used to mean ‘exist’ it always appears with the postposition [wì] or [kò]. This expression is not marked for aspect or aspect, it can be used to indicate the incomplete aspect as shown in the second sentence, the future tense, shown in the first sentence, or the complete, shown in Chief 1.10.

10.4 Completive

The completive may be differentiated from the incomplete by the auxiliaries either preceding or following the verb. The completive aspects include the completive aspect, the perfect aspect, and the stative aspect. The completive aspect particle, like the incomplete aspect particle, precedes the verb. The perfect and stative aspect morphemes follow the verb stem.

10.4.1 Completive aspect

The completive aspect is marked by the particle /kamaa/ with allomorphs [kaŋaa] ~ [koo]. It appears to be a grammaticalized form of the verb/adjective/noun meaning ‘become old’, ‘older’, and ‘ancestor’, [kaŋaa] with root [koo] (verbal inflection is discussed [above](#)). The completive aspect marker precedes a verb, which is preceded by the person agreement nasal.

- (311) nî kámàà n déè-r-è (m bít-ù)
 3.PL CPL ~2 cultivate-r-RV T finish-PRF

They were cultivating (and they finished).

The completive aspect is used with a verb which is in the default verb stem in all verb classes save for Class Two. When there is only one clause, as in (311) above, the root vowel is suffixed to the verb which follows the completive aspect particle. If there is more than one clause, as in (312), subordinate clauses may have their own aspects.

(312) Completive aspect with Subordinate Clauses

kóó -H η wórè à káràà ñámbà tórè bíè nì m túmbári
 CPL 1 go CHN find sheep one NEG 3.PL GEN between

I went and found one sheep wasn't among them (Chief 10 16.1)

kóó -H púwónd -ò kóó -H m wóré η káràà n ɸúúr-ú η kèè
 CPL 1 search RV CPL 1S ~2 go T find T kill-PRF ~2 PRF

I was searching [and] I went [to] find he had been killed. (Chief 10: 35.1)

The completive aspect marker is used most commonly in texts. In the excerpt from the narrative which follows Dahl's TAM questionnaire, shown in (313), there is variation in the completive aspect particle.

(313) Completive Aspect Alternations

- a. kóò -L m pógyó kéréndé kèè.
 CPL 1 T step on slither thing

I stepped on a snake.

- b. kóó -H n tám -b -à màá= b^wéè.
 CPL 3 T bite -r- RV 3.POSS foot

He bit my foot.

- c. kámá -H n jà -n -á à símèè.
CPL 1 T take -r- RV DEF rock

I picked up the rock.

- d. kámá -H η gúy -ú n yúùr -ù.
CPL 1 T throw PRF T kill PRF

I threw (it) (and) killed (it).

- e. kóó -H η gúy -ú n yúùr -ù.
CPL 1.S ~2 throw PRF T kill PRF

I threw (it) (and) killed (it).

Most speakers adamantly prefer one variation of the completive aspect marker to the other. However, this sample text was given by one speaker, who did vary between [kɔo] (313a - b), [kama] (313c - d), and back to [kɔo] again in (313e). Other instances of a speaker using both forms in a text are Chief 1.14 - 15, Chief 4.6 - 7, Chief 7.8 - 9,

The completive aspect particle may be used in combination with the stative suffix to indicate the completive aspect for change of state verbs. Examples comparing the completive aspect with the perfective aspect are found using the verb /baar/ 'remain': compare TEXT VI: Chief 6.17 with TEXT VII: Chief 7.11. Although sentences using the particle [kɔo] are translated as completive, one example has been found in which the clause was modified by the temporal adverb 'now' (Chief 1.7).

10.4.2 Perfect Aspect

The perfect aspect is marked as [kéè] following the verb, which is marked by the presence or, in this case, absence of suffixation as shown in (314) and (315). As shown [below](#), the default perfect aspect word order is S-V-O-AUX, with either a nasal or [a] depending on the subject marked before the perfect clitic.

- (314) n déé –H η kɛ̀ɛ̃ .
 1.S cultivate 1S ~2 PRF

I cultivated (and it's finished).

- (315) n déé déé η kɛ̀ɛ̃ .
 ~2 millet seed cultivate ~2 PRF

I cultivated (and it's finished since a long time ago).

Similar to the examples with inceptive particle /daw/, (291) - (292), the cognate nominative accusative occurred in the sentence which meant 'I am cultivating' but not in the sentence glossed as 'I cultivate'. The perfect marker may also be used with the presence or absence of the object with a slightly different meaning. The second sentence was interpreted as occurring in a time which was further in the past than the first. The verb occurs simply as [deɛ] in (314), but with the cognate accusative object in (315). This difference seems to be correlated with the temporal distance.

The perfect clitic appears to be a borrowing from Fulfulde, with the same form and meaning [kɛ̀ɛ̃]. The nasal or [a] alternation which was shown to agree with the person of the subject of the clause is obligatory before the perfect clitic.

10.4.3 Stative Aspect

Change-of-state and intransitive verbs are marked for the perfect aspect with the suffix [wɛ] or its allomorph [waj]. Some [change-of-state](#) verbs may be marked with the perfect clitic, but non-change-of-state verbs may be marked with the stative suffix [wɛ]. Evidence from texts, for example, Text XII, Tiga 2.8 shows that the stative morpheme is a suffix as it appears directly after the verb, even if an object is present in the clause. This is true of all tenses and aspects except the future tense. In the future, the inceptive marker precedes the stative marker. A list of change-of-state verbs is given in (316).

(316) Change-of-state Verbs

	<u>Gloss</u>	<u>Stative Stem</u>	<u>Verb Class</u>
		[−ATR]	
a.	descend	sáá ⁿ –wè	——
b.	die	záá–wè/jáá–wò	——
c.	lose	téé–wè	——
d.	tear	péró–wè	——
e.	try	wò kía–wè	5
f.	lie down	túú–wè	——
g.	broken	kóřó–wè	3
h.	pass	dóó–wè	2
i.	awaken	téngó–wè	——
		[+ATR]	
j.	sit	tíè–wàj	2
k.	go out	bìré–wàj	——
l.	say	níhà–wàj	——
m.	enter	míndè–wàj	——
n.	dry	kúwòndò–wàj	——

The vowel of the stative suffix alternates between [wɛ], if the verb has at least one [−ATR] (316a - i) vowel, and [waj], if the verb has all [+ATR] vowels (316j - n). This is of interest since other clitics and suffixes do not display these alternations, even the similar [diminutive](#) suffix, which takes the allomorph [wɛ] or the postposition [waj].

The verb /ja/ ‘die’ is a change-of-state verb. The stem is not inflected with affixation of [r] or vowel changes. As shown in the following examples (317) - (319), the suffix [wɛ] follows a change-of-state verb in all aspects.

- (317) jàá –wé.
die STAT

He is dead/He died.

- (318) ná jáá –wé.
INC die STAT

He is dying.

- (319) sírì kòò jáá –wè.
Siri CPL die STAT

Siri was dead. (Dingi ma: 20.1)

The verb ‘die’ may be used with animals or humans, with only the stative suffix [wɛ], it does not specify a time that the event. Temporal adverbs be used to indicate time of reference, as shown in examples (320) - (322).

- (320) à bììⁿ jáá –wé
DEF goat die STAT

The goat died. (I don't know when)

- (321) jàá –L –wé à díndà hùn
die 3.S STAT DET morning PP

He (a man) died this morning.

- (322) jàá –L –wé há sáw
die 3.S STAT until a long time ago

He (a man) died (a long time ago).

A change-of-state verb is also marked with the stative suffix when describing the condition of a person. Shown in (323), in order to describe a person as being dead, the complementizer is used, followed by the verb ‘dead’ and the stative suffix.

(323) ‘dead’ Modifying a Noun

	<u>Phrase</u>			<u>Gloss</u>	
a.	ʒìbɛ́ɛ	jàá	–wɛ̀	A person died.	
	person	die	STAT		
b.	ʒìbɛ́ɛ	mè	jàà	–wé	A person who died/a dead person.
	person	COMP	die	STAT	
c.	mè	jàà	–wé	That which has died/a dead thing.	
	COMP	die	STAT		

An interesting example of the verb /ja/ ‘die’ being used with the verb /quur/ ‘kill’ and the perfect clitic to refer to killing someone is seen in TEXT VII: Chief 7.6.

Not all change-of-state verbs act alike. The verb /ti/ ‘sit’ is a VC2 stem. The verb may be interpreted ‘sit’, as in examples (324) - (325) or ‘live’, as shown in examples (324) - (325). The stative suffix was shown to follow the verb stem ‘die’ in all tenses and aspects except the future. The verb ‘sit’ is inflected for aspect on the stem and the stative suffix is not obligatory in all forms.

(324) tíè –wàj
sit STAT

He is sitting. (in the position)

(325) ná tí –rí
INC sit RV

He is sitting down. (moving to that position)

When the verb /ti/ is used to mean ‘live’, there is variation as to whether the stative suffix follows the verb or not, as shown in the sentences in (326) with further examples found in Appendix V, line 1, 5, 6, 15, Chief VII, line 10, 11 and Appendix VIII, Line 9.

(326) Stative Marker with Verb ‘sit’

- a. nníí kòò n tíè búúⁿ.
3.PL CPL T sit Bounou

They sat (lived) [in] Bounou. (Chief ma: 15.1)

- b. kòò n tíé wàj búúⁿ.
CPL ~2 sit STAT Bounou

They lived (sat) [in] Bounou. (Chief ma: 18.1)

- c. nníí kòò n té -rò
3.PL CPL ~2 sit -r-

They sat. (Maraka: 26.1)

(327) Lack of Stative Marker with Verb ‘sit’

- a. n dè màá jìbè =né
~2 PL POSS person PL
- nii n dá nnò -ò
3.PL ~2 INC come RV
- tí -rí húⁿ báráà bíé η wì.
sit -r- PP Bara NEG ~2 PP

At the time when our people were coming to reside there, Baraa was not there. (Chief 1.2)

- b. gíllá à n wórè, kòò té -ré à dwàà hùn
since 2.S ~2 go CPL sit -r- DEF tree PP

He was sitting under the tree when I left.

I am unsure as to why the verb stem varies, as this does not occur with other verbs, or as to whether the variation in the stem impacts the presence or absence of the stative suffix.

10.5 Mood

The irrealis, imperative, subjunctive, and prohibitional moods are found in Bangime and are each marked by particles shown in this section.

10.5.1 Irrealis

The irrealis is marked by the particle [hà] and is used with a verb stem in clauses such as ‘I wish to do X’ or ‘in order to’ as in (328) - (329). Conditional phrases may also use the irrealis marker in the second clause (330). The hortative (331) may also be marked with the particle [hà].

- (328) m máà **hà** n déè .
 1.S want IRR ~2 cultivate

I want to cultivate.

- (329)

há tǐndé nî ŋ kʷééⁿ tóré m bòóⁿ **há** tǐndé sǔèè ŋ kò
 IRR put hand GEN finger one G powder IRR put descend GEN PP

I will put one fingernail over the gun powder (in order to silence the rifle). (A friend: 15.1)

- (330) sè n déè , **hà** n túqí wè á démè
 COND T cultivate IRR T pierce STAT DEF millet

When I have cultivated, I will plant the millet.

hà déé déè.
 IRR millet seed cultivate

You should cultivate.

Another use of the irrealis marker [hà] is to introduce directions or recipes.

- (331) **há** nén -d -ì páyá sà páyá béè pàⁿ
 IRR place -r- PRF pot COND pot boil all

Place the pot on the rocks in order to a boil. (directions: 43.1)

A similar marker, [há], introduces ‘until’ clauses, as in (333).

- (333) há n déè .
 until T cultivate
 Until I cultivate...

The irrealis and the word ‘until’ are not thought to be related.

10.6 Copula

A particle which has arisen in texts but is difficult to elicit seems to act as a copula in some verb clauses, such as those listed in (334). The copula /maa/ can be used in a manner similar to ‘be’ in English. In the cases elicited, the copula serves as the perfective aspect. However, it has occurred in texts in other tenses as well. The copula [maa] is used with humans.

(334) [maa] as Copula

- a. mí màà à dijà màá= dégé n ɛéèⁿ
 1.S COP DEF village 3.S.POSS head GEN owner

I am the village’s chief.

- b. mí màà à dijà màà káràndà –ɛéèⁿ
 1.S COP DEF village 3.S.POSS teach AGENT

I am the village’s teacher.

- c. n dè máá à lèkòl n jáá=ndè
 1.PL COP DEF school GEN children

We are the school’s children.

The copula [maa] may also be used in tenses other than the present, as shown in examples from various texts in (335).

(335) [maa] as Copula in other Tenses

- a. siríí màà dègè –ɛíéⁿ
 Sirii COP head AGENT

Sirii was chief. (Magic Cat 12.1)

- b. η kásáⁿ tómè **máà** mì n dí -jà
 ~2 at that time cowry COP PASS T eat INC

At that time, cowry shells were eaten (spent/used for money).
 (Tiga story: 79.1)

- c. nè(~ na) **máá** kévè?
 QU COP DEM

What is that over there? (Topicalization Pr 32.1)

- d. jíímè n támàà n sígòò màá jàà
 person GEN 300 COP die

Three hundred people will die. (Chief: 3.1)

The first sentence uses the existential particle in a noun phrase and the others before a verb. The verb phrases in (335c - d) were translated in the incompletive aspect and future tenses even though it is not clear from the word order or inflectional marking that there is a difference.

10.7 Question Particles

The structure of a question is Q–S–V. The question particles are phrase-initial, listed in the following question phrases using the same verb ‘cultivate’ in (336) - (341).

- (336) **kótè** à n déè ?
 where 2.S T cultivate

Where are you cultivating?

- (337) **nè** ná á n déè ?
 when COP 2.S T cultivate

When are you cultivating?

- (338) **né** sà **ní** à n déè ?
 what conditional how 2.S T cultivate

What are you cultivating with?

(339) **né** à n déè ?
 what 2.S T cultivate

What are you cultivating?

(340) **nnú** mí à déè ?
 how PASS 2.S cultivate

How are you cultivating?

(341) **bòò ní** à n déè ?
 field how 2.S T cultivate

How many fields are you cultivating?

(342) **jà** wó à n déè ?
 who go 2.S T cultivate

Who are you going to cultivate with?

In each of these questions, the question marker is clause-initial, the verb is last, with the exception of [nii] ‘how’ in (341) (notice the alternation between the two forms for ‘how’ if one compares the phrase in (340)).

The following examples in (343) - (336) illustrate a VC2 verb, /ji/ ‘do’, in questions.

Note that the VC2 stem includes the [-r] suffix in each of these examples.

(343) **nnû** jí-r-ó η kàw
 how do DEM

Why are you doing that?

(344) **nè fîîⁿ** à jí-r-ó (múwì) ?
 what 2.S do today

What do you do today?

(345) *nè* (~ *nà*) *á jí-r-ó* (*múwì*) ?
 what INC 2.S do today

What are you doing today?

(346) *kò téé à né wò* (*múwì*) ?
 where 2.S what go today

Where are you to do what today?

(347) *kò téé à wó-r-è múwì* ?
 where 2.S go today

Where do you go today?

The difference between the final two examples, why the first uses the verb without [-r] and the second uses [-r] in the verb is not known.

10.8 Summary of Verb Particles and TAM

Recall from the previous chapter that the inflectional patterns differ depending on the class of verb and that the class of verb may be a composition of the derivational properties of the stem.

Now that the verb particles have been presented, the next chapter gives an overview of the how the categories of tense, aspect, and mood fit into the word order patterns.

Chapter 11. Word Order

11.1 Overview of Word Order

The previous chapters showed that the verb stem is inflected for aspect by vowels following derivational suffixation. The tense or aspect of a clause is indicated by word order and verb particles. The word order of a clause in Bangime, the placement of the subject, object, and verb, changes depending on the tense, aspect, or mood of the phrase. The attested word orders in the language are SVO, SOV, and OSV for untopicalized sentences. The incomplete aspects are usually SVO, the complete aspects SOV, and the future can be expressed with OSV word order. These word orders are the defaults, or most commonly expressed, for each TAM category. The table in (348) presents the default word orders with the particle associated with each TAM category. The verb particles are discussed in detail in the previous chapter

(348) Default Word Orders and Particles

a.	<u>SVO</u>			
TAM:	PFV	CPL	PRF	IRR
AUX:	none	kɔo=	=kɛ̀ɛ̀/=wɛ	ha=
b.	<u>SOV</u>			
TAM:	INC	SBJ	IMP	
AUX:	da(w)=	ha=	none	
c.	<u>OSV</u>			
TAM:	FUT			
AUX:	na(w)=			

Each verb particle except for the completive precedes the verb stem. The particles which precede the stem are also more closely tied to the stem in that other words may not intervene. The object follows the verb directly in a perfective construction and the perfective particle appears clause-finally. The incompletive categories (348a) are usually in SOV order, and the completed categories are SVO (348b) and the future tense may be either SOV or OSV (319c). Some verbs may deviate from the default word order to indicate [topicalization](#).

This chapter is organized by word order category: the tense, aspects, and moods which are expressed through the SVO word order are shown in §11.2. In §11.3, the SOV tense, aspect, and moods are discussed. Section 11.4 presents the future tense, which is indicated by OSV word order. The passive mood is indicated by the OSV word order and is mentioned in §11.5. Then, in §11.6 a brief discussion of the effect of topicalization on word order is presented.

11.2 Subject-Verb-Object

Forms denoting the completive aspects have subject-verb-object as the default word order. The irrealis mood also has S-V-O word order.

11.2.1 Perfective

Perfective aspect is marked by a verb suffix vowel and occurs with SVO word order, with the [TAM marking](#) and the [person tonal marking](#) on the verb.⁵⁰ The sentences in (349) - (351) are representative of the perfective aspect.

(349) jáà pùwè n dég-è jáá bóróm+bè .
 young woman T hit-RV young man

A young woman has hit a young man.

⁵⁰ The following sentences have been extracted from the EUROTYP WORD ORDER QUESTIONNAIRE by Anna Siewierska.

- (350) jáá bóróm+bè n **dég-è** jáá pùwè .
 young man T hit–RV young woman

A young man has hit a young woman.

- (351) à jáá bóróm+mbè n **dèg-è** à jáá púwè
 DEF young man T hit–RV DEF young woman

The young man has hit the young woman.

The sentences illustrate that the choice of subject, whether indefinite or definite, does not affect the word order. The verb is marked inflectionally with the suffixation of [-u], which is the completive suffix for VC1. No auxiliaries mark the perfective aspect.

11.2.2 Completive aspect

The completive aspect also has SVO word order, with the completive particle [kɔo] or its allomorph [kama] preceding the verb.

- (352) jáà bórómbè **kóò** n **dég-è** à jáà pùwè .
 young man CPL T hit RV DEF young woman

A young man hit the young woman.

The sentence Tiga 4.10 shows an example of the verb /ni/ ‘give’ in the perfect aspect with two arguments. The direct object follows the verb, and the indirect object is clause-final, followed by the postposition /waj/ ‘to’.

11.2.3 Perfect Aspect

In the perfect aspect, which is expressed by the back vowel suffix on the verb plus the particle [kéè], the word order is also SVO.

- (353) jáá bórómbè n **dég-ù** à jáá púwè η **kéè** .
 young man T hit–PRF DEF young woman ~2 PRF

A young man had hit the young woman.

The completive, perfective, and perfect all have the same word order, but the perfect has different inflectional marking for a VC1 verb. All verbs act the same for word order, but not for inflectional suffixation patterns.

11.2.4 Irrealis Mood

When the verb is in its irrealis or chaining form, as with the verb ‘want’ in (354) or ‘go’ in (355), the word order is S–V–V–O.

- (354) jáà bórómbè màà há n dég-è à jáá púwè
 young man want IRR T hit–RV DEF young woman

A young man wants to hit the young woman.

The object remains final in an infinitive and the verb is inflected with the root vowel suffix. Another phrasal construction is used when the main verb is chained with another verb and the inflectional marking of the verb stem differs from the irrealis.

- (355) jáá bórómbè wórè á dég-ù à jáá púwè
 young man go CHN hit–PRF DEF young woman

A young man went [to] hit the young woman.

When the verb ‘go’ is glossed as ‘went’, it precedes a verb and the word order is SVO.

11.3 SOV

The incomplete aspects, all of which also employ the particle /daw/, follow the word order SOV, except the future, which may have an OSV word order.

11.3.1 Incomplete Aspect

In the incomplete aspect the word order is S-AUX-O-V.

- (356) jáà pùwè náà n jáà bóróm+bè n dég-è
 young woman INC T young man T hit–RV

A young woman is hitting a young man.

A sentence in the incompleted aspect utilizes the incompleted particle, the verb is phrase-final, and the verb is inflected with the [-ε] suffix.

Compare the phrase in (357) with that in (355). Both use the verb [wore] ‘go’ to indicate motion. The difference lies in the tense of the phrases and therefore the word order. The sentence above in (325) is in the completive aspect with SVO order, while the one shown in (357) is SOV; the ‘dummy’ verb [wore] is considered to be part of the auxiliary, so that the structure is S-AUX-V-O-V.

(357) jáá bóróm̀bè dáà wòrè à jáá púwè n dég-è
 young man INC go the young woman T hit-RV

A young man is going [to] hit the young woman.

The completive and incompleted aspects are complementary in word order, SVO and SOV, respectively.

11.3.2 Subjunctive Mood

The subjunctive (358) and imperative (negative) (359) mood word order is also SOV.

(358) ha n jáá p^wiè n dég-è
 IRR ~2 young girl T hit-RV

You should hit the girl.

(359) á nnìé-rè kámá niŋ-à màà n dèg-é jáá-wè
 DEF woman CPL say NEG.IMP T hit-RV die-STAT

The woman said do not hit it until [it] dies. (Tiga 5.58)

The imperative mood does not usually appear with any auxiliaries or marking other than the suffixation of a vowel on the verb stem, but the prohibitive is preceded by the particle [maa]. Another example of the prohibitive is Tiga 1.201. An example of the use of the first person plural imperative is Tiga 1.149.

11.4 OSV

The future tense can be formed in two ways: O-S-V-AUX or O-AUX-S-V. The incomplete particle /daw/ may follow the verb, shown in (360). The object precedes both the subject and the verb. The other common way of expressing the future when the subject is not a pronoun is to use a construction which is similar to the passive, shown in (361). The object is phrase-initial with the verb at the end of the phrase.⁵¹

(360) à nnìé-rè niŋá àdámà n dég-è nnáw̄
 DEF woman say Adama T hit-RV INC

The woman said adama will hit (her).

(361) à nnnìé-rè dáà/ná àdámà dég-è
 DEF woman INC Adama hit-RV

Adama will hit the woman. (lit. ‘the woman will be hit by Adama’)

There is no alternative construction to indicate that a sentence with an object will occur in the future. The sentence in (361) is not considered to be in the passive mood since the passive construction differs as shown in the following section.

11.5 Passive

The passive morpheme (362) - (363) is homophonous with the first and third person pronoun [mì]. The subject is the first constituent in the sentence. The particle which indicates the passive follows the verb.

(362) à jàà+mbé mè dég-è mì
DEF child COMP hit-RV PASS

The child who was hit.

⁵¹ The study of topicalization using questionnaires from the MPI für Evolutionäre Anthropologie, Leipzig is currently underway. Some of the findings are illustrated in this chapter.

(363) n dèéⁿ mì há bijù
 ~2 cook PASS until ready

It is cooked until it is ready.

Many more examples of the use of the passive construction are found in a text describing how beer is made, found in Text XXIII: Tiga 5. The default [Verb Types](#) of the verb is used in passive constructions; that which has no inflectional suffixation. Another examples of the passive from a narrative is Magic Cat.30.

11.6 Topicalization

Shown in examples⁵² in the following sections, topic also shifts the word order. The sentence in (364) is in the incompletive aspect and does not have a direct object. An example of the verb ‘write’ without an object is shown in (364) to illustrate that the verb is transitive and is marked by the [transitive nasal](#) preceding the verb. The verb [pəgəndo] ‘write’ is an uninflected verb.

(364) n ná n pəgəndó .
 1.S INC T write

I am writing.

The particle /daw/ and the mid-vowel suffix on the VC4 stem indicate that the phrase is in the incompletive aspect. The phrases in (365) and (365) further illustrate the default word-order and [inflectional marking](#) for the declarative incompletive aspect with an object present is S-AUX-O-V.

(365) n dá dób n pəgəndó
 3.S INC book T write

He is writing a book.

⁵² These sentence types are extracted from Dahl, O. (1985). *Tense and Aspect Systems*. Oxford, UK: Basil Blackwell Ltd. PP. 198 - 205. The full questionnaire may be found in the appendix.

(366) n náá dód=ndè n jògòndó
3.S INC book=PL T write

He is writing books.

The number of the subject does not change the word order, and the allomorphy on the incomplete particle is discussed in Chapter 9. Both sentences are in the default word order found for the incomplete aspects, S-AUX-O-V. In some cases, such as in texts, with examples found in Appendix I, Text II: Chief 3.4 - 5, it appears that the cause of the word order change is one of [topic](#). Topicalization can also be differentiated by asking a question.

11.6.1 Topicalization on Verb

The first question, in (367), was meant to focus on the task the subject is performing, reading or writing. Four distinct answers are possible, given in the order listed below. The structure of questions is presented in 10.1.

(367) dód à n jògòndó ná káráá ñ káráà ?
book 2.S T write CONN read.REDUP

Are you writing or reading a book?

The default answer, although not the default word order for an incomplete sentence, is with the object first, although the question posed referred to the action and not the undergoer of that action.

(368) dód n náà n jògòndó
book ~2 INC T write

I am writing a book.

The sentence is not translated as ‘it is a book that I am writing’ since the complementizer does not appear in this sentence.

The sentence in (369) is like that in (368), with a different noun. Both of these answers refer to one who is writing a letter or a book.

(369) sàgòmé n ná n jògòndó
letter ~2 INC T write

I am writing a letter.

Notice again that the object appears first, not the action, which would be expected if the response was one of topicalization to the question.

The sentence which appears in (370) is in the default word order for an incomplete sentence; as in (365) - (366) above, the object precedes the verb.

(370) n náà sàgòmé n jògòndó
1.S INC letter T write

I am writing a letter.

The default word order is when the particle follows the subject marker which in turn precedes both the object and the verb in an incomplete clause.

Unexpectedly, the incomplete aspect, marked by the /daw/ particle and the final non-high suffix in (371), is expressed using the SVO word order, which is normally used with the perfective aspect.

(371) n náà n jògòndó sàgòmé
1.S INC T write letter

I am writing a letter.

The phrases thus far appear with the verb phrase-finally; however, the verb and object may also be reversed without an apparent change in meaning, as shown in the following subsection.

11.6.2 Topicalization on Object

When a question is intended to differentiate objects instead of actions, as in (372), the response in (372) is again the preferred answer, although not the default word order for an incomplete sentence, that of the subject phrase-initially, followed by the aspect marker, which is in turn followed by the verb.

- (372) **dóò** á n jògòndó ná **sàgòmé** ?
 book 2.S T write INC letter
 Are you writing a book or a letter?

- (373) **sàgòmé** n ná n **jògòndó** .
 letter 1 INC transitive write
 I am writing a letter.

11.6.3 Topicalization Changes in other Tenses

Examples of the verb ‘step on’ (374), a verb not marked inflectionally for tense or aspect, illustrate the word-order variation for additional tenses. The default word order for an incomplete clause with an object is SOV, as shown in (374) as SOV.

- (374) n dáà m **póyò**
 1.S INC T step on

I am stepping on.

- (375) n dáá **kéndè kèè** m **póyò**
 1.S INC slither thing T step on

I am stepping on a snake.

The object ‘a slithering thing’, meaning ‘snake’ precedes the verb as expected in an incomplete clause.

The present tense is also shown to display variable word order in (376). The word order of the sentence above may not be changed if the aspect is incomplete [*n dáá póyò kéndè kèè].

(376) kéndè kéè m pógyò
slither thing T step on

I have stepped on a snake.

The subject of the sentence is tonally marked on the verb and noun. Aside from the lack of auxiliaries, the sentence in (376) is not marked for tense or aspect in the expected manner. The perfective aspect is normally formed with SVO word order. The perfective aspect is distinguished from the completive by the addition of the completive particle following the object noun but not by word order. However, as illustrated by (377), the default word order of the perfective aspect is used, that of SVO.

(377) m pógyò kéndè kéè (η kéè)
T step on slither thing ~2 PRF

I had stepped on a snake (and it is finished, but my foot has still not left its head).

As expected for a perfect sentence, the object follows the verb and the completive particle follows the object.

Two clauses may be chained together before the perfective morpheme, as shown in (378).

(378) m pógyò kéréndè kéè , m búnd-í m̀àà= bʷéè η kéè
1.S step on slither thing 1.S make move out-PRF POSS.3.S foot ~2 PRF

I have stepped on a snake, I had taken off my foot.

The second clause in (378) is specifically marked by the particle and the high vowel suffix on the VC4 stem as being perfect. The first clause is perfective. The perfect clitic could also be seen as marking the entire phrase because the word orders are both SVO. An example of three verbs being chained together without the use of the chaining particle is Chief 1.2.

The completive aspect default word order is SVO as in the phrases in (379) and (380); however the object may precede the verb, as shown in (379).

- (379) kóó m pógyò kéndè kèè
CPL T stepped on slither thing

I stepped on a snake.

- (380) kóó n támb-à màá= bʷéè
CPL T bite-r--RV 1.S.POSS foot

It bit my foot.

- (381) kóò màá= bʷéè n támb-à .
CPL 1.S.POSS foot T bite-r--RV

It bit my foot.

That is, both of the sentences describing the consequences of the phrase ‘I stepped on a snake’ are possible, but the first response, that of SVO, is the default. The tone on the completive particle indicates the subject.

11.6.4 Verbs with no Word Order Variation

Not all verbs can alternate the word order.

- (382) kóó n támb-à màá= bʷéè.
CPL T bite-r--RV 1.S.POSS foot

It bit my foot.

- (383) ŋ kóò támb-à màá= bʷéè.
3.S CPL bite-r--RV 3.S.POSS foot

It bit his foot.

- (384) (kóò) màá= bʷéè n támb-à.
CPL 3.S.POSS foot T bite-r--RV

It bit his foot.

The verb ‘take’ in (385) may only appear with SVO word order in the completive aspect.

(385) kámá n jà-ǎ-á àà símè .
 CPL T take-r-RV DEF rock

He took the rock.

Some unexpected word order changes are found in texts. For example, Chief 2, Line 5 illustrates an example of VOS word order.

11.7 Summary of Word Order and TAM

The default or underlying word orders for each tense and aspect category which was shown to undergo changes is shown in (386).

(386) Word Order Variation

OSV	INC			
SVO	INC	/CPL/	/PFV/	/PRF/
SOV	/INC/	CPL	PFV	PRF

The completive aspects are by default verb final and the incomplete aspects are by default object final. It appears that the concept of the action as relating to time of utterance is secondary to the undergoer of the action since the object is closer to the subject when the action is performed in the present and further away from the subject and the beginning of the sentence if the action has already occurred.

Chapter 12. Cognate Accusatives and Reduplication

12.1 Cognate Nominals as Obligatory Objects

Some verbs appear to be a reduplicated form of the stem. However, most seemingly reduplicated verbs in Bangime are actually a combination of a verb stem and a phonologically related nominal. This is particularly evident in the generic present tense. In a declarative statement in the generic present tense with a non-second person subject, the only difference between the verb stem and an indefinite noun stem is the tone. In the generic present tense, the [word order](#) is SVO.

12.2 Perfective

The verb /dé/ ‘cultivate’ emerges as [dèè] in the perfective aspect. The noun ‘millet seed’ is also [dèè] ~ [dée+mè]. I hypothesize that these words are derived from the same root since millet is the primary cultivated crop. Therefore, the sentence ‘I cultivate’ is the same as ‘I cultivate millet seed’; speakers do not perceive a difference between the two statements as shown in (387).

(387) ‘cultivate’

a. n déé -H dèè -L
 T cultivate 1 millet 1

I have cultivated/I have cultivated millet.

b. mí -H n déé -H bìròndò -L
 ~2 1 T cultivate 1 corn 1

I have cultivated corn.

Compare the phrases in (375a) and (375b). Segmentally, the verb and noun in (375a) are the same. Tonally, the verb is marked with a high tone for the first person and the object noun with a low tone in the manner described in detail in Chapter 13. The phrase in (375b) shows that

the object noun is in the same place as the proposed object in (375a). This illustrates that the verb and noun are separate words, not a reduplicated stem.

Other verb and cognate noun combinations differ by vowel quality, as shown by (388).

(388) ‘sing’

n ηwíé -H ηwìè -L
T sing 1 song 1

I have sung a song/I sung.

In the perfective aspect, the verb appears almost identical to the noun, making the distinction difficult to determine.

12.3 Completive aspect

The difference between the noun and the verb stem is most clearly seen when the verb stem is inflected for tense, such as in the [completive aspect](#), and is contrasted with a [verb stem](#) which is clearly marked for the completive aspect.

(389) ‘cultivated’

n kóó n déé -r -è -H (à) dèè+mè -L
~2 CPL T cultivate -r- RV 1 DEF millet 1

I cultivated/I cultivated (the) millet.

In addition to the verb being affixed with the [-r] suffix, the definite marker may intervene to mark the noun, clearly illustrating that the verb and object noun are separate stems and not part of a reduplicated verb stem.

Further examples of verbs which are marked with the [-r] suffix illustrate the differences between the verb and the cognate noun in the sentences (390) - (392).

(390) kóó n ɲwíé -r -è -H ɲwiè -L
 CPL T sing -r- RV 1 song 1

I sang/I sang a song.

(391) kóó n témbè -r -è -H témbiè -L
 CPL T hammer -r- RV 1 brick 1

I hammered/I hammered a brick.

(392) kóò ɲ kéé -ĩ -è -H kèèⁿ -L
 CPL T steal -r- RV 1 theft 1

I stole/I stole a (i.e. committed) theft.

In each sentence, the verb is inflected with the [-r] suffix and the noun has the object tonal marking. A stem from VC3 is shown in (393), illustrating the difference between an inflected verb and a noun. The noun is the same form as the verb root for VC3.

(393) ‘dance’

kóó zúm-b-á -H zòòⁿ -L
 CPL dance-r-RV 1 dance 2

I danced/I danced a dance.

It is unclear why some noun-verb pairs are more closely related in stem form than others.

12.4 Perfect Aspect

Whereas the difference between a verb and a noun is overt in many cases in the perfective aspect, the segmental difference in a verb and a noun is sometimes neutralized in other forms, such as the perfect aspect, when a verb has no suffix. The tone, however, continues to follow the expected patterns of an object versus a verb marked for subject.

(394) góòⁿ zòòⁿ -L zóúⁿ -H ɲ kéè
 man dance 3 dance 3 ~2 PRF

A man danced/a man danced a dance.

12.5 Definite Noun

Another property of the verb and cognate noun construction is seen when the noun is marked as being definite. Whereas an indefinite noun is not marked, a definite noun is preceded by the definite marker [a] after a second person subject and [n] after non-second person subjects (395).

Pronoun placement is discussed in greater detail in Chapter 1.

(395) n gúj -ú -H gùjì -L
T throw PRF 1 throw 1

I have thrown/I have thrown a throw.

(396) áw gúw -ú à gùjì -L
2.pl throw PRF DEF throw 1

You.pl have thrown/you.pl have thrown the throw.

(397) kòd n gúj -ú -H η gùjì -L
CPL T throw PRF 1 ~2 throw 1

I threw/I threw a throw.

Nouns in constructions like this, where the object nouns are derived from the same root as the verb, are often referred to as cognate accusatives; for example, in English ‘I dreamt a dream’ is no different from ‘I dreamt’.

12.6 Truly Reduplicated Verbs

Some verbs are truly reduplicated forms of the root in the perfective aspect. However, this is not clear unless one examines either a verb phrase with an object, or the completive aspect.

(398) mí m pířà pířà
1.S T fear fear

I am afraid

(399) piřà -L piřá à tàṅà m b̀̀gò ŋ wáj
 fear 3 fear DEF ear GEN big ~2 to

He is afraid of the elephant.

(400) ḱó m piřà
 CPL T fear

I feared.

The first example (398) appears to be no different from the verb/cognate noun constructions. The second sentence (399) illustrates the presence of the reduplicant even with an object. The third sentence (398) shows that the verb is not necessarily reduplicated, nor does the verb obligatorily take an object noun.

12.7 Nouns which are Segmentally Indistinguishable from Verbs

Still other verbs are indistinguishable by segmental alterations alone from their noun counterparts in any tense. It is by tone alone that one can differentiate them.

(401) ḱó sáṅá -H sàṅà -L
 CPL play 1 play 1

I play/I play a game

(402) jàà =ndé ǹ̀i n dá sáṅà n sàṅà -L
 child PL 3.PL ~2 INC play ~2 play 3

Children are playing/children are playing a game.

12.8 Inflectional Paradigms for Reduplicated Verbs

The inflectional paradigms of a truly reduplicated verb, as shown in (403), illustrate that in addition to the suffixation of [-r] and the TAM particles, the fact that the verb itself is reduplicated also depends on the TAM of the phrase.

(403) ‘search, wander, stroll’

<u>Irrealis</u>	<u>Imperative</u>	
màá hà n kúmbò I want to stroll	kúmbò Stroll!	
<u>Future</u>	<u>Completive</u>	
kúmbó n náw I will stroll	kóò η kúmbò-rò I strolled	
<u>Incompletive</u>	<u>Perfective</u>	<u>Perfect</u>
n dá kúmbò η kùmbò I am strolling	kúmbó-rò kúmbó-rò I have strolled	η kúmbò η kéeè I had strolled
<u>Incompletive negative</u>	<u>CPL Negative</u>	
m bié kúmbò η kùmbò/bié η kúmbò I do not stroll	m bié kùmbò η kúmbò/bié kúmbò I did not stroll	

The imperative and irrealis moods do not reduplicate the stem. Neither the future nor the perfect involves reduplication of the stem. The verb has the same segmental content as VC5 stems. The forms which take the [-r] suffix are the perfective and completive forms. As we see that the completive and perfective have suffixation but the incompletive does not. Another example [dáà kúmbò] is translated as ‘has been searching’ (Tiga 1.72).

12.9 Phrasal Verbs

Many verbs in Bangime are phrasal in nature. As with the verbs that were shown to resemble [reduplication](#) but actually took obligatory nouns as objects, some verb collocations are composed of a verb plus an object noun. The examples in (404) use the noun ‘sleep’ with the verb ‘take’ to express the notion of sleeping or freezing.

(404) ‘sleep’ [dòò ná jàw]

a. jàw –L dòò kèè
take.PRF 3.S sleep PRF

He is asleep.

b. màriám dá dòò n jàw
Mariam INC sleep T take

Mariam is sleeping.

c. gillà à n wóré dóó à jàw
since CHN ~2 go sleep CHN take

When I left, he was sleeping.

d. à η^wiè jé n dòò η kèè
DEF oil take ~2 sleep ~2 PRF

The oil (i.e. butter) is solid.

Elicitation of the verb ‘to sleep’ results in [dòò ná jàw] ‘sleep is taken’. Note the changes in word order between (404a, d) and (404b, c). The SVO word order corresponds with the perfective aspect while the SOV order is found in the incomplete aspect clauses. The verb is marked in each case as the perfective form segmentally since this is a VC3 stem which takes the [-r] suffix in all incomplete aspects. The example (404d) illustrates the metaphorical use of the verb to include a change to a solid state.

12.10 Summary of Cognate Accusatives and Reduplication

It has been shown in this chapter that verbs which take an obligatory object, a cognate accusative, are often easily confused with those which are reduplicated verb stems. The difference can be seen in the tenses in which the [r] suffix is inflected on the verb stem, or if a direct object is specified in the verb phrase.

Chapter 13. Tonal Agreement Patterns for Person

13.1 Overview of Tonal Agreement Patterns

As was shown in Chapter 5, the first and third person singular possessive pronouns are differentiated by tone alone. The same is true of the subject pronouns. The first and third persons are differentiated by tone alone or, as is often the case, are not marked segmentally. The segmental representations of the personal pronouns are listed in (405).

(405) Personal Pronouns

SG	PL
mí	ndɛ
a	aa(-ru)
mì	nnii

The first and third person singular pronouns optionally appear segmentally as [mi] or as a nasal which assimilates to the place of the initial consonant of the verb. I propose that the first person plural pronoun consists of the first person singular nasal plus the [plural marker](#). As with the plural marker, the first person plural morpheme surfaces as either [ndɛ] or [nɛ]. The subject of a phrase is indexed tonally on both the verb and the object noun, if present. The subject is marked by a high tone in the first person singular on the pronoun if present, and also a high tone on the verb stem. The third person singular is marked by a low tone on the pronoun if present and a low tone on the verb root's vowel. The tone of a verb stem is not altered by either the [TAM category](#) or the [inflectional category](#) of the verb.

Shown in this chapter, the tonal patterns for person and number vary and are marked on the verb stem, the auxiliary, the object noun, or in some cases, all of the above. Although the determining factor causing the variation is not yet known, it appears to be dependent on the phonotactics and underlying tones of the verb stem. First, a verb is shown in the perfective aspect with a noun whose tones do not alternate to concentrate on the patterns of the verb stem.

13.2 Perfective

In the [perfective](#) aspect, the clausal structure is relatively simple. A clause consists of a subject or a pronoun, verb, and an object noun, in that order. The perfective aspect is not marked with any auxiliaries or verb particles. The tones on the verb differ depending on the number and person of the subject. Tonally, the first person is a high tone and the third person is a low tone on the verb. However, similar to the possessive pronoun paradigms, the surface realization of the tone on the stem depends on a variety of factors. An indefinite noun appears in each sentence in (406) with a high-low tonal melody, which differs from the noun's singular low-high melody [njàmbá].

(406)	/pom/	VC3	/njàmbá/	'sheep'	NC6	indefinite noun	
∅ 1.S	pómb lift	-ì PRF	njàmbà sheep	ndé 1.PL	pómb lift	-ì PRF	njàmbà sheep
	I have lifted a sheep.			We have lifted a sheep.			
àw 2.S	pómb lift	-í PRF	njàmbà sheep	àà-rú 2-PL	pòmb lift	-ì PRF	njàmbà sheep
	You have lifted a sheep.			You.PL have lifted a sheep.			
∅ 3.S	pòmb lift	-ì PRF	njàmbà sheep	nnì 3.PL	pòmb lift	-ì PRF	njàmbà sheep
	He has lifted a sheep.			They have lifted a sheep.			

The table in (407) represents the tones shown thus far for the verb /pomb/ ‘lift’.

(407) Summary of Tonal Person Marking on Verb /pomb/ ‘lift’

<u>SG</u>	<u>PL</u>
HL	HL
HH	LL
LL	LL

The first persons singular and plural have a high-low tonal melody on the verb. The third persons singular and plural surface with a low tone on the verb. In Chapter 5, we saw that the possessive proclitics display similar tonal patterns. The second person singular is has high tones and second person plural has low tones in the on both syllables of the verb stem.

The same sentence with a definite object illustrates the same tonal patterns on the noun, but slight differences on the verb stem.

(408)	/pom/	/à nǎmbà/	‘the sheep’	definite noun					
0	pómb	-í	á	nǎmbà	ndé	pómb	-ì	á	nǎmbà
1.S	lift	PRF	DEF	sheep	1.PL	lift	PRF	DEF	sheep
	I have lifted the sheep.				We have lifted the sheep.				
àw	pómb	-í	á	nǎmbà	àà-rú	pómb	-í	á	nǎmbà
2.S	lift	PRF	DEF	sheep	2-PL	lift	PRF	DEF	sheep
	You have lifted the sheep.				You.PL have lifted the sheep.				
0	pòm	-ì	á	nǎmbà	nnì	pòm	-ì	á	nǎmbà
3.S	lift	PRF	DEF	sheep	3.PL	lift	PRF	DEF	sheep
	He has lifted the sheep.				They have lifted the sheep.				

The summary in (409) shows that in two persons, first person singular and second person plural, high tones have been added.

(409) Summary of Tonal Person Marking on the Verb ‘lift’ with Definite Noun

<u>Singular</u>	<u>Plural</u>
HH	HL
HH	HH
LL	LL

Again, although no direct changes are seen on the object noun, the verb stems undergo slight tonal changes with a plural noun as an object in the sentences shown in (420).

(410)	/pom/	[ɲám-bá=ndè]	‘sheep’	plural noun					
0	p ^ó mb	-í	ɲám-bá	=nè	ndé	p ^ò mb	-ì	ɲám-bá	=nè
1.S	lift	PRF	sheep	PL	1.PL	lift	PRF	sheep	PL
	I have lifted sheep.				We have lifted sheep.				
àw	p ^ó mb	-í	ɲám-bá	=nè	àà-rú	p ^ó mb	-ì	ɲám-bá	=nè
2.S	lift	PRF	sheep	PL	2-PL	lift	PRF	sheep	PL
	You have lifted sheep.				You.PL have lifted sheep.				
0	p ^ó mb	-ì	ɲám-bá	=nè	nnì	p ^ò mb	-ì	ɲám-bá	=nè
3.S	lift	PRF	sheep	PL	3.PL	lift	PRF	sheep	PL
	He has lifted sheep.				They have lifted sheep.				

First person plural is marked with low tones on the verb, third person singular, high.

(411) Summary of Tonal Person Marking on Verb ‘lift’ with Plural Noun

<u>SG</u>	<u>PL</u>
HH	LL
HH	HL
HL	LL

Similarly, the definite plural stem remains unchanged throughout the paradigm, but the verb is affected.

(412) /pom/ [à nǎmbá=ndè] ‘the sheep’ definite plural noun

a. póm̄b -í -H á nǎmbá =nè .
lift PRF 1 DEF sheep =PL

I have lifted the sheep.PL.

b. àw póm̄b -í -H á nǎmbá =nè .
2.SG lift PRF 2 DEF sheep =PL

You have lifted the sheep.PL.

c. póm̄b -ì -L á nǎmbá =nè .
lift PRF 3 DEF sheep =PL

He has lifted the sheep.PL.

d. n -dè m póm̄b -ì -H á nǎmbá =nè .
2.SG PL ~2 lift PRF 1 DEF sheep =PL

We have lifted the sheep.PL.

e. àà -rú à póm̄b -ì -L á nǎmbá =nè .
2.PL DEM.PL 2.SG lift PRF 2 DEF sheep =PL

You.PL have lifted the sheep.PL.

f. nnii m pòm̄b -ì -L á nǎmbá =nè .
3.PL ~2 lift PRF 3 DEF sheep =PL

They have lifted the sheep.PL.

In every person save for the third person plural, the verb stem has at least one high tone.

(413) Summary of Tonal Person Marking on Verb ‘lift’ and Definite Plural Noun

<u>SG</u>	<u>PL</u>
HH	HL
HH	HL
HL	LL

The tonal alternations for the verb /pom/ ‘lift’ are shown in (414).

(414) Summary of Perfective VC3 Stem /pom/ ‘lift’

<u>V + N</u>		<u>V + DEF N</u>		<u>V + N PL</u>		<u>V + DEF N PL</u>	
<u>SG</u>	<u>PL</u>	<u>SG</u>	<u>PL</u>	<u>SG</u>	<u>PL</u>	<u>SG</u>	<u>PL</u>
HH	HL	HH	LL	HH	HL	HL	HL
HH	HL	HH	HL	HH	HH	HH	LL
HL	LL	HL	LL	LL	LL	LL	LL

As illustrated in the table, the verb stem has a high tone on both syllables in the first person in all instances with an object, except if the object is definite and plural, where a low tone is added to the final syllable. The second person singular is marked on the verb with a high tone on both syllables for all instances including an object noun. The third person singular shows variation between high-low with singular objects, and low-low with plural objects. The first person plural is marked with a high-low tonal melody on the verb with all objects save for the singular, definite noun. The second person plural is also high-low with a singular object, but high-high and low-low for the plural nouns, indefinite and definite respectively. The third person plural is the most stable pattern, low-low with all nouns.

13.3 Perfect Aspect

If a perfect phrase contains an object noun, the noun appears medially between the main verb and the auxiliary. The noun has a tone which is the opposite of the verb stem. A phrase with a first person subject has a high tone on the vowel of the verb root and a low tone on the object noun. A phrase with a third person subject has a low tone on the verb root and a high tone on the noun stem.

First, verbs without objects are presented to illustrate the effects of the tonal indexing of the first and third persons. Next, clauses with object nouns are introduced to show that they receive the opposite tone to the verb root.

The first and third persons are marked tonally on the vowel of the [verb root](#). First person is marked with a high tone, and third person with a low tone, irrespective of the [verb class](#).

13.3.1 Monosyllabic Verb Stems

In a monosyllabic stem verb (415) both morae surface with a high tone for the first person and with a low tone in the third person. It was shown in Chapter 8 that verb stems can be divided into types or classes based on the segmental and semantic alternations displayed with the suffixation of [-r]. The vowel which accompanies the [-r] suffix is determined by the root. Low vowels emerge as long after rhotics. Mid vowels form diphthongs. A verb may not surface without TAM and person marking so verb stems are listed in the simplest form possible; the imperative without an object.

(415) /qa/ 'buy' VC2 Buy

	First Person		Third Person	
n	qáá	kéè	qàà	ŋ kéè
~2	buy	PRF	buy	~2 PRF
	I had bought.		He had bought.	

[Recall](#) that a minimal word consists of at least two morae. An underlyingly monomoraic verb such as ‘buy’ above or ‘drink’ in (416) surfaces with an additional mora in the stem. Further, mid vowels undergo [laxing](#) before rhotics. The verb ‘drink’ is a monosyllabic verb which follows the same pattern of the first person being marked with a high tone and third person with a low tone in the completive aspect. Note that unlike ‘buy’ the third person of ‘drink’ has a low tone only on the first vowel, not both.

(416) /ne/ ‘drink’ VC2

First Person	Third Person
nníé η kɛ̀ɛ̀ drink ~2 PRF	nnìé η kɛ̀ɛ̀ drink ~2 PRF
I had drunk.	He had drunk.

The examples in (417) - (418) illustrate a pattern of high-low and on the first person and low-high on the third person. Since the examples are from two different verb classes, it appears that the variation among tonal patterns between those shown thus far and these below is not due to verb class but rather to the underlying tone of the verb root.

(417) /ɛɛ/ ‘carry on head’ VC2

First Person	Third Person
ɛ̀ìé η kɛ̀ɛ̀ carry ~2 PRF	nnìè η kɛ̀ɛ̀ drink ~2 PRF
I had carried.	He had carried.

(418) /kon/ ‘break’ VC3

First Person	Third Person
kóó ⁿ η kɛ̀ɛ̀ break ~2 PRF	kòó η kɛ̀ɛ̀ break ~2 PRF
I had broken.	He had broken.

Still other verbs such as the one in (419) emerge with the opposite pattern, low-high-low in the first person and high-low in the third person.

(419) /t^wa/ ‘reach’ VC2

<u>First Person</u>	<u>Third Person</u>
t ^w áá η kɛ̀ɛ̀	t ^w àà η kɛ̀ɛ̀
reach ~2 PRF	reach ~2 PRF

I reached.

He reached.

The table in (420) summarizes the tonal patterns shown thus far for monosyllabic verbs.

(420) Summary of Monosyllabic Verb Stems in the Perfect Aspect

	<u>Verb Root</u>	<u>Gloss</u>	<u>1.S</u>	<u>3.S</u>
a.	ɥá	buy	H	L
b.	ně	drink	H	HL
c.	ɛ́é	carry	LH	LL
d.	kón	break	HH	LH
e.	t ^w â	reach	LHL	HL

Recall from §5.3 that the most common tonal pattern on the possessive third person prefix is also a low or a falling tone. The first person possessive proclitic emerges with at least one high tone. As with the tonal patterns on the possessive first and third person prefixes and the nouns they precede, the tonal interaction between the first and third person and the verb remains unresolved at this time. The first person contributes a high tone and the third person to add a low tone to a monosyllabic verb stem.

13.3.2 Bisyllabic Stem

Recall that certain verb types are suffixed with [-r] or an allomorph [-d] in the completive aspect. The example (421) is one of these verb stems. This verb stem emerges with the person marking agreement tone on the verb root vowel, high in the first person and low in third person.

(421) /bun/ ‘move out of’ VC4

First Person					Third Person				
m	bún-	d-	í	kéè	m	bún-	d-	ì	kéè
~2	move out of	-r-	PRF	PRF	~2	move out of	-r-	PRF	PRF
I had come out.					He had come out.				

Other bisyllabic verb stems such as those shown in (422) and (424) surface with the person agreement marking on the vowel of the verb suffix; high for the first person, and low tone for the third person. It is interesting to note that in the second verb, a reflexive verb, the tonal patterns emerge as the opposite of the expected pattern; first person is low and third is high.

(422) /pom/ ‘lift, raise’ VC4

First Person					Third Person						
m	póm-	b-	í	η	kéè	m	póm	b-	ì	η	kéè
~2	lift	-r-	PRF	~2	PRF	~2	lift	-r-	PRF	~2	PRF
I had lifted.					He had lifted.						

(423) /dan/ ‘hide’ VC4

First Person					Third Person								
m	dán-	d-	ì	mí	η	kéè	m	dán-	d-	í	mí	η	kéè
~2	hide	-r-	PRF	~2	~2	PRF	~2	hide	-r-	PRF	~2	~2	PRF
I had hid myself.					He had hid himself.								

As noted above, the segmental verb root type does not seem to be the determining factor for predicting the tonal patterns of the verb stem. Both (424) and (425) are in the same verb category and are underlyingly and overtly very similar. However, with respect to the tonal patterns observed in a phrase the two verbs surface differently. The first verb emerges with similar tonal patterns to those observed above, the first person high tone surfacing on the suffix vowel and the third person low tone. The second verb shown does not display any tonal alternations. Rather, a nasal marks the first person and its absence signifies the third person.

(424) /ki/ ‘respond’ VC1

First Person	Third Person
kíj -à wàj respond FV STAT	kíj -á wàj respond FV STAT
I responded.	He responded.

(425) /di/ ‘eat’ VC1

First Person	Third Person
n díí ŋ kéè ~2 eat ~2 PRF	díí ŋ kéè reach ~2 PRF
I had eaten.	He had eaten.

The verb stem shown in (426) behaves in a manner similar to ‘eat’ in that the first person (427) is represented with a nasal preceding the verb while the third person omits the nasal.

(426) /guq/ ‘throw’ VC1

First Person	Third Person
ŋ gúq- -ù ŋ kéè ~2 throw PRF ~2 PRF	gúq- -ù ŋ kéè throw PRF ~2 PRF
I had thrown.	He had thrown.

Still other verb stems illustrate that it is possible to mark both the root vowel as well as the suffix vowel. The verb stem shown in (427) is in the same category as the verbs ‘eat’ and ‘respond’, but its underlying root form differs. In the first person, the initial vowel carries the high tone that signifies the first person and the third person has the low tone on the root vowel as well. In both cases, the suffix vowel takes the opposite tone to its root host. As with ‘throw’ a nasal precedes the verb stem only in the first person.

(427)	/pug/	‘wash’	VC1		
First Person			Third Person		
m	púg–	–ù	ŋ	kéè	pùg–
~2	wash	PRF	~2	PRF	wash
I had washed.			He had washed.		

Recall that some verb stems do not alternate in any TAM category and are therefore difficult to classify. Also, some bisyllabic words emerge with a [downstepped tone](#) on the final syllable. The verb in (428) is an example of this type of stem. This verb has a downstepped tone on the final vowel in the first person and a high tone in the third person.

(428)	/jendo/	‘call’	unclassified		
First Person			Third Person		
jén'dó	ŋ	kéè	jéndó	ŋ	kéè
call	~2	PRF	call	~2	PRF
I had called			He had called		

(429) Summary of Bisyllabic Verb Stems

	<u>Verb Root</u>	<u>Gloss</u>	<u>1.S</u>	<u>3.S</u>
a.	bûn	move out	N/HH	N/HL
b.	pôm	lift	N/HH	HL
c.	dăn	hide	HL	HH
d.	kĩ	respond	HL	HH
e.	dĩ	eat	N/LH	LH
f.	gûᵛ	throw	N/HL	HL
g.	pũg	wash	N/HL	LH
h.	jéndō	call	HM	HH

As summarized by the table in (429) bisyllabic stems display more variation than monosyllabic verb stems tonally. While all the verbs have at least one high tone in the first person, not all have at least one low tone in the third person, as would be predicted by the generalizations shown thus far.

13.4 Verb Phrase with an Object

A direct object follows the verb in a perfective phrase. The verb tones continue to follow the same pattern as described for clauses without objects; a phrase with the first person singular as the subject receives a high tone on the verb and a phrase with the third person singular as the subject surfaces with at least one low tone on the verb stem. A direct object is marked with a polar tone to that of the verb, irrelevant of the noun's [tonal class](#). A direct object is marked with a low tone in a phrase where the first person singular person is the subject and with a high tone when the third person singular is the subject.

13.4.1 Monosyllabic Verb Root

The verb stem ‘buy’ was shown above to surface as a monosyllabic stem with a high tone on both vowels in the first person and low tones in the third person. The verb stem continues to display the same patterns with some objects. The underlying tones of the noun were shown in Chapter 3 to be visible by examining the plural stem. The noun in (430) has high tones underlyingly. The first person adds a low tone to the noun’s final vowel and the third person adds a high tone.

(430)	párí / párí	–ndè	/párí/	‘spear’	ncl1
	spear	spear	PL		
	spear/spears				

First Person

n ɥáá –H párí –L ɲ kèè .
 ~2 buy 1 spear 1 ~2 PRF

I had bought a spear.

Third Person

ɥàà –L pàrí –H ɲ kèè .
 buy 3 spear 3 ~2 PRF

He had bought a spear.

Some nouns seem to affect the tones of the verb stem. The noun in (431) is of the type that takes the [–r] suffix in the singular stem. As shown, the tones on the verb differ in that the stem now has a high-low pattern rather than all high, but the object noun has a low tone on the final vowel as did the previous object noun. The third person surfaces with the same tones on the verb stem and a high tone on the final vowel of the noun stem.

(431)	ɲàmbá	–rà / ɲàmbá	=ndè	/ɲàmbá/	‘sheep’	ncl6
	sheep	–r–	sheep	=PL		
	sheep/sheep					

 First Person

 Third Person

n ɥáà –H ɲámhá –rà –L kéẽ . ɥàà –L ɲámhá –rá –H ɲ kéẽ .
 ~2 buy 1 sheep –rV– 1 PRF buy 3 sheep –rV– 3 ~2 PRF

I had bought a sheep.

He had bought a sheep.

The verb ‘drink’ was shown above to emerge with high tones on both morae in the first person and with a high-low pattern in the third person. With an object noun (432), both morae are high in the first person and low in the third person. As with the nouns shown thus far, the final tone of the stem adopts the opposite tone of the verb stem.

(432) bóóⁿ / bóóⁿ =ndè /bón/ ‘millet porridge’ ncl2
 millet porridge millet porridge =PL
 cream/creams

 First Person

 Third Person

nníé –H bóóⁿ –H kéẽ nnìè –L bóóⁿ –H ɲ kéẽ .
 drink 1 millet porridge 1 PRF drink 3 millet porridge 3 ~2 PRF

I had drunk cream.

He had drunk cream.

When the verb takes a different object, not only does the noun display different tonal patterns, but the verb stem also changes slightly. In both the first and third persons, with the noun ‘milk’ (433), the verb and noun show an alternation on the first vowel of the stem. While the verb does show the contrast of the high tone associated with the first person and a low tone associated with the third person, the noun does not have the opposite tone to the verb, in fact it appears to assimilate.

(433) nníé / níé =ndé /níé/ ‘milk’ ncl3
 milk milk =PL
 milk/milks

First Person	Third Person
nníé -H nníé -H kéẽ . drink 1 milk 1 PRF	nnìé -L nnìé -L kéẽ . drink 3 milk 3 PRF
I had drunk milk.	He had drunk milk.

The noun stem ‘basket’ (434) is unusual in that the [-r] suffix is affixed within the stem. Above, without an object, the verb ‘carry’ displayed high-low and low-low patterns in the first and third persons respectively. Here we see that the verb has a high tone on both vowels in the first person and a low-high pattern in the third person. The tones of the noun are unaltered.

(434) kó -ró- gò / kógó =ndè /kógò/ ‘basket’ ncl6
basket -rV- basket basket =PL

basket/baskets

a. n εíé -H kó -ró- gò η kéẽ .
~2 carry on head 1 basket -rV- basket ~2 PRF

I had carried a basket on head.

b. εìé -L kó -ró- gò η kéẽ .
carry on head 3 basket -rV- basket ~2 PRF

He had carried a basket on his head.

Even with a different object noun (435) the patterns are the same with the verb ‘carry on head’; the first person has a high tone and the third person has a low-high pattern.

(435) bóróḡkò / bóróḡkó =ndè /bóróḡkó/ ‘tied millet’ ncl5
tied millet tied millet =PL

tied millet/tied millets.

a. n εíé -H b̀̀r̀̀òḡkò -L kéẽ .
~2 carry on head 1 tied millet 1 PRF

I had carried tied millet on (my) head.

- b. ɛ̀ɛ̀ -L b̀r̀r̀ò̀ḡk̀ò -H k̀é̀é̀ .
 carry on head 3 tied millet 3 PRF

He had carried tied millet on (his) head.

The verb ‘break’ has the same tonal patterns with or without an object. The first person carries a high tone on both vowels and a low-high pattern in the third person. The object noun, however, is represented with opposing tones to the verb in one case (436), but not the other (437). The variation in object nouns with the verb ‘break’ in these examples is due to the addition of the tonal melody from the possessive proclitics.

- (436) k̀úúⁿ / k̀ù =ndé /k̀ùⁿ/ ‘hip’ ncl2
 hip hip =PL

hip/hips

- a. k̀óóⁿ -H máá= -H k̀úúⁿ -L ḡ k̀é̀é̀ .
 break (smth or smth break) 1 POSS 1 hip 1 ~2 PRF

I had broken my hip.

- b. k̀òóⁿ -L màà= -L k̀úúⁿ -H ḡ k̀é̀é̀ .
 break (smth or smth break) 3 POSS= 3 hip 3 ~2 PRF

He had broken his hip.

It was shown in Chapter 5 that the possessive proclitics, first and third person, affect the tone of the noun stem. The example sentences with ‘hip’ show that the object noun tone seems to override the tonal effects of the possessive proclitic, but not with the noun ‘leg’.

- (437) b̀ẁé̀é̀ / b̀ẁé̀é̀ =ndé /b̀ẁé̀é̀/ ‘leg’ ncl3
 leg leg =PL

leg/legs

- a. η kóóⁿ -H máá= -H b^wéé -H kèè .
 ~2 break (smth or smth break) 1 POSS 1 leg 1 PRF

I had broken my leg.

- b. kòóⁿ -L màà= -L b^wéé -H η kèè .
 break (smth or smth break) 3 POSS= 3 leg 3 ~2 PRF

He had broken his leg.

The tones of the noun ‘leg’ as a possessed object differ from the underlying form and from the expected person marking tonal patterns. Therefore, it is suggested in this case that there is an interaction between the person marking tone and the possessor marking tone. There are not sufficient examples of this process to determine the underlying patterns.

The underlying and surface representations of the verbs with and without the noun objects thus far presented are shown in the summary in (438).

(438) Summary of Monosyllabic Verb Stems

<u>Verb</u>	<u>Gloss</u>	<u>No OBJ</u>		<u>OBJ</u>			<u>Noun</u>	<u>Gloss</u>	<u>Tone on Noun</u>	
		<u>1.S</u>	<u>3.S</u>	<u>1.S</u>	<u>3.S</u>	<u>1.S</u>			<u>3.S</u>	
/ɥá/	buy	HH	LL	a.	HH	LL	/pári/	spear	HL	LH
				b.	HL	LL	/ɲàmbá/	sheep	HHL	LLH
/ně/	drink	HH	HL	c.	HH	LL	/bón/	porridge	HL	HH
				d.	HH	LH	/nníé/	milk	HH	LH
/éé/	carry	LH	LL	e.	HH	LH	/kógò/	basket	HHL	HHL
				f.	HH	LH	/bórɔŋkó/	tied millet	LL	LL
/kón/	break	HH	LH	g.	HH	LH	/kù ⁿ /	hip	HL	HH
				h.	HH	LH	/b ^w è/	leg	HH	HH

As explained in Chapter 3, most polysyllabic nouns may not surface with their underlying tones if the underlying tones are level, non-contour melodies. I propose that the same effect is happening in the phrase. The first person indexes a high tone on the verb stem and the third person a low tone. Phonotactic constraints that are yet to be determined dictate the placement of the tone on a particular syllable in the stem or prevent the tone from emerging. The object noun adopts a polar tone which is the opposite value of the verb. Because of the tendency for polysyllabic nouns to surface with contour melodies, the adjacent syllable takes an additional opposing tone.

Note that the nouns (438g - h) are in the same segmental and tonal class, and that the verb has the same tonal behavior before both nouns. This also could also be due to the verb not changing its tones whether an object is present or absent.

13.4.2 Bisyllabic Verb Stems

Examples are shown with the verb ‘lift’ and various objects to illustrate that the emergence of the verb and noun tones differs depending on the object noun. The verb ‘lift’ has a high tone on the root vowel for first person and a low tone on the root vowel for third person without an object. The examples show the verb stem emerging exactly as was shown above when the verb did not have an object. Both object nouns surface with the tonal pattern explained above, a polar tone to the tone on the verb. The tonal pattern is not the same as the underlying form for this noun, shown in (439).

- (439) *símèè* / *símèè* =ndé /*símèè*/ ‘rock, mountain’ ncl4
 mountain mountain =PL
 mountain, rock/mountains, rocks

- a. p^ómb -í -H s^{ím}èè -L η k^éè .
 lift PRF 1 mountain 1 ~2 PRF

I had lifted a mountain/rock.

- b. p^òmb -í -L s^{ím}éé -H η k^éè .
 lift PRF 3 mountain 3 ~2 PRF

He had lifted a mountain/rock.

The verb stems in (439a) and (439b) show the person tonal marking on the verb is on the root vowel. Note the difference between the high tones on the perfective suffix which have thus far been low. The object noun displays the expected tonal contrast; the first person is marked with low tones on the final two vowels of the noun stem, and the third person is marked with high tones on the first vowels of the noun stem. Again, neither noun reflects the underlying tone of the noun stem (440).

- (440) k^úq^íè / k^úq^é =ndè /k^úq^é/ ‘calabash’ ncl3
 calabash calabash =PL
 calabash/calabashes

- a. p^ómb -í -H k^ùq^è -L η k^éè .
 lift PRF 1 calabash 1 ~2 PRF

I had lifted a calabash.

- b. p^ómb -ì -L k^úq^è -H η k^éè .
 lift PRF 3 calabash 3 ~2 PRF

He had lifted a calabash.

The verb ‘throw’ was shown above to not change its tonal pattern in the first or third person. Here it is shown that the verb patterns remain the same but the tone of the noun may change. The first example (441) uses a noun that does change its final tone to the expected pattern for the first (441a) or third (441b) person but the noun shown in (442) does not.

(441) tóme +è / tó -mì =ndé /tómé/ ‘cowry’ ncl4
 cowry shell(s) DIM cowry shell(s) DIM =PL

cowry/cowry shells

a. η gúy -ù tóme +è -L η kéè .
 ~2 throw PRF cowry shell(s) DIM 1 ~2 PRF

I had thrown cowry shells.

b. gúy -ù tóme +é -H η kéè .
 throw PRF cowry shell(s) DIM 3 ~2 PRF

He had thrown cowry shells.

The noun ‘pick axe’ surfaces with its underlying form before the completive particle in the examples below. The verb does not change, as in the cases above, the nasal preceding the verb indicates the first person (442a) and its absence corresponds with the third person (442).

(442) dàma / dàma =ndé /dàmbà/ ‘pick axe’ ncl1
 pick axe pick axe =PL

pick axe/pick axes

a. η gúy -ù -H dàmbà kéè .
 ~2 throw PRF 1 pick axe PRF

I had thrown a pick axe.

b. gúy -ù -L dàmbà kéè .
 throw PRF 3 pick axe PRF

He had thrown a pick axe.

In some cases, both the verb and the object display the tonal marking for person. The verb ‘wash’ in a marks the initial syllable of the verb stem with a high tone for first person and the second vowel of the noun with a low tone. The initial vowel of the verb stem in (443b) is marked with a low tone for the third person and a high tone on the second vowel of the stem.

(445) Summary of Bisyllabic Stems with Objects

<u>Verb</u>	<u>Gloss</u>	<u>1.S</u>	<u>3.S</u>		<u>1.S</u>	<u>3.S</u>	<u>Noun</u>	<u>Gloss</u>	<u>1.S</u>	<u>3.S</u>
/pôm/	lift	HH	HL	a.	HH	LH	/símèè/	rock	HLL	HHH
				b.	HH	HL	/kúqé/	calabash	LL	HL
/gûq/	throw	HL	HL	c.	HL	HL	/tómé/	cowry	HHL	HHH
				d.	HL	HL	/dàmbà/	pick axe	LL	LL
/pũg/	wash	HL	LH	e.	HL	LL	/sòn/	shirt	LL	HL
				f.	HH	LL	/kíé/	luggage	HH	HH

With the exception of (445d) and (445f), all of the object nouns which were shown with bisyllabic verb stems add a polar tone to one vowel of the noun stem. The example (445f) was shown to be a plural stem which appears to override the tonal effects of the person marking, but further examples are needed to support this hypothesis. The verb ‘throw’ has consistently been unchanged in its tones, which could contribute to the noun also not showing a tonal alternation, as ‘break’ showed a similar pattern.

13.5 Completive aspect

The patterns above are found among all tenses save for the completive aspect in which the pattern is the opposite. The [completive aspect particle](#), with allomorphs discussed in Chapter X, carries the person-agreement tone on the phrase, yet in the opposite manner illustrated above.

Also unlike the tonal patterns on the verbs above, the verb stem in the completive aspect does not alternate tonally for person. The person marking is solely on the completive aspect particle, which in these examples is the allomorph [kama].

13.5.1 Completive aspect Particle without Object

When the pronoun surfaces segmentally, the completive aspect particle is marked with high tones on both vowels of the morpheme in all persons except first person as demonstrated in the table in (446). As noted above, the person pronouns also have truncated forms. Shown here, the tonal patterns on the verb remain unchanged.

(446) [kama] Variation with Pronoun

Full Pronoun					Truncated Pronoun				
mí	kàmà	n	dég	-è	ŋ	kàmà	n	dég	-è
1S	CPL	T	hit	RV	1S	CPL	T	hit	RV
àw	kámá	n	dég	-è	à	kámá	n	dég	-è
2S	CPL	T	hit	RV	2S	CPL	T	hit	RV
mì	kámá	n	dég	-è	ŋ	kámá	n	dég	-è
3S	CPL	T	hit	RV	3S	CPL	T	hit	RV
ndè	kàmà	n	dég	-è	————				
1P	CPL	T	hit	RV					
àà	kámá	n	dég	-è	————				
2P	CPL	T	hit	RV					
nnì	kámá	n	dég	-è	————				
3P	CPL	T	hit	RV					

The tonal patterns on the completive aspect particle are the same as the sentences with the segmentally marked pronoun with the exception of a low tone added to the third person singular. This is summarized in (447).

(447) Summary of Tonal Patterns on completive Particle [kama] without Object

<u>Full Pronoun</u>		<u>Truncated Pronoun</u>	
<u>SG</u>	<u>PL</u>	<u>SG</u>	<u>PL</u>
LL	LL	LL	–
HH	HH	HH	–
HH	HH	LH	–

The only change on the completive aspect particle [kama] between the full and truncated pronouns' tonal marking is found in the third person singular; high-high becomes low-high.

13.5.2 Completive aspect with Object and Overt Pronoun

When an object noun is introduced into the completive aspect verb phrase, the only constituent in the phrase with tonal person marking continues to be the completive aspect particle. The tones of the completive aspect article are altered slightly from the patterns shown thus far. The reduced set of pronouns and an object noun induce yet another change on the completive aspect particle.

(448) [kama] with Object

<u>Full Pronoun</u>						<u>Truncated Pronoun</u>					
mí	kàmà	n	dég	–è	géngè	ŋ	kàmà	n	dég	–è	géngè
1S	CPL	T	hit	RV	salt	1S	CPL	T	hit	RV	salt
àw	kámá	n	dég	–è	géngè	à	kámá	n	dég	–è	géngè
2S	CPL	T	hit	RV	salt	2S	CPL	T	hit	RV	salt
mì	kámá	n	dég	–è	géngè	ŋ	kámá	n	dég	–è	géngè
3S	CPL	T	hit	RV	salt	3S	CPL	T	hit	RV	salt
ndè	kámá	n	dég	–è	géngè	————					
1P	CPL	T	hit	RV	salt						
àà	kámá	n	dég	–è	géngè	————					
2P	CPL	T	hit	RV	salt						
nnì	kámá	n	dég	–è	géngè	————					
3P	CPL	T	hit	RV	salt						

With an object noun and a pronounced pronoun, all of the persons alter the tone of the completive aspect particle to low-high save for the first person which remains low on both syllables.

(449) Summary of Tonal Patterns on completive Particle [kama] with Object

<u>Full Pronoun</u>		<u>Truncated Pronoun</u>	
<u>SG</u>	<u>PL</u>	<u>SG</u>	<u>PL</u>
LL	LH	LL	–
LH	LH	HH	–
LH	LH	LH	–

The tonal patterns on the completive aspect particle are similar in the sentences with and without an object for the sentences which use the truncated pronouns. Each phrase has high tones on both syllables save for the first and third person singular. This is the same as the sentences shown above save for the first person plural which has low tones.

13.5.3 Completive aspect with Plural Object and Overt Pronoun

A plural object causes the completive aspect particle to surface with the same tones as a singular object, in a phrase with overt pronouns, but the verb tones are different than those listed above. The verb has a low-high pattern whereas thus far the tonal pattern has been that of high-low.

(450) [kama] with Plural Object

<u>Plural Object</u>						
ɲ	kàmà	n	dég	–è	jàà	=ndé
1S	CPL	T	hit	RV	salt	PL
à	kámá	n	dég	–è	jàà	=ndé
2S	CPL	T	hit	RV	salt	PL
ɲ	kámá	n	dég	–è	jàà	=ndé
3S	CPL	T	hit	RV	salt	PL

ndè kàmà n dég -è jàà =ndé
1P CPL T hit RV salt PL

àà kámá n dég -è jàà =ndé
2P CPL T hit RV salt PL

nnì kámá n dég -è jàà =ndé
3P CPL T hit RV salt PL

Note from the summary of tonal patterns that the completive aspect particle has the same tones as the sentences with the verb ‘hit’ without an object.

(451) Summary of Tonal Patterns on completive Particle [kama] with Plural Object

<u>SG</u>	<u>PL</u>
LL	LL
HH	HH
HH	HH

13.5.4 Completive aspect with No Object and Pronoun, Verb: ‘eat’

The verb ‘eat’ shows that a different completive aspect verb particle has the same patterns as shown thus far. As with the examples above, the tone on the completive aspect verb particle differs when the pronoun is truncated.

(452) [kama] Variation with Pronoun and Verb ‘eat’

Full Pronoun					Truncated Pronoun				
mí	kàmà	n	dzij	-á	ŋ	kámá	n	dzij	-á
1S	CPL	T	eat	RV	1S	CPL	T	eat	RV
àw	kámá	n	dzij	-á	à	kàmá	n	dzij	-á
2S	CPL	T	eat	RV	2S	CPL	T	eat	RV
mì	kámá	n	dzij	-á	ŋ	kàmá	n	dzij	-á
3S	CPL	T	eat	RV	3S	CPL	T	eat	RV
ndè	kàmà	n	dzij	-á	—				
1P	CPL	T	eat	RV					

àà kámá n dʒij -á _____
 2P CPL T eat RV

nnì kámá n dʒij -á _____
 3P CPL T eat RV

(453) Summary of Tonal Patterns on completive Particle [kama]

<u>Full Pronoun</u>		<u>Truncated Pronoun</u>	
<u>SG</u>	<u>PL</u>	<u>SG</u>	<u>PL</u>
LL	LL	HH	-
HH	HH	LH	-
HH	HH	LH	-

The verb /di/ ‘eat’ illustrates that the completive aspect particle [kama] may be greatly affected tonally. Whereas there was consistency with the other verbs between the full and truncated pronouns, here we see that before the verb ‘eat’ there is great variation.

13.5.5 Completive aspect with Object, Verb: ‘eat’

As noted above, the verb /di/ ‘eat’ exhibits great variation with respect to the completive particle [kama]. Here, the patterns on the particle [kama] are compared with two different objects, [bórè n eí], ‘toh’ or ‘millet porridge’ and [géngè] ‘salt’.

(454) [kama] Variation with Pronoun and Verb ‘eat’

<u>Object ‘salt’</u>						<u>Object ‘toh’</u>							
ɲ	kàmà	n	dʒij	-á	géngè	ɲ	kàmà	n	dʒij	-á	bórè	n	eí
1S	CPL	T	eat	RV	salt	1S	CPL	T	eat	RV	baobab	GEN	food
à	kámá	n	dʒij	-á	géngè	à	kámá	n	dʒij	-á	bórè	n	eí
2S	CPL	T	eat	RV	salt	2S	CPL	T	eat	RV	baobab	GEN	food
ɲ	kámá	n	dʒij	-á	géngè	ɲ	kámá	n	dʒij	-á	bórè	n	eí
3S	CPL	T	eat	RV	salt	3S	CPL	T	eat	RV	baobab	GEN	food

ndè	kàmà	n	dʒij	-á	géŋgè	——
1P	CPL	T	eat	RV	salt	
àà	kámá	n	dʒij	-á	géŋgè	——
2P	CPL	T	eat	RV	salt	
nnì	kámá	n	dʒij	-á	géŋgè	——
3P	CPL	T	eat	RV	salt	

The summary for the two objects is provided in (455).

(455) Summary of Tonal Patterns on completive Particle [kama]

<u>Full Pronoun</u>		<u>Truncated Pronoun</u>	
<u>SG</u>	<u>PL</u>	<u>SG</u>	<u>PL</u>
LL	LH	LL	—
LH	LH	HH	—
LH	LH	HH	—

As with the examples above, using the verb /di/ ‘eat’ without an object, the presence of an object causes tonal alternations on the completive particle [kama], and the object itself affects the tones of the particle, but the tones on the noun are unchanged.

13.5.6 Completive aspect with Object and Truncated Pronoun, Verb: ‘eat’

In (456) the verb /tam/ ‘chew’ is shown with a singular and plural noun as an object in the completive aspect to illustrate the tonal behavior of the particle [kama] with another verb.

(456) [kama] with verb ‘chew’ and object ‘pancake’

<u>Singular Object</u>						<u>Plural Object</u>								
ŋ	kàmà	n	tám	-b	-á	ŋwè	ŋ	kàmà	n	tám	-b	-á	ŋwè	=ndé
1S	CPL	T	chew	EF	RV	pan- cake	1S	CPL	T	chew	EF	RV	pan- cake	PL
à	kámá	n	tám	-b	-á	ŋwè	à	kámá	n	tám	-b	-á	ŋwè	=ndé
2S	CPL	T	chew	-r-	RV	pan- cake	2S	CPL	T	chew	EF	RV	pan- cake	PL

η	kámá	n	tám	-b	-á	ηwè	η	kámá	n	tám	-b	-á	ηwè	=ndé
3S	CPL	T	chew	-r-	RV	pan- cake	3S	CPL	T	chew	EF	RV	pan- cake	PL
ndè	kámà	n	tám	-b	-á	ηwè	————							
1P	CPL	T	chew	-r-	RV	pan- cake								
àà	kámà	n	tám	-b	-á	ηwè	————							
2P	CPL	T	chew	-r-	RV	pan- cake								
nnì	kámà	n	tám	-b	-á	ηwè	————							
3P	CPL	T	chew	-r-	RV	pan- cake								

The tonal patterns on the particle [kama] with a singular and plural object and the verb /tam/ ‘chew, bite’ are summarized in (457).

(457) Summary of Tonal Patterns on completive Particle [kama] with Object

<u>Full Pronoun</u>		<u>Truncated Pronoun</u>	
<u>SG</u>	<u>PL</u>	<u>SG</u>	<u>PL</u>
LL	LH	LL	—
HH	HL	LH	—
LH	HL	LH	—

The tonal patterns on the particle [kama] are more regular with the verb /tam/ ‘chew, bite’ than with ‘eat’. The only changes between a singular and plural object are in the second person singular and the first person plural.

13.5.7 Completive aspect with Truncated Pronoun, Verb: ‘go’

An intransitive verb also shows tonal alternations on the particle [kama].

<u>First Person</u>			<u>Third Person</u>		
η	kámà	wórè	η	kámá	wórè
~2	CPL	go	~2	CPL	go
I went			He went		

(459)	<u>First Person</u>	<u>Third Person</u>
	η kámá wórè náà ~2 CPL go fields	η kámá wórè náà ~2 CPL go fields
	I went to a field	I went to a field

(460)	<u>First Person</u>	<u>Third Person</u>
	η kámá wórè kòò ~2 CPL go house	η kámá wórè kòò ~2 CPL go house
	I went to a house	He went to a house

(461)	<u>First Person</u>	<u>Third Person</u>
	η kámá wórè díjà ~2 CPL go village	η kó GEN PP η kámá díjà GEN PP ~2 CPL village
	I went to a village.	He went to a village.

(462)	<u>First Person</u>	<u>Third Person</u>
	η kámá wórè kúú ⁿ ~2 CPL go market	η kámá kúú ⁿ ~2 CPL market
	I went to a village.	He went to a village.

The table (463) summarizes the tonal patterns on the completive particle with /wore/ 'go'.

(463) Summary of Tonal Patterns on completive Particle [kama]

<u>Indirect Obj</u>	<u>Gloss</u>	<u>1.SG</u>	<u>3.SG</u>
none	—	LL	LH
náà	wilderness	HH	LH
kòò	house	HH	LH
díjà	village	HH	LH
kúú ⁿ	market	HH	LH

The presence of a noun following the completive particle [kama], whether it is a direct object or an indirect object, affects the tone on the particle.

13.6 Incompletive

The [incompletive aspect](#) is formed with the incompletive particle /daw/ and the default verb stem. The incompletive particle has segmental allomorphs [da, na, nda] with short vowels and [daa, naa] with long vowels. The initial consonant of the incompletive particle surfaces as a nasal after the first person singular and third person plural pronouns, both of which begin with a nasal. The following examples illustrate the tonal patterns on verbs in the incompletive aspect and the segmental alternations on the incompletive particle. The motivation driving the incompletive marker's allomorphy is as of yet undetermined. An interesting example in §8.1, showed that the length of the incompletive marker may be tied to the issue of timing.

When a phrase is in the incompletive aspect without an object, the person and number of the subject is found tonally on the verb stem.

(464) Incompletive Aspect without an Object, Verb: 'hit'

∅	dáà	n	dég	-é	ndé	náà	n	dég	-é
1S	INC	T	hit	RV	1.PL	INC	T	hit	RV

I am hitting.

We are hitting

à	ndà	n	dèg	-è	à-rú	dáà	n	dèg	-è
2.S	INC	T	hit	RV	2-PL	INC	T	hit	RV

You are hitting.

You.PL are hitting

∅	dáà	n	dèg	-è	nnî	náà	n	dèg	-è
3.S	INC	T	hit	RV	3.PL	INC	T	hit	RV

He is hitting.

They are hitting

As with the other tenses, the first persons are marked with high tones, but in the incomplete aspect, the tone is on the verb stem, and the second and third persons are marked with low tones.

In an incomplete clause with an object, the default [word order](#) is subject-object-verb. Although there is some segmental variation in the noun, the tones on the object are not altered in the incomplete aspect.

(465) Incomplete aspect with an Object, Verb ‘hit’

∅	nà	jàá.mbè	n	dég	-é	ndé	dà	jàá.mbè	n	dég	-é
1.S	INC	child	T	hit	RV	1.PL	INC	child	T	hit	RV

I am hitting a child.

We are hitting a child.

à	dà	jàá.mbè	n	dèg	-è
2.S	INC	child	T	hit	RV

You are hitting a child.

áà	dà	jàá.mbè	n	dèg	-è
2.PL	INC	child	T	hit	RV

You.PL are hitting a child.

∅	dáà	jàá.mbè	n	dèg	-è
3.S	INC	child	T	hit	RV

He is hitting a child.

nnî	nà	jàá.mbè	n	dèg	-è
3.PL	INC	child	T	hit	RV

They are hitting a child.

The tones on the verb stem are exactly the same if an object is present or absent in the incomplete aspect with the verb ‘hit’.

(466) Summary of Tonal Patterns on Verb ‘hit’ in Incomplete aspect

<u>Full Pronoun</u>		<u>Truncated Pronoun</u>	
<u>SG</u>		<u>PL</u>	
HH	HH	HH	HH
LH	LL	LH	LL
LL	LL	LL	LL

As shown in the following sentences, some verbs, like ‘buy’ do not display the same tonal changes observed on the verb ‘hit’.

(467) /deg/ VC1 ‘hit’ without Object

∅	dáà	n	dég	-é	ndé	náà	n	dég	-é
1.S	INC	T	hit	RV	1.PL	INC	T	hit	RV

I am hitting.

We are hitting

à	ndà	n	dèg	-é	à-rú	dáà	n	dèg	-è
2.S	INC	T	hit	RV	2-PL	INC	T	hit	RV

You are hitting.

You.PL are hitting

∅	dáà	n	dèg	-è	nnî	náà	n	dèg	-è
3.S	INC	T	hit	RV	3.PL	INC	T	hit	RV

He is hitting.

They are hitting

(468) /qaa/ VC2 ‘buy’ without Object

n	dáà	n	qàà	ndè	nà	n	qàà
~2	INC	T	buy	1.PL	INC	T	buy

á	dà	n	qàà	áà	dà	n	qàà
2.S	INC	T	buy	2.S	INC	T	buy

∅	dáà	n	qàà	nnì	nà	n	qàà
~2	INC	T	buy	3.PL	INC	T	buy

The verb ‘buy’ does not alter its tones in the incomplete aspect to agree with the subject. If no other subject pronoun is given, the difference is displayed by the presence or absence of a nasal preceding the incomplete aspect particle.

As with the sentences without an object, the verb ‘buy’ is not tonally marked for subject.

As with the sentences above with the verb ‘hit’, the object is also not marked.

(469) Incompletive aspect with an Object: Verb, 'buy'

n	dáà	ɲàmbá	-rá	n	ɥàà	ndè	nà	ɲàmbá	n	ɥàà
~2	INC	sheep	sfx	T	buy	1.PL	INC	sheep	T	buy
á	nà	ɲàmbá	-rá	n	ɥàà	áà	dà	ɲàmbá	n	ɥàà
2.S	INC	sheep	sfx	T	buy	2.S	INC	sheep	T	buy
∅	dá	ɲàmbá	-rá	n	ɥàà	nnì	nà	ɲàmbá	n	ɥàà
~2	INC	sheep	sfx	T	buy	3.PL	INC	sheep	T	buy

The intransitive verb 'go' shows no tonal alternations in the incompletive aspect as shown in the following examples. The only difference between the first and third person singular persons is the nasal preceding the incompletive aspect particle and the length of the vowels.

(470) Incompletive aspect with Intransitive Verb, 'go'

n	dáà	wòré	ndè	nà	wòré
~2	INC	go	1.PL	INC	go
á	dà	wòré	àà	dà	wòré
2.S	INC	go	2.S	INC	go
∅	dá	wòré	nnì	dà	wòré
~2	INC	go	3.PL	INC	go

The verb 'eat' is also unaffected by the subject of the phrase in the incompletive aspect.

(471) Incompletive aspect with No Object: Verb, 'eat'

n	dáà	dìj	-á	ndè	nà	dìj	-á
~2	INC	eat	RV	1.PL	INC	eat	RV
á	dà/nà	dìj	-á	àà	dà	dìj	-á
2.S	INC	eat	RV	2.S	INC	eat	RV
∅	dáà	dìj	-á	nnì	dà	dìj	-á
~2	INC	eat	RV	3.PL	INC	eat	RV

The verb ‘eat’ is not affected tonally by the subject in the incomplete aspect with an object, nor is the object noun. The only difference in these sentences between the first and third person singular subject is found on the incomplete particle; the first person is represented by the underlying form of the particle /daw/, and the third person by the long vowel allomorph [daa], instead of the pattern that has been shown so far, that of the nasal’s presence or absence.

(472) Incomplete aspect with Object: Verb, ‘eat’

n	dáw	dij	–á	póó ⁿ	ndè	nà	póó ⁿ	dij	–á
~2	INC	eat	RV	meal	1.PL	INC	meal	eat	RV
á	dà	dij	–á	póó ⁿ	àà	dà	póó ⁿ	dij	–á
2.S	INC	eat	RV	meal	2.S	INC	meal	eat	RV
∅	dáà	dij	–á	póó ⁿ	nnì	nà	póó ⁿ	dij	–á
~2	INC	eat	RV	meal	3.PL	INC	meal	eat	RV

13.7 Summary of Person Tonal Marking

Using the same examples that were given for the verb /deg/ ‘hit’ in Chapter 8, repeated in (473) we can see that there is a general tendency for low tones to be associated with the third person, whether on the verb (473a, c, d) or the object (473b). The object noun receives the opposite tones of the verb stem; high in the case of a third person subject. The completive aspect displays the opposite pattern as the other tenses; a high tone surfaces on the verb stem for the third person, with a low tone on the noun stem.

(473) Third Person Paradigm for /deg/ ‘hit’

Incomplete

a.	àdámá	ná	á	nníé	–ré	–H	n	dèg	–è	–L
	Adama	INC	DEF	woman	3	T	hit	RV	3	

Adama is hitting the woman.

Completive

- b. àdámá kó n dég -é -H à nìè -rè -L .
 Adama CPL T hit RV 3 DEF woman 3

Adama hit the woman.

Perfective

- c. àdámá dèg -è -L níé -ré -H .
 Adama hit RV 3 woman 3

Adama has hit a woman.

Perfect

- d. àdámá dèg -ù -L á níé -ré -H kèè .
 Adama hit PRF 3 DEF woman 3 PRF

Adama hit the woman.

The word order of a sentence varies based on the tense of the clause. However, the placement of the object in the sentence does not seem to be the contributing factor to explain the tonal differences. Rather, the tense of the sentence, the syllable shape of the verb stem, and the syllable shape of the object noun all seem to play a part in influencing the tonal behavior.

Chapter 14. Negation

14.1 Overview of the Negative Marker

The negative morpheme [bîè] is the only means to negate a sentence. The negative marker may precede a noun, acting as a negative [copula](#). The negative marker may also follow a noun to indicate lack of something. Verbs are also negated by the same marker preceding the verb. The tonal effects of the negative marker and its placement in a sentence are discussed in this chapter.

14.2 Word Order in a Negated Clause

The negative marker usually precedes each constituent it negates.

(474) Negation Preceding the Noun

- a. gúwóndíjè káw bîè ɲʷòròké
 caracal DEM NEG leopard

A caracal is not a leopard. (Chief 10 23.1)

- b. há níɲà sòòⁿ bîè sòòⁿ
 IRR say shirt NEG shirt

One would say it is a shirt but it is not a shirt. (Consultant 10.2)

- c. sé bîè bójéè ɲ kó pááⁿ bîè básì
 if NEG rope PP all NEG problem

(even) If there is no rope, it is not a problem. (Tiga sto 212.1)

The negative marker may act as a negative existential predicate. In this case, the negative marker follows the noun it negates.

(475) Negative Copula

- a. nèè bîè
 sun NEG

There is no sun.

- b. η kásàⁿ tóòⁿ bíè
 at that time money NEG

At that time, money did not exist. (Tiga story 80.1)

- c. η kámà n súqè à nàà η kò bũrá bíè táwáà bíè
 CPL T descend DEF wilderness PP stick NEG pants NEG

He went into the wilderness without a stick and without pants.
 (Tiga 5.53 - 55)

The tones of the noun are not affected when the negative marker follows the noun. The fact that the negative marker may surface either before or after the noun makes it difficult to assign to a specific morphological category such as pre or post clitic, prefix or suffix.

14.3 Negative Adjectival Predicate

[Adjectives](#) may not stand alone; they require a dummy noun such as ‘thing’ in a positive phrase. However, a negative adjectival predicate may consist only of the adjective preceded by the negative marker. As shown above, the negative marker may act as a copula and a negative with negative existential predicate noun phrases. In (476), we see that the negative marker acts in a similar manner with adjectives.

(476) Negative with Adjectives

- a. bíè mèrè
 NEG heavy

It is not heavy. (Consultant 12.2)

- b. bíè bóórì
 NEG many

There are not many. (Swadesh 21.1)

- c. bíè wáá bíè jimbō
 NEG hot NEG cold

It is warm. (LIT. ‘it is not hot, it is not cold’) (Swadesh 191.1)

The negative marker may negate a modified noun without overtly naming the noun, in the singular (476a), plural (476b), or with two conjoined adjectives (476c). The negative marker precedes each constituent in the phrase; it cannot negate the entire sentence at the beginning.

14.4 Negative in a Possessive Noun Phrase

In negative possessive noun phrases, the negative precedes the possessive pronoun. The set of pronouns that was briefly mentioned in §5.2 is used with the negative marker. If a noun is used, the negative marker precedes the noun, which is followed by the possessive pronoun.

The negative marker precedes the noun in demonstrative phrases, shown in (477).

(477) Possessive and Demonstrative Phrases

- a. bìè mé
 it is not mine
- b. à kòdò bíé mé
 the house is not mine
- c. bie X muwě
 it is not my X
- d. bie X kaw
 that is not an X

The negative marker either negates the possessive morpheme (477a - b) or both the noun and the possessive marker (477c). The demonstrative (477d) follows the same pattern as (477c).

14.5 Tonal effects of the Negative on Noun Stems

As with other morphemes which precede a noun, the possessive proclitics and the definite marker, the negative morpheme changes the tone of the noun.

14.5.1 Simple Nouns

In the words in (478) we see that nouns that end in a high tone in citation form end with a low tone when following the negative marker [bíè].

(478) Final H Tone → L

<u>Gloss</u>	<u>Syllables</u>		<u>Stem</u>	<u>Tone on Noun</u>
older sibling	CVV	a.	tíí	[H]
/H/		b.	bíè tîí	[HL]
machete	CV.CV	c.	páré	[H]
/H/		d.	bíè páрэ	[HL]
ancestor	CVV.CV	e.	kááwá	[H]
/H/		f.	bíè kááwà	[HL]
buffalo	CV.CVV	g.	kòbáá	[LH]
/H/		h.	bíè kòbàà	[L]
man	CVV	i.	góò ⁿ	[HL]
/HL/		j.	bíè góò ⁿ	[HL]
baby	CV.CV	k.	bì+é	[LH]
/HL/		l.	bíè bìè	[L]
sugar cane	CVV.CV	m.	mùùré	[LH]
/LH/		n.	bíè mùùrè	[L]
goat bag	CV.CVV	o.	tòpáá	[LH]
/LH/		p.	bíè tòpàà	[HL]

Each noun with a high tone on the final mora in this set surfaces as low after the negative marker. Note that bisyllabic nouns with long final high toned vowels (478g, o) both surface as low (478p, h). This has consequences for the choice of the tone-bearing unit. Nouns which surface with all low tones include (478h, l, n), altered from low-high toned nouns (478g, k, m).

Nouns with final low tones remain low on the final mora as shown in examples in (479).

(479) Final L → L

<u>Gloss</u>	<u>Syllables</u>		<u>Stem</u>	<u>Tone on Noun</u>
tree	CVV	a.	d ^w àà	[L]
/L/		b.	bíè d ^w àà	[L]
leg		c.	b ^w èè	[L]
/L/		d.	bíè b ^w èè	[L]
child	CV.CVV	e.	jǎmbèè	[LHL]
/LHL/		f.	bíè jǎmbèè	[LHL]
crocodile		g.	gèŋgiè	[L]
/L/		h.	bíè gèŋgiè	[L]
father	CVV	i.	bóó	[H]
/H/		j.	bíè bóó	[H]
log	CV.CV	k.	kúndù	[HL]
/H/		l.	bíè kúndù	[HL]
rock	CV.CVV	m.	símèè	[HL]
/HL/		n.	bíè símèè	[HL]
woman	CV.CV.CV	o.	n nìé-rè	[LHL]
/LH/		p.	bíè nìé-rè	[L]

One exception to the above pattern that all low toned final morae surface low is found in the word ‘father’ (479i - j).

14.5.2 Complex Nouns

Compounds are not a productive means of creating new lexical items in Bangime. Two potential exceptions are shown in (480) to illustrate that the tones are not affected by the negative marker.

The word ‘child’ has a bound or lexicalized diminutive suffix in the singular citation form [jaambe] but emerges as [jaa=ndɛ] in the plural and with [p^wiɛ]. The word [p^wiɛ] refers to a ‘wife’, but when following the root of ‘child’ the stem means ‘girl’. Similarly, when the word [boro+mbɛ], plural [boro=ndɛ] ‘boy/boys’, follows the root of ‘child’, it means ‘young men’.

(480) Boy/Girl

<u>Gloss</u>		<u>Stem</u>	<u>Tone on Noun</u>
girl	a.	jáá p ^w iè	[LH LL]
/H/	b.	bíè jáá p ^w iè	[LH LL]
boy	c.	jáá bórómbè	[HH HHL]
/LH/	d.	bíè jáá bórómbè	[HH HHL]

[Adjectives](#) were shown to not affect the tone of a noun. The examples in (481) show that the negative marker does affect the tone of the noun, but not of the following adjective.

(481) Noun + Adjectives Phrases

<u>Gloss</u>		<u>Stem</u>	<u>Tone on Noun</u>
white sheep	a.	ɲàmbá síjò ⁿ	[HL]
/LH/	b.	bíè ɲámbá síjò	[H]
red thing	c.	kìi b ^w íé	[L]
/HL/	d.	bíè kii b ^w íé	[L]
big woman	e.	nniè bógò	[LH]
/LH/	f.	bíè nniè bógò	[LH]

Whereas above the effect of the negative marker was shown to lower the final tone of the noun, with the exception of the dummy noun (481c - d), each noun has a high tone on the final mora. It appears that the adjective blocks the tone lowering of the negative marker but that the adjective itself is unaffected.

14.5.3 Summary of the Negative effects on the NP

The negative marker may precede or follow a noun in a NP. When it precedes a noun, it changes the tone(s) of the noun. If an adjective follows a noun, the tone of the noun is affected. The next section shows the tonal and segmental effects of the negative marker with a verb.

14.6 Negative Verb Phrase

The TAM categories are simplified in a negated clause. There are only two aspects when the clause is marked as negative: incomplete and complete. The negative marker [bie] precedes the verb just as it does a [noun](#). The difference in the incomplete and complete aspects depends on the verb's [inflectional class](#) and the valency of the verb. Evidence from narratives shows that the tones in negated clauses follow the opposite pattern as those described for positive ones. Text XII, Tiga 2.14, 20, 26, shows that the tonal patterns shown for positive clauses is reversed; the first person is associated with low tone on the verb and high tone on the object.

14.6.1 VC2 Stems

The present tense in both negative and positive clauses has [SOV](#) word order. The verb stem is unsuffixed for inflection, and the verb stem is preceded by the [transitive nasal](#).

In the complete aspect, just as with a positive clause, the word order is [SVO](#). The verb root is followed by the [-r] suffix. As discussed in Chapter 8, verbs in Class Two take the [-r] suffix only in the complete aspect. Examples from texts, Chief 1.3, 4 show that when a clause is in the present tense and the verb takes a direct object, the object directly precedes the verb.

The word order of a negated present tense clause is S-AUX-O-V, just as with the positive incomplete marker /daw/.

In both tenses, the tone of the verb stem after the negative marker is in most cases low, although there are exceptions. First person singular examples are shown in (482).

(482) Negative VC2 Stems

	<u>Gloss</u>	<u>Root</u>	<u>INC.NEG</u>	<u>CPL.NEG</u>
a.	lick	/de/	bíé n déé	bíè déé-rè
b.	drink	/ne/	bíé n niè	bíé niè-rè
c.	mix	/soo/	bíé n sòò	bíé sòò-rò
d.	reach	/t ^w a/	bíé n t ^w àà	bíé t ^w àà-rà
e.	build	/maa/	bíé m màà	bíé màà-rà

As shown [above](#), [+ATR] and [-ATR] stems take different vowels after the [-r] suffix.

While the tone of the incomplete negative stem remains low, the tonal melody of the complete negative is high-low.

(483) Transitive Verb [-ATR]

	<u>Gloss</u>	<u>Root</u>	<u>INC.NEG</u>	<u>CPL.NEG</u>
a.	hear	/no/	bíè n nò	bíè nó-rè
b.	know	/so/	bíé n sò	bíé só-rè
c.	do (become)	/je/	bíè n zìè	bíè jé-rò
d.	put	/pe/	bíè m píè	bíè pé-rò

The transitive marker precedes the incomplete negative verb stem and the [-r] suffix appears when the verb is a negated complete stem. The transitive nasal and the [-r] suffix are

in complementary distribution in negated verb stems, just as was shown for verbs that [reduplicate](#) and take the [-r] suffix.

14.6.2 Timing in the Negative VC2 Stem

The negative verb phrase differs from the positive verb phrase in the behavior of the transitive nasal. The completive lacks the nasal, and it employs the [-r] suffix on the verb; the present surfaces with the nasal, but the verb does not have the suffix. The difference between the present and completive aspects in the negative is one of timing. Each verb phrase contains the exact same number of syllables and morae, as illustrated in (484).

(484) Negative VC2 Sentences

a.	<u>/ne/ drink</u>					<u></u>			
	Incomplete					Completive			
	S	A	O	V		S	A	V	SFX
i.	m	bíé	n	nìè	ii.	m	bíé	nìè	-rè
	1.S	NEG	T	drink		1.SG	NEG	drink	CPL
	I do not drink.					I did not drink.			
	m	bíé	n	nìè		m	bíé	nìè	-rè
	μ	μμ	μ	μμ		μ	μμ	μμ	μ
	σ	σ	σ	σ		σ	σ	σ	σ
	6 morae, 4 syllables					6 morae, 4 syllables			
b.	<u>/t^wa/ reach</u>					<u></u>			
i.	m	bíé	n	t ^w áà	ii.	m	bíé	t ^w áà	-rà
	1.S	NEG	T	reach		1.SG	NEG	reach	CPL
	I do not reach.					I did not reach.			
	m	bíé	n	t ^w áà		m	bíé	t ^w áà	-rà
	μ	μμ	μ	μμ		μ	μμ	μμ	μ
	σ	σ	σ	σ		σ	σ	σ	σ

6 morae, 4 syllables	6 morae, 4 syllables
c. <u> /sɔo/ mix</u>	
i. m bíé n sòò 1.S NEG T mix	ii. m bíé sòò –rò 1.SG NEG mix CPL
I do not mix.	I did not mix.
m bíé n sòò μ μμ μ μμ σ σ σ σ	m bíé sòò –rò μ μμ μμ μ σ σ σ σ
6 morae, 4 syllables	6 morae, 4 syllables
d. <u> /maa/ build</u>	
i. m bíé kóó m màà 1.SG NEG house T build	ii. m bíé màà –rà kòò 1.SG NEG build CP house
I do not build a house.	I did not build a house.
m bíé kóó m màà μ μμ μμ μ μμ σ σ σ σ σ	m bíé màà –rà kòò μ μμ μμ μ μμ σ σ σ σ σ
8 morae, 5 syllables	8 morae, 5 syllables

The examples above illustrate that a sentence in the negative with a VC2 stem contains the exact same number of morae and syllables in the present and completive aspects. Even with an object (484d) the timing is the same for syllables as well as morae. The examples in (485) of VC3 verbs illustrate that the deciding factor is morae rather than syllables if the nasal in the completive aspect stem is considered to be the coda of the first syllable.

(485) Negative VC3 Sentences

a.	<u>/kɔn/ break cut</u>									
	Incomplete						Completive			
i.	m	bíè	ŋ	kò	-r̃ò	ii.	m	bíè	kón	-dò
	1SG	NEG	T	break	RV		1SG	NEG	break	CPL
	I do not break.						I did not break.			
	m	bíè	ŋ	kò	-r̃ò		m	bíè	kón	-dò
	μ	μμ	μ	μ	μ		μ	μμ	μμ	μ
	σ	σ	σ	σ	σ		σ	σ	σ	σ
	6 morae, 5 syllables						6 morae, 4 syllables			
b.	<u>den cook</u>									
iii.	m	bíè	n	dè	-r̃è	iv.	m	bíè	dén	-dè
	1SG	NEG	T	cook	RV		1SG	NEG	cook	CPL
	I do not cook.						I did not cook.			
	m	bíè	n	dè	-r̃è		m	bíè	dén	-dè
	μ	μμ	μ	μ	μ		μ	μμ	μμ	μ
	σ	σ	σ	σ	σ		σ	σ	σ	σ
	6 morae, 5 syllables						6 morae, 4 syllables			

In all verb stems that take the [-r] suffix or one of its allomorphs [r̃ ~ d ~ b], the difference between the present and completive negative verb phrase is the presence of the transitive nasal or its absence, respectively. To compensate for the deletion of the nasal, the completive aspect stem adds the [-r] suffix or a combination of the [-r] suffix and an additional nasal in the stem.

14.6.3 Intransitive Stems with the [-r] Suffix

Among verbs that are suffixed with the [-r] morpheme, few are intransitive, with examples listed in (486). Intransitive verbs cannot compensate for the loss of the mora in the incomplete negative stem, as there is no transitive morpheme.

(486) Intransitive Verbs

	<u>Gloss</u>	<u>Root</u>	<u>INC.NEG</u>	<u>CPL.NEG</u>
a.	get up	je	bîè jíè	bîè jé-rò
b.	lost	te	bîè téè	bíé té-rè
c.	pass	do	bíé dóó	bîè dóó-rò
d.	respond	jo	bîè jóò	bîè jóó-rò
e.	run	tig	bîè tígè	bîè tígí-rì
f.	pull (large things)	zum	bîè zúm-b-à	bîè zúm-bá-rà

In negative verb clauses with transitive verbs, words follow a timing pattern so that the number of morae in the corresponding present and completive sentences must contain equal numbers. Since the transitive morpheme, a homorganic nasal, must precede the verb in the present tense forms to follow the correct word order, this takes the place of one mora and thus, the present tense verb stem deletes a syllable to compensate. Further, the data illustrate that even if the clause contains an object, the nasal marker remains, showing that it is a true marker of transitivity and not a pronominal form. The data show that intransitive verb sentences do not follow the same mora-timing pattern, but the syllables are still of the same number.

14.7 Transitive Verbs

Verbs which do not take the [-r] suffix also do not compensate for the lack of the nasal in the negative completive aspect stem. In addition to the presence or absence of the transitive nasal,

transitive verbs without the [-r] suffix show a tonal difference. Based on the above conclusion that the language is mora-timed, the tonal assignment is likely to have a correlation based on the mora timing as well but this needs further investigation. The verbs in (487) show a pattern of a high tone on the final mora of the Incompletive stem and a low on the final mora of the completive aspect stem.

(487) Transitive Verbs without [-r] Suffix

	<u>Gloss</u>	<u>Stem</u>	<u>INC.NEG</u>	<u>CPL.NEG</u>
a.	change	gómbiè	bíè η gómbiè	bíè gómbiè
b.	carry (child) on back	kúmbò	bíè η kúmbò	bíè kúmbò
c.	take	síè	bíè n síé	bíè síè
d.	go out	bírè	bíè bíré	bíè bíré
e.	resemble	dógòno	bíè n dógòno	bíè dógòno
f.	bury (sb)	mùgù	bíè m múgù	bíè mùgù

14.8 Intransitive Verbs

The intransitive verbs shown in (488) show a pattern of a high tone on the final mora of the incomplete negative stem and a low tone on the final mora of the completive negative stem.

(488) Intransitive Verbs without [-r] Suffix

	<u>Gloss</u>	<u>Stem</u>	<u>INC.NEG</u>	<u>CPL.NEG</u>
a.	enter	míndè	bíé míndé	bíè míndè
b.	come	nóò	m bíé nnóó	m bíè nnóò
c.	go	worè	m bíè wóré	m bíè wòré
d.	look	sùràà	m bíé sùrá	m bíè sùrà

Some intransitive verbs show differences on the negative marker itself.

(489) Intransitive Verbs without [-r] Suffix

	<u>Gloss</u>	<u>Stem</u>	<u>INC.NEG</u>	<u>CPL.NEG</u>
a.	ripe	bìjú	bìé bìjú	bìè bìjú
b.	try	kíjà	bìé wóré kíjà	bìè wòrè kíjà
c.	talk	níná	bìè nnínà	bìé nnínà
d.	squeeze	η ^w ímà	bìè η ^w ímà	bìé η ^w ímà
e.	descend	sùèè	bìè sùèè	bìé sùèè
f.	lie down	túrù	bìè túrù	bìé túrù
g.	ascend	ùèè	bìé ùèè	bìè ùèè
h.	call	jéndó	bìè jéndò	bìé jéndò

14.8.1 Exceptional Patterns

A number of exceptions to the above described generalizations are listed in (490).

(490) Exceptions

	<u>Gloss</u>	<u>Stem</u>	<u>INC.NEG</u>	<u>CPL.NEG</u>
a.	die	jàà	bìé jàà	bìé jàà-wé
b.	descend	sáá ⁿ	bìè sáá ⁿ	bìé sáw
c.	sit	té-rò	bìè tí-rì	bìé té-rò
d.	show	té-ró	bìè n téré	bìé téré
e.	scrub	gíjà-rà	bìè n gíjà	bìé gíjà
e.	fall	tíbì-rì	bìé tíbì, bìè tí-rì	bìé tíjó
f.	scratch	kògòzò	bìé mí kògòzò	bìé kògòzò mí
f.	search	kùmbòrò	bìé kùmbò η kùmbò/ bìé η kùmbò	bìé kùmbò η kùmbò/ bìé kùmbò

14.9 Summary

There is one negative particle in the language. The negative marker [bie] serves to negate both a noun and a verb phrase. The negative particle may precede or follow a noun in a noun phrase, but it only precedes a verb. In a negated verb phrase, there are two aspects, incomplete and complete. Transitive verbs in Class Two and Three take the [-r] suffix, or the [-d] allomorph, in the negative complete aspect. Class Two verbs take the [-r] suffix in the positive complete aspect as well. Class Three verbs take a nasalized allomorph of the suffix [-r̃] in the positive complete aspect and [-d] in the positive incomplete aspect. In the positive forms, the root without the [-r] suffix only appears in the perfect and perfective. Again, the meaning of [-r] is ambiguous as to how it relates to the TAM, and polar, category. In a negative complete sentence, the transitive nasal is deleted before Class Two and Three verbs. There appears to be a correlation between the number of morae in a negated complete verb and a negated incomplete verb so that the [-r] suffix and the root vowel correlates with the transitive nasal in terms of number of morae in the respective stems. With negated intransitive verbs, the difference in the aspect is tone and/or the [-r] suffix, but no corresponding nasal. The details of the issue of the morae and timing in the sentence is left to future research.

Chapter 15. Conclusion

Bangime is a complex language with an unknown history. The language may have some shared lexical items with surrounding Dogon languages, but shares little else in terms of phonology, morphology, and syntax. Bangime has few productive suffixes on nouns. These include the diminutive and the agentive. The plural is a clitic and the augmentative is a bound morpheme. The underlying tone on nouns is seen before the plural or the augmentative marker. The tonal system on nouns can be categorized into six classes or types. There is a tendency for nouns with more than one syllable to necessitate a change in pitch somewhere in the word so that monosyllabic nouns may surface with level tones but polysyllabic words may not. Syllable structure is also restricted so that a minimal word consists of two morae, and a maximal word is three, light syllables. Most bisyllabic words have either a heavy initial or heavy final syllable, but not both. Potential vowel harmony processes are neutralized by the laxing of mid vowels before approximant [r], velar [g], and nasals. Diphthongs often occur in lieu of long vowels and consist of vowels of different heights or even opposing [ATR] values.

Compounding is not a productive means of creating new lexical items in Bangime. Instead, genitive constructions, [X's Y], are used in lieu of mono-morphemic lexical items, and in many cases describe flora and fauna terms.

Adjectives follow the noun they describe. The plural marker is a clitic which then follows the adjective. The tone of the noun does not influence the adjective, and the plural clitic, which receives a polar tone, is opposite that of the adjective, not the noun stem. Quantifiers, however, precede the plural clitic. The definite marker and the possessive pronouns precede the noun. Both affect the tones on the noun stem and are affected by the noun stem as well. There is

a tendency in the language in general to express the first person tonally as a high tone and the third person tonally as a low tone.

Verb stems are categorized into five main classes, based on the behavior of the verb root in the various aspects and tenses in the language. Morphological marking on the verb stem varies among the classes and includes a suffix [r] which is proposed to indicate efferentiality. The only productive suffix on the verb is the causative suffix.

Tense, aspect, and mood is indicated in three ways in a clause: (1) the verb stem is inflected based on its verb class, (2) the placement of the object (if present) varies within the sentence - SOV for incompletive aspects, and SVO for completive ones, and (3) verb particles or auxiliaries either precede or follow the verb stem or the object. Bangime also displays the rare word order OSV in the future tense with an object; this should not be considered the passive since it is the only way to express the future with an object and there is a separate morpheme and process to create the passive mood. There is a contrast between the incompletive aspect and the completive aspect for the markers /daw/ and /kama/ respectively. Further, a contrast exists between the perfect clitic [ké̀], for activity verbs and the stative suffix [wɛ], for stative verbs. Another contrast takes place between a verb stem suffix vowel which is determined through harmony patterns and a high vowel, although what the vowel signifies is yet to be determined.

The subject of a clause may be expressed through a noun, a pronoun, or tone. Even in the presence of a subject marker, tone is marked on the verb stem, the particle, and/or the object noun depending on the tense and the verb involved. There is a tendency again to express the first persons with high tones, the third persons with low tones, and the second persons with low tones as well, but the syllable shape of the verb, the object, and the tense of the sentence all affect the outcome of the placement and the surface distribution of the tones.

Future studies will focus on the tonal effects of persons other than first and third in both possessed noun paradigms and in clauses on the verb and object. The underlying tone of verb roots will also be examined in detail. I hope to discover the function of the [r] suffix in nouns and verbs and narrow the semantic scope of the tense, aspect and mood system. Also, I wish to conduct experiments to discover the function of timing in the deletion of segments. As a much larger goal, I will continue to seek to uncover the origins of Bangime and how it fits into the history of the Dogon people and their language.

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Appendix I: Comparative Wordlists

(data from author and Heath 2013)

	Bangime	Dogon		
1.	mí	mí	1.S	various
2.	à	ú, á	2.S	various
3.	mì	wó	3.S	various
4.	n dé	í, émé	1.pl	various
5.	àà, á-rù	á	2.pl	various
6.	n níí	bé	3.pl	various
7.	káw/kòdò	kó, kó	it	various
8.	káw/kòdò	nóó	this	various
9.	káw/kòdò	kò, kò	that	various
10.	ímà	íní, ínâ, inûw̃, òló	here	various
11.	kéè ⁿ	ěw̃	there	various
12.	jéà/jààrú	àà	who	various
13.	né fĩ ⁿ	ìndzé	what	various
14.	kòdò tè	jǒw lé, jòó lé	where	various
15.	né n nè	bàj jááǎ, bàj jògòó	when	various
16.	nìí/nù mì	áàngà	how	various
		òndí- ~ òndú-,		
17.	béé (káw)	kòdò-ró	not	various
18.	(kí) pá ⁿ	sâ ⁿ , pú	all	various
19.	kíí péé'ré	dʒwá, ségú, sèg-í ⁿ	many	various

20.	màá táà	ntàá–nà	some	various
21.	bîè bóórì	bààlè	few	various
22.	kéè tè	tóó	other	various
				Tebul Ure most
23.	tórè	túrèè	one	languages are [túru]
24.	jìndò	jè–nóó	two	Yanda Dom
25.	tààrù	tààlú	three	Perge Tegu
26.	néè	néèw̃, nìŋjě	four	Bunoge
27.	núndì	nùmí	five	Perge Tegu
28.	(kî) bóřò , bógò	kán, gàrá, mářá, bâj	big	Mombo, Togo Kan
29.	bíéndè	džaléé, mwèè ⁿ	long	Najamba, Ampari
30.	téngó	wájá–ŋgé	wide	Najamba
31.	měè	démé, nímí–jè	heavy	Yorno–So, Najamba
32.	(kírí) dáyàj /kírí–jè	dáyá	small	Gourou and area
33.	dúgí–jè	dùŋgùrí–jè	short	Penange
34.	(kî) kàmbà –rà	èmbú, pèŋgú	narrow	various
		bè –bíélè, bòòrúwè		
35.	bírèbé	gé	thin, little	Yanda Dom, Ampari
36.	kóò	úló, uro	house	Tebul Ure
37.	zìbéé	jè?è wé	person	Tomo Kan
				Jamsay, Perge Tegu,
38.	nniè –rè	jě	woman	Gourou, Togo–Kan
39.	góòⁿ	àřá	man	various

40.	jàá+mbè	ii	child, girl	various
41.	(máá=) p ^{wíè}	jàá	wife	various
42.	(máá=) kándéé	òṅgòró, nògòó	husband	various
43.	nníjà	nàá, nìi	mother	various
				Ben Tey, Bankan–
44.	bóó	bóò	father	Tey
45.	zírìbèè	béíí	animal	Mombo
46.	ṅàmbàrá	ámábá	sheep	Tiranige
47.	bíi ⁿ	bèrú, èřé	goat	Peregue, Gourou
48.	nnàà	nàṅà, nàà	cow	various
49.	ṽíè n kò n ṅòó	nàwà	fish	Toro Tegu
50.	dóréè	níí	bird	various
51.	kùrìzèé	íínjé	dog	Tiranige
52.	sémà	sémá	louse	Dogul Dom, etc.
53.	kéréndé kéè	lùgèrèè	snake	Tomo Kan
54.	d ^{wàà} , d ^{wàè}	tìmàá, tìmè	tree	various
55.	bùřá	bíéré, bágá	stick	various
56.	d ^{wáá} m bìé	tìmè–íí ⁿ	fruit	various
57.	búróù	síí	seed	various
58.	p ^{wíèⁿ}	pùněn	leaf	Najamba
				Jamsay, Nanga,
59.	zî ⁿ	cééṅ, wèèrî, dîl	root	Yanda Dom
60.	zàgà	kòkòó	bark	Togo–Kan

61.	tʷíí ⁿ	kúró	flower bud/flower	various
62.	gǔ́zè+è	gú–gúró	grass, weeds	Togo–Kan
63.	bójéè	bóólè	rope	Bunoge, various
64.	kíŋgèè	gùdzú	skin	all
65.	nɣàw ~ ɣòó	nàwá, nàmá, nòwó	meat	all Tomo Kan, Tebul
66.	zî	ɲíí, jènjé	blood	Ure
67.	nnòòrè	kírá, gòògè	bone	all, Penange
68.	ɲʷìè	ně–ɲgó, nǔɲ	oil	Najamba, various
69.	kúú ⁿ	tàrú	egg	Toro Tegu
70.	síráá	círá	horn	Toro Tegu
71.	tíí ⁿ	dílò	tail	Tiranige, etc.
72.	kúɸì	kùjá	hair	Bankan–Tey
73.	dégè	kúú ⁿ sùgú, sùgùrù,	head	various
74.	tàɲà	sùɲùnù	ear – see nose	various
75.	gìré	sííbíè	eye	various
76.	súmbí–rì	cíní	nose	various
77.	nóò	nòó	mouth	Nanga
78.	n nóó n síí ⁿ	ínɲì, ìn	teeth	various
79.	nóó n zèrí	jèrèdè ⁿ	tongue	Tomo Kan
80.	ɲì kwéè ⁿ	nèè síí	finger	Mombo

			foot, leg – see	
81.	b ^w èè	kúwó	shoulder	various
82.	b ^w èè η kúmbíè	kúndú	knee	various
83.	kúwò	ká–kárú	wing, shoulder	Mombo
84.	kóór ^é é	kûl\ kûl, b ^è ré	belly	Najamba, various
85.	bórbórdè, kòfî–ηò kúrúbè	dzùηó	guts	Najamba, Togo–Kan
86.	k ^w à	kòró	neck	Jamsay and various
87.	súqè	ìrí, èsè	breast	various
88.	vìmmè	cénè	heart	Jamsay
89.	kúrí kìng ^é é	kíné	liver	Yorno–So
90.	nnìé–rè	nèé	drink	various
91.	dì–á	jòò jè, jéé–rí, lí	eat	Ampari, Toro Tegu
			chew, bite,	
92.	támbà	támbá	scorpion sting sb	all
		tòndzî tóndzî, tùrè ⁿ –		
93.	tú ^z ú–rù/rì	dzì tùré	spit	Nanga, various
94.	nèéndí	gùló, úló, ùlò–lí	vomit	various
				Tommo–so and
95.	níírù	nínnú nínné	breathe	related
			laughter, cause to	
96.	m ^m áà	màndúù, màndám	laugh	Najamba
97.	bòndó	ómòò	alive	Tebul Ure
98.	z ^á à	dòò, tíwó, nuwò	die	Ampari, various

99.	ɸùúr-á	ɖǵâ	kill	various
100.	kóórì	kòmbó tá	war	Jamsay area
101.	sísóyò/kéréndì	dànní	hunt	various
102.	dègé	lágá	hit	Jamsay area
103.	jàg-á	jògó	cut	Yorno-so
104.	péréndé, kóřò	pélsú, káwrá	split	Toro Tegu, various
105.	kǒgójà	kóndǵó	scratch yourself	Tommo-So, various
		gàndǵá, gùló,		
106.	kíndù	wàndǵá, gúdzó	dig	various
107.	ɸwò mé nà/ɸwò mé ná wòrè	dáwé	travel	various
108.	ɸwó ⁿ	jój	walk	Perge Tegu
109.	tìgè-ré	dúgùrè	run	Mombo, Tiriange Bankan-Tey, Tebul Ure, Yanda Dom,
110.	nòò	wó\\wá	come (see go)	Najamba
111.	gíjè n sèrè	bèrè-cédǵè cédǵé	lie	all
112.	térò	dìŋé	sit (see stand)	all
113.	dínè	íjé, igé, ii	stand, stop	various
114.	gòmbíjé	kígíljè, gòŋó	turn	Mombo, Toro Tegu
115.	tìjò, tíbì	tíbé	fall	Penange
116.	nnáw, ní	ów, ní	give	Toro Tegu, Ben Tey
117.	ɸnáw	áw\\áwá	take	Toro Tegu
118.	sîè	ìbíé	take, catch	Tebul Ure

			rub – massage	
			deeply sb,	
			stimulating	
119.	gíjàrà	gàyá/pára	muscles	various
120.	púg-ù	mòg-ú	wash	various
121.	júmbá-rà	jumba, árá, dźùmbé	pull large things	various
122.	tíngá-rá	dàmbá	push	various
123.	guɸ-i	gúdzé	throw	Mombo area
124.	bàà	mòó	tie	Bankan Tey
125.	síí	kújé, píjé	sew	various
126.	ɲíjò	nìgìlè, núgó	count	Najamba and various
127.	nníḡá, dígà	gáá	say, talk	various
128.	ɲɸwéè	nùḡú, nùḡó, nùḡé	sing	various
129.	sáḡà	cèná cénú	play	various
130.	píndò pìndò	pír-ii pír-íí-jà	swell	various
			sun (but see	
131.	nnèè (nnié)	nì-níí	‘day’)	Jamsay
132.	ɸíé	wéè	moon	Mombo
133.	tòrè+mé, tòrò	tóró, tònòlò-j	star	various
134.	ɸíè	nî	water	various
				Ben Tey, Bankan–
				Tey, Nanga,
135.	jóò ⁿ	jàrí, àjăn	rain	Najamba

136.	nḡóómbè	gòndòlò	river, pond	various
137.	dèwò	dé	lake	Toro Tegu
138.	gégḡḡè	mèndḡḡé, mèndḡḡé gè	salt	Ampari
139.	nímbè	sì-sǒm, sù-sǒm	sand	Jamsay
140.	kúrí	kùlé-ḡ-kùlè	dust	Bunoge
141.	gàzè ⁿ	ádúná, àdúřú	world	all
		òrò òrò gé, pòndù,		Ampari, Bunoge,
142.	póórò	kùrùwó	cloud	various
143.	zòò ⁿ	jàrí, àḡḡán	sky, rain	Nanga, Najamba
144.	pévé-rè	jéjéřé	wind, air	Togo-Kan
145.	bíré n jìé	kúmbè	smoke	various
146.	bíréè	gèní	fire	Mombo
147.	síè	tèḡḡḡè	firewood	various
148.	tíḡḡè	dwéé, dwéè	ashes	Mombo, Ampari
149.	siwo	símbié	grill, burn	various
150.	zèmbié	èḡḡìḡì èḡḡìḡì gé	road	Ampari
151.	símèè	céémbè	mountain	Tiranige
152.	b ^w íé	bómbè	red	Bunoge, Penange
153.	símà	símà	white	Bunoge
154.	póó'ré	jòrdè, jòòlè	black	Penange, Bunoge
155.	zìé	jánjá, digé, bàà dèné	night	various
		dèřḡḡ, dèḡḡḡè ⁿ , gèè ⁿ		
156.	nnié	nì, gèèdèn	day	Tiranige area

157.	bíí ⁿ	àãà–kúsú, àãà–gúsú	year	various
158.	jímbò	tòm, tòmbo	cold	various Yanda Dom,
159.	pééré	ségín, èsí ⁿ	a lot	Najamba
160.	káraá	kàlá, kàndá	new	all
161.	kááwá	káámnó, káánú	old	Mombo, Penange
162.	gáw ⁿ	gàaná	good, easy	all
163.	jáŋgà	jáálá	bad	Mombo
164.	kíwù	kìré	difficult	Togo Kan
165.	mòyó	gòmú	rotten	various Jamsay area, Dogul
166.	dìŋgí	lógò, gíŋnù	dirty, trash	Dom
167.	téè	tèndóò\\tèndéè	straight	Najamba
168.	múŋgúdúmè/(kíi) bíŋgíríè	dúndúlé	round	Mombo
169.	(à bã ⁿ màà nó) déri	érí	sharp	Nanga
170.	móù	dùnú	dull	Toro Tegu, etc.
171.	mírò	òlú, órùm	smooth	Toro Tegu, etc.
172.	tóndú	tèmbóò\\tèmbíéè	wet	Najamba
173.	kòò ⁿ	kúnú kúnó	dry	Yanda Dom
174.	kéré	bèrú	near	Toro Tegu
175.	ƣúndù	wàgá, wágù	far	all
176.	síbéè	ŋěj	right	various
177.	bàrà (n nì)	bàřřjà	left	all

178.	gùrù	bórò	under	Togo Kan
179.	ŋ kòò	kù	inside	Toro Tegu
180.	séné	dè	if	all
181.	kà jéro	sábù	because	all (borrowed)
182.	(màá) nî	íní	name	Mombo

Further Possible Borrowings between Bangime and Dogon

	<u>Bangime</u>	<u>Dogon</u>	<u>Gloss</u>	<u>Source Dogon Language</u>
1.	kíí ⁿ	kíí ⁿ	canoe	Mombo, Bunoge, Penange
2.	dóò	dóò	paper	Dogul Dom
3.	dúgú	dùgú, dògù	forest	Tiranige, Bunoge
4.	kómè	kómé, kómbè	slave	Tiranige, Bunoge
5.	tɔŋɔɔ	təŋəʔó, tóónò	truth	Togo Kan, Mombo
6.	kámábā-rā	kámá	mash	Tommo-So
7.	bóŋgó-rò	bóŋòò	belly button	
8.	dágá+jè	dágáj, dáyá	little	Nanga, Gourou
9.	túgí-rì	tógó-gí	pierce	Nanga
10.	múnd-á	mùnd-ó	braid	Nanga
11.	kàá-rà	káá	shave	Tommo-so
			sweep, wipe off	
12.	gíjé-ndí	géén-jè	sweat, mud	Penange, Mombo
13.	té-ró	tééré	show	Jamsay
14.	n tàà	n tàá-nà	some	Penange
15.	nnàá	əʔóó	wilderness	various
16.	vòó	bǎn	horse	Najamba
17.	póò ⁿ	pàná	meal	Gourou

Toro Tegu, and Jamsay, Perge Tegu, Togo–Kan, Yorno–So,				
18.	jéà	àjé, àà	who	Tommo–So, Tiranige, Mombo, Penange
19.	nû	àjí	how	Toro Tegu
20.	nníé	émé, írí	milk	various, Togo–Kan
21.	kúú ⁿ	ébà	market	
22.	né n nè	ààřá	when	Tebul Ure, Yanda Dom
23.	bóó ⁿ	bòló	millet porridge	Toro Tegu
24.	síí ⁿ	kíndó	shade, shadow	Bankan–Tey, etc
25.	kéè ⁿ	kèèndê also tugu	cheek	Nanga
26.	tíé	tèsí	grandmother	Nanga
27.	n niè	jiřé	rainy season	Jamsay, etc
28.	gíí ⁿ	gũn also tun	back	Jamsay
29.	k ^w éè	géè ⁿ	tree bark	Perge Tegu
30.	túú ⁿ	dùró, dòó	thorn	Nanga, Tebul Ure
31.	tíí	dèè ⁿ	sibling older	Togo–Kan
32.	tèè	dùwó	forge	all
33.	tág–à/ù	dàgá	agree	various
34.	tóó ⁿ	kòřò, tòndí, kéérù	money	Tebul Ure, Bunoge
35.	tóò ⁿ	kóónò	blacksmith	Bunoge
36.	kóórò	tóórù, tówrù	idol, fetish	various
37.	ímà	ìní	here	Toro Tegu
38.	kùú ⁿ	dòó, kéú	waist	Nanga, Tommo–so
39.	bìròndó	pòròd–júú	corn	Jamsay

40.	kóó tè	jǒw lé	where	Jamsay Ben Tey, Jamsay, Togo–Kan, Yorno–So, Ibi–so, Tommo–So,
41.	bánǵà	banga, bààǵí–jé	Banga race	Yanda Dom
42.	kúuì	kùjá	hair	Bankan–Tey
43.	n nî kóèn sògójè	nàà–sìì ⁿ kǒwǹrìi	finger nail	Ben Tey
44.	dégé kùjù kúuì	kùjá	hair head	Bankan–Tey
		kú\\kó, gùmbó,	break smth or smth	
45.	kóndò	gùmó–\\gùmó	break	Jamsay area
46.	sígá	sáré, úsú\\úsó	ask	Mombo, Jamsay
47.	níí ŋ k ^w éè ⁿ sógójì	nùmò–kǒrǹí	finger nail, toenail	Togo–Kan
48.	vòò	wòrú	field	Perge Tegu, Togo–Kan
49.	múgúndú	púgúdzù	squeeze	Togo–Kan
50.	pàà ⁿ	sâ ⁿ	all	Togo–Kan
		kííni\\kííné, núw ^{nó}	ignite light switches,	
51.	tééndé	tó:ló, núw ^{nó} tán–gá	fire,	Togo–Kan, Perge Tegu
52.	nde	ne	plural vs singular	Yorno–So
53.	tíndè	tìrè–[áj=né]	grandfather	Yorno–so
54.	kùuìé	kwéj	calabash	Tomo Kan
		ěw̃, bèréré\\bèr–		
55.	kéè ⁿ	gó\\bèr–mbó	there	Penange, Tebul Ure
56.	nórè	núúndó, nó	hear	Tiriange, Tebule Ure
57.	sòò ⁿ	sòŋ	shirt clothing	Yanda Dom

			turn about, allow	
58.	gómbiè	gìgíl\\gìgilè pírí-j\\pìrì-jè, pílí-	(non-volitional)	Najamba
59.	píndó	j\\pìlì-jè	bird, airplane glide	Najamba
60.	pírúndú	íbí-jé	fear	Najamba
61.	píndù	púló	unbraid, untangle	Tiranige, etc
			good afternoon/good	Bunoge, Penange, Tiranige,
62.	tija	tíjá	evening	Mombo
63.	dámbá	dʒwéé	a lot for inanimates	Mombo, Penange
			sweep – wipe off	
64.	gíjé-ndí	géén-jè	sweat, mud	Penange, Mombo
65.	kéè tè	tóó	other	Penange, Mombo
66.	nìì	nèè	hand	Penange, Mombo
67.	tìgè-ré	dúgùrè	run	Mombo, Tiriange
68.	təŋəŋə	təŋəŋó, tóónò	truth	Togo Kan, Mombo
69.	tíqè	dwéé, dwéè	ashes	Mombo, Ampari
70.	bié	bíéé, bíéé gè	baby	Ampari
71.	kíí á nò, kìzà	kíjè, kíjá	respond	Bunoge, Penange, Kindige
72.	do ɲama	dóójè	sleep	Bunoge
73.	gúzè káráá	kòjí kàjì	green	Bunoge
74.	tʷéé ⁿ	têj	basket small	Bunoge
75.	biè bórì	bààlè	few	Penange

			lay smth or sme down,	
			put down, lie	
76.	bířá	bìjé	something down	various
77.	bóŋgó-rò	bóŋdò	belly button	
78.	bùù ⁿ	púřá, púná	millet powder	
79.	bùwó	bíérú	herd	
80.	dééré	dèndzì, éří	sweet	various
81.	dééré	woru	cultivate	various
82.	d ^w é+è m bùù ⁿ	pòrò-púnà	yellow	various
83.	karaa	jangu kana	read	all
84.	né sù ⁿ	ndzè	what	various
85.	nniè	ŋáá, niŋáá, jéŋgì	yesterday	various
86.	ŋhàw ~ ñòó	nàwá, nàmá, nòwó	meat	all
87.	pàà	kóóm, pampare	cave	various, Fulfulde
88.	péréè	kèwí ⁿ	key	various
89.	píí	niŋé	sauce	various
90.	píjò ⁿ	ŋíŋù, gìŋú	smell	various
91.	píjù	súdzó, píwé	blow	various
			pick a fruit or	
92.	póró-ndí	pogo	vegetable	various
93.	pújìè	péjé	tear clothing	various
94.	sáŋà	cèná cénú\\céná	play	various
95.	sígà	éjè	clean	various

96.	síjéndè	pjè ⁿ	old, worn out	all
97.	sórè	džùgó	know	various
98.	témbìè	tembe	small rock	various
99.	téè	nàà kéndè	palm	various
100.	tinda	tóró, túmnó	start	various
101.	tìndè	kúřú, tún	put	various
102.	tíè síí	si te	NEG – reverse	Bamana
103.	túwè+è	dòndíjè, nì–nìwé	cat domestic	various
104.	jǎgú	mǎǎ	dry	various
105.	jè–rò	kářú\\kářá	do	all
106.	zérò	ígé, íngjéè	get up	various
107.	zie	jǐí, jéé\\jéé	see	various
108.	zìé	jěj, ìjé	honey	various
109.	lòṅgá	lówóṅgà	collective hunt	Bunoge

Appendix III: Nouns by Categories

Tonal Type One: /H/

	<u>Gloss</u>	<u>Singular</u>	<u>Plural</u>	<u>Augmentative</u>	<u>Segmental type</u>
a.	father	bóó HH	bóó=ndè/rú HH.L	n/a	1
b.	milk	nníé HH	nníé=ndè HH.L	n/a	1
c.	sibling (older)	téé HH	téé=ndè HH.L	n/a	1
d.	forest	dúgú H.H	dúgú=nè H.H.L	dúgú-bóřò H.H.H.L	1
e.	soap	póó'ké HH.M	póóké=ndè HH.H.L	————	1
f.	canoe	kíí ⁿ HH	kí=ndè H.L	————	2
g.	shade	síí ⁿ HH	síí=ndè HH.L	síí ⁿ ténjò n/a	2
h.	mongoose	síí ⁿ HH	síí=ndè HH.L	síí-bòřò HH.L.L	2
i.	tail	tíí ⁿ HH	tíí=ndè HH.L	————	2
j.	basket (small)	t ^w éé ⁿ HH	t ^w éé=ndè HH.L	————	2
k.	thorn	túú ⁿ HH	túú=ndè HH.L	túú ⁿ -bóřò HH.H.L	2
l.	egg	kúú ⁿ HH	kúú=ndè HH.L	kúú ⁿ -bóřò HH.H.L	2
m.	pestle (large)	kóó ⁿ HH	kóó=ndè HH.L	kóó ⁿ -bóřò HH.H.L	2

n.	money	tóó ⁿ HH	tóó=ndè HH.L	——	2
o.	cream	bóó ⁿ HH	bóó=ndè HH.L	——	2
p.	fence	sáá ⁿ HH	sáá=ndè HH.L	——	2
q.	friend	páá ⁿ HH	páá=ndè HH.L	——	2
r.	amulet (waist)	túmí H.H	túmí=ndè H.H.L	——	3
s.	fan	jí-rí-ṅgí H.H.H	jíṅgí=ndè H.H.L	——	6

Tonal Type Two: /L/

	<u>Gloss</u>	<u>Singular</u>	<u>Plural</u>	<u>Augmentative</u>	<u>segmental type</u>
a.	arm	nnì LL	nnì=ndé LL.H	nnì-bóřó LL.H.H	1
b.	field	vòò LL	vòò=ndé LL.H	vòò-bóřó LL.H.H	1
c.	cow	nnàà LL	nnàà=ndé LL.H	nnàà-bóřó LL.H.H	1
d.	tree	d ^w àà LL	d ^w àà=ndé LL.H	d ^w àà-bóřó LL.L.H	1
e.	ear	tàṅà L.L	tàṅà=ndé L.L.H	tàṅà-bóřó LL.H.H	1
f.	hangar	zàṅà L.L	zàṅà=ndé L.L.H	——	1
g.	fonio	gàndzà L.L	gàndzà=ndé L.L.H	gàndzà-bóřó LL.H.H	1
h.	false	ṅàmbà	ṅàmbà=ndé	——	1

	sorghum	L.L	L.L.H		
i.	shirt clothing	sòḡ ⁿ L	sò=ndé L.H	————	2
j.	heart (animals) (same as Ronier)	tì ⁿ L	tì=ndé L.H	tì–bòřó LL.LH	2
k.	mouse	nnì ⁿ LL	nnì=ndé LL.H	nnì–bòřó LL.H.H	2
l.	mosquito	b ^w iè LL	b ^w iè=ndé LL.H	b ^w iè–bòřó LL.H.H	3
m.	leg	b ^w èè LL	b ^w èè=ndé LL.H	b ^w èè–bòřó LL.H.H	3
n.	termite	èiè LL	èiè=ndé LL.H	èiè–bòřó LL.H.H	3
o.	sun	nnèè LL	nnèè=ndé LL.H	nnèè–bòřó LL.H.H	3
p.	rainy season	nniè LL	nniè=ndé LL.H	nniè–bòřó LL.L.H	3
q.	heart	vimmè L.L	vimmè=ndé L.L.H	————	3
r.	door	mmiřà L.L	mmiřà=ndé L.L.H	mmìnnà–bòřó L.L.L.H	5
s.	tomorrow	bòrò L.L	bòrò=ndé L.L.H	n/a	5
t.	trick	nàmbàrà L.L.L	nàmbàrà= <u>n</u> é L.L.L.H	————	5
u.	window frame	tàgà–rà L.L.L	tàgà=ndé L.L.H	————	6
v.	stomach	kóóréé HH.HH	kòòrè=ndé LL.L.H	kòrè–bòřó L.L.LH	6

Tonal Type Three: /H/ ~ [HL]

	<u>Gloss</u>	<u>Singular</u>	<u>Plural</u>	<u>Augmentative</u>	<u>segmental type</u>
a.	PPI of Demangari	tóò HL	tó=ndè H.L	————	1
b.	village	díjà H.L	díjá=ndè H.H.L	————	1
c.	neck	kwà H.L	kwá=ndè H.H.L	kwá-bóřò H.H.H.L	1
d.	house	kóò H.L	kóó=ndè H.H.L	kóó-bóřò H.H.H.L	1
e.	paper	dóò H.L	dóó=ndè H.H.L	dóó-bóřò H.H.H.L	1
f.	house	kóò H.L	kóó=ndè H.H.L	kóó-bóřò H.H.H.L	
g.	anvil	tótò H.L	tótó=ndè H.H.L	tótó-bóřò H.H.H.L	1
h.	trunk (tree)	tíngà H.L	tíngá=ndè H.H.L	————	1
i.	log	kúndù H.L	kúndú=ndè H.H.L	————	1
j.	goat	bíí ⁿ HL	bíí=ndè HH.L	bíí-bóřò HH.H.L	2
k.	scythe	kóó ⁿ HL	kóó=ndè HH.L	kóó ⁿ -bóřò HH.H.L	2
l.	leaf	p ^{wíé} ⁿ H.L	p ^{wéé} ⁿ =ndè H.H.L	p ^{wíé} ⁿ -bóřò H.H.H.L	2
m.	thing	kéè HH	kéé=ndè HH.L	kéé-bóřò HH.L.L	3

n.	water	qíè H.L	qíé=ndè H.H.L	n/a	3
o.	luggage, belongings	kíè HL	kíé=ṅè HH.L	————	3
p.	cheek	kéè HL	kéé=ndè HH.L	————	3
q.	bark	k ^w éè HL	k ^w éé=ndè HH.L	————	3
r.	palm	téè HL	téé=ndè HH.L	————	3
s.	head	dégè H.L	dégé=ndè H.H.L	dégé–bòrò H.H.L.L	3
t.	slave	kómè H.L	kómé=ṅè H.H.L	————	3
u.	scorpion	nám̀bè H.L	nám̀bé=ndè H.H.L	————	3
v.	leopard	ṅórkéè H.HL	ṅórké=ndè H.H.L	————	3
w.	grass, weeds	gǔjéè LH.HL	gǔjéé=ndè LH.HH.L	————	3
x.	seed	déémè HH.L	déémé=ṅè H.HH.L	————	3
y.	eye	síbíè HH.HL	síbíé=ndè HH.HH.L	————	3
z.	rope	bójéè HH.L	bójéé=ndè HH.H.L	————	3
aa.	adze	dóóbè HH.L	dóóbé=ndè HHH.L	————	3

bb.	salt	gέngíè H. HL	gέngíé=ndè H.HH.L	——	3
cc.	bag	zέmbíè H.HL	zέmbé=ndè H.H.L	——	3
dd.	change	góm̂biè H.HL	góm̂'bié=ndè H.MM.L	——	3
ee.	shroud, trap	kárángíè H.H.HL	kárángé=ndè H.H.H.L	——	5
ff.	beetle	kóómbè HH.L	kóómbé=ndè HHH.L	——	3
gg.	clay	dóróm̂è H.H.L	dóróm̂é=ndè H.H.H.L	——	3
hh.	bracelet, ring	dúrúm̂è H.H.L	dúrúm̂é=ndè H.H.H.L	——	3
ii.	patas monkey	kárám̂è H.H.L	kárám̂é=ndè H.H.H.L	——	3
jj.	millet	dé+mèè H.L.L	dé+'mí=ndè H.M.L	——	4
kk.	cowry shell	tó+mèè H.L.L	tó+'mí=ndè H.M.L	tóm+èè-bóřò H.LL.H.L	4
ll.	trimming ax	dóbí+è H.H.L	dóbé+'mí=ndè H.H.M.L	——	4
mm.	bird	dóré+è H.H.L	dóré+'mí=ndè H.H.M.L	——	4
nn.	bullfrog	bóm+bóè H.H.L	bómbóé+'mí=dè H.M.M.H.L	——	4
oo.	hare (all forms)	gírímè H.H.L	gírímé+'mí=ndè H.H.H.M.L	——	4

pp.	large basket	kúgú+mè H.H.L	kúgú+mí=ndè H.H.H.L	——	4
qq.	blacksmith's mallet	sí ⁿ bórè+è HH H.H.L	sí ⁿ bórè+'mí=ndè HH H.H.M.L	——	4
rr.	slit-faced bat	gérí+è H.HL	gérí+'mí=ndè H.H.M.L	——	4
ss.	bird (sp.)	tó n tórèè H H.HL	tó n tórè+'mí=ndè H H.H.M.L	——	4
tt.	onion	záyé+è H.H.L	záyá+'mí=ndè H.H.M.L	——	4
uu.	machete	párí H.H	páré=ndè H.H.L	——	5
vv.	harvest	sérè H.L	séré=ndè H.H.L	sérè-bòṛò H.L.L.L	5
ww.	bee	mmírò H.L	mmíró=ndè H.H.L	mmíró-bòṛò H.H.H.L	5
xx.	seed kind	búruù H.HL	búruú=ndè H.HH.L	——	5
yy.	cloud	póórò HH.L	póóró=ndè HH.H.L	póórò-bòṛò HH.L.L.L	5
zz.	work	wáárì H.HL	wáárí=ndè H.H.L	——	5
aaa.	animal	zírìbèè LH.H.LL	zírìbèé=ndè LH.H.LH.L	zírìbè-bòṛò LH.H.L.L.L	
bbb.	donkey	kórónjò H.L	kórónjò=ndè H.H.H.L	kórónjò-bòṛò H.H.H.H.L	5
ccc.	tied millet	bórónkò H.L	bórónkò=ndè H.H.M.L	bórónkò-bòṛò H.H.H.H.L	5

ddd.	phantom	máragá+è H.H.H.L	máragá=ndè H.H.H.L	———	4
eee.	carry on head	είέ-rè H.H.L	είέ=ndè H.H.L	———	6
fff.	thigh, falcoln	tónγó-rò H.H.L	tónγó=ndè H.H.L	———	6
ggg.	basket	kó-ró-gò H.L	kógó=ndè H.H.H.L	kógó-bóřò H.H.H.H.L	6
hhh.	dove	pívé-rè H.L	pívé=ndè H.H.H.L	pívéré-bóřò H.H.H.H.L	6
iii.	container	págá-rà H.H.L	págá=ndè H.H.L	págá-bóřò H.H.H.L	6
jjj.	spit	tújú-rù H.H.L	túqú=ndè H.H.L	———	6
kkk.	nose	súmbí-rì H.L	súmbì=ndè H.H.H.L	———	6
lll.	belly button	bónγó-rò H.H.L	bónγwíé=ndè, bónγ'gó=ndè	———	6
mmm.	ditch	pómbó-rò H.H.L	pómbó=ndè H.H.L	———	6
nnn.	bed (bamboo)	sámhá-rà H.H.L	sámhá=ndè H.H.L	———	6
ooo.	dry place	tómbó-rò H.H.L	tómbó=ñè H.H.L	———	6
ppp.	courtyard	bémbé-rè H.H.L	bémbé=ndè H.H.L	———	6

Tonal Type Four: /L/ ~ [LH]

	<u>Gloss</u>	<u>Singular</u>	<u>Plural</u>	<u>Augmentative</u>	<u>segmental type</u>
a.	pick axe	dà má L.H	dàmà=ndé L.L.H	dàmà-bòrò L.L.L.H	1
b.	waist	kùú ⁿ LH	kù=ndé L.H	——	2
c.	child	jàá+mbè LH.L	jàà=ndé LL.H	jàá+mbé-bóřó LH.H.H.H	3
d.	shoe	kòòké L.L.H	kòòkè=ndé LL.L.H	kòòké-bóřó LL.L.H	3
e.	person (compare with animal)	zìbèé L.HH	zìbè=ndé LL.L.H	zìbíé-bóřó L.HL.H.H	3
f.	road	zèmbíè L.HL	zèmbè=ndé L.L.H	zìmbèè-bóřó L.LL.H.H	3
g.	letter	sàgòmé L.L.H	sàgòmè=ndé LL.L.H	——	3
h.	rock	símèè H.LL	símèè=ndé H.LL.H	símèè-bòřó H.LL.L.H	3
i.	dog	kùrì+jèé L.L.LH	kùrì+mì=ndé L.L.L.H	kùrèè-bóřó H.LL.H.H	4
j.	star	tòrè+mé L.L.LH	tòrò+mì=ndé L.L.L.H	——	4
k.	dog	kùrìjè+é L.L.LH	kùrì+mì=ndé L.L.L.H	——	4
l.	fish (sp)	ṣògò+wé L.H.H	ṣògò+mì=ndé L.L.L.H	——	4
m.	door	mìřà L.L	mìřà=ndé L.L.H	mìnnà-bòřó L.L.L.H	5
n.	chain	zòrògù L.L.H	zòrògù=ndé L.L.L.H	——	5

o.	sheep	ηàmbà-rá L.L.H	ηàmbà=ndé L.L.H	ηàmbà-bòřó L.L.L.H	6
p.	buttock	tùkú-rú L.H.H	tù-kù=ndé L.L.H	————	6

Tonal Type Five: /LH/

	<u>Gloss</u>	<u>Singular</u>	<u>Plural</u>	<u>Augmentative</u>	<u>Segmental Type</u>
a.	wilderness	nàá LH	nàá=ndè LH L	n/a	1
b.	horse	vòó LH	vòó=ndè LH.L	vòó-bóřò LH.H.L	1
c.	bellows	pùùpá LL.H	pùùpá=ndè LL.H.L	————	1
d.	goat bag	tòpáá L.HH	tòpáá=ndè L.HH.L	tòpáá-bóřò L.HH.H.L	1
e.	plank	kòó ⁿ LH	kòó=ndè LH.L	————	2
f.	back, trunk	gìí ⁿ LH	gìí=ndé LH.L	————	2
g.	oil, spleen	n η ^w íé LH	n η ^w íé=ndè LH.L		3
h.	world	gàžé ⁿ L.H	gàžé=ndè L.H.L	————	3
q.	calabash	kùùìé LL.H	kùùìé=ndè LH.L	————	3
i.	metal	gèngé L.H	gèngé=ñè LH.L	gèngé-bóřò L.H.H.L	3
j.	crocodile	gèngíé L.HL	gèngé=ñè LH.L	gèngé-bóřò L.L.H.L	3

k.	owl	gũmbí L.H.H	gùmbí+'mí=ndè L.H.M.L	——	4
l.	karite tree	wùré+è L.H.L	wùré+mí=ndè L.H.H.L	——	4
m.	stick, medicine	bùřá L.H	bùřá=ndè L.H.L	——	5
n.	corn	bìròndó LH	bìròndó=ndè LH L	bìròndó–bóřò L.L.H.H.L	5
o.	woman	nniè–rè LH.L	nniè=ndè LH.L	——	6
p.	sheep	ṅàmbà–rá L.L.H	ṅàmbá=ndè LH.L	ṅàmbà–rá–bóřò L.L.H.H.L	6

Tonal Type Six: /HL/

	<u>Gloss</u>	<u>Singular</u>	<u>Plural</u>	<u>Augmentative</u>	<u>Segmental Type</u>
a.	mother	nníjà HL	nníjà=ndé HL.H	——	1
b.	shadow, image, photograph	gířò H.L	gířò=ndé H.L.H	——	1
c.	rain, sky	zòḁ ⁿ H.L	zò=ndé L.H	zò ⁿ –bóřó L.H.H	2
d.	man	góḁ ⁿ HL	góḁ=ndé HL.H	góḁ ⁿ –bóřó HL.H.H	2
e.	meal	póḁ ⁿ HL	póḁ=ndé HL.H	póḁ ⁿ –bóřó HL.H.H	2
f.	bud/ flower	tʷíḁ ⁿ HL	twí=ndé HL.H	——	2
g.	branch, roof support	kíè HL	kíè=ndé HL.H	kíè–bóřó HL.H.H	3

h.	ashes	tíyè H.L	tíyè=ndé H.L.H	——	3
i.	chicken	súyìè H.LL	súyìè=ndé H.LL.H	——	3
j.	step	góòmpá HL.H	góòmpá=ṅé HL.L.H	——	3
k.	hat	gíwàrà H.H.L	gíwàrà=ṅé H.H.L.H	——	5
l.	pidgeon	wúúrè H.H.L	wúúrè=ndé H.H.L.H	——	5
m.	wasp hornless ram	gúmbá-rà H.H.L	gúmbà=ndé H.L.H	gúmbá-rà-bóřò H.H.L.H.L	6
n.	resources	námbo-rò H.H.L	námbo=ndé H.H.L.H	——	6
o.	skullcap	bómbó-rò H.H.L	bómbò=ndé H.H.L.H	——	6
p.	face, forehead	tégó-rò H.H.L	tégò=ndé H.H.L.H	——	6
heart, mouth	bìmmè	bìmmè=ndé	nnóò	nnóò=ndé	
	L	LH	H	HLH	
throat, ear	kwà	kwà=ndé	tàṅà	tàṅà=ndé	
	HL	HL	L	LH	
nose, eye	súmbì	súmbì=ndé	sífíè	sífíé=ndé	
	H	HL	HL	HL	
stomach	kòríé	kòrì=ndé	súyè	súyé=ndé	

breast	LH	LH	HL	HL
beard, hair	sémbò/sámbó	sémbó=ndè	dègè kúqí	dègè kúqí=ndè
	HL	HL	L H	L HL
earth, sky	gùwíè	gùwé=ndè	ḡára n dógò	ḡára n dógó=ndè
	LHL	LHL	HL	HL
genitiles	guru		bóḡwíè	bóḡwíé=ndè
belly button			HL	HL
thigh, calf	tóḡgórò	tóḡgóró=ndè	bùwíè m bórníè	bùwíè m bórníé=ndè
	HL	HL	LHL HL	LHL HL
foot	bùwíè n tíè	bùwíè n tíé=ndè		
	LHL HL	LHL HL		
tongue, teeth	nò n jèrí	nò n jèrí=ndè	nó n sí ⁿ	nó n sí ⁿ =ndè
	LHL	LHL	HL	HL

Appendix IV: Reduplicated Verbs

	<u>Reduplicated Stem</u>	<u>Gloss</u>	<u>Related</u>	<u>Gloss</u>
a.	bàṅgá m bǎṅgà	hold a baby, etc. in your arms	bàṅgá	carry on shoulder
b.	bárágá m bǎrágà mǐ	lie straight		
c.	bímbo bímbo	whisper		
d.	dógòrò n dógòrò	congratulate		
e.	dùuqí dúuqì	dream		
f.	gǎrándzá ṅ gǎrándzá	scrape		
g.	gúndú nà gúndù	whisper		
h.	kámbarā ṅ kámbarà	squeeze	kámbarà	pull out a splinter
i.	kǎṅgò n kǎṅgò	hold something in one's mouth without biting it		
j.	káráá ṅ káráà	read, study	káráà	obtain
k.	kówóndò kówóndò	dry		
l.	kómbó kómbò	pinch		
m.	kúgújá n kúgújà	crumple (paper or clothing)		
n.	kúmbò ṅ kúmbò	search, wander	kúmbò-rò	follow
o.	k ^w aa k ^w aa	beg		
p.	nándá nándà	dent inward		
q.	píndò pìndò	swell		
r.	sàkà n sáká	choke		
s.	júmbá-rà	pull (large things)		
t.	n ṅwímá ṅwímà	twist		
u.	tébé à n tèbè	clap 'pound the palm'		

Appendix V: Chief Texts 1 - 10

Text I: Chief 1

MORPHEMES GLOSS

FREE TRANSLATION

1 ndè màá= =né nii n dá n nò -ò -L tí -rí -H húⁿ báráà
 1.PL.POSS person PL 3.PL ~2 INC T come RV 3 sit -rV- 3 PP Baraa
 bíé η wì .
 NEG ~2 there

In [the time when] our people were coming [to] live [in Bounou], Baraa was not there.

2 bààrà -mí =ndè wòrè -L n jág -à -H nò -ò -L
 Baraa INHAB PL go 3 T cut RV 3 come RV 3

[the] People of Baara went [and] they came [to] cut (settle) [there].

3nii kóó n wó η káàrà -L , pévé -rè bíé nî η káàrà -L
 3.PL CPL ~2 go T find 3 wind -rV- NEG 3.PL T obtain 3

They went [and] they found [the] wind does not get them (the place was not breezy enough).

4 pévé -rè bíé nî N kààrà -L , nii m móò η wì
 wind -rV- NEG 3.PL T obtain 3 3.PL T like.NEG.PRF ~2 there

[the] Wind does not get them [and] they did not like it there.

5 nii kóò n bú -rà nii tìw -ó -H húⁿ .
 3.PL CPL T move out of -rV- 3.PL fall RV 3 PP

They left, they fell (lived) on [there].

6 bààrà gííⁿ hùⁿ nó -ó -H tìw -ó -H húⁿ .
 Baraa behind PP come RV 3 fall RV 3 PP

Bara lived on [there] after [us]. (lit. Bara came to live there on our backs.)

7 báráà gííⁿ hùⁿ nó -ó -H kóó níṅà á fíjòⁿ
 Baraa back PP come RV 3 CPL say now

[we] Came after them, Bara now said.

8 nii ṅ kàà -wá -H máá= -H b^wòòⁿ wàj
 3.PL GEN older -rV- 3 POSS= 1 Bunu PP

[they say] Their age is greater than Bounou's.

9 nii kóó nò -ò -L N kàràà -L à pángá =nè ṅ káá -ró .
 3.PL CPL come RV 3 T find 3 DEF cave PL ~2 DEM DEM.PL

They came [to] find those granaries (referring to the Tellem caves).

10 bóòⁿ kóó jàá -H á gàndà -L dà -L ṅ wì
 Bunu CPL see 3 DEF place 3 INC 3 ~2 there

Bounou saw the place (the Tellem caves) was there.

11 pévé -rè bíé nî N kààrà -L
 wind -rV- NEG 3.PL T find 3

[the] Wind did not find/get them (the place was not breezy enough).

12 à gàndá -L kámbá -rà .
 DEF place DEF tight -rV-

The place [was] [too] narrow.

13 kámá m bú -rà nò -ò -L tíj -ò -H hùⁿ bóòⁿ
 CPL T exit, go out -rV- come RV 3 fall RV 3 PP Bunu

They left [and] came [to] settle at Bounou.

14 bààrà -L kóó nó -ó -H gííⁿ hùⁿ .
 Baraa 3 CPL come RV 3 back PP

Baara came afterwards.

15 kóó nó -ó -H ɥìè -L á tíé -H hùⁿ .
 CPL come RV 3 ascend 3 CHN sit 3 PP

They came [and] ascended to live on [there].

16 kámá ní ñá nii mí kàà -wá -H màá= -H bóòⁿ ŋ wàj
 CPL say 3.PL REFL old -rV- 3 POSS 3 Bunu ~2 PP

They said they are older than Bounou's age.

17 nii mì kàà -wá -H màá= -H bóòⁿ ŋ wàj n dè bwè ŋ kàw
 3.PL REFL old -rV- 3 POSS 3 Bunu ~2 PP 1.PL see.NEG.PRF ~2 3.SG.

Bounou did not see [how] they [could be] older than us.

18 nii húⁿ N káràà n dè
 3.PL PP T find 1.PL

They found us.

Text II: Chief II

1 bàráá –mí =ndè wò jàg -ú –H nàà màà= jàà =ndé η kí
 Baraa INHAB =PL go cut PRF 3 1st PL POSS child =PL ~2 ADP
 náà –H
 wilderness 3

The people of Baraa went [and] attacked our children [in the] wilderness.

2 níí N kóórèè níí N dèg –ú –H síⁿ
 3.PL T war 3.PL T hit PRF 3 RECIP

They made war, they hit each other,

3 há zíⁿ à búúⁿ
 until blood CHN move out of

until blood came out.

4 hájá né màá= jíbè =né η kwà nii η kì
 OK 1st PL POSS person =PL ~2 able 3.PL ~2 thing

OK, our people beat them.

5 hájá dínd –à nìi màá= –H jíbè =né
 OK stop RV 3rd PL POSS 1 person =PL

OK, my people stopped them.

6 jíbèè tóórè há à bààrèmi η –wè
 person one until CHN hurt ~2 STAT

Until one person was hurt.

7 hájá n dígà η kóó n t^wá –ràà Bànìgàrà
 OK ~2 talk ~2 CPL T reach –rV– Bandiagara

OK, [the] talk reached Bandiagara.

8 η wí bún –d –í Bànìgàrà
 ~2 there finish –r– PRF Bandiagara

There [it] finished [in] Bandiagara.

9 hájá dáà bún -d -í Bánigàrà
OK INC finish -r- PRF Bandiagara

OK, [it] was finished [in] Bandiagara.

10 bìⁿ núndí
year five

[for] Five years,

11 à bìⁿ nùndì η kò ,
DEF year five ~2 PP

in the five years,

12 hǎ mǒò síí né màá= kúúⁿ ,
until heal by spitting 1st PL POSS hip

until [the elders] healed our back[s],

13 bìⁿ núndí
year five

five years,

14 nii nii dígà η kó nì màà= wóré
3.PL 3.PL talk ~2 PP 3rd PL POSS go

their talk lasted.

15 ha me tes mínnà .
IRR no where

They were not allowed to go anywhere.

16 há bìⁿ núndí déwⁿ
IRR year five full

Until [five] years was up,

17 nù síè mè =ndé sòy -ò -L
 3.PL take COMP =PL close RV 3

They, [the people] which were taken [and] locked (in jail) [for five years].

TEXT III: Chief III

1 η kaw kì póréré =nè kì pàⁿ
 ~2 DEM thing black =PL thing all

All the Africans,

2 túbùkù n gòmbé -H nnî wòrè -L
 foreigner T allow 3 3.PL go 3

the whites left them go.

3 kì póréré nnî kóó já -n -à n dègé -H.
 thing black 3.PL CPL take -r- RV GEN head 3

[the] African[s] they took care of themselves.

4 bùúⁿ -mì N sié -H bàjà =né kì pàⁿ .
 Bunu INHAB T take 3 person who is of the Banga race =PL thing all

The people of Bounou took control [of] all [the] Bangande people.

5 búúⁿ -mì =ndé màá bààrà -mì =ndé màá= -L dègé
 Bunu INHAB =PL EXIST Baara INHAB =PL POSS 3 head

The people of Bounou inhabitants are the chiefs of the people of Baara (Bounou is the 'capitol' of the Bangande).

6 nnî n òjǎ -L kíjè
 3.PL GEN village 3 seven

[the Bangande] They [are] seven villages.

7 à òjǎ -L kíjè η kàw .
 DEF village DEF seven ~2 DEM

Those seven villages.

8 à túbàkù =nè nnî gòmbé -H à lààm
 DEF foreigner =PL 3.PL allow 3 DEF rule

The whites gave up control [to] them,

9 à kì póóré =nè wàj .
 DEF thing black =PL PP

to the Africans.

10 η kàw jìró díjà pó
 because of that village each

Because of that each village,

11 kóó láàm dégè
 CPL rule head

controlled itself.

12 η kàw bún -d -á -H túbákù =né bùùⁿ .
 ~2 DEM make move out CAUS RV 3 foreigner =PL Bunu

That [is what] [the] whites took out [of] Bounou.

13 hájá díjà pààⁿ kóó láàm á n dégè
 OK village all CPL rule DEF GEN himself/herself

OK, all the villages took control over themselves,

14 kàmá n jìró mì
 because of that PASS

that is what did that.

TEXT IV: Chief IV

1 à pùtá =né nní jìé -H nnî N bán -d -í
 DEF Fulani who enslaved people =PL 3.PL do 3 3.PL T tired CAUS PRF

The Fulani enslavers, they made them tired,

2 à p^wándà =né jáárī
 DEF Fulani =PL very

the Fulani, very much.

3 nnî N káráá -H máà -L pááⁿ .
 3.PL T find 3 POSS 3 all

If they find them,

4 nní màá= -H kwà N jág -à -L
 3.PL POSS 3 neck T cut RV 3

they [will] slaughter them.

5 hájá à pùndà -L =né
 OK DEF Fulani DEF =PL

OK, the Fulani

6 nnì η kàmá -H tígè
 3.PL ~2 CPL 3 run

they ran.

7 nnî kóó N pèrò jèrè
 3.pl CPL T cry out

They cried out

8 á bángà =ndè wàj
 DEF person who is of the Banga race =PL PP

to the Bangande,

9 á kí póóré =né wàj
 DEF thing black =PL PP

to the Africans,

10 nnù nnà á tòó =né
 3.PL COOR DEF people of Demangari, etc =PL

they [cried out] to the people of Demangari.

11 nnù kámá N jé -rò kwà tòrè
 3.PL CPL T become -rV- voice one

They became one voice.

12 nnù kámá N já -n -à á málpa =né
 3.PL CPL T take -r- RV DEF rifle =PL

They took the rifles.

13 nnù kámá N tág -à á pùndà -L =né á
 3.PL CPL T grab RV DEF Fulani DEF =PL DEF
 púútà =né n nù
 Fulani who enslaved people =PL GEN hand

They grabbed them [from] the Fulani enslaver's hands.

14 nnù N tág -à á pùndá -L á púútà =né nníí
 3.PL T take RV DEF Fulani DEF DEF Fulani who enslaved people =PL 3.PL
 mè mínà
 COMP place, location

they grabbed the Fulani [from] the place which the enslaver's hand[s] [were].

15 hájá à pùútá -L kóó tígè wàj
 OK DEF Fulani who enslaved people DEF CPL run STAT

OK, the Fulani enslavers ran.

16 á pùndà -L =né η kóó N bár -àà η wì
 DEF Fulani DEF =PL ~2 CPL T remain RV ~2 there

The Fulani remained there,

17 há nii maa ηáràkì á tíè .
 IRR 3.PL.POSS thought, mind CHN sit

until they were calm.

18 nii maa ηáràkì η kó dógòndò .
 3.PL.POSS remember

They remembered.

19 á bángà =ndé nnì á N jà -n -á nii maa
 DEF person who is of the Banga race =PL 3.PL CHN T take -r- RV 3.PL.POSS
 jámbòrè
 last name

The Bangande they took their last name.

20 nii maa jámbórè η kámá nnú -ú -H mì
 3.PL.POSS last name ~2 CPL come PRF 3 PASS.CPL

Their last name had come,

21 η kámá n dīkó
 ~2 CPL GEN Dicko

to be Dicko.

22 nii maa η góòⁿ -mè
 3.PL.POSS GEN man DIM

Their manhood.

23 η kaw nii maa jàmbòrè dǐckó
~2 that is why 3.PL.POSS last name Dicko

That is why their last name is Dicko.

TEXT V: Chief V

1 tíndè gíjòⁿ dá ámíírí wùrò
 grandfather Giyon COOR chief village of Jewol

[the chief's] grandfather Giyon and the chief of Jewol,

2 nii bánìgárá kùn -r -á -H sííⁿ
 3.PL Bandiagara gather, meet PRF RV 3 RECP

they met together [in] Bandiagara,

3 bánìgárá à húbér ŋ kòò
 Bandiagara DEF judge GEN house

[in] Bandiagara in the judge's house.

4 ŋ kàmà -L niṅá à kúmándáⁿ hà n nàw
 ~2 CPL 3 say DEF commandant IRR T give

The mayor of Jewol said to give

5 bánjá -rí pááⁿ wàj
 person who is of the Banga race -rV- all PP

all the Bangande to him.

6 tíndè n kóó niṅá m bíé nòrè -L
 grandfather ~2 CPL say ~2 NEG hear 3

Grandfather said I did not hear [what you said].

7 mì -L kéndè bánjé -rè paaⁿ wàj
 SG 3 said people who speak Bangime -rV- all PP

He said, [give] all the Bangande to me.

8 tíndè kámá niṅá nè sííⁿ
 grandfather CPL say what

Grandfather said 'what?'

9 η kàmá N jíé -H à ɲáw màá= -L pári
 ~2 CPL T get up 3 CHN take POSS 3 spear

He [grandfather] got up and took his spear,

10 n dá wòrè -L hà N tìn -d -à qúúr -ù
 ~2 INC go 3 IRR T start -r- RV kill PRF

He goes to start [to] kill (him).

11 á kúmándáⁿ nníí kámá jì -rá -L ǎ síè
 DEF commandant 3.PL CPL rise -r- 3 CHN take

The mayor [and his jailers] they got up to take [grandfather].

12 hájá nníí wo -re -L η káràà -H
 OK 3.PL go PRF 3 find 1

OK, they got [grandfather].

13 màà= -L bímmé -H jíé -H -wè m pě
 POSS= 3 heart 3 get up 3 STAT ~2 PP

He [grandfather] got angry.

14 nnì kóó N síè tìndè há púnda wáj
 3.PL CPL T take grandfather IRR Fulani PP

They took grandfather from the Fulani,

15 há só wò ɸùnd -ù wáj
 IRR know go far PRF PP

until [they] knew he went far away,

16 n kí sáàⁿ à púnda mínd -ì wò ɸùnd -ù wáj
 ~2 thing descend DEF Fulani think PRF go far PRF STAT

until the Fulani thought he was far away,

17 há só nnì n daw min -ra wo -L ùnd -ù wàj
 IRR know 3.PL ~2 INC think -rV- go 3 far PRF STAT

until they know (he) has gone far away.

18 à púndà η kóó mínd -á tìndè biè mí -H kàràà
 DEF Fulani ~2 CPL think RV grandfather NEG SG 3 obtain

The Fulani thought grandfather could not get them.

19 nnì kóó N gómbè tìndè wórè káw sàⁿ
 3.PL CPL T allow grandfather go then, at that time

They left grandfather alone at that time.

20 tìndè jìè á tígé -rε m pé biè kàràà
 grandfather get up CHN run -rV- ~2 PP NEG obtain

Grandfather got up and ran [but] didnt get him

21 hájà púndà kóó N tág -à dégè bié mì -L jè -rò bóndò .
 OK Fulani CPL T take RV head NEG SG 3 do -rV- again

OK, the Fulani took control of himself and did not think to do that again.

22 bié míé háⁿ làám màà= -L bángá =ndè bóndò
 NEG think IRR rule POSS= 3 Banga person =PL again

He did not think to control the Bangande again.

23 tìndè búúⁿ dà η káw
 grandfather finish INC ~2 DEM

grandfather was finished with him. "grandfather relieved them of the problem".

24 hájá η kàmá -H N tág -à dègè η kèè
 OK ~2 CPL 3 T take RV head ~2 PRF

He desired to chop the Fulani.

25hájá ŋ kàmá -H N tág -à dègè ŋ kèè
OK ~2 CPL 3 T take RV head ~2 PRF

OK, he controlled himself.

TEXT VI: Chief VI

1 góòⁿ òò níí tímbá η wì N bú -ĩ -à búúⁿ .
 ancient king of Bounou ~2 there T from, come from -r- RV Bunu

The king is from Bounou there.

2 kóò -L n ɥíè gógónì .
 CPL 3 T ascend Gogoni (place where Ali's field is)

He ascended to Gogoni (place where Ali's fields are).

3 wòrè -L à káraà n díjà mé páw dá η wì
 go 3 CHN find ~2 village COMP all INC ~2 there

He went to find all the villages which are there.

4 kóò N dég -é -L η kíí pááⁿ à gúɥ -ú wòrè -L
 CPL T hit RV 3 ~2 thing all CHN throw PRF go 3

He hit them all of them to (until) they scattered.

5 à dĩa -L =né mé =nè dá η wí gógónì η kò .
 DEF village DEF =PL COMP =PL INC ~2 there Gogoni ~2 PP

The villages which are in/at Gogoni.

6 kóò n dég -é -L à gúɥ -ù nnì à wòrè -L .
 CPL T hit RV 3 CHN throw PRF 3.PL CHN go 3

He hit them to (until) they scattered.

7 mì -L kóò lààmà gógónì
 SG 3 CPL rule Gogoni (place where Ali's field is)

He ruled over Gogoni.

8 nnì kòò bú -ĩ -à bóngó -rò
 3.PL CPL from, come from -r- RV Bongoro -rV-

They (the people who the king took control over) came from Bongoro.

9 nní kòò wòrè -L tíé -wè búúⁿ
 3.PL CPL go 3 sit STAT Bunu

They went [and] sat (lived) [at] Bounou.

10 búúⁿ bú -ĩ -à ŋ wí búúⁿ ŋ kò
 Bunu move out of -r- RV ~2 there Bunu ~2 PP

Bounou came out of there, from Bounou (?)

11 kóó -H wòrè à dín -é à dà n dègè
 CPL 3 go CHN stand RV DEF view GEN head

He went to stand on the top (of the waterfall at Bongoro).

12 kòò nnó -ó -H à dín -é símèè hùⁿ
 CPL come RV 3 CHN stand RV rock PP

He came and stood on the rocks,

13 há nní n só -rí -jò
 until 3.PL T throw down -rV-

until he threw them down,

14 há nní n só -rí -jò
 until 3.PL T throw down -rV-

until he threw them down,

15 há nní n à tígé m bu -w̃ -è .
 until 3.PL ~2 CHN run T move out of PRF RV

until they ran away.

16 mì -L hòⁿ kòò n jé -rò -wàj náà n kéè
 SG 3 emphatic CPL T become -rV- STAT wilderness GEN thing

He (emph) became the wilderness' thing (chief).

17 kóò N bár -àà -wàj .
 CPL T remain RV STAT

He remained.

18 kéerí -mí =ndè máà díjà ná n -wàj
 Kete INHAB =PL POSS village give ~2 PP

The people of Kete's village gave [things to eat] to him.

19 hájá kójí jé -rò jámbá nnì hùⁿ
 OK emphatic do -rV- trick 3.PL PP

OK, he fooled them.

20 há nì máà jàà =ndé ŋ gúq -ì à bórèè hùⁿ
 IRR 3.PL.POSS child =PL T throw PRF DEF baobab PP

He took their children and threw [them] onto the Baobab[s] (so that they could get fruits).

21 mé páw bìè síé à bórèè m bìè
 COMP all NEG take DEF baobab GEN baby

She who did not take the Baobab's fruits,

22 sé mé síé píè m bíè
if COMP take Boabab fruit GEN baby

if [she] who did not get Boabab fruit's baby (fruits),

23 há síé bíè tíbí sààⁿ há jáá -wè
IRR take NEG fall descend IRR die STAT

he takes [her] [and] allows [her] to fall to die (he throws her down from the tree).

24 mé páw bíè káraà màà= -L píè m bíè síé
COMP all NEG obtain POSS= 3 Boabab fruit GEN baby take

She who does not get [the] Boabab fruit's fruits,

25 há gómíè bíè tíbí sààⁿ há jáá -wè .
IRR allow NEG fall descend IRR die STAT

He allows [her] fall and to die.

26 hájá dá n ká n zìè nníí n súraà .
OK INC ~2 DEM T do 3.PL T look

OK, they looked [at] that (what) he had done.

27 η káw n tégé bíè gáwⁿ .
~2 DEM GEN not pretty, ugly

It was not pretty.

28 à dìjà -L η kámáà m pé -rò báárí
DEF village DEF ~2 CPL T set -rV- circle

The village had a meeting (lit. 'set a circle').

29 nníí kàmá N kíndù póóríè bõõ bõõ .
3.PL CPL T dig well AUG AUG

They dug a very big well.

30 kégé -rè dá n sóg -ó -rò
mat -rV- INC ~2 close RV -rV-

It is closed [with] a mat

31 nníí n kòò N jéndó nníí mè pètù
3.PL ~2 CPL T call 3.PL.POSS celebration

They called [him] [for] their fete.

32 nníí sáṅá n sáṅà wàj
3.PL play ~2 play PP

They played (with him).

33 hájá nníí kòò bín -d -ò a kege bíńàw
OK 3.PL CPL lay (smth or sme) down -r- RV DEF mat middle

They put the mat in the middle.

34 té -rò bíńò mé mìnà
sit -rV- middle COMP place, location

That which was set in the middle place,

35 há níí ṅà N gómb -íè màà= -L tùù mé mìnà
IRR say T allow RV POSS= 3 buttock COMP place, location

they said for him to turn his butt, in that place.

36 kóò -H nóró à sùèè
CPL 3 sink CHN descend

He sank and fell.

37 à níí òhà há gómb -íè mì -L páw
CHN say IRR turn about RV SG 3 all

They said for him to turn around.

38 há sùèè -L páw
IRR descend 3 all

He descended.

39 nníí kóò ò káraà sùèè -L -wàj gaaⁿ je .
3.PL CPL T find descend 3 STAT a lot?

They found he descended a lot.

40 nníí há n só -rí -jò n tígè
3.PL IRR T throw down -rV- ~2 also

They also threw down,

41 sé jàw à gúy -ì ná mé mìnna
if take CHN throw PRF INC COMP place, location

to the place at which he throws them,

42 támaa sígòò màá= jàà
300 EXIST die

300 [people] will die.

43 sé gúṽ -ì ná b̀̀nd̀̀ t́́ḿ́á́́ ś́ǵ́ó́ ḿ́á́́= j́́à́́
if throw PRF INC again 300 EXIST die

If he throws into that place, 300 die, if he throws again,

44 nníí ᵿ ḱ́ò ś́é h̀̀ᵿ ḱ́úᵿḿ́à -ẁ̀j
3.PL ~2 CPL take PP fold STAT

they did it until he folded. (the people and the king were throwing rocks at each other).

45 bíè ḱ́ẃ́á́́ ᵿ ḱ́i à ź́íè à k̀̀è̀s̀ì
NEG able ~2 thing CHN do DEF nothing

He could not do anything.

46 n t́́g̀̀é ś́é h̀̀ᵿ ,
~2 also take PP

He too, he tried,

47 há nníí à ᵿ ḱ́ẃ́á́́ ᵿ ḱ́i ,
IRR 3.PL CHN ~2 able ~2 thing

until they could [kill] him.

48 há ḱ́úᵿḿ́à N s̀̀ᵿèè -L -ẁ̀è
IRR crumple T descend 3 STAT

until he crumpled,

49 nnìí ᵿ ḱ́áḿ́á́́ N ś́o -ŕ́í -j̀̀ò N ź́úᵿr -ù
3.PL ~2 CPL T know -rV- T kill PRF

they threw down on him until they killed him.

50 góòⁿ ηò ní tímbá
ancient king of Bounou

The king.

51 kéerí –mí =nè nní kòò à lààmà nnì
Kete INHAB =PL 3.PL CPL DEF rule 3.PL

The people of Kete, they ruled themselves.

52 góòⁿ ηò ní tímbá η wì m bú –ř –à kòò N ɥê
ancient king of Bounou ~2 there T come from –r– RV DEM T ascend

The king came from there he ascended.

53 kóó η wòrè –L à lààmì à náà η ki pááⁿ η wì
CPL ~2 go 3 DEF rule DEF wilderness ~2 thing all ~2 there

He ruled all everything in the wilderness.

54 kéerí –mí =nè n tígè kóó N tág –à à náà η kée .
Kete INHAB =PL ~2 also CPL T take RV DEF wilderness ~2 PRF

The people of Kete also took all the wilderness.

55 n tígè n ɥúúr –ù nní hòⁿ .
~2 also T kill PRF 3.PL emphatic

He killed them too (before he died).

56 à túbákú =nè η k^wáà à kíí póréré =nè η kíí pááⁿ ki
DEF foreigner =PL T able 2.SG thing black =PL GEN thing all by

The Dogon were afraid of the whites - the whites can (control) all the blacks (all the places where blacks are at).

57 hájá n tígè η kòò lààmà màà= -L gándà .
 OK ~2 also ~2 CPL rule POSS= 3 place

They (the whites) ruled his (the king's) place (they dropped a bomb on Bandiagara?) and then they killed a Toubab and made his skin into a drum. - ok, he controlled his place?whose

58 lààmà à gándà -L mé sààⁿ
 rule DEF place DEF COMP descend

At the time which he ruled the place,

59 η kòò n úúú -à .
 ~2 CPL T kill RV

he killed.

60 kéerí -mí =ndè η kòò já -n -à à nàà -L η kèè .
 Kete DIM =PL ~2 CPL take -r- RV DEF wilderness DEF ~2 PRF

The people of Kete took the wilderness.

61 kéerí -mí =ndè η kòò já -n -à à nàà -L η kèè
 Kete DIM =PL ~2 CPL take -r- RV DEF wilderness DEF ~2 PRF

He took all of the wilderness

62 kòò N bár -àà kéerí -mí =ndè mé bú -w̃ -è ,
 CPL T remain RV Kete DIM =PL COMP from, come from PRF RV

which remained belonged to Kete us also,

63 né tígè mé búúú bíè há n tóròndò bòndò
 1.PL also COMP kind NEG IRR T bother again

Our kind does not bother (anyone) again.

TEXT VII: Chief VII

1 nnì wòré -H kínd -ú á póríè
 3.PL go 3 dig PRF DEF well

They go dig the well.

2 sě gúy -é mé pàⁿ
 if throw RV COMP all

If [for each one who] is thrown, (they threw rocks in the hole/well),

3 jìímè m támàà= n sígòò màá= jàà -L
 person GEN three hundred EXIST die 3

three hundred people will die.

4 nnì n tígè kàmá n síè hùⁿ
 3.PL GEN also CPL T take PP

They also took [rocks].

5 kúřúmá -H -wàj bíè η k^wàà η ki kéésì
 crumple 3 STAT NEG ~2 able ~2 thing nothing

He crumpled, unable to do anything.

6 há nnì jáá -H qùùr -ú η kèè
 until 3.PL die 3 kill PRF ~2 PRF

Until they killed him.

7 góòⁿ ηò nnì tímá
 man 3.PL man of all talents

[the] Ancient King of Bounou

8 kàmá -H bú -ř -à η wí
 CPL 3 from, come from -r- RV ~2 there

He left [was moved] from there

9 kóó -H η wòré ègíni góóⁿ ηònniì
 CPL 3 ~2 go make move man

They went [and] made [the] ancient king move.

10 màá= -H zìbèè -H =né kí pàⁿ
 POSS 1 person 1 =PL thing all

All my people

11 háàsà báár -ú kéerī -mí -ndè
 until remain PRF Kete INHAB PL

[no one] remained until (except) the people of Kete

12 η káá -rù màá= -H díjá -H dà ɥìè nà -à -L wàj
 ~2 DEM DEM.PL POSS 1 village 1 INC water give RV 3 PP

Those ones, my village, were giving water to him

13 η kàmá niṅa mì -L kóóri à η kóóri
 ~2 CPL say SG 3 war 2.SG ~2 war

they said they would not make war against him (because he is bigger than them)

14 nnì màá= zìbée =né náw
 3.PL.POSS person =PL give

Their people give

15 η kàmá -H η wòrè -L há nii maa zìbée =né
 ~2 CPL 3 ~2 go 3 IRR 3.PL.POSS person =PL

He went and their people were

16 gùw -ì -L ɥúúr -á á nàà -L η kò
 throw PRF 3 kill RV DEF wilderness DEF ~2 PP

Thrown and killed into the bush (here he refers to the fact that the king killed the children when they wouldnt get the fruits)

17 η kà -rú tígè nnì η kó -rón -d -ā
 ~2 DEM DEM.PL also 3.PL ~2 able -rV- -r- RV

They cannot (fight) with you

18 nnì kòò n ɸúúr -à
 3.PL CPL ~2 kill RV

they killed him

19 η káraà démàngàrí màà= -L vóò -H
 ~2 obtain Demangari POSS= 3 field 3

Demangari got a field (because he happen to come upon the fight so the people of Kete gave him a field)

20 néjǒ -mí =ndè η kàmá -H N nó -ó -H béndò
 Neyon DIM =PL ~2 CPL 3 T come RV 3 come upon

The people of Neyon came upon

21 nii maa kóri η kò
 3.PL.POSS war ~2 PP

their war

22 η kàmá saava kòò Démàngàrí kàmá -H η káraà púgè
 ~2 CPL because CPL Demangari CPL 3 ~2 obtain valley

for this reason, Demangari got a valley

23 à Dèmàngàrí -màá= tígè béndò η kò
 DEF Demangari inhabitants of also come upon ~2 PP

A person from Demangari also came upon (the war)

24 η wí màà -L bòò -L mé dégé hìngà
 ~2 there POSS 3 father 3 COMP head before

His father was their chief before

25 gómé =ndè pùgè híngá nnì
 rice =PL valley before 3.PL

Rice [was cultivated] in the valley

26 η wí n dà gómè =ndé
 ~2 there ~2 INC rice =PL

Rice was cultivated there

27 à dèmánǵàrì -mí =ndè máà -L vòò η kò
 DEF Demangari INHAB =PL POSS 3 field ~2 PP

In the people of Demangari's fields

28 à síjòⁿ bèndó -L nii maa kórè η kò
 now come upon 3 3.PL.POSS war ~2 PP

Now he came upon their war

29 nnì qúúr -ú η kèè
 3.PL kill PRF ~2 PRF

they killed him (the King)

30 nnì kàmá -H náw à gàndà -L η káw hà N déé
 3.PL CPL 3 give DEF place DEF ~2 DEM IRR T cultivate

they gave the place to the people of Demangari to cultivate, the people of Kete cultivated the place (after his death)

31 démángárí -máà bíé N déé
 Demangari inhabitants of NEG T cultivate

the people of Demangari did not cultivate there (before the war)

32 sàá búúⁿ –mí =ndè ná démàngàrí –mí =ndè nnì a siiⁿ
 if Bunu INHAB =PL COOR Demangari INHAB =PL 3.PL DEF RECIP
 kírin –d –à
 discuss, squabble –r– RV

If Bounou and Demangari squabble,

33 nnì há waaramε jé siiⁿ gíⁿ húⁿ
 3.PL IRR witness become RECIP back PP

Tin Taw becomes the witness.

34 tin–tawⁿ N só –rè ndé maa bòò
 Tin Tawn village T know –rV– 3rd PL POSS border

Tin Tawn knows whose boundary (because Tin Tawn and Bounou are the oldest villages in the valley).

35 saa η kaw démàngàrí –máa bíè η wí tóⁿ–tá bíè η
 if ~2 DEM Demangari inhabitants of NEG ~2 there clan of Demangari NEG ~2
 wí
 there

if the person from Demangari is not there, their clan is not there.

36 ndè maa= kòò búúⁿ dá síiⁿ huⁿ
 1.PL.POSS house Bunu EXIST RECP PP

Our houses are together.

Text VIII: Chief VIII

1 η wòré -H bùwó mìnna náà
 ~2 go 1 herd place, location wilderness

I went [to the] place [in the] wilderness [where we] herd.

2 kóó η wòré -H N káràà ñórkèè síé màá= -H bììⁿ -L .
 CPL ~2 go 1 T find leopard take POSS 1 year 1

I went [and] found [that] a leopard took my goat.

3 bíí =ndè bùwó N dó mìnna .
 goat =PL herd T bring place, location

[at] [the] Place where goats are herded.

4 dá m bùwó m bùwó
 INC ~2 herd ~2 herd

While I was herding,

5 ñórkèè kóò N nò -ò -L síé màá= -H bììⁿ -L
 leopard CPL T come IMPV 3 take POSS 1 year 1

A leopard came and took my goat.

6 màá= -H bììⁿ -L kóò ní ñà “ weeee ”
 POSS 1 goat 1 CPL say weeeee!

My goat said “weeee”.

7 ní ñà “ weeee ” pááⁿ kóò n tígè
 say weeeee! all CPL ~2 run

He said “weeee” [and] he ran.

8 η kóó wòré -H
 ~2 CPL go 1

I went,

9 kóó N káraà à ηórkèè .
CPL T find DEF leopard

and found the leopard.

10 kóóⁿ màá= -H bìⁿ -L η kwà η kéeè .
break POSS 1 goat 1 GEN neck ~2 PRF

He broke my goat's neck.

11 kóóⁿ màà= -L kwà η kéeè .
break POSS= 3 neck ~2 PRF

He broke his neck.

12 kóó n tíg -í -rè m pè .
CPL ~2 run RV PRF ~2 PP

I ran after him.

13 há wòré -H N únd -ù .
until go 1 T far PRF

I went far.

14 bíé -H η káraà ηórkèè .
NEG 1 ~2 obtain leopard

I did not get the leopard

15 hájá kóó wòré -H η káraà màá= -H bìⁿ -L dà jàà -wè
OK CPL go 1 ~2 find POSS 1 goat 3 INC die STAT

Ok, I found that my goat died.

16 kòdò jág -á -H màà= -L kwà
 CPL cut RV 1 POSS= 3 neck

I slaughtered him.

TEXT IX: Chief IX

1 ɲ wó -ré -H bíí =nè bùwòndì N dò minna .
 go PRF 1 goat =PL herd T come place, location

I went to herd goats at the place where they are herded (TB).

2 níjé níjè .
 place where goats are herded

Place where goats are herded.

3 gúwóndíjè me ka N dò à míndé (muⁿ) maa= bíí =nè
 caracal COMP CPL T come CHN enter enter POSS goat =PL
 túmbári .
 among, between

Caracal (cat species) came and entered in between my goats.

4 bííⁿ kíjè .
 goat seven

Seven goats.

5 tíjè jìndò tààró n nèè nùndì kèèrè kíjì .
 one two two four five six seven

One two three four five six seven.

6 bííⁿ kíjè daw N si -L màà= bíí =nè n túmbári .
 goat seven INC T take 3 POSS= goat =PL ~2 among, between

He entered in among seven goats.

7 dáw n tàg -à -L nnì .
 INC T grab INC 3 3.PL

He grabbed/snatched them.

8 ɲ kàmá n ɲà -rà màá= kórò .
 ~2 CPL T take -rV- POSS

He took my axe.

9 n daw wo –re –H n séré .
 INC go PRF 1 T chop (fields before planting)

I went to chop (him).

10 ka n túrù dwàà kíjè .
 CPL T hang tree branch

he hung from a tree limb

11 ka n jì kî kù maa –H kóó hùn
 CPL T fall with force POSS 1 shoulder PP

He fell on my shoulders with force.

12 a / ŋ gùwóndíjè N ka à tag –a –H mì ŋ kèè .
 DEF T caracal T CPL CHN agree RV 1 reflexive ~2 PRF

The cat took himself (and left).

13 ne daw= / n daw síⁿ N kur –a / húⁿ àà dúgú ŋ kó .
 1.PL INC= INC APP T meet RV PP DEF dense forest ~2 PP

We met in the forest.

14 á bíí =ndè nî à buwo jogo .
 DEF goat =PL 3.PL CHN leave, go out outside

The goats they went outside.

15 ka N sùràà nî .
 CPL T look 3.PL

I looked (at) them.

16 ka ŋ wòré à kaara –L námbà tórè biè nî m túmbàrì .
 CPL ~2 go CHN find 3 sheep one NEG 3.PL among, between

I found one sheep wasn't among them.

17 námbà tórè bíè à bíⁿ N túmbáři .
sheep one NEG DEF goat T among, between

(I found) one sheep wasn't among the goats.

18 ka míndè à dúgú η kó .
CPL enter DEF dense forest ~2 PP

I entered the forest.

19 ka N si –L N púwó n dò .
CPL T take 3 T search

I looked everywhere.

20 à gúwóndímè búndì màá= –H j̄ɪɸè η kè .
DEF caracal make move out POSS 1 breast ~2 PRF

The cat took off its breast/utter.

21 gúwóndíjè bíⁿ kíjè màá= sági –nέ ,
caracal goat seven POSS eight cardinal number (nd, rd, th)

The cat (took) seven goats, the eighth,

22 màá= sági –nέ ka η wò –ré –H N karaa –H
POSS eight cardinal number (nd, rd, th) CPL ~2 go PRF 1 T find 1
ɸùr –ú η kèè .
kill PRF ~2 PRF

The eighth I found was killed.

23 gúwóndíjè káw bíè η^wòròké .
caracal DEM NEG leopard

The caracal is not a leopard.

24 gúwóndíjè .
caracal

caracal.

25 sé n tígè síé hà n tág -ù .
if T also take INF T grab PRF

If he takes it he takes it too.

26 sé daw wò -ré -H n dég -é -H pààⁿ à tígé -ré wàj .
if INC go PRF 1 T hit RV 1 all CHN run PRF PP

If you (stop) to hit it, he runs.

27 há wòré à si -L kî táàⁿ .
INF go CHN take 3 thing some

He will go take another.

28 há wò -ré -H à tág -ù .
INF go PRF 1 CHN grab PRF

He goes to snatch, grab,

29 há n déⁿ kî kíjè .
INF T fill thing seven

until he has seven.

30 tág -ù kî kíjè mè mínna .
take PRF thing seven which place, location

at the place which he took out the seven,

31 ká m búnd -à à bìi =ndé jógò .
CPL T take out RV DEF goat =PL outside

he takes the goats outside.

32 ká n sùràà nî pàⁿ .
CPL T look 3.PL all

I looked at them all.

33 ká η wo -re -H η káràà -L nî bìè tíè -ré .
 CPL ~2 go PRF 1 T find 3 3.PL NEG sit PRF

I found they were not all there.

34 ká wo -re -H n sùrà à dúgú η kó .
 CPL go PRF 1 T look DEF dense forest ~2 PP

I went to look in the forest.

35 ká púwóndò ka m wo -re η káràà -L n úúr -ú η kèè .
 CPL search CPL ~2 go PRF T find 3 T kill PRF PRF

I searched and found he was killed.

TEXT X: Chief X

1 n dè N bùúⁿ Dan

1.PL T move out of Dan

They left Daan.

2 nnì N bú -rà Dan

3.PL T move out of -rV- Dan

They came out of Dan.

3 nnì káwⁿ wòrè -L wùró jèw .

3.PL CPL go 3 village of Jewol

They left the village of Jewol.

4 nnì kàwⁿ bú -rà wùró jèw .

3.PL CPL move out of -rV- village of Jewol

They came out of the village of Jewol.

5 nnì káwⁿ wòrè -L ŋ wì .

3.PL CPL go 3 ~2 there

They went there.

6 nnì kóó -H wórè -H jèjé .

3.PL CPL 3 go 3 Yenge

They went [to] Yenge.

7 nnì qu -ra yèjè

3.PL ascend -rV- Yenge

They ascended Yenge.

8 nnì kàwⁿ -L wórè -H búùⁿ
 3.PL CPL 3 go 3 Bunu

They went [to] Bounou.

9 nnì bú -ř -á búùⁿ
 3.PL move out of -r- RV Bunu

They went out [of] Bounou.

10 nnì kóó -H N té -rò ŋ wí hàsá múwí
 3.PL CPL 3 T straight -rV- ~2 there until today

They lived there until today. (they are still living here today)

11 nnì kóó -H N té -rò à ʒóòⁿ -L màá= mí
 3.PL CPL 3 T sit -rV- DEF rain DEF like PASS.CPL

The rain (gods) were pleased.

Appendix VI: Chief Map

(history of from where Bounou moved)

1 múwí tǎràà .
today Tuesday

Today [is] Tuesday.

2 bǐnd -í bùùⁿ màá= -L níí .
write IMP Bunu POSS 3 name

Write Bounou's name.

3 màá= -L sígóó ŋ kò .
POSS 3 day ~2 PP

On this day,

4 n dè N bú -ràà mé mǐnnà .
1.PL T move out of -rV- COMP place, location

[The] place from which we came.

5 dááⁿ .
Daan

Daan.

6 nnî bú -ràà dááⁿ .
3.PL move out of -rV- Daan

They came from Daan

7 nnì kòò nnò -ò wùrò jéwò .
3.PL CPL come RV village of Jewol

They came [to] Wuro Jewol.

8 nnì bú -ràà wùrò jéwó .
3.PL move out of -rV- village of Jewol

They left from Wuro Jewol.

9 nnî kós N nó -ó -H jègèè
3.PL CPL T come RV 3 Jege

They came to Jege.

10 nnì N bú -ràà jègèè .
3.PL T move out of -rV- Jege

They left Jege.

11 nní kòò wòrè -L bóngórò .
3.PL CPL go 3 Bongoro

They went to Bongoro.

12 gòòⁿ ò ní tímbá kós N sój -è nnì à gúq -è .
ancient king of Bounou CPL T throw down RV 3.PL CHN throw RV

The ancient king of Bounou threw them down.

13 nní kòò N bú -ràà bóngórò .
3.PL CPL T move out of -rV- Bongoro

They left Bongoro.

14 gòòⁿ ò ní tímbá .
ancient king of Bounou

Ancient king of Bounou.

15 nní kòò N tíé búúⁿ .
3.PL CPL T sit Bunu

They sat (lived) [in] Bounou.

16 η kámáà nníí N té -rò mé mìnna à síè .
 ~2 CPL 3.PL T sit -rV- COMP place, location right now

They sat (lived) at the place where they are now.

17 kòò N bú -raa bóṅgórò .
 CPL T move out of -rV- Bongoro

They left Bongoro.

18 kóò N tíé -wàj búúⁿ .
 CPL T sit STAT Bunu

They lived (sat) [in] Bounou.

Lineage of the Current Chief:

siiri dicko (killed by Fulani enslavers) (same family as gemⁿ but not same mother, same father)

hamadi bilaji dicko (maybe this was the chief that was there at the time of the 'invasion?') (older brother of gemⁿ)

téré^mò tindi dicko (older brother of gemⁿ)

sôh dicko (hamidi and soh are the same name) (older brother of gemⁿ - same mother, same father)

bokari dicko (older brother of gemⁿ)

gemⁿ dicko (father of chief's father)

dé dicko (older brother of chief's father)

sôh dicko (current chief) [So became Chief in 1979, 3 years in the first war between Burkina and Mali which began in 1974.]

Appendix VII: Tiga Texts

Text XI: Tiga 1

1 nè màá= jíbéé =nè bù –rá kóó –H ɸìè tóníperè .
 1.PL.POSS person =PL from, come from PRF CPL 3 ascend Tondifere

Our people left [and] ascended [to] Tonifere

2 nè mè jámbé –H n nìé –rè .
 1.PL.POSS child 1 GEN woman –rV–

Our girl,

3 sɸéè à ɸìè –L á tóròⁿ mmínnà .
 descend DEF water DEF CHN carry water place, location

descended [to] the place [where they] get water.

4 nnì kóó –H k^wéřè ŋ kèè .
 3.PL CPL 3 steal ~2 PRF

They stole [her].

5 nnì kóó –H dú ɸìé dógàni .
 3.PL CPL 3 bring ascend Dogani

They brought her up [to] Dogani.

6 n kà sàⁿ n jámbé nnìé –rè .
 ~2 then, at that time ~2 child woman –rV–

At that time, she [was] a girl (teenager).

7 ŋ kóó –H ŋ wórè –H à bàr –ú dógàni .
 ~2 CPL 3 ~2 go 3 CHN remain PRF Dogani

She remained [in] Dogani.

8 η kóó -H m b́ár -à η wî .
 ~2 CPL 3 T remain RV ~2 there

She remains there.

9 η ka m bar -a η wî .
 ~2 CPL T remains IMPV ~2 there

She remains there.

10 η kóó -H m b́ár -à η wî ,
 ~2 CPL 3 T remain RV ~2 there

She remain there (she remained for a long time),

11 há máá= -H sùjè -L à bú .
 until POSS= 3 breast 3 CHN move out of

until her breasts came out.

12 màà= -L síéⁿ bíè jíè ,
 POSS= 3 owner NEG see

Her owner (husband) is not seen, (she was not seen by her people though she was ready for marriage)

13 màá= -H sùjè -H bú -ràà .
 POSS 3 breast 3 move out of -rV-

her breasts came out.

14 n dáà kúmbó -ró .
 ~2 INC search -rV-

I was searching for her.

15 nnì n dà kúmbó -H .
3.PL ~2 INC search 1

They were searching for her.

16 n dàà kùmbó -L .
~2 INC search 3

He was searching for her.

17 nnì nnì -ì tùmbé wòré -H á jìbéé =nè pááⁿ wàj .
3.PL give PRF message go 3 DEF person =PL all PP

They gave a message [to be] sent to all [the] people.

18 nnì nnì -ì á tùmbè hà púndà wàj .
3.PL give PRF DEF message in order to Fulani PP

They gave the message to the Fulani (because he travels a lot).

19 à púndá η káw júlà .
DEF Fulani ~2 DEM buy in order to sell

The Fulani traded a sheep (this is what brought him to the village in the first place).

20 à púndá tígé dà -L η kúmbò η kúmbó .
DEF Fulani also INC 3 T search ~2 search

The Fulani was also searching.

21 η kóó -H wórè à jìé ,
~2 CPL 3 go CHN see

He went and saw,

22 à nnìè -L η wíí dógòni .
 DEF woman DEF ~2 there Dogani

the woman there at Dogani.

23 η kàsáⁿ hóⁿ ,
 ~2 then, at that time emphatic

At the time which,

24 nnì jàw η kèè ,
 3.PL take ~2 PRF

they married her,

25 nnì jàá -n -à ,
 3.PL take -r- RV

they took,

26 η kóó -H n sùr -á ,
 CPL 3 T look RV

he looked,

27 η kóó -H n su -ra ,
 ~2 CPL 3 T look -rV-

he looked,

28 η kóó -H n su -ra ,
 ~2 CPL 3 T look -rV-

he looked (he looked for a long time),

29 háśá wórè –H gáwⁿ .
 until go 3 good

until he was satisfied.

30 mì –L kèndé kúúwò ,
 SG 3 said DEM

He (the Fulani) said that

31 à bù –mì =ndè nnì ñà nnì màà= jìbéé –L mè jáátì .
 DEF Bunu INHAB =PL say 3.PL.POSS person 3 COMP definitely

this is definitely their person who the people of Bounou spoke of.

32 mí –H kéndé η káw kòò hòⁿ jáátì .
 SG 3 say ~2 DEM CPL emphatic definitely

He said, that is definitely her.

33 kòò dóò –ró .
 CPL pass –rV–

He (the Fulani) passed.

34 η kòò sáwón –d –ò .
 ~2 CPL descend –r– RV

He descended.

35 η kàmá –H nò –ò –L nì ímà búùⁿ .
 ~2 CPL 3 come RV 3 say here Bunu

He came here [to] Bounou [and] said (he saw the person).

36 mì -L kéndé àà dà màá= jìbéé mé kúmbò ,
 SG 3 said 2.PL INC POSS person COMP search

He said, your person for which you have been searching,

37 n jáá -H dá à gàndà -L káá kò .
 ~2 see 3 INC DEF place 3 DEM PP

I saw the place that she is at

38 kóó tée ?
 where

Where (asked the people of Bounou)?

39 dógàni .
 Dogani

Dogani (said the Fulani).

40 mì -L kéndé á káw ?
 SG 3 said 2.SG sure, positive

They said, are you sure?

41 mì -L kéndé n káá n tée .
 SG 3 said ~2 sure, positive

He said, I am sure.

42 mì -L kéndé káw à sié kéndè .
 SG 3 said DEM now yet

He went and strolled about and came back.

50 kòr -à η kù hà nnú -ú -H .
 change, switch, transform RV GEN thing IRR come PRF 3

He returned and came [back].

51 η kóó -H nnó -ò .
 ~2 CPL 3 come RV

He came.

52 nnì kóó -H ɸíè síⁿ .
 3.PL CPL 3 ascend RECP

They ascended together.

53 ímà tìgè bú -mì =ndé nnì kóó -H m bòn -d -à ,
 here also Bunu DIM =PL 3.PL CPL 3 T remove -r- RV

Here too, [the] people of Bounou, they took out,

54 nnì màà= kómè góòⁿ .
 3.PL.POSS slave man

their male slave.

55 hà ɸíè n sùrà hà jàlà sógójè .
 IRR ascend T look in order to whether truth

He (the male slave) went to see whether it was the truth

56 nnì kóó -H nnì ñà sè ụìé -L ,
 3.PL CPL 3 say if ascend 3

They said, if he ascends,

57 màá= nnì ñà mì -L kómè dè .
 PROH say SG 3 slave emphatic

Do not say that he is/you are a slave.

58 nnì ñà hájá wá .
 say OK reported speech

He said OK.

59 nnì kóó -H ụìé -L sííⁿ .
 3.PL CPL 3 ascend 3 RECP

They (the Fulani and the slave) went up together.

60 kóó -H wòré -H há sùrá há jìè ,
 CPL 3 go 3 IRR look until see

He went and looked until he saw,

61 wòré -H à jìé ,
 go 3 CHN see

they went to see,

62 kóó -H wòré à káára
 CPL 3 go CHN find

they went to find,

63 kàá màá mì -L jáátì .
 DEM EXIST SG 3 definitely

that is definitely her.

64 hájá màá= -L nì ?
 OK POSS 2 name

OK [what is] your name?

65 kàá màá= n dè mè η kúmbò
 DEM EXIST 1.PL COMP T search

That is [for] whom we search.

66 mé èh màá= -L nì ?
 COMP emphatic POSS 2 name

What is your name?

67 kàmá né máá jìbéé
 CPL 1.PL.POSS person

(is this our person)

68 mì -L kéndè màá= -H nì ?
 SG 3 say POSS= 1 name

He said, what is your name?

69 mì -L kéndè hùh ?
 SG 3 say huh

She said huh?

70 mì -L kéndè à ná tì ímà nàw káámà ?
 SG 3 say 2.SG INC live here EXIST CPL

You have been living here all this time?

71 mì -L kéndé wàlàjí ímà n dáw .
 SG 3 say swear to God here ~2 EXIST

She said, I swear to God, I have been here.

72 mí -H kéndè b́óó dáà kúmbò ,
 SG 3 say father INC search

He said, father has been searching,

73 à gàzén ki pààⁿ η kò .
 DEF world thing all ~2 PP

all over the whole world.

74 ímà n dáw kámáà
 here ~2 EXIST CPL

But you are just here.

75 mì -L kéndè hàjà .
 SG 3 say OK

She said OK.

76 b́óó mì -L kéndè há sàⁿ -d -ó wà .
 father SG 3 said IRR descend -r- RV reported speech

Father says to make you descend.

77 dà -L ɸíè .
INC 3 ascend

She ascends.

78 nnì kóó -H náw tómè wàj
3.PL CPL 3 give cowry shell(s) PP

They gave cowry shells (money) to [him].

79 η kásán tómè máà mì n díj -à
~2 then, at that time cowry shell(s) EXIST PASS T eat RV

At that time, cowry shells were eaten (spent/used for money).

80 η kásàⁿ tóóⁿ bíè .
~2 then, at that time money NEG

At that time, money did not exist.

81 tómè máà mì n díj -à
cowry shell(s) EXIST PASS T eat RV

Cowry shells were eaten.

82 nnì kóó -H náw tómè wàj
3.PL CPL 3 give cowry shell(s) PP

They gave cowry shells to [them].

83 sé ɸíé pààⁿ ,
if ascend all

If they ascend,

84 sé wórè à káárà
if go CHN find

if they go to find,

85 m bójèè η kó nnáw̄ ,
~2 rope GEN PP give

there is a rope (she is enslaved) they [will] give,

86 nn̄i m bú -ràà η kí̄ .
3.PL T move out of -rV- GEN thing

pay for (a slave).

87 sè bíè bójèè η kó dè ,
if NEG rope GEN PP emphatic

If there is no rope (if she is not enslaved),

88 hà n sààⁿ wàj̄ .
IRR T descend STAT

[they] will descend.

89 à kómè η góòⁿ mì -L kéndè hájà wà .
DEF slave GEN man SG 3 said OK reported speech

The slave man said OK.

90 mì -L kóó -H n ɸíè̄ .
SG 3 CPL 3 T ascend

He ascended.

91 kóó –H η wórè à káraà bíè bójéè η kó .
 CPL 3 ~2 go CHN find NEG rope GEN PP

He went to find there was no rope (she was not enslaved).

92 ká bójéè η kó ná ná ná máà nú mì ?
 DEM rope GEN PP COOR COOR COOR EXIST how is it

(the Fulani asked) Is the rope around [her neck] (is she enslaved) or or or what?

93 mì –L kóó –H nìi ηá wálájè
 SG 3 CPL 3 say swear to God

He said, I swear to God.

94 sé tòηògò bíè bójéè η kó .
 if truth NEG rope GEN PP

If I tell the truth, the rope is not on [her neck] (she is not enslaved).

95 jìbéeé n dógóndò kóó –H nnó –ó N gómbè nnìi nìi .
 person T bring CPL 3 come RV T leave 3.PL hand

A person brings [her] and left her in our hands (he did not sell her).

96 kóó –H nnìi ηá n dà –L wórè n dà nnó –ó .
 CPL 3 say ~2 INC 3 go ~2 INC come RV

He said that he was going and [would] come [back].

97 n kámàà= nnò –ò ,
 ~2 CPL come RV

He came,

98 à gómbè nnì nì .
 CHN leave 3.PL hand

and he left [her] [in] their hand[s].

99 η ká kè bíè kór -ó η kì á nnú -ú -H bóndò
 ~2 excuse me NEG change RV GEN thing CHN come PRF 3 again

Like that, he did not return to come again.

100 há ñàrà há pódí màà= ñà -n -á twà ,
 if God IRR made it EXIST take -r- RV reach

If God made it so that it was her time to be taken (married),

101 nnìé -ré sé màà= -L ñà -n -à n twà páàⁿ ,
 woman -rV- if POSS= 3 take -r- RV T reach all

when a woman's time comes to be taken (married),

102 mì -L há ñà -n -á
 SG 3 SUBJ take -r- RV

she [is] to be married.

103 ájíwà nnìé -rè hòⁿ sé éíèⁿ bíè n wájè páàⁿ ,
 OK woman -rV- emphatic if owner NEG ~2 PP all

OK, if a woman does not have an owner (someone to marry her),

104 mì -L hà n ñà -n -á
 SG 3 SUBJ T take -r- RV

she must [be] taken (married).

105 mí -H kéndè wàjbì jáátí .
 SG 1 said obligatory definitely

I said, that is obligatory, very much so.

106 mì -L kóó -H n já -n -à -L .
 SG 3 CPL 3 T take -r- RV 3

She is taken (married).

107 nnù n já -n -à -L ,
 3.PL T take -r- RV 3

They take her,

108 háà káraà bì =ndé ,
 until obtain baby =PL

until she gets children,

109 káraà bì =ndé pééré .
 obtain baby =PL a lot

she got a lot of children.

110 η kóó -H m bár -à η kámáà .
 ~2 CPL 3 T remain RV ~2 CPL

She stayed there.

111 mì -L kéndè à síè bóó ,
 SG 3 said now father

Now, he, father, said,

112 nnì òhà nì òhà à síè há nnù -ù -L n sùrà .
 say say now IRR come PRF 3 T look

he said her father sent someone to come look at her.

113 sé tóhòró há dò sááⁿ nnó -ó wà
 if truth IRR bring descend come RV reported speech

(he said,) If it's true that she is not enslaved, descend (bring her down).

114 mì -L kéndè tóhòró jáátí
 SG 3 said truth definitely

He said, that is definitely truth.

115 mì -L kéndè wáláhàjì .
 SG 3 say swear to God

I say swear to God

116 né mè òhà -n -à -L kà bíè bójéè tígè òhà kó .
 1.PL.POSS take -r- RV 3 DEM NEG rope also GEN PP

We have married her but she is not also enslaved.

117 àlhámdúlàjì múwì kámàà= hòⁿ .
 praise be to God today CPL emphatic

Thank God for today.

118 jíè -wè bì =ndé eíèⁿ jáátí .
 do STAT baby =PL owner definitely

She has become the owner of children (very much so).

119 kàw ájìwá bóó nnìi ñà há n sán -d -ò wá .
 DEM OK father say SUBJ T descend -r- FV reported speech

OK, father said that she should come down.

120 á nnìé -rè kóó -H nnìi ñà kóõ
 DEF woman -r- CPL 3 say DEM

The woman said that,

121 á gòóⁿ -L kóó -H nnìi ñà káw
 DEF man DEF CPL 3 say DEM

the man (her husband) said that,

122 à síè kóõ kéndè ,
 now return say

now she said,

123 m bíè á sáw kéndè .
 ~2 NEG CHN descend yet

I cannot descend yet.

124 ă sááⁿ ñwó !
 2.SG descend go

You go (imperative) down.

125 sé káraà sígòò =né tígè né nà sán -d -ò .
 if obtain day =PL also 1.PL INC descend -r- RV

If one week passes, we too will descend.

126 ndè màá= p^wíè jíndò ndè sá -d -ò .
 1.PL.POSS wife two 1.PL descend -r- PRF

We (me and the wife) will descend.

our wife, we (will) descend

127 mì -L kéndè á kà tájrà ?
 SG 3 said 2.SG DEM sure

He said, are you sure?

128 mì -L kéndè ùhùh .
 SG 3 said uhuh

She said uhuh.

129 mì -L kéndè ùhùh à nnìé -rè àhéⁿ sé sáw̄ .
 SG 3 said uhuh DEF woman -rV- how if descend

He said uhuh, if the woman knows how to descend.

130 à só -rè á bódò -L tájà ?
 2.SG know -rV- 2.SG father DEF place, family

(will) you know your father's house/place?

131 mì -L kéndè áh !
 SG 3 said ah

She said ah!

132 mì -L kéndè tóńórò .
 SG 3 say truth

She said truth.

133 bódò tájè té -wàj kì .
 father place, family lost STAT thing

I forgot my father's place.

134 ká só -rè -H máá= -H pín dé =nè .
 but know -rV- 1 POSS= 1 direction =PL

But, I know how to tell his directions (to his house).

135 mì máà bódò máá= -H kóó -H jí hùⁿ ,
 POSS father POSS= 1 house 1 behind PP

Behind my father's house,

136 tójè -mí =ndè n dāv ŋ wî .
 tree species DIM =PL ~2 EXIST ~2 there

There is the tree species.

137 kǎŋkájì dá ŋ wî .
 Salvadora Persica EXIST ~2 there

There is tree species .

138 mì -L kéndè jáátí .
 SG 3 said definitely

He says, definitely.

139 mè à kóó -L n nókó tígì tígì á biè só -rè .
 COMP DEF house DEF GEN mouth very much so DEF NEG know -rV-

They did not know the doorway very well.

140 ŋ káárà sígòò
 ~2 obtain day

They got the day.

141 ná máà -L kándèè nnì jíndò nní kóó -H nà -n -à nní
 COOR POSS 3 husband 3.PL two 3.PL CPL 3 take -r- RV 3.PL
 kóó -H sáw
 CPL 3 descend

She and her husband, they two, they took each other, they descended.

142 gillá nní sáw síⁿ há ní twà ná pórò hùn
 since, until 3.PL descend RECP IRR 3.PL reach PASS well PP

Until they descended together, until they arrived at the well (body of water near Baraa).

143 mì -L kéndé hàjà .
 SG 3 said

He said OK.

144 ǎ nnì à tójè -mí =ndè kàá -rù .
 DEF 3.PL DEF tree species DIM =PL DEM DEM.PL

There are those tree species.

145 ǎ nnì tójè -mí =ndè káw ònd -á .
 DEF 3.PL tree species DIM =PL DEM stand RV

Those tree species stand there.

146 ǎ nnì kǎŋkǎjì káw ònd -à .
 DEF 3.PL Salvadora Persica DEM stand RV

Those tree species stand there.

147 káw bóó màá= -L kóó -H gíⁿ hùⁿ .
 DEM father POSS 3 house 3 back PP

That [is] behind her father's house.

148 mí -H kéndé jáátí .
 SG 1 said definitely

I said that's it.

149 à n dá ɥié -H ,
 SUBJ ~2 INC ascend 1

Let's ascend,

150 à òjǎ -L ŋ kóó -rò .
 DEF village DEF GEN PP -rV-

into the village.

151 ŋ kóó -H sígà káw nà té -rè wàj à kòò -L n nóó
 ~2 CPL 3 ask DEM INC show -rV- PP DEF house DEF GEN mouth

He asked for them to show the doorway to him.

152 n ná té -rè à kòò -L n nóó wàj .
 ~2 INC show -rV- DEF house 3 GEN mouth PP

They showed the doorway to him.

153 kàw̃ η wórè nnì -ì kóó -H náw̃ ɸè nnì η wàj̃ .
 DEM ~2 go give PRF CPL 3 give water 3.PL ~2 PP

He gave water to them

154 nnì kóó -H nníé -rè mì .
 3.PL CPL 3 drink -rV- REFL

They drank.

155 kóó -H n tùrú .
 CPL 3 T lie down

They layed down (spent the night there).

156 nnì kóó -H dínjín -d -à nnì màá= dígá .
 3.PL CPL 3 say again, repeat (word) -r- RV 3.PL.POSS talk

They repeated their talk.

157 mi -L kéndé ùhùh máánì ,
 SG 3 said uhuh whatchamacallit

He said, uhuh, whats-your-name...

158 nú mì à kàràà káw̃ ?
 how is it DEF obtain DEM

How did you come to get this [woman]?

159 mì -L kéndè káw̃ dè .
 SG 3 said DEM emphatic

He said that,

160 jìbèé N dógòndò .
 person T bring

a person brought [her].

161 k'óó -H nnò -ò à nnì -ì N náw wàj .
 CPL 3 come RV CHN give PRF T give PP

He came to give her to them.

162 k'óó -H nnì ò n dá nnò -ò -L ,
 CPL 3 say ~2 INC come RV 3

He said that he is coming [back],

163 dá wòrè -L n dá n dò ,
 INC go 3 ~2 INC T come

he is going and coming,

164 nnì à sié kéndè .
 3.PL now yet

they [should take her] for now.

165 haja nè tígè nè káwàà tág -à -L nè káwàà síè .
 OK 1.PL also 1.PL CPL take RV 3 1.PL CPL take

OK, we also took [her], we took [her].

166 káwàá m bàr -á ímà né m pè .
 CPL T remains RV here 1.PL ~2 PP

She remains with us.

167 màá= -L já -n -á twà .
 POSS 3 take -r- RV reach

Her marriage (time) arrived.

168 màà= -L éíèⁿ bíè jíè .
 POSS= 3 owner NEG see

Her owner is not seen (there was no husband for her).

169 nié -ré sé máá= -H já -n -á twà pààⁿ ,
 woman -rV- if POSS= 3 take -r- RV reach all

If a woman's marriage time arrives,

170 mì -L náw jà -n -à .
 SG 3 give take -r- RV

she is given in marriage.

171 sé éíèⁿ bíè wàj ,
 if owner NEG PP

If there is no owner,

172 sé máà -L jà -n -á twà pààⁿ ,
 if POSS 3 take -r- RV reach all

if her marriage time arrives

173 mì -L náw jà -n -á
 SG 3 give take -r- RV

she is given/taken.

174 mì -L kéndè ùhùh
SG 3 say uhuh

He said uhuh.

175 mì -L hòⁿ bíè sígà ká kóó -H à sié kéndè ,
SG 3 emphatic NEG ask DEM CPL 3 now yet

I have not yet asked that,

176 bóó -wàj kóó -H ná náà à sié kéndè náà ?
tie STAT CPL 3 COOR COOR now yet COOR

is there a rope on her yet (or what)?

177 bíè bóó -wàj η kó .
NEG tie STAT ~2 PP

A rope was not tied on [her neck].

178 wálájè sé tónjòrò gúwè bíè bóó -wàj η kó .
swear to God if truth better NEG tie STAT ~2 PP

I swear to God, if truth is better, a rope was not tied on her neck.

179 nnì kóř -ó pó dógóndò ,
3.PL change, switch, transform RV each bring

They returned her,

179 nnì kóó -H nná η wàj .
3.PL CPL 3 give ~2 PP

they gave her to [him].

181 mì -L kéndè bíè bóó -wàj ŋ kó .
 SG 3 say NEG tie STAT ~2 PP

He said a rope was not tied on her [neck].

182 mì -L kéndè à ká tájrì ?
 SG 3 said 2.SG DEM sure

He said are you sure of that?

183 mí -H kéndè sé bíè bóó -wàj kóĩ -ó gúwè .
 SG 1 said if NEG tie STAT change, switch, transform RV better

I said it is better if [the rope] was not tied.

184 mì -L kéndè góòⁿ ,
 SG 3 say man

He said man,

185 mí -H dégè jáátì mì -L jà -n -à .
 SG 1 himself/herself definitely SG 3 take -r- RV

I, myself definitely, I married her.

186 ádáhámdilájè mí -H dégè mì -L jà -n -à dó n nàw
 praise be to God SG 3 himself/herself SG 3 take -r- RV bring T give
 káràà mè
 obtain 1SG POSS

Praise be to God, I myself, I married and brought give to find (they received children).

187 dóné ná káràà mè bi -mí =ndè jáátì
 day INC obtain COMP baby DIM =PL definitely

On the day in which we got children very much so?

188 mì -L kéndè hájà kóó -H nnì òhà hà sán -d -ò .
 SG 3 said OK CPL 3 say IRR descend -r- RV

He said OK, she has come to see her family

189 hájà nnì N díj -à éí .
 OK 3.PL T eat RV food

OK they eat food.

190 hájà nnì n díj -à éí .
 OK 3.PL T eat RV food

OK, they eat food.

191 ò kóó -H n sígà áw hèn màání ,
 ~2 CPL 3 T ask 2.PL emphatic whatchamacallit

He asked, hey whats-your-name,

192 à kómé -L ò gòòⁿ nnù -ù -L mì -L á nì òhà ?
 DEF slave DEF GEN man come PRF 3 SG 3 CHN say

What did the slave man say?

193 a nnì tu -d -o a maa nnì
 DEF 3.PL DEF POSS 3.PL

Have you sold her?

194 nì òhà nì òhà à kómè náá ?
 say say 2.SG slave question particle

Are you a slave?

195 mǎá nì ɲá à mé tóò
 EXIST say 2.SG.POSS younger sibling

He says, I am his younger sibling.

196 mì kéndè á sè tòḡrò gúwè
 SG say DEF if truth better

He said the if one speaks the truth, it is better

197 nnì nnì me kom
 3.PL 3.PL 3rd SG POSS slave
 ?

198 mì kéndè á jáḡà dègè
 SG say 2.SG ruin himself/herself

he said you ruin yourself

199 mí nnì ɲá sá ɥìè pààⁿ ,
 SG say if ascend all

he said if you ascend,

200 nnì áw à mè tóò
 3.PL 2.PL 2.SG.POSS younger sibling

Their younger sibling?

201 mì kéndè mǎá nì ɲá à dègè kómè .
 SG said PROH say 2.SG himself/herself slave

he said do not say that your self is a slave

202 kóó -H η wórè kóó -H nìí ηá mì -L kómè .
 CPL 3 ~2 go CPL 3 say SG 3 slave

you went and said that you were a slave

203 mí -H kéndè kóó -H nnìí ηá mí -H góòⁿ
 SG 3 say CPL 3 say SG 3 man

204 mì -L kéndè ajiwa
 SG 3 say OK

he said OK

205 à síjòⁿ ,
 now

now

206 mi -L kéndè sé bíè bóó -wàj η kóó -H bù -w̃ -è .
 SG 3 say if NEG tie STAT ~2 CPL 3 finish PRF RV

he said if there is no rope, it is finished

207 mì kéndè à síjòⁿ ,
 SG say now

he said now

208 bóò mí -H k^wá -nd -ì á nnìí à síjòⁿ
 father SG 3 beg -r- PRF 2.SG 3.PL now

father I beseech, beg you now

209 mí -H tígè n jìé -H -wàj bié n ɛíèⁿ .
 SG 1 also T become 3 STAT baby GEN owner

I also have become a owner of children.

210 m mòó máà -L dígà búwè hà jàŋ -à
 ~2 like.NEG.*** POSS 3 engagement IRR ruin RV

he does not want his engagement to be ruined

211 mì -L kéndè uhuh kóó -H béè básì à síjòⁿ hòⁿ
 SG 3 say uhuh CPL 3 NEG problem now emphatic

he said no, not a problem now (emphatic)

212 sé bíè bójéè ŋ kó pááⁿ bíè básì
 if NEG rope ~2 PP all NEG problem

If there is no rope, there is no problem

213 à síjòⁿ ñàrá nnì -ì ŋ kéè á wàj .
 now God give PRF ~2 PRF 2.SG PP

Now God gave her to you,

214 mì -L tígè nnì -ì ŋ kéè à wàj
 SG 3 also give PRF ~2 PRF 2.SG PP

I also gave her to you.

215 à síjòⁿ à màá á ɥíè à síjòⁿ
 now CHN want CHN ascend now

Now we can ascend now

216 bíè bàsì nè só -rè máà -L mínnà η kèè à síjòⁿ .
 NEG difficult 1.PL know -rV- POSS 3 place, location ~2 PRF now

No problem, we know his place now.

217 nnì túrù jìè jìndò .
 3.PL lie down night two

They spent two nights.

218 nnì kóó -H já -n -à -L mì -L nnì kóó -H úíé .
 3.PL CPL 3 take -r- RV 3 SG 3 3.PL CPL 3 ascend

They ascended.

219 nnì kóó -H N dígán -d -à á díga -L η wî .
 3.PL CPL 3 T talk -r- RV DEF talk DEF ~2 there

They repeated the talk there.

220 n ògà -d -a á díg -L η wî tígè
 ~2 talk -r- RV DEF talk DEF ~2 there also

They repeated the talk there also.

221 mì -L à nìé -ré kórà á bì =ndé mè -ndé η wî
 SG 3 DEF woman -rV- give birth DEF baby =PL 1sg POSS PL ~2 there

The children which the woman gave birth to there

222 kàà -rú tígè nnì jìè -wàj p^wíè =ndé nàw bóró =ndè
 DEM DEM.PL also 3.PL become STAT wife =PL and young man =PL

Those also they became young women and young men

223 à nié -ré tórè
 DEF woman -rV- one

the one woman,

224 nnì kóó -H já -n -á nnì kóó -H nàw wòré túbégé
 3.PL CPL 3 take -r- RV 3.PL CPL 3 give go village name

they gave her in marriage to Tubege

225 nnì N jà -n -á túbégé
 3.PL T take -r- RV village name

they married her in Tubege

226 η káw tígè kóó -H wòré a kóó -H η wii
 ~2 DEM also CPL 3 go CPL 3 ~2 there

she gave birth there

227 túbégé tige
 village name also

228 nnì ka na
 3.PL CPL PASS

229 muwi tige a ka η wii
 today also DEF CPL there

230 hájá à sù káwàà n sáká wòré
 OK DEF ethnicity CPL GEN go

Our ethnicity is there.

231 túbégé
 village name

(she had 7 children in Tete, and these all scattered throughout Tondifere)

Text XII: Tiga 2

1 wèrè η gàrà púndà
village south east of Kargue Fulani

A Fulani from Werengara,

2 wèrè η gàrà –mí =ndè η káára –H gúzè
village south east of Kargue INHAB PL ~2 find 3 grass, weeds

The people of Werengara found grass, weeds.

3 wùró jéwól –mí =ndè m biè káara –L gúzè
village of Jewol INHAB PL ~2 NEG find 3 grass, weeds

The people of village of Jewol did not find grass, weeds.

4 à wèrè η gàrà –màa= kòò nàw tũmbé n nó –ó
DEF village south east of Kargue INHAB CPL give message T come RV

The village south east of Kargue inhabitants sent a message,

5 à wùró jéwól màa wayi
DEF village of Jewol inhabitants of PP

to the village of Jewol inhabitants.

6 mì –L kèndé há n nú –ú n jí –nd –à gúzè wáa
SG 3 say IRR T come PRF ~2 eat –r– RV grass reported

He said to come eat grass.

7 η wíi hóⁿ níi hóⁿ tójò =wájí
~2 there emphatic 3.PL emphatic leftovers gone bad =STAT

There are too many weeds there.

8 màa= –H náá –ndè hòⁿ N bíiⁿ η wàj gújè
POSS 1 cow PL emphatic T fill ~2 STAT grass, weeds

My cows are very full of grass.

9 sé à wǔró jéwòl –máà kón –d –ì
 if DEF village of Jewol INHAB able –r– PRF

If the village of Jewol inhabitants are unable,

10 gùjè –L η káàrà hùⁿ pááⁿ há nú –ú
 grass, weeds 3 ~2 obtain PP all IRR come PRF

to get weeds, they should come,

11 à wǔró jéwòl –máà
 DEF village of Jewol INHAB

(to) the inhabitants of the village of Jewol.

12 mì –L kéndè tòṅó
 SG 3 say truth

He said truth.

13 á ní ṅà jáátí
 2.SG say definitely

You said that very much so.

14 mí –H hóⁿ m bíè nò –ò –L
 SG 1 emphatic ~2 NEG come RV 1

I am not coming.

15 η káw dínđì η kéeè
 ~2 DEM hurt ~2 PRF

That hurts me. (because that shows the one village is better than the other)

16 kòò n já –n –á mì
 CPL T take –r– RV REFL

He took himself,

17 kóò n nò -ò -L búùⁿ
 CPL T come RV 3 Bounou

He came to Bounou,

18 kóò n nò -ò -L à sig -ú -H à kí póóré =nè
 CPL T come RV 3 CHN ask PRF 3 DEF thing black PL

He came to ask the Dogon,

19 à kí póóré -nè nējéròṅkàw
 DEF thing black PL why

He asked the Dogon why,

20 nìí m bíè n káraá -H zòòⁿ -L
 3.PL ~2 NEG T find 3 rain, sky 3

they did not get any rain this year.

21 mì -L kèndé à mé jérò nè bíè n káraà -L zóóⁿ -H
 SG 3 say DEF COMP why NEG T obtain 3 rain, sky 3

He said the reason which you did not get rain this year.

22 nàá ná m bíè =nè η kàw hándà
 cow CONJ GEN baby PL ~2 DEM have to

You have to get a cow and its babies.

23 n jàg -á -H híngà η kàw jé -r -ò
 ~2 cut RV 3 before ~2 DEM do PRF RV

You should have slaughtered it before.

24 nè bíè η káraà -L zòòⁿ -L
 why NEG ~2 find 3 rain, sky 3

That is why you did not get rain.

25 nè m màá -H bíè kàráà -H
 1.PL T want 1 NEG obtain 1

We wanted (rain) but did not get it.

26 níí m bíè jág -á -H
 3.PL ~2 NEG cut RV 3

They did not slaughter.

27 η káw hándā à zóóⁿ -H kàráà -L
 ~2 DEM must DEF rain, sky 3 obtain 3

In order to get the rain, they must slaughter.

28 à pùndà -L mí -H kéndè η káw pó pó wà ?
 DEF Fulani DEF SG 1 say ~2 DEM only only reported speech

The Fulani, I said it only?

29 mí -H kéndè òhòn η káw pó
 SG 1 say yes ~2 DEM only

I said yes that only.

30 mì -L kéndè η káw pó η káw pó ?
 SG 3 say ~2 DEM only ~2 DEM only

He said that only, that only?

31 mì -L kéndé hàjà á kàráà -L kèè ?
 SG 3 say OK 2.SG obtain 3 PRF

He said, OK did you get it?

32 η kě hen nènè màá -L sígòò -L ?
 alright now when POSS 3 week 3

When is its (slaughtering) day?

33 á sígóó -H màá= -H nî káw
 DEF week 1 POSS 3 name DEM

The day has not been named yet.

34 màá= -H m màà -L sígòò -L
 POSS 1 want 3 week 3

I want its day.

35 mí -H kéndè hàjà
 SG 1 say OK

I said OK.

36 sá à sígóó -H η káw nó -ò -L
 if DEF week 3 ~2 DEM come RV 3

If the day it comes,

37 n dá N nó -ò -L
 INC T come RV 1

I am coming.

38 nùṅà -L n dá nó -ò -L
 prepare 2 INC come RV 1

You prepare, I am coming.

39 mì -L kéndè hàjà
 SG 3 say OK

He said OK.

40 mì -L kéndè sá á náà ná máà -L bíè N nù -ú -L hòⁿ
 SG 3 say if DEF cow CONJ POSS 3 baby T come PRF 3 emphatic

He said if the cow and her child come (emphatic)

41 mì -L kéndè á zòóⁿ -L hòⁿ nè tígé nè η káràà -L η kéeⁿ
 SG 3 say DEF rain DEF emphatic 1.PL also 1.PL ~2 obtain 1 ~2 PRF

He said, we also got the rain.

42 mì -L kéndè hàjà koyi
 SG 3 say OK emphatic

He said OK.

43 à pùndá -L η kóò wórè
 DEF Fulani DEF ~2 CPL go

The Fulani left.

44 η kóò nó -ò -L
 ~2 CPL come RV 3

The Fulani came.

45 à pùndà -L wórè wàj
 DEF Fulani DEF go STAT

The Fulani left.

46 wörè -L
 go 3

He left.

47 à sigòò dàm -b -á -H
 DEF day full PRF RV 3

The day arrived. (The day was fulfilled.)

48 à púndā -H tígé η kòò kùmbó -L
 DEF Fulani 3 also ~2 CPL search 3

The Fulani also searched.

49 à nàà ná màà= -L bié
 DEF cow CONJ POSS= 3 baby

The cow and her baby.

50 kòò já -n -à -L á níí mé jámbè wàj
 CPL take -r- RV 3 DEF give COMP child PP

He took that which was taken he gave to the child (the cow and its child) and gave (them) to the child.

51 kǒ n úiè tíè màà= -L uóò hùⁿ
 CPL ~2 ascend sit POSS= 3 horse PP

He got up on his horse.

52 ke pèrè -L nó -ó há bùùⁿ
 say lead 3 come RV until Bounou

The Fulani's child led (the cow and her child) all the way to Bounou

53 n tígè n dáà N nó -ò -H
 also INC T come RV 1

I also I am coming

54 à yàmbè -L tígé kòò já -n -à -L à nàà pié máà -L tégò
 DEF child DEF also CPL take -r- RV 3 DEF cow put POSS 3 front

The child also took the cow (which) preceded them (i.e. the cow went first).

55 mì -L tígé kóò ɥíè à tíè màá= -L ɔóó -H hùⁿ
 SG 3 also CPL ascend CHN sit POSS 3 horse 3 PP

He (the Fulani) also got up on his horse.

56 ímà bíè ímà
 here NEG here

Here is not here.

57 ímà bíè ímà
 here NEG here

Here is not here.

58 há búùⁿ
 until Bounou

Until Bounou. (He kept saying, 'here is not here, until they reached Bounou'.)

59 há àmírù búùⁿ jàw
 until chief Bounou beside

Until he arrived next to the Chief of Bounou (So's grandfather).

60 kóò nò -ò -L à nî ásàlámàlákùm
 CPL come RV 3 CHN say is there peace here?

He came to say greeting

61 àmírù búùⁿ jàw
 chief Bounou beside

Next to the Chief of Bounou.

62 àmírù mì -L kèndè wàlákùmásàlám
 chief SG 3 say there is peace here

The Chief, he said, greetings back.

63 bísímíláji
 welcome

Welcome.

64 tág -à -L ɥié há níè
 take RV 3 water IRR drink

Take water to drink.

65 mì -L kèndé ha koyi
 SG 3 say OK emphatic

He said OK.

66 kòò tág -à -L à ɥié à níè mì
 CPL take RV 3 DEF water CHN drink REFL

He took the water and drank.

67 mì -L kèndé ha amiiru buun niɲa mi nú -ú -H wàj
 SG 3 say OK chief Bounou name SG come PRF 1 STAT

He said ok Chief of Bounou, we, ourselves have come.

68 mì -L nì ɲá mé híngà
 SG 3 say COMP before

He said that which before.

69 nè màá= házè mè N káára -H η kèè
 1.PL.POSS need COMP T find 1 ~2 PRF

We got our need.

70 mì kèndé hàjà η ság
 SG say OK God I am counting on you

He said OK God I am counting on Allah, I am counting on you.

71 mì kèndé hàjà à púndā -L
 SG say OK DEF Fulani DEF

He said OK, the Fulani.

72 kí hùⁿ á síjòⁿ
 make an effort PP now

Try hard now.

73 àw mè mina a twá -H wùrò jéwòl
 2.PL COMP location 2.SG reach 2 village of Jewol

Before you have reached the place which is the village of Jewol,

74 ènchállàh á ná à jòóⁿ -L qié máà míndè sììⁿ
 if God agrees 2.SG CONJ DEF rain DEF water EXIST enter RECIP
 wùrò jéwòl
 village of Jewol

If God agrees you and the rain water are entering together the village of Jewol

75 mì -L kèndé òhòh kùwó bíè tónjòró jìè
 SG 3 say no CPL NEG truth do

He said, no, that does not happen.

76 mì -L kèndé mí -H ní òà
 SG 3 say SG 1 say

He said I said that

77 mì -L kèndé dáà hájà ní òà wòrè -L á jáá -ndè wàj
 SG 3 say INC OK say go 3 DEF child PL STAT

He said I am going to tell the children to hurry.

78 kóò ní òà hàjà
 CPL say OK

He said that OK.

79 ò kóò ní òà hàjà màá= -H jáà =ndé wàj
 ~2 CPL say OK POSS 3 children PL PP

He said OK to his children.

80 à jáà =ndé kóò N péé'ré á nàà
 DEF child PL CPL T lead DEF cow

The children lead the cow.

81 nii kóò n tégò nî màà= wàrí n jíè mínnà
 3.PL CPL ~2 front, face 3rd PL POSS work ~2 do place, location

They went to see if their work had gone forward

82 nii níj ko tero
 3.PL say CPL sit

83 níj ko ò ga diga hun
 say CPL ~2 but talk PP

84 nii n da a diga diga
3.PL ~2 INC DEF talk talk

85 nii n da a digá diga
3.PL ~2 INC DEF talk talk

86 sàṅá jè tǔré páw
once, one time all

There was this one time,

87 nii kóò jàà -L zòòⁿ -L pórí n nǎw
3.PL CPL see 3 rain, sky 3 black ~2 ascend

they saw rain, sky black ascend

88 mi kende amiru wuro jewol jije ha ŋ wo
SG say chief Jewol do IRR ~2 go

He said for the Chief of Jewol to go (in a hurry).

89 à zóóⁿ -L pórí nǎw wàj déè
DEF rain, sky DEF black ascend STAT emphatic

The black sky ascends.

90 mi -L kèndé bíè múwì hòⁿ
SG 3 say NEG today emphatic

He said not today!

91 mi -L kèndé hájà kóji jìé -H
SG 3 say OK emphatic rise 3

He said OK get up.

92 à jáá à ʒóóⁿ –L póórī náw wàj
 2.SG see DEF rain, sky DEF black ascend STAT

You see the black sky ascends.

93 mì –L kèndé hájà amiiru bùúⁿ mí –H n dáà wòrè –L wàj à síjòⁿ n
 SG 3 say OK chief Bounou SG 1 ~2 INC go 3 STAT now ~2
 da wore wayi
 INC go STAT

He said OK, Chief of Bounou, I am going now, he is going.

94 mì –L kèndé tìg –é –ré –L
 SG 3 say run RV PRF 3

He said run!

95 á kwà kí à b^wéè pááⁿ tìg –é –ré –H
 2.SG able DEF foot all run RV PRF 3

If you are able to run (with your feet).

96 n tìg –é –H kóò N újè à tíè màà= –L uóò hùⁿ
 ~2 run RV 3 CPL T ascend CHN sit POSS= 3 horse PP

He ran and ascended to sit on his horse.

97 η kwà η kí á b^wéè –L pàáⁿ dáà tìg –ì
 ~2 able DEF foot DEF all INC run PRF

If he is able to run.

98 dò màá= wùrò jèwól η kí
 pass EXIST village of Jewol ~2 thing

He is passing the village of Jewol (?)

99 hàjà dò màá= kárigè η kí
 OK pass EXIST Karigue ~2 thing

OK, He is passing Karigue.

100 bìè t^wáá -r-á wùró jèwól
 NEG reach -r-INC village of Jewol

He does not arrive at the village of Jewol.

101 à zòòⁿ -L kóò m piè
 DEF rain, sky 3 CPL T put

The rain put (set down upon him).

102 kóò n tíngí -d -á máá= -H uóò
 CPL ~2 get up -r- RV POSS= 3 horse

It woke up his horse.

103 n dà -L wórè mindè -L wùró jèwól pààⁿ
 ~2 INC 3 go enter 3 village of Jewol all

(as) He is going to enter the village of Jewol,

104 à zóóⁿ -H sáw wàj hùⁿ
 DEF rain, sky 3 descend STAT PP

the rain descended (was descending).

105 hà bié káraà -L màá= -L uóò -L màá=- tòrò -L
 until NEG obtain 3 POSS= 3 horse 3 EXIST hang 3

He could not get his horse tied.

106 dáà uòò -L màá= -L kèrè kéré pìn -d -ò á sán -d -í
 INC horse 3 POSS 3 saddle put -r- RV CHN descend PRF PRF

He is putting his saddle onto his horse.

107 à zóóⁿ -H dá sààⁿ hùⁿ dá tígí -rì m̀ndè -L wàj ɲ kúwò
 DEF rain 1 INC descend PP INC run -rV- enter 3 STAT GEN house

The rain is falling on him as he is entering the house.

Text XIII: Tiga 3

1 η kàw bìè té n nò
 ~2 3.SG NEG lost ~2 come

It (my testimony) will not come to be lost.

2 nè dâw kàrigé màà
 1.PL CONJ Karigue inhabitant of

We, a person from Karigue and (me),

3 né mè N kùn -r -á -H síⁿ
 1.PL.POSS T gather, meet PRF RV 3 RECIP

we meet each other.

4 η wî kàrigé
 ~2 there Karigue

There in Karigue.

5 kàrigé màà= -L díréctór jáà wò
 Karigue POSS 3 see STAT

(we) saw Karigue's director.

6 mi -L kéndé éh nii ní sîndú
 SG 3 say emphatic 3.PL say first

He said they say they came first (to the valley).

7 bú mí -ndè wàà
 Bounou DIM PL reported speech

The people of Bounou said,

8 mí -H kéndè uh huh áá bìè sîndú bùⁿ -mí =ndè
 SG 1 say 2.PL NEG first Bounou DIM =PL

I said, uh huh, you did not come before the people of Bounou.

9 mi -L kéndè ní níṅà sùndú
 SG 3 say 3.PL say first

He said they say they [came] first.

10 ṅ kéndè wàláji áá bîè sùndú bùùⁿ -mí =ndè
 ~2 say swear to God 2.PL NEG first Bounou DIM =PL

I said, I swear to God, you[pl] did not come before the people of Bounou!

11 à hóⁿ à dá gándà mè ṅ kò á siè tígí tígí
 2.SG emphatic 2.SG INC place COMP ~2 inside now very much so

You (emph) you are very much in the place where you are at right now!

12 dábé jé -r -ò -L à kwá káàrà ṅ káw
 curse do PRF RV 3 CHN able obtain ~2 3.SG

Because of the curse you were able to do it.

13 àá jón -èièⁿ =ndé
 2.PL vampire AGENT =PL

You vampires!

14 mi -H kéndé àá kwá káàrà ṅ kàw
 SG 1 say 2.PL able obtain ~2 3.SG

I say that is how you were able to get it.

15 a wó -r -é -H wó á ṅùwà
 2.SG go PRF PRF 3 go [and] CHN prepare

You went and prepared (the curse).

16 nnié bógò nó siiⁿ
 woman big mouth between

Plant sp (lit. 'old woman's teeth') [the curse was made from the plant species – it has thick, sharp thorns.]

17 kwá sám̀bà gá̀zèⁿ η kí páàⁿ η kò
 2.PL able spray, sprinkle DEF world ~2 something all ~2 inside

You were able to spray everything in the world.

18 sè t̀ùg -í -L bǎ̀ngì -mé pááⁿ jàà -L wà̀j
 if pierce PRF 3 person who is of the Banga race INHAB all die 3 STAT

If it [the plant species] pierces a Bangime, he dies.

19 sè t̀ùg -í -L bǎ̀ngì -mé pááⁿ jàà -L wà̀j
 if pierce PRF 3 person who is of the Banga race INHAB all die 3 STAT

If it pierces a Bangime, he dies.

20 sè t̀ùg -í -L bǎ̀ngì -mé pááⁿ ja -L wà̀j
 if pierce PRF 3 person who is of the Banga race INHAB all die 3 PP

If it pierces a Bangime, he dies.

21 η k̀ì páàⁿ dá wò -r -é -H jáà bùùⁿ wà̀j
 ~2 thing all INC go PRF PRF 3 die Bounou STAT

They [the Bangande] all go die until they were finished.

22 á k̀ì -r̀ì -é mè b́ár -àà kó tíg -é wà̀j
 DEF thing -rV- DIM COMP remain RV CPL run PRF STAT

The few that remained ran.

23 à k̀ì -r̀ì -é η káẁ t̀ìg -í -r -é wà̀j
 DEF thing -rV- DIM ~2 3.SG run PRF PRF RV PP

Those that ran,

24 à t̀ìgè á kwá nò -L à kwá nò -L á t̀ìè hùⁿ
 DEF also CHN able come 3 CHN able come 3 CHN sit PP

They also came to be able to come to be able to sat there.

25 η káw̄ jè -r -ó -H à kwá káàrà à gàndà -L kàw
 ~2 3.SG do PRF RV 1 CHN able obtain DEF place DEF 3.SG

That is what happened that they were able to get that place.

26 sé béè η káw̄ sáàⁿ n tɔyɔ síⁿ
 if NEG ~2 3.SG descend ~2 no one RECIP

If not for that, the people of Karague,

27 bíè ímà híngà
 NEG here before

were not there.

28 à màá= dábé jè -r -ò -L à kwá káàrà á gàndà -L káw̄
 2.SG POSS curse do PRF RV 3 CHN able obtain DEF place DEF 3.SG

Because of your curse, you got that place.

29 gié jà ?
 false QU

Is it false?

30 á sà -mí kèndé wáláji tɔ̀nòró wá
 DEF Karigue people INHAB say swear to God truth reported speech

The person from Karague said, I swear to God that is truth.

Text IXX: Tiga 4

1 bú –mí –ndè náw báráá –mì =ndé
 Bunu DIM PL COOR Baraa INHAB =PL

The people of Baraa and the people of Bounou,

2 nnì kòò káṅánà síⁿ à báráá –mì =ndé
 3.PL CPL argue (over smth for ownership) RECP DEF Baraa INHAB =PL

they argued with the people from Baraa.

3 nnì kòò níṅà ní mí –L ḡ káw̃àà màà= –L bú –mí =ndè wàj
 3.PL CPL say SG 3 ~2 old POSS= 3 Bunu INHAB =PL PP

They said they are older than Bounou's people.

4 nnì kòò níṅà ní mí –H káw̃àà
 3.PL CPL say SG 3 old

They said they are older.

5 ámiró búùⁿ mé kéndè ná wòrè –L ɥáá nàà
 chief Bunu COMP say INC go 3 buy cow

The chief of Bounou said he is going to buy a cow.

6 nnì kòò wòrè –L ɥáá à nàà
 3.PL CPL go 3 buy DEF cow

He went and bought the cow.

7 nnì kòò dú –ú à nàà wòrè –L à kóř̃nò húⁿ
 3.PL CPL bring PRF DEF cow go 3 DEF place near Karague PP

They brought the cow (went) to Kornono.

8 mé –ɛìèⁿ káw̃àà há jág –à à nàà màá= –H kwà
 COMP AGENT old IRR cut RV DEF cow POSS 3 neck

The ones which were oldest (the oldest men) [from both villages] [came] to slaughter the cow.

9 à báráá –mì =ndé nnì kòò níṅà ní káw̃àà
 DEF Baraa INHAB =PL 3.PL CPL say old

The people of Baraa say they are older.

10 ámiró búùⁿ kòò náw à bàáⁿ nnì wàj
 chief Bunu CPL give DEF knife 3.PL PP

The chief of Bounou gave the knife to them.

11 kóò níṅà jág -à -L à nàà màá= -H kwà
 CPL say cut RV 3 DEF cow POSS 3 neck

He said cut the cow's neck (slaughter the cow).

12 kóò jág -à -L à nàà màá= -H kwà
 CPL cut RV 3 DEF cow POSS 3 neck

He slaughtered the cow.

13 kei saaⁿ à báraá -mì =ndé nnì há zàà
 after that DEF Baraa INHAB =PL 3.PL IRR die

After that, the people of Baraa [began] to die.

14 nnì kóò nò -ò siije bujisie
 3.PL CPL come RV ask for forgiveness

They came to ask for forgiveness.

15 nnì kóò níṅà tóṅò bú -mí =ndè káw̃àà
 3.PL CPL say truth Bunu INHAB =PL old

They said it is the truth, the people of Bounou are older.

Text XX: Tiga 5

1 túndúrū

call (and response)

I am going to tell a story.

2 náámù

listen

We are listening.

3 jìbéé jìndó n té -ró -H fìⁿ m páⁿ -mè
 person two T become -rV- 3 RECIPIENT ~2 friend DIM

Two people became friendship (friends) [with] each other.

4 nù màá= páⁿ -mè wò dé
 3rd PL POSS friend DIM EXIST sweet

Their friendship was sweet.

5 nní djà tòrè

3.PL village one

They [were from] one (the same) village.

6 à kèè tè ŋ kámá n sàṅà n dá nníé -rè
 DEF thing one ~2 CPL ~2 mess around (euphemism) ~2 INC woman -rV-

The one played with a woman.

7 páw màá= -L dǐjá -H ŋ kò
 take POSS= 3 village 3 ~2 PP

She was from another village.

8 á dǐjá -H ŋ káw
 DEF village 3 ~2 DEM

That village,

9 sé máá -L pàáⁿ -L sǔéè nàá jìè hǔⁿ jáá nàw
 if POSS 3 friend 3 descend wilderness night PP die FUT

if his friend goes to the wilderness at night, he will die.

10 ŋ kóó ní ṅà mì -L sǔéè nàw
 ~2 CPL say SG 3 descend FUT

He said that he will descend (to the wilderness).

11 η kámá níí ηá máà sùéè nàw
~2 CPL say PROH descend FUT

He (his friend) said don't descend.

12 η kámá níí ηá mì -L sùéè nàw
~2 CPL say SG 3 descend FUT

He said that he will descend.

13 η kámá níí ηá sé sùéè n dàw màlpa dá η wì
~2 CPL say if descend ~2 INC rifle INC ~2 there

He said (his friend said), if you go down, there will be a rifle.

14 kòò hà n jà -n -á á màlpa
CPL IRR T take -r- RV DEF rifle

I will take the rifle.

15 há tínd -é nî η k'wéèⁿ tóré m bòóⁿ há tínd -é sùéè η
IRR put PRF hand GEN fingernail one GEN powder IRR put PRF descend ~2
kò
PP

I will put one fingernail over the gun powder (in order to silence the rifle).

16 màlpa η biè kété hà n tìnd -è sùéé à màlpa η kò
rifle GEN baby other IRR T put PRF descend DEF rifle ~2 PP

I will put one bullet inside the rifle.

17 séè sùéé à náà η kò
if descend CHN INC ~2 PP

If he descends into the wilderness,

18 séè kée η kámá n jój -r -ò n jàw
if thing ~2 CPL T respond PRF RV ~2 beside

if he responds to anything,

19 máà jòò há n dèwⁿ bùúⁿ tàáró
PROH respond until T fill time three

do not respond until (you are called) three times.

20 η kámá n wòré á nnìé -rè n jáw
 ~2 CPL ~2 go DEF woman -rV- GEN beside

He went next to his woman.

21 η kàmà n tíngòn -d -ó á nnìé -rè
 ~2 CPL T get up -r- RV DEF woman -rV-

He woke up his woman.

22 η kámà níṅà jèà hèèrè
 ~2 CPL talk QU peace

He said is there peace?

23 màà- máà á nnìé -rè
 want want DEF woman -rV-

He [said that] he wanted the woman.

24 η kámà níṅà máà màá á nnìé -rè
 ~2 CPL say want want DEF woman -rV-

He said that he wanted the woman.

25 η kámá níṅà sàà á gòòⁿ
 ~2 CPL talk if DEF man

She asked if he was the man.

26 η kámà níṅà máà -L pááⁿ -H níṅà n tàg -ú
 ~2 CPL say POSS 3 friend 3 say T agree PRF

He said his friend said he agreed.

27 η kámá níṅà nî hà wòréé nî máà díjà η kò
 ~2 CPL say 3.PL IRR go 3rd PL POSS village ~2 PP

He said for them to go to their village.

28 nî sùèé à náà η kò
 3.PL descend DEF wilderness ~2 PP

They descended wilderness.

29 nî n t'wáá -L á kèè màá= -L kòò n nóò
 3.PL T reach 3 DEF thing POSS 3 house GEN mouth

They arrived at the thing's house's mouth (door).

30 nî kámá n té -rò ηʷí
3.PL CPL T sit -rV- there

They sat there.

31 à kéè á kámá n nó -ó -H à káraà nî ηʷí
DEF thing CHN CPL T come RV 3 CHN find 3.PL there

The thing came to find them there.

32 à kéè η kámá niṅá n dá mè η kùmbó n dà ímà
DEF thing ~2 CPL say ~2 INC COMP T search ~2 INC here

The thing which I am looking for is here.

33 káwà n wórè kámà n n dò
CPL ~2 go CPL T

He went and came back.

34 hán dè búùⁿ táàrò
until time three

Three times.

35 n tígè kà sááⁿ n tàv́à à m màlpà η kò
~2 also DEM descend T shoot DEF rifle ~2 PP

He also shot it with the rifle.

36 nnié -rè η kámà niṅá táàwá mé hà n sùrà
woman -rV- ~2 CPL say fire which IRR T look

The woman told he who was shot to look,

37 há sáà m búùⁿ tààrò
IRR time three

until it is done three times,

38 n tígéé η kà sááⁿ n jè -ró háⁿ sùrà
~2 also ~2 DEM descend T do -rV- until look

He also looked at it that time.

39 n kámá wòrè -L á káraà á kéè jàá -wè
~2 CPL go 3 CHN find DEF thing die STAT

He went to find the thing died.

40 kàmá n jág -à -L màá= -L kwà
 CPL T cut RV 3 POSS 3 neck

He cut his throat (he slaughtered the thing).

41 kàmá sig -á á nnìé -rè
 CPL ask RV DEF woman -rV-

He asked the woman

42 nî màà= -L pááⁿ -H
 say POSS= 3 all 3

Tell his friend,

43 η kàmá n wòrè -L á nî máà pááⁿ -H wàj
 ~2 CPL ~2 go 3 DEF 3rd PL POSS friend 3 PP

to tell his friend,

44 à kèè tàg -ú -L à nnìé -rè η kèè
 DEF thing take PRF 3 DEF woman -rV- ~2 PRF

the thing took the woman.

45 η kàmá nìjá óóhòò
 ~2 CPL say uhuh

He said, uhuh.

46 η kámá nìjá hàⁿ tùrúú n dá à kèè m píè hùⁿ
 ~2 CPL say IRR lie down ~2 INC DEF thing T put PP

He said to lie down on the thing.

47 n dá wòrè -L n dá n dò wáà
 ~2 INC go 3 ~2 INC T pass reported speech

48 η kámá N nò -ò -L à káárà màà= -L pááⁿ -H tùrùò η
 ~2 CPL T come RV 3 CHN find POSS= 3 friend 3 lie down GEN
 kò

inside

He came to find his friend lying inside.

49 η kámá -H síg -à jà héèrè
 ~2 CPL 3 ask RV who peace

The other found them there.

60 nii kámá ɥíè kòò
3.PL CPL ascend house

They went home.

61 bùùⁿ
finish

The end.

Text XXI: Maraka (Bozo) attack Bangande and how they reconciled

1 nnì nò -ò -L η káràà né η wî jégéè
 3.PL come RV 3 T find 1.PL ~2 there Jege

They came, they found us there at Jege

2 nnì η wî N káràà
 3.PL ~2 there T find

There they found us.

3 né té -ré jégéè
 1.PL sit -rV- Jege

We (were) sitting (at) Jege

4 nnì η kòò nò -ò -L já -n -à màà= -L bùřá
 3.PL ~2 CPL come RV 3 take -r- RV POSS= 3 stick

They came and took my staff.

5 né máà tégò jibéé màà= -L bùřá
 1.PL.POSS front, face person POSS= 3 stick

Our chief, his staff

6 màà= -L dègè eíèⁿ màà= -L bùřá
 POSS= 3 head owner POSS= 3 stick

Our chief, his staff.

7 nnì kòò jè -rò màà= -L dábè
 3.PL CPL do -rV- POSS= 3 curse

They did their spells.

8 nnì màà= -L dábè η káw̄
 3.PL POSS= 3 curse ~2 DEM

Their spells there.

9 à túúⁿ sé túg -ì áw̄ pááⁿ há pínd -ú
 DEF thorn if pierce PRF 2.PL all IRR swell PRF

The thorn, if it pierces you, you swell,

10 hà wó bòřó
 IRR go AUG

until it gets big.

11 η kámáà à síè màà= -L bimmè
 ~2 CPL CHN take POSS= 3 heart

(the hurt) Took my heart

12 nnì kòò bán -d -à né tóř -à n de η kámáà
 3.PL CPL tired -r- RV 1.PL bother RV 1.PL ~2 CPL

They pulled the wool over our eyes (they bothered us).

13 n táá há já -wò
 ~2 half IRR die STAT

Half (some) died.

14 n táá há tígí -wàj
 ~2 half until run STAT

Half (some) ran.

15 hé n dé n tígí -rè
 emphatic 1.PL run -rV-

Hey we ran!

16 né kòò wòré -H n tíé η wí búúⁿ
 1.PL CPL go 1 T sit ~2 there Bunu

We went and lived at Bounou

17 η kámáà m báá búúⁿ
 ~2 CPL T move out of Bunu

I left Bounou,

18 há wò bóngó -rò
 until go Bongoro -rV-

until I went to Bongoro.

19 n dé η kòò núw̃ -à n dé màà= -L dábé -rè
 1.PL ~2 CPL prepare RV 1.PL POSS= 3 curse -rV-

We prepared our spell.

20 nnì kòò égà
 3.PL CPL move

They moved.

21 nnì kòò wòrè -wàj
 3.PL CPL go STAT

They left.

22 nnì kòò nò -ò -L
3.PL CPL come RV 3

They came.

23 nnì kòò nò -ò -L
3.PL CPL come RV 3

They came.

24 nnì kòò nò -ò -L síè n dé m b^wèè
3.PL CPL come RV 3 take 1.PL ~2 foot

They came to ask for forgiveness.

25 né kòò η kém b -è
1.PL CPL T reconcile PRF

We reconciled.

26 nnì kòò n té -rò
3.PL CPL T sit -rV-

They sat.

Text XXII: dingi mayi leydi buubi**Magic Cat**

1 àmírí bùùⁿ n túndò màá= –L jáámbè ɸìè .
 chief Bunu T send POSS 3 child ascend

The chief of Bounou sent his child up.

2 màá= –L jáámbè η káw̄ n túndò ɸìé bàràamá .
 POSS 3 child ~2 DEM T send ascend Burema

This child of his, he sent up was Burema.

3 η kámáá ɸìé –H bàndzìgàrà .
 ~2 CPL ascend 3 Bandiagara

He went up to Bandiagara.

4 à dégé ɛíⁿ màà= –L túmbé hùⁿ .
 DEF head owner POSS= 3 message PP

The chief sent him.

5 nnà síí ɛíⁿ =ndé η kóò n jáá sííⁿ .
 INC strength owner =PL ~2 CPL T see RECP

the police (owners of strength) saw each other (the police and Burema).

6 η kámáá túg –à sííⁿ ɛíé =ndè .
 ~2 CPL curse, insult RV strength owner =PL

He insulted the police (they thought the chief sent an insult).

7 hè kóó n dínd –á à síí ɛíé =ndè .
 if CPL T hurt RV DEF strength owner =PL

He hurt the police (with his insult).

8 η kámáá nníí η kóó jà –ĩ –à mí .
 ~2 CPL 3.PL ~2 CPL take –r– RV PASS

He took them (they got ready to put Burema and the chief into jail).

9 nní kòd sóg -ó -H bùùⁿ máà -L nnòò -L .
 3.PL CPL close RV 3 Bunu POSS 3 mouth 3

They closed the mouth of Bounou (they surrounded the village – the valley).

10 η kámàà= á bùù -mí -ndè tígé nî η kòd jé -rò nnún -à
 ~2 CPL DEF Bunu DIM PL also 3.PL ~2 CPL do -rV- prepare RV

mì
 REFL

The people of Bounou, they also got themselves ready.

11 nní kòd n úìè à sìmèè -L hùⁿ .
 3.PL CPL T ascend DEF rock, cliff DEF PP

They climbed the cliffs (people of Bounou).

12 sìrìí máà dègè éíèⁿ .
 Sirii EXIST head owner

Sirii was chief.

13 nù kòd n úúúr -à à díjà -L η kò , sìrìí .
 3.PL CPL T kill RV DEF village DEF GEN PP Sirii

They killed the chief in the village, Sirii.

14 à díjà -L n dó úìè -wàj .
 DEF village DEF T bring ascend STAT

The village went up.

15 nnì wórè η káràà bìè wórè .
 3.PL go ~2 find NEG go

They go [and] find [they] will not go. (the people of Bounou came and found the Fuuta would not go).

16 nnì tígè η kòd n jáà sììⁿ .
 3.PL also ~2 CPL T see RECP

They also saw each other (the people of Bounou met to make a spell).

17 nnìì η kòdò núη -à n dègè .
3.PL ~2 CPL prepare RV ~2 himself/herself

They prepared themselves.

18 nnìì η kòdò sááⁿ -wè péré nnìì gúw -è .
3.PL ~2 CPL descend STAT chase out 3.PL separate IMPV

They descended and chased them away.

19 nnìì η kòdò núηà n dègè .
3.PL ~2 CPL prepare ~2 himself/herself

They prepared themselves.

20 sírìì kòdò jáá -wè .
Sirii CPL die STAT

Sirii was dead.

21 nnìì tígè η kòdò n jáà sììⁿ .
3.PL also ~2 CPL T see RECP

They also saw each other (the people of Bounou met to make a spell).

22 nnìì kòdò n úúúr -à díjà -L η kò , sìrífí .
3.PL CPL T kill RV DEF village DEF ~2 PP Sirii

They killed [the chief] in the village, sirii.

23 nnìì tígè η kòdò n jáà sììⁿ .
3.PL also ~2 CPL T see RECP

They also saw each other (the people of Bounou met to make a spell).

24 nnìì kòdò n úúúr -à díjà -L η kò , sìrífí .
3.PL CPL T kill RV DEF village DEF ~2 PP Sirii

They killed [the chief] in the village, Sirii.

25 nnì kòò pé -rò à túwèè nì máà dégé síⁿ màà= -L vóò -L
 3.PL CPL put -rV- DEF cat 3.PL.POSS head RECP POSS= 3 horse 3

hùⁿ

PP

They put the cat on top of the (Fuuta) chief's horse.

26 à túwè à túnùmé nnì màá= -L dégè -L síⁿ màà= -L vóò -L
 DEF cat DEF cat 3.PL POSS 3 head 3 RECP POSS= 3 horse 3

hùⁿ .

PP

The cat, the cat, they put [it] on top of the chief's horse.

27 η kámáà à pútá =ndè màà= -L dábì jàŋ -ù .
 ~2 CPL DEF Fulani who enslaved people =PL POSS= 3 curse ruin PRF

They ruined the spell of the Fuuta.

28 nnì kámáà nnì kóó tígè -wàj .
 3.PL CPL 3.PL CPL run STAT

They ran.

29 nnì kòò pé -rò à túwèè nì máà dégé -L síⁿ màà= -L
 3.PL CPL put -rV- DEF cat (domestic) 3.PL.POSS head 3 RECP POSS= 3

vóò -L hùⁿ .

horse 3 PP

They put the cat on top of the (Fuuta) chief's horse.

30 à túwè pé -rò mí úíè màà= -L vóò -L hùⁿ
 DEF cat (domestic) put -rV- PASS ascend POSS= 3 horse 3 PP

The cat was put up on the horse.

31 káá saaⁿ à bíè mìnna n zìè .
 then, at that time CHN NEG place, location T see

They (the Fuuta) could no longer see the place.

32 à vóò -L màà= -L túú màà= -L jíⁿ m pè mé
 DEF horse DEF POSS= 3 buttock POSS= 3 back ~2 with COMP

They (the Fuuta) could not tell the back from the butt of the horse.

33 à bíè màá= -L dégè -L nnì zíè .
 DEF NEG POSS 3 head 3 3.PL see

They don't see their own heads.

34 màà= -L góndè gándà mé à káràà à bíè n zíè .
 POSS= 3 torso place COMP CHN find DEF NEG T see

Their chests they didn't know from their backs, they killed their own horses.

Text XXIII: Tiga 5

Beer Making

1 nàà sǐngè =ndé
sorghum PL

oh, the sorghum

2 nè mùwón -d -ò
1.PL wet -r- RV

we wet (the sorghum)

3 nè η ká n ze kòndzé
1.PL ~2 this T do beer

we do this, the beer

4 sé nè mmùwò díné hùn
if 1.PL wet morning

if we wet (the sorghum) in the morning

5 hà bár -ù hà kǒmpé
INF remain PRF until afternoon

to leave (it) until the afternoon

6 n dè à η wòré N sàwⁿ
1.PL CHN ~2 go T strain (water out of something)

we go strain

7 n dè à N bùn -d -ì n dè à n tàá
1.PL CHN T remove -r- PRF 1.PL CHN ~2 lay out

we take it out and lay it out

8 hà ɸié bínà
INF morning

until late morning

9 bǒrò n dè à N dùg -ú wòré
tomorrow 1.PL CHN T have PRF go

we will take

10 n dè à n wó tébèrè
1.PL CHN ~2 go weight something down

we put the rocks on the sorghum to weigh it down so the wind does not blow it away

11 sé né n té'bérè
if 1.PL ~2 weight something down

if we weight it down

12 n dè à N sòg -ú gúzè hùn
1.PL CHN T close PRF grass, weeds PP

we close it with weeds

13 sé nè N sòg -ú gúzè hùn
if 1.PL T close PRF grass, weeds PP

if we close it with weeds

14 n daw N tòr -ú
~2 RV T water PRF

he waters it

15 dínè hùn náà kómpè
morning with afternoon

morning and night

16 dǒndé jìndò
day two

two days

17 màá= -H tààrù -né η kò
 POSS 1 three PL GEN inside

on the third day

18 sé tòr -ú mì kómpè
 if water PRF PASS afternoon

if it is watered in the afternoon

19 bé mì n tòr -ó díné hùn
 NEG PASS ~2 water RV morning

we do not water in the morning

20 n dè á n tòr -ú
 1.PL CHN ~2 water PRF

we water it

21 hà pùùⁿ
 INF grow

until it starts

22 sé pùùⁿ
 if grow

if it starts

23 hà kógó mì
 INF rake PASS

it is raked

24 sé kógó mì
 if rake PASS

if it is raked

25 háà tàá mì
until lay out PASS

it is layed out

26 háàsà kùwòndò
until dry

until it dries

27 sé tàá mì
if lay out PASS

if it is layed out

28 háà kùwòndò
until dry

until it dries

29 hàà N nàá mì
until T grind PASS

it is ground

30 sé nàá mì
if grind PASS

if it is ground

31 hà dǎn mì
INF cook PASS

it is cooked

32 hàà jòḡⁿ mì
until mix by hand PASS

unti it is mixed by hand

33 sé ʒóⁿ mì pàⁿ
if mix by hand PASS all

if it is all mixed by hand

34 màá= -H bówⁿ dèn mì
POSS 1 millet porridge cook PASS

its cream is cooked

35 sé maa -H bówⁿ
if POSS 1 millet porridge

if its cream

36 n dǎn mì há bìyù
~2 cook PASS until ready

is cooked until ripe

37 hà bùn -d -í mì
INF make move out -r- PRF PASS

it is taken out

38 há tínd -è mì súyè
INF put RV PASS descend

it is put down

39 páyà ŋ kò
pot, container GEN PP

inside the container (large container for storing beer)

40 hà bòrò díné hùn
INF tomorrow morning

until tomorrow morning

41 bòrò òdìné hùn
tomorrow morning

tomorrow morning

42 hàà gèrú mì
until scoop (off dirty things from water) PASS

the dirty water is scooped off the top

43 sé gèrú mì
if scoop (off dirty things from water) PASS

if it is scooped

44 hàà m mòwéⁿ mì
until ~2 wring out PASS

it is wrung out

45 sè m mòwéⁿ mì
if ~2 wring out PASS

if it has been wrung out

46 màá= -H ọ́íé hàà dǎn mì
POSS 1 water until cook PASS

its water is cooked

47 sé maa -H ọ́íé ọ́ káw dǎn mì
if want 1 water ~2 DEM cook PASS

if its water that is cooked

48 háà bìjú
until ready

until ripe/ready

49 hàà bòn -d -í mì
 until make move out its half -r- PRF PASS

it is taken off

50 háà tínd -è mì súyè páyá η kò
 until put RV PASS descend pot, container inside

it is put down into the container

51 sé bún -d -í mì
 if remove -r- PRF SG

it if is taken out

52 háà tínd -è mì súyé
 until put RV PASS descend

it is put down

53 á páyá η kò
 DEF pot, container GEN PP

in the container

54 sé d'wòn hà tínd -è mì n sùyè
 if cold INF put RV PASS ~2 descend

if it cools, they put down

55 tóngè η kò
 pot, jar, canary GEN PP

inside the pot

56 sé sùyè à tóngè η kò
 if descend DEF pot, jar, canary GEN PP

if it is put down into the pot

57 sé sùuḗ à tóngè η kò
if descend DEF pot, jar, canary GEN PP

if descend pot, jar, canary inside

58 sé dḡòn
if cold

if it cools

59 n dè wòré nàà η kàráá sîn wàj
1.PL go INC ~2 find bitter STAT

we go find it is bitter

60 η kàsán hòn
~2 then, at that time emphatic

at this time

61 mì háà nnìè
SG until drink

it is drunk

Appendix VIII: Numerals

níjòⁿ ná há déèⁿ góòⁿ jíndò

‘Counting from One to Two Thousand’

1 tíjéè

one

2 jíndò

two

3 táárù

three

4 néè

four

5 núndì

five

6 kéérè

six

7 kífjè

seven

8 sáágì

eight

9 tèégò

nine

10 kúré

ten

11 kònró tórè

ten one

eleven

12 kòńóró jíńdò
ten two

twelve

13 kòńóró táárù
ten three

thirteen

14 kòńóró néè
ten four

fourteen

15 kòńóró nùńdì
ten five

fifteen

16 kòńóró kéérè
ten six

sixteen

17 kòńóró kíjè
ten seven

seventeen

18 kòńóró sááqì
ten eight

eighteen

19 kòńóró tèégò
ten nine

nineteen

20 tááwà
twenty

twenty

21 tààwá daw= tómè +è tórè
twenty CONJ= cowry shell(s) DIM one

twenty one

22 tááwà daw= tómè +è jíndò
twenty CONJ= cowry shell(s) DIM two

twenty two

23 tááwà daw= tómè +è táárù
twenty CONJ= cowry shell(s) DIM three

twenty three

24 tááwà daw= tómè +è néè
twenty CONJ= cowry shell(s) DIM four

twenty four

25 tááwà daw= tómè +è núndì
twenty CONJ= cowry shell(s) DIM five

twenty five

26 tááwà daw= tómè +è kéérè
twenty CONJ= cowry shell(s) DIM six

twenty six

27 tááwà daw= tòmè +è kíjè
 twenty CONJ= cowry shell(s) DIM seven

twenty seven

28 tááwà daw= tòmè +è sááqì
 twenty CONJ= cowry shell(s) DIM eight

twenty eight

29 tááwà daw= tòmè +è tèégò
 twenty CONJ= cowry shell(s) DIM nine

twenty nine

30 tááwà daw= bíè kúré
 twenty CONJ= baby ten

thirty

31 tááwà daw= bíè kúré daw= tòmè +è tórè
 twenty CONJ= baby ten CONJ= cowry shell(s) DIM one

thirty one

tááwà / tááwà jíndò
 twenty twenty two

forty

tááwà jíndò daw= tòmè +è tórè
 twenty two CONJ= cowry shell(s) DIM one

forty one

tááwà jíndò daw= bíè kúré
 twenty two CONJ= baby ten

fifty

táámà sígò
 twenty today

sixty

táámà sígò daw= bíè kúré
 twenty today CONJ= baby ten
 seventy

jóórò

eighty

eighty

jóórò daw= bíè kúré
 eighty CONJ= baby ten

ninety

tááwà núndì
 twenty five

one hundred

tááwà tááwà há déèⁿ kî kúré
 twenty twenty INF fill thing ten

two hundred

góòⁿ tórè

man one

one thousand

à góòⁿ jíndò

DEF man two

two thousand

Appendix IX: Quantifiers

1 kée pààⁿ .
thing all

All things.

2 kí pààⁿ nii kúúⁿ nàw wòré .
thing all 3.PL market INC go

Everyone is going to the market.

3 ɔ́áá támátí η kí pààⁿ .
buy tomato ~2 thing all

Buy all [the] tomatoes.

4 ɔ́áá à támátí m pààⁿ .
buy DEF tomato ~2 all

Buy all the tomatoes.

5 ɔ́áá η kí pààⁿ .
buy ~2 thing all

Buy everything.

6 ɔ́áá η kí pààⁿ .
take ~2 thing all

Take everything.

7 n náw ŋ kíkí pààⁿ nno -o .
 ~2 INC ~2 thing all hear RV

He understands everything.

8 ɥáá ŋ kíkí pàà =ndé màà= kéè .
 buy ~2 something all =PL EXIST thing

Spend all the money in order to buy the things.

9 à díjà jàà =ndé pààⁿ .
 DEF village child PL all

All of the village's children.

11 ɥáá ŋ kíkí péèrè .
 buy ~2 thing many

Buy many of things.

12 ɥáá kéè péérè .
 buy thing many

Buy many of things.

13 ɥáá kéé =ndè péérè , ɥáá kéé pééré =ndè .
 buy thing =PL many buy thing many =PL

Buy many of things.

14 n dúg -á -H sóóⁿ fíjéndè péé'ré .
 have RV 1 shirt old, worn out many

I have many of worn out shirts.

16 à jàà -ndé nî péèⁿ .
 DEF child PL 3.PL many

Many of children.

17 à jàà =ndé péèrè n dóòⁿ ~ dáà η wì à kóò η kò .
 DEF child PL many ~2 EXIST EXIST ~2 there DEF house ~2 inside
There are many of children in the house.

18 kéè péérè mè dáà ímàá= burkina màà= -L ɥáá péèⁿ .
 thing many COMP EXIST here Burkina Faso POSS= 3 price many
Many of things in Burkina are expensive.

19 kàdijà maa -L kùrèmé pórè péèⁿ .
 Kadija POSS 3 dog black many
Many of kadija's black dogs.

20 péèⁿ jáárī .
 many very
A whole lot.

21 à= gúzè káraá péèⁿ jáárī .
 DEF green many very
There are many of weeds.

23 nné màà= N bíti wàj .
 1.PL almost T finish STAT
We are almost finished (complete).

24 à nniè náá máà búⁿ -rà -L wàj .
 DEF milk EXIST almost finish -rV- 3 STAT
The milk is almost finished (depleted).

26 n tóò pòò .
 alone
Alone.

27 tódò pódò n dégé máà kòò .
 alone himself/herself EXIST house

I am alone in the house.

28 tódò pódò n dégé máà wòré kùùⁿ .
 alone himself/herself EXIST go market

I am going alone to the market.

29 máà púwè tódò pódò n dégé máà ɥíê síméé hùⁿ .
 1.POSS wife alone ~2 himself/herself EXIST ascend mountain PP

My wife is going alone on top of the cliffs.

30 nî pódò .
 3.PL only

Only them.

31 káw tódò pódò mmáá .
 DEM alone want

I only want that.

Appendix X: Texture Experiment

Consultant 1: full response

1. scrubby pad

Phrase	Gloss	Translation
1 dáw múgú múgù RV spongy	is spongy	It is spongy.

2. nylon

Phrase
2.1 n dág -ú kèè m bìè sùrè máà síí ~2 touch PRF thing ~2 NEG know 3.POSS type

Gloss: 'I touched a thing, I don't know its type.'

Translation: I touched something but I don't know what it is.

Phrase	Gloss	Translation
2.2 dáràà slick	slick	It is slick.

Phrase	Gloss	Translation
2.3 kî déréb -îè thing soft DIM	soft little thing	It is soft and little.

3. sponge

Phrase	Gloss	Translation
3.1 n sùré ŋ kîí ~2 know CAUS	I am made to know	I am sure I know what it is.

	Phrase	Gloss	Translation
3.2	kíí múgú múgù thing spongy	spongy thing	It is a spongy thing.

4. coarse linen

Phrase

4.1	há nníṅà náw sòò ⁿ bíè sòò ⁿ IRR say RV shirt NEG shirt
-----	--

Gloss 'to say it is clothing not clothing'

Translation It is like fabric but it is not fabric.

	Phrase	Translation
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4.2	m bíè sùrè máà síí ~2 NEG know 3.POSS type	I do not know its type.
-----	---	-------------------------

	Phrase	Gloss	Translation
--	--------	-------	-------------

4.3	n dógòndò káw bíè mì ~2 resemble DEM NEG RFL	resemble it not it	It looks like something but it is not that.
-----	---	--------------------	---

5. wool

	Phrase	Gloss	Translation
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5.1	m bíè sùré ṅ kíí ~2 NEG know CAUS	I am not made to know	I am not sure.
-----	--------------------------------------	-----------------------	----------------

	Phrase	Gloss	Translation
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5.2	kíí síjò ⁿ kî déréb-ìè thing white thing soft-DIM	white thing, soft little thing	It is white, little, and soft.
-----	---	-----------------------------------	--------------------------------

6. eraser

Phrase

6	n	sùré	η	kíi	sé	nnî	nà	káráá	káràà
	~2	able to know			COND	3.PL	CONJ	teach	

Phrase (cont)

sá	ṣógóndì	sé	bíè	gáw ⁿ	há	géjìnd-ì	búnd-ì
COND	write	COND	NEG	good	IRR	sweep-PRF	take off-PRF

Gloss 'I am able to know, if teaching, if writing, if not good, to sweep make move out'

Translation I know what it is, if while teaching, one makes a mistake, they can wipe it off.

7. yarn

<u>Phrase</u>	<u>Gloss</u>	<u>Translation</u>
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7	bówìè	dáyàè		
	rope	small	small rope	It is a small rope.

8. sea salt

<u>Phrase</u>	<u>Gloss</u>	<u>Translation</u>
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8.1	kúṣiè	dáyàè		
	calabash	small	a small calabash	It is a small bowl.

<u>Phrase</u>	<u>Gloss</u>	<u>Translation</u>
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8.2	kúṣiè	màà=	kórò		
	calabash	3.POSS	stomach	a calabash's stomach	Inside a bowl.

<u>Phrase</u>	<u>Gloss</u>	<u>Translation</u>
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8.3	déè	dáw	kúṣiè	dáyáè	kò	a seed is in a small calabash	A small grain is inside a small calabash.
	seed	RV	calabash	small	PP		

<u>Phrase</u>	<u>Gloss</u>	<u>Translation</u>
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8.4	kî	kú kàjì		
	thing	bumpy	a bumpy thing	It is bumpy.

	Phrase	Gloss	Translation
8.5	kíí gúní gáñi dáyàè thing cracked small	a small, cracked thing	It is a little bit cracked.

9. chalk

	Phrase	Gloss	Translation
9.1	m bíè sùré η kii ~2 NEG able to know	I am not able to know	I am not sure what it is.

	Phrase	Gloss	Translation
9.2	búrí -mè kúrí+jè stick DIM short	a short little stick	It is a short, little stick.

10. felt

	Phrase	Gloss	Translation
10.1	η dág -ú káw á síjè ~2 touch PRF DEM now	I touched it now	I just touched it.

	Phrase	Gloss	Translation
10.2	há nníṅà sòḍ ⁿ bíè sòḍ ⁿ IRR say shirt NEG shirt		

Gloss: 'to say shirt not shirt'

Translation: One would say it is clothing but it is not clothing.

	Phrase	Gloss	Translation
10.3	dáràà kírí -jè slick thing DIM	slick little thing	It is a little bit slick.

11. marble

Phrase	Gloss	Translation
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11.1	m bîè sùré ŋ kí ~2 NEG know	I am not able to know	I am not sure what it is.
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Phrase	Gloss	Translation
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11.2	kî mûgùl -ìè thing round DIM	a little round thing	It is a little round thing.
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12. styrofoam

Phrase	Gloss	Translation
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12.1	kí míró mírò thing smooth	a smooth thing	It is smooth.
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Phrase	Gloss	Translation
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12.2	bîè mèřè NEG heavy	not heavy	It is not heavy.
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Phrase	Gloss	Translation
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12.3	kî pégí pégì -jè thing light DIM	a little light thing	It is a little light thing.
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13. slime

Phrase	Gloss	Translation
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13.1	uíè bîè uíè water NEG water	water not water	It seems like water but it is not water.
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	Phrase			Gloss	Translation
13.2	kî	dérébè	jímbō	a soft, cold thing	It is soft and cold.
	thing	soft	cold		

14. orange netting

	Phrase						Gloss	Translation
14.1	n	dág	-ú	kée	ímà	síé	I touched a thing here now	I just touched something.
	~2	touch	PRF	thing	here	now		

	Phrase		Gloss	Translation
14.2	kíí	sógójíbìè	a scratchy thing	It is scratchy.
	thing	scratchy		

	Phrase		Gloss	Translation
14.3	bìè	míró míró	not smooth	It is not smooth.
	NEG	smooth		

15. tape

	Phrase										
15.1	n	dág	-ú	kée	tè	mánàà	n	dáw	máà	nníí	hù ⁿ
	~2	touch	PRF	thing	one	plastic	~2	RV	3.POSS	hand	PP

Gloss: 'I touched one thing it sticks on my hand/arm'

Translation: I touched something that sticks to my hand.

	Phrase				Gloss	Translation	
15.2	máà	n	dáw	jííbè	n	nníí	It sticks to a person's hand.
	stick			person	GEN	arm	
							sticks person's hand

16. black fur

Phrase	Gloss	Translation
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16.1	sòò ⁿ mè dáyàè shirt COMP small	a clothing which is small	It is a piece of fabric which is small.
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Phrase	Gloss	Translation
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16.2	dáw múgú múgù RV squishy	is squishy	It is squishy.
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Phrase	Gloss	Translation
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16.3	bíè mènè NEG heavy	not heavy	It is not heavy.
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17. mouse ball

Phrase	Gloss	Translation
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17.1	kî múgú-éé mènè dáyàè thing DIM heavy small	a round, heavy, small thing	It is round, heavy, and small.
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Phrase

17.2	mè dá màà= á sǐjè kî múgú múgù -mè COMP RV 3.POSS now thing spongy DIM
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Gloss: 'that which is here now is here now is a small, squishy thing'

Translation: That which is here now is here now is small and squishy.

18. red plastic

Phrase	Gloss	Translation
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18.1	n dág -ú kèè tè bòndò ~2 touch PRF thing one again	I touched one thing again	I touched something here that was here earlier.
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	Phrase	Gloss	Translation
18.2	kî pégi pégi -jè thing light DIM	a little light thing	It is little and light.

	Phrase	Gloss	Translation
18.3	dàràà há nníhà nàw mánàà slick IRR say RV plastic	slick to say plastic	It is slick, one would think it is plastic.

19. modeling clay

	Phrase	Gloss	Translation
19.1	kíí míró míró thing smooth	smooth thing	It is smooth.

	Phrase	Gloss	Translation
19.2	dógòndò mánàà bíè mánàà resemble plastic NEG plastic	resembles plastic but not plastic	It resembles plastic, but it is not plastic.

20. cork square

	Phrase	Gloss	Translation
20	káw sipón dógòn ò mè bú-ràà híngá DEM styrofoam resemble COMP move out of before		

Translation: It resembles that styrofoam which came out before.

21. wooly fabric

	Phrase	Gloss	Translation
21.1	sòò ⁿ bíè sòò ⁿ shirt NEG shirt	clothing not clothing	It is like fabric but it is not fabric.

	<u>Phrase</u>	<u>Translation</u>
21.2	náà múgú múgù RV squishy	It is squishy.

	<u>Phrase</u>	<u>Translation</u>
21.3	dúg -á kúqì have RV hair	It has hair.

22. wavy paper

	<u>Phrase</u>	<u>Translation</u>
22.1	n dág -ú kèè tè ímà bóndō ~2 touch PRF thing one here again	I touched something here again.

	<u>Phrase</u>
22.2	níjà náw mánnà -è bíè mánnà -è say RV plastic DIM NEG plastic DIM

Gloss: 'say is small plastic not small plastic'

Translation: One would say it is a small piece plastic but it is not a small piece of plastic.

	<u>Phrase</u>	<u>Gloss</u>	<u>Translation</u>
22.3	kèè gúndí gánnì thing bumpy	a bumpy thing	It is bumpy.

	<u>Phrase</u>	<u>Gloss</u>	<u>Translation</u>
22.4	góró górò wavy	wavy	It is wavy.

23. velvet

	<u>Phrase</u>	<u>Gloss</u>	<u>Translation</u>
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23.1	nnìṅà náw sòḵ ⁿ bíè sòḵ ⁿ say RV shirt NEG shirt	I say is shirt not shirt	One would say it is fabric but it is not fabric.
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Phrase

23.2	bíè n sùré ṅ kíì dógòndò kî síjò ⁿ NEG ~2 know resemble thing white		
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Gloss: 'I am not able to know, it resembles a white thing'

Translation: I am not sure, but it resembles something white.

	<u>Phrase</u>	<u>Gloss</u>	<u>Translation</u>
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23.3	n sùré ṅ kíì dáraà ~2 able to know slick	I am unable to know, slick	I am sure it is slick.
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24. brush

	<u>Phrase</u>	<u>Gloss</u>	<u>Translation</u>
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24.1	dáà múgúlò RV round	is round	it is round
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	<u>Phrase</u>	<u>Gloss</u>	<u>Translation</u>
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24.2	kî sógójíbè thing scratchy	scratchy thing	It is scratchy.
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Phrase

24.3	há níṅà n dáw dégè hájàà kéé IRR say ~2 RV head brush thing		
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Gloss: 'one would say it is a head brushing thing'

Translation: I think it is a hairbrush.

Phrase

24.4 à tàá káw bíéndè à tàá káw kî dùgí -mí =ndè
 DET half DEM long DEF half DEM thing short DIM PL

Gloss: 'the half, that is long the half of that thing, they are short'

Translation: On one side that is long, on one side those are short.

25. stress ball

Phrase

25.1 n dág -ú b́ondō kî ḿró ḿrò -mè
 ~2 touch PRF again thing smooth DIM

Gloss: 'I touched again, a thing, a small smooth thing'

Translation: I touched another small smooth thing.

Phrase	Gloss	Translation
25.2 bàlò dáyàè ball small	a small ball.	It is a small ball.

Phrase

25.3 há nníṅà náw méné ménè bʷié ṅ kò
 IRR say RV kick leg ~2 PP

Gloss: 'to say is kicking with foot'

Translation: One would say it is a soccer ball.

Phrase	Gloss	Translation
25.4 kî múgúndú -mè pégí pégì thing round DIM light weight	a little light, round thing	It is little, light and round.

26. fabric sponge

	Phrase						Gloss	Translation	
26.1	há	nníṅà	náw	bíè	sòḍ ⁿ	shirt	to say shirt but not shirt	One would say it is fabric but it is not fabric.	
	IRR	say	RV	NEG	shirt				
	Phrase						Gloss	Translation	
26.2	kî	múgú	múgù	-wè			a small, squishy thing	It is small, squishy and soft.	
	thing	squishy		DIM					
	Phrase						Gloss	Translation	
26.3	há	nníṅà	náw	sòḍ ⁿ	bíè	sòḍ ⁿ	to say a shirt but not shirt	one would say it is fabric but it is not fabric.	
	IRR	say	RV	shirt	NEG	shirt			
	Phrase						Gloss	Translation	
26.4	η	káw	máà	sí	dág	-á	bóndō	its type I touch again	Its type is the same as I touched before.
	~2	DEM	3.POSS	type	touch	RV	again		
	Phrase						Gloss	Translation	
26.5	sòḍ ⁿ	jógó	máà	dègè			a shirt turns over its head	There is a fabric covering it.	
	clothing	turn over	3.POSS	head					
	Phrase						Gloss	Translation	
26.6	kî	múgú	múgù	-jè			little squishy thing	It is little and squishy.	
	thing	squishy		DIM					

27. round rope

Phrase	Translation
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27	bówiè	dág	-á		
	rope	touch	RV		I touch a rope.

28. loufa (?)

Phrase	Translation
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28.1	mè	kî	mógíbè	mérébè	
	COMP	thing	slimy	fluid	It is a thing which is slimy and fluid.

Phrase	Gloss	Translation
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28.2	màà=	kúqì	béndē		
	3.POSS	hair	long	its hairs long	Its hairs are long.

Phrase	Gloss	Translation
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28.3	kúqí	èiè ⁿ	hair owner		It has hair.
	hair	owner			

29. washcloth

Phrase	Gloss	Translation
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29.2	màá=	kòrò	kúqí		
	3.POSS	stomach	hair	its stomach's hair	Its inside is hairy.

Phrase	Gloss	Translation
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29.3	kí	jìndò	dègè	sí ⁿ	hù ⁿ	two things are on	Two things are
	thing	two	head	RECP	PP	each other's heads	stuck together.

30. nail file

Phrase	Gloss	Translation
30 búfà bìrìbíéè dáyàè stick thin small	thin, small stick	It is a thin, small stick.

31. terrycloth

Phrase	Gloss	Translation
31.1 sòò ⁿ bìè sòò ⁿ shirt NEG shirt	a shirt not a shirt	It is like fabric, but it is not fabric.

Phrase	Gloss	Translation
31.2 kî déréb-îè míró míró thing soft-DIM smooth	a little, soft, smooth thing	It is little, smooth, and soft.

32. play dough

Phrase	Gloss	Translation
32.1 kî múgú múgù thing squishy	squishy thing	It is squishy.

Phrase	Gloss	Translation
32.2 há níṅà wùrú IRR say tree	n jí GEN blood	it is like (the sap of the) Karite tree It is like chewing gum.

33. chalkboard eraser (?)

Phrase	Gloss	Translation
33 ᵿ káw màà= sóó ⁿ kî kíévé ~2 DEM 3.POSS shirt thing flat	that, its fabric flat	

34. contact paper

Phrase	Gloss	Translation
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34.1	mánàà jàá plastic course	course plastic	It is course plastic.
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Phrase	Gloss	Translation
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34.2	n dáw kú kájì kírì -jè 1.SG RV rough thing DIM	it is rough little thing	It is a little bit rough.
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35. cardstock

Phrase	Gloss	Translation
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35	dóò m̀e dágáè paper COMP small	paper which is small	A piece of paper which is little.
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Phrase	Gloss	Translation
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35.1	mánàà dáyàè plastic small	small plastic	It is a small piece of plastic.
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36. brown beans

Phrase	Gloss	Translation
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36.1	kúṣiè dáyàè kéè dáà máá kòrò calabash small thing RV 3.POSS inside	a thing in a calabash	There is something small inside a bowl.
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Phrase	Gloss	Translation
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36.2	kírì gúní gáñi thing bumpy	uneven	It is bumpy.
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	Phrase	Gloss	Translation
36.3	déé sí ⁿ há níṅà tígàjè seed IRR say peanut	seeds, to say peanut	It is little pieces like peanuts.
37.	leather material		
	Phrase	Gloss	Translation
37.1	há níṅà náw mánàà déréb-íè IRR say RV plastic softDIM	to say is soft plastic	One would say it is soft plastic.
	Phrase	Gloss	Translation
37.2	mánàà déréb-íè plastic soft-DIM	a little, soft plastic	It is a little, soft piece of plastic.
38.	wood cylinder		
	Phrase	Gloss	Translation
38.1	káw buĩ -je DEM stick DIM	that is a little stick	That is small stick small.
	Phrase	Gloss	Translation
38.2	buĩ -je mégélù dáyàè stick DIM round small	a small cylindrical stick	It is a small, cylindrical stick.
39.	flat rope		
	Phrase	Gloss	Translation
39.1	bówiè dáyàè rope small	small rope	it is a small rope

	Phrase	Gloss	Translation
39.2	táwá màá bówiè pants 3.POSS rope	pant's rope	It is a belt.
40.	pumice stone		
	Phrase	Gloss	Translation
40.1	b ^w ié n gíjǎ sìmèè leg GEN scrub rock	leg's scrubbing foot rock	It is a pumice stone.
40.2	sá à b ^w ié ná gúní gǎñi sá à gíjǎ náw báá COND 2.SG foot RV cracked COND 2.SG scrub RV move out of		
	Gloss:	'if you foot crack you rub, it comes out'	
	Translation:	If your foot is cracked, so that you scrub them clean.	
41.	corrugated paper		
41	n dág -ú kèè ímà kwó ⁿ náw góró góró 1.SG touch PRF thing here square RV wavy		
	Gloss:	'I touch a thing here a square is wavy'	
	Translation:	I touched something here, a square that is wavy.	
42.	green fabric		
	Phrase	Gloss	Translation
42	mánǎ -mè dáǎyǎè plastic DIM small	small piece of plastic	It is a small piece of plastic.
43.	talcum powder		
	Phrase	Gloss	Translation
43.1	búú ⁿ dág -á powder touch RV		I touch powder.

	<u>Phrase</u>	<u>Gloss</u>	<u>Translation</u>
43.2	búú ⁿ síjò ⁿ powder white	white powder	It is white powder.

44. cotton balls

	<u>Phrase</u>	<u>Gloss</u>	<u>Translation</u>
44	káw núgù DEM cotton	cotton	It is cotton.

45. shaving foam

	<u>Phrase</u>	<u>Gloss</u>	<u>Translation</u>
45.1	kî déréb-íè mógíbè thing soft-DIM syrupy	a little soft syrupy thing	It is little, soft and syrupy.

	<u>Phrase</u>	<u>Gloss</u>	<u>Translation</u>
45.2	kî dáràà thing slick	slick thing	It is slick.

	<u>Phrase</u>	<u>Gloss</u>	<u>Translation</u>
45.3	jímbó kírí -jè cold thing DIM	a little, cold thing	It is a little bit cold.

	<u>Phrase</u>	<u>Gloss</u>	<u>Translation</u>
45.4	kî tón'dé thing wet	a wet thing	It is wet.

Consultant 2: full response

1. scrubby pad

	<u>Phrase</u>	<u>Gloss</u>	<u>Translation</u>
1	kíí sáyójèbè thing scratchy	scratchy thing	it is scratchy

2. nylon

	<u>Phrase</u>	<u>Gloss</u>	<u>Translation</u>
2	mánàà dérébè plastic soft	soft plastic	It is soft plastic.

3. sponge

	<u>Phrase</u>	<u>Gloss</u>	<u>Translation</u>
3	kíí páyó páyò thing light	light thing	It is light.

4. coarse linen

	<u>Phrase</u>	<u>Gloss</u>	<u>Translation</u>
4.1	kíí páyó páyòg -wè thing light DIM	little light thing	It is little and light.

	<u>Phrase</u>	<u>Gloss</u>	<u>Translation</u>
4.2	kî kíévé thing flat	flat thing	It is flat.

5. wool

	<u>Phrase</u>	<u>Gloss</u>	<u>Translation</u>
5	kíí sáyójèbè thing scratchy	scratchy thing	It is scratchy.

6. eraser

Phrase	Gloss	Translation
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6 kǐí máà zǐí thing bouillon cube	bouillon cube thing	It is bouillon cube-like.
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7. yarn

Phrase	Gloss	Translation
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7 bóri yarn	yarn	It is yarn.
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8. sea salt

Phrase	Gloss	Translation
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8.1 déé n ɛíɛ ⁿ seed GEN seed	millet's seed	It is a grain.
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Phrase	Gloss	Translation
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8.2 déé n ɛíɛ ⁿ seed GEN seed	millet's seed	It is a grain.
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9. chalk

Phrase	Gloss	Translation
--------	-------	-------------

9 búřá kúrúmè stick short	short stick	It is a short stick.
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10. felt

Phrase	Gloss	Translation
--------	-------	-------------

10 s̀p̀n styrofoam	styrofoam	It is styrofoam.
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11. marble

Phrase	Gloss	Translation
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11.1 k̀r̀j̀ m̀= d̀ bead 3.POSS seed	bead's seed	It is a bead.
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Phrase	Gloss	Translation
--------	-------	-------------

11.2 k̀ m̀r̀ m̀r̀ thing smooth	smooth thing	It is smooth.
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12. styrofoam

Phrase	Gloss	Translation
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12.1 s̀p̀n k̀j̀ styrofoam rough	little rough DIM styrofoam	It is a little and rough piece of styrofoam.
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Phrase	Gloss	Translation
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12.2 d̀ẁ p̀ỳ p̀ỳ tree light	light tree	It is a light tree
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13. slime

Phrase

13 ẁ h̀ ǹj̀ ǹẁ k̀ η k̀r̀b̀ water IRR say RV thing GEN intestines
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Gloss: 'water, to say it is a thing's intestine'

Translation: Water, one would say it is intestine–Like

14. orange netting

	Phrase	Gloss	Translation
14	kíí kúyìè káj –mè thing rough DIM	a little, rough thing	It is little and rough.

15. tape

	Phrase	Gloss	Translation
15	táárè bee's wax		It is a pin cushion.

16. black fur

	Phrase	Translation
16	bágí páriè cloth strip of cotton or other fabric that is woven	It is small strips of cloth.

17. mouse ball

	Phrase	Gloss	Translation
17.1	kórómè màá= déé bead 3.POSS seed	bead's grain	It is a bead.

	Phrase	Gloss	Translation
17.2	kíí míró míró thing smooth	smooth thing	It is smooth.

18. red plastic

Phrase	Gloss	Translation
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18	míró míró –mè smooth DIM	smooth	It is little and smooth.
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19. modeling clay

Phrase	Translation
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19.1	kíí dáy –á bíbìè thing touch RV gooey	I touch a gooey thing.
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Phrase	Gloss	Translation
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19.2	zìè bíè zìè honey not honey	It is like honey but it is not honey.
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Phrase	Gloss	Translation
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19.3	kî múgúndú –mè thing round DIM	a little round thing	It is little and round.
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20. cork square

Phrase	Gloss	Translation
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20	kíí kúwó –ndī kî kíévé thing dry CAUS thing flat	a thing made dry and flat	It is rough and flat.
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21. wooly fabric

Phrase	Gloss	Translation
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21.1	mè kî mógíbé mérébé COMP thing syrupy fluid	a thing which is syrupy and fluid	it is a thing which is syrupy and fluid
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	Phrase	Gloss	Translation
21.2	màà kúqì bèn'dé 3.POSS hair long	its hair long	Its hair is long.

	Phrase	Gloss	Translation
21.3	kúqí ɛ̀è hair owner	hair owner	It is hairy.

22. wavy paper

	Phrase	Gloss	Translation
22	sóò ⁿ -mè kî pógyò pógyò -wè shirt DIM thing light DIM	little light shirt	It is a little, light piece of clothing.

23. velvet

	Phrase	Gloss	Translation
23	bágí -mè déréb -íè cloth DIM soft DIM	little small cloth	A little, soft piece of cloth.

24. brush

	Phrase	Gloss	Translation
24.1	dégè háàsà kéé head brush thing	head brushing thing	hair brush

	Phrase	Gloss	Translation
24.2	kí gúní gáĩ hó ⁿ thing bumpy EMPH	a bumpy thing	a very bumpy thing

25. stress ball

Phrase	Gloss	Translation
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25	kî mûgúndú –mè thing round DIM	little round thing	It is little and round.
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26. fabric sponge

Phrase	Gloss	Translation
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26	sìpón kíí –bóřò dáyàè styrofoam thing AUG small	styrofoam, large small	it is styrofoam, it is a little bit big.
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27. round rope

Phrase	Gloss	Translation
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27.1	bówiè η kíndī rope GEN short	rope's short	It is a short rope.
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Phrase	Gloss	Translation
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27.2	bówiè kúṽiè eíè ⁿ	rope hair owner	It is a hairy rope.
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28. loufa

Phrase	Gloss	Translation
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28.1	mánàà mùdzóbè plastic stringy	stringy plastic	it is stringy plastic
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Phrase	Gloss	Translation
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28.2	kî kúṽiè káj –mè thing rough DIM	little rough thing	It is little and rough.
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29. washcloth

Phrase	Gloss	Translation
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29.1	bómbórò dáyàè hat small	small hat	It is a small cap.
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Phrase	Gloss	Translation
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29.2	kî jìndò dégè síí ⁿ hù ⁿ thing two head RECP PP	two things' s heads are on each other.	two things are connected
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Phrase	Gloss	Translation
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29.3	pótamááni dáyàè wallet small	small wallet	It is a small wallet.
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Phrase	Translation
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29.4	kî kúyìè káj -mè dáyàè thing scratchy DIM small	It is a little bit rough/scratchy.
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30. nail file

Phrase	Translation
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30.1	sìpó ⁿ mé =nè kéè jáy -à styrofoam COMP PL thing cut RV	It is a piece of styrofoam that cuts.
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Phrase	Gloss	Translation
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30.2	kî kúyìè káj ^{mè} mé nè kéè jáy -à thing rough COMP PL thing cut RV	rough thing which cuts things	It is a rough thing that cuts.
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31. terrycloth

Phrase	Gloss	Translation
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31.1	báǵí páráǵmè dáyàè cloth small	a little bit small cloth
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Phrase	Gloss	Translation
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31.2	kíí míró mírò thing smooth	smooth thing it is smooth
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Phrase	Gloss	Translation
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31.3	kíí dáyàè thing small	small thing It is small.
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32. play dough

Phrase	Gloss	Translation
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32.1	táárè múǵùl -ìè bee's wax round DIM	round beeswax pin cushion
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Phrase	Gloss	Translation
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32.2	kíí béndē dáyàè thing long small	a long small thing It is a little bit long
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33. chalkboard eraser

Phrase	Gloss	Translation
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33	kî kíévé thing flat	a flat thing It is flat.
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34. contact paper

Phrase	Gloss	Translation
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34	báǵí -jè símá dáyàè cloth DIM white small	a small white cloth It is a small, white cloth.
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35. cardstock

	Phrase		Gloss	Translation	
35	dòò paper	-mé DIM	dáyàè small	a small paper	It is a small piece of paper.

36. brown beans

	Phrase		Gloss	Translation	
36	kórómè bead	màá= 3.POSS	déé seed	bead's seed	a bead's grain

37. leather material

	Phrase		Gloss	Translation	
37	bágí cloth	bógò big	dáyàè small	small big cloth	a piece of cloth which is a little big

38. wood cylinder

	Phrase		Gloss	Translation	
38	búfà stick	-mé DIM	dáyàè small	small stick	It is a small stick.

39. flat rope

	Phrase		Gloss	Translation
39.1	bówiè rope	dáyàè small	a small rope	It is a little rope.

	Phrase		Gloss	Translation	
39.2	táwá pants	màá= POSS	bówiè rope	pant's rope	It is a belt.

40. pumice stone

Phrase

40 kî kúqìè kájǹmè à síméé á bʷèè gǵjá mé ŋ kò
 thing rough DET rock DET leg scrub COMP GEN PP

Gloss: the rough rock which scrubs the feet.

Translation: pumice stone

41. corrugated paper

PhraseGlossTranslation

41 gǵngǵiè kǵéúé
 metal flat flat metal A flat small piece of metal.

42. green fabric

PhraseGlossTranslation

42 á níǵà dáw tóóⁿ m pʷééⁿ one would say it
 2.S say RV money GEN leaf is money's leaves. It resembles cash.

43. talcum powder

PhraseGlossTranslation

43.1 bùùⁿ ŋ kò
 powder GEN PP powder's inside powder is in it

PhraseGlossTranslation

43.2 há níǵà náw níé m búúⁿ to say is
 IRR say RV milk GEN powder milk's powder One would say it is
 like milk powder.

44. cotton balls

	Phrase	Gloss	Translation
44	há níjà náw dègè kúqíè dáyàè IRR say RV head hair small	to say is small head's hair	One would say it is like small head hair.

45. shaving foam

	Phrase
45	kí-rì dáyàè tínd -é s ^w íí η kò thing small put RV descend GEN PP

Gloss: 'a little thing put down inside'

Translation: There is a small thing is dropped inside.

VITA

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EDUCATION

Indiana University, Bloomington, Indiana Ph.D., African Linguistics, June 2013 Minor: African Studies
Warren Wilson College, Swannanoa, North Carolina Bachelor of Arts, Major: Psychology, 1996 Minor: Art

LANGUAGES

English, native language

Fula (Fulfulde Maasina), speak fluently and read/write with high proficiency

Dogon (Kindige), speak fluently and read/write with high proficiency

Bamana, speak, read, and write with high proficiency

French, speak, read, and write with high proficiency

Bangime, speak, read, and write with high proficiency

AFRICA EXPERIENCE

Linguistic Field Researcher, Mopti Region, Mali and Bobo-Dioulasso, Burkina Faso

Dogon and Bangime Linguistics, 2008 – Present

- Describing Malian and Burkibé indigenous languages, Dogon (Bondu-so and Ibi-so), Bangime, Tiefo
- Performing acoustic and theoretical analysis of vowel harmony and tonal patterns in Dogon (Bondu-so)

Linguistic Field Researcher, Mopti Region, Mali Dissertation Research, 2010 – 2012

- Documented Bangime, language isolate, with concentration on phonology and morphology
- Acquired glossing and specimens of native flora and fauna species which were identified by a botanist
- Recorded, transcribed, and translated narratives, filmed ceremonies, and photographed ritual sites

Africa Trip Leader, Dakar, Senegal Operation Crossroads Africa, Summer 2003

- Guided 10 students on work/study trip to practice French and assist a women's gardening collective

Natural Resources Management Volunteer, Douentza, Mali Peace Corps, 1998 – 2001

- Established literacy program with women's micro-credit gardening collective
- Taught environmental education to rural elementary school-aged children
- Formed woodless construction mason collective

Soil Erosion Prevention Project, Bamenda, Cameroon Warren Wilson College, Spring 1994

- Co-supervised project with students and villagers to plant grasses and trees on sloped areas

TEACHING EXPERIENCE

Instructor, Languages in Africa

Linguistics/African Studies Department, Spring 2011 and Spring 2013

- Taught and developed materials for general study of African languages for undergraduate and graduate students
- Evaluated students' presentations, exams, and papers for content, quality, and comprehension of material

PROFESSIONAL EXPERIENCE

Assistant Editor and Secretary, Linguistics Club Working Papers Online
Indiana University Linguistics Department, 2007 – 2010

- Solicited manuscripts
- Found peer reviewers
- Managed communications

Graduate Student Representative, African Languages Committee
Indiana University African Studies Program, 2007 – 2010

- Recruited students to study African Languages at Indiana University
- Communicated needs of students to professors within African Languages Program

President, African Languages Club
Indiana University Linguistics/African Studies Department, 2006 – 2009

- Co-founded Indiana University's first African Language Club
- Co-sponsored African Languages Night

President, Linguistics Club
Indiana University Linguistics Department, 2008 – 2009

- Served as president to organize annual student conference and departmental picnic
- Organized and co-sponsored colloquium series

Faculty-Student Liaison, Linguistics Club
Indiana University Linguistics Department, 2007 – 2008

- Attended faculty meetings and communicated between students and faculty
- Represented department at Graduate Professional Student Organization

Vice President, Graduate Students in African Studies
Indiana University African Studies Program, 2007 – 2008

- Assisted President to coordinate activities for students in African Studies
- Arranged meetings of graduate students in African Studies

Assistant, African Studies Program
Indiana University African Studies Program, 2007 – 2008

- Aided in preparation of Title VI grant
- Requested and acquired list of achievements from faculty affiliated with African Studies Program

Team Leader, Monroe County, Indiana AmeriCorps*VISTA, 2005 – 2006

- Recruited volunteers for Area Ten Agency on Aging
- Provided leadership for eight Retired and Senior Volunteer Program VISTA members

AWARDS AND GRANTS

Indiana University College of Arts and Sciences Dissertation Year Fellowship, 2011 – 2012

National Science Foundation Doctoral Dissertation Improvement grant BCS-1024347, 2010 – 2012

Fulbright-Hays Doctoral Dissertation Fellowship, 2010 – 2011

Carleton T. Hodge Prize, April 2010

Travel Grants: College of Arts and Sciences and Linguistics, August 2009, June 2010

International Enhancement Grant, June – August, 2008

Foreign Language Area Studies fellowship, academic years 2006 – 2008

PUBLICATIONS AND PAPERS

- Hantgan, A. (March 7 - 10, 2013). *Bangime Tonal Classes*. Paper Presented at the 44th Annual Conference on African and Linguistics. Georgetown University, Georgetown.
- Hantgan, Abbie and Davis, Stuart. (2013). Bondu Vowel Harmony. *Studies in African Linguistics*. Volume 42, Issue 1.
- Hantgan, Abbie and Davis, Stuart. (January 16 - 18, 2013). *Bondu Vowel Harmony: Implications for Feature Theory*. Cuny Phonology Forum Conference on the Feature. New York, New York.
- Hantgan, A. (2012) [Review of the book “Hacking Timbuktu”]. Africa Access. <http://africaaccessreview.org/>.
- Hantgan, Abbie, and Davis, Stuart. (March 15 - 17, 2012). *The Abstract Nature of the Bondu Vowel System: Evidence from [ATR] Harmony*. Paper presented at The 43rd African Conference on African and Linguistics. Tulane University, New Orleans.
- . (January 5 - 8, 2012). *The Abstract Nature of the Bondu Vowel System: Evidence from [ATR] Harmony*. Paper presented at The 86th Annual Meeting of the Linguistic Society of America. Portland, Oregon.
- Hantgan, A. (June 10 - 12, 2011). *Bangime: A Secret Language Revealed*. Paper presented at The 42nd Annual Conference on African and Linguistics. University of Maryland, Maryland.
- . (December 3 - 4, 2010). *Bangime: Justification as a Language Isolate*. Paper presented at the Workshop “Language Isolates in Africa”. l’Institut des Sciences de l’Homme, Lyon, France.
- . (December 1, 2010). *Le Type de la Langue Bangime*. Présenté au Cercle Linguistique Bamakois. SIL, Bamako, Mali.
- . (2010). Does tone polarity exist? Evidence from Plural Formation among Bangime Nouns. *Indiana University Working Papers in Linguistics Volume 8 (African Linguistics across the Discipline)*.
- . (August 24-26, 2009). *Bondu Vowel Harmony*. Paper presented at the 39th Colloquium on African Languages and Linguistics. Leiden University, The Netherlands.
- . (August 17 - 21, 2009). *Tone in Bangime Nouns*. Paper presented at the 6th World Congress of African Linguistics (WOCAL 6). University of Cologne, Germany.
- Heath, Jeffrey and Hantgan, Abbie. (April 9 - 11, 2009). *A group fieldwork project on a 20-language family (Dogon)*. Paper presented at the 40th Annual Conference on African and Linguistics. Urbana-Champaign, Illinois.
- Hantgan, A. (August 25 - 27, 2008). *A Brief Description of Bangeri Me, a Peripheral Dogon Language*. Paper presented at the Colloquium on African Languages and Linguistics. Leiden University, The Netherlands.
- Eight encyclopedia entries for ABC-CLIO World Geography Database 2007 - 2010. “People”: Burkina Faso, Cameroon, Côte d’Ivoire, Mali, Niger, The Gambia, Benin and Togo.

MEMBERSHIPS

- Linguistics Society of America, 2006 - Present
African Studies Association, 2007 - Present
West African Research Association, 2008 - Present