# ASPECTS OF BANGIME PHONOLOGY, MORPHOLOGY, AND MORPHOSYNTAX Abbie Hantgan

Submitted to the faculty of the University Graduate School in partial fulfillment of the requirements

for the degree

Doctor of Philosophy

in the Department of Linguistics,

Indiana University

July 2013

UMI Number: 3601801

## All rights reserved

#### INFORMATION TO ALL USERS

The quality of this reproduction is dependent upon the quality of the copy submitted.

In the unlikely event that the author did not send a complete manuscript and there are missing pages, these will be noted. Also, if material had to be removed, a note will indicate the deletion.



#### UMI 3601801

Published by ProQuest LLC (2013). Copyright in the Dissertation held by the Author.

Microform Edition © ProQuest LLC.
All rights reserved. This work is protected against unauthorized copying under Title 17, United States Code



ProQuest LLC.
789 East Eisenhower Parkway
P.O. Box 1346
Ann Arbor, MI 48106 - 1346

Accepted by the Graduate Faculty, Indiana University, in partial fulfills	ment of the requirements
for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy.	
Doctoral Committee	
	Robert Botne Ph.D.
	Stuart Davis Ph.D.
	Samuel Obeng Ph.D.
Date of Doctoral Defence June 5, 2013	Jeffrey Heath Ph.D.

Copyright © 2013

Abbie Hantgan

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.

## Acknowledgments

Thank you to the members of my committee. Each of their strengths has been invaluable to piecing together this puzzle:

To Robert Botne for his never-ceasing commitment and patience to striving for perfection as my teacher, advisor, and mentor. His fingerprints are on every single page.

To Jeffrey Heath for having more confidence in me than I do in myself.

To Stuart Davis for believing in me before I even knew what it meant to be a linguist.

To Samuel Obeng for understanding and supporting a life with one foot on each continent.

Thank you to my mother, father, and brother for a lifetime of support, every single day of which has contributed and prepared me for this moment.

Thank you to my friends, fellow students, professors, teachers, and all of those too many to list, yet too important not to mention.

Thank you to God for showing me my purpose and giving me all that I needed to accomplish it.

## Preface

Research on Bangime is supported by National Science Foundation grant numbers PA 50643–04, BCS–0537435, DEL–0853364 "Dogon Languages of Mali", Fulbright–Hays Doctoral Dissertation Grant "The Essentials of Language Documentation: The Pen is a Hoe and the Notebook is a Field", the National Science Foundation Doctoral Dissertation Improvement grant BCS–1024347 "Doctoral Dissertation Research: Documentation of Bangime, a Language Isolate", and the Indiana University International Enhancement Grant

#### 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 a 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

Acknow	vledgments	V
Preface		vi
Abstrac	t Error! Bookn	nark not defined.
Procedu	ıre	viii
Abbrev	iations	xix
CHAPTER 1.	INTRODUCTION TO THE BANGIME LANGUAGE AND SPEAKERS	1
1.1 Introl	DUCTION	1
1.2 LOCAT	TON	2
1.3 PREVIO	OUS RESEARCH ON BANGIME	4
1.4 Метно	DDOLOGY	6
1.5 DEMO	GRAPHICS	8
1.6 ETHNO	OGRAPHY	9
1.7 CLASS	IFICATION	11
1.8 Langu	JAGE 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 BANGI	ME: 'A SECRET LANGUAGE'	37
1.10 Con	NCLUSION	41
1.11 Oro	GANIZATION	43
CHAPTER 2.	PHONOLOGICAL FEATURES	45
2.1 Introl	DUCTION TO THE PHONEMIC INVENTORY OF FEATURES	45
2.2 Vowel	LS	46
2.2.1	Diphthongs	47

2	2.2.2	Length	52
2	2.2.3	Vowel Quality	57
2	2.2.4	Nasalization	59
2	2.2.5	Vowel Inventory	60
2.3	Conso	NANTS	61
2.4	Labial	CONSONANTS	61
2	2.4.1	Coronal Consonants	64
2	2.4.2	Dorsal Consonants	67
2	2.4.3	Glottal Consonant	70
2.5	TONE		70
2	2.5.1	Tonal Correspondences with Syllable Structure	71
2	2.5.2	Tone generalizations	75
2.6	SYLLAF	BLES	76
2	2.6.1	Minimal Word	76
2	2.6.2	Syllable Structure	77
2	2.6.3	Clitics and Affixes	82
2	2.6.4	Generalizations about the Syllable	84
2.7	SUMMA	RY OF FEATURES	84
СНАР	PTER 3.	NOUNS TYPES	85
3.1	Noun I	Roots	85
3.2	Noun S	STEMS	86
3	3.2.1	Plural Allomorphy	87
3	3.2.2	Segmental Type One $(-\emptyset, =n\varepsilon)$	90
3	3.2.3	Segmental Type Two (V <sup>n</sup> , =ndε)	91
3	3.2.4	Segmental Type Three ( $C\epsilon$ , = $n\epsilon$ )	92
3	3.2.5	Segmental Noun Type Four (+ε, -mi=nε)	95
3	3.2.6	Segmental Noun Type Five (rV, rV=nɛ)	96
3	3.2.7	Segmental Noun Type Six (–r, =ndε)	97

3.3	TONAL	MELODIES ON NOUNS	99
3	3.3.1	Tone Type One: High Stem	100
3	3.3.2	Tone Type Two: Low Stem	100
3	3.3.3	Tone Type Three: High Stem	101
3	3.3.4	Tone Type Four: Low Stem	102
3	3.3.5	Tone Type Five: Falling-Tone Stem	102
3	3.3.6	Tone Type Six: Rising-Tone Stem	103
3.4	AUGME	NTATIVE	103
3	3.4.1	Tone Type One	104
3	3.4.2	Tone Type Two	105
3	3.4.3	Tone Type Three	106
3	3.4.4	Tone Type Four	106
3	3.4.5	Tone Type Five	107
3	3.4.6	Tone Type Six	107
3.5	SUMMA	RY OF THE NOUN STEM	108
СНАР	TER 4.	NOMINAL DERIVATION: SUFFIXATION	110
4.1	SUFFIX	ES IN BANGIME	110
4.2	DIMINU	TIVE	110
4	1.2.1	Plural Diminutives	111
4	1.2.2	Language	112
4	1.2.3	Inhabitant of Village	113
4	1.2.4	Quality of X	114
4	1.2.5	Tonal patterns on the diminutive suffix	114
4.3	AGENT	IVE	116
4	1.3.1	Agentive with Verbs	117
4	1.3.2	Other Morphemes with the Agentive and 'owner'	118
4	1.3.3	Grammaticalized Agentive	119
4.4	SUMMA	RY OF NOMINAL SUFFIXES	120

CHAP	TER 5.	NOMINAL INFLECTION: PROCLITICS	121
5.1	Procli	TICS IN BANGIME	121
5.2	Nomina	AL POSSESSION	121
5.3	TONAL	PATTERNS ON THE POSSESSIVE PROCLITIC	127
5	3.3.1	First and Third Person Possessive proclitics	127
5	.3.2	Tone Type One Nominals	128
5	3.3.3	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	PLURAI	Possessives	133
5.5	SECONI	O SINGULAR POSSESSIVE PROCLITICS	134
5	.5.1	Tone Type One Nouns	134
5	.5.2	Tone Type Two Nouns	135
5	5.5.3	Tone Type Three	136
5	.5.4	Tone Types Four - Six	137
5.6	PLURAI	SECOND SINGULAR POSSESSIVE STEMS.	138
5.7	GENITI	VE NASAL WITH THE SECOND SINGULAR POSSESSIVE PROCLITIC	138
5.8	SUMMA	ARY OF POSSESSIVE PROCLITICS	139
5.9	DEFINIT	TE 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	Obligatorily Definite Nouns	144
5	.9.5	Definite with Diminutive and Augmentative Morphemes	146
5.10	SUM	MARY OF NOMINAL PROCLITICS	147
СНАР	TER 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	2 MODIFYING PHRASES AS STEMS	167
6.13	GENITIVE PHRASES WITH ADJECTIVE	168
6.14	COMPLEMENTIZER	170
6.15	5 Phrases	170
6.16	SUMMARY OF WORD-FORMATION PROCESSES	171
6.17	GENITIVE CONSTRUCTIONS AS STEM AND AS PHRASE	171
СНАР	TER 7. NOMINAL PHRASES	173
7.1	THE NOUN PHRASE	173
7.1	TONE ON ADJECTIVES	
7.2	PLURAL MODIFIED NOUNS	
7.3	ALTERNATING ADJECTIVES	
7.4	DIMINUTIVE SUFFIX ON ADJECTIVAL PHRASES	
	PROCLITICS ON ADJECTIVE PHRASES	
7.6		
7.7	REDUPLICATED ADJECTIVES	
7.8	SYNTACTIC PROCESSES IN THE NOUN PHRASE	
	7.8.1 Conjoined Nouns	
7	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 i	IN PLACE OF ADJECTIVE	191
7.10	QUA	ANTIFIERS	192
7	.10.1	All	193
7	.10.2	A lot	194
7	.10.3	Small	195
7	.10.4	Numerals	196
7.11	ADV	VERB	196
7.12	SUM	MMARY OF MODIFIERS	197
СНАР	TER 8.	VERB TYPES	198
8.1		DUCTION TO INFLECTIONAL CLASSES	
8.2	VERB (	CLASS ONE: /CVC <sub>VELAR</sub> / OR /CVR/	199
8.3	VERB (	CLASS TWO: /CV <sub>[MID]</sub> / VERBS	203
8.4	VERB (	CLASS THREE: /CV <sup>n</sup> /	206
8.5	VERB (	CLASS FOUR: /CVN/	208
8.6	VERB (	CLASS FIVE: /CVM/	210
8.7	SUMMA	ARY 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	SUMMA	ARY OF VERB TYPES	220
СНАР	TER 9.	CASE STUDIES IN DERIVATIONAL PROCESSES	221
9.1	Introd	DUCTION	221
0.2	Мотю	in Vedde	221

9.3	[-R-] S	UFFIXATION: MOTION SALIENT	222
9.4	NASAL	IZATION: PLACE SALIENT	223
9.5	Inflec	TIONAL PARADIGMS	224
9.6	Root-l	NITIAL CONSONANT NASALIZATION: THE CASE OF [MUU <sup>11</sup> ]	225
9	.6.1	Inflectional Paradigm for [muu <sup>n</sup> ]	226
9.7	SUMMA	ARY OF BU- AND MU- VERBS	226
9.8	TRANS	TIVE NASAL	226
9	.8.1	[m mun-d-a] 'put in(side)'	228
9.9	HIGH F	RONT VOWEL: CULMINATION	229
9.10	Roc	T INITIAL CONSONANT DEVOICING: DIRECTION	231
9	.10.1	[puu <sup>n</sup> ] 'sprout'	231
9	.10.2	[pun-d-a] 'weed'	231
9	.10.1	Inflectional Marking	231
9.11	SUM	IMARY OF BU-, MU-, AND PU- VERBS	232
9.12	CAS	E STUDY TWO: CAUSATIVE OR EFFERENTIAL	234
9.13	CAS	E STUDY THREE: NOUNS FROM VERBS	236
9.14	OVE	RVIEW OF AFFIXATION ON VERBS	237
СНАР	TER 10.	VERB PARTICLES	238
10.1	OVE	ERVIEW OF TAM PARTICLES	238
10.1		FECTIVE ASPECT	
10.2		OMPLETIVE PARTICLE /DAW/	
	0.3.1	Present Incompletive Aspect.	
	0.3.2	Future Tense	
	0.3.3	Existential	
10.4		APLETIVE	
	0.4.1	Completive aspect	
	0.4.2	Perfect Aspect	
	0.4.3	Stative Aspect	
1		~	

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 Incompletive 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
СНАРТЕН	R 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.	Completive aspect with Plural Object and Overt Pronoun	302
13.5.4	Completive aspect with No Object and Pronoun, Verb: 'eat'	303
13.5.	Completive aspect with Object, Verb: 'eat'	304
13.5.	Completive aspect with Object and Truncated Pronoun, Verb: 'eat'	305
13.5.	Completive aspect with Truncated Pronoun, Verb: 'go'	306
13.6	INCOMPLETIVE	308
13.7	SUMMARY OF PERSON TONAL MARKING	312
СНАРТЕ	R 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	.5.1 Simple Nouns	316
14.5	.5.2 Complex Nouns	319
14.5	.5.3 Summary of the Negative effects on the NP	320
14.6	NEGATIVE VERB PHRASE	320
14.6	.6.1 VC2 Stems	320
14.6	.6.2 Timing in the Negative VC2 Stem	322
14.6	.6.3 Instransitive Stems with the [-r] Suffix	325
14.7	Transitive Verbs	325
14.8	Intransitive Verbs	326
14.8		
	•	
CHAPTE	ER 15. CONCLUSION	329
Bibliograp	phy	
Appendix	I: Comparative Wordlists	
Appendix	II: Comparitive Wordlists	
Appendix	III: Nouns by Categories	
Appendix	IV: Examples of Other Reduplicated Verbs	
Appendix	V: Chief Texts 1 - 10	
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

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 morphosyntatical 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 15<sup>th</sup> 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 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

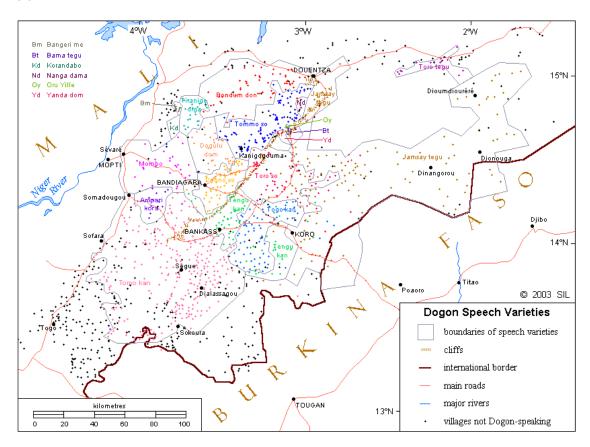
language's previous classification as a member of the Dogon language family. Section §1.8 compares Bangime to surrounding languages, with special attention to differences from the Dogon language group. Section §1.9, the conclusion to the chapter, reveals 'deeper' aspects of Bangime and outlines hypotheses 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, 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).<sup>2</sup> 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.<sup>3</sup> Bounou is considered to be the capitol of the seven Bangande villages.<sup>4</sup> 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.<sup>5</sup> 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

\_

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> Extract from Appendix VII: Text XIII: Tiga 3

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> Appendix VI: Chief map (history of from where Bounou moved), Text: 'Bangande migration story'

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>3</sup> 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.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>4</sup> Appendix I: Chief III, Lines 4 - 6

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>5</sup> 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.<sup>6</sup> Roger Blench (2005, 2007) gives an overview of the language, and it is to him that the 'discovery' of the

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>6</sup>Stefan 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 Yɛni, 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, Dyɛni or Yɛni (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), 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 [bàŋgà=ndɛ] (the afore referenced [baŋga] plus the plural clitic), within the Dogon ethnic group.

I have chosen to use the endonym, Bangime [bàngímè]<sup>8</sup> 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.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>7</sup>It is common to name Dogon languages by their introductory greeting interjection; however this greeting is part of the Bobo language.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>8</sup> 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, <a href="www.dogonlanguages.org">www.dogonlanguages.org</a>. 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 <u>dogonlanguages.org</u>.

## 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. 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, [lòòŋgá], operformed 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, <sup>11</sup> many people of various ethnicities in Mali were kidnapped by Fulani enslavers during the time of the trans-Atlantic slave trade in the 15<sup>th</sup> 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

\_

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>9</sup> 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.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>10</sup> This word is a non-integrated borrowing from Dogon (Bunoge).

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>11</sup> 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. <sup>12</sup>

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. <sup>13</sup> 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,

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>12</sup> See <a href="http://llmap.org/search.html?qs=Dogon">http://llmap.org/search.html?qs=Dogon</a> for the exact coordinates of the areas in which each language is spoken.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>13</sup> 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." <sup>14</sup>

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 Voltaique, 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>	Bangime Word	Dogon Word	Dogon Language
a.	father	bóó	bóò	Ben Tey, Bankan-Tey

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>14</sup> "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	kúųì	kùjá	Bankan-Tey
c.	little	dágà+jè	dágáj, dáyá	Nanga, Gourou
d.	braid	múnd–á	mùnd-ó	Nanga
e.	mouth	nóò	nòś	Nanga
f.	paper	dóò	dóò	Dogul Dom
g.	shave	kàá(-rà)	káá	Tommo-so
h.	garlic	túúmè	túmè, túmè	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

	Gloss	Bangime Word	Dogon Word	Dogon Language
a.	who	jéà	àjé, àà	various
b.	rain	jóờ <sup>n</sup>	jàrí, àjǎn	Ben Tey, Nanga, Najamba
c.	man	góờ <sup>n</sup>	àr̃á	various
d.	tie	bàà	mòś	Bankan Tey
e.	wilderness	nàá	òr̃óó	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>	Bangime
a.	j	j
b.	ĩ	g
c.	m	b
d.	n	ř

## (5) Integration of Borrowings

	Gloss	Proposed Constraint	Example of Change
a.	who	*onsetless syllables	Dogon aje → jea Bangime
b.	rain	*nasalized low vowels	Dogon ajan $\rightarrow$ ja $\underline{a}^n \rightarrow$ jo $\underline{o}^n$ Bangime
c.	man	*sonorant onsets	Dogon $a\underline{\tilde{r}}a \to \underline{\tilde{r}}aa^n \to ga\underline{a}^n \to go\underline{o}^n$ Bangime
d.	tie	*nasalized low vowels	Bangime $\underline{b}aa \rightarrow ma\underline{a}^n \rightarrow mo\underline{o}^n$ Dogon
e.	wildern	ess all rules:	Dogon $3\underline{\tilde{r}}33^n \rightarrow a\tilde{r}a\underline{a}^n \rightarrow \underline{\tilde{r}}aa \rightarrow \underline{n}aa$ 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 [bɔr̃o] is derived from the adjective

[bogo] 'big'. <sup>15</sup> Next, by a process of <u>vowel lowering</u>, 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 [r] spreads onto the subsequent vowels. Metathesis occurs to provide an onset, but a rhotic is not an acceptable onset, so the nasalized [r] becomes [n]. Since the change from nasalized [r] 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].

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>15</sup> The reason that the marker [bɔr̃o] 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 pɔriɛ bɔr̃o bɔr̃o], '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' [ʒágé–ε], plural [ʒáγá–mì=ndɛ], shows a similar pattern. The word 'onion' may also be a borrowing as it is pronounced [dʒábà] 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 /báŋeri 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." <sup>16</sup>

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,

\_

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>16</sup> "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 ɛ 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 <u>disharmonic sequences</u> of [+ATR] and [-ATR] vowels within a word and even tautosyllabically. As shown above and in the <u>comparative word list</u>, 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

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, /q/, 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. Examples show the alveolo-palatal fricative, /ɛ/, and the labial-palatal approximant, /q/, 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

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>17</sup> Many of the [-ATR] vowels in Bangime appear before nasals or nasalized segments in potential borrowings from Dogon languages.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>18</sup> 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 [ $\beta$ ], (instrumental phonetic study is needed on this point), and the voiced velar stop /g/ alternates with the voiced velar fricative [ $\gamma$ ] intervocalically. This latter alternation is found among Dogon languages, although the former, /b/ ~ [ $\nu$ ], 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 <u>aspectual change</u> in verbs. The closest Dogon counterparts, according to Heath (p.c.), are cases of syncope of CVrV— to CVn— before a consonantal suffix, and, (in Toro Tegu only), of CVwV 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<sup>w</sup>V and C<sup>j</sup>V) may occur in free variation with syllabic CuwV and CijV 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

	Word Initial			Word Internal		
	<u>Stem</u>	Gloss		<u>Stem</u>	Gloss	
a.	nníjà	mother	aa.	mmìnná	door	
b.	mmírò	bee	bb.	bìmmè	heart	
c.	nnànà	Niana (village)	cc.	*CVn.nV		
d.	nŋàmbá	sheep	dd.	*CVŋ.ŋV		

Words which have a word-medial geminate nasal (7aa - bb) may have an initial geminate nasal. The word (7aa) [mminna] 'door' has an allomorph [mmira]. 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 [nnìé-ré] 'woman' permit initial geminate nasals. Most bisyllablic 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 phonotatics 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 <u>verbal suffixes</u> and <u>clitics</u>, the only productive, segmental, bound suffix found in the language is a <u>diminutive</u>,

suffixed to nouns. Inflection on <u>verbs</u> 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  $-\tilde{r}u$ , -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. <sup>19</sup>

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>19</sup> The Dogon language Yanda sporadically uses the kin plural suffix  $-j\hat{\epsilon}$  (Heath 2010), in examples  $d\hat{\epsilon}d\hat{\epsilon}-j\hat{\epsilon}$ , 'fathers'  $n\hat{i}r\hat{a}-j\hat{\epsilon}$ , 'father's sister',  $n\hat{i}\hat{i}-j\hat{\epsilon}$ , 'mothers',  $b\hat{a}b\hat{a}-j\hat{\epsilon}$ , 'grandfathers' and  $s\hat{\epsilon}z\hat{u}-j\hat{\epsilon}$ , 'grandmothers', but this is

Bangime Kin Terms Plural (8)

	<u>Noun</u>	Gloss
a.	bớò–rú	fathers
b.	nníjà–rú	mothers

- father's wives (borrowing from Fulfulde) gógó–rú c.
- tìndé-rú grandfathers d.
- tíé–rú grandmothers e.
- (9) Bangime Demonstrative Plural

	Noun_	Gloss
a.	kàà=rú	these things near the speaker
b.	méέ–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 <u>possession</u> and <u>definiteness</u>. 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

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

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  $[=n\epsilon] \sim [=nd\epsilon]$ . The homophonous marker  $[n\epsilon]$  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 <u>definite article</u> in Bangime.

Compounding is a productive means of creating new lexical items in Dogon. While <a href="https://phrasal.gov/phras

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)

 $n\circ n\circ -r\acute{a}-)^n$   $n\circ n\circ -n\acute{i}-)^n$ 

write-NEG.IMPV-1S write-NEG.PRF-1S

I do not write I did not write

Bangime m bíè n nógôndó m bíè nógôndò

1S NEG Twrite.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. 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.

-

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>20</sup> 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 <u>tense</u>, <u>aspect</u>, <u>and</u> <u>mood</u> markers are unbound morphemes. Verbs in Bangime are divided into different <u>classes</u> 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.<sup>21</sup> Additionally, Songhay, of the Nilo-Saharan family, has *-andi* causatives.

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

	Gloss	<u>Incompletive</u>		<u>efferential</u>	Gloss
a.	eat	díj–à	aa.	dìj–à–nd–á	feed
b.	drink	nnìè	bb.	nníé–nd–è	give to drink
c.	send	dè–r̃–é	cc.	dè-r-é-nd-á	make send
d.	fear	pì–r̃–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

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>21</sup> In Najamba (Dogon), causatives of this form include a limited set of verbs, including,  $il-\dot{\epsilon}$ , 'go up',  $il\dot{a}-ndi$  'cause to ascend',  $b\dot{\epsilon}l\dot{i}-y\dot{\epsilon}$ , get up,  $b\dot{\epsilon}l\dot{a}-ndi$ , 'cause to get up',  $ti\eta g-\dot{\epsilon}$ , 'pass by',  $ti\eta\dot{a}-ndi$ , 'cause to pass by'.

The efferential morpheme is suffixed to the incompletive 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

Mutation		<u>T</u>	Root	Gloss	<u>T</u>	Reversive	Gloss
$t \sim d$	a.	n	<u>t</u> ìn–d–á	start	aa. n	<u>d</u> ìn–d–á	stop
$m \sim b$	b.	m	<u>m</u> ùn–d–á	dress, enter	bb. m	<u>b</u> ùn–d–á	undress, exit
$n \sim \mathfrak{p}$	c.	n	<u>n</u> àw	give	cc. n	<u>n</u> àw	take
$t \sim 3$	d.	-	<u>t</u> é-r-ò	sit	dd. –	<b>ʒ</b> é−r–ò	stand up

Note that among the alternations, the stem-intial consonant [t] (13a, d) alternates with [d] in (13a) and [3] 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).<sup>22</sup> 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.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>22</sup> If the Bangime words are borrowed from Dogon, [díndá] > [tóró, túmnó] 'stop', [jíè] > [ínjè] 'rise', [dinda] > [íjé] 'stand', but see [tíé] 'sit' > [tijé] 'stand', would be reasonable suggestions since onsetless syllables are very rare word-initially in Bangime.

# (14) Bangime Afferential Nasalization

	Gloss	<u>T</u>	<u>Perfect</u>	<u>Perfective</u>	<u>Incompletive</u>	Completive
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 <sup>n</sup>	búù <sup>n</sup>	bú–ř–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 <sup>n</sup>	múú <sup>n</sup>	mù–r̃–á	mù–r̃–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-

	Gloss	<u>T</u>	<u>Perfect</u>	<u>Perfective</u>	Incompletive	Completive
a.	hit	n	dég–ù	dég–è	dég–ὲ	dég–ὲ
b.	put	m	píé	píé	pìè	pé-r-ò
c.	chew	n	téèn	téèn	tá–w̃–àà	tám–b–à
d.	halve	ŋ	gwèn-d-ì	gwèn-d-ì	gwèn-d-è	gwèn-d-è
e.	crouch	_	súm–b–ò	súm-b-ó-r-ò RED	súm-b-ó-r-ò	súm–b–ò
f.	return	_	kẃà ŋ kí	kó–r–à ŋ kíì	kì ŋ kớ–r–ò	kò–r–ò ŋ kí
g.	dig	ŋ	kíndū	kíndū	kíndū	kíndū

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

# (16) Stative/Transitive Alternation in Ibi-so (Dogon)<sup>23</sup>

	<u>Stative</u>	Gloss		<u>Transitive</u>	Gloss
a.	sínn–í	carry on back	aa.	sínn–í–rử	put on (sbs) back
b.	íŋí–í	stand up, stop(person)	bb.	íŋí–í–rử	stop (sth)
c.	ìní–í	bathe	cc.	ín–ú–rὖ	bathe (sb)
d.	tùŋ—í	kneel	dd.	tùŋ–ù–rú	make kneel
e.	dùw–í	carry on head	ee.	dú–ú–rú	put on (sbs) head
f.	díìn	lie down	ff.	(îì) dù–nú	have lie down, put to sleep
g.	dèén	sit down	gg.	dàà–nú	have sit, seat
h.	tág–í	put ones shoes on	hh.	tág–á–¹rá	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–ĩá	hide (sb, sth)

<sup>23</sup> Data are from the author and are available at <u>dogonlanguages.org</u>.

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>	Gloss		<u>Verb</u>	Gloss
a.	n	túráà	wash (s.o.)	aa.	bírè	leave, go out
b.	ŋ	kò–r̃–ò	break	bb.	wòrè	go
c.	n	t <sup>w</sup> áà	reach	cc.	bù–r̃–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 incompletive 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.

# (18) Complementizer Plural Agreement

The villages which are in/at Gogoni.

One similarity between Bangime and the Dogon languages is the extensive use of postpositions to indicate locative, instrumental, and dative roles. Some examples from Bangime are shown in (19).

# (19) Postpositions

locative a. nè kóò ŋ wórè à gàrà hú^n CP  $1.PL \ L \ \sim\!\! 2 \ go \ DEF \ station \ PP$ 

We went to the station.

b. nè kóò wórè à kòò ŋ kó 1.PL CPL go DEF house GEN PP

We went to the house.

instrumental c. n à rádàʒò táŋà n syéè hù<sup>n</sup> ~2 DEF radio ear ~2 descend PP

I listen to the radio. [lit. I put my ear on the radio.]

d. n dá nógònd-ó bìkí n kò
 ~2 INC write-RV pen GEN PP

I am writing with a pen.

dative e. n dá ké $\grave{\epsilon}$  ná $\~{w}$  à wàj  $\sim$ 2 INC thing give.RV 2.S PP

I am giving something to you.

f. à tèr-ù kéè  $\eta$  wàj 2.S show-PRF thing  $\sim$ 2 PP

You showed something to me.

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 <u>ordering of constituents</u> 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 <u>perfect aspect</u> 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 <u>perfect clitic</u> [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 <u>tonal agreement for person</u>. 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

níé Η bòàn kέὲ n dè níé Η bòàn mí n L L kέὲ η n η drink 1 1.S T drink 1 cream 1 ~2 PRF 1.PL T cream 1 ~2 **PRF** 

a. I had drunk cream.

- d. We had drunk cream.
- nìè L bóʻ́́σn Η á kέὲ áà nìè L bóśn Н á kέὲ á n n 2.S Τ drink 2 cream 2 +2**PRF** 2. PL T drink 2 2 +2**PRF** cream
- b. You had drunk cream.

e. You (pl) had drunk cream.

nìè L bóśn Η kέὲ n nìì L bóśn kέὲ mì n η n nìè Η η drink 3 3.S T drink 3 cream 3 ~2 **PRF** 3. PL T cream 3 ~2 **PRF** 

- c. S/he had drunk cream.
- f. They had drunk cream.

In sentences in the <u>perfect aspect</u> 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

- káó wòrè kùùn Ø n yáá à námbá a. ~2 **CPL** ~2 buy.1.S **DEF** go.1.S sheep.1 market I bought the sheep [at] market. lit. 'I went, I bought the sheep, [at] market.'
- káó kùùn b. á wórè à yàá á ηámbà 2.S **CPL** +2 buy.2.S go.2.S **DEF** sheep.2 market

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

- káó wòrè à á námbà kùùn c. Ø yàá ~2 CPL go.3.S +2buy.2.S DEF sheep.3 market He bought the sheep [at] market.
- d. ndὲ kóó wòrè yàá á námbá kùùn n 1.PL go.1.PL **CPL** buy.1.P DEF sheep.1 market ~2 We bought the sheep [at] market.

- àà káó wórè à yàá á námbà kùùn e. CPL go.2.pl buy.2.P sheep.2 2.PL +2DEF market You (pl) bought the sheep [at] market.
- f. nnìì káó wóré nàmbà kùùn n yáá ă 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

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 [kéè], 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.				nnìè-rè] ŋ							
	~2	1	<sup>1.5</sup> hit–PKF	woman ~2	PKF		~2	1	hit-PKF	woman ~2	PRF
	I had	hit a	woman.				He ha	ıd hi	t a woman.		

The incompletive aspect can be viewed as being complementary to the completive aspect. The incompletive /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 incompletive clause and the high tone associated with the first person and low tone for third person continues to be marked on the verb.

### (24) Incompletive

	First Person					Third Person				
a.	Ø	dá	_	n dég–έ] <sup>HL</sup>				_		0 1
	~2	<b>IMPV</b>	woman	T hit–RV <sup>.1S</sup>		~2	<b>IMPV</b>	woman	T	hit–RV <sup>.3S</sup>
	т	hitting a				TT .	1 144	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

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 
$$-\grave{\epsilon}$$
 n ná $\grave{w}$ . Adama T hit  $-RV$   $\sim 2$  INC

Adama will hit.

b. á jám+b
$$\bar{\epsilon}$$
 ná n dèg  $-\hat{\epsilon}$  -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 η 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. 
$$mi$$
 n  $dég - \epsilon$   $-H$  1S T hit RV 1

I hit him.

b. 
$$mi$$
 n dég  $-\hat{\epsilon}$   $-L$  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

Greeting	Gloss	Response	Gloss
dôó	morning greeting	dóòó	morning greeting
k <sup>w</sup> ě hèré n jéw	did [you] wake in peace?	hámdùrùlájì	Praise be to God (Arabic)
tíjà	afternoon greeting	tìjáàá	afternoon greeting
k <sup>w</sup> ě hèré tùrú	did [you] spend the day in	hámdùrùlájì	Praise be to God
à kóò n cíè=ndé	peace? your family ('house owner')	kí sè bíníjù	no problems
à p <sup>w</sup> íè 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)	náà dà ŋ wíì	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 [bùr̃á míndé yùrúgí 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 hà máà ŋàrìkí à dóó beer until 3.S.POSS thoughts/spirit IRR pass 'drunk'
- b. sííbíè n tàràá n kéè póó!ré
  eye GEN hide GEN thing black
  black things (to) hide (the) eye(s)
  'sun glasses'
- c. góờ<sup>n</sup>=nế kóờ ŋ kờ men house GEN PP men inside a house 'prison'
- d. Jíín -cíèn
  strength AGENT/owner
  strong person
  'policeman'
- e. bùù<sup>n</sup> mé ná mì déé-rè powder CONJ INC PASS sweet powder which has been sweetened 'cake'
- f. kíŋgèè bwíé màà n ŋòó ŋwiè skin red 3.S.POSS meat oil 'banana'

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)<sup>24</sup> 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, "lóndùé". 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

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>24</sup> Jamsay [báŋá], Togo Kan [báŋ], Yorno So [bàŋ-íí jéé], Tommo-So [bààŋí-jé], Yanda Dom [băn-jé\bàn-jà-lí], Ben Tey [bàŋgì-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.<sup>25</sup>

How the slaves came into Bangande society remains a mystery. According to oral histories, <sup>26</sup> 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.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>25</sup> Tiga 3

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>26</sup> Chief 5

In Mali, last names are of the upmost 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'. 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

 $<sup>^{27}</sup>$  Even the word for 'name', [níi], 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 g a o 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 ie ee ee ae oo oo]

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 [±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], [ie], and [ee]. 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.<sup>28</sup>

### (32) Front Vowel Diphthong Minimal Pairs

		[ie]	(25 words)		[ <u>i</u> ε]	(73 words)		<u>[eε]</u>	(55 words)
LL	a.	nnìè	rainy season	aa.	nnìè	yesterday	aaa.	nnèè	sun
LH	b.	nnìé	woman	bb.			bbb.	nnèέ	bean
НН	c.			cc.	nníέ	milk	ccc.		
HL	d.	nníè	drink.1S	dd.	nníè	greet.1S	ddd.	nnéè	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

	Word	Gloss		<u>Word</u>	Gloss		Word	<u>Gloss</u>
a.	$b^{w}$ ìè	mosquito	aa.	b <sup>w</sup> ίέ	red	aaa.	b <sup>w</sup> èè	leg
b.	ψìὲ	ascend.3S	bb.	ųί <mark>έ</mark>	moon	bbb.	ųίè	water
c.	kíŋg <b>é</b> è	skin	cc.	kíŋgíè	room			

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>28</sup> 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. géngíè salt dd. gěngíè metal
- e. péréè key ee. pééré a lot adj.

The diphthong [iε] 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 [bw] or [q]. Bisyllabic words may also contrast for diphthong quality; this is in part due to the <u>frozen suffix</u> [ε] found on many nouns.

The low vowel also combines with the front [-ATR] vowel [ $\epsilon$ ] 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

[a $\epsilon$ ] (5 words)

- a. tìyà+è peanut
- b. 3áyá+è onion
- c. dáyá+è small
- d. páyá-è container–DIM
- e. dwà-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 <u>frozen suffix</u> 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

	[00]	(17 words)		[co]	(50 words)
a.	bốó	father	aa.	bóò	border
b.	nŋśó	travel	bb.	nŋòś	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 [±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 <u>frozen diminutive suffix</u>.

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 \*[I v], and thus it is possible to 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>	Word	Allomorph	Gloss	Frequency
a.	i.a	dìjá	$\sim d^j$ áá	eat	15 words
b.	a.i	mmàjí	~ mààj	okra	4 words
c.	u.i	mmúwí	$\sim m^{\rm w} i i$	today	3 words
d.	u.ie	púwíè	$\sim p^w i\grave{\epsilon}$	wife	17 words
e.	u.ee	búwéè	$\sim b^w \! \acute{e} \grave{\epsilon}$	red.	2 words
f.	u.o	kúwò	$\sim k^w\grave{o}\grave{o}$	shoulder, wing	5 words
g.	u.o	bùwó	$\sim b^{\rm w} \acute{o} \acute{o}$	herd	5 words
h.	u.a	nŋùwà	~ nnùŋà	prepare	1 word
i.	i.o	kìwó		metal fire-starter	5 words
j.	o.i	sógójì		toenail	2 words
k.	i.u	píjù		blow v.	8 words

The combinations [au], [ei], [ei], [ou], [ou] 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 = [ng] 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  $[-\varepsilon]$ . When the diminutive suffix is attached or is frozen to a noun with a mid front vowel in the root, such as  $[d\acute{o}r\acute{e}+\grave{\epsilon}]$  '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>	Gloss	<u>Diminutive Stem</u>	Gloss
a.	góò+mpá	step	góò+mbè	little step
b.	tótò	anvil	tótò–mέ	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  $[b\acute{a}ng\acute{a}-j\grave{\epsilon}] \sim [b\acute{a}ng\acute{a}-m\grave{\epsilon}]$ . 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  $[bi\acute{\epsilon}] \sim [bi\..j\acute{\epsilon}]$  'baby',  $[b\grave{i}=nd\acute{\epsilon}]$  '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 /tunu+me/ '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>	Gloss	Frequency		<u>Stem</u>	Gloss	Frequency
i/ii	a. b. c.	mi mmírò kùrí	1/3.S bee dust	3 clitics/sfx, 0 words 29 words 1 sfx, 121 words	aa. bb. cc.	píí sííbíè *CCii	sauce eye	25 words, 2 clitics 2 words 0
e/ee	d. e. f.	*Ce térò sórè	sit know	0 126 words 171 words (58 [-re] sfx)	dd. ee. ff.	téé *Cee.CV símèè	older sibling —— rock	2 words 0 2 words
ε/εε	g. h. i.	nné nnéré gírímè	1.pl uncle rabbit	2 clitics/sfx, 0 words 5 words 1 sfx, 114 words	gg. hh. ii.	*Cεε *Cεε.CV tùrέέ	hyena	0 0 1 word
a/aa	j. k. l.	nà báréè mmìrà	particle Acacia sp. door	3 particles/sfx 170 words 1 sfx, 244 words (52 [-ra] sfx)	jj. kk. ll.	nnàà báákò káráá	cow beautiful new	17 words, 6 clitics/sfx 1 word 33 words
0/00	m. n. o.	tò pó mmòré mmírò	only ('one only') sugar cane bee	1 word 318 words 1 sfx, 202 words (50 [-ro] sfx)	mm. nn. 00.	kóò póórò sígóò	house cloud week	9 words 1 word 3 words
ე/ეე	p. q. r.	kò n nó dóréè bòndó	doorway bird alive	1 word 201 words 5 words, 1 sfx	pp. qq. rr.	*Coo *Coo.CV *CV.Coo		0 0 0
u/uu	s. t. u.	–ru bùr̃á píjù	familial plural stick blow	1 sfx 386 words 94 words (33 [-ru] sfx)	ss. tt. uu.	kúù <sup>n</sup> pùùpá búrúù	egg bellows seed, kind	15 words (14 nasalized) 6 words 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 [sííbíè] '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 [ε] are limited in their distribution as long vowels.<sup>29</sup> Examples include [símèè] 'rock', [téé] 'older sibling' for the [+ATR] vowel and [tùrέέ] '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 [ŋàmbà-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 [póòrò] '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.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>29</sup> Whether the vowels are differentiated on the basis of advanced tongue root or tenseness is yet to be determined.

A <u>minimal word</u> 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 <u>harmony</u>. 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>	Bisyllabic First Syllable	Bisyllabic Second Syllable
ii	+		
	1	_	_
ee	_	_	<del>-</del>
33	_	_	_
aa	+	_	+
00	+	_	_
၁၁	+	_	_
uu	+	+	_

Mid vowels appear as <u>diphthongs</u> 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 <u>below</u>. For example, <u>adjectives</u> must follow a dummy noun [kii], derived from the noun [keɛ] 'thing'. I hypothesize the monosyllabic form of the noun is [kii] and the bisyllabic form [keɛ].<sup>30</sup> The adjective follows the dummy noun to form a binary foot.

#### (40) Vowel raising in monosyllabic stems

$$/EE/ \rightarrow [ii]/\#C$$
 #

Another instantiation of vowel raising in the dummy noun is before the diminutive suffix  $/\varepsilon$ . The noun is represented as bisyllabic [kiri] 'thing' before the diminutive suffix [kiri $-\varepsilon$ ] 'little thing' not \*[ke $\varepsilon$ – $\varepsilon$ ]. We will see that some root vowels raise to [i] in the plural diminutive stem.

<sup>30</sup> The word [kéɛ̀] '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 [kwà ŋ kíi] 'able' becomes [kó-ró-nd-ī] '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

Stem Gloss

- a. báráá Baara (village)
- b. báráà remain
- c. mmàráà like/want
- d. mmàràà build
- e. páràà amass
- f. síràà horn
- g. kùráá birth
- h. súràà look
- i. túráà bathe
- j. búrúù 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 [qùúr–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 <u>nouns</u> and <u>verbs</u>.

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 [ɛɛ] are rare; long mid back vowels [oo] and [oo] 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 <u>verbs</u>, 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 <u>plural</u>, <u>augmentative</u>, and <u>diminutive</u> 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>	Gloss
a.	gíndí	gums
b.	kέrénd–έ	slide, slither
c.	pégέ–r–è	lean
d.	báŋgá–r–à	carry on shoulder
e.	tớŋó–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

Rule	Gloss	<u>UR</u>	<u>PR</u>	<b>Exceptions</b>
$/o/ \rightarrow [\mathfrak{d}]/\underline{n}$	horse	/bòó/	υὸɔ́=ndὲ	tégò=ndέ 'face'
$/o/ \rightarrow [\mathfrak{d}]/_{\underline{n}}$	scythe	/kóó <sup>n</sup> /	kóò⁰	kớờ 'dry.PRF'
$/o/ \rightarrow [\mathfrak{d}]/\underline{r}$	bird	/dóré/	d <del>ó</del> ré+è	tégó=rò 'face'
$/e/ \to [\epsilon]/\_n$	wind, air	/pébé/	péυ <mark>è=</mark> ndέ	dégé=ndè 'heads'
$/e/ \to [\epsilon]/\_^n$	agent	/geen/	¢èὲ <sup>n</sup>	pέé <sup>n</sup> 'ladder'
$/e/ \rightarrow [\epsilon]/_r$	wind, air	/pébé/	péυέ–rè	nnìé–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

	Stem	Gloss		<u>Stem</u>	Gloss
a.	bốgó	help	aa.	b <mark>ó</mark> gó	big, old
b.	kốgó	rake (v.)	bb.	k <mark>ó</mark> gó	basket
c.	t <mark>ó</mark> gò	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. 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

Alternation		<u>Stem</u>	Gloss		<u>Stem</u>	Gloss
ii/ĩĩ	a.	<b>z</b> íí	cry	aa.	3íí <sup>n</sup>	blood
iɛ/ĩ̃̃̃	b.	pʷíὲ	wife	bb.	$p^w i\grave{\epsilon}^n$	leaf

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

eɛ/ẽ̃	c.	kéè	thing	cc.	kéὲ <sup>n</sup>	there
aa/ãã	d.	báá	tie	dd.	báá <sup>n</sup>	monitor lizard
oo/õõ	e.	vòó	horse	ee.	bòón	powder
uu/ũũ	f.	kúù	yam	ff.	kúù <sup>n</sup>	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  $[ga3e^n]$  '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 wordfinally. 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  $[\tilde{r} \tilde{j} \tilde{w}]$ , 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  $e \ \epsilon \ a \ o \ u$ /. 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

-

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>32</sup> A secondary hypothesis is that the words with nasalized final vowels were originally bisyallabic 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

					Post-	Alveolo-			Labial-	Labio-	
	Bila	abial	Alv	eolar	alveolar	palatal	Palatal	Velar	Palatal	velar	Glottal
Plos	p	b	t	d				k g			
Nasal	m		n				n	ŋ			
Prenas											
Plos	mр	тb	<sup>n</sup> t	nd				ηk ηg			
Fricat			S		$\int$ 3	c		γ			h
Affric						<b>f</b>					
Approx	υ		r				j		ų	W	
Nasal											
Approx			ř				ĩ			$\tilde{ ext{W}}$	
Lateral											
Approx			1								

#### 2.4 Labial Consonants

Labial consonant phonemes are /b p  $^m$ b  $^m$ p m/. The voiced labiodental approximant, [v], is an allophone of a voiced bilabial stop /b/ that may also have an intermediate allophone fricative allophone [ $\beta$ ]. The data in (47) illustrate the tendency for /b/ to become [v] before the mid front, [–ATR] vowel [ $\epsilon$ ]. 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) 
$$b \rightarrow v/_{\epsilon}$$

	Stem	Gloss		<u>Stem</u>	Gloss
a.	póbè–rè	hatch	aa.	ρίυέ–rè	dove
b.	sábé–ré	heal	bb.	péυέ–rè	wind
c.	tíbí–rí	fall	cc.	kéυέè	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-re/ '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]

	Word	<u>Gloss</u>		Word	Gloss
a.	gómbíè	tunnel	aa.	gʻsbíè	water lettuce
b.	tém+bíè	small rock	bb.	tébέ+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. Intervocalically, there are 110 words with [p], but only ten words with nasal-stop sequences (49aa, bb) or prenasalized stops [mp] (49cc).

### (49) [CVpV]

	Word	Gloss		Word	Gloss
	110 words			10 words	
a.	tòpáá	goat bag	aa.	tómpà	path
b.	dápàrí	machete	bb.	gómpà	push
c.	bèr̃é n dìpòò	herb sp.	cc.	góòmpá	step

The word-internal bilabial nasal [m] alternates with a nasalized glide  $[\tilde{w}]$  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) 
$$[m \sim j]$$

	Word		Allomorph	Gloss
a.	símà	aa.	síjò <sup>n</sup>	white adj.
b.	pímà	bb.	píjò <sup>n</sup>	smell v.
c.	túmá	cc.	tóờ	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 haitus. 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 [io] 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 <u>completive aspect particle</u> and its allomorphs.

A nasal stop cluster alternates with a nasalized approximant via an <u>aspectual change</u> in verbs. Examples illustrating the alternation are shown in (51).

$$\begin{array}{ccccc} (51) & [mb \sim \tilde{w}] \\ & \underline{Incompletive} & \underline{Completive} & \underline{Gloss} \\ \\ a. & t\grave{a}m-b-\grave{a} & t\grave{a}-\tilde{w}-\grave{a} & chew/bite \\ \\ b. & k\acute{a}m-b-\grave{a} & k\acute{a}-\tilde{w}-\grave{a} & age \\ \end{array}$$

sà–ŵ–á

#### 2.4.1 Coronal Consonants

sàm-b-á

c.

Coronal consonant phonemes are /d t <sup>n</sup>d <sup>n</sup>t n r s ʒ/. Non-assimilated borrowings may contain [1]. 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.

spray

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) $[nd \sim \tilde{r}]$

	<u>Incompletive</u>	<u>Completive</u>	<u>Gloss</u>
a.	mmún–d–á	mmú–r̃–á	move into
b.	kớn–d–ò	kớ–ĩ–ò	break (in half)
c.	pún–d–á	pú–ř–á	(plant) grow
d.	bòn–d–ó	bà–r̃–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>	Gloss
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 [ $\mathfrak{f}$ ] via a low-level phonetic rule. The affricate appears optionally word-initially before the high front vowel. Words such as  $[\mathfrak{f}] \sim [\mathfrak{f}] \sim [\mathfrak{f}] \simeq [\mathfrak{f}]$ 

Examples in (55) show the distribution of the voiced postalveolar fricative [3], the prenasalized voiced alveolo-palatal affricate [nd3], and the voiced palatal glide [j].

(55) 
$$[j \sim 3 \sim d_3]$$

	Stem	Gloss		Stem	Gloss
a.	jé–r–ò	get up.PRF	aa.	n ʒíè–wàj	1S stand up-STAT
b.	gàʒé <sup>n</sup>	world	bb.	gàndʒà	fonio
c.	kúgúzá	crumple	cc.	kŭndzàrá	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 [jìɛ́] 'honey' as [ʒìɛ́], but [jàá+mbɛ̂] 'child' is never \*[ʒàá+mbɛ̂]. 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) [c] and [q]

	Word	Gloss
a.	<b>c</b> ùrí	fly
b.	−¢èè <sup>n</sup>	agentive
c.	kúųì	hair
d.	ųíè	water
e.	ųá–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 [lóɔngá] from Bunoge (Dogon) [lɔśwonga], meaning 'collective hunt'.

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

(57)[n]Word Gloss ρὸφόμέ a. camel pógàndó write b.  $n\acute{o}^{n}\!\!-\!\!\varepsilon \acute{i}\grave{\epsilon}^{n}$ vampire c. d. nnángò soul nnáẁ take e.

#### 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 [ε] via a long-distance effect.

(58)	$[g \sim \gamma]$				
	<u>Stem</u>	Gloss		<u>Stem</u>	<u>Gloss</u>
a.	tág–ú	agree-PRF	aa.	táγ–á	agree–RV
b.	sóg–ú	close–PRF	bb.	sóγ–ś	close–RV
c.	mógó–nd–ó	ferment	cc.	mòγ–ź	rot–RV
d.	kégé–rè	mat	dd.	ʒáγé+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 <u>above</u>.

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).

$$(59) \qquad [g \sim {}^{\eta}g]$$

	<u>Stem</u>	Gloss		<u>Stem</u>	Gloss
a.	páγá–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]

Stem Gloss

- a. báákò beautiful
- b. kòòkέ shoe
- c. póśké soap
- d. nórkéè leopard
- e. dónkà skylight
- f. tóŋkà hobble

The labio-velar approximant deletes in word-final position as shown in the allomorphs of the incompletive or copula particle /daw/ and the verb 'take' /naw/ 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	n <u>à</u> CONJ	tìgé also	à <u>ẁ</u> 2.PL		today me and you (pl)
c.	d <sup>w</sup> àà tree	bógò big	dà COP	kèbé PP		there is a big tree there
d.	sìmèè–l rock=A		dà <u>ẁ</u> COP	kèbé PP		there is a big rock there
e.	nàá take/pic	à ck up D	tè EF tea		ŋ kò) PP)	take the tea (in the kettle)
f.	nàẃ take/pic	à ck up D		òpá oat bag		pick up the goat bag
g.	dà INC	ŋá meat	n T	déřé grill		he is grilling meat
h.	dà INC	ŋà <u>ẃ</u> meat	dèr̃è grill	ŋὧìέ <sup>n</sup> oil	ŋ kó PP	he is grilling meat with oil

The sentence (61a) illustrates that the pronoun /aw/ [2<sup>nd</sup> person plural] deletes the final /w/ before both consonants. The /w/ remains phrase-finally in (61b). Also note (61a) that the incompletive 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 incompletive /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 syllablic 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 <sup>n</sup>	postposition
b.	há <sup>n</sup>	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)).<sup>33</sup>

Most stems in Bangime <u>surface</u> 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

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>33</sup> 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 <u>frozen nominal suffix</u> which contrast for tone alone are shown in (63f - ff).

(63) Minimal Pairs: Tone

Contrast			<u>Stem</u>	Gloss		Stem	Gloss
Vowels	<u>Tone</u>		Monosyllabic				
éè/èè	HL/LL	a.	téè	straight	aa.	tèè	forge.3SG
íέ/ìὲ	HH/LL	b.	b <sup>w</sup> ίέ	red	bb.	bʷìὲ	mosquito
àá/àà	LH/LL	c.	nnàá	wilderness	cc.	nnàà	cow
òó/òò	LH/LL	d.	υὸό	horse	dd.	vòò	field
ùú <sup>n</sup> /úù <sup>n</sup>	LH/HL	e.	kùú <sup>n</sup>	hip	ee.	kúù <sup>n</sup>	market
Vowels	<u>Tone</u>		Bisyllabic	Gloss		Stem	Gloss
CV.Cíè/CV.Cíé	HHL/LHL	f.	zémbíè	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 correspondences 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 [ $\epsilon$ ] 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.	bóó	c.	υὸό	d.	nnàà
Gloss		gerbil		father		horse		cow
PR		HL		НН		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 <u>above</u>, all but one word with a long [u] is nasalized. Examples are shown in (65).

### (65) Surface Tones on Monosyllabic Nasalized [CVV<sup>n</sup>] Words

Word	a.	túù <sup>n</sup>	b.	báá <sup>n</sup>	c.	bàá <sup>n</sup>	d.	nnìì <sup>n</sup>
Gloss		ant		lizard		knife		mouse
PR		HL		НН		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.	páγà	b.	téró	c.	bùr̃á	d.	nŋàrà
Gloss		container		show		stick		God
PR		HL		НН		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 <u>diminutive</u> [ $+\epsilon$ ] 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.	bíròò	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], [góòmpá] '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).<sup>34</sup>

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

Word	a.	déémè	b.	péé¹ré	c.	kòòké	d.	tààrò	e.	nnìérè
Gloss		millet grain		a lot		shoe		three		woman
PR		HH.L		НН.М		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.	gíwárà	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>	Gloss
a.	póɔ́¹rέ	black
b.	bén¹dé	long
c.	dóm!bó	hole
d.	dám¹bá	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 masals 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 <u>certain verb</u> stems may appear as monosyllabic with one mora.<sup>35</sup> 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 <u>plural marker</u>. The examples in (71) are all the words in the

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>35</sup> There are some verb stems with the [+ATR] mid, back vowel [o] which may surface as CV in the incompletive 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

	Singular		<u>Plural</u>	<u>Gloss</u>
a.	nnìì	aa.	nnì=ndέ	hand
b.	zíí	bb.	zí=ndè	root
c.	tíí <sup>n</sup>	cc.	tí=ndè	tail
d.	kíín	dd.	kí=ndè	canoe
e.	bíín	ee.	bí=ndὲ	goat
f.	pέé <sup>n</sup>	ff.	pέ=ndὲ	ladder
g.	kóò	gg.	kớ=ndè	house
h.	tóò	hh.	tớ=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 <u>previously</u>. 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

	Word-Initial	<u>Frequency</u>	Word-Internal	<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 <a href="mailto:predictablity of vowel length">predictablity of vowel length</a> 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

Syllable Structure		<u>Particle</u>	Gloss
V	a.	à	DEF
	b.	á	CHAIN
	c.	á	2 <sup>nd</sup> SG
	d.	áà	2 <sup>nd</sup> 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 - 1). 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

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

	h.	n.nìé.rè	woman	
CVN.NV	i. j.	vìm.mè m.mìn.ná	heart door	2 words
CVN.CV	k. 1.	tàŋ.kó dám.bá	garden egg fill	30 words
CVN.CVV	m. n.	kán.dèè kíŋ.gèè	husband skin	5 words
CVV.NCV	o. p.	jàá.mbè góò.mpá	child step	2 words
CV.NCV.CV	q. r.	gú.mbá.rà pó.mbó.rò	wasp ditch	21 words

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

## (75) Monosyllabic Words

Syllable Type		<u>Stem</u>	Gloss	Frequency
CVG	a. b.	káẁ déẁ	it mar	35 words
CGV	c. d.	kẃà kẃà	throat able	2 words
$CVG^n$	e.	gáẁ <sup>n</sup>	good	1 word
CVV	f. g.	kéè ųíé	thing moon	73 words
$CVV^n$	h. i.	bíì <sup>n</sup> 3óò <sup>n</sup>	goat rain, sky	44 words
$C^GVV$	j. k.	b <sup>w</sup> èè d <sup>w</sup> àà	leg tree	45 words
$C^GVV^n$	l. m.	p <sup>w</sup> ίὲ <sup>n</sup> t <sup>w</sup> íì <sup>n</sup>	leaf bud, flower	8 words

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/o] 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 <u>stative suffix</u>,  $[-w\epsilon] \sim [-waj]$  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

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

Some bisyllabic and all trisyllabic words have light syllables.

#### (77) Polysyllabic Words with Light Syllables

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

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 wordinternally 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 [kíi], which is a monosyllabic allomorph of the bisyllabic [kéè]. 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 [boro] follows a noun directly and no morphemes may intervene between it and the noun root. 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 are 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

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>36</sup> The possible Dogon counterpart of this word is [gara], 'big', or [gànà-r̃á] '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

	<b>Syllabicity</b>	<u>VH</u>	<u>Intervene</u>	<u>Deletes</u>	Tone Bearing	Tone Effects	<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
<b>AGENT</b>	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 = $nd\epsilon \sim =n\epsilon$ ROOT PLURAL
- b. noun  $+\varepsilon$ ROOT frozen or productive diminutive
- c. noun +mi =nd $\epsilon$ ROOT DIMINUTIVE PLURAL
- d. noun –r ROOT frozen suffix
- e. noun  $\emptyset/*-r$  =nd $\epsilon$  ROOT PLURAL
- f. noun -bɔr̃o
  ROOT AUGMENTATIVE
- g. noun -boro =nde 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 <u>tonal</u> attributes. Examples of each type are shown in the subsections below with further examples found in the <u>appendix</u>.

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.	<b>−</b> Ø	=ne	II.	Vn	$=nd\epsilon$
III.	ε	=ne	IV.	3+	−mi=nε
V.	r	r=nε	VI.	-r	=ne

Noun Types III and V involve frozen or lexical  $[\varepsilon]$  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,  $[nd\epsilon]$  and  $[n\epsilon]$ . 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  $[nd\epsilon]$  so the forms which were given with  $[n\epsilon]$  are underlined or highlighted in blue throughout the manuscript, and are listed in (81).

<sup>37</sup> 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.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>38</sup> 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 [súųὲ] 'breast' is male with his wife being [kŏrὲé] 'stomach'. More of these relations are found in the lexicon, available at <a href="http://dogonlanguages.org/">http://dogonlanguages.org/</a>.

# (81) [nɛ] Plural in Nouns

	Singular	<u>Plural</u>	Gloss
a.	kíè	kíé=nè	luggage, belongings
b.	d <sup>w</sup> ίὲ	d <sup>w</sup> íὲ=nέ	clay
c.	зáà	3áà=nέ	death
d.	kóɔ́n	kóʻnὲ	pestle
e.	góờ <sup>n</sup>	góờ=nέ	man
f.	kóờ <sup>n</sup>	kóớ=nề	scythe
g.	bíín	bíí=nè	goat
h.	ságì	ságì=né	eighth
i.	tàŋà	tàŋà=né	ear
j.	kúrí	kúrí=nè	dust
k.	kómè	kómὲ=nέ	slave
1.	kóớrờ	kóɔ́rɔ̀=nέ	fetish
m.	málpá	málpá=nè	rifle
n.	páŋgà	páŋgá=nè	cave
0.	kúndù	kúndú=nè	log
p.	sígòó	sígòó=nέ	day
q.	gŭʒéè	gùʒèè=né	weed
r.	gěŋg <u>í</u> è	gèŋgé=nè	metal
S.	gèŋgíè	gèŋgé=nè	crocodile

t.	déémè	déémé=nè	seed	
u.	dúúgú	dúúgú=nè	forest	
v.	nnòò.rè	nnòò.rè=né	bone	
w.	góòmpá	góòmpà=nέ	step	
Χ.	gíwárà	gìwàrà=né	hat	
y.	táyárà	táyárà=né	Fulani house	
Z.	kùrùbé	kurube=ne	guts, basket	
aa.	góòmpá	góòmpà=né	step	
bb.	gúmbárá	gúmbárá=nè	wasp	
cc.	nàmbàrà	nàmbàrà=né	trick	
dd.	kùwómbè	kùwómbè-mé=nè	aardvark	
ee.	gúmbè jágáè	gùmbé=nè jáyáè	wild onion	
ff.	zèèja púr̃á	zèèjá púr̃á=nè	lazy	
gg.	gàndʒà	gàndʒà-bɔ́r̃ó=nè	fonio	
hh.	mmírò	mmíró=nè m páyá	bees' hive	
ii.	ma–r̃a	mà=nέ	mermaid	
jj.	púndá–rà	púndì=nέ	weed	
kk.	tómbó–rò	tómbó=nè	dry place	
11.	n nìé–rè	n nìé=nè	woman	
mm.	ŋàmbà–rá	nŋámbā=nè	sheep	
nn.	jàá+ mbè	jáá=nè		child
00.	ʒìbέέ	jìbè=né		person

pp.	bámbàrà	bàmbàrá=nè	Bambara
qq.	bòndí	bòndì=né	Bondu
rr.	kòrò bòrò	kòrò bòrò=né	Songhai
SS.	pú <u>nd</u> à	pú <u>nd</u> έ–è pú <u>r̃</u> à=nέ	Fulani
tt.	kómè	kómέ=nὲ	slave
uu.	póό¹rέ	kì póớrέ=nέ	African
VV.	báŋgà, bààŋí–jé	bàŋà=nέ	Banga
ww.	tùbàkú	tùbákù=né	Toubab
XX.	pùùtá	pùùtá=nέ	Fulani enslaver
уу.	púúndà	p <sup>w</sup> ándà=nέ	Fulani
ZZ.	tóò	tóó=nέ	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 [ $n\epsilon$ ] morpheme may also appear with the [ $nd\epsilon$ ] 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 [ $n\epsilon$ ] plural, always with the [ $nd\epsilon$ ] allomorph.

## 3.2.2 Segmental Type One $(-\emptyset, =n\varepsilon)$

The first segmental type consists of nouns with no suffixation in the singular and either the suffix  $[=nd\epsilon]$  or  $[=n\epsilon]$  in the plural. The tonal alternations on the plural clitic are discussed <u>below</u>. 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.	tóò	tớ=ndè	ppl of Demangari (village)
b.	nnàà	nnàà=ndέ	cow
c.	kìwó	kìwò=ndέ	firestarter
d.	dóm¹bó	dómbò=ndέ	hole
e.	tòpáá	tòpáá=ndè	goat bag

Type one nouns are of any <u>permissible word length</u>, 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 <a href="Chapter 2">Chapter 2</a>. All the final vowels of the nouns in Type One are oral vowels.

# 3.2.3 Segmental Type Two $(V^n, =nd\epsilon)$

Type Two nouns all have a nasalized vowel. There are no polysyllabic words with <u>nasalized</u> vowels. Although the plural clitic may appear as  $[=n\epsilon]$  or  $[=nd\epsilon]$  on most words, it appears as  $[=nd\epsilon]$  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

	Singular	<u>Plural</u>	Gloss
a.	sòò <sup>n</sup>	sò=ndέ	shirt, clothing
b.	tóờ <sup>n</sup>	tóð=ndé	blacksmith
c.	póờ <sup>n</sup>	pó̀̀)=ndέ	meal
d.	pέé <sup>n</sup>	pέ=ndὲ	ladder

e.	t <sup>w</sup> éé <sup>n</sup>	t <sup>w</sup> éé=ndè	basket (small)
f.	nnìì <sup>n</sup>	nnìì=ndέ	mouse
g.	$t^w i i^n$	t <sup>w</sup> íì=ndέ	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 ( $C\varepsilon$ , = $n\varepsilon$ )

Type Three and Type Four noun roots end in a sequence which is homophonous with the <a href="diminutive">diminutive</a> 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	kíὲ=ndέ	branch
b.	b <sup>w</sup> ìè	b <sup>w</sup> ìὲ=ndέ	mosquito
c.	nníé	nníέ=ndὲ	milk
d.	géŋgíè	géŋgíé=ndè	salt
e.	kómè	kόmέ= <u>n</u> è	slave
f.	gĭméè	gĭméè=ndé	watermelon
g.	déémè	déémé= <u>n</u> è	seed
h.	sàgòmé	sàgòmè=ndé	letter

i.	vìmmè	vìmmè=ndé	heart
j.	sííbíè	sííbíé=ndè	eye
k.	dóróm <u>bí</u> è	dớró <u>m</u> é=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.	gěŋg <u>í</u> è	gĕŋgέ=ndè	metal
b.	gèŋgíè	gèŋgé= <u>n</u> è	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 <u>é</u> è	bíré=ndè	fire
b.	kùų <u>ì</u> έ	kùųέ=ndὲ	calabash
c.	gùw <u>í</u> è	gùwé=ndè	earth
d.	nn <u>è</u> è	nn <u>ì</u> è=ndé	sun
e.	pw <u>í</u> èn	p <u>wé</u> é=ndè	leaf
f.	káráŋg <u>í</u> è	káráŋgé=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 <u>agentive suffix</u> 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

	Singular	<u>Plural</u>	Gloss
a.	dóró <u>mb</u> íè	dʻóró <u>m</u> €=ndÈ	clay
b.	dúrúm <u>b</u> è	dúrú <u>m</u> é=ndè	bracelet, ring
c.	dàŋàmbé	dàŋàmbé=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: [jàámbɛ] 'child' ~ [jàà=ndɛ́] 'children', [góòmpá] 'step', [góòmbɛ̂] 'little step', [kóà] 'plant sp.', [kóàbɛ̂] 'small subspecies of koa', and [bóróm!bɛ́] ~ [bóró!mɛ́] 'young man', [bòró=ndɛ̂] 'young men'.

#### 3.2.5 Segmental Noun Type Four $(+\varepsilon, -mi=n\varepsilon)$

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,  $[\varepsilon]$ , 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

	Singular	<u>Plural</u>	<u>Gloss</u>
a.	bì+é	bíé+¹mí=ndè	baby
b.	wùr <u>é</u> +è	wùré+¹mí=ndè	karite tree
c.	géd <u>é</u> +è	gèdé+ <sup>!</sup> mi=ndè	gecko (generic)
d.	sέŋ <u>è</u> +έ	séŋé+ <sup>!</sup> mí=ndè	watermelon
e.	dʻór <u>é</u> +è	dóré+!mí=ndè	bird (generic)
f.	ʒág <u>é</u> +ὲ	ʒáγá+!mí=ndὲ	onion

g.	pér <u>é</u> +è	péré+ <sup>!</sup> mí=ndè	key
h.	kùrì+jèέ	kùrì+mì=ndέ	dog
i.	dùdú+wè	dùdú+mí=ndè	bird (sp)
j.	ŋògó+ὧέ	nògò+mì=ndέ	fish (sp)
k.	pìé+mè	pìí+mì=ndé	reed flute
1.	tòrè+mέ	tòrò+mì=ndέ	star
m.	gírímè	gírímé=!mi=ndè	hare (generic)
n.	gŭm+bí	gùmbí=!mí=ndè	owl

The diminutive suffix may appear as simply  $[\varepsilon]$  (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  $[\varepsilon]$ , 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  $[3\acute{a}\gamma\acute{a}+\grave{\epsilon}-b\acute{o}r\acute{o}]$  'big onion', but the [mi] allomorph does not appear in the plural form of the noun-augmentative  $[3\acute{a}\gamma\acute{a}+\grave{\epsilon}-b\acute{o}r\acute{o}=nd\grave{\epsilon}]$  '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

	Singular	<u>Plural</u>	Gloss
a.	bòrò	bòrò=ndέ	tomorrow
b.	mmírò	mmíró=ndè	bee honey bee
c.	búrúù	búrúú=ndè	seed kind
d.	póórò	póóró=ndè	cloud
e.	gíwàrà	gíwàrà= <u>n</u> é	hat
f.	táyárà	táγárà= <u>n</u> έ	Fulani house
g.	nàmbàrà	nàmbàrà= <u>n</u> é	trick
h.	kàràŋgó	kàràŋgò=ndé	long hourglass-shaped drum
i.	kóróŋò	kớróŋớ=ndè	donkey

Some mid back vowels do not <u>undergo laxing</u> 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 <u>verb stems</u>, 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 [-bɔr̃o], 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 [ŋàmbá-ɛ̃], or with it as in [ŋàmbá-rà-ɛ̃] 'little sheep'. However, a counterexample is [bóŋgó-rɔ̃] 'belly button' with diminutive [bóŋ-wíɛ̃] '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.	péυέ–rè	péυè=ndέ	wind
c.	tégó–rò	tégò=ndέ	face, forehead
d.	súmbí–rì	súmbì=ndέ	nose
e.	páγá–rà	páγá=ndè	container (any)
f.	gúmbá–rà	gúmbà=ndέ	wasp
g.	kámbá–rā	kámbá=ndè	pliers
h.	ŋàmbà–rá	ŋàmbá=ndè	sheep
i.	kó–ró–gò	kógó=ndè	basket
j.	jí–rí–ŋgí	jíŋgí=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 [ŋàmbá-rà-ˈmí=ndɛ̂] 'small sheep.PL'. (The augmentative plural stem is [ŋàmbá-bɔ́fò=ndɛ̂]). 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.<sup>39</sup> Many, but not all, of the nouns in this category are <u>verbal nouns</u>, 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

	UR Tone	Singular	<u>Plural</u>		UR Tone	Singular	<u>Plural</u>
I.	/H/	Cýý	Cýv=ndè	II.	/L/	Cỳỳ	Cỳν=ndέ
III.	/H/	CýCỳ	CýCý=ndè	IV.	/L/	CỳCý	CỳCỳ=ndέ
V.	/HL/	CýCỳ	CýCỳ=ndέ	VI.	/LH/	CỳCý	CừCứ=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. 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

\_

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>39</sup> Some <u>verbs</u> 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  $[ni\acute{\epsilon}r\acute{\epsilon} (h\grave{u}^n)]$  'dry season' and  $[ni\acute{\epsilon} (h\grave{u}^n)]$  'wet season'.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>40</sup> 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>	Gloss
a.	cíí H	çíí=ndè HH=L	food
b.	níέ H	níέ=ndὲ HH=L	milk
c.	bόό <sup>n</sup> Η	bóó=ndè HH=L	millet porridge

Type One nouns which are not monosyllabic include [dúgú] 'forest', [túmí], 'amulet (waist)', [póɔ́¹kɛ́] 'soap', and [jí-rí-ŋgí] '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 <u>Tone Type One</u>, 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', [gàndʒà] 'fonio', [ŋàmbà] 'false sorghum' and [tàŋà] '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>	Gloss
a.	υὸὸ L	υὸὸ=ndέ LL=H	field
b.	eìè L	¢ìè=ndé LL=H	termite
c.	tàŋà L	tàŋà=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.	ųíè HL	ųíé=ndὲ HH=L	water
b.	mírò H.L	míró=ndè H.H=L	bee
c.	kóróŋò H.H.L	kớróŋớ=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 [qíè] '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

	Singular	<u>Plural</u>	Gloss
a.	bùr̃á L.H	bùr̃à=ndé L.L=H	stick
b.	dàmá L.H	dàmà=ndé L.L=H	hoe
c.	cùrí L.H	¢ùrì=ndέ L.L=H	fly

The nouns with suffixes in segmental <u>Type Six</u>, such as [tùkù-rú], plural [tùkù=ndɛ́], 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 [ŋàmbà-rá], plural [ŋàmbá-ndɛ̂] 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

	Singular Singular	<u>Plural</u>	<u>Gloss</u>	
a.	nníjà	nníjà=ndé	mother	(or) nníjà–rú
	H.L	H.L=H		
b.	péυέ–rè	péυè=ndέ	wind	
	H.H.L	H.L=H		
c.	gúmbá–rà	gúmbà=ndέ	wasp	
	H.L	H.L=H		

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>	Gloss
a.	vòó LH	vòʻ=ndè LH=L	horse
b.	gàʒέ <sup>n</sup> L.H	gàʒέ=ndὲ L.H=L	world
c.	bìròndó L.L.H	bìròndó=ndê 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 [nìé-rè], [nìé=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 [-bɔr̃o], which is related to the <u>adjective</u> [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/	Cýý	Cýý–bàrò	II.	/L/	Cỳỳ	Cỳỳ–bớró
III.	/H/	CýCỳ	CýCý–bòrò	IV.	/L/	CỳCý	CỳCỳ–bớró
V.	/HL/	CýCỳ	CvCv-bóró	VI.	/LH/	CỳCý	CỳCý-bàrò

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>	Gloss
a.	çíí HH	cíí–bórò HH.H–L	food
b.	túú <sup>n</sup> HH	túú¤—bớrò HH.H–L	thorn
c.	síí <sup>n</sup> HH	sííª–bòr̃ò 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>	Gloss
a.	vòò L	vòò–bár̃ó LL.H–H	field
b.	εìὲ L	cìè–bớró LL.H–H	termite
c.	tàŋà L	tàŋà–bɔ̃ró 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>	Gloss
a.	dégè H.L	dégé–bôrò H.H.L–L	head
b.	mírò H.L	míró–bớrò H.H.H–L	bee
c.	kớróŋò H.H.L	kớróŋó–bớrò 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

	Singular	<u>Augmentative</u>	Gloss
a.	bù <b>r</b> á L.H	bùrà–bớró L.L.H–H	stick
b.	dàmá L.H	dàmà–bòr̃ó L.L.L–H	hoe
c.	çùrí L.L.H	cùrì–bòr̃ó 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>	Gloss
a.	nníjà H.L	nníjà–bɔ̃ró HL.H–H	mother
b.	dóòbè H.L	dóóbè–bóñó 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

	Singular	<u>Augmentative</u>	Gloss
a.	υὸό LH	vòó–bá <b>ř</b> ò LH.H–L	horse
b.	gèŋgé L.H	gèŋgé–bớrò L.H.H–L	metal

c.	nnìé–rè L.L.H	nnìé–bórò L.L.H.H–L	woman
d.	ŋàmbà–rá L.L.H	ŋàmbá–bɔ̃rò 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 [ $-\varepsilon$ ] and [-r] can be determine 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

	SING	<u>PL</u>	<u>AUG</u>	ROOT
a.	Cýý	Cýv=ndè	Cýv–bá.rò	Cýý
b. c.	Cý.Cỳ Cý.Cỳ	Cý.Cý=ndè Cý.Cý=ndè	Cý.Cý-bò.rò Cý.Cý-bó.rò	Cý.Cý Cý.Cý
d.	Cý.Cỳ	Cý.Cỳ=ndέ	Cý.Cỳ-bó.r̃ó	Cý.Cỳ
e.	Cỳỳ	Cỳν=ndέ	Cỳỳ–bá.ĩá	Cỳỳ
f. g.	Cỳ.Cý Cỳ.Cý	Cv.Cv=ndé Cv.Cv=ndé	Cv.Cv–bó.ró Cv.Cv–bò.ró	Cỳ.Cỳ Cỳ.Cỳ
h.	Cỳ.Cý	Cỳ.Cý=ndè	Cỳ.Cý–bó.rò	Cỳ.Cý

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 contect of the noun root at the morpheme boundary.

#### 4.2 Diminutive

The diminutive suffix  $[-\varepsilon]$  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 <u>lexicalized diminutive</u>, the productive diminutive has five <u>allomorphs</u>, shown in (106). Many nouns exhibit seemingly free variation among the allomorphs, especially [ $m\epsilon \sim j\epsilon \sim \epsilon$ ]; one noun may be pronounced several ways.

#### (106) Diminutive Allomorphs

	<u>Singular</u>	Gloss	<u>Diminutive Stem</u>	<u>Gloss</u>
a.	nàà	cow	nnà $-\underline{\acute{\epsilon}}$ , nn $\underline{\grave{\epsilon}}\acute{\epsilon}$	little cow, calf
b.	kó <u>ò</u> n	pestle	$k^{\mathrm{w}}\acute{e}\underline{\grave{\epsilon}}^{\mathrm{n}}$	little pestle
c.	tótò	anvil	tótò– <u>m</u> é	little anvil
d.	dúgú	forest	dúgú– <u>w</u> è	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  $/-\epsilon$ /, 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–έ	nnáé–¹mí=ndè	little cows, calfs
b.	vòó	υὸό–mὲ	vòó–¹mí=ndè	little horses, colts
c.	kớróŋò	kớróŋò–mè	kớróŋò–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>	Language	<u>Plural</u>	Gloss
a.	tómè	tómè	tómέ=ndὲ	Tommo
b.	píὲn	píέ–è <sup>n</sup>	píé=ndè	Ampari
c.	bòndí	bòndì–jέ	bòndì= <u>n</u> έ	Bondu (Dogon)
d.	sá <u>w</u> à	sá <u>w</u> á–è	sá <u>m</u> í=ndè	Kargue (Marka)
e.	pú <u>nd</u> à	pú <u>nd</u> é–è	pú <u>r̃</u> à= <u>n</u> έ	Fulani
f.	tóò	tóó–wè	tóó–wὲ=ndέ	Duleri
g.	bǒw <u>óò</u>	b <sup>w</sup> ó− <u>è</u>	$b^{w}ó-\underline{\hat{\epsilon}}=nd\hat{\epsilon}$	Bobo
h.	bámbá– <u>rà</u>	bámbá− <u>è</u>	bámbá– <u>rá</u> = <u>n</u> è	Bambara
i.	bàŋgè– <u>rí</u> + <u>m</u> è	báŋgí <u>–j</u> è	báŋgá=ndè	Banga

j.	kớmề	púndέ–è	kómέ= <u>n</u> è	Fulani (slave caste)
k.	kòrò bòrò	sờŋÉ–È	kòrò bòrò= <u>n</u> é	Songhai
1.	sórógò	sáŋé–è	sórógò=ndέ	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  $[-\varepsilon]$  (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.	<u>3ì</u> é	ʒě–mà	ʒĕ−mí=ndὲ	Dieni
b.	d <sup>w</sup> <u>í</u> è	d <sup>w</sup> è–má	dwè-mí=ndè	Due
c.	b <u>ù</u> ùn	bù–má	bù–mì=ndé	Bounou
d.	bárá <u>à</u>	bárá–mà	bárá–mí=ndè	Baraa
e.	nnànà	nnànà–má	nànà–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  $[g\hat{\rho}-m\hat{\epsilon}\sim g^w\hat{\rho}^n-j\hat{\epsilon}$  báák $\hat{\rho}$  'beautiful man'. Others are given (110).

## (110) Quality of Noun

	Noun	Gloss	Quality of	<u>Gloss</u>
a.	pàà <sup>n</sup>	friend	pà–mè	friendship
b.	góờ <sup>n</sup>	man	gà–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 <u>above</u>, 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 $[-m\hat{\epsilon}] \sim [-!m\hat{\imath}]$

	Noun Noun	<u>Singular</u>	<u>Diminutive</u>	<u>Diminutive=Plural</u>
a.	mosquito	bwìè	b <sup>w</sup> íé–mè	bwíé–!mí=ndè
b.	mouse	$nnìì^n$	nníí–mè	nníí–¹mí=ndè
c.	mongoose	SÍÍ <sup>n</sup>	síí–mè	síí–¹mí=ndè
d.	lion	kíέ	kíé–mè	kíé– <sup>!</sup> mí=ndè
e.	goat	bíìn	bíí–mè	bíí–¹mí=ndè
f.	house	kóò	kóó–mè	kóó–¹mí=ndè
g.	bee	mírò	míró–mè	míró–¹mí=ndè
h.	stick	bùr̃á	búrá–mè	búřá–¹mí=ndè
i. j.	woman donkey	nnìé–rè kóróŋò	nníé–rè–mè kóróŋò–mè	nníé–ré– <sup>!</sup> mí=ndè kóróŋò– <sup>!</sup> 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 [–mέ]

	Gloss	<u>Singular</u>	<u>Diminutive</u>	<u>Diminutive=Plural</u>
a.	person	<b>ʒìb</b> έέ	ʒìb <u>í</u> έ–mέ	ʒìb <u>í</u> é– <sup>!</sup> mí=ndè
b.	road	ʒímbé <u>ὲ</u>	zímbé–mé	ʒìmbé−¹mí=ndè

As noted <u>above</u>, the sequence [b $\epsilon$ ] 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 [ $\epsilon$ ]. Those shown in (113) have either low (113a) or high (113b) tones on the diminutive suffix.

#### (113) Diminutive Suffix $[-\varepsilon]$

	<u>Gloss</u>	<u>Singular</u>	<u>Diminutive</u>	<u>Diminutive=Plural</u>
a.	sheep	ŋàmbà–rá	nŋámbá+è	nŋámbá—ˈmí=ndè
b.	cow	nnàà	nnà+έ	nná <u>é</u> −¹mí=ndè

Further, the example (113b) illustrates a case in which the diminutive suffix remains  $[-\varepsilon]$  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 <u>three syllables</u>, 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  $[-j\varepsilon]$  variant of the diminutive have a high tone.

#### (114) Diminutive Suffix $[-j\hat{\epsilon}]$

	Singular	<u>Diminutive</u>	Gloss	
a.	bòndí	bòndì–jέ	Bondu person	
b.	kùrè+mé	kùrì–jé	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' [bì $\epsilon$ ]. The word [bi+ $\epsilon$ ] 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, /ciɛn/ '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 herd v.	–çèè <sup>n</sup> agentive	herder

b. 
$$\upsilon$$
òwó n  $\varepsilon$ é $\acute{\epsilon}^n$  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 <u>incompletive</u> aspect, which has the <u>word order SOV</u>.

# (116) Verb-Agentive

	Agentive construction	<u>n</u>	<u>Gloss</u>	
a.	3ùó <sup>n</sup> sorcery	−cèè <sup>n</sup> agentive	vampire	
b.	3όὸ <sup>n</sup> dance	−cèè <sup>n</sup> agentive	dancer	
c.	déè cultivate	−¢èè <sup>n</sup> agentive	farmer	
d.	síí sew	−çèè <sup>n</sup> 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>			Gloss	Translation
a.	nŋòś meat/fish	cíí <sup>n</sup> take	–εèè <sup>n</sup> agentive	fish taker	fisherman
b.	gìé cotton	n dèg–έ T hit–RV	−sèè <sup>n</sup> agentive	cotton hitter	weaver
c.	kóò house	mmàà build	–¢έὲ <sup>n</sup> 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>				Gl	<u>loss</u>		<u>-</u>	<u>Franslation</u>	
a.	sàbè–rè heal–rv	ʒíè do	–çíì¹ AGI		do	er of l	nealing	ŀ	nealer	
b.	kòòmbè beetle	cíí <sup>n</sup> tail	εέὲ <sup>n</sup> own		be	etle w	ith a tai	1 s	sp. of scorpion w	vith long tail
c.	mè COMP	–¢íí <sup>n</sup> AGE		kẃà voice		dígá talk	n GEN	kíì thing	he who can 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 <u>modifier</u>, the expected genitive nasal is omitted between the head noun and the possessed noun. The reciprocal, 'each other' has a similar form [sii<sup>n</sup>], 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 $[eee^n]$ 'owner'

	<u>Phrase</u>				Gloss	Translation
a.	d <sup>w</sup> à+ὲ tree	3ίί <sup>n</sup> blood	céè <sup>n</sup> owner		blood tree	bush sp.
b.	d <sup>w</sup> à+è tree	•	céέ <sup>n</sup> owner	=ndè PL	blood trees	bush sp. PL
c.	*dwà+è	=nde	3íí <sup>n</sup>	céὲn	*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>Gl</u>		
béndì–bándéè	kúʒú	εéὲ <sup>n</sup>			
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  $[-\varepsilon]$  and the agentive  $[-\varepsilon\varepsilon^n]$ . 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 topicalizationes 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 nde 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

Gloss	Pronoun		Gloss	Pronoun	
mine/my	$mu\tilde{w}\epsilon \sim$	mε			
mine	mi muw̃ε	mi mε	ours	nε muw̃ε ~	ne me
yours	a muw̃e	a me	yours (PL)	aa muw̃e	aa me
his/hers	$mu\tilde{w}\epsilon \sim$	mε	theirs	nii mu $\tilde{w}\epsilon$ ~	nii mε
his/hers	mi muw̃ε	mi mε			

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 come.PRF		náẁ take	múw̃è POSS	ŋ ~2	kéè PRF	I came [to] take mine.
b.	à 2.S	nàẁ take	à 2.S	múw̃é POSS	à 2	kéè PRF	You took yours.
c.	nù come.PRF	á CHN	náẁ take	múŵè POSS	ŋ ∼2	kéè PRF	He came to take his.
d.	n dè 1.PL	náẁ take		múὧέ POSS	ŋ ∼2	kéè PRF	We took ours.
e.	níí 3.PL	nà take	níí 3.PL	mámé POSS	ŋ ∼ 2	kéè PRF	They took theirs.
f.	nù come.PRF	náẁ take	à 2.S	mámè POSS	~	máwè POS	Come take yours (IMP).
g.	áá 2.PL	nàẁ take	áá 2.PL	mámέ POSS	à 2	kéè PRF	You (pl) took yours.
h.	níí 3.PL	nù come.PRF	náẁ take	múŵè POSS	ŋ ∼ 2	kéè 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 inaleianbly possessed noun, so the possessor is juxtaposed to the possessee, see (124b - c).

#### (124) Possessive Proclitics

Possessive Pronoun Genitive Nasal possessor is... possessor is... 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) possessee is... possessee is... body parts (126e, ee, ff, 130) body parts (126f, 127a)

modified (127d, deleted in 127b - c) modified (deleted)

pronoun

child (126a, c)

friend (126b, c)

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.

child (126aa)

friend (126bb, cc, dd)

#### (125) Possessive Proclitic and Genitive Nasal Examples

a.	máà 1S.P my friend's ch	páà <sup>n</sup> friend nild	máà 3S.P	jàá+mè child	aa.	máà 1S.P my friend's chi	páá <sup>n</sup> friend ld	n GEN	jáá+m <u>b</u> è child
b.	màá 1S.P my child's fri	jáá+mè child end	máà 3S.P	páà <sup>n</sup> friend	bb.	máá 1S.P my child's frien	jáá+mè child nd	m GEN	pàà <sup>n</sup> friend
c.	màà 1S.P my friend's ch	páá <sup>n</sup> friend nildren	máá 3S.P	jáà=ndέ child=P	cc.	màá 1S.P my children's f	jáà=ndé child=PL riends	m GEN	páá=ndè friend=P

d.	máá 1S.P	já+mbè child	màà 3S.P	páá=ndè friend=P	dd.	máá 1S.P	já+mbè child	m GEN	páá=ndè friend=P
	my child's frie	ends				my child's frier	nds		
e.	màá 1S.P	ŋámbà sheep	m GN	b <sup>w</sup> èὲ leg	ee.	1S.P	ŋámbà sheep	m GEN	b <sup>w</sup> èè=ndέ leg=PL
	my sheep's le	g				my sheep's leg	S		
f.	màà	ŋámbárà	máà	b <sup>w</sup> éέ	ff.	kàw màà	ŋámbárà	m CEN	b <sup>w</sup> èè=ndέ
	3S.P his sheep's leg	sheep	3S.P	leg		3S.P his sheep's legs	sheep S	GEN	leg=PL

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 Kadija	màá= 3SG.POSS	dégè head		Kadija's head
b.	kàdíjá Kadija	dégè head	síjò <sup>n</sup> white		Kadija's white head
c.	kàdíjá Kadija	bwéè leg/foot	síjò <sup>n</sup> white		Kadija's white foot
d.	kàdíjá Kadija	màá= 3SG.POSS	kòò house	síjò <sup>n</sup> 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

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

Genitiv	e Phrase	e	Translation
táwáá	m	bójéè	'belt'
pant	GEN	rope	

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 dá
$$\dot{w}$$
 [3 $\dot{b}\dot{e}$  n n $\dot{i}\dot{e}$  h $\dot{u}^n$ ]<sup>L</sup> 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 gentive 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 nounsare 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.)

<sup>-</sup>

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>41</sup> 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 
$$/H/ \rightarrow [H]$$

	Noun	<u>POSS</u>	<u>Stem</u>	Person	Gloss
a.	shadow	máá=	SÍÌ <sup>n</sup>	1.S	my shadow
	/sííʰ/	máà=	SÍÍ <sup>n</sup>	3.S	his shadow
b.	moon	máà=	ųίέ	1.S	my moon
	/ųíέ/	màà=	ųίέ	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  $/L/ \rightarrow [L]$ 

	Noun Noun	<u>POSS</u>	<u>Stem</u>	<u>Person</u>	<u>Gloss</u>
a.	mosquito	máá=	b <sup>w</sup> ίέ	1.S	my mosquito
	/bwìè/	máà=	b <sup>w</sup> ίὲ	3.S	his mosquito
b.	leg	máá=	b <sup>w</sup> éέ	1.S	my leg
	/bwèè/	máà=	b <sup>w</sup> éὲ	3.S	his leg
c.	mouse	máá=	nníí <sup>n</sup>	1.S	my mouse
	/nìì <sup>n</sup> /	máà=	nníí <sup>n</sup>	3.S	his mouse
d.	arm	máá=	nníí	1.S	my arm
	/nìì/	máà=	nníí	3.S	his arm
e.	field	máá=	υόό	1.S	my field
	/boo/	máà=	υόό	3.S	his field
f.	sun	máá=	nníé	1.S	my sun
	/nèè/	màà=	nníé	3.S	his sun
g.	termite	máà=	είὲ	1.S	my termite
<i>8</i> .	/¢ìè/	màà=	είὲ	3.S	his termite
h.	ear	máá=	táŋà	1.S	my ear
	/tàŋà/	màà=	táŋà	3.S	his ear
i.	heart	máá=	bìmmè	1.S	my heart
••	/bìmmè/	màà=	bímmè	3.S	his heart
j.	sky	máá=	ŋàrà n dògò	1.S	my sky
J.	/dògò/	màà=	nárá n dògò	3.S	his sky
	/ uogo/	maa	ijara ir ubyo	5.0	IIIS 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  $/H/ \rightarrow [HL]$ 

	Noun	<u>POSS</u>	<u>Stem</u>	<u>Person</u>	Gloss
a.	thing	máá=	kéè	1.S	my thing
	/kéɛ́/	máà=	kéè	3.S	his thing
b.	bee	máá=	mírò	1.S	my bee
	/míró/	máà=	mírò	3.S	his bee
c.	water	máá=	ųìè	1.S	my water
	/ųíé/	máà=	ųìè	3.S	his water
d.	throat /kẃá/	máá= màà=	kẃà kẃà	1.S 3.S	my throat his throat
e.	basket	máá=	kórógò	1.S	my basket
	/kó–ró–gó/	màà=	kórógò	3.S	his basket
f.	thigh	máá=	tóŋgò	1.S	my thigh
	/tóŋgó–ró/	màà=	tóŋgò	3.S	his thigh
g.	eye	máá=	sííbíè	1.S	my eye
	/sííbíé/	màà=	sííbíè	3.S	his eye
h.	breast	máá=	súyè	1.S	my breast
	/súųέ/	màà=	súyè	3.S	his breast
i.	beard	máá=	sámbò	1.S	my beard
	/sámbó/	màà=	sámbò	3.S	his beard

j.	hair	máá=	dègè kújù	1.S	my hair
	/dégé/	màà=	dégè kújù	3.S	his hair
k.	dove	máà=	pívé	1.S	my dove
	/píbé–ré/	màà=	pívè	3.S	his dove
1.	leaf	máá=	p <sup>w</sup> ìè <sup>n</sup>	1.S	my leaf
	/pʷíϵ̊ʰ/	màá=	p <sup>w</sup> íè <sup>n</sup>	3.S	his leaf
m.	house	máá=	kòò	1.S	my house
	/kó/	màá=	kòò	3.S	his house
n.	scythe /kóó <sup>n</sup> /	máá= màá=	kóð <sup>n</sup> kóð <sup>n</sup>	1.S 3.S	my scythe his scythe
0.	milk	màá=	nníè	1.S	my milk
	/nίέ/	màà=	nníè	3.S	his milk
p.	goat	màá=	bìì <sup>n</sup>	1.S	my goat
	/bííʰ/	màà=	bìì <sup>n</sup>	3.S	his goat
q.	belly button /bóŋgó-ró/	màá= màà=	bóŋwíè bóŋwíè	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 $/L/ \rightarrow [LH]$

	<u>Noun</u>	<u>POSS</u>	Stem	Person	Gloss
a.	pick axe /dàmà/	máá= máà=	dáw̃á dáw̃à	1.S 3.S	my pick axe his pick axe
b.	stick /bùr̃à/	máá= máà=	búřá búřá	1.S 3.S	my stick his stick
c.	stomach /kòrè/	máá= màà=	kóríè kóríè	1.S 3.S	my 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/  $\rightarrow$  [HL]

	<u>Noun</u>	<u>POSS</u>	<u>Stem</u>	Person	<u>Gloss</u>
a.	roof support /kíὲ/	máá= màà=	kíè kíè	1.S 3.S	my roof support his roof support
b.	lion	máá=	kíè	1.S	my lion
	/kíὲ/	màà=	kíè	3.S	his lion
c.	nose	máá=	súmbì	1.S	my nose
	/súmbì/	màà=	súmbí	3.S	his nose
d.	mouth	máá=	nnóó	1.S	my mouth
	/nɔ́ɔ̀/	màà=	nnóó	3.S	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/  $\rightarrow$  [LH]

	Noun	<u>POSS</u>	<u>Stem</u>	Person	Gloss
a.	horse	máá=	vóò	1.S	my horse
	/vòó/	màà=	vóò	3.S	his horse
b.	wilderness	màá=	nnáà	1.S	my wilderness
	/nàá/	máá=	nnáà	3.S	his wilderness
c.	earth	máá=	gùwíè	1.S	my earth
	/gùwìέ/	màà=	gúwíè	3.S	his earth
d.	woman	máá=	nníé–rè	1.S	my woman
	/nìé–rέ/	màà=	nníé–rè	3.S	his woman
e.	corn	máà=	bírándà	1.S	my corn
	/bìròndó/	màà=	bírándà	3.S	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

[nnìi] [nnì=nd $\epsilon$ ]

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

	Gloss	<u>Noun</u>	<u>POSS</u>	Gloss
a.	moon	ψίέ /H/	áá=qíè 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 segemental 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

	Gloss	Noun	<u>POSS</u>	Gloss
a.	sun	nnèè /L/	áá=nnéè HH=HL	your sun
b.	heart	bìmmè /L/	áá=bímmέ HH=HH	your heart
c.	ear	tàŋà /L/	áá=tàŋà HH=LL	your ear
d.	mouse	nnìì <sup>n</sup> /L/	àà=nníì <sup>n</sup> LL=HL	your mouse
e.	arm	nnìì L	àà=nníí LL=HH	your arm
f.	cow	nnàà /L/	áà=nnáá HL=HH	your cow
g.	mosquito	b <sup>w</sup> ìὲ /L/	áà=bʷíὲ HL=HL	your mosquito
h.	leg	b <sup>w</sup> èè /L/	áà=bʷéὲ HL=HL	your leg
i.	termite	eìè /L/	áà=cíè 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

	Gloss	Noun	<u>POSS</u>	Gloss
a.	throat	kẃà /H/	áá=kẃá H=HH	your throat
b.	belly button	bóŋwíè, bóŋgó–rò /H/	áá=bόŋwíέ HH=HHH	your belly button
c.	beard	sémbò/sámbó /H/	áà=sámbó HL=HH	your beard
d.	nose	sùmbí, súmbí–rí /HL/	áà=súmbí HL=HH	your nose
e.	thing	kéè /H/	áà=kéὲ HL=HL	your thing
f.	water	ųίè /H/	áà=qìè HL LL	your water
g.	eye	sííbíè /H/	áà=sííbíè HL=HHHL	your eye
h.	breast	súųè /H/	áà=súųὲ HL=HL	your breast
i.	thigh	tóŋgó–rò /H/	áá=tóŋgò 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

Noun	<u>POSS</u>	<u>Stem</u>
stomach	kór <u>é</u> +έ /HL/	áà=kór <u>í</u> è 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

	Noun Noun	<u>POSS</u>	<u>Stem</u>
a.	mouth	nnóó /HL/	áá=nnóó HH=HH
b.	roof support lion	kíέ kíέ /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 <u>above</u>, the [w] often deletes after the low vowel [a] among particles.

## (142) Noun Class Six

a.	Noun wilderness	<u>POSS</u> nnàá /HL/	<u>Stem</u> áá=nnáà HH=HL
b.	earth	gùwíè /HL/	áẁ=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.	sun	Plural	2 <sup>nd</sup> Possessive	2 <sup>nd</sup> Possessive Plural
	nnèè	nnìè=ndé	áá=nníè	áá=nníè=ndé
	/L/	L=H	H=HL	HH=HL=H
b.	milk	Plural	2 <sup>nd</sup> Possessive	2 <sup>nd</sup> Possessive Plural
	nníέ	nníé=ndè	áá=nníé	áá=nníé=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>		Gloss		2nd Singular Possessive				
a.	ŋárá God	n GEN	dágò roof	sky	áá= 2.POSS	ŋárá God		dògò roof	your sky
b.	dègè head	ŋ hair	kúųí GEN	hair	áà= 2.POSS	dègè head	ŋ GEN	kúųì 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

Proclitic	<u>Tone</u>	Gloss	/L/ Noun	/H/ Noun
maa	НН	1.S.POSS	Н	HL
aa	HL	2.S.POSS	Н	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 [màà] 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>	Gloss	<u>Definite</u>	Gloss	Tone Type
a.	géŋgíè	a salt	à=géŋgíè	the salt	3
b.	kóờ <sup>n</sup>	a scythe	à=kóɔ́¹¹	the scythe	3
c.	$p^w i \grave{\epsilon}^n$	a leaf	à=p <sup>w</sup> ίέ <sup>n</sup>	the leaf	3
d.	kóò	a house	à=kóò	the house	3
e.	kó–ró–gò	a basket	à=kògó	the basket	3
f.	gèŋgíè	a crocodile	à=géŋgíè	the crocodile	6
g.	góờ <sup>n</sup>	a man	à=góòn	the man	5
h.	nníjà	a mother	à=nìjà	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>	Gloss	<u>Definite</u>	Gloss	Tone Class
a.	<b>3ìbέ</b> έ	a person	á=ʒìbèè	the person	2
b.	ρίυέ−rè	a dove	á=pívé	the dove	3
c.	kớrógò	a donkey	á=kɔ́rógò	the donkey	3
d.	péυέ–rè	a wind	á=péυέ-rè	the wind	5
e.	ŋàmbà–rá	a sheep	á=ŋámbá–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>	Gloss	DEF Plural	<u>Gloss</u>
a.	ʒìbὲ=n(d)έ	people	á=ʒìbè=ndé	the people
b.	kớróŋớ=ndè	donkeys	á=kòròŋò=ndέ	the donkeys
c.	nníjà=ndέ	mothers	à=nìjà=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.<sup>42</sup>

## 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 kúrú+bè . give 1.S basket

Give me a basket.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>42</sup> The definite plural construction is another possible instantiation of the downstepped high tone. Examples such as 'road' [jèmbíè] [à 'jém'bé=ndè] 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 m $\acute{\epsilon}$  à= kùrù+b $\acute{\epsilon}$  . 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+bέ 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>	Noun	<u>Demonstrative</u>	Gloss	Noun Root
a.	à= DEF	b <sup>w</sup> èè leg	káẁ DEM	that leg	b <sup>w</sup> èὲ /L/
b.	à= DEF	kòòrèè stomach	káẁ DEM	that stomach	kóréè /HL/
c.	à= DEF	dègè head	káẁ DEM	that head	dégè /H/
d.	à= DEF	ʒìbèὲ person	káẁ DEM	that person	ʒìbέέ /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>	Noun	<u>DEM</u>	<u>PL</u>	Gloss	Noun Root
a.	à= DEF	ʒìbèὲ person	káẁ DEM	–rú PL	these people	ʒìbέέ /LH/
b.	à= DEF	kòò house	káẁ DEM		that house	kóò /H/
c.	à= DEF	kòò= <u>n</u> é house=PL	kàà DEM	–rú –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>	Noun Sten	<u>n</u>			<u>Translation</u>	Gloss	Noun Root
a.	à= DEF	sàndʒà woodpile	n GEN	dór biro		the woodpile's bird	warbler	sándzà /H/
b.	à= DEF	3ò∂ <sup>n</sup> rain	n GEN	dáro biro		the rain's bird	cuckoo sp	3όὸ <sup>n</sup> /HL/
c.	à= DEF	dòrè+è bird	bíríbè 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>	Modifiers	<u>Agentive</u>	Gloss	Noun Root
a.	à= DEF	kòòmbè beetle	bíríbèè thin		beetle sp.	kóómbè /H/
b.	à= DEF	kòòmbè beetle	cíí <sup>n</sup> tail	−¢éè <sup>n</sup> AGENT	water scorpio	n
c.	à= DEF	kòòmbè beetle	bíré fire	–¢éὲ <sup>n</sup> 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>	Modifiers	<u>s</u>	<u>Gloss</u>	Noun Root
a.	à= DEF	tùmbè ant	kúú <sup>n</sup> hip	jèngì+jéè thin	ant sp.	túmbè /HL/
b.	à= DEF	tùmbè ant	póó¹ré 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>	Beetle Plural		<u>Diminutive</u>	Augmentative	
	kóóm <u>b</u>	è kóóm <u>b</u>	έ=ndὲ	kóó <u>m</u> è–mè	kóóm <u>b</u> é–bórò	
	<u>Definit</u>	te Phrase		Glo	<u>ss</u>	
a.	à= DEF	kóó <u>m</u> è beetle	–mè DIM	the	little beetle	

- b.  $\grave{a}=$  kóóm $\underline{b}\acute{\epsilon}$  -bó $\check{r}$ ò DEF beetle AUG the large beetle
- c.  $\grave{a}=$   $k\acute{o}\acute{o}\underline{m}\acute{\epsilon}$   $-^!m\acute{n}$  =nd $\grave{\epsilon}$  DEF beetle DIM PL the little beetles
- d. à= kóóm<u>b</u>é –bóró =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

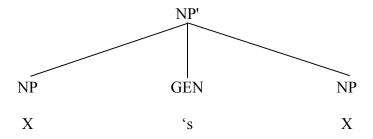
Proclitics found on nouns are the possessive pronouns and the definite marker. Because the possessive pronoun proclitics are affected by the tones of the person marker, the interactions of the proclitics shown in this chapter are not as consistent as with the plural and augmentative shown in the previous 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 intereact 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  $[-\varepsilon]$  and the agentive  $[-\varepsilon i \varepsilon^n]$ . There is one derivational suffix  $[-bo\tilde{r}o]$  and one inflectional clitic, the plural  $[=nd\varepsilon]$ . 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.<sup>43</sup> 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'.

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

## (157) Genitive Expressions: 'bee'

Posse	ssor	Possesse	ed Nouns		
mírò		páγá–rà	táárè	kóò	b <sup>w</sup> ìè
/H/		/H/	/H/	/H/	/L/
bee		containe	er wax	house	e leg
	<u>Stem</u>		Gloss		Translation
a.	mírò m	b <sup>w</sup> ìè	bee's leg	g	bee's leg
b.	mírò m	páγá	bee's hi	ve	beehive (man-made, wooden)
c.	mírò n	táárè	bee's wa	ax	beeswax
d.	mírò ŋ	kóò	bee's ho	ouse	beehive (natural) or honeycom

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 gentive phrase in (158).

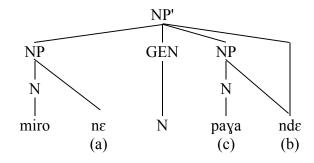
### (158) Plural Genitive Phrases

	Stem	Gloss	<u>Translation</u>
a.	mírò m b <sup>w</sup> ìὲ=ndέ	bee's legs	
b.	míró=ndè m bwìè=ndé	bees' legs	
c.	míró= <u>n</u> è m páyá	bees' hive	
d.	mírò m páγá=ndὲ	bee's hives	beehives, bee's hive
e.	mírò n tááré=ndè	bee's wax(es)	beeswax(es)
f.	mírò ŋ kóɔ́=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.<sup>44</sup>

## (160) Flora Species

	Genitive	Expres	ssion		Gloss	Translation	
	Possessor			<u>Possessee</u>			
a.	kóróŋó donkey	=ndè =PL	n GEN	tàŋà ear	= <u>n</u> έ =PL	donkeys' ears	
b.	kóróŋò donkey		n GEN	tàŋà ear		donkey's ear	aloe
c.	kóróŋò donkey		n GEN	tàŋà ear	= <u>n</u> έ PL	donkey's ears	aloes
d.	jáá child	= <u>n</u> è PL	n GEN	tópàà goatskin	bag	children's goatskin	plant sp.
e.	jàà child	= <u>n</u> è PL	n GEN	tópàà goatskin bag	=ndέ PL	children's goatskin bags	plant sp.PL

<sup>44</sup> Further examples show the expected nominal tonal patterns in genitive phrases:

cùrí ŋ kúyì fly's wing cùrì–ndɛ́ ŋ kúyì flies' wing cùrí ŋ kúyí–ndɛ́ 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

Possessors

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

(161) Animal Genders

Possessed Nouns

1 0000	0015	1 055055	cart	Odilb					
ŋàmbà	–rá	nnàà	υòć	<b>)</b>	góờ <sup>n</sup>	nnìέ-	-ré	bìέ	
sheep		bovine	hor	rse	man/ male	wom fema		baby/ young	
/LH/		/L/	/LF	<b>I</b> /	/HL/	/LH/		/H/	
	Singul	<u>ar</u>		<u>Plural</u>			Gloss	<u> </u>	Translation
a.	ŋàmbà	ı–rá ŋ góð	<b>ò</b> n	ŋàmbà-	-rá ŋ góờ=	−ndέ	male	of sheep	ram
b.	ŋàmbà	ı–rá n nìé	–ré	ŋàmbà-	-rá n nìé=	ndè	fema	le of sheep	ewe
c.	nnàà ŋ	góờ <sup>n</sup>		nnàà ŋ	góð=ndέ		male	of cow	bull
d.	nnàà n	nìé–ré		nnàà n	nìé=ndè		fema	le of cow	cow
e.	vòó ŋ	góờ <sup>n</sup>		υὸό ŋ g	óὸ=ndέ		male	of horse	stallion
f.	vòó n	nìé–ré		vòó n n	ìé=ndè		fema	le 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.

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  $[bi+\acute{\epsilon}]$  'baby' or 'young'. The constructions shown in (162) are interpreted as meaning either 'offspring of animal' or 'young animal'.

### (162) Animal Offspring

	Genitive Expression	<u>on</u>	Gloss	<u>Translation</u>	
a.	ŋàmbàrà–è sheep–DIM	m GEN	bì+έ baby	sheep's baby	lamb
b.	nnà–έ cow–DIM	m GEN	bì+έ baby	cow's baby	calf
c.	bú–wὲ ~ vòó–mὲ horse–DIM	m GEN	bì+έ baby	horse's baby	colt

 $<sup>^{45}</sup>$  The augmentative morpheme is also not permitted to intervene in these phrases: [ŋàmbárà ŋ góón=bóñò] but [\*ŋambara boño ŋ góòn]. The plural clitic and diminutive suffix are [ŋàmbá-rà m bíé=ndè mí=ndè n nìé-rè] 'sheep's ewes'.

The tonal behavior of the <u>diminutive</u> 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 [ $\epsilon$ ] (163a - b)  $\sim$  [w $\epsilon \sim$  m $\epsilon$ ] (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.

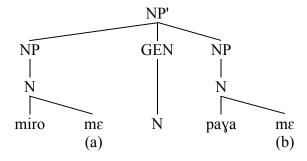
#### (163) Genitive with Diminutive

	Genitiv	e Express	sion_			Gloss
a.	mmíró bee	–mè DIM	m GEN	páyà container		a little bee's hive
b.	mmírò bee	m GEN	páyà container	–mὲ DIM		a little beehive
c.	mmíró bee	–mè DIM	m GEN	páyà container	–mὲ DIM	a little bee's little hive
d.	mmíró bee	–bớrò AUG	<u>m</u> mírò bee	páyà container	dágá+è small	a large bee's small beehive
e.	góð <sup>n</sup> man	n GEN	tòpáá goatbag	–mὲ DIM		a man's little goatbag
f.	góờ <sup>n</sup> man	n GEN	tòpáá goatbag	dágá+ὲ 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 <u>inalienable</u> possessive constructions and when an <u>adjective</u> modifies a possessed noun in a genitive construction. The augmentative tonal effects in the genitive construction are shown.

## (165) Augmentative and Genitive

	Augmentative	Gloss
a.	mmíró-bórò	large bee
b.	páyá–bórò	large container
c.	mmírò <u>m</u> páyá–bɔ́rò	bee's large hive, large beehive
d.	mmíró-bórò páyá	large bee's hive
e.	mmíró–bớrò b <sup>w</sup> ìè	large bee's leg
f.	mmíró ŋ bʷìè–bớrò	bee's large leg, large bee-leg
g.	mmírò-bɔrò kúyì	large bee's wing
h.	mmírò <u>n</u> kúqí–bớrò	bee's large wing, large bee-wing
i.	cùrí-bóró	large fly
j.	cùrí-bớró kúyì	large fly's wing
k.	cùrí <u>n</u> kúyí-bốrò	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 [dwàà-bòró tíŋgá-bórô] '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.	gàndʒà				fonio
b.	gàndʒà	=ndέ			fonio (PL)
c.	gàndʒà	bíríbíè		thin fonio	fonio sub sp.
d.	gàndʒà	bíríbé	=ndè	thin fonios	fonio sub sp. (PL)
e.	gàndʒà	–báró		large fonio	fonio sub sp.
f.	gàndʒà	–bɔ̃r̃ó	= <u>n</u> ὲ	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>	Gloss	<u>Translation</u>
a.	ŋàmbá=ndὲ m bì+έ	sheeps' (PL) baby	lamb
b.	ŋàmbà-rá m bí=ndè mí=ndè	sheep's babies	lambs
c.	nnà–έ m bíέ–¹mí=ndè	cow's babies	calves
d.	nnàà=ndé m bíé- <sup>!</sup> mí=ndè	cows' babies	calves
e.	bú–jè m bíé–¹mí=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 [\*namba-mi=ndɛ m biɛ].

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 <u>diminutive-plural stem</u> 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, [ŋàmbá-rà m bí $\underline{\epsilon}$ =ndè mí=ndè nnì $\epsilon$ -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

Possessor Possessed Nouns

	d <sup>w</sup> àà	p'	wíèn kíè	tí	ŋgà	
	/L/	/I	H/ /HI	_/ /I	HL/	
	tree	le	eaf brai	nch tr	unk	
	Genitive Expression					Gloss
a.	d <sup>w</sup> àà tree		p <sup>w</sup> <u>í</u> è <sup>n</sup> leaf			tree's leaf
b.	d <sup>w</sup> àà tree	m GEN	pʷ <u>é</u> έ leaf	=ndè PL		tree's leaves
c.	d <sup>w</sup> àà tree		p <sup>w</sup> ίέ <sup>n</sup> leaf	–bớrò		tree's large leaf
d.	d <sup>w</sup> àà tree		p <sup>w</sup> ίέ <sup>n</sup> leaf	–bớró	=ndè	tree's large leaves
e.	d <sup>w</sup> àà tree	ŋ GEN	kíè branch			tree's branch
f.	d <sup>w</sup> àà tree	3				tree's branches
g.	d <sup>w</sup> àà tree	ŋ GEN	kíè branch			tree's large branch
h.	d <sup>w</sup> àà tree	3	kíè branch		=ndὲ PL	tree's large branches
i.	d <sup>w</sup> àà tree	n GEN	tíŋgà trunk			tree's trunk

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

	Genitive Expression						Gloss	
a.	d <sup>w</sup> àà	m	$p^w i \acute{\epsilon}^n$	–bốrò	gŭjé+è káràà (grass new)			
	tree	GEN	leaf	AUG	green	tree's large green leaf		
b.	d <sup>w</sup> àà	m	$p^w i \acute{\epsilon}^n$	–bárò	gŭjé+è (grass	káràà new)	=ndέ	
	tree	GEN	leaf	AUG	green	,	PL	tree's large green leaves

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 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

Posse	essors	Possessed nouns			
bíìn	búwò	tìgàè	gìmà		
goat	herd	peanut	fruit (sp)		
/H/	n/a	/L/	/L/		

	<u>Geniti</u>	ve Exp	ression				Gloss	Translation	
a.	bíì <sup>n</sup> goat	m GEN	búwò herd	(v.)				goat's herder	goat herder
b.	bíì goat	m GEN	b <sup>w</sup> ò herd	=ndέ PL				goat's herders	goat herders
c.	[bíì <sup>n</sup> goat	m GEN	búwò] herd	n GEN	tìgàè peanut			goat's herder's peanut	
d.	[[bíì <sup>n</sup> goat	=ndè PL	m GEN	b <sup>w</sup> ò] herd	n GEN	tìgàè] peanut	=ndέ PL	goats' herder's peanuts	herb sp.
e.	[[bíì <sup>n</sup> goat	m GEN	b <sup>w</sup> ò herd	=ndέ] PL	n GEN	tìgàè] peanut	=ndέ PL	goat's herders' peanuts	herb 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

	Genitive Exp	<u>Gloss</u>				
a.	dégé head head owner's	çéὲ <sup>n</sup> owner village	n GEN	díjá village		village chief
b.	búwó herd herder's goat	−¢èè <sup>n</sup> AGENT s	m GEN	bíí goat	=ndè PL	goat herder
c.	kéwèrè steal.NOM stealer of sho	−¢èè <sup>n</sup> AGENT e	kéwèrè steal	máá= POSS	kóókè shoe	shoe thief
d.	kóŋgé drum drum beater i	n dógó T beat s druming	−¢èè <sup>n</sup> 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: [díjà n dégé céèn], with the genitive nasal, but not with the possessive proclitic \*[dégé céèn máá=díjá]. 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 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 <u>nominalized verb</u> for the word 'steal'. However, the term for a 'thief' is rendered with the agentive (171c). The genitive alternative is impossible here [\*kúùn/kéwèrè-cèèn n kóókè]. The example (171d) also repeats the word 'drum' and seems to topicalization on the action of the drummer beating a drum rather than possessing one since the <u>incompletive particle</u> is used rather than the genitive nasal.

## 6.10 Genitive with Postposition

Although <u>postpositions</u> 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 <u>root</u> 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	sųέè	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

	Genitiv	e Express	ion		Gloss	<u>Translation</u>
a.	(à) DEF	dègè head	síjò <sup>n</sup> white		the white head	
b.	d <sup>w</sup> àà tree	n GEN	dégè head		tree's head	
c.	à DEF	d <sup>w</sup> àà tree	n GEN	dégè head	the tree's head	
d.	à DEF	d <sup>w</sup> àà tree	dègè head	síjò <sup>n</sup> 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 <u>augmentative</u> 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	gúmbé=ndè	gúmbè dáyá+è	gúmbέ–bόr̈ò
baboon	baboon	small baboon	large baboon
jáγá+è	jáγá–mí=ndè	jáγáè-bórò	
onion	onions	large onion	

	Genitive 1	Expression		Gloss	<u>Translation</u>
a.	gúmbé baboon	jáγá+ὲ onion		baboon's onion	plant sp.
b.	gúmbé baboon	jáγá–mí onion–DIM	=ndè =PL	baboon's onions	plant sp.PL
c.	gúmbέ	jáγá+è	dáγá+è	h-h211	
	baboon	onion	small	baboon's small onion	plant sp. small
d.	gúmbé baboon	jáγá+ὲ onion	-bớró 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 póòn] 'baboon's meal', [gúmbé ŋ 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).

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

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>46</sup> 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.  $tù r \underline{\acute{e}} + \acute{\epsilon}$   $b\acute{o}\acute{o}$   $s\acute{i} ng\acute{i} + \underline{\grave{e}}$  raised bed father sorghum

A raised bed's father (is) sorghum. herb sp.

b.  $t\acute{u}r\grave{\underline{\epsilon}}+\grave{\epsilon}$  bốó síng<u>í</u> =nd $\grave{\epsilon}$  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. gòờ<sup>n</sup> bógó aa. gòờ<sup>n</sup> m bógó man big man GEN big

an important or old man a tall or fat man

b. niè bógó bb. niè 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

	Possessive 1	<u>Phrase</u>	Gloss	<u>Translation</u>		
a.	mún–d–ì enter–PRF	màà= 3.S.POSS	ʒìέ smoke		its smoke entered	torch
b.	jáá child	=ndè PL	máá= 3.S.POSS	súyíè 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).

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

	Genitive Expression					Gloss	<u>Translation</u>
a.	kùzé dassie				téè palm	dassie's hand's palm	herb sp.

- b. kù zé n níí n téè téŋò dassie GEN hand GEN palm wide dassie's hand's wide palm herb sub sp
- c. kù3é 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 [téngó-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>			Gloss	<u>Translation</u>
kéréndé	kéè	póó!ré	- 1.111idh-nindhin	1
slither	thing	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

	Comp	lementi	zer Phras	<u>e</u>	Gloss	Translation		
a.	à DEF	~ •	mέ COMP	_	píjò <sup>n</sup> smell		the weeds which smell	herb sp.
b.	à DEF	gùzèè weed	= <u>n</u> έ PL	mέ COMP	= <u>n</u> ὲ PL	píjò <sup>n</sup> smell	the weeds which smell	herb sp. PL

While 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

Senten	<u>ce</u>			Gloss	<u>Translation</u>
		náẁ INC	3	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

- síiàn bìὲ déq–è bùrá kò a. n náà nnáá m ~2 **INC** cow.1S PP GEN baby white hit-RV stick GEN I am hitting a white calf with a stick.
- b. náà nnέέ bίέ =ndè déq-è bùr̃á kò n m ~2 INC cow.DIM.1S GEN PLhit-RV stick GEN PP baby I am hitting calves with a stick.
- náà nnéé bìὲ síjó=ndè kò c. m déq–è bùrá ~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

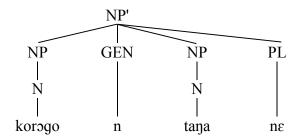
Bangime has no way to create a compound. The genitive phrase is considered a derivational process because it creates lexical items that refer to what, in English, we refer to as compounds. This is the primary strategy for creating new lexical items. Because Bangime has so little bound

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.

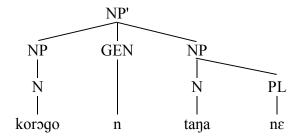
Whereas semantically there is no difference between a genitive construction that acts like a 'phrase' and one that is glossed as a 'stem', syntactically the difference is represented as shown in the tree diagrams in (184).

### (184) Genitive Constructions as Stem and as Phrase

### a. Phrase



#### b. Stem



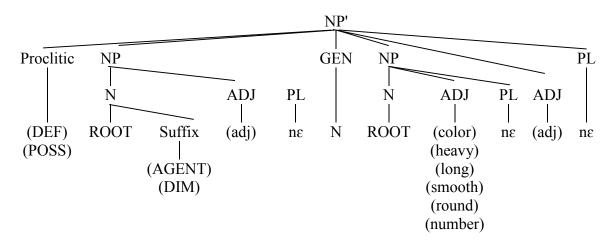
When the genitive phrase represents what we, in English, refer to as a compound meaning 'aloe' or in Bangime 'donkey's ears' (184a), the plural is attached at the level of the entire noun phrase. When the phrase is represented as referring to a donkey's ears (184b), the plural attaches directly to the 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 <u>adjective</u> must follow a noun; it may not be pronounced in isolation. If no noun is formally indicated as being modified, the word 'thing' [kîi] (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

	N + ADJ			<u>NOUN</u>	Gloss	<u>ADJ</u>	Gloss
a.	gúmbá–rà	mèrè	<	gúmbá–rà	wasp	mèrè	heavy
b.	ŋàmbá–rá	póɔ́¹rέ	<	ŋàmbá–rá	sheep	póɔ́¹rέ	black
c.	mmírò	bʷíὲ	<	mmírò	bee	bwíè	red
d.	kớróŋò	símà	<	kớróŋò	donkey	símà	white
e.	nníjà	bógó	<	nníjà	mother	bógó	big
f.	<b>ʒ</b> ìbέέ	dáγà+ὲ	<	<b>ʒìbέ</b> έ	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:	rope	<u>stick</u>	<u>road</u>
	Adjective	bójéè	bùr̃á	ʒímbéὲ
a.	long	bójéè bén¹dé	bùr̃á bén¹dé	zímbéè bén¹dé
b.	PL	bójéè béndé=ndè	bùr̃á béndé=ndè	ʒímbéè béndé=ndè
c.	straight	bójéè dín <sup>!</sup> dá	bùr̃á dín¹dá	ʒímbéὲ dín¹dá
d.	PL	bójéè díndá=ndè	bùr̃á díndá=ndè	ʒímbéὲ díndá=ndὲ
e.	smooth	bójéè míró-mírò	bùr̃á míró–mírò	zímbéè míró–mírò
f.	PL	bójéè míró-míró=ndè	bùr̃á míró–míró=ndè	zímbéè míró-míró=ndè
g.	old	bójéè síéndè	bùr̃á síéndè	zímbéè síéndè
h.	PL	bójéè síéndé=ndè	bùr̃á 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 [keɛ] 'thing'; the plural clitic always must come after the adjective so an example such as 'wide things' is [kíì téŋó–ndɛ], not [\*kii–ndɛ teŋo].

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

0	Noun I	Phras	<u>e</u>		Glos	<u>S</u>	
a.	cow				cow		
b.	nnàà cow	=ndé PL			cows	8	
c.	nnàà cow				large	ecow	
d.	nná cow				smal	l cow	
e.	nnàá cow		=ndè PL			=ndè PL	small cows
f.	nnàà cow		póó <sup>!</sup> ré black			black	cow
g.	nnàà cow		bùyíè red			red c	ow
h.	nnàà cow		bógò big			big c	ow
i.	nnàà cow		góờ <sup>n</sup> man	bóg big	ò	big b	ull
j.	nnàà cow		bóndò alive			alive	cow
k.	nnàà cow		péérè many			many	cows
1.	ŋàmbá sheep	l	bógò big			big sl	heep
m.	ŋàmbá sheep	l	bógó big	=nd PL	È	big sl	heep
n.	ŋàmbá sheep		póɔ́!rέ black	1	2	black	sheep
0.	ŋàmbà sheep	-1 a	późrź black	=nd PL	E	black	sheep

The first noun, 'cow' (188a), is of the <u>Type Two</u> 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 nasalized segments.

## (189) Black and White, Allomorphy 1

	<u>Noun</u>	<u>White</u>	Noun Noun	Black	Gloss
a.	símèè	síjò <sup>n</sup>	símèè	póó¹rí	rock
b.	nàà	síjò <sup>n</sup>	nnàà	póʻsrí	cow
c.	d <sup>w</sup> àà	síjò <sup>n</sup>	d <sup>w</sup> àà	póó¹rí	tree

## (190) Black and White, Allomorphy 2

	Noun	White	<u>Noun</u>	Black	Gloss
a.	ŋàmbà–rá	símà	ŋàmbà–rá	póó¹ré	sheep
b.	tàŋà	símà	tàŋà	póó¹ré	ear
c.	dàŵá	símà	dàŵá	póɔ́¹rέ	pick axe

The adjective white can be represented as  $/\text{siV}^n$ / 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).<sup>47</sup>

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>47</sup> 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>!</u>	Gloss	<u>Translation</u>
a.	/míró míró/ smooth	kíì NOM	míró mírò smooth	ο –mὲ DIM	small smooth thing	(it is) little (and) smooth
b.	/pégé pégè/ light	kíì NOM	pégí pégi light	–jὲ DIM	small light thing	(it is) little (and) light
c.	/múgúlò/ round	kíì thing	múgùl round	−ìὲ 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.

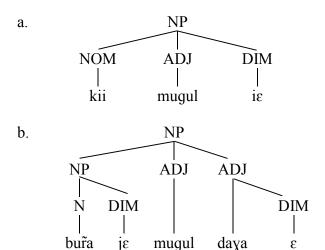
### (192) Diminutive with Noun and Adjective

		Noun Phrase			<u>Translation</u>
a.	/bùr̃á/ stick	búří–jè stick–DIM	múgúlò round	dáγá+ὲ small	(it is) a small round stick
b.		káẁ DEM	búří–jè stick–DIM	dáγá+ὲ small	that (is) a small stick
c.		búří–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  $\S4.2$ , but the rest of the noun phrase is unaffected. The final vowel of the noun 'stick' /bur̃a/ 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

Adjective Phrase					<u>Translation</u>
kíí thing	síjò <sup>n</sup> white	kíì thing	dérébì soft		(it is) white, (it is) little (and) soft

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 noun 'thing' (functioning as a nominalizer) is suffixed with the [-r] morpheme.

## (195) Diminutive with Verb and Nominalizer

Noun Phrase		<u>Translation</u>	Gloss
dáràà	kí–rí–jè		
be.slick	thing-DIM	a little slick thing	it is a little slick thing (10.3)

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.

As shown in §4.2, the diminutive marker surfaces as [mi] before the plural clitic.

## (196) Diminutive with Adjective and Plural

à	tàá	káẁ	bέn!dé	à	tàá	káẁ	kíì	dùgí-mí=ndè
DEF	half	DEM	long	DEF	half	DEM	thing	short-DIM=PL

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 <u>diminutive</u>.

### (197) Diminutive as Quality of X with Adjective

Adje	ctive Pl	ırase			<u>Translation</u>
góà	−mè	~	−jè	báákò	
man	DIM		DIM	beautiful	a beautiful man
'bear	ıtiful m	anlir	ness'		

### 7.6 Proclitics on Adjective Phrases

Proclitics, the <u>definite marker</u>, and <u>possessive pronouns</u> 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' /ŋàmbá/.

## (198) Definite and Possessor Tonal effects

	Noun Ph	<u>irase</u>	<u>Gloss</u>		
a.	à– DEF–	ŋàmbà sheep	–rà		the sheep
b.	à– DEF–	ŋàmbà sheep	–rà	káẁ DEM	that sheep
c.	màà= POSS	ŋámbá sheep	–rà		his sheep
d.	àdámà Adama	màà= POSS	ŋámbá sheep	–rà	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, Tiga 2.32 - 34, 36.

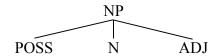
The examples below illustrate that the possessive pronouns do not affect the tone of a numeral (199), the augmentative (200), or an adjective (201).

## (199) Possessor with Numeral

	Noun Phras	<u>e</u>			Gloss
a.	ŋàmbá–rá sheep	nnìè four			four sheep
b.	àdámà Adama	màà 3.POSS	ŋámbá–rà sheep	nnìè four	Adama's four sheep
(200)	Possessor wi	th Augmen	tative		
	Noun Phras	<u>e</u>			Gloss
a.	ŋàmbá sheep	-bớrò AUG			large sheep
b.	àdámà Adama	màà 3.POSS	ŋámbá–rà sheep	–bớrò AUG	Adama's large sheep
(201)	Possessor wi	th Adjectiv	re		
	Noun Phras	<u>e</u>			Gloss
a.	ŋàmbá sheep	síjò <sup>n</sup> white			white sheep
b.	àdámà Adama	màà 3.POSS	ŋámbá–rà sheep	síjò <sup>n</sup> white	Adama's white sheep

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 aquires 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

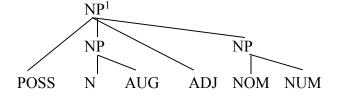
Noun Phrase Gloss àdámà màà= námbá–rà -bárò síjòn a. Adama's large white sheep Adama 3.POSS sheep AUG white b. àdámà màà= ŋámbá–rà −bár̃ò síjó =ndè Adama 3.POSS Adama's large white sheep (PL) sheep AUG white PL(204) Possessor with Adjective, Augmentative, and Numeral

Noun Phrase Gloss

àdámà màà= ŋámbá-rà -bórò síjòn kíí nnìè Adama POSS sheep AUG white NOM four Adama's four fat white sheep

The syntatic 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

	Phrase	2		<u>Translation</u>
a.	kíí thing	gúní–gárì uneven	dáyàè small	It is a little bit uneven.
b.	kíì thing	kú–kàjì bumpy		It is bumpy.
c.	kíí thing	míró–mírò smooth		It is smooth.

As with other categories of <u>reduplicants</u>, 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  $\sim$  naw  $\sim$  naa  $\sim$  da  $\sim$  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 gíjòn dá ámíírí 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
                                            wòré
                                                  bùndá
                                                         kíέ
                                                                     bìέ.
                     káó
                           nìná nnìì
rabbit
              hyena CPL
       CONJ
                          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
                uíè
                       dzímbò
                               à
                                      mmáá
                                              ná
                                                     uíè
                                                             wàà
                                                                    mmáà ?
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 yáá–rà mótò Máriám dáà yùrù síjà ?
QU buy motorcycle Maria CONJ Luisa
```

Who bought a motorcycle, Maria or Luisa? (Short Language Profile.20)

### (212) Conjunction [naa]

à	bòró+mέ	kàá–rú	nὲ	há		síè
DEF	boy	DEM–PL	PL	IRR		firewood
nà COOR	n T	είέ carry on head			•	náẁ ? 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

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

	Adjective Phrase			<u>Translation</u>		
a.	kíì NOM	dérébè soft	jímbō cold		(it is) soft (and) cold	
b.	kíì NOM	múgúl–éέ round–DIM	mèrè heavy	dáγà+ὲ 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<sub>[noun]</sub> 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 gáà<sup>n</sup>
  2.S.POSS work go good

Your work is good.

- b. nìì màá= páá<sup>n</sup> -mè wò déé
   3.PL POSS friend quality go sweet
   Their friendship was sweet. (Tiga 5.1)
- c. múwí hó wò gáà<sup>n</sup> 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 <u>incompletive particle</u>.

## 7.8.4 Incompletive /daw/ with Modifiers

The incompletive particle [daw] and its <u>allomorphs</u> may be employed as a copula as well.

	Adje	ctive Phr	ase ase		<u>Gloss</u>	<u>Translation</u>	
a.	n	dáẁ	kú kájì	kírì	–jè	it is an uneven	it is small and
	~3	INC	be.uneven	thing	DIM	thing	uneven
					_		
b.	há	níŋà	náẁ	mánàà	déréb–íè	one would say it	it resembles a little
	IRR	say	INC	plastic	soft-DIM	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 incompletive particle in the first phrase is used with the verb 'be uneven', but the incompletive 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', [kíì déréb–íè] 'it is soft' but \*[daw derebe].

## (217) Verb 'squishy'

	<u>Copula</u>	<u>r Phrase</u>	<u>Translation</u>		
a.	kíí thing	múgú–múgù squishy	it is squishy		
b.	dáẁ 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 incompletive 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'

	Modifier Pl	<u>Translation</u>	
a.	dáràà be.slick		it is slick.
b.	dáràà kírí slick NO	3	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 <u>nouns</u>, 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

	Adject	ive Phrase	<u>Translation</u>		
a.	bíè NEG	míró–mírò smooth	(it) is not smooth		
b.	bíè NEG	mèrè 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

	Noun Ph	<u>nrase</u>		Gloss			<u>Translation</u>
a.	sóð <sup>n</sup> shirt	mè COMP	dáyàè small	a shirt which is small			(it is) a small piece of fabric
b.	dóò paper	mè COMP	dáγáὲ small	a piece little	of paper which	ı is	(it is) a little piece of paper
c.	mè COMP	dá màà INC CO		kíì 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 exprsessed in other languages with adjectives.

(221) Noun 'hair' as Adjective 'hairy'

	<u>Phrase</u>		Gloss	<u>Translation</u>
a.	dúg–á have–RV	kúyì hair	It has hair.	It is hairy.
b.	kúųí hair	çèè <sup>n</sup> owner	It is a hair owner.	It is hairy.

A phrase which uses the verb 'have' (221a) or the <u>agentive</u> 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'

Noun Phrase		Gloss	<u>Translation</u>
màá= kòrò 3S.POSS stomach	5	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 <sup>n</sup>	all
b.	=péèrè	a lot
c.	=péè <sup>n</sup>	a lot
d.	=dám!bá	a lot (for inanimates)
e.	=déwàj	a lot
f.	=jáá¹rí	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].

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.

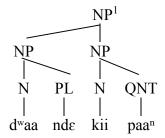
## (225) Quantifiers with Plural Nouns

	Noun Phrase				<u>Gloss</u>	
a.	d <sup>w</sup> àà tree	=ndέ PL	kíì thing	pàà <sup>n</sup> all	all the trees	
b.	ʒìbìὲ person	=ndέ PL	kíì thing	pàà <sup>n</sup> all	all the people	
c.	kùųє́ calabash	=ndὲ PL	kíì thing	pàà <sup>n</sup> 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'  $[(kii) p\acute{e}\acute{e}^!r\acute{e}]$  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>	Noun Noun	'many'
a.	wasp	gúmbàrà	péέ¹rέ
b.	bee	mmírò	péέ¹rέ
c.	donkey	kóróŋò	péέ <sup>!</sup> rέ
d.	mother	nnìjá	péέ¹rέ
e.	person	<b>3ì</b> bέέ	péέ¹rέ
f.	sheep	ŋàmbá	péέ!rέ

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

- sùrà péέ!rέ à nέ kóà à kíè=ndé kùùn káráá kò. a. 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. káráà –L bì =ndέ péε¹rέ
   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 quanitifier may be used in a verb phrase if it is used to mark the object of a verb (229).

(229) 'many' in a Phrase

 $\begin{array}{cccc} \underline{Phrase} & \underline{Translation} \\ \\ n & dii & s^wii & p\acute{e}\acute{\epsilon}^!r\acute{\epsilon} \\ \sim & 2 & eat.PRF & food & many & I ate a lot (of) food. \end{array}$ 

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 $\sim$ small

	<u>Adjective</u>	e Phrase	<u>Translation</u>	
a.	bójéè rope	dáyàè small		It is a small rope.
b.	kúųìè calabash	dáyàè small		It is a small calabash.
c.	kíí thing	gúní gárì be.uneven	dáyàè small	It is a little bit uneven.

When the word [dayaɛ] 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 jò
$$\acute{o}$$
 há n dè $\~{w}$  bù $\'{u}^n$  tà $\`{a}$ r $\acute{o}$  PROH respond until T full time three

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 [jáár¹ré] is shown modifying verbs (232) and adjectives (233).

#### (232) Adverb with Verb

	<u>Sentence</u>			<u>Translation</u>		
a.	n ~2	tígè run	jáá <sup>!</sup> ré a lot			I run a lot.
b.	n ~2		n GEN			I sleep a lot.
c.	n ~2	•	wáárì work	5		He works a lot

The adverb, like other modifiers, follows the word to which it refers.

### (233) Adverb with Verb

	Clause				<u>Translation</u>
a.	bógò big/old	jáá <sup>!</sup> ré very			very old or big
b.	à DEF	gúʒè grass	káráà new	jáá <sup>!</sup> ré very	very green
c.	à 2.SG	wáárì work	gáá <sup>n</sup> good	jáá¹ré 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	INC	<u>PRF</u>	PRF	<u>PRF</u>
Class	Canonical Syllable Shape	daw	kέὲ/wε	koo	Ø
1	/CVC <sub>velar</sub> /	-root vowel	-u	-root vowel	-rv
2	$/CV_{mid\ vowel}/$	ROOT	ROOT	-r-root vowel	ROOT
3	/CV <sup>n</sup> /	−r̃–root vowel	ROOT	-nd-root vowel	ROOT
4	/CVn/	-nd-root vowel	-nd-i	-nd-root vowel	-nd-i
5	/CVm/	-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 incompletive aspects: the present and future tenses. The particle [koo] marks the completive tense which does not naturally occur outside the realm of oral histories and tales. The particles [kέɛ] 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 [ $\tilde{r} \sim d \sim b$ ] 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<sub>velar</sub>/ 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).<sup>48</sup> The transitive nasal marker precedes VC1 stems only in the incompletive (235a) and completive (235b). Examples using the verb 'hit' in phrases are shown in (235).

(235) Verb Phrases: /deg/ 'hit'

## <u>Incompletive</u>

a. àdámá ná á nníε -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  $-\dot{\epsilon}$  -H à nìè-rè -L . Adama CPL T hit RV 3 DEF woman 3 Adama hit the woman.

## **Perfective**

c. àdámá dèg  $-\hat{\epsilon}$  —L ní $\hat{\epsilon}$  —ré —H .

Adama hit RV 3 woman 3

Adama has hit the woman.

#### Perfect

d. àdámá dèg -ù -L á níé-ré -H kéè .
 Adama hit PRF 3 DEF woman 3 PRF
 Adama had hit the woman.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>48</sup> 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  $[\varepsilon]$  vowel as acceptable in the perfective aspect. The tense 'completive' 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
		/CV <sub>[MID]</sub> g/		
a. b. c. d.	hit close weave (a basket) beat	deg sog gog dog /CV <sub>[LO]</sub> g/	dèg–é sóg–ó góg–ó dóg–ó	dèg–ú sóg–ú góg–ú dóg–ú
e. f. g. h. i.	touch, light (a fire) shake, jiggle cut, fix, set (the date) agree, grab ruin, bad	dag mag jag tag jaŋ	dáy–á mày–á jày–á táy–à jáŋ–à	dág–ú màg–ú jàg–ú tág–ù jáŋ–ù
j. k. l. m.	have wash (smth) bury ask	dug pug mug sig	dùg–á pùg–á mùg–á sìg–á	dùg–ú pùg–ú mùg–ú sìg–ú
n.	scoop (off dirty things)	$\frac{/CV_{[MID]}r/}{ger}$ $\frac{/CV_{[LO]}r/}{}$	gér–È	gèr–ú
0.	remain	bar /CV <sub>[HI]</sub> r/	bár–áà	bàr–ù
p. q. r. s.	pierce (ear) kill drip detach, unbutton	sur quur bil pir	súr–á qùùr–á bíl–à pír–àà	súr–ú qùùr–ú bíl–ù 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<sub>[mid]</sub>/ 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 incompletive and completive, as it did in VC1 verbs. Example phrases are shown in (237) using a representative VC2 root, /pe/ 'put/.

### Incompletive

a. kàdíjá ná á págá —H m pìè —L .
 Kadija INC DEF pot, container 3 T put 3
 Kadija is putting the pot down.

#### Perfective

b. kàdíjá m píé -H à pàgà -L .
 Kadija T put 1 DEF pot, container 3
 Kadija has put the pot down.

#### **Perfect**

c. kàdíjá m píé -H à pàgà -L ŋ kέὲ.
 Kadija T put 1 DEF pot, container 1 ~2 PRF
 Kadija had put the pot down.

## **Completive**

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>	Root	Completive	<u>Default</u>
		$/CV_{[BK]}/$		
a. b.	hear know (a fact)	no so	nó–r–è só–r–è	nó só
		$/CV_{[FR]}/$		
	do, make,			
c.	become	je	jé–r–ò pé–r–ò	<b>3íè</b>
d.	put	pe	pé–r–ò	píè

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

	Gloss	Root	Completive	<u>Default</u>
		/CV <sub>[FR]</sub> /		
a. b. c.	drink lick lose	nε dε tε	nnìè–r–è déé–r–è téè–r–è	nnìè déè téè
		/CV <sub>[BK]</sub> /		
d.	respond	jэ	jóó–r–ò	jóà
e.	pass	də	dóó–r–ò	dóś
f.	mix	SO	sóó–r–ò	sớò
		/CV <sub>[LO]</sub> /		
g.	reach	t <sup>w</sup> a	t <sup>w</sup> áà–r–à	t <sup>w</sup> 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: /CV<sup>n</sup>/

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 [taw] 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'

#### <u>Incompletive</u>

a. dà n  $\eta$ óó -H n tá  $-\tilde{w}$   $-\dot{a}$  -L INC T meat 3 T chew -r RV 3

He is eating meat.

## **Completive**

b. kóó n tám -b -à -L màá= -H b<sup>w</sup>éè -H
CPL T chew -r- RV 3 POSS 1 foot 3

It bit my foot.

# <u>Perfective</u>

c. n 
$$t\acute{e}\acute{\epsilon}^n$$
 -H n  $\eta\grave{o}\grave{o}$  -L . T chew 1 T meat 1

I have eaten meat.

# <u>Perfect</u>

d. n 
$$t\acute{e}\acute{\epsilon}^n$$
 —H n  $\eta\grave{o}\grave{o}$  —L  $k\acute{\epsilon}\grave{\epsilon}$  . 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 CV<sup>n</sup> Verbs

	Gloss	Root	<u>INC</u>	<u>CPL</u>	<u>PRF</u>
		/CV/	$CVG^n$		
a. b. c.	bite fill cold, turn off	ta <sup>m</sup> da <sup>m</sup> ji <sup>n</sup>	tá–ŵ–àà déè(w) <sup>n</sup> jì–ĵ–ɔ́	tám–b–à dám–b–á jím–¹b–ó redup	téè <sup>n</sup> ŋ kéè déè <sup>n</sup> ŋ kéè dʒîì <sup>n</sup> ŋ wé – it's cold/ dʒîî <sup>n</sup> kéé – turn off
		$/CV_{[MID]}/$	$CVr^n$		ujii kee tuiii oii
d. e.	cook break	de <sup>n</sup> ko <sup>n</sup>	dè–r̃–è kó–r̃–ò	dέn–d–è kón–d–ò	déè <sup>n</sup> ŋ kéè kò–ñ–ò wè/kóó <sup>n</sup> wàj
		$/CV_{[HI]}/$			
f. g. h.	meet move into sprout	ku <sup>n</sup> mu <sup>n</sup> pu <sup>n</sup>	kú–r̃–à mù–r̃–á pú–r̃–à	kún–d–à mún–d–à pún–d–à	kúú <sup>n</sup> ŋ kéè mùù <sup>n</sup> wàj púú <sup>n</sup> wàj ~ púw̃è
i. j. k.	swallow send lay smth down	mi <sup>n</sup> tu <sup>n</sup> bi <sup>n</sup>	mí–ř–à tú–ř–à bí–ř–à	mín–d–à tún–d–ò RED bín–¹d–ó RED	míí <sup>n</sup> ŋ kéè tú–r̃–á ŋ kèè bíí <sup>n</sup> ŋ kéè

The incompletive and completive are suffixed with [-r]. The nasalization from the root vowel spreads to the [-r] suffix in the incompletive. An additional nasal or nasalization process changes the [-r] suffix to a nasal-consonant sequence in the completive 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 incompletive and completive, 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<sup>w</sup>en/ 'split,' is a vowel predicted by the root vowel in the incompletive (242a) and completive (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 incompletive and completive aspect and similarly in the perfect and perfective aspect.

(242) Phrases with VC4 /gwen/ 'split'

### <u>Incompletive</u>

a. àdámá ná nóó —H n gwèn —d —è —L

Adama INC meat 3 ~2 split —r— RV 3

Adama is splitting meat (fish).

## Completive

àdámá kóó gwèn -d -è -L á ŋóó -H .
 Adama CPL split -r- RV 3 DEF meat 3
 Adama split meat (fish).

#### Perfective

c. àdámá gwèn -d -ì -L á ŋóó -H .

Adama split -r- PRF 3 DEF meat 3

Adama has split meat (fish).

#### Perfect

d. àdámá gwèn -d -ì -L  $\eta$ óó -H  $\eta$  kéè . Adama split -r PRF 3 meat 3  $\sim$ 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

	Gloss	Root	INC/CPL	PFV	PRF
			V-nd		
a. b.	split broken make move	g <sup>w</sup> en gajen	gwèn-d-a/è gájén-d-à	gwèn-d-ì gájén-d-ì	gwèn-d-ì ŋ kéè gájén-d-ì wàj
c. d.	into, enter hide	mun dan	mún–d–à dán–d–à	mún–d–ì dán–d–í mì	mún–d–ī ŋ kéè dan–d–i mi ŋ kéè
			r-V <sub>[LO]</sub> -nd		
e. f.	fatigue weed	ban pun	bán–d–à pún–d–à	bá–r–án–d–à pún–d–á–r–à	bán–d–ì wàj pun–d–i ŋ kέὲ
			r-V <sub>[MID]</sub> -nd		
g. h.	stretch pick	bon pon	mí bó–r–òn–d–a pó–r–ón–d–ò	bó-r-òn-d-ì mì pó-r-ón-d-ì	bớr–òn–d–ì mì ŋ kéè pó–r–ón–d–ì ŋ kéè

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 incompletive and completive (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 incompletive and completive 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 incompletive (244a) and perfective (244b) in VC5 stems but not suffixed in the stative (244c) or completive (244d) stems.

(244) Phrases with VC5 /sum/ 'crouch'

## <u>Incompletive</u>

#### **Perfective**

I have crouched.

## **Stative**

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

	Gloss	Root	INC/PFV	STAT/CPL
		/CV <sub>[FR]</sub> /		
a.	lean, hammer	tem	tém-b-í-r-è	tém-b-è
		/CV <sub>[BK]</sub> /		
b. c. d.	pinch dent outward crouch	kom ŋom sum	kóm–b–ó–r–ò ŋóm–b–ó–r–ò súm–b–ó–r–ò	kóm–b–ó ŋóm–b–ò súm–b–ò
		/CV <sub>[HI/LO]</sub> /		
e. f. g. h.	pull push downwards cradle mash	jum tiŋ baŋ kam	júm-b-á-r-à tíŋ-g-á-r-à bá-ŋg-à-r-à kám-b-á-r-ā	júm-b-à tíŋ-g-ā báŋ-g-à 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>	carry on shoulder	<u>pull</u>
a.	PRF	kúm–bò ŋ kέὲ	báŋgà(-ra) ŋ kέὲ	ʒúm–bá–rà ŋ kέὲ
b.	CPL	kớò ŋ kúm–bó–rò	kóò m báŋgà	kớò n ʒúm–bá–rà
c.	PFV	kúm–bó–ró kúm–bó–rò	báŋgá(- <u>ra</u> ) ( <u>m</u> ) báŋgà(-ra)	ʒúm–bá–rá ʒúm–bá–rà

- d. INC dá<u>w</u> kúm-bó kúm-bò —— dáà zúm-bá-rà
- e. INC dáà kúm-bò η 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 kéɛ] 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 /ʒum/ '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 [koo] and the [-r] suffix, obligatorily with verbs /kum/ 'search' and /ʒum/ 'pull', but optional with /banga/ '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 dá $\underline{\dot{w}}$  kúmbó kúmbò. today  $\sim 2$  INC stroll
  - Today, I am strolling.
- kúmbò n kùmbò b. nnìè dá à kò. n gúzέ yesterday ~2 INC stroll **DEF** GEN PP grass

Yesterday, I was strolling in the grass.

The incompletive 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 incompletive 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>	Root	INC	<u>CPL</u>	<u>PRF</u>	PFV	<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	$CV^n$	–r̃–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, ο, a-r-ε, ο, a	-b-i, ο, a-r-ε, ο, a	-b-i, o, a	-b-i, ο, a(-r-ε, ο, 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 incompletive and completive 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 [r̄ 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 <u>adjectives</u> 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>	Gloss	Related Forms
a.	kórà ŋ kíì	return	kớrò > 'change'
b.	díjà ŋ kí	increase	díjà > 'eat'
c.	témbó ŋ kì	instruct	témbò > 'learn'
d.	k <sup>w</sup> áà ŋ kíì	able	kớróndī > 'unable'
e.	sóré ŋ kíì	recognize	sórè > 'know'
f.	ségó ŋ kí	pass over, step over	/sege-ro/
g.	jágù ŋ kí	attack	jág–à > 'cut'
h.	búràà ŋ kíì	pay for	búráà > 'go out'
i.	à sáá wè ŋ kì	remember	à sáá wè > 'to descend'
j.	kərə a kii	transform	
k.	jémbè à kí	flatter, glorify	
1.	dígá kíì nà kớrò wàj	explain	dígà > 'say', kóróndá > 'give advice'

m.	nìgùndù à kíí	console, rest	gúndú > 'whisper'
n.	níŋù n dá à kì	pacify	nìŋà > 'say'
0.	té wè ŋ kí	forget	téré-wè > 'lost'
p.	dó ŋ kì	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	kórá ŋ kíì	kórà á kí	dá ŋ kì n kớrò	ná kí ŋ kórò	
b.	able	kẃà ŋ kíì		dá ŋ kì kẃà		kwà ŋ kí ŋ kéè
	Gloss	<u>CPL NEG</u>		INC NEG		
a.	return	bíé kórà ŋ l	kíì	bíé kíì ŋ kòrò		
b.	able	bíè kẃá ŋ l	ĸì	bíè ŋ kí ŋ kẃà		

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

	Gloss	<u>Incompletive</u>	<u>CPL/PFV</u>	<u>Perfect</u>
a.	resemble	dógònó	dógònó	
b.	look	súràà	súráà	
c.	prepare, repair	ŋùwà	núŋà	núŋà ŋ kéè
d.	grill, burn	śíwò	śíwò	síwò ŋ kéè
e.	blow	píjù	píjù	píjù ŋ kéè

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  $[\eta \sim w]$  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>	Incompletive	<u>CPL/PFV</u>	PRF/STAT
a.	go out	bírè	bírè	bírè wàj
b.	take	síè	síè	síè η kέὲ

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

	Gloss	<u>Incompletive</u>	<u>CPL/PFV</u>	<u>Perfect</u>
a.	dig	kíndū	kíndū	kíndú ŋ kéè
b.	wait	déŋ <sup>!</sup> gó	déŋ <sup>!</sup> gó	déŋgó ŋ kéè
c.	enter	mín!dé	mín¹dé	mín¹dé

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

	Gloss	Root	INC/CPL/PFV	PRF/STAT
a.	run	tig	tíg–í–r–ì	tìg–è wàj
b.	shatter	pen	p <u>é</u> n–d–ìè/ pén–d–ū	pén-d-ú wè
				pé–ré–nd–ì ŋ 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, Tiga 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	dìí ŋ kéè
b.	respond	kìj–á	kíì wàj
c.	ripe, ready	bìj–ú	bíì wàj
d.	give	náẁ	nìí ŋ kéè

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 incompletive.

#### (256) Possible VC3 Stem

<u>Gloss</u>	<u>Incompletive</u>	<u>Default</u>	<u>Perfect</u>	
scrub	gíjá–r–à	gíjà	gíjà ŋ kéè	

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 incompletive.

## (257) Possible VC5 stems

	Gloss	INC/CPL	PFV	PRF/STAT
a.	fold	dém-b-ìè	dém-b-ì	dém-b-ì wè
b.	roll, turn	góm–b–íè	góm–b–íè	gòm-b-è/i ŋ kέὲ
c.	search, wander	kúm-b-ó-r-ò	kúm–b–ó kúm–b–ò	kúm-b-ò ŋ kéè
d.	carry (child) on one's back	kúm–b–ò	kúm-b-ò	kúm–b–ò ŋ kéè

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<sup>n</sup> 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 <sup>n</sup> spi	rout
--------------------------------------	------

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  $[-\tilde{r}-]$  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).

a. n níí kớ  
ò bàà bóngớ-rò . 
$$\sim\!\!2$$
 PL CPL go away-RV Bongoro

They went away from 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].<sup>49</sup> 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 incompletive 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 7.52, and Tiga 1.1. The meaning of the stem [bu–r–aa] can also be changed to

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>49</sup> 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'

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 *buu*<sup>n</sup>, 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 [buu<sup>n</sup>] 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) [buu<sup>n</sup>] 'move out of, away from, into'

a. n níí bùù<sup>n</sup> dàà<sup>n</sup> . 
$$\sim 2$$
 PL move from Daan

They have moved away from 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 [buu<sup>n</sup>] is a Verb Class Three stem, which means that it is suffixed with [-r-] in the completive aspect, shown in (264).

(264) Completive Aspect  $[-\tilde{r}-]$ 

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 [buu<sup>n</sup>], [bu- $\tilde{r}$ -a] is used in the completive aspect. The difference between [bu-r-aa] and [bu- $\tilde{r}$ -a] is that, in addition to the nasalization, a low vowel [a] often appears as long after [r], but not after nasalized [ $\tilde{r}$ ].

Another difference lies in the use of the imperative. The form [báámà] means 'go away from here', but the imperative of [búú<sup>n</sup>] means 'go into' if both speaker and listener are standing outside. Additional examples from narratives of [buu<sup>n</sup>] are Chief 2.2, Tiga 1.9, 11.

## 9.5 Inflectional Paradigms

In Chapter 8, the <u>inflectional verb category</u> was shown to be predictable in its suffixation patterns within the <u>TAM</u> 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'

Gloss	<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 [buu<sup>n</sup>] 'move away from'

## 9.6 Root-Initial Consonant Nasalization: The case of [muu<sup>n</sup>]

The examples in (267) illustrate that [muu<sup>n</sup>] is always used deictically to mean 'come in' to where the speaker is located.

- (267) Sentences with [muu<sup>n</sup>] 'come in'
- a. múú<sup>n</sup> come in! (when speaker is inside) come in.IMP
- b. múú<sup>n</sup>—wàj s/he came in come in—STAT
- c. tùréé bíè mú -r -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 [mmu<sup>n</sup>]. When the speaker is inside, s/he says [múú<sup>n</sup>] 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 [kέè]. In an incompletive sentence (267c), the suffix [-r-] is added to the verb root /mu<sup>n</sup>/. The nasalization from the verb root is spread onto the suffix so that it surfaces as  $[-\tilde{r}-]$ .

## 9.6.1 Inflectional Paradigm for [muu<sup>n</sup>]

As shown in Chapter 8, verb stems are organized into five main classes based on the inflectional marking on the verb stem. The stem [muu<sup>n</sup>] is in Verb Class Three.

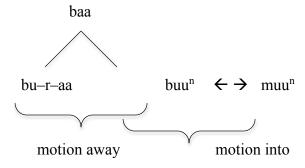
### (268) Inflectional Marking on [muu<sup>n</sup>]

Gloss	<u>INC</u>	<u>CPL</u>	<u>PFV</u>	<u>STAT</u>
come in(side)	mù–r̃–á	mù–r̃–á	múú <sup>n</sup>	múú <sup>n</sup> 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  $buu^n$ , both derived historically from baa, also indicate motion away, but the former places salience on the source, the latter on the motion. The verb  $muu^n$ , which appears to be derived from  $buu^n$  via nasalization of the initial consonant, is deictic, denoting motion into and toward the speaker;  $buu^n$  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 [buu<sup>n</sup>] has a Class Four counterpart [m bun-d-a], with examples shown in (270).

- (270) [bun–d–a] 'take out'
- a. há jíí à búù<sup>n</sup> until blood CHN move out

Until blood had come out. (Chief 2.24)

b. n dàà kéέ m bùn–d–à~2 INC thing T take–r–RV

I am taking something out.

Shown in the sentence (270a), the verb [buu<sup>n</sup>], in addition to 'move out', may also mean 'come out'. The verb [buu<sup>n</sup>] 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 kìè ŋ kéè ~2 take –r– PRF branch ~2 PRF

It [the tree] grew [caused to come out] took out a branch.

à góóndí+mè m bún -d -ī màá súyè ŋ kéè
 DEF caracal T take -r- PRF 3.POSS breast ~2 PRF

The caracal had taken off its udder. Chief 10 21:1

nnìè zìέ hún mέ =nè dá à kàsó kò c. yesterday night PP **COMP** DEF **GEN** PP PLINC jail nníí m bún  $-\overline{1}$ n dégé kέὲ 3.PL PRF  $\sim$ 2 himself  $\sim$ 2 **PRF** take

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 [buu $^n$ ]. 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 [u $^n$ ] 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 [buu<sup>n</sup>] is [m bun–d–a], the transitive form of [muu<sup>n</sup>] 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)

à bíè kòàkέ b. k<sup>w</sup>áá kí -ì m mún 2.S NEG able Τ **PRF** shoe put hùn há uίέ k<sup>w</sup>áá kí ψίέ dwàà IRR ascend able ascend tree PP

You cannot wear shoes to climb a tree. (Adama 07: 3.1)

nníí kớò bíréè síὲ kò c. mún −à DEF DEF firewood GEN PP 3.PL CPLΤ RVfire

They put the firewood in the fire. (Rabbit and Hyena 1: 40.1)

In the case of the verb root [muu<sup>n</sup>], the transitive nasal is added to an intransitive verb and changes its meaning. Although both verbs [muu<sup>n</sup>] 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 [buu<sup>n</sup>] and [muu<sup>n</sup>] 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'

(274) Verb Class Four [mun-d-a] 'put inside'

## 9.9 High Front Vowel: Culminatative Verbs

One further process derives a verb whose use and function can be considered 'culminative'.

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'

Once it [the smoke] has entered [the apiary], they put their hands in [the apiary]. (Beehive: 11.1)

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'

Gloss	<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 [puu<sup>n</sup>] 'sprout' and [pun-d-a] 'weed'.

These are comparable to [buu<sup>n</sup>] and [muu<sup>n</sup>], but involve a slightly different type of motion.

The verb [puu<sup>n</sup>] 'sprout' is an intransitive Class Three stem, like [buu<sup>n</sup>] 'move out' and [muu<sup>n</sup>] 'come in(side)'. An example of its usage is shown in (279).

(279) Sentence with [puu<sup>n</sup>] 'sprout'

The millet sprouted.

As with the verbs above, the transitive, Verb Class Four counterpart of [puu<sup>n</sup>] 'sprout' is [pun-d-a] 'weed'.

The same process of transitivization as shown <u>above</u> 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'

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 [puu<sup>n</sup>] and [pun–d–a]

	Gloss	<u>T</u>	<u>INC</u>	<u>CPL</u>	<u>PRF</u>	PFV-STAT
a.	sprout	_	pú–r̃–à	pú–nd–à	púù <sup>n</sup>	púù $^n$ wàj $\sim$ pú $\tilde{w}$ è
b.	weed	m	pún–d–à	pún–d–ì	pún–d–á–r–à	pún–d–ì ŋ kéè

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) [buu<sup>n</sup>] '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) [muu<sup>n</sup>] '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

	Gloss	<u>T</u>	<u>INC</u>	<u>CPL</u>	<u>PFV</u>	PRF-STAT
a. b. c. d. e.	go away from move away from move out of exit.CUL take out	- - - - m	báà bú–r–àà bú–r̃–à bírè bún–d–à	báà bú–r–àà búù <sup>n</sup> bírè bún–d–ì	báà —— búù <sup>n</sup> bírè bún–d–ì	bú–r̃–à bírè bún–d–à
f.	come in(side)	–	mù–r̃–á	múú <sup>n</sup>	múú <sup>n</sup>	mù–r̃–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–ř–à	púù <sup>n</sup>	púù <sup>n</sup>	pún–d–à
j.	weed	т	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 [sáàn] 'descend' (if the speaker is below and the listener is above), qìè 'ascend' (if both speaker and listener are below) náw 'ascend' (if the speaker is above and the listener is below). The verb [qìè] '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

	Gloss	<u>T</u>	<u>INC</u>	<u>CPL</u>	<u>PFV</u>	PRF-STAT
a. b. c. d.	sit get up start stand, stop	– n n	tíè 3íè tìn–d–á dìn–d–á	té–r–ò 3é–r–ò tìn–d–á dìn–d–á	tíè 3íè tìn–d–á dìn–d–á	tíè 3íè tín–d–ì dín–d–ì
e. f.	cold cool, turn off	- п	jím–b–ò dʒì–ĵ–ś	jím–b–ō RED dʒím–b–ō	jíì <sup>n</sup> dʒíì <sup>n</sup>	jím–b–ì dʒì–ĵ–ś

A change in initial consonant is seen between the forms (283a) [tie] 'sit' and (283b) [ʒie] '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 [síéndè] '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)  $CV_{[MID]}$ 

	Root	Class	Gloss	<u>Incompletive</u>		<u>Efferential</u>	<u>Gloss</u>
a. b.	ne gwe	2	drink move away	nnìè gúwè	aa. bb.	nnín–d–è gúwεń–d–è	give to drink separate, halve
c.	de	3	send	dè–r̃–é	cc.	dέ–r–én–d–à	cause to send

d. pe 2 put píè dd. pín-d-ò put upon e. bi 3 lay bí-
$$\tilde{r}$$
-á ee. bín-d-ò lay out f. muwɔ — wet mmúwò ff. mùwón-d-á soak  $\sim$  múwón-d-ò g. tingo — wake up tín'gó gg. tíngín-d-á wake s.o. up  $\sim$  tíngón-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.

	Root	Class	<u>Gloss</u>	Incompletive		<b>Efferential</b>	Gloss
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	pìr̃–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<sub>[LO]</sub>

	Root	Class	Gloss	Incompletive		<b>Efferential</b>	Gloss
a.	san	3	descend	sáá <sup>n</sup>	aa.	sàn–d–á ∼ sáwòn–d–ò	drop
b.	kar	_	learn, study, read	káràà	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, Tiga 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 [dingi-nd-a], translated as 'repeat' (Tiga 1.156). Another, Text XII, Tiga 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 [pere] 'lead' has the counterpart [pere-nd-i] 'explode, shatter, burst, smash'. This semantic relationship is one of going out or away from. Further, the example above (284b) /guwe/ '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 Tiga 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–nέ	broom	bb.	gìèn–d–í	sweep
c.	díé+bíè	ax	cc.	díé–rè	carve
d.	túm+bíè	message	dd.	tú–r̃–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>	Gloss		<u>Stem</u>	Gloss
a.	bímbó	slightly	aa.	jímbò	slowly
b.	déé–rè	sweet	bb.	déé–rù	sour
c.	kágájà	scratch (by smth else)	cc.	kŏgɔ́ʒɔ̀	scratch oneself, rake, rub
d.	kúbújá	squeeze	dd.	kùgùjà	crumple (paper or clothing)
e.	kówźn–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 incompletive, but follows rather than precedes the verb. The verb particles are listed in (289).

(289) Verb Particles

<u>Tense</u>	e Aspect					Mood			
FUT	INC	CPL	PFV	PRF	STAT	IRR	PROH	IMP	
=/daw/	/daw/=	/kama/=	Ø	=kέὲ	-/waj/	ha=	maa=	Ø	

The verb particles that indicate tense is the future. The verb aspects indicated by particles are incompletive (INC), completive (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 incompletive aspects and aspects are all marked with the verb particle /daw/, they are presented together in §10.3. In §10.4 the completive aspect and completive 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 <u>verb stem</u> and the <u>placement</u> of constituents within the phrase, without TAM auxiliaries.

(290) n déε déε .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:  $[n da] \sim [na] [naw] \sim [na]$  and  $[daw] \sim [da]$ . 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,  $[n \underline{da} \ noo]$  'I am coming',  $[a \ \underline{na} \ noo]$  '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 <u>non-second persons</u>, and the transitive <u>nasal marker</u> precedes a transitive verb. The verb agrees with the subject for person by <u>tonal marking</u>. The inflection on the verb differs for each verb class; (291) is with a VC2 stem.

- (291) n dàá déέ n dèè .
   1.S INC millet seed 1.S cultivate
   I am cultivating.
- (292) n dáà n dèέ .1.S INC T cultivateI 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 déè 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 nàŵ kúmbó kúmbò . 1.S INC stroll I am strolling.
- (295) mùwì n dáw kúmbó kúmbò .today 1.S INC strollToday I am strolling.
- (296) nnìè , náẁ kúmbó kúmbò .
  yesterday INC stroll
  Yesterday I was strolling.
- (297) nnìè , n dá kúmbó kúmbò à gúzé ŋ 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 strollI am going strolling.
- (299) n nnìè wòrè kúmbó kúmbò .1S yesterday go strollYesterday I went strolling.

The incompletive 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 completive (301).

- (300) n dáw wórè n déè .

  I INC go T cultivate

  I am going to cultivate.
- (301) η kó wórè déè .

  I CPL go cultivate

  I went to cultivate.

The default <u>word order</u> for a declarative incompletive sentence is S-AUX-O-V. A definite direct object follows the incompletive particle, as shown in (302). An indefinite direct object (303) or a pronominal object (302) may also precede the incompletive particle.

- (302) n nàẃ à bòò kàẁ n dèé
   1.S INC DEF field DEM ~2 cultivate.RV
   I am cultivating this field.
- (303) bòò ná n déè .

  1S.field INC ~2 cultivate.RV

  I am cultivating a field.
- (304) káw ná n déè

  1S.DEM INC ~2 cultivate.RV

  I am cultivating that.

Thus, the incompletive aspect is formed with a segmental subject pronoun and/or tonal marking on the verb and object, the particle /daw/ or its <u>allomorphs</u>, 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 incompletive, except that the incompletive 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 <u>above</u>.

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 incompletive marker then either follows the verb (306) - (308) or the object (309). Here, word order is OSV.

```
à nní\grave{\epsilon}-ré nìná àdámà n dég -\grave{\epsilon} n ná\grave{w}. DEF woman say Adama T hit RV \sim2 INC
```

The woman said Adama will hit (her).

```
níí máà= jíbéé nè gúy -ì náŵ.
3.PL POSS person PL throw PRF INC
```

Their people will be thrown. (Chief 3: 16.1)

(308)

sé má
$$\grave{a}=$$
 pà $\grave{a}^n$  syé $\grave{e}$  nà $\acute{a}$  jì $\grave{e}$  hỹ já $\acute{a}$  ná $\grave{w}$  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 $^{!}$ b $\acute{\epsilon}$  ná n dèg  $-\grave{\epsilon}$   $-L$  DEF child INC T hit RV 3

He will hit the child.

#### 10.3.3 Existential

The incompletive particle /daw/ may be combined with a postposition to express that an object is present or exists.

### (310) /daw/ as Existential

ŋ kámá níí ŋà [néè] sé syéè n dàw màlpa dá ŋ 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=ndế péèrè n dóòn ~ daa ŋ wì à kóò ŋ 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 [wi] or [ko]. This expression is not marked for aspect or aspect, it can be used to indicate the incompletive aspect as shown in the second sentence, the future tense, shown in the first sentence, or the completive, shown in Chief 1.10.

#### 10.4 Completive

The completive may be differentiated from the incompletive 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 incompletive 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 [kawaa] ~ [koo]. It appears to be a grammaticalized form of the verb/adjective/noun meaning 'become old', 'older', and 'ancestor', [kawaa] with root [koo] (verbal inflection is discussed above). The completive aspect marker precedes a verb, which is preceded by the person agreement nasal.

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

I went and found one sheep wasn't among them (Chief 10 16.1)

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
- b. kóó –H n tám –b –à màá= b<sup>w</sup>éè. CPL 3 T bite –r– RV 3.POSS foot

  He bit my foot.

- c. kámá –H n nà –n –á à símèè.

  CPL 1 T take –r– RV DEF rock

  I picked up the rock.
- d. kámá –H ŋ gúy –ú n yúùr –ù.

  CPL 1 T throw PRF T kill PRF

  I threw (it) (and) killed (it).
- e. k56 -H ŋ 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 [koo] (313a - b), [kama] (313c - d), and back to [koo] 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 déέ -H η kéè .
   1.S cultivate 1S ~2 PRF
   I cultivated (and it's finished).
- (315) n déέ déέ ŋ kέè . ~2 millet seed cultivate ~2 PRF

I cultivated (and it's finished since a long time ago).

Similar to the examples with incompletive 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 [ $k\acute{\epsilon}$  $\grave{\epsilon}$ ]. 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 no 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 incompletive marker precedes the stative marker. A list of change-of-state verbs is given in (316).

# (316) Change-of-state Verbs

	Gloss	Stative Stem	Verb Class
		[-ATR]	
a.	descend	sáá <sup>n</sup> –wè	
b.	die	ʒáá–wè∕jáá–wò	
c.	lose	téé–wè	
d.	tear	péró–wè	
e.	try	wò kíá–wè	5
f.	lie down	túrú–wè	
g.	broken	kớró–wè	3
h.	pass	dóó–wè	2
i.	awaken	téŋgó–wè	
		[+ATR]	
j.	sit	tíè–wàj	2
k.	go out	bìré–wàj	
1.	say	níŋá–wàj	
m.	enter	míndè–wàj	
n.	dry	kúwòndò–wàj	

The vowel of the stative suffix alternates between [w $\epsilon$ ], 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 [w $\epsilon$ ] or the postpostion [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 [w $\epsilon$ ] follows a change-of-state verb in all aspects.

(317) jàá –wέ. die STAT

He is dead/He died.

- (318) ná jáá –wέ. INC die STAT He is dying.
- (319) sírìì kóò 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 [w $\epsilon$ ], it does not specify a time that the event. Temporal adverbs be used to indicate time of reference, as shown in examples (320) - (322).

 $\begin{array}{ccccc} (320) & \grave{a} & & b\grave{\imath}\grave{\imath}^n & j\acute{a}\acute{a} & -w\acute{\epsilon} \\ & DEF & goat & die & STAT \end{array}$ 

The goat died. (I don't know when)

He (a man) died this morning.

(322) jàá –L –wέ há sáẁ 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>				Gloss
a.	ʒìbέέ person	jáá die	–wὲ STAT	Γ	A person died.
b.	ʒìbέέ person	mὲ COMP	jàà die	–wέ STAT	A person who died/a dead person.
c.	mè COMP	jàà die	–wέ STAT	Γ	That which has died/a dead thing.

An intereting 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.

He is sitting. (in the position)

$$\begin{array}{cccc} \text{(325)} & \text{n\'a} & \text{t\'i} & -\text{r\'i} \\ & \text{INC} & \text{sit} & \text{RV} \end{array}$$

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 kớờ n tíề bú $\dot{u}^n$ . 3.PL CPL T sit Bounou

They sat (lived) [in] Bounou. (Chief ma: 15.1)

b. kớờ n tíé wàj búú<sup>n</sup>. CPL ~2 sit STAT Bounou

They lived (sat) [in] Bounou. (Chief ma: 18.1)

c. nníí kóò n té -rò 3.PL CPL ~2 sit -r-

They sat. (Maraka: 26.1)

(327) Lack of Stative Marker with Verb 'sit'

At the time when our people were coming to reside there, Baraa was not there. (Chief 1.2)

b. gíllá à n wórè, kòó té 
$$-r\dot{\epsilon}$$
 à dwàà hùn since 2.S  $\sim$ 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 [ha] 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 [ha].

(329)

há tíndέ níì kwéέn tóré m bòón há tíndέ syέè kò IRR **GEN** powder IRR descend put hand finger one G put GEN PP I will put one fingernail over the gun powder (in order to silence the rifle). (A friend: 15.1)

When I have cultivated, I will plant the millet.

hà déέ déè. IRR millet seed cultivate

You should cultivate.

Another use of the irrealis marker [ha] is to introduce directions or recipes.

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 dìjà màá= dégé n céèn
   1.S COP DEF village 3.S.POSS head GEN owner
   I am the village's chief.
- b. mí màà à dìjà màà kárándà –¢éèn DEF 3.S.POSS 1.S COP village 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. sìríí <u>máà</u> dègè –είε<sup>n</sup>
   Sirii COP head AGENT

Sirii was chief. (Magic Cat 12.1)

b.  $\eta$  kásá<sup>n</sup> tómè máà mì n dí -jà  $\sim 2$  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. jìímè 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 s when COP 2.S T cultivate

When are you cultivating?

(338) nέ 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 cultivateWho 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) nníi jí-r-ó ŋ kàw
  how do DEM

  Why are you doing that?
- (344) nè jin à ji-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 nέ wò ( múwì )? where 2.S what go today
  Where are you to do what today?
- (347) kò téè 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

TAM:

AUX:

FUT

na(w)=

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 untopicalizationed sentences. The incompletive aspects are usually SVO, the completive 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.	SVO			
TAM: AUX:	PFV none	CPL koo=	PRF =kέὲ/=wε	IRR ha=
b.	SOV			
TAM: AUX:	INC da(w)=	SBJ ha=	IMP none	
c.	OSV	_,		

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 <u>TAM marking</u> and the <u>person tonal marking</u> on the verb. <sup>50</sup> 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.

-

 $<sup>^{50}</sup>$  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 bóró+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 [koo] 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 postpostion /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 [kέὲ], the word order is also SVO.

(353) jáá bórómbè n dég–ù à jáá púwè ŋ 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 incompletive aspects, all of which also employ the particle <u>/daw/</u>, follow the word order SOV, except the future, which may have an OSV word order.

#### 11.3.1 Incompletive Aspect

In the incompletive 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 incompletive aspect utilizes the incompletive particle, the verb is phrase-final, and the verb is inflected with the  $[-\varepsilon]$  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 bórómbè 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 incompletive 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 pwìè n dég-è IRR  $\sim$ 2 young girl T hit-RV You should hit the girl.
- (359) á nnìé–rὲ kàmá nìŋ–à màà n dèg–έ jáá–wὲ 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 incompletive 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.<sup>51</sup>

(360) à nnìé-rè nìná àdámà n dég-è nnáw 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 [mi]. The subject is the first constituent in the sentence. The particle which indicates the passive follows the verb.

The child who was hit.

-

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>51</sup> 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.

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 <u>Verb Types</u> 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 examples<sup>52</sup> 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 <u>transitive nasal</u> preceding the verb. The verb [pagando] 'write' is an uninflected verb.

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 <u>inflectional marking</u> for the declarative incompletive aspect with an object present is S-AUX-O-V.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>52</sup> 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.

The number of the subject does not change the word order, and the allomorphy on the incompletive particle is discussed in Chapter 9. Both sentences are in the default word order found for the incompletive 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.

The default answer, although not the default word order for an incompletive sentence, is with the object first, although the question posed referred to the action and not the undergoer of that action.

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) sàgòmε n ná n nògòndó 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 incompletive sentence; as in (365) - (366) above, the object precedes the verb.

```
(370) n náà sàgòmé n nògòndó
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 incompletive clause.

Unexpectedly, the incompletive 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 nògòndó 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 incompletive sentence, that of the subject phrase-initially, followed by the aspect marker, which is in turn followed by the verb.

```
(372) dóà á n nàgàndó ná sàgòmé?
book 2.S T write INC letter

Are you writing a book or a letter?

(373) sàgòmé n ná n nàgàndó.
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 incompletive 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.
```

The object 'a slithering thing', meaning 'snake' precedes the verb as expected in an incompletive 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 incompletive [\*n dáá póyò kéndè kéè].

(376) kéndè kéè m póyò 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 póyò kéndè kéè ( ŋ 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 póyò kéréndè kéè , m búnd-í màà= 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 póyò kéndè kéè
  CPL T stepped on slither thing
  I stepped on a snake.
- (380) kóó n tám-b-à màá= bwéè CPL T bite-r--RV 1.S.POSS foot

  It bit my foot.
- (381) kớc màà= bwéè n tám-b-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) kóś n tám-b-à màá= bwéè.
  CPL T bite-r-RV 1.S.POSS foot

  It bit my foot.
- (383) ŋ kóò tám-b-à màà= bwéè.
  3.S CPL bite-r-RV 3.S.POSS foot

  It bit his foot.
- (384) (kóò) màà= bwéè n tám-b-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.

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 incompletive 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 [dé $\hat{\epsilon}$ ] in the perfective aspect. The noun 'millet seed' is also [dé $\hat{\epsilon}$ ]  $\sim$  [dé $\hat{\epsilon}$ +m $\hat{\epsilon}$ ]. 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 déέ –H dèè –L
 T cultivate 1 millet 1

I have cultivated/I have cultivated millet.

b. mí -H n dé $\acute{\epsilon}$  -H bìr $\acute{o}$ nd $\acute{o}$  -L  $\sim 2$  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).

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 <u>completive aspect</u>, and is contrasted with a <u>verb stem</u> which is clearly marked for the completive aspect.

(389) 'cultivated'

n kố n dé
$$\hat{\epsilon}$$
 -r -è -H (à) dè $\hat{\epsilon}$ +m $\hat{\epsilon}$  -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).

- (391) k5ó n témbè -r -è -H témbìè -L CPL T hammer -r- RV 1 brick 1

  I hammered/I hammered a brick.
- (392) kớờ ŋ kéế -r̃ -è -H kèền -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.

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) 
$$g\acute{o}\grave{o}^n$$
  $g\acute{o}\grave{u}^n$   $-L$   $g\acute{o}\acute{u}^n$   $-H$   $\mathfrak{g}$   $k\acute{\epsilon}\grave{\epsilon}$  man dance 3 dance 3  $\sim$ 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.

I have thrown/I have thrown a throw.

You.pl have thrown/you.pl have thrown the throw.

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.

I am afraid

- (399) pìrà -L pìrá à tànà m bògò n wáj fear 3 fear DEF ear GEN big ~2 to

  He is afraid of the elephant.
- (400) kớó m pírà 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) kớó sáŋá –H sàŋà –L

  CPL play 1 play 1

  I play/I play a game
- (402) jàà =ndế nìì n dá sánà n sànà -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'

Irrealis Imperative

màá hà n kúmbò kúmbò I want to stroll Stroll!

<u>Future</u> <u>Completive</u>

kúmbó n náw kóò ŋ kúmbò-rò

I will stroll I strolled

<u>Incompletive</u> <u>Perfective</u> <u>Perfect</u>

n dá kúmbò ŋ kùmbò kúmbó-rò kúmbó-rò ŋ kúmbò ŋ kéè I am strolling I have strolled I had strolled

<u>Incompletive negative</u> <u>CPL Negative</u>

m bìé kúmbò ŋ kùmbò/bié ŋ kúmbò m bìé kùmbò ŋ kúmbò/bìé kúmbò

I do not stroll 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' [dóò ná náw]

- a. μὰψ –L dóò kέὲ take.PRF 3.S sleep PRF
  - He is asleep.
- b. màrìám dá dòò n náw Mariam INC sleep T take

Mariam is sleeping.

- c. gìllà à n wóré dóó à nàw since CHN ~2 go sleep CHN take

  When I left, he was sleeping.
- d. à ŋwìè né n dòò η kéè
   DEF oil take ~2 sleep ~2 PRF
   The oil (i.e. butter) is solid.

Eliciation of the verb 'to sleep' results in [dóɔ ná náw] '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 incompletive 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 incompletive 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 the 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 ndε

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 <u>plural marker</u>. 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 <u>TAM category</u> or the <u>inflectional category</u> 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 <u>perfective</u> 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 [ŋàmbá].

(406) /pom/ VC:		3 /ŋà:	mbá/	sheep'	NC6	indefinit	e noun		
	Ø 1.S	pómb lift	−ì PRF	nŋámbà sheep	ndé 1.PL	p <mark>ó</mark> m lift	b	–ì PRF	nŋámbà sheep
I have lifted a sheep.					We have lifted a sheep.				
	àẃ 2.S	pómb lift	–í PRF	nŋámbà sheep	àà–rú 2–PL	p <mark>ò</mark> m lift	b	–ì PRF	nŋámbà sheep
You have lifted a sheep.					You.PL have lifted a sheep.				
	Ø 3.S	pòmb lift	−ì PRF	nŋámbà sheep	nnìì 3.PL	p <mark>ò</mark> m lift	b	–ì PRF	nŋámbà sheep
	He has lif	ted 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'

SG PL HL HL HL

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 ŋàmbá/ 'the		e sheep	e sheep'		definite noun	
0 1.S	pómb lift		á DEF	nŋámbà sheep	ndέ 1.PL	pómb lift	−ì PRF	á DEF	nŋámbà sheep	
I hav	e lifted	the she	eep.		We have lifted the sheep.					
àẃ 2.S	pómb lift	-í PRF		nŋámbà sheep	àà–rú 2–PL	pómb lift	–í PRF	á DEF	nŋámbà sheep	
You have lifted the sheep.					You.PL have lifted the sheep.					
0 3.S	p <mark>ò</mark> mb lift	–ì PRF		nŋámbà sheep	nnìì 3.PL	pòmb lift	−ì PRF	á DEF	nŋámbà 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>
НН	HL
НН	НН
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/		[ŋàmbá=ndɛ] 'sheep'		plural noun					
	0 1.S	pómb lift	–í PRF	nŋámbá sheep	=nè PL	ndέ 1.PL	pòmb lift	−ì PRF	nŋámbá sheep	=nè PL	
I have lifted sheep.						We have lifted sheep.					
	àẃ 2.S	pómb lift	–í PRF	nŋámbá sheep	=nè PL	àà–rú 2–PL	pómb lift	−ì PRF	nŋámbá sheep	=nè PL	
You have lifted sheep.						You.PL have	lifted sheep.				
	0 3.S	pómb lift	−ì PRF	nŋámbá sheep	=nè PL	nnìì 3.PL	pòmb lift	−ì PRF	nŋámbá sheep	=nè 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>
НН	LL
НН	HL
HL	LL

Similarly, the definite plural stem remains unchanged throughout the paradigm, but the verb is affected.

- (412) /pom/ [à nàmbá=ndè] 'the sheep' definite plural noun
- a.  $p\acute{o}mb$   $-\acute{i}$  -H  $\acute{a}$   $nn\acute{a}mb\acute{a}$   $=n\grave{e}$  . lift PRF 1 DEF sheep =PL

I have lifted the sheep.PL.

b. àw pómb –í –H á nyámbá =nè . 2.SG lift PRF 2 DEF sheep =PL

You have lifted the sheep.PL.

c. pómb -ì -L á nŋámbá =nè . lift PRF 3 DEF sheep =PL

He has lifted the sheep.PL.

d. n  $-d\hat{\epsilon}$  m pómb  $-\hat{\epsilon}$  -H á nyámbá  $=n\hat{\epsilon}$  . 2.SG PL  $\sim$ 2 lift PRF 1 DEF sheep =PL

We have lifted the sheep.PL.

e. àà -rú à pómb -ì -L á nnjámbá =nè . 2.PL DEM.PL 2.SG lift PRF 2 DEF sheep =PL

You.PL have lifted the sheep.PL.

f. nnii m pòmb -1 -L á nŋámbá =nè . 3.PL  $\sim$ 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

SG PL
HH HL
HH LL

The tonal alternations for the verb /pom/ 'lift' are shown in (414).

(414) Summary of Perfective VC3 Stem /pom/ 'lift'

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 <u>verb root</u>. First person is marked with a high tone, and third person with a low tone, irrespective of the <u>verb class</u>.

## 13.3.1 Monosyllabic Verb Stems

(415) /ya/

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.

'buy' VC2 Buy

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 <u>laxing</u> before rhotics. The verb 'drink' is a monosyllabic verb which follow 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 yowel, not both.

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) /cε/	'carry on head'	VC2
First Person	Third Person	
gìế ŋ kéè carry ~2 PRF	nniè ŋ kéè drink ~2 PRF	
I had carried.	He had carried.	
(418) /kon/ 'bre	eak' VC3	
First Person	Third Person	
kóón η kέὲ break ~2 PRF	kờó ŋ kέὲ 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.

The table in (420) summarizes the tonal patterns shown thus far for monosyllabic verbs.

(420) Summary of Monosyllabic Verb Stems in the Perfect Aspect

	Verb Root	<u>Gloss</u>	<u>1.S</u>	<u>3.S</u>
a.	ųá	buy	Н	L
b.	ně	drink	Н	HL
c.	¢έ	carry	LH	LL
d.	kón	break	НН	LH
e.	t <sup>w</sup> 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 kέὲ ~2 move out of –r– PRF PRF	m bún- d- ì kέὲ ~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.

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.

First Personkíj
$$-\grave{a}$$
wàjkíj $-\acute{a}$ wàjrespondFVSTATrespondFVSTATI responded.He responded.(425) /di/ 'eat' VC1First PersonThird Personndìí $n$ kéè $\sim$ 2eat $\sim$ 2PRFI had eaten.He had eaten.

VC1

'respond'

(424) /ki/

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.

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.

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 <u>downstepped tone</u> 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
jén¹dó η kέὲ call ~2 PRF	jéndó ŋ kéè call ∼2 PRF
I had called	He had called

# (429) Summary of Bisyllabic Verb Stems

	Verb Root	<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.	kĭ	respond	HL	HH
e.	dĭ	eat	N/LH	LH
f.	gûų	throw	N/HL	HL
g.	pŭg	wash	N/HL	LH
h.	jéndō	call	HM	НН

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.

## First Person Third Person

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.

First Person Third Person

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.

First Person Third Person

nníé 
$$-H$$
 bó $\dot{\delta}^n$   $-H$  ké $\dot{\epsilon}$  nnìè  $-L$  bó $\dot{\delta}^n$   $-H$   $\eta$  ké $\dot{\epsilon}$  . drink 1 millet porridge 1 PRF drink 3 millet porridge 3  $\sim$ 2 PRF I 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.

First 1	Person	Third Person						
nníé	–H nníέ	–H kéè .	nnìé	–L	nnὶέ	–L	kέὲ	
drink	1 milk	1 PRF	drink	3	milk	3	PRF	
I had d	lrunk milk.		He had	drui	nk 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.

basket/baskets

a. n 
$$\mathfrak{g}$$
í $\acute{\epsilon}$  —H k $\acute{o}$  —r $\acute{o}$ — g $\acute{o}$  n k $\acute{\epsilon}$  .  $\sim$ 2 carry on head 1 basket —rV— basket  $\sim$ 2 PRF

I had carried a basket on head.

b. 
$$\mathfrak{gl}\acute{\epsilon}$$
 —L  $k\acute{5}$  —r $\acute{0}$ —  $g\grave{0}$   $\mathfrak{g}$   $k\acute{\epsilon}\grave{\epsilon}$  . 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.

tied millet/tied millets.

I had carried tied millet on (my) head.

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) 
$$kùu^n/ku = nd\hat{\epsilon}$$
 / $ku^n/hip' ncl2$   
hip hip =PL  
hip/hips

- a.  $k\acute{o}\acute{o}^n$  —H  $m\acute{a}\acute{a}=$  —H  $k\acute{u}\grave{u}^n$  —L  $\frak{g}$   $k\acute{e}\grave{e}$  . break (smth or smth break) 1 POSS 1 hip 1 ~2 PRF I had broken my hip.
- b.  $k\grave{o}\acute{o}^n$  —L  $m\grave{a}\grave{a}=$  —L  $k\acute{u}\acute{u}^n$  —H  $\mathfrak{g}$   $k\acute{e}\grave{e}$  . 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) 
$$b^w \dot{e} \dot{\epsilon} / b^w \dot{e} \dot{\epsilon} = n d \dot{\epsilon}$$
 / $b^w \dot{e} / b^w \dot{e} / b^w$ 

- a.  $\eta$  kốớn —H máá= —H bwéé —H kéè . ~2 break (smth or smth break) 1 POSS 1 leg 1 PRF I had broken my leg.
- b.  $k\grave{o}\acute{o}^n$  —L  $m\grave{a}\grave{a}=$  —L  $b^w\acute{e}\acute{e}$  —H  $\mathfrak n$   $k\acute{e}\grave{e}$  . 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

		No OBJ		OBJ				Tone on Noun		
<u>Verb</u>	Gloss	<u>1.S</u>	<u>3.S</u>		<u>1.S</u>	<u>3.S</u>	<u>Noun</u>	Gloss	<u>1.S</u>	<u>3.S</u>
/ųá/	buy	НН	LL	a.	НН	LL	/párí/	spear	HL	LH
				b.	HL	LL	/ŋàmbá/	sheep	HHL	LLH
/ně/	drink	НН	HL	c.	НН	LL	/bón/	porridge	HL	НН
				d.	НН	LH	/nníé/	milk	НН	LH
/¢έ/	carry	LH	LL	e.	HH	LH	/kógò/	basket	HHL	HHL
				f.	HH	LH	/bóróŋkó/	tied millet	LL	LL
/kón/	break	НН	LH	g.	НН	LH	/kù <sup>n</sup> /	hip	HL	НН
				h.	НН	LH	/bw\u00e9/	leg	НН	НН

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 = ndέ /símèè/ 'rock, mountain' ncl4 mountain mountain =PL
 mountain, rock/mountains, rocks

- a. pómb -í -H símèè -L ŋ kέè .
   lift PRF 1 mountain 1 ~2 PRF
   I had lifted a mountain/rock.
- b. pòmb -i -L síméé -H  $\mathfrak{g}$  kéè . lift PRF 3 mountain 3  $\sim$ 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).

- a. pómb -í -H kùyè -L η kéè .
   lift PRF 1 calabash 1 ~2 PRF
   I had lifted a calabash.
- b. pómb -i -L kúyè -H  $\mathfrak n$  kéè . lift PRF 3 calabash 3  $\sim 2$  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) tómé +è / tó —mì =ndέ /tómé/ 'cowry' ncl4 cowry shell(s) DIM cowry shell(s) DIM =PL cowry/cowry shells
  - a. ŋ gúq -ù tómé +è -L ŋ kéè .
     ~2 throw PRF cowry shell(s) DIM 1 ~2 PRF
     I had thrown cowry shells.
  - b. gúq -ù tómé +έ -H ŋ kέὲ .
     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) dàmá / dàmà =ndέ /dàmbà/ 'pick axe' ncl1
  pick axe pick axe =PL
  pick axe/pick axes
  - a. ŋ gúy -ù -H dàmbà kéè
     ~2 throw PRF 1 pick axe PRF
     I had thrown a pick axe.
  - b. gúq -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.

(443) 
$$s \grave{o} \grave{o}^n / s \grave{o} = nd\acute{e}$$
 / $s \grave{o} n/$  'shirt' ncl2 shirt shirt =PL shirt/shirts

a. m púg -ù -H sòòn -L  $\mathfrak{g}$  kéè .  $\sim 2$  wash RV 1 shirt 1  $\sim 2$  PRF

I had washed a shirt.

b. pùg  $-\dot{u}$  -L sòớn -H  $\eta$  kéè . wash RV 3 shirt 3 ~2 PRF

He had washed a shirt.

The noun 'luggage' or 'belongings' in (444) does not alter from its plural form in a (444b). As with the possessive proclitics briefly mentioned above, the tone of the plural stem has the ability to override the effects of the person marking tone. The verb is indexed for person on both vowels of the stem in both the first and third person.

- (444) kíè / kíé =nè /kíé/ 'belongings' ncl4 luggage, belongings luggage, belongings =PL luggage, belongings luggage, belongings.
  - a. m púg -ú -H kí $\acute{\epsilon}$  =n $\acute{\epsilon}$  ŋ k $\acute{\epsilon}$   $\acute{\epsilon}$  .  $\sim 2$  wash PRF 1 luggage, belongings =PL  $\sim 2$  PRF I had washed belongings.
  - b. pùg -ù -L kíέ =nè η kéè .
     wash PRF 3 luggage, belongings PL ~2 PRF
     He had washed belongings.

The summary for bisyllabic stems with objects is given in (445).

(445) Summary of Bisyllabic Stems with Objects

<u>Verb</u>	Gloss	<u>1.S</u>	<u>3.S</u>		<u>1.S</u>	<u>3.S</u>	<u>Noun</u>	Gloss	<u>1.S</u>	<u>3.S</u>
/pôm/	lift	НН	HL	a.	НН	LH	/símèè/	rock	HLL	HHH
				b.	НН	HL	/kúųέ/	calabash	LL	HL
/gûų/	throw	HL	HL	c.	HL	HL	/tómé/	cowry	HHL	ННН
				d.	HL	HL	/dàmbà/	pick axe	LL	LL
/pŭg/	wash	HL	LH	e.	HL	LL	/sòn/	shirt	LL	HL
				f.	HH	LL	/kíé/	luggage	НН	НН

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 <u>completive aspect particle</u>, 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	Full Pronoun					Truncated Pronoun						
mí 1S				−è RV		kàmà CPL						
àẁ 2S				−è RV		kámá CPL		•				
mì 3S				−è RV		kàmá CPL						
ndè 1P	kàmà CPL		•									
àà 2P	kámá CPL		•									
nnìì 3P	kámá CPL	n T	dég hit	−è 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

Full F	Pronoun	Trunca	ted Pronoun
<u>SG</u>	<u>PL</u>	<u>SG</u>	<u>PL</u>
LL	LL	LL	_
НН	НН	НН	_
HH	НН	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

Full Pronoun						Truncated Pronoun					
mí	kàmà	n	dég	-è	géŋgè	ŋ	kàmà	n	dég	-è	géŋgè
1S	CPL	T	hit	RV	salt	1S	CPL	T	hit	RV	salt
àẁ 2S			•	−è RV	géŋgè salt				dég hit		géŋgè salt
mì 3S			_	−è RV	géŋgè salt				dég hit		géŋgè salt
ndè 1P	kámá CPL		dég hit		géŋgè salt						
àà 2P	kámá CPL		dég hit		géŋgè salt						
nnìì 3P	kámá CPL	n T	dég hit	−è RV	géŋgè salt		<del></del>				

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

Full F	Pronoun	Trunca	ted Pronoun
<u>SG</u>	<u>PL</u>	<u>SG</u>	<u>PL</u>
LL	LH	LL	_
LH	LH	НН	_
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

Plura	al Objec	t			
ŋ 1S	kàmà CPL		•	•	
à 2S	kámá CPL		•	•	
ŋ 3S	kámá CPL		•	•	

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

# 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	Pronour	1			Tru	ncated l	Pron	oun	
mí	kàmà	n	ďзìj	–á	ŋ	kámá	n	фìj	–á
1S	CPL	T	eat	RV	1S	CPL	T	eat	RV
àẁ	kámá	n	ďзìj	–á	à	kàmá	n	ďзìj	–á
2S	CPL	T	eat	RV	2S	CPL	T	eat	RV
mì	kámá	n	dʒìj	–á	ŋ	kàmá	n	фìj	–á
3S	CPL	T	eat	RV	3S	CPL	T	eat	RV
ndὲ	kàmà	n	ďзìj	–á					
1P	CPL	T	eat	RV					

(453) Summary of Tonal Patterns on completive Particle [kama]

Full F	<u>Pronoun</u>	Truncat	ted Pronoun
<u>SG</u>	<u>PL</u>	<u>SG</u>	<u>PL</u>
LL	LL	НН	_
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, [bɔ́rɛ̀ n ɛíi], 'toh' or 'millet porridge' and [géngè] 'salt'.

(454) [kama] Variation with Pronoun and Verb 'eat'

Obje	ect 'salt'			Obj	ect 'toh	,			
ŋ 1S			géŋgè salt	-					çíí food
à 2S			géŋgè salt					bórè baobab	¢íí food
ŋ 3S		• •	géŋgè salt	•				bórè baobab	cíí food

The summary for the two objects is provided in (455).

(455) Summary of Tonal Patterns on completive Particle [kama]

Full I	Pronoun	Truncated Pronoun			
<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'

Singular Object				Plu	ral Obje	ect					
ŋ 1S	kàmà CPL				-		kàmà CPL			pan-	
à 2S	kámá CPL		tám chew		•		kàmá CPL			cake ŋw̃è 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

Full F	<u>Pronoun</u>	Truncated Pronour			
<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].

First Person			Third Person			
5	kàmà CPL	wórè go	5	kàmá CPL	wórè go	
I w	ent		Не	went		

(459)	Firs	st Person			Thir	d Persor	1		_		
	ŋ ~2	kámá CPL	wórè go	náà fields	ŋ ~2	kàm <mark>á</mark> CPL	wóre go	e náà field:	S		
	I w	ent to a f	ĭeld		I we	ent to a fi	ield				
(460)	Fi	rst Perso	n		Th	nird Pers	on				
	ŋ ~2	kámá 2 CPL	wórè go	kóò house	ŋ ~2	kàmá CPL	wć go	orè kód hou			
	Ιv	went to a	house		Н	e went to	a ho	use			
(461)	Firs	st Person					Thi	d Perso	n		
	ŋ ∼2	kámá CPL	wórè go	díjà village	ŋ GEN	kó PP	ŋ ∼2	kàmá CPL	díjà village	ŋ GEN	kó PP
	I w	ent to a v	illage.				Не	went to	a village.		
(462)	Firs	st Person			Th	ird Perso	on				
	ŋ ∼2	kámá CPL	wórè go	kúú <sup>n</sup> market	ŋ ~2	kàmá CPL	kú ma	ú <sup>n</sup> ırket			
	I w	ent to a v	illage.		Не	went to	a vil	lage.			
	The	table (46	3) sum	marizes t	he tona	al patterr	ns on	the com	pletive p	article v	with /wore/ 'go'.
	(463	) Sumn	nary of	Tonal Pa	tterns	on comp	letive	Partic	le [kama]		
	Ind	irect Obj	Glos	<u>SS</u>	<u>1.SG</u>	<u>r</u>	3.S	<u>G</u>			
	non	ie			LL		LH				
	náà		wild	erness	НН		LH				
	1 / \		hous	20	НН		LH				
	kóò	,	nous	sc .	1111		LII				

kúún

market

НН

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 <u>incompletive aspect</u> 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'
```

$$\emptyset$$
 dáà n dég  $-\hat{\epsilon}$  nd $\hat{\epsilon}$  náà n dég  $-\hat{\epsilon}$  1S INC T hit RV 1.PL INC T hit RV

I am hitting.

We are hitting

à ndà n dèg 
$$-\dot{\epsilon}$$
 à-rú dáà n dèg  $-\dot{\epsilon}$  2.S INC T hit RV 2-PL INC T hit RV

You are hitting.

You.PL are hitting

He is hitting.

They are hitting

As with the other tenses, the first persons are marked with high tones, but in the incompletive aspect, the tone is on the verb stem, and the second and third persons are marked with low tones.

In an incompletive clause with an object, the default <u>word order</u> is subject-object-verb.

Although there is some segmental variation in the noun, the tones on the object are not altered in the incompletive aspect.

(465) Incompletive aspect with an Object, Verb 'hit'

The tones on the verb stem are exactly the same if an object is present or absent in the incompletive aspect with the verb 'hit'.

(466) Summary of Tonal Patterns on Verb 'hit' in Incompletive aspect

Full F	<u>Pronoun</u>	<u>Truncated Pronoun</u>				
<u>,                                    </u>	<u>SG</u>	<u>PL</u>				
НН	НН	НН	НН			
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'.

The verb 'buy' does not alter its tones in the incompletive 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 incompletive 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'

```
dáà
          nàmbá -rá n
                         yàà
                                 ndὲ
                                       nà
                                            nàmbá n
n
                                                       yàà
~2
    INC
          sheep
                  sfx
                      T
                         buy
                                 1.PL
                                       INC
                                            sheep
                                                    T
                                                       buy
                                       dà
á
    nà
          ŋàmbá
                 –rá n
                         yàà
                                 áà
                                            ηàmbá
                                                       yàà
                                                    n
2.S
    INC
          sheep
                 sfx
                      T
                         buy
                                 2.S
                                       INC
                                            sheep
                                                    T
                                                       buy
Ø
    dá
                                 nnìì
          nàmbá –rá
                         yàà
                                       nà
                                            nàmbá
                                                       yàà
                      n
                                                    n
~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'

The verb 'eat' is also unaffected by the subject of the phrase in the incompletive aspect.

(471) Incompletive aspect with No Object: Verb, 'eat'

The verb 'eat' is not affected tonally by the subject in the incompletive 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 incompletive 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) Incompletive aspect with Object: Verb, 'eat'

n dáw dìj 
$$-$$
á póón ndè nà póón dìj  $-$ á  $\sim 2$  INC eat RV meal 1.PL INC meal eat RV á dà dìj  $-$ á póón àà dà póón dìj  $-$ á 2.S INC eat RV meal 2.S INC meal eat RV  $\emptyset$  dáà dìj  $-$ á póón nnìì nà póón dìj  $-$ á  $\sim 2$  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'

### <u>Incompletive</u>

a. àdámá ná á nníέ –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  $-\dot{\epsilon}$  -H à nìè-rè -L . Adama CPL T hit RV 3 DEF woman 3 Adama hit the woman.

## **Perfective**

c. àdámá dèg  $-\hat{\epsilon}$  —L ní $\hat{\epsilon}$  —ré —H .

Adama hit RV 3 woman 3

Adama has hit a woman.

### <u>Perfect</u>

d. àdámá dèg -ù -L á níε-ré -H kεε .
 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 [bíè] is the only means to negate a sentence. The negative marker may precede a noun, acting as a negative <u>copula</u>. 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 bíè ŋʷòròké caracal DEM NEG leopard

A caracal is not a leopard. (Chief 10 23.1)

b. há níŋà sò $dota^n$  bíè sò $dota^n$  IRR say shirt NEG shirt

One would say it is a shirt but it is not a shirt. (Consultant 10.2)

c. sé bíè bójéè ŋ kó páá<sup>n</sup> bíè 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 bíè sun NEG

There is no sun.

b.  $\eta$  kásà<sup>n</sup> tóò<sup>n</sup> bíè at that time money NEG

At that time, money did not exist. (Tiga story 80.1)

c. ŋ kámà n súyè à nàà ŋ kò bùrá 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 mὲrè 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 jímbō 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 mέit is not mine
- b. à kòò bié mế the house is not mine
- c. bie X muw̃ɛ 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  $\rightarrow$  L

Gloss	Syllables		<u>Stem</u>	Tone on Noun
older sibling	CVV	a.	tíí	[H]
/H/		b.	bíè tíì	[HL]
machete	CV.CV	c.	páré	[H]
/H/		d.	bíè párè	[HL]
ancestor	CVV.CV	e.	kááw̃á	[H]
/H/		f.	bíè kááwà	[HL]
buffalo	CV.CVV	g.	kòbáá	[LH]
/H/		h.	bíè kòbàà	[L]
man	CVV	i.	góờ <sup>n</sup>	[HL]
/HL/		j.	bíè góòn	[HL]
baby	CV.CV	k.	bì+έ	[LH]
/HL/		1.	bíè bìè	[L]
sugar cane	CVV.CV	m.	mùùré	[LH]
/LH/		n.	bíè mùùrè	[L]
goat bag	CV.CVV	0.	tòpáá	[LH]
/LH/		p.	bíè tópàà	[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  $L \rightarrow L$ 

Gloss	<u>Syllables</u>		<u>Stem</u>	Tone on Noun
tree	CVV	a.	d <sup>w</sup> àà	[L]
/L/		b.	bíè d <sup>w</sup> àà	[L]
leg		c.	b <sup>w</sup> èὲ	[L]
/L/		d.	bíè b <sup>w</sup> èè	[L]
child	CV.CVV	e.	jămbèè	[LHL]
/LHL/		f.	bíè jămbèè	[LHL]
crocodile		g.	gèŋgìè	[L]
/L/		h.	bíè gèŋgìè	[L]
father	CVV	i.	bóó	[H]
/H/		j.	bíè bóó	[H]
log	CV.CV	k.	kúndù	[HL]
/H/		1.	bíè kúndù	[HL]
rock	CV.CVV	m.	símèè	[HL]
/HL/		n.	bíè símèè	[HL]
woman	CV.CV.CV	0.	n nìé–rè	[LHL]
/LH/		p.	bíè nìè–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 [jaambɛ] but emerges as [jaa=ndɛ] in the plural and with [pwiɛ]. The word [pwiɛ] 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

Gloss		<u>Stem</u>	Tone on Noun
girl	a.	jàá p <sup>w</sup> ìè	[LH LL]
/H/	b.	bíè jàá p <sup>w</sup> ìè	[LH LL]
boy	c.	jáá bórómbè	[HH HHL]
/LH/	d.	bíè jáá bórómbè	[HH HHL]

<u>Adjectives</u> 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

Gloss		Stem	Tone on Noun
white sheep	a.	ŋàmbá síjò <sup>n</sup>	[HL]
/LH/	b.	bíè ŋámbá síjò	[H]
red thing	c.	kìì b <sup>w</sup> íέ	[L]
/HL/	d.	bíè kìì b <sup>w</sup> íé	[L]
big woman	e.	nnìé bógò	[LH]
/LH/	f.	bíè nnìé 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: incompletive and completive. The negative marker [bie] precedes the verb just as it does a <u>noun</u>. The difference in the incompletive and completive aspects depends on the verb's <u>inflectional class</u> 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 <u>SOV</u> word order. The verb stem is unsuffixed for inflection, and the verb stem is preceded by the <u>transitive nasal</u>.

In the completive aspect, just as with a positive clause, the word order is <u>SVO</u>. 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 completive 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 incompletive 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

	Gloss	Root	INC.NEG	CPL.NEG
a.	lick	/de/	bíé n déè	bíè déέ–rè
b.	drink	/ne/	bíé n nìè	bíé nìè–rè
c.	mix	/soo/	bíé n sòò	bíé sòò–rò
d.	reach	/twa/	bíé n t <sup>w</sup> áà	bíé t <sup>w</sup> áà–rà
e.	build	/maa/	bíé m màà	bíé màà–rà

As shown <u>above</u>, [+ATR] and [-ATR] stems take different vowels after the [-r] suffix. While the tone of the incompletive negative stem remains low, the tonal melody of the completive negative is high-low.

(483) Transitive Verb [-ATR]

	Gloss	Root	<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 ʒìè	bíè jé–rò
d.	put	/pe/	bíè m píè	bìé pé–rò

The transitive marker precedes the incompletive negative verb stem and the [-r] suffix appears when the verb is a negated completive 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.	/ne/	drink							
	Incompletive					Completive			
	S	A	О	V		S	A	V	SFX
i.	m 1.S	bíé NEG	n T	nìè drink	ii.	m 1.SG	bíé NEG	nìè drink	–rè CPL
	I do n	ot drink	ζ.			I did n	ot drinl	ζ.	
	$\begin{array}{c} m \\ \mu \\ \sigma \end{array}$	bíé μμ σ	n μ σ	nìè μμ σ		$m\\\mu\\\sigma$	bíé μμ σ	nìὲ μμ σ	–rè μ σ
	6 moi	rae, 4 sy	llab	les		6 morae, 4 syllables			
b.	/twa/	reach							
i.	m 1.S	bíé NEG	n T	t <sup>w</sup> áà reach	ii.	m 1.SG	bíé NEG	t <sup>w</sup> áà reach	–rà CPL
	I do n	ot reach	1.			I did n	ot reacl	n.	
	m μ σ	bíé μμ σ	n μ σ	t <sup>w</sup> áà μμ σ		m μ σ	bíé μμ σ	t <sup>w</sup> áà μμ σ	–rà μ σ

	6 morae, 4 syllables				6 mor	ae, 4 sy	llables				
c.	/soo/	mix								<u>-</u>	
i.	m 1.S	bíé NEG		òò iix	ii.	m 1.SG	bíé NEG	sòò mix	−rò CPL		
	I do 1	not mix.				I did 1	not mix				
	m	bíé	n să	óò		m	bíé	śśż	-rà		
	μ	μμ	μμ	μ		μ	μμ	μμ	μ		
	σ	σ	σ σ			σ	σ	σ	σ		
	6 mo	rae, 4 sy	llables			6 mor	ae, 4 sy	llables			
d.	/maa/	build									
i.	m 1.SG	bíé NEG	kóó hous	m e T	màà build	ii.	m 1.SG	bíé NEG	màà build	–rà CP	kòò house
	I do 1	not build	a hou	se.			I did n	ot build	d a hous	se.	
	m	bíé	kóó	m	màà		m	bíé	màà	–rà	kòò
	μ	μμ	μμ	μ	μμ		μ	μμ	μμ	μ	μμ
	σ	σ	σ	σ	σ		σ	σ	σ	σ	σ
	8 morae, 5 syllables				8 mora	ae, 5 sy	llables				

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.	/kən/	break	cut							
	Incompl	etive					Comp	pletive		
i.	m 1SG	bíè NEG	ŋ T	kò break	−r̃ò RV	ii.	m 1SG	bíè NEG	kón break	–dò CPL
	I do not	break.					I did	not brea	ak.	
	$m \ \mu \ \sigma$	bíè μμ σ	ŋ μ σ	kò μ σ	–r̃ò μ σ		m μ σ	bíè μμ σ	kón μμ σ	–dò μ σ
	6 morae	, 5 sylla	bles				6 mo	rae, 4 sy	yllables	
b.	den	cook								
iii.	m 1SG	bíè NEG	n T	dè cook	−r̃è RV	iv.	m 1SG	bíè NEG	dén cook	–dè CPL
	I do not	cook.					I did	not coo	k.	
	$m \ \mu \ \sigma$	bíè μμ σ	n μ σ	dὲ μ σ	–r̃è μ σ		m μ σ	bíè μμ σ	dέn μμ σ	–dè μ σ
	6 morae	, 5 sylla	bles				6 mo	rae, 4 sy	yllables	

In all verb stems that take the [-r] suffix or one of its allomorphs  $[\tilde{r} \sim d \sim b]$ , 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 incompletive negative stem, as there is no transitive morpheme.

### (486) Intransitive Verbs

	<u>Gloss</u>	Root	<u>INC.NEG</u>	<u>CPL.NEG</u>
a.	get up	je	bíè jíè	bíè jé–rò
b.	lost	te	bíè téè	bíé té-rè
c.	pass	cb	bíé dóó	bíè dóó–rò
d.	respond	jo	bíè jóò	bíè jóó–rò
e.	run	tig	bíè tígè	bíè tígí–rì
f.	pull (large things)	зum	bíè ʒúm–b–à	bíè ʒúm–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

	Gloss	<u>Stem</u>	<u>INC.NEG</u>	<u>CPL.NEG</u>
a.	change	gómbíè	bíè ŋ gómbíè	bíè gómbíè
b.	carry (child) on back	kúmbò	bíé ŋ kúmbò	bíé kúmbò
c.	take	síè	bíè n síé	bíé síè
d.	go out	bírè	bíè bíré	bíè bírè
e.	resemble	dógònó	bíè n dógònó	bíè dógònò
f.	bury (sb)	múgù	bíé m múgù	bíé mùgù

## 14.8 Intransitive Verbs

The intransitive verbs shown in (488) show a pattern of a high tone on the final mora of the incompletive negative stem and a low tone on the final mora of the completive negative stem.

(488) Intransitive Verbs without [-r] Suffix

	Gloss	<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 bìé nnóò
c.	go	wore	m bíè wóré	m bíè wòré
d.	look	súràà	m bíé súrá	m bíé sùrà

Some intransitve verbs show differences on the negative marker itself.

## (489) Intransitive Verbs without [-r] Suffix

	Gloss	<u>Stem</u>	INC.NEG	<u>CPL.NEG</u>
a.	ripe	bìjú	bìé bìjù	bìè bíjù
b.	try	kíjà	bìé wóré kíjà	bìè wòrè kíjà
c.	talk	níŋá	bíè nníŋà	b <mark>ìé</mark> nníŋà
d.	squeeze	ŋʷímà	b <mark>íè</mark> ŋʷímà	bìé ŋʷímà
e.	descend	syéè	bíè syéè	bìé syéè
f.	lie down	túrù	b <u>íè</u> túrù	b <mark>ìé</mark> túrù
g.	ascend	ųìὲ	b <mark>íé</mark> yíè	b <mark>ìé</mark> qíè
h.	call	jéndó	bíè jéndò	bíé jéndò

# 14.8.1 Exceptional Patterns

A number of exceptions to the above described generalizations are listed in (490).

# (490) Exceptions

	Gloss	Stem	INC.NEG	<u>CPL.NEG</u>
a.	die	jáà	bíé jàà	bíé jàà–wέ
b.	descend	sáá <sup>n</sup>	bìè sáà <sup>n</sup>	bìé sáẁ
c.	sit	té-rò	bíè tí–rì	bíè té–rò
d.	show	té–ró	bíè n térέ	bíè téré
e.	scrub	gíjà–rà	bíè n gíjà	bíè gíjà
e.	fall	tíbí–rì	bìé tíbì, bíè tí-rì	bíè tíjó
f.	scratch	kŏgɔʒò	bìé mí kògòzò	bìé kògòzò mí
f.	search	kúmbòrò	bìé kúmbò ŋ kùmbò/	bìé kùmbò ŋ kúmbò/
			bíé ŋ kúmbò	bìé kúmbò

#### 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, incompletive and completive. Transitive verbs in Class Two and Three take the [-r] suffix, or the [-d] allomorph, in the negative completive aspect. Class Two verbs take the [-r] suffix in the positive completive aspect as well. Class Three verbs take a nasalized allomorph of the suffix [-r] in the positive completive aspect and [-d] in the positive incompletive 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 completive 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 completive verb and a negated incompletive 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 [kɛ́ɛ̂], for activity verbs and the stative suffix [wɛ̂], 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.

### **Bibliography**

- Bendor–Samuel, J., Olsen, E., & White, A. (1989). Dogon. In J. Bendor-Samuel (Ed.), *The Niger–Congo Languages* (pp. 169 177). Lanham MD/New York/London: University Press of America.
- Bertho, J. (1953). La Place des Dialectes Dogon (Dogõ) de la Falaise de Bandiagara parmi les autres Groupes Linguistiques de la Zone Soudanaise. *Bulletin de l'Institut Français d'Afrique Noire*. *Dakar*, *15*(1), 405–441.
- Blench, R. (2006). *Archaeology, Language, and the African CPL*. Lanham, MD: Alta Mira Press.
- Blench, R. (2005). Ogmios. *Newsletter of Foundation for Endangered Languages* (Vol. 3.02, pp. 14–17).
- Blench, R. (2007). Baŋgi Me, a Language of Unknown Affiliation in Northern Mali. http://homepage.ntlworld.com/roger\_blench/RBOP.htm.
- Culy, C., Kodio, K., & Togo, P. (1994). Dogon Pronominal Systems: Their Nature and Evolution. *Studies in African Linguistics*, *23* (3), 315-344.
- Calame–Griaule, G. (1956). Les Dialectes Dogon. Africa, 26 (1), 62–72.
- Calame–Griaule, G. (1962). *Le Verbe Dogon*. Paper presented at the Actes de second Colloque International de linguistique négro–africaine.
- Calame–Griaule, G. (1965). *Ethnologie et Langage: La Parole Chez les Dogon*. Paris: Editions Gallimard.
- Delafosse, M. (1952). Sudan Guinée. In A. Meillet & M. Cohen (Eds.), *Les Langues du Monde* (Vol. 2). Paris: Centre National de la Recherche Scientifique.

- Dieterlen, G. (1952). Classification des Végétaux Chez Les Dogon. *Journal de la Société des Africanistes*, 22, 115–158.
- Dieterlen, G. (1995). Rôle Historique et Fonction Symbolique du Cheval Chez les Soninké du Wagadu et les Dogon. In G. Pezzoli (Ed.), *Cavalieri Dell'africa: Storia, Iconografia, Simbolismo* (Vol. 74). Milano: Centro Studi Archeologia Africana.
- Elders, S. (2006). Présentation du Bangeri me. Paper presented at the Atélier sur le Projet Dogon.
- Gordon, R. G., Jr. (ed). (2005). *Ethnologue: Languages of the World* (Fifteenth ed. Vol. 2007). Dallas: SIL International.
- Griaule, M., & Dieterlen, G. (1951). *Signes Graphiques Soudanais*. Paris: L'Ecole Pratique des Hautes Etudes 6e Section: Sciences économiques et sociales.
- Heath, Jeffrey (2013). *Dogon Comparative Spreadsheet*. Retrieved June 1, 2012, from <a href="http://dogonlanguages.org/">http://dogonlanguages.org/</a>
- Heath, J. (2008a). Comparative Lexicon of Dogon Languages. From http://dogonlanguages.org/about.cfm
- Heath, J. (2008b). Grammar of Jamsay. Berlin: Mouton de Gruyter.
- Hochstetler, J., Lee, D., J.A., & Durieux–Boon, E. I. K. (2004). Sociolinguistic Survey of the Dogon Language Area. *SIL International*.
- Leiris, M. (1948). Les Langues De La Société Des Hommes Chez Les Dogons de Sanga (Soudan *Français*) (Vol. LX). Paris.
- Leiris, M. (n.d.). Michel Leiris. Retrieved November 5, 2007, from <a href="http://www.michel-Leiris.com/">http://www.michel-Leiris.com/</a>
- Lewis, M. Paul, Gary F. Simons, and Charles D. Fennig (eds.). 2013. Ethnologue: Languages of

- the World, Seventeenth edition. Dallas, Texas: SIL International. Online version: <a href="http://www.ethnologue.com">http://www.ethnologue.com</a>.
- Lewis, M. Paul (eds.) 2009. *Ethnologue: Languages of the World, Sixteenth edition*. Dallas, Texas: SIL International. Online version: http://www.ethnologue.com
- Newman, Paul. (1983) efferential (Alias 'Causative' in Hausa). *Studies in Chadic and Afroasiatic Linguistics*. 397–418.
- Plungian, V. (1995). Dogon. München, Newcastle: Lingcom Europa.
- Selkirk, E. O. (1982). The Syntax of Words. Cambridge, MA: MIT Press.
- van Beek, W. E. A. (1991). Dogon Restudied: A Field Evaluation of the Work of Marcel Griaule. Current Anthropology, 32 (2), 139 167.
- Williamson, K., & Blench, R. (2000). Niger-Congo. In B. Heine & D. Nurse (Eds.), *African Languages: An Introduction* (pp. 11 42). Cambridge: Cambridge University press.

# **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.	káẁ/kớò	kó, kớ	it	various
8.	káẁ/kớò	nóó	this	various
9.	káẁ/kớò	kò, kò	that	various
10.	ímà	íní, ínâ, ìnûw, òló	here	various
11.	kéèn	ě̃w̃	there	various
12.	jéà/jààrú	àà	who	various
13.	né ∫ì¹	ìndʒé	what	various
14.	kóò tè	jšw lé, jòó lé	where	various
15.	né n nè	bàj jàárà, bàj jògòó	when	various
16.	nìí/nù mì	ááŋgà	how	various
		òndí– ∼ òndú–,		
17.	béé (káw)	kòò–ró	not	various
18.	(kíì) pá <sup>n</sup>	sâ <sup>n</sup> , pú	all	various
19.	kíí péέ <sup>!</sup> rέ	dʒwá, ségú, sèg-ín	many	various

20.	màá táà	ntàá–nà	some	various
21.	bíè bóśrì	bààlè	few	various
22.	kéè tè	tóó	other	various
				Tebul Ure most
23.	tórè	túrèè	one	languages are [túrú]
24.	jìndò	jè–nɔ́ɔ́	two	Yanda Dom
25.	tààrù	tààlú	three	Perge Tegu
26.	néè	néèw, nìŋŋĕj	four	Bunoge
27.	núndì	nùmìí	five	Perge Tegu
28.	(kíi) bốrô, bógò	káŋ, gàrá, márá, bâj	big	Mombo, Togo Kan
29.	bíéndè	dʒàlέέ, mwèὲn	long	Najamba, Ampari
30.	téngó	wàjá–ŋgé	wide	Najamba
31.	mèrè	démé, nìmí–jè	heavy	Yorno-So, Najamba
32.	(kírí) dáyàj/kírí-jè	dáyá	small	Gourou and area
33.	dúgí–jè	dùŋgùrí–jè	short	Penange
34.	(kíi) 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.	<b>ʒĭbέ</b> έ	ŋὲʔ¤ὲ wé	person	Tomo Kan
				Jamsay, Perge Tegu,
38.	nnìé-rè	ηĚ	woman	Gourou,Togo–Kan
39.	góờ <sup>n</sup>	àr̃á	man	various

40.	jàá+mbè	ii	child, girl	various
41.	(máá=) pwíè	jàá	wife	various
42.	(máá=) kándéé	òŋgòró, nògòó	husband	various
43.	nníjà	nàá, nìì	mother	various
				Ben Tey, Bankan-
44.	bốó	bóò	father	Tey
45.	<b>3</b> ĭríbèè	bélí	animal	Mombo
46.	ŋàmbàrá	ámbá	sheep	Tiranige
47.	$bii^n$	bèrú, èr̃é	goat	Peregue, Gourou
48.	nnàà	nàŋà, nàà	cow	various
49.	yíè n kò n ŋòś	nàwà	fish	Toro Tegu
50.	dóréè	nìí	bird	various
51.	kùrìʒèé	íínjé	dog	Tiranige
52.	sémà	sèmá	louse	Dogul Dom, etc.
53.	kéréndé kéè	lùgèréè	snake	Tomo Kan
54.	d <sup>w</sup> àà, d <sup>w</sup> àè	tìmàá, tìmè	tree	various
55.	bùr̃á	bíéré, bágá	stick	various
56.	d <sup>w</sup> áá m bìέ	tìmè-ií <sup>n</sup>	fruit	various
57.	búrúù	síí	seed	various
58.	$p^w \hat{t} \hat{\epsilon}^n$	pùněn	leaf	Najamba
				Jamsay, Nanga,
59.	$3\hat{\mathbf{i}}\mathbf{i}^{\mathrm{n}}$	céén, wèèrî, dĭl	root	Yanda Dom
60.	зàgà	kòkòó	bark	Togo-Kan

61.	$t^w \hat{\mathbf{n}}^n$	kúró	flower bud/flower	various
62.	gŭʒé+è	gú–gúrú	grass, weeds	Togo-Kan
63.	bójéè	bóólè	rope	Bunoge, various
64.	kíŋgèè	gùdzú	skin	all
65.	nŋàẃ ~ ŋòɔ́	nàw̃á, nàmá, nòw̃ó	meat	all
				Tomo Kan, Tebul
66.	<b>3</b> îì	níí, jènjé	blood	Ure
67.	nnòòrè	kìr̃á, gòògè	bone	all, Penange
68.	ŋʷìè	ně–ŋgó, nŭŋ	oil	Najamba, various
69.	kúù <sup>n</sup>	tàrú	egg	Toro Tegu
70.	síráá	círá	horn	Toro Tegu
71.	tíí <sup>n</sup>	dìlò	tail	Tiranige, etc.
72.	kúqì	kùjá	hair	Bankan-Tey
73.	dégè	kúú <sup>n</sup>	head	various
		sùgú, sùgùrù,		
74.	tàŋà	sùŋùnù	ear – see nose	various
75.	gìré	sííbíè	eye	various
76.	súmbí–rì	cíní	nose	various
77.	nóò	nòó	mouth	Nanga
78.	n nóó n síl <sup>n</sup>	ínnì, ìn	teeth	various
79.	nóó n zèrí	jèrèdèn	tongue	Tomo Kan
80.	nìì kwéèn	nèè síí	finger	Mombo

			foot, leg – see	
81.	b <sup>w</sup> èὲ	kúwó	shoulder	various
82.	bwèè ŋ kúmbíè	kúndú	knee	various
83.	kúwò	ká–kárú	wing, shoulder	Mombo
84.	kóóréé	kûl∖\kûl, bὲrέ	belly	Najamba, various
85.	bórbórdè, kòrìì-ŋò kúrúbè	dzùŋś	guts	Najamba, Togo–Kan
86.	kẃà	kòró	neck	Jamsay and various
87.	súųὲ	ìríí, èsè	breast	various
88.	vìmmè	cénè	heart	Jamsay
89.	kúrí kìŋgéé	kíné	liver	Yorno-So
90.	nnìé–rè	nèé	drink	various
91.	dì–á	jóò jὲ, jέέ–rí, <mark>lí</mark>	eat	Ampari, Toro Tegu
			chew, bite,	
92.	támbà	támbá	scorpion sting sb	all
		tàndzî tándzí, tùrèn–		
93.	túʒú–rù/rì	dʒì 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.	mmáà	màndúù, màndám	laugh	Najamba
97.	bàndó	ómὸὸ	alive	Tebul Ure
98.	3áà	dóò, tíwó, nuwo	die	Ampari, various

99.	qùúr–á	фâ	kill	various
100.	kóśrì	kòmbó tá	war	Jamsay area
101.	sísóyð/kéréndì	dànní	hunt	various
102.	dègé	lágá	hit	Jamsay area
103.	jàg–á	jògó	cut	Yorno-so
104.	péréndé, kórò	pélsú, káwrá	split	Toro Tegu, various
105.	kŏgójà	kónʤó	scratch yourself	Tommo–So, various
		gàndzá, gùló,		
106.	kíndù	wàndzá, gúdzó	dig	various
107.	ŋwò mé nà/ŋwò mé ná wòrè	dáwé	travel	various
108.	ŋwớ <sup>n</sup>	jój	walk	Perge Tegu
109.	tìgè–ré	dúgúrè	run	Mombo, Tiriange
				Bankan-Tey, Tebul
				Ure, Yanda Dom,
110.	nóò	wó\\wá	come (see go)	Najamba
111.	gíjè n sèrè	bèrè-cétzè cétzé	lie	all
112.	térò	dìŋé	sit (see stand)	all
113.	dínè	íjέ, igε, ii	stand, stop	various
114.	gòmbíjé	kígíljè,gòŋó	turn	Mombo, Toro Tegu
115.	tìjò, tíbì	tíbέ	fall	Penange
116.	nnáw, níí	ów, ní	give	Toro Tegu, Ben Tey
117.	nnáw	áw\\áwá	take	Toro Tegu
118.	síè	ìbíé	take, catch	Tebul Ure

			rub – massage	
			deeply sb,	
			stimulating	
119.	gíjàrà	gàyá/párá	muscles	various
120.	púg–ù	mòg–ú	wash	various
121.	júmbá–rà	jumba, árá, dzùmbé	pull large things	various
122.	tĭŋgá–rá	dàmbá	push	various
123.	gu <del>ų</del> –i	gúʤé	throw	Mombo area
124.	bàà	mòś	tie	Bankan Tey
125.	síí	kújé, píjé	sew	various
126.	ŋĺj̇̃ð	nìgìlè, núgó	count	Najamba and various
127.	nníŋá, dígà	gáá	say, talk	various
128.	nŋʷéὲ	nùŋú, nùŋś, nùŋέ	sing	various
129.	sáŋà	cèná cénú	play	various
130.	píndò pìndò	pír–ii pír–íí–jà	swell	various
			sun (but see	
131.	nnèè (nnìé)	nì–nìí	'day')	Jamsay
132.	ųίέ	wéè	moon	Mombo
133.	tòrè+mέ, tòrò	tóró, tònòlò–j	star	various
134.	ųíè	níì	water	various
				Ben Tey, Bankan-
				Tey, Nanga,
135.	jóð <sup>n</sup>	jàrí, àjăn	rain	Najamba

136.	nŋśśmbè	gòndòlò	river, pond	various
137.	dèwò	dέ	lake	Toro Tegu
138.	géŋgíè	mèndzé, mèndzé gè	salt	Ampari
139.	nímbè	sì–sǒm, sù–sŏm	sand	Jamsay
140.	kúrí	kùlé–ŋ–kùlè	dust	Bunoge
141.	gàʒέ <sup>n</sup>	ádúná, àdú <del>r</del> ú	world	all
		òrò òrò gé, póndù,		Ampari, Bunoge,
142.	póórò	kùrùwó	cloud	various
143.	<b>3</b> ό∂ <sup>n</sup>	jàrí, àdʒǎn	sky, rain	Nanga, Najamba
144.	ρέυέ–rὲ	ηέ <mark>η</mark> έῖέ	wind, air	Togo-Kan
145.	bíré n jìé	kúmbè	smoke	various
146.	bíréè	génì	fire	Mombo
147.	síè	tèèŋgè	firewood	various
148.	tíųè	dwéé, dwéè	ashes	Mombo, Ampari
149.	cwiz	símbíé	grill, burn	various
150.	3èmbíè	èdzìmì èdzìmì gé	road	Ampari
151.	símèè	céémbè	mountain	Tiranige
152.	b <sup>w</sup> íέ	bómbè	red	Bunoge, Penange
153.	símà	sìmà	white	Bunoge
154.	ρόό 'τέ	jòrdè, jòòlè	black	Penange, Bunoge
155.	<b>3</b> ìÉ	jáŋá, dìgé, bàà dèné	night	various
		dèriŋ, dènigèèn, gèèn		
156.	nnìé	nì, gèèdèn	day	Tiranige area

157.	bíín	àrà–kúsú, àrà–gúsú	year	various
158.	jímbò	tôm, tòmbò	cold	various
				Yanda Dom,
159.	pééré	ségín, èsí <sup>n</sup>	a lot	Najamba
160.	káráá	kàlá, kàndá	new	all
161.	kááw̃á	káámnó, káánú	old	Mombo, Penange
162.	$g\acute{a}\grave{w}^n$	gààná	good, easy	all
163.	jáŋgà	jáálá	bad	Mombo
164.	kíwù	kìré	difficult	Togo Kan
165.	mòyá	gòmú	rotten	various
				Jamsay area, Dogul
166.	dìŋgí	lóγò, gínù	dirty, trash	Dom
167.	téè	tèndóò\\tèndéè	straight	Najamba
168.	múŋgúdúmɛ̞/(kíi) bíŋgíríɛ̀	dúndúlé	round	Mombo
169.	(à bă <sup>n</sup> màà nó) dérì	έrî	sharp	Nanga
170.	mótù	dùnú	dull	Toro Tegu, etc.
171.	mírò	òlú, órùm	smooth	Toro Tegu, etc.
172.	tóndú	tèmbóò\\tèmbíéè	wet	Najamba
173.	kớờ <sup>n</sup>	kúnú kúnó	dry	Yanda Dom
174.	kéré	bèrú	near	Toro Tegu
175.	<b>yúndù</b>	wàgá, wágù	far	all
176.	sííbéè	ŋĚĵ	right	various
177.	bárà (n nìì)	bàr̃íj̃à	left	all

178.	gúrù	bórò	under	Togo Kan
179.	ŋ kóò	kù	inside	Toro Tegu
180.	séné	dè	if	all
181.	kà jéró	sábù	because	all (borrowed)
182.	(màá) níì	íní	name	Mombo

# Further Possible Borrowings between Bangime and Dogon

	<u>Bangime</u>	<u>Dogon</u>	Gloss	Source Dogon Language
1.	kíí <sup>n</sup>	kíí <sup>n</sup>	canoe	Mombo, Bunoge, Penange
2.	ćòb	dóò	paper	Dogul Dom
3.	dúgú	dùgú, dògù	forest	Tiranige, Bunoge
4.	kớmè	kómé, kómbè	slave	Tiranige, Bunoge
5.	təŋənə	tòŋòró, tóónò	truth	Togo Kan, Mombo
6.	kámbá–rā	kámá	mash	Tommo-So
7.	báŋgá–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 táà	n tàá–nà	some	Penange
15.	nnàá	ò̃róó	wilderness	various
16.	vòó	băn	horse	Najamba
17.	póờ <sup>n</sup>	pàná	meal	Gourou

Toro Tegu, and Jamsay, Perge Tegu, Togo-Kan, Yorno-So,

18.	jéà	àjé, àà	who	Tommo–So,	Tiranige, Mombo, Penan	ge
19.	níì	àŋí	how	Toro Tegu		
20.	nníέ	έmέ, írí	milk	various, Tog	o–Kan	
21.	kúú <sup>n</sup>	ébà	market			
22.	né n nè	ààr̃á	when	Tebul Ure, Y	anda Dom	
23.	bóó <sup>n</sup>		bòló		millet porridge	Toro Tegu
24.	síí <sup>n</sup>		kíndó		shade, shadow	Bankan-Tey, etc
25.	kέèn		kèèndê a	also tugu	cheek	Nanga
26.	tíé		tèsí		grandmother	Nanga
27.	n nìè		jìr̃é		rainy season	Jamsay, etc
28.	gìín		gŭn also	tun	back	Jamsay
29.	kʷéὲ		gέὲ <sup>n</sup>		tree bark	Perge Tegu
30.	túú <sup>n</sup>		dùró, dò	oó	thorn	Nanga, Tebul Ure
31.	tíí		dὲέ <sup>n</sup>		sibling older	Togo-Kan
32.	tèè		dùwớ		forge	all
33.	tág–à/ù		dàgá		agree	various
34.	tóś <sup>n</sup>		kàr̃à, tàr	ndí, kéérù	money	Tebul Ure, Bunoge
35.	tóờ		kớớnờ		blacksmith	Bunoge
36.	kóśrò		tóórù, tó	ówrù	idol, fetish	various
37.	ímà		ìní		here	Toro Tegu
38.	kùú <sup>n</sup>		dòó, kéí	1	waist	Nanga, Tommo-so
39.	bìròndó		pòròò-n	núú	corn	Jamsay

40.	kóś tè	jŏw lé	where	Jamsay
				Ben Tey, Jamsay, Togo-Kan,
			person who is of the	Yorno-So, Ibi-so, Tommo-So,
41.	báŋgà	banga, bààŋí–jέ	Banga race	Yanda Dom
42.	kúųì	kùjá	hair	Bankan–Tey
43.	n níì kớèn sògójè	nàà–sìì <sup>n</sup> kǒw̃rìì	fingernail	Ben Tey
44.	dégé kújù kúqì	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 kwéèn sógójì	nùmò-kòr̃íí	fingernail, toenail	Togo-Kan
48.	vòò	wòrú	field	Perge Tegu, Togo-Kan
49.	múgúndú	púgúdʒù	squeeze	Togo-Kan
50.	pàà <sup>n</sup>	sâ <sup>n</sup>	all	Togo-Kan
		kíínì\\kííné, núw¹ó	ignite light switches,	
51.	tééndé	tó:ló, núw¹ó tán–gá	fire,	Togo-Kan, Perge Tegu
52.	ndε	nε	plural vs singular	Yorno-So
53.	tíndè	tìrè–[áj=né]	grandfather	Yorno-so
54.	kùųìέ	kwéj	calabash	Tomo Kan
		ěw̃, bèréέ\\bèr–		
55.	kéèn	gó\\bèr–mbó	there	Penange, Tebul Ure
56.	nórè	núúndó, nó	hear	Tiriange, Tebule Ure
57.	sòòn	sòŋ	shirt clothing	Yanda Dom

			turn about, allow	
58.	gómbíè	gìgíl\\gìgìlè	(non-volitional)	Najamba
		pírí–j\\pìrì–jè, pílí–		
59.	píndó	j\\pìlì–jè	bird, airplane glide	Najamba
60.	pírúndú	íbí–jέ	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	dúgúrè	run	Mombo, Tiriange
68.	təŋənə	tòŋòr̃ó, tóónò	truth	Togo Kan, Mombo
69.	tíųè	dwéé, dwéè	ashes	Mombo, Ampari
70.	bìé	bíéé, bíéé gè	baby	Ampari
71.	kìí á nò, kìzá	kíjè, kíjà	respond	Bunoge, Penange, Kindige
72.	do nama	dóójè	sleep	Bunoge
73.	gúzè káráá	kòjí kàjì	green	Bunoge
74.	t <sup>w</sup> éé <sup>n</sup>	têj	basket small	Bunoge

few

Penange

75.

bíè bóśrì

bààlè

## lay smth or sme down,

## put down, lie

76.	bí <b>r</b> á	bìjé	something down	various
77.	báŋgó–rò	báŋàà	belly button	
78.	bùù <sup>n</sup>	púřá, púná	millet powder	
79.	bùwó	bíérú	herd	
80.	déérè	dèndzì, érî	sweet	various
81.	déérè	woru	cultivate	various
82.	d <sup>w</sup> é+è m bùù <sup>n</sup>	pòrò–púnà	yellow	various
83.	karaa	jangu kana	read	all
84.	né síì <sup>n</sup>	ѝʤѐ	what	various
85.	nnìè	nàá, nìŋáá, jéŋgì	yesterday	various
86.	nŋàẃ ~ ŋòś	nàw̃á, nàmá, nòw̃ó	meat	all
87.	pàà	kóóm, pampare	cave	various, Fulfulde
88.	péréè	kèwí <sup>n</sup>	key	various
89.	píí	nìŋέ	sauce	various
90.	píjờ <sup>n</sup>	níŋù, gìnú	smell	various
91.	píjù	súdzó, píwé	blow	various
			pick a fruit or	
92.	póró–ndí	pogo	vegetable	various
93.	pújíè	péjé	tear clothing	various
94.	sáŋà	cèná cénú\\céná	play	various
95.	sígà	έjὲ	clean	various

96.	síjéndè	pjὲ <sup>n</sup>	old, worn out	all
97.	sórè	dʒùgэ́	know	various
98.	témbíè	tembe	small rock	various
99.	téè	nàà kéndè	palm	various
100.	tinda	tớró, túmnó	start	various
101.	tìndè	kúru, tún	put	various
102.	tíè síí	si te	NEG – reverse	Bamana
103.	túwè+è	dòndíjê, nì–nìwé	cat domestic	various
<ul><li>103.</li><li>104.</li></ul>	túw̃è+ὲ jăgú	dòndíjê, nì–nìwé măĵ	cat domestic dry	various various
		•		
104.	jăgú	măĵ	dry	various
104. 105.	jăgú jè–rò	măĵ kár̃ú\\kár̃á	dry do	various all
<ul><li>104.</li><li>105.</li><li>106.</li></ul>	jăgú jè–rò 3érò	măĵ kářú\\kářá ígé, íŋgjéè	dry do get up	various all various

**Appendix II: Comparitive Wordlists** 

(data from Hochstetler 2004: 99 - 101)

		William Street Street													)	_		2	
		٥		-	۵.	o	0	۷.			ĸ	10	0	H	e				o
Munder In Darkers Sugah Burney Like	Treat	a seeption conjude on	we ke funiors her kerfors	was become ofpo	ware has from Contra	tredem dom frem Calen	larged me from class	y make deep file op to see any op and op of y make	man or then staged	of up a fee	sans or free warmels	dryth den fan ongredeen	denotes from backing an	berom from on glambake	combe from bending	a minute framedon	mapped from dange	moperi Bon bakey	elepande contrar
						ndym.					T								
1 070	18	dice and	ong/ong on	dam.	ulli-	O. III	dgiff \sfe	diagne di	gire' g	g mg	gen (dan gi	ir agn	jiru manda	ng.	agine manual	dade	op ib	opdo	of the
2 081				nfere	all	S CALLED	adja						non from	nanôns	sugare simples	sugue simples	Sugara Lini	sugaru biri	andara Print
3 1086	2 2	A PER	car car	H 13	15	k madyalj Dahai	Sumoe	O HOME			KIN' (KIN' KI		O DO	Cetta	S DEED	2 impi	Simbal Simbal	2 impri	Simul
4 month	2000		Anim's Anima		1	HOI I	8 1	a de			2 0		cine ( Acque	de la		Similar	Parents .		diam'r
10000		out of	ugun duito	il const	brook / tonode /	open do	Table of the same	nominals and	tiple of minutes of	1	ninde n		ande	con a contra	The state of	of the same	See of	None Steen	2000
andhou o	organo	4		operate operate	acrede Jureus	on and	doper		note (migrate )				2000	died	an or	a of	rente	300	in the second
7 need	200	Eng.		Spendo	Spendo	2 6	di si	o wale	and the	Sudan 2		BOX \ BOX	mplulu	France   Industria	0000	See Common	nado?	albado.	200
Block	8	NO COOK		Manual Company	Man i V Bringli	e la	bones I frame	hade h	8 9				Confice   helper	A DROPTO ( ADROSO	paro	paor	panor	n ago	pac
10 kmpc	200	line lo	8	kuba numaolo	imaolo	nakindu	hufe knikume	komezu hu	malu n				prop come	cloner / moner	omogana	kundaaa \ kundaaaa	loudan kudan	ex e	k e
11 hone		icina ko		_	cile	cinan	DON'S WARRANTED	olna						kė.	nine   okus	anion.	CORPUS	CANA	0,00
12 blood	Zines	III III		· E	10/10	juni	dandi 'dondi	dgdyn 2i	. ~			dyapine	d / me	5003	aga	adipa ob	Yaga	303	Yaga Yaga
13 saliva	salive	kammali ka		Crendui	turedesi	sunde	ages	summer is	il cl				ispucia	jugudga \ jumdga	space.	sondri	soudto	sondromi	sosomi
14 heart	2000	kele ce	cendo spagna ke lato go	ce / enemed	cele le	k inda	brue		kinde k				inde	kine	as office	do gose	dowe	dönne	do gosembe
15 being	DO SOUTH	nominin ne	mari in nonin	pitte	nerje	n a	aran	gi Oillo	nde n	nde?i ?i	Onde mo		dei	Pine	nta2	?admnawe	сжбари	Sinde	Sutagoro
16 man	homme	Bernu an	ann 2and	385	8	Zam	0.0 0.0	Sem / Sam R	e su				onca	Pajne	arola	2 indawala	ndanara	cuchen	Potamana
17 father	8 98	ba be	ba: ba	b6 / b6:	28	pa	,8	de	aba b				a l de l	be / being	28	popo	ba	g	ba
18 mother	angun	na na	mar ma	ma / mac	pg	nie nie	, a	u iu		in ni	in a		xda \ ma	na / nane	B	ni	n ene	nene	90
19 child	×	Zin jir	integra		ĘQ.	Smdi	arme?	Since 3	Si Vadam 3					2i \ ?idagi	aciti	u*e	pe	g,	be \ besege
20 manus	mom	sacry in	insum \ in funism \ i fun	dmbolo a	Smi bo	Rindin	n armani	nogn p					-0	- - - - -	Zam2	2 umon	jini	2 imi	2 imi
21 dog	chien	disi nj	njena nema	Sudge	2nd 3n	9,60 00,e	k"reme?		gde 3		Ose G		1 Zua	Pidga	3 <sub>f</sub> ou	ne's ne's	2 in ke	2 ince	7 jnce
22 tail	onorb	dira di		dgila	dgila	club	macd						clut	qup	qip	dib	cuip	qip	diro?
23 bind	oiscan			sadga	sadan	n it	darome?	Appen 8.					323 S323	8383	nedge	nidge	nini	migrave	n imi "e
24 wing	alle			kandga	gandga	carakara c	loo l	k ak ada ku		karkar ka	kar kar an		pam bara	dam, za	gumbegumbe	pere	da"nda	gampa	ganta
22 023	JB 000	hæhu		s	°s.	polit	2	tolu tx					31,0	tahn	elod	pole	port	bou	port
20 smake	modios	ь	Sipleso ?ijofar"	may ar Se	jure	simdyala	kerneke?	nomen ji		£	Tre DA		azhrea	ngagala	g poq mod	nambodgi	nagka	nonka	nuk"a
27 fish	poisson	raasi ni		k"e?ele	k"egele	isp	viek orogina /	diza.	<b>6</b>			disign	EZ3	Cisa	al pos	kog"le	kogote / kogore	ambox	x odure
20 men	viande	ESS.		ESTIMA	COLUMN	nama	0.0	DATE D	ame		nama ma		SHITE	nama	DESCRIPTION	nama	nama	rama	nama
Jan Jan	Section 6	a La	tota trata	Post N		comp	d'a maria	buds I budge	all c		_		mare 1 mores	Part of	of market	takango baba	offina)	cyano.	CHIES
31 1001	mone	20		hahah	9 3	Soudsi	of the last	dib.	S. F.	on and on the			ofine ofine	henden	dolo.	dulu	katai	dom	dom
Posses (d)	-	and the same		100	36.00	ol o	900	of three	9000		-			tol	and decimal	of a		Cardina	d-:
33 games	i z	cs clc.s	cles chaes	- Company	o <sup>7</sup> imi	SOUTH THE SECOND	andre	of other			kem be	ocle ocle	COUL	coep	codti	kođu	kodu	phod	kosi
34 road/path	30,000	Poses Sc	Rosu Zasu	Sudge	Andan:	Rufu	jembe	Rozu R		Podm? R			000	Podyu	pde	2edaj	Zewa.	2 idei	Pisimi
35 salt	los so	ntm mm		mle	me	name	grad 3c / genje	num nc	noon n			Distance of	dn	-88		ne"	mendge	menda	mese
30 file	fen	MI CIM		The same	Just:	npan_6	bhe	g"olo p					igi	200	dren	dyeni	3636	3636	gene
37 smoke	фице	na cmma	cumy cumy	kilkumi	kukumi	k umbu	.92,	kumu/ k		-		como	ocum	k ukrama	cumbe	kumbe	kumbe	kumbe	kumbe
30 mb	ocuque	doczn d	dunzu docsu	alle d	ďě	done:	breatye	dre sub		-	op opun	и	cpún,	Sumo	ale ale	cp	jc,p	<sub>j</sub> qp	ajop
30 might	No.	pirth pir	party jurga	penga \ da?a	penga	ng Dig	jithil		, trip	ana d	af afs	101	age	dige	eg.	ocop	dondo	dumo	dondo
40 moom	luno	Swa Si		ę,	'Sa	sale	*e?				g.	vada S	c6n,	Stepilu	20		j^e	Je S	, al
41 STOR	coole	nbile		nile	tulè	Sasikole	amaluly		handul" i to	_	opopuo jo	op.	ola	tolo	Sodsagele	alageg	i <sup>7</sup> eŋk araŋkara	f ekenek ene	vekonekone
42 day	jont			da?adsi	26 galdya	2 useus	n ethii		_		1931	siga	sand on u	bal \ 2aga	dyc wen		deshendo	cuatrati	genando
423 sky	ciel	8	jacre jaru	Palčík umdůba	Zalakū damba	Zasam	op_saft		alokola 2		24		aligibit ?algilu	?alagala	Zamana kumb		2agara	plranco	Som
44 cloud	anage	13	k"ro kurud	kolo bala	kur kam	kunde kunde	bosos			og c_umpo	-0 (	actif.	Sana kulumo / Sana	Sana kulumo	Sologe	Sale	Same	Caro	Saro
Priin Sh	WORK	Or Or		dedgare.	Redsone	Centani	be ene	Spany	, P		olobo olopo		222	2 Som	Selecte		Seme	Servene	Serveri
48 ram	panie	Carries ca	rug (azu	at at	Sele	/ale	dga	Sanga	, pur	2 ip sus	ana G		ana	2 dmd	comanga		pirago	im cliculd	oficuio
47 water	COL	a	IS I	ng.	da da	260	a a	ndga q		9	<u>a</u>	ejil		100	ä	im	iii	im	iii

dondi
seobogari
(2018)
(2018)
(2018)
(2018)
(2018)
(2018)
(2018)
(2018)
(2018)
(2018)
(2018)
(2018)
(2018)
(2018)
(2018)
(2018)
(2018)
(2018)
(2018)
(2018)
(2018)
(2018)
(2018)
(2018)
(2018)
(2018)
(2018)
(2018)
(2018)
(2018)
(2018)
(2018)
(2018)
(2018)
(2018)
(2018)
(2018)
(2018)
(2018)
(2018)
(2018)
(2018)
(2018)
(2018)
(2018)
(2018)
(2018)
(2018)
(2018)
(2018)
(2018)
(2018)
(2018)
(2018)
(2018)
(2018)
(2018)
(2018)
(2018)
(2018)
(2018)
(2018)
(2018)
(2018)
(2018)
(2018)
(2018)
(2018)
(2018)
(2018)
(2018)
(2018)
(2018)
(2018)
(2018)
(2018)
(2018)
(2018)
(2018)
(2018)
(2018)
(2018)
(2018)
(2018)
(2018)
(2018)
(2018)
(2018)
(2018)
(2018)
(2018)
(2018)
(2018)
(2018)
(2018)
(2018)
(2018)
(2018)
(2018)
(2018)
(2018)
(2018)
(2018)
(2018)
(2018)
(2018)
(2018)
(2018)
(2018)
(2018)
(2018)
(2018)
(2018)
(2018)
(2018)
(2018)
(2018)
(2018)
(2018)
(2018)
(2018)
(2018)
(2018)
(2018)
(2018)
(2018)
(2018)
(2018)
(2018)
(2018)
(2018)
(2018)
(2018)
(2018)
(2018)
(2018)
(2018)
(2018)
(2018)
(2018)
(2018)
(2018)
(2018)
(2018)
(2018)
(2018)
(2018)
(2018)
(2018)
(2018)
(2018)
(2018)
(2018)
(2018)
(2018)
(2018)
(2018)
(2018)
(2018)
(2018)
(2018)
(2018)
(2018)
(2018)
(2018)
(2018)
(2018)
(2018)
(2018)
(2018)
(2018)
(2018)
(2018)
(2018)
(2018)
(2018)
(2018)
(2018)
(2018)
(2018)
(2018)
(2018)
(2018)
(2018)
(2018)
(2018)
(2018)
(2018)
(2018)
(2018)
(2018)
(2018)
(2018)
(2018)
(2018)
(2018)
(2018)
(2018)
(2018)
(2018)
(2018)
(2018)
(2018)
(2018)
(2018)
(2018)
(2018)
(2018)
(2018)
(2018)
(2018)
(2018)
(2018)
(2018)
(2018)
(2018)
(2018)
(2018)
(2018)
(2018)
(2018)
(2018)
(2018)
(2018)
(2018)
(2018)
(2018)
(2018)
(2018)
(2018)
(2018)
(2018)
(2018)
(2018)
(2018)
(2018)
(2018)
(2018)
(2018)
(2018)
(2018)
(2018)
(2018)
(2018)
(2018)
(2018)
(2018)
(2018)
(2018)
(2018)
(2018)
(2018)
(2018)
(2018)
(2018)
(2018)
(2018)
(2018)
(2018)
(2018)
(2018)
(2018)
(2018)
(2018)
(2018)
(2018)
(2018)
(2018)
(2018)
(2018)
(2018)
(2018)
(2018)
(2018)
(2018)
(2018)
(2018)
(2018)
(2018)
(2018)
(2018)
(2018)
(2018)
(2018)
(2018)
(2018)
(2018)
(2018)
(2018)
(2018) in the control of the ceeni
nawo'i reada
nacesa
polob
polob dembé ser les la composition de la composition del composition de la composition de la composition de la composition de la composition del composition de la composition del on "ma" and 

## **Appendix III: Nouns by Categories**

Tonal Type One: /H/

	Gloss	<u>Singular</u>	<u>Plural</u>	Augmentative	Segmental type
a.	father	bốó 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= <u>n</u> è H.H.L	dúgú–bórò H.H.H.L	1
e.	soap	póό <sup>!</sup> kέ HH.M	póókέ=ndè HH.H.L		1
f.	canoe	kíí <sup>n</sup> HH	kí=ndè H.L		2
g.	shade	síí <sup>n</sup> HH	síí=ndè HH.L	síí <sup>n</sup> téŋgò n/a	2
h.	mongoose	síí <sup>n</sup> HH	síí=ndè HH.L	síí–bòrò HH.L.L	2
i.	tail	tíí¹¹ HH	tíí=ndè HH.L		2
j.	basket (small)	t <sup>w</sup> éέ <sup>n</sup> HH	t <sup>w</sup> éέ=ndè HH.L		2
k.	thorn	túú <sup>n</sup> HH	túú=ndè HH.L	túú <sup>n</sup> –bớrò HH.H.L	2
1.	egg	kúú <sup>n</sup> HH	kúú=ndè HH.L	kúú <sup>n</sup> –bớrò HH.H.L	2
m.	pestle (large)	kóʻó <sup>n</sup> HH	kóớ=ndὲ HH.L	kóớ¤–bớrò HH.H.L	2

	n.	money	tóó <sup>n</sup> HH	tóó=ndè HH.L		2
	0.	cream	bóó <sup>n</sup> HH	bóó=ndè HH.L		2
	p.	fence	sáá <sup>n</sup> HH	sáá=ndè HH.L		2
	q.	friend	páá <sup>n</sup> HH	páá=ndὲ HH.L		2
	r.	amulet (waist)	túmí H.H	túmí=ndè H.H.L		3
	S.	fan	jí–rí–ŋgí H.H.H	jíŋgí=ndè H.H.L		6
7	Conal Type Tw	ro: /L/				
		Gloss	<u>Singular</u>	<u>Plural</u>	Augmentative	segmental type
	a.	arm	nnìì LL	nnìì=ndέ LL.Η	nnìì–bớró LL.H.H	1
	b.	field	υὸὸ LL	υὸὸ=ndέ LL.H	vòò–bớró LL.H.H	1
	c.	cow	nnàà LL	nnàà=ndé LL.H	nnàà–bớró LL.H.H	1
	d.	tree	d <sup>w</sup> àà LL	d <sup>w</sup> àà=ndέ LL.H	d <sup>w</sup> àà–bòr̃ó LL.L.H	1
	e.	ear	tàŋà L.L	tàŋà=ndέ L.L.H	tàŋà–bɔ̃ró LL.H.H	1
	f.	hangar	зàŋà L.L	ʒàŋà=ndέ L.L.H		1
	g.	fonio	gàndʒà L.L	gàndʒà=ndé L.L.H	gàndʒà–bɔ̃ró LL.H.H	1
	h.	false	ŋàmbà	ŋàmbà=ndé		1

	sorghum	L.L	L.L.H		
i.	shirt clothing	sòò <sup>n</sup> L	sò=ndέ L.H		2
j.	heart (animals)	tìì <sup>n</sup> L	tìì=ndé L.H	tìì–bòr̃ó LL.LH	2
k.	(same as Ronier) mouse	nnìì <sup>n</sup> LL	nnìì=ndέ LL.H	nnìì–bớró LL.H.H	2
1.	mosquito	b <sup>w</sup> ìè LL	bʷìè=ndé LL.H	bʷìè–bɔ̃ró LL.H.H	3
m.	leg	b <sup>w</sup> èè LL	bʷèè=ndé LL.H	b <sup>w</sup> èè–bɔ́r̃ó LL.H.H	3
n.	termite	çìè LL	çìè=ndé LL.H	cìè–bớró LL.H.H	3
0.	sun	nnèè LL	nnìè=ndé LL.H	nnèè-bóró LL.H.H	3
p.	rainy season	nnìè LL	nnìè=ndέ LL.H	nnìè-bòró LL.L.H	3
q.	heart	vìmmè L.L	vìmmè=ndé L.L.H		3
r.	door	mmìr̃à L.L	mmìr̀à=ndé L.L.H	mmìnnà–bàr̃ó L.L.L.H	5
S.	tomorrow	bòrò L.L	bòrò=ndέ 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=ndέ L.L.H		6
V.	stomach	k <u>óó</u> réé HH.HH	k <u>òò</u> rè=ndé LL.L.H	kòrè–bòr̃ó L.L.LH	6

Tonal Type Three:  $/H/ \sim [HL]$ 

	Gloss	Singular	<u>Plural</u>	Augmentative	segmental type
a.	PPI of Demangari	tóò HL	tớ=ndè H.L		1
b.	village	díjà H.L	díjá=ndè H.H.L		1
c.	neck	kẃà H.L	kẃá=ndè H.H.L	kẃá–bór̀ò 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-bórò H.H.H.L	1
h.	trunk (tree)	tíŋgà H.L	tíŋgá=ndè H.H.L		1
i.	log	kúndù H.L	kúndú= <u>n</u> è H.H.L		1
j.	goat	bíì <sup>n</sup> HL	bíí=ndè HH.L	bíí–bớrò HH.H.L	2
k.	scythe	kóð <sup>n</sup> HL	kóớ= <u>n</u> ὲ HH.L	kóʻn–bʻʻrò HH.H.L	2
1.	leaf	p <sup>w</sup> íè <sup>n</sup> H.L	p <sup>w</sup> éέ <sup>n</sup> =ndὲ H.H.L	pʷíéʰ–bɔ́r̃ò H.H.H.L	2
m.	thing	kéè HH	kéέ=ndὲ HH.L	kéè–bòĩò HH.L.L	3

n.	water	ųίè H.L	ųίė=ndὲ H.H.L	n/a	3
0.	luggage, belongings	kíè HL	kíέ= <u>n</u> ὲ HH.L		3
p.	cheek	kéè HL	kéé=ndè HH.L		3
q.	bark	k <sup>w</sup> éè HL	k <sup>w</sup> éέ=ndὲ 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	kớmé= <u>n</u> è H.H.L		3
u.	scorpion	námbè H.L	námbé=ndè H.H.L		3
v.	leopard	ŋórk <u>é</u> è H.HL	ŋórké=ndè H.H.L		3
W.	grass, weeds	gŭjéè LH.HL	gŭjéé=ndè LH.HH.L		3
Χ.	seed	déémè HH.L	déémé= <u>n</u> è H.HH.L		3
y.	eye	sííbíè HH.HL	sííbíé=ndè HH.HH.L		3
Z.	rope	bójéὲ HH.L	bójéέ=ndè HH.H.L		3
aa.	adze	dóóbè HH.L	dóʻsbέ=ndὲ HHH.L		3

bb.	salt	géŋgíè H. HL	géŋgíé=ndè H.HH.L		3
cc.	bag	ʒέmb <u>í</u> ὲ H.HL	ʒέmbέ=ndὲ H.H.L		3
dd.	change	gómbíè H.HL	góm¹bíé=ndὲ H.MM.L		3
ee.	shroud, trap	káráŋg <u>í</u> è H.H.HL	káráŋgé=ndè H.H.H.L		5
ff.	beetle	kóómbè HH.L	kóómbé=ndè HHH.L		3
gg.	clay	dóróm <u>b</u> è H.H.L	dóró <u>m</u> é=ndè H.H.H.L		3
hh.	bracelet,	dúrúm <u>b</u> è H.H.L	dúrú <u>m</u> é=ndè H.H.H.L		3
ii.	patas monkey	kárámbè H.H.L	kárámbé=ndè H.H.H.L		3
jj.	millet	dé+mèè H.L.L	dé+ <sup>!</sup> mí=ndè H.M.L		4
kk.	cowry shell	tó+mèè H.L.L	tó+¹mí=ndè H.M.L	tóm+èè-bórò H.LL.H.L	4
11.	trimming ax	dóbí+ὲ H.H.L	dóbέ+ <sup>!</sup> mí=ndὲ H.H.M.L		4
mm.	bird	dớré+è H.H.L	dóré+ <sup>!</sup> mí=ndè H.H.M.L		4
nn.	bullfrog	bóm+bớè H.H.L	bómbóέ+ <sup>!</sup> mí=dὲ H.M.M.H.L		4
00.	hare (all forms)	gírímè H.H.L	gírímé+ <sup>!</sup> 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	sííª bóré+è HH H.H.L	síí <sup>n</sup> bóré+ <sup>!</sup> mí=ndè HH H.H.M.L		4
rr.	slit–faced bat	gérí+è H.HL	gérí+ <sup>!</sup> mí=ndè H.H.M.L		4
SS.	bird (sp.)	tó n tóréè H H.HL	tó n tóré+¹mí=ndè H H.H.M.L		4
tt.	onion	ʒáγé+ὲ H.H.L	ʒáγá+ <sup>!</sup> mí=ndὲ 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–bòrò H.L.L.L	5
ww.	bee	mmírò H.L	mmíró=ndè H.H.L	mmíró–bórò H.H.H.L	5
XX.	seed kind	búrúù H.HL	búrúú=ndὲ H.HH.L		5
уу.	cloud	póórò HH.L	póóró=ndὲ HH.H.L	póórò–bòrò HH.L.L.L	5
ZZ.	work	wáárì H.HL	wáárí=ndè H.H.L		5
aaa.	animal	ʒĭríbèè LH.H.LL	ʒĭríbὲέ=ndὲ LH.H.LH.L	ʒĭríbὲ–bòr̃ò LH.H.L.L.L	
bbb.	donkey	kớróŋò H.L	kớróŋớ=ndὲ H.H.H.L	kớróŋó–bớrò H.H.H.H.L	5
ccc.	tied millet	bớróŋkò H.L	bớróŋˈkớ=ndὲ H.H.M.L	bóróŋkó–bórò H.H.H.H.L	5

ddd.	phantom	márágá+ <u>è</u> H.H.H.L	márágá=ndè H.H.H.L		4
eee.	carry on head	çíέ–rὲ HH.L	çíέ=ndὲ HH.L		6
fff.	thigh, falcoln	tóŋgó–rò H.H.L	tóŋgó=ndê H.H.L		6
ggg.	basket	kó–ró–gò H.L	kógó=ndè H.H.H.L	kógó–bớrò H.H.H.H.L	6
hhh.	dove	píυέ–rè H.L	píυέ=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–bórò H.H.H.L	6
jjj.	spit	tújú–rù H.H.L	túqú=ndὲ H.H.L		6
kkk.	nose	súmbí–rì H.L	súmbì=ndè H.H.H.L		6
111.	belly button	bóŋgó–rò H.H.L	bɔ́ŋwíɛ́=ndɛ̂, bɔ́ŋ¹gɔ́=ndɛ̂		6
mmm.	ditch	pómbó–rò H.H.L	pómbó=ndè H.H.L		6
nnn.	bed (bamboo)	sámbá–rà H.H.L	sámbá=ndè H.H.L		6
000.	dry place	tómbó–rò H.H.L	tómbó= <u>n</u> è H.H.L		6
ppp.	courtyard	bémbé–rè H.H.L	bémbé=ndè H.H.L		6

Tonal Type Four:  $/L/ \sim [LH]$ 

	Gloss	Singular	<u>Plural</u>	Augmentative	segmental type
a.	pick axe	dàmá L.H	dàmà=ndέ L.L.H	dàmà-bòró L.L.L.H	1
b.	waist	kùú <sup>n</sup> LH	kù=ndέ L.H		2
c.	child	jàá+mbè LH.L	jàà=ndέ LL.Η	jàá+mbé–bór̃ó LH.H.H.H	3
d.	shoe	kòòkέ L.L.H	kòòkè=ndé LL.L.H	kòòké–bóřó LL.L.H	3
e.	person (compare	3ìbέέ L.HH	ʒìbὲ=ndέ LL.L.H	ʒìbíὲ–bɔ̃r̃ó L.HL.H.H	3
f.	with animal) road	zèmbíè L.HL	ʒὲmbὲ=ndέ L.L.H	zìmbèè-bớró L.LL.H.H	3
g.	letter	sàgòmέ L.L.Η	sàgòmè=ndé LL.L.H		3
h.	rock	símèè H.LL	símèè=ndέ H.LL.H	símèè–bòr̃ó H.LL.L.H	3
i.	dog	kùrì+jèé L.L.LH	kùrì+mì=ndé L.L.L.H	kúrèè–bớró H.LL.H.H	4
j.	star	tòrè+mέ L.L.LH	tòrò+mì=ndέ L.L.L.H		4
k.	dog	kùrìjè+é L.L.LH	kùrì+mì=ndέ L.L.L.H		4
1.	fish (sp)	nògó+ὧέ L.H.H	nògò+mì=ndé L.L.L.H		4
m.	door	mìr̃à L.L	mìr̃à=ndέ L.L.H	mìnnà–bòr̃ó L.L.L.H	5
n.	chain	зэ̀rògú L.L.Н	zòrògù=ndé L.L.L.H		5

	0.	sheep	ŋàmbà–rá L.L.H	ŋàmbà=ndέ L.L.H	ŋàmbà–bòr̃ó L.L.L.H	6	
	p.	buttock	tùkú–rú L.H.H	tù–kù=ndé L.L.H		6	
Tonal T	ype Fiv	re: /LH/					
		Gloss	Singular	<u>Plural</u>	Augmentative		Segmental Type
	a.	wilderness	nàá LH	nàá=ndè LH L	n/a		1
	b.	horse	vòó LH	υὸό=ndὲ LH.L	vòó–bớrò 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–bớrò L.HH.H.L		1
	e.	plank	kờớ <sup>n</sup> LH	kòʻndè LH.L			2
	f.	back, trunk	gìí <sup>n</sup> LH	gìí=ndé LH.L			2
	g.	oil, spleen	n ŋʷìέ LH	n ŋʷìé=ndè LH.L			3
	h.	world	gàʒέ <sup>n</sup> L.H	gàǯє́=ndè L.H.L			3
	q.	calabash	kùψ <u>ì</u> έ LL.H	kùųέ=ndὲ LH.L			3
	i.	metal	gèngé L.H	gèŋgé= <u>n</u> è LH.L	gèŋgé–bớrò L.H.H.L		3
	j.	crocodile	gèŋg <u>í</u> è L.HL	gèŋgé= <u>n</u> è LH.L	gèŋgè–bớrò L.L.H.L		3

	k.	owl	gŭmbí LH.H	gùmbí+ <sup>!</sup> mí=ndè L.H.M.L	:	4
	1.	karite tree	wùré+è L.H.L	wùré+mí=ndè L.H.H.L		4
	m.	stick, medicine	bùr̃á L.H	bùr̃á=ndè L.H.L		5
	n.	corn	bìròndó LH	bìròndó=ndè LH L	bìràndó–bárò L.L.H.H.L	5
	0.	woman	nnìé–rè LH.L	nnìé= <u>n</u> è LH.L		6
	p.	sheep	ŋàmbà–rá L.L.H	ŋàmbá=ndè LH.L	ŋàmbà–rá–bórò L.L.H.H.L	6
Tonal Ty	ype Six	: /HL/				
		Gloss	Singular	<u>Plural</u>	Augmentative	Segmental Type
		_				
	a.	mother	nníjà HL	nníjà=ndé HL.H		1
	a. b.	shadow, image, photograph	•			1
		shadow, image,	HL gíĵà	HL.Η gíĵò=ndέ		
	b.	shadow, image, photograph	HL gíjò H.L 3óò <sup>n</sup>	HL.H gíĵὸ=ndέ H.L.H ʒὸ=ndέ		1
	b. c.	shadow, image, photograph rain, sky	HL  gíĵὸ  H.L  3όὸ <sup>n</sup> H.L  góὸ <sup>n</sup>	HL.H  gíĵò=ndé H.L.H  3ò=ndé L.H  góò=ndé	L.H.H góòn–bóñó	2
	b. c. d.	shadow, image, photograph rain, sky	HL  gíĵò H.L  3óòn H.L  góòn HL  póòn	HL.H  gíĵò=ndé H.L.H  3ò=ndé L.H  góò=ndé HL.H  póò=ndé	L.H.H  góò <sup>n</sup> —bářó  HL.H.H  póò <sup>n</sup> —bářó	1 2 2

h.	ashes	tíqè H.L	tíψὲ=ndέ H.L.H			3
i.	chicken	súųìè H.LL	súųìὲ=ndέ H.LL.H			3
j.	step	góòmpá HL.H	góòmpà= <u>n</u> έ HL.L.H			3
k.	hat	gíwárà H.H.L	gíwárà= <u>n</u> é H.H.L.H			5
1.	pidgeon	wúúrè H.H.L	wúúrè=ndé H.H.L.H			5
m.	wasp hornless ram	gúmbá–rà H.H.L	gúmbà=ndέ H.L.H	gúmbá–rà- H.H.L.H.I		6
n.	resources	námbó–rò H.H.L	námbò=ndέ H.H.L.H			6
0.	skullcap	bómbó–rò H.H.L	bómbò=ndέ H.H.L.H			6
p.	face, forehead	tégó–rò H.H.L	tégò=ndέ H.H.L.H			6
heart, mouth	bìmmè	bìmmè=ndé	nnóò		nnό̀ò=ndέ	
	L	LH	Н		HLH	
throat, ear	kẃà	kẃá=ndè	tàŋà		tàŋà=ndé	
	HL	HL	L		LH	
nose, eye	súmbì	súmbì=ndέ	sííbíè		sííbíé=ndè	
	Н	HL	HL		HL	
stomach	kòríé	kòrì=ndé	súyè		súųέ=ndè	

breast	LH	LH	HL	HL
beard, hair	sémbò/sámbó	sémbó=ndè	dègè kúųí	dègè kúųí=ndè
	HL	HL	LH	L HL
earth, sky	gùwíè	gùwέ=ndὲ	ŋárá n dɔ́gò	ŋárá n dógó=ndè
	LHL	LHL	HL	HL
genitles	guru		bóŋwíè	bόŋwíέ=ndè
belly button			HL	HL
thigh, calf	tóŋgórò	tóŋgóró=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	nóó n síì <sup>n</sup>	nóó n síín=ndè
	LHL	LHL	HL	HL

# **Appendix IV: Reduplicated Verbs**

	Reduplicated Stem	Gloss	Related	Gloss
a.	báŋgá m báŋgà	hold a baby, etc. in your arms	bàŋgá	carry on shoulder
b.	bárágá m bárágà mì	lie straight		
c.	bímbó bímbò	whisper		
d.	dógòrò n dògòrò	congratulate		
e.	dùyí dúyì	dream		
f.	gărándzá ŋ gărándzà	scrape		
g.	gúndú nà gúndù	whisper		
h.	kámbárā ŋ kámbárà	squeeze	kámbá–rà	pull out a splinter
i.	kángó n kángò	hold something in one's mouth without biting it		
j.	káráá ŋ káràà	read, study	káràà	obtain
k.	kówóndò kówóndò	dry		
1.	kómbó kómbò	pinch		
m.	kúgújá n kúgújà	crumple (paper or clothing)		
n.	kúmbò ŋ kúmbò	search, wander	kúmbó–rò	follow
0.	k <sup>w</sup> aa k <sup>w</sup> aa	beg		
p.	nándá nándà	dent inward		
q.	píndò pìndò	swell		
r.	sàkà n sáká	choke		
S.	júmbá–rà	pull (large things)		
t.	n ŋʷímá ŋʷímà	twist		
u.	tébé à n tèbè	clap 'pound the palm'		

#### **Appendix V: Chief Texts 1 - 10**

#### Text I: Chief 1

### MORPHEMES GLOSS

#### FREE TRANSLATION

=nέ nii 1 ndè màá= –L tí n dá -H hún báráà n nò -ò –rí 1.PL.POSS person sit PL 3.PL ~2 INC T come RV 3 -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 =nd\(\hat{\epsilon}\) w\(\hat{\epsilon}\)r\(\hat{\epsilon}\) −L n jáq −H nò -L–à -ò 3 3 T cut RV 3 come RV Baraa INHAB PL go

[the] People of Baara went [and] they came [to] cut (settle) [there].

3nii kóó n wó ŋ káárà -L, péυέ -rè bíé níì ŋ káràà -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 pévέ -rè bíé níì N kà<br/>àrà -L , nii m mó<br/>ò  $\eta$  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 kớờ n bú -rà nii tìw - $\acute{o}$  -H hú<sup>n</sup> . 3.PL CPL T move out of -rV- 3.PL fall RV 3 PP

*They left, they fell (lived) on [there].* 

6 bà<br/>àrà 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 báràà gíí hùn nó -ó -H kó nínà á Jijòn Baraa back PP come RV 3 CPL say now

[we] Came after them, Bara now said.

8 nii ŋ kàà -w̃á -H máá= -H bwóòn 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 káràà -L à páŋgá =nè ŋ 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 bóò<sup>n</sup> kóó jàá –H á gàndà –L dà –L ŋ 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 níì 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 kàmá m bú —rà nò —ò —L tíj —ò —H hù<sup>n</sup> bóò<sup>n</sup> 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 gíí<sup>n</sup> hù<sup>n</sup>
Baraa 3 CPL come RV 3 back PP

Baara came afterwards.

15 kớ  
ớ nó 
$$-$$
ó  $-$ H  $\psi$ ì  
è  $-$ L á tí  
é  $-$ H hù  
n . CPL come RV 3 ascend 3 CHN sit 3 PP

They came [and] ascended to live on [there].

16 kámá nìí ná nii mí kàà 
$$-\tilde{w}$$
á  $-H$  màá $=$   $-H$  bóò $^n$  n wàj CPL say 3.PL REFL old  $-rV-$  3 POSS 3 Bunu  $\sim$ 2 PP

They said they are older than Bounou's age.

Bounou did not see [how] they [could be] older than us.

*They found us.* 

#### Text II: Chief II

1 bàráá –mí =ndè wò jàg -ú −H nàà màà= jàà =ndέ η kí **INHAB** =PL go cut PRF 1st PL POSS child =PL ~2 ADP Baraa 3 -Hnáà wilderness 3

The people of Baraa went [and] attacked our children [in the] wilderness.

2 níí N kóórèè níí N dèg –ú –H síì<sup>n</sup> 3.PL T war 3.PL T hit PRF 3 RECIP

They made war, they hit each other,

3 há 3íí<sup>n</sup> à búù<sup>n</sup> until blood CHN move out of

until blood came out.

4 hájá né màá= jíbè =né ŋ kẃà nii ŋ kì
OK 1st PL POSS person =PL ~2 able 3.PL ~2 thing

OK, our people beat them.

5 hájá dínd –à nìì màá= –H jíbè =né
OK stop RV 3rd PL POSS 1 person =PL

OK, my people stopped them.

6 jíbèè tóórè há à bààrèmì ŋ –wè person one until CHN hurt ~2 STAT

Until one person was hurt.

7 hájá n dígà ŋ kóó n twá —ràà Bánìgàrà OK ~2 talk ~2 CPL T reach —rV— Bandiagara

OK, [the] talk reached Bandiagara.

8 ŋ wí bún -d -í Bànìgàrà ~2 there finish -r- PRF Bandiagara

There [it] finished [in] Bandiagara.

9 hájá dáà bún —d —í Bánìgàrà OK INC finish —r— PRF Bandiagara

OK, [it] was finished [in] Bandiagara.

10 bìì<sup>n</sup> núndí year five

[for] Five years,

11 à bìì<sup>n</sup> nùndì ŋ kò ,

DEF year five ~2 PP

in the five years,

12 hà mớc síí nế màá= kúú $^{\rm n}$ , until heal by spitting 1st PL POSS hip

until [the elders] healed our back[s],

13 bìì<sup>n</sup> núndí year five

five years,

14 nii nii dígà ŋ kó nìì màà= wóré 3.PL 3.PL talk ~2 PP 3rd PL POSS go

their talk lasted.

15 ha mε tes mínnà. IRR no where

They were not allowed to go anywhere.

16 há bìì<sup>n</sup> núndí déẁ<sup>n</sup> IRR year five full

Until [five] years was up,

17 nìì síè mὲ =ndέ sòɣ -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 n kaw kì póśré =nè kì pà<sup>n</sup>  $\sim 2$  DEM thing black =PL thing all

All the Africans,

2 tùbùkù n gòmbé —H níì wòrè —L foreigner T allow 3 3.PL go 3

the whites left them go.

3 kì póóré nníì kóó ná -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 bù ù  $^n$  —mì N sì é —H bà ŋà = né kì pà  $^n$  . 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 búú<sup>n</sup> -mì =ndé máà bààrà -mì =ndé màá= -L dégè Bunu INHAB =PL EXIST Baraa 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 nníì n dìjá –L kíìjè 3.PL GEN village 3 seven

[the Bangande] They [are] seven villages.

7 à dìjà —L kííjè ŋ kàẁ . DEF village DEF seven ~2 DEM

Those seven villages.

8 à túbàkù =nè nníì gòmbé –H à lààm DEF foreigner =PL 3.PL allow 3 DEF rule The whites gave up control [to] them,

9 à kì póśrέ =nὲ wàj .

DEF thing black =PL PP

to the Africans.

10 ŋ kàẃ jìró díjà pó because of that village each

Because of that each village,

11 kóó láàm dégè CPL rule head

controlled itself.

12 ŋ kàw bún -d  $-\acute{a}$  -H tùbákù =nế bùù $^n$  .  $\sim$ 2 DEM make move out CAUS RV 3 foreigner =PL Bunu

That [is what] [the] whites took out [of] Bounou.

13 hájá díjà pà ${\rm a}^n$  kốó lá ${\rm a}^n$  á n dégè OK village all CPL rule DEF GEN himself/herself

OK, all the villages took control over themselves,

14 kàmá n jíró mì because of that PASS

that is what did that.

### **TEXT IV: Chief IV**

1 à pùùtá =né nníi jié -H nníi 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 pwándà =né jáárī DEF Fulani =PL very

the Fulani, very much.

3 nníì N káráá –H máà –L páá<sup>n</sup> . 3.PL T find 3 POSS 3 all

If they find them,

4 nníí màá= -H kwá 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 nnìì ŋ kàmá —H tígè 3.PL ~2 CPL 3 run

they ran.

7 nníì káó N pérò 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 kíí póóré =né wàj DEF thing black =PL PP

to the Africans,

10 nnìì nnà á tòó =né
3.PL COOR DEF people of Demangari, etc =PL

they [cried out] to the people of Demangari.

11 nnìì kàmá N jé —rò kẃà tòrè 3.PL CPL T become —rV— voice one

They became one voice.

12 nnìì kàmá N ná -n -à á málpà =né 3.PL CPL T take -r- RV DEF rifle =PL

They took the rifles.

13 nnìì kámá N tág —à á pùndà —L =nế á
3.PL CPL T grab RV DEF Fulani DEF =PL DEF
púútà =nế n nìì
Fulani who enslaved people =PL GEN hand

They grabbed them [from] the Fulani enslaver's hands.

14 nnìì 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 mínnà
COMP place, location

they grabbed the Fulani [from] the place which the enslaver's hand[s] [were].

15 hájá à pùùtá —L kóó tígè wàj
OK DEF Fulani who enslaved people DEF CPL run STAT

OK, the Fulani enslavers ran.

16 á pùndà –L =nέ η k56 N bár –àà η wì DEF Fulani DEF =PL ~2 CPL T remain RV ~2 there

The Fulani remained there,

17 há nii maa ŋárákì á tíè . IRR 3.PL.POSS thought, mind CHN sit

until they were calm.

18 nii maa ŋáràkì ŋ kó dógòndò .3.PL.POSS remember

They remembered.

19 á báŋgà =ndέ nnìì á N μà -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 ŋ kàmá nnú -ú -H mì 3.PL.POSS last name ~2 CPL come PRF 3 PASS.CPL

Their last name had came,

21 ŋ kámá n dĭkó ~2 CPL GEN Dicko

to be Dicko.

22 nii maa η góờ<sup>n</sup> –mè 3.PL.POSS GEN man DIM Their manhood.

23 ŋ 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 gíjò<sup>n</sup> 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 síi<sup>n</sup> 3.PL Bandiagara gather, meet PRF RV 3 RECP *they met together [in] Bandiagara,* 

3 bánìgárá à húbér ŋ kóò Bandiagara DEF judge GEN house

[in] Bandiagara in the judge's house.

The mayor of Jewol said to give

4 ŋ kàmà -L niŋá à kúmándán hà n náw ~2 CPL 3 say DEF commandant IRR T give

5 bángá —rí páá<sup>n</sup> wàj person who is of the Banga race —rV— all PP *all the Bangande to him.* 

6 tíndè n kóó nìná 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 báŋgέ —rè paan wàj SG 3 said people who speak Bangime —rV— all PP He said, [give] all the Bangande to me.

8 tíndè kàmá nìŋá nè sìí<sup>n</sup> grandfather CPL say what

Grandfather said 'what?'

9 ŋ kàmá N jié -H à náw màá= -L párì ~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 tín –d –à yúúr –ù ~2 INC go 3 IRR T start –r– RV kill PRF He goes to start [to] kill (him).

11 á kúmándá<sup>n</sup> nníí kámá jì –rá –L ă 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 ŋ káráà -H OK 3.PL go PRF 3 find 1

OK, they got [grandfather].

He [grandfather] got angry.

14 nnìì kóó N síè tíndè há púndà wáj 3.PL CPL T take grandfather IRR Fulani PP

They took grandfather from the Fulani,

15 há só wò qùnd –ù wàj IRR know go far PRF PP until [they] knew he went far away,

16 n kí sáà<sup>n</sup> à púndá mínd –ì wò qùnd –ù wàj ~2 thing descend DEF Fulani think PRF go far PRF STAT until the Fulani thought he was far away,

- 17 há só nniì n daw min —ra wo —L qùnd —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 ŋ kóó mínd -á tíndè bíè mí -H káràà
  DEF Fulani ~2 CPL think RV grandfather NEG SG 3 obtain
  The Fulani thought grandfather could not get them.

19 nnìì kóó N gómbè tíndè wórè káw sàn
3.PL CPL T allow grandfather go then, at that time

They left grandfather alone at that time.

20 tíndè jíè á tígé –rε m pé bíè káràà 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 bíé 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 bíé míé há<sup>n</sup> làám màà= -L báŋgá =ndè bóndò NEG think IRR rule POSS= 3 Banga person =PL again He did not think to control the Bangande again.

23 tíndè búú<sup>n</sup> dà ŋ káŵ 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 kέὲ OK ~2 CPL 3 T take RV head ~2 PRF

He desired to chop the Fulani.

25hájá η kàmá –H N tág –à dègè η kέὲ OK ~2 CPL 3 T take RV head ~2 PRF

OK, he controlled himself.

## **TEXT VI: Chief VI**

1 góờ nộ níi tímbá n wì N bú  $-\tilde{r}$  —à búú n . ancient king of Bounou ~2 there T from, come from —r— RV Bunu . The king is from Bounou there.

2 kóò -L n yíè 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 káráà n díjà mế páw dá ŋ 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  $-\varepsilon$  —L  $\mathfrak{g}$  kíí páá<sup>n</sup> à gúy -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 dijà —L =né mé =nè dá ŋ wí gógónì ŋ kò .

DEF village DEF =PL COMP =PL INC ~2 there Gogoni ~2 PP

The villages which are in/at Gogoni.

6 kớờ n dég  $-\epsilon$  —L à gúy —ù nnìì 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 nnìì kớc bú  $-\tilde{r}$  —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 nníí kóò wòrè –L tíé –wè búú<sup>n</sup> 3.PL CPL go 3 sit STAT Bunu

They went [and] sat (lived) [at] Bounou.

10 búú<sup>n</sup> bú  $-\tilde{r}$  —à  $\eta$  wí búú<sup>n</sup>  $\eta$  kò Bunu move out of —r— RV ~2 there Bunu ~2 PP Bounou came out of there, from Bounou (?)

11 k56 –H wòrè à dín –έ 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 kóò nnó -ó -H à dín -έ símèè hù<sup>n</sup> CPL come RV 3 CHN stand RV rock PP He came and stood on the rocks,

13 há nníí n só -rí -jò until 3.PL T throw down -rV-*until he threw them down*,

14 há nníí n só -rí -jò until 3.PL T throw down -rV-

until he threw them down,

15 há nníí n à tígé m bu  $-\tilde{w}$   $-\hat{\epsilon}$  . until 3.PL ~2 CHN run T move out of PRF RV until they ran away.

16 mì -L hòn kóò 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 kéérí –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 nnìì hù<sup>n</sup> OK emphatic do –rV– trick 3.PL PP *OK, he fooled them.* 

20 há nìì máà jàà =ndé ŋ gúy —ì à bốréè hù<sup>n</sup> 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 bíè síé à bóréè m bíè 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 sàà<sup>n</sup> 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 mế páw bíè káráà 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 sàà<sup>n</sup> há jáá –wè . IRR allow NEG fall descend IRR die STAT

He allows [her] fall and to die.

26 hájá dá n ká n 3íè nníí n súráà . OK INC  $\sim$ 2 DEM T do 3.PL T look

OK, they looked [at] that (what) he had done.

 $27 \, \text{ŋ}$  káw n tégé bíè gáŵ^n  $\sim 2$  DEM GEN not pretty, ugly

It was not pretty.

28 à dìjà —L ŋ 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 boro boro . 3.PL CPL T dig well AUG AUG

They dug a very big well.

30 kégé -rè dá n sóg -5 -rò mat -rV- INC  $\sim 2$  close RV -rV-

It is closed [with] a mat

31 nníí n kóò N jéndó nníí mè pétù 3.PL ~2 CPL T call 3.PL.POSS celebration

They called [him] [for] their fete.

32 nníí sáná n sánà wàj 3.PL play ~2 play PP

They played (with him).

33 hájá nníí kóò bín —d —ò a kege bíínàw OK 3.PL CPL lay (smth or sme) down —r— RV DEF mat middle They put the mat in the middle.

34 té -rò bíínò mέ mìnnà sit -rV- middle COMP place, location

That which was set in the middle place,

35 há níí ŋà N gómb -íè màà= -L tùù mé mìnnà
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 syèè
CPL 3 sink CHN descend

He sank and fell.

37 à níi ŋà há gómb -iè mì -L páw CHN say IRR turn about RV SG 3 all They said for him to turn around.

38 há syèè —L páw IRR descend 3 all

He descended.

39 nníí kóò ŋ káráà syèè —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-  $\sim 2$  also They also threw down,

41 sé náw à gúy —ì ná mé mìnnà if take CHN throw PRF INC COMP place, location to the place at which he throws them,

42 támáà sígóò màá= jàà 300 EXIST die 300 [people] will die.

43 sé gúy —ì ná bòndò támáà sígóò màá= jàà if throw PRF INC again 300 EXIST die

If he throws into that place, 300 die, if he throws again,

44 nníí ŋ kóò síé hù<sup>n</sup> kúrúmà –wàj 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 kwáà ŋ ki à ʒíè à kèèsì

NEG able ~2 thing CHN do DEF nothing

He could not do anything.

46 n tígè sié hù<sup>n</sup>,  $\sim$ 2 also take PP

He too, he tried,

47 há nníí à ŋ kwáà ŋ ki
IRR 3.PL CHN ~2 able ~2 thing

until they could [kill] him.

48 há kúrúmà N syèè —L—wè IRR crumple T descend 3 STAT until he crumpled,

49 nnìì  $\,$  n kámáà  $\,$  N só -rí -jò  $\,$  N  $\,$  3úúr -ù  $\,$  3.PL  $\,$  2 CPL  $\,$  T know -rV-  $\,$  T kill  $\,$  PRF

they threw down on him until they killed him.

50 góờ<sup>n</sup> ŋò níí tímbá ancient king of Bounou

The king.

51 kéérí –mí =nè nníí kóò à lààmà nnìì Kete INHAB =PL 3.PL CPL DEF rule 3.PL

The people of Kete, they ruled themselves.

- 52 góờ<sup>n</sup> ηὸ níí tímbá η wì m bú -r̄ -à kóò N yíè ancient king of Bounou ~2 there T come from -r- RV DEM T ascend The king came from there he ascended.
- 53 kốo ŋ wòrè -L à lààmì à náà ŋ ki páá<sup>n</sup> ŋ wì CPL ~2 go 3 DEF rule DEF wilderness ~2 thing all ~2 there *He ruled all everything in the wilderness*.
- 54 kéérí –mí =nè n tígè kóó N tág –à à náà ŋ kéè .

  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 quúr −ù nníí hòn
  ~2 also T kill PRF 3.PL emphatic

He killed them too (before he died).

56 à túbákú =nè ŋ kwáà à kíí póóré =nè ŋ 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).

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

At the time which he ruled the place,

he killed.

63 né tígè mé búrúù 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 nnìì wòré -H kínd -ú á póóríè 3.PL go 3 dig PRF DEF well

They go dig the well.

2 sẽ gúy  $-\hat{\epsilon}$  m $\hat{\epsilon}$  pà<sup>n</sup> 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 nnìì n tígè kàmá n síè hù<sup>r</sup> 3.PL GEN also CPL T take PP

They also took [rocks].

5 kúr̃úmá –H –wàj bíè ŋ kwáà ŋ ki kéésì crumple 3 STAT NEG ~2 able ~2 thing nothing

He crumpled, unable to do anything.

6 há nnìì jáá –H qùùr –ú ŋ kέὲ until 3.PL die 3 kill PRF ~2 PRF

Until they killed him.

7 góờ<sup>n</sup> ŋò nnìì tímbá man 3.PL man of all talents

[the] Ancient King of Bounou

8 kàmá -H bú  $-\tilde{r}$   $-\dot{a}$   $\eta$  wí CPL 3 from, come from -r RV  $\sim$ 2 there

He left [was moved] from there

9 kớ  
ớ 
$$-H$$
 ŋ wòré ègínì góớn ŋònnì  
ì CPL 3  $\sim$ 2 go make move man

They went [and] made [the] ancient king move.

$$10 \text{ mà\'a}= -H \text{ 3\'ib\`e\`e} -H = n\'e \text{ k\'i} \text{ pà^n}$$

$$POSS \quad 1 \quad \text{person} \quad 1 \quad = PL \text{ thing all}$$

All my people

[no one] remained until (except) the people of Kete

Those ones, my village, were giving water to him

they said they would not make war against him (because he is bigger than them)

Their people give

He went and their people were

Thrown and killed into the bush (here he refers to the fact that the king killed the children when they wouldnt get the fruits)

They cannot (fight) with you

they killed him

Demangari got a field (because he happen to come upon the fight so the people of Kete gave him a field)

The people of Neyon came upon

their war

for this reason, Demangari got a valley

A person from Demangari also came upon (the war)

His father was their chief before

Rice [was cultivated] in the valley

Rice was cultivated there

In the people of Demangari's fields

Now he came upon their war

they killed him (the King)

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 déέ

Demangari inhabitants of NEG T cultivate

the people of Demangari did not cultivate there (before the war)

If Bounou and Demangari squabble,

33 nnìì há waaramɛ jé sii<sup>n</sup> gíí<sup>n</sup> hú<sup>n</sup> 3.PL IRR witness become RECIP back PP

Tin Taw becomes the witness.

Tin Tawn knows whose boundary (because Tin Tawn and Bounou are the oldest villages in the valley).

35 saa ŋ kaw démàngàrí –máà bíè ŋ wí tón–tá bíè ŋ if 
$$\sim$$
2 DEM Demangari inhabitants of NEG  $\sim$ 2 there clan of Demangari NEG  $\sim$ 2 wí there

if the person from Demangari is not there, their clan is not there.

Our houses are together.

## **Text VIII: Chief VIII**

1 ŋ wòré -H bùwó mìnnà náà ~2 go 1 herd place, location wilderness I went [to the] place [in the] wilderness [where we] herd.

2 kố n wòré –H N káráà nốrkè siế màá= –H bìì<sup>n</sup> –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 mìnnà
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 ŋórkèè kóò N nò -ò -L síé màá= -H bìì<sup>n</sup> -L leopard CPL T come IMPV 3 take POSS 1 year 1

A leopard came and took my goat.

6 màá= -H bìì<sup>n</sup> -L kóò níí ŋà "weeee '
POSS 1 goat 1 CPL say weeeee!

My goat said "weeee".

7 níí ŋà "weeee " páá<sup>n</sup> kóò n tígè say weeee! all CPL ~2 run He said "weeee" [and] he ran.

8 ŋ kớó wòré -H ~2 CPL go 1 I went,

9 kóó N káráà à ŋórkèè .
CPL T find DEF leopard
and found the leopard.

10 kóờ<sup>n</sup> màá= -H bìì<sup>n</sup> -L ŋ kứà ŋ kέὲ. break POSS 1 goat 1 GEN neck ~2 PRF He broke my goat's neck.

11 kόὸ<sup>n</sup> màà= –L kứà ŋ kέὲ .
break POSS= 3 neck ~2 PRF

He broke his neck.

12 kớ<br/>ó n tíg -i  $-r\grave{\epsilon}$  m pè . CPL ~2 run RV PRF ~2 PP<br/>
I ran after him.

13 há wòré –H N qúnd –ù .
until go 1 T far PRF

I went far.

14 bíé -H ŋ káráà ŋórkèè . NEG 1  $\sim$ 2 obtain leopard I did not get the leopard

15 hájá k<br/>
56 wòré -H ŋ káráà màá= -H bìì<br/> -L dà jàà -wè<br/>
OK CPL go 1  $\sim$ 2 find POSS 1 goat 3 INC die STAT

Ok, I found that my goat died.

16 kóò jág -á -H màà= -L kwà
CPL cut RV 1 POSS= 3 neck
I slaughtered him.

## **TEXT IX: Chief IX**

1 n wó -r'e -H bíí  $=\text{n\`e}$  bùwóndì 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 níŋé níŋè place where goats are herded

Place where goats are herded.

3 gúwóndíjè me ka N dò à míndé (  $mu^n$  ) maa= bii =nè caracal COMP CPL T come CHN enter enter POSS goat =PL túmbárì . among, between

Caracal (cat species) came and entered in between my goats.

4 bíì<sup>n</sup> kííjè . goat seven

Seven goats.

5 tíjè jìndò tààró n néè núndì kěèré kííjì one two two four five six seven

One two three four five six seven.

6 bíì<sup>n</sup> kííjè daw N si –L màà= bíí =nè n túmbárì goat seven INC T take 3 POSS= goat =PL ~2 among, between

He entered in among seven goats.

7 dáw n tàg —à —L nnìì . INC T grab INC 3 3.PL

He grabbed/snatched them.

8 ŋ kàmá n nà -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 kííjè .

CPL T hang tree branch

he hung from a tree limb

11 ka n jì kíì kù maa –H kóó hùn CPL T fall with force POSS 1 shoulder PP

He fell on my shoulders with force.

12 a / η gùwóndíjὲ N ka à tag -a -H mì η kέὲ.

DEF T caracal T CPL CHN agree RV 1 reflexive ~2 PRF

The cat took himself (and left).

13 ns daw= / n daw síì<sup>n</sup> N kur -a / hú<sup>n</sup> àà dúgú  $\mathfrak{g}$  kó . 1.PL INC= INC APP T meet RV PP DEF dense forest ~2 PP We met in the forest.

14 á bíí =ndè níì à buwo jogo .

DEF goat =PL 3.PL CHN leave, go out outside

The goats they went outside.

15 ka N súràà níì . CPL T look 3.PL

I looked (at) them.

16 ka ŋ wòré à kaara –L námbà tórè bíè níì m túmbárì 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 bíì<sup>n</sup> N túmbárì . sheep one NEG DEF goat T among, between

(I found) one sheep wasn't among the goats.

18 ka míndè à dúgú  $\mathfrak{g}$  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 ʃǐyè ŋ kè .

DEF caracal make move out POSS 1 breast ~2 PRF

The cat took off its breast/utter.

21 gúwóndíj $\hat{\epsilon}$  bíi $\hat{n}$  kííj $\hat{\epsilon}$  màá= ságì  $-n\hat{\epsilon}$  , caracal goat seven POSS eight cardinal number (nd, rd, th)

The cat (took) seven goats, the eighth,

22 màá= ságì -H N karaa -H–nέ ka wò –ré POSS eight cardinal number (nd, rd, th) CPL ~2 go **PRF** 1 T find 1 η kέὲ yùr –ú PRF ~2 PRF kill

The eighth I found was killed.

23 gúwóndíjè káẃ bíè ŋʷòròké . caracal DEM NEG leopard

The caracal is not a leopard.

24 gǔwóndíjè . 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.

-H n dég 26 sé daw wò –ré –έ –H pààn à -ré wàj. tìgé if INC go **PRF** T hit PRF PP 1 RV 1 all CHN run If you (stop) to hit it, he runs.

27 há wòré à si —L kíì 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 dé<sup>n</sup> kíì kííjè .

INF T fill thing seven

until he has seven.

30 tág -ù kíì kííjè mè mínnà .

take PRF thing seven which place, location

at the place which he took out the seven,

31 ká m búnd -à à bìì =ndɛ́ jógò .

CPL T take out RV DEF goat =PL outside

he takes the goats outside.

32 k'a n súràà níì pà<sup>n</sup> . CPL T look 3.PL all

I looked at them all.

33 ká  $\eta$  wo -re -H  $\eta$  káràà -L nîî bíè tîè -ré . CPL  $\sim$ 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 súrà à dúgú n kó . CPL go PRF 1 T look DEF dense forest  $\sim 2$  PP

I went to look in the forest.

35 ká púwóndò ka m wo –re ŋ káràà –L n yúr –ú ŋ kéè .

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 bùú<sup>n</sup> Dan 1.PL T move out of Dan

They left Daan.

2 nnìì N bú -rà Dan 3.PL T move out of -rV- Dan

They came out of Dan.

3 nnìì káw<sup>n</sup> wòrè —L wúrò jéw
3.PL CPL go 3 village of Jewol

They left the village of Jewol.

4 nnìì kàẃ¹ bú —rà wùró jέẁ
3.PL CPL move out of —rV— village of Jewol

They came out of the village of Jewol.

5 nnìì káw<sup>n</sup> wòrè -L  $\eta$  wì . 3.PL CPL go 3 ~2 there

They went there.

6 nnìì kóó —H wórè —H jèŋé . 3.PL CPL 3 go 3 Yenge

They went [to] Yenge.

7 nnìì qu —ra yéŋè 3.PL ascend —rV— Yenge They ascended Yenge.

They went [to] Bounou.

9 nnìì bú 
$$-\tilde{r}$$
 -á búù<sup>n</sup> 3.PL move out of -r- RV Bunu

They went out [of] Bounou.

They lived there until today. (they are still living here today)

The rain (gods) were pleased.

# Appendix VI: Chief Map

(history of from where Bounou moved)

```
1 múwí táràà
 today Tuesday
Today [is] Tuesday.
2 bìnd
              bùù<sup>n</sup> màá=
                            -L níí
        IMP Bunu POSS
 write
                            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 mέ
                                    mìnnà
 1.PL T move out of -rV- COMP place, location
[The] place from which we came.
5 dáà<sup>n</sup> .
 Daan
Daan.
6 nníì bú
                    -ràà dáàn .
 3.PL move out of -rV- Daan
They came from Daan
7 nnìì kóò nnò
                   -ò wùrò jéwò
 3.PL CPL come
                   RV village of Jewol
```

They came [to] Wuro Jewol.

8 nnìì bú -ràà wùrò jéwó .

3.PL move out of -rV- village of Jewol

They left from Wuro Jewol.

9 nníì kóó N nó -ó -H jègèè 3.PL CPL T come RV 3 Jege

They came to Jege.

10 nnìì N bú -ràà jègèè . 3.PL T move out of -rV- Jege

They left Jege.

11 nníí kóò wòrè -L bóngórò . 3.PL CPL go 3 Bongoro

They went to Bongoro.

12 góờ  $^n$  nò níí tímbá k<br/> kớo N sóớ  $^-$ è nnìì à gúy  $^-$ è .<br/> ancient king of Bounou CPL T throw down RV 3.PL CHN throw RV

The ancient king of Bounou threw them down.

13 nníí kóò N bú -ràà bóngórò . 3.PL CPL T move out of -rV- Bongoro

They left Bongoro.

14 góờ<sup>n</sup> ŋò níí tímbá ancient king of Bounou

Ancient king of Bounou.

15 nníí kóò N tíé búú<sup>n</sup> . 3.PL CPL T sit Bunu They sat (lived) [in] Bounou.

```
16 η kámáà nníí N té -rò mέ mìnnà 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 kớò N bú -raa bóŋgórò .

CPL T move out of -rV- Bongoro
```

They left Bongoro.

18 kớờ N tíé -wàj búú<sup>n</sup> CPL T sit STAT Bunu

They lived (sat) [in] Bounou.

# Lineage of the Current Chief:

siiri dicko (killed by Fulani enslavers) (same family as gemon 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 gemon)

térémò tindi dicko (older brother of gemon)

sôh dicko (hamidi and soh are the same name) (older brother of gemon - same mother, same father)

bokari dicko (older brother of gemo<sup>n</sup>)

gemon 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 mà $\acute{a}=$  jíb $\acute{e}\acute{e}$  =nè bù -rá k $\acute{o}\acute{o}$  -H yíè tónípérè . 1.PL.POSS person =PL from, come from PRF CPL 3 ascend Tondifere

Our people left [and] ascended [to] Tonifere

2 nè mè jàmbé –H n nìé –rè 1.PL.POSS child 1 GEN woman –rV– Our girl,

3 syéè à yiè —L á tóròn mmínnà . descend DEF water DEF CHN carry water place, location descended [to] the place [where they] get water.

4 nnìì kóó –H kwérè ŋ kéè .
3.PL CPL 3 steal ~2 PRF

They stole [her].

5 nnìì kóó -H dú yiế dógànì . 3.PL CPL 3 bring ascend Dogani

They brought her up [to] Dogani.

6 n kà sà<sup>n</sup> 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 dógànì . ~2 CPL 3 ~2 go 3 CHN remain PRF Dogani She remained [in] Dogani.

She remains there.

9 
$$\mathfrak{g}$$
 ka m bar —a  $\mathfrak{g}$  wíi .   
~2 CPL T remains IMPV ~2 there

She remains there.

$$10\,\eta$$
 kố  $-H$  m bár  $-\grave{a}$   $\eta$  wíì ,  $\sim 2$  CPL  $3$  T remain RV  $\sim 2$  there

She remain there (she remained for a long time),

until her breasts came out.

12 màà = 
$$-L$$
  $\varepsilon i \dot{\varepsilon}^n$  bíè  $j i \dot{\varepsilon}$ , POSS = 3 owner NEG see

Her owner (husband) is not seen, (she was not seen by her people though she was ready for marriage)

her breasts came out.

I was searching for her.

```
15 nnìì 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 nnìì nnì -i tùmb\epsilon wòr\epsilon -H \epsilon jìb\epsilon\epsilon =n\epsilon 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 nnìì nnì –ì á túmbè 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 ŋ 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 \mathfrak n kúmbò \mathfrak n kúmbó . DEF Fulani also INC 3 T search \sim 2 search
```

The Fulani was also searching.

He went and saw,

- 22 à nniè -L  $\mathfrak{g}$  wií dógònì . DEF woman DEF  $\sim$ 2 there Dogani the woman there at Dogani.
- 23 ŋ kàsá<sup>n</sup> hó<sup>n</sup>
  ~2 then, at that time emphatic

  At the time which,
- 24 nnìì náẁ η kέὲ , 3.PL take ~2 PRF they married her,
- $25 \text{ nniì} \quad \text{pàá} \quad -\text{n} \quad -\text{à} \quad ,$   $3.\text{PL take} \quad -\text{r-} \quad \text{RV}$  they took,
- $26\,\,\mathrm{g}$  kố<br/>ớ  $-\mathrm{H}$  n sùr  $-\mathrm{\acute{a}}$  , CPL 3 T look RV

he looked,

- 27 ŋ k56 -H n su -ra , ~2 CPL 3 T look -rV-
- 28 n kố -H n su -ra ,  $\sim 2 \text{ CPL}$  3 T look -rV-

he looked (he looked for a long time),

29 hásá wórè –H gàw<sup>n</sup> .
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 nnìì ŋà nnìì 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 mi —H kéndé  $\mathfrak{g}$  káw kóò hòn jáátì . SG 3 say ~2 DEM CPL emphatic definitely . He said, that is definitely her.

33 kóò dóò -ró . CPL pass -rV-

He (the Fulani) passed.

34 ŋ kóò sáwón -d -ò ~2 CPL descend -r- RV

He descended.

 $35 \, \eta$  kàmá -H nò  $-\dot{o}$  -L nìì ímà búù .  $\sim 2 \, \text{CPL}$   $3 \, \text{come}$  RV  $3 \, \text{say}$  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 téè? where

Where (asked the people of Bounou)?

39 dógànì . 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 téè SG 3 said ~2 sure, positive

He said, I am sure.

42 mì –L kéndé káẁ à sìé kéndè . SG 3 said DEM now yet He said, that [is] all for now.

43 màà= 
$$-L$$
 bwèé  $-H$  wáà .  
POSS= 1 foot 1 hot

My foot is hot (I'm in a hurry).

$$45 \text{ n}$$
 dá  $nn\acute{o}$   $-\grave{o}$  ,  $\sim 2$  INC come RV

I am coming (I will be back),

46 nnìì hà yiè 
$$-L siì^n$$
 . 3.PL IRR ascend 3 RECP they will ascend together.

I am going [to] show [you].

$$48 \text{ k56}$$
 —H níŋà hájá . CPL 3 say OK

He said OK.

49 wòrè 
$$-L$$
 à kùmbó à kùmbó nnù  $-\dot{u}$   $-L$  . go 3 CHN search 2.SG search come PRF 3

He went and strolled about and came back.

50 kòr — à ŋ kìì hà nnú — ú — H . change, switch, transform RV GEN thing IRR come PRF 3

He returned and came [back].

51 ŋ k56 -H nn6 -è . ~2 CPL 3 come RV

He came.

52 nnìì kóó –H yíè síì<sup>n</sup>
3.PL CPL 3 ascend RECP

They ascended together.

53 ímà tìgè bú —mì =ndé nnìì kóó —H m bùn —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 nnìì màà= kómè góòn . 3.PL.POSS slave man

their male slave.

55 hà yiế n súrà hà jàlà sốgójè.

IRR ascend T look in order to whether truth

He (the male slave) went to see whether it was the truth

56 nnìì kớó -H nnìì nà sè qiế -L, 3.PL CPL 3 say if ascend 3

They said, if he ascends,

57 màá= nnìì ŋà mì —L kómè dè .
PROH say SG 3 slave emphatic

Do not say that he is/you are a slave.

58 nnìì nà hájá wá say OK reported speech He said OK.

59 nnìì kóó –H yìé –L síì<sup>n</sup>
3.PL CPL 3 ascend 3 RECP

They (the Fulani and the slave) went up together.

60 kớó –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 kớó –H wórè à káárà
CPL 3 go CHN find

they went to find,

63 kàá máà mì –L jáátì
DEM EXIST SG 3 definitely

that is definitely her.

64 hájá màá= –L nìì ? OK POSS 2 name

OK [what is] your name?

65 kàá màá= n dè mè ŋ kúmbò DEM EXIST 1.PL COMP T search

That is [for] whom we search.

66 mέ èh màá= –L nìì ?

COMP emphatic POSS 2 name

What is your name?

67 kàmá nέ máá jìbέέ CPL 1.PL.POSS person

(is this our person)

68 mì —L kéndè máá= —H nìì ? 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 bóó dáà kúmbò , SG 3 say father INC search

He said, father has been searching,

73 à gà3é<sup>n</sup> ki pàà<sup>n</sup> ŋ kò . DEF world thing all  $\sim$ 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 bốo mì –L kếndề há sàn –d –ó wà father SG 3 said IRR descend –r– RV reported speech

Father says to make you descend.

77 dà –L yíè
INC 3 ascend

She ascends.

78 nniì kóó –H náw tómè wàj 3.PL CPL 3 give cowry shell(s) PP

They gave cowry shells (money) to [him].

79 ŋ 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 ŋ kásà<sup>n</sup> tóó<sup>n</sup> 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 nnìì kóó –H náw tómè wàj 3.PL CPL 3 give cowry shell(s) PP They gave cowry shells to [them].

83 sé ųὶέ pàà<sup>n</sup>, if ascend all

If they ascend,

84 sé wórè à káárà if go CHN find if they go to find,

85 m bójéè ŋ kó nnáw , ~2 rope GEN PP give

there is a rope (she is enslaved) they [will] give,

86 nnìì m bú —ràà ŋ kíí .

3.PL T move out of —rV— GEN thing pay for (a slave).

 $87 \ s\`e \ b\'e b\'oj\'e\'e \ \eta \ k\'o \ d\`e \ ,$  if NEG rope GEN PP emphatic

If there is no rope (if she is not enslaved),

88 hà n sàà<sup>n</sup> wàj .

IRR T descend STAT

[they] will descend.

89 à kómè ŋ góờ<sup>n</sup> 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 yíè SG 3 CPL 3 T ascend He ascended.

91 kớ<br/>ớ –H  $\mathfrak n$  wórè à kárà<br/>à bíè bójé<br/>è  $\mathfrak n$  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 ŋ 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 nìì ŋá wálájè SG 3 CPL 3 say swear to God

He said, I swear to God.

94 sé tòŋògò bíè bójéè ŋ kó .
if truth NEG rope GEN PP

If I tell the truth, the rope is not on [her neck] (she is not enslaved).

95 jìbéé n dógóndò kóó –H nnó –ó N gómbè nnìì nìì . 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 kớo –H nnìì nà 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 ,  $\sim$ 2 CPL come RV

He came,

98 à gómbè nnìì nìì .

CHN leave 3.PL hand

and he left [her] [in] their hand[s].

99 ŋ ká kè bíè kór -ó ŋ 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 ŋàrà há pódí màà= nà -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  $-r\dot{\epsilon}$  sé màà= -L pà -n -à n twà páà<sup>n</sup>, 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 nà —n —á SG 3 SUBJ take —r— RV she [is] to be married.

103 ájíwà nnié -rè hòn sé cíèn bíè n wájè páàn, OK woman -rV- emphatic if owner NEG  $\sim$ 2 PP all OK, if a woman does not have an owner (someone to marry her),

104 mì —L hà n nà —n —á SG 3 SUBJ T take —r— RV she must [be] taken (married).

$$105 \ \text{mi}$$
 —H kéndè wàjbì jáátí . SG 1 said obligatory definitely

I said, that is obligatory, very much so.

106 mì 
$$-L$$
 kớo  $-H$  n ná  $-n$   $-à$   $-L$  . SG 3 CPL 3 T take  $-r-$  RV 3

She is taken (married).

107 nnìì n 
$$\text{n\'a}$$
  $-\text{n}$   $-\grave{a}$   $-\text{L}$  , 3.PL T take  $-\text{r-}$  RV 3

They take her,

109 káráà bì =ndε péεrε .

obtain baby =PL a lot

she got a lot of children.

110 
$$\eta$$
 k56 -H m bár -à  $\eta$  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 nnìì nà nìì ná à síè há nnù -ù -L n súrà . say say now IRR come PRF 3 T look

he said her father sent someone to come look at her.

113 sé tóŋòró há dò sáá<sup>n</sup> 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 tóŋòró 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 nế mề ná -n -à -L kà bíẻ bố jé tígẻ  $\mathfrak n$  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= hò<sup>n</sup> praise be to God today CPL emphatic

Thank God for today.

118 jíè –wè bì =ndé cíèn jáátí do STAT baby =PL owner definitely

She has become the owner of children (very much so).

119 kàw ájìwá bóó nnìì ŋà 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 nnié –rè kóó –H nniì ŋà koro DEF woman –r– CPL 3 say DEM

The woman said that,

121 á gồớ -L kố -H nhì nà káw DEF man DEF CPL 3 say DEM

the man (her husband) said that,

122 à síè koro kéndè, now return say

now she said,

123 m bíè á sáw kéndè .  $\sim$ 2 NEG CHN descend yet

I cannot descend yet.

124 ă sáá<sup>n</sup> ŋẁó! 2.SG descend go

You go (imperative) down.

125 sé káráà sígòó = 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=  $p^w$ iè jíndò ndè sá -d  $-\bar{o}$  . 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 sáw .

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 bóò -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 tóŋórò . SG 3 say truth

She said truth.

133 bóò tájè té –wàj kì . father place, family lost STAT thing

I forgot my father's place.

134 ká só  $-r\dot{e}$  -H máá= -H píndé =nè. but know -rV- 1 POSS= 1 direction =PL

But, I know how to tell his directions (to his house).

135 mì má<br/>à bóò máá= -H kóó -H gí hù<br/>n , POSS father POSS= 1 house 1 behind PP

Behind my father's house,

136 tópè -mi =ndè n dáw ŋ wíì . tree species DIM =PL ~2 EXIST ~2 there

There is the tree species.

137 kăŋkájì dá ŋ wíì . 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 nóó tígì tìgì á bíè 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 nnìì jíndò nníí kóó –H nà –à nníí -n COOR POSS 3 husband 3.PL two 3.PL CPL 3 take RV 3.PL -rkớó –H sáw CPL 3 descend

She and her husband, they two, they took each other, they descended.

142 gìllá nníí sáw síì<sup>n</sup> 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 ă nnìì à tópè —mí =ndè kàá —rù .

DEF 3.PL DEF tree species DIM =PL DEM DEM.PL

There are those tree species.

145 ă nnìì tớpè -mí =ndè ká $\hat{w}$  dìnd  $-\hat{a}$  . DEF 3.PL tree species DIM =PL DEM stand RV

Those tree species stand there.

146 ă nnìì kăŋkájì káw dìnd -à .

DEF 3.PL Salvadora Persica DEM stand RV

Those tree species stand there.

147 ká $\dot{w}$  bốo màá= -L kóo -H gíí $^{\rm n}$  hù $^{\rm n}$  . 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 àà n dá  $\psi$ i $\epsilon$  -H , SUBJ ~2 INC ascend 1

Let's ascend,

150 à dìjà –L ŋ kóó –rò
DEF village DEF GEN PP –rV–

into the village.

151 ŋ k56 -H sígà kàẃ nà té -rè wàj à kòò -L n n55 ~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 kà<br/>ứ ŋ wórè nnì -ì kó<br/>ó -H ná<br/>ẁ yì<br/>è nnìì ŋ wàj .<br/> DEM  $\sim$ 2 go give PRF CPL 3 give water 3.PL  $\sim$ 2 PP

He gave water to them

154 nnìì kóó –H nníé –rè mì 3.PL CPL 3 drink –rV– REFL

*They drank.* 

155 k56 –H n tùrú CPL 3 T lie down

They layed down (spent the night there).

156 nnìì kớ<br/>ó –H díngín –d –à nnìì mà<br/>á= dígá . 3.PL CPL 3 say again, repeat (word) –r<br/>– 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 káràà káw ? how is it DEF obtain DEM

How did you come to get this [woman]?

He said that,

 $160 \, \text{jib\'e\'e} \quad N \, \, \text{d\'og\'ond\'o} \, \, .$  person  $T \, \, \text{bring}$ 

a person brought [her].

161 kớó –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 kớ<br/>ớ -H nnìì nà n dá nnò -ò -L ,<br/> CPL 3 say  $\sim$ 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 nnìì à siế kéndề . 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 kà<br/>
wáá m bàr -á ímà né m pè .<br/>
CPL T remains RV here 1.PL  $\sim$ 2 PP

She remains with us.

Her marriage (time) arrived.

168 màà= 
$$-L$$
  $\varepsilon$ íè<sup>n</sup> bíè jíè .  
POSS= 3 owner NEG see

Her owner is not seen (there was no husband for her).

169 nìé 
$$-r\acute{\epsilon}$$
 sé máá=  $-H$  ná  $-n$  -á twà pàà<sup>n</sup> , woman  $-rV-$  if POSS= 3 take  $-r-$  RV reach all

If a woman's marriage time arrives,

$$170 \ \text{mi}$$
  $-\text{L}$   $\text{náw}$   $\text{nà}$   $-\text{n}$   $-\grave{\text{a}}$  . SG 3 give take  $-\text{r}-$  RV

she is given in marriage.

171 sé 
$$\mathfrak{s} \dot{\mathfrak{t}} \dot{\mathfrak{s}}^n$$
 bíè wàj , if owner NEG PP

If there is no owner,

172 sé máà 
$$-L$$
  $pà$   $-n$   $-\acute{a}$   $t\acute{w}$ à  $pà\grave{a}^n$ , if POSS 3 take  $-r-$  RV reach all

if her marriage time arrives

she is given/taken.

174 mì —L kéndè ùhùh SG 3 say uhuh

He said uhuh.

175 mì —L hòn biè sígà ká kóó —H à siế kéndề, SG 3 emphatic NEG ask DEM CPL 3 now yet

I have not yet asked that,

176 bố –wàj kố –H ná náà à siế kéndề náà ? tie STAT CPL 3 COOR COOR now yet COOR is there a rope on her yet (or what)?

177 bíè bố -wàj  $\eta$  kố . NEG tie STAT  $\sim$ 2 PP

A rope was not tied on [her neck].

178 wálájè sé tóŋórò gúwè bíè bóó –wàj ŋ 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 nnìì kớr — '5 pó dógóndò , 3.PL change, switch, transform RV each bring They returned her,

179 nnìì kớ<br/>ó -H nná  $\mathfrak n$  wàj .<br/>3.PL CPL 3 give  $\sim$ 2 PP

they gave her to [him].

```
181 mì -L kéndè bíè bốó -wàj \mathfrak g kố . SG 3 say NEG tie STAT \sim2 PP
```

He said a rope was not tied on her [neck].

He said are you sure of that?

184 mi 
$$-L$$
 kéndè gó $\delta^n$ , SG 3 say man

He said man,

185 mí 
$$-H$$
 dégè jáátì mì  $-L$  pà  $-n$   $-\grave{a}$  . SG 1 himself/herself definitely SG 3 take  $-r-$  RV

I, myself definitely, I married her.

```
186 ádáhámdilájè mí –H dégè mì –L nà –n –à dó n náŵ 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).

On the day in which we got children very much so?

188 mì -L kếndề hájà kớ<br/>ó -H nnìì nà hà sán -d -ò .<br/> SG 3 said OK CPL 3 say IRR descend -r— RV

He said OK, she has come to see her family

189 hájá nnìì N díj –à cíí OK 3.PL T eat RV food

OK they eat food.

190 hájá nnìì n díj –à cíí OK 3.PL T eat RV food

OK, they eat food.

191 ŋ kố<br/>ó –H n sígà áw hèn màání ~2 CPL 3 T ask 2.PL emphatic what<br/>chamacallit

He asked, hey whats-your-name,

192 à kòmέ –L η góờ nnù –ù –L mì –L á nìì ηá ? DEF slave DEF GEN man come PRF 3 SG 3 CHN say

What did the slave man say?

193 a nnìì tu -d -o a maa nnìì DEF 3.PL DEF POSS 3.PL

Have you sold her?

194 nìi ŋá nìi ŋá à kómè náá ? say say 2.SG slave question particle

Are you a slave?

195 máà nìì ηá à mέ tóò

EXIST say 2.SG.POSS younger sibling

He says, I am his younger sibling.

196 mì kéndè á sè tòŋòrò gúwè SG say DEF if truth better

He said the if one speakes the truth, it is better

197 nniì nniì mε kom 3.PL 3.PL 3rd SG POSS slave ?

198 mì kéndè á jáŋà dègè SG say 2.SG ruin himself/herself

he said you ruin yourself

199 mí nnìì nà sá  $\psi$ i $\hat{\epsilon}$  pàà<sup>n</sup> , SG say if ascend all

he said if you ascend,

200 nnìì áw à mè tóò 3.PL 2.PL 2.SG.POSS younger sibling

Their younger sibling?

201 mì kéndè máá nìì ŋá à dégè kómè . SG said PROH say 2.SG himself/herself slave he said do not say that your self is a slave

202 kớ<br/>ớ -H ŋ wórè kớ<br/>ó -H nì<br/>ì ŋá mì -L kóm<br/>è . CPL 3  $\sim$ 2 go CPL 3 say SG 3 slave

you went and said that you were a slave

203 mí -H kéndè kóó -H nnìì ná mí -H góò<sup>n</sup> SG 3 say CPL 3 say SG 3 man

204 mì —L kéndè ajiwa SG 3 say OK

he said OK

 $\begin{array}{c} 205 \; \grave{a} \; s \acute{i} j \grave{\flat}^n \;\; , \\ now \end{array}$ 

now

206 mi -L kéndè sé bíè bốó -wàj n kốó -H bù  $-\tilde{w}$   $-\tilde{e}$  . 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 síjò  $^{\rm n}$  , SG say now

he said now

208 bốờ mí -H kwá -nd -ì á nhì à síjờ father SG 3 beg -r- PRF 2.SG 3.PL now

father I beseech, beg you now

- 209 mí –H tígè n jié –H –wàj bìé n gíè<sup>n</sup> 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 síjờ nhà nhì -ì nh kế kà wàj . now God give PRF ~2 PRF 2.SG PP
- 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 síjón à màá á yíè à síjòn now CHN want CHN ascend now

Now we can ascend now

Now God gave her to you,

- 216 bíè bàsì nè só -rè máà -L mínnà ŋ kéè à síjòn.

  NEG difficult 1.PL know -rV- POSS 3 place, location ~2 PRF now

  No problem, we know his place now.
- 217 nnìì túrù jìè jìndò . 3.PL lie down night two

They spent two nights.

- –L nnìì kớó 218 nnìì kớó –H ná -n –à –L mì –H yíè 3.PL CPL 3 take RV 3 SG 3 3.PL CPL ascend -r-They ascended.
- 219 nnìì k56 —H N dígán —d —à á diga —L ŋ wíì .

  3.PL CPL 3 T talk —r— RV DEF talk DEF ~2 there

  They repeated the talk there.
- 220 n dìgà -d -a á díg -L ŋ wìì tígè ~2 talk -r- RV DEF talk DEF ~2 there also

They repeated the talk there also.

- 221 mì —L à nié —ré kórà á bì =ndé mè —ndé ŋ wíi 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 nnìì jíè -wàj pwíè =ndé náw 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  $-r\dot{\epsilon}$  tórè DEF woman -rV- one

the one woman,

224 nnìì kóó –H ná –n –á nnìì kóó –H náw wòré tùbégé 3.PL CPL 3 take –r– RV 3.PL CPL 3 give go village name

they gave her in marriage to Tubege

225 nnìì N nà -n -á tùbégé 3.PL T take -r- RV village name

they married her in Tubege

226 ŋ káw tígè kóó -H wòrè a kóó -H ŋ wii ~2 DEM also CPL 3 go CPL 3 ~2 there

she gave birth there

227 tùbégé tige village name also

228 nnìì ka na 3.PL CPL PASS

229 muwi tige a ka ŋ wii today also DEF CPL there

230 hájá à sìì káwàà n sáká wòré OK DEF ethnicity CPL GEN go

Our ethnicity is there.

231 tùbégé village name

(she had 7 children in Tete, and these all scattered throughout Tondifere)

## Text XII: Tiga 2

1 wèrè ŋ gàrá púndà village south east of Kargue Fulani

A Fulani from Werengara,

2 wèrè ŋ gàrà —mí =ndè ŋ káárá —H gúzè village south east of Kargue INHAB PL ~2 find 3 grass, weeds

The people of Werengara found grass, weeds.

3 wǔró jéwól —mí =ndè m bíè káárà —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 ŋ gàrá —màà= kóò náw tǔmbé 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 máà 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 wáà SG 3 say IRR T come PRF ~2 eat —r— RV grass reported

7 ŋ wìí hớn níí hớn tójờ =wájí  $\sim$ 2 there emphatic 3.PL emphatic leftovers gone bad =STAT

There are too many weeds there.

He said to come eat grass.

8 màá= -H náá -ndè hò<sup>n</sup> N bíí<sup>n</sup> ŋ 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 ŋ 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 tòŋó SG 3 say truth

He said truth.

13 á níí ŋà jáátí 2.SG say definitely

You said that very much so.

14 mí -H hớn m bíè nò -ò -L SG 1 emphatic  $\sim$ 2 NEG come RV 1

I am not coming.

15 η káw díndì η kέὲ ~2 DEM hurt ~2 PRF

That hurts me. (because that shows the one village is better than the other)

16 kóờ n ná —n —á mì CPL T take —r— RV REFL

He took himself,

17 kóờ n nò -ò -L búù<sup>n</sup>

CPL T come RV 3 Bounou

He came to Bounou,

18 kóż n nò −L à −H à kí pόόrέ =nè -ò sìg –ú CPL T come RV 3 CHN ask **PRF** 3 DEF thing black PL He came to ask the Dogon,

19 à kí póóré –nè nèjéròŋkáw DEF thing black PL why

He asked the Dogon why,

20 nìí m bíè n káráá -H  $3òò^n$  -L 3.PL  $\sim$ 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 káráà —L 3óón —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 ŋ káw 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 ŋ kàẃ jé -r -ò ~2 cut RV 3 before ~2 DEM do PRF RV

You should have slaughtered it before.

24 nè biè  $\mathfrak{g}$  káráà -L  $\mathfrak{z}$ òòn -L why NEG  $\sim$ 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 ŋ káw hándā à 3óón —H káráà —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 ŋ 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 ŋ káw pó SG 1 say yes ~2 DEM only

I said yes that only.

30 mì -L kéndè  $\mathfrak g$  káẁ pó  $\mathfrak g$  káẁ pó ? SG 3 say  $\sim$ 2 DEM only  $\sim$ 2 DEM only

*He said that only, that only?* 

31 mì —L kèndé hàjà á káràà —L kéè ? SG 3 say OK 2.SG obtain 3 PRF He said, OK did you get it?

32 ŋ kĕ hen nènè máà –L sígòò –L? alright now when POSS 3 week 3

When is its (slaughtering) day?

33 á sìgóó –H màá= –H níì káŵ DEF week 1 POSS 3 name DEM

The day has not been named yet.

I want its day.

35 mí –H kéndè hàjà SG 1 say OK

I said OK.

36 sá à sìgóó -H ŋ káw nó -ò -L if DEF week 3  $\sim$ 2 DEM come RV 3

37 n dá N nó -ò -L INC T come RV 1

I am coming.

38 nùnà —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.

-L bíè N nù  $-L h \dot{\mathfrak{d}}^n$ 40 mì -L kéndè sá á náà ná máà –ú SG if DEF cow CONJ POSS say 3 baby T come **PRF** 3 emphatic He said if the cow and her child come (emphatic)

41 mì —L kéndè á 3òón —L hòn nè tígé nè η káràà —L η kéè 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 ŋ kóò wórè DEF Fulani DEF ~2 CPL go

The Fulani left.

44 η kóờ 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 wŏrè –L go 3

He left.

*The day arrived. (The day was fulfilled.)* 

The Fulani also searched.

The cow and her baby.

He took that which was taken he gave to the child (the cow and its child) and gave (them) to the child.

He got up on his horse.

The Fulani's child led (the cow and her child) all the way to Bounou

I also I am coming

The child also took the cow (which) preceded them (i.e. the cow went first).

55 mì -L tìgé kóò yíè à tíè màá= -L vóó -H hù<sup>n</sup> 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 búù<sup>n</sup> until Bounou

Until Bounou. (He kept saying, 'here is not here, until they reached Bounou'.)

59 há àmírù búù<sup>n</sup> jàw until chief Bounou beside

Until he arrived next to the Chief of Bounou (So's grandfather).

60 kóò nò -ò -L à níì ásàlámàlákùm CPL come RV 3 CHN say is there peace here?

He came to say greeting

61 àmírù búù<sup>n</sup> jàw chief Bounou beside

Next to the Chief of Bounou.

62 àmírù mì —L kéndè wàlákùmásálàm chief SG 3 say there is peace here

The Chief, he said, greetings back.

63 bísímílájì welcome

Welcome.

64 tág –à –L yìé 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 kóò tág -à -L à yìé 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 niŋa 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 nìì ŋá mé híŋgà SG 3 say COMP before

He said that which before.

69 nè màá= házé mè N káárà –H ŋ kéè 1.PL.POSS need COMP T find 1 ~2 PRF

We got our need.

70 mì kèndé hàjà ŋ 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 hù<sup>n</sup> á síjò<sup>n</sup> 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 yìé 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 əhəh kùwó bíè tóŋórò jíè SG 3 say no CPL NEG truth do

He said, no, that does not happen.

76 mì —L kèndé mí —H níí ŋà SG 3 say SG 1 say

He said I said that

77 mì —L kèndé dáà hájà níí ŋà 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 níí nà hàjà CPL say OK

He said that OK.

79 ŋ kóò níí ŋà hàjà màá= -H jáà =ndɛ́ wàj ~2 CPL say OK POSS 3 children PL PP He said OK to his children.

80 à jàà =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 níì 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 níŋ ko tero 3.PL say CPL sit

83 nín ko n 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 dìgá diga 3.PL ~2 INC DEF talk talk

86 sàná jè túré páw once, one time all

There was this one time,

87 nii kóò jàà –L ʒòòn –L póórī n náw 3.PL CPL see 3 rain, sky 3 black ~2 ascend they saw rain, sky black ascend

88 mi kɛndɛ amiru wuro jewol jijɛ 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 3óón —L póórī náw wàj déè
DEF rain, sky DEF black ascend STAT emphatic

The black sky ascends.

90 mì –L kèndé bíè múwì hò<sup>n</sup>
SG 3 say NEG today emphatic

He said not today!

91 mì —L kèndé hájà kóji jìé —H SG 3 say OK emphatic rise 3 He said OK get up.

92 à jáá à 3ó5<sup>n</sup> –L pó5rī náw wàj 2.SG see DEF rain, sky DEF black ascend STAT

You see the black sky ascends.

93 mì —L kèndé hájà amiiru bùú<sup>n</sup> mí —H n dáà wòrè —L wàj à síjò<sup>n</sup> 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.

He said run!

95 á kwà kí à bwéè páán tǐg -έ -ré -H 2.SG able DEF foot all run RV PRF 3

If you are able to run (with your feet).

96 n tìg -έ -H kóò N yíè à tíè màà= -L υóò hù<sup>n</sup> ~2 run RV 3 CPL T ascend CHN sit POSS= 3 horse PP

He ran and ascended to sit on his horse.

97 ŋ kwà ŋ kí á  $b^w$ éè -L pàà n dáà tíg -ì  $\sim$ 2 able DEF foot DEF all INC run PRF

If he is able to run.

98 dò màá= wùrò jèwól ŋ kí pass EXIST village of Jewol ~2 thing He is passing the village of jewol (?)

99 hàjà dò màá= kárígè ŋ kí OK pass EXIST Karigue ~2 thing

OK, He is passing Karigue.

100 bíè twáá –r–á wùró jèwól NEG reach –r–INC village of Jewol

He does not arrive at the village of Jewol.

101 à 3òòn —L kóò m píè DEF rain, sky 3 CPL T put

The rain put (set down upon him).

102 kóờ n tíngí -d  $-\acute{a}$  máá= -H vóờ CPL ~2 get up -r- RV POSS= 3 horse

It woke up his horse.

103 n dà —L wórè mìndè —L wùrò jèwól pàà<sup>n</sup> ~2 INC 3 go enter 3 village of Jewol all

(as) He is going to enter the village of Jewol,

104 à 3ó5<sup>n</sup> -H sáw wàj hù<sup>n</sup>
DEF rain, sky 3 descend STAT PP

the rain descended (was descending).

105 hà biế káráà –L màà= –L vòò –L màà=– tòrò –L until NEG obtain 3 POSS= 3 horse 3 EXIST hang 3

He could not get his horse tied.

–L kèrè kérè pìn 106 dáà υòò −L màá= –ò á sán -d-í –d INC horse 3 POSS 3 saddle RV CHN descend **PRF PRF** put -r-He is putting his saddle onto his horse.

107 à 365<sup>n</sup> -H dá sàà<sup>n</sup> hù<sup>n</sup> dá tígí -rì mìndè -L wàj ŋ 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 ŋ kàẃ bíè té n nò ~2 3.SG NEG lost ~2 come

It (my testimony) will not come to be lost.

2 nè dáw kàrígé máà 1.PL CONJ Karigue inhabitant of

We, a person from Karigue and (me),

3 né mè N kùn -r  $-\acute{a}$  -H  $s\'{i}\in$  1.PL.POSS T gather, meet PRF RV 3 RECIP

we meet each other.

4 ŋ wíì kàrígé ∼2 there Karigue

There in Karigue.

5 kàrìgé màà= –L díréctór jáà wò Karigue POSS 3 see STAT

(we) saw Karigue's director.

6 mi –L kéndé éh nii níí sìndú 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 bíè sìndú bùù<sup>n</sup> –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 níí níŋà sìndú SG 3 say 3.PL say first

He said they say they [came] first.

10 ŋ kéndè wàlájì áá bíè sìndú bùù<sup>n</sup> -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  $h\acute{5}^n$  à dá gándà mè  $\eta$  kò á síè tígí tígì 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 ŋ káw curse do PRF RV 3 CHN able obtain ~2 3.SG

Because of the curse you were able to do it.

13 àá μό<sup>n</sup> –εìè<sup>n</sup> =ndέ 2.PL vampire AGENT =PL

You vampires!

14 mi –H kèndé àá kwá káàrà ŋ 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 ŋùwà 2.SG go PRF PRF 3 go [and] CHN prepare

You went and prepared (the curse).

16 nnìé bògò nó sii<sup>n</sup> 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 sámbà gázèn  $\mathfrak{g}$  kí páàn  $\mathfrak{g}$  kò 2.PL able spray, sprinkle DEF world  $\sim$ 2 something all  $\sim$ 2 inside

You were able to spray everything in the world.

18 sè tùg -í -L băŋgì -mé páán jàà -L wàj 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 tùg –í –L băŋgì –mέ páán jàà –L wàj 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 tùg -í -L băŋgì -mế páán ja -L wàj if pierce PRF 3 person who is of the Banga race INHAB all die 3 PP If it pierces a Bangime, he dies.

21 ŋ kìì pàà n dá wò -r  $-\acute{e}$  -H jáà bùù n wàj  $\sim$ 2 thing all INC go PRF PRF 3 die Bounou STAT

They [the Bangande] all go die until they were finished.

- 22 á kì **–έ** bár −àà kớ -rì mὲ tíg –é wàj DEF thing -rV-DIM COMP remain RV CPL run PRF STAT The few that remained ran.
- 23 à kì -rí -\(\xi\) n káw tìg -\(\xi\) -r -\(\xi\) wàj

  DEF thing -rV- DIM \(\pi\)2 3.SG run PRF PRF RV PP

  Those that ran,
- 24 à tìgè á kwá nò —L à kwá nò —L á tìè hù n 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 ŋ káw jè -r -ó -H à kwa káara à gànda -L kaw ~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 ŋ káw sáà<sup>n</sup> n təyə síì<sup>n</sup> if NEG ~2 3.SG descend ~2 no one RECIP

If not for that, the people of Karague,

27 bíè ímà híŋgà NEG here before

were not there.

28 à màá= dábé jè -r -ò -L à kwá káàrà á gàndà -L káw 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 gìé jà ? false QU

Is it false?

30 á sà —mí kèndé wáláji tóŋòró 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 nnìì kóò káŋánà síì<sup>n</sup> 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 nnìì kớò níŋà níí mì -L ŋ ká $\widetilde{w}$ àà màà= -L bú -mí =ndè wàj 3.PL CPL say SG 3  $\sim$ 2 old POSS= 3 Bunu INHAB =PL PP They said they are older than Bounou's people.

4 nnìì kóò níŋà níí mí —H káwàà 3.PL CPL say SG 3 old They said they are older.

5 ámíró búù<sup>n</sup> mé kéndè ná wòrè –L yáá nàà chief Bunu COMP say INC go 3 buy cow *The chief of Bounou said he is going to buy a cow.* 

6 nnìì kóò wòrè –L yáá à nàà 3.PL CPL go 3 buy DEF cow *He went and bought the cow.* 

7 nnìì kóò dú –ú à nàà wòrè –L à kórónò hú<sup>n</sup> 3.PL CPL bring PRF DEF cow go 3 DEF place near Karague PP *They brought the cow (went) to Kornono.* 

8 mé —çìèn káwàà 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 =ndɛ nniì kóò níŋà níí káwãà DEF Baraa INHAB =PL 3.PL CPL say old The people of Baraa say they are older.

10 ámíró búù<sup>n</sup> kóò náw à bàá<sup>n</sup> nnìì wàj chief Bunu CPL give DEF knife 3.PL PP

The chief of Bounou gave the knife to them.

- 11 kóò nínà 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 saa<sup>n</sup> à báráá –mì =ndέ nnìì há ʒáà after that DEF Baraa INHAB =PL 3.PL IRR die *After that, the people of Baraa [began] to die.*
- 14 nnìì kóò nò –ò siijε bujisiε
  3.PL CPL come RV ask for forgiveness

  They came to ask for forgiveness.
- 15 nnìì kóò níŋà tóŋò bú —mí =ndè káwàà 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 jibéé jìndó n té —ró —H ʃiìn m pán —mè person two T become —rV— 3 RECIP ~2 friend DIM Two people became friendship (friends) [with] each other.

4 nìì màá= pá<sup>n</sup> -mè wò dé 3rd PL POSS friend DIM EXIST sweet

Their friendship was sweet.

5 nníí dìjà tòrè 3.PL village one

They [were from] one (the same) village.

6 à ké $\hat{\epsilon}$  tè  $\hat{\eta}$  kámá  $\hat{n}$  sà $\hat{\eta}$  and  $\hat{n}$  n dá  $\hat{n}$  nié  $-\hat{r}$  DEF thing one ~2 CPL ~2 mess around (euphamism) ~2 INC woman  $-\hat{r}$ V—

The one played with a woman.

7 náw màà= -L díjá -H n kò take POSS= 3 village 3 ~2 PP

She was from another village.

8 á díjá -H ŋ káw DEF village 3  $\sim$ 2 DEM

That village,

9 sé máà —L pààn —L syéè 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 níí ŋà mì —L syéè nàw ~2 CPL say SG 3 descend FUT

He said that he will descend (to the wilderness).

- 11 ŋ kàmá níí ŋá máà syéè nàw ~2 CPL say PROH descend FUT He (his friend) said don't descend.
- 12 η kámá níí ŋá mì —L syéè nàw ~2 CPL say SG 3 descend FUT He said that he will descend.
- 13 ŋ kámá níí ŋà sé syéè n dàw màlpa dá ŋ 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 kòó hà n ná —n —á á màlpà CPL IRR T take —r— RV DEF rifle I will take the rifle.
- kwéèn tóré m bòón 15 há tínd –é níì η há tínd –é syέè 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 màlpá ŋ bìè kété hà n tìnd -è syéé à màlpà ŋ kò rifle GEN baby other IRR T put PRF descend DEF rifle ~2 PP I will put one bullet inside the rifle.
- 17 séè syéé à náà η kò if descend CHN INC ~2 PP If he descends into the wilderness,
- 18 séè kéè ŋ kámá n jóó —r —ò n jàw if thing ~2 CPL T respond PRF RV ~2 beside if he responds to anything,
- 19 máà jòó há n dèw<sup>n</sup> bùú<sup>n</sup> tàáró
  PROH respond until T fill time three
  do not respond until (you are called) three times.

- 20 ŋ kàmá n wòré á nnìé –rè n jáw ~2 CPL ~2 go DEF woman –rV– GEN beside He went next to his woman.
- 21 ŋ kàmà n tíŋgòn -d -ó á nnìé -rè ~2 CPL T get up -r- RV DEF woman -rV- He woke up his woman.
- 22 ŋ kámà níŋà jéà héèrè~2 CPL talk QU peaceHe said is there peace?
- 23 màà- máà á nnìé -rè want want DEF woman -rVHe [said that] he wanted the woman.
- 24 ŋ kámà nìŋà máà màá á nnìé -rè ~2 CPL say want want DEF woman -rV- He said that he wanted the woman.
- 25 ŋ kámá níŋá sàà á góð<sup>n</sup> ~2 CPL talk if DEF man She asked if he was the man.
- 26 ŋ kámà nìŋá máà —L páá<sup>n</sup> —H nìŋá n tàg —ú ~2 CPL say POSS 3 friend 3 say T agree PRF He said his friend said he agreed.
- 27 ŋ kàmá nìŋá níi hà wòréé níi máà díjà ŋ kò ~2 CPL say 3.PL IRR go 3rd PL POSS village ~2 PP He said for them to go to their village.
- 28 níì syèé à náà ŋ kò 3.PL descend DEF wilderness ~2 PP They descended wilderness.
- 29 níi n twàá –L á kéè màá= –L kóò 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 níì kàmá n té -rò ŋwí 3.PL CPL T sit -rV- there *They sat there*.
- 31 à kéè á kàmá n nó -ó -H à káráà níì ŋwí DEF thing CHN CPL T come RV 3 CHN find 3.PL there *The thing came to find them there.*
- 32 à kéè ŋ kámá nìŋá n dá mè ŋ 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 dề búù<sup>n</sup> táàrò until time three

Three times.

- 35 n tígè kà sáá<sup>n</sup> n tàvá à m màlpà ŋ kò ~2 also DEM descend T shoot DEF rifle ~2 PP He also shot it with the rifle.
- 36 nnié —rè ŋ kàmà niŋá táàw̃á mé hà n súrà woman —rV— ~2 CPL say fire which IRR T look The woman told he who was shot to look.
- 37 há sáà m búù<sup>n</sup> tààrò IRR time three until it is done three times,
- 38 n tìgéé n kà sáá<sup>n</sup> n jè -ró há<sup>n</sup> súrà ~2 also ~2 DEM descend T do -rV- until look *He also looked at it that time.*
- 39 n kámá wòrè –L á kàráà 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 kẃà CPL T cut RV 3 POSS 3 neck

He cut his throat (he slaughtered the thing).

41 kàmá sìg –á á nnìé –rè CPL ask RV DEF woman –rV–

He asked the woman

- 42 níì màà= —L páá<sup>n</sup> —H say POSS= 3 all 3

  Tell his friend,
- 43 ŋ kàmá n wòrè -L á níì máà páá<sup>n</sup> -H wàj ~2 CPL ~2 go 3 DEF 3rd PL POSS friend 3 PP to tell his friend,
- 44 à kéè tàg  $-\acute{u}$  -L à nnié  $-r\grave{e}$   $\frak{g}$  kéè DEF thing take PRF 3 DEF woman  $-rV-\sim 2$  PRF the thing took the woman.
- 45 ŋ kàmá nìŋá óóhòò ~2 CPL say uhuh He said, uhuh.
- 46 ŋ kámá nìŋá hàn tùrúú n dá à kéè 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 ŋ kámá N nò -ò -L à káárà màà= -L páá<sup>n</sup> -H tùùrù ŋ ~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 ŋ kámá –H síg –à jà hέὲτὲ ~2 CPL 3 ask RV who peace He asked whether there was peace.

50 ŋ kámá –H níŋà bíé héèrè wáà ~2 CPL 3 say NEG peace reported speech He said there is not peace.

51 á ké $\hat{\epsilon}$  tày  $-\hat{a}$  mà $\hat{a} = -L$  nnì $\hat{\epsilon}$   $-r\hat{\epsilon}$   $\eta$  ké $\hat{\epsilon}$  DEF thing take RV POSS= 3 woman  $-rV-\sim 2$  PRF The thing took my woman

52 n tígè ŋ kámá nà -n -á mí ~2 also ~2 CPL take -r- RV REFL *I also took myself.* 

53 ŋ kámà –L N syéé à nàà ŋ kò ~2 CPL 1 T descend DEF wilderness GEN PP I went to the bush,

54 bùrá béè stick NEG

without a stick,

55 táwnáà béè pants NEG without pants,

56 η kámà –L wòrè –L à káráá á kéὲ túrùú á nnìé –rὲ ŋwí ~2 CPL 1 go 3 CHN find DEF thing lie down DEF woman –rV– there I came to find the thing had lied down with the woman.

57 hà<sup>n</sup> n dèg  $-\epsilon$  mà $\epsilon$  —L nn $\epsilon$ 1 n kò IMPERATIVE T hit RV POSS 3 hand GEN PP Hit its hand!

58 á nnié –rè kàmá niŋà màà=– n dèg –é –H jáá –wè DEF woman –rV– CPL say PROH T hit RV 3 die STAT The woman said don't hit it until it dies.

59 á ké té  $\eta$  kámá nò -ò -L á káráá níì dá  $\eta^{w}$ ì DEF thing one  $\sim$ 2 CPL come RV 3 CHN find 3.PL INC there

The other found them there.

60 nii kámá yíè kóò 3.PL CPL ascend house

They went home.

61 bùù<sup>n</sup> finish

The end.

### Text XXI: Maraka (Bozo) attack Bangande and how they reconciled

1 nnìì nò -ò -L ŋ káráà nɛ́ ŋ wíì jégéɛ̀ 3.PL come RV 3 T find 1.PL ~2 there Jege

They came, they found us there at Jege

2 nnìì ŋ wíì N káráà 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

They came and took my staff.

5 nέ máà tégò jìbéé màà= –L bùr̃á
1.PL.POSS front, face person POSS= 3 stick

Our chief, his staff

6 màà = -L dègè cíèn màà = -L bùr̃á POSS = 3 head owner POSS = 3 stick

Our chief, his staff.

They did their spells.

8 nnìì màà= -L dábè  $\mathfrak{g}$  ká $\mathfrak{w}$  3.PL POSS= 3 curse  $\sim$ 2 DEM

Their spells there.

9 à tú $\dot{u}^n$  sé túg  $-\dot{i}$  á $\dot{w}$  pá $\dot{a}^n$  há pínd  $-\dot{u}$  DEF thorn if pierce PRF 2.PL all IRR swell PRF

The thorn, if it pierces you, you swell,

10 hà wó bờró IRR go AUG

until it gets big.

11 ŋ kámáà à síè màà= –L bìmmè ~2 CPL CHN take POSS= 3 heart

(the hurt) Took my heart

12 nnìì kóò bán –d –à nέ tốr –à n dε ŋ 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.

$$15 \text{ h\'e}$$
  $\text{n d\'e}$   $\text{n t\'ig\'i}$   $-\text{r\`e}$  emphatic  $1.\text{PL}$   $\text{run}$   $-\text{rV}-$ 

Hey we ran!

$$16 \text{ n\'e}$$
 kớờ wờré  $-\text{H n}$  tíé  $\mathfrak{g}$  wí búú<sup>n</sup>  $1.\text{PL}$  CPL go  $1$  T sit  $\sim 2$  there Bunu

We went and lived at Bounou

I left Bounou,

until I went to Bongoro.

We prepared our spell.

They moved.

# They left.

### They came.

## They came.

## They came to ask for forgiveness.

#### We reconciled.

They sat.

#### Text XXII: dingi mayi leydi buubi

### **Magic Cat**

1 àmìrí bùù<sup>n</sup> n túndò màá= -L jáámbè yìè . chief Bunu T send POSS 3 child ascend

The chief of Bounou sent his child up.

2 màá = -L jáámbè  $\eta$  káw n túndò yìé bàràmá . POSS 3 child  $\sim$ 2 DEM T send ascend Burema

This child of his, he sent up was Burema.

3 ŋ kàmáá yìé –H bàndʒìgàrà .
~2 CPL ascend 3 Bandiagara

He went up to Bandiagara.

4 à dégé  $\varepsilon$ î<sup>n</sup> màà= -L túmbé hù<sup>n</sup> . DEF head owner POSS= 3 message PP

The chief sent him.

5 nnà síí  $\mathfrak{gli}^n$  =nd $\mathfrak{s}$   $\mathfrak{gl}$   $\mathfrak{sh}$  n jáá sí $\mathfrak{l}^n$  . INC strength owner =PL  $\sim$ 2 CPL T see RECP

the police (owners of strength) saw each other (the police and Burema).

6 ŋ kámáá túg -à síi<sup>n</sup> cí $\epsilon$  =nd $\epsilon$  . ~2 CPL curse, insult RV strength owner =PL

He insulted the police (they thought the chief sent an insult).

7 hè kớc n dínd -á à síì giế = ndè . if CPL T hurt RV DEF strength owner = PL

*He hurt the police (with his insult).* 

8 ŋ kámáá nníí ŋ kóó pà  $-\tilde{r}$  -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 nníí kóò sóg -ó -H bùù<sup>n</sup> 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).

mì

**REFL** 

The people of Bounou, they also got themselves ready.

They climbed the cliffs (people of Bounou).

12 sìrií máà dègè cíé<sup>n</sup>
Sirii EXIST head owner

Sirii was chief.

13 nìì kóò n quúr —à à díjà —L ŋ kò , sìríí . 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 yíè -wàj .

DEF village DEF T bring ascend STAT

*The village went up.* 

15 nnìì wórè η káràà bíè 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 nnìì tígè  $\mathfrak{g}$  kớờ  $\mathfrak{n}$  jáà sìì $\mathfrak{n}$  . 3.PL also ~2 CPL T see RECP

They also saw each other (the people of Bounou met to make a spell).

17 nnìì ŋ kóò núŋ —à n dègè .

3.PL ~2 CPL prepare RV ~2 himself/herself

They prepared themselves.

18 nnìì  $\eta$  kóò sáá<sup>n</sup> —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 ŋ kóò núŋà n dègè .

3.PL ~2 CPL prepare ~2 himself/herself

They prepared themselves.

20 síriì kóò jáá –wè . Sirii CPL die STAT

Sirii was dead.

21 nnìì tígè ŋ kóò n jáà sìì<sup>n</sup> . 3.PL also ~2 CPL T see RECP

They also saw each other (the people of Bounou met to make a spell).

22 nnìì kớò n quúr -à díjà -L  $\mathfrak g$  kờ , sìríí . 3.PL CPL T kill RV DEF village DEF  $\sim$ 2 PP Sirii

They killed [the chief] in the village, sirii.

23 nnìì tígè ŋ kóò n jáà sìì<sup>n</sup> .

3.PL also ~2 CPL T see RECP

They also saw each other (the people of Bounou met to make a spell).

24 nnìì kớò n quí -à díjà -L  $\eta$  kờ , sìríí . 3.PL CPL T kill RV DEF village DEF  $\sim$ 2 PP Sirii

They killed [the chief] in the village, Sirii.

25 nnìì kóò pé —rò à túwèè nìì máà dégé síì<sup>n</sup> màà= —L vóò —L 3.PL CPL put —rV— DEF cat 3.PL.POSS head RECP POSS= 3 horse 3 hù<sup>n</sup>

PP

They put the cat on top of the (Fuuta) chief's horse.

26 à túwe à túŋùmé nnìì màá= –L dégè −L síìn màà= -L υóò -L3.PL POSS DEF cat DEF cat 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 ŋ kámáà à pútá =ndê màà= -L dábì jàŋ -ù .
~2 CPL DEF Fulani who enslaved people =PL POSS= 3 curse ruin PRF

28 nnìì kámáà nnìì kóó tígè -wàj .
3.PL CPL 3.PL CPL run STAT

They ruined the spell of the Fuuta.

They ran.

29 nnìì kóò pé –rò à túwèè nìì máà -L síìn -Ldégè màà= -rV- DEF cat (domestic) 3.PL.POSS head 3.PL CPL put 3 RECP POSS= 3 υóò  $-L h \dot{u}^n$ . 3 PP horse

They put the cat on top of the (Fuuta) chief's horse.

30 à túw̃è pé -rò mí yíè màà= -L vóò -L hù<sup>n</sup> DEF cat (domestic) put -rV- PASS ascend POSS= 3 horse 3 PP

The cat was put up on the horse.

31 kàá saa<sup>n</sup> à bíè mìnnà n ʒìè . then, at that time CHN NEG place, location T see

They (the Fuuta) could no longer see the place.

*They (the Fuuta) could not tell the back from the butt of the horse.* 

They don't see their own heads.

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

 $2 \text{ n\`e}$  mùwón -d  $-\grave{o}$  1.PL wet -r- RV

we wet (the sorghum)

3 nè ŋ ká n ʒe kòndʒé 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 kŏmpé INF remain PRF until afternoon

to leave (it) until the afternoon

6 n dè à 9 wòré N sà $\acute{w}^n$ 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 viế bínà INF morning until late morning

9 bŏrò 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 nέ n té!bέrè 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 dòndé jìndò day two two days

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 –5 dínέ hùn NEG PASS ~2 water RV morning

we do not water in the morning

 $20 \text{ n d} \hat{\epsilon} \quad \text{á} \quad \text{n tòr} \quad -\hat{u}$ 1.PL CHN ~2 water PRF

we water it

21 hà pùú<sup>n</sup> INF grow

until it starts

 $22 \text{ s\'e p\'u\`u}^n$  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 hásà kùwóndò 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 děn mì INF cook PASS

it is cooked

32 hà<br/>à jóờ mì mì until mix by hand PASS

unti it is mixed by hand

 $33 \text{ sé } 35^n \qquad \text{mì} \quad p \grave{a}^n$  if mix by hand PASS all

if it is all mixed by hand

34 màá= -H bów<sup>n</sup> dèn mì POSS 1 millet porridge cook PASS

its cream is cooked

35 sé maa –H bóẁ¹ if POSS 1 millet porridge

if its cream

36 n děn 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 dìnέ hùn INF tomorrow morning until tomorrow morning

41 bòrò dìné 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

44 hàà m mòwé<sup>n</sup> mì

until ~2 wring out PASS

it is wrung out

if it is scooped

45 sè m mòwé<sup>n</sup> mì if  $\sim$ 2 wring out PASS

if it has been wrung out

46 màá= -H yìέ hàà děn mì POSS 1 water until cook PASS

its water is cooked

47 sé maa -H yíè  $\eta$  káw děn mì if want 1 water  $\sim$ 2 DEM cook PASS

if its water that is cooked

48 háà bìjú until ready

until ripe/ready

49 hàà bùn —d —í mì until make move out its half —r— PRF PASS it is taken off

50 háà tínd -è mì súyè páyá ŋ 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 súųέ until put RV PASS descend

it is put down

53 á páyá ŋ kò
DEF pot, container GEN PP

in the container

54 sé dwon hà tínd  $-\grave{\epsilon}$  mì n sùy $\grave{\epsilon}$  if cold INF put RV PASS ~2 descend

if it cools, they put down

55 tóngè ŋ kò pot, jar, canary GEN PP

inside the pot

56 sé sùyé à tóngè ŋ kò if descend DEF pot, jar, canary GEN PP

if it is put down into the pot

57 sé sùyé à tóngè n kò if descend DEF pot, jar, canary GEN PP if descend pot, jar, canary inside

58 sé dẃòn if cold

if it cools

59 n dè wòré nàà ŋ káràá síìn wàj 1.PL go INC ~2 find bitter STAT we go find it is bitter

60 ŋ 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 dé<br/>èn gó<br/>òn jíndò

'Counting from One to Two Thousand'

1 tíjéè
one
2 jíndò
two
3 táárù
three
4 néè
four
5 núndì

6 kéérè

five

six

7 kííjè

seven 8 sáágì

eight

9 tèégò *nine* 

10 kúrέ

ten

11 kònóró tórè ten one

# eleven

12 kònóró jíndò ten two

twelve

13 kònóró táárù ten three

thirteen

14 kònóró néè ten four

fourteen

15 kònóró núndì ten five

fifteen

16 kònóró kéérè ten six

sixteen

17 kònóró kííjè ten seven

seventeen

18 kònóró sáágì ten eight

eighteen

19 kònóró tèégò ten nine nineteen

20 tááwà twenty

twenty

- 21 tààw̃á 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= tómè +è kííjè twenty CONJ= cowry shell(s) DIM seven twenty seven

28 tááwà daw= tómè +è sáágì twenty CONJ= cowry shell(s) DIM eight twenty eight

29 tááwà daw= tómè +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= tómè +è tórè twenty CONJ= baby ten CONJ= cowry shell(s) DIM one thirty one

tááwà / tááwà jíndò twenty twenty two forty

tááw̃à jíndò daw= tómè +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

jóórò daw= bíè kúré eighty CONJ= baby ten ninety

tááwà núndì twenty five one hundred

tááwà tááwà há déèn kíi kúré twenty twenty INF fill thing ten two hundred  $g\acute{o}\grave{o}^n$  tórè man one

one thousand

à góờ<sup>n</sup> jíndò DEF man two

two thousand

# Appendix IX: Quantifiers

1 kéè pàà<sup>n</sup> . thing all

All things.

2 kii pààn nii kúún náw wòré . thing all 3.PL market INC go

Everyone is going to the market.

3 yáá támátí  $\mathfrak{g}$  kíí pàà<sup>n</sup> . buy tomato ~2 thing all

Buy all [the] tomatoes.

4 yáá à tàmátí m pàà<sup>n</sup> . buy DEF tomato  $\sim$ 2 all

Buy all the tomatoes.

5 yáá ŋ kíí pàà<sup>n</sup> . buy  $\sim$ 2 thing all

Buy everything.

 $6 \text{ pá\'w } \text{ n} \quad \text{k\'ii} \quad \text{pà\`a}^{n} \ .$  take  $\sim\!\!2 \text{ thing all}$ 

Take everything.

7 n náw ŋ kíí pàà<sup>n</sup> nno -o .  $\sim 2$  INC  $\sim 2$  thing all hear RV

He understands everything.

8 yáá ŋ kíí pàà =nd $\hat{\epsilon}$  màà= ké $\hat{\epsilon}$  . buy  $\sim$ 2 something all =PL EXIST thing Spend all the money in order to buy the things.

9 à díjà jàà =ndέ pàà<sup>n</sup> .

DEF village child PL all

All of the village's children.

11 yáá ŋ kíí péèrè .
buy ~2 thing many
Buy many of things.

12 yáá kéè péérè . buy thing many Buy many of things.

13 yáá kéé = ndè péérè , yáá kéé pééré = ndè .

buy thing = PL many buy thing many = PL

Buy many of things.

14 n dúg –á –H só 5 n ſijéndè péé¹ré. have RV 1 shirt old, worn out many I have many of worn out shirts.

16 à jàà –ndé níì péè<sup>n</sup> .

DEF child PL 3.PL many

Many of children.

17 à jàà = ndế péèrè n dó $\dot{o}^n$  ~ dáà ŋ wì à kóò ŋ 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 yáá péèn . thing many COMP EXIST here Burkina Faso POSS= 3 price many . Many of things in Burkina are expensive.

19 kàdijà maa –L kùrèmé póórè péèn . Kadija POSS 3 dog black many Many of kadija's black dogs.

20 péèn jáárī .
many very

A whole lot.

21 à= gúzè káráá péèn jáárī.

DEF green many very

There are many of weeds.

23 nné màà= N bítì wàj .

1.PL almost T finish STAT

We are almost finised (complete).

24 à nni $\grave{\epsilon}$  náá máà bú $^n$  -rà -L wàj . DEF milk EXIST almost finish -rV- 3 STAT The milk is almost finished (depleted).

26 n tớờ pờờ . alone *Alone*.

27 tóò pòò n dégé máà kòò . alone himself/herself EXIST house *I am alone in the house.* 

28 tóò pòò n dégé máà wòré kùù<sup>n</sup> . alone himself/herself EXIST go market *I am going alone to the market*.

29 máà púwè tóò pòò n dégé máà yí $\hat{\epsilon}$  síméé hù<sup>n</sup>. 1.POSS wife alone ~2 himself/herself EXIST ascend mountain PP *My wife is going alone on top of the cliffs*.

30 níì póò .
3.PL only
Only them.

31 káw tóò pòò mmáá .
DEM alone want

I only want that.

## **Appendix X: Texture Experiment**

It is spongy.

Consultant 1: full response

spongy

1. scrubby pad

Phrase Gloss Translation

1 dáw múgú múgù

is spongy

2. nylon

RV

Phrase

2.1 n dág  $-\acute{u}$  kéè m bíè sùrè máà síí  $\sim$ 2 touch PRF thing  $\sim$ 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

- 3. sponge

Phrase Gloss Translation

3.1 n súré η kíì

~2 know CAUS I am made to know I am sure I know what it is.

	Phrase G	iloss	Translation	l	
3.2	kíí múgú múgù thing spongy sp	pongy thir	ng It is a spong	gy thing	<b>J</b> .
4.	coarse linen				
	Phrase		_		
4.1	há nníŋà náẁ sòò <sup>n</sup> bíè IRR say RV shirt NE				
Gloss	<i>y</i>	_			
Tran	slation It is like fabric but it	is not fab	ric.		
	Phrase		Translation		
4.2		síí type	I do not know it	s type.	
	Phrase		Gloss		Γranslation
4.3	n dógóndò káw bíè ~2 resemble DEM NEG	mì RFL	resemble it not		t looks like something out it is not that.
5.	wool				
	Phrase	Gloss	_	Trans	slation
5.1	m bíè súré η kíì ~2 NEG know CAUS	I am no	t made to know	I am	not sure.
	Phrase		Gloss	Trans	lation
5.2	kíí síjò <sup>n</sup> kíì déréb–i thing white thing soft–Di		white thing, soft little thing	It is v	white, little, and soft.

6. eraser

	Phr	ase				
6	n	súré ŋ kíì	sé	nníì	nà	káráá káràà
	~2	able to know	COND	3.PL	CONJ	teach
DI		(aont)				

Phrase (cont) gáwn bíè géjìnd-ì búnd-ì nágóndì sé há sá IRR write COND **NEG** sweep-PRF take off-PRF COND good

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

	Phrase		Gloss	Translation
7	bówìè rope	dáyàè small	small rope	It is a small rope.

- 8. sea salt
  - Phrase Gloss Translation
- 8.1 kúyìè dáyàè calabash small a small calabash It is a small bowl.

Phrase Gloss Translation

8.2 kúyìè màà= kórò

calabash 3.POSS stomach a calabash's stomach Inside a bowl.

Phrase Gloss Translation 8.3 dέè dáw kúyìè kò a seed is in a A small grain is dáyáè seed RV calabash PP small calabash inside a small calabash. small

Phrase Gloss Translation

8.4 kíì kú kàjì thing bumpy a bumpy thing It is bumpy.

_	Phrase	Gloss		Translation	
8.5	kíí gúní gári dáyàè thing cracked small	a small, cracked	d thing	It is a little bit cracked.	
9.	chalk				
_	Phrase	Gloss		Translation	
9.1	m bíè súré ŋ kíì ~2 NEG able to know	I am not able t	o know	I am not sure what it is.	
	Phrase	Gloss	Transla	ation	
9.2	búří –mὲ kúrí+jὲ stick DIM short	a short little stick	It is a s	short, little stick.	
10.	felt				
	Phrase	Glo	SS	Translation	
10.1	ŋ dág −ú káẁ ~2 touch PRF DEM	á síjè now I tou	uched it no	ow I just touched it.	
	Phrase				
10.2	há nníŋà sòò <sup>n</sup> bíè IRR say shirt NEG	sòò <sup>n</sup> shirt			
Gloss Trans	J	irt' s clothing but it is n	ot clothing	g.	
	Phrase	Gloss	Translati	ion	
10.3	dáràà kírí –jè slick thing DIM	slick little thing	It is a lit	tle bit slick.	

11.	marble		
	Phrase	Gloss	Translation
11.1	m bíè súré ŋ kíì ~2 NEG know	I am not able to know	I am not sure what it is.
	Phrase	Gloss	Translation
11.2	kíì múgùl –iè thing round DIM	a little round thing	It is a little round thing.
12.	styrofoam		
	Phrase	Gloss Transla	ation_
12.1	kíí míró mírò thing smooth	a smooth thing It is sn	nooth.
	Phrase Gl	oss Translation	
12.2	bíè mèr̃è NEG heavy no	t heavy It is not heavy.	-
	Phrase	Gloss	Translation
12.3	kíì pégí pégì –jè thing light DIM	a little light thing	It is a little light thing.
13.	slime		
	Phrase	Gloss Tra	anslation
13.1	yíè bíè yíè water NEG water	water not water It s	seems like water but it is not water.

	Phrase	Gloss	Translation					
13.2	kíì dérébè jímbō thing soft cold	a soft, cold thing	It is soft and cold.					
14.	orange netting							
	Phrase	Gloss	Translation					
14.1	n dág –ú kéέ ímà ~2 touch PRF thing here	síé I touched a thing here now now	I just touched something.					
	Phrase Gloss	Translation	<u>.                                    </u>					
14.2	kíí sógójíbíè thing scratchy a scratch	y thing It is scratch	ny.					
	Phrase Gloss	Translation	<u></u>					
14.3	bíè míró mírò NEG smooth not smo	ooth It is not smooth	h.					
15.	tape							
	Phrase							
15.1	n dág –ú kέè tè ~2 touch PRF thing one	mánàà n dáw m plastic ~2 RV 3.	áà nníí hù <sup>n</sup> POSS hand PP					
Gloss: Transla	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 nn stick person GEN arr		It sticks to a person's and hand.					

Translation

black fur 16.

Phrase

16.1	$s\acute{o}\grave{o}^n$	mὲ	dáyàè		It is a piece of fabric
	shirt	COMP	small	a clothing which is small	which is small

Gloss

Phrase Gloss Translation

múgú múgù 16.2 dáw squishy is squishy RV It is squishy.

Phrase Gloss Translation

16.3 bíè mènè NEG heavy not heavy It is not heavy.

17. mouse ball

	Phrase				Gloss	Translation
17.1	kíì	múgúl–έé round–	mènè	dáyàè	a round, heavy,	It is round, heavy, and
	thing	DIM	heavy	small	small thing	small.
	Phrase	e				

17.2 mè múgú múgù -mè dá màà= á sìjè kíì **COMP** RV 3.POSS now thing spongy DIM

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	
18.1		dág touch					I touched one thing again	I touched something here that was here earlier.	

	Phrase Gloss			Gloss	Translation		1	
18.2	kíì thing	pégí p light	_	–jὲ DIM	a little ligh	nt thing	It is little a	nd light.
	Phrase	2				Gloss	Transl	ation
18.3	dáràà slick	há IRR	nníŋ say	à náẁ RV	mánàà plastic	slick to say plastic		ick, one would t is plastic.
19.	model	ing clay	y					
	Phrase	<u> </u>		Gle	oss	Transla	ation_	
19.1	kíí thing	míró i smoot		sm	ooth thing	It is sm	nooth.	
	Phrase	)				Gloss		Translation
19.2	dágòn reseml		ánàà astic		mánàà plastic	resemble but not p	es plastic plastic	It resembles plastic, but it is not plastic.
20.	cork so	quare						
<u> </u>	Phrase							
		sìpó <sup>n</sup> styrofo		dógòn ò resemble	mè COMP	bú–ràà move out	híŋgá of before	
Transla	ation:	It rese	mbles	s that sty	rofoam whi	ch came ou	ut before.	
21.	wooly	fabric						
	Phrase	2		Glo	SS		Translation	
21.1	sòò <sup>n</sup> shirt	bíè NEG	sòò <sup>n</sup> shirt		hing not clo	othing	It is like fab	ric but it is not fabric.

-	Phrase	Translation		
21.2	náà múgú múgù RV squishy	It is squishy.		
-	Phrase	Translation		
21.3	dúg –á kúyì have RV hair	-		
22.	wavy paper			
-	Phrase			Translation
22.1	n dág –ú ~2 touch PRF		ondō gain	I touched something here again.
<u>-</u>	Phrase			_
22.2	níŋà náẁ mánnà say RV plastic		nà –ὲ tic DIM	1
Gloss: Transla	_	l plastic not small plas say it is a small piece		out it is not a small piece of plastic.
-	Phrase	Gloss	Trai	nslation_
22.3	kéè gúndí gánnì thing bumpy	a bumpy thing	It is	bumpy.
-	Phrase Glos	s Translation		
22.4	góró górò	τ. ·		

It is wavy.

wavy wavy

23. velvet

Phrase Gloss Translation

23.1 nníŋà náẁ sòòn bíè sòòn Gne would say it is say RV shirt NEG shirt I say is shirt not shirt fabric but it is not fabric.

Phrase

23.2 bíè n súré  $\eta$  kíì dógòndò kíì síjò<sup>n</sup> NEG ~2 know resemble thing white

Gloss: 'I am not able to know, it resembles a white thing' Translation: I am not sure, but it resembles something white.

	Phrase			Gloss	Translation
23.3		súré ŋ kíì able to know		I am unable to know, slick	I am sure it is slick.

24. brush

Phrase Gloss Translation

24.1 dáà múgúlò

RV round is round it is round

Phrase Gloss Translation

24.2 kíì sógójíbè thing scratchy scratchy thing It is scratchy.

Phrase

24.3 há níŋà n dáẁ dégè hásàà kéέ IRR say ~2 RV head brush thing

Gloss: 'one would say it is a head brushing thing'

Translation: I think it is a hairbrush.

Phrase

24.4 à tàá káw biéndè à tàá káw kíì 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

Gloss: 'I touched again, a thing, a small smooth thing' Translation: I touched another small smooth thing.

	Phrase		Gl	oss	Trans	latior	ı
25.2	bàlò ball	dáyàè small	a small ball.		It is a small ball.		
	Phrase						
25.3	há IRR	nníŋà say		méné ménè kick	bʷìέ leg	ŋ ~2	kò PP

Gloss: 'to say is kicking with foot'
Translation: One would say it is a soccer ball.

	Phrase			Gloss	Translation
25.4	kíì thing	múgúndú round	pégí pégì light weight	a little light, round thing	It is little, light and round.

26. fabric sponge

	Phrase	Gloss	Translation
26.1	há nníŋà náw bíè sòò IRR say RV NEG shir	•	One would say it is fabric but it is not fabric.
	Phrase	Gloss	Translation
26.2	kíì múgú múgù -wè thing squishy DIM	a small, squishy thin	g It is small, squishy and soft.
	Phrase	Gloss	Translation
26.3	há nníŋà náẁ sòòn bíè IRR say RV shirt NEO	sòò <sup>n</sup> to say a s G shirt but not sh	
	Phrase		Gloss Translation Its type is the
26.4	n káw máà síí dá ~2 DEM 3.POSS type to	ág –á bóndō ouch RV again	its type I same as I touch again touched before.
	Phrase	Gloss	Translation
26.5	sòò <sup>n</sup> jógó máà clothing turn over 3.POSS	dègè a shirt turns head over its head	
	Phrase	Gloss	Translation
26.6	kíì múgú múgù –jè thing squishy DIM	little squishy thing	It is little and squishy.

27. round rope

Phrase Translation

27 bốwiề dág –á
rope touch RV I touch a rope.

28. loufa (?)
Phrase Translation

28.1 mè kíì mógíbè mérébè COMP thing slimy fluid It is a thing which is slimy and fluid.

Phrase Gloss Translation

28.2 màà= kúyì béndē 3.POSS hair long its hairs long Its hairs are long.

Phrase Gloss Translation

28.3 kúyí gìè<sup>n</sup> hair owner It has hair.

29. washcloth

Phrase Gloss Translation

29.2 màá= kòrò kúyí 3.POSS stomach hair its stomach's hair Its inside is hairy.

Translation Phrase Gloss 29.3 kíí dègè two things are on Two things are jìndò síì<sup>n</sup> hùn each other's heads stuck together. thing two head RECP PP

30.	nail file			
_	Phrase	Gloss	Translation	
30	búřà bìribíéè dáyàè stick thin small	thin, small stick	It is a thin, small	stick.
31.	terrycloth			
	Phrase	Gloss	Translation	
31.1	sòò <sup>n</sup> bíè sòò <sup>n</sup> shirt NEG shirt	a shirt not a shirt	It is like fabric, bu	at it is not fabric.
	Phrase	Gloss		Translation
31.2		író mírò nooth a little	, soft, smooth thing	It is little, smooth, and soft.
32.	play dough			
	Phrase	Gloss	Translation	
32.1	kíì múgú múgù thing squishy	squishy thing	It is squishy.	
	Phrase		Gloss	Translation
32.2	P. há níŋà wùrú karite IRR say tree	n jíí GEN blood	it is like (the sap of the) Karite tree	It is like chewing gum.
33.	chalkboard eraser (?)			
-	Phrase		Gloss	Translation

33 ŋ káw màà= sóớn kíì kíếvế  $\sim 2$  DEM 3.POSS shirt thing flat that, its fabric flat

34.	contact paper				
	Phrase Gloss		Translation		
34.1	mánàà nàá plastic course course	plastic	It is course pla	astic.	
	Phrase		Gloss	Translation	
34.2	n dáw kú kájì kírì 1.SG RV rough thing	−jὲ g DIM	it is rough little thing	It is a little b	it rough.
35.	cardstock				
_]	Phrase G	loss	<u> </u>	ranslation	
	35 dóò mè dágáè paper COMP small paper which is small A piece of paper which is little.				
	Phrase Gloss		Translation		
35.1	mánàà dáγàὲ plastic small small pl	astic I	t is a small pied	ce of plastic.	
36.	brown beans				
	Phrase			Gloss	Translation
36.1		láà máá RV 3.PO	kòrò SS inside	a thing in a calabash	There is something small inside a bowl.
	Phrase	Gloss	Translation	_	
36.2	kírí gúní gářì thing bumpy	uneven	It is bumpy.		

	Phrase	Gloss	Translation	
36.3	déé <mark>síìª</mark> há níŋà tígàjè seed IRR say peanut	seeds, to say peanut	It is little pieces like peanuts.	
37.	leather material			
	Phrase	Gloss	Translation	
37.1	há níŋà náẁ mánàà déréb IRR say RV plastic softD	J	One would say it is soft plastic.	
	Phrase Gloss	Transla	ation	
37.2	2 mánàà déréb–íè plastic soft–DIM a little, soft plastic It is a little, soft piece of plastic.			
38.	wood cylinder			
	Phrase Gloss	Tra	nslation	
38.1	káw buři –je DEM stick DIM that is a	a little stick Tha	at is small stick small.	
	Phrase	Gloss	Translation	
38.2	buri –jε mégélù dáγàè 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		Transla	tion
40.1	3 3	è leg's scrubbii	ng foot rock	It is a p	umice stone.
40.2	sá à b <sup>w</sup> ìé ná COND 2.SG foot RV	0 0	à OND 2.SG	gíjá ná scrub R	w báá V move out of
	2	crack you rub, it t is cracked, so th		them clear	1.
41.	corrugated paper				
41	n dág –ú kéè 1.SG touch PRF thing		U	óró górò avy	
		ng here a square mething here, a s	-	wavy.	
42.	green fabric				
_	Phrase G	loss	Trans	slation	
	mánnà –mè dáyáè plastic DIM small sn	nall piece of plas	etic It is a	small piec	e of plastic.
43.	talcum powder				
	Phrase (	Gloss Transla	ntion		
43.1	búú <sup>n</sup> dág –á powder touch RV	I touch	powder.		

	Phrase		Gloss		Trans	lation	_
43.2	búú <sup>n</sup> powder	síjò <sup>n</sup> white	white p	owder	It is w	hite powder.	
44.	cotton ba	alls					
_]	Phrase		Gloss	Translatio	on_		
		ıgù tton	cotton	It is cotto	n.		
45.	shaving	foam					
	Phrase			Gloss			Translation
45.1		léréb–íè oft–DIM	mógíbè syrupy	a little s	oft syrı	upy thing	It is little, soft and syrupy.
	Phrase		Gloss	Tran	slation	_	
45.2		láràà lick	slick thing	g It is s	slick.		
	Phrase		Glos	S		Translation	
45.3		kírí – thing D		le, cold th	ing	It is a little b	oit cold.
	Phrase		Gloss	Trans	lation		
45.4		ón¹dέ vet	a wet thing	It is w	ret.		

# Consultant 2: full response

1. scrubby pad

	Phrase	<del>.</del>	Gloss	Translation
1	kíí thing	sóyójèbè scratchy	scratchy thing	it is scratchy

2. nylon

Phrase

2	mánàà	dérébè		
	plastic	soft	soft plastic	It is soft plastic.

Gloss

3. sponge

Phrase	Gloss	Translation
		_

- 3 kíí pόγό pόγὸ thing light light thing It is light.
- 4. coarse linen

Phrase	Gloss	Translation
	<u> </u>	

Translation

4.1 kíí póγó póγòg –wὲ thing light DIM little light thing It is little and light.

Phrase	Gloss	Translation

- $\begin{array}{cccc} 4.2 & k \hat{\imath} \hat{\imath} & k \hat{\imath} \hat{\epsilon} \nu \hat{\epsilon} \\ & thing & flat & flat thing & It is flat. \end{array}$
- 5. wool

	Phrase	<u></u>	Gloss	Translation		
5		sóyójèbè scratchy	scratchy thing	It is scratchy.		

6. eraser

Phrase Gloss Translation

6 kíí máà 3íí
thing bouillon cube bouillon cube thing It is bouillon cube—like.

7. yarn

Phrase Gloss Translation

7 bốrí
yarn yarn It is yarn.

8. sea salt

Translation Phrase Gloss déέ είὲ<sup>n</sup> 8.1 n seed GEN seed millet's seed It is a grain. Gloss Translation Phrase 8.2 déέ είὲn n seed GEN seed It is a grain. millet's seed

9. chalk

Phrase

9 búřá kúrúmè stick short short stick It is a short stick.

Gloss

Translation

10. felt Translation Phrase Gloss 10 sìpốn styrofoam styrofoam It is styrofoam. 11. marble Translation Phrase Gloss déέ 11.1 kórójéè màá= bead 3.POSS seed bead's seed It is a bead. Phrase Gloss Translation 11.2 kíí míró mírò smooth thing smooth thing It is smooth. styrofoam 12. Translation Phrase Gloss kúyìè little 12.1 sìpớn káj −mè rough It is a little and rough piece of styrofoam styrofoam. styrofoam rough DIM Translation Phrase Gloss 12.2 dwàà póyó póyò light light tree It is a light tree tree 13. slime Phrase 13 yíè há nníŋà náw kéὲ kùrùbé ŋ water **IRR** say RV thing GEN intestines

'water, to say it is a thing's intestine'

Gloss:

Translation: Water, one would say it is intestine-Like

14.	orange	netting
1 1.	Orange	1100011115

Phrase Gloss Translation

14 kíí kúqìè 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 páríè cloth strip of cotton or other fabric that is woven It is small strips of cloth.

## 17. mouse ball

Phrase Gloss Translation

17.1 kórómὲ màá= déέ bead 3.POSS seed bead's grain It is a bead.

Phrase Gloss Translation

17.2 kíí míró mírò thing smooth smooth thing It is smooth.

18. red plastic

Phrase Gloss Translation

18 míró míró -mè smooth DIM smooth It is little and smooth.

19. modeling clay

Phrase Translation

19.1 kíí dáy –á bíbiè thing touch RV gooey I touch a gooey thing.

Phrase Gloss Translation

19.2 zíè bíè zíè honey not honey It is like honey but it is not honey.

Phrase Gloss Translation

- 19.3 kíì múgúndú –mè thing round DIM a little round thing It is little and round.
- 20. cork square

Phrase Gloss Translation

- 20 kíí kúwó –ndī kíì kíέυέ thing dry CAUS thing flat a thing made dry and flat It is rough and flat.
- 21. wooly fabric

Phrase Gloss Translation

21.1 mè kíì mógíbè mérébè a thing which is COMP thing syrupy fluid syrupy and fluid syrupy and fluid

	Phrase		Gloss		Translation	1
21.2	màà kúyì bén <sup>!</sup> de 3.POSS hair long	5	its hair	long	Its hair is l	ong.
	Phrase Glo	OSS	Trans	slation		
21.3	•	r owner	It is l	nairy.		
22.	wavy paper					
_	Phrase			Gloss		Translation
22	sóờ <sup>n</sup> –mὲ kíì póγ shirt DIM thing ligh	rò páyò nt	–wὲ DIM	little li	ght shirt	It is a little, light piece of clothing.
23.	velvet					
_	Phrase	Glo	SS		Translation	
23	bágí –mè déréb –íí cloth DIM soft DI		e small cl	oth	A little, sof	t piece of cloth.
24.	brush					
	Phrase	Gloss			Translation	<u>1</u>
24.1	dégè hásàà kéé head brush thing	head b	rushing t	hing	hair brush	
	Phrase		Gloss		Translation	1
24.2	kíí gúní gári hó <sup>n</sup> thing bumpy EM	PH a	bumpy t	hing	a very bun	npy thing

25. stress ball

Translation Phrase Gloss múgúndú 25 kíì −mè thing round DIM little round thing It is little and round. 26. fabric sponge Phrase Gloss Translation sìpốn 26 kíí −bár̃ò dáyàè it is styrofoam, it is a little bit big. styrofoam thing AUG small styrofoam, large small 27. round rope Gloss Translation Phrase 27.1 bźwìὲ ŋ kíndī short rope **GEN** rope's short It is a short rope. Phrase Gloss Translation 27.2 bówiè kúyiè cíèn rope hair owner It is a hairy rope. 28. loufa Gloss Translation Phrase 28.1 mánàà mùdzóbè plastic stringy stringy plastic it is stringy plastic Translation Phrase Gloss 28.2 kíì kúyìè káj −mè thing rough DIM little rough thing It is little and rough.

29. washcloth

30.2 kíì

kúyìè kájmè

thing rough

mέ

**COMP** 

nè

PL

kéὲ

jáγ

thing cut RV

–à

cuts things

thing

that cuts.

Phrase Gloss Translation 29.1 bómbórò dáyàè hat small small hat It is a small cap. Phrase Gloss Translation dégè 29.2 kíì jìndò SÍÍn  $h\grave{u}^n$ two things's heads two things are are on each other. thing two head **RECP** PP connected Phrase Gloss Translation 29.3 pótámáánì dáyàè wallet small small wallet It is a small wallet. Phrase Translation dáyàè 29.4 kíì kúyìè káj −mè thing scratchy DIM small It is a little bit rough/scratchy. 30. nail file Translation Phrase sìpớn 30.1 mέ =nè kéὲ jáγ –à styrofoam COMP PL thing It is a piece of styrofoam that cuts. RV cut Gloss Translation Phrase rough It is a rough thing which

31. terrycloth

01.					
	Phrase	Gloss	Translation		
31.1	bágí párámè dáy cloth sma		a little bit si	nall cloth	
	Phrase	Gloss	Translation	_	
31.2	kíí míró mírò thing smooth	smooth thing	it is smooth		
	Phrase	Gloss	Translation	_	
31.3	kíí dáyàè thing small	small thing	It is small.		
32.	play dough				
	Phrase	Gloss		Translation	
32.1	táárè múgùl bee's wax round	−ìὲ DIM round t	oeeswax	pin cushion	
	Phrase	Gloss	8	Translation	
32.2		iyàè nall a lon	g small thing	It is a little b	oit long
33.	chalkboard eraser				
_	Phrase G	loss T	Translation_		
	kíì kíévé thing flat a	flat thing I	t is flat.		
34.	contact paper				
_	Phrase		Gloss	Trans	lation
	bágí –jè símá cloth DIM white	dáyàè small	a small white	cloth It is a	small, white cloth.

35. cardstock

	Phrase			Gloss	Tran	slation
35	dóò paper	–mέ DIM	dáyàè small	a small paj	per It is a	a small piece of paper.
36.	brown	beans				
	Phrase				Gloss	Translation
36	kórómè bead		màá= 3.POSS	déέ seed	bead's seed	a bead's grain
37.	leathe	r materi	al			
	Phrase			Gloss		Translation
37	bágí cloth	bógò big	dáyàè small	small big		a piece of cloth which is a little big
38.		cylinde		Cioni		0.5
	Phrase			Gloss	Transla	ation
38	búřà stick	–mέ DIM	dáyàè small	small stick	x It is a s	small stick.
39.	flat ro	pe				
	Phrase	e	Glo	OSS	Translation	
39.	l bówìè rope	dáyàs small		nall rope	It is a little ro	ppe.

Gloss

pant's rope

bówíè

Phrase

39.2 táwá màá=

pants POSS rope

Translation

It is a belt.

Translation

One would say it is

like milk powder.

40. pumice stone Phrase 40 kíì kúyìè kájmè à síméé bwèè á gíjá mέ ŋ kò thing rough **DET** rock DET leg scrub COMP GEN PP the rough rock which scrubs the feet. Gloss: Translation: pumice stone 41. corrugated paper Translation Phrase Gloss 41 qéngiè kίέυέ metal flat flat metal A flat small piece of metal. 42. green fabric Translation Phrase Gloss  $p^w\acute{e}\grave{e}^n$ 42 á tóśn níŋà dáw m one would say it is money's leaves. RVGEN leaf say money It resembles cash. 43. talcum powder Phrase Gloss Translation 43.1 bùùn kò powder GEN PP powder's inside powder is in it

Gloss

to say is

milk's powder

búún

Phrase

IRR

nίέ

m

milk GEN powder

nínà náw

say

RV

43.2 há

# 44. cotton balls

Phrase Gloss Translation

44 há níŋà náẁ dègè kúyíè dáyàè to say is small One would say it is IRR say RV head hair small head's hair like small head hair.

# 45. shaving foam Phrase

45 kí-rì dáyàè tínd -é swíí ŋ 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**

## ABBIE E.HANTGAN

703 W. Gourley Pike Apt 42 Bloomington, IN 47404 (812) 219-8004

email: ahantgan@indiana.edu

project website: http://dogonlanguages.org/bangi\_me.cfm personal website: http://mypage.iu.edu/~ahantgan/index.html

### **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 44<sup>th</sup> 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. <a href="http://africaaccessreview.org/">http://africaaccessreview.org/</a>.
- 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 43<sup>rd</sup> 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 86<sup>th</sup> 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 42<sup>nd</sup> 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 39<sup>th</sup> Colloquium on African Languages and Linguistics. Leiden University, The Netherlands.
- ———. (August 17 21, 2009). *Tone in Bangime Nouns*. Paper presented at the 6<sup>th</sup> 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 40<sup>th</sup> 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