UNIVERSITY OF GOTHENBURG
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AF1111

Introduction to Linguistics and African Languages

Key Concepts and Assignments

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Obligatory Readings for this course

BLLL = Culicover, Peter W. & Hume, Elizabeth V. 2017. *Basics of language for language learners*. 2nd edn. Columbus: Ohio State University Press. (price comparison)

LSAAL = Eifring, Halvor & Theil, Rolf. 2005. *Linguistics for Students of Asian and African Languages*. Manuscript. University of Oslo. (Chapter 1-2.2, 5, 7-8, Open Access)

FSTAL = Richter, Borbála (ed.). 2006. *First Steps in Theoretical and Applied Linguistics*. Budapest: Bölcsész Konzorcium. (Chapter 1-6, 8, Open Access)

Wolff, H. Ekkehard. 2016. *Language and development in Africa.* Cambridge: Cambridge University Press. (Chapter 9, distributed during the course)

For reference

Joint catalogue for all major Swedish libraries: **Libris**.

The Catalogue of Gothenburg University Library.

Ethnologue, login with you student credentials through our university library to get full access.

The World Atlas of Language Strucutres, **WALS**

Linguistic Society of America's Unified Stylesheet for the List of References.

Leipzig Generic Style Rules for Linguistics.

Leipzig Glossing Rules

Wikipedia's list of glossing abbreviations

Childs, George Tucker. 2003. An Introduction to African Languages. Amsterdam & Philadelphia: John Benjamins.

Dimendaal, Gerrit J. 2011. Historical linguistics and the comparative study of African languages. Amsterdam & Philadelphia: John Benjamins.

Dryer, Matthew S. & Haspelmath, Martin (eds.). 2013. The World Atlas of Language Structures Online. Leipzig: Max Planck Institute for Evolutionary Anthropology. http://wals.info

Eberhard, David M. & Simons, Gary F. & Fennig, Charles D. (eds.). 2022. Ethnologue: Languages of the World. 25th edn. Dallas, Texas: SIL International. http://www.ethnologue.com

Güldemann, Tom (ed.). 2018. The languages and linguistics of Africa, The World of Linguistics 11. Berlin & Boston: de Gruyter. https://gu-se-primo.hosted.exlibrisgroup.com/permalink/f/rmbr1s/46GUB_KOHA2601442

Mutaka, Ngessimo M. 2000. An introduction to African linguistics, LINCOM handbooks in linguistics 16. München: LINCOM Europa.

Vossen, Rainer & Dimmendaal, Gerrit J. (eds.). 2020. The Oxford handbook of African languages. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
https://gu-se-primo.hosted.exlibrisgroup.com/permalink/f/15agpbr/TN_cdi_proquest_ebookcentral_EBC6461114

Welmers, Wm. E. 1973. *African language structures.* Berkely. (UB Gbg: Fv 393)

When to read what

Unit 1. **Introduction to the Course** (BLLL ch. 1-4)
Unit 2. **Linguistics** (LSAAL ch. 1, FSTAL ch. 1)
Unit 3. **Languages in Africa** (LSAAL 5, Wolff 9)
Unit 4. **Semantics and Pragmatics** (LSAAL 2.2-2.2.4, FSTAL 5-6)
Unit 5. **Phonetics and Phonology** (BLLL 5 + FSTAL 2)
Unit 6. **Vowels and Consonants** (BLLL 6-7)

First exam, worth 2.5 ects credits (short online test)

Unit 7. **Phonotactics and Morphophonology** (BLLL 8-9)
Unit 8. **Structures and Categories** (BLLL 10, FSTAL 3)
Unit 9. **Nouns and Determiners** (BLLL 11)
Unit 10. **Modifying nouns: Adjectives and Relative Clauses** (BLLL 12)
Unit 11. **Verbs and Roles** (BLLL 13)
Unit 12. **Tense and Aspect** (BLLL 14)

Second exam, worth 2.5 ects credits (short online test)

Unit 13. **Phrases and Clauses** (FSTAL 4.1-4.5)
Unit 14. **Types of Clauses and Sentences** (BLLL 15, FSTAL 4.6)
Unit 15. **Writing** (LSAAL 8)
Unit 16. **Sociolinguistics: Varieties and Norms** (BLLL 16, LSAAL 7, FSTAL 8)
Unit 17. **Politeness and Taboos** (BLLL 17-18)
Unit 18. **Summing up and Review** (BLLL ch. 19)

Final Exam, worth 2.5 ects and the final grade for the course (longer online test)

Corrections and comments to the main textbook

Culicover, Peter W. & Hume, Elizabeth V. 2017. *Basics of language for language learners*. 2nd edn. Columbus: Ohio State University Press.

Page 42, line 13, instead of **ä, ö, å** read **å, ä, ö**.

Page 42, line 15, instead of **two** read **three**.

Page 42, line 20, instead of **almost at the end** read **at the end**.

The Finnish alphabet has three additional vowels (å, ä, ö) as compared to the English alphabet. Two (ä, ö) are typical Finnish sounds, whereas the vowel (å) mostly occurs in names of Swedish origin. The order of the extra vowels of the Finnish alphabet, just like in the Swedish alphabet, is ... *å, ä, ö.*
https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Finnish_orthography
However, the Norwegian and Danish alphabet ends with ... *æ, ø, å.*
https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Danish_and_Norwegian_alphabet

Page 42, line 1 f.b. (from bottom), instead of **[mâ]** read **[mă]**.

Page 44, line 12 f.b., instead of **Swedish-English** read **English-Swedish**.

Page 44, line 10 and 7 f.b., instead of **grasten** read **gråsten**.

Page 44, line 7 f.b., instead of **häleberg** read **hälleberg**.

Page 66, line 4: instead of **[q] thin, bath** read **[þ] or [θ] thin, bath**.

Page 85, line 2–3 f.b., instead of **French, Greek, German, Hawaiian, Hebrew, Hungarian, Italian, Japanese, Navajo, Spanish**
read **Greek, Hawaiian, Hebrew, Hungarian, Japanese, Navajo**.

Page 85, line 1 f.b., instead of **English** read **English, French, German, Italian and Spanish**.

Page 87, line 1–3: instead of **two mid nasal vowels, spelled 'ę' [ɛ̃] and 'ą' [ɔ̃]. The nasal quality of a vowel can differentiate the words 'I, me' (contains an oral vowel) and 'she, her' (contains a nasal vowel)** read **two mid nasal diphthongs, spelled 'ę' [ɛw̃] and 'ą' [ɔw̃]. The nasal quality of a vowel can differentiate the words 'it, that' (contains an oral vowel) and 'with it, with that' (contains a nasal diphthong)**.

Page 87, line 8: instead of **[jɔ] 'I, me'**
read ***to* [tɔ] 'it, that' (neuter singular, nominative case)**.

Page 87, line 9: instead of **[jɔ̃] 'she, her'**
read ***tą* [tɔw̃] 'with it, with that (feminine singular, instrumental case)**.

In Polish, [jɔ] occurs as a dialectal pronunciation corresponding to standard *ja* [ja] 'I (nominative)', as opposed to *ją* [jɔw̃] 'her (accusative)'.

Page 87, line 6–16 f.b.

Exemplifying vowel length with Turkish is not very fortunate, since Turkish only marginally has long vowels, mainly in borrowed words from Arabic. There are so many other good examples of languages that really has a full fledged system of contrasting long and short vowels, such as Swedish, Norwegian, Finnish, Estonian, Czech, Hungarian, and among African languages Arabic, Somali, Oromo, Hausa, Fula, Wolof...

Page 94, lines 15–16 f.b., instead of **In Arabic** read **In classical Arabic**.

In classical Arabic every word begins with a consonant. The letter alif (ا) denotes a glottal stop, not a vowel, e.g. انا /ʔana:/ 'I'. But in modern colloquial Arabic words can be pronounced without this initial glottal stop (and final long vowels are pronounced as short ones), which gives انا [ana] 'I', which in turn would most naturally be analysed as /ana/ in modern colloquial Arabic. So whether "every Arabic word begins with a consonant" depends on the analysis that you choose to adopt, which in turn depends on the variety that you want to analyse.

Page 97, line 13 f.b.

There are also Greek words ending in /ks/, e.g. πτέρυξ /'ptɛriks/.

Page 100, line 1 f.b., instead of **cedilla** read **ogonek or tail**.

A cedilla is found, e.g., in French <ç> or Turkish <ş>. The Polish and Lithuanian vowel symbols, however, carry a so called *ogonek* (Polish for 'tail') which is turned the other way around: <ą, ę, į, ų>.

Page 111, line 2–4: instead of **French, Greek, German, Hawaiian, Hebrew, Hungarian, Italian, Japanese, Navajo, Spanish**
read **Greek, Hawaiian, Hebrew, Hungarian, Japanese, Navajo**.

Page 125, line 8: instead of **the other six** read **the other three**.

Page 141, line 10: instead of **the children** read **(the) children**.

Swahili does not make any distinction between indefinite and definite form of nouns through the use of determiners.

Page 149, line 14: instead of **kazhdyje zelënyje list'ja** read **kaʒdyj zelʲonyj list**.

Page 149, line 4 f.b., instead of **the strange house** read **the small house**.

Page 149, line 1 f.b., instead of **the strange houses** read **the small houses**.

Page 153, line 18: instead of **at how** read **how**.

Page 156, line 9 and 12: instead of **il uomo** read **l'uomo**.

Page 169, line 12: instead of **le livre à ... Marie** read **le livre ... à Marie**.

Page 171, line 16 and 20: instead of **man** read **father**.

Page 171, line 12 f.b., instead of **that some action was accomplished**
read **a tool or instrument with which some action was accomplished**.

Page 172, line 14: instead of **the form of a noun is the same**
read **the form of a noun can be the same**.

Page 172, line 8 f.b., instead of **3SG-past-3SG-see-INDIC**
read **1SG-PAST-1SG-see-INDIC**

In Swahili (and Bantu) grammar, 1SG, 3SG etc. refers to the noun class of the noun that the verb prefix is referring to, i.e., 1SG = noun class 1 (which contains singular nouns) etc.

Page 172, line 6 f.b., instead of **a-ni-ki-soma** read **a-na-ki-soma**.

Page 185, line 2, 4 and 6 f.b., instead of **v kote** read **na kota**.

Page 186, line 1: instead of **present tense form of the verb *be***
read **future tense form of the verb *be***.

Page 186, line 4: instead of **future by using the present tense of the verb itself**
read **future time by using the present tense forms of the verb itself**.

Page 189, line 15: instead of **pisat** and **napisat** read **piʃet** and **napiʃet**.

Page 198, line 10: instead of **he-asks** read **(s)he-asks**.

To the Polish examples, one could add, just like in German, a polite request: *Proszę pytać!* 'Please ask!'

Unit 1. Introduction

Read BLLL, chapter 1–4. This is rather 'light reading'. If you don't get the textbook in time, there is no need to worry. You will be able to catch up later on.

The course will cover

– Basic linguistic concepts
– Basic information about languages in Africa
– Basic library searches for linguistic information
– Basic analysis of language data
– Glossing examples
– Handling references

Key concepts

Bilingual dictionary vs. **monolingual** dictionary

Word-classes, traditionally also called **parts of speech**, are e.g. nouns, adjectives, pronouns, verbs…

Gender: In many languages nouns are divided into a number of groups based on their behaviour together with other words. Swedish has two genders, since nouns require either *en* or *ett, den/det, ny/nytt* etc. German has three genders since nouns require either *der*, *die* or *das*.

Base form: the most basic (simplest, shortest, most frequent) form of a word. The exact definition may differ between languages and scholars.

Infinitive: a form of the verb that is typically used together with another verb in many languages, e.g. *I can read*, *Jag kan läsa*. Not all languages have an infinitive, and use expressions like 'I can that I read', 'Jag kan att jag läser' instead.

[brɑ:**]** (Swedish for 'good') these parentheses are used in order to give information about pronunciation, they contain **phonetic transcription** of a word or a phrase. The transcription is written using phonetic script.

/bra:/ these slashes are used in order to give information about the 'sound image' of a word or a phrase, i.e. what the speaker and listener in a particular language 'imagine' that they say. This is called a **phonological or phonemic transcription**. Ordinary speakers are often not aware of all the details in their own pronunciation.

<bra**>** these ‘parentheses’ are used in order to give information about **spelling or orthography**, i.e. about the letters of a word ord phrase.

Would you like to discuss any of the above concepts in more detail?
Did you notice any other important concepts in the readings?
Please write them down and bring them to our next class.

Unit 2. Linguistics

Read LSAAL chapter 1 and FSTAL chapter 1

Key concepts

Linguistics: The scientific study of language(s)

Descriptive vs. **prescriptive** statements about language

Grammar

Phonetics

Phonology – Phonemes

Morphology – Morphemes

Syntax

Morphosyntax: Morphology + Syntax; it's often difficult to tell exactly where to draw the borderline between them, and therefore easier to treat them together.

Lexicon: The set of words in a language and our knowledge about these words.

Lexicology: the science dealing with the lexicon, vs.
Lexicography: (the science dealing with) the construction of dicitionaries.

Semantics

Pragmatics

Sociolinguistics

Corpus linguistics

Historical lingustics

Form vs. **Meaning:** Every linguistic expression (word, phrase etc.) has two 'sides'. On the one hand there are the words themselves, which have a form consisting of sounds; on the other hand there are the meanings, what we imagine when we use a specific word.

Arbitrariness: the realtion between **form** and **meaning** is arbitrary, i.e. there is no 'natural' way of explaining the connection between the form and the meaning (with the exception of a few words that imitate sounds).

Recursiveness: the same words can be used over and over again, in new combinatioins, thus giving us the possibility to create an indefinite number

of different, new phrases and sentence of different length and complexity.

Would you like to discuss any of the above concepts in more detail?
Did you notice any other important concepts in the readings?
Please write them down and bring them to our next class.

The Character of Linguistics

is **descriptive:**

– It finds out how people use language(s),

– it finds patterns, makes generalisations, draws conclusions, finds explanations, makes predictions, and tests them.

It is **not prescriptive:**

– it doesn't say that something is good or bad, right or wrong,

– but it can describe what **people consider** to be (in)correct,

– as well as describe what is frequent and what is unfrequent.

There are No Primitive Languages

All langauges have an enormous, indefinite potential to develop new means of expression. It all depends on the needs of the community. It's mainly the **vocabulary that may be restricted** in a specific language, but new words can always be created, if needed.

Grammatical constructions may be very different in different languages. Some constructions are more condensed, other constructions use more words.

bilnyckeln vs. *nyckeln till bilen*
the car key vs. *the key to the car*

Different stylistic levels of language may use different grammar and vocabulary. Different styles develop over time if a need is felt for it in the community/society.

Assignments for class based on Unit 1–2:

1. Bring questions relating to the readings and the key concepts that have been introduced there.

2. Think of some structural difference(s) between any two languages that you know (even English and Swedish). Write down an example that illustrates what you mean. Be prepared to share your screen in Zoom and tell us about the structural difference(s) in your example(s).

Unit 3. Languages in Africa

Read LSAAL, chapter 5 + Wolff (2016), chapter 9

Key Concepts

> 2 000 languages in Africa

Language versus **Dialect**, division due to **either** intelligibility **or** standardisation, e.g. Swedish & Norwegian; Bosnian & Croatian & Serbian; Zulu & Xhosa; Moroccan Arabic & Iraqi Arabic

Language family (=**phylum**) and **subgroups**

Language Isolate – Languages with no genetic 'relatives'

Language Death

Lingua Franca – If two persons don't know each other's languages, they need to choose a third one in order to be able to communicate with each other. This is then their lingua franca – a language that is foreign to both participants, but used for practical communicative purposes. Examples of major lingua francas in today's world are English, Spanish, Arabic, Chinese, but in e.g. Ethiopia, the traditional lingua franca is Amharic.

Pidgin – A "lingua franca" that is not a previously existing language, but a new, simplified mix of two languages, usually the mother tongue's of the persons who want to communicate.

Creole – A "new" language that was previously a pidgin, but has become the mother tongue of new generations who were raised by speakers of a pidgin language.

Pidgin är inte ett språk utan en typ av språk. När personer med olika modersmål inte kan något gemensamt språk så "skapar" de ett "hjälpspråk" för att kunna kommunicerat.

Det innebär att det liksom utvecklas en "standard" för "hemmagjord" engelska i olika länder där stora delar av befolkningen behöver engelskan för att kommunicera då det talas många olika språk i landet. Om vi hade använt engelskan när vi gick till affären i Sverige för att det talades 80 olika modersmål i Sverige, då hade även svengelskan betraktats som en pidgin.

Ett pidgin-språk är ett språk som växer fram spontant som ett hjälpspråk i befolkningar där många språk samexisterar och majoriteten saknar kunskaper i

ett gemensamt språk som alla skulle kunna använda.

Ett annat hjälpspråk är t.ex. esperanto, men skillnaden är att esperanto är ett språk som planerats och utvecklats av språkvetare, medan pidgin är ett helt oplanerat språk och växer fram spontant på en viss plats, ofta i stora städer där många nationaliteter möts och behöver kommunicera, men få har tillräcklig skolgång för att kunna använda den standardiserade formen av det internationella språk som dominerar på platsen.

I Västafrika är det främst engelskan och franskan som är de stora officiella språken i många länder. Därmed är det också vanligt att ett av dessa båda språk utgör basen i det lokala pidgin-språket. Men skillnaderna mellan t.ex. standard-engelska och pidgin-engelska är vanligtvis så stora att den som inte kan pidgin-engelska i stort sett inte förstår någonting utan att lära sig språket. Dels finns massor av ord från andra språk blandade med de engelska orden, dels är både uttal och grammatik kraftigt förändrad. Till exempel kan flera av de engelska ljuden saknas eftersom de är svåra att uttala för folk på den aktuella platsen, då de viktiga lokala språken saknar ljuden. Vidare kan många detaljer i den engelska grammatiken ha fallit bort eftersom de saknar motsvarighet i de stora lokala språken. Ett intressant exempel är att många av världens språk inte skiljer mellan ‘han’ och ‘hon’. Så är det ju till exempel också i finskan som bara har ‘hän’. I Pidgin-språk går ofta sådana förändringar ännu längre, eftersom ingen som talar språket har det som modersmål. T.ex. är det i nigeriansk pidgin så att det finns ganska få pronomen och att ett och samma pronomen får fylla flera funktioner, t.ex. *im* i betydelsen ‘han, hon, hans, hennes’ och *am* för ‘honom, henne’ (se Rotimi & Faraclas, s. 96-99). En annan intressant detalj är att verben inte böjs och att det därmed inte finns några ändelser som signalerar förfluten tid i motsats till nutid.

Indo-European languages

Germanic:
English, German, Dutch, Afrikaans, Swedish, Norwegian, Danish, Icelandic, Faroese etc.

Romance:
French, Italian, Romanian, Spanish, Portuguese etc.

Slavic:
Russian, Ukrainian, Polish, Czech, Slovak, Slovene etc.

Celtic:
Irish, Welsh, Gaelic etc.

Greek

Albanian

Iranian:
Persian (aka Farsi), Tajik, Kurdish, Pashto etc.

Indo-Aryan:
Hindi, Urdu, Gujarati, Nepali, Bengali, Kashmiri, Punjabi, Sinhala, Romani etc.

etc.

Niger-Congo languages

Kordofanian languages (appr. 20 langauges):
Mande langauges (appr. 35 langauges):
Bambara, Jula, Mandinka...

Atlantic languages:
Fula, Wolof...

Ijoid languages

Dogon languages

Volta-Congo languages
North Volta-Congo
Kru languages
Gur languages

South Volta-Congo
Kwa languages
West Benue-Congo
Central Nigerian
Cross
Bantoid
Tivoid langauges
Tiv, Bitare…
Bantu languages (appr. 450 lang.)
Swahili, Kongo, Shona, Bemba, Zulu, Xhosa...

Afro-Asiatic languages

Semitic (ca. 77 lang.):

Central Semitic

Arabic, Hebrew…

South Semitic

Ahmaric (ca. 35 mill.), Tigrinya (ca. 10 mill.),
Tigre (ca. 3 mill.), South Arabic (Yemen & Oman)...

Cushitic (ca. 47 lang.):

Oromo (ca. 40 mill.), Somali (ca. 26 mill.), Sidamo (ca. 3 mill.),
Afar (1,5 mill.)...

Chadic (ca. 195 lang.)

Hausa...

Berber (ca. 26 lang.)

Tamazight, Tarifit, Taqbaylit, Tamasheq...

Omotic (ca 28 lang.)

Wolaytta (ca. 2 mill.)

Egyptian†

Coptic†…

Nilo-Saharan languages

A total of some 50-60 mill. speakers.

Large disagreement on the subdivision into groups.

Kanuri (3 mill. in Nigeria)
Luo (3 mill. in Kenya)
Dinka (2 mill. in South Sudan)
Nubian (1.7 mill. in Sudan and Egypt)
Maasai (1 mill. in Kenya and Tanzania)

Khoi-San languages

Less than 1 mill. speakers.

Large disagreement on the subdivision into groups.

Nama (ca 250 000 speakers in Namibia, Botswana, South Africa)
Sandawe (ca 50 000 speakers in Tanzania)

Austronesian languages

Ca. 1200 languages, spoken by a total of 400 million people.

Northern Austronesian

26 languages in Formosa/Taiwan, half of which are now extinct.

Eastern Austronesian (the largest number of languages)

Polynesian, Samoan, Tongan, Tahitian, Maori, Hawaiian…

Western Austronesian (the largest number of speakers)

Javanese, Malay, Indonesian, Tagalog (Philippines), Malagassy (Madagascar, ca. 25 mill.)…

Problem 3.1 – The number of speakers of individual languages in Africa

Have a look at the numbers of speakers mentioned in as many different sources as possible for two of the major languages of Africa. Alongside with other sources, you might also compare Wikipedia's different language versions about a specific language.

How much variation did you find? What are the extremes for the same language?

What different reasons can there be for the sometimes large variation in numbers?

If you want to get inspired (or maybe puzzled or confused), have a look at some of these videos:

10 most spoken langauges in Africa
1. Swahili, 2. Arabic, 3. Zulu, 4. French, 5. English, 6. Oromo, 7. Yoruba, 8. Amharic, 9. Igbo, 10. Hausa
https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=NimJsEGGbDk

7 most spoken languages in Africa
1. Swahili, 2. Arabic, 3. Hausa, 4. Yoruba, 5. Oromo, 6. Igbo, 7. Zulu
https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=8CwJemzfDhc

10 most spoken languages in Africa
1. Arabic, 2. English, 3. French, 4. Swahili, 5. Hausa, 6. Yoruba, 7. Igbo, 8. Amharic, 9. Oromo, 10. Berber
https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=BdS5dgZ_pPo

10 most spoken languages in Africa
1. English, 2. Arabic, 3. Swahili, 4. French, 5. Amharic, 6. Hausa, 7. Oromo, 8. Yoruba, 9. Portugese, 10. Zulu
https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=waBAzHlxmqA

Problem 3.2 – Your Top 10 List of Most Spoken African Languages

1. Put together your own list of the 10 major African languages.

2. For each language, tell us: 1. the number of speakers, 2. the language family that it belongs to, 3. the countries where it is mainly spoken. 4. The sources of your data.

3. Explain what kind of considerations have been important to you in order to be systematic and deliver numbers on comparable grounds for all the languages on your list.

Unit 4. Semantics and Pragmatics

Read: LSAAL, sections 2.2–2.2.4 + FSTAL, chapters 5–6

Key Concepts

Semantics: the study of linguistic meaning

Synonymy: synonyms are words or phrases that mean more or less the same, e.g. *elderly ≈ senior*; *watch out ≈ be careful; black gold ≈ oil*. There are however almost always some kind of small differences between synonyms in their finer nuances. It is often a matter of REGISTER, i.e. under what circumstances one or the other would be used, e.g. in FORMAL or INFORMAL use of the language.

Polysemy: a polysemous word is a lexeme with different related meanings, e.g. *date* 'number denoting a specific day' or 'meeting'. Sometimes the relation can be difficult to figure out, because the historical development has made us think in new ways, and the old associations have become very distant.

Metonymy: a derived meaning by close association to the original meaning, e.g. ***Ankara*** *says that major progress has been made in the operation.* It's of course not the city itself, but the politicians in the city, that have made this statement.

Metaphor: a meaning transferred from a very different domain based on some kind of similarity, e.g. *Hope is on the* ***horizon****.* This is of course not saying anything about where hope is situated, but that one can begin to see some hope, like the sun rising at the horizon.

Homonymy: when two different lexemes have an identical form, e.g. *date* 'number representing a specific day' vs. *date* 'kind of fruit'.

Homonyms may be subdivided into

homo**phone**s - are only **pronounced** in the same way:
no, know; *be, bee;* *see, sea;* *root, route*

homo**graph**s - are only **written** in the same way:
sow [səw] verb, Sw. 'så' (to plant seeds)
sow [saw] noun, Sw. 'so' (female pig)

Antonymy: antonyms are words with opposite meanings. The relation between the words can be

gradable: *big - small, good – bad*
complementary: *open - closed, exhale – inhale*
relational: *student - teacher, come - go, over - under*

Pragmatics - the study of the **use** of language **in a social context**

Many utterances are **ambiguous**, but in real life **ambiguity** is usually quite easily avoided in a specific social situation, if people cooperate.

Cooperation - speaker and listener strive to understand each other. Good cooperation can be seen as a propotionate mix of

finding a COMMON GROUND
using a SUITABLE QUANTITY of words
applying an appropriate degree of POLITENESS
only saying things that are RELEVANT to the situation
only telling the TRUTH

Utterances have an **intention** & an **effect**. In successful communication they coincide.

Speech acts may be **direct** (*I want you to tell me his phone number.*) or **indirect** (*Do you happen to have his number?*). Very often people don't express their thoughts straightforwardly, they only imply them. There are large socio-cultural differences regarding how we express ourselves and how we interpret others. **Cross-cultural pragmatics** studies such differences.

The notion of **word** can be understood in different ways. Therefore, in order to be more precise, different terminological concepts are used:

token (Sw. *löpord*) – the occurrences in a text. Every occurrence is a separate token, even if the same form is repeated.
Therefore *car, car, cars, cars* are 4 tokens

type (Sw. *typord*) – the different word forms. If the same form occurs several times in a text, it still only countes once.
Therefore *car, car, cars, cars* are 2 types.

lexeme (Sw. *lexem*) – the abstract word based on the meaning, not the form. If different inflectional forms occurs in a text, all the different forms only count as one lexeme.

Therefore *car, car, cars, cars* are 1 lexeme.

Most of the time a sequence of words are also a sequence of lexemes, and the meaning of a phrase can be derived from the individual words

go out, red neck, a piece of cake

But sometimes that is not so. The reason is that there are also

multi-word lexemes: the meaning cannot be derived from the individual words. Therefore certain combinations of words jointly constitute one lexeme, e.g.

phrasal verbs

go out 'date etc.' Macmillan

compounds

redneck 'OFFENSIVE a working-class white person from the southern US, especially one who is not educated and does not like people who are not white' Macmillan

idioms

a piece of cake 'something easy' Macmillan

A note on correspondence between languages

Languages, through their words, sometimes 'organise' the world differently, e.g. the words we use to chunk up the day in Swedish and English:

dag, dygn, kväll, natt, morgon, förmiddag...
day, evening, night, morning...

If we compare them, we'll see that they don't correspond exactly to each other, they don't last for exactly the same amount of time.

Unit 5. Phonetics and Phonology

Read BLLL 5 and FSTAL 2

Key Concepts

Phonetics

Articulatory phonetics

Acoustic phonetics

Auditory phonetics

IPA - International Phonetic Alphabet / International Phonetic Association

Phonetic transcription / script is given between [ ]

Phonology

Phoneme

Allophone

Phonemic or Phonological transcription is given between / /

Phonotactics

Syllable

What's the difference?

Phonetics deals with the exact quality of **any speech sound** as pronounced by a specific speaker in a specific word at a specific occasion, i.e. **phones,** e.g. all the different ways of pronouncing /r/ in Swedish. Phoneticians works with real speech production, recordings, technical equipent that measures and analyses. Phonetics is a piece of natural sciences (physics, anatomy) implemented within linguistics.

Phonology does not deal with the small differences between individual instance of a sound as produced by specific speakers in specific words. Instead phonologists deal only with the **sound system** in a **specific language**, i.e. such differences between sounds that may change the meaning of words, i.e. **phonemes** or distinctive speech sounds, e.g. how do we use /r/ in Swedish, English, Swahili etc.? Does it occur word initially, word finally, does it cluster with other consonants, e.g. *tree*, but not **rtee*

(but in Czech it's ok: *rtuť* 'quicksilver, mercury')

Phonetics

Articulatory phonetics deals with the **production** of speech sounds

Acoustic phonetics deals with the **transmission** of speech sounds

Auditive phonetics deals with the **perception** of speech sounds (lat. *audire* 'hear')

IPA

International Phonetic Association & International Phonetic Alphabet

Narrow transcription – every detail is transcribed
e.g. Swedish ['tʰɑː] 'take'

Broad transcription – only the most necessary information
e.g. Swedish [taː] 'take'

The rest can be figured out following some simple rules:
['] default stress in on the first syllable (and this word has only one)
[tʰ] this consonant is aspirated before stressed vowel
[ɑː] when long this vowel is automatically pronounced as back
So a simplified or broad transcription does not necessarily need to indicated these facts, but a more user-friendly trasncirption can of course do so.

Phonology

Phonemes are **distinctive** sounds (sounds that allow the speakers to distinguish between different words) in a **specific** langauge.

Phoneme inventory		
	Swedish:	/b/, /p/, /v/, /f/
	Finnish:	/p/, /v/, /f/
	English:	/b/, /p/, /w/, /v/, /f/
	Arabic & Somali:	/b/, /w/, /f/

Phonotactics (fonotax) describes the possible combinations of sounds

Prominence: at word level - one syllable is more prominent than the rest
at sentence level - one word is more prominent than the rest

Prominence can be realized as stress or tone or a combination of both

Stress (betoning): more energy: louder (and often slightly longer)
Tone: pitch level on a specific syllable or vowel
Intonation: pitch variation through a strech of words

e.g. questions are characterized by intonation in some languages, but by a question particle in others

Stress basically means that more energy is added to a specific part of a word, e.g., English *ímport* (noun) versus *impórt* (verb), whereas tone means that the pitch level (the 'melody' or musical tone) is higher or lower on specific vowels or syllables than in the rest of the word. This means that the tone in a word can go up or down more or less the way it does when you sing, and that this melody gives the words their exact meaning, so that two words may be distinguished only by having different **tones** (or melody). This is what happens when we distinguish between Swedish *stegen* (plural) 'the steps' and *stegen* (singular) 'the ladder'.

Allophones: two (or more) sounds that actually sound slightly differently, but are used in a specific language as if they were one and the asme sound.

Two **different pronunciations** of the phoneme written <sj> in Swedish, e.g. *sju* 'seven' pronounced [ʃʉ:] or [ɧʉ:], but it is still the same phoneme, since it doesn't change the meaning of the word. The two sounds are therfore allophones (variants) of the same phoneme.

Swedish has some different sounds corresponding to the combination of letters <sj>. Even though they are without doubt different sounds, it's still only one (abstract) phoneme, since the meaning of the word *sju* 'seven' doesn't change, even though you pronounce it with very different sounds for <sj>. Also Swedish <r> can be pronounced in quite many different ways, but it is only one phoneme. Such pronunciation variants of a phoneme are called allophones (allofoner).

Phonotactics

The principles for **how sounds may be combined** in any specific langauge

Syllable: a group of sounds consisting of a vowel (or diphthong) at the center (called *nucleus*) and consonants before (and after) the vowel

Syllables — What is the possible structure of a syllable?
V= vowel, C = consonant

CCCVCCC	strengths
CVC	sun
CV	be
VC	is

Somali maximal syllable is CVC

ambulance > Somali: *ambalaas*
/n/ omitted, CVCC is not possible!

film > Somali: *filin*
/i/ inserted to avoid CVCC

/m/ replaced by /n/ since a final /m/ in impossible in Somalis phonotactics

Assimliation:neighbouring sounds influence or affect each other so that they are pronounced in a more similar way

e**n** ba**nk** [ɛ**mb**a**ŋk**] ‘a bank’
e**n k**o [ɛ**ŋk**u:] ‘a cow’
ha**vs**örn [ha**fs**œ:ɳ] ‘sea eagle’

The result of such assimilation processes are usually considered allophones, so that, depending on the neighbouring sounds, [n] and [m] and [ŋ] are three allophones of the Swedish phoneme /n/, and [v] and [f] are two allophones of /v/. Such allophones that depend on the surrounding sounds are called positional or contextual allophones. Such allophones often coincide with sounds that also occur as phonemes in the same language!

And even if the use of specific allophones is completely automatic in a specific language, there is no guarantee that the same is true in another language, e.g. Russian has no [ŋ] – it’s [ba**nk**] in Russian! Actually the use of allophones accoridng to the principles of one’s mother tongue is one of the most important things that give you a foreign accent in another language.

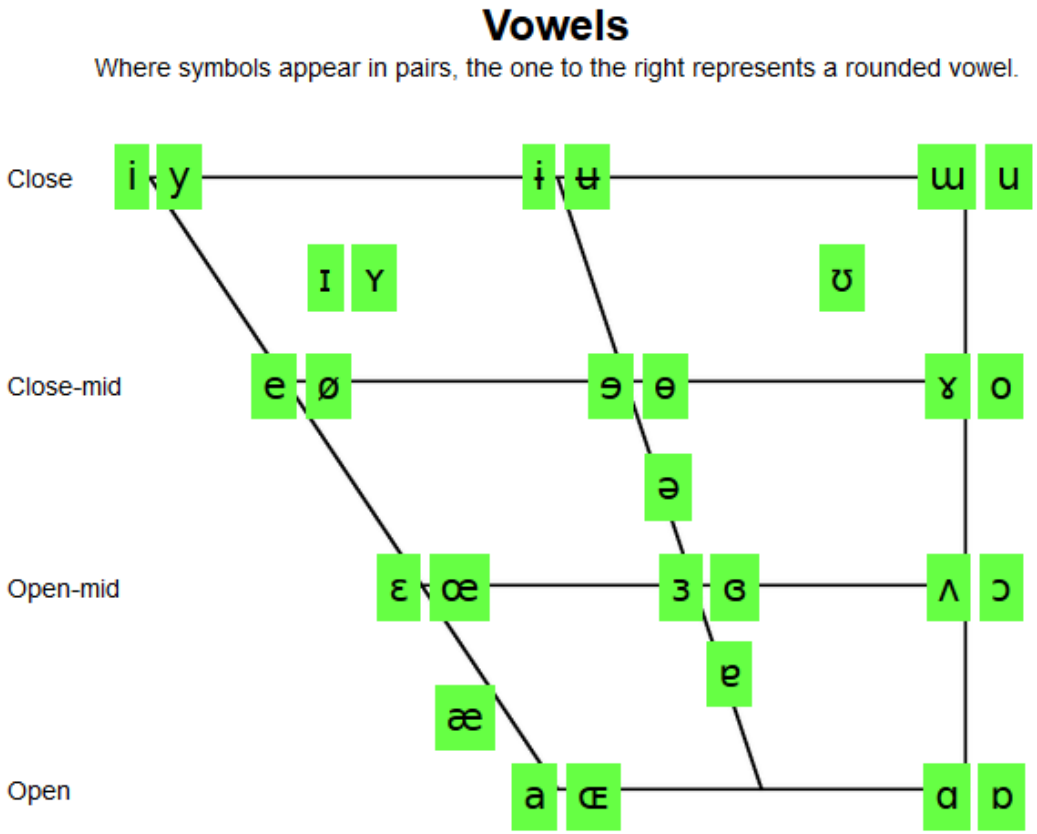
Unit 6. Vowels and Consonants

Read BLLL 6–7

Key Concepts

IPA charts, IPA symbols
vowel, diphtong, consonant
high=closed vowel, mid vowel, low=open vowel
back vowel, central vowel, front vowel
rounded vowel, unrounded vowel
oral vowel, nasal vowel
short vowel, long vowel

Vowels



Source: ipachart.com
On that site you can click on the symbols and listen to the sounds.

high (tongue) = closed (jaw) i u

mid e ɛ ɔ o
low (tongue) = open (jaw) a

front i e ɛ
central ə a
back u o ɔ

rounded u o ɔ
unrounded i e ɛ ə a

oral, e.g. ɔ ɛ
nasal, e.g. ɔ̃ ɛ̃

short, e.g. ɔ ɛ
long, e.g. ɔː ɛː

monophthongs stable vowel quality throughout the vowel
diphthongs vowel quality change between beginning and end

An example of a less common sound system:

Ewe [ɛβɛ], an Atlantic language in the Niger-Congo family, spoken in southern Togo and south-east Ghana (Source: mustgo.com)

	Oral		Nasal	
	Front	Back	Front	Back
Close	i	u	ĩ	ũ
Close-mid	e	o		
Mid	ɛ	ɔ	ɛ̃	ɔ̃
Open	a		ã	

There are 7 oral vowels + 5 nasal vowels

Three tones: high / ˊ/, mid / ¯/, low / ˋ/

The syllables are maximally CV

high: /tó/ ‘ear’

mid: /tō/ ‘mortar’

low: /tò/ ‘buffalo’

Consonants

	Bi-labial		Labio-dental		Dental		Alveolar		Post alveolar		Retro flex		Palatal		Velar		Uvular		Pharyngeal		Glottal	
Plosive	p	b					t	d			ʈ	ɖ	c	ɟ	k	g	q	ɢ			ʔ	
Nasal		m		ɱ				n				ɳ		ɲ		ŋ		ɴ				
Trill		ʙ						r										ʀ				
Tap or Flap				ⱱ				ɾ				ɽ										
Fricative	ɸ	β	f	v	θ	ð	s	z	ʃ	ʒ	ʂ	ʐ	ç	ʝ	x	ɣ	χ	ʁ	ħ	ʕ	h	ɦ
Lateral Fricative							ɬ	ɮ														
Approximant				ʋ				ɹ				ɻ		j		ɰ						
Lateral Approximant								l				ɭ		ʎ		ʟ						

Where symbols appear in pairs, the one to the right represents a voiced consonant.
Areas shaded grey indicate articulations judged impossible.
Source: ipachart.com
On that site you can click on the symbols and listen to the sounds.

Classification of NAE Consonant Phonemes							
Manner of Articulation	Place of Articulation						
	Bilabial	Labiodental	Dental	Alveolar	Palatal	Velar	Glottal
Stop Voiceless Voiced	p b			t d		k g	
Fricative Voiceless Voiced		f v	θ ð	s z	ʃ ʒ		h
Affricate Voiceless Voiced					tʃ dʒ		
Nasal Voiced	m			n		ŋ	
Liquid Voiced				l	r		
Glide Voiced	w				y		

A simpler table only showing North American English phonemes
Source: weebly.com

place of articulation		
	labial	lip
	dental	teeth
	alveolar	alveolar ridge behing the teeth
	palatal	hard palate
	velar	soft palate
	uvular	uvula
	pharyngeal	upper part of the throat
	glottal	the opening between the vocal folds
manner of articulation		
	plosive = stop	total closure
	fricative	very narrow passage
	approximant	slightly narrowed passage
	affricate	total closure followed by narrow passage
	nasal	air flow through nose
	trill	several hits/vibrations
	tap, flap	a single hit
	lateral	air passing at the side(s) of the tongue
voicing		
	voiced	vocal folds vibrating
	voiceless	vocal folds not vibrating
Accompanying traits		
duration		
	plain = short	standard duration
	long	longer than standard duration
aspiration		
	plain = non-aspirated	
	aspirated	pronounced with a puff of air
palatalisation		
	plain = non-palatalised	
	palatalised	pronounced with raised tongue body and the tip of the tongue behind the lower teeth

	Bilabial	Bilabial-dental	Dental	Alveolar	Palatal	Velar	Glottal
Plosives/Stops	**p** **b**			**T** **d**		**k** **g**	
Fricative	**ɱ**	**f** **v**		**S** **z**	**ʃ**	 **ɣ**	**h**
Affricates							
Nasal	**M**			**N**	**ɲ**	**ŋ**	
Lateral				**L**			
Trill				**R**			
Approximants	**W**				**j**		

Source: Mgullu (1999:69)

Swahili (Mgullu 1999)

Allofoner

	LABIAL		CORONAL				DORSAL			RADICAL		LARYNGEAL
	Bilabial	Labio-dental	Dental	Alveolar	Palato-alveolar	Retroflex	Palatal	Velar	Uvular	Pharyngeal	Epi-glottal	Glottal
Nasal	m	ɱ		n				ŋ				
Plosive	p b			t d		ʈ ɖ		k g	q ɢ			ʔ
Fricative	β	f	ð	s	ʃ			ɣ	χ ʁ	ħ ʕ		h ɦ
Affricate					tʃ dʒ							
Trill				r								
Approximant	w			l			j					

Fonem

	LABIAL		CORONAL				DORSAL			RADICAL		LARYNGEAL
	Bilabial	Labio-dental	Dental	Alveolar	Palato-alveolar	Retroflex	Palatal	Velar	Uvular	Pharyngeal	Epi-glottal	Glottal
Nasal	m			n								
Plosive	b			t d		ɖ		k g	ɢ			ʔ
Fricative		f		s	ʃ				χ	ħ ʕ		h
Affricate					dʒ							
Trill				r								
Approximant	w			l			j					

Somali (Nilsson 2018)

Problem 6.1 Read IPA

Read the following list of major cities and countries.
The phonetic script renders typical American English pronunciation.
The source of this exercise is page 36 in Grover Hudson's textbook *Essential Introductory Linguistics*, published by Blackwell (Oxford 2000).

1. [mɑskɑwrəʃə] = Moscow, Russia
2. [ləndənɪŋlənd]
3. [hɛlsɪŋkifɪnlənd]
4. [viɛnəɔstriə]
5. [romɪtəli]
6. [kopənhɑgəndɛnmɑrk]

7. [ɑzlonorweɪ]
8. [dəblɪnɑjrlənd]
9. [brəsəlzbɛldʒəm]
10. [bɑrsəlonəspeɪn]
11. [æθənzgris] or [æþənzgris]
12. [krɑkɑwpolənd]
13. [bərlɪndʒərməni]
14. [stɑkhomswidən]
15. [budəpɛsthəŋgəri]
16. [prɑgʧɛkripəblɪk]
17. [dʒənivəswɪtsərlənd]
18. [æmstərdæmhɑlənd]
19. [lɪzbənporʧʊgəl]
20. [rigɑlætviə]

Problem 6.2 Homophonous words

Read the following list of English homophones or words that sound the same. Give two spellings for each pronunciation.
The source of this exercise is page 39 in Grover Hudson's textbook *Essential Introductory Linguistics*, published by Blackwell (Oxford 2000).
Hudson gives only typical American English pronunciation.
British pronunciations have been added according to Macmillan Dictionary.

1.	Am. [flɑwər]	Br. [flaʊə(r)]	**flower** or **flour**
2.	Am. [fɪl]	Br. [fɪl]	
3.	Am. [tiz]	Br. [tiːz]	
4.	Am. [rɛd]	Br. [red]	
5.	Am. [rɑjt]	Br. [raɪt]	
6.	Am. [sin]	Br. [siːn]	
7.	Am. [dʒɪm]	Br. [dʒɪm]	
8.	Am. [for]	Br. [fɔː(r)]	
9.	Am. [bɑw]	Br. [baʊ]	
10.	Am. [no]	Br. [nəʊ]	
11.	Am. [rod]	Br. [rəʊd]	
12.	Am. [hol]	Br. [həʊl]	
13.	Am. [sɛnt]	Br. [sent]	
14.	Am. [pen]	Br. [peɪn]	
15.	Am. [brek]	Br. [breɪk]	
16.	Am. [prɪns]	Br. [prɪns]	

17. Am. [sid] Br. [siːd]
18. Am. [trækt] Br. [trækt]
19. Am. [tɔt] Br. [tɔːt]
20. Am. [gret] Br. [greɪt]

Problem 6.3 Descriptions of sounds

Read the following list of descriptions of different sounds. Each example makes up a word. Match the words with the descriptions.

The source of this exercise is page 39-40 in Grover Hudson's textbook *Essential Introductory Linguistics*, published by Blackwell (Oxford 2000).

Again, this exercise is based on typical American pronunciation.

top, tree, road, car, key, note, gate, lake, feed, know, see, need, run, move, play, take, red, hat, old, new, big, now, soon, wool, then, thin

1. **see** a voiceless alveolar fricative + a high front vowel
2. a voiced velar stop + a mid front vowel + a voiceless alveolar stop
3. a voiceless alveolar stop + a mid front vowel + a voiceless velar stop
4. a voiceless velar stop + a low back vowel + a retroflex approximant
5. a voiced dental fricative + a mid front vowel + an alveolar nasal
6. an alveolar nasal + a low back vowel + a labial glide
7. a voiceless alveolar stop + a retroflex approximant + a high front vowel
8. a labial nasal + a high back vowel + a voiced labial fricative
9. a voiceless labial fricative + a high front vowel + a voiced alveolar stop
10. a lateral approximant + a mid front vowel + a voiceless velar stop
11. a labial glide + a high back vowel + a lateral approximant
12. an alveolar nasal + a high front vowel + a voiced alveolar stop
13. a voiceless alveolar stop + a low back vowel + a voiceless labial stop
14. a voiceless dental fricative + a high front vowel + an alveolar nasal
15. a glottal fricative + a low front vowel + a voiceless alveolar stop
16. an alveolar nasal + a mid back vowel + a voiceless alveolar stop
17. a retroflex approximant + a mid central vowel + an alveolar nasal
18. a voiceless labial stop + a lateral approximant + a mid front vowel
19. an alveolar nasal + a high back vowel
20. a mid back vowel + a lateral approximant + a voiced alveolar stop
21. a retroflex approximant + a mid front vowel + a voiced alveolar stop
22. a voiceless velar stop + a high front vowel
23. a voiced labial stop + a high front vowel + a voiced velar stop
24. a voiceless alveolar fricative + a high back vowel + an alveolar nasal
25. an alveolar nasal + a mid back vowel
26. a retroflex approximant + a mid back vowel + a voice alveolar stop

Problem 6.4 Describe the sounds of three words

Choose three words in a language that you know, preferably not English or Swedish. Describe each of the sounds in the words using phonetic terminology. Also say something about the stress and similar things. Tell us what language it is, and if the words are not easy to recognize and understand, also tell us what they mean.

The rest of us will try to write down these words using phonetic script.

Two examples:

Persian: a bilabial voiced nasal consonant, an oral mid front vowel, an alveolar trill, an alveolar fricative consonant, an oral high front vowel, and the stress is on the first syllable.

Russian: a labiodental voiced fricative consonant, an oral rounded mid back vowel, a voiceless alveolar stop, a voiceless velar stop, an oral mid central vowel, and the stress is on the first syllable.

Unit 7. Phonotactics and Morphophonology

Types of consonants

Obstruents
stops + fricatives + affricates (more friction noise) e.g. t s ʧ

Sonorants
nasals + liquids + glides (less friction noise) e.g. n r j

often obstruent + sonorant in Swedish CCV: tre, slå, dra, flå, bjud

Other important issues

Nasal vs. Oral Vowels

Aspirated vs. Unaspirated Stops

> The stops/plosives differ between languages with regard to whether they are pronounced with additional aspiration or not. Aspiration is common in Germanic voiceless stops, but not in Romance and Slavic. E.g. Somali has aspirated voiceless stops [t, k].

Alveolar vs. **Dental** consonants

> The exact position of the tip of the tongue varies between languages with respect to sounds like [d, t, s, z, n].

Released vs. Unreleased Stops

Reduced vs. Full Vowels

> In some languages vowels are reduced (pronounced less distinctly) in weak positions (e.g. when not stressed, end of word etc.)
>
> In Russian [ɛ, ɔ] are only possible if stressed, when unstressed they are reduced to [a/ə, i], e.g. Borís [baˈris] Peterbúrg [pitirˈburk].

Diphthongs vs. Monophthongs

Rounded vs. Unrounded Vowels

Phontactics

How sounds may be combined into words

Languages have important restrictions on
– word-initial / syllable-initial consonant sequences
– word-final / syllable-final consonant sequences

English/Swedish
– at least three consonants initially
– at least four consonants finally
– maximum syllable: CCCVCCCC

Somali (Cushitic)
– one initially and one finally
– maximum syllable: CVC

Ewe (Atlantic)
– one initially and zero finally
– maximum syllable: CV

There are usually also restriction on what consonants may occur in intital/final position?

English/Swedish	no initial [ŋ], no final [h]
Somali	no final [t], [k], [m], [ʤ]
Japanese	finally only [ɴ]

Morphophonology

Phonological principles that apply in **specific morphological contexts**:

when words are **derived** or when they are **inflected**.

What if a verb stem ends in /r/, when the present tense suffix is /r/?

Swedish: Reduce to a single /r/

att kör-a	kör!	hon kör	< /çø:r/-/r/
'to drive'	'drive!'	'she drives'	

Norwegian: Insert a vowel

å kjør-e	kjør!	hun kjører	< /çø:r/-/r/
'to ride'	'ride!'	'she rides'	

What about genitive [s/z] after a word ending in [s/z]?

Swedish:

Tomas bok [tu:mas bu:k] /tu:mas/+/s/> /tu:mas/

English:

Chris's book [krisəz buk] /kris/+/z/ > /krisəz/

Somali definite article *-ta:*

kab → kabta	'the shoe'	rule:	b+t > [pt] (assimilation)
kubbad → kubbadda	'the ball'	rule:	d+t > d: (assimilation)
mindi → mindiða	'the knife'	rule:	t > ð bewteen vowels
bil → biʃa	'the month'	rule:	l+t > ʃ

Problem 7.1
Somali stress

Somali has a stress system where the 'stressed' syllable is pronounced with a high tone (that is a voice with high pitch).

Can you figure out any rules for where to put the stress in Somali nouns?

Stress is marked with an accent in the following words. Double vowel letters represent long vowels.

árday	'male student'
ardayád	'female student'
askári	'male soldier'
askariyád	'female soldier'
bisád	'she-cat'
bóqor	'king'
boqorád	'queen'
díbi	'ox'
gabár	'girl'
gúri	'house'
ínan	'boy'
inán	'girl'
islaán	'old woman'
macallimád	'female teacher'
macállin	'male teacher'
mindí	'knife'
naág	'woman'
walaál	'sister'
wíil	'boy'

Problem 7.2
Progressive forms in Yoruba

Try to give a rule for how to form the progressive verb form in Yoruba.
< ´ > marks high tone, < ` > marks low tone

bá 'meets'
ḿbá 'is meeting'

bɛ 'cuts off'
ḿbɛ 'is cutting off'

bò 'covers'
ḿbò 'is covering'

bù 'cuts'
ḿbù 'is cutting'

dà 'pours'
ńdà 'is pouring'

dì 'ties'
ńdì 'is tying'

dúró 'stands'
ńdúró 'is standing'

ká 'folds'
ŋ́ká 'is folding'

kó 'gathers'
ŋ́kó 'is gathering'

kù 'remains'
ŋ́kù 'is remaining'

From:
Cowan & Rakušan. 1987. Source Book for Linguistics. Amsterdam: John Benjamins, p. 45.

Problem 7.3
Singular and plural forms of Swahili nouns

Explain the rules for the formation of both the singular form and the plural form of the following Swahili nouns.

The words are given in broad phonetic transcription
š = [ʃ], as in English ***sh****e*
ñ = [ɲ], as in Spanish *Espa****ñ****a.*
[ŋ], as in English *lo****ng***

	sg.	*pl.*			*sg.*	*pl.*	
1.	ubale	mbale	strip	7.	ugimbi	ŋgimbi	beer
2.	ubugu	mbugu	cord	8.	ugono	ŋgono	intercourse
3.	ubiši	mbiši	argument	9.	ugwe	ŋgwe	string
4.	uduvi	nduvi	shrimp	10.	waraka	ñaraka	document
5.	udago	ndago	weed	11.	wenzo	ñenzo	roller
6.	udui	ndui	pustule	12.	wimbo	ñimbo	song

From:
Cowan & Rakušan. 1987. Source Book for Linguistics. Amsterdam: John Benjamins, p. 52.

Unit 8
Structures and Categories

Word classes (parts of speech)

Words belong to different categories/types/classes, such as

> Verbs, Nouns, Pronouns, Adjectives, Adverbs, Prepositions, Conjunctions…

The words in a word class are

> – inflected (morphology) and/or
> – used (syntax) in the same way

Languages are different

> They have different grammatical categories and rules/prinicples.
>
> Therefore somewhat different word classes in different languages!

Not all languages have, e.g.

> Adjectives
> Definite Article
> Obligatory Subject Pronouns
> Plural Forms of Nouns
> Bound Word Order
> Question Particle
> Marking of subject & object etc.

Definite article

English:	**the** house
Swedish:	hus**et**
Arabic	**al** bayt
Somali:	guri**ga**
Swahili:	no definite article

Subject Pronouns

English:	Sahra runs.	She runs
Swedish:	Sahra springer.	Hon springer.
coll.	Sahra hon springer.	
Italian:	Sahra corre.	Corre.
Amharic:	Sahira tirot'alechi.	Tirot'alechi.
Somali:	Sahro waa ay oroddaa.	Waa ay oroddaa.
Swahili:	Sahra anakimbia.	Anakimbia.

On the other hand, many languages have affixes (suffixes or prefixes) on the verb as a 'substitute' for subject pronouns.

Plural Forms

Suffix in the plural:
English: shoe – shoe**s**
Swedish: sko – sko**r**
Somali: kab – kab**o** 'shoe(s)'

Prefix in singular and plural:
Swahili: **ki**atu - **vi**atu 'shoe(s)'

Different infixes in singular and plural
Arabic: ki**t**a:b - ku**t**ub 'book(s)'

Some languages use plural forms very seldom or even don't have plural forms of nouns.

Basic Word Order

Subject Verb Object
English/Swedish:
Swahili:
Colloquial Arabic:

Subject Object Verb
Somali:
Amharic:

Verb Subject Object:
Classical Arabic:

Verb Object Subject:
Malagassy:

Other word orders are possible in most languages, but only under specific conditions.

Word Order in noun phrases

Adjective + Noun

English:	a long knife	
Swedish:	en lång kniv	'a long knife'
Finnish:	pitkä veitsi	'a long knife'

Noun + Adjective

French, Spanish, Italian:		
Arabic:		
Somali:	mindi dheer	'a long knife'
Swahili:	kisu kirefu	'a long knife'

Question Particle

None – Word order instead

Hon springer.	'She runs.'
Springer hon?	'Does she run?'

None – Intonation instead

Czech:	Běží. ↘	'She runs.
	Běží? ↗	'Does she run?'

Yes –

Finnish: Combined with word order

Hän juoksee.	Juoksee**ko** hän?
'She runs.'	'Does she run?'

Somali: Contrasting with a statement particle

Waa ay oroddaa.	**Ma** ay oroddaa?
'She runs.'	'Does she run?'

Grammatical relations of subject and object

Marked by word order

English	S V O
Swedish	S V O
Colloquial Arabic	S V O
Swahili	S V O

Marked by suffixes

Russian	Object endings	+	relaxed S V O
Classical Arabic	Object endings	+	V S O
Somali	Subject endings	+	relaxed S O V

Marked by particles

Japanese	topic / object particles	+	S O V

Morphemes, morphs, allomorphs

Words are made up of smaller parts – **morphs** – each part carries some meaning.

Sometimes there are different morphs carrying the same meaning. They are alternative expressions for the same meaning: **allomorphs**

bil	bil**ar**	'car, cars'	bil-ar-na	'the cars'
ros	ros**or**	'rose, roses'		
banan	banan**er**	'banana, bananas'		

Together these three morphs constitute the Swedish plural **morpheme** which could abstracly be represented as /Vr/.

Some morphemes can be used on their own.
They are **free** morphemes: /bil/, /ros/, /banan/.

Other morphemes can only be used together with a free morpheme.
They are **bound** morphemes: /ar/, /or/, /er/

Types of morphemes

Root Has a lexcial meaning

Affixes **Usually has grammatical functions (or meanings)**

- Prefix — Added before a root or stem
- Suffix — Added after a root or stem
- Infix — Added into the middle of a root or stem

However

a Stem – is not a morpheme and it is often not **one** morpheme long,
– it may consist of one or more Roots + derivational affixes

			STEM			
Prefix	Root	Root	Suffix	**Suffix**		
			Derivational	**Inflectional**		
	ro	giv	ande		rogivande	‘calming’
	ro		lig	**a**	roliga	‘fun (pl.)’
o	ro		lig	**a**	oroliga	‘worried (pl.)’
ut	tal		ande	**t**	uttalandet	‘the statement
	bok	buss		**ar -na**	bokbussarna	‘the bookmobiles’
sam	arbet		a	**r**	samarbetar	‘cooperates’
	arbet		e	**t**	arbetet	‘the work’

Infixes

ARABIC

kita:b	'book'	root: k-t-b		singular infixes	i-a:
kutub	'books'			plural infixes:	u-u

SOMALI

Adejctive		root	infix	Noun	
adag	'hard'	ad-g	-ay-	aday g	'hardness'
culus	'heavy'	cul-s		culays	'heaviness, weight'
jecel	'fond (of)'	jec-l		jacayl	'love'

Omljud / Umlaut – Not infix!

SINGULAR	PLURAL		
bu:k	bøk:ər	<bok, böcker>	'book(s)'
fu:t	føt:ər	<fot, fötter>	'foot, feet'

Word Classes

Verbs, Nouns, Pronouns, Adjectives, Adverbs, Prepositions, Conjunctions…

Inflected vs. Uninflected words

If words are inflected, they usually are divided into word classes based on the forms they exhibit.

If words are not inflected, the are divided into word classes based on their function in sentences.

Open vs. Closed Word Classes

New words easily enter into the classes Verb, Noun, Adjective

New words very seldom enter into the classes Pronoun, Preposition, Conjunction.

Word formation vs. Inflection

sjuk > sjuk-ling
suffix deriving a noun meaning 'sick person' from the adjective 'sick'

sjuk > sjuk-a
suffix forming the plural of the adjective

Derivation vs. Compounding

sjuk-ling	'sick person, patient'	free morpheme + bound morpheme
sjuk-hus	'hospital'	two free morphemes

Prepositions vs. Postpositions

English has the postposition 'ago', and there are some less commonly used postpositions in Swedish:

Det går visst att visa och prata känslor vänner **emellan**.

De cyklade Vättern **runt**. Godispåsen gick laget **runt**.

När vårt eget släkte dött ut snurrar jorden oss **förutan**.

Frihet är det bästa ting, som sökas kan all världen **kring**.

Under hösten äter björnen upp sig och lägger på ett fettlager som ska räcka vintern **igenom**.

Problem 8.1
Word order in Lotuko

Lotuko or Otuho is a Nilotic language spoekn by a couple of hundred thousand people in South Sudan.

1.
Gloss all the sentences according to the Leipzig golssing rules. Rule No 1 will be sufficient for this exercise.

2.
What is the word order in these examples?

3.
What will sentence (h) be in Lotuko?

Lotuko (Sudan; adapted from Merrifield et al. 1987, prob. 131)

a	idulak atulo ema	'The man is planting grain.'
b	idulak atulo aful	'The man is planting peanuts.'
c	ohonya eito erizo	'The child is eating meat.'
d	amata eito aari	'The child is drinking water.'
e	ohonya odwoti aful	'The girl is eating peanuts.'
f	abak atulo ezok	'The man hit the dog.'
g	amata odwoti aari	'The girl is drinking water.'
h	_____	'The girl hit the child.'
i	ohonya ezok erizo	_____

from Kroeger (2005: 9)

Problem 8.2
Sidama verb morphemes

Sidama is an Afro-Asiatic langauge in the Cushitic sub-group, spoken by appr. 3 million people in southern Ethiopia.

Divide the following Sidama words into the relevant morphs.
1. Mark the division with a hyphen.
Work out the meaning of each of the morphemes.
2. Gloss all the example words according to the Leipzig glossing rules in Appendix 2.
3. Do any of the morphemes exhibit allomorphs (different variants)?
4. How would you say 'she burned', 'he ate', 'she drinks' and 'he opens'?

aganno 'he drinks'
agi 'he drank'

muri 'he cut'
murtanno 'she cuts'
murtu 'she cut'

giiranno 'he burns'

laʔi 'he saw'
laʔanno 'he sees'

umanno 'he digs'
untu 'she dug'
umi 'he dug'
untanno 'she digs'

fantu 'she opened'
fani 'he opened',

rumi 'he cursed'
runtu 'she cursed'
runtanno 'she curses'
rumanno 'he curses'

itanno 'he eats'
ittu 'she ate'

The source of this exercise is page 81 in Grover Hudson's textbook *Essential Introductory Linguistics*, published by Blackwell (Oxford 2000).

Problem 8.3
Swahili noun morphemes

1.
Divide the following Swahili words into the relevant morphs with hyphens.

2.
Work out the meaning and use of each one of the inflectional morphemes and gloss all the exampel words according to the Leipzig glossin rules in Appendix 2.

msichana 'girl', **wasichana** 'girls'
mvulana 'boy', **wavulana** 'boys'
mtoto 'child', **watoto** 'children'
mtu 'man', **watu** 'men'
mti 'tree' **miti** 'trees'
mgomba 'banana tree', **migomba** 'banana trees'
mguu 'foot', **miguu** 'feet'
kitu 'thing', **vitu** 'things'
kiti 'chair, **viti** 'chairs'
kitanda 'bed', **vitanda** 'beds'

Also adjectives are inflected in a similar way.

3.
If **mtoto mzuri** means 'a good child', how would you say 'good children', 'a good thing' and 'good things'? Gloss your answers.

The source of this exercise is page 77 in Grover Hudson's textbook *Essential Introductory Linguistics*, published by Blackwell (Oxford 2000).

Problem 8.4
Amharic verb morphemes

1.
Divide the following Amharic verb into the relevant morphs with hyphens.

2.
Work out the meaning of each one of the morphemes and gloss all the example words according to the Leipzig glossing rules in Appendix 2.

3.
Are there different allomorphs (variant morphs) that together constitute an 'abstract' morpheme?

Present tense		Past tense	
ɨsəbɨr	'I break'	**səbbərku**	'I broke'
tɨsəbɨr	'you (m.) break'	**səbbərk**	'you (m.) broke'
tɨsəbɨri	'you (f.) break'	**səbbərʃ**	'you (f.) broke'

4.
How would you inflect the verb **dəkkəmku** 'I tired'? Gloss all forms in your answer.

The source of this exercise is page 65 in Grover Hudson's textbook *Essential Introductory Linguistics*, published by Blackwell (Oxford 2000).

Unit 9
Nouns & Determiners

How do we **determine the wordclass** of a word?

- **form**
  Does the word inflect? What different forms does it have?
- **function**
  How is it used? What is its sentence function? What is its position?
- **meaning**
  What kind of meaning does it convey?

Noun

might be inflected for singular/plural, definite/indefinite…
might belong to a gender class or another kind of noun class
is generally used as subject or object or adverbial complement
generally denotes living beings, objects and abstract ideas

Determiner

tends to appear next to a noun
might be inflected so that it agrees with the noun
(gender, number, defininteness)
tends to express definiteness, possession, uniqueness, quantity…

Subdivision of nouns

Gender / Class

	FRENCH	RUSSIAN	HAUSA	SOMALI
Masculine	livre 'book'	dom 'house'	tebur 'table'	miis 'table'
Feminine	maison 'house'	kniga 'book'	taga 'window'	daaqad 'window'
Neutre		okno 'window'		

Countables	table, idea
Uncountables	furniture, peace
Mass nouns	milk, water, air, sugar

Concrete	table, furniture, milk
Abstract	idea, peace

Common nouns	car, milk, idea	
Proper nouns	London, Susan, Africa	(=names)

Inflection of nouns

	SLOVENE	SWAHILI	ARABIC
Singular	**miza** 'table'	**kiatu** 'shoe'	**kita:b** 'book' **maktab** 'office'
Dual	**mizi** 'two tables'		
Plural	**mize** '3+ tables'	**viatu** 'shoes'	**kutub** 'books' **maka:tib** 'offices'

Definiteness marked by determiner

	ENGLISH	ARABIC	ITALIAN
Indefinite	**shoe**	**hiða:ʔ**	**scarpa**
Definite	**the shoe**	**al hiða:ʔ**	**la scarpa**

Definiteness marked by inflectional endings

	SOMALI	SWEDISH	BULAGRIAN	HAUSA
Indefinite	**kab**	**sko**	**obuvka**	**takalma**
Definite	**kabta**	**skon**	**obuvkata**	**takalmin**

Many languages do not mark nouns for definiteness, e.g.,

Finnish, Russian, Persian, Swahili…

Inflection of determiners

Determiners don't belong to a gender or noun class.
Only nouns belong to a gender or noun class.
Determiners have different forms for each gender or noun class.

Agreement

In many languages
determiners adjust to/agree with the noun's gender or noun class.
They may also adjust to/agree with the nouns with respect to number.

Italian	FEMININE	MASCULINE	
SINGULAR	la bambina	il bambino	'the child, girl, boy'
PLURAL	le bambine	i bambini	'the children'

Spanish	FEMININE	MASCULINE	
SINGULAR	la médica	el médico	'the doctor'
PLURAL	las médicas	los médicos	'the doctors'

Swedish	N-CLASS	N-CLASS	T-CLASS
SINGULAR	en bil 'a car' bilen 'the car'	en gata 'a street' gatan 'the street'	ett hus 'a house' huset 'the house'
PLURAL	bilar 'cars' bilarna 'the cars'	gator 'streets' gatorna 'the streets'	hus 'houses' husen 'the houses'

Norwegian	MASCULINE	FEMININE	NEUTRE
SINGULAR	en bil 'a car' bilen 'the car'	ei gate 'a street' gata 'the street'	et hus 'a house' huset 'the house'
PLURAL	biler'cars' bilene 'the cars'	gater 'streets' gatene 'the streets'	hus 'houses' husene 'the houses'

Somali	FEMININE	MASCULINE
SINGULAR	kab '(a) shoe' kabta 'the shoe'	safar '(a) journey' safarka 'the journey'
PLURAL	kabo 'shoes' kaba-ha 'the shoes'	safarro 'journeys' safarra-da 'the journeys'

Noun classes or genders

Some languages do not divide nouns into classes/genders, e.g.

English, Finnish, Persian, Turkish

Some languages divide nouns into two classes, generally referred to as genders, usually MASCULINE och FEMININE, e.g.

French, Spanish, Italian, Arabic, Amharic, Somali, Oromo, Hausa

Some languages have three genders, typically MASCULINE, FEMININE and NEUTRE, e.g.

Latin, German, Norwegian, Russian, Greek

Some languages have many more noun classes, e.g.

Swahili and other Bantu languages

Somali genders

MASCULINE
Stress on second to last vowel position
dukáan 'shop'
Definite article **-ka**
dukáanka 'the shop'
Possessive **kayga** 'my'
dukáankayga 'my shop'

FEMININE
Stress on last vowel position
laán 'branch'
Definite article **-ta**
laánta 'the branch',
Possessive **tayda** 'my'
laántayda 'my branch'

Swahili noun classes

CLASS 1/2	3/4	7/8	5/6	9/10	11/10
mtoto 'child'	**m**fuko 'bag'	**ki**tabu 'book'	gari 'car'	paka 'cat'	**u**siku 'night'
watoto 'children'	**mi**fuko 'bags'	**vi**tabu 'books'	**ma**gari 'cars'	paka 'cats'	siku 'night'
Agreeing possessives, e.g. **mtoto wangu** 'my child'					
wangu 'my (sg.)'	**w**angu	**ch**angu	**l**angu	**y**angu	**w**angu
wangu 'my (pl.)'	**y**angu	**vy**angu	**y**angu	**z**angu	**z**angu

Nominal Categories

often expressed in nouns and determiners

Definiteness	–	Indefinite (unfamiliar	Definite familiar)	
Number	–	Singular (one	Plural many	Dual two)
Gender	–	Masculine	Feminine	Neutre
Class	–	1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9, 10…		

Gender is not sex!
Somali *sac* 'cow', *xaas* 'wife', *dumar* 'women (coll.)' are masculine nouns.

Problem 9.1
The definite article in Lyélé

Lyélé is an Niger-Congo language in the Atlantic sub-group, spoken by some 130,000 people in Burkina Faso.

How would you define the form of the definite article in Lyélé?

The acute accent (´) denotes a high tone, whereas the grave accent (`) denotes a low tone. Vowels without an accent are pronounced with a mid tone.

kúmí 'bird'
kúmíí 'the bird'
yálá 'millet'
yáláá 'the millet'
nà 'foot'
nàá 'the foot'
yijì 'church'
yijìí 'the church'
ya 'market'
yaá 'the market'
cèlé 'parrot'
cèléé 'the parrot'
kùlí 'dog'
kùlíí 'the dog'

Source: W. R. Merrifield, C. M. Naish, C. R. Rensch & G. Story. 1987. *Laboratory manual for morphology and syntax.* Dallas, Texas: Summer Institute of Linguistics.

Problem 9.2
Noun classes in Kikuyu

Kikuyu is a Bantu language, spoken by some 7 million people in Kenya.

Each English noun in the list below is followed first by the Kikuyu singular form, then by the plural form.

1. How many noun classes do we need to establish in order to account for all the nouns in the list?

2. What are the prefixes for the singular and the plural in each of the classes?

/ŋ/ is similar to Swedish/English <ng>, /ʃ/ is similar to English <sh>, /ɲ/ i similar to Swedish <nj> or the beginning of English <new>.

teacher	murutani	arutani
elderly person	muduuri	aduuri
girl	muiretu	airetu
woman	mutumia	atumia
parent	muʃiari	aʃiari
buyer	muguri	aguri
traveler	mugendi	agendi
politician	muteti	ateti
root	muri	miri
tree	muti	miti
lion	muroodi	miroodi
gun	muʃiiŋga	miʃiiŋga
inattress	muuto	miuto
bottle	muʃuuba	miʃuuba
comb	giʃanundi	iʃanundi
chair	geti	eti
cup	gikombe	ikombe
yam	gikoa	ikoa
tray	gitaruru	itaruru
muscle	giʃoka	iʃoka
crocodile	kiŋaŋi	iŋaŋi
sugar cane	kigoa	igoa
worm	kiŋguɲu	iŋguɲu
folk song	kibata	ibata
flood	kiŋguo	iŋguo
steering wheel	kibara	ibara
hiding place	kimamo	imamo
spider	mbombue	mbombue
donkey	bunda	bunda
cow	ŋombe	ŋombe
pig	ŋgurue	ŋgurue
stomach	nda	nda
house	ɲumba	ɲumba
mole	huko	huko
wave	ikombi	makombi
foot	ikina	makina
tooth	igago	magago
banana	irigu	marigu
cloud	itu	matu
stone	ihiga	mahiga

Source: W. R. Merrifield, C. M. Naish, C. R. Rensch & G. Story. 1987. *Laboratory manual for morphology and syntax.* Dallas, Texas: Summer Institute of Linguistics.

Problem 9.3
Possessive suffixes in Hausa

Hausa is an Afro-Asiatic language in the Chadic sub-group. It is mainly spoken Nigeria, Niger, Cameroon, Benin and Chad, where it is an important **lingua franca**. It is estimated to be spoken by some 60 million mother tongue speakers and some 30 million second language speakers.

1. What is the basic form of the possessive suffixes?

2. What morphophonological rules are applied when these suffixes are added to nouns?

/ʔ/ is a glottal stop, the sound that may replace /t/ in *butter* in some varieties of English, e.g., Cockney.

ʔyakka	'your (m.sg.) sister'
ʔyakki	'your (f.sg.) sister'
ʔyassa	'his sister'
ʔyatta	'her sister'
ʔyammu	'our sister'
ʔyakku	'your (pl.) sister'
ʔyassu	'their sister'

gidanka	'your (m.sg.) house'
gidanki	'your (f.sg.) house'
gidansa	'his house'
gidanta	'her house'
gidammu	'our house'
gidanku	'your (pl.) house'
gidansu	'their house'

Source: W. R. Merrifield, C. M. Naish, C. R. Rensch & G. Story. 1987. *Laboratory manual for morphology and syntax.* Dallas, Texas: Summer Institute of Linguistics.

Problem 9.4
Plural formation of nouns in Kasem

Kasem is a Niger-Congo language in the Volta-Congo sub-group. It is spoken in Ghana and Burkina Faso by some 250,000 people.

The plural formation in Kasem is quite complicated. It involves quite many morphophonological alternations.

How would you describe the plural formation in Kasem?

This is a rather difficult question, and you don't have to account for all the details. It's enough to mention a few regularities that you have noticed.

Singular - Plural:
jɪŋa - jɪ 'hand(s)'
fələ - fəli 'white person(s)'
kuə - kui 'bone(s)'
ʧoŋə - ʧue 'path(s)'
lʊŋa - lʊɪ 'bile(s)'
fana - fanɪ 'knife(s)
daa - dɛ 'stick(s)'
ʒəgə - ʒe 'place(s)'
miə - mi 'bowstring(s)'
kɔga - kʊɛ 'back(s)'
lidə - lidi 'medicine(s)'
yaga - yɛ 'market(s)'
tʊa - tʊɪ 'bee(s)'
bugə - bui 'river(s)'
ləŋə - le 'song(s)'
luə - lui 'funeral(s)'
poŋə - pue 'shelter'
ʧɪga - ʧɪ 'truth(s)'
bʊda - bʊdɪ 'fishnet(s)'
kada - kadɪ 'farm(s)'
naga - nɛ 'leg(s)'
zʊŋa - zʊɪ 'calabash(es)'
kwɪa - kwɪ 'dry season(s)'
tulə - tuli 'granary(ies)'
bəŋə - be 'roof beam(s)'
nʊa - nʊɪ 'finger(s)'
kala - kalɪ 'pot(s)'
digə - di 'room(s)'
nugə - nui 'shea nut oil(s)'
taŋa - tɛ 'bow(s)'

Source: W. R. Merrifield, C. M. Naish, C. R. Rensch & G. Story. 1987. *Laboratory manual for morphology and syntax.* Dallas, Texas: Summer Institute of Linguistics.

Unit 10
Modifying nouns: Adjectives & Relative clauses

There are two common ways two give additional information about a noun by building a more complex

noun phrase:

	ENGLISH	SOMALI
Noun + Adjective	the **new** student	ardayga **cusub**
Noun + Relative Clause	the student **that laughed**	ardayga **qoslay**

The English relative clause is marked by the relative word *that*

The Somali relative cluase is marked by the absence of the three main clause characterictics:

a subject suffix on the noun phrase
a declarative marker
a subject pronoun

Ardaygu waa uu qoslay.
student.the DECL he laughed
'The student laughed.'

Not all languages have adjectives.
Some languages only have a smaller number of adjectives.
Verbs or nouns are often used instead

SOMALI	gaari buluug ah car blue.thing being	'a blue car'
	gaari cusub	'a new car'
	gaari-ga buluug-ga ah	'the blue car'
	gaari-ga cusub	'the new car'
SWAHILI	ndege aliyekufa bird which.died	'a dead bird'
	mlango uliofunguliwa door which.was.opened	'an open door'

Adjectives precede nouns

English, Swedish, Amharic: təlləq bet ‘big house’

Qualities precede, Categories follow

Polish: nowy dworzec autobusowy ‘(the) new bus station’
[dvɔʒɛts]

Adjectives follow nouns

Romance languages, Arabic, Somali, Swahili

The adjective does not agree with its head noun

English

Basic adjectives (may) agree with their head noun, but only in number

Somali

The adjective agrees with its head noun in both number and gender/class

Italian, Swahili

The adjective agrees with its head noun in both gender, number and definiteness

Swedish, Arabic

Adjective + definite article + possessive

SWEDISH		FRENCH
hus	‘house’	maison
hus-**et**	‘**the** house’	**la** maison
ny-tt hus	‘new house’	nouvelle maison
det ny-**a** hus-**et**	‘**the** new house’	**la** nouvelle maison
mitt ny-**a** hus	‘my new house’	ma nouvelle maison

BULGARIAN		ITALIAN	SOMALI
kəʃt-a	‘house’	casa	guri
kəʃt-a-**ta**	‘the house’	**la** casa	guri-**ga**
nov-a kəʃt-a	‘a new house’	nuova casa	guri cusub
nov-a-**ta** kəʃt-a	‘the new house’	**la** nuova casa	guri-**ga** cusub
moj-a-**ta** nov-a kəʃt-a	‘my new house’	**la** mia nuova casa	guri-gay-**ga** cusub

ARABIC noun+poss

AMHARIC adjective+defininte noun+possessive

təlləq-u bet-e 'his big house'
big-the house-his

Somali genders

MASCULINE	FEMININE
Stress on second to last vowel position	Stress on last vowel position
dukáan 'shop'	**laán** 'branch'
Definite article **-ka**	Definite article **-ta**
Possessive **-kayga** 'my'	Possessive **-tayda** 'my'
dukáanka 'the shop'	**laánta** 'the branch'
dukáankayga 'my shop'	**laántayda** 'my branch'
Adjectives don't have different gender forms.	
dukáankayga yar 'my little shop'	**laántayda yar** 'my little branch'
Subject pronoun **uu** 'he, it'	Subject pronoun **ay** 'she, it'
Verbs 3rd p. sg. masc. **-aa**	Verbs 3rd p. sg. fem. **-taa**
heesaa 'sings'	**heestaa** 'sings'
wíilka yari wáa uu heesaa 'the little boy sings'	**gabárta yari wáa ay heestaa** 'the little girl sings'

Wáa is a sentence type marker that marks this clause as a statement.

-i is the subject noun phrase suffix added to an adjective.

Swahili noun classes

Class 1/2	3/4	7/8	5/6	9/10	11/10
mtoto ‘child’ **wa**fuko ‘children’	**m**fuko ‘bag’ **mi**fuko ‘bags’	**ki**tabu ‘book’ **vi**tabu ‘books’	gari ‘car’ **ma**gari ‘cars’	paka ‘cat’ paka ‘cats’	**u**siku ‘night’ siku ‘night’
mwalimu ‘teacher’ **w**alimu ‘teachers’	**mw**iko ‘spoon’ **mi**iko ‘spoons’	**ch**uo ‘college’ **vy**uo ‘colleges’	**ji**cho ‘eye’ **ma**cho ‘eyes’	**n**guo ‘clothes item’ **n**guo ‘clothes’	
muumba ‘creator’ **wa**umba ‘creators’	**muz**iki ‘music’ **miz**iki ‘musical genres’				

Agreeing adjectives, e.g., **mtoto mrefu** ‘a tall child’

mrefu ‘long’ **wa**refu	**m**refu **mi**refu	**ki**refu **vi**refu	refu **ma**refu	**n**defu **n**defu	**m**refu **n**defu

Agreeing possessives, e.g. **mtoto wangu** ‘my child’

wangu ‘my’ **w**angu	**w**angu **y**angu	**ch**angu **vy**angu	**l**angu **y**angu	**y**angu **z**angu	**w**angu **z**angu

Relative clause types

that, which, who (subject, object), whom (object), whose (owner), where (place), when (time)

the children that participated (gap=subject)	that ~~the children~~ participated
the house that Jack built (gap=object)	that Jack built ~~the house~~
the woman who waited (gap=subject)	who ~~the woman~~ waited
the woman who we saw (gap=object)	who we saw ~~the woman~~
the children whose parents paid a bribe paid a bribe (gap=genitive)	whose ~~the children's~~ parents
the city where I once lived (gap=adverbial of place)	where I once lived ~~in the city~~
the summer when I learned to fly ~~summer~~ (gap=adverbial of time)	when I learned to fly ~~that~~

Relative clauses

Languages with gap English, Swedish,

Languages without gap Persian, Slovenian
The gap is filled with a suitable pronoun

Languages with obligatory relative word: French, Italian

Languages with relative word that may be omitted: English, Swedish

Languages without any relative word: Somali

Descriptive and restrictive use of adjectives and relative clauses

– descriptive/nonrestrictive/appositive use

the head noun can be identified without the information given by the adjective/relative clause

– restrictive/contrastive use

the head noun can only be identified by the information given by the adjective/relative clause

Some languages mark descriptive and restrictive adjectives and/or relative clauses in different ways.

SOMALI

A descriptive relative clause is marked by the conjunctional particle ‘oo’.

A restrictive relative clause directly after the head noun is not marked, but a restrictive relative clause after another modifier, e.g. an adjective, is marked by the conjunctional particle ‘ee’.

Problem 10.1
Egyptian Arabic determiners

1. What grammatical rules can you give for Egyptian Arabic?

2. Gloss these examples according to the Leipzig glossing rules

il walad da yigi il madrasa 'this boy comes to the school'

il binti di tigi il madrasa 'this girl comes to the school'

il ʔawla:d dool yigu il madrasa 'these children come to the school'

faaṭima tiḥibb il walad da 'Fatima loves this boy'

ḥasan yiḥibb il binti di 'Hassan loves this girl'

is siri:r ig gidi:d 'the new bed'

is siri:r gidi:d 'the bed is new'

il ʕarabiy:a ig gidi:da 'the new car'

il ʕarabiy:a gidi:da 'the car is new'

di ʕarabiy:a 'this is a car'

il ʕarabiy:a di 'this car'

da siri:r 'this is a bed'

is siri:r da 'this bed'

From: W. Cowan & J. Rakušan. 1987. Source Book for Linguistics. Amsterdam: John Benjamins, p. 103, and J. Wightwick & M. Gaafar. 2014. *Colloquial Arabic of Egypt.* London & New York: Routledge.

Problem 10.2
Describing things in Swahili

1. What grammatical rules can you give for Swahili based on these sentences?

2. Gloss these examples according to the Leipzig glossing rules

kisu ni kidogo 'the knife is small'

kisu kidogo kinafaa 'the small knife is useful'

mti ni mdogo 'the tree is small'

mti mdogo unafaa 'the small tree is useful'

watu ni wadogo 'the men are small'

watu wadogo wanafaa 'the small men are useful'

From: W. Cowan & J. Rakušan. 1987. Source Book for Linguistics. Amsterdam: John Benjamins, p. 110.

Problem 10.3
Somali relative clauses

1. What grammatical rules can you give for Somali based on the following examples?

2. Gloss these examples according to the Leipzig glossing rules

waa ay ordaysaa 'she is running'

waa uu ordayaa 'he is running'

Sahro waa ay ordaysaa 'Sarah is running'

Xasan waa uu ordayaa 'Hassan is running'

waxa ay cunaysaa moos 'she is eating a banana'

waxa uu cunayaa moos 'he is eating a banana'

Sahro waxa ay cunaysaa moos 'Sarah is eating a banana'

Xasan waxa uu cunayaa moos 'Hassan is eating a banana'

Sahro waxa ay fiirinaysaa wiilka 'Sarah is watching the boy'

Xasan waxa uu fiirinayaa gabarta 'Hassan is watching the girl'

Sahro waxa ay fiirinaysaa wiilka ordaya 'Sarah is watching the boy that is running'

Xasan waxa uu fiirinayaa gabarta ordaysa 'Hassan is watching the girl that is running'

Sahro waxa ay fiirinaysaa wiilka cunaya moos 'Sarah is watching the boy that is eating a banana'

Xasan waxa uu fiirinayaa gabarta cunaysa moos 'Hassan is watching the girl that is eating a banana'

Sahro waxa ay fiirinaysaa Xasan oo cunaya moos 'Sarah is watching Hassan, who is eating a banana'

Xasan waxa uu fiirinayaa Sahro oo cunaysa moos 'Hassan is watching Sarah, who is eating a banana'

Unit 11. Verbs & Roles

A verb usually constitutes the central part of a cluase.

> *The children **ate** their sandwitches.*

Verbs are (usually) accompanied by one or more nouns (noun phrases, pronouns), e.g. subject, object etc. Some are obligatory, and some are optional.

> *The children **ate** their sandwitches (with good appetite) (in the park) (before school).*

Some languages also allow verbs completely on their own, e.g.

> Italian: *Piove.* 'It rains.'

In many languages, verbs are inflected for different time relations, e.g.

> Italian: present: *piove*
> past: *pioveva*
> future: *pioverà*

In many languages the nouns go into specific positions relative to the verb. The grammatical functions SUBJECT and OBJECT are in some languages initmately related to the word order. Such languages are, e.g., English, Swedish and Swahili.

SUBJECT	+	VERB	+	OBJECT(S)		
NounPhrase	+	Verb				
NounPhrase	+	Verb	+	NounPhrase		
NounPhrase	+	Verb	+	NounPhrase	+	NounPhrase

Stefan	föll.		
Stefan	fell.		
Stefan	köpte	glass.	
Stefan	bought	ice-cream.	
Stefan	visade	polisen	sitt leg.
Stefan	showed	the police	his ID.

Intrasitive vs. transitive verbs

Verbs that are used without an object are called **INTRANSITIVE**, e.g.

> *sleep, fall, smile, laugh, walk*

Verbs that are used with an object are called **TRANSITIVE**, e.g.

buy, steal, say, watch, take, send

Some verbs are used both as transitive and intransitive, e.g.

see, eat, read

Basic word order

SVO : Subject – Verb – Object

More strict: Swahili, Swedish, English

Less strict: Russian

SOV: Subject – Object – Verb

More strict: Amharic, Tigrinya, Japanese, Persian
Less strict: Somali

VSO: Verb – Subject – Object

Classical Arabic, Berber languages, Celtic languages

VOS: Verb – Object – Subject

Malagassy

Grammatical functions vs. Semantic roles

The **GRAMMATICAL** functions SUBJECT and OBJECT correspond to **SEMANTIC ROLES.** The correspondence between grammatical functions and semantic roles is specific to each verb.

fall subject = theme
The kid fell

walk subject = agent
Grandpa is walking

see subject = experiencer object = theme
Lea saw an elephant

eat subject = agent object = theme
Tom ate a sandwitch

enter subject = agent object = goal
Sue entered the airport terminal

receive subject = recipient object = theme
Mike received a letter

The grammatical function, such as subject and object, is expressed differently in different languages:

1. by the word order, i.e. the position relative to the verb
Swahili, Colloquial Arabic, English, Swedish

2. by case endings on the nouns / noun phrases
Somali, Classical Arabic, Finnish, Russian, Latin,

3. by prepositions or particles that accompany the nouns / noun phrases
Japanese, Swedish, English

4. by affixes on the verb that agree with and indicate the subject and/or object
Swahili

5. by pronouns that co-occur with the verb and indicate the subject and/or object
Somali

fall: SUBJECT = **THEME** (the 'thing' involved in what happens)

[Stefan] [fell]

buy: SUBJECT = **AGENT**
OBJECT = **THEME**

[Stefan] [bought] [ice-cream]

show: SUBJECT = **AGENT**
OBJECT1 = **RECIPIENT**
OBJECT2 = **THEME**

[Stefan] [showed] [the police] [his ID]

OR SUBJECT = **AGENT**
OBJECT = **THEME**
to + NounPhrase = **RECIPIENT**

[Stefan] [showed] [his ID] [to the police]

In Somali the grammatical function is defined by inflectional endings on the noun phrase. Word order also contributes, but is not very reliable.

Defininte article ends in **-u** if subject, in **-a** if not subject.

Gabar-tu waa ay dhacday.
girl-the.SUBJ decl she fell

Waa ay dhacday gabar-tu.

Gabar-tu ayskiriin-ka baa ay soo iibsatay.
girl-the.SUBJ ice-cream-the FOC she PF bought
'The girl bought the ice-cream.'

Ayskiriin-ka baa ay gabar-tu soo iibsatay.

Ayskiriin-ka baa ay soo iibsatay gabar-tu.

Gabar-tu waxa ay soo iibsatay ayskiriin-ka.

Waxa ay gabar-tu soo iibsatay ayskiriin-ka.

Waxa ay soo iibsatay gabar-tu ayskiriin-ka.

Russian has a much richer system of CASES, i.e. endings on nouns that express grammatical functions

How the grammatical functions correspond to the semantic roles depends on the individual verb.

Form	Masculine		Feminine		Dominating function	role
Nominative	Ivan	dom	Marina	kniga	subject	agent, theme
Accusative	Ivana	dom	Marinu	knigu	direct object	theme
Dative	Ivanu	domu	Marine	knige	indirect object	recipient
Genitive	Ivana	doma	Mariny	knigi	modifier	possessor
Instrumental	Ivanom	domom	Marinoj	knigoj	adv. of manner	instrument

Ivan dal Marine knigu nominative - subject – agent
'Ivan gave the book to Marina'

Ivan dal Marine knigu

Marine dal knigu Ivan	accusative - direct object - theme
Knigu dal Marine Ivan	dative - indirect object - recipient
Knigu Ivan dal Marine	
Marine dal knigu Ivan	and several other combinations…

Marina kupila Ivanu dom	'Marina bought a house for Ivan'
Marina kupila dom Ivanu	
Marina Ivanu kupila dom	
Marina dom kupila Ivanu	
Dom Marina kupila Ivanu	and many more options…

Yet other languages work with prepositions or other small particles that accompany the noun phrases in order to tell their grammatical function.

PERSIAN

ivan ketáb **rá** **be** mariná dád. 'Ivan gave the book to Marina'
Ivan book **DEF.OBJ** **to** Marina gave

mariná **baráye** Iván xáne xarid. 'Marina bought a house for Ivan.'
Marina **for** Ivan house bought

An example

The English *My foot hurts* corresponds to Swedish *Jag har ont i foten* (literally 'I have ache in the foot'), Russian *U menyá bolít nogá* (lit. 'At me the foot/leg hurts'), and Polish *Boli mnie stopa* (lit. 'The foot hurts me').
In Swedish 'I' seems to be 'in charge', whereas in the other languages 'the foot' is 'in charge'. In Swedish 'the foot' is the place where it happens, whereas in Russin 'I' am the place where it happens.
And in Polish 'I' am being 'affected' by the behviour of the foot, which is not the case in any of the other languages...

Active and passive sentence structure

Active Clause	Passive Clause

active verb form	passive verb form
SUBJECT = AGENT	SUBJECT = THEME
OBJECT = THEME	**by** + NounPhrase = AGENT (may be omitted)
Sahra opened **the window**	**The window** was opened **by Sahra**

grammatical function (syntax)			
subject	**object**	**subject**	**agent**
semantic role			
agent	**theme**	**theme**	**agent**

Two main purposes of the passive:

To put the agent at the end of the clause (for information structure purposes).

To 'hide' the identity of the agent.

Not all languages have a passive, e.g. Somali.

Somali has flexible word order, and the subject can occur at the end of an active clause.

active verb with clause final subject (Somali lacks passive verb forms)

Buug-gan waxa qor-ay saaxiib-kay.
book-this FINAL.FOC write-PST friend-my
'This book was written by a FRIEND of mine.'

Somali has an indefinite subject pronoun, that can be used in order to 'hide' the identity of the agent.

active verb with indefinite subject **la** 'one':

Buug-gan waxa **la** qor-ay waqti dhow.
book-this FINAL.FOC **one** write-PST time close
'This books was written RECENTLY.'

Therefore, there is really no need for a passive construction in Somali.

On the other hand, Somali has special verb forms to express that there is NO AGENT involved.

Waxa aan fur-ay albaab-ka.
FINAL.FOC I open-PST door-the
'I opened the door.'

Waa la fur-ay albaabka.
DECL one open-PST the.door
'Somebody opened the door. / The door was opened (by somebody).'

Albaab-ku waa uu fur-**m**-ay.
door-THE.SBJ DECL it open-ANT.CAUS-PAST
'The door opened.' (not by anybody, by itself)

This type of verbs are called ANTI-CAUSATIVE. The anti-causative suffix in Somlai is **-m-**. It is very different from a passive form!!

Problem 11.1
Word order in Sidama

Sidama is an Afro-Asiatic language in the Cushitic group. It is spoken by approximately 3 million people in southern Ethiopia.

What rules can you give for word order in Sidama?

sama:go ka:j:ite laʔí
Samaago Kaajite saw
'Samaago saw Kaajite.'

dangiso n:a ledamo danca ja:la: ti
Dangiso and Ledamo good friend are
'Dangiso and Ledamo are good friends.'

tini sa:da lowil:a:d:a te
these cows big are
'These cows are big.'

o:so se bar:u tuk'a hajʃitan:o
children her days all washes
'She washes her children every day.'

wa:re ba:ramo ra di:na ho
Waare Baaramo to enemy is
'Waare is an enemy to Baaramo.'

ba:ramo lek:ate n:i dajnó
Baaramo foot on came
'Baaramo came on foot.'

kabi:co he:ʔran:o man:i fi:t'aʔ ja: ti
here live people relatives mine are
'The people who live here are my relatives.'

bis:o insera se waj n:i wanʃitino
Bisso pot her water with filled
'Bisso filled her pot with water.'

sama:go doda no
Samaago running is
'Samaago is running.'

an:u mini ra eʔi wate wa:re ita n:ino
father home to came when Waare eating was
'When his father came home, Waare was eating.'

From: Grover Hudson. 2000. Essential Introductory Linguistics. Oxford: Blackwell. Page 347.

Problem 11.2
Word order and roles in Wolaytta

Wolaytta is an Afro-Asiatic language in the Omotic group. It is spoken by approximately 1.6 million people in southern Ethiopia.

a) Gloss all the example sentences as precisely as you can.
b) What rules can you give for word order and grammatical marking of syntactic functions in Wolaytta?

ta naʔai ne matʃ:ijo beʔi:s
'My son saw your wife.'

ne a:wai ta a:jijo beʔi:s
'Your father saw my mother.'

ta matʃ:iya ne a:jijo mad:a:su
'My wife helped your mother.'

ta iʃai ne iʃa: matʃ:ijo mad:i:s
'My brother helped your brother's wife.'

ne a:wa: a:wai ne naʔa: beʔi:s
'Your father's father saw your son.'

ne naʔa: matʃ:iya ta matʃ:iyo a:wa: beʔa:su
'Your son's wife saw my wife's father.'

From: W. R. Merrifield, C. M. Naish, C. R. Rensch & G. Story. 1987. Laboratory manual for morphology and syntax. Dallas, Texas: Summer Institute of Linguistics. Problem 173.

Problem 11.3
Grammar in Engenni

Engenni is a endangered Niger-Congo language in the Volta-Niger group. It is spoken by just a few thousand people in southern Nigeria.

What grammatical information can you give for Engenni?

aðiðæ næ wu
rich.man the died
'The rich man died.'

edei ðemu næ du eseni
man fat the bought fish
'The fat man bought fish.'

ade do eseni
Ade stole fish
'Ade stole fish.'

edei næ aðiðæ
man the rich.man
'The man is a rich.man.'

edei dori næ ade
man tall the Ade
'The tall man is Ade.'

ade dorija
Ade tall
'Ade is tall.'

aðiðæ næ ðemuja
rich.man the fat
'The rich man is fat.'

From: W. R. Merrifield, C. M. Naish, C. R. Rensch & G. Story. 1987. Laboratory manual for morphology and syntax. Dallas, Texas: Summer Institute of Linguistics. Problem 231.

Problem 11.4
'And' in Amharic

English nouns are connected with the conjunction 'and'. How is this expressed in Amharic?

1. mark'os mətt'a
   Mark came.

2. aster hedəč
   Esther went.

3. irbik'a mətt'ač
   Rebecca came.

4. mamo hedə
   Mamo went.

5. birhane hedəč
   Birhane went.

6. yohannis mətt'a
   John came.

7. yohannisinna mark'os hedu
   John and Mark went.

8. asterinna mamo mətt'u
   Esther and Mamo came.

9. mamonna mark'os hedu
   Mamo and Mark went.

10. birhanenna irbik'a hedu
    Birhane and Rebecca went.

11. irbik'anna mamo mark'osim hedu
    Rebecca, Mamo, and Mark went.

12. mark'osinna yohannis asterim mətt'u
    Mark, John, and Esther came.

13. asterinna mark'os birhanem mamom hedu
    Esther, Mark, Birhane, and Mamo went.

From: W. R. Merrifield, C. M. Naish, C. R. Rensch & G. Story. 1987. Laboratory manual for morphology and syntax. Dallas, Texas: Summer Institute of Linguistics. Problem 289.

Unit 12. Tense & Aspect

Tense is not equal to time!

Tense is a **grammatical form**, expressed by some affixe(s) (=bound **morpheme**).

present tense:	work-s	arbeta-r
past tense:	work-ed	arbeta-de

Time, on the other hand, is a **semantic category**, hence part of the meaning.

There is no one to one realtion between form (tense) and meaning (time). There is only some general (frequent) relation to between them.

English and Swedish present tense can express both **present, past and future** time!

Both English and Swedish report about past events in the present tense to make to story more vivid.

*Yesterday at breakfast, he **walks** over to my table and **sits** down.*

This is a so called historical use of the present tense

Both English and Swedish can express future time through the use of the present tense.

Jag kommer med tåget i morgon klockan åtta.

I arrive by train tomorrow at eight.

All languages can express time, but not all languages has tenses. Especially laguages without morphology, or with very little morphology, e.g. Chinese. Then adverbs and particles do the job.

Tense: Form vs. Construction

If tenses are **forms**, there is strictly speaking no future tense in English and Swedish, only **constructions** expressing the future: *will arrive, is going to arrive…*

But… if we consider both **forms** and **constructions** to be tenses, then Sw. and Eng. have a future tense.

Once again… grammatical traditions differ!

The crucial point is do distinguish between

- forms
- constructions

- functions / meanings

The Past

English and Swedish have one past tense form + two past (tense) constructions, all of which primarily express past time in different ways.

Tense		
PRETERITE:	*work-ed*	*arbeta-de*
Constructions		
PERFECT	*has worked*	*har arebtat*
PLUPERFECT:	*had eaten*	*hade arebtat*

But… the preterite may express a condition, which can also be related to the future.

*If I **had** enough money, I would travel around the world.*
*Om jag **hade** tillräckligt med pengar skulle jag resa världen runt.*

The perfect may express a future event that is prior to another future event.

*When you **have paid**, you will receive an electronic receipt.*
*När du **har betalat** kommer du att få ett elektroniskt kvitto.*

Conjugation = Verb inflection

To conjugate a verb is to list its inflectional forms (and possibly also the constructions). Many languages, but not all, inflect verbs for:

Persons: 1st, 2nd, 3rd;

Numbers: Singular, Plural, Dual;

Genders: Masculine, Feminine, Neutre, Noun Class

Tenses: Past, Present, Future, etc. (distant past, immediate past, today's past, immediate future, distant future…)

Aspects: Perfective, Imperfective, Progressive, Habitual

Moods: Realis (Indicative), Irrealis (Subjunctive, Conditional), Imperative (Prohibitive, Optative)

All the above forms are often referred to as

TAM-forms (abbreviation for Tense/Aspect/Mood-forms), or
Finite verb forms, which are forms inflected for person (automatically including TAM).

Infinite verb forms are

Infinitive(s) / Deverbal nouns (verbalsubstantiv)

Participles / Deverbal adjectives

Auxiliary verbs:
– Temporal auxiliaries,
– Modal auxiliaries

Problem 12.1
Tense and aspect in Somali

The following sentences show the full set of tenses and aspects in Somali.
How many tenses are there, and how many aspects are there? Why do you think so?
Gloss the examples indicating the morphological structure.

Waa ay orodday. 'She ran.'
Waa ay oroddaa. 'She runs.'
Waa uu orday. 'He ran.'
Waa uu ordaa. 'He runs.'
Waa ay ordaysaa. 'She is running.'
Waa ay ordaysay. 'She was running.'
Waa uu ordayaa. 'He is running.'
Waa uu ordayay. 'He was running.'
Waa ay ordi doontaa. 'She will run.'
Waa uu ordi doonaa. 'He will run.'
Waa ay ordi jirtay. 'She used to run.'
Waa uu ordi jiray. 'He used to run.'

Problem 12.2
Verb prefixes in Swahili

How would you account for all the verb prefixes in the following Swahili examples? Gloss the examples indicating the morphological structure.

Group the prefixes into different categories that have some semantic trait in common and occur in the same position (slot) before the verb stem. Prepare a table showing the ordering of these groups of prefixes.

NB. Swahili doesn't have a definite article, so all the nouns could equally well be translated with the indefinite article *a* instead of the definite *the*. Gloss them without any article.

ninasema ‘I speak’

unasema ‘you speak’

anasema ‘he speaks’
wanasema ‘they speak’
ninaona ‘I see’
niliona ‘I saw’
ninawaona ‘I see them’
nilikuona ‘I saw you’
ananiona ‘he sees me’
utaniona ‘you will see me’
from Kroeger (2005: 24)

Mtoto alisoma kitabu. 'The child read the book.'
Mtoto alikisoma. 'The child read it.'
Watoto walisoma vitabu. 'The children read the books.'
Watoto walivisoma. 'The children read them.'
Mtoto alikula ndizi. 'The child ate the banana(s).'
Mtoto aliikula. 'The child ate it.'
Mtoto alizikula. 'The child ate them.'
Mwalimu alipiga mtoto. 'The teacher beat the child.'
Mwalimu alimpiga. 'The teacher beat him/her.'
Walimu walipiga watoto. 'The teachers beat the children.'
Walimu waliwapiga. 'The teachers beat them.'

Problem 12.3
Gee verb morphology

It’s not entirely clear which language this exercise is about, but it seems quite probable that the authors mean the Gen language, one of the Gbe languages of Togo, aslo considered a dialect of Ewe. Gen has appr. a quarter of a million speakers.

How would you account for all the morphemes in the following Gee examples? Gloss the examples indicating the morphological structure. Then group the affixes into different categories that have some semantic trait in common and occur in the same position (slot) relative to the verb stem. Prepare a table showing the ordering of these groups of affixes.

Gee (Togo; Bendor-Samuel and Levinsohn 1986; Roberts 1999, ex. M-4.8)

a	biʔ-ʃu-ni	'I came'
b	bai-ʃu-ni	'I went'
c	dos-ʃu-me	'you (sg) ran'
d	meʔ-ʃu-mi	'they spoke'
e	bai-te-mi-leʔ	'will they go?'
f	biʔ-paʔ-ni-do	'I am not coming'
g	dos-ʃu-ni-risa	'I ran first'
h	bai-paʔ-me-duʔa	'you (sg) only are going'
i	dos-te-mi-risa-leʔ	'will they run first?'
j	bai-ʃu-ni-tuʃi	'I went suddenly'
k	meʔ-te-mi-risa-do-leʔ	'will they not speak first?'
l	biʔ-te-me-duʔa-do	'you (sg) only will not come'
m	meʔ-paʔ-mi-tuʃi-leʔ	'are they suddenly speaking?'

from Kroeger (2005: 18)

Unit 13. Phrases & Clauses

Richter, Sections 4.1–4.5

Morphology - How morphemes combine to form words

Syntax - How words combine to form phrases, clauses, sentences (and texts), e.g. word order, or how prepositions are used, or how number forms of nouns are used (e.g. with numerals), etc. etc. etc.

Phrase (fras) - A phrase consists of one or more words

Clause (sats) - A clause consists of one or more phrases

Sentence (mening) - A sentence consists of one or more clauses

Sentences are not directly (only indirectly) made up of words.

Word classes

are important, since words in different word classes are used in different ways in syntax, i.e. when building larger units than the word: phrases, clauses and sentences.

Subdivisions of word classes are also very relevant: proper nouns, common nouns, countable nouns, uncountable nouns, mass nouns; auxiliary verbs etc.

Some Common Types of Phrases

Verb Phrases (VP's): particles + auxiliaries + head/main verb

Many linguists, but not all, also include the rest of the clause in the VP, with the exception of the subject NP. Every clause is then first divided into just one NP + one VP.

NP	VP		NP	VP	NP
<The children>	<saw the cat>	or	<The children>	<saw>	<the cat>

This is a good example showing that linguists (and scientists in general) don't always agree with each other on all details.

Noun Phrases (NP's): determiner(s) + modifier(s) + head noun (not necessarily in that order!)

my big **house**

Preposition Phrases (PP's): preposition + noun phrase

in my big house

Adjective Phrases (AP's): adjective (head word) + modifier(s)

tired of this job

Phrases often consist of **only one word**.

Stephen became tired.
NP VP AP

My friend Stephen <> has become <> tired of his job.
NP VP AP

Noun phrase (NP)

Jane; **she**; the **child**; the young **student**; the **children** in the garden; the **sleeping** child

Verb phrase (VP)

works; has been **working** intensely; **woke** up; **saw** the accident

Preposition phrase (PP) - a preposition + a NP

in the garden; in the beautiful garden

Adjective phrase (AdjP) -

beautiful, incredibly **beautiful**

Adverb phrase (AdvP)
incredibly, very **intensely**

Testing what is a phrase

- replacement (with e.g. a pronoun)
- movement (changing the word order)

A phrase can usually not be divided, even if there exist examples of the contrary.

Sw./En. preposition phrases, where the preposition can be left at the end of a clause

Russian adjectives can be separated from their head noun

In many languages, certain conjuntions can go into the middle of the first phrase och the second clause.

Not all languages have the same types of phrases

Somali doesn't have prepositions phrases, but instead it has sentence particle phrases

NP SpP NP VP NP

Naciima <> waxa ay <> buug <> **ku** soo iibsatay <> 65 000 shilin
FOC she book for COMPL bought

'Naeema <> bought <> a book <> **for** 65 000 shillings'

NP VP NP PP

Xaliimo <> suuqa <> waxa ay <> **ka** soo iibsatay <> walxaha soo socda
market.the FOC she at COMPL bought things.the here going

'Halima <> bought <> the following things <> **at** the market'

SpP - Sentence Particle Phrase

FOC - focus on the last Noun Phrase

COMPL - Completed action

Varying stuctures between languages

The same meaning can be expressed
morphologically in one language
syntactically in another language
both ways in a third language

JUXTAPOSITION	'Monica's mother'	'the name of the village'
SOMALI		magaca tuulada
ARABIC	umm Monika	
CASE: GENITIVE		
ENGLISH	Monica**'s** mother	
RUSSIAN	mama Moni**ki**	
SLOVENE		ime vas**i**
NORWEGIAN	Monika**s** mor	
POSSESSIVE DET.		
SOMALI	Monika hooya**deed**	
NORWEGIAN	Monika **si** mor	
CONNECTOR		
SWAHILI	mama **ya** Monika	
PERSIAN	mádar **e** Monika	nám **e** rustá
ENGLISH		the name **of** the village
SPANISH	la madre **de** Monica	
NORWEGIAN	mora **til** Monika	
POSS. ADJECTIVE		
SLOVENE	Monik**ina** mama	

Some languages have very little or no inflectional morphology (e.g. English, Chinese).

Sometimes it is also difficult to draw the exat borderline between morphology and syntax.

It can therefore be practical to talk about **morphosyntax** instead of **morphology & syntax**.

Deep vs. surface structure

Ex 1
Deep structure:
children (agent, definite) see (verb, past) cat (theme, definite)

Surface structure 1: The children saw the cat.
Surface structure 2: The cat was seen by the children.

Ex 2
Deep structure 1: Man, has an interest: (people,) hunt, lions
Deep structure 2: Man, has an interest: lions, hunt, (animals)

Surface structure: He is interested in huntig lions.

structure 1: *hunting* is the head noun, *lions* is its direct object
He is interested in **huntig** (lions).

structure 2: *lions* is the head noun, *hunting* is its modifier
He is interested in (huntig) **lions**.

Problem 13.1 – Deep structure

These sentences are (potentially) ambiguous.

Mr Smith is too old to visit.

Herr Smith är för gammal för besök.

Explain the differences in grammatical deep structure that can account for the ambiguity.

From: Richter, Borbála (ed.). 2006. *First Steps in Theoretical and Applied Linguistics.* Budapest: Bölcsész Konzorcium. Page 60.

Problem 13.2 – Empty constituents

In the second example, there is an empty slot (Ø) corresponding to a filled slot in the first example.
Do you think that one could argue that this empty slot has a function and conveys a meaning?
What would be the deep structure corresponding to this empty slot in the surface structure?

Sue wanted him to leave. *Sue wanted Ø to leave.*

From: Richter, Borbála (ed.). 2006. *First Steps in Theoretical and Applied Linguistics.* Budapest: Bölcsész Konzorcium. Page 60.

Unit 14. Types of Clauses and Sentences

Clause - A minimal syntactic structure that can function as a full sentence.
Usually: one VP + one or more NP's
+ maybe PP's, AP's..., depending on language

Clauses can be **independent** or **dependent**.

Independent clauses are also called **main** clauses.
Dependent clauses are also called **subordinate** clauses or subclauses.

Känner du den där killen som sitter där borta?
'Do you know that guy who is sitting over there?'

Sentence - A textual unit.

Simple sentence = one independent clause
I am eating. *You are playing with your phone.*

Compound sentence = two coordinated independent clauses

*I am eating **and** you are playing with your phone.*

Joined by a coordinator word / conjuntion

Complex sentence = **main/independent** clause + **subordinate/dependent** clause(s)

*I am eating **while** you are playing with your phone.*

*I am eating **since** you are playing with your phone.*

*I am eating **even if** you are playing with your phone.*

*I am not eating **if** you are playing with your phone.*

Dependent/subordinate clause introduced by a subordinator word / subjunction

Major/full/regular sentence
- a complete clause *That's great!*

Minor/incomplete sentence
- not a complete clause *Great!*
just a phrase

Sentence **Forms**	Sentence **Functions**
Declarative	Statement
Interrogative	Question
Imperative	Request/Order
Exclamative	Reaction/Feeling

They do not always match.

When are you going to clean your room? might be an order

There is no cake left! might be a question

Can't you do anything right?
rhetorical questions are reactions/statements

Two types of **interrogative** sentences:

Content Question or wh-question or **Open** Question
- you want some content as an answer
the words used begin with wh… + how

What would you like to drink?

Polar Question or yes/no-question
- you just want yes/no as an answer

Would you like som tea?

Disjunctive questions
- gives alternatives to choose between

Would you like tea or coffee?

Sentence **Content**	the action and the roles involved
Sentence **Forms**	Declarative, Interrogative, Imperative, Exclamative
Sentence **Functions**	Statement, Question, Request/Order, Reaction
Sentence **Force**	the intended effect

Do you happen to know what time it is?

This sentence is about some person's knowledge about the current time. That's the content.
It has an **interrogative** form, beginnig with an auxiliary, which makes it a **polar question**, but the function is rather a **request**. You do not want the person to anwer yes or no. Instead, you want the person to tell you what time it is, which is then the sentence force.

All languages can of course do all this, but each language has its own ways.

The functions are universal, but the **syntactic forms** of sentences differ a lot between languages.

SWEDISH

Declarative: One constituent + Verb + (Subject) + Rest (VERB SECOND)

*Anders **kom** sent till jobbet igår.* 'Anders came late to work yesterday.'

*Igår **kom** Anders sent till jobbet.* 'Yesterday Anders came late to work.'

Content Question: Question word + Verb + (Subject) + Rest (VERB SECOND)

*Varför **kom** Anders sent till jobbet?* 'Why did Anders come late to work?'

Polar Question: Verb + Subject + Rest (VERB INITIAL)

***Kom** Anders sent till jobbet igår?* 'Did Anders come late to work yesterday?'

Imperative: Verb + Rest (VERB INITIAL)

***Kom** inte sent till jobbet imorgon!* 'Don't come late to work tomorrow.'

SOMALI

Declarative:
(NPs) + Declarative particle + Subject pronoun + Verb + (NPs)

*Ardaydu waa **ay** ordayaan.* *Waa **ay** ordayaan.*
*Waa **ay** ordayaan ardaydu.*
'The students are running. **They** are running.'

Content Question or Open Question:
Q. word + Focus particle + Subj. pro. + (NPs) + VP + (NPs)

***Xaggee** baa ay **u** ordayaan ardaydu?* *Xaggee baa ay **u** ordayaan?*
*Xaggee baa ay ardaydu **u** ordayaan?*
*Ardaydu **xaggee** baa ay **u** ordayaan?*
'**Where** are the students running (**to**)? **Where** are they running (**to**)?'

Polar Question: Q. particle + (Subj. pro.) + (NPs) + VP + (NPs)
Ma (ay) ordayaan (ardaydu)?
'Are the students running?'

Imperative: (NPs) + VP + (NPs)

Orda! *U orda iskuulka!*
'Run! Run **to** school!'

Fronting of question word

Some languages front the question word, some don't.

If not fronted in English and Swedish - special effects are achieved

What did you say? Where are you going? - Real questions

You said WHAT? You are going WHERE? - Reactions (Disbelief)

SOMALI

Free variation - for information packaging purposes

***Xaggee** baa ay ardaydu **u** ordayaan?*

*Ardaydu **xaggee** baa ay **u** ordayaan?*

'**Where** are the students running (**to**)?'

*Kani waa **kuma**?*
this DECL who

*Waa **kuma** kani?*
DECL who this

Kuma weeye kani?
who DECL this

'Who is this?'

In some languages the question word normally stays in the same position as the corresponding answer word. This is the case in Mandarin Chinese.

nǐ shuō shénme?

you say what 'What did you say?'

In other languages the answer word might be fronted, just like the question word.

This is one of the psosibilities in Somali.

Maxaa aad soo iibsatay?
what you bought

Gaari ayaa aan soo iibsaday.
car FOC I bought

But Somali has very flexible word order and it is also possible to give the answer word at the end of the answer.

Waxa aan soo iibsaday gaari.

FOC I bought car

The word order in Somali is not so much dictated by the syntax or grammar, but rather by so called information packaging, i.e., in which order you want to present the words or the information to the listener. You often present it so that you first mention things that are known and then add things that are new. But in order to put enphasis on a word, you might put it in a less expected position.

Problem 14.1 – Sentence types in Ewe

Ewe is spoken in southern Ghana and Togo by some 7 million people. It is a Niger-Congo language in the Atlantic-Congo subgroup.

How are different sentence types expressed in Ewe?
What more can you tell about Ewe grammar?
Gloss the following examples.

atí kɔ́kɔ́ 'a tall tree'

mɔ́ didi 'a long way'

agble lolo 'a big farm'

atí kɔ́kɔ́ lá 'the tall tree'

mɔ́ didi lá 'the long way'

agble lolo lá 'the big farm'

Atí lá kɔ́. 'The tree is tall.'

Mɔ́ lá didi. 'The way is long.'

Agble lá lolo. 'The farm is big.'

Atí lá kɔ́a? 'Is the tree tall?'

Mɔ́ lá didia? 'Is the way long?'

Agble lá loloa? 'Is the farm big?'

Atí lá mékɔ́ o. 'The tree isn't tall.'

Mɔ́ lá médidi o. 'The way isn't long.'

Agble lá mélolo o. 'The farm isn't big.'

Atí lá mékɔ́ oa? 'Isn't the tree tall.'

Mɔ́ lá médidi oa? 'Isn't the way long.'

Agble lá mélolo oa? 'Isn't the farm big.'

Problem 14.2 – Sentence types in Gede'o

Gede'o is spoken in southern Ethiopia by approximately 1 million people.
It is an Afro-Asiatic language in the Cushitic subgroup.

How are different sentence types expressed in Gede'o?
What more can you tell about Gede'o grammar?
Gloss the following examples.

Isi dageen. 'He came.'
Isi dagee? 'Did he come?'
Isi dageebaan. 'He did not come.'
Isi dageebaa? 'Didn't he come?'

Isi soodo dagan. 'He will come tomorrow.'
Isi soodo daga? 'Will he come tomorrow?'

Ise muuze itteen. 'She ate banana.'
Ise muuze ittee? 'Did she eat banana?'
Ise muuze itteebaan. 'She didn't eat banana.'
Ise muuze itteebaa? 'Didn't she eat banana?'

Looni wiisalloten. 'Looni is a farmer.'
Ise wiisallote? 'Is she a farmer?'

Doori wiisalloken. 'Doori is a farmer.'
Isi wiisalloke? 'Is he a farmer.'

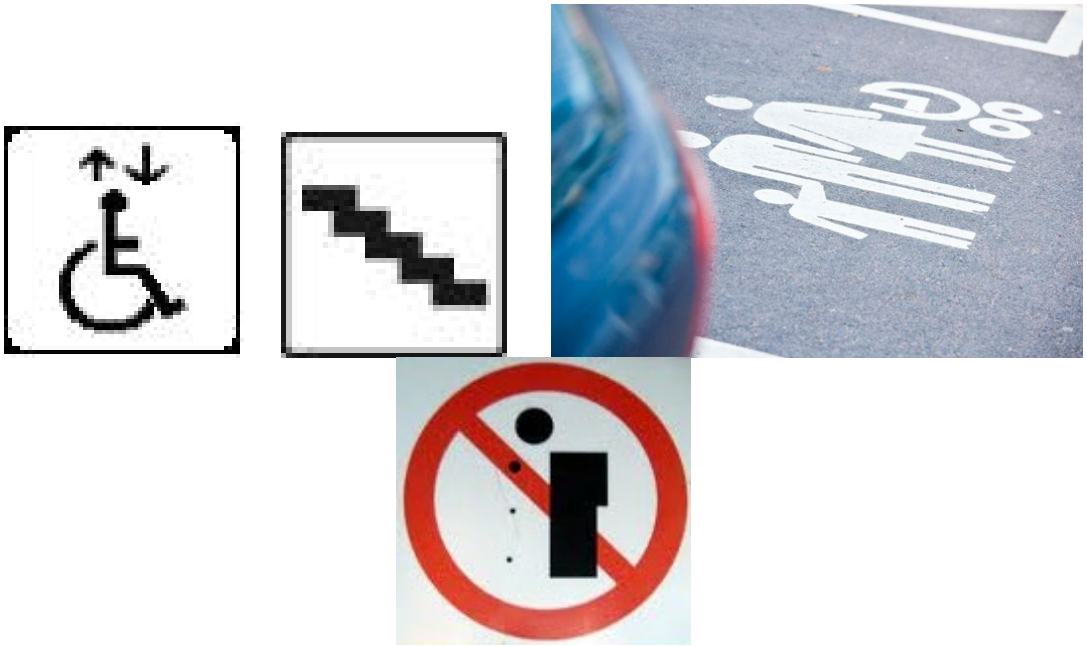
Ise barattoten. 'She is a student.'
Ise barattotebaan. 'She is not a student.'
Ise barattote? 'Is she a student?'
Ise barattotebaa? 'Isn't she a student?'

Isi baraʧʧisanʤoken. 'He is a teacher.'
Isi baraʧʧisanʤokebaan. 'He is not a teacher.'
Isi baraʧʧisanʤoke? 'Is he a teacher?'
Isi baraʧʧisanʤokebaa? 'Isn't he a teacher?'

Unit 15. Writing

Writing versus Other Symbols

What is the difference between
writing and
other systems of symbols?



There are many systems of **iconic symbols**, e.g.

— roadsigns, washing advice, find your way symbol: toilet, telephone, entrance, exit, elevator etc.

— mathematical symbols, e.g. 1 + 1 = 2

— chemical symbols, e.g. H_2O

Some are more iconic, others are more conventionalized, i.e., more difficult to "figure out".

BUT such symbols do not relate directly to any individual spoken language.

Writing differs from such symbols through its

— direct connection to **a specific** spoken **language**,
— heavy **conventionaliztion**,
— ability to convey a **complex message**.

The basic unit of writing in a specific writing system is a **grapheme**.

It may represent

- a **word** or a **morpheme**, as in Chinese

  in **pictographic/logographic** writing systems
  (or **iconic, hieroglyphic**)
  Such symbols are called **logograms**
  (also our digits are a kind of logograms)

- a **sound**

  in **phonographic** writing systems

The oldest writing

Complex question

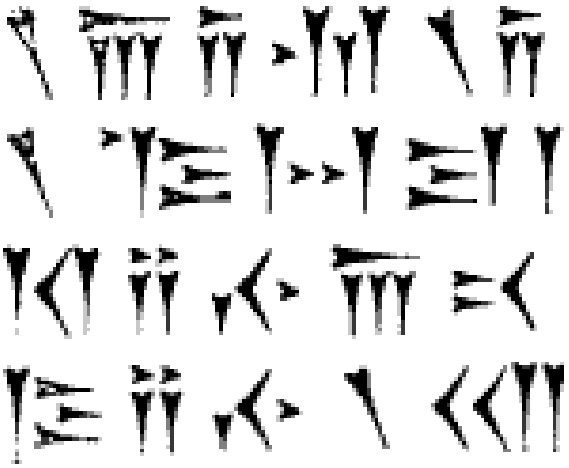
How do we define writing? Based on the definition, dates may differ. New archeological findings change the dates.

Were the systems borrowed or independently invented?

Most probably invented in three (or four) independent places

Middle East and Egypt	appr. 3200 BC in Mesopotamia and 3000 BC in Egypt
China	appr. 1500 BC
Central America	appr. 1000 BC according to quite recent findings

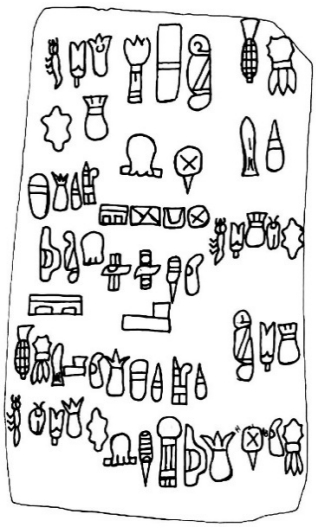
Early writing (not necessarily the earliest!!)



Middle East

Egypt

China



Central America

How writing developed

Original connection:

a spoken word ←→ a meaning ←→ a written sign

Later connection:

a spoken word ←→ a written sign ←→ a meaning

a written sign ←→ a spoken word ←→ a meaning

a written sign ←→ a spoken word ←→ several meanings (homonymous)

Then the meanings need to be disambiguated through the used of additional 'supportive' signs, so called **determinatives**.
This is called the **rebus principle**.

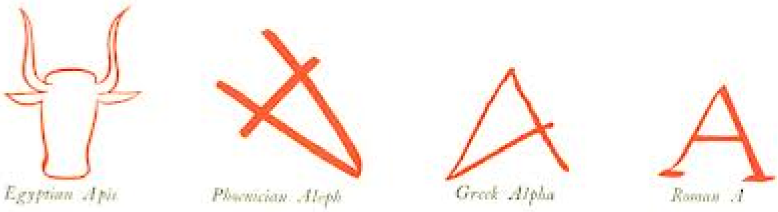
The iconicity is fading away and the conventionalisation of the signs is increasing.

Syllabic script

か カ Ka	き キ Ki	く ク Ku	け ケ Ke
さ サ Sa	し シ Shi(Si)	す ス Su	せ セ Se
た タ Ta	ち チ Chi(Ti)	つ ツ Tsu(Tu)	て テ Te
な ナ Na	に ニ Ni	ぬ ヌ Nu	ね ネ Ne

Japanese
Hiragana signs shown above Katakana signs

From logographic to phonographic writing



Source: readingtothecore.wordpress.com

Next, symbols that had used to represent whole words came to represent only the initial sound of that word.

Iconicity is pracitically lost and the signs are fully conventionalised.

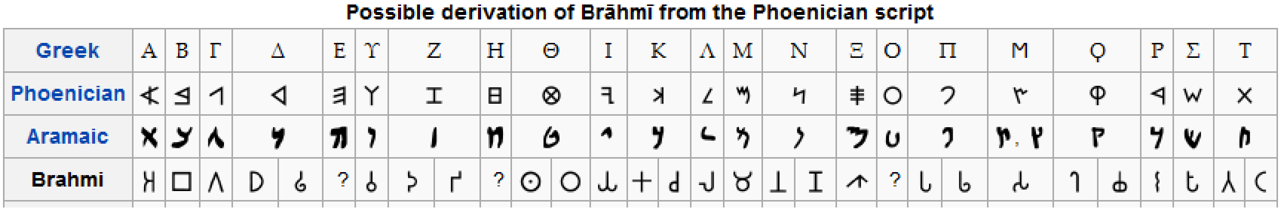
The number of graphemes is reduces as the level of abstraction incerases.

Purely Phonemic Consonantal script

The first fully phonographic system, the **Phoenician** script, was developed in the Middle East around 1500 BC.

The **Phoenician** script is the historical source of many of today's scripts, e.g. Latin, Cyrillic, Arabic, Hebrew…

Possible derivation of Brāhmī from the Phoenician script



The Brahmi script of India: findings from appr. 300 BC, but probably much older

The **Ge'ez** script (used for today's Amharic, Tigrinya etc.) has existed since around 100 AD.

The **Arabic** script was developed around 400 AD.

In the Phoenician script only consonants are written, not vowels, almost like in today's Arabic.

This kind of writing system is called an **abjad**.

In Arabic (from right to left)

لندن lndn 'London'

محمد mhmd 'Muhammed'

Diacritic signs

Later, small **diacritic** signs were sometimes added above, under or at the side of the consonants to indicate vowels.

لَندَن $l^{a}nd^{a}n$

مُحَمَّد $m^{u}h^{a}m^{ma}d$

The diacritic signs became obligatory in some writing systems, like Amharic, but they are quite seldom used in some other systems, like Arabic.

ለንደን	London
ሊቨርፑል	Liverpool
ናጋሳኪ	Nagasaki

Notice the tiny differences between Amharic /lo/, /li/ and /l/ in the names above! Also notice the similarity in the diacritic sign of /li/ and /ki/. Finally notice the similarity between the /l/ in Amharic, Greek and Cyrillic script (e.g. Russian).

A system with obligatory diacritic signs for vowels is called an **abugida**, whereas a system where vowels are mostly not indicated is called an **abjad**.

Alphabetic or Fully Phonemic script

The first alphabet with signs for all the vowels was developed for **Greek** around 800 BC.

This was taken to the Italian peninsula by the Etruscans, who developed the **Latin** alphabet around 700 BC.

The **Cyrillic** script, used for Russian etc., was developed from the Greek script around 900 AD.

However, for some 50 years before that, another script, called Glagolitic, was invented to write Slavic, but it was surprisingly soon abandoned in favour of the more Greek-like Cyrillic script.

Types of writing systems

Logographic

Chinese, Egyptian hieroglyphs

Syllabic

arbitrary signs for each syllable	Japanese

Phonemic

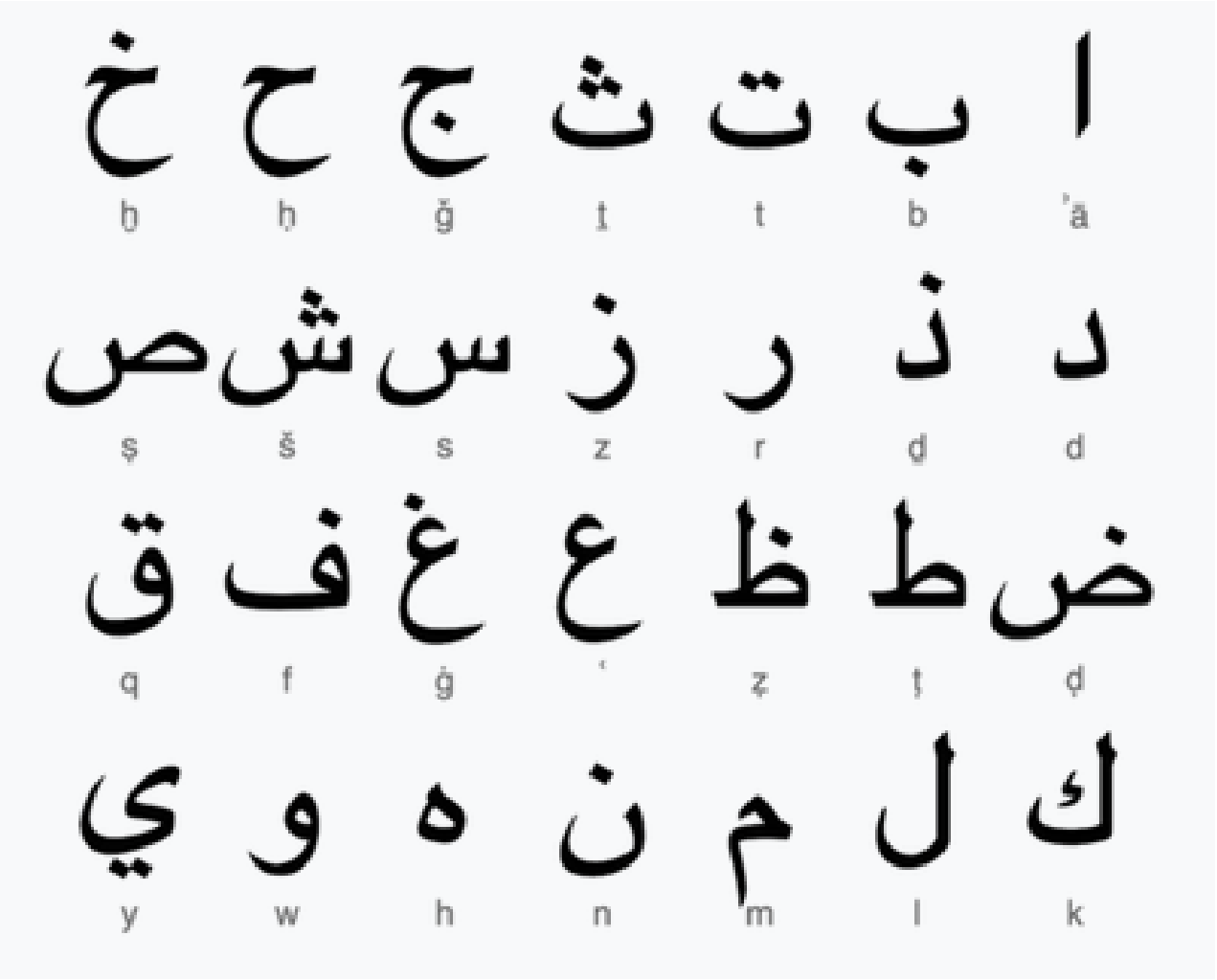
Abjad (consonantal)	Arabic, Hebrew
Abugida (semi-syllabic)	Ge'ez, Amharic, Tigrinya
Alphabet (fully phonemic)	Greek, Latin, Russian, Somali Osmania script
(quasi syllabic)	Korean

But languages with a basically alfabetic script have gone through some amount of historical development that has made pronunciation become different from the the writing, and the alphabetic script is then not fully phonemic any more…

Some of the Scripts used in Africa

Hieroglyphs	**logographic** script	Old Egyptian
Arabic script	phonographic **abjad**	Arabic
Ge'ez scrpit	phonographic **abugida**	Amharic, Tigrinya etc.
Tifinagh script	phonographic **abjad**	Tuareg etc. (Berber in Libya)
	phonographic **alphabetical**	Tamazigh etc. (Berber in Morocco)
Adlam script https://ff.wikipedia.org/wiki/Fulfulde/adlam		Fulfulde
Osmania script	phonographic **alphabetical**	Somali (1930's & 1940's)
Latin script	phonographic **alphabetical**	the majority of languages in Africa

Arabic script



The ”upper case” version of the Arabic abjad,
i.e. the forms used word finally

Source: Wikipedia

Ge’ez script

		ä [ə] or [a]	u	i	a	e	ə [i]	o	wa	jä [jə]
Hoy	*h*	ሀ	ሁ	ሂ	ሃ	ሄ	ህ	ሆ		
Läwe	*l*	ለ	ሉ	ሊ	ላ	ሌ	ል	ሎ	ሏ	
Ḥäwt	*ḥ*	ሐ	ሑ	ሒ	ሓ	ሔ	ሕ	ሖ	ሗ	
May	*m*	መ	ሙ	ሚ	ማ	ሜ	ም	ሞ	ሟ	ሟ
Śäwt	*ś*	ሠ	ሡ	ሢ	ሣ	ሤ	ሥ	ሦ	ሧ	
Rəʾs	*r*	ረ	ሩ	ሪ	ራ	ሬ	ር	ሮ	ሯ	ሯ
Sat	*s*	ሰ	ሱ	ሲ	ሳ	ሴ	ስ	ሶ	ሷ	
Ḳaf	*ḳ*	ቀ	ቁ	ቂ	ቃ	ቄ	ቅ	ቆ	ቋ	
Bet	*b*	በ	ቡ	ቢ	ባ	ቤ	ብ	ቦ	ቧ	
Täwe	*t*	ተ	ቱ	ቲ	ታ	ቴ	ት	ቶ	ቷ	

The beginning of the Ge’ez abugida.

Source: Wikipedia

Tifinagh script

Alphabetic version as used in Morocco for Tamazigh

Source: Wikipedia, Created by: Serg!o

Osmania script

Letters [edit]

Osmanya	Name	Latin	IPA	Osmanya	Name	Latin	IPA	Osmanya	Name	Latin	IPA
𐒀	alef	'	[ʔ]	𐒊	ba	b	[b]	𐒕	ta	t	[t]
𐒁	ja	j	[d͡ʒ]	𐒋	xa	x	[ħ]	𐒖	kha	kh	[χ]
𐒂	deel	d	[d]	𐒌	ra	r	[r]	𐒗	sa	s	[s]
𐒃	shiin	sh	[ʃ]	𐒍	dha	dh	[ɖ]	𐒘	cayn	c	[ʕ]
𐒄	ga	g	[g]	𐒎	fa	f	[f]	𐒙	qaaf	q	[q]
𐒅	kaaf	k	[k]	𐒏	laan	l	[l]	𐒚	miin	m	[m]
𐒆	nuun	n	[n]	𐒐	waw, uu	w, uu	[w, ʉː, uː]	𐒛	ha	h	[h]
𐒇	ya, ii	y, ii	[j, iː, ɪː]	𐒑	a	a	[æ, ɑ]	𐒜	e	e	[e, ɛ]
𐒈	i	i	[i, ɪ]	𐒒	o	o	[ɞ, ɔ]	𐒝	u	u	[ʉ, u]
𐒉	aa	aa	[æː, ɑː]	𐒓	ee	ee	[eː, ɛː]	𐒞	oo	oo	[ɞː, ɔː]

Numbers [edit]

Digit	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
Osmanya	𐒠	𐒡	𐒢	𐒣	𐒤	𐒥	𐒦	𐒧	𐒨	𐒩

Used for Somali in the first half of the 1900's.

Source: Wikipedia.

Problem 15.1
Read Amharic script

Try to read the following names in Amharic. All are cities in Europe, with the exception of Nagasaki.

There is a good table on Wikipedia containing all the Amharic graphemes: **https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Amharic**

ለንደን	lə.n.də.n	London
ሊቨርፑል	li.βə.r.pu.l	Liverpool
ናጋሳኪ	na.ga.sa.ki	Nagasaki
ሪጋ		
በርሊን		
ቤርን		
ቦን		
ብሬመን		
በርግን		
ታሊን		

ፕራግ

ኦስሎ

ሮማ

ቤልፋስት

Problem 15.2
Ngbaka, Kongo, determiners

Ngbaka is a Niger-Congo language in the Savannas group, and it is spoken by around a million people in the Democratic Republic of Congo.

Gloss the data and write down all the grammatical rules that are necessary in order to produce the following phrases.

1.	toa kpo	'one house'
2.	toa ke	'this house'
3.	toa ge	'that house'
4.	gã folo kpo	'one big elephant'
5.	folo ge tũ	'that black elephant'
6.	bisĩ gbogbo kpo	'one small lion'
7.	gbogbo ge fẽ	'that white lion'
8.	bisĩ gbogbo ke fẽ	'this small white lion'
9.	gã folo kpo tũ	'one big black elephant'

from Kroeger (2005: 48–49, citing Roberts 1999).

Unit 16. Sociolinguistics: Varieties & Norms

Language varieties

depending on

georgraphical region
age
gender

social status
education
profession
religion

interests
friends
family

formality of the situation
etc.

Variety

”the language spoken by a group of people who belong to a particular social or cultural group”

”a set of linguistic items with similar social distribution”

All languages have multiple varieties.

Differences in both pronunciation, vocabulary and grammar, i.e. different norms about language usage.

Variation

Can be observed in **linguistic items** or **variables**.

A specific **variable** may correspond to two or more **linguistic items**.

The variable could be the pronunciation of Swedish <sj>,

and the two most typical items would be [ʃ] and [ɧ].

Language vs. Dialect

Dialect: ”a geographical variety of a language, spoken in certain areas”
”one of several mutually intelligible geographical varieties”

layman definition: ”a ‘provincial’ variety that differs from the standard” - the standard is then regarded as non-dialectal

We all speak a dialect (= variety) of out mother tongue.

Langauge:

Abstand / **Distance Languages:** ”languages that are different enough to be mutually unintelligible”

Ausbau / **Development Languages:** ”languges that have developed a recognized standard variety”

Dialect continuum: a chain of dialects where the intelligibility decreases as the distance increases.
e.g. Scandinavian language varieties (i.e. dialects of Danish, Norwegian and Swedish)
e.g. Arabic language varieties (Classic, Modern Standard, Moroccan, Egyptian, Levantine…)
e.g. Turkic language varieties (i.e. Turkish, Azeri, Turkmen, Uzbek, Kasakh, Kirgiz, Uighur…)

The dialect continuum problem: varieties 1, 2, 3, 4 are all mutuall intelligible, as are varieties 2, 3, 4, 5.
Varieties 1 and 5 are not mutually intelligible, hence: Are the different languages?

Languages (especially development lang.) may emerge at several points of one dialect continuum.

Linguists usually let speakers decide/define themselves what language and/or dialect they speak.

Isogloss

a 'geographical' border between varieties with respect to one (or more) specific indivdual linguistic item(s)

Standard Language = Standard Variety

The standard is just another variety. No variety is inherently better than another. But knowing the standard is often crucial for functioning as a member of modern society.

However, due to historical factors (historical accidents), the standard variety

enjoys greater prestige than other varieties of a specific language.

A standard language is first of all a **written language**.

A standard language is an **idealization**, it is almost never the natural mother tongue variety of any group.

Usually, people are better at writing it than speaking it.

For some languages, some speakers grow up learning a mother tongue variety in their childhood, that is quite close to the standard, even if not identical.

For some languages, instead, the stadard is quite distant from all the naturally occuring varieties that people learn when growing up. The standard is then only learnt at school. This is so, to defferent degrees, for Arabic, Slovene, Czech…

Not all languages have a standard variety.

Standard varieties change over time, new standard varieties are sometimes born, and some disappear.

Low German used to enjoy the prestigeous position of a standard language, but it doesn't anymore.

A standard variety is typically used by people with

- greater **political power** (influence)
- greater **social influence** (power)
- greater **economic power** (wealth)
- higher/better **education**

It is used in

- administration
- education
- mass media
- literature
- (entertainment)

It is defined/described/taught in

- dictionaries
- grammar books
- textbooks

It has a stable form, above all in writing.

It is perceived as

- more correct and acceptable than other varieties

Regional Varieties & Pluricentric Languages

Standard languages often have ”more than one standard”, or slight variation within the standard, e.g.

the differences between stadard English in the USA, Canada, Britain, South Africa, Australia, New Zeeland etc.,

the differences between standard Swedish in Sweden and Finland.

also Arabic, German, Spanish, French, Russian, Somali etc. etc.

Such different standard varieties or close-to-standard varieties are often referred to as regional varieties (of the standard language), but of course, also non-standard geographical varieties can be referred to as regional varieties.

Languages with multiple/varying standards are often referred to as **pluricentric languages**.

Social varieties = Sociolects

Due to

social stratification of society and

solidarity within social networks and everyday contacts

Some types of social stratifications can be influenced by the individual, others cannot, e.g. rank vs. class.

If the individual's social position can be influenced, the social variety of language plays a more important role.

Slang & Jargon

Only about a part of the vocabulary.

Slang: informal vocabulary typical of a certain group of people

Jargon: professional vocabulary typical of a certain professional group

Contextual variation

Variation within an individual due to different contexts or situations.

One such difference might be the degree of formality or politeness.

Commonly, one and the same person uses slightly different varieties depending on the situation and mix of the different factors that influence the (unconscious) choice of language variety.

Mulitlingual societies

e.g. Djibouti, at the Gib lake on the Ethiopian border

Let's imagine an Amharic speaker belonging to the quite small Amharic minority in Djibouti

First Language	Amharic
Second languages	
Neighbours	Afar
Lingua Franca	Somali

e.g. talking to police, bus drivers, admin etc…
or when travelling to the capital

Official language(s)	French (to a much smaller extent also Arabic)

e.g. in school, mass media, newspapers, books, etc.

Accents

Accents are different from geographical and social dialects, because they only involve differences in pronunciation.

Gestures

Strictly speaking gestures are not part of language. They have more in common with traffic signs and other symbols that convey a message. The massage is not dependent on any specific language. The message can be spelled out in any language, and the exact wording may differ.

Problem 16.1
Serbo-Croatian

A few decades ago, Serbo-Croatian was considered one language with two slightly differing regional forms of a common standard language. The differences were probably not larger than between American, Australian, British, and South African English.

Today, Serbian, Croatian, Bosnian, and more recently also Montenegrinian, are usually considered different languages.

What arguments could you think of in support of each of these opposite standpoints?

Problem 16.2
Arabic

Is Arabic in Morocco and Arabic in Iraq one and the same language, or different languages?

List arguments in favour of both viewpoints.

Unit 17. Politeness & Taboos

Swedish “du”

politeness vs. rudeness: a word – or a smile ?

Unit 18. Summing up & Review

18.1 Bariba syntax

Bariba or Baatonum is a Niger-Congo language.
It is spoken by appr. 0.5 million people in Benin, Nigeria, Togo and Burkina Faso.

Gloss the following examples.

Prepare an alphabetical list of all the glossing labels that you use.

Prepare an alphabetical wordlist with English translations.

State as many facts as possible about Bariba syntax.

1. Sabii 'Sabii'
2. Sabiin kuro 'Sabii's wife'
3. duro 'man'
4. duro wi 'that man'
5. duro boko 'big man'
6. duro win kuro 'that man's wife'
7. duro bokon kuro 'the big man's wife'
8. duro geo wi 'that good man'
9. duro geo win kuro 'that good man's wife'
10. Sabiin kuro geo wi 'that good wife of Sabii's'
11. Sabiin wono geo 'Sabii's good younger brother'

Kroeger (2005: 99–100, citing Roberts 1999)

18.2 Agatu syntax

Agatu (or North Idoma) is a Niger-Congo language.
It is spoken by appr. 0.1 million pepople in Nigeria.

Gloss the following examples.

Prepare an alphabetical list of all the glossing labels that you use.

Prepare an alphabetical wordlist with English translations.

State as many facts as possible about Agatu syntax.

1. Oi wa. 'The child came.'
2. Ewo wa ole. 'The dog came to the compound.'
3. Ada wa. 'Father came.'
4. Oi ma ewo. 'The child saw the dog.'
5. Ada goi epa wa. 'The father of the two children came.'
6. Oi ma ewo gada. 'The child saw the father's dog.'
7. Oi ma ewo epa. 'The child saw two dogs.'
8. Ada ma ewo epa goi. 'Father saw the child's two dogs.'
9. Oi ma ole. 'The child saw the compound.'
10. Ada gole ma ehi goi. 'The head of the compound saw the child's pot.'
11. Ewo ma oi gada gole. 'The dog saw the head of the compound's child.'
12. Ewo epa gada gole wa. 'The head of the compounds two dogs came.'

Kroeger (2005: 98–99, citing Roberts 1999)

18.3 Ekpeye verb morphology

Ekpeye is a Niger-Congo language.
It is spoken by appr. 30,000 pepople in Nigeria.

Gloss the following examples.

Prepare an alphabetical list of all the glossing labels that you use.

Prepare an alphabetical morpheme list with translations/glossing.

State as many facts as possible about Ekpeye verb morphology.

1. edi 'he will eat'
2. edikpo 'he will finish eating'
3. edile 'he has eaten'
4. eme 'he will make'
5. emegba 'he will make again'
6. adikpole 'we have finished eating'
7. edikpohwo 'he will eventually finish eating'
8. adigbale 'we have eaten again'
9. emekpohwole 'he has eventually finished making'
10. amekpogbale 'we have finished making again'
11. amegbahwo 'we will eventually make again'

Kroeger (2005: 169, citing Roberts 1999)

Appendix 1. Linguistics overviews

Linguistic Network

http://www.linguisticsnetwork.com/tutorials/
http://www.linguisticsnetwork.com/an-introduction-to-phonology/
http://www.linguisticsnetwork.com/category/tutorials/tutorials-syntax/

Linguistics on YouTube

There are several quite good series of lectures on linguistics on YouTube. Here are some tips.

Elementary

TrevTutor
https://www.youtube.com/c/Trevtutor/playlists

CrashCourseLinguistics
https://www.youtube.com/playlist?list=PL8dPuuaLjXtP5mp25nStsuDzk2blncJDW

AzeLinguistics
https://www.youtube.com/c/AzeLinguistics/playlists

FingtamLanguages
https://www.youtube.com/c/FingtamLanguages/playlists

NativLang
https://www.youtube.com/user/NativLang/playlists

Intermediate

Love Linguage
https://www.youtube.com/channel/UCgPcnblzRYEouc_8ylTkWZQ/playlists

Evan Ashworth
https://www.youtube.com/channel/UC4NHPS-ApMmYuguXTCZGWPw/playlists

Randall Eggert
https://www.youtube.com/channel/UCUg-q09ENTiMSy2FC6mwDqQ/playlists

Advanced

The Virtual Linguistics Campus, Marburg
https://www.youtube.com/c/LinguisticsMarburg/playlists

Appendix 2. How to do Glossing

Source: https://www.eva.mpg.de/lingua/resources/glossing-rules.php

About the rules

The Leipzig Glossing Rules have been developed jointly by the Department of Linguistics of the Max Planck Institute for Evolutionary Anthropology (Bernard Comrie, Martin Haspelmath) and by the Department of Linguistics of the University of Leipzig (Balthasar Bickel). They consist of ten rules […] and an appendix with a proposed "lexicon" of abbreviated category labels. […]

The rules

(revised version of February 2008)

Preamble

Interlinear morpheme-by-morpheme glosses give information about the meanings and grammatical properties of individual words and parts of words. Linguists by and large conform to certain notational conventions in glossing, and the main purpose of this document is to make the most widely used conventions explicit.

Depending on the author's purposes and the readers' assumed background knowledge, different degrees of detail will be chosen. The current rules therefore allow some flexibility in various respects, and sometimes alternative options are mentioned.

The main purpose that is assumed here is the presentation of an example in a research paper or book. When an entire corpus is tagged, somewhat different considerations may apply (e.g. one may want to add information about larger units such as words or phrases; the rules here only allow for information about morphemes).

It should also be noted that there are often multiple ways of analyzing the morphological patterns of a language. The glossing conventions do not help linguists in deciding between them, but merely provide standard ways of abbreviating possible descriptions. Moreover, glossing is rarely a complete morphological description, and it should be kept in mind that its purpose is not to state an analysis, but to give some further possibly relevant information on the structure of a text or an example, beyond the idiomatic translation.

A remark on the treatment of glosses in data cited from other sources: Glosses are part of the analysis, not part of the data. When citing an example from a

published source, the gloss may be changed by the author if they prefer different terminology, a different style or a different analysis.

Rule 1: Word-by-word alignment

Interlinear glosses are left-aligned vertically, word by word, with the example. E.g.

(1) Indonesian (Sneddon 1996:237)

Mereka	***di***	***Jakarta***	***sekarang.***
They	in	Jakarta	now

'They are in Jakarta now.'

'

Rule 2: Morpheme-by-morpheme correspondence

Segmentable morphemes are separated by hyphens, both in the example and in the gloss. There must be exactly the same number of hyphens in the example and in the gloss. E.g.

(2) Lezgian (Haspelmath 1993:207)

Gila	***abur-u-n***	***ferma***	***hamišaluǧ***	***güǧüna***	***amuq'-da-č.***
now	they-OBL-GEN	farm	forever	behind	stay-FUT-NEG

'Now their farm will not stay behind forever.'

Since hyphens and vertical alignment make the text look unusual, authors may want to add another line at the beginning, containing the unmodified text, or resort to the option described in Rule 4 (and especially 4C).
Clitic boundaries are marked by an equals sign, both in the object language and in the gloss.

(3) West Greenlandic (Fortescue 1984:127)

palasi=lu	***niuirtur=lu***
priest=and	shopkeeper=and

'both the priest and the shopkeeper'

Rule 3: Grammatical category labels

Grammatical morphemes are generally rendered by abbreviated grammatical category labels, printed in upper case letters (usually small capitals). A list of standard abbreviations (which are widely known among linguists) is given at the end of this document.

Deviations from these standard abbreviations may of course be necessary in particular cases, e.g. if a category is highly frequent in a language, so that a shorter abbreviation is more convenient, e.g. CPL (instead of COMPL) for "completive", PF (instead of PRF) for "perfect", etc. If a category is very rare, it may be simplest not to abbreviate its label at all.

In many cases, either a category label or a word from the metalanguage is acceptable. Thus, both of

(5) Russian

My	***s***	***Marko***	***poexa-l-i***	***avtobus-om***	***v***	***Peredelkino.***
1PL	COM	Marko	go-PST-PL	bus-INS	All	Peredelkino.
we	with	Marko	go-PST-PL	bus-by	to	Peredelkino.

'Marko and I went to Perdelkino by bus.'

Rule 4: One-to-many correspondences

When a single object-language element is rendered by several metalanguage elements (words or abbreviations), these are separated by periods. E.g.

(6) Turkish

çık-mak
come.out-INF

'to come out'

(7) Latin

insul-
arum
island-GEN.PL

'of the islands'

(8) French

aux	***chevaux***
to.ART.PL	horse.PL

'to the horses'

(9) German

unser-n	***Väter-n***
our-DAT.PL	father.PL-DAT.PL

'to our fathers'

(10) Hittite (Lehmann 1982:211)

n=an	***apedani***	***mehuni***	***essandu.***
CONN=him	that.DAT.SG	time.DAT.SG	eat.they.shall

'They shall celebrate him on that date.' (CONN = connective)

(11) Jaminjung (Schultze-Berndt 2000:92)

nanggayan	***guny-bi-yarluga?***
who	2DU.A.3SG.P-FUT-poke

'Who do you two want to spear?'

Rule 5: Person and number labels

Person and number are not separated by a period when they occur in this order. E.g.

(20) Italian

and-iamo
go-PRS.1PL (not: go-PRS.1.PL)
'we go'

Rule 6: Non-overt elements

If the morpheme-by-morpheme gloss contains an element that does not correspond to an overt element in the example, it can be enclosed in square brackets. An obvious alternative is to include an overt "Ø" in the objectlanguage text, which is separated by a hyphen like an overt element.

(22) Latin

puer	***or:***	***puer-Ø***
boy[NOM.SG]		boy-NOM.SG
'boy'		'boy'

Rule 7: Inherent categories

Inherent, non-overt categories such as gender may be indicated in the gloss, but a special boundary symbol, the round parenthesis, is used. E.g.

(23) Hunzib (van den Berg 1995:46)

oz#-di-g	***xõxe***	***m-uq'e-r***
boy-OBL-AD	tree(G4)	G4-bend-PRET

'Because of the boy the tree bent.' (G4 = 4th gender, AD = adessive, PRET = preterite)

Rule 8: Bipartite elements

Grammatical or lexical elements that consist of two parts which are treated as distinct morphological entities (e.g. bipartite stems such as Lakhota na-xʔų 'hear') may be treated in two different ways:

(i) The gloss may simply be repeated:

(24) Lakhota

na-wíčha-wa-xʔų
hear-3PL.UND-1SG.ACT-hear
'I hear them' (UND = undergoer, ACT = actor)

(i) The gloss may simply be repeated:

(25) Lakhota

na-wíčha-wa-xʔų
hear-3PL.UND-1SG.ACT- STEM
'I hear them'

Circumfixes are "bipartite affixes" and can be treated in the same way, e.g.

(26) German

ge-seh-en	***or:***	***ge-seh-en***
PTCP-see-PTCP		PTCP-see-CIRC
'seen'		'seen'

Rule 9: Infixes

Infixes are enclosed by angle brackets, and so is the object-language counterpart in the gloss.

(27) Tagalog

b<um>ili (stem: bili)
<ACTFOC>buy
'buy'

(28) Latin

reli<n>qu-ere (stem: reliqu-)
leave<PRS>-INF
'to leave'

Infixes are generally easily identifiable as left-peripheral (as in 27) or as rightperipheral (as in 28), and this determines the position of the gloss corresponding to the infix with respect to the gloss of the stem. If the infix is not clearly peripheral, some other basis for linearizing the gloss has to be found.

Rule 10: Reduplication

Reduplication is treated similarly to affixation, but with a tilde (instead of an ordinary hyphen) connecting the copied element to the stem.

(29) Hebrew

yerak~rak-im
green~ATT-M.PL
'greenish ones' (ATT= attenuative)

(30) Tagalog

bi~bili
IPFV~buy
'is buying'

(31) Tagalog

b<um>i~bili
<ACTFOC>IPFV~buy
'is buying' (ACTFOC = Actor focus)

List of Standard Glossing Abbreviations

1 first person
2 second person
3 third person
A agent-like argument of canonical transitive verb
ABL ablative
ABS absolutive
ACC accusative
ADJ adjective
ADV adverb(ial)
AGR agreement
ALL allative
ANTIP antipassive
APPL applicative
ART article
AUX auxiliary
BEN benefactive
CAUS causative
CLF classifier
COM comitative
COMP complementizer
COMPL completive
COND conditional
COP copula
CVB converb
DAT dative
DECL declarative
DEF definite
DEM demonstrative
DET determiner
DIST distal
DISTR distributive
DU dual
DUR durative
ERG ergative
EXCL exclusive
F feminine
FOC focus
FUT future
GEN genitive
IMP imperative
INCL inclusive
IND indicative
INDF indefinite
INF infinitive
INS instrumental
INTR intransitive
IPFV imperfective

IRR irrealis
LOC locative
M masculine
N neuter
N- non- (e.g. NSG nonsingular, NPST nonpast)
NEG negation, negative
NMLZ nominalizer/nominalization
NOM nominative
OBJ object
OBL oblique
P patient-like argument of canonical transitive verb
PASS passive
PFV perfective
PL plural
POSS possessive
PRED predicative
PRF perfect
PRS present
PROG progressive
PROH prohibitive
PROX proximal/proximate
PST past
PTCP participle
PURP purposive
Q question particle/marker
QUOT quotative
RECP reciprocal
REFL reflexive
REL relative
RES resultative
S single argument of canonical intransitive verb
SBJ subject
SBJV subjunctive
SG singular
TOP topic
TR transitive
VOC vocative

Appendix 3. How to prepare a list of References

Give only the author's last name and year of publication in the text that you are writing. Make a list of the full titles of all publications that you have referred to. Use this format:

Books:
Author's last name, first name. Year. *Title of book*. City: Publisher.

Keenadiid, Yaasiin C. 1976. *Qaamuuska af-Soomaaliga.* Muqdisho: Akademiyaha Dhaqanka.
Lamberti, Marcello. 1986. *Die Somali-Dialekte: Eine vergleichende Untersuchung*. Hamburg: Helmut Buske.
Reinisch, Leo. 1903. *Die Somali Sprache, Vol. III: Grammatik.* Wien: Alfred Hölder.
Saeed, John I. 1993. *Somali reference grammar.* Kensington: Dunwoody Press.

Articles or chapters in books:
Author's last name, first name. Year. Title of article. In Editor's name (ed.), *Title of book*, from page–to page. City: Publisher.

Gebert, Lucyna. 1981. La coordinazione. In Annarita Puglielli (ed.), *Sintassi della lingua somala*, 139–215. Roma: Ministero degli Affari Esteri.
Frascarelli, Mara & Annarita Puglielli. 2005. The focus system in Cushitic languages: A comparative-typological analysis. In Pelio Fronzaroli & Paolo Marrassini (eds.), *Proceedings of the 10th meeting of Hamito-Semitic (Afroasiatic) linguistics*, 333–358. Firenze: Università di Firenze.

Articles in journals:
Author's last name, first name. Year. Title of article. *Title of journal* Issue, from page–to page.

Andrzejewski, Bogumil W. 1969. Some observations on hybrid verbs in Somali. *African Language Studies* 10, 47–89.
Hyman, Larry M. 1981. Tonal accent in Somali. *Studies in African Linguistics* 12(2), 169–203.

Web pages and pdf documents:
Author's last name, first name or institution. Year. Title of page/text. Link (Date accessed)

Kotimaisten kielten keskus. 2017. Suomi-somali-sanakirja. http://kaino.kotus.fi/somali/ (2022.08.31)
Nilsson, Morgan. 2022. Beginner's Somali grammar. http://morgannilsson.se/BeginnersSomaliGrammar.pdf (2022.08.31)
WALS. 2022. Language Hausa. https://wals.info/languoid/lect/wals_code_hau (2022.08.31)
Wikipedia. 2022. Hausa language. https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Hausa_language (2022.08.31)

For more details, see the Linguistic Society of America's Unified Stylesheet for the List of

References.

Appendix 4. Dictionaries for African languages

Electronic dictionaries

LLACAN

https://corporan.huma-num.fr/Lexiques/dicoLLACAN.php

Bambara-Francais
Beja-Francais-English
Bena-English
Dan -Francais-English
Eton-Francais
Gbaya-Francais
Goo-Francais
Keeraak-Francais
Peul-Francais
Wolof-Francais
Yoruba-Francais
Zaa-Hausa-English

Forthcoming:
Kali'na-Francais
Teko-Francais
Nengee-Francais-English
Kreyol-Francais

Pdf dictionaries

Saho
http://www.sahoarchive.org/dictionaries-wordlists/

Appendix 5. Suggested Solutions

6.1

1. [mɑskɑwrəʃə] Moscow, Russia
2. [ləndənɪŋlənd] London, England
3. [hɛlsɪŋkifɪnlənd] Helsinki, Finland
4. [viɛnəɔstriə] Vienna, Austria
5. [romɪtəli] Rome, Italy
6. [kopənhɑgəndɛnmɑrk] Copenhagen, Denmark
7. [ɑzlonorwe] Oslo, Norway
8. [dəblɪnɑjrlənd] Dublin, Ireland
9. [brəsəlzbɛlʤəm] Brussels, Belgium
10. [bɑrsəlonəspen] Barcelona, Spain
11. [æθənzgris] or [æþənzgris] Athens, Greece
12. [krɑkɑwpoləɴd] Cracow, Poland
13. [bərlɪnʤərməni] Berlin, Germany
14. [stɑkhomswidən] Stockholm, Sweden
15. [budəpɛsthəŋgəri] Budapest, Hungary
16. [prɑgʧɛkripəblɪk] Prague, Czech Republic
17. [ʤənivəswɪtsərlənd] Geneva, Switzerland
18. [æmstərdæmhɑlənd] Amsterdam, Holland
19. [lɪzbənpoɾʧʊgəl] Lisbon, Portugal
20. [rigɑlætviə] Riga, Latvia

6.2

1. Flower or flour
2. Fill or Phil
3. Tease or teas
4. Read or red
5. Wright or right
6. Seen or scene
7. Gym or Jim
8. For or four
9. Bow or bough
10. No or know
11. Road or rode
12. Whole or hole
13. Sent or scent
14. Pain or pane
15. Brake or break
16. Prince or preens
17. Seed or cede
18. Tract or tracked
19. Taught or taut
20. Great or grate

6.3

1. **see**: a voiceless alveolar fricative + a high front vowel
2. **gate**: a voiced velar stop + a mid front vowel + a voiceless alveolar stop
3. **take**: a voiceless alveolar stop + a mid front vowel + a voiceless velar stop
4. **car**: a voiceless velar stop + a low back vowel + a retroflex approximant
5. **then**: a voiced dental fricative + a mid front vowel + an alveolar nasal
6. **know**: an alveolar nasal + a low back vowel + a labial glide
7. **tree**: a voiceless alveolar stop + a retroflex approximant + a high front vowel
8. **move**: a labial nasal + a high back vowel + a voiced labial fricative
9. **feed**: a voiceless labial fricative + a high front vowel + a voiced alveolar stop
10. **lake**: a lateral approximant + a mid front vowel + a voiceless velar stop
11. **wool**: a labial glide + a high back vowel + a lateral approximant
12. **need**: an alveolar nasal + a high front vowel + a voiced alveolar stop
13. **top**: a voiceless alveolar stop + a low back vowel + a voiceless labial stop
14. **thin**: a voiceless dental fricative + a high front vowel + an alveolar nasal
15. **hat**: a glottal fricative + a low front vowel + a voiceless alveolar stop
16. **note**: an alveolar nasal + a mid back vowel + a voiceless alveolar stop
17. **run**: a retroflex approximant + a mid central vowel + an alveolar nasal
18. **play**: a voiceless labial stop + a lateral approximant + a mid front vowel
19. **new**: an alveolar nasal + a high back vowel
20. **old**: a mid back vowel + a lateral approximant + a voiced alveolar stop
21. **red**: a retroflex approximant + a mid front vowel + a voiced alveolar stop
22. **key**: a voiceless velar stop + a high front vowel
23. **big**: a voiced labial stop + a high front vowel + a voiced velar stop
24. **soon**: a voiceless alveolar fricative + a high back vowel + an alveolar nasal
25. **now**: an alveolar nasal + a mid back vowel
26. **road**: a retroflex approximant + a mid back vowel + a voice alveolar stop

7.1 Somali stress

Somali stress is pronounced as a higher tone or pitch on one of the two last vowel positions (moras) of the noun. A long vowel counts as two positions.

Feminine nouns have stress on the last vowel position, e.g.

ardayád	‘female student’
askariyád	‘female soldier’
bisád	‘she-cat’
boqorád	‘queen’
gabár	‘girl’
inán	‘girl’
islaán	‘old woman’

macallimád	'female teacher'
walaál	'sister'

Masculine nouns have stress on the second to last vowel position, e.g.

árday	'male student'
askári	'male soldier'
bóqor	'king'
díbi	'ox'
ínan	'boy'
macállin	'male teacher'
wíil	'boy'

From this follows that *mindí* 'knife' is a feminine noun, and that *gúri* 'house' is a masculine noun.

7.2 Progressive forms in Yoruba

The progressive is expressed by a prefix consisting of a nasal consonant that is homorganic (i.e. pronounced with the same organs) with the initial consonant of the verb stem. The nasala consonant in the prefix is always pronounced with a high tone.

7.3 Singular and plural forms of Swahili nouns

The singular is expressed by a prefix consisting the vowel [u] before a noun stem beginning with a consonant, and [w] before a vowel.

The plural is expressed by a prefix consisting of a homorganic nasal consonant before a noun stem beginning with a consonant, and [ɲ] before a vowel.

8.1 Word order in Lotuko

1.

idulak atulo ema
plant man grain
'The man is planting grain.'

idulak atulo aful

plant man peanuts
'The man is planting peanuts.'

ohonya eito erizo
eat child meat
'The child is eating meat.'

amata eito aari
drink child water
'The child is drinking water.'

ohonya odwoti aful
eat girl peanuts
'The girl is eating peanuts.'

abak atulo ezok
hit man dog
'The man hit the dog.'

amata odwoti aari
drink girl water
'The girl is drinking water.'

ohonya ezok erizo
eat dog meat
'The dog is eating meat.'

2.
VSO, i.e. verb subject object

3.
abak odwoti eito
hit girl child
'The girl hit the child.'

8.2 Sidama verb morphemes

3SF = 3rd person singular feminine
3SM = 3rd person singular masculine
PRS = present tense
PST = past tense

ag-anno
drink-PRS.3SM
'he drinks'

ag-i

drink-PST.3SM
'he drank'

mur-i
cut-PST.3SM
'he cut'

mur-tanno
cut-PRS.3SF
'she cuts'

mur-tu
cut-PST.3SF
'she cut'

giir-anno
burn-PRS.3SM
'he burns'

laʔ-i
see-PST.3SM
'he saw'

laʔ-anno
see-PRS.3SM
'he sees'

um-anno
dig-PRS.3SM
'he digs'

un-tu
dig-PST.3SF
'she dug'

um-i
dig-PST.3SM
'he dug'

un-tanno
dig-PRS.3SF
'she digs'

fan-tu
open-PST.3SF
'she opened'

fan-i
open-PST.3SM
'he opened'

rum-i
curse-PST.3SM
'he cursed'

run-tu
curse-PST.3SF
'she cursed'

run-tanno
curse-PRS.3SF
'she curses'

rum-anno
curse-PRS.3SM
'he curses'

it-anno
eat-PRS.3SM
'he eats'

it-tu
eat-PST.3SF
'she ate'

3. Do any of the morphemes exhibit allomorphs (different variants)?

rum–/run– 'curse'
um–/un– 'dig'

4.

giir-tu
burn-PST.3SF
'she burned'

it-i
eat-PST.3SM
'he ate'

ag-tanno
drink-PRS.3SF
'she drinks'

fan-anno

open-PRS.3SM
'he opens'

8.3 Swahili noun morphemes

1.
Divide the following Swahili words into the relevant morphs with hyphens.

2.
Work out the meaning and use of each one of the inflectional morphemes and gloss all the exampel words according to the Leipzig glossin rules in Appendix 2.

m-sichana
SG-girl
'girl'

wa-sichana
PL-girl
'girls'

m-vulana
SG-boy
'boy'

wa-vulana
PL-boy
'boys'

m-toto
SG-child
'child'

wa-toto
PL-child
'children'

m-tu
SG-man
'man'

wa-tu
PL-man
'men'

m-ti

SG-tree
'tree'

mi-ti
PL-tree
'trees'

m-gomba
SG-banana.tree
'banana tree'

mi-gomba
PL-banana.tree
'banana trees'

m-guu
SG-foot
'foot'

mi-guu
PL-foot
'feet'

ki-tu
SG-thing
'thing'

vi-tu
PL-thing
'things'

ki-ti
SG-chair
'chair

vi-ti
PL-chair
'chairs'

ki-tanda
'bed'

vi-tanda
'beds'

If the singular is expressed by the prefix *m–*, then the plural is expressed by the prefix *wa–* if the word denotes a person, but with the prefix *mi–* if the word denotes an object.

If the singular is expressed by *ki–*, then the plural is expressed by *vi–*.

3.
m-toto m-zuri
SG-child SG-good
'a good child'

wa-toto wa-zuri
PL-child PL-good
'good children'

ki-tu ki-zuri
SG-thing SG-good
'a good thing'

vi-tu vi-zuri
PL-thing PL-good
'good things'

8.4 Amharic verb morphemes

1. + 2.

ɨ-səbɨr
PRS.1SG-break.PRS
'I break'

tɨ-səbɨr
PRS.2SG-break.PRS
'you (m.) break'

tɨ-səbɨr-i
PRS.2SG-break.PRS-F
'you (f.) break'

səbbər-ku
break.PST-PST.1SG
'I broke'

səbbər-k
break.PST-PST.2SM
'you (m.) broke'

səbbər-ʃ
break.PST-PST.2SF
'you (f.) broke'

3.
There are two different verb stems, səbɨr in the present tense, and səbbər in the past tense.

There are also different prefixes and suffixes in the present and past.

4.
dəkkəm-ku
tire.PST-PST.1SG
'I tired'

dəkkəm-k
tire.PST-PST.2SM
'you (m.) tired'

dəkkəm-ʃ
tire.PST-PST.2SF
'you (f.) tired'

ɨ-dəkɨm
PRS.1SG-tire.PRS
'I tire'

tɨ-dəkɨm
PRS.2SG-tire.PRS
'you (m.) tire'

tɨ-dəkɨm-ɨ
PRS.2SG-tire.PRS-F
'you (f.) tire'

9.1 Lyélé

How would you define the form of the definite article in Lyélé?

The defininite form of nouns is marked by **vowel length** and **high tone**.

The final vowel of a noun is lengthened and the final part of that long vowel is always high,

kúmí 'bird'
kúmíí 'the bird'
yálá 'millet'

yáláá 'the millet'
cèlé 'parrot'
cèléé 'the parrot'
kùlí 'dog'
kùlíí 'the dog'

even if the first part of the same vowel is mid or low.

nà 'foot'
nàá 'the foot'
yijì 'church'
yijìí 'the church'
ya 'market'
yaá 'the market'

9.2 Kikuyu

1. How many noun classes do we need to establish in order to account for all the nouns in the list?

2. What are the prefixes for the singular and the plural in each of the classes?

Singular *mu-* / Plural *a-*

teacher	murutani	arutani
elderly person	muduuri	aduuri
girl	muiretu	airetu
woman	mutumia	atumia
parent	muʃiari	aʃiari
buyer	muguri	aguri
traveler	mugendi	agendi
politician	muteti	ateti

Singular *mu-* / Plural *mi-*

root	muri	miri
tree	muti	miti
lion	muroodi	miroodi
gun	muʃiiŋga	miʃiiŋga
inattress	muuto	miuto
bottle	muʃuuba	miʃuuba

Singular *gi-* / Plural *i-*

comb	giʃanundi	iʃanundi
cup	gikombe	ikombe
yam	gikoa	ikoa

tray	gitaruru	itaruru
muscle	giʃoka	iʃoka

Singular *ge-* / Plural *e-*

chair	geti	eti

Singular *ki-* / Plural *i-*

crocodile	kiŋaŋi	iŋaŋi
sugar cane	kigoa	igoa
worm	kiŋguɲu	iŋguɲu
folk song	kibata	ibata
flood	kiŋguo	iŋguo
steering wheel	kibara	ibara
hiding place	kimamo	imamo

Singular and plural are identical = no prefixes (or zero prefix in both sg. and pl.)

spider	mbombue	mbombue
donkey	bunda	bunda
cow	ŋombe	ŋombe
pig	ŋgurue	ŋgurue
stomach	nda	nda
house	ɲumba	ɲumba
mole	huko	huko

Singular *i-* / Plural *ma-*

wave	ikombi	makombi
foot	ikina	makina
tooth	igago	magago
banana	irigu	marigu
cloud	itu	matu
stone	ihiga	mahiga

These three singular prefixes and their plural counterparts look too similar to be just a coincidence:

Singular *gi-* / Plural *i-*
Singular *ge-* / Plural *e-*
Singular *ki-* / Plural *i-*

Maybe they constitute one class with different allomorphs. The difference in the singular prefixes is mainly in the voiced /g/ and voiceless /k/. The pattern seems to be that voiced *gi-* is used if the stem starts with a voiceless consonant, and voiceless *ki-* is used if the stem starts with a voiced consonant. The prefix is then made different from to the stem, or less similar to it. That kind of process is called **dissimilation**. Also the variation between *gi-* and *ge-* might be an instance of dissimilation, since *ge-* occurs before the only stem where the first (and

only) vowel of the stem is /i/. Hence the /i/ in the prefix dissimilates into the articulatorily closest 'neighbour' vowel /e/. One would then also suspect that there is a prefix *ke-* which is used before a stem that starts with a voiced consonant followed by /i/.

9.3 Hausa

1. What is the basic form of the possessive suffixes?

2. What morphophonological rules are applied when these suffixes are added to nouns?

Given the data in the exercise, the simplest explanation seems to be that the possessive suffixes begin with a long consonant: *-kːa, -kːi, -sːa, -tːa, -mːu, -kːu, -sːu* after a stem that ends with a vowel.

ʔyakka	'your (m.sg.) sister'
ʔyakki	'your (f.sg.) sister'
ʔyassa	'his sister'
ʔyatta	'her sister'
ʔyammu	'our sister'
ʔyakku	'your (pl.) sister'
ʔyassu	'their sister'

If the stem ends with a consonant, however, the initial consonant of the suffix is shortened.

Additionally the stem final consonant /n/ is assimilated to the /m/ of the suffix:
gidan-mːu > gidan-mu > gidam-mu > gidamːu

gidanka	'your (m.sg.) house'
gidanki	'your (f.sg.) house'
gidansa	'his house'
gidanta	'her house'
gidammu	'our house'
gidanku	'your (pl.) house'
gidansu	'their house'

9.4 Kasem

How would you describe the plural formation in Kasem?

First, sort all the examples based on the four different plural endings. Then find the word there nothing changes in the stem. Those probably represent the simples cases.

Then proced to analyze the different types of changes in the stem and try to find explanations.

The most frequent (and maybe then basic) plural endings seem to be the allomorphs *-i/-ɪ*.

There seems to be two series of vowels: **ə, u, i** and **a, ʊ, ɪ**, and the form of the suffix seems to be fonologically conditioned by the vowels in the stem, and and hamonize with them.

-i if stem contains /ə, u, i/ suffix *-ɪ* if stem contains /a, ʊ, ɪ/.

fələ - fəli	**fana - fanɪ**
kuə - kui	**tʊa - tʊɪ**
tulə - tuli	**bʊda - bʊdɪ**
lidə - lidi	**kada - kadɪ**
luə - lui	**nʊa - nʊɪ**
	kala - kalɪ

Next, there seems to be a general loss of a stem final /g, ŋ/.

bugə - bui	**lʊŋa - lʊɪ**
nugə - nui	**zʊŋa - zʊɪ**

The suffix merges with the stem vowel if they are identical and adjacent.

miə, pl. mi-i > **mi**	**kwɪa**, pl. kwɪ-ɪ > **kwɪ**
digə, pl. di-i > **di**	**ʧɪga**, pl. ʧɪ-ɪ > **ʧɪ**
	jɪŋa, pl. jɪ-ɪ > **jɪ**

If the high vowel of the suffix follows immediately after a low vowel in the stem, they merge into a mid vowel.

/ə/+/i/ gives /e/	/a/+/ɪ/ > /ɛ/
ləŋə, pl. lə-i > **le**	**daa**, pl. da-ɪ > **dɛ**
ʒəgə, pl. ʒə-i > **ʒe**	**yaga**, pl. ya-ɪ > **yɛ**
bəŋə, pl. bə-i > **be**	**naga**, pl. na-ɪ > **nɛ**
	taŋa, pl. ta-ɪ > **tɛ**

Finally, if the high front vowel of the suffix follows immediately after a mid back vowel in the stem, they both change: the front vowle becomes mid and the back vowel becomes high, i.e. they shift values for height.

ʧoŋə, pl. ʧo-i > **ʧue**	**kɔga**, pl. kɔ-ɪ > **kʊɛ**
poŋə, pl. po-i > **pue**	

The two full sets of vowels seem to be /i, e, ə, o, u/ versus /ɪ, ɛ, a, ɔ, ʊ/.

10.1 Egyptian Arabic

1. What grammatical rules can you give for Egyptian Arabic?

There seem to be long consonants written as double letters.

The definite article is /il/, but it assimilates to certain consonants, e.g. /as sari:r/

The demonstrative determiner comes after the noun, which at the same time takes the definite article.

There seems to be gender, at least in the singular, since the demonstratives have the forms:

masc. sing. *il walad* ***da*** 'this boy'
fem. sing. *il binti* ***di*** 'this girl',
plural *il ʔawla:d* ***do:l*** 'these children'

Also the adjective follows after the noun it describes, and it also takes the definite article if the noun is definite.

Adjectives have different forms, one with and one without -a, probably differing in gender. It seems probably that the form marked with -a is feminine, paritally because -a is a feminine marker in many languages, but mainly because masculine is more often the unmarked form if only one gender has a suffix.

Also verbs show three gender/number forms:

masc. sing.	*yigi* '(he) comes'	*yiḥibb* '(he) loves'
fem. sing.	*tigi* '(she) comes'	*tiḥibb* '(she) loves'
plural	*yigu* '(they) come'	

There is no Arabic verb corresponding to the present tense copula verb 'is, are'.

2. Gloss these examples according to the Leipzig glossing rules

(1) *il walad da yigi il madrasa*
DEF boy this.M.SG comes.M.SG DEF school
'this boy comes to the school'

(2) *il binti di tigi il madrasa*
DEF girl this.F.SG comes.F.SG DEF school
'this girl comes to the school'

(3) *il ʔawla:d do:l yigu il madrasa*
DEF child.PL this.PL comes.PL DEF school
'these children come to the school'

(4) *faaṭima tiḥibb il walad da*
Fatima loves.F.SG DEF boy this.M.SG
'Fatima loves this boy'

(5) *ḥasan yiḥibb il binti di*
Hassan loves.M.SG DEF girl this.F.SG
'Hassan loves this girl'

(6) *is siri:r ig gidi:d*
DEF bed DEF new.M.SG
'the new bed'

(7) *is siri:r gidi:d*
DEF bed new.M.SG
'the bed is new'

(8) *il ʕarabiy:a ig gidi:d-a*
DEF car DEF new-F.SG
'the new car'

(9) *il ʕarabiy:a gidi:d-a*
DEF car new-F.SG
'the car is new'

(10) *di ʕarabiy:a*
this.F.SG car
'this is a car'

(11) *il ʕarabiy:a di*
DEF car this.F.SG
'this car'

(12) *da siri:r*
this.M.SG bed
'this is a bed'

(13) *is siri:r da*
DEF bed this.M.SG
'this bed'

10.2 Swahili

1. What grammatical rules can you give for Swahili based on these sentences?

The adjective follows after the noun it is describing.

The copula doesn't seem to inflect in different forms.

The word for 'useful' differs grammatically from the word 'small'. It is not preceded by the copula ni. A possible reason might be that *-nafaa* is a verb, not an adjective.

2. Gloss these examples according to the Leipzig glossing rules

CL = class agreement prefix

(1) *ki-su ni ki-dogo*
CL.SG-knife COP CL.SG-small
'the knife is small'

(2) *ki-su ki-dogo ki-nafaa*
CL.SG-knife CL.SG-small CL.SG-is.useful
'the small knife is useful'

(3) *m-ti ni m-dogo*
CL.SG-tree COP CL.SG-small
'the tree is small'

(4) *m-ti m-dogo u-nafaa*
CL.SG-tree CL.SG-small CL.SG-is.useful
'the small tree is useful'

(5) *wa-tu ni wa-dogo*
CL.PL-man COP CL.PL-small
'the men are small'

(6) *wa-tu wa-dogo wa-nafaa*
CL.PL-man CL.PL-small CL.PL-is.useful
'the small men are useful'

10.3 Somali

1. What grammatical rules can you give for Somali based on the following examples?

All sentences with an intransitive verb contain the particle *waa*, whereas all sentences with a transitive verb contain the particle *waxa*.

All sentences contain a subject pronoun, also when there is a subject noun.

Verbs are inflected for gender. There is an extra /s/ in feminine verb forms.

Verbs also seem to have special inflection (short final /a/) when occuring in a relative clause, as opposed to a main clause (with long /a:/).

2. Gloss these examples according to the Leipzig glossing rules

(1) *waa ay orday-saa*
PRT she run-F
'she is running'

(2) *waa uu orday-aa*
PRT he run-M
'he is running'

(3) *Sahro waa ay orday-saa*
Sahra PRT she run-F
'Sarah is running'

(4) *Xasan waa uu orday-aa*
Hassan PRT he run-M
'Hassan is running'

(5) *waxa ay cunay-saa moos*
PRT she eat-F banana
'she is eating a banana'

(6) *waxa uu cunay-aa moos*
PRT he eat-M banana
'he is eating a banana'

(7) *Sahro waxa ay cunay-saa moos*
Sahra PRT she eat-F banana
'Sarah is eating a banana'

(8) *Xasan waxa uu cunay-aa moos*
Hassan PRT he eat-M banana
'Hassan is eating a banana'

(9) *Sahro waxa ay fiirinay-saa wiilka*
Sahra PRT she watch-F the.boy
'Sarah is watching the boy'

(10) *Xasan waxa uu fiirinay-aa gabarta*
Hassan PRT he watch-M the.girl
'Hassan is watching the girl'

(11) *Sahro waxa ay fiirinay-saa wiilka orday-a*
Sahra PRT she watch-F the.boy run-M.REL
'Sarah is watching the boy that is running'

(12) *Xasan waxa uu fiirinay-aa gabarta orday-sa*
Hassan PRT he watch-M the.girl run-F.REL
'Hassan is watching the girl that is running'

(13) *Sahro waxa ay fiirinay-saa wiilka cunay-a moos*
Sahra PRT she watch-F the.boy eat-M.REL banana
'Sarah is watching the boy that is eating a banana'

(14) *Xasan waxa uu fiirinay-aa gabarta cunay-sa moos*
Hassan PRT he watch-M the.girl eat-F.REL banana
'Hassan is watching the girl that is eating a banana'

The relative word oo is not used in the preceding two sentences, but it occurs in the following two. The difference seems to be between the necessary relative clauses in (13) and (14). Without them it would be difficult to **identify** the boy and the girl. In (15) and (16) we already know who Sahra and Hassan are, so the relative clauses are not necessary, they only provide additional information that **describes** the two persons.

(15) *Sahro waxa ay fiirinay-saa Xasan oo cunay-a moos*
Sahra PRT she watch-F Hassan REL eat-M.REL banana
'Sarah is watching Hassan, who is eating a banana'

(16) *Xasan waxa uu fiirinay-aa Sahro oo cunay-sa moos*
Hassan PRT he watch-M Sahra REL eat-F.REL banana
'Hassan is watching Sarah, who is eating a banana'

14.1 - Sentence types in Ewe

There is no indefinite article. There is a defininte article: lá.

Noun phrases have the word order: noun + adjective + def. article

No trace of gender distinctions in nouns.

Adjectives are used as predicates without a copular verb, alternatively the "quality words" are verbs in Ewe, not adjectives. These clauses have the sturcture [NOUN + DEF]$_{SUBJ}$ [ADJ]$_{PRED}$ Hence, word order seems to be S + Predicate (SV).

The negative construction involves two morphemes, the prefix *mé-*, added to the adjective, and the word *o*, following after the adjective. It might be that the negation itself consists of two morphemes, like in French (*ne…pas*). It might also be the case that one of the morphemes is the copula, and the other is the negation, and that the copula is not used in positive clauses, only in negative ones, like in Somali.

The question suffix *-a* goes after the adjective + negation. It is attached to the last of the two.

For some unknown reason, the adjective 'tall' has a longer and a shorter variant form or allomorphs, *kɔ́* vs. *kɔ́kɔ́*.

atí kɔ́kɔ́
tree tall
'a tall tree'

mɔ́ didi
way long
'a long way'

agble lolo
farm big
'a big farm'

atí kɔ́kɔ́ lá
tree tall DEF
‘the tall tree’

mɔ́ didi lá
way long DEF
‘the long way’

agble lolo lá
farm big DEF
‘the big farm’

Atí lá kɔ́ .
Tree DEF tall
‘The tree is tall.’

Mɔ́ lá didi
Way DEF long
‘The way is long.’

Agble lá lolo.
Farm DEF big
‘The farm is big.’

Atí lá kɔ́-a?
Tree DEF tall-Q
‘Is the tree tall?’

Mɔ́ lá didi-a?
Way DEF long-Q
‘Is the way long?’

Agble lá lolo-a?
Farm DEF big-Q
‘Is the farm big?’

Atí lá mékɔ́ o.
Tree DEF NEG-tall NEG
‘The tree isn’t tall.’

Mɔ́ lá médidi o.
Way DEF NEG-long NEG
‘The way isn’t long.’

Agble lá mélolo o.
Farm DEF NEG-big NEG
‘The farm isn’t big.’

Atí lá mékɔ́ o-a?

Tree DEF NEG-tall NEG-Q
‘Isn’t the tree tall.’

Mɔ́ lá médidi o-a?
Way DEF NEG-long NEG-Q
‘Isn’t the way long.’

Agble lá mélolo o-a?
Farm DEF NEG-big NEG-Q
‘Isn’t the farm big.’

14.2 - Sentence types in Gede’o

3SF = 3rd person singular, feminine
3SM = 3rd person singular, masculine
AFF = affirmative (form/clause)
COP = copula (copular verb)
FUT = future (tense)
NEG = negation, negative (form, clause)
PRS = present (tense)
PST = past (tense)
Q = question (marker/particle)

Isi dag-ee-n.
3SM come-PST-AFF
'He came.'

Isi dag-ee-Ø?
3SM come-PST-Q
'Did he come?'

Isi dag-ee-baa-n.
3SM come-PST-NEG-AFF
'He did not come.'

Isi dag-ee-baa-Ø?
3SM come-PST-NEG-Q
'Didn't he come?'

Isi soodo dag-a-n.
3SM tomorrow come-FUT-AFF
'He will come tomorrow.'

Isi soodo dag-a-Ø?
3SM tomorrow come-FUT-Q
'Will he come tomorrow?'

Ise muuze itt-ee-n.

3SF banana eat-PST-AFF
'She ate banana.'

Ise muuze itt-ee-Ø?
3SF banana eat-PST-Q
'Did she eat banana?'

Ise muuze itt-ee-baa-n.
3SF banana eat-PST-NEG-AFF
'She didn't eat banana.'

Ise muuze ittee-baa-Ø?
3SF banana eat-PST-NEG-Q
'Didn't she eat banana?'

Looni wiisallo-te-n.
Looni farmer-COP.PRS.3SF-AFF
'Looni is a farmer.'

Ise wiisallo-te-Ø?
3SF farmer-COP.PRS.3SF-Q
'Is she a farmer?'

Doori wiisallo-ke-n.
Doori farmer-COP.PRS.3SM-AFF
'Doori is a farmer.'

Isi wiisallo-ke-Ø?
3SM farmer-COP.PRS.3SM-Q
'Is he a farmer?'

Ise baratto-te-n.
3SF student-COP.PRS.3SF-AFF
'She is a student.'

Ise baratto-te-baa-n.
3SF student-COP.PRS.3SF-NEG-AFF
'She is not a student.'

Ise baratto-te-Ø?
3SF student-COP.PRS.3SF-Q
'Is she a student?'

Ise baratto-te-baa-Ø?
3SF student-COP.PRS.3SF-NEG-Q
'Isn't she a student?'

Isi baraʧʧisandʒo-ke-n.
3SM teacher-COP.PRS.3SM-AFF

'He is a teacher.'

Isi baraʧʧisandʒo-ke-baa-n.
3SM teacher-COP.PRS.3SM-NEG-AFF
'He is not a teacher.'

Isi baraʧʧisandʒo-ke-*Ø*?
3SM teacher-COP.PRS.3SM-Q
'Is he a teacher?'

Isi baraʧʧisandʒo-ke-baa-*Ø*?
3SM teacher-COP.PRS.3SM-NEG-Q
'Isn't he a teacher?'

Declarative clauses are marked by the suffix -n clause finally.

Questions are unmarked, i.e. not marked by any particluar morpheme, hence the zero morpheme in the glossed examples.

Negation is marked through the suffix -baa.

Verbs are marked for tense.

The order of the verb suffixes is: tense, negation, declarative.

There seems to be a copula that is attached as a suffix to the predicate noun, but it might also be that this suffix is only a gender marker on nouns, and that this language does not use a present tense copular verb.

3rd person singular personal pronouns as well as the copula suffix distinguish between masculine (*isi, ke*) and feminine (*ise, te*) gender. Nouns, however, seem not to distinguish between the genders, but to be used in the same form for both males and females.