

UNIVERSITY OF GOTHENBURG
DEPARTMENT OF LANGUAGES AND LITERATURES
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Introduction to Linguistics and African Languages
AF1111

Key Concepts and Assignments

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Introduction

This course covers

- basic linguistic concepts,
- basic information about languages in Africa,
- basic library searches,
- basic analysis of language data,
- glossing of examples,
- handling of references.

Referencing according to the LSA style

[Unified style sheet for linguistics](#) (Wayne State University)

[Unified style sheet for linguistics Referencing guide](#) (Citationsy)

[Language style sheet](#) (Linguistic Society of America).

Leipzig [Generic Style Rules for Linguistics](#).

Library catalogues

Library of congress

[Libris](#), the catalogue of all Swedish research libraries.

The catalogue of [Gothenburg University Library](#).

Glossaries of grammatical terminology

SIL: <https://glossary.sil.org/term>

Glossing

Leipzig [Glossing Rules](#).

Wikipedia's list of [glossing abbreviations](#).

Especially the sections 1.1, 3.1–3.4 & 4.1–4.3 in

Lehmann, Christian. 2004. Interlinear morphemic glossing. In Geert Booij, Joachim Mugdan & Stavros Skopeteas (eds.), *Morphologie: Ein internationales Handbuch zur Flexion und Wortbildung*, 2. Halbband (Handbücher zur Sprach- und Kommunikationswissenschaft 17:2), 1834–1857. Berlin & New York: de Gruyter.

https://www.christianlehmann.eu/publ/lehmann_img.pdf

Christian Lehmann's homepage:

https://www.christianlehmann.eu/ling/ling_meth/ling_description/representations/gloss/

Coto, Rolando. 2020. Interlinear glossing for your language. YouTube. (10 min.) <https://youtu.be/tfqWXzBEoTM>

The Leipzig 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

Further Readings

Anderson, Catherine, Bronwyn Bjorkman, Derek Denis, Julianne Doner, Margaret Grant, Nathan Sanders & Ai Taniguchi. 2022. *Essentials of Linguistics*, 2nd edn. Hamilton, Ontario: eCampusOntario.

<https://ecampusontario.pressbooks.pub/essentialsoflinguistics2/>

Braber, Natalie, Louise Cummings & Liz Morrish (eds.). 2015. *Exploring Language and Linguistics*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

<https://www-cambridge-org.ezproxy.ub.gu.se/highereducation/books/exploring-language-and-linguistics/3DBD29516B335491267E9C04403CB616#contents>

- Burridge, Kate & Tonya N. Stebbins. 2019. *For the love of language: An introduction to linguistics*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
<https://www-cambridge-org.ezproxy.ub.gu.se/highereducation/books/for-the-love-of-language/F2F13289DE2862283A544E14DAC76956#contents>
- Childs, George Tucker. 2003. *An Introduction to African Languages*. Amsterdam & Philadelphia: John Benjamins.
https://gu-se-primo.hosted.exlibrisgroup.com/permalink/f/rmbr1s/46GUB_KOHA2097086
- Croft, William. 2022. *Morphosyntax: Constructions of the world's languages*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
<https://www-cambridge-org.ezproxy.ub.gu.se/highereducation/books/morphosyntax/1AAB4F5F9C553F675170DCA3F03F82E2#contents>
- de Garavito, Joyce Bruhn & John W. Schwieter (eds.). 2021. *Introducing linguistics: Theoretical and applied approaches*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
<https://www-cambridge-org.ezproxy.ub.gu.se/highereducation/books/introducing-linguistics/B37C05AF99A83A8D7328CC5E4412CFC0#contents>
- Dimendaal, Gerrit J. 2011. *Historical linguistics and the comparative study of African languages*. Amsterdam & Philadelphia: John Benjamins.
- Dryer, Matthew S. & Martin Haspelmath (eds.). 2013. *The World Atlas of Language Structures Online*. Leipzig: Max Planck Institute for Evolutionary Anthropology.
<http://wals.info>
- Eberhard, David M. & Gary F. Simons & Charles D. Fennig (eds.). 2022. *Ethnologue: Languages of the World*. 25th edn. Dallas, Texas: SIL International.
<http://www.ethnologue.com>
[Login with you student credentials through our university library to get full access.](#)
- Eifring, Halvor & Rolf Theil. 2005. *Linguistics for Students of Asian and African Languages*. Oslo: University of Oslo (Manuscript).
<https://www.uio.no/studier/emner/hf/ikos/EXFAC03-AAS/h05/larestoff/linguistics/>
- Fasold, Ralph W. & Jeff Connor-Linton (eds.). 2014. *An introduction to language and linguistics*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
<https://www-cambridge-org.ezproxy.ub.gu.se/highereducation/books/an-introduction-to-language-and-linguistics/B036D97E756E737853EB5F6233218219#contents>
- Genetti, Carol. 2018. *How languages work: An introduction to language and linguistics*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
<https://www-cambridge-org.ezproxy.ub.gu.se/highereducation/books/how-languages-work/DB6E72758E31BF3838EEAFFC5BA4A311#contents>
- 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
- Kroeger, Paul R. 2005. *Analyzing grammar: An introduction*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

<https://www-cambridge-org.ezproxy.ub.gu.se/core/books/analyzing-grammar/A2C80CFE228B2FB5AA93A8470E245CAC>

Lieber, Rochelle. 2021. *Introducing morphology*, 3rd edn. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

<https://www-cambridge-org.ezproxy.ub.gu.se/highereducation/books/introducing-morphology/301B4B3CEB4045756E2112603B719426#contents>

Lyons, John. 1981. *Language and linguistics*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

<https://www-cambridge-org.ezproxy.ub.gu.se/highereducation/books/language-and-linguistics/C97B6760F31512BDF99DFB4C72E82A1F#contents>

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

Radford, Andrew, Martin Atkinson, David Britain, Harald Clahsen & Andrew Spencer. 2009. *Linguistics: An introduction*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

<https://www-cambridge-org.ezproxy.ub.gu.se/highereducation/books/linguistics/9AEE7EDA6697286AFE1B2399DFDD9020#contents>

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

<http://mek.oszk.hu/05200/05298/>

Sandoval, Jordan B. & Kristin E. Denham. 2021. *Thinking like a linguist: An introduction to the science of language*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

<https://www-cambridge-org.ezproxy.ub.gu.se/highereducation/books/thinking-like-a-linguist/587CB69D1423A59E4F4F85CF8ADCA936#contents>

Vossen, Rainer & Gerrit J. Dimmendaal (eds.). 2020. *The Oxford handbook of African languages*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

https://gu-se-primo.hosted.exlibrisgroup.com/permalink/f/15agpbr/TN_cdi_askewsholts_vlebooks_9780191007385

Welmers, Wm. E. 1973. *African language structures*. Berkely, California.

You will find many other titles introducing individual fields within linguistics through our university library at <https://www-cambridge-org.ezproxy.ub.gu.se/highereducation/search?q=linguistics&productTypes=BOOK,COURSEWARE&pageNum=1>

Accessible overviews at Linguistic Network

<http://www.linguisticsnetwork.com/tutorials/>

<http://www.linguisticsnetwork.com/an-introduction-to-phonology/>

<http://www.linguisticsnetwork.com/category/tutorials/tutorials-syntax/>

Podcasts etc.

Lingthusiasm: Lingthusiasm is a podcast that's enthusiastic about linguistics as a way of understanding the world around us. From languages around the world to our favourite linguistics memes, Gretchen McCulloch and Lauren Gawne bring you into a lively half hour conversation on the third Thursday of every month about the hidden linguistic patterns that you didn't realize you were already making.

<https://lingthusiasm.com/>

Språket - Ett program om hur språk används och förändras.

<https://sverigesradio.se/spraket>

YouTube videos

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 Language

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>

Some dictionaries for African languages

Electronic

<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

Saho

<http://www.sahoarchive.org/dictionaries-wordlists/>

Unit 1. Linguistics (old 1, 2, 4)

Linguistics is the scientific study of languages.

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 investigate and describe what **people consider** to be (in)correct,
- and it can also find out what is frequent and what is unfrequent.

Descriptive statements about language describe how language is used, reporting observations objectively, without any judgements about them.

→ "This is what people say and write."

Prescriptive statements about language make judgements about language correctness.

→ "This is what people should say and write. This is good and that is bad."

Linguistics can be divided into a large number of subfields.

Subfields

Some important subfields are:

Phonetics is the science dealing with the physical and physiological character of sounds, that means, how sounds are produced (pronounced), how they are transmitted (transported), and how they are perceived (heard).

Phonology is the science dealing with the sound system of (a) specific language(s). Phonology deals with questions such as: How many sounds does a certain language have? How are those sounds allowed to combine into words? How do neighbouring sounds affect each other?

Morphology is the science dealing with the structure of words, how words

consist of smaller parts – morphemes – each one contributing some specific meaning to the word.

Syntax is the science dealing with how words are put together to larger chunks: phrases, clauses, sentences and texts.

Morphosyntax is morphology + syntax. Since it is sometimes/often difficult to decide exactly where to draw the borderline between them, it may often be more convenient to treat them together.

Semantics is the science dealing with the meaning of words, phrases and utterances.

Grammar is a less precise term referring to language structure. It is often used with reference to more or less the same things a morphosyntax, but some authors also include phonetics and phonology in the definition. And also semantics play an important role in grammar.

Lexicology is the science dealing with the lexicon, i.e. the vocabulary. **Lexicon** is the set of words in a language and our knowledge about these words.

Lexicography is the science dealing with the construction of dictionaries OR the actual construction of dictionaries.

Pragmatics is the science dealing with the use of words and utterances in a social context, i.e. in real life situations. We often don't say exactly what we mean, e.g., *Do you know what time it is?* Asking this question, we don't expect *Yes* or *No* as an answer, but information about the current time.

Sociolinguistics is the science dealing with how different groups of people (young/old, men/women, urban/rural, rich/poor etc.) use language in slightly different ways. One and the same person even uses language in different ways depending on the situation (private/professional, conversation/public speech etc.)

Corpus linguistics is the science dealing with the use of large amounts of computationally stored texts for the investigation of language.

Historical linguistics is the science dealing with the historical development of (a) language(s).

Some other basic concepts

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 relation 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 combinations, thus giving us the possibility to create an infinite number of different, new phrases and sentences of different length and complexity. The same is true for sounds. They are also recursive, and can be used over and over again in various combinations, giving us the possibility to create an infinite number of words.

Key concepts in Semantics

Synonymy: synonyms are words or phrases that mean more or less the same, e.g. *elderly* \approx *senior*; *watch out* \approx *be careful*; *black gold* \approx *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 and quite well established 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 meaning that is based on 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.

It is of course not always easy to draw a precise line between polysemy and metonymy, e.g. *wheels* meaning 'car', is that polysemy (a new, well-established meaning) or metonymy (associative meaning).

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

homophones, which are only **pronounced** in the same way:

no, know; be, bee; see, sea; root, route

homographs, which are only **written** in the same way:

sow [səw] verb, Sw. 'så' (to plant seeds)

sow [saw] noun, Sw. 'so' (female pig)

Swedish: kort 'photo, card'

kort 'short'

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

Gradable antonyms:

two endpoints on a continuous spectrum:

big – small, good – bad, young – old, early – late, dark – bright/light ...

Complementary antonyms:

two opposite meanings which do not form a continuous spectrum:

open – closed, odd – even, occupied – vacant, black – white, exit – entrance, exhale – inhale, come – go, over – under...

Relational antonyms:

two words that refer to opposite sides of a relation:

student – teacher, husband – wife, doctor – patient, child – parent, sister – brother...

These are context dependent and different pairs are possible in different contexts, e.g. *doctor – patient* or *doctor – nurse*;

woman – man or *woman – girl*;

grandmother – grandfather or *grandmother – grandson...*

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 proportionate 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.

Utterances or speech acts have a form and an intention.

When the form and intention coincide the **speech act** is **direct** (*Tell me his phone number.*)

When the form and intention differ the **speech act** is **indirect** (*Do you happen to have his number?*). This speech act has the form of a question, but it is intended as a request.

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. **Pragmatics** studies how language is used in a social context as well as differences between individual languages and cultures.

Languages are different

Through their words, languages sometimes 'organise' the world differently, for example the words we use to chunk up the day in Swedish and English:

dygn, dag, morgon, förmiddag, middag, eftermiddag, kväll, natt...
day, morning, noon, afternoon, evening, night...

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. *Kväll* sometimes corresponds to *night*, e.g. *i går kväll* – *last night*.

Some researchers claim that such differences affect the way we understand the surrounding world. If a language has many different words for different kinds of snow, the speakers will pay more attention to the quality of snow. But on the other hand, it is probably the importance of snow for those speakers that is the reason for the rich vocabulary. There was simply a natural need, and the rich vocabulary developed over time as a result of the life style and needs of those speakers.

Another example of a difference is how speakers use words like *here* and *there* in various languages. At what distance do we find the borderline between those words in different languages?

No language is 'better' than other languages

All languages have an enormous, indefinite potential to develop new means of expression. Everything depends on the needs of the speakers and their community. It's mainly the **vocabulary that may be restricted** in a specific

language, but new words can always be easily 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.

1. Watch some videos

On this course you are encouraged to watch many of the quite good videos that are out there in order to get a better understanding of the basic notions presented very shortly in each unit of this text.

Afterwards you are encouraged to write a comment on one or two of the videos in our discussion forum. Anything that you found strange, incorrect, interesting or reacted to for some other reason.

What is linguistics (7 min.) | Jürgen Handke

<https://youtu.be/bzz1pFWAtMo>

What is Linguistics? (11 min) | Crash Course Linguistics

<https://youtu.be/3yLXNzDUH58>

What is linguistics? (13 min) | TrevTutor

<https://youtu.be/DF679Ks8ZR4>

What is language? (9 min) | Aze Linguistics

https://youtu.be/9ddZlnUm_Bk

Linguistics 101: The scientific study of language (17 min.) | Aaron

<https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=sGWpbDI11Ik>

How language shapes the way we think (14 min.) | [Lera Boroditsky](#)

<https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=RKK7wGAYP6k>

What is Semantics (and Pragmatics)? (5 min.) | Aze

<https://youtu.be/SyFoFsuUNZk>

Homonyms, homographs and homophones (7 min.) | Aze
<https://youtu.be/c6K6DZjkHT8>

Homophony, Synonymy, Polysemy (11 min.) | Aze
<https://youtu.be/YrSOOj0BL8U>

Antonyms (8 min.) | Aze
<https://youtu.be/ITLe2bZFxYA>

Pragmatics: Crash Course Linguistics (10 min.) | Taylor Behnke
<https://youtu.be/MPwpk-YgvjQ>

Clocks around the world: how other languages tell time
<https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=eelVqfm8vVc>

Pragmatics (10 min.) | Evan Ashworth
<https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=dsPswzOBsK0>

Lexical Semantics (13 min.) | Evan Ashworth
https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=e_3h0fB8Rhg

Intro to Semantics and Pragmatics (23 min.) | Language
<https://youtu.be/PpzqldQghrA>

Semantics: Intro to linguistics (21 min.) | Aaron
<https://youtu.be/ycWDuU5eYv0>

1. Read some more

Through the additional readings as well as the recommended videos you will hopefully get a much better understanding of the linguistic concepts than you would by just reading through the above list, since the explanations in the list are very short. The main purpose of that list of concepts in this pdf is that it should be useful for a quick review when you want to check that you have not missed any important concepts.

The readings contain a lot of details, especially Eifring & Theil (2005). You don't have to learn all those things. The important thing is that you do your best to acquire a fairly good understanding of the key concepts listed earlier in this unit.

An introduction to the branches of linguistics
Cambridge College

<https://blog.cambridgecoaching.com/what-is-linguistics-intro-to-branches-of-linguistics?tags=3136887339>

Chapter 1 and Section 2.2 to 2.2.4 in Eifring & Theil. 2005.

[Linguistics for Students of Asian and African Languages \(Eifring & Theil \(2005\)\).](#)

Chapter 1, 5 and 6 in Richter (ed.). 2006.

[First Steps in Theoretical and Applied Linguistics \(FSTAL\).](#)

Short Recaps: Universität Duisburg Essen:

https://www.uni-due.de/SHE/REV_LevelsChart.htm

https://www.uni-due.de/SHE/REV_SemanticsPragmatics.htm

1. Learn about SWAHILI

Here is video that will give you some basic information:

Swahili (13 min.) | Paul

https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=Q_9QfBSbw8g

In previous years students on this course have written up short texts about a number of African languages. You will read some of those texts. They have only been briefly checked, which means that there is no guarantee that everything in the texts is absolutely correct.

Your job will be to combine all the old texts into one new. Keep as much as possible of the facts, if you find it relevant. Keep as many of the references as possible, if you find them relevant and reliable. Double check the facts, if you feel any doubt about the correctness.

Each one of you will have to do this task once during the course. Whenever you want to take care of a language, just write a posting in the discussion, so that everyone knows that the language of the week is already taken.

One person takes charge each week and puts the old student texts together into one text, and posts this new text in the discussion as soon as possible. Then the rest of the group will comment on the merged text in the discussion and by the end of the week the person in charge will make the necessary adjustments to the text based on the comments from the others.

I will then read the final version and comment on it.

Student text No 1

The Swahili language, also known by its autonym Kiswahili, is the national language of Tanzania. It belongs to the Niger-Congo language family and more specifically to the Central

branch of the Narrow Bantu languages (Ethnologue 2023a). In the late 60s and early 70s, Malcolm Guthrie gave a classification of the Bantu languages by dividing them into 15 geographical zones. The areas were designated using the letters from A to S. The Swahili language is situated in zone G and received the classification G42. (Marten 2020: 208). I had not heard of any of the other languages in zone G before. However, the South African languages Xhosa (S41) and Zulu (S42) from zone S I have heard of. They also belong to the Central branch of the Narrow Bantu languages (Ethnologue 2023b).

There are more than 16 million people in the world who speak Kiswahili as their first language, amongst them 15 million Tanzanians. Kiswahili is the second language for more than 55 million people in the world, with large populations of L2 speakers existing in Kenya, Uganda and the southernmost part of Somalia. Kiswahili is the official language of instruction in Tanzanian primary and secondary schools since 2015. It is taught as a subject in all Kenyan primary and secondary schools. Also in Uganda, secondary schools offer the subject (Ethnologue 2023a).

Kiswahili has 22 consonant and 5 vowel phonemes. Furthermore, there are 18 noun classes (Ethnologue 2023: Swahili). The Roman script is used to publish Swahili texts. However, along the East African coast the Swahili-Arabic script is still used in writing by some (Mbele 2009).

References:

- Ethnologue. 2023a. Swahili. <https://www-ethnologue-com.ezproxy.ub.gu.se/language/swh/> (2023.08.29)
- Ethnologue. 2023b. Central. <https://www-ethnologue-com.ezproxy.ub.gu.se/subgroup/54/> (2023.08.29)
- Marten, Lutz. 2020. Bantu and Bantoid. In Vossen, Rainer & Gerrit Dimmendaal (eds.), *The Oxford Handbook of African Languages*, 208-239. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Mbele, Joseph. 2009. Swahili literature. In Gikandi, Simon (ed.), *The Routledge Encyclopedia of African Literature*, 202. London: Routledge, Taylor&Francis Group.

Student text No 2

The Swahili language belongs to the Bantu language-family, according to Hinnebusch (2003: 181), Wald (2003: 201), Wikipedia (2023a) and Hammarström (2018: 22). Some other major Bantu languages, whose names, which this author believes are rather wellknown (at least in Sweden), are Kikongo, in the Democratic Republic of Congo, Kikuyu, in Kenya and Xhosa and Zulu, in South Africa.

Swahili is spoken or understood in a large part of East Africa and Central Africa. It is one of three official languages of the East African Community (EAC) countries, namely Burundi, Kenya, Rwanda, Tanzania, and Uganda, and is also used as a contact language in many neighbouring countries (Wikipedia 2023b).

There are very different estimates of the number of first language speakers (L1) and second language speakers (L2) with M = million:

Wald (1987: 994-985): 6 M L1, 50 M L1 + L2

Hinnebusch (2003: 181): 2 M L1, 75 M L2.

Hammarström (2018: 22): 15 M L1, 50 M L2

Wikipedia (2023b): 20 M L1. Combined L1 + L2: 80 M (2019)

Most L1 speakers live in Tanzania, especially in the cities (Wikipedia 2023b).

References:

Hammarström, Harald. 2018. A survey of African languages. In Güldemann, Tom (ed.), *The languages and linguistics of Africa* (The World of Linguistics 11), 1-57. Berlin & Boston: de Gruyter.

Hinnebusch, Thomas J. 2003. Swahili. In Frawley, William J. (ed.), *International Encyclopedia of Linguistics, Volume 4*, 181-188. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Wald, Benji. 1987. Swahili and the Bantu Languages. In Comrie, Bernhard (ed.), *The World's Major Languages*, 991-1014. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Wald, Benji. 2003. Bantu Languages. In Frawley, William J. (ed.), *International Encyclopedia of Linguistics, Volume 1*, 201-204. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Wikipedia. 2023a. Bantu languages. https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Bantu_languages (2023.08.30)

Wikipedia. 2023b. Swahili language. https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Swahili_language (2023.08.30)

Student text No 3

Swahili is spoken in the African continent and there are many countries in Africa that speak Swahili as first language such as Kenya and Tanzania. There are many Arabic words in Swahili. Other countries as other languages are many, some of them are Rwanda, Uganda, DRC and Burundi. Swahili belongs to the Bantu family of languages and Swahili is closely related to Zulu and Yoruba. More than one hundred speak this language.

No references in the text. Only texts referred to in the text can appear in the list of references, nothing else.

References

Ohio University. 2023. Swahili language. <https://www.ohio.edu/cis/african/languages/swahili> (4 September, 2023)

Nilsson, Morgan. 2019. Lite om somaliskan. <https://morgannilsson.se/Lite%20om%20somaliskan.pdf> (4 September, 2023)

Langfocus. 2016. The Swahili language. https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=Q_9QfBSbw8g (4 September, 2023)

Student text No 4

Swahili is a language that is spoken on African continents such as East Africa, Southeast Africa, and Central Africa. Swahili is the largest Language that is spoken in Africa by over 200 million people. The official language of Kenya and Tanzania is Swahili. There are also other countries that speak Swahili such as Uganda, the Democratic Republic of the Congo, Mozambique, and Rwanda. Additionally, it can be found in Zambia, Comoros, Somalia, and Djibouti. Swahili is a Bantu language. It belongs to the larger Bantu language family, which is a group of closely related African languages spoken by various ethnic groups across sub-Saharan Africa. Swahili has indeed been influenced by Arabic, primarily due to historical interactions between Arabic-speaking traders and the Swahili people along the East African coast. This influence is mainly observed in Swahili vocabulary, as many words in Swahili have Arabic origins.

Why no references in the text?

References

Adelaar, A. 2015. From Borneo to Bantu: How the Malagasy third person genitive pronoun *-ni may have become a locative suffix in Swahili. In LastName, FirstName (ed.), *Proceedings of the second international workshop on information structure of Austronesian languages*, 161-177. City: Publisher.

Initial instead of FirstName **only** if FirstName cannot be found in the text.

Student text No 5

Swahili remains the only African language that the United Nations uses as a part of its global communications and assigned a day to celebrate it (UNESCO 2023). Swahili is, currently, spoken in the coastal areas that stretches from southern coast of Somalia to northern Mozambique, and parts of Central Africa (Simpson 2018: 253). The language is among the official languages of the African Union, East African community, and Southern African development community (UNESCO 2023).

According to the United Nations, Swahili is among the most widely spoken languages in the world, with its **two hundred million speakers** across countries in east, south and central Africa (UN 2021). It is the lingua franca in those regions of the continent, and a significant number speak it as a second language.

Swahili is a member of Bantu language family, which belongs to the broader Niger-Congo group. Within the Bantu it belongs to the Sabaki subgroup, and its closest languages include Pokomo and Comorian (Walsh 2017: 122).

List of References

UNESCO. 2023. Kiswahili Language Day. <https://www.unesco.org/en/kiswahili-language-day> (31 August, 2023)

Simpson, Andrew (ed.). 2008. *Language and National Identity in Africa*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Walsh, Martin. 2017. The Swahili language and its early history. In LastName, FirstName (ed.), *The Swahili World*, 222-244. City: Routledge.

Student text No 6

Swahili is a Bantu language of the Niger-Congo family. It is widely spoken in East Africa, by approximately 20 million native speakers and an estimated 60 million L2 speakers. It is an official language in several countries : Burundi, Kenya, Rwanda, Tanzania and Uganda, and is used in several other nearby countries as it is a major lingua franca in the whole region. Most speakers are found in coastal places such as Tanzania, Kenya and Mozambique, due to its historical development as a language spoken originally by a population of fishermen and then extensively used for trade with foreigners, in particular Arabic-speaking traders. There are many other Bantu languages, related to Swahili, such as Zulu and Xhosa, or more closely related ones like Comorian, Kirundi and Kinyarwanda (Mugane 2015: 56).

Author. Year. Title. Link (Date accessed).

https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Swahili_language (04/09/2023)

Mugane, John. 2015. *The Story of Swahili*. Athens: Ohio University Press.

<https://www.britannica.com/topic/Swahili-language> (04/09/2023)

<https://www-ethnologue-com.ezproxy.ub.gu.se/language/sw/> (04/09/2023)

https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=Q_9QfBSbw8g (04/09/2023)

<https://worldpopulationreview.com/country-rankings/what-countries-speak-swahili>
(04/09/2023)

1. Referencing

In African linguistics it is quite common practice to follow the **LSA style** (the Linguistic Society of America's Unified Stylesheet for Linguistics).

The first initiative was taken in 1962, followed by updates in 1967 and 1968:

<https://www.jstor.org/stable/43737835>

<https://www.jstor.org/stable/43737809>

<https://www.jstor.org/stable/411566>

The most well-known, modern version of their stylesheet is available here:

<https://library.umw.edu/citing/lsa>

An even newer version is available here:

<https://journals.linguisticsociety.org/proceedings/index.php/PLSA/about/submissions>

An accessible version of it is also available here:

<https://clas.wayne.edu/linguistics/resources/style>

Minimal changes in these recommendations have been suggested by Language Science Press in § 16 in their 'Generic style rules for linguistics':

<https://langsci-press.org/templatesAndTools>

When you mention sources in your text

Give only the author's last name and year of publication in the text that you are writing. If possible, always try to add the number of the page where the information can be found. Put a colon and a space between the year and the page number.

There are two main ways to do this:

- (a) In a recent article, Larsson (2015: 20) claims that those people originate from the highlands surrounding the sources of the major river.
- (b) There are several different theories about the geographical origin of those people. One of them is that hundreds of years ago their ancestors inhabited the highlands surrounding the sources of the major river (Larsson 2015: 20).

The list of references

Make a list of the **full names** of the authors and the **full titles** of all the works that you have made reference to in your text.

Books

This is how you should format information about printed books.

Author's last name, first name. Year. *Title of book*. City: Publisher.

☞ Pay attention to the comma, the colon and all the full stops! Notice that there are **four components** with a full stop after each one.

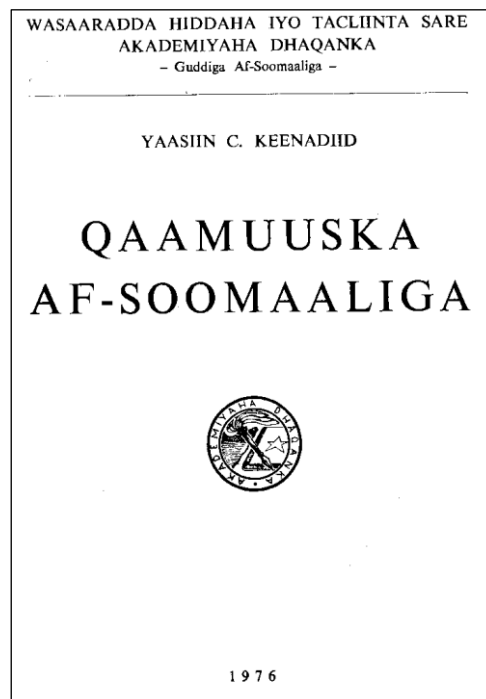
☞ Always give the **full first names** if they are indicated on the **cover**, the **front page**, or the **copy-right page**. Only use initials if you can't find the full name(s) on any of these three pages.

☞ If the **year** is printed on the cover or front page, use that. If it is not, use the most recent year mentioned on the copy-right page.

☞ If the **name(s)** or the **title** differ between the cover and the front page, use the information given on the front page, not the cover, since the cover may be layouted by a different person.

Example 1

This Somali dictionary has an identical cover and front page. It has no copy-right page.



This is how you should present it in a list of references:

Keenadiid, Yaasiin C. 1976. *Qaamuuska af-Soomaaliga*. [Muqdisho:] Wasaaradda Hiddaha iyo Tacliinta Sare & Akademiyaha Dhaqanka.

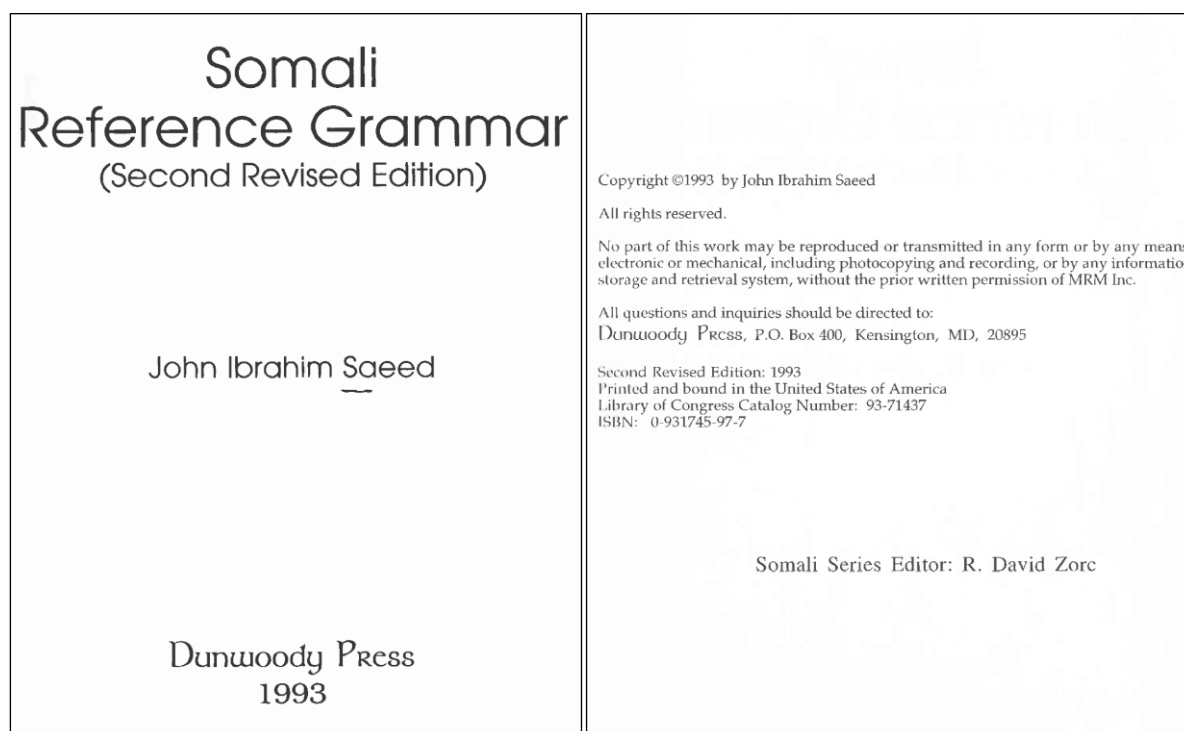
Don't use upper case letters in the title (even if that is how it is written in the book). Instead, follow the basic spelling rules for the language in question.

Don't write: QAAMUUSKA AF-SOOMAALIGA.

If some of the required information cannot be found in the book, but is unquestionable, it may be added in square brackets, like the city in the example above. It is common knowledge that the two institutions (the ministry and the academy) reside in Mogadishu (in Somali: Muqdisho).

Example 2

This Somali grammar has an identical cover and front page. In addition it also has a copy-right page.



This is how you should present it in a list of references:

Saeed, John Ibrahim. 1993. *Somali reference grammar*, 2nd revised edn. Kensington, MD: Dunwoody Press.

Don't use upper case initials for every word in book titles, even if that is how the title is written in the book. Instead, follow the basic spelling rules for the language in question.

Don't write: *Somali Reference Grammar*.

If there is any information about the edition, that may be included after the title, as in the example above. Use the abbreviations **1st**, **2nd**, **3rd**, and **edn.**

For cities in the United States it is common practice to add the abbreviation for the state (preceded by a comma), as in the example above. You can find lists with these abbreviations in many places on the internet, e.g.

https://www.faa.gov/air_traffic/publications/atpubs/cnt_html/appendix_a.html

or

<https://www.lovetoknow.com/parenting/kids/list-all-50-states-abbreviations>

1. Practice

1.1 Here and there (new)

What would you say if you want somebody (who is standing four metres away from you) to put a book on a small table approximately one metre away from you?

Put it here!

or

Put it there!

1.2 Discuss

1. Consider these statements: *I learned a new word today. I learned a new sentence today.* Are they equally probable? Why? (Fromkin et al. 2014: 29)

2. Can you think of a rule of your own language that you have learned to be the correct way to say something, but that you do not always follow yourself when speaking? Can you think of some good arguments to present to somebody who tells you that the way you express yourself is wrong? (Fromkin et al. 2014: 29)

3. Why is the awareness and understanding of scientific terminology so important in linguistics (and all other sciences)?

4. What aspects of languages can be studied using a corpus?

1.3 General questions

1. What is the relation between the following word pairs? Gather the pairs in groups representing the same type.

a. assemble/disassemble

b. damp/moist

- c. deep/shallow
- d. dog/schnauzer
- e. furniture/table
- f. married/single
- g. move/run
- h. peace/piece
- i. pen/pen
- j. absent/present
- k. appear/disappear
- l. fail/pass
- m. fair/unfair
- n. fill/empty something
- o. high/low

The source of this question is Yule (2014: 120).

2. Are the underlined words examples of polysemy or metonymy?

- a. I had to park on the shoulder of the road.
- b. I love those. I ate a whole box on Sunday.
- c. The bookstore has some new titles in linguistics.
- d. Computer chips created an important new technology.

The source of this question is Yule (2014: 120).

3. How many words are there in this sentence?

My new phone is newer than all my colleagues' phones are.

4. Give five examples of multi word lexemes (MWL) used in a sentence so that their meaning becomes evident from the context. Use English or Swedish. Underline the MWL.

5. Explain in what way the following sentences are ambiguous.

- a. May I try on those trousers in the window?
- b. I found a bat in the attic.
- c. She gave her dog meat.
- d. The chickens are ready to eat.
- e. Scientist put their glasses on their noses.
- f. Leave the chairs on the veranda.
- g. There is a café in the park that I like.
- h. You should eat more nutritious food.

- i. We discovered that they lost the election by chance.
- j. He said he didn't tell you because he wants to make you mad.

The source of this question is Hudson (2000: 326–327).

6. Explain in what ways the following sentences are indirect speech acts?

- a. I wonder if you have some aspirin.
- b. If I'm coming to your wedding? I wouldn't miss it for the world!
- c. Will you be quiet?
- d. Don't you think it's too dark in here?
- e. I wouldn't do that if I were you.
- f. Do you know what time it is?
- g. I wonder what time it is.
- h. You can bet I'll be there.
- i. A table by the window would be nice.
- j. Hold your horses!
- k. I do appreciate all this peace and quiet, kids!
- l. If you want to make an omelette you have to break eggs.
- h. Har du en penna?

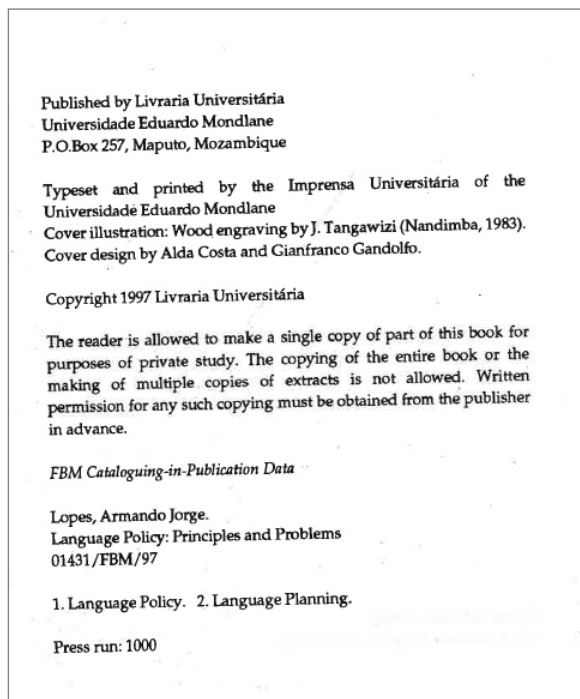
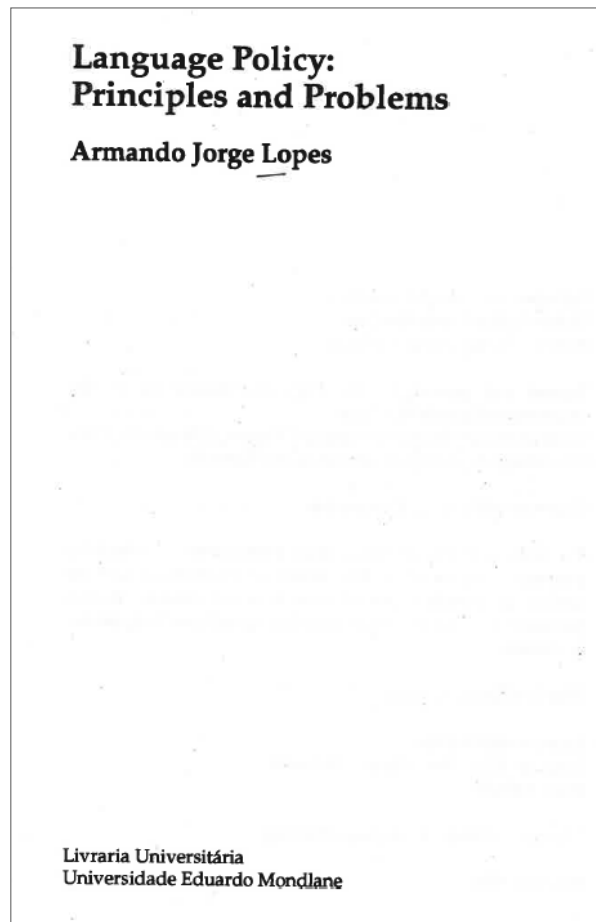
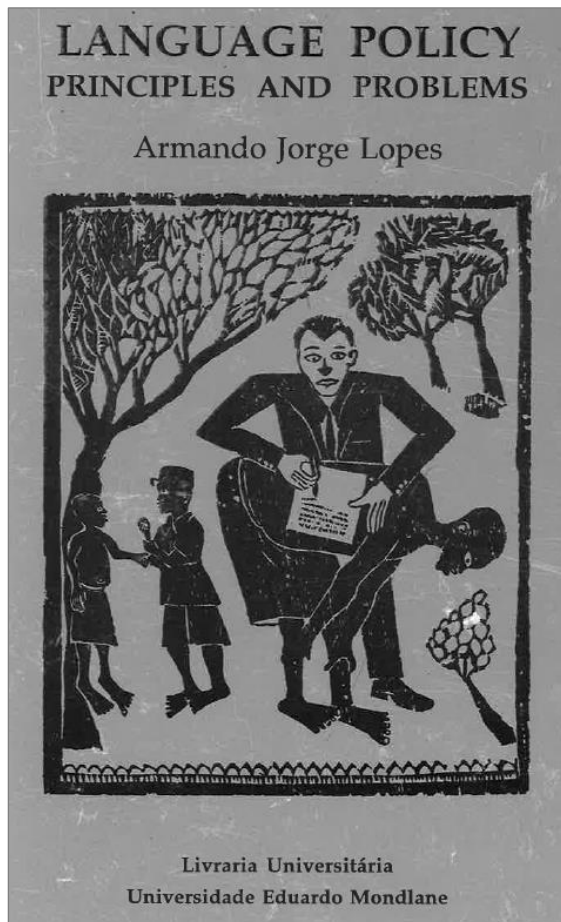
The source of this question is Hudson (2000: 327–328).

1.4 [Prepare a list of references](#) (new)

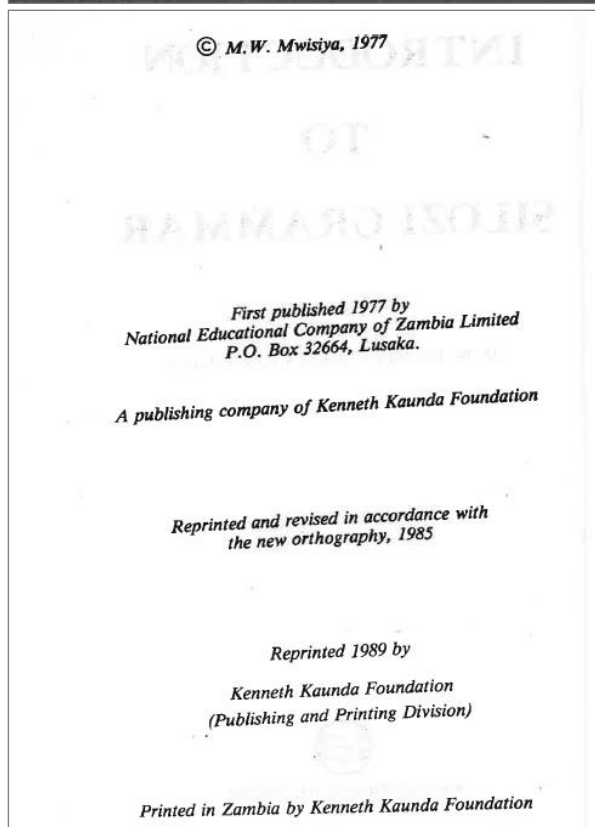
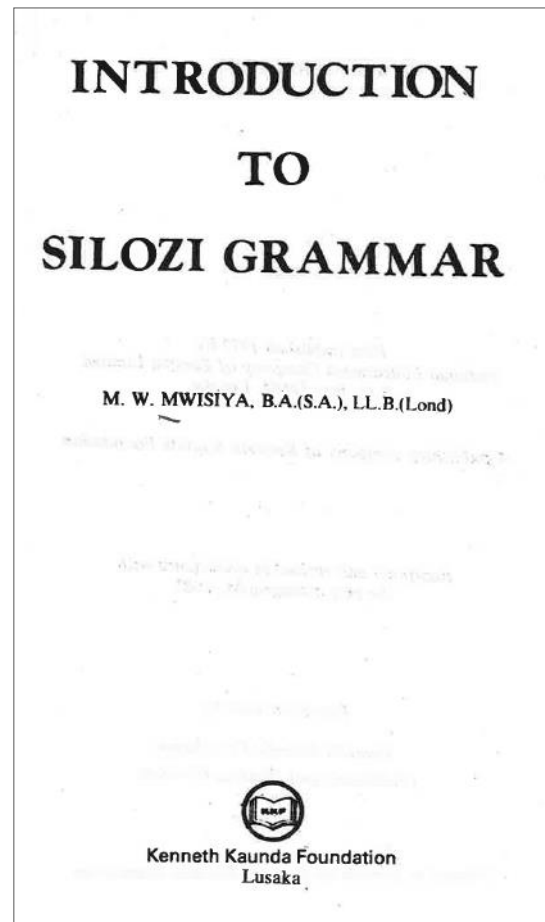
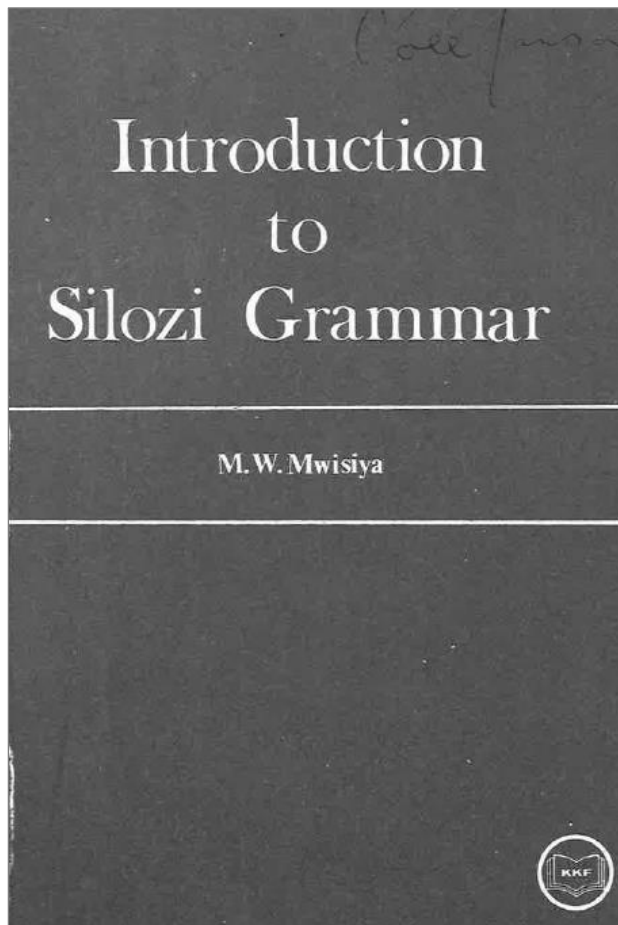
On the following pages you will find images of the front cover, the front page and the copy-right page taken from four books.

Your job is to prepare a list of references covering these books. Remember that the books should be listed in alphabetical order based on the last name of the author.

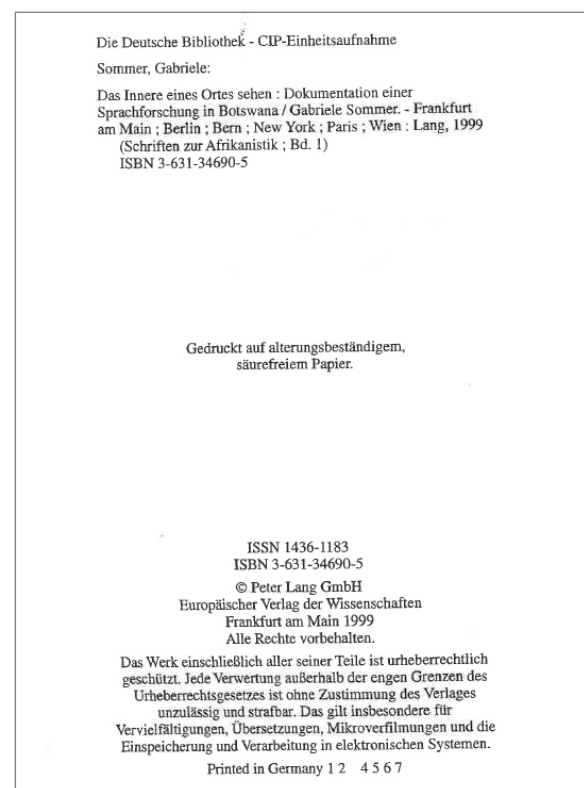
Book 1



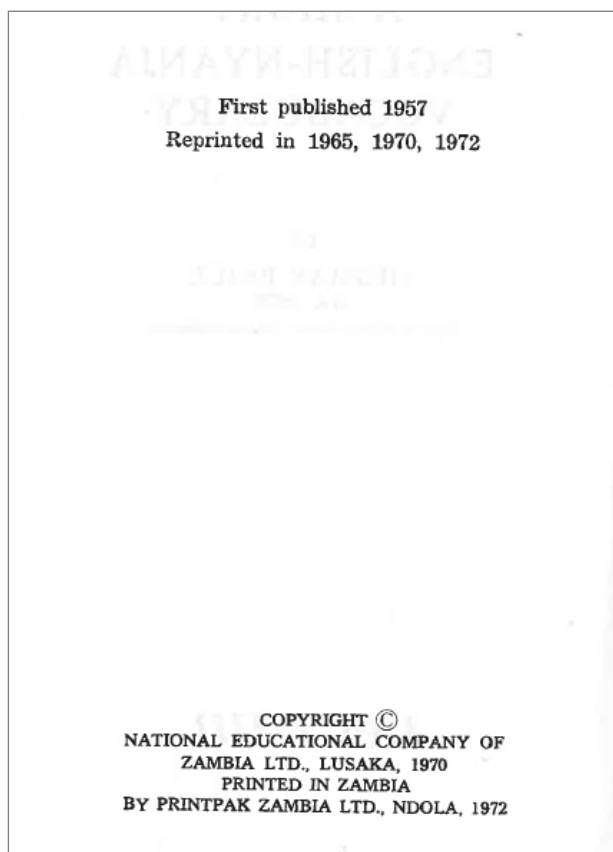
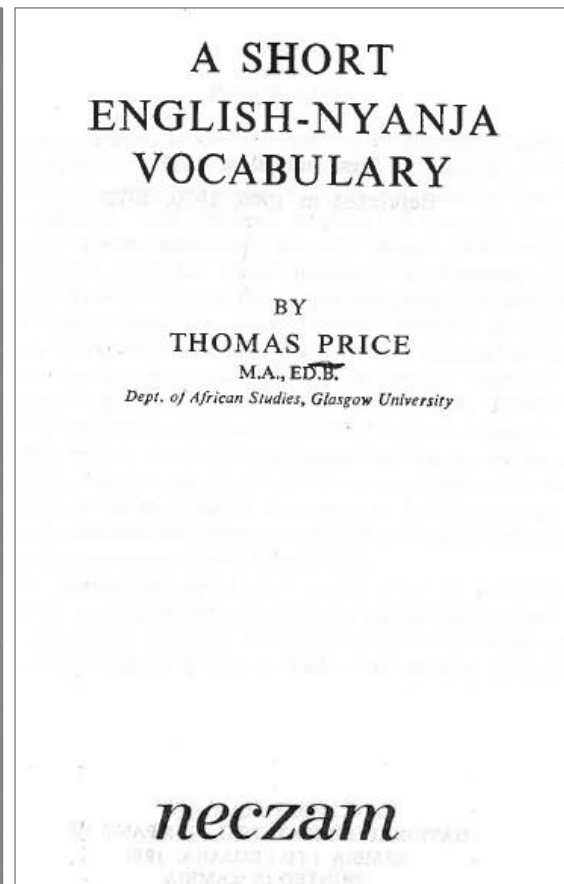
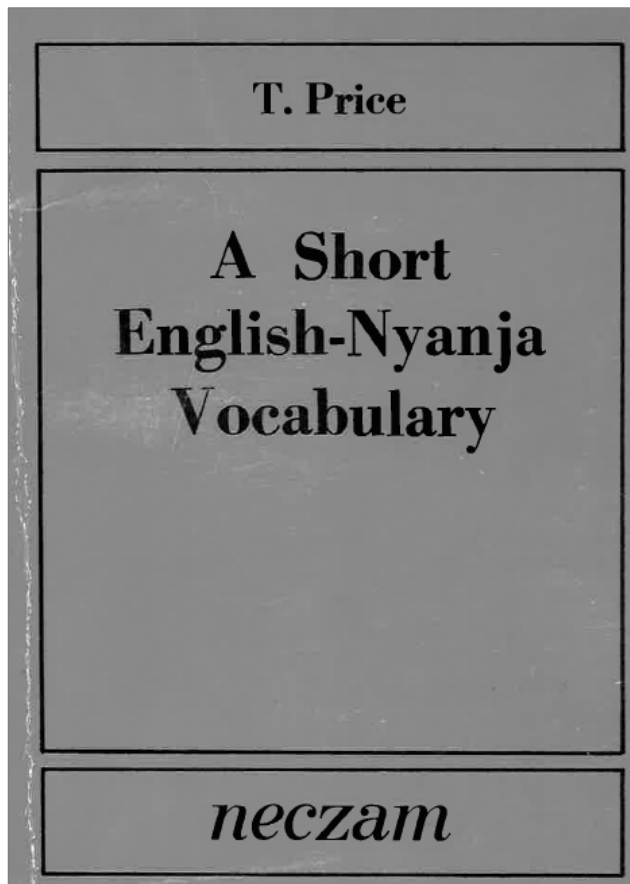
Book 2



Book 3



Book 4



1. Suggested Solutions

These are solutions offered by students in previous years. Feel free to comment on them in our discussions: objections, corrections, additions...

1.1 Here and there (new)

No previous solutions. Feel free to submit your own solution in the discussion in Canvas.

1.2 Discuss

Some suggestions from the students in previous years. Feel free to comment on them in the discussion in Canvas.

1. It is much more probable to learn a new word than a new sentence. Most sentences are formed using known words and general "rules", and it is quite easy to form a sentence never heard or seen before. There are exceptions, for instance are children taught fixed sentences for asking for things, there are fixed sentences (performatives) used in ceremonies like weddings or arrests and we can also learn poems by heart, but it is quite seldom that you have to learn a new one.

I think that "learning" a sentence happens less frequently than learning a word when you start learning a language whereas learning sentences can happen more often as a language learner becomes more advanced.

I think we could also draw a distinction between "learning" and "memorizing". I think you can memorize both words and sentences (for example greetings, common expressions and so on) in the form of rote memorization and it's probably difficult to avoid learning this way in the beginning of learning a language. But I would say that to learn a sentence often requires context and cultural understanding coupled with a good vocabulary, particularly as a person becomes more advanced in the language they're learning. A language learner can learn several words in a day but it will take time before they can start to understand how any one of those words works in an individual sentence or how an individual word can change the meaning of a sentence, for example.

We meet lots of new sentences every day, but we don't notice them.

But when we meet a new word that we don't understand, we do notice, and later on we usually know if we have learned it or not.

If we don't learn sentences, what do we learn instead?

2. One rule of a language that is taught in schools is that you may not borrow words and phrases carelessly from other languages, because this might hamper understanding between speakers who might only have one language in common. There is no good term for "sovmorgon" in German, but at the German School in Stockholm the students rejoice every time they get a "Schlafmorgen". Where the word is understood (at this specific school) it is the most efficient way to describe the underlying concept. However, in Hamburg or in Köln no one would know what a "Schlafmorgen" is. Growing up bilingually has for me meant not always knowing exactly where the boundaries are between my languages. Whilst I have been taught the correct way of speaking German and Swedish, the boundaries between the languages dissolve in a relaxed setting, such as when speaking with my siblings. If you use a Swedish verb and a German object, do you have to use German declension? Or, if you use a German verb requiring the accusative, how would you give the Swedish noun an accusative form? Decisions are made in split seconds. However, as we understand each other perfectly, no harm is done, even though the sentences are patchworks of German and Swedish words and grammatical structures.

Sometimes by accident I mix up the prepositions in my two mother languages. In Swedish, you are on ("på") the train, in German you are in ("in") the train. If I say without thinking that I am on ("auf") the train in German, that would mean that I would be on top of the train. In that case, I cannot think of any good arguments to present to somebody who tells me I am wrong, except that the mistake can lighten mood.

What is the meaning of "your own language"? I have learned to speak and write (almost) correct Standard Swedish, but my original language is a variety of Southern Swedish (Småland/Skåne). For instance, I sometimes say 'Jag såg han' (I saw him), which is incorrect in Standard Swedish. The standard form is 'Jag såg honom'.

My (joking) reply if someone says that this isn't correct is to tell them that 'honom' comes from the Old Swedish dative form, while 'han' comes from the accusative form, so the correct form should be 'han'.

Of course, we are talking here about two or three different varieties of Swedish. Linguists should use a descriptive approach and not prescriptive and both ways can be correct, depending on the context.

"He ain't done nothing wrong", preferably dropping the H in "he" and pronouncing "th" as a "f" (British English).

Students in England (and probably the rest of the UK) are often be corrected (sometimes jokingly) or scolded for using double negatives, but I would say that they are used quite effectively to emphasize a point or emotion (such as indignation, in the above example) as well as to add humour or sarcasm to a conversation. I would argue that humour, sarcasm and inuendo are more critical to British culture than being too prescriptive over grammar, although some individuals and schools in the UK would probably have you believe otherwise.

There are also a number of grammatical variations in British English that belong to specific British dialects. The UK has historically been quite draconian when it comes to dialects outside of RP. The situation is starting to improve now, you can for example hear many UK dialects when listening to a BBC news report, podcast or similar, and I would argue that it's worth strengthening grammatical variations in UK dialects because it seems quite special to have such a range of dialects on a relatively small island.

3. Words for language concepts have often very loose meanings in everyday speech. For this reason linguists introduce special technical term for many such concepts and try to define them more strictly. It is important for the reader to recognise such terms and understand their special meaning, at least those that are commonly accepted.

A lack of awareness and understanding of scientific terminology would prevent a structured debate on a global level. It would also be very time-consuming, as different interpretations of basic terminology would cause mutual misunderstanding and quite possibly a lot of irrational conflict. Academics need to know that they are referring to the same concepts if they are to compare findings. Furthermore, laying down clear rules for what a term is meant to mean aids in structuring the thought process, as it facilitates classification and differentiation. If any rock in the solar system were allowed to be a planet, it would make it hard to describe in words the aspects that distinguish e.g. Jupiter from one of its moons.

I think similar to Maximilian's point, that since linguistics is the study of languages generally, not just one language, that it's important to have a widely agreed upon/understood toolbox in order to describe, learn and understand languages that could be very different from your own. A sentence in Korean is very different from a sentence in English, but if we have terminology to describe the different parts of the sentence then we have a better chance of understanding why that sentence works the way it does.

4. A corpus plays a significant role in modern language education and linguistics by providing a data-driven approach to understanding and teaching languages. They offer a bridge between theoretical language knowledge and practical language use, making language learning more effective and relevant.

The corpus can be used to draw inferences about grammatical rules, dialects and lexical variability.

I have no experience in Corpus linguistics so I cite Wikipedia. 2023. Corpus linguistics. (2023.08.30):

Corpus linguistics has generated a number of research methods, which attempt to trace a path **from data to theory**. Wallis and Nelson (2001) first introduced what they called the 3A perspective: Annotation, Abstraction and Analysis.

- **Annotation** consists of the application of a scheme to texts. Annotations may include structural markup, [part-of-speech](#) tagging, [parsing](#), and numerous other representations.
- **Abstraction** consists of the translation (mapping) of terms in the scheme to terms in a theoretically motivated model or dataset. Abstraction typically includes linguist-directed search but may include e.g., rule-learning for parsers.
- **Analysis** consists of statistically probing, manipulating and generalising from the dataset. Analysis might include statistical evaluations, optimisation of rule-bases or knowledge discovery methods.

According to József Horváth in chapter 9 of "First Steps in Theoretical and Applied Linguistics", a corpus is a **collection of** written and/or spoken **language data** which can be **used to study naturally occurring language**.

1.3 General questions

1.

- assemble/disassemble – (complementary) antonyms
- damp/moist – synonyms
- deep/shallow – (gradable) antonyms
- dog/schnauzer – hyponymy (hyperonym and hyponym)
- furniture/table – hyponymy (hyperonym and hyponym)
- married/single – (relational) antonyms (also: married – divorced)
- move/run – hyponymy (hyperonym and hyponym)
- peace/piece – homonymes, or more precisely homophones
- pen/pen – polysemy
- absent/present – (complementary) antonyms
- appear/disappear – (complementary) antonyms
- fail/pass – (complementary) antonyms
- fair/unfair – (gradable) antonyms
- fill/empty something – (complementary) antonyms
- high/low – (gradable) antonyms

2.

a. I had to park on the shoulder of the road.

polysemy – this is a well-established meaning

b. I love those. I ate a whole box on Sunday.

metonymy – in this context it doesn't really mean the box, it refers to the edible content

c. The bookstore has some new titles in linguistics.

metonymy – in this context it means 'books'

d. Computer chips created an important new technology.

polysemy – this is a well-established meaning

3.

11 tokens

10 types My=my

7 lexemes My=my new=newer phone=phones is=are

4. Alternative terminology

MWL = multi word lexeme

MWE = Multi-word expression

MWU = Multi-word unit

break up (end a relationship)

French fries = Sw. pommes frites

- Proverbs (*A bird in the hand is worth two in the bush*), quotations (*Shaken, not stirred*) and commonplaces (*One never knows*)
- Metaphorical expressions (*as sure as eggs is eggs* / German *so sicher wie das Amen in der Kirche* 'lit. as sure as the amen in the church', *autumn of one's life* / German *Herbst des Lebens*)
- Verbal idioms (*to kick the bucket, to shoot the breeze*, French *marcher sur des œufs* 'to walk on eggshells', German *jemanden nicht riechen können* 'lit. to not be able to smell s.o., to not be able to stand s.o.', Dutch *iemand met de nek aankijken* 'lit. to look at s.o. with the neck, to look down on s.o.')
 - Particle / phrasal verbs (*to make up*, German *ankommen* 'to arrive', Dutch *bijvallen* 'to approve', Italian *mettere giù* 'to put down')
 - Light verb constructions / composite predicates (*to have a look*, German *zur Abstimmung bringen* 'to put to the vote', French *faire partie de* 'to be part of')
 - Syntactic / quasi noun incorporation (German *Auto waschen* 'to wash car', Dutch *piano spelen* 'to play piano', Danish *købe hus* 'to buy (a) house', Swedish *ha bil* 'to have/own a car')
 - Stereotyped comparisons / similes (*as nice as pie, swear like a trooper*, Dutch *koud als steen* 'cold as stone', German *schimpfen wie ein Rohrspatz* 'lit. to rant like a reed bunting, to rant and rave', French *bête comme ses pieds* 'stupid like one's feet')
 - Binomial expressions (*shoulder to shoulder* / German *Schulter an Schulter*, *by and by* / German *nach und nach*, *nourish and cherish* / German *hegen und pflegen*)
 - Complex nominals (*man about town, weapons of mass destruction, sheep's clothing*, French *marché aux puces* 'flea market', Italian *atto di nascita* 'birth certificate', Spanish *sillo para niños* 'baby high chair', Russian *universal'nyj magazin* 'department store', *kiosk morozhenogo* 'ice cream parlor')
 - Collocations (*strong tea, hard frost*, German *Zähne putzen* 'to brush teeth')
 - Fossilized / frozen forms (*all of a sudden*, Dutch *in plaats van* 'instead of', French *en fonction de* 'depending on')
 - Routine formulas (*Good morning, How are you doing?, Happy Birthday*)

From Matthias Hüning & Barbara Schlücker. 2015. Multi-word expressions. In Müller, Peter O., Ingeborg Ohnheiser, Susan Olsen & Franz Rainer (eds.), *Word formation: an international handbook of the languages of Europe* (Handbücher zur Sprach- und Kommunikationswissenschaft 40.1), 450-467. Berlin: De Gruyter Mouton.

5. Explain in what way the following sentences are ambiguous.

a. May I try on [those trousers in the window]?

May I try on [those trousers] [in the window]?

There is a structural ambiguity: try them on in the window – try the trousers that are in the window

b. I found a bat in the attic.

There is a lexical ambiguity: bat (animal) - bat (baseball)

c. She gave [her] [dog meat].

She gave [her dog] [meat].

structural ambiguity: She gave meat to a woman or to a dog

d. The chickens are ready to eat.

the chickens will eat something or someone will eat the chickens

structural: ready to eat or to be eaten

e. Scientists put their glasses on their noses.

Structural: *their* may refer to the scientists or to some other people
or lexical glasses (eye glasses) - glasses (drinking glasses)

f. Leave the chairs on the veranda.

lexical: *leave* has two meanings

'put the chairs on the veranda'

'people on the veranda should get up from their chairs'

g. There is a café in the park that I like.

structural: *I like* may refer back to two different words

'I like the park' or 'I like the café'

h. You should eat more nutritious food.

'you should eat more' or 'you should eat better stuff'

structural: *more* may refer to *nutritious* or to *food*

i. We discovered that they lost the election by chance.

'they lost the election by chance' or 'we discovered it by chance'

structural: *by chance* may refer to two different verbs: *discovered* or *lost*

j. He said he didn't tell you because he wants to make you mad.

structural: the negative may refer to aspects of the statement:

'he didn't tell you, because he wanted to make you mad'

or 'he told you, but his intention was not to make you mad'

6. The intentions behind these indirect speech acts are shown through the corresponding direct speech acts.

a. I wonder if you have some aspirin.

Give me some aspirin!

b. If I'm coming to your wedding? I wouldn't miss it for the world!

I'll come to your wedding.

c. Will you be quiet?

Be quiet!

d. Don't you think it's too dark in here?

Turn on the light!

e. I wouldn't do that if I were you.

Don't do that!

f. Do you know what time it is?

Tell me what time it is! // What time is it?

g. I wonder what time it is.

Tell me what time it is! // What time is it?

h. You can bet I'll be there.

I promise that I'll be there!

i. A table by the window would be nice.

Please give us a table by the window!

j. Hold your horses!

Take it easy!

k. I do appreciate all this peace and quiet, kids!

Be quiet, kids!

l. If you want to make an omelette you have to break eggs.

You can't have it without paying.

h. Har du en penna?

(Var snäll och) ge mig en penna!

1.4 Prepare a list of references (new)

Give priority to the information found on the front page (not the cover). Information not found on the front page can be supplemented with information from the copy-right page, and only as a last resort, from the cover page.

Lopes, Armando Jorge. 1997. *Language policy: Principles and problems*. Maputo: Livraria Universitária, Universidade Eduardo Mondlane.

The year should be the most recent one mentioned - the actual year when the volume that you are referring to was printed.

Mwisiya, M. W. 1989. *Introduction to Silozi grammar*. Lusaka: Kenneth Kaunda Foundation.

It is possible, but not necessary, to spell out abbreviations in parentheses:

Price, Thomas. 1972. *A short English-Nyanja vocabulary*. Lusaka: Neczam.

Price, Thomas. 1972. *A short English-Nyanja vocabulary*. Lusaka: Neczam (National Educational Company of Zambia).

It is enough to give the most prominent part of the name of the publisher, without legal abbreviations and longer descriptive additions to the basic name:

Sommer, Gabriele. 1999. *Das Innere eines Ortes sehen: Dokumentation einer Sprachforschung in Botswana*. Frankfurt am Main: Peter Lang.

Unit 2. African Languages (3)

Key Concepts

There are more than 2 000 languages in Africa.

Language versus **Dialect**. The division is based on

- the linguistic criterion of mutual understandability, e.g.
or
- standardisation and “political” decisions.

Linguistically different languages, but ‘politically’ dialects of one language, e.g.

Moroccan Arabic & Iraqi Arabic,
Älvdalian vs. Swedish

Linguistically mutually intelligible dialects of one language, but politically different languages:

Swedish & Norwegian & Danish;
Czech & Slovak;
Bosnian & Croatian & Montenegrinian & Serbian;
Zulu & Xhosa.

Language family (or phylum) with different **subgroups** (or families)

Notice that ‘family’ may be used at different ‘levels’.

Language Isolate – Languages with no genetic ‘relatives’

Language Death

Lingua Franca – when 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 has been Amharic, but today English is often taking over that role also in Ethiopia.

Pidgin – It is used as a “lingua franca”, but it is not a previously existing language. Instead it is a newly ‘invented’, simplified mix of (two) languages, usually the mother tongue’s of the persons who want to communicate.

Creole – When speakers of a pidgin language become parents and pass on their pidgin language to the next generation, that language becomes a creole language. Hence the important distinction is that a creole language is the mother tongue of its speakers.

Indo-European languages

Afrikaans is the only Indo-European language that is only spoken in Africa. Many other are of course also widely spoken, also as a mother tongue or first language (L1), but they have been brought to Africa from outside.

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), Dari, Tajik, Kurdish, Pashto etc.

Indo-Aryan:

Hindi, Urdu, Gujarati, Nepali, Bengali, Kashmiri, Punjabi, Sinhala, Divehi, Romani etc.

etc.

The use of European languages in Africa

English, French and Portuguese are widely used in many African countries. Spanish and German are also used, but to a far smaller extent.

SPANISH is spoken in Ecuatorial Guinea, Western Sahara, the western-most tip of central Algeria, the Canary Islands and the Spanish enclaves in northern Morocco.



Source: Wikimedia Commons

GERMAN still has the status as one of the national languages of Namibia where it is spoken by some 25 000 people, but English is today the official language of Namibia, and there are more speakers of Afrikaans than of German. German also used to be important in Tanzania, but English has taken over its role there.

See also the article by Barbara Nicoletti at

<https://pcl-press.org/publications/pluricentric-languages-in-africa-and-in-other-regions-of-the-world/>

ITALIAN used to be important in Somalia, Ethiopia and Eritrea, but English has taken over its role there.

See also the article by Mauro Tosco at

<https://doi.org/10.1515/9783110628869-034>

Niger-Congo languages (appr. 1.400 languages)

Kordofanian languages (appr. 20 languages):

Mande languages (appr. 35 languages):

Bambara, Jula, Mandinka...

Atlantic languages (appr. 45 languages):

Fula, Wolof...

Ijoid languages (appr. 10 languages)

Dogon languages (appr. 12 languages, 0.5 million speakers)

Volta-Congo languages

North Volta-Congo languages

Kru languages

Gur languages

South Volta-Congo languages

Volta-Niger or Benue-Congo languages:

Igbo, Ewe, Yoruba...

Central Nigerian languages

Tivoid languages

Tiv, Bitare...

Bantu languages (appr. 450 lang.)

Swahili, Kongo, Shona, Bemba, Zulu, Xhosa...

Bantu languages have been classified by Malcolm Guthrie (1948) through a system that assign a code to each languages based on their geographical distribution rather than the linguistic relations between the language. Therefore, very similar languages sometimes end up in different zones and have very different codes. The codes consist of a letter followed by two digits. The letter refers to a larger geographical zone and the number to a position within that zone. See also:

https://en.m.wikipedia.org/wiki/Guthrie_classification_of_Bantu_languages

Afro-Asiatic languages

Semitic (ca. 77 languages):

Central Semitic

Arabic, Hebrew...

South Semitic

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

Cushitic (ca. 47 languages):

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

Chadic (ca. 195 languages)

Hausa...

Berber (ca. 26 languages)

Tamazight, Tarifit, Taqbaylit, Tamasheq...

Omotic (ca. 28 languages)

Wolaytta (ca. 2 mill.)

Egyptian[†]

Coptic[†]...

Nilo-Saharan languages

A total of some 50-60 million 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 million 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 appr. 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), **Malagasy** (Madagascar, ca. 25 mill.)...

2. Watch some videos

The amazing languages of Africa (22 min.) | [Dave Huxtable](#)

<https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=-qJuVWpT6CU>

Languages of Africa (10 min.) | NativLang

<https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=1WhIqHr0q0>

What's the difference between a dialect and a language (8 min.) | Langfocus

<https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=jIi-Ug7qo74>

Language Isolates - Lonely Languages With No Family (3 min.) | Langfocus

<https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=lkubYrRQ1y8>

What are Creoles and Pidgins? And what's the difference? (6 min.) | Langfocus

<https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=qqJI7SdS9Gg>

What is a "Lingua Franca"? (3 min.) | Langfocus

<https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=a9ZdC6wZnks>

Language Death: How do languages die? (10 min.) | Langfocus

<https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=t3qbYFvOHwk>

2. Read some more

Chapter 2 in Childs, George Tucker. 2003. *An Introduction to African Languages*. Amsterdam & Philadelphia: John Benjamins.

https://gu-se-primo.hosted.exlibrisgroup.com/permalink/f/rmbr1s/46GUB_KOHA2097086

Chapter 9 in Wolff, H. Ekkehard. 2016. *Language and development in Africa*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press. (Also available in Canvas.)

Chapter 5 in Eifring & Theil. 2005. *Linguistics for Students of Asian and African Languages*, (with special emphasis on pages 14 + 19-25).

2. Learn about ARABIC

Here are some videos that will give you some inspiration and background information:

Arabic, Its history (18 min.) | Paul

<https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=nDg3yPSzsEg>

And if you find it interesting...

Moroccan Darija (17 min.) | Paul

https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=v6x_6K0OR3w

Lenbanese Arabic (20 min.) | Paul

<https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=4ZZ8SBdnFcl>

Maltese (8 min.) | Paul

<https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=C7VdeHdBn-g>

Arabic influence on Spanish and Portuguese (14 min.) | Paul

<https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=-3QML3tfBNQ>

How similar are Persian and Arabic? (7 min.) | Paul

<https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=lQn84dgRC8E>

And here are some texts written by students on this course in previous years. They have only been briefly checked, which means that there is no guarantee that everything in these texts is absolutely correct. (Blue means that something is strange, whereas green is advice for improvement.)

Text 1

The Arabic language is spoken by many countries and almost all continents, but there are countries that have Arabic as an official language such as Qatar, Saudi, Kuwait, Bahrain, Oman, Emirates, Yemen, Iraq, Algeria, Sudan, Libya, Palestine and many other countries. (Nationalencyklopedin, arabiska.2023/09/10)

It is spoken in Western Asia and North Africa. The Arabic language is called Koran language, which led to many speaking Arabic. Arabic language belongs to Semitic languages. Approximately 373 million speak Arabic in the world. (Zeidan 2023), [languages by number of native speakers. 2023/08/04](#))

And approximately 150 million speak in North Africa and in Sweden we have 170,000 Arabic speakers. Arabic is written from right to left. ([Babbel Magazin Vilka språk talas i Afrika? DA-VID DOOCHIN 28/04/2023](#))

Two languages that are closely related to Arabic are Hebrew and Amharic are closely related to Arabic and two that are not close but in the same language family are Somali and Oromo. (Nilsson 2019: 29)

- [https://www.ne.se/uppslagsverk/encyklopedi/l%C3%A5ng/arabiska#antalet-mod-ers%C3%A5stalare-i-olika-l%C3%A4nder-2022-\(tabell-%C3%B6ver-talare-i-olika-l%C3%A4nder\)](https://www.ne.se/uppslagsverk/encyklopedi/l%C3%A5ng/arabiska#antalet-mod-ers%C3%A5stalare-i-olika-l%C3%A4nder-2022-(tabell-%C3%B6ver-talare-i-olika-l%C3%A4nder))

Zeidan, Adam. 2023. Languages by number of native speakers. In Britannica. <https://www.britannica.com/topic/languages-by-number-of-native-speakers-2228882> (2023.09.11)

- <https://se.babbel.com/sv/magazine/languages-of-africa>

- [Lite om somaliskan.pdf \(morgannilsson.se\)](#)
[Lite om somaliskan.pdf \(morgannilsson.se\)](#)

Nilsson, Morgan. 2019. Lite om somaliskan. <https://morgannilsson.se/Lite%20om%20somaliskan.pdf> (2023.09.11)

In the text, references should only contain (Author'sLastName Year: Page).

In the reference list, just links are not enough. There should also be:

LastName, FirstName. Year. Title. Link (access date).

Text 2

Arabic, one of the widely spoken languages in the world, is the official language of members of the Arab League as well as the one of the official languages of the United Nations. Its native speakers inhabit, primarily, in the Arab world, the Middle East, and North Africa (Britannica 2023). Its speakers estimated around four hundred million. However, its speakers as a second language can be found in several regions around the globe. It's the holy language of Islam, which means a quarter of the humanity use it in their daily prayers and other religious ceremonies.

The majority of Arabic speakers live in Africa, which make more than half of the total Arabic speakers. The Arab countries that lie in Africa include Egypt, the most populous Arab country with a population that exceeds 110 million (World bank 2022), and the Al maghrib countries in North Africa, with a population around 120 million (Hachimi 2022: 29).

It would be nice to have a page number since Hashimi is a printed text.

Arabic language belongs to Semitic language family, subgroup of the larger family of Afro-Asiatic languages. The closest languages to Arabic, within the family, include Aramaic and Maltese, which spoken in Malta. Other well-known languages that belong to the same family include Hebrew and Amharic (Versteegh 2014).

Can't find Versteegh in the reference list.

List of References

Britannica. 2023. The Arabic language. <https://www.britannica.com/topic/Arabic-language> (8 September 2023).

The World Bank. 2022. Population, total / Egypt, Arab Rep. <https://data.worldbank.org/indicator/SP.POP.TOTL?locations=EG> (8 September 2023).

Hachimi, Atiqa, Falchetta, Jacopo and Benítez Fernández, Montserrat. "Contextualizing the rise of vernacular Arabic in globalized North Africa" *International Journal of the Sociology of Language*, vol. 2022, no. 278, 2022, pp. 1-22.

Hachimi, Atiqa, Jacopo Falchetta & Montserrat Benítez Fernández. 2022. Contextualizing the rise of vernacular Arabic in globalized North Africa. *International Journal of the Sociology of Language* 278. 1-22.

Text 3

Arabic is a language with a rich history, an attractive script, and a diverse vocabulary that has significantly contributed to human civilization. According to Landin (2016) emphasized that the largest member of the Semitic family of languages is Arabic, which also includes Hebrew and Aramaic. Arabic is written from right to left. The origins of the Arabic language go back to pre-Islamic Arabia, where the tribes spoke local Arabic dialects. The Arabic language is spoken by more than 400 million people in different parts of the world. It also belongs to the Semitic languages, with Hebrew and Amharic. Furthermore, 1.3 billion Muslims around the world use the Arabic language to perform prayers and religious rituals. (Abu Irmies, 2014)

world use the Arabic language to perform prayers and religious rituals (Juma' Abu-Irmies 2014).

In addition, Arabic is spoken by more than 100 million people in Africa, with most of them living in the North African and Horn of African countries such as Egypt, Comoros, Djibouti, Chad, Algeria, Tunisia, Morocco, Mauritania, Libya, Sudan, Somalia, and Eritrea.

very low number, any references for that number?

References

Only titles of printed books should be in italics (kursiv).

In African Linguistics we usually don't put the year of publication in parentheses.

Juma' Abu-Irmies, A. (2014). *Difficulties of teaching Arabic to speakers of other languages in Jordan*. Middle East University. (Masters). Middle East University, Amman, Jordan.

Hyphen here, but not in the reference in the text. Juma' should also be part of the reference in the text. First name?

Juma' Abu-Irmies, A. 2014. *Difficulties of teaching Arabic to speakers of other languages in Jordan*. Amman: Middle East University, M.A. thesis.

Landin, B. (2016). *Tid i språk och tanke: Kan ett språks skriftriktning påverka människans kognition av temporal ordningsföljd?*

Would be nice to have the full first name, if possible.

What is this? Book, article, thesis?

Sehar Khan (2018), *10 Most Spoken Languages in Africa*, <https://www.marstranslation.com/blog/10-most-spoken-languages-in-africa> (access date)

Text 4

According to Ethnologue (2023), Arabic is a macrolanguage spoken as a first language by approximately 379 600 000 people. It is composed of many active individual member languages native to for example Saudi Arabia, Algeria, Bahrain, Chad, Cyprus, Oman, Egypt, Kuwait, Yemen, South Sudan, Syria, Libya, Iraq, Morocco, UAE, Sudan, Tajikistan, Tunisia and Uzbekistan (Ethnologue 2023). There are 150 000 000 native speakers in Africa, according to Wikipedia (2023).

Arabic belongs to the Central Semitic language family. It is distantly related to the Akkadian and closely related to Aramaic (Al-Jallad 2023: 318).

References:

Ethnologue. 2023. Arabic. <https://www-ethnologue-com.ezproxy.ub.gu.se/language/ara/> (2023.09.10)

Al-Jallad, Ahmad. 2018. The Earliest Stages of Arabic and Its Linguistic Classification. In Benmamoun, Elabbas & Reeb Bassiouney (eds.), *The Routledge Handbook of Arabic Linguistics*, 315-331. London: Routledge add full stop

Better not to use upper case in every word.

Wikipedia. 2023. Languages of Africa. https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Languages_of_Africa (2023.09.10)

Text 5

Arabic is the fifth most common native language in the world with an estimated 131 million native speakers (Industry Arabic, 2023). Around 170 million of those native speakers can be found in Africa, largely in north Africa – Egypt, Algeria, Tunisia, Morocco and Libya (Owens, 2020). It also serves as a L2 or foreign language for around 100 million people (Industry Arabic, 2023) as well as a literary language for over a billion Muslims around the world (Ryding, 2005).

Arabic is a semitic language and is, along with Hebrew, one of the most studied languages of this group (Versteegh, 2014). The other two languages of this group that are currently in use today are Aramaic and Amharic (Ryding, 2005).

Avoid comma in parentheses when referncing in linguistics.

References

Industry Arabic. 2023. How many countries speak Arabic?. <https://industryarabic.com/how-many-countries-speak-arabic/#:~:text=Did%20you%20know%20that%20Arabic,Ara-bic%20as%20a%20secondary%20language> Accessed: 2023/09/10

Recommended to not write Accessed:, just put date in parentheses.
Doesn't this article have an author?

Owens, Jonathan. 2020. Arabic in Africa, in Rainer Vossen and Gerrit J. Dimmendaal (eds), *The Oxford Handbook of African Languages*, Oxford Handbooks **final full stop**
Full stop after title, then In...
Invert the names of the first editor.
use (eds.) with a full stop

Ryding, Karin C. 2005. *A Reference Grammar of Modern Standard Arabic*. Cambridge University Press. **Add place**

Versteegh, Kees. 2014. *The Arabic Language*, Edinburgh University Press. **Add place**

Text 6

The Arabic language is a Semitic language, according to Hayward (2000: 78-80), (Fischer 2003: 119-120) and (Wikipedia 2023c). The Semitic language branch is the largest of the six branches of the Afroasiatic language group (Wikipedia 2023d), (Hayward 2000: 74-82), (Zaborski 2003: 49-51). We will soon meet some of the other branches in this course. Semitic languages are spoken mainly in North Africa and the

Middle East. Modern Standard Arabic is the (or an) official language in Arab states from Morocco to Iraq, and also in Israel. There are also Arabic speaking minorities in neighbouring countries and large immigrant communities in Western Europe and Latin America. (Wikipedia 2023e)

Usually full stop after reference, but not before it.

Maybe not so many references for a basic fact like language family.
Rather, choose the newest or most prominent source and add "among others":

...according to Hayward (2000: 78-80), among others.

Avoid Wikipedia as much as you can, especially if you can find other sources, simply because people get annoyed. Wikipedia is interesting when it says something different than other sources. If you cite Wikipedia, it's a good idea to give some kind of motivation.

The number of Arabic first language speakers (L1) in the world is around 370 M (million). African countries with Arabic majority language are Morocco 24 M, Algeria 32 M, Tunisia 11 M, Libya 5M, Egypt 70 M and Sudan 30 M L1 speakers. Hence more than 170 million L1 speakers live in Africa. (Ethnologue 2023a).

The locally spoken varieties of Arabic are very different, and speakers from an extreme part of the area cannot understand speakers from the opposite direction. The written and in official contexts spoken language is Standard Modern Arabic, which is fundamentally a version of Old Arabic, the language of the Quran and old arabic poetry, adapted and extended for use in the modern world. It is everywhere quite different from the locally spoken varieties (diglossia). Localized versions of Standard Modern Arabic are used for communication between speakers of different spoken varieties. (Fischer 1997: 187-189), (Kaye & Rosenhouse 1997: 263-267). Arabic is also a official language in Zanzibar. Swahili developed as a language on the East African coast under strong influence of the Arabic trading colonies there, and about 15 % of the Swahili vocabulary is of Arabic origin. (Wald 1987: 1012-1014), (Hinnebusch 2003: 181-184), (Wikipedia 2023a).

The Semitic languages are rather closely related to Arabic, and some rather well-known ones are Modern Hebrew in Israel (Berman 1997: 312-313), (Neo-)Aramaic languages (Jastrow 1997: 334, 347-348), with many speakers in Sweden e.g. in Södertälje (Wikipedia 2023f), Maltese (Kaye & Rosenhouse 1977: 263) in Europe (Malta) and Amharic, the official national language in Ethiopia (Hudson 1997: 457-458). Less closely related are other Afro-Asiatic languages such as Berber, e.g. Tamazigh, (Hayward 2000: 75-76) , Somali (Hayward 2000: 80-81) and finally Egyptian and its daughter language Coptic (Hayward 2000: 78).

References:

Berman, Ruth A. 1997. Modern Hebrew. In Hetzron, Robert (ed.), *The Semitic Languages*, 312-333. London: Routledge.

Ethnologue. 2023a. Arabic. <https://www.ethnologue.com.ezproxy.ub.gu.se/search/?q=arabic> (2023.09.10)

Fischer, Wolfdietrich. Arabic. In Frawley, William J. (ed.) 2003. *International Encyclopedia of Linguistics, Volume 1*, 119-126. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Fischer, Wolfdietrich. Classical Arabic. In Hetzron, Robert (ed.) 1997, 187-218. *The Semitic Languages*. London: Routledge.

Hayward, Richard J. Afroasiatic. In Heine, Bernd & Derek Nurse (eds.) 2000. *African Languages, An Introduction*, 74-98. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Hudson, Grover. Amharic and Argobba In Hetzron, Robert (ed.) 1997, 456-485. *The Semitic Languages*. London: Routledge.

Hetzron, Robert (ed.) 1997. *The Semitic Languages*. London: Routledge.

Hinnebusch, Thomas J. Swahili. In Frawley, William J. (ed.) 2003. *International Encyclopedia of Linguistics, Volume 4*, 181-188. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Jastrow, Otto. The Neo-Aramaic languages. In In Hetzron, Robert (ed.) 1997, 334-377. *The Semitic Languages*. London: Routledge.

Kaye, Alan S. & Judith Rosenhouse. Arabic Dialects and Maltese. In Hetzron, Robert (ed.) 1997, 263-311. *The Semitic Languages*. London: Routledge.

Wald, Benji. 1987. Swahili and the Bantu Languages. In Comrie, Bernhard (ed.) 1987. *The Worlds Major Languages*, 991-1014. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Wikipedia. 2023a. Swahili language. https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Swahili_language (2023.08.30)

Wikipedia. 2023c. Arabic. <https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Arabic> (2023.09.10)

Wikipedia. 2023d. Semitic languages. https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Semitic_languages (2023.09.10)

Wikipedia. 2023e. List of countries and territories where Arabic is an official language. https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/List_of_countries_and_territories_where_Arabic_is_an_official_language (2023.09.10)

Wikipedia. 2023f. Assyrier/Syrianer i Sverige. https://sv.wikipedia.org/wiki/Assyrier/syrianer_i_Sverige (2023.09.10)

Zaborski, Andrzej. 2003. Afroasiatic Languages. In Frawley, William J. (ed.) 2003. *International Encyclopedia of Linguistics, Volume 1*, 49-51. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Text 7

Arabic is a Semitic language most commonly spoken in the Middle East, predominantly in the Arabian Peninsula and North Africa (Britannica 2019). The language features a variety of dialects, meaning that each region has some variances but is mutually intelligible between other speakers. It is the fifth most spoken language in the world, with over 313 million native speakers; the number increases to 422 million if it includes non-native speakers (Industry Arabic 2022). Arabic has an official status in 11 African states, meaning there are 150 million African speakers (Fitzpatrick 2022).

The name in the reference must be identical to the initial name in the references list below.

Considering the influence of the Arabic language in Eurasia and Africa, several languages are closely related or have been affected by the language. Neighbouring languages on the Arabian Peninsula include Hebrew and Amharic, which have the same Semitic background. The Arabic language was widely spread throughout the Silk Road, notably in Northern Africa and Europe. English, French, Italian and Spanish are languages that have Arabic influences (UNESCO n.d.).

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2. Referencing

First of all we will have a look at a few special cases

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1stAuthor'sLastName, FirstName, 2ndAuthor'sFirstName LastName & FinalAuthor'sFirstName LastName.

Only invert the order of the first name and last name of the first author. List the rest of the authors in the ordinary way. Put a comma between the authors, but put a & sign before the last author. Always write the full names of all authors, if possible.

Kimper, Wendell, Wm. G. Bennett, Christopher R. Green & Kristine Yu. 2019. Acoustic correlates of harmony classes in Somali. In Emily Clem, Peter Jenks & Hannah Sande (eds.), *Theory and description in African linguistics*, 199–212. Berlin: Language Science Press.

Always keep the order of the authors as in the publication, since the first author is usually considered the most important and the last one least important.

If there are many authors (e.g. more than three), you can use the abbreviation *et al.* 'and others' in your text, just mentioning the first author's last name.

As mentioned by Lecarme et al. (2013: 45), it is very uncommon to find...

Subtitle

Add a colon after the main title, then add the subtitle.

Lamberti, Marcello. 1986. *Die Somali-Dialekte: Eine vergleichende Untersuchung*. Hamburg: Helmut Buske.

Frascarelli, Mara & Annarita Puglielli. 2005. The focus system in Cushitic languages: A comparative-typological analysis. In Fronzaroli, Pelio & Marrassini, Paolo (eds.), *Proceedings of the 10th meeting of Hamito-Semitic (Afroasiatic) linguistics*, 333–358. Firenze: Università di Firenze.

Book with (an) editor(s)

If you make reference to a book that contains articles or chapters by different authors, then the person in charge of putting together the chapters into a book is the editor of the book. Editors are treated in the same way as authors, but we add (ed.) after the name, before the final full stop. If there are several

editors, add (eds.).

Cardona, Giorgio Raimondo & Francesco Agostini (eds.). 1981. *Fonologia e lessico*. Roma: Ministero degli Affari Esteri.

Fardon, Richard & Graham Furniss (eds.). 1994. *African Languages, development and the state*. London & New York: Routledge.

Puglielli, Annarita (ed.). 1981. *Sintassi della lingua somala*. Roma: Ministero degli Affari Esteri.

Articles / chapters in books

When we only make reference to a specific chapter (or article) in a book, we need to take into consideration that each chapter or article has its own **author(s)**, and the book as a whole has its **editor(s)**.

We start by giving the author of the chapter/article, followed by the title of the chapter/article. Next we put the word In followed by the editor and the title of the book, followed by the page range of the chapter/article. Finally we give the city and publisher.

Only titles of printed/published books and journals should be given in italics.

All of it should follow this template:

Author's LastName, FirstName. Year. Title of article. In Editor's FirstName LastName (ed./eds.), *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.

Lahrouchi, Mohamed & Nicola Lampitelli. 2014. On plurals, noun phrase and number in Moroccan Arabic and Djibouti Somali. In Sabrina Bendjaballah, Noam Faust, Mohamed Lahrouchi & Nicola Lampitelli (eds.), *The form of structure, the structure of form: Essays in honor of Jean Lowenstamm*, 303–314. Amsterdam: John Benjamins.

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2. Practice

2.1 - 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 languages 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. Portuguese, 10. Zulu

<https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=waBAzHlXmqA>

2.2 - 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 with a list of references.
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.

2.3 Prepare a list of references (new)

On the following pages you will find images from books containing several articles/chapters. You will find the cover of the book, the front page, the copy-right page as well as the contents page. In the contents one article is marked.

Your job is to prepare a list of references for these articles/chapters. Remember that the references should be listed in alphabetical order based on the last name of the first author.

Article 1



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University of Nairobi

Ideophones in Swahili: a preliminary survey*

Ideophones in African languages were first noticed by Harry Thurston Peck (1856–1914) in 1886. He apparently had access to some dictionaries of West African languages in the 1880's and could not resist the temptation to work on them. The results were published in *The American Journal of Philology* in 1886. Later, Doke (1935: 118), identified them as ideophones and defined them as: "A vivid representation of an idea in sound. A word, often onomatopoeic, which describes a predicate, qualitative or adverb in respect to manner, colour, sound, smell, action, state or intensity."¹

Linguists were soon fascinated by ideophones and in overemphasising the extent of their distinctiveness, and tried to categorise them as a category apart. As demonstrated by Mahmoud Adam in his paper *A Brief Analysis of Dagbani ideophones*, where Hausa ideophones have been loaned to Dagbani, in some cases intact, and with little modifications in others. Because of their expressiveness, ideophones are of utmost importance in African languages if we consider the fact that most of them are still based on the oral tradition. They are very useful for "dramatic and sensational purposes in the oral arts like music, storytelling, poetry, and in its rich griot tradition" (Adam 2011: 24).

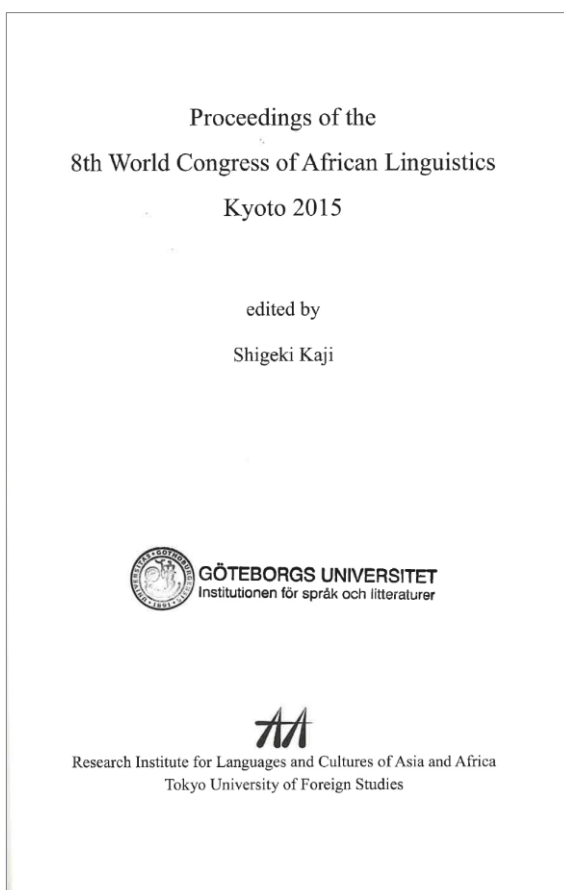
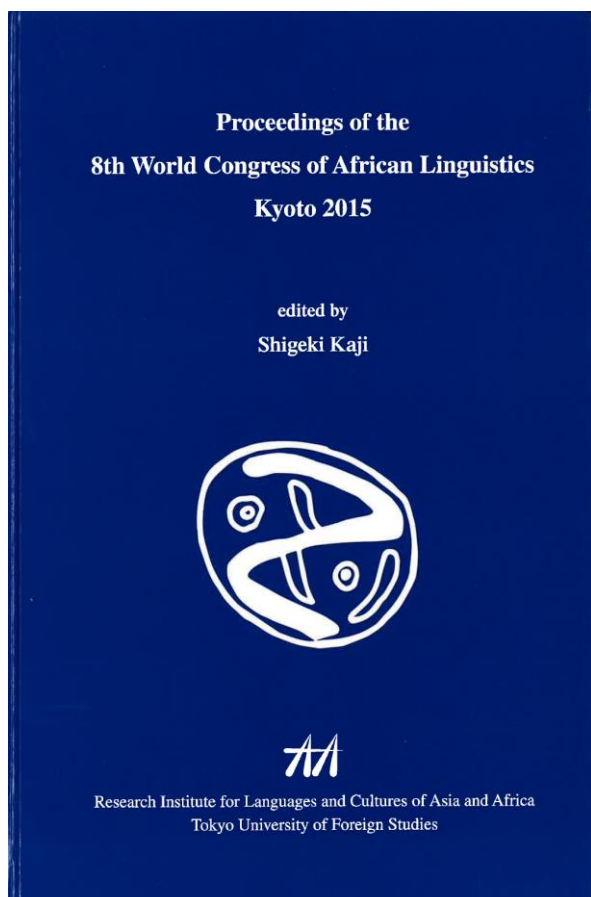
Jouni Filip Maho's *Bantu Online Bibliography* (2009) is a testimony of how works on this topic in the Bantu field dates back to the early part of the twentieth century, e.g. Bittremieux' article (1926) on kiKongo. However, apart from the

* We would like to thank Professors Iwona Kraska-Szlenk and Beata Wójciszewska for their invitation to this Festschrift, dedicated to our colleague Professor Eugene Rzewuski and for their remarks on this article: of course all mistakes are ascribable to us.

¹ Recently some important works, dealing, *inter alia*, with African languages, have been published: one edited by John J. Ohala, Leanne Hinton, Johanna Nichols (Ohala *et al.* 1994) and another edited by F.K. Erhard Voeltz and Christa Kilian-Hatz (Voeltz and Kilian-Hatz 2001).

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Article 2



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Unaccusative Constructions in Yorùbá

Akinbiyi Akinlabi
Rutgers University
Oluseye Adesola
Yale University

Abstract

Unaccusative constructions tend to be unique in the way they treat the requirements for a subject in Yoruba. In this paper, we examine the occurrence of inalienable possessive unaccusative constructions in Yorùbá and propose that only such constructions are permitted to retain (some remnants of) their underlying subject in non-equative unaccusative constructions. We also notes that such constructions are restricted to verbs that appear to be agentless transitive verbs (Tuite 2009) which denote events that are not usually due to the experiencer's volition.

Keywords: unaccusative, possession, Yoruba syntax

1. Introduction

This paper examines the occurrence of unaccusative constructions in Yorùbá and proposes that only inalienable unaccusative constructions are permitted to retain (some remnants of) their underlying subject in non-equative unaccusative constructions. It also notes that such constructions are restricted to verbs that are agentless transitive verbs (Tuite 2009). They denote events that are not (usually) due to the experiencer's volition. Added to that, unlike what is attestable in unaccusative constructions where the original subject noun phrase is absent, inalienable possessive unaccusative constructions do not require the absence of their original experiencer subject noun phrase. Instead, the subject NP that was assigned a nominative case is embedded in the underlying object that undergoes an argument movement (A-movement) in the derivation of the unaccusative construction. They are licensed by unaccusative verbs. And, their agents are reduced. Their insertion into a sentence often involves a syntactic movement from the object to the subject position. Unaccusativity appears to change the basic word order of the Yoruba sentence because it involves an argument movement of the object noun phrase to the subject position. First, let us highlight the basic word order of the Yoruba language so that the modification introduced in unaccusative constructions may be obvious to the readers.

2. Word order

The basic word order in Yoruba is subject verb object (SVO).

- (1) *Bádèjò rí Fìjábì ní Ibadán*
Badejo see Fijabi in Ibadan
'Badejo saw Fijabi in Ibadan'

This contrasts with non-equative unaccusative constructions where each anticausative form has a causative counterpart from which we presume the anticausative form is derived.

Furthermore, we note that the causative/agentive subject of the causative sentence is absent when an unaccusative construction is derived. Even though the anticausative verb shows us the event that affects the unaccusative subject noun phrase, it does not show the cause of the event. This is not very different from what is attested with the unaccusative sentences derived from the agentless transitive verbs. Here, the cause of the event that the unaccusative subject is experiencing is not shown either.

We also observed that a remnant of the subject of the agentless transitive verb is retained in the moved object noun phrase in form of the embedded pronoun indicating who experiences the event that the verb connotes. This is unique to the extent that the underlying subject is not completely absent as seen broadly in unaccusative constructions.

Notes

¹ We are grateful to the anonymous reviewer for his comments. Remaining errors are ours.

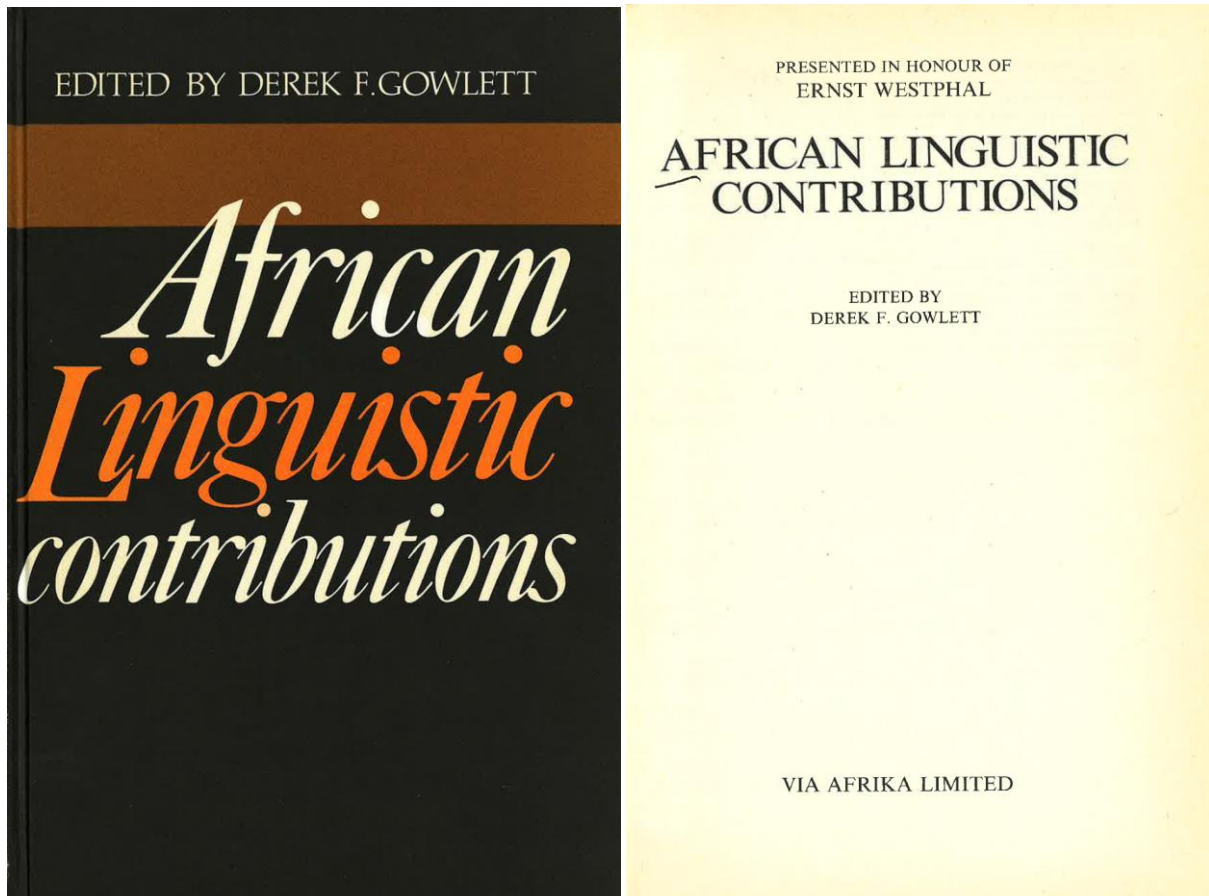
² An apparent exception to this generalization is a subset of Yoruba complex verbs that connote termination or final resolution like *parí* 'finish' and *yánjú* 'resolve'. In these examples, a noun is embedded in the complex verb.

- (1a) *Gbádébò yanjú òrò*
Gbadebo resolve issue
'Gbadebo has resolved the issue'
(1b) *Òrò yanjú*
issue resolve
'The issue is resolved'

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Article 3



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W. HAACKE
AFRICAN LANGUAGES UNIVERSITY OF NAMIBIA

Compound noun phrases in Nama

Conjoined NPs in Nama are generally considered to be co-ordinated by the conjunction *tsi* 'and' and followed by a final NP which consists of nothing but a nominal designant (person-gender-number marker) that reflects the sum of all the persons, genders and numbers, viz.

- [1] [Petr] *tsi* [Lissi] *tsira* ge ra . . .
III,m.sg + III,f.sg = III,common, dual
Peter and Lizzy are . . .
- [2] [Sa] *tsi* [ti] *tsi* [ti] *tsida* ge ra . . .
II,m.sg + I.sg + III,f.sg = I,neut.pl
You and I and she . . .

(The square brackets demarcate the stem or "lexical specification" of the surface nominal. Illustrations are confined here to subject-NPs in the nominative.)

Dempwolff (1934: 60), for instance, states that:
Mehrere . . . Subjekte werden durch die Konjunktion *tsi* "und" 'kopulativ' in der Weise verbunden, dass hinter das letzte Subjekt noch einmal *tsi* "zusammen" mit demjenigen Suffix gesetzt wird, das die einzelnen Subjekte sinngemäss zusammenfasst.

Several . . . subjects are conjoined "copulatively" by the conjunction *tsi* "and" in such a way that after the last subject *tsi* "together" is repeated with that suffix which logically comprises all the subjects. (own translation, W.H.)

Cf. also Rust (1965: 22)

Werden zwei oder mehr Substantiva, Namen, Fürwörter zusammengefasst, so liebt es die Namaspache, die zusammenfassende Reihe durch ein nach-

Conclusion

The present analysis provides additional evidence for the correctness of the hypothesis that Nama surface nouns are of sentential origin. The hypothesis:

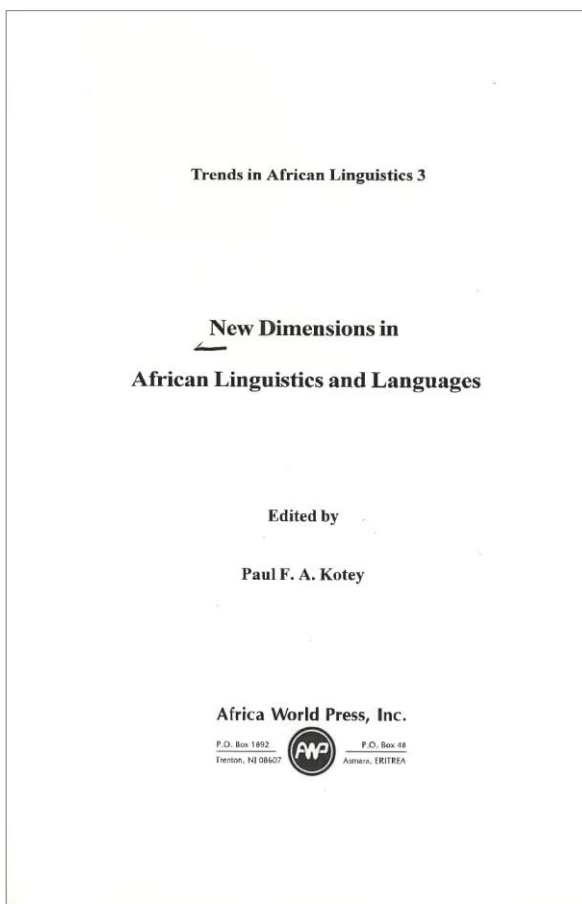
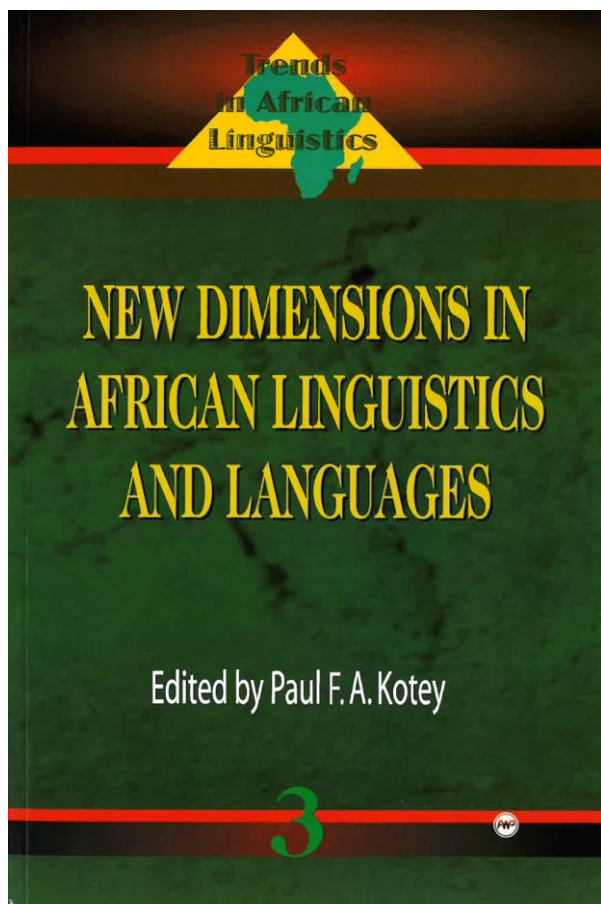
- (a) explains why Nama has "nouns" in the first and second as well as the third person, cf. (4);
(b) explains why Nama has "tensed" and negative nominals; cf. (12a), or the Sesfontein version of *tita* "I", viz. [tia]ta;
(c) proves the contention that Nama has "copulative sentences" consisting of solely a noun (with S-type marker) to be fallacious, viz.
(6) *aob* ge < **ao* a b ge < (5) **b* ge a *ao*
"It/he is a man";
(d) shows that the so-called "accusative" (now "oblique") [*Stem (INFL) IN*] *a* is not a case form in the classical sense, but rather a predicative embedded clause;
(e) proves that the "complement NP" of so-called copulative sentences in fact is a deposed subject (viz. [Ti *da*]s ge [ne]sa < [Ne]s ge a ti *da* "This one is my daughter", cf. Haacke 1978, 1979);
(f) allows one to derive each of the various syntactic surface structures – i.e. copulative or predicative – from the same underlying structure;
(g) with the present analysis of surface "compound NPs", accounts for the last major remaining problem of Nama NPs.

A theoretical question still to be solved, however, is whether the present hypothesis merely provides a diachronic reconstruction, or whether it has psychological reality in synchronic terms and could thus be reconciled with the universals of core grammar as currently perceived. The strength of the evidence seems to suggest that the reconstruction has too much psychological reality simply to be dismissed in an attempt to postulate a synchronic theory of the language.

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Article 4



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Four Tones and Downtrend: A Preliminary Report on Pitch Realiza- tion in Mambila

Bruce Connell

University of Oxford

0. Introduction

One of the more developed areas in pitch research, on both tone and non-tonal or intonation languages, has been concerned with F0 downtrends over the course of an utterance. Particularly in European languages this research has frequently focused on declination. However when considering tone languages of the sort generally found in Africa, declination is not the only source of F0 lowering: phenomena such as downdrift, (e.g. Hombert 1974), downstep--automatic or non-automatic (Stewart 1983), downglide and final lowering (Welmers 1973) have all been discussed in the literature. One of the fundamental areas of debate is the relative importance of the roles of phonetics and phonology in determining downtrend phenomena (see Snider and van der Hulst 1993 for discussion). One means of finding evidence to resolve the debate--or at least further it--is through experimental work. However, detailed experimental studies of tone languages are still relatively few: pitch realization has been examined in a small number of languages with two or three level tones, most notably Igbo (Laniran 1992b; Liberman, Schultz, Hong and Okeke 1993); Hausa (Lindau 1986; Inkelas and Leben 1990), and Yoruba (Connell and Ladd 1990; Laniran 1992a), though to date there have been almost no instrumental studies of languages with four lexically distinctive tone levels. Instrumental analyses have been done on Bamileke Dschang (Bird and Stegen 1993) as having both H and L tones subject to downstep, giving four tone levels, and Anlo Ewe (Clements 1991), presented as having four phonetic tone levels. Over the past two decades, researchers concerned with intonation languages (e.g. Gussenhoven

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2. Suggested solutions

2.3 Referencing

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The name of the publisher becomes really long. You might choose to only mention the highest organisational unit, i.e. the university, and leave out the department, but giving all the information that you can find on the first page is of course always okay.

Baldi, Sergio & Kyallo Wadi Wamitila. 2014. Ideophones in Swahili: A preliminary survey. In Kraska-Szlenk, Iwona & Beata Wójtowicz (eds.), *Current research in African studies: Papers in honour of mwalimu Dr. Eugeniusz Rzewuski*, 39–60. Warsaw: Elipsa.

Dom Wydawniczy means publishing house, and if you know that you can leave it out, but if you don't know that, it might be safer to keep it.

Connell, Bruce. 1999. Four tones and downtrend: A preliminary report on pitch realization in Mambila. In Paul F. A. Kotey (ed.), *New dimensions in African linguistics and languages* (Trends in African linguistics 3), 75–88. Trenton, NJ & Asmara: Africa World press.

- **Trends in African linguistics 3** is not part of the title, it is smaller than the title and the number indicates it is the name of a series. It may be added after the title, in parentheses, not in italics, but it is not obligatory.
- Two cities are mentioned. You may give both or only one.
- **Inc.** is a legal abbreviation, not a part of the publisher's name, and it is not necessary.

Haacke, W. 1992. Compound noun phrases in Nama. In Derek F. Gowlett (ed.), *African linguistic contributions*, 189–194. Pretoria: Via Afrika.

- **Limited** is a legal expression, not part of the name, and it can be left out.
- **Hatfield** is a district in Pretoria.
- ***Presented in honour of Ernst Westphal*** might be added as a subtitle, but since it is printed above the main title it is not obligatory to do so. It's also not there on the cover.

Unit 3. Clauses (11,13)

- *You need to paint the house!*
- *Oh, please, let's change the subject!*
- *Ok, the house needs to be painted by you.*

Utterances, sentences and clauses.

These concepts are used in somewhat different ways by different authors. One common way of distinguishing between them is:

Utterance: A piece of spoken or written “text” that conveys a certain “piece” of information.

Sentence: A piece of written text that is delimited by a major interpunction mark, i.e. full stop (.), question mark (?) or exclamation mark (!).

Clause: A grammatical unit that describes **one** event.

The most formal of these concepts is **clause**, which is therefore very commonly used in grammar.

When we want to analyse and break down a clause into its constituent parts we talk about **syntactic constituents**, **clause constituents** or **sentence constituents**.

A constituent is a word or a group of words that functions as a unit in the structure of a clause.

These constituents can be discussed from three different perspectives:

- their **grammatical form**,
- their **grammatical function**, and
- their **semantic role** (i.e. the meaning that they contribute).

Compare:

The cat <> chased <> the mouse.

The mouse <> chased <> the cat.

The grammatical **form** of all the words is exactly the same in both clauses.

If we look at the **functions** of the three constituents, we can see that there was some event, expressed by the **predicate** verb *chased*. There were also two **participants** in that event: *the cat* and *the mouse*. Those participants fill two grammatical functions, that of the grammatical **subject** and **object**.

Then, in English, how do we know the grammatical function of a participant?

Well, it is basically expressed by the word order. The subject precedes the verb and the object follows after it. Exceptions do of course occur, but rarely.

Compare that to the situation in Czech:

- (1) *Kočka honila myšku.*
‘The cat chased the mouse.’
Myška honila kočku.
‘The mouse chased the cat.’

In Czech the words for ‘cat’ and ‘mouse’ has different gramamtical **forms**. the participants are marked with endings that correspond to their grammatical **function** in the clause. Both *kočka* ‘cat’ and *myška* ‘mouse’ end with *-a* when they are the **subject** of the clause, and with *-u* when they are the **object**. This kind of marking is referred to as **case marking**. Czech has two different cases that help distinguish between the subject and the object. Therefore Czech clauses are not dependent on the word order in the way that English clauses are. We’ll learn more about **case** in Unit 6.

Thanks to the Czech case forms, it is also possible to say:

- (2) *Myšku honila kočka.* ‘The cat chased the mouse.’
Kočku honila myška. ‘The mouse chased the cat.’
Honila myška kočku. ‘The mouse chased the cat.’
Kočku myška honila. ‘The mouse chased the cat.’

Since the grammatical form of the constituents clearly tells us the function of each constituent, all those word orders (and a few more) are possible, even if they are less frequent than the Subject – Verb – Object word order, which is still the basic word order also in Czech.

Just to say a few words about the **semantic roles** in the above examples, the subject is very active and its semantic role would be referred to as the **agent** of the event. The other part, who is rather some sort of victim, but at the same time not physically affected, would be referred to as the semantic **theme** of the clause. We will learn more about the semantic roles later in this unit.

Constituents and categories

Before we continue, it is important to point out that there is an important difference between syntactic **constituents** or sentence constituents on the one hand, and syntactic **categories** or **word-classes** (traditionally also called parts of speech) on the other hand.

Constituents (Sw. satsdelar) refer to the grammatical function of a phrase

(or a word) in a clause, e.g. subject, predicate or object.

Categories or **word-classes** (Sw. ordklasser) refer to the type of word, e.g. verb, noun, pronoun, adjective, preposition, conjunction.

Since languages are different, the set of word-classes in a individual language is sometimes different from the set of word-classes in other languages.

Word-classes are important since words in different word-classes are used in specific ways in syntax, i.e. when building larger units such as phrases, clauses and sentences.

Certain subdivisions of word-classes are also relevant, e.g. proper nouns, common nouns, countable nouns, uncountable nouns and mass nouns sometimes behave differently.

A **verb** usually constitutes the central part of a clause. It serves as the clause constituent referred to as the **predicate**.

*The children **ate** their sandwiches.*

Verbs are usually accompanied by phrases containing **nouns** (or **pronouns**). The function of such **noun phrases** are usually **subject**, **object** or **adverbial**.

Some noun phrases are obligatory whereas others are optional.

*(Before school) the children **ate** their sandwiches (in the park) (with good apetite).*

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

Piove. 'It rains.'

In many languages, verbs are inflected in order to express the event's relation to time, e.g. Italian:

present:	<i>piove</i>	'it rains'
past:	<i>pioveva</i>	'it rained'
future:	<i>pioverà</i>	'it will rain'

Basic word order

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

SUBJECT	+	PREDICATE	+	OBJECT(s)
Noun Phrase	+	Verb phrase		
Noun Phrase	+	Verb phrase	+	Noun Phrase
Noun Phrase	+	Verb phrase	+	Noun Phrase + NounPhrase
Stefan		föll.		
Stephen		fell.		
Stefan		köpte		glass.
Stephen		bought		ice-cream.
Stefan		visade		polisen sitt leg.
Stephen		showed		the police his ID.

Since in many languages word order is crucial for determining the roles of the participants and subsequently the meaning of clauses, it attracts a lot of interest from linguists.

The most basic (common) word order is one of the things that is usually mentioned in a very short description of a certain language.

Subject – Verb – Object word order is then usually just referred to as SVO word order. So, both English and Czech have SVO as their basic word order, but English has quite strict SVO word order, while Czech is a less strict SVO language.

SVO languages: Subject – Verb – Object

Also Swahili has quite strict SVO word order.

More strict SVO: **Swahili, colloquial Arabic**, Chinese, English, Scandinavian languages...

Less strict SVO: Latin, Greek, Slavic languages...

Add examples

SOV languages: Subject – Object – Verb

It is more or less equally common that languages have the object in the position before the verb as after the verb. Amharic is a language with quite strict SOV word order.

More strict SOV: **Amharic, Tigrinya**, Japanese, Persian

Less strict SOV: **Somali**,

In Somali the grammatical function is defined by the grammatical forms of the syntactic constituents, i.e. through endings on the noun phrases. Word order is also very important, but it is not fully reliable.

The definite article ends in **-u if subject** (SBJ), and in **-a if not subject**. The words *waa*, *baa*, *ayaa* and *waxa* are focus particles (FOC) that put emphasis of one or the other of the syntactic constituents. The particle *soo* expresses movement towards the person.

Gabar-tu waa ay dhacday.
girl-the.SBJ FOC she fell
'The girl fell.'

Waa ay dhacday gabar-tu.

Gabar-tu ayskiriin-ka ayaa ay soo iibsatay.
girl-the.SBJ ice_cream-the FOC she towards traded
'The girl bought the ice-cream.'

Ayskiriin-ka ayaa ay gabar-tu soo iibsatay.

Ayskiriin-ka ayaa 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.

Verb-initial languages

Most languages start the clauses with the subject. Languages where clauses begin with the verb are far less common.

VSO languages: Verb – Subject – Object

More strict VSO: Classical Arabic, Berber languages, Celtic languages

Classical Arabic had VSO as its basic word order, whereas in modern colloquial Arabic, the word order has changed to SVO.

VOS languages: Verb – Object – Subject

Malagasy (spoken in Madagascar) has VOS word order, which is rare among the languages of the world.

Object initial languages

Languages where clauses start with the object are extremely rare.

One such language in Africa is Kxoe (a Khoesan language spoken in Angola and Namibia). It has a dominating OSV word order.

You can read more about basic word order in WALS (The World Atlas of Language Structure) at <https://wals.info/chapter/81>

Arguments

Different verbs have different requirements with respect to the number of nouns or noun phrases that must be present in the clause.

Obligatory noun phrases are referred to as the **arguments** of the verb.

0 arguments: Italian: *piove* '(it) rains'

1 argument: *run, sleep*

2 arguments: *rescue, watch*

3 arguments: *give, tell*

Intransitive vs. transitive verbs

Verbs usually have at least one argument, the subject. Quite few verbs have three arguments. This means that most verbs have one or two arguments.

1 argument, usually just a subject

2 arguments, usually subject + object

Since these two kinds of verbs are the most frequent type, a special linguistics category – transitivity – refers to this distinction.

Verbs that cannot be accompanied by an object are called **intransitive**, e.g.

sleep, fall, smile, laugh, walk

Verbs that require an object are called **transitive**, e.g.

buy, steal, say, watch, take, send

Some verbs in some languages may be used both as transitive and

intransitive, e.g. the English verbs *eat*, *read*.

Grammatical functions & Semantic roles

The grammatical (or syntactic) **functions** labelled **subject** and **object** correspond to **semantic roles** that reflect the meaning. The correspondence between grammatical functions and semantic roles is specific to each individual verb.

The kid fell

fall subject = theme
(the subj. is not actively doing anything)

Grandpa is walking

walk subject = agent

Lea saw an elephant

see subject = experiencer object = theme
(nothing happens to the obj.)

Tom ate a sandwich

eat subject = agent object = object
(something happens to the obj.)

Sue entered the airport terminal

enter subject = agent object = goal

Mike received a letter

receive subject = recipient object = theme

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]

The expression of grammatical functions

The grammatical functions, such as subject and object, can be expressed in several different ways 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 or noun phrases
Somali, Classical Arabic, Finnish, Russian, Latin,
3. by prepositions or particles that accompany the nouns or noun phrases
Japanese, Swedish, English
4. by affixes on the verb that refer to and indicate the subject and/or object
Swahili
5. by pronouns that occur before the verb and indicate the subject
Somali

Active and passive clause structure

Some languages have an ability to reorganise the clause structure and change the grammatical object into a grammatical subject, using a special **passive verb form**. The semantic roles of course remain the same.

Active clause

(ordinary) active verb

grammatical *semantic*

SUBJECT = AGENT

OBJECT = THEME

Passive clause

passive verb

grammatical *semantic*

SUBJECT = THEME

ADVERBIAL = AGENT (may be omitted)

Active clause

Sahra opened the window

subject object

agent theme

Passive clause

The window was opened (by Sahra)

subject adverbial *gr. function*

theme agent *semantic role*

There are 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.

Some languages don’t have passive verb forms, e.g., Somali. Instead, Somali has flexible word order, and the subject can occur at the end of an active clause.

Somali: active verb with clause final subject

Buug-gan waxaa qor-ay saaxiib-kay.

book-this FIN.FOC write-PST friend-my

‘This book was written by a friend of mine.’

Somali also 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 (Sw. man)’:

Buug-gan waxaa **la** qor-ay waqti dhow.

book-this FIN.FOC **one** write-PST time close

‘This books was written recently.’

Therefore, there is really no need for a passive 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.

FIN.FOC I open-PST door-the

‘I opened the door.’

Waxaa **la** fur-ay albaabka.

FIN.FOC **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 FOC it open-ANT.CAUS-PAST

‘The door opened.’ (by itself; no person opened it)

This type of verbs are called **anti-causative**. The anti-causative suffix in Somali is **-m-**. It is very different from a passive form. **Anti-causative** verbs express, just as the term suggest, that nobody causes the event.

Deep vs. surface structure

Sometimes one and the same situation may be described in different ways. The semantic structure of that situation is then referred to as the **deep structure**, which might be something like in (3).

(3) (semantic) deep structure

children (agent) + see (past) + cat (theme)

When we want to express this in some language, we need to put this deep structure into words. The utterances that we choose may differ, and there is often more than one option that corresponds to the same deep structure. The different possible utterances are referred to as **surface structures**, two of which are given in (4).

- (4) a. *The children saw the cat.*
b. *The cat was seen by the children.*

3. Glossing

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

“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 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. [...]

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. [...]

Rule 1: Word-by-word alignment

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

(Comrie, Haspelmath & Balthasar 2008)

(1) Somali

Sahra isaga ma arkin.

Sahra he not saw

'Sahra didn't see him.'

(personal knowledge)

As you have probably noticed, you should put your example sentence on the first line in italics with a little bit of extra space between the words.

(If you want the readers to focus their attention to a specific word in the example, you may put that word in boldface.)

Then, exactly under each word you give the most literal and exact translation of the word. You should not choose a translation that happens to be more suitable in this specific context, but stick to the most general translation that would work in most contexts. You might also want to choose a slightly smaller font for this word by word translation.

On the last line you give an idiomatic and natural translation of the whole sentence. Try to choose a translation that is as close as possible to the original sentence in the source language, without making it sound unnatural. Use single citation marks before and after the translation.

You can have three or four lines in your glossed examples

(State the language in a parenthesis, if you have examples from various languages)

1. The example in standard orthography (Also e.g. Chinese, Russian etc.)
2. The example segmented into relevant morphemes (always in Latin script if you are writing in English or another Latin based language)
3. The morpheme-by-morpheme glossing
4. The idiomatic translation

Line 1 should be in italics.

Line 2 in Roman.

Line 3 also in Roman, but you may make the font one size smaller.

Line 4 in Roman and within single citation marks.

(Somali)

halkan

hal-k-an

place-M-this

'here'

If line 1 and 2 differ quite little, then you can leave out line 1

(Somali)

hal-k-an
place-M-this
'here'

M = masculine

“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. [...]

Since hyphens and vertical alignment make the text look unusual, authors may want to add another line at the beginning, containing the unmodified text [...].

Clitic boundaries are marked by an equal sign, both in the object language and in the gloss.”

(Comrie, Haspelmath & Balthasar 2008)

Stated very simply, a clitic is a word that cannot be used on its own. It always attaches to another word that functions as the host of the clitic word. According to the spelling rules of some languages, clitics may be written together with its host as one written word. In example (2) the subject pronoun *uu* ‘he’ is considered a clitic since it attaches to the preceding word, but in Somlai the two words can equally well be written separately, i.e. *wuu* or *waa uu*.

Somali

- (2) a. *Wiil-k-u w=uu yimid.*
boy-the-SBJ FOC=he came
‘The boy has arrived.’

- b. *Wiilku wuu yimid.*
wiil-k-u w=uu yimid
boy-the-SBJ FOC=he came
‘The boy has arrived.’

(personal knowledge)

“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 [Comrie, Haspelmath & Balthasar (2008)].

Deviations from these standard abbreviations may of course be necessary in

particular cases [...]. 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.”

(Comrie, Haspelmath & Balthasar 2008)

There are often many alternative ways of glossing the same example. Depending on what your purpose is, you might want to gloss different things, to give more or less detailed grammatical information.

If you don't want to divide words into morphemes, but still want to add some grammatical information, you would use a dot followed by a glossing abbreviation, as in *brought.F* and *big.PL* in (3b).

(3) Somali

- a. *Maryan waxa ay keen-t-ay kubbad-o waa-weyn oo badan.*
 PN FOC 3SF bring-F-PST ball-PL PL-big and many
 ‘Ahmed brought lots of big balls.’
- b. *Maryan waxa ay keentay kubbado waaweyn oo badan.*
 Maryan FOC she brought.F balls big.PL and many
 ‘Ahmed brought lots of big balls.’ (personal knowledge)

At the end (or beginning) of your text, you should always present a list of the abbreviations that you have used, at least if you use abbreviations that are not on the standard Leipzig list. If you only use standard Leipzig abbreviations, you don't have to list them.

A few standard glossing abbreviations

Anyhow, here are all the abbreviations from the preceding examples as well as a few other common ones. They are all on the standard Leipzig list.

- 3SF third person singular, feminine
- ART article
- DEF definite
- DEM demonstrative
- F feminine
- FOC focus
- FUT future
- GEN genitive
- IMP imperative
- INF infinitive
- M masculine

N	neuter
NEG	negation, negative
NOM	nominative
OBJ	object
PASS	passive
PL	plural
PN	proper noun
PST	past
POSS	possessive
PRS	present
Q	question particle/marker
SBJ	subject
SG	singular

If you can't find the abbreviations that you need, you are allowed to make up your own abbreviations as long as you spell them out in a list containing all the abbreviations that you have used in your text or article.

But you should always try to use the abbreviations that are already in use by other linguists. There is an extensive list on Wikipedia that is very helpful: https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/List_of_glossing_abbreviations

3. Read some more

An simple introduction to phrase structure rules and word order typology, Cambridge College:

<https://blog.cambridgecoaching.com/an-introduction-to-phrase-structure-rules-and-word-order-typology?tags=3136887339>

Section 4.1 to 4.5 in Richter (ed.). 2006. [*First Steps in Theoretical and Applied Linguistics*](#).

About Semantic roles

- <https://glossary.sil.org/term/semantic-role> (Summer institute of Linguistics)
- <http://elies.rediris.es/elies11/cap5111.htm> (Linguistics, Barcelona university)
- <https://www.ilc.cnr.it/EAGLES96/rep2/node8.html>
- https://www.uio.no/studier/emner/matnat/ifi/INF5830/h15/teaching-material/inf5830_semanticroles.pdf (Oslo university)
- <https://pages.uoregon.edu/tpayne/EG595/HO-Srs-and-GRs.pdf> (University of Oregon)
- https://semantic-annotation.uvt.nl/LIRICS_semroles.htm (Tilburg univeristy)

3. Watch some videos

Morphosyntax (11 min.) | Taylor Benhke

<https://youtu.be/B1r1grQiLdk>

Syntactic Categories (Wordclasses) (6 min.) | Aze Linguistics

<https://youtu.be/oturENENbiM>

Syntactic constituents (Phrases) (7 min.) | Aze Linguistics

<https://youtu.be/RZXoUjLG1io>

Syntactic categories and phrases (6 min.) | Aze Linguistics

<https://youtu.be/Fk3lkHv6j4U>

Syntax: Introduction & Glossing (13 min.) | TrevTutor

<https://youtu.be/OBGA9DZT6Ns>

Agent and Theme (10 min.) | Aze

<https://youtu.be/TYuoLiN8OX8>

More Thematic Roles (9 min.) | Aze

<https://youtu.be/dt9qDYq8oIs>

Glossing comments

Syntax: Introduction & Glossing (13 min.) | TrevTutor

(some 4 minutes into the video) <https://youtu.be/OBGA9DZT6Ns?t=247>

You could just as well gloss French *ne* as 'not' and *je* as '1sg'

Je ne mange jamais de viande.

I NEGATIVE eat never of meat.

"I never eat meat."

(some 6 minutes into the video) <https://youtu.be/OBGA9DZT6Ns?t=375>

There is an evident mistake in this slide from TrevTutor

The student-s ask-ed for these books
DEF.ART student-PL ask-PAST for DEM.PL book-PL

"The students asked for these books."

What's the mistake?

3. Read about SOMALI

Here are some videos that will give you some inspiration and basic information:

The Somali Language (30 min.) | Morgan

https://youtu.be/RB_8idoVGr4

There is also a rather good [Somali language](#) playlist on YouTube produced by Sam of Somalia.

Listen to what Somali sounds like in a couple of videos on YouTube:

1 to 10 (2 min.) | Maweelo

https://youtu.be/vJW3T20_MZ0

Numbers in Somali from 0 to 10 (4 min.) | Slava Shkirskiy

https://youtu.be/es_EgiuxkSU

Somaliland vs Somalia... do we even speak the same language? (19 min.)

| Maya Axmed

These girls are just joking, they understand each other very well in Somali, but laugh at some differences in the vocabulary, pretty much like the differences between British and American English.

https://youtu.be/n-ZBoE8rA_o

The following texts were produced by students in previous years. Read them critically.

Text 1

Somali is spoken in the Horn of Africa within an area encompassing the whole of Somalia with Puntland and Somaliland, the south-eastern part of Djibouti, the eastern part of Ethiopia and the eastern part of Kenya. Moreover it is spoken by a great number of Somalis living outside that area, in many countries of the world. In particular, in Sweden the number of Somali speakers is at least 100 000 (Nilsson 2020: 1-6). According to Nilsson (2020: 4) the number of speakers in the world is 24-28 million. Another estimate, 22 millions, is given by Ethnologue (2023) The Somali language belongs to the Cushitic language family, which is a subfamily of the Afro-Asiatic language family according to Nilsson (2020: 8) and Biber & Saeed (2003: 106).

Somali has 22 consonants and 5 vowel letters, if the heavy vowels and diphthongs and the heavy consonants are not counted (Nilsson 2023: 14-18). According to Ethnologue (2023) there are 22 consonant and 10 vowel phonemes.

The really big language Oromo, with 30 million speakers, belongs like Somali to a sub-sub-group, Eastern Cushitic Lowland languages of the Cushitic language group, and is hence closely related to Somali (Nilsson 2020: 13).

The Semitic language family is, like the Cushitic language family, part of the Afro-Asiatic language family. Hence the well-known Semitic languages Arabic and Amharic are distantly related to Somali (Nilsson 2023: 13).

Would be nice to have either hanging indentation or spacing between paragraphs in the references.

References:

Biber, Douglas & John Saeed. 2003. Somali. In Frawley, William J. (ed.), *International Encyclopedia of Linguistics, Volume 4*, 106-109. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Ethnologue. 2023. Somali. <https://www.ethnologue-com.ezproxy.ub.gu.se/language/som/> (2023.09.15)

Nilsson, Morgan. 2020. A few things about Somali. <https://morgannilsson.se/AFewThingsAboutSomali.pdf> (2023-09-15)

Nilsson, Morgan. 2023. Beginner's Somali Grammar. <https://morgannilsson.se/BeginnersSomaliGrammar.pdf> (2023-09-15)

Text 2

The Somali language, a prominent member of the Lowland East Cushitic subfamily within the expansive Afro-Asiatic language family, serves as the lingua franca for approximately 7.8 million inhabitants in Somalia. Its influence, however, extends far beyond the Somali borders, reaching into regions of Djibouti, Ethiopia, Kenya, Yemen, and Somaliland, which contributes to a total of roughly 21.8 million speakers worldwide (Ager 1988-2023).

Preferable only one year, and at the bottom of that page it says *Page last modified: 20.06.23*

Historically, the Somali language underwent a significant transformation in its script. Initially influenced by Arabic phonetics, it embraced a writing system known as the Wadaad, which consisted of 32 letters, including 10 vowels. This era marked a period of rich linguistic evolution, fostering a profound connection with Arabic linguistic traditions. Nowadays, the language has streamlined its structure, adopting a script with 21 consonants and 5 vowels, which allows for a vibrant expression of Somali oral traditions and literature (Wikipedia 2023).

Within the broader spectrum of the Cushitic languages, Somali shares its roots with several other languages, including Oromo, which is mainly spoken in Ethiopia and Kenya (Orwin 1995: page). Delving into its deeper linguistic lineage, Somali exhibits distant relations with other branches of the Afro-Asiatic family, including the Semitic and Egyptian languages. These

connections paint a picture of a rich tapestry of languages, interwoven over centuries, showcasing the dynamic and diverse linguistic landscape that the Afro-Asiatic family presents (Britanica 2023).

References:

Ager, Simon. 2023. Somali (af Soomaali / آف صومالي). <https://www.omniglot.com/writing/somali.htm> (access date)

Britanica. 2023. Afro-Asiatic languages summary. <https://www.britannica.com/summary/Afro-Asiatic-languages> (17 September, 2023)

Orwin, Martin. 1995. *Colloquial Somali: a complete language course*. London and New York: Routledge.

italics for titles of printed publications.

Wikipedia. 2023. Somali language. https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Somali_language (17 September, 2023)

Text 3

The Horn of Africa is indeed a region where Somali people are primarily concentrated. The Somali people are an ethnic group native to the Horn of Africa, which includes countries such as Somalia, Somaliland, parts of Djibouti, parts of Ethiopia, and parts of Kenya. Most Somali people live in these countries and have a shared language and cultural heritage (Nilsson 2022). According to Wikipedia (2019) noted that Somali speakers are over 21.8 million. The Horn of Africa is the place where Somali people reside in the world except for the diaspora who spread all over the globe. Somali belongs to the Cushitic branch of the Afroasiatic language family. Oromo and Afar are indeed closely related to Somalia, sharing a common ancestry within the Cushitic subgroup. Somali has been influenced by several other languages due to historical interactions as well as Arabic and Italian. Somali language has 21 consonants and 5 vowel sounds which can be pronounced in both long and short forms, resulting in a total of 10 vowel phonemes (Orwin, 1995).

Use last name for references in the text, except for Somali names where you would use both first name and father's name.

References

Orwin, M. (1995). *Colloquial Somali: A complete language course*. Psychology Press.

Wikipedia. (2019). Somali Language. https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Somali_language (2023 date)

Morgan, N. (2022) UNIVERSITY OF GOTHENBURG DEPARTMENT OF LANGUAGES AND LITERATURES. <https://morgannilsson.se/AFewThingsAboutSomali.pdf> (2023 date)

No need to put year of publication in parentheses.
Italics for printed publications.

Text 4

The Somali language is a Cushitic language spoken by people in the horn of Africa; Somalia and Somaliland as well as parts of Djibouti, Ethiopia and Kenya (Appleyard & Martin 2008: page). Eifring and Theil (2005) estimate the number of speakers to be around 10 million, with the majority found in Somalia and Ethiopia, whereas Wolff (2018) lists and estimated 15 million speakers.

Languages closely related to Somali include Afar, a Lowland East Cushitic language spoken by around 1,8 million people in Somali and Ethiopia (Williams 2023) as well as Rendille and Boni, which along with Somali belong to the Omo-Tana group of the Lowland East Cushitic family (Wolff, 2018). It is distantly related to semitic languages, such as Arabic, Hebrew and Amharic (Lewis 2009).

References

Appleyard, David & Orwin, Martin. 2008. The Horn of Africa: Ethiopia, Eritrea, Djibouti, and Somalia. In Simpson, Andrew (Ed.), *Language and national identity in Africa*, 267-290. Oxford; New York: Oxford University Press.

Eifring, Halvor & Theil, Rolf. 2005. *Linguistics for Students of Asian and African Languages*. Universitetet i Oslo.

Lewis, Toby. 2009. Somali. <https://ethnomed.org/culture/somali/> 17 September 2023.

Williams, Elizabeth. 2023. Languages similar to Somali – 3 interesting choices. <https://high-erlanguage.com/languages-similar-to-somali/> 17 September 2023.

Wolff, H. Ekkehard. 2018. Cushitic languages. *Encyclopedia Britannica*. <https://www.britannica.com/topic/Cushitic-languages>. 17 September 2023.

Text 5

Somali language is among the most widely spoken languages in Africa considering the number of its speakers, the wide geographical area that its spoken as well as its large and diasporic speakers across the globe. Somali is mainly spoken in the Somali inhabited territories in the Horn of Africa, which include Somalia, Djibouti, the Somali region in Ethiopia and North-Eastern Kenya.

Somali native speakers are estimated around 26 million across the globe (Nilsson 2022:14). It's the official language of Somalia and used as a medium of instruction in primary education,

public administration as well as media (Andrzejewski 2011). In the Somali region of Ethiopia, the language is also used in primary education and in some extent regional administration.

The language belongs to the Cushitic languages, subgroup of the Afro-Asiatic family (Eifring & Theil, 2005:20). Oromo, the most widely spoken Cushitic language with its over 30 million native speakers, is considered related to Somali and both belongs belong to the lowland east Cushitic. Arabic and Amharic, widely spoken semitic languages in the continent, are distantly related to Somali as members of Afro-Asiatic language family.

Although Somali and Swahili are not related linguistically, but Swahili is partly spoken in southern Somalia (Vianello 2012:660), and Swahili borrowed words can be found in Somali due to the long-established contact and trade between Swahili city states along Indian Ocean.

Somali is written in Latin script and has 22 consonants, several of them represent sounds that are not found in English such as x and c, while others consist of two consonants representing one sound such as kh, dh and sh. The language has 5 vowels but in two forms for each: short and long.

List of References

Nilsson, Morgan. 2020. A few things about Somali. Gothenburg: University of Gothenburg. <https://morgannilsson.se/AFewThingsAboutSomali.pdf> (17 September 2023).

Andrzejewski, B. W. 2011. On the Somali passion for poetry and language. *Journal of African Cultural Studies* 23 (1). 81-84.

Don't underline journal title, make it italics.

Eifring, Halvor & Theil, Rolf. 2005. Linguistics for Students of Asian and African Languages. Oslo: University of Oslo. <https://www.uio.no/studier/emner/hf/ikos/EXFAC03-AAS/h05/larestoff/linguistics/> (17 September 2023).

Don't use italics if the publication has not been published as a book.

Alessandra Vianello. 2012. One hundred years in Brava: The migration of the 'Umar Bā 'Umar from Hadhramaut to East Africa and back, c. 1890–1990. *Journal of Eastern African Studies* 6 (4). 655-671.

Italics for journal

Text 6

Somali is a language that belongs to the Cushitic language family, which in turn belongs to Afroasiatic languages, which is one of Africa's largest language groups. Nilsson. (2023 s,12) 17-September -2023

Use (2023: 12). Don't give access date in the text, only in the reference list.

Somali is spoken in Somalia, Kenya, Ethiopia, Djibouti, and part of the world as many Somali speakers have moved to other countries. Örebro bibliotek 17- September 2023 Somaliska.

Is this a text written by Örebro bibliotek? The year it was written is missing.

Somali has 22 consonants och 10 vowels which means five short vowels and five long vowels.

neutral and fronted?

Two languages that are closely related are Oromo over 30 million and Sidamo about 3 million.

Two languages that are not close to Somali, but belong to the same language family, are Arabic with about 300 million speakers and Amharic about 25 million. Nilsson. (2023 s,12) 17- September 2023

Örebro bibliotek 17- September 2023 (not given date for publication).

If there is no date of publication you would write **Örebro bibliotek (no date)** or **Örebro bibliotek (n. d.)**

References

Nilsson. (2023 s,12) 17- September 2023 <https://morgannilsson.se/Lite%20om%20somaliskan.pdf>

No pages in the reference list.

Access date in parenthesis after link.

Örebro bibliotek. No date. Månadens språk: somaliska. <https://bibliotek.orebro.se/sv/content-page/m%C3%A5nadens-spr%C3%A5k-somaliska> (17 September 2023)

Nilsson, first name. (2023 s,12) 17- September 2023 Title missing. <https://morgannilsson.se/Lite%20om%20somaliskan.pdf>

Text 7

The Somali language belongs to the Cusitic branch of the Afroasiatic languages alongside the Oromo. Somali is the second largest of the Cushitic languages, with some 26 million native speakers, next only to its close relative, Oromo with 30 million native speakers. Somali is spoken in Somalia (including Somaliland), Eastern Ethiopia and Eastern Kenya as well as south eastern Djibouti. Somali language have a considerable diaspora in Northern America, Europe, Middle Eastern and in other African countries. Nilsson (2020: page).

Other well known languages that are distantly related to the Somali are the two semitic languages arabic and Hebrew, that both belong to Afroasiatic languages.

As a native speaker of the language as well as having the language as my professional tool, I counted the Somali alphabet to a total of 22 consonants and five vowels (and another five diphthongs i.e long/double vowels).

Sources:

Nilsson, Morgan. 2023. A few things about Somali. Gothenburg: University of Gothenburg.
<https://morgannilsson.se/Lite%20om%20somaliskan.pdf> (access date missing)

https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=RB_8idoVGr4

<https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=urKp0CYLVx8>

References, rather than Sources.

A link is not enough, there should always be

Author/Institution. Year. Title. Link (access date)

3. Practice

3.1 – Basic Somali morphosyntax (new)

Somali is an Afro-Asiatic language in the Cushitic group. It is spoken by approximately 26 million people in the Horn of Africa.

Gloss the examples.

What grammatical rules can you suggest for Somali?

Tani naag ma aha.

‘This is not a woman.’

Kani nin ma aha.

‘This is not a man.’

Ninkani naagtan ma arkin.

‘This man didn’t see this woman.’

Naagtanina ma arkin ninkaas.

‘And this woman didn’t see that man.’

How would you say?

That man didn’t see that woman.

3.2 – Basic Malagasy morphosyntax (new)

Malagasy is an Austronesian language. It is spoken by approximately 26 million people in Madagascar.

Gloss the examples.

What grammatical rules can you suggest for Malagasy?

Mpitsabo i Peter.
'Peter is a doctor.'

Mitsabo ny mpiofana izy
'He treats the trainees.'

Tsy mitsabo ny mpampiofana izy.
'He doesn't treat the trainers.'

Mitsabo ny mpiofana i Peter.
'Peter treats the trainees.'

Tsy mitsabo ny mpampiofana i Peter
'Peter doesn't treat the trainers.'

Iza no mitsabo ny mpampiofana?
'Who treats the trainers?'

Mitsabo ny mpampiofana i Boda.
'Boda treats the trainers.'

Mianatra inona i John?
'What does John study?'

Manao inona ianao?
'What are you doing?'

3.3 – Basic Engenni morphosyntax (11.3)

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

Gloss the examples.

What grammatical rules can you suggest for Engenni?

Edei dori næ Ade.
'The tall man is Ade.'

Ade doriĵa.
'Ade is tall.'

Ade do eseni.
'Ade stole fish.'

Edei ðemu næ du eseni.
'The fat man bought fish.'

Edei næ aðiðæ.
'The man is rich.'

Aðiðæ næ ðemuĵa.
'The rich man is fat.'

Aðiðæ næ wu.
'The rich man died.'

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.

3.4 – Basic Wolaytta morphosyntax (11.2)

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

Gloss the examples.

What grammatical rules can you suggest for Wolaytta?

Ta na 'ai ne machchiyo be 'iis.
'My son saw your wife.'

Ne aawai ta aayiyo be 'iis.
'Your father saw my mother.'

Ta machchiya ne aayiyo maddaasu.
'My wife helped your mother.'

Ta ishai ne ishaa machchiyo maddiis.
'My brother helped your brother's wife.'

Ne aawaa aawai ne na 'aa be 'iis.
'Your father's father saw your son.'

Ne na 'aa machchiya ta machchiyo aawaa be 'aasu.
'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.

3. Suggested solutions

3.1 Somali

Tani	naag	ma	aha
this.F.SG.SBJ	woman	not	is
Tan-i		ma	aha
This.F.SG-SBJ		NEG	COP.PRS

T-an-i
Ta-n-i
F.SG-DEM.PROX-SBJ
'This is not a woman.'

COP copular (verb) (that's the linguistic label for the verb 'to be')
DEM demonstrative
DIST distal (i.e. distant)
F feminine
M masculine
NEG negative/negator (particle)
PROX proximal (i.e. close by)
PRS present (tense)
SG singular

b)

Kani	nin	ma	aha
This.SBJ	man	not	is
Kan-i		ma	aha
This.M.SG-SBJ		NEG	COP.PRS
K-an-i			
Ka-n-i			
M.SG-DEM.PROX-SBJ			
'This is not a man.'			

c)

Ninkan-i	naagtan	ma	arkin.
this.man-SBJ	this.woman	not	saw
Nin-kan-i	naag-tan		arkin
man-this-SBJ	woman-this	NEG	see.PST

Nin-ka-n-i	naag-ta-n
Nin-k-an-i	naag-t-an
man-M.SG-DEM.PROX-SBJ	woman-F.SG-DEM.PROX

‘This man didn’t see this woman.’

d)

Naag-tan-i=na	ma	arkin	nin-kaas.
woman-this.F-SBJ=and	not	saw	man-that
Naag-ta-n-i=na			
Naag-t-an-i=na	ma	arkin	nin-k-aas.
woman-F.SG-DEM.PROX-SBJ=and	NEG	see.PST	man-M.SG-DEM.DIST

‘And this woman didn’t see that man.’

Grammatical rules

- Somali descriptive sentences are mostly SOV. (However very difficult to establish based on these few examples.)
- Forms of nouns seem to be agglutinative.
- Somali has at least two grammatical genders, feminine and masculine.
- The subject typically comes first.
- The negative particle precedes the verb.
- Demonstratives are added as endings to nouns.
- Demonstratives must agree with nouns in gender.

‘That man didn’t see that woman.’
Ninkaasi ma arkin naagtaas. /or/ Ninkaasi naagtaas ma arkin.

3.2 Malagasy *

will be checked and fixed shortly

Mpitsabo	i	Peter. (Malagasy)
----------	---	-------------------

Doctor	Peter
--------	-------

‘Peter is a doctor.’

Mpitsabo	i	Peter.
----------	---	--------

doctor.SG	SBJ	Peter
-----------	-----	-------

‘Peter is a doctor.’

Mpitsabo i Peter.

doctor-noun (i-marker for proper noun) Peter-noun.

Peter is a doctor.

*Mpitsabo i Peter.

Doctor is Peter

‘Peter is a doctor.’

Mitsabo ny mpiofana izy

Treats the trainees he

‘He treats the trainees.’

Mitsabo ny mpiofana izy.

treat.PRS DEF trainee.PL 3SG

‘He treats the trainees.’

Mitsabo ny mpiofana izy.

Treats-verb the-definite article trainees-noun he/she/they- pronoun.

He treats the trainees.

Mitsabo ny mpiofana izy.

Treat DEF trainee-PL he

‘He treats the trainees.’

Tsy mitsabo ny mpampiofana izy.
Not treats the trainers he
'He doesn't treat the trainers.'

Tsy mitsabo ny mpampiofana izy.
NEG treat.PRS DEF trainer.PL 3SG
'He doesn't treat the trainers.'

Tsy mitsabo ny mpampiofana izy.
NEG treat DEF trainer-PL he
'He doesn't treat the trainers.'

Mitsabo ny mpiofana i Peter.
Treats the trainees Peter
'Peter treats the trainees.'

Mitsabo ny mpiofana i Peter.
treat.PRS DEF trainee.PL SBJ Peter
'Peter treats the trainees.'

Mitsabo ny mpiofana i Peter.
Treat DEM trainee-PL is Peter

‘Peter treats the trainees.’

Tsy mitsabo ny mpampiofana i
Peter

Not treats the trainees
Peter

‘Peter doesn’t treat the trainees.’

Tsy mitsabo ny mpampiofana i Pe-
ter.

NEG treat.PRS DEF trainer.PL SBJ Peter

‘Peter doesn’t treat the trainers.’

Tsy mitsabo ny mpampiofana i Peter.

NEG treat DEM trainer-PL is Peter

‘Peter doesn’t treat the trainers.’

Tsy mitsabo ny mpa-mpiofana i Peter

NEG treat DEF.OBJ.PL (?) NEG-trainers DEF.SUBJ (?) Peter

‘Peter doesn’t treat the trainers.’

Iza no mitsabo ny mpampiofana?

Who treats the trainees

‘Who treats the trainees?’

Iza no mitsabo ny mpampiofana?

who (?) treat.PRS DEF trainer.PL

‘Who treats the trainers?’

Iza no mitsabo ny mpampiofana?

Who is treat DEM trainer-PL

‘Who treats the trainers?’

Mitsabo ny mpampiofana i Boda.

Treats the trainees Boda.

‘Boda treats the trainers.’

Mitsabo ny mpampiofana i Boda.

treat.PRS DEF trainer.PL SBJ Boda

‘Boda treats the trainers.’

Mitsabo ny mpampiofana i Boda.

Treat DEM trainer-PL is Boda

‘Boda treats the trainers.’

Mianatra inona i John?

Studies what John

‘What does John study?’

Mianatra inona i John?

study.PRS what SBJ John

‘What does John study?’

Mianatra inona i John?

Studies-verb what-interrogative pronoun (i-marker for proper noun) John?

What does John study?

Mianatra inona i John?

Study what is John

‘What does John study?’

Manao inona ianao?

do-2PERS INTERROG PRN.OBJ PRN-2PERS

‘What are you doing?’

Manao inona ianao?

do.PRS.PROG what 2SG

‘What are you doing?’

Manao inona ianao?

Do-PRS what you

‘What are you doing?’

Manao inona ianao?

do what you

‘What are you doing?’

Malagasy seems to be a VOS language. Predikative is placed before subject.

Suggested grammar rules:

The word order is VOS.

The subject is preceded by an agentive particle “i”. Alternatively, perhaps “i” is the singular definitive article and is applied to proper nouns. If so then “ny” may be the plural of “I”. (Either way there seems to be no explicit copula in “Mpitsabo i Peter”. Maybe the rules allow the copula to be omitted, or perhaps there is no copula in Malagasy.)

The negative particle “tsy” precedes the verb.

Nouns beginning “mp” seem to have corresponding verbs in “m” without the “p”.

3.3 Engenni *

will be checked and fixed shortly

Edei	dori	næ	Ade. (Engenni)
------	------	----	----------------

Man	tall	the	Ade
-----	------	-----	-----

‘The tall man is Ade.’

Edei dori næ Ade.

man tall DEF Ade

‘The tall man is Ade.’

Ade dori-ja.

Ade tall

‘Ade is tall.’

Ade dori-ja.

Ade tall-PRED

Ade tall-is

Ade tall-COP

Ade tall-V.PRS

‘Ade is tall.’

Ade dori-ja.

Ade tall-PRED

‘Ade is tall.’

Ade do eseni.

Ade stole fish

‘Ade stole fish.’

Ade do eseni.

Ade steal.PST fish

‘Ade stole fish.’

Ade do eseni.

PN stole fish. PN = proper noun

Ade stole fish.

Edei ðemu næ du eseni.

Man fat the bought fish

‘The fat man bought fish.’

Edei ðemu næ du eseni.

man fat DEF buy.PST fish

‘The fat man bought fish.’

Edei ðemu næ du eseni.

the fat-adjective + definite article man-noun bought-verb fish-noun.

The fat man bought fish.

Edei ðemu næ du eseni.

DEF fat man buy.PAST(?) fish

‘The fat man bought fish.’

Engenni seems to be a SVO language. Adjectives are placed before the nouns

Edei næ ađiđæ.

Man the rich

‘The man is rich.’

Edei næ ađiđæ.

man DEF rich

‘The man is rich.’

Ađiđæ næ đemuja.

Rich the fat

‘The rich man is fat.’

Ađiđæ næ đemu-ja.

rich DEF fat-PRED

‘The rich man is fat.’

Ađiđæ næ wu.

Rich the died

‘The rich man died.’

Ađiđæ næ wu.

rich DEF die.PST

‘The rich man died.’

Suggested rules.

No copula is needed.

The definite article, where present, follows the noun.

Adjectives follow the noun.

An adjective such as “rich” can be used as a noun – the word “man” is implied and does not then need to be specified explicitly.

There is some significance to the “ja” suffix on adjectives but it is not yet clear what it is.

3.4 Wolaytta *

will be checked and fixed shortly

Ta	na'a-i	ne	machchiy-o be'-iis. (Wolaytta)	
my	son-SBJ	your	wife-OBJ	saw-MASC

‘My son saw your wife.’

Ta	na'a-i	ne	machchiy-o	be'-iis.
----	--------	----	------------	----------

POSS.1SG son-SBJ.M.SG POSS.2SG wife-NONSBJ.F.SG see.PST-3SG.M

‘My son saw your wife.’

Ne	aawa-i	ta	aayiy-o	be'-iis.
----	--------	----	---------	----------

your father-SBJ my mother-OBJ saw-MASC

‘Your father saw my mother.’

Ne aawa-i ta aayiy-o be'-iis.

POSS.2SG father-SBJ.M.SG POSS.1SG mother-NONSBJ.F.SG see.PST-3SG.M

'Your father saw my mother.'

Ne aawai ta aayiyo be'iis.

Your-possessive pronoun father-noun saw-verb my-possessive pronoun mother-noun.

Your father saw my mother.

Ta machchiy-a ne aayiy-o madd-aasu.

my wife-SBJ your mother-OBJ helped-FEM

'My wife helped your mother.'

Ta machchiy-a ne aayiy-o madd-aasu.

POSS.1SG wife-SBJ.F.SG POSS.2SG mother-NONSBJ.F.SG help.PST-3SG.F

'My wife helped your mother.'

Ta isha-i ne isha-a machchiy-o madd-iis.

my brother-SBJ your brother-OBJ wife-OBJ helped-MASC

'My brother helped your brother's wife.'

Ta isha-i ne isha-a machchiy-o

POSS.1SG brother-SBJ.M.SG POSS.2SG brother-NONSBJ.M.SG wife-NONSBJ.F.SG

madd-iis.

help.PST-3SG.M

‘My brother helped your brother's wife.’

Ne	aawa-a	aawa-i	ne	na'a-a	be'-iis.
your MASC	father-SBJ	father-SBJ	your	son-OBJ	saw-

‘Your father's father saw your son.’

Ne	aawa-a	aawa-i	ne	na'a-a
POSS.2SG	father-NONSBJ.M.SG	father-SBJ.M.SG	POSS.2SG	son-NONSBJ.M.SG
be'-iis.				

see.PST-3SG.M

‘Your father's father saw your son.’

Ne	na'a-a	machchiy-a ta	machchiy-o	aawa-a
be'-aasu.				
your ther-OBJ	son-SBJ saw-FEM	wife-SBJ	my	wife-OBJ
				fa-

‘Your son's wife saw my wife's father.’

Ne	na'a-a	machchiy-a ta	machchiy-o
POSS.2SG	son-NONSBJ.M.SG	wife-SBJ.F.SG	POSS.1SG
aawa-a	be'-aasu.		

father-NONSBJ.M.SG see.PST-3SG.F

‘Your son's wife saw my wife's father.’

Ne na'aa machchiya ta machchiyo aawaa be'aasu.

Your-possessive pronoun son-noun wife-noun saw-verb my-possessive pronoun father-noun wife-noun.

Your son's wife saw my wife's father.

Ne na'aa machchiy-a ta machchiyo aawaa be'-aasu.

your son-subj wife-SBJ my wife father help-F.PST.(?).

'Your son's wife saw my wife's father.'

Wolaytta seems to be a SOV language.

I considered the ending a/i of the subjects a (F/M?) subject marker, but it could be the other way round and o/a would be an object/genitive marker etc

Suggested rules:

S O V

It looks like verbs are being inflected according to the gender or noun class of the subject

Possessive determiners precede the nouns they refer to

Nouns seem to be inflected by case in at least some instances

It's not clear that nouns have a distinct genitive. "Brother's wife" is expressed as "brother wife" with both nouns in the same case (inflected as the subject or as the object forms). But possibly for some nouns such as "father" there is a distinct genitive

Unit 4. Phrases (14)

Phrase (fras)

A phrase consists of one or more words.

Together, the words in the phrase fill some function in a larger structure like for example a clause.

Common types of phrases are

NP	noun phrase	a big hole
VP	verb phrase	will win
PP	preposition phrase	at home
AdjP	adjective phrase	very good

The phrases are given their names based on the word that constitutes the so called **head**, the basis for the phrase, the most important word, to which the other words are added in order to give more precise information about the word that is the head.

Noun phrases

(5)

- a. **house** this is a one-word phrase with only a head word
- b. the **house** *the* is an addition to the head noun
- c. my **house** *my* is an addition to the head noun
- d. new **houses** *new* is an addition to the head noun
- e. granny's **house** *granny's* is an addition to the head noun
- f. the **house** in Bristol *in Bristol* is an addition to the head noun
- g. the sleeping **child** *sleeping* is an addition to the head noun
- h. the **house** they chose *they chose* is an addition to the head noun

Articles (*a, the*) and possessive (*my, your, his, her...*) and demonstrative words (*this, these, that...*) are called **determiners**.

Other 'more substantial' additions to a head noun are called **modifiers**.

Modifiers can consist of

an adjective: *new* **houses**.

another noun: *granny's* **house**.

It will then often take a genitive ending.

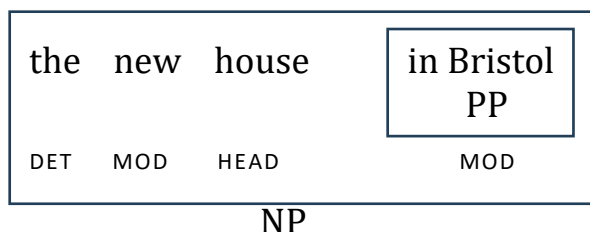
But not always: *the* *city* **library**

a verb: *the* *sleeping* **child**

a preposition **phrase**: *the* **house** *in Bristol*

This means that we can add a phrase, e.g. a preposition phrase, as

a modifier inside a noun phrase.



a relative **clause**: *the **house** they chose*

This means that we can also add a clause as a modifier inside a noun phrase. Clauses that may be used as modifiers to a noun are called **relative clauses**. Such relative clauses are not full, complete clauses, e.g. *they chose*. Something is missing, since a full clause would be *They chose the house* or *They chose it*. The word that is missing in the relative clause has the same meaning as the head noun in the noun phrase, i.e. the head noun of relative clause. (It seems rather natural that it is not repeated in English, but some languages actually work differently.) The word that is “missing” in the relative clause is called ‘the **gap**’. One could say that the gap is identical in meaning to the head noun, or **co-referential**, with a grammatical term.

Verb Phrases

Verb Phrases (VP's), e.g. auxiliary verb + head/main verb

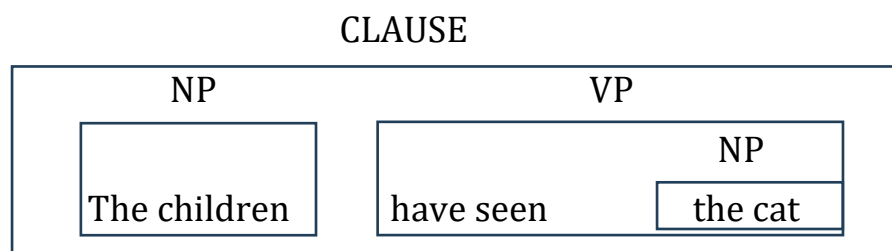
can read

will work

has been eating

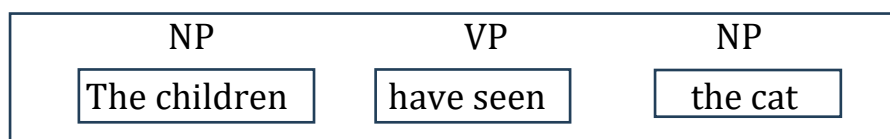
would have been sleeping

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.



OR

CLAUSE



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

More phrases

Phrases may very well consist of **only one word**.

Stephen became tired.

NP VP AP

Each phrase may also be expanded in different ways, e.g.

My friend **Stephen** <> has **become** <> **tired** of his job.

NP VP AP

Some more examples of

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

Jane; **she**; the **child**; the young **student**; the **children** in the garden; the **sleeping** child, my big **house**

Verb phrase (VP)

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

Preposition phrase (PP)

Preposition phrases usually consist of a preposition + a noun phrase

in the garden; in the beautiful garden

in my big house

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

tired of this job, **beautiful**, incredibly **beautiful**

Adverb phrase (AdvP)

incredibly, very **intensely**

Deep vs. surface structure

Sometimes, what we say can be ambiguous, leaving us with two different interpretations of the same utterance. The actual utterance itself is referred to as the **surface structure**, as in (6), which is ambiguous.

(6) He is interested in hunting lions.

We can explain the ambiguity as the result of two grammatical structures, as in

(7) a. *hunting* is the head noun, *lions* is the object of *hunting*
*He is interested in **hunting** (lions).*

b. *lions* is the head noun, *hunting* is a modifier of *lions*
*He is interested in (hunting) **lions**.*

At a semantic level we can explain this as referring to two different situations, and we then refer to these syntactic structures as deep structures, as in

(8) a. man + interest: people (agent) + hunt + lions (theme)
b. man + interest: lions (agent) + hunt + animals (theme)

Tests

Tests that show what is a phrase

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

Examples needed

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

In Latin, adjectives can be separated from their head noun.

Languages differ

All languages don't have the same types of phrases.

Some languages, like Somali, don't have preposition phrases, which means that there is no possibility to make a word-by-word translation into Somali of *the house in Bristol*.

Word classes: Noun, verb, adjective, preposition, adverb

The form and function of phrases, e.g. NP (form) as time adverbial (function)

The internal structure of phrases

Somali differs in a couple of important ways from English.

- There are no preposition phrases in Somali. The prepositions go into the verb phrase.
- There is a sentence particle phrase containing a particle that tells the kind of sentence (declarative, question, command, positive/negative) and the focused (emphasised) constituent. The particle is normally accompanied by a subject pronoun.

NP		SP		NP		VP		NP
Naciima	<>	waxa ay	<>	buug	<>	ku	soo	iibsatay <> 65 000 shilin
		FFOC she		book		for	towards	traded

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

NP		VP		NP		PP
----	--	----	--	----	--	----

Xaliimo	<>	suuq-a	<>	waxa ay	<>	ka	soo	iibsatay	<>	walxa-ha	soo	socda
		market-the		FFOC she		at	COMPL	bought		things-the	towards	going

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

SP sentence particle phrase

FFOC final focus (emphasis on the last Noun Phrase)

Relative clause types

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

the children that participated

that ~~the children~~ participated (gap=subject)

the house that Jack built

that Jack built ~~the house~~ (gap=object)

the woman who waited

who ~~the woman~~ waited (gap=subject)

the woman who we saw

who we saw ~~the woman~~ (gap=object)

the children whose parents paid a bribe

whose ~~the children's~~ parents paid a bribe (gap=genitive)

the city where I once lived

where I once lived ~~in the city~~ (gap=adverbial of place)

the summer when I learned to fly

when I learned to fly ~~that summer~~ (gap=adverbial of time)

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

French: *la lettre* **que** *tu* *écrivais*

English: *the letter* (**that**) *you* *were writing*

Swedish: *brevet* (**som**) *du* *skrev*

Somali: *warqaddii* *aad qoraysay*

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 conjunctive 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 conjunctive particle 'ee'.

Varying structures between languages

The same meaning can be expressed

- morphologically in one language
- syntactically in another language
- both ways in a third language

	'Monica's mother'	'the name of the village'
JUXTAPOSITION (just two words next to each other)		
SOMALI		magaca tuulada
ARABIC	umm Monika	
GENITIVE CASE (ending)		
ENGLISH	Monica's mother	
RUSSIAN	mama Moniki	
SLOVENE		ime vasi
NORWEGIAN	Monika's mor	
POSSESSIVE DETERMINER (meaning 'her')		
SOMALI	Monika hooyadeed	
NORWEGIAN	Monika si mor	

CONNECTOR (preposition, particle etc.)

SWAHILI mama **wa** Monika

PERSIAN mádar **e** Monika

ENGLISH

nám **e** rustá

the name **of** the village

SPANISH la madre **de** Monica

NORWEGIAN mora **til** Monika

POSSESSIVE ADJECTIVE (cf. the Napoleonic wars)

SLOVENE Monik-**in-a** mama

PN-ADJ-F

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

Sometimes it is also difficult to draw the exact borderline between morphology and syntax. It can therefore be practical to talk about **morphosyntax** instead of **morphology & syntax**.

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:	mindī dheer	'a long knife'
Swahili:	kisu kirefu	'a long knife'

4. Glossing

“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 [...]

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 [...]

Moreover, glossing is rarely a complete morphological description, and it should be kept in mind that its purpose is not to state a [full] analysis, but to give some further [...] relevant information [...] beyond the idiomatic translation. [...]

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.”

(Comrie, Haspelmath & Balthasar 2008)

Always remember that the number of hyphens must be exactly the same in the example and in the glossing.

If more elements are needed to express the meaning of one element in the example, those meaning elements should be joined by a period sign (full stop).

(1) Spanish

las abogadas

las abogad-as

the.F.PL lawyer-F.PL

‘the (female) lawyers’

(personal knowledge)

(2) Swedish

hon bleknade

hon blekna-de

she turn.pale-PST

‘she turned pale’

(personal knowledge)

Often, the reason to use the period sign is that the analysis would be more complex and might become unnecessarily difficult to read if the example was divided into all its morphemes.

The examples (1) and (2) could also very well have been glossed in other ways, for example as in (3) and (4).

(1) Spanish

las abogadas

l-a-s abogad-a-s

DEF-F-PL lawyer-F-PL

'the (female) lawyers'

(personal knowledge)

(2) Swedish

hon bleknade

hon blek-na-de

3SF pale-INCH-PST

'she turned pale'

(personal knowledge)

3SF third (person) singular, feminine (gender)

DEF definite (article)

INCH inchoative (verb); a verb that denotes a change of state

F feminine (gender)

PL plural

PST past (tense)

4. Referencing

For an article in a journal, you need to give the author, year, and title in exactly the same manner as you do for a chapter or an articles in a book. The title of the article should be in roman, not in italics.

The rest of the information is different. There is no editor.

Only give the title of the journal, **in italics**, followed by the number of the volume, **in roman**. This may optionally be followed by the number of the issue (häfte) in parentheses. Then you put a full stop.

Finally add FromPage–ToPage and another full stop.

Articles in journals

Author'sLastName, FirstName. Year. Title of article. *Title of journal* volume(issue). Frompage–topage.

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.

Notice that only the title of the journal should be in italics, not the following numbers (volume, issue, pages). The volume usually refers to the number of years that the journal has existed, and the issue to the number of times an individual issue (Fr. *cahier*, Ge. *Heft*, Sw. *häfte*) is published each year.

4. Read some more

Chapter 6, Syntax: Words in combination, in

Genetti, Carol. 2018. *How languages work: An introduction to language and linguistics*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

<https://www-cambridge-org.ezproxy.ub.gu.se/highereducation/books/how-languages-work/DB6E72758E31BF3838EEAFFC5BA4A311#contents>

4. Watch some videos

What is the difference between ‘phrase’ and ‘sentence’? (8 min.) | Aze Linguistics

<https://youtu.be/-Ndl0wvE6m8>

Syntax I (8 min.) | Aaron

<https://youtu.be/I9RPueD8wGs>

Syntax II (21 min.) | Aaron

<https://youtu.be/3CaX6MIzbZw>

Syntax 2 - Trees (11 min.) | Taylor Behnke

<https://youtu.be/n1zpnN-6pZQ>

4. Read about XHOSA and ZULU

Here is a video that will give you some inspiration and basic information:

Watch:

Zulu (13 min.) | Julie

<https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=KxY9ekPgK8k>

Student Text 1

Zulu is a Southern Bantu language spoken by about 27.7 million people, mainly in South Africa (Omniglot 2022). In South Africa, there are approximately 11.6 million native speakers of Zulu, and another 15.7 some million people speak it as a second language (Omniglot 2022). Speakers of Zulu also exist in Lesotho, Eswatini, Malawi, Botswana, and Mozambique (Omniglot 2022).

Zulu belongs to the Niger-Congo language family and is also a member of the Bantu language group (Cope 1966). The language belongs to a group of Bantu languages called the Nguni languages, which is a group of closely related languages spoken in southern Africa (Cope 1966). Nguni languages use click sounds as consonants, a feature presumably borrowed from the neighbouring Khoisan languages (Cope 1966). Xhosa is another Nguni language that is similar to Zulu to the point that they can be seen as dialects of the same language, where most of their differences can be found in their tonal structures (Cope 1966).

In the Zulu language, the penultimate syllable bears the primary stress (Cope 1966), and even though Zulu is written without any indication of tone - it is a tonal language (Liquisearch).

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Omniglot. 2022. Zulu. <https://www.omniglot.com/writing/zulu.htm> (07.10.23).

Cope, Anthony Trevor. 1966. *Zulu phonology, tonology and tonal grammar*. <https://ukzn-dspace.ukzn.ac.za/handle/10413/3320> (07.10.23).

Liquisearch. Zulu Language - Phonetics - Tone. https://www.liquisearch.com/zulu_language/phonetics/tone (07.10.23).

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Student Text 2

According to Ethnologue (2023a), Zulu is a language mainly spoken in South Africa, with in total 27 million speakers, 12 million L1 and 16 million L2 users, and it belongs to the Niger-Congo family and somewhat more precisely to the Narrow Bantu subfamily. According to Hammarström (2018: 36) the southernmost Bantu subgroup is the Nguni dialect cluster with the principal languages being the mutually intelligible but sociopolitically separate Zulu (11 million speakers) and Xhosa (8 million speakers).

Ethnologue (2023a, 2023 b) gives the complete classification of both Zulu and Xhosa as *Niger-Congo, Atlantic-Congo, Volta-Congo, Benue-Congo, Bantoid, Southern, Narrow Bantu, Central, S, Nguni*.

The largest language that is very closely related to Zulu is hence **Xhosa**. Another much larger language quite closely related is **Swahili**. According to Ethnologue (2023c), Swahili has totally 72 million users (16 million L1, 55 million L2), and its complete classification is *Niger-Congo, Atlantic-Congo, Volta-Congo, Benue-Congo, Bantoid, Southern, Narrow Bantu, Central, G, Swahili*. Both Zulu and Swahili belong to the Central Subgroup of Narrow Bantu and are thus closely related. Another rather large Niger-Congo language that is related to Zulu, but quite distantly, is **Wolof**, which has 12 millions speakers (6 million L1, 6 million L2) and has the classification *Niger-Congo, Atlantic-Congo, Atlantic, Northern, Senegambian, Fula-Wolof, Wolof* (Ethnologue 2023d).

According to Poulos (2003: 416) Zulu has 25 consonants, 9 click consonants, 2 semiwovels and 5 vowels, and it makes use of phonemic tone, where each syllable is associated with a tone, high, low, falling or rising. Both Zulu and Xhosa have clicks, probably introduced by contact with neighbouring click languages (Hammarström 2018: 35-36).

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- Poulos, George. 2003. Zulu. In Frawley, William J. (ed), *International Encyclopedia of Linguistics, Volume 4*, 416-418. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

4. Practice

4.1 - Word order in Sidama (11.1)

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

The following sentences are already glossed.

What rules can you give for word order in Sidama? Think of rules both for the clause as a whole and for different phrases.

Samaago Kaajjite la'i
Samaago Kaajjite saw
'Samaago saw Kaajjite.'

Dangiso nna Ledamo danca jaalaa ti
Dangiso and Ledamo good friend are
'Dangiso and Ledamo are good friends.'

Tini saada lowillaadda te
these cows big are
'These cows are big.'

Ooso se barru tuk'a hajshitanno
children her days all washes
'She washes her children every day.'

Waare Baaramo ra diina ho
Waare Baaramo to enemy is
'Waare is an enemy to Baaramo.'

Baaramo lekkate nni dajno
Baaramo foot on came
'Baaramo came on foot.'

Kabiico hee'ranno manni fiit'a' jaa ti
here living people relatives mine are
'The people who live here are my relatives.'

Bisso inserta se waj nni wanfitino
Bisso pot her water with filled
'Bisso filled her pot with water.'

Samaago doda no
Samaago running is
'Samaago is running.'

Annu mini ra e'i wate Waare ita nnino
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.

4.2 – Sentence types in Ewe (14.1)

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

Gloss the following examples.

mó 'a way'
agble 'a farm'

mó didi 'a long way'
agble lolo 'a big farm'

mó didi lá 'the long way'
agble lolo lá 'the big farm'

1. Describe the word order in the noun phrase.

Mó lá didi. 'The way is long.'
Agble lá lolo. 'The farm is big.'

2. Describe the structure of the preceding simple sentences.

Mó lá didia? 'Is the way long?'
Agble lá loloa? 'Is the farm big?'

3. How are questions formed?

Mó lá médidi o. 'The way isn't long.'
Agble lá mélolo o. 'The farm isn't big.'

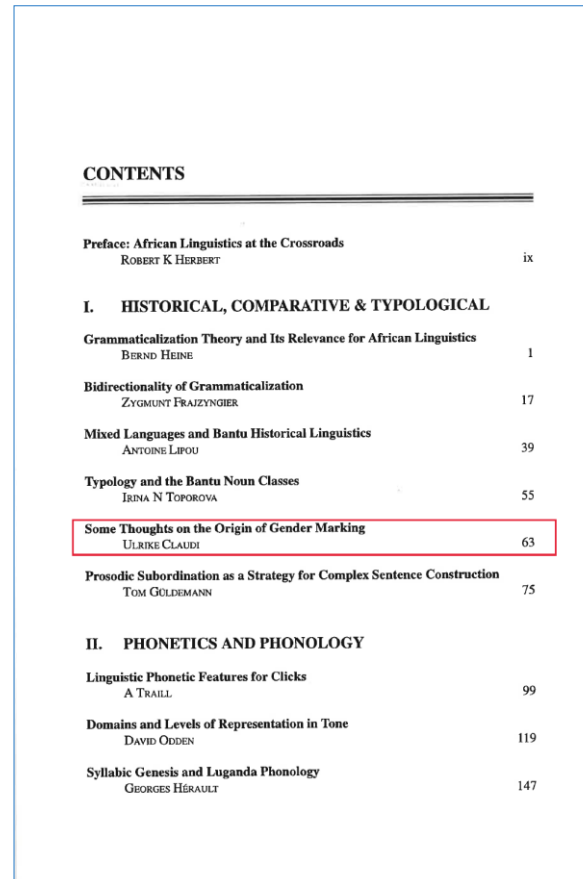
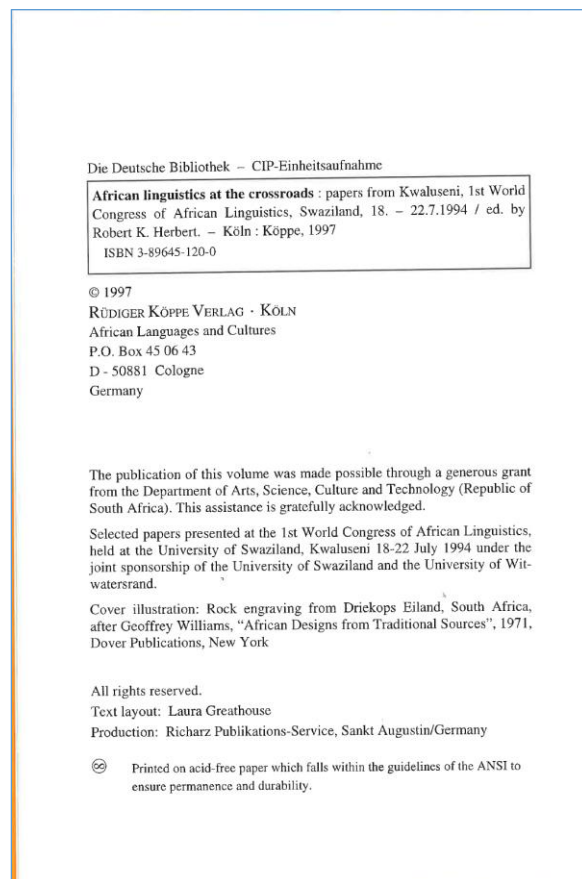
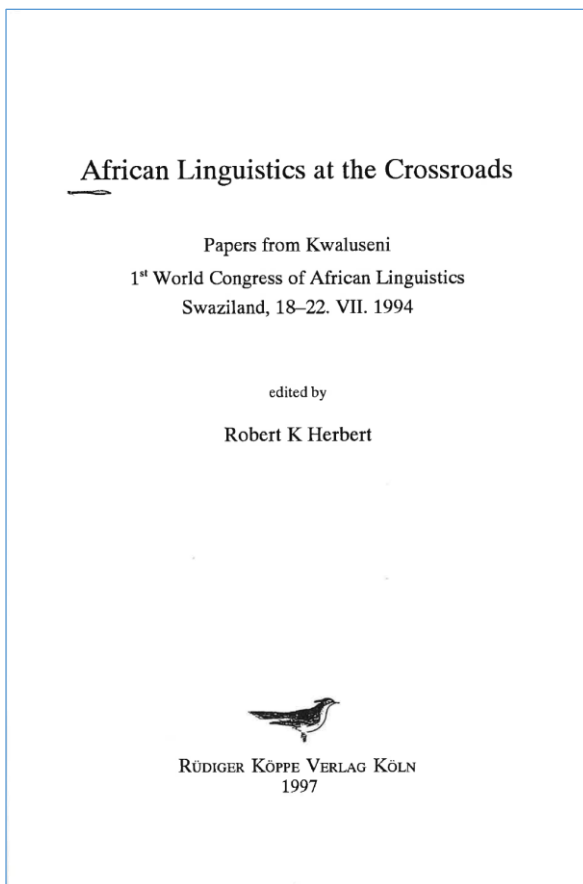
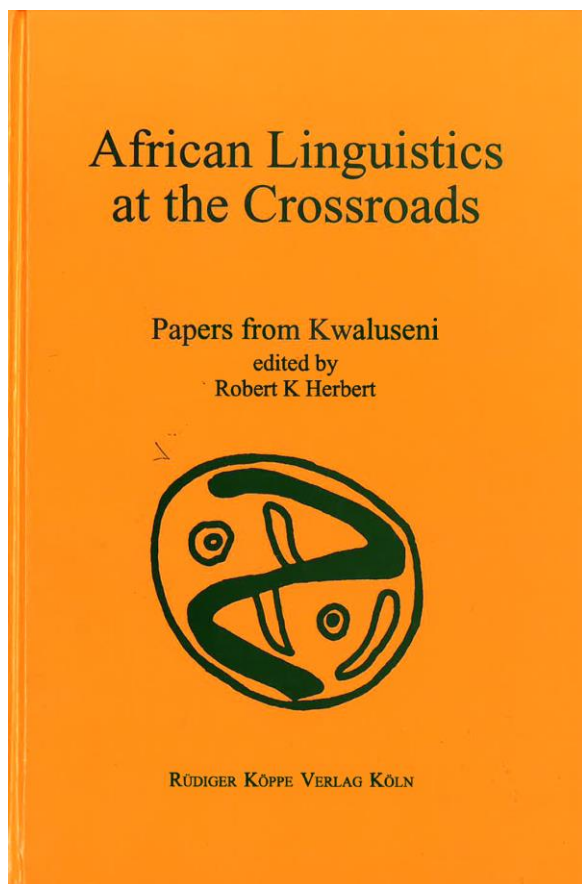
4. How is negation expressed?

Mó lá médidi oa? 'Isn't the way long.'
Agble lá mélolo oa? 'Isn't the farm big.'

5. How are negative questions expressed?

4.3 – Referencing

Make a list of references with the following two book chapters and two articles in journals.



African Linguistics at the Crossroads: Papers from Kwaluseni
RK HERBERT (ed), pp 63-74. Köln: Rüdiger Köppe. 1997.

SOME THOUGHTS ON THE ORIGIN OF GENDER MARKING

OR

WINGS WERE NOT DEVELOPED FOR FLYING

ULRIKE CLAUDI

*We are still some way from understanding
how gender systems arise. What follows is
not the whole story, nor the only story.*
Corbett (1991:310)

1 INTRODUCTION¹

It is a generally held belief that any element of a language, whether it is a lexical or a grammatical one, serves some function. A serious challenge to this belief is found in gender (or noun class) marking.² What is the use of indicating, for instance, that a noun meaning 'woman' is "feminine", that a noun meaning 'dog' is "animate", or that a noun meaning 'grapefruit' belongs to a class of nouns referring to fruits – let alone those cases where neither a semantic nor any other reason is decipherable for the gender classification of a given noun?

Some authors have claimed that gender is of some aesthetic value. In his *Zulu Manual for Beginners*, Malcolm writes:

"[Zulu has] a wonderful prefix system for the noun, by means of which the other parts of speech in a sentence are brought into agreement with."
(Malcolm 1960:1)

74

ULRIKE CLAUDI

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CSLI Lecture Notes Number 99

Bantu Historical Linguistics

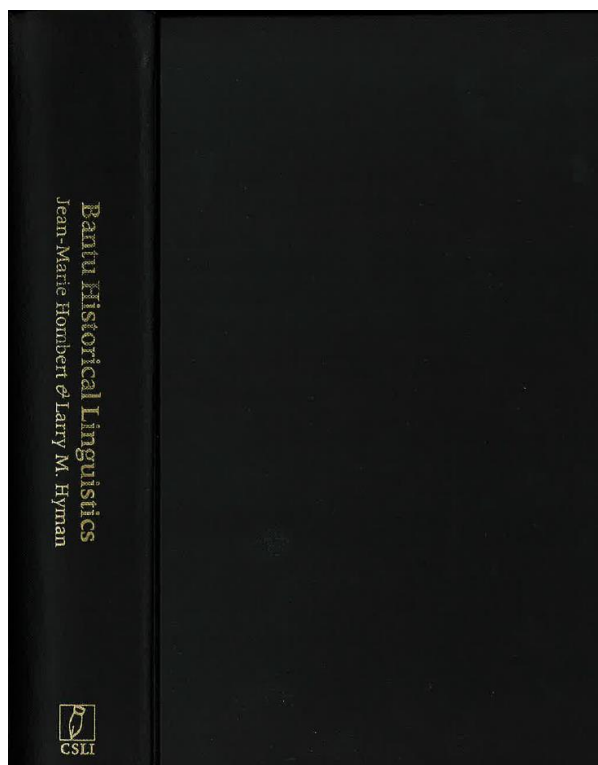
Theoretical and Empirical Perspectives

edited by

Jean-Marie Hombert &

Larry M. Hyman

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Towards a Historical Classification of East African Bantu Languages

DEREK NURSE
Memorial University Newfoundland

Preamble

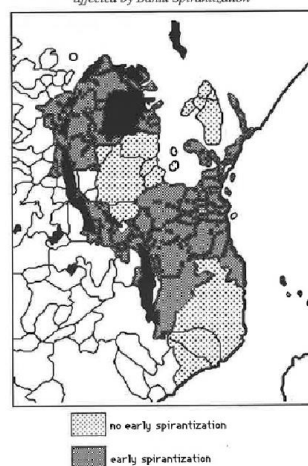
Since its appearance, Guthrie's Comparative Bantu has been the standard
referential classification of the Bantu languages. When in doubt, scholars
reach for Guthrie's red Volume 2 with its listing of well over four hundred
languages/dialects, in which each entry carries a handy tag consisting of
letter and number. More recent works list even more languages/dialects. But
by Guthrie's own admission, Comparative Bantu was not meant as a
statement of the historical development of Bantu languages or the
communities speaking them. Comparative linguists and historians have felt
the lack of such a statement keenly. Over the two decades following the
publication of Comparative Bantu, linguists attempted to fill the gap and
these attempts took mainly the form of lexicostatistical assessments of
similarity, hence alleged degree of relatedness, between various Bantu
languages or sets of Bantu languages¹. While these assessments were in

I would like to thank Thilo Schadeberg for extensive comments on this essay,
and for all the cartographic work, and also thank David Odden for his help.

¹ Not all attempts at historically oriented statements were based on
lexicostatistics. Some have used shared lexical innovations, others

Historical classification of East African Bantu languages 41

Map 4: Subgroups whose ancestors were early
affected by Bantu Spirantization



Nordic Journal of African Studies 15(3): 296–313 (2006)

A Basic Description and Analytic Treatment of Noun Clauses in Nigerian Pidgin

KELECHUKWU UCHECHUKWU IHEMERE

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ABSTRACT

This paper presents descriptions and analyses of noun clauses attested in my data of Nigerian Pidgin English as spoken in the southern Nigerian city of Port Harcourt. It will be shown that in Nigerian Pidgin noun clauses may optionally begin with the noun clause introducer 'se'. This is the only morphological marking device, which distinguishes noun clauses from other clauses. Additionally, noun clauses in the language occur in one of two syntactic positions following the verb of their super-ordinate clause: the object position or the adverbial position. Since there is little or no evidence in Nigerian Pidgin to make a case for the existence of categories like the 'copular', 'adjective', or 'intransitive verb'. Hence, the standpoint taken in this paper is that a noun clause that does not occupy the adverbial position can be said to be the syntactic object of the verb of the clause to which it is subordinate.

Keywords: noun clauses, copular, adjective, intransitive verb

1. INTRODUCTION

As the title suggests, the main aim of this paper is to attempt to present a basic description and analytic treatment of noun clauses in Nigerian Pidgin, using data collected between June and September 2003 in Port Harcourt. The data sample on which the descriptions and analyses are based are composed of transcribed recordings of speech from 61 speakers. They were selected on the basis of age, sex, ethno-linguistic background, daily Pidgin use patterns and level of education. This was done with a view to representing a cross-section of the Nigerian Pidgin-speaking community in Port Harcourt, the capital of Rivers State, Nigeria. The population of Port Harcourt is a little over two million. To obtain this sample, tape-recordings of conversations, story-telling sessions and other casual interactions were made in several working-class homes/compounds; schools; bars; market stalls; and at the many bus and taxi ranks scattered all over the city.

The explanations to all the abbreviations and symbols used herein are found in the appendix. Before moving on to describe and analyse the noun clauses attested in the data, I would like to consider the *history and evolution of Nigerian Pidgin*.

A Basic Description and Analytic Treatment of Noun Clauses

2. THE HISTORY AND EVOLUTION OF NIGERIAN PIDGIN

Here, I look at Nigerian Pidgin and its speakers and attempt to answer the question of whether the language is a Pidgin or Creole. I also explore the genesis and development of Nigerian Pidgin.

2.1 NIGERIAN PIDGIN AND ITS SPEAKERS

Nigerian Pidgin is said to be one in a line of English-lexifier Pidgins and Creoles spoken along the West African coast and in African Diaspora communities spread along the Atlantic basin. Among these related Pidgin varieties, the Cameroonian Pidgin is closer in form to Nigerian Pidgin than are, for instance, Sierra Leonean and Jamaican Krio. However, these Pidgins and Creoles have in common a significant number of semantic, grammatical and phonological features and structures.¹

It is estimated that there are over 75 million people who speak Nigerian Pidgin as a second language, and the number of first language speakers is put roughly at between 3 and 5 million. These numbers are increasing all the time because the Nigerian Pidgin is very popular with younger members of the polity, who constitute a greater number of the population of Nigeria, which is estimated to be about 133 million. Nigerian Pidgin is the most widely spoken language in the country. It is different from the other 400 or so Nigerian languages because members of every regional, ethno-linguistic and religious group in the country speak it. It is further distinguished from the Nigerian Standard English (NSE) due to the fact that it is spoken by members of every socio-economic group, while only those Nigerians with many years of formal education can claim to speak Standard English with any proficiency. Knowledge of Nigerian Pidgin is fast becoming indispensable for everyday practical communication and the understanding of issues affecting the Nigerian.

It is rather disappointing to note that despite the overwhelming evidence within Nigeria that Nigerian Pidgin is in all respects the most logical choice for a national language, it is accorded little or no recognition by Nigeria's language policy planners and administrators. Official attitudes towards Nigerian Pidgin remain largely negative, sustaining flawed notions passed on from the colonial era that Nigerian Pidgin is some type of 'broken English'.

2.2 PIDGIN OR CREOLE?

Based on my observations in Port Harcourt, I tend to agree with Faraclas (1996: 3) that the name Nigerian 'Pidgin' is to some extent misleading, since the

¹ See Faraclas, 1996; Kulick, 1997; Sebba, 1997; Holm, 2000.

A Basic Description and Analytic Treatment of Noun Clauses

S	Sentence, sentential
SJ	Subjunctive
T	Topic(alizer)
TQ	Topic-switching switching
v	Verb
V	Vowel
V+	Valence-increasing serial verb
YNQ	Yes-no question marker
V ⁿ	Nasalized vowel

SYMBOLS

1, 2, 3, 4, 5,	Persons (1pl=4; 2pl=5; 3pl=6)
6	Question word
?	Exclamatory particle
!	Serialised verb
+	Word boundary
/+/	Phrase stress group boundary
/=/	Stressed syllable follows
'	Narrow pharynx ('short') vowels
o, e	Acrolectal speech
@	Basilectal speech
#	Ungrammatical sentence
*	x Varies with y
x/y	

(Adapted from Faraclas, 1996)

Studies in African Linguistics
Volume 16, Number 3, December 1985

DENTALITY, AREAL FEATURES, AND PHONOLOGICAL CHANGE
IN NORTHEASTERN BANTU*

Derek Nurse
University of British Columbia

A minority of the world's languages appear to have a series of dental (as opposed to alveolar) obstruents. Proto-Bantu does not have such a series, nor do most East African Bantu languages. By contrast, three Bantu languages in northeastern Kenya (the northern Swahili dialects, Pokomo, Elwana) have acquired such a series, which thus merits explanation. There are three mechanisms involved: (a) the borrowing of loan sounds along with loan vocabulary, (b) a simple phonological shift whereby inherited alveolars moved one place to become dental, and (c) a more complicated shift whereby inherited (pre)palatals bypassed an intervening alveolar series to become dental, a process little reported in the literature. It is hypothesised that these forms of dentalisation took place under historical conditions of contact with neighboring Cushitic communities—not the larger Eastern Cushitic communities of today (Somali, Orma), but rather the ancestral forms of what are now remnant languages, (probably) Southern Cushitic Dahalo and (possible) Eastern Cushitic Aweera.

1. Introduction

Our purpose is to attempt to explain the appearance of dentality as an areal innovation in the consonant systems of the Bantu (Sabaki) languages of the Lower Tana region of northeastern Kenya.

A series of dental stops occurs in a minority of languages worldwide. If we take the selection of 700 languages in Ruhlen [1976] to be representative of the world's languages, then we find the following. "Series" is understood to

*I am grateful to J. Hewson, T. Hill, and A. Steinbergs for having read and commented on earlier parts and versions of this paper, also to R. Schuh and SAL's anonymous reviewer for their comments on the first version submitted to SAL.

include at least stops, plus some or all of fricatives/affricatives/nasals, etc. A palatal series must include stops, not merely affricates, although comparison of Ruhlen's data indicates a certain confusion between the two. (The predominance of alveolars and of palatal affricates as opposed to dentals and palatal stops might be due to the fact that many of the researchers on whose data Ruhlen relies are English-speakers.)

(1) Alveolar series only between labial and velar:	51.5%
Dental series only between labial and velar:	22.5%
Alveolar and palatal series:	7.5%
Dental and palatal series:	3.5%
Alveolar and retroflex:	3.5%
Dental and retroflex:	3.0%
Alveolar and dental:	3.0%
All other combinations of the above (including none):	5.5%

No language has palatals or retroflexes as the only series between labial and velar. This is true whether palatal is interpreted as having stops or affricates.

If we interpret (1) to indicate relative frequency of a series according to position, regardless of whether it is the only, or one of several, series, then the presence of at least an alveolar series is almost twice as common as that of a dental series, which in turn is nearly three times as common as that of a palatal (which, as stated, never occurs as the only series).¹

An alveolar, not a dental, series is assigned to Proto-Bantu. The only East African Bantu languages in which dental stops or obstruents appear as reflexes of Proto-Bantu consonants are Makua, Soga, North Pare, Gweno, and the Thagicu languages of central Kenya. Thus, by contrast with the general typo-

¹Maddieson [1984:31-32] is understandably more reluctant to distinguish dental and alveolar places, "partly because they are frequently not reliably distinguished in the sources and partly because a contrast between these two places is unusual". Nevertheless, for those languages for which he considers his sources adequate [Maddieson 1984:35] there is a clear preponderance of alveolar over dental.

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4. Suggested solutions

4.1 Sidama

1. The basic word order seems to be SOV.

Samaago Kaajite la'i
Samaago Kaajite saw
'Samaago saw Kaajite.'

What might seem an exception is a relative subclause 'here living' that precedes the word 'people', but the main clause predicate *ti* 'are' comes at the end of the clause.

Kabiico hee'ranno manni fiit'a' jaa ti
here living people relatives mine are
'The people who live here are my relatives.'

Also adverbial phrases seem to precede the verb, e.g. *barru tuk'a* 'all days' in the following example.

2. The subject pronoun is not obligatory: it can be dropped. There is no word meaning 'she' in the following sentence. This is called **pro-drop**. Therefore Sidama may be called a pro-drop language.

Ooso se barru tuk'a hajshitanno
children her days all washes
'She washes her children every day.'

3. Determiners and adjectives follow after nouns, e.g. *ooso se* 'her children' and *barru tuk'a* 'all days' in the above example.

4. Relative subclauses seem to precede the noun, e.g.

Kabiico hee'ranno manni fiit'a' jaa ti
here living people relatives mine are
'The people who live here are my relatives.'

5. Sidama doesn't have prepositions before the noun. Instead it has **postpositions**, which is almost the same thing, just that they follow after the noun, e.g. *Baaramo ra* 'to Baaramo'.

6. There seems to exist a **progressive** or **continuous aspect**, just like in English, e.g. *ita nnino* 'was eating'. The progressive is expressed with a periphrastic construction, i.e. with more than one word. A form of the auxiliary verb 'to be' follows after the main verb in Sidama, whereas it precedes the main verb in English.

4.2

Ewe

mó

way

'a way'

agble

farm

'a farm'

mó didi

way long

'a long way'

agble lolo

farm big

'a big farm'

mó didi lá

way long the

way long DEF

'the long way'

agble lolo lá

farm big the

farm big DEF

'the big farm'

1. The word order in the noun phrase is noun + adjective + definite article.

Mó lá didi.

way the long

way DEF long

'The way is long.'

Agble lá lolo.

farm the big

farm DEF big

'The farm is big.'

2. Word order: noun + definite article + adjective. There is no copular verb 'is'. The adjective alone is the predicate.

Mó lá didi-a?

way the long-QUESTION

way DEF long-Q

'Is the way long?'

Agble lá lolo-a?
farm the big-QUESTION
farm DEF big-Q
'Is the farm big?'

3. The ending *-a* is added at the end of a question.

Mó lá mé-didi o.
way the not-long not
way DEF NEG-long NEG
'The way isn't long.'

Agble lá mé-lolo o.
farm the not-big not
farm DEF NEG-big NEG
'The farm isn't big.'

4. Negation is marked simultaneously by two morphemes: the prefix *mé-* is added to the predicate adjective and the particle *o* follows the adjective.

Mó lá mé-didi o-a?
way the not-long not-QUESTION
way DEF NEG-long NEG-Q
'Isn't the way long?'

Agble lá mé-lolo o-a?
farm the not-big not-QUESTION
farm DEF NEG-big NEG-Q
'Isn't the farm big?'

5. Negative questions are formed from negative declarative sentences by simply adding the question marker suffix *-a* at the end of the question after the negative marker *o*.

4.3

Claudi, Ulrike. 1997. Some thoughts on the origin of gender marking or Wings were not developed for flying. In Robert K. Herbert (ed.), *African linguistics at the crossroads: Papers from Kwaluseni, 1st World Congress of African Linguistics, Swaziland, 18–22. VII. 1994*, 63–74. Köln: Rüdiger Köppe.

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Unit 5. Sentences

Subordinate clauses

We already read about relative clauses in Unit 4.

Different types of clauses

A **sentence** is a textual unit that starts with an uppercase letter and ends with a major punctuation mark, i.e. full stop, question mark or exclamation mark. Sentences may be categorised based on the type of clause or clauses they contain.

A **simple sentence** (or simple clause) contains only one clause. It describes one event.

- (9) a. *I am talking.*
b. *You are listening.*
c. *You are playing with your phone.*

A **compound sentence** (or compound clause) consists of two or more simple clauses that have been joined together using a small coordinating word called a **conjunction**.

- (10) a. *I am talking **and** you are listening.*
b. *I am talking **but** you are not listening.*
c. *Are you listening **or** are you playing with your phone?*

A **complex sentence** (or complex clause) consists of clauses that have been joined together using a small word called a **subjunction** so that one clause is dependent on the other.

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

- (11) a. *You have to listen **when** I am talking.*

- b. *I will not continue **if** you don't listen **when** I am talking.*

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

A **main clause** (i.e. an independent clause) is a clause that is not dependent on any other clause. The main clauses in (12) are underlined.

- (12) a. *I am talking and you are listening.*
b. *I am talking* *but* *you are not listening.*
c. *You have to listen* *when I am talking.*
d. *I will not continue* *if you don't listen when I am talking.*

A **subordinate clause** (or **subclause**, i.e. a dependent clause) is a clause that is dependent on another clause within a complex clause. The subordinate clauses in (13) are underlined.

Dependent/subordinate clauses are usually introduced by a **subordinator word / subjunction**.

- (13) a. *You have to listen when I am talking.*
b. *I will not continue if you don't listen **when** I am talking.*

A **matrix clause** is the “mother” of another clause, i.e. another clause is dependent on the matrix clause. A matrix clause can be either a independent main clause or a dependent subordinate clause.

- (14) a. *You have to listen* **when** *I am talking.*
b. *I will not continue* **if** *you don't listen* **when** *I am talking.*

Notice in (13b) and (14b) that the clause *if you don't listen* is at the same time a subordinate clause to the matrix clause *I will not continue* and a matrix clause to the subordinate clause *when I am talking*.

Sentences may also be categorised based on the status of the material they contain. An **incomplete clause** (also called **minor clause**) is a clause that is lacking some component(s), as in (15), which is just a phrase, not a full clause, but it is of course still a sentence.

- (15) *Great!*

A corresponding **full clause** (or major or complete or regular clause) might be *That's great!*

Different types of subordinate clauses

Subordinate clauses are divided into three types depending on their function in relation to their matrix clause.

A **nominal subclause** takes the place of one of the noun phrases in the main clause. In (16b) the subclause is replacing the noun phrase *the noise* that is the object in sentence (16a). Therefore we can call the subclause in (16b) an **object subclause**. Another commonly used term is **complement subclause**. English complement subclauses typically begin with the word *that*.

- (16) a. *I heard the noise.*
b. *I heard that you have moved to Africa.*

A **relative subclause** is added to a noun in order to give additional information about that noun. The noun that the subclause tells us something about, e.g. *the book* in (17a), is called the **antecedent** or simply the **head** of the relative subclause.

- (17) a. *Send me the book that I forgot at your place.*
b. *I don't know the man whose children are playing over there.*
c. *I'm reading the book you gave me.*

In English, many relative subclauses begin with a relative word such as *that*, *which*, *who*, *whom* or *whose*. Notice that the English word *that* has more than one function: it introduces a complement clause in (16b) and a relative clause in (17a).

There are also relative subclauses in English that don't begin with a relative word, as in (17c). In some languages, e.g. Somali, the lack of a relative word is the default strategy for relative subclauses.

An **adverbial subclause** expresses some kind of circumstance that serves as a background for the event in the matrix clause. The most common types of such circumstances are time, condition, purpose and reason, but there are a few more types, as well.

- (18) a. *You have to listen when I am talking.*
b. *I will not continue if you don't listen.*
c. *You have to listen carefully so that you don't forget anything.*
d. *I will not continue because you are not listening.*
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.*

The subclause expressing time in (18a) is called a **temporal subclause**, the one expressing a condition in (18b) is called a **conditional subclause**, the one expressing a purpose in (18c) is called a **final subclause** and the one expressing a reason or cause in (18d) is called a **causal subclause**.

The form and function of clauses

Sentences may be further categorised based on the grammatical form that they have as well as based on the function that they fill in communication.

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

Form and function usually match, but not always.

When are you going to clean your room?

The form is interrogative, but the function might be a request.

There is no cake left!

The form is a declarative, but the function might be a question.

Can't you do anything right?

The form is interrogative, but the function is a reaction.

Questions whose function is not a question – no answer is expected – are referred to as rhetorical questions.

There are three very different types of **interrogative** sentences:

Content Question/wh-question/**Open** Question

- you want some additional content as an answer
the words used begin with *wh... + how*

What would you like to drink?

Polar Question/yes-no question

- you just want *yes* or *no* as an answer

Would you like som tea?

Disjunctive questions

- gives alternatives to choose between

*Would you like **tea or coffee**?*

Analysing sentences, one can do that from four different perspectives:

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, beginning with an auxiliary, which makes it a **polar question**,

The function is rather a **request**. You do not want the person to answer yes or no.

Instead, you want the person to tell you what time it is, which is then the sentence **force**, what you want to achieve.

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

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

*Varför **kom** Anders sent till jobbet?*

'Why did Anders come late to work?'

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

***Kom** Anders sent till jobbet igår?*

'Did Anders come late to work yesterday?'

Imperative (VERB INITIAL): Verb + Rest

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

SOMALI

Declarative:

(NP) + Declarative particle + Subject pronoun + (NP) + VP + (NP)

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

Content Question or Open Question:

(NP) + Question word + Focus particle + Subj. pro. + (NP) + VP + (NP)

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: Question particle + (Subj. pro.) + (NP) + VP + (NP)

Ma (ay) ordayaan (ardaydu)?
'Are the students running?'

Imperative: (NP) + VP + (NP)

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

Question Particle

Some languages form questions using a special question particle.

Finnish: Combined with word order

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

Arabic:

Somali: Contrasting with a positive particle

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

English: No particle, but initial auxiliary verb

She runs. **Does** she run?

Swedish: No particle, but question word order

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

Czech: No particle, but question intonation

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

Fronting of question word

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

If the question word is 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 structure 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 will appear. 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 possibilities in Somali.

Maxaa aad soo iibsaday?
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 mainly dictated by the syntax or grammar, but rather by so called information structure or information packaging, i.e., in which order you want to present the different pieces of 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 emphasis on a word, you might put it in a less expected position.

5. Glossing

“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 5: Person and number labels

Person and number are not separated by a period when they occur in this order.”

(Comrie, Haspelmath & Balthasar 2008)

One of the most fundamental “golden” rules of glossing is that you must always gloss the same morpheme in the exact same way. You should not adjust the translation to the context. One of very few exceptions is that if the same root can be used, e.g., both as verb and noun, then you can translate it with a noun as well as a verb, as appropriate.

(19) Somali

- a. *hadalnaa*
hadal-n-aa
speak-1PL-PRS (not: -1.PL-)
‘we speak’
- b. *hadalkayga*
hadal-kay-ga
speech-POSS.1SG-DEF (not: -1.SG-)
or:
hadal-kay-ga
speech-my-the
‘my speech’

(source: personal knowledge)

The comment on changing the glosses in cited data is important if you cite data from different sources with different glossing systems. Older sources often use quite different glossing systems, than the one advocated by the Leipzig group. And even if the authors you are citing are doing their best to follow the Leipzig glossing rules, you might find small inconsistencies that you would probably want to fix since if don’t want to make your reader confused or annoyed.

In order to help your reader, you should therefore always make the glossing uniform throughout your text and apply the same glossing principles and abbreviations to all the data that you present in you text. Sometimes it takes quite a bit of work to adjust the glossing of data that you are citing.

5. Referencing

Book in a series

Add the name of the series and the number of the publication in parentheses after the title, before the final full stop. The whole parentheses should be in roman, not italics, and since the name of the book series is a name, it should

be rendered exactly as on the title page, keeping all uppercase letters. (Sometimes a series has an editor, but that is not something you would include in the list of references.)

Saeed, John Ibrahim. 1999. *Somali* (London Oriental and African Language Library 10). Amsterdam & Philadelphia, PA: John Benjamins.

5. Read some more

Chapter 9, **Syntax: The structure of sentences**, in

Burridge, Kate & Tonya N. Stebbins. 2019. *For the love of language: An introduction to linguistics*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

<https://www-cambridge-org.ezproxy.ub.gu.se/highereducation/books/for-the-love-of-language/F2F13289DE2862283A544E14DAC76956#contents>

5. Watch some videos

What is the difference between ‘clause’ and ‘sentence’? (5 min.) | Aze Linguistics
<https://youtu.be/Rmn4FSL4XT0>

Complementizer phrase (7 min.) | Aze Linguistics
https://youtu.be/aGaULS_itDc

Syntax III (11 min.) | Aaron
<https://youtu.be/E98uyYEXZ00>

5. Read about AMHARIC

Watch for inspiration:

Amharic (12 min.) | Julie
<https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=92yzEeX75yM&pp=sAQA>

Amharic (17 min.) | Paul
<https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=4jjEawqaMkE>

Similarities between Arabic and Amharic (11 min.) | not very serious, but it might be fun...
<https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=wZUtn1k4yws>

Student text 2024

Amharic (አማርኛ, *Amarəñña*) is an Afro-Asiatic language in the Semitic subgroup (specifically the Ethiopian group of West Semitic languages) (Rubin 2007); it is spoken primarily in Ethiopia (Ethnologue 2024a), where it is one of the official national languages (until recently the only official working language of the national government). In total, it has about 60 million speakers, about 59 million of them in Ethiopia (Ethnologue 2024a), meaning that about half of the country's estimated 119-million-strong population (World Factbook 2024a) can speak the language. This includes almost 34 million native speakers (Ethnologue 2024a), but the fact that a substantial proportion of Amharic speakers are L2 reflects the fact that, according to Meyer (2011), it is widely used as a lingua franca in Ethiopia.

The language is closely related to Tigrinya, another Ethiopian language, but not closely enough to provide significant mutual intelligibility ("The two Tigrigna varieties are not intelligible for the native Amharic speakers" (Feleke 2017)). It is also related to Geez or classical Ethiopic, which is today used only as a liturgical language (Ethnologue 2024b). More distantly related are Arabic and Hebrew, and even more distantly related is Hausa (which is Afro-Asiatic but not Semitic).

Amharic has seven vowel phonemes and between 21 and 32 consonant phonemes (including glottal ejectives): Amharic phonology has been relatively little studied and agreement has not been reached about its phoneme count; the disagreement depends mainly on how palatal and labialised consonants are counted, and many of the arguments are discussed in Abo (2020). All consonants have a long (geminated) form and most can be modified by rounding. Vowels are usually short but occasionally long, and the occurrence of two vowels next to each other is avoided (Leslau 1995). The language is non-tonal and has very weak stress (Ethnologue 2024a).

Amharic is written with the Geez script, an abugida (in which the basic letters are all consonants, to which diacritics or similar marks are added to represent vowels), which is written from left to right.

The language has four cases (Ethnologue 2024a), as well as a complex system of verb morphology involving perfective and imperfective aspects and inflection for number, person and gender (Krzyżanowska 2019). The system for pluralising nouns is rather complicated as many nouns have optional irregular plurals that exist alongside regular plurals and double plurals (where both regular and irregular plural inflections are applied to the same noun at the same time, e.g. *māmhir-an-otftf*, teacher-PL-PL,

‘teachers’) (Kramer 2016).

Word order in Amharic is SOV (Ethnologue 2024a; Little 1978). Like Arabic, Amharic has a definite article but no indefinite. The definite article or marker has different forms for different genders (masculine and feminine) and takes the form of a suffix added to the noun or in some cases to an adjective, as in *tīlik'u bet*, ‘the big house’, where *tīlik* is ‘big’ and *-u* marks it as definite.

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Student text 1

1. Where is Amharic spoken?

It is spoken in Ethiopia (national language) and Eritrea (Tosco 2000: 337).

2. How many speakers are there of Amharic?

"56,900,000 in Ethiopia, all users. L1 users: 31,800,000 in Ethiopia (2018). L2 users: 25,100,000 (2019). 14,800,000 monolinguals. Ethnic population: 29,300,000 (2018). Total users in all countries: 57,466,560 (as L1: 32,366,560; as L2: 25,100,000)". (SIL International 2022a)

3. To which language family (phylum) and sub-group does Amharic belong.

Afro-Asiatic -> Semitic -> South -> Ethiopic -> Amharic (Tosco 2000: 336).

4. Are there any well-known closely related languages to Amharic?

Geez is an ancient Ethiopic language (classical Ethiopic) which is used today only as liturgical language of the orthodox Church in Ethiopia (SIL International 2022b).

5. How many vowels are there in Amharic?

Amharic has seven vowels (Leslau 1995: 4, 31).

6. How many consonants are there?

Amharic has thirty consonants (Leslau 1995: 4).

7. Are there any other interesting details worth mentioning about the sound system?

The alphabet lacks a symbol for gemination, id est duplication of consonants. At the same time all consonants have a geminated form (Leslau 1995: 3, 11-13). Most consonants can be modified by rounding, that is pronunciation with slightly rounded lips (Leslau 1995: 9). Vowels are usually pronounced short. "Vocalic length occurs only occasionally" (Leslau 1995: 33). In Amharic the occurrence of two vowels next to each other is avoided (Leslau 1995: 35).

8. How do you form the plural of nouns in Amharic?

Several different possibilities to form a plural exist:

Use of one specific (modern) plural marker (suffix).

Archaic plural markers are older in terms of historical linguistics and can occur as external markers (suffix) or internal markers (vocalic change comparable to phonological shifts in English, such as in man -> men).

Plural of nouns of kinships can have two different forms, for instance 'sisters' and 'sisters in relation to each other'.

Reduplication (some nouns and adjectives are (fully or partially) reduplicated to form the plural form).

"All kinds of..." or "various kinds of..." are formed by "repetition of the noun, the first noun being followed by -a".

Use of specific prefixes ('the followers of...', 'and his/her associates')

Special singular markers (often numbers) otherwise some sentences are considered plural by default.

Use of collective nouns ('all women').

(Leslau 1995: 169-181)

9. Is there a definite article in Amharic?

There is a definite article, but no indefinite article.

Amharic uses both determined and indetermined nouns. "Indetermination has no special marker". A definite article (feminine and masculine form) exists. "The article is also used with the demonstrative, interrogative, indefinite pronouns, and with numerals". (Leslau 1995: 154-159) The use of the definite article with kinship terms and 'man, woman' needs special consideration. The word 'child' for instance, changes its meaning (either 'son' or 'daughter') depending on the definite article (an either masculine or feminine suffix) used (Leslau 1995:160-161).

10. What is the typical word order in Amharic? Does the verb in a typical simple clause come first, in the middle or at the end?

Unlike most languages of its family, Amharic is predominately SOV although some linguists claim that this is a feature of surface rather than deep syntax (Bach 1970). Amharic has a number of what Bach (1970) regarded as 'non - SOV - like' properties. For example it is prepositional and it has both prefixes.

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Student text 2

Amharic is a Afro-Asiatic language in the Semitic subgroup, spoken **mainly** in Ethiopia, where it is the **national** language, and it has totally 57 million speakers, **23** million L1 and **25** million L2 (Ethnologue 2023a), out of the total population in the country, which is **107** million according to The World Factbook (2023). Hudson (1997: 457) gives only 15 million speakers. According to Meyer (2011), Amharic is widely used as a lingua franca in Ethiopia. The complete classification of Amharic is *Afro-Asiatic, Semitic, South, Ethiopian, South, Transversal, Amharic-Argobba* (Ethnologue 2023a).

According to Hudson (1997:458) Amharic has **31** consonant phonemes, of which 6 are glottal ejectives (emphatics) and 7 vowel phonemes. According

to Ethnologue (2023a). Amharic has 27 consonant phonemes and 7 vowel phonemes, is non-tonal and has very weak stress.

long vowels/cons.?

A really large language quite closely related to Amharic is Arabic (total users 370 million) according to Ethnologue (2023b). The complete classification of Arabic according to Ethnologue (2023c) is *Afro-Asiatic, Semitic, Central, South, Arabic*. Other even closer related Semitic languages are Tigrinya, spoken by 9 million in Djibouti, Eritrea and Ethiopia (Afro-Asiatic, Semitic, South, Ethiopian, North) (Ethnologue 2023e) and Tigré, spoken by 800 000 in Eritrea (Afro-Asiatic, Semitic, South, Ethiopian, North) (Ethnologue 2023f).

Another well known and quite large language, that is only distantly related to Amharic, is Hausa, with totally 78 million users and classification *Afro-Asiatic, Chadic, West, A, A.1* according to Ethnologue (2023d).

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Student text 3

Wikipedia (2011) states that Amharic is a Semitic language, a subclass of Afroasiatic languages. It is spoken in Ethiopia, and it does indeed have a **unique script** and phonological system. It is spoken as a first language and serves as a lingua franca for the Ethiopian population in all major cities. Amharic has over **32,400,000** mother-tongue speakers and more than 25,100,000 second-language speakers.

In other words, Translations Without Borders (2007) noted that **29%** of Ethiopian populations speak Amharic. Hebrew, Arabic, and Amharic are closely related, whereas Somali and Oromo are not, although they are involved in each other. Aramaic and Amharic are distantly related. Much early descriptive literature on Amharic claimed that there was no systematic stress marking.

The Amharic language has seven vowels and 27 consonants. As for morphemes, Amharic is a language with a rich system of morphemes, which are the smallest units of meaning in a language. These morphemes can be prefixes, suffixes, or root words. **In Amharic, words can be formed by combining these morphemes in various ways to convey different meanings** (Leslau, 1968).

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Student text 4

Amharic

Amharic is a language spoken mainly in Ethiopia. As of 2018, there are 56,900,000 speakers of Amharic in Ethiopia, with **31,800,000** being mother-tongue speakers (Ethnologue 2023a).

It belongs to the afroasiatic language family, and is further categorised as a Semitic language, sharing the same language group with languages such as Arabic and Hebrew (Meyer 2011). **page**

Amharic is also closely related to Tigrinya which is spoken in Eritrea, and they both belong to the same Ethiosemitic subgroup of Semitic languages (Ethnologue 2023b).

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Student text 5

Amharic language belongs to the Semitic languages, which is a member of the larger family Afro-asiatic languages (Britannica 2023). It has been the official language of Ethiopia since the establishment of the country at the beginning of the last century.

It's mainly spoken in Ethiopia and it's considered the lingua franca of the multiethnic and multilingual country, which has over eighty languages. It's L2 speakers are more numerous than the native speakers (Ethnologue 2023).

The language uses the Gaez script system, which originated in southern Arabia. It has 28 consonants and 7 vowel phonemes ((Ethnologue 2023).

Arabic, the largest Semitic language in terms of the number of native speakers, is related to Amharic where both belong to semitic languages.

Oromo, the biggest Cushitic language, which is also indigenous to Ethiopia, is distantly related to Amharic. Both languages belong to the Afro-asiatic phylia.

heading!!

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5. Practice

5.0 – Find the inconsistencies!

- (8) *Swahili (Niger-Congo) (Vitale 1981: 158)*
- | | | | |
|----|--------------------|-------------------|-------|
| a. | maji | ya-me-chemka | |
| | water | it-PER-boil | |
| | 'The water boiled' | | |
| b. | Badru | a-li-chem-sh-a | maji |
| | Badru | he-PST-boil-CAUSE | water |
- (10) *Swahili (Vitale 1981: 44; Baker 1988: 393)* water to boil')
- | | | | |
|----|-------------------------------|---------|------|
| a. | ni-li-pika | chakula | |
| | I-PST-cook | food | |
| | 'I cooked some food' | | |
| b. | ni-li-m-pik-i-a | chakula | Juma |
| | I-PST-for him-cook-APPL | food | Juma |
| | 'I cooked some food for Juma' | | |
- (11) *Mapudungun (Araucanian) (Baker and Fasola 2009: 595)*
- | | | | | | | |
|----|-------------------------------------|--------|-----------------------|--------|------|------|
| a. | Ñi | chao | kintu-le-y | ta chi | pu | waka |
| | my | father | seek-PROG-IND.3SG.SBJ | the | COLL | cow |
| | 'My father is looking for the cows' | | | | | |

From Lieber (2021: 170–171).

5.1 – Basic Bariba morphosyntax (18.1)

Bariba or Baatonum is a Niger-Congo language. It is spoken by approximately half a 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.

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

5.2 - Agatu syntax (18.2)

Agatu (or North Idoma) is a Niger-Congo language. There are approximately 100 000 speakers in Nigeria.

Gloss the following examples.

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

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.'

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

5.3 – Sentence types in Gede'o (14.2)

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

Gloss the following examples and answer the questions.

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

1. How do declarative clauses differ from interrogative clause.
2. How do positive clauses differ from negative clauses?

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

3. How does past tense differ from future or non-past tense?
(This does not necessarily need to be a future tense form, since there is a word in the sentences that defines the time.)

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?'

4. What seems to be the basic constituent order?

Looni wiisalloten. 'Looni is a farmer.'
Ise wiisallote? 'Is she a farmer?'
Doorri wiisalloken. 'Doorri is a farmer.'
Isi wiisalloke? 'Is he a farmer?'

5. The verb form 'is' does not occur as an independent word in Gede'o. Instead it is an unstressed clitic word, i.e. a small word that is attached to another more prominent word. What would you say is the clitic verb form in Gede'o that corresponds to English 'is'?

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 baratɣisandzoken. 'He is a teacher.'
Isi baratɣisandzokebaan. 'He is not a teacher.'
Isi baratɣisandzoke? 'Is he a teacher?'
Isi baratɣisandzokebaa? 'Isn't he a teacher?'

5.4 – Referencing

Write up a list of references containing the following three items in alphabetical order.

This week there are no pictures. Instead you need to find the necessary information online.

The article on Wolof word order in this volume:

<https://langsci-press.org/catalog/book/408>

The article on phasal polarity in Kusaal in the first 2022 issue of the this journal: <https://www.njas.fi/njas/issue/archive>

This grammar of Ewe: <http://libris.kb.se/bib/14592563>

See also https://lincom-shop.eu/epages/57709feb-b889-4707-b2ce-c666fc88085d.sf/de_DE/?ObjectPath=/Shops/57709feb-b889-4707-b2ce-c666fc88085d/Products/%22ISBN%209783862882991%22

This grammar of Ghomara: <https://www.koeppe.de/titel-a-grammar-of-ghomara-berber-north-west-morocco>

5. Suggested solutions

5.0 Inconsistencies

(8a) **PER** is used for ????

in (8b) CAUSE is used for causative instead of the recommended CAUS.

In (8b) there is no gloss corresponding to the -a in *a-li-chem-sh-a*.

Since *-chem-* is glossed as 'boil' in (8b), it is inconsistent to gloss *-chemka* as 'boil' in (8a).

In (10a), *ni-li-pika* ought to be *ni-li-pik-a*.

In (10b) *-i-a* is only given one gloss: APPL.

In both (10a) and (10b), the final vowel *-a* has to be glossed somehow. (In Swahili grammar, it is usually just referred to as a final vowel: FV.)

In (10b) *-m-* is glossed **for him**; it should be **for.him**.

(11) The two words *ta chi* have only one glossing.

5.1 Bariba

DEM – demonstrative

DIST - distant, distal

GEN - genitive

POSS - possessive

(1) Sabii*

Sabii

‘Sabii’

or

Sabii

PN

‘Sabii’

(2) Sabii-n kuro

Sabii-POSS wife

‘Sabii’s wife’

or

Sabii-n kuro

PN-POSS wife

‘Sabii’s wife’

(3) duro

man

‘man’

(4) duro wi

man that

‘that man’

or

duro wi

man DEM.DIST

‘that man’

(5) duro boko

man big
'big man'

- (6) duro wi-n kuro
man that-POSS wife
'that man's wife'

or

duro wi-n kuro
man DEM.DIST-POSS wife
'that man's wife'

- (7) duro bok-n kuro
man big-POSS wife
'the big man's wife'

- (8) duro geo wi
man good that
'that good man'

or

duro geo wi
man good DEM.DIST
'that good man'

- (9) *duro geo win kuro*
duro geo wi-n kuro
man good that-POSS wife
'that good man's wife'

or

duro geo win kuro
duro geo wi-n kuro
man good DEM.DIST-POSS wife
'that good man's wife'

- (10) *Sabiin kuro geo wi*
Sabii-n kuro geo wi

Sabii-POSS wife good that
'that good wife of Sabii's'

or

Sabiin kuro geo wi
Sabii-n kuro geo wi
PN-POSS wife good DEM.DIST
'that good wife of Sabii's'

(11) *Sabiin wono geo*
Sabii-n wono geo
Sabii-POSS younger.brother good
'Sabii's good younger brother'

or

Sabiin wono geo
Sabii-n wono geo
PN-POSS younger.brother good
'Sabii's good younger brother'

Grammatical observations:

All the POSS (possessive) could equally well have been marked as GEN (genitive).

The head of a phrase is placed at the beginning of the phrase. The order inside a noun phrase is Noun + Adjective + Determiner.

However, the possessor precedes the head noun.

A possessive or genitive suffix *-n* is added to the last word of whole noun phrase. The suffix can be added not only to nouns, but also to an adjective or determiner.

There doesn't seem to be a definite article: *duro bokon kuro* 'the big man's wife' doesn't contain a Bariba word for "the".

There appears to be a tendency for both adjectives and nouns (other than proper nouns) to end in /o/, but we don't have enough information to know whether this applies across the board or just to a specific subset or class of nouns and adjectives or perhaps not even that.

5.2 Agatu

Glossing abbreviations used:

GEN – genitive
POSS - possessive

- (1) *Oi wa.*
child came
'The child came.'
- (2) *Ewo wa ole.*
dog came compound
'The dog came to the compound.'
- (3) *Ada wa.*
father came
'Father came.'
- (4) *Oi ma ewo.*
child saw dog
'The child saw the dog.'
- (5) *Ada g-oi epa wa.*
father POSS-child two came
'The father of the two children came.'
- (6) *Oi ma ewo g-ada.*
child saw dog POSS-father
'The child saw the father's dog.'
- (7) *Oi ma ewo epa.*
child saw dog two
'The child saw two dogs.'
- (8) *Ada ma ewo epa g-oi.*
Father saw dog two POSS-kid
'Father saw the child's two dogs.'
- (9) *Oi ma ole.*
child saw compound
'The child saw the compound.'
- (10) *Ada g-ole ma ehi g-oi.*
father POSS-compound saw pot POSS-child
'The head of the compound saw the child's pot.'

Notice that you cannot gloss *ada* as head here since you have glossed it as

father elsewhere!

(11) *Ewo ma oi g-ada g-ole.*
dog saw child POSS-father POSS-compound
'The dog saw the head of the compound's child.'

(12) *Ewo epa g-ada g-ole wa.*
dog two POSS-father POSS-compound came
'The head of the compounds two dogs came.'

Grammatical observations

All the POSS (possessive) could equally well have been marked as GEN (genitive).

A possessive Particle is placed just before the noun. It is thus a prefix.

There is no definite article.

Nouns are not inflected for number (singular/plural), at least not when a numeral is present.

The possessive or genitive of a noun is formed by adding "g" as a prefix.

Modifiers (adjectives or genitive nouns) follow the nouns that they modify. The modifier mostly closely associated with the noun is closest to it. For example, in *ewo epa gada gole*, 'epa' (two) follows immediately after the noun *ewo* 'dog', because otherwise it would suggest that the compound or the head were being referred to. Similarly, because the dogs belong to the head (not to the compound), the word *gada*, 'head's' comes next, not the word *gole*, 'compound's'.

Word order is SVO.

Observations: At least in these sentences, the verbs all end in "a". There isn't enough here to be sure whether or not this form is inflected for person or tense.

The word for "head" (in the sense of the head of a compound) is the same as the word for "father".

The only thing I would change is that there are no prepositions. I think we can only say that the verb "come" does not need preposition, but we don't know if prepositions are used in other verbs or even with the verb "come" in

other contexts.

Used glossing labels: OBJ, POSS, PST, SBJ,

1. Agatu seems to be a **SVO** language'
2. There seems to be **no determinators**, e.g. "The child came" -> "oi wa" = "child came"
3. Adding **g-** in front of a noun seems to **indicate ownership**, e.g. "oi" = child, "goi" = "child's". Maybe there are more ways to do this? How about female ownership?
4. There seems to be **no plural nouns** (as in English; one child, two children)
5. When telling how many of something there are, the **number comes after the noun**, e.g. "two dogs" -> "ewo epa"
6. The owner of something comes after what she owns, e.g. "ewo gada" -> "father's dog"
7. There seems to be **no prepositions**, e.g. "came to the compound" -> "wa ole" = "came compound"

Oi *wa.*
Child come.PST
'The child came.'

Ewo *wa* *ole.*
Dog come.PST compound
'The dog came to the compound.'

Ada *wa.*
Father.SBJ come.PST
'Father came.'

Oi *ma* *ewo.*
Child.SBJ see.PST dog

'The child saw the dog.'

Ada goi epa wa.
Ada g-oi epa wa.
Father.SBJ POSS-child two come.PST
'The father of the two children came.'

Oi ma ewo gada.
Oi ma ewo g-ada.
Child.SBJ see.PST dog.OBJ POSS-father
'The child saw the father's dog.'

Oi ma ewo epa.
Child.SBJ see.PST dog.OBJ two
'The child saw two dogs.'

Ada ma ewo epa goi.
Ada ma ewo epa g-oi.
Father.SBJ see.PST dog.OBJ two POSS-child
'Father saw the child's two dogs.'

Oi ma ole.
Child.SBJ see.PST compound.OBJ
'The child saw the compound.'

Ada gole ma ehi goi.
Ada.SBJ g-ole ma ehi g-oi.
Head POSS-compound see.PST
pot.OBJ POSS-child
'The head of the compound saw the child's pot.'

Ewo ma oi gada gole.
Ewo ma oi g-ada g-ole.

Dog.SBJ see.PST child.OBJ POSS-head POSS-
compound

'The dog saw the head of the compound's child.'

Ewo epa gada gole wa.

Ewo epa g-ada g-ole wa.

Dog.SBJ two POSS-head POSS-com-
pound come.PST

'The head of the compound's two dogs came.'

5.3 Gede'o*

needs to be checked and layouted

DECL declarative

NEG negative

POS positive

POSS possessive

PRS present tense

Isi dagee-n.

he came-DECL

'He came.'

Isi dagee?

he came

'Did he come?'

Isi dagee-baa-n.

he came-NEG-DECL

'He did not come.'

Isi dagee-baa?
he came-NEG
'Didn't he come?'

1. How do declarative clauses differ from interrogative clause.

A declarative clause has the suffix *-n* added to the verb. Interrogative clauses are not marked grammatically.

Negative clauses have the suffix *-baa* (before the declarative suffix *-n*). Positive clauses are not marked grammatically.

Isi soodo dag-a-n
he tomorrow come-PRS-DECL
'He will come tomorrow.'

Isi soodo dag-a
he tomorrow come-PRS
'Will he come tomorrow?'

3. How does past tense differ from future or non-past tense? (This does not necessarily need to be a future tense form, since there is a word in the sentences that defines the time.)

The future tense is expressed just the same as the present. Only an **adverb** is added, this was also the case for old Germanic languages.

The suffix for the past and the present tenses differs. For the past it's 'ee', for the present it's 'a'.

4. What seems to be the basic constituent order?

The basic constituent order is SOV.

5. The verb form 'is' does not occur as an independent word in Gede'o. Instead it is an unstressed clitic word, i.e. a small word that is attached to another more prominent word. What would you say is the clitic verb form in Gede'o that corresponds to English 'is'?

barat must be the clitic verb. It is added as a prefix to the object.

Gede'o.

Isi dag-ee-n.

he come-PST-DECL

'He came.'

Isi dag-ee?

he come-PST

'Did he come?'

Isi dag-ee-baa-n.

he come-PST-NEG-DECL

'He did not come.'

Isi dag-ee-baa?

he come-PST-NEG

'Didn't he come?'

1. A suffix (“n”, at least for this verb) is added to the verb to indicate that we are making a declarative statement. Where we are asking a question, the suffix is omitted, making the clause implicitly interrogative.
2. To negate the verb (and the clause), a negative suffix “baa” is added to the verb. Where it’s a negative declarative clause, this precedes the final “n”.

Isi soodo dag-a-n.

he tomorrow come-NPST-DECL

'He will come tomorrow.'

Isi soodo dag-a?

he tomorrow come-NPST

'Will he come tomorrow?'

1. Past tense has “ee” after the root or stem of the verb, while non-past has “a”.

Ise muuze itt-ee-n.

she banana eat-PST-DECL

'She ate banana.'

Ise muuze itt-ee?

she banana eat-PST

'Did she eat banana?'

Ise muuze itt-ee-baa-n.

she banana eat-PST-NEG-DECL

'She didn't eat banana.'

Ise muuze itt-ee-baa?

she banana eat-PST-NEG

'Didn't she eat banana?'

1. The basic order is SOV.

Looni wiisall-ote-n.

Looni farmer-COP.F-DECL

'Looni is a farmer.'

Ise wiisall-ote?

she farmer-COP.F

'Is she a farmer?'

Doori wiisall-oke-n.

Doori farmer-COP.M-DECL

'Doori is a farmer.'

Isi wiisall-oke?

he farmer-COP.M

'Is he a farmer.'

1. The clitic for “be” is added to the complement, and seems to be “oke” for masculine subjects and “ote” for feminine subjects. It precedes the declarative “n”. When there is a negative clitic, the copula also precedes the negative.

Ise baratt-ote-n.

she student-COP.F-DECL

'She is a student.'

Ise baratt-ote-baa-n.

she student-COP.F-NEG-DECL

'She is not a student.'

Ise baratt-ote?

she student-COP.F

'Is she a student?'

Ise baratt-ote-baa?

she student-COP.F-NEG

'Isn't she a student?'

Isi baratffisandz-oke-n.

he teacher-COP.M-DECL

'He is a teacher.'

Isi baratffisandz-oke-baa-n.

he teacher-COP.M-NEG-DECL

'He is not a teacher.'

Isi baratffisandz-oke?

he teacher-COP.M

'Is he a teacher?'

Isi baratffisandz-oke-baa?

he teacher-COP.M-NEG

'Isn't he a teacher?'

Abbreviations used:

COP - copula.

DECL - declarative.

F - feminine.

M - masculine.

NEG -negative.

NPST - non-past.

PST - past.

Gede'o

'Isi dageen.

'Isi dagee-n.

He come.PST

'He came.'

Isi dagee?

He come.PST.Q

'Did he come?'

Isi dageebaan.

Isi dagee-baa-n.

He come.PST.NEG
'He did not come.'

Isi dagee-baa?
Isi dagee-baa?
He come.NEG.Q
'Didn't he come?'

1. How do declarative clauses differ from interrogative clauses? TODO

2. How do positive clauses differ from negative clauses? TODO

Isi soodo dagan.
Isi soodo daga-n.
He tomorrow come.PST
'He will come tomorrow.'

Isi soodo daga?
He tomorrow come.FUT.Q
'Will he come tomorrow?'

3. How does past tense differ from future or non-past tense? TODO

Ise muuze itteen.
Ise muuze ittee-n.
She banana eat.PST
'She ate banana.'

Ise muuze ittee?
She banan eat.PST.Q
'Did she eat banana?'

Ise muuze itteebaan.
Ise muuze ittee-baa-n.
She banana eat.PST.NEG
'She didn't eat banana.'

Ise muuze itteebaa?
Ise muuze ittee-baa?
she banan eat.PST.Q
'Didn't she eat banana?'

4. What seems to be the basic constituent order? SVO

Looni wiisalloten.
Looni wiisallo-ten.
Looni.PN.F farmer-DEC.F
'Looni is a farmer.'

Ise wiisallote?
Ise wiisallo-te?
She farmer-Q.F
'Is she a farmer?'

Doori wiisalloken.
Doori wiisallo-ken.
Doori.PN.M farmer-DEC.M
'Doori is a farmer.'

Isi wiisalloke?
Isi wiisallo-ke?
He farmer-Q.M
'Is he a farmer.'

- Collapse discussion thread from Rikard Skelander

Gede'o

Glosses used: DECL CAUS M NEG NPST PST

Isi dagee-n.

he come.PST-DECL

'He came.'

Isi dagee?

He come.PST

'Did he come?'

Isi dagee-baa-n.

he come.PST-NEG-DECL

'He did not come.'

Isi dagee-baa?

he come.PST-NEG

'Didn't he come?'

1. How do declarative clauses differ from interrogative clause. they get the suffix-n

2. How do positive clauses differ from negative clauses? In negative clauses verbs have the suffix -baa

Isi soodo dag-a-n.

He tomorrow come-NPST-DECL

'He will come tomorrow.'

Isi soodo dag-a?

He tomorrow come-NPST

'Will he come tomorrow?'

3. How does past tense differ from future or non-past tense? Verbs in the past tense seem to have the suffix -ee while non past seem to have the suffix -a. I would then change the glossing of the first sentences.

(This does not necessarily need to be a future tense form, since there is a word in the sentences that defines the time.)

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?'

4. What seems to be the basic constituent order? S-O-V

Looni wiisalloten. 'Looni is a farmer.'

Ise wiisallote? 'Is she a farmer?'

Doori wiisalloken. 'Doori is a farmer.'

Isi wiisalloke? 'Is he a farmer.'

5. The verb form 'is' does not occur as an independent word in Gede'o. Instead it is an unstressed clitic word, i.e. a small word that is attached to another more prominent word. What

would you say is the clitic verb form in Gede'o that corresponds to English 'is'? -n ? wii? -ot/ke?

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 baratɲɲisandʒoken. 'He is a teacher.'
Isi baratɲɲisandʒokebaan. 'He is not a teacher.'
Isi baratɲɲisandʒoke? 'Is he a teacher?'

Isi baratɲɲisandʒ-oke-baa?

He learn.CAUS-M.is-NEG

'Isn't he a teacher?'

5.4 Referencing

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Unit 6. Words (8)

A very simple definition of the concept **word** is often that it can be uttered independently of other words.

But a **word** can still be understood in a few quite different ways. Therefore, in order to be more precise, other terminological concepts are often 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 only counts as one type.

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 is also a sequence of lexemes, and the meaning of a phrase can be derived from the individual words, e.g.

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 2022)

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 2022)

idioms

a piece of cake ‘something easy’ (Macmillan 2022)

Morphemes

A **morpheme** is the smallest building blocks that carry some meaning. There

are three morphemes in each of the three words *un-break-able*, *week-end-s* and *over-slep-t*.

Morphemes are the building blocks of word, each morphemes carries some specific meaning, and it can't be further divided without losing the meaning.

(20) (Swedish)

oroligheternas orsak

o-ro-lig-het-er-na-s orsak

NEG-peace-ADJZ-NMLZ-PL-DEF-GEN reason

'the reason of the unrests'

ADJZ – adjectivizer (a morpheme that creates an adjective)

DEF – definite (article)

GEN - genitive

NEG – negative

NMLZ – nominalizer (a morpheme that creates a noun)

PL - plural

Types of morphemes

root – a single morpheme that carries lexical meaning, mainly verbs, nouns, adjectives, interjections and some adverbs.

bil is a root morpheme

ro is the root in *o-ro-lig-het-er-na-s*

stem – what remains when all inflectional endings are stripped off a word; what is common to all the different forms of a lexeme.

bil is the stem in *bil-ar*

orolighet is the stem in *o-ro-lig-het-er-na-s*

The rest are three grammatical or inflectional endings.

base – a root or a stem.

bil, *ro*, *oro*, *orolig*, *orolighet* are different kinds of bases.

affix – a morpheme that is added to a base of a certain kind.

prefix – an affix that is added before a base.

suffix/ending – an affix that is added after a base.

infix – an affix that is added inside a base.

clitic – a morpheme that cannot occur independently, hence it is not a word, but it also doesn't behave like an affix, because it doesn't have a fixed position with respect to a specific type of base. It may attach to different kinds of words and sometimes fit into different positions in the same sentence. The word that a clitic attaches to is called its **host** (word).

proclitic - a clitic that goes before a host word.

enclitic - a clitic that goes after a host word.

In colloquial (regional) Swedish, there are reduced forms of object pronouns that cannot be pronounced on their own, but have to attach to other words, e.g. to prepositions (21a,b), verbs (21d) or other pronouns (21c), hence they cannot be words. They cannot be endings since prepositions and subject pronouns don't take endings in Swedish. They also cannot be endings since they attach to words from different word classes. These object pronouns must therefore be clitics.

(21) (Swedish)

- | | |
|--|--|
| <p>(a) <i>Ja tror inte på't.</i>
Ja tror inte på=t.
I believe not on=it
'I don't believe it.'</p> | <p>(b) <i>Ja litar inte på'na.</i>
Ja litar inte på=na
I trust not on=her
'I don't trust her.'</p> |
| <p>(c) <i>Känner du'n?</i>
(c) <i>Känner du=n?</i>
know you=him
'Do you know him?'</p> | <p>(d) <i>Ja träffa'n igår.</i>
Ja träffa=n igår.
I met=him yesterday
I met him yesterday.</p> |

Stem

A root and an affix are two types of morphemes.

A stem is not a type of morpheme.

A stem may consist of one or several morphemes: one or more roots as well as one or more 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'

It is only the inflectional affixes that don't belong to the stem.

Infixes

Somali has one infix which is used to form nouns from a dozen adjectives. The adjective simply has two instances of the same vowel, whereas the noun has the infix -ay- in the second (empty) vowel position of the root.

SOMALI

Adjective	root	infix	Noun
<i>adag</i> 'hard'	ad_g	-ay-	ad ay g 'hardness'
<i>culus</i> 'heavy'	cul_s		cul ay s 'heaviness, weight'
<i>jecel</i> 'fond (of)'	jec_l		jac ay l 'love'

Swedish and English has sound alternations that have a grammatical function. These sound changes are called **umlaut** (Sw. omljud) in nouns and ablaut (Sw. avljud) in verbs. These vowel alternations are not infixes. The reason for the two different terms is that the historical origin of the two types of alternations are very different.

UMLAUT

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

ABLAUT

PRESENT	PAST	
skriver	skrev	'writes, wrote'
ser	såg	'sees, saw'
tar/tager	tog	'takes, took'

Allomorphs

Sometimes there are different forms of a morpheme, all of which carrying the exact same meaning. They are simply alternative expressions used in different contexts. Such alternative forms of morphemes are called **allomorphs**

bil	bil ar	'car, cars'
ros	ros or	'rose, roses'
banan	banan er	'banana, bananas'

Together these three morphs constitute the Swedish plural **morpheme** which might abstractly be represented as /Vr/, where V means some vowel.

Free and bound morphemes

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/

Word classes

Word classes have traditionally most often been called **parts of speech**. In contemporary linguistics they are also referred to as **syntactic categories**, which is heavily preferred by some linguists.

Only individual words can be attributed to a word class. Phrases can constitute sentence constituents (or clause constituents), but they have to be broken down into the individual words in order to talk about their word class affiliation.

The most common word classes in many languages are: Verbs, Nouns, Pronouns, Determiners, Adjectives, Adverbs, Adpositions (Prepositions/Postpositions), Conjunctions, Subjunctions, Particles, Interjections,...

Languages are different. Therefore not all languages have the same (amount of) word classes. The set of word classes in an individual language depends on the structure of that language, but often also on the traditions of its grammatical description.

The division into word classes is often based on a mix of three criteria: the semantic, morphological and syntactic behaviour of the words. Such a mix can sometimes be problematic since the different criteria may contradict each other. Especially the semantic criterion is often problematic.

The division of words into word classes is based on the fact that **all the words in a word class should**

– have something in common with respect to their meaning and/or

- have things in common with respect to their inflection and/or
- have things in common with respect to the ways the words are used syntactically when building phrases and clauses.

Languages are different. For example, not all languages have adjectives. Some languages use verbs or nouns instead. To some extent that is possible also in English. Compare:

adjective	no adjective
a dead fish	a fish that died
a golden ring	a ring of gold
a blue dress	a dress with “blue-colour”
an old car	a car (that) one has used a lot

The constructions without an adjective might seem long and heavy, but that is due to English grammar. In languages where such construction are very frequent, they are often shorter, e.g. ‘that one has used’ would be just one word in many languages.

How can we **tell the word class** that a word belongs to?

- **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?

Nouns

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

Verbs

might be inflected for tenses: present, past, future.
might be inflected for person: I, you, (s)he, we, you, they.
are generally used as the predicate of a clause
generally denotes actions, events, or states.

Adjectives

might be inflected for gender and/or number.
are usually used as modifiers of nouns

generally denote qualities and relationships.

Pronouns

might be inflected for gender, number and/or person.
are typically used instead of other words, most of all instead of nouns,
in order to avoid repeating the same noun over and over again.

Conjunctions

are typically not inflected.
are typically used to connect words, phrases and/or clauses.

Adpositions (prepositions/postpositions)

are typically not inflected.
are typically used to indicate a specific relation between two words,
typically between a verb and a noun.

Prepositions vs. Postpositions

Small words like in, on, at, for are put before nouns in some languages and after nouns in other languages. If they go before nouns they are called **prepositions**, and if they go after nouns they are called **postpositions**. In order to refer to both types at the same time, the term **adpositions** may be used.

English has the postposition 'ago'.

two years ago.

There are quite a few 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.

Open vs. Closed Word Classes

New words easily enter into the classes Verb, Noun, Adjective. They are therefore referred to as open wordclasses.

New words very seldom enter into the classes Pronoun, Preposition, Conjunction. They are therefore referred to as closed wordclasses.

Inflected vs. Uninflected word classes

If words are inflected, they usually are divided into word classes based on the forms they exhibit. In many languages nouns and verbs are inflected, and often also adjectives and pronouns, but this differs a lot between languages.

If words are not inflected, they must be divided into word classes based on their syntactic function in clauses.

Inflection versus word formation

Some affixes serve to derive new lexemes. This is called word formation.

Other affixes serve to mark different grammatical forms of the same lexeme. This is called inflection.

An example of word formation:

sjuk > *sjuk-ling*

The suffix *-ling* derives a noun from the adjective *sjuk* 'ill'. This process gives us two different lexemes, one adjective and one noun.

sjuk > *sjuk-a*

The suffix *-a* is used to form the plural of the adjective *sjuk* 'ill'. This process gives us two different grammatical forms of the same lexeme.

When mentioning a lexeme out of context, it is usually mentioned in its **base form**. This is not an objective scientific term. Rather, it is a concept that builds on the grammatical tradition of a specific language, but in general the base form is the morphologically simplest, shortest, or the most frequent form of a lexeme. The exact definition may differ between languages as well as between individual scholars.

Inflection

A word in a specific word class is inflected in a specific number of grammatical forms. The forms can be grouped according to inflectional categories or features and their values, e.g.

Features	Values
Gender	Masculine, Feminine, Neutre...
Number	Singular, Plural...

Case Nominative, Accusative, Genitive, Dative, Vocative...

Tense Present, Past, Future...

More details on features (grammatical categories) and their values will be presented in units 7-10 when discussing the morphology of verbs, nouns, adjectives and pronouns.

Word formation:

There are two main types of word formation:

Compounding – the putting together of two roots

Derivation – the addition of an affix to a base

Derivation vs. Compounding

sjuk-ling	'sick person, patient'	root + affix
sjuk-hus	'hospital'	root + root

Types of derivation

Word class preserving:	brown-ish	going from one adjective to another
Word class changing:	stupid-ity	going from adjective 'stupid' to a noun

6. Referencing

Web pages and pdf documents

Web pages and documents that do not exist as printed works are basically treated like other publications with the same four basic elements. It may however sometimes be difficult to find all the relevant information, and then information that cannot be found must be left out.

There has to be a name before the year. If there is no name to be found of any person that would be the author or editor, then an organisation can take its place. If there is not organisation, then the name of the website make take its place.

The four basic elements should then be followed by the link to the web page or document, which in turn should be followed in parentheses by the date when the page was last visited and a full stop.

Also remember that since these texts have not been printed, the titles have to be given in roman, not italics!

Author's/Institution's/Website's name. Year. Title of the page/document. City: Publisher/Organisation (if available). Link (Date accessed).

It is good to make the links clickable, but avoid to make them stand out by underlining them and giving them a different colour.

Kotus. 2021. Suomi–somali-sanakirja. Helsinki: Institute for the languages of Finland. <http://kaino.kotus.fi/somali/> (31 August 2022).
Nilsson, Morgan. 2021. Beginner's Somali grammar. Gothenburg: University of Gothenburg. <http://morgannilsson.se/BeginnersSomaliGrammar.pdf> (31 August 2022).
WALS. 2022. Language Hausa. https://wals.info/languoid/lect/wals_code_hau (31 August 2022).
Wikipedia. 2022. Hausa language. https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Hausa_language (31 August 2022).

On larger websites you can often find recommendations about how to cite the website, but you might of course need to adjust them to the referencing model that you are following.

For ordinary printed texts that are also available in an electronic version, you **traditionally** don't give the web link even if you have accessed the electronic version.

In the last few years, however, it has become very common to give a "stable" official link (a "perma-link") to the electronic version of both printed and purely electronic sources. There are a few standard formats administered by different organisations, the most popular ones being e.g. <https://doi.org> and <https://hdl.handle.net>. If you give that kind of "stable" links, you don't need to mention the access date. And this kind of link may of course be added also for printed sources, even if it is not obligatory to do so, but it is of course very helpful for the reader and it is nowadays generally much appreciated.

Multiple titles by the same author in the same year

Whenever you have two or more titles by the same author in the same year, you need to add a letter to the year in order to distinguish between the sources, e.g.

Ethnologue. 2022a. Amharic. SIL International. <https://www.ethnologue-com.ezproxy.ub.gu.se/language/amh> (12 December 2022).
Ethnologue. 2022b. Ethiopian languages. SIL International. <https://www.ethnologue-com.ezproxy.ub.gu.se/subgroups/ethiopian> (12 December 2022).

6. Read some more

Chapter 3 in Richter, Borbála (ed.). 2006. *First Steps in Theoretical and Applied Linguistics*.

Chapter 1 in Lieber, Rochelle. 2021. *Introducing morphology*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

https://gu-se-primo.hosted.exlibrisgroup.com/permalink/f/15agpbr/TN_cdi_askewsholts_vlebooks_9781108963008

6. Watch some videos

Morphological analysis (7 min.) | Randall Eggert

<https://youtu.be/TNsFDFPbUW8>

Morphology (11 min.) | Taylor Behnke

<https://youtu.be/93sK4jTGrss>

Morphology (21 min.) | Aaron

<https://youtu.be/oqO3zKxSeGE>

Morphology, Part 3, Intro to Morphemes, you can start at 12.44 (28 min.) | Language

Click the link to get directly to the right spot in this video!

<https://youtu.be/9CDWdQe4EpQ>

Morphology, Part 4, Morphemes and Parts of Speech (21 min.) | Language

(*Parts of Speech* = *Word Classes*)

<https://youtu.be/sWHPlti-i1Y>

Morphology, Part 5, Derivational and Inflectional Morphemes (26 min.) | Language

https://youtu.be/QBX8_xtp2nE

6. Read about KHOISAN languages

Who will take care of writing about the Khoisan languages this week?

Watch for inspiration

Khoisan language family (9 min.) | Julie

<https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=xjUoGAi43II>

Minimally try to cover:

1. Where are Khoisan languages spoken?

2. How many Khoisan languages are there?
3. How many speakers are there of Khoisan languages altogether?
4. What Khoisan language has the largest number of speakers?
5. Where is this language spoken and by how many people?
6. Is there anything in the grammatical or phonetic structure of Khoisan languages in general that stands out in comparison with other language families?

Student text 2024

Khoisan languages

In 1955 Joseph Greenberg classified a number of languages that have click sounds and didn't belong to other languages families to the Khoisan family languages (Greenberg, 1955). Today it is not accepted that the languages in Khoisan are genealogically related and it is been suggested to divide Khoisan languages into three languages families and two languages isolates. The three languages families are Kx'a (the Northern Khoisan) which is spoken in Angola, Namibia and Botswana, Khoe-Kwadi, Khoe-Kwadi (the central Khoisan) which is spoken in Namibia and the Kalahari desert and finally Tuu (the southern Khoisan) which is spoken in Botswana and South Africa. The two languages isolates are Hazda and Sandawe that are spoken in two regions in Tanzania. The problem to establish an relationship within Khoisan is that it failed to yield regular sound correspondence with help of the conventional methods linguistic uses. Instead of looking on close semantic correspondence and rules of sound change, the approach was to use flexibility when it come words and associating meanings in comparison between languages in different groups and this has lead to find some similarities. For example the vocabulary is one of the way to decide a language family and if we take Khoisan languages and compare that to for example to the Germanic languages family (see table 1), we can see very big difference within Khoisan compared to Germanic languages when it come to vocabulary. That is the common thread thru the Khoisan vocabulary, that it is to big differences between the languages (see table 2).

family	language	water	language	water
Kx'a	p-N Khoisan	*!u	proto-Germanic	* watō
Kx'a	!Hoan	žo ₁	Afrikaans	water

Tuu	p-!Kwi	*!q ^h a ₂	British	water
Tuu	p-Taa	*!q ^h a ₂	Danish	vand
Khoe-Kwadi	p-Khoekhoe	*llam	Dutch	water
Khoe-Kwadi	p-Kalahari Khoe	*c ^h ǎ ₁	German	wasser
Khoe-Kwadi	Kwadi	kxoʔ-	Icelandic	vatn
Sandawe	Sandawe	c ^ʔ a ₁	Norwegian	vann
Hazda	Hazda	?at ^h i	Swedish	Vatten

Table 1: Comparison between Khoisan languages and the Germanic language family.

According to the Ethnologue there are totally 26 languages in Khoisan family with roughly estimated 480.000 speakers. The largest is the Khoe-Kwadi with 13 languages and around 340.000 speakers (Ethnologue, 2024c) and in this language family the language with most speakers belong and it is Khoekhoe with about 280.000 speakers (Ethnologue, 2024b). The Tuu has 7 languages, but most of them are extinct and have only around 2.500 speakers (Ethnologue, 2024f). Kx'a has only four languages, but around 77.000 speakers (Ethnologue, 2024d). Khoekhoe is one of the national languages in Namibia, where it is teach in primary school and at University of Namibia (Ethnologue, 2024b). Hazda has 800 speakers (Ethnologue, 2024a) meanwhile Sandawe has around 40.000 speakers (Ethnologue, 2024e).

What differs Khoisan languages from other languages families is their extremely complex sound system. First it is that Khoisan languages is a tone language and also use click sounds: dental affricated (symbolized by |), alveolar affricated (||), bilabial affricated (⊙), alveolar abrupt (!), palatal abrupt (‡). K'xa and Khoe-Kwadi use 4 clicks and Tuu use 5 clicks meanwhile Sandawe and Hadza use only three clicks. These clicks can be combined with a number of articulations such as aspiration, nasality, voicing and ejection and adding that Khoisan languages has also non-click consonants, make it a

very complex consonantal system and among the largest in the World. When it come to vowels, normally five is used but this vowels expands also with different articulations like nasalizations, pharyngealization, breathy and creaky, for example !Xóõ ends up with more than 40 vowel differences. How complex the sound sytem is in Khoisan languages differs largely between Khoe-Kwadi, Kx'a and Tuu, where the language West !Xóõ is one of the most complex with more than 160 consonants (Naumann, 2024).

When it come to the morphology in Khoisan languages, their are similarities between Kx'a and Tuu, but not with Khoe-Kwadi. Kx'a and Tuu has subject-verb-object order and have few noun-classes based on semantic, the language Ju|'hoan (Kx'a) has 4 noun classes and the language !Xóõ (Tuu) has 5 noun clases. Meanwhile Khoe-Kwadi ha mostly subject-object-verb order and noun genders based on masculine, femine and common. When it come to verb Kx'a and Tuu tense are formed by adding particles, a word or an expression to indicate time before the verb. Tense in Khoe-Kwadi are marked by particles (Nama) or by suffixes (Ani, Khoe). The vocabulary of the Khoisan languages reflects their life and culture as hunters-gathers. Some examples is that they have more than 20 words to describe the subtle differences in texture and taste of food, four different verbs to describe stalking a prey, nine verbs for 'squeeze' that they use for extracting edible materials. Extensive vocabulary when it come to anatomic and botanical species.

Language family	Tuu (Taa)	K'xa	Khoe-Kwadi
Language	!Xoo	Ju 'hoan (Ju)	Khoekhoe
one	ʔûã	nlè'é	/gui
three	//âe	n!ànì	!nona
many	//áli	ʔháí	ʔgui-

hot	ᱵ'ái (v.)	khúi (adj.)	/gam-sa
To eat	'âã	'm	‡ũ
To bite	s'i	n!ái	nã

Table 2: Some words in different Khoisan languages.

Ethnologue. 2024a. Hazda. SIL International. <https://www.ethnologue-com.ezproxy.ub.gu.se/language/hts/> (18 October 2024).

Ethnologue. 2024b. Khoekhoe. SIL International. <https://www.ethnologue-com.ezproxy.ub.gu.se/language/naq/> (18 October 2024).

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Ethnologue. Kx'a. 2024d. SIL International. <https://www.ethnologue-com.ezproxy.ub.gu.se/subgroup/4285/> (18 October 2024).

Ethnologue. Sandawe. 2024e. SIL International. <https://www.ethnologue-com.ezproxy.ub.gu.se/language/sad/> (18 October 2024).

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Güldemann, Tom & Edward D Elderkin. 2010. On external genealogical relationships of the Khoe family. Matthias Brenzinger & Christa König (eds). *Khoisan languages and linguistics: The Riezlern symposium 2003*. 2-51. Köln:Rudiger Köppe

Güldemann, Tom. 2005. Tuu as a language family. *University of Leipzig pappers on Africa: Languages and literatures*, 23. Leipzig: University of Leipzig.

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Greenberg, Joseph H. 1955. *Studies in African linguistics classification*. New Haven: Compass publishing company.

Honken, Henry & Heine Bernd. 2010. The Kx'a family: A new Khoisan genealogy. *Journal of Asian and African studies* 79. 5-36.

Naumann, Christfried. 2024. The phoneme inventory of Taa (West !xoon dialect) [preliminary version]. Leipzig: University of Leipzig.

https://www.academia.edu/34849197/The_phoneme_inventory_of_Taa_West_%C7%83Xoon_dialect_preliminary_version (18 September 2024).

Student text 2023

The Khoisan languages is a group of languages spoken mainly in Southern Africa. According to Honken (2020: 419), the group of languages grouped under the name Khoisan consists of three distinct language families: !Ui (or Northern Khoisan), Khoe (Central Khoisan) and Tuu (Southern Khoisan), and three separate languages: Kwadi in Angola and two languages, Hadza and Sandawe, spoken in Tanzania .

According to Güldemann & Vossen (2000: 99), the number of Khoisan languages still spoken is about 30. According to Güldemann & Vossen (2000: 104), only a rough estimate of about 200,000 can be given for the number of speakers of Khoisan languages. They give the number for the largest Khoisan language, Khoekhoe (also called Nama or Damara) as between 120,000 and 200,000 speakers, and the number for the second largest language, Sandawe in Tanzania as several 10,000 speakers. Moreover, they also mention that the remaining languages are quite small, from a few hundred to several thousand speakers.

A later source, Ethnologue (2023b), gives the number of Khoekhoe speakers as 280,000, and it is spoken essentially only in Namibia, with a few speakers in neighbouring countries. Khoekhoe is an officially recognized language in Namibia and taught in primary schools, but can also be studied up to doctoral level at University of Namibia and used in administration (Ethnologue 2023b). According to Ethnologue (2023c) Sandawe had 60,000 speakers in 2013.

Güldemann & Vossen (2000: 104-105) describe the fate of the Khoisan languages as a gradual decline, beginning with the Bantu immigrations starting 2,000 years ago, and from the seventeenth century the arrival of European settlers and traders in the south. Only in Namibia and Botswana a change has begun recently.

The most important common trait in the phonetic structure of the Khoisan languages are very complex sound systems and all extant languages of this group have click sounds, but the grammatical structure varies much between the three main families. (Güldemann & Vossen 2000: 105 -118).

References

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Ethnologue. 2023a. Khoe-Kwadi. [https://www.ethnologue-com.ezproxy.ub.gu.se/subgroup/4284/](https://www.ethnologue.com.ezproxy.ub.gu.se/subgroup/4284/) (2023.10.19)

Ethnologue. 2023b. Khoekhoe. <https://www.ethnologue-com.ezproxy.ub.gu.se/language/naq/> (2023.10.19)

Ethnologue. 2023c. Sandawe. <https://www.ethnologue-com.ezproxy.ub.gu.se/language/sad/> (2023.10.20)

Alphabetical order

Honken, Henry. 2020. Khoisan. In Vossen, Rainer & Gerrit J. Dimmendaal (eds.), *The Oxford Handbook of African Languages*, 419-427. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Recommended not to use upper case in titles in the reference list.

6. Practice

6.0 – No pronouns

Write a short text in English or Swedish. Use approximately 50 words, but don't use a single pronoun.

6.1 – Word order in Lotuko ^(8.1)

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

1.

Gloss the following sentences (a–i) according to the Leipzig glossing rules. (Rule No 1 is sufficient for this exercise.)

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)

2.

Add sentence (h) and translation (i)?

3.

What is the word order in these examples?

6.2 – Sidama verb morphemes (8.2)

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

1. Divide the following Sidama words into the relevant morphemes.

a. What part of these words is constant? That part is most probably the stem of the word.

b. What part differs between the forms of the same verb? That part is most probably the ending.

c. Mark the division into stem and ending with a hyphen.

2. Work out the meaning of each of the morphemes.

Then gloss all the example words according to the Leipzig glossing rules. (Rule No 2 is sufficient for this exercise.)

aganno ‘he drinks’

agi ‘he drank’

The glossing should consist of three lines. The example in the foreign language is on the first line in italics (Sw. kursiv). The words are divided into morphemes: stem and ending.

When one ending carries two pieces of information, we put a dot between these two items in the glossing (PRS.he). The grammatical abbreviations should ideally be written with SMALL CAPS, but CAPITAL LETTERS are also possible.

<i>ag-anno</i>	
drink-PRS.he	(PRS = present tense)
'he drinks'	
<i>ag-i</i>	
drink-PST.he	(PST = past tense)
'he drank'	

This glossing tells us that the stem **ag-** does not reveal the tense (time of the event), it is the ending that makes the difference between present and past, and at the same time it tells us who carries out the action, namely a man: *he*.

As can be seen in the next group of words, the corresponding ending for a woman is **-tu**.

Continue glossing the rest of the verb forms in the same way.

muri 'he cut'
murtanno 'she cuts'
murto 'she cut'
giiranno 'he burns'
la?i 'he saw'
la?anno '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'

3. Do any of the morphemes exhibit allomorphs (different variants)?
4. How would you say 'she burned', 'he ate', 'she drinks' and 'he opens'?

The source of this exercise is Hudson (2000: 81).

6.3 – Swahili noun morphemes (8.3)

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 example words according to the Leipzig glossing rules.

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'

3.
What can you say about different allomorphs of these prefixes and the way each of them is used?
4.
Also adjectives are inflected in a similar way. 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 Hudson (2000: 77).

6.4 – Referencing

Make a list of references containing the following five items.

1. https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Beja_language
2. https://www.afrikanistik-aegyptologie-online.de/archiv/2008/1283/beja_pedagogical_grammar_final_links_numbered.pdf

3. https://corpafroas.humanum.fr/Archives/BEJ/PDF/BEJ_MV_AGRAMMATICALSKECH.PDF
4. <https://www.britannica.com/topic/Cushitic-languages>
5. <https://www.omniglot.com/writing/beja.htm>

6. Suggested solutions

6.0 A text without pronouns

Red words are usually considered to be pronouns, and grey words have sometimes been called pronouns. Traditions differ. We'll find out more about pronouns in Unit 9.

A call came in just as the meeting started. The voice on the **other** end sounded stressed, almost panicked. **Something** important had gone wrong, and a decision was needed immediately. The silence in the room became palpable as the call continued. After a **few** minutes, the call ended, and **everyone** began speculating about **what** had happened.

Swahili is a Bantu language spoken by about 100 million people, mainly as a second language. Swahili is spoken mainly in East Africa, **where** the language is a lingua franca. Also known as Kiswahili, Swahili is an official language of Tanzania and of Kenya. Grammatically, the language is mainly SVO and has numerous noun classes.

African languages include over 2,000 different languages, representing various cultures and histories. Major families are Niger-Congo, Afro-Asiatic, and Nilo-Saharan. **Many** languages use tones, unique grammar, and special words. **This** diversity helps shape cultural identity and highlights the need to protect **these** languages for future generations.

6.1 Word order in Lotuko

- a. *idulak atulo ema*
plants man grains
'The man is planting grains.'
- b. *idulak atulo aful*
plants man peanuts

'The man is planting peanuts.'

- c. *ohonya eito erizo*
eats child meat
'The child is eating meat.'
- d. *amata eito aari*
drinks child water
'The child is drinking water.'
- e. *ohonya odwoti aful*
eats girl peanuts
'The girl is eating peanuts.'
- f. *abak atulo ezok*
hit man dog
'The man hit the dog.'
- g. *amata odwoti aari*
drinks girl water
'The girl is drinking water.'
- h. *abak odwoti eito*
hit girl child
'The girl hit the child.'
- i. *ohonya ezok erizo*
eats dog meat
'The dog is eating meat.'

The word order in Lotuko is VSO.

In the data that we have at hand, there is no evidence that this language would have a definite article. Therefore we should not use any articles in the glossing. Again, the glossing and the translation don't have to be identical. The glossing should give us a good understanding of the structure of the example and the grammatical character of the language, whereas the translation should give us a good understanding of the actual meaning of the example.

All the verbs could alternatively be glossed *is.planting*, *is.eating* etc., but doing so would kind of imply that the language has a progressive verb form, and based on this small amount of data, we don't know that. It is therefore "safer" to gloss the verb with a plain present tense form. The glossing and the idiomatic translation don't have to be identical.

One might also gloss the verbs with the grammatical labels PRS (present tense) and PST (past tense): *plant.PRS*, *eat.PRS*, *drink.PRS*, *hit.PST*. It might be

good to do so since the verb *hit* has rather unfortunate inflectional forms that don't clearly show us the tense. E.g.

e. *ohonya odwoti aful*
eat.PRS girl peanuts
'The girl is eating peanuts.'

f. *abak atulo ezok*
hit.PST man dog
'The man hit the dog.'

6.2 Sidama verb morphemes

Here it seems that feminine gender is expressed by the suffix *-t-*, but masculine gender is not marked. When we only have *-i* and *-anno*, those suffixes express both gender and tense at the same time.

mur-i
cut-he.PST
'he cut'

mur-t-anno
cut-she-PRS
'she cuts'

mur-t-u
cut-she-PST
'she cut'

giir-anno
burn-he.PRS
'he burns'

la?-i
see-he.PST
'he saw'

la?-anno
see-he.PRS
'he sees'

um-anno
dig -he.PRS
'he digs'

un-tu
dig-she.PST
'she dug'

um-i
dig-he.PST
'he dug'

un-t-anno
dig-she-PRS
'she digs'

fan-t-u
open-she-PST
'she opened'

fan-i
open-he.PST
'he opened',

rum-i
curse-he.PST
'he cursed'

run-t-u
curse-she-PST
'she cursed'

run-t-anno
curse-she-PRS
'she curses'

rum-anno
curse-he.PRS
'he curses'

it-anno
eat-he.PRS
'he eats'

it-t-u
eat-she-PST
'she ate'

Of course we may just as well use grammatical labels 3SM (3rd person singular masculine) and 3SF (3rd person singular feminine) instead of the translations 'he' and 'she'. The choice is free. The notational format 3SG.M and 3SG.F is however not recommended.

mur-i
cut-3SM.PST
'he cut'

mur-t-anno
cut-3SF-PRS
'she cuts'

3. Do any of the morphemes exhibit allomorphs (different variants)?

Yes, there is an alternation between /m/ and /n/ in some stems: *um-/un-* and *rum-/run-*. But there is another verb stem *fan-* that always ends in /n/. We can therefore suspect that it is /m/ that is sensitive to the following sound, so that /m/ may occur when followed by /i/ or /a/, but not when followed by /t/. One might suspect a generalization here: maybe /m/ may only occur if it is followed by a vowel.

We might also suggest that the endings *-i* and *-u* are allomorphs since both express the past tense, although here the relation between the two allomorphs is less clear: what makes an /i/ become an /u/ or vice versa? And what is it in /t/ that causes this alternation?

4. How would you say 'she burned', 'he ate', 'she drinks' and 'he opens'?

giir-t-u
burn-she.PST
'she burned'

it-i
eat-he.PST
'he ate'

ag-t-anno
drink-she.PRS
'she drinks'

fan-anno
open-he.PRS
'he opens'

6.3 Swahili noun morphemes

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
SG-bed
'bed'

vi-tanda
PL-bed
'beds'

4. How would you say 'good children', 'a good thing' and 'good things'?

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'

Inflectional prefixes

Singular	Plural
m- (1)	wa- (2)
m- (3)	mi- (4)
ki- (7)	vi- (8)

Stems

-*sichana* 'girl', -*vulana* 'boy',
-*tu* 'man'. -*toto* 'child'
-*ti* 'tree', -*gomba* 'banana tree', -*guu* 'foot'
-*tu* 'thing', -*ti* 'chair', -*tanda* 'bed'

As can be seen in the above table, certain groups of nouns take certain prefixes. In traditional Bantu grammar, such groups of nouns are referred to as 'noun classes', and each prefix is given a number that is common to all Bantu languages. Odd numbers usually represent the singular and even numebtrs the plural, and in Bantu in general there is close to 20 different class-prefixes. However, all Bantu languages don't have all the classes and

prefixes.

Bantu noun classes are very similar to genders in other languages, but genders are usually not that many. In some languages you know which plural morpheme to choose based on the gender of the noun: Italian masculine nouns take the plural -i, whereas feminine nouns take the plural -e. In Bantu you know which plural morpheme to choose based on the noun class that the noun belongs to, and you can usually figure out the noun class based on the singular prefix.

Instead of glossing SG and PL, it is therefore common in the Bantu tradition to just use the numbers, but for non-Bantuists who don't know the system, that is of course not very helpful, so giving both SG or PL and the number would probably be the most straightforward way to satisfy both Bantuists and non-Bantuists: SG1, PL2, SG3, PL4, SG7, PL8. When you do so, it is however extremely important to give the class number after the SG or PL, so that these noun class labels differ from the standard labels 1SG, 2SG, 3SG, 1PL, 2PL, 3PL that represent **person and number** in verbs and pronouns. Also in Bantu there is of course a need for those standard labels when discussing the first or second person, or when talking in general about the third person.

wa-toto wa-zuri
PL2-child PL2-good
'good children'

ki-tu ki-zuri
SG7-thing SG7-good
'a good thing'

vi-tu vi-zuri
PL8-thing PL8-good
'good things'

6.4 References

Lots of tricky things this week. Sorry for that...

~~Britannica. 2024. Beja language. <https://www.britannica.com/topic/Beja-language> (20 October 2024).~~

I deleted this because it is not really an article, just a label that refers to other articles. Sorry, my mistake.

Britannica. 2024. Cushitic languages.
<https://www.britannica.com/topic/Cushitic-languages> (24 October 2024).

or

Britannica. 2018. Cushitic languages.

<https://www.britannica.com/topic/Cushitic-languages> (24 October 2024).

or

Wolff, H. Ekkehard. 1998. Cushitic languages. Britannica.

<https://www.britannica.com/topic/Cushitic-languages> (24 October 2024).

Authors and dates pose quite some difficulties when you make reference to texts on the web. In the case of Britannica there is information about the original author and the history of the article. The main author has not been involved in the different updates, so his text was published online in 1998, but the Britannica team has made changes to this article, the last one in 2018. But if you can't find all those details, you may simply refer to the state that the article is in today and refer to it with the current year.

Omniglot. 2021. Beja (Bidhaawyeet / Tubdhaawi / بُدَاوِيَّت / بُدَاوِ).

<https://www.omniglot.com/writing/beja.htm> (19 October 2024).

or

Ager, Simon (ed.). 2024. Beja (Bidhaawyeet / Tubdhaawi / بُدَاوِيَّت / بُدَاوِ).

Omniglot. <https://www.omniglot.com/writing/beja.htm> (21 October 2024).

At the end of the article, it says *Page last modified: 09.06.21*. which might mean 9 June 2021 and possibly also 21 June 2009, it is a bit tricky to give the exact year when this text was put online.

If you go to <https://www.omniglot.com/about.htm> and scroll down to the photo you will find that this man is something like the editor of the website, but many others have contributed to it. Therefore in this case it doesn't seem correct to give him the credit as the author of the text. However, for certain other web pages, there might be a specific author whose name is given, e.g., right after an article in an encyclopedia. So in this case, this man's name is just mentioned at the bottom of the page as the copyright holder.

So the quickest and simplest solution might be to list this item under the website's name and the current year, i.e. Omniglot. 2024.

Vanhove, Martine. 2014. Beja grammatical sketch.

[https://corpafroas.huma-](https://corpafroas.huma-num.fr/Archives/BEJ/PDF/BEJ_MV_AGRAMMATICALSKETCH.PDF)

[num.fr/Archives/BEJ/PDF/BEJ_MV_AGRAMMATICALSKETCH.PDF](https://corpafroas.huma-num.fr/Archives/BEJ/PDF/BEJ_MV_AGRAMMATICALSKETCH.PDF) (19 October 2024).

Unfortunately, the information given on the first page of the document

does not seem to be correct. Maybe there was an intention to publish it, but that doesn't seem to have happened. The **doi** link leads to a website where there is no trace of the text, and if you look up the book (Mettouchi, A. & C. Chanard (eds.), *The CorpAfroAs corpus of spoken Afroasiatic languages*. Amsterdam: John Benjamins.) at <https://doi.org/10.1075/scl.68>, there is also no trace of the text in that book.

Wedekin, Klaus, Charlotte Wedekin & Abuzeinab Musa. 2005. Beja pedagogical grammar. Aswan & Asmara. https://www.afrikanistik-aegyptologie-online.de/archiv/2008/1283/beja_pedagogical_grammar_final_links_numbered.pdf (21 October 2024).

We should use the information that is found in the document itself. Two cities are mentioned and two years. We are free to choose one city if we want, but we can also mention both. When we find multiple years we should always use the most recent one, since a text cannot have been made available on two different dates. The reason is probably that the first version was made available in 2004 and the present version in 2005. Since we are making reference to the present version, the logical thing is to use the most recent year.

Wikipedia. 2024. Beja language.
https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Beja_language (21 October 2024).

Unit 7. Verbs (12)

In many of the world's languages verbs exhibit quite a lot of inflection. Common inflectional categories are **person, number, gender, tense, aspect, mood, voice**, but in individual languages there are even further categories.

Conjugation = Verb inflection

To **conjugate** a verb is to list its inflectional forms. The list is then the verb's **conjugation**. Often the verbs in a language are subdivided into a number of groups that exhibit certain differences in their inflection. These different groups are then usually referred to as different conjugations, and a specific verb belongs to one of the different conjugations, often numbered as the first, the second, the third conjugation, etc.

(Spanish)	INFINITIVE	PRESENT 3 RD PERSON SINGULAR
1 st conjugation	<i>amar</i> 'love'	<i>ama</i> 'loves'
2 nd conjugation	<i>comer</i> 'eat'	<i>come</i> 'eats'
3 rd conjugation	<i>partir</i> 'leave'	<i>parte</i> 'leaves'

Many languages conjugate their verbs for person and number. It is then common to present verbs in tables with six forms containing 1st, 2nd and 3rd person in the singular and the plural, e.g.

(Chichewa)	Full present tense conjugation	
1st person singular	ndiona	'I see'
2nd person singular	uona	'you(SG) see'
3rd person singular	aona	'(s)he sees'
1st person plural	tiona	'we see'
2nd person plural	muona	'you(PL) see'
3rd person plural	aona	'they see'

Notice that in Chichewa, the 3rd person singular and plural are identical. This is referred to as **syncretism**; the two forms (3SG and 3PL) are **syncretic**.

Some languages have even more forms in their conjugational tables. There may be different forms for different genders, e.g. masculine versus feminine, or human versus non-human. Arabic has several verb forms that make reference to gender:

1st person singular	katabtu	'I wrote'
2nd person singular, masculine	katabta	'you(SG.M) wrote'
2nd person singular, feminine	kabtī	'you(SG.F) wrote'

3rd person singular, masculine	kataba	'he wrote'
3rd person singular, feminine	katabat	'she wrote'
1st person plural	katabnaa	'we wrote'
2nd person plural, masculine	katabtum	'you(PL.M) wrote'
2nd person plural, feminine	katabtunna	'you(PL.F) wrote'
3rd person plural, masculine	katabuu	'they(M) wrote'
3rd person plural, feminine	katabna	'they(F) wrote'

Bantu languages have different forms in the third person for reference to nouns that belong to different noun classes. Noun classes are similar to genders in other languages, but genders are usually fewer, and noun classes are often quite many.

(Lingala)	Full present tense conjugation	
1st person singular	nazali	'I am'
2nd person singular	ozali	'you(SG) are'
3rd person singular, animate	azali	'(s)he is'
3rd person singular, inanimate	ezali	'it is'
1st person plural	tozali	'we are'
2nd person plural	bozali	'you(PL) are'
3rd person plural, animate	bazali	'they are'
3rd person plural, inanimate	mazali	'they are'
3rd person plural, inanimate	mizali	'they are'
3rd person plural, inanimate	bizali	'they are'

(Redden 1963: 35)

The three last forms, used for inanimate plural subjects, simply repeat the plural prefix that occurs on the subject noun, i.e. ma-, mi- and bi- are the three prefixes that are used to form the plural of Lingala nouns.

There may also be an additional number value. Certain languages have special **dual** forms, referring to two persons or things.

The conjugation of a verb usually involves many more forms: a person/number/gender table each for different tenses, aspects, moods and voices, if the language has them.

It is common for languages to have a **present** and a **past tense**. In addition there may also be a **future tense**. Sometimes there are also several different past tenses and/or future tenses, referring to different distances into the past or future (distant past, immediate past, today's past, immediate future, distant future...)

Many languages also have **aspects**. Aspects refer to the character of the event, e.g. whether it is/was/will be on-going, completed or repeated. In

some languages there are special morphemes that mark a **progressive** aspect (expressing on-going events), a **perfective** aspect (expressing completed events) and a **habitual** aspect (expressing repeated events). There may also be an **imperfective** aspect (expressing both on-going and repeated events).

Add examples: Somali, Arabic...

Many languages have moods, e.g. a realis mood (or indicative) and a number of irrealis moods such as the imperative, the subjunctive and the conditional.

All the forms that express tense (T), aspect (A) and mood (M) are often referred to collectively as **TAM-forms**.

All the forms that express person, number and gender are often referred to collectively as **finite verb** forms. Finite verb forms must have a grammatical subject and they often have affixes that refer to the subject. Such verb forms are said to **agree** with the subject and the phenomenon is therefore referred to as **agreement** between the subject and the (predicate) verb.

Forms that don't agree with the subject are called **non-finite verb forms** (Sw. infinita verbformer). **Such forms** are mainly the **infinitive**, the **verbal nouns** and the **verbal adjectives** or **participles**.

Form versus Construction

If tenses are **forms**, there is strictly speaking no future tense in English and Swedish, only **constructions** (more than one word) 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!

"Forms" that consist of more than one word are often referred to as **analytic** or **periphrastic** forms (or constructions), and forms that only consist of one word may be referred to as **synthetic** forms.

In periphrastic verb constructions (or forms), it is common to find two verbs. One verb expresses the main meaning, but it is not really inflected. It's often in the infinitive. Another verb adds some grammatical meaning and carries the inflectional endings for person, number, tense, mood etc. This verb is called an **auxiliary**.

There are two main types of **auxiliary verbs**:

- Temporal auxiliaries: *will, have, had*;
- Modal auxiliaries: *would, can, could, must, may etc. ...*

It is crucial to distinguish between

- synthetic forms or analytic constructions
- the grammatical function(s) of each form, i.e. how they are used in order to build clauses
- the semantic meaning of each form in a certain function.

More about person, number and gender

In some languages verbs are also inflected so that they indicate the person, number and gender of the object of the verb.

More about tense & aspect

Tense is not equal to time!

Tense is a **grammatical form**,

Tense is very often expressed by some affixe(s) (=bound **morpheme(s)**).

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 relation between form (tense) and meaning (time).

There is only some general (frequent) relation between the two.

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

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

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

This is a so called historical use (meaning, function) 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 have tenses (grammatical forms). Especially languages without morphology, or with very little morphology, e.g. Chinese. Then adverbs and particles do the job instead, mostly words that express the time of the event.

Features Values

Number Singular vs. Plural

Case Nominative, Accusative, Genitive, Dative, Vocative...

More in units 7-10 about the morphology of verbs, nouns, adjectives and pronouns.

Indefinite/Definite article (*a* vs. *the*)

Subject/object personal pronoun (*I* vs. *me*)

1st, 2nd, 3rd person

The Past

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

Simple tense form

PRETERITE / PAST

work-ed

arbeta-de

Constructions

PERFECT / PRESENT PERFECT

has worked

har arbetat

PLUPERFECT / PAST PERFECT

had eaten

hade arbetat

However, the function/meaning of a tense may differ from what the terminological 'label' of the form suggests!

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.*

More about mood and modality

There is considerable disagreement between linguists about the exact meaning and use of each of the two terms **mood** and **modality** and the differences between them. However, certain groups of moods and modalities are usually distinguished.

The event's relation to reality

Realis or **indicative** verb forms report “the truth” about the “real world”.

Irrealis forms represent other kinds of events:

orders **imperative** forms

imagined events **subjunctive** forms

conditions **conditional** forms

hope **optative** forms

and several other forms in various languages

Type of clause

Declarative or **interrogative** clause for statements and questions, respectively.

Affirmative (= positive) or **negative** clause.

Some languages have morphemes that are added directly to the verb itself. Other languages use independent words.

English expresses negative clauses with the negator word *not* and questions with the word order, so that questions start with the verb, often the auxiliary verb *do/does/did*, but declarative and affirmative clauses are not marked grammatically in English.

Gede'o marks declarative clauses, but not interrogative ones.

Add example

Somali marks both interrogative and declarative clauses

Affirmative declarative

waa + REALIS VERB

Waa timid. 'She arrived.'

Affirmative interrogative

ma + REALIS VERB

Ma timid? 'Did she arrive?'

Negative declarative

ma + IRREALIS VERB

Ma iman. 'She didn't arrive'

Negative interrogative

sow ma + IRREALIS VERB

Sow ma iman? 'Didn't she arrive?'

Deontic modality

Deontic modality is the grammatical marking of commitment, obligation

and other circumstances that would make the world a better place, closer to some standard or ideal. English uses modal verbs like *shall*, *ought*, *got to*, *let's* or other expressions of wishes or commands, such as the imperative form. Other languages may have several morphemes that are added as endings directly to the verb itself.

Add examples

Epistemic modality

Epistemic modality is the grammatical marking of the knowledge about or belief in the truthfulness of what is stated. English uses modal verbs like *may*, *might*, *must* or adverbs like *perhaps*, *possibly*, *probably*, but other languages have morphemes that are added as endings to the verb itself.

Add examples

Evidentiality

Evidentiality is the grammatical marking of the nature of evidence that is at hand for a given statement. Different morphemes may express circumstances like *I saw it*, *I heard it*, *I figured it out*, *someone told me*, etc.

Add examples

Voice

Active, passive, reflexive, reciprocal

In some languages the verb has different forms for different kinds of voice.

Skanska bygger den nya skolan.

SUBJECT OBJECT

AGENT THEME

Den nya skolan byggs av Skanska.

SUBJECT ADVERBIAL

THEME AGENT

A reflexive verb form expresses that the subject and the object are identical. The same person is at the same time both the agent and the theme of the event. Reflexive verb forms are expressed in Swedish through a reflexive construction consisting of the active verb and the reflexive object pronoun *sig*.

<i>Barnen klär på sig.</i>	‘The children dress themselves .’
SUBJECT	OBJECT
AGENT	THEME

In the 1st and 2nd person, the ordinary object pronouns are used with reflexive meaning in Swedish. English has special reflexive pronouns also in the 1st and 2nd person.

REFLEXIVE VOICE	ACTIVE VOICE
<i>Jag klär på mig.</i>	<i>Pappa klär på mig.</i>
‘I dress myself .’	‘Dad dresses me .’

However, many languages use the same reflexive pronoun in all persons.

Somali

a. <i>Waan is qiray.</i>	b. <i>Wuu is qiray.</i>
FOC.I self hid	FOC.he self hid
‘I hid myself .’	‘He hid himself .’
‘Jag gömde mig .’	‘Han gömde sig .’

Reciprocal voice expresses that several persons are involved in the event. The same group of persons are both the agent and the theme, but for each individual agent in the group, that same person is not the theme, i.e. X dresses Y and Y dresses X, so the subevents are rather active, but taken as a group there is something similar to reflexivity.

Many languages have a special verb form or construction for reciprocal event. This is the case in Swedish and English, where the construction consists of the active verb form followed by a special reciprocal pronoun.

<i>Barnen klär på varandra.</i>	‘The children dress each other .’
SUBJECT	OBJECT
AGENT	THEME

However, some languages use the reflexive form or construction also for reciprocal events.

Add examples

Non-finite verb forms

Infinitive

The infinitive is a non-finite form of the verb, which means that it does not inflect to show the person, number, gender of its subject/agent, nor does it inflect for tense, aspect or mood. In many languages the infinitive also has

certain similarities with nouns: it can be used like a noun in clauses, but it isn't inflected like a noun (e.g. definite form, plural form etc.).

In most languages it is typically used together with another verb which is then the finite verb, showing all the grammatical categories, e.g. *I can read* (*Jag kan läsa*), *I love to read* (*Jag älskar att läsa*).

Not all languages have an infinitive, and instead they make use of expressions like *I can that I read* (*Jag kan att jag läser*), *I love that I read* (*Jag älskar att jag läser*). They may also use a verbal noun instead, e.g. *I love reading* (*Jag älskar läsning*).

Verbal nouns

It is common that languages have affixes that can be added to verbs in order to form nouns that only denote the action itself. The most common English suffix is -ing, which may be added to practically every verb.

VERB	VERBAL NOUN
<i>swim</i> 'simma'	<i>swimming</i> 'simning'

Verbal adjectives and participles

Very often languages also form different kinds of adjectives. Some languages have many different such adjectives. Depending on how they are used, there may be a preference to call them either verbal adjectives or participles. Then participles are still more 'verb-like' and don't behave exactly like an ordinary adjective, but the differences are often subtle and somewhat complicated.

VERB	PARTICIPLE/VERBAL ADJECTIVE
paint 'måla'	painted 'målad' <i>a freshly painted wall</i> 'en nymålad vägg'
sleep 'sova'	sleeping 'sovande' <i>a sleeping child</i> 'ett sovande barn'

7. Glossing

“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 object-language text, which is separated by a hyphen like an overt element.”

(Comrie, Haspelmath & Balthasar 2008)

The majority of Latin nouns have explicit suffixes that express gender and number of nouns, as in (22a). However, some adjective don’t have a suffix that explicitly express the singular; instead the lack of a suffix expresses the singular. This may be glossed in two different ways, as (22b) or (22c). In (22c), the lack of a singular morpheme is made explicit through the use of a symbol that represents exactly this lack of a morpheme. The Ø symbol is usually referred to as the **zero morpheme**.

(22) Latin

a.	amic-a friend-F.SG	amic-ae friend-F.PL	amic-us friend-M.SG	amic-i friend-M.PL
b.	mater mother[SG]	matr-es mother-PL	pater father[SG]	patr-es father-PL
c.	mater-Ø mother-SG	matr-es mother-PL	pater-Ø father-SG	patr-es father-PL

7. Referencing

Dissertations & theses

Use

Place: University name (XX thesis/dissertation).

instead of

Place: Publisher.

Only titles of published books should be given in italics. It may however be quite difficult to know the exact publishing status of this kind of texts. It is therefore common practice to give doctoral dissertations in italics, but BA and MA theses in roman (i.e. plain font).

Le Gac, David. 1997. L'intonation du GN en somali standard. Paris: Université Paris 7 (MA thesis).

Le Gac, David. 2001. *Structure prosodique de la focalisation: Le cas du somali et du français*. Paris: Université Paris 7 (PhD dissertation).

7. Read some more

Chapter 9. Tense, Aspect and Modality, in

Kroeger, Paul R. 2005. *Analyzing grammar: An introduction*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

<https://www.cambridge-org.ezproxy.ub.gu.se/core/books/analyzing-grammar/A2C80CFE228B2FB5AA93A8470E245CAC>

7. Watch some videos

Tense vs. Time (12 min.) | Aze Linguistics

<https://youtu.be/ViotAaOUR8M>

Languages without verb tenses?! (9 min.) | Paul

<https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=9XqdvarsGMU>

Does time work differently in different languages? (8 min.) | NativLang

<https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=u6eXw0AAKZ8>

How a tenseless language talks past and future (8 min.) | NativLang

<https://youtu.be/ttq0S4cuIHA>

The linguistics behind how the Maya talk about the past (10 min.) | NativLang

<https://youtu.be/eaNeA3sKBSI>

Tense, Aspect and Mood (9 min.) | Aze Linguistics

<https://youtu.be/QLADCI9aaYU>

Aspect (39 min. podcast) | Lingthusiasm

<https://lingthusiasm.com/post/756390309859098624/lingthusiasm-episode-94-the-perfectly-imperfect>

Voice in Grammar (10 min.) | Aze Linguistics

<https://youtu.be/o0H-ncG2LgI>

7. Read about TAMAZIGH

Watch for inspiration:

Can Amazighs Understand Each Other? (27 min.) | Bahador Alast

<https://youtu.be/BSKS6RXGWZw>

Who Are The Berbers Of North Africa (16 min.) | Domhnall

<https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=a39oM3MJleY>

See also the article by Mena B. Lafkioui at

<https://pcl-press.org/publications/pluricentric-languages-in-africa-and-in-other-regions-of-the-world/>

2024 Student text

First things first. The name ‘Tamazight’ is a feeding ground for discussion. It is both used as (1) a collective name for the language group of ‘**Berber**’ dialects, but also (2) for a dialect of this language spoken by 3,000 people (Richard J. Haywardt, 2005). In this small article I will speak about Tamazight as a synonym for (1) the collective of Berber dialects that are spoken in Northern Africa.

Tamazight/Berber is part of the bigger Afroasiatic language family. The evidence was stated by Greenberg and many other scholars in the past century. (Ehret, 1990), (Lamberti, 1993), (Hayward and Tsuge, 1998). The fact that case-markers, personal pronouns, the lexicon and phonology, plural formatives and the conjugational features of the verb showed a same recurring structure across all Afroasiatic language branches, made linguists to state that these branches were forming one big family.

The Berber language family –sometimes also called Lybico-Berber- is divided in between four dialect groups. Dialect? Yes, many linguists consider the Berber language group as one big language continuum because of the mutual intelligibility of the speakers. Therefore it is said that the Berber/Tamazight language group consists of four dialect groups -and not language groups. I cite J. Haywardt (2005, 76): “compared to other AA families Berber is peculiar in exhibiting no deep linguistic differences such as to require subfamilies”.

These four dialect groups are as following:

- varieties spoken from northwestern Morocco to northern Algeria, Tunisia into Libya. These include Tamazight, Tarifit and Kabyle.
- The second dialect group consist of isolated varieties in eastern Libya and in the Egyptian Siwa oasis.

- Sahara-Sahelian varieties spoken by scattered tribes in the dessert of Algeria, Mali, Niger and Burkina Faso.
- The last one is a quite distinct variety spoken by the Zenaga in Mauritania.

Other linguists write that it's very difficult to classify these dialect groups genetically. The classical tree model seems to be difficult to use, since the different Berber groups came in contact with each other often, resulting into a vast amount of borrowing words from other Beber dialects. (Maarten Kossmann, 2020) It is therefore difficult to state if a word is a borrowing from another Berber dialect or rather a proto-Berber form.

Enough about the –very old- Afroasiatic family. How do the several Berber dialects look like?[\[1\]](#)

The Berber dialects are mainly oral. Although, they also can be written in Tifinagh, the Arabic script and in Berber Latin. The Latin Berber alphabet is the most widely used today. The Tifinagh script descended from the hieroglyphs of the ancients Egyptians. This hieroglyphs changed into the Lybico-Berber script -also known as the Tifinagh script. The language can be written in many directions. It can go from bottom to top, top to bottom, right to left and lastly left to right. What is most common?

The Berber languages are phonologically influenced by Arabic. The process of spirantization –lenization- has overtaken many Berber languages –though not all.

The Berber morphology is known by its *apophony*. This grammatical phenomenon is typical for Afroasiatic languages and works as following; The Afroasiatic languages have a 'stem' consisting of just consonants. In between these consonants vowels are added. The meaning of the word is changed by the type of vowels that are added. A Tamazigh example (Siwa Berber, Egypt): **yuzen** meaning 'he sent', **yuzi:na**, meaning 'he has sent'. The stem is thus 'y-z-n', the vowels in between -the interfixes' are marking the tense.

“Berber languages have both independent and dependent pronouns, both of which distinguish between person and number. Gender is also typically distinguished in the second and third person, and sometimes in first person plural.” (Maarten Kossmann, 2012)

The Berber nouns are distinguished by gender, number and case. Gender can be or feminine or masculine, number is singular or plural and there are two cases: being in the construct or in the free state –difference between analytic or synthetic structure, keep in mind Berber is a agglutinative language.

The Verbs are stems with added prefixes or interfixes with TAM: tense,

aspect and mood. On top of that, a prefix can also function as a negation-marker.

The Tamazight/Berber language continuum has of course much more information to offer about its grammatical structure, however for this task this is the point where I cease the article.

Sources:

Diakonoff, Igor M. 1988. *Afrasian languages*. Moscow: Nauka.

Kossmann, Maarten. 2020. Berber In Frajzyngier, Zygmunt & Shay, Erin (eds.), *The Afroasiatic languages*, from 58-to 61. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Haak, Wolfgang, Lazardis, Iosif, Patterson, Nick, Rohland, Nadin et al. 2015. Massive migration from the steppe is a source for Indo-European languages in Europe. *Nature* 522. From 207-211.

Heine, Bernd & Nurse, Derek (eds.). 2005. *African languages, An Introduction*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Louali, Naïma & Philippson, Gerard. 2011. *Dynamique du langue. Vowel apophony and underlying segments in Siwa Berber (Egypt)*. Lyon: CNRS.

[1] I refer to the different Berber varieties as dialects rather than languages, since we can speak of a very mutually intelligible group of varieties. On top of that, “a language is a dialect with an army and a navy” (Max Weinreich, 1945) and since the Berber people feel culturally connected to each other, speaking of ‘dialects’ instead of ‘languages’ seems to be the right solution for me.

2023 Student text no 1

According to Britannica (2023a), Berber, autonym Amazigh, plural Imazighen, denotes any of the descendants of the pre-Arab inhabitants of North Africa, and the Berbers live in scattered communities across Morocco, Algeria, Tunisia, Libya, Egypt, Mali, Niger, and Mauritania and speak various Amazigh languages belonging to the Afro-Asiatic language phylum. A map, which shows that Amazigh-speaking areas occur as language islands in the sea of Arabic, can be found in Hayward (2000). According to Hammarström (2020: 14-15) the Berber languages are quite closely related, and according to Britannica (2023b), the group has often been referred to as a single language in the past, but Alast (2021) shows that they are not always mutually understandable. Britannica (2023b) also writes that major Berber languages include

Tashelhit, Tarifit, Kabyle, Tamazight and Tamahaq, and that Berber languages are spoken today by some **14 million speakers**.

According to Britannica (2023a), Amazigh is the name of an ethnic group, also called Berber. Block (2019) gives reasons for using the autonym Amazigh instead of Berber for this ethnic group, but e.g. in Britannica (2023b) the name of the reference was changed from 'Amazigh languages' to 'Berber languages' in 2016. Ethnologue (2023a) classifies e.g. the language Tamazight, Central Atlas as *Afro-Asiatic, Berber, Northern, Atlas*. In this note, I have mainly followed usage in the references that I have found.

The independence of Morocco, Algeria, Tunisia, Libya, Mauritania, Mali, and Niger meanwhile created a new political situation in which Berber nationalism made its appearance, as a reaction to the policies of the new governments, and Berber studies were forbidden or repressed in both Morocco and Algeria (Britannica 2023a). However, according to Ethnologue (2023a), Tamazight was recognized as a national, but not official, language in Algeria in 2002. Berberism in Morocco has led to the recognition of Tamazight as a official language in 2011 and school teaching in Tamazight, and moreover, development started in Morocco of a standard Tamazight language, with an elegant alfabetic writing system called Tifinagh, based on an ancient Tuareg writing system (Etnologue 2023b).

Kossmann (2003: 219) gives the number of phonemes of the Amazigh language Tashelhi(y)t, as 25(-29) **short consonant** phonemes, 28(-35) **long** consonant phonemes, and a **very small amount of 3 vowel** phonemes. He also notes that no Amazigh language has tones. The southern language Tuareg (Tamajeq) has a completely different vowel system with 7 short and 5 long vowel phonemes.

The largest language related to the Amazigh languages is the Afroasiatic language Arabic (Hayward 2000).

References

Alast, Bahador. 2021. Can Tuaregs, Kabyle and Sanhja Amazighs understand each other? <https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=D91ZaRN4yyg&t=598s> (2023.10.26)

Block, Adeli. 2019. Respecting identity: Amazigh versus Berber. Society for Linguistic Anthropology. <https://www.linguisticanthropology.org/blog/2019/09/23/respecting-identity-amazigh-versus-berber/> (2023.10.26)

Question: What is the correct way to format the reference above? I can't find an adress for the Society.

Answer: For web pages, you don't have to state place and publisher.

Britannica. 2023a. Berber. <https://www.britannica.com/topic/Berber> (2023.10.25)

Britannica. 2023b. Berber languages. <https://www.britannica.com/topic/Amazigh-languages> (2023.10.25)

Ethnologue. 2023a. Tamazight, Central Atlas. <https://www.ethnologue-com.ezproxy.ub.gu.se/language/tzm/> (2023.10.25)

Ethnologue. 2023b. Tamazight, Standard Moroccan. <https://www.ethnologue-com.ezproxy.ub.gu.se/language/zgh/> (2023.10.25)

Hammarström, Harald. 2018. A survey of African Languages. In Güldemann, Tom (ed.), *The languages and linguistics of Africa*, 1-57. Berlin/Boston: Walter de Gruyter.

Hayward, Richard J. 2000. Afroasiatic. In Heine, Bernd & Derek Nurse (eds.), *African languages: an introduction*, 74-98. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Kossmann, Maarten. 2020. Berber. In Vossen, Rainer & Gerrit J. Dimmen-daal (eds.), *The Oxford handbook of African languages*, 281-289. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Kossmann, Maarten. 2003. Berber languages. In Frawley, William (ed.), *International Encyclopedia of Linguistics*, 218-220. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

2023 Student text no 2

In North Africa, from Morocco to Egypt, and from the Mediterranean Sea to the Sahara and the northern and western Sahel, including Mali, Niger, and Burkina Faso, there are about forty languages that make up the Berber (also known as Tamazight) branch of the Afro-Asiatic language phylum. Around 70 percent of Berber speakers live in Morocco, where they speak the language primarily in addition to other languages. It is estimated that there are over 40 million Berber speakers worldwide (Lafkioui, 2018).

According to Wikipedia (2022), As a result of this historical interaction, Berber languages have borrowed a significant number of Arabic words and have been influenced in various ways, including in their phonology, grammar, and vocabulary. This influence is most noticeable in areas related to religion, administration, and everyday life. Many Berber speakers in North Africa are bilingual in Arabic, and this has facilitated the borrowing of Arabic words and phrases into their Berber languages.

Distinctiveness in phonology refers to the ability to distinguish between different sounds or phonemes in a language. In many languages, including English, differences in phonemes can

change the meaning of a word. For example, in English, the sounds /p/ and /b/ are distinct phonemes, and the words "lab" and "lap" have different meanings because they differ only in the initial consonant sound (/l/ vs. /b/ or /p/). (Ennaji & Sadiqi, 2004)

The Berber language is spoken in North Africa, where some sounds may not be distinct in the same way they are in English. This is an example of how phonological distinctions can vary from one language to another.

References

Ennaji, M., & Sadiqi, F. 2004. *A grammar of Amazigh*. Fès: Faculty of Dhar El Mehraz.

Lafkioui, M.B. 2018. Berber languages and linguistics. Oxford Bibliographies.
<https://hal.science/hal-01914346v1> (2023.10.28)

Wikipedia. 2022. Berber language.
https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Berber_languages#References (2023.10.28)

7. Practice

7.0 The Zero Morpheme

Go back to assignment 6.2 Sidama verb morphemes. This time make use of the zero morpheme - where it's applicable - when you gloss the examples.

7.1 Tense and aspect in Somali (12.1)

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? Explain!

Waa ay toostay. 'She got up.'

Waa uu toosay. 'He got up.'

Waa ay toostaa. 'She gets up.'

Waa uu toosaa. 'He gets up.'

Waa ay toosaysaa. 'She is getting up.'

Waa uu toosayaa. 'He is getting up.'

Waa ay toosaysay. 'She was getting up.'

Waa uu toosayay. 'He was getting up.'

Waa ay toosi doontaa. 'She will get up.'

Waa uu toosi doonaa. 'He will get up.'

Waa ay toosi jirtay. 'She used to get up.'
Waa uu toosi jiray. 'He used to get up.'

7.2 Verb prefixes in Swahili (12.2)

How would you account for all the verb prefixes in the following Swahili examples?

1. Break up the words into morphemes using hyphens. Then gloss the examples.

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.

2. Group the prefixes into three different categories that have some semantic traits in common.

3. Prepare a table showing the ordering of the prefixes.

4. The object prefixes are not always used. When are they used and when are they not?

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'

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.'

from Kroeger (2005: 24)

7.3 Gee verb morphology (12.3)

It's not entirely clear which language Gee (spoken in Togo) is referring to, but it seems quite probable that the authors mean the Gen language, one of the Gbe languages of Togo, also considered a dialect of Ewe. Gen has approximately 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 that shows the ordering of these groups of affixes.

- | | | |
|----|-----------------|----------------------------|
| a. | bi?-fu-ni | 'I came' |
| b. | bai-fu-ni | 'I went' |
| c. | dos-fu-me | 'you (sg.) ran' |
| d. | me?-fu-mi | 'they spoke' |
| e. | bai-te-mi-le? | 'will they go?' |
| f. | bi?-pa?-ni-do | 'I am not coming' |
| g. | dos-fu-ni-risa | 'I ran first' |
| h. | bai-pa?-me-du?a | 'you (sg.) only are going' |

- i. dos-te-mi-risa-le? 'will they run first?'
- j. bai-fu-ni-tufi 'I went suddenly'
- k. meʔ-te-mi-risa-do-le? 'will they not speak first?'
- l. biʔ-te-me-duʔa-do 'you (sg.) only will not come'
- m. meʔ-paʔmi-tufi-le? 'are they suddenly speaking?'

from Kroeger (2005: 18), who in turn cites Bendor-Samuel and Levinson (1986) and Roberts (1999, ex. M-4.8)

7.4 Ekpeye verb morphology (18.3)

Ekpeye is a Niger-Congo language.

It is spoken by appr. 30,000 people 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)

151 (6) Kroeger 2005

ChiBemba (Bantu) (Chung and Timberlake 1985:208)

REMOTE PAST	ba-àlí -bomba	‘they worked (before yesterday)’
REMOVED PAST	ba-àlíí -bomba	‘they worked (yesterday)’
NEAR PAST	ba-àcí -bomba	‘they worked (today)’
IMMEDIATE PAST	ba-á -bomba	‘they worked (within the last 3 hours)’
IMMEDIATE FUTURE	ba-áláá -bomba	‘they’ll work (within the next 3 hours)’
NEAR FUTURE	ba-léé -bomba	‘they’ll work (later today)’
REMOVED FUTURE	ba-kà -bomba	‘they’ll work (tomorrow)’
REMOTE FUTURE	ba-ká -bomba	‘they’ll work (after tomorrow)’

7.5 Referencing

Submit your list of references with these six items in alphabetical order.

<http://ulspace.ul.ac.za/handle/10386/3959>

<https://hdl.handle.net/10210/400304>

<https://repository.up.ac.za/handle/2263/5848>

<https://surface.syr.edu/thesis/769/>

<https://www.academia.edu/42006523>

<https://uir.unisa.ac.za/handle/10500/30321>

7. Suggested solutions

7.0 The Zero Morpheme

muri

mur-Ø-i

cut-he-PST or

cut-3SM-PST

‘he cut’

murtu

mur-t-u

cut-she-PST or

cut-3SF-PST

‘she cut’

murtanno

mur-t-anno

cut-she-PRS or

cut-3SF-PRS
'she cuts'

giiranno
giir-Ø-anno
burn-he-PRS or
burn-3SM-PRS
'he burns'

laʔi
laʔ-Ø-i
see-3SM-PST
'he saw'

laʔanno
laʔ-Ø-anno
see-3SM-PRS
'he sees'

untanno
un-t-anno
dig-3SF-PRS
'she digs'

umanno
um-Ø-anno
dig-3SM-PRS
'he digs'

untu
un-t-u
dig-3SF-PST
'she dug'

umi
um-Ø-i
dig-3SM-PST
'he dug'

fantu
fan-t-u
open-F-3SF.PST
'she opened'

fani

fan-Ø-i
open-M-3SM.PST
'he opened',

runtu
run-t-u
curse-F-3SF.PST
'she cursed'

rumi
rum-Ø-i
curse-M-3SM.PST
'he cursed'

runtanno
run-t-anno
curse-F-3SF.PRS
'she curses'

rumanno
rum-Ø-anno
curse-M-3SM.PRS
'he curses'

itanno
it-Ø-anno
eat-M-3SM.PRS
'he eats'

ittu
it-t-u
eat-F-3SF.PST
'she ate'

itanno
it-Ø-anno
eat-M-3SM.PST
'He ate'

giirtu
giir-t-u
burn-F-3SF.PST
'She burned'

agtanno
ag-t-anno
drink-F-3SF.PRS

'She drinks'

fananno

fan-Ø-anno

open-M-3SF.PRS

'he opens'

7.1 Tense and aspect in Somali

The word *waa* is sentence particle that expresses that the sentence is a affirmative (not negative) declarative clause (a statement), and that there is focus (emphasis) on the predicate that follows the particle.

Waa ay toos-t-ay

FOC she get.up-3SF-PST

'She got up.'

Waa uu toos-ay

FOC he get.up-PST

'He got up.'

Waa ay toos-t-aa

FOC she get.up-3SF-PRS

'She gets up.'

Waa uu toos-aa

FOC he get.up-3SM-PRS

'He gets up.'

Waa ay toos-ay-s-aa

FOC she get.up-PROG-3SM-PRS

'She is getting up.'

Waa uu toos-ay-Ø-aa

FOC he get.up-PROG-3SM-PRS

'He is getting up.'

Waa ay toos-ay-s-ay

FOC she get.up-PROG-3SF-PST

'She was getting up.'

Waa uu toos-ay-Ø-ay

FOC he get.up-PROG-3SM-PST

'He was getting up.'

Waa ay toos-ii doon-t-aa

FOC she get.up-INF AUX.FUT-3SF-PST

'She will get up.'

Waa uu toos-i doon-Ø-aa
FOC he get.up-INF AUX.FUT-3SM-PST
'He will get up.'

Waa ay toos-i jir-t-ay
FOC she get.up-INF AUX.HAB-3SF-PST
'She used to get up.'

Waa uu toos-i jir-Ø-ay
FOC he get.up-INF AUX.HAB-3SM-PST
'He used to get up.'

AUX – auxiliary verb

FOC – focus particle

HAB – habitual aspect

PROG – progressive aspect

There are three semantic tenses (past, present, future), two morphological tenses (past, present), two morphological aspects (simple and progressive), and three semantic aspects (simple, progressive, habitual).

It looks as though *waa ay toosi doontaa* 'she will get up' and *waa uu toosi doonaa* 'he will get up' combine a non-finite *toosi* with a present-tense verb ending in *-aa*, while *waa ay toosi jirtay* 'she used to get up' and *waa uu toosi jiray* 'he used to get up' combine *tosi* ('run') with a past-tense form *jir(t)ay* (feminine 't') ending in *-ay*.

Whereas the two morphological tenses can be combined with either morphological aspect, producing four forms in total (present, present progressive, past, past progressive), the habitual is restricted to the past tense, and the future cannot be combined with the progressive.

7.2 Verb prefixes in Swahili

ninasema

ni-na-sema

1SG-PRS-speak

'I speak'

unasema

u-na-sema

2SG-PRS-speak

'you speak'

anasema

a-na-sema

3SM-PRS-speak
'he speaks'

wanasema
wa-na-sema
3PL-PRS-speak
'they speak'

ninaona
ni-na-ona
1SG-PRS-see
'I see'

niliona
ni-li-ona
1SG-PST-see
'I saw'

ninawaona
ni-na-wa-ona
1SG-PRS-OBJ.3PL-see
'I see them'

nilikuona
ni-li-ku-ona
1SG-PST-OBJ.3SG-see
'I saw you'

ananiona
a-na-ni-ona
3SG-PRS-OBJ.1SG-see
'he sees me'

utaniona
u-ta-ni-ona
2SG-FUT-OBJ.1SG-see
'you will see me'

mtoto alisoma kitabu
m-toto a-li-soma ki-tabu
SG-child 3SG-PST-read SG-book
'The child read the book.'

mtoto alikisoma
m-toto a-li-ki-soma
SG-child 3SG-PST-OBJ.3SG-read
'The child read it.'

watoto walisoma vitabu

Wa-toto wa-li-soma vi-tabu
PL-child 3PL-PST-read PL-book
'The children read the books.'

watoto walivisoma

wa-toto wa-li-vi-soma
PL-child 3PL-PST-OBJ.3PL-read
'The children read them.'

mtoto alikula ndizi

m-toto a-li-kula ndizi
SG-child 3SG-PST-eat banana(s)
'The child ate the banana(s).'

mtoto aliikula

m-toto a-li-i-kula
SG-child 3SG-PST-OBJ.3SG-eat
'The child ate it.'

mtoto alizikula

m-toto a-li-zi-kula
SG-child 3SG-PST-OBJ.3PL-eat
'The child ate them.'

Mwalimu alipiga mtoto

m-walimu a-li-piga m-toto
SG-teacher 3SG-PST.beat SG-child
'The teacher beat the child.'

Mwalimu alimpiga

mw-alimu a-li-m-piga
SG-teacher 3SG-PST-OBJ.3SG-beat
'The teacher beat him/her.'

walimu walipiga watoto

w-alimu wa-li-piga wa-toto
PL-teacher 3PL-PST-beat PL-child
'The teachers beat the children.'

Walimu waliwapiga

w-alimu wa-li-wa-piga
PL-teacher 3PL-PST-OBJ.3PL-beat
'The teachers beat them.'

Categories of prefix:

- Subject of the verb (ni, u, a, wa).
- Object of the verb (ni, ku, li, m, wa, zi...).
- Tense of the verb (na, li, ta).

Subject prefix	Tense	Object prefix	Stem of the verb
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Object prefixes are used if no direct object noun follows the verb.

Swahili comments

Here is a couple of nerdy comments on the Swahili examples in the glossing exercises.

In the examples provided, object markers are used only when the object noun is not explicit. It is however very common in Swahili to use the object marker even if the verb is followed by an explicit direct object. According to Mpiranya (2015: 202), "the object marker is used to refer to a specified object ... while unspecified direct objects are used without an object marker". On this understanding of the function of the object marker + noun (which is not unchallenged) the construction comes close to expressing what many languages express through the use of the definite article. Thus, *Watoto walisoma vitabu* would mean 'The children read books', while *Watoto walivisoma vitabu* would mean 'The children read the books'.

The examples with the Swahili verb for "eat" are very interesting. In fact, the verb stem is *la*, which makes this one of quite few monosyllabic verb stems in the language. Strictly speaking, *ku-* is not part of the stem but the infinitive prefix, which in some (not all) tenses is retained/inserted before the stem so as to prevent stress from falling on the TAM prefix. Thus:

Mtoto a-li-ku-la ndizi.
child 3SG-PST-INF-eat banana
'The child ate a banana(s).'

On the other hand, Swahili has no problem with having stress fall on an object marker, so if such a morpheme is inserted, *ku-* should disappear (Mpiranya 2015: 94):

Mtoto a-li-i-la.
child 3SG-PST-CL9.OM-eat
'The child ate it.'

Mtoto a-li-zi-la.

child 3SG-PST-CL10.0M-eat
'The child ate them.'

The two examples *Mtoto aliikula* and *Mtoto alizikula* would in all probability be rejected as ungrammatical by Tanzanian speakers of Standard Swahili. The interesting thing is that speakers of the Kenyan variety of Swahili tend to insert an "extra" *ku-* with monosyllabic verb stems in constructions like these. The "over-use" of *ku-* is in fact one of the most characteristic traits of Kenyan Swahili. So if these examples are authentic, I would guess they were collected in Kenya.

Reference:

Mpiranya, Fidèle. 2015. *Swahili grammar and workbook*. Abingdon: Routledge.

7.3 Gee verb morphology

bi?-fu-ni
come-PST-1SG
'I came'

bai-fu-ni
go-PST-1SG
'I went'

dos-fu-me
run-PST-2SG
'you (sg.) ran'

me?-fu-mi
speak-PST-3PL
'they spoke'

bai-te-mi-le?
go-FUT-3PL-Q
'will they go?'

bi?-pa?-ni-do
come-PRS-1SG-NEG
'I am not coming'

Unsure about PTCP

dos-fu-ni-risa
run-PST-1SG-first
'I ran first'

bai-pa?-me-du?a
go-PRS-2SG-only

Unsure about PTCP

'you (sg.) only are going'

dos-te-mi-risa-le?
run-FUT-3PL-first-Q
'will they run first?'

bai-fu-ni-tuɸi
go-PST-1SG-suddenly
'I went suddenly'

meʔ-te-mi-risa-do-le?
speak-FUT-3PL-first-NEG-Q
'will they not speak first?'

biʔ-te-me-duʔa-do
come-FUT-2SG-only-NEG
'you (sg.) only will not come'

meʔ-paʔmi-tuɸi-le?
speak-PRS-3PL-suddenly-Q
'are they suddenly speaking?'

Slots:

Verb base	TAM	Subject	Adverb	Negative	Interrog.
e.g. dos, bai	fu (PST), te (FUT), paʔ (PROG)	ni, me, mi	e.g. duʔa	do	leʔ

7.4 Ekpey verb morphology

edi

e-di

3SM-eat

'he will eat'

edikpo

e-di-kpo

3SM-eat-CMPL

'he will finish eating'

Completive CMPL (or perfective PFV) aspect refers to an aspectual form that expresses an action that has been or will be carried out thoroughly and to completion.

An alternative is aspect.

edile

e-di-le

3SM-eat-PRF

'he has eaten'

Perfect PRF aspect or tense refers to the result that remains as a result of an action that was carried out in the past.

eme

e-me

3SM-make

'he will make'

emegba

e-me-gba

3SM-make-REP

'he will make again'

Repetitive REP (or iterative ITER, or possibly habitual HAB) aspect refers in different ways to repeated events.

adikpole

a-di-kpo-le

Ceat-CMPL-PRF

'we have finished eating'

edikpohwo

e-di-kpo-hwo

3SM-eat-CMPL-eventually

'he will eventually finish eating'

aigbale

a-i-gba-le

3SM-eat-REP-PRF

'we have eaten again'

emekpohwole

e-me-kpo-hwo-le

3SM-make-CMPL-eventually-PRF

'he has eventually finished making'

amekpogbale

a-me-kpo-gba-le

1PL-make-CMPL-REP-PRF

'we have finished making again'

amegbahwo

a-me-gba-hwo

1PL-make-REP-eventually

'we will eventually make again'

Glossing labels

1PL – first person plural

3SM – third person singular masculine

CMPL – completive aspect

PRF – perfect aspect/tense

REP – repetitive aspect

List of morphemes

Prefixes

a-: 1st person plural subject marker (1PL)

e-: 3rd person singular subject marker (3SG)

roots

di: eat

me: make

suffixes

-gba: again

-hwo: eventually

-kpo: finish

-le: perfective aspect marker (PFV)

It seems that Ekpeye is not primarily a tense language, but an aspect language.

Ekpeye seems to be an **agglutinative** language. It combines several morphemes to one complex word.

Facts:

- The subject prefix fits into the leftmost slot.
- The verb stem fits into the second slot.
- Next (optionally) come the suffixes *kpo*, *gba*, *hwo*, *le*, in that order.
- **Aspect** is represented by the perfect *le* as well as by *kpo* ('finish'), *gba* ('again'), *hwo* ('eventually').
- **Tense** is not encoded; it is only implied by the aspectual affixes.

7.5 Referencing

Di Maio, Chiara. 2023. Focus in Kenyan Maay. Syracuse, NY: Syracuse University (MA thesis). <https://surface.syr.edu/thesis/769> (24 October 2024).

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Di Maio, Chiara. 2023. Focus in Kenyan Maay. Syracuse, NY: Syracuse University (MA thesis). <https://surface.syr.edu/thesis/769>

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Prepositions and definite articles are treated as part of the last name.

When the link is an official stable/permanent link to a university library or an organisation like **doi** or **handle**, you don't have to indicate the date that you accessed the document. But it is of course never wrong to indicate the date.

With theses and dissertations that have been officially defended at a university, and should therefore be properly archived there, you don't have to give the link, but it is of course very helpful for the reader to get the link. BA and MA theses are rarely printed, and since they only are published online, a link is good to have in the list of references.

Ditaunyane, Shoadi Ezekial. 1996. Subcategorization properties of Tswana verbs. Bloemfontein: Vista University (MA thesis). <https://uir.unisa.ac.za/handle/10500/30321> (24 October 2024).

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Limpopo is a province in South Africa, not a city. University of Limpopo is situated in Mankweng.

Lee, Wing Yee Vicky. 2017. The verbal clitic system of Somali. Melbourne: The University of Melbourne (BA thesis).
<https://www.academia.edu/42006523> (24 October 2024).

If the link is not stable/permanent, but leads to a private site or to an account at some web site like Academia, the link and document may disappear. If the document is not officially archived at the university, you should always give the link and the access date.

The official name of this university seems to include the definite article:



Maja, Innocent. 2007. Towards the protection of minority languages in Africa. Pretoria: University of Pretoria (LLM thesis).
<http://hdl.handle.net/2263/5848>

or

Maja, Innocent. 2007. Towards the protection of minority languages in Africa. Pretoria: University of Pretoria (Master's thesis).
<http://hdl.handle.net/2263/5848>

or

Maja, Innocent. 2007. Towards the protection of minority languages in Africa. Pretoria: University of Pretoria (Master's thesis).

This is a **handle** link. Therefore no need to indicate the access date.

LLM means Master of Law. It is possible to simplify by just writing Master's thesis (and also Bachelor's thesis, Doctoral dissertation).

Notice that MA thesis is something different; it means Master of Arts.

Nagar, Marcel Felicity. 2019. *The quest for democratic developmental states in Africa: A study of Ethiopia, Mauritius and Rwanda*. Johannesburg: University of Johannesburg (PhD dissertation).
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Unit 8. Nouns (9)

Some common grammatical features with respect to nouns are:

Gender: e.g. masculine, feminine, neutre...

Number: e.g. singular, plural, dual...

Definiteness: e.g. indefinite, definite...

Case: e.g. nominative, accusative, genitive, dative...

Languages are different, and of course not all languages have all those features. Some languages also have other features.

Subdivision of nouns

In many languages nouns are divided into a number of groups based on their behaviour together with other words. The nouns in each group share some important behaviour that makes them different from the nouns in the other groups.

Genders and noun classes

It might be that different nouns require other words like determiners, adjectives or verbs to co-occur in different forms. In grammatical terms the accompanying words have to **agree** with the noun.

Such sub-groups are traditionally referred to as genders in some languages and noun-classes in other languages (e.g. Bantu). Genders are often fewer (often two or three) and noun-classes are often more numerous. Common gender labels are masculine, feminine and neutre.

Grammatical **gender** is not the same as biological **sex**! But there is often a quite good correlation, so that most nouns denoting female beings are feminine and most nouns denoting male beings are masculine. But there are sometimes exceptions. Somali *sac* 'cow', *xaas* 'wife', *dumar* 'women (coll.)' are masculine nouns. But on the other hand, all non-living objects also fall into the genders of the language, and there is sometimes not any evident reason for that division, e.g. that Somali *kab* 'shoe' is feminine, but *dab* 'fire' is masculine.

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

German has three genders since different nouns require either *der* (masculine), *die* (feminine) or *das* (neutre). Again, things can be masculine or feminine as well as neutre, and some words denoting people are neutre, such as *Mädschen* 'girl'.

Modern Swedish has only two genders, but they are not sex-related. A specific noun requires either *en* or *ett* 'a', *den* or *det* 'the', *ny* or *nytt* 'new' etc., and almost all living beings require the first form (the so called n-gender or common gender). The division is therefore more related to **animacy** (being alive, having a soul/spirit) than to sex. But again, this is only a tendency, since there are exceptions, e.g. *ett djur* 'an animal', *ett biträde* 'an assistant' belong to the so called (t-gender or neutre).

FRENCH		RUSSIAN	
Masculine	<i>le livre</i> 'the book'	<i>tot dom</i>	'that house'
Feminine	<i>la maison</i> 'the house'	<i>ta kniga</i>	'that book'
Neutre		<i>to okno</i>	'that window'
HAUSA		SOMALI	
Masculine	<i>tebur</i> 'table'	<i>Kani waa miis</i>	'This is a table.'
Feminine	<i>taga</i> 'window'	<i>Tani waa daaqad</i>	'This is a window.'

Some languages have many more groups, often referred to as noun classes, e.g. in Swahili and other Bantu languages.

Finally, some languages do not divide nouns into sub-groups like noun classes or genders, e.g. English, Finnish, Persian, Turkish.

Declensions

It might also be that different groups of nouns take different inflectional affixes in certain morphological forms, e.g. the plural form.

This division often differs from the gender division, and there are often more declensions (inflectional patterns) than there are genders.

(Somali)

1st declension, only feminine nouns ending in -o

sg. hooyo 'mother' pl. hooyooyin, def. hooyooyinka

2nd declension, only masculine nouns ending in -e

sg. aabbe 'father' pl. aabbayaal, def. aabbayaasha

3rd declension, only monosyllabic masculine nouns

sg. miis 'table' pl. miisas, def. miisaka
sg. koob 'cup' pl. koobab, def. koobabka

4th declension, mainly feminine nouns, but also some masculine

sg. kab 'shoe' pl. kabo, def. kabaha

5th declension, only masculine nouns

sg. libaax 'lion' pl. libaaxyo, def. libaaxyada

Other subdivisions

Other important ways of subdividing nouns are

- | | | |
|----|-----------------------|---------------------------------------|
| a. | Countable nouns | <i>table, idea</i> |
| | Uncountable nouns | <i>furniture, love</i> |
| | Mass nouns | <i>milk, water, air, sugar</i> |
| b. | Concrete nouns | <i>table, furniture, milk, London</i> |
| | Abstract nouns | <i>idea, love</i> |
| c. | Common nouns | <i>car, milk, idea, love</i> |
| | Proper nouns (=names) | <i>London, Susan, Africa</i> |

Number, gender, case

Features Values

Number Singular vs. Plural

Case Nominative, Accusative, Genitive, Dative, Vocative...

Swahili noun classes

The Bantu noun-classes tell us both how the noun itself is inflected for the singular and the plural form and how accompanying words like determiners, adjectives and verbs should be inflected in order to agree with the noun. In the Bantu tradition, the singular form belongs to one class and the plural form to another class. E.g. in Swahili, both singulars of class 9 and 11 have

corresponding plural forms in class 10.

NOUNS

CLASS 1/2	3/4	7/8	5/6	9/10	11/10
m toto 'child'	m fuko 'bag'	k itabu 'book'	gari 'car'	simu 'phone'	u siku 'night'
w atoto 'children'	m ifuko 'bags'	v itabu 'books'	ma gari 'cars'	simu 'phones'	siku 'night'

DETERMINERS

CLASS 1/2	3/4	7/8	5/6	9/10	11/10
w angu 'my'	w angu	ch angu	l angu	y angu	w angu
w angu	y angu	vy angu	y angu	z angu	z angu

Possessive determiners agree with the noun that they determine, e.g.

class 1: **m**toto **w**angu 'my child'
class 4: **m**ifuko **y**angu 'my bags'
class 5: **g**ari **l**angu 'my car'
class 8: **v**itabu **vy**angu 'my books'
class 10: **p**aka **z**angu 'my cats'

Somali genders

MASCULINE

Stress on second last vowel position

dukáan 'shop'

Definite article -ka

*dukáan***ka** 'the shop'

Possessive kayga 'my'

*dukáan***kayga** 'my shop'

Adjectives don't have different gender forms.

dukáankayga **yar** 'my little shop'

Subject pronoun

uu 'he, it'

Verbs 3rd p. sg. masc. -aa

heesaa 'sings'

*wíil***ka** yari wáa **uu** heesaa
'the little boy sings'

FEMININE

Stress on last vowel position

laán 'branch'

Definite article -ta

laánta 'the branch',

Possessive tayda 'my'

laántayda 'my branch'

Subject pronoun

ay 'she, it'

Verbs 3rd p. sg. fem. -taa

heestaa 'sings'

*gabár***ta** yari wáa **ay** heestaa
'the little girl sings'

wáa is a focus marker that emphasises the predicate.

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

Number

It is common that languages have morphological affixes that indicate the number of objects referred to, most often a **singular** form and a **plural** form. Very often the singular form is not marked explicitly, so it is the lack of a plural affix that indicates the singular. Many linguists would therefore say that there is a zero morpheme that expresses the singular.

(Swedish)

sg	<i>flick-a</i> 'girl'	<i>ros-Ø</i> 'rose'	<i>poj-k-e</i> 'boy'	<i>sten-Ø</i> 'stone'
PL	<i>flick-or</i>	<i>ros-or</i>	<i>poj-k-ar</i>	<i>sten-ar</i>

Some languages have other number values, such as the **dual**, a special form of a noun that denotes exactly two object. In languages that have a dual, the plural form then usually denotes three or more objects. In Arabic, however, the dual has gotten out of use for most words, and remained mostly for words that denote paired body-parts. In Slovene the opposite is true, paired objects don't have to be referred to in the dual form, since that would be to point out the obvious.

And not all languages express number through suffixes. There are also languages that make use of prefixes or internal changes to the stem.

	SLOVENE suffixes	SWAHILI prefixes	ARABIC stem alternations
Singular	miza 'table'	kiatu 'shoe'	maktab 'office'
Plural	mize '>2 tables'	viatu 'shoes'	maka:tib 'offices'
Dual	mizi '2 tables'		(maktabaan '2 offices')

Some languages, e.g. Malay (an Austronesian language in Malaysia), express the plural by repeating the noun twice, e.g. *anak* 'child' vs. *anak-anak* 'children'. In grammar this is referred to as **full reduplication**, i.e. the whole word is reduplicated. There is also **partial reduplication**, as in the Somali 3rd declination above, where only the last consonant is reduplicated (preceded by a dummy vowel -a-), e.g. *koob* 'cup', *koobab* 'cups'.

Finally, not all languages have number. Some languages don't make an obligatory morphological distinction between singular and plural. The same form is used with reference to both one and several objects. E.g. Japanese doesn't obligatorily inflect nouns for number. There are, however, optional suffixes in Japanese that may be used in order to emphasise that there are several persons or objects.

Some languages use plural forms more seldom. In Persian plural form are mainly used when the noun phrase is definite.

Persian:

Kafsh e khub kharid-i.

shoe LINKER good bought-you

You have bought good shoes.

kafsh-ha

shoe-PLURAL

the shoes

Also, many languages don't use the plural form of nouns after numerals. Many languages simply use the singular form, or some other more special form. Bulgarian uses a special numerative (counting) form for masculine nouns and Somali does the same for feminine nouns.

(Somali)

SINGULAR

koob (M) 'cup'

kab (F) 'shoe'

PLURAL

koobab

kabo

NUMERATIVE

shan koob 'five cups'

shan kab**ood** 'five shoes'

(Bulgarian)

moliv (M) 'pencil'

lampa (F) 'lamp'

molivi

lampi

pet moliv**a** 'five pencils'

pet lampi 'five lamps'

Definiteness

Many languages make a distinction between **indefinite** and **definite** forms of nouns for making reference to something that is familiar and unfamiliar, respectively. Some languages make use of independent articles (*a* vs. *the*), whereas other languages make use of affixes.

Definite articles as determiners or affixes.

English: **the** house

Spanish: **la** casa

German: **das** Haus

Arabic: **al**bayt

Swedish: **hus****et**

Bulgarian: **k**asht**ata**

Somali: **guri****ga**

Many languages do not have special indefinite and definite forms of nouns, e.g. Swahili, Russian and Finnish. In these languages the context is usually enough, but there are also other ways in which definiteness may be partially expressed, e.g. the word order. Nouns with an indefinite meaning may come later in a sentence than nouns with a definite meaning. In Finnish the object of a clause may have different case forms depending on whether it is definite (accusative) or indefinite (partitive).

Some languages also have other values for definiteness, such as specific indefinite versus general indefinite.

Give me a chair. (general: any chair)

They gave me a chair. (a specific chair)

Southern Somali dialects have a special indefinite specific suffix *-oo*, e.g. *kursigoo* ‘a certain chair’.

Case

Cases are forms of nouns that express the role of the noun in the clause. In many languages the subject of a clause is in the nominative form, and the object is in the accusative form. The recipient (the person that receives something) is commonly in the dative case. This is true in many languages, but of course not in all. Not all languages have these forms. English and Swedish don't. In Swedish a noun has the same form whether it is used as the subject or the object in a clause. But both English and Swedish have a genitive form ending in *-s*, e.g. *Toms hus* ‘Tom's house’.

Also adjectives and pronouns often have case forms. Adjectives may agree with the noun that they refer to so that both the noun and the adjective appears in the same case form.

Most Slavic languages have rich systems of cases expressing grammatical functions. How the different grammatical forms correspond to different semantic roles depends to a high degree on the verb used in a specific clause.

Russian case forms

CASE	MASCULINE FEMININE				GRAMAMTICAL FUNCTION	SEMANTIC ROLE
NOMINATIVE	Ivan	dom	Marina	kniga	SUBJECT	AGENT, THEME
ACCUSATIVE	Ivana	dom	Marinu	knigu	DIRECT OBJECT	THEME
GENITIVE	Ivana	doma	Mariny	knigi	MODIFIER	POSSESSOR
DATIVE	Ivanu	domu	Marine	knige	INDIRECT OBJECT	RECIPIENT
INSTRUMENTAL	Ivanom	domom	Marinoj	knigoj	MANNER ADV.	INSTRUMENT

nominative - subject – agent

accusative - direct object – theme

dative - indirect object - recipient

Ivan dal Marine knigu 'Ivan gave the book to Marina'

Ivan dal Marine knigu

Marine dal knigu Ivan

Knigu dal Marine Ivan

Knigu Ivan dal Marine

Marine dal knigu Ivan

and some 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 combinations...

Other languages use 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

The following example illustrates the fact that the use of cases and the speaker's semantic 'image' or 'view' behind the use of cases may vary in quite interesting ways between languages.

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 Russian 'I' am the place where it happens. And in Polish 'I' am the grammatical object that is 'affected' by the behaviour of the foot, which is the subject.

8. Glossing

“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.”

(Comrie, Haspelmath & Balthasar 2008)

It is often the case that gender of a noun is not overtly expressed by any morpheme. If the gender is relevant to the discussion, e.g. with respect to agreement, it may be important to indicate it in the glossing. It may be added in parentheses to the translation of the stem.

(23) Latin

a.	amic-a	amic-ae	amic-us	amic-i
	friend-F.SG	friend-F.PL	friend-M.SG	friend-M.PL
b.	mater-Ø	me-a	pater-Ø	me-us
	mother(F)-SG	my-F.SG	father(M)-SG	my-M.SG
	‘my mother’		‘my father’	
	matr-es	me-ae	patr-es	me-i
	mother(F)-PL	my-F.PL	father(M)-PL	my-M.PL
	‘my mothers’		‘my fathers’	

In certain Latin nouns, the stem does not reveal the gender, like **amic-** ‘friend’, but the suffix does (23a). For most nouns, however, the stem has only one possible gender value, like *mater* (F) ‘mother’ and *pater* (M) ‘father’, and some suffixes do not say anything about the gender, like the plural *-es* (23b).

It may however be important to indicate the gender of the noun to show the source for the agreement in gender that is expressed on the possessive determiner.

8. Referencing

Book with a volume number

If a publication consists of several volumes, it is often relevant to refer to one individual volume, especially if they are very different and have their own subtitles.

In order to give the number of the volume, add a comma after the main title

and then the volume number as it appears on/in the book. Also include the word that is used, such as Volume, Teil, Del etc. Use the same form (also abbreviated) as you can find in/on the book. If there is also a subtitle for each volume, add it after a colon.

Reinisch, Leo. 1900. *Die Somali-Sprache, Vol. I: Texte* (Südarabische Expedition 1). Wien: Alfred Hölder.

Reinisch, Leo. 1902. *Die Somali Sprache, Vol. II: Wörterbuch Somali-Deutsch, Deutsch-Somali* (Südarabische Expedition 2). Wien: Alfred Hölder.

Reinisch, Leo. 1903. *Die Somali Sprache, Vol. III: Grammatik* (Südarabische Expedition 5). Wien: Alfred Hölder.

These three volumes are also part of a larger series which is indicated in roman (not italics) in parentheses.

8. Read some more

Read about **Noun classes** (pp. 128-135) and **Case** (pp. 102-107) in Kroeger, Paul R. 2005. *Analyzing grammar: An introduction*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

<https://www.cambridge-org.ezproxy.ub.gu.se/core/books/analyzing-grammar/A2C80CFE228B2FB5AA93A8470E245CAC>

8. Watch some videos

What is a noun? (4 min.) | Aze Linguistics

<https://youtu.be/pQjWEKgfB-c>

What is Case? (13 min.) | Aze Linguistics

<https://youtu.be/Dku8JTSuFQw>

Nouns and their grammatical properties (16 min.) | TrevTutor

<https://youtu.be/3ZvPjCWZnZ0>

Cross linguistic plurals (9 min.) | Randall Eggert

<https://youtu.be/xIb1qLufbxE>

What is grammatical case? (6 min.) | Paul

<https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=cnF1ycgelUY>

8. Read about MALAGASY

For inspiration:

Language across time - Malagasy (4 min.) | University of Western Australia

<https://youtu.be/IQr3hwPqx5s>

The Malagasy Language (59 min.) | Adriana Rabe

(you may want to skip the first 17½ minutes to get to the cultural information, or even the first 26 minutes to get right to the linguistic stuff)

<https://youtu.be/b22Ome72FDQ>

Adelaar, Alexander. 2009. Loanwords in Malagasy. In Martin Haspelmath & Uri Tadmor (eds.), *Loanwords in the world's languages: A comparative handbook*. Berlin: de Gruyter, 717-746.

2024 Student text

The Malagasy language

Malagasy is the main language, or language family, spoken on the island of Madagascar by about 18 million speakers (Ethnologue, 2023). Unlike other languages on the African mainland, Malagasy's closest linguistic relations are not African but are instead found within the large Austronesian language family (Wikipedia, 2024a). This language family stretches from Madagascar in the west to Easter Island in the east and from Taiwan in the north to New Zealand in the south (Hammarström, 2018: 34-35).

Malagasy features several dialects, including Merina, Betsimisaraka, and Tsimihety, reflecting the island's linguistic diversity. Each dialect can exhibit significant phonetic and lexical variations, with 12 major dialect groups identified (Hammarström, 2018: 34-35). This diversity is crucial for understanding Madagascar's cultural and historical context, illustrating the influences from various migrations and interactions over centuries (Serva et al., 2024).

Malagasy has incorporated vocabulary from diverse linguistic sources, reflecting Madagascar's historical and cultural interactions. Early trade contacts introduced Sanskrit and Arabic elements, while interactions with East Africa led to Bantu borrowings, especially from Swahili varieties like Ngazidja and Ndzwani from the Comoros Islands. Later, Malagasy absorbed Arabic, French, and English influences due to trade, colonial history, and globalization. These multilingual influences, visible in vocabulary related to religion, trade, governance, and modern technology, showcase Madagascar's connections with both Southeast Asian and African cultures, enriching the Malagasy lexicon over time (Hammarström, 2018: 34-35).

In addition to the Latin alphabet, Malagasy was historically written using the Sorabe alphabet, an Arabic script variant, particularly in the coastal and northern regions (Omniglot, 2021). Sorabe was primarily used for Islamic texts and local literature. While its use has declined with the rise of the Latin script, it remains a significant part of Madagascar's cultural heritage. The Sorabe script consists of letters that convey specific sounds, reflecting the phonetic nature of the Malagasy language (Wikipedia, 2024b).

The grammar of Malagasy includes features typical of Austronesian languages, such as a focus or "voice" system, where verbs can emphasize different arguments (subject, object, etc.) within a sentence. Additionally, Malagasy uses VOS (verb-object-subject) word order, which is unusual globally and reflects its Austronesian heritage. These grammatical aspects make Malagasy typologically unique among languages spoken in Africa (Dominicweb, 2024).

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Dominicweb. 2024. Malagasy grammar. <https://dominicweb.eu/en/dictionaries/malagasy/grammar> (2024-10-30).

Ethnologue. 2023. Malagasy. <https://www.ethnologue-com.ezproxy.ub.gu.se/language/mlg> (2024-10-30).

Hammarström, Harald. 2018. A survey of African languages. In Tom Güldemann (ed.), *The languages and linguistics of Africa*, 1-57. Berlin & Boston: De Gruyter Mouton.

Omniplot. 2021. Malagasy (Fiteny Malagasy). <https://www.omniglot.com/writing/malagasy.htm> (29 October 2024).

Serva, Maurizio, Filippo Petroni, Dima Volchenkov & Søren Wichmann. 2011. Malagasy dialects and the peopling of Madagascar. <https://doi.org/10.1098/rsif.2011.0228>.

Wikipedia. 2024a. Austronesian languages. https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Austronesian_languages (29 October 2024).

Wikipedia. 2024b. Sorabe_alphabet. https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Sorabe_alphabet (29 October 2024).

2023 Student text

Malagasy is, according to Ethnologue (2023a), the main language, or language family, spoken on the island of Madagascar by about 18 million speakers. According to Hammarström (2018: 34-35), the nearest linguistic relations of Malagasy are not in the African mainland, but with the very large Austronesian language family, found in an area stretching from Madagascar in the west to Easter Island in the north, and from Taiwan in the north to New Zealand in the south, and the ancestor of Malagasy was introduced to the then unpopulated Madagascar in the 7th century, by sea from Borneo.



The map uses an older name Malayo-Polynesian, for Austronesian. Malagasy belongs to the Malayo-Polynesian subfamily of Austronesian, and is, like Arabic, not an African language in the narrow sense.

The word order in Malagasy is a quite complicated question. In simple sentences, the main order is VOS (Rasoloson 1997: 12). For more complex sentences, Malagasy has an Austronesian "voice" system, which is typologically highly unusual, shortly described in Beguš (2016) and Goddard (2005: 136), and is variously called a 'focus' or 'trigger' system. One argument in a clause has a special, "pivotal" role, and depending on the *semantic role* of this argument, this special role is marked on the verb, and this 'trigger' bears a set of morphological and syntactic properties that mark it as a prototypical subject. A typical Philippine-type language can have up to five different such voices, but Malagasy has three.

Interesting for me is that this "voice" system in a more complicated form, in the Austroasiatic language

Acehnese spoken in northern Sumatra, has been used to try to prove that Acehnese is a language that completely *lacks subjects* (Goddard 2005: 143-144). However, this is certainly still very controversial.

A really large language that is quite closely related to Malagasy is Indonesian, with totally 43 million L1 and 198 million L2 speakers (Ethnologue 2023c). Another well known and a quite large language that is distantly related to Malagasy is Tagalog (Filipino), spoken in the Philippines, with totally 28 million L1 and 52 million L2 speakers (Ethnologue 2023d).

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https://scholar.harvard.edu/files/begus/files/begus_the_origins_of_voice_fo_cus_system_in_austronesian_ws.pdf (2023-11-09)

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Hammarström, Harald. 2018. A survey of African languages. In Güldemann, Tom (ed.), 2018, *The languages and linguistics of Africa* (The World of Linguistics 11), 1-57. Berlin & Boston: de Gruyter.

Rasoloson, Jani Noëlle & Carl Rubino. 2005. **TITLE?** In **Alexander Adelaar** & Himmelmann, Nokolas P. (eds.), *The Austronesian languages of Asia and Madagaskar*, 456-488. London/New York: Routledge.

Rasoloson, Jani Noëlle. 1997. *Lehrbuch der madagassischen Sprache mit Übungen und Lösungen*. Hamburg: Helmut Buske.

Student text: Basic facts

Vowels: 5 phonemes

word final /a/ and /u/ are reduced to [ə]

Diphthongs: at least 2: /ei/ and /au/

Consonants: 20 phonemes

Gender: Nouns are not divided into genders.

Number: Nouns are not inflected for number, there are no plural endings.

Case: Nouns are not inflected for case.

Articles: There is a definite article *ny*.

Basic word order: VOS

8. Practice

8.1 Somali gender (new)

Gloss the following examples. Also add inherent grammatical values.

Tani waa naag.	'This is a woman.'
Kani waa nin.	'This is a man.'
Tani waa gabar.	'This is a girl.'
Ka afraad waa wiil.	'The fourth is a boy.'
Ta shanaad waa dhakhtarad.	'The fifth is a (female) doctor.'
Ka lixaad waa dhakhtar.	'The sixth is a (male) doctor.'
Taasi waa sariir.	'That is a bed.'
Kaasi waa guri.	'That is a house.'
Taasi waa bisad.	'That is a cat.'
Kaasi waa sac.	'That is a cow.'

Remember that *waa* is not a verb. It's a focus particle that emphasizes the following predicate noun. It should be glossed as FOC.

8.2 Noun classes in Kikuyu (9.2)

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?

You don't need to gloss the nouns!

/ŋ/ is similar to Swedish/English <ng>,

/ʃ/ is similar to English <sh>,

/n/ i similar to Swedish <nj> or the beginning of British <new>.

teacher	murutani	arutani
elderly person	muduuri	aduuri
girl	muiretu	airetu
woman	mutumia	atumia
parent	mufiari	afiari
buyer	muguri	aguri
traveler	mugendi	agendi

politician	muteti	ateti
root	muri	miri
tree	muti	miti
lion	muroodi	miroodi
gun	mufiinga	mifiinga
mattress	muuto	miuto
bottle	mufluuba	mifuuba
comb	gifanundi	ifanundi
chair	geti	eti
cup	gikombe	ikombe
yam	gikoa	ikoa
tray	gitaruru	itaruru
muscle	gifoka	ifoka
crocodile	kinaji	inaji
sugar cane	kigoa	igoa
worm	kingunu	ingunu
folk song	kibata	ibata
flood	kinguo	inguo
steering wheel	kibara	ibara
hiding place	kimamo	imamo
spider	mbombue	mbombue
donkey	bunda	bunda
cow	ɲombe	ɲombe
pig	ɲgurue	ɲgurue
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.

8.3 Case in Somali (new)

Somali has two case forms. *Waxa* is a particle that puts focus (emphasis) on the last noun or phrase of the sentence. *Uu* and *ay* are subject pronouns.

Gloss these sentences.

Wiilku waxa uu eegayaa gabar.

‘The boy is looking at a girl.’

Gabartu waxa ay eegaysaa wiil.

‘The girl is looking at a boy.’

Wiilka yari waxa uu eegayay gabarta yar.
'The small boy was looking at the small girl.'

Gabarta yari waxa ay eegaysay wiilka yar.
'The small girl was looking at the small boy.'

Wiilkani ma uu eegin gabartaas.
'This boy did not look at that girl.'

Gabartaasi ma ay eegin wiilkaas.
'That girl did not look at that boy.'

8.4 Referencing

Two huge reference grammars of Hausa were published in the late 1900s by two well-known professors of African Languages. Find these grammars and add them to this week's list of references. Also tell us how you found them.

Then find a major reliable source of grammatical information about each of the languages Yoruba, Tigrinya and Lingala. Add them to this week's list of references. For each title, say a couple of words about the author.

8. Suggested solutions

Abbreviations used

DEF Definite

DEM Demonstrative

DIST Distal

F Feminine

FOC Focus

M Masculine

OBL Oblique

ORD ordinal numeral

PRG Progressive

PROX Proximal

PRS Present

PST Past

SBJ Subjective

8.3 Case in Somali

Wiil-ku waxa uu eegayaa gabar.
 Wiil-ku waxa uu eeg-ayaa gabar.
 boy-DET.SG FOC 3SM look-PRS.M girl
 'The boy is looking at a girl.'

Gabartu waxa ay eegaysaa wiil
 Gabar-tu waxa ay eeg-aysaa wiil
 girl-DET.F.PL FOC 3SF look-PRS.F boy
 'The girl is looking at a boy.'

Wiilka yari waxa uu eegayay gabarta yar.
 Wiil-ka yari waxa uu eeg-ayay gabar-ta yar
 boy-DET.M.S small FOC 3SM look-PST.M girl-
 DET.SG small
 'The small boy was looking at the small girl.'

Gabarta yari waxa ay eegaysay wiilka yar
 Gabar-ta yari waxa ay eeg-aysay wiil-ka yar
 girl-DET.F.SG small FOC 3SF look-PST.F boy-
 DET.SG small
 'The small girl was looking at the small boy.'

Wiilkani ma uu eegin gabartaas.
 Wiil-ka-ni ma uu eeg-in gabar-ta-as.
 boy-DET.M-PROX NEG 3SM look-NEG.PST girl-DET.F-DIST
 'This boy did not look at that girl.'

Gabar-taasi ma ay eegin wiilkaas.
 Gabar-ta-asi ma ay eeg-in wiil-ka-as.
 girl-DET.F-DIST NEG 3SF look-NEG.PST boy-DET.M-DIST
 'That girl did not look at that boy.'

8.3 Case in Somali

Wiil-ku waxa uu eeg-ay-ø-aa gabar.
boy-DEM.M emph. 3MS look-PROG-M-PRS girl
'The boy is looking at a girl.'

eegayaa
is.looking.M
eegaysaa
is.looking.F

Gabar-tu waxa ay eegay-s-aa wiil.
Girl-Pl. Emph. at.M. looking-F.-is
boy
'The girls is looking at a boy.'

Wiil-ka yar-i waxa uu eegay-ø-ay gabarta yar.
boy-DEM.M small-Subj. emph. at.F. looking-M.-was Girl-
Sg. small-ø.
'The small boy was looking at the small girl.'

Gabar-ta yar-i waxa ay eegay-s-
ay wiilka yar.
Girl-Sg. small-Subj. emph. at.M. looking-F.-was boy-DEM.M
small-ø
'The small girl was looking at the small boy.'

Wiil-kan-i ma uu eeg-in gabar-ta-as.
Boy-this.M-SBJ Neg. at.F. look-PRET. Girl-Sg.-DET.
'This boy did not look at that girl.'

Gabar-t-aas-i ma ay eeg-in wiil-ka-as.
Girl-F-that-Subj. Neg. at.M. look-PRET. Boy-DEM-DET.

‘That girl did not look at that boy.’

8.1 Somali gender

Tani waa naag.

t-ani waa naag
F-this FOC woman
‘This is a woman.’

Kani waa nin.

k-ani waa nin
M-this FOC man
‘This is a man.’

Tani waa gabar

tani waa gabar
F-this FOC girl
‘This is a girl.’

Ka afraad waa wiil.

ka afr-aad waa wiil
M.the four-ORD FOC boy
‘The fourth is a boy.’

Ta shanaad waa dhakhtarad.

ta shan-aad waa dhakhtar-ad
F.the five-ORD FOC doctor-F
‘The fifth is a (female) doctor.’

Ka lixaad waa dhakhtar.

ka lix-aad waa dhakhtar
M.the six-ORD FOC doctor(M)
‘The sixth is a (male) doctor.’

Taasi waa sariir.

t-aasi waa sariir
F-that FOC bed(F)
‘That is a bed.’

Kaasi waa guri.

k-aasi waa guri

M-that FOC house(M)
'That is a house.'

Taasi waa bisad.

t-aasi waa bisad
F-that FOC cat(F)
'That is a cat.'

Kaasi waa sac.

k-aasi waa sac
M-that FOC cow(M)
'That is a cow.'

Instead of 'this' the gloss DEM.PROX may be used.

Instead of 'that' the gloss DEM.DIST may be used.

Instead of 'the' the gloss DEF may be used.

Bisad cannot be divided into *bis-ad*, since in this word *-ad* is not an instance of the Somali suffix added to *bis-*. There is no such root in Somali, since the whole word has been borrowed as one unit from Arabic.

8.2. Kikuyu

Based only on the set of data that we were given, we would be likely to arrive at something like this:

PREFIXES		EXAMPLES		
SINGULAR	PLURAL			
mu-	a-	mu-rutani	a-rutani	'teacher(s)'
mu-	mi-	mu-ri	mi-ri	'root(s)'
g-	Ø-	g-ikoa	ikoa	'yam(s)'
k-	Ø-	k-igoa	igoa	'sugar cane(s)'
Ø-	Ø-	nda	nda	'stomach(s)'
i-	ma-	i-tu	ma-tu	'cloud(s)'

***** I will continue updating the remaining responses shortly

One observation that is rather straight forward based on the given data is that k- is always followed by a voiced consonant, whereas g- is always followed by a voiceless consonant (see Unit 11). Therefore we could suspect that g- and k- are allomorphs of the same morpheme

1. *mu-* (singular) / *a-* (plural). Looks like Bantu classes 1/2.

2. *mu-* (singular) / *mi-* (plural). Looks like Bantu classes 3/4.

3. *gi-* or *ki-* (singular) / *i-* (plural). Looks like Bantu classes 7/8. The singular prefixes *gi-* and *ki-* are allomorphs, the former being used when the following syllable starts with a voiceless consonant like /ʃ/, /k/, or /t/. This phenomenon is called Dahl's Law in Bantu linguistics.

4. *n-* (singular) / *n-* (plural). Looks like Bantu classes 9/10. The prefix *n-* appears to be realised as *m-* before /b/, as *Ø-* before /ŋ/ and /h/, as *ŋ-* before /g/, and as *n-* before a vowel (all of this exactly as in Swahili). The only form I cannot account for on this theory is *bunda*, which I would have expected to be **mbunda*. The best guess I can offer is that *bunda* might be a loan from Swahili *punda* (Kikuyu does not have /p/).

5. *i-* (singular) / *ma-* (plural). Looks like Bantu classes 5/6.

8.2 Noun classes in Kikuyu

I found 14 noun classes for Kikuyu. They are presented below as singular/plural pair.

mu-/a-

mu-/mi

gi-/i-

ge-/e-

ki-/i-

i-/ma-

Invariant - no difference between singular and plural

8.2 Noun classes in Kikuyu (9.2)

b) I find it hard to decide how many classes there are. Prefixes :

mu a

mu mi

ge e / g -

gi i / g -

ki i

- - or:

(m m/mb mb etc.

bu bu

ŋ ŋ

hu hu)

i ma

Preferred solutions:

mu a

mu mi

g -

k -

- -

We might arrive at different analyses:

Based only on this set of data

Based only on Kikuyu data

Based on comparative evidence / historical evidence (comparing with other Bantu languages)

8.3. Case in Somali.

Wiilku waxa uu eegayaa gabar.

Wiil-k-u waxa uu eeg-ay-Ø-aa gabar

boy-M.DEF-SBJ FOC he look-PRG-M-PRS girl

'The boy is looking at a girl.'

Gabartu waxa ay eegaysaa wiil.

Gabar-t-u waxa ay eeg-ay-s-aa wiil-Ø

girl-F-DEF FOC she look-PRG-F-PRS boy(M)-OBL

'The girl is looking at a boy.'

Wiilka yari waxa uu eegayay gabarta yar.

Wiil-ka yar-i waxa uu eeg-ay-Ø-ay gabarta yar-Ø

boy-M.DEF small-SBJ FOC he look-PRG-M-PST girl-F-DEF small-OBL

'The small boy was looking at the small girl.'

Gabarta yari waxa ay eegaysay wiilka yar

Gabar-t-a yar-i waxa ay eeg-ay-s-ay wiil-k-a yar-Ø
girl-F-DEF small-SBJ FOC she look-PRG-F-PST boy-M-DEFsmall-OBL
'The small girl was looking at the small boy.'

Wiilkani ma uu eegin gabartaas.

Wiil-k-an-i ma uu eeg-in gabar-t-aas-Ø
boy-M-DEM.PROX-SBJ not he look-PST girl-F-DEM.DIST-OBL
'This boy did not look at that girl.'

Gabartaasi ma ay eegin wiilkaas.

Gabar-t-aas-i ma ay eeg-in wiil-k-aas-Ø
girl-F-DEM.DIST-SBJ not she look-PST boy-M-DEM.DIST-OBL
'That girl did not look at that boy.'

8.4 Referencing

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Unit 9. Pronouns and determiners

Pronouns are independent words. Many/Most of them are used instead of a noun or noun phrase. Common types of pronouns are

personal pronouns

subject forms: I, you, he, she, it, we, they

object forms: me, you, him, her, it, us, them

demonstrative pronouns: this, these, that, those

possessive pronouns: *mine, yours, his, hers, its, ours, theirs*

interrogative pronouns: *who, what*

Determiners are words, clitics or affixes that modify a noun. They always occur together with a noun. Common types of determiners are

articles: *a, an, the*;

demonstratives: *this, these, that, those*;

possessives: *my, your, his, her, its, our, their*;

interrogatives: *which, whose*

quantifiers, e.g.: *some, all, many, few, every*.

Pronouns and determiners are closely related, and the differences and similarities between them are of course more or less noticeable in different languages. Therefore the terminology reflecting this distinction is not always maintained in language specific grammatical traditions.

Because of some obvious differences, the distinction is usually made quite clear in English grammars.

Possessive pronouns: *mine, yours, his, hers, ours, theirs*

Possessive determiners: *my, your, his, her, our, their*

In Swedish, however, there is no formal difference between the two. In the Swedish grammar tradition they are therefore often just referred to as pronouns, and the term determiner is often absent. Some grammars may instead make reference to "självständig respektive förenad användning av pronomen" (independent vs. dependent use of pronouns).

In a Romance tradition, the possessive pronouns are often listed with the definite article, as if it were part of the pronoun, and the determiners are often referred to as 'adjectives'. In traditional French grammar we find, e.g.

Possessive pronouns: *le mien, la mienne, les miens, les miennes* 'mine' etc.

Possessive adjectives: *mon, ma, mes* 'my' etc.

Agreement

Each noun belong to one gender or noun class. Determiners and pronouns don't. Instead, determiners and pronouns have different forms for each gender or noun class. They adjust to the noun that they determine and take on the same gender or noun class form. This is referred to as agreement.

Pronouns and determiners adjust their form to show the connection to the noun that they refer to. They may take a specific form that corresponds exactly to the gender, number and/or case of the noun, as in (24), or they may take a less specific form that is common to more than one category, as in (25) where *-e* represents both masculine and feminine gender in the singular and *-i* represents both genders in the plural.

Such correspondence is usually referred to as **agreement**, but sometimes **concord** is used instead (Sw. kongruens).

(24) Italian	FEMININE	MASCULINE
SINGULAR	la piccola a bambina 'the small girl'	il piccolo o bambino 'the small boy'
PLURAL	le piccole e bambine 'the small girls'	i piccoli i bambini 'the small boys/children'

(25) Italian	FEMININE	MASCULINE
SINGULAR	la grande e bambina 'the big girl'	il grande e bambino 'the big boy'
PLURAL	le grandi i bambine 'the big girls'	i grandi i bambini 'the big boys/children'

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

Types of determiners

Determiners are usually very similar to pronouns. The difference is that pronouns are used – as their name suggests – instead of nouns, i.e. as independent words, whereas determiners are used together with nouns, they determine the nouns – as the name suggests.

There are above all

definite and indefinite articles/determiners, e.g.

the car, a car, some car, no car

demonstrative determiners, e.g.

this car, that car

possessive determiners, e.g.

my car, their car

interrogative determiners, e.g.

which car, whose car

As pronouns most of these have the exact same form in English. Only the possessives have different forms, e.g.

mine, theirs

Other languages may make different distinctions. Consider these situations:

Discuss this topic with **a** man in your class.

A man in your class complained about you.

Can you pick up **that** book, please?

Can you recall **that** face?

Is there any semantic difference between the two instances of the same determiner?

non-specific versus specific

present versus absent

Some languages have different determiners reflecting such semantic differences.

Definiteness

expressed by a determiner

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

Definiteness expressed by inflectional endings

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

Many languages do not have any marking of definiteness, e.g., Finnish, Russian, Persian, Swahili... do not have any indefinite or definite articles.

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' kabaha 'the shoes'	safarro 'journeys' safarrada 'the journeys'	

Anaphora and Deixis

Both **anaphora** and **deixis** are 'cover terms' for the fact that certain words and affixes make reference in a way that is contextually conditioned. The meaning of such words or affixes is not constant. It changes from one context to another. Many of those words and affixes are pronouns and determiners, but there are also some nouns, adjectives and verbs.

The two terms **anaphora** and **deixis** emphasise different perspectives on the contextual reference that is made.

Anaphora tells us where the referent is located in relation to the text: earlier in the text, later in the text, or outside the text.

Deixis tells us what kind of referent we are dealing with: person, time, place or a piece of text.

Types of Anaphora

Anaphora is often used as a general term for all kinds of reference made within and outside the text, but the term also has a narrower and more precise meaning. In the narrow meaning, **anaphora** is the use of certain pronouns in order to refer to some expression (word, phrase, clause or sentence) that occurred earlier in the text.

*This is Sue. Have you met **her** before?*

The opposite is called **cataphora**, i.e. when a pronoun is used to refer to an expression that appears later on in the text.

*When **he** had finished the work, Stephen went outside.*

Both anaphora and cataphora are instances of **endophora**, i.e. reference made within a text.

The opposite is **exophora**, i.e. reference outside the text itself, to something that is present in the situation.

*Give me **that** plate.*

Types of Deixis

Deixis refers to the kinds of context-dependent reference that many pronouns and certain other words are making to person, time, place, or portions of the text.

Person deixis

Both personal and possessive pronouns make reference to person. In many languages, this is a feature that they share with verbs, but not with nouns.

First person pronouns make reference to the speaker(s), second person pronouns make reference to the listener, and third person pronouns make reference to the persons talked about.

Usually they also make reference to the number of person(s), and sometimes also to the gender of the person(s).

However, English *you* does not express number, and in Somali both *aan* 'I, we', *aad* 'you', and *ay* 'she, they' are indifferent to number.

On the other hand, Arabic has five forms corresponding to English *you*:

SECOND PERSON	MASCULINE	FEMININE	
SINGULAR	<i>anta</i>	<i>anti</i>	'you'
DUAL	<i>antumaa</i>		

PLURAL

antum

antunna

Spatial deixis

Demonstratives typically make reference to a space or a place close to or far from the speaker, e.g. *this* and *that*. Many other words also indicate a place relative to the speaker or the listener, e.g. *left*, *right*, *ahead*.

Temporal deixis

Time reference is less common in pronouns and more common in the inflectional system of verbs, but instances of time reference in pronouns can be found. For example, the Somali demonstratives *kii*, *tii* 'that one, you know' refers to items that are recalled from the past, from the memory of the speaker and listener.

Many other words also indicate relative time, e.g. *now*, *tomorrow*, *soon*, ...

Textual deixis

Reference is made to a clause or a sentence in the text itself or to an event in the story.

*Ok, I have his phone number. I don't deny **it**.*

Here, the object pronoun *it* refers to the whole preceding clause.

Personal pronouns

Personal pronouns usually distinguish between persons (1st, 2nd, 3rd) and number (singular, plural). Some languages also distinguish gender (e.g. masculine and feminine) and additional number (e.g. dual).

Subject pronouns: *I*, *you*, *he*, *she*, *it*, *we*, *they*

Object pronouns: *me*, *you*, *him*, *her*, *it*, *us*, *them*

Reflexive object pronouns: *myself*, *yourself*, *himself*, *herslef*, *itself*, *ourseles*, *yourselves*, *themselves*

Reciprocal pronoun: *each other*

The use of Subject Pronouns

Many languages that have a rich set of different verb endings don't use

subject pronouns other than for special emphasis. The verb endings are enough to convey the necessary information. E.g. Italian and Spanish have a rich verb inflection, and subject pronouns are not necessary in most cases.

¿Qué hago si no tengo dinero?
qué hag-o si no teng-o dinero
what do-1SG if not have-1SG money
What do I do if I don't have any money?

However, Somali has both a rich verb inflection and more or less obligatory subject pronouns.

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

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

*) Just like languages have a negator particle (Eng. *not*), Somali has a corresponding positive particle *waa*.

9. Read some more

Pronouns (pp. 135-143) in

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<https://www-cambridge-org.ezproxy.ub.gu.se/core/books/analyzing-grammar/A2C80CFE228B2FB5AA93A8470E245CAC>

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<https://www-cambridge-org.ezproxy.ub.gu.se/highereducation/books/morphosyntax/1AAB4F5F9C553F675170DCA3F03F82E2#contents>

9. Watch some videos

What is a pronoun? (10 min.) | Aze Linguistics

<https://youtu.be/WSuGRNSpYZo>

What is a determiner? (4 min.) | Aze Linguistics

<https://youtu.be/u8UHYwTmt4k>

Anaphoric and cataphoric reference (5 min.) | Practical learning

<https://youtu.be/6RhPY5fOMGs>

Deixis (15 min.) | Jürgen Handke

<https://youtu.be/-LK-lc0wLf8>

Local reference (5 min.) | Jürgen Handke

<https://youtu.be/IKkR7c5pc8c>

Cohesion 2 – Reference (73 min.) | Sean Sutherland

<https://youtu.be/BGMCTTsDpWI>

9. Read about HAUSA

Watch for inspiration:

Warning sounded over fate of Africa's Hausa language (2 min.) | Al Jazeera

<https://youtu.be/Ug6hFsIIlCDM>

Sing like you mean it! - the Linguistics of Tonal Languages (3 min.) | NativLang

https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=foImPuD_bKc

Hausa language online reading (4 min.) | Zee Bappahtv

https://youtu.be/EkPPiyvYs_s

Learn alphabet in Hausa in five minutes (7 mn.) | Segun Obayendo Foundation

https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=7lXsdoNBnCs&list=PLTwb95-NhDnYhhh_7ND6cTZXMp-i3GO87&index=3

It might be interesting to compare facts on various Wikipedia pages to see the sometimes quite considerable range of variation...

German: [https://de.wikipedia.org/wiki/Hausa_\(Sprache\)](https://de.wikipedia.org/wiki/Hausa_(Sprache))

Russian: [https://ru.wikipedia.org/wiki/%D0%A5%D0%B0%D1%83%D1%81%D0%B0_\(%D1%8F%D0%B7%D1%8B%D0%BA\)](https://ru.wikipedia.org/wiki/%D0%A5%D0%B0%D1%83%D1%81%D0%B0_(%D1%8F%D0%B7%D1%8B%D0%BA))

English: https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Hausa_language

French: <https://fr.wikipedia.org/wiki/Haoussa>

Spanish: https://es.wikipedia.org/wiki/Idioma_hausa

Italian: https://it.wikipedia.org/wiki/Lingua_hausa

Student text 2024

The Hausa language is mostly spoken in northern Nigeria and southern Niger, but there are also large communities of Hausa speakers in northern Cameroon, northern Ghana, northern Benin, northern Togo, southern Chad and parts of Sudan. This region of the earth is often named the 'Sahel'. It doesn't border any sea and the land is very arid.

There are about 54 million L1 speakers of Hausa and about 34 million L2 speakers making it the second most spoken Afro-asiatic language –after Arabian. Inside the Afro-asiatic language family, the Hausa language belongs to the **Chadic** branch. The Chadic branch is again divided in 4 subfamilies:

1. **West-Chadic** languages: spoken in Nigeria and its bordering countries. The biggest member of this subfamily is Hausa. Another bigger language is Karai karai with about 1,5 million speakers.
2. **Biu-Mandara** languages: spoken in northern Cameroon, north eastern Nigeria and Chad. Tera, Bufa and Mafa belong to this subfamily.
3. **East Chadic** languages: spoken in southern Chad and neighboring parts of Cameroon and the Central African Republic. This subgroup is further divided between two groups.
4. **Masa**: this subgroup is an independent subgroup that has languages spread over south-western Chad and Northern Cameroon.

The Chadic language family has one big member: Hausa. For the rest, there are not so many other big languages that belong to this family. Only Mafa and Karai Karai have more than 1 million speakers. The language that is closest related to Hausa is the Gwandara language with 30 000 speakers.

Hausa has SVO basic word order. Hausa is also a tone language, meaning that a word can get a completely different meaning by using a slightly different tone for a vowel. The words for 'parents' and 'birthplace' can be used as an exquisite example: 'má-hàif-áa' and 'má-háif-áa'. At first glance these two words might seem as the same, but the different tone on the second vowel

‘a’ makes the semantic difference.

Although there is a wide use of tones in Hausa, the tones are not marked in standard written Hausa. In pedagogical and linguistic materials, the tone is often marked, but just for scientific purposes. Today Hausa is mainly written with the Latin alphabet, but in older times the Arabic alphabet dominated, and it is still used by some writers.

Extra: Hausa movies are mostly made in the north Nigerian city of Kano. This place is also called *Kanywood*, a port-manteau word for Kano and Hollywood.

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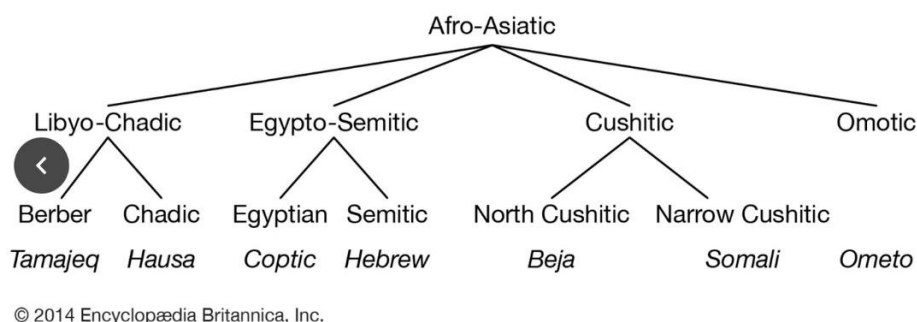
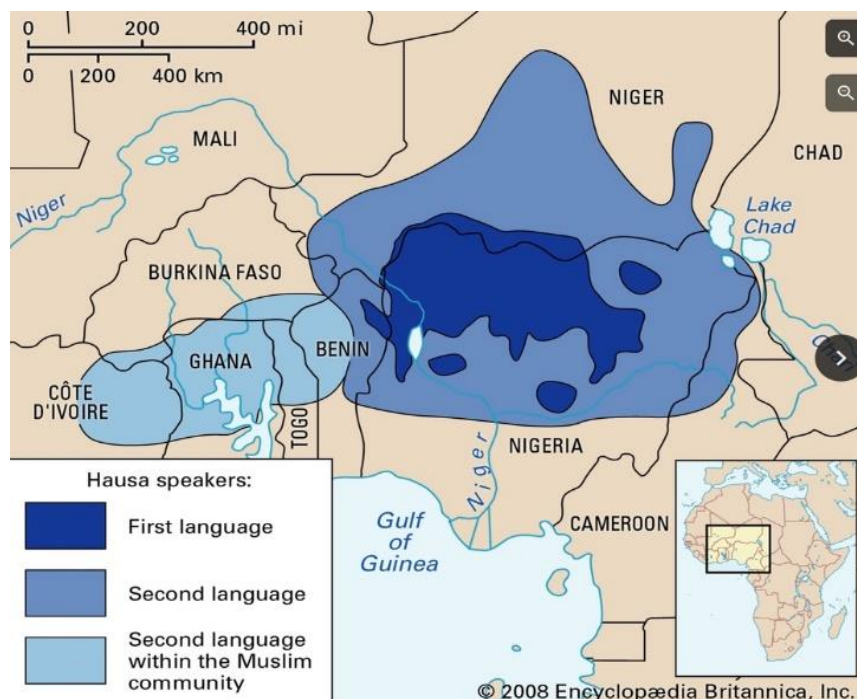
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<https://www.britannica.com/topic/Hausa-language> (10 november 2024).

Student text 2023

According to Wolff (2013a) and Hetzron & Frajzyngier (2018b: 638-649), Hausa is spoken mainly in Nigeria and Niger, also in neighbouring countries, Cameroon, Ghana, Benin, Togo, Chad and Sudan, but it is also the most important lingua franca in West and Central Africa. There are in all 51 million L1 and 26 million L2 speakers of Hausa (Ethnologue 2023).

Hausa belongs to the Afro-Asiatic language phylum and its Chadic language subfamily (Wolff 2013b).



Hausa, with its 51 million L1 speakers has no large very close relatives, since all the other Chadic languages have less than a million speakers (Caron 2020: 344-345). The exact relation of the Chadic languages to the other undergroups of the Afroasiatic languages seems also to be a question that divides scholars (Dimmendaal 2011: 71). Anyway, as an Afroasiatic language, Hausa is distantly related to the very large and well known language Arabic (Ethnologue 2023b).

According to Wolff (2013b), Hausa has the basic word order SVO and a tone system with 3 tones.

Hausa has a very interesting complicated grammar. For instance, like other Afroasiatic languages, it has a "root and pattern" system, where consonantal 'roots' with general meanings are given specific meanings by vowels in different patterns (Wolf 2013a and 2013b), (Hetzron & Frajzyngier 2018: 566). Hausa morphology is characterized by complex alternations of sound and tone sequences, and e.g. noun plural inflection has over 40 different patterns. However, verbs are not inflected for mood, tense and aspect, but corresponding markers are added to subject pronouns (Newman 2018: 643, 646-648).

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Hetzron, Robert & Zygmunt Frajzyngier. 2018. Afroasiatic languages. In Comrie, Bernard (ed.), *The world's major languages*, 562-567. London: Routledge.

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9. Practice

9.1 - Ngbaka, Kongo, determiners (15.2)

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).

9.2 - Egyptian Arabic determiners (10.1)

1. Gloss all the following examples according to the Leipzig glossing rules and answer the grammatical questions.

Where possible, use grammatical glossing labels rather than translations.

da walad 'this is a boy'

di binti 'this is a girl'

di ʕarabiy:a 'this is a car'

da siri:r 'this is a bed'

1. How do we know whether to use *da* or *di*?

2. What can we say about the structure of these expressions and how to translate English 'is' in these Arabic constructions?

il walad 'the boy'

il walad da 'this boy'

il binti di 'this girl'

il ʕarabiy:a di 'this car'

il madrasa di 'this school'

is siri:r 'the bed'

3. What can you say about the form of the definite article?

4. What can you say about the independent use of the pronouns meaning 'this' and the corresponding determiners?

5. How would you say 'the girl', 'this bed' and 'this is a school'?

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'

5. How do we know whether the adjective is a direct modifier to the noun or a predicate complement?

6. The adjective has two different forms. Why?

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

7. Find the three verb forms and divide them with hyphens into stem and affixes. What meaning or grammatical function would you say that the different affixes express?

faaṭima tiḥibb il walad da 'Fatima loves this boy'

ḥasan yiḥibb il binti di 'Hassan loves this girl'

8. Are the assumptions that you made about the verb affixes in the preceding sentences confirmed or not by these last two sentences?

This exercise was inspired by Cowan & Rakušan (1987: 103) and Wightwick & Gaafar (2014).

9.3 - Possessive suffixes in Hausa

Hausa is an Afro-Asiatic language in the Chadic sub-group. It is mainly spoken in 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.

Hausa has the following set of independent possessive pronouns, used in contexts like *Mine is better than yours*.

masculine / feminine possessed object

na:wa	ta:wa	'mine'
na:ka	ta:ka	'yours' (one male owner)
na:ki	ta:ki	'yours' (one female owner)
na:sa	ta:sa	'his'
na:ta	ta:ta	'hers'
na:mu	ta:mu	'ours'
na:ku	ta:ku	'yours' (several owners)
na:su	ta:su	'theirs'

1. What generalisation can you make about the morpheme structure of the above possessive pronouns?

When combined with nouns, the above possessive pronouns are not used. Instead there is a set of possessive determiner suffixes that are added as endings after nouns.

mo:ta (fem.)	'car'	gida (masc.)	'house'
mo:tata:	'my car'	gidana:	'my house'
mo:takka	'your (m.sg.) car'	gidaŋka	'your (m.sg.) house'
mo:takki	'your (f.sg.) car'	gidaŋki	'your (f.sg.) house'
mo:tassa	'his car'	gidansa	'his house'
mo:tatta	'her car'	gidanta	'her house'
mo:tammu	'our car'	gidammu	'our house'
mo:takku	'your (pl.) car'	gidaŋku	'your (pl.) house'
mo:tassu	'their car'	gidansu	'their house'

2. What generalisation can you make about the morpheme structure of the above possessive determiner suffixes?

9.4 – Referencing

The German Wikipedia page about Hausa ends with the following literature list. Fix it according to the LSA system. You might need to look up some of the titles in a library database in order to check/find all the necessary information.

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Ekkehard Wolf: *Referenzgrammatik des Hausa*. Lit, Münster/Hamburg 1993.

[Anne Storch](#), [Herrmann Jungraithmayr](#), [Wilhelm J. G. Möhlig](#): *Lehrbuch der Hausa-Sprache*. Rüdiger Köppe Verlag, Köln 2004.

9. Suggested solutions

9.1 – Determiners in Ngbaka

toa kpo
house one
'one house'

toa ke
house this
'this house'

toa ge
house that
'that house'

gã folo kpo
big elephant one
'one big elephant'

folo ge tũ
elephant that black
'that black elephant'

bisĩ gbogbo kpo
small lion one
'one small lion'

gbogbo ge fẽ
lion that white
'that white lion'

bisĩ gbogbo ke fẽ
small lion this white
'this small white lion'

gã folo kpo tũ
big elephant one black
'one big black elephant'

Of course, it is equally correct to gloss:

toa ke
house DEM.PROX
'this house'

toa ge
house DEM.DIST
'that house'

etc.

Determiners (including numerals and demonstratives) come after the noun.

Adjectives are divided into two subtypes with different behaviour.

Adjectives of size come before the noun.

Adjectives of colour come after the determiners.

The order is: (adj. of size) (noun) (determiner) (adj. of colour)

9.2 – Determiners in Egyptian Arabic

Abbreviations used:

DEF – definite

DEM – demonstrative

F – feminine

M – masculine

PL – plural

SG – singular

da walad
DEM.M boy
'this is a boy'

di binti
DEM.F girl
'this is a girl'

di *ʃarabiy:a*

DEM.F car

'this is a car'

da *siri:r*

DEM.M bed

'this is a bed'

1.

Arabic nouns seem to be divided into two genders, which may be labelled feminine and masculine based on the biological sex of the nouns *walad* 'boy' and *binti* 'girl'. The form *da* is then used with masculine nouns, and *di* with feminine nouns.

Just based on the data that we have available in this exercise, it is of course also possible to divide the demonstrative pronouns into two morphemes.

da walad

d-a walad

DEM.PROX-M boy

'this is a boy'

di binti

d-i binti

DEM.PROX-F girl

'this is a girl'

That would however imply that there is something typically masculine about the suffix -a and something typically feminine about the suffix -i, and such an assumption is not confirmed by other data, such as nouns, e.g. *ʃarabiyya* (F) 'car', and adjectives, e.g. *gadiida* (f) 'new' below. Therefore there is not much evidence in support of such a division, and it might therefore be "safer" to just treat *da* and *di* as words with an irregular form that does not lend itself to division into morphemes.

It might also be enough to gloss these demonstrative pronouns as DEM rather than DEM.PROX because in our data we don't have any examples of another pronoun meaning 'that'. Therefore we don't really know if this language makes a distinction between a proximal and a distal demonstrative.

2.

It should also be pointed out that Arabic doesn't use a verb corresponding to English present tense 'is'. In sentences meaning 'This is [noun]', the demonstrative pronoun is followed by the noun: 'This Ø [noun]'.

There is however a past tense verb form in Arabic corresponding to 'was'.

Therefore one might indicate the present tense with a zero morpheme.

di binti

di Ø binti

DEM.F is girl

'this is a girl'

il walad

DEF boy

'the boy'

il walad da

DEF boy DEM.M

'this boy'

il binti di

DEF girl DEM.F

'this girl'

il šarabiy:a di

DEF car DEM.F

'this car'

il madrasa di

DEF school DEM.F

'this school'

is siri:r

DEF bed

'the bed'

3.

The definite article is not sensitive to gender. The form *il* is used with both masculine and feminine nouns. However, the article is sensitive to certain consonant sound, and before some consonants, e.g. /s/ and /g/, it changes its shape to adjust to that noun-initial consonant.

4.

As an independent pronoun, the pronouns *da/di* do not belong to the noun phrase, but constitute their own phrase.

As a determiner, *di/da* follows the noun, and the definite article precedes the noun.

5.

il binti
'the girl'

is siriir da
'this bed'

di madrasa
'this is a school'

is siriir ig gidiid
is siriir ig gidiid-Ø
DEF bed DEF new-M
'the new bed'

is siriir gidiid
is siriir Ø gidiid-Ø
DEF bed is new-F
'the bed is new'

il farabiyya ig gidiida
il farabiy:a ig gidiid-a
DEF car(F) DEF new-F
'the new car'

il farabiyya gidiida
il farabiyya Ø gidiid-a
DEF car(F) is new-F
'the car is new'

6.

The adjective itself has the same form.

When the adjective is a modifier to the noun and belongs to the noun phrase, the definite article is repeated between the noun and the following adjective.

Where the adjective belongs to the predicate, there is no article before the adjective.

7.

The nouns are divided into two gender classes. The adjective agrees with the gender of the noun. The masculine form of the adjective has no special suffix, whereas the feminine form has an additional suffix -a.

il walad da y-ig-i il madrasa
DEF boy DEM.M.SG M-come-3SG DEF school
'this boy comes to the school'

il binti di t-ig-i il madrasa
DEF girl DEM.F.SG F-come-3SG DEF school
'this girl comes to the school'

il ʔawlaad dool y-ig-u il madrasa
DEF children DEM.PL M-come-3PL DEF school
'these children come to the school'

7.

yigi
y-ig-i
M-come-3SG
'(he) comes'

tigi
t-ig-i
F-come-3SG
'(she) comes'

yigu
y-ig-u
M-come-3PL
'(they) come'

The prefixes y- and t- show grammatical gender.

It might also be possible to say that y- is expressing non-feminine, rather than masculine, since we don't know if the plural form is specifically masculine and whether there is also a dedicated feminine form.

It might also be the case that -i is not a suffix, but part of the stem -igi- to which the plural suffix -u is added, deleting the final /i/ of the stem:
y-igi, t-igi, *y-igi-u > y-ig-u.

faaʕima tiħibb il walad da
faaʕima t-iħibb il walad da
Fatima F-love.3SG DEF boy DEM
'Fatima loves this boy'

ħasan yiħibb il binti di
ħasan y-iħibb il binti di
Hassan M-love.3SG DEF girl DEM
'Hassan loves this girl'

9.

Here we have yet another verb in the present tense. This verb, however, does not end in /i/ in the singular. This strengthens the idea that /i/ might be part of the stem in the preceding verb *yigi*, *tigi* 'comes'.

Also this new verb begins with *yi-* and *ti-*, which gives reason to suspect that maybe the vowel belongs to the gender prefix. We would need more data in order to confirm or falsify that hypothesis.

tihibb

ti-hibb

F-loves.3SG

'(she) loves'

yihibb

yi-hibb

M-loves.3SG

'(he) loves'

9.3 – Possessive suffixes in Hausa.

1.

The first morpheme of the possessive pronouns, the prefixes *n-* and *t-*, denotes the gender of the possessed noun.

The final morpheme, the suffixes *-wa*, *-ka*, *-ki*, *-sa*, *-ta*, *-mu*, *-ku*, *-su*, denotes the person, the number, and in the 2nd and 3rd singular also the gender of the possessor. These suffixes are the same for both masculine and feminine pronouns.

2.

The possessive determiner suffixes look like abbreviated versions of the possessive pronouns (the middle /a:/ is lost and then there are some changes (assimilations, see Unit 13?) between the remaining consonant sounds. There is an exception for 1SG where the /w/ is lost.

mo:ta (fem.) 'car'

1SG - mo:ta -t -a: 'my car'

2SM - mo:ta -k -ka 'your (m.sg.) car'

2SF - mo:ta -k -ki 'your (f.sg.) car'

3SM - mo:ta -s -sa 'his car'

3SF - mo:ta -t -ta 'her car'

1PL - mo:ta -m -mu 'our car'

2PL - mo:ta -k -**ku** 'your (pl.) car'
3PL - mo:ta -s -**su** 'their car'

gida (masc.) 'house'
1SG - gida -n -**a**: 'my house'
2SM - gida -ŋ -**ka** 'your (m.sg.) house'
2SF - gida -ŋ -**ki** 'your (f.sg.) house'
3SM - gida -n -**sa** 'his house'
3SF - gida -n -**ta** 'her house'
1PL - gida -m -**mu** 'our house'
2PL - gida -ŋ -**ku** 'your (pl.) house'
3PL - gida -n -**su** 'their house'

9.4 – Referencing

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There is no need to use 1973a and 1973b here, since the authors differ. The first title is Kraft (1973) or Kraft & Kirk-Greene (1973), whereas the second title is Kraft & Kraft (1973).

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The order of the authors has not been changed for alphabetical reasons, but because of the order in which they appear on the front page of the

book (see illustration below). Authors should not automatically be listed in alphabetical order. They should be given in the order that they occur on the front page. The order normally reflects the importance of the individual authors, i.e. the most important author is mentioned first. Here, the two criteria happen to coincide, whereas the ordering on Wikipedia implies that Storch is the most important of the three authors.

Vögele, Hannelore. 1995. *Hausa: Wort für Wort* (Kauderwelsch 80). Bielefeld: Rump.

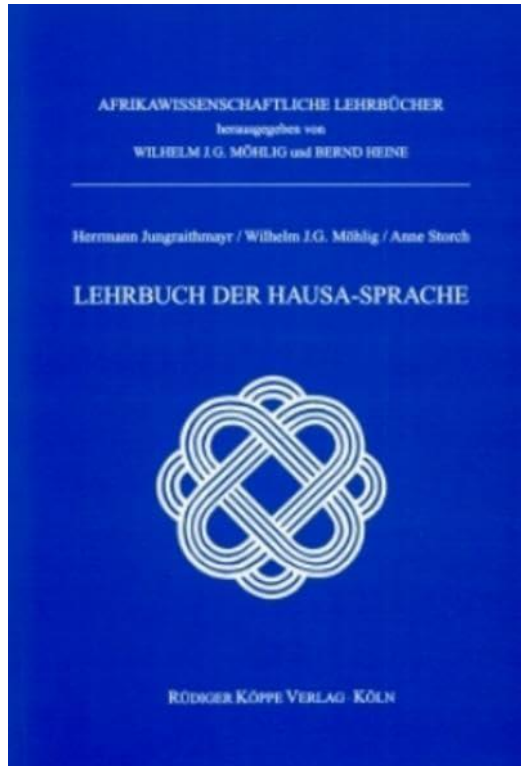
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Wolff, Ekkehard. 1993. *Referenzgrammatik des Hausa*. Münster & Hamburg: Lit.

If you have checked this title online, you might instead have:

Wolff, H. Ekkehard. 1993. *Referenzgrammatik des Hausa: Zur Begleitung des Fremdsprachenunterrichts und zur Einführung in das Selbststudium* (Hamburger Beiträge zur Afrikanistik 2). Münster: LIT.



Unit 10. Modifying nouns (10)

The Noun Phrase

Adjectives, Numerals, Determiners & Relative clauses

There are some common ways to 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
Noun + Noun	Sarah's house	guri Sahro

Adjectives

Not all languages have adjectives as a word class. Of course these languages have words that express qualities, but they don't constitute a separate word class. Instead, verbs or nouns are used to express these meanings.

Some languages only have a small number of adjectives.

Somali has some adjectives, but fewer than English. Often, nouns are used instead.

SOMALI	gaari buluug ah	'a blue car'
	car blue.thing being	
	gaari cusub	'a new car'

Somali nouns take a definite article, but adjectives don't.

gaari ga buluug ga ah	' the blue car'
gaari ga cusub	' the new car'

Sometimes, a Somali a combination of noun and adjective corresponds to an adjective in English.

SOMALI	naag da' weyn	'an old woman'
	woman age big	
	naag ta da' da weyn	' the old woman'
	guri qurux badan	'an beautiful house'
	house beauty much	
	guri ga qurux da badan	' the beautiful house'

In this last example, it's worth noticing that also the etymology of the English adjective is a composition of the noun *beauty* and the adjective *full*.

Swahili has even fewer adjectives than Somali. Often, verbs are used instead in Swahili.

SWAHILI ndege aliyekufa 'a dead bird'
 bird which.died

 mlango uliofunguliwa 'an open door'
 door which.was.opened

Adjectives precede nouns in English, Swedish and many other languages, e.g.

Amharic
bet təlləq bet
'house' 'big house'

Qualities precede, but categories follow nouns in Polish:

nowy dworzec **autobusowy**
 [dvɔʒɛts]
new station bus.ADJ
'(the) new bus station'

Adjectives follow nouns in Romance languages, Arabic, Somali, Swahili

Adjective agreement

Many languages indicate the connection between an adjective and its head noun through agreement.

The adjective does not agree with its head noun in:

English

In Somali, adjectives may agree with their head noun in number, but there is no agreement in gender

Somali
saf dheer saf~af dhaa~dheer
line long line~PL PL~long
'a long line' 'long lines'

Often the agreement affixes on the adjective indicate the gender, number of the head noun, or as in Swahili and other Bantu languages, the noun class.

E.g., in Italian and Swahili, the adjective agrees with its head noun in both number and gender or noun class. This means that the noun belongs to a specific gender or a specific pair of noun classes, but adjectives have forms for all genders or noun classes.

Class 1/2	3/4	7/8	5/6	9/10	11/10
m toto 'child'	m fuko 'bag'	k itabu 'book'	gari 'car'	simu 'phone'	u siku 'night'
wa toto 'children'	mi fuko 'bags'	vi tabu 'books'	ma gari 'cars'	simu 'phones'	siku 'night'
mw alimu 'teacher'	mw iko 'spoon'	ch uo 'college'	ji cho 'eye'	n guo 'clothes item'	
w alimu 'teachers'	mi iko 'spoons'	vy uo 'colleges'	ma cho 'eyes'	n guo 'clothes'	
mu umba 'creator'	m uziki 'music'				
wa umba 'creators'	mi ziki 'musical genres'				

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

m refu 'long'	m refu	k irefu	refu	n defu	m refu
wa refu	mi refu	vi refu	ma refu	n defu	n defu

Agreeing possessives, e.g. **mtoto wangu** 'my child'

w angu 'my'	w angu	ch angu	l angu	y angu	w angu
w angu	y angu	vy angu	y angu	z angu	z angu

Agreement in definiteness

E.g., in Swedish and Arabic, the adjective agrees with its head noun in both gender, number and definiteness:

SWEDISH

hus 'house'
hus-**et** 'the house'
ett ny-**tt** hus 'a new house'
det ny-**a** hus-**et** 'the new house'
två ny-**a** hus 'two new houses'

FRENCH

maison
la maison
une nouvelle maison
la nouvelle maison
deux nouvelles maisons

The position of the definite article in the noun phrase may also differ quite a bit between languages.

BULGARIAN

kəft-a 'house'
kəft-a-**ta** 'the house'
nov-a kəft-a 'a new house'
nov-a-**ta** kəft-a 'the new house'
moj-a-**ta** nov-a kəft-a
'my new house'

ITALIAN

casa
la casa
nuova casa
la nuova casa
la mia nuova casa

SOMALI

guri
guri-**ga**
guri cusub
guri-**ga** cusub
guri-gay-**ga** cusub

Possessive and other 'genitive' constructions

A noun that modifies another noun is often inflected for case, in many languages the genitive case.

Polish

smak luksus-u
taste luxury-GEN
'(the) taste of luxury'

syn dentyst-y
son dentist-GEN
'the dentist's son'

As the English translation shows, some languages use prepositions to connect a modifier noun to its head noun. The choice of preposition may be dependent on the noun(s) involved, e.g.

Swedish

kartan över staden
the.map over the.city
'the map of the city'

In some languages, the two nouns are simply placed next to each other, without any grammatical marking. This is referred to as **juxtaposition**, e.g.

Somali

khariidad-da magaala-da
map-the city-the
'the map of the city'

wiil-ka dhakhtar-ka ilka-ha
son-the doctor-the teeth-the
'the dentist's son'

Possessive determiners may be independent words, like in English, or affixes, like in Arabic, Amharic and Somali.

ARABIC noun+poss

ism 'name' ism-i 'my name'

AMHARIC adjective+definite noun+possessive

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

Relative clauses

Most English relative clauses are introduced by one of the relative words *that*, *which*, *who*, *whose*. Not all languages use a relative word to introduce a relative subclause.

Somali relative clauses are instead marked by special relative or subjunctive verb forms. They are not introduced by an relative word.

arday-ga qoslay-a.
student-the is.laughing-REL
'the laughing student'

warqad-da aan qoray-o.
letter-the I am.writing-SBJV
'the letter (that) I'm writing'

The corresponding full clauses have to contain a subject ending on the subject noun (-u), one of the obligatory sentence particles (e.g. *waa* which emphasises the predicate, or *ayaa* which emphasises the preceding noun), one of the obligatory subject pronouns (e.g. *uu* 'he', *aan* 'I') and a full verb form (realis present tense -aa).

Arday-g-u waa uu qoslayaa.
student-the-SBJ FOC he is.laughing
'The student is laughing.'

Warqad-da **ayaa** **aan** qoray**aa**.
letter-the FOC I am.writing
'I am writing the letter.'

10. Glossing

"Rule 10: Reduplication

Reduplication is treated similarly to affixation, but with a tilde (~) connecting the copied element to the stem."

(Comrie, Haspelmath & Balthasar 2008)

(x) Somali

wiil yar	wiil~al yar~yar	jid weyn	jid~ad waa~weyn
boy small	boy~PL PL~small	road big	road~PL PL~big
'a small boy'	'small boys'	'a big road'	'big roads'

10. Read some more

Chapter 5. **Word Classes** in Genetti, Carol. 2018. *How languages work: An introduction to language and linguistics*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

<https://www-cambridge-org.ezproxy.ub.gu.se/highereducation/books/how-languages-work/DB6E72758E31BF3838EEAFFC5BA4A311#contents>

Chapter 6. **Noun phrases** in Kroeger, Paul R. 2005. *Analyzing grammar: An introduction*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

<https://www-cambridge-org.ezproxy.ub.gu.se/core/books/analyzing-grammar/A2C80CFE228B2FB5AA93A8470E245CAC>

Haspelmath, Martin. 2012. How to compare major word-classes across the world's languages. *UCLA Working Papers in Linguistics* 17 (Theories of Everything). 109-130.

<https://phonetics.linguistics.ucla.edu/wpl/index.htm>

10. Watch some videos

Noun Phrase (6 min.) | Randall Eggert

<https://youtu.be/qBZijBwewT8>

What is an Adjective? (6 min.) | Aze Linguistics

<https://youtu.be/iQScI0Mevxk>

Kinds of Adjective (8 min.) | Aze Linguistics

https://youtu.be/sY_VZ2ZbCrw

Adjectives, Adverbs and Prepositions (15 min.) | TrevTutor

<https://youtu.be/KjFORyliKbo>

Adjectives (3 min.) | NativLang

https://youtu.be/iPHC_rA3IWs

Possession, Agreement and Government (5 min.) | NativLang

<https://youtu.be/Pc2493onqD0>

10. Read about YORUBA

Again, it's difficult to find good video clips about Yoruba. Also this week we will listen for tone, this time in Yoruba, and you will need to find some basic facts about it on your own.

Yoruba (15 min.) | Paul

<https://youtu.be/m3g6AOPvuPs>

Yoruba: A Niger-Congo language of Southwest Nigeria (16 min.) | LangShack

https://youtu.be/nswY_EE28Ao

Yoruba alphabet (4 min.) | Adérónké

<https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=OiCqse0M8xE>

Learn Yoruba alphabet quickly (8 min.) | Segun Obayendo Foundation

<https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=DGyI5MCNP10&list=PLTwb95-NhDnbEqFAwAPczyWc6XwjefLEI&index=3>

2024 Student text

Yorùbá is one of the major languages in Africa, spoken predominantly in West Africa, particularly in southwestern and central Nigeria, as well as parts of Benin and Togo.

It serves as a native language for the Yoruba people, one of Nigeria's largest ethnic groups, and is also widely used as a second language in the region. According to *Ethnologue* (2023), Yoruba has approximately 45 million native speakers (L1) and 2 million second-language speakers (L2), with the majority of speakers residing in Nigeria.

Can't find Ethnologue (2023) in the list of references.

Yoruba belongs to the Yoruboid group of languages, a branch of Defoid, which itself is a part of the Benue-Congo subfamily within the larger Niger-

Congo language family. The term *Yoruboid* derives from Yoruba, its most widely spoken member, and the group also includes languages like Itsekiri, spoken by about 1 million people. Defoid, in turn, encompasses the Akoko and Ayere-Ahan languages as well. The name *Defoid* combines elements from Yoruba words, including *èdè* ('language') and *Ife* (Ifè is a culturally significant city for speakers of these languages), with the suffix *-oid* marking the idea of similarity.

Yoruba also shares close linguistic ties with Igbo, another major Nigerian language with 30 million native speakers. While Igbo is closely related, Swahili, which is part of the Bantu subgroup in the Niger-Congo family, is a more distantly related.

Yoruba is a tonal language, with tones playing a crucial role in distinguishing variety and meanings. It features three basic tone levels -high, mid, and low - that are marked in writing and correspond in speaking to three key tone marks, the musical notes do, re and mi

Example:

à indicates the do sound and is low-toned

a (often unmarked) indicates the re sound and is mid-toned

á indicates the mi sound and is high-toned

Would be nice to have example words here.

These tones can differentiate words, even among monosyllables. For instance, a single syllable with different tonal markings can convey entirely distinct meanings. Yoruba's tones are also creatively used in whistled communication and talking drums, which mimic speech tones for long-distance communication and ceremonial purposes.

The language exhibits a subject-verb-object (SVO) word order and has a morphology that is largely non-inflectional. This means that nouns are not declined for case or number, and verbs do not conjugate based on person, number, or gender. However, certain tonal rules govern sentence structures; for example, the tone of a verb may shift depending on the following object.

Yoruba outside Africa

Outside of Africa, Brazil also has a notable Yoruba-speaking minority due to the transatlantic slave trade, during which Yoruba people were forcibly taken to the Americas. Yoruba cultural and linguistic heritage has persisted there, particularly in religious practices like Candomblé, which incorporates Yoruba language and traditions. While not widely spoken conversationally, Yoruba remains significant in rituals and ceremonies and has influenced the Brazilian Portuguese variation in some regions like Bahia where there are

more practitioner of Candomblé.

Other diaspora communities with Yoruba speakers can be found in the United States, United Kingdom, and Caribbean nations such as Cuba, where Yoruba cultural influences are evident in religions like Santería.

Before the adoption of the Latin alphabet, in the 17th century, those speakers who were influenced by Islamic teachings used the Ajami script to write Yoruba. Now, the Latin alphabet is used, without the letters c, q, v, x, and z, but adding *ẹ*, *ọ*, *ș*

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2023 Student text no 1

According to Bendor-Samuel (2000c), [Yoruba](#) is a big language spoken in southwestern [Nigeria](#) and parts of [Benin](#) and [Togo](#). It is also used widely as a second language in this area. It has according to Ethnologue (2023b) totally 45 million L1 speakers, most of them in Nigeria, and 2 million L2 speakers.

According to Pulleyblank & Orie (2018: 886) and Bendor-Samuel (2000c), Yoruba belongs to the Yoruboid group of languages, a group belonging to the Benue-Congo branch (Bendor-Samuel 2000a) of the Niger-Congo language family (Bendor-Samuel 2000b).

Pulleyblank & Ola (2018: 889) give the following description of tones in Yoruba. Tones are of major importance. There are basically three level tones, high, mid and low, marked in writing. The functional load of tones is considerable, there are many sets of words, even of monosyllable words, which are distinguished only by tone. There are some interesting special uses of tones. Whistled Yoruba is used for long distance communication on farms. Used for short phrases, consonants are replaced by [h], vowels by [u], but the original tone pattern in the phrase is kept. Tone is also kept in the Yoruba talking drum, used in ceremonies.

Yoruba morphology is for the most part not inflectional (Pulleyblank & Ola 2018: 891), so nouns are not declined for case and number and verbs are not conjugated for person, number and gender. The main word order is SVO.

According to Ethnologue (2023a), Yoruba is one of the three de facto provincial languages of Nigeria, together with Hausa and Igbo, but the official language is English. Nigeria has a population of more than 200 million, and more than 500 indigenous languages. A really large language closely related to Yoruba is Igbo, that has 30 million L1 speakers. A very wellknown still

larger Niger-Congo language is Swahili, which as a Bantu language is only distantly related to Yoruba.

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2023 Student text no 2

Yoruba is a language spoken in West Africa, particularly in Southwestern and Central Nigeria. It is the native language of the Yoruba people, who are one of the largest ethnic groups in Nigeria. Yoruba is also spoken in neighboring countries like Benin and Togo. With approximately 44 million native Yoruba speakers and an additional 2 million second-language speakers. (Wikipedia 2022).

Languages in the Yoruboid cluster, which includes Yoruba, are known for their rich linguistic and cultural heritage. Yoruba is also widely studied and appreciated for its literature, art, and religious traditions. Moreover, the Yoruba people of Nigeria and other West African nations speak a language with a distinctive system of vowels, consonants, and tones (Oti-owom 2021).

In other words, there is a rule in Yoruba that changes the tone of a verb. Specifically, a low-tone verb is raised to mid-tone when an object follows it. Tones in languages like Yoruba carry meaning and can affect the interpretation of words. Moreover, Yoruba has a morpheme structure condition that doesn't allow high tone on noun prefixes (Maddieson 1972).

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OTI-OWOM, E. U. 2021. THE SOUND SYSTEMS OF ENGLISH, YORUBA AND IGBO: A CONTRASTIVE ANALYSES AND THEIR INTERFERENCE IN SECOND LANGUAGE ACQUISITION. GSJ, 9(6). 724-740.

[https://scholar.google.com/scholar?hl=sv&as_sdt=0,5&q=\(Lawal,+2004,+p.454\)+yoruba+sounds](https://scholar.google.com/scholar?hl=sv&as_sdt=0,5&q=(Lawal,+2004,+p.454)+yoruba+sounds) (26Nov23)

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10. Practice

10.1 – Basic Beja morphosyntax

- a) Match sentences 1-9 with translations A-H
- b) Translate sentences 10-15 into Beja and gloss your translations.
- c) Gloss sentences 16-19 and find the mistake in one of them.
- d) State the grammatical rules that can be derived from these sentences.

Beja (Harold Somers & Richard Hudson, NACLO 2018)

Here are some Beja sentences and their English translations *in random order*.
Two Beja sentences have the same English translation.

- | | |
|--------------------------------|----------------------------------|
| 1. <i>Tak rihan.</i> | A. 'I saw a man that is strong.' |
| 2. <i>Yaas rihan.</i> | B. 'I know a man that I saw.' |
| 3. <i>Akra tak rihan.</i> | C. 'I saw a man that is small.' |
| 4. <i>Dabalo yaas rihan.</i> | D. 'I saw a small dog.' |
| 5. <i>Tak akraab rihan.</i> | E. 'I saw a strong man.' |
| 6. <i>Tak dabaloob rihan.</i> | F. 'I saw a dog.' |
| 7. <i>Tak akteen.</i> | G. 'I saw a man.' |
| 8. <i>Rihane tak akteen.</i> | H. 'I know a man.' |
| 9. <i>Tak rihaneeb akteen.</i> | |

Problem 7.4a Determine the correct correspondences.

Problem 7.4b Here are some more words from the Beja language with their translations:

araw = 'friend', *mek* = 'donkey', *kwati* = 'happy'

Translate the following sentences into Beja. If there are different ways to translate the sentence, show all the alternatives.

10. 'I saw a donkey.'
11. 'I saw a happy man.'
12. 'I know a strong donkey.'
13. 'I saw a friend that is happy.'
14. 'I know a dog that is small.'
15. 'I saw a donkey that I know.'

Problem 7.4c Translate the following sentences into English. One of them has a mistake. Write the correct version of this sentence.

- | | |
|--------------------------------|---------------------------------|
| 16. <i>Kwati mek rihan.</i> | 18. <i>Akteene yaas rihan.</i> |
| 17. <i>Akraab araw akteen.</i> | 19. <i>Mek dabaloob akteen.</i> |

Source: Neacșu (2024).

10.2 – Basic Swahili morphosyntax (3.3)

Translate and gloss sentences 13-18.

Swahili (Harold Somers, NACLO 2011)

Here are some sentences in Swahili and their English translations:

1. *Mtu ana watoto wazuri.*
'The man has good children.'
2. *Mto mrefu una visiwa vikubwa.*
'The long river has large islands.'
3. *Wafalme wana vijiko vidogo.*
'The kings have small spoons.'
4. *Watoto wabaya wana miwavuli midogo.*
'The bad children have small umbrellas.'
5. *Kijiko kikubwa kinatosha.*
'The large spoon is enough.'
6. *Mwavuli una mfuko mdogo.*
'The umbrella has a small bag.'
7. *Kisiwa kikubwa kina mfalme mbaya.*
'The large island has a bad king.'
8. *Watu wana mifuko mikubwa.*
'The men have large bags.'
9. *Viazi vibaya vinatosha.*
'The bad potatoes are enough.'
10. *Mtoto ana mwavuli mkubwa.*
'The child has a large umbrella.'
11. *Mito mizuri mirefu inatosha.*
'The good long rivers are enough.'
12. *Mtoto mdogo ana kiasi kizuri.*
'The small child has a good potato.'

Problem 7.6a Translate into Swahili:

13. 'The small children have good spoons.'
14. 'The long umbrella is enough.'
15. 'The bad potato has a good bag.'
16. 'The good kings are enough.'
17. 'The long island has bad rivers.'
18. 'The spoons have long bags.'

Source: Neacșu (2024).

10.3 – Describing things in Swahili

Compare your solution to the suggested solution given below. Any questions, comments, corrections etc. are very welcome in Canvas.

Swahili doesn't have as many adjectives as English. The stem *-dogo* 'small' is an adjective, but the stem *-faa* 'is useful' is a verb.

Gloss these examples according to the Leipzig glossing rules

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.

kisu kidogo 'the small knife'

kisu ni kidogo 'the knife is small'

visu ni vidogo 'the knives are small'

mti ni mdogo 'the tree is small'

miti ni midogo 'the trees are small'

mtu ni mdogo 'the man is small'

watu ni wadogo 'the men are small'

1. How do the prefixes work?

2. What is the word order regarding adjectives?

3. What is the function of the word *ni*?

kisu kinafaa 'the knife is useful'

mti unafaa 'the tree is useful'

watu wanafaa 'the men are useful'

4. How does the difference between adjectives and verbs affect the structure of the above sentences?

5. The verbs have two prefixes. One of them expresses tense. What is your analysis of the verb prefixes?

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

10.4 – Somali relative clauses

Most languages have a negator word, e.g. English ‘not’. Somali also has a corresponding positive marker.

1. Gloss the following examples according to the Leipzig glossing rules

waa uu ordaa 'he runs'

waa ay ordaysaa 'she is running'

waa uu ordayaa 'he is running'

2. What is the function of *waa*, *uu*, *ay*?

3. How is the progressive (or continuous) aspect expressed in Somali?

Sahro waa ay ordaysaa 'Sarah is running'

Xasan waa uu ordayaa 'Hassan is running'

4. What more can we say about the use of *uu*, *ay* based on the last two examples?

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'

5. What is the most important difference in the sentence constituent structure between these last six sentences and the preceding ones with *waa*?

6. What is your suggestion about the function of the word *waxa*?

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

Xasan waxa uu fiirinayaa gabarta ordaya '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'

7. The two verbs in each sentence have slightly different endings. Do you have any idea why that might be so?

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'

8. The last two sentences differ from the preceding ones in that they contain the word *oo* before the relative clause. Do you have any idea what might be the reason for that little word?

10.5 – Referencing

This is the list of references for the Wikipedia article about the Yoruba Language (12 November 2024).

Imagine that you were asked to quickly review and adjust the list to the LSA standards. You don't have time to check things online. Just fix as much as you can based on the list below.

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10. Sugested solutions

10.1 – Beja

1. Tak rihan
G. I saw a man
2. Yaas rihan
F. I saw a dog
3. Tak akteen
H. I know a man
4. Dabalo yaas rihan
D. I saw a small dog
5. Akra tak rihan
E. I saw a strong man
6. Rihane tak akteen
B. I know a man that I saw
7. Tak dabaloob rihan
C. I saw a man that is small
8. Tak akraab rihan
A. I saw a man that is strong
9. Tak rihaneeb akteen

B. I know a man that I saw

10. *mek rihan*
donkey see.PST.1SG
'I saw a donkey.'
11. *kwati tak rihan*
happy man see.PST.1SG
'I saw a happy man.'
12. *akra mek akteen*
strong donkey know.PRS.1SG
'I know a strong donkey.'
13. *araw kwatiib rihan*
friend happy.REL see.PST.1SG
'I saw a friend that is happy.'
14. *yaas dabaloob akteen*
dog small-REL know-PRS.1SG
'I know a dog that is small.'
15. *mek akteeneeb rihan*
donkey know.PRS.1SG.REL see.PST.1SG
'I saw a donkey that I know.'
16. *kwati mek rihan*
happy donkey see.PST.1SG
'I saw a happy donkey.'
17. *araw akraab akteen*
friend strong.REL know.PRS.1SG
'I saw a friend that is strong.'

-MISTAKE: The relative "akraab" should be after "araw", not before.

18. *akteene yaas rihan*
know.ADJ dog see.PST.1SG
'I saw a known dog.'
19. *mek dabaloob akteen*
donkey small.REL know.PST.1SG
'I know a donkey that is small.'

10.1 Basic Beja morphosyntax

It seems that adding vowel length and **-b** to an adjective means something similar to 'that is', e.g. *akra* 'strong', *akraab* 'that is strong' and *dabalo* 'small',

dabaloob ‘that is small’. These relative phrases or mini-clauses follow after the noun.

It also seems adding **-e** to a verb creates a word that is similar to the adjectives in its behaviour. Also long vowel plus **-b** may be added to that verbal adjective leading to something like a minimal relative clause, e.g. *rihan* ‘I saw’, *rihane* ‘seen’, *rihaneeb* ‘that I saw’. The difference is then also that *rihane* goes before the noun and *rihaneeb* follows after the noun, , e.g. *Rihane tak akteen* versus *Tak rihaneeb akteen* ‘I know a man that I saw.’ Also *akteene* seems to be some kind of adjective, possibly meaning ‘known’, derived from the verb *akteen* ‘I know’.

10.2 – Swahili

The nouns belong to different ‘genders’ called noun classes. The nouns in the sentences have been sorted in this table according to the class prefixes that the nouns themselves take in the singular and the plural form. Then the prefixes taken by an accompanying adjective are indicated in the second column of prefixes, and the verb prefixes are given in the third column. It is interesting that the adjectives take the same prefixes as the nouns, but the verbs sometimes take a different prefix (marked with yellow).

			Nouns	Adj.	Verbs	Class
mtu	mfalme	mtoto	m-	m-	a-	1
watu ‘man’	wafalme ‘king’	watoto ‘child’	wa-	wa-	wa-	2
mto	mwavuli	mfuko	m-	m-	u-	3
mito ‘river’	miwavuli ‘umbrella’	mifuko ‘bag’	mi-	mi-	i-	4
kijiko	kisiwa	kiazi	ki-	ki-	ki-	7
vijiko ‘spoon’	visiwa ‘island’	viazi ‘potato’	vi-	vi-	vi-	8
-zuri ‘good’ -na ‘has’ -kubwa ‘large’ -natosha ‘enough’ -dogo ‘small’ -baya ‘bad’ -refu ‘long’						

Watoto wadogo wana vijiko vizuri.

wa-toto wa-dogo wa-na vi-jiko vi-zuri
PL.2-child PL.2-small PL.2-have PL.8-spoons PL.8-good
'The small children have good spoons.'

14.

Mwavuli mrefu unatosha.

m-wavuli m-refu u-natosha
SG.3-umbrella SG.3-long SG.3-suffice
'The long umbrella is enough.'

15.

Kiazi kibaya kina mfuko mzuri.

ki-azi ki-baya ki-na m-fuko m-zuri
SG.7-potato SG.7-bad SG.7-have SG.3-bag SG.3-good
'The bad potato has a good bag.'

16.

Wafalme wazuri wanatosha.

wa-falme wa-zuri wa-natosha.
PL.2-king PL.2-good PL.2-suffice
'The good kings are enough.'

17.

Kisiwa kirefu kina mito mibaya.

ki-siwa ki-refu ki-na mi-to mi-baya
SG.7-island SG.7-long SG.7-have PL.4-river PL.4-bad
'The long island has bad rivers.'

18.

Vijiko vina mifuko mirefu.

vi-jiko vi-na mi-fuko mi-refu
PL.8-spoon PL.8-have PL.4-bag PL.4-long
'The spoons have long bags.'

10.3 – Describing things in 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*
CL7.SG-knife COP CL7.SG-small
'the knife is small'
- (2) *ki-su ki-dogo ki-nafaa*
CL7.SG-knife CL7.SG-small CL7.SG-is.useful
'the small knife is useful'
- (3) *m-ti ni m-dogo*
CL3.SG-tree COP CL3.SG-small
'the tree is small'
- (4) *m-ti m-dogo u-nafaa*
CL3.SG-tree CL3.SG-small CL3.SG-is.useful
'the small tree is useful'
- (5) *wa-tu ni wa-dogo*
CL2.PL-man COP CL2.PL-small
'the men are small'
- (6) *wa-tu wa-dogo wa-nafaa*
CL2.PL-man CL2.PL-small CL2.PL-is.useful
'the small men are useful'

1. The nouns have a singular and plural prefixes, e.g. **mti** = tree, **miti** = trees. The adjectives have prefixes that agree with the noun prefixes, e.g. *watu ni wadogo*

2. Adjectives come after the noun

3. Copula, i.e. almost like “is” and “are” in English.

kisu kinafaa

ki-su ki-nafaa
CL7.SG-knife CL7.SG-is.useful
'the knife is useful'

mti unafaa

m-ti u-nafaa
CL3.SG-tree CL3.SG-useful
'the tree is useful'

watu wanafaa
wa-tu wa-nafaa
CL2.PL-man CL2.PL-is.useful
'the men are useful'

4. When the predicate contains an adjective, it has to be preceded by the copula *ni* 'is, are'. When the predicate contains a verb, there is only the verb. The class prefix for adjectives is identical to the class prefix of the noun, but the class prefix on the verb is not always identical to the one on the noun.

5. The first one agrees with the noun's class, e.g. **wa**-tu **wa**-na-faa and **m**-ti **u**-na-faa. The second is the tense prefix *na-*, e.g. *watu wa-na-faa* and *mti u-na-faa* which indicates present tense.

I will continue updating 10.4

10.4 – Somali relative clauses

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 occurring 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'

10.4 - Somali relative clauses

waa uu ord-Ø-aa
FOC 3SM run-M-PRS
'he runs'

waa ay ord-ay-s-aa
FOC 3SF run-PROG-F-PRS
'she is running'

waa uu ord-ay-Ø-aa
FOC 3SM run-PROG-M-PRS
'he is running'

Q: What is the function of *waa*, *uu*, *ay*?

A: *waa*, *ay* and *uu* are the subjects in the sentence

Q: How is the progressive (or continuous) aspect expressed in Somali?

A: Progressive/continuous is marked by adding *-ysaa* for female and *-yaa* for male

Sahro waa ay ordaysaa
Sahro waa ay orda-ysaa
PN FOC 3SF run-PROG.F
'Sarah is running'

Xasan waa uu ordayaa
Xasan waa uu orda-yaa
PN FOC 3SM run-PROG.M
'Hassan is running'

Q: What more can we say about the use of *uu*, *ay* based on the last two examples?

A: It seems like the sentence does not need the PN to convey its message.

waxa ay cunaysaa moos
waxa ay cuna-ysaa moos
FOC 3SF eat-PROG.F banana
'she is eating a banana'

waxa uu cunayaa moos
waxa uu cuna-yaa moos
FOC 3SM eat-PROG.M banana
'he is eating a banana'

Sahro waxa ay cunaysaa moos
Sahro waxa ay cuna-ysaa moos
PN FOC 3SF eat-PROG.F banana
'Sarah is eating a banana'

Xasan waxa uu cunayaa moos
Xasan waxa uu cuna-yaa moos
PN FOC 3SM eat-PROG.M banana
'Hassan is eating a banana'

Sahro waxa ay fiirinaysaa wiilka
Sahro waxa ay fiirina-ysaa wiilka
PN FOC 3SF watch-PROG.F boy
'Sarah is watching the boy'

Xasan waxa uu fiirinayaa gabarta
Xasan waxa uu fiirina-yaa gabarta
PN FOC 3SM watch-PROG.M girl
'Hassan is watching the girl'

Q: What is the most important difference in the sentence constituent structure between these last six sentences and the preceding ones with *waa*?

A: It seems like the verbs (eat and watch) in the six last sentences is a transitive word, i.e. it needs an object.

Q: What is your suggestion about the function of the word *waxa*?

A: Another focus marker (like *waa*) but for transitive verbs.

Sahro waxa ay fiirinaysaa wiilka ordaya
Sahro waxa ay fiirina-ysaa wiilka ord-ay-O-a
 PN FOC 3SF watch-PROG.F bout run-PROG-M-PRS.REL
 'Sarah is watching the boy that is running'

Xasan waxa uu fiirinayaa gabarta ordaysa
Xasan waxa uu fiirina-yaa gabarta orda-ysa
 PN FOC 3SM watch-PROG.M girl run-PRS.F
 'Hassan is watching the girl that is running'

Sahro waxa ay fiirinaysaa wiilka cunaya moos
Sahro waxa ay fiirina-ysaa wiilka cuna-ya moos
 PN FOC 3SF watch-PROG.F boy eat-PRS.M banana
 'Sarah is watching the boy that is eating a banana'

Xasan waxa uu fiirinayaa gabarta cunaysa moos
Xasan waxa uu fiirina-yaa gabarta cuna-ysa moos
 PN FOC 3SM watch-PROG.M girl eat-PRS.F eat-PRS.F banana
 'Hassan is watching the girl that is eating a banana'

Q: The two verbs in each sentence have slightly different endings. Do you have any idea why that might be so?

A: I think because the second part, e.g. *gabarta cunaysa moos* (girl eating a banana) is the object in the sentence.

Sahro waxa ay fiirinaysaa Xasan oo cunaya moos
Sahro waxa ay fiirina-ysaa Xasan oo cuna-ya moos
 PN.SBJ FOC 3SF watch-PRS.F PN.OBJ ?? eat-PRS.M banana
 'Sarah is watching Hassan, who is eating a banana'

Xasan waxa uu fiirinayaa Sahro oo cunaysa moos

Xasan waxa uu fiirina-yaa Sahro oo cuna-ysa moos
PN.SBJ FOC 3SM watch-PRS.M PN.OBJ ?? eat-PRS.F banana
'Hassan is watching Sarah, who is eating a banana'

(Here I used PN.SBJ and PN.OBJ to separate the two PNs)

Q: The last two sentences differ from the preceding ones in that they contain the word *oo* before the relative clause. Do you have any idea what might be the reason for that little word?

A: *oo* seems to connect the main clause to the relative clause, e.g *Sahro waxa ayfiirinaysaa Xasan oo cunaya moos*.

10.5 – Referencing

A book, not a journal, therefore

- comma before page range,

- city and publisher required.

Adetugbo, Abiodun. 1982. Towards a Yoruba dialectology. In Adebisi Afolayan (ed.), *Yoruba language and literature*, 207–224. Ife/Ibadan: University of Ife Press/Ibadan University Press.

Afolayan, Adebisi (ed.). 1982. *Yoruba language and literature*. Ife & Ibadan: University of Ife Press, Ibadan University Press.

The number of an volume of a journal should not be in parentheses.

Ajayi, J. F. Ade. 1960. How Yoruba was reduced to writing. *Odu: A Journal of Yoruba, Edo and Related Studies* 8. 49–58.

Bamgboṣe, Ayọ. 1965a. Assimilation and contraction in Yoruba. *Journal of West African languages* 2. 21–27.

Bamgboṣe, Ayọ. 1965b. *Yoruba orthography*. Ibadan: Ibadan University Press.

For an article in a book, the author/editor should be separated from the title by a comma.

If an article is only one page long, the same page number should be given as both frompage and topage. If not sure, give no pages at all.

Bamgboṣe, Ayọ. 1969. Yoruba. In Elizabeth Dunstan (ed.), *Twelve Nigerian languages*, 166. New York: Africana Publishing Corp.

A subtitle should be preceded by a colon, not a dash.

Fagborun, J. Gbenga. 1994. *The Yoruba koiné: Its history and linguistic innovations* (LINCOM Linguistic Edition 6). München: LINCOM Europe.

or

München & Newcastle: LINCOM Europe.

The word 'supplement' indicates that the publication is not one of the ordinary volumes in a series or journal, it should be separated from the title by a comma.

The 'highest level' of the institution is enough.

If it is a book in a series of books, then:

Fresco, Max. 1970. *Topics in Yoruba dialect phonology* (Studies in African Linguistics, Supplement 1). Los Angeles, CA: University of California.

If it is an "article" in a supplement volume of a journal, then:

Fresco, Max. 1970. Topics in Yoruba dialect phonology. *Studies in African linguistics*, Supplement 1. Los Angeles, CA: University of California.

or

Los Angeles, CA: University of California, Dept. of Linguistics/ASC.

Ladipo, Duro. 1972. *Ọba kò so (The king did not hang): Opera by Duro Ladipo*. Ibadan: Institute of African Studies, University of Ibadan.
(Transcribed and translated by R.G. Armstrong, Robert L. Awujọṣa and Val Ọlayemi from a tape recording by R. Curt Wittig.)

Oyenuga, Soji www.YorubaForKidsAbroad.com (2007). "Yoruba". In Soji and Titi Oyenuga (ed.). *Yoruba For Kids Abroad – Learn Yoruba In 27 Days*.

Saskatoon, Canada: Gaptel Innovative Solutions Inc. pp. 27 days.

This seems to be a book, since there are editors and a publisher. Then the link is not necessary.

Oyenuga, Soji. 2007. Yoruba. In Oyenuga, Soji & Titi Oyenuga (eds.). *Yoruba For Kids Abroad – Learn Yoruba In 27 Days*. Saskatoon: Gaptel Innovative Solutions.

Oyètádé, B. Akíntúndé & Malami Buba. 2000. Hausa loan words in Yorùbá. In Wolff & Gensler (eds.), *Proceedings of the 2nd WoCAL, Leipzig 1997*, 241–260. Köln: Rüdiger Köppe.

Unit 11. Sounds (5)

This is just a first sketch of Unit 11. Meanwhile, read about phonetics also in Yule (2020: 29-36) and/or Dahl (2014:50-58), which are available in Canvas.

Phonetics

The part of linguistics that deals with pronunciation is called phonetics. This scientific domain may be further subdivided into three sub-domains:

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')

Phonetic Script

When writing about pronunciation, it is important to be able to write down (more or less) exactly how a word is pronounced. In order to do so, special alphabets exist. Today, there is an international, standardised phonetic alphabet or phonetic script (called **IPA**), but some time ago, it was quite common to have different traditional 'sound scripts' for individual languages or groups of languages. For Swedish there is an elaborate phonetic alphabet (*landsmålsalfabetet*; the *landsmål* script) that was produced and used by those investigating Swedish dialects in the late 1800s and a large part of the 1900s. Today most linguists use the IPA.

The Swedish word *bra* 'good' is pronounced with a long 'a' sound, similar to British 'a' in *dance*, *father*. This long 'dark' vowel is rendered in different ways in the two different scripts used to for Swedish pronunciation:

the <i>landsmål</i> script	<i>br<u>a</u></i>
IPA phonetic script	['bra:]

The *landsmål* alphabet is always written in italics. Long sounds are underlined. The back, dark a sound is rendered with a special symbol that does not exist in the latin script.

The IPA script is always surrounded by square brackets. Long sounds are followed by a special triangular colon. The back, dark 'a' sound is rendered with a special variant of the latin symbol for a. The IPA ' symbol represents stress.

Both length and stress will be discussed below.

IPA

The abbreviation **IPA** stands for the **International Phonetic Alphabet** as well as the **International Phonetic Association**, which was founded in Paris in 1886 in order to promote the use of a unified phonetic script in the teaching of foreign languages. All the transcriptions that follow below are based on the IPA standard.

The Speech Organs

Study the anatomy of the speech organs at
<https://alic.sites.unlv.edu/chapter-11-2-speech-organs/>

Most of the time, when producing a sound, two parts of the speech organs are involved. One part is found in the upper jaw and one in the lower jaw. The speech organs in the upper jaw have a fixed position and they are therefore referred to as the **place of articulation**. The organs in the lower jaw are moveable and they are referred to as **articulators**. The two organs can interact in different ways. The way in which they interact is referred to as the **manner of articulation**.

We will mention the most common articulators as well as places and manners of articulation. There are also some other, accompanying characteristics of certain sounds. We will mention the most common ones.

Places of articulation (in the upper jaw)

labial	lip
dental	teeth
alveolar	alveolar ridge behind the teeth
palatal	hard palate
velar	soft palate
uvular	uvula
pharyngeal	upper part of the throat
glottal	the opening between the vocal folds

Articulators (in the lower jaw)

Lower lip

Tip of the tongue
Blade of the tongue, its front
Back of the tongue
Root of the tongue

Manners 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

Suprasegmental traits

Duration

The duration of a sound, i.e., how long the sound is, is of major importance in many languages. In different languages, both vowels and consonants may be longer or shorter.

In IPA, long vowels are written with a special triangular colon (ː) after the symbol for the sound that is long. However, an ordinary colon may also be used. That is actually very common, since the special IPA colon is difficult to type.

Stress

Tone

Vowels and consonants

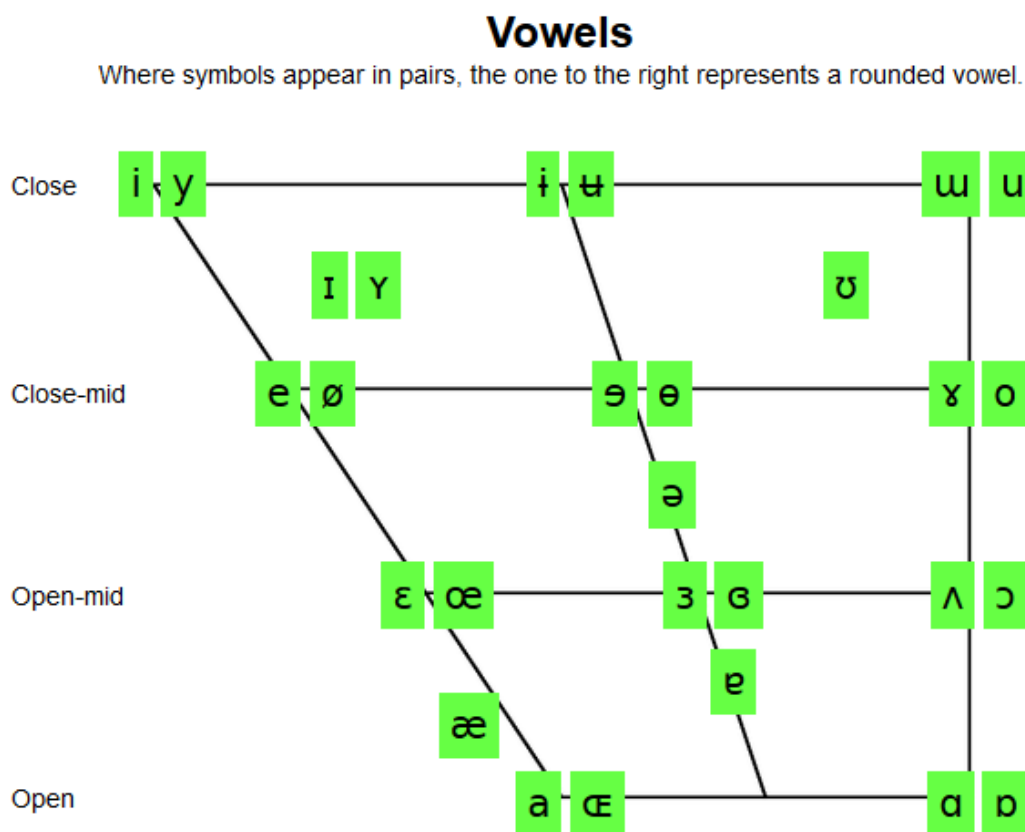
Sounds are usually divided into vowels and consonants.

The difference between vowels and consonants is...

We will have a closer look at syllables in Unit 12.

We will have a look at the most common vowels and consonants in the languages of the world and the IPA symbols that are used to denote those sounds.

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 ε ɔ o
low (tongue) = open (jaw) a

front i e ε
central ə a
back u o ɔ

rounded u o ɔ
unrounded i e ε ə a

oral, e.g. ɔ ε
nasal, e.g. ð ẽ

short, e.g. ɔ ε
long, e.g. ɔː εː

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

An example of a less common vowel system:

Ewe [ɛβɛ], an Atlantic language in the Niger-Congo family, spoken in southern Togo and south-east Ghana.

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

Ewe has 7 oral vowels + 5 nasal vowels

3 tones: high / ˈ/, mid / ˌ/, low / ˋ/

The syllables are maximally CV.

E.g. high: /tó/ 'ear'

mid: /tō/ 'mortar'

low: /tò/ 'buffalo'

Rounded vs. Unrounded Vowels

Nasal vs. Oral Vowels

Diphthongs vs. Monophthongs

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				v			ɾ				ɽ											
Fricative	ɸ	β	f	v	θ	ð	s	z	ʃ	ʒ	ʂ	ʐ	ç	ʝ	x	χ	ħ	ʕ	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	p			t		k	
Voiced	b			d		g	
Fricative							
Voiceless		f	θ	s	ʃ		h
Voiced		v	ð	z	ʒ		
Affricate							
Voiceless					tʃ		
Voiced					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

There appears to be an error in the table: the palatal glide, which ought to be /j/ is shown using the symbol **y** instead (which ought to represent a vowel, albeit one not present in English).

Obstruents vs. Sonorants

Obstruents are consonants that are pronounced with **more** friction noise.

Sonorants are consonants that are pronounced with **less** friction noise.

Obstruents: stops + fricatives + affricates e.g. t s tʃ

Sonorants: nasals + liquids + glides e.g. n r j

It is often the case that a complex onset consists of an obstruent followed by a sonorant, e.g. the Swedish CCV in *tre*, *slå*, *dra*, *flå*, *bjud*.

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]. The tip of the tongue is positioned behind the teeth in some languages and behind the TOOTH RIDGE (Sw. TANDVALLEN) in other languages.

Aspiration

plain = non-aspirated
aspirated pronounced with a puff of air

Aspirated vs. Unaspirated Stops

The stops/plosives differ between languages with regard to whether they are pronounced with additional aspiration or not. Aspiration is a small puff of air that is released (usually) after the consonant itself. This is common in Germanic voiceless stops, but not in Romance and Slavic.

English and Swedish has aspirated voiceless plosives [p^h, t^h, k^h] when alone in an onset, but unaspirated [p, t, k] if preceded by [s].

kill [k ^h ɪl]	Sw. [k ^h u:] 'cow'
skill [skɪl]	[sku:] 'shoe'

Also Somali has aspirated voiceless stops [t^h, k^h].

Released vs. Unreleased Stops

Palatalisation

plain = non-palatalised
palatalised pronounced with raised tongue body and
the tip of the tongue behind the lower teeth

Types of transcription

[bra:] (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 or phrase.

Narrow vs. broad transcription

Narrow transcription – every detail is transcribed

e.g. Swedish [t^hɑ:] 'take'

Broad transcription – only the most necessary information

e.g. Swedish [ta:] 'take'

The rest can be figured out following some simple rules:

['] default stress in on the first syllable (and this word has only one)

[t^h] this consonant is aspirated before stressed vowel

[ɑ:] when long this vowel is automatically pronounced as back

So a simplified or broad transcription does not necessarily need to indicate these facts, but a more user-friendly transcription can of course do so.

Phonetics and Phonology

The part of linguistics that deals with sounds is usually divided into two domains, phonetics and phonology, with quite different research focus.

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 in which /r/ may be pronounced in Swedish.

Phoneticians work with real speech production, recordings, technical equipment that measures and analyses. Phonetics is a part of linguistics, but at the same time it can also be considered a part of the natural sciences (physics, anatomy) implemented within linguistics.

Phonology does not deal with the small differences between individual instances of a sound as produced by specific speakers in specific words. Instead phonology deals with **the sound system of 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 that is possible: *rtut* 'quicksilver, mercury').

We will discuss phonology and phonemes in Unit 12.

Key Concepts

IPA charts, IPA symbols

diphthong

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

11. Read some more

What's the international phonetic alphabet and why is it great?

Cambridge University

<https://blog.cambridgecoaching.com/what-s-the-international-phonetic-alphabet-and-what-s-so-great-about-it>

Chapter 2 in Richter (ed.). 2006. [*First Steps in Theoretical and Applied Linguistics*](#).

11. Watch some videos

Phonetics and Phonology: Introduction (5 min.) | Jonas Wagner

<https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=80d2CEeMyQQ>

Phonetics: Articulation (4 min.) | Jonas Wagner

<https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=smJHidhO8Bc>

Phonetics: The IPA (3 min.) | Jonas Wagner

<https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=lbHD3jZI-8g>

The International Phonetics Alphabet will help your pronunciation (9 min) | Aaron

<https://youtu.be/8DGNf8cDmX4>

Sing like you mean it! - the Linguistics of Tonal Languages (3 min.) | NativLang

https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=foImPuD_bKc

Phonology: Intro to linguistics (31 min.) | Aaron

<https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=1JYahvKUvPU>

11. Read about OROMO

Again, it's difficult to find good video clips about further languages, and you will need to find some basic facts about Oromo on Wikipedia. Don't look only at the English page, have a look at pages in other languages as well. Do you notice any interesting differences?

Watch:

Oromo Language for Beginners, Lesson 1 (5 min.) | Tesfaye O. Gudeta

https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=Q-Q_LhciwO8&list=PLAAn-IgxrAePl6um8bjGcJuNnlggPi3y1P

Oromo Language for Beginners - Lesson 2 (20 min.) | Tesfaye O. Gudeta

<https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=T4ZOZoSB6Ik&list=PLAAn-IgxrAePl6um8bjGcJuNnlggPi3y1P&index=2>

Learn Afan Oromo in English (10 min.) | Kemo Tube

https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=9_Pza9b4H7k&list=PLiBv3RZ71pIhIHLWYPS6vIN3S2EV-s4tw&index=2

Student text 2024

Oromos are an ethnic group spoken Northeast Africa and primarily in Ethiopia, South Sudan, and Eritrea. They also speak a minority language called Afaan, which is spoken by about 3% of the population in these

countries. Oromo is the fourth most widely spoken African language after Arabic, Hausa and Swahili. There are several regions within Ethiopia where Oromos live, including the Tigray region, the Amhara region, and the Mursi region. The majority of Oromos live in the Tigray region, where they make up around 60% of the total population (UC, 2024).

Oromo is an ethnic group that belongs to the larger language family of Ethiopian. It is also part of the large Afro-Asiatic language family, including languages such as Amharic and Arabic. Oromia is one of the most populous ethnic groups in Africa, with over 37 million people. Its population is spread across different regions, with the capital city of Addis Ababa being home to a significant portion of its population. Oromo is the fourth most widely spoken African language after Arabic, Hausa and Swahili. From the Cushitic branch of the Afroasiatic language family, it is used as a lingua franca also by non-Oromo groups in Ethiopia, **Kenya and Somalia**. Other Cushitic languages are Somali, Sidamo (Ethiopia), Hadia, Kambata and Afar (Mous, M, 2022).

The travel website MustGO (2024) conclude that Oromo has a high tone on the ultimate or penultimate syllable of a root, but if it falls on the penultimate, then the ultimate is also high. Most Oromo suffixes that end in a long vowel impose a high tone on the preceding syllable, resulting in words that end in H-H. The typical word order in Oromo sentences is Subject – Object – Verb. Modifiers, articles, pronouns, and case markers follow the nouns they modify. According to Morgan (2024: 337) a really large language quite closely related to Oromo is Somali, that also belongs to the East Cushitic subgroup. A very large language distantly related to Oromo is the Afroasiatic language Arabic that, however, belongs to the Semitic subgroup

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Not following the LSA style

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<https://www.langcen.cam.ac.uk/resources/lango/oromo.html>

Morgan.N (2024, p337), Introduction to Linguistics and African Languages, University of Gothenburg, Retrieved from <https://morgannilsson.se>
LinguisticsAndAfricanLanguagesKeyConceptsAndAssignments.pdf

Mous, M (2022). The grammatical primacy of tone in Cushitic. *SPiL plus (Online)* [online], vol.62, pp.1-15. Retrieved from:

<http://www.scielo.org.za/scielo.php?script=sci_arttext&pid=S2224-33802022000400006&lng=en&nrm=iso>. ISSN 2224-3380. <http://dx.doi.org/10.5842/62-0-898>.

MustGO (2024) , Oromo language, Retrieved from
https://www.mustgo.com/worldlanguages/oromo/#google_vignette

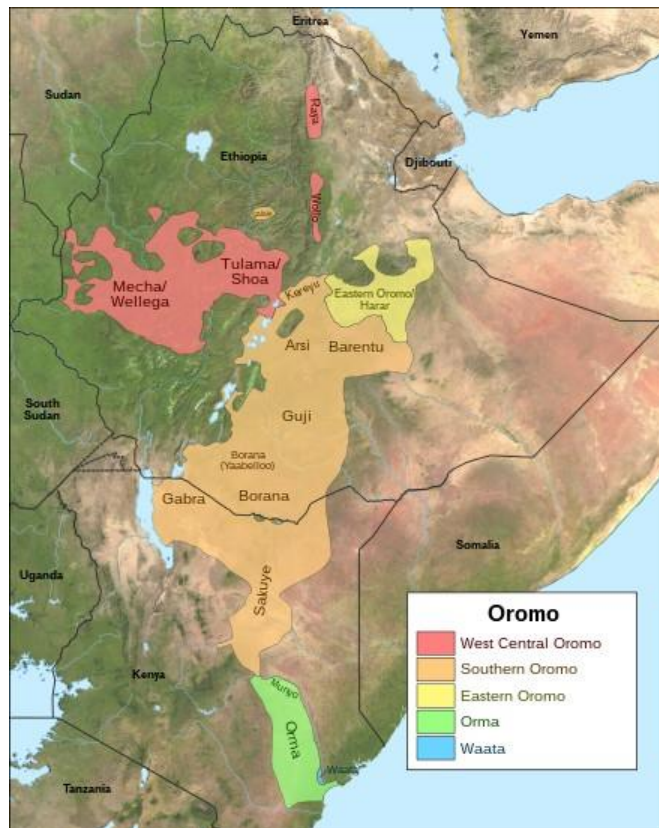
Student feedback:

- As I understand it, the Oromo word *afaan* just means 'language'. You would need to say *afaan Oromoo* to specify the Oromo language.
- The claim that the ethnic group and language exist primarily in Ethiopia, South Sudan, and Eritrea is incorrect. Ethiopia, Somalia and Kenya would be correct.
- It is possible that about 3 % of the population in the countries you mentioned speak Oromo, but this information is irrelevant since those countries are not where the language is primarily spoken. It would be more relevant to point out that about one third of Ethiopia's population speak Oromo.
- The claim that most speakers of Oromo live in Tigray cannot be correct.
- To my knowledge, there is no language family called Ethiopian.
- It is not correct to speak of the "Afro-Asiatic subfamily". Afro-Asiatic is the family to which Semitic, Cushitic, etc belong.
- It would be good to find another source than the course reading material for the information about how Oromo is related to other languages. The text you reference is not written by Morgan Nilsson. It was composed by a former student on this course and has been included as a resource in the course material.
- Currently the sentence "Oromo is the fourth most widely spoken African language after Arabic, Hausa and Swahili" occurs twice.

Student text 2023

Oromo is a large language spoken in Ethiopia, Kenya and former **Somalia** by more than 37 million L1 speakers, and it is also used as a second language in Ethiopia (Banti & Mazengia 2023: 258). It belongs to the Cushitic subgroup of the Afroasiatic language family (Hetzron & Frajzingier 2018: 561). It is the largest language in Ethiopia and the fourth largest African language after Arabic, Swahili and Hausa (African Languages 2023). In Ethiopia are spoken about 100 languages from four different language groups, namely the Semitic, Cushitic and Omotic subgroups of the Afroasiatic family,

and a small number from the Nilotic subgroup of the Nilo-Saharan language family (Britannica 2023).



Oromo has a two-tone system, and the basic word order is SOV, while adjectives and other attributes follow their head word (Banti & Mazengia 2023: 261, 279).

A really large language quite closely related to Oromo is Somali, that also belongs to the East Cushitic subgroup (Tosco 2020: 290). A very large language distantly related to Oromo is the Afroasiatic language Arabic that, however, belongs to the Semitic subgroup. (I'm too lazy today to copy a reference.)

Very personal remark:

The travel website MustGO (2023) has in fact a very good sketch of the Oromo language that contains all the requested information, but it was more interesting to find references separately for the information. I found many noteworthy historical and sociolinguistic facts, but I know too little of the many political aspects in them to refer to them here, so I'll just give a living example of the modern Oromo language in

https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=dn8w0_gWb2c

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African Languages. 2023. Oromo language. <https://african-languages.com/oromo-language/> (2023.12.03)

Banti, Giorgio & Shimelis Mazengia. 2023. Oromo. In Meyer, Ronny (ed.) et al., *The Oxford handbook of Ethiopian languages*, 257-293. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Britannica. 2023. Ethiopia: Ethnic groups and languages. <https://www.britannica.com/place/Ethiopia/Ethnic-groups-and-languages> (2023.12.03)

Hetzron, Robert & Zygmunt Frajzyngier. 2018. Afroasiatic languages. In Comrie, Bernard (ed.), *The world's major languages*, 562-567. London: Routledge.

MustGO. 2023. Oromo language. <https://www.mustgo.com/worldlanguages/oromo/> (2023.12.01)

Tosco, Mauro. 2020. East Cushitic. In Vossen, Rainer & Gerrit J. Dimmen-daal (eds.), *The Oxford handbook of African languages*, 290-299. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Student text 2023 no 2

Oromo is a Cushitic language spoken by the Oromo people, who are the largest ethnic group in Ethiopia and also have significant populations in Kenya, **Somalia**, and parts of **Sudan**. In Ethiopia, more than 41 million people speak Oromo, one of Ethiopia's main languages (Wikipedia, 2007).

Geographically, the Oromo and Amharic are related languages, and both are more similar to each other. All Cushitic languages are tone languages. Oromo has a basic SOV word order; thus, the subject of the sentence comes first, followed by the object, and finally the verb (Meyer. 2020).

For example.

English: The cat ate the fish.

Oromo: "Barsiisaa dubbii dhalate.". = "Barsiisaa" is the subject (the cat), "dubbii" is the object (the fish), and "dhalate" is the verb (ate).

The Oromo language has several dialects, which can vary depending on how one categorizes and classifies them. Some linguists suggest that there are several Oromo dialects, while others

argue that they are better classified as different varieties or forms of the language. Some of the major Oromo dialects or varieties include Borana, Guji, Arsi, Wallaggaa, and more (Negesse 2015).

References

Negesse, F. 2015. Classification of Oromo dialects: A computational approach. *International Journal of Computational Linguistics (IJCL)* 6(1), 1-10.

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11. Practice

11.1 – Read IPA (6.2)

Read the following list of major cities and countries. The phonetic script renders a typical American English pronunciation. The source of this exercise is Hudson (2000: 36).

1. [maskawɹəʃə] = Moscow, Russia
2. [lɒndənɪŋlənd]
3. [hɛlsɪŋkɪfɪnlənd]
4. [viɛnəstriə]
5. [romɪtəli]
6. [kɒpənhaɡəndənmark]
7. [ɑzlɒnɔrweɪ]
8. [dɒblɪnɑjrlənd]
9. [brəsəlzbɛldʒəm]
10. [barsəlɒnəspɛm]
11. [æθənzɡris]
12. [krakawpɒlənd]
13. [bɛrlɪndʒərməni]
14. [stɑkhɒmswɪdən]
15. [budəpɛsthɛŋɡəri]
16. [prɑɡʃɛkɪpəbɪk]
17. [dʒənɪvəsɪtsərlənd]
18. [æmstərdæmɦələnd]

19. [lɪzbənportʃʊgəl]
20. [rɪgəlætviə]

A question mark arises with regard to [romɪtəli]. Hudson says he is providing "typical" American pronunciations, but [t] isn't at all typical here in American English. Perhaps it is defensible for a very broad phonetic transcription.

11.2 – Homophonous words (6.3)

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 Hudson (2000: 39). Hudson gives only typical American English pronunciation. British pronunciations have been added according to Macmillan (2022).

- | | | | |
|-----|--------------|----------------|------------------------|
| 1. | Am. [flawər] | Br. [flaʊə(r)] | flower or flour |
| 2. | Am. [fɪl] | Br. [fɪl] | |
| 3. | Am. [tɪz] | Br. [tiːz] | |
| 4. | Am. [rɛd] | Br. [red] | |
| 5. | Am. [raɪt] | Br. [raɪt] | |
| 6. | Am. [sɪn] | Br. [sɪːn] | |
| 7. | Am. [dʒɪm] | Br. [dʒɪm] | |
| 8. | Am. [fɔr] | Br. [fɔː(r)] | |
| 9. | Am. [baʊ] | Br. [baʊ] | |
| 10. | Am. [no] | Br. [nəʊ] | |
| 11. | Am. [rɒd] | Br. [rəʊd] | |
| 12. | Am. [hɒl] | Br. [həʊl] | |
| 13. | Am. [sɛnt] | Br. [sent] | |
| 14. | Am. [pɛn] | Br. [peɪn] | |
| 15. | Am. [brɛk] | Br. [breɪk] | |
| 16. | Am. [prɪns] | Br. [prɪns] | |
| 17. | Am. [sɪd] | Br. [siːd] | |
| 18. | Am. [trækt] | Br. [trækt] | |
| 19. | Am. [tɒt] | Br. [tɔːt] | |
| 20. | Am. [grɛt] | Br. [greɪt] | |

11.3 – Descriptions of sounds (6.4)

The source of this exercise is Hudson (2000: 39–40).

Again, this exercise is based on typical American pronunciation.

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

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

11.4 – Describe the sounds of three words (6.5)

Choose three word from (a) language(s) 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/or similar things. Tell us what language it is, and if the word is difficult to understand, also tell us what it means.

The rest of us will try to figure out what word it is and write it down in phonetic script.

Three examples:

Persian	a voiced bilabial nasal consonant, an oral mid front vowel, an voiced alveolar trill,
---------	---

	a voiceless alveolar fricative consonant, an oral high front vowel, the stress is on the first syllable.
Russian	a voiced labiodental fricative consonant, an oral rounded mid back vowel, a voiceless alveolar stop, a voiceless velar stop, an oral mid central vowel, the stress is on the first syllable.
Swahili	a voiceless alveolar fricative consonant, an oral unrounded closed front vowel a voiced bilabial nasal consonant, a voiced bilabial plosive consonant, an open oral unrounded central vowel, the stress is on the second to last syllable.

Amharic - 'language'

- labialized ejective voiceless velar stop
- low central vowel
- velar nasal
- labialized ejective voiceless velar stop
- low central vowel
- stress is debated in Amharic, but there appears to be at least a slight stress on the first syllable of this word

Swahili - 'language'

- alveolar lateral approximant
- high back vowel
- voiced velar fricative
- low central vowel
- stress on the second to last syllable

Zulu - 'language'

- high back vowel
- alveolar lateral approximant
- high front vowel
- bilabial nasal

- high front vowel
- stress on the second to last syllable

Swahili - 'book'

Voiceless velar stop

High front vowel

Voiceless alveolar stop

Low central vowel

Voiced bilabial stop

High back vowel

Swahili - 'neighbors'

Voiced bilabial nasal

Low central vowel

Voiced palato-alveolar affricate

High front vowel

Alveolar trill

Low central vowel

Alveolar nasal

High front vowel

Swahili - 'mathematics'

Voiceless glottal fricative

High front vowel

Voiceless alveolar fricative

Low central vowel

Voiced bilabial stop

Low central vowel

Voiceless alveolar stop

High front vowel

French - 'to eat'

- a voiced bilabial nasal consonant
- a nasal low back vowel
- a voiced post-alveolar fricative
- an oral high-mid front vowel
- stress is on the final syllable of a phrase (not of an individual word)

German - 'school'

- a voiceless post-alveolar fricative
- an oral high back vowel
- an alveolar lateral approximant
- an oral mid central vowel
- stress is on the first syllable

11.5 – Referencing

This is the list of references for the German Wikipedia article on Oromo. **Quickly** review and correct the list according to the LSA standards. **Don't double check** things online. Just fix as many details as possible based on the list below.

- Catherine Griefenow-Mewis, Tamene Bitima: *Lehrbuch des Oromo*. Rüdiger Köppe Verlag, Köln 1994, [ISBN 3-927620-05-X](#).
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11. Suggested solutions

11.1 - Read IPA

1. [maskaw, rəfə] = Moscow, Russia
2. [lændən, ɪŋlənd] = London, England
3. [helsinki, fɪnlənd] = Helsinki, Finland
4. [viɛnə, ɔstriə] = Vienna, Austria
5. [rom, ɪtəli] = Rome, Italy
6. [kɒpənɦagən, dɛnmɑ:k] = Copenhagen, Denmark
7. [ɑzlo, norweɪ] = Oslo, Norway
8. [dəblɪn, ɑjrlənd] = Dublin, Ireland
9. [brəsəlz, bɛldʒəm] = Brussels, Belgium
10. [barsələnə, spɛɪn] = Barcelona, Spain
11. [æθənz, grɪs] = Athens, Greece
12. [krakaw, pɒlənd] = Krakow, Poland
13. [bɜrlɪn, dʒɜrməni] = Berlin, Germany
14. [stɑkɦom, swɪdən] = Stockholm, Sweden
15. [budəpest, hɛŋgəri] = Budapest, Hungary
16. [prag, tʃɛkriːpəblik] = Prague, Czech Republic
17. [dʒənivə, swɪtsərlənd] = Switzerland
18. [æmstərdæm, hɑlənd] = Amsterdam, Holland
19. [lɪzbən, pɔrtʃugəl] = Lisbon, Portugal
20. [riga, lætviə] = Riga, Latvia

11.2 - Homophonous words

2. Am. [fɪl]	Br. [fɪl]	fill, Phil	
3. Am. [tiz]	Br. [tiːz]	tease, teas, Ts	
4. Am. [rɛd]	Br. [rɛd]	red, read (PST)	
5. Am. [raɪt]	Br. [raɪt]	right, write, rite	
6. Am. [sɪn]	Br. [siːn]	seen, scene	[sɪn] sin, syn
7. Am. [dʒɪm]	Br. [dʒɪm]	Jim gym	
8. Am. [fɔr]	Br. [fɔː(r)]	four, for, fore (fore-, for-)	
9. Am. [bəw]	Br. [bəʊ]	bow, bough	
10. Am. [no]	Br. [nəʊ]	no, know	
11. Am. [rɒd]	Br. [rəʊd]	road, rode, rowed	
12. Am. [hɒl]	Br. [həʊl]	hole, whole	
13. Am. [sɛnt]	Br. [sɛnt]	sent, scent, cent	
14. Am. [pen]	Br. [peɪn]	pain, pane	
15. Am. [brek]	Br. [breɪk]	break, brake	

- | | |
|-----------------------------|--|
| 16. Am. [prɪns] Br. [prɪns] | prince, (prints ? depending on accent) |
| 17. Am. [sɪd] Br. [si:d] | seed, cede |
| 18. Am. [trækt] Br. [trækt] | tracked, tract |
| 19. Am. [tɒt] Br. [tɔ:t] | taught, taut (Br. tort) |
| 20. Am. [ɡret] Br. [ɡreɪt] | great, grate. |

11.3 - Descriptions of sounds

2. (get) [ɡet] – a voiced velar stop + a mid front vowel + a voiceless alveolar stop
- (gate) [ɡeɪt] is rather – a voiced velar stop + a mid-to-close front diphthong + a voiceless alveolar stop
3. (take) [teɪk] 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) [ðen] a voiced dental fricative + a mid front vowel + an alveolar nasal
6. (now) [naʊ] – 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 – [wʊl] 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. Br. not / ?Am. 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. know – [naʊ] an alveolar nasal + a mid back vowel

26. road – a retroflex approximant + a mid back vowel + a voice alveolar stop

11.4 - Describe the sounds of three words

Persian ['mersi] 'thank you'

Russian ['vɔtkə] 'vodka'

Swahili ['simba] 'lion'

Amharic [(')k^wʼaŋk^wʼa] ቋንቋ *qwanqwa* 'language'

Swahili ['luya] 'language'

Zulu [u'limi] 'language'

Not sure if the correct way is to write it like you did, or to put the apostrophe before the superscript w. Both [k^wʼa] and k^wʼa seem to be used.

And I don't know if there can be voiced ejectives? Voiced ejectives are rare.

Swahili [ki'tabu] 'book'

Swahili [madʒi'rani] 'neighbours'

though I would suggest [maʒi'rani] as the standard pronunciation

[ʒ] is a voiced palatal plosive

Swahili [hisa'bati] 'mathematics'

French [mãʒe] 'eat'

German ['fulə] 'school'

11.5 – Referencing

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Gragg, Gene B. (ed.). 1982. *Oromo dictionary*. East Lansing, MI: Michigan State University.

German (Hrsg.) = English (ed.)

The series title is very strange. Since that is an optional component, it's safer to leave it out.

Griefenow-Mewis, Catherine & Tamene Bitima. 1994. *Lehrbuch des Oromo*. Köln: Rüdiger Köppe.

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If you are not sure whether Hildesheim is a city of a publisher, it might be safer to leave it out.

Roba, Taha M. 2004. *Modern Afaan Oromo grammar: qaanqee galma Afaan Oromo*. Bloomington: Authorhouse.

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Unit 12. Sound Systems (6)

Phonology

Phonology deals with **the sound system of a specific language**, i.e., such differences between sounds that correspond to words with different meanings, i.e., **phonemes** or distinctive speech sounds. /p/ and /b/ are two English phonemes because there are many pairs of words that only differ with respect to these sounds, e.g. *bond*, *pond*; *pin*, *bin*; *back*, *pack*. In phonology, this kind of pairs are called **minimal pairs**.

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**. For example, the English /p/ in the preceding examples is followed by aspiration, whereas /b/ is not. This is phonetically important if you want to acquire a good English pronunciation, but from a phonological point of view, it is not very important, because there is never a contrast between two English words of which one would be pronounced with an aspirated [p^h] and the other with an unaspirated [p].

Phonological (or phonemic) transcription is given between / /, whereas phonetic transcription, rendering the exact pronunciation, is given between [].

Phonemes, phones and allophones

A **phoneme** is the smallest building block (a sound) that can change the meaning of a word.

In English, the sounds or **phones** [b] and [p] correspond to two different **phonemes**: /b/ and /p/, as in *bill* and *pill*. The same is true for the **phones** [dʒ] and [tʃ]. They also correspond to different phonemes: /dʒ/ and /tʃ/ as in *jeep* and *cheap*.

In Somali and Standard Arabic the situation is very different. Even if all four sounds or **phones** may occur in the pronunciation of Somali and Arabic speakers, they can never make up the sole difference between two words with different meaning. In Somali you will hear [bil] 'month' and [kap] 'shoe', but Somali speakers perceive the two sounds or **phones** as variations of the same unit in their sound system, i.e., they perceive both [b] and [p] as variant pronunciations of the Somali phoneme /b/. Such variants are called **allophones**. The allophone [p] occurs at the end of words and before certain consonants, such as /t/, e.g., [kapta] 'the shoe'. The two allophones [p] and

[b] occur in different positions in words, and it is possible to predict the pronunciation based on a few simple rules. This is called **complementary distribution of allophones**. This also makes it a bit tricky for Somali speakers to learn the distinction between /p/ and /b/ in other languages where they are not allophones, but different phonemes. For the same reason, [p] in loanwords is usually reinterpreted as /b/ in Somali and Arabic, e.g., *police* --> Somali *boliis*.

Also the two sounds [dʒ] and [tʃ] are allophones in Somali, but of a different kind. For these allophones, there are no rules governing the pronunciation. Each speaker is free to decide which one to use. The word *Jayna* 'China' may be pronounced as either [dʒajna] or [tʃajna]. Both are equally natural and correct. There might however be geographical preferences, so that speaker from a certain geographical area prefer one or the other pronunciation. But as long as there are not any rules governing the choice of allophones, the individual speaker's choice is free, hence this is called **free variation between allophones** or **allophones in free variation**.

Phonemes

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

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

Allophones

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

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

Swedish has a couple of 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.

Syllables

Vowels and consonants are organised into units according to certain patterns that are specific for individual languages. Such units are referred to as **syllables**.

Some languages, like Japanese, only allow syllables with one consonant and one vowel. As a pattern that is usually expressed as CV, where C stands for consonant and V for vowel. The syllabic structure of Japanese is CV.

Somali has more possibilities: V, CV, VC, CVC. It is therefore possible to say that the largest possible syllable structure in Somali is CVC, or more precisely CV:C (with a long vowel), since Somali has long and short vowels.

Languages like English and Swedish has even larger syllables like CCCVC (*street*) or CVCCC (*forms*). Together that gives us the possibility of a (possibly) maximal syllable CCCVCCC (*strands*), but there are probably a few English words with an even larger syllable. At least there are some in Swedish.

When discussing the structure of a syllable, it is practical to have a terminology for the different parts of the syllable. What comes before the vowel is called the **onset**, and the rest of the syllable is called the **rhyme**. In the word *street*, the onset is /str/ and the rhyme is /i:t/. The rhyme is then divided into the vocalic part which is called the **nucleus**, and the consonantal part which is called the **coda**. In the word *street*, the nucleus is /i:/ and the coda is /t/.

Another way of defining vowels and consonants, not based on their pronunciation, is their position in the syllable. Vowels occur in the nucleus and consonants occur in the onset and coda.

In some languages sonorants occur in the nucleus and may therefore be considered vowels or at least 'vocalic' in those languages. E.g. the second largest Czech city Brno has two syllables with stress on the first one /'br.no/

Phonotactics

Phonotactics (fonotax) describes the possible combinations of sounds

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

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

How to represent the structure of a syllable: V= vowel, C = consonant, e.g.

CCCVCCC	[strɛŋθs]	strengths
CVC	sun	
CV	be	(no coda)
VC	is	(no onset)

The consonant(s) before the vowel are called **onset**.

The consonant(s) after the vowel are called **coda**.

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/ is impossible in Somalis phonotactics

Prominence

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 stretch 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'.

The duration of phonemes

It is often the case that only vowels (or consonants) may be long in a specific language.

Swedish, Finnish and Somali have a distinction between long and short vowels as well as long and short consonants, but there are important differences between the languages.

In Swedish, long sounds can only occur in a stressed syllable, and only one sound can be long, either the vowel or the consonant.

In Finnish, long sounds can occur anywhere in a word, and a syllable can contain both a long vowel and a long consonant at the same time.

plain = short
long

standard duration
longer than standard duration

Swahili phonology

Vowels (5). Like about 60 % of all Bantu languages, Swahili has a five-vowel system:

	Front	Central	Back
High	i		u
Low-mid	ɛ		ɔ
Low		a	

Consonants (21). The voiceless stops (p, t, k) and voiceless affricate (tʃ) are sometimes aspirated. The voiced stops (b, d, g) and voiced affricate (dʒ) might be realized as implosives (ɓ, ɗ, ɠ, ɡ, respectively). Dental (θ, ð) and velar (x, ɣ) fricatives occur in Arabic loanwords.

		Labial	Dental	Palatal	Velar	Glottal
Stop	<i>Voiceless</i>	p	t		k	
	<i>Voiced</i>	b	d		g	
Affricate	<i>Voiceless</i>			tʃ		
	<i>Voiced</i>			dʒ		
Fricative	<i>Voiceless</i>	f	s			h
	<i>Voiced</i>	v	z			
Nasal		m	n	ɲ	ŋ	
Liquid			l r			
Glide		w		j		

Tones: in contrast to most other Bantu languages, Swahili lacks tones.

Stress: falls always on the penultimate syllable.

Source: Gutman & Avanzati (2013).

Somali consonants

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					k g	q ɢ			
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					k g	ɢ			
Fricative		f		s	ʃ				χ	ħ ʕ		h
Affricate			dʒ									
Trill			r									
Approximant	w		l				j					

Source: Nilsson (2018)

12. Read some more

As a complement to the above text, read also

Pages 44–51 "The sound patterns of language" in
Yule, George. 2020. *The study of language*, 7th edn. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
(pdf available on Canvas.)

If you want to read some more, there are chapters on phonology (and phonetics) in practically all the titles listed under Further readings, beginning on page 4 of this pdf.

12. Watch some videos

Speech Production Mechanism (15 min.) | Aze Linguistics
<https://youtu.be/6HeZyClq-OY>

Speech Anatomy (6 min.) | Aze Linguistics
<https://youtu.be/Pv0MWHkZ2eg>

Active Articulators (10 min.) | Aze Linguistics
<https://youtu.be/emVNEuHvbr8>

Passive Articulators (8 min.) | Aze Linguistics

<https://youtu.be/0C0am0Duwck>

Consonants (11 min.) | Taylor Behnke

<https://youtu.be/vyea8Ph9BOM>

Vowels (11 min.) | Taylor Behnke

<https://youtu.be/qPTL5x0QW-Y>

Phonetics: Intro to Linguistics (22 min.) | Aaron

https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=GLBsvdaR_ow

Phonemes, Allophones, and Minimal Pairs (15 min.) | TrevTutor

<https://youtu.be/zGM8dSLCnyc>

12. Read about IGBO

Again, it's difficult to find good video clips about Igbo.

Learn the Igbo alphabet and pronunciation (14 min.) | Learn Igbo

https://youtu.be/V_iU75KSdOc

Student text 2024

Igbo

Igbo is primarily spoken in the region known as Igboland, located in the southeastern part of Nigeria. This area encompasses several states, including Abia, Anambra, Ebonyi, Enugu, and Imo, with some communities also in Delta and Rivers states. The language is spoken by approximately 31 million people. Researchers have identified about 35 distinct Igbo dialects. Despite Central Igbo, or Igbo proper, generally being regarded as a single language, there exists limited mutual understanding among the various geographic subdivisions, which include the northern, western, southern, and eastern groups.

Igbo is part of the Niger-Congo language family, falling specifically under the Volta-Niger branch of the West Benue-Congo subgroup. It features a tonal system where each syllable is associated with either a high or low tone, although these tones are often not marked in written form. The tone of a syllable is crucial because it can significantly alter the meaning of words. For example, the word "akwa" can translate to different meanings such as "cry," "egg," "cloth," or "sew," depending on its tonal pronunciation.

The typical sentence structure in Igbo adheres to a subject-verb-object

ordering. Close linguistic relatives of Igbo include Yoruba, which is the largest language within the West Benue-Congo subgroup. Another language, Swahili, although part of the Niger-Congo family as well, is considered more distantly related to Igbo. This linguistic connection highlights the diverse and complex relationships among the languages of the Niger-Congo family.

References:

A language of Nigeria

<https://www.ethnologue-com.ezproxy.ub.gu.se/language/ibo/>

Wikipedia. (2023). Igbo language :

https://en.wikipedia.org/w/index.php?title=Igbo_language&oldid=1256676268

Youtube:

https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=V_iU75KSdOc&feature=youtu.be

Salami, L. Oladipo. "'Other Tongue' Policy and Ethnic Nationalism in Nigeria." *Language Policy* 3 (2004)

Amaechi, Mary, and Florence C. Nwosu. (2023) "Body-part terms in the grammar of Igbo." *Southern African Linguistics and Applied Language Studies*

Don't use parentheses for year.

Don't use citation marks for titles of articles.

Always give issue number and page range for articles.

Always give author (or institution), year and title for internet pages, files, videos etc., e.g., Youtube videos.

Student comments

I find it fascinating that the Igbo language, just like the Yoruba (and I'm taking advantage of this comment section to talk about this because the languages are so closely related) has a distinct counting system as well, which, I think has to do with both language and culture. Similar to what's happening in French with the way they regard numbers, Igbo also tends to add up or multiply or a combination of everything in order to obtain the number, having a base-20 and not a base-10 system. I have always asked myself where, culturally, does this come from, so if you have any idea, I would like to hear your thoughts on this!

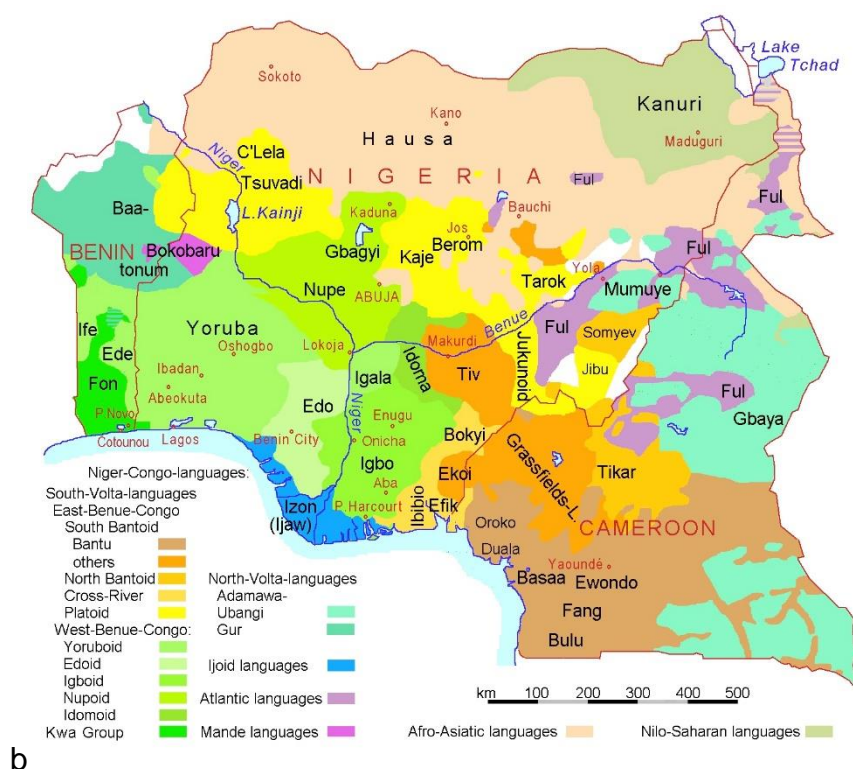
I believe that many human languages use the vigesimal system by counting fingers and toes. In Europe it is common in Celtic languages but it can occur in cultures not connected to each other because of the 'natural' way it is created.

I find the classification of the Niger-Congo languages quite confusing. According to wikipedia, West Benue-Congo is another name for the Volta-Niger language family

https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Volta%E2%80%93Niger_languages

Student text 2023 No 1

Igbo is, according to Ethnologue (2023b), a large Niger-Congo language belonging to the West Benue-Congo subgroup. Igbo is spoken by 31 million L1 speakers in south-eastern Nigeria. Moreover, Nigeria has 211 million habitants and 520 living indigenous languages (Ethnologue 2023c), of which Igbo is the third largest after Hausa and Yoruba (Britannica 2023). It is next followed by Ful, which is even larger, but has the main part of its speakers outside Nigeria (Ethnologue 2023a).



b

Igbo has a tone system with 3 level tonic tones, and its basic word order is **SOV** (Ethnologue 2023b).

Yoruba is the largest West Benue-Congo language, so it is the nearest really large relative of Igbo (Williamson & Blench 2000: 30-31). An even larger distantly related Niger-Congo language is Swahili, at least if also L2 users are counted (Ethnologue 2023d).

A readable concise sketch of the Igbo language can be found in the travel website MustGO (2023).

References

- Britannica. 2023. Languages of Nigeria. <https://www.britannica.com/place/Nigeria/Languages> (2023.11.26)
- Ethnologue. 2023a. Fulfulde, Nigerian. <https://www.ethnologue-com.ezproxy.ub.gu.se/language/fuv/> (2023.12.09)
- Ethnologue. 2023b. Igbo. <https://www.ethnologue-com.ezproxy.ub.gu.se/language/ibo/> (2023.12.09)
- Ethnologue. 2023c. Nigeria. <https://www.ethnologue-com.ezproxy.ub.gu.se/country/NG/> (2023.12.09)
- Ethnologue. 2023d. Swahili. <https://www.ethnologue-com.ezproxy.ub.gu.se/language/swh/> (2023.12.09)
- MustGO. 2023. Igbo language. <https://www.mustgo.com/worldlanguages/igbo/> (2023.12.06)
- Williamson, Kay & Roger Blench. 2000. Niger-Congo. In Heine, Bernd & Derek Nurse (eds.), *African languages, an introduction*, 11-42. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Student text 2023 No 2

Igbo is indeed a Niger-Congo language spoken predominantly by the Igbo people in southeastern Nigeria, as well as in some other African countries like Equatorial Guinea. It is one of the four official languages of Nigeria, along with English, Hausa, and Yoruba. Igbo is a tonal language, meaning that the pitch or intonation used when pronouncing a word can change its meaning. The exact number of Igbo speakers can vary in different estimates, but it is generally believed to be between 18 and 25 million. (Wikipedia 2020).

Igbo has the basic form of **SVO**. Something special for Igbo is one type of compound verb which is the verb-verb compound, which is a linguistic structure found in Igbo. The first element in these constructions is an independent verb root, which is then followed by a suffix or another verb root. This enables Igbo speakers to describe a sequence of actions or events with a single verb form (Lord, 1977).

Example: BYA'(verb), come'. FE'(verb) = cross' = BYAFE' = come across'.

ME'(verb) = do, make. CI (verb) = 'be stopped up' = MECI = close.

English has influenced the Igbo language because Igbo teachers primarily use English during Igbo lessons, and students may not develop strong proficiency in their native language. This could impact their ability to communicate effectively in Igbo, both orally and in writing (Clara, U. 2013. p:577)

References

Clara, U. U. (2013). Igbo language and Identity. *Journal of Literature and Art Studies*, 3(9), 576-588. <https://pdfs.semanticscholar.org/058a/88dcc3e13c6e75fc62e7b9d3c130d360fd66.pdf>

Lord, C. 1977. How Igbo got from SOV serializing to SVO compounding. *Studies in African Linguistics*, Supplement 7, 145-55.

https://scholar.google.com/scholar?hl=sv&as_sdt=0%2C5&q=+What+is+the+basic+word+order+in+Igbo%3F&btnG=

Wikipedia, 2020. Igbo language. https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Igbo_language

12. Practice

12.1 - General questions (5.1)

1. Can you think of any other examples of free variation between **allophones** in Swedish or any other language that you know (something about)? Prove it with a concrete word (with translation) that can be pronounced in different ways without any change in the meaning.
2. Can you think of any other examples of **assimilation** between neighbouring sounds in Swedish or any other language that you know (something about)? Prove it by giving at least two expressions (with translation) where the same element is pronounced in different ways due to a difference in the neighbouring sounds.
3. Can you give an example of an **onset** or a **coda** that is impossible in Swedish and English, but is possible in a language that you know (something about)? Give some words (and their translations) as examples.
4. English and Swedish don't have very simple rules for the position of the

stress in words. Do you know (something about) a language that has quite simple rules for the position of stress? Give the rule(s) and a few words to illustrate it, with translations, of course.

5. Find two African languages (not very closely related) that make a distinction between long and short vowels or consonants. Give a reference in support of each of them, and at least one minimal pair of words (with translation) as an example.

12.2 - Somali stress (7.2)

Try to figure out the basic rules for where to put the stress in Somali nouns.

Somali has a stress system where the ‘stressed’ syllable is pronounced with a high tone (i.e., a voice with high pitch). Stress is marked with an accent in the following words. Double letters represent long sounds.

<i>árday</i>	‘male student’
<i>ardayád</i>	‘female student’
<i>askári</i>	‘male soldier’
<i>askariyád</i>	‘female soldier’
<i>bilcán</i>	‘married woman’
<i>bisád</i>	‘she-cat’
<i>bóqor</i>	‘king’
<i>boqorád</i>	‘queen’
<i>búug</i>	‘book’
<i>díbi</i>	‘ox’
<i>gaarí</i>	‘good wife’
<i>gabár</i>	‘girl’
<i>gúri</i>	‘house’
<i>habár</i>	‘old woman’
<i>ínan</i>	‘boy’
<i>inán</i>	‘girl’
<i>islaán</i>	‘old woman’
<i>lách</i>	‘ewe, female sheep’
<i>liín</i>	‘citrus fruit’
<i>macallimád</i>	‘female teacher’
<i>macállin</i>	‘male teacher’
<i>mindí</i>	‘knife’
<i>miskíin</i>	‘poor man’
<i>naág</i>	‘woman’
<i>nín</i>	‘man’
<i>óday</i>	‘old man’
<i>saaxíib</i>	‘(boy) friend’
<i>saaxiibád</i>	‘(girl) friend’
<i>sóddog</i>	‘father-in-law’
<i>soddóh</i>	‘mother-in-law’
<i>wán</i>	‘ram, male sheep’
<i>wíil</i>	‘boy’

12.3 - The definite article in Lyélé (9.1)

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'
yìjì 'church'
yìjìí '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.

12.4 - Progressive forms in Yoruba (7.3)

Try to give a rule for how to form the progressive verb form in Yoruba.
< ´ > marks high tone, < ` > marks low tone. The source of this exercise is Cowan & Rakušan (1987: 45). Can you see any phonetic/phonological patterns?

bá 'meets'
mbá 'is meeting'
bɛ 'cuts off'
mbɛ 'is cutting off'
bò 'covers'
mbò 'is covering'
bù 'cuts'
mbù 'is cutting'
dà 'pours'

ńdà 'is pouring'

dì 'ties'

ńdì 'is tying'

dúró 'stands'

ńdúró 'is standing'

ká 'folds'

ńká 'is folding'

kó 'gathers'

ńkó 'is gathering'

kù 'remains'

ńkù 'is remaining'

12.5 – Referencing

Make a list of references based on the follownig four items.

https://gu-se-primo.hosted.exlibrisgroup.com/permalink/f/15agpbr/TN_cdi_proquest_journals_2827376076

https://gu-se-primo.hosted.exlibrisgroup.com/permalink/f/rmbr1s/46GUB_KOHA225019

https://gu-se-primo.hosted.exlibrisgroup.com/permalink/f/15agpbr/TN_cdi_proquest_miscellaneous_1018384444

https://gu-se-primo.hosted.exlibrisgroup.com/permalink/f/15agpbr/TN_cdi_proquest_journals_1348130430

12. Suggested solutions

12.1 – General questions

1. Allophones

Swedish /r/ can be [r] (trilled, tongue-tip 'r') or [ʀ] (French" back 'r') in a word like 'röd'. The use of one of these allophones is mostly diatopic (i.e., it depends on the deographical area).

Different allophones for /r/ occur in several other languages as well, such as German, Dutch, Italian and Polish. At least in Polish the variation is not geographical, but rather as a personal 'preference'.

Sju 'seven' can be pronounced as /ʃuː/ or /ʃuː/ (and /çuː/ in Finland).

NB!

/kɛkːs/ or /çɛkːs/ for *kex* 'biscuit' and ['aɪðər] or ['iːðər] for either are not instances of allophony. These are simply two alternative pronunciations, since it only applies to individual words, not more generally to a certain phoneme.

Certain other words prove that /k/ and /ç/ are different phonemes: *killar/chillar*, *kjol/cool*, *tjo/ko*.

2. Assimilation

English *sandwich* /san(d)wɪtʃ/ is usually pronounced [samwɪtʃ] or [samwɪdʒ] - the alveolar /n/ is assimilated to the labial /w/, producing a labial [m].

The same applies to Swedish *tunnbröd*, *Lundberg*, where /nb/ and /ndb/ become [mb].

In Dutch the /n/ is pronounced as a velar instead of an alveolar if it's followed by a /k/, for example *kanker* [k^haːŋker]

The same assimilation occurs in a lot of other languages as well. A few languages, e.g., Russian, do not apply this assimilation. Hence that's a very important trait in a foreign accent of Russian, where *bank* has to be pronounced [bank], not [baŋk].

In *bord* 'table', the 'r' and 'd' combine to form [d]. The question is whether /r/ and /d/ are phonemes that fuse into [d], or whether /d/ is a phoneme. Either way, though, this is not really assimilation, but **coalescence** or **fusion**. (Assimilation is when there are two sounds and one of them changes to become more similar to the other, and the result is **still two sounds**.)

In today's standard Swedish, some linguists consider /d/ a phoneme. However, since not all varieties of (standard) Swedish exhibit this coalescence, it's also common to consider it a result of a sound rule /r/+d/ -> [d]. This rule also applies across word boundaries, e.g., *ser du?*

3. Onset/coda

The onset [ts] is impossible in English. In Swedish it is found only in the

word *tsar* but even there it is usually replaced with a simple [s] onset. (In English *tsar* is always pronounced with a simple [z] onset.) In German a [ts] onset is extremely common. The German onset [tsv] as in *zwei* ('two') would be impossible in both English and Swedish.

The onset /rw/ is impossible in English and Swedish but possible in French, e.g. *roi* /rwa/ [ʁwa]. The borrowed placename 'Rwanda' exists in English and Swedish but is pronounced with a vowel rather than a glide as the second sound.

In Greek it is common that words have 'ps' as onset. In Germanic languages like German or Dutch, 'ps' is not a possible onset. The only word with 'ps' as onset are loanwords from Greek, e.g., Dutch *psycholoog*, *psalm*, *psoriasis*.

The Polish word **zdrowy** 'healthy'. The onset **zdr** is not possible in neither Swedish nor English. Polish is a language with a very different set of onsets than Swedish and English.

4. Stress

Swedish, German and Dutch tend to have initial stress. Therefore we have, e.g., Dutch *kunstig*, *beeldig*, *keurig*, *fruitig*, ...

French has final stress, e.g., *Jeanette*, *gazette*.

Swahili has stress on the second-to-last or penultimate syllable, e.g. *mwalimu* 'teacher', *meza* 'table', *safisha* 'to clean', *kijani* 'green', *umelala* 'you have slept', *umelalaje* 'how did you sleep?'.

	NOM.,	ACC.,	INSTRUMENTAL
Finnish & Czech – <u>Always</u> initial stress.	<i>stúdent</i> ,	<i>stúdent<u>a</u></i> ,	<i>stúdent<u>ama</u></i>
Polish – <u>Always</u> penultimate stress.	<i>stúdent</i> ,	<i>studé<u>nta</u></i> ,	<i>student<u>ámi</u></i>
Italian – <u>Usually</u> penultimate stress.	<i>studé<u>nte</u></i>		
Slovene – Usually stem final stress.	<i>studé<u>nt</u></i> ,	<i>studé<u>nta</u></i> ,	<i>studé<u>ntoma</u></i>

5. Long/short vowels

Wolaytta: long/short vowels long/short consonants

Arabic:	long/short vowels	long/short consonants
Fula:	long/short vowels	long/short consonants
Hausa:	long/short vowels	long/short consonants

According to Ishida (2024), long and short vowels in **Fula** are phonemically distinctive, with the minimal pair *jango* /jango/ ('tomorrow') and *jaango* /ja:ŋgo/ ('cold'). However, such minimal pairs are said to be rare. (Fula is a Senegambian, Niger-Congo language.)

In **Hausa**, they are plentiful. Na'allah (2007) gives examples such as /da/ 'with', /daa/ 'formerly', and /fada/ 'fight', /faada/ 'fall into'. Interestingly, he says that vowel length only affects the meaning in mid and final positions, implying that at the beginning of a word, it cannot provide a phonemic contrast. (Hausa is a Chadic, Afro-Asiatic language.)

Ishida, Richard. 2024. Fula orthography notes.

<https://r12a.github.io/scripts/latn/ff>

Na'Allah, Abdul Rasheed. 1991. Vowel length in Hausa. *Language learning journal*. 3 (Mar). 84–85.

12.2. Somali stress.

Somali stress is sensitive to moras (or vowel positions), not just vowels or syllables.

A long vowel is made up of two moras (or vowel positions).

Stress is on the last mora of feminine nouns (*bisád* 'cat', *líín* 'citrus'), while it is on the penultimate mora of masculine nouns (*macállin* 'male teacher', *saaxíib* 'male friend').

12.3. The definite article in Lyélé.

The definite form of the noun is formed by **lengthening of the final vowel**. The newly added **final part of the long vowel always has a high tone**, regardless of the tone of the original short vowel, e.g. *nà* 'foot' but *nàá* 'feet'. In this word, the long vowel starts with a low tone, and the tone rises towards the end.

12.4. Progressive forms in Yoruba.

A nasal prefix marks the progressive aspect.

The prefix is assimilated to the following consonant. The nasal consonant in the prefix and the initial consonant of the base verb must have the same place of articulation.

[b] is preceded by [m]; both labial.

[d] is preceded by [n]; both alveolar.

[k] is preceded by [ŋ]; both velar.

The progressive prefix always has high tone (').

12.5 – Referencing

Agbo, Maduabuchi Sennen & Lendzemo Constantine Yuka. 2011. Transitivity and double object construction In Igbo. *Journal of West African Languages* 38(2). 33–47.

Amaechi, Mary & Florence C. Nwosu. 2023. Body-part terms in the grammar of Igbo. *Southern African Linguistics and Applied Language Studies* 41(2). 171–190.

Anyanwu, Ogbonna. 2012. Pronominal subject clitics in Igbo. *Theory and Practice in Language Studies* 2(2). 377–388.

NB!

There should be no space between the volume number and the issue number in parentheses, i.e., 38(2), 41(2), 2(2), not 38 (2), 41 (2), 2 (2).

Carrell, Patricia L. 1970. *A transformational grammar of Igbo*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Unit 13. Sound Changes (7)

Phonotactic alternations

As we saw in Unit 12, phonotactics are concerned with the rules or principles that define the ways in which sounds (phonemes) may be combined into syllables and words.

Languages have important restrictions on the maximal number of consonants in an onset or coda, as well as the possible combinations of different consonants in the onset or coda.

Somali (Cushitic) only allows one consonant in both the onset and the coda. The maximum syllable structure is therefore CVC.

Ewe (Atlantic) only allows one consonant in the onset, and no coda consonant at all. The maximum syllable structure is therefore CV.

Examples of restrictions on the type of consonants that may occur in onsets and codas:

English/Swedish	[ŋ] can never be word initial, [h] can never be in a coda
Somali	[t], [k], [m], [dʒ] can not be in a coda
Japanese	the only coda consonant is [N]

Epenthesis

Sometimes morphology produces forms that don't fit into the maximal syllable structure that is allowed in a language. The Somali imperative is formed by detaching any inflectional ending, leaving just the stem of the verb. This, however, often leads to ill-formed syllable, which must be "repaired" by adding a vowel to form an additional syllable for the problematic consonant.

hadl-ay	talk-3SM.PST	>	had.lay	'he talked'
*hadl-Ø	talk-IMP	>	ha.dal	'talk'

To insert a phoneme like this is called epenthesis.

Deletion

The opposite also occurs. Actually, linguists sometimes are not sure or don't agree whether in a certain form, it is epenthesis or deletion that is occurring. This is true for the Somali case mentioned above. Many linguists treat this as an instance of deletion, because there would otherwise be "too many" vowels in some forms.

If the stem has the structure CVCVC (and the two vowels are identical), then the second vowel is deleted whenever the ending begins with a vowel.

hadal-Ø	talk-IMP	> ha.dal	'talk'
*hadal-ay	talk-3SM.PST	> had.lay	'he talked'

Elision

Elision is sometimes used to refer to the same thing as deletion, but often it refers rather to a sound loss that is still in progress, or that occurred relatively recently, so that the process or mechanism of the elision is rather obvious. E.g. French and Italian definite articles that end with a vowel are subject to elision before words that start with a vowel. This is of course in order to avoid a sequence of two vowels in two adjacent syllables, something that is referred to as **hiatus** [har'eitəs].

French	
<i>le chat</i> [ləʃa] 'the cat'	* <i>le argent</i> > <i>l'argent</i> [larʒɑ̃] 'the money'

Another possible way of avoiding hiatus would of course be **epenthesis** of a consonant between the vowels. That also happens in many languages, e.g. Somali. We already saw the past tense ending *-ay* above. If the stem (very often equal to the imperative) ends with a vowel, then an epenthetic /y/ is added before all endings that begin with a vowel.

Somali	
<i>sii</i> 'give'	* <i>sii-ay</i> > <i>siiyay</i> 'he gave'

Contraction

The phenomenon occurring in French *l'argent* 'the money' might also have been called contraction, since two words are combined into one, and a portion of one of the words is lost. The term contraction is, however, especially common when there is a variation at hand between a contracted form and an uncontracted phrase. This is a very common situation in English,

where we find variation between uncontracted *I am, we would, cannot* and contracted *I'm, we'd, can't*.

In English, contractions are signalled by an apostroph, but, e.g., in Somali they are not.

Somali

maxaad or *maxaa aad* 'what ... you'

An difference between elision and contraction is that in contractions, additional sound changes may occur in addition the deletion of some sound, e.g., English *will* not becomes *won't* as a constratcion. Besides deleting /l/ and /o/, the vowel in *will* changes a lot.

Metathesis

Sometimes sounds, especially consonants, change places with each other. This is referred to with the originally Greek term metathesis.

Metathesis is not a very common phenomenon. In some langauges there are quite a few examples of metathesis in colloquial forms of words, and in some languages such forms have made it into the standard.

Latin

par**a**bola has become

per**i**culum

cro**c**odilus

Nordic

gar**d** / Sw. gård has become

Standard Somali

xu**s**ul [ħusul] 'elbow'

Spanish

pa**l**abra 'word'

pe**l**igro 'danger'

co**c**odilo 'crocodile'

Slavic

gra**d** (e.g. Belgrade)

Regional colloquial Somali

su**x**ul

Full versus reduced vowels

In some languages vowels are reduced, i.e. pronounced less distinctly, in weak positions in words, e.g., when they are not stressed, or at the end of words.

Often, langauges with vowel reduction have a fairly large set of vowel sounds that may occur in strong positions (usually stressed vowels), and a much smaller set of vowels that may occur in weak positions (usually when not stressed). In some varieties of English, such as Australian English, there is

only one reduced vowel, the [ə] sound. Other varieties have a few different reduced vowels.

In Russian the sounds [ɛ, ɔ] are only possible in strong positions, i.e., if the vowel itself is stressed. If the vowel is not stressed, /o/ is reduced to [a] or [ə], and /e/ is reduced to [i], e.g. *Borís* [ba'ris] *Moskvá* [mas'kva], *vodá* [va'da] 'water', *vódka* ['vɔtkə], *Peterbúrg* [pitir'burk].

That the phoneme /o/ is really there in a word like /vodá/ [va'da] 'water' becomes evident in the accusative form of the word, since the stress then shifts to /vódu/ ['vɔdu].

Assimilation

Neighbouring sounds often influence or affect each other so that they are pronounced in a more similar way.

en bank [ɛmbaŋk] 'a bank'

en ko [ɛŋku:] 'a cow'

havsörn [hafsœ:ŋ] '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 the phoneme /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 [bank] in Russian! Actually, the use of allophones according to the principles of one's mother tongue is one of the most important things that give you a foreign accent in another language.

Progressive or regressive assimilation

When, on the other hand, the source of the assimilation is in a following sound and the effect of it occurs in a preceding sound, the direction of the assimilation is called regressive or anticipatory. It is aiming backward in the word. This direction is the more common one.

Voiced and voiceless consonants adjust to each other in many languages so that adjacent consonants are both (all) either voiced or voiceless. If a voiced

and a voiceless consonant meet, voice or voicelessness spreads regressively (backward) in Slavic languages. In the following example, voicelessness is spreading regressively from /k/ in the (once diminutive) suffix *-ka* to the /d/ in the root of the word *vodka*.

Czech

voda [vɔda] 'water' *vodka* [vɔtka] 'vodka'

When the source of the assimilation is in a preceding sound and the effect of it occurs in a following sound, the direction of the assimilation is called progressive. It is aiming forward in the word. This direction is less common.

English exhibits progressive voice assimilation in the plural and present tense suffixes *-s*, phonologically /z/, since a stem final voiceless consonant makes the suffix be pronounced [s]. The allophone [z] is only pronounced after vowels and voiced consonants.

dogs [dɒgz] cats /cat/-/z/ [kats]

cows [kawz]

doors (BE) [do:z]

Final devoicing

Many languages don't allow certain voiced consonants at the end of words or phrases, before a pause. E.g., in German, the phonemes /d/ and /g/ are realised as the allophones [t] and [k] word-finally. That the phonemes are really /d/ and /g/ can be seen in the plural form, where a suffix follows.

German

Hund /hund/ [hunt] 'dog' *Hunde* /hunde/ [hundə] 'dogs'

Zug /ʦug/ [ʦuk] 'train' *Züge* /ʦy:ge/ [ʦy:gə] 'trains'

Distant assimilation

Sometime assimilation occurs from one sound to another non-adjacent sound, i.e., across one or more intervening sound(s). This happens to the Persian subjunctive and imperative prefix *be-*, which assimilates to a following /o/ in the verb stem.

Persian

/mixare/ 'buys'

/bexar/ 'buy!'

/mikone/ 'does, makes'

/bokon/ 'do!, make!'

Vowel harmony

In some languages, there is a special kind of assimilation going on in the vowel system, so that all the vowels in a word must be similar to each other in a specific way.

Finnish has three back vowels: /a/, /o/, /u/, and three front vowels /ä/, /ö/, /y/. Back and front vowels cannot occur in the same word. All vowels in a word have to be either back or front. There are also two “neutral” vowels, /e/ and /i/, which are allowed together with both front and back vowels.

Due to this vowel harmony, many Finnish affixes have two forms, e.g. the suffix *-ssa/-ssa* that corresponds to the English preposition ‘in’.

Finnish

Oulu (Sw. Uleåborg) *Oulussa* ‘in Oulu’

Jyväskylä *Jyväskylässä* ‘in Jyväskylä’

Also Hungarian and Turkish have similar vowel harmony systems.

An African language with a vowel harmony system is Somali. Each of the five vowels /ɪ/, /ɛ/, /a/, /ɔ/, /u/ can be pronounced in two different ways. The neutral way sounds more or less like the vowels in Spanish or Modern Greek, but the so called ‘heavy’ vowels are pronounced with tension at the back of the tongue (tongue root) and/or in the larynx. These ‘heavy’ vowels sound like /i/, /e/, /æ/, /ə/, /ʊ/. All these ten vowels are phonemes in Somali, but only five letters are used to write them. This means that the spelling system doesn’t reflect the vowel harmony system. However, minimal pairs evidently show that all these vowels are phonemes.

Somali

aad [a:d] ‘you’ *aad* [æ:d] ‘very’

diin [di:n] ‘religion’ *diin* [di:n] ‘tortoise’

When affixes are added to stems, the affixes adjust to the vowel type of the stem. E.g., the present tense suffix *-aa* is realized as [a:] after a stem with neutral vowels, and as [æ:] after a stem with ‘heavy’ vowels.

duul [du:l] ‘fly(IMP)’ *duul* [dʊ:l] ‘attack(IMP)’

duulaa [du:la:] ‘flies’ *duulaa* [dʊ:læ:] ‘attacks’

The present tense suffix shows that the direction of the vowel harmony is progressive, from the stem to the ending. The stem is the carrier of the vowel quality, and the suffix adjusts to the stem.

But Somali vowel harmony is actually **bi-directional**, it is very often regressive, meaning that a noun or verb root also affects preceding grammatical particles like focus particles and prepositions.

Waa diin. [wa:di:n] 'It's religion.'
Waa diin. [wæ:di:n] 'It's a tortoise.'

Dissimilation

Dissimilation is the opposite of assimilation. It means that two sounds become more different. This tends to happen when the same sound occurs twice in a word. In the following example, the daughter languages of Latin, Spanish and French, exhibit dissimilation of the initial /l/ to an /n/, whereas English seems to have borrowed the word from Latin and preserved the initial /l/. Of course, in French the /l/ has disappeared later on in the historical development of this word.

Latin	English	Spanish	French	Swedish
libellum	level	nivel	niveau	nivå

In exercise 8.2 we saw that Kikuyu exhibits dissimilation with respect to the form of the prefix *ki-/gi-*. The voiceless form *ki-* is used when the initial consonant in the stem is voiced, and the voiced form *gi-* is used if the initial consonant in the stem is voiceless.

Coalescence

or fusion is when two sounds fuse and the result is a sound that is different from both the original sounds.

Somali: /a/+ /u/ > /o:/
na 'us' + *u* 'to' > *noo* 'to us'

Somali: /l/+ /t/ > /ʃ/
bil 'month' + *-ta* 'the' > *bisha* [biʃa] 'the month'

Historically, in French and Portuguese, a vowel and a following nasal vowel have fused or coalesced into a nasal vowel. In Swedish and Norwegian, an /r/ fuses with certain following consonants, resulting in a retroflex.

French
Old French *vin* > /vẽ/ 'wine'

Swedish
nord > /nu:ɖ/ 'north'

Lenition

or weakening processes refers to different kinds of sound changes that make a consonant weaker in some way. Somewhat simplified, this means that the consonant is pronounced with less energy or less articulatory precision. The speech organs are affected by a certain degree of laziness. For example, in Somali, single /b/, /d/, /g/ are pronounced [β], [ð], [ɣ] between vowels, whereas double (geminated) are pronounced [b], [d], [g]. Word finally the same consonants are usually subject to final devoicing. This means that each of these consonants have three allophones.

Somali

bisad [bisat] 'cat'

bisadda [bisad:a] 'the cat'

bisado [bisaðɔ] 'cats'

A chain of lenition effects can be observed in the words for father in Romance languages. The Latin *pater* has become *padre* in Italian with lenition $t > d$. In Spanish the lenition has been taken one step further into [paðɾe], with lenition $d > ð$. In Catalan *pare* and French *père* [pɛʁ] the [d] or [ð] has been lost completely, which can be regarded the final stage of lenition, and in Portuguese *pai* also the /r/ has disappeared.

Fortition

or strengthening processes refers to different kinds of sound changes that make a consonant stronger in some way. Somewhat simplifying again, this is when a consonant is articulated with more precision or more energetically.

Fortition is less common than lenition.

In many languages the semivowel or approximant [j] changes into a voiced fricative consonant. This also happens in some varieties of Swedish. In South American Spanish certain instances of [j] changes into a voiceless fricative.

Swedish

ja [ja:] > [ja:] 'yes'

[listen to the voiced palatal fricative](#)

Phonological versus morphophonological alternations

Some sound alternations are absolutely automatic in a specific language. They occur whenever the context or situation is at hand. In lots of languages an /n/ is automatically pronounced as [ɲ] before a /k/ or /g/. There are no

exceptions to this rule or principle. Therefore this is a phonological sound alternation. We don't need to know anything more than the phonology of the language in order to be able to correctly apply this rule or principle.

Certain other sound changes are more tricky. Let's look at the Somali /l/+/t/ > /ʃ/ alternation.

Somali

<i>bil</i> 'month' + <i>-ta</i> 'the'	> <i>bisha</i> [biʃa] 'the month.'
<i>gacal</i> 'dear person' + <i>-tooyo</i> '-ship'	> <i>gacaltooyo</i> 'affection'
<i>walaal</i> 'sibling' + <i>-tay</i> 'my(F)'	> <i>walaashay</i> 'my sister'
<i>walaal</i> 'sibling' + <i>-tinnimo</i> '-hood'	> <i>walaaltinnimo</i> 'siblinghood, brotherhood, sisterhood'

Here we get two different results in two different words. It is evidently not enough to know the phonological rule, since we can't simply apply it every time we have an /l/ followed by a /t/. It turns out that this alternation only occurs in inflection, not in derivation. So, we need to know things about morphology in order to know whether this rule applies or not. If we are dealing with a grammatical ending, then it applies, but if we are dealing with word formation, it doesn't apply. Such alternations are called morphophonological and the part of grammar that deals with such alternations is called morphophonology or morphophonemics (in Swedish usually shortened into 'morfonologi').

There are also alternations that only affect a small set of words, and no rule (phonological or morphophonological) can be set up. Such alternations or sound changes are then simply lexical. Typically metatheses and dissimilations are lexical sound changes. An example of metathesis in colloquial Swedish is *intervju* > [interjʉ:vɑ] 'to make an interview with sb.', which gives a more natural Swedish syllable structure. Two examples of very common dissimilatory deletion are *program* > [pugram:], *bibliotek* [biblute:k] 'library'. These three examples are of course just lexical instances of these sound changes. There are no general rules in Swedish that would generate this kind of alternations in a large number of words.

Morphophonology

Morpho-phonology, morphonology or morpho-phonemics deals with phonological principles that do not apply generally, but only in specific morphological contexts:

e.g. when words are **derived** or when they are **inflected**, or in specific

inflectional categories, e.g. the present tense:

What if a Scandinavian verb stem that ends in /r/ is followed by the present tense suffix /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/
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English:

Chris's book	[krɪsəz bu:k]	/kris/+/z/ > /krisəz/
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Apophony

is an morphophonological vowel alternation within a word. Apophony is a way of coding some grammatical information, quite often different inflectional forms of a word, e.g. vowel alternation between the singular and plural stem both in English, German, Swedish and Arabic.

English	<i>mouse</i> [maʊs]	<i>mice</i> [maɪs]
German	<i>Zug</i> [tsʊk] 'train'	<i>Züge</i> [tsy:gə] 'trains'
Persian	<i>ketāb</i> [ketɑ:b] 'book'	<i>kotob</i> [kɔtɔb] 'books'

Hence, there are many different types of apophony, and many of these types have their own labels. Often, the labels are also specific to the grammatical tradition of specific languages: ablaut, vowel gradation, vowel mutation, internal modification, stem modification, stem alternation, replacive morphology, stem mutation, or internal inflection.

Since apophony is a broad concept, it also covers, e.g., the stress differences between noun and verb in English in pairs like

English

ínsult (noun) – insúlt (verb),
pérmit (noun) – permít (verb).

Ablaut

is a special kind of apophony.

Ablaut is traditionally used to refer to vowel alternations in Indo-European verb inflection and word formation, but it could of course also be used for similar phenomena in other languages.

Swedish

fara 'travel', *for* 'travelled', *färd* 'journey', *ffjord* 'fjord', *ffärd* 'bay'

13. Read some more

Section 8.2 Sounds in connected speech.

In Burridge, Kate & Tonya N. Stebbins. 2019. *For the love of language: An introduction to linguistics*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

<https://www-cambridge-org.ezproxy.ub.gu.se/highereducation/books/for-the-love-of-language/F2F13289DE2862283A544E14DAC76956#contents>

13. Watch some videos

Phonology (12 min.) | Taylor Behnke

<https://youtu.be/imH7hdOgxrU>

Phonotactics (7 min.) | Randall Eggert

<https://youtu.be/bxqqdh-L1UE>

Syllables (13 min.) | TrevTutor

<https://youtu.be/8afZTBGdpSU>

Syllable Rules (13 min.) | TrevTutor

<https://youtu.be/50y1wMCbgMc>

How to Solve a Phonology Problem (9 min.) | TrevTutor

<https://youtu.be/25ls735NzyE>

13. Read about FULA

Again, it's difficult to find good video clips about further languages, and you will need to find some basic facts about Fula on Wikipedia. Don't look only at the English page, have a look at pages in other languages as well. Do you notice any interesting differences?

Video suggestions

Counting One to Ten in Fulani Language (2 min.) | Souley

<https://youtu.be/4ZcJqNM6014>

A YouTube channel dedicated to the Fula language | Baqir Fulani

<https://www.youtube.com/@baqirfulani>

Does Fula really have tones?

Student test 2024 No 1

The Fula languages, also known as **Fulani** or **Peul**, belong to the **Niger-Congo language family**, specifically within the **Atlantic-Congo branch**. Here are some key facts about the Fula languages:

1. **Geographical Distribution:**

The Fula languages are spoken across a vast area of West and Central Africa. They are primarily used by the **Fulani people**, a large ethnic group spread over many countries, including **Senegal, Guinea, Mali, Nigeria, Cameroon, Chad, Niger**, and others.

2. **Number of Speakers:**

There are approximately **25 million to 30 million** speakers of Fula languages, making it one of the largest language groups in Africa. **(Source?)**

3. **Dialects:**

Fula is **not a single language but** a group of closely related dialects. Some of the main dialects include:

- **Pulaar** (spoken in Senegal, Mauritania)
- **Pular** (spoken in Guinea)
- **Fulfulde** (spoken in Nigeria, Cameroon, and other parts of Central Africa)
- **Fula** (spoken in different regions, sometimes used as an umbrella term)

These dialects can be mutually intelligible to varying degrees, but they can also differ significantly, especially in terms of phonology and vocabulary.

4. Language Structure:

- **Noun Class System:** Fula languages use a **noun class system**, where nouns are categorized into several classes, each marked by prefixes or suffixes. This system is similar to Bantu languages and is a prominent feature in many Niger-Congo languages.
- **Agglutinative Nature:** The languages tend to be agglutinative, meaning that words are often formed by adding various prefixes, suffixes, and infixes to a root word.
- **Vowel Harmony:** Some Fula dialects feature vowel harmony, where vowels in a word must match in terms of frontness or backness, and sometimes even height.

5. Writing Systems:

- Traditionally, Fula languages were written in **Ajami**, a form of the Arabic script adapted to the language.
- Today, the **Latin alphabet** is most commonly used for writing Fula, with some additional letters to represent specific sounds in the language.
- The use of **Arabic** for religious and cultural purposes remains common among Fula-speaking communities.

6. Role in Society:

- Fula is often used as a **lingua franca** across West and Central Africa, especially in areas where Fulani people are found. It is spoken as a second language by many non-Fulani people.
- It is also important in the spread of **Islam** in the region, as many Fula people are Muslim, and the language has a long history of being used in religious texts and education.

7. Cultural Significance:

- The Fulani people have a rich cultural heritage, and their language is closely tied to their identity and traditions, including cattle herding, which is a central part of their way of life.
- Many Fula songs, poems, and oral traditions are passed down in their language, preserving history, customs, and folklore.

8. Lexical Influence:

- Fula languages have influenced other languages in the regions where they are spoken. For example, in some parts of West Africa, Fula words have been integrated into the local languages due to the widespread presence of Fulani communities.

9. Linguistic Features:

- **Tonal Language:** Some Fula dialects are tonal, where the pitch or tone of a word can change its meaning. (Source?)
- **Pronouns:** The language has a complex system of pronouns that varies based on factors like formality and plurality (what is meant?).

These characteristics contribute to the Fula languages' unique role in African linguistics and culture.

References

Greenberg, J. H. (1963). *The Languages of Africa*. The Hague: Mouton & Co.

Ferguson, C. A. (1959). *Diglossia*. *Word*, 15(2), 325-340.

Don't use bold.

Give full first names, if possible.

Don't use parentheses for year.

Journal, not article, should be in italics.

No comma after name of journal.

Period after issue number.

Student text 2024 No 2

Fula Language

Alternative names: **Fulfulde** (central and Eastern dialects), **Pulaar, Pular** (Western dialects)– regional variations and dialects

Script: Roman, Adlam, Ajami (a few details on each would be interesting)

Fula is a Niger-Congo language described as a macrolanguage (what's that?) spoken in about 18 countries, belonging to the Senegambian branch, in West and Central Africa by about 37 mio. as an L1 (Ethnologue) with different regional variation such as Adamawa Fulfulde (Cameroon, Chad, Nigeria), Borgu Fulfulde (Benin), Maasina Fulfulde (Mali), Pulaar (Senegal, Gambia, Guinea, Guinea-Bissau, Mali and Mauritania), Pular (Guinea-Bissau, Mali and Mauritania), Western Niger Fulfulde (Niger, Benin, Burkina Faso), Bagirmi Fulfulde (Chad), Central-Eastern Niger Fulfulde (Niger), Nigerian Fulfulde (Nigeria). (Is this list helpful in such a short text?)

According to the Language Centre of the University of Cambridge: “It is an intonational rather than a tonal language. **(One wonders what exactly they mean?)** There are certain general intonation contours and tunes appropriate to various types of sentences, and they vary to some extent from one dialect to another.” which would be unlike other Niger-Congo languages, which are tonal languages. This would mean that tone operates at word level and intonational would influence the sentence as a whole. I think that in the case of Fula it is a combination of tone and intonation. Given the previous provided student text examples, I will retake here, a tonal difference can be observed but I believe it is not replicated in all variations.

- **High Tone (bá):** Father
- **Mid Tone (ba):** Hippopotamus
- **Low Tone (bà):** To farm

The basic word order in Fula is **Subject-Verb-Object (SVO)**.

On the one hand, Wolof is a major language in Senegal which is quite closely related to Fula as it also belongs to the Senegambian branch of the Niger-Congo family. Swahili, on the other hand is another prominent language but in East Africa which is distantly related to Fula as it belongs to the larger Niger-Congo language family, though it is from a different branch.

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Crystal, D. 1997. *The Cambridge Encyclopedia of Language*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Yule, G. 2014. *The Study of Language* (5th ed.). Cambridge: Cambridge University Press. <https://www.ethnologue.com>

A bibliography tries to list all that has been written on a certain topic, possibly restricted by certain parameter, e.g., year, country, etc.

Therefore, call it **References**.

The items should be alphabetised.

Student text 2023

Fula, also known as Fulfulde or Pulaar, is a language that belongs to the Senegambian branch of the Niger-Congo language family. It is spoken by the Fula people, who are spread across a

vast region in West and Central Africa. Fula is the native language of the Fula ethnic group, also known as Fulani or Peul, and it is spoken as a first language by millions of people (Wikipedia 2021).

Fula is widely spoken in countries such as Senegal, Guinea, Mali, Nigeria, Cameroon, Niger, Burkina Faso, Chad, Sudan, and more.

Fula has a tone system, for example, the word "ba" can have different meanings based on the tone:

High Tone (bá): Father

Mid Tone (ba): Hippopotamus

Low Tone (bà): To farm

So, depending on whether you pronounce "ba" with a high, mid, or low tone, it could mean father, hippopotamus, or farm, respectively. This demonstrates how the tonal distinctions are crucial in conveying accurate meanings in Fula (Lieber 1987).

Lieber, R. 1987. Integrated Theory of Autosegmental Processes. **Albany, NY:** University of New York Press.

Wikipedia 2021. Fula language. https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Fula_language

13. Practice

Somali epenthetic vowels: ordaa, oroddaa

Swahili prefixes

Mwalimu

mu-alimu

SG-teacher

walimu

wa-alimu

PL-teacher

13.1 – Amharic verb morphemes (8.4)

1.

Divide the following Amharic verb into the relevant morphemes with hyphens.

First compare only the three present tense forms to each other. Find the part of those words that is common to all three forms. That is probably the stem.

Divide any prefixes and suffixes from the stem by hyphens.

Then do the same with the past tense forms. You will see that Amharic verbs have to different stems (two allomorphs), one for the present tense and one for the past tense.

Present tense	Past tense
isəbir 'I break'	səbbərku 'I broke'
tisəbir 'you (m.) break'	səbbərk 'you (m.) broke'
tisəbiri 'you (f.) break'	səbbərf 'you (f.) broke'

2.

Work out the meaning of each one of the morphs and gloss all the example words according to the Leipzig glossing rules.

3. What exactly is the difference between the present tense stem and the past tense stem?

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).

13.2 – Singular and plural forms of Swahili nouns (7.4)

Explain the rules for the formation of both the singular form and the plural form of the following Swahili nouns. The source of this exercise is Cowan & Rakušan (1987: 52). Can you see any phonetic/phonological patterns?

	SINGULAR	PLURAL	
1.	ubale	mbale	'strip'
2.	ubugu	mbugu	'cord'
3.	ubifi	mbifi	'argument'
4.	uduvi	nduvi	'shrimp'
5.	udago	ndago	'weed'
6.	udui	ndui	'pustule'
7.	ugimbi	ngimbi	'beer'
8.	ugɔɔ	ngɔɔ	'intercourse'
9.	ugwe	ngwe	'string'
10.	waraka	jaraka	'document'
11.	wenzo	jenzo	'roller'
12.	wimbo	nimbo	'song'

The words are given in broad phonetic transcription

[ʃ] as in English ***she***
[ŋ] as in English ***long***
[ɲ] as in Spanish *español*
[ɛ] as in Spanish *español*
[ɔ] as in Spanish *español*

13.3 – Plural formation of nouns in Kasem (9.4??8.4)

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.

Kasem has a complex vowel system with ten vowels and vowel harmony. There is one set of more open vowels [ɪ, ɛ, a, ɔ, ʊ], and one set of more closed vowels [i, e, ə, o, u]. In a specific word, these two sets cannot mix, all vowels have to be either more open or more closed. All the vowels in a word need to harmonize or be harmonic, i.e. to belong to the same set of vowels.

As an effect, the plural formation in Kasem is quite complicated. It involves quite many sound alternations.

How would you describe the plural formation in Kasem?

Singular - Plural:

fələ	fəli	'white person(s)'
fana	fanɪ	'knife(s)'
lidə	lidi	'medicine(s)'
boda	bodɪ	'fishnet(s)'
kada	kadɪ	'farm(s)'
tulə	tuli	'granary(ies)'
kala	kalɪ	'pot(s)'
kuə	kui	'bone(s)'
tua	tɔɪ	'bee(s)'
luə	lui	'funeral(s)'
noa	noɪ	'finger(s)'

1. What is the singular morpheme and what is the plural morpheme, based on the above examples?

miə	mi	'bowstring(s)'
kwia	kwi	'dry season(s)'
daa	dɛ	'stick(s)'

2. How would you explain the plural form in the three examples above?

loŋa	loɪ	'bile(s)'
bugə	bui	'river(s)'
zoŋa	zoɪ	'calabash(es)'
nugə	nui	'shea nut oil(s)'

3. How would you explain the plural form in the four examples above?

dʒɪŋa	dʒɪ	'hand(s)'
ʈʰɪga	ʈʰɪ	'truth(s)'
digə	di	'room(s)'

4. How would you explain the plural form in the three examples above?

ʒəgə	ʒe	'place(s)'
jaga	jɛ	'market(s)'
ləŋə	le	'song(s)'
naga	nɛ	'leg(s)'
bəŋə	be	'roof beam(s)'
taŋa	tɛ	'bow(s)'

5. How would you explain the plural form in the six examples above?

ʈfoŋə	ʈʈue	'path(s)'
kəga	kʊɛ	'back(s)'
poŋə	pue	'shelter'

6. How would you explain the plural form in the three examples above?

Source: Merrifield, Naish, Rensch & Story (1987).

13. Suggested solutions

13.1 – Amharic verb morphemes

The present stems seems to be /isəbir/, past /səbbər/.

Present tense

Ø-isəbir

1SG-break.PRS

'I break'

t-isəbir

2SG-break.PRS

'you (m.) break'

t-isəbir-i

2SG-break.PRS-F

'you (f.) break'

Past tense

səbbər-ku

break.PST-1SG

'I broke'

səbbər-k

break.PST-2SG.M

‘you (m.) broke’

səbbər-ʃ

break.PST-2SG.F

‘you (f.) broke’

The feminine form adds *i*. This would give *ki*. This seems to have resulted in palatalisation, *ki* → *ʃ* - the original velar consonant is moved further forward to match the front vowel, which is then dropped.

Interesting, but this sounds more like a historical change, not an active rule in present day Amharic. We would need much more data...

dəkkəm-ku

tire.PST-1SG

‘I tired’

dəkkəm-k

tire.PST-2SG.M

‘you (m.) tired’

dəkkəm-ʃ

tire.PST-2SG.F

‘you (f.) tired’

13.1 – Amharic verb morphemes

Ø-isəbir-Ø

t-isəbir-Ø

t-isəbir-i

səbbər-ku

səbbər-k

səbbər-ʃ

Glossing of above

isəbir

Ø-isəbir-Ø

1SG.break-PRS

‘I break’

tisəbir

t-isəbir-Ø
2SG-break-PRS
'you (m.) break'

tisəbiri
t-isəbir-i
2SG-break-PRS.F
'you (f.) break'

səbbərku
səbbər-ku
break-PST.1SG
'I broke'

səbbərk
səbbər-k
break-PST.2SM
'you (m.) broke'

səbbərɸ
səbbər-ɸ
break.PST-2SF
break-PST.2SF
'you (f.) broke'

It seems like the present tense is created by adding a prefix to indicate 1SG and 2SG, and a suffix to indicated tense and gender.
For the past tense only a suffix is used (e.g. break-PST.2SF) to indicate all three.

Well, yes, the choice between prefixes and suffixes depends on the tense, but the tense is above all defined by the form of the stem, meaning that the tense gloss should rather be together with the lexical meaning, not the affixes.

dəkkəmku
dəkkəm-ku
tire.PST-1SG
tire-PST.1SG
'I tired'

dəkkəmk
dəkkəm-k
tire-PST.2SM
'You (m.) tired'

dəkkəmʃ
dəkkəm-ʃ
tire-PST.2SF
'You (f.) tired'

13.1 – Amharic verb morphemes

The question is whether the tense is not rather encoded in the form of the stem?

dəkkəmku in present:

Ø-i-dəkīm-Ø alt **Ø-idəkīm-Ø**

I-PSR-tire- I I- tire.PRS-I

'I tire'

t-i-dəkīm-Ø

2SG-PRS-tire-M

'you tire'

t-i-dəkīm-i

2SG-PRS-tire-F

'she tires'

dəkkəmku in past:

dəkkəm-ku

tire.PST-1SG

'I tired'

dəkkəm-k

tire.PST-2SG.M

'you tired'

dəkkəm-ʃ

tire.PST-2SG.F

'you tired'

How can I gloss that the combination of absence of suffix and prefix (\emptyset) indicates first person singular and that the absence of suffix indicates masculine but only in the second person sing when it is combined with the prefix -t?

No, that is tricky, and maybe an argument for not using lots of zero-morphemes.

This is a common issue in lots of languages. Certain traits are 'default' in the grammar and not marked.

Maybe what we have on the surface is actually what we should gloss. We will never be able to gloss "everything".

And is there a special way to gloss semitic words?

There are probably certain traditions among samiticists, but I don't know any details.

13.2 – Swahili

- The singular prefix for these nouns is the high back vowel /u/. Where the stem begins with a vowel, in which case the /u/ becomes a glide /w/.

This is another way of resolving a situation where two vowels occur next to each other. Not deletion, not epenthesis (insertion), but restructuring of the syllable, so that the vowel /u/ goes into the onset of the syllable, where it is realised as the approximant glide /w/.

- The plural prefix for this noun class is a nasal prefix. Its realisation depends on the following sound (the sound at the start of the stem):
 - mbugu - /m/ (to match /b/ - both bilabial)
 - nduvi - /n/ (to match /d/ - both either dental or alveolar)
 - ngimbi - /ŋ/ (to match /g/ - both velar)
 - paraka - /ɲ/ (to match a vowel - palatal). Some sources say that the term “place of articulation” isn’t applicable to vowels, but the following observation from John Coleman suggests that vowels are usually palatal: “Place of articulation refers to the location of the narrowest part of the vocal tract in producing a sound. ... In vowels, the narrowest part of the vocal tract is usually in the middle of the mouth, in the region of the palate.” (Coleman 2024)

Coleman, John. 2024. Articulation: Vowels and consonants.
<http://www.phon.ox.ac.uk/jcoleman/VSANDCS.htm>

13.3 – Plural formation of nouns in Kasem

Singulars end with either [ə] or [a]. Plurals are formed by (removing the singular suffix and) adding a high front vowel [i] or [ɪ] - whichever one is required to retain vowel harmony with the previous vowels - which in practice means that ə will always be replaced by i, while a will always be replaced by ɪ.

1. The singular morpheme is ə or a, plural i or ɪ.
2. When miə is pluralised, the normal rules would require the ə to be replaced with i, giving mii, but the language doesn’t seem to like vowel gemination (at least in this context), so it gets simplified to just *mi*. Similarly, when kwɪa is pluralised, the rules would require kwɪɪ,

but this is simplified to just *kwɪ*. Finally, we would expect the plural form of *daa* to be *daɪ*, but the resultant double vowel is simplified to *ɛ*, giving *dæɛ*. *dɛ*

/aɪ/ are far from each other in the mouth, */ɛ/* is precisely in the middle between those two, a coalescence that is common in several languages.

3. There seems to be a rule that if the stem ends in a velar consonant, the velar is always dropped in the plural.

Velars are often subject to lenition/weakening, to the point that the disappear.

4. *dʒɪŋa*, after dropping the velar is *dʒɪa*, which would give the plural *dʒɪɪ*, simplified to *dʒɪ*. The same happens with *ʈʰɪga*. *digə*, after dropping the velar, would be *diə*, plural *dii*, simplified to *di*.
5. *jaga*, after dropping the velar, is *jaa*, which would give the plural *jai*, simplified to *jaɛ* *jɛ*. *ləŋə*, after dropping the velar, is *ləə*, which would give the plural *ləi*, simplified to *le*. *naga* and *taŋa* are consistent with *jaga*. *bəŋə* and *zəgə* are consistent with *ləŋə*.
6. *ʈʰoŋə*, after dropping the velar, is *ʈʰoə*, plural *ʈʰoi*, which is altered to *ʈʰue*. *kəga*, after dropping the velar, is *kəa*, plural *kəɪ*, which becomes *kʊɛ*. *poŋə*, *poə*, plural *poi*, becomes *pue*. Perhaps *oi* and *ɔɪ* are disallowed phonotactically.

13.3 – Plural formation of nouns in Kasem

Q: How would you describe the plural formation in Kasem?

Observations

1. Words ending in 'ə' seems to change to 'i' in plural
2. Words ending in 'a' seems to change to 'ɪ' in plural
3. All (singular) words containing an open vowel (*ɪ, ɛ, a, ɔ, ʊ*) maintains the open vowel *ɪ* in plural form
4. All (singular) words containing an closed vowels (*i, e, ə, o, u*) maintains the closed vowel *i* in plural form

Summary

The choice between 'i' and 'ɪ' in the plural ending is determined by the vowel harmony of the word - if the word contains closed vowels, the plural ends in

'i'. If it contains open vowels, the plural ends in 'i'.

Q: What is the singular morpheme and what is the plural morpheme, based on the above examples?

Singular morphemes: 'ə' or 'a'

Plural morphemes: 'i' or 'r'.

(I guess there might be more singular and plural morphemes in Kasem than in these examples)

Q: How would you explain the plural form in the three examples above?

If we followed the rules above then...

1. miə would become mii
2. kwia would become kwii
3. daa would become dai.

2. How would you explain the plural form in the four examples above?

For the first two I guess there is a rule that a word cannot end with the identical vowels and thus one is removed. For the third my guess is that if the singular form ends in two identical vowels, they are both removed in plural.

3. How would you explain the plural form in the four examples above?

It seems like if a word contains ŋ or g, those two get removed in plural form.

4. How would you explain the plural form in the three examples above?

A combination of the two rules above. First ŋ and g get removed which leaves double identical vowels left. One of those is then removed.

5. How would you explain the plural form in the six examples above?

After adding the plural endings and removing ŋ and g then the remaining endings əi, ai and ai change to e, ε and ε respectively.

6. How would you explain the plural form in the three examples above?

After adding the plural endings and removing ŋ and g then the remaining ending oi changes to ue (new rules) and ai to ε (as before). Then, for the second word, kɔε changes into kʊε (or just the ɔ into ʊ rather).

kɔga -> pl. kɔgi -> kɔi -> kʊε

(Very little information to go on, so these are my guesses)

Unit 14. Writing (15)

Symbols are not writing

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. There are also mathematical symbols, e.g., $1 + 1 = 2$, and chemical symbols, e.g., H_2O . Some are more iconic, others are more conventionalized, i.e., more difficult to “figure out”. However, such symbols do not relate directly to any specific spoken language. The symbol 1 can be “spelled out” as *one* in English, *yksi* [yksi] in Finnish or *hal* in Somali.

Writing differs from such symbols through its

- direct connection to **a specific spoken language**,
- heavy **conventionalization**,
- ability to convey a **complex message**.

This means that writing can only be “spelled out” in one specific language, and there is no way of figuring out how the different signs should be pronounced or understood, since the sign have been conventionalised and lost the function of an image that it originally had. Writing systems are also capable of capturing any message, short of long, simple or complex, new expressions as well as old.

This is so because the basic unit of writing does not convey any message, but only smaller parts that can be put together into messages. The basic unit of writing in a specific writing system is referred to as a **grapheme**. When we want to study and discuss graphemes, we indicate that by putting the sign that we want to discuss in angle brackets, e.g., ⟨a⟩ is the first letter of the Latin alphabet.

A grapheme may represent different things in different languages’ writing systems.

In a **logographic** (or pictographic or iconic or hieroglyphic) writing system, a grapheme represents to a **word** or a **morpheme**. That is the case in Chinese. Such graphemes are called **logograms**.

In a **phonographic** writing system, a graphemes represent **sounds**. That's the most common case in the languages of the world.

The oldest writing

Complex question

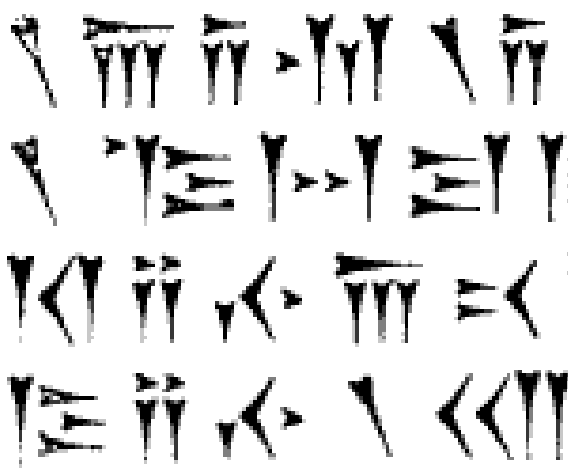
How do we define writing? Based on the definition, dates may differ.
New archeological findings change the dates.

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 some quite recent findings

Early writing (not necessarily the earliest!!)



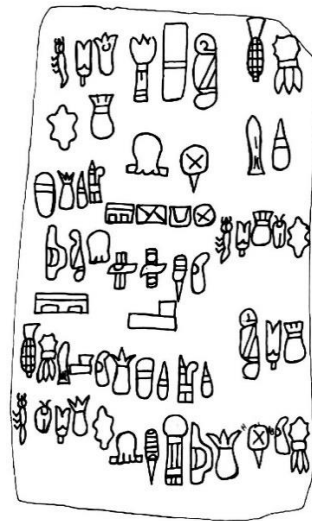
Middle East



Egypt



China



Central America

How writing developed

Original connection:

a spoken word \leftrightarrow a meaning \leftrightarrow a written sign

Later connection:

a spoken word \leftrightarrow a written sign \leftrightarrow a meaning

a written sign \leftrightarrow a spoken word \leftrightarrow a meaning

a written sign \leftrightarrow a spoken word \leftrightarrow several
meanings (homonymous)

Then the meanings need to be disambiguated through the use 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.

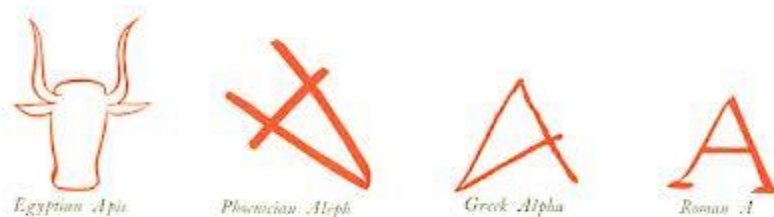
Syllabic script

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

Symbols that had been used to represent whole words came to represent only the initial sound of those words. The iconicity is then practically lost, and the signs are fully conventionalised. The number of graphemes can then be significantly reduced, and the level of abstraction increases.

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

ancestor of many of today's scripts, e.g., Arabic, Hebrew, Greek, Latin, and Cyrillic.

In the Phoenician script only consonants were written, not vowels. That is quite similar to today's Arabic script. That kind of writing system is called an **abjad**.

Arabic script

The **Arabic** script was developed around 400 AD. It is written from right to left. In the written form of the following two names, there are no vowels present. The reader has to figure that out themselves and add suitable vowels when reading. This can of course be quite difficult for foreigners and small children who are just learning to read Arabic.

لندن lndn 'London'

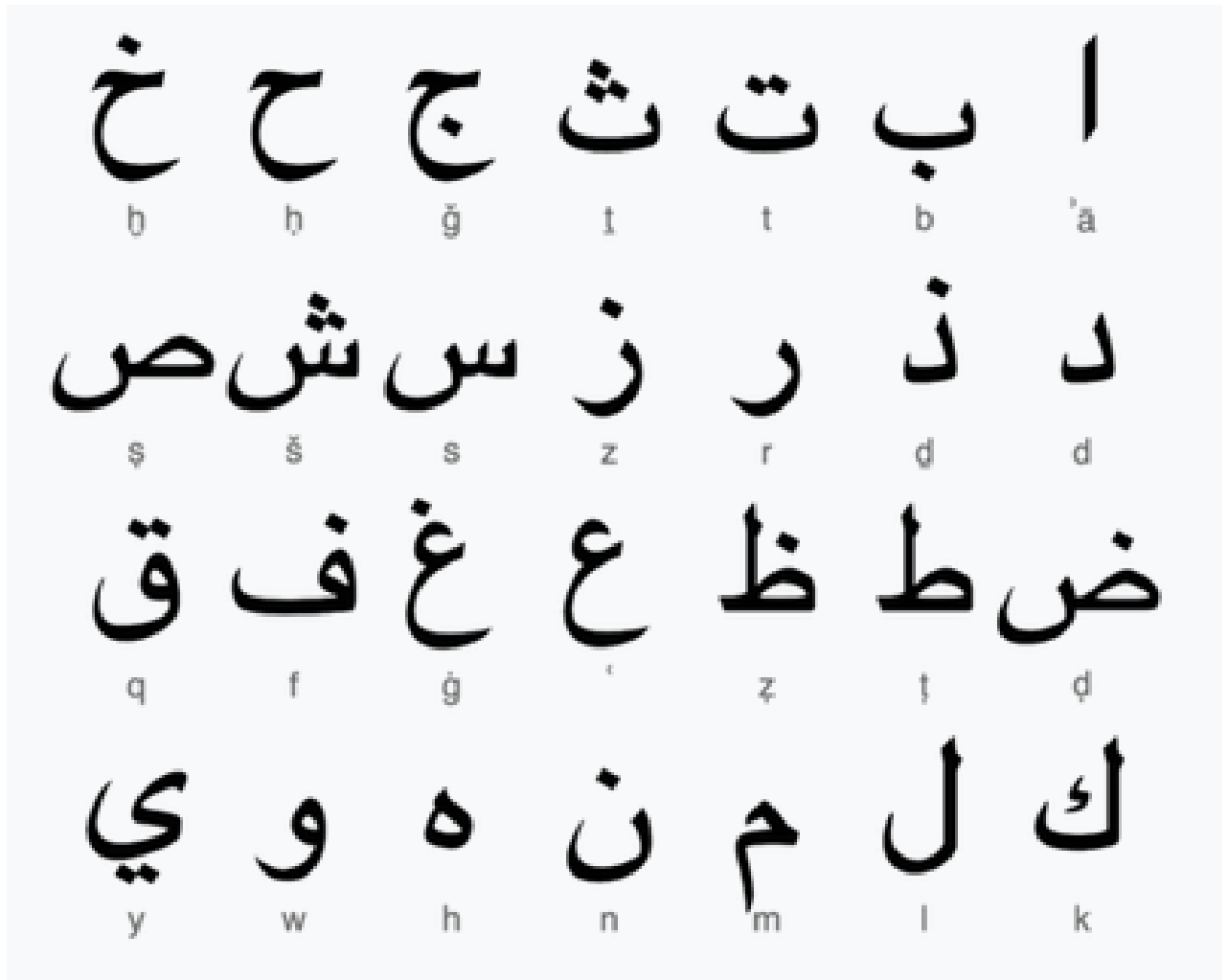
محمد mhmd 'Muhammed'

تونس twns 'Tunis'

Notice that most of the Arabic letters are joined together, similarly to how Latin letters are joined together in handwriting. In the two first words, only the letter corresponding to Latin *d* is not written together with a following letter. In the last word, also the *w* is not connected to the following letter.

In the first word, notice that the letter corresponding to *n* has two shapes. In Arabic, many of the letters have an "upper case" variant that is used to indicate the end of a word.

In the last word, the consonant *w* is used to represent a vowel sound. That is so because the vowel is a long [u:]. The same is true for other long vowels. This means that only the short vowels are not at all represented in Arabic writing.



The "upper case" version of the Arabic abjad,
i.e. the forms used word finally
Source: Wikipedia

I was surprised to learn that the Swahili-Arabic script is still in use. Unfortunately, I have not been able to access Mbele 2009 to read more about this, but I would suppose that the script is used for writing religious texts.

Diacritic signs

Later on, probably in the late 600s, small **diacritic** signs were invented and would sometimes be added above, under or at the side of the consonants to indicate vowels.

لَنْدَنْ l_and_an

مُحَمَّد m_uh_am_{ma}d

تُونِس t_uwn_is

There are three vowel signs for the three Arabic vowels /a/, /i/ and /u/. Notice also the little sign that indicates a double consonant in the second name. There are many other diacritics that you can read about at

https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Arabic_diacritics

The diacritic signs are rather seldom used when writing Arabic. They are mainly used in the Quran, in stories and schoolbooks for small children and in textbooks for foreigners.

Ge'ez script

The **Ge'ez** script (used for today's Amharic, Tigrinya etc.) has existed since around 100 AD. Also in the Ge'ez script, diacritic were not used from the beginning, but they were added later. For Ge'ez, however, the use of the diacritics became obligatory.

ሊንደን London

ሊቨርፑል Liverpool

ናጋሳካ Nagasaki

Notice the tiny differences between Amharic /lə/, /li/ and /l/ in the names above. When there is no diacritic sign, the consonant is pronounced with a following /ə/. Also notice the similarity in the diacritic sign of /li/ and /ki/. The vowel /i/ is indicated by a stroke at the lower right-hand part of many letters, but unfortunately, the diacritic signs are not the same for all consonants. Finally notice the similarity between the /l/ in Amharic, Greek and Cyrillic script (e.g. Russian).

phonetically [æ u i a e ə o wa jæ]

		ä [ə] or [a]	u	i	a	e	ə [i]	o	wa	jä [e]
<i>Hoy</i>	<i>h</i>	ሀ	ሁ	ሂ	ሃ	ሄ	ህ	ሆ		
<i>Läwe</i>	<i>l</i>	ለ	ሉ	ሊ	ላ	ሌ	ል	ሎ	ላ	
<i>Häwt</i>	<i>h</i>	ሐ	ሑ	ሒ	ሓ	ሔ	ሕ	ሖ	ሐ	
<i>May</i>	<i>m</i>	መ	ሙ	ሚ	ማ	ሜ	ሞ	ሠ	ሚ	ሚ
<i>Šäwt</i>	<i>š</i>	ሠ	ሡ	ሢ	ሣ	ሤ	ሥ	ሦ	ሢ	
<i>Rə's</i>	<i>r</i>	ረ	ሩ	ሪ	ራ	ራ	ራ	ራ	ራ	ራ
<i>Sat</i>	<i>s</i>	ሰ	ሱ	ሲ	ሳ	ሴ	ስ	ሶ	ሲ	
<i>Kaf</i>	<i>k</i>	ቀ	ቁ	ቂ	ቃ	ቄ	ቅ	ቆ	ቃ	
<i>Bet</i>	<i>b</i>	በ	ቡ	ቢ	ባ	ቤ	ብ	ቦ	ቢ	
<i>Täwe</i>	<i>t</i>	ተ	ቱ	ቲ	ታ	ቼ	ት	ቶ	ቲ	

The beginning of the Ge'ez abugida.
Source: Wikipedia

Abugida versus Abjad

A system with obligatory diacritic signs for vowels is called an **abugida**, whereas a system where vowels are usually not indicated is called an **abjad**. Hence, the Ge'ez script is an abugida, whereas the Arabic script is an abjad.

Alphabetic or Fully Phonemic script

The first script with independent signs for all the vowels was developed for **Greek** around 800 BC. This script was then taken to the Italian peninsula by the Etruscans, who developed the **Latin** script around 700 BC. The **Cyrillic**

script, used for Russian and a number of other languages, was developed from the Greek script around 900 AD.

Tifinagh script

ⵍ	ⵝ	ⵎ	ⵎⵔ	ⵏ	ⵑ	ⵓ	ⵉ	ⵔ	ⵔⵔ
A	B	G	G ^w	D	Ḑ	E	F	K	K ^w
ⵙ	ⵚ	ⵛ	ⵜ	ⵞ	ⵟ	ⵠ	ⵡ	ⵢ	ⵣ
H	Ḥ	Ẓ	X	Q	I	J	L	M	N
ⵖ	ⵗ	ⵘ	ⵙ	ⵛ	ⵜ	ⵝ	ⵞ	ⵟ	ⵠ
U	R	Ṛ	Y	S	Ṣ	C	T	Ṭ	W
ⵣ	ⵤ	ⵥ							
Y	Z	Ẓ							

Alphabetic version as used in Morocco for Tamazigh
Source: Wikipedia, Created by: Serg!o

Osmania script

Letters

Osmanya	Latin	IPA	Osmanya	Latin	IPA	Osmanya	Latin	IPA
Ø	'	[ʔ]	ʁ	b	[b]	ʁ	t	[t]
l	j	[dʒ]	ʁ	x	[ɸ]	ʁ	kh	[x]
o	d	[d]	7	r	[r]	3	s	[s]
2	sh	[ʃ]	ʁ	dh	[d]	ʁ	c	[ç]
ʁ	g	[g]	ʁ	f	[f]	ʁ	q	[q]
ʁ	k	[k]	ʁ	l	[l]	ʁ	m	[m]
2	n	[n]	ʁ	w, uu	[w, ʁ, u:]	ʁ	h	[h]
ʁ	y, ii	[j, i:, i:]	ʁ	a	[æ, a]	ʁ	e	[e, ɛ]
9	i	[i, i]	ʁ	o	[ø, ɔ]	ʁ	u	[ʉ, u]
ʁ	aa	[æ:, a:]	ʁ	ee	[e:, ɛ:]	ʁ	oo	[ø:, ɔ:]

Numbers

Digit	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
Osmanya	o	s	ɛ	ʁ	ʁ	ʁ	ʁ	ʁ	ʁ	ʁ

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

Source: Wikipedia.

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 alphabetic 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...

Survey of some scripts used in Africa

Hieroglyphs

logographic script

Old Egyptian

Arabic script

phonographic **abjad**

Arabic

Ge'ez script

phonographic **abugida**

Amharic, Tigrinya etc.

Tifinagh script

phonographic **abjad**

Tuareg etc.
(Berber in Libya)

phonographic **alphabetical**

Tamazigh etc.
(Berber in Morocco)

Adlam script		Fulfulde
https://ff.wikipedia.org/wiki/Fulfulde/adlam		
Osmania script	phonographic alphabetical	Somali (ca 1920–1950)
Latin script	phonographic alphabetical	the majority of languages in Africa

14. Read some more

Eifring & Theil. 2005. [Chapter 8: Writing](#). In Eifring & Theil, *Linguistics for Students of Asian and African Languages*. Oslo: University of Oslo.

<https://www.uio.no/studier/emner/hf/ikos/EXFAC03-AAS/h05/larestoff/linguistics/>

Rovenchak, Andrij & Solomija Buk. 2020. [Indigenous African Scripts](#). In Rainer Vossen & Gerrit J. Dimmendaal (eds.), *The Oxford handbook of African languages*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

https://gu-se-primo.hosted.exlibrisgroup.com/permalink/f/15agpbr/TN_cdi_oup_oho_10_1093_oxfordhb_9780199609895_013_80

Issa, Sadam & Ayman Mohamed. No date. *Elementary Arabic I*. East Lansing: Michigan State University.

<https://openbooks.lib.msu.edu/arb101/>

Mohamed, Ayman & Sadam Issa. No date. *Elementary Arabic II*. East Lansing: Michigan State University.

<https://openbooks.lib.msu.edu/elemarabicll/>

14. Watch some videos

Writing systems (12 min) | Taylor Behnke

<https://youtu.be/-sUUWyo4RZQ>

Thoth's Pill - an Animated History of Writing (47 min.) | NativLang

<https://youtu.be/PdO3IP0Pro8>

What Ancient Egyptian Sounded Like - and how we know (11 min.) | NativLang

<https://youtu.be/J-K5OjAkiEA>

Why West Africa keeps inventing writing systems (10 min.) | NativLang
<https://youtu.be/xa8BYZrSTxY>

Intro the Amazigh language and alphabet (8 min.) | All Things Amazigh
<https://youtu.be/MCDkzpt13Xs>

Learning the Amharic alphabet (8 min.) | learnamaharic
https://youtu.be/fnMyz_c4G1Y

Top 10 most interesting scripts ever (19 min.) | Daniela Antonchuk
<https://youtu.be/bUSy13xBPbk>

14. Read about Wolof

Videos:

Wolof (6 min.) | Dave Huxtable
<https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=Iy1uYDWYLiY>

Wolof (15 min.) | Paul
<https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=NzDBC5uRL2I>

Student text 2024 no 1

Wolof is spoken in Senegal, Gambia and the Southern part of Mauritania (Wikipedia, 2024c). Ethnologue considers Wolof spoken in Gambia as a separate language (2024b). According to Ethnologue, Wolof has 22,646,100 speakers in total, 22,340,000 of which live in Senegal and 6,840,000 of them are L1 speakers (2024b). In addition, there were 362,000 speakers of Gambian Wolof in 2022 (Ethnologue, 2024b).

Wolof belongs to the Niger-Congo language family. Together with Fula they form the Wolof-Fula branch of Senegambian subgroup. The full classification according to Ethnologue is the following: Niger-Congo, Atlantic-Congo, Atlantic, Northern, Senegambian, Fula-Wolof, Wolof (2024a). Wikipedia uses a slightly different classification: Niger-Congo, Atlantic-Congo, West Atlantic, Senegambian, Fula-Wolof, Wolof (2024c).

As a Niger-Congo language, Wolof is distantly related to Bantu languages such as Swahili and Xhosa/Zulu (Wikipedia, 2024a). It is closer related to the Volta-Niger languages Igbo and Yoruba (Wikipedia, 2024b).

Wolof is a SVO language (Ethnologue, 2024a). Opinions differ concerning the number of vowels and consonants:

Ethnologue: 25 consonants and 16 vowels (2024a)

Wikipedia: 25 consonants and 15 vowels (2024c)

Robert: 19 simple, 16 geminates and 9 prenasal consonants, and 8 short and 7 long vowels (2022)

References

Ethnologue. 2024a. Wolof.

<https://www-ethnologue-com.ezproxy.ub.gu.se/language/wol/>
(26 December 2024)

Ethnologue. 2024b. Wolof, Gambian.

<https://www-ethnologue-com.ezproxy.ub.gu.se/language/wol/>
(26 December 2024)

Robert, Stéphane. 2022. Wolof: a grammatical sketch. In Friederike Lüpke (ed.), *The Oxford guide to the Atlantic languages of West Africa, Preprint*, Oxford: Oxford University Press.

<https://hal.archives-ouvertes.fr/hal-01513269/document>

Wikipedia. 2024a. Bantu languages.

https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Bantu_languages (26 December 2024)

Wikipedia. 2024b. Volta-Niger languages.

https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Volta%E2%80%93Niger_languages (26 December 2024)

Wikipedia. 2024c. Wolof language.

https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Wolof_language (26 December 2024)

Student text 2024 no 2

Another interesting fact about Wolof, I think, is the use of both Latin and Arabic script, Ajami.

And the code switching in major cities like Dakar, in Senegal, where Wolof is very much influenced by French. To the extent where it has an own name: Francolof/Franwolof. The famous pop singer Viviane Chidid combines Wolof and French in her songs such as "Yenn Saï", for example : "Yenesayi yenesayi defal yeufou bandit// Tasarel Arsenal bi// Te lal teud keur gui tass// Comme si// Comme sa// Comme si// Kay// Ma cherie elle est sucrée// Plaine de tangate// Très romantique"

<https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=1bnyxfLgimc> or "Wuyuma"

<https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=nmJp40oR1L4> (although I could only find lyrics on Spotify - and what I couldn't control was the spelling of "Comme si// Comme sa" for example as it would be "comme ci comme ça" in

standard French but, since I found two other creators on TikTok who exemplify French words as pronounced/spelled in Senegal, I think there might be a difference in spelling also.)

The Tiktok creators [here](#) and [here - but here also with a Lingola feature](#) - I hope the TikTok links are available even without an account.

Some examples from the first one, if maybe it's not working:

civilié / silwisé (civilised)

pomme de terre / pombitere (potato)

chaise / raise (chair)

And some from the second: sucre / suukar (sugar)

école/ ekool (school)

I know TikTok is highly unreliable but I also think people making this type of content would immediately be corrected in the comments but as I have seen with these creators, the comment section only adds up so I guess it's at least worth the watch.

Student text 2023 no 1

According to Ethnologue (2023a) Wolof is spoken by 7 million L1 users and 6 million L2 users, in Senegal, Gambia and southern Mauretania. It is used as a trading language and almost the whole population of Senegal and Gambia understands and speaks Wolof.

Wolof is classified by Ethnologue (2023a) and Bendor-Samuel (1998) as belonging to the Atlantic subgroup of the Niger-Congo language family. However, as described by Güldeman (218: 180-185), the status of the Atlantic subgroup still seems to be unclear. However its Senegambian sub-subgroup seems to be well defined, with Wolof as a member.

According to Robert (2003: 372) Wolof is usually described as having 35 phonemes (20 consonants, 8 short and 7 long vowels), without counting geminate and prenasalized consonants. Wolof has a very interesting (for me) grammar where verbs are undeclinable, while pronouns are declined for e.g. aspect and focus. There are also ten noun classes, with uninflected nouns taking different class determiners according to (Langfocus 2019) and (Ethnologue 2023a).

A really big language (15 million speakers scattered in savanna lands from Senegal to Sudan) which is quite closely related to Wolof is Fula (also called Fulani, Peul, Ffulfulde and Toucouleur) which belongs to the Senegambian language group (Bendor-Samuel 1998). Another big language, more distantly related to Wolof as a member of another subgroup of the Niger-Congo family, is Swahili, with 18 million L1 speakers (Ethnologue 2023b).

References

Bendor-Samuel, John T. 1998. Atlantic languages. <https://www.britannica.com/topic/African-Atlantic-languages> (2023.09.23)

Ethnologue. 2023a. Wolof. <https://www.ethnologue-com.ezproxy.ub.gu.se/language/wol/> (2023.09.20)

Ethnologue 2023b. Swahili. <https://www.ethnologue-com.ezproxy.ub.gu.se/language/swa/> (2023.09.23)

Güldemann, Tom. 2018. Historical linguistics and genealogical language classification in Africa. In Güldemann, Tom (ed.), *The Languages and Linguistics of Africa* (The World of Linguistics 11), 58–444. Berlin: De Gruyter Mouton.

Langfocus. 2019. Wolof. <https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=NzDBC5uRL2I> (2023.09.23)

Robert, Stéphane. 2003. Wolof. In Frawley, William J. (ed.), *International Encyclopedia of Linguistics, Volume 4*, 372-374. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

WOLOF 2

Wolof is a language spoken in Senegal, Gambia, and Mauritania, and it uses a modified Latin alphabet as described, with a few additional characters representing specific Wolof sounds. Their alphabets include the following letters: A, B, C, D, E, Ě, F, G, H, I, J, K, L, M, N, Ñ, Ŋ, O, P, Q, R, S, T, U, W, X, Y. The Wolof alphabet does not include the letters V and Z. It has some unique characters like Ě, Ñ, and Ŋ to represent sounds that are distinct in Wolof but may not be found in standard Latin alphabets. (Wikipedia 2023)

In other words. Wolof is indeed an Atlantic language spoken in West Africa, primarily in Senegal and parts of neighboring countries like The Gambia and Mauritania. It belongs to the Niger-Congo language family, which is one of the world's largest language families, comprising numerous languages spoken across Africa. Arabic and Franca are involved. Wolof is related to Fula and Serer languages, (Britannica 2013).

Wolof is spoken by more than 10 million people and about 40 percent of Senegal's population speak Wolof as their mother tongue. Wolof is the most common language in Banjul, the capital of the Gambia, where 25% of the population speaks it as their first language. Wolof is also spoken by about 3% of the population overall in the Gambia. In Mauritania, about seven percent of the population speaks Wolof. There, the language is used only around the southern coastal regions. (Bamba 2012)

References

Bamba, D. 2012. Peace Corps Senegal. http://publish.illinois.edu/wolof201fall14/files/2014/08/NEW_WOLOF_BOOK.pdf (access date)

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<https://www.britannica.com/topic/Wolof-language>. Accessed (2023).

Wikipedia, (2023). Wolof Language. The free Encyclopedia (2023). https://en.wikipedia.org/w/index.php?title=Wolof_language&oldid=1176346038 (access date)

WOLOF 3

Wolof language belongs to Senegambia, a subgroup of the larger Niger-Congo languages. The language is mainly spoken in Senegal, Gambia as well as within the substantial Wolof diasporic communities in other countries such as Mauritania and France (Ethnologue, 2023).

Wolof is considered the national language of Senegal and the majority of the population speak it either as a mother tongue or as a second language (Britannica, 2023). Wolof Speakers are estimated around 12 million, mainly in Senegal but also in several other countries (Ethnologue, 2023).

Fulani language or Fula, one of most widely spoken languages in west Africa, believed to be closely related to Wolof, due to that both languages belong to the same subgroup within Niger-Congo family (Ethnologue, 2023b).

Swahili, another language that associated with Wolof but distantly, both languages are members of Niger-Congo family but in different sub**classes**, Bantu, and Senegambia respectively. Languages are spoken also in different geographical regions in Africa, Wolof in the West while Swahili in East.

Although Wolof adopted and written today in Latin script but Arabic and Gray, a native script system, existed and used (The Wikipedia, 2023).

List of References

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Ethnologue. 2023**b**. Fulfulde, Maasinankooré. <https://www.ethnologue-com.ezproxy.ub.gu.se/language/ffm/> (24 September 2023).

The Wikipedia. 2023. Wolof language. https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Wolof_languageLinks to an external site. (24 September 2023).

Wolof 4

mention the author when giving a reference

Wolof is a language that belongs to the Senegambian branch of the Niger-Congo language family (2022). It is mainly spoken in Senegal, where it is the national language. It is also spoken in France, Mauritania and Mali. There are approximately 4.6 million people in Senegal who have Wolof as a first language, and around 7.8 million people who use it as a lingua franca (2013a).

There are 24 consonants and 18 vowels in Wolof according to Languagesgulper (2013b). Although different sources give different numbers.

Wolof is closely related to Fula, a language also in the Senegambian group of the Niger-Congo language family and spoken in various dialects by around 35 million people in Africa (2023a). It is distantly related to Swahili, belonging to the same language group but not to the same subgroup/branch (2023b).

References

Britannica. 2013**a**. <https://www.britannica.com/topic/Wolof-language>, Wolof language. (24.09.23)

Britannica. 2023**b**. <https://www.britannica.com/topic/Swahili-language>, Swahili language. (24.09.23)

Omniglot. 2022. <https://www.omniglot.com/writing/wolof.htm>, Wolof (wolof). (24.09.23)

Languagesgulper. 2013**b**. <http://www.languagesgulper.com/eng/Wolof.html>. **Wolof**. (24.09.23)

Wikipedia. 2023**a**. https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Fula_language. **Fula language**. (24.09.23)

WOLOF

1. Where is Wolof spoken?

It's mainly spoken in Senegal and Gambia and also used in the Southern part of Mauritania. Nowadays, migration, business, and trade have broadened the horizons of the language to some parts of Guinea, Guinea-Bissau, and Mali (Ohio University 2022).

2. How many speakers are there of Wolof?

It is spoken by **5.2 million people** in Senegal ([Ethnologue 2022](#)). According to Britannica (200?), Wolof is spoken by approximately **4.6 million people** as a first language (mother tongue) and by an additional 7.8 million people who use Wolof as a lingua franca.

40% of the population of Senegal, which corresponds to approximately 5 million inhabitants, use Wolof as their "ethnic language". It is also a minority language (with regard to the number of speakers) in The Gambia and Mauritania (Robert 2021: 1).

3. To which language family (phylum) and sub-group does Wolof belong.

Family: Niger-Congo

Sub-group: Atlantic

The full category list provided by Ethnologue is the following:

Niger-Congo > Atlantic-Congo > Atlantic > Northern > Senegambian > Fula-Wolof > Wolof

4. Are there any well-known closely related languages to Wolof?

Wolof is an isolated language of the northern branch of the Atlantic group (Robert 2021: 3).

5. How many vowels are there in Wolof?

Wolof has 9 vowel phonemes that can be long or short (MustGo 2022).

“Wolof has 8 short vowels and 7 long vowels (with a much lower frequency):

Table 1: Wolof vocalic phonemes

i	u	ii	uu	
é	ë	ó	ée	óó
e	o	ee	oo	
a	aa			

(à)”

(Robert 2021: 5)

6. How many consonants are there?

Wolof has 29 consonant phonemes. Most Wolof consonants can be geminated (doubled), e.g., *wotu* ‘to shave’ and *wottu* ‘to be careful.’ (MustGo 2022)

The exact number and character of Wolof consonants remains controversial. Most of the consonants (especially the plosives) can be geminated and prenasalized (Robert 2021: 6).

mb nd ng

7. Are there any other interesting details worth mentioning about the sound system?

Unlike many other Niger-Congo languages, Wolof does not have tones. Stress by itself does not differentiate word meaning. Nevertheless, Wolof syllables differ in intensity, e.g., long vowels are pronounced with more intensity than short ones (MustGo)

“Wolof has a prosodic system typologically unusual in several respects. As most of the Atlantic languages, it is a non-tonal language, but in addition, it has no tonal accent and no pitch accent (Rialland and Robert, 2001). Wolof has fixed dynamic stress: the main stress falls on the first syllable of lexemes unless the second syllable is long, in which case it falls on the latter: 'daanu ‘to fall’, gin'naaw ‘back’, 'defaraat ‘to do again’” (Robert Preprint, 10).

8. How do you form the plural of nouns in Wolof?

Wolof uses a noun class system comprising eight singular and two plural classes (Robert Preprint, 15).

9. Is there a definite article in Wolof?

There is. In Wolof the definite article changes depending on the word type as well as the relation of the noun to the speaker. Definite articles indicate something specific or familiar to the listener. For example, if I was to say “the dog”, you would understand that I was talking about a particular dog. If I was to say “a dog” it could mean any dog.

In Wolof, the initial letter of the definite article varies:

bunta **bi** – **the** door

ganaar **gi** – **the** fowl

jigeen **ji** – **the** woman

nit **ki** – **the** person

nda **li** – **the** water pot

muus **mi** – **the** cat

suuf **si** – **the** earth

ween **wi** – **the** breast

The def. art. always follows the noun rather than preceding it as in English

(JangaWolof 2022)

Wolof has three distinct deictic suffixes to mark the spatial relation of the referential entity to the speaker:

-i proximal

-a distal

-u not localised (or absent) in the deictic space

These suffixes can be used with definitive articles, relative and interrogative pronouns and demonstratives (Robert 2021: 13).

10. What is the typical word order in Wolof? Does the verb in a typical simple clause come first, in the middle or at the end?

The basic word order of Wolof is **Subject-Verb-Object**. If the direct object constitutes the topic (focus) of a sentence, it precedes all other sentence constituents, e.g., *Mbuuru nga di lekka* ‘Bread (focus) you are eating.’ (MustGo 2022). Therefore, the verb comes usually in the middle, and sometimes, at the end of a clause.

List of References

Give only the author’s last name and year of publication in the text above.

Make a list of the full title of all publications that you have referred to. Use this format:

Author's last name, first name. Year. Title of article. Editor. *Title of book or journal* Issue, from page–to page. City: Publisher.

Ethnologue, (n.d). Wolof.

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14. Practice

14.1 - Read Arabic script

Try to read the following names.

لندن	Indn	London
------	------	--------

برلين	brlin	Berlin
-------	-------	--------

درسدن

بريمن

مدريد

بون

دورتموند

دوسلدورف

فرانکفورت

هانوفر

کولونیا

موسکو

لینتس

شتوتگارت

غراتس

زالتسبورغ

کلاغنفورت

هامبورغ

لشبونة

مانشستر

ستوکهولم

میونخ

14.2 - Read Amharic script (15.1)

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	læ.nə.dæ.nə	London
ሊቨርፑል	li.βæ.rə.pu.lə	Liverpool
ናጋሳኪ	na.ga.sa.ki	Nagasaki
ሪጋ		
በርሊን		
ቤርን		
ቦን		
ብሬመን		
በርግን		
ታሊን		
ፕራግ		
ኦስሎ		
ሮማ		

ቤልፋስት

14.3 - Read Somali Osmania script

Try to read the following names.

ፊጐኔኖቢዓፎ

ዛሠጋፎ

ዓቢጐሣዓፎ

ነሣሣካቢ

ዓፋኔፎረ

ሣገዓዛ

ፎገገሣ

ኔገፎዓፎኔ

ጋፎጐሣዓ

ሶዐዓ ሣሣሣ

ቢረፎረ

ሣገዓፋ

14. Suggested solutions

14.1 - Read Arabic script

The same sign is used for the consonant /y/ and the long vowel /i/, as well as for the consonant /w/ and the long vowel /u/.

لندن	lndn	London
برلين	brlin	Berlin
درسدن	drsdn	Dresden
بريمن	brimn	Bremen
مدريد	mdrid	Madrid
بون	bun	Bonn
دورتموند	durtmund	Dortmund
دوسلدورف	dustdurf	Düsseldorf
فرانكفورت	frankfurt	Frankfurt
هانوفر	hanufr	Hannover
كولونيا	kulunya	Cologne/Köln
موسكو	musku	Moscow
لينتس	lints	Linz

شتوتغارت	ʃtutʁaft	Stuttgart
غراتس	ʁrats	Gratz
زالتسبورغ	zaltsbury	Salzburg
كلاغنفورت	klayenfurt	Klagenfurt
هامبورغ	hambury	Hamburg
لشبونة	lʃbuna	Lisbon
مانشستر	manʃstr	Manchester
ستوكهولم	stukhulm	Stockholm
ميونخ	myunʁ	Munich

14.2 - Read Amharic script

Different authors use different systems to transcribe Amharic in Latin script. The transcription below tries to capture the the phonetic values as closely as possible. However, the [ə] is not necessairly pronounced, i.e. the same sign is used for a consonant followed by [ə] as for a consonant not followed by any vowel at all.

ለንደን	læ.nə.dæ.nə	London
ሊቨርፑል	li.βæ.rə.pu.lə	Liverpool
ናጋሳኪ	na.ga.sa.ki	Nagasaki
ሪጋ	ri.ga	Riga
በርሊን	be.rə.li.nə	Berlin
ቤርን	be.rə.nə	Bern

ቦን	bo.nə	Bonn
ብሬምን	bə.re.mæ.nə	Bremen
በርግን	bæ.rə.gə.nə	Bergen
ታሊን	ta.li.nə	Tallinn
ፕራግ	pə.ra.gə	Prague
ዓስሎ	ʔo.sə.lo	Oslo
ሮማ	ro.ma	Rome
ቤልፋስት	be.lə.fa.sə.tə	Belfast

14.3 – Somali Osmania script

Just like in the Arabic script, the same sign is used for the consonants W and Y and the long vowels UU and II.

ፖሙኑሉዓይ	SOOMAALIYA
ክሊንያ	KEENYA
ዓቢኑህዓይ	ITOOBIYA
ገሃሃኑህ	JABBUUTI
ዓዓኑይህ	ISWIIDHAN
ላፍሪካ	AFRIKA
ሃህሪ	YURUB
ሙቂዘሽ	MUQDISHO
ናይሮቢ	NAYROOBI
ሳዕዳሳ	ADDIS ABABA
ሊንደህ	LANDHAN
ባላሪስ	BAARIS

Unit 15. Variation and Change (16)

Sociolinguistics deals with linguistic variation within a language based on a large variety of societal parameters, such as location, age, gender, social group, education, profession, religion, interests, etc., as well as the formality of the situation.

Historical linguistics deals with diachronic changes in a language, i.e. changes that occur over time.

Varieties of a language

All languages have multiple varieties.

"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"

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

Language vs. Dialect

Language is usually defined in the following two ways.

Distance Languages ("Abstand" languages) are languages that are different enough to be mutually unintelligible.

Development Languages ("Ausbau" languages)" are languages that have developed a recognised standard variety.

Dialect is often understood in one of the following three ways.

A dialect is a variety of a language. 'Dialect' and 'variety' are synonyms.

A dialect is one of several mutually intelligible geographical varieties of a language. Every speaker of a language speaks a dialect. Also the standard is considered a dialect.

A common layman understanding is that a dialect is a 'provincial' variety that differs from the prestigious or standard form of the language. The standard is not regarded a dialect, it's rather the opposite of dialects. A speaker may speak in a more or a less dialectal way.

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)

Arabic language varieties (Classic, Modern Standard, Moroccan, Egyptian, Levantine...)

Turkic language varieties (i.e. Turkish, Azeri, Turkmen, Uzbek, Kasakh, Kirgiz, Uighur...)

The dialect continuum dilemma: varieties 1, 2, 3, 4 are all mutually intelligible, as are varieties 2, 3, 4, 5. Varieties 1 and 5 are not mutually intelligible. Are they the different languages or dialects of the same language?

Languages (especially development lang.) may emerge at several points of one dialect continuum, e.g. Danish, Swedish, Norwegian Bokmål and Nynorsk.

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

Variation

Can be observed in **variables** and **linguistic items**. A specific **variable** may correspond to two or more **linguistic items**. One such variable is the pronunciation of Swedish <sj>, and the two most typical items representing that variable would be [ʃ] and [ɧ].

Isogloss

An isogloss is a 'geographical' borderline between varieties with different items representing a specific linguistic variable. Isoglosses may show differences in pronunciation, grammar or vocabulary, among other things.



A map with isoglosses showing the distribution of three American English synonyms corresponding to Swedish *läsk/dricka*.

Östergötlands målområden



A map with isoglosses showing the pronunciation of the infinitive ending in verbs, e.g. *kasta/kastä/kaste* 'throw' in the Swedish province Östergötland. (Source: Wikipedia)

Standard Language = Standard Variety

The standard form of a language is just another variety. No variety is inherently better than another. But knowing the standard is often important for functioning as a member of a larger society.

Due to historical circumstances, the standard variety **enjoys greater prestige** than other varieties of the same language.

A standard language is an **idealization**, it is usually not the natural mother tongue variety of any group. A standard language is first of all a **written language**. 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, which is quite close to the standard, even if not identical.

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

Not all languages have a standard variety.

Standard varieties may change over time, new standard varieties are sometimes born, and some disappear. What used to be Serbocroatian has developed into four distinct standard varieties: Bosnian, Croatian, Montenegrin and Serbian.

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

A standard variety is typically based on the varieties spoken by people with greater **cultural influence** (well-known writers), greater **political power** (influence), greater **social influence** (power and prestige), greater **economic power** (wealth), longer **education** (not necessarily in that order).

The standard is used in administration, politics, jurisdiction, education, mass media and literature.

It is defined/described/taught in dictionaries, grammar books and other textbooks.

It has a stable form, above all in writing, and 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 standard English in the USA, Canada, Britain, South Africa, Australia, New Zealand etc., the differences between standard Swedish in Sweden and Finland. The same is true for quite a number of other languages, e.g. Arabic, German, Spanish, French, Russian, Somali, Swahili etc.

Such different 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 or varying standards may be referred to as **pluricentric languages**.

Social varieties = Sociolects

A lot of variation in the languages of the world is due to the social stratification of society and the solidarity people feel with the social groups and networks with which they are in close contact. In order to be accepted as a member of the group, you will adapt your language to the way the others in the group speak. In order to distance yourself from a group, you will do the opposite.

Just like the way people dress reflects the way they want to be viewed, as part of a certain social group (man, woman, local, stranger, young, rich, heavy-metal fan etc.), the way people speak also sends a similar kind of signals about the group they want to belong to.

The belonging to some types of social groups can be chosen by the individual (e.g. hobbies, political parties, education, profession), others cannot (easily), e.g. age, gender, class. The way in which a person speaks may to some extent be used to influence or even manipulate what others think or believe about a person's belonging to different groups.

Slang & Jargon

These two terms mostly refer to parts of the vocabulary.

Slang is informal vocabulary typical of a certain group of people.

Jargon is 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.

Multilingual societies

In many parts of the world, multilingual societies are the norm and monolingual societies are an exception. In Africa, extremely few countries have one completely dominating language, like most European countries. E.g. in Djibouti, at the Gib lake on the Ethiopian border, we can imagine an Amharic speaker who belongs to the small Amharic minority in Djibouti. The

first language of this person is Amharic, but in most everyday situations this person has to use other languages. With neighbours in the area, Afar is probably the most useful language, but the lingua franca used with people who are not locals is most probably Somali, which is spoken by the majority of the Djiboutian population. Therefore Somali will probably be the language to use when talking to a policeman or people in the administration, or when travelling to the capital. However, the major official language of Djibouti is French. Only French is used in written communication with authorities, in education, television, radio, newspapers, books etc. In order to become a candidate for parliament, you must speak French. Also Arabic has the status of a second official language, but it is used to a much smaller extent than French, meaning, e.g., that some schools and university courses use it and that official documents are published in both Arabic and French.

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 message is not dependent on any specific language. The message can be spelled out in any language, and the exact wording may differ.

Diachronic or historical changes

are studied in a branch of linguistics called **historical linguistics**.

Lexical changes

The vocabulary of every language develops and changes over time. There are many different types of lexical changes, some of which are

Derivation – new words are formed from old ones by the addition of affixes.

farm -> farmer

Conversion – a word which was originally used as one word class starts being used as another word class without any specific affix being added to it.

paint (verb) <-> paint (noun)

Compounding – two bases are combined and form a new lexeme.

word + class -> word-class

Blends or portmanteau words – again, two bases are combined into a new lexeme, but some parts of the bases are left out.

smoke + fog -> smog

breakfast + lunch -> brunch

Back-formations – a previously non-existing “base” is formed by deleting an affix from a more complex lexeme.

legislation -> legislate

baby-sitter -> baby-sit

the old English ‘pease’ (sg.) was re-interpreted as a plural -> pea (sg.)

Clippings – an existing lexeme is shortened.

gymnasium -> gym

public house -> pub

Acronyms – initials form a new word

personal identification number -> pin

self-contained underwater breathing apparatus -> scuba

Eponyms – a proper name becomes a generic noun

Earl of Sandwich -> sandwich

Michel Bégon (French politician) -> begonia

Amelia Bloomer (American activist) -> bloomers

Ambrose Burnside (American general) -> sideburns

Nicolas Chauvin (French soldier) – chauvinism

Candido Jacuzzi (Italian inventor) – jacuzzi

Daniel Elmer Salmon (American pathologist) – salmonella

Adolphe Sax (Belgian inventor) – saxophone

William Banting (English undertaker) -> Swedish *banta*

But also brand names that become generic nouns

Kleenex -> kleenex (cleansing paper tissue of any brand)

Hoover -> hoover (any vacuum cleaner) -> (conversion) hoover (verb)

Loanwords – words that have been imported from other languages.

Obsolete words – words that are no longer in (frequent) use.

trunk hose, phonograph

Semantic changes

A word’s meaning changes.

Specialisation – the meaning becomes “narrower”

English *deer* once meant any four legged animal as opposed to e.g. birds and fish (cf. also Swedish *djur*).

Generalisation or semantic bleaching – the meaning becomes “broader”.

The word *navigate* was originally only used about finding one’s way at sea when traveling by ship. Today we can navigate a car in a city, or we can navigate through a complicated life, or on the internet.

Pejoration – the meaning becomes more negative.

The word *awful* once just meant “arousing or inspiring reverential respect, mixed with wonder or fear” (Oxford English Dictionary), e.g. “Preaching .. in the most awful Auditory of the University” (from 1656).

Amelioration – the meaning becomes more positive.

The word *nice* (from Latin *nescius* ‘ignorant’) once meant ‘stupid, foolish’, e.g. *mad and nyse* (from 1567).

Metaphor – a meaning that is somehow close due to some similar properties
mouse (animal) -> mouse (pointing device for a computer)

Metonymy – a meaning that is somehow close by association

the crown = the monarchy
give someone a hand = help someone

Euphemism – natural terms replace stigmatized concepts

unemployed -> between jobs

Sound changes

Vowel shift – the quality of some vowel is changed. The change may be conditioned (only in certain contexts) or unconditioned (occurring throughout the language, in every word).

E.g. Swedish short /ö/ is being replaced by short /u/ in large parts of the population. Words like *mörknade/murknade*, *ögla/uggla* are often pronounced alike.

Consonant shift

E.g. the older front pronunciation [ʃ] of Swedish <sj> is being replaced by the newer back pronunciation [ɧ] in word like, *sju*, *skön*, *choklad*.

Assimilation – two sounds become more similar.

Dissimilation – two sounds become more different.

Metathesis – two sounds change places.

Slavic languages have inverted the order of vowel + /r/ or /l/ in many words. Compare English *milk* and Polish *mleko* or Swedish *gård* ‘farm, court yard’ and Slavic *grad* in many city names, e.g. *Leningrad*.

Epenthesis – a sound is added.

Deletion – a sound is deleted.

Morphological changes

Analogy – morphological change in the forms of a word under the influence of the morphological behaviour of other words.

Analogical levelling – an exception disappears in analogy with all the regular words in the language.

The older Swedish past tense forms *hjalp* ‘helped’, *sam* ‘swam’ have been replaced by regular forms *hjälp*, *simmade*.

Analogical extension – some frequent form that belongs to different (often irregular) inflectional class influences words of another (usually completely regular) inflectional class and makes those words change their behaviour.

A group of irregular Swedish verbs like *frysa*, *frös* ‘freeze, froze’ have led to some regular verb having a tendency to inflect *lysa*, *lyste* -> *lös* ‘shine, shined/shone’

Most Swedish neuter nouns or T-nouns ending in a vowel take the plural ending *-n* (*ett äpple*, *två äpplen* ‘one/two apple(s)’, *ett leende*, *två leenden* ‘one/two smile(s)'). Most common gender nouns or N-nouns ending in *-e* don't take any plural ending (*en lärare*, *två lärare* ‘one/two teacher(s)’, (*en studerande*, *två studerande* ‘one/two student(s)'). However, in analogy with the neuter nouns, also common gender nouns ending in *-ande/-ende* are increasingly used in the plural with the ending *-n* (*två studeranden* ‘two students’).

Syntactic changes

There are many different types of syntactic changes that may occur in languages. Here are just two examples.

In today's English, questions and negative clauses are normally formed with the auxiliary verb *do*. In older stages of English, this was not the case.

I slew them not -> I didn't kill them
What means this? -> What does this mean?

In today's Swedish, the future tense auxiliary verb *kommer* is often followed directly by the infinitive. Some 30 or 40 years ago, that would have been almost impossible in the written standard language.

Färre kommer besöka museerna (magasink.se)
'Fewer will visit the museums'

15. Read some more

Chapter 10, Language variation and change. In:

Anderson, Catherine, Bronwyn Bjorkman, Derek Denis, Julianne Doner, Margaret Grant, Nathan Sanders & Ai Taniguchi. 2022. *Essentials of Linguistics*, 2nd edn. Hamilton, Ontario: eCampusOntario.

<https://ecampusontario.pressbooks.pub/essentialsoflinguistics2/>

Chapter 7, Language variation. In:

Eifring & Theil. 2005. [*Linguistics for Students of Asian and African Languages*](#).

Chapter 8, Language IDs: Sociolinguistics. In:

Richter (ed.). 2006. [*First Steps in Theoretical and Applied Linguistics*](#).

Chapter 4, Sound change. In:

Radford, Andrew, Martin Atkinson, David Britain, Harald Clahsen & Andrew Spencer. 2009. *Linguistics: An introduction*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

<https://www-cambridge-org.ezproxy.ub.gu.se/highereducation/books/linguistics/9AEE7EDA6697286AFE1B2399DFDD9020#contents>

Chapter 17, Language history and change. In:

Yule, George. The study of language.

Learn about **Swedish dialects** at

<https://www.isof.se/lar-dig-mer/kunskapsbanker/lar-dig-mer-om-svenska-dialekter/om-dialekter>

15. Watch some videos

Sociolinguistics (11 min.) | Taylor Behnke

<https://youtu.be/of4XzrbkknM>

Introduction to Sociolinguistics (36 min.) | Language

<https://youtu.be/r4Xq8WTBNAM>

Language Identity & Group Membership (20 min.) | Language
<https://youtu.be/XwOJmPY9sMs>

And if you still have some more energy...

Shibboleths – Language & Group Membership (13 min.) | Language
<https://youtu.be/OWobK9CFPos>

Jargon – Language & Group Membership (9 min.) | Language
<https://youtu.be/MS6yOtyVsZM>

What is Diglossia? (5 min.) | Paul
<https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=KL9ku7c7UTs>

Grammar – Is one dialect better than the rest? (15 min.) | Language
<https://youtu.be/UHbDFF-4xbE>

Should I Learn the Formal Language or Informal Language? (8 min.) | Paul
<https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=AZnZjsQhAFk>

Linguistic Politeness (28 min.) | David Bell
<https://youtu.be/h50VANoUIh4>

What Makes Bad Words Bad? Taboo Language and Euphemisms (9 min.) | Moti Lieberman
<https://youtu.be/Y4HW0tOCQm>

Linguistic Meaning vs Communicated Meaning: Taboo Words (10 min.) | Randall Eggert
<https://youtu.be/CuXovC-1ozs>

15. Read about South Africa's languages

Here are some videos that will give you some inspiration and basic information:

Languages of South Africa (15 min.) | Paul
<https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=LU6dL9FMeIU>

The power of language policy in a multilingual South Africa (8 min.) | Adiel Rutabana
<https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=9O1fc6JXYTQ>

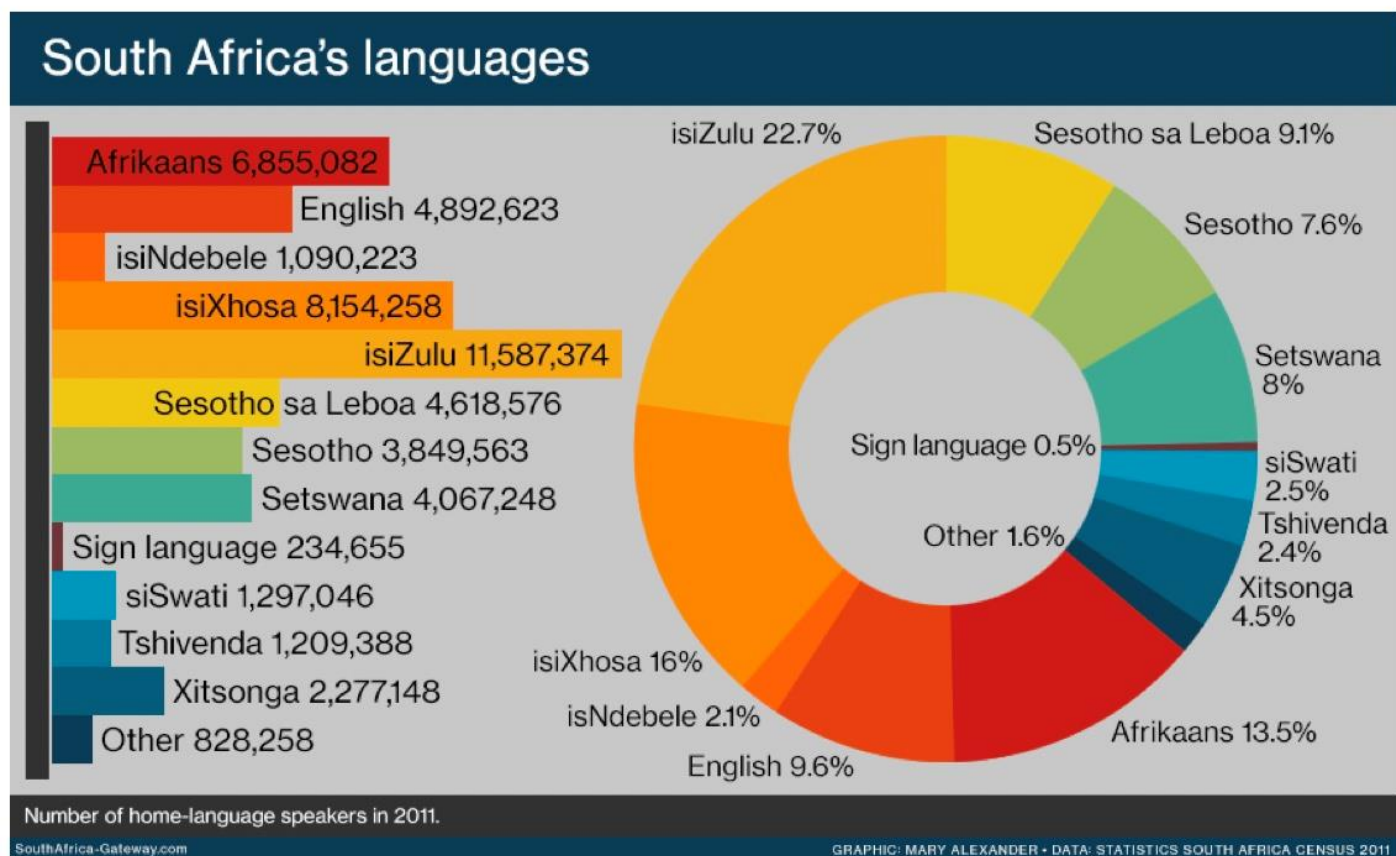
Afrikaans (13 min.) | Paul
<https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=uI49IqDCgg8>

Student text 2023

SOUTH AFRICAN languages

South Africa is a very multilingual country. According to Ethnologue (2023a) the following eleven languages (in alphabetical order) have more than one million speakers: Afrikaans, English, Ndebele, Northern Sotho, Setswana, Southern Sotho, Swati, Tsonga, Venda, Xhosa and Zulu, and are all official national languages, like the South African Sign Language (3 May 2023), with 300,000 users, while the twenty remaining indigenous languages all have less than 100,000 speakers, and their total number is less than a million.

According to South Africa Gateway (2023), the numbers of speakers of the main languages were as below in the figure:



and it should be noted that most South Africans are fluent in two or more languages.

Ethnologue (2023a) evidently uses the same sources for the numbers of L1 speakers.

English and Afrikaans are Indo-European languages, belonging to the Germanic subgroup (Ethnologue 2023b). The other national languages, except the Sign language,

are all Southern Bantu, which is low-lying subgroup of Niger-Congo, according to Janson (1991) and Gunnink, Chousou-Polydouri & Bostoen (2023).

To understand the current status of these languages, it is necessary to look at the history of the area and its population. Before the Bantu agriculturists' immigration, beginning about 2000 years ago and continuing, South Africa seems to have been populated by people speaking earlier forms of the Khoisan languages (Güldemann & Vossen 2000: 99). In 1652 the Dutch colonised the Cape of Good Hope and introduced a 17th-century Dutch dialect, which later evolved into Afrikaans under the influence of indigenous Khoisan languages and other African and Asian languages (Britannica 2023a). In 1815, the Cape Colony was finally ceded to Great Britain, and the British colonisation began, and brought in the English language, and many workers from British India were introduced. During the 19th century many wars were fought between the British, the Xhosa, the Zulu and the (Dutch speaking) Boers, and the discovery of diamonds and gold mines increased the British immigration. In 1910, South Africa was created as a self-governing Dominion, with Afrikaans and English as the official languages. After the end of the Apartheid era (1948-1994), a new constitution gave official status also to the nine Bantu Languages, but English is more and more used in official, business and educational contexts, while the use of Afrikaans in government is diminishing (Britannica 2023b).

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Gunnink, Hilde, Natalia Chousou-Polydouri & Koen Bostoen. 2023. Divergence and contact in Southern Bantu language and population history. *Language dynamics and change* 13. 74-131.

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Student text 2023

1. Where is Afrikaans spoken?

It is spoken mainly in South Africa and also in Botswana, Lesotho, Malawi, Namibia, Swaziland and Zambia (MustGo 2022).

2. How many speakers are there of Afrikaans?

7.2 million native speakers (Ethnologue 2016) and 10.3 million second language speakers (Webb 2002).

3. To which language family (phylum) and sub-group does Afrikaans belong.

Indo-European, Germanic, West, Low Saxon-Low Franconian, Low Franconian (Ethnologue 2022)

4. Are there any well-known closely related languages to Afrikaans?

Dutch (Ethnologue 2022)

5. How many vowels are there in Afrikaans?

There are 17 vowels: 10 monophthongs and 7 diphthongs (Donaldson 1993)

6. How many consonants are there?

As seen in the table below, Afrikaans has 27 consonants. Among these, the most characteristic, as in Dutch, is the voiceless, velar [g].

Table 1: Afrikaans consonants

	Bilabial	Labiodental	Alveolar	Post-alveolar	Palatal	Velar	Uvular	Glottal
Plosive	[p] [b]		[t] [d]		[c]	[k] [g]		[ʔ]
Affricate			([ts])					
Nasal	[m]		[n]		[ɲ]	[ŋ]		
Trill				[r]				([R])
Lateral				[l]				
Fricative		[f] [v]	[s] ([z])	([ʃ]) ([ʒ])	[j]	[x]		
Approximant	[ʋ]				[ɰ]			[ɦ]

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- Le Roux, T.H. & Pienaar, P. de V. 1927. *Afrikaanse fonetiek*. Juta.
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(Wissing 2020a)

7. Are there any other interesting details worth mentioning about the sound system?

In Afrikaans the voiceless velar fricative /x/ in some rare instances is replaced by the voiced plosive [g] constituting a consonant alternation (Wissing 2020b).

Another interesting feature is the process of “rhotacism” where the voiced alveolar consonant /d/ quite frequently alternates intervocally in unstressed syllables with [r]. In terms of a consonant sonority scale the change from a stop /d/ to a trill (or tap) /r/ can be explained as one of consonant weakening, or lenition. It is not present in Dutch and to a very limited degree observable in Frisian (Wissing 2022b).

From a comparison of acoustic analysis, it is reasonable to characterize the Afrikaans [r] sounds both as either short trills or even as tap sounds. In the remainder of this topic, therefore, we use the phonetic symbol [r] in all examples of realizations of /d/.

8. How do you form the plural of nouns in Afrikaans?

The two most common pluralisation rules are the addition of an “e” or a “s” (Donaldson 1993: 69-86)

9. Is there a definite article in Afrikaans?

Yes (Donaldson 1993: 56-68)

10. What is the typical word order in Afrikaans? Does the verb in a typical simple clause come first, in the middle or at the end?

SVO (Donaldson 1993: 362-400)

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(10-01-2023)

2022 Text 1

Although Afrikaans is no longer the main official language in South Africa along with English, but it's still considered the most diverse language among the current 12 official languages in the Country. Its speakers as mother tongue or second language speakers are diverse in terms of geographical belonging, population make-up and racial background (Wissing, 2020). Researchers found that Afrikaans still dominates the media landscape of the country. For instance, SALRM 2009 found that nearly 65 percent of mainstream newspaper records in 2009 belonged to Afrikaans while English, the lingua franca of the world, scored only 33% (Du Plessis, 2014).

Afrikaans belongs to the West Germanic branch of Indo-European language family. It has Dutch roots but has been influenced by several other European as well as South African indigenous languages (Wissing, 2020). It is noted for high mutual intelligibility between the speakers of Dutch and Afrikaans. German language is considered closely related to Afrikaans, and both belong to the same subgroup.

Afrikaans is mainly spoken in South Africa and its neighbouring countries such as Botswana, Namibia, Swaziland, and Lesotho. It has nearly 17,7 million speakers, of which 6,8 million are native speakers (Ethnologue, 2023).

The alphabet of Afrikaans consists of 24 consonants and 17 vowels, including long and short sounds (Wikipedia, 2023).

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- Mark as unreadMark as unread

[Sven Spanne](#)

29 Sep 2023 19:42Last reply 1 Oct 2023 15:24

AFRIKAANS

According to Ethnologue (2023), Afrikaans is spoken mainly in South Africa, but also in Swaziland, Botswana, Lesotho, and Namibia. The total number of speakers is 17 million, with 7 million first language speakers and 10 million second language speakers.

Afrikaans is an Indo-European language, belonging to the (West) Germanic subgroup. It has developed from its mother language 17th-century Dutch under the influence of indigenous Khoisan languages and other African and Asian languages (Britannica 2023a).

However, it is still very similar to Dutch, and mutually intelligible, even if it has lost many morphological traits common to many Germanic languages: it has no gender system and no conjugation of verbs, which e.g. means loss of the original preteritum and the strong verb conjugation. The syntax and the vocabulary differ little from Dutch. (Donaldson 1994: 478-480), (Parkvall & Janson 2023).

According to Ethnologue (2023) Afrikaans has 20 consonants, 16 (long and short) vowels, 9 diphthongs while Donaldson (1994: 480) counts 15 consonants, 15 simple vowels, 7 diphthongs and 4 double vowels.

Hindi-Urdu (or Hindustani or Hindi and Urdu) is a very large (650 million) Indo-European language, belonging to the Indo-Iranian group, and so distantly related to Afrikaans (Britannica 2023). It is interesting that according to Perelsvaig (2012: 122), Hindi and Urdu are said to be widely spoken in South Africa, by over a million speakers. However, this is contradicted by e.g. Shukla (2007: 37-40). Ethnicity is not the same thing as language use.

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Afrikaans

Afrikaans is a language spoken in South Africa. It started forming in the middle of the 17th century after European settlers began migrating to South Africa (Du Plessis 2021). It is an Indo-European language belonging to the West Germanic branch of the Germanic subgroup. Currently, there are over 10 million speakers of Afrikaans, where approximately 7 million are native speakers (Wikipedia 2023).

The main language base of Afrikaans is non-standardized Dutch, with influences of varying degrees from German, French, the oriental languages of imported slaves such as Malay-Portuguese, and the language of the local Khoi people (Du Plessis 2021). According to (Du Plessis 2021) standardized Dutch was not established until later in the 17th century, and cannot be regarded as one of the roots of Afrikaans. Moreover, the German influence was from non-standardized lower German dialects, which shared the same non-standard Germanic base as the Dutch dialects at the time.

As mentioned in the previous paragraph, Afrikaans originated from various Dutch dialects, and as a result, it is closely related to Dutch. Afrikaans is also distantly related to English since they are both in the same Germanic language family (Britannica 2022).

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15. Practice

15.1 - Serbo-Croatian (16.1)

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?

15.2 – Arabic (16.2)

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

List arguments in favour of both standpoints.

15.3 – General questions

1. What reason do you think there might be for the form *stog* [stu:g] ‘stood’ to be so common in colloquial Swedish instead of the standard Swedish form *stod* [stu:d]? (You need to know some other Swedish ‘strong’ (irregular) verbs in order to be able to answer this question.)

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More will follow soon...

This textbook will be updated week by week during the autumn term 2024. Compared to previous years, it will be completely reorganised, but if you are interested in the old version, it is still available at

<https://morgannilsson.se/LinguisticsAndAfricanLanguagesKeyConceptsAndAssignments.2023.pdf>