# UNIVERSITY OF CALIFORNIA

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Verbal Tone in Kuria

A dissertation submitted in partial satisfaction of the requirements for the degree Doctor of Philosophy in Linguistics

by

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## **ABBREVIATIONS**

a = augment / pre-prefix

ap = applicative

C = consonant

cau = causative

cp = class prefix

ext = extension

f = focus

fv = final vowel

H = high tone

H' = free, floating, or unassociated high tone

im = infinitive marker

inc = inchoative

L = low tone

M = mid tone

m-stem = macrostem

N = nucleus

n1 = negative marker 1

n2 = negative marker 2

ob = (object) benefactive

oc = (object) atte

om = object marker

op = (object) patient

or = (object) recipient

pas = passive

pf = perfective

R = rising tone

rec = reciprocal

rd = reduplication

rf = reflexive

ri = reversive intransitive

rt = reversive transitive

sm = subject marker

SR = surface representation

st = stative

syn = synchronizing

T = tone

t = tense (generally, tense, aspect, and mood)

TAM = tense, aspect, and mood

UR = underlying representation

V = vowel

V' = free vowel, not associated with tone

vi = intransitive verb

vt = transitive verb

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#### ABSTRACT OF THE DISSERTATION

Verbal Tone in Kuria

by

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This dissertation examines verbal tone in Kuria, an Eastern Bantu language spoken in Kenya and Tanzania. It shows that Kuria has a predictable tone system, in that, verbs are assigned high tones on the first, second, third, fourth, or first and fourth vowels of the macrostem, beginning at the left edge. It employs a mora or vowel count approach. Tense (TAM) emerges as the prime determiner of where the high tone is assigned. Other factors like syllable type and the length of the macrostem dictate how high tones are distributed. Furthermore, primary high tones are rarely assigned without modification. This is manifested through processes such as doubling, spreading etc., leading to a diversity in surface tonal patterns.

Five areas are covered. First, I examine the structure of the verb. The morphemes are identified according to their slots and functions. Secondly, an analysis of tone in the affirmative verbs follows. I suggest that primary high tone assignment and spreading processes are determined by specific features found in the verb. A set of interrelated phenomena in tone terracing such as downstep, downdrift, and downglide feature in the discussion. I also show that onsetless syllables and first person singular object prefixes make surface tone patterns opaque. Thirdly, I look at negative tenses. Two morphological negatives, /ta-/ and /te-/, are discussed. I show that these affect the tone on the verb differently since the former does not contribute a high tone but the latter does. Fourthly, verbal reduplication is looked at. Although reduplication is quite complex segmentally, it turns out that tone assignment in such forms is straightforward. I argue that in Kuria, the reduplicant and Base form a single domain of tone realization. In this case, a reduplicated verb is not any different from an unreduplicated verb, tone is distributed over the entire verb. Lastly, a discussion of Odden (1987) and Cammenga (2004) is given.

#### **Chapter One**

#### Introduction

#### 1. Introduction

This dissertation gives a descriptive analysis of the tonal structure of both the infinitival and finite verbs in the Kuria language. The study was motivated by the scarcity of information about this language, especially in the area of tone. Verbal tone was chosen for the study, rather than nominal tone, because there is more variety of tonal patterns in the verbal system than in the nominal system. Furthermore, the Kuria language shows signs of being in rapid transition. The fact that most Kuria speakers also use Swahili, which is slowly but surely becoming the dominant language in "Kurialand", complicates issues. A synchronic study will therefore capture the language's present state in the transition. It will specifically employ a modified version of the vowel count approach used in Odden (1987).

Bantu languages in general have played a significant role in the recent development of the theory and description of linguistic tone (see Clements & Goldsmith (1984) for an overview). Kuria, as one of the understudied languages, provides further insights into these domains. Important contributions of this work will include detailed descriptions of the verbal tone as a result of observing more paradigms. Also, this dissertation establishes general principles of tone in Kuria thus making a specific contribution to the mechanics of predictable tone systems, and a general contribution to the understanding of tonal systems in world languages.

## 1.1 The Language and Its People

The ethnologue lists Kuria, Kikuria, Tende, Igikuria, and Kurya as names that have been used to refer to this language. The speakers of the language call it iγi[kúɾjá]. It will simply be referred to here as "Kuria". The people are referred to as aβa[kúɾjá] and in singular umu[kúɾjá]. Kuria is an Eastern Bantu language spoken in Kuria District, Nyanza Province, in southwest Kenya, and in the Mara region in northwest Tanzania, by approximately 500,000 people (Rose 2001).

Kuria belongs to the Eastern Bantu group of languages. Guthrie (1967) classifies Kuria as E43, that is, the third language in zone E, group 40. In this classification, Kuria is most closely related to Logooli (E41), Gusii (E42), Zanaki (E44), Nata (E45), Ngorimi and Simbiti. Nurse and Philippson (1980) show that Kuria is in the Lacustrine group of languages, in the subgroup of East Nyanza, where it is shown to be closely related to Ngurimi, Suba, Ikizu, Shasi, Zanaki, and Nata.

The Kuria are a Bantu-speaking community whose close geographical neighbors on the Kenyan side include the Luo and Maasai, who are non-Bantu. The history of the Kuria is closely tied with that of the various communities who surround them and it remains to be seen how much those neighbors have affected them linguistically (see Rose 2001).

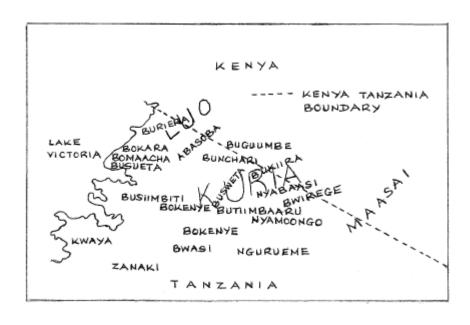


Figure 1.1: The Kuria and their neighbors (adapted from Cammenga 1994)

The Kuria are of diverse origins. Before the twentieth century they were not known as the Kuria, but rather by their clan names (Abuso 1980). It is from these clans that the present Kuria society emerged. Presently, the Kuria people are socially subdivided into fifteen clans (Cammenga 2004), as shown in (1). Since there has been orthographical variation in clan names, they are given below in both orthographic and phonetic form.

## (1) Kuria clans and their locations

Clans		Location
a. Abanyabaasi	aβa[áɲá <sup>!</sup> βáásí]	βu[ɲaβáásí]
b. Abaireege	aβa[írééγe]	βwi[irééγe]
c. Abakiira	aβa[kíírá]	βu[kíírá]
d. Abaguumbe	aβa[γúúmbe]	βu[γuúmbe]
e. Abatiimbaaru	aβa[tíímbááru]	βu[tiímbááru]
f. Abaanchaari	aβa[ántʃaarí]	βu[unʧáárí]
g. Abamera	aβa[mέra]	βo[mεrá]

h. Abakenye	aβa[kέɲε]	βο[kεμέ]
i. Abanyamoongo	aβa[áɲámɔ́ɔ́ŋgɔ]	[ɲaámɔ́ɔ́ŋgɔ]
j. Abasweeta	aβa[swééta]	βu[sweéta]
k. Abaseembete	aβa[séémbété]	βo[seémbété]
l. Abakeroba	aβa[kérooβá]	βο[kerᢒᢒβá]
m. Abahunyaga	aβa[húŋáγa]	βu[huɲáγá]
n. Abatoboori	aβa[tóβoorí]	βο[toβóórí]
o. Ababwaasi	aβa[βwáási]	βu[βwaásí]

Although all these clans speak one mutually intelligible language, slight differences in their discourse has developed. These differences are mainly at the lexical and phonological levels (Muniko et al 1996). The first four clans in (1) live in Kenya and Tanzania, and the rest are found only in Tanzania. The people of each clan live in specific locations that are referred to by a similar name to that of the clan but with the augment missing and a change in the class prefix from  $\beta$ a-/ to  $\beta$ o-/ or  $\beta$ u-/ (see *Location* in 1 above). Previous work in this language used the Butiimbaaru variety (Whiteley 1955) and the Nyabaasi variety (Odden 1987; Cammenga 2004) but the present study will use the Buguumbe variety since this is the one that I speak.

#### 1.2 Previous Research

Previous research on Kuria tone has been limited. Whiteley (1955) was the first formal study of tonal patterns in Kuria. It is generally a study of the verb system in Kuria exploring various shapes of the verb stem and the position of the verb in the sentence. A chapter is devoted to the tonal structure of the verb, and in particular there is an attempt to establish verbal tone classes. Whiteley also looks at phrasal variation of tones and some interrogative patterns. This work presents numerous examples of tone patterns in

different tenses but these tenses are not named and there is little analysis of the data. This work brought to the fore the following aspects of the Kuria tone system: (a) that there are two level tones; high and low, to which may be added a rising tone, (b) the presence of a grammatical tone (Whiteley 1955:103 - 104), as in the minimal pairs in (2).

(2) a. nnaaya[tuníre] "(indeed) I have been looking for (today)"

- Hodiernal Past Progressive Anterior Focused

nnaayá[túníre] "I used to look for (then)"

- Habitual Past Focused

b. naaka[maáhére] "(indeed) I have been looking (today)"

- Hodiernal Past Progressive Anterior Focused

naaká[mááhére] "I used to look (then)"

- Habitual Past Focused

The most recent studies on Kuria tone are Odden (1987) and Cammenga (2004). These two are discussed in Chapter six where both finite and infinitival tone patterns are covered.

Hyman (1989) and Odden (1995) are not entirely on Kuria but they present samples of Kuria data and discuss their theoretical implications. Hyman (1989) presents Kuria tenses that assign H tones to V4 of the stem and shows that this is a problematic case for the metrical framework. One of the funadamental problems in understanding tone is determining what the tone-bearing unit is. Odden (1995) discusses this question and draws examples from Kuria to show that the tone-bearing unit in Kuria is the mora. This is because high tones are assigned by counting moras and not syllables. Another study that is of interest is Rose (2001). This discusses tense and aspect in Kuria. It relies

heavily on Whiteley (1955) and Cammenga (1994), and suggests that the Kuria language is in rapid transition.

#### 1.3 Kuria Tonology

There is general consensus that whereas Bantu languages have a fairly simple nominal tonology, the verbal tonology is fairly complex due to the morphological complexity of the verb. Studies of other Bantu tone systems have revealed some similar characteristics (Clements & Goldsmith 1984; Nurse & Philippson 2003). Below, I briefly discuss two of these characteristics that feature prominently in Kuria tone.

#### 1.3.1 High Tone Spreading

One of the common features in Bantu languages is the phenomenon of tone spreading and/or tone doubling where high tone is copied to the next tone bearing unit under conditions which vary across languages. Usually a high tone will be assigned on a certain position on the verb stem and if there is a sequence of "unassociated" vowels to its left or right then there is a likelihood of this H spreading leftwards or rightwards. For example, Kuria spreads H tones rightward in both bounded and unbounded fashion. In Lunyala, there is leftward spreading (Marlo 2007). As we will see in chapter three and four, spreading plays a major role in the surface tonal patterns in Kuria.

#### 1.3.2 Non-Finality

Non-finality is a general tendency to avoid H tones at the end of certain phonological structures. The structures could be the intonational phrase (IP), phonological phrase, or the word. In Kuria, the effect of non-finality is clearly evident in

verbs that have five vowels or more on the stem. In such verbs, the high tone spreads up to the penult, ignoring the final vowel. For example, in *mbaa[kóóndókóóje]* "(indeed) they uncovered (then)", all the vowels in the stem have a high tone except the last one.

#### 1.4 Basic Surface Tones

Kuria is has two basic surface tones, high (H) and low (L) (Whiteley 1955; Odden 1987; Cammenga 2004), as illustrated in (3) below. The following conventions are used in marking these tones: high tone is marked by an acute accent (') and low tones are unmarked.

(3) a. oko[róma] "to bite" b. oko[βérékerá] "to call"

#### 1.4.1 Downdrift

Kuria also exhibits downdrift, a phenomenon which lowers the pitch of a high tone after a low tone. The presence of the L tone between two H tones triggers a downward shift in tonal register. The process of downdrift is considered to be automatic in that, given any sequence of tones, every high after a low is always a step lower than the preceding high. For example, in (4), the final H tone in  $oko[\beta\acute{e}r\acute{e}ker\acute{a}]$  "to call" is lower than the first H tone.

(4) /o - ko -  $\beta$ ereker - a/  $\rightarrow$  oko[ $\beta$ érékerá] "to call" a - im - call - fv

The tones in (4) can be graphically represented as in Figure 1.2 below.

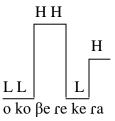


Figure 1.2: oko[βérékerá] "to call"

## **1.4.2 Downstep**

Another phenomenon found in Kuria, which is similar to downdrift, is downstep. Odden (1987) refers to this as a "mid tone". Where appropriate, I use macron (–) when making reference to Odden's "mid", otherwise I will refer to this tone as a downstep. The examples in (5) show mid tone.

The rule producing the mid tone is optional. When it fails to apply, a rising tone is realized. This is represented by an inverted circumflex accent ( `).

Downstep is a kind of register lowering that can be defined as a drop in pitch which occurs on the second of two adjacent high tones. The second tone is therefore produced at a pitch lower than the first one, without reaching the level of a low tone. There is general consensus that a downstep is conditioned by a floating low tone occurring between two high tones (Welmers 1973, Schuh 1978, Hyman 1979, Pulleyblank 1983, Stewart 1983, Huang 1985, Clark 1993, Snider 1999, Connell 2001, Yip 2002). Downdrift seems to be the basis of downstep, with the L that is conditioning downdrift detached. Downstepped high is always non-initial in Kuria, that is, it never occurs word or phrase-initially. It will be marked by a raised exclamation mark followed by a H ( ¹á ).

(7) /o - ko - terek - a/ 
$$\rightarrow$$
 oyo[téré<sup>!</sup>ká] "to brew" a - im - brew - fv

The rising and falling of the tones in (7) is graphically represented in Figure 1.3.

Figure 1.3: ογο[tέτέ<sup>!</sup>ká] "to brew"

One characteristic of a downstepped high is that it sets a new pitch ceiling for all subsequent high tones. In other words, subsequent high tones do not rise above the height of the downstepped. The fact that the pitch level of the downstepped high and the following high tones stays level has been used to argue that the downstepped high cannot

be interpreted as a mid tone (Yip 2002). A mid tone can be followed by a high tone, but a high after a downstepped high will be at the same level.

#### 1.4.3 Downglide

Kuria also distinguishes between a final low tone that falls (downglides) [ \_ ] and a final L that does not fall [ \_ ]. Downglide is a phenomenon where a L at the end of a verb or before a pause receives extra lowering, that is, L becomes superlow. When there are two or more low toned vowels at the end of a verb, the last vowel falls or downglides. Following Pulleyblank (1986), I assume that if a floating tone occurs after a sequence of low tones at the end of a verb, it serves to stabilize their level but if they are not followed by a floating tone, downglide occurs. I therefore consider a downglide as an allotone of a low tone. I will mark a downglide with a grave accent ( ` ).

## (8) Madatory Imperative

a. [koondókorà] "open!"

b. [turuúŋanà] "welcome!"

## Hortatory Imperative (2)

c. ta[káraaŋgà] "(do) fry"

d. ta[táándorà] "(do) tear"

#### 1.4.4 Contour Tones

I will consider each written vowel to be a tone bearing unit (TBU). When only one of two consecutive vowels in a long syllable is marked for high tone, the syllable bears a contour. The rising contour (LH) is common in long syllables in Kuria.

(9) a. βakaraáŋgε "that they (may) fry" (LH) Subjunctive
 b. too[γaiγoóje] "we have just opened them-7" (LH) Immediate Past Anterior

The dialect studied by Odden (1987), Nyabaasi, has a falling contour (HL) but the Buguumbe dialect does not have a falling tone contour. When both vowels bear the same tone marking, the syllable is pronounced with one pitch.

(10) a. uku[β**í**má] "to measure" (HH) b. ογο[káɾ**aa**ŋgá] "to fry" (LL)

#### 1.5 Organization

The remaining six chapters are organized as follows: Chapter two presents Kuria verbal morphology. This isolates the inflectional and derivational morphemes so as to show the internal structure of the verb. Another important issue accounted for in this chapter is the process of imbrication.

Chapter three looks at tones in the affirmative verbs using a vowel count approach. The tone patterns of twenty two simple affirmative tenses and the infinitive verbs are discussed. This chapter reveals that Kuria has a rich and complex tense system. The issue of opacity is addressed in the analysis of vowel-initial verbs and verbs with first person singular object prefix. I present evidence to show that the macrostem domain is phrasal.

Chapter four shows the strategies that Kuria uses for negation and accounts for tonal patterns in the /ta-/ and /te-/ negative tenses. It is in this chapter that a complete list of ITAR and spreading rules is given.

The fifth chapter is about reduplication in Kuria. The basic principles of segmental reduplication are illustrated, and the assignment of tone in reduplicated forms is discussed. I demonstrate that a reduplicated verb is not any different from an unreduplicated verb in as far as tone is concerned.

Chapter six discusses provides a summary of Odden (1987) and Cammenga (2004). Odden uses a vowel count approach while Cammenga uses a tonal melody approach. A comparison between the two analyses is made and differences are noted.

The last chapter gives a concluding summary for all the chapters, notes issues of theoretical interest encountered in the study, and makes suggestions for future research.

#### **Chapter Two**

#### **Segmental Phonology and Morphology**

#### 2. Introduction

This chapter provides a basic phonology of the Kuria language together with a descriptive sketch of its verbal morphology. It is not the intention of this chapter to provide a complete grammar of Kuria. Its purpose is to describe some segmental forms and processes that the reader needs to be aware of. A detailed segmental account is found in Cammenga (2004).

First, I will briefly examine Kuria segmental inventory, syllable structure, phonological processes, and the noun class system. Next, I will turn to verbal morphology where I will identify and describe the morphemes that are found in the Kuria verb. Lastly, I will discuss the phenomenon of imbrication.

#### 2.1 Segmental Phonology

This section identifies the consonants and vowels found in the language. It also looks at the issue of vowel length, covers some basic phonological processes, and describes the types of syllables found in this language.

#### 2.1.1 Consonants

The consonant segments of the Kuria sound system are set out in Table 2.1. They are adapted from Cammenga (2004) with slight modifications. The consonant segments in square brackets [] are not found underlyingly, they are derived.

Table 2.1: Consonants

	Bilabial	Alveolar	Palatal	Velar	Glottal
Stops oral		/t/		/k/	
prenasalized	[mb]	[nt] [nd]		[ŋk] [ŋg]	
Affricates oral			/ <b>t</b> ∫/		
prenasalized			[nt∫]		
Fricatives oral	/β/	/s/		/γ/	/h/
prenasalized		[ns]			
Nasals	/m/	/n/	/n/	/ŋ/	
Trill		[rr]			
Flap		/ <b>r</b> /			
Glides	[w]		[j]		

The basic system consists of twelve consonants /t, k, s,  $\mathfrak{f}$ , h,  $\beta$ ,  $\gamma$ , m, n,  $\mathfrak{g}$ ,  $\mathfrak{g}$ , and  $\mathfrak{g}$ /
which comprise two voiceless stops; t and k, one affricate;  $\mathfrak{f}$ , four fricatives; s, h,  $\beta$  and  $\gamma$ ,
with s and h voiceless and  $\beta$  and  $\gamma$  voiced; four nasals; m, n,  $\mathfrak{g}$  and  $\mathfrak{g}$ , and one flap;  $\mathfrak{g}$ .

The language has a fair share of allophones. For example, [w] and [j] are positional variants of the high vowels /u/ and /i/ respectively. The two sets of sounds are in complementary distribution; glides occurring before vowels and the high vowels occurring before consonants or at the end of words. Also, the prenasalized consonants [mb], [nd], and [ng] only occur as allophones of the voiced continuants / $\beta$ /, /r/, and / $\gamma$ / respectively, when these are preceded by a nasal. Thus, [mb] and / $\beta$ / in (1a,b), [ng] and / $\gamma$ / in (1c,d), [nd] and /r/ in (1e,f), are in complementary distribution.

(1) 
$$N + \beta \rightarrow /mb/$$

a. /o - ko - 
$$\gamma aN\beta$$
 - a/  $\rightarrow$  oko[ $\gamma a mba$ ] "to speak" a - im - speak - fv

b. /o - ko - 
$$\gamma a \beta$$
 - a/  $\rightarrow$  oko[ $\gamma \acute{a} \beta a$ ] "to share" a - im - share - fv

$$N + \gamma \to / \eta g /$$

c. /o - ko - raN
$$\gamma$$
 - a/  $\rightarrow$  oko[ráángá] "to long for" a - im - long for - fv

d. /o - ko - ray - a/ 
$$\rightarrow$$
 oko[ráya] "to predict" a - im - predict - fv

$$N + r \rightarrow /nd/$$

e. /o - ko - s
$$\epsilon$$
Nr - a/  $\rightarrow$  oyo[s $\epsilon$ éndá] "to escort unhurriedly" a - im - escort - fv

f. /o - ko - sɛr - a/ 
$$\rightarrow$$
 oyo[sɛ́ra] "to deride, slight" a - im - deride - fv

### **2.1.2 Vowels**

Kuria has fourteen vowels, with seven contrasting qualities occurring in long and short pairs.

Table 2.2: Short Vowels

Table 2.3: Long vowels

	front	central	back		front	central	back
	unrounded		rounded		unrounded		rounded
high	i		u	high	ii		uu
mid	e		0	mid	ee		00
mid	3		Э	mid	33		၁၁
low		a		low		aa	

Long vowels can be either phonemic or derived. An example of the phonemic status of vowel length is seen in the minimal pair in (2).

Vowels that are underlyingly long can occur in any non-final position of the word.

Derived vowel length arises in Kuria by compensatory lengthening. In such cases, vowels are predictably long in the following two environments:

```
    (3) a. after glide formation has occurred (see §2.1.4.2 for details).
    e.g. /o - ko - i - rom - a/ → ukwi[íróma] "to bite oneself" a - im - rf - bite - fv
    b. before prenasalized stops (see §2.1.4.3 for details)
    e.g /o - ko - riNγ - a/ → uku[rííŋgá] "to fold" a - im - fold - fv
```

## 2.1.3 Diphthongs

Kuria has a number of diphthongs underlyingly but many of these appear as glide-vowel sequences on the surface. Here are a few examples.

d. /ue/ /o - ko - 
$$\gamma$$
uem - a/  $\rightarrow$  uku[ $\gamma$ wéémá] "to hunt" a - im - hunt - fv

e. /ui/ /o - ko - tui/  $\rightarrow$  u $\gamma$ u[twí] "ear" a - cp15 - ear

There are only three surface diphthongs in Kuria. These have a low or mid vowel followed by a high vowel.

# **2.1.4** Basic Phonological Processes

The phonological processes described in this section are the ones that will feature in the examples used in this dissertation. They are however not the focus of this study.

## 2.1.4.1 Dahl's Law

This is a process of consonant voicing dissimilation named after Edmund Dahl. Besides Kuria, this process has been attested in a number of Eastern Bantu languages such as Nyamwezi, Kikuyu, Luhya, Gusii, Embu, Kamba, and Tharaka (Bennett 1967). Synchronically, the state of Dahl's law varies in each of the languages stated above. In Kuria, this law applies across a morpheme boundary and it voices voiceless velar consonants before other voiceless consonants. The voicing dissimilation rule is formulated in (6).

(6) Dahl's law

$$\begin{array}{c}
C \\
-\text{voice} \\
+\text{back}
\end{array}$$

The rule provides for a  $k\sim\gamma$  and  $\eta k\sim\eta g$  alternation. It affects words which have a voiceless velar in the class prefix. These are found in noun classes 7, 12, and 15 (see Table 2.4).

(7) Before voiceless initial stems

(a) /e - ke - k
$$\epsilon$$
βi/  $\rightarrow$  e $\gamma$ e[k $\epsilon$ βi] "a knife" a - cp7 - knife

(b) /a - ka - seese/ 
$$\rightarrow$$
 aya[séésé] "a small dog" a - cp12 - dog

$$I/o$$
 - ko - teremek - a/  $\rightarrow$  oγo[térémeká] "to be calm" (class 15) a - im - be calm - fv

(8) Before voiced initial stems

(a) /e - ke - 
$$\beta a \gamma \sigma$$
/  $\rightarrow$  eke[ $\beta a \gamma \sigma$ ] "hoe" a - cp7 - hoe

(b) 
$$/a$$
 -  $ka$  -  $meeri/ \rightarrow aka[mééri]$  "a small ship"  $a$  -  $cp12$  -  $ship$ 

(c) /o - ko - 
$$\beta$$
iim - a/  $\rightarrow$  uku[ $\beta$ íímá] "to measure" (class 15) a - im - measure - fv

### 2.1.4.2 Glide Formation

When two vowels are brought together, several outcomes are possible: glide formation, diphthongization, assimilation, or elision. In Kuria, glide formation occurs when a high vowel (/u/ or /i/) preceds another vowel.

### (9) Glide Formation Rule

A high vowel followed by another vowel is realized as a non-syllabic glide.

Glide formation normally triggers compensatory lengthening of the following vowel. The following examples illustrate both glide formation and compensatory lengthening.

(10) a. /o - ko - 
$$\gamma$$
uem - a/  $\rightarrow$  uku[ $\gamma$ wéémá] "to hunt" b. /o - ko -  $\beta$ iar - a/  $\rightarrow$  uku[ $\beta$ jáárá] "to give birth (animals)" a - im - give birth - fv

In (10a), the high vowel /u/ changes to the glide /w/ and the following vowel, /e/, is lengthened. Similarly, in (10b), the high vowel /i/ changes into the glide /j/ and the following vowel, /a/, is lengthened. The underlying representation for the verbs in (10) will be justified after looking at the forms in (11).

(11) a. 
$$/i\beta$$
 - a/  $\rightarrow$  [ $i\beta a$ ] "steal!" Mandatory Imperative steal - fv

b.  $/o$  - ko -  $i\beta$  - a/  $\rightarrow$  ukwi[ $i\beta a$ ] "to steal" Infinitive a - im - steal - fv

c. /o - ko - 
$$\beta$$
iim - a/  $\rightarrow$  uku[ $\beta$ íímá] "to measure" Infinitive a - im - measure - fv

In (11a) there is a vowel-initial verb without affixes. In (11b), the infinitival prefix is added, bringing the vowel from the verb root and that from the infinitival marker into proximity. Vowel raising takes place making the vowels in the augment and the infinitive marker high. The high vowel of the infinitival marker and the first vowel on the root meet the structural conditions for glide formation. The vowel on the infinitival marker turns into a glide and triggers lengthening in the next vowel. A contrast is provided in (11c) where no glide is formed because the verb root starts with a consonant.

If glide formation occurs word finally, that is, right before the final vowel, compensatory lengthening does not take place.

#### 2.1.4.3 Prenasalization

This involves a sequence of a nasal followed by a consonant. This study holds that such a sequence in Kuria constitutes a single derived consonant. In Kuria, as in many Bantu languages, vowels are lengthened if they occur before prenasalized stops. A lengthening rule is formulated in (13).

$$(13) V \rightarrow [+long]/\_NC$$

There are seven types of prenasalized consonants listed in Table 1.1. These are exemplified in (14) below. They also illustrate lengthening of a vowel preceding a prenasalized consonant.

$$(14) \ a. \ /mb/ \qquad /o - ko - saN\beta - a/ \qquad \rightarrow \qquad o\gammao[sáámbá] \qquad \text{``to burn''} \\ a - im - burn - fv \qquad \qquad omo[ónto] \qquad \text{``person''} \\ b. \ /nt/ \qquad /o - mo - Nto/ \qquad \rightarrow \qquad omo[ónto] \qquad \text{``person''} \\ c. \ /nd/ \qquad /o - ko - \gamma \epsilon Nr - a/ \qquad \rightarrow \qquad oko[\gamma \epsilon \epsilon ndá] \qquad \text{``to walk''} \\ a - im - walk - fv \qquad \qquad oko[\gamma \epsilon \epsilon ndá] \qquad \text{``to walk''} \\ d. \ /nk/ \qquad /o - ko - \gamma \epsilon Nk \qquad - a/ \rightarrow \qquad oko[\gamma \epsilon \epsilon ndá] \qquad \text{``to disparage''} \\ a - im - disparage - fv \qquad \qquad ee[ngáámbá] \qquad \text{``way of speaking''} \\ e. \ /ng/ \qquad /eN - \gamma aN\beta a/ \qquad \rightarrow \qquad ee[ngáámbá] \qquad \text{``way of speaking''} \\ a - speak \qquad \qquad \rightarrow \qquad ii[nswí] \qquad \text{``fish''} \\ a - fish \qquad \qquad \qquad oko[háántfá] \qquad \text{``to like''} \\ a - im - like \qquad - fv \qquad \qquad oko[háántfá] \qquad \text{``to like''} \\ \end{cases}$$

After prenasalization has brought together a nasal and an obstruent (non-nasal) to form one phoneme, a process of assimilation occurs. Such a sequence becomes homorganic. The nasal assumes the place of articulation of the following consonant. The symbol N in the examples in (14) denotes a nasal unspecified for place of articulation. As seen in (14), /N/ is subject to applicable nasal rules. If the unspecified nasal is followed by a consonant, it assimilates to the place of articulation of the consonant and the

sequence surfaces as a prenasalized consonant: [mb] labial, [nd], [ns] or [ntʃ] coronal, or [nk], [ng] velar.

### 2.1.4.4 Vowel Coalescence

Vowel coalescence is a phonological process in which two consecutive vowels of different quality merge into one, often a long one. Vowels that coalesce come to be adjacent to each other because the morphemes they belong to have been joined or because they occur at the end and beginning of adjacent words. In some cases, the resulting vowel is not identical to any of the original vowels. An illustration follows in (15).

$$(15)$$
 o + a  $\rightarrow$  33

b. /o - ko - a
$$\gamma$$
 - a/  $\rightarrow$  oko[ $\delta \gamma a$ ] "to weed" a - im - weed - fv

$$(16)$$
 o +  $\mathfrak{I} \rightarrow \mathfrak{I}\mathfrak{I}$ 

a. /o - ko - ɔnɔm - a/ 
$$\rightarrow$$
 okɔ[ɔ́nɔ́!má] "to squat" a - im - squat - fv

b. /o - ko - 
$$\circ\beta$$
 oh - a/  $\rightarrow$  ok $\circ[\delta\beta\delta']$ há] "to fear" a - im - fear - fv

# 2.1.4.5 Vowel Raising

There are many instances of vowel raising in Kuria. In one case, a high vowel on the stem causes mid vowels in the prefix to become high.

(17) a. /o - ko - 
$$\beta$$
iim - a/  $\rightarrow$  uku[ $\beta$ íímá] "to measure" a - im - measure - fv

b. /o - ko - sukur - a/  $\rightarrow$  u $\gamma$ u[súkú!rá] "to rub" a - im - rub - fv

Vowel raising also applies to subject prefixes. If the stem has a high vowel, the subject prefix also gets a high vowel (18a-b), but if the stem has non-high vowels then the prefix also remains non-high (18c).

(18) Subjunctive

a. /o - 
$$\beta$$
iim -  $\epsilon$ /  $\rightarrow$  u[ $\beta$ iim $\epsilon$ ] "that you (may) measure"

b. /o - sukur -  $\epsilon$ /  $\rightarrow$  u[sukur $\epsilon$ ] "that you (may) rub"

c. /o - heetok -  $\epsilon$ /  $\rightarrow$  o[heetók $\epsilon$ ] "that you (may) remember"

sm - remember - fv

Vowel raising can also be triggered by the causative extension, /-i/. This suffix causes stem vowels and preceding prefix vowels to raise to high vowels. These raised vowels may in turn raise vowels preceding them. Subsequently, the causative /-i/ becomes a glide.

Lower mid vowels,  $\langle \epsilon \rangle$  and  $\langle 0 \rangle$ , will raise to upper-mid vowels,  $\langle \epsilon \rangle$  and  $\langle 0 \rangle$ , respectively when they are followed by a high vowel.

(21) a. ογο[tέτέ!ká] "to brew"

(22) a. oko[γ55tá] "to hold"

b. /o - ko - 
$$\gamma$$
o>t - i - a/  $\rightarrow$  oko[ $\gamma$ óótjá] "to cause to hold" a - im - hold - cau - fv

# 2.1.4.6 Vowel Lowering

This applies within the stem and lowers a high vowel to an upper-mid vowel when the high vowel is followed by a mid vowel. This process is triggered by extensions such as the applicative /-er/, the stative /-ek/, and the reversives /-or/ and /-ok/ (Chacha & Odden 1998). This is regressive lowering because it applies to vowels preceding the trigger vowels.

(23) a. uku[βíímá] "to measure"

b. /o - ko - βiim - er - a/ 
$$\rightarrow$$
 oko[βéémérá] "to measure for" a - im - measure - ap - fv

(24) a. uku[βúna] "to break"

b. /o - ko - βun - ek - a/ 
$$\rightarrow$$
 oko[βóné<sup>!</sup>ká] "to be broken" a - im - break - st - fv

Vowel lowering can also be progressive. This happens in derived verbs. If the stem has lower-mid vowels and the extensions have upper-mid vowels, the vowels of the extensions are lowered to lower-mid vowels.

For a detailed discussion of vowel processes in Kuria, see Cammenga (2004).

# 2.1.5 Syllable Structure

Kuria is a Bantu language with a predominantly CV syllable structure. This syllable is composed of an onset, which may be any consonant of the language, and a vowel.

(26) Mandatory Imperative

The CV type syllable is also formed with prenasalized consonants. As shown in Table 2.1, Kuria has many consonants of this kind. These syllables are formed by a nasal-obstruent-vowel sequence. In the examples drawn from the Mandatory Imperative in (27), /-mba/, /-nga/, and /-nda/ are syllables with prenasalized consonants.

(27) a. 
$$/saN\beta$$
 - a/  $\rightarrow$  [saa.mbá] "burn!" burn - fv

It is possible to have a syllable with a consonant-glide cluster as onset. If a consonant is followed by two vowels, and the first vowel happens to be a high vowel /i/ or /u/, it will surface as a glide [j] or [w] respectively (see Glide Formation rule in §2.1.4.2).

(28) a. /o - ko - 
$$\gamma$$
or - i - a/  $\rightarrow$  u.ku[ $\gamma$ ú.rjá] "to sell (cause to buy)" a - im - buy - cau - fv

b. /o - ko - tu - a/  $\rightarrow$  u. $\gamma$ u[twá] "be pick" a - im - pick - fv

Syllables consisting of a single vowel occur word-initially. This syllable consists of a vowel nucleus without an onset, as shown in (29).

As discussed in §2.1.2, vowel length in Kuria is distinctive; short vowels contrast with long vowels. A syllable with a short vowel will be referred to as a short syllable; while that with a long vowel or a diphthong will be called a long syllable. The first syllable in each of the verbs in (30) is long.

(30) Mandatory Imperative

a. 
$$/saN\beta$$
 - a/  $\rightarrow$  [saa.mbá] "burn!" burn - fv

**Immediate Past Anterior** 

c. 
$$/\beta a$$
 - a - ihom - er - a/  $\rightarrow$   $\beta ai[hó.mé.ré]$  "they have just dried" sm - t - dry - pf - fv

#### 2.2 Noun Classes

Although this study does not deal directly with nouns, they form a focal point in the grammar of the language because they influence the concordial agreement which is also reflected on the verbs. Nouns in Kuria, as in other Bantu languages, are divided into classes. The nouns canonically consist of three parts: the pre-prefix or augment, the class prefix, and the root. The augment is always a copy of the vowel in the class prefix.

Class 15 hosts noun classes derived from infinitival verbs such as *oko[róma]* "to bite". This study will frequently make reference to this form. Kuria noun classes with their examples are found in Table 2.4. In this system, each noun class is referred to by number.

Table 2.4: Noun Classes

Class	Preprefix	Class prefix	Example	Gloss
Number	(Augment)			
1	0 -	- mo -	omokári	"woman"
2	a -	- βa -	aβakári	"women"
3	0 -	- mo -	omoté	"tree"
4	e -	- me -	emeté	"trees"
5	i -	- ri -	iɾiiγí	"egg"
6	a -	- ma -	amaγí	"eggs"
7	e -	- ke -	eγeénto	"thing"
8	i -	- βi -	iβiínto	"things"
9	e -	Ø	eβatá	"duck"
9a	eN-	Ø	eembéγo	"seed"
10	i -	- t∫i -	iʧἷβátá	"ducks"
10a	i -	- t∫i -	ifiimbéγο	"seeds"
11	0 -	- to -	οτοβάγο	"hedge"
12	a -	- ka -	aγatſúβa	"small bottle"
14	0 -	- βο -	oβokáánó	"sesame seed"
15	0 -	- ko -	oγosóma	"to read"
16	a -	- ha -	ahasé	"a place"
17	Ø	ko -	γuusúkúúri	"in/at school"
18	Ø	mo -	moónse	"inside"
19	i -	- hi -	ihiβέγο	"small seeds"
20	u -	- γu -	uγuʧúβa	"big bottle"

Cammenga (2004)

As can be seen in Table 2.5, the noun class system found in Kuria involves pairs of classes which encode the singular and plural for a given noun. The nouns in singular will get their plural in another class.

Table 2.5: Noun class pairings

Class Number	Singular	Gloss	Pairs	Class Number	Plural	Gloss
1	omoónto	"person"	<b>←</b>	2	aβaánto	"people"
3	omoté	"tree"	<b>←</b>	4	emeté	"trees"
5	iriiγéna	"stone"	1	6	amaγéna amatwí	"stones" "ears"
7	eγeénto	"thing"	<b>←</b>	8	iβiínto	"things"
9	eβatá	"duck"		10	iʧīβátá iʧīimbáγɔ	"ducks" "hedges"
11	οτοβάγο	"hedge"				
12	aγaʧúβa	"small bottle"	X			
15	uγutwí	"ear"	*			
			*	19	ihiʧúβa	"small bottle(s)"

# 2.3 Verbal Morphology

In both the tensed and the non-tensed forms, the *root* is the core of the verb. Most verb roots in Kuria are CVC but other forms also exist. For example, in *oko[róm-a]* "to bite", *rom*- is the root. The minimal verbal structure, however, consists of the root and the final vowel. These are elements which must always be present in the verb. This form can however be extended. This study adopts the terminology in (32) and (33) for the various types of verbal morphemes found in Bantu languages.

(32) Verbal morphemes based on Infinitive

/o - ko - rom - er - an - a/

1 2 3 4 4 5

a - im - bite - ap - rec - fv

oko[róméraná]

"to bite for each other"

- 1. augment / preprefix
- 2. class prefix
- 3. root
- 4. extension
- 5. final vowel

These morphemes occur in a fixed order. The extension is made up of several suffixes (see Table 2.7) which, when added to the root, extend both the form and meaning of the root. The morphemes shown in (32) above can be categorized as follows:

(33) 1 + 2 augmented prefix

1-5 extended verb

3-4 base

3-5 stem

The *augmented prefix* is made up of the augment and the class prefix. The *extended verb* is a verb which has been expanded through affixation. The *base* is made up of the root, and the extension suffixes, without the final vowel. A simple *stem* is made up of the root and the final vowel but a complex stem is composed of the root, extension suffixes, and the final vowel.

Another term that is commonly used in Bantu linguistics is the *macrostem* (see Odden 1998). This is the domain within which high tone alternations are restricted. This is a set of morphological constructions comprising the object marker (when present), the root, extension suffixes, and the final vowel. In this sense, the macrostem is larger than a

regular stem but the minimum macrostem is a stem. To aid in delineating the macrostem, square brackets are used to mark it off from the pre-macrostem domain.

# (34) Macrostem

A hierarchical arrangement (Poletto 1998) in Figure 2.1 will serve to illustrate the position of the macrostem in the verb.

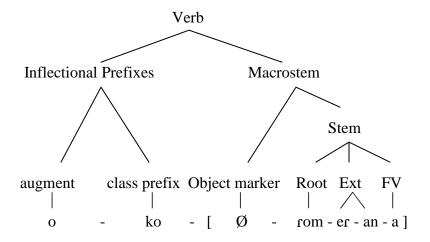


Figure 2.1: oko[róméraná] "to bite for each other"

## 2.3.1 Verbal Structure

## **2.3.1.1 Order of Morphemes**

Kuria, like other Bantu languages, has a complex agglutinating morphology. Whiteley (1955) was the first attempt to examine the Kuria verb in some detail. He postulated the verbal structure in (35).

(35) subject marker – tense – object marker – root – extension suffixes – tense suffix

It is possible to arrange the morphemes of verbs in this language in a strict linear order into slots or position classes. Each of these positions reflects a morphological function. Table 2.6 below shows various structural positions of the Kuria verbal structure as well as elements that fill those slots (Cammenga 2004).

Table 2.6: Kuria Verbal Structure

Pr	Pre-root domain					Root	Pos	t-ro	ot domai	n							
Pre-object domain Object domain					Ext	ensi	on doma	in		Infl	ection	1					
f	n1	sm	n2	t	op	ob	oc	rd	root	inc	st	ap (ap)	rec	cau	t	pas	fv
a		im	-		rf						rt						
											ri						

This structural arrangement can be used in the tensed or non-tensed verb forms. The major subdivisions in Kuria verbal structure are the root, the pre-root domain, and the post-root domain. The most important part is the verbal root (see §2.3.1.2). Table 2.7 contains morphemes that fill the slots in Table 2.6.

Table 2.7: Morphemes and their Functions

Symbol	Terminology	Morpheme	Meaning or Function
f	focus	ne-	"it is", emphasis
a	augment or pre-prefix	0-	prefixed to im
n1	negative marker 1	te-	"not", usually followed by hai
sm	subject marker		
im	infinitive marker	ko-	
n2	negative marker 2	ta-	"not"
t	tense, mood, aspect marker		
om	object markers		

Symbol	Terminology	Morpheme	Meaning or Function
op rf	patient reflexive	i-	expresses reflexiveness or intransitivity
ob	benefactive		·
ос	cause		
rd	reduplication		intensifies the core meaning of the verb
root	verbal root		core meaning of the verb
inc	inchoative suffix	-(V)h	derives deadjectival verbal roots with inchoative or stative meaning
ext	extension		
st	stative	-ek	expresses state, intransitivity, or inchoation
rt	reversive- transitive	-or	changes intransitive core meaning to transitive
ri	reversive- intransitive	-ok	makes meaning intransitive
ap	applicative	-er	may express semantic roles of beneficiary, patient, and recipient
rec	reciprocal	-an	adds the idea of reciprocity
cau	causative	-i	adds the concept of causative
syn	synchronizing	-er-an-i	expresses simultaneity of actions or events
pas	passive marker	<b>-</b> (β)o	passive voice marker
fv	final vowel	-a	marks infinitives and indicative tenses
		-е	marks the perfective
		3-	marks subjunctive
		-i	marks some imbricated verbs

I now proceed to a more elaborate discussion of the verbal elements shown in Table 2.6 and Table 2.7. I will first deal with verb root before turning to the pre-root and post-root morphemes.

#### **2.3.1.2 Verb Root**

The root constitutes the morphological and semantic core of the verb. It is the most basic form of the verb to which affixes may be added. It is made up of an unextended stem minus the final vowel. The verb root cannot be used without a final vowel.

## **Inchoative Suffix /-(V)h/**

The inchoative suffix derives deadjectival verb roots with inchoative or stative meaning (Cammenga 2004:252). They are derived by the allomorphy rule in (36).

Such verbs generally mean "to become, hence to be, the quality expressed by the adjective", or in the perfective tense, "to have become, hence to be, the quality expressed by the adjective". This suffix may be used to express inchoative or stative meaning but the former is more basic.

```
"many"
(37) a. /-aru/
       /o - ko - aru - h - a/
        a - im - many - inc - fv
        oko[órú<sup>!</sup>há]
                                "to become many"
    b. /-roNγe/
                                "straight"
       /o - ko - roN\gamma e - h - a/
        a - im - straight - inc - fv
        oko[róóŋgéhá]
                                "to become straight"
                                "afraid"
    c. /-\beta\beta-/
      /o - ko - 3\beta - 3h - a/
       a - im - afraid - inc - fv
       oko[áβá¹há]
                                "to become afraid"
```

Some verbs are however inherently inchoative, that is, they are not overtly marked as such (see 38).

(38) a. oko[rósa] "to become tired"
b. oko[βóónʧá] "to become thin"
c. ογο[tóβa] "to become cheap, ripe"

# 2.3.2 Pre-Root Morphemes

### 2.3.2.1 Focus

The purpose of the focus morpheme is to give emphasis. Cammenga (2004) gives the focus morpheme as /ne-/. The focus morpheme is usually analyzed as a verbal

element rather than a pre-clitic. While the assertive focus is active in some verbs, as in (39a), it seems to be grammaticalized<sup>1</sup> in certain tenses, as in (39c).

```
(39) a. Assertive Focus
      /ne - βa - a - heetok
      f - sm - t - remember - fv
      focus-they-past-remember-fv
       mβaa[héétóka]
                            "(indeed) they have (already) remembered"
                             (Untimed Past Anterior Focused)
      Versus
   b. Non-assertive
      /βa - a - heetok
       sm - t - remember - fv
       they-past-remember-fy
       Baa[heetóka] "they have (already) remembered" (Untimed Past Anterior)
    c. Grammaticalized
      /ne - βa - aká - heetok
                              - er - e/
      f - sm - t - remember - pf - fv
      focus-they-past-remember-perfective-fv
      mβaaká[héétókére]
                            "they used to remember"
                                                         (Habitual Past Focused)
```

The tense in (39c) does not have a non-assertive equivalent.

### **2.3.2.2 Negation**

There are two ways of marking morphological negation in Kuria. The most common way is by using a single negative marker, /ta-/. This negative morpheme occurs as part of the verb. The order of the morphemes on the verb in (40b) follow the order:

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> The morpheme is present but the focus meaning is lost. Alternative terms are 'fossilized' or 'lexicalized'.

subject marker – negative marker – tense – root – final vowel. In this case, the negative is found between the subject marker and the tense or the object marker, if one is present.

```
(40) a. Remote Future Focused
/ne - βa - re - βereker - a/
f - sm - t - call - fv
focus-they-future-call-fv
mβare[βerekéra] "they will call (then)"
b. Remote Future n2
/βa - ta - re - βereker - a/
sm - n2 - t - call - fv
they-not-future-call-fv
βatare[βerekéra] "they will not call (then)"
```

The affirmative verb in (40a) is focused but the negative verb in (40b) is not focused. A negated verb cannot have a focus morpheme because negation is inherently focused.

Another way of indicating negation in Kuria is by using a double particle negative /te-/ in a pre-initial verbal position followed by a post-verbal *hai*. This strategy employs negatives at different ends of the verb but as a discontinuous constituent (te ... hai). This is similar to what is seen in French (Payne 1985). The second particle serves to reinforce the first one.

```
    (41) a. Remote Future Focused
    /ne - βa - re - rom - a/
    f - sm - t - bite - fv
    focus-they-future-bite-fv
    mβare[ro!má] "they will bite (then)"
```

#### b. Remote Future n1

```
/te - βa - re - rom - a hai/
n1 - sm - t - bite - fv not
not-they-future-bite-fv not
teβáré[róma hái] "they will not bite (then)"
```

#### 2.3.2.3 Infinitive Marker

The infinitive is made up of a pre-prefix or augment, and the class prefix. This is known as the augmented prefix and has a function similar to the English infinitive marker "to". These elements are represented in (42).

# (42) The Infinitive

```
/o - ko - maah - a/
a - im - see - fv
to-see-fv
oko[mááhá] "to see"
```

The augmented prefix marks all verbal nouns. The infinitive verb may be used as a verbal noun without changing its form. Formally, the infinitive is a noun of class prefix 15, marked by the prefix /ko-/. It is usually preceded by the augment (43a) or focus. In complex tenses it is possible for it to appear without the augment or focus.

## Augment

The augment is also called the pre-prefix. It consists of an initial segment before the nominal class prefix. When the infinitive is used as a verbal complement in complex tenses,<sup>2</sup> it is regularly non-augmented and focused, as in (43d). The alternation between

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> These are tenses that have more than one verb e.g. an auxiliary and a main verb. For example, in (43d) *roma* is the main verb and  $\beta are$  is the auxiliary verb.

the augment and the focus suggests that they occupy the same morpheme slot on the verb. Examples follow in (43).

## (43) a. Augmented verb

```
/o - ko - rom - a/
a - im - bite - fv
oko[róma] "to bite"
```

## b. Non-augmented verb

```
/ne - ko - rom - a ke
f - im - bite - fv what
focus-infinitive-bite-fv what
[ŋkoromáke] "what type of biting?"
```

# c. Non-focused infinitive in complex tense

```
/βa - ta - V - re o - ko - rom - a/

sm - n2 - t - be a - im - bite - fv

they-not-past-were-augment-to-bite-fv

[βataare kóromà] "they were not biting (yesterday)"
```

## d. Focused infinitive in complex tense

```
/ne - ko - rom - a βa - re/
f - im - bite - fv sm - be
focus-infinitive-bite-fv they-be
[ηkoromá βáre] "they are biting, they bite"
```

# 2.3.2.4 Subject Marker

This is a morpheme that encodes the subject category on the verb. It provides information about the person, number, and class (see Table 2.4). The subject marker has the following representations for the various morphosyntactic classes.

## b. Non-personal (including classes 1 and 2)

The singular non-personal subject marker may be referred to as 'it', and the plural one as 'they'. The Immediate Past Anterior tense is used in the examples below.

Class	Prefixes	Examples	
1	/a-/	aa[rééntérwé]	"s/he has been brought"

The example in Class 1 above can be segmented as follows:

40

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>3</sup> The lower mid vowel [E] in the root undergoes raising triggered by the perfective suffix.

14	/βo-/	βoo[rééntérwé]	"they have been brought"
15	/ko-/	koo[rééntérwé]	"it has been brought"
16	/ha-/	haa[rééntérwé]	"it has been brought"
19	/hi-/	hii[rééntérwé]	"they have been brought"
20	/γο-/	γοο[rééntérwé]	"it has been brought"

Subject prefixes do not follow the process of consonantal voicing dissimilation known as Dahl's Law (see §2.1.4.1). Dahl's Law is blocked here because applying it would neutralize the voicing distinction between class prefixes. The following subject markers have a contrast in voicing.

In this regard, class 7 will always have /ke-/ as the subject marker as in *kee[témé'rwé]* and not \*yee[témé'rwé] "it has been beaten".

# 2.3.2.5 Object Marker

The following are the underlying forms of the verbal object markers in Kuria arranged according to the noun classes.

### b. Non-personal (including classes 1 and 2)

The example in class 1 above can be segmented as follows:

Dahl's law is at play in the examples in (46) with the object marker consonants acting as the triggers and the velar consonants in the prefix acting as the targets.

A number of objects may be identified according to their semantic roles (47). These are usually encoded on the verb.

A maximum of three object markers may co-occur in one verb form. This only happens in the applicative verb. Here are illustrations:

# (48) a. two objects

patient – benefactive

patient – benefactive

/ne - 
$$\beta a$$
 - re - ke - mo - rom - er - a/  
f - sm - t - om7 - om1 - bite - ap - fv  
op ob  
focus-they-future-it-him-bite-appl-fv  
mbare[kemoróméra] "they will bite it for him"

# b. three objects

patient - cause - benefactive

The order of the object prefixes in (48b) is patient-causee-beneficiary. This contradicts Cammenga (2004: 251), where the order is given as: patient-beneficiary-recipient-causee.

#### 2.3.2.6 Reflexive Prefix /i-/

The reflexive prefix usually expresses an action that is directed back on the subject. In a reflexive verb, the semantic agent and patient are the same. Some verbs containing this prefix are given in (49).

The reflexive may mark the object of a verb. In this case, the reflexive is signified by a verbal prefix which replaces the object agreement marker. In (50a), the object marker precedes the root and in (50b) an reflexive precedes the root.

The reflexive can co-occur with the benefactive object marker as shown in (51).

### 2.3.2.7 Reduplication

This involves total or partial copying of the word or stem. In Kuria, the stem is wholly or partially copied to the left of the input.

(52) a. oyo[tέrέ¹ká] "to brew"

b. ογο[téréteréka] "to brew repeatedly"c. ογο[térékatéréka] "to brew repeatedly"

Reduplication is described in detail in Chapter 5.

## 2.3.3 Tense, Mood and Aspect

Kuria possesses a rich tense system that exhibits a great diversity of forms. In this work, the term "tense" is used in a broad sense that includes not only tense proper, but also aspect and mood (TAM). Tenses appear in two positions in the verb, as prefixes or suffixes. Most of them are prefixes except the perfective /-er/ which is a suffix. This suffix co-occurs with the final vowel /-e/. Because of this division, I discuss tenses separately from pre-root morphemes and extension suffixes.

Tenses in Kuria can generally be grouped into simple versus complex, and affirmative versus negative. Those consisting of one verb form are termed simple tenses (one-word tenses). Concatenations of tenses containing a finite form plus another finite form or an infinitive are called complex or multiple tenses (Whiteley 1955; Cammenga 2002). Complex tenses are not discussed here since they are beyond the scope of this work.

This study adapts the organization of the tenses as presented in Cammenga

(2004). In Kuria, there is a distinct morphology for past, present, and future tenses. It is however possible to make finer distinctions in each of the tenses. These finer distinctions can, for example, be used to indicate degrees of remoteness in time.

#### 2.3.3.1 Present Tense

This refers to a time of an event happening when the utterance is taking place. It therefore covers imperfective situations unless it is used together with the future or the past so as to make clear the futurity of the event or past narrative (Rose, Beaudoin-Lietz, and Nurse 2002).

(53) a. Current (simultaneous with the time referred to)

e.g. /ne - to - ke - karaN
$$\gamma$$
 - er - e/  $\rightarrow$  nto $\gamma$ e[karaángére] "(indeed) we f - sm - t - fry - pf - fv are still frying"

b. Untimed (expressing a fact not related to time)

e.g. /to - karaN
$$\gamma$$
 - a/  $\rightarrow$  to[kárááŋga] "we fry (fact)" sm - fry - fv

### **2.3.3.2** Past Tense

Past tense refers to an activity or event occurring before a point of time that serves as a reference point. Kuria differentiates the following types of past.

(54) a. Immediate (just now)

e.g. /to - a - karaN
$$\gamma$$
 - er - e/  $\rightarrow$  too[karaangére] "we have just sm - t - fry - pf - fv fried"

b. Hodiernal (today)

e.g. /ne - to - aka - karaN
$$\gamma$$
 - er - e/  $\rightarrow$  ntɔɔ $\gamma$ a[karááŋgére] "(indeed) we f - sm - t - fry - pf - fv have been frying (today)"

c. Habitual (extended period of time)

e.g. /ne - to - aka - karaN
$$\gamma$$
 - er - e/  $\rightarrow$  nt>> $\gamma$ á[káráángére] "we used to fry - sm - t - fry - pf - fv fry (then)"

d. Remote (further removed from event i.e. yesterday and earlier)

e.g. /ne - to - a - karaN
$$\gamma$$
 - er - e/  $\rightarrow$  ntoo[káráángére] "(indeed) we f - sm - t - fry - pf - fv fried"

e. Narrative (consecutive and/or subsequent event)

e.g. /to - ká - karaN
$$\gamma$$
 - a/  $\rightarrow$  to $\gamma$ á[káraangá] "(and) we sm - t - fry - fv fried"

f. Anterior (an event which occurred earlier before another, near or recent)

e.g. /ne - to - karaN
$$\gamma$$
 - er - e/  $\rightarrow$  nto[karaángére] "(indeed) we f - sm - fry - pf - fv fried (earlier today)"

### 2.3.3.3 Future Tense

This is a tense category referring to events occurring after the moment of reference. It can have the following distinctions in the simple affirmative in Kuria.

(55) a. Immediate (occurring within a short while)

e.g. /ne - to - raá - karaN
$$\gamma$$
 -  $\epsilon$ /  $\rightarrow$  ntoraá[kárááng $\epsilon$ ] "(indeed) we f - sm - t - fry - fv will fry (now)"

b. Hodiernal (today)

e.g. /to - kaa - karaN
$$\gamma$$
 - a/  $\rightarrow$  to $\gamma$ aa[káraangá] "perhaps $^4$  we sm - t - fry - fv will fry (today)"

c. Remote (far or distant)

e.g. /to - ree - karaN
$$\gamma$$
 - a/  $\rightarrow$  toree[káraaŋgá] "we will fry" sm - t - fry - fv

## 2.3.3.4 Mood and Aspect

Finer gradations in the tenses can further be derived from the interaction of the

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>4</sup> "Perhaps" is not part of the meaning of hodiernal but is implied in the given example.

aspect markers and mood indicators with the tense markers proper. The well known moods are indicative, imperative, and subjunctive. Others are the conditional, ability, and possibility. In Kuria, there is a morphological contrast between the final vowel /-a/ in a verb, marking indicative, and /-ε/, marking the subjunctive. Mood can further be categorized as real time certain or uncertain. Imperatives also convey mood. These can be categorized according to degrees of volition, ranging from a polite request to a command, as permissive, hortatory, and mandatory (Cammenga 2004). Mandatory Imperative and Hortatory Imperative are used in this work, the first referring to a direct command and the second referring to a wish of the speaker. Aspect is reflected through the perfect, imperfect, persistive, habitual, and progressive. The tenses may also be either focused or non-focused as in (55a) and (55b) respectively or timed or untimed.<sup>5</sup>

## 2.3.3.5 Simple Affirmative Tenses

Twenty two simple affirmative tenses (combining tense, aspect, mood, and focus) are considered in this study. These are identified in Table 2.8 by their tense affixes.

Table 2.8: Simple Affirmative Tenses

	Focus	Tense	Terms used in Cammenga (2004)
		Morpheme	
1.		Ø	Untimed present
2.		keer	Current present persistive (archaic)
3.		a	Untimed past anterior

\_

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>5</sup> Timed tenses refer to facts at specific periods of time while untimed tenses express facts non-specifically related to time. Timed tenses are unmarked, so the term "timed" is not used when designating the categories.

	Focus	Tense	Terms used in Cammenga (2004)
		Morpheme	
4.	ne -	a	Untimed past anterior focused
5.	ne -	Øer	Hodiernal past anterior focused
6.		aer	Immediate past anterior
7.	ne -	akaer	Hodiernal past progressive anterior focused
8.	ne -	aer	Remote past focused
9.		ká	Narrative past
10.	ne -	akáer	Habitual past focused
11.	ne -	raá	Immediate future focused
12.		kaa	Hodiernal future uncertain possibility
13.		ree	Remote future
14.	ne -	re	Remote future focused
15.		3	Subjunctive
16.		ta	Hortatory imperative (1)
17.		Ø	Hortatory imperative (2)
18.		ra	Hortatory imperative (3)
19.		Ø	Mandatory imperative
20.	ne -	kaa	Untimed ability focused
21.	ne -	Ø	Untimed real uncertain condition focused
22.		kaaer	Untimed past anterior condition

A detailed discussion of the tonal patterns of the affirmative tenses appears in Chapter three.

# 2.3.4 Post-Root Morphemes

The minimal verbal structure consists of the root and the final vowel. This minimal structure may be extended through suffixation of extension affixes, and the final vowel. Extension is a process that adds to the root both morphologically and semantically. The extension affixes are listed in (56).

# (56) Extension Affixes

a. /-ek/	stative (st)
b. /-or/	reversive-transitive (rt)
c. /-ok/	reversive-intransitive (ri)
d. /-er/	applicative (ap)
e. /-an/	reciprocal (rec)
f. /-i/	causative (cau)
g. /-erani/	synchronizing (syn)
h. /-(β)o/	passive suffix (pas)

The order in which the extension suffixes occur is fixed, as shown in Table 2.9.

Table 2.9: Order of extension suffixes

root	st, rt, ri	ap	rec	cau	pas
	-ek	-er (-er)	-an	-i	-(β)o
	-Of				
	-ok				

The suffixes (st) /-ek-/, (rt) /-or-/, and (ri) /-ok-/ are grouped together as (st, rt, ri) in Table 2.9 because they are mutually exclusive semantically. They never co-occur.

#### 2.3.4.1 Stative Suffix /-ek/

This suffix has inchoative or stative, and sometimes intransitive, meaning. It is also known as the agentless passive. It is used when the speaker wants to avoid naming the agent of the action or if the agent is unknown to the speaker. It adds to the core meaning of the root the semantic element of "becoming" or "entering into a state".

```
    (57) a. /sɔm-/ "read"
    /o - ko - sɔm - ek - a/
a - im - read - st - fv
oyo[sɔ́mɛ́!ká] "to be legible"
    b. /βun-/ "break"
    /o - ko - βun - ek - a/
a - im - break - st - fv
oko[βóné!ká] "to be broken"
```

# 2.3.4.2 Reversive-transitive /-or/

The reversive-transitive changes the meaning of the verb into its semantic opposite. It makes the verb meaning transitive, that is, any intransitive meaning is converted to a transitive one. It does not appear to be very productive because it is not found in many verbs.

```
/o - ko - raNr - or - a/
a - im - creep - rt - fv
oko[ráándórá] "to pull off (e.g. vines)" (vt)
```

The examples in (58) above clearly show that there is a reversal of the core meaning of the root; "to creep" becomes "to pull off". This is a shift from intransitive to transitive.

#### 2.3.4.3 Reversive-intransitive /-ok/

The reversive-intransitive reverses the meaning of the root into its semantic opposite and makes the core meaning intransitive. Just like the reversive-transitive, it does not appear to be very productive.

```
(59) a. /\text{ri}\beta-/
                                 "close, block"
       /o - ko - ri\beta - a/
        a - im - block - fv
        uku[ríβa]
                                 "to block" (vt)
       /o - ko - ri\beta - ok - a/
        a - im - block - ri - fv
                                 "to become open for use", "to have a hole through" (vi)
        oko[réβó¹ká]
                                 "fold"
    b. /riNγ-/
       /o - ko - riN\gamma - a/
        a - im - fold - fv
        uku[rííŋgá]
                                 "to fold" (vt)
      /o - ko - riNγ - ok - a/
       a - im - fold - ri - fv
       oko[rééngóká]
                                 "to unfold by itself" (vi)
```

# 2.3.4.4 Applicative Suffix /-er/

This suffix adds one argument to the verb. The additional argument is an applied object. It expresses a host of meanings which are conveyed by means of prepositions in English. It may express various semant attern ctic roles. First, it is used to express the benefactive, as in (60).

The suffix may also have the instrumental sense "by means of", that is, using something as an instrument to do another thing, as in (61).

```
    (61) a. /o - ko - kεβ - er - a e - ke - kεβi/
        a - im - cut - ap - fv a - cp7 - knife
        oyo[kέβέτα éγékέβi] "to cut with a knife"
    b. /o - ko - ke - kεβ - er - a/
        a - im - om7 - cut - ap - fv
        oyo[kékέβετά] "to cut it-7 with", "to cut it-7 for"
```

The applicative in the verb in (61b) is ambiguous; it may express either an instrumental or a beneficiary.

The applicative suffix may be reduplicated to express "intensity and/or duration of action" (Cammenga 2004:261).

```
(62) a. /o - ko - βin - er - er - a/
a - im - sing - ap - ap - fv
oko[βénéérra] "to keep on singing"
b. /o - ko - tεm - er - er - a/
a - im - beat - ap - ap - fv
oyo[téméérra] "to hammer into, to pound"
```

This phenomenon that expresses an action or state perceived as lasting for some length of time has been referred to as durative aspect (Rose et al 2002). The examples in (62) also show that reduplication of the applicative suffix introduces semantic specialization and causes total or partial loss of the original meaning. In these examples, the prepositional concept of the verbs is missing and the concept of intensity has totally taken over.

Sometimes the reduplication of the applicative makes the verb have the meaning of "something being done at the expense of another". This malefactive meaning is relayed in (63b).

```
    (63) a. /o - ko - sɛk - er - a/
        a - im - laugh - ap - fv
        oγo[sɛ́kɛ́¹rá] "to laugh for"
    b. /o - ko - sɛk - er - er - a/
        a - im - laugh - ap - ap - fv
        oγo[sɛ́kɛ́ɛ́rra] "to laugh at"
```

# 2.3.4.5 Reciprocal Suffix /-an/

The suffix /-an/ usually expresses the concept of reciprocal action; that is, an action is performed by two or more subjects on one another. Reciprocal verbs require more than one agent, and the agents are patients of each other's actions. Examples follow in (64).

```
(64) a. /o - ko - tɛm - an - a/
a - im - beat - rec - fv
oyo[tɛ́ma¹ná] "to beat each other"
b. /o - ko - βiim - an - a/
a - im - measure - rec - fv
uku[βíímáná] "to measure each other"
```

#### 2.3.4.6 Causative Suffix /-i/

The causative extension also increases the valency of the verb by one. This suffix shows that somebody (or something) causes someone (or something) else to do something.

```
a. /o - ko - sɛk - i - a/
a - im - laugh - cau - fv
oyo[sɛ́kjá] "to cause to laugh"
b. /o - ko - βa - βiim - i - a/
a - im - om2 - measure - cau - fv
oko[βáβiimjá] "to cause them to measure"
```

The usage in (65a) above shows that a causative makes an intransitive meaning become transitive.

The causative suffix has become lexicalized in some verbs in Kuria. For example, the glide in the verb [sookjá] "finish" is the causative of a verb \*[sooká] (Sillery 1936) which no longer exists in the language. Also, the verb [riisjá] "to herd cattle" looks like it has a causative, but there is no basic verb \*[riisá].

# 2.3.4.7 Synchronizing Suffix /-erani/

The applicative, the reciprocal, and the causative join together to form the synchronizing suffix. When they occur together they express simultaneity of the action expressed by the core meaning of the root and some other action or event. The combination of the morphemes has an idiosyncratic, non-compositional meaning. Examples follow in (66).

# **2.3.4.8 Passive Suffix /-(β)o/**

The passive extension is used when the agent is "demoted" to an oblique position and the object is promoted to the subject role. It has two allomorphs which can be accounted for as in (67)

## (67) Passive Allomorphy rule

a. 
$$-\beta o / [-cons]$$
 \_\_\_\_  
b.  $-o / [+cons]$  \_\_\_\_

This allomorphy rule stipulates that after a vowel, the passive voice marker is /- $\beta$ o/, and after a consonant, the form /-o/ is used. In both cases the vowel /o/ surfaces as a glide [w].

```
    (68) a. /o - ko - rom - o - a/
        a - im - bite - pas - fv
        oko[rómwá] "to be bitten"
    b. /o - ko - ογi - βο - a/
        a - im - clean - pas - fv
        oko[όγί!βwá] "to be cleaned"
```

# 2.3.4.9 /-ar/ Suffix

An /-ar/ suffix also occurs in Kuria (Cammenga 2004). It appears in verbs such as the following.

```
(69) a. /tiγ-/
                                 "leave"
       /o - ko - tiy - a/
        a - im - leave - fv
                                 "to leave"
        uγu[tíγa]
       /o - ko - ti\gamma - ar - a/
        a - im - leave - ar - fv
        uyu[tíyá¹rá]
                                 "to leave behind"
                                 "fold"
    b. /riNγ-/
       /o - ko - riN\gamma - a/
        a - im - fold - fv
        uku[rííngá]
                                 "to fold"
       /o - ko - riN\gamma - ar - er - a/
        a - im - fold - ar - ap - fv
                                 "to frown, to be wrinkled"
        uku[rííŋgáárra]
```

According to Cammenga, the basic meaning of this element is "to be in, or to enter into, a state", usually detransitivising the core meaning of the root. It is not a very productive suffix. Sometimes it occurs together with the applicative suffix, as in (69b).

### **2.3.4.10 Final Vowel**

This occurs in the verb-final slot. The final vowel /-a/ occurs in indicative tenses, in the infinitives, and some imperatives (70a-c). The final vowel /-ɛ/ occurs in the subjunctive and the Immediate Future Focused (71d-e). The final vowel /-e/ co-occurs with the perfective suffix /-er/, and /-i/ is found in imbricated verbs (70h-i).

(70) a. oko[róma]	"to bite"	Infinitive
b. ta[róma]	"(do) bite!"	Hortatory Imperative (2)
c. βaká[róma]	"(and) they bit"	Narrative Past
, -	"that they (may) bite" "(indeed) they will bite (now)"	Subjunctive Immediate Future Focused
,	"they have just bitten" e] "they used to bite (then)"	Immediate Past Anterior Habitual Past Focused
	"they have just bitten each other" ]"they have just welcomed"	Immediate Past Anterior Immediate Past Anterior

#### **2.3.5 Clitics**

After the final vowel, the verb may be followed by clitics such as /-hɔ/, /-kɔ/, and /-mɔ/. These clitics express the location or direction of an action or event. They refer to noun classes 16, 17 and 18 respectively and have the specific meanings in (71).

```
(71) a. /hɔ/ "on, at"
b. /kɔ/ "there"
c. /mɔ/ "in, inside, in there"
```

Although these morphemes have syntactic characteristics of a word, they cannot stand alone. They attach to other words and carry tone, as illustrated in (72).

```
(72) a. /o - ko - \gamma \epsilon N_{\Gamma} - a/
        a - im - walk - fv
                                 "to walk"
        oko[γέέndá]
    b. /o - ko - γεNr - a ko/
        a - im - walk - fv loc17
                                 "to walk on (it)"
        oko[γέέndák5]
    c. /o - ko - \gamma \epsilon N r - a mo/
        a - im - walk - fv loc18
        oko[γέέndám5]
                                 "to walk in there"
    d. /o - ko - γεNr - a hɔ/
        a - im - walk - fv loc16
                                 "to walk there"
        oko[yééndáhá]
```

After identifying and briefly discussing various verbal morphemes, I now proceed to describe a phenomenon which fuses some of these morphemes rendering them opaque.

#### 2.4 Imbrication

The Kuria verb, as in most Bantu languages, has a highly complex but regular verbal structure with morphemes that are easily segmentable, with each morpheme having a clearly identifiable function. Occasionally, however, affixation triggers some phonological processes that interfere with this organization. This section looks at the

perfective verbal suffix, focusing on the differences in its surface representations. The perfective suffix denotes completed action, is marked by /-er/, and assigns /-e/ as the final vowel (see (73a)). However, in (73b & c) the /-er/ is not reflected and the post-root domain morphemes are difficult to discern. The generalizations that follow were arrived at after examining a total of 1005 verb roots. For consistency, all examples in this section are in the Immediate Past Anterior tense. This tense is marked by a vowel prefix /a-/ which is subject to assimilation.

		3 <sup>rd</sup> Person Plural	
(73) a. heetok-a	"remember"	βaa[héétók <b>ére</b> ]	"they have just remembered"
b. iγor-a	"open"	βαί[γό <b>όjé</b> ]	"they have just opened"
c. turuuŋan-a	"welcome"	βaa[túruuŋ <b>áíni</b> ]	"they have just welcomed"

Various terms have been used to refer to this process; "modified base" (Ashton et al 1954; Givón 1970; Mould 1972), "fusion" (de Blois 1975), "ablaut" (Kisseberth & Abasheik 1976), and "imbrication" (Bastin 1983, Hyman 1995, Cammenga 2004). This study uses the term "imbrication".

Imbrication is a word that is derived from the Latin meaning "to cover as with tiles in a way that the edges overlap each other" (OED). It is used here to refer to a morphological process that fuses the perfective with other post-root domain morphemes of the verb, making the surface form of the morphemes opaque. Specifically, imbrication is marked by the process where the perfective consonant /r/ is weakened when preceded by a long vowel. Imbricated forms may be identified by the presence of [j] as in (73b) or

[n] as in (73c) in the surface realization of the perfective suffix. This section will demonstrate that:

- a. The minimum requirement for imbrication to occur is at least a disyllabic root or base.
- b. Roots or bases ending in -n or -r will imbricate if they meet the minimum size requirement in (a) above.
- c. Roots that end in a long vowel do not imbricate.
- d. Imbrication can be well described using prosodic and morphemic circumscription.

The perfective form in (73a) has been called "regular" and those in (73b,c) "irregular" (Givón 1970, Kula 2001). Imbrication can be viewed as resulting from fusion whereby the perfective /-ere/ surfaces as /-Vje/ or /-ini/. I will first present a pre-theoretical description of the data by showing the non-imbricating forms, then the imbricating forms, and finally discuss the imbricating forms in light of the theory of Prosodic Morphology.

# 2.4.1 Non-Imbricating Forms

The perfective morpheme /-er/ is suffixed in a regular fashion to all roots. The final /-e/ of the perfective takes the place of the regular Bantu final vowel /-a/. The data in (74) is arranged according to the shape of the root. In these examples, the perfective suffix shows up with its basic shape phonetically intact. The morphemes can easily be parsed.

		sm-t-root	-pf-fv	
(74) a. C-	ʧ - a	βa-a-[ʧ	-ér-é]	"they have just come"
b. ØVC	iβ - a	βa-i- [β	-ír-é]	"they have just stolen"
c. CVC	tum - a	βa-a-[túm	- <b>í</b> 'r-é]	"they have just sewn"
d. CVVC	βiim - a	βa-a-[βíím	-íɾ-é]	"they have just measured"

The perfective suffix has two allomorphs occurring in complementary distribution: [-er] if the root has a non-high vowel and [-ir] if the root has a high vowel. The quality of the first perfective vowel (/i/ or /e/) is determined by the following rule of vowel height harmony.

# (75) Vowel Height Harmony Rule 1

The vowel height harmony rule is a general rule applying between the root and the suffixes; it is not confined to the perfective suffix only.

# **2.4.2 Imbricating Forms**

The examples in (76) illustrate a surface form of the perfective that at a glance looks irregular. In the post-root domain of these examples, the morphology is invisible, that is, it is not clear where the root ends and the perfective suffix begins. I hold that these forms are not irregular. The product is an agglutination of several extension suffixes into a single form resulting in imbrication.

	sm-t-root	-pf-fv	Surface Form	
(76) a. C	$/\beta a$ -a-h	-er-e/	βaa[háájé]	"they just have given"
b. CV	/βa-a-re	-er-e/	βaa[rééjé]	"they have just eaten"
c. VCVC	/βa-a-iγor	-er-e/	βai[γóójé]	"they have just opened"
d. VCVCV	/βa-a-ahuri	-er-e/	βaa[húújí]	"they have just shouted"
e. CVCVC	$/\beta a$ -a- $\gamma$ o $\gamma$ on	-er-e/	βaa[γόγoiní]	"they have gnawed"
f. CVVCVC	/βa-a-γaaŋkan	-er-e/	βαα[γάάŋkάίni	"they have just trembled"
g. CVCVVCVC	/βa-a-turuuŋar	n-er-e/	βaa[túruuŋáin	i]"they have just welcomed"

#### 2.4.3 Perfective Formation in Roots

After showing the non-imbricating and the imbricating forms in (74) and (76) respectively, there is need to find out the conditions that trigger imbrication. It has been shown that the occurrence of imbrication depends on a number of factors (Bastin 1983; Hyman 1995).

- (77) a. the size of the base.<sup>6</sup>
  - b. the nature of the final consonant of the base.
  - c. the nature of the vowel preceding the final consonant of the base.
  - d. the identity of the last morpheme of the base.

Below is a survey of various verb forms to find out how imbrication occurs in Kuria.

# 2.4.3.1 V-, C- and CV- Roots

There are fifteen V-, C-, and CV- verb roots in Kuria, all of which are presented in (78). Most of these verb forms do imbricate when in the perfective (a - k) but there are four that do not imbricate (1 - o). Three of the non-imbricating forms have a high back vowel, but so does *pua* "drink" in (78g). The verb forms in (78) have a peculiar way of

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>6</sup> It seems that Bastin (1983) and Hyman (1995) use the terms base and root interchangeably. This study makes a distinction between the two (see §2.3).

forming the perfective; they do not display any regularity as to when they imbricate or not imbricate. These have been treated here as exceptional cases and are not included in the analysis.

```
sm - t - root-pf - fv
       verb
(78) a. \beta-a
               "be"
                           /\beta a - a - \beta - er - e/
                                                      βaa[βáájé] "they have become"
                           /βa - a - h - er - e/
                                                      βaa[háájé] "they have just given"
    b. h-a
               "give"
                                                      βaa[γééjé]<sup>7</sup>"they have just gone"
    c. i-a
               "go"
                           /βa - a - i - er - e/
                                                      βaa[γόόjé] "they have just fallen"
               "fall"
                           /βa - a - γo - er - e/
    d. γo-a
    e. re-a
               "eat"
                           /βa - a - re - er - e/
                                                      Baa[rééjé] "they have just eaten"
               "defecate" /βa - a - ne - er - e/
                                                      βaa[nééjé] "they have just defecated"
    f. ne-a
               "drink"
                           /βa - a - nu - er - e/
                                                      βaa[nóójé] "they have just drunk"
    g. nu-a
               "burn"
                           /βa - a - he - er - e/
                                                      βaa[hééjé] "they have just burned"
    h. he-a
    i. ke-a
               "dawn"
                           /βo - a - ke - er - e/
                                                      βoo[kééjé] "it has just dawned"
                            /e - a - to - er - e/
                                                      ee[tóójé] "it has just rained"
               "rain"
    j. to-a
                           /βa - a - se - er - e/
                                                      βaa[sééjé] "they have just ground"
               "grind"
    k. se-a
               "die"
                           /βa - a - ku - er - e/
                                                      βaa[kúúré] "they have just died"
    l. ku-a
                                                      βaa[túúré] "they have just picked"
               "pick"
                           /βa - a - tu - er - e/
    m. tu-a
               "leave"
                           /βa - a - ru - er - e/
                                                      βaa[rúúré] "they have just left"
    n. ru-a
               "come"
                           /\beta a - a - tf - er - e/
                                                      βaa[tʃéré] "they have just come"
    o. tf-a
```

In all the cases that imbricate in (78) above, the perfective consonant /-r/ is replaced with the glide /-j/.

#### 2.4.3.2 CVC- Roots

CVC- is a common root type in Kuria. It has several variants: one with an empty onset (ØVC), a similar form that ends in a glide (CVCG and ØVCG), another with a long vowel (CVVC), and one with a long vowel and ending in a glide (CVVCG). The

<sup>7</sup> This perfective is unpredictable because it has a voiced velar fricative which cannot be predicted by looking at the root form of the verb.

perfective forms of these roots do not undergo imbrication. Verbs ending in a glide [j] will have /i/ as the final vowel in the perfective, as in (79e-f, g-h and k-l).

(79) ØVC			
a. aγ-a	/βa - a - aγ - er - e/	βaa[γéré]	"they have just scratched"
b. eγ-a	/βa - a - eγ - eɾ - e/	βae[γéré]	"they have just learned"
CVC-			
с. геβ-а	/βa - a - reβ - er - e/	βaa[réβé <sup>!</sup> ré]	"they have just paid"
d. βun-a	/βa - a - βun - er - e/	βaa[βúní <sup>!</sup> ré]	"they have just broken"
CVCG-			
e. βary-a	/βa - a - βari - er - e/	βaa[βáárri]	"they have just raved"
f. βohy-a	/βa - a - βohi - er - e/	βaa[βóhí <sup>!</sup> rí]	"they have just intimidated"
ØVCG-			
g. aty-a	/βa - a - ati - er - e/	βaa[tírí]	"they have just broken"
h. iky-a	/βa - a - iki - er - e/	βai[kírí]	"they have just lowered"
CVVC-			
i. ɾiin-a	/βa - a - riin - er - e/	βaa[rííníré]	"they have just climbed"
j. hoor-a	/βa - a - hoor - er - e/	βaa[hóórré]	"they have just threshed"
CVVCG-			
k. βiiry-a	/βa - a - βiir- er - e/	βaa[βíírrí]	"they have just repeated"
l. hoony-a	/βa - a - hoon - er - e/	βaa[hóónírí]	"they have just sold"

The examples in (79e,j,k) have a long vowel and a trill. I do not consider these as imbricated since they do not undergo the complete process of imbrication. The examples in (79i-k) show that monosyllabic roots, even if they have two moras, do not imbricate. There are however seven exceptions emanating from the CVVC form which were detected in the data. These are laid out in (80).

```
(80) a. βεει-a
                 /βa - a - βεεr - er - e/
                                             βaa[βέέτέέje] "they have just remained"
    b. γeer-a
                 /re - a - γeer - er - e/
                                             ree[yéérééje] "it has just gone into the eye
                 /βa - a - raar - er - e/
                                                             "they have just slept"
                                             βaa[ráájé]
    c. raar-a
    d. tseerr-a
                 /βa - a - tfeerr - er - e/
                                             βaa[tféérééje] "they have just shouted"
                 /βa - a - reerr - er - e/
                                             βaa[réérééje] "they have just been irritated"
    e. reerr-a
    f. heerr-a
                 /βa - a - heerr - er - e/
                                             Baa[héreejé]
                                                             "they have just rumbled"
                                             βaa[térεεjé]
                                                             "they have just slipped"
    g. teerr-a
                 /βa - a - tεεrr - er - e/
```

While it can be said that examples (80a - c) are just exceptions because there are many other CVVC roots ending in -r that do not imbricate, the examples in (80d - g) are totally different. Their roots end in a trill. Whenever two or more flaps (r) are adjacent to each other in the course of a derivation, they are collapsed into a trill (Cammenga 2004:116); and whenever the root ends in a trill then imbrication takes place. Examples (80d - g) are repeated in (81).

# (81) Roots ending in Trills

a. 
$$feerer - a$$
 $\rightarrow$  $feerr-a$ b.  $heerer - a$  $\rightarrow$  $heerr-a$ c.  $reerer - a$  $\rightarrow$  $reerr-a$ d.  $teerer - a$  $\rightarrow$  $teerr-a$ 

I hold that the verbs in (81) are not basic roots. They are frozen bases whose initial roots no longer have an independent meaning. It is therefore not surprising that they undergo imbrication. They behave just like the extended roots or bases (see §2.4.4).

#### 2.4.3.3 CVCVC- & ØVCVC- Roots

A look at disyllabic roots shows that there is some regularity. Some of these roots do imbricate as can be seen in (82).

But there are other roots that are disyllabic and do not imbricate.

A look at the examples in (82) shows that they end in –n or -r while those in (83) end in different consonants. All disyllabic roots imbricate if the final consonant of the root is a flap /-r/ or a nasal /-n/. The examples in (82) show that the minimum root size required for imbrication is disyllabic. This has been referred to as the minimality condition (Hyman 1995). All other polysyllabic roots will imbricate unless stated otherwise (see (86)).

Another factor necessary for imbrication, and is introduced in (84), is the nature of the final consonant of the root. If the verb root ends in -r and is followed by the perfective suffix, then imbrication occurs.

```
- pf - fv Surface Form
      root
                sm - t - root
                /βa - a - iγor
(84) a. iyor-
                                 - er - e/ βai[γóójé]
                                                           "they have just opened"
                                                           "they have just limped"
    b. soyor-
                /βa - a - soyor - er - e/ βaa[sóyoojé]
                                                           "they have just divided"
    c. Baaror-
                /βa - a - βaaror - er - e/ βaa[βááróóje]
                                                           "they have just called"
    d. βereker- /βa - a - βereker - er - e/ βaa[βérékeéje]
                /βa - a - temor - er - e/ βaa[témoojé]
                                                           "they have just demolished"
    e. temor-
```

In (84), the pre-perfective consonant /-r/ is deleted and the perfective consonant /-r/ is substituted for the glide /-j/.

Likewise, polysyllabic roots that end with a nasal /-n/ and are followed by the perfective will undergo imbrication. The perfective final vowel /-e/ surfaces as /-i/.

```
/βa - a - takun
                                              βaa[tákwiiní] "they have just chewed"
(85) a. takun-
                                   - er - e/
                 /βa - a - hakan
                                                             "they have just paid back"
    b. hakan-
                                   - er - e/
                                              βaa[hákainí]
    c. kiinan-
                 /βa - a - kiinan
                                   - er - e/
                                              βaa[kíínáíni] "they have just wrestled"
                 /\beta a - a - \gamma aa\eta kan - er - e/
                                              βaa[γááηkáíni] "they have just trembled"
    d. γaaŋkan-
                                              βaa[túruunáíni]"they have just welcomed"
    e. turuunan - er - e/
```

For the roots ending with a nasal /-n/, the practice is to delete the last consonant of the root together with the perfective and add /-ini/. This gets more complex when more suffixes are added.

On the basis of examples in (84) and (85) we can distinguish two types of imbrication in Kuria: the first one replaces the perfective suffix /-ere/ with a /V:jV/ ending (see (84)), and the other replaces the last consonant of the verb and the perfective with an /-ini/ ending (see (85)). These different types are the result of different phonological processes.

## 2.4.3.4 Other Polysyllabic Roots

Though it has been stated above that all polysyllabic roots will imbricate, there are exceptions. The polysyllabic roots in (86) do not imbricate when they are in the perfective unless they have a trill. In each of the verb pairs below, the first example shows a non-imbricating form while the second imbricates because it has a trill.

```
(86) CVCVVC-
    a. yahaatf-a
                   /\beta a - a - \gamma ahaatf - er - e/
                                                βaa[yáhaatfére] "they have just built"
                   /βa - a - teyeerr - er - e/
                                                βaa[tέγεειτέέje] "they have just listened"
    b. teyeerr-a
    ØVCVVC-
                   /βa - a - aγaaγ - er - e/
                                                βaa[γááγére] "they have just stroked"
    c. ayaay-a
    d. imeerr-a
                   /\beta a - a - imeerr - er - e/
                                                βai[méérééje] "they have just stopped"
    CVCVVCG-
                                                βaa[síriingíri] "they have just sang"
    e. siriingy-a
                   /βa - a - siriingi - er - e/
    f. sayiirry-a
                                                βaa[sáyiirrííji] "they have just stirred"
                   /βa - a - sayiirri - er - e/
    ØVCVVCG-
                   /βa - a - imaari - er - e/
                                                βai[máárri]
                                                                "they have just ignored"
    g. imaary-a
                                                                "they have just placed on
    i. ariirry-a
                   /βa - a - ariirri - er - e/
                                                Baa[ríírrííji]
                                                                 top of"
    CVVCVVC-
    j. taandaas-a /βa - a - taNraas - er - e/
                                                βaa[táándáásére] "they have just spread"
    k. taangoorr-a /βa - a - taNyoorr - er - e/
                                                βaa[táángóórrééje] "they have just lead"
    CVVCVVCG-
    m. paamuury-a /βa - a - paamuuri - er - e/ βaa[páámúúrri] "they have just scattered"
    n. suukiirry-a /βa - a - suukiirri - er - e/ βaa[súúkíírrííji] "they have just shamed"
```

A closer look at these examples (86) shows that the last vowel of the root is long in all cases. All verb roots that end in a long syllable will not imbricate unless they end in a trill. So, the size of the root, and the nature of the final consonant of the root are not the

only conditions for imbrication. The nature of the vowel preceding the final consonant of the root is also important. For a verb form to imbricate, the final syllable of its root must be short.

All other polysyllabic verbs not described in (83) and (86) undergo imbrication. Below is a summary of the types of roots looked at in this section and comments on whether they do or do not undergo imbrication.

Table 2.10: Imbricating and Non-Imbricating Verb Forms

	Type of Verb Root	Total	Imbrication	Imbricates when root ends in -r	Imbricates when root ends in -n	Imbicates when root ends in -rr
1.	V-, C-, CV-	15	✓ (4 exceptions)	-	-	-
2.	CVC- ØVC-	188	_			-
3.	CVCG- ØVCG-	36				-
4.	CVVC-	206	(3 exceptions)	(3 exceptions)		√ 4
5.	CVCVC- ØVCVC-	186	<b>√</b>	<b>→</b> √	<b>√</b>	-
6.	CVCVVC- ØVCVVC-	58				3
7.	CVCVCG- ØVCVCG-	27	<b>√</b>	<b>√</b>	<b>√</b>	-
8.	CVVCG-	40				-
9.	CVVCVC-	76	<b>√</b>	<b>√</b>	<b>√</b>	-
10.	CVCVVCG-	9				4
11.	CVCVCVC-	22	<b>√</b>	<b>√</b>	<b>√</b>	-
12.	CVCVVCVC-	16	<b>√</b>	<b>√</b>	<b>√</b>	-
13.	CVVCVVC-	55				√ 5

	Type of Verb	Total	Imbrication	<i>Imbricates</i>	<i>Imbricates</i>	Imbicates
	Root			when root	when root	when root
				ends in -r	ends in -n	ends in -rr
14.	CVCVCVCG-	8	<b>√</b>	<b>√</b>	<b>√</b>	-
15.	CVVCVCG-	13	(1 exception)	<b>√</b>	<b>√</b>	-
16.	CVVCVVCG-	14	-			✓
			(1 exception)			5
17.	CVVCVCVC-	12	<b>√</b>	<b>√</b>	<b>√</b>	-
18.	CVCVCVVC-	4				-
19.	CVVCVVCVC-	6	<b>√</b>	<b>√</b>	<b>√</b>	-
20.	CVCVCVVCG-	2				-
21.	CVCVVCVCG- ØVCVVCVCG-	3	<b>√</b>	<b>√</b>	<b>√</b>	-
22.	CVVCVCVVCG-	3	<b>√</b>	<b>√</b>	<b>√</b>	1
23.	Other Roots	5	<b>√</b>	<b>√</b>	<b>√</b>	-

(key:  $\checkmark$  = yes; blank = no; - = not attested)

Summing up the discussion of perfective formation in roots, it can be said that when the perfective is added to disyllabic and polysyllabic roots that end with -n or -r and have a short vowel in the final syllable, imbrication occurs. Verbs which end in a trill will always imbricate. Also, verbs that end in a glide [j] will have /i/ as their final vowel instead of /e/.

# 2.4.4 Perfective Formation in Bases

As seen above, suffixation of the perfective alone is not enough to create imbrication: also, -n or -r must be the last consonant of the root. Thus, if the root is

extended with the reversive transitive /-or/, applicative /-er/ or reciprocal /-an/, imbrication will occur (see (87)).

$$(87) \ a. \ /-or/ \qquad \qquad /\beta a \ - a \ - raNr \ - or \ - er \ - e/ \qquad \qquad \beta aa[r\'{a}\'{a}\'{n}d\'{o}\'{o}\'{j}e] \ \text{``they have} \\ sm - t - creep - rt \ - pf - fv \qquad \qquad just pulled off (e.g. vines)$$

$$b. \ /-er/ \qquad \qquad /\beta a \ - a \ - rom \ - er \ - er \ - e/ \qquad \qquad \beta aa[r\'{o}\'{m}\'{e}\'{e}\'{j}\'{e}] \ \ \text{``they have just} \\ sm - t \ - bite \ - ap \ - pf \ - fv \qquad \qquad \beta aa[r\'{o}\'{m}ain\'{a}] \ \ \text{``they have} \\ sm - t \ - bite \ - rec \ - pf \ - fv \qquad \qquad just bitten each other''$$

In the examples that follow (88), verbs with the perfective suffix alone do not imbricate. Once the perfective is combined with an extension like the applicative, imbrication occurs.

The examples in (88) show that we cannot consider imbrication to be an inherent property of a particular set of verbs, since the non-imbricating verb roots (see (79) and (88)) undergo imbrication when they are extended. As Cammenga (2004) has shown, some extended roots imbricate and others do not. A summary is provided in Tables 2.11 and 2.12.

# 2.4.4.1 Non-Imbricating Bases

Table 2.11: Extension Suffixes and the Non-Imbricating Perfective

	Verbal Type	UR	SR	Examples	Gloss
1.	basic	/- <b>er-</b> e/	[-ere]	/a-a-som- <b>er</b> -e/ →	"s/he has just read"
				aa[sómé¹ré]	
2.	pas	/- <b>er</b> -o-e/	[-erwe]	/ke-a-sɔm- <b>er</b> -o-e/ →	"it has just been read"
				kee[sómé <sup>!</sup> rwé]	
3.	st	/-ek- <b>er</b> -e/	[-ekere]	/ke-a-som-ek- <b>er</b> -e/ →	"it has just been legible"
				kee[sómékeré]	
4.	ri	/-ok-er-e/	[-okere]	/ke-a-riN $\gamma$ -ok- <b>er</b> -e/ $\rightarrow$	"it has just unfolded"
				kee[rééŋgókére]	
5.	cau	/-er-i/	[-iɾi]	/a-a-som- <b>er</b> -i/ →	"s/he has just educated"
				aa[sómí¹rí]	

It is evident from Table 2.11 that imbrication does not occur where a verb has these extensions: passive only (2), stative only (3), reversive-intransitive only (4), and a causative (5). The extended verbs in Table 2.11 do not have -n or -r as the last consonant of the root or base, which is one of the conditions for imbrication.

The imbricated forms seen in Table 2.12 are a result of fusion of the extension suffixes, the perfective suffix, and the final vowel. The endings applicative-reciprocal-passive, reversive intransitive-passive, and the reciprocal-passive do not occur because they are not semantically viable. In causative perfectives, the causative suffix /-i/ always functions as the final vowel. This then means that in passive causative perfectives the suffix order changes to passive-causative.

# **2.4.4.2 Imbricating Bases**

Table 2.12: Extension Suffixes and the Imbricating Perfective

	Verbal Type	UR	SR	Examples	Gloss
1.	st-rec	/-ek-an- <b>er</b> -e	[-ekaini]	/e-a-kɔɾ-ek-an- <b>er</b> -e/	"it has happened"
				→ ee[kórékaíni]	
2.	rt	/-or- <b>er</b> -e/	[-ooje]	/a-a-riNγ-or- <b>er</b> -e/	"s/he has just unfolded"
				→ aa[rééŋgóóje]	
3.	rt-pas	/or- <b>er</b> -o-e/	[-oojwe]	/ro-a-riNγ-or- <b>er</b> -o-e/	"it has just been unfolded"
				→ roo[rééngóójwe]	
4.	ap	/er-er-e/	[-eeje]	/βa-a-som-er-er-e/	"they have just read for"
				→ βaa[sómeejé]	
5.	ap-pas	/-e <b>r-er</b> -o-e/	[-eejwe]	/βi-a-som-er- <b>er</b> -o-e/	"they have just been read for"
				→ βii[sómeejwé]	
6.	ap-rec	/-er-an- <b>er</b> -e/	[-eraini]	/βa-a-som-er-an- <b>er</b> -e/	"they have just read for each other"
				→ βaa[sóméraíni]	
7.	ap-rec-			does not occur	
	pas				
8.	ap-cau	/er-er-i/	[-iiji]	/\beta-a-som-er-er-i/	"they have just been educated for"
				→ βaa[sómiijí]	
9.	ap-cau-	/-e <b>r-er</b> -o-i/	[-eriißwi]	/βa-a-som-er- <b>er</b> -o-i/	"they have just been educated for" (lit. caused
	pas			→ βaa[sómíriíβwi]	to learn for)

	Verbal Type	UR	SR	Examples	Gloss
10.	ap-rec- cau	/-er-an- <b>er</b> -i/	[-eraini]	/βa-a-sɔm-er-an- <b>er</b> -i/ → βaa[sóméraíni]	"they have just read while doing something else simultaneously"
11.	ap-rec- cau-pas	/-er-an- <b>er</b> -o-i/	[-eraniiβwi]	/βa-a-sɔm-er-an- <b>er</b> -o-i/  → βaa[sɔśmɛ́raníiβwi]	"they have just been read while something else is going on simultaneously"
12.	ri-pas			does not occur	
13.	rec	/-an- <b>er</b> -e/	[-aini]	/βa-a-maah-an- <b>er</b> -e/ → βaa[mááháíni]	"they have just seen each other"
14.	rec-cau	/-an- <b>er</b> -i/	[-aini]	/βa-a-sɔm-an- <b>er</b> -i/ → βaa[sɔ́mainí]	"they have just observed each other" (lit. caused to learn each other)
15.	rec- cau-pas	/-an-er-o-i/	[-aniiβwi]	/βa-a-maah-an- <b>er</b> -o-i/ → βaa[mááhánííβwi]	"they have just been made to see each other"
16.	rec-pas			does not occur	
17.	cau-pas	/- <b>er</b> -o-i/	[-iiβwi]	/a-a-sɔm- <b>er</b> -o-i/ → aa[sómiiβwí]	"s/he has just been educated" (lit. caused to learn)

The summary provided in Table 2.12 confirms the two types of imbrication in Kuria earlier illustrated in (84) and (85): the first one replaces the perfective suffix /-ere/ with a /V:jV/ ending (see (89)).

The second type of imbrication replaces the last consonant of the verb and the perfective with an /-ini/ ending (see (90)).

(90) a. an-er-i 
$$\rightarrow$$
 -aini b. an-er-e  $\rightarrow$  -aini

I hypothesize that these different types of imbrication are a result of different phonological processes and can be accounted for using the Prosodic Morphology Theory.

## 2.4.5 Prosodic Morphology

Prosodic Morphology is a theory that shows how morphological and phonological forms interact with one another in grammatical systems (McCarthy & Prince 1998). The typical morphological operation is affixation to a root or base. In most cases affixation will occur without regard to the phonological nature of the base. Once affixation takes place, phonological rules can apply. There are, however, cases in which the affixation process takes into account the phonology and even the morphology of the base. The basic

idea is that morphological and phonological representations can be cut into two pieces where rules of affixation and phonological change apply to one of the pieces before they are brought back together. In this section, prosodic and morphemic circumscription are used to show how fusion and morpheme transposition takes place.

# 2.4.5.1 Prosodic Circumscription

Prosodic circumscription is concerned with the ordering of morphs with respect to certain phonological constituents. Circumscription takes place when the final consonant of the root or base is -n.

(91) a. Prosodic circumscription

$$n \rightarrow < n > / ___ ]_{base or root}$$

At the right edge of a verb base or root, circumscribe (i.e. mark as invisible) the final C if it is a nasal -n, subject to the minimality condition.

b. The minimality condition is given as follows:

**Minimality Condition** 

 $\Sigma > \sigma$ : a stem must be longer than one syllable (Hyman 1995)

This condition suggests that words in Kuria should be disyllabic or longer. The condition ensures that only roots longer than a syllable are subjet to imbrication.

c. Perfective Suffixation.

Suffix the perfective -er onto the base.

d. Final Vowel.

Add the final vowel -e.

e. Vowel assimilation

$$e \rightarrow a / a$$

f. Perfective R-Gliding

Change the liquid /-r/ of the perfective suffix into a high front vowel /i/, if it is

preceded by a long vowel.

- g. Vowel coalescence  $V_1V_1V_2 \rightarrow V_1V_2$
- h. Vowel Height Harmony 1 (see (75))

This rule affects mid vowels, raising them by one degree, whenever they are followed either immediately or in the next syllable by a high vowel.

The rules above can be illustrated by the following derivation.

Three roots: turuuŋan-"welcome", hakan- "pay back" and  $\beta in$ - "dance" have been put through a derivation in (92). There is no special rule intended only for imbrication. The final consonants of the verb roots turuuŋan- and hakan- are circumscribed at the right edge leaving turuuŋa- and haka- which are longer than a syllable (see minimality condition in (91b)). The CVC- root  $\beta in$ - does not undergo circumscription because if it

did only CV-, which is not longer than a syllable, could remain. The perfect suffix is then added, followed by the final vowel to give the word a final -ire form.

# 2.4.5.2 Morphemic Circumscription

Morphemic circumscription allows affixes to be attached to non-peripheral morphological constituents of a word. It accounts for cases that are problematic to the theory of affixation. The theory is concerned with the ordering of morphs with respect to other morphs in the word. In Kuria, morphemic circumscription targets the causative morpheme. For example, in the word  $\beta aa[s\acute{o}miiji]$  "they have just educated for", the default order of the morphemes is  $\beta a-a-som-er-i-er/$  but since the perfective can detect the liquid -r in the base, a transposition takes place to place the applicative and the perfective morphemes next to each other and in this way imbrication takes place.

(93) 
$$\beta = a - som - er - i - er$$
 order of morphemes  $\beta = a - som - er - er - i$  transposition

Output: βaa[sómiijí] "they have just educated for"

(94) a. Morphemic circumscription 
$$-i \rightarrow < i > /$$
  $\_$   $]$ <sub>base</sub>

At the right edge of a verb base or root, circumscribe the final morph, if it is a causative.

- b. Perfective Suffixation
  Suffix the perfective -er onto the base.
- c. Pre-Perfective R-Deletion

  Deletes the postvocalic liquid /-r/ that precedes the perfective suffix.

$$+ \text{son}$$
  $\rightarrow \emptyset / [+ \text{syll}]$  [perf er  $+ \text{cont}$ 

# d. Perfective R-Gliding

Change the liquid /-r/ of the perfective suffix into a high front vowel /i/, if it is preceded by a long vowel.

$$\begin{bmatrix} + son \\ + cor \\ + cont \end{bmatrix} \rightarrow \begin{bmatrix} - cons \\ + high \\ + front \end{bmatrix} / [+ syll] \underline{\qquad}$$

The rule turns the lateral liquid /r/ into a high front vowel /i/ whenever this suffix is preceded by a long vowel.

#### e. Glide Formation

Change the front vowel /i/ into a glide /j/ if followed by another vowel.

#### f. Vowel Height Harmony 2

$$\begin{array}{ccc} V & \rightarrow & \left[\alpha \: high\right] / \, \underline{\quad} \: C_o & V \\ \left[\text{- low}\right] & & \left[\alpha \: high\right] \end{array}$$

The rules above can be illustrated by the following derivation.

(95) UR /βa-a-som-i-er/ "they have just educated for" Morphemic circumscription  $\beta$ aasomer  $\langle i \rangle$ Perfective Suffixation  $\beta$ aasomer-er < i >Pre-Perfective R-Deletion Baasome-eri Perfective R-Gliding Baasomeeii Glide Formation Baasomeeji Vowel Height Harmony 2 βaasomeeji Vowel Height Harmony 2 βaasomiiji SR βaa[sómiijí]

The derivations in Table 2.13 incorporate both morphemic and prosodic circumscription and show that they can apply to the same form with morphemic preceding prosodic circumscription.

Table 2.13: Rules and illustrative derivations

+ cor + cont

Table 2.13: Rules and illustrative derivations			
	/som-erani - / "read while doing something else"	/turuuŋan - / "welcome"	/som - er - / "read for"
a. Morphemic circumscription (94a) At the right edge of a verb base or root, circumscribe the final morph if it is a causative.	someran < i >		
<ul> <li>b. Prosodic circumscription (91a)</li> <li>n → &lt; n &gt; / ]<sub>root or base</sub></li> <li>At the right edge of the base or root, circumscribe (ie. mark as invisible) the final C if it is a nasal -n.</li> </ul>	somera < n - i >	turuuŋa < n >	
c. Perfective Suffixation Suffix perfective -er onto the root/base.	somera-er < n - i>	turuuŋa-er < n >	somer-er
d. Final Vowel  Add the final vowel –e if not causative verb.		turuuŋaern-e	somerer-e
e. Pre-Perfective R-Deletion (see 91c)  Delete the postvocalic liquid /-r/ that precedes the perfective suffix.			someere
$\lceil + \operatorname{son} \rceil \rightarrow \mathcal{O} / \lceil + \operatorname{syll} \rceil$ [and eq			

f.	Vowel Assimilation (91e)	someraarni	turuuŋaarne	
g.	Vowel Height Harmony 2 (94f)	someraarni		someere
h.	Perfective R-Gliding (94d)  Change the liquid /-r/ of the perfective suffix into a high front vowel /i/, if it is preceded by a long vowel. $ \begin{array}{c} x & x \\ + son \\ + cor \\ + cont \\ + front \end{array} $ $ \begin{array}{c} x & x \\ / [+ syll] \\ - front $	someraaini	turuuŋaaine	someeie
i.	Glide Formation (94e) Change the front vowel /i/ into a glide /j/ if followed by another vowel.			someeje
j.	Vowel Coalescence $(a + a = a)$ , if they are followed by a high vowel $i$ then a nasal -n.	someraini	turuuŋaine	
k.	Vowel Height Harmony 1 (75)		turuuŋaini	

The derivations in Table 2.13 serve as a uniform suffixation process for both the non-imbricating and the imbricating perfectives.

#### 2.5 Conclusion

In this chapter, I have discussed Kuria verbal morphology by identifying the morphemes found in the verb and illustrating, with examples, the functions of each of those morphemes. I have also shown that some of these morphemes undergo fusion or imbrication resulting in opacity. Imbrication is a synchronically active phenomenon in Kuria as evidenced in the examples given. Suffice to say that all the morphemes found in a verb do not co-occur but positional slots are important in determining the order of the ones that do co-occur. With this background about the Kuria verb structure, we are now in a position to introduce and discuss Kuria tone in the next chapter.

# **Chapter Three**

#### Verbal Tone

#### 3. Introduction

This chapter presents an account of tonal patterns in simple affirmative verbs in Kuria. The tone patterns discussed are those of finite and infinitival verbs pronounced in isolation; phrasal and sentential tones are not included. As in some other Bantu languages, tone patterns in Kuria are described in terms of where the high tones are placed, letting the low tones be derived by a default rule, that is, only high tones are manipulated in tone rules. The only time reference is made to the low tone is in the downstep process. As we will see, some tenses allow only one H tone on the macrostem but others allow two.

Kuria lacks lexical tonal contrasts; any high tones appearing at the surface are assigned by rule. Thus, it has a predictable tone system similar to what is found in Guthrie's Zone P languages such as Makua and Kimatuumbi (Odden 1987; Kisseberth & Odden 2003); and the Lukhayo, Lunyala (West), Lusaamia, and Lutura dialects of Luhya, a Zone E language (Poletto 1998, Marlo 2007). The fundamental property of these languages is that surface tones are assigned depending on the phonological shape and morphological category of the verb. I will demonstrate that tense (TAM) is the prime determiner of where primary H tones are placed on the verb macrostem. After primary high tones have been assigned, other factors such as syllable type (long, short, onsetless),

length of verb (long, short), and the presence of certain object prefixes modify the patterns creating a tonal diversity.

The vowel count approach (Odden 1987) will be used in this dissertation to account for surface tones. This is an approach that counts moras or vowels starting at the left edge of the macrostem rightwards, and assigns H tones on the n<sup>th</sup> mora or vowel depending on the tense. The assignment of tone is to the vowel, not the syllable, hence a long syllable will count the same as two short syllables. I am guided by the claim that tone rules in Kuria operate on the basis of vowel count, assigning H to the first vowel, the second vowel, the third vowel, the fourth vowel, or the first and fourth vowels of the macrostem (Odden 1987).

# 3.1 Paradigm Set

In carrying out this analysis, I looked at the tonal patterns found in paradigms derived from eighteen different verb roots with the forms in (1). I checked at least two examples in each type of verb form. The Mandatory Imperative forms of the verbs are used in (1) because this tense occurs with a null tense affix (Ø). Although in (1) I use the monosyllabic forms [ha] "give", [rea] "eat", [sea] grind", and [ia] "go" in their bare forms, in §3.2.5.3 I will show that there is a disyllabic minimality for stems which compels these forms to take on extra material.

# (1) List of Verb Roots

(a) Consonant Initial	Verbs	
Mandatory Ir	nperative (Root + Final Vowel)	Gloss
C	[h-a]	"give"
CV	[re-a]	
	[se-a]	"grind"
CVC	[rom-a]	"bite"
	[βun-a]	"break"
CVVC	[βiim-á]	"measure"
	[saamb-á]	"burn"
CVCVC	[tɛɾɛk-á]	"brew"
	[sukur-á]	"rub"
CVVCVC	[heetók-a]	"remember"
	[taandór-a]	"tear"
CVCVVC	[karaáŋg-a]	"fry"
	[haγaáʧ-a]	"build"
CVVCVVC	[taaŋgáás-a]	"announce"
	[siitáák-a]	"accuse", "sue"
CVCVCVC	[teremék-a]	"be calm"
	[βerekér-a]	"call"
CVCVVCVC	[turuúŋan-à]	"welcome"
CVVCVCVC	[koondókor-à]	"uncover"
CVVCVVCVC	[hootóóter-à]	"reassure"
(b) Vowel Initial Verb	os	
V	[i-a]	"go"
VC	[aγ-a]	"weed"
VCVC	[iyor-á]	"open"
	[၁β၁h-á]	"fear"
VCVVC	[iγɔɔ́mb-a]	"desire"
VCVCVC	[anekér-a]	"lay out"
VCVVCVC	[araáʧan-à]	"cross, fold"

These forms provide contrasts in the application of the rules: short versus long, branching nucleus versus non-branching nucleus, and consonant initial versus vowel initial verbs. I will consider verbs with four or fewer vowels in the macrostem to be short and those with

five or more vowels to be long. The distinction between tone patterns is revealed best in long verb stems (Odden 1988) while the branching nucleus brings in special rules based on differences in syllable structure.

# 3.2 Verbal Tonology in Affirmative Tenses

I now proceed to consider the tonology of verbs in the simple affirmative tenses. A paradigm for the verbs in (1) in the first, second, and third person, in singular and plural, with and without object prefixes, was prepared using all the tenses shown in Table 3.1 (see Appendix 1). Before an attempt is made to describe tones in the various tenses, I provide a summary of the patterns in Table 3.1 using a paradigm of the verb [koondókorà] "uncover"

Table 3.1: Tonal Patterns in Finite Verbs

Tone	Tense	Example	Gloss
Melody			
V1	Habitual Past Focused	mbaaγá[kóóndókóóje]	"(indeed)
(Spread)			they used to
			uncover
			(then)"
	Untimed Past Anterior	mbaa[kóóndókóra]	"(indeed)
	Focused		they have
			(already)
			uncovered"
	Remote Past Focused	mbaa[kóóndókóóje]	"(indeed)
			they
			uncovered/
			did uncover
			(then)"
	Untimed Past Anterior	mbaγaa[kóóndókóóje]	"(indeed)
	Condition Focused		they would
			have
			uncovered

Tone Melody	Tense	Example	Gloss
			(anytime before now/then)"
	Immediate Future Focused	mbaraá[kóóndókórɛ]	"(indeed) they will uncover (now)"
	Untimed Ability Focused	mbaγaa[kóóndókóra]	"(indeed) they are able to uncover"
	Untimed Present	βa[kóóndókóra]	"they uncover (fact)"
V1 (No Spread)	Hortatory Imperative (2)	ta[kóóndokorà]	"(do) uncover"
V2 (Spread)	Hodiernal Past Progressive Anterior Focused	mbaaγa[koóndókóóje]	"(indeed) they have been uncovering (today)"
V3 (Spread)	Subjunctive	βa[koondókórε]	"that they (may) uncover"
	Hodiernal Past Anterior Focused	mba[koondókóóje]	"(indeed) they uncovered (earlier today)"
	Untimed Past Anterior	βaa[koondókóra]	"they have (already) uncovered"
	Remote Future Focused	mbare[koondókóra]	"(indeed) they will uncover (then)"
	Current Present Persistive Focused	mbaγe[koondókóóje]	"(indeed) they are still uncovering"
	Untimed Real Uncertain Condition Focused	mba[koondókóra]	"(indeed) they could

Tone Melody	Tense	Example	Gloss
			uncover"
V3 (No Spread)	Mandatory Imperative	[koondókorà]	"uncover!"
V4 (1 <sup>st</sup> and 2 <sup>nd</sup> Person)	Immediate Past Anterior	too[koondokóóje]	"we have just uncovered"
(Spread)	Hortatory Imperative (3)	tora[koondokóra]	"we are going/ about to uncover"
V1 and V4 (All	Narrative Past	βαγά[kóóndokóra]	"(and) they uncovered"
Persons) (Spread)	Hodiernal Future Uncertain Possibility	βaγaa[kóóndókóra]	"perhaps they will uncover (today)"
	Remote Future	βaree[kóóndókóra]	"they will uncover (then)"
V1 and V4 (3rd Per <sup>so</sup> n) (Spread)	Immediate Past Anterior	βaa[kóóndókóóje]	"they have just uncovered"
	Hortatory Imperative (3)	βara[kóóndókóra]	"they are going/about to uncover"
No H	Hortatory Imperative (1)	βatá[koondokorà]	"let them uncover"

An examination of the data in Table 3.1 reveals that most of the tenses have at least one H tone which is assigned to the verb macrostem. This is then mapped onto the first, second, third, fourth, or first and fourth vowels. The tone that is realized on a verb is determined by the tense of the verb. Each tense or a group of tenses assign a different tonal melody on the verb macrostem. In some tenses, such as the Immediate Past Anterior and Hortatory Imperative (3), the subject prefixes have an effect on the tone patterns;

verbs with third person subject prefixes have H tones on V1 and V4 while those with first and second person subject prefixes have a high tone on V4 only.

The system of melodic tone used to categorize the tenses reduces them to six tonal groups (V1, V2, V3, V4, V1 and V4, and No H), described by the position where the melodic or primary H is assigned on the macrostem. I consider the verbs in these tenses to be underlyingly toneless, except for a few tenses with lexical high tones on the tense prefix, and that H tones are assigned to specific positions on the macrostem by morphologically conditioned rules<sup>8</sup>.

Generally, two trends emerge in the assignment of tone in the tenses. First, a few tenses select a two-tone pattern with the H being on the first and fourth vowels of the macrostem. In the second group, a high tone is assigned on one of the first four vowels of the stem depending on the tense of the verb. This is then followed by unbounded spreading of the rightmost H up to the penult. It has been shown that the penult is targeted for a variety of prosodic phenomena and it plays a role in Bantu tone (Kisseberth & Odden 2003), and in this regard Kuria is no exception. I now proceed to describe and provide illustrations from each of these tonal groups. I will begin with tenses with one primary H tone before proceding to those with two H tones.

#### 3.2.1 Tone Assignment Principle 1a: Melodic V1H (Spread)

The first tone assignment principle is V1H. This principle assigns a primary H tone on the first vowel of the verb macrostem. The *Initial Tone Association Rule (ITAR)* will be used to assign a melodic H tone to the macrostem, and I will call it ITAR (1)

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>8</sup> These are rules that make reference to morphological features.

because it targets V1.

#### (2) Initial Tone Association Rule I (ITAR (I))

$$\left[\begin{array}{ccc} & H \\ \downarrow \\ \\ \text{m-stem} & V \end{array}\right]$$

"Associate a high tone to the first vowel of the macrostem."

What is given in (2) is a general rule. In (3), the rule is modified to state specific tenses (TAM) that govern its application in Tone Assignment Principle 1a.

#### (3) Initial Tone Association Rule I (ITAR (I))

$$\begin{bmatrix} H \\ I \\ m\text{-stem} \ V \ \rightarrow \ \end{bmatrix} \text{ in } \begin{bmatrix} [+ \ Habitual \ Past \ Focused] \\ [+ \ Untimed \ Past \ Anterior \ Focused] \\ [+ \ Untimed \ Past \ Anterior \ Condition] \\ [+ \ Untimed \ Past \ Anterior \ Condition] \\ [+ \ Untimed \ Ability \ Focused] \\ [+ \ Untimed \ Present] \end{bmatrix}$$

The ITAR (I) rule given in (3) is just schematic. There seems to be no common basis for tenses in ITAR (I) which could reveal where the rule applies. A similar trend will also be witnessed in ITAR (II), (III) and (IV) rules. The first vowel of the macrostem is a special position for H tone assignment in Bantu languages because it is found at a constituent edge and is easy to identify (Odden 1999).

Since all the tenses in (3) have the same pattern, only two tenses will be discussed; the Remote Past Focused as a representative of the group, and the Habitual

<sup>&</sup>quot;Associate a high tone to the first vowel of the macrostem in the given tenses."

Past Focused because it has a high tone on the tense prefix, an unusual feature that is found in only four out of the twenty two affirmative tenses studied (the other three being the Narrative Past, the Immediate Future Focused, and the Hortatory Imperative (1)).

#### 3.2.1.1 Remote Past Focused

This tense is marked by the morphemes /...a...er.../. It exhibits a tone assignment principle which assigns the melodic H to the first vowel of the macrostem. After associating the melodic H with a vowel, the tone spreads unboundedly up to the penult. As can be seen in (4), the final vowel bears no H tone in this tense. In (4a,e), the verb forms undergo imbrication (see §2.4).

The tonal patterns in (4) can be accounted for by using three rules: ITAR (1), High Tone Spread, and L Tone Default. I will now proceed to derive the verb *mbaa[kóóndókóóje]* "(indeed) they uncovered (then)" step by step for illustration. I will start with the underlying representation (5).

(5) 
$$/$$
 ne -  $\beta$ a - a  $/$  koNrokor - er - e  $/$  UR: "(indeed) they uncovered (then)"

The first rule that applies is the ITAR (1) rule. This was formalized in (3).

The initial association of tone rarely occurs without modification. The next rule to apply is the High Tone Spread. This is formalized in (6).

# (6) High Tone Spread

High Tone Spread applies unboundedly up to the penult, leaving the final vowel without a high tone. Kuria, like Kimatuumbi, has restrictions against word-final H (Odden 1988). This is a common occurrence in Bantu languages and has been referred to as "non-finality" (§1.3.2).

After high tones have been assigned and rules referring to high tones have applied, a L Tone Default Rule assigns low tones to all the vowels left without a high tone.

#### (7) L Tone Default Rule

$$V' \rightarrow V$$

"Assign a low tone to every unassociated vowel."

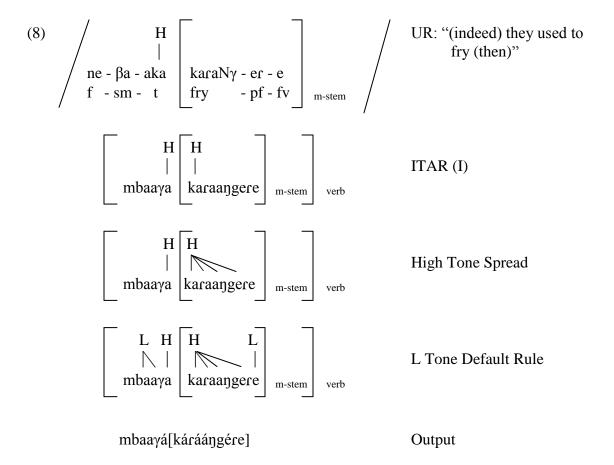
Three rules, namely, ITAR, High Tone Spread, and L Tone Default, are all that is needed to derive *mbaa[kóóndókóóje]* "(indeed) they uncovered (then)" from its underlying representation to its surface representation. These are basic tonal rules.

### 3.2.1.2 Habitual Past Focused

The habitual marks an event which occurs regularly. The Habitual Past Focused indicates that the event used to occur regularly in the past. This tense is formed with the prefix /aká-/9. The tense assigns a high tone on the first vowel of the macrostem and this H undergoes unbounded spreading to the penult. The spread is not syllable sensitive and the tense cannot be used without the focus element. I will derive <code>mbaayá[kárááŋgére]</code> (indeed) they used to fry (then)" step by step to show how its tones are realized.

<sup>9</sup> Whiteley (1955: 81) notes that the /aká/ prefix is quite modern, the older form /aŋga-/ having disappeared from Kuria.

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Only three rules apply in this tense: ITAR (I), High Tone Spread, and L Tone Default rule. As mentioned earlier, the Habitual Past Focused has a high tone on the tense prefix, /aká/. This H tone is outside the macrostem and we cannot account for it by rule. The only possible explanation is that it is a lexical high tone. This prefixal H tone does not affect the assignment of tone on the macrostem.

# 3.2.2 Tone Assignment Principle 1b: Melodic V1H (No Spread)

The next melodic pattern that is examined occurs only in a single tense in Kuria, the Hortatory Imperative (2). This being a V1 tense, ITAR (1) applies in the assignment

of the primary H tone.

## 3.2.2.1 Hortatory Imperative (2)

This form operates without subject markers but has the imperative marker /ta-/ in the prefix domain. It is used in issuing direct commands restricted to second person subjects. It has an emphatic and urgent sense. The tonal principle assigns a high tone to the first vowel of the macrostem.

When a long syllable is in the stem initial position, the high tone assigned to the first vowel spreads to the second vowel of the syllable through a rule called Intra-Syllabic H Spread, as in (9d-f), thus avoiding a falling contour. The primary H does not spread to the penult as witnessed in tenses discussed in §3.2.1. The Intra-Syallabic H Spread is ordered after ITAR.

# (10) Intra-Syllabic H Spread



"In a long vowel, spread a primary H from the first to the second vowel."

This is the first time we are seeing complexities in tonal patterns arising due to the presence of a long syllable in the macrostem.

In (9), we see that the melodic H tone does not spread. There is need to restate the High Tone Spreading rule given in (6) so that it captures the fact that in the Hortatory Imperative (2) and Mandatory Imperative (see §3.2.5) the melodic high tone does not spread. My assumption is that spreading is an automatic rule but certain morphological features can block it.

### (11) High Tone Spread (restated)



(spreads iteratively up to the penult except in the Hortatory Imperative (2) and the Mandatory Imperative)

Next, a phenomenon called downglide, which was discussed in §1.4.3, is observed in (9b,c,e,f). When there are two or more low toned vowels at the end of a verb, the last vowel falls or downglides.

I will derive now ta[héétokà] "(do) remember" to show that only three rules actively apply; ITAR (I), Intra-Syllabic H Spread, and L Tone Default Rule.

# 3.2.2.2 Monosyllabic Stems and Macrostem Adjustment

In the Hortatory Imperative (2), if the stem is monosyllabic, the high tone surfaces on the tense prefix, that is, the penult (see (13)).

Why do the monosyllabic forms in (13) have a high tone in the prefix while similar forms in (18) have a high tone on the first vowel of the macrostem? The minimality condition can be used to account for the position of the H tones in (13). This

is a constraint some languages exhibit which requires well-formed words or stems to be of a certain minimal length. In Kuria, the minimal length is disyllabic. In fact, it has been attested in many Bantu languages that monosyllabic verbs incorporate affixal material in order to make the stem disyllabic (Poletto 1996, Mtenje 2002, Odden 2006). We can see that in (14) the tense prefix /ta-/ acts as part of the macrostem and carries the tone. This is because the macrostem is made disyllabic before tone is assigned.

$$(14) a. /ta - h - a/ \rightarrow [táha] \qquad \text{``(do) give''}$$

$$t - give - fv$$

$$b. /ta - re - a/ \rightarrow [tárja] \qquad \text{``(do) eat''}$$

$$t - eat - fv$$

$$c. /ta - se - a/ \rightarrow [tásya] \qquad \text{``(do) grind''}$$

$$t - grind - fv$$

To account for the shift of the left bracket of the macrostem so as to incorporate additional material, I posit a Macrostem Adjustment Rule (15).

(15) Macrostem Adjustment Rule (I)

$$\sigma [\sigma]_{m-stem} \rightarrow [\sigma\sigma]_{m-stem}$$

This is a morphological rule which operates between the stem and the prefix. I will derive [táha] "(do) give" to illustrate how its surface form is realized.

<sup>&</sup>quot;Adjust a monosyllabic macrostem to incorporate an additional syllable from the prefix, if there is one"

Surprisingly, not all tenses invoke the disyllabicity requirement. To the best of my knowledge, Kuria monosyllabic stems limit disyllabicity to verbs of certain tenses only. Here are V1H tenses that apply minimality (17).

(17) a. /a - h - a/ 
$$\rightarrow$$
 [áha] "he gives" Untimed Present

b. /ta - h - a/  $\rightarrow$  [táha] "(do) give" Hortatory Imperative (2)

V1 tenses that do not apply the minimality condition are given in (18).

(18) a. naa[há] "(indeed) he has (already) given" Untimed Past Anterior Focused b. naakaa[há] "(indeed) he is able to give" Untimed Ability Focused

The data in (17) and (18) leads me to conclude that sometimes Kuria tolerates monosyllabic stems, but not always. When they are not tolerated, some repair strategy is used to make the stems longer.

The other tenses that assign a high tone to V1, but are not listed in (17) and (18), lengthen the monosyllabic stems by the addition of the perfective suffix /-er/, as shown in (19).

(19) a. βaa[háájé] "they have just given"b. mbaaká[hááje] "they used to give (then)"

c. mbaa[hááje] "(indeed) they gave"

d. mbakaa[hááje] "they would have given"

Immediate Past Anterior
Habitual Past Focused
Remote Past Focused
Untimed Past Anterior Condition

Untimed Past Anterior Condition Focused

# 3.2.3 Tone Assignment Principle 2: Melodic V2H (Spread)

The only tense with this melodic system is the Hodiernal Past Progressive Anterior Focused. This tense has also been referred to as the Recent Past (Odden 1987). It denotes an action which took place on the day of speaking. The H tone is assigned to the second vowel of the macrostem. Thereafter, the H undergoes unbounded spreading up to the penult. Only three rules apply in this tense: ITAR, High Tone Spread, and L Tone Default. In this melodic pattern, there is need to modify the ITAR rule so that it assigns the H tone to the second vowel of the macrostem. This is formalized in (20). I will refer to this rule as ITAR (II).

#### (20) ITAR (II)

$$\begin{bmatrix} H \\ | & \text{in} \end{bmatrix}$$
 [+Hodiernal Past Progressive Anterior Focused] 
$$\begin{bmatrix} H \\ | & \text{on } \end{bmatrix}$$

"Associate the melodic H tone to the second vowel of the macrostem in the Hodiernal Past Progressive Anterior Focused."

A complete illustration of the Hodiernal Past Progressive Anterior Focused, showing all persons, in singular and plural, is given in (21).

I will derive the verb *mbaaya[karáángére]* "(indeed) they have been frying (today)".

This tense includes the perfective suffix /-er/. In monosyllabic stems, this perfective suffix augments the stem size to three vowels, as in (23).

The Hodiernal Past Progressive Anterior Focused can be compared to the Habitual Past Focused (see §3.2.1.2) because both use the same segmental tense morpheme, /aka-/. There are, however, some differences between the two tenses. First, the Habitual Past Focused has a high tone on the tense prefix but the Hodiernal Past

Progressive Anterior Focused has low tones only in the prefix. Second, the Habitual Past Focused assigns a primary H tone on the first vowel of the macrostem but the Hodiernal Past Progressive Anterior Focused assigns it to the second vowel. These tenses are segmentally homophonous but tonally distinct. They are near minimal pairs.

(24) a. nnaaká[rómére]	"(indeed) I used to bite (then)"	Habitual Past Focused
b. nnaaka[romére]	"(indeed) I have been biting (today)	" Hodiernal Past Anterior Focused
c. mmooká[rómére]	"(indeed) you used to bite (then)"	Habitual Past Focused
d. mmooka[romére]	"(indeed) you have been biting (today	ay)" Hodiernal Past Anterior Focused
e. mbaaká[rómére]	"(indeed) they used to bite (then)"	Habitual Past Focused
f. mbaaka[romére]	"(indeed) they have been biting (tod	ay)" Hodiernal Past Anterior Focused

### 3.2.4 Tone Assignment Principle 3a: Melodic V3H (Spread)

The next set of verbs exhibit a high tone on the third vowel of the macrostem. This H tone then undergoes unbounded spreading up to the penult. In (25), the ITAR rule is restated so that it assigns a melodic H to the third vowel of the macrostem. The tenses that have this pattern are incorporated in the ITAR rule in (25). I will refer to the restated rule as ITAR (III).

"Associate the melodic H tone to the third vowel of the macrostem in the tenses listed."

The Subjunctive has been chosen to illustrate how tonal patterns are assigned in this group. In Kuria, the Subjunctive is marked by a final /-ɛ/; it assigns a high tone to the third vowel of the macrostem, as seen in (26).

(26) a. 
$$/\beta a$$
 - saN $\beta$  -  $\epsilon/$   $\rightarrow$   $\beta a[saamb\acute{\epsilon}]$  "that they (may) burn" b.  $/\beta a$  - heetok -  $\epsilon/$   $\rightarrow$   $\beta a[heet\acute{o}k\acute{\epsilon}]$  "that they (may) remember" sm - remember - fv c.  $/\beta a$  - koNrokor -  $\epsilon/$   $\rightarrow$   $\beta a[koond\acute{o}k\acute{o}r\acute{\epsilon}]$  "that they (may) uncover" sm - uncover - fv

A further illustration in (27) shows that only three rules are needed for a complete derivation in the Subjunctive. The first rule, ITAR (III), associates the melodic H to the third vowel. The next rule, the High Tone Spread, spreads the H tone up to the penult. The last rule assigns L tones on all the vowels that are still toneless after the H tones have been assigned.

We have seen that in the Subjunctive the melodic H tone is linked to the third vowel of the macrostem resulting in forms such as  $\beta a[koondokore]$  "that they (may) uncover",  $\beta a[taandore]$  "that they (may) tear", and  $\beta a[\beta iim\acute{e}]$  "that they (may) measure". This shows that the melodic tone can be placed on the final vowel if the macrostem has just three vowels, regardless of non-finality (see §1.3.2). If the verb macrostem has four vowels, the H tone is placed on the third vowel but cannot spread to the fourth, which is final, because of non-finality. If the verb stem has five or more vowels, the melodic H spreads to the penult.

What happens when a verb is short and it does not have enough vowels for the

tone mapping rule to apply? If the macrostem has two vowels, the result is a downstepped H as in (28).

(28) a. 
$$/\beta a - rom - \epsilon/$$
  $\rightarrow \beta a[ro!m\'e]$  "that they (may) bite" b.  $/\beta a - \beta un - \epsilon/$   $\rightarrow \beta a[\beta u!n\'e]$  "that they (may) break" sm - break - fv

For the forms in (28) to be realized, the melodic H, which is left floating at the end of the verb, attaches to the last vowel of the macrostem by a rule of *Floating Tone Docking*.

### (29) Floating Tone Docking

$$\begin{array}{c} H' \\ \downarrow \\ V \end{array}]_{m\text{-stem}}$$

"Link a stranded H to the last vowel of the macrostem."

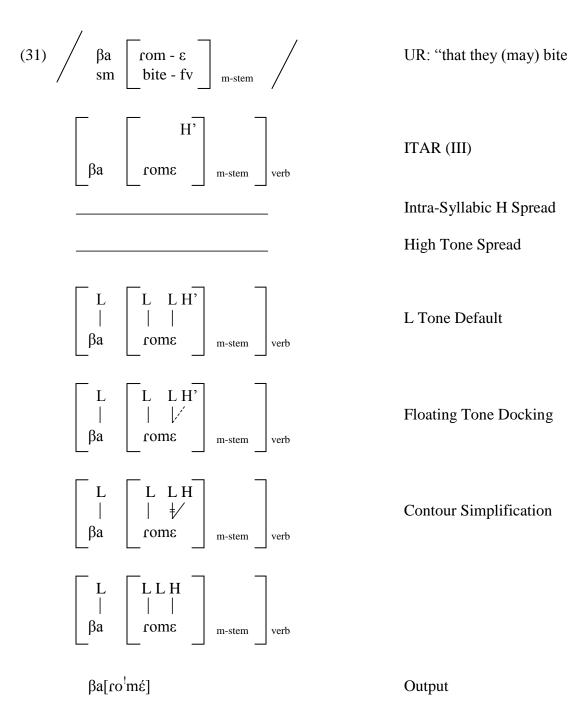
This rule links the final floating H onto the last vowel of the macrostem, producing a LH contour. Floating Tone Docking is ordered after L Tone Default Rule in a counterbleeding relationship. Another rule, Contour Simplification (30), has the effect of turning this LH contour into a H tone, and in doing so it creates a floating low tone which is a requirement for the realization of downstep in Kuria (see §1.4.2).

#### (30) Contour Simplification



"When L and H tones are linked to one vowel, delink the L so that it remains floating"

A derivation of  $\beta a [ro'm \epsilon]$  "that they (may) bite" follows in (31).



In (28) and (31), a downstepped H is preceded by low vowels. This is rather surprising given that in most languages a downstepped high occurs after another high (Huang 1985),

but this unusual state of affairs is not only found in Kuria, it has also been attested in Bamileke-Dschang (Hyman 1979:11, Pulleyblank 1986:39).

If the macrostem is monosyllabic in a melodic V3 tense, such as the Subjunctive, the H is not realized (32).

(32) a. 
$$/\beta a$$
 - re  $-\epsilon/\to \beta a[r\epsilon]$  "that they (may) eat"   
b.  $/\beta a$  - h  $-\epsilon/\to \beta a[h\epsilon]$  "that they (may) give"   
sm - give - fv

c.  $/\beta a$  - se  $-\epsilon/\to \beta a[s\epsilon]$  "that they (may) grind"   
sm - grind - fv

In these examples (32), downgliding does not take place because the low tones are followed by a floating tone. A derivation of  $\beta a/r\epsilon$ ? "that they (may) eat" follows in (33).

	Floating Tone Docking
	Contour Simplification
Balrel	Output

## 3.2.5 Tone Assignment Principle 3b: Melodic V3H (No Spread)

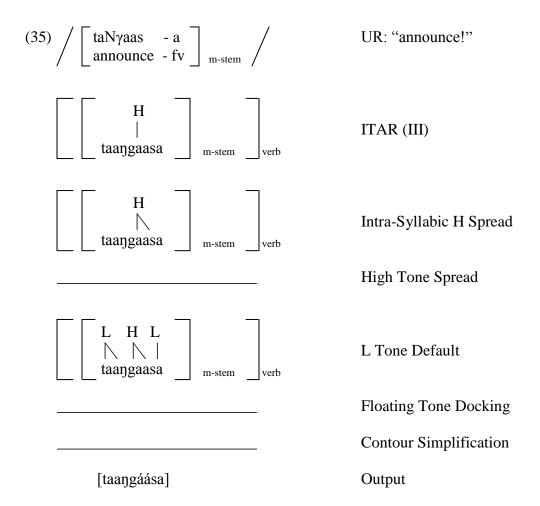
The next tonal principle assigns a high tone on the third vowel of the macrostem but no spreading takes place. If the third vowel of the macrostem is the first half of a long syllable, Intra-Syllabic H Spread applies so as to avoid a falling contour (see 34h). The Mandatory Imperative is the only tense with this melody.

# 3.2.5.1 Mandatory Imperative

This is a form of the verb used in issuing direct commands and it is restricted to the second person subject. It uses a bare verb stem, that is, subject prefixes and tense prefixes are omitted. This phenomenon of using zero-marking for imperatives is widespread in world languages (Bybee 1985, Whaley 1997).

(34) a. [haaná]	"give!"
b. [ɾoˈmá]	"bite!"
c. [βiimá]	"measure!"
d. [tɛɾɛká]	"brew!"
e. [heetóka]	"remember!"
f. [karaáŋga]	"fry!"
g. [turuúŋanà]	"welcome!"
h. [taaŋgáása]	"announce!"
i. [tereméka]	"be calm!"
j. [koondókorà]	"uncover!"

A derivation for (34h), [taaŋgáása] "announce!", is given in (35). The illustration exemplifies the fact that when a verb has only one high tone and it falls on the first vowel of a long syllable, Intra-Syllabic H Tone applies so as to avoid a falling tone.



### 3.2.5.2 Alternations in Mandatory Imperative

Two patterns were found to be acceptable for imperative verbs with three or fewer vowels in the macrostem. The forms in (36A) conform to the Melodic V3H pattern, that is, they have a high tone on the third vowel of the macrostem but those in (36B) do not undergo any ITAR. They have a sequence of low tones followed by a fall or downglide

on the last vowel of the macrostem.

### (36) Alternations in Mandatory Imperative

Α	В	
(a) [haaná]	[haanà]	"give!"
(b) [ro <sup>!</sup> má]	[romà]	"bite!"
(c) [βiimá]	[βiimà]	"measure!"
(d) [tereká]	[tɛɾɛkà]	"brew!"
(e) [sukurá]	[sukurà]	"rub!"

When there are two or more consecutive low tones at the end of a verb in the Mandatory Imperative tense, the last low tone falls or downglides (see §1.4.3). The examples in (37) show that there is no free variation in long verbs.

A downglide can be seen in longer verb stems which have a high on V3 followed by at least two vowels with low tones.

### (38) Mandatory Imperative

a. [turuúŋanà] "welcome!"b. [koondókorà] "uncover!"

# 3.2.5.3 Minimality Repair in Mandatory Imperative

Monosyllabic verbs in the Mandatory Imperative are subminimal, that is, they fall short of the minimal size. Kuria employs various strategies so as to meet the disyllabic minimality requirement in this tense. In Table 3.2 below, I present all monosyllabic verbs

in Kuria and show how they acquire the extra syllable.

Table 3.2: Repair Strategy in Mandatory Imperative

	UR	Hortatory	Empty Morph	Empty Morph	Irregular	Gloss
		Imperative (2)	/ka-/	/-an/	Form	
1.	β-а	táβa	káβa			"be!"
2.	h-a	táha	káha	haaná		"give!"
3.	i-a	tája	kája			"go!"
4.	γu-a	táγwa	γátwa			"fall!"
5.	re-a	tárja	kárja			"eat!"
6.	ne-a	tánja	kánja			"defecate!"
7.	nu-a	tánwa	kánwa			"drink!"
8.	he-a	táhja	káhja			"burn!"
9.	ke-a	tákja	γákja			"dawn!"
10.	to-a	tátwa	γátwa			"rain!"
11.	se-a	tásja	γásja			"grind!"
12.	ku-a	tákwa	γákwa			"die!"
13.	ru-a	tárwa	kárwa			"leave!"
14.	tu-a	tátwa	γátwa			"pick!"
15.	ʧ-a	táátſa	*γááʧa		ńʧo	"come!"

When a speaker is confronted with a monosyllabic verb in this tense, one way of dealing with it so as to meet disyllabic minimality is to use the verb in its Hortatory Imperative (2) form. This, however, reduces the level of assertiveness in the command. Another way is to add an empty morph /ka-/ whose identity is determined idiosyncratically. This works well with all the verbs except #a "come", which instead takes an irregular form [n#o] "come!". Although I have indicated that most of the monosyllabic verbs in the Mandatory Imperative can take the dummy prefix /ka-/, some verbs are more acceptable when they are augmented with the prefix /ta-/. The tone

markings in these three strategies suggest that all these verb forms are in the Hortatory Imperative (2). It therefore seems that there is a paradigm gap in the Mandatory Imperative for monosyllabic verbs, except in *ha* "give", which I now turn to.

The filler morph /-an/ is also used but only with the verb *ha* "give", changing it to [*haaná*] "give". This morph is not productive. As seen in §2.3.4.5, /-an/ is a reciprocal affix in Kuria, but in this verb that meaning is absent. The most plausible explanation is that /-an/ is a filler morph that is used to fulfill the minimality condition.

#### **3.2.6** Tone Assignment Principle 4: Melodic V4H (First and Second Person)

This melodic pattern occurs in the Immediate Past Anterior (first and second person) and the Hortatory Imperative (3) (first and second person). These tenses have tonal patterns that are sensitive to person. Verbs with first and second person have a high tone on the fourth vowel but verbs in the third person have high tones on the first and fourth vowels. A difference in the tonal behavior between verbs having third person versus first and second person subjects is common in Bantu languages (Odden 1990). Following Anderson (1981), I will represent first and second person with the morphological features [+ me, + you], and third person with [- me, - you].

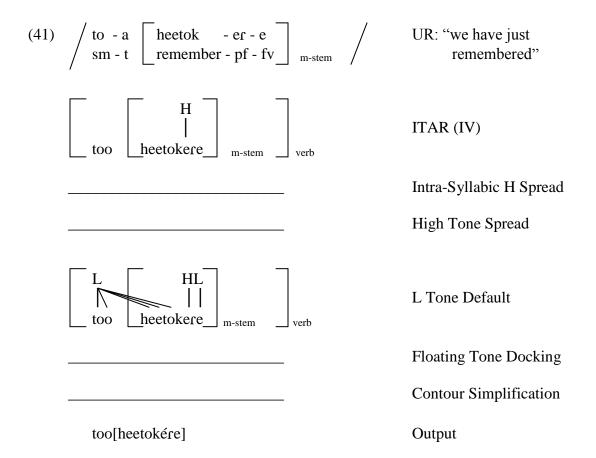
This tonal principle assigns a high tone to the fourth vowel of the macrostem. In longer verbs, the H spreads to the penult. The ITAR rule for this tone assignment principle is given in (39).

"Associate the melodic H tone to the fourth vowel of the macrostem in the tenses listed."

I will give illustrations from each of the two tenses. The examples in (40) show that verbs with four or more vowels in the macrostem will have a high tone on the fourth vowel.

### (40) Immediate Past Anterior

It is clear from these examples that if a verb stem has four vowels, the primary H docks on the final vowel, without regard to the non-finality principle (see (40a,b)). When the verb is longer, the H links to the fourth vowel and spreads to the penult. I will derive *too[heetokére]* "we have just remembered" to illustrate how the rules apply.



As seen in (41) above, only two rules are needed to complete the derivation of the verb *too[heetokére]* "we have just remembered": ITAR and L Tone Default.

In the melodic V4 pattern, verbs with one or two vowels in the macrostem have only low tones (42).

d. /to - ra - 
$$\beta$$
un - a/  $\rightarrow$  tora[ $\beta$ una] "we are going/about to break" sm - t - break - fv

The derivation in (43) shows how verbs with two syllable in the macrostem receive their tones in a V4 tense. I will use the form *tora[roma]* "we are going/about to bite"

When the tone mapping rule is blocked from applying (as in 43) because there are too few vowels in the macrostem, the melodic H tone is not lost. It remains floating and prevents downglide from taking place. This floating H manifests itself when another word is added onto the shorter verbs. I will add the noun *eye[tɔɔ́kɛ]* "banana" to the forms in (44).

```
(44) Short Verb + Noun
a. tora[sja eyetóókε] "we are going/about to grind a banana"
b. tora[rja eyetóókε] "we are going/about to eat a banana"
c. tora[roma eyétóókε] "we are going/about to bite a banana"
d. tora[βuna eyétóókε] "we are going/about to break a banana"
```

In all the examples in (44), the floating H tone surfaces on V4 as expected.

For verbs with three vowels in the macrostem, the floating tone links to the final vowel of the macrostem then takes over the whole tone bearing unit forcing the low tone previously docked there to delink. This causes an obligatory downstep.

I will derive *tora[tere* ká] "we are going/about to brew" to show how the rules apply.

If a noun is added to a verb with three vowels in the macrostem, the floating tone which causes a downstep in (46) will appear on V4 since there is enough segmental material to associate to. I will add the nouns *ama[rwá]* "beer" and *ama[yéna]* "stones" to three vowel verbs in (47).

Examples in (44) and (47) show that the macrostem includes the following word. Tone is assigned at the phrasal level, counting vowels from the left edge of the macrostem.

# 3.2.7 Tone Assignment Principle 5a: Melodic V1H and V4H (All Persons)

I have been dealing with tenses that assign only one H tone to the macrostem. I now turn to melodies involving combinations of tone assignment principles. These come

with complications that require additional rules. A number of tenses in Kuria select a two-tone pattern where the primary H tones are realized on the first and fourth vowels of the macrostem. The tenses that we shall start with have a tone principle that assigns V1H and V4H in all persons. ITAR (I) and ITAR (IV) rules, formalized in §3.2.1 and §3.2.6 respectively, will apply as separate rules in this tone assignment principle. In (48), I give the tenses that combine these two rules.

Two tenses, the Hodiernal Future Uncertain Possibility and the Narrative Past, are described below. The first is a representive of tenses in this group, but the second is chosen because it does not follow all tone rules as expected.

### **3.2.7.1** Hodiernal Future Uncertain Possibility

The Hodiernal Future Uncertain Possibility is formed with the tense prefix /kaa-/, and has H tones on the first and fourth vowels of the macrostem. As we saw earlier in §3.2.1 and §3.2.6, ITAR (I) and ITAR (IV) rules are used to assign H tones to the first and the fourth vowels of the macrostem respectively. After these primary H tones have been assigned, other rules apply as necessary. In V1 and V4 tenses, the basic tone pattern is best revealed by relatively long verb macrostems of the CV-type of syllable. Examples are given in (49).

(49) a. 
$$/\beta a$$
 - kaa - rom - er - an - a/  $\rightarrow$   $\beta akaa[róméraná]$  "perhaps they will bite for sm - t - bite - ap - rec - fv each other (today)"

b. 
$$/\beta a$$
 - kaa -  $\beta$ ereker - an - a/  $\rightarrow$   $\beta$ akaa[ $\beta$ érékerána] "perhaps they will sm - t - call - rec - fv call each other (today)"

c. 
$$/\beta a$$
 - kaa - teremek - er - an - a/ $\rightarrow$   $\beta a \gamma a [térémekérána]$  "perhaps they will be sm - t - fry - ap - rec - fv calm for each other (today)"

A number of observations can be made concerning the data in (49). In all the examples, the H tone assigned to V1 undergoes bounded spreading to V2, and there is no H tone on V3. In (49c), the H tone assigned to V4 spreads to the penult. If V4 is the last vowel of the macrostem, the H tone docks on it regardless of non-finality. A new rule, called *Doubling Rule*, is needed to account for the spread of V1 to V2 seen in (49).

# (50) Doubling Rule

"Spread a linked H one vowel to the right when there is another high tone on the right."

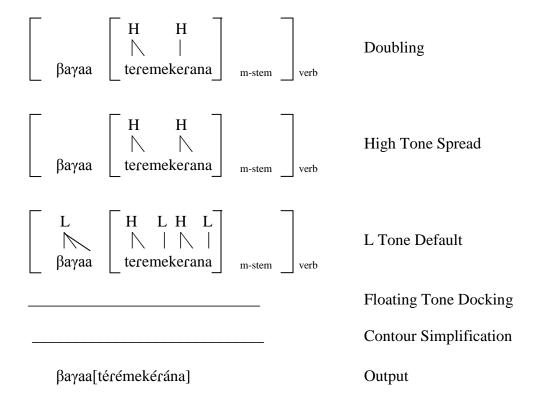
Also, the High Tone Spread rule stated in (6) and (11) needs to be restated to show that when there are two primary high tones on the macrostem, it is the second one that spreads up to the penult.

# (51) High Tone Spread (restated)

"Spread the rightmost H tone up to the penult except in Hortatory Imperative (2) and the Mandatory Imperative"

This rule will apply to a H tone when it is the only primary high tone in the macrostem or if it is the second high tone in the macrostem that has two primary high tones. The first primary H will be subjected to doubling. This means that if a tense has two primary high tones in the macrostem, the first high tone undergoes bounded spreading while the second undergoes unbounded spreading up to the penult (see (52)).

Although I have discussed ITAR rules starting from the lower number moving upwards (I, II, III IV), that is not suggestive of the way ITAR (I) and ITAR (IV) are ordered when they are combined in a melodic tone. As will be explained in §3.6.2, it is more economical to order ITAR (IV) before ITAR (1). I now proceed to derive (49c)  $\beta ayaa[t\acute{e}r\acute{e}mek\acute{e}r\acute{a}na]$  "perhaps they will be calm for each other (today)" step by step.



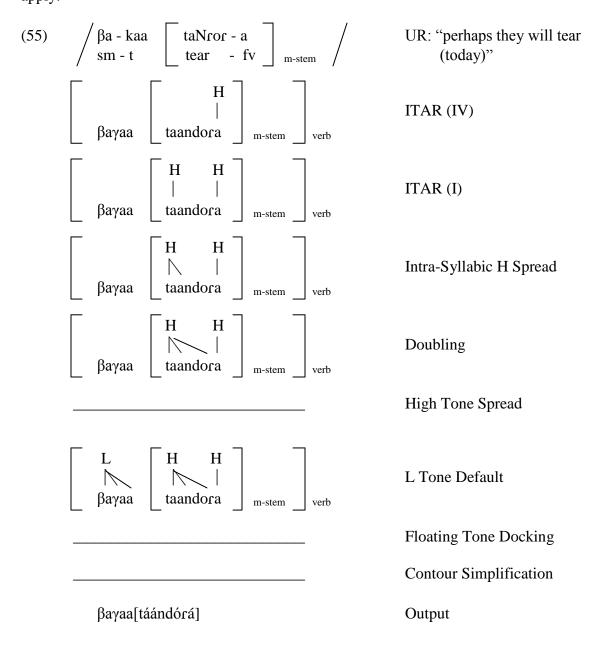
In (53), the ITAR rules associate the first and fourth vowels of the macrostem with the primary tones. This is followed by doubling, which spreads the first high tone to the second vowel of the macrostem. Then the primary high tone on V4 spreads to the penult. Lastly, low tones are assigned to the vowels which are still toneless.

As already mentioned, when long syllables are used in the verbs, complexities arise. Let us take a case where the first syllable in the macrostem is long, as in the examples in (54).

(54) a. 
$$/\beta a$$
 - kaa - saN $\beta$  - a/  $\rightarrow$   $\beta a\gamma aa[sáámbá]$  "perhaps they will burn sm - t - burn - fv (today)"

b.  $/\beta a$  - kaa - taNror - a/  $\rightarrow$   $\beta a\gamma aa[táándórá]$  "perhaps they will tear sm - t - tear - fv (today)"

In all the examples in (54), Intra-Syllabic H Spread applies before Doubling. I proceed to derive (54b) βaγaa[táándórá] "perhaps they will tear (today)" to show how the rules apply.



In (55), the ITAR rules associate the first and fourth vowels of the macrostem with the primary tones. Since the first primary tone is mapped on to the first vowel of a long syllable, Intra-Syllabic H Spread applies to spread that H tone to the second vowel of the syllable. This is followed by doubling, which spreads the first high tone to the third vowel of the macrostem, making all the vowels of the macrostem high. Lastly, low tones are assigned to the vowels in the prefix which are still toneless.

When the long vowel is on the second syllable of the macrostem, doubling is blocked so as to avoid a falling tone, as in (56).

The data in (57) shows that when the first and second syllables are long, in V1 and V4 tenses, both syllables carry high tone. Doubling onto the first vowel of a long syllable is allowed so long as the second vowel of the long syllable has a high tone.

At this point, there is need to write a doubling rule which caters for all the data in (49), (54), (56), and (57). The all inclusive doubling rule is stated in (58).

# (58) Doubling Rule



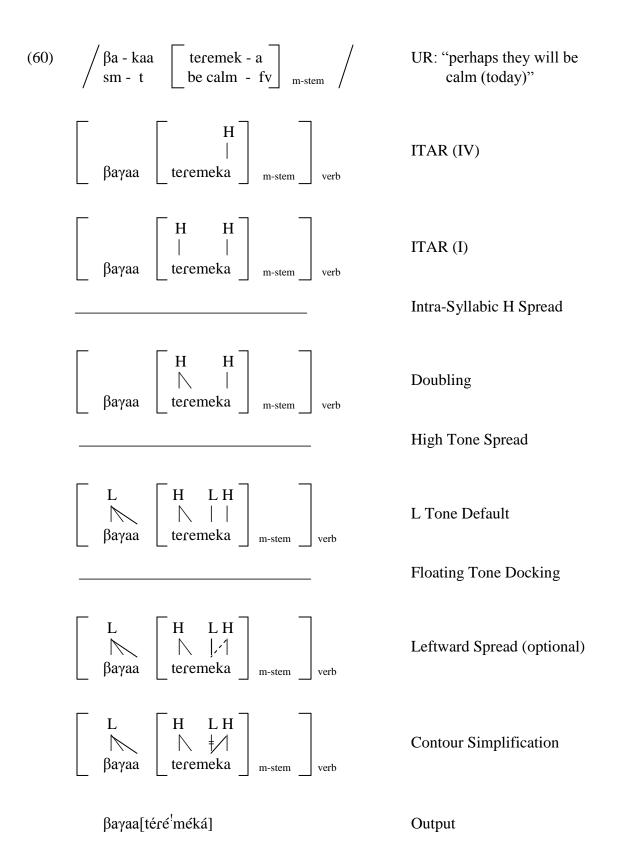
"Spread a linked H one vowel to the right when there is another H tone on the right."

The other rule that needs to be formalized is the *Leftward Spread*. This is an optional rule. The optionality creates two variants of the same form, for example,  $\beta a\gamma aa[t\acute{e}r\acute{e}mek\acute{a}]$  alternating with  $\beta a\gamma aa[t\acute{e}r\acute{e}^im\acute{e}k\acute{a}]$  "perhaps they will be calm (today)".

# (59) Leftward Spread (optional)

"Optionally spread the final H tone leftwards in a verb final HLH sequence".

This rule is ordered before Contour Simplification so that they are in a feeding relationship. I will derive  $\beta a \gamma a a [t\acute{e}r\acute{e}'m\acute{e}k\acute{a}]$  "perhaps they will be calm (today)" to show how the rule applies.



The output in (60) is optional depending on whether the Leftward Spread rule applies or not. Some speakers of this language will produce a downstep as shown in (60) while others will not. Sometimes one speaker will use the downstepped and non-downstepped variants interchangeably. This is not surprising since it has been suggested that many cases of downstep are in fact cases of downdrift made opaque due to marking the low tone as floating (Huang 1985).

#### 3.2.7.2 Narrative Past

This tense is formed by prefixing the morpheme /ká-/ to the stem. It is used when talking about consecutive events in the past. The tense is dependent in the sense that it relies on a prior tense to give the time frame. The high tones are marked on the first and the fourth vowels of the stem in all persons just as in the infinitives and the Remote Future. The examples in (61) illustrate this pattern.

What is notable with this tense is that the tense morpheme /ká-/, which is outside the macrostem, is marked by a high tone. This prefixal H tone however does not interfere with the assignment of tone in the macrostem. Also, not all our tone rules apply in this tense. For example, Doubling does not apply if Intra-Syllabic H Spread has applied (see (61a) and (61d)). Essentially, this means that the third vowel of the macrostem never bears a high tone in this tense.

Returning to (61a), we see that the ITAR (I) and ITAR (IV) rules assign high tones on the first and fourth vowels of the macrostem. Thereafter, Intra-Syllabic H Spread applies to spread the H on the first vowel to the second vowel of the macrostem. Even if the structural conditions for the doubling rule (for the first primary H tone) are met, the rule never applies. This is what makes this tense unique. The tense is however syllable sensitive, that is, tone is assigned with reference to the length of the syllables, as seen in (61b) and (61c). In these two examples, doubling fails to apply to forestall a falling contour.

I suggest that for this tense, the Intra-Syllabic H Spread and Doubling rules are in one block such that they are disjunctively ordered. When the structural description for Intra-Syllabic H Spread is met, the rule applies and Doubling does not. If they are not met but the ones for Doubling are met, then this second rule applies. Either way, the third vowel of the macrostem will be devoid of a high tone.

In this tense, monosyllabic verbs do not have any high tone on the macrostem. This is because of nonfinality and the disyllabic minimality condition. The H tone in the tense prefix in (62) could also be doubling up as a stem H.

(62) a. /a - ká - h - a/ 
$$\rightarrow$$
 a[káha] "(and) he gave"

b. /a - ká - re - a/  $\rightarrow$  a[kárja] "(and) he ate"

c. /a - ká - se - a/  $\rightarrow$  a[ $\gamma$ ásja] "(and) he ground"

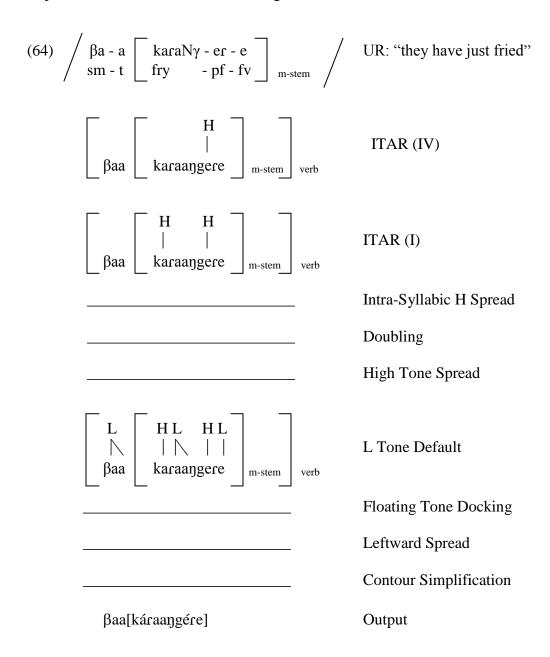
sm - t - grind - fv

### 3.2.8 Tone Assignment Principle 5b: Melodic V1H and V4H (Third Person)

This tonal principle is found in the Immediate Past Anterior and the Hortatory Imperative (3). These tenses have tonal patterns that are sensitive to person. As noted in §3.2.6, verbs with first and second person in these tenses have a high tone on the fourth vowel but verbs in the third person have high tones on the first and fourth vowels. This means that verbs with first and second person subjects have one H tone in the macrostem while verbs with third person subject have two H tones. In this section, I will examine tenses with third person subject. These are listed in (63) as features.

The Immediate Past Anterior is morphologically marked by the morphemes /a...er/. Tone assignment in the Immediate Past Anterior (third person) is similar to that found in the Hortatory Imperative (3), that is, there are two primary H tones on the macrostem assigned to the first and fourth vowels. This suggests that the first primary H

tone is triggered by the third person subject prefix while the second H tone is a property of the verb tense. I will derive the form  $\beta aa[k\acute{a}raang\acute{e}re]$  'they have just fried" step by step to illustrate how the tones are assigned.



High Tone Spread does not apply because of nonfinality. The position of a long syllable

in the verb has an effect on how tones are assigned. For example, doubling fails to apply so as to avoid a falling contour in the second and third vowels of the macrostem.

Depending on the position of the long syllable in the macrostem and the length of the verb stem, doubling on to the final vowel may be allowed (65).

Four tonal rules actively apply to give the output in (65); ITAR (I), Intra-Syllabic H Spread, Doubling, and L Tone Default, as seen in (66).

According to Odden (1987:320), the output of a case like (66) is the result of a conspiracy between Intra-Syllabic H Spread (Predoubling) and doubling to make the final vowel high.

# 3.2.9 Tone Assignment Principle 6: No Stem H Tone

Although a high tone is found in most verbs, I have shown that when verb macrostems are too short there is a likelihood of getting verbs with low tones only (see §3.2.6, (42)). In this section, I look at a tense that does not assign a high tone at all in the macrostem. This is the Hortatory Imperative (1). It has a subject marker and a tense marker /tá-/ that is lexically high. The verbs given in (67) illustrate this pattern.

Generally, it is common for imperatives to have a unique tone pattern. This has been attested in Lunyala, Lusaamia, and Llogoori (Marlo 2007). Just as in the Mandatory Imperative, the final vowel in Hortatory Imperative (1) verbs ends in a downglide.

# 3.3 Tone in Infinitive Verbs

This section describes tone patterns found in the infinitive. I start by providing a set of data. I will use the verb forms provided in §3.1 to lay out the data.

Table 3.3: List of Verbs in the Infinitive

Root Shape	Example	Gloss			
Consonant Initial Verbs					
С	oko[há]	"to give"			
CV	oko[rjá]	"to eat"			
	ογο[sjá]	"to grind"			
CVC	oko[róma]	"to bite"			
	uku[βúna]	"to break"			
CVVC	uku[βíímá]	"to measure"			
	oγo[sáámbá]	"to burn"			
CVCVC	ογο[tέrέ <sup>!</sup> ká]	"to brew"			
	uγu[súkú <sup>¹</sup> rá]	"to rub"			

Root Shape	Example	Gloss	
CVVCVC	oko[héétóká]	"to remember"	
	ογο[táándórá]	"to tear"	
CVCVVC	ογο[káraaŋgá]	"to fry"	
	oko[háγaaʧá]	"to build"	
CVVCVVC	ογο[tááŋgáása]	"to announce"	
	uγu[síítááka]	"to accuse, sue"	
CVCVCVC	oko[βérékerá]	"to call"	
	oγo[térémeká]	"to be calm"	
CVCVVCVC	uγu[túruuŋána]	"to welcome"	
CVVCVCVC	ογο[kóóndókóra]	"to uncover"	
CVVCVVCVC	oko[hóótóótéra]	"to reassure"	
	Vowel Initial Verbs		
V	uku[já]	"to go"	
VC	οκο[όγα]	"to weed"	
VCVC	ukwi[íγό <sup>!</sup> rá]	"to open"	
	okɔ[śβś <sup>!</sup> há]	"to fear"	
VCVVC	ukwi[íγɔɔmbá]	"to desire"	
VCVCVC	oko[ónékerá]	"to lay out"	
VCVVCVC	oko[óraaţjána]	"to cross, fold"	

The verbs given in Table 3.3 can be made longer by the addition of extension suffixes.

In the infinitives, H tone is assigned to the first and fourth vowels of the macrostem. It combines two tone assignment principles. We do not need new rules since ITAR (I) has already been formalized in §3.2.1 (2), and ITAR (IV) in §3.2.6, (39). As in

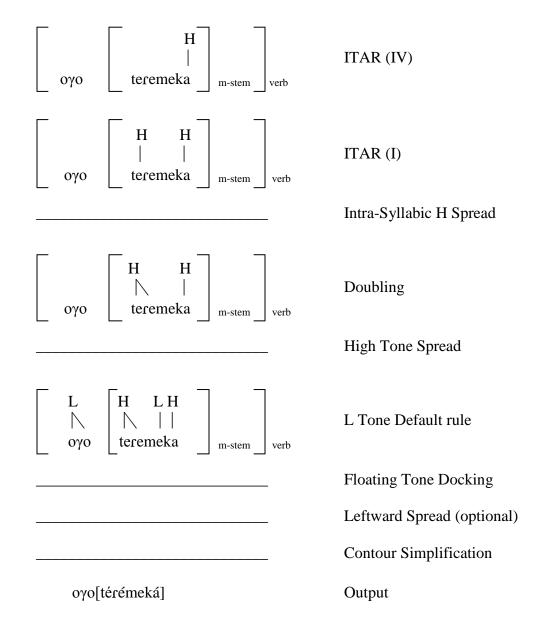
other V1 and V4 tenses, the basic tone in the infinitive is best revealed by a long macrostem of five or more vowels, of the CV-type.

A derivation of *oyo[térémekérána]* "to be calm for each other" follows in (69).

In (69), the ITAR rules associate the first and fourth vowels of the macrostem with the melodic high tones. Then, the high tone on V1 doubles to the second vowel, and the H on V4 spreads to the penult. Spreading onto the final vowel of the macrostem is avoided because of non-finality.

### 3.3.1 Short Verbs

In this section, I look at how the infinitival tone pattern applies in short verbs. As said in §3.1, I consider verbs with one, two, three, and four vowels in the macrostem to be short. Let us start with a verb that has four vowels in the macrostem, *oyo[térémeká]* "to be calm". The fourth vowel, which is the final vowel in the verb, bears a H tone regardless of the non-finality principle. The derivation in (70) shows how the tones are assigned.



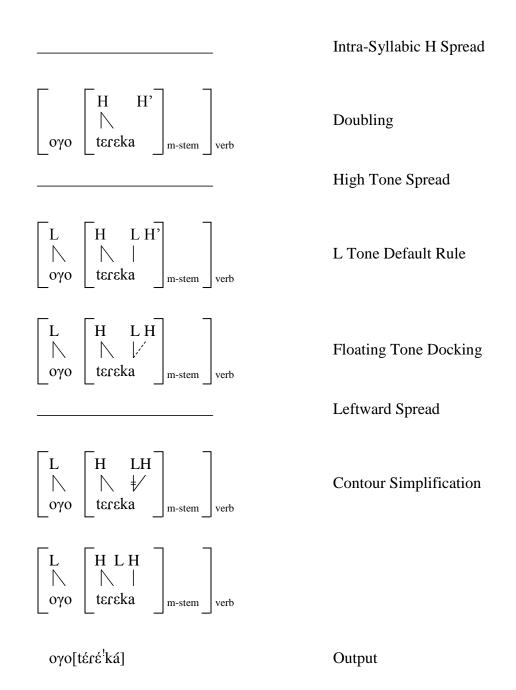
Some speakers produce the output in (70) with a downstep, as oyo[téré'méká] "to be calm". Others employ free variation between the two forms, oyo[térémeká] and oyo[téré'méká]. As seen in §3.2.7.1, the optionality of the Leftward Spread rule helps us to account for this free variation. When Leftward Spread does not apply, the result is

oyo[térémeká], as in (70). When the rule applies, we get the alternative form, oyo[téré méká].

The Leftward Spread rule is iterative. This means that it can apply repeatedly to all segments in a string which meet the structural description of the rule, as in (71).

When an infinitive has three vowels in the macrostem, the second primary H tone cannot be assigned because there is no vowel for it to be associated with. The H tone remains floating (see §3.2.6) until the L Tone Default rule has applied. It then links to the final vowel, which has a low tone, resulting in an obligatory downstep. A derivation follows in (72).

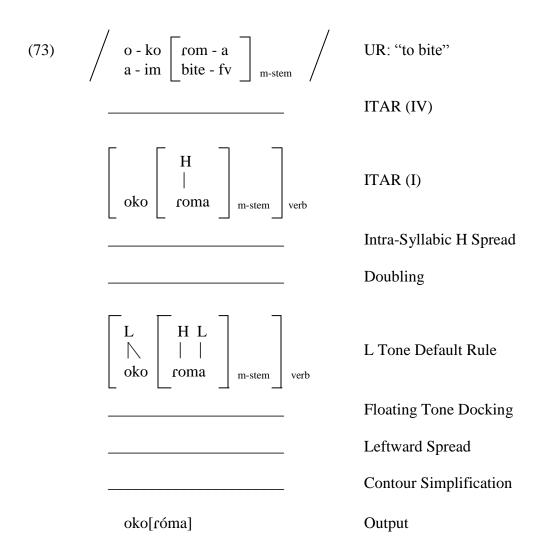
(72) 
$$\int o - ko \left[ \text{terek - a brew - fv} \right]_{m-\text{stem}}$$
 UR: "to brew"  $\left[ \begin{bmatrix} H' \\ \text{oyo} \end{bmatrix}_{m-\text{stem}} \right]_{w-\text{rb}}$  ITAR (IV)



The downstep in the output of (72) is obligatory since there are no alternating forms.

When a verb stem has only one or two vowels, a number of rules such as ITAR (1V), Doubling, Floating Tone Docking, and Leftward Spread, do not apply. Doubling does not apply because of the non-finality principle. Floating Tone Docking never takes

place because the floating tone is several steps away from the final vowel to be able to link to it. The fourth vowel H tone is therefore not found in verbs with one or two-vowels in the macrostem. The derivation in (73) shows rules that apply in a verb with a two vowel macrostem.

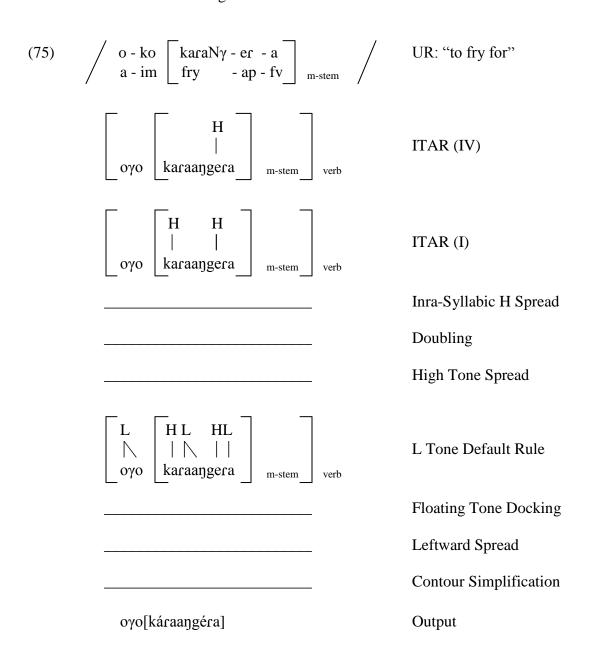


Next, in (74), is a derivation of a verb with a single vowel on the macrostem.

In verbs with one vowel in the macrostem, the ITAR (I) rule associates the first high tone to the single vowel. This does not violate the non-finality principle since a primary H is allowed on the final vowel.

# 3.3.2 Long Syllables

As shown in §3.2.7.1, a long syllable in the macrostem leads to complexities in the tonal pattern. I will provide a derivation of  $o\gamma o[k\acute{a}raang\acute{e}ra]$  "to fry for" to illustrate an instance when the Doubling rule is blocked.



In (75), doubling does not apply because, if it did, it would create a falling tone on the long syllable.

# 3.4 Object Prefixes

In some Bantu languages the object prefix has special tonal effects on the macrostem. For example, in the Luhya dialects of Lumarachi and Lunyala, an object prefix contributes a high tone to the verb stem (Marlo 2007). In Kuria, the object prefix neither has a high tone itself nor sponsors one. It only serves to increase the length of the macrostem by one syllable, as shown in (76).

(76) Immediate Past Anterior

a. 
$$/\beta a$$
 - a - terek - er - e/  $\rightarrow$   $\beta aa[t\acute{\epsilon}r\acute{\epsilon}ker\acute{\epsilon}]$  "they have just brewed" sm - t - brew - pf - fv

b. 
$$/\beta a$$
 -  $a$  -  $\gamma a$  -  $terek$  -  $er$  -  $e/$   $\rightarrow$   $\beta aa[\gamma \acute{a}t\acute{e}rek\acute{e}re]$  "they have just brewed  $sm$  -  $t$  -  $om6$  -  $brew$  -  $pf$  -  $fv$  it-6"

c. 
$$/\beta a - a - \gamma a$$
 - mo - terek - er - e/ $\rightarrow$   $\beta aa[\gamma \acute{a}m\acute{o}$ terékééje] "they have just brewed sm - t - om6 - om1 - brew - pf - fv it-6 for him-1"

In (76a), the verb stem does not have an object prefix. In (76b), one object prefix is introduced. In (76c), there are two object prefixes. In all these examples, the primary H tones are assigned to the first and fourth vowels of the macrostem, before other rules such as doubling and spreading apply, regardless of whether the object prefix is present or not. This clearly shows that the object prefix does not change the tone pattern of the tense.

In the examples that follow (77), the third person singular object prefix is used together with tenses from different tonal melodies. The object prefix just adds to the

length of the verb, even when there are multiple object prefixes in the verb, as in (77e-f).

(77) a. V1 - Habitual Past Focused

/ne - 
$$\beta a$$
 - aká - mo - rom - er - e/  $\rightarrow$  mbaaká[mórómére] "(indeed) they f - sm - t - om1 - bite - pf - fv used to bite him"

b. V2 - Hodiernal Past Progressive Anterior Focused

/ne -  $\beta a$  - aka - mo - rom - er - e/  $\rightarrow$  mbaaka[morómére] "(indeed) they f - sm - t - om1 - bite - pf - fv have been biting him (today)"

c. V3 - Subjunctive

/ $\beta a$  - mo - rom -  $\epsilon$ /  $\rightarrow$   $\beta a$ [moromé] "that they sm - om1 - bite - fv (may) bite him"

d. V4 - Immeditte Past Anterior (1<sup>st</sup> and 2<sup>nd</sup> Person)

/to - a - mo - rom - er - e/  $\rightarrow$  too[moromeré] "we have just sm - t - om1 - bite - pf - fv bitten him"

e. V1 & V4 - Immediate Past Anterior (3<sup>rd</sup> Person)

/ $\beta a$  - a - mo -  $\beta a$  - rom - er - er - e/  $\rightarrow$   $\beta aa$ [mó $\beta$ áromééje] "they have just sm - t - om1 - om2 - bite - ap - pf - f bitten him for them-2"

When, however, the first person singular object prefix, /ne-/, is used in a verb, the resulting tonal pattern differs from those with the other object prefixes. Verbs with the first singular object prefix have similar tonal patterns to those of the vowel-initial verbs. I will discuss these patterns in §3.6.

## 3.5 Clitics

Kuria has three clitic morphemes which express the location or direction of an event or action (see §2.3.5). These are:

The last two, (78b-c), are noun class prefixes for classes 17, and 18 respectively, while (78a) is a pronominal form for class 16, which has one noun, *ahase* "place". These locatives cannot stand on their own as complete words. Phonologically, they have the capacity to attach to other words either as prefixes or suffixes, and syntactically, they can combine with words from different lexical categories. When these clitics are added to tensed verbs they do not change the tonal pattern, they just serve to increase the length of the word.

# (79) Hodiernal Past Progressive Anterior Focused

```
a. m-ba-aka-[βiím-ír-e] "(indeed) they have been measuring (today)"
b. m-ba-aka-[βiím-ír-é-hɔ] "(indeed) they have been measuring there (today)"
c. m-ba-aka-[βiím-ír-é-kɔ] "(indeed) they have been measuring on (it) (today)"
d. m-ba-aka-[βiím-ír-é-mɔ] "(indeed) they have been measuring in there (today)"
```

The verbs in (79b-d) have locative clitics, *hɔ*, *kɔ*, and *mɔ*. They therefore have information about "place" which is not found in (79a). The places referred to by the clitics in (79b-d) must have been previously mentioned in the discourse. These clitics are therefore anaphoric.

The examples in (80), taken from the Immediate Past Anterior, illustrate that it is possible for a high tone to be assigned to the clitic in shorter verb macrostems.

(80) a. 
$$/\beta a$$
 - a - rom - er - e ho/  $\rightarrow \beta aa[rómérehó]$  "they have just bitten there" sm - t - bite - pf - fv loc16

b. /βa - a - rom - er - e kɔ/ → βaa[rómérekɔ́] "they have just bitten on (it)" sm - t - bite - pf - fv loc17
c. /βa - a - rom - er - e mɔ/ → βaa[róméremɔ́] "they have just bitten in

there"

#### 3.6 Vowel Initial Verbs

sm - t - bite - pf - fv loc18

Up to this point, we have only interacted with consonant-initial verbs. In this section, I analyze tonal patterns in vowel-initial verbs. A comparison of the tonal patterns found in consonant-initial verbs with those of vowel-initial verbs shows that the vowel-initial verbs exhibit an unusual pattern of tone marking. This difference is observed in eight out of the twenty-two affirmative tenses under study (see Table 3.3). A few generalizations about these eight tenses are in order here. First, the consonant-initial verbs of the these eight tenses have a high tone on the first vowel of the stem. Second, the vowel-initial verbs that appear to have an unusual tone pattern have a long vowel just before the macrostem, this being a product of a tense marker with a long vowel or two vowels contributed by a subject marker and a tense marker. Third, the first vowel of the macrostem in the vowel-initial verbs does not bear a high tone. An exception to these generalizations is the Hortatory Imperative (1). In this tense, the change in the tonal pattern is realized by the H tone on the tense marker spreading to the first vowel in the macrostem. These can be seen at a glance in Table 3.4 below.

Table 3.4: Tonal Patterns in Consonant Initial vs Vowel Initial Verbs

	Tense	Consonant Initial Verbs	Vowel Initial Verbs
	Changes in Tone Assignment	[karaáŋga] "fry"	[iyɔ́ɔ́mba] "desire"
1.	Immediate Past Anterior (Third Person)	βaa[káraaŋgére] H on V1 and V4	βa[iγóómbére] H on V2 and V4
	(First and Second Person)	oo[karaaŋgére] H on V4	wi[iγoombére] H on V4
2.	Hodiernal Future Uncertain Possibility	βaγaa[káraaŋgá] H on V1 and V4	βaka[iγόόmbá] H on V2 and V4
3.	Remote Future	βaree[káraaŋgá] H on V1 and V4	βari[iγόόmbá] H on V2 and V4
4.	Untimed Past Anterior Focused	mbaa[kárááŋga] H on V1	mba[iγόόmba] H on V2
5.	Remote Past Focused	mbaa[kárááŋgére] H on V1	mba[iγóómbére] H on V2
6.	Untimed Past Anterior Condition Focused	mbaγaa[kárááŋgére] H on V1	mbaka[iγóómbére] H on V2
7.	Untimed Ability Focused	mbaγaa[kárááŋga] H on V1	mbaka[iγόόmba] H on V2
8.	Hortatory Imperative (1)	βatá[karaaŋgà] No H	βatá[íγɔɔmbà] H on V1
	No Changes in Tone Assignment		
9.	Narrative Past	βαγά[káraaŋgá] H on V1 and V4	βaká[íγɔɔmbá] H on V1 and V4
10.	Hortatory Imperative (3) (Third Person)	βara[káraaŋgá] H on V1 and V4	βara[íγɔɔmbá] H on V1 and V4
	(First and Second Person)	tora[karaaŋgá] H on V4	tora[iγɔɔmbá] H on V4
11.	Habitual Past Focused	mbaaγá[kárááŋgére] H on V1	mbaaká[íγóómbére] H on V1
12.	Immediate Future Focused	mbaraá[kárááŋgε] Η on V1	mbara[íγόόmbε] H on V1
13.	Untimed Present	βa[kárááŋga] H on V1	βa[íγόómba] H on V1

	Tense	Consonant Initial Verbs	Vowel Initial Verbs
14.	Hortatory Imperative (2)	ta[káraaŋgà] H on V1	ta[íγόόmba] H on V1
15.	Hodiernal Past Progressive Anterior Focused	mbaaγa[karááŋgére] H on V2	mbaaka[iγóómbére] H on V2
16.	Subjunctive	βa[karaáŋgε] H on V3	βa[iγɔómbε] H on V3
17.	Hodiernal Past Anterior Focused	mba[karaáŋgére] H on V3	mba[iγóómbére] H on V3
18.	Untimed Past Anterior	βaa[karaáŋga] H on V3	βa[iγɔɔ́mba] H on V3
19.	Remote Future Focused	mbare[karaáŋga] H on V3	mbari[iyəómba] H on V3
20.	Current Present Persistive Focused	mbaye[karaáŋgére] H on V3	mbaki[iyoómbére] H on V3
21.	Untimed Real Uncertain Condition Focused	mba[karaáŋga] H on V3	mba[iγɔśmba] H on V3
22.	Mandatory Imperative	[karaáŋga] H on V3	[iγɔómba] H on V3

The other tenses (9-22) in Table 3.4, have uniform surface tone patterns in both the consonant-initial verbs and the vowel-initial verbs. Three reasons can be given: some of these tenses assign H tone to the second, third, or fourth vowel of the macrostem, rather than to the first vowel; some tenses have a short vowel preceding the macrostem; and lastly, other tenses have a high tone on the tense prefix. This high tone tends to spread to the first vowel of the macrostem so as to avoid a falling contour.

The vowel-initial verbs have a stem that starts with an onsetless syllable. This section investigates the interaction between onsetless syllables and tone assignment in vowel-initial verbs. Studies have shown that there is a general dispreference for onsetless syllables in languages (Hyman and Katamba 1999; Odden 2006); optimal syllables have

onsets. This tends to limit the distribution of onsetless syllables mostly to word or phrase-initial positions. Such syllables tend to have exceptional prosody since they are often ignored in prosodic processes which refer to reduplication, stress assignment, and tone association (Odden 1995, 2006; Downing 1997, 1998). I will pursue the argument that onsetless syllables are not totally ignored for tone association in Kuria; they are counted when assigning tone but are not allowed to carry H tones. Downing (1997, 1998), working in an Optimality Theory approach, claims that what actually takes place is a misalignment between the prosodic and morphological constituents.

To account for the differences observed in Table 3.4 between consonant-initial and vowel-initial verbs in eight tenses, I will assume that the vowel-initial verbs follow similar tonal rules as the consonant-initial verbs and proceed to show why the tonal patterns in the vowel-initial verbs seem to be different. My description will be in three parts, as shown in (81).

### (81) Tenses with adjusted macrostems in vowel-initial verbs

- a. Verbs with H on V2
  - Untimed Past Anterior Focused
  - Remote Past Focused
  - Untimed Past Anterior Condition
  - Untimed Ability Focused

### b. Verbs with H on V2 and V4

- Immediate Past Anterior (3<sup>rd</sup> person)
- Hodiernal Future Uncertain Possibility
- Remote Future

### c. Verbs with H on V1

• Hortatory Imperative (1)

#### 3.6.1 Vowel Initial Verbs with H on V2

I will start the discussion with the simpler pattern first, that is, tenses with only one primary H tone. In the Untimed Past Anterior Focused, Remote Past Focused, Untimed Past Anterior Condition, and the Untimed Ability Focused tenses, the consonant-initial verbs have primary H tones on the first vowel of the macrostem but the vowel-initial verbs have a primary H tone on the second vowel of the macrostem. This can be seen in the examples in (82) and (83) which are drawn from the Remote Past Focused tense.

# (82) Consonant Initial Verbs

a. /ne - 
$$\beta$$
a - a - h - er - e/  $\rightarrow$  mbaa[hááje] "(indeed) they gave (then)" f - sm - t - give - pf - fv

b. /ne - 
$$\beta a$$
 - a - rom - er - e/  $\rightarrow$  mbaa[rómére] "(indeed) they bit (then)" f - sm - t - bite - pf - fv

c. /ne - 
$$\beta a$$
 -  $a$  -  $saN\beta$  -  $er$  -  $e/$   $\rightarrow$  mbaa[sáámbére] "(indeed) they burnt  $f$  -  $sm$  -  $t$  -  $burn$  -  $pf$  -  $fv$  (then)"

d. /ne - 
$$\beta a$$
 -  $a$  - turuuŋan - er - e/  $\rightarrow$  mbaa[túrúúŋáíni] "(indeed) they welcomed f - sm - t - welcome - pf - fv (then)"

### (83) Vowel Initial Verbs

a. /ne - 
$$\beta$$
a - a - a $\gamma$  - er - e/  $\rightarrow$  mba[a $\gamma$ ére] "(indeed) they weeded f - sm - t - weed - pf - fv (then)"

b. /ne - 
$$\beta a$$
 -  $a$  -  $i\gamma or$  -  $er$  -  $e'$   $\longrightarrow$  mba[ $i\gamma o'$   $je$ ] "(indeed) they opened f - sm - t - open - pf - fv (then)"

c. /ne - 
$$\beta a$$
 -  $a$  -  $\beta b$  - er - e/  $\rightarrow$  mbo[o $\beta$ óhére] "(indeed) they feared f - sm - t - fear - pf - fv (then)"

d. /ne - 
$$\beta a$$
 -  $a$  -  $i\gamma \delta N\beta$  - er - e/  $\rightarrow$  mba[ $i\gamma \delta \delta mb \epsilon re$ ] "(indeed) they desired f - sm - t - desire - pf - fv (then)"

e. /ne - 
$$\beta a$$
 -  $a$  -

A look at the data in (82) and (83), in terms of tone assignment, shows that V2 of the vowel-initial verb stem is equal to V1 of the consonant-initial stem. The first tone in the vowel-initial verbs is not aligned with the first vowel in the macrostem. In other words, the root-initial vowel does not count as the initial vowel of the macrostem. I argue that the vowel-initial verbs present us with a case of opacity and careful rule ordering can show how the surface forms are derived. To understand what is happening, I will derive *mbo[oβóhére]* "(indeed) they feared" step by step. I start by giving its underlying representation in (84).

$$(84)$$
 /ne -  $\beta a$  - a  $\left[ \begin{array}{c} \beta \beta h - er - e \\ fear - pf - fv \end{array} \right]_{m-stem}$  / UR: "(indeed) they feared (then)"

The underlying form in (84) shows that there is a vowel hiatus involving a vowel from the subject prefix, a vowel from the tense prefix, and the stem initial vowel. These are three consecutive vowels. The phonotactics of this language does not allow such a vocalic sequence, so one of the vowels is deleted.

(85) /ne - 
$$\beta \mathbf{a}$$
 -  $\mathbf{a}$  -  $\mathbf{3}\beta$ oh - er - e/  $\rightarrow$  mb $\mathbf{a}\mathbf{3}\beta$ ohere  $V_1 V_2 V_3 \qquad \rightarrow V_2 V_3 \text{ or } V_1 V_3$ 

The illustration in (85) shows that it is the first or second vowel that is deleted, not the third (macrostem initial vowel). But how do we know that it is the prefixal vowel and not the stem initial vowel that is deleted? Evidence for this can be found in the form

[iyɔɔ́mba] "desire" which retains the front high vowel /i/, the first vowel on the macrostem, after elision has occurred (86).

(86) /ne - 
$$\beta a$$
 -  $a$  -  $i\gamma \circ N\beta$  - er - e/  $\rightarrow$  mbaiyoombere  $V_1 V_2 V_3 \rightarrow V_2 V_3 \text{ or } V_1 V_3$ 

The other segmental process that takes place is vowel assimilation. The stem vowels /ɔ...ɔ/ change to [o...o] due to vowel height assimilation triggered by the vowel of the perfective suffix /-er/, and the /a-/ of the tense prefix assimilates to this [o], yielding [oo].

(87) mb**a**oβohere 
$$\rightarrow$$
 mb**o**oβohere<sup>10</sup>

After these segmental rules have applied, a macrostem adjustment takes place. The macrostem adjustment rule is given in (88).

### (88) Macrostem Adjustment Rule II

"In the tenses stated, move the onsetless stem-initial vowel outside the macrostem".

\_

 $<sup>^{10}</sup>$  The ab ightarrow ao change results from vowel harmony triggered by the perfective suffix -er.

The left bracket of the macrostem moves one position to the right so that the macrostem starts with a syllable that has an onset. This is motivated by two factors; first, the deletion of one of the prefixal vowels in (86) interfered with the morpheme boundaries and second, an effort to exclude the onsetless syllable in prosodic processes. Notice that the motivation for macrostem adjustment in (15) and in (89) is different in that (15) incorporates a syllable to its macrostem whereas (89) shifts the stem boundary to exclude an onsetless syllable from the macrostem.

## (89) Macrostem Adjustment II

$$mbo[o\beta ohere] _{m-stem} \rightarrow mboo[\beta ohere] _{m-stem}$$

The adjustment of the macrostem squarely puts the onsetless vowel outside the macrostem; it becomes part of the prefix. Next, a melodic tone is associated with the first vowel in the new macrostem using the ITAR (I) rule, as in (90).

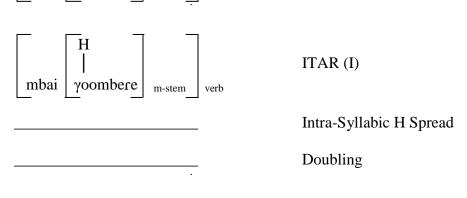
After linking a H tone to the first vowel, other tonal rules apply. In this example, the High Tone Spread rule spreads the H tone to the penult.

L Tone Default applies last, giving all the toneless vowels low tones.

A derivation of *mba[iyóómbére]* "(indeed) they desired (then)", from the Remote Past Focused, is given in (93). Notice the interplay between segmental and tonal rules.

mbaiγoombere → mbaiγoombere Vowel Assimilation

Macrostem Adjustment II





Floating Tone Docking

Leftward Spread

Contour Simplification

mbai[γόόmbéɾe]

Output

The rules are ordered such that vowel elision precedes the macrostem adjustment. The application of vowel elision interferes with the morpheme boundaries. The macrostem adjustment rule also preceds the ITAR (I) rule. After the primary high tone has been assigned it spreads to the penult. The result is a misalignment in association between the vowels in the macrostem and the tones in the tonal tier.

### 3.6.2 Vowel Initial Verbs with H on V2 and V4

I now discuss more complex examples, that is, tenses that assign two primary H tones on the macrostem. The examples in (94) and (95), drawn from the Immediate Past Anterior (third person), illustrate the tone patterns in consonant-initial verbs and vowel-initial verbs respectively. While the consonant-initial verbs have primary H tones on the first and fourth vowels of the macrostem (94), this is not true of the vowel-initial verbs since their first vowel has no H tone and it is outside the macrostem (95).

(94) Consonant Initial Verbs

a. 
$$/\beta a - a - h - er - e/$$
  $\rightarrow$   $\beta aa[háájé]$  "they have just given" sm - t - give - pf - fv

b. 
$$/\beta a - a - rom - er - e/$$
  $\rightarrow$   $\beta aa[rómé'ré]$  "they have just bitten"  $sm - t - bite - pf - fv$ 

c. 
$$/\beta a$$
 - a - karaN $\gamma$  - er - e/  $\rightarrow$   $\beta aa[káraangére]$  "they have just fried" sm - t - fry - pf - fv

d. 
$$/\beta a - a - \beta$$
ereker - er - e/  $\rightarrow$   $\beta aa[\beta$ érékeéje] "they have just called" sm - t - call - pf - fv

#### (95) Vowel Initial Verbs

a. 
$$/\beta a - a - a\gamma - er - e/$$
  $\rightarrow$   $\beta aa[\gamma \acute{e}r\acute{e}]$  "they have just weede sm - t - weed - pf - fv

b. 
$$/\beta a - a - \beta h - er - e/$$
  $\rightarrow$   $\beta oo[\beta h er e]$  "they have just feared"  $\beta m - t - er$   $\beta oo[\beta h er e]$  "they have just feared"

d. 
$$/\beta a$$
 - a - aneker - er - e/  $\rightarrow$   $\beta aa[nékééje]$  "they have just laid out" sm - t - lay out - pf - fv

The analysis presented in §3.6.1 also holds for §3.6.2. The major differences are that in the latter, ITAR (I) and ITAR (IV) are needed to assign primary high tones to the first and fourth vowels of the macrostem respectively, and other tonal rules like Intra-Syllabic H Spread and Doubling apply when their structural conditions are met. To understand what is happening, I will derive (95d)  $\beta aa[nékééje]$  "they have just laid out" step by step. I start by giving its underlying representation (96).

The underlying form in (96) shows that there is a vowel hiatus involving a vowel from the subject prefix, a vowel from the tense prefix, and the macrostem initial vowel. These are three consecutive vowels. The phonotactics of this language does not allow such a vocalic sequence, so one of the vowels is deleted and the remaining two are fused into a long vowel.

From (85), we know that it is the first or second vowel that is deleted, not the third (stem initial vowel).

After these segmental rules have applied, the ITAR rules follow. If ITAR (I) is ranked before ITAR (IV), the Microstem Adjustment rule will place the onsetless vowel with a high tone outside the macrostem and we will need an extra rule to shift the high tone back to the macrostem. To avoid that, I will order ITAR (IV) before Macrostem Adjustment and the latter before ITAR (I). Starting with ITAR (IV), a primary high tone is associated with the fourth vowel of the macrostem, as in (98). The initial vowel in the macrostem counts in determining V4 but not V1.

(98) 
$$\begin{bmatrix} H \\ | \\ \beta a \end{bmatrix}$$
 anekeeje  $\begin{bmatrix} m-stem \\ verb \end{bmatrix}$  verb

This is followed by macrostem adjustment. The left bracket of the macrostem moves to the right so that the macrostem starts with a syllable which has an onset.

The adjustment of the macrostem squarely puts the onsetless macrostem-initial vowel in

the prefix. Next, ITAR (I) is used to assign a high tone to the first vowel of the new macrostem.

(100) 
$$\begin{bmatrix} H & H \\ | & | \\ nekeeje \end{bmatrix}_{m-stem}$$
 ITAR (I)

After associating the first primary H tone to the macrostem, other tonal rules apply. In this example, predoubling does not apply but the doubling rule spreads the first H tone to the next vowel.

High Tone Spreading does not apply to the second primary H because of nonfinality. L Tone Default applies last, assigning low tones to all the toneless vowels.

For further illustration, a complete analysis of (74b)  $\beta o[o\beta \acute{o}h\acute{e}r\acute{e}]$  "they have just feared" is given in (103).

The discussion in §3.6.1 and §3.6.2 shows that although the first vowel of the vowel-initial verbs in Kuria does not carry H tone, it is always counted when tone is being assigned, just as in the consonant-initial verbs. This state of affairs has also been attested in Lumarachi (Marlo 2007).

#### 3.6.3 Vowel Initial Verbs with H on V1

Consonant-initial verbs in the Hortatory Imperative (1) have no H tone in the macrostem but their tense prefix has a lexical H (see (104)). The vowel-initial verbs have a high tone on the first vowel of the stem (see (105)) which is a result of Intra-Syllabic H Spread.

(104) Consonant Initial Verbs

a. 
$$/\beta a$$
 - tá - rom - a/  $\rightarrow$   $\beta$ atá[roma] "Let them bite" sm - t - bite - fv

b. 
$$/\beta a$$
 - tá - saN $\beta$  - a/  $\rightarrow$   $\beta$ atá[saambà] "Let them burn" sm - t - burn - fv

c. 
$$/\beta a$$
 - tá - kara $N\gamma$  - a/  $\rightarrow$   $\beta$ atá[karaaŋgà] "Let them fry" sm - t - fry - fv

d. 
$$/\beta a$$
 - tá -  $\beta$ ereker - a/  $\rightarrow$   $\beta$ atá[ $\beta$ erekerà] "Let them call" sm - t - call - fv

(105) Vowel Initial Verbs

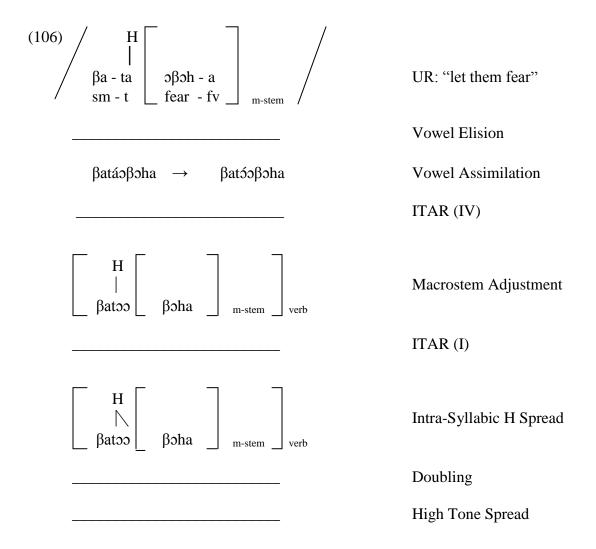
a. 
$$/\beta a$$
 - tá - iyor - a/  $\rightarrow$   $\beta at$ ái[yorà] "Let them open" sm - t - open - fv

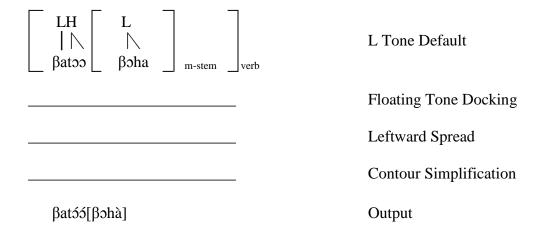
b. 
$$/\beta a$$
 - tá -  $\circ \beta \circ h$  - a/  $\rightarrow$   $\beta at \acute{o} \acute{o} [\beta \circ h\grave{a}]$  "Let them fear" sm - t - fear - fv

c. 
$$/\beta a - t\acute{a} - i\gamma \circ N\beta - a/ \rightarrow \beta at \acute{a}i[\gamma \circ mb\grave{a}]$$
 "Let them admire" sm - t - admire - fv

d. 
$$/\beta a$$
 - tá - aneker - a/  $\rightarrow$   $\beta at$ áa[nekerà] "Let them lay out" sm - t - lay out - fv

The vowel-initial verbs in (105) behave differently from those in §3.6.1 and §3.6.2. There is no vowel hiatus in (105). The two consecutive vowels, in bold, one from the tense prefix /tá-/ and the other being the initial vowel of the verb stem, either come together to form a diphthong (105a,c) or coalesce into a long vowel (105b,d). This means that vowel elision does not apply. A derivation of  $\beta at 35[\beta ha]$  "let them fear" follows in (106).





## 3.6.4 Vowel Initial Verbs with Object Prefix

When an object prefix is added to a vowel-initial verb stem, it makes the stem consonant-initial. Compare the vowel-initial verbs in (105) with the same verbs with object prefixes in (107).

(107) Vowel initial verbs with object prefix

a. 
$$\beta a$$
 -  $t\acute{a}$  -  $\gamma a$  -  $i\gamma or$  -  $a$   $\rightarrow$   $\beta at \acute{a} [\gamma ai\gamma or \grave{a}]$  "Let them open them-6" sm - t - om6 - open - fv

b. 
$$\beta a$$
 -  $t\acute{a}$  -  $\gamma a$  -  $3\beta oh$  -  $a/$   $\rightarrow$   $\beta$ - $t\acute{a}[\gamma oo\beta oh\grave{a}]$  "Let them fear them-6" sm - t - om6 - fear - fv

c. 
$$\beta a$$
 -  $t\acute{a}$  -  $\gamma a$  -  $i\gamma \circ N\beta$  -  $a/$   $\rightarrow$   $\beta at\acute{a}[\gamma ai\gamma \circ mb\grave{a}]$  "Let them admire them-6" sm - t - om6 - admire - fv

d. 
$$\beta a$$
 -  $t\acute{a}$  -  $\gamma a$  - aneker -  $a/$   $\rightarrow$   $\beta at\acute{a}[\gamma aaneker\grave{a}]$  "Let them lay them-6 out" sm - t - om6 - lay out - fv

Notice that the H tone that was on the first vowel of the macrostem in (105) disappears when the object prefix is used in (107). I will derive the verb  $\beta atá[\gamma ai\gamma orà]$  "Let them-2 open them-6" to show the rules that apply to produce such an output.

This tense, the Hortatory Imperative (1), does not have a high tone on the macrostem. The only rule that applies to a verb form in such a tense, as shown in (108) above, is the L Tone Default.

# 3.6.5 Consonant Initial Verbs with Reflexive

When a reflexive is added to any consonant-initial verb, it makes that verb vowel-initial. If the consonant-initial verb has a melodic V2, V3, or V4, the addition of the reflexive will have the same tonal effects as if any other object prefix was added, as

the examples in (109) show.

(109) V2 – Hodiernal Past Progressive Anterior Focused

a. /ne - 
$$\beta$$
a - aka - mo -  $\beta$ iim - er - e/ $\rightarrow$  mbaaka[mu $\beta$ iímíre] "(indeed) they f - sm - t - om1 - measure - pf - fv have been measuring him (today)"

b. /ne - 
$$\beta a$$
 - aka - i -  $\beta$ iim - er - e/  $\rightarrow$  mbaaka[i $\beta$ iímíre] "(indeed) they f - sm - t - rf - measure - pf - fv have been measuring themselves (today)"

V3 – Subjunctive

c. 
$$/\beta a$$
 - mo -  $\beta iim$  -  $\epsilon /$   $\rightarrow$   $\beta a[mu\beta iim\epsilon]$  "that they (may) sm - om1 - measure - fv measure him"

d. 
$$/\beta a - i - \beta iim - \epsilon /$$
  $\rightarrow$   $\beta a[i\beta iim\epsilon]$  "that they (may) measure themselves"

V4 – Immediate Past Anterior (2<sup>nd</sup> Person)

e. /to - a - mo - 
$$\beta$$
iim - er - e/  $\rightarrow$  tuu[mu $\beta$ iimíre] "we have just sm - t - om1 - measure - pf - fv measured him"

f. /to - a - i - 
$$\beta$$
iim - er - e/  $\rightarrow$  twi[i $\beta$ iimíre] "we have just sm - t - rf - measure - pf - fv measured ourselves"

But when a reflexive is added to a melodic V1 tense, such as the Hodiernal Future Uncertain Possibility (110), the verb exhibits an opaque surface pattern. As we discussed in §3.6.1 and §3.6.2, the onsetless syllable in the vowel-initial verbs does not carry a high tone.

The tone patterns in consonant-initial verbs with the reflexive are identical to those of the vowel-initial verbs discussed in §3.6.1 and §3.6.2 above.

The use of the reflexive, in any one of the first eight tenses in Table 3.4, produces tone patterns that are different than when the other object prefixes are used. The examples in (111), from the Immediate Past Anterior, are used to compare the tone patterns of verbs without an object prefix (111a), with a reflexive (111b), and with other object prefixes (111c-f).

(111) Immediate Past Anterior

a. 
$$/\beta a - a - saN\beta - er - e/$$
 $sm - t - burn - pf - fv$ 

b.  $/\beta a - a - i - saN\beta - er - e/$ 
 $sm - t - rf - burn - pf - fv$ 

b.  $/\beta a - a - i - saN\beta - er - e/$ 
 $sm - t - rf - burn - pf - fv$ 

c.  $/\beta a - a - \gamma o - saN\beta - er - e/$ 
 $sm - t - om1 - burn - pf - fv$ 

d.  $/\beta a - a - mo - saN\beta - er - e/$ 
 $sm - t - om1 - burn - pf - fv$ 
 $\beta aa[\gamma \acute{o}saamb\acute{e}re]$ 
"they have just burnt you-1"

d.  $/\beta a - a - mo - saN\beta - er - e/$ 
 $sm - t - om1 - burn - pf - fv$ 
 $\beta aa[m\acute{o}saamb\acute{e}re]$ 
"they have just burnt him-1"

e.  $/\beta a - a - to - saN\beta - er - e/$ 
 $sm - t - om2 - burn - pf - fv$ 
 $\beta aa[f\acute{o}saamb\acute{e}re]$ 
"they have just burnt us-2"

f.  $/\beta a - a - \beta a - saN\beta - er - e/$ 
 $\beta aa[f\acute{o}saamb\acute{e}re]$ 
"they have just burnt us-2"

The verb without an object prefix (111a) has H tones on V1, V2, V3, and V4. The one with a reflexive (111b) has H tones in V1, V2, and V3. The verbs with object prefixes (111c-f) have H tones on V1 and V4. Notice that in (111b) the stem-initial vowel is outside the macrostem and does not receive a high tone. Verbs with a reflexive behave

like other vowel-initial verbs.

## 3.6.6 First Person Singular Object Prefix

When the first person singular object prefix is used in a verb, it produces tonal patterns identical to the ones seen in vowel-initial verbs. The examples in (112a) and (112c) have first person singular object prefix but those in (112b) and (112d) have second person plural object prefix. A comparison of (112a) with (112b), and (112c) with (112d) reveals that the tonal patterns are different for each pair.

## (112) Immediate past Anterior

- a.  $/\beta a$  a ne rom er e/  $\rightarrow \beta aa[ndóméré]$  "they have just bitten me-1" sm t om1 bite pf fv
- b.  $/\beta a$  a to rom er e/  $\rightarrow$   $\beta aa[tórómeré]$  "they have just bitten us-2" sm t om2 bite pf fv
- c.  $/\beta a$  a ne  $\beta$ ereker er e/ $\rightarrow$   $\beta$ aa[mbérékééje] "they have just called me-1" sm t om1 call pf fv
- d. /βa a to βereker er e/→ βaa[tóβérekééje] "they have just called us-2" sm t om2 call pf fv

I will proceed to explain what takes place in verbs with first singular object prefix. First, I start with the segmental process involved. I will use the verb  $\beta aa[nd\acute{o}m\acute{e}r\acute{e}]$  "they have just bitten me-1" Its underlying representation is given in (113).

$$(113)$$
  $\beta a$  - a  $ne$  - rom - er - e  $metric metric metr$ 

Next, there is a deletion of the vowel in the first person singular object prefix so that the product is a nasal next to the tap<sup>11</sup>.

(114) βaaneromere → βaanromere

Prenasalization occurs and this is accompanied by assimilation of place between the nasal and the tap.

(115)  $\beta$ aanromere  $\rightarrow$   $\beta$ aandomere

As mentiuoned in §2.1.4.3, prenasalization is followed by compensatory lengthening.

(116) βaandomere → βaaandomere

This causes a vowel hiatus, and to resolve it one vowel is deleted. As argued in §3.6.1, it is the first or second vowel of the hiatus that is deleted, not the third.

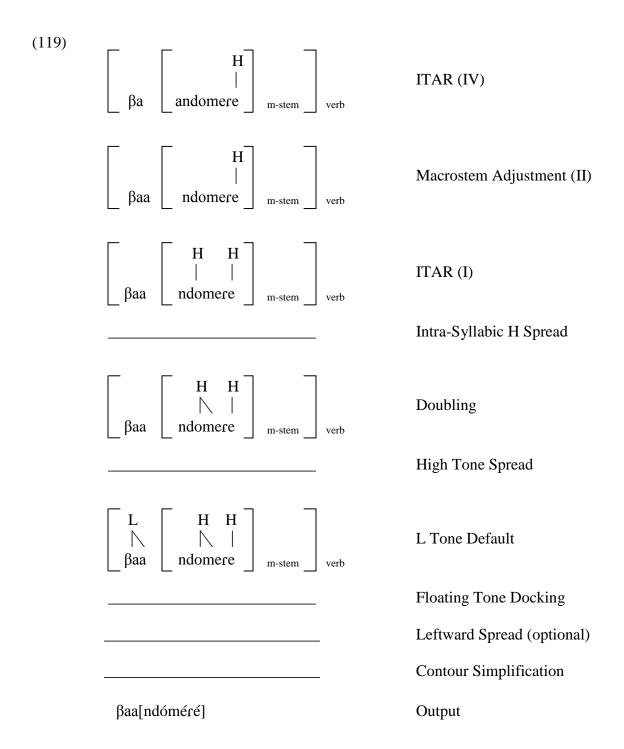
(117) 
$$\beta$$
aaandomere  $\rightarrow$   $\beta$ aandomere  $V_1V_2V_2 \rightarrow$   $V_1V_3$  or  $V_2V_3$ 

The vowel that was gained by compensatory lengthening is not deleted, it becomes the first vowel of the macrostem.

(118) βa[andomere]

Let us see how this affects tone assignment. I will now apply the tonal rules.

 $^{11}$  Another approach would be to consider /N-/ and /ne-/ as allomorphs of the first person singular object prefix.



If the first person singular object prefix appears before the glottal fricative /h/, it is deleted, as in (120b).

However, the object prefix does not delete without a trace. The vowel in the first person singular prefix /ne-/ is deleted, leaving a nasal sound /n-/ before the first segment of the verb stem, which is a consonant. That forms a prenasalized /nh/. Compensatory lengthening takes place as discussed in §2.1.4.3. The nasal deletes leaving the vowel added by compensatory lengthening to take V1 high tone.

In (121), I compare the tonal patterns of verbs with a reflexive to those with a first person singular object prefix.

(121) a. 
$$/\beta a - a - i - saN\beta - er - e/$$
  $\rightarrow \beta ai[sáámbére]$  "they have just burnt themselves-2"

b.  $/\beta a - a - ne - saN\beta - er - e/$   $\rightarrow \beta aa[nsáámbére]$  "they have just burnt sm - t - om1 - burn - pf - fv "they have just burnt me-1"

c.  $/\beta a - a - i - rom - er - e/$   $\rightarrow \beta ai[róméré]$  "they have just bitten themselves-2"

d.  $/\beta a - a - ne - rom - er - e/$   $\rightarrow \beta aa[ndóméré]$  "they have just bitten themselves-2"

It is evident that the verbs with the first person singular object prefixes have the same tone patterns with verbs with the reflexive, and by extension, vowel-initial verbs. The analysis of the verbs with first person singular object prefixes will therefore be the same as that of the vowel-initial verbs given in §3.6.1 and §3.6.2, except for the fact that in

verbs with first person singular object prefix the NC segment causes compensatory lengthening.

#### 3.6.7 Vowel Initial Verbs with Reflexive

Let us now see what happens when a reflexive prefix is added to a vowel-initial verb stem. The grammar responds to this situation by inserting a high glide between the reflexive and the onsetless vowel of the stem. The verb remains vowel-initial and the onsetless vowel of the stem does not carry a high tone. A rule inserting the glide is given in (122).

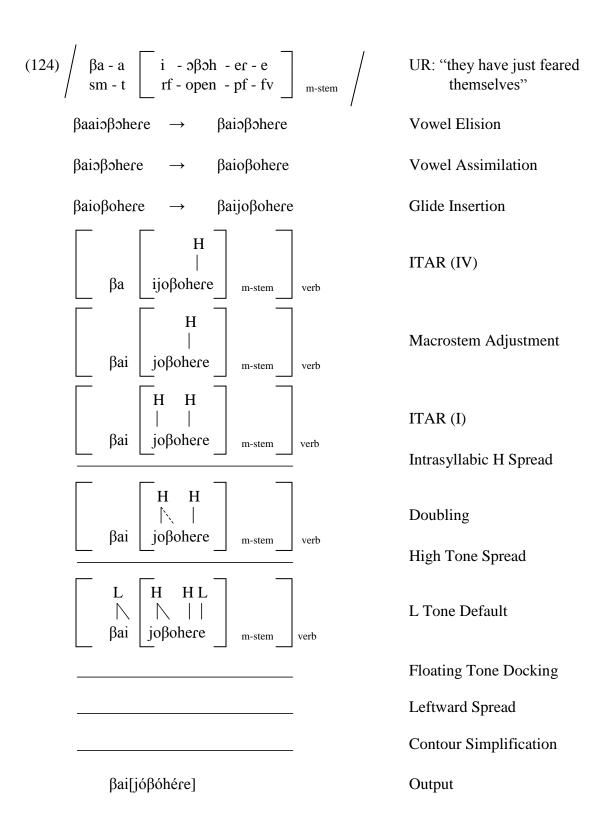
(122) Glide Insertion

$$\emptyset \rightarrow [\text{ - syll}] / i \text{ [stem } \_V$$

"Insert a consonant between a reflexive vowel /i-/ and the stem-initial vowel in a vowel-initial verb"

Examples, drawn from the Immediate Past Anterior, are given in (123).

A derivation of the verb  $\beta ai[j\delta\beta\delta\dot{h}\acute{e}re]$  "they have just feared themselves" is given in (124) below.



#### 3.7 Conclusion

This chapter has shown that tone in both finite and infinitive verbs is predictable. The complex system of tonal patterns in the affirmative verbs can be accounted for by general principles that target the position where the melodic H tones are placed. In this respect, Kuria tone has been described above by six principles of tone assignment: V1H, V2H, V3H, V4H, V1H and V4H, and No H tone. I have shown that tense (TAM) is the prime determiner of H tone placement on the verb macrostem. While some tenses have two primary H tones on the macrostem, others have a single H tone. Tenses that have two H tones assign them to the first and fourth vowels of the macrostem. Such tenses have syllable-sensitive rules. Furthermore, primary H tones are rarely assigned without modification. Phonological processes such as spreading and doubling lead to the diversity of surface tonal patterns. Other factors such as syllable type and length of verb dictate how tones are distributed. It has also been shown that the rightmost primary H tone in the macrostem undergoes unbounded spreading up to the penult, except for the Imperatives.

Another interesting issue covered in this chapter involves the strategies that the language uses to fulfill disyllabic minimality in the monosyllabic verbs. These include insertion of a dummy affix as a prefix or suffix, shifting to a closely related tense, or using irregular forms.

#### **Chapter Four**

## **Verbal Negation**

#### 4. Introduction

In the previous chapter, I confined my analysis to affirmative verbs. This chapter provides a descriptive analysis of tonal patterns in negative verbs in Kuria. Negatives constitute a different speech act from the affirmatives, that is, while affirmatives convey new information, negatives are used to deny that an event did happen. Negatives are marked while affirmatives are unmarked. In this chapter, I attempt to find out how tonal patterns in the affirmative verbs differ from those of the negative verbs in various tenses.

There are five sections in this chapter. In section 4.1, I briefly discuss negation strategies with reference to Kuria and identify the ones to be focused on in this chapter. In section 4.2, I briefly introduce the interaction between negation and focus. Section 4.3 shows tonal patterns in various negative tenses. These are discussed with reference to tonal patterns in the corresponding simple affirmative tenses (see chapter three). Section 4.4 is a brief discussion of tone in negative infinitives. In section 4.5, I give a comprehensive list of all ITAR rules. In section 4.6, there are concluding remarks on the chapter.

## 4.1 Negation Strategies

In Kuria, both finite and non-finite verbal forms may be negated. The language employs a number of strategies in marking negation. These include periphrastic negation, a negative affix, and the use of a negative auxiliary verb. The listed strategies can be used

to indicate negation in various constituents such as sentences, clauses, phrases, or words (verbs). I now proceed to discuss each of these strategies.

# 4.1.1 Periphrastic Negation

One way of indicating negation in Kuria is by using the periphrastic verb *anga* "refuse". This verb has a negative meaning and co-occurs with another verb which it negates. The verb *anga* "refuse" has all the properties of regular verbs such as inflection for mood, tense, aspect, person, or number. This form is used for actions that have not yet been performed. For example, to negate the Mandatory Imperative, the subjunctive form of the verb *anga* "refuse" is placed before a verb in its inflectional form (see (2)).

# (1) Mandatory Imperative

- a. [karaáŋga] "fry!"b. [taandóra] "tear!"
- c. [heetóka] "remember!" d. [koondókorà] "uncover!"

#### (2) Negative Mandatory Imperative

a. /o - aN
$$\gamma$$
 -  $\epsilon$  o - ko - karaN $\gamma$  - a/  $\rightarrow$  [waange  $\gamma$ ókáráángá] "don't fry" sm - refuse - fv a - im - fry - fv

b. /o - aN
$$\gamma$$
 -  $\epsilon$  o - ko - taNror - a/  $\rightarrow$  [waange  $\gamma$ ótáándórá] "don't tear" sm - refuse - fv a - im - tear - fv

c. /o - aN
$$\gamma$$
 -  $\epsilon$  o - ko - heetok - a/  $\rightarrow$  [waang $\epsilon$  kóhéétóká] "don't sm - refuse - fv a - im - remember - fv remember"

d. /o - aN
$$\gamma$$
 -  $\epsilon$  o - ko - koNrokor - a/  $\rightarrow$  [waange  $\gamma$ ókóóndókóra] "don't sm - refuse - fv a - im - uncover - fv uncover"

In (2), the negative verb  $a\eta ga$  "refuse" is inflected with the second person singular prefix /o-/ and the subjunctive final vowel /- $\varepsilon$ / and the verb being negated has the infinitival marker prefix.

Other periphrastic forms such as *tiya* "stop, leave, refrain from" and *haatera* "leave, stop" are normally used for actions that are in progress. This strategy will not be pursued further in this study because such forms fall within the set of complex tenses, and these are beyond the scope of this work.

## **4.1.2** Morphological Negation

The primary means of indicating negation in Kuria is by affixing negative morphemes on the verb, thus changing it from affirmative to negative. These are bound morphemes and they form part of the inflectional morphology of the verb. Since Kuria is an agglutinating language, the negative morphemes correspond to already established morphotactic positions or slots, as shown in (3).

The illustration in (3) shows that Kuria has two negative morphemes. These are /te-/ and /ta-/, glossed in (4b-c) as negative 1 (n1) and negative 2 (n2) respectively. /te-/ precedes but /ta-/ follows the subject marker. /te-/ is always accompanied with a post-verbal *hai*.

The two negative morphemes, n1 and n2, have a regular morphological distribution which places them in pre-initial and post-initial slots of the verb. I will refer to n1 as pre-initial negation and n2 as post-initial negation. It is not by accident that both are prefixes since it has been shown that there is a cross-linguistic tendency for languages with affixal negation to use the morphemes as prefixes (Bybee 1985). Many Bantu languages have two negatives and show a regular, syntactically conditioned distribution of pre- and post-initial negatives (Güldemann 1999:550). Two negatives are also assumed for Proto-Bantu. The two negative prefixes in Kuria never co-occur.

Sillery (1936) and Güldemann (1999) concur that the post-initial /ta-/ is the unmarked way of indicating negation in Kuria. This kind of negation has only one negation morpheme in the whole sentence, clause, or verb constituent. The negative morpheme can be used on the main verb, as seen in (4c), or it can be carried by the auxiliary in complex tenses (see §4.1.3). The post-initial /ta-/ is not associated with the post-verbal particle *hai*.

The examples in (4b) and (5b) attest a double negation <sup>12</sup> form /te...hai/ made up of the pre-initial negation /te-/ and the post-final invariant form *hai*. This is akin to the

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<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>12</sup> Two origins of double negation have been postulated. Payne (1985) says that double negation usually starts with a single pre-verbal particle. It seems there is a strong tendency for particle negatives to be emphasized and reinforced by an additional particle elsewhere in the sentence, forming a pair of linked negatives. Another explanation is that negation tends to be attracted leftward, and generally precedes

more familiar French double negation *ne...pas*. It forms a pattern of discontinuous negation with the two morphemes marking the scope of negation in a way which indicates where negation starts and where it ends.

#### (5) Habitual Past Focused

a. Affirmative

/ne - 
$$\beta a$$
 -  $ak\acute{a}$  -  $\beta ereker$  -  $er$  -  $er$ 

b. Negative

It seems that the *hai* particle of Kuria double negation is used adverbially to put emphasis on and confirm the initial negation.

There are however a few instances when *hai* can be used without the pre-initial /te-/. This happens in special circumstances such as when responding to exhortations in the Hortatory Imperative (2) or requests.

material over which it has scope. So, negation is signaled as early as possible in the constituent for ease of processing. As the sentence moves along, the negative marker is gradually weakened, then reinforced, and ultimately the replacement becomes permanent.

The construction in (6) is similar to French when *pas* is used alone instead of *ne...pas*. Notice that for the responses in (6), *hai* has a high tone.

Also, sometimes /te-/ can be used without *hai*. This happens in the context of a question. In the examples that follow, note that (7b) does not have *hai* like (7a), but both have the same meaning.

(7) a. /te - 
$$\beta$$
a - a - o - ko - tun - a hai/  $\rightarrow$  [te $\beta$ áá $\gamma$ utúná hai] "Don't they want?" b. /te -  $\beta$ a - a - o - ko - tun - a/  $\rightarrow$  [te $\beta$ áá $\gamma$ utúná] "Don't they n1- sm - t - a - im - want - fv "

[te $\beta$ áá $\gamma$ utúná] "Don't they want?"

Morphological negatives will be used in this study because they apply in simple tenses.

## 4.1.3 Negative Auxiliary Verb

In this section, I consider the negative forms of complex tenses whose affirmative form consists of an auxiliary verb and a main verb. In this kind of negation, the auxiliary verb carries the negation morphemes /te-/ and /ta-/, which have been discussed in §4.1.2, and occurs immediately before the main verb. In most cases, it is marked with all the basic verbal categories like person, number, and tense. The main verb may be infinitival or finite in form.

# (8) Infinitive in a complex tense

(b) Negative

$$/\beta a$$
 - ta - a - re o - ko - rom - a/  $\rightarrow$  [βataare kóromà] "they were not biting (then)"   
/te - βa - a - re o - ko - rom - a hai/  $\rightarrow$  [téβaaré kórómá háí] "they were not biting (then)"

(9) Finite verb in a complex tense

(a) Affirmative

/ne - 
$$\beta a$$
 -  $a$  - re  $\beta a$  - rom - er - e/  $\rightarrow$  [mbaáré  $\beta$ árómeré] "(indeed) they bit (yesterday)"

(b) Negative

$$/\beta a - ta - a - re \beta a - rom - er - e/$$
  $\rightarrow$  [βataare βárómére] "they did not bite (yesterday)"

/te - βa - a - re βa - rom - er - e hai  $\rightarrow$  [teβaáré βáróméré hai] "they did not n1- sm - t - be sm - bite - pf - fv not bite (yesterday)"

Since the scope of this study is limited to simple tenses, examples such as those in (8) and (9) will not be analyzed.

## 4.2 Negation and Focus

In Kuria, focus is indicated by the prefix /ne-/ (see §2.3.2.1). Pre-initial negation and focus are deemed to occupy the same morphological slot or position. This is because they both occur in the initial position of a verb, and generally negation does not co-occur with focus in the same sentence, clause, or verb. In many Bantu languages, negation appears to be an inherently focused category (Güldemann 1999). As such it becomes difficult to focus on different information in a negated constituent because that will amount to double focus.

Out of twenty two affirmative tenses that formed the data for this study, eleven are focused. The focused tenses drop the focus marker when they are negated.

# **4.3 Tone Patterns in Negation**

After the initial survey of various strategies of applying negation in Kuria, we can now look at how tone is assigned in negative tenses. As said above, I will confine myself to morphological negation since I am restricting my analysis to simple tenses. Table 4.1 below provides a summary of the ITAR rules that apply in the assignment of melodic H tones in all the affirmative tenses with their corresponding morphological negatives. The shaded cells indicate that the specific morphological negative does not apply in those tenses.

Table 4.1: ITAR Rules in Affirmative and Negative Tenses

	Tense	Affirmative	/ta-/ Negation	/te-/ Negation
1.	Habitual Past Focused	ITAR (I)	No H	ITAR (I)
2.	Untimed Past Anterior Focused	ITAR (I)	ITAR (III)	ITAR (I)
3.	Remote Past Focused	ITAR (I)	ITAR (III)	ITAR (I)
4.	Untimed Past Anterior Condition	ITAR (I)	ITAR (I &	ITAR (I)
	Focused		IV)	
5.	Immediate Future Focused		ITAR (I)	
6.	Untimed Ability Focused		ITAR (I)	
7.	Untimed Present		ITAR (I)	
8.	Hortatory Imperative (2)	ITAR (I)		
9.	Hodiernal Past Progressive		ITAR (II)	
	Anterior Focused			
10.	Subjunctive	ITAR (III)		

	Tense	Affirmative	/ta-/ Negation	/te-/ Negation
11.	Hodiernal Past Anterior Focused		ITAR (III)	
12.	Untimed Past Anterior		ITAR (III)	ITAR (I)
13.	Remote Future Focused		ITAR (III)	
14.	Current Present Persistive		ITAR (III)	
	Focused			
15.	Untimed Real Uncertain	ITAR (III)		
	Condition Focused			
16.	Mandatory Imperative	ITAR (III)		
17.	Immediate Past Anterior (1 <sup>st</sup> & 2 <sup>nd</sup>	ITAR (IV)	ITAR (III)	
	Person)			
18.	Hortatory Imperative (3) (1 <sup>st</sup> &	ITAR (IV)		
	2 <sup>nd</sup> Person)			
19.	Narrative Past	ITAR (I &	ITAR (III)	
		IV)		
20.	Hodiernal Future Uncertain	ITAR (I &		
	Possibility	IV)		
21.	Remote Future	ITAR (I &	ITAR (III)	
		IV)		
22.	Immediate Past Anterior (3 <sup>rd</sup>	ITAR (I &	ITAR (III)	
	Person)	IV)		
23.	Hortatory Imperative (3) (3 <sup>rd</sup>	ITAR (I &		
	Person)	IV)		
24.	Hortatory Imperative (1)	No H	ITAR (I &	
			IV)	

We see that in the Immediate Future Focused, the Untimed Ability Focused, and the Untimed Present, ITAR (I) is used to assign the melodic H in both the affirmative and

negative tenses. The Hodiernal Progressive Anterior Focused also uses ITAR (II) across the board. Lastly, the affirmative and negative tenses in the Hodiernal Past Anterior Focused, the Remote Future Focused, and the Current Present Persistive Focused are assigned a melodic H by ITAR (III). In other cases, the affirmative and negative tenses use different ITAR rules. After this summary, I start by analyzing negative tenses with only one negative morpheme.

## **4.3.1 Single Morpheme Negation**

As discussed in §4.1.2, the /ta-/ prefix can be added to a verb to change it into a negative form. Table 4.2 below presents sixteen of the twenty two simple affirmative tenses with their corresponding negative forms. The tenses are arranged according to the tone melodies in the negative tenses. The affirmative tenses are provided for comparison. Six tenses (Hortatory Imperative (2), Subjunctive, Untimed Real Uncertain Condition Focused, Mandatory Imperative, Hodiernal Future Uncertain Possibility, and Hortatory Imperative (3)) have intentionally been left out of Table 4.2 because they do not undergo morphological negation.

Table 4.2: Tonal Patterns in Finite Verbs with /ta-/ Negation

Negative Tense	Tense	Example	Gloss
V1 (No Spread)	Immediate Future Focused	mbaraá[βérékérε]	"(indeed) they will call (now)"
		n2 βataa[βérekerὲ]	"they will not call (now)"
V1 (Spread)	Untimed Ability Focused	mbakaa[βérékéra]	"(indeed) they are able to call"
		n2 βatakaa[βérékéra]	"they cannot/are unable to call"
	Untimed Present	βa[βérékéra]	"they call (fact)"
		n2 βataako[βérékéra]	"they do not/are no longer calling"
V2 (No Spread)	pread) Hodiernal Past Progressive Anterior Focused	mbaaka[βerékééje]	"(indeed) they have been calling (today)"
		n2 βataaka[βerékeejè]	"they have not been calling (today)"
V3 (No Spread)	Untimed Past Anterior	mbaa[βérékéra]	"(indeed) they have (already) called"
	Focused	n2 βataa[βerekéra]	"they have not (yet) called (up to now)"
	Remote Past Focused	mbaa[βérékééje]	"(indeed) they called/ did call (then)"
		n2 βataa[βerekééje]	"they did not call (then)"
	Hodiernal Past Anterior	mba[βerekééje]	"(indeed) they called (earlier today)"
	Focused	n2 βata[βerekééje]	"they have not called (today)"
	Untimed Past Anterior	βaa[βerekéra]	"they have (already) called"
		n2 βataa[βerekéra]	"they have not (yet) called"
	Remote Future Focused	mbare[βerekéra]	"(indeed) they will call (then)"
		n2 βatare[βerekéra]	"they will not call (then)"

Negative Tense Tone Melody	Tense	Example	Gloss
	Current Present Persistive Focused	mbake[βerekééje]	"(indeed) they are still calling"
		n2 βatake[βerekééje]	"they are no longer calling"
	Narrative Past	βaká[βérékerá]	"(and) they called"
		n2 βataa[βerekééje]	"(and) they did not call"
	Remote Future	βaree[βérékerá]	"they will call (then)"
		n2 βatare[βerekéra]	"they will not call (then)"
	Immediate Past Anterior (3 <sup>rd</sup> Person)	βaa[βérékeéje]	"they have just called"
		n2 βata[βerekééje]	"they have not yet called"
	Immediate Past Anterior	too[βerekeéje]	"we have just called"
	(1 <sup>st</sup> and 2 <sup>nd</sup> Person)	n2 tota[βerekééje]	"we have not yet called"
V1 & V4 (V1 Doubles)	Untimed Past Anterior Condition Focused	mbakaa[βérékééje]	"(indeed) they would have called (anytime before now/then)"
(V4 Spreads)		n2 βatakaa[βérékeéje]	"they would not have called (anytime before now/then)"
	Hortatory Imperative (1)	βatá[βerekera]	"let them call"
		n2 βatakaa[βérékerá]	"let them not call"
No H Tone	Habitual Past Focused	mbaaká[βérékééje]	"(indeed) they used to call (then)"
		n2 βataaká[βerekeejè]	"they never used to call"

The first fact worthy of notice is that the presence of the /ta-/ negative morpheme on a verb does not trigger an additional high tone. All the prefixes have low tones and any exception to this is as a result of a lexical high on the tense prefix. Only three affirmative tenses; Habitual Past Focused, Narrative Past, and Immediate Future Focused, have a lexical H tone on the tense prefix. This lexical H manifests itself in the Negative Habitual Past (10b) but not the Negative Narrative Past (11b) and the Negative Immediate Future (12b).

(10) a. Habitual Past Focused

/ne - 
$$\beta a$$
 -  $ak\acute{a}$  -  $\beta ereker$  -  $er$  -  $er$ 

b. Negative Habitual Past

/
$$\beta a - ta - ak\acute{a} - \beta ereker - er - e$$
/  $\rightarrow$   $\beta ataak\acute{a}[\beta erekeej\`{e}]$  "they never sm - n2 - t - call - pf - fv used to call"

(11) a. Narrative Past

/
$$\beta a - k\acute{a} - \beta ereker - a$$
/  $\rightarrow$   $\beta ak\acute{a}[\beta\acute{e}r\acute{e}ker\acute{a}]$  "(and) they sm - t - call - fv called"

b. Negative Narrative Past

$$/\beta a$$
 - ta - a - βereker - er - e/  $\rightarrow$  βataa[βerekééje] "(and) they sm - n2 - t - call - pf - fv did not call"

(12) a. Immediate Future Focused

/ne - 
$$\beta a$$
 -  $ra\acute{a}$  -  $\beta ereker$  -  $\epsilon$ /  $\rightarrow$  mbara $\acute{a}[\beta \acute{e}r\acute{e}k\acute{e}r\epsilon]$  "(indeed) they f - sm - t - call - fv will call (now)"

b. Negative Immediate Future

$$/\beta a - ta - a - \beta ereker - ε/$$
  $\rightarrow$   $\beta ataa[β\'ereker \'e]$  "they will not sm - n2 - t - call - fv call (now)"

Although spreading was seen to be the norm in the affirmative tenses, only four of the sixteen /ta-/ negative tenses in Table 4.2 undergo spreading. The tenses that do not

undergo spreading will have a downglide if its structural conditions are met (see §1.4.3). These negative tenses are thus similar to the Hortatory Imperative (1), Hortatory Imperative (2), and the Mandatory Imperative which do not undergo spreading. Consider the examples in (13).

(13) a. Negative Immediate Future (V1)

$$/\beta a - ta - a - \beta ereke - ε/$$
  $\rightarrow$   $\beta ataa[β\'ereker\`e]$  "they will not sm - n2 - t - call - fv call (now)"

b. Negative Habitual Past (V2)

/
$$\beta a$$
 - ta - aká -  $\beta$ ereke - er - e/  $\rightarrow$   $\beta$ ataaká[ $\beta$ erekeejè] "they never sm - n2 - t - call - pf - fv used to call"

c. Negative Hodiernal Past Progressive Anterior (No H)

$$/\beta a$$
 - ta - aka - βereker - er - e/  $\rightarrow$  βataaka[βerékeejè] "they have not sm - n2 - t - call - pf - fv been calling (today)"

A comparison of tonal patterns in the affirmative tenses and their corresponding negative tenses in Table 4.2 shows that in some tenses there is no tonal difference between the affirmative and their negative counterparts.

(14) a. Untimed Ability Focused

mbakaa[βérékéra] "(indeed) they are able to call"

b. Negative Untimed Ability

βatakaa[βérékéra] "they cannot/are unable to call"

(15) a. Untimed Present

βa[βérékéra] "they call (fact)"

b. Negative Untimed Present

βataako[βérékéra] "they do not/are not calling"

(16) a. Remote Future Focused

mbare[βerekéra] "(indeed) they will call (then)"

b. Negative Remote Future

βatare[βerekéra] "they will not call (then)"

(17) a. Current Present Persistive Focused

mbake[βerekééje] "(indeed) they are still calling"

b. Negative Current Present Persistive

βatake[βerekééje] "they are no longer calling"

As seen in Table 4.1, the negative tenses do not always use the same ITAR as the corresponding affirmative tenses.

The /ta-/ negative tenses can be categorized into five tonal groups (V1, V2, V3, V1 and V4, and No H). The same tone assignment principles used for affirmative tenses also apply in the negative tenses. I now proceed to discuss each of these groups.

## **4.3.1.1** Tone Assignment Principle 1a: Melodic V1H (Spread)

This principle assigns a primary high tone on the first vowel of the macrostem. The high tone then spreads to the penult. There are only two /ta-/ negative tenses that assign a melodic H to V1, followed by spreading. These are the Negative Untimed Ability and the Negative Untimed Present. The same formalism that was used to assign a melodic H to V1 in the affirmative tenses in §3.2.1 will also apply here, but with modifications so as to introduce the features [+ negative] and [- negative].

"Associate a high tone to the first vowel of the macrostem in the tenses listed in (18)".

Notice that the focus particle found in some affirmative tenses is absent in the negative tenses since negation is inherently focused and a negative tense cannot take another focus. For example, the negative counterpart of the Untimed Ability Focused is the Negative Untimed Ability. In both tenses, a high tone is assigned to V1 and it spreads to the penult. The difference between them is found in the pre-macrostem domain. The Untimed Ability Focused has a focus marker preceding the subject marker and the Negative Untimed Ability has a negative marker following the subject marker (see Table 4.3).

Table 4.3: Comparing affirmative with negative tense

Untimed Ability Focused	Negative Untimed Ability
<b>m</b> -ba-γaa-[kóóndókóɾ-a]	βa- <b>ta</b> -γaa-[kóóndókór-a]
"(indeed) they are able to	"they are unable to uncover"
uncover"	
<b>m</b> -ba-kaa-[βérékér-a]	βa- <b>ta</b> -kaa-[βérékér-a]
"(indeed) they are able to call"	"they are unable to call"
<b>m</b> -ba-kaa-[ɾóm-a]	βa- <b>ta</b> -kaa-[ɾóm-a]
"(indeed) they are able to bite"	"they are unable to bite"

The Untimed Present and the Negative Untimed Present are tonally identical in that they are V1H tenses with the melodic H tone spreading up to the penult.

(19) a. Untimed Present
$$/\beta a - \beta \text{ereker} - a/ \longrightarrow \beta a [\beta \text{\'er\'ek\'era}] \quad \text{``they call (fact)''} \\
\text{sm - call } - \text{fv}$$
b. Negative Untimed Present
$$/\beta a - \text{ta - ako - }\beta \text{ereker - a/} \longrightarrow \beta \text{ataako} [\beta \text{\'er\'ek\'era}] \quad \text{``they do not call} \\
\text{sm - n2 - t} \quad - \text{call} \quad - \text{fv} \quad \text{(fact)''}$$

What however marks them as different is that the Untimed Present has a  $/\emptyset$ -/ tense marker while the Negative Untimed Present has /ako-/ as the tense marker.

A derivation of the verb form  $\beta$ atakaa[ $\beta$ érékéra] "they are unable to call", from the Negative Untimed Ability, will illustrate how tones are assigned through Tone Assignment Principle 1a.

L H L βatakaa βerekera m-stem verb	L Tone Default
	Floating Tone Docking
	Leftward Spread
	Contour Simplification
βatakaa[βérékéra]	Output

## 4.3.1.2 Tone Assignment Principle 1b: Melodic V1H (No Spread)

This melodic pattern occurs in the Negative Immediate Future. The high tone is found on the first vowel of the macrostem in short syllables but on the first two vowels if the first syllable is long. Since both /ta-/ and /te-/ negative tenses use ITAR (I) (see Table 4.1), it is not necessary to specify them in the ITAR rules, a [+ negative] feature will suffice. The same formalism that was used for the affirmative tenses in §3.2.1 will also apply for the negative tenses.

## (21) ITAR (I)

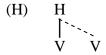
$$\left[\begin{array}{c} H \\ \downarrow \\ \\ \text{m-stem} \ V \end{array}\right] \quad \text{in} \quad \left\{\left[\begin{array}{c} + \ \text{Immediate Future} \\ + \ \text{Negative} \end{array}\right]\right\}$$

"Associate the melodic H tone to the first vowel of the macrostem in the Negative Immediate Future".

So far, my assumption has been that spreading is an automatic rule but it is blocked by certain morphological features. In §3.2.2.1, (11), I restated the spreading rule

so as to capture exceptions to its application. Since in the /ta-/ Negative Immediate Future the high tone does not spread, I will include it in the exceptions. The modified spreading rule is now given in (22).

## (22) High Tone Spread (restated)

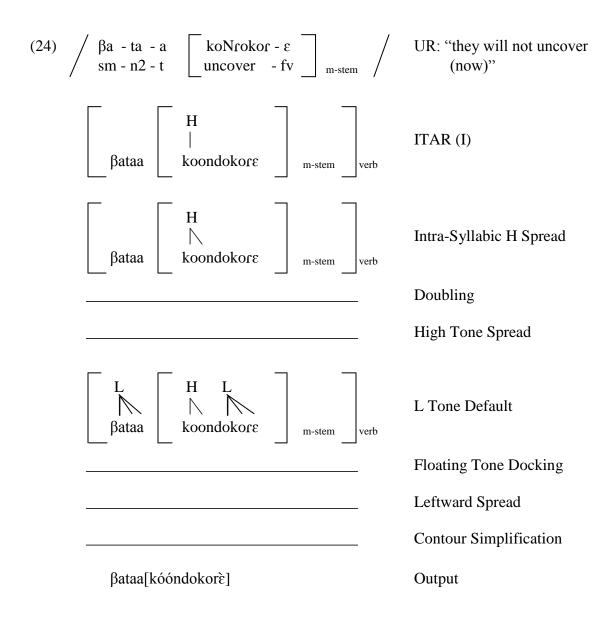


Spreads iteratively up to the penult except in

In (23), verbs with stems of two, three, and four syllables are provided to show how tone applies in the Negative Immediate Future.

(23) Negative Immediate Future

The example in (23d) shows that when the first syllable of the macrostem is long, the high tone on V1 spreads to V2 so as to avoid a falling tone. A derivation of  $\beta ataa[k\acute{o}\acute{o}ndokor\grave{e}]$  "they will not uncover (now)" illustrates the analysis.



Like the Untimed Present, the Negative Immediate Future differs from the Immediate Future Focused in that they use different tense markers (see 25).

## 4.3.1.3 Tone Assignment Principle 2: Melodic V2H (No Spread)

The only tense with this melodic pattern is the Negative Hodiernal Past Anterior Progressive. This tense is segmentally similar to its affirmative counterpart, the Hodiernal Past Anterior Progressive Focused, but they differ in their tonal patterns. In both tenses, the melodic H tone is assigned to V2 but it spreads up to the penult in the affirmative tense, while in the negative tense it does not spread. I now modify ITAR (II) given in §3.2.3, (20), to add more features.

(26) ITAR (II)

$$\left[\begin{array}{c} H \\ \downarrow \\ \text{m-stem} \ V \ V \end{array}\right] \quad \text{in} \quad \left\{\left[\begin{array}{c} + \ \text{Hodiernal Past Progressive Anterior} \\ + \ \text{Negative} \end{array}\right] \right\}$$

"Associate the melodic H tone to the second vowel of the macrostem in the Hodiernal Past Progressive Anterior."

The examples provided in (27) confirm that the melodic high tone is assigned to the second vowel of the macrostem regardless of the length of the verb and it does not spread.

(27) a. 
$$/\beta a$$
 - ta - aka - re - er - e/  $\rightarrow$   $\beta$ ataaka[reéje] "they have not sm - n2 - t - eat - pf - fv been eating (today)"

b. 
$$/\beta a - ta - aka - rom - er - e/$$
  $\rightarrow$   $\beta ataaka[romére]$  "they have not  $sm - n2 - t$  - bite - pf - fv been biting (today)"

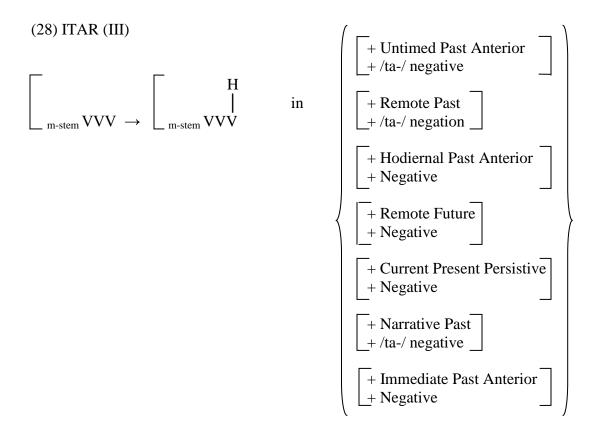
c. 
$$/\beta a - ta - aka - \beta ereker - er - e/$$
  $\rightarrow$   $\beta ataaka[\beta erékeejè]$  "they have not sm - n2 - t - call - pf - fv been calling (today)"

d. 
$$/\beta a - ta - aka - koNrokor - er - e/$$
  $\rightarrow$   $\beta ataa \gamma a [ko\'ondokooj\`e]$  "they have not sm - n2 - t - uncover - pf - fv been uncovering (today)"

It is also logical that the /ta-/ Negative Hordiernal Past Progressive Anterior be added to the list of exceptions in the Spreading rule.

## 4.3.1.4 Tone Assignment Principle 3b: Melodic V3H (No Spread)

This tonal principle assigns a high tone on the third vowel of the macrostem but no spreading takes place. In the affirmative tenses, this principle applies to the Mandatory Imperative only. In the negative tenses, it applies to many tenses (see (28)). This is surprising because the affirmative counterparts for the negative tenses in (28) are V1H, V3H, or V1H and V4H, and they all spread up to the penult. I will start by modifying the ITAR (III) rule given in §3.2.4. Where the same ITAR rule is used in corresponding /ta-/ and /te-/ negative tenses (see Table 4.1), I simply use the feature [+ Negative], but when the corresponding negative tenses use different ITARs, I refer to each separately as either [+ /ta-/ negative] or [+ /te-/ negative].



"Associate a melodic H tone to the third vowel of the macrostem in the tenses named in (28)."

The seven negative tenses in (28) are counterparts to nine affirmative tenses. This is because two pairs of affirmative tenses share a negative counterpart. The Untimed Past Anterior Focused and the Untimed Past Anterior have a common negative tense, the Negative Untimed Past Anterior. Also, the Remote Future Focused and the Remote Future have a common negative tense, the Negative Remote Future. The affirmative tenses that share negative forms are clearly those with similar features, the only variation being [+ focus] and [- focus]. This confirms that focus and negation cannot co-occur in the same verb since [+ negative] implies [+ focus], that is, negative forms are inherently focused (Güldemann 1999).

Another thing worth noticing is specific to the Negative Immediate Past Anterior. While in the affirmative tense the subject prefixes (first and second versus third) are important in determining how tone is assigned on the macrostem, these are irrelevant for tone in the negative tense.

I have chosen the Negative Remote Future as a representative of this group for illustration purposes.

### (29) Negative Remote Future

- a.  $/\beta a$  ta re koNrokor a/  $\rightarrow$   $\beta$ atare[koondókorà] "they will not uncover sm n2 t uncover fv (then)"
- b.  $/\beta a$  ta re  $\beta$ ereker a/  $\rightarrow$   $\beta$ atare[ $\beta$ erekéra] "they will not call sm n2 t call fv (then)"
- c.  $/\beta a$  ta re terek a/  $\rightarrow$   $\beta$ atare[terekà] "they will not brew sm n2 t brew fv (then)"
- d.  $/\beta a$  ta re rom a/  $\rightarrow$   $\beta$ atare[romà] "they will not bite sm n2 t bite fv (then)"
- e.  $/\beta a$  ta re re a/  $\rightarrow$   $\beta$ atare[rjà] "they will not eat sm n2 t eat fv (then)"

This tense assigns a melodic high tone to the third vowel of the macrostem and there is no spreading; as seen in examples (29a). When there are successive low tones at the end of the verb, the tone on the last vowel falls or downglides. This phenomenon was also discussed in §1.4.3. This state of affairs is found in all /ta-/ negative tenses that have a melodic high tone that does not spread. The verbs in (29d,e) have only low tones and end in a downglide. The tones that I have assigned to (29d) differ from what Cammenga (2004:292) assigned to a verb of similar length in the same tense, βátáré[sóma] "they

will not read (then)". This could be a dialectal difference since Cammenga used the Nyabaasi variety while I used the Buguumbe variety.

Tone assignment in (29c) introduces an interesting angle to the downglide phenomenon. It is surprising that (29c) has a downglide on the third vowel of the macrostem where we expected a high tone. Indeed, I have established that in tenses that allow a downglide, if a high tone falls on the final vowel of the macrostem, it is replaced by a downglide except in the Mandatory Imperative where it is possible to have alternating forms (see §3.2.5.2, (34)). This is a case of non-finality pre-empting the assignment of a non-spreading high tone.

The tenses or features listed in (28) should be added as exceptions to the spreading rule which is now restated in (30).

(30) High Tone Spread (restated)



+ Mandatory Imperative Spreads iteratively up to penult except in + Hortatory Imperative (2) + Immediate Future + /ta-/ Negative + Hodiernal Past Progressive Anterior + /ta-/ Negative + Untimed Past Anterior + /ta-/ Negative + Remote Past + /ta-/ Negative + Hodiernal Past Anterior + /ta-/ Negative + Remote Future + /ta-/ Negative + Current Present Persistive + /ta-/ Negative

I will illustrate how tones are assigned in the Negative Remote Future by deriving βatare[koondókorà] "they will not uncover (then)".

In (32), I present the Narrative Past and the Negative Narrative Past tenses, ordered one after the other for ease of comparison.

(32) a. Narrative Past

/
$$\beta a$$
 -  $k\acute{a}$  -  $koNrokor$  -  $a/$   $\rightarrow$   $\beta a\gamma \acute{a}[k\acute{o}\acute{o}ndok\acute{o}ra]$  "(and) they uncovered" sm - t - uncover - fv

b. Negative Narrative Past

/
$$\beta a$$
 - ta - a - koNrokor - er - e/ $\rightarrow$   $\beta$ ataa[koondókoojè] "(and) they did not sm - n2 - t - uncover - pf - fv uncover"

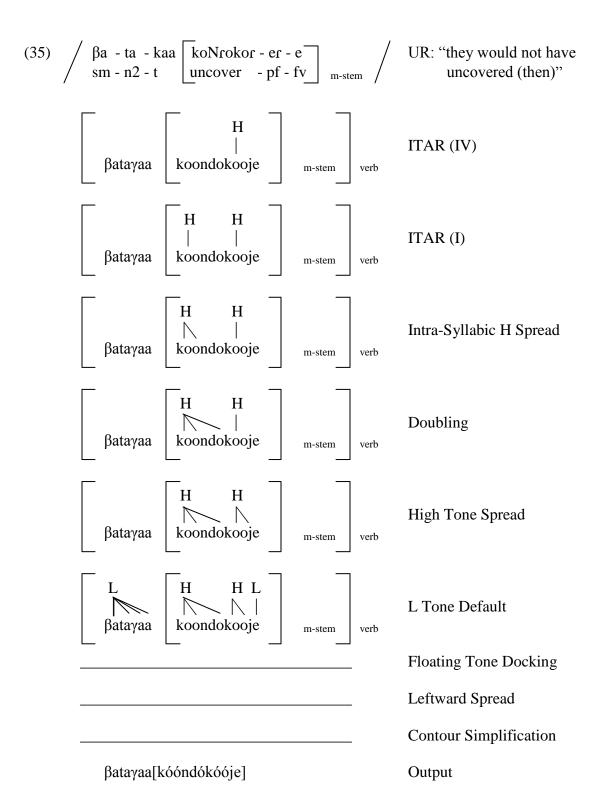
The Narrative Past is a dependent tense and cannot form its own negative. It uses the Negative Remote Past, βataa[koondókoojè] "they did not uncover (then)", as its negative form.

## 4.3.1.5 Tone Assignment Principle 5a: Melodic V1H and V4H (All Persons) (Spread)

I now turn to melodies involving combinations of tone assignment principles. This section explains the tone patterns of tenses which are characterized by a combination of V1H and V4H. As argued in §4.3.1.4, subject prefixes have no bearing on the assignment of tone in the negative tenses. There are only two tenses with this type of tonal pattern: Negative Untimed Past Anterior Condition and Negative Hortatory Imperative (1).

Examples of verbs from the Negative Untimed Past Anterior Condition follow in (34).

I now proceed to derive βatayaa[kóóndókóóje] "they would not have uncovered (then)".



#### 4.3.1.6 Tone Assignment Principle 6: No Stem H

Although a high tone is found in most verb tenses, there are contexts where macrostems do not have high tones. In the /ta-/ negative group of tenses, a long macrostem devoid of a high tone is only attested in the Negative Habitual Past. It is however important to note that this particular tense has a lexical high tone on the tense prefix.

### (36) Negative Habitual Past

a. 
$$/\beta a$$
 - ta - aká -  $\beta$ ereker - er - e/ $\rightarrow$   $\beta$ ataaká[ $\beta$ erekeejè] "they never used to sm - n2 - t - call - pf - fv call (then)"

b. 
$$/\beta a$$
 - ta - aká - teremek - er - e/ $\rightarrow$   $\beta$ ataa $\gamma$ á[teremekerè] "they never used to sm - n2 - t - be calm - pf - fv be calm (then)"

In (36a,b), the last vowel of the macrostem undergoes a downglide. I now turn to morphological negation that has two negative morphemes, /te...hai/, the first one being bound and the second one unbound.

#### **4.3.2 Double Negation**

Table 4.4 presents fourteen out of the twenty two affirmative tenses that form the core of the data for this study. It shows the affirmative tenses and their respective /te...hai/ negative tenses with examples from [βerekéra] "call" and [koondókorà] "uncover" verbs. The tenses are arranged following the melodic H tones of the negative tenses. The tenses in (37) are not included in Table 4.4 because they do not undergo morphological negation.

- (37) a. Hortatory Imperative (1)
  - b. Hortatory Imperative (2)
  - c. Hortatory Imperative (3)
  - d. Subjunctive
  - e. Mandatory Imperative
  - f. Narrative Past
  - g. Hodiernal Future Uncertain Possibility
  - h. Untimed Real Uncertain Condition Focused

A comparison between the affirmative and the negative paradigms shows that the additional post verbal morpheme *hai*, not only reinforces negation but also lengthens the domain of spreading. In such cases, the melodic high tone in the macrostem spreads one additional vowel to the right to reach the penult (compare 38a with 38b).

(38) a. Remote Past Focused

/ne - 
$$\beta a$$
 -  $a$  -  $\beta e$ reker - er - e/  $\rightarrow$  mbaa[ $\beta e$ rékééje] "(indeed) they f - sm - t - call - pf - fv called (then)"

b. Negative Remote Past

/te - 
$$\beta a$$
 -  $a$  -  $\beta ereker$  -  $er$  -  $e$  hai/  $\rightarrow$  té $\beta aa[\beta \acute{e}r\acute{e}k\acute{e}\acute{e}\acute{j}\acute{e}$  hai] "they did not call (then)"

A look at Table 4.4 reveals three tone assignment principles; V1H, V2H, and V3H, and that all these /te-/ negative tenses undergo spreading.

Table 4.4: Tonal Patterns in Finite Verbs with /te...hai/ Negation

Negative Tense Tone Melody	Tense	Example	Gloss
V1 (Spread)	Habitual Past Focused	mbaaká[βérékééje]	"(indeed) they used to call (then)"
		n1 téβaaká[βérékééjé hai]	"they never used to call"
		mbaaγá[kóóndókóóje]	"(indeed) they used to uncover (then)"
		n1 téβaaγá[kóóndókóójé hai]	"they never used to uncover"
	Untimed Past Anterior	mbaa[βérékéra]	"(indeed) they have (already) called"
	Focused	n1 téβaa[βérékérá hai]	"they have not (yet) called (up to now)"
		mbaa[kóóndókóra]	"(indeed) they have (already) uncovered"
Untimed Past Anterior	n1 téβaa[kóóndókórá hai]	"they have not (yet) uncovered (up to now)"	
	βaa[βerekéra]	"they have (already) called"	
		n1 téβaa[βérékérá hai]	"they have not (yet) called"
		βaa[koondókóra]	"they have (already) uncovered"
		n1 téβaa[kóóndókórá hai]	"they have not yet uncovered"
	Remote Past Focused	mbaa[βérékééje]	"(indeed) they called/ did call (then)"
		n1 téβaa[βérékééjé hai]	"they did not call (then)"
		mbaa[kóóndókóóje]	"(indeed) they uncovered/did uncover (then)"
		n1 téβaa[kóóndókóójé hai]	"they did not uncover (then)"

Negative Tense Tone Melody	Tense	Example	Gloss
	Untimed Past Anterior Condition Focused	mbakaa[βérékééje]	"(indeed) they would have called (anytime before now/then)"
		n1 teβákaa[βérékééjé hai]	"they would not have called (anytime before now)
		mbaγaa[kóóndókóóje]	"(indeed) they would have uncovered (anytime before now/then"
		n1 teβáγaa[kóóndókóójé hai]	"they would not have uncovered (anytime before now/then)"
	Immediate Future Focused	mbaraá[βérékérε]	"(indeed) they will call (now)"
		n1 teβáraá[βérékéré hai]	"they will not call (now)"
		mbaraá[kóóndókórɛ]	"(indeed) they will unever (now)"
		n1 teβáraá[kóóndókóré hai]	"they will not uncover (now)"
	Untimed Ability Focused	mbakaa[βérékéra]	"(indeed) they are able to call"
		n1 teβákaa[βérékérá hai]	"they cannot/are unable to call"
		mbayaa[kóóndókóra]	"(indeed) they are able to uncover"
		n1 teβáγaa[kóóndókórá hai]	"they cannot/are unable to uncover"
	Untimed Present	βa[βérékéra]	"they call (fact)"
		n1 teβááko[βérékérá háí]	"they are no longer calling"
		βa[kóóndókóra]	"they uncover (fact)"
		n1 teβááγo[kóóndókórá hai]	"they are no longer uncovering"

Negative Tense Tone Melody	Tense	Example	Gloss
` *	Hodiernal Past Progressive Anterior Focused	mbaaka[βerékééje]	"(indeed) they have been calling (today)"
		n1 teβááká[βerékééjé hai]	"they have not been calling (today)"
		mbaaγa[koóndókóóje]	"(indeed) they have been uncovering (today)"
		n1 teβááγá[koóndókóójé hai]	"they have not been uncovering (today)"
V3 (Spread)	· ·	mba[βerekééje]	"(indeed) they called (earlier today)"
	Focused	n1 teβá[βérekééjé hai]	"they did not call (earlier today)"
		mba[koondókóóje]	"(indeed) they uncovered (earlier today)"
		n1 teβá[koondókóójé hai]	"they did not uncover (earlier today)"
	Remote Future Focused	mbare[βerekéra]	"(indeed) they will call (then)"
		n1 teβáré[βérekérá hai]	"they will not call (then)"
		mbare[koondókóra]	"(indeed) they will uncover (then)"
		n1 teβáré[koondókórá hai]	"they will not uncover (then)"
	Remote Future	βaree[βérékerá]	"they will call (then)"
		n1 teβáré[βérekérá hai]	"they will not call (then)"
		βaree[kóóndókóra]	"they will uncover (then)"
		n1 teβáré[koondókórá hai]	"they will not uncover (then)"
	Current Present Persistive	mbake[βerekééje]	"(indeed) they are still calling"

Negative Tense Tone Melody	Tense	Example	Gloss
	Focused	n1 teβáké[βérekééjé hai]	"they are no longer calling"
		mbaγe[koondókóóje]	"(indeed) they are still uncovering"
		n1 teβáγé[koondókóójé hai]	"They are no longer uncovering"
	Immediate Past Anterior (3 <sup>rd</sup> Person)	βaa[βérékeéje]	"they have just called"
		n1 teβá[βérekééjé hai]	"they have not yet called"
		βaa[kóóndókóóje]	"they have just uncovered"
		n1 teβá[koondókóójé hai]	"they have not yet uncovered"
	Immediate Past Anterior (1 <sup>st</sup> & 2 <sup>nd</sup> Person)	too[βerekeéje]	"we have just called"
		n1 tetó[βérekééjé hai]	"we have not yet called"
		too[koondokóóje]	"we have just uncovered"
		n1 tetó[koondókóójé hai]	"we have not yet uncovered"

#### 4.3.2.1 Pre-Macrostem Domain

Up until now, I have discussed high tones as being assigned in the macrostem only, those in the pre-macrostem domain being lexical high tones. The analysis of /te...hai/ negation is interesting because, unlike the /ta-/ negative, it contributes a high tone to the verb. This high tone surfaces either on the /te-/ prefix or on the subject prefix, occasionally spreading to the macrostem. Generally, high tones in the pre-macrostem domain tend to have little or no effect on the tones that appear in the macrostem. Nevertheless, the analysis of tones in the macrostem will not be complete until we look at the patterns in the prefix domain. I will therefore start by providing the patterns of high tones in the pre-macrostem domain.

## CV-CÝ Pattern

This pattern has two short syllables and the second syllable, which is a subject prefix, has a high tone.

- (39) a. Negative Hodiernal Past Anterior teβá[koondókóójé hai] "they did not uncover (earlier today)
  - b. Negative Immediate Past Anterior (Third Person)
     teβá[koondókóójé hai] "they have not yet uncovered"
  - c. Negative Immediate Past Anterior (Second Person) tetó[koondókóójé hai] "we have not yet uncovered"

# CV-CVV Pattern

The pre-macrostem domain can have two syllables, the first short and the second long. In such cases, a high tone falls on the first syllable.

(40) a. Negative Untimed Past Anterior

téβaa[kóóndókórá hai] "they have not (yet) uncovered (up to now)"

b. Negative Remote Past Focused

téβaa[kóóndókóójé hai] "they did not uncover (then)"

## CV-CV-CV Pattern

This pattern has three short syllables in the pre-macrostem domain with the second and third syllables being high toned.

(41) a. Negative Remote Future

teβáré[koondókórá hai] "they will not uncover (then)"

b. Negative Current Present Persistive

teβáyé[koondókóójé hai] "they are no longer uncovering"

# CV-CV-CVV Pattern

This pattern has three syllables, two short and one long. The second syllable carries the high tone.

(42) a. Negative Untimed Past Anterior Condition

teβáγaa[kóóndókóójé hai] "they would not have uncovered (anytime

before now)"

b. Negative Untimed Ability

teβáγaa[kóóndókórá hai] "they cannot/are unable to uncover"

The Negative Immediate Future, *teβáraá[kóóndókórɛ́ hai]* "they will not uncover (now)",

should also fall in this pattern if we ignore the lexical high tone on the tense prefix.

# CV-CÝV-CÝ, CÝ-CVV-CÝ, CV-CÝV-CV Patterns

The tenses in this group do not follow a uniform pattern. There are three syllables in the pre-macrostem domain and the second syllable is long. The Negative Habitual Past, the Hodiernal Past Progressive Anterior have a lexical high tone on the tense prefix.

(43) a. Negative Habitual Past téβaayá[kóóndókóójé hai]

"they never used to uncover"

 b. Negative Hodiernal Past Progressive Anterior teβááγá[koóndókóójé hai] "they ha

"they have not been uncovering (today)"

c. Negative Untimed Present teβááγo[kóóndókórá hai]

"they are no longer uncovering"

### **4.3.2.2 Pre-Macrostem Domain Rules**

After presenting the data in §4.3.2.1, I now turn to its analysis. The first rule that we need is a morphological rule to assign a high tone to the negative /te-/ prefix. This is formulated in (44).

(44) /te-/ Negative H Docking

"Assign a high tone on the first vowel of the verb in a /te-/ negative verb"

After a high tone has been assigned to /te-/, another rule, which I will call /te-/ H Tone Spread, is needed to spread the high tone iteratively, stopping one syllable before the melodic H due to OCP restrictions (see (45)).

(45) /te-/ H Tone Spread

$$H$$
  $H$  (iterative)  $C V (V) C V$   $[+ n1]$ 

"Spread the high tone iteratively until one syllable from a melodic H"

This rule will be followed by a third rule which delinks the high tone on the /te-/ negative prefix if the high has spread. Delinking requires that a high tone be linked to at least two vowels. The rule therefore predicts that in a configuration where a linked H cannot spread, it will not be delinked.

(46) /te-/ H Delinking

The three rules in (44), (45) and (46) are ordered in that sequence after the ITAR rule. The example in (47a) has a high tone on /te-/ negative prefix, but (47b) has a high on the subject prefix. In (47a), only rules (44) and (45) apply, but in (47a), all the three rules – (44), (45) and (46) apply.

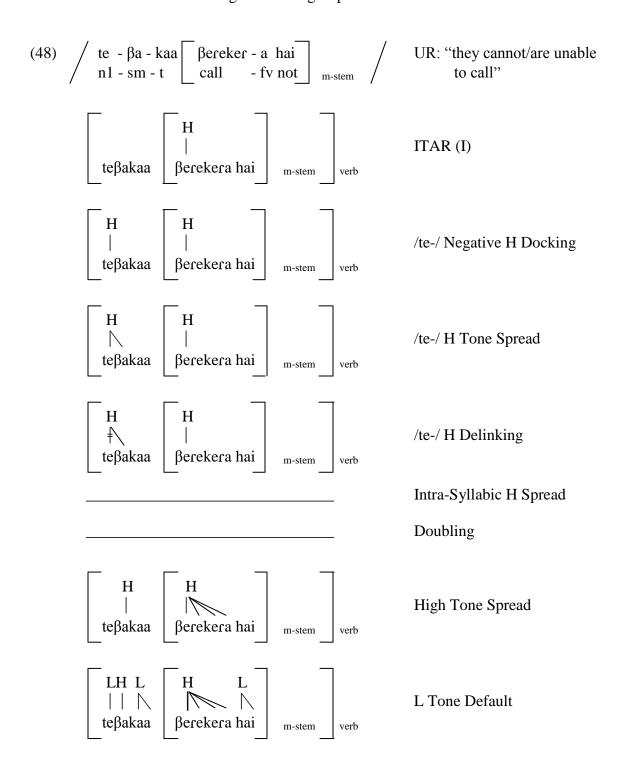
(47) a. Negative Untimed Past Anterior

té-βa-a-[βérékér-á hai] "they have not (yet) called"

b. Negative Untimed Abilityte-βá-kaa-[βérékér-á hai]

"they cannot/are unable to call"

I now proceed to derive (47b) teβákaa[βérékéra hai] "they cannot/are unable to call" to demonstrate how tones are assigned in this group.



	Floating Tone Docking
	Leftward Spread
	Contour Simplification
teβákaa[βérékérá hai]	Output

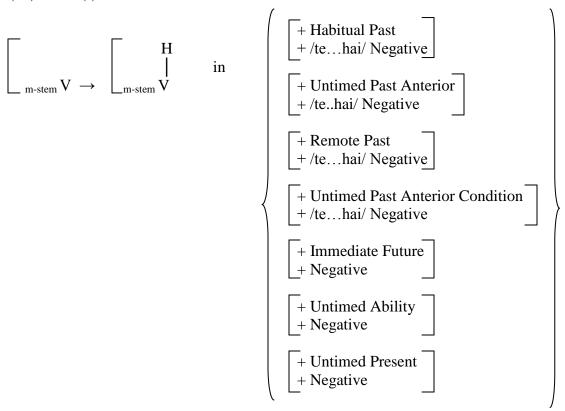
In this section, I have used shifting to account for the tonal patterns in the premacrostem domain. Shifting involves two rules, spreading and delinking. The first rule spreads a high tone from the tone bearing unit that contributes it to the targeted vowels. A delinking rule follows and severs the multiply-linked high from the vowel with the primary high tone. So far, this is the only time I have used delinking to indicate tone mobility in the verb.

After laying out the rules necessary to account for high tones in the pre-macrostem domain of the /te-/ negative tenses, I now proceed to show the melodies that apply in these tenses.

### 4.3.2.3 Tone Assignment Principle 1a: Melodic V1H (Spread)

This principle assigns a primary high tone on the first vowel of the macrostem that subsequently spreads to the penult. Seven out of the eight negative tenses in this tone assignment principle have V1H corresponding affirmative tenses. The ITAR rule in (49) also serves to indicate the tenses involved in this tone assignment principle. Since the Untimed Past Anterior Focused and the Untimed Past Anterior have the same negative tense, both are represented by a single rule.

### (49) ITAR (I)



To illustrate this rule, I provide a number of verbs in (50) from the Negative Remote Past.

# (50) Negative Remote Past

## 4.3.2.4 Tone Assignment Principle 2: Melodic V2H (Spread)

In this pattern, the primary high tone appears on the second vowel of the macrostem. The only negative tense with such a pattern is the Negative Hodiernal Past Progressive Anterior. The ITAR rule that applies for this tense is given in (51).

### (51) ITAR (II)

$$\begin{bmatrix} & H & \\ & | & \text{in} \\ & & \text{m-stem V V} & \rightarrow \end{bmatrix} \xrightarrow{\text{m-stem V V}} \text{in} \quad \left\{ \begin{bmatrix} + \text{ Hodiernal Past Progressive Anterior} \\ + \text{ Negative} \end{bmatrix} \right\}$$

"Associate the melodic H tone to the second vowel of the macrostem in the Negative Hodiernal Past Progressive Anterior."

The affirmative counterpart, the Hodiernal Past Progressive Anterior Focused, is also a melodic V2H tense. In (52), I provide its new ITAR rule just for comparative purposes.

#### (52) ITAR (II)

$$\left[\begin{array}{c} H \\ \downarrow \\ \text{m-stem} \ V \ V \end{array} \right] \quad \text{in} \quad \left\{ \left[\begin{array}{c} + \ \text{Hodiernal Past Progressive Anterior Focused} \\ - \ \text{Negative} \end{array} \right] \right\}$$

"Associate the melodic H tone to the second vowel of the macrostem in the Hodiernal Past Progressive Anterior Focused."

The verb forms in (53) confirm that the Negative Hodiernal Past Progressive Anterior places a high tone on V2 and the H spreads to the penult. The high tone contributed by /te-/ negative is realized on the subject prefix after /te-/ H Tone Spread.

(53) Negative Hodiernal Past Progressive Anterior

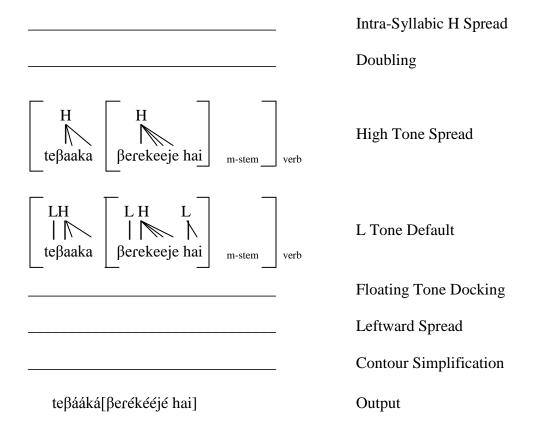
a. /te - 
$$\beta$$
a - aka - re - er - e hai/  $\rightarrow$  te $\beta$ ááká[reéjé hai] "they have not n1 - sm - t - eat - pf - fv not been eating (today)"

b. /te - 
$$\beta a$$
 - aka - rom - er - e hai/  $\rightarrow$  te $\beta$ ááká[roméré hai] "they have not n1 - sm - t - bite - pf - fv not been biting (today)"

c. /te - 
$$\beta a$$
 - aka -  $\beta ereker$  -  $er$  -  $e$  hai/  $\rightarrow$  te $\beta$ ááká[ $\beta erékééjé$  hai] "they have n1 - sm - t - call - pf - fv not not been calling (today)"

d. /te - 
$$\beta a$$
 - aka - koNrokor - er - e hai/  $\rightarrow$  te $\beta$ ááyá[koóndókóójé hai] "they have n1 - sm - t - uncover - pf - fv not been uncovering (today)"

A derivation of *teβááká[βerékééjé hai]* "they have not been calling (today)" follows in (54).



## 4.3.2.5 Tone Assignment Principle 3a: Melodic V3H (Spread)

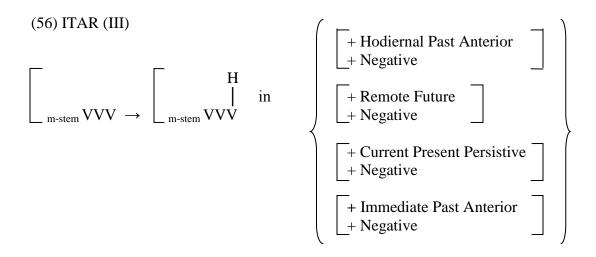
This group involves the assignment of a high tone on V3 of the macrostem. The tenses here could easily pass as melodic V1 and V3 but a comparison of the examples in (55) shows that this is not the case. The high tone seen on V1 in (55a) is not a primary high tone; it must have spread there from a preceding H. Evidence for this is found in verbs with a long vowel occupying V1 and V2, as in (55b). It can be seen that the first long syllable in the macrostem has no high tone. If this tense had a melodic high on V1, the primary H could dock on V1 of the long syllable and spread to V2, but this has not happened. Also, we have not seen any V1 and V3 patterns elsewhere in the language. My

view is that V3 is the melodic H and the high tone contributed by /te-/ negative doubles onto V1 in (55a).

## (55) Negative Hodiernal Past Anterior

a. teβá[βérekééjé hai] "they have not called (today)"
b. teβá[koondókóójé hai] "they have not uncovered (today)"

The ITAR rule for this tense is formalized in (56).



The examples given in (57) are drawn from the Negative Remote Future.

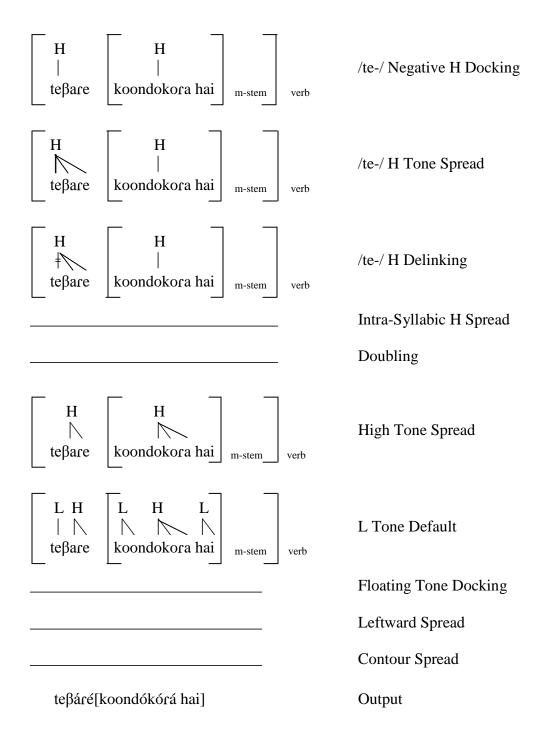
## (57) Negative Remote Future

In (57b), we find evidence to suggest that post-verbal *hai* does not always have a low tone. When a verb macrostem is short, the post-verbal syllable *hai* is included in the vowel count and may carry the melodic high tone. This is evidence that the ITAR rule is phrasal. In all the examples in (57), the high tone assigned to /te-/ shifts to the subject prefix.

Notice that the following pairs of affirmative tenses (58) share similar negative counterparts in this group.

(58) Affirmative Negative a. Remote Future Focused **Negative Remote Future** m-ba-re-[βerekér-a] te-βá-ré-[βérekér-á hai] Remote Future Negative Remote Future βa-ree-[βéréker-á] te-βá-ré-[βérekér-á hai] b. Hodiernal Past Anterior Focused Negative Hodiernal Past Anterior m-ba-[βerekééj-e] te-βá-[βérekééj-é hai] Immediate Past Anterior Negative Immediate Past Anterior βa-a-[βérékeéj-e] te-βá-[βérekééj-é hai]

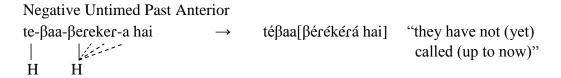
I now proceed to give a derivation of *teβáré[koondókórá hai]* "they will not uncover (then)" from the Negative Remote Future.



In this section, it has been shown that /te-/ negative contributes a high tone which on the surface remains linked to the same morpheme or may delink and shift to the next

morpheme. It may also spread or not spread. In (60), I give a summary of the different manifestations.

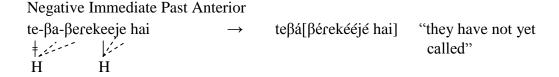
## (60) a. H on /te-/ neither spreads nor delinks



b. H on /te-/ spreads one syllable to the right + single delinking

Negative Untimed Ability te-
$$\beta$$
a-kaa- $\beta$ ereker-a hai  $\rightarrow$  te $\beta$ ákaa[ $\beta$ érékérá hai] "they cannot/are  $\uparrow$  unable to call" H

c. H on /te-/ spreads two syllables to the right + single delinking



d. H on /te-/ spreads three syllables to the right + single delinking



### 4.4 Negation in Infinitives

Infinitives can be negated by using two of the strategies discussed in §4.1: paraphrastic negation or morphological negation. In paraphrastic negation, the verb *anga* "refuse" takes an infinitival form and precedes the verb being negated which drops the augment. This can be seen in (61b).

This is within the realm of complex tenses, and will not be pursued any further.

Morphological negation is achieved by affixing the negative infinitive prefix /tókó-/ to the verb (Chacha & Odden 1998). This morpheme has high tones. The illustration in (62) shows the verbal structure of an infinitival verb.

a - im - bite - fv

The negative morpheme is found after the infinitival marker and before the object prefix.

In (64), I provide short and long verbs in the Negative Infinitive. The tonal pattern remains that of V1H and V4H but, as in the Narrative Past (see §3.2.7.2), the third vowel of the macrostem is low.

```
b. /o - ko - t5kó - saNβ - a/
                                          oγotóγó[sáámba]
                                                                 "not to burn"
   a - im - neg - burn - fv
c. /o - ko - tókó - βereker - a/
                                          oyotókó[βérékerá]
                                                                 "not to call"
   a - im - neg - call
d. /o - ko - tókó - karaNγ - a/
                                          oyotóyó[káraangá]
                                                                 "not to fry"
   a - im - neg - fry
e. /o - ko - tókó - heetok
                                          oyotókó[héétoká]
                                                                 "not to bite"
   a - im - neg - remember - fv
f. /o - ko - tókó - koNrokor - a/ \rightarrow
                                         oyotóyó[kóóndokóra] "not to uncover"
   a - im - neg - uncover - fv
```

## 4.5 Summary of ITAR Rules

The following are the revised ITAR rules. Compared with the ITAR rules used in previous chapters, these are not different, but the features [+ negative] and [- negative] have been added. I place the old rules side by side with the new rules for ease of comparison. When corresponding /ta-/ and /te-/ negative tenses use the same ITAR, I add a [+ negative] feature to the bundle, but when they have different ITAR rules, then the specific morpheme (/ta-/ or /te-/) is used.

Table 4.5: ITAR Rules

Old ITAR Rules	New ITAR Rules	
ITAR (I)		
[+ Habitual Past Focused]	+ Habitual Past Focused - Negative	
	+ Habitual Past + /te-/ Negative	
[+ Untimed Past Anterior Focused]	+ Untimed Past Anterior Focused - Negative	
	+ Untimed Past Anterior + /te-/ Negative	
[+ Remote Past Focused]	+ Remote Past Focused - Negative	
	+ Remote Past + /te-/ Negative	
[+ Untimed Past Anterior Cond. Focused]	+ Untimed Past Anterior Cond. Focused - Negative	
	+ Untimed Past Anterior Condition + /te-/ Negative	
[+ Untimed Ability Focused]	+ Untimed Ability Focused - Negative	

	+ Untimed Ability + Negative	
[+ Immediate Future Focused]	+ Immediate Future Focused - Negative	
	+ Immediate Future + Negative	
[+ Untimed Present]	+ Untimed Present - Negative	
	+ Untimed Present + Negative	
[+ Hortatory Imperative (2)]	+ Hortatory Imperative (2) - Negative	
ITAR (II)		
[+ Hodiernal Past Prog. Anterior Focused]	+ Hodiernal Past Prog. Anterior Focused - Negative	
	+ Hodiernal Past Prog. Anterior + Negative	
ITAR (III)		
[+ Subjunctive]	+ Subjunctive - Negative	

[+ Hodiernal Past Anterior Focused]	+ Hodiernal Past Anterior Focused - Negative
	+ Hodiernal Past Anterior + Negative
[+ Untimed Past Anterior]	+ Untimed Past Anterior - Negative
	+ Untimed Past Anterior + /ta-/ Negative
[+ Remote Future Focused]	+ Remote Future Focused - Negative
	+ Remote Future + Negative
[+ Current Present Persistive Focused]	+ Current Present Persistive Focused - Negative
	+ Current Present Persistive + Negative
[+Untimed Real Uncertain Con. Focused]	+ Untimed Real Uncertain Con. Focused - Negative
[+ Mandatory Imperative]	+ Mandatory Imperative - Negative

	+ Immediate Past Anterior + Negative	
	+ Remote Past + /ta-/ Negative	
	+ Narrative Past + /ta-/ Negative	
ITAF	R (IV)	
[+ Immediate Past Anterior 1 <sup>st</sup> & 2 <sup>nd</sup> P.)]	+ Immediate Past Anterior + me, + you - Negative	
[+ Hortatory Imperative (3)]	+ Hortatory Imperative (3) + me, + you	
ITAR (I) & (IV)		
[+ Narrative Past]	+ Narrative Past - Negative	
[+ Hodiernal Future Uncertain Possibility]	+ Hodiernal Future Uncertain Possibility - Negative	
[+ Remote Future]	+ Remote Future - Negative	
[+ Immediate Past Anterior]	+ Immediate Past Anterior - me, - you - Negative	

[+ Hortatory Imperative (3)]	+ Hortatory Imperative (3) - me, - you	
	+ Untimed Past Anterior Condition + /ta-/ Negative	
	+ Hortatory Imperative (1) + /ta-/ Negative	
No Stem H		
[+ Hortatory Imperative (1)]	+ Hortatory Imperative (1) - Negative	
	+ Habitual Past + /ta-/ Negative	

# **4.6 Conclusion**

This chapter focused on negative tenses, comparing them with the affirmative tenses. I showed that there are many strategies for negating verbs in Kuria but I only analyzed the morphological affixes: /te-/ and /ta-/. While /te-/ must co-occur with the adverbial /hai/ and triggers a high tone on the prefix, /ta-/ is a single affix negation which does not trigger a high tone. In the /te...hai/ form of negation, the tonal patterns on the macrostem did not differ drastically from those in the corresponding affirmative tenses. In the /ta-/ form, we saw varying tonal patterns in the macrostem. Lastly, a comprehensive list of the ITAR rules was provided.

# **Chapter Five**

### **Verbal Reduplication**

### 5. Introduction

This chapter provides an account of the main features of Kuria verbal reduplication. It shows that although segmental content is transferred from the Base to the reduplicant, tone does not transfer. I follow Downing (2001) in arguing that tone can be accounted for in Kuria reduplication by considering the reduplicant and Base as one tonal domain. The representational system used to discuss tone in chapters three and four is used to capture the tonal patterns in reduplication. Most of the verb forms I will be citing are infinitives since they share the same properties as finite forms in reduplication.

This chapter is organized in to four main sections. The first section presents the basic facts about Kuria reduplication. The second section addresses segmental reduplication. The third section handles the issue of tone in reduplication. I choose to talk about tones last because, as will be seen, their assignment turns out to be very simple. Finally, there are concluding remarks on the chapter.

### **5.1 Kuria Reduplication Facts**

As in other Bantu languages, reduplication in Kuria is a highly productive process (Schadeberg 2003, Matondo 2003). In this language, reduplication can be described as a morphophonological process in which a whole or part of the root or the stem is repeated. I start by introducing two crucial terms that are frequently used in reduplication: Base and

reduplicant. The Base<sup>13</sup> is the word, or part of a word, that is to be copied, and the copied element is the reduplicant (RED). This is illustrated in (1).

The verb stem acts as the Base for the reduplicant, and after copying has taken place the reduplicant is prefixed to and becomes part of that stem. As we have seen in chapters three and four, the macrostem is an important domain of tone association. We will return to the issue of tone in reduplication in §5.3. In this work, I adhere to the notational conventions of separating the reduplicant and the Base with the addition symbol (+), reserving the hyphen (-) for internal morpheme breaks where necessary. To make the illustrations clearer, the reduplicant will be underlined. The examples in this chapter will consist of reduplicated forms preceded by the underlying and surface forms of the basic verb.

The examples in (1) further serve to illustrate that in Kuria, as in many Bantu languages such as Kinande (Mutaka & Hyman (1990), Kikuyu (Peng 1992), Kikerewe (Odden 1996), and Kisukuma (Matondo (2003), prefixes such as the infinitival markers do not copy.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>13</sup> I use an upper case letter for "Base" to differentiate it from "base" which refers to a verb root with the extension suffixes but without the final vowel (see Chapter Two, (2)).

Reduplication has been semantically characterized in many languages as "increase in quantity and quality" (Moravcsik 1978, Cammenga 2004). The basic meanings that Kuria reduplication adds to the core meaning of the verb root are given in (2). The meaning will vary depending on individual verbs.

- (2) a. repetition or frequency of an action or event.
  - b. intensity of action or event.
  - c. continuation of action or event.

In addition, reduplication may also convey the meaning of "an action done poorly or without seriousness". It is possible for a verb to carry more than one of these meanings at a time. I will use the meaning "to V repeatedly" in the glosses for ease of reference, unless this meaning is totally absent.

Further, reduplication in Kuria can either copy only part of the segments of the Base (partial reduplication) or a complete stem (total reduplication), as shown in (3).

Reduplication in Bantu has been described as a morphological process of affixation (Katamba 1993) whereby the reduplicant can be a prefix, infix, or suffix. The position I take in this discussion is that verbal reduplication in Kuria involves prefixation for consonant-initial verbs and infixation for /i/-initial verb stems. It is, however, difficult to tell whether this is so when we look at the case of total reduplication in (3c). Evidence in

support of prefixation is found in partial reduplication (see 3b), where the base is retained in full but the reduplicant is shorter. The direction of copying for the Kuria reduplicant is therefore leftward, that is, left-to-right ( $L \rightarrow R$ ). This means that the copied segments are prefixed to the base.

When reduplication takes place in Kuria, the reduplicant is repeated only once, as shown in (4).

With this background in mind, I now turn to segmental reduplication.

# **5.2 Segmental Reduplication**

Although the focus of this study is tone, the pronounced interaction between segmental phonology and tone makes it important for us to lay out segmental reduplication before proceeding to the discussion of tone in reduplication.

# **5.2.1** Minimality of the Reduplicant

It has been argued that the reduplicant is not simply a copy of segments from the stem but that it must satisfy a requirement of minimum size (Poletto 1998, Kager 1999). The reduplicant must be two syllables long. In fact, in many Bantu languages the reduplicant has been described as minimally and maximally disyllabic, for example in Kinande (Mutaka & Hyman 1990), Kikuyu (Peng 1992), and Ndebele (Hyman, Inkelas,

& Sibanda 1998). In §3.2.2.2 we discussed the minimality condition in Kuria and specifically looked at how monosyllabic stems expand so as to meet the disyllabic minimality. In Kuria, as in Kirundi (Brassil 2003) and Lusaamia (Marlo 2004), the reduplicant is minimally disyllabic but maximally it can be of any length. The example in (5) bears out this fact.

In example (5b), the whole Base is copied to the reduplicant; but in (5c) the material copied is less than the Base. In the later case, only the first two syllables, /tɛrɛ-/, are copied; the final syllable /-ka/ is not copied. Both examples, (5b) and (5c), meet the disyllabic requirement. The last example, (5d), has a reduplicant containing only the first syllable of the base /tɛ-/. This is an impossible form because it does not meet the minimality condition. The fact that the reduplicant in (5) can copy two syllables and not one confirms that the minimality condition is active in this language. Even when we look at this as total copying followed by truncation, a minimum of two syllables must remain after truncation. This condition is not influenced by the number of moras or vowels but rather the number of syllables. Example (3), which has a word with a long vowel, is reproduced below as (6) to illustrate this point.

In (6b), the Base is *heetoka* and the reduplicant is *heeto-*. The latter has three vowels but two syllables. The minimality condition treats a CVVCV verb just as CVCV, both are disyllabic. The example in (6c) illustrates total reduplication, showing that maximally the whole base, regardless of length, can be copied. The first two syllables of a verb must always be copied, whether in partial or total reduplication.

A closer look at the examples in (5) and (6) brings to the fore the question of how copying is done. Mutaka & Hyman (1990:83) show that in Kinande reduplication there is a restriction on partial copying such that only entire morphemes are copied. This is captured in their Morpheme Integrity Constraint stated in (7).

# (7) Morpheme Integrity Constraint

Mapping a melody to a reduplicative template takes place by morpheme. If the whole of a morpheme cannot be successfully mapped into the bisyllabic reduplicative template, then none of the morpheme may be mapped.

This constraint guarantees that partial copying of morphemes is blocked. As we have seen in (5) and (6) above, Kuria violates this constraint by copying part of the root morpheme; for example, *tere*- from the root *terek*-, and *heeto*- from the root *heetok*-. Kuria therefore differs from Kinande in how it copies in reduplication.

I have been discussing the minimality condition as it applies in reduplication. The forms that need special attention with this rule are the monosyllabic verbs. In the next section, I show how monosyllabic forms fulfill this condition.

# 5.2.2 Monosyllabic Verbs

In §2.4.3.1, I showed that there are fifteen monosyllabic verbs in Kuria. These are formed through a combination of a single consonant, vowel, or a consonant followed by a glide, with the final vowel /-a/. When the Base for reduplication is too short, as in these cases, reduplication does not occur, because the disyllabic minimality requirement is not met. This is shown in (8).

Bantu languages have various strategies that they use to satisfy disyllabic minimality. In Kuria, monosyllabic verbs can reduplicate by incorporating additional segmental material. Some tenses, such as the Immediate Past Anterior, have a perfective morpheme as a suffix. When monosyllabic verbs are used in such tenses, they are lengthened by the perfective morpheme and consequently they are able to reduplicate.

Note that the subject markers and the prefixal tense markers in (9) do not take part in reduplication.

Another mechanism that this language uses to satisfy disyllabic minimality, and thus facilitates reduplication, is the addition of an object prefix. The effect of the object prefixes is particularly seen in tenses that do not include the perfective suffix. The examples that follow are drawn from two different tenses.

b. 
$$/\beta a$$
 - mo - h -  $\epsilon/$   $\longrightarrow$   $\beta a[mo'h\acute{\epsilon}]$  "that they (may) give him" m - om1 - give - fv

c.  $\beta a-[\underline{mo-h-\epsilon}+m\acute{o}-h-\epsilon]$  "that they (may) give him repeatedly"

Although object prefixes form part of the Base for reduplication in monosyllabic verbs, this does not happen in verbs that are disyllabic or longer (See §5.2.7 for object prefixes with longer verbs).

In the case of the monosyllabic verb [ha] "give", an empty "filler" morph is added to it so as to form a disyllabic stem. This is seen in (12b).

In (12b,c), /-an/ has the shape of the reciprocal but lacks that meaning; it has been used as a filler morph to fulfil the minimality requirement. It is non-productive, occurring only with [ha] "give" (see §3.2.5.3).

# **5.2.3** Disyllabic Stems

Many verbs in Kuria are disyllabic, having the structure CVC-a, CVVC-a, or CVCG-a in the stem. These verbs undergo total reduplication but not partial reduplication, as shown in (13).

$$/o$$
 - ko - rom - a + rom - a/  $\rightarrow$  oko[rómáromá] "to bite repeatedly" a - im - bite - fv + bite - fv \*oko[róró!má] b. /o - ko - saNβ - a/  $\rightarrow$  oγo[sáámbá] "to burn" a - im - burn - fv  $\rightarrow$  oγo[sáámbásáámba] "to burn repeatedly" a - im - burn - fv + burn - fv \*oγo[sáásáámba] "to burn repeatedly" \*oγo[sáássáámba] "to break"  $\rightarrow$  a - im - break - fv  $\rightarrow$  uku[βúna] "to break" "to break" \*oγo[sáássáámba] "to break"

Unlike the monosyllabic verbs, disyllabic verbs are not compelled to incorporate affixal material because they are already compliant with the minimality condition. Also, the examples in (13) provide further evidence for the minimality of the reduplicant as discussed in §5.2.1; that is, reduplication in Kuria does not copy one syllable only, the minimum that can be copied is two syllables.

# **5.2.4 Trisyllabic Stems**

Verbs with trisyllabic stems can undergo total reduplication, where all the three syllables are copied; or partial reduplication, where only two syllables are copied.

# **5.2.5 Quadrisyllabic Stems**

Like the trisyllabic verbs, verbs with four syllables on the macrostem will undergo either total reduplication or partial reduplication where the reduplicant copies the first two syllables of the Base.

### 5.2.6 Verbs with Derived Stems

In the preceding sections, I have shown that prefixes do not take part in reduplication, except when the infinitival prefix and the object prefixes are used in monosyllabic verbs so that these verbs may meet the minimality condition. I now turn my attention to the suffixes. As discussed in §2.3.4, extension suffixes include the stative

/-ek/, applicative /-er/, reciprocal /-an/, causative /-i/, passive /-( $\beta$ )o/, and synchronizing /-erani/. In this section, I present verbs with derived stems. What I want to highlight is that these verbs follow the same generalizations that we have seen in non-derived verbs. In contrast to the prefixal morphemes, all the extension morphemes reduplicate. Such extended verb stems may undergo partial or total reduplication with the meaning remaining the same (16).

```
(16) a. stative /-ek/
                                               oyo[sómέ!ká]
                                                                       "to be legible"
       /o - ko - sɔm - ek - a/
       a - im - rea - st - fv
                                               "to be legible repeatedly"
       o-γo-[sóm-έk-a+sóm-έk-a]
                                               "to be legible repeatedly"
       o-γo-[sóm-έ+som-έk-a]
       o-γo-[sóm-á+som-έk-a]
                                               "to be legible repeatedly"
    b. applicative /-er/
                                               oko[rómé!rá]
       /o - ko - rom - er - a/
                                                                       "to bite for"
       a - im - bite - ap - fv
                                               "to bite for repeatedly"
       o-ko-[<u>róm-ér-a</u>+róm-ér-a]
                                               "to bite for repeatedly"
       o-ko-[róm-é+rom-ér-a]
       o-ko-[róm-á+rom-ér-a]
                                               "to bite for repeatedly"
    c. reciprocal /-an/
       /o - ko - rom - an - a/
                                               oko[rómá<sup>!</sup>ná]
                                                                       "to bite each other"
       a - im - bite - rec - fv
       o-ko-[<u>róm-á-n-a</u>+róm-án-a]
                                               "to bite each other repeatedly"
                                               "to bite each other repeatedly"
       o-ko-[róm-á+rom-án-a]
    d. causative /-i/
       /o - ko - \gamma o c - i - a/
                                                                       "to sell/cause to buy"
                                               uku[γúrjá]
       a - im - buy - cau - fv
```

```
"to sell repeatedly"
  u-ku-[<u>γúr-j-á</u>+γur-j-á]
  *u-ku-[<u>yúr-á</u>+yurj-á]
e. synchronizing /-erani/
  /o - ko - tɛm - erani - a/
                                            oyo[téméranjá]
                                                                     "to beat while doing
   a - im - beat - sync - fv
                                                                       something else
                                                                       simultaneously"
  o-yo-[tém-έranj-á+tém-έránj-a]
                                            "to beat while doing something else
                                              simultaneously"
  o-\gamma o-[\underline{t\acute{\epsilon}m-\acute{\epsilon}}+t\epsilon m-\acute{\epsilon}r\acute{a}nj-a]
                                             "to beat while doing something else
                                              simultaneously"
  o-γo-[tém-á+tem-éránj-a]
                                             "to beat while doing something else
                                              simultaneously"
                                             "to beat while doing something else
  *o-yo-[tém-éran-á+tém-éránj-a]
                                              simultaneously"
f. passive /-(\beta)o/
                                                                     "to be remembered"
  /o - ko - heetok
                       - O
                                            oko[héétókwá]
   a - im - remember - pas - fv
  o-ko-[héétók-w-á+héétók-w-a]
                                             "to be remembered repeatedly"
                                            "to be remembered repeatedly"
  o-ko-[héétó+héétók-w-a]
  *o-ko-[héét-á+héétók-w-a]
```

The forms in (16a,b,e,f) show that in cases of partial reduplication, the reduplicant may be identical to the first two syllables of the Base or it may be different. In the cited examples, the final vowel of the reduplicant can be /-a/. It has been argued that this is not a copy of the final vowel of the verb but a default vowel inserted to fill the second syllable of the reduplicant (for detailed discussion see Mutaka and Hyman 1990, Downing 1997). In Kuria, a reduplicant that ends in /-a/, must exist as a verb by itself; such as in  $o-\gamma o-[s\acute{o}m-\acute{a}+'s\acute{o}m-\acute{e}k-a]$  (16a),  $o-ko-[r\acute{o}m-\acute{a}+rom-\acute{e}r-a]$  (16b),  $o-ko-[r\acute{o}m-\acute{a}+rom-\acute{e}r-a]$  in (16c), and  $o-\gamma o-[t\acute{e}m-\acute{a}+tem-\acute{e}r-\acute{a}n-j-a]$  in (16e). This explains

why (16d) \**u-ku-[γúr-á*+γ*urj-á]* is not acceptable. There is no verb such as γ*úra* in Kuria but there is γ*óra* "buy" from which γ*úrjá* is derived. Although *heetá* "make haste" in (16f), \**o-ko-[héétá+héétók-w-a*], is a Kuria verb, it is not related to *heetóka* "remember". That is why that particular reduplicative form is not acceptable.

Up to now we have seen that it is possible to have total reduplication or partial reduplication which meets the minimality requirement – disyllabic. The verbs in (16) show that when the verb undergoes total reduplication there is symmetry of the morphemes between the reduplicant and the Base but if it undergoes partial reduplication, then the reduplicant is asymmetrical. I will use the examples in (16a-b) for illustration in (17).

# (17) Symmetrical and Asymmetrical Forms

Base form	Symmetrical reduplicant	Asymmetrical reduplicant
a. ογο[sɔ́m-ϵ́' <b>k-</b> á]	ογο[ <u>sóm-<b>έk-</b>a</u> sóm- <b>έk-</b> a]	ογο[ <u>sóm-Ø-á</u> som- <b>έk-</b> a] ογο[ <u>sóm-<b>έØ-</b></u> som- <b>έk-</b> a]
b. oko[róm- <b>é</b> ¹ <b>r-</b> á]	oko[ <u>róm-<b>ér-</b>a</u> róm- <b>ér-</b> a]	oko[ <u>róm-<b>éØ-</b></u> rom- <b>ér-</b> a] oko[ <u>róm-Ø-á</u> rom- <b>ér-</b> a]

The symmetrical reduplicants are identical to their Bases, but the asymmetrical reduplicants are a copy of just part of the Base. This clearly shows that derivational extensions such as the stative, applicative, reciprocal, causative, passive, and synchronizing may be partially or fully copied or left out in reduplication. It also confirms that the Morpheme Integrity Constraint (see §5.2.1) does not hold in Kuria since

we can see incomplete morphemes being copied, such as -ε instead of /-εk/ (stative) and -e instead of /-er/ (applicative).

Verbs with a combination of extension suffixes can undergo reduplication, as shown in (18) and (19).

As noted in Odden (1996) for Kikerewe, partial reduplication of a stem which contains two or more derivational suffixes will only copy in a continuous sequence and not in a discontinuous sequence. (20) o-γo-[tém-ér-an-á+tém-ér-án-a] "to beat each other repeatedly for"\* oγo[tém-án-a+tém-ér-án-a]

The form \*oyo[témánatémérána] is not acceptable because the reduplicant copies in a discontinuous manner. It copies the root, skips the applicative, and copies the reciprocal.

Other suffixal morphemes in the Kuria verb are of the inflectional category. These are the perfective /-er/ and the final vowel. As we saw in §2.3.4.10, the final vowel for the indicative and the infinitive is /-a/, /-ɛ/ for the subjunctive, and /-e/ for the perfective. These morphemes undergo similar reduplicative processes to those of the derivational suffixes.

(21) Perfective (Immediate Past Anterior)

a. 
$$/\beta a$$
 - a - karaN $\gamma$  - er - e/  $\rightarrow$   $\beta aa[káraangére]$  "they have just fried" sm - t - fry - pf - fv

d. βa-a-[<u>kár-á</u>+karááŋg-ér-e] "they have just fried poorly"

(22) Subjunctive

a. 
$$/\beta a - karaN\gamma - \epsilon/$$
  $\rightarrow$   $\beta a[karaáng\epsilon]$  "that they (may) fry" sm - fry - fv

A symmetrical pattern is seen in (21b) and (22b), while (21c,d) and (22c) have an asymmetrical pattern.

### **5.2.7 Object Prefixes**

Generally, object prefixes are not copied in verbal reduplication, except with monosyllabic verbs (see §5.2.2), but they receive tone. This means that whereas the tonal domain is the macrostem (includes object), the reduplication domain is the stem. The examples in (23) have a third person singular object morpheme, /mo-/, and as expected, it does not take part in reduplication.

```
(23) a. Infinitive
       /o - ko - mo - rom - a/\rightarrow
                                      oko[móró!má]
                                                              "to bite him"
       a - im - om1 - bite - fv
       o-ko-[mó-róm-a+róma]
                                       "to bite repeatedly"
       *o-ko-[mó-róm-a+mó-róm-a]
    b. Subjunctive
                                       βa[moromέ]
                                                              "that they (may) bite him"
       /\beta a - mo - rom - \varepsilon/ \rightarrow
       sm - om1 - bite - fv
       βa-[mo-rom-έ+róm-ε]
                                       "that they (may) bite him repeatedly"
       *βa-[mo-rom-έ+mó-róm-ε]
```

In §3.6.6, we saw that the first person singular prefix behaves in a unique way. In reduplication, when a first person singular prefix is used in a verb, a nasal prefix precedes the reduplicant and a process of assimilation of place occurs between the nasal and the first consonant in the reduplicant. This is an indication that the morphological rule of reduplication takes place before the phonological rule of nasal assimilation. More important is that the first person singular prefix behaves just like the other object prefixes by resisting reduplication.

(24) Immediate Past Anterior

a.  $/\beta a - a - ne - rom - er - e/ \rightarrow \beta aa[ndóméré]$  "they have just bitten me" sm - t - om1 - bite - pf - fv

b. βa-a-[n-<u>dóm-ér-é</u>+róm-ér-e]

"they have just bitten me repeatedly"

c. βa-a-[n-<u>dóm-é</u>+róm-ér-e]

"they have just bitten me repeatedly"

d. \* $\beta$ a-a-[ $\underline{n-d\acute{o}m-\acute{e}r-\acute{e}}+n-d\acute{o}m-\acute{e}r-\acute{e}$ ]

e. \*βa-a-[n-dóm-é+n-dóm-ér-e]

The discussion in this section shows that the object prefix is excluded from the domain of reduplication. Another object prefix that behaves in an unusual way is the reflexive /-i/. When a reflexive is added to a consonant-initial verb, it makes the verb vowel-initial. I will therefore discuss the reflexive under the vowel-initial verbs in the next section.

#### **5.2.8 Vowel Initial Verbs**

As discussed in §3.6, some vowel-initial verbs exhibit an unusual pattern of tone marking in comparison to the consonant-initial verbs. This is attributed to fact that the first syllable of the stem in such verbs is onsetless. In many Bantu languages, such syllables are ignored in prosodic processes which refer to reduplication, stress assignment, and tone association (Odden 1995, Downing 1997, 1998). As we saw in §3.6, the stem-initial vowel in some verbs is not assigned a high tone; so it also follows that it will be excluded from the Base for reduplication because it is not a well-formed prosodic constituent. The Base in reduplication should begin with a well-formed onsetful syllable.

In order to find out how vowel-initial verbs behave in reduplication, I looked through the *Kuria-English Dictionary* (Muniko et al 1996) and wrote down all the

vowel-initial verbs that I know. In total, I found 330 verbs; 5 beginning with  $/\epsilon$ -/, 7 with  $/\sigma$ -/, 10 with  $/\epsilon$ -/, 9 with  $/\sigma$ -/, 32 with  $/\alpha$ -/, and 267 with /i-/. Hence the majority of the vowel-initial verbs in the dictionary start with the vowel /i-/. In all the verbs that I looked at, the initial vowel of the verb macrostem is always copied in reduplication, except for verbs that begin with /i-/. I now proceed to look at examples of verbs starting with different vowels.

### **5.2.8.1** /i-/ Initial Verbs

The /i-/ initial verbs range from verbs that have a reflexive meaning to those that have been lexicalized and have specialized meaning. For the verbs in (25), it is possible to tease apart the reflexive from the rest of the verb stem.

The verb in (25c) is interesting because it is vowel-initial. When the reflexive is added on to it, a high glide /j-/ is inserted to break the vowel hiatus (see §3.6.7). The verbs that

follow in (26) have a lexicalized form. It is not possible to tease apart the reflexive from the rest of the stem.

Despite the difference that we have observed between the verbs in (25) and (26), there is not much that separates them. It has been argued that the onsetless reflexive prefix /i-/ followed by a consonant-initial stem is often indistinguishable from an /i-/-initial verb stem (Marlo 2008). There is a prefix-stem fusion such that the morphological boundary between the two morphemes is blurred. In all these verbs, the initial vowel is ignored in reduplication, as shown in (27).

(27) Habitual Past Focused

a. /ne - 
$$\beta a$$
 - aká - itu $\beta$  - er - e/  $\rightarrow$  mbaaká[ítú $\beta$ íre] "(indeed) they used to f - sm - t - swim - pf - fv swim (then)"

m-ba-aká-[í-tú $\beta$ -ír-é+tú $\beta$ -ír-e] "(indeed) they used to swim repeatedly (then)"

As we have seen in the previous sections, the reduplicant in consonant-initial stems is always prefixed to the Base. The data in (28) illustrates that the reduplicant is infixed after the initial vowel in /i-/-initial stems. The initial vowel is not reduplicated and as we discussed in §3.6.1, the rule of Macrostem Adjustment puts it outside the macrostem.

```
(28) Immediate Past Anterior
     a. /\beta a - a - i\gamma o \cdot - e \cdot - e / \rightarrow
                                                                    "they have just opened"
                                                βai[yóójé]
         sm - t - open - pf - fv
                                                                    "they have just opened repeatedly"
         \beta a - i - [\underline{\gamma \acute{o} \acute{o} j - \acute{e}} + \gamma \acute{o} \acute{o} j - e]
     b. \betaa - a - iγοNβ - er - e/\rightarrow
                                                βai[γóómbére] "they have just desired"
         sm - t - admire - pf - fv
         βa-i-[<u>yóómb-ér-é</u>+yóómb-ér-e]
                                                                    "they have just desired repeatedly"
         βa-i-[γóómb-é+γóómb-ér-e]
                                                                    "they have just desired repeatedly"
         βa-i-[<u>γóómb-á</u>+γóómb-ér-e]
                                                                    "they have just desired repeatedly"
```

I follow Downing (2000) and Mutaka & Hyman (1990) in observing that the infixing of the reduplicant after the stem-initial vowel has the advantage of improving the prosodic well-formedness of both the Base and the reduplicant.

The prefixation of the reflexive /-i/ to a consonant-initial verb changes that verb to vowel-initial. When such verbs undergo reduplication, the stem-initial vowel is not copied (29).

### (29) Remote Future

- a.  $/\beta a$  ree rom a/  $\rightarrow$   $\beta$ aree[róma] "they will bite (then)" sm t bite fv
- b.  $/\beta a$  ree i rom a/ $\rightarrow$   $\beta arii[rómá]$  "they will bite themselves (then)" sm t rf bite fv
- c. βa-ri-i-[róm-á+róm-a] "they will bite themselves repeatedly (then)"

The example in (29a) shows a consonant-initial verb in the Remote Future. The reflexive is added in (29b), and its reduplicative form is shown in (29c). Notice that the reflexive is ignored in reduplication.

As we saw in §3.6.7, when a reflexive is prefixed to a vowel-initial verb, a high glide is inserted to break the vowel hiatus between the two vowels. This repair mechanism changes the onsetless syllable into a consonant-initial syllable.

#### (30) Remote Future

- a.  $/\beta a$  ree  $i\gamma \circ N\beta$  a/  $\rightarrow$   $\beta arii[\gamma \circ \delta mb \circ a]$  "they will admire/desire sm t desire fv (then)"
- b.  $/\beta a$  ree i i $\gamma \circ N\beta$  a/  $\rightarrow$   $\beta a \circ ii[ji\gamma \circ \circ mba]$  "they will desire themselves sm t rf desire fv (then)"

c. βa-ri-i-[jí-<u>γόόmb-á</u>+γόόmb-a "they will admire/desire themselves repeatedly
\* βa-ri-i-[jí-<u>γόόmb-á</u>+jí-γόómb-a (then)"

The verb in (30a) has a tense prefix with a long vowel, and a vowel-initial stem. A reflexive /-i/ is inserted between the tense prefix and the stem (30b). After the glide is inserted between the reflexive and the stem-initial vowel, one of the tense vowels is deleted. Note that neither the reflexive nor the ji- syllable are copied onto the reduplicant. Thus, the ji- syllable behaves differently for tone assignment and for reduplication. It counts as part of the macrostem for tone assignment (§3.6.7), but not as part of the Base for reduplication.

### 5.2.8.2 /a-, e-, $\epsilon$ -, o-, $\mathfrak{I}$ -/ Initial Verbs

When the vowels /a-,  $\varepsilon$ -, e-, o-, o-/ are in stem-initial position in a verb, they take part in reduplication. One example is provided in (31) for each of the vowels.

# (31) Hodiernal Future Uncertain Possibility

```
a. /\beta a - ka - aneker - a/ \rightarrow \beta akaa[nékérá] "perhaps they will lay out (today)" sm - t - lay out - fv
```

βa-ka-<u>a[nékér-á</u>+ánékér-a] "perhaps they will lay out repeatedly (today)" \*βa-ka-a[né+ánékér-a]

\* $\beta$ a-ka- $\underline{a}[\underline{n\acute{e}}\underline{k\acute{e}}$ + $\acute{a}$ nékér-a]

b. /βa - ka - εrεm - a/ → βakεε[rέmá] "perhaps they will swim (today)"
 sm - t - swim - fv

βa-kε-<u>ε[rέm-á</u>+έrém-a] "perhaps they will swim repeatedly (today)"

As shown in (31a), it is not possible to have partial reduplication in vowel-initial verbs of this kind.

### **5.2.9 Verbal Enclitics**

In §3.5, we saw that the locative clitics /hɔ/, /kɔ/, and /mɔ/ do not have any special tonal effects when used in a verb but only serve to increase the length of the verb and are part of the verb for tone assignment. In this section, I show that these clitics do not take part in reduplication.

(32) Immediate Past Anterior
a. /βa - a - rom - er - e - hɔ/ → βaa[rómérehó] "they have just bitten there" sm - t - bite - pf - fv - loc16
βa-a-[róm-ér-e+róm-ér-é-hɔ] "they have just bitten there repeatedly" "they have just bitten there repeatedly"
βa-a-[róm-á+rom-ér-é-hɔ] "they have just bitten there repeatedly"

b. 
$$/\beta a - a - \beta iim - er - e - mo/ \rightarrow \beta aa[\beta iimiremo]$$
 "they have just sm - t - measure - pf - fv - loc18 measured in there"

βa-a-[βiim-ir-é+βiim-ir-é-mo] "they have just measured in there repeatedly" βa-a-[βiim-á+βiim-ir-é-mo] "they have just measured in there repeatedly" βa-a-[βiim-i+βiim-ir-é-mo] "they have just measured in there repeatedly" \* βa-a-[βiim-ir-é-mo+βiim-ir-é-mo]

c. 
$$/\beta a$$
 - a - hayaatf - er - e - ko/  $\rightarrow$   $\beta aa[há\gamma aatféréko]$  "they have just built sm - t - build - pf - fv - loc17 on (it)"

βa-a-[háγaatʃ-ér-é+háγáátʃ-ér-é-kɔ] "they have just built on (it) repeatedly" \* βa-a-[háγaatʃ-ér-é-kɔ+háγáátʃ-ér-é-kɔ]

As illustrated in (32), it is not possible to copy the locatives in reduplication, that is, they are outside the scope of reduplication. In this way, they behave like the prefixes. Further, an enclitic added to a monosyllabic verb cannot form a Base for reduplication, as seen in (33).

So far, it can be observed that in Kuria, the prefixes and the enclitics are not copied in reduplication; only the stem is. To further illustrate which morphemes undergo reduplication in Kuria, I adopt the verbal structure and terminology used in (Downing

2000) with an additional node for the verbal enclitics. The verb  $\beta aa[r\'om\'ereh\'o]$  "they have just bitten there" has been used to fill in the slots in the structure.

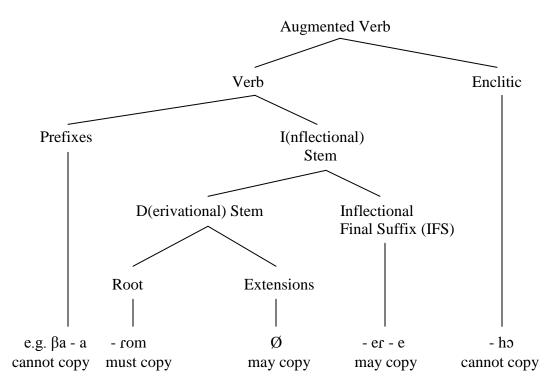


Figure 5.1: Kuria Verbal Stucture

In Kuria verbal reduplication, the root must be copied completely or partially and the extensions and the final vowel or suffix may copy but the enclitics must not copy.

# **5.2.10 Lexical Reduplication**

Some verb stems are lexically reduplicated; the unreduplicated forms do not occur. Most of these are designed so as to capture the repetitive nature of the actions they describe. These verbs exhibit stem-initial CV(V) partial reduplication. I will use the infinitival form in the examples that follow.

(34) Partial reduplication

a. oko[γόγό ná]
b. uku[núúnúnta]
c. oko[máámáána]
d. oko[nóóγa]
e. oko[róóróóma]

(34) Partial reduplication
"to gnaw"
"have pains in joints"
"to make haste, hurry up"
"to become loose or slack"
"to groan"

f. oko[<u>róó</u>róóta] "to grumble" g. ογο[<u>sáá</u>sááma] "to beseech" h. ογο[<u>séé</u>sééβa] "to feel queasy"

i. ογο[<u>séé</u>séétóka] "to fade"

It looks like the stem-initial syllable of the verbs in (34) is copied. This is the first time that we are encountering a verb stem that reduplicates by copying the first syllable only. This is definitely a violation of the disyllabic minimality. Since I have no evidence that (a) γona (b) μυμπτα (c) μααπα (d) μοργα (e) κορπα (f) κορτα (g) saama (h) seeβα, and (i) seetoka are basic verbs in Kuria, I conclude that the verbs in (34) have lexical reduplication. It is possible for the stems in (34) to undergo total reduplication. No partial reduplication of these verbs is possible.

"to gnaw repeatedly" (35) a. o-ko- $[\gamma \acute{o}\gamma \acute{o}n-a+\gamma \acute{o}\gamma \acute{o}n-a]$ b. u-ku-[núúnúúnt-á+núúnúúnt-a] "to have pains in joints repeatedly" "to make haste, hurry up" c. o-ko-[máámáán-á+máámáán-a] "to become loose or slack repeatedly" d. o-ko-[ηόόηόόγ-á+ηόόηόόγ-a] e. o-ko-[róóróóm-á+róóróóm-a] "to groan repeatedly" "to grumble repeatedly" f. o-ko-[<u>róóróót-á</u>+róóróót-a] "to be seech repeatedly" g. o-γo-[sáásáám-á+sáásáám-a] h.  $o-\gamma o-[\underline{s\acute{e}\acute{s\acute{e}\acute{e}\acute{b}}}-\acute{a}+s\acute{e}\acute{s\acute{e}\acute{e}\acute{b}}-a]$ "to feel queasy repeatedly" i. o-γo-[sééséétók-á+sééséétók-a] "to fade"

The next group involves verb forms that are available only in total reduplication.

These are not as many in the language as the "partial reduplication" ones in (34).

(36) Total reduplication

```
a. o-ko-[γάατjáγάάτj-a]
b. o-ko-[hááγáhááγ-a]
c. o-γo-[kééndákéénd-a]
"to wipe clean e.g. food in a bowl"
"to move about agitatedly"
"to busy oneself so as to impress others"
```

My position is that the verbs in (36) are also lexically reduplicated since they do not have related unreduplicated stems. These verbs cannot be further reduplicated through the productive process of reduplication.

```
    (37) a. *o-ko-[<u>γάάτ]áγάάτ]-á</u>+γάάτ]áγάάτ]-a]
    b. *o-ko-[<u>hááγáhááγ-á</u>+hááγáhááγ-a]
    c. *o-γο-[<u>kééndákéénd-á</u>+kééndákéénd-a]
```

When lexically reduplicated verb stems in (36) are followed by derivational suffixes, the suffixes are not copied unless the extended stem is disyllabic, as in (38a). The derivational affixes attach to the verbs as suffixes, at the end of the whole verb complex.

```
(38) a. /o - ko - \gamma aarja \gamma aar - er - i - a/\rightarrow
                                               oko[yáárjáyáárrja]
                                                                       "to wipe clean
       a - im - wipe clean - ap - cau - fv
                                                                      for e.g. food in a bowl"
       oko[yáárrjáyáárrja]
    b. /o - ko - haayahaay - er - a/
                                               oko[hááyáhááyéra]
                                                                       "to move about
       a - im - move ag. - ap - fv
                                                                        agitatedly for"
       *oko[hááyérá+hááyérá]
    c. /o - ko - keNrakeNr - er - a/ \rightarrow
                                               oyo[kééndákééndéra] "to busy oneself for or
       a - im - busy oneself - ap - a
                                                                      so as to impress others"
       *oyo[kééndérá+kééndéra]
```

The example in (38a) has a causative suffix in both the "Base" and the "reduplicant" yet the verb is acceptable. This is because both the Base and reduplicant are disyllabic and the causative has been grammaticalized. In (38b-c), reduplication is asymmetrical because the applicative /-er/ cannot be copied. It only appears in the second part of the verb.

An analysis of segmental reduplication is not attempted because that is not the focus of this study. After describing the facts on segmental reduplication, I now proceed to the description and analysis of tone in reduplication.

# **5.3** Tone in Reduplication

Many studies have been carried out in Bantu verbal reduplication but only a few, such as Myers (1987), Walsh (1992), Myers & Carleton (1996), and Downing (2001), have addressed the issue of tone in reduplication. My intention is to make a contribution towards this end. Having accounted for segmental reduplication, I am now in a position to consider how tones behave in reduplicated stems. The question is "What happens to tone when a verb is reduplicated?" According to Marantz's (1982) model of reduplication, only segmental material is copied from the Base. This means that no tones of the Base will appear on the reduplicant. The Full Copy Model (Steriade 1998) shows that segmental and prosodic content is copied from the Base to the reduplicant. The tone of the Base will therefore appear on the reduplicant. But Downing (2001) has demonstrated that in Bantu verbal reduplication, tone does not transfer along with the segmental content of the Base. Chichewa is the only known Bantu language in which

verbal reduplication copies tones as well as segments (Myers & Carleton 1996, Hyman & Mtenje 1999).

In this section, I will show that tone is not copied in Kuria. Tone is determined after segmental reduplication has taken place. Following Downing (2001), I argue that in Kuria, RED + Base form a single domain of tone realization. In this case, a reduplicated verb is not any different from an unreduplicated verb; tone is distributed over the entire RED + Base complex just as in the unreduplicated verb.

A number of theories have been presented in an attempt to explain tone transfer or non-transfer in Bantu verbal reduplication. The question being answered is "Why do some languages transfer tone in reduplication while others do not?" The most successful of these theories is that proposed by Downing (2001). Since I will adopt the same approach, I briefly explain what this theory entails.

### **5.3.1 Downing (2001)**

Work that has been done in Bantu reduplication shows that languages follow one of these three trends (a) tone is identical in the reduplicant and Base (b) tone is distributed over the entire RED + Base (c) tone of the unreduplicated form is realized on only one half of the RED + Base complex. The proposal here is that RED + Base complex is a compound, with the structure in Figure 5.2.

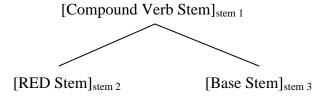


Figure 5.2: Compound structure for reduplicated Bantu verb stems

This compound stem is a constituent of the verb. The RED + Base is a compound because it contains three different stems as shown in Figure 5.2. The three possible stems are RED stem, Base stem, and Compound stem. This compound structure can be used to account for tone in Bantu by defining different stems within the compound as the relevant domain for stem tone association for a particular language. It is now possible to account for the three trends of tone distribution in Bantu languages mentioned above.

### (39) a. Trend 1

Stem 2 and Stem 3

Tone is identical in RED and Base.

Each half of the RED + Base complex is an independent tonal domain.

#### b. Trend 2

Stem 1 (Compound stem)

Tone is distributed over the entire RED + Base.

RED + Base form one tonal domain.

#### c. Trend 3

Stem 3 (Base stem)

Tone is realized on one half of the reduplicated complex.

As mentioned before in this section, I pursue the claim that tone is not copied in Kuria but is distributed over the entire RED + Base as a single tonal domain (see Trend 2 in (39)). I now proceed to discuss the tone patterns in Kuria reduplication. I will first

consider consonant-initial verbs because they are the simplest, before turning to the vowel-initial verbs.

# **5.3.2** Tone in Consonant Initial Verbs

In Table 3.1, I provided a table of tonal patterns in the finite verbs. Similarly, I now provide, in Table 5.1 below, a summary of tonal patterns in reduplication using the verb [koondókorà] "uncover".

Table 5.1: Tonal Patterns in Reduplicated Verbs

<b>Tone Melody</b>	Tense	Example	Gloss
V1 (Spread)	Habitual Past Focused	mbaaγá[kóóndókóóje]	"(indeed) they used to uncover"
		mbaaγá[kóóndókóójékóóndókóóje] mbaaγá[kóóndókóóndókóóje]	"(indeed) they used to uncover repeatedly (then)"
	Untimed Past Anterior Focused	mbaa[kóóndókóra]	"(indeed) they have (already) uncovered"
		mbaa[kóóndókórákóóndókóra] mbaa[kóóndókóóndókóra]	"(indeed) they have (already) uncovered repeatedly"
	Remote Past Focused	mbaa[kóóndókóóje]	"(indeed) they uncovered/ did uncover (then)"
Imm		mbaa[kóóndókóójékóóndókóóje] mbaa[kóóndókóóndókóóje]	"(indeed) they uncovered/ did uncover repeatedly (then)"
	Untimed Past Anterior Condition Focused	mbaγaa[kóóndókóóje]	"(indeed) they would have uncovered (anytime before now/then)"
		mbaγaa[kóóndókóójékóóndókóóje] mbaγaa[kóóndókóóndókóóje]	"(indeed) they would have uncovered repeatedly (anytime before now/then)"
	Immediate Future Focused	mbaraá[kóóndókórɛ]	"(indeed) they will uncover (now)"
		mbaraá[kóóndókórékóóndókóre] mbaraá[kóóndókóóndókóre]	"(indeed) they will uncover repeatedly (now)"
	Untimed Ability Focused	mbayaa[kóóndókóra]	"(indeed) they are able to uncover"

		mbayaa[kóóndókórákóóndókóra] mbayaa[kóóndókóóndókóra]	"(indeed) they are able to uncover repeatedly"
Untimed Present	βa[kóóndókóra]	"they uncover (fact)"	
		βa[kóóndókórákóóndókóra] βa[kóóndókórákóóndókóra]	"they uncover repeatedly (fact)"
V1 (No Spread) H	Hortatory Imperative (2)	ta[kóóndokorà]	"(do) uncover"
		ta[kóóndokorakoondokorà] ta[kóóndokorakoondokorà]	"(do) uncover repeatedly"
V2 (Spread)	Hodiernal Past Progressive Anterior Focused	mbaaγa[koóndókóóje]	"(indeed) they have been uncovering (today)"
		mbaaγa[koóndókóójékoóndókóóje] mbaaγa[koóndókoóndókóóje]	"(indeed) they have been uncovering repeatedly (today)"
V3 (Spread)	Subjunctive	βa[koondókórε]	"that they (may) uncover"
		βa[koondókórékóóndókóre] βa[koondókóóndókóre]	"that they (may) uncover repeatedly"
	Hodiernal Past Anterior Focused	mba[koondókóóje]	"(indeed) they uncovered (earlier today)"
		mba[koondókóójékóóndókóóje] mba[koondókóóndókóóje]	"(indeed) they uncovered repeatedly (earlier today)"
	Untimed Past Anterior	βaa[koondókóra]	"they have (already) uncovered"
		βaa[koondókórákóóndókóra]	"they have (already) uncovered repeatedly"

		βaa[koondókóóndókóra]	
	Remote Future Focused	mbare[koondókóra]	"(indeed) they will uncover (then)"
		mbare[koondókórákóóndókóra] mbare[koondókóóndókóra]	"(indeed) they will uncover repeatedly (then)"
	Current Present Persistive	mbaγe[koondókóóje]	"(indeed) they are still uncovering"
Focused	mbaγe[koondókóójékóóndókóóje] mbaγe[koondókóóndókóóje]	"(indeed) they are still uncovering repeatedly"	
	Untimed Real Uncertain Condition Focused	mba[koondókóra]	"(indeed) even if they uncover"
	Condition Focused	mba[koondókórákóóndókóra] mba[koondókóóndókóra]	"(indeed) even if they uncover repeatedly"
V3 (No Spread)	Mandatory Imperative	[koondókorà]	"uncover!"
		[koondókorakoondokorà] [koondókoondokorà]	"uncover repeatedly!"
V1 and V4 (All Persons) (V4 Spread)	Narrative Past	βaγá[kóóndokóra]	"(and) they uncovered"
		βaγá[kóóndokórákóóndókóra] βaγá[kóóndokóóndókóra]	"(and) they uncovered repeatedly"
	Hodiernal Future	βaγaa[kóóndókórákóóndókóra]	"perhaps they will uncover (today)"
	Uncertain Possibility	βaγaa[kóóndókórákóóndókóra] βaγaa[kóóndókóóndókóra]	"perhaps they will uncover repeatedly (today)"

Remote Future	βaree[kóóndókóra]	"they will uncover (then)"
	βaree[kóóndókórákóóndókóra] βaree[kóóndókóóndókóra]	"they will uncover repeatedly (then)"
Infinitive	ογο[kóóndókóra]	"to uncover"
	ογο[kóóndókórákóóndókóra]	"to uncover repeatedly"
	ογο[kóóndókóóndókóra]	
Immediate Past Anterior	βaa[kóóndókóóje]	"they have just uncovered"
	βaa[kóóndókóójékóóndókóóje] βaa[kóóndókóójékóóndókóóje]	"they have just uncovered repeatedly"
Hortatory Imperative (3)	βara[kóóndókóra]	"let them uncover"
	βara[kóóndókórákóóndókóra] βara[kóóndókóóndókóra]	"let them uncover repeatedly"
Immediate Past Anterior	too[koondokóóje]	"we have just uncovered"
	too[koondokóójékóóndókóóje] too[koondokóóndókóóje]	"we have just uncovered repeatedly"
Hortatory Imperative (3)	tora[koondokóra]	"let us uncover"
	tora[koondokórákóóndókóra] tora[koondokóóndókóra]	"let us uncover repeatedly"
Hortatory Imperative (1)	βatá[koondokorà]	"let them uncover"
	βatá[koondokorakoondokorà]	"let them uncover repeatedly"
	Infinitive  Immediate Past Anterior  Hortatory Imperative (3)  Immediate Past Anterior  Hortatory Imperative (3)	βaree[kóóndókórákóóndókóra]   βaree[kóóndókórákóóndókóra]   Oyo[kóóndókóra]   Oyo[kóóndókóra]   Oyo[kóóndókórákóóndókóra]   Oyo[kóóndókórákóóndókóra]   Immediate Past Anterior   βaa[kóóndókóóje]   βaa[kóóndókóóje]   βaa[kóóndókóójekóóndókóóje]   βara[kóóndókórákóóndókóra]   βara[kóóndókórákóóndókóra]   Immediate Past Anterior   too[koondokóójekóóndókóóje]   too[koondokóójekóóndókóóje]   too[koondokóójekóóndókóóje]   tora[koondokóóndókóra]   tora[koondokórákóóndókóra]   tora[koondokóóndókóra]   tora[koondokóndókóra]   tora[koondokóóndókóra]   tora[koondokóndókóra]   tora[koondokóóndókóra]   tora[koondokóndókóra]   tora[koondokóndókóra]   tora[koondokóndókóndókóra]   tora[koondokóndókóndókóra]   tora[koondokóndókóndókóndókóndókóra]   tora[koondokóndókóndókóndókóna]   tora[koondokóndókóndókóndókóndókóna]   tora[koondokóndókóndókóndókóna]   tora[koondokóndókóndókóndókóndókóna]   tora[koondokóndókóndókóna]   tora[koondokóndókóndókóndókóna]   tora[koondokóndókóndókóna]   tora[koondokóndókóndókóna]   tora[koondokóndókóndókóna]   tora[koondokóndókóndókóna]   tora[koondokóndókóna]   tora[koondokó

Looking at the unreduplicated verbs and their corresponding reduplicated verbs in Table 5.1 shows that prefixing the reduplicant to the verb stem does not change the way tone is assigned in the tenses. It just serves to lengthen the macrostem. I will use two tenses, the Remote Past Focused and the Subjunctive, to illustrate how tone is assigned in reduplicated verbs.

### **5.3.2.1 Remote Past Focused**

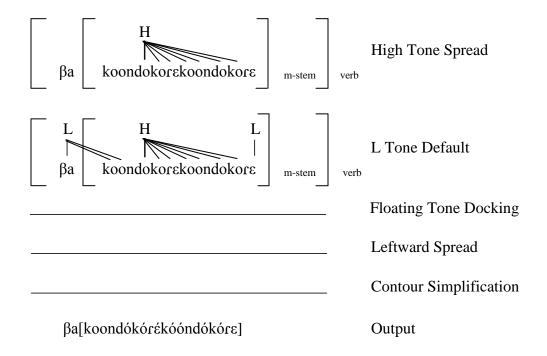
As shown in §3.2.1.1, this tense assigns a melodic H to the first vowel of the macrostem. Three rules actively participate in a derivation for this tense: ITAR (I), High Tone Spread, and L Tone Default. In (40), I illustrate how tones are assigned to the reduplicated verb *mbaa[kóóndókóójékóóndókóóje]* "(indeed) they uncovered / did uncover repeatedly".

L     mbaa	H L koondokoojekoondokooje	m-stem	verb	L Tone Default
				Floating Tone Docking
				Leftward Spread
				Contour Simplification
mbaa[l	kóóndókóójékóóndókóóje]			Output

This derivation illustrates that there is no difference between a reduplicated verb and an unreduplicated verb when it comes to the assignment of tone. In both, a high tone is assigned to the first vowel of the macrostem and then it spreads to the penult.

# 5.3.2.2 Subjunctive

This tense assigns a high tone to the third vowel of the macrostem. Reduplication does not change the way tone is assigned. I will use the form  $\beta a[koond\acute{o}k\acute{o}r\acute{e}k\acute{o}\acute{o}nd\acute{o}k\acute{o}re]$  "that they (may) uncover repeatedly" in the derivation that follows.



### **5.3.3** Tone in Vowel Initial Verbs

In this section, I address the issue of tone assignment in reduplicated vowel-initial stems. In §5.2.8, I showed that in segmental reduplication, the /i-/-stem-initial vowel is not copied, but if the stem-initial vowel is any other than /i-/, it is copied. Also, as mentioned in §3.6, vowel-initial verbs of the tenses in (42) have a unique tone pattern. In tenses with V1 and V4 melody, the stem-initial vowel is involved in the count for tonal association but is barred from carrying a high tone. The same situation applies to the reduplicated verbs since there is no difference between reduplicated and unreduplicated stems; they each represent one tonal domain. Here are the first seven tenses from Table 3.4 whose stem-initial vowel does not carry H tone and as such is marked outside the macrostem.

(42) a. Immediate Past Anterior (3<sup>rd</sup> Person)

βa-i-[γóómb-éɾ-é+γóómb-éɾ-e] "they have just admired/desired repeatedly"

βο-o-[βόh-ér-é+όβόh-ér-e] "they have just feared repeatedly"

b. Hodiernal Future Uncertain Possibility

βa-ka-i-[γ55mb-á+γ55mb-a] "perhaps they will eat repeatedly (today)"

βa-kɔ-ɔ-[βɔ́há+ɔ́βɔ́h-a] "perhaps they will fear repeatedly (today)"

c. Remote Future

βa-ri-i-[γόόmb-á+γόόmb-a] "they will admire/desire repeatedly"

βa-ri-ɔ[βóh-á+óβóh-a] "they will fear repeatedly"

d. Untimed Past Anterior Focused

m-ba-i-[γ55mb-á+γ55mb-a] "(indeed) they have (already) desired

repeatedly"

m-bɔ-ɔ[βɔ́h-á+ɔ́βɔ́h-a] "(indeed) they have (already) feared

repeatedly"

e. Remote Past Focused

m-ba-i-[γóómb-ér-é+γóómb-ér-e] "(indeed) they desired repeatedly"

m-bo-o[βóh-éɾ-é+óβóh-éɾ-e] "(indeed) they feared repeatedly"

f. Untimed Past Anterior Condition Focused

m-ba-ka-i-[γóómb-ér-é+γóómb-ér-e] "(indeed) they would have desired

repeatedly"

m-ba-ko-o-[βóhér-é+óβóh-ér-e] "(indeed) they would have feared

repeatedly"

g. Untimed Ability Focused

m-ba-ka-i-[γ55mb-á+γ55mb-a] "(indeed) they have (already) desired

repeatedly"

m-ba-kɔ-ɔ-[βɔ́h-ɔ́+ɔ́βɔ́h-a] "(indeed) they have (already) feared

repeatedly"

I will now use one example from the Immediate Past Anterior (Third Person) in a derivation to show how the tones are assigned.

The output of (43) clearly shows that the stem-initial vowel of the verb is treated as part of the prefix so that the assignment of H tones starts with a syllable that has an onset.

# 5.3.4 Downstep and Downdrift in Reduplication

Downstep applies in reduplication just the same way it does in unreduplicated forms. The low tone on the third vowel of the macrostem acts as a trigger for the downstep. The kind of downstep found in reduplication is of the optional type. I provide examples using CV-type verbs.

(44) a. ογο[sómá¹sómá] "to read repeatedly"
b. oko[rómá¹rómá] "to bite repeatedly"
c. ογο[témá¹témá] "to beat repeatedly"

Downdrift is also witnessed in reduplicated stems. It follows the same patterns described for the unreduplicated stems. The examples in (44) can also be produced with a downdrift.

(45) a. ογο[sómásomá] "to read repeatedly"
b. oko[rómáromá] "to bite repeatedly"
c. ογο[témátemá] "to beat repeatedly"

More examples of downdrift are given in (46). These use the verb *oko[mórékaná]* "to shine on each other".

(46) a. /o - ko - morek - an - a/ → oko[mórékaná] "to shine on each other" a - im - shine - rec - fv

b. o-ko-[<u>mórék-an-á</u>+mórék-án-a] "to shine on each other repeatedly"

c. o-ko-[mórék-a+mórék-án-a]

d. o-ko-[móré+morék-án-a]

#### **5.4 Conclusion**

In this chapter, I have argued that reduplication in Kuria is prefixing for consonant-initial verbs and infixing for /i/-initial verbs. Two types of reduplication, partial and total reduplication have been discussed. It has become evident that total reduplication has symmetrical patterns while asymmetrical patterns may be found in partial reduplication. It was also realized that the reduplicant is minimally disyllabic in Kuria and that the macrostem is a fluid constituent whose boundaries can be adjusted to either meet minimality requirements or exclude an onsetless syllable. Segmentally, /i-/-initial verbs ignore the vowel during reduplication but other stem-initial vowels take part in reduplication. I also identified prefixes and enclitics as verb constituents that do not copy in reduplication. The issue of tone in reduplication was also discussed. Tone does not copy in Kuria and to successfully account for its distribution, RED + Base were treated as one tonal domain.

# **Chapter Six**

### Discussion of Odden (1987) and Cammenga (2004)

#### 6. Introduction

This chapter contains a description of tone in the Kuria language based on previous accounts. Specifically, the chapter reviews work on tone found in Odden (1987) and Cammenga (2004). An effort is made to present the description in a way that it is as close as possible to the original works. As noted in chapter one, both Odden (1987) and Cammenga (2004) are based on the Nyabaasi variety of Kuria. The two, however, use different approaches in their analyses. Odden uses a vowel count approach to account for tone patterns in Kuria, while Cammenag uses a tonal melody. A brief discussion showing why I did not adapt these approaches fully in my analysis of tone in Kuria will be given.

### 6.1 Odden (1987)

Odden (1987) is an analytical study of the Kuria tonal system. Although the study focuses on the infinitival verb, it gives suggestions on how the basic tonal principles are applied in the finite verbs. The general observation is that Kuria has a predictable tone system and tense is the prime determiner of H tone placement. Tone rules operate on the basis of vowel count, assigning H to the first, second, third or fourth vowel, or the first and fourth vowels of the stem depending on the tense. The basic tonal pattern is, however, hardly manifested without modification.

# **6.1.1 Basic Tone Principles**

Tone is assigned with reference to the left edge of the stem. Object prefixes and locative clitics count as part of the stem.

(1) a. oko[ménénekírja] "to shine for"

b. oko[mó-γέsετά-hɔ] "to harvest for him at"
c. oko[γé-mó-menénékirja-hɔ] "to shine them for him at"

The basic infinitive pattern is best revealed by long verb stems. The basic infinitive pattern assigns H tones to the first and fourth stem vowels, and a rule of doubling (2) spreads these to the second and fifth vowels respectively.

# (2) Doubling Rule

He assumes that the vowels are basically toneless, until given a H tone by an ITAR or by a doubling rule. Odden (1987:324) assumes that the presence of the augment motivates a high tone in the macrostem. Also, every verb stem has a single underlying H tone in Kuria whose source is the tense morpheme. In this case, the augment provides one H tone and the second H originates from the infinitival stem. These are the primary H tones. If a primary H falls on the fourth vowel and happens to be the penultimate, then the word final vowel will not take a doubled H tone. This is shown in (3).

(3) a. ογο[téγéterána] "to be late on each other"b. οkο[γé-mó-γεséra] "to harvest them for him"

If the fourth vowel is the word final vowel, we get a mid tone on the final and preceding vowels.

The mid vowel is derived by a Flattening rule which is followed by a Spreading rule.

(5) Flattening (optional)

$$H \rightarrow M / HL \_ \#$$

Spreading

If Flattening is suspended, the HHMM pattern in *oyo[téyétērā]* "to be late for" (4a) shows up phonetically as HHLH, *oyo[téyéterá]*. Similarly, stems with three vowels get the pattern HHM, which alternates with HHR, as in (6).

The fourth vowel H is not totally lost in the short stems. As seen in (6b), it is mapped onto the final syllable as a rising tone. What actually happens is that the fourth vowel is left floating at the end of the stem, if the stem is too short. The rising tone is a result of a rule that hooks up the final floating H tones (see (7)).

# (7) Floating Tone Docking

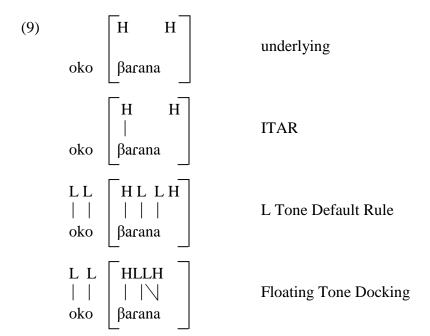


The tone system of Kuria specifies where H tones are placed, and then assigns L tones to toneless vowels by a default rule.

# (8) L Tone Default Rule



The default rule applies after the initial tone mapping rule but before Floating Tone Docking. A derivation of  $oko[\beta \acute{a}r\acute{a}n\bar{a}]$  "to count each other", from Odden (1987: 316), follows in (9).



$$\begin{array}{c|c} L & \hline H & M \\ \hline | & \hline | & \\ oko & \beta arana \end{array} \quad \text{Other rules}$$

In two-vowel stems the fourth vowel tone is not found.

When there is only one vowel on the stem, a H tone does show up.

# **6.1.2** Syllable Sensitive Complications

There are a number of complications which result from the presence of a long syllable in the stem. Examples are provided in (12).

In (12), the H tone assigned to the fourth stem vowel spreads to the fifth stem vowel by a Predoubling rule (13) before doubling applies.

Predoubling explains why a tone appears on the sixth vowel just in case the fourth is the first half of a long syllable. It also explains why the third vowel has a H tone in case the first is assigned to the first half of a long syllable, as in (14).

(14) oko[héétókérána] "to remember for each other"

The initial mapping rule puts H on the first and fourth vowels, Predoubling spreads the first H to the second vowel, and Doubling puts high tones on the third and fifth vowels. If both the first and fourth vowels are the first vowels of long syllables, Predoubling will apply to both tones, yielding high tones all the way from the first vowel to the sixth vowel, as seen in (15).

(15) uγu[túúngúnúútʃiranja-hɔ] "to make balanced for each other at"

To get to its surface form, the verb in (15) undergoes the derivation in (16).

(16) uγu[túungunúuʧiranja] ITAR
 uγu[túúngunúúʧiranja] Pedoubling
 uγu[túúngúnúuʧiranja] Doubling

It is only by applying Predoubling and Doubling that one can have a level H tone on the word final third stem vowel, as in the verb *oyo[sáámbá]* "to burn".

Another rule that is syllable sensitive is the Postdoubling Rule. This is formulated in (17). The rule spreads a H tone one vowel to the right just in case a H tone, which arrived there from the Doubling rule, stands before a long syllable.

(17) Post-Doubling Rule: H
V V V

This rule puts the high tone on the sixth stem vowel (see (18).

(18) uku[γí-mú-tuúngúnúuʧirja] "to balance it for him"

The last rule that affects H tones in long syllables is the Antidoubling Rule. The antidoubling rule is ordered after the doubling rule. The rule is stated formally in (19).

(19) Antidoubling Rule: H H H V V'

It delinks a doubled H from the first half of a long syllable provided that another H appears somewhere after the delinked H. This rule explains why we do not have a falling tone, which would be the result of doubling onto a long syllable (see 20).

(20) a. oyo[káraaŋgéra] "to fry for"

b. oko[háyaatʃérána] "to build for each other"

#### **6.1.3** Tone Patterns in Finite Tenses

After establishing the basic tonal principles of the language, Odden extends the analysis to cover three finite tenses; the Perfective, the Subjunctive, and the Recent Past. Let us start with the Perfective<sup>14</sup>.

The Perfective assigns a H tone to the fourth vowel, and the selection of a third person subject prefix triggers the insertion of a H tone to the first vowel. This means that third person perfectives are tonally just like infinitives.

<sup>14</sup> In my analysis, I refer to this tense as the Immediate Past Anterior (see Table 3.1).

(21) a. a[káraaŋgére] "he has fried"

b. a[γá-káraáŋgére] "he has fried them"

When the subject is first or second person, as in (22), only the perfective's fourth tone shows up. If the stem is short and the final vowel is the third, the H tone appears as a rising tone (22b).

(22) a. n[terekré] "I have brewed" b. n[tuurě] "I have picked"

The other tense that Odden looks at is the Subjunctive. It assigns a H tone to the third stem vowel.

(23) a. o[γe-γεsέ] "you should harvest them"b. o[γa-tεrέkε] "you should brew it"

If the final vowel is the second vowel, it will bear a rising tone.

(24) o[βosě] "you should grind it"

Finally, Odden briefly discusses the Recent Past tense<sup>15</sup>. This tense has a H tone assigned to the second vowel.

(25) a. nnaaγa[tuúre] "I was just picking"b. nnaaka[mo-súrááŋgére] "I was just praising him"

In this tense, the perfective suffix makes the shortest stem tri-moraic, as in nnaaka[haáje] "I was giving".

<sup>15</sup> In my analysis, I refer to this tense as the Hodiernal Past Progressive Anterior Focused.

#### 6.2 Comments on Odden (1987)

So far, Odden's analysis of vowel count, that is, assigning a high tone to the first and fourth vowels in the infinitive, and secondary rules applying according to the length of the word and the shape of the syllables, has been successfully used to account for tone in the infinitival verb. This has been extended to the Perfective tense. It is an approach that is simple to use. The Recent Past and the Subjunctive are however different because they each have only one high tone on the stem.

One major difference between the data that I worked with and Odden's is that in my examples the last primary H tone spreads all the way to the penult while in Odden's examples the H tones can only spread up to the sixth vowel of the stem. In Odden's analysis, the Postdoubling rule spreads a H tone to a long vowel that does not have a H on the second vowel, producing a form such as <code>uku[yimutuuingunuutfirja]</code> "to balance it for him". Due to this difference, I replaced the Postdoubling rule with High Tone Spread, which spreads the last H of a verb up to the penultimate vowel. The application of this new rule, together with others, produces the pattern <code>uku[yimutuungunuutfirja]</code> "to balance it for him".

Another difference between the tone rules that I used and Odden's is that I collapsed the doubling and antidoubling rules to form a new doubling rule which incorporated instances of when it should not apply, thus eliminating antidoubling as a separate rule.

# 6.3 Cammenga (2004)

Cammenga (2004) accounts for the tonal surface patterns of Kuria infinitives by assuming a HLH tone melody. A fundamental observation is that Kuria verbal tone is not lexically distinctive. He states that Kuria has two tones underlyingly, H and L, with a downstep being derived. It is noted that the infinitival tone is sensitive to the structure of the syllable, and that although surface tone is predictable, the underlying tone pattern may be obscured by subsequent rules. He assumes toneless underlying forms and uses fourteen tonal rules to account for the surface tonal patterns. I will go through the rules, illustrating them with examples. The first rule is the *Prefix Tone Insertion*.

(26) Prefix Tone Insertion

$$\emptyset \to H/$$

Domain: class prefix

This rule inserts a H tone to the class prefix.

I will derive the form *oko[héétóká]* "to remember" step by step. To realize the output of this verb, it will be necessary to take the underlying representation through a number of rules, starting with the Prefix Tone Insertion.

After the Prefix Tone Insertion rule has inserted a H tone to the class prefix, the next rule that applies is the *Infinitival Melody Insertion*. This rule inserts a HLH tonal melody on the macrostem. The rule is ordered after the Prefix Tone Insertion rule.

# (28) Infinitival Melody Insertion

$$\emptyset \rightarrow HLH / [_{m-stem} \_$$

Domain: Infinitival Stem

The Prefix Tone Insertion and the Infinitival Melody Insertion are the rules that insert tone melodies.

The third rule, *Initial Tone Association Rule* (ITAR), assigns the tones in the prefix and the stem to specific tone bearing units. The rule is formalized in (30).

#### (30) Initial Tone Association Rule (ITAR)



Condition: the first tone of the infinitival tone melody may only be associated to tone bearers in the base, not to the final vowel.

The tones assigned by the Prefix Tone Insertion and Infinitival Melody Insertion rules form a HHLH pattern as seen in (31). Each of the tones in this melody is associated with

a specific vowel such that the first tone is associated with the first tone-bearer of the stem, thus causing a tonal shift.

This rule is similar to Odden's ITAR which assigns H tones to the first and fourth vowels of the stem. The H tone from the class prefix moves one step to the first vowel of the stem and this pushes the HLH tone melody to subsequent vowels. After the tonal melody has been mapped onto the verb, other rules may be required. One such rule, required in the derivation of <code>oko[héétóká]</code> "to remember", is <code>Tonal Simplification</code>.

# (32) Tonal Simplification

This rule has the effect of simplifying identical tones dominated by the same syllable node. It delinks the second of two H tones if they are in the same syllable. In (33), the first syllable in the macrostem has a H tone on both vowels; the rule delinks the H on the second vowel.

Another rule, *Heavy Tone Spread*, applies immediately after Tonal Simplification to spread the H of the first vowel to the second vowel. These two rules are in a feeding relationship.

# (34) Heavy Tone Spread



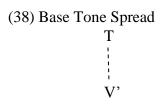
This rule spreads a high tone in a long syllable from the first vowel to the second, if the second vowel is unassociated. It is similar to Odden's Predoubling rule. An illustration of the rule follows in (35).

Still another rule that will be required in the derivation of the form *oko[héétóká]* "to remember", is the *Post-Heavy L-Erasure*.

### (36) Post-Heavy L-Erasure

It deletes a low tone after a high-toned heavy syllable, as seen in (37).

After the L tone has been deleted by the Post-Heavy L-Erasure, the unassociated vowel has to be assigned a tone. This is done by the *Base Tone Spread* rule formulated in (38).



Domain: Infinitival base (excluding the final vowel)

This rule spreads tones, from left to right, to vowels in the base which were left unassociated after application of other rules. The rule covers Odden's Doubling and Postdoubling rules. The application seen in (39) is similar to Odden's doubling.

In longer verbs, Base Tone Spread applies to the H tone on the fourth vowel spreading it unboundedly to the penult (see 40).

Another rule that Cammenga posits, and which has been used in (40) before being formally introduced, is the *L-Default*. Odden uses a similar rule which he calls L Tone Default Rule.

#### (41) L-Default



It associates a low tone to any vowel that has not yet received a tone after application of other tonal rules. This rule applies after most rules referring to H tones. To illustrate the application of L Default, I will continue with the derivation of oko[héétóká] "to remember".

Another rule that Cammenga uses is called *Final Contour Simplification*. This rule is similar to Tonal Simplification but occurs at the end of a word. It is a rule that is syllable sensitive. It is ordered before Heavy Tone Spread.

### (43) Final Contour Simplification



This rule optionally simplifies a contour tone in a stem-final heavy syllable. It deals with verbs that end in long syllables, although one hardly finds a long vowel at the end of a

verb in Kuria. Cammenga (2004: 59 - 60) has used the verb oyo[témiá] "to cause to beat" to illustrate how this rule works, and he considers the two last vowels as belonging to one syllable.

Although Cammenga uses Heavy Tone Spread to link the causative [i] and the final vowel [a], I would expect that the high front vowel preceding a final vowel in this verb will turn into a glide. The output of (44) would therefore be  $o\gamma o[t\acute{e}mj\acute{a}]$ , in which case there would be no need for the Heavy Tone Spread since there would be only one vowel word finally.

Another optional rule, the *Final H' Linking*, is proposed. The floating H can be linked only if it is one step away from the final vowel. Odden calls this rule Floating Tone Docking.

# (45) Final H' Linking (optional)

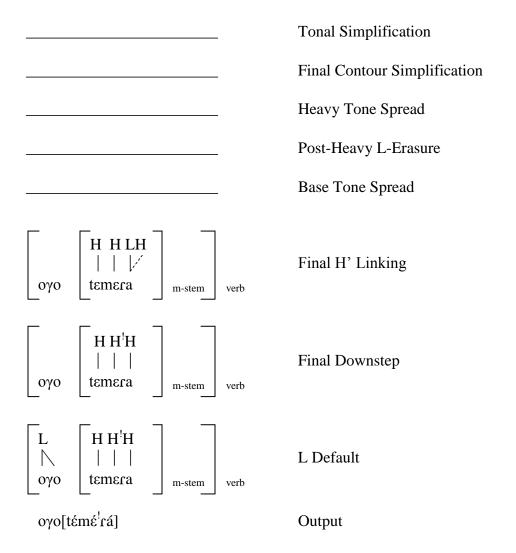


It optionly links a floating H' to the final vowel of the stem. The application of this rule results in a downstep. The Final H' Linking must be ordered before the *Final Downstep* so that they are in a feeding relationship. The Final Downstep rule is formalized in (46).

(46) Final Downstep (optional)

$$LH \rightarrow {}^{!}H / \underline{\hspace{1cm}}]_{word}$$

The rule optionally turns any word final LH sequence, belonging to consecutive syllables or both belonging to a non-heavy syllable, into a downstepped high tone. The Final Downstep rule is similar to Odden's Flattening Rule. There is however a difference in the ordering of rules. Odden orders L Tone Default early so that it facilitates the Floating Tone Docking and subsequently triggers Flattening. Cammenga orders the L Default after both the Final H' Linking and the Final Downstep because there is already another L tone which is a product of the HLH Infinitival Melody. A complete derivation of the verb  $o\gamma o[t\acute{e}r\acute{e}^ik\acute{a}]$  "to brew" is used below to illustrate how the two rules in (45) and (46) apply.

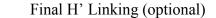


The next rule deals with long or heavy syllables. Its application cancels a situation where a falling contour would be realized on a long syllable.

# (48) HL-Simplification



This rule simplifies a HL contour tone of a heavy syllable to L tone. HL-Simplification must be ordered after the ITAR rule. Odden uses the antidoubling rule to delink a H that has doubled onto the first vowel of a long syllable. I will derive the verb *ογο[kά¹ rάάŋgá]* "to fry" step by step so as to illustrate how HL-Simplification applies.



Another optional rule, *Toneshift*, is formalized in (50). It applies in reduplicated stems.

# (50) Toneshift

This rule spreads a floating tone across a stem-boundary to an initial vowel of the stem, causing a shift in all subsequent tones in the stem. The rule is similar to ITAR but applies optionally. In ITAR, the H tone in the prefix shifts to the first vowel of the stem thereby pushing the HLH infinitival melody to the subsequent vowels on the stem. In (51), the stem is reduplicated. The tones are first assigned to the first stem, but because it is short they move over a stem boundary to the next stem. This is how the shift occurs. Tone Shift is ordered before Heavy Tone Spread. We use the following derivation, taken from Cammenga (2004: 65 - 66), to show how tone shift and other rules apply.

The derivation in (51) is complex and needs to be explained. The underlying representation of this verb shows that its stem is made up of two "stems" because this is a verb that has undergone total reduplication (see chapter five for a complete discussion of reduplication). In this derivation, Prefix Tone Insertion and Infinitival Melody Insertion rules apply as usual. Next, the ITAR rule applies without regard to the two "stems" – the tonal melody is mapped onto the first four vowels of the stem. The next rule applies at the stem boundary of the first stem. The fact that Final Contour Simplification applies after ITAR, rather than HL Simplification shows that there are two stems and the rule applies at the end of one stem. The Final Contour Simplification delinks the L tone from the final vowel of the first stem. This low tone remains floating. Next, Heavy Tone Spread applies, spreading a H to the final vowel of the first stem. This creates a configuration that meets the structural description for Toneshift. The L tone shifts to the first vowel of the next stem causing the H previously linked to that vowel to also shift forward. Heavy Tone Spread then applies to spread the H to the final vowel of the second stem. Lastly, Final Downstep and L Default rules apply.

Cammenga's last tonal rule is downdrift. This is only mentioned and not discussed. To conclude this section, I list the tonal rules used in Cammenga (2004).

- (52) a. Prefix Tone Insertion
  - b. Infinitival Melody Insertion
  - c. Initial Tone Association Rule (ITAR)
  - d. L-Default
  - e. Final Contour Simplification (optional)
  - f. Tonal Simplification
  - g. Post-Heavy L-Erasure
  - h. Final H' Linking
  - i. Base Tone Spread
  - j. HL-Simplification
  - k. Heavy Tone Spread
  - 1. Final Downstep (optional)
  - m. Toneshift (optional)
  - n. Downdrift (not formulated)

### 6.4 Comments on Cammenga (2004)

Cammenga (2004) uses a HLH melody to account for the tonal patterns in infinitives. This is a very apt analysis especially for the CV-type of stems. It accounts for the basic tonal patterns. Complications arising from syllable and verb length call for additional rules which slightly alter the basic pattern. It forms an alternative to the vowel count approach.

According to Cammenga (2004), there are two L tones. The first L tone is part of the HLH melody that is inserted to the stem by the Infinitival Melody Insertion Rule. The other L tone is assigned to a verb through the L Default Rule. This is a problem for the tonal melody approach since it seems more appropriate to specify where the H tones are placed in a Kuria verb and let the phonetic L tones be derived by a default rule.

Cammenga uses the tonal melody approach to account for tone assignment in Kuria. The way this is done leaves behind an unresolved problem. First, a H tone is inserted on the prefix using the Prefix Tone Insertion rule. This is followed by the Infinitival Melody Insertion rule which inserts a HLH melody on the infinitival verb stem. The third rule, ITAR, maps the tones on to the verb stem as the H tone from the prefix shifts to the stem. The result is a HHLH pattern. The problem here is that the two adjacent H tones in the tonal pattren violate the Obligatory Contour Principle. So far, Cammenga has tried to resolve the problem of the two initial H tones appearing in adjacent tone bearing units (if the syllables are heavy) by using the Tonal Simplification Rule (see 32). There is no rule to take care of this problem in the CV-type stems, as in (47) oyo[témé'rá] "to hit for". Odden, on the other hand, avoids this problem by showing that the first H is a primary tone while the second H is a secondary tone, that is, the first vowel has a H tone which doubles to the next vowel. In terms of the number of rules, Cammenga uses fourteen rules as opposed to Odden's nine.

#### 6.5 Conclusion

Two approaches to the analysis of tone have been presented in this chapter. Of the two, my analysis followed a modified version of Odden to describe tones in Kuria verbs. I had the following modifications: (a) I restated Predoubling and renamed it Intra-Syllabic H Spreading to cater for verbs that only apply Predoubling and not Doubling, and to dispel the notion that these two rules are related; (b) I collapsed Doubling and Antidoubling by restating the Doubling rule; (c) I replaced the Postdoubling rule with High Tone Spread because the latter has the advantage of spreading a high tone all the

way to the penult (d) I renamed the Spreading rule as Leftward Spreading so as to distinguish it from the High Tone Spread; (e) I did away with the Flattening rule, and (e) I added a Contour Simplification rule.

# **Chapter Seven**

# **Summary and Conclusion**

#### 7. Introduction

The aim of this dissertation was to outline the basic principles of tone assignment in Kuria verbs. The areas that the study covered include infinitival tone, tone in affirmative finite tenses, tone in reduplicated verbs, and tone in negative verbs. It emerged that rather than a succession of single tones, macrostem tones are best analysed as melodies. The melodies encountered in this study are V1, V2, V3, V4, V1 and V4, and No Stem H. The vowel count approach (Odden 1987) was used to account for all the tonal patterns. Using this approach, the H tone was assigned to the nth vowel of the macrostem, depending on the tense.

This study showed that although the Kuria verb has a fairly complex morphology and an equally complex system of verbal tone patterns, the tone patterns can be accounted for by a small set of tone assignment principles. It was not possible to distinctly show the features that delineated each tone assignment principle.

In trying to define the domain of Kuria tone, the area of reduplication was also covered. The relationship between the Base and reduplicant was demonstrated. It was surprising that although reduplication is segmentally complex, it had a fairly straightforward tonal pattern. We saw that tone assignment in reduplicated verbs is similar to that found in unreduplicated forms. One revealation was that while the domain of tonal processes, even in reduplicated forms, is the macrostem, the domain of segmental

reduplication is the stem.

The issue of floating tones is of interest in Bantu tonology. Evidence has been adduced to show that there are floating tones in Kuria especially in verb forms that are too short to get to the nth count where a high tone is to be assigned. Such floating tones have ended up appearing on the surface when more material is added making it possible for them to dock. On the other hand, when a tone becomes floating as a result of the deletion of its tone bearing unit, it will result in a downstepped high if it is followed by a high tone. Two types of downstep were identified in Kuria; obligatory and optional downstep.

Tone in negative tenses was discussed in chapter four. It was shown that the two morphological negatives, /ta-/ and /te-/, influence tone in different ways. While /te-/ triggered a H tone in the pre-macrostem domain, /ta-/ did not contribute any high tone.

#### 7.1 Theoretical Issues

Apart from providing facts about tone in Kuria, some theoretical issues have arisen in this dissertation. In the realm of tone and morphology, we saw that Kuria uses morphologically triggered rules. These rules make reference to morphological features found in the verb. Both the Initial Tone Association Rules (ITAR) and the High Tone Spreading rules were dictated by the morphological features in the verb.

We also saw that the macrostem, which includes the object prefixes, root, extensions, and the final vowel, is the domain of tone interaction. This domain, which has gained currency in Bantu linguistics, was clearly manifested in Kuria. Evidence was adduced to show that this domain is adjustable. In some vowel-initial verbs, the onsetless

syllable was left out of the macrostem so that only optimal syllables were assigned H tone.

From the point of view of a general theory of tonal processes, it must be emphasized that Kuria exhibits clear cases of local and non-local spreading. Non-local spreading is of particular interest because it targets the penultimate position in the verb. The penult, ante-penult, and final are positions that attract stress or H tone in various Bantu languages. The positions have a special status as they mark the edges of words. In Kuria, local spreading was seen when a high tone doubled from V1 to V2, and non-local spreading was seen when a high tone spread from V1 (in verbs with one H tone) or V4 (in verbs with two H tones) to the penult.

Opacity was also dealt with in this study. Phonological processes are opaque if their effects are not visible on the surface form. The natural interaction of a pair of rules is for them to sequence in such a way as to minimize opacity, but this does not always happen in language. Two cases of opacity were discussed in this dissertation, that of vowel-initial verbs and verbs with first person singular object prefix.

Although I showed that some tenses share ITAR rules, there was no further evidence either semantically, morphologically, or phonologically to suggest that they constitute a natural class. This forced me to use whole tense names as features. My view is that the Kuria tense system is very complex and that is why it was difficult to see the common morphological features in tenses that form a group.

Like in many languages, Kuria demonstrates minimal word effects. In Kuria, a minimal verb stem should be disyllabic. We saw that the language has many ways of

repairing stems that do not meet that requirement but sometimes monomoraic stems are tolerated.

#### 7.2 Areas for Future Research

In this section, I outline a few interesting areas which were mentioned in this dissertation but were not pursued further because of time. The first one is downdrift. I established that downdrift is a common phenomenon in Kuria, occurring in tenses that have two primary high tones on the macrostem. In downdrift, the second high tone in a verb is lower that the first high tone. The verbs that I looked at consistently exhibited a drop in pitch only once; there was no successive lowering. A look at downdrift in phrasal contexts is necessary to find out whether multiple successive lowering is possible.

Tone mapping in Kuria appears to be phrasal. I reached this conclusion after observing that when a verb is short, such that no H tone mapping takes place, the H does not get lost, it remains floating. When a word is added infront of the short verb, the floating tone manifests itself. Also, this dissertation only looked at simple tenses, complex tenses were not studied. My inference, based on inconclusive evidence, suggests that the complex tenses are phrasal by nature. A study of Kuria phrasal tonology will provide more insights on Kuria tone

# **APPENDICES**

# Appendix 1: Kuria Finite Verbs Paradigm

#### PATTERN 1A: H on V1 (SPREAD)

Habitual Past Focused - e.g. "I used to eat (then)"

ha	nnaaká[hááye]	waaká[hááye]	naaká[hááye]	ntooká[hááye]	mmooká[hááye]	mbaaká[hááye]	give
rea	nnaaká[rééye]	waaká[rééye]	naaká[rééye]	ntooká[rééye]	mmooká[rééye]	mbaaká[rééye]	eat
sea	nnaagá[sééye]	waagá[sééye]	naagá[sééye]	ntoogá[sééye]	mmoogá[sééye]	mbaagá[sééye]	grind
roma	nnaaká[rómére]	waaká[rómére]	naaká[rómére]	ntooká[rómére]	mmooká[rómére]	mbaaká[rómére]	bite
buna	nnaaká[búníre]	waaká[búníre]	naaká[búníre]	ntooká[búníre]	mmooká[búníre]	mbaaká[búníre]	break
biima	nnaaká[bíímíre]	waaká[bíímíre]	naaká[bíímíre]	ntooká[bíímíre]	mmooká[bíímíre]	mbaaká[bíímíre]	measure
saamba	nnaagá[sáámbére]	waagá[sáámbére]	naagá[sáámbére]	ntoogá[sáámbére]	mmoogá[sáámbére]	mbaagá[sáámbére]	burn
tereka	nnaagá[térékére]	waagá[térékére]	naagá[térékére]	ntoogá[térékére]	mmoogá[térékére]	mbaagá[térékére]	brew
sukura	nnaagá[súkúúyé]	waagá[súkúúyé]	naagá[súkúúyé]	ntoogá[súkúúyé]	mmoogá[súkúúyé]	mbaagá[súkúúyé]	rub
heetoka	nnaaká[héétókére]	waaká[héétókére]	naaká[héétókére]	ntooká[héétókére]	mmooká[héétókére]	mbaaká[héétókére]	remember
taandora	nnaagá[táándóóye]	waagá[táándóóye]	naagá[táándóóye]	ntoogá[táándóóye]	mmoogá[táándóóye]	mbaagá[táándóóye]	tear
karaanga	nnaagá[káráángére]	waagá[káráángére]	naagá[káráángére]	ntoogá[káráángére]	mmoogá[káráángére]	mbaagá[káráángére]	fry
hagaacha	nnaaká[hágááchére]	waaká[hágááchére]	naaká[hágááchére]	ntooká[hágááchére]	mmooká[hágááchére]	mbaaká[hágááchére]	build
taangaasa	nnaagá[táángáásére]	waagá[táángáásére]	naagá[táángáásére]	ntoogá[táángáásére]	mmoogá[táángáásére]	mbaagá[táángáásére]	announce
siitaaka	nnaagá[síítáákére]	waagá[síítáákére]	naagá[síítáákére]	ntoogá[síítáákére]	mmoogá[síítáákére]	mbaagá[síítáákére]	accuse
teremeka	nnaagá[térémékére]	waagá[térémékére]	naagá[térémékére]	ntoogá[térémékére]	mmoogá[térémékére]	mbaagá[térémékére]	be calm
berekera	nnaaká[bérékééye]	waaká[bérékééye]	naaká[bérékééye]	ntooká[bérékééye]	mmooká[bérékééye]	mbaaká[bérékééye]	call
turuuŋana	nnaagá[túrúúŋáíni]	waagá[túrúúŋáíni]	naagá[túrúúŋáíni]	ntoogá[túrúúŋáíni]	mmoogá[túrúúŋáíni]	mbaagá[túrúúŋáíni]	welcome
koondokora	nnaagá[kóóndókóóye]	waagá[kóóndókóóye]	naagá[kóóndókóóye]	ntoogá[kóóndókóóye]	mmoogá[kóóndókóóye]	mbaagá[kóóndókóóye]	uncover
kirigiita	nnaagá[kírígíítíre]	waagá[kírígíítíre]	naagá[kírígíítíre]	ntoogá[kírígíítíre]	mmoogá[kírígíítíre]	mbaagá[kírígíítíre]	scrub
hootootera	nnaaká[hóótóótééye]	waaká[hóótóótééye]	naaká[hóótóótééye]	ntooká[hóótóótééye]	mmooká[hóótóótééye]	mbaaká[hóótóótééye]	reassure
	with object prefix						
ha	nnaaká[gáhááye]	waaká[gáhááye]	naaká[gáhááye]	ntooká[gáhááye]	mmooká[gáhááye]	mbaaká[gáhááye]	give
rea	nnaaká[gárééye]	waaká[gárééye]	naaká[gárééye]	ntooká[gárééye]	mmooká[gárééye]	mbaaká[gárééye]	eat
roma	nnaaká[gárómére]	waaká[gárómére]	naaká[gárómére]	ntooká[gárómére]	mmooká[gárómére]	mbaaká[gárómére]	bite
biima	nnaaká[gábíímíre]	waaká[gábíímíre]	naaká[gábíímíre]	ntooká[gábíímíre]	mmooká[gábíímíre]	mbaaká[gábíímíre]	measure
saamba	nnaaká[gásáámbére]	waaká[gásáámbére]	naaká[gásáámbére]	ntooká[gásáámbére]	mmooká[gásáámbére]	mbaaká[gásáámbére]	burn
tereka	nnaaká[gátérékére]	waaká[gátérékére]	naagá[gátérékére]	ntooká[gátérékére]	mmooká[gátérékére]	mbaaká[gátérékére]	brew

heetoka	nnaaká[gáhéétókére]	waaká[gáhéétókére]	naaká[gáhéétókére]	ntooká[gáhéétókére]	mmooká[gáhéétókére]	mbaaká[gáhéétókére]	remember
karaanga	nnaagá[gákáráángére]	waaká[gákáráángére]	naagá[gákáráángére]	ntooká[gákáráángére]	mmooká[gákáráángére]	mbaaká[gákáráángére]	fry
berekera	nnaaká[gábérékééye]	waaká[gábérékééye]	naaká[gábérékééye]	ntooká[gábérékééye]	mmooká[gábérékééye]	mbaaká[gábérékééye]	call
turuuŋana	nnaaká[gátúrúúŋáíni]	waaká[gátúrúúŋáíni]	naaká[gátúrúúŋáíni]	ntooká[gátúrúúŋáíni]	mmooká[gátúrúúŋáíni]	mbaaká[gátúrúúŋáíni]	welcome
	vowel-initial verbs						
ia	nnaaká[gééye]	waaká[gééye]	naaká[gééye]	ntooká[gééye]	mmooká[gééye]	mbaaká[gééye]	go
aga	nnaaká[ágére]	waaká[ágére]	naaká[ágére]	ntooká[ágére]	mmooká[ágére]	mbaaká[ágére]	weed
igora	nnaaká[ígóóye]	waaká[ígóóye]	naaká[ígóóye]	ntooká[ígóóye]	mmooká[ígóóye]	mbaaká[ígóóye]	open
oboha	nnaakó[óbóhére]	waakó[óbóhére]	naakó[óbóhére]	ntookó[óbóhére]	mmookó[óbóhére]	mbaakó[óbóhére]	fear
igoomba	nnaaká[ígóómbére]	waaká[ígóómbére]	naaká[ígóómbére]	ntooká[ígóómbére]	mmooká[ígóómbére]	mbaaká[ígóómbére]	desire
anekera	nnaaká[ánékééye]	waaká[ánékééye]	naaká[ánékééye]	ntooká[ánékééye]	mmooká[ánékééye]	mbaaká[ánékééye]	lay out
araachana	nnaaká[áráácháíni]	waaká[áráácháíni]	naaká[áráácháíni]	ntooká[áráácháíni]	mmooká[áráácháíni]	mbaaká[áráácháíni]	cross, fold
<b>Untimed Past</b>	t Anterior Focused - e.g. "(	indeed) they have (already) of	eaten (anytime before now)"	,			
ha	nnaa[há]	waa[há]	naa[há]	ntoo[há]	mmoo[há]	mbaa[há]	give
rea	nnaa[ryá]	waa[ryá]	naa[ryá]	ntoo[ryá]	mmoo[ryá]	mbaa[ryá]	eat
sea	nnaa[syá]]	waa[syá]	naa[syá]	ntoo[syá]	mmoo[syá]	mbaa[syá]	grind
roma	nnaa[róma]	waa[róma]	naa[róma]	ntoo[róma]	mmoo[róma]	mbaa[róma]	bite
buna	nnaa[búna]	waa[búna]	naa[búna]	ntoo[búna]	mmoo[búna]	mbaa[búna]	break
biima	nnaa[bííma]	waa[bííma]	naa[bííma]	ntoo[bííma]	mmoo[bííma]	mbaa[bííma]	measure
saamba	nnaa[sáámba]	waa[sáámba]	naa[sáámba]	ntoo[sáámba]	mmoo[sáámba]	mbaa[sáámba]	burn
tereka	nnaa[téréka]	waa[téréka]	naa[téréka]	ntoo[téréka]	mmoo[téréka]	mbaa[téréka]	brew
sukura	nnaa[súkúra]	waa[súkúra]	naa[súkúra]	ntoo[súkúra]	mmoo[súkúra]	mbaa[súkúra]	rub
heetoka	nnaa[héétóka]	waa[héétóka]	naa[héétóka]	ntoo[héétóka]	mmoo[héétóka]	mbaa[héétóka]	remember
taandora	nnaa[táándóra]	waa[táándóra]	naa[táándóra]	ntoo[táándóra]	mmoo[táándóra]	mbaa[táándóra]	tear
karaanga	nnaa[káráánga]	waa[káráánga]	naa[káráánga]	ntoo[káráánga]	mmoo[káráánga]	mbaa[káráánga]	fry
hagaacha	nnaa[hágáácha]	waa[hágáácha]	naa[hágáácha]	ntoo[hágáácha]	mmoo[hágáácha]	mbaa[hágáácha]	build
taangaasa	nnaa[táángáása]	waa[táángáása]	naa[táángáása]	ntoo[táángáása]	mmoo[táángáása]	mbaa[táángáása]	announce
siitaaka	nnaa[síítááka]	waa[síítááka]	naa[síítááka]	ntoo[síítááka]	mmoo[síítááka]	mbaa[síítááka]	accuse
teremeka	nnaa[téréméka]	waa[téréméka]	naa[téréméka]	ntoo[téréméka]	mmoo[téréméka]	mbaa[téréméka]	be calm
berekera	nnaa[bérékéra]	waa[bérékéra]	naa[bérékéra]	ntoo[bérékéra]	mmoo[bérékéra]	mbaa[bérékéra]	call
turuuŋana	nnaa[túrúúŋána]	waa[túrúúŋána]	naa[túrúúŋána]	ntoo[túrúúŋána]	mmoo[túrúúŋána]	mbaa[túrúúŋána]	welcome
koondokora	nnaa[kóóndókóra]	waa[kóóndókóra]	naa[kóóndókóra]	ntoo[kóóndókóra]	mmoo[kóóndókóra]	mbaa[kóóndókóra]	uncover

kirigiita	nnaa[kírígííta]	waa[kírígííta]	naa[kírígííta]	ntoo[kírígííta]	mmoo[kírígííta]	mbaa[kírígííta]	scrub
hootootera	nnaa[hóótóótéra]	waa[hóótóótéra]	naa[hóótóótéra]	ntoo[hóótóótéra]	mmoo[hóótóótéra]	mbaa[hóótóótéra]	reassure
	with object prefix						
ha	nnaa[gáha]	waa[gáha]	naa[gáha]	ntoo[gáha]	mmoo[gáha]	mbaa[gáha]	give
rea	nnaa[gárya]	waa[gárya]	naa[gárya]	ntoo[gárya]	mmoo[gárya]	mbaa[gárya]	eat
roma	nnaa[gáróma]	waa[gáróma]	naa[gáróma]	ntoo[gáróma]	mmoo[gáróma]	mbaa[gáróma]	bite
biima	nnaa[gábííma]	waa[gábííma]	naa[gábííma]	ntoo[gábííma]	mmoo[gábííma]	mbaa[gáíma]	measure
saamba	nnaa[gásáámba]	waa[gásáámba]	naa[gásáámba]	ntoo[gásáámba]	mmoo[gásáámba]	mbaa[gásáámba]	burn
tereka	nnaa[gátéréka]	waa[gátéréka]	naa[gátéréka]	ntoo[gátéréka]	mmoo[gátéréka]	mbaa[gátéréka]	brew
heetoka	nnaa[gáhéétóka]	waa[gáhéétóka]	naa[gáhéétóka]	ntoo[gáhéétóka]	mmoo[gáhéétóka]	mbaa[gáhéétóka]	remember
karaanga	nnaa[gákáráánga]	waa[gákáráánga]	naa[gákáráánga]	ntoo[gákáráánga]	mmoo[gákáráánga]	mbaa[gákáráánga]	fry
berekera	nnaa[gábérékéra]	waa[gábérékéra]	naa[gábérékéra]	ntoo[gábérékéra]	mmoo[gábérékéra]	mbaa[gábérékéra]	call
turuuŋana	nnaa[gátúrúúŋána]	waa[gátúrúúŋána]	naa[gátúrúúŋána]	ntoo[gátúrúúŋána]	mmoo[gátúrúúŋána]	mbaa[gátúrúúŋána]	welcome
koondokora	nnaa[gákóóndókóra]	waa[gákóóndókóra]	naa[gákóóndókóra]	ntoo[gákóóndókóra]	mmoo[gákóóndókóra]	mbaa[gákóóndókóra]	uncover
	vowel-initial verbs						
ia	nna[ayá]	wa[ayá]	na[ayá]	nto[oyá]	mmo[oyá]	mba[ayá]	go
aga	nna[agá]	wa[agá]	na[agá]	nto[ogá]	mmo[ogá]	mba[agá]	weed
igora	nna[igóra]	wa[igóra]	na[igóra]	nto[igóra]	mmo[igóra]	mba[igóra]	open
oboha	nno[obóha]	wo[obóha]	no[obóha]	nto[obóha]	mmo[obóha]	mbo[obóha]	fear
igoomba	nna[igóómba]	wa[igóómba]	na[igóómba]	nto[igóómba]	mmo[igóómba]	mba[igóómba]	desire
anekera	nna[anékéra]	wa[anékéra]	na[anékéra]	nto[onékéra]	mmo[onékéra]	mba[anékéra]	lay out
araachana	nna[arááchána]	wa[arááchána]	na[arááchána]	nto[orááchána]	mmo[orááchána]	mba[arááchána]	cross, fold
Remote Past	Focused - e.g. "(indeed) I a	te/did eat (then)"					
ha	nnaa[hááye]	waa[hááye]	naa[hááye]	ntoo[hááye]	mmoo[hááye]	mbaa[hááye]	give
rea	nnaa[rééye]	waa[rééye]	naa[rééye]	ntoo[rééye]	mmoo[rééye]	mbaa[rééye]	eat
sea	nnaa[sééye]	waa[sééye]	naa[sééye]	ntoo[sééye]	mmoo[sééye]	mbaa[sééye]	grind
roma	nnaa[rómére]	waa[rómére]	naa[rómére]	ntoo[rómére]	mmoo[rómére]	mbaa[rómére]	bite
buna	nnaa[búníre]	waa[búníre]	naa[búníre]	ntoo[búníre]	mmoo[búníre]	mbaa[búníre]	break
biima	nnaa[bíímíre]	waa[bíímíre]	naa[bíímíre]	ntoo[bíímíre]	mmoo[bíímíre]	mbaa[bíímíre]	measure
saamba	nnaa[sáámbére]	waa[sáámbére]	naa[sáámbére]	ntoo[sáámbére]	mmoo[sáámbére]	mbaa[sáámbére]	burn
tereka	nnaa[térékére]	waa[térékére]	naa[térékére]	ntoo[térékére]	mmoo[térékére]	mbaa[térékére]	brew
sukura	nnaa[súkúúyé]	waa[súkúúyé]	naa[súkúúyé]	ntoo[súkúúyé]	mmoo[súkúúyé]	mbaa[súkúúyé]	rub

heetoka	nnaa[héétókére]	waa[héétókére]	naa[héétókére]	ntoo[héétókére]	mmoo[héétókére]	mbaa[héétókére]	remember
taandora	nnaa[táándóóye]	waa[táándóóye]	naa[táándóóye]	ntoo[táándóóye]	mmoo[táándóóye]	mbaa[táándóóye]	tear
karaanga	nnaa[káráángére]	waa[káráángére]	naa[káráángére]	ntoo[káráángére]	mmoo[káráángére]	mbaa[káráángére]	fry
hagaacha	nnaa[hágááchére]	waa[hágááchére]	naa[hágááchére]	ntoo[hágááchére]	mmoo[hágááchére]	mbaa[hágááchére]	build
taangaasa	nnaa[táángáásére]	waa[táángáásére]	naa[táángáásére]	ntoo[táángáásére]	mmoo[táángáásére]	mbaa[táángáásére]	announce
siitaaka	nnaa[síítáákére]	waa[síítáákére]	naa[síítáákére]	ntoo[síítáákére]	mmoo[síítáákére]	mbaa[síítáákére]	accuse
teremeka	nnaa[térémékére]	waa[térémékére]	naa[térémékére]	ntoo[térémékére]	mmoo[térémékére]	mbaa[térémékére]	be calm
berekera	nnaa[bérékééye]	waa[bérékééye]	naa[bérékééye]	ntoo[bérékééye]	mmoo[bérékééye]	mbaa[bérékééye]	call
turuuŋana	nnaa[túrúúŋáíni]	waa[túrúúŋáíni]	naa[túrúúŋáíni]	ntoo[túrúúŋáíni]	mmoo[túrúúŋáíni]	mbaa[túrúúŋáíni]	welcome
koondoko	ra nnaa[kóóndókóóye]	waa[kóóndókóóye]	naa[kóóndókóóye]	ntoo[kóóndókóóye]	mmoo[kóóndókóóye]	mbaa[kóóndókóóye]	uncover
kirigiita	nnaa[kírígíítíre]	waa[kírígíítíre]	naa[kírígíítíre]	ntoo[kírígíítíre]	mmoo[kírígíítíre]	mbaa[kírígíítíre]	scrub
hootooter	a nnaa[hóótóótééye]	waa[hóótóótééye]	naa[hóótóótééye]	ntoo[hóótóótééye]	mmoo[hóótóótééye]	mbaa[hóótóótééye]	reassure
	with object prefix						
ha	nnaa[gáhááye]	waa[gáhááye]	naa[gáhááye]	ntoo[gáhááye]	mmoo[gáhááye]	mbaa[gáhááye]	give
rea	nnaa[gárééye]	waa[gárééye]	naa[gárééye]	ntoo[gárééye]	mmoo[gárééye]	mbaa[gárééye]	eat
roma	nnaa[gárómére]	waa[gárómére]	naa[gárómére]	ntoo[gárómére]	mmoo[gárómére]	mbaa[gárómére]	bite
biima	nnaa[gábíímíre]	waa[gábíímíre]	naa[gábíímíre]	ntoo[gábíímíre]	mmoo[gábíímíre]	mbaa[gábíímíre]	measure
saamba	nnaa[gásáámbére]	waa[gásáámbére]	naa[gásáámbére]	ntoo[gásáámbére]	mmoo[gásáámbére]	mbaa[gásáámbére]	burn
tereka	nnaa[gátérékére]	waa[gátérékére]	naa[gátérékére]	ntoo[gátérékére]	mmoo[gátérékére]	mbaa[gátérékére]	brew
heetoka	nnaa[gáhéétókére]	waa[gáhéétókére]	naa[gáhéétókére]	ntoo[gáhéétókére]	mmoo[gáhéétókére]	mbaa[gáhéétókére]	remember
karaanga	nnaa[gákáráángére]	waa[gákáráángére]	naa[gákáráángére]	ntoo[gákáráángére]	mmoo[gákáráángére]	mbaa[gákáráángére]	fry
berekera	nnaa[gábérékééye]	waa[gábérékééye]	naa[gábérékééye]	ntoo[gábérékééye]	mmoo[gábérékééye]	mbaa[gábérékééye]	call
turuuŋana	nnaa[gátúrúúŋáíni]	waa[gátúrúúŋáíni]	naa[gátúrúúŋáíni]	ntoo[gátúrúúŋáíni]	mmoo[gátúrúúŋáíni]	mbaa[gátúrúúŋáíni]	welcome
koondoko	ra nnaa[gákóóndókóóye]	waa[gákóóndókóóye]	naa[gákóóndókóóye]	ntoo[gákóóndókóóye]	mmoo[gákóóndókóóye]	mbaa[gákóóndókóóye]	uncover
	vowel-initial verbs						
ia	nnaa[gééye]	waa[gééye]	naa[gééye]	ntoo[gééye]	mmoo[gééye]	mbaa[gééye]	go
aga	nna[agére]	wa[agére]	na[agére]	nto[ogére]	mmo[ogére]	mba[agére]	weed
igora	nna[igóóye]	wa[igóóye]	na[igóóye]	nto[igóóye]	mmo[igóóye]	mba[igóóye]	open
oboha	nno[obóhére]	wo[obóhére]	no[obóhére]	nto[obóhére]	mmo[obóhére]	mbo[obóhére]	fear
igoomba	nna[igóómbére]	wa[igóómbére]	na[igóómbére]	nto[igóómbére]	mmo[igóómbére]	mba[igóómbére]	desire
anekera	nna[anékééye]	wa[anékééye]	na[anékééye]	nto[onékééye]	mmo[onékééye]	mba[anékééye]	lay out
araachana	nna[aráácháíni]	wa[aráácháíni]	na[aráácháíni]	nto[oráácháíni]	mmo[oráácháíni]	mba[aráácháíni]	cross, fold

Untimed Past Anterior	Condition Focused - e o	"I would have eaten	(anytime before now	/ then)"

ha	neeŋkaa[hááye]	nookaa[hááye]	naakaa[hááye]	ntokaa[hááye]	mmokaa[hááye]	mbakaa[hááye]	give
rea	neeŋkaa[rééye]	nookaa[rééye]	naakaa[rééye]	ntokaa[rééye]	mmokaa[rééye]	mbakaa[rééye]	eat
sea	neengaa[sééye]	noogaa[sééye]	naagaa[sééye]	ntogaa[sééye]	mmogaa[sééye]	mbagaa[sééye]	grind
roma	neeŋkaa[rómére]	nookaa[rómére]	naakaa[rómére]	ntokaa[rómére]	mmokaa[rómére]	mbakaa[rómére]	bite
buna	neeŋkaa[búníre]	nookaa[búníre]	naakaa[búníre]	ntokaa[búníre]	mmokaa[búníre]	mbakaaa[búníre]	break
biima	neeŋkaa[bíímíre]	nookaa[bíímíre]	naakaa[bíímíre]	ntokaa[bíímíre]	mmokaa[bíímíre]	mbakaa[bíímíre]	measure
saamba	neengaa[sáámbére]	noogaa[sáámbére]	naagaa[sáámbére]	ntogaa[sáámbére]	mmogaa[sáámbére]	mbagaa[sáámbére]	burn
tereka	neengaa[térékére]	noogaa[térékére]	naagaa[térékére]	ntogaa[térékére]	mmogaa[térékére]	mbagaa[térékére]	brew
sukura	neeŋgaa[súkúúyé]	noogaa[súkúúyé]	naagaa[súkúúyé]	ntogaa[súkúúyé]	mmogaa[súkúúyé]	mbagaa[súkúúyé]	rub
heetoka	neeŋkaa[héétókére]	nookaa[héétókére]	naakaa[héétókére]	ntokaa[héétókére]	mmokaa[héétókére]	mbakaa[héétókére]	remember
taandora	neengaa[táándóóye]	noogaa[táándóóye]	naagaa[táándóóye]	ntogaa[táándóóye]	mmogaa[táándóóye]	mbagaa[táándóóye]	tear
karaanga	neeŋgaa[káráángére]	noogaa[káráángére]	naakaa[káráángére]	ntogaa[káráángére]	mmogaa[káráángére]	mbagaa[káráángére]	fry
hagaacha	neeŋkaa[hágááchére]	nookaa[hágááchére]	naakaa[hágááchére]	ntokaa[hágááchére]	mmokaa[hágááchére]	mbakaa[hágááchére]	build
taangaasa	neengaa[táángáásére]	noogaa[táángáásére]	naagaa[táángáásére]	ntogaa[táángáásére]	mmogaa[táángáásére]	mbagaa[táángáásére]	announce
siitaaka	neengaa[síítáákére]	noogaa[síítáákére]	naagaa[síítáákére]	ntogaa[síítáákére]	mmogaa[síítáákére]	mbagaa[síítáákére]	accuse
teremeka	neengaa[térémékére]	noogaa[térémékére]	naagaa[térémékére]	ntogaa[térémékére]	mmogaa[térémékére]	mbagaa[térémékére]	be calm
berekera	neeŋkaa[bérékééye]	nookaa[bérékééye]	naakaa[bérékééye]	ntokaa[bérékééye]	mmokaa[bérékééye]	mbakaa[bérékééye]	call
turuuŋana	neeŋgaa[túrúúŋáíni]	noogaa[túrúúŋáíni]	naagaa[túrúúŋáíni]	ntogaa[túrúúŋáíni]	mmogaa[túrúúŋáíni]	mbagaa[túrúúŋáíni]	welcome
koondokora	neengaa[kóóndókóóye]	noogaa[kóóndókóóye]	naagaa[kóóndókóóye]	ntogaa[kóóndókóóye]	mmogaa[kóóndókóóye]	mbagaa[kóóndókóóye]	uncover
kirigiita	neengaa[kírígíítíre]	noogaa[kírígíítíre]	naagaa[kírígíítíre]	ntogaa[kírígíítíre]	mmogaa[kírígíítíre]	mbagaa[kírígíítíre]	scrub
hootootera	neeŋkaa[hóótóótééye]	nookaa[hóótóótééye]	naakaa[hóótóótééye]	ntokaa[hóótóótééye]	mmokaa[hóótóótééye]	mbakaa[hóótóótééye]	reassure
	with object prefix						
ha	neŋkaa[gáhááye]	nookaa[gáhááye]	naakaa[gáhááye]	ntokaa[gáhááye]	mmokaa[gáhááye]	mbakaa[gáhááye]	give
rea	neŋkaa[gárééye]	nookaa[gárééye]	naakaa[gárééye]	ntokaa[gárééye]	mmokaa[gárééye]	mbakaa[gárééye]	eat
roma	neŋkaa[gárómére]	nookaa[gárómére]	naakaa[gárómére]	ntokaa[gárómére]	mmokaa[gárómére]	mbakaa[gárómére]	bite
biima	neŋkaa[gábíímíre]	nookaa[gábíímíre]	naakaa[gábíímíre]	ntokaa[gábíímíre]	mmokaa[gábíímíre]	mbakaa[gábíímíre]	measure
saamba	neŋkaa[gásáámbére]	nookaa[gásáámbére]	naakaa[gásáámbére]	ntokaa[gásáámbére]	mmokaa[gásáámbére]	mbakaa[gásáámbére]	burn
tereka	neŋkaa[gátérékére]	nookaa[gátérékére]	naakaa[gátérékére]	ntokaa[gátérékére]	mmokaa[gátérékére]	mbakaa[gátérékére]	brew
heetoka	neŋkaa[gáhéétókére]	nookaa[gáhéétókére]	naakaa[gáhéétókére]	ntokaa[gáhéétókére]	mmokaa[gáhéétókére]	mbakaa[gáhéétókére]	remember
karaanga	neŋkaa[gákáráángére]	nookaa[gákáráángére]	naakaa[gákáráángére]	ntokaa[gákáráángére]	mmokaa[gákáráángére]	mbakaa[gákáráángére]	fry
berekera	neŋkaa[gábérékééye]	nookaa[gábérékééye]	naakaa[gábérékééye]	ntokaa[gábérékééye]	mmokaa[gábérékééye]	mbakaa[gábérékééye]	call
turuuŋana	neŋkaa[gátúrúúŋáíni]	nookaa[gátúrúúŋáíni]	naakaa[gátúrúúŋáíni]	ntokaa[gátúrúúŋáíni]	mmokaa[gátúrúúŋáíni]	mbakaa[gátúrúúŋáíni]	welcome

koondokora	neŋkaa[gákóóndókóóye] vowel-initial verbs	nookaa[gákóóndókóóye]	naakaa[gákóóndókóóye]	ntokaa[gákóóndókóóye]	mmokaa[gákóóndókóóye]	mbakaa[gákóóndókóóye]	uncover
ia	neŋkaa[gééye]	nookaa[gééye]	naakaa[gééye]	ntokaa[gééye]	mmokaa[gééye]	mbakaa[gééye]	go
aga	neŋka[agére]	nooka[agére]	naaka[agére]	ntoka[agére]	mmoka[agére]	mbaka[agére]	weed
igora	neŋka[igóóye]	nooka[igóóye]	naaka[igóóye]	ntoka[igóóye]	mmoka[igóóye]	mbaka[igóóye]	open
oboha	neŋko[obóhére]	nooko[obóhére]	naako[obóhére]	ntoko[obóhére]	mmoko[obóhére]	mbako[obóhére]	fear
igoomba	neŋka[igóómbére]	nooka[igóómbére]	naaka[igóómbére]	ntoka[igóómbére]	mmoka[igóómbére]	mbaka[igóómbére]	desire
anekera	neŋka[anékééye]	nooka[anékééye]	naaka[anékééye]	ntoka[anékééye]	mmoka[anékééye]	mbaka[anékééye]	lay out
araachana	neŋka[aráácháíni]	nooka[aráácháíni]	naaka[aráácháíni]	ntoka[aráácháíni]	mmoka[aráácháíni]	mbaka[aráácháíni]	cross, fold
Immediate Fu	uture Focused - e.g. "(indee	ed) I will eat (now)", "(indee	d) I am to eat (now)"				
ha	neendaá[hε]	nooraá[hε]	naaraá[hε]	ntoraá[hɛ]	mmoraá[hɛ]	mbaraá[hε]	give
rea	neendaá[rε]	nooraá[rɛ]	naaraá[rɛ]	ntoraá[rε]	mmoraá[rɛ]	mbaraá[rε]	eat
sea	neendaá[sε]	nooraá[sε]	naaraá[sε]	ntoraá[sε]	mmoraá[sɛ]	mbaraá[sε]	grind
roma	neendaá[rómε]	nooraá[rómε]	naaraá[rómε]	ntoraá[rómε]	mmoraá[rómε]	mbaraá[rómε]	bite
buna	neendaá[búnε]	nooraá[búnε]	naaraá[búnε]	ntoraá[búnε]	mmoraá[búnε]	mbaraá[búnε]	break
biima	neendaá[bíímε]	nooraá[bíímε]	naaraá[bíímɛ]	ntoraá[bíímɛ]	mmoraá[bíímɛ]	mbaraá[bíímε]	measure
saamba	neendaá[sáámbε]	nooraá[sáámbε]	naaraá[sáámbε]	ntoraá[sáámbε]	mmoraá[sáámbε]	mbaraá[sáámbε]	burn
tereka	neendaá[tέrέkε]	nooraá[téréke]	naaraá[térékɛ]	ntoraá[térékɛ]	mmoraá[térékɛ]	mbaraá[térékɛ]	brew
sukura	neendaá[súkúrε]	nooraá[súkúrε]	naaraá[súkúrε]	ntoraá[súkúrε]	mmoraá[súkúrɛ]	mbaraá[súkúrε]	rub
heetoka	neendaá[héétókε]	nooraá[héétókε]	naaraá[héétókε]	ntoraá[héétókε]	mmoraá[héétókε]	mbaraá[héétókε]	remember
taandora	neendaá[táándórε]	nooraá[táándórε]	naaraá[táándórε]	ntoraá[táándórε]	mmoraá[táándórε]	mbaraá[táándórε]	tear
karaanga	neendaá[káráángε]	nooraá[káráángɛ]	naaraá[káráángε]	ntoraá[káráángɛ]	mmoraá[káráángɛ]	mbaraá[káráángɛ]	fry
hagaacha	neendaá[hágááchε]	nooraá[hágááchε]	naaraá[hágááchε]	ntoraá[hágááchε]	mmoraá[hágááchɛ]	mbaraá[hágááchɛ]	build
taangaasa	neendaá[táángáásε]	nooraá[táángáásε]	naaraá[táángáásε]	ntoraá[táángáásε]	mmoraá[táángáásε]	mbaraá[táángáásε]	announce
siitaaka	neendaá[síítáákε]	nooraá[síítáákε]	naaraá[síítáákε]	ntoraá[síítáákε]	mmoraá[síítáákε]	mbaraá[síítáákε]	accuse
teremeka	neendaá[térémékε]	nooraá[térémékε]	naaraá[térémékε]	ntoraá[térémékε]	mmoraá[térémékε]	mbaraá[térémékε]	be calm
berekera	neendaá[bérékérε]	nooraá[bérékérɛ]	naaraá[bérékérɛ]	ntoraá[bérékérɛ]	mmoraá[bérékérɛ]	mbaraá[bérékérε]	call
turuuŋana	neendaá[túrúúŋánε]	nooraá[túrúúŋánɛ]	naaraá[túrúúŋánε]	ntoraá[túrúúŋánε]	mmoraá[túrúúŋánɛ]	mbaraá[túrúúŋánε]	welcome
koondokora	neendaá[kóóndókórε]	nooraá[kóóndókórε]	naaraá[kóóndókórε]	ntoraá[kóóndókórε]	mmoraá[kóóndókórε]	mbaraá[kóóndókórɛ]	uncover
kirigiita	neendaá[kírígíítɛ]	nooraá[kírígíítɛ]	naaraá[kírígíítɛ]	ntoraá[kírígíítɛ]	mmoraá[kírígíítɛ]	mbaraá[kírígíítɛ]	scrub
hootootera	neendaá[hóótóótérε]	nooraá[hóótóótérε]	naaraá[hóótóótérε]	ntoraá[hóótóótérε]	mmoraá[hóótóótérɛ]	mbaraá[hóótóótérε]	reassure

	with object prefix						
ha	neendaá[gáhε]	nooraá[gáhε]	naaraá[gáhε]	ntoraá[gáhε]	mmoraá[gáhε]	mbaraá[gáhε]	give
rea	neendaá[gárε]	nooraá[gárɛ]	naaraá[gárɛ]	ntoraá[gárɛ]	mmoraá[gárɛ]	mbaraá[gárε]	eat
roma	neendaá[gárómε]	nooraá[gárómε]	naaraá[gárómε]	ntoraá[gárómε]	mmoraá[gárómε]	mbaraá[gárómε]	bite
biima	neendaá[gábíímε]	nooraá[gábíímε]	naaraá[gábíímε]	ntoraá[gábíímɛ]	mmoraá[gábíímɛ]	mbaraá[gábíímɛ]	measure
saamba	neendaá[gásáámbε]	nooraá[gásáámbε]	naaraá[gásáámbε]	ntoraá[gásáámbε]	mmoraá[gásáámbε]	mbaraá[gásáámbε]	burn
tereka	neendaá[gátérékére]	nooraá[gátérékére]	naaraá[gátérékére]	ntoraá[gátérékére]	mmoraá[gátérékére]	mbaraá[gátérékére]	brew
heetoka	neendaá[gáhéétókε]	nooraá[gáhéétókε]	naaraá[gáhéétókε]	ntoraá[gáhéétókε]	mmoraá[gáhéétókε]	mbaraá[gáhéétókε]	remember
karaanga	neendaá[gákáráángérε]	nooraá[gákáráángére]	naaraá[gákáráángérε]	ntoraá[gákáráángére]	mmoraá[gákáráángére]	mbaraá[gákáráángére]	fry
berekera	neendaá[gábérékérɛ]	nooraá[gábérékérε]	naaraá[gábérékérε]	ntoraá[gábérékérε]	mmoraá[gábérékérɛ]	mbaraá[gábérékérε]	call
turuuŋana	neendaá[gátúrúúŋánε]	nooraá[gátúrúúŋánɛ]	naaraá[gátúrúúŋánε]	ntoraá[gátúrúúŋánε]	mmoraá[gátúrúúŋánε]	mbaraá[gátúrúúŋánε]	welcome
	vowel-initial verbs						
ia	neenda[áyi]	noora[áyi]	naara[áyi]	ntora[áyi]	mmora[áyi]	mbara[áyi]	go
aga	neenda[ágε]	noora[ágɛ]	naara[ágɛ]	ntora[ágɛ]	mmora[ágɛ]	mbara[ágɛ]	weed
igora	neenda[ígórε]	noora[ígórε]	naara[ígórε]	ntora[ígórε]	mmora[ígórε]	mbara[ígórε]	open
oboha	neendo[óbóhε]	nooro[óbóhε]	naaro[óbóhε]	ntoro[óbóhε]	mmoro[όbόhε]	mbaro[óbóhε]	fear
igoomba	neenda[ígóómbε]	noora[ígóómbε]	naara[ígóómbε]	ntora[ígóómbε]	mmora[ígóómbε]	mbara[ígóómbε]	desire
anekera	neenda[ánékérε]	noora[ánékérɛ]	naara[ánékérε]	ntora[ánékérε]	mmora[ánékérɛ]	mbara[ánékérɛ]	lay out
araachana	neenda[árááchánε]	noora[árááchánε]	naara[árááchánε]	ntora[árááchánɛ]	mmora[árááchánɛ]	mbara[árááchánɛ]	cross, fold
Untimed Al	oility Focused - e.g. "(indeed	d) I am able to eat"					
ha	neeŋkaa[há]	nookaa[há]	naakaa[há]	ntokaa[há]	mmokaa[há]	mbakaa[há]	give
rea	neeŋkaa[ryá]	nookaa[ryá]	naakaa[ryá]	ntokaa[ryá]	mmokaa[ryá]	mbakaa[ryá]	eat
sea	neeŋgaa[syá]	noogaa[syá]	naagaa[syá]	ntogaa[syá]	mmogaa[syá]	mbagaa[syá]	grind
roma	neeŋkaa[róma]	nookaa[róma]	naakaa[róma]	ntokaa[róma]	mmokaa[róma]	mbakaa[róma]	bite
buna	neeŋkaa[búna]	nookaa[búna]	naakaa[búna]	ntokaa[búna]	mmokaa[búna]	mbakaaa[búna]	break
biima	neeŋkaa[bííma]	nookaa[bííma]	naakaa[bííma]	ntokaa[bííma]	mmokaa[bííma]	mbakaa[bííma]	measure
saamba	neeŋgaa[sáámba]	noogaa[sáámba]	naagaa[sáámba]	ntogaa[sáámba]	mmogaa[sáámba]	mbagaa[sáámba]	burn
tereka	neengaa[téréka]	noogaa[téréka]	naagaa[téréka]	ntogaa[téréka]	mmogaa[téréka]	mbagaa[téréka]	brew
sukura	neengaa[súkúra]	noogaa[súkúra]	naagaa[súkúra]	ntogaa[súkúra]	mmogaa[súkúra]	mbaagaa[súkúra]	rub
heetoka	neeŋkaa[héétóka]	nookaa[héétóka]	naakaa[héétóka]	ntokaa[héétóka]	mmokaa[héétóka]	mbakaa[héétóka]	remember
taandora	neengaa[táándóra]	noogaa[táándóra]	naagaa[táándóra]	ntogaa[táándóra]	mmogaa[táándóra]	mbagaa[táándóra]	tear

karaanga	neengaa[káráánga]	noogaa[káráánga]	naakaa[káráánga]	ntokaa[káráánga]	mmogaa[káráánga]	mbagaa[káráánga]	fry
hagaacha	neeŋkaa[hágáácha]	nookaa[hágáácha]	naakaa[hágáácha]	ntokaa[hágáácha]	mmokaa[hágáácha]	mbakaa[hágáácha]	build
taangaasa	neengaa[táángáása]	noogaa[táángáása]	naagaa[táángáása]	ntogaa[táángáása]	mmogaa[táángáása]	mbagaa[táángáása]	announce
siitaaka	neengaa[síítááka]	noogaa[síítááka]	naagaa[síítááka]	ntogaa[síítááka]	mmogaa[síítááka]	mbaagaa[síítááka]	accuse
	36 1	0 1	0 1	0 1	0 -	0 -	be calm
teremeka	neengaa[téréméka]	noogaa[téréméka]	naagaa[téréméka]	ntogaa[térékéka]	mmogaa[téréméka]	mbagaa[téréméka]	
berekera	neeŋkaa[bérékéra]	nookaa[bérékéra]	naakaa[bérékéra]	ntokaa[bérékéra]	mmokaa[bérékéra]	mbakaa[bérékéra]	call
turuuŋana	neeŋgaa[túrúúŋána]	noogaa[túrúúŋána]	naagaa[túrúúŋána]	ntogaa[túrúúŋána]	mmogaa[túrúúŋána]	mbagaa[túrúúŋána]	welcome
koondokora	neengaa[kóóndókóra]	noogaa[kóóndókóra]	naagaa[kóóndókóra]	ntogaa[kóóndókóra]	mmogaa[kóóndókóra]	mbagaa[kóóndókóra]	uncover
kirigiita	neeŋgaa[kírígííta]	noogaa[kírígííta]	naagaa[kírígííta]	ntogaa[kírígííta]	mmogaa[kírígííta]	mbagaa[kírígííta]	scrub
hootootera	neeŋkaa[hóótóótéra]	nookaa[hóótóótéra]	naakaa[hóótóótéra]	ntokaa[hóótóótéra]	mmokaa[hóótóótéra]	mbakaa[hóótóótéra]	reassure
	with object prefix						
ha	neŋkaa[gáha]	nookaa[gáha]	naakaa[gáha]	ntokaa[gáha]	mmokaa[gáha]	mbakaa[gáha]	give
rea	neŋkaa[gárya]	nookaa[gárya]	naakaa[gárya]	ntokaa[gárya]	mmokaa[gárya]	mbakaa[gárya]	eat
roma	neŋkaa[gáróma]	nookaa[gáróma]	naakaa[gáróma]	ntokaa[gáróma]	mmokaa[gáróma]	mbakaa[gáróma]	bite
biima	neŋkaa[gábííma]	nookaa[gábííma]	naakaa[gábííma]	ntokaa[gábííma]	mmokaa[gábííma]	mbakaa[gábííma]	measure
saamba	neŋkaa[gásáámba]	nookaa[gásáámba]	naakaa[gásáámba]	ntokaa[gásáámba]	mmokaa[gásáámba]	mbakaa[gásáámba]	burn
tereka	neŋkaa[gátéréka]	nookaa[gátéréka]	naakaa[gátéréka]	ntokaa[gátéréka]	mmokaa[gátéréka]	mbakaa[gátéréka]	brew
heetoka	neŋkaa[gáhéétóka]	nookaa[gáhéétóka]	naakaa[gáhéétóka]	ntokaa[gáhéétóka]	mmokaa[gáhéétóka]	mbakaa[gáhéétóka]	remember
karaanga	neŋkaa[gákáráánga]	nookaa[gákáráánga]	naakaa[gákáráánga]	ntokaa[gákáráánga]	mmokaa[gákáráánga]	mbakaa[gákáráánga]	fry
berekera	neŋkaa[gábérékéra]	nookaa[gábérékéra]	naakaa[gábérékéra]	ntokaa[gábérékéra]	mmokaa[gábérékéra]	mbakaa[gábérékéra]	call
turuuŋana	neŋkaa[gátúrúúŋána]	nookaa[gátúrúúŋána]	naakaa[gátúrúúŋána]	ntokaa[gátúrúúŋána]	mmokaa[gátúrúúŋána]	mbakaa[gátúrúúŋána]	welcome
koondokora	neŋkaa[gákóóndókóra]	nookaa[gákóóndókóra]	naakaa[gákóóndókóra]	ntokaa[gákóóndókóra]	mmokaa[gákóóndókóra]	mbakaa[gákóóndókóra]	uncover
	vowel-initial verbs						
ia	neŋka[ayá]	nooka[ayá]	naaka[ayá]	ntoka[ayá]	mmoka[ayá]	mbaka[ayá]	go
aga	neŋka[agá]	nooka[agá]	naaka[agá]	ntoka[agá]	mmoka[agá]	mbaka[agá]	weed
igora	neŋka[igóra]	nooka[igóra]	naaka[igóra]	ntoka[igóra]	mmoka[igóra]	mbaka[igóra]	open
oboha	neŋko[obóha]	nooko[obóha]	naako[obóha]	ntoko[obóha]	mmoko[obóha]	mbako[obóha]	fear
igoomba	neŋka[igóómba]	nooka[igóómba]	naaka[igóómba]	ntoka[igóómba]	mmoka[igóómba]	mbaka[igóómba]	desire
anekera	neŋka[anékéra]	nooka[anékéra]	naaka[anékéra]	ntoka[anékéra]	mmoka[anékéra]	mbaka[anékéra]	lay out
araachana	neŋka[arááchána]	nooka[arááchána]	naaka[arááchána]	ntoka[arááchána]	mmoka[arááchána]	mbaka[arááchána]	cross, fold
							•

Untimed Pres	Untimed Present e.g. "I eat (fact)"						
ha	né[ha]	ó[ha]	á[ha]	tó[ha]	mó[ha]	bá[ha]	give
rea	né[rya]	ó[rya]	á[rya]	tó[rya]	mó[rya]	bá[rya]	eat
sea	né[sya]	ó[sya]	á[sya]	tó[sya]	mó[sya]	bá[sya]	grind
roma	n[dóma]	o[róma]	a[róma]	to[róma]	mo[róma]	ba[róma]	bite
buna	m[búna]	u[búna]	a[búna]	tu[búna]	mu[búna]	ba[búna]	break
biima	m[bííma]	u[bííma]	a[bííma]	tu[bííma]	mu[bííma]	ba[bííma]	measure
saamba	n[sáámba]	o[sáámba]	a[sáámba]	to[sáámba]	mo[sáámba]	ba[sáámba]	burn
tereka	n[téréka]	o[téréka]	a[téréka]	to[téréka]	mo[téréka]	ba[téréka]	brew
sukura	n[súkúra]	u[súkúra]	a[súkúra]	tu[súkúra]	mu[súkúra]	ba[súkúra]	rub
heetoka	[héétóka]	o[héétóka]	a[héétóka]	to[héétóka]	mo[héétóka]	ba[héétóka]	remember
taandora	n[táándóra]	o[táándóra]	a[táándóra]	to[táándóra]	mo[táándóra]	ba[táándóra]	tear
karaanga	ŋ[káráánga]	o[káráánga]	a[káráánga]	to[káráánga]	mo[káráánga]	ba[káráánga]	fry
hagaacha	[hágáácha]	o[hágáácha]	a[hágáácha]	to[hágáácha]	mo[hágáácha]	ba[hágáácha]	build
taangaasa	n[táángáása]	o[táángáása]	a[táángáása]	to[táángáása]	mo[táángáása]	ba[táángáása]	announce
siitaaka	n[síítááka]	u[síítááka]	a[síítááka]	tu[síítááka]	mu[síítááka]	ba[síítááka]	accuse
teremeka	n[téréméka]	o[téréméka]	a[téréméka]	to[téréméka]	mo[téréméka]	ba[téréméka]	be calm
berekera	m[bérékéra]	o[bérékéra]	a[bérékéra]	to[bérékéra]	mo[bérékéra]	ba[bérékéra]	call
turuuŋana	n[túrúúŋána]	u[túrúúŋána]	a[túrúúŋána]	tu[túrúúŋána]	mu[túrúúŋána]	ba[túrúúŋána]	welcome
koondokora	ŋ[kóóndókóra]	o[kóóndókóra]	a[kóóndókóra]	to[kóóndókóra]	mo[kóóndókóra]	ba[kóóndókóra]	uncover
kirigiita	ŋ[kírígííta]	u[kírígííta]	a[kírígííta]	tu[kírígííta]	mu[kírígííta]	ba[kírígííta]	scrub
hootootera	[hóótóótéra]	o[hóótóótéra]	a[hóótóótéra]	to[hóótóótéra]	mo[hóótóótéra]	ba[hóótóótéra]	reassure
	with object prefix						
ha	ŋ[gáha]	o[gáha]	a[gáha]	to[gáha]	mo[gáha]	ba[gáha]	give
rea	ŋ[gárya]	o[gárya]	a[gárya]	to[gárya]	mo[gárya]	ba[gárya]	eat
roma	ŋ[gáróma]	o[gáróma]	a[gáróma]	to[gáróma]	mo[gáróma]	ba[gáróma]	bite
biima	ŋ[gábííma]	o[gábííma]	a[gábííma]	to[gábííma]	mo[gábííma]	ba[gábííma]	measure
saamba	ŋ[gásáámba]	o[gásáámba]	a[gásáámba]	to[gásáámba]	mo[gásáámba]	ba[gásáámba]	burn
tereka	ŋ[gátéréka]	o[gátéréka]	a[gátéréka]	to[gátéréka]	mo[gátéréka]	ba[gátéréka]	brew
heetoka	ŋ[gáhéétóka]	o[gáhéétóka]	a[gáhéétóka]	to[gáhéétóka]	mo[gáhéétóka]	ba[gáhéétóka]	remember
karaanga	ŋ[gákáráánga]	o[gákáráánga]	a[gákáráánga]	to[gákáráánga]	mo[gákáráánga]	ba[gákáráánga]	fry
berekera	ŋ[gábérékéra]	o[gábérékéra]	a[gábérékéra]	to[gábérékéra]	mo[gábérékéra]	ba[gábérékéra]	call
turuuŋana	ŋ[gátúrúúŋána]	o[gátúrúúŋána]	a[gátúrúúŋáa]	to[gátúrúúŋána]	mo[gátúúúŋána]	ba[gátúúúŋána]	welcome

koondokora	ŋ[gákóóndókóra]	o[gákóóndókóra]	a[gákóóndókóra]	to[gákóóndókóra]	mo[gákóóndókóra]	ba[gákóóndókóra]	uncover
	vowel-initial verbs						
ia	ní[ya]	ú[ya]	á[ya]	tú[ya]	mú[ya]	bá[ya]	go
aga	na[ága]	wa[ága]	a[ága]	to[óga]	mo[óga]	ba[ága]	weed
igora	ni[ígóra]	wi[ígóra]	a[ígóra]	tu[ígóra]	mu[ígóra]	ba[ígóra]	open
oboha	no[óbóha]	wo[óbóha]	o[óbóha]	to[óbóha]	mo[óbóha]	bo[óbóha]	fear
igoomba	ni[ígóómba]	wi[ígóómba]	a[ígóómba]	tu[ígóómba]	mu[ígóómba]	ba[ígóómba]	desire
anekera	na[ánékéra]	wa[ánékéra]	a[ánékéra]	to[ónékéra]	mo[ónékéra]	ba[ánékéra]	lay out
araachana	na[árááchána]	wa[árááchána]	a[árááchána]	to[órááchána]	mo[órááchána]	ba[árááchána]	cross, fold

(do) go (do) weed (do) fear (do) open (do) desire (do) lay out (do) cross, fold

#### PATTERN 1B: H on V1 (NO SPREAD)

#### Hortatory Imperative (2) - e.g. "(do) read!"

tá[ha]	(do) give	tá[ya]
tá[rya]	(do) eat	ta[ága]
tá[sya]	(do) grind	to[óbohà]
ta[róma]	(do) bite	ta[ígorà]
ta[búna]	(do) break	ta[ígoombà]
ta[bííma]	(do) measure	ta[ánekerà]
ta[sáámba]	(do) burn	ta[áraachanà]
ta[térekà]	(do) brew	
ta[súkurà]	(do) rub	
ta[héétokà]	(do) remember	
ta[táándorà]	(do) tear	
ta[káraangà]	(do) fry	
ta[hágaachà]	(do) build	
ta[táángaasà]	(do) announce	
ta[síítaakà]	(do) accuse	
ta[téremekà]	(do) be calm	
ta[bérekerà]	(do) call	
ta[túruuŋanà]	(do) welcome	

	ta[kóóndokorà]	(do) uncove
	ta[kírigiità]	(do) scrub
	ta[hóótooterà]	(do) reassur
with object prefix		
	ta[gáha]	
	ta[gárya]	
	ta[gáromà]	
	ta[gábiimà]	
	ta[gásaambà]	
	ta[gátɛrɛkà]	
	ta[gásukurà]	
	ta[gáheetokà]	
	ta[gákaraangà]	
	ta[gáhagaachà]	
	ta[gátaangaasà]	
	ta[gásiitaakà]	
	ta[gáberekerà]	
	ta[gáturuuŋanà]	
	ta[gákoondokorà]	
	ta[gákirigiità]	
	ta[gáhootooterà]	

#### PATTERN 2: H on V2 (SPREAD)

#### Hodiernal Past Progressive Anterior Focussed (Recent Past) - e.g. "(indeed) I have been reading (today)"

ha	nnaaka[haáye]	waaka[haáye]	naaka[haáye]	ntooka[haáye]	mmooka[haáye]	mbaaka[haáye]	give
rea	nnaaka[reéye]	waaka[reéye]	naaka[reéye]	ntooka[reéye]	mmooka[reéye]	mbaaka[reéye]	eat
sea	nnaaga[seéye]	waaga[seéye]	naaga[seéye]	ntooga[seéye]	mmooga[seéye]	mbaaga[seéye]	grind
roma	nnaaka[romére]	waaka[romére]	naaka[romére]	ntooka[romére]	mmooka[romére]	mbaaka[romére]	bite
buna	nnaaka[buníre]	waaka[buníre]	naaka[buníre]	ntooka[buníre]	mmooka[buníre]	mbaaka[buníre]	break
biima	nnaaka[biímíre]	waaka[biímíre]	naaka[biímíre]	ntooka[biímíre]	mmooka[biímíre]	mbaaka[biímíre]	measure
saamba	nnaaga[saámbére]	waaga[saámbére]	naaga[saámbére]	ntooga[saámbére]	mmooga[saámbére]	mbaaga[saámbére]	burn
tereka	nnaaga[terékére]	waaga[terékére]	naaga[terékére]	ntooga[terékére]	mmooga[terékére]	mbaaga[terékére]	brew

sukura	nnaaga[sukúúye]	waaga[sukúúye]	naaga[sukúúye]	ntooga[sukúúye]	mmooga[sukúúye]	mbaaga[sukúúye]	rub
heetoka	nnaaka[heétókére]	waaka[heétókére]	naaka[heétókére]	ntooka[heétókére]	mmooka[heétókére]	mbaaka[heétókére]	remember
taandora	nnaaga[taándóóye]	waaga[taándóóye]	naaga[taándóóye]	ntooga[taándóóye]	mmooga[taándóóye]	mbaaga[taándóóye]	tear
karaanga	nnaaga[karáángére]	waaga[karáángére]	naaga[karáángére]	ntooga[karáángére]	mmooga[karáángére]	mbaaga[karáángére]	fry
hagaacha	nnaaka[hagááchére]	waaka[hagááchére]	naaka[hagááchére]	ntooka[hagááchére]	mmooka[hagááchére]	mbaaka[hagááchére]	build
taangaasa	nnaaga[taángáásére]	waaga[taángáásére]	naaga[taángáásére]	ntooga[taángáásére]	mmooga[taángáásére]	mbaaga[taángáásére]	announce
siitaaka	nnaaga[siítáákére]	waaga[siítáákére]	naaga[siítáákére]	ntooga[siítáákére]	mmooga[siítáákére]	mbaaga[siítáákére]	accuse
teremeka	nnaaga[terémékére]	waaga[terémékére]	naaga[terémékére]	ntooga[terémékére]	mmooga[terémékére]	mbaaga[terémékére]	be calm
berekera	nnaaka[berékééye]	waaka[berékééye]	naaka[berékééye]	ntooka[berékééye]	mmooka[berékééye]	mbaaka[berékééye]	call
turuuŋana	nnaaga[turúúŋáíni]	waaga[turúúŋáíni]	naaga[turúúŋáíni]	ntooga[turúúŋáíni]	mmooga[turúúŋáíni]	mbaaga[turúúŋáíni]	welcome
koondokora	nnaaga[koóndókóóye]	waaga[koóndókóóye]	naaga[koóndókóóye]	ntooga[koóndókóóye]	mmooga[koóndókóóye]	mbaaga[koóndókóóye]	uncover
kirigiita	nnaaga[kirígíítíre]	waaga[kirígíítíre]	naaga[kirígíítíre]	ntooga[kirígíítíre]	mmooga[kirígíítíre]	mbaaga[kirígíítíre]	scrub
hootootera	nnaaka[hoótóótééye]	waaka[hoótóótééye]	naaka[hoótóótééye]	ntooka[hoótóótééye]	mmooka[hoótóótééye]	mbaaka[hoótóótééye]	reassure
	with object prefix						
ha	nnaaka[gahááye]	waaka[gahááye]	naaka[gahááye]	ntooka[gahááye]	mmooka[gahááye]	mbaaka[gahááye]	give
rea	nnaaka[garééye]	waaka[garééye]	naaka[garééye]	ntooka[garééye]	mmooka[garééye]	mbaaka[garééye]	eat
roma	nnaaka[garómére]	waaka[garómére]	naaka[garómére]	ntooka[garómére]	mmooka[garómére]	mbaaka[garómére]	bite
biima	nnaaka[gabíímíre]	waaka[gabíímíre]	naaka[gabíímíre]	ntooka[gabíímíre]	mmooka[gabíímíre]	mbaaka[gabíímíre]	measure
saamba	nnaaka[gasáámbére]	waaka[gasáámbére]	naaka[gasáámbére]	ntooka[gasáámbére]	mmooka[gasáámbére]	mbaaka[gasáámbére]	burn
tereka	nnaaka[gatérékére]	waaka[gatérékére]	naaka[gatérékére]	ntooka[gatérékére]	mmooka[gatérékére]	mbaaka[gatérékére]	brew
heetoka	nnaaka[gahéétókére]	waaka[gahéétókére]	naaka[gahéétókére]	ntooka[gahéétókére]	mmooka[gahéétókére]	mbaaka[gahéétókére]	remember
karaanga	nnaaka[gakáráángére]	waaka[gakáráángére]	naaka[gakáráángére]	ntooka[gakáráángére]	mmooka[gakáráángére]	mbaaka[gakáráángére]	fry
berekera	nnaaka[gabérékééye]	waaka[gabérékééye]	naaka[gabérékééye]	ntooka[gabérékééye]	mmooka[gabérékééye]	mbaaka[gabérékééye]	call
turuuŋana	nnaaka[gatúrúúŋáíni]	waaka[gatúrúúŋáíni]	naaka[gatúrúúŋáíni]	ntooka[gatúrúúŋáíni]	mmooka[gatúrúúŋáíni]	mbaaka[gatúrúúŋáíni]	welcome
koondokora	nnaaka[gakóóndókóóye]	waaka[gakóóndókóóye]	naaka[gakóóndókóóye]	ntooka[gakóóndókóóye]	mmooka[gakóóndókóóye]	mbaaka[gakóóndókóóye]	uncover
	vowel-initial verbs						
ia	nnaka[geéye]	waaka[geéye]	naaka[geéye]	ntooka[geéye]	mmooka[geéye]	mbaaka[geéye]	go
aga	nnaaka[agére]	waaka[agére]	naaka[agére]	ntooka[agére]	mmooka[agére]	mbaaka[agére]	weed
igora	nnaaka[igóóye]	waaka[igóóye]	naaka[igóóye]	ntooka[igóóye]	mmooka[igóóye]	mbaaka[igóóye]	open
oboha	nnaako[obóhére]	waako[obóhére]	naako[obóhére]	ntooko[obóhére]	mmooko[obóhére]	mbaako[obóhére]	fear
igoomba	nnaaka[igóómbére]	waaka[igóómbére]	naaka[igóómbére]	ntooka[igóómbére]	mmooka[igóómbére]	mbaaka[igóómbére]	desire
anekera	nnaaka[anékééye]	waaka[anékééye]	naaka[anékééye]	ntooka[anékééye]	mmooka[anékééye]	mbaaka[anékééye]	lay out
araachana	nnaaka[aráácháíni]	waaka[aráácháíni]	naaka[aráácháíni]	ntooka[aráácháíni]	mmooka[aráácháíni]	mbaaka[aráácháíni]	cross, fold

#### PATTERN 3A: H on V3 (SPREAD)

Subjunctive	e - e.g. "that I (may) eat"						
ha	$ne[h\epsilon]$	o[hɛ]	a[hɛ]	to[hɛ]	mo[hε]	ba[hε]	give
rea	$n[d\epsilon]$	o[rɛ]	a[rɛ]	to[rɛ]	mo[rɛ]	ba[rɛ]	eat
sea	$n[s\epsilon]$	o[sɛ]	$a[s\epsilon]$	to[sɛ]	mo[sɛ]	ba[sɛ]	grind
roma	n[domě]	n[domě]	n[domě]	n[domě]	mo[romɛ̃]	ba[romě]	bite
buna	m[bunĕ]	u[bunĕ]	a[bunĕ]	tu[bunɛ̆]	mu[bunɛ̆]	ba[bunĕ]	break
biima	m[biimé]	u[biimé]	a[biimé]	tu[biimé]	mu[biimé]	ba[biimέ]	measure
saamba	n[saambé]	o[saambέ]	a[saambé]	to[saambέ]	mo[saambέ]	ba[saambέ]	burn
tereka	n[tɛrɛké]	o[tɛrɛké]	a[tɛrɛké]	to[tɛrɛké]	mo[tɛrɛké]	ba[tɛrɛké]	brew
sukura	n[sukuré]	u[sukuré]	a[sukuré]	tu[sukuré]	mu[sukurέ]	ba[sukuré]	rub
heetoka	[heetókε]	o[heetókε]	a[heetókε]	to[heetókε]	mo[heetókε]	ba[heetókε]	remember
taandora	n[taandórε]	o[taandórε]	a[taandórε]	to[taandórε]	mo[taandórε]	ba[taandórε]	tear
karaanga	ŋ[karaángε]	o[karaángɛ]	a[karaángɛ]	to[karaángɛ]	mo[karaángε]	ba[karaángε]	fry
hagaacha	[hagaáche]	o[hagaáchε]	a[hagaáchε]	to[hagaáchε]	mo[hagaáchε]	ba[hagaáchε]	build
taangaasa	n[taangáásε]	o[taangáásε]	a[taangáásε]	to[taangáásε]	mo[taangáásε]	ba[taangáásε]	announce
siitaaka	n[siitáákε]	u[siitáákε]	a[siitáákε]	tu[siitáákε]	mu[siitáákε]	ba[siitáákε]	accuse
teremeka	n[teremékε]	o[teremékε]	a[teremékε]	to[teremékε]	mo[teremékε]	ba[teremékε]	be calm
berekera	m[berekérε]	o[berekérɛ]	a[berekérε]	to[berekérɛ]	mo[berekérε]	ba[berekérε]	call
turuuŋana	n[turuúŋánε]	u[turuúŋánɛ]	a[turuúŋánε]	tu[turuúŋánɛ]	mu[turuúŋánε]	ba[turuúŋánε]	welcome
koondokora	ŋ[koondókórε]	o[koondókórε]	a[koondókórε]	to[koondókórɛ]	mo[koondókórε]	ba[koondókórε]	uncover
kirigiita	η[kirigíítε]	u[kirigíítɛ]	a[kirigíítɛ]	tu[kirigíítɛ]	mu[kirigíítε]	ba[kirigíítɛ]	scrub
hootootera	[hootóótérɛ]	o[hootóótérε]	a[hootóótérε]	to[hootóótérε]	mo[hootóótérε]	ba[hootóótérε]	reassure
	with object prefix						
ha	ŋ[gahé]	o[gahé]	a[gahé]	to[gahé]	mo[gahέ]	ba[gahέ]	give
rea	ŋ[garé]	o[garé]	a[garé]	to[garé]	mo[garé]	ba[garé]	eat
roma	ŋ[garomέ]	o[garomé]	a[garomέ]	to[garomé]	mo[garomέ]	ba[garomέ]	bite
biima	ŋ[gabiímε]	o[gabiímε]	a[gabiímε]	to[gabiímε]	mo[gabiímε]	ba[gabiímε]	measure
saamba	ŋ[gasaámbε]	o[gasaámbε]	a[gasaámbε]	to[gasaámbε]	mo[gasaámbε]	ba[gasaámbε]	burn
tereka	ŋ[gatɛrɛ́kɛ]	o[gateréke]	a[gateréke]	to[gateréké]	mo[gateréke]	ba[gateréke]	brew
heetoka	η[gaheétókε]	o[gaheétókε]	a[gaheétókε]	to[gaheétókε]	mo[gaheétókε]	ba[gaheétókε]	remember
karaanga	ŋ[gakaráángε]	o[gakaráángɛ]	a[gakaráángɛ]	to[gakaráángɛ]	mo[gakaráángɛ]	ba[gakaráángε]	fry
berekera	ŋ[gaberékérε]	o[gaberékérɛ]	a[gaberékérɛ]	to[gaberékérε]	mo[gaberékérε]	ba[gaberékérε]	call

turuuŋana	ŋ[gaturúúŋánε]	o[gaturúúŋánε]	a[gaturúúŋánɛ]	to[gaturúúŋánε]	mo[gaturúúŋánε]	ba[gaturúúŋánɛ]	welcome
koondokora	ŋ[gakoóndókórε] vowel-initial verbs	o[gakoóndókórε]	a[gakoóndókórε]	to[gakoóndókórε]	mo[gakoóndókórε]	ba[gakoóndókórɛ]	uncover
ia	ni[yi]	u[yi]	a[yi]	tu[yi]	mu[yi]	ba[yi]	go
aga	na[agé]	wa[agé]	a[agé]	to[ogé]	mo[ogé]	ba[agé]	weed
igora	ni[igorέ]	wi[igoré]	a[igoré]	tu[igoré]	mu[igorέ]	ba[igoré]	open
oboha	no[obohέ]	wo[obohé]	o[obohé]	to[obohέ]	mo[obohέ]	bo[obohέ]	fear
igoomba	ni[igoómbε]	wi[igoómbε]	a[igoómbɛ]	tu[igoómbε]	mu[igoómbε]	ba[igoómbε]	desire
anekera	na[anekérɛ]	wa[anekére]	a[anekérɛ]	to[onekérɛ]	mo[onekérɛ]	ba[anekére]	lay out
araachana	na[araáchánε]	wa[araáchánɛ]	a[araáchánε]	to[oraáchánε]	mo[oraáchánε]	ba[araáchánε]	cross, fold
Hodiernal F	<b>Past Anterior Focused -</b> e.g.	. "(indeed) I (have) read (ear	lier today)"				
ha	nee[haayé]	noo[haayé]	naa[haayé]	nto[haayé]	mmo[haayé]	mba[haayé]	give
rea	nen[deeyé]	noo[reeyé]	naa[reeyé]	nto[reeyé]	mmo[reeyé]	mba[reeyé]	eat
sea	nen[seeyé]	noo[seeyé]	naa[seeyé]	nto[seeyé]	mmo[seeyé]	mba[seeyé]	grind
roma	nen[domeré]	noo[romeré]	naa[romeré]	nto[romeré]	mmo[romeré]	mba[romeré]	bite
buna	nim[buniré]	nuu[buniré]	naa[buniré]	ntu[buniré]	mmu[buniré]	mba[buniré]	break
biima	nem[biimíre]	nuu[biimíre]	naa[biimíre]	ntu[biimíre]	mmu[biimíre]	mba[biimíre]	measure
saamba	nen[saambére]	noo[saambére]	naa[saambére]	nto[saambére]	mmo[saambére]	mba[saambére]	burn
tereka	nen[tɛrɛkére]	noo[tɛrɛkére]	naa[tɛrɛkére]	nto[tɛrɛkére]	mmo[tɛrɛkére]	mba[tɛrɛkére]	brew
sukura	nin[sukuúye]	nuu[sukuúye]	naa[sukuúye]	ntu[sukuúye]	mmu[sukuúye]	mba[sukuúye]	rub
heetoka	nee[heetókére]	noo[heetókére]	naa[heetókére]	nto[heetókére]	mmo[heetókére]	mba[heetókére]	remember
taandora	nen[taandóóye]	noo[taandóóye]	naa[taandóóye]	nto[taandóóye]	mmo[taandóóye]	mba[taandóóye]	tear
karaanga	neŋ[karaángére]	noo[karaángére]	naa[karaángére]	nto[karaángére]	mmo[karaángére]	mba[karaángére]	fry
hagaacha	nee[hagaáchére]	noo[hagaáchére]	naa[hagaáchére]	nto[hagaáchére]	mmo[hagaáchére]	mba[hagaáchére]	build
taangaasa	nen[taangáásére]	noo[taangáásére]	naa[taangáásére]	nto[taangáásére]	mmo[taangáásére]	mba[taangáásére]	announce
siitaaka	nin[siitáákére]	nuu[siitáákére]	naa[siitáákére]	ntu[siitáákére]	mmu[siitáákére]	mba[siitáákére]	accuse
teremeka	nen[teremékére]	noo[teremékére]	naa[teremékére]	nto[teremékére]	mmo[teremékére]	mba[teremékére]	be calm
berekera	nem[berekééye]	noo[berekééye]	naa[berekééye]	nto[berekééye]	mmo[berekééye]	mba[berekééye]	call
turuuŋana	nin[turuúŋáíni]	nuu[turuúŋáíni]	naa[turuúŋáíni]	ntu[turuúŋáíni]	mmu[turuúŋáíni]	mba[turuúŋáíni]	welcome
koondokora	nen[koondókóóye]	noo[koondókóóye]	naa[koondókóóye]	nto[koondókóóye]	mmo[koondókóóye]	mba[koondókóóye]	uncover
kirigiita	nin[kirigíítíre]	nuu[kirigíítíre]	naa[kirigíítíre]	ntu[kirigíítíre]	mmu[kirigíítíre]	mba[kirigíítíre]	scrub

hootootera	nee[hootóótééye]	noo[hootóótééye]	naa[hootóótééye]	nto[hootóótééye]	mmo[hootóótééye]	mba[hootóótééye]	reassure
	with object prefix						
ha	neŋ[gahaáye]	noo[gahaáye]	naa[gahaáye]	nto[gahaáye]	mmo[gahaáye]	mba[gahaáye]	give
rea	nen[gareéye]	noo[gareéye]	naa[gareéye]	nto[gareéye]	mmo[gareéye]	mba[gareéye]	eat
roma	nen[garomére]	noo[garomére]	naa[garomére]	nto[garomére]	mmo[garomére]	mba[garomére]	bite
biima	nen[gabiímíre]	nuu[gabiímíre]	naa[gabiímíre]	ntu[gabiímíre]	mmu[gabiímíre]	mba[gabiímíre]	measure
saamba	nen[gaigóóye]	nuu[gaigóóye]	naa[gaigóóye]	ntu[gaigóóye]	mmu[gaigóóye]	mba[gaigóóye]	burn
tereka	nen[gaterékére]	noo[gatɛrékére]	naa[gatɛrɛ́kére]	nto[gatɛrékére]	mmo[gatɛrékére]	mba[gatɛrékére]	brew
heetoka	nen[gaheétókére]	noo[gaheétókére]	naa[gaheétókére]	nto[gaheétókére]	mmo[gaheétókére]	mba[gaheétókére]	remember
karaanga	nen[gakaráángére]	noo[gakaráángére]	naa[gakaráángére]	nto[gakaráángére]	mmo[gakaráángére]	mba[gakaráángére]	fry
berekera	nen[gaberékééye]	nuu[gaberékééye]	naa[gaberékééye]	ntu[gaberékééye]	mmu[gaberékééye]	mba[gaberékééye]	call
turuuŋana	nen[gaturúúnáíni]	nuu[gaturúúŋáíni]	naa[gaturúúŋáíni]	ntu[gaturúúŋáíni]	mmu[gaturúúŋáíni]	mba[gaturúúŋáíni]	welcome
koondokora	nen[gakoóndókóóye]	nen[gakoóndókóóye]	nen[gakoóndókóóye]	nen[gakoóndókóóye]	nen[gakoóndókóóye]	nen[gakoóndókóóye]	uncover
	vowel-initial verbs						
ia	nen[geeyé]	noo[geeyé]	naa[geeyé]	nto[geeyé]	mmo[geeyé]	mba[geeyé]	go
aga	nna[ageré]	wa[ageré]	na[ageré]	nto[ogeré]	mmo[ogeré]	mba[ageré]	weed
igora	ni[igoóye]	wi[igoóye]	na[igoóye]	ntu[igoóye]	mmu[igoóye]	mba[igoóye]	open
oboha	nno[obohére]	wo[obohére]	no[obohére]	nto[obohére]	mmo[obohére]	mbo[obohére]	fear
igoomba	ni[igoómbére]	wi[igoómbére]	na[igoómbére]	ntu[igoómbére]	mmu[igoómbére]	mba[igoómbére]	desire
anekera	nna[anekééye]	wa[anekééye]	na[anekééye]	nto[onekééye]	mmo[onekééye]	mba[anekééye]	lay out
araachana	nna[araácháíni]		na[araácháíni]	nto[oraácháíni]	mmo[oraácháíni]	mba[araácháíni]	reaassure
T 1.D.			\#				
	•	lready) eaten (anytime before	,		ri 1	1 11 1	
ha	naa[ha]	waa[ha]	aa[ha]	too[ha]	moo[ha]	baa[ha]	give
rea	naa[rya]	waa[rya]	aa[rya]	too[rya]	moo[rya]	baa[rya]	eat
sea	naa[sya]	waa[sya]	aa[sya]	too[sya]	moo[sya]	baa[sya]	grind
roma	naa[romă]	waa[romă]	aa[romă]	too[romă]	moo[romă]	baa[romă]	bite
buna	naa[bună]	waa[bună]	aa[bună]	too[bună]	moo[bună]	baa[bună]	break
biima	naa[biimá]	waa[biimá]	aa[biimá]	too[biimá]	moo[biimá]	baa[biimá]	measure
saamba	naa[saambá]	waa[saambá]	aa[saambá]	too[saambá]	moo[saambá]	baa[saambá]	burn
tereka	naa[tɛrɛká]	waa[tɛrɛká]	aa[tɛrɛká]	too[tɛrɛká]	moo[tɛrɛká]	baa[tɛrɛká]	brew
sukura	naa[sukurá]	waa[sukurá]	aa[sukurá]	too[sukurá]	moo[sukurá]	baa[sukurá]	rub

h	eetoka	naa[heetóka]	waa[heetóka]	aa[heetóka]	too[heetóka]	moo[heetóka]	baa[heetóka]	remember
ta	aandora	naa[taandóra]	waa[taandóra]	aa[taandóra]	too[taandóra]	moo[taandóra]	baa[taandóra]	tear
k	araanga	naa[karaánga]	waa[karaánga]	aa[karaánga]	too[karaánga]	moo[karaánga]	baa[karaánga]	fry
h	agaacha	naa[hagaácha]	waa[hagaácha]	aa[hagaácha]	too[hagaácha]	moo[hagaácha]	baa[hagaácha]	build
ta	aangaasa	naa[taangáása]	waa[taangáása]	aa[taangáása]	too[taangáása]	moo[taangáása]	baa[taangáása]	announce
S	iitaaka	naa[siitááka]	waa[siitááka]	aa[siitááka]	too[siitááka]	moo[siitááka]	baa[siitááka]	accuse
te	eremeka	naa[tereméka]	waa[tereméka]	aa[tereméka]	too[tereméka]	moo[tereméka]	baa[tereméka]	be calm
b	erekera	naa[berekéra]	waa[berekéra]	aa[berekéra]	too[berekéra]	moo[berekéra]	baa[berekéra]	call
tı	ıruuŋana	naa[turuúŋána]	waa[turuúŋána]	aa[turuúŋána]	too[turuúŋána]	moo[turuúŋána]	baa[turuúŋána]	welcome
k	oondokora	naa[koondókóra]	waa[koondókóra]	aa[koondókóra]	too[koondókóra]	moo[koondókóra]	baa[koondókóra]	uncover
k	irigiita	naa[kirigííta]	waa[kirigííta]	aa[kirigííta]	too[kirigííta]	moo[kirigííta]	baa[kirigííta]	scrub
h	ootootera	naa[hootóótéra]	waa[hootóótéra]	aa[hootóótéra]	too[hootóótéra]	moo[hootóótéra]	baa[hootóótéra]	reassure
		with object prefix						
h	a	naa[gahă]	waa[gahă]	aa[gahă]	too[gahă]	moo[gahă]	baa[gahă]	give
r	ea	naa[garyă]	waa[garyă]	aa[garyă]	too[garyă]	moo[garyă]	baa[garyă]	eat
r	oma	naa[garomá]	waa[garomá]	aa[garomá]	too[garomá]	moo[garomá]	baa[garomá]	bite
b	iima	naa[gabiíma]	waa[gabííma]	aa[gabiíma]	too[gabiíma]	moo[gabiíma]	baa[gabiíma]	measure
S	aamba	naa[gasaámba]	waa[gasaámba]	aa[gasaámba]	too[gasaámba]	moo[gasaámba]	baa[gasaámba]	burn
ta	ereka	naa[gateréka]	waa[gateréka]	aa[gatɛrɛ́ka]	too[gateréka]	moo[gatɛréka]	baa[gateréka]	brew
h	eetoka	naa[gaheétóka]	waa[gaheétóka]	aa[gaheétóka]	too[gaheétóka]	moo[gaheétóka]	baa[gaheétóka]	remember
k	araanga	naa[gakaráánga]	waa[gakaráánga]	aa[gakaráánga]	too[gakaráánga]	moo[gakaráánga]	baa[gakaráánga]	fry
b	erekera	naa[gaberékéra]	waa[gaberékéra]	aa[gaberékéra]	too[gaberékéra]	moo[gaberékéra]	baa[gaberékéra]	call
tı	ıruuŋana	naa[gaturúúŋána]	waa[gaturúúŋána]	aa[gaturúúŋána]	too[gaturúúŋána]	moo[gaturúúŋána]	baa[gaturúúŋána]	welcome
k	oondokora	naa[gakoóndókóra]	waa[gakoóndókóra]	aa[gakoóndókóra]	too[gakoóndókóra]	moo[gakoóndókóra]	baa[gakoóndókóra]	uncover
		vowel-initial verbs						
ia	ı	naa[ya]	waa[ya]	aa[ya]	too[ya]	moo[ya]	baa[ya]	go
a	ga	na[agă]	wa[agă]	a[agă]	to[ogă]	mo[ogă]	ba[agă]	weed
iş	gora	na[igorá]	wa[igorá]	a[igorá]	to[igorá]	mo[igorá]	ba[igorá]	open
o	boha	no[obohá]	wo[obohá]	o[obohá]	to[obohá]	mo[obohá]	bo[obohá]	fear
iş	goomba	na[igoómba]	wa[igoómba]	a[igoómba]	to[igoómba]	mo[igoómba]	ba[igoómba]	desire
a	nekera	na[anekéra]	wa[anekéra]	a[anekéra]	to[onekéra]	mo[onekéra]	ba[anekéra]	lay out
a	raachana	na[araáchána]	wa[araáchána]	a[araáchána]	to[oraáchána]	mo[oraáchána]	ba[araáchána]	cross, fold

Remote	Remote Future Focused e.g. "I will eat (then)"								
ha	nende[ha]	noore[ha]	naare[ha]	ntore[ha]	mmore[ha]	mbare[ha]	give		
rea	nende[rya]	noore[rya]	naare[rya]	ntore[rya]	mmore[rya]	mbare[rya]	eat		
sea	nende[sya]	noore[sya]	naare[sya]	ntore[sya]	mmore[sya]	mbare[rsa]	grind		
roma	nende[romă]	noore[romă]	naare[romă]	ntore[romă]	mmore[romă]	mbare[romă]	bite		
buna	nende[bună]	noore[bună]	naare[bună]	ntore[bună]	mmore[bună]	mbare[bună]	break		
biima	nende[biimá]	noore[biimá]	naare[biimá]	ntore[biimá]	mmore[biimá]	mbare[biimá]	measure		
saamba	nende[saambá]	noore[saambá]	naare[saambá]	ntore[saambá]	mmore[saambá]	mbare[saambá]	burn		
tereka	nende[tɛrɛká]	noore[tɛrɛká]	naare[tɛrɛká]	ntore[tɛrɛká]	mmore[tɛrɛká]	mbare[tɛrɛká]	brew		
sukura	nende[sukurá]	noore[sukurá]	naare[sukurá]	ntore[sukurá]	mmore[sukurá]	mbare[sukurá]	rub		
heetoka	nende[heetóka]	noore[heetóka]	naare[heetóka]	ntore[heetóka]	mmore[heetóka]	mbare[heetóka]	remember		
taandora	nende[taandóra]	noore[taandóra]	naare[taandóra]	ntore[taandóra]	mmore[taandóra]	mbare[taandóra]	tear		
karaang	a nende[karaánga]	noree[karaánga]	naare[karaánga]	ntore[karaánga]	mmore[karaánga]	mbare[karaánga]	fry		
hagaach	a nende[hagaácha]	noore[hagaácha]	naare[hagaácha]	ntore[hagaácha]	mmore[hagaácha]	mbare[hagaácha]	build		
taangaas	sa nende[taangáása]	noore[taangáása]	naare[taangáása]	ntore[taangáása]	mmore[taangáása]	mbare[taangáása]	announce		
siitaaka	nende[siitááka]	noore[siitááka]	naare[siitááka]	ntore[siitááka]	mmore[siitááka]	mbare[siitááka]	accuse		
teremek	a nende[tereméka]	noore[tereméka]	naare[tereméka]	ntore[tereméka]	mmore[tereméka]	mbare[tereméka]	be calm		
berekera	nende[berekéra]	noore[berekéra]	naare[berekéra]	ntore[berekéra]	mmore[berekéra]	mbare[berekéra]	call		
turuuŋaı	na nende[turuúŋána]	noore[turuúŋána]	naare[turuúŋána]	ntore[turuúŋána]	mmore[turuúŋána]	mbare[turuúŋána]	welcome		
koondol	kora nende[koondókóra]	noore[koondókóra]	naare[koondókóra]	ntore[koondókóra]	mmore[koondókóra]	mbare[koondókóra]	uncover		
kirigiita	nende[kirigííta]	noore[kirigííta]	naare[kirigííta]	ntore[kirigííta]	mmore[kirigííta]	mbare[kirigííta]	scrub		
hootoote	era nende[hootóótéra]	noore[hootóótéra]	naare[hootóótéra]	ntore[hootóótéra]	mmore[hootóótéra]	mbare[hootóótéra]	reassure		
	with object prefix								
ha	nende[gahă]	noore[gahă]	naare[gahă]	ntore[gahă]	mmore[gahă]	mbare[gahă]	give		
rea	nende[garyă]	noore[garyă]	naare[garyă]	ntore[garyă]	mmore[garyă]	mbare[garyă]	eat		
roma	nende[garomá]	noore[garomá]	naare[garomá]	ntore[garomá]	mmore[garomá]	mbare[garomá]	bite		
biima	nende[gabiíma]	noore[gabiíma]	naare[gabiíma]	ntore[gabiíma]	mmore[gabiíma]	mbare[gabiíma]	measure		
saamba	nende[gasaámba]	noore[gasaámba]	naare[gasaámba]	ntore[gasaámba]	mmore[gasaámba]	mbare[gasaámba]	burn		
tereka	nende[gateréka]	noore[gateréka]	naare[gatɛréka]	ntore[gatɛréka]	mmore[gatɛréka]	mbare[gateréka]	brew		
heetoka	nende[gaheétóka]	noore[gaheétóka]	naare[gaheétóka]	ntore[gaheétóka]	mmore[gaheétóka]	mbare[gaheétóka]	remember		
karaang	a nende[gakaráánga]	noree[gakaráánga]	naare[gakaráánga]	ntore[gakaráánga]	mmore[gakaráánga]	mbare[gakaráánga]	fry		
berekera	nende[gaberékéra]	noore[gaberékéra]	naare[gaberékéra]	ntore[gaberékéra]	mmore[gaberékéra]	mbare[gaberékéra]	call		
turuuŋaı	na nende[gaturúúŋána]	noore[gaturúúŋána]	naare[gaturúúŋána]	ntore[gaturúúŋána]	mmore[gaturúúŋána]	mbare[gaturúúŋána]	welcome		

koondokora	nende[gakoóndókóra] vowel-initial verbs	noore[gakoóndókóra]	naare[gakoóndókóra]	ntore[gakoóndókóra]	mmore[gakoóndókóra]	mbare[gakoóndókóra]	uncover
ia	nindi[ya]	nuuri[ya]	naari[ya]	nturi[ya]	mmuri[ya]	mbari[ya]	go
aga	nende[egă]	noore[egă]	naare[egă]	ntore[egă]	mmore[egă]	mbare[egă]	weed
igora	nindi[igorá]	nuuri[igorá]	naari[igorá	nturi[igorá]	mmuri[igorá]	mbari[igorá]	open
oboha	nende[obohá]	noore[obohá]	naare[obohá]	ntore[obohá]	mmore[obohá]	mbare[obohá]	fear
igoomba	nindi[igoómba]	nuuri[igoómba]	naari[igoómba]	nturi[igoómba]	mmuri[igoómba]	mbari[igoómba]	desire
anekera	nende[enekéra]	noore[enekéra]	naare[enekéra]	ntore[enekéra]	mmore[enekéra]	mbare[enekéra]	lay out
araachana	nende[araáchána]	noore[araáchána]	naare[araáchána]	ntore[araáchána]	mmore[araáchána]	mbare[araáchána]	cross, fold
Current Pres	ent Persistive Focused (arc	<b>chaic</b> ) - e.g. "(indeed) I am s	till eating"				
ha	neŋke[haanére]	nooke[haanére]	naake[haanére]	ntoke[haanére]	mmoke[haanére]	mbake[haanére]	give
rea	neŋke[reeyé]	nooke[reeyé]	naake[reeyé]	ntoke[reeyé]	mmoke[reeyé]	mbake[reeyé]	eat
sea	neŋge[seeyé]	nooge[seeyé]	naage[seeyé]	ntoge[seeyé]	mmoge[seeyé]	mbage[seeyé]	grind
roma	neŋke[romeré]	nooke[romeré]	naake[romeré]	ntoke[romeré]	mmoke[romeré]	mbake[romeré]	bite
buna	neŋke[buniré]	nooke[buniré]	naake[buniré]	ntoke[buniré]	mmoke[buniré]	mbake[buniré]	break
biima	neŋke[biimíre]	nooke[biimíre]	naake[biimíre]	ntoke[biimíre]	mmoke[biimíre]	mbake[biimíre]	measure
saamba	neŋge[saambére]	nooge[saambére]	naage[saambére]	ntoge[saambére]	mmoge[saambére]	mbage[saambére]	burn
tereka	neŋge[tɛrɛkére]	nooge[tɛrɛkére]	naage[tɛrɛkére]	ntoge[tɛrɛkére]	mmoge[tɛrɛkére]	mbage[tɛrɛkére]	brew
sukura	neŋge[sukuúye]	nooge[sukuúye]	naage[sukuúye]	ntoge[sukuúye]	mmoge[sukuúye]	mbage[sukuúye]	rub
heetoka	neŋke[heetókére]	nooke[heetókére]	naake[heetókére]	ntoke[heetókére]	mmoke[heetókére]	mbake[heetókére]	remember
taandora	neŋge[taandóóye]	nooge[taandóóye]	naage[taandóóye]	ntoge[taandóóye]	mmoge[taandóóye]	mbage[taandóóye]	tear
karaanga	neŋge[karaángére]	nooge[karaángére]	naage[karaángére]	ntoge[karaángére]	mmoge[karaángére]	mbage[karaáéngere]	fry
hagaacha	neŋke[hagaáchére]	nooke[hagaáchére]	naake[hagaáchére]	ntoke[hagaáchére]	mmoke[hagaáchére]	mbake[hagaáchére]	build
taandaasa	neŋge[taandáásére]	nooge[taandáásére]	naage[taandáásére]	ntoge[taandáásére]	mmoge[taandáásére]	mbage[taandáásére]	announce
siitaaka	neŋge[siitáákére]	nooge[siitáákére]	naage[siitáákére]	ntoge[siitáákére]	mmoge[siitáákére]	mbage[siitáákére]	accuse
teremeka	nenge[teremékére]	nooge[teremékére]	naage[teremékére]	ntoge[teremékére]	mmoge[teremékére]	mbage[teremékére]	be calm
berekera	neŋke[berekééye]	nooke[berekééye]	naake[berekééye]	ntoke[berekééye]	mmoke[berekééye]	mbake[berekééye]	call
turuuŋana	neŋge[turuúŋáíni]	nooge[turuúŋáíni]	naage[turuúŋáíni]	ntoge[turuúŋáíni]	mmoge[turuúŋáíni]	mbage[turuúŋáíni	welcome
koondokora	nenge[koondókóóye]	nooge[koondókóóye]	naage[koondókóóye]	ntoge[koondókóóye]	mmoge[koondókóóye]	mbage[koondókóóye]	uncover
kirigiita	nenge[kirigíítíre]	nooge[kirigíítíre]	naage[kirigíítíre]	ntoge[kirigíítíre]	mmoge[kirigíítíre]	mbage[kirigíítíre]	scrub
hootootera	neŋke[hootóótééye]	nooke[hootóótééye]	naake[hootóótééye]	ntoke[hootóótééye]	mmoke[hootóótééye]	mbake[hootóótééye]	reassure

	with object prefix						
ha	neŋke[gahaánére]	nooke[gahaánére]	naake[gahaánére]	ntoke[gahaánére]	mmoke[gahaánére]	mbake[gahaánére]	give
rea	neŋke[gareéye]	nooke[gareéye]	naake[gareéye]	ntoke[gareéye]	mmoke[gareéye]	mbake[gareéye]	eat
roma	neŋke[garomére]	nooke[garomére]	naake[garomére]	ntoke[garomére]	mmoke[garomére]	mbake[garomére]	bite
biima	neŋke[gabiímíre]	nooke[gabiímíre]	naake[gabiímíre]	ntoke[gabiímíre]	mmoke[gabiímíre]	mbake[gabiímíre]	measure
saamba	neŋke[gasaámbére]	nooke[gasaámbére]	naake[gasaámbére]	ntoke[gasaámbére]	mmoke[gasaámbére]	mbake[gasaámbére]	burn
tereka	neŋke[gatɛrékére]	nooke[gaterékére]	naake[gatɛrékére]	ntoke[gatɛrékére]	mmoke[gatɛrékére]	mbake[gaterékére]	brew
heetoka	neŋke[gaheétókére]	nooke[gaheétókére]	naake[gaheétókére]	ntoke[gaheétókére]	mmoke[gaheétókére]	mbake[gaheétókére]	remember
karaanga	neŋke[gakaráángére]	nooke[gakaráángére]	naake[gakaráángére]	ntoke[gakaráángére]	mmoke[gakaráángére]	mbake[gakarááéngére]	fry
berekera	neŋke[gaberékééye]	nooke[gaberékééye]	naake[gaberékééye]	ntoke[gaberékééye]	mmoke[gaberékééye]	mbake[gaberékééye]	call
turuuŋana	neŋke[gaturúúŋáíni]	nooke[gaturúúŋáíni]	naake[gaturúúŋáíni]	ntoke[gaturúúŋáíni]	mmoke[gaturúúŋáíni]	mbake[gaturúúŋáíni	welcome
koondokora	neŋke[gakoóndókóóye]	nooke[gakoóndókóóye]	naake[gakoóndókóóye]	ntoke[gakoóndókóóye]	mmoke[gakoóndókóóye]	mbake[gakoóndókóóye]	uncover
	vowel-initial verbs						
ia	neŋke[geeyé]	nooke[geeyé]	naake[geeyé]	ntoke[geeyé]	mmoke[geeyé]	mbake[geeyé]	go
aga	neŋke[egeré]	nooke[egeré]	naake[egeré]	ntoke[egeré]	mmoke[egeré]	mbake[egeré]	weed
igora	niŋki[igoóye]	nuuki[igoóye]	naaki[igoóye]	ntuki[igoóye]	mmuki[igoóye]	mbaki[igoóye]	open
oboha	niŋki[obohére]	nuuki[obohére]	naaki[obohére]	ntuki[obohére]	mmuki[obohére]	mbaki[obohére]	fear
igoomba	niŋki[igoómbére]	nuuki[igoómbére]	naaki[igoómbére]	ntuki[igoómbére]	mmuki[igoómbére]	mbaki[igoómbére]	desire
anekera	neŋke[enekééye]	nooke[enekééye]	naake[enekééye]	ntoke[enekééye]	mmoke[enekééye]	mbake[enekééye]	lay out
araachana	neŋke[araácháíni]	nooke[araácháíni]	naake[araácháíni]	ntoke[araácháíni]	mmoke[araácháíni]	mbake[araácháíni]	cross, fold
		cused (present, past, future	, ,				
ha	nee[ha]	noo[ha]	naa[ha]	nto[ha]	mmo[ha]	mba[ha]	give
rea	neen[dya]	noo[rya]	naa[rya]	nto[rya]	mmo[rya]	mba[rya]	eat
sea	neen[sya]	noo[sya]	naa[sya]	nto[sya]	mmo[sya]	mba[sya]	grind
roma	neen[domă]	noo[romă]	naa[romă]	nto[romă]	mmo[romă]	mba[romă]	bite
buna	niim[bună]	nuu[bună]	naa[bună]	ntu[bună]	mmu[bună]	mba[bună]	break
biima	niim[biimá]	nuu[biimá]	naa[biimá]	ntu[biimă]	mmu[biimá]	mba[biimá]	measure
saamba	neen[saambá]	noo[saambá]	naa[saambá]	nto[saambá]	mmo[saambá]	mba[saambá]	burn
tereka	neen[tɛrɛká]	noo[tɛrɛká]	naa[tɛrɛká]	nto[tɛrɛká]	mmo[tɛrɛká]	mba[tɛrɛká]	brew
sukura	niin[sukurá]	nuu[sukurá]	naa[sukurá]	ntu[sukură]	mmu[sukurá]	mba[sukurá]	rub
heetoka	nee[heetóka]	noo[heetóka]	naa[heetóka]	nto[heetóka]	mmo[heetóka]	mba[heetóka]	remember

taandora	neen[taandóra]	noo[taandóra]	naa[taandóra]	nto[taandóra]	mmo[taandóra]	mba[taandóra]	tear
karaanga	neen[karaánga]	noo[karaánga]	naa[karaánga]	nto[karaánga]	mmo[karaánga]	mba[karaánga]	fry
hagaacha	nee[hagaácha]	noo[hagaácha]	naa[hagaácha]	nto[hagaácha]	mmo[hagaácha]	mba[hagaácha]	build
taangaasa	neen[taangáása]	noo[taangáása]	naa[taangáása]	nto[taangáása]	mmo[taangáása]	mba[taangáása]	announce
siitaaka	niin[siitááka]	nuu[siitááka]	naa[siitááka]	ntu[siitááka]	mmu[siitááka]	mba[siitááka]	accuse
teremeka	neen[tereméka]	noo[tereméka]	naa[tereméka]	nto[tereméka]	mmo[tereméka]	mba[tereméka]	be calm
berekera	neem[berekéra]	noo[berekéra]	naa[berekéra]	nto[berekéra]	mmo[berekéra]	mba[berekéra]	call
turuuŋana	niin[turuúŋána]	nuu[turuúŋána]	naa[turuúŋána]	ntu[turuúŋána]	mmu[turuúŋána]	mba[turuúŋána]	welcome
koondokora	neen[koondókóra]	noo[koondókóra]	naa[koondókóra]	nto[koondókóra]	mmo[koondókóra]	mba[koondókóra]	uncover
kirigiita	niin[kirigííta]	nuu[kirigííta]	naa[kirigííta]	ntu[kirigííta]	mmu[kirigííta]	mba[kirigííta]	scrub
hootootera	nee[hootóótéra]	noo[hootóótéra]	naa[hootóótéra]	nto[hootóótéra]	mmo[hootóótéra]	mba[hootóótéra]	reassure
	with object prefix						
ha	neen[gahă]	noo[gahă]	naa[gahă]	nto[gahă]	mmo[gahă]	mba[gahă]	give
rea	neen[garyă]	noo[garyă]	naa[garyǎ]	nto[garyă]	mmo[garyă]	mba[garyă]	eat
roma	neen[garomá]	noo[garomá]	naa[garomá]	nto[garomá]	mmo[garomá]	mba[garomá]	bite
biima	neen[gabiíma]	noo[gabiíma]	naa[gabiíma]	nto[gabiíma]	mmo[gabiíma]	mba[gabiíma]	measure
saamba	neen[gasaámba]	noo[gasaámba]	naa[gasaámba]	nto[gasaámba]	mmo[gasaámba]	mba[gasaámba]	burn
tereka	neen[gatɛréka]	noo[gateréka]	naa[gatɛréka]	nto[gatɛréka]	mmo[gateréka]	mba[gateréka]	brew
heetoka	neen[gaheétóka]	noo[gaheétóka]	naa[gaheétóka]	nto[gaheétóka]	mmo[gaheétóka]	mba[gaheétóka]	remember
karaanga	neen[gakaráánga]	noo[gakaráánga]	naa[gakaráánga]	nto[gakaráánga]	mmo[gakaráánga]	mba[gakaráánga]	fry
berekera	neen[gaberékéra]	noo[gaberékéra]	naa[gaberékéra]	nto[gaberékéra]	mmo[gaberékéra]	mba[gaberékéra]	call
turuuŋana	neen[gaturúúŋána]	noo[gaturúúŋána]	naa[gaturúúŋána]	nto[gaturúúŋána]	mmo[gaturúúŋána]	mba[gaturúúŋána]	welcome
koondokora	neen[gakoóndókóra]	noo[gakoóndókóra]	naa[gakoóndókóra]	nto[gakoóndókóra]	mmo[gakoóndókóra]	mba[gakoóndókóra]	uncover
	vowel-initial verbs						
ia	nii[ya]	nuu[ya]	naa[ya]	ntu[ya]	mmu[ya]	mba[ya]	go
aga	nna[agă]	wa[agă]	na[agă]	nto[ogă]	mmo[ogă]	mba[agă]	weed
igora	nni[igorá]	wi[igorá]	na[igorá]	ntu[igorá]	mmwi[igorá]	mba[igorá]	open
oboha	nno[obohá]	wo[obohá]	no[obohá]	nto[obohá]	mmo[obohá]	mbo[obohá]	fear
igoomba	nni[igoómba]	wi[igoómba]	na[igoómba]	ntu[igoómba]	mmu[igoómba]	mba[igoómba]	desire
anekera	nna[anekéra]	wa[anekéra]	na[anekéra]	ntoko[onekéra]	mmo[onekéra]	mba[anekéra]	lay out
araachana	nna[araáchána]	wa[araáchána]	na[araáchána]	nto[oraáchána]	mmo[oraáchána]	mba[araáchána]	cross, fold

#### PATTERN 3B: H on V3 (NO SPREAD)

### Mandatory Imperative - e.g. "eat!"

[haaná]	alternative version	[haanà]	give!
[karyă]		[karyà]	eat!
[gasyǎ]		[gasyà]	grind!
[romă]		[romà]	bite!
[bună]		[bunà]	break!
[biimá]		[biimà]	measure!
[tɛrɛká]		[tɛrɛkà]	brew!
[sukurá]		[sukurà]	rub!
[heetóka]			remember!
[taandóra]			tear!
[karaánga]			fry!
[hagaácha]			build!
[taangáása]			announce!
[siitááka]			accuse!
[tereméka]			be calm!
[berekéra]			call!
[turuúŋanà]			welcome!
[koondókorà]			uncover!
[kirigííta]			scrub!
[hootóóterà]			reassure!
vowel initial verbs			
[kayí]		[káya] / [káyi]	go!
[a!gá]		[agà]	weed!
[igorá]		[igorà]	open!
[obohá]		[obohà]	fear!
[igoómba]			desire!
[anekéra]			lay out!
[araáchanà]			cross, fold!

#### PATTERN 4: H on V4 (SPREAD)

Immediate I	Immediate Past Anterior - e.g. "I have just eaten"								
	1st P. (S)	2nd P. (S)	1st P. (PL)	2nd P. (PL)					
ha	[haayě]	oo[haayĕ]	too[haayĕ]	moo[haayě]	give				
rea	n[deeyě]	oo[reeyĕ]	too[reeyě]	moo[reeyě]	eat				
sea	n[seeyě]	oo[seeyě]	too[seeyě]	moo[seeyě]	grind				
roma	n[domerě]	oo[romerě]	too[romerě]	moo[romerě]	bite				
buna	m[bunirě]	uu[bunirĕ]	tuu[bunirě]	muu[bunirĕ]	break				
biima	m[biimiré]	uu[biimiré]	tuu[biimiré]	muu[biimiré]	measure				
saamba	n[saamberé]	oo[saamberé]	too[saamberé]	moo[saamberé]	burn				
tereka	n[tɛrɛkeré]	oo[tɛrɛkeré]	too[tɛrɛkeré]	moo[tɛrɛkeré]	brew				
sukura	n[sukuuyé]	uu[sukuuyé]	tuu[sukuuyé]	muu[sukuuyé]	rub				
heetoka	[heetokére]	oo[heetokére]	too[heetokére]	moo[heetokére]	remember				
taandora	n[taandoóye]	oo[taandoóye]	too[taandoóye]	moo[taandoóye]	tear				
karaanga	ŋ[karaangére]	oo[karaangére]	too[karaangére]	moo[karaangére]	fry				
hagaacha	[hagaachére]	oo[hagaachére]	too[hagaachére]	moo[hagaachére]	build				
taangaasa	n[taangaásére]	oo[taangaásére]	too[taangaásére]	moo[taangaásére]	announce				
siitaaka	n[siitaákére]	uu[siitaákére]	tuu[siitaákére]	muu[siitaákére]	accuse				
teremeka	n[teremekére]	oo[teremekére]	too[teremekére]	moo[teremekére]	be calm				
berekera	m[berekeéye]	oo[berekeéye]	too[berekeéye]	moo[berekeéye]	call				
turuuŋana	n[turuuŋáíni]	uu[turuuŋáíni]	tuu[turuuŋáíni]	muu[turuuŋáíni]	welcome				
koondokora	ŋ[koondokóóye]	oo[koondokóóye]	too[koondokóóye]	moo[koondokóóye]	uncover				
kirigiita	ŋ[kirigiítíre]	uu[kirigiítíre]	tuu[kirigiítíre]	muu[kirigiítíre]	scrub				
hootootera	[hootoótééye]	oo[hootoótééye]	too[hootoótééye]	moo[hootoótééye]	reassure				
	with object prefix								
	1st P. (S)	2nd P. (S)	1st P. (PL)	2nd P. (PL)					
ha	ŋ[gahaayé]	oo[gahaayé]	too[gahaayé]	moo[gahaayé]	give				
rea	ŋ[gareeyé]	oo[gareeyé]	too[gareeyé]	moo[gareeyé]	eat				
sea	ŋ[gaseeyé]	oo[gaseeyé]	too[gaseeyé]	moo[gaseeyé]	grind				
roma	ŋ[garomeré]	oo[garomeré]	too[garomeré]	moo[garomeré]	bite				
buna	ŋ[gabuniré]	oo[gabuniré]	too[gabuniré]	moo[gabuniré]	break				
biima	ŋ[gabiimíre]	oo[gabiimíre]	too[gabiimíre]	moo[gabiimíre]	measure				

saamba	ŋ[gasaambére]	oo[gasaambére]	too[gasaambére]	moo[gasaambére]	burn
tereka	ŋ[gaterekére]	oo[gaterekére]	too[gaterekére]	moo[gaterekére]	brew
sukura	ŋ[gasukuúye]	oo[gasukuúye]	too[gasukuúye]	moo[gasukuúye]	rub
heetoka	ŋ[gaheetókére]	oo[gaheetókére]	too[gaheetókére]	moo[gaheetókére]	remember
taandora	n[gataandóóye]	oo[gataandóóye]	too[gataandóóye]	moo[gataandóóye]	tear
karaanga	ŋ[gakaraángére]	oo[gakaraángére]	too[gakaraángére]	moo[gakaraángére]	fry
hagaacha	ŋ[gahagaáchére]	oo[gahagaáchére]	too[gahagaáchére]	moo[gahagaáchére]	build
taangaasa	ŋ[gataangáásére]	oo[gataangáásére]	too[gataangáásére]	moo[gataangáásére]	announce
siitaaka	n[gasiitáákére]	oo[gasiitáákére]	too[gasiitáákére]	mo[gasiitáákére]	accuse
berekera	ŋ[gaberekééye]	oo[gaberekééye]	too[gaberekééye]	moo[gaberekééye]	call
turuuŋana	ŋ[gaturuúŋáíni]	oo[gaturuúŋáíni]	too[gaturuúŋáíni]	moo[gaturuúŋáíni]	welcome
koondokora	ŋ[gakoondókóóye]	oo[gakoondókóóye]	too[gakoondókóóye]	moo[gakoondókóóye]	uncover
kirigiita	ŋ[gakirigíítíre]	oo[gakirigíítíre]	too[gakirigíítíre]	moo[gakirigíítíre]	scrub
hootootera	ŋ[gahootóótééye]	oo[gahootóótééye]	too[gahootóótééye]	moo[gahootóótééye]	reassure
	vowel-initial verbs				
ia	ŋ[geeyě]	oo[geeyě]	too[geeyě]	moo[geeyě]	go
aga	na[agerě]	wa[agerě]	to[ogerě]	mo[ogerě]	weed
igora	ni[igooyé]	wi[igooyé]	tu[igooyé]	mu[igooyé]	open
oboha	no[oboheré]	wo[oboheré]	to[oboheré]	mo[oboheré]	fear
igoomba	ni[igoombére]	wi[igoombére]	tu[igoombére]	mu[igoombére]	desire
anekera	na[anekeéye]	wa[anekeéye]	to[onekeéye]	mo[onekeéye]	lay out
araachana	na[araacháíni]	wa[araachaíni]	to[oraachaíni]	mo[oraacháíni]	cross, fold
	with object prefix				
aga	ŋ[gaageré]	oo[gaageré]	too[gaageré]	moo[gaageré]	weed
oboha	ŋ[goobohére]	oo[goobohére]	too[goobohére]	moo[goobohére]	fear
igora	ŋ[gaigoóye]	oo[gaigoóye]	too[gaigoóye]	moo[gaigoóye]	open
igoomba	ŋ[gaigoómbére]	oo[gaigoómbére]	too[gaigoómbére]	moo[gaigoómbére]	desire
anekera	ŋ[gaanekééye]	oo[gaanekééye]	too[gaanekééye]	moo[gaanekééye]	lay out
araachana	ŋ[gaaraácháíni]	oo[gaaraácháíni]	too[gaaraácháíni]	moo[gaaraácháíni]	cross, fold

Hortatory I	Hortatory Imperative (3) - e.g. "I am going/about to eat"								
ha	nda[ha]	ora[ha]	tora[ha]	mora[ha]	give				
rea	nda[rya]	ora[rya]	tora[rya]	mora[rya]	eat				
sea	nda[sya]	ora[sya]	tora[sya]	mora[sya]	grind				
roma	nda[roma]	ora[roma]	tora[roma]	mora[roma]	bite				
buna	nda[buna]	ora[buna]	tora[buna]	mora[buna]	break				
biima	nda[biimă]	ora[biimă]	tora[biimă]	mora[biimă]	measure				
saamba	nda[saambă]	ora[saambă]	tora[saambă]	mora[saambă]	burn				
tereka	nda[tɛrɛkă]	ora[tɛrɛkă]	tora[tɛrɛkă]	mora[tɛrɛkă]	brew				
sukura	nda[sukură]	ora[sukură]	tora[sukură]	mora[sukură]	rub				
heetoka	nda[heetoká]	ora[heetoká]	tora[heetoká]	mora[heetoká]	remember				
taandora	nda[taandorá]	ora[taandorá]	tora[taandorá]	mora[taandorá]	tear				
karaanga	nda[karaangá]	ora[karaangá]	tora[karaangá]	mora[karaangá]	fry				
hagaacha	nda[hagaachá]	ora[hagaachá]	tora[hagaachá]	mora[hagaachá]	build				
taangaasa	nda[taangaása]	ora[taangaása]	tora[taangaása]	mora[taangaása]	announce				
siitaaka	nda[siitaáka]	ora[siitaáka]	tora[siitaáka]	mora[siitaáka]	accuse				
teremeka	nda[teremeká]	ora[teremeká]	tora[teremeká]	mora[teremeká]	be calm				
berekera	nda[berekerá	ora[berekerá]	tora[berekerá]	mora[berekerá]	call				
turuuŋana	nda[turuungána]	ora[turuungána]	tora[turuungána]	mora[turuungána]	welcome				
koondokora	nda[koondokóra]	ora[koondokóra]	tora[koondokóra]	mora[koondokóra]	uncover				
kirigiita	nda[kirigiíta]	ora[kirigiíta]	tora[kirigiíta]	mora[kirigiíta]	scrub				
hootootera	nda[hootoótéra]	ora[hootoótéra]	tora[hootoótéra]	mora[hootoótéra]	reassure				
	vowel-initial verbs								
ia	nda[ya]	ora[ya]	tora[ya]	mora[ya]	go				
aga	nda[aga]	ora[aga]	tora[aga]	mora[aga]	weed				
igora	nda[igoră]	ora[igoră]	tora[igoră]	mora[igoră]	open				
oboha	ndo[obohá]	oro[obohá]	toro[obohá]	moro[obohá]	fear				
igoomba	nda[igoombá]	ora[igoombá]	tora[igoombá]	mora[igoombá]	desire				
anekera	nda[anekerá]	ora[anekerá]	tora[ánékerá]	mora[anekerá]	lay out				
araachana	nda[araachána]	ora[araachána]	tora[araachána]	mora[araachána]	cross, fold				

#### PATTERN 5A: H on V1 and V4 (ALL PERSONS) (SPREAD)

Narrative l	Narrative Past - e.g. "(and) I ate"							
ha	ŋká[ha]	oká[ha]	aká[ha]	toká[ha]	moká[ha]	baká[ha]	give	
rea	ŋká[rya]	oká[rya]	aká[rya]	toká[rya]	moká[rya]	baká[rya]	eat	
sea	ŋgá[sya]	ogá[sya]	agá[sya]	togá[sya]	mogá[sya]	bagá[sya]	grind	
roma	ŋká[róma]	oká[róma]	aká[róma]	toká[róma]	moká[róma]	baká[róma]	bite	
buna	ŋká[búna]	oká[búna]	aká[búna]	toká[búna]	moká[búna]	baká[búna]	break	
biima	ŋká[bííma]	oká[bííma]	aká[bííma]	toká[bííma]	moká[bííma]	baká[bííma]	measure	
saamba	ŋká[sáámba]	oká[sáámba]	aká[sáámba]	toká[sáámba]	moká[sáámba]	baká[sáámba]	burn	
tereka	ŋgá[téréka]	ogá[téréka]	agá[téréka]	togá[téréka]	mogá[téréka]	bagá[téréka]	brew	
sukura	ŋgá[súkúra]	ogá[súkúra]	agá[súkúra]	togá[súkúra]	mogá[súkúra]	ba[gásúkúra]	rub	
heetoka	ŋká[héétoká]	oká[héétoká]	aká[héétoká]	toká[héétoká]	moká[héétoká]	baká[héétoká]	remember	
taandora	ŋgá[táándorá]	ogá[táándorá]	agá[táándorá]	togá[táándorá]	mogá[táándorá]	bagá[táándorá]	tear	
karaanga	ŋgá[káraangá]	ogá[káraangá]	agá[káraangá]	togá[káraangá]	mogá[káraangá]	bagá[káraangá]	fry	
hagaacha	ŋká[hágaachá]	oká[hágaachá]	aká[hágaachá]	toká[hágaachá]	moká[hágaachá]	baká[hágaachá]	build	
taangaasa	ŋgá[táángaása]	ogá[táángaása]	agá[táángaása]	togá[táángaása]	mogá[táángaása]	bagá[táángaása]	announce	
siitaaka	ngá[síítaáka]	ogá[síítaáka]	agá[síítaáka]	togá[síítaáka]	mogá[síítaáka]	bagá[síítaáka]	accuse	
teremeka	ŋgá[térémeká]	ogá[térémeká]	agá[térémeká]	togá[térémeká]	mogá[térémeká]	bagá[térémeká]	be calm	
berekera	ŋká[bérékerá]	oká[bérékerá]	aká[bérékerá]	toká[bérékerá]	moká[bérékerá]	baká[bérékerá]	call	
turuuŋana	ŋgá[túruuŋána]	ogá[túruuŋána]	agá[túruuŋána]	togá[túruuŋána]	mogá[túruuŋána]	bagá[túruuŋána]	welcome	
koondokora	n ngá[kóóndokóra]	ogá[kóóndokóra]	agá[kóóndokóra]	togá[kóóndokóra]	mogá[kóóndokóra]	bagá[kóóndokóra]	uncover	
kirigiita	ŋgá[kírígiíta]	ogá[kírígiíta]	agá[kírígiíta]	togá[kírígiíta]	mogá[kírígiíta]	bagá[kírígiíta]	scrub	
hootootera	ŋká[hóótoótéra]	oká[hóótoótéra]	aká[hóótoótéra]	toká[hóótoótéra]	moká[hóótoótéra]	baká[hóótoótéra]	reassure	
	with object prefix							
ha	ŋká[gáha]	oká[gáha]	aká[gáha]	toká[gáha]	moká[gáha]	baká[gáha]	give	
rea	ŋká[gárya]	oká[gárya]	aká[gárya]	toká[gárya]	moká[gárya]	baká[gárya]	eat	
roma	ŋká[gáróma]	oká[gáróma]	aká[gáróma]	toká[gáróma]	moká[gáróma]	baká[gáróma]	bite	
biima	ŋká[gábiimá]	oká[gábiimá]	aká[gábiimá]	toká[gábiimá]	moká[gábiimá]	baká[gábiimá]	measure	
saamba	ŋká[gásaambá]	oká[gásaambá]	aká[gásaambá]	toká[gásaambá]	moká[gásaambá]	baká[gáísaambá]	burn	
tereka	ŋká[gátéreká]	oká[gátéreká]	aká[gátéreká]	toká[gátéreká]	moká[gátéreká]	baká[gátéreká]	brew	
heetoka	ŋká[gáheetóka]	oká[gáheetóka]	aká[gáheetóka]	toká[gáheetóka]	moká[gáheetóka]	baká[gáheetóka]	remember	
karaanga	ŋká[gákáraánga]	oká[gákáraánga]	aká[gákáraánga]	toká[gákáraánga]	moká[gákáraánga]	baká[gákáraánga]	fry	

berekera turuuŋana	ŋká[gábérekérá] ŋká[gátúruúŋána]	oká[gábérekérá] oká[gátúruúŋána]	aká[gábérekérá] aká[gátúruúŋána]	toká[gábérekérá] toká[gátúruúŋána]	moká[gábérekérá] moká[gátúruúŋána]	baká[gábérekérá] baká[gátúruúŋána]	call welcome
	vowel-initial verbs						
ia	ŋká[ya]	oká[ya]	aká[ya]	toká[ya]	moká[ya]	baká[ya]	go
aga	ŋká[ága]	oká[ága]	aká[ága]	toká[ága]	moká[ága]	baká[ága]	weed
igora	ŋká[ígóra]	oká[ígóra]	aká[ígóra]	toká[ígóra]	moká[ígóra]	baká[ígóra]	open
oboha	ŋkó[óbóha]	okó[óbóha]	akó[óbóha]	tokó[óbóha]	mokó[óbóha]	bakó[óbóha]	fear
igoomba	ŋká[ígoombá]	oká[ígoombá]	aká[ígoombá]	toká[ígoombá]	moká[ígoombá]	baká[ígoombá]	desire
anekera	ŋká[ánékerá]	oká[ánékerá]	aká[ánékerá]	toká[ánékerá]	moká[ánékerá]	baká[ánékerá]	lay out
araachana	ŋká[áraachána]	oká[áraachána]	aká[áraachána]	toká[áraachána]	moká[áraachána]	baká[áraachána]	cross, fold
Hodiernal l	Future Uncertain Possibilit	ty - e.g. "Perhaps I will eat (t	oday)"				
ha	ŋkaa[há]	okaa[há]	akaa[há]	tokaa[há]	mokaa[há]	bakaa[há]	give
rea	ŋkaa[ryá]	okaa[ryá]	akaa[ryá]	tokaa[ryá]	mokaa[ryá]	bakaa[ryá]	eat
sea	ŋgaa[syá]	ogaa[syá]	agaa[syá]	togaa[syá]	mogaa[syá]	bagaa[syá]	grind
roma	ŋkaa[róma]	okaa[róma]	akaa[róma]	tokaa[róma]	mokaa[róma]	bakaa[róma]	bite
buna	ŋkaa[búna]	okaa[búna]	akaa[búna]	tokaa[búna]	mokaa[búna]	bakaa[búna]	break
biima	ŋkaa[bíímá]	okaa[bíímá]	akaa[bíímá]	tokaa[bíímá]	mokaa[bíímá]	bakaa[bíímá]	measure
saamba	ŋkaa[sáámbá]	okaa[sáámbá]	akaa[sáámbá]	togaa[sáámbá]	mogaa[sáámbá]	bagaa[sáámbá]	burn
tereka	ŋgaa[térékă]	ogaa[térékă]	agaa[térékă]	togaa[térékă]	mogaa[térékă]	bagaa[térékă]	brew
sukura	ŋgaa[súkúră	ogaa[súkúră	agaa[súkúră	togaa[súkúră	mogaa[súkúră	bagaa[súkúră	rub
heetoka	ŋkaa[héétóká]	okaa[héétóká]	akaa[héétóká]	tokaa[héétóká]	mokaa[héétóká]	bakaa[héétóká]	remember
taandora	ŋgaa[táándórá]	ogaa[táándórá]	agaa[táándórá]	togaa[táándórá]	mogaa[táándórá]	bagaa[táándórá]	tear
karaanga	ŋgaa[káraangá]	ogaa[káraangá]	agaa[káraangá]	togaa[káraangá]	mokaa[káraangá]	bagaa[káraangá]	fry
hagaacha	ŋkaa[hágaachá]	okaa[hágaachá]	akaa[hágaachá]	tokaa[hágaachá]	mokaa[hágaachá]	bakaa[hágaachá]	build
taangaasa	ŋgaa[táángáása]	ogaa[táángáása]	agaa[táángáása]	togaa[táángáása]	mogaa[táángáása]	bagaa[táángáása]	announce
siitaaka	ngaa[síítááka]	ogaa[síítááka]	agaa[síítááka]	togaa[síítááka]	mogaa[síítááka]	bagaa[síítááka]	accuse
teremeka	ŋgaa[térémeká]	ogaa[térémeká]	agaa[térémeká]	togaa[térémeká]	mogaa[térémeká]	bagaa[térémeká]	be calm
berekera	ŋkaa[bérékerá]	okaa[bérékerá]	akaa[bérékerá]	tokaa[bérékerá]	mokaa[bérékerá]	bakaa[bérékerá]	call
turuuŋana	ŋgaa[túruuŋána]	ogaa[túruuŋána]	agaa[túruuŋána]	togaa[túruuŋána]	mogaa[túruuŋána]	bagaa[túruuŋána]	welcome
koondokora	ngaa[kóóndókóra]	ogaa[kóóndókóra]	agaa[kóóndókóra]	togaa[kóóndókóra]	mogaa[kóóndókóra]	bagaa[kóóndókóra]	uncover
kirigiita	ŋgaa[kírígiíta]	ogaa[kírígiíta]	agaa[kírígiíta]	togaa[kírígiíta]	mogaa[kírígiíta]	bagaa[kírígiíta]	scrub

ho	ootootera	ŋkaa[hóótóótéra]	okaa[hóótóótéra]	akaa[hóótóótéra]	tokaa[hóótóótéra]	mokaa[hóótóótéra]	bakaa[hóótóótéra]	reassure
		with object prefix						
ha	ı	ŋkaa[gáhá]	okaa[gáhá]	akaa[gáhá]	tokaa[gáhá]	mokaa[gáhá]	bakaa[gáhá]	give
re	a	ŋkaa[gáryá]	okaa[gáryá]	akaa[gáryá]	tokaa[gáryá]	mokaa[gáryá]	bakaa[gáryá]	eat
ro	ma	ŋkaa[gárómă]	okaa[gárómă]	akaa[gárómă]	tokaa[gárómă]	mokaa[gárómă]	bakaa[gárómă]	bite
bi	ima	ŋkaa[gábiimá]	okaa[gábiimá]	akaa[gábiimá]	tokaa[gábiimá]	mokaa[gábiimá]	bakaa[gábiimá]	measure
sa	amba	ŋkaa[gásaambá]	okaa[gásaambá]	akaa[gásaambá]	tokaa[gásaambá]	mokaa[gásaambá]	bakaa[gásaambá]	burn
tε	reka	ŋkaa[gátéreká]	okaa[gátéreká]	akaa[gátéreká]	tokaa[gátéreká]	mokaa[gátéreká]	bakaa[gátéreká]	brew
he	etoka	ŋkaa[gáheetóka]	okaa[gáheetóka]	akaa[gáheetóka]	tokaa[gáheetóka]	mokaa[gáheetóka]	bakaa[gáheetóka]	remember
ka	ıraanga	ŋkaa[gákáraánga]	okaa[gákáraánga]	akaa[gákáraánga]	tokaa[gákáraánga]	mokaa[gákáraánga]	bakaa[gákáraánga]	fry
be	erekera	ŋkaa[gábérekéra]	okaa[gábérekéra	akaa[gábérekéra	tokaa[gábérekéra	mokaa[gábérekéra	bakaa[gábérekéra	call
tu	ruuŋana	ŋkaa[gátúruúŋána]	okaa[gátúruúŋána]	akaa[gátúruúŋána]	tokaa[gátúruúŋána]	mokaa[gátúruúŋána]	bakaa[gátúruúŋána]	welcome
kc	ondokora	ŋkaa[gákoondókóra]	okaa[gákoondókóra]	akaa[gákoondókóra]	tokaa[gákoondókóra]	mokaa[gákoondókóra]	bakaa[gákoondókóra]	uncover
		vowel-initial verbs						
ia		ŋkaa[yá]	okaa[yá]	akaa[yá]	tokaa[yá]	mokaa[yá]	bakaa[yá]	go
ag	ga	ŋka[agá]	oka[agá]	aka[agá]	toka[agá]	moka[agá]	baka[agá]	weed
ig	ora	ŋka[igórá]	oka[igórá]	aka[igórá]	toka[igórá]	moka[igórá]	baka[igórá]	open
ob	oha	ŋko[obóhá]	oko[obóhá]	ako[obóhá]	toko[obóhá]	moko[obóhá]	bako[obóhá]	fear
ig	oomba	ŋka[igóómbá]	oka[igóómbá]	aka[igóómbá]	toka[igóómbá]	moka[igóómbá]	baka[igóómbá]	desire
an	iekera	ŋka[anékérá]	oka[anékérá]	aka[anékérá]	toka[anékérá]	moka[anékérá]	baka[anékérá]	lay out
ar	aachana	ŋka[arááchána]	oka[arááchána]	aka[arááchána]	toka[arááchána]	moka[arááchána]	baka[arááchána]	cross, fold
R	emote Futu	re e.g. "I will eat"						
ha	ı	ndee[há]	oree[há]	aree[há]	toree[há]	moree[há]	baree[há]	give
re	a	ndee[ryá]	oree[ryá]	aree[ryá]	toree[ryá]	moree[ryá]	baree[ryá]	eat
se	a	ndee[syá]	oree[syá]	aree[syá]	toree[syá]	moree[syá]	baree[syá]	grind
ro	ma	ndee[róma]	oree[róma]	aree[róma]	toree[róma]	moree[róma]	baree[róma]	bite
bu	ına	ndii[búna]	urii[búna]	arii[búna]	turii[búna]	murii[búna]	barii[búna]	break
bi	ima	ndii[bíímá]	urii[bíímá]	arii[bíímá]	turii[bíímá]	murii[bíímá]	barii[bíímá]	measure
sa	amba	ndee[sáámbá]	oree[sáámbá]	aree[sáámbá]	toree[sáámbá]	moree[sáámbá]	baree[sáámbá]	burn
tει	reka	ndee[térékă]	oree[térékă]	aree[térékă]	toree[térékă]	moree[térékă]	baree[térékă]	brew
su	kura	ndii[súkúră	urii[súkúră	arii[súkúră	turii[súkúră	murii[súkúră	barii[súkúră	rub
		_	_					

heetoka	ndee[héétóká]	oree[héétóká]	aree[héétóká]	toree[héétóká]	moree[héétóká]	baree[héétóká]	remember
taandora	ndee[táándórá]	oree[táándórá]	aree[táándórá]	toree[táándórá]	moree[táándórá]	baree[táándórá]	tear
karaanga	ndee[káraangá]	oree[káraangá]	aree[káraangá]	toree[káraangá]	moree[káraangá]	baree[káraangá]	fry
hagaacha	ndee[hágaachá]	oree[hágaachá]	aree[hágaachá]	toree[hágaachá]	moree[hágaachá]	baree[hágaachá]	build
taangaasa	ndee[táángáása]	oree[táángáása]	aree[táángáása]	toree[táángáása]	moree[táángáása]	baree[táángáása]	announce
siitaaka	ndii[síítááka]	orii[síítááka]	arii[síítááka]	turii[síítááka]	murii[síítááka]	barii[síítááka]	accuse
teremeka	ndee[térémeká]	oree[térémeká]	aree[térémeká]	toree[térémeká]	moree[térémeká]	baree[térémeká]	be calm
berekera	ndee[bérékerá]	oree[bérékerá]	aree[bérékerá]	toree[bérékerá]	moree[bérékerá]	baree[bérékerá]	call
turuuŋana	ndii[túruuŋána]	urii[túruuŋána]	arii[túruuŋána]	turii[túruuŋána]	murii[túruuŋána]	barii[túruuŋána]	welcome
koondokora	ndee[kóóndókóra]	oree[kóóndókóra]	aree[kóóndókóra]	toree[kóóndókóra]	moree[kóóndókóra]	baree[kóóndókóra]	uncover
kirigiita	ndii[kírígiíta]	urii[kírígiíta]	arii[kírígiíta]	turii[kírígiíta]	murii[kírígiíta]	barii[kírígiíta]	scrub
hootootera	ndee[hóótóótéra]	oree[hóótóótéra]	aree[hóótóótéra]	toree[hóótóótéra]	moree[hóótóótéra]	baree[hóótóótéra]	reassure
	with object prefix						
ha	ndee[gáha]	oree[gáha]	aree[gáha]	toree[gáha]	moree[gáha]	baree[gáha]	give
ha	ndee[gáhá]	oree[gáhá]	aree[gáhá]	toree[gáhá]	moree[gáhá]	baree[gáhá]	give
rea	ndee[gáryá]	oree[gáryá]	aree[gáryá]	toree[gáryá]	moree[gáryá]	baree[gáryá]	eat
rea	ndee[gárya]	oree[gárya]	aree[gárya]	toree[gárya]	moree[gárya]	baree[gárya]	eat
roma	ndee[gárómă]	oree[gárómă]	aree[gárómă]	toree[gárómă]	moree[gárómă]	baree[gárómă]	bite
biima	ndee[gábiimá]	oree[gábiimá]	aree[gábiimá]	toree[gábiimá]	moree[gábiimá]	baree[gábiimá]	measure
saamba	ndee[gásaambá]	oree[gásaambá]	aree[gásaambá]	toree[gásaambá]	moree[gásaambá]	baree[gásaambá]	burn
tereka	ndee[gátéreká]	oree[gátéreká]	aree[gátéreká]	toree[gátéreká]	moree[gátéreká]	baree[gátéreká]	brew
heetoka	ndee[gáheetóka]	oree[gáheetóka]	aree[gáheetóka]	toree[gáheetóka]	moree[gáheetóka]	baree[gáheetóka]	remember
karaanga	ndee[gákáraánga]	oree[gákáraánga]	aree[gákáraánga]	toree[gákáraánga]	moree[gákáraánga]	baree[gákáranga]	fry
berekera	ndee[gábérekéra]	oree[gábérekéra]	aree[gábérekéra]	toree[gábérekéra]	moree[gábérekéra]	baree[gábérekéra]	call
turuuŋana	ndee[gátúruúŋána]	oree[gátúruúŋána]	aree[gátúruúŋána]	toree[gátúruúŋána]	moree[gátúruúŋána]	baree[gátúruúŋána]	welcome
koondokora	ndee[gákoondókóra]	oree[gákoondókóra]	aree[gákoondókóra]	toree[gákoondókóra]	moree[gákoondókóra]	baree[gákoondókóra]	uncover
	vowel-initial verbs						
ia	ndii[yá]	urii[yá]	arii[yá]	turii[yá]	murii[yá]	barii[yá]	go
aga	ndɛ[ɛgá]	ore[egá]	arɛ[ɛgá]	torɛ[ɛgá]	more[egá]	barɛ[ɛgá]	weed
igora	ndi[igórá]	uri[igórá]	ari[igórá]	turi[igórá]	muri[igórá]	bari[igórá]	open
oboha	ndi[obóhá]	uri[obóhá]	ari[obóhá]	turi[obóhá]	muri[obóhá]	bari[obóhá]	fear
igoomba	ndi[igóómbá]	uri[igóómbá]	ari[igóómbá]	turi[igóómbá]	muri[igóómbá]	bari[igóómbá]	desire
anekera	ndɛ[ɛnékérá]	orε[εnékérá]	arɛ[ɛnékérá]	torɛ[ɛnékérá]	morε[εnékérá]	barɛ[ɛnékérá]	lay out

araachana	ndɛ[ɛrááchána]	orɛ[ɛrááchána]	arɛ[ɛrááchána]	tore[ɛrááchána]	more[erááchána]	bare[erááchána]	cross, fold
PATTERN	5B: H on V1 and V4 (1	THIRD PERSON) (SPREA	LD)				
Immediate	<b>Past Anterior -</b> e.g."I ha	ava just astan"					
Illilleulate	1st P. (SG)	2nd P. (SG)	3rd P. (SG)	1st P. (PL)	2nd P. (PL)	3rd P. (PL)	
ha	13(1. (50)	2liu 1 . (5G)	aa[hááyé]	13t 1 . (1 <i>L)</i>	21ld 1 . (1 L)	baa[hááyé]	give
rea			aa[rééyé]			baa[rééyé]	eat
sea			aa[sééyé]			baa[sééyé]	grind
roma			aa[rómérě]			baa[rómérě]	bite
buna			aa[búnírě]			baa[búnírě]	break
biima			aa[bíímíré]			baa[bíímíré]	measure
saamba			aa[sáámbéré]			baa[sáámbéré]	burn
tereka			aa[térékeré]			baa[térékeré]	brew
sukura			aa[súkuuyé]			baa[súkuuyé]	rub
heetoka			aa[héétókére]			baa[héétókére]	remember
taandora			aa[táándóóye]			baa[táándóóye]	tear
karaanga			aa[káraangére]			baa[káraangére]	fry
hagaacha			aa[hágaachére]			baa[hágaachére]	build
taangaasa			aa[táángáásére]			baa[táángáásére]	announce
siitaaka			aa[síítáákére]			baa[síítáákére]	accuse
teremeka			aa[térémekére]			baa[térémekére]	be calm
berekera			aa[bérékeéye]			baa[bérékeéye]	call
turuuŋana			aa[túruuŋáíni]			baa[túruuŋáíni]	welcome
koondokora			aa[kóóndókóóye]			baa[kóóndókóóye]	uncover
kirigiita			aa[kírígiítíre]			baa[kírígiítíre]	scrub
hootootera			aa[hóótóótééye]			baa[hóótóótééye]	reassure
nootootera	with object prefix		uuinootooteeyej			oun[notiotecyc]	reassure
	1st P. (SG)	2nd P. (SG)	3rd P. (SG)	1st P. (PL)	2nd P. (PL)	3rd P. (PL)	
ha		2	aa[gáhaayé]	-5.2. (2.2)	2	baa[gáhaayé]	give
rea			aa[gáreeyé]			baa[gáreeyé]	eat
sea			aa[gáseeyé]			baa[gáseeyé]	grind
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roma	aa[gárómeré]	baa[gárómeré]	bite
buna	aa[gábúniré]	baa[gábúniré]	break
biima	aa[gábiimíre]	baa[gábiimíre]	measure
saamba	aa[gásaambére]	baa[gásaambére]	burn
tereka	aa[gátérekére]	baa[gátérekére]	brew
sukura	aa[gásúkuúye]	baa[gásúkuúye]	rub
heetoka	aa[gáheetókére]	baa[gáheetókére]	remember
taandora	aa[gátaandóóye]	baa[gátaandóóye]	tear
karaanga	aa[gákáraángére]	baa[gákáraángére]	fry
hagaacha	aa[gáhágaáchére]	baa[gáhágaáchére]	build
taangaasa	aa[gátaangáásére]	baa[gátaangáásére]	announce
siitaaka	aa[gásiitáákére]	baa[gásiitáákére]	accuse
berekera	aa[gábérekééye]	baa[gábérekééye]	call
turuuŋana	aa[gátúruúŋáíni]	baa[gátúruúŋáíni]	welcome
koondokora	aa[gákoondókóóye]	baa[gákoondókóóye]	uncover
kirigiita	aa[gákírigíítíre]	baa[gákírigíítíre]	scrub
hootootera	aa[gáhootóótééye]	baa[gáhootóótééye]	reassure
vowel-initial verbs			
ia	a[agééyé]	ba[agééyé]	go
aga	a[agéré]	ba[agéré]	weed
igora	a[igóóyé]	ba[igóóyé]	open
oboha	o[obóhéré	bo[obóhéré	fear
igoomba	a[igóómbére	ba[igóómbére	desire
anekera	a[anékééye]	ba[anékééye]	lay out
araachana	a[aráácháíni]	ba[aráácháíni]	cross, fold
with object prefix			
aga	aa[gáágéré]	baa[gáágéré]	weed
oboha	aa[góóbóhére]	baa[góóbóhére]	fear
igora	aa[gaígóóye]	baa[gáígóóye]	open
igoomba	aa[gáígóómbére	baa[gáígóómbére	desire
anekera	aa[gáánékééye]	baa[gáánékééye]	lay out
araachana	aa[gááráácháíni]	baa[gááráácháíni]	cross, fold

Hortatory Imperative (3) - e.g. "I am going/about to eat"			
ha	ara[há]	bara[há]	give
rea	ara[ryá]	bara[ryá]	eat
sea	ara[syá]	bara[syá]	grind
roma	ara[róma]	bara[róma]	bite
buna	ara[búna]	bara[búna]	break
biima	ara[bíímá]	bara[bíímá]	measure
saamba	ara[sáámbá]	bara[sáámbá]	burn
tereka	ara[térékă]	bara[térékă]	brew
sukura	ara[súkúră]	bara[súkúră]	rub
heetoka	ara[héétóká]	bara[héétóká]	remember
taandora	ara[táándórá]	bara[táándórá]	tear
karaanga	ara[káraangá]	bara[káraangá]	fry
hagaacha	ara[hágaachá]	bara[hágaachá]	build
taangaasa	ara[táángáása]	bara[táángáása]	announce
siitaaka	ara[síítááka]	bara[síítááka]	accuse
teremeka	ara[térémeká]	bara[térémeká]	be calm
berekera	ara[bérékerá]	bara[bérékerá]	call
turuuŋana	ara[túruungána]	bara[túruungána]	welcome
koondokora	ara[kóóndókóra]	bara[kóóndókóra]	uncover
kirigiita	ara[kírígiíta]	bara[kírígiíta]	scrub
hootootera	ara[hóótóótéra]	bara[hóótóótéra]	reassure
vowel-initial verbs			
ia	ara[yá]	bara[yá]	go
aga	ara[ága]	bara[ága]	weed
igora	ara[ígórǎ]	bara[ígóră]	open
oboha	aro[óbóhǎ]	baro[óbóhă]	fear
igoomba	ara[ígoombá]	bara[ígoombá]	desire
anekera	ara[ánékerá]	bara[ánékerá]	lay out

bara[áraachána]

cross, fold

ara[áraachána]

araachana

PATTERN 6: No H Tone

ntá[ha]	otá[ha]	atá[ha]	totá[ha]	motá[ha]	batá[ha]	give
ntá[rya]	otá[rya]	atá[rya]	totá[rya]	motá[rya]	batá[rya]	eat
ntá[sya]	otá[sya]	atá[sya]	totá[sya]	motá[sya]	batá[sya]	grind
ntá[romà]	otá[romà]	atá[romà]	totá[romà]	motá[romà]	batá[romà]	bite
ntá[bunà]	otá[bunà]	atá[bunà]	totá[bunà]	motá[bunà]	batá[bunà]	break
ntá[biimà]	otá[biimà]	atá[biimà]	totá[biimà]	motá[biimà]	batá[biimà]	measure
ntá[saambà]	otá[saambà]	atá[saambà]	totá[saambà]	motá[saambà]	batá[saambà]	burn
ntá[tɛrɛkà]	otá[tɛrɛkà]	atá[tɛrɛkà]	totá[tɛrɛkà]	motá[tɛrɛkà]	batá[tɛrɛkà]	brew
ntá[sukurà]	otá[sukurà]	atá[sukurà]	totá[sukurà]	motá[sukurà]	batá[sukurà]	rub
ntá[heetokà]	otá[heetokà]	atá[heetokà]	totá[heetokà]	motá[heetokà]	batá[heetokà]	remember
ntá[taandorà]	otá[taandorà]	atá[taandorà]	totá[taandorà]	motá[taandorà]	batá[taandorà]	tear
ntá[karaangà]	otá[karaangà]	atá[karaangà]	totá[karaangà]	motá[karaangà]	batá[karaangà]	fry
ntá[hagaachà]	otá[hagaachà]	atá[hagaachà]	totá[hagaachà]	motá[hagaachà]	batá[hagaachà]	build
ntá[taangaasà]	otá[taangaasà]	atá[taangaasà]	totá[taangaasà]	motá[taangaasà]	batá[taangaasà]	announce
ntá[siitaakà]	otá[siitaakà]	atá[siitaakà]	totá[siitaakà]	motá[siitaakà]	batá[siitaakà]	accuse
ntá[teremekà]	otá[teremekà]	atá[teremekà]	totá[teremekà]	motá[teremekà]	batá[teremekà]	be calm
ntá[berekerà]	otá[berekerà]	atá[berekerà]	totá[berekerà]	motá[berekerà]	batá[berekerà]	call
ntá[turuuŋanà]	otá[turuuŋanà]	atá[turuuŋanà]	totá[turuuŋanà]	motá[turuuŋanà]	batá[turuuŋanà]	welcome
a ntá[koondokorà]	otá[koondokorà]	atá[koondokorà]	totá[koondokorà]	motá[koondokorà]	batá[koondokorà]	uncover
ntá[kirigiità]	otá[kirigiità]	atá[kirigiità]	totá[kirigiità]	motá[kirigiità]	batá[kirigiità]	scrub
ntá[hootooterà]	otá[hootooterà]	atá[hootooterà]	totá[hootooterà]	motá[hootooterà]	batá[hootooterà]	reassure
with object prefix						
ntá[gahà]	otá[gahà]	atá[gahà]	totá[gahà]	motá[gahà]	batá[gahà]	give
ntá[garyà]	otá[garyà]	atá[garyà]	totá[garyà]	motá[garyà]	batá[garyà]	eat
ntá[garomà]	otá[garomà]	atá[garomà]	totá[garomà]	motá[garomà]	batá[garomà]	bite
ntá[gabiimà]	otá[bibiimà]	atá[bibiimà]	totá[bibiimà]	motá[bibiimà]	batá[bibiimà]	measure
ntá[gasaambà]	otá[gasaambà]	atá[gasaambà]	totá[gasaambà]	motá[gasaambà]	batá[gasaambà]	open
ntá[gatɛrɛkà]	otá[gaterekà]	atá[gatɛrɛkà]	totá[gaterekà]	motá[gaterekà]	batá[gaterekà]	brew
ntá[gaheetokà]	otá[gaheetokà]	atá[gaheetokà]	totá[gaheetokà]	motá[gaheetokà]	batá[gaheetokà]	remember
ntá[gakaraangà]	otá[gakaraangà]	atá[gakaraangà]	totá[gakaraangà]	motá[gakaraangà]	batá[gakaraangà]	fry
ntá[gaberekerà]	otá[gaberekera]	atá[gaberekera]	totá[gaberekera]	motá[gaberekera]	batá[gaberekera]	be calm
	ntá[rya] ntá[sya] ntá[sya] ntá[bunà] ntá[biimà] ntá[saambà] ntá[saambà] ntá[saambà] ntá[sukurà] ntá[teetokà] ntá[taandorà] ntá[taandorà] ntá[taangasà] ntá[siitaakà] ntá[siitaakà] ntá[siitaakà] ntá[teremekà] ntá[teremekà] ntá[turuuŋanà] ra ntá[koondokorà] ntá[kirigiità] ntá[kirigiità] ntá[gahà] ntá[garyà] ntá[garomà] ntá[garomà] ntá[gasaambà] ntá[gasaambà] ntá[gaterekà] ntá[gaheetokà] ntá[gaheetokà] ntá[gaheetokà]	ntá[rya] otá[rya] ntá[sya] otá[sya] ntá[sya] otá[sya] ntá[nmà] otá[sunà] ntá[bunà] otá[bunà] ntá[bimà] otá[bimà] ntá[saambà] otá[saambà] ntá[saambà] otá[saambà] ntá[terekà] otá[terekà] ntá[sukurà] otá[sukurà] ntá[heetokà] otá[teandorà] ntá[taandorà] otá[taandorà] ntá[taandorà] otá[taangaa] ntá[hagaachà] otá[taangaasà] ntá[siitaakà] otá[taangaasà] ntá[teremekà] otá[teremekà] ntá[teremekà] otá[teremekà] ntá[turuuŋanà] otá[turuuŋanà] ra ntá[koondokorà] otá[kirigiità] ntá[hootooterà] otá[siitaaka] ntá[garyà] otá[garyà] ntá[garomà] otá[garyà] ntá[garomà] otá[garomà] ntá[gasaambà] otá[gasaambà] ntá[gaterekà] otá[gasaambà] ntá[gaterekà] otá[gaheetokà] ntá[gaheetokà] otá[gakaraangà]	ntá[rya] otá[rya] atá[rya] atá[rya] ntá[sya] otá[sya] atá[sya] ntá[romà] otá[romà] atá[romà] ntá[bunà] otá[bunà] atá[bunà] ntá[biimà] otá[biimà] atá[biimà] ntá[saambà] otá[saambà] atá[saambà] ntá[terekà] otá[terekà] atá[terekà] ntá[sukurà] otá[sukurà] atá[sukurà] ntá[heetokà] otá[sukurà] atá[sukurà] ntá[taandorà] otá[taandorà] atá[taandorà] ntá[taandorà] otá[taandorà] atá[taandorà] ntá[taangasà] otá[taangasà] atá[taangasà] ntá[taangasà] otá[taangasà] atá[taangasà] ntá[siitaakà] otá[teremekà] atá[teremekà] ntá[teremekà] otá[teremekà] atá[teremekà] ntá[teremekà] otá[teremekà] atá[teremekà] ntá[teremekà] otá[teremekà] atá[teremekà] ntá[teruuŋanà] otá[turuuŋanà] atá[turuuŋanà] a ntá[koondokorà] otá[koondokorà] atá[koondokorà] ntá[tirigiità] otá[koondokorà] atá[koondokora] ntá[siitaaka] otá[ganà] atá[ganà] ntá[garyà] otá[garyà] atá[garyà] ntá[garomà] otá[garomà] atá[garomà] ntá[gasaambà] otá[gasaambà] atá[gaterekà] ntá[gaterekà] otá[gaterekà] atá[gaterekà] ntá[gaheetokà] otá[gaterekà] atá[gaheetoka] ntá[gaheetoka] otá[gaheetoka] ntá[gaheetoka] otá[gaheetoka] ntá[gaheetoka] otá[gakaraangà]	ntá[rya]         otá[rya]         atá[rya]         totá[rya]           ntá[sya]         otá[sya]         atá[sya]         totá[sya]           ntá[romà]         otá[sya]         atá[sya]         totá[sya]           ntá[bunà]         otá[bunà]         atá[bunà]         totá[bunà]           ntá[biimà]         otá[biimà]         atá[biimà]         totá[biimà]           ntá[sambà]         otá[sambà]         atá[sambà]         totá[sambà]           ntá[terekà]         otá[terekà]         atá[terekà]         totá[terekà]           ntá[sukurà]         otá[sukurà]         atá[heetokà]         totá[sukurà]           ntá[heetokà]         otá[heetokà]         atá[heetokà]         totá[sandorà]           ntá[karaangà]         otá[karaangà]         atá[heetokà]         totá[karaangà]           ntá[karaangà]         otá[karaangà]         atá[karaangà]         totá[karaangà]           ntá[karaangà]         otá[karaangà]         atá[hagaachà]         totá[karaangà]           ntá[taangaasà]         atá[taangaasà]         totá[karaangà]         totá[karaangà]           ntá[taruagaasà]         atá[teremekà]         totá[teremekà]         totá[teremekà]         totá[teremekà]         totá[teremekà]         totá[teremekà]         totá[turuunah]         tatá[turuun	ntá[rya]         otá[rya]         atá[rya]         totá[rya]         motá[rya]           ntá[sya]         otá[sya]         atá[sya]         totá[sya]         motá[sya]           ntá[punà]         otá[punà]         atá[punà]         totá[puna]         motá[roma]           ntá[bunà]         otá[bunà]         atá[bunà]         totá[bunà]         motá[buna]           ntá[biimà]         otá[biimà]         atá[biimà]         totá[biimà]         motá[biimà]           ntá[sukurà]         otá[saambà]         atá[saambà]         totá[taraba]         motá[saamba]           ntá[sukurà]         otá[sukurà]         atá[sukurà]         totá[tarckà]         motá[tarckà]           ntá[heetokà]         otá[heetokà]         atá[heetokà]         totá[tandorà]         motá[tandorà]           ntá[hagaachà]         otá[hagaachà]         atá[hagaachà]         totá[tandorà]         motá[tandorà]           ntá[hagaachà]         otá[hagaachà]         atá[tangaasà]         totá[tangaasà]         motá[tangaachà]           ntá[sitaaka]         otá[tangaasà]         atá[tangaasà]         totá[tangaasà]         motá[tangaachà]           ntá[teremekà]         otá[teremekà]         totá[teremekà]         totá[teremekà]         motá[teremekà]           ntá[teremekà]         otá[tereme	ntá[ya]         otá[ya]         atá[ya]         totá[ya]         batá[ya]         batá[ya] <t< td=""></t<>

turuuŋana	ntá[gaturuuŋanà]	otá[gaturuuŋana]	atá[gaturuuŋana]	totá[gaturuuŋana]	motá[gaturuuŋana]	batá[gaturuuŋana]	welcome
koondokora	ntá[gakoondokorà]	otá[gakoondokora]	atá[gakoondokora]	totá[gakoondokora]	motá[gakoondokora]	batá[gakoondokora]	uncover
	vowel-initial verbs						
ia	ntá[ya]	otá[ya]	atá[ya]	totá[ya]	motá[ya]	batá[ya]	go
aga	ntá[ága]	otá[ága]	atá[ága]	totá[ága]	motá[ága]	batá[ága]	weed
igora	ntá[ígorà]	otá[ígorà]	atá[ígorà]	totá[ígorà]	motá[ígorà]	batá[ígorà]	open
oboha	ntó[óbohà]	otó[óbohà]	ató[óbohà]	totó[óbohà]	motó[óbohà]	bató[óbohà]	fear
igoomba	ntá[ígoombà]	otá[ígoombà]	atá[ígoombà]	totá[ígoombà]	motá[ígoombà]	batá[ígoombà]	desire
anekera	ntá[ánekerà]	otá[ánekerà]	atá[ánekerà]	totá[ánekerà]	motá[ánekerà]	batá[ánekerà]	lay out
araachana	ntá[áraachanà]	otá[áraachanà]	atá[áraachanà]	totá[áraachanà]	motá[áraachanà]	batá[áraachanà]	cross, fold

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