Handout 02

OVERVIEW OF BADE/NGIZIM OF PHONOLOGY

Schuh (n.d., a) Schuh (1971b) Schuh (1971c) [section on Ngizim vowels]

COMPOSITE TABLE OF BADE/NGIZIM CONSONANTAL SEGMENTS

	labial	alveolar	(alveo)palatal	lateral	velar	lab.velar	laryngeal	lab. laryngeal
voiceless stop	p	t	tſ		k	k ^w		
voiced stop	b	d	d3		g	g ^w		
glot. stop	6	ď	ďy/'y					
prenas. stop	mb	nd	nd3		ŋg	$\widehat{\mathfrak{g}}^{\mathrm{w}}$		
voiceless fricative	f	S	ſ	4			h	h ^w
voiced fricative	V	z	3	ß			ĥ	ĥw
nasal	m	n	ŋ		(ŋ)			
flap		r						
tap/trill		r						
lateral				l				
glide			y			W		

This table lists all the consonantal segments that exist in any of the speech varieties of the Bade/Ngizim group. It is, in effect, the consonant inventory of proto-Bade/Ngizim, but because of historical mergers, no modern speech variety of this group has the full inventory. In the table, I have used the IPA symbols in order to avoid ambiguous interpretation. Standard Chadic practice uses the representations below, which are the ones that I will use in examples. In cases where a digraph C_1C_2 represents a single sound, C_1 and C_2 could never appear as a sequence of individual sounds in these languages.

 $[tf] \rightarrow c$

 $[d_3] \rightarrow j$

 $[f] \rightarrow sh$

 $[3] \rightarrow zh$

 $[1] \rightarrow tl$

 $[k] \rightarrow dl$ or jl

 $[h] \rightarrow gh$

 $[\eta]$ +velar \rightarrow **n**+velar (no Chadic language allows a sequence of alveolar $[\mathbf{n}]$ +velar)

 $[C^w], [C^y] \rightarrow Cw, Cy$

 $[\mathfrak{r}]$ vs. $[\mathfrak{r}]$: Works on Hausa general represent these as " \mathfrak{r} " vs. " \mathfrak{r} " respectively inasmuch as $[\mathfrak{r}]$ is the "native" rhotic of Hausa and is far more frequent than the tap/trill $[\mathfrak{r}]$. Where it is important to make clear which rhotic is involved, I will write " \mathfrak{r} " and " \mathfrak{r} " respectively.

"Laryngeals"

Western Bade, Southern Bade: preserve laryngeals

Gashua Bade: (usually) *h > k, *h > g

Ngizim, Duwai: (usually) *h > \mathbf{k} , * \mathbf{h} > \mathbf{g} / # ; * \mathbf{h} ,* \mathbf{h} > \mathbf{w} (> $\mathbf{\emptyset}$) / V V

Though no speech variety of Bade/Ngizim has velar fricatives, the laryngeals [h] and [h] should probably be reconstructed as x and y (with a parallel comment for the labialized counterparts). Several facts support this.

- <u>System symmetry</u>: Reconstructed velar fricatives fill out gaps in the table and remove the "orphan" laryngeal column. NOTE: **Glottal stop** plays no role, even a subphonemic one, in the Bade/Ngizim group. No words contain internal glottal stops, even loanwords where the source language has a glottal stop, e.g. Western Bade sàrìyan 'trial' < Hausa shàrì'à < Arabic. One occasionally hears a glottal stop in vowel hiatus, but the normal resolution of vowel hiatus is elision or coalescence. There would thus be no glottal stop to add symmetry to the laryngel column.
- Sound change: Though Duwai, Ngizim, and Gashua Bade have [h] in a few loanwords and phonaesthetic items, e.g. D/Ng/GB hêr 'kindness' < Arabic via Kanuri, D/GB hâm 'yawning', only Western and Southern Bade have [h] and [h] in native words. Word initially, WB h corresponds to k and h to g in Gashua Bade and usually also in Ngizim and Duwai, suggesting a simple shift from fricative to stop. The velar articulation may have always been weak, however. Medial WB laryngeals usually correspond to velar stops in GB, but to medial glides in Ngizim and Duwai:

W. Bade	G. Bade	Ngizim	Duwai	
hərà	kəlà	kāràrà	kārà	'new'
dùhwìyān	ɗùkwai	ɗūyâk	àɗùwai	'metal'
ghau	gau		gŏ	'open'
àrbàghu	àlbàgu	rèbgu	?	'cave in'

• <u>Morphological alternation</u>: The reconstructable Bade/Ngizim genitive linker is **-k**. In Bade, this morpheme has several allomorphs, one of which is **Ø** before a velar consonant. This is the allomorph before [h] and [h] in the dialects that preserve laryngeals:

WB: **ðzgðrð hurgùmən** 'foot-of aardvark' cf. **ðzgðrð-k sangùrðrīn** 'foot-of stork'

Labialized velars

Probably dating from proto-Chadic, the Bade/Ngizim group has a full series of labialized velars. They many serve not only as syllable onsets but as preconsonantal syllable codas (though syllable final *gw has often weakened to w). They cannot serve as word final syllable codas.

Western Bade	Gashua Bade	Ngizim	
ràkwsu	làkwsu	rùksu /rèkwsu/	'push fuel into fire'
âgwren	âulai		'hare'
		agwdàfu	'Detarium senegalense'

Recording of Ngizim syllable final labialized velars.

/w/ as a "velar"

The glide \mathbf{w} is in the velar column. Newman (2000), at several points, calls for classifying \mathbf{w} as a velar in Hausa as well. In Bade, one reason for this classification is the fact genitive linker $/\mathbf{k}/$, noted above under laryngeals, has a \emptyset allomorph before \mathbf{w} .

WB: sīlə wunàjān 'bone-of dog' cf. sīlə-k diton 'bone-of bird'

Alveopalatals

All the Bade/Ngizim languages have apparently native words with alveopalatal affricates, palatal glottals $[\mathbf{d}\mathbf{y}]$ or $[\mathbf{y}]$, and palatal nasal.

Western Bade	Gashua Bade	Ngizim	
càkwtlu	càkwtlu	càkwɓu	B 'poke in ribs' Ng 'peck' hen
jān	jǎ	jă	'dog'
ɗyàwu	'yàwu	'yàwu	'give birth'
nyèmən	nyìm	nyùm	'filth'

Ngizim and Duwai have an active process that palatalizes all alveolars other than rhotics and laterals before -i in certain morphological environments.

Dı	ıwai		Ng	izim	
Perfective	Subjunctive		Perfective	Imperative	
àfto	àfci	'lie down'	rèptu	a-rèpci	'open'
kādo	kāji	'bite'	zīdu	à-zīji	'slaughter'
ki̇̀do	kī'yi	'eat meat'	kīđu	à-kī'yi	'eat meat'
mā̀so	mằshi	'buy'	kā̀su	à-kāshi	'sweep'
tū̀zo	tū̀zhi	'tip to pour'	bèzu	a-bə̀zhi	'leave'
wāno	wầnyi	'milk'	tầnu	à-tānyi	'remember'

Bade (all dialects) on the other hand, not only does not have any active palatalization processes (cf. WB dŏ 'remove' [perfective], dì 'remove' [subjunctive]), but it has DEpalatalized all originally alveopalatal fricatives, including those in loanwords where the source language has alveopalatals.

Western Bade	Gashua Bade	Ngizim	
sâidan	sāidà	shaidà	'evidence' < Arabic via Hausa or Kanuri
son	v àk sau	shau	'excrement' GB 'toilet' ("hole for excrement")
zềnān	?	zhầnyi	ʻgourd ladle' cf. Kanuri jènyi
zìyān	zìyà	zhà	'war'

Prenasalized stops

<u>Ngizim</u>: Ngizim has word initial prenasalized voiced stops. Intervocalically, however, **nasal+voiced stop** patterns as a sequence, with the nasal forming a syllable coda and the stop a syllable onset. This is evident in noun plurals involving reduplication of the last consonant, where only the stop following a nasal is reduplicated:

kambi pl. kambabin 'small calabash for grain storage' bangâi pl. bangagín 'baboon'

<u>Bade</u>: Bade has no prenasalized consonants. Word initial nasals before homorganic stops are pronounced as syllabic nasals. This is true even of words from Kanuri with initial prenasalized consonants.

Kanuri	W. Bade	G. Bade	Ngizim	
bana	m̀bānán	m̀bā̀nâ	bāna	'help' (noun)
			mbàsu	'sit'
	cf. mdan	nda	ndà	'people'
ndəwu 'knot'	ndèpu			'tie knot'
	njèvu	njàvu		'jump down'
ŋgal-jìn	ŋ̀gàltu	ŋ̀gàltu	ŋgàltu	'measure'

While /ng/ is fairly common word initial in both Bade and Ngizim, /mb/ is not common in either language. In Ngizim, /nd/ seems fairly common, but I have found only two Western Bade roots with initial /nd/ not identified as borrowings, and the only root in Gashua Bade of any kind beginning in /nd/ is the "person/people" root. Ngizim has no /nj/ initial words, and the only root with /nj/ in Bade is the one shown in the table. Strangely, Bade has sometimes added a nasal onset to a voiced obstruent in loanwords where the source language did not have one, as in 'help' above or WB njadān 'peanuts' < Hausa gyàdā.

Liquids

Ngizim, Duwai: preserve all liquids, probably in more or less inherited distribution

Gashua Bade: (almost always) $*_{\Gamma} > l$; orginal $\tilde{\Gamma}$ and l retained

Western Bade, Southern Bade: $*r > \tilde{r}$ with no exceptions; original I retained

Proto-West Chadic had three liquid segments: $[\mathfrak{r}, \mathfrak{r}, \mathfrak{l}]$. They are preserved in Hausa (West Chadic A) and in Ngizim, Duwai, and Gashua Bade (Bade/Ngizim group of West Chadic B). Most West Chadic languages of both the A and B subgroups, including some Hausa dialects and Bade dialects other than the Gashua dialect, have merged the two rhotics

to the tap/trill [r]. The distribution of the three liquids was/is not equal in the ancestral language:

• [τ] was/is the most freely occurring liquid in native words—in Ngizim and Duwai, this sound occurs prevocalically both word initial and word medial; it occurs word final and preconsonantal except as noted under [r] below. In Gashua Bade, *τ > l, though an unexplained small residue of [τ] in native words remains, e.g. GB səτən 'two'—cf. Ngizim shirin, WB sərən. GB also uses [τ] in loanwords where the source language has phonetic [τ].

Ngizim	Gashua Bade	Western Bade	
rầkànu	làkànu	r̃àkànu	'walk, travel'
kuru	kùlu	kùr̃u	'refuse'
kàrmu	kàlmu	kàr̃mu	'chop'
zèger	ə̀zgəl	àzgà ran	'foot, leg'
	ŗīwà	rīpan	'carrion' < Kanuri [liwà]

• [r] has/had restricted distribution. By and large, Hausa shares these distributional characteristics.

[r] occurs to the exclusion of [r] in /___(θ)t/d/d/tl/dl/n and in / t θ /d θ /d θ ____

Ngizim	Gashua Bade	Western Bade	
pèrtu	pèrtu	pèrtu	'postpone, reneg'
vàrda	vàrda	vərdan	'newly ripe millet'
akur̃nà	akur̃nà	akurnán	'gruel'
ř èdlu	r̃jlu	ràjlu (intr.)	'moisten'
tèra	tàra	təlān !?	'moon'
dərau	dàr̃u	dàru	'wait for'; (WB)
			'wait for well to fill'

[r] is typical in presumably native "expressive" words, such as ideophones or verbs expressing violent or sudden action.

Ngizim	Gashua Bade
(gàrə-ngərì) rùbbà '(he grew old) "dodderingly"	(và lawà ī) zàrzàra ('it's running) "drizzle-drizzle"
rãôu 'knock down with a blow'	gðrgàptu 'wake up with a start'

[r] is retained in loanwords where the source language has [r].

Kanuri	W. Bade	G. Bade	Ngizim	
raŋ-ngin	ràktu	řàktu	řàktu	'tolerate'
bərbər	bərbərən	bərbər	bərbər	'dust'

Ngizim recording contrasting [r] and [r].

• [l] has/had special distribution. In Gashua Bade, l is the regular historical reflex of *r (see examples above). Though l does show up in a few apparently native roots, e.g. WB/GB làgu 'stop, remain standing', WB lākì 'small', most instances of l fall into one of the following categories:

Loanwords

Kanuri	W. Bade	G. Bade	Ngizim	
lambo	lambón	lâmbau	làmbo	'one's concern'
kèlewà	kèlapiyán	kàlāpiyà	kàlappiyâ	'good health'

Ideophones

Western Bade	Gashua Bade	Ngizim	
ləppà	ləppà	cognate?	'very early'
lai = layyà	cognate?	layi(-layi)	'cool'
ngwèlla	cognate?	ngwàl	'peeking'
cognate?	laulawà	laulau	'thin, watery'

Dissimilation of $n \rightarrow l$ where a nasal comes later in the word

Ngizim **lèmu = nèmu** 'build'

Western Bade əlmiyu 'flood'; cf. Ngizim nəmiyu

Some consonant cooccurrence restrictions

I have not yet carefully studied consonant cooccurrence restrictions in the Bade/Ngizim group, but some have emerged. These seem to be shared with other West Chadic languages.

Glottalized consonants: Unlike glottalized consonants may not cooccur in a root. Like glottalized consonants seem to cooccur only in reduplications, e.g. GB **bàbàlu** 'peel', **dàdòmu** 'repair', **dyādya** 'key'.

<u>Labials</u>: Unlike labial consonants may not cooccur in a root, i.e. *b...p, *p...f, etc. Like labials seem to appear only in reduplications, though this claim may be circular, e.g. is WB fəfon 'breast' a reduplicant or a real case of cooccurrence of like labials? Note that this cooccurrence restriction is not a PHONETIC restriction. Unlike labials do cooccur in words such as WB pəbətən 'ashes' (cf. Bole bùto) or fàvìyu 'singe'. These ARE reduplicants. Reduplication resulted in a sequence [+voice, -sonorant]... [+voice, -sonorant], in which the first segment devoiced by a regular dissimilatory change in Bade. Note that the oppositive configuration, e.g. *b...p, *f...v, is non-existent in any word.

<u>Velars</u>: Cooccurrence of unlike velars (including velars and laryngeals) is not common, i.e. there are at most two or three non-reduplicated, non-derived, non-borrowed words containing unlike velars in data available to me from any of the languages. However, the paired velars in words like GB **kugú** 'snake' (WB **kuwán**) or WB **hurgùmən** 'aardvark' seem to have no explanation in reduplication, derivation, or borrowing. As with labials, if there is a (weak?) cooccurrence restriction on unlike velars, it is not a PHONETIC one. There are reduplicants such as WB **kàgdu** 'cut off (several)' < *gàgdu via the sound change mentioned under labials, and Bade/Ngizim has a participial prefix that can be added

to any root, including roots with initial velars or laryngeals, e.g. WB gàkurá 'displease' < kùru 'dislike', gàhàɗa 'dried up' < hàɗàwu 'dry up'.

<u>Alveolars</u>: There are no obvious cooccurrence restrictions on alveloars within a word. Examples are from Western Bade.

àdàtən	'intestines'	tū̀zu	'pour out by tipping container'
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əstəkwu 'untie' diton 'bird'tasu 'find' sədgwu 'budge'

àzdù 'six' đûgzə dán 'eyebrow' ("?-of eye")

VOWELS OF BADE/NGIZIM

		Front	Central	Back
High	Short	i	ə [ɨ]	u
IIIgii	Long	ī		ū
Mid	Long	ē		Ō
Low	Short		a	
LUW	Long		ā	

Diphthongs: ai, au

Vowel length

High and Low vowels in Bade and Ngizim have distinctive length except in word final position, where all vowels are short with the exception of a few grammatical items such as pronouns and determiners, mostly monosyllabic. Unlike most Chadic languages, Bade and Ngizim allow long vowels in closed syllables. I have the sense that the appearance of long vowels in closed syllables in not entirely unconstrained (maybe because I am so accustomed to exclusion of long vowels from closed syllables in other languages), but I have found no obvious constraining factors. The phonetics of vowels in closed syllables deserves investigation. In open syllables, there is a clear distinction in both duration and quality between short and long vowels. In closed syllables, the main indicator of "length" seems to be quality. I do not know whether closed syllables also show durational differences. Examples in the table are from Western Bade. The other dialects and languages have similar distinctions in cognate or other items. See discussion of "Vowel distribution" below for absence of a phonetic [i] vs. [ī] contrast.

Short vowel		Long vowel	
đàsu	'be finished'	dāsu	'pour into bottle'
amán	'arm'	āmə́n	'water'
ràktu	'tolerate'	rāktu	'compress'
mângān	'friend'	Māngān	'Manga person'
tènèmən	'watercourse'	tīnấn	'place'
gùran	'jealousy'	gūrán	'girdle, bracelet'

Western Bade has a systematic distinction of nominal gender marking between -ān masculine and -an feminine, e.g. mângān 'male friend', mângan 'female friend'.

Recording contrasting long and short vowels in closed syllables.

Contrast and neutralization of short high vowels

<u>Prepausal</u>: The short high vowel \mathfrak{d} [i] does not appear before pause. The short high vowels i and u are in contrast word final before pause. In lexical roots, the word final i/u distinction bears a very low functional load, but it is possible to find word sets like those below from Ngizim where a final high vowel or absence of a vowel is not predictable.

Final /i/		Final /u/		Final C	
gazabì	'black kite'	gàbābù	'billy goat'	gùzəp	'slave'
kwà6shi	'head pad'	gaßshu	'ugly''	gùbəs	'warthog'
nyàmi	'fat'	kunâmu	'deleb palm'	nyùm	'filth'
gadāgurì	'syphilis'	dugùru	'barren woman'	zègər	'foot'
zàyi	'rope'	kwàyu	ʻjujube'	gùzai	'pubic hair'

The verbal systems of all the languages provide systematic near minimal sets of all the short vowels before pause, such as in the following examples from Ngizim:

PERFECTIVE: vòru 'he went out' IMPERATIVE: a-vòri 'go out!'

2ND SUBJUNCTIVE: dà vòra 'he should go out'

<u>Medial</u>: In medial positions, including word final vowels in phrase medial position, the short high vowels do not contrast. Depending on local environment, they gravitate around the acoustic positions [i], [u], [ə]. The conditioning for vowel quality comes primarily from neighboring consonants, but the vowels and consonants of neighboring syllables may also exercise an influence.¹ An idealized description is as follows:

 $\begin{bmatrix} +\text{vocalic} \\ +\text{high} \\ -\text{long} \end{bmatrix} \rightarrow (1) [\mathbf{u}] \text{ in the environment of } [+\mathbf{round}]$ $\rightarrow (2) [\mathbf{i}] \text{ in the environment of } \mathbf{y} \text{ and after } /\mathbf{p}/ \text{ and } /\mathbf{d}^{\mathbf{y}}/$ $\rightarrow (3) [\mathbf{a}] \text{ elsewhere}$

The examples here are from Western Bade, but similar sets could come from any of the speech varieties under consideration.

"Neutral"		Labializing"		Palatalizing	
kèru	'steal'	kùru /kwəru/	'refuse'	gìyin	'climbing'
agèm	'you (f.s.)'	gumà	'ten'	bènyin	'grinding stone'
hàɗàwu	'dry up'	wudán	'knife'	ɗyirimma	'fat' (ideophone)
èkfu	'enter'	ùktu /əkwtu/	'pick up'	nìyu	'swim'
tàgvàɗu	'push over'	tugwzàrān	'sorcerer'	ariyon	a twining plant
đèhan	'country'	dùwun	'horse'	wāstiyán	'sneezing'

In cases where environments (1) and (2) conflict, there is some indeterminacy. In Schuh (1971b), I state categorically that the following environment wins for Ngizim, as in

1

¹ NOTE ON HAUSA: As phonetically and phonologically different as the Bade/Ngizim languages appear to be from Hausa, the vowel distribution is nearly identical. The only real difference is that Hausa lacks a clear phonetic [i], and the short high vowels tend to be pulled to the front and back extremes of the high vowel space. Paul Newman and I have a long-standing disagreement on this, Newman arguing that the short high vowels contrasted fully in the not-too-distant past and still do to some extent, but I become more and more convinced of the correctness of my view, which is essentially that of the great Hausa specialist, F.W. Parsons, who was monumentally ignorant of the nature of any other Chadic language.

yùwan 'sleep' vs. wiyàk 'vulva', but in Schuh (n.d., a), in eight Western Bade examples of (1) preceding (2), I note that I recorded four with the preceding environment winning and four with the following environment, e.g. $\mathbf{kwiyu}/\mathbf{kw \dot y u}/\mathbf{vpack}$ up' vs. $\mathbf{kuyamm \dot a}/\mathbf{kw \dot y umm \dot a}/\mathbf{vpack}$ (ideophone). In Bade, (2) could never precede (1) in a root, but when the "definite article" \mathbf{v} is added to a word ending in \mathbf{v} , the vowel invariably assimilates to the \mathbf{v} , e.g. $\mathbf{giyi \cdot w} \rightarrow \mathbf{giy \dot u}$].

As noted, the conditioning of short high vowels applies to word final vowels when they fall medial in a phrase. We can illustrate this with the 3rd person masculine and feminine pronouns:

		[acə bànu]	'he cooked'
aci	'he'	[aci yā̀aye]	'as for him'
		/aci èkwtu/ → [acukwtú]	'he pick (it) up'
		[atə bənu]	'she cooked'
atu	'she'	[ati yā̀ye]	'as for her'
		/atu əkwtu/ → [atukwtú]	'she picked (it) up'

Syllabic distribution of short high vowels

Except word finally, not only does environment determine the quality of short high vowels, but also position in words—in effect, all non-final short high vowels are epenthetic. This distributional property will be a topic later in the course.

Mid vowels

There is no length contrast in mid vowels in any of the speech varieties of Bade and Ngizim. In open syllables, mid vowels are long. Mid vowels can appear in closed syllables, as can other long vowels.

Mid vowels have a restricted distribution compared to other vowels. There are no words with word initial mid vowels in any language of the Bade/Ngizim group. In proto-Bade/Ngizim, and still in Gashua Bade and Ngizim, ORIGINAL mid vowels appear almost entirely in loanwords, in phonaesthetic words, and in certain grammatical formatives, where there has been sporadic monophthongization of diphthongs. (Western Bade has regularly shifted diphthongs to mid vowel monopthongs—see below.)

Gashua Bade		Ngizim	
r̃etu < Kanuri	'separate'	retu < Kanuri	'separate'
pèrtu < Kanuri	'spread mat'	pèrtu < Kanuri	'spread mat'
m̀botu < Kanuri	'be insufficient'	bōnề < Fulfulde	'difficulty'
(no examples of GB i	deophones with e)	ngulet	'covered up'
mòlmòla	'flashing'	ndandol	'with a leap'
tlənkōri	'snoring'	dlankôř	'snoring'
bề	'thing'	mên	'indeed'
ta zənēcì	'that he say <u>to</u> him'	na ramēci mā	'I said <u>to</u> him that'
gō	'without'	$s\ddot{o} = s\grave{a}w$	'here it is'

Diphthongs

Proto-Bade/Ngizim had the diphthongs *ai and *au. Ngizim, Gashua Bade, and Western Bade have each treated these somewhat differently depending on language and environment.

Word initial

Western Bade, Gashua Bade, and Ngizim each have two or three words with initial **ai-** and initial **au-**. Though there are few words of this type in any of the languages, this has been a stable position—initial diphthongs have not undergone monophthonigization processes found in other positions (see below).

Western Bade	Gashua Bade	Ngizim	
aikwān	aikwâk	aikwak	'finger'
aison	(āyasà)	aisău	'sand'
audən	àuɗu	àuɗu	'grave'
	aunà	aunâ	'ashes used as flavoring'

Gashua Bade has developed additional initial **au-** diphthongs from ***ag-**/__l (< * \mathfrak{r}), e.g. **aulàmu** 'dum palm' (cf. Western Bade **gùràmən**), **âulai** 'hare' (cf. Western Bade **âgùren**).

Word final:

 <u>Ngizim</u> preserves original final diphthongs and keeps them distinct from final mid vowels.

da kàtài 'that he return' (subjunctive ventive verb)

rakài 'bed'

kàtau '(he) returned' (perfective of class B verb)

àkau 'back'

cf. loanwords with final mid vowels, e.g. $lamb\bar{e}$ 'need', $k\bar{e}k\bar{e}$ 'bicycle', $\bar{A}p\bar{e}n\bar{o}$ 'Hausa person', $g\bar{o}r\bar{o}$ 'kola' (< Kanuri, or possibly Hausa in the cases of 'bicycle' and 'kola')

• <u>Gashua Bade</u> has preserved final diphthongs, but it has also changed original final mid vowels to diphthongs.

<u>Native words</u>: mamai 'you mother!' [abusive expression] < /mama-i/

lakâi 'bed'

kàtau '(he) returned'

àkau 'back'

<u>Loanwords</u>: **lâmbai** 'need' (< Kanuri **lambe**)

kèkai 'bicycle' (< Kanuri or Hausa kèkē) Àpònau 'Hausa person' (< Kanuri àfùno) gōràu 'kola' (< Kanuri or Hausa gōrò)

• <u>Ngizim and Gashua Bade</u> share a rule **ai**, **au** → **ī**, **ū** / ___# when not phrase final. In Gashua Bade, this rule applies to all diphthongs, including those that derive from original mid vowels. Compare the following phrases with the citation forms above.

Ngizim	Gashua Bade	
raki̇̀ bai	lakī bái	'it's not a bed'
nà lambē bai	lâmbīnī tamù?	Ng: 'there's no need' GB: 'it's none of your business!" ('your need [is] what?')
àkū-garâ	àkū-là	'her back'
gōrồ bai	gōrù bai	'not kolas'

 Western Bade has shifted final diphthongs to corresponding mid vowels. It shares this change with Southern Bade, where is shows up more clearly as a WORD FINAL change. The citation form for common nouns in Western Bade, but not Southern Bade, always has an -n suffix, called "nunation". Thus suffix does drop in what R. Lukas (1968) calls the "locative form", providing an environment for word final mid vowels in nouns in Western Bade as well.

tē 'who?'—cf. GB, Ngizim tài

'your mother!' [expression of abuse]—cf. GB mamai < /mama-a-i/ mā̇̃mē!

'mother-of-you (m.s.)'

sâven 'clearing bush'—verbal noun of sàvìyu; cf. Ngizim zàbìyu, azabái

raken 'bed', no vàd ī skun rakè 'I lay on the bed'—cf. GB and Ngizim 'bed'

kàtō '(he) returned'—cf. GB and Ngizim 'return' above

 $\dot{m}s\bar{o} < /*\dot{m}-s-a-w/$ 'this one (m.s.)'—the hyphenated formatives show up in the determiner systems of the various Bade/Ngizim languages; the *-a-w shows

up in its "purest" form as -āw in Gashua Bade, e.g. kwàm-āw 'this bull' 'back', no takso karen ī àkō 'I tied the load on the back'—cf. GB and

àkon

Ngizim above

Medial

The status of medial diphthongs, both historically and synchronically, is more complex than that of word initial and word final diphthongs. Comparing Bade and Ngizim, there are three basic configurations.

Western Bade	Gashua Bade	Ngizim	
(1) BOTH BADE AND	NGIZIM HAVE HIGH VO	OWELS FROM ORIGINAL	DIPHTHONGS.
àlkītán = àlgētán	àrgītà	àlgītâ	"oboe"
_			(Kanuri àlgaità)
mīwán	mīwâ	mīwà	'nursing mother'
cf. men 'mother'	cf. mài 'mother'	cf. mài 'mother'	
sīdu	sīdu	zìdu cf. VN zàyat	'slaughter'
buwa < *bau-(w)a	buwâ < *bau-(w)a	cf. bàu	'red'
cf. zàutu (zàwatən)	zū̀ci		'loose stools from
'have diarrhea'	cf. zàutu (zàwat)	cf. zàutu (zàwat)	diarrhea'

(2) BADE HAS MID VO	(2) BADE HAS MID VOWEL (OR DIPHTHONG DIALECTALLY), NGIZIM HAS DIPHTHONG.				
(tdu)	(dîyu)	yàiɗu cf. VN yàyaɗ	'wrap, twist'		
		yàiku cf. VN yàyak	'rub to smooth'		
gàunu cf. VN gawanán	gồnu cf. VN gàwan	gàunu cf. VN gàwan	'weave (mat)'		
kàuyu	kồyu	kàuyu cf. VN kàwai	'fry'		
vồnu cf. VN vawanán	vồnu cf. VN vàwan	cf. Duwai v ùno (VN òvgwan !)	'cut off millet heads'		
(vàrku)	(vàlku)	vàiku cf. VN vàyak	'surround'		
(sùwàrān)	sồlak	sàurak	'in-law'		
(3) BADE HAS MID VOWEL (OR DIPHTHONG DIALECTALLY), NGIZIM HAS HIGH VOWEL.					
nàutu = nồtu	nồtu	nū̀tu	'pass'		
võtu	võtu	vū̀tu	'turn around/away'		

This table omits diphthongs from sources other than inheritance. These include

- <u>recent loanwords</u>, e.g. WB **wàinan** 'millet cake' < Hausa, **jaurò** 'a lot' < Kanuri; GB **àlàsainì** 'measuring bowl' < ?; Ng **mainà** 'prince' < Kanuri, **dauvâ** 'cassava' < ?
- productive reduplicants, e.g. WB waunu 'spend several days' < until inu 'spend the night'
- <u>au < *agrV</u>, e.g. GB làulu, Ng ràuru 'call' (cf. WB dàgùru), GB càubu 'peck' (cf. WB jàkùbu, Ng càkwbu)—see also word initial cases in Gashua Bade above
- <u>miscellaneous contractions and metatheses</u>, e.g. Ng **jàunàk** 'elephant' (cf. GB **ngìwànàk**)—cf. also the form of word for 'in-law' in WB in the table

We can make some sense of this through a series of historical developments:

- (a) ai, $au \rightarrow \bar{i}$, \bar{u} / ___# ~ phrase final: This rule is reconstructable for the Bade/Ngizim group and is still productive in Duwai, Ngizim, and Gashua Bade, i.e. everywhere except Western (and Southern?) Bade. The early application of this rule is evident in group (1) in the table, where the root with monophthong became lexically dissociated from the base form with a diphthong, the result being that the long, high vowel monophthong shows up even in Western Bade.
- (b) *ai, *au > $\bar{\mathbf{e}}$, $\bar{\mathbf{o}}$ / C___C in Bade: This has been inherited in all Bade varieties, but not in Ngizim or Duwai (cf. Duwai $n\bar{\mathbf{u}}$ to 'pass', with medial $\bar{\mathbf{u}}$, as in Ngizim, not $n\bar{\mathbf{o}}$ tu, with medial *au or with medial $\bar{\mathbf{o}}$ as in Bade). Historical diphthongs seem to be marginally retained in some subdialects of Western Bade.
- (c) The fate of diphthongs in Ngizim: Ngizim has sometimes kept diphthongs, sometimes shifted them to high monophthongs. Roughly, those that have been RETAINED are those in words with a morpheme alternate that has an $\mathbf{a} + \mathbf{glide} + \mathbf{V}$ sequence. There are many Ngizim words with medial long high vowels. For most of these, there are no morpheme alternates and no comparative evidence to relate them to erstwhile diphthongs, e.g. $\mathbf{v}\bar{\mathbf{d}}\hat{\mathbf{a}}$ 'hare' (cf. GB $\mathbf{f}\bar{\mathbf{d}}\hat{\mathbf{a}}$), $\mathbf{b}\hat{\mathbf{u}}\mathbf{k}\mathbf{u}$ 'lack' (no known cognate in Bade), but for a few, such as those in group (3) in the table, Bade shows that the words probably originally had diphthongs. For Ngizim, then, these words seem to have had the same fate as those in group (1), with the diphthong succumbing to the rule in (a) above and being lexicalized as such.

Vowels in hiatus

Vowels frequently come into hiatus across word boundaries. Bade/Ngizim resolve hiatus by elision or coalescence. I have studied these processes most thoroughly for Western Bade. They would be similar for other Bade dialects. They would also be similar for Ngizim, though Ngizim has only a subset of the hiatus environments found in Bade. The table shows the outcomes of all possible vowel hiatuses in Western Bade, followed by examples. Cells representing non-occurring sequences are shaded.

1 st ↓	$2^{\mathrm{nd}} \rightarrow$								
	9-	i-	u-	ī-	ū-	a-	ā-	ē-	ō-
-ә	Э		u	Ī	ū	a	ā		
-i	Э		u	ī	ū	a	ā		
-u	Э		u	ī	ū	a	ā		
-Ī	ī		ī	ī	īu	iya	iyā		
-ū	see note on word final [ū] below								
-a	a		a	ē	au	a	ā		
-ā	ā		ā	āi	āu	ā	ā		
-ē	ē		ē	ē	eu	ē	e(y)ā		
-ō	Ō		Ō	o(y)ī	ou	Ō	o(w)ā		

-ә	9-	/jè màsə əfcān/ → [jè màsəfcấn]	'we bought a mat'	
-ә	u-	/aci màsə ùgdān/ → [acə masûgdān/	'he bought a gourd'	
-ә	ī-	/aci də̀psə īgi̇̀/ → [acə də̀psīgì]	'he hid it for you'	
-ә	ū-	/aci ɗə̀gə น้ràkən/ → [acə ɗə̀gūrakə́n]	'he followed a leopard'	
-ә	a-	/aci màsə akún/ → [acə masakún] 'he bought a goat'		
-ә	ā-	/aci ùktə āmə́n/ → [acuktāmə́n]	'he took water'	
-i	9-	/dà masì əfcān/ → [dà masəfcán]	'that he buy a mat'	
-i	u-	/dà masì ùgdān/ → [dà masûgdān]	'that he buy a gourd'	
-i	Ī-	/da dòpsì īgì/ → [da dòpsīgì] 'that he hide (it) for you'		
-i	ū-	/dà ɗəgì ùràkən/ → [dà ɗəgùràkən] 'that he follow a leopard'		
-i	a-	/dà masì akún/ → [dà masakún] 'that he buy a goat'		
-i	ā-	/dà ùkti āmə́n/ → [dàkwtāmə́n]	'that he take water'	
-u	9-	/atu ə̀sfu/ → [atəsfú]	'she swept'	
-u	u-	/atu ùktu/ → [atuktú]	'she took'	
-u	Ī-	/atu i̇ko/ → [atīkó]	'she saw'	
-u	ū-	/atu น้nu/ → [atūnú]	'she spent the night'	
-u	a-	/atu à taksà/ → [atataksà]	'she will tie'	
-u	ā-	/atu ā náw/ → [atānáw]	'she will count (them)'	

-ī	ə-	/aci màsə īgì əfcān/ → [acə masīgìfcān] 'he bought you a mat'			
-ī	u-	/aci màsə īgì ùgdān/ → [acə masīgìgwdân] 'he bought you a gourd'			
-ī	ī-	/aci kàɗa gầ j jərén/ → [acə kəɗa gầjərén] 'his testimony is better than yours'			
	-	("he exceeds you as-to truth")			
-ī	ū-	/aci gàfa īgì ùràkən/ → [acə gàfēgìuràkən] 'he caught you a leopard'			
		I find it impossible to tell, even after repeated listenings, whether the phonetic result of this combination is one or two syllables.			
-ī	a-	/nə bàrə īgī̀ akún/ → [nə bàrīgìyakun] 'I gave you a goat'			
-ī	ā-	/nə bàrə īgi̇̀ āmə́n/ → [nə bàrīgiyāmə́n] 'I gave you water'			
-ū	V-	There are no lexical long $/-\bar{\mathbf{u}}/$ at the end of words. Word final $[\bar{\mathbf{u}}]$ does result from addition of the Previous Reference Marker ' \mathbf{w} to words ending in short high vowels, e.g. $\hat{\mathbf{m}}\hat{\mathbf{s}}\hat{\mathbf{u}}$ 'husband' $+$ ' $\mathbf{w} \rightarrow [\hat{\mathbf{m}}\hat{\mathbf{s}}\hat{\mathbf{u}}]$ 'the husband'. With words ending in $-\mathbf{a}$, the combination $-\mathbf{a} + -\mathbf{w}$ does not become $[\mathbf{o}]$ as the true diphthong * $\mathbf{a}\mathbf{u}$ normally would in this dialect, e.g. $\mathbf{d}\mathbf{a}\mathbf{w}$ 'the eye' vs. $\mathbf{d}\mathbf{o}$ 'remove' (cf. Ngizim $\mathbf{d}\tilde{\mathbf{a}}\mathbf{u}$ 'the eye' and 'remove'). I therefore take word final $[\bar{\mathbf{u}}]$ to be a vowel $+$ glide rhyme $/\mathbf{u}\mathbf{w}/$ rather than a true vocalic nucleus $/\bar{\mathbf{u}}/$.			
-a	ə-	/aci gàfa èktlan/ → [acə gàfaktlán] 'he caught a cow'			
-a	u-	/atu da ùgzì/ → [atə dagwzì] 'that she return'			
-a	ī-	/aci gàfa īgi/ → [acə gàfēgi] 'he caught (it) for you'			
		/dəla dàra jàga i̇̀ gājà/ → [dəla dàra jàgē gājà] 'the jackal always comes to our place'			
		/na bàrə-k bḕ-tk-uwà ḕ sōbà/ → [na bərəg bḕtkuwē sōbà]			
		'I will give our thing to (our) friend's wife'			
		/jà àskằka Ìwan pəm/ → [jàskằkēwan pəm] 'we didn't sleep'			
		$/\hat{\mathbf{a}} \hat{\mathbf{i}} \mathbf{k} \cdot \hat{\mathbf{i}} / \rightarrow [\hat{\mathbf{e}} \mathbf{k} \hat{\mathbf{i}}]^2$ 'look!' (m.s. imperative)			
-a	ū-	/aci gàfa ùràkən/ →[acə gàfaurakə́n] 'he caught a leopard'			
-a	a-	/aci gàfa âgwren/ → [acə gàfâgwren] 'he caught a hare'			
-a	ā-	/aci ùktàta āmən pə́m/ → [acuktātāmən pə́m] 'he didn't take water'			
-ā	9-	$/j-\bar{a} \ \partial sk\dot{u}/ \rightarrow [j\bar{a}sk\dot{u}]$ 'we (excl.) are on top'			
-ā	u-	/n-ā ùktà/ → [nākwtà] 'I will take'			
-ā	ī-	/nə-īkā īwà/ → [nīkāiwà] 'I saw for us (incl.)'			
		/jȧ̀ i̇̀ki∕ → [jȧ̀iki] 'that we (excl.) see'			
		/amà-ā-ī/ → [amấi] 'your wife'			
-ā	a-	/nā àkō/ → [nākố] 'I am behind'			
-ā	ā-	/nā ầnəm/ → [nānə́m] 'I am southward'			

_

² Several verbs begin with long $\bar{\mathbf{i}}$. Of these, the verb 'see' is the only one that undergoes the predicted coalescence with $-\mathbf{a}$ to become $[\bar{\mathbf{e}}]$. The others remain diphthongs, e.g. $/\mathbf{d\hat{a}}\ \mathbf{i}\mathbf{d}\mathbf{i}/ \rightarrow [\mathbf{d\hat{a}idi}]$ 'that he twist'. The historical explanation seems to be that the verb 'see' has always begun with $[\bar{\mathbf{i}}]$ whereas the other verbs originally began with *yi-—cf. Ngizim $\mathbf{i}\mathbf{k}\mathbf{a}\mathbf{u}$ 'he saw' but $\mathbf{y}\mathbf{\hat{a}idu}$ 'wrap' (Ngizim has only the historical pluractional form of the latter).

-ē	9-	/dà ùktē əfcān/ → [dàkwtēfcān]	'that he bring a mat'		
-ē	u-	/dà ùktē ùgdān/ → [dàkwtē̃gwdān]	'that he bring a gourd'		
-ē	ī-	/gà ùktē ī-wà akán/ → [gàkwtēwakān] 'that you bring us fire'			
		/jầ əgvề i̇ kunu-k sərà/ → [jầgvề kunuk sərà]	'and we fell in the well'		
-ē	ū-	/da gàfề ằràkən/ → [da gàfềuràkən]	'that he catch a leopard'		
-ē	a-	/dà ùktē akún/ → [dàkwtēkún]	'that he bring a goat'		
		/sē akci dā dùkwì/ → [sēkci dā dùkwì]	'then they heard'		
-ê	ā-	/dà ùktē āmə́n/ → [dàkwtēyāmə́n]	'that he bring water'		
-ō	9-	/no àbjlàm na/ → [nobjlàm ma] 'well the hyena said'			
-ō	u-	(no examples found)			
-ō	Ī-	/ā aiko i̇̀ rē-k mā̀bu-k bàcā-w/ → [āikō(y)ī rēŋ mā̀bug bàcāw]			
		'he was looking to the place of the guy's anus'			
-ō	ū-	/Kabò ùnu a rần?/ → [Kabŏunarần?] 'where	e did Kabo spend the night?'		
-ō	a-	/aci ju nò atu ma/ → [acə jə nồtə ma]	'when he went, she said'		
		/tồ à pàwē 6à/ → [tồpàwē 6à]	'well come on down!'		
-ō	ā-	/ə̀bjlàm à rī nò à kunu-k sərà/ → [ə̀bjlam à rī nò(w)ā kunuk sərà]			
		'the hyena was there in the well'			

A descriptive generalization of Bade vowel hiatus:

<u>Vowel sonority</u>: $\mathbf{a}, \mathbf{e}, \mathbf{o} > \mathbf{i}, \mathbf{u}, \mathbf{a}$

- Like vowels contract to a single vowel, which is long if one of the vowels is long.
- A vowel elides a [-long] neighboring vowel of equal or less sonority.
- A more sonorous vowel followed by a [+long] less sonorous vowel forms a diphthong composed of the first vowel plus a high offglide; a subsidiary adjustment is $/\mathbf{ai}/ \rightarrow [\bar{\mathbf{e}}]$.
- [+long] vowels of equal sonority insert a high glide corresponding to the first vowel between the vowels. [This is a rough generalization. It is not always obvious that there are two syllables as opposed to a single vocalic nucleus with a transition.]

TONES OF BADE/NGIZIM

Like all Chadic languages, languages of the Bade/Ngizim group are tone languages. Some general feature of Bade/Ngizim tones are the following:

- TWO LEVEL TONES AND DOWNDRIFT INTONATION
- EXTENSIVE INTERACTION OF CONSONANT TYPES AND TONE (in both local phonetically induced alternations and in morphologically conditioned tone patterns—we will discuss this in detail later)
- LOW FUNCTIONAL LOAD OF TONE (there are very few words lexically distinguished only by tone, locally conditioned tonal processes result in massive phonetic neutralization of tonal differences, and morphological processes where tone plays a role virtually all are distinct segmentally as well as tonally)

I use the following tone marking conventions. Example words are from Gashua Bade:

```
<u>Unmarked for tone = Hi</u>: \mathbf{k}\bar{\mathbf{u}}\mathbf{du} [ - - ] 'tortoise'

<u>Grave accent ( ` ) = Lo</u>: \mathbf{u}\hat{\mathbf{l}}\mathbf{a}\mathbf{k} [ _ _ ] 'leopard'

<u>Acute accent ( ^ ) = Downstepped Hi</u>: \mathbf{j}\bar{\mathbf{a}}\mathbf{j}\hat{\mathbf{a}} [ - - ] 'thorn fence'

<u>Circumflex accent ( ^ ) = Falling</u>: \mathbf{a}\hat{\mathbf{b}}\mathbf{u} [ \ - ] 'excrement'

<u>Hachek ( ` ) = Rising</u>: \mathbf{j}\hat{\mathbf{a}} [ / ] 'dog'
```

Because of downdrift intonation, a downdrifted Hi after a Lo sets a new Hi register for the phrase. Downdrifted Hi is unmarked, e.g. $b\bar{a}lu$ [_-] 'uvula'. A downstepped Hi after Hi likewise sets a new Hi register, so only the Downstepped Hi that sets the new register is marked, e.g. $s\bar{i}d\partial\eta$ $K\bar{a}ka$ [_--_] 'cut throat' (a type of bird with a red neck, literally, "cutting-of God").

Here are a few examples of lexical and morphological tonal contrasts from Gashua Bade:

əgji (LL)	'thirst'	àgji (LH)	'handle'
kùnù (LL)	'forest'	kùnu (LH)	'stomach'
dègà (LL)	'awl'	dəgà (HL)	'platform'
kwarnà (HL)	'line'	kwar̃na (HH)	ʻjujube'
mìya (LH)	'mouth'	miyâ (HF)	'100'

Tonal distinctions as a function of "tense" Tonal distinctions as a function of verb class

jèn tầksu	'we tied' (pefective)	na d èpsau	'I will hide it'
jà tāksáu	'we will tie' (imperfective)	nà tāksáu	'I will tie it'
jà tầksi	'that we tie' (subjunctive)	nà tlôvū	'I will pierce it'
-		nà t à ɗū	'I will release it'

NOTE ON DISTRIBUTION OF CONTOUR TONES: **Falling tones**—whether lexical, intonationally induced, or the result of tonal assimilations—are fairly common. **Rising tones** are restricted to a few monosyllabic words beginning in modally voiced obstruents, such as **jǎ** 'dog', **vǎu** 'shoot' in GB and Ngizim and **ghǎn** 'pied crow' in WB.

Some problematic features of Bade/Ngizim tones that I have never achieved full understanding of. We will look at some of these issues later.

- PHONOLOGICAL STATUS OF TONAL ALTERNATIONS: To what extent are alternations conditioned by phonological phrasing? To what extent are the alternations purely phonetic assimilatory tendencies as opposed to true phonological changes (as symbolized, say, by autosegmental association lines)?
- DOWNSTEP: Do these languages have true downstepped highs? I often heard and transcribed downsteps, but I was never sure whether these were tonal or intonational (or even real changes in pitch at all as opposed to, say, a drop in amplitude).
- <u>CONTOUR TONES 1</u>: All these languages have both rising and falling contours (see the note on contour tones above). On heavy syllables these are often either clearly conditioned by the consonantal make up of the syllable or are clear cases of contraction of unlike tones onto one syllable. In other cases, like downstep, it isn't clear whether contoured pitches are tonal or intonational patterns.
- <u>CONTOUR TONES 2</u>: Word final light syllables have three kinds of tones: **High**, **Low**, and "Falling/Changing". High and Low behave as one expects, modulo conditioned alternations. "Falling/Changing" tones do not. First, this tone type appears only in the environment / H___#. Second, most "Falling/Changing" tones are on light syllables, yet it is more or less an article of faith in Chadic studies that Chadic languages have only

underlying level register tones, that contours always represent the contraction of unlike level tones onto one syllable, and that only heavy syllables can bear contours (each tone must be associated with a minimum of one mora). Third, though I often heard "Falling/Changing" tones with actual falling pitch, I heard them at least as often as simply Low. They differ from Low, however, in that they are always pronounced as High when medial in a phrase. In at least one morphological process, they also differ from Low, viz. in noun plurals.