# ZAAR GRAMMATICAL SKETCH ${ }^{1}$ 

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[^0]
## 1 Introduction

The Zaar live in the South of Bauchi State (Nigeria), in the Tafawa Balewa and Bogoro Local Government Areas. In the absence of a population census, a rough estimate would put their population at 150000 .
The names derived from the root "Saya" (i.e. Bàsáyè:, pl. Sáyá:wá:, for the speakers, and Sáyáncì: for the language) are the names used by the Hausa. The speakers call themselves Zaar (pl. Zàrsà) meaning 'human being', and call their language vik Zaar (lit. 'mouth of men'). As they consider the term "Saya" derogatory, we use the term Zaar to refer both to the people and to the language.
A Zaar "village" will have a scattering of the compounds typical of the Nigerian savannah. A compound (dàn, pl. dìns'́) is made up of mud huts (vì:n, pl. vi:nsó) with grass roofs arranged in a circle and surrounded by walls that preserve the intimacy of the inhabitants. Formerly, the Zair had only a religious chief, but they have recently adopted the Hausa chieftaincy system.
According to their oral tradition, the Zaar originate from the lake Chad area. They started migrating southwestwards about four hundred years ago because of the deterioration of farming conditions, or because of the proliferation of slave hunting that developed in the Hausa and Borno kingdoms. After stopping in Duguri, they moved again southeastwards. Shimizu (78: 10) states that:
"The homeland of the speakers of the southern Bauchi group of Chadic was around the three hills Tala, Kir and Buli hills, which are located just to the south of the Bauchi township."

They moved again further south to take refuge in the hills on the east side of the plateau area. Many moved down to their present location in the plain at the foot of those hills when the area was pacified under British colonization.
Newman 1980 classifies Zaar in the West-B3 group of Chadic languages, with some doubts arising from the properties it shares with Angas. Four dialects can be distinguished within Zaar, named after the main villages or towns where they are spoken: Bogoro (formerly called the Lusa dialect), Gambar Lere, Marti and Kal. The Kal dialect is very close to what is generally called the Sigidi or Gu:s language (cf. Caron 2001), so much so that Gu:s can be considered a dialect of Zaar.
Most Zaar people of the younger generation are bilingual in Hausa-Zaar. They are schooled in Hausa in primary school, before learning English. The Zaar are Christians and use a Hausa translation of the Bible. The older generation are not sure of themselves in Hausa, whereas the younger educated elite, who often hold positions in the administration, police and education, switch comfortably between Zaar, Hausa and English.

### 1.1 General abbreviations

| $\pm \mathrm{D}$ | $\pm$ Depressor consonant |
| :--- | :--- |
| AP | Adjectival Phrase |
| F | Falling tone |
| H | High tone |
| IU | Intonation Unit |
| L | Low tone |
| M | Mid tone |
| NP | Noun Phrase |
| PosL | Possessive Link |
| PP | Prepositional Phrase |
| R | Rising tone |
| VP | Verb Phrase |

### 1.2 Parts of Speech, Syntax \& Indices (lrx tier)

| Label ( $\backslash$ rx) | Meaning | Associated \ge labels and/or examples |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| ADJ | Adjective |  |
| ADV | Adverb |  |
| ADV.DEICT | Deictic Adverb | here, yesterday, etc. |
| ADV.Q | Adverbial Question Word |  |
| ADV.REL | Adverbial Relative |  |
| apho | apophony |  |
| ato | apotony |  |
| AUX | Auxiliary |  |
| BKL | Backchannelling |  |
| CLICK | Click |  |
| CONJ | Conjunction |  |
| CSW.ENG | Codeswitching to English |  |
| CSW.HAU | Codeswitching to Hausa |  |
| der | derivation |  |
| DET | determinant | ART; DET; PL; PL1 |
| DET.DEICT | Deictic modifier | PROX; DIST |
| EXCL | Exclamation |  |
| FILL | Filler |  |
| FS | False Start |  |
| HESIT | Hesitation |  |
| hom | homonymy |  |
| IDEOPH | Ideophone |  |
| INTJ | Interjection |  |
| N | Noun |  |
| N.P | Proper Noun |  |
| N.PL | Plural Noun |  |
| N.V | Verbal Noun |  |
| NUM | Numeral |  |
| ONOM | Onomatopoeia |  |
| PN | Person, Number | 1S; 2PL; 3S |
| PREP | Preposition | to, from, etc. |
| PRO | Pronoun |  |
| PRO.DEICT | Deictic pronoun | DIST; PROX |
| PRO.IDP | Independent Pronoun | 1SG, 1PL, etc. |
| PRO.LOC | Locative Pronoun | ANAPH |
| PRO.OBJ | Object Pronoun | 1SG, 1PL, etc. |
| PRO.POS | Possessive Pronoun | 1SG, 1PL, etc. |
| PRO.Q | Interrogative pronoun | who, what?, etc. |
| PRO.REF | Reflexive Pronoun | 1SG, 1PL, etc. |
| PRO.REL | Relative Pronoun | which, etc. |
| PTCL | Particle |  |
| PTCL.ASS | Assertive Particle | FCT; VRT; Q; CTF |
| PTCL.NEG | Negative Particle | NEG1, NEG2, NEG3 |
| PTCL.PRED | Predicative Particle | COP1, COP2, COP3, |
| PTCL.SYNT | Syntactic Particle | CAUS; REL1; REL2 |
| $\begin{aligned} & \text { PTCL.TOP } \\ & \text { red } \end{aligned}$ | Topicalising Particle reduplication | too, even, etc. |
| TAM | Tense, Aspect, Mood | AOR; CNT; CONC; COND; DTF; FUT; IMM; IPFV; PFV; ITER; REC; REM; REM; SBJV |
| V | Verb |  |
| V* | Irregular Verb | be; have |
| 1.3 GLOSSING LABELS (lge tier) |  |  |
| Label (\ge) | Meaning Ass | d \rx labels |


| 1 | $1{ }^{\text {st }}$ person | PN; PRO.IDP |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 2 | $2^{\text {nd }}$ person | PN; PRO.IDP |
| 3 | $3{ }^{\text {rd }}$ person | PN; PRO.IDP |
| ANAPH | Anaphoric | PRO.LOC |
| AOR | Aorist | TAM |
| BEN | Dative | PTCL.SYNT |
| CAUS | Causative | PTCL.SYNT |
| COND | Conditional | TAM |
| CONT | Continuous | TAM |
| COP1 | Copula 1 | SYNT.PTCL |
| COP2 | Copula 2 | SYNT.PTCL |
| COP3 | Copula 3 | SYNT.PTCL |
| COP4 | Copula 4 | SYNT.PTCL |
| CTF | Counterfactual | CONJ; TAM |
| CTF | Counterfactual | PTCL.ASS |
| DEF | Definite | DET |
| DET | Determined | DET |
| DIR | Directional | PTCL |
| DIST | Distal | PRO.DEICT; <br> DET.DEICTIC |
| EVD | Evidential | PTCL |
| FCT | Factual | PTCL.ASS |
| FUT | Future | TAM |
| IMM | Immediate Past | TAM |
| INCH | Inchoative | PTCL |
| INDF | Indefinite | DET |
| IPFV | Iperfective | TAM |
| ITER | Iterative-Punctual | TAM |
| NEG1 | Negation 1 | PTCL.NEG |
| NEG2 | Negation 2 | PTCL.NEG |
| NEG3 | Negation 3 | PTCL.NEG |
| NMLZ | Nominalizer | -der |
| OBJ | Object | PN |
| ORD | Ordinal | PTCL |
| PFV | Perfective | TAM |
| PL | Plural | PN; PRO.IDP |
| PL1 | Plural 1 | DET |
| PL2 | Plural 2 | DET |
| POS | Possessive | PTCL.SYNT; PN |
| PROX | Proximal | PRO.DEICT; <br> DET.DEICTIC |
| Q | Interrogative | PTCL.ASS |
| REC | Recent Past | TAM |
| REL1 | Relative Particle 1 | PTCL.SYNT |
| REL2 | Relative Particle 2 | PTCL.SYNT |
| REM | Remote Past | TAM |
| RES | Resultative | TAL |
| SBJ | Nominative | PN |
| SBJV | Sunjunctive | TAM |
| SG | Singular | PN; PRO.IDP |
| VRT | Virtual | PTCL.ASS |

## 2 The sounds of Zaar ${ }^{2}$

### 2.1 Segment inventory

### 2.1.1 Consonants

| glottalized | voiceless obstruents |  |  |  | continuants |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| $6 \quad d$ | $p$ | $t$ | + | $k$ | $m$ | $n$ (n) | $\eta$ |
|  |  | $t s$ | (t) |  |  | $l$ |  |
|  | $f$ | $s$ | ()) |  |  | $r$ |  |
|  |  | $t$ |  |  |  |  |  |
|  |  |  | oiced ob |  |  | glides |  |
|  | $b$ | d |  | g |  | $j \quad w$ | (h) |
|  |  |  | (d) |  |  |  |  |
|  | $v$ | $z$ | (3) | (8) |  |  |  |
|  |  | 5 | 3 |  |  |  |  |
|  |  | ren | asalized | uent |  |  |  |
|  | ${ }^{m} b$ | ${ }^{n} d$ | d | ${ }^{\prime} g$ |  |  |  |
|  |  | 'dz | dz ( ${ }^{4}$ ds) |  |  |  |  |

Phonemes in parentheses are distinctive only in foreign words or other very limited morpheme classes.

### 2.1.2 Vowels

| short |  |  | long |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| $\boldsymbol{i}$ |  | $\boldsymbol{u}$ | $\boldsymbol{i}:$ |  | $u_{i}$ |
| $\boldsymbol{e}$ | $\boldsymbol{o}$ | $\boldsymbol{o}$ | $\boldsymbol{e}:$ | $\boldsymbol{a}:$ | $\boldsymbol{o}:$ |
|  | $\boldsymbol{a}$ |  |  | $a_{:}$ |  |

### 2.2 Sound changes

### 2.2.1 Devoicing

Morpheme-final obstruents are voiceless.

### 2.2.2 Neutralization of velar obstruents

Although $\boldsymbol{k}$ and $\boldsymbol{g}$ are distinctive in morpheme-initial position in members of the lexical categories, this distinction is neutralized in other environments: velar obstruents followed by a voiced segment are voiceless after a voiceless segment or pause boundary and voiced after a voiced segment. Voiced velars are also continuant unless preceded by a nasal. This accounts for the variation, e.g. in the nominalizing suffix -kánì which derives verbal nouns:

| káp-kánì | tiom- ${ }^{\text {hánà }}$ | fú:-yónì |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 'getting' | 'calling' | 'saying' |

### 2.2.3 Palatalization

Velar consonants are palatalized before a front vowel or glide. Except for liquids and implosives, abruptly released alveolar consonants are palatalized before a palatal glide. Except for laterals, alveolar consonants without abrupt release are palatalized before any nonconsonantal palatal.

[^1]
### 2.2.4 Glottalization

Voiced labial and alveolar stops are implosive if preceded by a vowel or liquid, or in initial position in a grammatical formative. When followed by a vowel, morpheme-final labial and alveolar stops are phonetically voiced and implosive. This happens, for example, when the -an plural morpheme is suffixed to verbs.

|  | sg | pl |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 'harvest' | kas | kas-ón |
| 'shave' | wut | wut-ón |
| 'take' | kap | kab-ón |
| 'drive away' | kat | kad-żn |

### 2.2.5 Vowel merger

Suffixation sometimes entails the merger of final vowels with the initial vowel of the suffix. The suffixed definite article modifier -ês (DEF) entails the following changes: $\boldsymbol{u}-+\boldsymbol{e} \boldsymbol{>} \boldsymbol{>} \boldsymbol{- \boldsymbol { o } - ;} \boldsymbol{a} \boldsymbol{a}+\boldsymbol{+} \boldsymbol{e}>\boldsymbol{-} \boldsymbol{o}-$. With the


|  | ART.DEF -ês | 1SG.POS -âtn |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| lû: 'meat' | lồs | lô:tn |
| ngulki 'club' | ngulkês | ngulkêtn |
| màrwa 'millet sp.' | màrwôs | màrwâtn |

### 2.3 Tone system

Zaar has a three-tier tone system: H (marked with an acute accent: $\boldsymbol{a}$ ), M (unmarked: a), L (marked with a grave accent: $\grave{a}$ ).
Initial nonimplosive voiced obstruents have a depressor effect on tones in a some grammatical environments ${ }^{3}$. Let us take Verbal Nouns (N.V) suffixing -kónì as an example. All tones in the NV are L for verbs beginning with a nonimplosive voiced obstruents $(+\mathrm{D})$ while the pattern is $(\mathrm{M}) \mathrm{HHL}$ for verbs beginning with any other consonant (-D).

| 'call' | tfim | tyímygánì | (<tim-kónì) |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| 'choose' | bwa: | bwà̀:ỳ̀ni | (<bwa:-kóni) |

L tone tends to spread over M clitics (tonal sandhi). This can be seen in direct pronominal objects, e.g. $\grave{a}$ : $\boldsymbol{v a r y a}(<\boldsymbol{v a r}=\boldsymbol{k} \boldsymbol{a}$ ) 'he has (3S.PFV) given you' vs. á vàryà (<vàr=ka) 'he (3S.AOR) gave you'.

## 3 Nonverbal predication

Zaar uses verbal and nonverbal clauses. In verbal clauses, the syntactic nexus is an inflected verb. The verb, as a lexical category, is defined by its inability to assume any other function than that of nexus of a sentence ${ }^{4}$. The verb is inflected for Tense, Aspect, and Mood (TAM). In Zaar, this inflection (INFL) is combined with a mark of person agreement with the subject (PN). The Inflection is therefore labelled PN.TAM in the \rx line of the corpus.

| Ex 1. | Subject <br> grajâ:s | INFL | Verb | Object |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
|  | N.P | 3PL.AOR | can | can: |
|  | varge |  |  |  |

The Nganya can forge.
In nonverbal clauses, the syntactic nexus is a Predicative Particle (PTCL.PRED). These particles are not marked for Tense, Aspect, or Mood.

| Ex 2. | NP PTCL.PRED NP <br> gín na  <br> this COP1  | ni:? |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
|  | What is this? | what |

Ex 3. NP PTCL.PRED
$\begin{array}{lll}\text { ma:ndá } & \boldsymbol{g} \boldsymbol{\boldsymbol { t }} & \boldsymbol{k} \boldsymbol{n} \\ \text { fight } \backslash \text { POSL } & \text { woman } & \text { COP2 }\end{array}$

[^2]It is a fight about women (lit. fightlof woman)
Nouns can appear both in the predicating position, e.g. with predicative particles in nonverbal clauses, or as the argument of a verb, a preposition, etc.

### 3.1 Equative clauses: no (COP1)

The structure is $\left\langle\mathrm{NP}_{1}\right.$ nə $\mathrm{NP}_{2}>{ }^{\prime} \mathrm{NP}_{1}$ be $\mathrm{NP}_{2}$ '. This structure is used to identify the two terms of an equation.
Ex 4. Bitúrûs nə pásto=wòpm.
Peter COP1 pastor=1PL.POS
Peter is our pastor.
When the context is explicit, $\mathrm{NP}_{1}$ can be omitted. This is the normal situation when the $\mathrm{NP}_{1}$ is [-human].

## Ex 5. no dsòmì.

COP1 true
It is true.
Ex 6. $\begin{array}{llllll} & \text { no } & \text { nu:? } & - & \text { nə } & \text { sómbôr. }\end{array}$
— Who is it? — It's a stranger.
When $\mathrm{NP}_{1}$ is [+human], it can appear as a pronoun. This pronoun is chosen from the special paradigm of subject pronouns appearing with predicative particles or nonverbal predicates. ${ }^{5}$

| 1s | mi no mầr | I am a thief |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 2s | ki na mâ:r | You (s) are a thief |
| 3 s | tyi na mâ:r | He is a thief |
| 1p | mì na masráysa | We are thieves |
| 2p | kì na marráysa | You (p) are thieves |
| 3p | tii no ma:ráysa | They are thieves |

### 3.2 Identifying clauses

### 3.2.1 = kən 'it is' (COP2)

Structure: <NP=kan> 'it is NP'. This clitic particle is used to name and assert the existence of something. Ex 7. ma:ndá gàt=kən.
war.POS woman=COP2
It was a fight about women (lit. 'a fight of women').
It is used in focus constructions:
Ex 8. yajâ:s=kən tó djă: va:t.
Nganyas=COP2 3PL.AOR can forge
It's the Nganyas who can forge.
It can be combined with the equative $\boldsymbol{n}$ :
Ex 9. tá $\begin{array}{lllllllll}\text { jâin } \boldsymbol{n} & \text { no } & \text { sóywa:rês=kən } & \text { já: } & \text { mâs } & \boldsymbol{d z a ̀ m} & \boldsymbol{g i ́}: & \text { fâa:? }\end{array}$
then if COP1 priest=COP2 3SG.COND die day this Q
Then, what if it is the religious chief who dies on that day?

### 3.2.2 =kəní/=kənín/=kəndí

For extra emphasis, =kən can suffix -í, -ín (<-ín) or -dí.
Structure: <NP=kaní=kəndí=kənín>'here is NP'.
The three forms, very close semantically, are frequently used to identify the focus in a focus construction.

- In the form =kəní, $-\boldsymbol{i}$ is an operator that asserts the existence of the operand within the referential domain of the speech act.
Ex 10. já:=kəní! [já:yəní]
3SG.IDP=COP2
Here he/she is!
The neutralization of the initial velar obstruent applies: [àlbása=yəní; kătń=ygəní; tit=kəní] 'here are onions; here are egg plants; here is acha (Digitaria sp.)'.

[^3]- =kan-ín results from the suffixation of the proximal deictic -án to the =kan form.
Ex 11.
dèk
reason.POS
ygafin
dan mjă:jí
REL 1PL.IPFV.ITER
zaktí:
show.3SG.OBJ.RES
jâ:n ji=kən-ín
3SG.IDP be=COP2-PROX
The reason why we used to celebrate it is ..
- =kən-dí is the distal counterpart of =kən-ín.

That's the only reason why it is called Ləpm Zaar.


### 3.3 Existential clauses: ©da 'there is’ (COP3)

The stucture of the clause is: $\left\langle\mathrm{NP}_{1} d a\right\rangle$ 'there is $\mathrm{NP}_{1}$ '.

| Ex 13. | $\boldsymbol{k} \boldsymbol{k} \boldsymbol{a f a ́}:$ | $\boldsymbol{d} \boldsymbol{a}$ | $\boldsymbol{z a} \boldsymbol{a}: \boldsymbol{m}$ | $\boldsymbol{d a}$ | $\boldsymbol{g a ̀} \cdot \boldsymbol{r} \dot{\prime}$ | $\boldsymbol{d a}$ | $\boldsymbol{g w a ̀ t e ́}$ | $\boldsymbol{g e d i}$ | $\boldsymbol{d a}$ |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
|  | rice | COP3 | bean | COP3 | cassava | COP3 | potage.of | yam | COP3 |

'There is rice, beans, cassava, yam potage.' (menu of a restaurant as announced by the waitress).

## 4 The TAM system

The syntactic nexus of verbal sentences is the complex combining TAM (Tense -Aspect-Mood) and PN (Person-Number ${ }^{6}$ ), cliticized to the left of the verb.
Ex 14.


Whether I agree or I refuse, he will marry one of our girls. (SAY BC CONV 01 SP2 209-211)
Compared to the other South-Bauchi-West languages, Zaar has an exceptionally complex TAM system.

### 4.1 Aspect

|  | AOR | PFV | IPFV | ITER | CONC | CONT |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 1s | mo | má: | mjá: | miji:/mji: | mjá:na: | mijá / mjá |
| 2s | ko | ká: | kjá: | kiji:/kji: | kjá:na: | kijá / kjá |
| 3 s | á | à: | tá: | $j i$ : | tá:na: | tivá / tfá |
| 1p | má | mà: | mjă: | mà:ji | mjă:na: | mì $\mathrm{l}_{\text {á / mjă: }}$ |
| 2p | kó | kà: | kjă: | kà:ji | kjă:na: | kì̀á / kjă: |
| 3p | tó | tà: | tă: | tà:ji | tă:na: | tî ya / tuă: |

Aorist (AOR). The inflection follows the pattern $\langle\mathrm{PN}+\boldsymbol{\phi}\rangle$. It has a narrative functional value, and is the default tense for impersonal verbs and verbs of perception. Verbs appear with a high tone on their first syllable in the first and second persons singular. In the third person singular and in the plural, they appear in the modified form ${ }^{7}$.
Perfective (PFV). The inflection follows the pattern $\left\langle\mathrm{PN}+\dot{a}_{\boldsymbol{a}}\right\rangle$. The form of the verb is the lexical form.
Imperfective (IPFV). The inflection follows the pattern $\left\langle\mathrm{PN}+j a a_{:}\right\rangle$. The verb appears in the lexical form in the singular, and in the modified form in the plural.
Iterative. The meaning is iterative in the imperfective and continuous, punctual with other TAMs. The closest equivalent is the periphrastic Hausa ji ta', meaning 'keep on doing $X$ '. The inflection follows the structure $\langle\mathrm{PN}+\boldsymbol{j i}:\rangle$. The verb appears in the lexical form.
Concomitant. The inflection follows the pattern <PN +já: + na:>. The verb keeps its lexical form.
Continuous. The inflection follows the pattern $\langle\mathrm{PN}+\boldsymbol{j i}+\boldsymbol{k a}+\mathrm{N} . \mathrm{V}\rangle$. Ji+ká is realized [jizá]. In the monosyllabic variant, the singular / plural contrast is marked by a rising MH tone in the singular vs. a rising LH in the plural. It is the only place in the language where this contrast is observed. However, it seems to be unstable and tends to be replaced among younger speakers by a contrast between M in the singular and Rising in the plural.

[^4]
### 4.2 Tense

|  | IMM | REC | REM | FUT |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| $1 s$ | mí: | məná: | motá | ma |
| $2 s$ | kí: | kəná: | kstá | ka |
| $3 s$ | ájí | áná: | átâ | wò |
| $1 p$ | $m i ̀$ | mànà: | mòtà | má |
| $2 p$ | kì: | kànà: | kàtà | ká |
| $3 p$ | ti i : | tònà: | tòtà | tá |

Immediate past. The Immediate Past refers to events which occurred earlier in the same day. The inflection follows the pattern $<\mathrm{PN}+\boldsymbol{j i}\rangle$. The first syllable of the verb takes a low tone.
Recent Past. The Recent Past refers to events which occurred on the previous day. The inflection follows the pattern «PN + ná: ». The verb keeps its lexical form.
Remote Past. The Remote Past refers to events which occurred more than two days ago. The inflection follows the pattern $\langle\mathrm{PN}+\boldsymbol{t a}\rangle$. The verb keeps its lexical form.
Future. The inflection follows the pattern $\langle\mathrm{PN}+\boldsymbol{a}\rangle$. The verb appears in its lexical form in the singular, and the modified form in the plural.

### 4.3 Mood

|  | SUBJ | COND | CTF |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 1s | m̀ | mjá: | mí/míjí |
| 2s | $\grave{a}_{\text {a }}$ | kjá: | kílkijí |
| 3 s | tò | já: | tiljii/tijij/tiji |
| 1p | $\boldsymbol{m o ̀}+\boldsymbol{L}$ | mjă: | mì/mìjì |
| 2 p | $\grave{a}:+L$ | kjă: | kì/kìjı |
| 3p | $t{ }_{\text {d }}+\boldsymbol{L}$ | jă:/tyă: | til/tiji/tiji |

Subjunctive. The inflection follows the pattern <PN + low tone>. In the plural, a low tone is added to the first syllable of the verb.
Conditional. The inflection follows the pattern <PN + já:>. In the first and second persons singular, the verb takes a high tone on its first syllable. In the other persons, the verb appears in the modified form. The only difference with respect to IPRF is in 3 s .
Counterfactual. The inflection follows the pattern $\langle\mathrm{PN}+\boldsymbol{j} \boldsymbol{i}\rangle$. The verb appears in the modified form. The Counterfactual is introduced by the conjunctions jâ:n or dà: (< Hausa) 'if, if only' with a counterfactual meaning.

### 4.4 Composition

### 4.4.1 Compound aspects

The three basic aspects (Perfective, Imperfective, Aorist) cannot be combined.

|  | PFV.ITER | IPFV.ITER | IPFV.CONT | PFV.CONT |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 1 s | má:ji | mjáaji | mjáajizá | mijiijizá |
| 2s | ká:ji | kjá:ji | kjá:jiçá | kiji:jijú |
| 3 s | $\grave{a}_{\text {a }}^{\text {ji }}$ i | tfá:ji | tá:jizá | ji:jizá |
| 1p | mà:ji | mjă:ji | mjă:jizá | míji:jizá |
| 2p | kà:ji | kjă:ji | kjă:jiizá | kiji:jizá |
| 3p | tà:ji | tă: ${ }^{\text {i }}$ | tă̌:jì ${ }_{\text {áa }}$ | tiji:jizá |

Perfective Iterative. The inflection follows the pattern <PN + $\dot{\boldsymbol{a}}:+\boldsymbol{j} \boldsymbol{i}\rangle$. All verbs following the $\boldsymbol{j} \boldsymbol{i}$ iterative morpheme keep their lexical form. This is true for all combinations.
Imperfective Iterative. The inflection follows the pattern $\langle\mathrm{PN}+j a \check{:}+j i\rangle$.
Imperfective Continuous. The structure of the inflection is <PN $+\boldsymbol{j a ̆}:+\boldsymbol{j} \boldsymbol{i}+\boldsymbol{k a} \mathbf{a}^{\prime} . \boldsymbol{J i}+\boldsymbol{k a}$ is realized [jizá]. The verb appears in the form of a Verbal Noun.
Iterative Continuous. The structure of the inflection is $\langle\mathrm{PN}+\boldsymbol{j i}:+\boldsymbol{j} \boldsymbol{i}+\boldsymbol{k} \boldsymbol{a}\rangle . \boldsymbol{J i}+\boldsymbol{k} \boldsymbol{a}$ is realized [jijád]. The verb appears in the form of a Verbal Noun. This combination is not common and Zaar speakers usually prefer to use the Imperfective Continuous instead.

### 4.4.2 Tense and aspect

| FUT.ITER | FUT.CONT | REM.PFV | REM.IPFV |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |


| 1 s | maji | majizá | má:tá | mətájá: |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 2s | kaji | kajijá | ká:tá | kstájá: |
| 3s | wòji | wòjiziá | à:tá | átajá: |
| 1p | máji | májizá | mà:tá | màtàjá: |
| 2p | káji | kájizá | kà:tá | kòtàjá: |
| 3p | táji | tájizá | tà:tá | tòtàjá: |
|  | REM.ITER | REM.CONT | REC.PFV | REC.IPFV |
| 1 s | motáji | motájijá | má:ná: | moná:já: |
| 2s | kotáji | kotájizá | ká:ná: | kəná:já: |
| 3 s | átáji | átájizá | à:ná: | áná:já: |
| 1p | mòtàji | màtàjijá | mà:ná: | mànà:já: |
| 2p | kàtàji | kàtàjijá | kà:ná: | kı̀nà:já: |
| 3 p | tàtàji | tàtàjijá | tà:ná: | tònà:já: |
|  | REC.ITER | REC.CONT | IMM.IPRF | IMM.CONT |
| 1 s | məná:ji | məná:jijá | má:jí | mí:jì ${ }^{\text {áa }}$ |
| 2s | kəná:ji | kəná:jizá | ká:jí | kí:jìzá |
| 3 s | áná:ji | áná:jizá | à:jí | ájjì yá |
| 1 p | mònà:ji | mànà:jizá | mà:jí | mì:jì ${ }^{\text {á }}$ |
| 2 p | kònà:ji | kònà:ji̇já | kà:jí | kìjì̀á |
| 3 p | tònà:ji | tònà:jizá | tà:jí | tî:jì ${ }^{\text {áa }}$ |

Future Punctual. The inflection has the structure: $\langle\mathrm{PN}+\boldsymbol{a}+\boldsymbol{j} \boldsymbol{i}\rangle$. The verb keeps its lexical form.
Future Continuous. The inflection has the structure: $\langle\mathrm{PN}+\boldsymbol{a}+\boldsymbol{j} \boldsymbol{i}+\boldsymbol{k} \dot{a}\rangle$. The verb is in the form of a Verbal Noun.
Remote Past Perfect. The inflection has the structure: $\langle\mathrm{PN}+\dot{a}:+\boldsymbol{t} \dot{a}\rangle$. The verb is in the modified form.
Remote Past Imperfect. The inflection has the structure: <PN + ta+já:>. The verb appears in its lexical form in the singular, and in the modified form in the plural (cf. Imperfect).
Remote Past Punctual. The inflection has the structure: $\langle\mathrm{PN}+\boldsymbol{t a}+\boldsymbol{j i}\rangle$. The verb keeps its lexical form. Lusa speakers associate this combination with the Dgòbíjà dialect. They prefer to use the Recent Past Imperfect.
Remote Past Continuous. The inflection has the structure: $\langle\mathrm{PN}+\boldsymbol{t a}+\boldsymbol{j} \boldsymbol{i}+\boldsymbol{k a}\rangle$. The verb is in the form of a Verbal Noun.
Recent Past Perfect. The inflection follows the pattern <PN +á: + ná:>. The verb appears in the modified form.
Recent Past Imperfect. The inflection follows the pattern <PN + náa + já:>. The verb appears in its lexical form in the singular, and in the modified form in the plural.
Recent Past Punctual. The inflection follows the pattern 〈PN + ná: + ji>. The verbs keep their lexical form. This combination is associated with the Bógoró / Dgòbíjà dialect by Lusa speakers. They prefer to use the Recent Past Imperfect.
Recent Past Continuous. The inflection follows the pattern <PN + ná: $+\boldsymbol{j} \boldsymbol{i}+\boldsymbol{k} a ́\rangle$. The verb is in the form of a Verbal Noun.
Immediate Past Perfect. The inflection follows the pattern $\langle\mathrm{PN}+\dot{a}:+j i\rangle$. The first syllable of the verb receives a low tone.
Immediate Past Imperfect. The inflection follows the pattern <PN $+\boldsymbol{j i}:+j a ́:>$. The verb appears in its lexical form in the singular, and in the modified form in the plural.
Immediate Past Continuous. The inflection follows the pattern <PN $+\boldsymbol{j} \boldsymbol{i}+\boldsymbol{j} \boldsymbol{i}+\boldsymbol{k} \boldsymbol{a}\rangle$. The verb appears in the form of a Verbal Noun.

### 4.4.3 Mood and aspect

|  | REC.CONT | REM.CONT |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| 1 s | mína: | míta |
| 2 s | kína: | kíta |
| 3 s | tína: $/$ tína: | tita $/$ fita |
| 1 p | mìnà: | mìtà |
| 2 p | kinà: | kità |

## $3 \mathrm{p} \quad$ tìnà: / thinà: tità / tyità

## 5 Word order

### 5.1 Nonverbal Clauses

The order is either < S COP O> or <NP COP>.

### 5.2 Verbal clauses

The usual order is $\langle\mathrm{S}$ INFL V O〉.

### 5.3 NP

The general NP order is Head-Modifier, except for adjectives where the alternative order Modifier-Head can be used.

### 5.4 VP

The usual VP order is VO.

### 5.5 Word order variation

In the Continuous, with a nominal direct object, the usual <SBJ-TAM V OBJ> can be changed to <SBJTAM OBJ V>:

| Ex 15. | SBJ-TAM | OBJ | V | SBJ-TAM | V | OBJ |  |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
|  | tfă: | rí:bsija | bál-kánì | $=$ | tfă: | bál-kân | rí:dsija |
|  | 3PL.CONT | well | dig-NMLZ |  | 3PL.CONT | dig-NMLZ | well |

They are digging a well.

| Ex 16. | $\boldsymbol{m} \boldsymbol{\boldsymbol { a }}$ | $\boldsymbol{t} \boldsymbol{u}=\int \boldsymbol{i}$ | á | $\boldsymbol{m b u ̂ k n}$ | $\boldsymbol{y} \boldsymbol{i}$ i-kôn |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
|  | 1PL.AOR | meet=3PL.OBJ | at | coco_yam | eat-NMLZ |

This alternative order is found in certain trade names: murḱ́ gjà:s nḑómkánì 'fisherman (lit. man-of fish catching)'. Cf. the alternative word order used for others: murká mbwá:kân zarí 'a spinner' (lit. 'man-of spinning thread').
With a pronominal direct object, the order <SBJ-TAM OBJ V> is compulsory. In this case, the locative component $-\boldsymbol{k} \boldsymbol{a}$ 'at' of the TAM takes the pre-pronominal form -bas:

| Ex 17. | nêes | má: | til-6as=to | sú:-kôn |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | girl.ANAPH | too | 3SG.CONT-3SG.OBJ | love-NMLZ |
|  | The girl to | she | ved him. |  |

### 5.6 The verb 'forget'

The verb 'forget' has the word la: 'work' as subject and the experiencer as direct object.
Ex 18. la: wò mal Dànda.
work 3SG.FUT forget Dənda
Dənda will forget.
Reference to the present state of affairs is made through the Aorist: lă: (<la: á) málàm (<mâl=am) 'I have forgotten'.

| 1s | lă: mál=àm | I have forgotten |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 2 s | lă: mâl=ỳे | you have forgotten |
| 3 s | lă: mâl=tà | etc. |
| 1p | lă̌: mâl=mí |  |
| 2p | lă: mâl=kí |  |
| 3 p | lă: mâl=fi |  |

Any extra argument (e.g. the thing that has been forgotten) is a comitative (tá X 'with X '): la: à: malam tó gì: 'I have forgotten that'.

## 6 Verb classes

Zaar has two verb tone classes: Middle (M) and High (H), which can be contrasted in the Perfective. The M class includes both 1- and 2-syllable verbs (M1 and M2 respectively). A variant appears with some

PN.TAMs (especially the Imperfective with plural PN) and the initial consonant of the verb is $[+\mathrm{D}]^{8}$. For short, we call the Perfective form "lexical", and the other one "modified".

| Lexical <br> (PFV) |  |  |  |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| H | Mú: $\mathbf{~ ( H )}$ <br> (PL.IPFV) |  |  |
| M1 [+D] | bwa: (M) | sŭ: (R) | 'love' |
| M2 [+D] | da:mbár (MH) | bwà: (L) | dá:mbár (LH) |
| M1 [-D] | ta:r (M) | tâ:r (F) | 'disturb' |
| M2 [-D] | tu:rá (MH) | tû:rá (FH) | 'clear' |

### 6.1 The defective verbs $j i$ 'be' and $j$ ir 'have'

'Be' in Zaar is expressed by the word $\boldsymbol{j i}$, which can be analyzed as a defective verb. This verb is invariable and only conjugated in the Aorist ${ }^{9}$. The 3 s ( $\boldsymbol{t} \boldsymbol{z}$ ) and 3 p ( $\left.\boldsymbol{t} \boldsymbol{\jmath}\right) \mathrm{TAMs}$ and the verb $\boldsymbol{j} \boldsymbol{i}$ merge: $\boldsymbol{t} \boldsymbol{t}+\boldsymbol{j} \boldsymbol{i}>\boldsymbol{t} \boldsymbol{i} ; \boldsymbol{t} \boldsymbol{\partial}+\boldsymbol{j} \boldsymbol{i}>$ $t i$.

| Ex 19. | mur | -ês | ti | nàmbóy |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | man | -ART.DEF | 3s.AOR.BE | one |

There is only one man (lit: the man is one)
The PN is dropped when the subject is [-animate], leaving the bare $j i$ verb. When the [-animate] subject is contextual, only the $\boldsymbol{j} \boldsymbol{i}$ verb remains with the null Aorist INFL: (sabrês) ji nàmbóy. 'There is only one (knife)' (lit. '(the knife) is one').
This type of equative sentence has various uses:

- Attributive construction with numerals: <NP (AOR) $\boldsymbol{j i}$ NUM> (cf. 19 above)
- Location: <NP (AOR) ji PP>

Ex 20. kadayf-ês tì kár vì:n.
dog.PL-DEF 3PL.AOR.be behind hut
The dogs are behind the hut.
Certain intrinsically locative $\mathrm{NP}_{2}$ are used with a null preposition.
Ex 21. ji $\quad$ i vì: $\boldsymbol{n}$
AOR.be hut
It is in the room.
Ex 22. gèri tî $\quad \emptyset$ dílzà̀
hen 3PL.AOR.be compound
The hens are in the compound.
The question-word is (té:)dô:

| 1 s | mi té:dồ? | mí dồ: | 'where am I?' |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 2s | ki té: ${ }_{\text {a }}^{\text {on:? }}$ | kídồ? | 'where are you (s.)?' |
| 3 s | tyi té: ${ }_{\text {dồ: }}$ ? | tyî dồ:? | 'where is he?' |
| 1p | mì té: $\hat{\text { on: }}$ ? | mì dồ: | 'where are we?' |
| 2p | kì té: ${ }_{\text {dồ: }}$ ? | kì dôo:? | 'where are you (pl.)?' |
| 3 p | tyi té: d ô:? | til d ô:? | 'where are they?' |

- Possession: the locative structure with a [+human] $\mathrm{NP}_{1}$ and the preposition tá 'with' produces a possessive meaning:

| Ex 23. | mur-ês | $t i$ | tá | kadayfi=wôs | gùda: | mâaj |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | man.DEF | 3SG.AOR.be | with | dogs=3s.POS | unit | three |
|  | The man | ad three dog |  |  |  |  |

The causative derivation ${ }^{10}$ applied to $\boldsymbol{j i}$ produces the verb jír 'have', conjugated in the Aorist:

| $1 s$ | ma jír sabar | I have a knife |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| $2 s$ | ka jír sabar | You have a knife |
| $3 s$ | á jir sabar | He has a knife |
| $1 p$ | má jǔr sabar | We have a knife |

[^5]| $2 p$ | ká jizr sabar | You have a knife |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| $3 p$ | tá jǐr sabar | They have a knife |

With a nominal subject, the Aorist TAM is dropped: Sónde jir mà:/în 'Sunday has a motorcycle.'

- Continuous aspect. The Continuous is a locative construction using the verb $j i \boldsymbol{\prime}$ 'be' and the preposition $\boldsymbol{k} \boldsymbol{a}$ with a Verbal Noun. The subject pronouns belong to the locative subject paradigm: <Pro $+\boldsymbol{j} \boldsymbol{i}+\boldsymbol{k} \dot{a}+$ Verbal Noun ${ }^{11}>$.
- Qualification: <NP ((AOR) ji) na NP/AP>

Ex24. tîi ǹ̀ ma:rógsa
3PL.AOR.be COP1 thiefs
They are robbers.
Ex 25. gà:l-ès (tii) no djì:
cow-DEF 3SG.AOR.be COP1 black
The cow is black.


The room is hot.

### 6.2 Verbal derivation

### 6.2.1 Plural Verbs

Plural verbs, also called "pluractionals", mark agreement with a plural subject in the case of intransitive verbs, and repeated or distributed action in case of transitive verbs. Two plural verb forms, both glossed PL2, exist in Zaar:

- an internal plural characterized by lengthening of the radical vowel, or replacement of this vowel by the vowel /a:/, resulting in a H verb: ḑom / ḑwá:m 'pile up, gather' (with a plural object); kír / kí:r 'run' (with a plural subject); nḑol > nḑwá:l 'leave, go' (with a plural subject); bop / bwá:p 'sting'; mal / má:l 'get lost'; nat / ná:t 'tie up'; dat / dá:t 'nail down'; tfim / tyi:m 'call'; kap / kó:p 'weave, plant'; mas / má:s 'die'; vjer / vjáir 'insult'.
- an external plural marked by suffixation of -n' / -án. The internal plural ná:t (pl. < nat 'tie up' alternates with the form nadón (pl. 'tie up several times or several things; (several people) tie up (sth.)'). Other examples are bot / badön 'move along'; sa: / sa:n 'breathe'; b / lən 'go'; wum / wumón 'feel'.


### 6.2.2 The causative -r

The causative derivation is used in Zaar to increase the valency of a verb. When translated into English by Zaar speakers, the newly added argument of the verb is introduced by the preposition 'with'. The distinctive mark of causative verbs is a final $/ r /$, more often /-ar/. All monosyllabic causatives are H verbs. The derivative suffix takes different forms:
The $-r$ suffix is added to monosyllabic CV and CVV verbs:

| $\boldsymbol{f i}:$ | 'get down' | fí:r | 'get down with' |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| $\boldsymbol{n d a}$ | 'let in' | ndár | 'get in with' |
| $\boldsymbol{t a}$ | 'go up' | tár | 'go up with' |
| $\boldsymbol{s u}$ | 'turn' | súr | 'return' |
| $\boldsymbol{b} \boldsymbol{a}$ | 'go' | tá: | 'drive' |

The -ar suffix is added to CVC and CVVC monosyllabic verbs:

| di:p | 'buy' | di.Gár | 'sell' |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| mal | 'get lost' | malár | 'spoil, scatter' |
| ngup | 'kneel' | ygubár | 'kneel with' |
| ndjol | 'go out' | ndsolár | 'go out with' |
| pais | 'pour' | pa:sár | 'pour away' |
| 6a:l | 'divide, share' | bo:lár | 'distribute' |
| 6at | 'see so. off; help out | Gatár | 'shift, move' |
| 6up | 'wait' | 6ubár | 'wait for so.' |

The -ar suffix is also used with dissyllabic verbs:

[^6]

Likewise with the suffix -dár used with one verb only:
fin 'send' $\quad$ findár $\quad$ 'send'

As can be seen from the above, some CV monosyllabic verbs are associated with two different derivative suffixes, producing two variants:

| $\boldsymbol{n d a}$ | 'let in' | ndár, ndalár | 'get in with' |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| $\boldsymbol{t a}$ | 'go up, | tár, talár | 'go up with' |
| $\boldsymbol{s u}$ | 'turn' | súr, sulár | 'return' |
| $\boldsymbol{f i}:$ | 'get down' | fír, filár | 'get down with' |

### 6.2.3 The inchoative -ni

This extension is used to convey the inchoative meaning of 'start doing something' or 'do something instead of something else':

| Ex 27. | bà: $\boldsymbol{r}$-án! | द̌à:r-án-ní! |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
|  | stand.IMP-PL | stand.IMP-PL-INCH |
|  | Keep on standing (pl.)! | Stand up (pl.)! |

### 6.2.4 The resultative -í:

Resultative aspect is indicated by the suffix $-\boldsymbol{i}:$ added to the end of the verbal group, e.g.
Ex 28.

| well | / | $\begin{aligned} & \text { mjà: } \boldsymbol{n i} \\ & \text { 1PL } \end{aligned}$ |  | lâp <br> place | 3S |  | ta: <br> cut | $\begin{aligned} & -i_{i}^{\prime} \\ & \text {-RES } \end{aligned}$ |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | má |  | to | -í: | ná | yamts |  |  |  |  |
| well | 1 PL . | AOR | go | -RES | for | wood |  |  |  |  |

Well, we, if/when the day breaks, well we go and collect wood. (SAY_BC_CONV_02_SP1_014-17)

## 7 Gender and number

Zaar does not possess grammatical gender or nominal classes and few nouns form a plural (less than 60 items in the lexicon). Regular plurals are formed with the suffix -(t)sá associated with L, MH and MHM tone patterns.

| 'hen' | gèri | gersá | MH |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| 'dog' | kádí | kadaysá | MH |
| 'mouse' | mbâp | mbaptsá | MH |
| 'chief' | gù̀ | guysá | MH |
| 'vulture' | kwádâk | kwadaksá | MH |

A few tone patterns are irregular :

|  |  |  |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| 'viper' | djı̀gu:rí | djigu:rínsa <br> 'head' <br> gàm |

[^7]The irregularities are proportionally quite numerous:

| 'woman' | gàt | gudi |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| 'child' | gá: | ma:rí |
| 'arrow' | pîs | piská |
| 'guest' | sâm | somdá |
| 'sheep' | tâm | timsá |

Other irregularities concern words borrowed with their original plural from Hausa:

| 'animal' | dabbà | dabbo:bì <br> 'car' |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| mó:ta | mo:to:tfi <br> so:djo:dsi |  |
| 'soldiers' |  | tágàrdu |
| 'book' | tágàrda | tàg |

A good number of family nouns form their plural with the $-(\boldsymbol{k}) \boldsymbol{t a}[-\gamma t \boldsymbol{z}]$ suffix and MH tones:
'in-law' ḑìt djidəktá
'cousin' kúndà: kundaktá
'mother' na: naktá
'sister' waitsó watsaktó
'brother' jês jestá
Rather than a true plural suffix, this may be a case of collective or abstract derivation. The most common sort of plural formed with the -sá suffix is probably borrowed from neighbouring languages. The original (now exceptional) nominal plurals are restricted to a few terms related to humans (man, woman, children), plurality being expressed through the verbal INFL.

## 8 Nominal determination

Four suffixes establish four stages of determination:

- -i : indefinite article (ART.INDF)
- -es: definite article (ART.DEF)
- -án: proximal deictic (PROX)
- -í:: distal deictic (DIST)


### 8.1 Indefinite article

The indefinite form of the Zaar noun is suffixed with the indefinite article -i. Its meaning is that of a low level of determination, a form of individuation introducing a referential value. Its tone copies the last tone of the lexical form of the noun.

| 'chief' | gùy | gùndsì |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| 'spear' | gwa:r | gwairi |
| 'night' | kávit | kávidi |
| 'work' | la: | la:j |

Final lexical contour tones spread over the last two syllables of the suffixed noun and become MH $(<\mathrm{R})$ or HM (<F).

| 'fig tree' | gwă:m | gwa:mí |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| 'termite' | tî:tn | tí:ti |
| 'sheep' | tî:m | tí:mi |

There are cases of resyllabification:
'porcupine' gùsùm gùsmì

### 8.2 Definite article

The Definite Article (ge: DEF) is an -es/-os suffix with a F tone. The -es form is suffixed to final consonants and replaces final unreleased nasals:

| 'spear' | $\boldsymbol{g w a : r}$ | gwa:rês |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| 'fig tree' | gwă:m | gwa:mês |
| 'sheep' | tầ:m | tá:mês |
| 'termite' | tî:tn | tí:tês |
| 'night' | kávit | kávidês |

The -os form replaces final vowels in polysyllabic nouns:
'millet' màrwa màrwôs


An -s form is suffixed to monosyllabic vowel-final nouns. If this noun bears a M tone, it becomes Rising:
'work' la: lă:s

There are cases of resyllabification:
'porcupine' gùsùm gùsmès

### 8.4 Deictics

Zaar has two degrees of deictics: proximal -ón 'this' and distal -í: 'that'.
They are suffixed either to the noun, producing the light deictic, or to the pronominal form of the Possessive Link $\boldsymbol{k} \boldsymbol{a} / \boldsymbol{g} \boldsymbol{a}$, producing the heavy deictic determiners (proximal gán and distal gwí:/gí:) used with the definite form of the noun:

|  |  | heavy PROX/DIST | light PROX | light DIST |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 'spear' | gwasr | gwa:rí gán/gí: | gwasrán | gwa:rí: |
| 'fig-tree' | gwă:m | gwa:mí gán/gí: | gwa:món | gwasmí: |
| 'sheep' | tâ:m | tó:mi gán/gí: | tá:mán | tásmí: |
| 'termite' | lî:tn | lí:ti gán/gí: | dí:tán | títí: |
| 'night' | kávit | kávidi gán/gí: | kávidăn | kávidí: |
| 'work' | la: | lă:j gán/gí: | lă:n | la:jí: |
| 'chief' | gùn | gùnì gán/gí: | gùgán | gù̀áj |
| 'porcupine' | gùsùm | gùsmì gán/gí: | gùsmón | gùsmí: |
| 'millet' | màrwa | màrwaj gán/gí: | màrwán | màrwáj |
| 'orange' | lè:mu | lè̀:muj gán/gí: | lè:mún | lè:múj |

### 8.5 Indeterminate qualification: 'some/other'

Wón is a post-nominal determiner introducing an indeterminate qualitative specification. It is translated by 'a, some, any, (an)other' ${ }^{13}$, and glossed QLT (ge) and DET (rx). It is suffixed either to the noun, producing the light indefinite wón (mur wón 'someone'; ygàtn wón 'something'; lâp wón 'somewhere'), or to the pronominal form of the Possessive Link ka/ga, producing the heavy form gón (bàtú:re gón 'a European'), which can also be used as a pronominal form (glossed QLT and PRO).

### 8.6 Quantification: numerals

## The number system

| 1 | nàmbóy | 20 | táfi-mbàlà |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 2 | mbàlay | 21 | táfi-mbòlày tá nàmbóv |
| 3 | mâ:j | 22 | táfi-mbòlày tá mbàlay |
| 4 | wupsa | 30 | táfi-mà:j |
| 5 | nandam | 40 | táfi-wupsa |
| 6 | lim | 50 | táfi-nàndàm |
| 7 | wottsómaj | 60 | táfi-lìm |
| 8 | tá:nta:n | 70 | táfi-wottsó-maj |
| 9 | tókndam | 80 | táfi-tá:nta:n |
| 10 | dzúp | 90 | táfi-tókndam |
| 11 | dzúp-líti-nàmbóv | 100 | ku:ri |
| 12 | dzúp-líti-mbálay | 1000 | zàngú |

Cardinal numbers follow the noun they modify. The noun can be in the plural or in the singular. Cardinal numbers are predicated with the verbs $j i$ (and its variants $t \boldsymbol{t} / \mathrm{t}_{\boldsymbol{j} i}$ ) 'be' or $\boldsymbol{f i}$ 'do'. The corresponding question word is wuri 'how many'.


[^8]-How many people were there, or was there only one?
-They were four... four people.
They can be used as head of a NP, with elliptical quantified noun:

Ex 30 . nàmbón=wá:sàn
one=3PL.POS
one of them
mbálay=wà: :s̀̀y
two=3PL.POS
two of them

### 8.7 Qualification

The Possessive Link (PosL ${ }^{14}$ ) is an essential component of the expression of noun qualification in Zaar. It is used to provide a noun with a NP, AP or ordinal numeral modifier. The structure is <NP PosL NP/AP/NUM> where PosL is $=\boldsymbol{k}$. It has high tone after nouns with final high tone or only mid tones, low tone elsewhere. The PosL can be omitted when immediately preceded by the possessed NP ${ }^{15}$. The tone of the PosL is then shifted to the preceding morpheme. If the latter consists of a single level-toned monosyllable, the shifted tone is preceded by the original tone. Elsewhere, the shifted tone replaces the last tone of the morpheme. The effect of this floating tone is visible only with nouns possessing uniform M tone: ma:ri 'children' > ma:ríkadayfês 'the puppies'; kot 'calabash' > kŏt nó:no 'milk calabash'.

### 8.7.1 Possessive phrases

 sáywa:rí ká mumtsà 'chief of masquerades'.
The PosL is also a means of producing compound words: mur=kд́ dà̀ès, 'head of the family', lit. 'man of the house'; mur=ḱz zùkn 'sorcerer', lit. 'man of medicine'.
The pronominal nature of the PosL appears in the following example where $k \boldsymbol{z}$ stands for the qualified noun, with the meaning 'that/those of X '. In its pronominal form, the PosL is accentuated and the initial $/ \boldsymbol{k}$ / remains unchanged.
 Every day, if he went, he would go and pick the king's [groundnuts] and take them home and then...

### 8.7.2 Adjectival phrases

The PosL is used to provide a noun with an AP modifer: lât=ḱ̇ mu:ri 'new leather'.

### 8.7.3 Ordinal numerals

Ordinal numbers are constructed with a cardinal number in the indefinite form following the pronominal PosL: ká nàmbóni 'the first one'; ká mbàłmi 'the second one', etc. "First" in a temporal sense uses the words kéni 'front' (guydó=ká ká kéni 'the first chieftaincy') or fá:ri 'beginning' borrowed from Hausa (ká fá:ri=k̀̀ tákân=wà:sà̀ 'the first to appear').

### 8.7.4 Relative constructions

The relative marker is $\boldsymbol{d} \boldsymbol{a}$ (REL1) or its variant $\boldsymbol{C} \boldsymbol{a}$ (REL2). The structure of the relative clause modifier is: <Noun ${ }^{[+d e f]} d a(n) \ldots$. The final $-\boldsymbol{n}$ assimilates to a following velar (dan>day) or bilabial (dan >dam), yielding the three variants: dan/day/dam.
Any NP in the relative clause that is coreferential with the relativized NP is deleted. This applies to subject and direct object NPs.

| Ex 32 | an-ín ${ }^{17}$ | dan | táaiji | kan |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | girl-ANAPH=COP2-PROX | REL2 | IPF.ITER | carry |

Here is the girl who carries the water.

[^9]
Here is the water that the girl took to her husband.
However, if the deleted NP is [+human], it is replaced by a resumptive pronoun.

This man that I saw...
If the deleted NP is a Locative, it is replaced by the resumptive locative pronoun $=k a j j$ :

| Ex 35. | dòn-ès=kən-ín | dan | nê:s | lă:r | 3 à | =káj ${ }^{19}$ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | house-ANAPH=COP2-PROX | REL2 | girl.ANAPH | take_to | water | =ANAPH |

Here is the house that the girl brought water to.

## 9 Adjectives

### 9.1 Morphology

Adjectives are a nounlike category. They cannot be combined with a negative marker, and comparison is not expressed morphologically on the adjective (cf. 9.7 below). They have a plural and a definite form whose affixes can be combined to yield four forms. We may take the adjective 'evil' as an example:

| 'evil' | lexical | definite |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| singular | kúska | kú: $\int \boldsymbol{i}$ |
| plural | kusúyss | kusúyfi |

Adjectives with a plural form:

|  | singular | plural |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| 'big' | dàllák, dàllí | dalláysa, dalláyfi |
| 'old' | gà:rí | ga:ráysa, garáyfi |
| 'clipped' | ndúri | ndurúysa, ndurúyfi |
| 'big' | vàrì | vàràysa, vàràyfi |
| 'female' | tár | tfaráysa |
| 'young, small' | nai, ya:ní | marri, ma:rí-marrí |
| 'old' | ndótsa, ndwá:tsa | ndwatsáysa, ndwatsáyfi |
| 'bad' | kúska | kusúysa, kusúyfi |

### 9.2 Syntax

Adjectives appear as modifiers in a NP and cannot be its head (except superficially when the head noun is elliptical). Their number feature comes from agreement with the noun they modify, whereas nouns get number from their referential function. When they operate as noun modifiers, adjectives can be simply juxtaposed to the left of the noun: <Adj $\mathrm{N}>$, or appear to the right and be introduced by Possessive Link: $<\mathrm{N}=\boldsymbol{k} \boldsymbol{a}$ Adj>. The PosL structure is not used with plural adjectives.

| dàllá firál <br> 'a big stick' | ndurúysz ${ }^{20}$ fakndí <br> 'short(-legged) pots' | lât=ká mu:ri <br> 'new leather' |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |

The PosL can be omitted, but it leaves behind a floating tone that changes the last tone of an all-M-tone

The modified noun can be omitted leaving the PosL as head of the NP: ká vàr̀̀ 'a big one'.
When they function as predicates, adjectives use the PTCL.PRED nə, and optionally the verb $\boldsymbol{j i}$ 'be':

|  | modifier | predicate |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| singular | kúska zair | D. no kú:fi |
|  | 'evil man' | 'D. is evil' |
| plural | kusúyss zàrsà 'evil people' | zàrsà tî na kusúyfi 'people are evil' |

[^10]
### 9.3 Nonderived adjectives

Nonderived, "pure" adjectives in Zaar are no more than 25 in number. Semantically, "pure" adjectives can be subcatecorized into:
Colour (4): These four adjectives have a reduplicated form with an attenuative meaning, which can be translated into English by an «-ish» suffix.

| 'black' | singular dji: | plural duipsó | derived form dji:-dji: |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 'white' | fjá:li | fjaláyso | fjá:li- fjáali |
| 'red' | зèlì | zèlàysá | 3 zèlì-zèlì |
| 'variegated' | mbóti | mbótfi | mbóti-mbótji |

Size, shape (9): dàdà: $/ i$ I dàdà:s 'big'; dàllí / dàllák 'tall'; vàrì 'big, important'; ndúri 'abnormally short, broken, shortened'; ngótse / ngódjiki 'large (animal)'; vàtì 'void'; dàltfi 'shallow'; fóptây, 'thin'; wókfi 'rough'.
Moral/human qualities (3): kúska 'evil'; mbok 'cantankerous'; múli 'naked';
Others (9): mbóri 'under-cooked (flour)'; gwà: $\boldsymbol{m i}$ 'under-cooked (meat), premature’; la:mi 'insipid’; má:ki 'dirty'; nai-tsà:dej (< Hausa) 'expensive'; mbuní 'good'; mu:ri 'new'; ndwátss 'old'; nḑú:li 'pure'.

### 9.4 Compound adjectives of colour

These adjectives are compounds formed with the word 'water' followed by a term characteristic of a certain colour.

|  | singular | literal meaning |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| 'blue' | 3àk-gàlú:ra | 'water-of-blue'²1 |
| 'dark brown' | 3àk-nălle | 'water-of-henna' |
| 'yellow' | 3àk-ra:s | 'water-of-locust-bean tree' |
| 'green' | 3àk-pá:tsa | 'water-of-leaf' |

### 9.5 Verbal Adjectives

Adjectives can be derived from verbs of quality through a $-\boldsymbol{n i} /-\boldsymbol{i}$ suffix. They only function as noun modifiers in a genitive construction: nalák 'be smooth' > nalákni > pǔ̌s nalákni 'a smooth stone’. Some Verbal Adjectives have a plural form: ngomdá 'be crooked’ > ngómdi (pl. ngomdáyfi) 'crooked’.

### 9.6 Verbal Nouns

A Verbal Noun (NV) can be used as a noun modifier, in the same function as an adjective. It takes the genitive construction: sakát 'be clever' > sakátkôn, 'cleverness': zăsr sakátkân 'a clever man' (lit. 'a man of cleverness').

### 9.7 Comparison

Comparison is not marked on the adjective, but is expressed through a syntactic construction using the verb $\boldsymbol{m o p}$ 'exceed' with the term of comparison (the quality) as a (Verbal) Noun: $<\mathrm{X} \boldsymbol{m o p} \mathrm{Y}_{\text {[quality] }}>$ ' X exceeds Y in $\mathrm{Z}_{\text {[quality] }}$.
Ex 36. di:la mòp záaiki sakát-kónì=ò:
Jakal exceed Lion be_clever-NMLZ-FCT
Jackal is wiser than Lion (lit. Jackal exceeds Lion in wisdom).

[^11]
## 10 Pronouns

### 10.1 Independant pronouns (IDP)

|  | Singular | Plural |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 1 | mjá:ni | mjà:ní |
| 2 | kjá:ni | kjà:ní |
| 3 | já: ${ }^{\text {i }}$ | jà: fi |

### 10.2 Object pronouns (OBJ)

### 10.2.1 Form

|  | Singular | Plural |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| 1 | $=\boldsymbol{m} \boldsymbol{m}$ | $=\boldsymbol{m} \boldsymbol{i}$ |
| 2 | $=\boldsymbol{k} \boldsymbol{o}$ | $=-\boldsymbol{k} \boldsymbol{i}$ |
| 3 | $=\boldsymbol{t} \boldsymbol{\boldsymbol { o }}$ | $=\boldsymbol{f} \boldsymbol{i}$ |

### 10.2.2 Tones

DO pronouns have mid tone in the singular and high tone in the plural.

| jel 'see' | Singular | Plural |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 1 | à: jel=am | [jelam] | à: jel=mí | [jelmi] |
| 2 | à l jel $=$ ko | [jelya] | à ${ }^{\text {j jel }}$ l=kí | [jelkí] |
| 3 | à: jel=ta | [jelta] | à $\boldsymbol{a} \boldsymbol{j} \boldsymbol{e} \boldsymbol{l}=\boldsymbol{=} \boldsymbol{i}$ | [jelfi] |

A final $L$ tone spreads from the verb to the $M$ tone of a singular DO.

| vàr 'give' | Singular | Plural |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 1 | á vòr $=$ am | [vı̀ràm] | á vàr $=\boldsymbol{m i}$ | [v̀̀rmi] |
| 2 | á vòr $=$ ka | [vàryà | á vàr $=$ kí | [v̀̀rki] |
| 3 | á vòr $=\boldsymbol{t} \boldsymbol{a}$ | [vàrtà] | á và $r=\int \boldsymbol{i}$ | [vàrfi] |

### 10.3 Possessive Pronouns

Possessive pronouns have two forms, one suffixed to the PosL $\boldsymbol{k a} / \boldsymbol{g} \boldsymbol{a}$, and another suffixed to the possessed noun.

### 10.3.1 Forms with kə-/gə-

This heavy form is a full word, has a uniform L tone, and can be used as head of a NP.

|  | singular | plural |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| 1 | gàtn | gwòpm |
| 2 | gwà: | gwà̀: |
| 3 | gwòs | gwà:sà $\boldsymbol{y}$ |

### 10.3.2 Forms without kə-/gə-

This light form cliticizes to the qualified noun. Omission of ga- leaves behind a floating H tone.

|  | singular | plural |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| 1 | $=(a)$ tn | $=$ wapm |
| 2 | $=$ wa: | $=$ wa:n |
| 3 | $=$ was | $=$ wa:son |

For the 1 s pronoun, the tone of the genitive PNG is L after a L tone:
bàndò 'pot' nábàm 'butter'
bòndòtn nábàmàtn
F elsewhere:

| túr 'husband' | gèri 'fowl' <br> túrâtn |
| :--- | :--- |

Some exceptions come from resyllabification:

| ngátn 'thing' <br> ngàtâtn | sabar 'knife' <br> sabrâtn | ra: 'heart' <br> ra:tn |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |

Only the first tone of contour tones is kept:

| kâ:m 'ear' | dwă:m 'metal' <br> ká:mâdn <br> dwa:mâdn |
| :--- | :--- |

For the other persons, the tone of the suffix is L after a L tone:

|  | $\begin{aligned} & 2 \mathrm{~s} \\ & 3 \mathrm{p} \end{aligned}$ | bàndà 'pot' bàndàwà: <br> bàndàwà:sày | dàn 'co dànwà: dว̀nwà |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| and after falling melodies ( $\mathrm{H}-\mathrm{L}, \mathrm{H}-\mathrm{M}$ and Falling): |  |  |  |  |
| $\begin{aligned} & 2 \mathrm{~s} \\ & 3 \mathrm{p} \\ & \hline \end{aligned}$ | nábà nábà nábà | 'butter' wà̀: wà̀:sày | kádi 'dog' kádiwà: <br> kádiwà:sày | $l \hat{u} t=\text { 'rope' }$ <br> lútwà: <br> lútwà:sà̀ |

It is Falling after a H tone:

|  | túr 'husband' |
| :--- | :--- |
| 2 s | túrwâ: |
| 3p | túrwâ:sà̀ |

and after rising melodies (L-M, M-H and Rising):

|  | bùtí 'okra' | karí 'monkey sp.' | dwă:m 'money' |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 2s | butitioat: | karíwâ: | dwă:mwâ: |
| 3p | bùtiwâ:sày | karíwâ:sàn | dwă:mwâ:sà̀ |

As final M tones become rising with a floating H tone, the rule applies to the resulting melody:

|  | ga:m 'head' | ra: 'heart' |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| 2s | gă:mwâ: | ră:wầ: |
| 3p | gă:mwâ:sı̀̀ | ră:wâa:s̀̀y |

### 10.3.3 Exceptions

Some possessives (inherent possessions) have an irregular form:

|  | da: 'father' | na: 'mother' | jês 'brother' | wa:tso 'sister' |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| $1 s$ | dà:gàtn | ná:g̀̀tn | jésâtn | wa:tsatn |
| $2 s$ | dà:gwà: | ná:gwà̀: | jéswà: | wa:tsawa: |
| $3 s$ | dà:gwòs | ná:gwòs | jéswòs | wa:tsawos, wa:tsafi |
| $1 s$ | dà:gwòpm | ná:gwòpm | jéswòpm | wa:tsawopm |
| $2 p$ | dà:wà:n | nawa:n | jéswà:n | wa:tsawa:n |
| $3 p$ | dà:wà:səy | nawa:səy | jéswà:s̀̀y | wa:tsawa:səy |


|  | $\boldsymbol{k a} \mathbf{a}$ m 'friend' | kăn 'uncle' | dàn 'house' / vì: 'mouth' |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| $1 s$ | kamsatn | kanâtn | daim dàn/vì: |
| $2 s$ | kamsa: | kaná: | đа:үə dàn/vì: |
| $3 s$ | kamsafi | kánwôs, kanáfi | da:ta dòn/vì: |
| $1 s$ | kamsawopm | kánwôpm | da:mí dòn/vì: |
| $2 p$ | kamsawa:n | kánwâ:n | da:kí dòn/vì: |
| $3 p$ | kamsawa:szy | kánwáss̀̀̀ | da: ai dı̀n/vì: |

### 10.4 Reflexive pronouns

|  | Singular | Plural |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| 1 | gamatn | gamawopm |
| 2 | gama: | gamawa: |
| 3 | gamas, gamafi | gamawa:son |

### 10.5 The Reciprocal

The English 'each other, one another' is expressed by bàys̀̀=wà:sày (lit. 'their bodies') in Zaar:


Drivers who were used to each other [...]

### 10.6 The locative resumptive pronoun káj

Káj appears as a resumptive substitute for a locative . Its allophones are káḑ/ngáḑ/yáds. It will appear in a relative clause at the place where the relativized antecedent stood:

| Ex 38. lâp | wón | cán | tá | $\boldsymbol{t}$ â | =káj | mjá: | sú: |  |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
|  | place | QLT | REL | 3PL.AOR | go | =LOC | 1SG.IPFV | want |

mà lá:p=fí háy-o:.
1sG.SBJV follow=3PL.OBJ NEG2-FCT
The place they went to, I didn't want to follow them there.
Likewise in focus constructions:

| Ex 39. | no | yantsó | wón | dan | tăa: | dzăk | $\boldsymbol{u} \boldsymbol{u}-\hat{e r s}^{\mathbf{2}} \boldsymbol{j}$ | =káj |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | COP1 | tree | INDEF | REL | 3PL.IPFV | slaughter | animal.DEF | = LOC |

It's a tree which they sacrificed animals on.

## 11 Prepositions

Prepositions can be divided into simple and compound. Some simple Zaar prepositions are borrowed from Hausa (= HAU in the tables).

| á, $\boldsymbol{k a ́}, \boldsymbol{b a s}$ | 'at' |
| :--- | :--- |
| dàgà | 'from' (HAU) |
| $\boldsymbol{d a} \boldsymbol{a}$ | 'at' |
| $\boldsymbol{d a n}$ | 'like' |
| gàmé | 'with' (HAU) |
| kàmár | 'like' (HAU) |
| mel | 'near' |
| ná | 'for, towards' |
| $\boldsymbol{t s a ̀ k a ̀ : n i ́ ~}$ | 'between' (HAU) |
| zúwa | 'towards' (HAU) |

Ká has three allophones: ká/yá/ygá. Bas is the pre-pronominal form of the same morpheme in the continuous TAM marker.
Ex 40. nêis
girl.ANAPH too 3SG.BE -AT =3SG love-NMLZ
The girl too, she loved him (lit. 'she was loving him').
Compound prepositions are derived from nouns, some of which are no longer in use, with the structure (á) $+\mathrm{N}+(\boldsymbol{k} \dot{\boldsymbol{z}})$ and also have an adverbial use.

| gà:m | 'head' | (a) gam | 'on top of' |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| dù:l | 'heritage' | (a) dùl | 'on top of ' |
| gд̀s | 'bottom' | (a) gàs | 'under' |
| dùr | 'occasion' | (a) dùr yá | 'because of' |
|  |  | (a) gìp | 'inside' |
| kên | 'face' | (a) kên | 'in front of' |
| kâ:r | 'back' | (a) kâ r | 'behind' |
| tokn | 'sky' | (á) tókn | 'on top of' |
| te: | 'place' | (a) te: | 'by, near' |
| làysá | 'side' | (a) lág | 'near (road, river)' |
| bi: | 'body' | (a) b èj | 'in the middle of' |
|  |  | (a) bàk | 'deep in the middle of' |
| vì | 'mouth' | (a) $v i$ : | 'near (road, river)' |

## 12 Adverbs

### 12.1 Time

## Deictic

| danganí | 'now' |
| :--- | :--- |
| dálâysón, dálâ:sóyónán | 'right now' |
| tàj dzàngí:, tà̀j víndí: | 'the day before yesterday' |
| nà:já:wón | 'yesterday' |
| já:wón | 'today' |

[^12]| dјă:n <br> di:ní <br> djìndi, tăj djìni <br> đ̧ìnáyán <br> di:n, dǐ:n ḑìni | 'tomorrow' <br> 'the day after tomorrow' <br> 'last year' <br> 'this year' <br> 'next year' |
| :---: | :---: |
| dada, sáddada | 'again’ |
| baindáy | 'formerly' |
| gàlàs | 'later' |
| nga:láj | 'later on' |
| túntún | 'long ago' (HAU) |

Others
12.2 Place
Deictic

Others

| dû:n, dú:ni | 'here' |
| :--- | :--- |
| dáni, dân, dadần, dadáni | 'there' |
| dĩ: | 'over there, far' |

12.3 Manner

| báļà̀ | 'outside' |
| :--- | :--- |
| dù:li | 'on top' |
| dó:ngàj | 'far away' |
| gà:mì | 'above, uphill, up west' |
| gàfi | 'under, downhill' |
| ká:ri | 'back, last' |
| kéni | 'in front, first' |
| laysá | 'near' |
| layfí | 'aside' |
| mel | 'near' |
| napti | 'left' |
| vòj | 'below' |
| jầ: | 'on the ground' |
| barí | 'across' |


| anihí | 'really' (HAU) |
| :---: | :---: |
| day | 'too' |
| de:dé: | 'exactly' (HAU) |
| ḑònçsòm(i), faytan | 'truly' |
| mari | 'differently' |
| mólâk | 'quickly' |
| na: tá:di | 'jokingly' (HAU) |
| na: za:ri | 'properly' (HAU) |
| nda:rá | 'well' |
| sòséj | 'completely, well' (HAU) |
| tà T ré | 'together' (HAU) |
| tik, tikáj | 'thus' |
| tip | 'necessarily' |
| tsananin | 'extremely' (HAU) |
| tsón, tsaní | 'like this' |
| wobát | 'suddenly, unexpectedly' |

### 12.5 Quantitative/qualitative modulation

| ájnun | 'very much, truly' (HAU) |
| :--- | :--- |
| bét | 'all, completely' |
| Gurúk | 'all' |
| dàmàj | 'plenty' (HAU) |


| debát | 'all' |
| :--- | :--- |
| gì:ri | 'properly' |
| kadé | 'only'(HAU) |
| káp, kakáp | 'every, all' |
| kúrûm | 'merely' |
| káfe-káfe | 'of all sorts' (HAU) |
| káwâj | 'only'(HAU) |
| mondá | 'much, many' |
| náy | 'very' |
| nḑwâ:tn, nḑwátn nḑwătn, | 'a little' |
| (ya:) ndjú', ndswá:to | 'only, alone' |

## 13 Ideophones

The greater part of adverbs are ideophones, a large class ( 355 items in the lexicon) set apart by its phonological and syntactic properties. Most ideophones are associated with one word (verb or adjective): $\grave{a}$ : tfoptí: pés 'he washed it clean'; á dǐ:mí: péllân 'he jumped up and down like a monkey'. They are frequently reduplicated: nə зèlì ndsu:-ndsú: 'it's a bright red'; à: wut ga:mí' gwalan-gwalán 'he shaved his head clean'.

## 14 External Derivation

### 14.1 Nominal derivation

A few abstract nouns are derived from other nouns or verbs through a - dá suffix and LH tones:

| Verb |  | Abstract noun |  |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| $\boldsymbol{k u y}$ | 'get dry' | kuydá | 'dryness' |
| $?^{23}$ |  | djaikndá | 'dampness' |
| gùy | 'chief' | guydá | 'chiefdom' |

Other derivations are less regular:

| Verb |  | Abstract noun |  |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| fol | 'to slough' | fóli | 'snake's slough' |
| kaptá | 'to itch' | kápta | 'chaff'24 |
| kír | 'to run' | kîtâr | 'running' |
| lut | 'to tear off bark of tree' | lût | 'bark rope' |
| $\boldsymbol{w u \boldsymbol { u }}$ | 'to shave' | wútka | 'rasor' |

### 14.2 Adjectival derivation

Adjectives can be derived from verbs of quality using $\boldsymbol{a}-\boldsymbol{n i} /-\boldsymbol{f} \boldsymbol{i}$ suffix.

| Verb |  | Adj |  |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| ras | 'to rot' | ráfi | 'rotten' |
| kuy | 'to dry' | kúpni (pl. kúyfi) | 'dry' |
| fupm | 'to be tall' | fúpni (pl. fúpmso, fúpmfi) | 'long, tall' |

### 14.3 Adverbial derivation

Some adverbs are derived from nouns using an $-i$ suffix or through apotony.

| tyokn | 'sky' | toókn | 'above' |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| dù:l | 'heritage' | dù:lì | 'on top' |
| gà:m | 'head' | gà̀mì | 'on top, uphill' |
| g ${ }^{\text {a }}$ | 'bottom' | gд̀fi | 'under, downhill' |
| kâ:r | 'back' | ká:ri | 'at the back, behind' |
| kên | 'face' | kéni, kên | 'in front, forward' |
| làysó | 'side' | layfí | 'aside' |

[^13]Others are derived from verbs through reduplication:

| fúpm | 'be tall, long, far' | fupm-fúpm | 'very far' |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| lja: | 'be strong, hard' | tjai--ljâ: | 'absolutely still' |

## 15 Verb series

Series of verbs are used to introduce aspectual or modal specifications, e.g. inception, iteration, completion, capability etc. The first verb, acting as a pseudo-auxiliary ${ }^{25}$, functions as a main verb taking the second verb and its complements as a clausal complement. There exist three types of clausal complements: (i) finite verbs (V), i.e. with TAM marking; (ii) infinitives ${ }^{26}$, i.e. finite verbs without TAM marking; (iii) nonfinite, nominalized verbs (NV) and their possessive complements.

### 15.1 Finite complements

The person in the TAM of the clausal complement (second verb) repeats that of the main verb, or pseudoauxiliary:
Ex 41.


### 15.2 Infinitive complements

Ex 42. dan má: bà: tyá: ká:m / du kóna háy má: // as even NEG1 3SG.IPFV be_able / beat corner_kick NEG2 even // [...] as he cannot even shoot a corner kick. (SAY BC CONV 03 SP1 732-3)

### 15.3 Nominalized complements

| Ex 43. | tá |  | lá:r | -kánì | sambár | -sa | -di |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | 3PL.SBJ.AOR | start | bring | -NMLZ | stranger | -PL | -CTP |

they started bringing guests (SAY_BC CONV 03_SP2 040)

### 15.4 Stacking

The corpus has some cases of stacking with a series of more than two verbs. The example below has four:

| Ex 44. | longa <br> rabbit | / | $\begin{aligned} & t \grave{\grave{\partial}} \\ & 3 \mathrm{SG} \end{aligned}$ |  |  | $a:-i$ : |  |  | $\boldsymbol{6} \hat{a}$ in | deed |  | $\begin{aligned} & \text { la } \\ & \text { go } \end{aligned}$ | mandá <br> do_again | fu: <br> tell |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | $n a:$ |  | kâm |  |  |  |  |  |  | // |  |  |  |  |
|  | type_of |  | friend |  | S. | GEN |  |  |  | // |  |  |  |  |

### 15.5 Serializing verbs

Below are the serializing verbs (glossed AUX) that are found in the corpus with their original lexical meaning within brackets when it differs from that of the auxiliary:
da:fá 'keep on doing' (< Hausa dá:fà:); dap 'start' (< 'follow'); dingá (< Hausa díngà:) 'have already’; djá: (< Hausa Píjà:) 'be able’; fa:rá (< Hausa fá: rà:) 'start’; ban 'keep doing’ (< 'finish’); ká:m 'be able’; mán, mandá 'start’ (< 'come’); na: 'start' (< 'become’); nda 'start doing’ (< 'enter'); $\boldsymbol{n g a :}$ 'start’; rigá (< Hausa rígá:) 'have already’; sa:ké (< Hausa sá:kè:) 'do again’ (< 'repeat’); ba 'go and...'; tiká (< Hausa cikà:) 'do a lot'
Zaar borrows heavily from the equivalent Hausa auxiliary verbs, with a few cases of suppletion, e.g. djá: (< Hausa íjà:), duplicating and almost superseding the original Zaar term kó:m 'be able', and fa:rá (< Hau fá:rà) duplicating dap 'start' (lit. 'follow'):

| Ex 45. | fè: | $\boldsymbol{k a ́ w a ̂ j}$ | mà: | dap | má | nom | háy | / |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
|  | PN.TAM | merely | 1PL.PFV | follow | 1PL.AOR | take | NEG2 | / |

we haven't even started to fight [...] (SAY_BC_NARR_03_SP1_559)

[^14]| Ex 46. | wò | fa:rá | vat | -káni |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | 3SG.FUT | start | blow | -NMLZ |  |  |

He will start blowing. (SAY BC NARR 03 SP1 084)
NB: pseudo-auxiliaries borrowed from Hausa are systematically associated with the nonfinite construction. A notable exception is the verb djá, very frequent in the corpus and phonologically well integrated into Zaar (?íjà: > djá:), which uses the finite construction.

## 16 Complex sentences

Complexification in Zaar does not necessarily involve conjunctions. TAMs and their combinations can, in a paratactic succession of clauses, indicate subordination.

### 16.1 Parataxis and subordination

An example of a complex paratactic construction is given in (44) where the initial clause is a temporal/conditional adverbial subordinate clause with no conjunction, marked only by the Conditional TAM. The following Subjunctives indicate successive habitual actions.
Ex 47.


Well, we, if/when the day breaks, well we go and collect wood. [When] we [have] collect[ed] the wood, we come back and sit down. (SAY_BC_CONV_02_SP1_014-19)

### 16.2 Conjunctions: synonymy, polysemy, and polyfunctionality

Zaar conjunctions are:

- àmmá: 'but'
- Ganday 'all the more so if'
- da, dan: 'as’ (temporal)
- dan kutu, dan kó: tu 'as if'
- jâ:n (cf. 3sg, PRO.IDP jâ:n, já:ni), ín, ìdán (< Hausa ín, ìdán) 'if'
- kəndá, hár (<Hausa hárá) 'until', 'so that'
- kó: (kuma) (< Hausa kó: (kúmá) 'or’
- sábo: tu (cf. Hausa sábò: dà), dón (< Hausa dón, dò:mín) 'because’
- tá, kəndá, séi (<Hausa sái) 'then'
- tún dan 'since' (causal); cf. Hausa tún dà

Many are Hausa loanwords, e.g. séi, tun, ínîdán, àmmá:, kó:, but a few are stock Zaar words, e.g. dá, dan, kəndá, (ku)tu, banday. Among these, da and day are highly polysemic, with semantic overlap and polyfunctionality ${ }^{27}$. One might suspect grammaticalization and convergence of two phonetically similar prepositions: $\boldsymbol{d a}$ 'at' and dan 'like':

| $\overline{D A}$ | PREP: COP3: | $d a^{\prime} \cdot \mathrm{at}$ ' <br> $\boldsymbol{d a}$ 'there is' |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | ADV: CONJ: PTCL.REL | da / dan 'again' $\boldsymbol{d a} / \boldsymbol{d a n}$ 'as' (temporal) $\boldsymbol{d a} / \boldsymbol{d a n}$ 'that, which' |  |
|  | PRO.REL: ADV.REL: COMP: PREP: | (g)jódan 'which, who' jáddijó:dan 'the way that, how' dan kutu, dan tu kó: 'as if' dan 'like' |  |

[^15]
### 16.3 Coordination

Although additive coordination ("X and Y") is present in the nominal system with the conjunction tá, in the case of clauses, coordination is generally obtained through parataxis. However, the discourse particle kúmá, translated as 'also', may appear initially in a speech unit, and work as a linking term within the preamble:
Ex 48.

| $b a ̀:$ <br> NEG1 | má: | $\boldsymbol{l}$ | $t e$ : | dáni | há |  | // |  |  |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | 1SG.PFV | go | at | there | NE |  | // |  |  |  |  |
| kúmá | ma | b | / | tet | $l a ̂ p$ | $k$ |  | kullá | kájá: | hón | -0: |
| also | 1SG.FUT | go | / | ask | place | PO | S | Kulla | Kaya | NEG | -FCT |

I haven 't been there. And I won't go and ask for the place of Kulla Kaya. (SAY_BC_CONV_03_SP1_137)

Occasionally, when the speech unit introduced by kúmá is linked intonationally with the previous one, the particle may be interpreted as a conjunction, and the whole structure as coordinating:
Ex 49.


We must go to Pusdung and we should spend the night there. (SAY_BC_CONV_01_SP2_231-3)
Apart from paratactic constructions without explicit coordination, oppositive and alternative coordination may use conjunctions borrowed from Hausa: a) àmá: (< Hausa àmmá:) 'but': Ex 50.


A man can marry but they may happen to divorce and she will keep her child. (SAY_BC_CONV_03_SP2_395-6)
b) kó: (kuma) (< Hausa kó: (kúmá)) 'or' Ex 51.


Is it finished or shall we go on SarkinPada? (SAY BC CONV 02 SP2 089)

### 16.4 Complementation

Verbs expressing perception (jel 'see', wum 'hear, perceive'), intellectual processes (sô: 'want, like', jisźy 'know'), speech acts (wul'say'), etc. can take direct clausal complements, both finite and nominalized. (Ex 52) below shows the verb wum with a nominalized clausal complement:

| Ex 52. | fe. | wum | gwà: |  | -kónì | gùn | -i |  | $\dot{a}$ |  | gàtn |  | // |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | PN.TAM | feel | 2SG.GEN | die | -NMLZ | king | -DET |  | at | mouth | 1sg.pos | -VRT | // | [you] will hear from me that the chief has died (lit. 'your death of the king from my mouth') (SAY BC NARR 01 SP1 644-6)

In (53), the verb $\boldsymbol{y} \boldsymbol{a l}$ 'seek' takes a series of clausal complements with Subjunctive TAMs (mà); the verb jel 'see' takes a complement clause in the Perfective (mà:):
Ex 53. mjá:
1SG.IPFV

| $\boldsymbol{y} \boldsymbol{a l} \boldsymbol{l}$ <br> seek | $/$ | mà <br> 1PL.SBJV |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
|  |  |  |

$\begin{array}{lll}\text { daigé } & -i \cdot & X X \\ \text { strive } & - \text { RES } & \mathrm{XX}\end{array}$

| $\boldsymbol{m} \grave{\boldsymbol{\partial}}$ | jel | / |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| 1PL.SBJV | see | / |


| mà: | fi | ànkó | =wopm | -í: | / |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 1PL.PFV | do | similar_dressing | $=1 \mathrm{PL} . \mathrm{POS}$ | -DIST | 1 |
| tı | pol | $=m i ́$ | =káj | a ra: | // |
| 3SG.SBV | please | e $=1 \mathrm{PL} . \mathrm{OBJ}$ | =ANAPH | at heart | // |

I want us to try hard and see that we wear those same clothes and I would be very happy. (SAY BC CONV 01 SP2 078-82)

Moreover, clausal complements can be introduced by complementizers, e.g. tu after the verb wul 'say':

| Ex 54. | tò: | $\boldsymbol{m a ́}$ | dingá | $=\boldsymbol{t a}$ | $\boldsymbol{j e l}$ | -kánì | $\boldsymbol{m a ́}$ | wul | $\boldsymbol{t u}$ |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
|  | well | 1PL.AOR | keep_on | $=3 \mathrm{~S} . \mathrm{OBJ}$ | see | -NMLZ | 1PL.AOR | say | OPN |
|  | / |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |

kún =wos -ón á ndará nán //
boy =3SG.POS -PROX 3SG.AOR be_proper really //
Well we have already seen him and we said that that son of his is very nice.
(SAY_BC_CONV_02_SP1_096-7)
Another example, with a similative meaning, involves the verb jel 'see' and its complementizer dan kutu 'as if':

tfá: tfi =fì =was -í: káwâj //

3SG.PFV eat =3pL.obJ =3sG.POS -RES merely //
Your man thought that he was just fooling them. (SAY BC NARR 03 SP1 430-1)

### 16.5 Subordination

### 16.5.1 Time

The conjunctions are: da / dan 'as'; kəndá 'until, before'; kəndá, tá 'then' (consecutive meaning); túndan 'since'.

## dan 'as'

Ex 56. dan dzày gí: dan ḑâk / tà mán dú:ni -í: /


Like that day as Jack came here, when I told him, then he became angry.
(SAY BC CONV 01 SP2 100-4)
kandá 'then'
Ex 57. XX tò: á man -i $\quad$ kəndá mjă: tsátn -ni =kaní /
 $\begin{array}{lllllll}\text { má } & \boldsymbol{f i} & \boldsymbol{g j a}: & \boldsymbol{y a} \boldsymbol{a} & \text { / } & \text { kàlà:tfi } & \text { // } \\ \text { 1PL.AOR } & \text { do } & \text { PL3 } & \text { small } & \text { / } & \text { breakfast } & \text { // }\end{array}$
Well, she arrives / then we sit down we take a little breakfast (SAY_BC_CONV_02_SP1_030-3)
túndan 'since’

Since I was born, I have never been there. (SAY BC CONV 03 SP1_137)

### 16.5.2 Causality

The conjunctions are: dón, sábò:tu 'because'; túndà / túndan 'since'. They are borrowed from Hausa and have undergone a degree of convergence with the stock Zaar conjunction dan and the complementizer $\boldsymbol{t u}$, i.e. Hausa tún dà > Zaar túndan; Hausa sábo: dà > Zaar sábò:tu.
sábò̀:tu 'because'

That's what I want, because I don't want to waste money. (SAY BC CONV 03 SP1 078-81)
túndà 'since'
Ex 60.


Since he is serious about me, saying that he loves me, well, < that's it >, I can marry him. (SAY BC CONV 01 SP2 275-81)

### 16.5.3 Purpose

Purpose is mainly expressed through an adverbial clause in the Subjunctive, without a conjunction.
Ex 61. á wul tu tò: / fi -ón $\boldsymbol{\text { edi }}$

| 3sg.aor | say | comp | well | do | -prox | -dir |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| ya: | laplap | 1 | t̀ | mor | $=t a$ |  | $/$ |  |
| small | heavy | / | 3sg.aor | please | $=3 \mathrm{~s} .0$ |  | / |  |
| tà | jú\# | \#\# | júkn | vì: | -ês | -í: | bâ | // |
| 3sg.aor | fs | \#\# | fill | mouth | -def | -res | indeed | // |

he said, well, pour plenty [of honey] so that it should soothe him [and] f... fill his mouth. (SAY_BC_NARR_01_SP1_085-90)

The Subjunctive can be reinforced by borrowing the Hausa conjunction dón:


Well, kill it so that the blood will stay on me. (SAY BC NARR 02 SP1_105-8)

### 16.5.4 Condition

Depending on the context, conditional clauses in Zaar can have a conditional ('if...') or a temporal ('when...') meaning. They are characterized by a specific "conditional" TAM (glossed COND) appearing in the protasis.

TAM alone
Ex 63. éj / kjá: mán / ká mán fi maindo / tá kúni =âtn // indeed / 2SG.COND come / 2PL.FUT come do fight / with boy =1SG.POS // Well if you come, you will fight with my boyfriend. (SAY_BC_CONV_01_SP1_071-4)
This Conditional TAM can be reinforced or replaced by the 3s PRO.IDP jâ:n used as a conjunction, or by the conjunction ín /idan borrowed from Hausa. The two conjunctions (jân and ín/idan) can be combined.
jân
Ex 64. wéj á / áj jâ:n tá fír -ni ma:ndo tó kúni=atn / ba damuwa // EVD EH / indeed if 3PL.FUT do -INCH fight with boy $=1 \mathrm{SG} . \mathrm{POS} /$ no problem // I said, eh ... well, if he fights with my boy, < no problem >. (SAY BC CONV 01 SP1 076-8)

TAM + in
Ex 65. táá: sú: / ín já: gamá pé:pa -í: 3SG.PFV want / if 3SG.COND finish exam -RES
tà to tá pé:pa mai kjau / tà bo tu gàt // 3SG.SBV go with exam with good / 3SG.SBV go get wife //

He wants, when he finishes the exams, (and) if he gets good results, to go and get a wife. (SAY_BC_CONV_01_SPI_107-11)
in $+j a ̂: n$
Ex 66. wéj állâ: tò̀: / ín jâ:n na kúni =âtn nda
EVD god well / if if copl boy =1SG.POS enter
tá fi ma:ndo tyím =to ba damuwa //
3PL.SBJ.FUT do fight with =3s.obJ no problem //
I said, in the name of God, if my boy comes and they fight, < no problem >.
(SAY_BC_CONV 01_SP1_090-2)

### 16.5.5 Hypothesis

Hypothesis, or counterfactual condition, is expressed in the protasis by a specific TAM, the Counterfactual (CTF). The protasis is preceded by the counterfactual conjunction dà ' 'if' borrowed from Hausa:
Ex 67.

| dà: | mì: | yal | $=t \quad$ | gja: |  | gèri |  |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| CONJ | 1PL.CTF | look_for | $=3 \mathrm{~S} . \mathrm{OBJ}$ | PL3 | small | chicken | -PL | BEN | then |
| wò | pol | = $\boldsymbol{i}$ | =káj | mop | -o: // |  |  |  |  |
| 3SG.FUT | please | $=3 \mathrm{PL} . \mathrm{OBJ}$ | =ANAPH | surpass | -FCT // |  |  |  |  |

If we had looked for some chickens for them, then they would have been most happy.
(SAY_BC_CONV_02_SP2_056)
Ex 68. á ndará / dà̀ kî: la:tsó -ês -í: kàm dón / 3SG.SBJ.AOR be_proper / CTF 2SG.CTF pass_by -DEF -RES indeed because / It would have been better if you had moved on indeed because [...] (SAY_BC_CONV_03_SP2_104-5)

### 16.6 Relative clauses

The relativizer is da/dan and its compounds: jó:dan 'which'; gjó:da(n), '(the one) who'; jánda, jáddijó:dan 'the way in which' ${ }^{28}$.

lizard REL1 3SG.AOR drive_away / shuffle shuffle shuffle /
to -án nda -í: gìr ngála da lâ:r -i dadân ndzwă:t //
go -PRox enter -Res hole crab at river -INDEF again quick // Lizard who was plodding along, shuffle shuffle shuffle, managed to slip into Crab's burrow. (SAY BC NARR 01 SPI 285-7)
Ex 70. tà: jel lû: -sa / dan tà: má:s dadần / 3PL.PFV see meat -PL / REL2 3PL.PFV dielpLC there / da tà: ras da jâ:t -i // Rel1 3Pl.pfv rot at earth -INDF //
They saw the animals that had died there (and) that had been rotting on the ground. (SAY BC NARR 02 SP1 318-21)

## jó:dan (PRO.REL)

Ex 71. dúk ngòtn jó: iáa jel wò fi de:dé: káwêj / tá wò fi // all thing which see 3sG.FUT do exact merely / then 3sG.FUT do //
All the things that he thinks will be good for him, he will then do them. (SAY BC CONV 01 SP2 1834)
gió:dan (PRO.REL)
 neg1 3sg.Sbj.BE with those_who 3SG.FUT help =3pl.obJ NEG2 / He doesn't have anyone who will help him. (SAY_BC_CONV_01_SP2 257)

## jáddijó:dan (ADV.REL)

 1PL.COND go -RES 1PL.FUT go inspect 1PL.FUT see how 3SG.FUT hold / When we go, we will have a look and see how it turns out. (SAY BC CONV 01 SP2 062)

## 17 Information structure

### 17.1 Assertion and Question

Let us consider assertion as a general category divided into assertion on the one hand, corresponding to factual statements (both affirmative and negative) and nonassertion on the other, corresponding to virtual statements (question, condition). Factual and Virtual statements all follow the same syntactic pattern, with no specific auxiliary or word order assigned to either. The difference appears at the end of the utterance, either through intonation (rising contour for exclamation, falling contour for assertion and questions) or through negative and assertive particles appearing there.

### 17.1.1 Negation

The original Zaar negation is expressed through the particle hán (NEG2) added to the end of the utterance, though before sentence-final adverbs.


Hausa negative particles have found their way into Zaar: bà: (NEG1) for all utterances and kát (NEG3 < Hausa kádáá) for negative injunction.

| Ex 75. | kát | mà | na: | mán | damtsá | háy | // |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| neg3 | 1pl.sbjv | become | people | selfishness | neg2 |  |  |

Let's not get selfish. (SAY_BC_NARR_02_SP1_472)

### 17.1.2 Assertive particles

The three assertive particles $-\boldsymbol{o}: /-\boldsymbol{a}: /$ and $-\boldsymbol{e}:$ are optionally cliticized at the end of an utterance to emphasize certain types of assertion:
$\boldsymbol{- o}:$ (Factual, glossed FCT) is added at the end of factual statements (positive or negative assertions)
$\begin{array}{llllll}\text { Ex 76. } & \text { á } & \boldsymbol{w u l} & \boldsymbol{t u} & \text { mjá:ni } & \text { / } \\ & \text { 3SG.AOR } & \text { Say } & \text { COMP } & 1 \mathrm{SG} & \text { / }\end{array}$

| bà: | má: | jel | gàtn | ngátn | wón | hán | -o: | // |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| NEG1 | 1SG.PFV | see | 3SG.POS | thing | some | NEG2 | -FCT | $/ /$ |

She said, as for me, I didn't see my own. (SAY_BC_NARR_01_SP1_662-3)
$-\boldsymbol{a}:$ (Virtual, glossed VRT) is added to Y/N questions and the apodoses of conditionals:

Is it finished? (SAY_BC_CONV_02_SP1_150)
Ex 78. mò kap ngas -a: à àfó: //
1SG.SBJV take angas -VRT / Afo //
Shouldn't we marry Angas people, Afo? (SAY_BC_CONV_01_SP2_133-4)
-e: (Question, glossed Q ) is added to WH-Questions.
The Zaar question words are: ní: 'what?'; nú: 'who?'; giò: 'which one?'; wuri: 'how?'; dzàngjó: 'when?' (lit. 'which day?'); đỗ: 'where?'; ná nî: 'why ?'

| Ex 79. | $\boldsymbol{t} \boldsymbol{a}$ | ní: | tu=k | á | $\boldsymbol{d a ̀ t} \hat{\boldsymbol{t}} \boldsymbol{p m}$ | $-\boldsymbol{e}:$ | $/ /$ |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| then | what | meet=2SG.OBJ | at | way | -Q | $/ /$ |  |

Then, what happened to you on the road? (SAY BC CONV 03_SP2 209)
 What is it that landed on my forehead here? (SAY_BC_NARR_02_SP1_173)


### 17.2 Topicalization

As can be expected of oral corpora, topicalization is very common in our Zaar data.
The universal order "Topic - Comment" prevails, with topics often ending in topicalizing particles borrowed from Hausa: má: 'too'; kúmá 'as well'; fá: 'indeed', etc.

| Ex 82. | nàmbóy=wôpm one=1PL.POS | kúmá too | $\begin{aligned} & \grave{a}: \\ & 3 \text { SG.PFV } \end{aligned}$ | mafi: <br> die-DEF | $\begin{aligned} & d a \\ & \text { at } \end{aligned}$ | $\text { dú: } n i$ <br> here | 1 |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |

And one of us died here. (SAY BC NARR 02 SP1 342)
Adverbials can be left-dislocated, as part of the preamble of the utterance, e.g. kó:dzàngjó: 'every day, any day' in (80), with kúmá as a TOP particle:

| Ex 83. | kó | jisón | $l a:=k \dot{d}$ | sàjá:sa | kúmá |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | 2PL.SBJ.AOR | know | work=POS | politics | too |
|  | kó:dzàngió: | tiká | dàtâpm | // |  |
|  | every day | 3PL.SBJ.CONT | way | // |  |

You know the work of politics too, every day they are on the road. (SAY_BC_CONV_03_SP2_139-40)

### 17.3 Focus

Unlike Hausa, there is no partition of the TAM system into $+/$ - focus-compatible paradigms. The focussed element is identified by $\boldsymbol{n} \boldsymbol{\partial}$ (COP1) or kən (COP2), and is extraposed sentence-initially.
Ex 84. no mjàiní dan à̀ kon sôm=wôpm-í:-o:

COP1 1PL REL2 3SG.PFV say name=1PL.POS-DEF-FCT
We are the ones whose name he called. (SAY_BC_CONV_02_SP2_221)

## 18 Intonation

The role of pitch in Zaar intonation can be observed in the variation between lexical and grammatical tones as they are perceived and transcribed by the native speaker and their acoustic realization. These variations, i.e. the way intonation influences the realization of post-lexical tones, fall under the following categories:
(a) Declination;
(b) Intonemes, which are divided into:

- Initial intonemes: Setp-down (!) and Step-up (i).
- Final intonemes: Fall, $(\downarrow)$, Rise $(\uparrow)$, Level $(\rightarrow)$ and High-Rise $(\uparrow \uparrow)$.


### 18.1 Declination

For both tone and non-tone languages, declination has been presented as a universal tendency due to physiological constraints ${ }^{29}$, linked to the energy used to expel pulmonic air through the vocal organs. This creates the background for a "neutral" intonation against which variations of pitch by the speaker can be interpreted as meaningful patterns of deviations.
This is noticeable sp. in High tones. The highest tone in an IU is the first High tone of this unit. Each following High tone is pronounced lower than the preceding one. In example (85), the first three High tones read at $251(a ́), 249$ ( $m i$ í) and 243 ( $\eta \dot{a}:$ ) respetively, with the last High tone of the utterance (lí) reading at 172 . The same declination is observed in the final Low tones reading at 175 (mà) and 169 ( $j e ̀$ ).

[^16]Utterance-final Falls are added to declination, e.g. the lexically Mid tone of the last syllable of the paratone ( $o$ :) which bears the utterance-final Fall from 161 (lower than the preceding Low tone) to $140 \mathrm{~Hz} .{ }^{30}$


He has brought his son for us to see. (SAY BC CONV 02 SP2 029)


This is representative of the canonical declarative intonation of Zaar. The same intonation pattern is found in WH-Questions, as in example (86):
Ex 86. tò: $\quad$ zagì tyingòs dzàn giò: //
well Ziggy 3SG.SBJ.be 3SG.POS day which //
Well, Ziggy, his own, which day (was it)? (SAY BC CONV 03 SP1 703)


To compensate for declination, each IU starts with an initial pitch reset, also called 'declination reset' (Ladd 1996:2792.2)
Apart from those exceptions, declination helps identify the limit of speech units through pitch reset. Against this general background, intonemes operate both at the initial of IUs (affecting the whole of the unit) and at the end of paratones, in what Bearth (1998) calls 'peripheral intonation'.

### 18.2 Intonemes

### 18.2.1 Initial: step-up and step-down

Initial lowering (Step-down, noted !) or raising (Step-up, noted i) consist in a noticeable change in the register of an intonation unit compared to the preceding one. This initial pitch adjustment creates a break in the gradual lowering of the pitch induced by declination. Both Step-up and Step-down are associated with specific functions: Step-up is associated with topicalisation, emphasis of adverbials and emotional statements. Step-down is associated with parenthesis and comments following a (stepped-up) topic.
In the following example, after an initial upstep corresponding to the introduction of a new Topic (a new example to prove the speaker's case), a downstep accompanies some backgrounded elements where the speaker reminds her audience of the theme of the conversation (women keep running about, overworking themselves, whereas men stay idle in the compound, chatting with their friends). This long paratone is characterized by ample declination and clear initial change of register at the beginning of the IUs.
$\begin{array}{lllllllllllll}\text { Ex 87. } & \text { ma:m } & \text { ká } & \text { mó:mi } & \text { kúmá } & -\cdots & \text { / tam } & \text {-di } & \text { gòs } & \text {-dia } & \text {-: } \because: & \text { / } \\ & \text { mum } & \text { POSL } & \text { Momi } & \text { also } & \text {-LENGTH } & \text { / } & \text { return } & \text {-CTP } & \text { 3SG.POS } & \text {-CTP } & \text {-LENGTH } & \text { / }\end{array}$

[^17]tfá: fi -ni gòs / < koyarwa makaranta > //
3SG.IPFV do -INCH 3SG.POS / < teaching school > //
As for Momi's mum, the place where she goes, what she does, is to teach children in school. (SAY_BC_CONV_02_SP1_023-26)


### 18.2.2 Final intonemes

These terminal intonemes are the Fall, the Rise, the Level, and the High Rise.
The final Fall (transcribed with the sign " $\downarrow$ " in the annotation) consists in a distinctive lowering of the pitch at the end of the paratone. It characterises canonical assertions and Wh-questions. In Zaar, contrary to what avails e.g. in French and other Afro-Asiatic languages e.g. Hausa (Newman 2000: 613) and Bole (Schuh, Gimba \& Ritchart 2012:236), it is found at the end of Y/N-Questions as well.

| Ex 88. | $\boldsymbol{t}$ á: | $\boldsymbol{b}$ | $\boldsymbol{g i t}$ | $\boldsymbol{m a} \boldsymbol{r i}$ | $\boldsymbol{k} \boldsymbol{a}$ | makaranta | // |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
|  | 3SG.IPFV | go | show | children | at | school | // |

She goes to teach children in the school. (SAY BC CONV 02 SP1 028)


The final Rise (transcribed $\uparrow$ ) is mostly associated with exclamation, such as can be seen on example (89) and here in example (11), where the final high tone on má: is measured at $255,5 \mathrm{~Hz}$ while the second syllable of so:séj, the paratone nucleus, peaks 12 Hz below at $243,6 \mathrm{~Hz}$ only:

| Ex 89. | à: | sò: $:$ séj | má: | // |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
|  | ah | quite | even | // | Ah quite so !



The Level intoneme (transcribed $\rightarrow$ ) cancels declination. It is often associated with lengthening and induces the only (rare) cases of plateau realization of flat tones. This intoneme can be observed twice in example (4), at the end of the first two IU's. The intonation of this example can now be transcribed as follows: mă:m mó:mi kúmá: $\because: \rightarrow$ ! !̧àmdi gòsdì:: $\rightarrow$ t tá: fini gòs / < koyarwa $>$ makaranta $\downarrow / /$. As is the case here with the first two IU's, the Level intoneme often identifies the limit and relationship between a topic and a comment. It is also associated with hesitation, e.g. in example (87).

The High Rise (transcribed $\uparrow \uparrow$ ) is characterised by a sharp rise of $F_{0}$ to a level beyond the speaker’s usual range of high tones. It is associated with e.g. emphasis on negation, ideophones and assertion particles. It can be followed by a Fall when occurring at the end of a paratone. In Example (90), we have two occurrences of this intoneme. The first High Rise occurs at the end of an intonation unit, but paratoneinternally. It is borne by the last syllable of the word kimsó. The second High Rise occurs at the end of the paratone, and is followed by a Fall.
Ex 90. mjá:na: tul gìp kì =mə -sд /
1SG.CONC arrive inside 2PL.SBJ =1SG.OBJ -PL /
káwâj mà::în / fi mákóp //
merely motorbike / do stop //
[...] we had just entered Kimseh when the motorcycle stopped. (SAY BC CONV 03_SP1_400-4)


Generally speaking, the role of pitch variation in Zaar, despite the constraints of tone assignment, follows the same rules as in languages like English: "the fall of voice suggests matter-of-factness, or, as Halliday (1970:23) suggests 'certainty with regard to yes or no'. If the voice starts exceptionally high, this is interpretable as emphasis of the self-assertive attitude. By contrast, the rising pitch essentially suggests some kind of appeal by the interlocutor." (Markus 2006:117)

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[^0]:    ${ }^{1}$ This grammatical sketch of Zaar has been written as an annex to the annotated Zaar Corpus transcribed for the CorpAfroAs project (ANR-06CORP). It has been meticulously checked and corrected by Raymond Boyd. Many of his suggestions have been taken into account. The final decisions and remaining mistakes are mine..

[^1]:    ${ }^{2}$ This section concerning phonology is based on Schneeberg (1974).

[^2]:    ${ }^{3}$ Cf. Hyman (73), Hyman \& Schuh (1974) and Caron (2009)
    ${ }^{4}$ Creissels (95).

[^3]:    

[^4]:    ${ }^{6}$ We have changed the PNG label (Person-Number-Gender) to PN (Person-Number) as Zaar has no grammatical gender.
    ${ }^{7}$ Cf. § 6, Verb classes

[^5]:    ${ }^{8}[+\mathrm{D}]=$ nonimplosive voiced obstruent.
    ${ }^{9}$ For its use in INFL, cf. the Continuous TAM.
    ${ }^{10} \mathrm{Cf}$. below (§ 6.2.2) on the causative derivation.

[^6]:    ${ }^{11}$ Cf. below (§ 4.1) for the full paradigm of the Continuous aspect.

[^7]:    ${ }^{12}$ The L tone is not associated with the presence of an initial voiced consonant as can be seen from guysź, plural of gùg 'chief'.

[^8]:    ${ }^{13}$ cf. Hausa wani/wata/wasu.

[^9]:    ${ }^{14}$ Glossed as PTCL.SYNT (\rx) and POS (\ge) in the corpus.
    ${ }^{15}$ When the possessed NP is omitted, it produces the anaphoric pronominal form of the Possessive Link, e.g. ká Àlí, 'that of Ali'. Cf. 8.7.1
    ${ }^{16}$ The rule $\boldsymbol{k}>_{\boldsymbol{V}}$ applies yielding [ma:ndáyá dàn].
    ${ }^{17}$ [nê:skənin].

[^10]:    ${ }^{18}$ [弓èj̧ənín].
    ${ }^{19}$ [弓à̀áj].
    ${ }^{20}$ ndúri (pl. ndurúysə) 'shortened, abnormally short'.

[^11]:    ${ }^{21}$ gàlú:ra: name of a chemical blue dye common in Northern Nigerian markets.

[^12]:    ${ }^{22}$ [> tô:skáj]

[^13]:    ${ }^{23}$ The original verb is unknown, but cf. the derived Verbal Adjective djá:ki 'damp'.
    ${ }^{24}$ The direction of derivation is probably the reverse here, with the verb kaptá, 'to itch', deriving from kápta, 'chaff, seed husk', a very irritating substance.

[^14]:    ${ }^{25}$ These verbs cannot be considered auxiliaries as they are not defective, but full verbs with hardly any semantic bleaching.
    ${ }^{26}$ Cf. Newman (2000) where this term was first introduced to characterize equivalent Hausa constructions. These forms are called 'Forme Verbale Libre' by Gouffé (1979).

[^15]:    ${ }^{27} \mathrm{Cf}$. (Ex 53) for an illustration of the polyfunctionality of the word dan.

[^16]:    ${ }^{29}$ The phenomenon of declination has to be distinguished from downstep. Downstep occurs in some tone languages and is set off by a succession of High and Low tones. It results in the automatic lowering of a High tone following a Low tone. As a consequence, in a succession of High-Low-High tones, the second High is pronounced with a lower pitch than the first one, resulting in what has been called terraced-level tone languages (Clements 1979). On the other hand, declination is a gradual, progressive lowering of $\mathrm{F}_{0}$ occurring over an utterance, whatever the succession of tones, and can be observed even in utterances with both all-High or all-Low tones. As stated by (Ladd 1996), "(...) $\mathrm{F}_{0}$ tends to decline over the course of phrases and utterances, both in tone languages and in languages like English or Dutch." (p. 73ff.) , and "[...] even when nothing is 'happening' phonologically in the contour, $\mathrm{F}_{0}$ continues to go down slightly [...]" (p. 18)

[^17]:    ${ }^{30}$ This final lowering explains why the assertive particle $o$ : has been transcribed with a Low tone by the language assistant.

