

UNIVERSITY OF EDUCATION, WINNEBA

THE FORMATION AND USAGE OF GERUNDS IN NANDOME

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A THESIS IN THE DEPARTMENT OF APPLIED LINGUISTICS, FACULTY OF
FOREIGN LANGUAGES EDUCATION AND COMMUNICATION, SUBMITTED TO
THE SCHOOL OF GRADUATE STUDIES, UNIVERSITY OF EDUCATION,
WINNEBA IN PARTIAL FULFILMENT OF THE REQUIREMENTS FOR AWARD
OF THE MASTER OF PHILOSOPHY (APPLIED LINGUISTICS) DEGREE.

AUGUST, 2016

DECLARATION

STUDENT'S DECLARATION

I, Bernard Ngmenniabangne Bilikpe declare that this thesis, with the exception of quotations and references contained in published works which have all been identified and duly acknowledged, is entirely my own original work, and it has not been submitted either in part or in whole, for another degree elsewhere.

SIGNATURE.....

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SUPERVISOR'S DECLARATION



I hereby declare that the preparation and presentation of this work was supervised in accordance with the guidelines for supervision of thesis as laid down by the University of Education, Winneba.

NAME OF SUPERVISOR.....

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ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

I express my endless gratitude to my supervisor, Dr. Kwaku Ofori, for his dedication, guidance and tolerance. Dr., this work could never have been successful without you.

I extend my gratitude to my parents Naa Charles Bilikpe and Mrs. Marcella Dery Kuubebobr Bilikpe. I further show appreciation to all my siblings for the financial support and the words of encouragement.

My heartfelt gratitude also goes to Mr. Gilbert Nero and Mr. Maurice Yangnemenga for making out time and taking the pain to do crosschecks and offer very helpful advice. You were a major part of my learning process. You also helped in editing my trascriptions and I am grateful.

I hold equal gratitude for everyone who consciously or unconsciously helped the process of producing this thesis. May the good Lord grant you blessings upon blessings and strengthen you to continue to help others.

DEDICATION

I dedicate this thesis to my beloved father, Naa Mr. Charles Bilikpe and mother, Mrs. Marcella Dery Kuubeborb Bilikpe. I also dedicate the thesis to my siblings; Rev. Bro. Franklin Bilikpe, Ophelia Bilikpe, Ernest Bilikpe, Benedict Bilikpe and late Angela Bilikpe.



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GLOSSARY AND ABBREVIATIONS

GLOSSARY

Adjunct: A part of a phrase that is used to modify the meaning intended by the head word.

For example using an adverb to modify a verb. That adverb is an adjunct.

Argument: A noun that is directly linked to a verb in a clause.

Complement: A part of a phrase that is needed to complete the meaning of the head word in a phrase. For example a noun acting as an object to a verb. That noun is a complement to the verb.

Deep Structure: The resultant structure after morphemes fix at the X-bar nodes

Determiner Phrase (DP): It is invariably a noun phrase that contains a determiner and the determiner is considered to be head of the phrase instead of the noun. It can basically be considered another approach to a noun phrase

Double object construction: when there are two nouns that both act as objects to a verb in one clause. This is also known as ditransitivity.

Head: This refers to the main word in a phrase. It is the key word which other words build around to make a phrase. The head is the main referent of the phrase.

Lexicon: An abstract collection of all the minimal grammatical units of meaning of a given language.

Lower: To move a given linguistic item rightward.

Morpheme: The minimal grammatical unit of meaning. It is in abstract form.

Phonetic representation: the pronunciation of a word in speech.

Phonological representation: the underlying form of a word.

Phrase: A linguistic unit made up of a word or words. The unit has a word whose word class determines the class of the phrase. A sentence is an inflectional phrase (IP).

Raising: To move a linguistic item leftward.

Serial verb construction: A clause that has more than one verb denoting a series of action.

Specifier: A part of a phrase used to narrow (make specific) the meaning of the head word.

An example is negating an action. The negation specifies the action.

Surface structure: A structure derived from another structure. Also known as superficial structure.

Underlying structure: An initial structure of a phrase (spoken or unspoken) from which another sentence is derived.

XP: 'X' represents a class variable of a head word and 'P' represents the phrase version of 'X'

ABBREVIATIONS

1PL	First person plural
1SG	First person singular
2PL	Second person plural
2SG	Second person singular
3PL	Third person plural
3SG	Third person singular
Adj	Adjective
Adv	Adverb
AdvI	Adverbial of instrument
AdvM	Adverbial of manner
AdvP	Adverbial of place
ADV P	Adverb phrase
AdvT	Adverbial of time
Ag	Repetitive particle
Art	Article
Asp	Aspect
BE	'be' verb
C	Consonant
D	Determiner
D'	Determiner bar
Def	Definite article

DP	Determiner phrase
Emp	Emphasis
Foc	Focus marker
FUT	Future marker
GER P	Gerund phrase
GM	Gerund marker
GSS	Ghana Statistical Service
H	Habit particle (lexical item used in VP)
Hab	Habit marker (used in gerund phrase)
I'	Inflection bar
Int	Intensifier
Intj	Interjection
IP	Inflectional phrase
Loc	Locative
M	Modal particle
MUA	Merger under adjacency
MV	Main verb
N	North
NEG	Negation marker
NH	Noun head
NM	Noun modifier
NP	Noun phrase
NUM P	Number phrase

Num	Number marker
Obj	Object of a
P	Polarity particle
Perf	Perfect form of a verb
Pgr	Progressive marker
Pos	Possession marker
Post P	Postposition
PP	Preposition
Q	Quantifier
QM	Question marker
RVP	Remote verb particle
S	South
Spec	Specifier
Sub	Subject
SVC	Serial verb construction
TAM	Tense aspect modal
TAMP	Tense aspect modal particles
TD	Time depth particle
V	Vowel
V'	Verb bar
VP	Verb phrase
W	West
X ^y	X can occur y times at maximum

X _y	X can occur y times at minimum
{ }	Alternation among the segments within
[]	Identifiable features of a sound segment
()	Optionality of a segment in a rule
+xxxx	Presents of a feature xxxx
+	Morpheme boundary
-xxxx	Absence of a feature xxxx
—	Specific position in which a sound occurs
→	Becomes
/	In the environment of
α	sameness of a feature possessed by two or more sound segments
*	Ungrammatical



ABSTRACT

Out of preliminary observation of gerunds in Nandome, it is realised that the gerund marker {-bú} is not realised fully in speech but a split form of it, [-b] or [ú] are realised. Also, the gerund phrase in Nandome distinguishes between sentence adjuncts and adjuncts of a verb phrase. The movement of sentential adjuncts was found to resolve ambiguity in the gerund phrase. It was observed that degree emphasis can be achieved by making a gerund an argument to its root verb. In investigating this, 3 conversations and 2 stories were used. 374 gerunds were formed intuitively and crosschecked by two native speakers with linguistic training. A focus group discussion considered some aspects of gerunds and semantic interpretations. Generative phonology and the X-bar theory were used as frameworks for the research. Findings include the assertion that: the gerund in Nandome is marked by {-bú}, which never occurs fully phonologically. The marker is rather realised as: [b], [ú], [ú], [fú], [fú] or [bá], accompanied by tone rising in the verb root, but with exceptions. The gerund has a maximum of ten modifiers. Besides sentential adjuncts, modifiers are leftward of the gerund. The gerund phrase in Nandome is similar to the NP only in its sentential distribution. Negation and HABIT are possible in the gerund phrase. When adverbials are in the gerund phrase, they get negated and not the gerund. It is conclusive that all the preliminary observations are true. In addition, the study revealed etymological evidence that Nandome emerged from the southern dialects of Dagaare.

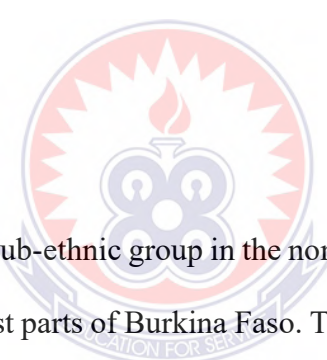
CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

1.1 Overview

The section gives: a brief history of the Nandome people; a background on the Nandome language; details on the language family; a note on Transformational Grammar; a brief explanation of what a gerund is; a background to the study; the statement of the problem; the objectives; the research questions; and the significance of the study. The limitations to the study as well as the organisation of the study are also presented in this chapter.

1.2 The Nandome People

The logo of the University of Education, Winneba, is a circular emblem. It features a central lamp with a flame, set against a background of a sunburst. The lamp is flanked by two stylized figures. Below the lamp, the text 'UNIVERSITY OF EDUCATION FOR SERVICE' is visible. The entire emblem is surrounded by a decorative border.

The Nandome are a sub-ethnic group in the northwest of the Upper West Region of Ghana and in some southwest parts of Burkina Faso. The traditional home of the Nandome is Nandom. They speak Nandome, a dialect of Dagaare. The people of Nandom are part of the Dagaaba. The Dagaaba according to Bodom (1997) are an outgrowth of the Mole-Dagbani group which migrated to the semi-arid Sahel region and the lower northern region within the 14th-17th century. This implies that there is northward continuum of dialects.

According to Kunbour (2002) the Dagaaba in pre-European era settled in small scale farming communities not organised into any state-like structure. Currently, Nandom is a paramountcy headed by the Nandom Naa (paramount chief of Nandom), the divisional

chiefs and the sub-divisional chiefs alongside the ‘Tingandem’ (land owners) who wield religious power and serve as custodians of Nandom. Politically Nandom is also a District.

The Nandome are basically farmers; however, there have been formal education since the missionary era and for that reason professions such as teaching and nursing among others are prolific within the district. African Traditional Religion, Christianity and Islam are practised within the district.

Abdul-Korah (2007) notes that several waves of internal migration, beginning in at least the late 19th century have brought a sizable Dagaaba population to towns in the southern part of the nation, notably the Brong Ahafo Region. This is as well true with the Nandome.

1.3 The Nandome Dialect

Nandome is a dialect of Dagaare spoken in Nandom and its areas of influence such as Hamile, Fielmou and Ko. Bodomo’s (1997) dialectal classification observed that Nandome is a northern dialect. According to Bodomo (1997) the other dialects of Dagaare include: the central dialect (which is the documented dialect), the southern dialect and the western dialect (which is mainly not spoken within Ghana).

It is inferable from section 1.2 that some speakers of Nandome will have English as a second language (in the case of those with formal education) and some will have some of the Akan dialects as a second language (in the case of those who travel southwards).

Multilingualism is also possible in which the repertoire will be made of Nandome as L1, English as L2 and any Akan dialect as L3.

1.4 Basic Linguistic Features of Nandome

Eight (8) word classes are observable in Nandome (noun, verb, adjective, adverb, determiner, pre/postposition, conjunctions and interjection). Words in Nandome are monosyllabic or disyllabic. Nouns (except names of persons) and adjectives are mainly disyllabic. Affixes, both inflectional and derivational, are mostly suffixes (**bá** + {-rí} → **bárí** ‘friends’). Possession is realised as a zero morpheme. Unflected verbs used in clauses are in the perfect aspect by default.

Phonologically, it is a two-tone language, the tone is either high or low (**bá** ‘friend’ and **bà** ‘erect’, **fúr** ‘to sip’ **fùr** ‘open eye widely’). Nine (9) different vowel phonemes have been observed: i, ɪ, u, v, e, ε, o, ɔ and a. Besides /a/, the other vowels are in Advanced and unadvanced Tongue Root pairs. All these vowels have nasal counterparts. Twenty-four (24) consonants have also been observed, these include: p, b, t, d, f, v, s, z, ky, gy, k, g, kp, gb, mw, m, n, w, ŋ, ɲ, l, h, r and y. Syllabic consonants include nasals and liquids; m, n, ŋ, l and r.

Nandome allows consonant clustering on condition that the first phoneme is either /g/, or /b/ and the second phoneme is /r/. Such a cluster cannot occur in word initial position. For example: /**bágr**/ ‘regrinding’; /**sabr**/ ‘lung’. /g/ in word medial or word final position can be realised as [w]. For example: /**nyìg**/ and /**nyìw**/ ‘burn’.

Syntactically, the language follows the subject-verb-object pattern. Nandome marks focus, {**ně**} at the clause level. Sentence (1) below serves as an example;

1. **Der kɔ ne a wiɛ**

Dér	kɔ	nĩ	à	wiɛ
Der	farm.Perf	Foc.	Def.	farm

‘Der farmed the farm’

In Nandome when two noun phrases follow consecutively, any premodifying determiner in the succeeding noun phrase(s) deletes. Observe the differences in (2a) and (2b) below;

2. a. **A bie a gan ne**

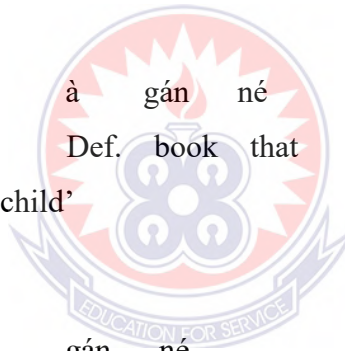
à	bíé	à	gán	né
Def.	child.Pos	Def.	book	that

‘that book of the child’

b. **A bie gan ne**

à	bíé	gán	né
Def.	child.Pos	book	that

‘that book of the child’



1.5 Language Family

Figure 1 below summarises the trace of language families down to Nandome. Writings in bold and upper case represent the language families that trace down to Nandome. Against each bold text are writings in bracket representing the other coordinate subgroups that are in the same level with the subgroup suggested by the bold text.

Figure 1 is drawn based on information in Bendor-Samuel (1989) and Bodo (1997). The idea of **Mabia** languages and the dialect classification in Dagaare are from Bodo (1997).



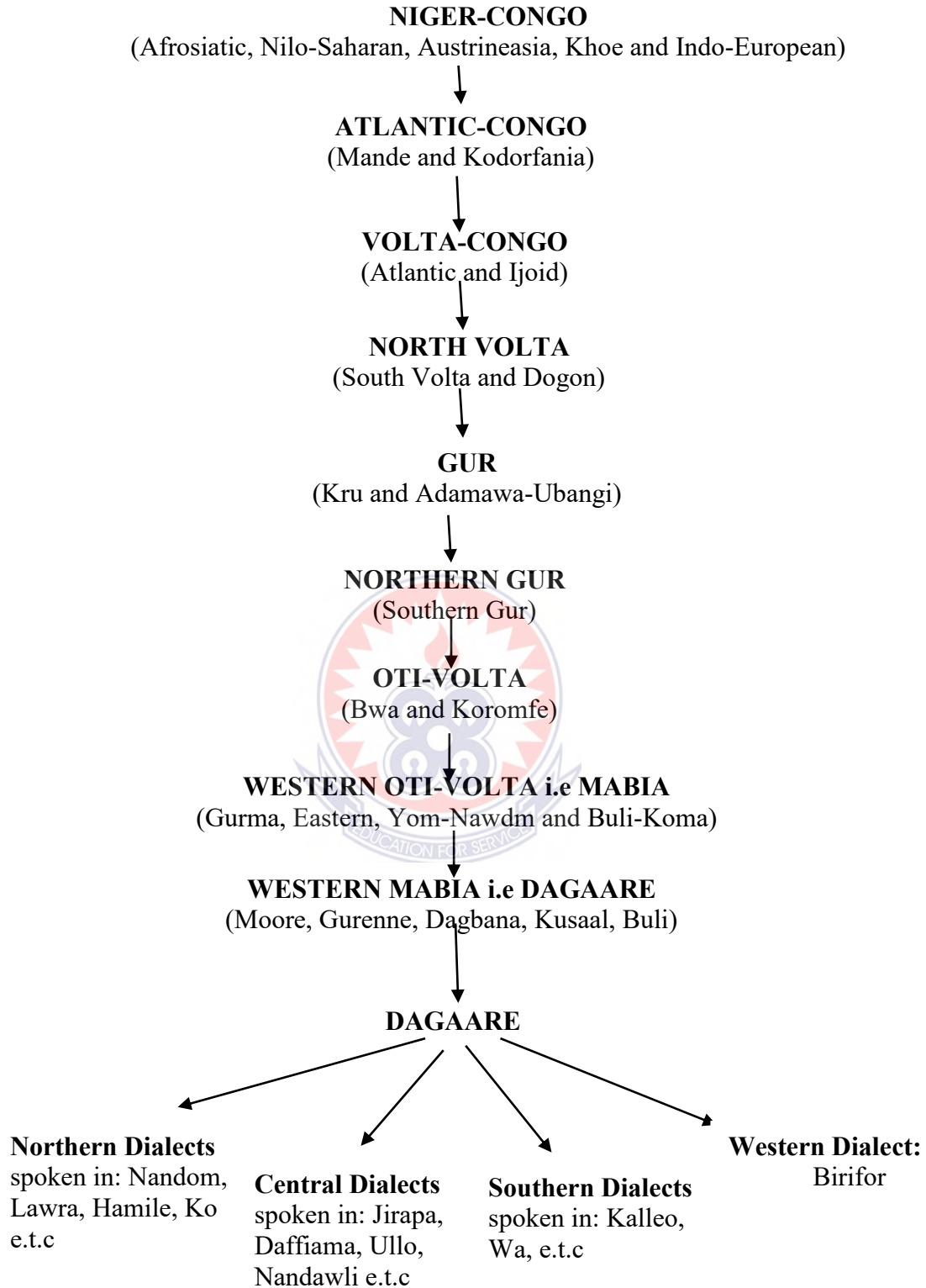


Figure 1: Language Family Tree

1.6 A Note on Transformational Grammar

According to Carnie (2013) and Radford (1988), in generative grammar it is argued that in every language there is a set of core (kernel) constructions and there are also a set of superficial constructions. Superficial constructions are gotten out of respective core constructions. These superficial constructions are created through processes that transform the core constructions, hence the term ‘transformational grammar’. These processes involve the rearrangement of morphemes within the core constructions. The insertion or the deletion of some morphemes may also occur in the process. In this thesis, the clause is considered the core construction out of which a gerund phrase can be formed.

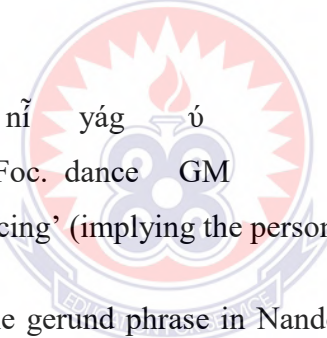
1.7 What is a Gerund?

According to Nordquist (2016) a gerund is a verbal form that functions as a noun. For example ‘eating’ (as in ‘my eating surprised him’) is a gerund because it is formed from a verb ‘eat’ but acts as a noun, in this case the subject. A gerund is however not a prototypical noun. This is because the internal structure of a gerund phrase is different from that of a noun phrase though they both have similar distributions in a sentence. Chomsky (1970) presumes this for all natural languages and this is true in Nandome. In English, ‘his not driving a car is a suprise’ is grammatical but the negation ‘not’ cannot be used the same way in a prototypical noun phrase. This is an example of a difference in internal phrase structure.

1.8 Background to the Study

Out of preliminary observation of gerunds in Nandome, there is evidence that the gerund marker {-bú} is not realised fully in speech. What is realised in speech is a split form of it, [-b] or [ú] or other variants [fú] or [bá]. It was also observed that the gerund phrase in Nandome distinguishes between adjuncts of a sentence and adjuncts of a verb phrase. There was also preliminary evidence that the formation of gerunds explains some structural ambiguity and also gives evidence of how the ambiguity can be resolved. It was also observed that communicating the intensiveness of an action can be achieved by making a gerund an argument to its root verb. (3) below is an example;

3. O yag ne yagu



 ù yág nĩ yág ú

 3SG dance.Perf Foc. dance GM

‘He/she danced dancing’ (implying the person danced intensively)

It was also observed that the gerund phrase in Nandome supports respective claims by; Abney (1987) that the gerund marker is a special instance of number, Baker (2005) that the process of gerund formation is a special instance where a nominal inflection dominates a VP and Chomsky (1970) on the features of a gerund.

Based on these preliminary findings, gerundial constructions in Nandome needed a descriptive account that uses scientific methods. This will help to ascertain the reality about these facts concerning the gerundial constructions in Nandome.

1.9 Statement of the Problem

Gerundial constructions in Nandome may have interesting features that could contribute immensely to linguistic knowledge. However, the problem that exists is that the gerundial construction of Nandome has not been scientifically studied and as a result we are unable to ascertain whether these tentative features actually exist in the language or not. Considering the gain involved in ascertaining the true status of these tentative features, it is important to carry out a research that will help draw trustworthy conclusions.

1.10 Purpose of the Study

The purpose of the study is to contribute towards the description of the grammar of Nandome, an undocumented language. The research seeks to unveil the grammar system surrounding gerundive nominalisation in Nandome with the hope that subsequent researches will cover other aspects of the grammar of Nandome.

1.11 Objectives of the Study

1. Identifying the morphological processes involved in gerundivisation in Nandome.
2. Identifying the internal structure of the gerund phrase in Nandome.
3. Identifying the sentential distribution of a gerund phrase in Nandome.
4. Identifying the semantic interpretations of the gerundial constructions in Nandome.

1.12 Research Questions

1. What morphological processes are involved in gerundivisation in Nandome?
2. How is the gerund phrase internally structured in Nandome?
3. How is the gerund phrase distributed in sentences in Nandome?
4. What semantic interpretations are possible with gerundial constructions in Nandome?

1.13 Significance of the Study

The study is one of the pioneering works in the Nandome dialect of Dagaare. It will significantly help the documentation of the dialect. Dagaare has several dialects, but among these dialects one is documented, that is the central Dagaare. Bodomo, (1997, p. 5) states that “most of the early missionary linguists who have worked on Dagaare in Ghana like Wilson (1962), Kennedy (1966) and Hall (1973) have based their analysis on it” that is central Dagaare.

The study also provides details on the gerundial system in Nandome. This will serve as a contribution to descriptive linguistics as well as contributing to the identification of the grammar of Nandome.

The study will also serve as a start point for other researchers. It touches on other areas within the language which subsequent researchers can pursue further. It also suggests further research areas that other researchers can work on. This will be a great boost to the language as an undocumented one.

It will also be of importance to the comparative linguist. The findings of this research can be used as data for comparative studies in the establishment of language similarities and differences. This will be significant in language teaching and learning and also in measuring the degree of variance within the dialects of Dagaare.

1.14 Limitation

The major limitation is that there is no literature on the Nandome dialect as far as descriptive linguistics is concerned. The researcher therefore had to depend much on his intuition and observations as a native speaker. Language consultants were also contacted in trying to establish facts that directly affect the research. For example, in trying to establish the noun classes in Nandome the researcher had to use his intuition, his observation and also made consultations. It would have been much easier if there was literature on that in the dialect.

1.15 Organisation of the Study

The study is in five (5) chapters. Chapter one contains general information about the people of Nandom, the language of Nandom, a note on transformational grammar, a brief explanation of what a gerund is, the background to the study, the statement of the problem; the purpose of the study, the objectives of the study, the research questions, the significance of the study and the limitations to the study.

Chapter two contains the review of related literature. It discusses the NP structure in Nandome, the VP structure in Nandome, the noun classes in Nandome, some works on

gerundial constructions and a DP approach to gerund formation. A review of the X-bar theory and generative phonology as theoretical frameworks is also in this chapter.

Chapter three has the methodology of the study. The chapter shows the design used for the study, the population, the population sample, the sampling procedures and techniques, the procedures for data collection and analysis.

Chapter four analyses the data and discusses the findings from the study. Finally, chapter five summaries the research findings, concludes the study, and makes relevant recommendations for future researchers. Chapter five also shows how the thesis contribute to existing knowledge.

1.16 Conclusion

Nandome is a language spoken in the Nandom district and paramoucy in the Upper West Region of Ghana. It is classified as a Western Mbia language. Gerunds in Nandme show evidence of some uniqueness and it is on this bases that gerunds in Nandome have been studied entirely. The objectives of the study include; identifying the morphological processes, the internal phrase structure of a gerund phrase, the distribution of gerund phrases in sentences and the semantics involved in the use of gerunds. The study is organised into five chapters; the introductory chapter, the literature review, the methodology, the findings and discussions and the summary.

CHAPTER TWO

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Overview

The review is done under the following sections: the NP structure of Nandome, the VP structure of Nandome, the noun class system in Nandome, the properties of the prototypical noun in Nandome, the features of a gerund as outlined by Chomsky (1970), gerundive nominalisation in Gur languages, gerundive nominalisations in other languages, and a DP approach to gerundive nominalisation. The last topic under the section looks at the X-bar theory and generative phonology as theoretical frameworks.

2.2 The NP structure in Nandome.

The aim of the section is to set out an NP structure of Nandome by drawing out what it has in common and in contrast with research findings in other dialects of Dagaare. Arguments made on Nandome are based on intuition and consultations with other native speakers. Under this section of the review, before making arguments for Nandome, works that describe the noun phrase (NP) structure of other dialects in Dagaare are reviewed.

Attention is drawn to a notion that has been widely refuted. Bendor-Samuel (1971) describes the NP of Gur languages as simple. He argues that the NP consists of either a noun followed by a numeral or a noun followed by a demonstrative. He further argues that it is rare to come across a noun followed by an adjective. He also states that it is not possible to come across a noun followed by a string of adjectives. Subsequent researchers in the

Gur languages disagree. Abdul-Razak (2015), Angkaaraba (1980), Bodomo (1997) and Issah (2013) argue that the NP in Gur languages are complex rather than simple because they are able to take strings of adjectives and as it stands now, the number of adjectives is infinite.

Angkaaraba (1980) and Bodomo (1997) argue that the Dagaare NP can take up to, but not limited to, four adjectives as post modifiers. The post modifiers in the proposed respective order include; adjectives (Adj), quantifiers (Q), determiners (D); intensifiers (Int) and locatives (Loc). There is a plural (PL) marker that can attach itself to the determiner or to the last adjective or the noun head (in the absence of an adjective) in surface form. They also agree with the following pre modifiers: articles (Art), an NP and a noun modifier (NM). The parts can be organized fully into the following structure; consider NH as noun head (the subscripts indicate their ordering);

- 1) Art₁ NP₂ NM₃ NH₄ Adj₅(PL)₆ Q₇ D₈ Int₉ Loc₁₀

The order is similar in Nandome; however, there will be further discussions on the type of items that occupy the various slots. According to Bodomo (1997) the noun head can be a noun or a pronoun. This is equally the case in Nandome. In Nandome Art₁ is occupied by the definite article **a** ‘the’ and NP₂ is always a genitive noun. For example **a bie gan** ‘the child’s book’. NM₃ is always a noun that acts as an adjective to the noun head. For example **tane dog** ‘clay pot’ **tane** ‘clay’ is a noun which can be a noun head in another sentence but in this case it is acting as an adjective to **dog** ‘pot’. Some major groups that can occupy

NM₃ are nouns that act as adjectives denoting origin of the noun head and nouns that act as adjectives denoting material from which the noun head is made.

In Nandome, Adj₅ can appear in a string. It is rare to have more than four in a string. If they are however more than four they will not affect the grammaticality of the sentence. The order of these adjectives too do not affect grammaticality. This is unlike Abdul-Razak (2015) findings with the NP of Safaliba. (Safaliba is a language spoken by people located mainly in the Bole district in the Northern region of Ghana, near the border with Côte d'Ivoire). He used three informant Safaliba speakers and data from a written text. Abdul-Razak (2015) found out that adjectives have an order in Safaliba. Angkaaraba (1980) and Bodomo (1997) are both silent about adjective order in an NP. Abdul-Razak (2015) also makes mention of ordinals and cardinals as part of quantifiers which is similar to that of Angkaaraba (1980) and Bodomo (1997). Nandome has both forms of quantifiers. For example **been** 'one' and **ayi** 'two' as cardinals. **dangniunsob** 'first' and **ayisob** 'second' as ordinals. {-sob} marks the quantifier as ordinal. In respect to the D₈ Nandome has the following determiners (though the determiners may not be limited to what is herein presented). Most of them are demonstratives. They include: **nga** 'this'; **ol** 'that'; **ama** 'these'; **al** 'those (non-human)'; **bel** 'those (human)'; **menε** 'some'; **kang** 'one of'. As it has been stated earlier, they are not limited to these ones but these are the frequently used ones. In Nandome the locative is either a preposition or a postposition that suggests where the noun head is located. For intensifiers there is a frequent use of **paa**; it has no lexical meaning but it is used for emphasis. There is also **minga** 'he/she/itself' or 'he/she/it actually'.

Thus far the study agrees that the NP in Nandome is similar to that outlined by Abdul-Razak (2015), Angkaaraba (1980) and Bodomo (1997). It is important to exemplify the outline with an NP from Nandome. (2) below is an NP construction in Nandome (the subscripts match them to the respective slots in (1));

- 2) **A₁ bie₂ gon₃ kpar₄ terbe₅ mwaare₅ ye₅ pe₅ ayi₇ al₈ paa₉ a yagla zu₁₀**
à bi'é gón kpar tírb é mwáár é yèl é pél é ájí' ál
Def. child cotton shirt thick PL short PL large PL white PL two those
páá á yàglà zú
Int Def hanger top
'those two thick, short, large white cotton shirts of the child, on the hanger'

In Nandome number can be realised by inflection on the noun, but when the noun is used together with an adjective the inflection is on the adjective. Determiners do have individual forms which are chosen to agree with the number inflection that modifies the noun head. In Nandome the surface realisation of number affects all the adjectives present in the phrase. For this reason all the adjectives in the structure '2' appear with the plural inflection.

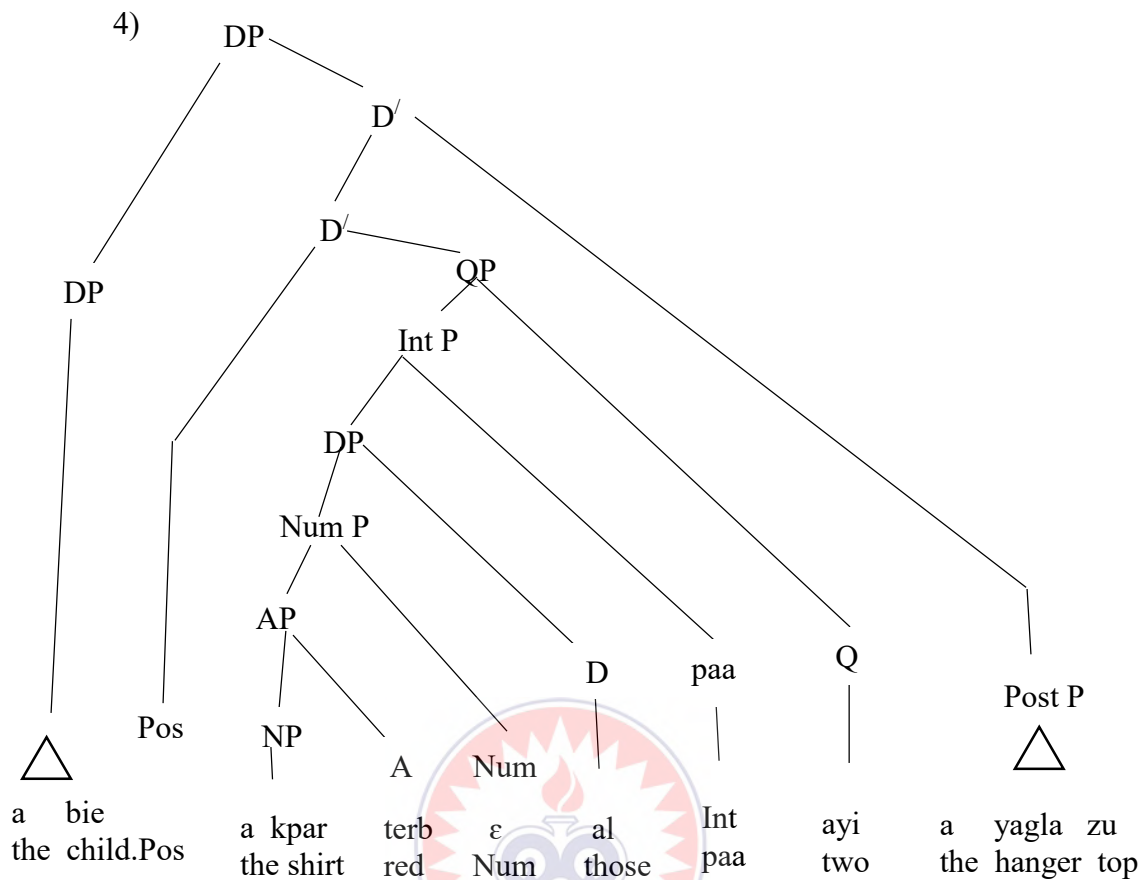
There are a few complications posed by intensifiers. The intensifiers in an NP in Nandome has several positions and each of these positions it assumes in the NP correlates a certain type of emphasis. We can best state the whole process as follows; an intensifier places emphasis on a word that immediately precedes it, where it is preceded by a determiner the emphasis is on the head noun which has been specified by that determiner though the head noun does not immediately precede the intensifier. In (2) above the intensifier comes after the determiner and the emphasis is on the head noun **kpar₄**.

However, since the definite article *a* does not always have a noun head preceding it, the intensifier cannot be placed behind it like other determiners. Now consider the structure below;

- 3) **a bie paa kpar terɛ al ayi a yagla zu**
 à bi'è páá kpar tírɓ é ál áji' á yàglà zú
 Def child Int shirt thick pl those two Def hunger top
 ‘those two thick shirts of the child, on the hanger’

The meaning here is that the emphasis is on **bie** ‘child’ which means no other person’s shirt than the child’s shirt is being referred to.

Once the X-bar theory is the framework for this work, it is prudent that the NP in Nandome be represented in an X-bar frame to set a premise ahead of the analysis of data. Bodomo (2004) analysed the NP in Dagaare in a DP. The study agrees with Bodomo’s (2004) position for the reason that the DP analysis favours explanations in terms of nominalisation. Bodomo (2004) suggested one D’ (D-bar) as intermediary between DP and the head D. This was because his analysis was contextualised and he decided to make do with a few relevant projections. With this research, the whole phrase is of importance. In line with this, two D’s are used such that the locative can be projected as an adjunct. (3) is illustrated in (4) below;



With the analysis in (4) above there is another DP. This is because in Nandome there can be two determiners in an NP. Another important fact is that when there are two consecutive nouns and both have determiners the determiner in the succeeding one deletes. For example in (4) where we have: **a bie a kpar terb**, the determiner in the succeeding noun will delete hence we have **a bie kpar terb**. This is very much similar to Bodomo's (2004) assertion where he laid a similar argument. When the quantifier is **been** 'one' it may only be realised for emphasis but it is usually not realised.

2.3 Features of the Typical Noun in Nandome

The section tries to reveal the features of prototypical nouns in Nandome. Based on these features the nominalised forms will be tested to ascertain which feature they share with true nouns in terms of morphology and syntax.

Payne's (1997) work which was intended to serve as a guide to field linguistics, focused on how the linguist can best analyse non-prototype nouns. He first draws the distinction between prototypical nouns and non-prototypical nouns. The former refers to time-stable concepts such as 'rock' and 'tree'. In addition prototypical nouns can be identified semantically. The non-prototypical nouns may not express full properties of the prototypical nouns. These properties Payne (1997) categorised as distributional and structural. Distributional properties refer to how words are distributed in phrases. For example, nouns can serve as heads of noun phrases, subjects and objects in clauses. Structural properties have to do with the internal structure of the noun itself. For example, in some languages nouns exhibit case marking, number marking and gender marking among others. With these properties of the noun he notes that there are no universals and hence such properties must be searched for within the language. He suggested an approach in which non-prototypical nouns (such as nominals derived from the process of nominalisation) can be analysed by linguist. In the approach, nominals that are derived should be given a formal label (e.g. -ing participles) with an explanation given of their characteristic functions and key morphosyntactic properties.

Following this, the nominals (gerunds) that are dealt with in this thesis are not considered as prototypical nouns. There is also the need to establish the distributional and structural properties of the prototypical noun to serve as a standard that will help place gerunds somewhere on the continuum from verbs to nouns.

Before making contextualised arguments for Nandome, the distributional properties of the noun in other dialects of Dagaare is reviewed. Note that the structure of the NP reviewed above is also important in terms of distributional properties. For this reason, the only aspect of distributional properties to be considered here is the functions of prototypical nouns within a clause (sentential distribution). Abdul-Razak (2015) captures this so well in his study on the NP of Safaliba. His findings fit well into the Nandome case. He states that the noun can be the head of a noun phrase. This is the same with Nandome as example (5) below illustrates (the illustrations are in Nandome);

5) **Ner zeɛ**

nir zìé

person red

‘red person’ (adaptation from Abdul-Razak, 2015)

In the phrase above **ner** ‘person’ which is a member of the noun class is the head of the NP because despite the colour modifier the phrase still refers to a person.

He also gives examples of the noun acting as subject, object and NP complement within a clause. All these are applicable in the case of Nandome as example (6) below illustrates;

6) a) **Dɛr de ne a bondere**

dér di ní à búndírí
 der eat.Perf Foc. Def food

‘Der ate the food’ (adapted from Abdul-Razak, 2015)

Dɛr acts as the subject of clause (6a) because it can be referred to as the entity that undertakes the activity of eating. Now consider (6b) below;

6b) **e nyɛ ne Dɛr**

ĩ jɛ ní dér
 1SG see.Perf Foc. Der

‘I saw Der.’ (adaptation Abdul-Razak, 2015)

Here **Dɛr** is used as an object of the clause because it can be referred to as the entity that undergoes the act of seeing. Also now consider (6c) below which illustrates the complement function of a noun in a clause;

6c) **baa nga e ne badaa**

báá nǵá ì ní bà dáá
 dog this BE Foc. dog male

‘This dog is a male dog.’ (Adaptation from Abdul-Razak 2015)

With clause (6c) the noun **badaa** ‘male dog’ is coming after a copular and nouns that occupy such positions are complements. Semantically we can say **badaa** refers to the same entity being referred to by **baa nga** ‘this dog’ and again it only complements that behave in this way.

Additionally in Nandome and presumably in all other dialects of Dagaare, prototypical nouns can also be objects of prepositions (as in 6d) below, or postpositions (as in 6e) below.

6d. ne	daa	6e. teɛ	zu
nĩ	dàà	tié	zú
with	stick		tree top

Bodomo (1997) in his study on central Dagaare, also mentions double object construction where there are two object positions: the direct object and the indirect object. These types of construction are possible in Nandome. All the related constraints outlined by Bodomo holds in Nandome. These constraints include the fact that: indirect object comes before direct objects; the focus marker occurs before all full NP objects; the focus marker intervenes when the indirect object is a pronominal form; in ditransitive the direct object is never in pronominal form. (7) below illustrates double object constructions;

7) **o ko ne Dɛr a gan**

ù	kù	nĩ	dɛr	a	gán
he/she	give.Perf	Foc.	dɛr	Def.	book
'he/she gave Der the book'					

These functions that are outlined here in addition to the NP (DP) structure discussed earlier constitute the distributional properties of the prototypical nouns in Nandome.

On the structural properties of the noun, Payne (1997) argues that they involve such properties as marking gender, number, possession and case. Bodomo's (1997) chapter on the morphology of the Dagaare noun is reviewed. Bodomo (1997, p. 52) argues that

‘Dagaare is not a case language: nouns lack case markings’. Bodomo (1997, p. 52) further states that ‘besides a few number of suffixes such as –**daa**, **saraa**, **nyangaa**, which are put on nouns denoting living things, Dagaare nouns are not automatically divided into masculine, feminine and neuter forms as done in some Indo European languages’. These two claims hold totally for the Nandome dialect. In the case of the few suffixes mentioned there are some examples below;

8) **bodaa** ‘he goat’

bosaraa (*bosera* in Nandome) ‘a young she goat’

bonyangaa (*bonyang* in Nandome) ‘an old she goat’

In sum we cannot state that the noun in Nandome marks gender, because these are few enough to be recognised as exceptions.

Bodomo (1997) further argues that the singular and plural suffixes are marked for most nouns. He however did not mention what type of nouns constitute the few that do not inflect for number in the dialect he worked on. However in Nandome, abstract nouns do not inflect for number. Some examples in Nandome include **ya** ‘mind’ and **potuo** ‘wickedness’, this might be a derived nominal in English but in Nandome it is a noun. In Nandome nouns can take a genitive marking in which case it becomes a pre-modifier of another noun. For example **a bie gan** ‘the child’s book.’

In conclusion, members of the noun class in Nandome can act as heads of NPs. They can also function as subjects, objects and complements in a clause. In terms of functioning as objects they can be direct or indirect objects of a clause or they can be

objects of a preposition or a postposition. In connection with structural properties, members of the noun class in Nandome mark number. They however do not have a phonological realisation of case and they do not mark gender. These will serve as parameters for analysing and establishing the morphosyntactic properties of gerunds that will be studied in this research.

2.4 Noun Classes in Nandome

The review under this section is based on intuition, observation and consultations with some native speakers. In this section a sketch of the noun classes in Nandome will be given. The purpose is to set a bases towards the analysis where we will establish whether the gerundive nominals have features of any of the noun classes or they constitute an entirely new class.

Bodomo (1997) studied the central dialect of Dagaare (see the introductory pages for more information). He suggested nine classes of the noun in Dagaare. Class 1 is based on a semantic classification where all its members have the feature +HUMAN. The other classes are based on phonological classifications. This is similar with Nandome where there is a class with +HUMAN members. The rest of the classes are also based on phonology. The difference comes in the different phonological bases and the number of classes. The noun classes in Nandome are as follows;

Class 1; members in this class are semantically classified. They have the property +HUMAN. In Nandome they can further be divided into two:

a) the three-term sub-class;

dóó ‘man’ **déébé** ‘men’

póg ‘woman’ **pógbé** ‘women’

nír ‘person’ **níbé** ‘people’

They are named ‘three-term’ because it is only these nouns and other compound nouns involving any of these nouns that take the suffix {-be’} for their plural.

b) This sub-class contains kinship nouns. They take the suffix {-mìně} to form their plural.

Examples include;

yéb ‘sibling (brother/sister)’ **yéébmìně** ‘siblings’

sǎǎ ‘father’ **sǎǎmìně** ‘fathers/uncles’

Class 2; contains nouns with close syllable endings. These can be further divided into four sub-classes. These include;

a) Nouns with closed syllables that have duplicates of the same vowel as the nuclei:

kùùr ‘hoe’ **kùè** ‘hoes’

ɲúúr ‘yam’ **ɲi’é** ‘yams’

b) Nouns with closed syllable endings that have /r/ as coda:

yúór ‘name’ **yéé** ‘names’

yùòr ‘pot’ **yèè** ‘pots’

dér ‘ladder’ **déé** ‘ladders’

- c) Nouns with closed syllable endings that have [gr] as coda:

bágr ‘shoulder’ **bágé** (or **báwé**) ‘shoulders’

bígr ‘tree fibre’ **bígé** (or **bíwé**) ‘fibres’

- d) Nouns with closed syllable endings that have any other consonant as coda:

tòòb ‘ear’ **tòbè** ‘ears’

gyél ‘egg’ **gyélé** ‘eggs’

Class 3; nouns ending with open syllable. These can be divided into three classes;

- a) Nouns with open syllable ending with low tone nucleus:

sùò ‘knife’ **sòró** ‘knives’

dìè ‘room’ **dì rú** ‘rooms’

bàà ‘river’ **bàró** ‘rivers’

- b) Nouns with open syllable, ending with high tone nucleus:

nóó ‘fowl’ **nóór** ‘mouths’

móó ‘grass’ **móór** ‘grasses’

báá ‘dog’ **báár** ‘dogs’

Class 4; disyllabic nouns in which the last syllable has an onset and is opened:

kpàrù ‘shirt’ **kpàrì** ‘shirts’

lìlé ‘chick’ **lìlì** ‘chicks’

Class 5 is the class that tackles the issues of nasality in terms of noun classes. It can further be divided into two main sub-classes. The classes include;

a) Nouns with open syllables with nasal vowels as nuclei:

tĩĩ ‘medicine’ **tĩĩnĩ** ‘medicines’

kũũ ‘water’ **kũũnĩ** ‘different collections of water’

b) Nouns ending with a nasal consonant (not /ŋ/):

pén ‘rag’ **pémě** ‘rags’

tám ‘bow (/arrow)’ **támě** ‘bows’

c) Nouns ending with /ŋ/:

sóŋ ‘rabbit’ **són** ‘rabbits’

òŋ ‘mouse’ **òn** ‘mice’

Class 6 contains non-count nouns in Nandome. They can be further divided into three observable groups

a) Abstract non-count nouns;

yá ‘mind’

pòtùò ‘wickedness’

b) Liquid non-count nouns

zĩĩ ‘blood’

dóró ‘urine’

súúr ‘glue’

c) Concrete non-count nouns

múné ‘rice’

tànè ‘soil’

There is always an Advanced Tongue Root (ATR) influence in the morphological processes which are observable from the examples above. There could be some exceptions. For example **nuu** ‘hand’ belongs to class (3b) and should have the plural **nuur**. However despite that this plural form is grammatical in some dialects of Dagaare, it is ungrammatical in Nandome. In Nandome it rather belongs to class (3c) and thus takes the plural **nuru** ‘hands’.

2.5 Verbs and the VP in Dagaare

Once the NP in Nandome is established above, the next most important part of the clause to consider is the VP. Bodomo (1997) divides the VP into three parts: preverbal, verb and postverbal.

2.5.1 Preverbal particles

Bodomo (1997) outlines the following preverbal particles in Dagaare (‘T’=tense particles; ‘P’=polarity particles; ‘M’=modality particles; ‘Asp’=aspect particle; ‘H’=habitual particle; ‘Ag’=repetitive and ‘TD’=time depth particles);

T, P, M Asp AND TD PARTICLES	DAGAARE	NANDOME
TODAY (ALSO ONCE UPON A TIME) ‘TD’ ‘Asp’	da	daŋ/d. w*
ONE DAY AWAY ‘TD’	zaa	zaa
TWO OR MORE DAYS AWAY ‘TD’	daar	daar
H(ABITUAL) ‘M’ ‘Asp’	maŋ	me
STILL ‘M’	naŋ	kyaa
ACTUALLY ‘M’	soroŋ	sere
ONCE AGAIN, AS USUAL ‘M’ ‘Asp’	yaa	yaa
SUDDENLY, JUST ‘M’ ‘Asp’	die	dɛ
NON-FUTURE NEGATIVE ‘P’	ba	bɛ
FUTURE AFFIX ‘P’ ‘T’	na	na
FUTURE NEGATIVE ‘P’ ‘T’	koŋ	kon
IMPERATIVE SUBJUNCTIVE NEGATIVE ‘M’ ‘P’	ta	ta
AG(AIN) ‘M’ ‘Asp’	la	le

Table 1: Preverbal Particles in Dagaare and Nandome

All particles marked as tense (‘T’), aspect (‘Asp’) and modal (‘M’) constitute the Tense-Aspect-Modal Particles (TAMP). TAMP insert at the I-node in an inflectional phrase (IP) and are therefore not part of VP. TAMP include; **daŋ, me, kyaa, sere, yaa, dɛ, na, kon, ta** and **le**. There is an additional TAM particle **te** ‘some time ago’, which occurs in Nandome and maybe other dialects of Dagaare. In Nandome and perhaps in other dialects of Dagaare the particle **te** is what really expresses ‘the once upon a time’ notion. A past event within the day is expressed by **daŋ/daw**. **te** can also be used for an immediate past event. **te** (hereafter referred to as Remote Verb Particle (RVP)) however is mainly used to express remoteness in time either past or future. **Te** shows aspect since it creates a

stretch of time within which other events, progressive or completed, can occur. This particle always immediately precedes the main verb in surface structures. (9) and (10) below are examples;

9) **O te baare na**

ù tí bààr ε nã
3SG Asp grow Pgr Foc.

‘he/she/it was growing at the time referred to’

10) **O te baa na**

ù tí bàá nã
3SG Asp grow.Perf Foc.

‘he/she/it was already grown at time referred to’

Since **te** shows aspect, it implies that it is part of TAMP. This will later explain why (in the case of **te**) there is an I-lowering before the verb phrase comes under a determiner phrase during the formation of a gerund phrase. In the case of **dang**, it does not appear in a gerund phrase at all. The other group of TD particles is made of noun-like adverbs such as **zaa** ‘yesterday’; **daar** ‘a day before yesterday’; and **deya** ‘a year back’, among others. Because of their time information to sentences, they can best be considered as sentential adjuncts. This will later help explain why such particles as **zaa** and **daar** can occur rightward of a gerund in the gerund phrase.

This study proposes a sequence for verb particles in Nandome, take ‘MV’ as ‘main verb’ in addition to the other abbreviations in the table above. The subscripts are for easy correspondence with the example that will follow;

11) TD₁ M₂ P₃ H₄ Ag₅ RV₆ MV₇

Consider (11) above as a provision of slots. Not all the slots can be filled in a single construction.

12) **O kyaa₂ bε₃ me₄ lε₅ te₆ wa₇ ε₃**

ù kyãã bé mĩ lè tì wà é

3SG still NEG. H again Asp come Foc.

‘as at the time being referred to, s/he still kept refusing to come again’

13) **O daar₁ kyaa₂ bε₃ wa₇ ε₃**

ù dáár kyãã bé wà é

3SG two-days-ago still NEG come Foc.

‘the day before yesterday s/he still had not come’

2.5.2 Main verb

Bodomo (1997) argues that the verb in Dagaare is labelled as aspect; that is the perfect (complete) or imperfective (progressive/incomplete). The perfect aspect is realised as a zero and there for has the same phonetic form as the uninflected verb. Some examples of such inflexions in Nandome are illustrated below;

14) **zò** ‘run’ (root)

zò perfect aspect

zòrε imperfect aspect

He also recognises that verbs can be classified into pairs or even several classes of opposition depending on the derivational process such as causativity, transitivity, reversitivity and many others. This happens in Nandome as the following examples prove;

- 15) **ko** ‘kill **kpi** ‘die’
le ‘tie’ **kyɛr** ‘untie’

2.5.3 Postverbal particles

The only post verbal particle that exists in Dagaare is the focus marker which Bodomo (1997) refers to as the ‘factitive’ because according to him the particle marks affirmation. Bodomo (1997) argues that it originates from VP specifier position and then lowers to a position behind the verb, the current study supports the view. Bodomo (1997) further argues that the particle is in complementary distribution with the negative marker. However, that is not the case in Nandome. In Nandome when the negative marker is used the focus marker **nã** is reduced to a vowel /e/ or /ɛ/ based on ATR assimilation to the vowel system of the preceding word (see examples 16 and 17). This phonological reduction is preceded by a semantic reduction where it loses polarity and maintains only focus. It occurs before all NP complements of the verb but it never occurs after adjuncts postverbally. This is consistent with Bodomo’s (1997) findings. In Nandome when the verb preceding the focus marker ends in a consonant, the consonant in the focus marker is assimilated totally into the consonant ending the verb preceding the focus marker. Observe (16) and (17) below are illustrations;

16) **o kul la**

ò kúl lá
s/he go.home.Perf Foc
‘s/he went home’

17) **o kong kul e**

ù kòng kúl é

s/he FUT.NEG go home Foc. (reduced)

‘he/she will not go home’ (Nandome version of Bodomo’s (1997) example)

2.5.4 **Adverbials**

Bodomo argues that Dagaare has the following types of adverbials which also exist in Nandome (examples are from Nandome and in brackets); temporal (**fongfong** ‘quickly’), spatial (**ka** ‘here’), manner (**vila** ‘well’), intensity (**yaga** ‘a lot’), emphasis (**de** ‘just/indeed’), negation (**koraa** ‘not at all’) and doubt (**kaapɔɔ** or **a mine kang** ‘maybe’). In Nandome there is an additional type of adverbial which denotes the sequence in which events occur. Some examples of such adverbs include **gbabeen** ‘once’; **gbɛɛayi** ‘twice’ and so on. It can be deduced from Bodomo (1997) that apart from adverbials of doubt the other adverbials occur postverbally after the focus marker. Adverbials of negation always take a negative preverbal particle; **bɛ**, and as such the focus marker is reduced to a vowel **e** or **ɛ** based on ATR. Some clausal illustrations are below in (18) and (19);

18) **kaapɔɔ a bie na kyen na**

kààpɔɔ à bi'é nã kyén nã

maybe Def child FUT go Foc.

‘maybe the child will go’ (adapted from Bodomo, 1997)

19) **O bɛ wa togtog e**

ù bé wà tógtóg é

s/he NEG come not at all Foc. (reduced)

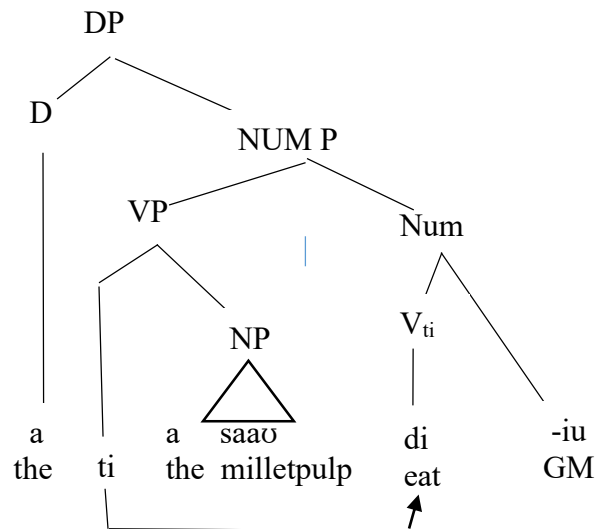
‘she did not come at all’ (adapted from Bodomo, 1997)

2.6 Gerunds in Dagaare and other Gur languages

It must be admitted that the documented facts on nominalisation are few among the Gur languages. The available few are presented below.

Bodomo and Oosterndorp (1994) and Bodomo (2004) were of the view that studying the interaction between serialisation and nominalisation would shed some new light on either of them or even both of them. In line with the nominalisation facts, Bodomo (2004) argues that gerundive nominalisation in Dagaare is a special instance of number. By this, he agrees with Abney (1987). Abney (1987) considers that the process of gerundive nominalisation takes place in a DP. The NUM P (number phrase) in this case is not projected by the AP and Num, instead it is projected by VP and Num. In this light, a movement rule applies which takes only the lexical verb to the terminal node of Num. In the case of serial verb constructions (SVCs) all the lexical verbs in the series move. This is illustrated below in (20);

(20)



His assertion accounts for the internal syntactic structure of the gerundive nominal. From the assertion, it is clear that tense cannot reflect in nominalisation because tense is outside VP. However Bodomo (2004) further asserts that since the uninflected verb is in the perfect aspect by default, the perfect aspect reflects in the nominalisation. It is also clear why there is an inversion of the verb and its direct object. He also illustrates that the subject precedes the object which then precedes the gerund. An example is in (21) below;

21) **dɛrɛ gama nyɛ sɔroo**

deri books these reading

‘deri reading of these books’ (cf. Bodomo, 2004)

It will be proved later that gerundive nominals in Nandome go through a process similar to the findings on gerunds in Bodomo’s (2004) study. However, the current study in Nandome will go further to explain how the preverbal particles move behind the underlying object and directly preceded the gerund.

Abubakari (2011) studied predicate clefting and SVCs in Kusaal, a Gur language spoken in north-eastern Ghana. Among other things in the study, he supports the phenomenon of nominalisation as presented in Dagaare by Bodomo (2006). Abubakari (2011, p. 28) agrees that ‘it is also feasible to have two arguments where the subject must occur before the object’ as exemplified in the phrase in (22) below;

22) **Asibi ni'im sen'b.**

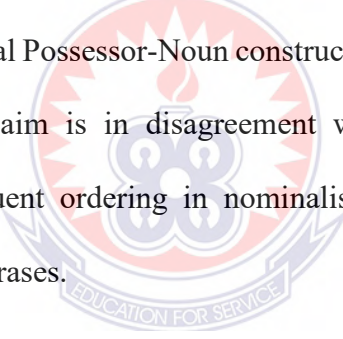
Asibi's meat roast.Nmlz

‘Asibi’s roasting of meat.’ (cf. Abubakari, 2011).

2.7 Gerunds in other Languages

This section takes a look at nominalisation in different languages. This will help guide the research and also identify gaps that could possibly be filled by this research. It will also help reveal some typological facts surrounding nominalisation.

A cross-linguistic study by Nikitina (2007) investigated nominalisation and word order in Niger-Congo languages. Nominalisation and word order has been a fascinating aspect of language and it is very central to the current research. Nikitina (2007) agrees with Williamson (1986) that a number of Niger-Congo languages have head-final nominalisations with the object preceding the nominalised verb (O-VNMLZ), but at the same time have no head-final Possessor-Noun construction. Examples cited include: Gade, Yoruba and Igbo. This claim is in disagreement with Koptjevskaja-Tamm's (2003) generalization that constituent ordering in nominalisations always reflects constituent ordering in regular noun phrases.

The logo of the University of Education, Winneba, is a circular emblem. It features a central sun-like symbol with rays, surrounded by a wreath. Below the wreath, the motto "EDUCATION FOR SERVICE" is inscribed in a banner. The entire emblem is set against a light background.

Judging from the NP structure for Nandome which was settled on in section 2.2 of this chapter, it would be realised that possessives are not accepted in the final position of an NP. It will subsequently be proved that gerundive nominalisation in Nandome leads to an object verb inversion thereby arguing that Nandome is a good example of the observation made by Nikitina (2007) that most Niger-Congo languages prepose the underlying object during nominalisation.

Perekhval'skaya (2011) studied nominalisation in Mwan. Mwan is a southern Mande language (part of the Niger Congo) spoken in the Kongasso sub-prefecture in

central la Cote d'Ivoire with about 20,000 speakers. The study revealed four major things about gerunds in Mwan. First of all, the study found that the gerund marker is an agglutinative suffix. Secondly, the gerund combined both nominal and verb features. The study also found out that gerunds were found to be derivable in a regular way with the meaning utterly predictable. The third is that gerunds maintain sentential government. In other words, gerundive nominalisation carry the embedded meaning of a sentence. The last of the major findings is that the nominal can occur in subject, complement, direct object and indirect object positions (that is they have the same sentential distribution as the noun).

Based on the study in the Mwan language, it was indicated that the gerund bears all the features of a gerund as outlined by Chomsky (1970) (see section 2.8 of this chapter). That is they have a productive transformational rule, a straight forward semantic relation with their root verbs and they lack the internal structure of an NP. One interesting thing is that Mwan is morphologically an isolating language but the gerund marker was found to be an agglutinating one. The study in Nandome as already noted will prove that gerunds have similar features as noted by Chomsky (1970) and Perekhval'skaya (2011). It will then be possible to state that Nandome as a language possess true gerunds. The gerund marker in Nandome will be argued as being an isolating suffix.

Udemmadu (2012) researched into the morphology of nominalisations in Igbo. Igbo is spoken by one of the largest ethnic groups in West Africa, located in south-eastern Nigeria. The formation of gerunds is through the principle of prefixation and suffixation. For CV verbs it is by prefixing **o** to the verb root alongside complete or partial duplication

of the verb root which is suffixation, the formula is ‘o/o + verb root × 2 = gerund. For instance **ri** ‘eat’ is gerundivised as in (23);

23) a. o + ri + ri di ya mma ‘Eating is good for him/her’

He also states that complex gerunds can be derived from verbs whose structure is CVCVCV. And the process is through the prefixation of a nasal ‘m/n’ to the verb, that is, ‘m/n + verb = complex gerund’. For instance:

23) b. m + malite = mmalite (beginning)

Udemmadu’s (2012) work will be revisited shortly. However Adomako (2012) also researches into the morphological processes involved in deriving nominals from verbs in Akan. Akan is a language spoken mainly in Ghana and Cote d’Ivoire. In Ghana, where the research was based, it is the language that is largely spoken. His main focus was Asante Twi. Adomako observed that with nominalisation the processes involved could be prefixation together with suffixation; suffixation alone, or reduplication (complete/partial) together with prefixation. Inferring from his gloss, gerundive nominalisation also accept such processes. Abakah (2015) reiterates the involvement of reduplication in the process of nominalisation. Some examples include (24a)-(24d);

- 24) a. **titi** ‘train’ **n`titiε** ‘training’
 b. **nanti** ‘walk’ **nanti (ε)** ‘walking’
 c. **fʋoro.fʋoro** ‘climb’ **afʋorofʋoro** ‘climbing’
 d. **tintam** lift **atintam** ‘lifting’ (cf. Adomako, 2012)

Ameka (2006) studied the grammars in contact in the Volta basin, West Africa. He touched on gerundive nominalisation in Ewe and Likpe. He observed that Ewe forms its gerunds by preposing the internal argument of a verb to its reduplicated form. An example is (25) below;

- 25) a. **fa te > te-f a- f a**
 plant yam yam-redup- plant
 ‘plant yams’ ‘yam planting’

He also identified that Likpe is an active noun class language and as a result uses noun markers for nominalisations. For gerundive nominalisation Likpe uses the prefix {bu-}. According to Ameka (2006) the noun class marked by this prefix is equivalent to the class called infinitive in Bantu languages. This can also take a preposed internal argument. Consider the following examples;

- b. bu-yu ‘stealing’
 c. bi-si’ bu-tə’kə’ ‘yam planting’

Another way is by preposing the internal argument to a verb nominalised by reduplication. For example;

- d. bi-si’ tə’kə’tə’kə’ ‘yam planting’

Ameka (2006) observed that Likpe uses a noun class marker to form gerunds. This study is interested in finding out whether gerunds in Nandome can be formed with evidence of any noun class marking. It will be proved that gerunds in Nandome cannot be inflected to mark number and are therefore considered as a subclass of non-count nouns.

In both Ewe and Likpe, gerunds have the feature of object preposing. This makes them good examples of Nikitina's (2007) observation that a good number of Niger-Congo languages prepose their objects during nominalisation. The preposing of objects tackles an aspect of the internal syntax of gerunds.

In all the works: Adomako (2012), Ameka (2006) and Udemmadu (2012), a trend in Niger-Congo languages is observable. We can say that in a good number of Niger-Congo languages, reduplication plays a role in gerundive nominalisation and for that matter nominalisations in general. This is evident from the fact that all the three works reflect the involvement of reduplication.

All the three languages involved are Niger-Congo languages. However there are an equally good number of Niger-Congo languages which do not involve reduplication during the process of gerundive nominalisation. Perekhval'skaya's (2011) study on Mwan which is a Mande language shows no evidence of reduplication in the process. Abubakari's (2011) and Bodomu's (2006) respective researches on Kusaal and Dagaare show no evidence of reduplication. The two are Gur languages and they both showed no reduplication in the process. Adéniyi (2010) worked on Edo (an Atlanti-Congo and for that matter a Niger-Congo language) by looking at tone and nominalisation. He, among other things, observed that the gerundive nominalisation used a discontinuous morpheme $\{\grave{u}...mw\grave{e}\}$ added to a verb stem and there was no reduplication involved. It may then appear that despite that the involvement of reduplication is not utterly predictable it depends to some extent on the language sub-classes within the Niger-Congo family. It will further be proved in the chapter on analysis that Nandome which belongs to the Gur branch also does not involve

reduplication in the formation of its gerunds. This makes it consistent with Dagaare and Kusaal.

Per the literature herein reviewed not many authors have discussed the allomorphy of the gerund marker. In the case of languages with reduplication, it is somewhat difficult to discuss allomorphy because in such cases it is not just a morpheme attachment but a process. In Nandome allomorphy will be discussed revealing a special phenomenon where the morpheme is never fully realised as an allomorph in speech, at least per the data collected for this research. Nevins's (2010) view may be of importance to settling the issue. Nevins's (2010, p. 7) holds the view that 'the choice of phonologically unrelated allomorphs can sometimes be the fortunate result of historical divergence'. Nevins's (2010) further gives an example of Moroccan: the fact that the Moroccan Arabic object clitic used to be **-hu**, but now has developed into two distinct (and synchronically unrelated) allomorphs, [-h], chosen after vowel-final stems (e.g. xtQa-h 'his error'), and [-u], chosen after consonant-final stems (e.g. ktab-u 'his book'). A study limited only to the contemporary Moroccan Arabic will not have evidence of selecting either [-h] or [-u] as a morphophoneme until the study stretches out to the old Moroccan Arabic or other dialects of Arabic. Similarly, to solve the problem in Nandome concerning which allomorph should represent the morpheme as the gerund marker, there is the need to look into the other dialects of Dagaare which are relatively older than Nandome.

So far, the works herein reviewed have basically touched on the morphological aspects of nominalisation while the syntax aspect has been brief. However there is much more to talk about in the syntax. Before it can be established that a language has true

gerunds or not there should be an analysis of the syntax of the gerunds in the language. It can be said, at least from this review, that most African languages possess true gerunds. A true gerund is one that maintains consistency of the features outlined by Chomsky (1970) (see section 2.8).

Boadi (unpublished) in his work on Akan verbal prefixes touches on the syntax and semantics of the gerund extensively. He observes that in Akan the gerundive nominaliser is a non-finite inflection which is attached to the verb by an I-lowering rule. There are obligatory movements of the underlying subject and the object, to the left of the gerund. There is also an optional movement of underlying adjuncts. There is a recursive genitival such that all the pre-modifiers of the gerund occur in the possessive. In line with semantics he also identified that it is possible to have a ‘manner-of-action reading’ from the Akan gerundive phrase. This sort of reading depends on the condition that: the underlying subject of the gerund is referring to an individual and that the verb governing the gerundial complement construction belongs to the semantic class of cognition or to the class of emotions. Below is an example that incorporates all the ideas observed above;

26) ɔ pe kwasi su'kuu ε-kɔ'
 3SG. STAT.like kwasi.AS school.AS NOM-go
 s/he likes Kwasi's going to school.

‘AS’ means associative marker which is also the genitival in Akan. The meaning of sentence (26) is that the person likes the way **Kwasi** goes to school. This is the manner reading. In Nandome similar readings occur under similar conditions. The ‘manner-of-action’ reading might be a feature for a wide range of natural languages. It occurs in

languages like English which have no genetic affiliation with Akan or Nandome. For example;

27) I enjoy Mike Tyson's fighting

This sentence could refer to the fact that the person enjoys the way Mike Tyson fights. The fact that this happens in languages of varying genetic affiliations shows that it is a feature which may be common to many natural languages. Nandome shows an additional feature of HABIT interpretation in gerundive constructions. It inflects to denote this and this inflection is unlike other morphological processes in the language which use affixes. This particular inflectional process in Nandome uses deletion of the phonological segments in word final position. The deletion of the final phonological segment is obligatory for the gerund, the underlying object and any item that occurs between them. More details with examples will be given in the analysis. Boadi (unpublished) also observes that when there is a negative marker in the gerund phrase that has adverbials, it is the adverbials that get negated and not the gerund. A similar thing occurs in Nandome. Some examples to this effect are given in section 4.5.3 in the analysis.

Nepožitková (2010) did a descriptive work on the gerunds of English. He observed that they accept both verbal and nominal modifications. He agrees that the gerund marker is only the suffix {-ing}. He realised that all post modifiers of the gerund were verbal modifiers. The nominal modifiers appeared as pre-modifiers though some verbal modifiers also occur as pre-modifiers. The post-modifiers possible with the gerund include: an object complement, and indirect object complement, adverbs and adverbials and the purpose

clause (which is also an adverbial). Pre-modifiers include: the indefinite, nouns and pronouns (subjects), adverbs, negation, aspect and passive auxiliaries. Some constructions that exemplify Nepožitková's (2010) account of the internal structure of gerund phrases are in (28) below (gerunds are boldened);

- 28) a. She criticised the parents for John not **performing** well in class.
b. He questions his **being** late to class.

The examples in (28a) and (28b) above show how some of the modifiers occur with gerunds.

Nepožitková (2010) also observed that gerunds express agents either in the nominative form or in the accusative form. In the nominative case, gerunds express agents in a genitive form. As in (29) below (agents are in bold);

- 29) a. I like **his** reading the book.
b. I like **him** reading the book.

In the case of (29a) the agent is in the nominative case and in (29b) the agent is in the accusative case. He further draws attention to the fact that the agent is in nominative case when focus is on the action denoted by the gerund. On the other hand when the agent is in the accusative it means focus is on the agent and not the action denoted by the gerund. The research would reveal that in Nandome the agent (subject) always takes a nominative case.

- 31) a. sāhadtu tadmīr-a -l-qaysar-i li -l-madīnat-i
I.witnessed destroying-ACC the-Caesar-GEN to the-city-GEN
'I witnessed Caesar's destroying of the city' (cf. Kremers, 2003)
- b. sāhadtu tadmīr-a -l-qaysar-i li -l-madīnat-a
I.witnessed destroying-ACC the-Caesar-GEN the-city-ACC
'I witnessed Caesar's destroying the city' (cf. Kremers, 2003)

In addition to the above, he adds that the gerund has all the sentential distributions of a noun. It can occupy positions as the subject, object, complements of prepositions and adjuncts.

In all the three works reviewed; Boadi (unpublished), Nepozitkova (2010) and Kremers (2003), all from very distinct language families, there are two major trends revealed. The distinct nature of the languages leaves clues that the trends in question apply to a wide range of natural languages and these trends may even be language universals. The trends that show up are that: it is possible for subjects to be inherited as genitives in all the three works reviewed. This is semantically explainable in that when a character performs an act it gives him sole ownership of the act such that no other character can claim to be the doer of that particular act. In all three the gerund has all the distributions of a noun. To this light the study of gerunds in Nandome will show that gerunds also inherit the subject in a genitive form. Additionally, the gerunds in Nandome have the distributions of a noun. The distributions of the noun in Nandome have earlier been reviewed and would serve as the bases for establishing that the gerund in Nandome can occur in all those distributions.

2.8 Features of the Gerund

The section attempts a complete definition of what a gerund is with regard to Chomsky (1970). The features outlined here will be used as the parameters for establishing that the verbal nominals under study in this work qualify to be gerunds.

Chomsky (1970) defines the gerund on three parameters. The first is that they ‘can be formed fairly freely from propositions of subject-predicate form’ (Chomsky 1970, p. 187) which means that they reflect a doer and an action or a state. This transformational process in English is accounted for by the *-ing* suffixation process. An example of a phrase include;

32) John’s being eager to please (cf. Chomsky, 1970)

Secondly ‘the nominal does not have the internal structure of a noun phrase’ (Chomsky, 1970, p. 187). This is illustrated by the fact that in (32) one can introduce negation whereas it is not possible to introduce negation in a prototypical noun phrase. This thus implies it is possible to have the structure in (33) below;

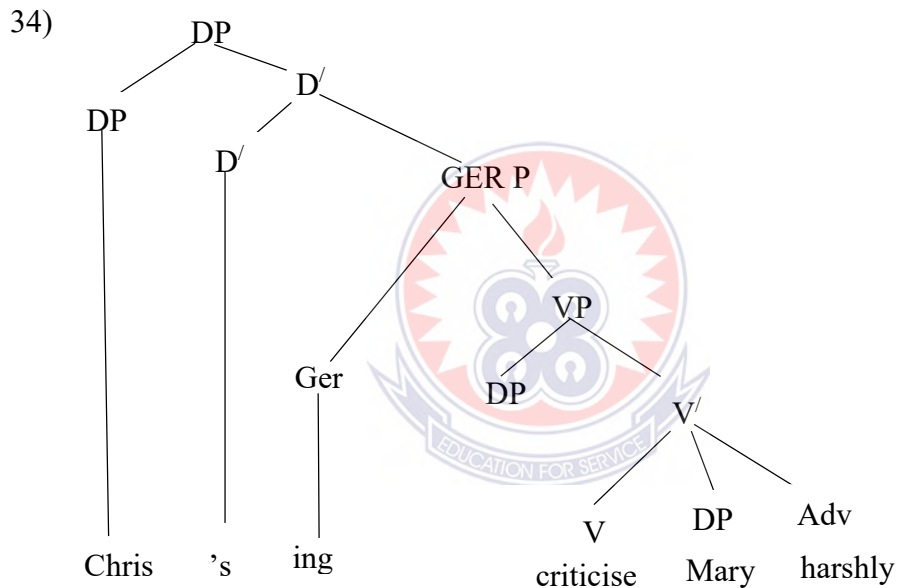
33) John not being eager to please (cf Chomsky, 1970)

Lastly Chomsky (1970, p. 187) mentions that there should be ‘generality of the relation between the nominal and the associated proposition.’ The following semantic interpretation: ‘the act of doing something’ or ‘the state of being’ has this generality between the gerund in English and its proposition. It will be proved later in this research

work that the gerundive nominals of Nandome under study here, meet all these three parameters and can therefore be called true gerunds of the language.

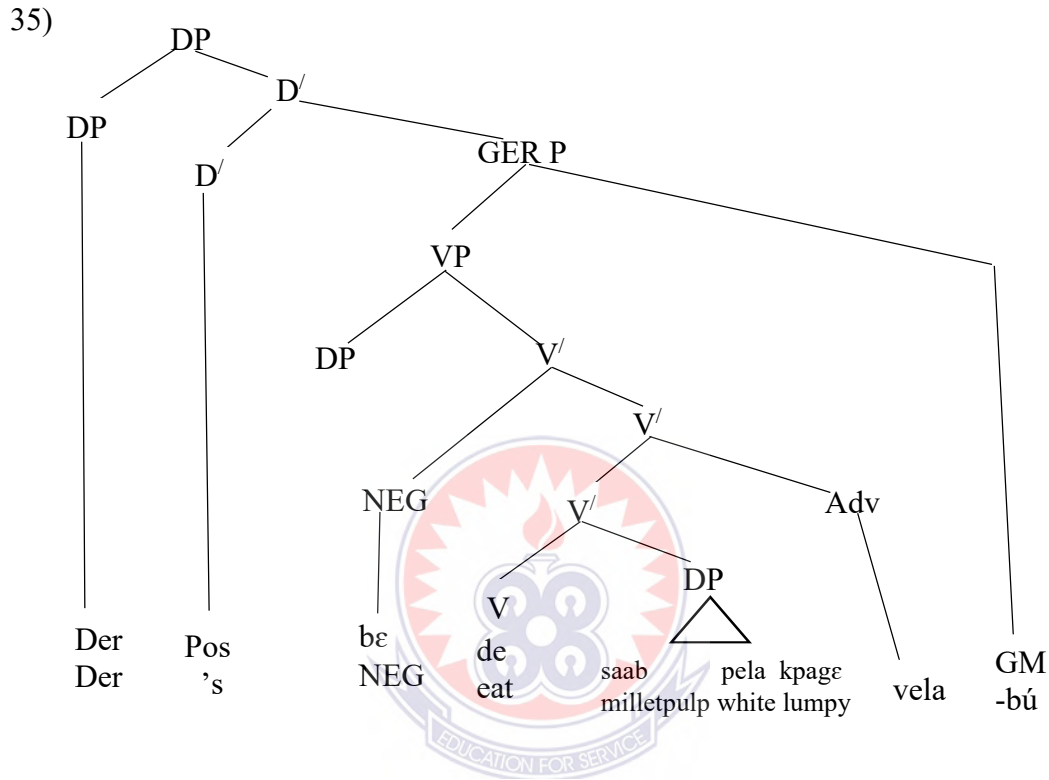
2.9 A DP Approach to the Study of Gerund Phrases

Baker's (2005) DP analysis approach to the study of gerunds is reviewed. Further amendments will be made to suit the case of Nandome, the language of study. In (34) below, is Baker's (2005) proposed DP analysis for the study of gerunds.



The modifications are that a right headed gerund phrase (GER P) is preferred to Baker's left headed phrase because the right headed phrase suits the parameters of Nandome. A hierarchical V' projection is also preferred to the flat representation that Baker (2005) used because the hierarchical arrangement is more typical of the X-bar; however the flat structure will be used in terms of serial verb constructions (SVCs) to avoid complexities. The reason for the modification is that these modifications will help explain some aspects

of the internal structure of the gerund phrase in Nandome. The modified version of (34) above is represented in (35) below. (35) is the modified DP to be used for the analysis of gerunds in Nandome.



The diagram above shows the special DP situation where there is a special nominal inflection (GM) that defies normality to dominate a VP. (35) above is very similar to Abney's (1987) proposed DP analysis which Bodomo (2004) used in his analysis (see 20). The slight difference is that Baker (2005) does not consider GM as a special instance of number inflection unlike Abney (1987) and also Baker makes DP the specifier to VP. However, it will later be proved that the gerund in Nandome is unable to inflect for number which still proves that Abney's (1987) version still holds some explanations for gerund formation in Nandome. Baker (2005) also made this adaptation to help him explain that gerunds are made of two parts where one part belongs to the verb category and the other

belongs to a nominal category. By this claim Baker (2005) was debunking the view that a gerund is one entity that has both noun and verb qualities simultaneously. This argument was within a larger argument as to whether a single form can belong to more than one category. The likes of Baker (2005) argue that a form cannot belong to more than one category whilst others like Wetzer (1996) argue the opposite. This study provides evidence in support of Baker's (2005) view that a gerund is not one entity that simultaneously belong to two categories rather they are made up of two parts which belong to different categories.

2.10 Theoretical Framework (X-bar theory and generative phonology)

2.10.1 The X-bar theory

The section of the literature review dives deep into concepts expressed by the X-bar theory and a rationalization for its selection as the theoretical framework. Details of the theory can be found in Carnie (2013), Chomsky (1970), Jackendoff (1977) and Radford (1981 and 1988). According to, Alexiadou, Haegman and Stavruo (2007), Carnie (2013) and Radford (1988), a generative approach considers that there are two major components; the lexicon (morphemes or building blocks) and a structure-building system which combines these building blocks into larger units.

According to Carnie (2013), there are three rules or principles common to all phrases in all languages and these rules represent the structure-building system from a minimal level (X) to a maximal level (XP). These rules include;

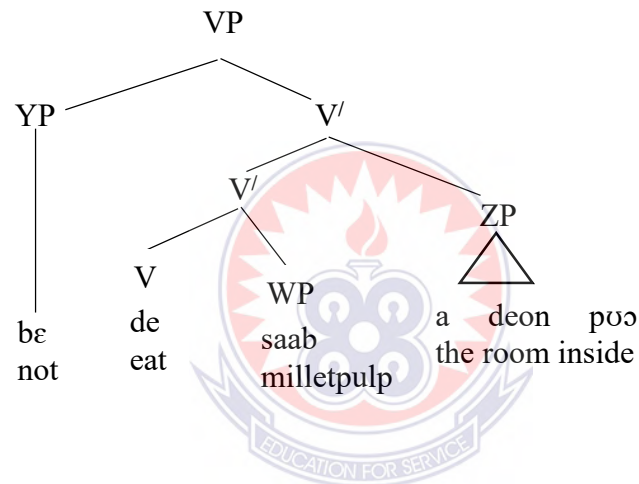
Specifier rule: $XP \rightarrow (YP) X'$

Adjunct rule: $X' \rightarrow X' (ZP)$

Complement rule: $X' \rightarrow X (WP)$

The rules are exemplified in (36) below (Carnie, 2013) which represents the build-up of a verb phrase (VP) in Nandome. 'X' as stated in the rule is a variable and it is hereby replaced with V.

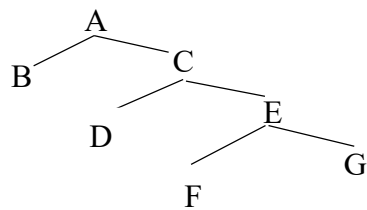
36)



Based on the specifier rule the VP branches into the specifier and V' , based on the adjunct rule the V' branches into the adjunct and another V' , based on the complement rule the V' branches into V and complement. Morphemes from the lexicon then attach to the available spots at a level known as the deep structure. Through transformations a surface structure can be derived from the deep structure. The surface structure represents the spoken and the logical forms in the language. The relationship between the deep structure and the surface structure will be revisited in explaining why this theory was selected as a framework.

There is the need to further give some explanations concerning the thematic role assignment and case markings of the argument within X-bar syntax. This will be easily understood after a rundown of the c-command and government relationship between elements. The structure in (37) below is (is adopted from Radford 1988) for reference as the explanation goes on.

37)



Radford (1988, p. 115) ‘X c-commands Y iff (=if and only if) the first branching node dominating X dominates Y, and X does not dominate Y, nor Y dominate X (a branching node which branches into two or more immediate constituents)’. In (37) for example ‘A’ dominates ‘B’ and ‘C’ and ‘C’ in turn dominates ‘D’ and ‘E’ implying ‘A’ dominates ‘D’ and ‘E’ as well.

Based on the above clarification, it can be said that ‘B’ c-commands ‘C’ because the branching node that dominates ‘B’ also dominates ‘C’ and ‘B’ does not dominate ‘C’, nor ‘C’ dominate ‘B’. In the same way ‘B’ c-commands ‘D’, ‘E’ and ‘F’. ‘D’ also c-commands ‘E’, ‘F’ and ‘G’.

In terms of government, first of all there are four governors (Radford 1981), these include; verbs, pre(post)positions, tense and possession. In all four cases a noun is always the governed. When any of the governors, ‘X’ c-commands a noun without another

governor, ‘Y’ in between ‘X’ and the noun, then ‘X’ is said to govern that noun. It is in this governing mode that a governor X can assign a theta role and/or a case marking. Verbs and prepositions assign an objective case to nouns; tense assigns a nominative case to nouns; and possession assigns a genitive case to nouns. Much details can be found in Alexiadou et al (2007), Carnie (2013) and Haegeman (1994). According to Radford (1988) thematic roles include but may not be limited to;

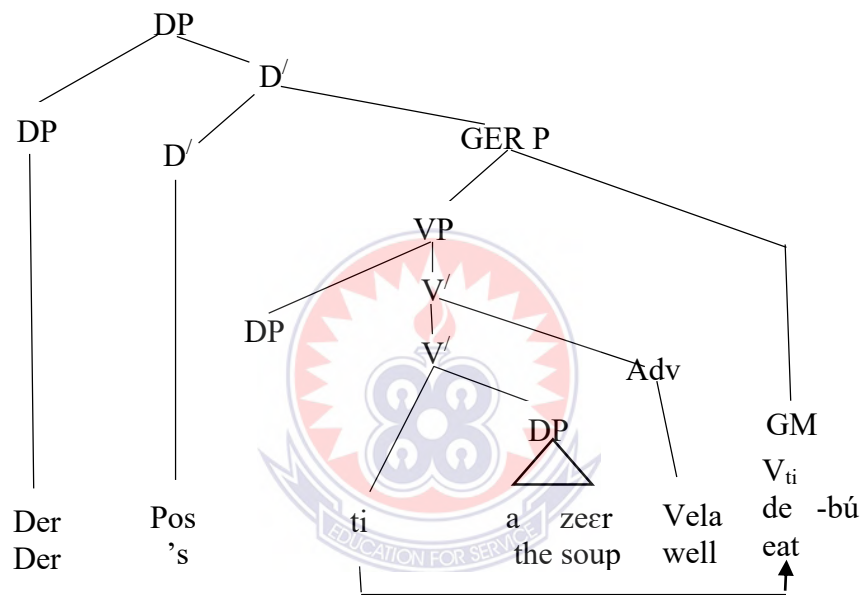
- a. Theme (patient) = entity undergoing the effect of some action
- b. Agent (actor) = instigator of some action
- c. Experiencer = entity experiencing some psychological state
- d. Benefactive = entity benefiting from some action
- e. Instrument = means by which something comes about
- f. Locative = place in which something is situated or takes place
- g. Goal = entity towards which something moves
- h. Source = entity from which something moves

According to Harley (2009 and 2011) there are three mechanisms for the syntactic manipulation of morpheme order in the X-bar. These mechanisms are explained below;

- a. Head-movement (Combines morphemes under one mother node in the syntax).
- b. Affix-specific linearization requirement (Morpheme is a suffix/prefix with respect to its sister constituent).
- c. Merger Under Adjacency (MUA) (Combines morphemes which are adjacent but not under one mother node at the end of the syntax).

Only (a) and (c) will be explained because they will be employed in this research. Harley (2011) describes Head movement as left adjoining in nature. It also involves the movement of a minimal category to another minimal category where they are combined under the same node. In this combination the moved Head adjoins to the left of the other Head. This results in a right headed new minimal category.

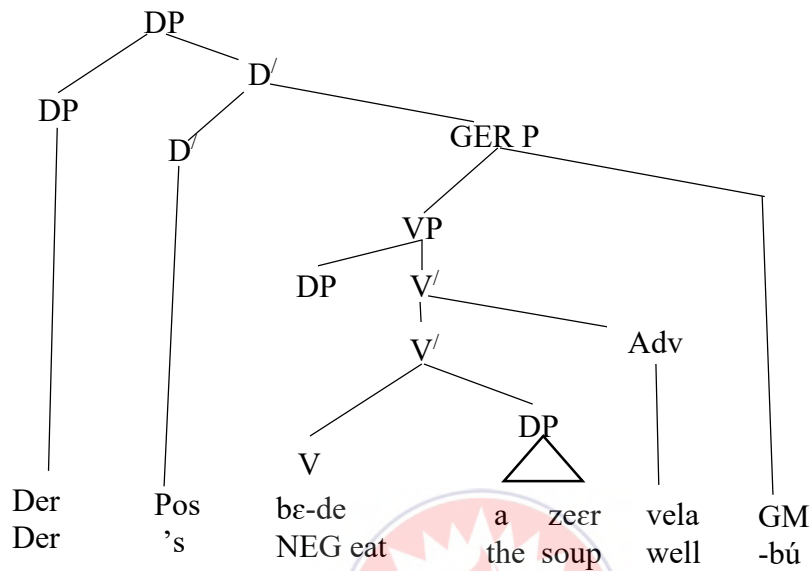
38)



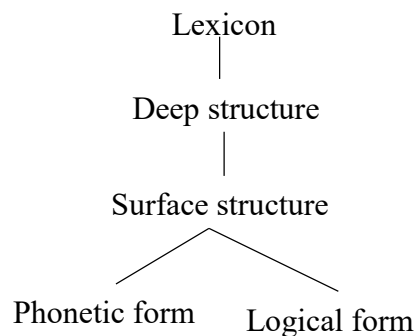
Harley (2011) argues that linear adjacency is a key restriction on the process; terminal nodes cannot undergo MUA if they are not linearly adjacent. Consider the adjacency of the specifier (negation) and the head (V). The adjacency is what makes the merging possible in (39) below. The merging is also facilitated by the fact that there are two (2) specifier branches (see 35 above) and as a result the one adjacent to the verb is forced to merge with the verb. This is further backed by the fact that in a normal sentence in which the VP has

only one specifier branch, such merging never occurs. If the specifier is a focus marker, it deletes during gerund formation.

39)



Reasons are now discussed for why the X-bar theory is chosen as the theoretical framework for this research. The relationship between the lexicon, the deep structure and the surface structure is revisited here. Alexiadou et al (2007) summarises the relationship in the diagram below.



At the level where the lexicon inserts into the structure system both lexical (content words) and functional (grammatical words) categories are considered. This will enhance the research since the study will have to deal with both lexical and functional categories. For example, the verb roots are lexical categories and the gerund marker is a functional category. The X-bar theory presents a deep structure and a surface structure that are mediated by transformations. The current research also deals with a deep structure (that is the normal clause) and how transformations will compress the clause in Nandome into an argument (the gerund phrase) in another sentence.

2.10.2 Generative phonology

Kenstowicz and Kisseberth (1979) and Schane (1973) agree that generative phonology is a component of generative grammar that assigns the correct phonetic representations to utterances in such a way as to reflect a native speaker's internalized grammar. Kenstowicz and Kisseberth (1979) and Schane (1973) also agree that there are two phonological levels; the underlying representation which is the most basic form of a sound or word and the phonetic representation which is the pronunciation that is heard in speech. Between these two levels are the phonological rules that map an underlying representation to its phonetic form(s). Generative phonology also considers speech as a string of discrete sounds segments such that each segments has a set of concurrent features that distinguish it. These features are known as the distinctive features. Rules can be generalized based on the distinctive features of sounds.

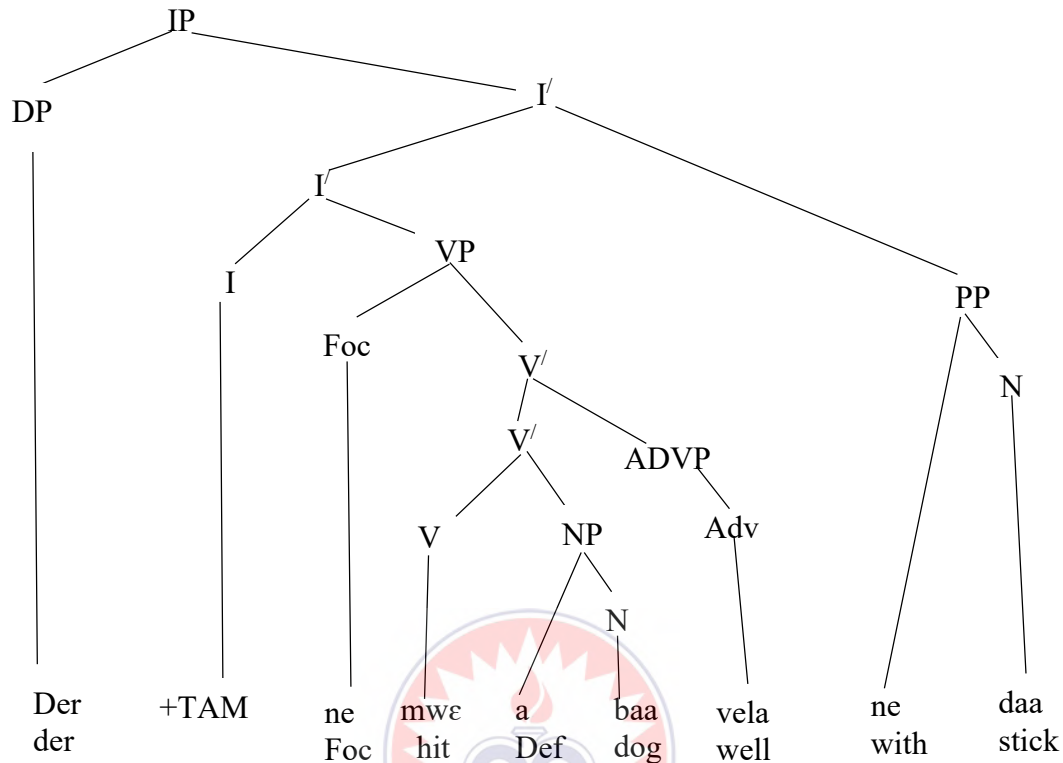
This thesis looks at the underlying representation of the gerund marker and the rules that map it on to its phonetic representations as it is known to the native speaker of Nandome.

2.11 An overview of the IP in Nandom

The main purpose of this section is to put the clause of Nandome into X-bar analysis, that is, the IP analysis, where inflection (I) replaces the variable (X). The significance is that there are some issues in the formation and usage of gerunds that are explainable by the underlying sentence structure in Nandome. (41) below is an IP analysis of (40) below:

- 40) **Dɛr mwɛ ne a baa vela ne daa**
dɛr mwɛ ñĩ à báá vilá ñĩ dàá
Der hit.Perf Foc Def dog well with stick
'Der hit the dog well with stick'

41)



There are some important facts to note. First of all, under the terminal, I, the range of items that are generated there include the TAM as it was explained in section 2.5.1 in the literature review. More importantly such items are outside VP. The specifiers of VP include; the focus marker (Foc) and the negation marker (NEG).

In Nandome there is no clear syntactic distinction between the sentential adjuncts and the VP adjuncts. However, in chapter four it will later be proved that in Nandome the gerundive phrase provides evidence that such a distinction exists in the language. To this effect, it is worth noting that adverbials (such as **ne daa**) occur as sentential adjuncts while

adverbs (such as **vela**) occur as VP adjuncts. This will later boost the explanation of the internal structure of the gerund phrase.

2.12 Conclusion

The NP in Nandome has the following structure; Art₁ NP₂ NM₃ NH₄ Adj₅ (PL)₆ Q₇ D₈ Int₉ Loc₁₀. The VP in Nandome has the following structure; TD₁ M₂ P₃ H₄ Ag₅ RV₆ MV₇ Foc₈ NP Adverbials. Nouns in Nandome have been classified into six (6) classes. The focus marker in Nandome moves from the left side of the verb to the right side of the verb in speech. Gerund phrases have a sentential distribution similar to that of the NP; however, gerund phrases have an internal phrase structure different from that of the NP. In most Niger-Congo languages an object to a verb is preposed when that verb is being nominalised and evidence in Nandome supports this. The X-bar theory holds that a phrase has four components; the head, the specifier, the complement and the adjunct. Among all these the head is the most obligatory one. The c-command relationship is needed to enable case marking and thematic role assignment. Verbs, tense, pre(post)positions and possession are those that can assign thematic roles or mark case. A noun is always the one given the thematic role or the case marking.

CHAPTER THREE

METHODOLOGY

3.1 Overview

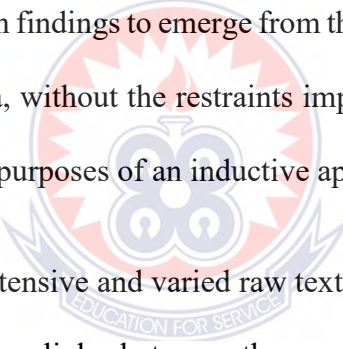
This chapter discusses the general approach and specific techniques that were adapted for the research. This chapter entails the research design, research area, population for the study, the sample size and the sampling techniques. The instruments used for the data collection are also discussed. The procedure for the analysis of data is also explored in the chapter. The chapter further gives details on the limitations of the methodology employed in conducting the study.

3.2 Research Design

The research adopts a qualitative approach. Lynn (2005) states the characteristics of qualitative research more clearly. She describes them as ‘qualtoid characteristics’. They include: data collection being multi-method, data being natural and emergent; analysis being inductive, pattern seeking, descriptive and user-centred. Her idea of multi-methods will be seen in the triangulation of research instruments below. The purpose of the multi-method approach is to minimise methodological lapses so that the appropriate data can be collected for analysis. The fact that the data should be natural and emergent refers to the spontaneity of the occurrence of events. Simply put, they occur subconsciously and can be accounted for by some underpinnings. This is an idea captured by Creswell (2009) when he speaks of natural setting in qualitative research. The aspect of the analysis being

inductive, is directly related to pattern seeking. These patterns are the rules that underlie certain observable happenings.

Under qualitative research there are several approaches. This study will make use of the inductive approach to qualitative data analysis (which is within the framework of grounded theory). Creswell (2009) and Lynn (2005) spoke of the inductive approach as a feature of qualitative research. According to Thomas (2006: p. 238) the inductive approach can best be defined as ‘approaches that primarily use detailed readings of raw data to derive concepts, themes, or a model through interpretations made from the raw data by an evaluator or researcher.’ He further explains that the primary purpose of the inductive approach is to allow research findings to emerge from the frequent, dominant, or significant themes inherent in raw data, without the restraints imposed by structured methodologies. He identifies the following purposes of an inductive approach;

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- a. to condense extensive and varied raw text data into a brief, summary format;
 - b. to establish clear links between the research objectives and the summary findings derived from the raw data and to ensure that these links are both transparent and
 - c. to develop a theme, model or theory about the underlying structure of experiences or processes that are evident in the text data.

Simply put, inductive analysis is to seek patterns from natural data. In inductive analysis one should be able to state a simple pattern that underpins several occurrence. These occurrences could as well be an infinite set.

This is very much in line with what descriptive linguistics is about. According to Lehmann (1999, p. 11) reiterating Chomsky (1965), ‘describing a language is an activity (and derivatively, its result) that formulates, in the most general way possible, the patterns underlying the linguistic data. Its purpose is to make the user of the description understand the way the language works.’ In the sense of the first purpose of inductive analysis, the language data represents the extensive and varied raw data that is mentioned whilst the underlying language structure that will be realised represents the condensed brief summary of the data. In the context of this study, the research intends to seek the morphological, syntactic and semantic patterns underlying the formation and usage of gerundive nominals.

The second purpose of the inductive approach is to establish clear links between the objectives and the summary of the findings gotten from the raw data. In this light the objectives stated in the first chapter of this report are in direct correlation with the findings in chapter four (4). These findings represent the underlying patterns concerned with the formation and usage of gerunds.

The third purpose of the inductive approach is purported for the formulation of themes, models and theories. In line with this the main aim of descriptive linguistics is towards the description of the grammar of a given language and for that matter, the linguistic theory. In our context the current study seeks to contribute to the identification of the grammar of Nandome. All these prove that the inductive approach to qualitative research is in line with descriptive linguistics.

3.3 The Research Area

The research site is Nandom. According to GSS (2014) Nandom is located in the north-western corner of the Upper West Region of Ghana between Longitude 2°25 W and 2°45W and Latitude 10°20 N and 11°00 S. The total land area is 404.6 square km (GSS 2014). Nandom shares boundaries with Hamile to the north and to the west, Lawra to the south and Lambousie Karni in the east.

Nandom is a district, expectedly, it is a centre for industry and commerce such as trade in farm produce and animals. People are also engaged in industries such as carpentry, weaving, pottery, blacksmithing, welding, vulcanising among others. There is the existence of literacy related jobs like teaching, nursing and law. All these have seen the influx of a good number of non-native Nandome though they still form a very minute percentage.

Nandom also enjoys a wide range of social amenities. Some of these include: accessibility to electricity, potable water, good road network, good communication network services (including all network services in Ghana) and very notably educational institutions from elementary to tertiary levels. All these contribute to the immigration of a non-native population though they still form a very minute percentage.

Nandom despite being broken into communities is united by festivals, funerals, parties, amenities like market and schools and joint settlements. This creates an interrelated social life and consequently a strong lingual contact among natives. Figure 2 below is the location of Nandom;

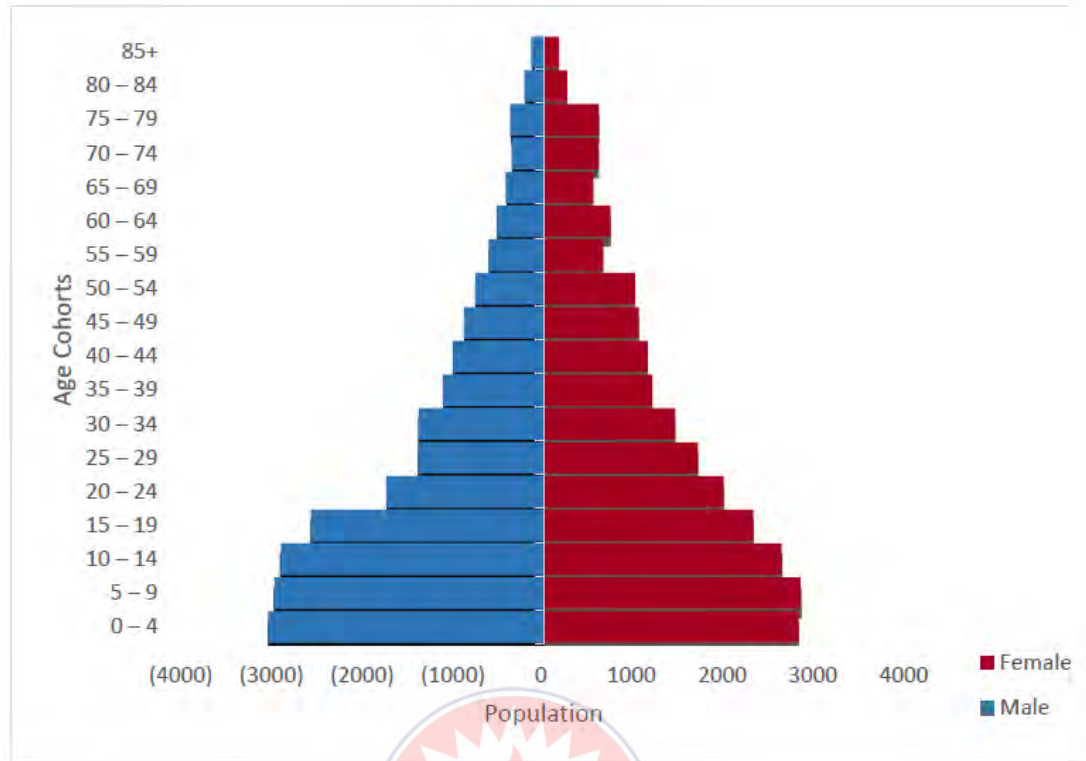


Figure 2: Location of Nandom in the World.

Source: (An adaptation from Ghana maps, 2014)

3.4 Population

Nandom has a total of 18 communities. The total population for all these communities is 46,040 according to GSS (2014). 54.7 percent of the population represent the working-age (persons aged 15-64). 37.2 percent and 8.1 percent represent the dependent-age (ages 15-64 and 65 + respectively). The male-female ratio is 94:100. Figure 3 below is a population pyramid of Nandom;



Source: Ghana Statistical Service, 2010 Population and Housing Census

Figure 3: Population Pyramid of Nandom

3.5 Sample Size

The research took a sample size of three (3) communities and six (6) participants. The three (3) communities include; Bu, Daabeteng, and Tantuo. One (1) male and one (1) female was chosen from each of the communities to constitute six (6) participants for a focus group interview. Two (2) people were also sampled for cross check. The sample size is in a tabular form below;

Community	No. of Persons	Strategy used	Instrument responded to:
Bu	2	Purposive sampling	Focus group discussion
Daabeteng	2	Purposive sampling	Focus group discussion
Tantuo	2	Purposive sampling	Focus group discussion
Not needed	2	Purposive sampling	Crosscheck
Total	8		

Table 2: Sample Size

3.6 Sampling Strategies

Three (3) communities were conveniently sampled from the total of 18. This is because there is a strong social network among the people and currently there are no observed evidences of geographical dialects in the usage of Nandome. This makes the selection of any communities a typical case for the others.

These communities were chosen for easy accessibility and mobilisation of the focus group participants. The easy mobilisation is based on the fact that illiterate farmers from the three communities established gardens around a waterlogged area common to them.

A purposive sample of eight (8) participants in two phases was used. In one phase, six (6) participants were selected to constitute a focus group. A male-female pair within the age ranges of 40-80 were selected from each of the three communities. In this phase a selected participant had to be;

- a. a monolingual native speaker of Nandom. Monolinguals were chosen to help cut off the effects of language influence. In this context being monolingual means they will be native speakers of Nandom
- b. within the age range of 40-80. The age below 40 years is left out because most people within this age range, as far as Nandom is concerned, have at least, either been to school before or have travelled to the southern part of the country in search of greener pastures. This means they will pick up at least either English or one of the southern languages and cease to be monolinguals. The people above 80 were also left out because people at that age might begin to lose their proper articulation due to teeth loss or some physiological factors. They are also few and relatively hard to get (see figure 2).
- c. be devoid of any speech or mental deformity. Participants were not victims of cases such as loss of teeth, spoonerism or delayed speech among others. People with mental disorder were also not selected because they will be a risk in terms of cooperation and their speech may also be affected. Speech defects will negatively influence phonological judgements.

In the other phase, two (2) native speakers with linguistic study background were purposively selected. These were Dagaare teachers. These persons were the experts who did crosschecks.

3.7 Instruments for Data Collection

The reliability of every research lies in the exactitude and accuracy of the methods for gathering data. These methods herein are in line with the theoretical framework as suggested by Creswell (2009) and Sikes (2004). The selection of data collection methods also took into consideration the personal and contextual conditions on the field during the research as suggested by Kusi (2012). These methods are also directly related to the research questions since the data collected is what is analysed and used in answering the research questions. The methods of data collection found to be showing all these qualities are: natural intuition; focus group interview; stories and conversation.

These instruments present a good blend of the two main forms of data collection outlined by Radford (1988). These include: the recorded sample of speech (corpus of utterance) and informant intuitions where you elicit information from the native speaker. Corpus utterances (in this case, conversations and stories) provide natural data though some specific areas of interest may not show up in such data. The informant intuition (in this case, focus group discussion) gives the researcher the chance to tackle the areas of specific interest though the naturalness of such data may be affected by some constraints such as fear or bias. The selection of instruments here tries to achieve a balance. Each research instrument is discussed below.

3.7.1 Focus Group Discussion

This instrument represents the informant approach to gathering linguistic data. It helped the researcher to be specific on the data he sought. According to Kusi (2012), focus group interview is the process of gathering a particular group of people, according to an identified feature, and eliciting their views and ideas about an issue that they have experienced or witnessed with the researcher as a moderator. According to Elliot (2005: p. 1) ‘...the group needs to be large enough to generate a rich discussion but not so large that some participants are left out.’ This instrument made use of six (6) participants in total.

In the first session of the focus group discussion (March 26, 2016), the researcher elicited the gerund forms of twenty (20) verbs sampled from the verb list. The gerund forms were used in simple sentences. Less obvious aspects on the formation and the usage of gerunds were also discussed. Such areas include: the issue of nasalisation in the formation of gerunds; and some exceptional formation processes (in the analysis these are considered exceptions to the rule). Information on the syntax was also elicited. The researcher first elicited gerundial sentences from the participants. The researcher sometimes rephrased the sentences elicited from the participants, in order to seek further information on some targeted areas in the syntax. Further probing questions were asked. The target areas include; finding out the TAMPs that occur in gerund phrases, gerunds formed from SVC, gerund phrases formed from double object constructions and the use of adverbials in a gerund phrase.

The second session of the focus group discussion (April 2, 2016) focused on the semantic aspect of the usage of gerunds. The instrument was used to seek responses on the following semantic themes; habit reading in gerund usage, manner-of-action reading in gerund usage, negation in gerund usage and emphatic use of gerunds. The researcher first elicited gerundial sentences from the participants, he then rephrased these gerundial sentences from the participants in a way that will elicit reaction to the targeted areas. The researcher also create scenarios (based on the target areas) that will elicit gerundial sentences that will denote the scenario given. Further probing questions were used. The guide for the focus group discussion is in Appendix G.

3.7.2 Storytelling session

The researcher took part in storytelling sessions. These were mostly short stories. The storytelling was chosen so that the researcher will be able to pick the data from a natural settings since it is a form of entertainment. Ten (10) stories were recorded from different story tellers. Two stories were transcribed see Appendix D and Appendix E.

3.7.3 Conversation

Conversation refers to an informal interaction between two or more people. This instrument also represents the spontaneous collection of linguistic data. Conversations were recorded and transcribed. Out of eight conversations recorded, three were transcribed: a conversation concerning cooking (see Appendix A), a conversation between a buyer and a seller in the market (see Appendix B) and a conversation between family members in a

farm (see Appendix C). Several conversations were recorded and the transcribed ones have been chosen because they record a relatively higher number of gerunds.

3.8 The Verb List

The verb list is made up of one hundred and fifty (150) verbs from the researcher's natural intuition, seventy-seven (77) verbs elicited by the use of the Ibadan wordlist and one-hundred and forty seven (147) verbs from the usage of the language by other speakers. In total the verb list contains three-hundred and seventy-four (374) verbs (See appendix F). The researcher added data from his natural intuition to help widen the database for the research. The corresponding gerunds for these verbs were provided with information from speech contexts and through researcher's intuition. The whole list (verbs and their corresponding gerunds) was given to the two native speakers with formal linguistic training (mentioned earlier) for crosschecks. Native speakers with formal linguistic training were chosen because the list contained transcriptions which cannot be read by people without formal linguistic training. The list is divided into seventeen semantic groups. Each verb has a label as transitive (tr), intransitive (intr) or both (tr/intr). See verb list in Appendix F.

3.9 Transcription of Recordings

Transcription was carried out with the help of two editors. The editors were people who could read and write Nandome. These editors equally listened to the recordings and read the transcripts. This was done to ensure that the transcripts reflect what was actually said. With the focus group discussions and the conversations there were points of interruption. This problem pertained more with the market conversation where there were

other conversations and noises. The researcher and the editors had to listen intensively to get the exact words that were said.

3.10 Data Analysis

The data was analysed with the inductive approach by focusing on rule identification. The theoretical frameworks for the thesis; the X-bar theory and generative phonology, both fall in line with this type of analysis. The X-bar theory gives the researcher the chance to observe the language in terms of phrase structure and to summarise the observations into brief transformational processes. In this vein the X-bar theory is in line with the inductive analysis approach. Generative phonology also gives the researcher the chance to observed the data and summarize the observations into phonological rules.

The analysis was done according to research questions; the morphological processes, the internal structure of the gerund phrase, the distributional properties of gerund phrases and the semantic interpretations of gerund phrases.

3.11 Accessibility

The researcher resided in Nandom, the language area, from mid-February, 2016 to mid-April, 2016. The researcher made trips to each of the three (3) communities. The trip to these communities was to seek the consent of the participants before involving them in the focus group discussion. This was done with an uncle, Mr. Paul Bilikpe as a guide who helped link up the researcher with people who meet the purposive sample. The guide was a companion in the trip, to help locate the suggested people. These suggested people, aside

meeting the purposive sample criteria, were people who had gardens around a waterlogged area common to the three communities.

The focus group discussions happened on March 26, 2016 and April 2, 2016. The discussion were scheduled on Saturdays (around afternoon), a day before market day which is always a Sunday. Saturday was chosen so that all the six participants will meet at the garden side since they will be coming to harvest vegetables for sale on Sunday. The discussions took place around afternoon when people will like to relax due to the high sunshine and tiredness.

3.12 Limitation of the Methodology

The limitation on the methods outlined above is that the methods despite being a blend, was more skewed to the collection of data from speech contexts. This gave the researcher much work to do when it came to transcription and glossing. This constituted a great challenge considering the time he had at his disposal.

3.13 Conclusion

The study used one focus group discussion (3 males and 3 females), recording of conversations and storytelling sessions as instruments for collecting data. The research also used his natural intuition. A verb list was created with 374 verbs and their corresponding gerund counterparts. Large amounts of data was collected and preferable ones were selected and transcribed with the help of two editors. These editors were native speakers with formal linguistic training.

CHAPTER FOUR

DATA ANALYSIS AND DISCUSSION

4.1 Overview

This chapter of the thesis gives the detailed breakdown of the data collected on the formation and usage of gerunds in Nandome. The analysis of the data is according to research questions and will be so captured in this chapter. The major aspects of the chapter include, the morphological processes involved in the formation of gerunds, the structural properties, the distributional properties of the gerunds in Nandome, and the semantics involved in the usage of gerunds.

4.2 The Morphological Processes (Question 1)

The morphological processes include the phonological changes that occur during the formation of gerunds and the conditions that inform these changes. This can also be looked at as the different forms of the gerund marker in Nandome. The allomorphs of the gerund marker and the conditions of their occurrence is outlined below. These conditions of occurrence (rules) are stated using the notations provided by generative phonology. The allomorph to select to represent the morpheme is also discussed.

4.2.1 Allomorphs of the gerund marker

The gerund marker in Nandome is the suffix {-bú}, its allomorphs include; [b], [ú], [ó], [fú], [fó], [bá]. The reason for considering {-bú} as the morpheme will be discussed

later. These are respectively realised in the following orthography; b, u, o, fu, fo, ba. There will be examples when the rules are stated.

4.2.2 Conditions for the Allomorphs of Gerunds

Before stating the rules, it is prudent to give the interpretation of the notations of generative phonology. According to Schane (1973): ‘→’ means ‘becomes’; ‘—’ means ‘position in relation to neighbouring sounds’; ‘/’ means ‘in the environment of’; ‘()’ means ‘optionality’; ‘{}’ means ‘any one of the elements within it’; ‘C’ means ‘consonant’; ‘V’ means ‘vowel’; the features of a segment is presented in square brackets “[]”. “-” and “+” respectively show the absence and presence of a feature; ‘α’ shows sameness in a feature possessed by two or more sounds. “+” is also used for morpheme boundary. Take ‘GM’ as gerund marker, {bú}. The features of the sound segments representing GM are outlined in (1) below;

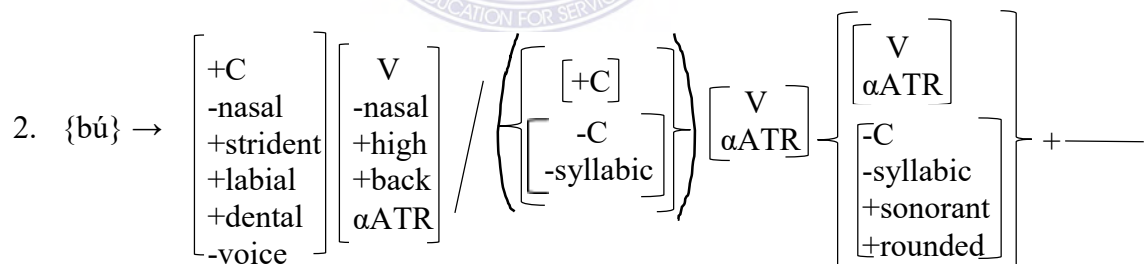
$$1. \text{ GM} \rightarrow \left[\begin{array}{l} +\text{C} \\ -\text{nasal} \\ -\text{delayed release} \\ +\text{bilabial} \\ +\text{voice} \end{array} \right] \left[\begin{array}{l} \text{V} \\ -\text{nasal} \\ +\text{high} \\ +\text{back} \\ -/+ \text{ATR} \end{array} \right] \rightarrow \{\text{bú}\}$$

4.2.2.1 Major rules (conditions)

These rules lead to the phonemic form of the gerunds in Nandome. Consider the data below (see more in the Appendix F);

	Verb root	Gerund	Gloss
2.a	tùò	túófú	‘act of carrying’
2.b	dáá	dááfú	‘act of pushing’
2.c	íáw	íáwfú	‘act of flying’
2.d	dòw	dówfú	‘act of giving birth’

Based on the data (2a)-(2d) above it is observed that {bú} becomes [fú] or [fũ], based on ATR similarity, when the verb root with or without an onset ends in two vowel segments or a vowel followed by /w/ (which is a semi-vowel). Out of this we can then formulate (2) below as a rule;



An exception to rule (2) include;

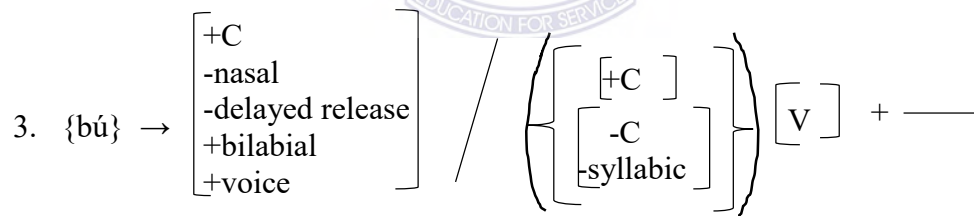
	Verb	Gerund	Gloss
2.i	nyũũ	ɲũũ/*ɲũúfú	‘act of smelling’

The exception is based on the fact that the verb root is made of an onset and two vowel segments which should have formed its gerund based on rule (2) above, instead it forms the gerund outside the box by only a simple tone change from low to high.

From the data we also find such examples as;

	Verb	Gerund	Gloss
3.a	é	éb	‘act of doing’
3.b	vú	vúb	‘act of crawling’
3.c	là	láb	‘act of laughing’
3.d	pù	púb	‘act of flowering’

Based on (3a-3d) and their likes, it means that {bú} is realised as [b] when the verb root with or without an onset consonant, has one vowel segment and no coda. We then formulate the rule (3) below;



There are some exceptions to rule (3). Some of these include;

	Verb	Gerund	Gloss
3.i	lò	lóbá/*lób	‘act of falling’
3.ii	zò	zóbá/*zób	‘act of running’

3.iii	zĩ	zĩmã/*zĩb	‘act of sitting’
3.iv	kõ	kób/kõn	‘act of crying’
3.v	kpi`	kũũ/*kpi`b	‘act of dying’

(3i and 3ii) present an irregularity where GM is realised as [bá] instead of [b]. What is common between (3i-3iii) is that all of them talk about a state of posture. However there are other posture verbs that follow the rule such as **gò** ‘bend’ **gób** ‘the act of bending’

In the data we also find examples in the nature of (4a-4h) below (see more in the Appendix F);

Verb	Gerund		Gloss	
4.a	fór	fó ú	‘act of removing from a lot’	
4.b	kàb	ká b ú	‘act of food getting burnt’	
4.c	ár	á r ú	‘act of harvesting maize’	
4.d	gból	gbó l ú	‘act of searching thoroughly’	
4.e	èni	é n í b ú	é n ú	‘act of sucking’
4.f	yélí	yé l í b ú	yé l ú	‘act of winnowing’
4.g	tùòri`	túó r í b ú	túó r ú	‘act of meeting’
4.h	gbí`ni`	gbí`n í ’ b ú	gbí`n í	‘act of slowing down’

Based on (4a-4d) and their likes we observe that {bú} is realised as [ú] or [ú], based on ATR, when attached to a verb root that ends in a consonant. The GM loses its consonant segment; [b], in order to avoid consonant sequence (see chapter one section 1.4 for details on consonant clustering). This is formalized in (4A) below;

$$4.A \{b\acute{u}\} \rightarrow \left[\begin{array}{c} V \\ -\text{nasal} \\ +\text{high} \\ +\text{back} \\ \alpha\text{ATR} \end{array} \right] / \left(\left[\begin{array}{c} [+C] \\ -C \\ -\text{syllabic} \end{array} \right] \right) \left[\begin{array}{c} V_1^2 \\ \alpha\text{ATR} \end{array} \right] \left[[+C] \right] \left(\left[\begin{array}{c} V \\ \alpha\text{ATR} \end{array} \right] \right) + \text{---}$$

The exception here include;

Verb	Gerund	Gloss
4.i gúr	gǔǔ/*gúrú	‘act of sleeping’

On close observation one will also notice that (4e-4h) differ from (4a-4d). The difference been that (4e-4h) undergoes an extra phonological process before the acceptable surface form. That process is vowel deletion. The vowel deletion occurs where there is a vowel immediately before the morpheme boundary. A deletion rule applies to delete that vowel after GM adjoins and then subsequently the consonant segment of the GM; [b], deletes to avoid consonant sequencing. The intermediary rule that accounts for the vowel deletion is formalized in (4B) below;

$$4.B \left(\left[\begin{array}{c} [+C] \\ -C \\ -\text{syllabic} \end{array} \right] \right) \left[\begin{array}{c} V_1^2 \\ \alpha\text{ATR} \end{array} \right] \left[[+C] \right] \left[\begin{array}{c} V \\ \alpha\text{ATR} \end{array} \right] + \{-b\acute{u}\} \rightarrow \begin{matrix} 1 & 2 & 3 & \emptyset & 5 & 6 \end{matrix}$$

4.2.2.2 Subsidiary rules (conditions)

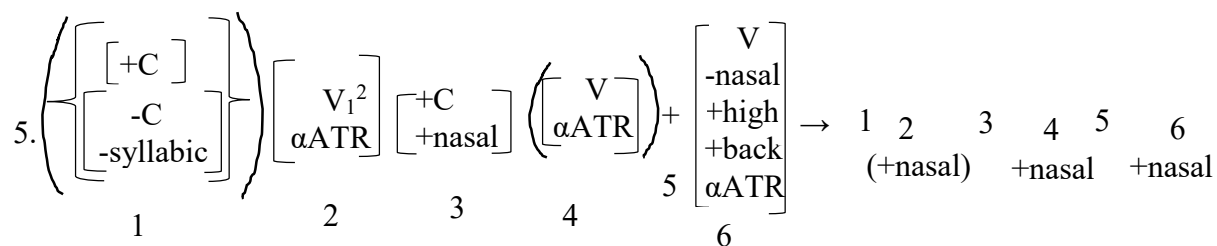
The subsidiary rules consider suprasegmental features. Without them it is not possible to arrive at the actual phonetic forms of gerunds in Nandome. These subsidiary rules detail the conditions around nasalisation and tone. The rules are as follows;

4.2.2.2.1 Subsidiary rules on nasalisation;

Nasalisation is analysed with respect to examples such as (5a-5d, see more in the Appendix F)

Verb	Underlying structure	Gerund	Gloss
5.a lěm/lèm		lěmũ/lémũ	‘act of tasting’
5.b sãm/sàm		sãmũ/sámũ	‘act of washing softly’
5.c zãnĩ/zánĩ	zãnĩũ/zánĩũ	zãnũ/zánũ	‘act of dreaming’
5.d stãnĩ/tànĩ	tãnĩũ/tánĩũ	tãnũ/tánũ	‘act of shouting’

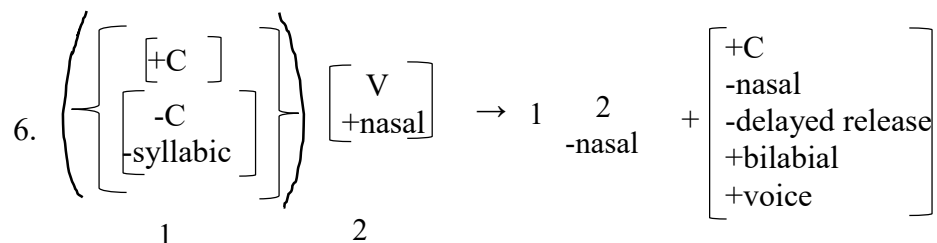
From examples in the nature of 5a-5d, it is observable that when a nasal consonant occurs word medial, all the vowels to the right of the nasal consonant are obligatorily nasalised. The vowel in GM is also nasalised provided there is no oral consonant interjecting. However the nasal influence is weak when it spreads to the left; this results in an optional nasal influence on the vowels to the left of the nasal consonant. Also where there is a vowel immediately before the morpheme boundary, it gets nasalised before it is deleted. The evidence for this is that even in the phonetic form of the root verb such vowels are nasalised (some examples include 5c and 5d). The brief discussion is formalised in (5) below;



There is also a pattern observed about how gerunds are formed from open monosyllabic verb roots with a nasal vowel segment. Consider the examples in (6a)-(6d);

Verb	Gerund	Gloss
6.a pɔ̃	pɔb	'act of sharing'
6.b nɔ̃	nɔb	'act of stewing vegetables'
6.c dɔ̃	dɔb	'act of biting'
6.d mɔ̃	mɔb	'act of wrestling'

On observing the data above one will realise that nasality is lost during gerund formation if the verb root has a consonant followed by a nasalised vowel. Rule (6) below formalizes the observation;



4.2.2.2.2 Subsidiary rules on tone;

Under tone there are also some observable changes during the formation of gerunds.

First of all observe the data in (7a)-(7d) below;

Verb	Gerund	Gloss
7.a zè	zéb	'act of smearing'
7.b hèw	héwfú	'the act of getting hiccups'
7.c sèb	sébú	'act of dancing'
7.d fù	fúb	'act of parboiling'

It will be observed that any vowel in the root verb that is of low tone takes on a high tone after the GM adjoins. This is because the vowel in GM is a high tone vowel and even where this vowel does not occur the tone still affects the vowels in the root verb. The observation is summarised in (7) below;

$$7. \left[\begin{array}{c} V \\ \text{Low Tone} \end{array} \right] \rightarrow \left[\begin{array}{c} V \\ \text{High Tone} \end{array} \right] / \left(\left[\begin{array}{c} [+C] \\ -C \\ \text{-syllabic} \end{array} \right] \right) - \left(\left[\begin{array}{c} [+C] \\ -C \\ \text{-syllabic} \end{array} \right] \right) + \{bú\}$$

This rule has some exceptions. These exceptions are mostly geared towards disambiguation. Some examples include (7i)-(7vi) below, they are presented in pairs;

Verb	Gerund	Gloss
7.i fúr	fúró	‘act of pulling a liquid into one’s mouth’
7.ii fùr	fùró	‘act of open one’s eye wide’
7.iii díéli’	díéló	‘act of leaning against something’
7.iv dièli	dièló	‘act of drying’
7.v píéri	píéró	‘act of arranging things in line’
7.vi pièri	pièró	‘act of analysing’

Looking at the data presented immediately above, the difference between (7i) and (7ii) is that the vowel in the root verb is high in (7i) and low in (7ii). The case is similar with (7iii) and (7iv) and with (7v) and (7vi). The argument is that when there are two different root verbs that are phonemically similar but phonetically differ in tone, the one with the low tone will not change to high tone during gerund formation. Such instance will flaunt rule (7) above.

In the literature, Perekhvalskaya (2011) argued that in Mwan the gerund marker is an agglutinating affix though the language is an isolating one. This turns out differently in Nandome in that the gerund marker in Nandome is an isolating one just like the morphology of the entire language. Though we cannot be conclusive at this point there is a possibility that agglutinating gerund markers index something about some isolating languages like Mwan. Also the presence of a gerund marker in Nandome proves that there is a regular meaning relationship between the gerunds and their verb roots such that

wherever the marker occurs it is interpreted as ‘the act of doing whatever action that is suggested by the verb root’. In this light the gerunds in Nandome agree with Chomsky’s (1970, p. 187) view that there should be ‘generality of the relation between the nominal and the associated proposition.’ The other issue is about the reduplication. In the literature we established that though Niger-Congo languages in most cases involve reduplication in their formation of gerunds there are some that do not involve reduplication. This in the literature review is alluded to language sub-families within the Niger-Congo family. The Gur sub-family seems to be one of those that do not involve reduplication in the formation of gerunds. It has already been observed in Kusaal and Dagaare (by Abubakari, 2011 and Bodomo, 2004 respectively) that there is no reduplication in the formation of gerunds. Nandome now also lends us further evidence that the Gur language sub-family does not involve reduplication in gerund formation.

4.2.3 Why {-bú} is considered as the gerund marker (morpheme)

{-bú} is taken as the morpheme though it is never phonetically realised. First of all, there is evidence from tonal changes. The vowels in the verb root still change to a high tone when the gerund marker is realised as [-b] (see examples 3c and 3d). What causes this tonal change is the fact that the [-ú], which is the bearer of the high tone was present at some level in deep structure but later drops the tone and gets deleted. Thus the gerund marker is {-bú} which breaks up due to phonological reasons.

Secondly, there is evidence that the consonant segment of the morpheme; [b] deletes in order to avoid unaccepted consonant sequence (see chapter one section 1.4 for

details on consonant sequence). (4a)- (4h) above exemplify this argument. Thus the gerund marker is {-bú} which breaks up due to phonological reasons.

There is also etymological evidence of a split. In the introduction it is stated clearly that Dagaare (of which Nandome is a dialect) originated from the Mole-Dagbani languages. This gave rise to a continuum of emergent dialects as you go northward. Nandome is one of the northern dialects which implies it emerged from the southern dialects of Dagaare. In some of the southern dialects (such as Waali and the dialects spoken around Kaleo), currently {-bú} (open to ATR influence) is the gerund marker. For example **di'í'bú** 'act of eating' and **píiríbú** 'act of sweeping'. In the dialect spoken around Jirapa (which is more northward than Waali and the Kaleo dialects) the [b] is averagely lost leaving {-ú}. For example **di'í'ú** 'act of eating' and **píirú** 'act of sweeping'. In Nandome however the {-bú} splits where [-b] occurs in an environment already discussed and [-ú] also in another environment already discussed. For example **díb** 'act of eating' and **píirú** 'act of sweeping'. There are emergence of new forms ([-fú] and [-ba]), though they still involve either [-b] or [-ú], and this has also been discussed. The situation in Nandome therefore buys into the findings of Nevins (2010) who argues that in Moroccan Arabic the object clitic used to be {-hu} and later split into [h] and [u] having different distributions.

4.3 The Internal Structure of the Gerund Phrase (Question 2)

This section of the analysis gives details about the elements that can occur in the gerund phrase. It also gives details about the order of these elements. The X-bar theory is used in this section to help justify why those elements occur in the phrase and why they follow the order that they follow. The elements in the gerund phrase are first presented before giving explanations with the X-bar theory, specifically the DP analysis.

4.3.1 A description and a DP analysis of gerund phrase in Nandome

Before making any arguments, a few examples of sentences with gerunds or gerundivised verbs are given in (8)-(14) below;

8. A weɛ kɔb ne nii me e ne fɔng

à wíé kɔ́ b ní ní'ĩ' mĩ ì ní fɔ́ng
 Def farm.Pos plough. GM with cattle always BE Foc fast
 'the ploughing of the farm with cattle is always fast'

9. A lili pagu ne tigr a deon poɔ be me ko a mutong ɛ

à lí'li' pág ú ní tí'gr á dión pɔ́ɔ bé
 Def chick.Pos close GM with cage.Pos Def. room inside.Pos NEG
 mĩ kù á mútɔ́ng è
 always give them sun Foc
 'The closing of the chicks with cage in the room does not always give them sun'

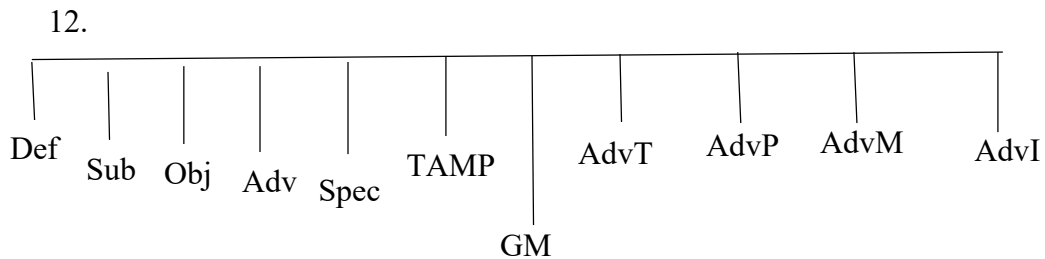
10. A Der bondere deb a wee poɔ ne nuu me tɛr re laaro

à dér bóndírí dí b á wié poɔ nĩ
 Def Der.Pos food.Pos eat GM Def. farm inside with
 núú mĩ tɛr rí lááró
 hand always have Foc laughter.
 ‘the Der’s food’s eating the farm inside with hand have laughter’
 (Der’s eating of the food with the hand in the farm was funny)

11. A Der zeer fong læ deb a motɔng sang, a deon poɔ, ne nuu wa ne ne suur

à dér zír fɔ́ng lè dí b à mútɔ́ng sáng ,
 Def Der.Pos soup.Pos fast again eat GM Def afternoon time,
 à dión púɔ nĩ pɔ̀lò nĩ núú wà nĩ nĩ sùùr
 Def. room inside, with pride, with hand bring with Foc. anger
 ‘Der’s eating of the soup fast again in the afternoon inside the room with pride with
 the hand brought about anger’

Based on the data above, we can suggest that the gerund takes both premodifiers and postmodifiers. There are six (6) slots to the left of the gerund (premodifiers) and an infinite number of slots for sentential adverbials that move in to settle to the right of the gerund. The diagram below summarises the observation;



The postmodifiers must not necessarily be arranged in the order given. The order can change while the sentence maintains grammaticality. However, though (12) is spoken, it is still an underlying structure to another surface form. This phenomenon is mediated by the movement of the adverbials across the gerund where they settle in between the Subject and Object arguments. Consider the (13)-(18) below;

13. Yuora soɔ teɛ kyɛb ne a lɛ

yúɔrà sùɔ̃ tié kyé b nĩ á lè

Yuora.Pos cutlass.Pos tree cut GM BE. Def. that

‘Yuora’s cutlass’s tree’s cutting is that’ (that is how Yuora’s cutting of a tree with a cutlass is)

14. A nii weɛ kɔb me e ne fɔng

à nĩĩ́ wíé kɔ́ b mĩ́ ì nĩ́ fɔng

Def cattle.Pos farm.Pos farm GM always BE Foc fast

‘the cattle’s farm’s ploughing always is fast’ (the ploughing of the land by the cattle is fast)

15. A Delle nuu saab deb ne a lɛ

à dèlé núú sááb dé b nĩ́ á lè

Def Delle.Pos hand.Pos milletpulp eat GM BE Def that

‘the Delle’s hand’s milletpulp eating is the that’ (that is how Delle’s eating of TZ with the hand is)

16. A deon poɔ tiwr lili pagu bɛ me ko a mutong ɛ

à dión pɔ́ɔ́ tí'wr lí'li' pág ú bé mĩ́

Def room inside.Pos cage.Pos chick.Pos close GM NEG always

kò á mútɔ́ng è

give them sun Foc

‘The room inside’s cage’s chick’s closing not always give them sun’ (closing the chicks in the room does not give them sunlight)

17. A Der wee poɔ nuu bondere deb me tɛr re laaro

à dɛr wíé poɔ núú bóndírí dí b mĩ
 Def Der.Pos farm inside.Pos hand.Pos food.Pos eat GM always
 tɛr rí láár ú
 have Foc laugh GM

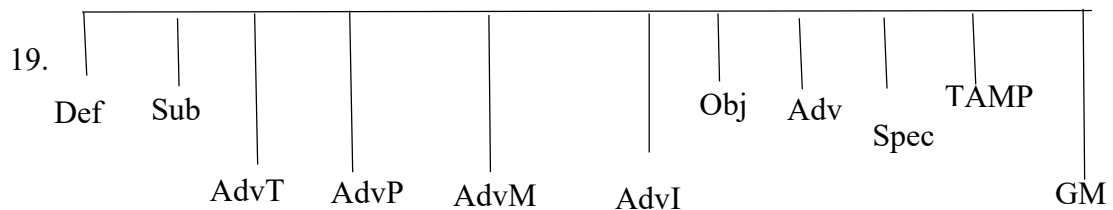
‘the Der’s farm inside’s hand’s food’s eating have laughter’ (Deri’s eating with the hand at the farm makes you laugh)

18. A Der motɔŋ sang, deon poɔ, pɔlo, nuu zeɛr fong deb wa ne ne suur

à dɛr mútɔŋ sang, dìón púɔ, pò/ò, núú
 Def. Der.Pos afternoon time.Pos room inside.Pos pride.Pos hand.Pos
 zíér fɔŋg dí b wà ní ní sùùr
 soup.Pos fast eat GM bring with Foc anger

‘The Der’s afternoon time’s room inside’s pride’s hand’s soup’s fast again eating brings anger’ (Der’s eating the soup fast again with the hand and with pride in the afternoon caused anger)

Observing (13)-(18), we can suggest that in a more superficial gerund phrase we can have as many as ten (10) premodifiers before the gerund. We can thus say that there are ten slots which should not all compulsorily be filled before the sentence can be grammatical. These slots, in their appropriate sequence, are presented in the diagram below;



The order of the sentential adjuncts at the right side of the gerund does not affect grammaticality but at the left side of the gerund the order is important. They must follow as diagram (19) above.

The internal structure of the gerund phrase can be accounted for by the X-bar theory. The adapted version of the DP analysis of gerunds by Baker (2005) is used in offering these explanations. Mergder Under Adjacency and Head-to-Head movement which were explained in the literature review will be employed in accounting for the structure of the gerund phrase in Nandome. Sentence (21) below is the underlying sentence from which the gerund phrase in (20) is derived.

20. A Der motɔŋ sang, deon pɔɔ, pɔlo, nuu zeɛ fɔŋ bɛ deb e na

à dér mótɔŋ sang, dión púɔ, pɔ̀lò núú
 Def. Der.Pos afternoon time.Pos room inside.Pos pride.Pos hand.Pos
 zíér fɔŋ bé dí b ì nǎ
 soup.Pos fast NEG eat GM do Foc.

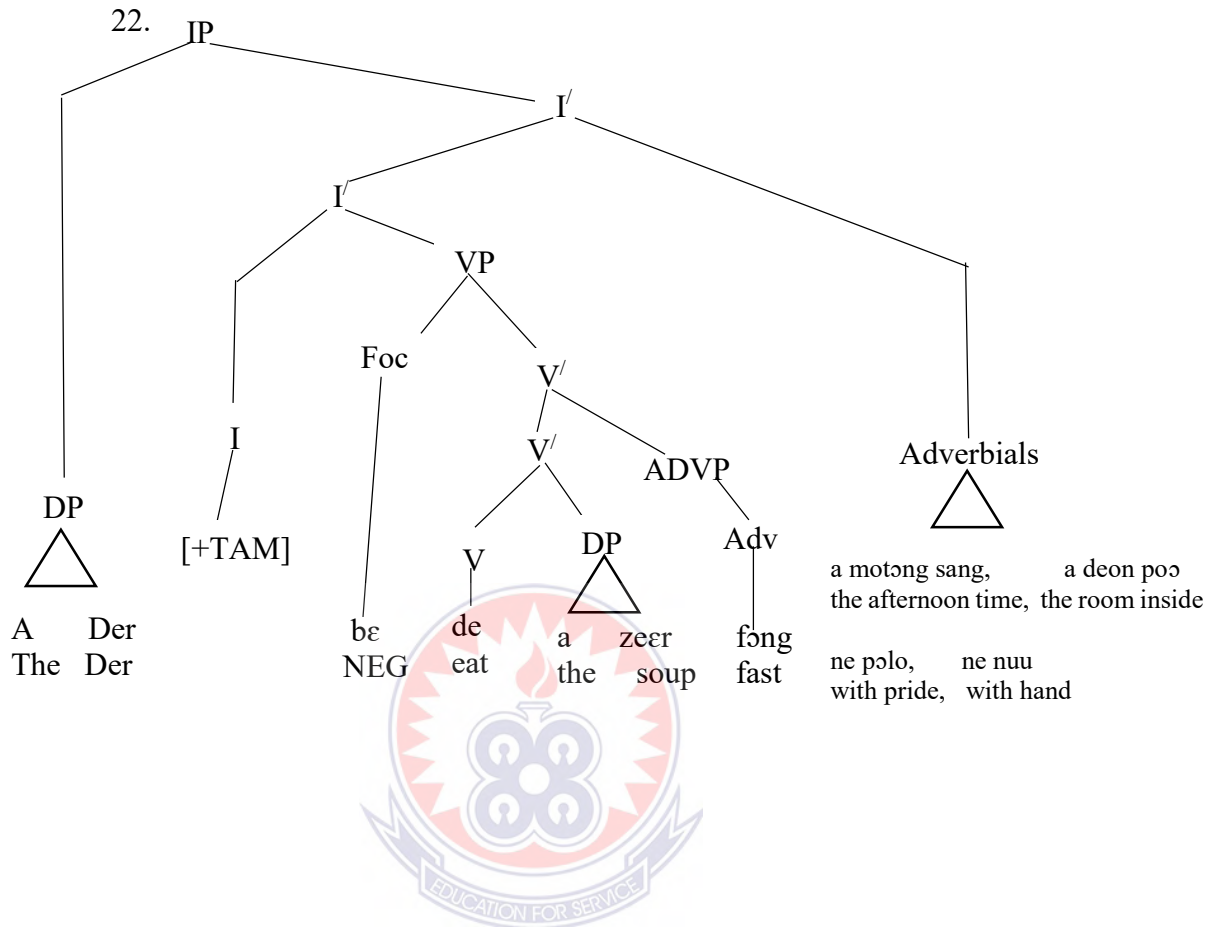
‘The Der’s afternoon time’s room inside’s pride’s hand’s soup’s fast not eating did’
 (Der not eating the soup fast with his hand and with pride in the afternoon in the room is good)

21. A der bɛ de a zeɛ fɔŋ a mutɔŋ a deon ne pɔlo ne nuu e.

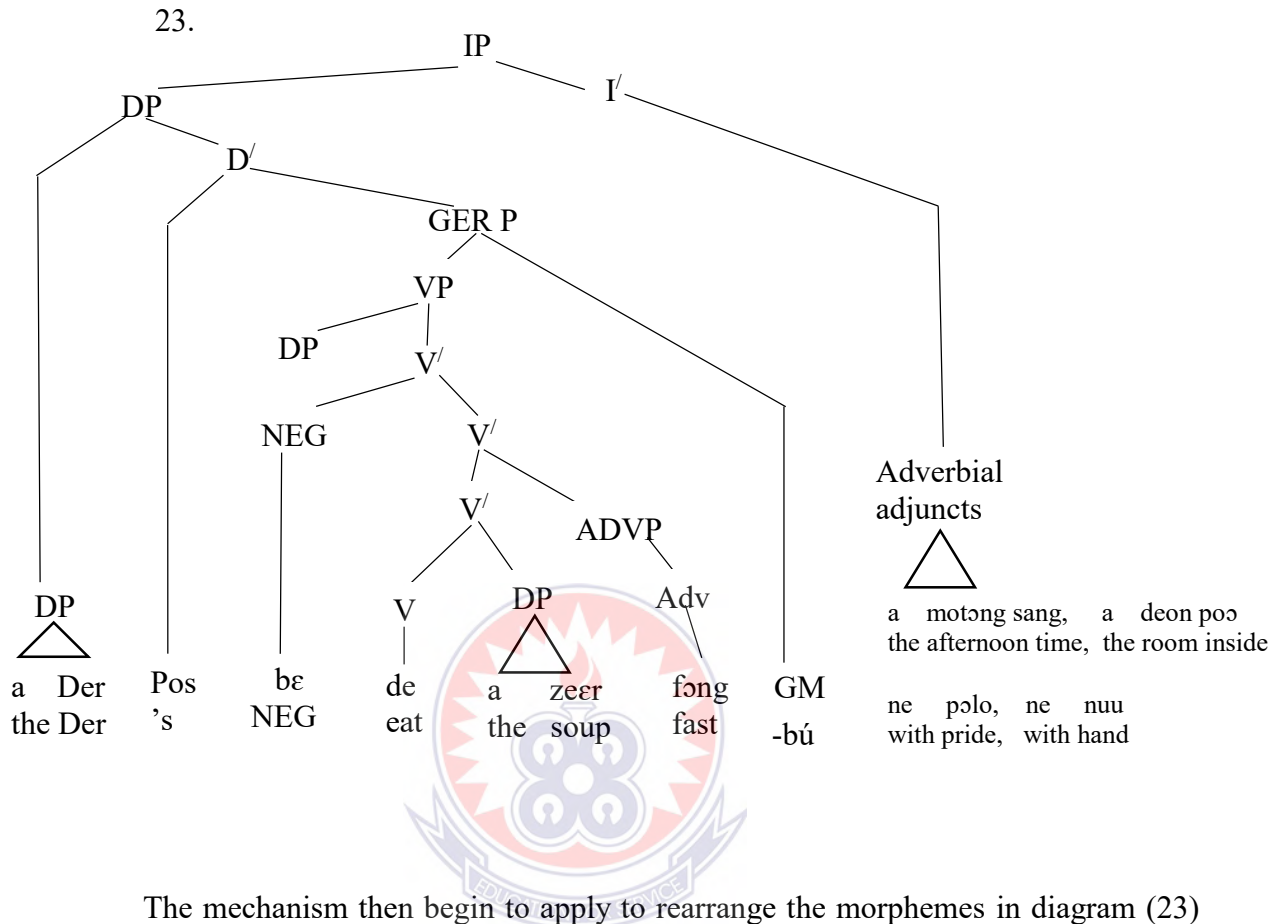
à dér bé dí à zíér fɔŋ à mótɔŋ à dión
 Def. Der NEG eat.Perf Def. soup fast Def. afternoon Def. room
 nǎ pɔ̀lò nǎ núú e
 with pride with hand Foc

‘Der did not eat the soup fast with the hand and with pride in the afternoon in the room’

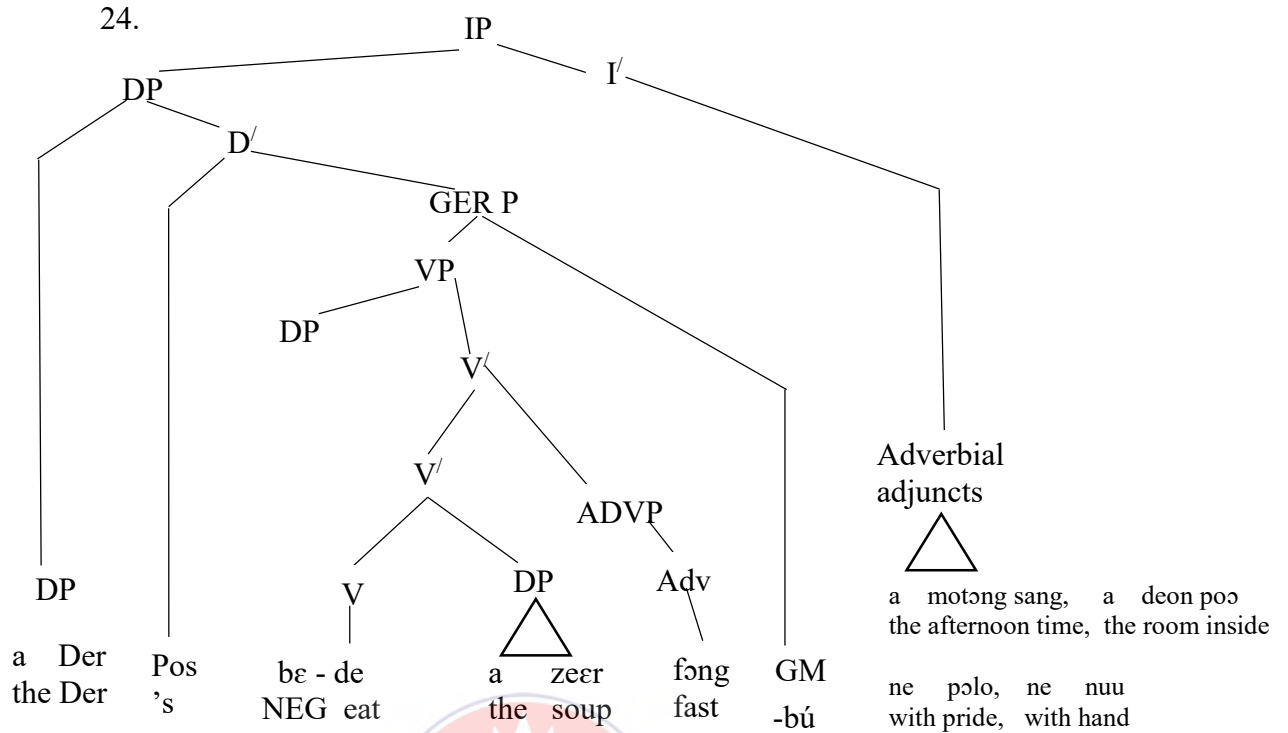
(22) below is a diagram in which the underlying sentence (21) is represented;



The VP in (22) above then comes under the dominance of the DP as in (23) below;



The mechanism then begins to apply to rearrange the morphemes in diagram (23) above. First there is a merging of the specifier with its main verb. The merging reflects phonologically as the word boundary between the specifier and the verb is lost and they are pronounced as one word. The merging is illustrated below in (24). (24 is the adapted version of Baker, 2005).



Head-to-head movement then occurs to diagram (24) above. The merged head, **be-de**, moves to the GM. As Harley (2011) rightly said head to head movement mostly results in a right headed new form. When the newly merged head moves to the GM it adjoins to the left of GM resulting in a right headed gerund. This phenomenon is illustrated in (25) below;

27. *A Der motɔŋ sang, deon poɔ, pɔlo, nuu zeɛr bɛ fong deb e na

à dɛr mótɔŋ sang, dión púɔ, pò/ò núú
 Def. Der.Pos afternoon time.Pos room inside.Pos pride.Pos hand.Pos
 zíér bé fɔŋ dí b ì nǎ
 soup.Pos NEG fast eat GM do Foc.

‘The Der’s afternoon time’s room inside’s pride’s hand’s soup’s fast not eating did’
 (Der not eating the soup fast with his hand and with pride in the afternoon in the room is good)

28. *A Der zeɛr me fong deb a motɔŋ sang, a deon poɔ, ne pɔlo, ne nuu wa ne ne suur

à dɛr zíér mǐ fɔŋ dí b à mótɔŋ
 Def. Der.Pos soup.Pos always fast eat GM Def. afternoon
 sáŋ, à dión púɔ, nǐ pòlò, nǐ núú wà nǐ nǐ sùùr
 time Def. room inside with pride with hand bring with Foc. anger
 ‘The Der’s soup’s always again fast eating Def.afternoon time, Def.room inside, with pride, with hand bring anger’

In (26) above, the sentence is ungrammatical because **wɛɛ** ‘farm’ should occur to the left of the gerund; however, in (26) it occurs to the right of the gerund. In (27) above the sentence is ungrammatical because the adjacency between the specifier, **bɛ**, and the gerund is broken. In (28) above, the ungrammaticality is due to the fact that **me** ‘always’ is a modal and modals generate outside VP so they cannot be part of the gerund phrase.

In explaining government, theta role assignment and case marking, the analysis duels on the understanding of c-command created under the theoretical review. Discussions are with reference to diagram (25) above. **Der** which is in the DP specify position (and any element with the same privilege of occurrence) takes the genitive case and bears the theta

role of AGENT during gerund phrase formation. The genitive form is explainable by the adjacency with the possession morpheme. However it is not possible for a noun in such a position to be assigned a theta role. This does suggest that nouns in DP specifier position during gerund formation are always the underlying subjects of the clause which is being turned into a gerund phrase. The finding here contrasts with Nepožtková's (2010) finding in studying the gerunds of English. He observed that the underlying subject in the gerund phrase could be in the nominative or the objective case. However in Nandome the underlying subject of a gerund phrase is always in the nominative and genitive case.

A **zeɛr** 'the soup' occurs as complement of the verb. All elements with the same privilege of occurrence as **zeɛr** take the genitive form and bear the theta role of PATIENT during gerund phrase formation. The theta role result from the fact that the noun was governed by the verb. After the movement of the verb the PATIENT role is maintained by the noun. However the noun in such a position takes a genitive form. This is because since the verb has moved away, there is no other governor interjecting government from the possession morpheme. Observe the bold forms in (25) above. The first branching node that dominates **Pos** is **D'** and **D'** also dominates **zeɛr**, but neither does **Pos** dominate **zeɛr** nor **zeɛr** dominate **Pos**. Hence **Pos** c-commands **zeɛr**. Since **Pos** is a governor c-commanding **zeɛr** and there is no other governor interjecting then **Pos** governs **zeɛr**. It is based on this that **Pos** assigns **zeɛr** genitive case.

4.3.2 Ambiguity arising from gerund formation

Structural ambiguity can arise in gerund formation in Nandome. This ambiguity is caused by nouns in DP specifier positions. Consider sentence (29) below and the two possible interpretations it has;

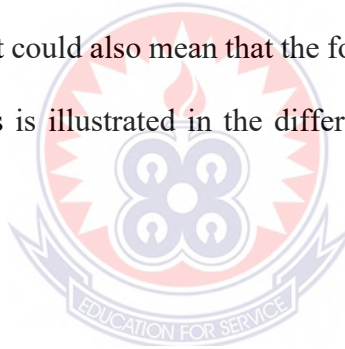
29. A **bie** **bondere** **deb** **bɛ** **veɛl** **ɛ**

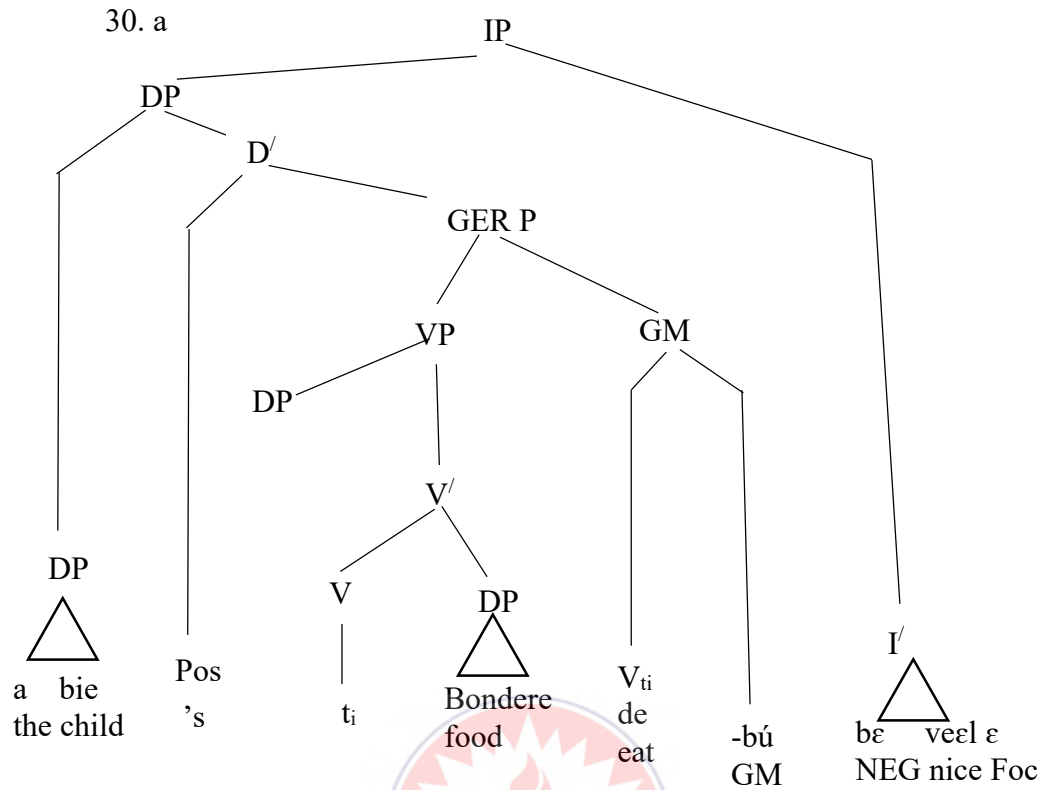
à bie bóndírí dí b bɛ vìèl è
 Def. child.Pos Food.Pos eat GM NEG nice Foc.

‘the child’s food’s eating not nice’

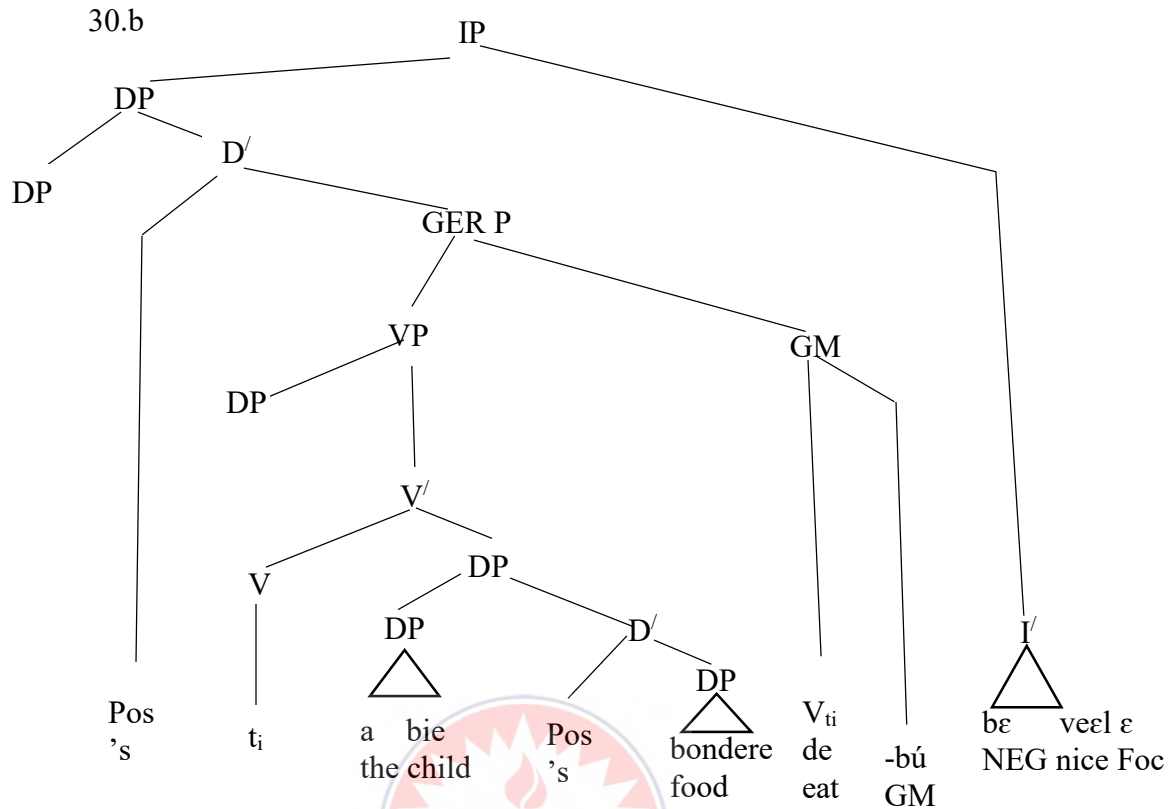
(eating the child’s food is not good)/ (the way eating is done by the child is not good)

The construction in (29) has two meanings. It could mean that **bie** ‘child’ is the AGENT of the eating and it could also mean that the food that was eaten belongs to or was meant for **bie** ‘child’. This is illustrated in the different structural outlines in (30a) and (30b) below.





The construction analysed in (30a) has the meaning that **bie** 'child' is the AGENT who carried out the eating. This is because where **bie** occurs is where the subjects of the underlying clause occur. Now (30a) is in contrast with (30b) below;



The construction in (30b) means that the eating was carried out on the food which belongs to or is meant for the child. This is because where **bie** occurs in (30b) makes it a genitival modifier to the underlying object, **bondere** 'food'. It will be proved later how the ambiguity can be resolved by the use of sentential adverbials.

The theory also holds some explanations for the movement of sentential adverbials. The movement of adverbials from the right side to the left side of the gerund is enabled by the recurrence in the DP. The DP that specifies VP expands thereby creating empty slots which will serve as landing sides for the adverbials. These adverbials though they lack strict order in their initial rightward position, gain a strict order when being moved to the left side of the gerund. For simplicity diagram (25) is modified by cutting off all projections

32. *A motong sang, deon poɔ, pɔlo, nuu Der zeer fong deb wa ne ne suur

à mótóŋg sáŋg, dión púɔ́, pɔ̀/ò, núú déér
 Def. afternoon time.Pos room inside.Pos pride.Pos hand.Pos Der.Pos

zíér fǒng dí b wà nǐ nǐ sùùr
 soup.Pos fast eat GM bring with Foc. anger

‘The afternoon time’s, room inside’s, pride’s, hand’s Der’s soup’s fast again eating bring anger’

(Der’s eating the soup fast with his hand and with pride in the room in the afternoon caused anger)

33. *A Der zeer motong sang, deon poɔ, pɔlo, nuu fong deb wa ne ne suur

à déér zíér mótóŋg sáŋg dión púɔ́ pɔ̀/ò
 Def. Der.Pos soup.Pos afternoon time.Pos room inside.Pos pride.Pos

núú fǒng dí b wà nǐ nǐ sùùr
 hand.Pos fast eat GM bring with Foc. anger

‘The Der’s soup’s afternoon time’s, room inside’s, pride’s, hand’s fast again eating bring anger’

(Der’s eating the soup fast with his hand and with pride in the room in the afternoon caused anger)

It is also understandable why sentential adverbials are in the genitive form after they move to the left of the gerund. The reason is that once they occupy the empty DP specifier slots they are adjacent to the possession morpheme (Pos) and in DP analysis the possession morpheme attaches to the noun in the DP specifier position (Carnie, 2013).

The adverbials also have some theta role assignments. **Ne nuu** ‘with hand’ is a prepositional phrase where the preposition assigns the noun the theta role of instrument. **Ne pɔlo** ‘with pride’ is a prepositional phrase where the preposition assigns a manner role

to the noun. **A deon poɔ** ‘the room inside’ is a postpositional phrase where the postposition assigns the noun the theta role of location. **A motɔng sang**, is a DP ‘the afternoon time’. Because the noun **sang** ‘time’ occurs there is no need assigning the time role again. In Nandome generally time role is not always assigned rather the noun **sang** ‘is always used to show that time is being indicated’.

There is proof that sentential adverbs can help solve the ambiguity talked about in (30a) and (30b). This is how it works. Sentential adverbs are moved to DP specifier position which lies in between the subject argument and the object argument. It does follow that sentential adverbs come after subject arguments but before object arguments. Following this we can disambiguate (30a) with (30b) by raising the sentential adjunct to the left side of the gerund. This is done below in (34) and (35);

34. A bie motɔng sang bondere deb bæ veɛl ɛ

à bie mótɔng sáng bóndírí dí b bé vìèl è

Def. child.Pos afternoon time.Pos, food.Pos eat GM NEG nice Foc.

‘the child’s afternoon time’s food’s eating not nice’ (the child’s way of eating the food in the afternoon was not nice)

35. A motɔng sang bie bondere deb bæ veɛl ɛ

à mótɔng sáng bie bóndírí dí b bé vìèl è

Def. afternoon time.Pos child.Pos Food.Pos eat GM NEG nice Foc.

‘the afternoon time’s child’s food’s eating not nice’ (eating the child’s food in the afternoon is not nice)

Now in the sense of sentence (34) the meaning is that the child is the AGENT doing the eating and this is because sentential adverbials come after subject arguments. In the sense of (35) the meaning is that the food that was eaten belongs to or is meant for the child and this is because sentential adverbials come before object arguments and **bie** ‘child’ happens to be a genitival modification to the object argument so the sentential adjunct comes before it.

4.3.3 The exceptional cases of I-lowering

In the literature review, it was argued that **te** and **le** are TAMPs and as such they not part of the VP. All along in this chapter we have also argued that it is the VP that exceptionally comes under the projection of a nominal inflection (Ger P) and then both are dominated by a DP. It then follows that **te** and **le** cannot take part in gerund phrase formation. However **te** and **le**; unlike the other TAMPs, occur in gerund phrases whilst such constructions maintain grammaticality. This constitutes an exceptional case. Such constructions include (36) and (37) below;

36. A laa le deb na wa ne a yele

à láá lè dé b ná wà ñĩ à yélé

Def. bowl.Pos again take GM BE come with Def issue

‘The bowl’s again taking is come with issue’ (taking the bowl again brought an issue)

37. A baalo so a n be te kyenu

à báálú só à ã bé tí kyén ú

Def. sickness own Def. 1SG.Pos NEG Asp. go GM

‘The sickness own my not going’ (being sick caused my not going (as at the time referred to))

The only possible way to account for the grammaticality of forms like this is to subscribe to the view of I-lowering exceptionally linked to **te** and **le** but not any other TAMP. This I-lowering happens before the VP goes under the dominance of GER P. (39) below is an illustration of the I-lowering. Before that (38) is the underlying form of the gerund phrase in (37).

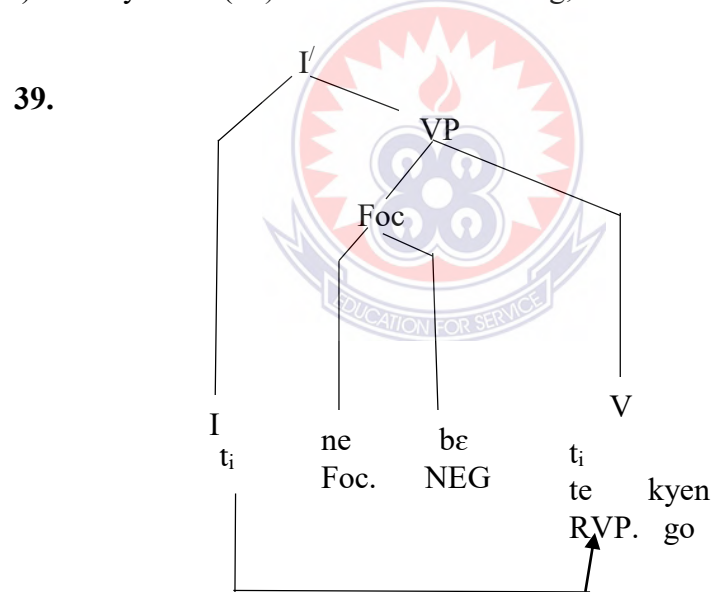
38. N bε te kyen ε

ĩ bε tì kyén é

1SG. NEG Asp. go Foc.

‘I not at that time go’ (I did not go (as at the time referred to))

(38) is analysed in (39) in terms of I-lowering;



The argument is that the illustration in (39) above happens before the VP goes under the dominance of GER P where it undergoes the other processes. This is evident in the fact that, whenever **te** or **le** occurs alongside a specifier in a gerund phrase or in verb phrase it

breaks the adjacency between the specifier and the gerund (see construction (37) and (38) where **te** occurs alongside the specifier **bɛ**). After I-lowering all the other syntactic processes concerning gerund formation in Nandome still apply. I-lowering exceptionally occurs when **te** or **lɛ** is involved and it is therefore not an obligatory process that must happen at all times.

4.3.4 Forming gerunds from double object constructions

Before going into any illustrations, some examples are presented in (40a) and (41a) below. They are the underlying clauses from which the gerund phrases in (40b) and (40b) are derived;

40. a. O lɛ ko ne Mwen a gan

ù lè kò nĩ mwín à gán
 3SG again give.Perf Foc. Mwen Def book
 ‘He/she gave Mwen the book again’

b. O Mwen gan lɛkob na song na

ù mwín gán lè kú b nã sɔ́ng nã
 3SG.Pos Mwen.Pos book.Pos again give.Perf GM will help Foc
 ‘His/her giving Mwen the book again will help’

41. a. Bayuo bɛ yang a dobaa bondere a zaanuora sang ɛ

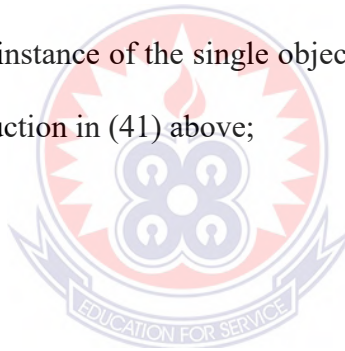
báyúó bé yáng à dobaá bɔ́ndírí a zaanùǝrà sang é
 Bayuo NEG put Def. pig food Def. evening time Foc
 ‘Bayuo not put pig food the evening’ (Bayuo has not fed the pigs in the evening time)

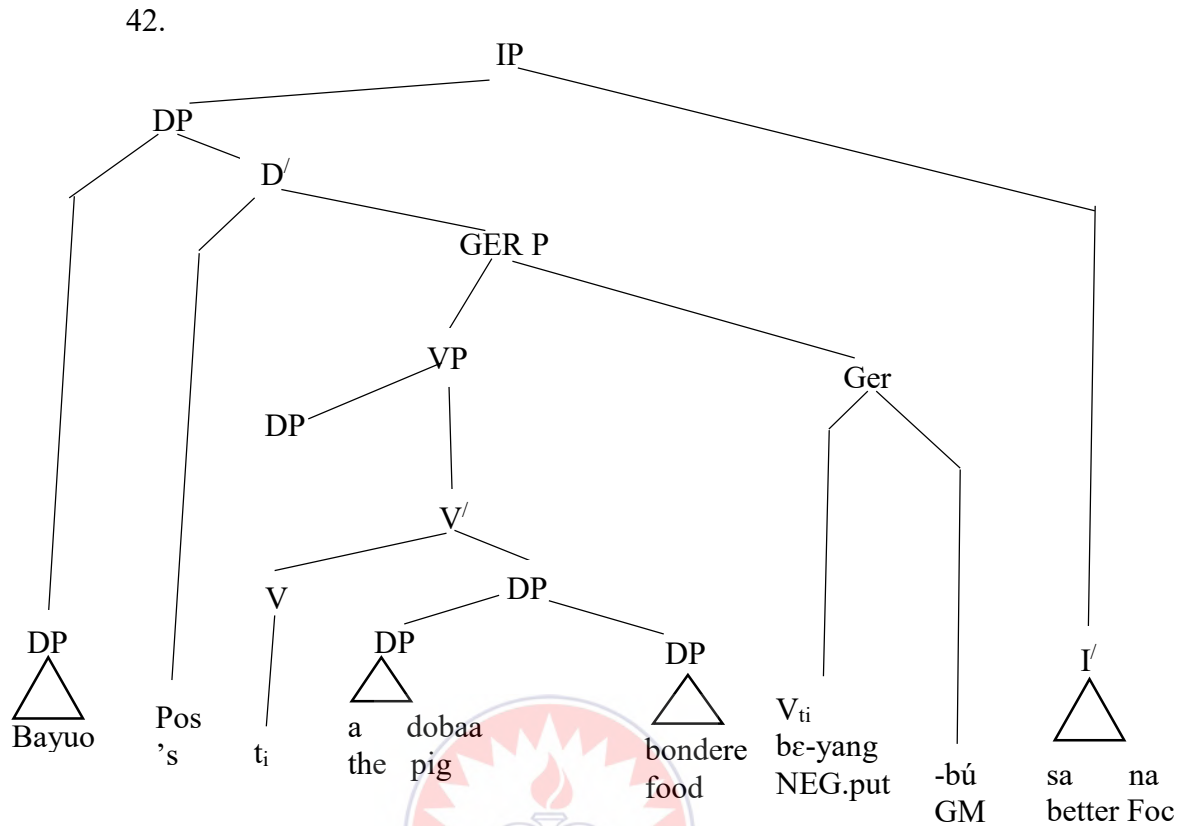
b. **Bayuo zaanuora sang dobaa bondere beyangfo sa na**

báyúó zaanùǝrà sǎng dobáá bóndírí bɛ́ yang fú
Bayuo.Pos evening time.Pos pig.Pos food.Pos NEG put GM
sà ná
better Foc.

‘Bayou’s evening time’s pig’s food’s putting better.’ (Bayuo not feeding the pigs in the evening time)

Observing the above sentences, one will realise that the two objects of the verb maintain their adjacency during gerund formation. The specifier maintains its merging relationship with the verb. The adverbial also moves in between the subject and the two objects. All these are evidence that apart from the fact that the VP contains two objects all the processes are the same as that in the instance of the single object construction. (42) below is a brief illustration with the construction in (41) above;





(42) above is the illustration of how gerunds are formed out of double object constructions. It is very similar to the formation of gerunds from a single object construction. Everything discussed in the case of gerund formation from single object constructions equally holds for gerund formation in terms of double object constructions. The two object arguments are given the theta role of BENEFATIVE and PATIENT respectively as they appear in the sentence. Both arguments are also in the genitive case after the movement of the verb. This as we said earlier is because after the movement of the verb, possession (Pos) is then able to govern the two object arguments. The movement of sentential adverbs to the left of the gerund is also possible and it happens the same way as diagram (31) illustrates.

4.3.5 Forming gerunds from serial verb constructions (SVC)

In the literature review it was mentioned that Bodomo (2004) proposed that gerund phrases are formed from SVCs in a similar way as how gerund phrases are formed from single verb constructions. It was also stated that there is proof that a similar phenomenon happens in Nandome. Consider the grammaticality of the forms in (43)-(45) below;

43. a. Der va ne a waab ko

dér vâ ní à wááb kó

Der hit.Perf Foc. Def. snake kill

‘Der hit the snake kill’ (Der hit and killed the snake)

b. a waab va kob

à wááb vâ kó b

Def. snake hit kill GM

‘the snake hit killing’ (Der’s hitting and killing the snake)

44. a. o gər re daar bal

ù gǝr rí daar bál

3SG cut.Perf Foc. wood tired

‘He/she cut wood tired’ (he/she chopped firewood and got tired)

b. daar gər balo

daar gǝr bál ú

wood cut tired GM

‘wood cut getting tired’ (hie/her chopping firewood and getting tired)

45. a. bɛ kyen na wa

bɛ kyén nà wà

3Pl. walk.Perf Foc come.Perf

‘they walk come’ (they walked and came)

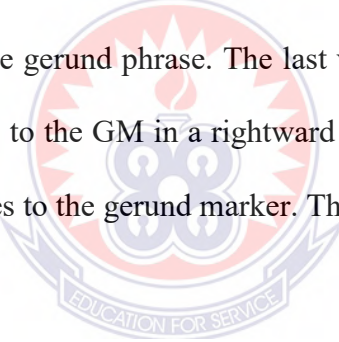
b. kyen waab

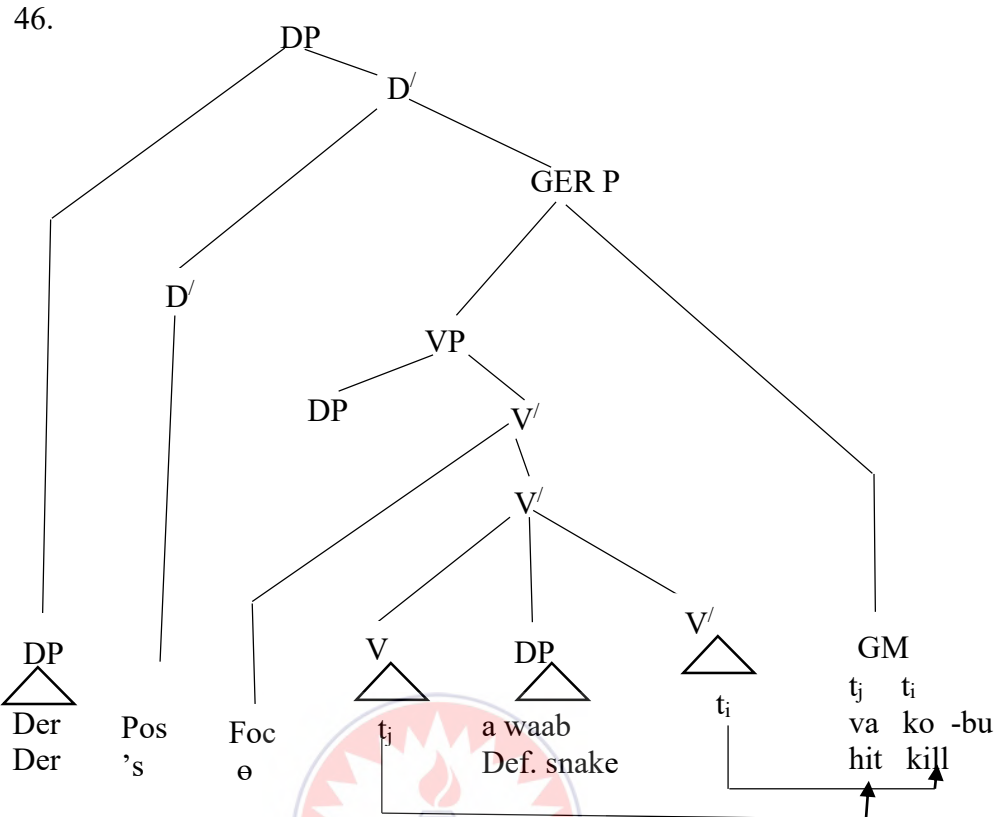
kyén wáá b

walk come GM

‘walk coming’ (their walking and coming)

(43a)-(45a) are the underlying forms from which the gerund phrases in (43b)-(45b) are respectively derived. A simple pattern runs through the derivational processes. This pattern is that the verbs maintain their order. The first verb in the underlying structure becomes the first verb in the gerund phrase. The last verb bears the gerund marker. This implies that the verbs move to the GM in a rightward precedence such that the rightmost verb moves first and attaches to the gerund marker. There is an illustration below in (46);





The number of verbs in the series do not have a definite number but one could hear usages of SVCs involving about up to five verbs in a series. In such cases their movement is still in the rightward order of preference.

There are instances of SVCs which represent a sentential adverbial in a way different from how canonical sentences take adverbials. In fact canonical sentences underlie such SVCs. Observe below the construction in (47a) which is a canonical sentence that underlies (48a) which is a SVC that underlies (48b) which is a gerund phrase.

47. a. O va ne waab ne daa

ù v à n ǐ waab n ǐ d à à
 3SG. hit.Perf Foc. snake with stick
 ‘he/she hit snake with stick’

48. a. O de ne daa va ne waab

ù d é n ǐ d à à v à n ǐ w á á b
 3SG. take.Perf Foc. stick hit.Perf with snake
 ‘he/she take stick hit snake’

b. daa waab de vab

d à à w á á b d é v á b
 stick.Pos snake.Pos take hit GM
 ‘stick’s snake’s take hitting’

However a gerund phrase can also be derived directly from the canonical sentence in (47a) in the form of (47b) below;

47b. o waab vab ne daa

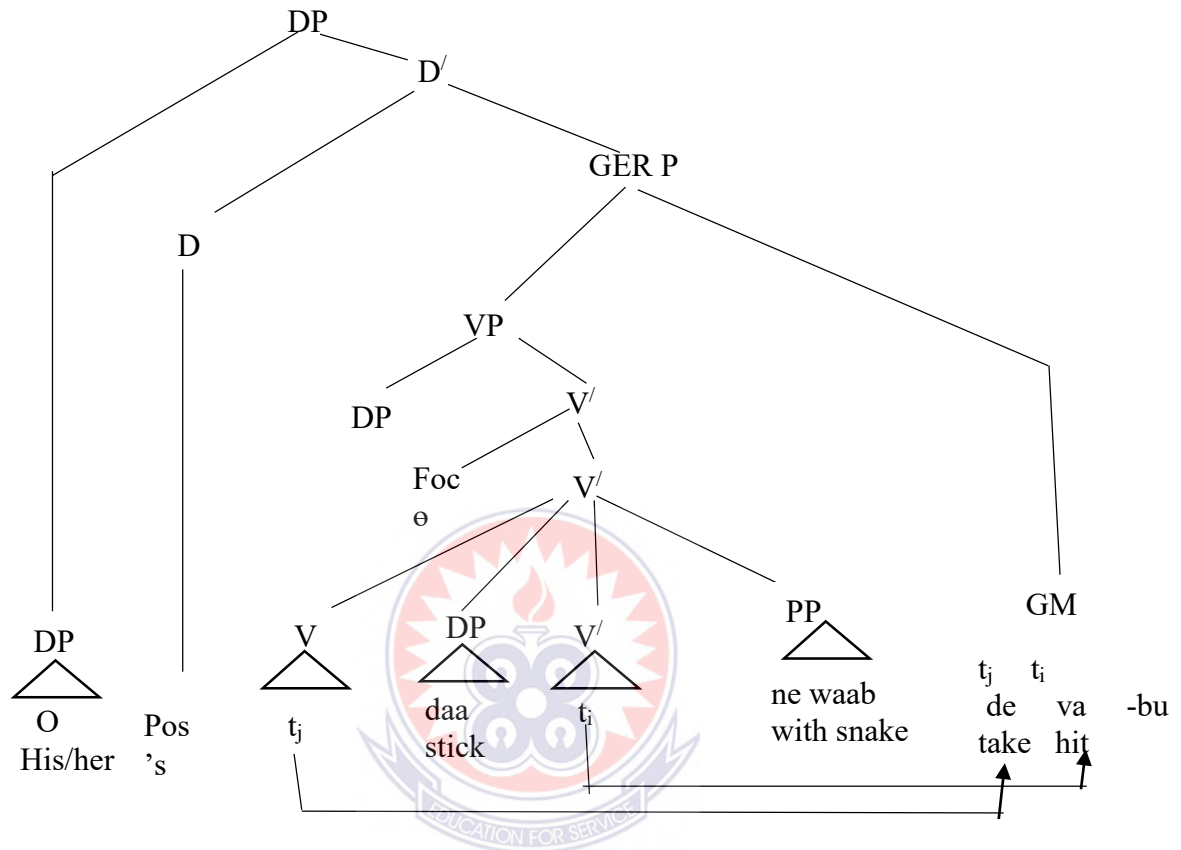
ù w á á b v á b n ǐ d à à
 3SG.Pos snake.Pos hit GM with stick
 ‘his/her snake’s hitting with stick’ (his/her hitting a snake with a stick)

(47b) is opened to the movement (raising) of the adverbial(s) as illustrated in (31), such that, it is possible to also say **o daa waab vab**.

Observe that in (47a) above there is an adverbial of instrument and in (48a) above the adverbial of instrument is captured in a different way. The formation of the gerund phrase (in 48b) from the SVC in (48a) is illustrated in (49) below;

(49) Below is an illustration of the formation of a gerund phrase from (48a);

49.



From the above illustration we have the gerund phrase in (48b) (the preposition, **ne** 'with', deletes during gerund formation). Note that **daa** 'stick' is theta marked as instrument and **waab** 'snake' is theta marked as patient. This gives us an interesting phenomenon where similar gerund phrases can be derived from canonical sentences or from SVCs which are in turn derived from canonical sentences.

On the issue of SVCs, Bodomo (2004) found out that in his dialect of study gerunds formed from constructions equivalent to (48a) were not easily seen to be grammatical. In

Nandome the gerunds formed are grammatical. It thus appears that there are slight syntactic differences between the two dialects as far as gerund formation is concerned.

The internal structure of gerunds in Nandome support Nikitina (2007) who stated that a good number of Niger-Congo languages prepose their objects during gerund formation. In the literature review Nikitina's (2007) is backed by evidences from; Dagaare (studied by Bodomo, 2004), Kusaal (Abubakari, 2011), Ewe and Likpe (studied by Ameka, 2006) and Akan (studied by Boadi unpublished). Nandome further contributes to Nikitina's (2007) statement in that the object is preposed during the formation of gerunds. All these are also in disagreement with Koptjevskaja-Tamm's (2003) who claims that constituent ordering in nominalisations always reflects constituent ordering in regular noun phrases. Nikitina (2007) also argues that most of the Niger-Congo languages have head final gerunds, that is, the gerund marker occurs to the right of its verb root. Nandome, Dagaare and Kusaal which are Gur languages all have head final gerunds. It can therefore be stated relatively that Gur languages do not involve reduplication during the formation of gerunds but they make use of suffixation during the formation of gerunds.

The internal structure of the gerund phrase in Nandome is also consistent with the claims of Chomsky (1970) and Perekhval'skaya (2011) that the gerund phrase does not always have the internal structure of the prototypical noun phrase. This is evident in Nandome in that the elements that are possible in the gerund phrase are varied from the elements possible in a prototypical noun phrase. For instance the gerund phrase cannot take adjectives like the noun phrase does and the noun phrase cannot take negation like the gerund phrase does.

The X-bar theory was used to analyse the internal structure of gerund phrases and it is appropriate to discuss the implications that the findings herein, have on the theory. This implies that the current research agrees with the concepts in the theoretical review. In terms of the DP structure used for the analysis of gerund formation, Abney's (1987) version which was used by Bodomo (2004) suggests that the gerund marker is a special instance of number. Baker (2005) considered the gerund marker as just a nominal inflection. However, findings in Nandome in this research show that the gerund in Nandome is unable to take number inflection and this is complemented by earlier findings in Bodomo (2004). In this respect, the idea that the gerund marker is a special instance still holds for some languages. Following that the gerunds in Nandome cannot inflect for number we can also conclude that they belong to the class of non-count nouns. This is unlike Ameka's (2006) findings with Likpe, where gerunds are formed sometimes by using noun markers.

The formation of gerunds in a DP also proves Baker (2005) point that a gerund is not a single entity that belongs simultaneously to the noun and the verb category; rather, it is a form made of two parts where one part is from the verb category and another part is from the noun category. This claim is further buttressed by the fact that the gerunds in Nandome are bimorphemic and never monomorphemic.

With the internal structure of the gerund phrases it has been proven that all arguments to the left of the gerund are in the genitive form and it has also been explained with the X-bar theory why this is so. Additionally these findings are consistent with other findings in works on gerunds. In the literature review it is stated that it may be linguistically universal that the subject arguments are inherited into gerund phrases as genitives. This

claim is based on findings from Boadi (unpublished), Nepozitkova (2010) and Kremers (2003). In Nandome the underlying subject is also inherited as a genitive. In this light Nandome shares something extra with Boadi (unpublished) which is also a Niger-Congo language but belongs to the Kwa sub group unlike Nandome which is Gur. The extra thing is that Boadi (unpublished) mentions that all arguments to the left of the gerund are in the genitive and the genitive recurs to make this possible. In Nandome all arguments that occur to the left of the gerund are also in the genitive which is made possible by the recurrence of the DP. Despite this similarity there is also a difference between the current research and Boadi (unpublished). The difference is that Boadi identified that gerund formation is through I-lowering. In the case of Nandome there are two exceptional cases of I-lowering. However gerunds in Nandome are formed with the DP as it has been illustrated in this chapter. Still considering the mechanism of gerund formation the findings in Nandome are much similar to that of Bodomo (2004) who also argues that the gerunds are formed in a DP that exceptionally dominates a VP. The difference in mechanisms of the formation of gerunds may also index language groupings. For example, Bodomo (2004) and the current study looked at Gur languages and in both instances gerund formation takes place in a DP.

4.4 The Sentential Distribution of Gerund Phrases (Question 3)

The sentential distribution can also be termed as the external distribution or clausal distribution of the gerund phrase in Nandome. The research question seeks to find out which clausal elements that the gerund phrase in Nandome can represent. This will be explained using the X-bar theory once again. There is proof in the X-bar syntax that the gerund in Nandome can function in all the positions of a noun: as subject, as object, as indirect object and as object of preposition or postposition. The analysis here will be much related to case assignment.

First of all, the gerunds in Nandome are capable of occurring in clause subject position. The following sentences (50) and (51) are evidences;

50. A libie pob song o na

à li`bi`é pó b song ù nà
 Def. money.Pos share GM help.Perf 3SG Foc.

‘the money’s sharing come help him/her’ ‘sharing the money helped him’

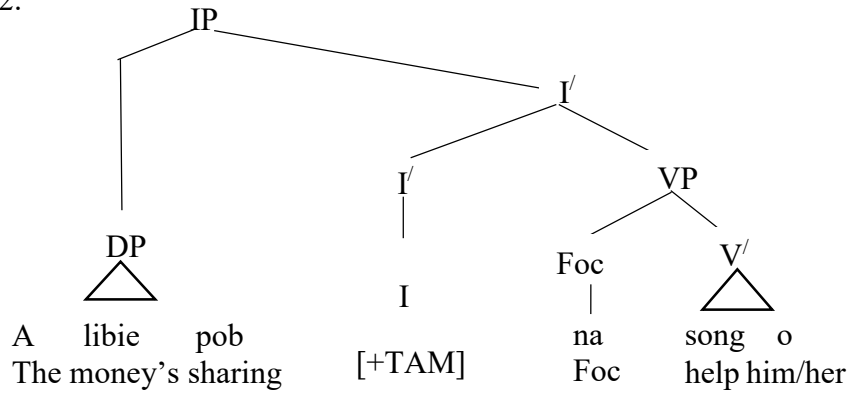
51. A tero sɛlo wa ne ne maaro

à tiro sél ú wà nĩ nĩ m^hááró
 Def. trees.Pos plant GM come Foc. with shade

‘the planting of the trees brought shade’

Radford (1981) is of the view that an NP is marked nominative when it occurs as subject of a tense clause. (52) is an illustration of a gerund phrase acting as subject of a tense clause.

52.



The gerund phrase in (50) comes under the DP of the IP in (52) and it is a subject of a tense clause and for that reason matches the definition of a nominative case as stated by Radford (1981: p. 327) 'NP is nominative if the subject of a tensed clause'. The nominative case is not shown phonologically. In this light the gerund phrase is similar to the prototypical noun.

The gerund can also take an object position in a clause. (53)- (55) are examples of the gerund acting as object.

53. O zagr re a yir kulu

ù zágr ré à yí'r kúl ú

3SG. refuse.Perf Foc. Def. home.Pos go GM

'he/she refuse home's going' (he/she refused the going home)

54. bε bang ne nii kɔb

bè báng nǐ nǐ'ĩ' kɔ́ b

3Pl know Foc. cattle.Pos farm GM

'They know cattle's farming'

Gerund phrases can also occupy the position of prepositional or postpositional objects. (57) and (58) below are constructions that exemplify that;

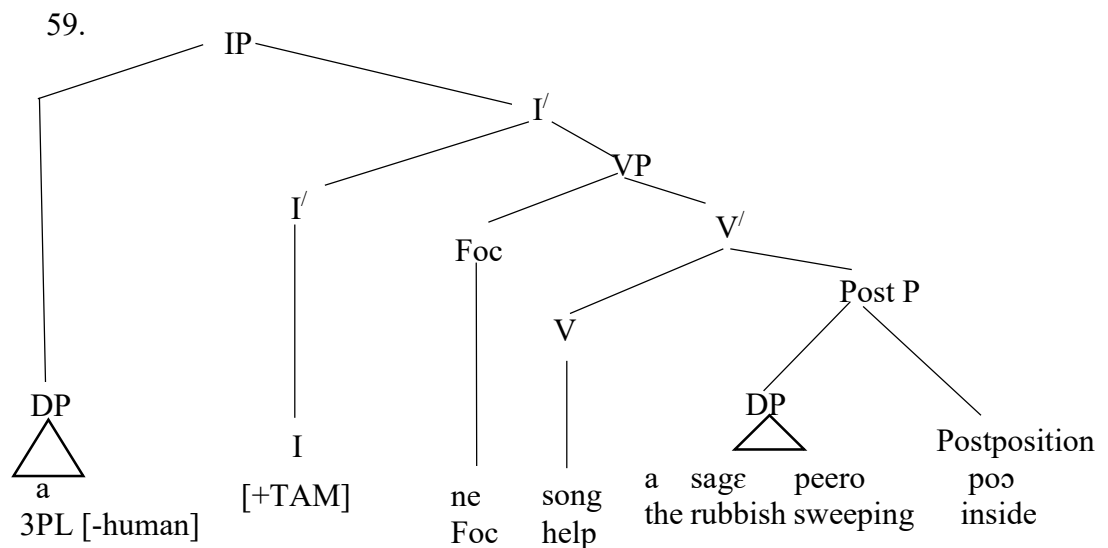
57. A dambeɛ wa ne ne zɔba

à dambĩẽ wà nĩ nĩ zɔb á
 Def. fear come.Perf Foc. with run GM
 ‘The fear came with running’ (the fear caused running)

58. sɛsɛb song ne a sage peero poɔ

sɛsɛb sɔng nĩ à sàgɛ píír ú púɔ
 wind help Foc. Def. rubbish.Pos. sweep. GM inside
 ‘wind help the rubbish sweeping inside’ (the wind helped in the sweeping of the rubbish)

(57) above, presents a gerund in the position of a prepositional object whilst (58) presents a gerund in a postpositional object position. According to Radford (1981) an objective case can also be assigned by a preposition or postposition. This is illustrated in (59) below.



The illustration above indicates that the postposition, **poɔ** ‘inside’ minimally c-commands the gerund, **peero** ‘sweeping’ and thus is able to assign it objective case. Once again the case assigned is not realised phonologically. A similar thing happens with the prepositions. This is not different from how prototypical nouns occur in prepositional or postpositional object positions.

The gerund phrase in Nandome can also be put in the genitive form. In this sense it is able to modify another gerund or noun. Consider constructions (60) and (61) below.

60. A yir mɛb zie ne a ka

à yí r mé b zǐ'é nǐ à ká
 Def. house.Pos. built. GM.Pos place BE Def. here

‘the house’s building’s place is the here’ (the place for the building of the house is here)

61. A labɛ pɛgfo bɛro na wa ne a lɛ

à lábé pég fú bér ú nǎ wà nǐ à lé
 Def. bowl.Pos. wash GM.Pos stop GM BE. come with Def. that

‘the bowl’s washing’s stopping is come with the that’ (stopping the washing of the bowls is what brought about that)

Alexiadou et al (2007) and Carnie (2013) are of the view that in a DP a noun can be assigned a genitive case when it occurs in the specifier position of a DP adjacent to the possession (Pos) which is the head. The illustration in (62) evidences this. Consider (62) below.

4.5.1 Manner-of-act interpretation

A gerund construction can be interpreted as focusing on a manner-of-act. According to Boadi (unpublished), in discussing gerunds in Akan, gerundial constructions can be interpreted as having a MANNER semantic component. Lees 1960, Bowers 1969, Fraser 1970, all cited in Boadi (unpublished), have had similar findings in English. Consider the following gerund constructions in (63) and (64) below;

63. e nɔnɛ ne a dɔɔ nga kyenu

ĩ nɔnɛ nĩ à dɔɔ ngà kyén ú
 1SG like Foc. Def. man's this walk GM
 'I like the man's this walking' (I like this man's walking)

64. o kyɔɔre ne a dɔɔ bondere deb

ù kyɔɔrè nĩ à dɔɔ bɔndirí dí b
 3SG imitate.Perf Foc. Def. man food.Pos eat GM
 'he imitate the man food's eating' (he imitated the man's way of eating food)

In (63) the interpretation is that the speaker is reporting that he likes the MANNER in which the man walks. Similarly in (64) the interpretation is that a person is reported to have imitated the MANNER in which the man eats. However there are conditions that determine the MANNER interpretation. These conditions as found from the available data in Nandome are similar to those found in Boadi (unpublished). These include;

65. a. The verb that governs the gerund phrase should be one that belongs to the class of cognition. Such verbs include: learn (**zane**); know (**bang**); teach/show (**wul**); imitate (**kyɔɔre**); describe (**mane**) among others. Some examples include;

b. Zane mwab

zàni mwá b

learn write GM

‘learn writing’ (learn how to write)

c. Mane a sɛbo

mání à sɛb ú

describe Def. dance GM

‘describe the dancing’ (describe how the dancing is)

66. a. The verb governing the gerund phrase should belong to the class of emotions.

Such verbs include: like (**nɔnɛ**); dislike (**bɛ nɔnɛ**); hate (**kyiir**) among others. Some examples include (b) and (c).

b. e bɛ nɔnɛ ne a dɔɔ nga laaro

ĩ be nɔné nĩ à dɔɔ nga láár ú

1SG NEG like Foc. Def. man’s this laugh GM

‘I don’t like the man’s this laughing’ (I don’t like this man’s way of laughing)

c. bɛ kyiir ri a bie zema

bè kyií’r ri’ à bi’é zím á

3Pl hate Foc. Def. child sit GM

‘they hate the child’s sitting’ (they hate the child’s way of sitting)

However not all gerundial constructions can express the MANNER interpretation.

Consider the gerundial constructions below in (67) and (68).

67. e nɔnɛ ne kyenu

ĩ nɔ́né nĩ kyén ú
 1SG like Foc. walk GM
 ‘I like walking’

68. e bɛ nɔnɛ kyenu é

ĩ bɛ̀ nɔ́né kyén ú é
 1SG NEG. like walk GM Foc.
 ‘I don’t like walking’

These do not express MANNER interpretation. This reveals a major difference in terms of MANNER reading between the verbs of cognition and the verbs expressing emotional state. The difference is that verbs within the class of cognition do not need the gerund phrase to have an underlying subject in the gerund phrase. However, the verbs that express an emotional state need the gerund phrase to have an underlying subject. Where the underlying subject of the action is omitted in the case of verbs expressing state of emotions the construction cannot have a MANNER interpretation, this is evident in (67) and (68) where there is no underlying subject of the action.

4.5.2 Syntax and semantics of Habit in a Gerund phrase

Gerunds in Nandome are able to express habit. This interpretation is realised phonologically. The interpretation denotes that the act expressed by the gerund is carried out habitually. Consider the following examples in (69) and (70) that contain gerunds.

69. a. a o pɔg bɔb na so o be zane ε

à ù pɔg bɔ b ná só ù bé
 Def. 3SG Pos woman Pos search GM BE cause 3SG NEG
 zání é
 learn.Perf Foc.

‘the his woman’s searching is cause he/she not learn’ (his searching for a woman caused him not to learn)

b. a o pɔɔ bɔ na so o be zane ε

à ù pɔɔ bɔ ná só ù bé zání
 Def. 3SG Pos woman Pos search.GM.Hab BE cause 3SG NEG learn
 é
 Foc.

‘the his woman’s searching habitually that cause he/she not learn’ (his habit womanising caused him not to learn)

70. a. a o koɔ ɔŋfo na song

à ù kũɔ ɔŋg fũ ná song
 Def. 3SG.Pos water.Pos fetch GM BE help.Perf

‘the his/her water’s fetching that help’ (his/her fetching of the water is what helped)

b. a o koɔ ɔŋ na song

à ù kũɔ ɔŋg ná song
 Def. 3SG.Pos water.Pos fetch.GM.Hab. BE help.Perf

‘the his/her water’s fetching that help’ (his/her habitual fetching of water is what helped)

The HABIT interpretation is marked phonologically though not through the addition of a sound or a lexical item but rather by deleting the final phonological segment of the gerund, the final phonological segment of the underlying object and the final phonological segment of any lexical item in between the underlying object and the gerund. It is only an adjective to the underlying object that can appear in between the underlying object and the gerund. Some examples include (69b) and (70b) above.

The HABIT interpretation comes with a syntactic condition. The condition is that the gerund must take for a modifier, an underlying object. Examples include (69b) and (70b) where **pɔɔ** ‘woman’s’ and **koɔ** ‘water’s’ serve as underlying objects respectively. This condition explains the ungrammaticality of (69c) and (70c) below;

69.c. * **a o bɔ na so o bɛ zane ɛ**
 à ù bɔ ná só ù bɛ zání ɛ
 Def. 3SG.Pos search.GM.Hab BE cause 3SG NEG learn Foc.
 ‘the his/her searching habitually that cause he/she not learn’

70. c. * **a o ɔŋ na song**
 à ù ɔŋ ná song
 Def. 3SG.Pos fetch.GM.Hab. BE help
 ‘it is his/her fetching that help’

With the available data it is only an adjective to the underlying object that can come in between the object and the gerund as long as HABIT interpretation is involved. (71) below is an example;

71. a. **O nɔnɛ ne sa vela deb**

ù nɔ́né nǐ sà vilá dí b
 3SG know Foc. milletpulp good eat. GM

‘he/she know millet pulp good eating’ (he/she likes the eating of good milletpulp)

b. **O nɔnɛ ne sa vel de**

ù nɔ́né nǐ sà vil dí
 3SG know Foc. milletpulp good eat.GM.Hab

‘he/she likes millet pulp good eating habitually’

(he/she likes the eating of good milletpulp habitually)

In both (71a) and (71b) observe the items in bold and you will notice that the clipping affects the adjective **vela** ‘good’.

In the presence of HABIT the adverb loses its position and moves to the right of the gerund. (72) below is an example to this effect.

72. a. **a saab fong mɔb**

à saáb fɔ́ng mɔ́ b
 Def. milletpulp fast cook. GM

‘the milletpulp fast cooking’ (the act of cooking the milletpulp fast)

b. **a sa mɔ fong**

à sà mɔ́ fɔ́ng
 Def. milletpulp cook.GM.Hab fast

‘the milletpulp fast cooking habitually’ (the act of habitually cooking the milletpulp fast)

Observe (72a) and (72b) and notice the movement of the adverb **fong** ‘fast’.

4.5.3 Interpreting negation and habit within a gerund phrase

The use of negation and HABIT respectively in relation to other element in the gerund phrase raises an interesting issue in the semantics. There is a pattern that they both follow. That is, if they occur in the gerund phrase and there are adverbials in that phrase, they turn to affect the adverbial and not the gerund anymore. The same thing happens when there is an adjective qualifying the underlying object (73a and 73b) exemplify negation and (74a and 74b) exemplify HABIT;

73. a. **a Der bondere bædeb a weɛ poɔ**

à dɛr bóndírí bé dí b á wíé poɔ
 Def Der.Pos food's NEG eat. GM Def. farm inside

'the Der's food's not eating the farm inside' (Der not eating the food in the farm)

b. **A Der zeɛr bæ deb a motɔŋ sang, a deon poɔ**

à dɛr zíér bé dí b à mútɔŋ sang, à
 Def. Der.Pos soup.Pos NEG. eat GM the afternoon time.Pos the

Dión púɔ

room inside.Pos

'The Der's soup's not eating the afternoon time the room inside'

(Der not eating the soup in the room in the afternoon)

74. a. **A sa mɔ fong**

à sà mɔ fɔŋ

Def. milletpulp cook.GM.Hab fast

'the milletpulp fast cooking habitually' (the habitual cooking of milletpulp fast)

b. A sa vel mɔ fong

à sà vil mɔ fɔng

Def. milletpulp good cook.GM.Hab fast

‘the goodg milletpulp fast cooking habitually’ (the habitual cooking of good milletpulp)

In (73a) there is only one adverbial; that is **a weɛ pɔɔ** ‘the farm inside’ and the negation affects it. Therefore construction (73a) can be interpreted that **Der** ate but not at the farm. An interpretation that **Der** did not eat at all will be wrong. It thus shows that the negative affects the adverbial. It is a similar thing with (74a) where we also have one adverbial **fong** ‘fast’. It can be interpreted that the person is in the habit of cooking fast. It could further mean that the person does not like cooking milletpulp but any time he/she does it he/she does it fast.

The (b) counterparts are different and they present a much complex issue. In the (b) counterparts there are more than one adverbial. In (73b) for example there are two adverbials; **a motɔng sang** and **a deon pɔɔ**. In this context negation affects both adverbials. We can therefore interpret (73b) as that in the afternoon when he was in the room he/she did not eat. It implies that at another time either than the afternoon when he was in the room, he ate. It could also imply that in the afternoon when he was at another place either than the room, he ate.

Similarly in the case of HABIT whenever there are two or more adverbials they are all taken into consideration in the interpretation of the construction. In (74b) for example there are two adverbials; **vela** ‘good’ (where the final segment has been deleted leaving

vel) and **fong** ‘fast’. (74b) can be interpreted as; he/she has the habit of cooking good milletpulp fast. It could therefore imply that he/she does not like cooking nice milletpulp but anytime he/she attempts it, it is done fast.

The findings here concerning the interpretation of negation is consistent with the finding of Boadi (unpublished) in his study on Akan gerunds. For example, in English as well, the sentence ‘his not coming early delayed the event’, means the person came but not early. It is wrong to interpret that the person did not come at all. When languages of wide variations have something in common it signals a possibility of a language universal.

4.5.4 Emphatic use of Gerunds

Gerunds in Nandome also have an emphatic use. The emphatic usage of gerunds is observable primarily in the syntax. Emphasis concerning the use of gerunds reflects in the syntax. It is an interesting phenomenon where a gerund becomes an argument to the verb root from which it was formed. Consider the sentences in (75a)-(75c) below;

75. a. **Dɛr zaa yag na**

dɛr zãã yág nã

Der yesterday dance.Perf Foc.

‘der yesterday dance’ (Der danced yesterday)

b. **Dɛr zaa yag ne yagfo**

dɛr zãã yág nĩ yágfú

Der yesterday dance.Past Foc. dance.GM

‘der yesterday dance dancing’ (Der did a lot of dancing yesterday)

c. **yagfo zaa yag na**

yág fú zãã yág nã
 dance GM yesterday dance Foc.

‘dancing yesterday dance’ (dancing was done a lot yesterday)

(75a) presents the normal sentence whilst the (75b) and the (75c) present the emphatic forms. The emphasis is marked by the syntax. In (75b) the gerund **yagfo** ‘dancing’ is an object to its own root verb **yag** ‘dance’, whilst in (75c) the gerund **yagfo** ‘dancing’ is the subject to its root verb **yag** ‘dance’. (75b) can be interpreted as that **Der** danced beyond measure or he danced more than other people who may have also danced on a similar platform. Observe that in (75b) the subject, **Der**, of the verb **yag** ‘dance’ is important in the interpretation. In (75c) there is similar emphasis except that the subject **Der** is not present. This results from passivisation of (75b) that deletes the subject, **Der**, and subsequently takes the gerund **yagfo** ‘dancing’ from the object position to subject position. In terms of the passivized version, the emphasis is on the intensity of the act but not the doer.

4.6 Conclusion

The GM is [bú] which never occurs fully in speech, it is either the consonant deletes or the vowel deletes. There are six allomorphs of the gerund marker [b], [ú], [ó], [fú], [fó] and [bá]. The first five allomorphs occur based on phonological conditions. The internal phrase structure of the gerund phrase is: Def Sub Obj Adv Spec TAMP GM AdvT AdvP AdvM AdvI. This internal phrase structure is different from the internal structure of the NP as we saw in the literature. Gerund phrases can occur as subjects, objects, complements

and objects of pre(post)position which is similar to the sentential distribution of an NP. TAMPs are not allowed in the gerund phrase. There are two exceptional instances of I-lowering where the TAMPs, *te* (RVP) and *le* ‘again’ are involved. When there is an adverbial and NEG in a gerund phrase, the NEG affects the adverbial and not the gerund. A similar thing happens when both an adverbial and HABIT occur in a gerund phrase. When HABIT and adverb are both present in a gerund phrase the adverb moves from the left side of the gerund to the right side of the gerund.



CHAPTER FIVE

SUMMARY OF FINDINGS, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

5.1 Overview

The chapter gives an overview of the entire study; summarises the findings of the study; outlines the conclusions drawn from the findings; states their contribution to knowledge; makes recommendations and suggests areas for further study.

5.2 An Overview of the Study

Out of preliminary observation of gerunds in Nandome, there is evidence that the gerund marker {-bú} is not realised fully in speech. What is realised in speech is a split form of it, [-b] or [ú] or other variants [fú] or [bá]. It was also observed that the gerund phrase in Nandome distinguishes between adjuncts of a sentence and adjuncts of a verb phrase. There was also preliminary evidence that the formation of gerunds explains some structural ambiguity and also gives evidence of how the ambiguity can be resolved. It was also observed that communicating the intensiveness of an action can be achieved by making a gerund an argument to its root verb. It was also observed that the gerund phrase in Nandome supports respective claims by Abney (1987), that the gerund marker is a special instance of number. It was also observed that the gerund phrase supports Baker's (2005) view that, the process of gerund formation is a special instance where a nominal inflection dominates a VP as well as Chomsky's (1970) view on the features of a gerund.

Based on these preliminary findings, gerundial constructions in Nandome needed a descriptive account that uses scientific methods. This will help to ascertain the reality about these facts concerning the gerundial constructions in Nandome.

5.3 Summary of Findings

The study has come up with findings in relation to the research questions posed in chapter one of the thesis. The summary of the findings is presented according to research questions: the morphological processes in gerund formation; the internal structure of gerund phrases; the sentential distribution of gerunds; and the semantic interpretation of gerund phrases.

5.3.1 Morphological processes involved in gerund formation (Question 1)

1. There are six allomorphs ([b], [ú], [v́], [fú], [fú] and [bá]) of the GM in Nandome and none of them satisfies the elsewhere condition per the data. {-bú} is selected as the one representing the gerund marker though it is never realised in its full form. However there is evidence from tonal changes that {-bú} occurs in the deep structure. In surface structure the vowels /ú/ deletes after it drops the tone on the vowels in the root verb. Due to this verbs that are low tone in the root verb, gain high tone during gerund formation. There is also evidence that in certain conditions (which are discussed above) the consonant /b/ deletes to avoid unaccepted consonant sequencing.

2. Segmentally, the GM in Nandome is a split of what exists in some southern dialects of Dagaare like those spoken in Wa and Kalleo. {-bú} is realised in surface structures in the Waale and Kalleoba dialects of Dagaare. However, phonologically in Nandome there is a split where [b] and [ú] occur in respective and mutually exclusive environments.
3. Whenever a nasal consonant occurs in word medial position, nasal assimilation spreads optionally to the left and obligatorily to the right. For example **sámũ/sámũ/* sámú** ‘the act of washing softly’
4. When the GM, {-bú}, is affixed to a verb root the vowels in the verb root change to a high tone, for example **kàb** ‘burn’ **kábú** ‘burning’. However there are exceptions; when two gerunds are segmentally similar but differ in tone, the gerund whose verb root contains low tone vowels remain as low tone vowels. For example, **fúr** ‘sip’ and **fúró** ‘act of sipping’; **fúr** ‘open one’s eye widely’ **fúró** ‘act of opening one’s eye widely’

5.3.2 The internal structure of gerund phrases (Question 2)

5. The gerund phrase has a different internal make up from the normal noun phrase.

The gerund phrase: Def Sub Obj Adv Spec TAMP GM AdvT AdvP AdvM AdvI

The noun phrase: Art₁ NP₂ NM₃ NH₄ (pl) Adj₅ (pl)₆ Q₇ D₈ Int₉ Loc₁₀.

This confirms Chomsky’s (1970) claim that gerund phrases do not have the internal structure of a noun phrase.

6. There are 10 slots for modifiers in the gerund phrase (as outlined in 5 above). All these modifiers can occur to the left of the gerund. In the presence of HABIT the adverbs, if present, must occur to the right of the gerund.
7. Sentential adjuncts have a default position at the right side of the gerund whilst VP adjuncts occur to the left side of the gerund. This is how the gerund phrase is able to distinguish between sentential adjuncts and VP adjuncts (examples are in construction 11 and 18, chapter 4).
8. All underlying arguments to the left of the gerund are always in the genitive case and have respective theta roles. The underlying subject in a gerund phrase is in the genitive due to its adjacency with the possession marker in a DP. The underlying object is in the genitive because it is governed by possession after the lexical verb has moved. The adverbial arguments are in a genitive case because of their adjacency to the possession marker in a DP (refer to 25 in chapter 4).
9. The gerund marker in Nandome is a special instance of number which explains why the gerund cannot take number inflection. This is in line with Abney's (1987) and Bodomo's (2004) claim that gerunds are formed as a result of a number morpheme being affixed to the verb.
10. Gerund formation in Nandome provides evidence for Baker's (2005) Reference-Predication Constraint and the theory of lexical categories. Baker's (2005) view is that gerunds are formed through an exceptional phenomenon whereby a VP is dominated by a nominal inflection.

5.3.3 The sentential distribution of gerunds (Question 3)

11. Gerund phrases can occupy all the positions that a noun can occupy. This confirms Chomsky's (1970) claim that gerunds have similar external distributions as a noun phrase.
12. All forms of case assignments possible with nouns are possible with gerund phrases and the same applies to the theta roles. This further proves Chomsky's (1970) point that gerund phrases have similar external distribution as the noun phrase.

5.3.4 The semantic interpretation of gerund phrases (Question 4)

13. Whenever there is an adverbial(s) in the gerund phrase the negation or HABIT affects the adverbial (see 73 and 74 in chapter 4).
14. In the emphatic use of gerunds, the gerund becomes an argument to its own verb root. When the speaker's focus is on the doer, an explicit subject is used with the gerund as the object. When the focus is on the action, the subject is not explicitly mentioned; however the gerund becomes the passive subject (see 75b and 75c in chapter 4).
15. Gerunds can have a manner-of-action interpretation based on some conditions. The verb governing the gerund phrase should belong either to the semantic class of cognition or emotions. Where the verb belongs to the semantic class of emotional verbs, there must be an underlying subject in the gerund phrase that it governs (refer to 65 and 66 in chapter 4).

5.4 Conclusions Drawn from the Study

Based on the findings of the research we can make the following conclusions in relation to the preliminary observations made under section;

16. The gerund marker {bú} is not realised fully in speech, rather it is realised in speech as; [b], [ú], [v], [fú], [fú] or [bá]. However in some dialects such as Waali it is realised fully in speech.
17. The gerund phrase of Nandome gives structural distinction between VP adjuncts and sentential adjuncts. VP adjuncts can only occur to the left of the gerund whilst sentential adjuncts can occur to the right or left of the gerund.
18. The study of gerunds in Nandome explains structural ambiguity created by the position of genitive nouns during gerund formation. Gerund formation also provides information on how the ambiguity can be resolved.
19. Emphasis on the intensity of an action can be achieved by making a gerund an argument of the verb root it is formed from.

5.5 Contribution to Knowledge

The study contributes to knowledge in the following ways;

20. Hitherto this study, it is generally known in linguistics that the morpheme is always realised as an allomorph. But the study in Nandome shows that the gerund marker is not realised fully in allomorphy.

21. The study adds evidence to the fact that Nandome emerged from the southern dialects of Dagaare which are relatively older than Nandome.
22. The study explains how elements become part of the gerund phrase and why they follow the order which they follow.
23. The study explains an ambiguity that is caused by the positioning of a genitive noun during the formation of gerund phrases. Hitherto this study the ambiguity was unexplained. The study also further gives a way of resolving the ambiguity.
24. The study also gives a structural distinction between the VP adjuncts and the sentential adjuncts. Before this study the observable structural difference that exist is the fact that sentential adjuncts can switch position in a canonical sentence whilst VP adjuncts are static in position in the canonical sentence.
25. Communicating the intensity of an action can be achieved by making a gerund an argument to its root verb. Such a construction can be in the active or the passive.

5.6 Suggestions for Further Studies

One study cannot exhaust everything that is worthy of being known. Based on this, the following areas for further studies are suggested. These areas include;

26. Further studies into the involvement of sentential adverbs in the formation of gerund phrases in Nandome. The current study captured four different types of sentential adverbials and there could be more.

27. A detailed study into the sound system of Nandome. Such a study can take into consideration the claims made concerning nasality as a start point.
28. There should be a detailed study on nasality within the Nandome phonology. This will add up to the knowledge about nasality that this current study has provided.
29. It is also important to do a detailed study on the phonological realisations of the focus marker. There are several realisations of the focus marker.

5.7 Conclusion

In this chapter the areas touched on are: an overview of the study; a summary of the findings of the study; an outline of the conclusions drawn from the findings; what contributions the findings have to knowledge; the recommendations and suggestions of areas for further study. The preliminary observations are all found to be true. This implies that the study contributes to knowledge. This thesis was successfully conducted and all its research questions answered.

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APPENDIX A

Kitchen Conversation

A saab mob ba, a Dagaara poɔ fo me maal le a daŋ

à sááb.Pos mɔ́ b bá à dàgàrà púɔ́ fù mǐ máál lí à dàŋ
Def millet-pulp cock GM Intj Def Dagaaba inside 2SG always make Foc Def kitchen
‘the cooking of millet pulp among the Dagaaba you clean the kitchen’

A peero, labɛ ne zɛduli pɛgo ne al ne za

á píír ú láb é nǐ zèdúúl i’ pég ú nǐ à ál
Def sweep GM bowl PL.Pos and pot PL.Pos wash GM and Def those(non-
human)
nǐ zà
that all
‘the sweeping bowls’ and pots’ washing and all that’

Ama za wa e baare a paa tan a vuu gbowfu

ámá zà wá ì báárí à pǎǎ tá n à vǔǔ gbɔ́w fú
these all come do finish Def then reach Foc Def fire.Pos set GM
‘when all this is done then it gets to the setting of fire’

Fo na gbo na duuli a mii koɔ

fù nǎ gbɔ́w nǎ dɔ́úlí à mii kǔǔ
2SG will set Foc put-on-fire Def fermented water
‘you will set and put the fermented water on fire’

ε e a zɔ bin, kyɔɔbe a vuur ne a al ne za bin

é ì à zɔ̀ bìn kyɔ̀ɔbí à vúúr nǐ à ál ně zà b'ì'n
and do Def flour put prepare Def spatula and Def those that all put
'and fetch the flour down, prepare the spatula and all those things down'

a mii koɔ wa te piili a kab a, fo saa a zɔ kyir yang ε dam

à mii kũɔ́ wá tì pi'í'li' à ká b à fù sǎǎ à
Def fermented water come Asp start Def boil GM Def 2SG mix Def
zɔ̀ kyí'r yàŋ é dàm
flour pour put and stir
'when the fermented water starts the boiling you mix the flour, pour it and stir'

a buuli yaŋu ne a le

à bùùli` yáŋ ú nǐ á lè
Def poridging put GM BE Def that
'that is the act of making it poridge'

εkyε see fo saa a zɔ mane a mii koɔ na kaare a

ékyé séé fú sǎǎ à zɔ̀ mání à mii kũɔ́ nǎ káá ré à
but must 2SG mix Def flour tally Def fermented water BE boil Pgr Foc
'but you must mix the flour to tally with the fermented water that is boiling'

a zɔ wa zuo a na en taw

à zɔ̀ wá zùò à nǎ ì n tàw
Def flour come more 3-non-count will do Foc thick
'if the flour is more than it will be thick'

al me be wa ta a na en koole a le a saab na toɔ na kpaw

á l mĩ bé wá tá à nã ì n kǔǔlé à lè à
3-non-count if also NEG come reach Def BE do Foc light Def that Def
sááb nã tǔǔ nã kpáw
millet-pulp will can BE lumpy
'if it is not enough it will be light and that way the millet pulp can be lumpy'

fo na dam ε paw ber a na ka na leɛbe buulu

fù nà dām é pàw bèr à nà ká nã lièbì búúlú
2SG will stir and cover leave 3-non-count will boil Foc turn porridge
'you will stir and cover it will boil and turn to porridge'

a buulu wa karε a kyab ne a le

à búúlú wá ká ré à kyá b nĩ à lè
Def porridge come boil Pgr Def come-up GM BE Def that
'when the porridge is boiling that is the point of coming up'

fo na ɔŋ ne menε ber ε duuri a zɔ

fù nà ɔŋ nĩ mìně bér é dúúri à zǔ
2SG will fetch Foc some leave and put Def flour
'you will fetch some away and put the flour'

fo piili a damo fo na kyaa duure a zɔ a, a sadaa ne a le

fù pi'í'li' à dām ǔ fù nà kyàà dúúr é à zǔ á à sà
2SG start Def stir GM 2SG BE still put Pgr Def flour Foc Def millet-pulp
dáá nĩ á lè
male BE Def that
'you start the stirring whilst you are still adding the flour that is the thickest part of the millet pulp'

a sadaa wa te kare pure a nyɔgo na o nyɔg a lɛ

à sà dáá wá tì ká ré pùr è à ɲɔ́ gú nǎ ù ɲɔ́g à
Def millet-pulp male come Asp boil Pgr burst Pgr Foc catch GM BE 3SG catch Def
lè

that

‘when the thick part of the millet-pulp starts boiling and bursting that is the holding together’

fo na piili na ɔɲɛ a buulu lɛ yang. A yɔlo ne a lɛ

fù nǎ pí’í’li’ nà ɔ̀ɲ né à búúlú lé yàɲ né à yɔ́l ú nǎ á
2SG will start Foc fetch Pgr Def porridge again put Pgr Def dilute GM BE Def
lè

that

‘you will start fetching the porridge and putting it into the millet-pulp again that is the diluting’

foo wa te yɔle man a fo bɔɔba fo bɛr ɛ baa dam a kɔr

fù ù wá tì yɔ́lí mán à fù bɔ́ɔ́bá fù bér é báá dàm é kòr
2SG if come Asp dilute enough Def 2SG desire 2SG stop and finally stir and
fetch

‘if you dilute enough to your desire you stop stir finally and fetch out’

APPENDIX B

MARKET CONVERSATION

Dɔɔ menɛ ne sagr a yaani

Dɔɔ mìněě nĩ sàgr á yáání

Man PL 2PL agree Def morning

‘men respond to the greeting’

Abesong.

à bè sòŋ

Def BE well

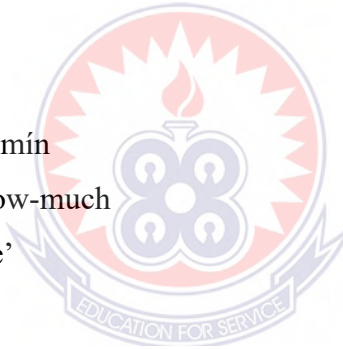
‘it is well’

a kamazeɛ en a ŋmen.

à kámáziè ì n àŋmín

Def. maize red do Foc how-much

‘how much is the red maize’



a laa en ‘twenty’

à láá ì n tùénti`

Def bowl BE Foc. twenty

‘the bowl is twenty’

ɛ a pela me e aŋmen

é à pilà mĩ ì àŋmín

what-of Def white also BE how-much

‘what of the white, it is how much’

a kamame za dab ne a le

à kámá mẽ zà dá b nĩ á lè
Def maize PL all buy GM BE Def that
'that is the price for all the maize'

A kaman yele a yuon n̄a p̄ã kp̄em̄e na zuo

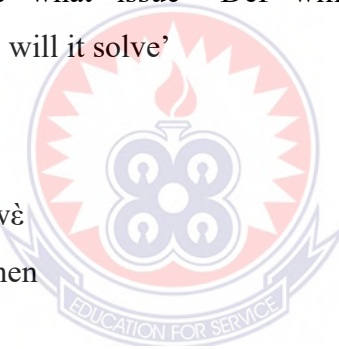
à kámáńń yélé á yùòn ñà p̄ã k̄p̄émé n̄á zùò
Def maize.Pos issue Def year this Emp difficult Foc than
'the maize issue this year is very difficult'

e na da na aa n̄a buu yel a na maale

ĩ n̄á dá n̄á àámá bũũ yél á n̄á máálí
1SG will buy Foc these what issue Def will solve
'I will buy these, what issue will it solve'

[tɔɔ da a yagm̄e w̄ɛ]

tɔɔ dà à yáŋm̄ẽ w̄ɛ
Intj buy Def plenty then
'then buy plenty'



a b̄ɛ t̄ɛr mwaa b̄ɛru b̄ɛ

à b̄ɛ t̄ɛr mwàà b̄ɛr ú b̄í
Def NEG have cut leave GM Foc
'is there no discount'

[A mwaa b̄ɛru t̄ɛ na lo w̄ɛ]

à mwãã b̄ɛr ú t̄ì n̄á ló n̄á w̄ɛ
Def cut leave GM 1PL will fall will then
'the discount then we will lose'

maa da a aana n loba me naa le we

mãã dá à ááńá ãĩ ló bá mĩ nã ǎ lè wé
1SG.if buy Def this 1SG.Pos fall GM also BE Def that then
'if I buy this then i will also lose'

yele anḡa yele na

jélé áńǎ yélé nǎ
issues these issue BE
'these issues are really issues'

A Kaman daaru kpeme na de, ekye a yi na kob zie

à kámáǎń dǎárú kpémě nǎ dé ékyé á yí n á kó b zǐé
Def maize price difficult Foc. really but Def out Foc Def farm GM.Pos place
'the price of maize is really high but it is from the farming'

Nye a kaman fu na ko bur ra, a doḡ me en gbeye ayi,

ně á kámáǎń fù nǎ kó búr rà à dó b mĩ ì n gbéé áyi'
look Def maize 2SG BE farm sow Foc Def wed GM always BE Foc times two
'look when you farm and sow maize the wedding is twice'

a foro ekye a aru bang wa, ekye ama za kuobe na fu na de

à fór ú wà ékyé à áró bǎń wà ékyé áma zà kúò bé nǎ fú
Def earthen GM come and Def harvest after come but these all farmer PL BE
2SG

nǎ dé
will take

'The earthening up comes before the harvest then comes but all these you will invite farmers'

Kamaan me kyãã me bɔɔyab kuolu yangu

Kámáãn mĩ kyãã nã bɔ ɔb kùòlú yàn ú

Maize also still BE want Pgr fertilizer.Pos put GM

‘maize is still always in need of fertilizer’

a endee be e me kyì a.

à éndéé bé í mē kyì á

Def really NEG do like millet Foc.

‘really they are not like millet’

Kamaan fũũ de be yang a kuolu ziri na a be maale ε

Kámáãn fũũ dé bé yàn á kùòlú zì`rì` nã à bé máál é é

Maize 2SG really NEG put Def fertilizer lie BE Def NEG maal Pgr Foc

‘maize if you just don’t give it fertilizer is a lie that is will produce’

a tēēsog na sang a na wε, a tēēsog sangu na.

à tīisóg nã sãŋ à nã wè à tīisóg sãŋ ú nã

Def land BE spoil Perf Foc BE then Def land spoil GM Foc

‘the lang is spoiled the spoiling of the land is the cause’

a bangyera be na yel ke te ta kyãã dɔmnε a yeng a, a kuolu ne a le.

à bányírà bé nã yèl ké tí tá kyãã dòmñě à yèŋ á

Def defecate 3PL have say Perf that 3PL NEG still defecate Pgr Def outside Foc

à kùòlú nĩ á lè

Def fertilizer BE Def that

‘the feaces they say we should not be defecating outside that is the fertilizer’

A nasa kuolu ama tēēsɔg sang na

à nàsà kùòlú áǎ tīísɔg sǎŋ nǎ

Def foreign fertilizer these land.Pos spoil.GM.Hab Foc

‘these foreign fertilizer is continuous spoiling of the land’

Milu na be bon za puɔ

mí'l ú nǎ bè bón zà púɔ

familiarize GM BE in thing all inside

‘the act of familiarizing is in everything’

mane a zεε, labε anu ε a pela labε ata

mánǐ à zìè lá bé ànùù é à pìlà lá bé átá

measure Def red bowl PL five and Def white bowl PL three

‘measure five bowls of the red maize and three bowls of the white maize’

milu na be bon za puɔ a tēēsɔg me mili na wε.

mí'l ú nǎ bè bón zà púɔ à tīísɔg mǐ mi'li' nǎ wè

familiarize GM BE in thing all inside Def land also familiarize have then

‘the act of familiarizing is in everything the land is used to the fertilizer’

A nasa kuolu ama bε yangu ku kyε bon ne.

à nàsà kùòlú áǎ bé yánj ú fù kùŋ kyé bón é

Def foreign fertilizer these NEG put GM 2SG FUT/NEG harvest thing Foc

‘Not applying foreign fertilizer you will not harvest a thing’

Alε dεb tɔtɔ, a fu laa bome manu bε veεle

álé dεb tɔtɔ à fù láá bóm é mán ú bé vìèl è

Ecl man too Def 2SG.Pos bowl.Pos thing PL.Pos measure GM NEG nice Foc

‘a man too the way your measuring things with a bowl is not good’

Fo ko me kyaa ɔŋ bilan dɔɔlii

fù kò mí kyǎǎ ɔŋ bílan dɔɔlì ì
2SG would also still fetch small add QM
'Will you not still fetch small and add?'

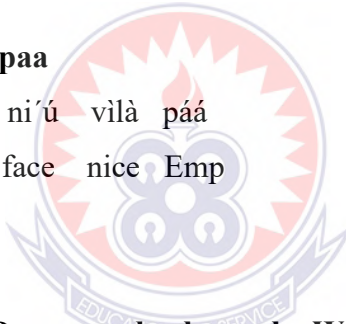
Bɛ mene labɛ maglu na a magle so bɛ me ɔŋ puɔ.

bè mìně lá bé mágl ú nǎ à máglì só bé
3PL some.Pos bowl PL.Pos mangle GM BE 3PLnon-human mangle cause 3PL
mí ɔŋ púɔ
always fetch add

'some of them is mangling that their bowls are mangled that is why they also fetch some to add'

A kaman tɛr re niun vela paa

à kámǎǎn tɛr rí ní'ú vilà páá
Def maize have Foc face nice Emp
'the maize has a nice look'



A te ka dem me pǎǎ sa a Daga pɛrɛ be, baa yel a Wa be

à tì ká dèm mí kyǎǎ sá à dàgà pɛrí bè bàá yèl
Def 3PL here people also still better Def Dagaare south there especially say
à wà bè
Def Wa there

'our place is also still better than the southern Upper West especially Wa there'

a bɛ Kaman dab dɛ bɛ tɛr e kaafu

à bè kámǎǎn dáb dé bé tɛr ì káá fú
A 3PL.Pos maize price just NEG have do see GM
'the price of their maize does not have to be touched'

APPENDIX C

Farm Conversation

e dang na wa a ka bimhara sang wa nyɛ

ĩ dán nǎ wà à ká bí'mààrà sán wà jě
1SG Asp have come Def here morning time come.Perf see Perf
'I came here in the morning and I came and saw'

dobaa yag a nyu kpatol kang.

dòbáá yág à ní' é kpántól kàn
pig digout.Perf Def yam PL mount one
'pig dug out one of the yam mounts'

e te bɔɔb be a yawfu ɛkyɛ vuo bɛ nyɛb ba.

ĩ tí bɔ́ ɔ́b bì à yág fú ɛ́kyé vùò bé jé b bá
1SG Asp want Pgr Foc Def digout GM but time.Pos NEG get GM BE
'I have been wanting to dig out but not getting time is the issue'

Bɛ daa bɛ yel a dobaa nyie yawfu.

bè dàá bé yél à dòbáá ní' é yáw fú
'3PL two-days-ago 3PL NEG say.Perf Def pig.Pos yam.Pos.PL dig-out GM
'two days ago did they not speak about the digging out of yam by the pig'

fu yel kɛ te dem bɛ na ɛ

fú yèl ké tí dèm bé nǎ èé
2SG say.Perf that 1PL own NEG BE Foc
'you said that it was not ours'

Fu naa e na te yag a sang ne za.

fù nǎǎ í ná tí yág à sán nǎ zà
 2SG should/have do Foc 1PL digout Def time that all
 ‘you should have made us dig out the yam all that time’

e paa bang ke a n̄a na a e be.

ĩ pǎǎ bàn ké à n̄á á nǎ í bí
 1SG Emp know that Def this 3PL non-human will do or
 ‘did I know that this is how things will happen or?’

Nye a kpantol na e le a, dobaa tugu naa n̄a.

n̄ě à kpántól nǎ ì lè á dòbáá túg ú nǎ ǎ n̄ǎ
 see Def mount BE do that Def pig Pos dig GM BE Def this
 ‘see how the mount is this is the pig’s digging’

Ne maa ere, bon vuure beba be me yaare e.

n̄ĩ màá ìrè bón vóúrì bé bá bé yààrí é
 2PL careful do Pgr thing living PL.Pos stay GM NEG unlikely Foc
 ‘you doing it carefull living things staying there is not unlikely’

A veel la te na yag a.

À viél lá tì nà yág á
 Def good Foc 3PL have dig-out Foc
 ‘it is good we have dug out’

A nyie amene piili bulu.

à n̄i’ é àminé pi’í’li’ búl ú
 Def yam PL some start Foc germinate GM
 ‘some of the yams have started germinating’

Ne maa bine a bon bule ta ere a wa kar ε.

nĩ màá bi'n ẽ à bón búl é tá ì ré á
 2PL careful put Pgr Def thing germinator PL should/NEG do Pgr 3PL-non-human
 wà kár é
 come break Foc
 ‘carefully be putting the germinated ones so as not letting them break’

Fo be nye a nyuur n̄a na e le a, n bang on kp̄e na.

fũ bé n̄ẽ à n̄úúr n̄ã n̄ã ì lè àá ì b̄an̄ ké o n kp̄è n̄ã
 2SG NEG see Def yam this BE do that Foc/QM 1SG know that mouse PL enter Foc.
 ‘have you not seen how this yam is? I know that mice entered’

A bie n̄a na kyãã be ter a ka tab a,

à bi' é n̄a n̄ã kyãã bé t̄er à ká tá b à
 Def child this BE still NEG have Def here.Pos reach GM Foc
 ‘this child still have not gotten here’

u be waar a nyie tuofu be.

ù bé wàà r à jí' é túó fú bí
 3SG NEG come Pgr Def yam PL carry GM or?
 Is he/she not coming for the carrying of the yam?

A buɔli be na buɔli yel ku u bono na u ere be ter a sããfu.

à búɔl ú bé n̄ã bùɔlì yèl kù ú bùn̄ n̄ã ú ìré bé t̄er à
 Def call GM 3PL BE call say give 3SG what BE 3SG do Pgr NEG have Def
 sãã fũ
 appear GM
 ‘when they called him/her what is he/she doing that his/her appearing here is still not possible’

wob a nyu bule al ku me en te bor.

wòb à jù búl é ál kù mǐ ìn tí bùr
pick Def yam germinate PL those give 1SG-object 1SG Asp sow
'pick the germinated yam for me to go and sow'

a seɔn tarɛ ne kpɛb

à sǐéɔn tá r é nǐ kpé b
Def rainy-season reach Pgr Foc enter GM
'the starting of the rainy season is closer'

o le ne nɔa na te waar ra.

ù lé nǐ nǎ nǎ tì wàà r rá
3SG Emp BE this BE Asp come Pgr Foc
'is he/she who is from afar coming'

bɛr a gangarɛ wobu ɛ mhag a nyuur ne ku me.

bèr à gàngàr è wób ú é mág à jùùr nǐ kù mǐ
stop Def stick PL.Pos pick GM and pick Def yam that give 1SG-object
'stop the picking of the sticks and pick that yam for me'

a nyie wobu, pob ba oo.

à jì' é wób ú pò b bá
Def yam PL.Pos pick GM, share GM BE Intj
'the picking of the yams is based on sharing'

A te gangarɛ ama pawfu na tɔ na ko tee.

à tì gàngàr è àmà páw fú nǎ tǔ nǎ kù tì í
Def 1PL.Pos stick PL these cover GM will work Foc give 1PL QM
'this our covering with sticks will it for us?'

A dun me na e me a bang ne yã kang.

à dú n mĩ nã ì mè á bàṅ nì yã kàṅ
Def animal PL also BE do like Def know Foc sense some
'animals are like they have some sense'

A dobaa nyɛ a ka yõ na tɛr a kangarɛ u na bang kɛ ka na bon be.

à dòbáá ñě à ká yõ nã tɛr á kàngàr è ù nã bán ké ká
Def pig see Def here alone BE have Def stick PL 3SG will know that here
nã bón bé
BE thing present
'when the pig sees that is only here that the sticks are it will know that this is where something is'

Lɛ a kpantolɛ amɛnɛ pawfu na e na.

lè à kpántólé ámině páw fú nã í nã
then Def mount some.Pos cover GM will do Foc
'then the covering of some of the mounts will do'

Te wob paw paw ne a kpantolɛ amɛnɛ.

tí wòb pàw pàw nĩ à kpántólé ámině
1PL pick cover cover Foc Def mount some
'Let us cover up some of the mounts'

Nyɛ sakpěě wa yel kɛ a waab ba a ka za me paale kũõ.

ñé sà kpěě wà yèl ké à wáá b bá à ká zà mĩ pààlí kũõ
see rain big come say that Def come GM Foc Def here all always full/Foc water
'if a big rain is to fall the whole of this place is always full of water'

A lɛ wa e a lɛ a me tuo a nyie.

à lé wá ì à lè à mĩ tùó nǎ ǎ̀ ji' é
Def if/that come do Def that 3PL always carry Foc Def yam PL
'if it happens that way it always carries the yams off'

A nyie tuofu yooro na a kpantol, me yoore.

à ji' é túbó fú yóúr ú nǎ à kpántól mĩ yóúrí
Def yam PL carry GM, dissolve GM BE Def mount always dissolve
'the carrying of the yams is dissolving that the mount dissolves'

ɛ a kũɔ̃ paa me tuo ne a nyie kyere ne.

é à kũɔ̃ pǎǎ́ mí túbó nĩ a ji' é kyé ré nĩ
and Def water then always carry Foc Def yam PL go Pgr with
'the water then always carry the yams and go away with them'

a nyie ne mune buosob bu me bɔɔb kũɔ̃ yaga.

à ji' é nĩ m̀nè bùó sób bú mĩ bɔ́ ɔ́b kũɔ̃ yágá
Def yam PL and rice which one BE always want Pgr water much
'yams and rice which of them always wants more water'

mune na nɔnɛ kũɔ̃ yaga

m̀nè nǎ nɔ̀nè kũɔ̃ yágá
Rice BE like water much
'is rice that likes much water'

Ne e a ka o e a mune kɔb zie wɛ.

nĩ í à ká ù í à m̀nè kɔ́ b zì' é wé
2PL do Def here 3SG do Def rice.Pos farm GM place then
'you make this place the place for rice's farming'

a mune na te kɔ, detaare ne deyã, ε bang leɛbe yang a nyie kob.

à m̀nè nã tí kɔ̀ d̀táárí nĩ̀ d̀jã́ é̀ bàŋ líébi yàŋ à jì'
Def rice BE Asp farm two-years-ago and last-year and then turn put Def yam
é kɔ̀ b

PL farm GM

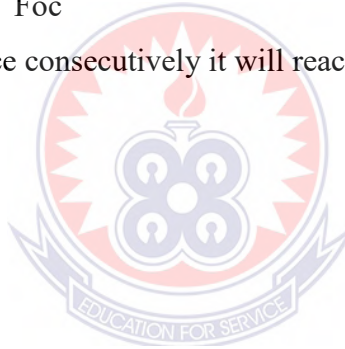
‘it is the rice that we farmed last two years and last year before turning to the farming of yams’

a mun kɔ suule taa a na tan sɔgɔ a mune kun le maale vela ε

à m̀n kɔ̀ súlí' t́áá à nã́ tá n sɔ́gɔ́ à m̀nè
Def rice farm GM Hab follow each-other Def will reach Foc point Def rice
k̀n lé máálí é

FUT/NEG again produce Foc

‘the repeated farming of rice consecutively it will reach a point’



APPENDIX D

STORY (Nabaglɛ ne o bie)

Ne kurekure zaa

nĩ kù ré kù ré zàá
2PL wait Pgr wait Pgr all
'All attention'

Te kure na

tì kù ré nã
1PL wait Pgr Foc
'We paying attention'

Nabaglɛ bɛ noo a pɔg tɛr pɔɔ

nàbáglɛ bɛ núú à pɔg tɛr pù
hunter NEG BE Def wife have stomach
'is it not a hunter, the wife had a pregnancy'

A pɔg na bɔɔb a dɔwfo a nabaglɛ yi kpɛ wɛɛ nɛn bɔb

à pɔg nã bɔ bɔ à dɔw fù á nàbáglɛ yi' kpɛ wɛɛ nɛn
Def wife BE want Pgr Def born GM Def hunter out enter bush meat.Pos
bɔ b
search GM

'when the wife was about giving birth the hunter went out into the bush to search for meat'

A kyɔle a kyɔlo wa te nyɛ wala bɔɔb a mwɛb

à kyɔlí' à kyɔl ú wà tì jé wálá bɔ bɔ à mwé b
Def roam Def roam GM come Asp see antelope want Pgr Def shoot GM
'did the roaming and came to see an antelope and planned for the shooting'

A wala zele ε o ta mwε o ε εkyε oo tuur a ul wala

à wálá zéli é ú tá mwè ù é ékyé úú tùùr à
Def antelope beg that 3SG NEG/present shoot 3SG Foc but 3SG follow Def
úl wálá

3SG antelope

‘the antelope begged that he should not shoot him but he should follow he the antelope’

A lε na u piili a wala tub bε te kpε koɔ gaw

à lè nǎ ù pi’i’li’ à wálá tú b bé tì kpè kǔǔ
Def that BE 3SG start Def antelope.Pos follow GM 3PL Asp enter.Perf water
gáw̃

cross

‘is that way he started the following of the antelope till they entered water and crossed’

bε wa tan tew kpεε kang nye nebe maale kyug

bè wà tá n téw̃ kpéé kàñ jé ní bé mààl é kyúg
3PL come reach Foc town big one see person PL make Pgr moon

‘they came to one big town and saw people building a moon’

A wala yang a nabaglε oo ze

à wálá yáñ à nábáglé úú zǐ

Def antelope make Def hunter 3SG sit

‘the antelope made the hunter sit’

A lε na a nabaglε ze εkyε a wala kyɔlekyɔle

à lè nǎ à nábáglé zǐ ékyé à wálá kyɔli’ kyɔli’

Def that BE Def hunter sit but Def antelope roam roam

‘that way the hunter sat but the antelope went round’

a bɛlɛl a kyug maalu kaa ε lɛ kyen a nabaglɛ zema zie

à bɛl bɛl à kyúg máál ú kàá é lè kyén à nàbáglɛ zĩ má
Def watch watch Def moon.Pos make GM see and again went Def hunter sit GM
zi'é

place

‘watched the making of the moon and went back to the hunter’s sitting place’

a wa yel ko a nabaglɛ ε a bie ul na be a ma pouri a ε ol no maale a kyug

à wà yèl kù à nàbáglɛ é à bi'é úl nã bè á mã
Def come tell give Def hunter that Def child that BE inside Def mother.Pos
púóri' à é úl nú mààl é à kyúg
stomach Foc that 3SG BE make Pgr Def moon

‘came and told the hunter that the child in the mother’s stomach is the one making the moon’

ε lɛ yel ko nabaglɛ ε polo na a bie poli yang o meɲa

é lè yèl kù nàbáglɛ é púl ú nã à bi'é púlì yàŋ ù mĩɲã
and again tell give hunter that vow GM BE Def child vow put 3SG self

‘and again told hunter that it is vowing that the child vowed on him/herself’

a bie bɛ baŋ kɛ a saa ne a nabaglɛ ε

à bi'é bé baŋ ké á sàà nĩ á nàbáglɛ é
Def child NEG know that Def father BE Def hunter Foc

‘the child did not know the father is the hunter’

ε paa manε korε a taabε ε oo na tun sər kyen tenzu

é pãã mán ě kù rè à táá bé é úú nã tú n sór
and then describe Pgr give Pgr Def colleague PL that 3SG will follow Foc road
kyén ténzú
go earth
'and was then describing to the colleagues that he/she will travel to earth'

εkyε ε ol wa kyen a be

ékyé é úl wá kyén á bè
but that 3SG come go Def there
'but that when he/she goes there'

a o pɔg deb bibir ε a banuo oo na de na yang zaw

à ù pɔg dé b bi'bi'r é à bá nũǝ úú nã dé nã
Def 3SG wife take GM day that Def friend.Pos fowl 3SG will take Foc
jàŋ zǎw
put pen
'the day for marrying a wife when they friend brings the fowl he will put it in the pen'

ε zie wa te kyen na oo paa ir a nuo ko

é zi'é wá tì kyén nã úú pãã ír à nũǝ kù
that place come Asp go BE 3SG then remove Def fowl kill
'that when it is late he/she will then pick out the fowl and kill'

εkyε ol wa ko a nuo ne aa bibir ne na o me na kpi

ékyé ól wá kù à nũǝ nẽ áá bi'bi'r nẽ nã ù mĩ nã kpi'
but 3SG come kill Def fowl that BE day that BE 3SG also BE die
'but that when he kills that fowl that day is the day he will die'

a wala yel ko a nabaglɛ ɛ ol ne a yir te tab ɛ a pɔg na dog na

à wálá yèl kù à nàbáglé é úl nǐ à yí' r tì tá b é
Def antelope tell give Def hunter that 3SG with Def house Asp reach GM that
à pɔg nǎ dúg nǎ
Def wife will born Foc
'the antelope told the hunter that on his reaching the house the wife will give birth'

A nabaglɛ kol te tarɛ a yir a pog dɔg

à nàbáglé kúl tì tá ré à yí' r à pɔg dɔg
Def hunter go Asp reach Pgr Def house Def wife born
'the hunter went home on reaching the house the wife gave birth'

A bɛ kuoli a bie o te baa te de a pog

à bé kúólí' à bí' é ú tí bàà tì dé à pɔg
Def 3PL rear Def child 3SG Asp grow Asp take Def wife
'they reared the child till he grew and till he took a wife'

A bɛ wa ne a banuo o sere de yang a zag pɔɔ

à bé wá nǐ à bá nǔɔ̀ ù sírí dé yàŋ à zàg pùɔ̀
Def 3PL come with Def friendship fowl 3SG actually take put Def pen inside
'they brought the friendship fowl and he actually took it and put it in inside the pen'

A pog kulu bibir, a wa ta a benɛ yago

à pɔg kúl ú bí' bí' r á wà tà à bíné yág ú
Def wife Pos marry GM day Def come reach Def benɛ Pos dance GM
'the day of marrying the wife when it got to the benɛ dancing'

A saa, a nabagle, o mag dakɔg te ze ne a zaw nuor

à sãã à nàbáglé ù m^hág dàkɔg tí zĩ nĩ à zàg núór
Def father Def hunter 3SG pick stool Asp sit with Def pen front
‘the father the hunter he picked a stool and sat in front of the pen’

A zie te kyere a saa kyaa ze

à zi'é tì kyé ré à sãã kyáá zĩ
Def place Asp go Pgr Def father still sit
‘it was getting later and the father still sat’

A bie me kyen te sogri ε oo bε ire kpeer be

à bi'é mĩ kyén tì sògrì é úú bé i'r é kpiè r bí
Def child always go Asp ask that 3SG NEG get-up Pgr enter Pgr or
‘the child always ask is he not getting up and going in or’

A saa yel kε a bene bε na yagr εkyε a zie me ere tolo a na so oo kyaa ze

à sãã yèl ké à biné bé nã yág r ékyé à zi'é mĩ ìr
Def father say Perf that Def bene 3PL BE dance Pgr and Def place also do
è túlú à nã só úú kyáã zĩ
Pgr heat Def BE cause 3SG still sit
‘theh father said it is the bene that they are dancing and because the weather is also hot that is why he is still sitting’

A lε na a e lεε a zie te bɔɔb veεfo

à lè nã à í lěě à zi'é tì bó ɔb víé fú
Def that BE Def do throughout Def place Asp want Pgr break GM
‘that was what happened throughout till breaking of day was about to’

A lɛ a biɛ na pole bin na bɛ wa nyɛ eb ba o wo

à lé à bi'ɛ nã pùlì bi`n nà bé wà jě í b bá ù wó
Def that Def child BE vow put BE NEG come get do GM Foc 3SG confess
'what the child vowed when it did not work he confess'

Wob o wo oo meɲa

wó b ù wó úú mìnǎ
Confess GM 3SG confess 3SG self
'he confessed himself'

A zano na sɛg kɛ te zane yi a ka ne a kaɲ bɛ na me wa dɔg

à zánǎ nã sɛg ké tí zánǎ yi' à kà nǎ à kàɲ bé nã mǎ
Def lesson BE worth that 1PL learn out Def here BE Def one 3PL BE always
wà dɔg
come born
'the lesson worth of us to learn from here is that when they give birth to some one'

O lɛ kpi a polo na o tɔɔ pole wan

ù lé kpi` à púl ú nã ù tɔɔ pùlì wá n
3SG again die Def vow GM BE 3SG maybe vow come with
'and he dies again is the vowing that the person may have vowed in his/her coming'

APPENDIX E

STORY (Gaa noɔr)

Ne kurekure zaa

nĩ kù ré kù ré zàá

2PL wait Pgr wait Pgr all

‘All attention’

Te kure na

tì kù ré nã

1PL wait Pgr Foc

‘We paying attention’

dɛb ne o pɔg lɛ bɛ bebe a bɛ tɛr dɔw ɛ

dɛb nĩ ù pɔg lé bé bébé à bé tɛr dɔw fú é

man with 3SG wife BE 3PL exist Def NEG have born GM Foc

‘man and wife are there without the ability of giving birth’

wa yi bibikaŋ bɛ kyen gaa pɛr nuor yangfo a te ko a nuor

wà yì bi'bi' kàŋ bé kyén gáá pɛr núɔr yáŋ u à tì kɔ̃ à núɔr

come out day one 3PL go ebony under mouth put GM Def Asp cry Def mouth

‘there came one day they went to under an ebony for vowing and there they vowed’

a gaa ko bɛ a dɔwfo

à gáá kù bé à dɔw fú

Def ebony give Perf 3PL Def born GM

‘the ebony gave them the ability of giving birth’

a bɛ dɔ̃g a bibir te baari wa dɔ̃g a bipebaara o e pogle

à bé dɔ̃g à bi` bi`ir tì báárí wà dɔ̃g à bi` pɛr bàará ù
Def 3PL born Def child PL Asp finish come born Def child under finisher 3SG

í pòg lè

do girl small

‘they finished giving birth to the children when they gave birth to the last child it was a female’

a pogle veelveɛl te zuo a ma nɔ̃nɛ a ol kaŋ a kyɛlɛ nɛ

à pòg lè viel viel tí zùò à mǎ nɔ̃n è à úl káw̃
Def girl small beautiful beautiful Asp than Def mother like Pgr Def 3SG than

à kyélé nɛ̃

Def rest that

‘the female was too beautiful and the mother likes her than the rest’

wa yi bibikaŋ bɛ kyen a nuor iru a gaa pɛr te ta

wà yí bi`bi` kàŋ bé kyén à nùór i`r ú á gàá pɛr tì
come out day one 3PL go Def mouth remove GM Def ebony under Asp
tá

reach

‘a day came they went to the ebony to fulfil the vow’

a e bɔ̃b ba a gaa bɔ̃b a pogle

à ì bɔ̃ b bá à gàá bɔ̃ ɔ̃b à pòg lè

Def do want GM BE Def ebony want Pgr Def girl small

‘it was that the ebony was showing interest in the girl’

a gaa yel kɛ a pogle no bɛ na iri a nuor

à gáá yèl kɛ á pòg lè nǔ bɛ nǎ i'r i' à núór
 Def ebony say that Def girl small BE 3PL will remove with Def mouth
 ‘the ebony said that it is the small girl they will used to fulfil the vow’

a bɛ kyɔɔbɛ tɛ baare ɛ kontonbili me be a taŋ zu

à bɛ kyɔɔbí tì báárí ɛ kòntɔmbi'li' mǐ bɛ à táw zú
 Def 3PL prepare Perf Asp finish and dwarfs also present Def mountain top
 ‘they prepared and there were also dwarfs on the top of the mountain’

a pogle yel kɛ a ol kob ba bɛ waar be

à pòg lè yèl kɛ à úl kú b bá bɛ wàà r bí
 Def girl small say that Def 3SG.Pos kill GM BE 3PL come Pgr or
 ‘the small girl said that is it her killing that they are preparing to or’

a ma yel kɛ a ol kob ba bɛ waar

à má yèl kɛ à úl kú b bá bɛ wàà r
 Def mother say Perf that Def 3SG.Pos kill GM BE 3PL come Pgr
 ‘the mother said it was her killing that they were preparing to’

a bie yel kɛ bɛ baŋ kɛ oo nɔnɛ wele pɛlbo

à bi'é yèl kɛ bɛ baŋ kɛ úú nɔn ẽ nǐ wélé pɛlb ú
 Def child say Perf that 3PL know that 3SG like Pgr Foc whistle.Pos blow GM
 ‘the child said they know she likes whistles blowing’

ɛ yel kɛ wele be na dion

ɛ yèl kɛ wélé bɛ nǎ di'ón
 and say Perf that whistle present Foc room
 ‘and said there is a whistle in the room’

ε a saa zɔ kpɛ te mag wa ko o oo pɛlbe ε kpi

é à sǎǎ zɔ kpɛ tì m^hág wà kù ù úú pɛlbì é kpi`
that Def father run enter Asp pick come give 3SG 3SG blow and die
‘that the father should run inside and pick it and come and give it to her to blow and die’

a saa zɔ kul a wele mago oo me lɛ bɛle a ma bɛr

à sàà zɔ kúl à wélé mág ú ùù mǐ lé bɛlì à mǎ bér
Def father run go Def whistle pick GM 3SG also again deceive Def mother leave
‘the father run inside to bring the whistle and she aslo deceived the mother away’

o yel ko a ma oo zɔ kpɛ ɔŋ koɔ wa ko o o nyu ε kpi

ù yèl kù à mǎ ùù zɔ kpɛ ɔŋ kǔǔ wá kù ù ù
3SG say.Perf give Def mother 3SG run enter fetch water come give 3SG 3SG
nú é kpi`
drink and die
‘she said the mother should run inside and fetch water and bring it to her to drink and die’

a ma kul a koɔ ɔŋu ε a saa wa ne a wele

à mǎ kú á kǔǔ ɔŋ ú é à sǎǎ wà nǐ à wélé
Def mother go Def water.Pos fetch GM and Def father come with Def whistle
‘the mother went home to fetch the water and the father brought the whistle’

o de a wele do zen a gaa zu ε pɛlbe

ù dé á wélé dó zǐ n à gáá zú é pɛl bé
3SG take.Perf Def whistle climb sit Foc Def ebony top and blow Pgr
‘she took the whistle and climbed and sat on the ebony and blowing’

[SONG]

a kontonbili na be a taŋ zu paa kpa yawfu

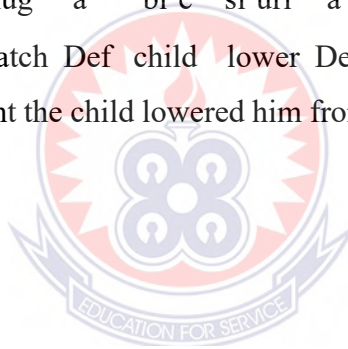
à kòntóm̃bi'li' nǎ́ bé à táw zú pǎǎ́ kpá yáw fú
Def dwarfs BE present Def mountain top then engross dance GM
'the dwarfs that were on the mountain top then engrossed in dancing'

a bie kyaa pèlɛ a wele yiele ne

à bi'é kyǎǎ́ pèl bé à wélé yi'él é nǐ
Def child still blow Pgr Def whistle sing Pgr with
'the child was still blowing the whistle and singing'

a kontonbili wa nyug a bie siuri a gaa zu kuli te kpèn a bɔo

à kòntóm̃bi'li' wà nùg à bi'é si'úri' à gǎá zú kúli' tì kpèn bòò
Def dwarfs come catch Def child lower Def ebony top go Asp enter hole
'the dwarfs came and caught the child lowered him from the ebony and took her home and entered a hole'



24. nyìb (tr)	nyìbó	having sex
25. puuli (tr/intr)	púúlú	folding
26. puuli (tr)	púúlú	swimming
27. dúg/dúw (tr)	dúgú/dúwfú	swimming
28. púg/púw (tr)	púgú/púwfú	whisking or beating
29. yélí (tr/intr)	yéló	winnowing
30. pùr (tr/intr)	púró	bursting
31. dièni (intr)	díénǔ	playing
32. pìr (tr/intr)	píró	cracking/peeling
33. nē (tr)	néb	stepping on
34. tuni (tr/intr)	tíínǔ	ironing
35. mwaa (tr/intr)	mwááfú	cutting
36. pé/ (tr/intr)	péló	peeling
37. kyɔg/kyɔw (tr)	kyóǔgú/kyóǔwfú	putting a container under something that is pouring
38. kyóg/kyów (tr)	kyóǔgú/kyóǔwfú	continuing an undertaking
39. sò (tr)	sób	bathing
40. vili (tr/intr)	vi'ílu	coiling
41. mhá (tr)	mháb	cracking nuts
42. mpà (tr/intr)	mpàb	slapping
43. mpag/mpaw (tr/intr)	mpágú/mpáwfú	picking
44. dúúri (tr)	dúúró	sprinkling something powdery
45. mír (tr)	míró	sprinkle something liquid
46. dúúre (intr)	dúúró	floating



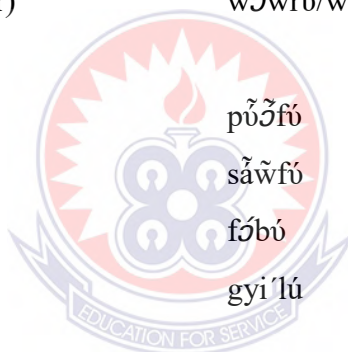
47. <i>dó/</i> (tr/intr)	<i>dóh</i>	stretching out something folded or cramped
48. <i>yér</i> (tr/intr)	<i>yéru</i>	spreading an object
49. <i>deni</i> (tr/intr)	<i>dénǔ</i>	straightening a bend object
50. <i>zég/zéw</i> (tr/intra)	<i>zégú/zéwfú</i>	raising something up
51. <i>dìèlì</i> (tr/intr)	<i>dìèlú</i>	drying
52. <i>yaa</i> (tr/intr)	<i>yááfú</i>	removing clothes
53. <i>yaari</i> (tr/intr)	<i>yááru</i>	picking something out of a liquid
54. <i>sè</i> (tr/intr)	<i>sèb</i>	sewing
55. <i>kpà</i> (tr/intr)	<i>kpáb</i>	locking
56. <i>kpà</i> (tr/intr)	<i>kpáb</i>	hammering on something
57. <i>kyóri'</i> (tr/intr)	<i>kyóru</i>	putting something on top of each other
58. <i>dǎglí/dǎwli</i> (tr/intr)	<i>dǎglú/dǎwlú</i>	putting something on top
59. <i>zìlì</i> (tr)	<i>zìlú</i>	putting someone on the seat
60. <i>gáálí</i> (tr)	<i>gáálú</i>	putt something someone to bed
61. <i>kú</i> (tr)	<i>kúb</i>	killing
62. <i>tùǎri</i> (tr/intr)	<i>túǎru</i>	pulling off tiny strips with the hand
63. <i>mǎ</i> (tr/intr)	<i>mǎb</i>	turn something rounding in a circular form
64. <i>mǎ</i> (intr)	<i>mǎb</i>	wrestling



65. pè (tr)	pèb	milking an animal
66. síl (tr/intr)	sílú	pouring liquid that has settled on top of solid
67. míl (tr/intr)	mílú	fencing an area
68. gbé (intr)	gbéb	getting blunt
69. bièl (tr)	bíélú	cutting a tiny piece of an object
70. kpír (tr/intr)	kpírú	breaking off a small part of an object
71. puo (tr/intr)	púófú	perforating
72. wèl (tr/intr)	wélú	splitting something into pieces
73. wèlì (tr/intr)	wèlú	scooping the top part of a liquid
74. zug/zuw (tr/intr)	zúgú/zúwǎfú	suddenly pouring in a large quantity
75. fug/fuw (tr)	fúgú/fúwǎfú	fanning oneself or fire
76. dè (tr/intr)	déb	cutting one nails
77. pèpl (tr)	péplú	blowing air onto something
78. gǎṅ (tr/intr)	gǎṅfú/gǎṅwǎfú	bending a rigid item
79. gbòl (tr)	gbólú/gbolú	using a stick to push something in a hole
80. gból (tr/intr)	gbólú	searching thoroughly
81. gár (tr/intr)	garó	placing an object across another or a distance
82. gùr (tr/intr)	gúrú	bending severely



83. kyur (tr/intr)	kyúró	items falling through the bottom by losing the fastening
84. fùr (tr/intr)	furú	covering a small opening by fixing a well fit item
85. mól (tr/intr)	mólú	letting something sticky touch other things
86. zè (tr)	zéb	smearing
87. zèb (tr)	zebú	fighting
88. mĩĩ (tr)	mĩĩ'fú	shaking
89. wówrí/wógrí (tr/intr)	wówró/wógró	shaking the content in a container
90. pũž (intr)	pũžfú	getting rotten
91. sãw̃ (tr/intr)	sãw̃fú	spoiling
92. fób (tr)	fóbú	caning/whipping
93. gyi'l (tr)	gyi'lú	a group fighting one entity
94. gyi'l (tr)	gyi'lú	gathering round the place where there is an event
95. i'r (tr/intr)	i'ró	removing
96. furu (tr/intr)	fíró	tightening
97. nĩě (tr/intr)	nĩěfú	nipping an object in soil or any other substance
98. yúl (intr)	yúlú	dripping
99. ɔ̃ŋ/ɔ̃w̃ (tr/intr)	ɔ̃ŋú/ɔ̃wfú	fetching



100. kòr (tr/intr)	kòró	fetching in large quantities
101. búr (tr/intr)	búró	soaking something
Body process verbs		
102. fùr (tr/intr)	fùró	opening one's eye wide
103. dúr (tr)	dúró	urinating
104. nyè (tr)	nyèb	shitting
105. nyìr (tr/intr)	nyíró	showing your teeth
106. là (tr)	láb	laughing
107. kyìr (intr)	kyírú	sneezing
108. kyír (tr)	kyírú	spiting
109. kòr (tr)	kòró	coughing
110. wél (tr/intr)	wélor	digesting
111. bìèrì (tr/intr)	bìèró	being sick
112. kpèw̃/kpèŋ (intr)	kpèw̃fú/kpèŋú	gaining strength or recover
113. haní (tr/intr)	hánú	sweating
114. vuvrí (tr/intr)	vúvror	breathing
115. tãã (tr/intr)	tããfú	elongating
116. denĩ (tr)	dénũ	clearing throat
117. kààrì (tr)	kááror	clearing mucus from one's throat
118. fírri (tr)	fíror	blowing one's nose
119. kũ (intr)	kób/kõn	crying
120. gúr (tr)	gũʒ/gúror	sleeping
121. m ^h él (intr)	m ^h élor	collapsing
122. gi'éri' (intr)	gi'érú	belching
123. hi'éri' (intr)	hi'érú	yawning

124. hẹ̀w (intr)	hẹ̀w fú/hẹ̀gú	hiccupping
125. yàré (intr)	yáb	being mad
126. yòṛì (intr)	yóṛú	loosing enthusiasm
127. kpi` (tr/intr)	kúú	dying/withering
128. tíw̃/tìṅ (tr)	tíw̃ fú/tìṅú	getting choke
129. dòw/dòg (tr/intr)	dòw fú/dògú	giving birth
130. màw/màg (intr)	màw fú/màgú	shivering
131. máw/mág (tr/intr)	máw fú/mágú	designing a smock

Motion verbs

132. kyén (intr)	kyénú	walking/going
133. wà (intr)	wááb	coming
134. si'w/si'g (intr)	si'w fú/si'gú	descending
135. lò (intr)	lóbá	falling
136. zò (intr)	zóbá	running
137. íáw/íág (intr)	íáw fú/íágú	flying
138. tól (tr/intr)	tólú	passing
139. lièbì (tr/intr)	líébú	turning
140. tù (tr)	túb	following
141. sẹ̀b (tr/intr)	sẹ̀bú	dancing
142. màmáb (intr)	màmábú	struggling through mud
143. gbòngbóri' (intr)	gbòngbóru	moving in a hasty unstable manner through the dark
144. gyòngyóri' (intr)	gyòngyóru	wobbling in motion
145. gáw̃/gàṅ (tr)	gáw̃ fú/gàṅú	overtaking
146. fú (tr/intr)	fúb	speeding
147. vú (tr)	vúb	crawling
148. vú (intr)	vúb	dragging

149. tàw/tàg (tr/intr)	táwǎfú/tágú	shifting
150. dáá (tr)	dááfú	pushing
151. vír (tr)	vírú	pulling
152. páw/pág (intr)	páwǎfú/págú	hurrying
153. kúl (intr)	kúlú	going home
154. tùòrì` (tr)	túóru	meeting
155. píl (tr/intr)	pílú	unexpectedly going without returning
156. gbi'ni' (tr/intr)	gbi'nũ	slowing down
157. nìrì (tr/intr)	nírú	dodging
158. kyól (tr/intr)	kyólú	passing a point
159. zòm (tr/intr)	zómũ	riding
160. gyór (intr)	gyórú	jumping little by little

Transfer/possession verbs

161. tìr (tr/intr)	tírú	delivering something
162. kò (ditr)	kòb	giving
163. dé (tr)	déb	receiving
164. tùr (tr/intr)	túrú	thrusting an item forward
165. dà (tr/intra)	dàb	buying
166. zú (tr)	zúb	stealing
167. fáá (tr)	fááfú	snatching/seizing
168. só (tr)	sób	owning
169. dì (tr)	díb	owing
170. tèr (tr)	térú	having
171. jě (tr)	jéb	getting
172. péw̃/péŋ (tr)	péw̃fú/péŋú	lending/borrowing
173. zèlì (tr)	zéló	begging
174. pǒ (tr)	pób	dividing/sharing

175. kyɛrì (tr)	kyiérú	contributing money or possessions
176. piiri' (tr)	pi'irú	chancing a desirable item
177. dùòrì (tr/intr)	dùòrú	putting things in groups for sale
178. yá (tr/intr)	yáb	paying
179. kaa-i' r (tr)	kaa-i' rú	choosing
180. túǒlí (tr)	túǒlú	sending something through someone to another
181. fór (tr/intr)	fóru	removing from a lot
182. tǒ (tr)	tǒb	to push hastily
Cook		
183. dúg (tr/intr)	dúgú/ dúwǔ	cooking
184. ká (intr)	káb	boiling
185. kàb (tr/intr)	kábú	burnting
186. dúwǔlì/dúglì (tr/intr)	dúwǔlú/dúgú	puting on fire
187. kyĩĩ (tr/intr)	kyĩĩfú	frying
188. sě (tr/intr)	séb/sěm/	roasting
189. wáálí (tr/intr)	wáálú	steaming
190. fù (tr/intr)	fúb	par boiling
191. ǒ (tr/intr)	ǒb/ǒm	smoking
192. ùr (tr/intr)	ùrú	trapping in heat
193. úr (tr/intr)	úrú	scrapping the outside of a pot
194. kò (tr/intr)	kòb	scrapping the under of a pot



217. ár (tr/intr)	árú	harvesting maize
218. pór (tr/intr)	pórú	harvesting something pluggable
219. fór (tr/intr)	fórú	earthening up
220. vǔǔ (tr/intr)	vǔǔfú	uprooting
221. kyór (tr/intr)	kyórú	watering
222. lóní (tr/intr)	lónú	sowing again after failure germinate
223. búl (intr)	búlú	germinating
224. l ^h à (intr)	l ^h áb	a seed splitting during germination
225. túw/túg (tr/intr)	túwǔ/túgú	harvesting tuber crops/dig
226. kpír (tr/intr)	kpírú	early harvesting of tuber crops
227. tòm (intr)	tǔmǔ/tómǔ	shooting new branches or leaves
228. fál (tr/intr)	fálú	making mounds
229. pù (intr)	pùb	flowering
230. wǔ (intr)	wób/wóm	bearing fruit (outside soil eg mango)
231. nyè (intr)	nyèb	bearing fruits (inside soil eg yam)
232. gbíélí (intr)	gbíélú	a plant bending to one side
233. gbèèni (tr/intr)	gbéénú	plugging vegetable leaves



Eat

234. dǔ (tr)	dùb	biting
235. òb (tr)	òbú	chewing
236. vól (tr)	vólú	swallowing
237. jú (tr)	júb	drinking
238. lěm (tr)	lěmǔ	tasting
239. ènì (tr)	ènú	sucking
240. mǒw/mǒg (tr)	mǒwfú/mǒgú	eating something powdery
241. fúr (tr)	fúró	sipping
242. jǐĩ' (tr)	jǐĩ' fú	biting a very small quantity with the front teeth
243. túúli' (tr)	túúlu	feeding one with liquid food
244. sù (tr)	súb	feeding one with solid food
245. lów/lóg (tr/intr)	lówfú/lógú	eating everything one was served
246. dì (tr/intr)	díb	eating
247. nyà (tr)	nyáb	eating hastily and hungrily
248. nyǎǎ (tr)	nyǎǎfó	fetching a big morsel of solid food
249. zà (tr)	záb	eating food in haste
250. kyíni (tr/intr)	kyíniú	using one's finger to wipe a plate after eating



Clean

251. pégw/pég (tr/intr)	pégwú/pégú	washing
252. mi`i`li` (tr/intr)	mi`i`lú	cleaning a surface with a cloth
253. fòw/fòg (tr/intr)	fòwǔ/fògú	scrapping with a sponge
254. sów/sóg (tr/intr)	sówǔ/sógú	rinsing
255. sãm (tr/intr)	sãmǔ	washing lightly
256. úr (tr/intr)	úrú	washing severely
257. pìrì (tr/intr)	pìrú	sweeping
258. mwór (tr/intr)	mwórú	squeezing a cloth during washing
259. mwòwri/mwògri (tr/intr)	mwówrú/mwówrú	squeezing water out of a cloth
260. và (tr/intr)	váb	using a cloth to lash off dust
261. dú (tr/intr)	dúb	scrapping
262. yàglì (tr/intr)	yáglú	hunging
263. dièli (tr/intr)	dièlú	drying
264. l ^h òr (tr/intr)	l ^h óró	putting in water with the intend of washing
265. lim (intr)	li`mú	fully submerging in water
266. wóbrì/wórbì (tr/intr)	wóbrú/wórbú	wiping something off a surface with a wet hand

Ambient verbs

267. tól (tr/intr)	tólú	heating
268. mháá (intr)	mhááǔ	cooling

269. níl (tr/intr)	níló	melting/causing to melt
270. kò (intr)	kób	drying
271. gúr (intr)	gúró	liquid solidifying
272. jì'éli' (tr/intr)	jì'élú	being a little burnt by heat
273. dì (tr/intr)	dí	burning

Posture

274. àr (intr)	àrú	standing
275. zĩ (intr)	zĩmá	sitting
276. dí'eli' (tr)	dí'éló	leanv
277. gǎ (intr)	gááb	lying
278. gũũ (intr)	gũũfú	bending down
279. géŋ/géw̃ (intr)	géŋú/géw̃fú	stretching out
280. lò (intr)	lóbá	falling
281. i`r (intr)	i`rú	getting up
282. dǔm (intr)	dǔmũ	squatting



Mind related

283. tí'érí (tr)	tí'érú	remembering
284. tí'érí (intr)	tí'érú	thinking
285. bàŋ/báw̃ (tr)	báŋú/báw̃fú	knowing
286. wùl (tr)	wúlú	teaching/showing
287. pièrì (tr)	pièrú	analysing
288. yi`i`ri` (tr)	yi`i`rú	forgetting
289. zání (intr)	zánú	dreaming
290. bó (tr)	bób	wishing/wanting
291. nǔnẽ (tr)	nǔnmú	liking/loving

292. kyi'í' r (tr/intr)	kyi'í' rú	hating/forbidding
293. sàg/sàw (tr)	ságú/sáwǎ	agreeing
294. zàgrì/zàwri (tr)	zágrú/záwrú	refusing
295. pu`o`ri` (intr)	púórú	praying
296. jág/nyáw (intr)	jágú/nyáwǎ	going wild
297. bilè (tr)	bílú	planning evil for each other
298. gyìèlè (tr)	gyíélú	staring at someone with evil intention
299. fùg/fùw (tr)	fúgú/fùwǎ	frightening
300. mǎ (intr)	mǎb	doing well
301. iaŋ/iaǎ (tr)	íáŋú/íáǎǎ	respecting

Speech verbs

302. bùòlì (tr)	búǎ	calling
303. èr (intr)	érú	speaking
304. yèl (tr)	yélú	telling
305. pòr (tr/intr)	pòrú	mentioning
306. sòòrì` (tr/intr)	sóórú	asking/enquireing
307. yi`éli` (tr)	yi`élú	singing
308. tàni (tr)	tànú	shouting
309. wáálí (tr)	wáálú	whispering
310. mání (tr/intr)	mánú	describing/explaining
311. súólí` (tr)	súólú	narrating a story
312. tú (tr)	túb	insulting
313. pùòrì` (tr)	púórú	greeting



Sensation verbs

314. ɲě (tr)	ɲéb	seeing
315. kàà (tr)	kááfú	looking/watching
316. bél (tr)	bélú	looking
317. gyír (tr)	gyírú	looking
318. wǒ (tr)	wób	hearing
319. kyèlì (tr)	kyelú	listening
320. tǒ (tr)	tǒb	touching
321. ɲũũ (intr)	ɲũũ	smelling
322. ɲùùrì` (tr)	ɲúúró	getting the smell of something
323. fùǒrí (tr)	fùǒró	massaging/caressing
324. kàb (tr)	kábú	burning
325. vǎàrì (tr)	vǎáró	getting burnt by hot liquid
326. fòr (tr)	fóró	burning to the extent of peeling one's skin
327. wǒgli/wǒwli (tr/intr)	wǒgló/wǒwló	burning by steam
328. èb (tr)	ébú	pinching with figures
329. kyǒr (tr)	kyǒró	stabing/pinching
330. ǒǒb (tr/intr)	ǒǒbú	paining
331. ɲì'ì'ni` (tr/intr)	ɲì'í'ńũ	feeling the impact of tickling
332. ɲílé (intr)	ɲílú	shining
333. zàŋ/zàw̃ (tr/intr)	zàŋǒ/zàw̃fú	itching/scratching
334. mǒr (tr/intr)	mǒró	swelling
335. tèlbì (tr)	télbú	to pressing something with fingers

Measure

336. mǎnĩ (tr/intr)	mánú	measuring
337. yààrì (intr)	yááró	enlargening
338. dúóri' (tr/intr)	dúórú	increasing
339. si' gri'/si' wri' (tr/intr)	si' grú/si' wrú	reducing
340. yèlì (tr/intr)	yèlú	widening
341. bàà (intr)	bááfú	growing
342. kèrì (intr)	kérú	growing tall
343. tá (intr)	táb	growing fat
344. kòṅ (intr)	kóṅũ/kóũfú	growing slim
345. pààlì (tr/intr)	páálú	filling
346. gbòg/gbòw (intr)	gbògú/gbòwfú	reducing
347. gàn/gàw̃ (tr/intr)	gànũ/gàw̃fú	being more than (countable)
348. zùò (tr/intr)	zúófú	being more than (non-count)

**Building verbs**

349. bà (tr/intr)	báb	erecting
350. kyóri' (tr/intr)	kyórú	putting things on top of each other
351. kpà (tr/intr)	kpáb	roofing
352. kpà (tr/intr)	kpáb	hammering
353. yàg/yàw (tr/intr)	yágú/yáwfú	removing the roofing
354. fób (tr/intr)	fóbú	building a mud wall
355. mè (tr/intr)	méb	building
356. pi`li` (tr/intr)	pi`lú	to roofing with grass

Locatives

357. àṅ/àw̃ (tr/intr)	íáṅũ/íáw̃fú	puting inside
358. bìn (tr/intr)	bínó	putting down
359. gbõ (tr/intr)	gbób/gbõm	piling/heaping
360. tíě (tr/intr)	tíěfú	pointing towards
361. kyààrì (intr)	kyáárú	facing
362. m ^h á (intr)	m ^h áb	gathering

Natural process verbs

363. fú (tr/intr)	fúb	blowing of air
364. nígrí/nyíwrí (intr)	nígrú/nyíwrú	lightening during rain
365. tàni (intr)	tánó	thundering during rain
366. jùr (intr)	júrú	draining into the soil
367. mààli (tr)	mááló	bless sun
368. pùr (intr)	púrú	the sun shining
369. sób (intr)	sóbú	night falling
370. viè (intr)	viééfú	day breaking
371. í'r (tr)	í'ró	being created (by God)
372. wà (intr)	wááb	raining
373. kpè (intr)	kpé'b	a season coming in
374. yi' (intr)	yi'b	a season going out



APPENDIX G

FOCUS GROUP DISCUSSION GUIDE

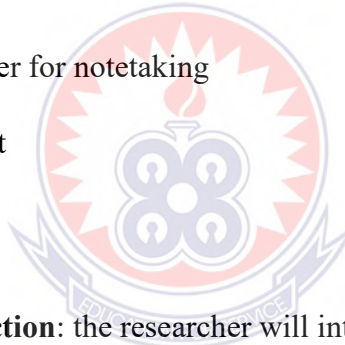
RESEARCH TOPIC: FORMATION AND USAGE OF GERUNDS IN NANDOME
NANDOME

MARCH/APRIL, 2016

SIX PARTICIPANTS (3 MALE: 3 FEMALE)

Materials and supplies for focus group discussion

- The focus group discussion guide for the facilitator
- Recorder
- Pen and jotter for notetaking
- Refreshment



ITENARY

Welcome/Introduction: the researcher will introduce himself

- Welcoming/thanking participants
- Who the researcher is
- Essence of the focus group discussions
- What will be done with the information (assurance of confidentiality)
- Time allowed for questions

Make them understand what the exercise is about through examples and also elicit examples from them to test understanding

Topics for discussion (1st session)

- Gerund forms of some sampled verbs use in simple sentences
- Some special gerund formation processes use in simple sentences
- Continue to elicit gerundial sentences from them, rephrase the sentences to elicit what you want to find out. Targeted areas include;
 - Which TAM particles occur in in gerund phrases
 - Gerund phrases formed from SVCs
 - Gerund phrases formed from double object construction
 - Used of sentential adverbials in gerund phrases

Topics for discussion (2nd session)

- Welcome/revision with examples from them
- Continue to elicit gerundial sentences from them
- Rephrase their gerundial sentences in a way that will elicit reaction on the targeted areas
- Create scenarios that will call on them to rephrase their sentences to denote the scenario given. Make them understand they are to describe the scenario using a gerundial construction. Targeted areas include;
 - Denoting habit in gerund phrase
 - Denoting manner of action in gerund phrases
 - Interpreting negation in gerund phrases
 - Placing emphasis in gerundial constructions