

Cover Page



Universiteit Leiden



The handle <http://hdl.handle.net/1887/20681> holds various files of this Leiden University dissertation.

Author: Orkaydo, Ongaye Oda

Title: A grammar of Konso

Issue Date: 2013-03-28

4. Nouns

This chapter is about nominal morphology. Here, I describe gender, number, plurality in adjectives, semantic gender distinction, diminutive, indefinite reference and indefinite-specific morphemes and definite reference. I also deal with demonstrative suffixes, numerals, nominal derivation, case and compounding.

4.1. Gender

4.1.1. Gender of nouns

There are three interacting notions with regard to gender in nouns. First, we have the notion of plural gender versus non-plural (masculine and feminine) gender; secondly, we have the notion of semantic plurality; and thirdly, pluralive versus singulative. The distinction plural gender versus non-plural masculine and feminine gender is based on the concord between a noun in the subject function and the verb of the same sentence. As will be shown later, the distinction of gender agreement markers on the verb is realised only when nouns serve as non-focused subjects. With regard to semantic plurality, we see that plural gender does imply semantic plurality in some cases but not in all, and that the non-plural genders can have plural interpretations. To avoid the confusion that might arise from the use of terms, I use the term ‘plural’ in the context of agreement on the verb whether the subject is numerically single or multiple. I also use the terms “singulative” and “pluralive” for derived forms of nouns, and “base” for the form on which the derivation (singulative or pluralive) is based. Moreover, I use the terms “single” and (following Hayward (1981)) “multiple” for the number values of nouns, and the terms, “masculine”, “feminine” and “plural” for the values of gender.

Like other Cushitic languages, Konso shows gender, not number, agreement in the subject inflection on the verb. And gender has the values M(asculine), F(eminine) and P(lural), as is not uncommon for Cushitic languages. The third value for gender agreement is P(lural) because that is the ending on the verb. I use the abbreviation M/F in those gender agreement markers that do not distinguish between M and F. The head noun may be either M or F.

Thus, according to gender agreement on the verb, we have nouns that trigger the same agreement as the third person male subject (marked by the suffix *-ay*), those that trigger the same agreement as the third person female subject (marked by suffix *-t*) and those that trigger the same agreement as the third person plural subject (marked by the suffix *-n*).

Most nouns which are semantically specified for sex as female trigger the third person feminine gender agreement marker *-t* on the verb as shown in (1):

- (1a) **inantasi? ?ide?ti**
inanta-si? *i = dey-t-i*
 girl-DEF.M/F 3 = come-3F-PF
 ‘The girl came.’
- (1b) **talteetasi? ?ipi?ti**
talteeta-si? *i = pi?-t-i*
 she-goat-DEF.M/F 3 = fall-3F-PF
 ‘The she-goat fell.’

Certain nouns that are semantically female have masculine gender agreement. Her is an example:

- (2a) **okkattasi? ?ipi?ay**
okkatta-si? *i = pi?-ay*
 cow-DEF.M/F 3 = fall-PF[3M]
 ‘The cow fell.’
- (2b) **arpasi? ?idalay**
arpa-si? *i = dal-ay*
 elephant-DEF.M/F 3 = give.birth-PF[3M]
 ‘The elephant gave birth.’

Nouns that are semantically specified for sex as male trigger third person masculine gender agreement on the verb as in (3).

- (3a) **χormasi? ?ipatay**
χorma-si? *i = pat-ay*
 ox-DEF.M/F 3 = get.lost-PF[3M]
 ‘The ox got lost.’
- (3b) **hamiyaasi? ?ideyay**
hamiyaa-si? *i = dey-ay*
 boy-DEF.M/F 3 = come-PF[3M]
 ‘The boy came.’
- (3c) **lahai? ?ipatay**
laha-si? *i = pat-ay*
 ram-DEF.M/F 3 = get.lost-PF[3M]
 ‘The ram got lost.’

All nouns with plural suffixes have the plural gender agreement -n on the verb. For example, the suffix -wwaa in **harreewwaa** ‘donkeys’ in (4a), -daa in **χormadaa** ‘oxen’ in (4b) and -dda in **lahaddaa** ‘rams’ in (4c) are plural suffixes and, thus, impose the plural gender agreement marker -n on the verb.

- (4a) **harreewwaasini? ?ipatin**
harreewwaa-sini? *i = pat-i-n*
 donkeys-DEF.P 3 = get.lost-PF-P
 ‘The donkeys got lost.’
- (4b) **χormadaa-sini? ?ipatin**
χormadaa-sini? *i = pat-i-n*
 oxen-DEF.P 3 = get.lost-PF-P
 ‘The oxen got lost.’
- (4c) **lahadfaasini? ?ipatin**
lahadfaa-sini? *i = pat-i-n*
 rams-DEF.P 3 = get.lost.PF-P
 ‘The rams got lost.’

There are certain nouns which are semantically plural but have a masculine or feminine gender agreement on the verb. For instance, *iskatta* ‘women’ in (5a) is semantically plural but occurs with a masculine gender marker on the verb. In the same fashion, *kuyleeta* ‘the Ts’amakko’ in (5b) is semantically plural but occurs with a feminine gender agreement -t on the verb.

- (5a) **iskatta-si? ?idey-ay**
iskatta-si? *i = dey-ay*
 women-DEF.M/F 3 = come-PF[3M]
 ‘The women came.’
- (5b) **kuyleetasi? ?ide?ti**
kuyleeta-si? *i = dey-t-i*
 Ts’amakko-DEF.M/F 3 = come-3F-PF
 ‘The Ts’amakko came.’

Most nouns that are semantically undetermined for sex require masculine gender agreement, feminine gender agreement or plural gender agreement. The gender assignment cannot be predicted by the semantics of the nouns. Here are some examples:

- (6a) **çoyrasi? ?içepay**
çoyra-si? *i = çep-ay*
 tree-DEF.M/F 3 = break-PF[3M]
 ‘The tree was broken.’
- (6b) **harreetasi? ?içepti**
harreeta-si? *i = çep-t-i*
 donkey-DEF.M/F 3 = be.broken-3F-PF
 ‘The donkey was broken.’

- (6c) **filaasini?** ?iʒepin
filaa-sini? *i = ʒep-i-n*
 comb-DEF.P 3 = be.broken-PF-P
 ‘The comb was broken.’

From our discussion so far, it is apparent that nouns fall into three groups based on their subject agreement on the verb: those with M(asculine), F(eminine) and P(lural) gender agreement. The three gender values to some degree follow the semantics of nouns but for quite a number of nouns the gender value cannot be predicted by semantics. Semantically plural nouns may trigger M, F or P agreement, and semantically singular nouns may trigger P agreement. Singular and plural pairs of nouns can have different gender values.

Agreement on the adjective shows that gender and number are separate agreement systems. On the adjective number is marked by reduplication (for plural), see 3.2 above, and P(lural) gender is marked by a suffix, see 4.1.4. Nouns that are plural in number need not be P(lural) in gender and nouns that are P(lural) in gender are not always plural in number. This state of affairs is confusing for those not acquainted with Cushitic languages. Using a different term for the third value of gender would be misleading because the agreement does coincide with that of third person plural ‘they’.

When there are suppletive verb roots for singulative and pluractional (see 6.2.5 for pluractionality), nouns that have a singulative notion occur with singulative verb roots, and those that have a plurative notion occur with pluractional verb roots. Nouns with plurative notion may differ in their gender agreement on the verb. For example, if we take, as in (7), the nouns **kawwaadaa** ‘the Gawwada’, **kaahuta** ‘Kaaho villagers’ and **χoyraa** ‘the Burji’ and the suppletive verb roots **keer-** ‘to run[SG]’ and **hir-** ‘to run[PL]’, we see that all the nouns have a plurative notion, and hence occur with the suppletive pluractional verb root **hir-** ‘to run[PL]’ rather than the singulative verb root **keer-** ‘to run[SG]’. However, they differ in gender agreement: **kawwaadaa** ‘the Gawwada’ in (7a) triggers the same gender agreement as the third person masculine subject, **kaahuta** ‘Kaaho villagers’ in (7b) triggers the same gender agreement as the third person feminine subject, and **χoyraa** ‘the Burji’ in (7c) triggers the same gender agreement as plural subject.

- (7a) **kawwaadaasi?** ?ihiray
kawwaadaa-si? *i = hir-ay*
 kawwada-DEF.M/F 3 = run[PL]-PF[3M]
 ‘The Gawwada ran.’

- (7b) *kaahutasi? ?ihirti*
kaahuta-si? *i = hir-t-i*
 kaaho-DEF.M/F 3 = run[PL]-3F-PF
 ‘The kaahuta ran.’
- (7c) *χoyraasini? ?ihirin*
χoyraa-sini? *i = hir-i-n*
 burji-DEF.P 3 = run[PL]-PF-P
 ‘The Burji ran.’

There are some nouns with M~F gender values. The alternative use of the M~F does not bring any difference in meaning. For instance, the singulative *raaka* ‘old woman’ is semantically feminine but it may occur with the indefinite F *takka* in (8a) or with the M counterpart *tokka* in (8b), the former is preferred.

- (8a) *raaka takka? ?ipi?ti*
raaka takka-? *i = pi?-t-i*
 old.woman INDEF.F-NOM 3 = fall-3F-PF
 ‘A certain old woman fell down.’
- (8b) *raaka tokkan akkay*
raaka tokka = in akk-ay
 old.woman INDEF.M = 1 see-PF[3M]
 ‘I saw a certain old woman.’

4.1.2. Gender agreement in definiteness marking

The gender of nouns determines the assignment of definite marking on nouns: nouns that trigger the same gender agreement as the masculine or feminine subject assign the definite suffix *-si?* as illustrated in (9).

- (9a) *σimaytasi? ?ikuti?ay*
σimayta-si? *i = kuti?-ay*
 old.man-DEF.M/F 3 = sit.down-PF[3M]
 ‘The old man sat down.’
- (9b) *orra-si? ?ikal-ay*
orra-si? *i = kal-ay*
 people-DEF.M/F 3 = return.home-PF[3M]
 ‘The people returned home.’
- (9c) *alleetasi? ?ipi?ti*
alleeta-si? *i = pi?-t-i*
 hut-DEF.M/F 3 = fall-3F-PF
 ‘The hut fell.’

Nouns that trigger the same agreement as the plural subject on the verb assign the definite suffix *-sini?*. For example, the nouns *innaa* ‘child’ in (10a) and *filaa* ‘comb’ in (10b) are semantically singular. However, they add the plural gender agreement marker *-n* on the verb just like the noun *lahadfaa* ‘rams’ in (10c). This clearly shows that *-n* is a gender agreement marker, not a number marker.

- (10a) *innaasini?* ?imukin
innaa-sini? *i = muk-i-n*
 child-DEF.P 3 = sleep-PF-P
 ‘The child slept.’
- (10b) *filaasini?* ?i?epin
filaa-sini? *i = ?ep-i-n*
 comb-DEF.P 3 = be.broken-PF-P
 ‘The comb was broken.’
- (10c) *lahadfaasini?* ?ikataman
lahadfaa-sini? *i = kat-am-a-n*
 rams-DEF.P 3 = sell-PAS-IPF.FUT-P
 ‘The rams will be sold.’

4.1.3. Gender agreement in demonstratives

The gender of nouns determines the assignment of demonstrative marking on nouns. In other words, nouns that trigger the same gender agreement as masculine or feminine subject assign the demonstrative suffix *-asi?* or *-osi?* as illustrated in (11). For the distribution of the demonstrative suffixes, see Section 4.8.

- (11a) *kahartaasi?* ?idalti
kaharta-asi? *i = dal-t-i*
 ewe-DEM.M/F 3 = give.birth-3F-PF
 ‘This ewe gave birth.’
- (11b) *?oyroosi?* ?i?epay
?oyra-osi? *i = ?ep-ay*
 tree-DEM.M/F 3 = be.broken-PF[3M]
 ‘This tree was broken.’
- (11c) *orraasi?* ?ikalay
orra-asi? *i = kal-ay*
 people-DEM.M/F 3 = return.home-PF[3M]
 ‘These people returned home.’

Nouns that trigger the same gender agreement as the plural subject on the verb assign the demonstrative suffix *-osini?*. In the following examples, the semantically singular noun *innaa* ‘child’ (12a) and the plurative noun *pottaawwaa* ‘pumpkins’ (12b) add the plural gender agreement suffix *-osini?*.

- (12a) *innoosini? fatanaappaa ipi?in*
innaa-osini? fatanaa-oppaa i=pi?-i-n
 child-DEM.P exam-in 3 = fall-PF-P
 ‘This child failed the exam.’

- (12b) *pottaawwoosini? ?ijnapalin*
pottaawwaa-osini? i=napal-i-n
 pumpkins-DEM.P 3 = be.spoiled-PF-P
 ‘These houses were spoiled.’

4.1.4. Gender agreement in adjectives

When adjectives serve as attributes, gender is marked in addition to number. Plural number is expressed by reduplicating the adjectival root’s initial $C_1V(C_1)$. Gender agreement is marked by suffixes *-a* for M/F gender and by the suffix *-aa?* for plural gender. For example, in (13a), the modified noun *χormasi?* ‘the ox’ is semantically singulative and [M] in gender and it has an M/F gender suffix on the adjectival root. In (13b), the modified noun *filaasini?* ‘the comb’ is semantically singulative but requires a plural gender suffix *-aa?* on the adjectival root. In (13c), the modified noun *?orrasini?* ‘the people’ is semantically plural and [M] in gender and requires a plural number agreement marked by reduplication but an M/F gender suffix on the adjectival root. In (13d), the object *χormadaasini?* ‘the oxen’ is semantically plural and [P] in gender and has a plural number agreement marked by reduplication and a plural gender agreement suffix *-aa?* on the adjectival root. Notice that the subject of each sentence in (13) is the first person singular.

- (13a) *χormasik kappa in?akkay*
χorma-si? kapp-a in = akk-ay
 ox-DEF.M/F be.fat-M/F 1 = see-PF[3M]
 ‘I saw the fat ox.’
- (13b) *filaasinip pooraa? ?in?akkay*
filaa-sini? poor-aa? in = akk-ay
 comb-DEF.P be.black-P 1 = see-PF[3M]
 ‘I saw the black comb.’
- (13c) *orrasik kakappa in?akkay*
orra-si? ka-kapp-a in = akk-ay
 people-DEF.M/F PL-be.fat-M/F 1 = see-PF[3M]
 ‘I saw the fat people.’

- (13d) χ ormadaasinik kakappaa? ?in?akkay
 χ ormadaa-sini? *ka-kapp-aa?* *in = akk-ay*
 ox-DEF.P PL-be.fat-P 1 = see-PF[3M]
 ‘I saw the fat oxen.’

From the foregoing discussions, it is clear that gender as a morphological category has the M, F and P values in subject agreement marking on the verb, and M/F and P values in the noun phrase agreement, namely in definite nouns, demonstratives and adjectives.

4.2. Number

Number in nouns is derivational rather than inflectional (see Ongaye (in print)). The derivation of number in nouns involves the derivation of pluratives, and, to a much lesser degree, the derivation of singulatives. As I mentioned earlier, I use the terms “singulative” and “plurative” for derived forms of nouns, and “base” for the form on which the derivation (singulative or plurative) is based. Moreover, I use the terms “single” and (following Hayward (1981)) “multiple” for the number values of nouns. “Single” nouns refer to semantically individual entities while “multiple” nouns refer to semantically plural entities. In what follows, I first present the derivation of pluratives and then the derivation of singulatives.

Plurative is marked by the following ways:

- A. attaching plurative suffixes
- B. reduplicating the base-final consonant
- C. geminating the last consonant of the base

Pluratives derived by any one of the above strategies are plural semantically and also trigger plural gender agreement marking on the verb. As we shall see later, there are also suppletives in Konso. Singular suppletives express single reference, while plural suppletives express multiple reference.

4.2.1. Number suffixes

There are five number suffixes used to mark plurative in nouns. The number suffixes are arranged from the most to the least frequently occurring suffix with a sample of about 470 nouns (see Chapter 15).

Form of number suffix	Base
A. - <i>dfaa</i> (27%)	stem
B. - <i>wwaa</i> (22%)	root- <i>ta</i> (F)
C. - <i>daa</i> (16%)	stem
D. - <i>ayaa</i> (7.5%)	root- <i>atta</i> (M)
E. - <i>iyaa</i> (5.5%)	root- <i>itta</i> (M)

From the correlation between the number suffixes and their bases, we can see that some plurative suffixes are added to bases while others replace singulative suffixes. Thus, the plurative suffix of each noun has to be learned lexically. Furthermore, a lexeme may occur with more than one plurative suffix. In some cases, nouns with plurative suffixes may serve as bases to further derive pluratives. In fact, sometimes it is only the singulative that is derived. In other words, the system has both singulatives and pluratives, and both can be basic.

Below, I discuss each of the number suffixes. In the illustrative examples, I only indicate the gender values of the bases because plurative suffixes impose a plural gender value.

Plurative suffix **-ɖɖaa**

The plurative suffix **-ɖɖaa** is added to a base. Base final **aa** is shortened when **-ɖɖaa** is added. The bases may have a masculine, feminine or plural gender values. The bases are either underived, or derived singulatives in **-ta**. The following are illustrative examples:

(14)	Base	gloss	plurative	gloss
	ɖaʔta (M)	'butter'	ɖaʔtadɖaa	'butters'
	kittayyaa (M)	'bedbug'	kittayyadɖaa	'bedbugs'
	maakaa (M)	'snake'	maakadɖaa	'snakes'
	mahanta (F)	'grass'	mahantadɖaa	'grasses'
	oxinta (F)	'fence'	oxintadɖaa	'fences'
	fiiɖaa (P)	'curse'	fiiɖadɖaa	'curses'
	kaariyyaa (P)	'evil spirit'	kaariyyadɖaa	'evil spirits'
	kosaa (P)	'granary'	kosadɖaa	'granaries'
	marɖinaa (P)	'intestine'	marɖinadɖaa	'intestines'

Plurative suffix **-wwaa**

The plurative suffix **-wwaa** replaces the singulative suffix **-ta**. Except **apuyyaata** 'maternal uncle (M)' and **kawkawa** 'lower jaw (M)', all such singulative nouns trigger a feminine gender agreement. Examples:

(15)	Base	gloss	plurative	gloss
	hinɖaakkata (F)	'ant'	hinɖaakkawwaa	'ants'
	kaankita (F)	'mule'	kaankiwwaa	'mules'
	fooɖɖita (F)	'mud'	fooɖɖiwwaa	'muds'
	noodɖfuta (F)	'bribe'	noodɖuwwaa	'bribes'
	muukuta (F)	'frog'	muukuwwaa	'frogs'
	fillayyaata (F)	'flea'	fillayyaawwaa	'fleas'
	landɖeeta (F)	'liver'	landɖeewwaa	'livers'

Plurative suffix -*ɗaa*

Like the suffix -*ɗɗaa*, plurative suffix -*ɗaa* is added to its bases. The bases have either a consonant cluster or geminate consonants preceding the suffix with the short *ɗ*. Although degemination in the context of geminate consonants or clusters of consonants has been attested elsewhere in the language, we cannot posit the suffix -*ɗaa* as an allomorph of the suffix -*ɗɗaa* because the suffix -*ɗɗaa* also occurs after clusters of consonants, as in *oxintadɗaa* ‘fences’ and *hawladɗaa* ‘graves’. Base final *aa* is shortened. The bases may have a masculine, feminine or plural gender value, but the majority have a masculine gender value. The following are illustrative examples. Notice that the plurative suffixes -*ɗɗaa* and -*ɗaa* are not allomorphs of the same plurative suffix.

(16)	Base	gloss	plurative	gloss
	<i>arpa</i> (M)	‘elephant’	<i>arpadɗaa</i>	‘elephants’
	<i>ipsaa</i> (P)	‘light’	<i>ipsadɗaa</i>	‘lights’
	<i>ɗalta</i> (F)	‘seed’	<i>ɗaltadɗaa</i>	‘seeds’
	<i>farta</i> (F)	‘horse’	<i>fartadɗaa</i>	‘horses’
	<i>maxɣa</i> (M)	‘name’	<i>maxɣadɗaa</i>	‘names’
	<i>kirra</i> (M)	‘river’	<i>kirradɗaa</i>	‘rivers’
	<i>kappaa</i> (M)	‘wheat’	<i>kappadɗaa</i>	‘wheat’
	<i>karmaa</i> (M)	‘lion’	<i>karmadɗaa</i>	‘lions’
	<i>karkaa</i> (M)	‘beehive’	<i>karkadɗaa</i>	‘beehives’
	<i>ɗaajɗaa</i> (P)	‘tomato’	<i>ɗaajɗadɗaa</i>	‘tomatoes’
	<i>paankaa</i> (P)	‘machete’	<i>paankadɗaa</i>	‘machetes’

The base noun *ɗaajɗaa* ‘tomato’ can have plural interpretation in the absence of the plurative suffix -*ɗaa*. Plural or singular interpretation is understood not from the gender agreement on the verb, as both trigger plural gender agreement marking on the verb, but rather from the singulativity or pluractionality of the action: when the verb root is a singulative suppletive or the verb root’s initial $C_1V(C_1)$ is not reduplicated (for non-suppletives), then it has a singular interpretation. However, when the verb root is a plurative suppletive or the verb root’s initial $C_1V(C_1)$ is reduplicated (for non-suppletives), then it has plural interpretation.

Plurative suffix -*ayaa*

The plurative suffix -*ayaa* replaces the singulative suffix -*atta* as can be seen from the data in (17). The majority of the bases have a masculine gender agreement.

(17)	Base	gloss	plurative	gloss
	<i>oypatta</i> (M)	tree species	<i>oypayaa</i>	tree species
	<i>arpatta</i> (M)	grass species	<i>arpayaa</i>	grass species

karsatta (M)	tree species	karsayaa	tree species
dittatta (M)	plant species	dittayaa	plant species
hoppatta (M)	'gut'	hoppayaa	'guts'
kollatta (M)	'hide, skin'	kollayaa	'hides, skins'
okkatta (M)	'cow'	okkayaa	'cows, cattle'
karratta (M)	'squirrel'	karrayaa	'squirrels'
massatta (M)	'crocodile'	massayaa	'crocodiles'
kawwatta (F)	'terrace'	kawwayaa	'terraces'

There is one instance of a nominal root with a singulative suffix *-etta* and a plural suffix *-eeyyaa*: *kupeetta* (M) *kupeeyyaa* 'lower bone of hind leg'.

Plurative suffix *-iyyaa*

The plurative suffix *-iyyaa* is added to roots by replacing the singulative suffix *-itta*. All the bases trigger a masculine gender agreement. Here are some examples:

(18)	Base	gloss	plurative	gloss
	<i>alkitta</i> (M)	'sisal'	<i>alkiyyaa</i>	'sisals'
	<i>fijjitta</i> (M)	'pimple'	<i>fijjiyyaa</i>	'pimples'
	<i>ɕupitta</i> (M)	'finger'	<i>ɕupiyyaa</i>	'fingers'
	<i>ilkitta</i> (M)	'tooth'	<i>ilkiyyaa</i>	'teeth'
	<i>karitta</i> (M)	'belly'	<i>kariyyaa</i>	'bellies'
	<i>orritta</i> (M)	'devil'	<i>orriyyaa</i>	'devils'
	<i>apitta</i> (M)	'fire'	<i>apiyyaa</i>	'fires'
	<i>ɕinaʔitta</i> (M)	'rib'	<i>ɕinaʔiyyaa</i>	'ribs'

4.2.2. Reduplicating the base final consonant

Reduplicating the base final consonant is another strategy that marks plurative. In this number derivation strategy, a base final consonant /l/ or /n/ in a consonant cluster is reduplicated and subsequently geminated/lengthened. The plurative forms have a final long *aa*. Most often the consonant clusters containing /l/ undergo metathesis (cf. 2.7.6.). The bases may have a short *a* or a long *aa*. A base final *-aa* is shortened in the plurative. The bases trigger either masculine or plural gender agreement, the majority triggering masculine gender agreement. The following is an exhaustive list:

(19)	Base	gloss	plurative	gloss
	<i>hawla</i> (M)	'tomb, grave'	<i>hawllallaa</i>	'tombs, graves'
	<i>fanaʔala</i> (M)	'splinter'	<i>fanaʔallaa</i>	'splinters'
	<i>tawna</i> (M)	'bell'	<i>tawnannaa</i>	'bells'
	<i>moʔna</i> (M)	'rocky place'	<i>moʔnannaa</i>	'rocky places'
	<i>ɕolfaa</i> (P)	'park, pod'	<i>ɕolfallaa</i>	'parks (of tree), pods'

ɖikla (M)	‘elbow’	ɖiklallaa	‘elbows’
silpa (M)	‘metal’	silpallaa	‘metals’
kilpa (M)	‘knee’	kilpallaa	‘knees’
kulpa (M)	‘big calabash’	kulpallaa	‘big calabashes’
ɕolpa (M)	‘he-goat’	ɕolpallaa	‘he-goats’
ɖapna (M)	‘temple (body)’	ɖapnannaa	‘temples’

The bases in (20a) have the same phonological pattern as those in (19) but they do not reduplicate the final consonant in the plurative. The correct plurative forms are given in (20b).

(20a)	Base	gloss	plurative
	talpa (M)	‘lentil’	*talpallaa
	hupna (M)	‘strength’	*hupnannaa
	haynaa (P)	‘remains after sucking cane’	*haynannaa
(20b)	talpadāa (P)	‘lentils’	
	hupnannāa (P)	‘strengths’	
	haynadāa (P)	‘remains after sucking cane’	

4.2.3. Plurative marking by gemination

This plurative marking strategy geminates the onset of the last syllable. The short vowel /a/ of the bases is lengthened in the plurative forms. The majority of the bases trigger masculine gender agreement. The following are illustrative data.

(21)	Base	gloss	plurative	gloss
	tika (F)	‘house’	tikkaa	‘houses’
	raaka (F)	‘old woman’	raakkaa	‘old women’
	ɖila (M)	‘field’	ɖillaa	‘fields’
	kaba (M)	‘canal’	kaɓɓaa	‘canals’
	kafa (M)	‘clan’	kaffaa	‘clans’
	mura (M)	‘forest’	murraa	‘forests’
	pora (M)	‘road, route’	porraa	‘roads, routes’
	paagā (M)	‘disease’	paaɕɕāa	‘diseases’
	paala (M)	‘feather’	paallaa	‘feathers’
	kaasa (M)	‘horn, gun’	kaassaa	‘horns, guns’
	tuudā (M)	‘pillar’	tuuddāa	‘pillars’
	hoofa (M)	‘hole’	hooffaa	‘holes’

The pluratives of the following bases are derived by geminating the onset of the last syllable but the singulative is marked by suffix *-ta*.

(22)	Base	gloss	plurative	gloss
	kaharta (F)	'ewe'	kaharraa	'sheep'
	loḡta (F)	'leg'	loḡḡaa	'legs'
	hiḃta (F)	'lip'	hiḃḃaa	'lips'

4.2.4. Double plurative derivation

Certain plurative forms serve as bases for further derived pluratives. Double pluratives are derived by adding the plurative suffix *-ḃaa* when the plurative bases are formed by reduplicating the base final consonant as in (23a). They are also derived by adding the plurative suffix *-ḃḃaa* when the plurative bases are formed by geminating the base final consonant as in (23b).

(23a)	Base (plurative)	plurative (double derived)	
	tikkaa	tikkadaa	'houses'
	raakkaa	raakkadaa	'old women'
	dillaa	dilladaa	'fields'
	kaḃḃaa	kaḃḃadaa	'canals'
	kaffaa	kaffadaa	'clans'
	murraa	murradaa	'forests'
	porraa	porradaa	'roads, routes'
	paaḡḡaa	paaḡḡadaa	'diseases'
	paallaa	paalladaa	'feathers'
	kaassaa	kaassadaa	'horns, guns'
	tuudḃaa	tuudḃadaa	'pillars'
	hooffaa	hooffadaa	'holes'
(23b)	silpallaa	silpalladḃaa	'metals'
	ḃiklallaa	ḃiklalladḃaa	'elbows'
	kilpallaa	kilpalladḃaa	'knese'
	kulpallaa	kulpalladḃaa	'big calabashes'
	ḡolpallaa	ḡolpalladḃaa	'he-goats'
	hawlallaa	hawlalladḃaa	'tombs, graves'
	fangallaa	fangalladḃaa	'splinters'
	tawnannaa	tawnannadḃaa	'bells'
	moḡnannaa	moḡnannadḃaa	'rocky places'
	ḃapnannaa	ḃapnannadḃaa	'temples'
	ḡolfallaa	ḡolfalladḃaa	'parks (of tree), pods'

4.2.5. Irregular pluratives

Certain pluratives do not fall into the patterns discussed above. For example, the plurative *ildaa* 'eyes', which is derived from the nominal root *il-* 'eye' (singular *ilta* (F) 'eye'), does not conform to the pattern I discussed earlier for the plurative suffix *-ḃaa*. That is, in my earlier analysis, I showed that *-ḃaa* is added to bases, not roots. But in *ildaa* 'eyes', it is added to a root. The other

pluratives that do not fall into our earlier patterns include Ḡoraa ‘trees’, harkaa ‘hands’ and kereʔta ‘thieves’. The plurative Ḡoraa ‘trees’ has the singulative Ḡoyra (M) ‘tree’. The derivation of the plurative Ḡoraa ‘trees’ involves the deletion of the consonant y in the singulative, and lengthening the final vowel of the singulative. The plurative harkaa ‘hands’ is derived from the base by lengthening only the final vowel of the base. With regard to the derivation of the plurative kereʔta ‘thieves’ and its singulative keraa (M) ‘thief’, both have a root ker- to which -eʔta and -aa are added to derive the plurative and singulative, respectively.

In fact, the pluratives harkaa ‘hands’ and kereʔta ‘thieves’ can alternatively be used as stems to derive the plurative harkadaa and kereʔewwaa , respectively. Similarly, the singulative Ḡoyra may serve as a stem to derive the plurative Ḡoyradaa . This derivation fits into our analysis for the derivational pattern of the number suffix -daa .

4.2.6. Suppletive plurals

Certain single-reference nouns have suppletive multiple reference counterparts. An exhaustive list is given in (24). The single-reference forms may trigger masculine, feminine or plural gender agreement; on the other hand, the plurals may trigger masculine or plural gender agreement.

(24)	Single	gloss	multiple	gloss
	innaa (P)	‘child’	hellaa (P)	‘(human) children’
	nama (M)	‘man, person’	orra (M)	‘people’
	saallaa (M)	‘cow dung’	kuufa (M)	‘pile of cow dung’
	inanta (F)	‘girl’	tupar(r)aa (P)	‘girls’
	innayyaa (P)	‘young animal’	jelḠaa (P)	‘young animals/birds’

4.2.7. Pluratives without corresponding singulative forms

In the preceding sections, we discussed the derivation of pluratives from singulative bases. The roots of the bases carry the semantics of singulative. However, there are instances in which there is only one number form which is plurative and not singulative. Such nouns are listed below.

(25)	horeeta (F)	‘livestock’
	sawwaa (M)	‘people (formal setting)’
	ikkaamaa (P)	‘seed corn’

Our evidence for claiming that the above nouns are plurative comes from agreement. For instance, the examples in (26) are acceptable because the nouns horreta ‘livestock’ and sawwaa ‘people’ occur with the pluractional verb root hir- ‘run[PL]’. On the other hand, the examples in (27) are unacceptable be-

cause the same nouns *horeeta* and *sawwaa* occur with a singulative verb root *keer-* ‘run[SG]’.

- (26a) *horeetasi?* ?ihirti
horeeta-si? *i = hir-t-i*
 livestock-DEF.M/F 3 = run[PL]-3F-PF
 ‘The livestock ran.’
- (26b) *keraasi?* ?apiyas *sawwaasi?* ?ihiray
keraa-si? *ʒap-iyá-?* *sawwaa-si?*
 thief-DEF.M/F catch-INF-DAT people-DEF.M/F

i = hir-ay
 3 = run[PL]-PF[3M]
 ‘The people ran in order to catch the thief.’
- (27a) **horeetasi?* ?ikeerti
horeeta-si? *i = keer-t-i*
 livestock-DEF.M/F 3 = run[SG]-3F-PF
 (intended: ‘The livestock ran.’)
- (27b) **keraasi?* ?apiyas *sawwaasi?* ?ikeeray
keraa-si? *ʒap-iyá-?* *sawwaa-si?*
 thief-DEF.M/F catch-INF-DAT people-DEF.M/F

i = keer-ay
 3 = run[SG]-PF[3M]
 (intended: ‘The people ran in order to catch the thief.’)

4.2.8. Derivation of singulatives

Singulatives are derived from underived pluratives by deleting final vowels and adding the suffixes *-ayta* (M) as in (28a), *-ta* (M/F) as in (28b), *-itta* (M) as in (28c) or *-teeta* (F) as in (28d).

- | | | | |
|-------|-------------------|-----------------------|---------------|
| (28a) | Plurative | singulative | gloss |
| | <i>da?ayaa</i> | <i>da?ayta</i> (M) | plant species |
| | <i>karayaa</i> | <i>karayta</i> (M) | ‘gorge’ |
| | <i>keltayaa</i> | <i>keltayta</i> (M) | ‘baboon’ |
| | <i>ottayaa</i> | <i>ottayta</i> (M) | tree species |
| | <i>ʒimayaa</i> | <i>ʒimayta</i> (M) | ‘old man’ |
| (28b) | <i>kumaanaa</i> | <i>kumaanta</i> (M) | ‘antelope’ |
| | <i>maskahanaa</i> | <i>maskahanta</i> (M) | tree species |
| | <i>pinaanaa</i> | <i>pinanta</i> (M) | ‘animal’ |

	hotaaraa	hotaarta (M)	acacia tree species
	kolalaa	kolalta (M)	acacia tree species
	lafaa	lafta (F)	'bone'
	koromaa	koromta (F)	'heifer'
	kusumaa	kusumta (F)	'navel'
	oxinaa	oxinta (F)	'fence'
	koskoraa	koskorta (F)	'partridge'
(28c)	ḡinaʔaa	ḡinaʔitta (M)	'rib'
	ʃalaḡḡaa	ʃalaḡḡitta (M)	'flat stone'
	ilkaa	ilkitta (M)	'tooth'
	χolaʔaa	χolaʔitta (M)	cactus species
	ḡinaʔaa	ḡinaʔitta (M)	'rib'
	lukkala	lukkallitta (M)	'chicken'
(28d)	ikkiraa	ikkirteeta (F)	'louse'
	χampiraa	χampirteeta (F)	'bird'
	talaa	talteeta (F)	'she-goat'

The singulative **okkatta** (M) 'cow' is derived from the plurative **okkaa** 'cows'. The singulative **apitta** (M) 'fire' may also serve as a stem to derive the plurative **apittadfaa**.

4.2.9. Associative plural

Associative plural is marked by the particle **opa** followed by the noun it modifies.⁷ Associative plural expresses that the noun which the associative particle modifies has an associate(s) whose name(s) is (are) not mentioned. The associative plural may be a subject as in (29a) or an object as in (29b).

(29a)	opa	χampiruʔ ʔideyin	
	<i>opa</i>	<i>χampiru-ʔ</i>	<i>i = dey-i-n</i>
	ASS	χampiro-NOM	3 = come-PF-P
		'χampiro and his associates came.'	

(29b)	antiʔ ʔopa Apittun akkay		
	<i>anti-ʔ</i>	<i>opa</i>	<i>Apitto = in</i> <i>akk-ay</i>
	1SG.PRO-NOM	ASS	Apitto = 1 see-PF[3M]
	'I saw ʔapitto and his associate(s).'		

⁷ The associative particle and the postposition indicating destination (see Section 8.2.1) have the same form **opa** but occur in different positions with regard to the noun they modify. I consider them to be distinct, homophonous morphemes.

4.3. Plurality in adjectives

Plural number agreement in adjectives is marked by reduplicating the root initial C_1V when there is a geminate consonant in the root as in (30), otherwise, C_1VC_1 as in (31). For example, in (30a), the initial C_1V of the adjectival root ɕalla? - ‘to be thin, slim’ is not reduplicated because the subject *inanta* ‘girl’ is singular. In (30b), it is reduplicated because the subject *tuparaa* ‘girls’ is plural. In the same fashion, in (31a), the initial C_1VC_1 of the adjectival root *der*- ‘to be long’ is not reduplicated because the subject *ɕoyrasi?* ‘the tree’ is singular. In (31b), the initial C_1VC_1 of the adjectival root is reduplicated because the subject *ɕoraasini?* ‘the trees’ is plural.

- (30a) *inantaasi? ʔiɕallaʔi*
inanta-asi? i = ɕalla?-i
 girl-DEM.M/F 3 = be.slim-PF
 ‘This girl is slim.’
- (30b) *tuparoosini? ʔiɕaɕallaʔi*
tuparaa-sini?i = ɕa-ɕalla?-i
 girls-DEM.P 3 = PL-be.slim-PF
 ‘These girls are slim.’
- (31a) *ɕoyrasi? ʔideri*
ɕoyra-si? i = der-i
 tree-DEF.M/F 3 = be.tall-PF
 ‘The tree is tall.’
- (31b) *ɕoraasini? ʔidɛdɛferi*
ɕoraa-sini? i = dɛd-der-i
 tree-DEF.P 3 = PL-be.tall-PF
 ‘The trees are tall.’

We should note that reduplicating the adjectival root’s initial $C_1V(C_1)$ shows only plural interpretation, and not plural gender agreement.

4.4. Semantic gender distinction

Names referring to certain domestic animals make a lexical semantic distinction between males and females. The lexical items that refer to ‘sheep’ are listed in (32a); those that refer to ‘cow, ox, bull’ are listed in (32b); and those that refer to ‘goat’ are listed in (32c).

- | | | |
|-------|-----------------------|-----------------------------------|
| | Male | Female |
| (32a) | <i>laha</i> (M) ‘ram’ | <i>kaharta</i> (F) ‘ewe’ |
| | | <i>sukeenta</i> (F) ‘female lamb’ |

(32b) Male		Female	
χorma (M)	‘ox, bull’	okkatta (M)	‘cow’
mirkoota (M)	‘young bull’	koromta (F)	‘heifer’
		tullatta (M)	‘old cow’

(32c) χolpa/χolpayta (M)	‘he-goat’	talteeta (F)	‘she-goat’
		ritta (F)	‘young she-goat’

From the data in (32), we see that all the lexical items that are semantically male trigger masculine gender agreement on the verb. But lexical items such as **χokkatta** ‘cow’ and **tullatta** ‘old cow’, which are semantically female, trigger masculine gender agreement on the verb as shown in (33).

(33a) okkattasi? <i>χidalay</i>	
<i>okkatta-si?</i>	<i>i = dāl-ay</i>
cow-DEF.M/F	3 = give.birth-PF[3M]
‘The cow gave birth.’	

(33b) tullattasi? <i>χipiχay</i>	
<i>tullatta-si?</i>	<i>i = piχ-ay</i>
old.cow-DEF.M/F	3 = fall-PF[3M]
‘The old cow fell.’	

Lexical semantic gender distinction is also made in kinship terms. In the following table, I give the lexical items that refer to males in the first column, and their corresponding female names in the second column.

Male	Female
aappaa ‘father’	aayyaa ‘mother’
aappaa ‘husband’	ahta ‘wife’
apuyyaata ‘maternal uncle’	maammata ‘aunt’
aakkaa ‘grandfather’	okkooyyita ‘grandmother’
oopaa ‘grandson’	oopta ‘granddaughter’
aχuma ‘nephew’	aχumta ‘niece’
alawa ‘male sibling’	alawta ‘female sibling’
hamiya ‘baby boy’	inanta ‘baby girl’

Table 1: Semantic gender distinction in kinship terms

Certain proper names also distinguish gender. In most instances, the female names are derived from male names by geminating the onset of the last syllable of the male name. One instance (last example) shows that when the penultimate syllable of a male name has a closed syllable, the coda of that syllable is geminated for the female name rather than the onset of the final syllable (i.e.

orɣayto/orɣayya). Most of the male names end in -o and the female counterparts end in -a.

(34a)	Male	female	source noun	meaning of source
	proper name	proper name		
	Katano	Katanna	katana	‘season for sowing’
	Roopo	Rooppa	roopa	‘rain’
	ɣampiro	ɣampirra	ɣampirteeta	‘bird’
	Kappino	Kappinna	kappina	‘bush’
	Urmale	Urmalla	ʔurmalaa	‘market’
	Teykane	Teykanna	teykantaa	‘morning’
	ɕudaado	ɕudaadda	ɕudaadaa	‘late morning’
	Kuyyawa	Kuyyanna	kuyyaʔta	‘noon, day’
	Kallapo	Kallappa	kallapta	‘late afternoon’
	Halkeeyo	Halkeeyya	halkeetta	‘midnight’
	Orɣayto	Orɣayya	orɣayta	‘adopted child’
(34b)	Male	female	source noun	meaning of source
	proper name	proper name		
	Oraapo	Oraappa	oraap-	‘to fetch water’
	Kutano	Kutanna	kut-	‘to hunt’
	Kalfo	Kalisso ⁸	kalf-	‘to make go home’

4.5. Diminutives

Diminutive is marked by the suffix *-(tt)eeta*. The diminutive suffix is added to nouns that show third person masculine gender value. The diminutive suffix renders a third person feminine gender value to the noun it is added to. The diminutive suffix implies that the addresser has a low opinion of the noun in question. For example, in (35a), the addresser has a high opinion of the noun *ɕimaytasiʔ* ‘the old man’, as it has no diminutive suffix; however, in (35b), it occurs with the diminutive suffix, implying that the addresser has a low opinion of the referent. In the translations of the examples below, I use the adjective ‘little’ to denote diminutive.

- (35a) *ɕimaytasiʔ Goyrasiʔ ʔihaadɔy*
ɕimayta-siʔ Goyra-siʔ i = haad-ay
 old.man-DEF.M/F tree-DEF.M/F 3 = carry-PF[3M]
 ‘The old man carried the tree.’
- (35b) *ɕimayteetasiʔ Goyrasiʔ ʔihaaʔti*
ɕimayta-eeta-siʔ Goyra-siʔ i = haad-t-i
 old.man-DIM-DEF.M/F tree-DEF.M/F 3 = carry-3F-PF
 ‘The little old man carried the tree.’

⁸ *kalisso* is underlyingly *kalifto*.

Diminutive does not seem to occur with nouns that trigger plural gender agreement. The only exception that I noted is *innaa* ‘child’ but even then, the form of the diminutive is different: *-innaata* as shown in (36b).

- (36a) *innaasini?* *?ipi?in*
innaa-sini? *i = pi?-i-n*
 child-DEF.P 3 = fall-PF-P
 ‘The child fell.’

- (36b) *inninnaatasi?* *?ipi?ti*
innaa-nnaata-si? *i = pi?-t-i*
 child-DIM-DEF.M/F 3 = fall-3F-PF
 ‘The little child fell.’

The female lexical items *okkatta* ‘cow’ and *tullatta* ‘old cow’ that trigger masculine gender agreement on the verb acquire third person feminine gender agreement on the verb when the diminutive suffix is added to them. This is shown in (37).

- (37a) *okkateetasi?* *?ito?ti*
okkatta-eeta-si? *i = toy-t-i*
 cow-DIM-DEF.M/F 3 = die[SG]-3F-PF
 ‘The little cow died.’

- (37b) *tullatteetasi?* *?ipi?ti*
tullatta-eeta-si? *i = pi?-t-i*
 old.cow-DIM-DEF.M/F 3 = fall-3F-PF
 ‘The little old cow fell.’

In the following examples, we have the noun *ḡoyra* ‘tree’. This noun has third person masculine gender agreement without the diminutive as in (38a). However, with the diminutive suffix, it acquires third person feminine gender agreement on the verb, as illustrated in (38b).

- (38a) *ḡoyrasi?* *?ikupaḡay*
ḡoyra-si? *i = kup-aḡ-ay*
 tree.M-DEF.M/F 3 = burn-MID-PF[3M]
 ‘The tree was burnt.’

- (38b) *ḡoyritteetasi?* *?ikupatti*
ḡoyra-tteeta-si? *i = kup-aḡ-t-i*
 tree.F-DIM-DEF.M/F 3 = burn-MID-3F-PF
 ‘The little tree was burnt.’

When the performance of a referent in question excels the expectation of the addresser, the diminutive suffix expresses a surprise of the addresser. The following are illustrative examples:

- (39a) *raakitteetasi?* *?ifapaatti*
raaka-tteeta-si? *i=fapaad-t-i*
 old.woman-DIM-DEF.M/F 3 = be.strong-3F-PF
 ‘Wow! The old little woman became strong.’
- (39b) *aappitteetasi?* *Ɔoyrasi?* *?iha?ti*
aappaa-tteeta-si? *Ɔoyra-si?* *i=had-t-i*
 father-DIM-DEF.M/F tree/wood-DEF.M/F 3 = carry-3F-PF
 ‘Wow! The little man carried the log.’

Some nouns seem to have frozen diminutive suffix: *talteeta* ‘she-goat’, *lammitteeta* ‘second wife’.

4.6. Indefinite reference and indefinite-specific morphemes

Indefinite reference is not morphologically marked both in subject and object function. This can be seen from the nouns *laha* ‘ram’, *?appitta* ‘fire’, *Ɔimayaa* ‘old men’ and *χormadaa* ‘bulls’ with indefinite reference which appear in their citation forms as the following sentences demonstrate.

- (40a) *antil laha impidfa*
anti-? *laha* *in=pidfa*
 1SG.PRO-NOM ram 1 = buy[SG]-IPF.FUT
 ‘I will buy a ram.’
- (40b) *inantasi?* *?apitta i?opassi*
inanta-si? *apitta* *i=opay-f-t-i*
 girl-DEF.M/F fire 3 = build.fire-DCAUS-3F-PF
 ‘The girl built fire.’
- (40c) *Ɔimayaa dise caa*
Ɔimayaa *dise* *kiy-aa*
 old.men there be-IPF.PRES
 ‘There are old men over there.’
- (40d) *ifoonnaχ χormadaa heerin*
ifoonna-? *χormadaa=i* *heer-i-n*
 3PL.PRO-NOM bulls = 3 buy[PL]-PF-P
 ‘They bought bulls.’

Specific-indefinite reference may be marked by *tokka* ‘one.M’ or *takka* ‘one.F’ or *takkan* ~ *takka-n* ‘one-P’. In the following examples, *tokka*, *takka* and *takkan* specify the nouns *hamiya* ‘boy’, *ʔinanta* ‘girl’ and *χormadaa* ‘oxen’, respectively. These nouns have an inherent gender value: masculine, feminine and plural, respectively.

- (41a) *hamiya tokka? ʔideyay*
hamiya tokka-ʔ *i=dēy-ay*
 boy INDEF.M-NOM 3 = come-PF
 ‘A certain boy came.’
- (41b) *inanta takka? ʔideʔti*
inanta takka-ʔ *i=dēʔ-t-i*
 girl INDEF.F-NOM 3 = come-3F-PF
 ‘A certain girl came.’
- (41c) *χormadaa takka-n=in akk-ay*
 oxen INDEF-P=1 see-PF
 ‘I saw a certain oxen.’

Sex-unspecific singulative nouns that have a specific-indefinite reference may have a masculine, feminine or plural gender value. For instance, the singulative *alleeta* ‘house (F)’ requires a feminine gender specific-indefinite reference marker *takka* in (42a). The singular *ʔoyra* ‘tree (M)’ requires a masculine gender specific indefinite reference marker *tokka* in (42b). The singulative *filaa* ‘comb (P)’ requires a plural gender specific-indefinite reference marker *takkan* in (42c).

- (42a) *alleeta takkan pidɸaday*
alleeta takka=in pidɸ-ad-ay
 house INDEF.F=1 buy[SG]-MID-PF[3M]
 ‘I bought a certain house for myself.’
- (42b) *ʔoyra tokkan pidɸaday*
ʔoyra tokka=in pidɸ-ad-ay
 tree INDEF.M=1 buy[SG]-MID-PF[3M]
 ‘I bought a certain tree for myself.’
- (42c) *filaa takka-n=in pidɸ-ad-ay*
 comb INDEF-P=1 buy[SG]-MID-PF[3M]
 ‘I bought a certain comb for myself.’

It should be noted that the specific-indefinite reference *takka*, but not *tokka*, is used in the numeral system, meaning ‘one’ (see Numerals in 4.8).

4.7. Definite reference

Definite reference is marked by suffixes *-siʔ* and *-siniʔ* on nouns. Inherently definite entities such as proper names may also appear with the definite suffix *-siʔ*.

Nouns which trigger masculine or feminine gender agreement add the definite suffix *-siʔ*. For instance, in (43), the singulative nouns *ʕimayta* ‘old man’ and *raaka* ‘old woman’ and the plurative noun *orra* ‘people’ occur with the M/F definite reference *-siʔ*.

- (43a) *ʕimaytasiʔ ʔimukay*
ʕimayta-siʔ *i = muk-ay*
 old.man-DEF.M/F 3 = sleep-PF[3M]
 ‘The old man slept.’
- (43b) *raaka-siʔ ʔimukti*
raaka-siʔ *i = muk-t-i*
 old.woman-DEF.M/F 3 = sleep-3F-PF
 ‘The old woman slept.’
- (43c) *orrasiʔ ʔimukay*
orra-siʔ *i = muk-ay*
 people-DEF.M/F 3 = sleep-PF[3M]
 ‘The people slept.’

Nouns that trigger plural gender agreement add the definite suffix *-siniʔ*. For instance, in (44), the singulatives *furaa* ‘comb’ and *aannaa* ‘milk’ and the plurative *karmadaa* ‘lions’ occur with the plural definite reference suffix.

- (44a) *furaasiniʔ ʔipatin*
furaa-siniʔ *i = pat-i-n*
 key-DEF.P 3 = disappear-PF-P
 ‘The key disappeared.’
- (44b) *aannaasiniʔ ʔiɲapalin*
aannaa-siniʔ *i = ɲapal-i-n*
 milk-DEF.P 3 = be.spoiled-PF-P
 ‘The milk went bad.’
- (44c) *karmadaa-siniʔ ʔihirin*
karmadaa-siniʔ *i = hir-i-n*
 lions-DEF.P 3 = run[PL]-PF-P
 ‘The lions ran.’

Nouns derived from verb roots occur with the M/F definite suffix *-siʔ* as can be seen from the following examples.

- (45) *keeritaasiʔ ʔiʔana kaftiʃay*
keer-taa-siʔ *i = ʔana*
 run[SG]-VN-DEF.M/F 3 = 1SG.PRO.ACC

kafaʃ-f-ay
 tire[MID]-CAUS-PF[3M]
 ‘The running made me tired.’

Proper names can occur with the M/F definite suffix *-siʔ*. The definite suffix is added to a proper name when there is shared knowledge between the interlocutors about the person. Examples:

- (46a) *Katannasiʔ ʔiʔaakta*
Katanna-siʔ *i = aak-t-a*
 Katanna-DEF.M/F 3 = be.well-3F-IPF.FUT
 ‘The Katanna is well (recovering from illness).’
- (46b) *kappoolesiʔ ʔayyee ca*
kappoole-siʔ *ayye = i* *kiy-a*
 Kappoole-DEM.M/F here = 3 be-IPF.FUT
 ‘The Kappoole is here.’

The shared knowledge between the interlocutors in (46a) is about Katanna’s health situation while in (46b), it is about Kappoole’s whereabouts.

When definite suffixes are followed by the dative or instrumental suffix, the definite suffixes have the forms *-sit* for M/F (47) and *-sinit* for P as shown in (48).

- (47a) *okkattasitip piʃaa ɖaaʃi*
okkatta-sit-ʔ *piʃaa* *ɖaaʃ-i*
 cow-DEF.M/F-DAT water give-IMP.SG
 ‘(You (SG)) Give water for the cow!’
- (47b) *iskatteetasiʔ ʔorrasitiʔee ʃaʒaa katti*
iskatteeta-siʔ *orra-sit-ʔ = i* *ʃaʒaa*
 woman-DEF.M/F people-DEF.M/F-DAT = 3 local.beer

kat-t-i
 sell-3F-PF
 ‘The woman sold the people local beer.’

- (47c) *kaasaitinin karmaasi? ʔiʃʃay*
kaasa-sit-n = in *karmaa-siʔ* *ʔiʃʃ-ay*
 gun-DEF.M/F-INST = 1 lion-DEF.M/F kill-PF[3M]
 ‘I killed the lion with the gun.’

- (48a) *anti? ʔinnaasinitiʔin ʔopaa piɖɖay*
anti-ʔ *ʔinnaa-sinit-ʔ = in* *ʔopaa*
 1SG.PRO-NOM boy-DEF.P-DAT = 1 shoes

piɖɖ-ay
 buy[SG]-PF[3M]
 ‘I bought shoes for the boy.’

- (48b) *teepaasinitin ʔormaasih hidfi*
teepaa-sinit-n ʔorma-asiʔ hidfi-i
 rope-DEF.P-INST ox-DEM.M/F tie.SG-IMP.SG
 ‘(You (SG)) Tie this ox with the rope!’

Definite reference does not obligatorily require definite marking. In stories and conversations, for instance, it is quite customary to encounter entities that have been mentioned before used without definite suffixes later in the story or conversation. For example, in sentence (49), taken from a story about a lion that lived in a jungle, the noun *karmaa* ‘lion’, which has been mentioned a couple of times earlier in the story, appears without a definite marker.

- (49) *karmaa ka ʔapaleesiʔ ʔaraa kaassumaa kaassafay*
karmaa ka ʔapaleeta-asiʔ ʔaraa
 lion and monkey-DEM.M/F on

kaassuma = i kaassaf-ay
 question = 3 ask-PF[3M]
 ‘And, [the] lion asked this monkey [the] question.’

4.8. Demonstrative suffixes

There are four demonstrative suffixes that express proximity. These are: *-oosiʔ*, *-asiʔ*, *-siʔ* and *-oosiniʔ*. The suffixes *-oosiʔ*, *-asiʔ*, and *-siʔ* occur with nouns that trigger an M/F gender. The suffix *-oosiniʔ* occurs with nouns that trigger a plural gender. Among *-oosiʔ*, *-asiʔ*, and *-siʔ*, the suffix *-oosiʔ* is added to any nominal root. Examples:

- (50a) *kut-oosiʔ*
 dog-DEM.M/F
 ‘this dog’

- (50b) **karm-oosi?**
lion-DEM.M/F
'this lion'
- (50c) **orr-oosi?**
people-DEM.M/F
'these people'

The following are illustrative sentential examples:

- (51a) **kutoosis s^waa ihatay**
kut-oosi? *so?aa* *i = hat-ay*
dog-DEM.M/F meat 3 = steal-PF[3M]
'This dog stole meat.'
- (51b) **ḍakoosi? ?i?ulsi**
ḍak-oosi? *i = ?uls-i*
stone-DEM.M/F 3 = be.heavy-PF
'This stone is heavy.'
- (51c) **orroosi? ?ileki**
orr-oosi? *i = lek-i*
people-DEM.M/F 3 = be.many-PF
'These people are numerous.'

The demonstrative suffix *-asi?* is added to nominal roots that have the nominaliser *-a* (but not *-aa*) or the singulative suffix *-ta*, as shown in the following illustrative phrases.

- (52a) **kuta-asi?**
dog-DEM.M/F
'this dog'
- (52b) **nama-asi?**
person-DEM.M/F
'this person'
- (52c) **tuuyyata-asi?**
pig-DEM.M/F
'this pig'
- (52d) **tapayta-asi?**
rat-DEM.M/F
'this rat'

The following are illustrative sentential examples:

- (55a) *ɕimaysiʔ ʔipaaɕni*
ɕimay-siʔ *i = paaɕ-ni*
 old.man-DEM.M/F 3 = be.sick-IPF.PRES
 ‘This old man is sick.’
- (55b) *damsiʔ ʔakataa meʔawni*
dam-siʔ *akata = i* *meʔaw-ni*
 food-DEM.M/F very = 3 be.sweet-IPF.PRES
 ‘This food is quite delicious.’
- (55c) *harreesiʔ ʔideepoodti*
harree-siʔ *i = deep-ood-t-i*
 donkey-DEM.M/F 3 = be.thirsty-MID-3F-PF
 ‘This donkey is thirsty.’

Nominal roots with a final CC (e.g. *moott-* ‘friend’, *hark-* ‘hand’) do not allow the demonstrative suffix *-siʔ*.

The demonstrative suffix *-oosiniʔ*, as mentioned earlier, is added to nouns that trigger a plural gender agreement on the verb. For instance, the nouns *innaa* ‘child’, *piʃaa* ‘water’, *harreewwaa* ‘donkeys’ and *dillaa* ‘fields’ in the following examples occur with *-oosiniʔ*.

- (56a) *innoosiniʔ ʔipiʔin*
innaa-oosiniʔ *i = piʔ-i-n*
 child-DEM.P 3 = be.thin-PF-P
 ‘This child fell.’
- (56b) *piʃoosiniʔ ʔipooraawin*
piʃaa-oosiniʔ *i = pooraaw-i-n*
 water-DEM.P 3 = be.impure-PF-P
 ‘This water became impure.’
- (56c) *harreeww-oosiniʔ ʔi = ka-kapp-i*
harreewwaa-oosiniʔ *i = ka-kapp-i*
 donkeys-DEM.P 3 = PL-be.fat-PF
 ‘These donkeys are fat.’
- (56d) *dilloosiniʔ ʔipappaldi*
dillaa-oosiniʔ *i = pap-pald-i*
 fields-DEM.P 3 = PL-be.wide-PF
 ‘These fields are wide.’

Using the nominal root *por-* ‘road’ or the singulative noun *pora* ‘road’, in (57) we show the occurrence of the demonstrative suffixes and the definite reference suffix:

- (57) *por-si?* ‘this road’
por-oosi? ‘this road’
pora-asi? ‘this road’
pora-si? ‘the road’

Distal location is expressed by a locative adverb (see Section 8.2.1), the existential verb and a noun with a demonstrative suffix. The following are illustrative examples:

- (58a) *namsid dīsee co moottaawu*
nam-si? *dīsee=i* *kiy-o*
 person-DEM.M/F there=3 be-3M

moottaawu
 friend-1SG.POSS.M/F
 ‘That man is my friend.’

- (58b) *kaharroosini? ʔirre ca ileki*
kaharr-oosini? *irre* *kiy-a* *i=lek-i*
 sheep-DEM.P up.there be-IPF.FUT 3=be.many-PF
 ‘Those sheep up there are numerous.’

4.9. Numerals

4.9.1. Cardinal numbers

The cardinal number system is decimal. The cardinal *kuma* ‘thousand’ is the highest basic unit of the numeral system. The basic cardinal numbers are the following:

- (59) *takka* ‘one’
lakki ‘two’
sessaa ‘three’
afur ‘four’
ken ‘five’
leh ‘six’
tappa ‘seven’
settee? ‘eight’
sakal ‘nine’
kudan ‘ten’
dippa ‘hundred’

kuma 'thousand'

The cardinal numbers **dippa** 'hundred' and **kuma** 'thousand' can occur with the basic cardinal units from one to nine as shown in (60a-b). Moreover, **kuma** 'thousand' may occur with the basic cardinal unit **kudan** 'ten' and **dippa** 'hundred', as demonstrated in (60c-d).

(60a) **dippa takka**
hundred one
'one hundred'

(60b) **kuma lakki**
thousand two
'two thousand'

(60c) **kuma kudan**
thousand ten
'ten thousand'

(60d) **kuma dippa**
thousand hundred
'hundred thousand'

The cardinal numbers **kudan** 'ten', **dippa** 'hundred' and **kuma** 'thousand' may take plural suffixes, as in (61). Note that there is metathesis when **kudan** 'ten' is plural: **kunda**. The plural suffixes indicate 'many tens/hundreds/thousands'.

(61a) **kundadfaa**
'tens'

(61b) **dippadaa**
'hundreds'

(61c) **kumadfaa**
'thousands'

Cardinals between eleven and nineteen are formed from the base ten (**kudan**), the conjunction **ka** 'and' and the lower cardinals (one to nine). Literally, the combination means 'ten and X', where X stands for a lower cardinal. The combinations are as follows:

(62)	kudan ka takka	'eleven'	(lit.: ten and one)
	kudan ka lakki	'twelve'	(lit.: ten and two)
	kudan ka sessaa	'thirteen'	(lit.: ten and three)
	kudan ka afur	'fourteen'	(lit.: ten and four)

kudan ka ken	‘fifteen’	(lit.: ten and five)
kudan ka leh	‘sixteen’	(lit.: ten and six)
kudan ka tappa	‘seventeen’	(lit.: ten and seven)
kudan ka settee	‘eighteen’	(lit.: ten and eight)
kudan ka sakal	‘nineteen’	(lit.: ten and nine)

Multiples of ten, hundred or thousand are formed from base *kundā* <*kudan*> ‘tens’, *dippa* ‘hundred’ or *kuma* ‘thousand’ and the unit cardinals from one to nine. The following are illustrative examples.

- (63)
- | | |
|---------------------|-----------------|
| <i>kundā</i> afur | ‘forty’ |
| <i>dippa</i> sessaa | ‘three hundred’ |
| <i>dippa</i> ken | ‘five hundred’ |
| <i>kuma</i> leh | ‘six thousand’ |
| <i>kuma</i> sakal | ‘nine thousand’ |

It is possible to say *kundā takka* ‘ten’ (lit. ‘one ten’).

Addition is expressed by *ka* after the unit ten, but by *ka* or *?* otherwise. The *?* appears as a gemination of the initial consonant of the following cardinal. Addition of single digits to the multiples of ten, hundred or thousand requires base ten, hundred or thousand followed by the unit cardinal of the multiple of ten, hundred or thousand. The cardinals occur in descending order from left to right. Here are some examples:

- (64a)
- | | | |
|----------------|----------------|---------------|
| <i>kundā</i> | <i>lakkī-?</i> | <i>sessaa</i> |
| ten | two-plus | three |
| ‘twenty-three’ | | |
- (64b)
- | | | | |
|-----------------------|-----------------|--------------|------------|
| <i>dippa</i> | <i>sessaa-?</i> | <i>kundā</i> | <i>ken</i> |
| hundred | three-plus | tens | five |
| ‘three hundred fifty’ | | | |
- (64c)
- | | | | | |
|----------------------------|---------------|--------------|----------------|---------------|
| <i>dippa</i> | <i>lakkī?</i> | <i>kundā</i> | <i>lakkī-?</i> | <i>sessaa</i> |
| hundred | two | ten | two-plus | three |
| ‘two hundred twenty-three’ | | | | |
- (64d)
- | | | | | | |
|----------------------------|------------|-----------|--------------|---------------|---------------|
| <i>dippa</i> | <i>ken</i> | <i>ka</i> | <i>kundā</i> | <i>afur-?</i> | <i>sessaa</i> |
| hundred | five | and | ten | four-plus | three |
| ‘five hundred forty-three’ | | | | | |

- (64e) *kuma afur ka dippa sessak kunda ken*
kuma afur ka dippa sessa-?
 thousand four and hundred three-plus
- kunda ken*
 ten five
 ‘four thousand three hundred and fifty’

The addition of digits of hundred expressed by ? in (64c) can be replaced by *ka* ‘and’. Likewise, *ka* ‘and’ in (64d) can be replaced by the suffix ? ‘plus’.

Single digits after the multiples of hundred are expressed by a multiple of hundred followed by conjunction *ka* ‘and’, postposition *ɣaraa* ‘on’ and the single unit. Similarly, single units or multiples of ten after the multiples of thousand are expressed by multiple of thousand followed by the conjunction *ka* ‘and’, postposition *ɣaraa* ‘on’ and the single unit or multiple of ten. Examples:

- (65a) *dippa lakki ka ɣara-a sessaa*
 hundred two and on-LOC three
 ‘two hundred and three’
- (65b) *kuma tappa ka ɣara-a sakal*
 thousand seven and on-LOC nine
 ‘seven thousand and nine’
- (65c) *kuma ken ka ɣara-a kudfan leh*
 thousand five and on-LOC ten six
 ‘five thousand and sixty’

4.9.2. Mathematical operations

Two arithmetic exercise booklets (booklet I (2001) and booklet II (2004)) have been written in Konso by the Evangelical Church of Mekane Yesus. With very little adaptation, I use the terminology used for mathematical operations in booklet II. The terminology is derived from verb roots or verb stems: the mathematical operation for addition is derived from the verb root *padaaw-* ‘add, increase’, subtraction from *ɣaʔʃ-* ‘to cause to rise, lift’, multiplication from *lek-* ‘to be many’, division from *ɣoot-* ‘to divide’. The expressions are given in (66a). In (66b), I provide the glossed versions of some of the expressions.

- (66a) *padaawtu* addition (+)
ɣaʔissu /ɣaʔʃtu/ subtraction (-)
lekissu /lekʃtu/ multiplication (×)
ɣoottu division (÷)

minakkittu / <i>mina?kittu</i> /	equal to	(=)
ḡara ḡaptu	greater than	(>)
kelpa ḡata kittu	less than	(<)
ḡara ḡaptu taakkite minakkittu	greater than or equal to	(≥)
kelpa ḡata kittu taakkite minakkittu	less than or equal to	(≤)

(66b) ḡara ḡap-t-u
 on exceed-3F-DP
 ‘greater than (>)’

kelpa ḡata kittu
kela-pa ḡata kit-t-u
 under-to down be-3F-DP
 ‘less than (<)’

ḡara ḡaptu taakkite minak kittu
ḡara ḡap-t-u taakkite mina-? kit-t-u
 on exceed-3F-DP otherwise front-DEST be-3F-DP
 ‘greater than or equal to (≥)’

kelpa ḡata kittu taakkite minak kittu
kela-pa ḡata kit-t-u taakkite mina-?
 under-DEST down be-3F-DP otherwise front-DEST

kit-t-u
 be-3F-DP
 ‘less than or equal to (≤)’

Note that all the expressions of mathematical operations have the third person feminine gender agreement marker -t.

Expressions of mathematical operations are introduced by conditional conjunctions. In addition, for the operation of addition the conjunction ḡara ‘on’ is required. The suffix -? ‘plus’ is added to the conjunction. The following is an illustrative example.

(67) oo lakki ḡaral lakki padaawan, afure kodḡini
oo lakki ḡara-? lakki padaaw-a-n
 if two on-plus two add-IPF.FUT-P

afur=i kodḡ-ni
 four=3 become-IPF.PRES
 ‘If two is added to two, it becomes four.’ (2 + 2 = 4)

The operation of addition may also be expressed by the conjunction *ka* ‘and’ as shown below:

- (68a) *lakki ka sassaa kenee koddfini*
lakki ka sassaa ken=i koddf-ni
 two and three five=3 become-IPF.PRES
 ‘Two and three become five.’

- (68b) *sessaa ka afur tappaa koddfini*
sessaa ka afur tappa=i koddf-ni
 three and four seven=3 become-IPF.PRES
 ‘Three and four become seven.’

Like that of addition, the operation of subtraction requires the conjunction *gara* ‘on’ to which the locative suffix *-a* is attached. The following is an illustrative example.

- (69) *oo leh garaa lakki xaʔʃan, afure kelaa hasini*
oo leh gara-a lakki xaʔʃ-a-n
 if six on-LOC two lift-IPF.FUT-P

afur=i kela-a hasi-ni
 four=3 under-LOC remain-IPF.PRES
 ‘If two is taken away from six, four remains.’ (6 – 2 = 4)

The following is an example of the operation of multiplication:

- (70) *oo sessaan leh kidan, kudān ka setteeʔe koddfini*
oo sessaa-n leh kid-a-n,
 if three-times six say-IPF.FUT-P

kudān ka setteeʔ=i koddf-ni
 ten and eight=3 become-IPF.PRES
 ‘If six is said three times, it becomes eighteen.’ (6 × 3 = 18)

The following is an example of the operation of the division.

- (71) *oo kudān pora lakkiʔ gootan, kene koddfini*
oo kudān pora lakki-ʔ goot-a-n
 if ten place two-DAT divide-IPF.FUT-P

ken=i koddf-ni
 four=3 become-IPF.PRES
 ‘If ten is divided into two places, it becomes five.’ (10 ÷ 2 = 5)

The examples in (72a) and (72b) are illustrative examples for the operations of greater than and less than, respectively.

- (72a) *tappak ken ġaraa ġapta*
tappa-ʔ ken ġara=i ġap-t-a
 seven-NOM five on=3 exceed-3F-IPF.FUT
 ‘Seven is greater than five.’ (7 > 5)

- (72b) *sakalik kudān kelpa χataa kitta*
sakali-ʔ kudān kela-opa χata=i
 nine-NOM ten under-to down=3

kit-t-a
 be-3F-IPF.FUT
 ‘Nine is less than ten.’ (9 < 10)

4.9.3. Ordinals

All ordinal numerals, except for ‘first’, are formed by adding the suffix *-atta* to the cardinal numerals. The ordinal numeral ‘first’ is formed from the verb root *paayy-* ‘to start, begin’. The ordinal number ‘second’ is formed from the older Cushitic root *lamm-* ‘two’ (cf. the cardinal *lakki* ‘two’) and the suffix *-atta*. It is also important to point out: that the final vowel in *sessaa* ‘three’ is shortened in the ordinal, that there is metathesis in the ordinal numeral *arf-atta* ‘fourth’ (cf. *afur* ‘four’), that there is vowel deletion in *saklatta* ‘ninth’ (cf. *sakal* ‘nine’), and that /t/ replaces the glottal stop in the cardinal number *setteeʔ* ‘eight’.

- | | | |
|------|--------------------------|--------------|
| (73) | <i>paayyuta</i> | ‘first’ |
| | <i>lammatta</i> | ‘second’ |
| | <i>sessatta</i> | ‘third’ |
| | <i>arfatta</i> | ‘fourth’ |
| | <i>kenatta</i> | ‘fifth’ |
| | <i>lehatta</i> | ‘sixth’ |
| | <i>tappatta</i> | ‘seventh’ |
| | <i>setteetatta</i> | ‘eighth’ |
| | <i>saklatta</i> | ‘ninth’ |
| | <i>kundatta</i> | ‘tenth’ |
| | <i>kudān ka takkatta</i> | ‘eleventh’ |
| | <i>kudān ka sessatta</i> | ‘thirteenth’ |
| | <i>kunda kenatta</i> | ‘fiftieth’ |
| | <i>dippatta</i> | ‘hundredth’ |

4.10. Nominal derivation

4.10.1. Denominal/adjectival abstract nominals

Abstract nominals may be derived from nominal or adjectival roots (not from derived stems) by the suffix **-um**. The abstract suffix is followed by the suffixes **-a** or **-aa**. Abstract nominals derived from nominal roots occur with **-a** (M) while those derived from adjectival roots occur with **-aa** (P). For example, the abstract nominal **innuma** ‘childhood (M)’ in (74a) is derived from **innaa** ‘child (P)’ while the abstract nominal **kappumaa** ‘fatness (P)’ in (74b) is derived from the adjectival root **kapp-** ‘be fat’.

- (74a) **innumasi?** *ʔiʔiʃa diifay*
innaa-um-a-si? *i = ifa* *diif-ay*
 child-ABS-NMZ-DEF.M/F 3 = 3SGM.PRO[ACC] leave-PF[3M]
 ‘He does not behave like a child any longer.’
 (lit.: The childhood left him.)

- (74b) **okkattasik kappumaa ipaayyay**
okkatta-si? *kapp-um-aa* *i = paayy-ay*
 cow-DEF.M/F be.fat-ABS-NMLZ 3 = start-PF[3M]
 ‘The cow started to get fat.’
 (lit.: The cow started fatness.)

An abstract noun referring to ‘childhood’ is also derived from the suppletive multiple reference noun **hellaa** ‘children (P)’: **helluma** ‘childhood (M)’

4.10.2. Deverbal agentive nominals

Deverbal agentive nominals are derived from verb roots by the suffix **-aamp**. The agentive suffix is followed by the nominal gender suffixes **-ayta** for masculine, **-ayt-eeta** for feminine and **-ayaa** for plural. The feminine suffix is a serial derivation in that it is built on the masculine agentive. From the verb roots **ʒot-** ‘dig’, **kod-** ‘work’ and **pol-** ‘joke’, we derive the masculine agentive nominals (75a), the feminine agentive nominals (75b) and the plural agentive nominals (75c).

- (75a) **ʒotaamp-ayta** ‘farmer.3M’
kodaamp-ayta ‘worker.3M’
polaamp-ayta ‘joker.3M’
- (75b) **ʒotaamp-ayt-eeta** ‘farmer.3F’
kodaamp-ayt-eeta ‘worker.3F’
polaamp-ayt-eeta ‘joker.3F’

- (75c) *ḡotaamp-ayaa* ‘farmer.3P’
 kodaamp-ayaa ‘worker.3P’
 polaamp-ayaa ‘joker.3P’

In the following examples, I show the nominal gender agreement with various subjects. In (76a), the agentive nominal occurs with the nominal masculine gender suffix *-ayta* for the semantically singular subject *nama* ‘man’. In (76b), the agentive nominal occurs with the nominal masculine gender suffix *-ayta* for the semantically plural subject *ḡonsitta* ‘the Konso’. In (76c), the agentive nominal occurs with the nominal feminine gender suffix *-ayteeta* for the semantically plural subject *kuyleeta* ‘the Ts’amakko’. Lastly, in (76d), the agentive nominal occurs with the nominal plural gender suffix *-ayaa* for the semantically singular subject *innaa* ‘child’.

- (76a) *namoosiḡ ḡotaampayta*
 nama-osi? *ḡot-aamp-ayta*
 man-DEM.M/F farm-AGENT-3M
 ‘This man is a (hard-working) farmer.’
- (76b) *ḡonsitta ḡot-aamp-ayta*
 Konso.PL farm-AGENT-3M
 ‘The Konso are (hard-working) farmers.’
- (76c) *kuyleeta ḡot-aamp-ayt-eeta*
 Ts’amakko.PL farm-AGENT-3M-3F
 ‘The Ts’amakko are (hard-working) farmers.’
- (76d) *innoosiniḡ ḡotaampayta*
 innaa-osini? *ḡot-aamp-ayaa*
 child-DEM.P farm-AGENT-3P
 ‘This child is a (hard-working) farmer.’

4.10.3. Denominal ethnic nominals

Nationals or individuals of ethnic groups or place of residence (e.g. village) may be derived from nominal roots by means of gender suffixes: *-itta* (M) for male, *-itteeta* (F) for female and *-itta* (M), *-aa* (P) or *-eeta* (F) for plural. The plural form is the one used to refer to the name of the ethnic group or residents of a place. Table 2 contains illustrative examples for derived nominals referring to nationalities or ethnic groups. Table 3 contains illustrative examples for derived nominals referring to residents of particular villages.

Male	Female	Plural	
χons-itta Konso man	χons-itt-eeta Konso woman	χons-itta (M) Konso people	Konso
χoyr-itta kawwaad-itta	χoyr-itt-eeta kawwaad-itt-eeta	χoyr-aa (P) kawwaad-aa (M)	Burji Gawwada
firaat-itta	firaat-itt-eeta	firaat-aa (M)	Diraafē
kuyil-itta	kuyil-itt-eeta	kuyil-eeta (F)	Ts'amakko
ɕaww-itta	ɕaww-itt-eeta	ɕaww-eeta (F)	Amhara

Table 2: Examples of derived nominals referring to nationality or ethnic group

Male	Female	Plural	Village name
kuum-itta (male) person from Kuume	kuum-itt-eeta (female) person from Kuume	kuuma (M) people from Kuume village	Kuume
mafaɕ-itta	mafaɕ-itt-eeta	mafaɕaa (M)	Mafaɕe
dekatt-itta	dekatt-itt-eeta	dekattoota (F)	dekatto
sawkam-itta	sawkam-itt-eeta	sawkamaata (F)	Sawkama
kaaɕal-itta	kaaɕal-itt-eeta	kaaɕalaa (M)	Kaaɕale

Table 3: Examples of derived nominals referring to residents of particular villages

4.10.4. Denominal nouns with indication of characteristic

Persons with certain characteristic are derived from nouns with the suffix **-ool** which is followed by the nominal gender marking suffixes **-ayta (M)**, **-ayt-eeta (F)** and **-ayaa** for male, female and plural, respectively. The derivation is productive mainly occurring with plural nouns and has a semantic specialisation indicating large quantity of the entities in question. With singulatives, it indicates that the noun in question has a large size. For example, from the singulative **matta** 'head', **kessa** 'chest' and plurative **dillaa** 'fields', we may derive the masculine nominals in (77a), feminine nominals in (77b) or plural nominals in (77c).

- (77a) **matt-ool-ayta** 'one (M) with a big head'
kess-ool-ayta 'one (M) with a broad chest'
dill-ool-ayta 'one (M) with many fields'
- (77b) **matt-ool-ayt-eeta** 'one (F) with a big head'
kess-ool-ayt-eeta 'one (F) with a broad chest'
dill-ool-ayt-eeta 'one (F) with many fields'
- (77c) **matt-ool-ayaa** 'ones with big heads'
kess-ool-ayaa 'ones with broad chests'
dill-ool-ayaa 'ones with many fields'

With the noun **χolmaa** ‘neck (P)’, the derivation **χolm-ool-ayta** means ‘a man who uses force to obtain something’; **χolm-ool-ayt-eeta** ‘a woman who uses force to get something’ and **χolm-ool-ayaa** ‘people who use force to obtain something’. With the noun **hoppatta** ‘guts (M)’ the derivation indicates greed: **hoppatt-oolayta** ‘a greedy man’; **hoppatt-ool-ayt-eeta** ‘a greedy woman’ and **hoppatt-ool-ayaa** ‘greedy people’.

4.10.5. Deadjectival individual entities

Deadjectival nominals are derived from adjectival roots with the nominal gender suffixes **-ayta**, **-ayteeta** and **-yaa** for third person masculine, feminine and plural, respectively. Plural deadjectival nominals are also characterised by having the adjectival root based on the plural adjective and hence containing initial **C₁V(C₁)** reduplication. For instance, from the adjectival roots **der-** ‘be tall, long’, **kapp-** ‘be fat’ and **ɣalla?** ‘be thin’, we can derive the masculine deadjectival nominals (78a), third person feminine deadjectival nominals (78b), singulative deadjectival nominals with plural gender (78c) or plural deadjectival nominals (78d).

(78a)	derayta kappayta ɣalla?ayta	‘tall one.3M’ ‘fat one.3M’ ‘thin one.3M’
(78b)	derayteeta kappayteeta ɣalla?ayteeta	‘tall one.3F’ ‘fat one.3F’ ‘thin one.3F’
(78c)	derayaa kappayaa ɣalla?ayaa	‘tall one.P’ ‘fat one.P’ ‘thin one.P’
(78d)	dedderayaa kakappayaa ɣacɣalla?ayaa	‘tall ones’ ‘fat ones’ ‘thin ones’

The nominal gender suffixes added to deadjectival individual entities can be used not only to refer to persons but also to other entities.

4.10.6. Deverbal action nouns

Deverbal action nouns are derived from verb roots by using various suffixes as illustrated below. The list of the suffixes is not exhaustive.

(79a) -anta (F)

hatanta	‘stealing’	hat-	‘to steal’
palanta	‘ripening’	pal-	‘to ripen’
keranta	‘ageing’	ker-	‘to be old’
faranta	‘crack’	far-	‘to crack’

(79b) -antaa (M)

χaʔantaa	‘flying’	χaʔad-	‘to fly’
ɕaʔantaa	‘standing’	ɕaʔad-	‘to stand’
hirantaa	‘running[PL]’	hir-	‘to run[PL]’

(79c) -oota (F)

ɖaloota	‘birth’	ɖal-	‘to give birth’
ɕaloota	‘slaughtering’	ɕal-	‘to slaughter’

(79d) -eeta (F)

ɕoteeta	‘digging’	ɕot-	‘to dig, farm’
piddeeta	‘buying[SG]’	pidɖ-	‘to buy[SG]’
ɖiipeeta	‘washing’	ɖiip-	‘to wash’

(79e) -naa (P)

ɕahnaa	‘fleeing’	ɕah-	‘to flee’
pahnaa	‘example’	pah-	‘to resemble’
ʔupnaa	‘knowledge’	ʔup-	‘to know’
sahnaa	‘capacity’	sah-	‘to be able to’

(79f) -a (M)

ɖeeχa	‘peace making’	ɖeeχ-	‘to make peace’
ɖiika	‘blood’	ɖiik-	‘to bleed’
χarʃa	‘beans’	χarʃ-	‘to cook beans’

(79g) -aa (P)

fataa	‘vomit’	fat-	‘to vomit’
ɖamaa	‘food’	ɖam-	‘to eat’

(79h) -uta (F)

noodfuta	‘bribe’	noodf-	‘to push’
needfuta	‘hatred’	needf-	‘to hate’
paakkuta	‘span’	paakk-	‘to measure with span’
puussuta	‘writing, line’	puuss-	‘to draw a line’
moossuta	‘piece of bread’	mooss-	‘to break (bread)’

4.11. Case

Konso has nominative–accusative case alignment. The core cases nominative and accusative are rarely distinguished, see 4.11.1. Genitive constructions are marked with a genitive particle following its head noun. Dative and Instrumental nouns are marked with a suffix. The dative suffix is homophonous with one of the locative suffixes, both consisting of a glottal stop. The other locative suffix is similar to the background suffix, both ending in -yye. When addressing people, a vocative ending can be used. These phenomena do not form a coherent system within the language but are discussed here under the heading Case.

4.11.1. The nominative and accusative cases

Proper names, pronouns and days of a week are marked for the nominative case with the suffix -ʔ. For example, the proper names **Kappoole** and **Apitto** occur in the subject positions as in (80a) and (80b), respectively. Both also occur unmarked in the object position as in (80b) and (80a), respectively. In (80c), the subject pronoun **ʔinu** ‘we’ occurs with the suffix -ʔ, and in (80d), the week day **palawwa** ‘Saturday’ occurs with the suffix -ʔ.

Nominative marking by glottal stop is limited to the above cases. Common nouns do not distinguish nominative and accusative case (except in cleft constructions, see below). The items that do show nominative marking have in common that they are inherently specific. In this respect, it is interesting to observe that demonstrative and definite suffixes end in a glottal stop while possessive suffixes do not.

(80a) **Kappooliʔ ʔapittu ʔiGoffay**
Kappooli-ʔ Apittu i = Goff-ay
 Kappoole-NOM Apitto 3 = pinch.SG-PF[3M]
 ‘Kappoole pinched Apitto once.’

(80b) **Apittuk Kappooli iGoffay**
Apittu-ʔ Kappooli i = Goff-ay
 Apitto-NOM Kappoole 3 = pinch.SG-PF[3M]
 ‘Apitto pinched Kappoole once.’

(80c) *inut toman piddfini*
inu-ʔ *toma=in* *piddf-n-i*
 1PL.PRO-NOM bowl=1 buy[SG]-1PL-PF
 ‘We bought a bowl.’

(80d) *palawwap partaane*
palawwa-ʔ *partaane*
 Saturday-NOM day.after.tomorrow
 ‘Saturday is the day after tomorrow.’

With regard to pronouns, only first person singular and second person singular make a lexical distinction for nominative and accusative cases: *anti* ‘I’ vs. *ana* ‘me’ and *atti* ‘you (SG)’ and *ke* ‘you (SG)’ (see Chapter 5 for details of pronouns). All pronouns in the subject position are also marked for nominative by the suffix *-ʔ*. For example, the pronoun *anti* ‘I’ and *ke* ‘you (SG)’ in (81a) occur in the subject and object positions, respectively. Similarly, the pronouns *atti* ‘you (SG)’ and *ana* ‘me’ in (81b) occur in the subject and object positions, respectively.

(81a) *antik ke inGoffay*
anti-ʔ *ke* *in=Goff-ay*
 1SG.PRO-NOM 2SG.PRO.ACC 1 = pinch.SG-PF[3M]
 ‘I pinched you (SG) once.’

(81b) *attiʔ ʔana iGoffiti*
atti-ʔ *ana* *iʔ=Goff-t-i*
 2SG.PRO-NOM 1SG.PRO.ACC 2 = pinch.SG-2-PF
 ‘You (SG) pinched me once.’

Pronouns that do not make a lexical distinction for nominative and accusative are still marked by the suffix *-ʔ* for nominative as shown in (82).

(82a) *inuʔ ʔifoonna indaanni*
inu-ʔ *ifoonna* *in=daan-n-i*
 1PL.PRO-NOM 3PL.PRO[ACC] 1 = chase-1PL-PF
 ‘We chased them.’

(82b) *ifoonnaʔ ʔinu idaanni*
ifoonna-ʔ *inu* *i=daan-n-i*
 3PL.PRO-NOM 1PL.PRO[ACC] 3 = chase-3PL-PF
 ‘They chased us.’

Tone is used to make the nominative and accusative case distinction in cleft sentences in such a way that the nominative case is marked by a low tone whereas the accusative case is marked by a high tone. For example, in (83a-b),

we have the nouns **harreeta** ‘donkey’ and **χorma** ‘ox, bull’. In both examples, **harreeta** ‘donkey’ precedes **χorma** ‘ox, bull’. The lengthened final vowel of the noun **harreeta** ‘donkey’ in (83a) has a low tone; final vowel lengthening is one of the characteristic features of clefting (as discussed in Section 3.5). In (83b), however, the lengthened final vowel of **harreeta** ‘donkey’ has a high tone which marks the accusative case.

(83a) **harreeta-a** **χorma** **diit-ay**
 donkey-CLF[NOM] ox kick[SG]-PF[3M]
 ‘It is a donkey that kicked an ox.’

(83b) **harreeta-á** **χorma** **diit-ay**
 donkey-CLF[ACC] ox kick[SG]-PF[3M]
 ‘It is a donkey that an ox kicked.’

Now, when we exchange the positions of the two nouns **harreeta** ‘donkey’ and **χorma** ‘ox, bull’ in (84a-b), we find that the final vowel of **χorma** ‘ox, bull’ is lengthened. Moreover, in (84a), the lengthened final vowel carries a low tone, thus, marking nominative case while in (84b), the lengthened final vowel carries a high tone, thus, marking an accusative case.

(84a) **χorma-a** **harreeta** **diit-ay**
 ox-CLF[NOM] donkey kick[SG]-PF[3M]
 ‘It is an ox that kicked a donkey.’

(84b) **χorma-á** **harreeta** **diit-t-i**
 ox-CLF[ACC] donkey kick[SG]-3F-PF
 ‘It is an ox that a donkey kicked.’

4.11.2. The genitive case

The genitive is expressed with the genitive particle **?a** for human possessors, and **?a...?** for non-human possessors. The final syllable of the possessor has a high tone.

The distribution of the genitive suffixes in accordance with whether the possessor is human or non-human is clear from the example in (85a) the noun **locʔa** ‘leg’ is possessed by a human possessor **Kappoole** but by a non-human possessor **tulpeeta** ‘hippo’ in (85b). Similarly, in the examples in (85c), the noun **tika** ‘house’ is possessed by the human possessor **Anto** while the noun **napahta** ‘ear’ in (85d) is possessed by the non-human possessor **arpa** ‘elephant’. In (85e), the noun **taamta** ‘branch’ is possessed by the non-human possessor **Goyra** ‘tree’.

- (85a) *logʔa a kappoolíʔ ʔakkiti*
logʔa a kappoolí=iʔ akk-t-i
 leg GEN kappoole=2 see-2-PF
 ‘You (SG) saw Kappoole’s leg.’
- (85b) *logʔa a tulpeetáʔiʔ ʔakkiti*
logʔa a tulpeetá-ʔ=iʔ akk-t-i
 leg GEN hippo-GEN=2 see-2-PF
 ‘You (SG) saw hippopotamus’s leg.’
- (85c) *tika a Antú i=pald-i*
 house GEN Anto 3=be.wide-PF
 ‘Anto’s house is wide.’
- (85d) *napahta a arpá-ʔ i=pald-i*
 ear GEN elephant-GEN 3=wide-PF
 ‘The ear of an elephant is wide.’
- (85e) *inantasit taamta a ʕoyraʔ ʔimurti*
inanta-siʔ taamta a ʕoyra-ʔ
 girl-DEF.M/F branch GEN tree-GEN

i=mur-t-i
 3=cut[SG]-3F-PF
 ‘The girl cut a branch of a tree.’

Proper names with a final *aa* also have *ʔ* in the genitive construction as in (86).

- (86a) *okkatta a Oynaá-ʔ=in akk-ay*
 cow GEN Oynaa-GEN=1 see-PF[3M]
 ‘I saw Oynaa’s cow.’
- (86b) *ifeennat tika a kaabaáʔ ʔiʔupta*
ifeenna-ʔ tika a kaabaá-ʔ
 3SGF.PRO-NOM house GEN kaabaa-GEN

i=up-t-a
 3=know-IPF.FUT
 ‘She knows Kaabaa’s house.’

Nouns possessed by associative plural are expressed with the genitive particle followed by the associative particle *opa* and the name, as illustrated in (87).

- (87a) *tika a opa kappoolí i=sek-i*
 house GEN ASS kappoole 3 = be.far-PF
 ‘Kappoole (and his associate)’s house is far.’
- (87b) *díla a opa kintilí i=pald-i*
 field GEN ASS kintile 3 = be.wide-PF
 ‘Kintile (and his associate)’s field is wide.’

The genitive particle may occur after nouns with possessive suffixes, as illustrated below.

- (88) *hellaa-nno a χonsú-ʔ i=dey-i-n*
 children-1PL.POSS.P GEN Konso-GEN 3 = come-PF-P
 ‘Our Konso fellows came.’
 (lit.: ‘Children of our Konso came.’)

In fast speech, the glottal stop that occurs at the end of the genitive construction is elided, resulting in a complete assimilation to the initial vowel of the possessor noun if the possessor begins with a (glottal stop plus) vowel as in (89a-b). If the possessor begins with another consonant, the affix may be elided as in (89c).

- (89a) *χorma aantú ʔipoori*
χorma a Antú i=poor-i
 ox GEN Anto 3 = be.black-PF
 ‘Anto’s ox is black.’
- (89b) *aannookkattáʔ ʔinʔikay*
aannaa a okkattá-ʔ in=ik-ay
 milk GEN cow-GEN 1 = drink-PF[3M]
 ‘I drank cow milk.’
- (89c) *hoofa karrattáʔ ʔinakkini*
hoofa a karrattá-ʔ in=akk-n-i
 hole GEN squirrel-GEN 1 = see-P-PF
 ‘We saw a squirrel’s hole.’

4.11.3. The dative case

The dative is marked with the suffix -ʔ. The dative suffix differs from the nominative suffix in that it is not limited to pronouns and names but also occurs on common nouns. The main role of the dative is to denote the beneficiary. The following are examples:

- (90a) *attiŋ ɔolpasiŋ ʔifaŋ ʔippidditi*
atti-ŋ *ɔolpa-siŋ* *ifa-ŋ*
 2SG.PRO-NOM he-goat-DEF.M/F 3SGM.PRO-DAT
- iŋ=pidɔt-i*
 2 = buy[SG]-2-PF
 ‘You (SG) bought him a he-goat.’
- (90b) *inatasiŋ ʔanap piŋaa idaassi*
inata-siŋ *ana-ŋ* *piŋaa* *i=daaf-t-i*
 girl-DEF.M/F 1SG.PRO.ACC-DAT water 3 = give-3F-PF
 ‘The girl gave me water.’
- (90c) *antin nama tokkaŋin ɣapaa pidɔday*
anti-ŋ *nama* *tokka-ŋ=in* *ɣapaa*
 1SG.PRO-NOM person one.M-DAT = 1 shoes
- pidɔt-ay*
 buy[SG]-PF[3M]
 ‘I bought shoes for someone.’
- (90d) *tuparaasiniŋ ʔokkayaaŋe oha ohin*
tuparaa-siniŋ *okkayaa-ŋ=i*
 girls-DEF.P cows-DAT = 3
- oha* *oh-i-n*
 fodder cut.fodder-PF-P
 ‘The girls cut fodder for the cows.’

First and second person beneficiaries are always marked with the dative suffix. However, it is possible for third person beneficiaries not to be marked. In this case, the dative suffix occurs at the end of the verb. This results in the final vowel of the verb having a high tone. For example, in (91a), there is no dative suffix, and as a result the final vowel of the verb occurs with a low tone. In (91b), there is a dative suffix at the end of the verb, and the preceding vowel has a high tone.

- (91a) *in = daaf-a*
 1 = give-IPF.FUT
 ‘I will give (it).’
- (91b) *in = daaf-á-ŋ*
 1 = give-IPF.FUT-DAT
 ‘I will give (it) for him/her/them.’

The example in (91b) can also be used to mean ‘I will give (it) on behalf of him/her/them.’

4.11.4. The instrumental case

The instrumental case is marked by the suffix *-n(n)*. The suffix appears single before consonants (92a), and geminate before vowels (92b). It indicates that the noun it is added to is used as an instrument by an agent. For example, the nouns *faasita* ‘pick axe’ and *ulayta* ‘stick’ are used as instruments to accomplish the actions of cutting and hitting, respectively.

- (92a) *attif faasitan ɣoyrasi? ʔimmurti*
atti-ʔ *faasita-n* *ɣoyra-siʔ*
 2SG.PRO-NOM pickaxe-INST tree-DEF.M/F

iʔ = mur-t-i
 2 = cut-2-PF
 ‘You (SG) cut the tree with a pickaxe.’

- (92b) *anti? ʔulaytannin pinantasid ɗayay*
anti-ʔ *ulayta-nn = in* *pinanta-siʔ*
 1SG.PRO-NOM stick-INST = 3 animal-DEF.M/F

ɗay-ay
 hit-PF[3M]
 ‘I hit the animal with a stick.’

The instrumental suffix also indicates manner as in (93).

- (93) *malannil lukkalittasiɣ ɣaptin*
mala-nn = iʔ *lukkalitta-siʔ* *ɣap-t-i-n*
 wisdom-INST = 2 chicken-DEF.M/F catch-3F-PF-P
 ‘You (PL) caught the chicken skillfully.’

4.11.5. The vocative case

The vocative is marked by the suffixes *-u/o* and *-y*. The former occurs with nouns that trigger M/F gender agreement on the verb, as in (94), and the latter with nouns that trigger a plural gender agreement on the verb, as in (95).

- (94a) *namu, maana? ʔaye koʔni*
nama-u *maana = iʔ* *aye* *kod-ni*
 man-VOC.M/F what = 2 here do-IPF.PRES
 ‘You guy, what are you doing here?’

- (94b) *karru, okkattaayti ka ḡormaawu kulee dālay*
karraa-u, okkatta-ayti ka
 squirrel-VOC.M/F cow-2SG.POSS.M/F and
- ḡorma-awu kuli=i dāl-ay*
 ox-1SG.POSS.M/F also=3 give.birth-PF[3M]
 ‘Squirrel, your cow as well as my ox gave birth.’
- (95a) *tuparraa-y ḡooy-a*
 girls-VOC.P come-IMP.PL
 ‘You girls, come!’
- (95b) *ḡinnaa-y ḡooy-i*
 boy-VOC.P come-IMP.SG
 ‘You boy, come!’

In kinship terms, we may find the vocative suffixes *-u/o*, *-i/e* and *-a*. The distribution is lexically determined as can be seen from the following examples.

- | | | | | |
|------|--------------------|--------------------|-------------------|-----------------|
| (96) | Vocative form | | source | |
| | <i>aapp-u/o</i> | ‘daddy!’ | <i>aappaa</i> | ‘father’ |
| | <i>okkooyy-u/o</i> | ‘grandma!’ | <i>okkooyyita</i> | ‘grandmother’ |
| | <i>aayy-i/e</i> | ‘mamma!’ | <i>aayyaa</i> | ‘mother’ |
| | <i>aatt-i/e</i> | ‘elder sibling!’ | <i>aattaa</i> | ‘elder sibling’ |
| | <i>aakk-a</i> | ‘grandpa!’ | <i>aakkaa</i> | ‘grandfather’ |
| | <i>maamm-a</i> | ‘(paternal) aunt!’ | <i>maammata</i> | ‘aunt’ |

Proper names with a final *-o* in the base form attach the vocative suffix *-u/o* as in (97a); those with a final *-e* attach the vocative *-e/i* as in (97b); those with a final *-a* attach the vocative suffix *-a* as in (97c).

- (97a) *Antu/o* ‘Anto!’
Katanu/o ‘Katano!’
Paritu/o ‘Parito!’
- (97b) *Kappoole/i* ‘Kappoole!’
Kanaase/i ‘Kanaase!’
- (97c) *ḡalaalla* ‘ḡalaalla!’
Orkeeta ‘Orkeeta!’

4.11.6. The locational markers *-Vyye* and *-ʔ*

The suffixes *-Vyye* and *-ʔ* mark location (see locational adverbs in 8.2.1). The V of *-Vyye* is the lengthening of the final vowel of the noun). The locational

marker -Vyye occurs mainly with the verb root *kiy-* ‘be, exist’ whereas -ʔ occurs with action verbs such as *χaay-* ‘put’, *diif-* ‘leave’. The following are illustrative examples.

- (98a) *sakooyyaf faaf̣eeyyee ca*
sakooyya-ʔ faaf̣e-eyye=i kiy-a
 sakooyya-NOM faaf̣e-LOC=3 be-IPF.FUT
 ‘Sakooyye is at Faafe.’
- (98b) *inantasit tomasit tikaʔ ʔiχaayti*
inanta-siʔ toma-siʔ tika-ʔ i=χaay-t-i
 girl-DEF.M/F bowl-DEF.M/F house-LOC 3=put-3F-PF
 ‘The girl put the bowl at home.’

The locational markers do not replace each other. This can be seen from the examples in (99), which are modified versions of the examples in (98).

- (99a) **sakooyyaf faaf̣iʔ ʔica*
sakooyya-ʔ faaf̣e-ʔ i=kiy-a
 sakooyya-NOM faaf̣e-LOC 3=be-PF.FUT
 (intended: ‘Sakooyye is at Faafe.’)
- (99b) **inantasit tomasit tikaayye iχaayti*
inanta-siʔ toma-siʔ tika-ayye i=χaay-t-i
 girl-DEF.M/F bowl-DEF.M/F house-LOC 3=put-3F-PF
 (intended: ‘The girl put the bowl at home.’)

The locational suffixes differ with respect to optionality: It is possible to leave out -Vyye but not -ʔ. For example, in (100a), -Vyye occurs with the noun *tika* ‘house’ but it does not occur with the same noun in (100b). On the other hand, -ʔ is obligatory. To demonstrate this, example (100b) is repeated with and without the suffix in (100c) and (100d).

- (100a) *ɕimaytasit tikaayyee ca*
ɕimayta-siʔ tika-ayye=i kiy-a
 old man-DEF.M/F house-LOC=3 be-IPF.FUT
 ‘The old man is at home.’
- (100b) *ɕimaytasit tikaa ca*
ɕimayta-siʔ tika=i kiy-a
 old man-DEF.M/F house=3 be-IPF.FUT
 ‘The old man is at home.’

- (100c) *inantasit tomasit tika? Yiɣaayti*
inanta-si? toma-si? tika-ʔ i = ɣaay-t-i
 girl-DEF.M/F bowl-DEF.M/F house-LOC 3 = put-3F-PF
 ‘The girl put the bowl at home.’
- (100d) **inantasit tomasit tika Yiɣaayti*
inanta-si? toma-si? tika i = ɣaay-t-i
 girl-DEF.M/F bowl-DEF.M/F house 3 = put-3F-PF
 ‘The girl put the bowl at home.’

The locational suffix -Vyye can be used as ablative, as in the following examples:

- (101a) *inantaasiɣ ɣonsooyyee deʔti*
inanta-asi? ɣonso-eyye = i dey-t-i
 girl-DEM.M/F Konso-LOC = 3 come-3F-PF
 ‘This girl came from Konso.’
- (101b) *urmalaayyeeɛn laha pidɕay*
urmala-eyye = in laha pidɕ-ay
 market-LOC = 1 ram buy[SG]-PF[3M]
 ‘I bought a ram from the market.’

4.11.7. The background marker

The background is marked by the suffixes -eyye or -yye. The former has an allomorph -e. The distribution is phonologically determined: nouns with a short terminal -a occur with -eyye or -e, and nouns with a terminal vowel -aa occur with -yye. The background marker has the meaning ‘person-wise’ or ‘entity-wise’.

- (102a) *iʃan nameeyye ideri*
iʃa-ʔ nama-eyye i = der-i
 3SG.PRO-NOM person-BKGRD.M/F 3 = be.tall-PF
 ‘Person-wise, he is tall.’
- (102b) *ɕoyraasiɕ ɕoyre ɕoyra a kokay*
ɕoyra-asi? ɕoyra-e ɕoyra a
 tree-DEM.M/F tree-BKGRD.M/F tree REL
kok-ay
 dry-PF[3M]
 ‘Tree-wise, this tree is dry.’
 (lit.: ‘Tree-wise, this tree is a tree which is dry.’)

- (102c) *filoosinif filaaayye itiimi*
filaa-osini? *filaa-yye* *i = tiim-i*
 comb-DEM.P comb-BKGRD.P 3 = be.red-PF
 ‘Comb-wise, this comb is red.’
- (102d) *tikkaa-yye* *i = pap-pald-i*
 houses-BKGRD.P 3 = PL-be.wide-PF
 ‘House-wise, they are wide.’

Deadjectival nominals that modify head nouns also occur with the background suffix *-eye*. For instance, the deadjectival nominal *ɕallaʔayta* ‘thin one’ in (103a) occurs with the head noun *ɕoyra* ‘tree’ which, in the example, has the background suffix *-eye*. However, head nouns that have the definite suffix *-siʔ* do not allow deadjectival nominals to occur with the background suffix, as shown in (103b). Similarly, deadjectival nominals do not occur with subject clitics, as illustrated in (103c).

- (103a) *ɕoyreeyye ɕallaʔayta*
ɕoyra-eyye *ɕallaʔ-ayta*
 tree-BKGRD.M/F be.thin-NMLZ.M
 ‘Tree-wise, it is a thin one.’
- (103b) **ɕoyreeyyesiɕ ɕallaʔayta*
ɕoyra-eyye-siʔ *ɕallaʔ-ayta*
 tree-BKGRD-DEF.M/F be.thin-NMLZ.M
 (intended: ‘Tree-wise, the tree is thin.’)
- (103c) **iɕallaʔayta*
i = ɕallaʔ-ayta
 3 = be.thin-NMLZ.M
 (intended: ‘It is thin one.’)

4.12. Compounding

Compounding is not really productive; I disagree with Daniel (2000) on this point. The following are the compound nouns I was able to find. Most of them have the genitive particle *a*. The words are compounds because, for example, the first two have reduced first parts which do not exist in this form independently. The rest of the compound words have a specialised, non-predictable meaning and thus are lexicalised.

- (104a) *kurɕakkayta*
kurra + ɕakkayta
 ear + deaf.M
 tree species

- (104b) **kuttimpira**
kuttumaa-pir-a
 growth-finish-NMLZ
 ‘molar tooth’
- (104c) **duusutakaarayyaá?**
duusuta-a-kaarayyaá-?
 fart-GEN-devil-GEN
 mushroom species
- (104d) **akalaparaffaá?**
akala-a-paraffaá-?
 sack-GEN-cereal.species-GEN
 ‘centipede’
- (104e) **χormawaagá?**
χorma-a-waagá-?
 ox-GEN-God-GEN
 grasshopper species
- (104f) **keraawaagá?**
keraa-a-waagá-?
 thief-GEN-God-GEN
 ‘witchdoctor’

The above compound words may form their pluratives by replacing the singulative suffix with a plurative suffix, adding a plurative suffix in the end or to the initial part. The first compound forms its plurative by replacing the singulative suffix *-ta* with *-aa*. The the second three compound words form their pluratives by adding the plurative suffix *-dāaa*. The last two compound words form their pluratives based on the pluratives of the first words. Notice that the final genitive marker *?* in the singulatives appears after the plurative suffix. Below, I give the plurative of each of the above compound words to show that these words are one word and a noun.

	Singulative	plurative
(105a)	kurđakkayta <i>kurra + dakkayta</i> ear + deaf.M tree species	kurđakkayaa <i>kurra + dakkayaa</i> ear + be.deaf.P tree species

⁹ Also *ussukkaarayyaa*.

- | | | | |
|--------|---|--|--|
| (105b) | kuttimpira
<i>kuttumaa-pir-a</i>
growth-finish-NMLZ
‘molar tooth’ | | kutimpiradfaa
<i>kuttumaa-pir-a-dfaa</i>
growth-finish-NMLZ-P
‘molar teeth’ |
| (105c) | duusutakaarayyaá?
<i>duusuta-?a-kaarayyaá-?</i>
fart-GEN-devil-GEN
‘mushroom (species)’ | | duusutakaariyyadfaá?
<i>duusuta-a-kaariyyaa-dfaá-?</i>
fart-GEN-devil-P-GEN
‘mushrooms’ |
| (104d) | akalaparaffaá?
<i>akala-a-paraffaá-?</i>
sack-GEN-cereal.species-GEN
‘centipede’ | | akalaparaffadfaá?
<i>akala-a-paraffadfaá-?</i>
sack-GEN-cereal.species.P -GEN
‘centipedes’ |
| (104e) | χormawaagá?
<i>χorma-a-waaGá-?</i>
ox-GEN-God-GEN
‘grasshopper (species)’ | | χormadawaagá?
<i>χormadaa-a-waaGá-?</i>
oxen-GEN-God-GEN
‘grasshoppers’ |
| (104f) | keraawaagá?
<i>keraa-a-waaGá-?</i>
thief-GEN-God-GEN
‘witchdoctor’ | | kere?tawaagá?
<i>kere?ewwa-a-waaGá-?</i>
thieves-GEN-God-GEN
‘witchdoctors’ |

