A Linguistic Sketch of Tiba (Gà)
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En outre, nous avons mis à jour les données concernant le yendang (Adamaoua 5) en introduisant les résultats d’une enquête plus détaillée effectuée en 1999 et concernant le tchamba-leko en tirant sur le lexique approfondi publié par Fabre (2003).

L’interprétation la plus directe de cette documentation permet d’affirmer l’appartenance probable de cette langue au groupe mumuye-yendang de la branche Adamaoua de la famille Niger-Congo, malgré l’assimilation massive de termes empruntés au tchamba-daka qui l’entoure et qui est connu et utilisé en bilinguisme parfait par les Tiba. En effet, l’hypothèse contraire qui ferait du tiba une langue dont l’ancêtre le plus proche serait une « proto-tchamba » exigerait la supposition d’un temps historique assez long de contact avec une langue du groupe Adamaoua 5 de Greenberg dont le tiba aurait emprunté une grosse partie du vocabulaire. Or, nous n’avons aucun motif qui laisserait penser qu’une fois les Tiba auraient vécu isolés des Tchamba pendant une époque où leur langue aurait divergé du tchamba pour arriver à l’état où on le trouve aujourd’hui.

Par ailleurs nous continuons à penser que le classement du tchamba parmi les langues bantoïdes, hypothèse courante depuis Bendor-Samuel (1989), constitue une aberration malgré les influences manifestes d’une ou de plusieurs langues Benoué-Congo (Boyd 1997). Le reclassement étant fondé sur une étude lexicostatistique, d’ailleurs de portée limitée, il injecte un composant détonnant dans la méthode de Greenberg avec qui il faut continuer à affirmer : « Regarder, vous le verrez ».

I.0. Introduction

The Tiba area can be reached at present by leaving the main Gombe-to-Yola road in the direction of Mayo Belwa, then continuing on through Jada towards Ganye via the longer route passing by Mbulo. The traveler will then turn westward at Mbulo towards Tola. Some twenty kilometers beyond the town of Pola lies Gambe, the Tiba center on this axis. Most Tiba people nevertheless reside, not in Gambe, but in hamlets on the surrounding hills. There are no census data or any means of counting the number of Tiba speakers, but a local speculative guess puts the figure at less than ten thousand.

The Tiba tend to shun outsiders, as many mountain peoples do. It was therefore with some difficulty that we found an informant, after several people had promised to help us and then not appeared. Finally, we were able to contact Abdullahi, called Awdi, son of VwèkKààmì and resident in the hamlet of KékPáán. He was unable to give himself a precise age but would seem to be in his early thirties.

It will be noticed that Awdi's father's name and the name of his hamlet are Chamba Daka (hereafter CD). This is said to be ordinary among the Tiba, i.e., at least when Islam was less widespread, they traditionally gave themselves CD names, and are certainly all fully bilingual in this language. They are also said to have adopted Chamba customs, but this has not been verified in any way. A doubt would even seem to be cast on this
affirmation insofar as Awdi did not give an identical term for the fundamental Chamba institution of lángsí, and in fact seemed unclear about its exact nature.

The Tiba (Tíbá in CD) do not use this name for themselves. Rather, they call themselves àGòá nìà 'Tiba people') and their language àgà ìjá ('Tiba mouth', i.e., 'Tiba language'). Roger Blench has called to our attention the fact that there is a word of the form tiba in the Adamawa group 4 language "Momi", which means 'blacksmith'. Now neither the Tiba themselves nor the surrounding Chamba seem to have any recollection that smithing was an original role of this people. While it may be that there was interethnic blacksmithing in this region (i.e., that one ethnic group would seek its blacksmith population among a neighboring group), and that this original relationship is now forgotten in the case of the Tiba, it may also be that terms for 'blacksmith' are not always obtained as some derivate of the terms for 'forge', 'to forge', or some other notion associated with smithing, but rather from words meaning 'outsider, stranger' (cf. CD dōō 'stranger, outsider, pagan', "a pejorative term for stranger, especially non-Chamba speakers, applied in particular to 'less developed' neighbors", Richard Fardon, pers. comm.). The common term for the Tiba people and for Momi blacksmiths may thus signify simply that both are viewed as "outsiders" with respect to their neighbors.

Our survey was conducted entirely in Nnakenyaare CD, as Awdi had practically no knowledge of English. Isa Saadu, a teacher currently resident in Pola, was present throughout in order to provide all the necessary clarifications. It might be feared that, if the informant were not committed and alert, such a procedure would tend to throw up large numbers of CD loanwords. There were indeed many cases in which the Tiba term was identical with the one recorded in CD, and it is possible that some of these cases may be attributable to the informant's fatigue after hours of the mechanical repetition required of him in the early stages of this survey. Nevertheless, the bulk of the lexical data is clearly distinct from CD, consisting either of different roots or of cognates showing important phonological variations. Grammatical and syntactic features, too, were characteristic, though often showing interesting correlations with CD. Our impression is that the degree of CD/Tiba interference was minimal.

Our sessions with Awdi took place over a period of exactly six days (plus a short additional session in 1998 to obtain further information on the pronominal system). While
the author is practiced in linguistic survey work, it should be clear to everyone that, given the conditions, the data presented here are very far from sufficient for a reliable description of Tiba. The attempt has nevertheless been made to suggest some kind of analysis for most of the salient features of the language. The reader will take these analyses for no more than what they are worth: nothing said here is not subject to review in the light of further research.

I.2. A cognate search

Tiba is a language concerning which practically no published information exists. Williamson (1989:269) calls it a "newly-reported" Benue-Congo language, insofar as the first linguistic knowledge concerning it came from survey work in the 1980's by Roger Blench. Williamson cites three terms in Tiba ('man', 'one', 'neck'), the first of which is assumed to be a "Benue-Congo innovation", the other two being "older [NC] roots". No other basis for classification is cited. In the same volume, Hedinger (1989:424), referring back to an unpublished paper by Blench and Williamson (1987), cites Tiba as a separate branch of "Northern Bantoid"; Blench (1993) includes it with CD in "Dakoid".

The purpose of this article is not to dispute the classification of Tiba, though on a wider scale, the author would certainly dispute the usefulness of forcing many of the linguistic isolates in this region of intense contact into any branching sub-family structure, particularly in the case of NC languages. We simply note that a) Tiba is classifiable in Greenbergian terms as Adamawa (hereafter AD); indeed, if CD is assigned to AD, it is inconceivable, on the basis of the material presented here, that Tiba should not be. b) Tiba is located in fairly close proximity to undisputedly AD languages (there are predominantly Mumuye settlements only a few kilometers away). It is therefore pertinent to examine what similarities exist on the linguistic level between Tiba and AD; we leave to other interested parties the task of working out the relationships which may exist between Tiba and other language groups. Unfortunately, the published lexical data on a number of languages which might interest us, particularly AD groups (precisely the one containing Mumuye), 8 (Kam), and 9 (Jen/Munga), are scarce (limited practically to Meek 1931). Nevertheless, we have ourselves been able to obtain a set of some 500 lexical items in Yendang (the other part of AD5), and we are fortunate to have some fairly extensive material from the Mumuye portion of AD5 (Shimizu 1983), from AD4 (Blench and Edwards 1988 for Momi, Raen
1985 for Pere, Bohnhoff 1991 for Dii or Duru), and from at least one AD2 language, Chamba Leko, hereafter CL (an unpublished wordlist from the Balkossa Literacy Center).

All the AD languages cited above are conceivably part of a larger AD grouping (see Boyd 1989a:179-80, where an AD2, 4, 5 subgroup was mooted), which we may provisionally call "Southwestern Adamawa" (SWAD). Since a first look at the data reveals a multiplicity of striking lexical similarities between Tiba and SWAD, this paper will concentrate on specifying as many of these as possible.

Obviously, any cognate search can be extended to other AD groups. One of these would be another AD grouping including AD6 (Mbum) and AD13 (Bua). In this paper, we shall indeed incorporate data from a few languages chosen fairly arbitrarily for accessibility of material. Four of these are from AD6: Mbum (Hino 1978), Karang, Koh (Ubels, n.d.), and Pana (Lim 1997), belonging to the "Central" group (Boyd 1989a:185); three others are from AD13: Kulaal, Kwa (not the Kwa surveyed by Kleinewillinghöfer 1996) and Niellim, using unpublished word lists prepared by Pascal Boyeldieu (n.d.), including material collected by Claude Pairault for Kulaal (cf. Boyeldieu 1985, Pairault 1969), among others. While some interesting correlations are revealed, this search is of greater interest as an illustration of the phenomenon of "diminishing returns" than for providing new AD links for Tiba. A check of the AD6/13 citations will show that the majority of these are either cases of common AD (or NC) roots, or proof of the classificatory separation of the two groupings involved, or both. In few cases do they provide the only available cognates for Tiba roots. On the other hand, there are numerous citations from only one or more languages from AD2/4/5. If we extend our search again to AD11 Fali (see Sweetman 1981), we will find even less unique citations, barely one or two, e.g., sip- 'bury' (cf. Tiba sib 'bury' and sib 'under'). Open-ended search processes are therefore of little use. Indeed, it will often quickly become apparent which languages give "results" (multiplicity and plausibility of cognates unattested on a wider scale) and which do not. Perhaps inevitably, the ones which do give "results" are close or fairly close geographical neighbors, or at least those with which recent historical contact can be affirmed.

There is, however, a third grouping, namely "Northwestern Adamawa" (NWAD) as defined by Kleinewillinghöfer 1996 (including AD7 Yungur, AD10 Longuda, AD1 Waja, AD9 Jen, and Bikwin and Kwa groups, unknown to Greenberg). A cognate search bringing
this set of languages into play would be of considerable interest, particularly in view of the presence of AD9 Jen. Indeed, a check of the Jen and Munga lists presented by Meek (1931) reveals a certain number of interesting correlations, more in any case than with the other NWAD languages cited in that work. Furthermore, Kleinevellinger stresses the affinities between the Jen and Bikwin groups and notes that neither has a noun classification system, unlike the other NWAD languages. A wider comparison between SWAD and NWAD is therefore in order; this, however, will not be the subject of this paper. We shall here do no more than cite the relevant entries in Meek's Jen/Munga lists.

Naturally, given Tiba's geographical position, one hardly expects to find any BC language which could provide cognation on the same level as that provided by the AD2/4/5 grouping. This, of course, does not prove the classificatory position of Tiba in any more than a Greenbergian sense. In the light of basic vocabulary, CD and Tiba remain peripheral with respect to AD, each containing numerous items apparently unattested elsewhere. On the basis of a wider vocabulary, of course, CD and Tiba will group in the same way that CD and CL do, despite the surveyor's intuitive impression that these languages are markedly different.

Given the sparseness of data on some crucial languages, we shall proceed here in two steps: we begin by presenting a list of nominal roots, drawn from the lists used by Meek. Our first set of 38 nominals will show that there is a considerable degree of lexical concordance between Tiba and SWAD. This connection strikes one as stronger than the link between CD and AD (involving almost exclusively AD2 CL). As usual, however, two conclusions are possible: 1) there is some kind of fairly distended genetic grouping involved; or 2) these are contact phenomena of fairly ancient date, in which case the arrival of CD on the scene would hypothetically be more recent and of a nature such as to engulf certain smaller groups, but with little effect on a wider geographical scale.

The second set of 16 nominals shows how close the relationship between Tiba and CD is. In many cases, the degree of resemblance and the absence of cognacy elsewhere suggest that borrowing in the near past is the only plausible way to account for the present situation. In other cases, however, the phonological divergence is such that, if borrowing is indeed involved, it cannot be so recent.
In the final list of 19 nominals, the individuality of Tiba comes to the fore. This set includes items which either have no apparent CD or AD cognacy, or require the assumption of considerable phonological change to account for any correspondences.

In a part II of this study, we state all the tentative conclusions which we were able to reach with regard to phonology, tonology, morphology, and grammatical marking in Tiba, compare the situations in Tiba and CD, and provide a full Tiba-English word list, with all additional putative AD cognates which we have been able to find in the sources cited.
LIST 1: ADAMAWA COGNATES FOR TIBA NOUNS WITH GLOSSES IN MEEK'S WORDLISTS

Notation: In CD, we use the characters ɛ, ξ to represent high mid vowels and e, o to represent low mid vowels; ˀ represents a mid central vowel. For ease of typography and comparison, we have transposed material available in other languages cited here to this system whenever the distinction in mid vowel heights is clearly pertinent (the contrast is thus not marked for mid front vowels in Pere as it has no role in the native lexical stock). In the particularly complicated Dii system, both e, o and barred i, u are represented by ɛ, ξ; this is unlikely to cause confusion, given the almost total complementary distribution of the vowel heights concerned. Consonant notation is conventional; note only that vw represents a labial flap and ' is used for glottal stop. In tonal notation, / represents downstep, while ̂ represents any vowel bearing the suprahigh tone in the four-register Yendang system. (Given the provisional nature of the Momi data, these are noted without tones.)

Meek's data are given in his nonphonetic notation, with the exception that ng is noted η where necessary.

In this part of the paper, Tiba nouns are presented in citation form, i.e., with à- or à/- prefix and final -á (the latter undergoing diverse alterations as described in part II). The retention of the prefix clarifies certain correspondences in Kam (AD8) where a similar element is apparently prefixed to many nouns. The prefix is dropped in the list in Part II.

Each set of items is arranged alphabetically by English gloss.

● (S)WAD cognates

à-áŋ-á 'arm, hand'
CD wáá; the general root in AD2/5/7/8/9 is nasal + central or front vowel + nasal

à-tó-á 'bow'
CD tå%m, AD2 CL tåb, AD4 Momi taau, Pere tåbò, AD5 Zing Mumuye (hereafter ZM) tå(k)å, Yendang tåt, Meek AD8 Kam ace, cf. AD9 Jen kanto, Munga kantau; also PP *ta
à-bàn-k-a 'bushcow'
AD5 ZM bàkə, Meek Yendang bàt

à-kàŋkiláa 'chicken'
AD5 ZM kiŋ, cf. Meek AD8 Kam kume; there is no nasal in AD2, thus CL kɔŋ, cf. CD kpàt,
AD4 Momi kɔz, AD6 Mbum kákká vs. Koh kɔŋ; the nasal reappears with a back vowel in
AD4 Pere kɔŋi, the initial consonant is voiced in Meek's AD7 Yungur go; note a root in
part of AD13, represented in Kulaal by hàlá, suggesting the Tiba term may involve two
roots of similar meaning; also cf. terms for 'guinea-fowl'

à-nàmèn-á 'crocodile'
CD nàmèn, CL ñàbàŋ, AD4 Pere nàmàŋè, Meek AD5 Yendang name

à-náksá 'cow'
AD4 Momi nogs and Pere nàgò, Meek AD5 Yendang nàkí, AD6 Koh nàkà, cf. PP *niak;
but CD, AD2 CL ná, also in AD7; AD4 Dii has ndà, AD5 ZM has nàpó

à-bý-á 'dog'
Meek AD7 Yungur bwe, Mboi abwa; possible cognacy with the AD6 series Mbum góì,
Karang gáy, Kare váá; *bu is also PP

à-níŋ-á 'drum'
Meek AD2 Mumbake riŋgīma

à-tóó 'ear'
CD táá, AD5 ZM shǒq (derivation from an earlier *twa, or *tue as in Common Bantu,
seems patent), Yendang tók; the velar c₂ is widespread: AD2 CL túŋ, AD4 Momi tok, Pere
tóɡò, Dii tóɡ, cf. AD6 Karang súk

à-éŋ-á 'egg'
ZM wangkaa; note Meek AD5 Yendang hát, Kumba pa; the full AD5 set suggests cognacy
with the widespread "pàqā" form (cf. AD2 CL bòód, AD10 Longuda fōla, AD14 Niellim
hwáání)
à-ísä’ ‘eye’
*yir/* forms are widely attested in non-Bantu Bantoid (along with *si* and *li*) and in AD13; otherwise, we have PP *gis, to be compared with Fali (AD11) *nisi* and Bantu A.90 Kako *misí (also, of course, Fulfulde *yeeso ‘face’, *yiitere ‘eye’)

(à-)së-é ‘fingernail’ (perhaps -së-)
AD5 ZM *saari, Yendang *söö, Meek AD8 Kam *aciri-, AD9 Jen/Munga *cina-

à-nè-à ‘four’
AD4 Pere *nărō, Dii *ndădërō, ZM *dneeërō, CL *nārā, Meek AD5 Yendang *nāt, AD8 Kam *nar; compare AD6 Karang *niŋ, Kare *nēŋ, Mbum *nyâŋ

à-vîn-ā ‘goat’
CD *vînn, AD2 CL *vā, Meek Wom/Mumbake *vua, AD4 Mom *buuz, AD5 Yendang *bùi, Kumba *wii, Gengle/Kugama *ayî, AD9 Munga *naŋbu, AD6 Karang *gûy, Koh *vîy, AD13 Niellim *bïwāy

à-kpàngüm-tā ‘groundnut(s)’
CD *kpâŋŋ ‘groundnut’, *gûóm ‘bambara groundnut’, Meek AD2 Chamba (Leko) *kpanj- *jwara (now without the preposed term: *wâd)

à-gërâ ‘guinea-corn’
Meek AD2 Wom *gbera, cf. CL *yēd, CD *yîrî; also see -hâŋ- ‘guinea-corn’ below

à-sôksá ‘(body) hair’
AD4 Mom *suuk ‘hair’, AD5 ZM *sôô; a term noted *sûri by Meek (Yendang *sûûrî) ‘hair (of head)’ (Meek does not record ‘body hair’) is widespread in AD5 outside Mumuye, cf. Dong *suk ‘hair’ (Blench 1997), AD6 Koh *sûy ‘hair’; a comparable root appears in some A13 languages

à-gbôm-à (gbôóm) ‘heart’
AD5 ZM *gbôoti

à-nyâñ-à ‘horse’
CD *nyâan, CL *yâ, Meek AD8 Kam *yege
à-lúp-ä 'knee'
CD lúuí, CL ligád 'articulation', Meek AD2 Wom ligëri, AD5 Teme luŋ, Kumba niŋi, Gengle/ Kugama ruŋ, also Yendang (yá)-ránkä; AD8 Kam alunu (also A13 Bwa group d/rul vs. AD6 Kare (nzá)-túù)

à-bák-ä 'knife'
Meek AD8 Kam abak; cf. AD4 Diī pāg

yáášā 'leaf'
CL yéšā, cf. CD yáā and Meek AD5 Yendang nyākahë (yáńkā, with classifier hé), Waka nyāga, Teme jańga, AD9 Jen/Munga yangoa

à-béč-ä 'leg'
AD4 Momi bi 'paw'

à-bō-ä 'leopard'
AD4 Pere bálám, cf. CD gbēč, AD5 ZM gbmee, Meek Yendang kpe (kpēč); the relationships between these roots AD2 CL gā, AD4 Momi gooz, and Meek AD7 ila, vila, ivula, AD8 impeli, AD9 hwi, vwi is obscure

à-nýém-ä 'meat'
Meek AD9 Jen hiā, Munga xiam; other instances of this root in AD2, 7, 8 are not palatalized; this well-known NC root reappears in AD13 Kulaal nyām, Niellim nyām

(à-)fēn-ä 'moon'
AD6 Karang fēw, Meek AD7 Yungur -fē, -fā, AD9 Jen/Munga ŋī, hwi (Kleinewillinghöfer 1996 records cases of nasal vowels); also in AD13: Kulaal fēč, Niellim pyāč, PP *pyan has reflexes in both initial f and s, cf. 'sun'

à-dōk-ä 'mountain'
Meek AD8 Kam adag

à-kāŋ-ä 'neck'
Meek AD5 Gengle/Kugama kōag, AD7 Libo kwēnena; elsewhere in groups 5 and 7, the forms are kir, kwer, kor, cf. AD2 CL kōól, AD4 Pere kōlāŋ; also cf. 'shoulder'
à-jí-á 'night''
AD4 Pere zègò 'darkness', AD5 ZM zíi, Meek Kumba jim

à-bòŋ-á 'river'
Meek AD5 Yendang boŋko (bòŋkó), Waka bangó, etc., AD2 CL wūŋ. But the root is also apparently in "Mambiloid" Nizaa

à-yökūm-á 'salt'
Meek AD2 Mumbake nyuŋ, AD4 Pere yōŋ, Meek AD9 Jen jukwē; also cf. CD nyénūm 'kind of salt', AD2 CL nwūm

à-yō-á 'snake'
CD yēɡ, cf. Meek AD9 Jen dzo, Munga zqu, AD7 Mboi za, Libo i[-]zonya, and all apparent cognates with initial s in AD5 and 7; also cf. AD4 Dii yō' 'slough off (old skin)'; while this root is best known in BC (cf. Bantu *-j/yókà), it is also found in languages presumably subjected to little BC influence such as AD11 Fali jōŋ and Ubangi Gbayá góm

à-té-é 'stone'
AD5 ZM tara, Meek Yendang tari (tāří), AD8 Kam atal, AD9 Jen/Munga te (cf. AD6 Karang -sàw); PP *ta

à-lér-á 'tongue'
Meek AD2 Wom lela, AD5 ZM rèetè, Yendang lēkà, but CD lāŋ

à-tár-á 'three'
CD tāra, ZM tat, CL tōŋrā, Meek AD5 Yendang tat (tāt), AD7 Yungur (ti)ta, Libo tar(in), AD8 Kam car, AD9 Jen (wa)ta

à-tí-á 'tree'
AD4 Momi te; the root is also clearly represented in Meek AD5 Yendang (tēŋ), Waka, Teme and AD2 Mumbake, CL tē, cf. CD tām with final nasal (AD10 Longuda shows a plural form with final -m, Kleinewillinghöfer 1996); also cf. AD13 Kulaal téŋ, Niellim tëľà, but AD6 Kare dî
à-lóm-á 'war'
AD4 Dii lúù 'make war'; cf. AD6 Koh yúù, Mbum nyíì

à-jĩjĩj-á 'water'
Meek AD2 Lekon (Chamba Leko) nyuŋuna, cf. Wom/Mumbake yila, CL wũl; also compare AD4 Dii zíí 'urine', zíí 'river'; possibly connected with the AD13 root represented in Kulaal by ím but elsewhere by rim forms

● Cognate in CD

à-wér-á (wéé) 'arrow'
CD wáří

à-d(ũ)um-á 'back, behind'
CD dím(áá): primarily a BC root (particularly Bantu and Cross River), represented regionally in Vute and Mambila; the best AD correlate is Dii d̀ŋà 'beyond, on the other side'

à-ỳs̀n-á 'breast'
CD nyésà: cf. PP *basan; compare AD2 CL vũüm, AD4 Momi voom 'milk'

à-gàn-á 'chief'
CD gàng: possibly an areal root, though plausible cognates all show unusual correspondences, cf. Mambila gàng, AD2 CL gààd, AD4 Pere gà̀nè, Dii gbàŋ, PP *gwam, among others

à-kọŋlár-á 'elephant'
CD kọŋlái; CD has an apparently derived verb kọŋlì 'bend' from which this root may in turn derive (relating, for example, to the form of the tusks); note, however, the existence of Meek AD7 Roba lara and AD10 Longuda larawa, suggesting this root could also theoretically be an ancient compound (also cf. AD4 Pere gòŋi)

à-tũùŋ-á 'five'
CD túumá: initial t- is characteristic of BC (AD has mostly n-); back v₁ can be found, for example, in Jukunoid
à-tú-ä 'head'
CD tůː: a NC root; but SWAD (including AD5) has mostly initial y-, j- (or o as in Yendang úk), cf. nevertheless AD4 Dii túːn 'face'; AD6 (excluding Mbum) has túːl

à-jũntá 'pot'
CD jũː; see -wàlاغ- below

à-nyik-ä 'lion'
CD nyik, AD2 CL (gbâːl-)ñig

à-kěmji-ä 'monkey'
CD kěčm jũː, lit. 'red monkey': CB *-kûmâ (9/10)

à-(y)õn-ä 'nose'
CD nuũː. a well-represented NC root with many probable cognates in AD, though the correspondences are too complex for certainty, cf. for example AD2 CL þûd, AD4 Pere ãã, AD6 Mbum hóːk, Karang hóːkō but Koh múː, AD13 Niellim hûny

à-wôm-ä 'oil'
CD mûm, but Mapeo Chamba 'ûm; this need not be the well-represented no(m) root (cf. AD6 Karang núm), as CD also has nòː 'be fat' and derivates from it; but in AD13 where num is the common root, we also find Fanyan "mumë", according to Joly (1935); cf. Meek AD8 Kam man

à-kisēn-ä 'slave'
CD kâsēr; AD2 CL Meek kwasa (now found without the -s- suffix: kô'), apparently from a verb kô 'catch'
à-sâm-ä 'spear'
CD sâːmr, cf. ZM shâːr, suggestive of Chadic; also compare AD2 CL síːd 'arrow', AD4 Dii sëː 'war', sëː 'arrow', AD5 ZM sôn, Yendang sôn, both 'arrow', and AD13 Kulaal sôl, Niellim sâl, both 'combat'
à-ún-à 'tooth'
CD nūn. a NC root not well represented in AD unless cognacy can ultimately be established with AD2 CL nágāl, AD4 Momi nuur, Pere núlè; cf. PP *niu

à-bêčêr-á 'two'
CD bâârâ. a very general root in BC; rop forms in Adawawa 1, 7 are likely metatheses of the consonant components of this root.

● No SWAD cognates

à-óŋ-á 'bee'
Closest neighboring AD roots are AD5 ZM wara (cf. Meek AD5 Yendang fôri (vôrì ), Waka/Kumba võri, Teme vobe), AD2 CL núud (cf. Meek Wom ñora); also compare AD4 Pere ólè 'honey'

à-lâá 'belly'
n'la is well represented in Bantoid and presumably related to a PB *-dà (9); it is also present in Mambila; note that CD has nàà 'in, inside'

á/-gbâŋ-á 'bird'
Related to AD4 Pere gââr 'bat' and/or gbâgô 'pigeon'?

à-lêkâ 'blacksmith'
AD2 CL lâmr; cognacy is hypothetical given that every AD group has a different characteristic root; also compare AD4 Dii nāŋ; cf. however 'forge' in list 2

à-gbâm-á (gbâmî) 'blood'

à-mí-á 'door' (< mû 'close')?
à-gângsâ 'fly'
All matches unsatisfactory: CD gêê, AD4 Momi gumkâz, Pere gûî; cf. Meek AD5 Yendang group kû (kûn)
à-nyáá-á 'friend'
AD6 Karang yááh, Meek AD8 Kam apwa, but cognacy is hypothetical given that practically every language has its own root for this gloss; CD mànáá is a derivate of màn- 'peer', often used as a prefix

à-háý-á 'guinea-corn'
Cf. Meek AD5 Yendang koń (kón), Teme kom, AD7 Yungur/Roba koma

à-jý-á 'house'
Cf. AD5 ZM zhá(k)á, also Meek AD7 Mboi shudóó, Libo ishíria, Yungur hitó; there are apparent AD13 cognates: Kwa Perim jòó: 'house', Kwa Cini jùùrá 'woman's house'; cf. PP *di, a root also represented in Voltaic

à-pígëë 'maize' (but curiously CD pìí-gòó 'cassava')

à-ísá 'mat'
Cf. AD6 Karang híí

à-kìn-á 'one'
Meek AD5 Yendang bindi (bíinti'), AD9 Jen bìng, compare Kleinewillinghöfer (1996:95-6), who gives the initial consonant in the Jen group as ts, while the Bikwin group has either kw or cw; this root is more widespread in NWAD (see Jungraithmayr 1968/9; also see Boyd 1989b); note the curious resemblance to AD4 Pere kìné 'compact, dense'

à-wàláñ-á 'pot'

(à-)hànmá 'rain'
Also means 'saliva'; cf. AD2 CL wàáin 'rain', also AD5 ZM sná 'rain (vb)', snáári 'saliva', AD6 Karang sám 'saliva'

à-gáá (gáá) 'road'
à-sé-é 'sun, God'
CD sůů; the semantic equivalence is very widespread in SWAD languages; also AD6 Karang sěh; note AD2 CL sə, AD4 Momi see, Pere sɨɨ, Dii sɨɨ, Meek AD5 Yendang sî, se (nōō-sî), all meaning 'moon'

à-wōób-ā 'ten'
Cf. AD4 Pere fŏb; a widespread AD root is kop (cf. AD5 ZM kqp, Yendang kǒp, AD2 CL kǒb and Meek AD10 Hill Longuda kwoo); another is bu in AD7/8 and perhaps 9

(á-/)sáŋká 'toad, frog'
I.3. Conclusion

The author takes this opportunity to reaffirm his opinion that Greenberg's classification of African languages leaves little room for readjustment. By mass comparison, every language must find its place in a small number of inclusive groups. CD, for example, finds its place in AD on the basis of its lexical similarities with the languages of AD2 (morphology, even vestigial traces of morphology, count for little here). If, however, a closer look shows that AD2 languages are "rather like" AD4 languages but really "quite different" from CD, it does not then become helpful to leave AD2 in place and shunt CD around, particularly on the basis of a handful or less of putative "diagnostic" roots (cf. Bennett 1983; the same is valid for the treatment of Dong by Shimizu 1979). If we wish to exclude CD from AD (or better, from each of the parts of AD), our best solution is to "leave it nearby". By this is meant a nonclassificatory approach, seeking whatever lexical and morphological resemblances are to be found with languages in the immediate geographical neighborhood. We need not doubt that there will be many of these; but at the same time, there will be a small number of identities with more distant languages and groups, some of these quite surprising (for CD, Boyd 1994 cites, for example, a striking near-identity of the root for "wing" with the one found in Gurunsi, although Kleinewillinghöfer has now personally communicated similar forms in AD1 Waja and AD7 Yungur). Are such identities more significant than English/Farsi bad? We do not know, but unlike the case with English and Farsi, it is not at all easy for us to find out. This indeed is the crux of the matter: for many of the languages which interest us, we have no proper description; for most groups, we have no reliable reconstructions to any time depth; whatever the case, we have no documentary basis enabling us to check our historical hypotheses. Thanks to Greenberg, we can now say that the languages with which we are dealing in this paper are in the heart of a family called "Niger-Congo". This we need to know; but nothing whatsoever hangs on their subclassification. It is certainly a matter of the utmost indifference to know whether Plaoid and CD had, several thousands or tens of thousands of years ago, a common ancestor that, say, AD2/4/5/8/9 did not, when we do not (and perhaps cannot) know anything about the intervening history of the two groups, prior at least to the 18th century. Language classification, indeed different kinds of language classification, have an important place in linguistics; but there is a time when classification, particularly of the "genealogical" (Manessy 1992) type has nothing further to offer, and we must rather turn, at least temporarily, to the individual languages to learn what they have to teach us.
This research was funded by the Centre National de la Recherche Scientifique (CNRS) and conducted under the auspices of the Nigerian National Commission for Museums and Monuments, to whose officials I extend my sincerest thanks.

1. Where obviously pertinent similarities exist, we shall nevertheless cite items from regional languages classified as Benue-Congo (BC), e.g., the "northern Bantoid" languages and Platoid, particularly Gerhardt's (1969) "Proto-Plateau" (PP) reconstructions. Common Bantu (CB) forms from Guthrie (1967/71) are also cited.

2. Numbers are those assigned by Greenberg (1963).

3. Ulrich Kleinewillinghöfer, who took a short list of around 100 terms in this language, recorded a name with harmonized vowels: Yandang. Our speaker, however, used the form as recorded by Meek (1931): nã yéndâŋ 'Yendang language', wɛç yěndâŋ-ù bìntì 'one Yendang person (child)'.

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A Linguistic Sketch of Tiba (Gb), Part II

by Raymond Boyd

II.0. Introduction

In this section, we present a set of observations, and the provisional conclusions reached concerning these observations, in the domains of phonology, morphology, and basic word order in simple constructions and predicators.

II.1. Tiba phonology

a) CONSONANTS:

The initial consonant system of Tiba can be provisionally presented as follows:

\[
\begin{array}{lllllllll}
\text{m} & \text{n} \\
\text{p} & \text{f} & \text{t} & \text{s} & \text{k} & \text{km} & \text{kp} \\
\text{b} & \text{v} & \text{d} & \text{j} & \text{g} & \text{gm} & \text{gb} \\
\text{ɓ} & \text{ɗ} & \\
\text{vw} & \text{l} & \text{y} & \text{h} & \text{w}
\end{array}
\]

(The notation \text{vw} is used here for the labial flap found in many languages of this region. In this chart, \text{y} represents a palatal semivowel.)
Major differences with respect to Nnakenyaare Chamba Daka (CD) are:

i) A voiced "injective/plosive" contrast in the labial and dental orders. It will be noticed that the lexical frequency is such that this contrast might equally be envisaged as "fortis" (= injective) vs. "lenis" (plosive). To the ear, the b/ɗ contrast is less perceptible than d/ɗ; however, d may be confused with l.

ii) Strangely, f seems to be followed by unrounded vowels and a, but v by rounded vowels and a. There is perhaps no v/w contrast before the high front rounded vowel.

iii) The voiced palatal is affricated only before high front vowels; elsewhere it is a palatal fricative. The corresponding unvoiced consonant is a clear palatal fricative only before a high rounded front vowel; elsewhere, it is apical.

iv) There are postnasalized velar consonants (note that postnasals are also present in Mumuye, Shimizu 1983, but there duplicate almost the entire initial consonant system). The articulation of these consonants is such that they might just as well be described as postnasalized labiovelars.

v) There is a small number of terms having the structure: Initial aspirate velar ([kʰ, gʰ, h]) + High central vowel + ʢ. (In fact, the relative weight of stop and aspiration is such that the phonetic notation might as well be [ʰh, hʰ].) Now it turns out that, while we have at least one initial kuŋ, we nowhere have terms of the form kiŋ, giŋ, hiŋ, or iŋ. The latter are therefore reasonable phonological representations for these sequences; nevertheless, in our lists, they appear with vowel ʢ for easy identification of their peculiar nature. (Note that Shimizu 1983:13 also remarks central vowels before ʢ in ZM, and assigns them to phonological i, perhaps less convincingly insofar as his dictionary shows the preceding consonants to be arbitrary. Note a similar case in Tiba involving q as v₂, ɗáŋŋ ‘fry’; it is not clear why this vowel should not be realized i, but at the same time, this verb has an aberrant canonic structure.)

vi) As in Mapeo Chamba (but not Nnakenyaare CD), lexical items may have an initial vowel preceded by glottal stop. Glottal stop is nevertheless not represented here, as there seems to be no useful phonological role for it.
vii) There are cases of initial labialized \( m \) \([m^\prime]\). This realization is treated here as a \( w \) + nasal vowel, but could also conceivably be a nasal counterpart of the postnasalized velars (cf. Shimizu 1983:12). Since it also appears intervocically, however ([sùm"ëë] 'worm'), this solution is questionable, aside from any phonetic implausibility. Its position in the system must be left undecided for the time being.

Tiba resembles the majority of Adamawa languages in having a sharply reduced noninitial consonant inventory. This seems to be:

\[
\begin{array}{cccc}
m & n & \eta \\
P & T & S & K \\
\end{array}
\]

There are, however, two important questions to be resolved:

i) Is there, as in CD, a \( l/r \) noninitial contrast? On the basis of the data collected, it would seem this contrast does not exist intervocally, where [l] and [r] seem to be allophones (\( r \) is used in our notation except between high back vowels, where [l] is perhaps exclusively preferred). There may, however, be a contrast after consonant, though this may be the consequence of borrowing from CD. Unlike CD, Tiba cannot be shown (at least by these data) to have \( rC \) or \( lC \) groups, although \( CVrCV \) may be such that \( V_1 \) and \( V_2 \) must be identical (or at least \( V_2 \) is neutral). In such case, these items could be reanalyzed as \( CVrCV \).

(Given general scarcity of data together with difficulties in distinguishing compound terms, nothing will be said here about possible consonant sequences, which, as in CD, are likely to be severely restricted.)

ii) Do the semivowels \( w \) and \( y \) need to be represented intervocally outside loan words? The data collected thus far suggest they do not, but the integration of loan words may be such that these phonemes should nevertheless appear in the intervocalic system.

b) VOWELS:

Tiba has a nine-vowel system: the usual seven-vowel triangle (\( i, \varphi, e, a, o, \vartheta, u \)) together with two rounded front vowels, \( y \) (distinguished from the palatal semivowel
elsewhere in this paper by tone marking or context) and \( \alpha \). There is apparently no need for the high central vowel found in CD. The presence of rounded front vowels is obviously unusual, but has been reported for Tikar at least (G. Guarisma, p.c.) in this general region.

**Nasality:** There seems to be a clear contrast between nonnasal and nasal vowels. There are probably only three distinctive heights for nasal vowels (only \( i, y, \varepsilon, a, o, u \) are thus far attested).

Furthermore, the nasal contrast can only appear in a limited number of positions: 1) \( V \) in \( CV\# \) (e.g., \( ta \) 'pluck'/\( ta \) 'be early'; and 2) \( V_1 \) in \( CV_1C_2(CV) \) (where \( C_2 \) is either a front or a back stop, e.g., \( tap \) 'sew'/\( gap \) 'count', \( d\acute{e}k \) 'forget'/\( s\acute{e}k \) 'go down', are attested.

There is also nonphonological nasalisation in Tiba. Firstly, both nasal and postnasalized consonants transmit their nasal feature to the following vowel. Furthermore, unlike CD, Tiba lengthens vowels before \(-n-\) in \( CVnCV \) structures (also a feature of Yendang); \(-n-\) then tends to drop (in accordance with a CD-like exclusion of \( CVVCCV \)), leaving a long nasal vowel. At the same time, in Tiba as in most if not all neighboring languages, vowel nasality spreads to a preceding smivowel. Furthermore, there being no \( NV/NV \) contrasts (just as in other Southwestern Adamawa, SWAD, languages, certainly Dii and probably Yendang), there is no justification for setting up \( ny/y \) and \( nw/w \) contrasts (unlike CD, where nasality can only be a consonantal feature). Thus, \([w\nu\varepsilon i]\) 'body' is, if the rules above are indeed the only ones operative, phonologically \( /wansi/\).

We may note that there is a strong tendency in Tiba to apply the CD rule that, if \( C_1 \) in \( C_1V(V)N \) is a semivowel, it must be nasalized; i.e., in Tiba terms, the vowel in this structure must be nasal. There are, however, apparent counterexamples in a sort of "adjective" class. Whether there is an explanation for these cases such as to render the rule absolute in Tiba remains to be seen.

**Length:** The question of the contexts in which vowel length is contrastive in Tiba requires further investigation. It would seem that the CD situation whereby lexical items cannot have the forms \( CV \) (only \( CV_2 \)), \( CVn \) (only \( CV_2n \)), or \( CV:C \) (only \( CVC_2 \)) for any \( C_2 \) other than \( n \) also holds in Tiba. The rule requiring that \( \varepsilon, \varphi \) be long in CD (except in \( C.CV \)) does not, however, seem to hold. Tiba has cases of at least \( C\varepsilon C \), \( C\varepsilon CV \), and \( C\varphi C \), though in the
case of the latter, the length contrast is much clearer to the ear when a vowel suffix is added. Long \( e \) and \( o \) in \( C_C \) and \( C_CV \) contexts are, however, limited to cases in which \( C_2 \) is \( r \) or \( s \), and there are no suitable pairs for establishing a long/short contrast. It may thus well be that Tiba, like CD, ultimately has the bulk of its vowel length contrasts in the \( CV(v)CV \) structure. For either phonological or morphological reasons, however, contrasts may be impossible to find before some \( C_2 \)s.

There are two more important differences between CD and Tiba in this respect, namely 1) that, when a \(-V\) suffix is added to a \( CV:n \) term, the vowel is shortened (the notation \( CVn \) is therefore used in the word lists presented here); 2) though less frequent, vowel lengthening and nasalization followed by loss of the nasal consonant can also be observed in the case of \( CVgCV \). (This situation involving a loss of the \( n/g \) contrast has been generalized in Zing Mumuye and Yendang.)

Vowel length is independent of tone, i.e., vowels are either short or long, whether they bear a simple or a contour tone. Contour tones are represented below by two vowels, but these vowels are only (phonetically) long in the environments specified above. Naturally, a sequence of identical vowels with identical tone represents a (phonological) long vowel in the appropriate (\( CVVCV \)) context. There is no clear case of a vowel length contrast under a contour tone; this is also true in CD, where a few apparent contrasts can be given a morphological explanation.

c) CANONIC FORM:

The canonic forms \( CV(v) \), \( CV(v)C \), \( CV(v)CV \), and \( CVCCV \), are attested for nouns and verbs, with some longer forms, particularly \( CV(C)VC \), for nouns. (As indicated above, the \( C_1 \) position may be occupied by glottal stop.)

The restrictions on \( v_2 \) are very strong, in Tiba as in CD, but will certainly have slightly different formulations in each language. Unlike CD, these restrictions are bound up, at least where nominals are concerned, with morphological phenomena. We may therefore anticipate on noun morphology in order to summarize the Tiba data as follows:
CV(V)CV and CVCCV nominals have \( i \) as \( V_2 \) when the term is in nonfinal position; in final position, this vowel becomes \( \dot{a} \). (In the lists provided here, such nouns are written with final -\( \dot{a} \), making them easily distinguishable from CV(V) CV and CVCCV verbs, which have final -\( i \).) Nouns with these forms in CD end in either \( i \) or \( a \) and are invariable.

The final-vowel tonology of these nouns requires an additional remark: the majority end in -\( c\dot{f} \) or -/\( c\dot{f} \) (i.e., downstepped \( i \)) in nonfinal position; some, however, do not. These will display -\( a \) bearing a contour tone in final position, and -\( i \) bearing the first component of that contour in nonfinal position. Actually, only two such possibilities seem to exist: 1) nominals with final -\( \dot{a}\dot{a} \) (cited here with final -\( \dot{a} \)), hence nonfinal -\( i \); and 2) nominals with final -\( \dot{a}\dot{a} \), hence nonfinal -\( i \), itself followed by downstep.

There are exceptions to the rule just stated: these include a small number of terms with final -\( \dot{a} \) or -\( \dot{a}\dot{a} \) which remain invariable in nonfinal position (i.e., their final vowel does not become -\( i \)). There is also one attested case of a CVCCV noun behaving like a CVV nominal in both having a final contour tone and being invariant in final and nonfinal positions: \( p\dot{u}\dot{g}\dot{\ddot{a}}\dot{a} \) 'armpit'. It may be that the term for 'sickle' alternates between invariance (\( b\dot{\ddot{a}}\ddot{m}s\ddot{a}\dot{a} \)) and variance (nonfinal \( b\dot{\ddot{a}}\ddot{m}s\ddot{a} \), final \( b\dot{\ddot{a}}\ddot{m}s\ddot{a}\dot{\ddot{a}}r\dot{a} \), see 'Noun morphology' below).

A small number of nouns have final -\( \dot{a}\dot{a} \), the one case of alternation (\( g\dot{y}s\ddot{a}\dot{a}, g\dot{y}s\ddot{\ddot{y}}n \)) suggests this structure was originally \(-\ddot{v}n-\dot{a} \). The -\( \dot{a} \) marking final position has thus been incorporated into the root, the form in nonfinal position being (\(-\)/\( c\ddot{a} \) (with downstepped mid tone).

There are also CV(V)CV nominals with high \( V_1 \) and final \( \dot{c}\ddot{e} \) (\( w\ddot{\ddot{e}}\dot{s\ddot{e}}\dot{c} \) 'load of firewood' with mid \( V_1 \) being an apparent counterexample), which could conceivably be analyzed as deriving from -\( i\)- + -\( \dot{a} \) in final position; however, these terms do not change their vowel in nonfinal position (their tone pattern becomes HM). This analysis is therefore better seen as diachronic than synchronic.

There are a further three CV(V)CV nouns, \( s\dot{i}\ddot{\ddot{u}}\dot{\dot{j}} \), a variant of \( s\ddot{i}\ddot{u} \), 'civet cat', \( s\ddot{\dot{a}}\ddot{\ddot{u}}\ddot{t}\ddot{\ddot{i}} \)'porcupine', and \( j\ddot{\ddot{e}}\ddot{r}\ddot{\ddot{f}} \)'whirlwind', which have root-final -\( i \) (-\( i\ddot{y} \?)), giving -\( i-\dot{\dot{a}} \) in utterance-final position.
Like CD, Tiba allows CVC\textit{um} (also C\textit{y}C\textit{ym}) and CVC\textit{y} (with \(v_1 = v_2\)). There are also terms with CVC\textit{en} structure corresponding well to CD terms with identifiable -\textit{en} or -\textit{êen} suffixes, and others which correspond to nothing in CD. (See "Derivational affixes" under II.4.a below.)

Tiba also has a variety of \(v_1-v_2\) combinations in CVC(C)VC terms with final \(\eta\) and \(k\) (and even in one case, final \(n\)) which are unfamiliar in CD. The possibility that at least some of these terms are original compounds (or even synchronic compounds involving items not yet recorded individually) should be considered.

From the above, it should be clear that the \(v_2\) position does not provide a full set of vowel contrasts. Indeed, final -\(i\), whether for nominals or for verbs, is a lax, slightly lower variant of this sound than appears in \(v_1\) (root) position, doubtless owing to this neutralization of contrasts. There is furthermore some tendency to total assimilation when \(v_1\) is either \(\varepsilon\) or \(\gamma\). (It may be noted that Tiba does not seem to have the C\textit{C}\varepsilon and C\textit{C}\phi structures found in CD.)

d) Tones

Tiba has a three-level tone system, complicated by downstep and grammatical tone alternation.

Downstep occurs automatically (as a mere phonetic realization) after a rising (LH) contour tone. It also occurs syntactically (i.e., as a mark of certain syntactic relationships without necessarily requiring postulation of any "underlying" (deleted) L tone), and as a "surface" phenomenon, i.e., where the deletion of an underlying tone may be supposed. Within lexical units, this underlying tone may be structurally L; but the most frequent deletion affects HM contour tones and patterns (C\(\check{\text{v}}\check{\text{v}}\) > C\(\text{v}/\), C\(\check{\text{v}}\text{C}(C)\check{\text{v}}\) > C\(\text{v}/(C)\check{\text{v}}\)). This situation, resulting from the abundance of such tones and patterns in nominal lexical units (see below), is largely identical to the one in CD.

Tonal alternation in some nouns in associative constructions is described below (noun morphology).
Noun Tone Classes: Note that about one half of all nominals have a HM or H tone pattern; another quarter has MH or M. Other fairly well represented nominal root tone patterns are LH, LHM, HL(M), and L. The others are marginal and perhaps derivable in some way from the above.

Such a situation is historically interpretable in terms of an original two-register system, increased to three by addition of a third infralow level. There is, however, no evident comparative evidence of such a phenomenon (with the exception of the four-level Yendang system, which may have suffered Chadic influence, the languages compared here all have three tones as well). Tiba is, however, rather unusual in displaying unexpected tonal correspondences for very well-attested roots (see, for example, 'louse'; the fact that CD has lākā for this gloss may help to account for this particular irregularity).

Verb Tone Classes: In the material presented here, the majority of transitive verbs appear in simple predications with 3sg subject /kif/ and nominal object. It appears that this construction is unfortunately not suited to revealing verb tone-class distinctions. Indeed, most transitive CV(C) verbs have a falling tone, /kif/ or /kif/, in this context, the L component being perhaps attributable to the deleted /k/- prefix of the object (although such verbs in elicitation also seem to have a HL tone). This L component disappears when verbs are followed by a nominal object with /k/- prefix or a nonnominal term. These verbs are therefore given in the glossary with H tone. A few transitive CV(C) verbs seem, however, to have L tone in the same context and are so marked, although this may not reflect any real difference in lexical tone. Indeed, some of the verbs which appear several times in the data have either the H/ML contour tone or L tone according to some as yet unidentified feature of the context (perhaps subject tone, object tone, or both).

In the same way, transitive CVCCV verbs have a HL or ML pattern, apparently in (free?) variation. When, in careful speech, the /k/- prefix of the following noun is retained, this pattern becomes MM. Two unexplained cases of HH and five of HM were, however, observed and are cited in the glossary.

A more helpful context for distinguishing transitive verb tone classes seems to be the use of a 3sg pronominal object, /kif/. Indeed, this seems to yield at least three classes, H (H/kif/), M, and again a very small number of L (M is perhaps sometimes realized H with no
following downstep). Very few cvc(c)V verbs were recorded in this context, and no tone class distinctions were observable (all seem to be M). Verbs cited with M tone in the glossary were observed in this context. It may be noted that, in CD, this context neutralizes verb tone-class distinctions.

Another context in which tone classes can be distinguished is that of the perfective suffix -néá, which can be used with intransitive verbs (which never take an object) as well as with objectless transitive verbs. Again, three classes can be distinguished: HL, H(/), and L (verbs with HL tone in the glossary were observed in this context; verbs observed with L tone in this context are marked "intr"). The position of downstep after H in this form varies: H/néá or Hnéá. It has been impossible to determine whether or not this variation is conditioned.

A third context in which a number of verbs have been observed is with following locative (i) or definite (mí, á) markers. There are insufficient examples, but a first impression is that this context may disturb the lexical tone patterns of verbs. Tone patterns do, however, contrast there.

A fourth context for determination of verb tone classes may be as the first verb V₁ in a V₁-V₂ sequence. H-, M-, and L-tone verbs may be discernible here, as well as HL.

One final feature requires mention: some verbs have been found to take HL pattern in transitive constructions and L in intransitive ones (these are so marked in the glossary). This precise tone alternation, which may be an inflectional or a derivational phenomenon, is well attested in AD4; it may even be said that the unmarked intransitive form is L, and the unmarked transitive form H, although there are apparently exceptions to this rule.

II.3. The pronominal system

The following system of subject pronouns was obtained:

- 1S subject ɨh
- 1PL subject wíi
- 2S subject à
- 2PL subject míi
- 3S subject kí
- 3PL subject wá
These pronouns are apparently obligatory markers, at least for the first verb in a series. In subject function, no other morpheme has been observed to intervene between them and the verb, wherefore they may be considered part of morphology.

The possessive markers are directly preposed to the noun they modify (i.e., between the prefix \( \text{\textit{a}} \) and the noun root), unlike CD where the possessives are all postposed. The system of these markers is:

\[
\begin{align*}
1\text{sg} & \quad (\text{\textit{a}})-m\text{\textit{e\text{\textendash}e}} & 1\text{pl} & \quad (\text{\textit{a}})-w\text{\textit{ef\text{\textendash}e}} \\
2\text{sg} & \quad (\text{\textit{a}})-w\text{\textit{ee}} & 2\text{pl} & \quad (\text{\textit{a}})-m\text{\textit{ef\text{\textendash}e}} \\
3\text{sg} & \quad (\text{\textit{a}})-g\text{\textit{u\text{\textendash}u}} & 3\text{pl} & \quad (\text{\textit{a}})-w\text{\textit{oon\text{\textendash}ti}}
\end{align*}
\]

It would seem, then, that the plural possessives in fact bear the non-final form of the plural suffix. Similar nominalizations seem to provide the "independent" forms of the personal pronouns (i.e., pronouns used in functions other than that of subject marker, e.g., in topicalizations).

These possessives may be used both for nouns which would generally be classified as "alienable" (e.g., 'pot') and for those which would be "inalienable" (e.g., 'head'), in languages which make such distinctions. Some kinship and relational terms (e.g., 'father', 'mother', 'husband'), however, have different forms for the 2sg and/or the 3sg. These are:

\[
2\text{sg} \quad \text{suffixed } \text{	extasciitilde\texttt{q\text{\textendash}aq\text{\textendash}a}} \\
3\text{sg} \quad \text{prefixed } \text{	extasciitilde\texttt{t\text{\textendash}a}} \quad (\text{i.e., the noun prefix becomes } \text{\textit{d\text{\textendash}}})
\]

It is quite curious to note that the 1pl and 2pl forms above seem to be precisely the inverse of the 1sg and 2sg forms. Knowing that informants accustomed to only oral use of language will encounter a certain difficulty in providing "translations" of pronominals, we therefore questioned Awdi insistently about this, but were in the end satisfied that he was indeed giving us the forms we were requesting.

We must now proceed to examine the differences and similarities in the Tiba and CD pronominal systems.
The Tiba 1sg subject pronoun is essentially as in CD; its point of articulation is assimilated in subject position to that of any following consonant. The CD 1sg possessive is postposed *mèè. (The CD independent 1sg pronoun, however, is *nòk, for which no Tiba correspondence has yet been observed.)

In CD, the 2sg pronoun is a M-tone nasal in subject position (*à is a variant in certain contexts and obligatory in imperative forms), but the object pronoun is -*à. The CD independent 2sg pronoun is *wìì, related to the postposed possessive *wììì. There is therefore a good correspondence here with Tiba, though the Tiba 2sg imperative seems to be *yìì.

CD has no 3sg subject pronoun, but the 3sg independent forms are doubtless derived from *gù 'animate', *gùf 'inanimate'. The object form is kù (gù in Mapeo Chamba); this is also the subject form used in indirect discourse, though it undergoes diverse changes in S-V tone patterns. The CD 3sg possessive is kùìì (gùììì in Mapeo Chamba). There is thus again a fairly good correspondence between the two languages.

It may be noted that Tiba kì, whether in subject or object position, is apparently followed by downstep. In CD, this feature would normally be associated with a raised L tone.

Furthermore, a usage of this pronoun with a possessive sense has been observed before a following noun, corresponding to a similar usage of the independent pronouns in CD.

The CD 1pl subject pronoun is à, the independent form wòò, related to the possessive wòó. If the Tiba form is to be connected, the vowel change must be explained.

The CD 2pl and 3pl subject marker is ë. The object markers are likewise identical (-bù). The independent 2pl form is in all likelihood derived from an earlier vù, the possessive being vùìì. The independent 3pl is likewise derived from bù, with possessive bòò. This distinction among the independent pronouns is not, however, invariably maintained, and it is probable that these two forms are in fact doublets of some original form. Tiba thus
differs clearly from CD, both in the form of the 2pl and 3pl elements and in avoiding their confusion.

The Tiba pronominal system thus has points of agreement and of disagreement with the CD system. The agreements may extend to the use of a variant of the 1sg pronoun as the logophoric singular, though this requires textual verification.

**Demonstrative:** Only one demonstrative was repeatedly requested (CD déèn 'this, that (one in question)' as noun modifier). This is translated as a form -(f)nk(á/i) (perhaps involving some unexplained tonal phenomena). Specific questioning yielded no indication of a near/far distinction or other complication making it possible to contrast the Tiba and CD systems. There was also a single instance representing the CD -dún demonstrative ('this (here and now)') in á-mí-yóð (prefix|day|this) 'today' (CD mó-r-áðán).

II.4. Tiba morphology

a) Noun morphology

**Classificatory Inflection:** In general, nominals have a prefixed á- when they are found in initial position. Some nominals, however, have a high-tone á- prefix, followed by downstep, suggesting a structural áá-. The nominals with this prefix mostly designate animate beings, although one plant is included (see below). The case of common or cultivated plants being classed grammatically as animate is known from Zande.

Nominal prefixes are segmentally unstable, but their tones may persist. Thus, in more rapid speech, á- may drop before a nominal in initial position, particularly when the latter has a (phonetically or phonologically) long, H-tone first vowel, with the L tone of the prefix shifting to the root. An interesting case in this regard is á/jáánsá 'tiger nut', confirming that the á- prefix is in fact á-á-.

Likewise, á- and even á-/ may drop when the noun follows a verb as its object, but the tone patterns of verbs suggest that the prefix tones shift to them.
Nominals with a canonic form ending in a C suffix -á in final position. If, however, the nominal root ends in -vr, the nonfinal form ends in -v rather than -vr.

Nominals with canonic form cv suffix -á in final position unless V is -e-, -e-, -o-, -o-, or -o-, in which case the vowel is lengthened with an added H tone. Final-vowel alternation in longer canonic forms with final V has been described above in the course of the phonological discussion.

Note that this requirement that utterances (in this case, utterances with a final nominal) end in a vowel is a well-known regional feature. CD (or at least certain dialects such as the Mapeo form) distinguish themselves by requiring final -í, while CL, for example, resembles Tiba in taking final -á.

Reduplication is observed in some Tiba nominals. No specific semantic feature can be assigned to it, unless it be a particular association with mass nouns.

PLURAL: the plural is regularly formed by suffixing -t-(á/i) to the root. A small number of plurals (involving human beings in the data thus far) are irregular.

It will be noted that in AD4 Pere the plural suffix is -tò and that there is a plural suffix -t in AD4 Momi.

SYNTACTIC INFLECTION: Tiba has one rule of noun tone alternation which is not present in CD: H and HM nouns undergo a tone change when they are modified by a preceding H or HM noun: they become M (e.g., lúá 'yam' + són 'staple food' > lúá/sóñ(á), ísí'eye' + sóksá'hair' > ísí sóksá'eyelash').

LOCATIVE: There are two locative noun suffixes, -né and -mé, similar to the ones found in AD4. More examples are required to determine the conditions of their appearance; a first impression suggests that -né is used for position ('at, in, within') and -mé is used for movement ('from, to'), although this would be typologically unusual for an African language in this region.
DERIVATIONAL AFFIXES:

ADJECTIVIZER: The suffix -ɛn can be added to some nouns to produce a derived adjective. This suffix is doubtless ultimately related to the adjectivizing verb suffix (b.iv below), but the tonological behavior of both requires further clarification.

NOMINALIZER: There is a suffix -gùr- which can be added to any (nominal or verbal) adjective to form an abstract nominal, e.g., pēk'new', -pēk-/gùr-á 'newness'. In the case of verbal adjectives ending in nē, this suffix may tend to be tonally assimilated (-gùr-).

b) VERB MORPHOLOGY

INFLECTION: There is undoubtedly tonal inflection of verbs (such inflection has been noted in association with an imperative form, but the data are not sufficient for any conclusions to be drawn). Segmental inflection in the strict sense is not attested, although it is possible to cite a focalizing particle, construed exactly as in CD by suffixation to the verb + object pronoun group: this is -gù-á. (It is also used to translate the CD "durative" when it has an emphatic or adversative sense, "definitely, contrary to expectations", indicating that the Tiba durative does not have the same range of meaning.)

DERIVATION: A certain number of likely derivational suffixes are attested in these data. It is not, however, possible to decide whether Tiba must be thought to have a highly developed and productive system like that of CD which is not apparent for reasons of chance distribution, or whether on the contrary it has, as seems to be the case, a more vestigial system like the one found in AD5 ZM. The "suffixes" observed are as follows:

i) The -si suffix: Many verbs have the form cvvsi or cvcsì. The majority of these are not identifiable as derived from cvv or cvc verbs, respectively, perhaps simply because no possible sources appear in the data. A few are, however, so identifiable, cf. sỳym- 'be dry', sỳmsì 'dry (tr)'; wòp 'run, fear', wòpsì 'ride (horse, i.e., make it run)'. These are clearly causative-type derivates. Others are the same kind of "medial" causatives or benefactives found in CD and elsewhere, e.g., dòn 'breathe', dònìsi 'rest (i.e., make oneself breathe, breathe for oneself)', while others have more complex agentive relationships: kỳy 'cut (down), clear
(a field'), kyýsi 'chop (into pieces)'. Others still are evident *calques* of CD, e.g., béksi 'break, smash', cf. CD vwékści, "frequentative" of vwék 'split'.

There are a few verbs of the form cvsi with e or e as v₁. It may be remarked that verbs of this form in CD would be derived from cvt verbs; it is difficult to tell whether a similar phenomenon might exist in Tiba.

ii) Other "suffixes": -ki, -li, -ti, -ri: The suffix -ki is represented by only three cvcki examples, two of them clear CD loans; -li appears in only two cvcli verbs, one a Fulfulde loan; -ti is used in four cvcti verbs, three of them clear loans from CD, where the corresponding suffix is -lì; and -ri occurs in two cvcri verbs, one being an evident CD loan, and one cvvri verb. There are thus only one or two examples of each of these suffixes with a plausible Tiba origin; none of the verbs in question can be related to any corresponding base verb with the possible exception of jánri 'dry (meat)' (< jāη-'hot'?). Nothing, then, can be said about the semantic content of these "suffixes". Note, however, that, in CD, the term corresponding to Tiba biunjí- 'resound, be noisy' is a frequentative derivate in -kì of a different root, while the term for 'tickle' (Tiba digli) is also a cvcli verb. Only one cvcti verb (a sort of "diminutive") and no cvviti appear in CD. ZM does, however, have -se verbs with much the same meaning range as those in Tiba, as well as -ke and -le suffixes with "intensive" (essentially equivalent to "frequentative") sense, -le with "habitual" sense, and a small number of -le suffixes with no clear meaning content (see Shimizu 1983: 64-7).

iii) The verbal noun suffixes -m and -dim: The verbal noun, or infinitive, is obtained by giving the verb root a M tone pattern and by suffixing -m, unless the verb has the form cvm or cvn, in which case the suffix is -dim. Like any noun, the verbal noun can take an á-prefix and an -á suffix. If the noun suffix is -m and -á is added, the result is phonetically [v̥mˈmá]. The verb root in the infinitive may be followed by a pronominal object (as in CD) or by a nominal object (unlike CD). In such case, the verb's tones are only determined by its relation to its object, and the infinitive marking is limited to a phrase-final m.

There is nevertheless a certain number of cvv verbs which, for an undetermined reason, are given with suffix -dim.
iv) The *adjectivizing suffix* -ně: some stative verbs have a derived adjective with this suffix; it may also be that some adjectives with this suffix derive from verbs no longer in the language. Roots with this suffix are attested with H, M, and LH tones.

II.5. Word order and proposition marking

Basic word order is SV(O)(C), where C represents predicate and utterance modifiers in general. The preposition of the syntactic object to the verbal noun, attested in CD, has not been observed. Nevertheless, as in CD, Tiba word order in noun phrases is such that a modifying noun precedes the "head" noun, while a modifying "adjective" follows it.

A number of prepositional markers characteristic of CD are also attested in Tiba:

1) the definite marker ní preceding utterance-final modifiers (CD ē(n)); a marker á or há seems to alternate freely with ní and is conceivably a direct borrowing from CD;
2) the locative marker (n)i preposed to noun phrases (perhaps related to the above);
3) the locative anaphoric gā̀ preposed to locative terms (also in CD);
4) the preadverbial marker já (observed only utterance-finally with the sense "simply", also found in CD).

The following predicate and utterance markers have been observed:

ASPECT: There is an utterance-final marker translating both the "real" marker (-i) and the perfective (gò) in CD: this is něá (presumably nẹ + -á) after L tone, nẹ́á or /něá after H tone.

There are some tonal exceptions: some where the preceding H is itself downstepped or not subject to tone lowering (...pě́ tóm něá '...work'), and a number of thus far unexplained cases in which the downstep is treated as M and followed by another H (něáá).

There is an utterance-final marker translating the CD durative (tě́): this is já́-á. It may be preceded by the definite ní/(CD é tě́).
NEGATIVE: There is an utterance-final negative marker: *dá*. Its compatibility with aspect markers was not tested.

INTERROGATIVE: There is an utterance-final interrogative marker -è, identical with CD. (In CD, this marker is used in verbal propositions only if the verb is in the absolute affirmative form.)

II.6. Conclusion

We believe that the data presented here authorize us to conclude that our informant Awdi was indeed fully bilingual in Chamba Daka and Tiba, and that he maintained a clear separation between the two systems at almost all times (excepting perhaps only a small set of lexical items). We may stress that, while many features of the two language systems resemble each other, Tiba may be found in some cases to have a more complex system than CD. Furthermore, the lexical correspondences show precisely the irregularities we would expect for languages which have had a long period of contact involving borrowing at different historical stages.

The full set of lexical data recorded appears below. Terms marked by an asterisk (*) are those which are identical in Tiba and CD, allowing for regular correspondences (e.g., CD q = Tiba ø) and uncertainty regarding verb tonology, or display only minor tonal variations, making CD a likely source. Corresponding CD items and comparative remarks on a wider scale appear after a bar (|). The conventions of language notation are as in part I, but Tiba nominals are presented without their affixes, except where they prefix -á. (Consequently, since, in Tiba as in CD, the intervocalic labial plosive is phonetically [b], the dental plosive is [r], but the velar plosive is [k], while in final position all plosives are unvoiced [p, t, k], noun roots with final plosive will appear below with final b, r, k after deletion of the -á suffix; while verbs will have final p, t, k, corresponding to the citation form.)
BIBLIOGRAPHICAL REFERENCES


LIST 2: A TIBA-ENGLISH GLOSSARY WITH ADAMAWA COGNATES

á, exceed, surpass | cf. AD4 Momi ar-, Pere yór- 'pass'
á, gather, scoop up
áráŋ, fry | CD nyângli (possible metathesis)
án, open (wide), yawn (+ ôórá) | a widespread ideophonic root: CD yáá yaáá, AD2 Chamba
Leko (CL) yá, AD4 Momi agan-, Pere àà-, Dii áá, AD5 Yendang hánk-, AD6 Kare 'á
áp, seek
ápsi, feel, touch (prob. < áp 'seek')
âŋkâ, mouth (also âŋ, language, speech) | AD4 Pere yâgo, Dii yâg, AD5 Yendang yâk.
AD6 Karang nzâk are conceivably cognate with this (probably compounded) root
âã, arm, adj. ânnâ, relating to the arm (see list 1)
âã, name | AD5 Yendang jk
âã, know | cf. AD13 Kulaal ân, Niellim ìnà

c, dry (something in the sun) | CD yêrî, AD4 Momi yend-, Pere yûr-, Dii yê', AD5 Zing
Mumuye (ZM) yà, AD6 Kare yê 'dry'
ék, tear, rip, pluck | AD4 Dii yê' 'split'
ěŋ, egg (see list 1)

*ěk, burp | CD yák
ěsî (HH?), cough | CD wūsì, cf. AD6 Kare bèl

ũ, lie, lie down, sleep | AD4 Dii ū
ũm, tooth (see list 1)
íů, mat (MH?) (see list 1)
íů (íů'), eye (see list 1)
*íůn, broom | CD yisèn
óŋ, bee (see list 1)
*óřen, cold | CD wárën
ónsi, lick

óóìà, who? | AD5 ZM wò

ó, wash (oneself) | AD4 Dii yóö 'wash something', AD5 ZM welè, wolè, Yendang ḥù-'bathe', AD6 Karang wòk, Kare 'ōi
(yòō), nose (see list 1)
óórá (or ór), yawn (n)

*űk, hear, feel | CD wúk, cf. the reflexes of Proto-Plateau (PP) *fwak

ý, knead | cf. AD4 Dii vá 'pound (flour)'
ý (nē)-, cool (as shade) | AD2 CL wùm
ýp, crush (under foot)
*ýrýým, ancestor spirit | CD wûrû(ᵻ)m; cf. AD4 Dii yööb
ýsi (HH?), suck
ýsì, twist, wring (perhaps identical with the preceding term) | cf. AD4 Pere vî-
ýyû, breast (see list 1)

bíg, leopard (see list 1)
*bák, follow | CD bák, also AD2 CL bág AD2 CL gbá 'move away'
*bák, stick, block | CD bák
bám, big (be) | CD gbóóm, AD5 Yendang gbán- 'be heavy', AD2 CL gbàá
*baámsₐ(r), sickle | CD gbôómsà, AD2 CL gbôómsà, AD4 Momi gamsaq, but Pere gbànè báŋkûlûŋ, elbow
*bàr(ᵻ)b, twin | CD bärûp, AD2 CL bàdáp
*bééb, money | CD béēp
bén, granary | AD4 Pere binè, cf. CD bóón, AD2 CL bón, AD5 ZM bôô; AD4 Dii vâŋ
bérêŋ, gazelle (kind of) | CD bérèng, AD2 CL bédêŋ
*bî, seed, kind (bî as N2) | CD bûi
*bîjë, quiver (for arrows) | CD bêcën
*bôksi, accompany | CD bôksi
bôr, big | CD wàrì, pl. wòpsá, AD4 Pere bògàrè, AD5 ZM bòrò are all likely cognates
bûŋ, kill | cf. CD bût, AD4 Momi but-s- 'kill a sleeping animal'
bûyàri, draw, decorate with drawing | AD4 Momi bii-, AD5 ZM bii but Yendang vëcë; cf. CL bâd

*bá (bâ with subject m '1sg'), come | CD báá, rarely with sense 'come' in AD, but cf. AD4 Pere bâ- 'come forward'; however, AD2 CL gbâ’move away'
bák, hug, embrace, cradle | CD kpâk, AD4 Pere kpà-, kpàŋ-
bâk, knife (see list 1)
bâk, bushcow (see list 1)
bâkisi (+ tûâ 'head'), think, worry about
báamá, midst
*bâin, farm (vb) | CD bàân, AD4 Momi baa-, Pere bâà-, Dii bàà, but AD6 Karang pà, AD13 Kulaal wày, Niellim wày
*bâin, field, farm | CD bâiin, AD4 Momi bant, Dii bîb, but AD6 Karang pài, AD13 Kulaal ùâål, Niellim wáål
bê-síbá, (down on) ground | cf. perhaps CD bên for the initial element
bêê, bushbuck | cf. CD bây, AD4 Momi bayamz 'duiker', Dii bál 'kob'
bék, (clay) dish
*bêksi, break, smash | ideophonic root: CD vwêksi, cf. AD6 Karang vwêh 'cut' and even AD13 Niellim bûgrì
bê, leg (see list 1)
*bêni, bring | CD bêni; cf. AD13 Kulaal wên
bêçi, two (see list 1)
bî, lie, tell lies (+ lëêm) | cf. AD4 Pere miî- + 'tongue'
bîksi, refuse | AD5 ZM bèn
bîp, ask, ask for | cf. AD4 Dii vi, AD5 Yendang bî-, AD6 Karang vwî
bōōm, wound, sore
bōōn, bōn, cut, slash; split (intr); break (as day)
bōŋ, river (see list 1)
bō, bean
bō, throw | AD4 Dii gbɔ, AD6 Karang vωū
*bōb, blind(ness) | CD bɔp
bōp, dance (n)
bōp, dance (vb) | possible cognate in AD13 Niellim bōn
bōrûm, thunder, lightning | CD bɔ̃g, AD4 Dii bɔ̃o, cf. AD6 Karang pómnû; but also CD
bélûm, AD4 Momi bulmi 'flame' (see yeq(û)mû 'flame')
bûmki (intr), resound, be noisy
bûūg, ash, dust | CD bûnû 'dust'; *buŋ is PP and Proto-Jukun
bûnûsă, (harmattan) wind
bûyî, dog (see list 1)
bûnmsă, brain(s) | CD bólömî, AD4 Pere bôrê, note AD6 Karang li-pûm
bûr, white | CD bûrkî, AD2 CL bûd, AD4 Momi bu(ni) 'white', bur- 'be white', Pere bûî, Dii
bû 'be white', AD6 Karang bûî, but also pûkî, cf. AD5 ZM puru

da, copulate | CD lêén, AD5 ZM laa
da, take out, remove
*dâbrî, wrap (in leaves to cook) | CD dâbrî, AD2 CL dâp
*dângdâŋ, bitter | CD dângdâng
daâsî, choose, select (< dà 'remove')
dûn, cloth, clothing
dên, vagina
dî, press
dî(nî)-, heavy, prob. < dî 'press' | CD dingding, but initial continuant elsewhere: AD4 Dii
zi, AD6 Karang
dî, long | CD dêčrî 'long, far', AD4 Dii dî, AD6 Karang dî 'far'
dîglî, tickle | AD6 Kare dîkîli, cf. CD gênglî
dîŋ (perhaps dîŋ), eyebrow
dîpsă, cloud
*dôk, plant (vb) | CD dôk, also AD4 Momi dokw- but AD2 CL dôp
*dôm, greet | CD dôóm, AD2 CL dôm
dòn, sing
dõøŋ, misery, poverty | related to AD5 ZM rán?
dù (or ðy), ridge (in farm)
dûük, mountain (see list 1)
*ðuk (intr), finish, come to an end | CD dûk, cf. tý 'finish' below, AD2 CL dûg
dûk-stomach (but syntactically adjectival) | cf. ZM dûku 'skin bag'
*ðûksi, finish, be used up | CD dûksi < dûk
dûm (intr), collapse, fall off, down
dûm, short, shallow
*ð(á)ðûmá gâŋ, vulture | CD ðûmá gâŋ, AD2 CL ðûmá
*ðûngbâl, hippopotamus | CD ðûngkpâlì, AD2 CL ðûngbâl
*ðûngti (HH?), deceive | CD ðûngli
ðy, wet, moisten, soak | cf. AD4 Momi yîi-; perhaps ultimately connected with CD ðûrî 'rain'
dûn (intr), go (in) | AD4 Pere dô-, Dii dô, but Momi tor-; also AD6 Karang rîh
dîr, deep | AD4 Pere lû̀-, AD5 Yendang tin- 'be deep'

dà (intr), break, shatter (from falling) | AD5 ZM daasè 'break (a piece) off', AD6 Karang
dùr, Kare dôrò
dê, taste | AD5 Yendang lék-, AD6 Karang lêh; cf. AD4 Momi dôo'
dê, testicles
dê, granary
dê, put, place | AD4 Momi de′(s-), Dii 'yé
dêk, forget | AD6 Karang yêkrê
dê, other
*ðîi, burn (tr), light (fire) | CD ðîi but AD2 CL dû; according to Kleinewillinghöfer (pers. comm.), Bambuka in the Bikwin group has lii
dîŋ, navel
dôb, in-law
dôbën, cowife
dôòk, mouse | AD5 Yendang ròk 'kind of (domestic) rat'
dôn, breathe | AD4 Momi donj 'groan', Pere dû- 'blow, snore'; however, CD gông, AD2 CL
gòn, AD4 Momi yôys-, AD5 ZM gîŋ 'snore', these last three 'snore'
dōnsi (< dōn 'breathe'), rest | same derivation in CD göngsi; but AD5 ZM wnɔkè; cf. AD6 Karang ɓok

dōŋ, hip (joint); thigh | cf. AD2 CL ḏūn, A4 Pere ḏɔrema, Dii ḏō, all 'leg'
dōŋ kā Fairfield, matriclan (compound with N2 'face'?)

ɗāk, penis | AD4 Dii ndōg, but Momi deek; AD6 Karang ndīw

ɗāum, perhaps also ɗāmà, back (> dūm 'behind') (see list 1)

ɗāmsà, urine | cf. AD2 CL wōôm, AD6 Karang tōm

ɗāŋ, hole | CD ɗō, AD4 Momi duur, but CL déél, Pere dālè; also AD5 ZM tôq, AD6 Karang lókó

faktì (intr), tasteless, insipid

fē, burn (tr/intr) | CD pùí, AD2 CL pē, AD4 Dii pì 'be hot', AD6 Kare più 'singe'

fē, twenty

fēën, moon, also fēn /wē 'stars' (see list 1)

fēsì, full, complete (be)

fį, take (staple food with fingers)

fùn(n)i, begin (< Fululde fiudà?)

gá, illness

gá, get, receive | CD gààn

gāà, strainer (for beer), sifter (for flour); also fishtrap | AD4 Pere gāŋ 'fishtrap', cf. CD gèè

gāà, road (see list 1)

gā̀, Tibá

*gām, horn | CD gāām

*gàŋ, chief (see list 1)

*gaāŋ-túnèn, donkey | CD gāŋ-pèn-túnèn

gāŋ (sàtàá, i.e., 'sour'), pepper | AD5 ZM gānl zin where the meanings of zin are 'clot of blood' and 'fish'

gāngá, drum (kind of) | < Hausa gàngá

gāp, count | AD5 ZM gna, Yendang gān-, AD6 Kare ngè (also kë), but non-nasal elsewhere: AD2 CL gād, AD4 Momi ga-, Pere gāár-(do)

*gāpsi (HM?), divide, distribute (adj. gāşé(nè)- 'forked') | CD gāpsì
gāásá, (dry) season | AD4 Pere gāā, Dii gāāg, but AD6 Karang kāy; Kare kējō
gāsí (HM?), think (about), recall | AD4 Pere gēl-, cf. AD6 Karang kēr
*gānsi (HM?), strain, sift | CD gāsī

gāpsā, fly (n) (see list 1)
gāŋ, hunch (on back) | cf. AD5 Yendang kūkī; also CD gāy, AD2 CL găd
gāŋ, large potsherd | CD gī

gēj, sorrel

gē, cross (river)
gēk, (bambara) groundnut

gēk, grave | CD gākā, AD4 Pere gāgō
gēm, scream, dream, nightmare (also a verb, 'affect (as a bad dream')
gēn, break, snap (tr) | AD4 Pere gō'-break (tr)' with derivative gōl- 'break into pieces (tr')
gēn, medicine | CD gēān, AD2 CL gān, AD5 ZM gnān, but AD4 Momi geŋbāz, Pere gaabō,

Dii gām

*gēn (intr), flow | CD gēēn
gérā, guinea-corn (see list 1)
gēsēj, scorpion

gīk, chest | cf. AD2 CD gīūl, AD5 ZM gīn, but CD gàngā, AD4 Pere gōgī, gāsgālē, AD6
Kare gōn

gīm, smelly (be) | cf. CD gūn, AD6 Kare gūnē 'smelly'

*gīt, abstain | CD gīt
gītāámā, green
gō, pay (back)
gōn, answer

*gōnsā, breath | CD gōngsī, see the doublet gbāgsā 'snoring' below
gō, catch, seize | CD gūt, AD4 Pere gū₄-, AD5 Yendang gō- but AD2 CL kō
gū (intr), fall

*gūb, thorn | CD gūp (cf. AD4 Momi kapt)
(ā/)gysā, also gysēn, pigeon

gbá, call, call out | AD5 ZM ɓaa (+ nyaa 'mouth')

gbā, vomit

gbá, dig, dig up | AD2 CL gbâ', AD5 ZM gbmaa

gbák, grind (dry grain) | CD gōk
gbák, slip

gbáám, blood (see list 1)

gbántilóór, (earth)worm

(á)/gbáŋ, bird (see list 1)

gbáŋsá, snoring | CD gbáŋsí 'groan' (compare dón 'breathe', gbópsá 'breath')

gbáŋsi (intr), finish, run out | AD4 Momi gbáms-, Pere bám-, AD5 Yendang gòós-

gbér, dassie

gbóóm, heart (see list 1)


gmjéši, move, shift (tr) | CD gbáši, cf. AD2 CL gbá''move away', AD4 Dii 'mè''move near'

gmòp (intr), crawl

hám, salt

háp, bind, wrap (up)

hárà, headpad | cf. AD2 CL káljá (with a wider sense 'rolled thing, rolling thing', AD4 Pere

káarè, Dii káà, AD5 Yendang kántàn; however, CD yéri

háŋ, guinea-corn (see list 1)

háŋmá (or káŋmá?), rain, saliva (see list 1)

já (or jāa or jā), laziness | CD jàárélén 'lazy person', AD6 Kare zòzò

já, smear, anoint; step (in something sticky)

ják, cook, brew | AD6 Karang nzé but CD sákì

*jám (intr), stand (up), swell (adj jám(nē)-) | CD jàam

(a/)jàánsá, tiger nut | CD jàán but AD5 ZM sàh, Yendang tànká

jánrì, dry (meat) (< jàŋ-?)

jàn(nē)-, hot, feverish (be) | AD4 Dii žágā''sun', AD6 Karang žáŋmá 'fever', Kare zàng

*jáāy, tendon | CD jáāy, AD2 CL zéèè

jéèg, scabies | AD5 ZM znàkn

jémká, stranger, outsider | cf. AD4 Momi genz, AD5 ZM zanti, Yendang zántà, cf. sènèn

jèrà, locust | cf. AD5 ZM zòro
jèrì, whirlwind
jè, see | AD5 ZM zè
jù, night (see list 1)
jù, theft, thief | CD yìlēn < yìlì‘steal’
jìbàr, pocket | < Fulfulde jiìba
jìntà, (cooking) pot (apparently singular though plural in form) (see list 1)
jìŋjìŋ, also jìŋə (in compounds, e.g., óŋ jìŋə ‘bee water’, i.e., honey), jìŋjìn, water (see list 1)
*jìŋlǎār, hyena | CD jìŋlǎā
jò, on, upon | CD jùm
jòòb, poison | AD5 ZM znòpò, Yendang zòn
jòm, squat | CD jòòm
*jòn, laugh (vb) | CD jòòn
jòòn, jòòná, red | AD5 Yendang vònti
jò (?), laughter | CD jòòná, AD4 Pere zònè, Dii zòm
*jù, up(wards) | CD jùù
jùm, flour | CD jòòm, AD2 CL zààm, AD5 ZM zùm, but AD6 Karang sóm, AD13 Niellim hùm
jùŋ, mortar | AD5 ZM dùn
jùŋ, pound
jỳ, pour
jỳ̀ (jỳ, jỳ̀ after ‘locative’ or as DO without modifier), house, room (see list 1)

*kàmkì, gather (tr) | CD kàmkì (frequentative of kàmì)
kàn, anklet
kàn, find, meet | AD4 Dii kàn, cf. AD5 ZM kòsè
kàn, tie (prob. another sense of the preceding verb) | cf. AD2 CL kàsà’corde’, AD6 Karang ngèh
kàáŋ, cobra
kàŋtà or kàŋtà, calabash
kàŋtà, tortoise | cf. AD4 Dii kpàrgàd
kàárá, wing, feather
kànsì, join, meet (< kàn)
kàáŋ, face, forehead
kāŋ, neck (see list 1)

kāŋkiláá (invariable?), chicken (see list 1)

*kāsí, strainer (for flour) | CD kāsí

kēće, cough (n) | AD5 Yendang kól-(vb)

kēj, say, speak

*kēlüm (also attested -kēlüm-, -kēlüm-, pl. kēlüm tá), baobab | CD kēlüm

*kēmjū, monkey (see list 1)

*kēj, refuse | CD kāj

*kējɛ́, mad (man) | CD kēj, AD2 CL kējɛ́

*kējɛkɛ́, hedgehog | CD kājɛkə́, AD2 CL kājɛgā

*kēnsi, bother, disturb | CD kānsi

kēsā, (rainy) season | cf. PP *kwas

kēsá, side (of body), rib cage

*kilên, loan | CD kilēn

kīn, one (see list 1)

*kinēën, leper, leprosy | CD kīnēën

*kisēn, slave, captive (see list 1)

(ā/kīyā̀, (in) front, before

kó or kóg, carry (a child on the back) | CD kōl, AD4 Pere kū́-, AD5 ZM kmáá

kɔ́, put on (clothes)

*kók, rub | CD kōk, cf. AD5 Yendang kpós-

kóm, urinate

*kóm, arrive | CD kóóm

*kōnàr, smallpox | CD kōnà

*kōnlaar, elephant (see list 1)

*kōnti, gather, pile up | CD kōngli; also AD5 Yendang gò-

*kóp, draw, fetch (water) | CD kōp, AD2 CL kòp 'puiser partiellement'; also note AD5 Dii kò

kō, guinea-fowl | CD kāá, AD4 Pere kū́, Dii kɔ̀, AD6 Karang kpèh but Kare kɔ́rɛ́ 'perdrix', cf. 'chicken'

*kō, (enclosure) mat | CD kōō

kṓr (intr), thin (be)

kōnsi, untie

kú, sweep | CD kū́́, AD4 Momi koor-s-, AD5 ZM kṓ
kù (intr), old (be) (person)
kük, kükú, grandmother | compare CD kák, AD2 CL kàá; also AD13 Kulaal káá, Niellim kàá
kàá, boat | root with an unusual distribution: apparent cognates exist in AD13, e.g.,
Niellim kwàá:r, pl. kórgé, but may spread as far as Ubangi Zande kùrùngbà; also
note Fulfulde koombowal
*kúmtì, make (a fist) | CD kúmli
kúnhúŋ, shoulder | cf. AD4 Pere kòòlè and 'neck' (list 1)
ký, cut (down), clear (a field) | AD2 CL kò 'cut off (road)', AD5 ZM kò 'cut (in two)',
Yendang gō- 'cut (down)'
ký, bright, clear (be)
kýsì, chop (into pieces) (< ký 'cut (down)')
kýr, (wrist-, ankle-)bone, joint
kýř, hare | CD kút

kméè, pull (up, out)

kmèk, squirrel

kpà, cut, break off (tr/intr) | AD4 Dii kpàn, kpàā
kpá, skin | AD5 ZM koŋ
kpǎm, joking partner | CD kpōōm
kpàŋgúntā groundnut(s) (see list 1)
*kpáŋ, weed (a field) | CD kpáŋ
kpé, fish, go fishing | AD4 Momi gbée-, AD5 Yendang kpè̥̆ς-, both 'fish by bailing'; cf.
AD2 CL kpè̥̆ 'fishhook'
kpiksǐmsà, chin
kpìŋ, nest
*kpísaár, billy-goat | CD pīsāá
*kpōŋáár, deaf | CD kpóngáá, AD CL2 kpūŋg ~ gbūŋg
láa, belly (see list 1)
láa, sleep (n) | invariable final nasal: CD láám, AD2 CL láām, AD4 Momí rám, Pere nām,
Dii nām, AD5 ZM nú-rón, AD6 Karang nám, except AD5 Yendang (nō-)-rōó
lá (intr), fall (as rain) | always initial nasal elsewhere: CD nàā, AD2 CL nā, AD4 Dii nā, AD5 Yendang nā-
(á/)lágón, chameleon | cf. AD5 Yendang gōnlí
lák, forge (vb) | AD2 CL lá, cf. AD2 CL lēg, AD4 Dii lāgā both 'sharpen'
lám, lost (be) | cf. AD4 Pere lēč, AD5 ZM rūń
láán, cry (vb) | cf. AD4 Dii lēg, AD6 Kare rē-rḗŋ
*láŋ, surround | CD láng
láŋšā, side of face | CD lāngši 'temple'; also AD4 Pere làrāŋ, AD6 Koh lāākūn
lēkā (pl. lekétā), blacksmith (see list 1)
lēčm, lie (in bū léma 'tell lies', cf. lēr 'tongue')
lēčn, grinding stone | AD5 ZM réeć; cf. CD nāán, also AD2 CL nāgāl, AD5 Yendang (ū-)nā
léŋ, drip | AD4 Dii lēg 'flow'
*lēp, buy | CD lēp, cf. AD4 Momí yiip-; *dyap is PP
*lēpsi, sell | CD lépsi
lēr, tongue (see list 1)
léérā, louse | AD2 CL lād 'flea', AD4 Pere làrārē, Dii lēčd, AD5 ZM rēeḍti, Yendang rēeśī
*lēérā, flute | CD lēčrā (a regional root: AD2 CL lēčd, AD4 Momí liirāz; also AD4 Dii
lēčēd)
lēēsī, lēēsī, spoil (tr), rot, spoil (intr) | CD lēēsī 'moisten', AD4 Pere lī-, AD5 ZM lēsē
lēčī, grass, bush (cf. pē lē /pē 'animal (thing-bush-thing)')
lē, prepare, get ready | cf. AD2 CL lēb, AD4 Pere lē, Dii lē, AD5 Yendang ré-, all 'produce,
give birth'
*lē, scar, blemish | CD lēčī, AD2 CL lēm
(á/)lí, when?
lí (+ bāāmā), sky, above | AD2 CL lēg
líi, village | AD2 CL līgā 'compound, family', AD4 Pere līgō, Dii līg, AD5 Yendang lēč, all
'house'; also AD13 Niellim lī; Kwa līč, both 'house'; *di is PP for 'compound,
house'
*līk (līkā ?), dirt(y) | CD līkā, cf. AD2 CL līgād, also AD4 Dii līgōd 'be dirty'; *dik is PP
(á/)līn, (day after) tomorrow | cf. AD2 CL līmtā 'morning'
līng, between, through
líŋsi, sell, hawk
líŋtá, gut, intestine | cf. CD nágri
*lípsí, turn, change | CD lípsí, AD2 CL lít, lím but also AD5 ZM ré
líísá, smoke
lók, take | AD5 Yendang lá-, also AD4 Dii lò, but the root have a Chadic source, cf. Bata lù 'take, get'
lóká or lóká, cry (n) | CD lóki 'speak, tell'
lóóm, war (see list 1)
lúu, yam | AD2 CL düd, AD5 ZM lóoti
lük, lump (on body, head)
lúûmór, market | < Fulfulde luumo
lûmsá, man
(á)lûûmsá, husband (cf. 'man')
lûûng, knee (see list 1)
lỳ, move (residence, jyý | AD4 Dii lỳù 'go away' *
lỳỳm, male | CD lỳùm
lỳn (intr.; also lỳỳn for 'get, stand up?'), get up, fly | CD dùm, AD4 Momi ruu-, Pere lù-, Dii lùù 'lift', AD5 ZM dù, AD6 Karang zò; also note Bata lì (apparently not a reconstructible Chadic root, Carnochan 1975)
lỳnsì, raise, throw up, make fly

má, knead, work (mud, clay), build (building) | CD mäkì, AD2 CL mà 'make, do', AD5 ZM maa, Yendang mäà-, but AD4 Dii mbòò, AD6 Karang mbòò
*màk, show | CD mäk, AD2 CL màg 'imiter, désigner, mesurer'
*màkà dikàr (màkà invariable?), (red) millet | CD màkà (meaning of second element in Tiba unknown)
*màksì, try, try on, out | CD màksì < màk
mékà, green, unripe
mékà, paste
mësòmsá, dew | CD mënsán, AD2 CL mësà, AD4 Momi mèt, Pere mëre, Dii mëd, AD6 Karang mìm, but AD5 Yendang mòò (vs. mëè 'water')
mí, day
mí, door (< mì 'open, close') (see list 1)
mũ, excrement
mĩ, close, open
mũ̀w, shave
mũ̀-wã, day before yesterday
mó, bear, give birth to | AD6 Karang mbũ̀w, cf. AD4 Dii mbóg 'fix, get ready'
mó (mò with object ti'tree'), climb
mũnà, earth

nà (nà with indirect object wè'child'), give | CD nyàá, AD5 ZM an; this form reappears in
AD13: Kulaal nèé, Niellim nà
nà (nà with object pè'thing'), do | CD nàk
nàkàwà, cow (see list 1)
* nàkè, crocodile (see list 1)
nàhì, nàhì, how?, how much? | CD nyàá, nyákà, AD2 CL là, lêć, AD4 Momi na(jee), AD5
ZM dneè'how much', AD6 Karang ání, Mbum nàni 'how'
nè, four (see list 1)
nèé (pl. nèh), person | CD nèé, AD2 CL nèj, AD4 Pere nàn
nèk, owner | AD6 Kare nàá
nèghà, axe
nì, mother (but nàjàpá 'your mother'); cf. nì-wè, sibling (mother's child) | AD5 ZM yìna,
Yendang yìn (with prefix yV-?)
nìjì, drum (see list 1)
*nìjìšì, hurry | actually CD nìjìsèn < nìjìsi'make tremble', AD2 CL nìjì'tremble' >
nìjìsèn 'hurry'
*nò, (oracle) poison | CD nòo
nòkì, enough, equal (be) | CD nèkèn
nòm(nè)-, good, pleasant, tasty | AD2 CL làm, AD4 Dìì nèm 'be salty'
* nòm, anger | CD nòm, AD2 CL nòm
nòntà, root | cf. AD5 Yendang nínkàr, *nan is PP
nòsì (HM?), shake
(tò/)nòkì, (bow)string
nùjì, locust bean tree
nùngâr, locust bean (tablet)
núümá, wax

pá, put in, on (as hat, shoes) | CD pák, AD2 CL pâàn, AD4 Dii pâg
(bông) pâ, (river)bed, gulley
pâän, place
pât, all | a regional term attributable to Fulfulde
pêçek, new | AD4 Momi pâ(-ni) but AD6 Mbum fêké, Koh fîfê
pê, go | cf. AD2 CL pât 'take, carry', AD4 Momi pêc- 'take away'; also Dii hê 'go off, away'
pêc, thing | CD pêr, cf. AD2 CL in, AD4 Pere ēnê, Dii hên, AD5 Yendang hê, AD6 Karang fê
pê (intr), return, go back, change (into) | CD pêc (compare pêr 'put back'), AD4 Pere pên- 'do again' but fêl- 'change into', AD6 Kare fêrê; cf. 'exchange': AD2 CL pêèn, AD4 Dii pê
*pîi, Beni seed | CD pîî
*pîgêe, maize (see list 1)
*pîlâm, (large) basket | CD pîläng, a regional root (AD2 CL pîlâm)
pîümâ, charcoal | AD6 Karang hêkrê
pô, butcher, cut open
pûglâ, flowering (of plants) | CD pûgrî 'flower (vb)'
pûglâ, armpit
pûûk, pûkû, (maternal) uncle | cf. CD pôp, AD4 Dii pâă
pûk (pûkâ?), bark (of tree), shell | CD pûkô
pyî, viper | AD4 Dii kpûù
pyîgyê, cassava | CD pîî-gôô
pûn, tired (be) | CD pût
pûn, fatigue

*sâá, (father's other) wife | CD sâá
*sâ, net | CD sâá, AD2 CL sâd
sâ, ooze, have diarrhea (+ mû) | CD sâá, AD4 Dii sôô 'leak', AD5 ZM sôô, but san 'forge', Yendang sâ 'ooze; melt', AD6 Karang sâh 'moisten'
sâ, mud | AD5 Yendang sôk
sâk, hang, carry (on shoulder)
*sâk, genet cat | CD sâk, AD2 CL sâg "renard"
sám, bark (vb)
sám, spear (see list 1)
(áŋ) sámkáa, left (hand)
sán, carve
sán, hoe | cf. AD4 Dii tôŋ
sánśá, muddy pool | cf. sā
sánśi, grind (flour) | AD4 Pere sán- 'grind (fresh, damp grain)', whence relationship with sā, sā
(á/)sáŋkáa, frog, toad (see list 1)
*sánki (HM?), teach, learn | CD sāŋká, AD2 CL sán
*sáðí, do (repetitively) | CD sāðí (auxiliary verb)
sātāa or sātáa, sour
sātíi, porcupine
sātók, (beer) pot
sé (also sēwā), sun, God (see list 1)
sè (intr), lacking, scarce (be) | AD5 Yendang sè
sè, also sèsèč, nightjar (?, translates CD tāmáa)
(áŋ) sè (or sē), fingernail (see list 1)
*sèb, witch | CD sèb 'bewitch'; cf. AD4 Dii sòb 'use witchcraft', sōōg 'witch', sève 'witchcraft'
sèčèk, anklet | AD4 Pere sègò 'castagnette'
sèk, go (down), also sèksi | AD2 CL sém, AD4 Dii sì, cf. AD4 Pere si' 'sit'; also cf. si' 'down'
*sèm, (prepubescent) girl, female (animal) | CD sèm 'girl' but -sè 'female animal'
sèmsémáa sand | cf. AD4 Pere sii, AD5 ZM sneeli (note particularly sengsengli from the Saawà dialect of Mumuye, Shimizu 1979:98); Kleinewillinghöfer 1996:97 also reports forms like swaa in Bikwin; cf. AD6 Kare mäsálá and AD13 Niellim hyāā
from an earlier form with initial s
sèn, waist | AD4 Momi seem, AD5 ZM sáń
sèn, add (to), increase
*sènèn (pl. sènèn-t-), guest | CD sènèn, AD2 CL sènèn, cf. jëmtá
sènéey, strong, healthy | cf. CD sèni 'be too strong', AD4 Dii sèn 'make an effort' prob. < sèč 'be potent, effective'
*sènì, difficult (be) | CD sèni
sèqsi, pull (off, out)
sèér, pl. of yàmik, young, small (child)
sèrará, truth
sč, scratch (itching) | cf. AD5 ZM sneeté 'itch'
sí, speech, matter
sí (intr), black, dark (be) | cf. AD5 ZM tinri 'dark'; also cf. jür 'night'
sí, bury
sí, plait (hair) | AD4 Momi sí- 'make rope'; otherwise CD túi, Pere tū- 'weave', AD5 ZM tísé
sí, also süi, down(wards) | AD5 Yendang séči, cf. CD tii, AD2 CL tję, AD5 ZM tí(p)jì, AD6
   Kare tía, also cf. sib 'under', sék 'go down' for this correspondence
sì, wait for | CD sìt, AD2 CL sìd, both 'be patient', AD4 Pere sí- 'sit'
sì, show
sìb, under, below | CD tím, also AD5 ZM típí, AD6 Karang sibá, both 'earth'; cf. sì 'down'
sígáy(á), much, many
síjí, also sii, civet cat | CD sì, AD2 CL sid
*sím, beer | CD sín, cf. AD4 Pere fúm, AD13 Kulaal ham, Niellim hám
sír, porridge | cf. AD4 Momi sii- 'cook porridge'
*sír, boil, abscess | CD sít, AD2 CL sílā
sísét, switch, whip
*síssá, insult (n) | CD síssí
só, drink | CD sóg, the general AU root is represented by AD4 Dii zo; *swa is PP; note
   however that Chadic Bata has sób
só, butt, ram (perhaps identical with the following term) | AD2 CL súd
sóo, break (intr) | AD4 Dii sóób
sò, pierce, stab | AD5 ZM suu, Yendang sór-, AD6 Karang sù, but AD2 CL səb 'pierce', AD4
   Pere sà-, sèd-, Dii sà; compare CD sót
sók, wash (something) | CD súksi, AD4 CL súg, AD4 Pere sóg-, AD5 ZM sókè, AD6
   Karang sób 'wash oneself'
*sókár, (land monitor) lizard | CD sókà
sóksá, hair (on body) (see list 1)
sóksá (used with bá 'throw'), whistling
són, (staple) food | AD5 Yendang sōg, cf. CD tūm, also AD13 Kulaal háål, Niellim háà:n;
   cf. 'eat, chew'
*sóg, antelope (kind of) | CD sóng
sóp, blow (on)
sópsí, lick (up)
sō̊ŋ, also sō̊rā, wind | cf. AD13 Kulaal hà̄p, Niellim sà̊b
sō̊n, carry (off, away) | cf. CD tū̄n, AD5 Yendang tō̊, both 'carry on head'
sō̊, mucus | cf. AD2 CL sā̊b 'pus'
sō̊ōnī, leave (a path), branch off
sō̊nsī, put out (fire)
sūksā, soup | AD5 Yendang sō̊nkō
sū̊msī, sū̊msī, gather (something); gather (together) | CD sō̊dū̊m, AD4 Pere sū̊m-, both 'gather up', AD5 Yendang sō̊̄ 'take out, remove'
sū̊wē̊̄, (intestinal) worm | CD sō̊̄mū̊, AD2 CL sō̊bē̊̄
sū̊nsī, swell, blister
sū̊sū̊ŋ, shade | AD5 ZM sunrū̊, cf. AD6 Karang sū̊ŋ 'night'
sū̊yī̊, thirst | CD sū̊, AD2 CL sū̊d
sī̊mā̀, dry (be) | CD sū̊m
sī̊mā̀ā, empty
sī̊msī, dry (tr) | CD sū̊msī
sū̊n, grow, develop; go out | cf. CD tū̄n 'develop, grow up' > tū̄në̊ 'go out'; also AD6 Karang tī̊h 'go out'
sū̊nī, tail | AD2 CL sū̊ 'queue de oiseau'; also cf. AD13 Kulaal hē̊c̊, Niellim hī̊nā
sī̊nsī, resemble
sū̊ryī̊m, bright, shiny (be); smooth, slippery, mucilaginous (be) | AD5 Yendang sū̊r-'be slippery'

tā̊, hit, kick, shoot | CD tā̊̀, AD2 CL tā̊̄l, AD4 Momi taa-, Dii tā̀, AD5 ZM tā, Yendang tā̀, cf. té-'sting...'
tā̀ (or tā, pick, pluck (fruit); excrete | AD4 Dii tō̊’pick'
*tā̊, butcher (vb) | CD tā̊̀
tā̀i, early (be, get up) | AD4 Dii tā’ād
*tā̊āb, sandal | CD tā̊āp, AD2 CL tā̀bā
tā̊ām, tàm, jump (over), jump (intr)
tā̀p, sew | AD2 CL tā̀b, AD4 Dii tā̀i, both 'tie up'; compare CD tā̀gā̀, CL tā̀l, a root also present in Chadic Guđé
*tā̀rā, three (but cf. 'eight' tyn̄-/tā̀rārā) | CD tā̀rā (see list 1)
tē̊, sting, prick, dazzle; appear | CD tā̀t, AD4 Momi tā̀ks-'reveal', cf. tā̀ 'hit...'
té, stone (see list 1)
(yén) té (< té?), anus
tébmá, luck(y) (translates CD jüi 'red' in núín jüi 'luck(y person)', lit. 'red face')
(ā/tékā/?) gecko
tém, pass (through) | CD têlî 'pass by', AD2 CL tàän, AD4 Pere tàl- 'pass', AD5 Yendang târ-, AD6 Kare tâ
témisí, insult
*tê, push, sweep, carry along | CD tâj
*têksí, begin | CD tâksi
*tîçmsà, sheep | CD tâmsí; also note AD4 Pere tami, AD5 Yendang dââ
tî, tree, stick (see list 1)
tî, father (but têgã 'your father') | AD4 Pere tâa, but tûnú 'his father', cf. AD5 ZM yera,
Yendang yôrí (with prefix yV?)
tî(y)âm, afternoon
tik, gourd | AD4 Dii tîg
*tîksá, snail | CD tîksââ
(ā/tî/sâa (< â/tîsâa?), owl | AD5 Yendang tûnsûn
tîsèn (or tîsèn), ant
*(pçê) tôm, work (n) | CD pên tôôm
tôn, eat, chew | CD tààn, AD5 Yendang tâá-; also AD13 Kulaal tô but Niellim tôy 'eat
(staple food'), compare sôn 'staple food', AD5 ZM shaa 'eat', and AD6 Kare só 'chew'
*tôt, play (+ tôô 'ear') | CD tông tâa
tôôny(nô) (also tôunjë), good, effective, clean, beautiful | AD4 Dii tôô and AD5 ZM tnoô;
Yendang tûn-, all 'be good, tasty'; cf. AD6 Karang sù
*tôntôn, strong, healthy | CD tôngtông
tô, miss, err
tôô, bow (see list 1)
tôô, ear (see list 1)
tôôb, Shea butter tree | CD tûûp; cognates in AD13: Kulaal tôî, Niellim tâûm
tûâ, here
tûû, head (see list 1)
*(pçê) tûnên, baggage | CD pên tûnên < tûn 'carry'
tûn/sûm, shame | cf. AD2 CL sâm, AD4 Pere ségô, Dii sêm; AD5 ZM yâû-sne with yâ
'head' and CD sêsâq (also of course Fulfulde semt-)
*tūŋ*, five (but changes form in compound numbers: *tūŋ*-kān 'six', *tōŋ*-si-bējērā 'seven',
yān-/tārārā 'eight', *tūŋ*-si-nē 'nine', cf. *wūŋ*-sēj-tūŋjā 'fifteen') (see list 1)
tūŋ, point (at) | CD tōŋ, AD6 Kare tō

tūŋ, push | CD tūt, AD2 CL tī, AD4 Dii tū', but Pere tāţr-; also AD5 ZM dñō
tī, finish, complete (tr) | AD4 Dii tū 'be completely destroyed'; cf. CD dūk, dūksi
tîrîm, between, among | cf. AD4 Dii tài
tū, spit | AD2 CL tō, AD4 Dii tọ but AD4 Momī tān-, AD5 Yendang tēn--; CD tūsī

(ā/)vāgā, (kind of) lizard
vālī, help | < Fulfulde *walla*
vō, squat

vām, roast | AD2 CL wūn 'faire frire'
vūn, goat (see list 1)

(ā/)vānsā, mosquito | CD bōjōjī, AD4 Momī wōos, Pere vōrē, Dii vād, Karang vwōrō, Kare

vwōrō, cf. AD5 ZM wara 'bee', Yendang vōri 'bee', wērē 'honey'
vō, die | CD wūū, AD4 Momī wēr-, Pere vō-, AD5 ZM vō, Yendang wēs-, AD6 Karang hū,

AD13 Kulaal ūū, Niellim 'ūy; cf. AD2 CL vād
vūysă, shadow | AD2 CL nyisj; cf. PP *vu 'shade'

vwē, beat, hit | clearly ideophonic: CD vwāt, AD6 vwa, elsewhere AD4 Momī bee'; Dii vāg,
cf. AD6 Karang vwār, Kare vwērē 'break'

wā, fire | AD4 Pere vēē, Dii vēē, cf. AD5 ZM yaa, but waa in various other Mumuye
dialects; this well-represented AD-Ubangi root is not found in CD, but is present in
both Mambila and Vute
wā, sharpen
wāk, wākū, grandfather

wālāŋ, (cooking) pot (see list 1)
wādāsă, heat, hot (cf. 'fire') | also compare ZM wnaa 'hot'
wānsă, body

wā, leave, let | CD vēt
wē, year, time, season | AD4 Momī wiir, Pere vērē, Dii vē'
wé (pl. wě), child | CD wé·yé 'small, child', AD2 CL wà, AD4 Pere wårwà, Dii wàà, AD5 Yendang vāā, *van is PP

wéjùm, morning
wéjùn, tomorrow
(a/)wékkà, (his?) wife ('woman' with prefix à-) | (vestigial) compounding of terms for 'man' and 'woman', perhaps absent in Tiba, is a general feature of SWAD (and CD: léf·Jrùm 'man', néf·Jnùw 'woman'); if Tiba 'woman' were of this type, it might be related to AD4 Dii wå(-)ké, etc., cf. AD2 CL kéèn 'woman'; otherwise it may be connected with an eastern root: AD6 Kare wû, Karang wûyû, AD13 Kulaal wàà, Nielimm wày, cf. wû, female

*wép, mix | CD wèp
*wèr, arrow (see list 1)

wérrùm-wé, (small) bird | cf. AD4 Momi wèlmaz 'nightjar'
wèsèè, firewood | AD2 CL wògù
wèsi, hurt | CD nwònì (but Mapeo Chamba wëni), AD4 Pere wòd-wèk, hide (tr)
wèçrä, mushroom

wìi (wùii?), female | AD6 Karang wûyû, Karang wì 'woman' (also Koh máy)
wì, sit, stay, wait | AD4 Momi wìiisk- 'set (as sun)
wùnsà, thatching grass

*wò, want | CD wòò
wò, take off (clothes) | CD wòòsi
wò, watch (over) | CD nwàán, AD2 CL wà, AD4 Pere wùr-wòb, baboon
wòghù̀, bat
wòm(mè)-, cooperative, conjoint (labor)
wòm, oil (see list 1)
wòmsà, elephant grass

wòj, fight (vb) | CD nòng but nòóm 'be angry', cf. AD4 Pere gò- 'fight' but nò- 'be angry', AD5 Yendang yò̄màn-
wòp, fight (n) | CD nòng
wòp (intr), run | AD5 Yendang ó-, cf. CD nwòp 'avoid'; also see wùp 'fear'
wòpsì, ride (horse)
wòpsùnsà, sweat | cf. CD wàt, AD2 CL wàd, but AD5 ZM pò, *tiin is PP
*wọ́j, hide (intr) | CD wọ́j, cf. AD5 Yendang kún

wọ́b, bone | cf. the well-represented NC root appearing, e.g., in PP as *kup (but AD5 Yendang kún)

wọ́gb, ten (see list 1)

wá, drunk (be) | cf. CD wít, AD2 CL wíd

wù, fat (be) | CD nòò, AD4 Momi non-, Pere nùù-, AD5 ZM nó

wúp, fear | cf. CD yíp, AD5 ZM yú, both 'run', perhaps associated with a Chadic root, cf. Bata ći; also AD6 Kare wàù; see wòp 'run'

wúptá, fear (n)

yá, go (and visit, + sènèn) | AD2 CL yā 'venir', AD4 Dii yà 'arrive'

yà, (over) there | cf. AD4 Dii yà 'place'

yà (intr), rot, spoil; be surprised | CD nyángì, AD2 CL nyà', also yèčèl 'spoil, destroy', AD5 Yendang yànsàn-

*yàà, what?, why? | CD nyàà

yàà, friend (see list 1)

yà, old, used

yà (intr), swallow | cf. AD4 Dii yò'

(á)yà, where? | AD5 Yendang yàà

yàmík, pl. sèér, young, small (child) | cf. CD mìí (pl. méém) and AD5 Yendang (vàà) pl. yà yààn, bad

*yàm, horse (see list 1)

yàsá, leaf (see list 1)

yè, (at) home | CD nyèm, AD2 CL yíll 'house, compound', AD4 Dii yèè 'courtyard', AD5 ZM yè

yè, ready, ripe, healed (be), adj. yènèè | AD4 Dii yèn à 'true, good', cf. 'cook', cf. AD2 CL wè

yèksi, light (fire from another fire) | AD4 Pere yèg-

yèr(i)má, flame | AD2 CL yèčèl 'red, flame'; cf. bòrùm 'thunder, lightening'

yèèm, meat (see list 1)

yèm, carry (to), present (something) with an obeisance | cf. CD nyèni

*yèmyèm, yesterday | CD nyèm

yèmsá, song | CD nimsí but AD4 Dii yèé, AD5 Yendang yèkg
yéën, buttocks
yéŋ, sow (by casting), scatter | CD yèè, AD4 Pere yèm- 'disperse'
*yéŋŋ, bedbug | CD nyéəng
yéŋg, cold (be) (as wind)
*yéŋlä, digging stick | CD nyénglī
yí, eat | CD lúí, AD2 CL lí, AD4 Momi rec, Pere lé-
*yí, steal | CD yíí
*yík, lion (see list 1)

yírík, black | CD víḳí, AD4 Momi wíi-, wíir- 'be black', Pere víi- 'be black', Dii víi = fi 'be black', AD5 ZM viiki, but also AD4 Pere dírí, AD5 Yendang yíti, AD6 Kare yírí
(both having cognates in AD13 as well)

(yí)nýíma ( < yí 'eat'), right (hand)
yó, pull, stretch | cf. CD nwòṭ, AD4 Dii wòd; also AD5 ZM gnó 'pull', znó 'pull out'
yógréën, soft | AD4 Momi yakw-, Dii yöó 'be soft' vs. CD wóglēën, AD2 CL óg 'be soft'
yóók, cook (staple food) | AD4 Pere yö-, AD4 Dii yö 'be ripe, cooked' (cf. yö 'ready...(be)'); also cf. AD4 Momi ruu-
yókūm, salt (see list 1)
yóm (yóom néh), bite, be sharp | AD5 ZM yor; elsewhere, the usual initial l/n alternance:
   CD lóom, AD2 CL lūm, AD4 Momi rom(-d-), AD4 Dii nóŋ, AD5 Yendang rūn-,
   AD6 Karang nūŋ, Mbum lōŋ

yóó, snake (see list 1)
yó, weave, plait
yóótsá, rope | CD yíší, AD4 Momi yokla
yóótsí, swim, cross a river by swimming | AD4 Pere wó(g)-; cf. CD yág 'climb, cross a river
(by any means), AD4 Pere yág- 'cross (a river by means other than swimming)'
yúu, death, dead body | cf. CD wéŋ, AD5 ZM wóŋ, Yendang wéŋ, AD6 Karang bül, AD13
   Kulaal üāāl, Niellim 'ūālū, all probably related

yū́gy, hunger | CD wū́g, AD5 ZM wónkó; cf. AD13 Niellim nyúni 'thirst'
yúksá, fish | CD wúuk, cf. AD4 Momi duga, duukt, Pere dúrè, AD6 Karang nzúý
yým (or yöm), collide (with) | AD5 Yendang yín-