

**A GRAMMATICAL SKETCH  
OF KIMASHAMI**

**Josephat Rugemalira & Benedictor Phanuel**



**Languages of Tanzania [LOT] Project  
University of Dar es Salaam**

*LOT Publications: Grammar Series No. 2*

Languages of Tanzania Project

University of Dar es Salaam

P.O. Box 35040

Dar es Salaam.

© Languages of Tanzania Project 2013

Cover Map adopted from the *Language Atlas of Tanzania* by  
UDSM-LOT Project

LOT Publications Chief Editors: HRT Muzale & J.M. Rugemalira

**ISBN 979-9987-691-31-9**

All rights reserved. No part of this publication may be reproduced or transmitted in any form or by any means, electronic or mechanical, including photocopying, recording or any information and retrieval system, without written permission from the copyright owner.

**A Grammatical Sketch of Kimashami**

Josephat Rugemalira & Benedictor Phanuel



## **Preface**

The preparation of this grammatical sketch has been a very rewarding experience for us particularly because its appearance marks the end of a long drought in the Grammar Series of the LOT Publications! After the first publication in the series (Rugemalira 2005, *A Grammar of Runyambo*), project researchers focused their energies on the production of dictionaries (see back cover for a complete list of LOT publications). We are glad that a new generation of researchers will be bringing out at least two other grammars in the series soon. We also look forward to several more such products: the Tanzania linguistic landscape is a goldmine waiting to be exploited.

We would like to express our personal appreciation of the financial and logistical backing of the *Languages of Tanzania Project*, through the **Swedish International Development Agency (SIDA)** funding. Heartfelt thanks go to several of our colleagues who read earlier versions of this grammar or listened to and commented on partial presentations in seminars and workshops. We particularly thank the following for their comments, suggestions and encouraging remarks: Daniel Mkude, Henry Muzale, Abel Mreta and Amani Lusekelo.

Josephat Rugemalira & Benedictor Phanuel

Dar es Salaam 2013



## Contents

Preface .....	v
CHAPTER ONE.....	12
1 INTRODUCTION.....	12
CHAPTER TWO .....	4
2 PHONOLOGY .....	4
2.1 Phonemic Inventory and Orthography .....	4
2.2 Consonants .....	6
2.3 Vowels.....	18
2.4 Tone .....	21
2.5 Syllable Structure Conditions .....	23
CHAPTER THREE .....	24
3 THE NOUN AND ITS DERIVATION.....	24
3.1 Noun Structure .....	24
3.2 The Noun Classes .....	24
3.3 Noun Derivation.....	35
3.3.1 Noun Derivation by Change of Class .....	35
3.4 Compounding and Reduplication .....	40
3.4.1 Noun + Associative + Noun.....	40
3.4.2 Verb + Noun Compounds .....	40
3.4.3 Reduplication .....	41
3.5 Pronominal Forms .....	42
3.6 Numerals .....	43
CHAPTER FOUR.....	46
4 THE ORDER OF ELEMENTS IN THE NOUN PHRASE	46
4.1 Categorization Criteria .....	46
4.2 Determiners .....	49
4.3 Modifiers.....	50
CHAPTER FIVE.....	62
5 VERB MORPHOLOGY.....	62
5.1 Verb Template.....	62
5.2 The Initial Element .....	64

5.3	The Subject Marker.....	66
5.4	The Tense-aspect-mood (TAM) Markers .....	66
5.5	Irregular verb <i>ishi</i> .....	73
5.6	Irregular Verb <i>ibha</i> ‘to be’ .....	74
5.7	(Auxiliary) Verb + verb Constructions .....	77
5.8	Resultatives.....	78
5.9	Short Verbs .....	81
5.10	Summary of Tense and Aspect Marking.....	82
5.11	Object Marking on the Verb.....	84
5.12	Co-occurrence of OM with NP .....	88
5.13	The Shape of the Verb Root.....	89
5.14	Verb Extensions .....	91
5.15	Verb Extension Co-occurrence and Ordering .....	95
5.16	Reduplication .....	97
	CHAPTER SIX.....	99
6	CLAUSE STRUCTURE .....	99
6.1	Double Objects .....	99
6.2	Body Part Syntax (Inalienable Possession) .....	101
6.3	Locative Licencing (Complements and Clitics)...	102
6.4	Locative Inversion .....	103
6.5	Direction Reversal in Applicatives.....	104
6.6	Applicative Semantics.....	105
6.7	Coordination .....	106
6.8	Gender Conflict Resolution.....	106
6.9	Subordination.....	107
6.10	Relativization .....	108
6.11	Questions .....	109
6.12	Negation Clitic .....	110
6.13	Negation in Relative Constructions .....	111
6.14	Double Negatives .....	113
6.15	Idioms and Ideophones .....	114
	Bibliograghy .....	116



### **Abbreviations**

Adj	adjective
Appl	applicative
apprec	appreciative
aug	augmentative
aux	auxiliary
C	causative
CG	consonant-glide
Cl	class
con	connective
CV	consonant-vowel
dem	demonstrative
dim	diminutive
ext	extension
F, FUT	future
fv	final vowel
Hb	habitual
loc	locative
n, N	noun
NC	nasal-consonant
neg	negation
NP	noun phrase
num	numeral
obj	object
OM	object marker
ord	ordinal
P <sub>1</sub>	today past
P <sub>2</sub>	yesterday past
P <sub>3</sub>	remote past

pass, P	passive
pejor	pejorative
Perf <sub>1</sub>	past perfective 1
Perf <sub>2</sub>	past perfective 2
Perf <sub>3</sub>	past perfective 3
PHb	past habitual
pl	plural
poss	possessive
PProg	past progressive
pref	prefix
Prog	progressive
quant	quantifier
Rel	relative
RF	reflexive
S	stative
sg	singular
subj	subject
TAM	tense, aspect, mood
v, V	verb

Numbers, e.g. 5, 6, 8, 9, 17, in the inter-linear gloss refer to noun classes unless they are shown as 1<sup>st</sup>, 2<sup>nd</sup> or 3<sup>rd</sup> person singular or plural.



# CHAPTER ONE

## 1 INTRODUCTION

The speakers of Kimashami live predominantly in the Hai and Siha districts of Kilimanjaro region. This is a relatively small area with dense population. Immigration is intense. In the plains, along the Moshi - Arusha highway, trading and maize cultivation predominate. In the mountain areas the farm plots are much smaller and major crops are bananas, coffee, maize, potatoes and beans. The lumber trade in West Kilimanjaro has been a population puller for labourers from various parts of the country. Its close rival is mountain tourism, which is a labour intensive industry. The Machame route to the Peak of Africa has a tourist hotel to support it - Protea Aishi Hotel - securely hidden amongst the banana groves. Emigration, on the other hand, was, oddly, spawned by the long history of exposure to Western schooling. The area is greatly influenced by the Lutheran Church, being a traditional German missionary sphere of influence with mission headquarters at Nkwarungo. The hallmarks are Machame Hospital and Machame Girls Secondary School. In addition, the population pressure on the small land area forced the people to venture out. This highly mobile population runs businesses in virtually all towns of Tanzania (cf. *Atlasi ya Lugha za Tanzania* 2009). Besides, predictably, there is heavy Swahili influence on the speakers of Kimashami.

The people, Wamashami, call their language Kimashami (E62a in the Guthrie classification), and their homeland Mashami, which includes the Masama area in the west. So the name "Machame" that appears in many contexts is really a corruption of the native term by outsiders. Being one of the languages spoken by the Chagga people, it shares several lexical and structural features with the immediate neighbours: Kimeru to the west, and Kivunjo and Kiwoso (Kibosho) to the east. Kimashami bears slight internal

variations across its geographical spread, notably in pronunciation and vocabulary. For example, *iboka* 'soil lump' in the Masama dialect corresponds to *ibola* in the eastern dialect of Machame proper. Similarly, within the Masama area one can note some lexical and phonological differences as one moves to Ng'uni and Kyuu in the North of Masama and along the border with Siha in the West.

Table 1 shows the estimated number of Kimashami speakers by ward, based on the 2002 national population census. But it will be appreciated that there are many speakers of the language scattered in different parts of Kilimanjaro and Arusha regions in particular, and Tanzania generally. The total number of Kimashami speakers in Hai and Siha districts is estimated to be 148,887. This figure is slightly lower than that of the Languages of Tanzania Project (Muzale & Rugemalira 2008; *Atlasi ya Lugha za Tanzania* 2009) of 194,868 mainly because here the Siha wards are regarded as speaking Kisiha whereas the *Atlasi* regards Kisiha to be a Kimashami dialect.

**Table 1: Calculating the Speakers of Kimashami<sup>1</sup>**

Ward	Type	Total Population	Coeff.	Kimashami Speakers
East Machame	Rural	23,817	1	23,817
South Machame	Rural	21,818	1	21,818
North Machame	Rural	21,779	1	21,779
West Machame	Rural	5,617	1	5,617
Machame Uroki	Rural	9,694	1	9,694
East Masama	Rural	24,452	1	24,452

---

<sup>1</sup> The population figures come from the 2002 national population census which was done at a time when the area in question was still one administrative district - Hai. Subsequently a new Siha district was created.

West Masama	Rural	20,213	1	20,213
South Masama	Mixed	8,059	0.5	4,030
East Siha	Rural	15,165	0	0
Central Siha	Mixed	42,429	0	0
West Siha	Mixed	19,807	0	0
Masama Rundugai	Mixed	17,176	0.5	8,588
Hai Town	Urban	17,759	0.5	8,880
North Siha	Rural	2,816	0	0
<b>District Total</b>		<b>259,958</b>		<b>148,887</b>

Written literature in the language is very recent and, basically, all religious: the New Testament (*Kyaasa Kiiya* 2000); a primer *Lusomi na Ireiya Kimashami* (1999) to accompany the *Kyaasa Kiiya*; a hymnal *Kitabu kya Fiimbo* (1983) and a catechism. The latest are a master's dissertation on the tense system (Phanuel 2006) and a dictionary (Rugemalira 2008).

## CHAPTER TWO

### 2 PHONOLOGY

#### 2.1 Phonemic Inventory and Orthography

Mashami has the following phonemic inventory.

**Table 2: Mashami Phonemic Inventory**

Nasal stops	m	n	ɲ	ŋ
	mb	nd		ŋg
Plosives	b (p)	t d	(ʃ)	k
Fricatives	f β	s	ʃ	ɣ
Lateral fricative		ɬ		
Liquids	w	r	j	
		l		

Vowels

i	u
e	o
a	

The sounds represented by the symbols in parenthesis (p, ʃ) are found in borrowed words, idiophones and intensifiers.

The orthographic conventions adopted for the consonants are shown in the table below. All examples in this book are presented in orthographic conventions.

**Table 3: Mashami Orthographic Conventions**

Phonetic symbol	Orthographic symbol	Example	Meaning	Remarks
β	bh	<i>irubha</i>	God	Previous writings used “v”; there is considerable free variation between [β] and [w].
b	b	<i>iboka</i>	soil lump	
p	p	<i>ipaua</i>	to roof	[p] is used in a few words of foreign origin and in idiophones; usually [b] is used instead.
m	m	<i>maaghe</i>	saliva	
f	f	<i>ifu</i>	ash	
d	d	<i>idubha</i>	sisal	There are no native nouns with initial [d].
t	t	<i>itinga</i>	wound	
n	n	<i>inangwa</i>	to become drunk	
s	s	<i>sise</i>	spark	
l	l	<i>ilema</i>	to refuse	
r	r	<i>ireiya</i>	to write	
ʒ	ll	<i>mbilla</i>	care	
ʃ	sh	<i>isharongo</i>	skull	
ɲ	ny	<i>shonyí</i>	skin	
k	k	<i>kitara</i>	bed	
ŋg	ng	<i>itengo</i>	hut	
ŋ	ng'	<i>ng'umbe</i>	cattle	
ɣ	gh	<i>igheiya</i>	to set a	Previous writings used one



Phonetic symbol	Orthographic symbol	Example	Meaning	Remarks
			trap	letter "r" to write two sounds, [ɾ] and [r].
w	w	<i>weesi</i>	wages	
j	y	<i>iya</i>	to become cooked	

## 2.2 Consonants

The nasal stop series has four segments in the labial, alveolar, palatal and velar places of articulation /m, n, ɲ, ŋ/.

Mashami	English	Mashami	English
<i>maaghe</i>	spittle	<i>inangwâ</i>	to become drunk
<i>ímâ</i>	to finish	<i>úghê</i>	grasshopper
<i>makumî</i>	tens	<i>inínga</i>	to give
<i>iminâ</i>	to despise, scorn	<i>inúnútâ</i>	to suspend, hang
<i>múmû</i>	licence, permission	<i>múní</i>	owner
<i>shonyí</i>	skin, leather	<i>ing'anâ</i>	to grow, mature
<i>ishunyâ</i>	pinch	<i>ng'anyá</i>	so-and-so
<i>ísínyâ</i>	to wink	<i>ng'undé</i>	fist, handful
<i>unyafí</i>	hatred	<i>ng'waaná</i>	simple, easy
<i>ughínyon</i>	initiation camp	<i>ng'úmbê</i>	cattle

Homorganic prenasalized stops exist for the labial, alveolar and velar positions, but not at palatal position<sup>2</sup>. The velar prenasalized stop /ŋg/ is rather peculiar because the voiced velar stop /g/ is missing in the phonemic inventory<sup>3</sup>. This fact however lends support to the analysis of the voiced prenasalized stops [mb, nd, ŋg] as phonemes in their own right, i.e. the existence of phoneme /ŋg/ does not require the existence of /g/.

Further support for the phonemic status of /mb, nd, ŋg/ comes from the distribution of other nasal + consonant sequences. In native vocabulary, prenasalized obstruents are always voiced, as in the following examples.

<b>Mashami</b>	<b>English</b>	<b>Mashami</b>	<b>English</b>
<i>iyáámbya</i>	daub	<i>urangó</i>	slyness, trickery
<i>yeembâ</i>	maize	<i>kyaandú</i>	knife
<i>úsóngâ</i>	prostitution	<i>índû</i>	person

Three possible exceptions to the voicing of prenasalized obstruents are listed below:

<i>-antú</i>	swift, active, cheerful
<i>nanshâ</i>	stork, pelican
<i>iyántâ</i>	to expel, dismiss

Normally voiceless prenasalized obstruents are found across morpheme boundaries as illustrated with the singular-plural pairs below.

<b>Mashami</b>	<b>English</b>	<b>Mashami</b>	<b>English</b>
<i>nká/bhaká</i>	woman	<i>ńshî/míshî</i>	pestle

---

<sup>2</sup> The only word in which the prenasalized palatal stop is found, *kisonjo* 'basket', is apparently a loan word from some neighbouring language.

<sup>3</sup> Swahili *jogoo* 'rooster' becomes *ijokóo* in Mashami, i.e. g > k.

<i>nkandá/mikandá</i>	belt	<i>nsháre/misháre</i>	type of banana
<i>nkékâ/mikékâ</i>	mat	<i>mfughû/bhafughû</i>	blacksmith
<i>nkori/bhakorî</i>	cook	<i>mfô/mifô</i>	gutter
<i>nsóghi/misóghi</i>	trap	<i>ntégha/mitégha</i>	meat
<i>nsengê/misengê</i>	stick/staff	<i>ńtírî/mítírî</i>	thud

The items above show that the nasal consonant in the singular noun comes from the *mu-* prefix of class 1 or class 3; after losing the prefix vowel, the nasal consonant assimilates to the place of articulation of the next consonant, which retains the voiceless feature.

There is a prominent gap in the oral stop series. The voiced bilabial stop /b/ has no voiceless counterpart but is partially in contrast and partially in complementary distribution with the voiced bilabial fricative /β/ as summarized in the chart below.

**Table 4: Bilabials**

Not prenasalized	Prenasalized	With or without prenasalization
β	b <sub>1</sub>	b <sub>2</sub>
<i>bhe bhi bha</i>	mbe mbi mba	<i>be bi ba bu bo</i>
		mbe mbi mba mbu mbo

The voiced bilabial fricative [β] is found before the front and low vowels only, and it becomes a stop [b<sub>1</sub>] post-nasally. The other stop [b<sub>2</sub>] is found before all five vowels, with and without the nasal consonant. In some speakers, [β] is realized as a labiodental approximant [ʋ] and sometimes as [w]. This variation involving [β, ʋ, w] appears to be partly idiolectal, partly dialectal, and may target particular lexical items or morphological features, e.g. noun

class prefix. The following examples show words with the voiced bilabial fricative [β].

<b>Mashami</b>	<b>English</b>	<b>Mashami</b>	<b>English</b>
<i>ibhabháso</i>	commandment	<i>ibhée</i>	udder
<i>irubhá</i>	god	<i>ibhiná</i>	wound (n)
<i>ibhíndâ</i>	to hunt	<i>ibhanga</i>	to call
<i>bhándû / wándû</i>	people	<i>ibhakâ / iwakâ</i>	to resemble
<i>bhánâ / wánâ</i>	children	<i>bhaka / waka</i>	women

As already noted, the bilabial fricative /β/ is realized as a stop [b] after the bilabial nasal consonant. This is illustrated with the singular/plural pairs below.

<b>Singular</b>	<b>Plural</b>	<b>Gloss</b>
<i>úbhâghî</i>	<i>mbâghî</i>	side
<i>ubhirî</i>	<i>mbirî</i>	blending stick
<i>úbhyâ</i>	<i>mbyâ</i>	fable
<i>ubhibhi</i>	<i>mbibhi</i>	showers
<i>ubhambo/uwambo</i>	<i>mbambo</i>	poker

Examples with morpheme-internal /mb/ are shown next.

<b>Mashami</b>	<b>English</b>	<b>Mashami</b>	<b>English</b>
<i>íambâ</i>	to say, to speak	<i>ng'úmbé</i>	cattle
<i>ibhámâ</i>	to peg out, to spread out	<i>isembé</i>	loincloth
<i>ighumbua</i>	to sever	<i>isémbô</i>	idiot
<i>ifumbâ</i>	to swell	<i>isambú</i>	dregs

Examples of intervocalic [b], before all five vowels [a, e, i, o, u], are presented below.

<b>Mashami</b>	<b>English</b>	<b>Mashami</b>	<b>English</b>
<i>íbólókâ</i>	to become soft	<i>shabu</i>	abundant
<i>iborómua</i>	to undo, unbind, unpack	<i>úbángâ</i>	bush knife, sword
<i>ibóóka</i>	to commence, initiate, establish	<i>ubatá</i>	ladle, scoop for drinking
<i>kíbó</i>	an expression of surprise	<i>ikabâ</i>	to rain, crow, castrate
<i>kiboborí</i>	giant rat	<i>kibirín</i>	door bar or latch
<i>kiboshó</i>	navel, umbilical cord	<i>kibeté</i>	tin, box, packet, shell
<i>ibúshúkâ</i>	to be hurt/injured	<i>ubééré</i>	sloth, sluggishness
<i>kibutá</i>	bunch		

The following examples show occurrences of [b] in both loans and native items.

<b>Borrowed Vocabulary</b>		<b>Native Vocabulary</b>	
<i>báába</i>	father ( <i>Sw. baba</i> )	<i>íbábárâ</i>	to split into pieces
<i>ibátísâ</i>	to baptize ( <i>Sw. batiza</i> )	<i>-beeré</i>	negligent, lazy, idle
<i>baashâ</i>	envelope ( <i>Sw. bahasha</i> )	<i>ibengélé</i>	hoe/panga without handle
<i>baatî</i>	maybe; perhaps (? <i>Sw. bahati</i> )	<i>ibáána</i>	to touch

<b>Borrowed Vocabulary</b>		<b>Native Vocabulary</b>	
<i>íbéréngétí</i>	blanket	<i>kibílo</i>	stopper, cowry
<i>kábíshi</i>	cabbage	<i>ibarángata</i>	to grind coarsely
<i>bárásâ</i>	court of law (Sw. <i>baraza</i> )	<i>íbárásâ</i>	to unhusk maize
<i>basikélyi</i>	bicycle	<i>ibárikâ</i>	to burst open, crack, be torn
<i>bádô</i>	not yet (Sw. <i>bado</i> )	<i>ibárâ</i>	to split into pieces; hatch (eggs)
<i>bakurî</i>	bowl (Sw. <i>bakuli</i> )	<i>ibáshâ</i>	to cut to shape, sharpen to a point; sculpt, carve
<i>bángî</i>	bhang; Indian hemp	<i>ibáláshâ</i>	to stir or mix by stirring
<i>búndúúúkî</i>	gun (Sw. <i>bunduki</i> )	<i>ibalúka</i>	to lose colour or beauty, shrivel
<i>bandarî</i>	harbour (Sw. <i>bandari</i> )	<i>bírî</i>	nape of neck
<i>barwâ</i>	letter (mail) (Sw. <i>barua</i> )	<i>ibílâ</i>	to blink

The voiceless bilabial plosive [p] is very rare; it is dialectally in free variation with [b] and is associated with Church register, with some ideophones and intensifiers and with borrowed vocabulary. Some examples of all these are presented below.



<b>Mashami</b>	<b>English</b>	<b>Mashami</b>	<b>English</b>
<i>ípárâ</i> = <i>ibárâ</i>	to hatch eggs	<i>malapa</i> = ( <i>Sw. malapa</i> )	slippers
<i>ikapâ</i> = <i>ikabâ</i>	to hit	<i>ikaba pa!</i>	to hit pa!
<i>ipaua</i> ( <i>Sw. paua</i> )	to roof a house	<i>imaa pin!</i>	to finish up completely
<i>poo</i> = <i>boo</i>	outside	<i>úbángâ</i> ( <i>Sw. upanga</i> )	knife, machete
<i>kipárwê</i> = <i>kibárwê</i>	piece, part	<i>ibabâi</i> ( <i>Sw. papai</i> )	pawpaw
<i>pasi</i> = ( <i>Sw. pasi</i> )	iron	<i>ibîba</i> ( <i>Sw. pipa</i> )	barrel

The voiceless velar stop [k] has no voiced counterpart [g]. Therefore, of the oral stop series, only the alveolar set [d, t] has an unqualified voice contrast even though there are no minimal pairs to show this.

<b>Mashami</b>	<b>English</b>	<b>Mashami</b>	<b>English</b>	<b>Mashami</b>	<b>English</b>
<i>idóbhâ</i>	to pick, harvest	<i>íténgô</i>	hut	<i>ikandâ</i>	bark, husk, skin
<i>idodóra</i>	to become red	<i>itínga</i>	ulcer, wound	<i>ikétî</i>	bachelor
<i>idínâ</i>	to rumble	<i>itabhî</i>	branch (n)	<i>ikokói</i>	mouse
<i>idúdíyâ</i>	to gulp	<i>itúú</i>	cloud	<i>ikímba</i>	caution (n)
<i>idéngâ</i>	to condemn, curse	<i>iitâ</i>	to hear, feel	<i>kilakâ</i>	epiglottis; uvula

The palatal stop [j] is a clear borrowing; it is present in the following loans:

<b>Mashami sg.</b>	<b>Mashami pl.</b>	<b>Swahili</b>	<b>English</b>
--------------------	--------------------	----------------	----------------



<i>ijééshi</i>	<i>majééshi</i>	jeshi	army
<i>íjéngô</i>	<i>májéngô</i>	jengo	building
<i>ijííni</i>	<i>majííni</i>	pepo, jini	genie/spirit
<i>ijimbô</i>	<i>majimbô</i>	jimbo	district, province, county
<i>ijokóo</i>	<i>majokóo</i>	jogoo	cock/rooster

There are three voiceless fricatives /f, s, ʃ/ and none of them has a voice contrast.

<b>Mashami</b>	<b>English</b>	<b>Mashami</b>	<b>English</b>	<b>Mashami</b>	<b>English</b>
<i>ifámia</i>	to smell	<i>ísâ</i>	to grind	<i>súsi</i>	hump
<i>ifikâ</i>	to break, cease	<i>sábhâ</i>	jigger	<i>shukî</i>	bee
<i>ífótâ</i>	to squeeze, press	<i>sisé</i>	spark	<i>ndóóshû</i>	ill will
<i>ifungá</i>	to dust	<i>iselésa</i>	to abolish	<i>sháú</i>	bull
<i>ifû</i>	ash	<i>-síse</i>	narrow	<i>shófû</i>	elephant

Even loan words are naturalized by devoicing the fricatives and stops.

<b>Swahili</b>	<b>Mashami</b>	<b>Gloss</b>	<b>Swahili</b>	<b>Mashami</b>	<b>Gloss</b>
----------------	----------------	--------------	----------------	----------------	--------------

14 *A Grammatical Sketch of Kimashami* Rugemalira & Phanuel

mjeledi	<i>nsheléti</i>	whip	wavu	<i>wááfu</i>	net
mzigo	<i>nsíkô</i>	load	gari	<i>ikári</i>	car
ugoro	<i>ukórô</i>	snuf	harage	<i>yaaráki</i>	bean
jogoo	<i>ijokóo</i>	rooster	Mnyamwezi	<i>inyamusi</i>	Nyamwezi person; beast of burden
ugali	<i>ukari</i>	stiff porridge	hirizi	<i>irisî</i>	charm

Received orthography has not made any distinction between the alveolar trill /r/ and the voiced velar fricative /ɣ/<sup>4</sup> (in our orthography we use ‘gh’ to represent the velar fricative).

[r]		[ɣ]	
<i>úrô</i>	gullet	<i>úghô</i>	weight
<i>iréíya</i>	to write	<i>ighéíya</i>	to trap
<i>irubhâ</i>	god, sky	<i>ighúbhâ</i>	lake, pool
<i>irémá</i>	darkness	<i>ighemâ</i>	to cultivate
<i>írâ</i>	to ooze	<i>ighâ</i>	to pass; win
<i>íríkâ</i>	to bury	<i>ighíka</i>	to respond

A clear distinction between the alveolar liquids /l, r/ is demonstrated by the examples below.

Mashami	English	Mashami	English
<i>ilâ</i>	to become dark; become clean; despise, underrate	<i>írâ</i>	to ooze
<i>ílémâ</i>	to refuse	<i>irémá</i>	darkness
<i>kikulu</i>	hot pepper	<i>kikurú</i>	insect (diminutive)
<i>ikulâ</i>	to desire	<i>ikurâ</i>	to scratch
<i>ikolá</i>	to choke	<i>ikorá</i>	to cook
<i>iolokâ</i>	to descend	<i>iorokâ</i>	to straighten (intransitive)
<i>ibilâ</i>	to blink	<i>ibirâ</i>	to dislike

---

<sup>4</sup> In the introduction to the dictionary (Rugemalira 2008) this sound was analysed as a uvular trill.

The voiced lateral fricative [ɮ] is a rare segment.

<b>Mashami</b>	<b>English</b>	<b>Mashami</b>	<b>English</b>
<i>ilóllyâ</i>	to see, find	<i>-lollo</i>	self-evident
<i>illwa</i>	to uproot; castrate	<i>mbilla</i>	pile, heap
<i>ikíllyâ</i>	to jump, skip, leap	<i>ifálllyâ</i>	to sprinkle, scatter for/at
<i>illyá</i>	to eat	<i>ílyáa</i>	to become long/tall
<i>imalálllyâ</i>	to keep silent	<i>úlyámárá</i>	sin (n)
<i>-llyá</i>	that/those	<i>illyálllyâ</i>	to delay

In some cases, the segment appears to be a germinate lateral resulting from vowel elision.

<i>ifálllyâ</i>	to sprinkle, scatter for/at;	applicative of <i>ifálâ</i> – to scatter
<i>iíllá</i>	to look; = <i>ilola</i>	

There are two glides /w, y/. The labio-velar glide /w/ is an independent phoneme in spite of the possible encroaching merger with /β/, in some forms at least, especially in the noun class prefix (cf. *bhandu/wandu* – ‘people’; *bhana/wana* – ‘children’).

<b>Mashami</b>	<b>English</b>	<b>Mashami</b>	<b>English</b>
<i>kiwasî</i>	animal’s behind	<i>wéndé</i>	marvel
<i>sáwánâ</i>	female goat	<i>wéési</i>	wage, salary
<i>iwâ</i>	to drop, fall	<i>wiindî</i>	good behaviour
<i>wémbé</i>	horn	<i>íláwâ</i>	to rise early

<b>Mashami</b>	<b>English</b>	<b>Mashami</b>	<b>English</b>
<i>kítóyô</i>	stammer, lisp (n)	<i>kiwoyé</i>	rope for cattle
<i>isongóya</i>	to lead the way	<i>irúya</i>	to look for, hunt
<i>ikóóya</i>	to catch red-handed	<i>iyâ</i>	to burn, be cooked
<i>iyáíya</i>	to sweep	<i>mumúyo</i>	breath, spirit

In initial position, the palatal glide may be the result of a phonological process to create a CV syllable; e.g. *yeemba* from *i-emba* ‘maize’ (pl. *meemba* < *ma-emba*); *yaabhe* ‘God/provider/distributor’ from *i-abha* ‘to divide/ distribute’. The infinitive morpheme may, in certain cases, not participate in this glide formation process. In final position, both glides are rather weak, as exemplified below.

<b>Mashami</b>	<b>Variant(s)</b>	<b>English</b>
<i>iruâ</i>	<i>irwâ / iruwâ</i>	to loiter, wander idly
<i>iruárua</i>	<i>iruwáruwa</i>	to walk about, roam
<i>isémbéâ</i>	<i>isémbéyâ</i>	to move to, approach, move forward
<i>shya</i>	<i>shia</i>	road
<i>sîê</i>	<i>syê, síyê</i>	to claim, demand
<i>iswâ</i>	<i>isuâ</i>	to be sullen, sulk, be annoyed

It is this weakness on the part of the palatal glide that frequently calls for the insertion of a strong consonant [k] to break up a series of consecutive vowels when the applicative extension is in place.

Base	Gloss	Applicative	Gloss
<i>irúya</i>	look for	<i>irúkya/irúkia</i>	look for something for someone
<i>iiyâ</i>	cry	<i>ikyâ/iikyâ</i>	cry for something
<i>ikóóya</i>	find	<i>ikóikya</i>	find for someone
<i>iyáíya</i>	sweep	<i>yátkia/iátkya</i>	sweep for/ with

### 2.3 Vowels

There are five vowels as already shown in the chart. The analysis of vowel length is rather problematic; it appears that the language is moving away from the use of the length contrast feature. In some words, vowel length is irrelevant, i.e. non-contrastive, as shown below.

Lost vowel length contrast

Mashami	English	Mashami	English
<i>ifaná/ifaaná</i>	to become dirty	<i>sókô/sóókô</i>	beans
<i>ibhánga/ ibháánga</i>	to call, invite	<i>kyárá/ kyáárá</i>	axe
<i>shónnga/ shóónnga</i>	food	<i>ifiná/ ifiinâ</i>	to play, dance
<i>sákâ/ sáákâ</i>	wilderness	<i>iyasâ/ iyaasâ</i>	to forbid, warn
<i>búsa/ búúsa</i>	maize beer		

In many other words, the vowel must be either long or short, but not both.

Long and short vowels can be seen in different words.

Long Only		Short Only	
<i>ifóosa</i>	to calm down,	<i>imisha</i>	to spit

	cool		
<i>kideebhá</i>	type of wooden bowl	<i>ifirâ</i>	to choke
<i>ifááma</i>	to smell nicely	<i>mwallyí</i>	bride
<i>figháánû</i>	five	<i>unyafí</i>	hatred, anger
<i>figháághû</i>	three	<i>úsárí</i>	forgiveness
<i>imááma</i>	to urinate	<i>ibhakâ</i>	to resemble
<i>ndooro</i>	ululation	<i>ínsángâ</i>	sand
<i>-níúni</i>	big, great	<i>útórê</i>	beauty/decoration

There are a few instances of minimal pairs distinguished by vowel length. All (except the last) of the examples below have a length contrast in final position and a tonal contrast in addition. This effectively weakens the role of vowel length in distinguishing the words.

Length and tone contrasts in vowels

<b>Short</b>	<b>Gloss</b>	<b>Long</b>	<b>Gloss</b>
<i>máálâ</i>	small intestines	<i>malâ:</i>	type of banana dish
<i>ifwá</i>	to die	<i>ifwâ:</i>	to cool down
<i>ísâ</i>	to grind	<i>isâ:</i>	to remain
<i>ítwâ</i>	to fall down	<i>iwâ:</i>	to kill
<i>íshâ</i>	to come	<i>ishâ:</i>	to suffer
<i>íghwá</i>	to ascend	<i>íghwâ:</i>	to send
<i>íghâ</i>	to scoop	<i>íghâ:</i>	to stink
<i>íghá</i>	to cease, stop		
<i>íllýá</i>	to eat	<i>íllýâ:</i>	to become long/tall
<i>ímâ</i>	to hinder	<i>ímâ:</i>	to finish
<i>íná</i>	to drink	<i>ínâ:</i>	to wither

<b>Short</b>	<b>Gloss</b>	<b>Long</b>	<b>Gloss</b>
<i>ibhá</i>	to be, become, benefit	<i>ibhâ:</i>	to rise (sun), bloom
<i>ísámâ</i>	to relocate	<i>isá:ma</i>	to climb

The following minimal pairs involve a length contrast in the initial vowel; the items in the left column have a high front vowel in the root, which combines with the infinitive vowel to create a long vowel; the items in the right column do not have an initial high vowel in the root.

<b>Mashami</b>	<b>English</b>	<b>Mashami</b>	<b>English</b>
<i>úya</i>	to cry	<i>iyá</i>	to burn, become cooked
<i>íitâ</i>	to feel, hear	<i>itâ:</i>	to pay fine, bleed
<i>íighâ</i>	to pass, give birth	<i>íghâ:</i>	to stink
<i>íibhâ</i>	to steal	<i>ibhâ:</i>	to rise (sun), bloom
<i>íilâ</i>	to be clean/ healthy	<i>ilá</i>	to become dark
<i>íírâ</i>	to leak	<i>irâ:</i>	to dress

However, this distinction appears to be on its way out in line with the general tendency to neutralize the vowel length distinctions.

In addition, it does not appear that vowels necessarily get lengthened after consonant+glide (CG) or before nasal+consonant (NC) clusters. The examples below show that after a CG cluster the vowel may be long or short. Similarly, before a NC cluster the vowel may be long or short.

<b>Mashami</b>	<b>English</b>
----------------	----------------



<i>mwallyí</i>	bride
<i>kyárá / kyáára</i>	axe
<i>ńnsángâ</i>	sand
<i>shónga / shóónga</i>	food

## 2.4 Tone

Tonal contrasts consist of a default low, a high tone and a falling tone. The contrastive pairs below illustrate this. Note that Swahili glossing has been used along with the English one because it was felt that some concepts lack precise English equivalents but the same are clearly expressed in Swahili.

<b>Mashami</b>	<b>English</b>	<b>Swahili</b>
<i>ighiná</i>	pit, hole	shimo, tundu
<i>ighinâ</i>	name (n)	jina
<i>ighinâ</i>	to circumcise	kutahiri
<i>ikandâ</i>	tree bark	gamba la mti
<i>íkándâ</i>	to freeze, clot	kuganda (k.v. maji, damu)
<i>ubhirî</i>	whisk, blending stick	kipekecho
<i>úbhírí</i>	eagle	kipungu
<i>mborâ</i>	yellow colour; water trapped outside current	rangi ya njano
<i>mbórâ</i>	blessing	baraka
<i>ibhá</i>	to be	kuwa
<i>ibhâ</i>	to rise (sun)	kuchomoza
<i>ibhâ</i>	arena	dimba (n)
<i>iibhâ</i>	to steal	kuiba

<b>Mashami</b>	<b>English</b>	<b>Swahili</b>
<i>m´m´bwâ</i>	nose	pua
<i>mmbwâ</i>	rain	mvua
<i>ísángâ</i>	nation	taifa
<i>isangá</i>	neck; strong desire	shingo; hamu kubwa
<i>kyééghî</i>	cheek	shavu
<i>kyeeghi</i>	era, season	majira
<i>únúinî</i>	thievery	wizi
<i>unúini</i>	greatness	ukubwa
<i>iambâ</i>	to smear	kupaka
<i>iámbâ</i>	to speak	kusema
<i>iatâ</i>	to cause to enter	kuingiza
<i>iátâ</i>	to light	kuwasha
<i>ibhikâ</i>	to clothe	kuvika
<i>ibhika</i>	to carry on back	kueleka
<i>ibhirâ</i>	to mature, become soaked	kupevuka, iva, lowa
<i>ibhíra</i>	to bring back	kurudisha
<i>dédê</i>	true	kweli
<i>kidedé</i>	peak	kilele
<i>ishongâ</i>	to jump	kuruka
<i>shóngá</i>	food	chakula
<i>sókô</i>	bean	harage
<i>sókó</i>	water drain	mtaro

A falling tone can only be realized before pause. Otherwise, any vowel and other tone-bearing consonant (the nasals) may carry a high tone, including the infinitive prefix vowel. It is not clear what rule assigns high tone to the infinitive prefix in some of the verbs.

Rising tone is uncharacteristic and may indicate a lost consonant before the high tone vowel.

<b>Mashami</b>	<b>English</b>
<i>nduú</i>	type of grass
<i>-koó</i>	young
<i>shuú</i>	pigeon pea
<i>ibuú</i>	coward

## 2.5 Syllable Structure Conditions

The most common two-vowel sequence is /ei/ and it is not certain whether it should be regarded as a diphthong. Other attested sequences are /ai/, /ia/, /ua/, /oi/ and /ie/. It may be reasonable to treat all these as independent sequences, which lead to glide formation, or easily get broken up when a third vowel appears.

<b>Mashami</b>	<b>English</b>	<b>Mashami</b>	<b>English</b>
<i>ighéíya</i>	to trap	<i>kisóíya</i>	sweet potato
<i>iréíya</i>	to write	<i>kyaghíé</i>	type of tree
<i>ibhéíya</i>	to rebuild, reconstruct, rehabilitate	<i>igháíya</i>	to scoop
<i>-eréi</i>	cowardly	<i>ighuâ</i>	to put down
<i>itetéi</i>	underpants, panties, knickers	<i>iórúâ (iórúwâ)</i>	to straighten
<i>kiréíyo</i>	document, deed	<i>nsiá (nsiyá)</i>	hope
<i>nghéíyo</i>	trap (n)		

## CHAPTER THREE

### 3 THE NOUN AND ITS DERIVATION

#### 3.1 Noun Structure

The underived noun consists of the class prefix and the stem, as examples below indicate.

Mashami	English	Mashami	English
<i>ú-rô</i>	gullet	<i>u-batá</i>	ladle
<i>ki-tê</i>	dog	<i>i-ghúbhâ</i>	lake, pool
<i>i-rémá</i>	darkness	<i>ki-lwá</i>	frog

The derived noun consists of the class prefix, the stem and the derivational suffix. See the following examples.

Derived Noun	Gloss	Source	Gloss
<i>ki-réíy-o</i>	document	<i>iréíya</i>	to write
<i>i-máám-u</i>	urine	<i>imááma</i>	to urinate
<i>n-kund-é</i>	lover	<i>ikunda</i>	to love
<i>n-ghum-î</i>	messenger	<i>ighumâ</i>	to send

#### 3.2 The Noun Classes

Nouns referring to human beings are found in classes 1 and 2 which form a singular/plural pair. The other pairs are 3 & 4, 5 & 6, 7 & 8, 9 & 10. The class prefix in the last pair is typically a homorganic nasal or zero.

<b>Class 1</b>	<b>Class 2</b>	<b>Gloss</b>
<i>muumbî</i>	<i>bhombî</i> [ <i>βa-umbî</i> ]	creator, potter
<i>ńghíngî</i> [ <i>ńyíngî</i> ]	<i>bhághíngî</i>	protector, guard
<i>nká</i> [ <i>ńká</i> ]	<i>bhaká</i>	woman, wife
<i>mmikú</i>	<i>bhamikú</i>	old man
<i>nkokú</i> [ <i>ńkokú</i> ]	<i>bhakokú</i>	infant
<i>nkorî</i> [ <i>ńkorî</i> ]	<i>bhakorî</i>	cook

Classes 3 and 4 consist of nouns denoting things in the physical landscape, typically trees and rivers.

<b>Class 3</b>	<b>Class 4</b>	<b>Gloss</b>
<i>munyî</i>	<i>minyî</i>	handle(s)
<i>múghâ</i>	<i>míghâ</i>	river(s), sea(s)
<i>ndooró</i>	<i>midooró</i>	ululation(s)
<i>nghí</i>	<i>míghí</i>	tree(s), medicine(s)
<i>mubhá</i>	<i>mibhá</i>	sugar-cane(s)

Classes 5 and 6 consist of miscellaneous nouns, including non-count items like milk and saliva.

<b>Class 5</b>	<b>Class 6</b>	<b>Gloss</b>
<i>ibháághí</i>	<i>mabháághí</i>	blister(s)
<i>ibhabháso</i>	<i>mabhabháso</i>	commandment(s) rule(s)
<i>idubha</i>	<i>madubha</i>	sisal
<i>ifanû</i>	<i>mafanû</i>	mask(s), carving(s)
<i>ifû</i>	<i>mafû</i>	ash(es)

Class 5	Class 6	Gloss
<i>malelá</i>	<i>malelá</i>	milk
<i>yaaghe</i>	<i>maaghe</i>	saliva
<i>ifubhê</i>	<i>mafubhê</i>	baboon(s)

Terms with negative connotations referring to humans are found in classes 5 and 6 as shown below.

Class 5	Class 6	Gloss
<i>ísóngâ</i>	<i>másóngâ</i>	prostitute (woman/women)
<i>isekâ</i>	<i>masekâ</i>	uncircumcised man/men
<i>íkétî</i>	<i>mákétî</i>	senior bachelor(s)
<i>itondó</i>	<i>matondó</i>	idiot(s)
<i>irumanungú</i>	<i>marumanungú</i>	idiot(s)
<i>ishingá</i>	<i>mashingá</i>	servant(s)
<i>ikwáábhi</i>	<i>makwáábhi</i>	Maasai (Kwavi)/naked person(s)
<i>inyamusi</i>	<i>manyamusi</i>	Nyamwezi/servant(s)

Class 7 is the typical 'thing' class with the plural in class 8.

Class 7	Class 8	Gloss
<i>kindo</i>	<i>findo</i>	thing(s)
<i>kiboshó</i>	<i>fiboshó</i>	navel(s), umbilical cord(s)
<i>kibutá</i>	<i>fibutá</i>	bunch(es)
<i>kidághi</i>	<i>fidághi</i>	chest(s), thorax(es), brisket(s)
<i>kidáû</i>	<i>fidáû</i>	flat/palm of hand
<i>kidáû</i>	<i>fidáû</i> (slang)	one who likes to gossip
<i>kidede</i>	<i>fidede</i>	top, peak

<i>kidéébhâ</i>	<i>fidéébhâ</i>	wooden dish(es)
<i>kídéngô</i>	<i>fidéngô</i>	curse, spell
<i>kidinasí</i>	<i>fidinasí</i>	earthquake(s)

The animal classes 9 and 10 are marked by a nasal prefix or no prefix at all. It is the class that readily accommodates loan words that can be analysed as carrying a zero prefix.

<b>Class 9</b>	<b>Class 10</b>	<b>Gloss</b>
<i>kánâ</i>	<i>kánâ</i>	mouth(s)
<i>nungú</i>	<i>nungú</i>	earthenware pot(s)
<i>nyíndâ</i>	<i>nyíndâ</i>	banana plant(s)
<i>nyíshé</i>	<i>nyíshé</i>	cockroach(es)
<i>mbughû</i>	<i>mbughû</i>	sheep, goat(s)
<i>mbúmbû</i>	<i>mbúmbû</i>	spider(s)
<i>ndibhí</i>	<i>ndibhí</i>	calabash(es)
<i>ndogho</i>	<i>ndogho</i>	colobus monkey(s)
<i>samû</i>	<i>samû</i>	blood
<i>samburâ</i>	<i>samburâ</i>	uncircumcised woman/women
<i>tutu</i>	<i>tutu</i>	heel(s)

Class 11 nouns take their plural in class 10a, where a special prefix *ngi-* is available for this purpose although some of the nouns do not take it.

<b>Singular Class 11</b>	<b>Class Plural Class 10a</b>	<b>Gloss</b>
<i>ú-bángâ</i>	<i>ngíbángâ / ngyúbángâ</i> (* <i>mbángâ</i> )	sword
<i>u-bhirî</i>	<i>mbirî / ngibhirî</i>	whisk, blending stick

<i>u-finâ</i>	<i>ngyufinâ/ ngifinâ</i> (* <i>mfinâ</i> )	dance used in initiation ceremony for girls
<i>u-rááwé</i>	<i>ngyurááwé / ngirááwé</i> (* <i>nrááwé</i> )	riddle
<i>u-sú</i>	<i>ngisú</i>	dagger, short sword
<i>u-téégí</i>	<i>ngitéégí / ngyutéégí</i>	soil, earth
<i>u-bhâghî</i>	<i>mbâghî</i>	generation
<i>wâlâ (u-âlâ)</i>	<i>ngyâlâ</i>	cock's spur
<i>wémbe (u-émbe)</i>	<i>ngyémbé</i>	razor blade
<i>wémbé (u- bhémbé)</i>	<i>mbémbé</i>	horn of animal
<i>woyî (u-oyî)</i>	<i>ngyoyî</i>	a slap
<i>óyô (Ø-oyô)</i>	<i>ngyóyô</i>	piece of broken pot
<i>ú-bháýô</i>	<i>ngyáýô / ngibháýô</i> (* <i>mbáýô</i> )	sole, footprint
<i>u-batá</i>	<i>mbatá / ngibatá / ngyubatá</i>	ladle, scoop for drinking



The formation of the plural class 10a would be expected to utilize the homorganic nasal consonant as can be seen in *mbirî*, *mbághî*, *mbémbé*, *mbatá*. But this is not always the case as the ungrammatical *\*mbángâ*, *\*mfinâ*, *\*nrááwé* and *\*mbáyô* show. It seems that there is a tendency to generalize what appears to be an innovation, using *ngi/ngy-* in the formation of the plural for class 11 nouns even where the root has a non-velar consonant. If the singular class prefix *u-* is retained or if the stem has an initial vowel, the vowel in the plural prefix glides to form the *ngy-* variant; otherwise *ngi-* replaces the *u-* prefix.

Class 12 forms diminutives by prefixing *ka-* to nouns from other classes without dropping the original prefix. The plural is formed with the class 8 prefix *fi-* and so there is no class 13.

Class 12 (singular)	Class 8 (plural)	Gloss
<i>kambughu</i>	<i>fimbughu</i>	small goat/sheep
<i>kanghi</i>	<i>fimighi</i>	small tree
<i>ka(i)bata [kéébátâ]</i>	<i>fibátâ</i>	small duck
<i>kanká</i>	<i>fibhaká</i>	small woman
<i>káníndû</i>	<i>fibhándû</i>	small person

Nouns designating abstract entities are in class 14.

Class 14	Gloss
<i>uríngi</i>	antagonism, discord, mischief, betrayal
<i>urongó</i> (pl. <i>ngirongo</i> )	brain
<i>úníínî</i>	thievery
<i>úíndû</i>	virtue
<i>unyáási</i>	fierceness, severity

<i>unywa</i>	smallness
<i>ughoko</i>	laziness
<i>ukushombi</i>	arrogance
<i>usuri</i>	glory

There are no nouns in class 15. Verb infinitives take the class five prefix *-i-*. The concordial affixes prevaricate between the class 5 *li-* and the *ku-* of class 15. This may indicate that the nominal prefix was originally *ku* as is still the case in other languages.

**Table 5: Agreement affixes for the infinitive nominal**

<i>Cl</i>	<i>Pf</i>	<i>Ex</i>	<i>gloss</i>	<i>sub</i>	<i>obj</i>	<i>adj.</i>	<i>one</i>	<i>this</i>	<i>that</i> <sup>1</sup>	<i>that</i> <sup>2</sup>	<i>my</i>	<i>con</i>
5/15	i	ioghã	<i>marrying</i>	ku/lyi	ku/lyi	ku/lyi	lyimwi	ilyi /kunu	ilyo	Ilya /kulya	lyakwa	lya

*ighema nkusenyi/nlyisenyi* cultivating is pleasant (*isenya* be pleasant) {subject agreement}.

*ighema nshilyikundye/nshikukundye* as for cultivating, she likes it {object agreement}.

*ighemá lyishá/ighemá kushá* good cultivating {adjective}.

*ighema ilyi/kunu, ilyo, ilya/kulya* this, that cultivating {demonstrative}.

*ighema koose/lyoose* all cultivating {quantifier}

*ighema kumwi/lyimwi* one cultivating {numeral}

*ighema lyakwa/kwakwa* my cultivating {possessive}

*ighema lya/kwa wana* the children's cultivating {connective}

Even though both prefixes are well-formed, it appears that the *li-* prefix is more popular in current usage and that the *ku-* prefix is disappearing.

The locative expressions are marked by suffixes rather than prefixes. The general suffix is *-ni* with vowel harmony effects on the preceding vowel: [a] always changes to [e] or [i], but the back vowels do not change. The final vowel on the locative prefix is apparently getting lost.<sup>5</sup>

<b>Base Noun</b>	<b>Locative Noun</b>	<b>Gloss</b>
<i>ngô</i>	<i>ngón</i>	on the pole
<i>ifumbú</i>	<i>ifumbún</i>	in/on/at the mountain
<i>ighiná</i>	<i>ighinín/ighinén</i>	in hole
<i>múghâ</i>	<i>múghen</i>	in water/river
<i>íghúbhâ</i>	<i>íghúbhen</i>	in the lake
<i>shónga</i>	<i>shóngen</i>	in the food
<i>nswá</i>	<i>nswén</i>	in the porridge
<i>kítará</i>	<i>kítárén</i>	in the bed

---

<sup>5</sup> But see Phanuel 2006 where the locative suffix is recorded with the vowel: (i) *nghíni* 'in the tree'; (ii) *kighíni* 'on the chair'; (iii) *mughéni* 'in the water'; (iv) *murine* 'in town'.

A few nouns whose meaning include the feature [+high/elevated] also take *-eu*, with special semantic nuances.

<i>ngíná</i>	<i>ngínééú</i>	high in the sky
	<i>ngínén</i>	in the sky
<i>irubhá</i>	<i>irubhéú</i>	in the heavens
	<i>irubhén</i>	in the clouds/weather
<i>mmba</i>	<i>mmbeú</i>	on the top of the house
<i>ifumbú</i>	<i>ifumbúú</i>	on the mountain top
	<i>ifumbún</i>	in/on/at the mountain

Some nouns with the semantic feature [+locative] may not take the locative suffix, as examples below show.

<i>mmba</i>	in the house
<i>mungo</i>	on the back
<i>kisangu</i>	on the face
<i>boo</i>	home/outside
<i>ndeú</i>	on the stomach

There is the possibility that *ndeú* is actually marked for location and comes from a lost *nda*, which exists in other Bantu languages. The well-formed *ndeun* ‘in the stomach’ provides a convenient contrast.

The full set of nominal prefixes and agreement markers are presented in the table below.

**Table 6: Noun class concordial pattern**

Cl	Pf	Example	Gloss	sub	obj	adj	num	this	that <sub>1</sub>	that <sub>2</sub>	my	con
1	N	<i>ínndû</i>	person	<i>a</i>	N	<i>mu</i>	<i>umwi</i>	<i>eu</i>	<i>ito</i>	<i>ulya</i>	<i>akwa</i>	<i>wa</i>
2	<i>bha</i>	<i>bhándû</i>	people	<i>bha</i>	<i>bha</i>	<i>bha</i>	<i>bhabhii</i>	<i>bhandi</i>	<i>wando</i>	<i>bhalya</i>	<i>bhakwa</i>	<i>bha</i>
3	N	<i>ng hí</i>	tree	<i>u</i>	<i>u</i>	<i>mu</i>	<i>umwi</i>	<i>eu</i>	<i>ito</i>	<i>ulya</i>	<i>wakwa</i>	<i>wa</i>
4	<i>mi</i>	<i>mighí</i>	trees	<i>i</i>	<i>i</i>	<i>mi</i>	<i>ibhii</i>	<i>ei</i>	<i>iyo</i>	<i>ilya</i>	<i>yakwa</i>	<i>ya</i>
5	<i>i</i>	<i>iyái</i>	egg	<i>lyi</i>	<i>lyi</i>	<i>lyi</i>	<i>lyimwi</i>	<i>ilyi</i>	<i>ilyo</i>	<i>lilya</i>	<i>lyakwa</i>	<i>lya</i>
6	<i>ma</i>	<i>mayái</i>	eggs	<i>a</i>	<i>ya</i>	<i>ma</i>	<i>abhii</i>	<i>andi</i>	<i>ando</i>	<i>alya</i>	<i>akwa</i>	<i>a</i>
7	<i>ki</i>	<i>kíndô</i>	thing	<i>ki</i>	<i>ki</i>	<i>ki</i>	<i>kimwi</i>	<i>iki</i>	<i>ikyó</i>	<i>kilya</i>	<i>kyakwa</i>	<i>kya</i>
8	<i>fi</i>	<i>fíndô</i>	things	<i>fí</i>	<i>fí</i>	<i>fí</i>	<i>fibhii</i>	<i>ifi</i>	<i>ifyo</i>	<i>filya</i>	<i>fyakwa</i>	<i>fya</i>
9	N	<i>mbughû</i>	goat	<i>i</i>	<i>i</i>	<i>shi</i>	<i>imwi</i>	<i>ei</i>	<i>iyo</i>	<i>ilya</i>	<i>yakwa</i>	<i>ya</i>
10	N	<i>mbughû</i>	goats	<i>ti</i>	<i>ti</i>	<i>shi/ti</i>	<i>ibhii</i>	<i>iti</i>	<i>ito</i>	<i>tilya</i>	<i>takwa</i>	<i>ta</i>
10a	<i>ngi</i>	<i>ngíbángâ</i>	swords	<i>ti</i>	<i>ti</i>	<i>shi/ti</i>	<i>ibhii</i>	<i>iti</i>	<i>ito</i>	<i>tilya</i>	<i>takwa</i>	<i>ta</i>
11	<i>u</i>	<i>úbángâ</i>	sword	<i>lu</i>	<i>lu</i>	<i>lu</i>	<i>lumwi</i>	<i>ilu</i>	<i>ilo</i>	<i>lulya</i>	<i>lwakwa</i>	<i>lwa</i>
12	<i>ka</i>	<i>kambu-ghû</i>	small goat	<i>ka</i>	<i>ka</i>	<i>ka</i>	<i>kamwi</i>	<i>aka</i>	<i>ako</i>	<i>kalya</i>	<i>kakwa</i>	<i>ka</i>

Cl	Pf	Example	Gloss	sub	obj	adj	num	this	that <sub>1</sub>	that <sub>2</sub>	my	con
14	<i>u</i>	<i>úndû</i>	humanness	<i>u</i>	<i>lu</i>	<i>lu</i>	<i>lumwi</i>	<i>ilu/elu</i>	<i>ilo/elo</i>	<i>lulya</i>	<i>lwakwa</i>	<i>lwa</i>
15/5	<i>i</i>	<i>ioghâ</i>	marrying	<i>ku/lyi</i>	<i>ku/lyi</i>	<i>ku</i>	<i>lyimwi</i>	<i>ilyi/ kunu</i>	<i>ilyo</i>	<i>llya/ kulya</i>	<i>lyakwa</i>	<i>lya</i>
16	<i>a</i>	<i>ándô</i>	place	<i>ku</i>	<i>ku</i>	<i>ku</i>	<i>amwi</i>	<i>andi</i>	<i>ando</i>	<i>alya</i>	<i>kwakwa</i>	<i>kwa/a</i>
17	<i>ku</i>	<i>kúndô</i>	place	<i>ku</i>	<i>ku</i>	<i>ku</i>	<i>kumwi</i>	<i>andi</i>	<i>efo</i>	<i>kulya</i>	<i>kwakwa</i>	<i>kwa</i>
18	-	<i>mmbéú nghín ukuten</i>	on the house, in the tree, on the wall	<i>ku</i>	<i>ku</i>	<i>ku</i>	<i>kumwi</i>	<i>kunu</i>	<i>efo</i>	<i>kulya</i>	<i>kwakwa</i>	<i>kwa</i>

### 3.3 Noun Derivation

#### 3.3.1 Noun Derivation by Change of Class

A noun is usually understood to belong to a particular class in the singular; when the appropriate plural prefix replaces the singular prefix, the change is normally regarded as an inflectional process to mark a number contrast. Beyond that regular contrast, nouns may relocate into other classes to convey various shades of meaning. In the simplest forms, the original prefix is replaced by a prefix from a different class as in *nríngi* ‘agitator’, *uríngi* ‘betrayal’. In other cases, the original prefix may be retained and the new prefix simply added before it, as in *mwanâ* ‘child’, *kamwanâ* ‘small child’. In the case of the form related to *índû* ‘person’, even the final vowel of the base noun changes: *kíndô* ‘thing’, *kúndô* ‘place’. The meaning relation is even more debatable.

The more regular semantic nuances concern augmentative and diminutive senses. But such derived forms usually convey senses other than merely physical size, and may be marshalled to capture some pejorative or appreciative nuance. Whether an augmentative or diminutive form is pejorative or appreciative depends on what is conceived, as the standard or expected size in a given context – movement from the basic class to a new noun class is sufficient to signal a new nuance. For instance, the augmentative *imwanâ* ‘child’ may carry negative connotations because it is expected that a child will be small; but it could carry positive connotations if it is seen as focusing on some aspect of the health of the child to indicate that the child is growing well, and so is above the average child in size. So, in the example derivations below the remarks referring to pejorative and appreciative senses need to be taken in that spirit of relativity.

Class	Example	Gloss	Class	Example	Gloss
1	<i>índû</i>	person	1	<i>nríngi</i>	agitator
2	<i>bháíndû</i>	persons	2	<i>bharíngi</i>	agitators

<b>Class</b>	<b>Example</b>	<b>Gloss</b>	<b>Class</b>	<b>Example</b>	<b>Gloss</b>
5	<i>ínndû</i>	person (aug/ pejorative)	5	<i>iríngi</i>	agitator (aug.)
6	<i>mábhándû</i>	persons (pejorative)	6	<i>maríngi</i>	agitators (aug.)
7	<i>kíndô</i>	thing			
8	<i>fíndô</i>	things	8	<i>fíríngi</i>	small agitators
12	<i>kaínndû</i>	person (dim. appreciative)	12	<i>karíngi</i>	small agitator
14	<i>únnndû</i>	humanness	14	<i>uríngi</i>	betrayal
16/17	<i>ándô / kúndô</i>	place			

<b>Class</b>	<b>Example</b>	<b>Gloss</b>	<b>Class</b>	<b>Example</b>	<b>Gloss</b>
1	<i>mwanâ</i>	child	1	<i>mbughû</i>	goat, sheep
2	<i>bhanâ</i>	children	2	<i>mbughû</i>	goats, sheep
5	<i>imwanâ</i>	child (aug/ pejorative)	5	<i>imbughû</i>	goat (aug. pejorative)
6	<i>mabhanâ</i>	children (aug. pejor.)	6	<i>mambughû</i>	goats (aug.)
7	<i>kimwanâ</i>	child (dim.)	7	<i>kimbughû</i>	goat (dim. pejorative)
8	<i>fimwanâ</i>	children (dim.)	8	<i>fimbughû</i>	goats (dim. pejorative)
12	<i>kamwanâ</i>	child (dim. apprec.)	12	<i>kambughû</i>	small goat (dim. apprec.)

Many nouns are derived from verbs by means of a suffix vowel and an appropriate noun class prefix.

a) *Derivation using suffix -a*

**Verb**

*ighemâ* to cultivate

**Noun**

*ghemâ/ighemâ* farm



<i>ifwá</i>	to die	<i>ifwâ</i>	death
<i>iasâ</i>	to advise, warn	<i>kyaasâ</i>	agreement
<i>ikyá</i>	to dawn	<i>makyá</i>	dawn
<i>ikundâ</i>	to love	<i>ikundâ</i>	love
<i>iisa</i>	to grind	<i>nswa</i>	flour

**b) Derivation using suffix -i**

<b>Verb</b>		<b>Noun</b>	
<i>ighemâ</i>	to cultivate	<i>ughemî</i>	agriculture
<i>ighemâ</i>	to cultivate	<i>nghemî</i>	farmer
<i>íbhíngâ</i>	to win	<i>úbhíngî</i>	victory
<i>íbhíngâ</i>	to win	<i>míbhíngî</i>	winner
<i>ighumâ</i>	to send	<i>ghumî</i>	message
<i>igheghâ</i>	to talk	<i>ugheghî</i>	manner of talking
<i>igheghâ</i>	to talk	<i>ngheghî</i>	speaker
<i>iéékýâ</i>	to help	<i>wéékî</i>	help, aid
<i>ikundâ</i>	to love	<i>ukundî</i>	love

**c) Derivation using suffix -o**

<b>Verb</b>	<b>Gloss</b>	<b>Noun</b>	<b>Gloss</b>
<i>isiyâ</i>	to come to an end	<i>masíyô</i>	end
<i>íbhíngâ</i>	to win	<i>úbhíngô</i>	judgement
<i>iréíya</i>	to write	<i>kiréíyo</i>	document/ writing instrument
<i>iasâ</i>	to advise, warn	<i>kyaasô</i>	advice
<i>igheghâ</i>	to talk	<i>igheghô</i>	word
<i>ibhabhá</i>	to be bitter, itch	<i>mabhábhio</i>	pain

<b>Verb</b>	<b>Gloss</b>	<b>Noun</b>	<b>Gloss</b>
<i>ílúngâ</i>	to join	<i>ílúngô</i>	joint
<i>íghásâ</i>	to make sacrificial offering	<i>kíghásô</i>	sacrifice
<i>ísékâ</i>	to laugh	<i>sékô</i>	laughter
<i>íghááka</i>	to vomit	<i>ughááko</i>	vomit
<i>ísesâ</i>	to gnaw (as insect or bird)	<i>kísesô</i>	grain weevil
<i>iésâ</i>	to tempt, measure	<i>kyéésô</i>	temptation, measurement
<i>íbáshâ</i>	to sculpture	<i>mbáshô</i>	tiny pieces of wood

**d) Derivation using suffix -u**

<b>Verb</b>		<b>Noun</b>	
<i>ifwá</i>	to die	<i>mfú/ufú</i>	dead person/ death
<i>imááma</i>	to urinate	<i>imáámu</i>	urine
<i>isongóya</i>	to lead	<i>kisóngóghû</i>	leader
<i>ifumâ</i>	to dig	<i>ifumû</i>	spear
<i>íanâ</i>	to thank	<i>kyánû</i>	sacrifice
<i>yuumâ</i>	to be hard/dry	<i>muumû</i>	not generous (esp.with food)
<i>iélâ</i>	to winnow	<i>muulú</i>	chaff

**e) Derivation using suffix -e**

<b>Verb</b>		<b>Noun</b>	
<i>ikundâ</i>	to love	<i>nkundé</i>	lover
<i>ibhabhâ</i>	to be bitter/itch	<i>ibhabhe</i>	leprosy
<i>iishíbhya</i>	to get accustomed to	<i>mishíbhyé</i>	customs

<i>úndyâ</i>	to worship	<i>miindyé</i>	mass
<i>íkúrá</i>	to scratch	<i>ikure</i>	food stuff from scratching
<i>isáára</i>	to cut (e.g. with razor blade)	<i>sáré</i>	incision
<i>úsâ</i>	to grind	<i>isewe</i>	grindstone
<i>íshéshékâ</i>	to sieve	<i>shekeshéké</i>	sieve
<i>ighéngéâ</i>	to slumber	<i>ghwê</i>	sleep
<i>ing'anâ</i>	to grow	<i>ming'ányé</i>	upbringing, socialization

**f) Derivation using suffix -ie**

The derivation with *-ie* implies mannerism or way / style of doing things (cf. *ile/ele* in other Bantu languages)

<b>Verb</b>		<b>Noun</b>	
<i>ikorá</i>	cook	<i>mikóryé</i>	cuisine/manner of cooking
<i>iénda</i>	walk	<i>mengyé</i>	behaviour, way of walking (d > g)
<i>ikundâ</i>	love	<i>mikúndyé</i>	way of loving
<i>iná</i>	drink	<i>miníyé</i>	way of drinking

**g) Derivation involving no change of final vowel**

Nouns derived in this way are assigned to class 7/8 with the *ki/fi* noun class prefixes.

<b>Verb</b>	<b>Gloss</b>	<b>Noun</b>	<b>Gloss</b>
<i>í-éng'â</i>	breathe	<i>kyeng'á</i>	breath
<i>isisâ</i>	disturb	<i>kisisâ</i>	disturbance
<i>ítítâ</i>	burrow	<i>kitítâ</i>	blending stick; type of insect

<i>iréngétâ</i>	cut (tree)	<i>kirengétâ</i>	(tree) cutter
<i>ilólâ</i>	look, watch	<i>kilólâ</i>	mirror

### 3.4 Compounding and Reduplication

#### 3.4.1 Noun + Associative + Noun

Compounds that combine two nouns require the associative connector so that the literal semantics is possessive, as in *kibere kyá ifúbhê* 'potato of baboon' = 'baboon's potato'. However, the true meaning of the compound cannot, in most cases, be computed from the constituent nouns.

Compound Noun	Basic Term	Modifying Term
<i>isálé lyá shófu</i> aloe vera	<i>isálé</i> kind of aloe vera plant	<i>shófu</i> elephant
<i>iuwâ lyá shókâ</i> kind of bad flower	<i>iuwâ</i> smellingflower	<i>shókâ</i> snake
<i>ighumá lyá múghen</i> kind of medicinal riverside yam	<i>ighumâ</i> yam	<i>mughen</i> in the water
<i>kibere kyá ifúbhê</i> kind of bitter potato	<i>kiberé</i> potato	<i>ifubhê</i> baboon
<i>mangi á ndeyé</i> kind of crowned bird	<i>mangí</i> king	<i>ndeyé</i> bird

#### 3.4.2 Verb + Noun Compounds

In verb plus noun compounds, the noun is a complement of the verb, even though the verb is already in the nominal form with an appropriate noun class prefix.

<b>Compound Term</b>	<b>Verb</b>	<b>Noun</b>
<i>ifishá ñíndô</i> kind of plant with hard stem	<i>ifishâ</i> to break	<i>ñíndô</i> sickle
<i>íbhándá súbhâ</i> kind of plant with thick leaves	<i>bhandâ</i> to grow fat	<i>súbhâ</i> ram
<i>kirinda múndí</i> fool	<i>rindâ</i> to seal a crack to stop seepage	<i>múndí</i> wooden container
<i>kiwambo kughwî</i> mantis	<i>wambâ</i> to spread around	<i>kughwî</i> ear
<i>kitúla itíkó</i> kind of hard spreading grass	<i>túlâ</i> to fell	<i>ítíkó</i> zebra
<i>ibara nungú</i> kind of large grasshopper	<i>barâ</i> to break	<i>nungú</i> pot

### 3.4.3 Reduplication

The nouns below are derived via partial or full reduplication of the stem. In many cases, the non-reduplicated form is no longer available and it can only be assumed because of the identical parts in the current noun.

<b>Noun</b>	<b>Gloss</b>
<i>ifarafara</i>	type of edible and medicinal herb that produces some noise when disturbed.
<i>bhyaabhya</i>	rumour mongering (from <i>bhyâ</i> 'tell')
<i>sisighî</i>	small black ant
<i>ififina</i>	type of tree
<i>ifwafwá</i>	numbness (from <i>fwa</i> 'die'; cf. <i>Swahili: kifafa</i> – epilepsy)
<i>imbarámbárâ</i>	type of grass
<i>ishwîshwî</i>	non-maturing flowers of the banana bunch

<b>Noun</b>	<b>Gloss</b>
<i>isosoro</i>	house lizard
<i>itungúrúru</i>	banana leaf stem
<i>kibhiribhiri</i>	a whisper, secret meeting, plot, scheme
<i>kiboborí</i>	giant rat
<i>kírórómâ</i>	squirrel
<i>kifirífirî</i>	jealousy
<i>kíghághásâ</i>	hedghog, porcupine
<i>munyúnyû</i>	bat
<i>mwálúkólúkô</i>	unreliability/ undependability (from <i>ialúkâ</i> 'change')
<i>sarusáru</i>	things in shambles
<i>mbarara</i>	unnecessary talks
<i>mbuumbuu</i>	spider

### 3.5 Pronominal Forms

The freestanding personal pronouns are shown in Table 7, together with the subject and object concordial affixes. The possessive forms are bound morphemes that take prefixes from the appropriate noun class.

**Table 7: Pronouns**

	<b>Personal pronouns</b>		<b>Subject affix</b>	<b>Object affix</b>	<b>Possessive pronoun</b>	
1s	<i>yen</i>	I	<i>shi-</i>	<i>shi-</i>	<i>-kwa</i>	my
2s	<i>iwe</i>	you	<i>ku-</i>	<i>ku-</i>	<i>-afo</i>	your
3s	<i>we</i>	s/he	<i>a-</i>	<i>m-</i>	<i>-akwe</i>	his/her

	Personal pronouns		Subject affix	Object affix	Possessive pronoun	
1p	<i>ise</i>	<i>we</i>	<i>lu-</i>	<i>lu-</i>	<i>-eru</i>	<i>our</i>
2p	<i>ini</i>	<i>you</i>	<i>mu-</i>	<i>mu-</i>	<i>-an</i>	<i>your</i>
3p	<i>wo</i>	<i>they</i>	<i>bha-</i>	<i>bha-</i>	<i>-awo</i>	<i>their</i>

### 3.6 Numerals

The names of the numerals are nouns falling in various noun classes; numbers one through six and nine appear with the *ki/fi* prefixes; one and nine have the singular prefix *ki*. *mfungághé* ‘seven’ is probably class 3 and *nyanyá* ‘eight’ is probably class 9. *Ikumî* ‘ten’ is in class 5, with the plural, *makumí*, in class 6. Numeral agreement is marked up to six only, i.e. the prefix on the number word agrees with the class of the noun modified: *bhandu bhaghíndághû* ‘six people’ and not \**bhandu fighíndághû*; *bhandu mfungághé* ‘seven people’ and not \**bhandu bhafungághé*.

Table 8: Cardinal numbers

	Ones	Tens		Hundreds	
1	<i>kyímwî</i>	<i>ikumî</i>		<i>íyánâ</i>	
2	<i>fibhí</i>	<i>makumí</i>	<i>ábhí</i>	<i>mayana</i>	<i>abhí</i>
3	<i>figháághû</i>	<i>makumí</i>	<i>ágháághû</i>	<i>mayana</i>	<i>ágháághû</i>
4	<i>fíínâ</i>	<i>makumí</i>	<i>áánâ</i>	<i>mayana</i>	<i>áánâ</i>
5	<i>figháánû</i>	<i>makumí</i>	<i>ágháánû</i>	<i>mayana</i>	<i>ágháánû</i>
6	<i>fighíndághû</i>	<i>makumí</i>	<i>ághíndághû</i>	<i>mayana</i>	<i>ághíndághû</i>
7	<i>mfungághé</i>	<i>makumí</i>	<i>mfungághé</i>	<i>máyáná</i>	<i>mfungághé</i>
8	<i>nyanyá</i>	<i>makumí</i>	<i>nyanyá</i>	<i>máyáná</i>	<i>nyanyá</i>
9	<i>kyeendá</i>	<i>makumí</i>	<i>kyeendá</i>	<i>máyáná</i>	<i>kyeendá</i>

The ordinal terms are formed by changing the noun class prefix: *lyimwî* 'once' is now in class 5 instead of seven; *kábhí* 'twice' is in class 12 instead of 8. Again, the pattern ends at sixth. From seventh '*mara mfunágághé*' the pattern uses what is probably a borrowed item from Swahili to do the numeral ordering. In the table 'x' stands for 'times'.

**Table 9: Ordinal numbers**

x1	<i>lyimwî</i>	once
x2	<i>kábhí</i>	twice
x3	<i>kagháághû</i>	three times
x4	<i>káánâ</i>	four times
x5	<i>kagháánû</i>	five times
x6	<i>kaghíndághû</i>	six times
x7	<i>mara mfunágághé</i>	seven times
x8	<i>mara nyanyá</i>	eight times
x9	<i>mara kyeendá</i>	nine times
x10	<i>mara ikumî [marekumî]</i>	ten times

When the ordinal term modifies a noun, the associative construction is used. The associative form may be *a* or *wa*. The free ordinal already shown above is used, except in the case of 'first noun' where *mbê/ kwánsa* replace *lyimwî*.

**Table 10: Numeral as noun modifier**

1 <sup>st</sup>	<i>nndu á mbê/ kwánsa</i>	first person
2 <sup>nd</sup>	<i>nndu a kabhí</i>	second person
3 <sup>rd</sup>	<i>nndu a kagháághû</i>	third person
4 <sup>th</sup>	<i>nndu a káánâ</i>	fourth person
5 <sup>th</sup>	<i>nndu a kagháánû</i>	fifth person



6 <sup>th</sup>	<i>nndu a kaghíndághû</i>	sixth person
7 <sup>th</sup>	<i>nndu a mfunágághé</i>	seventh person
8 <sup>th</sup>	<i>nndu a nyanyá</i>	eighth person
9 <sup>th</sup>	<i>nndu a kyeendá</i>	ninth person
10 <sup>th</sup>	<i>nndu a ikumî</i>	tenth person
11 <sup>th</sup>	<i>nndu a ikumí na lyimwî</i>	eleventh person
12 <sup>th</sup>	<i>nndu a ikumí na kabhí</i>	twelfth person

## CHAPTER FOUR

### 4 THE ORDER OF ELEMENTS IN THE NOUN PHRASE

#### 4.1 Categorization Criteria

The criteria for establishing the types of elements that can become dependents of the noun in the noun phrase are based on morphological properties, syntactic behaviour and semantic features. The table for concordial affixes (Table 6) shows that different types of noun dependents take different sets of agreement affixes. For example, the agreement affixes for *adjectives* are different from the agreement affixes for *numerals*. So, the morphology establishes a distinction between adjectives and numerals as belonging to different categories. It will be noted though that there are many overlaps in the affixes across categories. The perfect example is provided by classes 7/8: the *ki/ky* marker is found in all cells across the table. Similarly, as can be observed in Table 11, the markers for *that*<sub>2</sub>, possessive *my*, and *connective* are almost identical (with the usual glide formation and vowel deletion processes); the mismatches are in classes 1, 14, and 16.

**Table 11: Identical affixes across dependent categories**

Class	<i>that</i> <sub>2</sub>	<i>my</i>	<i>connective</i>
1	<i>u-lya</i>	<i>a-akwa</i>	<i>w-a</i>
2	<i>bha-lya</i>	<i>bha-akwa</i>	<i>bha-a</i>
3	<i>u-lya</i>	<i>w-akwa</i>	<i>w-a</i>
4	<i>i-lya</i>	<i>y-akwa</i>	<i>y-a</i>
5	<i>li-lya</i>	<i>ly-akwa</i>	<i>ly-a</i>
6	<i>a-lya</i>	<i>a-akwa</i>	<i>a-a</i>
7	<i>ki-lya</i>	<i>ky-akwa</i>	<i>ky-a</i>

Class	that <sub>2</sub>	my	connective
8	<i>fi-lya</i>	<i>fy-akwa</i>	<i>fy-a</i>
9	<i>i-lya</i>	<i>y-akwa</i>	<i>y-a</i>
10	<i>ti-lya</i>	<i>ti-akwa</i>	<i>ti-a</i>
10a	<i>ti-lya</i>	<i>ti-akwa</i>	<i>ti-a</i>
11	<i>lu-lya</i>	<i>lw-akwa</i>	<i>lw-a</i>
12	<i>ka-lya</i>	<i>ka-akwa</i>	<i>ka-a</i>
14	<i>u-lya</i>	<i>lw-akwa</i>	<i>lw-a</i>
15	<i>i-lya/ku-lya</i>	<i>kw-akwa</i>	<i>kw-a</i>
16	<i>a-lya</i>	<i>kw-akwa</i>	<i>kw-a/a-a</i>
17	<i>ku-lya</i>	<i>kw-akwa</i>	<i>kw-a</i>
18	<i>ku-lya</i>	<i>kw-akwa</i>	<i>kw-a</i>

The syntactic criteria pertain to the positions that an element may occupy in the noun phrase as well as the possibilities of, and limits on, co-occurrence of an element with other elements. If an element cannot co-occur with another, it may be because the two occupy the same syntactic position and stacking is not permitted. This would be a strong basis for considering such elements as belonging to the same syntactic category. For example, the English determiners ‘the’ and ‘my’ cannot co-occur; only one of them may fill the determiner slot (\**the my book*). On the other hand, it may be that two or more items of the same category can co-occur because stacking is permitted. In that case, co-occurrence does not signal different category membership (as in the Mashami possessive and demonstrative determiners *kitabu kilya kyakwa* ‘that book of mine’).

In principle, stacking (i.e. repetition of a word or a category) is prohibited, as is clearly demonstrated in the case of restricted sets of determiners and modifiers, e.g. demonstratives, possessives, numerals and general quantifiers.

* <i>fitabu fingi fyoose</i>	many all books (general quantifiers)
* <i>ikusáro lyilyá ilyi</i>	that this thought (demonstratives)
* <i>fitabu fyakwa fyakwe</i>	my your books (possessives)
* <i>makusáro abhii aghaanu</i>	two five thoughts (numerals)

It would appear that even in cases like that of the adjective category where it looks like stacking is permitted, the items in question belong to different subcategories. Thus, the adjectives in *kitabú kisha kidodori* ‘good red book’ belong to different subcategories, i.e. general adjective and colour.

A further syntactic criterion concerns the phrasal properties of a category. Adjectives may be modified by intensifiers (adverbs), whereas demonstratives, possessives and quantifiers may not.

### Quantifier

*fitabu fingi dén/nnú*  
books many very

### Adjective

*fitabú fyóósé dén/\*nnú*  
books all very

The differences in the behaviour of *dén* and *nnú* in the examples above shows how further lexical restrictions can complicate the categorization of a word. For instance, *nnú* may not co-occur with fixed ranged adjectives and numerals, whereas *dén* may.

\**bhandu baghindaru nnú*

*bhandu baghindaru dén* ‘really six people!’ (positive orientation – we had expected less).

If they are stacked, then *dén* must be final; the order is not variable.

*fitabu fingi nnú dén* but not \**fitabu fingi dén nnú* ‘very very many books’.

*nyálekaba mwana nnú dén* ‘he thrashed the child very severely’.

There is greater freedom of movement within the construction for *nnú* but not for *dén*.

*nyálekaba nnú mwana*

*nyálekaba mwana nnú*

*nyálekaba mwana dén*

\* *nyálekaba dén mwana*

‘he thrashed the child severely’

So, even intensifiers have variations among themselves and using them as criteria for categorizing other items will give variable results.

## 4.2 Determiners

Nominal dependents in Mashami are post-head with one exception, namely the distributive determiner *wó* ‘each/every’. In the noun phrase, the position preceding the noun is regarded as 1 and the position following it is regarded as 1 as well, whereas that which is occupied by the noun is 0. See the following examples.

01	0		
<b>each</b>	<b>noun</b>	<b>Gloss</b>	
<i>wó</i>	<i>nndu</i>	each person	
<i>wó</i>	<i>kilwa</i>	each frog	

Determiners pick out the entity denoted by the noun. They belong to closed sets of mutually exclusive items. In Mashami there are two main sets, demonstratives and possessives, whose respective members may co-occur, in that fixed order. It is the items in each set that are internally mutually exclusive, meaning that demonstratives may not co-occur, and possessives may not co-occur. This may be regarded as a semantic restriction: an item cannot be both proximate and distal (*\*ikusáro lyilyá ilyi* ‘that this thought’).

In the following examples when the possessive precedes the demonstrative the construction is ill-formed. It will be shown that no other element can precede the demonstrative or intervene between the demonstrative and the possessive.

**Table 12: Determiner order**

	0	1	2	Gloss
		<i>determiners</i>		
	<i>Noun</i>	<i>Dem.</i>	<i>Poss.</i>	
a	<i>ńndú</i>	<i>ulya</i>	<i>wákwa</i>	that person of mine
b	<i>*ńndú</i>	<i>wakwa</i>	<i>ulya</i>	
c	<i>ikusáro</i>	<i>lyilyá</i>	<i>lyákwa</i>	that thought of mine
d	<i>*ikusáro</i>	<i>lyakwá</i>	<i>lyilyá</i>	

### 4.3 Modifiers

Modifiers introduce additional properties to the noun that has been picked. These may be divided into two groups, namely quantifiers and qualifiers. Quantifiers consist of numerals (*bhandu bhaghíndághû* ‘six people’), ordinals (*nndu a kabhí* ‘second person’) and general quantifiers (many, other, all, only).

<i>bhandu</i>	<i>bhéngi</i>	<u>many</u> people
<i>bhandu</i>	<i>bhengí</i>	<u>other</u> people
<i>bhandu</i>	<i>bhóósê</i>	<u>all</u> people
<i>bhándú</i>	<i>bhéní/nsí</i>	people <u>only</u>

Qualifiers include adjectives (*bhandu bhashá* ‘good people’), associative (connective) phrases (*bhandu bhá másama* ‘people of Masama’), and relative clauses (*bhandu bhakéé úlaya* ‘people who are in Europe’). The modification properties of each of these will be considered in the following sections.

### *Quantifiers*

The numeral may follow the two determiners (demonstrative and possessive). The ill-formed constructions below place the numeral before both determiners or in between them.

**Table 13: Determiner – Numeral Order**

	0	1	2	3
	<i>Noun</i>	<i>Dem.</i>	<i>Poss.</i>	<i>Num.</i>
a	<i>bhandu</i> people	<i>bhalyá</i> those	<i>bhákwa</i> my	<i>bhagháánû</i> five
b*	<i>bhandu</i>	<i>bhagháánu</i>	<i>bhalyá</i>	<i>bhákwa</i>
c*	<i>bhandu</i>	<i>bhalyá</i>	<i>bhagháánu</i>	<i>bhákwa</i>
	those five people of mine			
d	<i>makusáro</i>	<i>alyá</i>	<i>ákwa</i>	<i>agháánû</i>
	those five thoughts of mine			

The construction in (c) above would be acceptable if possessive changed to associative, thus *bhandu bhallya bhaghaanu bha Masama* those five people of Masama.

For best results below the ordinal is placed immediately after the numeral in (a and c). The results are not so good if the ordinal precedes the numeral in (b and d). The numeral is grudgingly treated as an afterthought.

**Table 14: Numeral and ordinal order**

	0	1	2	3	4	gloss
	<i>Noun</i>	<i>Dem.</i>	<i>Poss.</i>	<i>Num.</i>	<i>Ord.</i>	
a	<i>bhandu</i>	<i>bhalyá</i>	<i>bhákwa</i>	<i>bhagháánú</i>	<i>bha mbê</i>	Those first
!b	<i>bhandu</i>	<i>bhalyá</i>	<i>bhákwa</i>	<i>bha mbê</i>	<i>bhagháánú</i>	five people of mine
c	<i>makusáro</i>	<i>alyá</i>	<i>ákwa</i>	<i>agháánú</i>	<i>á kábhí</i>	Those
!d	<i>makusáro</i>	<i>alyá</i>	<i>ákwa</i>	<i>á kábhí</i>	<i>agháánú</i>	second five thoughts of mine

In the following examples, the general quantifier *bhéngi* ‘many’ may not co-occur with the numeral in (a-b) or follow the ordinal in (c). Rather it may replace the numeral i.e. occupy the position between the possessive and the ordinal in (d).

**Table 15: Numeral and quantifier ‘many’**

	0	1	2	3	4	5
	<i>Noun</i>	<i>Dem.</i>	<i>Poss.</i>	<i>Num.</i>	<i>Ord.</i>	<i>Quant.</i>
*a	<i>bhandu</i>	<i>bhalyá</i>	<i>bhákwa</i>	<i>bhagháánú</i>	<i>bha mbê</i>	<i>bhéngi</i>
	people	those	my	five	first	many
	Those first five many people of mine					
*b	<i>bhandu</i>	<i>bhalyá</i>	<i>bhákwa</i>	<i>bhagháánú</i>	-	<i>bhéngi</i>
	Those five many people of mine					
*c	<i>bhandu</i>	<i>bhalyá</i>	<i>bhákwa</i>	-	<i>bha mbê</i>	<i>bhéngi</i>



	0	1	2	3	4	5
	<i>Noun</i>	<i>Dem.</i>	<i>Poss.</i>	<i>Num.</i>	<i>Ord.</i>	<i>Quant.</i>
	Those first many people of mine					
d	<i>bhandu</i>	<i>bhalyá</i>	<i>bhákwa</i>	<i>bhéngi</i>	<i>bha mbê</i>	
	Those first many people of mine (quantifier before ordinal)					
e	<i>bhandu</i>	<i>bhalyá</i>	<i>bhákwa</i>	-	-	<i>bhéngi</i>
	Those many people of mine					

On the other hand, the quantifier *bhóósê* “all” has no such restrictions, being able to co-occur with the numeral and occupy positions before and after the numeral and ordinal, as in (a-g) below.

Table 16: Quantifier ‘All’

	0	1	2	3	4	5
	<i>Noun</i>	<i>Dem.</i>	<i>Poss.</i>	<i>Num.</i>	<i>Ord.</i>	<i>Quant.</i>
a	<i>bhandu</i>	<i>bhalyá</i>	<i>bhákwa</i>	<i>bhagháánú</i>	<i>bha mbê</i>	<i>bhóósê</i>
	All those first five people of mine					
b	<i>bhandu</i>	<i>bhalyá</i>	<i>bhákwa</i>	<i>bhóósê</i>	<i>bha mbê</i>	<i>bhagháánú</i>
	All those first five people of mine (gen. quantifier before ordinal and numeral)					
c	<i>bhandu</i>	<i>bhalyá</i>	<i>bhákwa</i>	<i>bhagháánú</i>	-	<i>bhóósê</i>
	All those five people of mine					
d	<i>bhandu</i>	<i>bhalyá</i>	<i>bhákwa</i>	<i>bhóósé</i>	<i>bha mbê</i>	-
	All those first people of mine (gen. quantifier before ord.)					
e	<i>bhandu</i>	<i>bhalyá</i>	<i>bhákwa</i>	-	<i>bha mbê</i>	<i>bhóósê</i>
	All those first people of mine (ordinal before gen. quantifier)					
f	<i>bhandu</i>	<i>bhalyá</i>	<i>bhákwa</i>	<i>bhoose</i>	<i>bhagháánú</i>	
	All those five people of mine (general quantifier before					

	0	1	2	3	4	5
	<i>Noun</i>	<i>Dem.</i>	<i>Poss.</i>	<i>Num.</i>	<i>Ord.</i>	<i>Quant.</i>
	numeral)					
g	<i>bhandu</i>	<i>bhalyá</i>	<i>bhákwa</i>	-	-	<i>bhóósê</i>
	All those people of mine					

### Qualifiers

The adjective may occupy various positions, namely after the ordinal and numeral, between them, or before them, as in (a-d); but it cannot be placed before the determiners (demonstrative and possessive: e-f). The position after the possessive in (d) is probably most preferred.

**Table 17: Adjective**

	0	1	2	3	4	5
	<i>Noun</i>	<i>Dem.</i>	<i>Poss.</i>	<i>Num.</i>	<i>Ord.</i>	<i>Adj.</i>
a	<i>bhandu</i>	<i>bhalyá</i>	<i>bhákwa</i>	<i>bhagháánú</i>	<i>bhá mbê</i>	<i>bhashá</i>
	Those first five good people of mine					
b	<i>bhandu</i>	<i>bhalyá</i>	<i>bhákwa</i>	<i>bhagháánú</i>	<i>bhá kábhí</i>	<i>bháshá</i>
	Those second five good people of mine					
c	<i>bhandu</i>	<i>bhalyá</i>	<i>bhákwa</i>	<i>bhagháánú</i>	<i>bhasha</i>	<i>bha mbê</i>
	Those first five good people of mine (adj. before ordinal)					
d	<i>bhandu</i>	<i>bhalyá</i>	<i>bhákwa</i>	<i>bhasha</i>	<i>bhagháánú</i>	<i>bha mbê</i>
	Those first five good people of mine (adj. before ordinal and numeral)					
*e	<i>bhandu</i>	<i>bhalyá</i>	<i>bhasha</i>	<i>bhákwa</i>	<i>bhagháánú</i>	<i>bha mbê</i>
*f	<i>bhandu</i>	<i>bhasha</i>	<i>bhalyá</i>	<i>bhákwa</i>	<i>bhagháánú</i>	<i>bha mbê</i>

Acceptability gets more unlikely the longer the construction.

**Table 18: Testing the limits of expansion**

<i>a</i>	<i>bhandu</i>	<i>bhalyá</i>	<i>bhákwa</i>	<i>bhasha</i>	<i>bhagháánú</i>	<i>bha mbê</i>	<i>bhóósê</i>
	people	those	my	good	five	first	all
<i>?b</i>	<i>bhandu</i>	<i>bhalyá</i>	<i>bhákwa</i>	<i>bhasha</i>	<i>bhagháánú</i>	<i>bhóóse</i>	<i>bhá mbê</i>
<i>*c</i>	<i>bhandu</i>	<i>bhalyá</i>	<i>bhákwa</i>	<i>bhasha</i>	<i>bhóóse</i>	<i>bha mbê</i>	<i>bhagháánú</i>
<i>*d</i>	<i>bhandu</i>	<i>bhalyá</i>	<i>bhákwa</i>	<i>bhóósê</i>	<i>bha mbê</i>	<i>bhagháánú</i>	<i>bhasha</i>
<i>*e</i>	<i>bhandu</i>	<i>bhalyá</i>	<i>bhóósê</i>	<i>bha mbê</i>	<i>bhagháánú</i>	<i>bhasha</i>	<i>bhákwa</i>
<i>*f</i>	<i>bhandu</i>	<i>bhalyá</i>	<i>bhákwa</i>	<i>bha- gháánú</i>	<i>bhasha</i>	<i>bhóósê</i>	<i>bha mbê</i>
All those good first five people of mine							

The associative phrase (connective + noun) is positioned after all modifiers already discussed.

Table 19: Associative phrase

	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
	<i>Noun</i>	<i>Dem.</i>	<i>Poss.</i>	<i>Num.</i>	<i>Ord.</i>	<i>Adj.</i>	<i>Con+N</i>
a	<i>bhandu</i>	<i>bhalyá</i>	<i>bhákwa</i>	<i>bhagháánú</i>	<i>bhá mbê</i>	<i>bhasha</i>	<i>bhá másama</i>
	people	those	my	five	first	good	of Masama
Those first five good people of mine from Masama							
*b	<i>bhandu</i>	<i>bhalyá</i>	<i>bhákwa</i>	<i>bhagháánú</i>	<i>bhá másama</i>	<i>bhasha</i>	<i>bhá mbê</i>
*c	<i>bhandu</i>	<i>bhalyá</i>	<i>bhákwa</i>	<i>bhá másama</i>	<i>bhagháánú</i>	<i>bhá mbê</i>	<i>bhasha</i>
*d	<i>bhandu</i>	<i>bhalyá</i>	<i>bhákwa</i>	<i>bhagháánú</i>	<i>bhá mbê</i>	<i>bhá másama</i>	<i>bhasha</i>
*e	<i>bhandu</i>	<i>bhalyá</i>	<i>bhákwa</i>	<i>bhagháánú</i>	<i>bhá másama</i>	<i>bhá mbê</i>	<i>bhasha</i>
*f	<i>bhandu</i>	<i>bhá másama</i>	<i>bhalyá</i>	<i>bhákwa</i>	<i>bhagháánú</i>	<i>bhá mbê</i>	<i>bhasha</i>
g	<i>bhandu</i>	<i>bhalyá</i>	<i>bhákwa</i>	<i>bhá másama</i>	<i>bhagháánú</i>	<i>bhasha</i>	<i>bhá mbê</i>
h	<i>bhandu</i>	<i>bhalyá</i>	<i>bhákwa</i>	<i>bhasha</i>	<i>bhagháánú</i>	<i>bhá másama</i>	<i>bhá mbê</i>
*i	<i>bhandu</i>	<i>bhalyá</i>	<i>bhá másama</i>	<i>bhákwa</i>	<i>bhagháánú</i>	<i>bhá mbê</i>	<i>bhasha</i>

The relative clause is strictly in final position and no other position is available for it as illustrated below.

**Table 20: Relative clause**

	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
	<i>Noun</i>	<i>Dem.</i>	<i>Poss.</i>	<i>Num.</i>	<i>Ord.</i>	<i>Adj.</i>	<i>Con+N</i>	<i>Rel.</i>
a	<i>bhandu</i>	<i>bhalyá</i>	<i>bhákwa</i>	<i>bhagháánú</i>	<i>bhá mbê</i>	<i>bhasha</i>	<i>bhá másama</i>	<i>bhééshi íghínâ</i>
	<i>people</i>	<i>those</i>	<i>my</i>	<i>five</i>	<i>first</i>	<i>good</i>	<i>of Masama</i>	<i>who know the name</i>
	Those first five good people of mine from Masama who know the name							
*b	<i>bhandu bhalyá bhákwa bhééshi íghínâ bhagháánú bhá mbê bhasha bhá másama</i>							
*c	<i>bhandu bhalyá bhákwa bhagháánú bhééshi íghínâ bhá mbê bhasha bhá másama</i>							
*d	<i>bhandu bhalyá bhákwa bhagháánú bhá mbê bhééshi íghínâ bhasha bhá másama</i>							
*e	<i>bhandu bhalyá bhákwa bhagháánú bhá mbê bhasha bhééshi íghínâ bhá másama</i>							

**Interrogative words**

The interrogative word seeks further specification of the head noun; it occupies the position after all modifiers (a-d below). As the number of modifiers increases, the interrogative is more likely to be superfluous, as in (e), implying that there is no further specification of the head noun needed or possible.

**Table 21: Position of the interrogative word**

	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
	<i>Noun</i>	<i>Dem.</i>	<i>Poss.</i>	<i>Num.</i>	<i>Ord.</i>	<i>Adj.</i>	<i>Interrogative</i>
<i>a</i>	<i>nndu</i>						<i>ungáu</i>
	which person						
<i>b</i>	<i>bhandu</i>						<i>bhangâ</i>
	which people						
<i>c</i>	<i>bhandu</i>			<i>bhoose</i>			<i>bhangâ</i>
	which all people?						
<i>d</i>	<i>nndu</i>	<i>ulya</i>					<i>ungáu</i>
	that person, which one?						
<i>e</i>	<i>bhandu</i>	<i>bhalya</i>	<i>wakwa</i>	<i>bhasha</i>	<i>wabhii</i>	<i>wa mbê</i>	<i>bhangâ</i>
	<i>people</i>	<i>those</i>	<i>my</i>	<i>good</i>	<i>two</i>	<i>first</i>	<i>which</i>
	my first two good people, which ones?						

The list of interrogative words forms a closed set.

-nga-	<i>indû</i>	<i>kwí</i>	<i>angâ</i>	<i>ki kwi</i>	<i>ni kiki</i> [nkiki]	<i>woobhi/</i> <i>bháábhî, bhaki</i>	<i>keenga</i>
who, which, what	when	where (wide)	where (narrow)	how	why	who (sg/pl)	how often

The difference between *kwí* and *angâ* may be illustrated thus:

A: *nkwí* [ni kwi] *kukaa* where do you stay?

B: *Kinondoni*

A: *Kinondoní angâ?* Where in Kinondoni

Table 22: Agreement patterns for -nga-

Cl	Pref.	Example	Gloss	who/which	How many
1	<i>N</i>	<i>índû</i>	person	<i>ungáu</i>	-
2	<i>bha</i>	<i>bhándû</i>	people	<i>bhangâ</i>	<i>wéngâ</i>
3	<i>N</i>	<i>nghí</i>	tree	<i>úngáu</i>	-
4	<i>mi</i>	<i>mighí</i>	trees	<i>íngái</i>	<i>íngâ</i>
5	<i>i</i>	<i>iyái</i>	egg	<i>lyingályí</i>	-
6	<i>ma</i>	<i>mayái</i>	eggs	<i>angâ</i>	<i>éngâ</i>
7	<i>ki</i>	<i>kíndô</i>	thing	<i>kingákví</i>	-
8	<i>fi</i>	<i>fíndô</i>	things	<i>fíngáfí</i>	<i>fíngâ</i>
9	<i>N</i>	<i>mbughû</i>	goat	<i>ingái</i>	-
10	<i>N</i>	<i>mbughû</i>	goats	<i>tingátí</i>	<i>íngâ</i>
10a	<i>ngi</i>	<i>ngíbángâ</i>	swords	<i>tingátí</i>	<i>tíngâ/</i> <i>íngâ</i>
11	<i>u</i>	<i>úbángâ</i>	sword	<i>lungálu</i>	-
12	<i>ka</i>	<i>kambughû</i>	small goat	<i>kangáa</i>	-
14	<i>u</i>	<i>úndû</i>	humanness	<i>lungálu</i>	-
15/5	<i>i</i>	<i>ioghâ</i>	marrying	<i>lyingályí</i>	-

<i>Cl</i>	<i>Pref.</i>	<i>Example</i>	<i>Gloss</i>	<i>who/which</i>	<i>How many</i>
16	<i>a</i>	<i>ándô</i>	place	<i>angáa</i>	-
17	<i>ku</i>	<i>kúndô</i>	place	<i>angáa</i>	<i>kwíngâ</i>
18	-	<i>mmbéú</i> <i>nghín</i> <i>ukuten</i>	on the house, in the tree, on the wall	<i>angáa</i>	

### *Noun phrase structure summary*

It is possible to present the structure of the noun phrase in Mashami as shown below.

**Table 23: Noun Phrase Structure**

01	0	1		2						3	4
<i>Pred</i>	<i>Noun</i>	<i>Determiner</i>		<i>Modifier<sub>1</sub></i>						<i>Mod<sub>2</sub></i>	<i>Mod<sub>3</sub></i>
		a	b	a	b	c	d	e	f		
Distr.		Dem.	Poss.	Num.	Ord.	Qua.	Adj.	Ass.	Rqua.	Rel clause	Inter

*Where:* Poss. = possessive pronoun; Ass. = associative; Pred. = predeterminer; Dem. = demonstrative; Ord. = ordinal; Distr. = distributive; Num. = numeral; Adj. = adjective; Rqua. = restrictive quantifier (other, only); Rel. = relative; Inter. = interrogative; Mod. = modifier; Qua. = quantifier.



There is considerable variation in the ordering of the items in the Modifier 1 position but no such freedom in any other position. It would appear that the relative clause occupies a unique position on account of its syntactic complexity. The interrogative is special in that it does not really modify the head noun, but seeks further information to specify that head.

Is there a limit on the size of the Mashami noun phrase? Given the various syntactic and semantic restrictions on the co-occurrence of the elements of the noun phrase, it is reasonable to argue that it is not possible to expand the phrase indefinitely.

## CHAPTER FIVE

### 5 VERB MORPHOLOGY

#### 5.1 Verb Template

Ten slots are identifiable for the analysis of the Mashami verb form. This includes two tense-aspect-mood (TAM) slots before the verb root, and one after the root. The template also includes the slot for the negative element 'fo' which is arguably a clitic falling outside the verb group proper. The reflexive prefix might also be regarded as a subset of the object markers.

**Table 24: Verb template**

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
INITIAL	SUBJ	TAM		OBJ	RF	ROOT	EXT	TAM	NEG
<i>ni</i>	<i>a</i>	<i>∅</i>	<i>ke</i>	<i>shi</i>		<i>kor</i>	<i>i</i>	<i>a</i>	<i>fo</i>
He/she is not cooking for me									

where:

SUBJ = subject =; TAM = tense, aspect, mood; OBJ = object; RF = reflexive; EXT = extension; NEG = negation.

Further examples of the verb template are presented below.

**Table 25: Illustrations of the verb template**

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	Remarks
(INITIAL)	SUBJ	TAM		OBJ	RF	ROOT	EXT	TAM	
<i>ni</i>	<i>bha</i>	<i>∅</i>	<i>ke</i>			<i>ghem</i>		<i>a</i>	
they are cultivating									

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	Remarks
(INITIAL)	SUBJ	TAM		OBJ	RF	ROOT	EXT	TAM	
<i>ni</i>	<i>ki</i>	$\emptyset$	<i>ke</i>			<i>iy</i>		<i>a</i>	
It is crying									
<i>ni</i>	<i>shi</i>	<i>e</i>	<i>n</i>			<i>ghem</i>		<i>a</i>	
I had cultivated									
<i>ni</i>	<i>a</i>	$\emptyset$	<i>ke</i>	<i>shi</i>		<i>kor</i>	<i>i</i>	<i>a</i>	applicative
he is cooking for me									
<i>ni</i>	<i>a</i>	<i>e</i>	$\emptyset$			<i>kab</i>	<i>w</i>	<i>a</i>	passive
He was beaten									
<i>ni</i>	<i>bha</i>	$\emptyset$	<i>ke</i>			<i>kab</i>	<i>an</i>	<i>a</i>	reciprocal
They are hitting each other ('fighting' where <i>kabana</i> is lexicalized)									
<i>ni</i>	<i>a</i>	<i>le</i>		<i>m</i>		<i>ghish</i>	<i>is</i>	<i>a</i>	causative
He made him run/he chased him									
( <i>ni</i> )	<i>lyi</i>	<i>a</i>	<i>m</i>			<i>bar</i>	<i>ik</i>	<i>a</i>	stative
It is broken /it broke									
<i>ni</i>	<i>bha</i>	<i>le</i>	$\emptyset$	<i>i</i>		<i>bom</i>	<i>u</i>	<i>a</i>	reversive
They destroyed it									
<i>ni</i>	<i>lu</i>	<i>a</i>	$\emptyset$		<i>ku</i>	<i>kab</i>		<i>a</i>	reflexive
We hit ourselves									
<i>ni</i>	<i>lu</i>	<i>e</i>	<i>ke</i>			<i>tem</i>	<i>ir</i>	<i>a</i>	
We were putting the pot on the fire									
<i>ni</i>	<i>bha</i>	$\emptyset$	$\emptyset$			<i>lal</i>		<i>e</i>	
They are asleep/sleeping (Swahili: <i>wamelala</i> )									
<i>ni</i>	<i>lu</i>	<i>a</i>	<i>m</i>			<i>iiy</i>		<i>a</i>	
We have cried (Swahili: <i>tumelia</i> )									

## 5.2 The Initial Element

The initial element *ni-* comes before all other elements in the verb template. In ordinary conversation, the vowel gets deleted and the nasal consonant assimilates to the place of articulation of the next consonant. If a vowel follows, the initial consonant is realized as a palatal nasal. It is not quite clear what function the initial element serves. Virtually all contexts in the examples used here have the initial element, as the default case; yet it does not appear that its absence would render the construction ungrammatical, as the examples below suggest.

<i>n-shí-kenda ghemâ</i>	I am going to cultivate
<i>Ø-shi-kénda ghemâ</i>	I am going to cultivate

This element appears to be closely related to the distribution of new and given information. In the examples above the constructions differ in that in the first instance the speaker is communicating something quite new to the hearer, while in the second it may be the case that the hearer expects the speaker to be digging or to have dug. The following examples provide some context for the two constructions:

- A: *enda kwándella nkeku* ‘please go and see grandmother’;  
*enda ku-á-nde-lola nkekû* (go 2sg subj-TAM-go-see grandmother) : polite form of imperative;  
*enda lola nkeku* ‘go see grandmother’: not polite.

- B: *n-shi-kenda i-ghema* ‘I am going to ‘cultivate’  
 Here the idea of the assignment is known to B only.

- A: *nkiki ilyi agha kwá nghemá?*  
 ni-kiki ilyi agha ku-a-n-ghema (initial-what that refrain 2<sup>nd</sup> sg subj-P1-perf-cultivate); ‘why haven’t you cultivated?’

B: Ø-*shi-kénda ghemâ* 'I am going to cultivate' (initial element must be omitted).

Here the idea of the assignment is known to both participants.

The imperative form of the verb does not carry the initial element. The imperative serial verb forms below, though considered too direct and rather rude, illustrate the point.

<i>enda ilola nkeku</i>	go and see the old woman
<i>enda ikora shonga</i>	go and cook food
<i>enda ighema ubhin</i>	go and cultivate immediately

Sometimes the initial element has a similar meaning as copula *ni* in Swahili and other Bantu languages.

*nyimbi akeende ghema* who is going to cultivate?

*ni-bhi a-ke- enda ighema*

initial-who 3<sup>rd</sup> sg subj-TAM-go cultivate

*nyén = ni-en* it is me

*ni-bhi* it is who (sg.); may be realized as *nyímbí* or as *mmbí*

*ni-bhaki / ni-bhabhi* it is who (pl.); may be realized as *mbákî / mbábhî*

*nyísê = ni-ise* it is us

Other nuances attributed to the initial element include warning, excitement, assurance and finality.

### 5.3 The Subject Marker

This comes immediately after the initial element as exemplified below with Tense P3 – before yesterday (remote) past.

<i>ímányâ</i> to know	initial-subj-TAM-verb	
<i>nshémányá</i>	<i>ni-shi-é-mányá</i>	I knew
<i>nkwémányá</i>	<i>ni-ku-é-mányá</i>	You knew
<i>nyémányá</i>	<i>ni-a-é-mányá</i>	He knew
<i>nlwémányá</i>	<i>ni-lu-é-mányá</i>	We knew
<i>mmwémányá</i>	<i>nii-mu-é-mányá</i>	You knew
<i>mbémányá</i>	<i>ni-bha-é-mányá</i>	They knew

### 5.4 The Tense-aspect-mood (TAM) Markers

As the verb template above shows there are two pre-root cells for the TAM morphemes and there are possibilities of filling both simultaneously, namely Past + Perfective or Past + Progressive. In addition, the post-root TAM slot consists of a vowel (final vowel) which is long in the case of the Habitual and Future tenses – a remnant of the *-aga* found in other Bantu languages. Tone too plays a significant role in the marking of tense and aspect. In the table below, we use two verbs to show the various patterns for tense and aspect; glossing is done for only one of the verbs. In addition, Swahili glossing is available where it is deemed to provide better clarity.

Table 26: TAM patterns – affirmative

<i>ímányâ</i> 'to know/understand'; <i>itemíra</i> 'to put pot on fire' /nitial-subj-TAM-verb-TAM/			
<b>Tense</b>	<b>Affirmative Sg.</b>	<b>Affirmative Pl.</b>	<b>Remarks</b>
Hb	<i>nshímanyaa</i> /n-shí- <del>o</del> -many-aa/	<i>n-lú-<del>o</del>-many-aa</i>	-a+a from -ag+a
	I know	We know	habitual
	<i>n-shí-<del>o</del>-temir-aa</i>	<i>n-lú-<del>o</del>-temir-aa</i>	zero marking before V
	initial-subj-TAM-verb-TAM		
Prog	<i>nshíkémánya</i> /n-shí-ké-many-a/	<i>nlúkémánya</i>	-ke-
	I am knowing	We are knowing	progressive
	<i>nshúketemíra</i>	<i>nlúketemíra</i>	
P1	<i>nshámánya</i> /n-shi-á-many-a/	<i>nlwámánya</i> /n-lu-á-many-a/	-á-
	I knew	We knew	today past
	<i>nshátemíra</i>	<i>nlwátemíra</i>	
P2	<i>nshúlemánya</i> /n-shí-le-mány-a/	<i>nlúlemánya</i> /n-lú-le-mány-a/	-le-
	I knew	We knew	yesterday past
	<i>nshúletemíra</i>	<i>nlúletemíra</i>	
P3	<i>nshémánya</i> /n-shi-é-mány-a/	<i>nlwémánya</i> /n-lu-é-mány-a/	-é-
	I knew	We knew	remote past

<i>ímányâ</i> 'to know/understand'; <i>itemíra</i> 'to put pot on fire' /nitial-subj-TAM-verb-TAM/			
<b>Tense</b>	<b>Affirmative Sg.</b>	<b>Affirmative Pl.</b>	<b>Remarks</b>
	<i>nshétémíra</i>	<i>nlwétémíra</i>	
PProg	<i>n-shí-é-ké-many-a</i>	<i>n-lú- é -ké-many-a</i>	<i>-é-ké-</i>
	I was understanding	We were understanding	progressive for all pasts
	Swahili: <i>Nilikuwa naelewa</i>	Swahili: <i>Tulikuwa tunaelewa</i>	
	<i>n-shí-é-ke-temír-a</i>	<i>n-lú- é -ke-temír-a</i>	
F	<i>nshímányaa /n-shí-ø-mány-aa/</i>	<i>nlúmányaa /n-lú-ø-mány-aa/</i>	suffix <i>-aa</i> from <i>*-ag+a</i>
	I will know	We will know	future
	<i>nshítémíraa</i>	<i>nlútémíraa</i>	
Perf1	<i>nshámmanya /n-shi-á-m-many-a/</i>	<i>nlwámmanya /n-lu-á-m-many-a/</i>	<i>-á-m-</i>
	I have already known (Swahili: <i>nilishajua</i> )	We have already known (Swahili: <i>tulishajua</i> )	P1 +perf (already)
	<i>shántémíra</i>	<i>lwántémíra</i>	
Perf2	<i>n-shí-lé-m-many-a</i>	<i>n-lú-lé-m-many-a</i>	<i>-lé-m-</i>
	I have known (Swahili: <i>nimewahi kujua</i> )	We have known (Swahili: <i>tumewahi kujua</i> )	P2 + perf (ever)



<i>ímányâ</i> 'to know/understand'; <i>itemíra</i> 'to put pot on fire' /nitial-subj-TAM-verb-TAM/			
<i>Tense</i>	<i>Affirmative Sg.</i>	<i>Affirmative Pl.</i>	<i>Remarks</i>
	<i>nshílentemíra</i>	<i>nlúlentemíra</i>	
Perf3	<i>n-shí-é-m-many-a</i>	<i>n-lú-é-m-many-a</i>	<i>-é-m-</i>
	I had known	We had known	P3 + perf
	<i>nshéntemíra</i>	<i>nlwéntemíra</i>	
P Hb	<i>n-shi- é -many-aa</i>	<i>n-lu- é -many-aa</i>	<i>-é...-aa</i>
	I used to know/understand	We used to know	past habitual

Note:

i. Use the irregular verb *nshiishi* for certain tense-aspect combinations (Section 5.5):

*nshíeishi* I knew (Swahili: *nilikuwa najua*) *nlúeishi* we knew (Swahili: *tulikuwa tunajua*). For Swahili “*nilijua*” use *imanya*.

ii. The progressive in the past takes the P3 formal marker *-e-*, but it can be interpreted as P1/P2; hence the need for proper context or use of temporal adverbials.

*n-shí-é-ke-temíra ngama* (P1) I put up the pot this morning.

*n-shí-é-ke-temíra ukou* (P2) I put up the pot yesterday.

*n-shí-é-ke-temíra isho* (P3) I put up the pot the day before yesterday.

**Table 27: TAM patterns - negative**

<i>ímányâ</i> 'to know/ understand': initial-subj-TAM-verb-TAM-NEG			
<i>Tense</i>	<i>Negative Singular</i>	<i>Negative Plural</i>	<i>Remarks</i>
Hb	<i>nshimányaafo /n-shi-ø-mány-aa-fo/</i> I do not know	<i>nlumányaafo /n-lu-ø-mány-aa-fo/</i> We do not know	-aa-fo habitual
Prog	<i>nshikémanyafó /n-shi-ké-many-a-fo/</i> I am not knowing	<i>nlukémanyafó /n-lu-ké-many-a-fo/</i> We are not knowing	- ké -...fo progressive
P1	<i>nshamányafo /n-shi-a-mány-a-fo/</i> I did not know	<i>nlwamányafo /n-lu-a-mány-a-fo/</i> We did not know	-a-...fo today
P2	<i>nshilémányafó /n-shí-lé-mány-a-fo/</i> I did not know	<i>nlulémányafó /n-lu-lé-mány-a-fo/</i> We did not know	-lé-...fo yesterday
P3	<i>nshemányafó /n-shi-e-mány-a-fo/</i> I did not know	<i>nlwemányafó /n-lu-e-mány-a-fo/</i> We did not know	-e-...fo before yesterday
PProg	<i>nshúéishifo /n-shí-é-ishi-fo/</i> I was not knowing (Swahili: <i>sikuwa najua</i> )	<i>nlúéishifo /n-lú-é-ishi-fo/</i> We were not knowing (Swahili: <i>hatukuwa tunajua</i> )	- é-...fo past progressive see verb <i>ishi</i> below

<i>ímányâ</i> 'to know/ understand': initial-subj-TAM-verb-TAM-NEG			
<i>Tense</i>	<i>Negative Singular</i>	<i>Negative Plural</i>	<i>Remarks</i>
F	<i>nshímányaafo /n-shí-mány-aa-fo/</i> I will not know	<i>nlúmányaafo /n-lú-mány-aa-fo/</i> We will not know	-aa-fo future
Perf1	<i>nshalémanyafó /n-shi-a-lé-many-a-fo/</i> I have not yet known (Swahili: <i>sijajua</i> )	<i>nlwalémanyafó /n-lu-a-lé-many-a-fo/</i> We have not yet known (Swahili: <i>hatujajua</i> )	a-lé-...fo perfective (not yet) P1 +P2
Perf2	<i>nshilémmanyafó</i> <i>/n-shi-lé-m-many-a-fo/</i> I have not known (Swahili: <i>sikuwahi kujua</i> )	<i>nlulémmanyafó</i> <i>/n-lu-lé-m-many-a-fo/</i> We have not known (Swahili: <i>hatukuwahi kujua</i> )	-lé-m-...fo never P2 +perf.
Perf3	<i>nshiémmanyafó</i> <i>/n-shi-é-m-many-a-fo/</i> I had not known (Swahili: <i>sikuwa nimejua</i> )	<i>nluémmanyafó</i> <i>/n-lu-é-m-many-a-fo/</i> We had not known (Swahili: <i>hatukuwa tumejua</i> )	-é-m-...fo P3 + perf

Perfective *-m-* never appears alone without a tense marker; progressive *-ke-* does not combine with perfective *-m-*; nor does it combine with the past tense markers *-le-* and *-a-* since the *-e+-ke-* combination functions in the relevant contexts.

### 5.5 Irregular verb *ishi*

**Table 28: *ishi* ‘to know’**

<i>nshiishi</i> ‘I know’			
<i>Tense</i>	<i>Affirmative singular</i>	<i>Affirmative plural</i>	<i>Remarks</i>
Hb	<i>nshúishi</i> I know /ni-shú-ishi/	<i>nlúishi</i> we know /ni-lú-ishi/	habitual
	<i>nkúishi</i> you know /ni-kú-ishi/	<i>mmúishi</i> you know /ni-mú-ishi/	
	<i>nyáishi</i> he knows /ni-á-ishi/	<i>mbáishi</i> they know /ni-bhá-ishi/	
P1,2,3	<i>nshéishi</i> I knew /ni-shí-e-ishi/	<i>nlúeishi</i> we knew /ni-lú-e-ishi/	stative verb, no progressive past (Swahili: <i>nilikuwa najua</i> )
	<i>nkúeishi</i> you knew /ni-kú-e-ishi/	<i>mmúeishi</i> you knew /ni-mú-e-ishi/	
	<i>nyéishi</i> he knew /ni- á-e-ishi/	<i>mbéishi</i> they knew /ni- bhá -e-ishi/	
/ni-shi-kóy-aa ni-shí-ishi / initial-subj- aux-TAM + initial-subj- <i>ishi</i> ‘I will happen to know’			
F-aux	<i>nshikóyaa nshúishi</i> /ni-shi-koy-aa ni-shi-ishi/	<i>nlúkoyaa nlúishi</i> /ni-lu-koy-aa ni-lu-ishi/	future: I/We will know (Swahili: ( <i>‘nitakuta najua’ = nitakuwa najua</i> ))
	<i>nkúkoyaa nkuishi</i> /ni-ku-koy-aa ni-ku-ishi/	<i>mmúkoyaa mmúishi</i> /ni-mu-koy-aa ni-mu-ishi/	

<i>nshiishi</i> 'I know'			
<i>Tense</i>	<i>Affirmative singular</i>	<i>Affirmative plural</i>	<i>Remarks</i>
	<i>nyákoyaa nyéeshi</i> /ni-a-koy-aa ni-a-ishi/	<i>mbákoyaa mbéeshi</i> /ni-bha-koy-aa ni-bha-ishi/	

The verb *ishi* 'know' has no infinitive form and is available in these tense patterns only; for progressive and perfective senses the appropriate verb to use is *imanya* as in *kwámmanya* /ku-á-m-many-a/ 'have you known/understood' (2sg subject-P1+perfective-know-fv).

### 5.6 Irregular Verb *ibha* 'to be'

The *ibha* forms are used in all tenses except present and past (of which there is only one). The negative clitic *fo* cannot precede the complement of the verb; it must always be in final position. (For locative clitic *fo*, see below).

**Table 29:** *ibha* 'to be'

<i>T/A</i>	<i>Affirmative</i>	<i>Negative</i>
Present	/ni-shí-ø-ke-e/ initial-subj-TAM-be-TAM	
	<i>nshíkee mwanâ</i> I am a child	<i>nshikéé mwaná fo</i> I am not a child
	<i>nkúkee mwanâ</i> You are a child	<i>nkukéé mwaná fo</i> You are not a child
	<i>nyákee mwanâ</i> He is a child	<i>nyakéé mwaná fo</i> He is not a child
	<i>nlúkee bhanâ</i> We are children	<i>nlukéé bháná fo</i> We are not children
	<i>mmúkee bhanâ</i>	<i>mmukéé bháná fo</i>

<i>T/A</i>	<i>Affirmative</i>	<i>Negative</i>
	You are children	You are not children
	<i>mbákee bhanâ</i>	<i>mbakéeé bháná fo</i>
	They are children	They are not children
Habitual	<i>/ni-shí-ø-bhe-e/</i> initial-subj-TAM-be-TAM	
	<i>nshíbhee mwanâ</i> I be a child	<i>nshibhée mwaná fo</i> I be not a child
	<i>nkúbhee mwanâ</i> You be a child	<i>nkubhée mwaná fo</i> You be not a child
	<i>nyábhee mwanâ</i> He be a child	<i>nyabhée mwaná fo</i> He be not a child
	<i>nlúbhee bhanâ</i> We be children	<i>nlubhée mwaná fo</i> We be not children
	<i>mmúbhee bhanâ</i> you be children	<i>mmubhée mwaná fo</i> you be not children
	<i>mbábhee bhanâ</i> They be children	<i>mbabhée mwaná fo</i> They be not children
Past	<i>/ni-shí-e-ke-e/</i> initial-subj-TAM-be-TAM	
	<i>nshíekee mwanâ</i> I was a child	<i>nshíekee mwaná fo</i> I was not a child
	<i>nkúekee mwanâ</i> You were a child	<i>nkúekee mwaná fo</i> You were not a child
	<i>nyíekee mwanâ</i> He was a child	<i>nyíekee mwaná fo</i> He was not a child
	<i>nlúekee bhanâ</i> We were children	<i>nlúekee bhaná fo</i> We were not children
	<i>mmúekee bhanâ</i> you were children	<i>mmúekee bhaná fo</i> you were not children
	<i>mbáekee bhanâ</i> They were children	<i>mbáekee bhaná fo</i> They were not children
Pro- gressive	<i>/ni-shí-ke-bha mwanâ/</i> I am being/becoming a child	<i>/ni-shi-ké-bha mwaná fo/</i> I am not being/ becoming a child
Future	<i>/ni-shí-ø-bha-a/</i> initial-subj-TAM-be-TAM	

<i>T/A</i>	<i>Affirmative</i>	<i>Negative</i>
	<i>nshíbhaa mwanâ</i> I will be a child	<i>nshibháá mwáná fo</i> I will not be a child
Perfective (today)	<i>/ni-shí-a-m-bha/</i> initial-subj-TAM-be	<i>/n-shí-a-le-bha/</i> initial-subj-TAM-be
	<i>nshíamba mwanâ</i> I have been a child	<i>nshíalebha mwáná fo</i> I have not been a child
	<i>Swahili: Nimekuwa mtoto</i>	<i>Swahili: Sijawa mtoto</i>
Perfective (before today)	<i>/ni-shí- é -m-bha/</i> initial-subj-TAM-be	
	<i>nshémba mwana</i> I had been a child	<i>nshémba mwáná fo</i> I had not been a child



### 5.7 (Auxiliary) Verb + verb Constructions

Two verbs, *ímâ* 'to finish' and *ikóya* 'to find/come upon', are used extensively in auxiliary-like positions. In the verb + verb construction the second verb may be a tenseless infinitive form.

Perfective	<i>nshámmeeghemâ</i> <i>ni-shi-á-n-ima íghemâ</i>	I have already cultivated (Swahili: <i>Nimeshamaliza kulima</i> )
	(initial-subj-tense-asp-finish cultivate)	

On the other hand, both verbs may be fully inflected for tense/aspect and for subject.

**Table 30: Two inflected verbs**

Future perfective	<i>nshíkóyaa nshíánghema</i> <i>ni-shí-kóy-aa ni-shi-á-n-ghema</i> (initial-subj-V-TAM + initial-subj-tense-asp-V)	I will have cultivated (Swahili: <i>Nitakuwa (nitakuta) nimelima</i> )
Future progressive	<i>nshíkóyaa nshíkeghemâ</i> <i>ni-shí-kóy-aa ni-shí-ke-ghemâ</i> (initial -subj-V-TAM + initial -subj -asp-V)	I will be cultivating (Swahili: <i>Nitakuwa (nitakuta) ninalima</i> )
	<i>nshíkóyaa sheeghemâ</i> <i>ni-shí-kóy-aa shi-e-ghemâ</i> (initial -subj-V-TAM + subj -tense-V)	(Swahili: <i>Nitakuwa (nitakuta) nikilima</i> )

Past progressive	<i>nkwékoyaa sheeghemâ</i> <i>ni-ku-é-koy-aa shi-e-ghemâ</i> <i>(initial -2<sup>nd</sup> sg subj-tense-V-</i> <i>TAM + subj -tense-V)</i>	I was cultivating <i>(Swahili: Nilikuwa</i> <i>(ulikuta) nikilima)</i>
---------------------	--	--

In addition, two main verbs may be sequenced to express simultaneity of action.

### *Past progressive*

<i>nshéemba sheeghemâ</i>	I sang (while) cultivating
<i>ni-shi-é-imba shi-e-ghema</i>	<i>(Swahili: Niliimba nikilima)</i>
<i>(initial-subj-tense-V + subj -tense-V)</i>	

## 5.8 Resultatives

The following verbs illustrate the use of the post-root TAM slot with the Proto-Bantu morpheme\**-ide*; this has been reduced to *-ie* following the loss of the consonant, and then further reduced to either of the two vowels *-i-* or *-e-*.

<i>isalála</i>	to stand up/stop
<i>iiyâ</i>	to be cooked/burnt <i>(Swahili: kuiva, kuungua)</i>
<i>ilwâ</i>	to be sick <i>(Swahili: kuwa mgonjwa)</i>
<i>ishi</i>	to know

**Table 31: Resultative verb forms**

<i>singular</i>	<i>plural</i>
<i>nyásalalye, mbwásalalye</i>	<i>mbásalalye, mbwásalalye</i>
<i>/ni-á-salal-i-e/, /mbu-á-salal-i-e/</i>	<i>/ni-bha-salal-i-e/, /mbu-bha-salal-i-e/</i>
initial-subj-stand-perfective+fv	initial-subj-stand-perfective+fv ( <i>mbu/mbo</i> is an intensified initial form for new and important information)
He is standing (in a standing position)	They are standing
(Swahili: <i>amesimama</i> )	(Swahili: <i>wamesimama</i> )
<i>shónga nyíiye, mbwíiye</i>	<i>shónga ntíiye, mbútíiye</i>
<i>/shonga ni-i-iy-i-e/, /mbu-i-iy-i-e/</i>	<i>/shonga ni-ti-iy-i-e/mbú-tí-iy-i-e/</i>
initial-9subj-cook-perfect+fv	initial-10subj-cook-perfect+fv
Food is cooked (Swahili: <i>chakula kimeiva</i> )	Food is cooked (Sw: <i>vyakula vimeiva</i> )
<i>nyálwe, mbwálwe</i>	<i>mbálwe /mbwálwe, mbubhálwe</i>
<i>/ni-a-lw-i-e/, /mbu-á-lw-i-e/</i>	<i>/ni-bha-lw-i-e/, /mbu-bhá-lw-e/</i>
initial-subj-be sick-perfective+fv	initial-subj-be sick-perfective+fv
He is sick (Swahili: <i>anaumwa, ni mgonjwa</i> )	They are sick (Swahili: <i>wanaumwa, ni wagonjwa</i> )
<i>nshíeishi</i> I knew (Swahili: <i>nilikuwa najua</i> )	<i>nlúeishi</i> we knew i.e. "we were in the know" Swahili:

<i>singular</i>	<i>plural</i>
	<i>tulikuwa tunajua</i>

**Table 32: Other resultatives**

<i>nshíghemye</i>	I have grown crops ( <i>Swahili: nimelima - nina mazao shambani</i> )
<i>nyáfie</i>	s/he is dead
<i>nyákufingye</i>	s/he is pregnant
<i>nyásuye</i>	s/he is angry
<i>nyásomye</i>	s/he is schooled / educated
<i>nungu nyíbarikye</i>	the pot is broken
<i>nyámiryé mbéngú</i>	s/he has swallowed seeds (he has lived long)
<i>shoká nyímiryé ikokoi</i>	The snake has swallowed a mouse (it has it in the stomach)
<i>nyábarikyé mísô</i>	s/he is blind (has broken eyes - ( <i>Swahili: amevunjika macho</i> ))
<i>nyáfikye ughéndé</i>	s/he has a broken leg ( <i>Swahili: amevunjika mguu</i> )

### 5.9 Short Verbs

The monosyllabic verbs display a peculiarity in the marking of the habitual where the final vowel is mid rather than low. The patterns are illustrated using five verbs, *ina* (to drink), *illya* (to eat), *isha* (to come), *isa* (to grind), and *ifwa* (to die).

**Table 33: Habitual in short verbs**

<i>T/A</i>	<i>1<sup>st</sup> person singular</i>	<i>1<sup>st</sup> person plural</i>	<i>gloss</i>
Habitual	<i>nshínee</i>	<i>nlúnee</i>	I/we drink
	<i>nshílllyee</i>	<i>nlúlllyee</i>	I/we eat
	<i>nshíshee</i>	<i>nlúshee</i>	I/we come
	<i>nshísee</i>	<i>nlúsee</i>	I/we grind
	<i>nshífwee</i>	<i>nlúfwee</i>	I/we die
Past habitual	<i>nshienaa</i>	<i>nluenaa</i>	I/we used to drink
	<i>nshiellyaa</i>	<i>nluellyaa</i>	I/we used to eat
Yesterday past	<i>nshilena</i>	<i>nlulena</i>	I/we drank

## 5.10 Summary of Tense and Aspect Marking

Table 34: TAM summary

	<i>Markers</i>	<i>Description</i>	<i>Example/remarks</i>
1	∅ + ke	present prog.	
2	e + ke	(all) past prog.	no separate combinations of <i>-a-</i> or <i>-le-</i> with <i>-ke-</i>
3	kóyaa + ∅ +ke	future prog.	<i>/ni-á-kóy-aa ni-á-ke-kor-aa/ nyákóyaa nyákekorâ</i> He will be cooking
4	kóyaa + V.. aa	future prog.	<i>/ni-á-kóy-aa i-kor-aa/ nyákóyaa ekoraa</i> He will be cooking
5	a + n	today past + perfective	<i>/ise n-lu-á-n-iiya/ ise nlwámiiya</i> (Swahili: <i>sisi tumelia</i> ) we have cried
6	e + n	past + perfective	<i>/ni-lu-é-n-iiya/ ntwémiiya</i> We had cried
7	∅ + n	present +perfective	<i>/ku-n-sha ni-shi-a-kya/ kunshá nshákya</i> since you have come I am safe (Swahili: <i>kwa kuwa umekuja nimepona</i> )

	<i>Markers</i>	<i>Description</i>	<i>Example/remarks</i>
			{2 <sup>nd</sup> sg-perf-come initial-1 <sup>st</sup> sg-pst-be cured}
8	Ø + Ø ...ie	resultative	/n-lú-salall-ye/ we are standing ( <i>Swahili: tumesimama</i> )
9	e + Ø	simple past -P3	/ni-lu-é-ghém-a/ nluwéghéma we cultivated
10	le + Ø	yesterday past-P2	/ni-lu-le-ghem-a/ nluéghéma we cultivated
11	a + Ø	today past- P1	/n-lu-á- korâ/ nluwákorâ we cooked
12	koyaa + a+n+V	future + perfective	/n-lu-koyaa n-lu-a-n-ghem-a/ nluikóyaa nluwá nghemâ We will have cultivated ( <i>Swahili: tutakuwa tumelima</i> ); /n-lu-koyaa n-lu-a-m-maa i-ghem-a/ nluikóyaa nluwámmaa íghemâ (we will have finished cultivating)
13	Ø ...aa	habitual	n-shí-Ø-kor-aa [nshíkoraa/I cook
14	Ø...V'..aa	future	n-shí-Ø-kór-aa [nshíkóraa/I will cook; note high tone

### 5.11 Object Marking on the Verb

Up to three object markers may be available on the verb. However, the most natural constructions would involve the use of two object markers and one post verb noun phrase. The examples that follow present verbs with two object markers.

**Table 35: Two object markers**

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	remarks
INITIAL	SUBJ	TAM		OBJ	OBJ	ROOT	EXT	TAM	
ni	a	é		shi	ki	end	i	e	two OMs
<i>nyeshikyengye</i> he brought it to me									
ni	a	é		shi	lyi	ghém	i	a	two OMs
<i>nyéshilighémia</i> he cultivated it for me									
ni	a	é		shi	mu	káb	i	a	two OMs
<i>nyéshimukábia</i> she hit him for me									

The verb *ende* ‘bring’ is peculiar in having a mid frond vowel in final position. Also the root consonant changes if two object markers are present. Hence *shi-ki-engye* ‘bring (it) to me’ (two objects) contrasts with *ny-a-ki-ende* ‘he has brought it’ (one object).

The order of the object markers does not conform to what has been found in several other Bantu languages. Here the first person singular marker ‘*shi*’, which instantiates a beneficiary participant, is positioned farthest from the verb root. Third person human and inanimate markers (*ki*, *lyi*, *mu*) occupy the position closest to the root and instantiate the patient/theme semantic role.

Three object markers are illustrated below.



**Table 36: Three object markers**

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
INITIAL	SUBJ	TAM		OBJ		ROOT	EXT	TAM	REMARKS
<i>ni</i>	<i>a</i>	<i>é</i>		<i>shi-ya-bha</i> <i>shi-ya-mu</i>		<i>níng</i> <i>amb</i>	<i>i</i>	<i>a</i>	three OMs
<i>nyéshiyabhaníngya</i> she gave it to them for me									
<i>nyéshiyamwámbya</i> she smeared it on him for me									
<b>shi</b> = first person singular; <b>ya</b> = class six (for <i>mafugha</i> 'oil'); <b>bha</b> = class two (3 <sup>rd</sup> person plural); <b>mu</b> = 3 <sup>rd</sup> person singular									

Again, first person object marker (*shi-* for beneficiary) is positioned farthest from the verb root. The second and third person markers (*bha-* & *mu-* for patient role) are closest to the root. The inanimate marker (*ya-* for the theme) is positioned between the other two markers.

Even when some variation in this basic ordering of the object markers is tolerated, the meaning is largely kept constant, provided the levels of animacy are different.

*nyeshikyengye* = *nyekishengye* he brought it to me

*nyéshilighémia* = *nyélishighémia* he cultivated it for me

The first alternative in the examples above is the correct one but the second may be tolerated and understood in the same way. It appears that the privileged position for object markers is farther away from root, i.e. the first to be mentioned.

*ndumí nyénínga mwaná kitabû*

the man gave the child a  
book

<i>nyémukinínga</i> [ <i>ni-a-é-mu-ki-ninga</i> ]	he gave it to her
<i>nyékimunínga</i> [ <i>ni-a-é-ki-mu-ninga</i> ]	he gave it to her {NOT *he gave her to it}

The reflexive marker *-ku-* occupies the position immediately before the verb root and is a type of object marker.

*ikwámba mafughâ /i-ku-amba mafughâ/*  
to smear self with oil

*nyéyakwamba /ni-a-é-ya-ku-amba/* (initial-subj-tense-object-  
reflexive-smear) he smeared it on himself

When the levels of animacy are equal, the construction becomes potentially ambiguous; it may require a second thought to interpret it. This may be the window for accepting variable order of the object markers with variable interpretation as in the examples below.

*nyéshimukábia /ni-a-é-shi-mu-káb-i-a/* she hit him for me

*nyémushikábia /ni-a-é-mu-shi-káb-i-a/* she hit me for him

*nyébhámúnínga /ni-a-é-bhá-mú-ning-a/*  
she gave him to them

*nyémubhanínga /ni-a-é-mu-bha-ning-a/* she gave them to him

*nyékushiningia /ni-a-é-ku-shi-ning-i-a/*  
'he gave you to me' (also: 'he just gave me')  
(initial-3<sup>rd</sup> sg subj-tense-2<sup>nd</sup> sg obj-1<sup>st</sup> sg obj-give-appl-fv)

*nyéshikuningia /ni-a-é-shi-ku-ning-i-a/*  
'he gave me to you'

When variable ordering is rejected or restricted in some way as already noted, ambiguity may be further checked by requiring that the construction be interpreted in only one way. Such a decision is dependent on semantic role considerations, namely who is normally likely to do what to whom in the real world.

*nyeshimwengye* (\**nyemushengye*) he brought him to me (NOT \*he brought me to him).

The alternative structures below may be preferred instead of entertaining the ambiguity associated with variation in the ordering of object markers.

*nyéshikaba kimaghuma kyakwe*

*ni-a-é-shi-kab-a ki-maghuma ki-akwe*

initial-3<sup>rd</sup> sg subj-tense-1<sup>st</sup> sg obj-hit-fv reason his

‘she hit me on account of him’.

*nyéshiekya inkaba*

*ni-a-é-shi-eky-a i-mu-kab-a*

initial-3<sup>rd</sup> sg subj-tense-1<sup>st</sup> sg obj-help-fv inf-3<sup>rd</sup> sg obj-hit-fv

‘she helped me to hit him’.

In general, with three object markers the ordering is severely constrained considering that each of the affixes could take three distinct positions with respect to the other two. The result would be six different constructions. However, only the first arrangement below is allowed; even when the second is grudgingly accepted, it is on the understanding that the meaning is the same as in the first one, that is, “she gave it to them for me”

1. ni-a-é-**shi-ya-bha**-níng-y-a

(**shi** = first person singular; **ya** = class six; **bha** = class two (3<sup>rd</sup> person plural))

2. ?ni-a-é- ya -shi-bha-níng-y-a

3. \*ni-a-é- bha -shi-ya- níng-y-a

4. \*ni-a-é- bha -ya-shi-níng-y-a

5. \*ni-a-é-ya- bha -shi -níng-y-a

6. \*ni-a-é-shi-bha-ya-níng-y-a

Similarly, one interpretation is available in the following:

*nyéshiyamwámbya /ni-a-é-**shi-ya-mu**-ám-b-i-a/*  
 'she smeared it on him for me'

*nyáshiyamwámbyaa /ni-á-**shi-ya-mu**-ám-b-i-aa/*  
 'she will smear it on him for me'

### 5.12 Co-occurrence of OM with NP

The object marker may not co-occur with its noun phrase. Therefore, the OM has pronominal status.

*nyémwamba mafughâ /ni-a-é-**mu**-amb-a /*  
 'she smeared oil on him'

*nyáamba mwána mafughâ /ni-a- é -amb-a /*  
 'she smeared oil on the child'

\**nyémwamba /ni-a-é-**mu**-amb-a / mwána mafughâ*

The object may be preposed and so be marked on the verb by OM.

*mungó nyéwámhá mafughâ [ni- a-é -**u**-amba/*

'as for the back, she smeared it with oil'

*mafugha nyeyaamba mungo*

'as for the oil, she smeared it on the back'

The understood object, even when preposed, may be omissible.

*mafugha nyekuamba mungo*

'as for the oil, she smeared herself [with it] on the back'

(Swahili: *mafuta alijipaka mgongoni*)

It is possible for OM to co-occur with its defining referent pronoun.

*nyeshikaba /ni-a-e-shi-kab-a/ yen* 'she hit me'

*nyekuningya /ni-a-e-ku-ningy-a/ iwe* 'she gave to you'

*nyekukiningya /ni-a-e-ku-ki-ningy-a/ iwe* 'she gave it to you'

In such cases, the pronoun plays an emphatic role and is somewhat redundant.

### 5.13 The Shape of the Verb Root

The canonical shape of the verb root is CV(N)C-. Longer shapes are derived via suffixation and reduplication (see below). Vowel initial roots may have lost the initial consonant. The list of CV-roots is considerably longer than what may be found in several other Bantu languages. It is possible that some of these verbs, especially those with a long final vowel, resulted from the loss of the second consonant of the root. The infinite prefix is retained in the following examples to capture the instances where it is high toned.

**Short (CV) Verbs**

<i>ifwá</i>	to die	<i>ifwâ:</i>	to cool down
<i>ísâ</i>	to grind	<i>ísâ:</i>	to remain
<i>íwâ</i>	to fall down	<i>íwâ:</i>	to kill
<i>íshâ</i>	to come	<i>íshâ:</i>	to suffer
<i>itá</i>	to feel	<i>itâ:</i>	to pay fine; bleed
<i>ighwá</i>	to ascent	<i>ighwâ:</i>	to send
<i>ighâ</i>	to scoop	<i>ígha:</i>	to stink
<i>irâ:</i>	to wear, dress	<i>íghá</i>	to cease, stop
<i>ilâ</i>	to be clean/healthy	<i>íkâ:</i>	to dwell, reside
<i>illyá</i>	to eat	<i>íllyâ:</i>	to become long/tall
<i>ibhá</i>	to be, become, befit	<i>ibhâ</i>	to rise (sun), bloom
<i>imâ</i>	to hinder	<i>ímâ:</i>	to finish
<i>iná</i>	to drink	<i>inâ:</i>	to wither
<i>iyá</i>	to burn, be cooked		

The list below shows verbs with an initial vowel in the root; if it is /i/, then in the infinitive there is lengthening, otherwise we get a palatal glide initially.

<i>iighâ</i>	to pass	<i>íshâ</i> (imperative <i>oshó</i> )	to come
<i>iéndâ</i>	to go	<i>íághúbhâ</i>	to soil
<i>úghíbâ</i>	to fart	<i>íólótâ</i>	to bring down
<i>iihíkya</i>	to accept	<i>iukwâ</i>	to become mad
<i>íámbâ</i>	to say, tell	<i>íághua</i>	to scratch
<i>íámbya</i>	to daub	<i>iiúluya</i>	to hurry up

### 5.14 Verb Extensions

The applicative *-i-* and the passive *-u-* are the most productive of the extensions. The causative *-is-* and stative *-ik-* are also widely available. The vowel of the suffix is invariable, i.e. there is no vowel harmony.

Verb	Applicative	Causative	Stative	Passive	Gloss
<i>ímányâ</i>	<i>ímányiâ</i>	<i>ímányísâ</i>	<i>ímányíkâ</i>	<i>ímánywâ</i>	know
<i>ighemâ</i>	<i>ighémya</i>	<i>ighemísa</i>	<i>ighemíka</i>	<i>ighemwâ</i>	cultivate
<i>inínga</i>	<i>iníngya</i>	* <i>iníngisa</i>	<i>iníngika</i>	<i>iníngwa</i>	give
<i>ífungâ</i>	<i>ífungyâ</i>	<i>ífungísâ</i>	<i>ífungíkâ</i>	<i>ífungwâ</i>	close
<i>ífúngúâ</i>	<i>ífúngúyâ</i>	-	<i>ífúngúkâ</i>	<i>ífúngúwâ</i>	open
<i>ímírâ</i>	<i>ímíryâ</i>	<i>ímírísâ</i>	<i>ímírikâ</i>	<i>ímírwâ</i>	swallow
<i>ísíkyâ</i>	<i>ísíkyâ</i>	-	-	<i>ísíkywâ</i>	bury, engulf
<i>ísúkúâ</i>	<i>ísúkúyâ</i>	-	<i>ísúkúkâ</i>	<i>ísúkúwâ</i>	uncover
<i>ighishâ</i>	<i>ighíshya</i>	<i>ighishísa</i>	-	<i>ighishwâ/</i> <i>ighishíswa</i>	run

There are a number of verbs with the *-ut-/uk-* alternation that corresponds to the transitive/intransitive pattern; the *-ut-* form is some kind of causative of the *-uk-* form. The *-ut-* form has the same meaning as an existing form that has lost the consonant *-t-*.

<b>Verb</b>	<b>Applicative</b>	<b>Stative</b>	<b>Passive</b>	<b>Gloss</b>
<i>ísómútâ = ísómúâ</i>	<i>ísómúyâ</i>	<i>ísómúkâ</i>	<i>ísómúwâ</i>	draw out; bring out (Swahili: <i>chomoa</i> )
<i>íghúmbútâ</i>	<i>íghúmbútyâ</i>	<i>íghúmbúkâ</i>	<i>íghúmbútwâ</i>	blow away; cause to fly away (Swihili: <i>peperusha, rusha</i> )
<i>íghúmbua</i>	<i>íghumbúya</i>	<i>íghumbúka</i>	<i>íghumbuwa</i>	break (Swahili: <i>kata</i> )
<i>ibalúta= ibalúâ</i>	-	<i>ibalúka</i>	<i>ibalútwâ</i>	cause to fade (Swihili: <i>chujua</i> )
<i>írútâ= írúâ</i>	<i>írúyâ</i>	<i>írúkâ</i>	<i>írúwâ</i>	open; resuscitate (Swihili: <i>fufua</i> )
<i>isambúta</i>	-	<i>isambúka</i>	<i>isambútwâ</i>	warm (Swahili: <i>pasha moto</i> )
<i>iitâ</i>	<i>iityâ</i>	<i>iighâ</i>	<i>iitwâ</i>	cause to pass (Swahili: <i>pitisha</i> )
<i>irungúta</i>	<i>irungútya</i>	<i>irungúka</i>	<i>irungútwâ</i>	spin (Swahili: <i>zungusha</i> )



The reciprocal suffix *-an-* is restricted in occurrence with several lexicalized forms appearing without base forms of the verb; instead, it shares space with the reflexive prefix *-ku-* which is more productively used for both reciprocalization and reflexivization.

**Table 37: Reciprocal *-an-* forms**

<i>Reciprocal verb</i>		<i>Source verb</i>	
<i>ikabána</i>	to fight	<i>ikabâ</i>	to hit
<i>ílákánâ</i>	to part company, separate e.g. in marriage	-	
<i>ikundána</i>	to love each other	<i>ikundâ</i>	to love
<i>isubhána=ikuswâ</i>	to hate each other	<i>iswâ</i>	to hate
<i>ikwánanya</i>	to meet each other	-	
<i>ikwáána</i>	to be blood relatives	-	

We would expect that where the *-an-* form exists, the *-ku-* form will automatically be interpreted as reflexive rather than reciprocal. However, in the majority of cases, morphosyntactic features (e.g. plurality of participants for reciprocal) as well as pragmatic context will determine the proper interpretation. Also, there are unexpected gaps as is shown above where some *-an-* forms do not have existing base forms; and below where *-an-* forms may not exist, as in *\*isangyana*.

<i>ikusángya</i>	bathe (wash oneself); wash each other	<i>*isangyana</i> from <i>isangya</i>	wash each other
<i>ikukúndâ</i>	love self	<i>ikundana</i>	love each other
<i>ikukábâ</i>	hit self	<i>ikabána</i>	hit each other, fight

There are only a few traces of the reversive *-ur-* extension. In the examples that follow, the reversive form is represented with the vowel *-u-* (the consonant is no longer available in Mashami), and this vowel normally glides to *-w-* so that the tone is as shown on the final vowel. Traces of some vowel harmony may be noted; it would appear that after the derivation of the reversive the root vowel changes to acquire the rounding feature in *isúkua*, *ísúkuâ* and *ísómuâ*.

<i>yosósa=iosósa</i>	wind, twist, weave (Swahili: sokota)	<i>yosósua</i>	unwind
<i>itemíra</i>	put pot on fire	<i>itémua</i>	remove pot from fire
<i>ighikâ</i>	put load on head (Swahili: twika)	<i>ighuâ</i>	put down load (Swahili: tua)
<i>isíka</i>	support with	<i>isúkua</i>	remove support
<i>ísíkyâ</i>	cover	<i>ísúkuâ</i>	uncover
<i>ísímikâ</i>	insert (Swahili: chomeka)	<i>ísómuâ</i>	pull out (Swahili: chomoa)

Several other reversive *-ur-/uk-* forms exist without a base counterpart.

**Table 38: Traces of *-u-/uk-* reversive**

<i>Transitive -u-</i>		<i>Intransitive -uk-</i>	
<i>ikúrúa</i>	uproot	<i>ikurúka</i>	be uprooted
<i>idúkua</i>	turn upside-down	<i>idúkuka</i>	turn upside-down
<i>idoróshua/</i> <i>idoshâ</i>	make a hole, puncture (Swahili: <i>toboa</i> )	<i>idoróshuka/</i> <i>idoshíka</i>	be punctured (Swahili: <i>toboka</i> )
<i>ighondókua</i>	temper with wound (Swahili: <i>tonesha</i> )	<i>ighondókuka</i>	be liable to tempering - said of a wound (Swahili: <i>tonesheka</i> )

<i>Transitive -u-</i>		<i>Intransitive -uk-</i>	
<i>ibalálu</i>	break/split (wood) horizontally (Swahili: <i>pasua</i> )	<i>ibaláluka</i>	become split (Swahili <i>pasuka</i> )
<i>yáláluâ</i>	turn over repeatedly	<i>yálálukâ</i>	change, become altered (Swahili : <i>badilika</i> )
<i>ighóghua</i>	pick one by one	<i>ighóghuka</i>	be pickable (Swahili: <i>okoteka</i> )
<i>yorómua</i>	untie	<i>yorómuka</i>	become untied (Swahili: <i>funguka</i> )

### 5.15 Verb Extension Co-occurrence and Ordering

The possibilities of combining and arranging the extensions in any one construction are limited. The following examples are indicative of the limitations, virtually all involving combinations of two extensions.

#### *Causative +Applicative*

*ní-a-é-m-ghem-is-i-a ghemâ* = *ni-a-e-m-ghemia / ni-a-e-m-ghemikya*  
 initial-subj-TAM-obj-dig-C-A-fv field  
 'he had someone till the field for her'  
 (Swahili: *alimlimishia shamba*)

#### *Causative + Passive*

*ní-a-é-ghem-is-w-a ghemâ*  
 initial-subj-TAM-dig-C-P-fv field  
 'he was made to till the field'  
 (Swahili: *alilimishwa shamba*)

#### *Applicative+ Passive*

*ní-a-é-ghem-y-w-a ghemâ*  
 initial-subj-TAM-dig-A-P-fv field

'a field was tilled for him'

(Swahili: *alilimiwa shamba*)

**n.b.** the 'him' of the gloss is subject in Mashami.

***Causative + Applicative + Passive***

*ní-a-é-ghem-is-y-w-a ghemâ*

initial-subj-TAM-dig-C-A-P-fv field

'a field was caused to be tilled for him'

(Swahili: *alilimishiwa shamba*)

The causer is eliminated by passivization, the causee is omitted, and the 'him' of the gloss is subject in Mashami.

***Stative + Applicative***

*ni-a-é-many-ik-i-a ghém-in*

initial-subj-TAM-know-S-A-fv field-loc

'he became known while in the field'

(Swahili: *alijulikania shambani*)

The next two examples show the use of the reflexive affix in object position to achieve a reciprocal reading. This works like a pre-emptive strategy to avoid the sequencing of the reciprocal extension with causative or applicative extension.

*ni-bha-é-kú-ghém-ís-a /mbékúghémísa/ ghemâ*

initial-subj-TAM-RF-dig-C-fv field

'they made each other till the field'

(Swahili: *walilimisha shamba => walilimishana shamba*)

*ni-bha-é-ku-ghem-y-a ghemâ*

initial-subj-TAM-RF-dig-A-fv field

they dug the field for each other

(Swahili: *walilimilia shamba => walilimiana shamba*)

### 5.16 Reduplication

Reduplication of the verb commonly involves the copying of the initial syllable of the stem, even when there is no derivationally related verb. This pattern is also found in the nouns. In some cases, both syllables of a disyllabic stem are copied. There is a notable number of animal and plant names in which reduplication is involved. A sample of verbs derived via reduplication is provided below.

<b>Verb</b>	<b>Gloss</b>	<b>Reduplication</b>	<b>Gloss</b>
<i>kabâ</i>	hit	<i>kakâba</i>	mash, smash or crush by pounding
<i>manyâ</i>	cut	<i>mamánya</i>	chop up
<i>bárâ</i>	split	<i>bábárâ</i>	split into pieces
<i>bhâghâ</i>	trample	<i>bhâbhâghâ</i>	trample repeatedly
<i>bhika</i>	carry on back	<i>bhibhîka</i>	be blown away
<i>bhyâ</i>	chop	<i>bhyâbhya</i>	cut up into small slices
<i>fâlâ</i>	scatter	<i>fâfâlâ</i>	scatter as chicken in search of food, search
<i>lembâ</i>	deceive, cheat, outwit, beguile	<i>lélémba</i>	soothe, calm, woo, appease

The shape of the following verbs indicates some reduplication history even though there may be no current non-reduplicated base.

<b>Verb</b>	<b>Gloss</b>
<i>lelébhya</i>	stalk
<i>mimínda</i>	suck, lick e.g. sweets
<i>sásândâ</i>	mix (from <i>sanda</i> 'keep close')
<i>sisíghya</i>	bear, endure, support, sustain, persevere

<i>sísíkâ</i>	shake off, wring, cause to fall in a shower
<i>tatala</i>	embezzle, squander
<i>tatárúa</i>	disorganise (from <i>tarua</i> 'break enclosed liquid')
<i>kílyakílyá</i>	jump about (from <i>kílyá</i> 'jump')

## CHAPTER SIX

### 6 CLAUSE STRUCTURE

#### 6.1 Double Objects

In constructions with two object noun phrases, only one of the objects may be readily made subject of the passive construction.

*ndumí nyénínga ng'úmbé mare* (/ni-a-é-ninga/ initial-subj-P3-give)  
man give cow grass 'the man gave the cow grass'

*ng'úmbé nyéningwa mare ní ndumî* (/ni-i-é-ning-w-a/  
initial-subj-P3-give-pass-fv) 'the cow was given grass by the  
man'

Some modification of the verb, via the applicative, is necessary in order to make the other object become subject of the passive form.

*mare nyéningywa ng'úmbé ní ndumî* (/ni-a-é-ning-i-u-a/  
initial-subj-P3-give-app-pass-fv) 'the grass was given to the cow  
by the man'

Only one of the objects, typically the beneficiary or recipient (child), may be positioned next to the verb. The theme/patient (book) may not precede it.

*ndumí nyénínga mwanâ kitabú* 'the man gave the child a book'  
\**ndumí nyénínga kitabú mwanâ*

When the two objects have equal animacy, the word order plays a crucial role in the interpretation. The NP immediately after the verb is interpreted as the recipient or beneficiary while the other NP is interpreted as the theme/patient.

A. *ndumí nyénínga /ni-a-é-ninga/ bhaka mún*

'the man gave the women a visitor i.e. the women got a visitor'.

B. *ndumí nyénínga /ni-a-é-ninga/ mún bhaka*

'the man gave the visitor the women i.e. the visitor got the women'.

Both post-verbal NPs can be subject of passive with normal *-w-*morphology.

C. *bhaka nibhéningwa /ni-bha-é-ning-w-a/ mún ní ndumî*

'the women were given the guest by the man (the women got the guest)' {passive of (A) with women as recipient}.

D. *mún nyiéníngywa /ni-a-é-ning-i-u-a/ bhaka ní ndumî*

'the visitor was given the women / women were handed over to the guest'.

{passive of (A) with guest as recipient and subject of applicativized passive}.

E. *mún nyiéníngwa /ni-a-é-ning-w-a/ bhaka ní ndumî*

'the visitor was given the women / women were handed over to the visitor'

{passive of (B) with guest as recipient}



## 6.2 Body Part Syntax (Inalienable Possession)

What is usually described as body part syntax involves structures in which two noun phrases in a 'part/whole' relation constitute the two objects of a usually monotransitive verb. The syntax nevertheless treats them as unequal before the law. The part NP may not precede the possessor NP.

*nyéghúmbwa inini wokô* (/ni-a-e-ghumbu-a/ in-subj-P3-cut-fv)  
 he cut thief arm

\**nyeghumbwa woko inini*  
 'He cut off the thief's arm' (Swahili: *alimkata mwizi mkono*)

The associative construction would be resorted to if the part has to come first and so effectively raising it to be sole object noun phrase.

*nyéghúmbwa woko kwa inini* he cut off the arm of the thief

The body part may not become subject of the passive construction.

*nyésuka waná fii* she braided the children's hair  
*waná mbwésukwa fii* the children had their hair braided  
 \**fii ntesukwa wana* \*the hair was braided the children

Such constructions extend beyond what can legitimately be regarded as 'part/whole' relations as illustrated below.

*nyékábá ngubhe ifumû* he struck the pig with a spear  
 (Swahili: *alimchoma nguruwe mkuki*)  
*ngubhe nyékabwa ifumû* the pig was struck with a spear (Swahili:  
*nguruwe alichomwa mkuki*)  
 \**ifumu lyekabwa ngubhe* the spear was struck onto the pig

### 6.3 Locative Licencing (Complements and Clitics)

A locative complement (*ghúkón* ‘in the kitchen’, *nungún* ‘in the pot’) may be licensed by the applicative extension and such a complement follows any existing object (*shónga* ‘food’).

*nyékora /ni-a-é-kora/ shónga* she cooked food

*nyékoria /ni-a-é-kor-i-a/ shónga ghúkón* she cooked food in the kitchen (applicative).

*nyékoria /ni-a-é-kor-i-a/ shónga nungún* she cooked food in the pot (applicative)

Locative complements, whether they have been introduced by the applicative or are originally subcategorized for in the argument structure of the verb, may be pronominalized by the locative enclitic *fó*.

<i>nyékoriafó /ni-a-é-kor-i-a+fó/</i>	she cooked in there
<i>nyékoriafó /ni-a-é-kor-i-a+fó/ shónga</i>	she cooked the food in there
<i>nyélalá fó /ni-a-é-lal-á+ fó/</i>	she lay there
<i>nyángafó /ni-a-é-anga-fó/</i>	she entered in there

When one of two post-verbal NPs is locative, the strictness of the ordering may be relaxed.

*nyámba mafughá mungo = nyámba mungo máfughâ*  
 ‘he smeared oil on the back/he smeared the back with oil’

Each of them may be marked on the verb in one fixed order; when the locative NP is marked, the locative clitic cannot appear.

*nyéuamba mafughâ*            he smeared it (the back) with oil  
*nyéyamba mungo*            he smeared it (oil) on the back.  
*nyéyambafo/ nye-u-ya-amba/ \*nye-ya-u-amba*    he smeared it  
there

#### 6.4 Locative Inversion

Locative complements may be promoted to subject position as the following examples show.

*nyalekoria /ni-a-le-kor-i-a/ shónga ghúkón*  
‘she cooked food in the kitchen’ (locative complement)

*ghúkón nkúlekóryo / nkúlekórywa shónga* (locative subject)  
*/ghúkó-ni ni-kú-le-kór-i-u-a/ shónga*  
kitchen-loc initial-17-P2-cook-appl-passive-fv food  
‘in the kitchen there was cooked food’

*nyalekoria /ni-a-le-kor-i-a/ shónga nungún*  
‘she cooked food in the pot’ (locative complement)

*nungún nkúlekóryo / nkúlekórywa shónga /ni-kú-le-kór-i-u-a/*  
‘in the pot there was cooked food’ (locative subject)

*kyen nkúwifó bhánda* (*/ni-ku-ifo/* initial-17subj- be there)  
‘at home there are people’

*kyen nkúsenye / nkúsenyi* (*/ni-ku-seny-ie/* initial-17subj-please-  
perfective) ‘at home it is pleasant’

*ndén nkwífó máru* (/nda-ni ni-ku-ifo maru/)  
 farm-loc initial-17subj-be there bananas  
 ‘in the farm there are bananas’

*ndén kúkéeéghaa*  
 (/nda-ni ni-ku-kee ighaa/ farm-loc initial-17subj-be smell)  
 ‘in the farm it stinks’

### 6.5 Direction Reversal in Applicatives

The applicative extension, besides licencing a new complement for the verb, to which it is affixed, may in some verbs have other non-valency related effects. One such effect is to reverse the direction of movement of a participant in the action described by the verb. The following constructions are illustrative.

*nyákeghisha bhanâ*  
 (/ni-á-ke-ghish-a/ initial-subj-prog-run-fv)  
 ‘he is running away from children’

*nyákeghishya bhanâ*  
 (/ni-á-ke-ghish-i-a/ initial-subj-prog-run-appl-fv)  
 ‘he is running to/after the children’

*nyákésama múrî*  
 (/ni-á-ké-sam-a/ initial-subj-prog-move-fv)  
 ‘he is moving from the city’

*nyákésamia nden*  
 (/ni-á-ké-sam-i-a/ initial-subj-prog-move-appl-fv)  
 ‘he is moving to the farm’.

Apparently such verbs subcategorize an omissible complement so that *ghisha* and *sama* are understood as running away or moving away from something/some place. Therefore, the transitivity affix introduces a complement that is clearly distinct from what is

already taken for granted and requires no special mechanism to licence it.

## 6.6 Applicative Semantics

Besides introducing beneficiary and recipient objects, the applicative has a wider range of the types of semantic roles associated with the complements it licences. These include instrument, locative, direction, and reason.

### *Applicative instruments*

*nyéikória shónga*

(/ni-a-é-i-kór-i-a/ initial-subj-P3-obj-cook-appl-fv)

‘he cooked food with it (pot)’

*nyélyíghémia ghemâ* (/ni-a-é-lyí-ghém-i-a/ initial-subj-P3-

obj-cultivate-appl-fv)

‘he cultivated the field with it (hoe)’

### *Applicative locative*

*nyálefiya sakén*

he died in the wilderness.

### *Applicative direction/goal*

*nyáleghishya sakén*

he ran to the wilderness

### *Applicative reason*

This is particularly available in interrogative contexts.

*nki kwákábyá mwánâ*

(/ni-ki ku-a-kab-i-a/ initial-what 2<sup>nd</sup> sg subj-P1-hit-appl-fv)

‘why have you beaten the child?’

*nshánkabia shónga*

(/ni-shi-a-n-kab-i-a/ initial-1<sup>st</sup> sg subj-P1-3<sup>rd</sup>

sg obj-hit-appl-fv)

I beat him for food

***Applicative non-objects***

The applicative suffix may be used together with the reflexive marker to effect a ‘subjective’ interpretation denoting empathy. In the example that follows, the person who is addressed is perhaps being shielded from some potential danger or disturbance.

*ku-kaa-y-ê/ku-ka-iky-ê* stay here (empathy)

(Swahili: *jikalie hapa*)

2<sup>nd</sup> sg subj-stay-app-fv

## 6.7 Coordination

Below we illustrate the conjoining of nouns, verbs, noun phrases and clauses using *na* or *aó*.

N+N *kité na bhanâ* the dog and the children

*kité aó mbúghú* a dog or a goat

V+V *ighemá na imbâ* cultivating and singing

NP + NP *kíte kinywa ná nguku shúu*  
a small dog and a black chicken

### ***Clauses***

*kité nkyélya /ni-ki-e-lya/ shónga neena/na ina / múgha*

the dog ate the food and drank some water.

## 6.8 Gender Conflict Resolution

When two noun phrases are coordinated in subject or object position, a conflict may arise regarding the form of their marking on the verb if they belong to different noun classes. The collective method of resolving mismatches in noun class concordial forms is to assign one of the nouns to the corresponding plural class of the

other noun while taking care not to downgrade human nouns to non-human classes. A better way is to avoid the coordination structure altogether.

*ikari na nghingi mbewa*

(/i-kari na n-ghingi ni-bha-e-wa/

5-car and 1-guard initial-2subj-tense-fall)

'the car and the guard fell' (assignment of car and guard to class 2 which is the plural for class 1)

*nghingi nyewa nekari*

(/n-ghingi ni-a-e-wa na ikari/

1-guard initial-1subj-tense-fall and 5-car)

'the guard fell with the car' (avoidance of the structure)

but not: \**ikari lyewa na nghingi* the car fell with the guard

*kitabú na sóri nfiléyâ | ntíléyâ*

(/7ki-tabu na 9ø-sori ni-8fi | 10ti-le-ya/

(7-book and 9-dress initial-8 | 10subj-tense-burn)

'the book and the dress got burned' (assignment of both nouns to class 8 or to class 10)

(Swahili: *kitabu na nguo viliungua*)

*kitabú nkíleya ná sóri / sóri ntíleya ná kitabú*

'the book got burned with the dress / the dress got burned with the book'

(avoidance of the coordinate NP structure)

## 6.9 Subordination

The various words that are used in subordination structures are illustrated by underlining in the examples given below.

*nyéghémá ghééfó ekyééywa* (gha ifo = let alone)  
*ni-a-e-ghema gha ifo a-e-keeywa*  
 'He cultivated although he was late'

*nyéghémá ando amwí nélyi ekyééywa*  
 'He cultivated although he was late'

*kimba kwakyééyvá nshighéghaa neewé fô*  
*kimba ku-a-kyeeyvá ni-shi-ghégh-aa na iwé fô*  
 since 2S-perf-be late initial-1<sup>st</sup> sg subj-talk-tense with you not  
 'Since you are late, I won't speak to you'

*elyi kushâ kushikóyâ*  
*elyi ku-shâ ku-shi-kóyâ*  
 when you-come you-me-find  
 'When you come, you will find me there'

*kikô kulesha kweshikóyâ*  
*kikô ku-le-sha ku-e-shi-kóyâ*  
 if 2<sup>nd</sup> sg subj-tense-come 2<sup>nd</sup> sg subj-tense-1<sup>st</sup> sg obj-find  
 'If you had come, you would have found me there'

## 6.10 Relativization

The relative structure has a floating high tone and does not include the initial element.

*ikorâ* to cook; *imáágha* to bite

Main clause  
*nndu nyákyekorâ /ni-á-ke-korâ/*  
 initial-3<sup>rd</sup> sg subj-Prog-cook  
 'a person is cooking'

Relative clause  
*nndu akyékórâ /a-ké-kórâ/*  
 3<sup>rd</sup> sg subj-Prog-cook  
 'a person who is cooking'

*nndu nyákórâ /ni-á-kór-áa/*  
 initial-3<sup>rd</sup> sg subj-cook-FUT

*nndu akóráa /a-kór-áa/*  
 3<sup>rd</sup> sg subj-cook-FUT





*mbi /ni-bhi/alyá shonga?*                      *nyén /ni-yén/*  
 ‘Who ate the food?’                                      ‘It’s me’.

*ng’umbe nkwi yéénda* or *nkwi ng’umbe yénda?*  
*ni-kwi i-a-enda* /initial-where 9subj-P1-go/  
 ‘Where did the cow go?’

*ng’umbe nyindii yéénda?*  
*ng’umbe ni-indii i-a-enda* /initial-when 9subj-P1-go/  
 ‘When did the cow go?’

*nkiki ilyí mwáná alya shónga*  
 what this child eat food  
 ‘Why has the child eaten the food?’                      (*nkiki ilyí* is a fixed  
 expression)

*mwaná nyághema índa | kikwi*                                      (*/ni-a-á-ghema/* initial 3<sup>rd</sup>)  
 sg subj-P1-cultivate)  
 child cultivate how  
 ‘How did the child cultivate?’

Interrogative clitic  
*nkwaghemiaki*                                      (*ni-ku-a-ghem-i-a+ki* initial-2<sup>nd</sup>)  
 sg subj-P1-cultivate-appl-fo+clitic)  
 ‘why did you cultivate?’

## 6.12 Negation Clitic

Negation is achieved by using *+fo* in non-relative constructions; the element must always be final in the construction, i.e. even after an object, if any.

*nndu nyakyékoráfo*  
*/ni-a-ke-kora+fo/* the person is not cooking  
 initial-3<sup>rd</sup> sg subj-Prog-cook+neg

*nndu nyakórááfo*  
*/ni-a-kór-áa+fo/* the person will not cook.  
 initial-3<sup>rd</sup> sg subj -cook-FUT+neg

*nndu nyekórááfo*  
*/ni-a-e-kór-á-fo/* the person did not cook.  
 initial-3<sup>rd</sup> sg subj -P3-cook+neg

*kité nkikyémáághafo*  
*/ni-ki-ke-máágha+fo/* the dog is not biting  
 initial-7subj-Prog-bite+neg

*kité nkimáághafo*  
*/ni-ki-máágh-aa+fo/* the dog will not bite  
 initial-7subj-bite-FUT+neg

*kité nkyemáághafo*  
*/ni-ki-e-máágha+fo/* the dog did not bite  
 initial-7subj-P3-bite+neg

*kité nkikyémáágha mwanáfo*  
*ni-ki-ké-máágha mw-aná+fo* the dog is not biting the child  
 initial-7subj-Prog-bite 1-child+neg

*kité nkimáághaa mwanáfo*  
*ni-ki-máágh-aa mw-aná+fo* the dog will not bite the child  
 initial-7subj-bite-FUT 1-child+neg

*kité nkyemáágha mwanáfo*  
*ni-ki-e-máágha mw-aná+fo* the dog did not bite the child  
 initial-7subj-P3-bite 1-child+neg.

### 6.13 Negation in Relative Constructions

The invariable form *alághá* (from *igha* desist) is used before the verb or the short form *lá* is prefixed before the tense morpheme.

Table 39: *alagha* and *la* Negation

<i>alagha</i>	<i>la</i>
<i>nndu alághá ákyékórâ</i> /á-ké-kórâ/ person neg+rel. 3 <sup>rd</sup> sg subj-prog-cook 'A person who is not cooking'	<i>nndu alákyékórâ</i> /a-lá-ké-kórâ/ person 3 <sup>rd</sup> sg subj-neg+rel-Prog-cook 'A person who is not cooking'
<i>nndu alághá á-kórâ</i> person neg+rel. 3 <sup>rd</sup> sg subj-cook 'A person who does not cook' (habitual)	<i>nndu a-lá-kórâ</i> person 3 <sup>rd</sup> sg subj-neg+rel-cook 'A person who does not cook' (habitual)'
<i>nndu alágha ákórâa</i> /á-kór-áa/ person neg+rel 3 <sup>rd</sup> sg subj-cook-FUT a person who will not cook	<i>nndu alákórâa</i> /a-lá-kór-áa/ person 3 <sup>rd</sup> sg subj-neg+rel-cook-FUT 'A person who will not cook'
<i>nndu alághá ékórâ</i> /a-é-kórâ/ person neg+rel 3 <sup>rd</sup> sg subj-P3-cook 'A person who did not cook'	<i>n.a.; alagha must be used in this tense</i>

Nevertheless, the verb *igha* may itself be regularly inflected and negated and normally comes with the locative *fo* clitic:

*nndu nyéghafo íkorâ* (*nndu ni-á-gha-fo í-korâ*)

'the person desisted from cooking'

*nndu égháfó íkorâ*

*n-ndu a-é-ghá-fó í-korâ*

person 3<sup>rd</sup> sg subj-P3-desist-loc inf-cook

'a person who desisted from cooking [absence of initial *ni-* marks relative]'

*nndu alághá égháfó íkorâ*

*n-ndu alághá a-é-ghá-fó í-korâ*

person neg+rel 3S-P3-desist-loc inf-cook  
 a person who did not desist from cooking

The form *alagha* does not vary irrespective of noun class:

**Table 40: *alagha* in Noun Classes**

<i>alagha</i>	<i>la</i>
<i>kite alághá kíkýmáágha</i> /kí-ké-máágha/ a dog that is not biting	<i>kite kílakyemáágha</i> /kí-la-ke-máágha/ 7subj-neg + rel-prog-bite a dog that is not biting
<i>mmba alághá ikyésámbúwa</i> /i-ké-sámbú-w-a/ 'a house that is not being demolished'	<i>mmba ilakyésámbú-w-a</i> /i-la-kyé-sámbú-w-a/ /9subj-neg+rel-prog-demolish-pass-fv/ 'a house that is not being demolished'
<i>mmba alághá yésámbúwa</i> /i-é-sámbú-w-a/ house neg+rel. 9subj-P3-demolish-pass-fv 'a house that was not demolished'	not available

### 6.14 Double Negatives

In imperative constructions, the two forms of marking negation co-occur, with prefix *la* and clitic *fó*:

Person	Person-neg-cook-fv+neg	English	Swahili
1sg	<i>shi-lá-kor-é+fó</i>	I should not cook	<i>nisipike</i>
2sg	<i>ku-lá-kor-é-fô</i>	Don't cook	<i>usipike</i>
3sg	<i>a-lá-kor-é+fô</i>	He should not cook	<i>asipike</i>
1pl	<i>lu-lá-kor-é+fô</i>	We should not cook/Let's not cook	<i>tusipike</i>

Person	Person-neg- cook-fv+neg	English	Swahili
2pl	<i>mu-lá-kor-é+fô</i>	Don't cook	<i>msipike</i>
3pl	<i>wa-lá-kor-é+fô</i>	They should not cook	<i>wasipike</i>

### 6.15 Idioms and Ideophones

The following idiomatic expressions have a verb as the head.

Idiom	Meaning	Literal Gloss
<i>iutá nghwê</i>	shave	to remove the head
<i>ilalá shóóbhi</i>	be vigilant	to half sleep
<i>illya m'má</i>	take oath	to eat agreement
<i>iutá úsúghû</i>	deprive of rights	(idiomatic expression)
<i>imanyá nséngô</i>	cultivate new land	to cut virgin land

Ideophones are like idiomatic expressions in having fixed meanings associated with particular combinations of words. In addition, part of the expression attempts to capture the concept involved with a particular set of sounds.

<i>ighishá pyan</i>	to run swiftly
<i>iilá peru/pyan</i>	be very clean/extremely white
<i>ilá piti</i>	become very dark at nightfall
<i>-úú subhi</i>	very black
<i>-dodóru dábha/dán</i>	extremely red
<i>-bhírye púruru</i>	extremely ripe
<i>-úmu kán/dán</i>	extremely hard/dry/difficult
<i>-bhisí kashu</i>	extremely raw
<i>iwa bu!</i>	to fall down with a thud
<i>imágha ng'ashu</i>	to bite...
<i>imira kiti</i>	to swallow...

<i>imalálya sau</i>	to keep dead silence
<i>isalála shu</i>	to stand upright
<i>yooroka shumu</i>	to be extremely straight
<i>ilúá tushu</i>	to uproot...
<i>ishúra shabu</i>	to be full to the brim
<i>ilema fushu</i>	to completely deny
<i>tasuka tasu</i>	to burst severely
<i>waa fuku</i>	kill completely
<i>ighumbwa taba</i>	to sever completely

## **Bibliography**

- Atlasi ya Lugha za Tanzania*. 2009. Dar es Salaam: LOT Project, University of Dar es Salaam.
- Katekismo*, 1959. E.L.C.T. [Evangelical Lutheran Church of Tanzania]. Soni: Vuga Mission Press.
- Kitabu kya Fiibo*. 1957. E.L.C.T. [Evangelical Lutheran Church of Tanzania]. Soni: Vuga Mission Press.
- Kyaasa Kiiya*. 2000. Dodoma: Bible Society of Tanzania.
- Lusomi na Ireiya Kimashami*. 1999. A Transition Primer (Reader) with Bible Content to prepare Kimashami speakers to read their Kimashami Bible. Dodoma: Bible Society of Tanzania.
- Machang'u, Robert S. 1993. *Kindo kya Kando: Kitabu kya Wana kya Kichagga*. Morogoro.
- Makule, Alice O. 2003. *Asili ya Wachaga na Baadhi ya Koo Zao*. Dar es Salaam: Mradi wa Historia ya Wachaga wa Mkoa wa Kilimanjaro.
- Muzale, H. & J. Rugemalira. 2008. Researching and Documenting the Languages of Tanzania. *Language Documentation and Conservation*, vol.2:1.
- Phanuel, Benedictor. 2006. An analysis of the tense and aspect system in Kimachame. M.A. Dissertation. University of Dar es Salaam.
- Philippon, Gérard & Marie-Laure Montlahuc. 2003. Kilimanjaro Bantu. In Nurse & Philippon (eds). *The Bantu Languages*, London: Routledge pp. 475-501.
- Rugemalira, Josephat. 2008. *Kimashami Dictionary*. Dar es Salaam: University of Dar es Salaam, LOT Project.
- Wimmelbucker, Ludger. 2002. *Kilimanjaro – A Regional History: Vol. One - Production and Living Conditions c. 1800–1920*. Hamburg: Lit Verlag Munster.