

BADE/NGIZIM VOWELS AND SYLLABLE STRUCTURE\*

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Among the vowels of Bade and Ngizim, the short high vowels play a functional role different from the other vowels. Although word final *i* and *u* are full-fledged phonemes (non-predictable and contrastive), both the position of occurrence and the quality of the phonetic high vowels [i, ə, u] is predictable in medial position: the quality is determined by other segments in the environment; the position is determined by restrictions against certain groupings of consonants. Bade and Ngizim differ in one important respect in the placement of non-final short, high vowels, viz. through a change called PROTHESIS, original initial sequences of the type  $*C_1əC_2 \dots$  (still realized as such in Ngizim) are now realized as  $əC_1C_2 \dots$  in Bade if  $C_1C_2$  is not an impermissible sequence. This is true for all words with no more than two consonants, though the situation is somewhat more complicated in longer words; tone of the initial syllable is also seen to play a role. The permissible sequences of consonants, and as a consequence the environment for PROTHESIS, are discussed in the light of universal hierarchies of consonantal strength and principles of syllabification in conjunction with a restriction in Bade/Ngizim against two consonants occurring at a syllable margin.

1. Introduction

1.1. The languages. Bade and Ngizim are two closely related languages of the West Chadic branch of the Chadic family spoken in northeastern Nigeria.<sup>1</sup>

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<sup>1</sup>The most recent classification of Chadic languages [Newman 1977] divides the Chadic family into four major branches: West Chadic, spoken almost entirely in northeastern Nigeria; Biu-Mandara, spoken in northern Cameroon and adjacent areas of Nigeria and Chad; East Chadic, spoken in Western and central Chad; and Masa, spoken in Cameroon and Chad south of N'Djamena.

Ngizim is spoken in an area fanning out to the east from Potiskum. Bade is spoken north of Ngizim in an area from Gashua to the west and south. Bade and Ngizim are no longer in contact, but the migration of the Ngizims southward and the ultimate separation of the two language communities has taken place only in the last few hundred years.

Ngizim has virtually no dialect differentiation other than a few lexical differences among villages. Bade, on the other hand, has considerable differentiation at all linguistic levels (see Schuh [1977a] for many examples in the determiner system and associative noun phrases). The dialect used here is that of Gashua and adjacent villages. Although there are a number of phonological differences between this dialect and others, all dialects are virtually identical in the respects relevant to this study.

1.2. Scope of the present study. One of the main areas of interest in Bade and Ngizim phonology is the distribution of high vowels. In fact, high vowels in both languages function primarily as epenthetic vowels to break up impermissible consonant sequences. The paper begins with a summary of the vowel phonology of this group, concentrating on the distribution of high vowels.

Following this is a description of a phonological difference between Bade and Ngizim, which is discussed and illustrated in detail. Briefly stated, this difference is the following: under certain conditions, in an initial sequence  $C[V_{+high}]C$  Bade has dropped the vowel and added a prothetic high vowel to give a sequence  $[V_{+high}]CC$ , whereas Ngizim has not done this, e.g. Ngizim *gùzép* 'slave' but Bade *ùgzáf* 'slave'.

Finally, certain universal principles of syllabification which have been proposed are cited as bearing on the distribution patterns of Bade and Ngizim high vowels.

## 2. Bade/Ngizim Vowels

2.1. Vowel nuclei. The simple vowel nuclei of Bade and Ngizim are given in (1):

(1)

Double  
[+I]  
throu  
short  
rare  
given

(2)

N  
Ngizi  
detai  
(< \*C

for 1  
The f  
j ar  
zh a  
palet  
glott  
later  
not s

3  
vival  
one h  
nouns  
Ngizi  
trast  
Ngizi

im. Bade	(1)	i, ii	[e]	u, uu
i south.				
she		ee		oo
je com-				a, aa

Doubled vowels represent long vowels; the symbol *a* represents phonetic [ɛ] and hence is one of the set of high vowels.

The mid vowels are of secondary origin, having entered the languages through borrowing and monophthongization of diphthongs. Long *aa* and short *a* contrast in all environments, though long *aa* is extremely rare in word final position. Some minimal or near minimal pairs are given in (2):<sup>2</sup>

(2)	aa		a		
	Ngizim	Bade	Ngizim	Bade	
	daasú	daasú	'pour'	daasú	'finish'
	gàadú	kàadú	'bite'	gàdú	'break'
	àadáu	àadáu	'south'	àdán	'crying'

No high vowels can be reconstructed word initial for proto-Bade/Ngizim,<sup>3</sup> though in Bade the sound change mentioned above and discussed in detail below has produced initial [uu] (< \*wu), [ii] (< \*yi), [uɔ] (< \*Cu), and [eɔ] (< \*Ce).

<sup>2</sup>Tone marks are acute accent (') for high tone, grave accent (") for low, circumflex accent (^) for falling, and tick (') for downstep. The following transcription conventions should also be noted: c and j are voiceless and voiced palatal affricates respectively; sh and zh are voiceless and voiced palatal fricatives respectively; ny is a palatal nasal, analyzed as a unit phoneme, not a sequence; 'y' is a glottalized palatal semivowel; t̪ and j̪ are voiceless and voiced lateral fricatives respectively; kw and gw are labialized velar stops, not stop-semivowel sequences.

<sup>3</sup>This statement is true for nouns. There may be one or two survivals of initial \*i in verbs (see Table, fn. 15). If we move one historical step back, we must reconstruct initial \*i in both nouns and verbs. Duwai, the most closely related language to Bade and Ngizim, has initial i, which is phonetically [ii] but does not contrast with [] in this position, e.g. iídà 'eye' (cf. Bade and Ngizim dà), iijé 'dog' (cf. Bade and Ngizim jà).

Medially the long high vowels, ii and uu contrast with each other and with other vowels. There are no minimal ii/uu pairs, but there is no way to predict which vowel will be used on the basis of phonological environment. As we will see below, the short high vowels i/u/a are not in contrast medially--the quality of a medial short high vowel is phonologically predictable. Some minimal or near minimal sets showing medial contrast between ii and uu and between these vowels and the medial short high vowel(s) are given in (3):

(3)	long high vowels	short high vowels
	zìidú sìidú 'slaughter'	zèdú èzdú 'six'
	víidà fíidà 'hare'	vèdà èvdà 'open space'
	dúuzhì dúuzì 'owl'	dèzhí dàzí 'vein'
	rùunú lùunú 'spread to dry'	rnú rnú (< *rènú) 'fornicate'

Long high vowels do not occur underlyingly in word final position. There is, however, a monophthongization rule shared by Bade and Ngizim which changes the word final diphthong -ai to [i:] and -au to [u:] when the word occurs in the middle of a phrase, e.g.

(4)	(Ng) rákài	{	rákii bái	{	'bed'	rákii bái	{	'it's not a bed'
	(Ba) lákài	{	lákii bái	{		lákii bái	{	
	(Ng and Ba) sésàu		sésúu bái			sésúu bái		'it's not a hut'

The short high vowels i and u are in contrast with each other and with a and aa (also with the mid vowels ee and oo) in word final position. There are no lexical minimal pairs distinguished only by final i or u,<sup>4</sup> but choice of i, u, or the absence of a vowel cannot be predicted phonologically. The vowel [ə] does not occur underlyingly word final, but word final /i/ and /u/ change to [ə] medially in a phrase under the appropriate conditions (see below).

<sup>4</sup> Minimal sets can be constructed in the verbal system where different verb forms are marked by final vowel changes, among other things, e.g. Ngizim jà kérú 'we stole', jà kérí 'that we steal', jà kérá 'we should steal'.

(5)

2.2. 2  
high vo  
determi  
(6)

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followi  
jèjém [  
to be s  
followi  
precedi  
as when  
a a is  
Ng wédi  
\*i

ch but of owels t inimal ese	(5)	Final i	Final u
		nyàmí nyàmí 'fat'	kúnámú kýnámú 'fan palm'
		màrlí mèrlí 'beard'	áatáró átáló 'ridgerow'
		zàyí zàyí 'rope'	kwàyú ádítú (Ng) 'jujube'
		gázébí kóoséví 'hawk'	(Ba) 'gourd'
		dúkshí dúksí 'heavy'	gàbáabù dáebù (Ng) 'billy-goat'
		vàjí àvjí 'monkey'	(Ba) 'middle'
		zèdù àzdù	(Ng) 'shea-nut'
			(Ba) type of weed
1 space!			'six'
i		Final C	
iccate'		kwàm kwàm 'bull'	
tion.		zègér àzgér 'foot'	
gizim		gùzál ùgzál 'pubic hair'	
		[gùzáy] [ùgzáy]	
		gùzép ùgzép 'slave'	
		àrás àlás 'sorrel'	
		bébét pébét 'ashes'	

2.2. Quality of medial short high vowels. The quality of medial short high vowels is determined by phonological environment. The rule for determining the choice of [i], [u], or [ə] is given in (6).<sup>5</sup>

(6)	$\begin{bmatrix} V \\ +high \\ -long \end{bmatrix}$	$\rightarrow$	$\begin{cases} i & \text{in the env. of } y \\ u & \text{in the env. of } w \text{ or labialized velar} \\ \epsilon & \text{elsewhere} \end{cases}$
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Conditions: (1) Vowel does not precede pause.

(2) When the env. for both [i] and [u] are met, the env. following the vowel overrides the env. preceding the vowel.

<sup>5</sup>Phonetically a wider range of vowels than these exists. Thus, following palatals the vowel tends to be somewhat fronted, e.g. Ng jéjém [jíjém] 'thorn', and following labial fricatives the vowel tends to be somewhat rounded, e.g. Ng vérú [vérú] 'go out'. Also, the following environment generally exercises a stronger influence than preceding. Thus, the vowel following w is not as strongly rounded as when preceding w, and in my field notes I have often transcribed e instead of a u following w but never preceding w, e.g. Ng wédu or wúdu 'cut', but only Ng fúwú 'get down', never

The conditioning environments for [i] and [u] may either precede or follow the vowel. In the transcription used here it is the vowel u which marks a velar as labialized (there are no labialized consonants at other points of articulation). Thus, in Ngizim the word for 'stomach' is underlyingly /kʷənú/ and 'heavy' is underlyingly /dèkʷš/, where *ə* is used as a cover symbol for "short high vowel". Some examples of each of the medial short high vowels are given in (7). Many more examples can be seen above and below.

(7)	[i]	[u]	
	gáyím gáyím 'cat'	wùrwùrú wùdwùdú 'sprinkle on'	
	fílífíyú fílífíyú 'whistle'	fùwàk fùwàk 'horn'	
		kúnú kúnú 'stomach'	
[ə]		gùmcí gùmcí 'chin'	
bébét pébét 'ashes'	dùkshí dùksí 'heavy'		
dédém tédém 'blood'			
kérú kélú 'steal'			

As condition (2) states, if the environments for both [i] and [u] are present, the following environment takes precedence.

(8)	wíyák	wíyák	'vulva'
	dáakwíyà	ákwíyà	'deaf person'
	yúwán	(no exs.) <sup>6</sup>	'sleeping'

Rule (6) is not only a statement of phonetic constraints on high vowels within words but is also a productive phonological rule applying to any word final high vowel when it occurs in the middle of a phrase.

(9)	(Ng and Ba)	/áčí báí/	---> [áčé báí]      'it's not him'	
		/áčú báí/	---> [áčé báí]      'it's not her'	
		/áčú yáayé/	---> [áčí yáayé]      'even her'	
	(Ng)	/gùmcí-w/	---> [gùmcúú] }	'the chin'
	(Ba)	/gùmcí-wú/	---> [gùmcúwú] }	

<sup>6</sup>For reasons given below, in Bade there could never be a high vowel before y with a w or velar following.

2.3. Position of medial short high vowels. Except for word final /u/ and /ə/, short high vowels appear only where they are needed to break up impermissible consonant sequences. A major consonant sequence restriction can be summarized by the observation that "the maximum syllable is CVC". This restriction rules out the sequences CCC, #CC, and CC#. Numerous examples have already been seen where a high vowel appears in #C\_C to break up a word initial cluster and in C\_C# to break up a word final cluster. It is difficult to find examples within a word where a high vowel which breaks up a CCC sequence cannot be explained by some other sequential restriction as well. However, as with rule (6), this restriction is a productive phonological rule as well as a restriction on word formation. An example of an underlying CCC sequence broken up by a high vowel is seen in Noun + Noun associative constructions. These constructions have the form  $N_1-k N_2$ . If the first noun ( $N_1$ ) ends in a consonant and the second ( $N_2$ ) begins in a consonant, a three consonant sequence would result. This sequence is broken up by inserting /ə/ after the associative morpheme /k/ (see 10a). Note that no /ə/ is inserted if  $N_1$  ends in a vowel or  $N_2$  begins in a vowel (see 10b).

(10) a. (Ng) /yàd<sup>2</sup>k tìà/ --> [yàd-gé tìà]      (Ba) /'yàt<sup>2</sup>k tìà/ --> ['yàt-ké tìà] } 'hair of a cow'  
b. (Ng) [tèká-k tìà]      (Ba) [tèká-k tìá] } 'body of a cow'  
(Ng) [ám-g ákà]      (Ba) [ám-k ákà] } 'hot water' (lit: 'water of fire!')

Use of high vowels to break up word initial and word final sequences is also a productive rule which comes into play when morphemes are combined. Example (11a) illustrates use of a high vowel to break up an impermissible CC# sequence, but the non-appearance of this vowel where the consonant sequence is not word final. Example (11b) illustrates the same thing for a word initial sequence. In this position examples are found only in Ngizim since Bade would have #eCC rather than #CeC (see below).

(11) a. (Ng) *rén* 'fornication' but *ná-rnú*  
 (Ba) *àréñ* *ná-rnú* } 'I fornicated'  
 where the consonants of the root are *r-n*

b. (Ng) *tèfú* 'he entered' but *ná-tfú* 'I entered'  
*vègú* 'he fell' but *ná-vgú* 'I fell'  
 where the consonants of the roots are *t-f* and *v-g* respectively

Besides these restrictions on the number of consonants which may appear in a sequence, there are also restrictions on which consonants may appear in a sequence. The most important restriction, shared by both languages, is the impermissibility of the sequence obstruent + sonorant consonant. Obstruents include all oral stops, fricatives, and affricates; sonorants include all nasals, liquids, and semivowels. Some examples of words containing obstruent + sonorant sequences separated by short high vowels are given in (12).

(12) Ngizim	Bade		A
ézhémák	ázmák	'Acacia seyal'	obstr
zàpènú	sàbènú	'churn'	but no
kákérà	kákélà	'load'	*azmak , etc.
kàtèrú	ùkçérú	'hop'	*zapnu , etc.
sésuwà	tésuwà	'stalk'	*kakra , etc.
vàvìyú	bàbìyú	'singe'	*katru , etc.
			*sëswa , etc.
			*vavyu , etc.

A more detailed discussion of sequence restrictions shared by both languages is given in section 3.2.

There are a few differences between the languages in restrictions. Bade, but not Ngizim, has relaxed the restriction against obstruent + sonorant if the obstruent is /g/. Note in (13), however, that when /g/ has been allowed to abut with a following sonorant it has also undergone phonetic changes. We will return to this point in sections 3.2 and 4.

(13) Ngizim	Bade		
zègèmú	sègmú	[sègmú]	'plant'
mágérát	mègrà	[mèyrà]	(Ng) 'visitor'
			(Ba) 'grey-headed sparrow'
mégiyá	mègyá	[mèyyá]	'ratel'

Bade, but not Ngizim, freely allows syllables of the shape CVVC (a long vowel in a closed syllable).<sup>7</sup> In Ngizim, the second C belongs to a separate syllable with a short high vowel nucleus. I have found no cognates where Bade has  $C_1VVC_2C_3 \dots$  and Ngizim has  $C_1VVC_2aC_3 \dots$ , but the examples in (14) will illustrate the situation in the two languages.

(14) (Ba)	tàagdú	'step on'	cf. Ng	tákdu
	báangàl	'babbon'	cf. Ng	bángàl
(Ng)	gáagézhin	'remainder'	but no	*gaagzhin, etc.
	màadébér	'corpulence'		*maadber, etc.

A restriction found in Bade but not in Ngizim prohibits the sequence obstruent + glottalized consonant.<sup>8</sup>

(15) (Ng)	rèpdú			
(Ba)	lápèdú	'boil'		

I should stress here that the epenthetic function of vowels discussed

<sup>7</sup> Ngizim does have a few words of the shape  $C_1aaC_2C_3 \dots$ . They are all verbs and they usually have a verbal noun of the form  $C_1aaC_2aC_3$ , e.g. kàaktlú 'measure' with verbal noun kàakatl, nàanmú 'beat (drum)' with verbal noun nàanám. This restriction seems to be lexically specific word medial.

<sup>8</sup> This restriction seems to be lexically specific word medial. Alongside the word 'boil' given in (15) is sàpdú 'pound grain to remove bran' in both languages. There are also several other examples, mostly where the first obstruent is a velar, in which both languages allow a consonant sequence, e.g. ákda 'desert date' in both languages and the verb 'step on' in (14). The restriction in Bade against obstruent + glottalized consonant sequences is absolute where these are the first two consonants of a word, as will be shown in 3.2.

in this section applies only to short high vowels. Other vowels can occur freely in any position, as illustrated in (16).

(16) (Ng and Ba) pétè 'the bush' vs. áptè 'flour'  
 (Ng) mèbú 'large calabash' vs. ámbài 'locust bean cakes'  
 (Ba) mazám 'blacksmith' vs. ámzèm 'groaning'

In these examples,  $\text{ə}$  appears between pairs of consonants which can freely abut ( $p + t$ ,  $m + b$ ,  $m + z$ ) or before these pairs of consonants. This freedom of occurrence is not possible for short high vowels, e.g. corresponding to the first set of words in (16), \*əpta would be impossible in Ngizim and \*pəta would be impossible in Bade.

### 3. Bade and Ngizim Word Initial Sequences

3.1. Bade PROTHESIS. A conspicuous sound change, or better, a change in word structure, has affected Bade but not Ngizim. This change can be formulated as in (17):

#### (17) Bade PROTHESIS

proto-Bade-Ngizim words of the structure  $\#C_1əC_2 \dots$

in Bade acquire the structure  $*əC_1C_2 \dots$

where  $\text{ə}$  = any short high vowel and  $C_1C_2$  form a permissible consonant sequence in Bade.

It would be tempting to formulate this change as  $\#C_1əC_2 \dots > \#əC_1C_2 \dots$ , but this formulation makes the change look like simple metathesis of  $*C_1$  and  $*\text{ə}$ . By using the formulation in (17) and by calling this change PROTHESIS, my intention is to stress that viewing this change as a metathesis is not the correct way to conceptualize what has taken place, viz. a change in Bade in the way impermissible word initial segment sequences are avoided. The change can perhaps be viewed as involving two discrete but simultaneous steps: (i) deletion of  $*\text{ə}$  between  $*C_1$  and  $*C_2$  and (ii) the consequent addition of prosthetic  $\text{ə}$  (what Lukas [1967/68] calls a *Stutzvokal*) to avoid the sequence  $\#C_1C_2 \dots$ . Or, as an alternative, more abstract analysis, we could say that proto-Bade-Ngizim (and modern Ngizim) inserted  $\text{ə}$  between  $C_1$  and  $C_2$  whereas Bade now inserts  $\text{ə}$  before  $C_1C_2$ . There are cases of true metathesis in Bade, e.g. Bade péksə.

Ngizim  
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3.2. C  
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vowel ar-

(18) a.

b.

c.

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e.

Exar-  
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> #<sub>a</sub>C<sub>1</sub>C<sub>2</sub> ...,  
of \*C<sub>1</sub>  
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\*C<sub>2</sub> and  
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Ngizim féskà 'face' (< \*féskà); Bade ègvú, Ngizim vègú 'fall down' (< \*vègú). Cases such as these differ from PROTHESIS in that no principles of organization of the phonology of Bade have been changed--two segments have merely switched place in certain lexical items. In the case of PROTHESIS, there is a change in the phonological structure of Bade--conditions or rules for the positioning of short high vowels have changed.

3.2. Comparison of Bade and Ngizim initial sequences. The environments where PROTHESIS has not applied in Bade are the same as those word medial environments where a vowel is required to prevent an impermissible consonant sequence. In (18) I have a more detailed listing of the impermissible consonant sequences of Bade (and Ngizim) than was presented in 2.3. These are the sequences which must be separated by a vowel and therefore have not permitted PROTHESIS to apply in Bade.

(18) a. identical consonants: may not come together to form geminates; this includes cases where C<sub>1</sub> ≠ C<sub>2</sub> only with respect to voicing

b. obst + obst: impermissible if (i) C<sub>1</sub> is a stop and C<sub>2</sub> is a homorganic fricative  
(ii) C<sub>2</sub> is glottalized (in Bade only, though Bade does allow /g/ + glottalized)

c. obst + son: all other obst + obst sequences are permissible

d. son + obst: none permissible (except in Bade where C<sub>1</sub> = /g/)

e. son + son: all possible with the following qualifications  
(i) of nasals, only /m/ can disagree in point of articulation with C<sub>2</sub>  
(ii) sporadic cases of m followed by s/z require epenthetic ə

f. son + son: impermissible if C<sub>1</sub> is n and C<sub>2</sub> is a semivowel  
all others permissible, with some variation where C<sub>1</sub> is m or where both C<sub>1</sub> and C<sub>2</sub> are nasals

Examples of all the possible sequences illustrating PROTHESIS or absence of PROTHESIS are given in Table 1. Discussion of (18) and Table 1 continues on page 266. Footnotes to Table 1 are on p. 265.

Table 1. Examples of PROTHESIS or absence of PROTHESIS in Bade

The left-hand word is from Ngizim, the right-hand word from Bade. Unless otherwise stated, the words are cognates with identical meaning. A notation such as (\*bəd ...) means no words containing that sequence were found. Unless otherwise indicated, lines marked "no examples" probably represent accidental gaps. See the end of the Table for footnotes.

OBSTRUENT SEQUENCES		Sequence possible		Sequence impossible	
Stop + Stop		Ngizim	Bade	Ngizim	Bade
lab + lab		pətú	əptəkú	(Ng) 'pull out' (Ba) 'be able'	bəbət pəbət 'ashes'
lab + alv		(*bəd ...)	əbdú	'ask'	(Ng) 'far' (Ba) 'toss up'
alv + vel		dəbú	ədbú <sup>9</sup>	no examples	---
alv + lab				'establish'	dəbú dədém dədém 'water animals'
alv + alv		təká	ət̪kwá <sup>9</sup>	'body'	tádám 'blood'
alv + vel		dəgá <sup>9</sup>	ədgá <sup>9</sup>	'arrow'	
		dəkáu	ədkwái <sup>9</sup>	(Ng) 'exceed'	
vel + lab		gílbántú	əgbántú	(Ba) 'metal'	
				'swell up'	
					gúbú < *úgbú
					'moisten'
					(*kəb ...)
					kúbú 'close'

vel + lab	gùbèntú	ògbèntú
vel + alv	gùbèntú	ògbèntú

vel + alv	kùtú	òktú	< *ògòtú	òkòtú	(*kèf . . .)	kùfú	'close'
	gùdú	ògòdú	(Ng)	'wash w.o. soap'			
	gòjí	ògòjí	(Ba)	'take'			
	(*gæf . . .)	òudá	'gourd'				
		< *ògòdá	'thirst'				
vel + vel					kòdèn	kàdèn	(Ng) 'one'
						kúku	(Ba) 'exceed'
						kúkwáu	'baobab'
<u>Stop + Fricative</u>							
lab + lab	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
lab + alv	pòsú	òpsú	—	—	—	—	—
				no examples	—	—	—
				(Ng)	'be worn out'	—	—
				(Ba)	'bathe'	—	—
							—
lab + vel	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
alv + lab	tòfú	òtfú	—	—	—	—	—
				no examples	—	—	—
				(Ba)	'enter'	—	—
							—
alv + alv	dàvíd	òdvòdá	—	—	—	—	—
				no examples	—	—	—
alv + vel <sup>10</sup>	—	—	—	—	—	dàzhí	dàzf
vel + lab	gùvárú	ògvárlákáu	—	—	—	—	—
vel + alv	kùtlái	òktlái	—	—	—	—	—
				'Acacia nilotica'	—	—	—
				'children'	—	—	—
				'Nile monitor'	—	—	—
vel + vel <sup>10</sup>	—	—	—	no examples	—	—	—

Sequence possible		Sequence impossible	
Ngizim	Bade	Ngizim	Bade
<u>Fricative + Stop</u>			
lab + lab	- - - - -	- - - - -	no examples - - - - -
lab + alv	fèták	fètú	(Ng) 'hoof' (Ba) 'postpone'
	vèjí	èvјí	'monkey'
			fèdú
lab + vel	vègú	(*əvg ...)	'fall'
	tìèpú	ètípú	'clap'
	zèbú	èzbú	(Ng) 'meet' (Ba) 'throw away'
			(j)àfèrú
sàtú	èstú	(Ng) 'sharpen to point' (Ba) 'burn'	tìèbáú
		'six'	
			zèdú
			jìèdú
			'dig'
			tìèkwàkùràk
	zègáu	èzgáu	ètìkwàakwàlák 'bark' 'know'
vel + lab, alv, vel'l	- - - - -	- - - - -	no examples - - - - -
<u>Fricative + Fricative</u>			
lab + lab	- - - - -	- - - - -	no examples - - - - -
lab + alv	- - - - -	- - - - -	(Ng) 'coax' (Ba) ' - - - - -'
lab + vel'l	- - - - -	- - - - -	no examples - - - - -
alv + lab	sèfú	èsfú	

PFLECIATIVE + FRICTIONALIVE

lab + lab

lab + alv

alv + lab

alv + alv

lab + lab

lab + alv

alv + lab

alv + alv

lab + lab

lab + alv

alv + lab

alv + alv

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lab + alv

alv + lab

alv + alv

lab + lab

lab + alv

alv + lab

alv + alv

(\*fəf ...)      téfáu      'breast'

no examples      -      -

no examples      -      -

no examples      -      -

no examples      -      -

(Ng) 'coax'

(Ba) 'sweep'

(zəbəb) yú      bəzvəvlyú      'wash grain'

(zəbəb) yú      bəzvəvlyú      'wash grain'

(\*jɪəjɪ...)      jɪəjɪá      'hurt'

OBSTRUENT + SONORANT<sup>12</sup>

obs + nas

(no ex. of lab + m)

bənú      bənú      'cook'

fənà      fənà      'calabash'

dəmán      dəmán      'rainy season'

zəmənú      zəmənú      'ostrich'

tɪənú      tɪənú      'blow nose'

kùnāmú      kùnāmú      'fan palm'

gòmá      ʊjómá      'thigh'

gənú      əjənú      'accept'

gənyí      əjənyí      'penis'

(but cf. Ba. gənà 'like, as')

bəlán      bəlán      'good'

fəlà      fəlà      'illness'

tərā      tərā      'moon'

tɪələm      tɪələm      'harvest season'

Sequence	possible	impossible
Angizim	Bad	

Obs. + E. A.

gə́rābú obs + s.v.	Γə́yɪábú	be startled'	kə́rū (but c.f. Ba būwá v̥yú v̥yá	steal' 'Jealousy' 'trip' (Ng) 'wash' (Ba) 'tiger nut' 'forget' (Ng) 'molar' (Ba) 'cupid' (Ng) 'grasp' (Ba) 'package'
			tūwáyú zh̥yám	tūwáyú z̥yám
			kúyú	kúyú
		(there are no examples of /g/ + semivowel word initial)		
m + lab	mbású	CONSONANT + OBSTRUENT <sup>1,3</sup> , 14	mbá!	(Ng) 'sit' (Ba) 'beer' 'provide for' (Ng) 'breathing' (Ba) 'grunt, groan' (Ng) 'tie up' (Ba) 'rool into balls' 'die' 'husband' 'grunt'
m + alv	m̥édu		m̥édu	
m + bnd	m̥ébndú		m̥ébndú	

(there are no examples of /g/ + semivowel word initial)

SONORANT + OBSTACULAR 13 • 14

mbású	mbáá /
ñpáatú	ñpáat

卷之三

(Ba)	mtú	mtú
die	nsék	nsék
husband	nzébónú	nzébónú
son	nzébónú	nzébónú

2

no examples

11

m + vel	ñtú	ñtú	'die'
n + lab	ñsòk	ñsòk	'husband'
n + alv	ñzòñmú	ñzòñmú	'grunt'
			(but cf. Ba ñazòñdá a type of fish)
m + vel	-	-	-
n + lab	-	-	-
n + alv	ndílwá	ñdá'	no examples
	ñtú	ñtú	no examples
	(*n(ə)s ...) hsí	ñtú	'people'
/n/ + vel	ogás	ñgás	'swallow'
	ñkàltú	ñkú	'hippopotamus'
r/l + vel	rápú	ñlpáatú	'spear'
			(Ng) 'care for'
r/l + lab	rápú	ñlpáatú	(Ba) 'fill'
			(Ng) 'close'
			(Ba) 'weave (mat)'
ròvú	òlvú	òlpíp'	'sip'
rògú	òlgú	òlpíp'	'move'
r/l + alv	òdú	òdú	'crawl'
	òjíú	òjíú	'moisten'
	òdú	òdáyú	(Ng) 'stop'
r/l + vel	rògú	òlgú	(Ba) 'melt'
y/w + lab <sup>15</sup>	ñlú	(*ñlv ...)	'migrate'
			'leave'
y/w + alv	wòtú	ñwtú	no w + lab
			'go to meet'
y/w + vel <sup>15</sup>	ñkáu	ñlkáu	no y + alv
			'see'
			no w + vel

## SONORANT + SONORANT

## Sequence possible

## Sequence impossible

Ngizim	Bade	Sequence impossible	
m + n	ménú	ménú	'await'
m + liq	mərāk	mərāk	'oil'
m + s.v.	m̄yā'	m̄yā'	'mouth'
n + m	nəm̄iyú	ñim̄iyú	'flood'
n + liq	-	-	< *ñənm̄iyú
n + s.v.	-	-	- no examples
r/l + m	rəm̄au	ñim̄au	nəm̄au
r/l + n	rñú	rñú	nñú
r/l + s.v.	rūwá!	ðlwlá! <sup>9</sup>	ñiyá!
y/w + nas	wñú	wñú	nñú
(*yín ...)	ñíná	ñíná	nñú
y/w + liq	wùrā	ñulá'	nñú
y/w + s.v.	yúwán	ñiwan	nñú
(*wuy ...)	ñuyú	ñuyú	nñú

(Ng) 'run away'  
(Ba) 'leave'

'fornicate'

'farming'

'Andropogon gayanus'

'spend the day'

'departure'

'no y/w + m'

'neck'

'no y + liq'

'sleeping'

'hang'

<sup>9</sup>There is a strong vocalic transition between the consonants but this seems not to be perceived by speakers. It is probably also present between consonants in *ñiwan* and *ñuyú*.

Y/W + s, v, ylwan  
(\*wuy ...) buyd

no Y + liq  
'sleeping'  
'hang'

<sup>9</sup>There is a strong vocalic transition between the consonants but this seems not to be perceived by speakers. It is probably also present between corresponding voiceless consonants but is not so obvious because it is voiceless. I did not investigate which sequences of consonants have the strongest such transitions or how systematic it was.

10. There are no velar fricatives in Ngizim or the Gashua dialect of Bade. In Gashua Bade, reconstructed \*x and \*y have changed to k and g; in Ngizim their fate is somewhat more complicated and need not concern us here. The Western and Southern dialects of Bade do preserve \*x and \*y, usually pronounced [h] and [f] respectively, though noticeable velar friction can still be heard with some speakers. These sounds are relatively infrequent so that there are lexical gaps for most potential sequences involving velar fricatives. Or stop + fricative sequences only the word dəhán 'land' is found (cf. Gashua dialect ədka). Absence of PROTHESIS suggests that h now functions as a sonorant though it was originally an obstruent.

11. See fn. 10. An example of h + d is hədawú 'dry up' (cf. Gashua Bade kədawú).

12. Western Bade has velar fricative + sonorant separated by high vowels (cf. Gashua Bade kènú), hèrú 'slave' (cf. Gashua kəlú), and huyú 'package' (cf. Gashua kuyú).

13. In Ngizim, word initial nasals followed by a homorganic voiced stop form a prenasalized stop; the nasals are syllabic before other consonants. In Bade, all word initial nasals followed by a consonant are syllabic.

14. Western Bade has sonorant + velar fricative sequences in ɿhwú 'fill' (cf. Gashua ɿkú) and ɿhú 'say' (no cognate in Gashua).

15. The examples cited here may not have been original \*yic ... at all. Initial \*l must be reconstructed for the proto-language (see fn. 3); these may be survivals of this vowel, which has been lost in Ba and Ng nouns.

16. Both Ngizim and Gashua Bade have alternative pronunciations ləmú. This results from a fairly common dissimilation of \*n > l when a nasal follows. Western Bade has only ɿmú for this word.

(18a) Geminate consonants are not found in native words in Bade or Ngizim except where they are separated by a morpheme boundary, e.g. Bade /wún-!í/ → [wú!í] 'his son', Ngizim /aasók-gú/ → [aaséggú] 'the market'. Abutting obstruents must agree in voicing, so this restriction prevents pébét 'ashes' from becoming \*epbet or \*ébbet, etc. Geminates do occur in a few borrowed words, e.g. Ng. kákkádí, Ba. kákkádó 'paper' from Kanuri.

(18b) (i) The only examples of stops followed by homorganic fricatives involve alveolars as in Bade dèzí 'vein', which does not become \*džézí; the absence of \*pəf ... , \*bəv ... and the absence of \*kəh ... , etc. in Western Bade (cf. fn. 10) may or may not be systematic gaps in the lexicon. (ii) The restriction in Bade against the sequence obstruent + glottalized consonant which seemed to be lexical in the middle of a word (cf. (15) and discussion) is nearly absolute in word initial position, i.e. there are words like Bade sədú 'wash' but no \*əsdú, etc. The only exception is /g/ + glottalized consonant. Here, PROTHESIS has applied, \*g has shifted to w, and the initial high vowel has assimilated to it by rule (6), ultimately giving initial long [uu], e.g. [ùubú] 'moisten' < \*gùbú.

Aside from the above restrictions, all obstruent sequences are possible with the proviso in the discussion of (18a) above that abutting obstruents must agree in voicing. The voice feature of obstruents in both languages is heavily determined by environmental factors. Not only is there the rule that abutting obstruents must agree in voice but also the ubiquitous rule of final devoicing, e.g. Ng. mágéráf, Ba. mágéláf 'visitor' with underlying final /v/ as evidenced in the plurals mágéràvávín and mágélàlvón respectively (Ngizim also has an alternative plural mágéràfcín where /v/ is devoiced preceding the voiceless c). Moreover, Ngizim has undergone a sound change assimilating an original voiceless obstruent to voiced if the next syllable begins in a voiced obstruent, e.g. Ng. gáazá 'chicken' (cf. Hausa káazá). Bade has undergone just the opposite dissimilation process of devoicing an original voiced obstruent if the next syllable begins

in a  
gàdáa  
sttrue  
PROTH  
not t  
(cf.  
(  
stric  
relax  
Ngizi  
about  
freel  
'star'  
Also,  
has a  
In  
first  
relax  
(19) t

17.  
syllal  
withou  
old' |  
produ  
Bade,  
follow

18.  
Bade,  
no voi  
come |  
e.g.

in a voiced obstruent, e.g. Ba kádúwá 'Grimm's duiker' (cf. Hausa gádáa).<sup>17</sup> Given the unstable nature of the voicing feature of obstruents in this language group, it is not surprising to find that PROTHESIS in Bade has applied with obstruent sequences, whether or not the consonants originally agreed in voicing, e.g. Ba ɛzdù 'six' (cf. Hausa shídà), ègdém 'crocodile' (cf. Hausa kádàa).

(18c) Both in the middle of a word and word initial, the restriction against the sequence obstruent + sonorant is absolute. The relaxation of this restriction for /g/ + sonorant in Bade (but not Ngizim) shows some dialect variation in Bade. Gashua Bade has gone about the furthest of any dialect here, but even Gashua Bade speakers freely allow pronunciations such as gémá 'thigh' and gélàbú 'startle' as alternatives to the pronunciations given in Table 1. Also, a few lexical items seem not to admit a variant where PROTHESIS has applied (see Table 1).

In sequences where obstruents are generally disallowed as the first of abutting consonants, then, the restriction in Bade has been relaxed only for /g/. But even here a phonetic [g] is not found. In (19) the effects of following consonants on /g/ are summarized:

(19)	/g/ → [w]	/	[+glottalized]
		[ŋ]	/ [+nasal]
		[ɣ]	/ <span style="border: 1px solid black; padding: 2px 10px;">C [+sonorant] -nasal</span>
		[g]	elsewhere

<sup>17</sup>These sound changes have affected obstruents only when the following syllable began in a voiced obstruent. Thus, Ngizim has kérú 'steal' without voicing of k (cf. Karekare čérú-) and Bade has gálú 'grow old' (cf. Kirfi gáaró 'old') without devoicing of g. There are no productive alternations resulting from these changes in Ngizim or Gashua Bade, but in part of the Western Bade area alternations such as the following are found: té-jiáwí 'seated' but dè-tiává 'pierced'.

<sup>18</sup>Though there are no words with original \*#giy ... > #egy ..., Bade /g/ → [ɣ] / \_ y was seen in māyyá 'ratel' in (13). I know of no words with the original sequence \*guw. Presumably these would become [gw] in Bade since labialized velars contrast with plain velars, e.g. gáyím 'cat', gwáyí 'Acacia albida'.

Since [ŋ] and [χ] are not phonemic, words with these phonetic consonants can still be analyzed as having underlying /g/. Variant pronunciations with [g] probably protect the underlying status of /g/ in such words. Note that there are some words without variant pronunciations where original \*g before liquids has become [w], causing merger with original \*w, e.g. àuléi 'hare'—cf. Western Bade ágùréñ.

(18d) Sonorant + obstruent sequences are all possible. Only the sequence m(s) + obstruent needs some comment. The phonemic nasals are /m, n, ny/, but only m may disagree in point of articulation with a following obstruent, e.g. mtú 'die' but no \*nb ..., \*nyt ..., etc. There are no words in either Bade or Ngizim with the sequence m + velar. The absence of an initial sequence \*mə + velar is probably an accidental gap (the word \*méglyá 'ratel' seen in (16) has such a sequence, but Bade has changed this to [méyyá], not \*engiya). The absence of such sequences within a word is apparently the result of an old assimilation process \*m > n / \_\_\_\_\_ velar, which is probably no longer productive. Evidence for this assimilation is found in the single word [dáŋkú] 'sew' in both languages (cf. Hausa dímkàa) with the Bade verbal noun dámák. The antiquity of the assimilation is seen from the reanalyzed Ngizim verbal noun, dánák, with /n/ substituted for \*/m/.

PROTHESIS has always applied in Bade when the consonant following m is any labial or when it is an alveolar stop. It has usually applied when the next consonant is an alveolar fricative, e.g. mžémú 'groan', but with a few lexical items it has not, e.g. mèzémá 'the fish *Gymnarchus niloticus*', mèzélfí 'day after tomorrow'.

(18e) With the sole exception of n + semivowel, all sonorant sequences are possible. There are no examples of original \*nuw ..., but words such as Bade káancínùwà 'merciful' suggest that \*nw is impossible as is the sequence n + y illustrated in Table 1. When C<sub>1</sub> is m there is some variability if the next consonant is n or a liquid (the only word with m semivowel is 'mouth', which has variants both with and without PROTHESIS in Bade). The only words I found with \*men ... are g  
the o  
with e  
varia  
Oz  
know c  
'flood  
and Ng  
reason  
lémú  
only w  
was a  
\*némáu  
may no  
gemin  
[wúll]  
In  
the ph  
found,  
veolar  
is cons  
stated  
initia  
places  
consone  
is need

19<sup>TV</sup>  
Bade/Ng  
as it i  
of the  
this p  
alveole  
Gashua  
changed  
with a  
with sy

are given in Table 1: Bade has undergone PROTHESIS in one but not the other. If  $C_1$  is  $m$  and  $C_2$  is a liquid, some words have variants with and without PROTHESIS ( $mlàk$  =  $màlák$  'oil'), some do not have a variant with PROTHESIS ( $mèl'$  'beard').

Original  $*n$  can abut with  $m$  but in the only examples that I know of in Gashua Bade,  $*n$  has dissimilated to  $[l]$ , viz.  $èlmìyú$  'flood' and  $kàlmú$  'beat drum' (cf. Bade verbal noun  $kànám$  =  $kàlám$  and Ngizim  $kànmú$ ). Even the word  $némú$  'build', where for some reason PROTHESIS has not applied, there is a variant pronunciation  $lémú$  (cf. fn. 16). Note that there are variants with  $[n]$  and  $[l]$  only where the phoneme in question was originally  $*n$ , not where it was a liquid (cf. Bade  $èlmáu$  =  $lémáu$  'run away' <  $*rémáu$ , but never  $*némáu$ /\* $ènmáu$ ). There are no examples of  $n$  + liquid. This may or may not be an accidental gap, but note that  $n$  + liquid would become a geminate liquid by a productive assimilation rule, e.g. Ba /wún- $l$ / → [wúlli] 'his son'.

In Bade when PROTHESIS has applied where  $C_1$  is a nasal or liquid, the phonetic result is not always  $ecc \dots$ . Rather, no initial  $e$  is found, nasals become syllabic, and liquids become syllabic before alveolars<sup>19</sup> (but not consonants at other points of articulation). This is consistent with the analysis of the change in Bade on p. 256, where I stated that the initial  $e$  was a prosthetic vowel added to avoid an initial consonant sequence, not the original  $*e$  which had switched places with the preceding consonant. In those cases where the initial consonant can itself constitute the full syllable, no prosthetic vowel is needed for this purpose.

<sup>19</sup>Two sound changes are relevant here. The original  $*/r/$  of proto-Bade/Ngizim (perhaps proto-Chadic) was phonetically a "retroflex flap" as it still is in Ngizim (see Ladefoged [1964] for a phonetic description of the same sound in Hausa). In Bade/Ngizim (and probably proto-Chadic) this phoneme is realized as an alveolar tap or trill when followed by alveolar non-continuants ( $f$ ,  $d$ ,  $d'$ ,  $n$ ) or lateral fricatives. In Gashua Bade the retroflex flap, but not the laveolar tap/trill has changed to  $l$ . Thus, while Bade has  $èlívú$  'sip' and Ngizim has [rèvú] with a retroflex flap initial, both languages have [fñúl] 'fornicate' with syllabic alveolar trill.

In Ngizim where  $C_1$  is a sonorant, original  $*C_1eC_2\dots$  has changed to give phonetic results similar to those in Bade. The cases in point can be summarized by the following ordered rules:

The main rule in (20) is part a. While the phonetic effects of (20a) in Ngizim are identical to those of Bade PROTHESIS, except for the non-syllabicity of nasals followed by homorganic voiced stops (cf. (20c)), I believe the process must be viewed in a different way. On p. 256 I argued that Bade had developed a new way to handle word initial sequences where the first two consonants could abut, viz. the consonants are allowed to abut and the impermissible initial cluster is avoided by adding a prosthetic vowel. There is no evidence for such a process in Ngizim. Here, a high vowel has simply been deleted in  $\#C_1eC_2$  where  $C_1$  could itself constitute a full syllable or, in the case of nasals followed by homorganic voiced stops, where it could combine with the following consonant to constitute a unit phoneme.

3.2.1. The influence of initial high tone. So far no mention of tone has been made with respect to Bade PROTHESIS. However, inspection of the illustrations in Table 1 will show that in all words where PROTHESIS has occurred, the word begins with low tone. A reasonable suggestion would be that the prosthetic vowel is automatically given low tone. This hypothesis is disconfirmed in two ways: first all the Ngizim cognates

have initial low tone, making it likely that the words should all be reconstructed with initial low tone; second, and more important, are Bade examples such as the following, where PROTHESIS has not applied:

it'	péjí	'bran'	cf.	èpcàsìlákáu	'the plant <i>Calotropis procera</i> '
eople'	tébá	'round cover'	cf.	èdbú	'establish'
pear'	dégà	'platform'	cf.	èdgà	'arrow'
rawl'	dúkwák	'udder'	cf.	èdkwáj	'iron'
ornicate'	kúvá	'chest'	cf.	ègvàalàkáu	' <i>Acacia nilotica</i> '
'spear'	kúzìyák	'swollen scrotum'	cf.	èksédu	'be familiar with'
op	súgùm	'planting hoe'	cf.	èzgèmú	'plant'
or	sévùwà	'bee'	cf.	èzvú	'join'
or the	gúmà	'ten'	cf.	[èngmá]	'thigh'
On	lévùwà	'chaff'	cf.	èlvú	'sip'
tial	wúdú	'knife'	cf.	ùutú	'go to meet'
onants	mésáakéu	'tamarind'	cf.	ùsák	'husband'
ed	wúnyà	'girl'	cf.	ùunú	'spend the day'
ess in	míyà	'100'	cf.	ùyá	'mouth'
e C <sub>1</sub>	wíyák	'vulva'	cf.	ùuyú	'hang'
he					
tone					
or					
PROTHESIS					
tion					
This					
ates					

The only relevant difference between the words in the left-hand column, where PROTHESIS has not applied, and those in the right-hand column, where it has, is the tone on the first syllable. A careful examination of the Bade nominal lexicon reveals that all words where PROTHESIS has applied have initial low tone and the large majority of those where PROTHESIS could potentially have applied but has not have initial high tone. I will return to the few exceptions to this statement in 3.2.3.

Nouns have fixed lexical tone so nouns can be categorically listed as having initial high or low tone. Underlying tone of verbs is not so obvious since tone is in part conditioned by verb aspect. However, it is a reconstructable feature of proto-Bade/Ngizim as well as a feature of the modern languages that verbs having \*C<sub>0</sub> as the initial syllable have a verbal noun with initial low tone. It is not at all clear that

the verbal noun should be taken as the underlying form of the verb, but all verbs of the original structure  $*C_1eC_2V \dots$  where  $C_1$  could abut with  $C_2$  have undergone PROTHESIS whereas verbs with other reconstructed syllabic structures have not (but see section 3.2.2). This restructuring of original  $*C_1eC_2V \dots$  verbs may have been reinforced by the low tone which verbs take in other aspects (perfective, second subjunctive).

The question which arises is why high tone has prevented PROTHESIS. A final explanation would require a more careful phonetic study than I was able to make, but in Schuh [1977b] I suggest that the extra amplitude associated with high tone was enough to prevent weakening of the  $e$  separating  $C_1$  and  $C_2$  to the point where it could be lost. Since the  $*C_1eC_2 \dots$  structure was thus maintained, no prothetic vowel was needed.

3.2.2. Syllabification with longer sequences. The discussion above has concentrated on examples where Ngizim has  $CeCV \dots$  and Bade has  $eCCV \dots$  with the remainder of the word being the same, other things being equal. There are words with three or more consonants,  $C_1C_2C_3 \dots$ , where both the sequence  $C_1C_2$  and the sequence  $C_2C_3$  are permissible. If  $C_2$  and  $C_3$  are allowed to abut, PROTHESIS would not be possible in Bade because PROTHESIS in a word of the structure  $C_1eC_2C_3 \dots$  would form an impermissible three consonant cluster. On the other hand, if  $C_1$  and  $C_2$  are allowed to abut through PROTHESIS,  $C_2$  and  $C_3$  will have to be separated by  $e$ , again to prevent a three consonant sequence, giving a word structure  $eC_1C_2eC_3 \dots$ . With a number of exceptions, Bade has chosen the latter strategy so that words of the form  $eCCeC \dots$  in Bade correspond to words of the form  $CeCC \dots$  in Ngizim.<sup>20</sup> In words where  $C_2$  and  $C_3$  cannot abut, Bade again has  $eCCeC \dots$  but Ngizim has  $CeCeC \dots$ ; where  $C_1$  and  $C_2$  cannot abut, both languages have  $CeCC \dots$ ; where  $C_1$  cannot abut with  $C_2$  nor  $C_2$  with  $C_3$ , both languages have  $CeCeC \dots$ . Examples of all these combinations are given in Table 2.

<sup>20</sup>This strategy of syllabification in Bade is consistent with the position into which  $e$  is inserted as illustrated in (10a), viz. between the second and third consonants rather than the first and second.

Table 2.	
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Table 2. Examples of syllabification in words with 3 or more consonants  
The left-hand column is Ngizim, the right-hand column is Bade.

C<sub>1</sub>, C<sub>2</sub>, and C<sub>3</sub> can all abut

dègzú	èdgèzú	(Ng) 'fuck'
pèstú	èbzèkú	(Ba) 'copulate (animals)'
		(Ng) 'split palm fronds'
		(Ba) 'today'
zùktú	èzgètú	'pierce'
rèptú	èlbètú	'open'
rèbgú	èlbègú	(Ng) 'destroy'
		(Ba) 'stove in'

C<sub>1</sub> and C<sub>2</sub> can abut, C<sub>2</sub> and C<sub>3</sub> cannot

(gùjìàjíú)	ùgjìàjíú	'wake up'
gùjìàjíìr	ùgjìàrgùjíér	(Ng) 'loose bark'
		(Ba) 'lower back'
sèkùnú	èskùnú	'increase'
mèzèmú	ùzèmú	'groan'
nèmìyú	èlmìyú	'flood'

C<sub>1</sub> and C<sub>2</sub> cannot abut, C<sub>2</sub> and C<sub>3</sub> can

tèrkú	tèlkú	'orphan'
vèrdá	vèrdá	'first ripe heads of millet'
bèntú	bèntú	(Ng) 'pass by'
sèmdú	sèmdú	(Ba) 'narrowly miss'
		'sneak up on'

Neither C<sub>1</sub> and C<sub>2</sub> nor C<sub>2</sub> and C<sub>3</sub> can abut

(jìàbàrú)	tìèbèlú	'split wood'
(wùdú)	kèdùwú	'dry up'
dèmìyú	----	'guard'
gùgùyú	----	'shake (blanket, etc.)'

High tone on the initial syllable has prevented  $C_1$  and  $C_2$  from coming together in Bade just as illustrated in (21) for words of the structure  $C_1\circ C_2V \dots$ . Thus, for words in Bade beginning with high tone, when  $C_2$  and  $C_3$  can abut they do; when they cannot abut they are separated by a high vowel, but always with a high vowel separating  $C_1$  and  $C_2$  as well. The examples in (22) are all from Bade.

(22) $C_2$ and $C_3$ can abut	$C_2$ and $C_3$ cannot abut
légdà 'ladle'	cékúdàk 'adze'
dúksù 'the weed <i>Mitracarpum scabrum</i> '	dúkúmàk 'tweezers'
ségvà 'spur-winged goose'	kútérú 'puppy'
gúskwàk 'worm'	métílám 'cobra'
kúzvú 'female slave'	wújélài 'trilling'
[lèyyá] 'small calabash'	sóvìyák 'elephant snout fish'
[lcégnà] 'molar'	lávùwà 'chaff'
wúrjí 'scorpion'	
wúrnàk 'burnt mush'	

There are very few words with four or more consecutive consonants where any two consecutive consonants could abut and where only short high vowels intervene. The only two examples, aside from a number of reduplicated forms (see section 3.2.3), that I have found in Bade are tèkpèsú 'begin' and mèskètú 'turn'. Words such as those in the first two sections of Table 2 suggest that the principle behind Bade PROTHESIS might be stated as in (23):

(23) "(1) If the first two consonants of a root form a permissible sequence and are not separated by a vowel other than a short high vowel, let those consonants abut and add prothetic *a*;  
 (2) if no vowel follows  $C_2$ , add epenthetic *a* and proceed by grouping the next two consonants if possible."

Such a principle would predict \*ètkèpsú and \*mèskètú. In fact, there are no words in the language which have been syllabified in this way

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where the proto-form was \*CəCCəC ... .<sup>21</sup> I have no formal explanation for why tèkpèsú has not become \*òtkèpsú, but if one considers the string of operations speakers would have had to go through to convert the former into the latter during the period when PROTHESIS was a change in progress, one can well imagine why this and the few other words like it would have resisted change. The change of words like \*lèptú 'open' to èlbètú also involves a fairly radical restructuring so it is not surprising that a fairly large proportion of the verbs and several nouns having three consonants where PROTHESIS and resyllabification could have taken place have also resisted the change, e.g. tèktlú 'trace designs' > \*òtkètlú, lèktú 'bring ruin' > \*èlkètú, dèbdú 'sell' > \*èdbèdú, [sègmú] 'plant' > \*òzgèmú (this word has become èzgèmú in Western Bade), kùdvú 'carry on back' > \*ògdèvú (but cf. verbal noun ùgdáf), tlèfcí 'worn out mat' > \*òtlifcí.<sup>22</sup>

In fact, there are very few words of three or more syllables which have undergone PROTHESIS even if it would have affected only the initial syllable. For long words the principle for deciding on clustering seems to be as in (24):

(24) "Find the first obligatory vowel, allow the two consonants preceding that vowel to abut if possible, and add a before them."

<sup>21</sup> The Bade words ùgjìèrgùjíér 'lower back' and ùgzèmtèm 'marabou stork' have the structure èCCəCCV ..., but in these words the reconstructed shape would be \*CəCəCCV ..., not \*CəCCəCV ... .

<sup>22</sup> I collected 24 verbs with three consonants, any two of which could abut and which were separated only by high vowels. Of these 24, 11 have the structure CəCCə, 13 have èCCəCə. An alternative explanation for these verbs not being restructured is a tonal one, viz. verbs with an initial syllable CVC must be reconstructed as having high tone verbal nouns. PROTHESIS seems to have taken place only sporadically with verbs other than those having low tone verbal nouns (see section 3.2.1). Among nouns I found only 8 clear examples with the relevant structural characteristics: èbzèkú 'today', ègzègà 'herd', dùksí 'heavy', kèské 'easy', tlèfcí 'worn out mat', mègbá 'monitor lizard', Emèyràl 'grey-headed sparrow', wùr'yí 'fart'. The word kèské is a Kanuri borrowing and borrowings have usually not undergone PROTHESIS (see sec-

"Obligatory vowel" here will be either a high vowel which separates two consonants which cannot abut or a "lexical" vowel, i.e. a mid or low vowel or a long high vowel, the position of which is not predictable. The principle in (24) almost works in general for the language but fails to predict the word shapes in the first two sections of Table 2, which encompass a fairly substantial number of words. In (25) are some examples of words syllabified according to (24). In column (a) the "obligatory vowel" follows  $C_2$  so that  $C_1$  and  $C_2$  abut and require the prosthetic  $\emptyset$ . In column (b), the "obligatory vowel" follows  $C_3$ . Even though  $C_1$  and  $C_2$  could potentially abut in these words, they do not since by principle (24), it is  $C_2$  and  $C_3$  which must abut, requiring that a  $\emptyset$  be inserted between  $C_1$  and  $C_2$ . The obligatory vowel is underlined.

(25) a. ms <u>è</u> sàawà	'the plant <i>Guiera senegalensis</i> '	b. m <u>è</u> dv <u>é</u> lif <u>ý</u> èk	'biting ant'
ùg <u>z</u> èmt <u>è</u> m	'marabou stork'	bug <u>z</u> èr <u>á</u>	'lying dead'
ègv <u>é</u> al <u>à</u> k <u>á</u> u	' <i>Acacia nilotica</i> '	kut <u>f</u> èl <u>ú</u>	'untie'
òzv <u>à</u> v <u>ì</u> y <u>ú</u>	'wash grain'	cèk <u>p</u> àp <u>ú</u>	'squat'
ègb <u>à</u> k <u>w</u> àt <u>ú</u>	'decay'	tlèk <u>p</u> àl <u>ú</u>	'go mad'
òg <u>è</u> r <u>à</u> m <u>è</u> t <u>ú</u>	'gallop'	tègb <u>à</u> b <u>è</u> d <u>ú</u>	'slosh out'

Note that principle (24) predicts tèkpèsú no better than (23). In this word the first obligatory vowel is the final one and (24) would thus give the incorrect \*ètkèpsú.

3.2.3. True exceptions and morphologically conditioned exceptions to PROTHESIS. The environments where Bade PROTHESIS has taken place are governed by three essential factors: (1) the initial syllable of the word must bear low tone; (2)  $C_1$  and  $C_2$  are not prevented from abutting by one of the factors listed in (18); (3) the principle of

tion 3.2.3); PROTHESIS in mègbá or [mèyrà] would give an initial m ... sequence, which otherwise does not exist in Bade or Ngizim. Not included among the nouns are those with initial syllabic nasal since in an undetermined number of words the nasal comes from syllabification of the nasal onset of a prenasalized consonant and hence is not a true example of a three consonantal word which has undergone PROTHESIS, e.g. ngúdì 'poor' > Kanuri ngúdì 'poor person'.

syllabification in (23) must not be overridden by that in (24), which applies mainly to words of three or more syllables. There are some true exceptions to PROTHESIS--words where no phonological or morphological factors predict that the word should not have undergone PROTHESIS, e.g. dègèriyà 'barb' (a type of fish), dèvàarák 'crownbird', gètél 'abandoned town site', gùtlémtíèm 'strong smell', dùgwú 'hear'. In the materials I collected, true exceptions such as these total only 10-15 as opposed to well over 200 words where PROTHESIS has applied. Besides these true exceptions, there are several classes of apparent exceptions which have resisted PROTHESIS for morphological or other reasons.

Relatively recent borrowed words have not been affected by PROTHESIS, e.g.

(26)	gùzèrì	'provisions'	<	Hausa	gùzúrì
	dèpú	'1000'	<	Kanuri	débú
	kèské	'easy'	<	Kanuri	kàské

Two types of verbal nouns have not been affected by PROTHESIS. One type, illustrated in (27a), derives from verbs of the shape CaCV. These verbal nouns end in -i and the underlying /a/ of the initial syllable assimilates in height to this -i to become e. The verbs 'die' and 'know' have irregular verbal nouns of a similar structure and have not been affected by PROTHESIS, though interestingly the verbs have been. The second type of verbal noun, illustrated in (27b), is derived from some verbs of the structure CVCCu. These verbal nouns have the structure CV<sub>1</sub>CV<sub>2</sub>C where V<sub>1</sub> is the vowel of the first syllable of the verb root and V<sub>2</sub> is sometimes the same as V<sub>1</sub>, sometimes a even where V<sub>1</sub> is e.

(27) a.	kètì	'returning'	<	kàtéu	'return'
	gèfì	'catching'	<	gèfáu	'catch'
	wùnì	'sending'	<	wànu	'send'
	mètú	'death'	<	mítú	'die'
	sègì	'knowledge'	<	èzgáu	'know'

b.	zègém	'planting'	<	tsènmúl	'plant'	
	tèkötí	'tracing'	<	tàktlú	'trace'	(29) N
	dègès	'copulation'	<	dègzú	'copulate'	a
	lùwáí (= èlwáí)	'Tarming'	<	lùuyú	'farm, hoe'	
	(but cf. ügdáf)	'child on back'	<	kùdvú	'carry on back')	This

Next, statives, which are derived from verbs with a prefix *de-*, have been preserved with initial *de-* with all verbs.

(27) c.	dèkwáada	'spoiled'	<	kwàadú	'spoilt'	
	dèbèkí	'roasted'	<	bèkú	'roast'	

Finally, reduplications have uniformly resisted restructuring to permit PROTHESIS.

(28)	dègdèkí	'perch (fish)'				
	dèvdèfá	'greasy'				
	cèkcèkú	'sift'				
	sùksùkú	'loosen'				
	kùzgùzú	'teach'				
	kètkètú	'scratch ground'				

To permit PROTHESIS these words would have to be totally restructured, e.g. \*èckèckú. Their failure to undergo PROTHESIS may be explained as well by resistance to this type of restructuring (cf. discussion of tèkpèsú, p. 275) as by their reduplicated structure.

#### 4. Bade/Ngizim and Universal Principles of Syllabification

The discussion to this point has concentrated on noting sequences of segments which are possible or impossible and designating how such sequential restrictions are maintained by placement of vowels. In this section I hope to show how a single statement for possible syllable types in Bade/Ngizim, combined with certain hierarchies of segments, can unify what has been basically a list of restrictions.

The general principle restricting possible Bade/Ngizim syllable types can be stated as in (29):

(29) No syllable in Bade or Ngizim may have more than one consonant at either margin, i.e. the maximum syllable is CVC.

This automatically accounts for the impermissible sequences CCC, #CC, and CC#. In order to account for the permissibility or impermissibility of the sequences listed in (18), we must refer to some proposed universal hierarchies of consonant types and principles of syllabification.

Observations on the organization of phonological segments dating at least to Saussure and supported by a variety of phenomena in a number of languages point to hierarchies of consonantal "strength" along certain parameters (some of the linguists most recently concerned with this issue are Foley, Vennemann, and Hooper--see Hooper [1976:195 ff.] for references and discussion). The most frequently noted hierarchy is along a parameter called "sonority" or "openness". Cross-cutting this hierarchy are two further hierarchies, given in (30b) and (30c):

(30) a. Sonority: stop > fricative > nasal > liquid > semivowel  
 b. Phonation type: voiceless > voiced > glottalized  
 c. Point of articulation: labial > alveolar > velar  
 (read > "is stronger than")

In addition to these hierarchies based on inherent characteristics of segments there are hierarchies of strength associated with position of a segment in a string of segments. Of interest here is the relatively greater strength of syllable initial position over syllable final position, evidenced by such phenomena as the frequency of neutralization or loss of syllable-final consonants as opposed to the relative infrequency or non-existence of such phenomena in syllable initial position. Positional strength correlates with inherent strength of segment types, so there is a rough hierarchy of suitability for initial and final positions in syllables [Hooper 1976:196]. Those segment types in descending order from left to right in (30a) are more "suitable" as syllable initial consonants, those ascending from right to left as

syllable final. This is seen, for example, from the fact that in many languages, syllable initial sequences such as *tr*, *zy*, etc. are possible, whereas *rt*, *yz* are rare if they exist at all. On the other hand, many languages allow only sonorant consonants in syllable final position, whereas few if any allow only obstruents in this position.

Languages show minor individual variations in the hierarchies in (30) and variations in the way syllabification is done, e.g. some languages have ambisyllabic consonants while others do not, in some languages morphological boundaries affect syllabification, etc. Nevertheless, there is a high degree of cross-language predictability of how strings of segments will be syllabified which follows from the observations above. The three following statements for Bade and Ngizim would have counterparts in many languages: (1) a weak segment can always come in direct sequence with a following strong one since syllabification will always be between the two segments, e.g. Ngizim *tèr=kú* 'orphan' because the sonorant *r* is weaker than the stop *k* (the symbol = represents syllable boundary); (2) a segment can usually come in direct sequence with one of relatively equal strength since syllabification will normally be between the two, e.g. Bade/ Ngizim *áp=tà* 'flour', but there is some variation with certain pairs of segments (see below); (3) a strong consonant cannot occur in direct sequence with a relatively weak one because syllabification would come at the beginning of the sequence, e.g. there could be no word *\*tèkru*. This would be syllabified *te=kru*, as such sequences invariably are in languages that allow them, producing an impermissible syllable of the shape CCV, disallowed in Bade/Ngizim by (29). Bade and Ngizim assure that such syllables will not occur by requiring that a vowel separate such sequences of consonants; words which have as their first two consonants a strong consonant followed by a weak one comprise the largest set of cases where PROTHESIS has not taken place in Bade.

With these observations in mind, let us consider in turn each of

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the types of segment sequences listed in (18b-e);<sup>23</sup>

- obstruent + obstruent: Nearly all such sequences are possible, indicating that the strength differential between obstruents is not great. A stop may even be followed by a non-homorganic fricative, e.g. Ba ðtfú 'enter'. But if the fricative is homorganic to the stop, i.e. if everything between the segments is equal except their relative position on the sonority hierarchy, then they cannot occur in sequence, e.g. Ba ððzí 'vein' (not \*ððzí). In (30b) glottalized stops are claimed to be weaker than non-glottalized. This accounts for the fact that PROTHESIS has never taken place in Bade words where the first two consonants are plain obstruent + glottalized stop. The relative weakness of glottalized stops is supported by independent evidence as well: Le Saout [1974] describes a variety of phenomena in some Kwa and Mande languages where glottalized sounds pattern with sonorants, not obstruents; in Hausa, glottalized k in some dialects is weakened to ? (classed as a glide in some frameworks), not to a corresponding obstruent; tonal phenomena in Bade are more easily described if glottalized sounds are classed with sonorants than with obstruents. Nonetheless, glottalized stops must not be radically weaker than plain obstruents since there is no restriction on other obstruents abutting with them in Ngizim, and word internal in Bade, the restriction is only sporadically observed (see (15) and discussion).

- obstruent + sonorant: Such sequences are impossible, except for /g/ + sonorant in Bade. Recall, however, that when this sequence occurs in Bade, /g/ changes to [w], [ŋ], or [ɣ] depending on what follows (see (19)), so that the phonetic form of the word will automatically be syllabified between /g/ and the next consonant.<sup>24</sup> The

<sup>23</sup>In (18a) sequences of identical consonants, i.e. geminate consonants, are excluded. This restriction is unrelated to questions of syllable structure. In the few words where geminates are found, syllabification is between the consonants.

<sup>24</sup>This is assuming that the sound symbolized ɣ is classed as a sonorant rather than an obstruent. This is reasonable, considering the phonetic facts. The ɣ is very lightly articulated, approaching [f].

question is why /g/, an obstruent, should be allowed to abut with sonorants in the first place. The answer seems to be that /g/ is virtually the weakest obstruent in Bade (being velar, it is at the weakest point of articulation, and being voiced it is the weakest velar, since there is no glottalized velar). It therefore approaches sonorants in the strength hierarchy and with the slight phonetic adjustments which are made it can be brought down to equal strength with sonorants, hence calling for a syllable boundary between it and the following sonorant rather than before it. This borderline status of /g/ on the strength hierarchy also provides an explanation for why some words in Bade show variant pronunciations, e.g. *h̄má* = *ḡmá* 'thigh', and others do not allow /g/ to abut with a sonorant at all, e.g. *ḡná* 'like, as', *ḡlú* 'jealously'. While the placement of syllable boundaries with most consonant sequences can be unequivocally determined, e.g. *=irV* but never *\*t=rV*, *b=g* but never *\*=bg*, the placement of syllable boundary with /g/ + sonorant is less firm. The result is that whether /g/ is allowed to abut with a following sonorant has been determined on a word by word basis.

- sonorant + obstruent: All such sequences are possible with sporadic lexical exceptions where *m* is followed by *s* or *z* (see below for discussion).

- sonorant + sonorant: Most such sequences are possible, but there is more variation here than with other types of sequences. This is especially true in the cases where one of the consonants is a nasal. If the first consonant is /n/ and it is followed by a nasal, it frequently dissimilates to *l*, in which case it may come in contact with a following nasal since liquids are weaker than nasals, e.g. *b̄imiyú* 'flood' < *\*b̄nmiyú*. However, /m/ never dissimilates and it is with /m/ as the first of the sequence that the most variation occurs. Nasals are ambivalent since by their oral closure they resemble obstruents, yet by their non-obstructed airflow they are sonorants. Because of this ambivalence we find variation in whether *m* may come in contact with *s* or *z* (i.e. fricatives, which fall immediately above nasals in

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strength) and with other sonorants (liquids, which fall immediately below nasals in strength). For specific examples, see above, p. 268.

In summary, we see that hierarchies of "strength" and principles of syllabification that have been proposed as possible universal features of language allow us to predict fairly accurately the types of consonants which may or may not occur in sequence in Bade and Ngizim, when combined with the statement of permissible syllable types given in (29). This means of predicting possible sequences of consonants in turn allows us to predict where the change termed PROTHESIS could occur in Bade.

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