# AN OUTLINE OF LULUBO PHONOLOGY\*

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This article outlines the phonology of Lulubo, a little known Central Sudanic language spoken in the southern Sudan. An account is given of the phonemic inventory (vowels, consonants, and tones), vowel harmony, syllable structure, special features of ideophones, and vowel elision.

## 1. Introduction

The Lulubo language is spoken by the Lulubo people inhabiting the area around the Lulubo Hills in the Eastern Equatoria Province of the Sudan. The Lulubo call themselves  $/\delta/\dot{u}b\delta/$  and their language  $/\delta/\dot{u}b\delta-t/$ , lit. 'Lulubomouth'. According to the latest census (from 1983) they number approximately eight thousand. The only data from the Lulubo language previously published are included in Tucker [1940] in the form of a word list (comprising about 500 items) and a few scattered grammatical observations.

Tucker [1940] and Tucker and Bryan [1956] classified Lulubo as a member of the Madi dialect cluster, Lulubo being its northernmost dialect. Certainly Lulubo belongs to the Moru-Madi group, which is a genetic unit within the Central Sudanic language family suggested by Greenberg [1966]. However, the Lulubo do not conceive of themselves as being Madi, and their main social contacts are with Eastern Nilotic speaking peoples (the Bari and the Lokoya) rath-

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er than with the Madi.

The present article deals with the phonology of Lulubo. An account is given of the phonemic inventory (vowels, consonants, and tones), the syllable structure, special features of ideophones, constraints applying across syllable boundaries (vowel harmony), and processes operating across morpheme boundaries (vowel elision and tone deletion or retention).<sup>1</sup> The account is based on the variety spoken in Lokiliri, a village in the central part of the Lulubo area.

### 2. Vowels and Vowel Harmony

Lulubo has nine vowel phonemes belonging to two vowel harmony sets which are distinguished by the feature Advanced Tongue Root (ATR):<sup>2</sup>

(1) -ATR ι ε a ο ο +ATR i e ο u

The phonemic status of the nine vowels is shown by the subminimal sets of monosyllabic words in (2-4). The sets are minimal if tone is disregarded.

(2)	/1/	tì	'to give birth'	<sup>3</sup> /u/ <u>t</u> ū	'to climb up'
	/ι/	ţì	'to pick'	/o/ to	'to bend or straighten'
	/e/	ţè	'to wait for'	/o/ <u>t</u> ō	'carefully'
	/ε/	ţε	'to swallow'	/ə/ <u>t</u> ə	'to dance'
		-	/a/ t̪ā	'tiredness'	
(3)	/i/	wT	'to skin'	/u/ wù	'to remove'
	/1/	wī	'to spit'	/a/ (Jwa	'to cry')
	/e/	wē	'to do'	/o/ wò	'to bend'
	/ε/	wE	'to rub'	/ɔ/ wɔ	(adverb indicating resulting
			/a/ wā	'to throw'	situation)

<sup>1</sup>For a similar account of Madi, see Andersen [1986c].

<sup>2</sup>For a comparison of the vowel systems in the Moru-Madi languages, see Andersen [1986b].

<sup>3</sup>Verb forms translated 'to (do something)' are stem forms. A monosyllabic stem is identical with the 2nd person singular subjunctive (= imperative) form. A polysyllabic stem is identical with the 3rd person perfective form.

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(4)	/i/	кT	'to go'		/u/	kū	'to weed'
	/1/	kī	'to affect'		101	ko	'not'
	/e/	ké	'non-existent'	(PTC)	/0/	(ōkō	'to finish')
	/ε/	kε	'to tear'		/5/	kɔ	'to catch'
			/a/	kā 't	o ripe	n'	

In monomorphemic words with more than one syllable, all vowels which are not /a/ belong to the same harmonic set:

(5) a.	-ATR v	words	ь.	+ATR woi	ds
	Èbś	'basket'		èb ì	'lion'
	<u>€</u> mb <u></u> €	'neck'		élé	'egg'
	fàlì	'buttock'		ó'jú	'horn'
	ídę	'rat'		kólólt	'adze'
	ómbí	'locust'		úgó	'liver'

The vowel /a/, which phonetically is -ATR, can cooccur with any vowel. It occurs both before and after each of the other -ATR vowels, as in (6) and (7), and also in initial syllables before each of the +ATR vowels, as in (8).

(0)	431	TILE
	àŋgwē	'white'
	àgʻ	'pumpkin'
	àlō	'one'
(7)	ìbā	'rope'
	édzá	'pot'
	ò?ā	'fruit'
	ōkwā	'wealth'
(8)	àif	'short'
	àgwē	'to be beautiful'
	rābēlē	'banana'
	ámbúrú	'mosquito'

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While /a/ has a high lexical frequency in these positions, it never occurs between +ATR vowels and rarely after +ATR vowels, all the attested instances

probably being loanwords. See the examples in (9).

(9)	ìmòkwà	'to iron' (from Arabic)
	gómá	(kind of hoe)
	t∫ópà	'house pole'
	àgúrá	'horn' (musical instrument)

Derivational and inflectional prefixes agree with the root in terms of the ATR feature, i.e. the root controls the ATR value of the prefix. Cf. the pairs of verb forms in (11-14), whose prefixes have the respective meanings indicated in (10).

(10)	a.	i –	∿	ι-	causative
	b.	e-	∿	ε-	direction towards the deictic center
	c.	0-	∿	<b>-</b> -	3rd person subject, perfective aspect
	d.	u-	∿	۵-	multiple performance

- (11) ì-mì 'to teach' (cf. 10a) 'to suckle' ī-ņdā
- 'to come' ē-kT (12) (cf. 10b) €ື−ŋgwī 'to come back'
- (13) õ-mbū 'he drank' (cf. 10c) 5-ba 'he threw'
- (14) ū−mbū 'to drink' (cf. 10d) ā-bā 'to throw'

When the root vowel is /a/, the prefix vowels are -ATR:

- (11') ì-dà 'to kill'
- 'to arrive' (12') Ē-sā
- 'he ate' (13') 5-na
- 'to eat' (14') a-nā

These facts show that /a/ belongs to the set of -ATR vowels.

For suffixes there is no general rule of harmonization. Some suffixes are

inherently either +ATR or -ATR, and they are not harmonized by the root, which is not harmonized by them either. This class includes for instance the +ATR suffix /-gó/, which is a masculine singulative morpheme, and the -ATR suffix /-kì/, which is a 2nd person singular possessive morpheme in kinship terms. Examples (15-16) show that they can combine with both +ATR and -ATR roots.

(15)	ólúɓó−gó	'Lulubo man'	cf.	ólúbó	'Lulubo people'
	òpádà-gó	'boy'	cf.	ခဲ့ဂုတ်ရင်	'children'
(16)	àbì-kì	'your grandfather'	cf.	461	'grandfather'
	ámbó-ki	'your sister'	cf.	ambo-ŋà	'sister'

In some exceptional cases, however, /-go/ harmonizes the root:

(17) éró-gó 'enemy' cf. èrō 'enemies'

Other suffixes are harmonized by the root, for instance the locative suffix  $/-|\hat{\epsilon}/ \sim /-|\hat{e}/$ , which is added to verbal nouns in non-finite relative clauses (RC) with a relativized locative adverbial:<sup>4</sup>

<sup>4</sup>In literal translations the following abbreviations are used:

1/2/3	<pre>= first/second/third person</pre>	MASC	= masculine
1PEX	= first person plural exclusive	MULT	<pre>= multiplicative</pre>
1PIN	= first person plural inclusive	N	= noun
2P	second person plural	NF	= non-finite
1S/2S/3S	= first/second/third person	OBJ	= object marker
	singular	P	= plural
ADV	= adverb	PF	<pre>= perfective</pre>
С	= completion	POSTP	= postposition
CAUS	= causative	PTC	<pre>= particle</pre>
CONJ	= conjunction	REFL ·	= reflexive
COP	= copula	S	= singular
CP ·	= centripetal, i.e. movement	SG	= singulative
	towards the deictic center	SUBJ	= subjunctive (including
FOC	= focus		imperative)
GEN	= genitive	TR	<pre>= transitive</pre>
IMPF	<pre>= imperfective</pre>	UNSP	= unspecified subject
LINK	= linker	VA	= verbal adverb
LOC	= locative	VN	= verbal noun

An oblique stroke (/) indicates that the following morpheme(s) is/are manifested solely or partly by the tone pattern of the word.

- (18) a. wí kó-ŋgwī òfó [RC àwī rí ε-ŋgá-lè] rá wö monster 3-return/IMPF place 3S GEN CP-get=up/VN-LOC to PTC 'the monster returns to the place it has come from'
  - b. kō-zwé tàká [RC kèní rí ò-tū-lè rī] ínì nī
     3-push/IMPF platform Kenyi GEN NF-climb/VN-LOC PTC this OBJ
     'it pushes the platform upon which Kenyi has climbed'

Phonetically, there is a tenth vowel quality, viz. an unrounded, mid, back, +ATR vowel [x]. This vowel only occurs after the +ATR vowel /u/, as in

(19) [úgý] 'liver'\_
[ţúţwỳ] 'ostrich'

When /u/ and [Y] are heteromorphemic, [Y] varies freely with the rounded, mid, back, +ATR vowel [o]:

(20)  $[\partial g \dot{u} - g \dot{x}] \sim [\partial g \dot{u} - g \dot{\sigma}]$  'male thief' (thief/S-MASC+SG)  $[\bar{u} - \eta g \dot{x}] \sim [\bar{u} - \eta g \dot{\sigma}]$  'singing' (MULT-sing/VN)

The morphemes containing  $[v] \sim [o]$  invariably have [o] when they are preceded by a vowel other than /u/:

(21) [màdí-g6] 'Madi man' (Madi-MASC+SG) [ō-ŋg6] 'singing' (NF-sing/VN)

Thus we can infer that [x] is an allophone of the phoneme /0/.

3. Consonants

Lulubo has 34 consonant phonemes, whose phonetic properties are indicated in Table 1. The stops, the affricates and the nasals form a major subsystem with six contrasting points of articulation. The interdentals and the alveolars together form one series, and so do the palato-alveolars and the palatals. There are no retroflexes and labio-velars among the preglottalized stops and the nasals, nor is there a preglottalized velar stop.

Examples of words with each of the consonants are given sectionwise in (22-29) below. In the first column of each section an example is given in which each consonant is followed by the vowel /a/. Gaps indicate the lack of such words in the present author's corpus. The second column shows other,

mannar of	point of articulation	lbial	lodental	rdental	tolar	oflex	to-alveolar	Ital	ų	ovelar	tal	
articulat	ion	bile	labi	Inte	alve	retr	pala	pala	vela	labi	glot	
stop	unvoiced voiced prenasalized	P b mb		t d nd		ţ ¢ n¢			k g ŋg	kp gb ŋmgb	?	 
affri- cate	preglottalized unvoiced voiced prenasalized	D			d		t∫ <sup>°d</sup> 3 nd3	.1				
fric- ative	unvoiced voiced		f v		s z							
nasal		m			n			ŗ	ŋ			
lateral					I							
trill					r							
glide								у		w		

preferably (sub)minimal, sets, in which the consonants occur before another vowel.

(22)	Unvoiced stops and affricates											
	/p/	pā	'to shape (wood with an adze)'	pè	'to defeat'							
	/ <u>t</u> /	₫ā	'tiredness'	ΞĒ	'to swallow'							
	/ţ/	ţā	'to put down abruptly'	dșmșțșțș	'swallow' (bird)							
	/t∫/	t∫à	'to plait (a door)'	t∫érèpé	'calabash'							

	/k/	kā	'to ripen'	kε	'to tear'
	/kp/	-	-	kpé	'in vain'
(23)	Voiced	stops a	nd affricates		
(/	/b/	ιbā	'rope'	bómú	'maize'
	/d/	da	'to cut (finger- millet)'	စုဝှေဝ	'half (of something like a fruit)'
	/d/	<b>ļ</b> à	'to die'	<u>ododn</u>	'frog'
	/dʒ/	édzá	'pot'	dzó	'house'
	/g/	gā	'to cut'	ágó	'male'
	/gb/	ìgbà	'to barter'	gbóróró	'throat'
(24)	Prenasa	lized s	tops and affricates		
-	/mb/	mbā	'to grow up'	mbū	'to drink'
	/n <u>d</u> /	ìndá	'good'	-	
	/nd/	ānļā	'face'	ndù	'to look for'
	/nd3/	ndzà	'protruding'	ndzū	'to suck'
	/ng/	ŋgā	'to get up'	ngù	'to smell'
	/ŋmgb/	ŋmgbā	'to beat'	ŋmgbú	'nothing being left' (ADV)
(25)	Glottal	and pr	eglottalized stops		
	/6/	6a -	'home' (N)	61	'to taste'
	/ď/	àdā	'to lower'	đī	'to spear'
	/ <b>'</b> j/	'jà	'to quarrel'	-	-
	/?/	?ā	'stomach'	<b>2</b> L	'to grind'
(26)	Nasals				
	/m/	ma	'I'	èmē	'to be warm'
	/n/	nā	'three'	nē	'to cook'
	/ŋ/	л <del>а</del>	'to eat'	έnē	'to turn upside down'
	/ŋ/	ŋā	'to speak'	t∫íŋé	'sand'
(27)	Fricati	ves			
	/f/	-		fà	'to appear'
	/s/	sā	'to arrive'	òsō	'to destroy'
	/v/	-		võ	'to blow'

	/z/	ìzā	'meat'	àzā	'to straighten'
(28)	Late	ral a	nd trill		
	/1/	١ā	'to lay down'	IΤ	'to cut'
	/r/	rā	'to' (POSTP)	rì	'two'
(29)	Glið	es			
	/y/	yà	'but' (CONJ)	āyī	'rainy season'
	/w/	wā	'to throw'	wT	'to skin'

The only consonants that have a systematically defective distribution are the labiodental fricatives [f] and [v]. They only occur before rounded vowels. However, since [f] and [v] are not in complementary distribution with any other consonants, they have to be ascribed phonemic status. The phonetically most likely candidates for complementary distribution with the labiodental fricatives would be the bilabial stops [p] and [b]. But they also occur before rounded vowels, although lexically infrequently:

(30)	pó <u>t</u> ò	'tendon'
	pùţá	'whip'
(31)	bòŋgó bàn <b>ḍ</b> à	'clothes' 'tamarind'
For	[b] and	[v] there even is a minimal pair: <sup>5</sup>
(32)	bā	'to throw'
	vā	'to blow'

<sup>5</sup>Historically, the labiodental fricatives must have developed from labial stops before rounded vowels. This sound change seems to have affected all the Moru-Madi languages, but in Lulubo it has not been carried through for all instances of original <sup>\*</sup>b and not at all for original <sup>\*</sup>mb. Cf. the following examples from some of the languages, the dialect in question being indicated in parentheses:

Moru (Miza)	Lugbara (Terego)	Madi (Burulo)	Lulubo (Lokiliri)	Proto-	-Moru-Madi
-	àvá	èv5	èbś	*èbś	'basket'
và	và	và	bo	*bà	'place, land'

The only consonantal phonemes with allophonic variation are the velars /g  $\eta g \eta$ /. These consonants have palatal coarticulation after the mid front vowels /e  $\epsilon$ /:

(33)	/gē/	[g/ē]	'to buy'
	/ŋgē/	[ŋg¥ē]	'to pull out'
	/t∫íŋέ/	[t∫íŋŸê]	'sand'

Palatalization does not occur before the high front vowels /i  $\iota/$ , and it does not affect the unvoiced velar /k/ .

4. Tones

Lulubo has three tones: low (L), mid (M), and high (H). The phonemic status of the tones is shown by the following minimal triplets:

(34)	L.	ţÌ	'to give birth'	?à	'existent' (PTC)
	М	tΤ	'mouth'	?ā	'stomach'
	н	tí	'cow'	?á	'we' (1PIN)

Any two tones may be combined within a syllable. Thus there are six compound tones:

(35)	ĹM	ţòmbè	'it is Tombe' (Tombe/FOC)
	ជា	6¥	'(at) home' (home/LOC)
	M.	ngè kwē`	'look at the tree!' (see/SUBJ+2S tree/SUBJ)
	ĥ	?ā'	'in the stomach' (stomach/LOC)
	£L	î-ḍà	'we killed' (CAUS/1PIN-die/PF)
	нм	fzf-	'his wife' (female/3S)

Moru (Miza)	Lugbara (Terego)	Madi (Burulo)	Lulubo (Lokiliri)	Proto-Moru	1-Madi
vā	võ	-	bo	*bō	'to throw'
λm∨ú	ámvú	ám∨ú	ámbú	*Ámbú	'field'
kòmvō	àmvā	àm∨ <del>o</del>	òmb5	*(k)òmbō	'nose'
çèmvá	àm∨á	èmvś	èmbó	*(k)èmbó	'orphan'

Except for  $\widehat{HL}$ , compound tones are restricted to occurring in morphemically complex words, in which their two components belong to or manifest two different morphemes, as in (35).  $\widehat{HL}$  is fairly common in monomorphemic words, but only on final syllables. Such words appear all to be recent borrowings, for instance the following:<sup>6</sup>

(36)	d3kê	'gift'	(cf. Bari dɔk-ɛt 'gift')
	ŋwàkê	'tongs'	(cf. Bari ŋwak-ɛt 'pincers')
	գիյն	'time'	(cf. Bari dıŋıt 'time')
	dî	'chisel'	(cf. Bari dı 'chisel')
	gùrû	'money'	(cf. Sudanese Arabic giri∫, pl. guruu∫ 'money')
	sâ	'watch'	(cf. Sudanese Arabic saa?a 'hour, watch')
	kòmìţî	'committee'	(from English)

Exceptions are

(37) dêdê 'all' ţîţî 'quickly'

which are monomorphemic but have  $\stackrel{\frown}{HL}$  on non-final syllables. However, these words are also aberrant in having  $\stackrel{\frown}{LH}$  on their final syllables, and since they are furthermore characterized by segmental reduplication, they should probably be considered ideophones (cf. section 6).

Tone distinguishes many lexical items, especially mono- and disyllabic ones. In the following examples, the words of each pair belong to the same word class (noun, verb, or adjective):

(38)	rū	'body'	(39)	gà	'to refuse'
	rú	'name'		gā	'to cut'
(4Ó)	61	'to taste'	(41)	àlÍ	'short'
	Бт	'to twirl'		álí	'deep'

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>6</sup>The Bari and Sudanese Arabic data have been taken from Spagnolo [1960] and Persson and Persson [1980], respectively. Although Bari is a tone language, Spagnolo does not indicate tones.

Tone also has a high functional load in inflection and derivation. Examples given below will illustrate the use of tone for expressing contrasts within various grammatical categories.

Most nouns are not inflected for number, but nouns denoting human beings are, and one class of them distinguishes between singular and plural by means of tone. The examples in (44) illustrate two morphophonemic tone rules. Nouns with the tone pattern HH in the singular have LM in the plural, and those with LH in the singular have HH in the plural.

(44)		Singular	Plural	
	a.	нн	LM	
		ágó	àgō	'husband'
		śzś	òzō	'witch-doctor'
		óngó	òngō	'sterile person'
	ь.	LH	нн	
		Èmbó	émbó	'orphan'
		ògú	ógú	'thief'
		òrí	óri	'coward'

Verbs are inflected for mood, aspect, and person and number of the subject. Together, these categories are expressed by prefixes and by particular tone patterns. The actual tone patterns depend on phonological and grammatical properties of the stem, including its number of syllables, its inherent tone pattern, its transitivity, and its morphological composition. Two examples are given in Table 2, which shows the inflection of the stems /pa/ 'to eat' and  $/\bar{o}mb\bar{e}/$  'to tie'. The first paradigm is representative of transitive stems that are monosyllabic and have an inherently mid tone. The second paradigm is representative of disyllabic stems with the inherent tone pattern MM. Notice for instance that, in the perfective aspect, forms which express first or second person singular have the tone pattern HM, while forms which express first person plural exclusive or second person plural have LM. Anoth-

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	/ɲā/ 'to eat'		eat'	/āmbē/ 'to tie'			
	sub-	sub- indicative sub-		indicative			
	junc- tive	ive per- imper- fec- fec- tive tive	imper- fec- tive	junc- tive	per- fec- tive	imper- fec- tive	
15	á-nā		mō-ná	m-ámb€		m-ombé	
1PEX	à-n	ā	mò-ná	m-òmt	30	m-òmbé	
2S	ਸ਼ੁਰੋ	í-n <del>a</del>	nō-ná	òmbè	n-ómbē	n-⊙mbé	
2P	ì-ր	ā	nò-ná	àmbē	n-òmbē	n-òmbé	
3	kò-nā	ວ-ກ <del>a</del>	kō-ná	k <b>-ò</b> mbē	<b>⊙</b> mbē	k <b>-⊡m</b> bé	
1PIN	Ĵ-nā		ô-ná	âmbē		δmbέ	
UNS P	<b>ó-</b> л	ā	5-ná	ná ámbē		Gmbé	

Table 2. Two paradigms of verbal inflection

er generalization is that the final stem vowel keeps its inherent tone in the perfective aspect but replaces it with a high tone in the imperfective aspect.

As an example from derivational morphology, consider the formation of ingressive verb stems from adjectives with an initial /V/ syllable. No affixes are used, but the tones of the adjectives are replaced by low tones in the verbs:

àzɔ	'long'	àzò	'to become long'
ìngá	'good'	ìndà	'to become good'
õsú	'good'	òsù	'to become good'
álí	'deep'	àlì	'to become deep'
àkēli	'red'	àkèlì	'to become red'
áfórð	'yellow'	àfòrò	'to become yellow'

Verh

Combining the lexical and the morphological functions of tone, the number of disyllabic words distinguished tonally is often quite large, as in the following example:

(46)	ò-gù	'he laughed at' (3-laugh=at/PF)
	ògū	'back' (N)
	ògú	'thief' (N/S)
	ō-gū	'he carried' (3-carry/PF)
	ō-gú	'is being laughed at' (UNSP-laugh=at/IMPF)
	ó–gù	'was laughed at' (UNSP-laugh=at/PF)
	6-gū	'was carried' (UNSP-carry/PF)
	ógú	'thieves' (N/P)
	ô-gù	'we laughed at' (1PIN-laugh=at/PF)
	ô−g <del>u</del>	'we carried' (1PIN-carry/PF)
	ô-gú	'we are laughing at' (1PIN-laugh=at/IMPF)

In addition to its lexical and morphological functions, tone also has syntactic functions in Lulubo. Thus, certain sentence types end in a floating tone ( $T_0$ ), which is manifested on the sentence-final syllable as an addition to the inherent tone of that syllable. The result is a compound tone, unless the floating tone is identical with the inherent tone. All three tones,  $L_0$ ,  $M_0$ , and  $H_0$ , have syntactic functions in this sense.

L occurs after an unfocused object if the sentence has the subjunctive mood. Cf. the examples in (47), where the subjunctive verb form is identical to the perfective indicative verb form for first person subjects.

H occurs after a sentence-final object if the sentence has the indicative mood and indicates that the scope of the focus is either the object or the verb and the object. Cf. the examples in (48), which are minimally different from those in (47).

That this final floating  $\frac{1}{2}$  is actually a focus morpheme is shown by the fact that it contrasts with other focus markers, which also occur after the object, and with adverbials, which are inherently focused in that position:

(49) á-ndè èbì ?ō 'I did see the lion' (truth value focus) á-ndè èbì mā 'I saw the lion' (subject focus) á-ndè èbì ò-ndè 'I saw the lion' (verbal focus) á-ndè èbì ágínī 'I saw the lion yesterday' (adverbial focus)
(/?ō/ indicates completion; /mā/ is the first person singular personal pronoun; /ò-ndè/ is a verbal adverb; /ágínī/ means 'yesterday')

The same morpheme H is used after the predicate in a non-verbal clause of identification, which is what native speakers will normally provide when asked to translate a noun into Lulubo:

(50) èbĭ 'it is a lion' àrī' 'it is a bird' tí 'it is a cow'

M is used instead of H in certain cases, for instance when the object is a proper noun. Cf. the examples in (51), which are minimally different from those of both (47) and (48).

(51)  $L+M \rightarrow LM$  á-ngề èbì<sup>-</sup> 'I saw Mr. Lion' M+M  $\rightarrow$  M á-ngề àrī 'I saw Mr. Bird' H+M  $\rightarrow$  HM á-ngề tí<sup>-</sup> 'I saw Mr. Cow'

Lulubo is a discrete-level tone language, i.e. there is (almost) no downdrift, nor is there anything like downstep. The pitch value of a tone remains by and large the same throughout an utterance, except on the utterance-final syllable. In utterances that are not yes/no-questions, prepausal L is realized as an extra low pitch, and  $\widehat{LM}$ ,  $\widehat{LH}$  and  $\widehat{MH}$  rise to a lower pitch level prepausally than non-prepausally. Yes/no-questions are uttered in a higher register than the corresponding statements or orders, and a rising pitch is added after their final tone. Apart from the intonation, there is no formal difference between yes/no-questions and statements or orders.

#### 5. Syllable Structure

The segmental structure of a syllable in Lulubo is /V/, /CV/, or /CCV/, but only initial syllables can be /V/:

(52)	(V)CV	ьî	'ear'	ómbí	'locust'
	( v) cv <sub>.</sub> cv	fàlì	'buttock'	obànc	'children'
	(V)CVCVCV	táròmè	'nine'	ì rùgùŋò	'to kneel'

Apparent exceptions are found in words like the following, all of which are monomorphemic:

(53)	/làwō/	+	[1àō]	'time'
	/tòwú/	→	[t̪òú]	'five'
	/gòwé/	+	[ gàế ]	'jackal'
	/āyĺ/	+	[āi]	'grass'
	/àràbíyà/	<b>→</b>	[àràbíà]	'car'

Phonetically, these words contain a non-initial /V/ syllable. But in such cases either that vowel itself or the vowel preceding it is high. Therefore, these words can easily be analyzed as having a homorganic glide, i.e. a consonant, between the vowels: /w/ if the high vowel is back, /y/ if the high vowel is front.

In /CCV/ syllables, the second consonant can only be a glide. Furthermore, only non-rounded vowels have been attested in such syllables. The contrast between /w/, /y/, and zero after the first consonant is shown by the following subminimal triplet:

(54) Iwà 'to count' Iyà 'to shiver' Iā 'to lay down'

While the syllable structure /CyV/ is rare, /CwV/ is quite common (especially when /C/ is a velar stop), so that there are many minimal pairs like the following:

(55) \blackbox{bwa} 'to let (liquid) run out'
 (56) gwē 'to burn'
 \blackbox{-ba} 'you put'
 (2P-put/PF)
 gē 'to buy'

(57) kwā 'bone' (58) àmbwē 'to hide' kā 'to ripen' à-mbē 'we licked' (1PEX-lick/PF)
(59) ŋgwá 'child' ŋgá 'thing'

The glide /w/ has been attested after about two thirds of the consonants, as in the examples in (60), which are grouped according to the point of articulation of the consonants. There are no examples of /w/ after plain labial stops and after labiovelars and no reliable examples of /w/ after interdentals and palatals. The absence of /w/ after the bilabial stops /p/ and /b/ and its corresponding presence after the labiodental fricatives /f/ and /v/ is probably systematic, considering the facts that /w/ has lip rounding, that /p/ and /b/ tend not to occur before rounded vowels, and that /f/ and /v/ only occur before such vowels (cf. section 3 and footnote 5).<sup>7</sup>

(60) bilabial /p/ /b/ 'to be ill' /mb/ mbwè /6/ 6wī 'to shoot' /m/ mwà 'to rot' labiodental /f/ fwè 'to burst' vwî 'hunger' 11/

 $^{7}$ In the southern part of the Lulubo area (Aru), /w/ has disappeared after some consonants, e.g. after /v/, as in the following examples: Lokiliri Aru vwī vī 'to follow' àvwá àvá 'infertile soil' Thus, in Aru, /v/ does not have the defective distribution that it has in Lokiliri (see section 3). In Aru, /v/ now occurs before unrounded vowels as

well as before rounded vowels.

interdental				
/ <u>t</u> /	-			
/d/	-			
/nd/	-			
alveola	r			
/d/	ɗwà	'to pick'		
/s/	swè	'to become fat'		
/z/	zwa	'to cross'		
/n/	ónwé	'new'		
/1/	lwē	'to whistle'		
/r/	rwè	'to become thin'		
retrofl	ex			
/ţ/	ţwà	'to become sour'		
/ġ/	ídwé	'urine'		
/nḍ/	nợwè	'to squeeze into'		
palato-	alveolar			
/t∫/	t∫wε	'to prune'		
/dʒ/	ùdzwè	'to wash'		
/nd3/	indzwi	'bad'		
palatal				
/ <b>'</b> j/	-			
/ŋ/	-			
/y/	-			
velar				
/k/	kwε	'tree'		
/g/	ágwí	'big'		
/ŋg/	ŋgwĩ	'to go back'		
/ŋ/	ວ່ງwíŋwīn	(kind of ant)		
labiove	lar			
/kp/	-			
/gb/	-			

Whether there are any constraints on /C/ in /Cy/ combinations is difficult to determine, due to the lexical infrequency of such sequences. A few additional examples are given in (61).

(61) òmyā 'to mix' ìzyē 'excrement' mílyé 'oath'

The combinations glide + vowel in /CwV/ and /CyV/ should not be analyzed as heterosyllabic sequences of equi-tonal high vowel + vowel, since such an analysis would result in violations of three well-established constraints on the phonological structure of verb stems. Firstly, disyllabic verb stems cannot begin with a consonant, hence not  $*/|\dot{\omega}a|$  'to count' and  $*/|\dot{a}a|$  'to shiver', but /|wa| and /|ya|. Secondly, trisyllabic verb stems can only begin with a high, unrounded vowel (unless they are multiplicative stems (see section 7) or have been derived from an adjective (see section 4)), hence not  $*/\dot{u}d_3\dot{u}a|$  'to wash' and  $*/\dot{e}gua|$  'to get lost', but  $/\dot{u}d_3wa|$  and  $/\dot{e}gwa|$ . Thirdly, the tone pattern of trisyllabic verb stems can only be LLL, hence not  $*/\dot{a}mb\overline{\omega}a|$  'to hide' and  $*/\dot{e}m\overline{u}a|$  'to mix', but  $/\dot{a}mbwa|$  and  $/\dot{e}mya|$ .

#### 6. Ideophones

Some ideophones deviate from the phonological system outlined in the previous sections. The deviations concern vowels, consonants, and syllable structure. The features mentioned below are probably not exhaustive.

In ideophones, syllables can have the structure /CVC/, i.e. they can end in a consonant:

(62) dft (having large volume)
 rùyůk (stone striking something)

pér-pér (very clean) țú?-țú? (sound of hammering)

In light of this, the following adverbs, which are aberrant by ending in a glottal stop, may also be considered ideophones:

In addition to the nine vowels of ordinary words, ideophones can have a syllabic [r] after a vowel. In some cases, [r] varies freely with non-syllabic [r] plus a vowel. Cf. the following examples:

(64) țíŕ (iron or glass hitting something)
 dèr-dèr (running with raised neck)
 ndòr ∿ ndòrò (high degree of redness)

While in ordinary words there is no length contrast in the vowels, vowels of ideophones are either short, like those of ordinary words, or long. Examples with long vowels are given in (65).

(65) wuur (movement away from the speaker) duut (movement towards the speaker)

Finally, at least one additional consonant can occur in ideophones, viz. an unvoiced velar fricative [x], as in

(66) xòxòxò (sound made by a ratel when attacking people)

The examples of ideophones listed above should probably all be classified as adverbs. But there are also a few nouns that deviate phonologically in the same ways. Cf. the nouns in (67), one being related to  $[d\dot{e}\dot{r}\dot{d}\dot{e}\dot{r}]$  in (64), the other to  $[x\dot{z}\dot{x}\dot{z}\dot{z}\dot{z}]$  in (66).

(67) àdér 'mongalla gazelle' xòxòlî 'ratel'

Many ideophones do not have any of the aberrant features mentioned above and thus do not differ phonologically from non-ideophones, as in the following examples:

(68)	bòιú	(sound of a stone falling into water)
	ròbó	(sound of a calabash breaking into pieces)
	médū	(breathing heavily)

However, many of them are characterized by total reduplication, as in the examples in (69) and (70).

(69)	ţó-ţó	(sound of cutting a tree)
	ţù-ţù	(sound of footsteps)
	bù-bù	(sound of heavy wind)
	kpá-kpá	(sound of a person walking)
(70)	wàlà-wàlà	(moving of snake)
	ρύţύ-ρύţύ	(nothing being left)
	kwílí-kwílí	(sound of small bell)
	kàsè-kàsè	(sound of small animal moving in grass)

fàlà-fàlà (bubbles coming up)

# 7. Vowel Elision

In certain cases, a word-final vowel is optionally (but normally) elided before a vowel-initial word. Depending on the (type of) word whose vowel is elided, the tone of the elided vowel is either retained or deleted. If retained, the tone is added to the tone of the adjacent vowel, but only realized phonetically if it is different from the latter. In the following, some of the most common types of elision are illustrated.

One type of elision occurs when a finite verb is followed by a cognate object or by a cognate adverbial. In that case the final vowel of the verb is normally elided, but its tone is always retained:

(71)	kō-mbú 3-drink/IMPI	ō-mbú nī F NF-drink/VN OBJ	[kōmb̄ombú nī]	'he is drinking'
(72)	pā eat/2S+SUBJ	5-nâ NF-eat∕VN+SUBJ	[ ŋ͡jŋâ ]	'eat!'
(73)	k-āwć 3-walk∕IMPF	àwè walk/VA	[kāwâwè]	'he is walking'

If the final syllable of the verb is /CwV/ or /CyV/, the glide is elided along with the vowel. See (74)-(76) for /CwV/ and (77)-(78) for /CyV/.

à-mwà [kámā`mwà] (74) ká-mwa 'it is getting rotten' 3-rot/IMPF NF-rot/VA 3wε [kɔ̃?ô?wÈ] (75) k-5?₩έ 'it is drying' 3-dry/IMPF dry/VA [ หน์ส์นี้ส์นี้ส์นส์พิษั ] k-น์d-นิdwe ùd-ùdwè (76) 'he vomits' 3-MULT-vomit/IMPF MULT-vomit/VA (77) Smva àmvā [ˈɔ̀mɔ̈́myā] 'he mixed them' mix/3+PF mix/VA (78) à-Ivà ò-Ivà [ˈblblyà] 'he shivered' 3-shiver/PF NF-shiver/VA

This behaviour of a glide after another consonant clearly shows that /Cw/ and /Cy/ are clusters and not unitary consonants like, for instance, the affricates and the prenasalized stops. Note that this also holds for /?w/, as in (75), i.e. /?w/ is a cluster rather than a unitary consonant, and therefore it does not belong to the class of preglottalized consonants.

The vowel / $\iota$ / is often elided in certain monosyllabic function words when they occur in particular syntactic environments. The tone is deleted in the case of / $n\overline{\iota}$ /, which either links an adjective to a preceding noun (79) or a non-finite verb to its preceding object (80).

- (79) táré nī àzō [táré nàzō] 'a long stick' stick LINK long
- (80) Tkozó nī ì-ŋgwí osú nā' 'it is good to reproperty LINK CAUS-return/VN good COP+S/FOC turn property' [Tkozó nìŋgwí osú nā']

The tone is retained in case of the genitive postposition /ri/, the reflexive particle /ri/, and the particle /ri/ that follows a transitive verb in the imperfective aspect. Cf. (81), (82), and (83), respectively.

(81) TnT rí èrí [TnT rêrí] 'snake blood' snake GEN blood

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'I am falling'

- (82) mó-ŋgT rī ò-ŋgì 1S-fall/IMPF REFL NF-fall/VA [móŋgT röŋgì]
- (83) ώ-đwā rī ò-đwà 'they are being picked' MULT-pick/UNSP+IMPF TR MULT-pick/VA [ώdwā rödwà]

Vowel elision also affects the locative postposition /a/, which governs a noun phrase (NP), as in the following sentences with a postpositional phrase (PostpP):

- (84) ikérē kó-kī [PostpP [NP gólò] á] Ikere 3-go/IMPF river LOC
   'Ikere goes to the river'
- (85) àzī kìdê kó-kwī [<sub>Postp</sub>P [<sub>NP</sub> àwī rí dʒó] ā] then Kide 3-enter/IMPF 'then Kide enters her house'
- (86) >ŋóda ìlékì k-ɔlá [PostpP [NP òfó nī àlūbé]ā] children those 3-play/IMPF place LINK one LOC 'those children played together (lit. in one place)'
- (87) óní [PostpP [NP dí nī ìndá]ā]
  stone hand LINK good LOC
  'the stone is to the right'

The tone of this postposition, which must have developed from the noun  $/?\overline{a}/$ 'stomach', is determined by the last tone of the noun phrase: it is mid after a high tone but high after a low or mid tone. The postposition is encliticized to the last word of the noun phrase whether that word is the head of the noun phrase, as in (84) and (85), or a modifier, as in (86) and (87). The vowel of the postposition is retained after a high vowel, but it undergoes harmonization in that context: it remains /a/ after the -ATR vowels / $\iota$ / and / $\omega$ /, but it is changed to / $\sigma$ / after the +ATR vowels /i/ and / $\mu$ /.<sup>8</sup> The high vowel preceding the encliticized vowel is, in turn, realized

 $^{8}$ Alternation between /a/ and /o/ is also found in some other Central

phonetically as a semivowel, i.e. it keeps its vocalic quality and its tone, but together with the encliticized vowel it forms a diphthong with the length of a monophthong. (The semivowels cannot be analyzed phonemically as the glides /y/ and /w/ since the latter phonemes do not carry separate tones. Another reason for not analyzing the semivowel [i] as /y/ is that it does not become phonetically rounded before the rounded vowel /o/). The operation of these rules is exemplified in (88) for each of the four high stem-final vowels. Encliticization and harmonization turn the underlying forms into phonemic forms, which are themselves turned into phonetic forms by semivocalization and by optional de-rounding of /o/.

(88)		underlying	phonemic	phonetic	
	/1/	àsī á	/àsī-á/	[àsīá]	'on the fire'
	/۵/	ítá a	/íţá-ā/	[ítૣóa]	'on the ant-hill
	/i/	àdT á	/àdī-6/	[àdīć]	'in the well'
	/u/	ògū á	/ògū~ó/	[ògų̃ó] ~ [ògų̃	['] 'on the back'

After non-high vowels, the vowel of the postposition is elided, but its tone is retained. This is shown by the following examples for each of the five non-high vowels:

(89)		underlying	phonemic	
	/e/	ìzyē á	/ìzyē'/	'in the dung'
	/ε/	táré a	/ <u>t</u> óré <sup>-</sup> /	'on the stick'
	/a/	óswà á	/śswă/	'in the fats'
	/5/	èbó a	/Èbɔ́_/	'in the basket'
	/0/	d36 a	/d30-/	'in the house'

Note that in this case it is the second of the two contiguous vowels that is elided, not the first one as in the other constructions mentioned above.

Sudanic languages with vowel harmony based on the ATR feature. In Moru, another language of the Moru-Madi group, the alternation occurs in verbal prefixes [Andersen 1986a], and in Modo, which belongs to the Bongo group, it occurs in the first person singular possessive suffix  $/-ma/ \sim /-mo/$ .

There is evidence that vowel elision also occurs within the boundaries of a word. Consider for instance the formation of multiplicative verb stems from verb stems with more than one syllable, such stems being formed by means of reduplication. The formation of multiplicative stems from disyllabic stems is illustrated by the following examples:

(90)	basic stem	multiplicative stem	
	VC(C)V	vc-vc(c)v	
	1234	12 12 3 4	
	ìđĩ	լզ-յոլ	'to burn'
	<u>a</u> mb E	àmb-àmbè	'to tie'
	Ìgbò	Ìgb-Ìgbò	'to bark'
	ìḍà	ìḍ-ìḍà	'to kill'
	Ìgwē	Ìg-ìgwè	'to burn'
	ūdwē	ùd-ùdwè	'to vomit'
	<b>5?w</b> E	ò?-ò?wè	'to dry'
	òmyā	òm-òmyà	'to mix'
	àlyà	àl-àlyà	'to shiver'

The multiplicative stems in (90) consist of the first two segments of the corresponding basic stem followed by all the segments of that stem. (All the tones of the multiplicative stems are low, whatever the tones of the corresponding basic stems.) Notice, however, that this sequence of segments is exactly the same as the one that results from vowel elision applied to a verb before a cognate object or cognate adverbial. Cf. (71-78) above and the following examples:

- (91) a. /omb-ombe 20/ 'he did tie them (one by one)' MULT-tie/3+PF C àmbè/ 'he tied it' /ombE b. tie/3+PF tie/VA /ig-igwè 20/ (92) a. 'he did burn them (one by one)' MULT-burn/3+PF C
  - b. /ìgwē Ìgwē/ → [Ìgīgwē] 'he burnt it' burn/3+PF burn/VA

Note in particular that a glide following another consonant in the basic stem is absent from the first part of the corresponding multiplicative stem (92a), just as it is when the basic stem has been exposed to vowel elision (92b). This similarity can be accounted for by positing underlying forms with total reduplication, to which vowel elision is applied:

(93) àmbè-àmbè → àmb-àmbè 'to tie' ìgwè-ìgwè → ìg-ìgwè 'to burn'

Independent evidence for such underlying forms comes from multiplicative stems formed from stems with more than two syllables.<sup>9</sup> In such stems the second vowel is retained in the first part of the stem, while the initial vowel of the second part of the stem is elided:

(94)	basic stem	multiplicative stem	
	ν̀C(C)ν̀C(C)ν̀X 12 3 45 6 78	ऐC(C)ऐ−C(C)ऐC(C)ऐX 12 3 4 2 3 45 6 78	
	ìlèmì	ìlè-lèmì	'to curse'
	ìgbèlà	ìgbè-gbèlà	'to distribute'
	ìŋàrà	ìŋà-ŋàrà	'to help'
	Ì rùgùŋò	ìrù-rùgùŋò	'to kneel'
	ìtàmàràdzà	ìtà-tàmàràdzà	'to join'

That is, the stem formation rule reduplicates the first two syllables of the basic stem, whether the latter has two or more than two syllables:

(95)  $v_1 c_2 (c_3) v_4 x \rightarrow \dot{v}_1 c_2 (c_3) \dot{v}_4 - \dot{v}_1 c_2 (c_3) \dot{v}_4 x$ 

(where X may be zero)

This analysis implies that vowels can be contiguous within a word in its underlying form and hence that the absence of such sequences from the phonetic

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<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>9</sup>All non-reduplicated non-derived verb stems with more than two syllables appear to be loanwords which have been adapted to the verbal system of Lulubo by addition of an initial  $/i/ \sim /i/$ . Compare the basic stems in (94) with the corresponding forms in Bari, which seems to be the most common source language: /|im/| 'to insult', /gwel-/| 'to distribute', /gar/| 'to do something together with somebody', /ruguga/| 'to kneel down', /tomor-ja/| 'to join'.

form of a word (cf. section 5) is due to a surface constraint. However, even in underlying forms, contiguous vowels always belong to different morphemes.

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