High vowel reduplication and infix genesis in Isu (West Ring)* Roland Kießling

1 Introduction

Isu is a Grassfields Bantu language of the Ring subgroup closely related to Aghem (Hyman 1979) and spoken by about 10000 people (Gordon 2005) in the North Western province of Cameroon (Breton & Fohtung 1991). From a purely formal perspective, two types of reduplication could be distinguished on the level of word formation: partial vs. total root reduplication. While total root reduplication seems to be restricted to occasional instances of lexicalised noun stems (section 2.1), partial reduplication turns out to be more productive. It is of the high vowel reduplication type and serves to derive an intensive participle stem from quality verbs and adjectives (section 2.2), both formally and functionally linking up to the widespread West African high vowel reduplication which involves the reduplication of the initial consonant and inserts an underspecified high vowel.

In a historical perspective, high vowel reduplication, as attested for intensive function in Isu and for intensive and progressive functions in related Babungo, provides the key to the understanding of another phenomenon in Isu (and other closely related Ring languages such as Zoa) which would seem an obscure oddity otherwise: a palatal infix for causative, pluractional and imperfective functions (section 2.3). In the framework of grammaticalisation and morphophonological condensation, this palatal infix is proven to be the result of the reduction of a prior high vowel reduplication (section 3). Taking a wider perspective, these finding are integrated into a unified model of the reduction of total reduplication in Benue-Congo via high vowel reduplication, high vowel infixation and initial consonant mutation (section 4).

2 Types of reduplication

Reduplication – an iconic device used to encode aspects of the quantity of an action or its participants, the intensity of an action or emotional involvement (Ameka 1999, Heine & Reh 1984: 46-48, Marantz 1994, Moravcsik 1978, Westermann 1944) – is basically of two types in Isu: total reduplication and partial initial high vowel

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reduplication.¹ Under total reduplication the entire lexical root is repeated (1a), whereas initial high vowel reduplication repeats the initial consonant of the lexical root as a prefix and inserts a high central vowel (1b). Both types of reduplication apply to the lexical root, i.e. nominal prefixes such as $m\partial y$ - (class 6a in 1a) and $k\partial$ -(class 7 in 1b) are not affected.

- (1) Types of reduplicative patterns in Isu
 - (a) Total reduplication: $C_1V_1C_2(V_2)$ - $C_1V_1C_2(V_2)$ Example: $m \partial y$ - $k w \partial a \partial b \partial c h w \partial c h w orms'$
 - (b) Partial initial high vowel reduplication: $C_1 i C_1 V_1 (C_2 V_2)$ Example: $k\hat{\partial} ts\hat{i} - ts\hat{a}\hat{i}\hat{a}$ 'clod of soil, lump of earth, soil particle'

Syntactic repetitions such as (2-4) are excluded from this description since they do not represent instances of reduplication in the sense that they form new lexical items, they rather operate on the syntactic level and constitute a strategy which is used for the purpose to emphasize the duration or repetition of events and actions (2a-c) or the intensity of their impact (3-4). The reduplication of the quantifier dzim 'all' in (4a) puts emphasis on the totality of the action which is absent in (4b).

(2) Syntactic repetition of verbal phrases

wán	⁺∂́	zùw	d`ə?´ə	yíý↓	d`ə?´ə	yíý↓	d`ə?´ə	yíy↓
child	D1	go	stay	such	stay	such	stay	such
'The b	oy we	ent and a	stayed a	and stay	ed and	stayed.'	,	

(b) ⁴wá zú?í yíy⁴ zú?í yíy⁴ zú?í yíy⁴ kàmbá bù bùlì child learn such learn such learn such instead come become.an.expertCFG

'The child learned and learned and learned until it became an expert instead.'

(c)	yə́↓	wán	à	kò?	yə́↓	mba	ím			
	as	child	D1	see	CFG	cobr	a			
	ú			tsəŋ		tsiy	kə́	ìtsìy	ู กะกุจ์	yíy↓
	S3sg	g.human	.P3	immed	iately	pass	only	pass	run	such

уð

¹ Field research in 2002 and 2003 was not specifically geared towards identifying types of reduplication in the target language; the present contribution rather results from looking through a fixed corpus of elicited data and six narrative texts. Due to these limitations, it might be the case that other types of reduplication show up or that reported types receive a different dimension in the course of a more detailed study.

viv[↓] ... viv⁺ viv^{\downarrow} niŋə пŧŋə пŧŋə such run such run such run

'As the boy saw the cobra, he immediately started running, running, running ...'

(3) Syntactic repetition of verbs and adverbials

'n	⁺yə́	<u>zàŋì</u>	zàŋì	'eat fast!'
eat	CFG	be.fast	be.fast	
'n	yð	mbáb	mbáb	'eat fast!'

(4) Syntactic repetition of nominal modifier dzim 'all'

(a)				<i>təŋgúə?</i> protrusions	0		•••	ý v⁺, ntil		
	ŋwờní	<i>tsuw</i>	màa	tsə́	áká	⁺yə́	à	dzɨm	á	<i>dz</i> im
	birds	SJN.pick	complet	tely TERM	egusi.seeds	6-D1	6	all	6	all
	'He ate	the guavas	until the	e birds finishe	d picking AL	L the e	gus	si.'		
(b)	\dot{a} $\dot{y}\dot{y}$	-	•tsúw	màa	tsə	<u>áká</u>		<i>•</i> y∂́		

SJN.pick completely TERM egusi.seeds 6-D1 6 all to until birds '... until the birds finished picking all the egusi'

2.1 Total reduplication

Total reduplication on the lexical level seems to be very restricted. It has been observed in some nouns which refer to tiny items which typically come in agglomeration or swarms (5), in ideophones (6a-b) and in adverbials (6c). Occasionally a simplex could be identified, e.g. $k \partial y \partial y \partial y \partial x \partial^4 y \partial^2 \dot{y}$ worm in bowels of humans, tapeworm' is derived from $iya^{\dagger}\eta\dot{a}$ 'root, vein'; but in the majority of cases a lexical base does not seem to be in use (any more).

(=)	T 1	1 1			
151	Total	rodun	licatio	nin	nound
121	TOTAL	ICUUD	ncano	шш	nouns
(-)		· · · · I			

reduplicative form	gloss	probable base
k <i>à-yàŋá-yá</i> ⁺ŋá	'worm in bowels of humans, tapeworm'	<i>i-ya</i> [↓] y∂ ['] root, vein'
məŋ-kwalə-kwalə	'hook worms'	?
kə́-kpá?á-kpá?à	'bean seed'	?
kə́m-fɔ́ŋ-fɔ́ŋ⁺	'hornet'	?
témè-ntèmè	'middle'	<i>tà-ntèmá</i> 'loose ends of a thing, e.g. fibres tied to

		a basket; extended family relations'
à-ŋgə́-ŋgə̂ŋ	'spirits, people of the other world'	?
gə̀bə́-gə́bə̀	'part of skin which is not completely cut off in a wound and hanging limply' (pl. tá-gabágába)	?
$k^{h}\hat{\iota} - k^{h}\hat{\iota}^{\downarrow}$	'wasp'	?
kə́-ti [↓] -ti	'frame for smoking meat, grillage'	?
kə-fú-fú	'tortoise'	?
kə́-ndzú-ndzú	'toad'	?
kwárź-kwarż	'mat of flexible bamboo strings'	?
kə-bwi-bwi	'soft thing'	<i>bui</i> 'be(come) soft'

(6) Total reduplication in ideophones and adverbials

Comment: Deviant type: $y\dot{e}-k\dot{a}-y\dot{e}$ 'empty; without defense'.

4

(a) káy-káy (ideophone for noise of ringing)							
mbyゔŋí	⁺fŚŋ	tsə	⁺káŋkáŋ.				
bell	P3.make.noise	momentary	<ringing.noise></ringing.noise>				
'The bell	'The bell made a little sound: ring!'						

- (b) *ykway-kway* (ideophone for dazzling brightness)
 - kə mwâ ykwaykwaykway.
 - S7 shine <very.bright>

'It is dazzling bright.'

(c) $b\hat{\lambda}l\hat{\partial}-b\hat{\lambda}l\hat{\partial}$ 'early in the morning'

 $l\hat{\partial}m$ - $l\hat{\partial}m$ 'very early morning before dawn' (< $k\hat{\partial}$ - $l\hat{\partial}m$ 'darkness') kùlí-kùlí 'near' sí-sí 'first' < sí 'ahead'

2.2 High vowel reduplication C_I i-

High vowel reduplication copies the first consonant of the root, inserting a high central vowel i which might change to u in labial environment (7). Lexicalised instances of C_1i -reduplication could also be found in nouns of other Ring languages such as Zoa (8a) and Weh (8b).

(7) Lexicalised instances of $C_l i$ -redup	olication in nouns
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reduplicative form	gloss	probable base
kə-tsi-tsa?a	'rattle-like musical instrument'	tsà? 'sift'
kə́-tsi-tsá?á	'clod of soil, lump of earth, soil particle'	í-tsá? 'clay'
kə-bvù-bvùrì	'dust that is infested with jiggers'	kə-bvû 'dust'
kə-sú-sɔ́?ɔ́	'termite'	?

kə́-vú-vɔ́ŋɔ́	'soldier ant'	?
kə-dzi-dzə	ʻfly'	?
kə́-dzi-dzi	'vulture'	?
kə-bi-bwai	'water snake'	?
kə́-fú-fú	'tortoise'	?
kə́-ndzú-ndzú	'toad'	?
kə-si-si	'sand, sandy place, heap of sand, grain of sand'	?
fú-fwé↓	'nickname for a person with one smaller leg'	ú-fwe 'leg'
m-gbi-ŋgbáŋ	'brain'	?

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(8) Lexicalised C_li -reduplication in nouns of other Ring languages:

- (a) Zoa kə́-sī-sī?ə́ `ant (sp.)' kə́-sī-salə` `whip's mark' ndzi-ndzīm `really, truly'
- (b) Weh kə́-sə́-só?ó 'white ant'

Some of these items could be reconstructed at the Proto West Ring level (9), possibly even beyond, but the Aghem and Kom reflexes point to the fact that a stage of total initial reduplication precedes high vowel reduplication – an observation which is taken up in (49) below.

(9) Proto West Ring $k\dot{a}$ - $s\dot{s}2$ - $s\dot{s}2\dot{s}$ > $k\dot{a}$ - $s\dot{s}2\dot{s}$ (7/8) 'termite, white ant'

Isu $k\hat{a}$ -sú-só? \hat{o} (7/8) 'termite' Weh $k\hat{a}$ -s \hat{o} -só? \hat{o} (7/8) 'white ant' Aghem \hat{e} -só? \hat{o} -só? (5/13) 'wingless termite' Zoa $k\hat{a}$ -sí-sí? \hat{a} (7/8) 'ant (sp.)' Kom \hat{a} -sé?-sé? (7/8) 'termite'

While these nouns represent isolated lexicalised instances of high vowel reduplication, the verbal domain provides more substantial evidence for the productive application of high vowel reduplication. Thus, Isu adjectives and a subclass of verbs which denote qualities form a derived verbal adjective by prefixing the reduplicative morpheme $C_1 i$ -.² Its function is to indicate an increased degree of intensity of the quality encoded in the basic verb or adjective, as illustrated in the exhaustive list in (10).

 $^{^{2}}$ Actually, it is only this class of quality denoting verbs which could morphologically be defined by its capacity to derive this kind of intensive stem. Other semantic classes such as dynamic verbs of manipulation or locomotion do not accept high vowel reduplication.

(10) Formation of intensive verbal adjectives via initial high vowel reduplication $C_I i$ -

base	distinct IPF form	intensive verbal adjective	Structure of examples: Head noun + concordial linker + intensive adjective + concordial-out-of-focus marker	Comment: Check if intensive stem is only possible in
nè 'big'	-	nì-nè	 fòŋ ì nìnè yĩy 'a very big buffalo' kâ? fà nînê fĩy 'a very big tree', ŋkà? mà nînê mĩy 'very big trees' 	imperfective aspect and if this imperfective form is always identical to the imperfective of th simplex; check if the verbs take imperfective or pluractional infix -i
sið 'small'	-	sì-sìə	kâ? fà sisia fìy 'a very small tree' ŋkà? mà sisia mìy 'very small trees'	
<i>dàb</i> 'long, tall'	dàbà	di-dábò	kâ? fà didá ¹ bá fíy 'a very tall tree' ŋkà? mà didábà mĩy 'very tall trees'	
$t \hat{e} b$ 'small'	tébə́	ti-tébə	kâ? fà tứtébá fíy 'a very short tree' ŋkà? mà tứtébà mĩy 'very short trees'	
<i>tə́b</i> 'short'	tə́bə́	ti-tə́bə́	kâ? fà titábá fíy 'a very short tree' ŋkà? mà titábà mĩy 'very short trees'	
$d\lambda d$ 'heavy'	dìdà	$d\hat{i}$ - $d\hat{\lambda}d\hat{\partial}$	<i>ítái ì dîd</i> $\hat{a}^{\dagger}d\hat{a}$ <i>yíy</i> 'a very heavy stone' <i>átái à dîd</i> $\hat{a}^{\dagger}d\hat{a}$ <i>yíy</i> 'very heavy stones'	
zàŋ 'light'	zàŋè	zi-záŋð	<i>itái ì zizá¹ŋð yíy</i> 'a very light stone' <i>átái à zizá¹ŋð yíy</i> 'very light stones'	
táŋ 'tough'	táŋə́	ti-ta+ŋə	p a m i t t t a j a y y a very tough piece of meat' p a m t a t t a t y f t y very tough pieces of meat'	
táo 'hard'	túu	ti-táo	kâ? fà titáo fíy 'a very hard tree' ŋkà? mà titâo miy 'very hard trees'	
<i>bui</i> 'soft'	-	bi-buı	kâ? fà bibuí fíy 'a very soft tree' ŋkà? mà bibuî miy 'very soft trees'	
yá? 'fat'	yá?á	yi-yá?á	wù ù yiyá?à wiy 'a very fat person' áyê à yiyá?á yíy 'very fat people'	
$diy\hat{\epsilon}$ 'huge'	-	di-diye	wù ù didiyê wîy 'a very tall person' áyê à didiyê yîy 'very tall people'	
zúm 'dry'	zúmə́	zi-zúmź	fúw ⁴ tà zizúmá tíy 'very dry leaves' jkà? mà zizúmà miy 'very dry pieces of wood	1'
kài 'wet'	k ^h ìi	$k^{h}\hat{t}-k^{h}l^{\downarrow}$	<i>ndzù ì k^hîk^hî yiy</i> 'a very wet piece of cloth' <i>ndzú tà k^hîk^hî tiy</i> 'very wet clothes'	
<i>dzi</i> ´'dirty'	dzə́ə	dzi-dzə́ə	$ndz\hat{v}$ \hat{i} $dz\hat{i}dz\hat{s}$ $\hat{y}\hat{i}\hat{y}$ 'a very dirty piece of cloth' $ndz\hat{v}$ $t\hat{s}$ $dz\hat{i}dz\hat{s}$ $t\hat{i}\hat{y}$ 'very dirty clothes'	
zú 'clean'	zvée	zi-zuée	ndzů i zizuêe yiy 'a very clean piece of cloth' ndzú tà zizuêe tíy 'very clean clothes'	

6
Comment: [Isu4:66-69]

<i>dzùn</i> 'old'	dzùnà	dzi-dzúnə́	ndzů i dzidzúně yijy 'a very old piece of cloth' ndzú tě dzidzúné tív 'very old clothes'
$fi\hat{\partial}$ 'new'	-	fì-fiə	ndzù ì fifiə yiy 'a very new piece of cloth' ndzú tə fifiə tiy 'very new clothes'
bàŋ 'red'	bàŋè	bî-bá⁴ŋə́	$ndz\hat{v}$ \hat{v} $\hat{b}\hat{v}\hat{b}\hat{a}\eta\hat{a}$ $\hat{y}\hat{v}$ 'a very red piece of cloth' $ndz\hat{v}$ $\hat{t}\hat{a}$ $\hat{b}\hat{v}\hat{b}\hat{a}^{\dagger}\eta\hat{a}$ $\hat{t}\hat{v}$ 'very red clothes'
lə́ŋ 'black'	lə́ŋə́	li-lə́ŋə́	$ndz\hat{v}$ i $l\hat{i}l\hat{\partial}\eta\hat{\partial}$ $y\hat{i}\hat{y}$ 'a very black piece of cloth' $ndz\hat{v}$ the $\hat{i}\hat{i}\hat{\partial}\eta\hat{\partial}$ the
<i>fʌ̀m</i> 'white'	fàmè	$f\hat{i}-f\hat{\Lambda}^{\downarrow}m\hat{\partial}$	<i>ndzù ì fifámà yĩy</i> 'a very black piece of cloth' <i>ndzú tà fifá má tíy</i> 'very black clothes'
<i>fiài</i> 'frightful'	fiàa	fì-fi ¹ áa	fíð kð fifi ¹ áa kíý 'a very frightful thing' úfíð ù fifi ¹ áa wíý 'very frightful things'
dùw 'wide'	-	di-dúw↓	lɔ́ ⁴ ?ɔ́ kà didúw ⁴ kíy 'a very wide place' úlɔ́ ⁴ ?ɔ́ ù didúw ⁴ wíy 'very wide places'
míəlí 'deep'	míələ́	mi-miə́lə́	tsím ⁴ kà mîmiálá kíy 'a very deep pool' útsím ⁴ ù mîmiálá wíy 'very deep pools'
<i>dzwàb</i> 'good'	dzwàbè	dzi-dzwá ⁺ bə́	kâ? fè dzidzwá ⁴ bé fíy 'a very good tree' ykà? mè dzidzwábè miy 'very good trees'
<i>bɛ́b</i> 'bad'	bébə́	bi-bɛ́bə́	kâ? fà bibébá fíy 'a very bad tree' ykà? mà bibébà miy 'very bad trees'

Morphosyntactically, these reduplicative intensive forms are hybrids between noun and verb and should best be called participles or verbal adjectives. They are either based on adjectives such as $n\hat{e}$ 'big' or in the majority of cases on imperfective verb forms such as $d\hat{a}b\hat{a}$ 'become long, become tall' and share with verbs their morphotonological properties. On the other hand, they lack crucial verbal characteristics: they cannot be inflected for aspect and they cannot be used as main verbs in a matrix clause, instead they only occur in the above attributive construction which resembles a subject relative clause or in nominal predication such as (11). For an equivalent in independent clauses, the simplex is used in combination with the intensifier preverb $yg\hat{e}$ 'very' (12).

(11) Intensification in nominal predication by reduplicative participle

 $k\hat{a}^{2}$ $f \rightarrow \hat{d}^{2}$ $d\hat{a}$ \hat{f}^{2} $d\hat{i}d\hat{a}^{4}b\hat{a}$ $f - \hat{i}y$ tree 19-D1 COP 19 very.long 19-OF 'This tree is a very tall one.'

(12) Intensification of verbal predication by $\eta g e'$ very'

- (a) kâ? f-> ŋgĕ dàb-> ŋw>
 tree 19-D1 very be.long-IPF CF
 'This tree is very tall.'
- (b) $k\hat{a}$? f- \hat{a} $m\hat{a}$ $^{4}\eta g\hat{e}$ $d\hat{a}b$ tree 19-D1 P0.F very belong 'This tree has become very tall.'

While these intensive adjectives serve as a base to derive class 7 nouns of abstract qualities (13), there are also cases where the intensive reduplication seems to build directly on a nominal root, e.g. in derivation of $k\hat{a}nd\hat{i}nd\hat{a}n$ from the noun of quality $k\hat{a}nd\hat{a}n$ 'long thing, tall one' (14).

- (13) Nouns derived from intensive adjectivals
 - yá? 'become fat': yiyá?á 'very fat': köyiyà?, köyiyà? 'very fat thing' yiyà? kố wû 'a very fat person'
 - dàb 'become long': didá⁺bə 'very long': kədidàb 'very long thing'
 kâ? fə də fə didá⁺bə fiy 'this tree is a very tall one'
 isəŋ⁺ i didá⁺bə yiy, didàb kiisəŋ 'a very long tooth'

dzwàb 'be good': dzidzwá⁴bá 'very good': kàdzidzwàb, kádzidzwàb 'very good thing'
ù k^hú dzidzwàb ká úmwàm 'he has very good manners'
dzidzwàb ká fákà? 'a very good tree'

- $b\acute{e}b$ 'be bad': $b\acute{t}b\acute{e}b\acute{a}$ 'very bad': $k\acute{a}b\acute{t}b\acute{e}b$ 'very bad thing' $\dot{u} k^h \acute{u} {}^t b\acute{t}b\acute{e}b k\acute{a} \ \acute{u}mw am$ 'he has very bad manners'
- buí 'become soft': bibuí 'very soft': k>bwibwi 'soft thing'
 ù k^hú bwibwi k> úwè 'he has a soft body'

 $yg\acute{e}$ 'much, excessively': $k\acute{a}yg\acute{u}g\acute{e}$ 'excess, abundance' $y\acute{u}$ $pi\acute{a}$ $yg\acute{u}g\acute{e}$ $k\acute{a}$ $m\acute{a}y^{4}k^{h}w\acute{u}?i$ $\acute{a}w\acute{a}$ $ipf\acute{a}$ y-iyS3pl give excess 7 respect to death 5-OF 'They give / pay very much respect to death.'

- (14) Intensive denominal derivation
 - *ndíndáŋ kö dzát*⁺ 'a very distant road = the long way round, i.e. a road which is longer than others leading to the same destination'

The importance of the attestation of this type of high vowel reduplication in Isu resides in two facts: first, it links Isu and probably other Ring languages of the Grassfields to West African Benue-Congo and Kwa languages in general where high

vowel reduplication has been found an ubiquitous feature. Second, it provides the key to the historical explanation of another phenomenon in Isu (and other closely related Ring languages such as Zoa) which would seem odd otherwise: a palatal infix for imperfective function. It is exactly the intensive function of Isu high vowel reduplication observed in (10, 12-14) which establishes a link to this infix marker *-i*-via external parallels in a cognate strategy of South Ring Babungo discussed below in (35-36).

2.3 High vowel reduplication and its reflexes in verbal derivation and inflection

Given the fact that reduplication is such a paramount feature in many West African languages, one may ask why it seems to be restricted to these relatively isolated usages in Isu. The answer is that results of prior processes of vital reduplication have been obliterated in Isu on a broad scale by a process of haplological reduction, leaving as its terminal trace a palatal infix -i- which covers a variety of related meanings in modern Isu, namely causative, pluractional and imperfective (Kießling 2004, 2006). In all three functions the palatal infix is inserted immediately after the initial consonant of the verbal root and combines with an aspectual suffix -i (perfective) vs. -a (imperfective). This section describes the semantics and the morphophonemics of this infix and assembles internal as well as external evidence of its origin in a high vowel reduplication C_1i - which was reduced along the lines of haplology combined with reanalysis of morphological boundaries.

2.3.1 Palatal infix for causative and pluractional function

The palatal infix for causative function is marginal and largely restricted to quality verbs, most of them listed in (15), and to some motion verbs which allow for an assistive or adiuvative causative. Many verbs do not form a distinct causative stem, since they are characterized by dual transitivity, i.e. they unite transitive and intransitive reading, e.g. $dzw\partial i$ 'become loose; make loose, loosen'. Most other verbs have the capacity to form a syntactic causative by paraphrase with ztyi 'do, make'. This suggests that the infix for causative function is in the process of fading out – which is important to note as terminal stage of reduction which started from initial high vowel reduplication.

(15) Causative formation by palatal infix plus suffix ³	(15)	Causative	formation	by	balatal	infix	plus	suffix
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simplex	causative perfective	causative imperfective	gloss
bàŋ	biàŋì	biàŋè	'be red' : 'redden'
bếb	biếbí	biɛ́bə́	'be bad' : 'spoil'
dàb	diàbì	diàbà	'be long' : 'lengthen'
dày	diàŋì	diàŋà	'cross, traverse' : 'make cross, assist to traverse'
fàm	fiəmi [fyimi]	fyìmà	'be white' : 'whiten'
fəm	fiəmí [fyímí]	fyímə	'suffer' : 'vex, molest, disturb'
lốŋ	liə́ŋí [lyíŋí]	lyíŋə́	'be black' : 'blacken'
tə́b	tiə́bí [tyíbí]	tyíbə́	'be short' : 'shorten'
tsém	tsəɛmí	tsəɛ́mə́	'drop' : 'let drop'

Still more productive than the causative is the pluractional function of the infix as shown in (16). The label "pluractional" here subsumes at least six overlapping meanings exemplified in (17): patient plurality, resultative plurality, repetition, continuation, intensity and totality.

(16) Pluractional formation by palatal infix plus suffix⁴

simplex	pluractional, perfective	pluractional, imperfective	gloss
bíb	biə́bí [byíbí]	biə́bə́	'ask' : 'ask repeatedly'
bìd	biəlì [byìlì]	biàlà	'tear' : 'tear many items'
bəm	biəmì [byìmì]	biàmà	'mould' : 'mould completely'
bốŋ	biɔ̃ŋí	bisŋə	'pick up (once)' : 'pick up repeatedly'
dàŋ	diàŋì	diàŋə	'cross, traverse' : 'cross in a multiple fashion (e.g. like a spider)'
fáŋ	fiáŋí	fiáŋə́	'cross (arms, fingers), make immobile' : 'tie, entangle, become entangled'
féb	fiébí	fiébə	'blow out air, puff out once' : 'puff out air several times, in several puffs, blow out air constantly, e.g. of wind; winnow'
kàb	kiàbì	kiàbə	'scratch' : 'scratch repeatedly'

³ Apart from the infix strategy, some verbs derive a causative by taking the suffix -i (for perfective) vs. $-\partial$ (for imperfective), e.g. kum 'arrive, reach', yuy 'suck' and twab 'be sharp, be sweet' derive kumu' / kuma 'bring', yuyi / yuya' 'beastfeed' and twabi / twaba' 'sharpen', respectively. Other verbs operate an internal vowel change, e.g. yam 'be hot' derives the causative yu[u]mu' 'heat up').

⁴ Most revealingly, some verbs with inherent semantic plurality present a palatal element immediately after the initial consonant, probably reflecting a fossilised instance of the palatal infix, e.g. in kyth 'rub', tiayi 'stumble', lia't 'shatter'.

kém	kiếmí	kiếmə	'break in two parts' : 'break in several parts'
mò?	mi>2ì	mi`ə?`ə	'imitate' : 'imitate repeatedly'
táŋ	tiáŋí	tiáŋə́	'count, enumerate, declare' : 'count several times'
təm	tiə́mí [tyímí]	tiə́mə́ [tyímə́]	'dig; shoot; weave' : 'dig, shoot repeatedly'
tə́ŋ, tɨŋ	tiəŋi [tyiŋi]	tiəŋə [tyiŋə]	'push' : 'push repeatedly'

(17) Readings of the pluractional form

(a) patient plurality, i.e. multiple patients undergo the process encoded in the verb, e.g. fáy 'cross two fingers, hands, arms' vs. fiáyi 'tie, clench'

 $m\hat{\delta}$ $k\hat{i}$ $f\hat{a}y-\hat{\delta}$ $yw\hat{\delta}$ $w\hat{\delta}$ $k-\hat{i}y$ 'I will cross twofingers.'S1sgFUT1 cross-IPFCFhand7-OF $m\hat{\delta}$ $k\hat{i}$ $fi\hat{a}y-\hat{\delta}$ $yw\hat{\delta}$ $^{4}ygw\hat{\delta}^{2}$ S1sgFUT1 cross.PLUR-IPFCFfist'I will fold all my fingers, clenching a fist.'

(b) resultative plurality, i.e. the action results in a multiple patient, e.g. kem 'break in two parts' vs. kiemi 'break in several parts'

dzán káa-ŋwà kờ mố ⁺kiếmí stalk 7.7-writing S7 P0.F break.PLUR.PF 'The pen is broken in several pieces.'

ídzvź	í	ntwàa	í	kiếmí	d`ə?`ə	ŋwɔ̈́
mouth	5	pot	S5	break.PL.PF	stay	CF
'The mo	utł	n of the p	ot is	broken in seve	eral pla	ces.'

(c) repetitive / iterative, i.e. the action is repeated several times on the same patient, e.g. *tay* 'push' vs. *tyiyi* 'push repeatedly'

 $m\dot{\partial}$ $m\dot{\partial}$ tyiyi $w\dot{e}$ S1sg P1.F push.PLUR.PF O3sg 'I have been pushing him repeatedly.', 'I have kept pushing him continuously.', 'I have forced him.'

(d) continuative; i.e. the action or event continues for some time, e.g. $t \partial y$ 'push' vs. ty i y i 'keep pushing'

mô kî tyôŋô ŋwô wề
S1sg FUT1 push.PLUR.IPF CF O3sg
'I will keep pushing him continuously.', 'I will be pushing him repeatedly.', 'I will force him.'

(e) intensive, i.e. the event or action is carried out with a lot of energy and concentration for a certain duration (implying repetition) and has an extreme result, e.g. bw5? 'sound, ring' (simplex) vs. bv5?' 'shout' (pluractional)

mź	kî	bwź?ź	ŋwɔ̈́	'I will ring.'
S1sg	FUT1	sound.IPF	CF	
mź	bvɔ́?ɔ́		məmbəŋ	'I am shouting.'
S1sg	sound.P	LUR.IPF	6ab.cries	

(f) totality, i.e. the patient is completely affected by the process encoded in the verb, e.g. bàm 'mould' vs. byìmì 'mould completely'

tám k-á má byìmì 'The fruit has moulded completely.' fruit 7-OF P0.F mould.PLUR.PF

There is sporadic evidence that both strategies, suffixation of -i and infixation of -i-, operate independently of each other. For instance, the verb root $l \partial m$ 'emit a (mostly unpleasant) smell' in (18) derives a causative $l \partial m i$ 'sniff, take in a smell' by attaching the suffix -i without accompanying internal palatalisation. Combined suffixation of -i and infixation of -i- is used to derive a pluractional causative $l \partial m i$ 'sniff continuously'. Two different forms with slightly different meanings compete for the non-causative imperfective: $l \partial m \partial$ 'emit an unpleasant smell', formed by the regular imperfective suffix $-\partial$ vs. $l \partial m \partial$ 'emit a pleasant smell' combining the palatal infix with the regular imperfective suffix $-\partial$, formally identical to the causative imperfective and the pluractional imperfective. It seems as if the second form $l \partial m \partial$ represents an incomplete backformation from the causative (or pluractional form), replacing the causative suffix -i by the imperfective suffix $-\partial$, but leaving the palatal infix for causative or pluractional function untouched. This might have been semantically motivated by the fact that it is only with pleasant odours that one is inclined to take in a sniff by conscious and repeated efforts.

, , <u>,</u>	1			
	perfective	imperfective	pluractional perfective	pluractional imperfective
simplex 'emit a smell'	lòm	ləmə, liəmə	?	lìəmò
causative 'sniff, take in a smell'	lòmì	lìəmə	liəmì	lìəmə

(18) Causative, pluractional and imperfective formation with lom 'emit a smell'

2.3.2 Palatal infix for imperfective function

The palatal infix -i- is in a quasi-complementary distribution with a couple of other strategies such as suffixation of -a and various types of vowel alternation all of which serve the function to derive an imperfective verb stem. The distribution of these strategies is to a large extent conditioned by the structure of the perfective base, as outlined in table (22). In this way, verbal stems such as $b\dot{z}/\dot{z}$ 'take, carry', $n\dot{u}$ 'hide', $n\dot{a}$ 'keep, store', $b\dot{e}m\dot{z}$ 'agree', $mw\dot{a}m\dot{i}$ 'taste, try' and $m\dot{a}/\dot{a}$ 'throw' in (19a, 20a, 21a) derive the imperfective stems $bi\dot{z}/\dot{z}$, $n\dot{e}e$, $ni\dot{a}$, $bi\dot{e}m\dot{z}$, $mw\dot{a}m\dot{a}$ and $mi\dot{a}/\dot{a}$ in (19b, 20b, 21b), respectively.

- (19) Palatal infix for the imperfective aspect -i-: bɔ2ɔ (PF) vs. biɔ2ɔ (IPF) 'take, carry', na (PF) vs. nia (IPF) 'keep, store'
 - (a) $y\hat{u}$ $m\hat{\partial}$ $b\hat{\partial}\hat{\partial}\hat{\partial}$ $n\hat{u}$ $n\hat{a}$ $u\hat{k}^{h}\hat{i}$ w- $\hat{i}\hat{y}$ 3pl P0.F carry hide keep money 3-OF 'They have taken and hidden the money.'
 - (b) $y\hat{u} k\hat{i} b\hat{i}\hat{j}\hat{j}\hat{j}$ nèe niá $yw\hat{j} \hat{u}k^{h}\hat{i}$ $w\hat{i}\hat{y}$ 3pl FUT1 carry:IPF hide:IPF keep:IPF CF money 3-OF 'They will take and hide the money.'
- (20) Palatal infix for the imperfective aspect –*i*-: *bémá* (PF) vs. *biémá* (IPF) 'agree'
 - (a) mô mâŋ mwàmì bémô sò?ò ŋwồ
 1sg only try agree also CF
 'I agree only hesitantly."
 - (b) mô kî màaŋô mwàamô biếmô sò?ô ŋwô
 1sg FUT1 only:IPF try:IPF agree:IPF also CF
 'I will agree only hesitantly.'
- (21) Palatal infix for the imperfective aspect –*i*-: *mà?à* (PF) vs. *mià?à* (IPF) 'throw'
 - (a) mô mô mà?à ìtái y-iy
 1sg P0.F throw stone 5-OF
 'I have thrown a stone.'
 - (b) mô niô mià?à yô ìtáí
 1sg now throw:IPF CFG stone
 'I am throwing a stone.'

	Structure of the perfective base	imperfective strategy
А	CVC	CVC-ə
В	CVCi	C-i-VC-ə
C1	CVCə	C-i-VCə
C2	$CV_1 ?V_1$	C - i - V_1 ? V_1
D1	CiVCV, CyiCV	CiVC-ə, CyiC-ə
D2	{tw, dw, sw, zw}VCi	{tw, dw, sw, zw}VC-ə
D3	{ts, dz, bv, pf}VCi	{ts, dz, bv, pf}VC-ə
E1	Ca	С-і-а-а, С-ә-а-а
	$C\varepsilon$	C-i-se-e
	Сә	C-i-ə-ə
E2	$CV(V = a, \varepsilon, e, i, \partial, i, \partial)$	CV-V
E3	Си	С[w]-иэ
E4	Си	Cw-ee
F1	Cai	Ca-a
F2	Cai	Ci-i
F3	Cau	Си-и
G	Ci, Ciy, Ciə	Ci-a?a
Н	CVw, CVy, CVV, CwV	= PF

(22) Distribution of imperfective marking strategies according to the verbal structure⁵

While imperfective formation of monoradical roots (types E-H) seems to be very idiosyncratic indeed, diradical roots (types A-D) reveal a quasi-complementary distribution of the principal strategies of imperfective formation, i.e. infixation of -i- and suffixation of -a. The palatal infix is blocked as an imperfective marker, as soon as the initial consonant in a diradical base is either palatalised (type D1), labialised (type D2) or affricate (type D3). In these cases the suffix -a is the only option for the imperfective. However, this suffix is blocked, as soon as the diradical base terminates in schwa (C1) or echo-vowel (type C2), and the only option for the imperfective is the palatal infix. Only verb types A and B allow for a combination of palatal infix and schwa suffix. For verbs of type A it is clear that the suffix -a forms the imperfective, while the palatal infix derives a pluractional stem, resulting in systematic morphological quadruples (23). For verbs of type B (24) which apply infixation of -i- and suffixation of -a simultaneously, it is not clear if there is a systematic distinction of pluractional and imperfective reading.

⁵ Since a detailed overview plus morphophonological analysis of all the strategies involved in the imperfective formation is contained in Kießling 2006, only those dimensions are taken up here which relate to the palatal infix and provide evidence of its origin in a high vowel reduplication.

simplex	imperfective	pluractional, perfective	pluractional, imperfective	gloss
bíb	bíbə	biə́bí [byíbí]	biə́bə́	'ask'
bìd	bìdà	biəlì [byìlì]	biələ	'tear'
bəm	bəmə	biəmì [byìmì]	biəmə	'mould'
bốŋ	bốŋế	biốŋí	biốŋấ	'pick up'
dàŋ	dàyà	diàŋì	diàŋà	'cross, traverse'
fáŋ	fáŋə́	fiáŋí	fiáŋə́	'cross (arms, fingers)'
fếb	fébə	fiếbí	fiébə	'blow out air'
kàb	kàbà	kiàbì	kiàbə	'scratch'
kém	kémə	kiémí	kiémə	'break'
mò?	mò?ò	mi>2ì	miò?ò	'imitate'
táŋ	táŋə́	tiáŋí	tiáŋə́	'count, enumerate, declare'
təm	təmə	tiəmí [tyímí]	tiə́mə́ [tyímə́]	'dig; shoot; weave'
təŋ, tɨŋ	təŋə	tiəŋí [tyíŋí]	tiəŋə [tyiŋə]	'push'

(23) CVC (type A): combined imperfective suffix -a and pluractional infix -i-

(24) *CVCi* (type B): combined imperfective infix -i-and suffix $-\partial$ replacing perfective ending *i*

perfective	imperfective	gloss
bəlì	biələ	'answer'
káŋí	kiáŋə́	'fry'
kว์ŋว์	kiốŋə [kiốŋɔ͡]	'move across level ground'
nəŋì	niàŋà	'lie down'
tàŋì	tiàyə, [tiàyà]	'sew'
təmí	tiəmə [tyímə]	'stand, stop'

Verbs of type C (25) end in schwa or in an echo-vowel in their perfective base and form the imperfective by the palatal infix. The echo-vowel is the regular result of a total progressive transglottal assimilation of schwa, as testified by productive imperfectives of type A with terminal glottal stop in (26).

(25) CVCa (type C1), CV₁?V₁ (type C2): imperfective infix -i-

perfective	imperfective	gloss
bémə	biɛmə́	'agree'
bò?ò	bi>?>	'carry load on shoulder or head'
d`ə?`ə	di>?>	'sit down'
málð	miələ	'sink, drown, submerge'
lə́mə́	liə́mə́	'wait'

	mà?à	mià?à	'throw'
--	------	-------	---------

perfective	imperfective	gloss
bà?	bà?à	'herd'
bw)?	bwò?ò	'drill'
bwź?	bw5?5	'sound'
fà?	fà?à	'work'
fò?	fò?ò	'measure, imitate'
kò?	kò?ò	'see'
tsź?	ts ś?ś	'laugh'
tsu)?	tsuò?ò	'rinse'

(26) Transglottal assimilation of the imperfective suffix $-\partial$ to the quality of the root vowel⁶

In type D1 (27) the imperfective suffix $-\partial$ replaces the final vowel *i* of the perfective. The palatal infix cannot be applied, since the base already contains *i* or a palatalised consonant in the crucial position immediately following the initial consonant.

(27) CiVCV, CyiCV (D1): imperfective suffix - ∂ replaces final vowel *i*, infix -i-blocked

perfective	imperfective	gloss
biəlì	biələ	'tear many things'
biếbí, biếbí	biɛ́bə́ [biə́bə́]	'spoil, destroy'
kyílí	kyílá	'rub'
tiàŋì	tiàŋà	'stumble'
liá?í	liá?á (< *liá?-ə)	'shatter'

As soon as the initial consonant is labialised (type D2 in 28) or affricate (type D3 in 29), the palatal infix is blocked again and suffix $-\partial$ must be chosen to form the imperfective.

(28) {*tw, dw, sw, zw*}*VCi* (D2): imperfective suffix -*a* replaces final vowel *i*, infix –*i*-blocked

perfective	imperfective	gloss
twúmí	twúmź	'reject'
dú?í	dwɔ́?ɔ́	'rejoice, be happy'

 $^{^{6}}$ In these imperfectives, the terminal vowel is strikingly restricted to the qualities *a* and *b*. This is probably due to a series of root-internal assimilations in the environment of the glottal stop, see (42-48) below.

swò?ì	swò?ò	'tease'
twù?ì	twò?ò [twù?è, twò?è]	'take good care'
zù?ì	zwò?ò	'press, squeeze'

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(29) {*ts, dz, bv, pf*}*VCi* (D3): imperfective suffix $-\partial$ replaces final vowel *i*, infix -i-blocked

perfective	imperfective	gloss	
dzśŋi	dzɔ́ŋə́ [dzɔ́ŋɔ́]	'return'	
tsəɛ́mí	tsəɛ́mə́	'drop'	
bvú?í	bvɔ́?ɔ́	'call'	
dzù?ì	dzwò?ò	'get loose'	

A comparison of the verbal base forms in types D1, D2 and D3 in (27-29) reveals that they are all characterised by complex onsets, the complexity either resulting from palatalisation (27), labialisation (28) or affrication (29). It seems likely that these bases refuse imperfective formation by infixation exactly because their onset types represent the fusion of a simpler root initial consonant with a productive or a fossilised (palatal) infix, as indicated in table (30). The verb stems *biebi* 'spoil' and *tsoemi* 'let drop', for instance, are causatives, transparently derived from *beb* 'become bad' and *tsem* 'drop, trickle', respectively; *bioli* 'tear many things' and *bvú?i* 'call' can be recognised as pluractionals of *bàd* 'tear, split' and *bwó?* 'sound', respectively. In analogy to these instances of a productive derivation by way of infixation of -i-, verbs such as *lia?i* 'shatter' and *kyılı* 'rub', by virtue of their pluractional meaning, might be analysed as fossilised pluractionals, derived from *kád* 'cover' and a non-existent verbal base to be inernally reconstructed as **la*?.

(30) Presence of pluractional or causative infix -i- blocks imperfective formation by infix -i-

perfective	imperfective	gloss	base
biếbí	biếbə́	'spoil, destroy'	causative $< b \hat{\epsilon b}$ 'become bad'
biəlì	biàlà	'tear many things'	pluractional $< b\lambda d$ 'tear, split'
tsəɛ́mí	tsəɛ́mə́	'let drop'	causative < tsem 'drop, trickle'
bvú?í	bvɔ́?ɔ́	'call'	pluractional $< bw \dot{2}$ 'sound'
kyílí	kyílə́	'rub'	pluractional $< k \dot{d}$ 'cover'
tiàŋì	tiàŋờ	'stumble'	?pluractional < *tay ?
liá?í	liá?á	'shatter'	?pluractional $< lar ?$?

The fact that the imperfective infix -i- does not combine with labialised onsets tw, dw, sw, zw and affricate onsets ts, dz, bv, pf raises the suspicion that both labialisation and affrication originate in infixation, probably representing an

advanced stage of phonological reduction of the infix. Direct synchronic evidence for this hypothesis is provided by the fact that the plosive *b* in simplex $bw\dot{2}$ 'sound' is replaced by its affricate counterpart bv in the pluractional $bv\dot{a}\dot{2}$ 'call', an instance of initial consonant mutation where the affricate takes the functional role of a palatalised variant of *b*, discussed in (37-41) below.⁷

In both causative and imperfective function, the palatal infix tends to be lost in the environment of acute sound qualities: as soon as coronal consonants such as t, d, s, z, n precede and front or central non-low vowels such as ε , i, ∂ , i immediately follow, the palatal infix tends to undergo lowering and centralisation, attested in the causative $ts\partial\varepsilon mi$ 'let drop' ($< *tsi\varepsilon mi$) and the imperfective $z\partial\varepsilon m\partial$ 'awaken, wake up someone' ($< zi\varepsilon m\partial$) in (31). The resulting schwa may then either assimilate completely to the root vowel, as in the imperfective $n\varepsilon m\partial'$ 'grow up' ($< ni\varepsilon m\partial'$), or it may cause a lengthening in the friction phase of the preceeding fricative or affricate, attested in the variants $tss\varepsilon mi$ and $zz\varepsilon m\partial$. Occasionally, predecessor forms such as $zi\varepsilon m\partial$ and $ni\varepsilon m\partial'$ continue as rare archaic variants.

(31) Reduction of the palatal infix in acute environment (sibilants, coronals, front vowels)

(a) $ts \epsilon m$ 'drop, trickle'

causative: **tsiɛ́mi* 'let drop' > *tsəɛ́mi* (lowering & centralisation) > *tssɛ́mi* (compensatory sibilant lengthening)

(b) némô 'grow up'

imperfective: $ni\epsilon m \delta > n\delta\epsilon m \delta$ (lowering & centralisation) $> n\epsilon\epsilon m \delta$ (total assimilation: compensatory vowel lengthening)

 (c) zem 'wake up' : zəemə 'awaken, wake up someone' imperfective: ziemə > zəemə (lowering & centralisation) > zzemə (compensatory sibilant lengthening)

The diversity of imperfective forms presents the image of functional syncretism of previously distinct morphological strategies. In general, two distinct markers converge in imperfective function: the infixation of -i- and the suffixation of $-\partial$ which surfaces in many allomorphs, most of which derived by partial or total assimilation to the root vowel.

⁷ The aspectually determined alternation of root vowel υ (perfective) vs. υ (imperfective) is discussed in (42-48).

2.3.3 Diachronic analysis of the palatal infix

The palatal infix -i- in Isu probably evolved from a prior reduplicative prefix * C_1i with progressive function, i.e. a prefix which reduplicates the initial consonant of the root inserting a high front vowel between the original and its copy. This type of strategy, known as high vowel reduplication, is widely attested in Kwa and Benue-Congo languages in various functions (Faraclas & Williamson 1984: 2), e.g. in Akan (Schachter & Fromkin 1968: 155-177), Fongbe (Lefebvre & Brousseau 2002: 195-216), Yoruba (Awobuluyi 1982: 93, Bamgbose 1974: 9, Ward 1952: 70-72), Igbo (Anyanwu 1998: 62-3) and in Central Nigerian Plateau, e.g. in Kwoi (Gerhardt 1988), where it has repetitive function in the verbal domain and distributive plural function in the nominal domain. It also occurs in the wide Grassfields, e.g. in Ghomala' (32a) and Fe'fe' (32b), and in Northwestern Bantu, e.g. Ewondo (32c).

- (32) High vowel reduplication in Grassfields and North Western Bantu languages
 - (a) Ghomala' (Nissim 1975: 158f., Nissim 1981: 262-3, 294)
 sa? 'juger' : n-sû-sa? 'à juger ou jugé'
 sôh 'laver' : n-sû-sôh 'lavé ou à laver'
 - (b) Fe'fe' (Hyman 1972: 95-126)*za* 'eat' : *zu-za* 'eadible; do nothing but eating'
 - to 'punch' : tu-to 'do nothing but punching'
 - (c) Ewondo (Redden 1979: 17f.; Essono 2000: 282)

dig 'burn' : *i-di-dig-a* 'burnt' (qualificative adjective) bug 'break, shatter' : *e-bu-bug-a* 'broken, shattered' (qualificative adjective) *woy* 'fear' : *n-wu-woy* 'fearful person' (qualificative noun) *y-koe* 'bachelor' : *n-ku-koe* 'confirmed bachelor' (intensification) di 'eat' : *i-di-di-i* 'completely eaten up (e.g. by a moth)' (totality) din 'love' : *i-dii-din-i* 'uncontrolled love' (excessive)

Table (33) details the steps by which the infix might have developped from initial high vowel reduplication, relevant changes highlighted by bold. First, a perfective base such as $b\hat{z}/\hat{z}$ 'carry, take' derives an imperfective stem by reduplicating the initial consonant *b* and inserting a front high vowel *i*, resulting in the form $*b_1i$ - $b_2\hat{z}/\hat{z}$ (33a). Haplological reduction (33b) deletes the root initial consonant, i.e. the original. As a consequence the remaining reduplicated consonant which is part of the prefix is reanalysed as part of the root vis-à-vis the perfective base. This process finally turns the high front vowel of the prior prefix into an infix (33c). Thus, the palatal infix originates in the haplologically motivated reduction of the reduplicated verb form

combined with a paradigmatically conditioned reanalysis of morphological boundaries.

(33) Infix genesis via haplologically motivated reduction of the reduplicated verb form

perfective stem: $b\hat{\partial}\hat{\partial}\hat{\partial}$ 'carry, take'	pattern	example
(a) imperfective formation via $*C_li$ -	* <i>C</i> ₁ <i>i</i> - <i>C</i> ₁ <i>VC</i> ₂ <i>V</i>	* b 1 i- b2>2)
(b) haplologically motivated deletion of C_2 in the root	$*C_1 i$ -ØVC ₂ V	*b1i-Ø̀̀ɔ?ɔ̀
(c) paradigmatic reanalysis of the reduplicated initial as part of the root	$C_1 \mathbf{i} V C_2 V$	<i>b</i> 1 i 2?2

Even though stage (33a) is not attested synchronically, this process of infix genesis could be inferred on the basis of two general observations – its typological plausibility and the attestation of its predecessor form in the macro-area in semantically related functions – and two Ring specific details: (i) cognates of the reduplicated form are attested in other Ring languages, (ii) the internal reconstruction of the high vowel in the reduplicated prefix helps to explain further morphophonological peculiarities of imperfective formation such as initial consonant mutations and internal vowel changes.

2.3.3.1 Typological plausibility

Far from being unique in Africa, this type of infix genesis is attested in Cushitic languages. The Southern Cushitic language Alagwa (Tanzania) employs a reduplicative suffix $-aC_z$ for progressive function. In the course of haplologically motivated reduction and paradigmatically conditioned reanalysis of morpheme boundaries, the vowel of the suffix slips into the root, merging with the root vowel and creating an infix -aa- (Kießling 2003: 114ff.).

(34) Alagwa: genesis of an infix -aa- via haplological reduction of a reduplicative suffix $-aC_z$

Verbal bases ?ar 'see', kwaħ 'throw'	pattern	?ar 'see'	<i>kwaħ</i> 'throw'
(a) progressive derivation via suffix $-aC_z$ (combined with the durative suffix $-im$)	*C ₁ aC _z - aC _z -im	?ar ₁ - ar₂- im	kwah ₁ - ah 2-am
(b) haplologically motivated deletion of C_1 in the root	$*C_1 a \mathcal{O} - a C_z - im$?a Ø -ar ₂ -im	kwa Ø -aħ ₂ -am
(c) paradigmatic reanalysis of the reduplicated C_2 as part of the root	$*C_1$ -aa- C_z -im	?-aa-r-im	kw-aa-ħ-am

In principle, the Alagwa and the Ring instances of infix genesis are parallel with respect to both the reduplicative input form and the mechanisms and motivations of reduction. The only difference is that the Alagwa infix originates in a reduplicative suffix $-aC_z$, in harmony with the predominantly suffixing character of this Southern Cushitic language, whereas the Isu infix originates in a prefix C_1i .

2.3.3.2 Ring-internal evidence of high vowel reduplication C₁i-

Initial reduplication involving a central high vowel is attested in another Ring language, namely in *Vayo* a.k.a. Babungo (South Ring), where it serves two distinct functions (Schaub 1985: 217f., 353ff.): deriving a progressive form from dynamic verbs (35) and an intensive form from stative verbs (Schaub 1985: 218, 255) in (36). On the one hand, this second semantic notion clearly links the Babungo high vowel reduplication with the synchronically productive Isu high vowel reduplication in intensive function as progressive and intensive is the hinge which links the Isu reduplication in intensive function and the palatal infix for the imperfective.

(35) Babungo (South Ring): prefix C_1i - for progressive(-imperfective) (Schaub 1985: 353ff.)

(a) H-verbs: *bwéy* 'sleep', *sáy* 'beat', *kúunô* 'return home', *nyôŋsô* 'suckle, breastfeed'

simplex: perfective	progressive(-imperfective)
ŋwə́ ⁺bwey 'he slept'	$yw\hat{\partial} b\hat{\partial} t$ - "bwey 'he is sleeping'
ŋwə́ ⁺sáŋ wée 'he beat a child'	$yw\hat{a}^{\dagger}s\hat{t}\hat{a}y$ we'e 'he is beating a child'
<i>ŋwə́ ⁺kuunə́</i> 'he returned home'	$\eta w \hat{j}^{\dagger} k \hat{i} - i k \hat{u} u n \hat{j}^{\dagger}$ 'he is returning home'
<i>ŋwə́ ⁺nyɔŋsə́ weé</i> 'she suckled the child'	$\eta w \hat{\sigma}^{+} n y \hat{\iota}^{-+} n y \hat{\sigma} \eta s \hat{\sigma} w \hat{e} \hat{\epsilon}$ 'she is suckling the child'

(b) L-verbs: bwey, live', fee, fear', no?no, shake', feso, frighten'

simplex: perfective	progressive(-imperfective)
<i>ŋwə́ bwêy</i> 'he lived'	$\eta w \hat{a}^{\dagger} b \hat{i} - b w \hat{ey}^{\dagger}$ 'he is living' = 'he is alive'
$\eta w \hat{j} f \hat{e} e b \hat{j} \hat{j}$ 'he feared the leopard'	$yw\hat{a} f\hat{i} - f\hat{e}e \hat{b}\hat{a}\hat{a}$ 'he is fearing the leopard'
ηwə nə?nə 'he shook (himself)' ηwə fésə wee 'he frightened a child'	<i>ŋwəʿ ⁺nɨ-nəʿî⁺nəʿ</i> 'he is shaking' <i>ŋwəʿ ⁺fɨ-fé⁺sə́ wée</i> 'he is frightening a child'

(36) Babungo (South Ring): prefix C_li - for intensive (Schaub 1985: 218)

bay 'become red'

 $\eta w \hat{b} \hat{t} - b \hat{ay}$ 'he is redding; he becomes red; he is very red'

Reanalysing Schaub's 1985 description of the aspectual categories in Babungo, it appears that the progressive is part of a tripartite opposition involving perfective and imperfective. According to him (1985: 217), the progressive is based on the imperfective: "progressive aspect is marked by a prefix, consisting of a repetition of the initial consonant of the verb root [...] plus a central vowel. The tones found in the progressive aspect indicate that it is an elided form of a reduplication of the verb in its imperfective aspect." (Schaub 1985: 217). The perfective is marked by a floating *H prefixed to the verb, while the imperfective is marked by a prefixed succession of floating *LH (Schaub 1985: 337ff.). Assuming that the Babungo imperfective morpheme is cognate to the Isu floating *L which marks the imperfective in Isu noninitial serialised verbs, the following comparative interpretation emerges: Babungo represents a more archaic stage of the aspectual marking than Isu. Tonal marking of the imperfective has been restricted to non-initial serialised verbs in Isu, while the former progressive marking strategy $*C_li$, retained as such in Babungo, has been grammaticalised as a secondary imperfective marking strategy in Isu, the semantic extension being formally reflected by a process of erosion which results in the high vowel of the prefix slipping into the root as an infix. Formally and functionally these lines of development present nothing peculiar. Actually it is quite common for a progressive to be formed by reduplication and to evolve into an imperfective (Bybee, Perkins & Pagliuca 1994: 166-175).

2.3.3.3 Initial consonant mutation

The same historical scenario of a haplologically motivated reduction of initial high vowel reduplication also helps to explain another peculiarity in verbal morphophonology: the alternation of b vs. bv to be observed in the verbs cited in (37).

Perfective	imperfective	pluractional perfective	pluractional imperfective
búní 'sleep'	bv ún <i>э</i>	-	_
<i>bw5</i> ? 'sound'	bwɔ́?ɔ́	bv ú?í	bv5?5
<i>bwò?</i> 'drill'	bw`??``	bv ừ?ì, bv>?ì	bvò?ò
<i>bwàlì</i> 'force into or through a set of sticks in order to create space'	bv uàlà	-	-
<i>bwa</i> 'bend, turn; become calm'	bv uáa	-	-

(37) Paradigmatic alternation of b vs. bv

In this context, *bv could be analysed as the result of a regressive spirantisation triggered by a high vowel, which is reminiscent of the well-known Bantu spirantisation (Hyman 2003: 53, Schadeberg 1994/95) and might be integrated into the following scenario of morphophonological development (38).

(38) Chronology of high vowel reduplication and spirantisation

Perfective stem: bun-i'sleep'	
(a) imperfective derivation by $*C_1i - \partial$	* b 1 i -b2ún-ð
(b) haplologically motivated deletion of root initial C_2	*b1i-Øún-ə́
(c) spirantisation (under high vowel influence)	*b ₁ vi-ún-ə́
(d) monophthongisation and deletion of the high vowel	$*b_1 v \mathscr{O}$ -ún-á
(e) paradigmatically conditioned reanalysis of the reduplicated initial as part of the root	$*b_1vun-\hat{\partial}$

Two examples in (37) present additional complications: first, the initial affricates encode the pluractional, not the imperfective; second, there is a root internal change in vowel quality which could be ascribed to the operation a regressive transglottal assimilation discussed in (42-48). The morphophonological development of these examples unfold in full detail in (39).

(39) Chronology of high vowel reduplication and spirantisation

perfective stems	<i>bwò?</i> 'drill' (< * <i>bù?</i>)	<i>bwɔ́?</i> 'sound' (< * <i>bú</i> ?)
(a) pluractional-perfective derivation by $*C_1i$ <i>i</i>	* b 1 i -b2 <u>0</u> ?-ì	* b 1 i -b2ú?-í
(b) haplologically motivated deletion of root initial C_2	*b1i-Øù?-ì	*b1i-Øú?-í
(c) spirantisation (under high vowel influence)	*b ₁ v i-ù?-ì	*b ₁ v i-ú?-í
(d) monophthongisation and deletion of the high vowel	$b_l v \mathscr{O} - \dot{v}^2 - \dot{i}$	*b ₁ vØ-ú?-í
(e) paradigmatically conditioned reanalysis of the reduplicated initial as part of the root	$b_1 v \dot{v}? \cdot \dot{i}$	$b_1 v \dot{u} ? - \dot{l}$

The feature shared by the examples in (37-39) is that the initial affricate bv, irrespective of whether it encodes pluractionality or imperfectivity, represents the last trace of the original high vowel reduplicative prefix. Mutations of this kind seem to be restricted to the affricative alternation b > bv in Isu. In neighbouring Zoa, however, the initial consonant mutation also affects the consonants s, z and dz, which are replaced by f, z and dz, respectively, in the imperfective, as indicated in (40).

(40) Zoa: palatalisation and affrication of the initial consonant in the imperfective

type of mutation	perfective	imperfective	gloss
$S > \int$	spw	ſù, sù	'wash'

Z > 3	zźw	зú	'hear'
dz > dz	dzào	dzòo	'divide, share'
dz > dz	dzà	dʒìɑ [dʒɑ̀]	'say'
b > bv	bấb	bvə́bə́	'ask'

The affricative alternation b > bv therefore is part of the same paradigm as the palatalising alternations s > f and z > 3. This suggests that both process types, i.e. affrication and palatalisation, originate in the same source: a high front vowel. Thus, bv is the regular result of palatalisation of b in Isu as well as in Zoa. The difference between both languages is that palatalisation of the initial consonant is much more advanced in Zoa than in Isu.

The affricative-palatalising initial consonant mutation must be quite old, since its irregular pattern of distribution across the modern West Ring languages points to the fact that it has been superseded by secondary processes of analogical leveling and backformation. On this line of thought, the initial affricate in the perfective form of the Aghem reflex of Proto-West-Ring $*b\dot{v}b$ 'ask' in (41) must be analysed as the result of a backformation based on the imperfective form.

(41) Distribution of b vs. bv in Proto-West Ring *bub (PF) 'ask' vs. *bi-bub-a (IPF)

	perfective	imperfective
Aghem	bvú	bvúɔ
Bu	bi	[?]
Isu	bấb	bəbə
Weh	bấb	[?]
Zoa	bấb	bvəbə

2.3.3.4 Internal vowel alternations

The consonant mutations in the verbal aspectual paradigm are accompanied by vowel alternations, the most regular of which is the change from σ in the perfective to σ in the imperfective.⁸

(42) Alternation of root vowel υ (perfective) vs. diphthong $\upsilon \upsilon \sim w \upsilon$ (imperfective)

⁸ Other contexts present various marginal types of vowel alternations, e.g. the derivation of the causative stem $y\hat{u}[u]m\hat{i}$ 'heat up, excite' from the root $y\hat{\partial}m$ 'become hot' displays a change of ∂ to u. Comparative evidence confirms the originality of a lexical back rounded vowel in the Proto-West Ring reconstruction * $n\hat{u}m$. In Isu backness spread regressively to the preceding nasal turning it into a velar and leaving a delabialised and centralised vowel in the root. Thus, the causative form, probably derived via a chain of changes such as *yi- $y\hat{u}m$ - $\hat{i} > *y\hat{u}[u]m$ - \hat{i} , retains an original feature which has been shifted in the simplex.

perfective	imperfective
$z\dot{v}\hat{\prime}\dot{\imath}$ 'explain; teach; learn'	zuɔ́?ɔ́ ~ z wɔ́?ɔ́
zù?ì 'press, squeeze'	$z u \hat{\rho} ? \hat{\rho} \sim z w \hat{\rho} ? \hat{\rho}$
<i>bwɔ̃ʔ</i> (< * <i>bũʔ</i>) 'drill' ⁹	bườ?ờ ~ bwờ?ờ
bvú?i´`call'	bvuɔ´?ɔ´ ~ bvɔ´?ɔ´
dú?i' 'rejoice, be happy'	$du \hat{s} \hat{r} \hat{s} \sim dw \hat{s} \hat{r} \hat{s}$
<i>tsù</i> ? 'rinse'	tsuò?ò ~ tsw ò?ò
$ts \dot{v} \hat{l} i$ 'be merry, be cheerful'	tsu525 ~ $tsa525$
<i>two?i</i> 'take good care for'	twuɔ̃?ɔ̃ ~ twɔ̃?ɔ̃
$dz\dot{v}?\dot{i}$ 'get loose, make loose'	dzwò?ò

This vowel alternation is the result of a series of assimilations which start from an imperfective form with suffix ∂ , as sketched in (43) and exemplified in (44) in single steps. First, the verbal root vowel spreads its features [+back, +round] to the schwa suffix, turning it into ∂ , already observed in the verbs of group E3 in (22). In the next step the quality of this vowel is anticipated through the glottal stop, resulting in a root internal diphthong $\partial \partial$, the first part of which then develops into an approximant. ~

(43) Morphophonological details of imperfective formation of verbs with the structure $*Cu^2$

- (a) suffixation of the imperfective marker: **Cu*?-*a*
- (b) progressive transglottal spreading of the features [+back, +round] to the imperfective suffix: **Cu*?-*o*
- (c) diphthongisation by partial regressive transglottal vowel assimilation: Cuo?o
- (d) diphthong resolution by creation of an approximant (loss of vowel mora?): **Cw*2?-2

perfective stems	zù?-ì 'press'	zú?-í 'explain'
(a) imperfective derivation via *- <i>ə</i>	*zù?-à	*zú?-ð
(b) progressive transglottal spreading of the features [+back, +round]	*zù?- ò	*zú?-5
(c) partial regressive transglottal vowel assimilation (diphthongisation)	*zu ɔ ?-ɔ̀	*zu3?-5
(d) diphthong resolution by approximant deletion	zwò?ò	zw5?5

(44) Assimilations create vowel alternations in the paradigm

⁹ Comparative evidence from the West Ring reconstruction * $b\dot{v}k$ suggests that the modern Isu perfective form $bw\dot{z}$? with the labial glide has arisen by backformation from the imperfective.

This means that the labialisation of the initial consonant in the contemporary imperfective forms reflects the original labial root vowel v, still present in the perfective base, while the more open vowel v results from a regressive assimilation of the imperfective suffix.

	perfective	imperfective	pluractional perfective	pluractional imperfective
'drill'	bwə? (< *bù?)	bwə?ə (< *bù?-ə)	bvù?ì	bv`ə?`ə
'sound' > 'call' (PL)	bwɔ́? (< *bú́?)	bwɔ́?ɔ́ (< *bú́?-ə́)	bvú?í	bvɔ́?ɔ́

(45) Assimilations create vowel alternations in the paradigm

The labial approximants in the contemporary perfective forms of the verbs $bw\hat{\partial}^2$ 'drill' and $bw\hat{\partial}^2$ 'sound' in (45) result from backformations which are based on the imperfective forms $bw\hat{\partial}^2\hat{\partial}$ and $bw\hat{\partial}^2\hat{\partial}$, respectively, and which must have ousted the prior bases $b\hat{u}^2$ and $bw\hat{\partial}^2\hat{\partial}$, respectively. In the course of analogical leveling in the aspectual paradigm, the final vowel in the imperfective forms has been reanalysed as the sole imperfective marker, while the fusional results of partial regressive transglottal vowel assimilation (diphthongisation) (46c) and diphthong resolution by approximant deletion (46d) have been retained and carried over to the perfective. In both cases, the underlying root vowel u has been retained as such only in the pluractional perfective (probably under the influence of the suffix vowel -i). In the case of $bw\hat{\partial}^2$ 'drill', this analysis is confirmed by external comparative evidence, since this Isu reflex could be linked very smoothly to the West-Ring reconstruction $*b\hat{u}k$ 'drill'.¹⁰

perfective stems	<i>bw</i> 2 'drill' (< * <i>b</i> 0?)	<i>bwɔ̂?</i> 'sound' (< * <i>bû</i> ?)
(a) imperfective derivation by *- <i>ə</i>	*bù?-à	*bú?-ð
(b) progressive transglottal spreading of the features [+back, +round]	*bù?- ò	*bú?- ó
(c) partial regressive transglottal vowel assimilation (diphthongisation)	*bu `? ?-``	*bu ɔ́ ?-ɔ́
(d) diphthong resolution by approximant creation	bwò?ò	bw5?5

(46) Vowel assimilations create internal vowel alternations

¹⁰ If there was no such external evidence, the root vowel v in those verbs which contain the perfective suffix -*i* (48) might alternatively be explained as resulting from regressive vowel raising triggered by - *i*. There is no compelling Isu internal evidence to decide which way the assimilation went and which of the contemporary aspectual forms represent the original lexical vowel quality.

The derivation of the imperfective pluractional forms in (47) combines regressive transglottal assimilation (47c) with the reduction of high vowel reduplication. Note that under these conditions there is no diphthongisation and subsequent approximant creation, i.e. the regressive transglottal assimilation is not partial, as in the case of the simplex stems (46c, 44c), but rather total. It seems as if there is no need to retain the high quality of the root vowel, probably motivated by the presence of the reduplicative prefix which contains a high vowel. Historically speaking, the high root vowel has been compensated by the presence of the high vowel prefix which has been transferred to the initial consonant in the form of affrication.

(47) Chronology	of high	vowel	reduplication	and	spirantisation	in	imperfective
pluractionals							

perfective stems	bwɔ̀? 'drill' (*bù?)	<i>bwɔ́?</i> 'sound' (< * <i>bú?</i>)
(a) imperfective pluractional derivation by $*C_li$ - ∂	* b 1 i- b2 <u>ù</u> ?-à	* b 1 i -b2ú?-á
(b) progressive transglottal spreading of the features [+back, +round]	*b1i-bù?- ò	*b ₁ i-bú?- ó
(c) total regressive transglottal vowel assimilation	*b1i-b ɔ ?-ɔ̀	*b1i-b ɔ ́?-ɔ́
(d) haplologically motivated deletion of root initial C_I	*b1i-Ø``ə?-`ə`	*b1i-Ǿɔ?-ɔ́
(e) spirantisation (under high vowel influence)	*b1 v i->?->	*b1 vi- 5?-5
(f) monophthongisation (deletion of the high vowel)	*b ₁ vØ- <i>à</i> ?-à	*b ₁ vØ-ś?-ś
(g) paradigmatically conditioned reanalysis of the reduplicated initial as part of the root	$b_1 v \hat{o} \hat{?} \hat{-} \hat{o}$	$b_1 v \hat{o} \hat{?} \hat{-} \hat{o}$

The operation of all these processes in Isu brings about the establishment of a fixed pattern of morphologically conditioned vowel changes in the aspectual paradigm, i.e. root vowel σ in the perfective alternates with σ in the imperfective. Unless the process is combined with an affrication of the initial consonant (resulting from reduced high vowel reduplication), the vowel σ in the perfective alternates with σ or $w\sigma$ in the imperfective, where the higher round vowel, i.e. the reflex of the original quality of the root vowel, is preserved in a labialisation of the initial consonant. The stages in this development are detailed and exemplified in (48).

perfective	internal recon- struction of im- perfective form	progressive spread- ing of the features [+back, +round]	partial regressive transglottal vowel assimilation	diphthong resolution
zú?i 'explain'	*zú?-á	zú?-ś	zบว์ใว์	zwź?ź
<i>zù?ì</i> 'squeeze, pressen'	*zù?-à	zù?-ò	<i>z</i> υɔ̀?ɔ̀	zwò?ò
bw`?? (< *b`u?)	*bù?-à	bù?-ò	bu`>?`>	bw`??``

(48) Morphophonological adaptations of the imperfective pattern $*Cu^{2}-\partial$

'drill'				
dú?í 'be happy'	*dú?-э́	dú?-ś	duɔ́?ɔ́	dw5?5
tsu? 'rinse'	*tsù?-à	tsù?-ò	tsu`??``	tsw>?>
<i>twù?ì</i> 'take good care of'	*twù?-à	twù?->	twบว?วิ	twò?ò
bvú?í 'call'	*bvú?-ə́	bvú?-ś	bvuɔ́?ɔ́	bv5?5
<i>tsú?i</i> 'be cheerful' ¹¹	*tsú?-ð	tsú?-ว์	tsบว์?ว์	tsəว์?ว่

3 A unified model of the historical development of total reduplication in Benue-Congo

Faraclas & Williamson 1984 present two models in order to explain the distinct paths of morphophonological development of two different strategies of reduplication in Niger-Congo: high vowel reduplication in (49) vs. non-high vowel reduplication in (50). "While Niger-Congo ([+high] vowel, RK) reduplication seems to have developed through the reduplication of the verb root, [-high] vowel reduplication could have resulted from the fusion of a verb root and a cognate object (a verbal noun derived from the verb in question) following it" (Faraclas & Williamson 1984: 6). In their model, high vowel reduplication is the final outcome of reduction of a total reduplication of the verbal root CVC-CVC (49a). This reduction includes the loss of the final consonant in the first (reduplicated) part (49b) and the reduction of the vowel (49c) which means maximal closure plus centralisation (if the phonological system of the respective language supports this option), both processes motivated by "stricture assimilation" "to bring about a maximally reduced vowel in a reduplicated syllable" (Faraclas & Williamson 1984: 3). Within Grassfields, the transition of (49ac) could be exemplified by the oscillation between Proto West Ring reconstructions * $k\hat{\partial}$ - $s\hat{\partial}\hat{2}$ - $s\hat{\partial}\hat{2}\hat{2}\hat{2}$ (7/8) 'termite, white ant' (total reduplication variant) and * $k\hat{\partial}$ - $s\hat{i}$ - $s\hat{\partial}\hat{2}\hat{2}$ (reduced variant with high vowel reduplication). It has also been reported for Eastern Grassfields Fe'fe', where the majority of the villages, e.g. Bafang and Petit Diboum, have developed high vowel reduplication from what must have been total reduplication, as attested in Banka (Hyman 1972: 95-126).

West Ring evidence from Isu and Zoa now point to the fact that high vowel reduplication certainly does not represent the final stage of reduction. Instead, high vowel reduplication can further be reduced via haplologically motivated deletion of the initial consonant of the verbal root (49d), producing a form which retains nothing but the (high) vowel of the original reduplicated syllable which slips as infix into the

¹¹ This is a pluractional form of $ts \hat{j}^2$ 'laugh', attesting a process of regressive transglottal vowel assimilation triggered by the high vowel pluractional suffix -i: $ts \hat{j}^2 \hat{i} < *ts \hat{j}^2 \hat{i}$.

root by way of reanalysis of morpheme boundaries. Obviously even this vowel may disappear, leaving a terminal trace in spiranticising or simply lengthening the initial consonant (49e-f).

(49) Origin and further reduction of high vowel reduplication (based on Faraclas & Williamson 1984)

(a) total reduplication of the verb stem	CVC-CVC	
(b) deletion of final consonant in first part	CVØ-CVC	
(c) reduction of the reduplicated vowel	Ci-CVC, Ci-CVC, Cu-CVC	
(d) haplologically motivated deletion	$CV_{[+hoch]} - \emptyset VC$	
(e) affrication (under high vowel influence)	$C_{[+affr]}V_{[+hoch]}$ -VC, $CCV_{[+hoch]}$ -VC	
(f) high vowel deletion	$C_{[+affr]} \varnothing$ -VC, CC-VC	

(50) Origin and further reduction of non-high vowel reduplication (based on Faraclas & Williamson 1984: 14), exemplified with Obolo (Lower Cross)

(a) construction of verb plus cognate complement (e.g.	
for predication focus)	CVC <i>ə</i> -CVC
(b) vowel assimilation	CVC o-CVC, CVC e-CVC
(c) consonant deletion	CVo-CVC, CVe-CVC
(d) vowel fusion / approximant creation	Cwo-CVC, Cye-CVC
(d) approximant deletion	Co-CVC, Ce-CVC

In the course of these developments a complete reduplication of the verbal root becomes condensed in a modification of the root initial consonant which is manifest synchronically as an affrication or lengthening mutation in the morphological paradigm. Against the background of this scenario, the proliferation of highly elaborate systems of secondary modifications in initial consonants observed in a number of Grassfields languages, e.g. in Ngiemboon (Anderson 2001), might prove to reflect even further advanced stages of development in which the consonant alternations have lost their grammatical functions, becoming fully lexicalised.¹²

4 Conclusion

The focus of this contribution has been on the diachronic analysis of the palatal infix in Isu which serves various functions such as derivation of causative and pluractional verb stems and formation of the imperfective. It has been shown that, formally, this

¹² It also has to be checked how phenomena such as internal vowel lengthening in durative function in Lamnso' (bám 'hold' vs. báamé 'embrace', see Ndzenyuy & Mba 2003: 51) and infixed mid vowels for derivation of participles in Tikar (tan 'count' vs. tean 'counted', see Stanley 1991: 102-125) fit into this typological scenario.

infix originates in high vowel reduplication which is widespread in Kwa and Benue-Congo languages of West Africa and even attested as a cognate predecessor form in progressive function in the South Ring language Babungo. From a functional point of view, a former high-vowel-reduplicative progressive in Isu became increasingly grammaticalised as an imperfective, intruding upon the domain of the older imperfective which operates with the schwa suffix.¹³ In this way, the palatal infix of Isu and some of its closest neighbours does not stand out as a weird phenomenon which sets these languages apart from the rest of Benue-Congo, but rather intergrates fairly smoothly into the overall constitution of Benue-Congo.

Abbreviations

 $^{^{13}}$ Taking into account the relation between meaning and form, this investigation also illustrates the fact that there is a tendency in Niger-Congo (and probably universally, see Bybee 1985) to draw aspect marking strategies as close as possible to the verbal root even to such a degree that phonological fusion occurs which is a step towards conflation of lexical meaning and aspectual meaning, motivated by the notion of semantic relevance. The palatal infix for imperfective aspect evolving from initial high vowel reduplication in some Grassfields languages of the West Ring group is one example. Another example can be seen in the intrusion of parts of the perfect suffix *-*ide* into the verbal root in some Bantu languages, especially in zone J – a process known as "imbrication" (Bastin 1983, 2003: 526-7).

CF clause focus OF out-of-focus marker CFG centrifugal P0 immediate past COP copula P1 hodiernal past D1 near demonstrative P2 hesternal past DUR durative PF perfective F focalisation PLUR pluractional FUT1 near future S subject FUT2 distant future SJN subjunctive **IPF** imperfective **TERM** terminative O object

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