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# Dependent clauses with the conjunction *kù* ‘and’ in Dinka: Clause chaining in a non-SOV language

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## Abstract:

Dinka, a Western Nilotic language, has a construction in which a clause with dependent syntactic status is combined with a preceding clause of any type by means of the conjunction *kù* ‘and’, which is also used for coordinating both noun phrases and independent clauses. Dependent *kù*-clauses, which all have the same syntactic structure, do not express any particular semantic function and normally have fewer markers of tense, aspect and mood than the clause with which they are combined. But they are interpreted as having the same semantic function and generally also the same tense, aspect and mood as that clause.

**Keywords:** Dinka, Western Nilotic, conjunction, clause chaining, cosubordination

## 1 Introduction

This article explores an aspect of the syntax of Dinka, a Western Nilotic language spoken in South Sudan.<sup>1</sup> The purpose is to demonstrate that Dinka has a construction in which a clause with dependent syntactic status is combined with a preceding clause of any type by means of the conjunction *kù* ‘and’, which is also used for coordinating both noun phrases and independent clauses. Dependent *kù*-clauses, which all have the same syntactic structure, do not express any particular illocutionary force and inter-propositional semantic function (cf. Mann & Thompson 1987) and normally have fewer markers of tense, aspect and mood than the clause with which they are combined. But they are interpreted as having the same illocutionary force

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1 I wish to thank my principal Dinka informants Isaac Maker, Kuyok Abol Kuyok, David Daniel Marial and Peter Gum Panther for their assistance. In addition, I wish to thank an anonymous reviewer for helpful comments on an earlier version of this article.

or semantic function and generally also the same tense, aspect and mood as that clause. Depending on the preceding clause, a dependent *kù*-clause like (1) could be interpreted as, for instance, ‘and she cooked meat’, ‘and she used to cook meat’, ‘and is she cooking meat?’, ‘and if she cooks meat’, ‘and because she cooks meat’, ‘and so that she cooks meat’, or ‘and who is cooking meat’.

- (1) *kù t̥ɛɛl r̥iŋ*  
and cook.3SG meat.SG

Thus, a sentence that includes a dependent *kù*-clause may be said to be an instance of clause chaining of the initial-consecutive type (Longacre 1990, Longacre 2007, Dooley 2010), and the dependent *kù*-clause itself may be said to be an instance of cosubordination (Olson 1981, Foley & Van Valin 1984, Van Valin & Lapolla 1997, Van Valin 2021), which contrasts with both coordination and subordination. However, a discussion of these notions is beyond the scope of the present article.

The article is organized as follows. Section 2 is a brief presentation of clause structure in Dinka, with a major distinction between NP-initial (and verb-second) clauses, verb-initial clauses, and particle-initial clauses. Section 3 is an introduction to tense, aspect and mood (TAM) in this language. Section 4 is a brief overview of the ways in which the conjunction *kù* ‘and’ is used. Section 5 briefly describes the structure of dependent *kù*-clauses, which are verb-initial, with respect to the form of the finite verb and the ways subjects are expressed. Section 6 shows (i) that the clause on which a dependent *kù*-clause is dependent, i.e., the preceding clause, can be of any type, (ii) that the *kù*-clause gets its illocutionary force and/or its semantic function from that clause, and (iii) that *kù*-clauses are not necessarily semantically consecutive, that is, that they do not necessarily indicate the chronological order of events, but may also describe a simultaneous event or state. Section 7 illustrates that a dependent *kù*-clause typically has fewer markers of tense, aspect and mood than the preceding clause on which it is dependent, but that it is to be interpreted as having the same tense, aspect and mood as that clause. Section 8 concludes the article.

The variety of Dinka dealt with here is the Agar dialect. The transcription uses IPA symbols. The Agar dialect has a ternary vowel length contrast between short (V), long (VV) and overlong (VVV), a

binary phonation contrast in the vowel between modal voice quality (V) and breathy voice quality (V̤), and a ternary tonal contrast in the vowels between low (V̂), high (V̄) and falling (V̆) (Andersen 1987). The phonation and tone diacritics are placed on the first of a sequence of vowel symbols.

The data on which this article is based were collected in South Sudan and Sudan during several periods between 1981 and 2009. Most of my text corpus was collected in Khartoum between 1988 and 1995. All of it is oral material, which contains the following genres: narrative, oral history, interview, personal history, song, and marriage negotiation.

Examples from my text corpus are marked by “(t.)” after the English translation. Other examples come from elicitation. When an example is a complex sentence, it is divided into clauses, which are ordered with numbers rather than letters. Some constituents consisting of more than one word are enclosed in brackets in the interlinear translation.

## 2 Clausal constituent structure

In terms of their initial constituent, apart from an initial conjunction, clauses are either NP-initial (and verb-second), verb-initial, or particle-initial (Andersen 2019). With few exceptions, the order of clausal constituents after the finite verb is strictly fixed (Andersen 2007, 2019). Syntactically, a verb stem is either intransitive, transitive, ditransitive or copulative. The morphology of verbs consists of a derivational stratum and an inflectional stratum. In the derivational stratum, derived verb stems such as antipassive, applicative, causative and centrifugal are formed from verbal roots. In the inflectional stratum, verb stems (whether underived or derived) may be inflected for e.g. subject.

### 2.1 NP-initial clauses

NP-initial clauses are declarative and begin with an NP in the nominative case, which is the citation form and which is morphologically unmarked. This NP is a clause-internal topic, as illustrated by the three propositionally synonymous clauses in (2). This topic NP may be, among others, a subject (2a), an object (2b) or an adjunct (2c).

- (2) a. *màrjàal*    *à = t̥àt*            *màbòor*    *è*            *léc.*  
 Marial.SG    D.SG = beat    Mabor.SG    [PREP    stick.SG]  
 ‘Marial is beating Mabor with the stick.’
- b. *màbòor*    *à = t̥ét*                    *màrjàal*  
 Mabor.SG    D.SG = beat.NST    Marial.SG.GEN  
*è*            *léc.*  
 [PREP    stick.SG]
- c. *léc*            *à = t̥ét*                    *màrjàal*            *màbòor.*  
 stick.SG    D.SG = beat.NST    Marial.SG.GEN    Mabor.SG

NP-initial clauses conform to the clause schema in (3) with ten slots in which the constituents occur if they are present (Andersen 2019).

- (3) 1. Topic, expressed as a noun phrase in the morphologically unmarked nominative case. This noun phrase may be zero if third person.
2. Proclitic declarative marker, sg. *à =*, pl. *àa =* or *áa =*. As indicated in (5) below, other minor constituents may also occur between the topic and the finite verb.
3. Finite verb.
4. Subject, expressed as a noun phrase in the genitive case; this is glossed as genitive (GEN) only if the genitive case does not syncretize with the nominative case for the relevant noun phrase.
5. Plural marker *kè* ~ *ké* of a plural non-subject topic.
6. Expressed as a noun phrase in the nominative case: (i) the object of a transitive verb, or (ii) the first object of a ditransitive verb (either a patient or a beneficiary), or (iii) a body-part noun externally possessed by an intransitive or copulative subject.
7. One or more non-finite verbs.
8. A body-part noun externally possessed by the first or only object, in the nominative case.
9. Expressed as a noun phrase in the nominative case: either (i) the second object of a ditransitive verb (either a patient or a beneficiary) or (ii) a copula complement.
10. One or more adjuncts.

The topic slot (3.1) may be empty, but in that case a third person pronominal element is implied as a covert topic, i.e. a topic expressed by zero. It is followed in position (3.2) by a declarative marker, which agrees with the topic for number, even when the topic is covert. Position (3.3) always contains a finite verb, which may be inflected for subject if the topic is object. If the subject, the object of a transitive verb, or an adjunct are not selected for the topic position, they occur in positions (3.4), (3.6) and (3.10), respectively. The finite verb may be an auxiliary, and in that case the main verb occurs in position (3.7) in non-finite form, optionally together with one or more additional auxiliary verbs in non-finite form preceding the semantically main verb. The second object of a ditransitive verb or the complement of a copulative verb occurs in position (3.9), and cannot be topicalized. A body-part noun externally possessed by an intransitive or copulative subject occurs in position (3.6), and a body-part noun externally possessed by a first or only object occurs in position (3.8). A plural non-subject topic is optionally cross-referenced by the plural marker *kè ~ ké* in position (3.5).

The finite verb has an inflectionally unmarked form if the topic is subject, as in (4a). The declarative marker is a proclitic and therefore not part of the inflection of the verb, and it may be separated from the verb, cf. (5) and (12.2) below. By contrast, the finite verb has an inflectionally marked form if the topic is not subject. Before a nominal subject the finite verb has a form glossed as NST (for “having a non-subject topic”), as in (4c). Here the topic *màkêr* ‘Maker’ is an adjunct, since in postverbal position this participant would be expressed as the prepositional phrase *(n)è màkêr*. A pronominal subject is expressed in the finite verb if the topic is object, as in (4b), where the topic *tùm* ‘tree’ is object. But a pronominal subject is expressed by a free pronoun if the topic is an adjunct (unless the subject is unspecified), and in that case the finite verb has the NST form. An unspecified subject, which is glossed as UNSP and translated as passive, is expressed in the finite verb whether the topic is an object or an adjunct.

- (4) a. *djàar*            *áa = cèn*            *pîiw*.  
           woman.PL    D.PL = not\_have    water.PL  
           ‘The women have no water.’ (t.)

- b. *tìim*      *à=jép-kù*.  
 tree.SG    D.SG = cut-1PL  
 ‘We are cutting the tree.’
- c. *màkêr*      *à=bêêr*                      *márjàal*.  
 Maker.SG    D.SG = be\_tall.NST    Marial.SG.GEN  
 ‘Marial is taller than Maker.’

In addition to the declarative marker, other minor constituents may occur in preverbal position, where they may co-occur with each other and with the declarative particle (Andersen 2016). In this way there are six slots before the finite verb, as shown in (5).

- (5) 1. Topic.  
 2. Assertive particle *k=*.  
 3. Declarative marker, sg. *à=*, pl. *àa=* or *áa=*.  
 4. Past tense particle *è*.  
 5. Pronominal cross-reference of the topic.  
 6. Negation *cè* or irrealis marker *d(j)è*.

The assertive proclitic *k=*, which weakly emphasizes the truth value of a clause with the declarative marker, occurs in position (5.2) between the topic and the declarative marker. The past tense particle *è* occurs in position (5.4), but fuses with a preceding declarative marker. In the presence of the past tense particle, the topic is cross-referenced pronominally in position (5.5), but with 3SG being zero. The negation *cè* or the irrealis marker *d(j)è* occurs in position (5.6) immediately before the finite verb.

## 2.2 Verb-initial clauses

Verb-initial clauses conform to clause schema (3), except that they lack the first two slots. Examples of such clauses are questions (6a), orders (6b), sequential clauses beginning with the sequential auxiliary verb *góo*, which have a declarative function (6c)<sup>2</sup>, relative clauses (6d), and temporal or conditional clauses with the conjunction *nàa* ‘when, if’ (6e) or *tè* ‘when, if’ (6f). The relative clause in (6d) is verb-initial since it begins with the auxiliary verb *cé*. That this is a

<sup>2</sup> That the sequential auxiliary verb is indeed a verb is shown by the fact that it is inflected like a verb, cf. Andersen (2007: 93).

verb is evidenced by the facts that it takes the position of a finite verb and that it is inflected like a verb, as shown in Andersen (2007: 93).

- (6) a. *nɛ̀ɛk t̪ɔ̀k?*  
kill.3SG goat.SG  
'Is he killing a goat?'
- b. *mwɔ̀ɔc à t̪òk ɛ̀ màcér!*  
give.2SG [1SG mouth.SG] PREP tobacco.SG  
'Give my mouth tobacco!' (t.)
- c. *góo márjàal mèt̪ t̪âat.*  
SEQ Marial.SG.GEN child.SG beat.NF  
'Then Marial beat the child.'
- d. *ʒóŋ cɛ̀ mèt̪ câam*  
dog.SG.CS1 [PF child.SG eat.NF]  
'the dog which has bitten the child'
- e. *nàa bɔ̀ àjít̪ [...].*  
if come chicken.SG.GEN  
'If a chicken comes, [...].' (t.)
- f. *t̪è t̪úuɣ kék r̪òt̪ [...].*  
if eliminate.NST 3PL.GEN hippopotamus.PL  
'If they eliminate the hippopotami, [...].' (t.)

In a verb-initial clause the subject is always overtly expressed, but a third person object or adjunct may be covert. If there is no covert constituent, a pronominal subject is expressed in the verb, as in (6a–b). A nominal subject, on the other hand, is preceded by the inflectionally unmarked form of the verb, as in (6c–e). If there is a covert object or a covert adjunct, the finite verb (whether a lexical verb or an auxiliary) has the NST form before a subject NP. This is seen in the question (7a) and in the relative clause in (7b), where the object is covert. It is also seen in the question (8) and in the purposive clause (9.2), where there is a covert adjunct with instrumental meaning. Inside the relative clause in (7b) the object, which is coreferential with the head *ké* 'thing', is covert in the sense of being zero.



- (7) a. *méεen*      *tùik?*  
 hate.NST    woman.SG  
 ‘Does the woman hate him?’
- b. *ké*                      *céem*      *mùit*  
 thing.SG.CS1 [eat.NST    child.PL]  
 ‘what children eat’
- (8) *cǐ*              *ɲá*              *tòon*      *kwêem?*  
 PF.NST    who.GEN    pot.SG    break.NF  
 ‘Who has broken the pot with it?’
- (9) 1. *àn*      *à = góoor*              *è*      *páal*  
 1SG      D.SG = search.AP    [PREP    knife.SG]  
 ‘I want a knife’
2. *báan*                      *àjít*              *téem*      *ról*.  
 FUT.NST.1SG.GEN    chicken.SG    cut.NF      throat.SG  
 ‘in order to slaughter a chicken with it.’

In clauses with a covert adjunct a pronominal subject is not expressed in the verb (unless it is an unspecified subject), but is expressed by a free pronoun after the NST form of the verb, as in (9.2), where the phonological word *báan* is a contraction of the future auxiliary verb *bǐi* (FUT.NST) and the subject *u'éen* (1SG.GEN). Some types of adverbial clauses always require the NST form of the verb (except when the subject is unspecified), for instance clauses beginning with the conjunction *tè* ‘when, if’ as in (6f); so such clauses behave like clauses in which there is a covert adjunct.

### 2.3 Particle-initial clauses

Particle-initial clauses also conform to clause schema (3), except that instead of the first two slots they begin with a particle which is followed by an NP before the finite verb. This NP may have the same grammatical relations to the verb as the preverbal NP of a NP-initial clause, being either a subject, an object, or an adjunct. Examples of particle-initial clauses are main clauses beginning with the particle *kè* ‘then’, which are declarative but have no declarative marker (10.2); adverbial clauses beginning with the conjunctive particle *(k)é* ‘while’ (11.2); and adverbial clauses in which the particle *cè*

‘not’ occurs after the conjunction *náa* ~ *nàa* ‘when, if’ (12.1). The negation *cè* is not an auxiliary verb since it cannot be inflected. As seen in (10.2), a 3SG pronominal preverbal NP is zero, while other pronominal preverbal NPs have the short shape CV, like *ɥò* ‘we’ in (12.1). In NP-initial clauses, by contrast, pronominal preverbal NPs have a longer form ending in a consonant (except that third person pronouns normally are zero in that position). The auxiliary verb *c̣ĩ* in (11.1) expresses an unspecified subject (translated as passive), and therefore it does not have the NST form.

(10) 1. *wán jòok jéen tìik bàaaaj*  
 when find.NST 3SG.GEN woman.SG home.LOC  
*é tòk,*  
 [3SG one]

‘When he found the woman alone in the house,’<sup>3</sup>

2. *kè ṭjēc ẹ p̣ĩw.*  
 then ask.AP [PREP water.PL]

‘then he asked for water.’ (t.)

(11) 1. *rów à = c̣ĩ ṇòk*  
 hippopotamus.SG D.SG = PF.UNSP kill.NF  
*ṭòoc*  
 swamp.LOC

‘A hippopotamus has been killed in the swamp’

2. *kè ḳòc ṃáj.*  
 while person.PL fish.AP.H

‘while people were fishing.’ (t.)

(12) 1. *náa c̣è ɥò ṭáj*  
 if NEG 1PL separate.H

‘If we don’t separate,’

2. *kè ṛàaan ṭòk à = c̣è*  
 then [person.SG.CS2 one] D.SG = NEG

3 The phrase *é tòk* is what yields the meaning of ‘alone’.

*béer*                      *láj.*  
 take\_along.NST    animal.SG.GEN  
 ‘an animal cannot attack one person.’

If there is more than one preverbal particle, the preverbal NP occurs after the first of them, as in the question (13), where *tìik* ‘woman’ occurs between the past tense particle *è* and the negation particle *cè*. The past tense marker *è* is not an auxiliary verb since it cannot be inflected.

(13) *è*    *tìik*                      *cè*    *tàal*    *mjàet?*  
 PST   woman.SG    NEG    cook    food.SG  
 ‘Was the woman not cooking food?’

### 3 Tense, aspect and mood (TAM)

As will be illustrated in section 7, a dependent *kù*-clause normally has fewer markers of tense, aspect and mood than the clause on which it is dependent. The purpose of the present section, therefore, is to overview the structural elements of the tense-aspect-mood (TAM) system of the Agar dialect of Dinka. This overview is not intended as an exhaustive description of the semantics of the TAM markers.

#### 3.1 Introduction to TAM

In Dinka, verbs are not inflected for tense, aspect or mood (TAM). But all of these semantic categories are to some extent expressed by means of auxiliary verbs or particles, so they have to be recognized as belonging to the grammar of Dinka. The inventory of such words with a tense, aspect or mood function in the Agar dialect of Dinka is shown in Table 1. It consists of four primary auxiliary verbs (Andersen 2007), shown in their inflectionally unmarked form, and three particles (Andersen 2016). These TAM words are discussed in the following subsections, with underlining in the interlinear translation.

Table 1. Words with tense, aspect or mood function in the Agar dialect of Dinka

Word class	Form	Label
Auxiliary verbs	<i>cĕ</i> ~ <i>cĭ</i>	Perfect (PF)
	<i>kĕĕc</i> ~ <i>kĭĭc</i>	Negative perfect (NEG.PF)
	<i>bĕ</i>	Future (FUT)
	<i>èe</i> or <i>jèe</i>	Habitual (HAB)
Particles	sg. <i>à</i> , pl. <i>áa</i> or <i>àa</i>	Declarative (D)
	<i>ĕ</i> or <i>ĕ</i>	Backgrounded past tense (PST)
	<i>djĕ</i> ~ <i>dĕ</i>	Irrealis (IRR)

### 3.2 The perfect auxiliary verbs *cĕ* (PF) and *kĕĕc* (NEG.PF)

The perfect auxiliary verb *cĕ* ~ *cĭ* (PF) and its negative counterpart *kĕĕc* ~ *kĭĭc* (NEG.PF) often or mostly have perfect meaning. In (14) *cĕ* thus indicates that the (present or past) situation denoted by the proposition is the result of a prior event. This is perhaps most clearly seen in ‘while’-clauses (14b) and relative clauses (14c). In (14b) *tòw* means ‘he has/had died’, indicating a state which results from the event of dying.

- (14) a. *uġak* = *k-wà*                      *áa* = *cĕ*                      *ḍwóok*  
 cow.PL.CS2 = PL-1PL    D.PL = PF.3SG    return.APPL.NF  
*uġò*.<sup>4</sup>  
 1PL  
 ‘He has returned our cows to us.’ (t.)
- b. *kù*    *ḍɔŋ*                      *àdwèer*                      *kĕ*                      *cĕ*                      *tòw*.  
 and remain    Aduer.SG    [while    PF                      die.NF]  
 ‘and Aduer remained, while dead.’ (t.)
- c. *nòoon*                      *cĭ*                      *nàaj*  
 grass.SG.CS1    [PF.UNSP    twist.NF]  
 ‘twisted grass’ (Lit. ‘grass which has been twisted’) (t.)

4 The finite auxiliary verb *cĕ* expresses a third person singular subject, while the verb *ḍwóok* ‘return’ is the main verb with non-finite form.

Some speakers also use *cɛ́* as a perfective past tense marker, as in (15).

- (15) *kè ànɛ̀yòooŋ àa = cɛ́ bɛ̀ɛn ɛ́ wɛ̀ɛɛj*  
 then vulture.PL D.PL = PF come.NF [PREP [chyme.SG  
*ìc.*  
 stomach.SG]]  
 ‘then the vultures came to a chyme.’ (t.)

Other speakers only use *cɛ́* as a perfective past tense marker in combination with another auxiliary verb, especially the non-finite form *bàné*, which literally means ‘come and do’, as in (16.2). The perfect auxiliary verb form *cɛ̀i* in (16.2) expresses an unspecified subject.

- (16) 1. *wán cɛ̀i-nɛ́ jè gáam ɛ́*  
 when PF-UNSP.CT 3SG agree.NF [by  
*ráaan ɛ̀bán,*  
 person.SG.GEN all]  
 ‘When it was agreed upon by everybody,’  
 2. *kòc àa = cɛ̀i bənɛ́ kwáaŋ.*  
 person.PL D.PL = PF.UNSP come\_and\_do.NF pick.NF  
 ‘people were nominated [...].’ (t.)

The perfect auxiliary verb *cɛ́* does not combine with the negation *cɛ̀*. Instead, the negative perfect auxiliary verb *kɛ̀ec* is used; that is, the negative counterpart of (17a) is (17b).

- (17) a. *tìk à = cɛ́ mjèet ɽáaal.*  
 woman.SG D.SG = PF food.SG cook.NF  
 ‘The woman has cooked food.’  
 b. *tìk à = kɛ̀ec mjèet ɽáaal.*  
 woman.SG D.SG = NEG.PF food.SG cook.NF  
 ‘The woman has not cooked food.’

In (18) the negative perfect auxiliary is used in a relative clause.

- (18) *kè j̄in à = cɛ̀ bɛ̀er-ɛ́ lâat*  
 then 2SG D.SG = NEG do\_again-UNSP insult.NF

è      ràn                      k̩ɛc-è                      góɔr      ɲòm.  
 [by   person.SG.CS1   [NEG.PF-UNSP   mark.NF   head.SG]]  
 ‘then you are not insulted again by somebody whose head  
 has not been marked.’ (t.)

### 3.3 The future auxiliary verb *bɛ* (FUT)

The future auxiliary verb *bɛ* (FUT) is used for expressing future tense, as in (19) and (20.1). But it is also used for introducing a purposive (or resultative) clause, as in (20.2).<sup>5</sup>

(19) *lwòok    àa = b̩i                      t̩aaap      ɲjàak.*  
       case.PL   D.PL = FUT.UNSP   finish.NF   tomorrow  
       ‘The cases will be finalized tomorrow.’ (t.)

(20) 1. *bòol̩iit̩                      áa = bà                      tóoc*  
       policeman.PL   D.PL = FUT.1SG   send.NF  
       ‘I will send the police’

2. *b̩ik      k̩ɔc                      l̩ɛk.*  
       FUT.3PL   person.PL   inform.AP.APPL.NF  
       ‘to inform people.’ (t.)

### 3.4 The habitual auxiliary verb *èe* (HAB)

The habitual auxiliary verb *èe* (HAB), which is homonymous with the copula verb ‘be’, expresses habitual meaning, as in (21). When the habitual auxiliary verb combines with the past tense particle, it expresses ‘habitual in the past’, as in (23) below. After a word ending in a vowel, the habitual auxiliary verb begins with the glide /j/, as in (23a) below.

(21) a. *àrjòoc      èe                      mj̩ɛt̩ = k-è                      m̩uk.*  
       coward.SG   D.SG.HAB   child.PL.CS2 = PL-3SG   hold.NF  
       ‘A coward feeds his children.’ (a proverb) (t.)

<sup>5</sup> In (20.2) the purposive clause refers to the future, but such a clause may also refer to the past.

- b. *ée*            *màaṭ*            *ẹ*            *bâaŋgè?*  
HAB.2SG    smoke.AP.NF    [PREP    opium.SG]  
 Do you smoke opium?’ (t.)

### 3.5 The past tense particle *ẹ* or *ẹ́* (PST)

The past tense particle *ẹ* or *ẹ́* (PST) is not used in event-line clauses in narratives, but it is used in clauses which provide background information in narratives, where it can be characterized as a marker of imperfective past tense. In (22) it occurs in clauses without any auxiliary verb, here fusing with the plural declarative marker into *áa*.

- (22) a. *bě́ɛɛj = k-éen*            *áa*            *kè*            *tjáak*.<sup>6</sup>  
 home.PL.CS2 = PL-3PL    D.PL.PST    3PL    be\_near.REC  
 ‘Their homes were near each other.’ (t.)

- b. *kɔ̄ɔc*            *àbẹ́ɛk*            *áa*            *kè*            *mẹ́ɛc*  
 [person.PL.CS1    part.PL]    D.PL.PST    3PL    tie.AP  
*ẹ*            *uɔ̄k*            *ẹ*            *lwák*            *cóok*.  
 [PREP    cow.PL]    [PREP    [shrine.SG    foot.SG]]  
 ‘Some people were herding around the shrine.’ (t.)

In (23) the past tense particle combines with the habitual auxiliary verb. In (23a), the past tense form *ẹ/ẹ́* fuses with the singular declarative marker *à* into *ée*.

- (23) a. *tôoc*            *ée*            *jèe*            *màaj*  
 swamp.SG    D.SG.PST    HAB    spend\_dry\_season.NF  
*ké*            *pīiw*.  
 [COM    water.PL]  
 ‘The swamp used to remain with water during winter.’ (t.)
- b. *áa*            *kée*            *cáaṭ*            *ẹ́páṭ*.  
 D.PL.PST    3PL.HAB    walk.NF    just  
 ‘They used to walk naked.’ (t.)

In (24) the past tense particle combines with the perfect auxiliary verbs.

<sup>6</sup> The morpheme *-k* in *bě́ɛɛj = k-éen* ‘their homes’ indicates plural possessum, not plural possessor.

- (24) a. *kù ròṭ áa kè cé djèt*  
 and hippopotamus.PL D.PL.PST 3PL PF bear.AP.NF  
*àpêej.*  
 very\_much  
 ‘And hippopotami had multiplied in great number.’ (t.)
- b. *jêen ée ḳiic ḍaac ḅêen*  
 3SG D.SG.PST PF.NEG do\_soon.NF come.NF  
*nè ẉéet è ṃéec è*  
 [PREP [word.SG.CS1 [of [be\_far.NMLZ.SG.CS1 of  
*p̣j̣n.*  
 land.SG.GEN]]]]  
 ‘He had not turned up early, due to the remoteness of his home.’ (t.)

The past tense particle is also used in clauses where it is presupposed that the event described by the verb has taken place, as in (25).

- (25) a. *è ṛów ṇák*  
 PST hippopotamus.SG kill.UNSP  
*tjôow?*  
 place.SG.CS1.which.SG.ESS/ABL  
 ‘Where was the hippopotamus killed?’ (t.)
- b. *mjàar = d-jè ée djéet ẉéε*  
 bull.SG.CS2 = SG-1SG D.SG.PST give\_birth.UNSP [P3  
*ṛúut.*  
 autumn.LOC]  
 ‘My male calf was born last autumn.’

The uses of the past tense particle as expressing (i) imperfective past tense and (ii) event presupposition seem to have in common that they mark (part of) the proposition as backgrounded.

Event-line clauses in narratives typically begin with either the sequential auxiliary verb *góo* (SEQ), as in (26), or with the word *kè* ‘then’, as in (27)–(28). A clause with *kè* ‘then’ is normally preceded by a temporal clause or some other time adjunct which establishes a point in time at which the event of the main clause took place, as in (27)–(28). A *kè*-clause without the declarative marker (with *kè*



counting as a particle) is a statement about a specific past event, as in (27.2). By contrast, a *kè*-clause with the declarative marker (with *kè* not counting as a particle) is a statement about a past or non-past habitual situation, as in (28.2) which describes a past habitual situation.

- (26) 1. *gòo kwáak j̄iit̄ p̄iŋ.*  
SEQ.3SG catch.CF.NF ear.PL ground.ALL  
 ‘Then he seized its ears.’
2. *góo àfwòwŋ íc ɲèɛɛr.*  
SEQ lion.SG stomach.SG.EP collapse.NF  
 ‘Then the lion got frightened.’ (Lit. ‘Then the lion’s stomach collapsed’) (t.)
- (27) 1. *nâa uɔ̀n ɲjàak,*  
 when.be.3SG P4 tomorrow  
 ‘The following morning,’
2. *kè b̄ɔ̀n rjèeel t̄en è*  
then chief.SG go\_early.CP [place.SG.CS1.ALL of  
*lwòok.*  
 case.PL]  
 ‘the chief came early to the cases.’ (t.)
- (28) 1. *nâa m̄áj k̄òc,<sup>7</sup>*  
 when fish.AP.H person.PL.GEN  
 ‘When people fished,’
2. *kè r̄òot̄ âa k̄òc*  
then hippopotamus.PL D.PL.HAB person.PL  
*côop.*  
 chase.NF  
 ‘hippopotami used to chase people.’ (t.)

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7 It seems that (28.1) is neutral with respect to the distinction between habitual and non-habitual meaning.

### 3.6 The irrealis particle *djè* ~ *dè* (IRR)

The irrealis particle *djè* (IRR), with the shortened variant *dè*, has counterfactual meaning, as illustrated in (29).

- (29) a. *ée*            *dè*    *cé*    *tòw*.  
           D.SG.PST IRR    PF    die.NF  
           ‘He would have died.’ [but he didn’t] (t.)
- b. *nàŋ* *é*    *kêɛc*            *là*                    *kôŋŋ*,  
       if    PST    NEG.PF.1SG    go\_and\_do.NF    help.NF  
       ‘If I had not helped him,’  
       *ée*            *dè*    *cé*    *môow*.  
       D.SG.PST IRR    PF    drown.MID.NF  
       ‘he would have drowned.’

## 4 Coordination with *kù* ‘and’

The conjunction *kù* ‘and’ may conjoin both noun phrases and independent clauses. In addition, it conjoins a dependent clause with the clause on which that clause is syntactically dependent.

Two or more noun phrases may be conjoined by placing the coordinative conjunction *kù* ‘and’ between them. In (30) the simple NP *ḍ̣k* ‘boy’ and the complex NP *nàn è mārjàal* ‘Marial’s daughter’ are conjoined so that they constitute an NP. In (30), this conjoined NP occurs in the preverbal NP position in a clause with the declarative marker, and it is the subject of the verb *ḅ̣* ‘come’.

- (30) *ḍ̣k*            *kù*            *nàn*                    *è*            *mārjàal*  
       [boy.SG    and    [girl.SG.CS1    of    Marial.SG.GEN]]  
       àa = *ḅ̣*.  
       D.PL = come  
       ‘A boy and Marial’s daughter are coming.’

The same conjunction may also conjoin independent clauses. In (31)–(32), two declarative clauses with the declarative marker are conjoined in this way.

- (31) 1. *p̄īw*                    *è* *pwòot*    *âa*            *k̄ɔ̄ɔɔc*,  
 [water.PL.CS1    of    pool.PL]    D.PL.HAB    stand.NF  
 ‘Water in pools remains stagnant,’  
 2. *k̄ī*    *k̄ák*                    *è*    *n̄īin*                    *âa*  
 and [thing.PL.CS1    of    tributary.PL]    D.PL.HAB  
*r̄īŋ*    *w̄īir*.  
 run.NF    river.LOC  
 ‘and tributaries run to the river.’ (t.)
- (32) 1. *t̄jôop*    *âa = c̄è*            *p̄át̄*,  
 soil.PL    D.PL = NEG    be\_good.H  
 ‘The soils are infertile,’  
 2. *k̄ī*    *âa = l̄ew*            *b̄īik*            *d̄âac*  
 and    D.PL = be\_able    [FUT.3PL    do\_quickly.NF  
*j̄īit*.  
 erode.NF]  
 ‘and they are liable to erosion.’ (t.)

The fact that the conjunction *k̄ī* used for conjoining NPs is also used for conjoining independent clauses seems to make Dinka rather exceptional among African languages. Thus, Welmers (1973: 305) mentions that “in any African language to which I have had sufficient exposure to find out”, the word for ‘and’ used for conjoining NPs cannot be used for joining verbs or sentences. Creissels et al. (2008: 139) make the same generalization:

“[...] in most African languages, the morpheme used as the equivalent of English *and* in noun phrase coordination (which generally also serves as the comitative adposition ‘with’ [...]) cannot be used for clause coordination. Exceptions to this generalization are only sporadic, and never extend to entire families or areas.”

Some other Western Nilotic languages are like Dinka in that a conjunction meaning ‘and’ can be used for coordination of both clauses and noun phrases. This is the case with Mabaan *ʔócé* ‘and’, Jumjum *ʔáŋ* ‘and’, Kurmuk *ʔòo* ‘and’, Surkum *ùu* ‘and’, and Regariik *wà* ‘and’. These five languages all belong to the Burun branch of the Western Nilotic family.

The third use of the conjunction *kù* ‘and’ is found in clauses which are dependent on a preceding clause, but which are not embedded in that clause. An example of this is seen in (33). Here *kù* contrasts with the conjunction *ká* ‘or’, which in the same way is dependent on the preceding clause, as in (34). The structure of dependent *kù*-clauses is illustrated in the next section, but dependent clauses with ‘or’ have the same structure as dependent *kù*-clauses.

- (33) *tjów*                      *èe*                      *kàc*                      *pɛ̃ɛn*  
 guinea\_worm.SG    D.SG.HAB    person.PL    refuse.APPL.NF  
*càat,*                      *kù*    *nɛ̃ɛk*                      *kàk*  
 walk.NMLZ.SG    and    kill.3SG    some.PL  
 ‘Guinea worm prevents people from walking and kills some’  
 (t.)

- (34) *tè*    *cɛ̃n*                                      *àwwòc*                      *lòoj,*  
 if    PF.NST.2SG.GEN    mistake.SG    do.NF  
 ‘If you have made a mistake,’  
*kè*    *jɛ̃n*    *à = nòok,*                                      *ká*    *mác*                      *jì [...].*  
 then    2SG    D.SG = hang.UNSP    or    tie.UNSP    2SG  
 ‘you are hung or imprisoned [...].’ (t.)

## 5 Structure of dependent *kù*-clauses

This section describes the internal structure of dependent *kù*-clauses. The relation of such clauses to the clauses on which they are dependent is discussed in sections 6 and 7.

Dependent *kù*-clauses are mostly verb-initial, but they can also be particle-initial since they may be negative, in which case the particle *cɛ̃* ‘not’ precedes the verb. As in other verb-initial clauses, the subject is always overtly expressed by either a noun phrase or by inflection of the finite verb. Further, as discussed in section 2, the form of the finite verb and the expression of the subject depend on whether or not there is a covert object or adjunct. This is illustrated with textual examples of *kù*-clauses in (35)–(41). They are translated in such a way that they fit the textual context from which they have been extracted.

As discussed in section 2.2, in the absence of a covert participant, the finite verb has the inflectionally unmarked form before a nominal subject. This is illustrated in (35), where the finite verb is the main verb, and in (36), where the finite verb is an auxiliary. In the (a)-clauses the main verb is intransitive, in the (b)-clauses it is transitive.

- (35) a. *kù d̥ɔŋ àwàn c̥éen*  
 and remain fox.SG.GEN back.ALL  
 ‘and the fox remained behind’ (t.)
- b. *kù t̥j̥ɛc méɛɛn cóol*  
 and ask Mayen.SG Col.SG  
 ‘and Mayen asked Col’ (t.)
- (36) a. *kù c̥é tòoc p̥jàat̥ àr̥ɛt̥*  
 and PF swamp.SG.GEN be\_good.NF very\_much  
 ‘and the swamp had become very nice’ (t.)
- b. *kù ʃɔl àm̥íḍḍòo r̥ɔt̥*  
 and do\_then.H greedy\_person.PL self.PL  
*t̥ɔ̥w̥ɔ̥ɔ̥*  
 say\_goodbye\_to.NF  
 ‘and in the end the greedies said good-bye to one another’ (t.)

When there is no covert participant, a pronominal subject is expressed in the finite verb, as illustrated in (37), where the finite verb is the only verb and therefore the main verb. The verb is intransitive in (37a), transitive in (37b), and ditransitive in (37c).

- (37) a. *kù t̥òow*  
 and die.3SG  
 ‘and it died’ (t.)
- b. *kù j̥òok d̥ít róoor*  
 and find.3SG bird.SG forest.LOC  
 ‘and he found the bird in the forest’ (t.)
- c. *kù n̥ɛɛk k̥è mw̥ɔ̥ɔ̥r ɛ̥*  
 and kill.APPL.3SG 3PL [bull.SG.CS1 of

*wòŋ*

COW.SG.GEN]

‘and he slew a bull for them’ (t.)

If there is a covert object, a nominal subject is preceded by the NST form of the verb (38), while a pronominal subject is expressed in the verb (39) in the same way as when there is no covert object. The clauses in (38)–(39) are analyzed as having an object-topic because the object is zero.

(38) *kù bwóɔt ràn t̩t̩*  
 and follow.NST [person.SG.CS1 be\_brown]  
 ‘and an Egyptian followed him’ (t.)

(39) a. *kù cóop-k̩ wéj*  
 and chase.CF-3PL away  
 ‘and they chased him away’ (t.)

b. *kù t̩ák*  
 and bury.UNSP  
 ‘and he was buried’ (t.)

If there is a covert adjunct, a nominal subject is preceded by the NST form of the verb (40a), in the same way as when there is a covert object. However, in contrast with a *kù*-clause with a covert object, in a *kù*-clause with a covert adjunct a pronominal subject is expressed by a pronoun (in the genitive case), which is also preceded by the NST form of the verb (40b). In (40a–b), the finite verb is the habitual auxiliary verb *jée*, and the main verb is intransitive. The phonological form *j̩in* in (40b) is a contraction of *jée* and the 2SG subject *j̩in*. In (40a) the covert adjunct refers to a place, which is resumed by the proform *t̩n* ‘in it’ in the adjunct slot of the clause. In (40b) the covert adjunct seems to correspond to a prepositional phrase with the general purpose preposition *n̩e*, and it refers to a language.

(40) a. *kù jée d̩eŋ twèeŋ t̩n*  
 and HAB.NST rain.PL rain.NF PRO.ESS/ABL  
*àp̩éj*  
 very\_much  
 ‘and rains rained heavily there’ (t.)

- b. *kù*     *ǰǰín*                             *ǰàam*  
 and    HAB.NST.2SG.GEN    speak.NF  
 ‘and so that you speak it’ (t.)

By using the NST form of the verb, a covert non-subject participant is treated like a topicalized non-subject participant in NP-initial clauses (with the declarative marker) and in particle-initial clauses.

The negation particle *cè* ‘not’ may intervene between *kù* and the finite verb, as in (41). As in other particle-initial clauses, the particle is followed by an NP slot, in which a 3SG pronoun is zero, as in (41b).

- (41) a. *kù*    *cè*    *kè*    *mùit*    *tèen*                             *tók*  
 and    NEG    3PL    eat    [place.SG.CS2    one.ESS/ABL]  
 ‘and they did not eat together’ (t.)

- b. *kù*    *cè*    *ǰám*    *ǰǰèej*  
 and    NEG    accept.H    order.NMLZ.SG  
 ‘and he did not accept advice’ (t.)

After having accounted for the internal structure of dependent *kù*-clauses in the present section, the next section will show the range of clause types on which *kù*-clauses can be dependent.

## 6 Dependence on various types of preceding clauses

The clause on which a *kù*-clause is dependent, which I call its controller, may be of any type. That is, it may be an independent clause, a subordinate clause, or another dependent *kù*-clause. This is shown in the following subsections, where the relevant instances of *kù* are underlined in the interlinear translation.

### 6.1 Dependence on an independent clause

This subsection shows that an independent clause on which a *kù*-clause is dependent may have any illocutionary force. That is, the preceding clause may be a statement (declarative), a question (interrogative), or an order (imperative). The dependent *kù*-clause itself has no marker of illocutionary force, but in each case, it must be interpreted as having the same illocutionary force as the preceding clause, its controller.

### 6.1.1 Dependence on a declarative clause

As seen in section 2 above, declarative clauses are of three types in Dinka: (i) NP-initial clauses with the declarative marker, (ii) particle-initial clauses beginning with the particle *kè* ‘then’ and not including the declarative marker, and (iii) verb-initial clauses beginning with the sequential auxiliary verb, whose inflectionally unmarked form is *góo*, glossed as SEQ.

In (42) the controller is a declarative clause (42.1) with the plural declarative marker, which here fuses with the past tense particle *é* into *áa*. The dependent *kù*-clause (42.2) has no declarative marker, but must nevertheless also be interpreted as a statement. So the declarative marker as an illocutionary force operator has scope over both its own clause and the following *kù*-clause.

- (42) 1. *kù ròot áa kè cé*  
 and hippopotamus.PL D.PL.PST 3PL PF  
*ɗjèt àpêej,*  
 bear.AP.NF very\_much  
 ‘And hippopotami had multiplied in great number,’
2. *kù cé tòoc pjàat àrêet.*  
and PF swamp.SG.GEN be\_good.NF very\_much  
 ‘and the swamp had become very nice.’ (t.)

In (43) the controlling declarative clause (43.2) also includes the declarative marker, here in its singular form *à* = . It begins with the adverb *kè* ‘then’ and is preceded by a conditional clause (43.1). Again the dependent *kù*-clause (43.3) has no declarative marker, but must be interpreted as an additional statement consequent to (43.1).

- (43) 1. *náa uɔók,*  
 if be\_angry.2SG  
 ‘If you quarrelled,’
2. *kè j̄īin à = k̄um,*  
 then 2SG D.SG = punish.UNSP  
 ‘you were punished’
3. *kù mác ì.*  
and catch.UNSP 2SG  
 ‘and jailed.’ (t.)



The same construction is seen in (44). The *kù*-clause (44.3) is dependent on a declarative clause (44.2) which begins with the adverb *kè* ‘then’. This declarative clause is preceded by an adverbial subordinate clause (44.1) beginning with the conjunction *nâa* ‘if’, which fuses with the following finite verb *èe* (be.3SG) into *nâa*. The main clause (44.2), the apodosis, expresses the consequence of (44.1), the protasis, and the *kù*-clause (44.3) must be interpreted as describing an additional consequence and thus as having the same illocutionary force as (44.2).

- (44) 1. *nâa*            *ràn*                    *cém*  
           if.be.3SG [person.SG.CS1 [eat.NST  
           *ròw*,  
           hippopotamus.SG.GEN]]  
           ‘If somebody is eaten by a hippopotamus,’ (Lit. ‘If it is a  
           person whom a hippopotamus eats’)
2. *kè*    *ràn*                    *nòŋ*    *ràaan*  
       then [person.SG.CS1 [have person.SG]]  
       à = *ljèp*            *lúk*,  
       D.SG = open case.SG  
       ‘his relative (Lit. ‘the person who has the person) will  
       open a case’
3. *kù*    *tjèec*            *àpúuk = d-è*.  
       and ask.3SG compensation.SG.CS2 = SG-3SG  
       ‘and ask for his compensation.’ (t.)

As stated in section 3.5, *kè*-clauses with the declarative marker describe a situation which is habitual, as in (43.2) and (44.2). By contrast, as also mentioned in section 3.5, declarative *kè*-clauses without the declarative marker, are statements about specific past events, as in (45.2), and they are preceded by a time adjunct, as in (45.1). Again the *kù*-clause in (45.3), must be interpreted as having the same illocutionary force as the main clause (45.2).

- (45) 1. *wán*    *uét*                    *kéek*    *tè*  
           [when arrive.NST 3PL.GEN place.SG.CS1

- mèc*,  
 [be\_far.ALL]]  
 ‘When they reached a remote place,’
2. *kẹ́ láj réeet pwóow*,  
 then animal.SG get\_torn heart.SG  
 ‘the animal’s heart broke,’
3. *kù ṭòow*.  
and die.3SG  
 ‘and it died.’ (t.)

A *kù*-clause with declarative interpretation may also be dependent on a sequential clause beginning with the sequential auxiliary verb *góo*, as in (46).

- (46) 1. *góo ṭik jẉooc*,  
 SEQ.NST woman.SG sit.CAUS.NF  
 ‘Then the woman seated him’
2. *kù mẉòɔc ṭòk ẹ́ p̣ịw*.  
and give.3SG mouth.SG [PREP water.PL]  
 ‘and gave him (Lit. ‘his mouth’) water.’ (t.)

In examples (43)–(46), the subject of the *kù*-clause is coreferential with the subject of its controller, and as an anaphor it is expressed in the verb. However, although this coreference relation is common in the text corpus used for this study, such coreference is by no means obligatory. Thus, in (42) the subject *tòoc* ‘swamp’ of the *kù*-clause is not coreferential with the subject *ṛòoṭ* ‘hippopotami’ of the controlling clause.

### 6.1.2 Dependence on an interrogative or imperative clause

As mentioned in section 2.2 above, questions and orders are verb-initial; so they have the same structure as dependent *kù*-clauses (apart from the initial *kù*). Therefore, if a *kù*-clause is preceded by an interrogative clause, as in (47)–(48), or an imperative clause, as in (49), then it is indeterminable whether the *kù*-clause is dependent or independent.<sup>8</sup> In (47.1) the independent clause is a cleft polar question (a yes/no question), in (48.1) a constituent question.

<sup>8</sup> Polar questions differ intonationally from orders by having a rising pitch at the end.

- (47) 1. *jèè pàṅàaar kèek é kè nák*  
 be.3SG Panyar.PL 3PL PST 3PL kill.H  
*rów,*  
 hippopotamus.SG  
 ‘Was it the Panyar who killed the hippopotamus?’
2. *kù lüw àṭwòj tün?*  
and be\_absent Athoi.PL PRO.ESS/ABL  
 ‘and were the Athuoi not involved?’ (t.)
- (48) 1. *ǰál ḡá,*  
 leave.H who.SG.GEN  
 ‘Who is leaving,’
2. *kù dḡòḡ ḡá?*  
and remain who.SG.GEN  
 ‘and who is staying?’
- (49) 1. *pál-kà kè,*  
 leave-2PL 3PL  
 ‘Leave them,’
2. *kù bḡak lwàḡ è ṅjàlíc.*  
and come.2PL [shrine.SG.CS1.ALL of God.SG.GEN]  
 ‘and come to the Christian church!’ (t.)

## 6.2 Dependence on an adverbial clause

The controller of a dependent *kù*-clause may also be an adverbial clause. This is exemplified with temporal/conditional clauses with the conjunction *nàa* ‘when, if’ and *tè* ‘when, if’ (section 6.2.1), causal clauses with the conjunction *nè wéēt* ‘because’ and *rìn* ‘because’ (section 6.2.2), temporal clauses with the conjunctive particle (*k*)*é* ‘while’ and the conjunction *à* ‘until’ (section 6.2.3), and purposive or resultative clauses beginning with the future auxiliary verb *bé* (section 6.2.4).

### 6.2.1 Dependence on an adverbial clause with the conjunction *nàa* or *tè* ‘when, if’

In (50) the controller is a conditional clause beginning with the conjunction *nàa* ‘when, if’ (50.1), and the *kù*-clause (50.2) is interpreted

as having the same semantic function, namely that of a condition. The main clause occurs in (50.3) and is followed by another dependent *kù*-clause in (50.4).

- (50) 1. *nàa bɔ̀ àjít,*  
if come chicken.SG.GEN  
'If a chicken comes'
2. *kù gùut,*  
and stab.3SG  
'and picks it,'
3. *k = à = róoot àwàn nòm*  
then = D.SG = press.NST fox.SG.GEN head.SG  
*êe ṭàr,*  
[PREP.3SG pair\_of\_buttocks.SG]  
'then the fox traps its head in its buttocks'
4. *kù ḳèet ké jè.*  
and flee.3SG [COM 3SG]  
'and escapes with it.' (t.)

The *kù*-clause in (51.2) is dependent on another type of conditional clause, namely one that begins with the conjunction *ṭè* 'when, if' (51.1). Like (50.2), the *kù*-clause in (51.2) adds another condition. Unlike the conjunction *nàa*, the conjunction *ṭè* requires its clause to be structured as having a covert adjunct, so its 2SG subject is expressed by the pronoun *j̣ín* (2SG.GEN), which fuses with the perfect auxiliary verb *c̣í* (PF.NST) into *c̣ín*. By contrast, the same subject is expressed by the inflection of the verb *nóŋ* (have.2SG) in the *kù*-clause.

- (51) 1. *ṭè c̣ín tíŋ twèeṛ*  
if PF.NST.2SG.GEN [woman.SG.CS1 front.ESS/ABL]  
*ṭj̣âak,*  
marry.NF  
'If you have married the first wife'
2. *kù nóŋ uj̣ók,*  
and have.2SG cow.PL  
'and have cows,'

3. *kè j̄j̄in à = t̄jàak t̄jéɛŋ t̄i.*  
 then 2SG D.SG = marry [woman.SG.CS2 DIM]  
 ‘you can marry a junior wife.’ (t.)

In (50) and in several other examples, the *k̄i*-clauses have consecutive meaning in the sense of referring to events that take place subsequent to those of their controllers. However, this is by no means always the case. In (51), for instance, what the *k̄i*-clause denotes is not an event but a state, and this state is simultaneous with the state denoted by the controller.<sup>9</sup>

### 6.2.2 Dependence on an adverbial clause with the conjunction *n̄ɛ w̄ɛɛt* or *r̄in* ‘because’

The *k̄i*-clause in (52.4) is dependent on the adverbial clause in (52.3), which begins with the complex conjunction *n̄ɛ w̄ɛɛt* ‘because’, and which itself follows the main clause (52.2). The last is a declarative clause which is preceded by a left-dislocated adverbial phrase after the adverb *k̄ɛ* ‘then’. The *k̄i*-clause adds another reason to the reason given in (52.3). A clause beginning with *n̄ɛ w̄ɛɛt* ‘because’ requires the NST form of the finite verb, which is here the habitual auxiliary verb *é*. It fuses with the genitive third person singular subject pronoun *j̄éen* into *éen*. By contrast, the finite verb *m̄òoc* ‘shoot’ of the *k̄i*-clause does not have the NST form, but a form which expresses a third person singular subject. The singular noun *m̄áaw* ‘tsetsefly’ in (52.1) is here used with collective meaning and therefore translated as plural.

- (52) 1. *k̄ɛ ūq̄an d̄j̄it m̄áaw ké*  
 then [place.PL.CS1 [be\_big.NST tsetsefly.SG PL  
*t̄j̄n,*  
 PRO.ESS/ABL]]  
 ‘Then in places where tsetseflies are abundant,’  
 2. *p̄w̄óor ɛ̄ d̄óm ɛ̄*  
 [cultivate.NMLZ.SG.CS1 of field.SG.GEN] D.SG.HAB

<sup>9</sup> The difference between simultaneous action and consecutive action is discussed in Stassen (1985: 66–70).

- kûur*,  
 be\_small.NF  
 ‘cultivation becomes little,’
3. *nè wɛt éen kóć*  
 [PREP word.SG.CS1 HAB.NST.3SG.GEN person.PL  
*câam*,  
 eat.NF  
 ‘because they bite people’
4. *kû m̀òc l̀aj.*  
 and shoot.3SG animal.PL]  
 ‘and sting animals.’ (t.)

The *kû*-clause in (53.3) is dependent on the reason clause in (53.2), which begins with the conjunction *rìn* ‘because’. Again the *kû*-clause adds another reason, as determined by the preceding reason clause. Like the reason clause in (52.3), the reason clause in (53.2) requires the NST form in the finite verb, which is here the perfect auxiliary verb *cîi*. And again, the finite verb of the *kû*-clause, *d̀om* ‘catch’, does not have the NST form, but the inflectionally unmarked form before the subject *k̀eec è ẁiun* ‘his father’s spiritual strength’.

- (53) 1. *à = c̀en r̀an d̀al*  
 D.SG = not\_have [person.SG.CS1 despise  
*lẁaj è m̀akẁèer è*  
 [shrine.SG.CS1 of Makuer.SG.CS1.GEN of  
*g̀ol*  
 Gol.SG.GEN]]  
 ‘Nobody disbelieves the shrine of Makuer (son of) Gol’
2. *r̀in c̀i ẁiun é*  
 because PF.NST father.SG.3SG 3SG  
*b̀ar è,*  
 leave\_as\_inheritance.APPL.NF 3SG  
 ‘as his father had left him it as an inheritance’
3. *kû d̀om k̀eec è*  
 and catch.AP [be\_bitter.NMLZ.SG.CS1 of

*w̄iun*                    *è*                    *je*                    *gw̄op*.  
 father.SG.3SG] [PREP 3SG body.SG]

‘and as his father’s spiritual strength empowered him.’ (t.)  
 (Lit. ‘and bitterness of his father catches on his body’)

### 6.2.3 Dependence on an adverbial clause with the conjunctive particle *k̄e* ~ *é* ‘while’ or the conjunction *à* ‘until’

The *k̄e*-clause in (54.4) is dependent on the temporal clause in (54.3), which begins with the conjunctive particle *é* (~ *k̄e*) ‘while’ expressing simultaneity. This adverbial clause follows the main clause in (54.2), which itself is preceded by the temporal clause in (54.1). Like its controller in (54.3), the *k̄e*-clause describes an activity which did not take place at the same time as the situation described by the main clause (54.2). The *k̄e*-clause is followed by a temporal clause in (54.5), which expresses the time period over which the state-of-affairs in the preceding three clauses took place. The *k̄e*-clause in (54.4) is an example of one which does not have consecutive meaning since the state-of-affairs which it expresses is simultaneous with that of its controller (54.3).

- (54) 1. *n̄a*    *c̄e*    *kw̄ēēn*                    *t̄ok*,  
           when PF swear.NMLZ.SG finish.NF  
           ‘When swearing had ended,’
2. *k̄e*    *k̄oc*                    *àa = r̄ēēr*  
           then person.PL D.PL = stay  
           ‘then people stayed separate’
3. *é*    *k̄e*    *c̄e*    *d̄ēk*,  
           [while 3PL NEG drink.AP  
           ‘without drinking’ (Lit. ‘while they do not drink’)
4. *k̄e*    *c̄e*    *k̄e*    *m̄īt̄*    *t̄ēn*                    *t̄ok*,  
           and NEG 3PL eat [place.SG.CS2 one.ESS/ABL]  
           ‘and eating together’ (Lit. ‘and they do not eat in one place’)
5. *àḡút*    *t̄e*                    *t̄ok*                    *p̄aj*  
           [until when end.NST [month.PL

*kâa*            *dêtém.*  
 3PL.QUANT six]]]  
 ‘until the end of six months.’ (t.)

The word sequence *kè cè* in (54.3) is reversed to *cè kè* in (54.4). This is because the short pronoun *kè* ‘they’ has to occur after the first of one or more preverbal particles, and while the conjunction *é* counts as a particle, the conjunction *kù* does not.

The *kù*-clause in (55.3) is controlled by the temporal clause in (55.2), which begins with the conjunction *à* ‘until’. This temporal clause is preceded by the main clause in (55.1). Like its controller, the *kù*-clause describes the time limit of the situation denoted by the main clause.

- (55) 1. *tè*                      *dá*                      *k = èe*  
           [place.SG.CS1    other.ESS/ABL]    then = D.SG.be  
*mwòɔr*            *è*    *wòŋ*                      *èn*  
           [bull.SG.CS1    of    cow.SG.GEN]    3SG  
           *à = lám*  
           D.SG = curse.UNSP  
           ‘Sometimes it is a bull which is cursed’
2. *à*            *bè*            *wàr*                      *cwáat*            *pìŋ*  
           until FUT.3SG    cowdung.PL    throw.CF.NF    down.ALL  
           ‘until it throws down dungs’
3. *kù*            *lèɛɛc.*  
           and    urinate.3SG  
           ‘and urinates.’ (t.)

#### 6.2.4 Dependence on an adverbial clause with the future auxiliary verb *bé* (FUT)

The *kù*-clause in (56.3) is controlled by an adverbial clause in (56.2) beginning with the future auxiliary verb *bé*, which is grammaticalized as an expression of purpose or result. Thus, like the *bé*-clause, the *kù*-clause expresses a result of the state expressed by the main clause (56.1).



- (56) 1. *kw = àpàac* *éé* *cé*  
 and = floating\_swampgrass.SG D.SG.PST PF  
*uḡeet* *è* *bàaaj* *kḡw*  
 arrive.CP.NF [PREP home.SG back.SG]  
 ‘and floating swampgrass had come to inhabited area’
2. *bé* *uḡk* *âa* *ḡwàḡ*  
 FUT COW.PL.GEN HAB.NF graze.AP.NF  
 ‘so that cows pastured’
3. *kḡ* *dḡek-kḡ* *è* *wḡt* *cóok.*  
and drink.AP-3PL [PREP cattle\_camp.SG foot.SG]  
 ‘and drank water around the cattle camp.’ (t.) (Lit. ‘and they drink at the foot of the cattle camp’)

### 6.3 Dependence on a relative clause

A *kḡ*-clause may also be dependent on a relative clause, in which case it is interpreted as having the same function as the relative clause. This situation is exemplified in (57)–(59).

The *kḡ*-clause in (57.2), *kḡ ḡḡḡḡ kḡc*, which literally means ‘and she accommodates people’, is dependent on the relative clause in (57.1), *è kḡc lḡoor è dḡḡl* ‘who receives people with laughter’, which itself modifies *tḡḡ* ‘woman’. What is relativized on in (57.1) is the subject, and a relativized subject is not represented in the relative clause. The *kḡ*-clause has a third person subject which is coreferential with the relativized subject in (57.1), and it is represented in the finite verb *ḡḡḡḡ* ‘accommodate’, so the *kḡ*-clause does not have the structure of a relative clause. However, using Comrie’s (1981: 136) functional definition of the notion relative clause, the *kḡ*-clause (57.2) has the same function as the relative clause in (57.1) in that it restricts the potential range of referents of *tḡḡ* ‘woman’, the head of the relative clause. Moreover, the noun phrase in (57.1) and the *kḡ*-clause in (57.2) form a constituent, in that they together constitute an object-topical of the declarative main clause (57.3), here translated as passive.

- (57) 1. *tḡḡ* *è* *kḡc* *lḡoor*  
 [woman.SG.CS1 [HAB person.PL receive.NF

- è            *d̄ɔɔl*  
 [PREP laugh.NMLZ.SG]]]  
 ‘A woman who receives people with laughter’
2. *k̄ɪ*        *ḡɔɔɔŋ*                      *k̄ɔc*,  
    and        accommodate.3SG        person.PL  
 ‘and provides for people’
3. *à = jée*                      *b̄aaaj*                      *ŋ̄j̄aaar*        *k̄ɪ*  
    D.SG = HAB.NST        home.SG.GEN        love.NF        and  
*p̄aaan = d-è*.  
    in\_laws.SG.CS2 = SG-3SG  
 ‘is liked by people and her in-laws.’ (t.)

The relative clause *t̄j̄aaak ké ñin è w̄aar* ‘which is near the tributary’ in (58.3) has a relativized subject and is headed by the noun *t̄è* ‘place’. It is followed by the *k̄ɪ*-clause in (58.4), which literally means ‘and rains rain very much there’. This clause has a covert adjunct as shown by the fact that the finite habitual auxiliary verb has the NST form *jée* rather than the inflectionally unmarked form *jèe* before the subject *d̄ɛɛŋ* ‘rains’ of the intransitive main verb *tw̄ɛɛŋ* ‘rain’. The covert adjunct has a locative function as shown by the fact that it is resumed by the essive/ablative pro-adverb *t̄ɪn* ‘there’ in the same way as a topicalized location adjunct is in an NP-initial clause (Andersen 1991: 282–283, 290). This covert location adjunct is coreferential with the head noun *t̄è* ‘place’ of the relative clause; so like the relative clause in (58.3), the *k̄ɪ*-clause in (58.4) has the function of restricting the potential range of referents of this noun. Another *k̄ɪ*-clause follows in (58.5) with the same function, and the third person singular subject expressed in the verb *n̄ɔɔŋ* ‘have’ also anaphorically refers to *t̄è* ‘place’.

- (58) 1. *ḡoo*                      *d̄j̄aar*                      *ḡaaam*,  
    SEQ.NST        woman.PL        accept.NF  
 ‘Then the women accepted it’
2. *k̄ɪ*        *ɯ̄oooɔɔ-k̄ɛ*                      *t̄è*                      *m̄èc*  
    and        move.CF-3PL                      [place.SG.CS1        be\_far.ALL]  
 ‘and they moved to a remote place,’

3. *tè* *tjáak* *ké* *jìn*  
 place.SG.CS1 [be\_near.REC COM tributary.SG.CS1  
*è wàar,*  
 of river.SG.GEN]  
 ‘an area which was near the tributary’
4. *kù* *jée* *dëɛŋ* *twèɛŋ* *ɬín*  
and HAB.NST rain.PL rain.NF PRO.ESS/ABL  
*àpêɛj,*  
 very\_much  
 ‘and in which there were heavy rains’ (Lit. ‘and rains rain very much there’)
5. *kù* *nɔŋ* *mîiit* *êe* *câam.*  
and have.3SG food.PL.CS1 [HAB.UNSP eat.NF]  
 ‘and which had enough food to eat.’ (Lit. ‘and it has foods which are eaten’) (t.)

In (59.1), the noun *ké* ‘thing’ is modified by a relative clause. This noun semantically instantiates a reason (hence an adjunct) for the main verb *bɛɛn* ‘come’. The adjunct status of the constituent which is relativized on is shown by the facts that the finite habitual auxiliary verb has the NST form *ée* before the subject *káac = c-jè* ‘my people’ and that the non-finite main verb *bɛɛn* ‘come’ is intransitive so that the constituent relativized on cannot be an object. The following *kù*-clause in (59.2), which literally means ‘and they die’, has the same restrictive function as the preceding relative clause, an interpretation which is supported by the fact that the NP in (59.1) and the *kù*-clause in (59.2) together constitute the topic of the declarative clause in (59.3). This topic is the object of the main verb *nîic* ‘know’ in the complement clause in (59.4), which itself is the object of the verb *wjèec* ‘I want’ in the main clause in (59.3).

- (59) 1. *ké* *ée* *káac = c-jè*  
 thing.SG.CS1 [HAB.NST person.PL.CS2.GEN = PL-1SG  
*lò* *bɛɛn* *róoor*  
 go\_and\_do.NF come.NF bush.LOC]  
 ‘The reason why my people come from the bush’

2. *kù tów-kù*  
and die-3PL  
'and die' (Lit. 'and they die')
3. *k = à = wjèec*  
AFF = D.SG = want.1SG  
'I want'
4. *bà nîic.*  
[FUT.1SG know.NF]  
'to know.' (t.)

#### 6.4 Dependence on a dependent *kù*-clause

As seen in (58) in section 6.3 above, a dependent *kù*-clause may be preceded by another dependent *kù*-clause whose function it shares. Other examples of a dependent *kù*-clause being controlled by a dependent *kù*-clause are seen in (60)–(63).

Sentence (60) consists of an independent clause in (60.1) and three following *kù*-clauses. The independent clause is declarative and starts with the sequential auxiliary verb in its third person singular subject form *gòo*. Each of the following *kù*-clauses describes a new event in the event line of the narrative, and their verbs express a third person subject, which is coreferential with the subject expressed by the finite verb in (60.1).

- (60) 1. *gòo kwèec,*  
SEQ.3SG refuse.NF  
'Then he refused,'
2. *kù lòoom tòn kù páal,*  
and take.3SG [spear.SG and knife.SG]  
'and took a spear and a sword,'
  3. *kù jówt è màtjàar kòw,*  
and jump.CF.AP.3SG [PREP horse.SG back.SG]  
'mounted the horse'

4. *kù* *ŋɔ̄r* *twèeŋ*.<sup>10</sup>  
and lead.AP.3sg front.ESS/ABL  
 ‘and led.’ (t.)

A similar example is seen in (61), but here the subject of the sequential auxiliary verb is expressed by the noun phrase *wùun tɔ̄k*, which literally means ‘father of the goat’.

- (61) 1. *góo wùun tɔ̄k bɛ̄eŋ*,  
 SEQ [father.SG.CS1 goat.SG] come.NF  
 ‘So the owner of the goat came’  
 2. *kù jɔ̄t àwán êe jét*,  
and raise.CF.3SG fox.SG [PREP.3SG neck.SG]  
 ‘and put the fox on his shoulder’  
 3. *kù uɛ̄eɛ* *bàaaj*.  
and take.CF.3SG home.LOC  
 ‘and took it home.’ (t.)

Somewhat similar is also sentence (62). After the temporal clause in (62.1) comes the main clause in (62.2), which is a declarative clause beginning with the particle *kè* ‘then’ and whose finite auxiliary verb *jɔ̄l* ‘do then’ has no proclitic declarative marker and therefore describes a past event (cf. section 5.1.1). This clause is followed by six dependent *kù*-clauses, which continue the event line. Three of these *kù*-clauses, (62.3), (62.5) and (62.6), also use the auxiliary verb ‘do then’, but here with the third person singular form *jɔ̄l*. As seen in (62.4), a dependent *kù*-clause may include a subordinate clause such as a temporal clause beginning with the conjunction *à* ‘until’. However, the following *kù*-clause in (62.5) is not dependent on that clause, but on the matrix part of the *kù*-clause.

- (62) 1. *wán céen é téem ról*  
 when PF.NST.3SG.GEN 3SG cut.NF throat.SG  
 ‘After he had slaughtered it,’ (Lit. ‘when he had cut its throat’)

<sup>10</sup> The verb *ŋɔ̄r* ‘lead’ in (60.4) seems to have an irregularly formed antipassive stem.

2. *kè j̀̀l k̀̀ = d-è j̀̀aaŋ,*  
 then do\_then thing.SG.CS2 = SG-3SG skin.NF  
 ‘then he skinned it (Lit. ‘his thing’)’
3. *k̀̀ j̀̀̀l j̀̀̀p,*  
and do\_then.3SG roast.AP.NF  
 ‘and then he roasted’
4. *k̀̀ cẁ̀et à b̀̀ kẁ̀et,*  
and eat.AP.3SG [until FUT.3SG be\_satiated.NF]  
 ‘and he ate until he became satiated’
5. *k̀̀ j̀̀̀l r̀̀iŋ k̀̀̀k*  
and do\_then.3SG [meat.PL.CS1 other.PL]  
*t̀̀iŋ,*  
 cut\_into\_strips.NF  
 ‘and then he cut the rest of the meat into strips’
6. *k̀̀ j̀̀̀l j̀̀̀m k̀̀̀k j̀̀̀̀p,*  
and do\_then.3SG [bone.PL other.PL] roast.NF  
 ‘and then roasted some bones’
7. *k̀̀ cẁ̀et k̀̀̀,*  
and eat.3SG 3PL  
 ‘and ate them’
8. *k̀̀ g̀̀em k̀̀̀k.*  
and give.CF.3SG other.PL  
 ‘and gave away some bones.’ (t.)

The *k̀̀*-clause in (63.2) is dependent on the preceding temporal clause (63.1) that begins with the conjunction *ǹ̀a* ‘when, if’. This *k̀̀*-clause is followed by another *k̀̀*-clause in (63.3), which, like the first *k̀̀*-clause, must be interpreted as having the same temporal or conditional function as the adverbial clause in (63.1). These three clauses are followed by the main clause in (63.4), whose covert plural topic is coreferential with *ẁ̀ew r̀̀en c̀̀ d̀̀oŋ* ‘a little money left’ in (63.3).

- (63) 1. *ǹ̀a c̀̀ ǹ̀̀m ̀̀ g̀̀l*  
 [when PF [head.SG.CS1 of clan.SG.GEN]

- mẁɔr* *ɥ̀âaac*,  
 bull.SG buy.CF.NF  
 ‘When the clan leader had sold the bull,’
2. *k̀i* *c̀aatáp* *g̀iur*,  
and PF.3SG.tax.SG close.NF  
 ‘and had paid the tax,’
3. *k̀i* *ǹɔŋ* *ẁéew* *r̀èen* *c̀é*  
and have.3SG [money.PL.CS1 two.CS1 [PF  
*d̀oŋ*,  
 remain.NF]]]  
 ‘and if there was a little money left,’ (Lit. ‘and it has two  
 money which remained’)
4. *k = áa = d̀iuk* *r̀àn* *ǹɔŋ*  
 then = D.PL = return.APPL.3SG person.SG.CS1 [have  
*mẁɔr*.  
 bull.SG]  
 ‘he would give it back to the owner of the bull.’ (t.)

## 7 Reduced TAM marking

As seen in section 6, a *k̀i*-clause does not by itself have any illocutionary force and does not by itself indicate its semantic function in the overall sentence. Rather, it must be interpreted as having the same illocutionary force or semantic function as the clause on which it is dependent. Very often, moreover, a *k̀i*-clause also has fewer markers of tense, aspect and mood (TAM) than its controller, but again is to be interpreted as having the same tense, aspect and mood as that clause. This fact is exemplified in the following subsections for the past tense particle (section 7.1), the irrealis particle (section 7.2), the habitual auxiliary verb (section 7.3), the future auxiliary verb (section 7.4), and the perfect auxiliary verb (section 7.5). That the declarative marker is not repeated in a dependent *k̀i*-clause was shown in section 6.1.1. In the following examples, the relevant instances of TAM markers and of *k̀i* are underlined in the interlinear translation.

## 7.1 Past tense particle (PST) not repeated

The past tense particle *è* or *é* in a controlling clause is not repeated in a dependent *kù*-clause, as exemplified in (64). This particle occurs in the declarative main clause in (64.1), where it fuses with the plural declarative marker into *áa*. Here the past tense particle makes its clause denote a past state as opposed to a present state. The dependent *kù*-clauses in (64.2) and (64.3) must also be interpreted as describing past states, but the past tense particle is absent in them. So, the main clause not only determines the interpretation of the illocutionary force of the *kù*-clauses, but also their temporal interpretation.

- (64) 1. *béej = k-éen*                      *áa*              *kè*      *tjáak*,  
 home.PL.CS2 = PL-3PL    D.PL.PST    3PL    be\_near.REC  
 ‘Their homes were near each other,’
2. *kù*    *níc-kè*                      *cèŋ*  
and    do\_properly-3PL    inhabit.AP.NF  
*káam = k-éen*,  
 gap.PL.CS2 = PL-3PL  
 ‘and they lived in harmony,’ (Lit. ‘and they inhabited properly in their gaps’)
3. *kù*    *jée-kè*    *kwáat*              *tòk*.  
and    be-3PL    clan.SG.CS2    one  
 ‘and they were one clan.’ (t.)

The same phenomenon is seen in (65). The declarative main clause in (65.1) has three TAM markers, namely the declarative proclitic (D.PL), the past tense particle (PST), and the perfect auxiliary verb (PF), and it describes a resultative past state. The *kù*-clause in (65.2) must also be interpreted as describing a resultative past state, but only the perfect auxiliary is repeated, while the past tense particle is not.

- (65) 1. *kù*    *ròot*                      *áa*              *kè*      *cé*  
 and hippopotamus.PL    D.PL.PST    3PL    PF  
*djèť*              *ápéej*,  
 bear.AP.NF    very\_much  
 ‘And hippopotami had multiplied in great number,’



2. *kù cḗ tòoc pjàat àrḗet.*  
and PF swamp.SG.GEN be\_good.NF very\_much  
 ‘and the swamp had become very nice.’ (t.)

## 7.2 Irrealis particle (IRR) not repeated

The irrealis particle *dḗ* in a controller clause is also not repeated in a dependent *kù*-clause, as exemplified in (66). This particle occurs in the declarative main clause in (66.2) together with the past tense particle *ḗ* (here fusing with the plural declarative marker into *áa*) and the perfect auxiliary verb *cḗ*. The clause describes a counterfactual past event which would have taken place if the condition described by the adverbial clause in (66.1) had obtained. None of the three TAM markers in (66.2) are repeated in the dependent *kù*-clause in (66.3), which nevertheless must be interpreted as an additional counterfactual past event.

- (66) 1. *nàḡ ḗ cḗ mwḡol,*  
 if PST PF stay.NF  
 ‘If he had stayed,’  
 2. *ràp áa kè dḗ cḗ tḡok,*  
 sorghum.PL D.PL.PST 3PL IRR PF finish.NF  
 ‘sorghum would have finished,’  
 3. *kù dḡoḡ kḗ cók.*  
and remain.3SG [COM hunger.SG]  
 ‘and he would have remained hungry.’ (Lit. ‘and he remains with hunger’)

The same pattern is found in (67). In (67.1), which is a declarative clause embedding a complement clause beginning with the complementizer *lán*, the irrealis particle *dḗ* occurs in combination with the preceding *é*, which is a fusion of the singular declarative marker *à* and the past tense particle *ḗ*. To the counterfactual past situation described by this clause is added another counterfactual past situation expressed by the dependent *kù*-clause in (67.2), although none of the TAM markers are repeated here.

- (67) 1. [...] *é dḗ njḗec lán*  
 [...] D.SG.PST IRR know.1SG [COMPL]

*c̣iŋ*                      *éen*                      *ḳé*                      *ḅɔ́*  
 not\_have.NST      3SG.GEN      thing.SG.CS1      [come

*ẹ́ = ṭẹ́ɛɛn*,

DEM = place.SG.CS1.DEM1.SG]]

‘[...] I would have known that there is nothing coming here,’

2. *ḳù*      *ṭà*                      *ẹ̀*                      *wé*      *jiic*.  
and be\_present.1SG      [PREP      [2PL      stomach.PL]]

‘and I would have been among you.’ (t.)

Example (67), together with (68) just below, are from a marriage negotiation party in which an interpreter (an *àgàamḷoŋ* in Dinka) repeats more loudly, clause by clause, what the speakers say and at the same time often rewords the clauses according to his interpretation. Passage (67) is from the turn of one of the speakers, who utters both (67.1) and the dependent *ḳù*-clause in (67.2). Then (67.2) is rendered by the interpreter as the independent clause in (68). This independent clause includes both the declarative marker *à* and the past tense particle, fused into *ée*, and the irrealis particle *ḍè*, just as in (67.1), so it is clear that the *àgàamḷoŋ* interprets (67.2) as having the same TAM as (67.1).

(68) *ée*                      *uà*      *ḍè*      *c̣é*      *ṇùc*  
 D.SG.PST      1SG      IRR      PF      sit.NF

*ḷòŋ = ṭùuuj*.

side.SG.CS1 = DEM3.ESS/ABL

‘I would have sat on the other side.’ (t.)

### 7.3 Habitual auxiliary verb (HAB) not repeated

The habitual auxiliary verb *ẹ̀* in a controller clause is not repeated in a dependent *ḳù*-clause. This is the case whether the controller is, for instance, a declarative clause (69)–(70), a relative clause (71), or a purposive clause (72).

The habitual auxiliary verb occurs in the declarative clause in (69.1), where it fuses with the singular declarative marker as *ẹ̀* and describes a habitual action of the fox. The dependent *ḳù*-clause in (69.2) describes a subsequent habitual action, but the habitual auxiliary verb is not repeated.

- (69) 1. *èe*                    *tàc*,  
           D.SG.HAB    lie.NF  
           ‘It lies down’
2. *kù*    *dèɛn*                    *è*                    *târ*.  
           and    project.3SG    [3SG    pair\_of\_buttocks.SG]  
           ‘and projects its anus.’ (t.)

In (70.1), the habitual auxiliary verb also occurs in a declarative clause, where it fuses with the short third person plural pronoun *kè* into *kêe*. Unlike in (69.1), it here occurs in combination with the past tense particle expressed together with the plural declarative marker in *áa*. The following *kù*-clause in (70.2) contains neither of these TAM markers, but like (70.1) it refers to a past habitual situation.

- (70) 1. *ròot*                                    *áa*                    *kêe*                    *kwòl*  
           hippopotamus.PL    D.PL.PST    3PL.HAB    river\_bed.PL  
           *wêec*,  
           dig.NF  
           ‘Hippopotami used to dig river beds’
2. *kù*    *dôoor-kè*                    *n̄in*                    *ké*                    *wâar*.  
           and    join.CAUS-3PL    tributary.PL    [COM    river.SG]  
           ‘and join tributaries with the river.’ (t.)

The relative clause in (71.2) is headed by *t̄ɨ* ‘woman’ in (71.1) and begins with the habitual auxiliary verb, which here has the low-toned form *è* with breathy voice quality. The dependent *kù*-clause in (71.3) has the same function as (71.2), restricting the potential range of referents of *t̄ɨ* ‘woman’ with a proposition referring to a habitual situation, but it does not repeat the auxiliary verb.

- (71) 1. *kwáat*                    *à = n̄jàar*                    *t̄ɨ*  
           clan.SG    D.SG = love    woman.SG.CS1  
           ‘The family loves a woman’
2. *è*                    *móooc*  
           [HAB    give.AP.NF  
           ‘who receives them with hospitality’ (Lit. ‘who gives’)

3. *kù t̥èek ké.*  
and respect.3SG 3PL]  
 ‘and respects them.’ (t.)

The purposive clause in (72.3), which begins with the future auxiliary verb in its third person singular form *b̥è*, includes the habitual auxiliary verb in its non-finite form *âa*, but this verb is not repeated in the *kù*-clause in (72.4). Semantically, however, (72.4) is within the scope of *b̥è* of the preceding clause. The singular nouns *nw̥ɛ̃ɛr* ‘Nuer’ (72.1), *mw̥ɔ̃ŋɣ̃àŋ* ‘Dinka’ (72.3) and *w̥óŋ* ‘cow’ (72.4) are here used with collective meaning.

- (72) 1. *nàa ĺ̥ nw̥ɛ̃ɛr uy̥èet àgàaar,*  
 when go\_and\_do Nuer.SG arrive.CP.NF Agar.ALL  
 ‘When the Nuer came to Agar land,’  
 2. *k̥è m̥êet t̥ɔ̃ɔŋ*  
 then mix.MID.CF war.LOC  
 ‘they participated in the war’  
 3. *b̥è mw̥ɔ̃ŋɣ̃àŋ âa n̥ɔ̃k*  
 FUT.3SG Dinka.SG HAB.NF kill.NF  
 ‘in order to kill Dinka’  
 4. *kù p̥èec w̥óŋ.*  
and kidnap.3SG cow.SG  
 ‘and raid cattle.’ (t.)

In (73), the first clause (73.1) is an order in which the habitual auxiliary verb occurs in the second person plural form *jáa-k̥à*. The following *kù*-clause in (73.2) has the same illocutionary force, but lacks the habitual auxiliary verb of the first clause, so it is presumably a dependent clause rather than an independent clause.

- (73) 1. *jáa-k̥à l̥ɔ̃ŋ t̥é = d-w̥óŋ,*  
HAB-2PL pray.AP.NF place.SG.CS2.ESS/ABL = SG-2PL  
 ‘You must pray in your place’  
 2. *kù l̥ɔ̃ŋ-k̥ù t̥é = d-à.*  
and pray.AP-1PL place.SG.CS2.ESS/ABL = SG-1PL  
 ‘and we must pray in our place!’ (t.)

Although the habitual auxiliary verb is not repeated in a dependent *kù*-clause, such a clause may itself introduce this auxiliary verb, as

seen in (74). The sequential declarative clause in (74.1) does not include the habitual auxiliary verb, but the following *kù*-clause in (74.2) does, here in the high-toned form *é* with breathy voice quality. Another example is seen in (58.4) in section 6.3 above.

- (74) 1. *góo tóŋ ŋwòɔt=é ló twêeŋ*  
 SEQ war.SG.GEN CONT.NF[= while go front.ALL]  
 ‘So the war still continued,’  
 2. *kù cè kòc é rɔot táan.*  
and NEG person.PL HAB self.PL hand\_over.CF.NF  
 ‘and people did not surrender.’ (Lit. ‘and people do not hand themselves over’) (t.)

#### 7.4 Future auxiliary verb (FUT) repeated or not repeated

Unlike the habitual auxiliary verb, which is not repeated in a dependent *kù*-clause, the future auxiliary verb *bé* (FUT) varies between being repeated and not being repeated. It is not clear what determines this variation, which is illustrated in (75)–(76). In both sentences, the first clause is declarative with the future auxiliary verb making reference to a future situation, but while the auxiliary is not repeated in the *kù*-clause in (75.2), it is repeated in the *kù*-clause in (76.2).

- (75) 1. *ŋéék à=bé jâa bêen,*  
 each.SG D.SG = FUT HAB.NF come.NF  
 ‘Each will come’  
 2. *kù tèem tè=d-è.*  
and cut.3SG place.SG.CS2 = SG-3SG  
 ‘and book his place.’ (Lit. ‘and he cuts his place’) (t.)
- (76) 1. *k=à=bîi nɔ̀ɔk,*  
 AFF = D.SG = FUT.UNSP kill.NF  
 ‘He will be killed,’  
 2. *kù bîi tòn àamàaal jâal*  
and FUT.UNSP bull.SG.CS1 of.sheep.SG do\_then.NF

*nâaj.*

remove.CF.NF

‘and the ram will be taken away.’ (t.)

Note also that the future auxiliary verb, like the habitual auxiliary verb, may be used in a dependent *kù*-clause even if it is not used in the controller. This is seen in (77), where the controller of the *kù*-clause in (77.3) is the temporal clause in (77.2).

(77) 1. *à = cèn*                      *ràn*                      *è*                      *dèk*  
D.SG = not\_have    person.SG.CS1    [HAB    drink.AP.NF

*ké*    *pàrwâaj = d-è*

COM    in\_laws.SG.CS2 = SG-3SG]

‘Nobody drinks with his in-laws’

2. *àgút*    *tè*                      *léee*                      *rwâaj*                      *tòok*  
until    when    go\_and\_do.NST    marriage.SG    end.NF

‘until marriage is over,’

3. *kù*    *bé*    *pàrwâaj = d-ù*                      *í*  
and    FUT    in\_laws.SG.CS2.GEN = SG-2SG                      2SG

*jàal*                      *wêer*                      *pîiw.*

do\_then.NF    sprinkle.APPL.NF    water.PL

‘and your in-laws will sprinkle you with water (as an introduction to eating with in-laws).’ (t.)

## 7.5 Perfect auxiliary verb (PF) repeated or not repeated

When the perfect auxiliary verb *cé* (PF) is used as a perfective past tense marker together with the non-finite auxiliary verb *bàné* ‘come and do’ in the controller, neither of these auxiliary verbs are repeated in the *kù*-clause. An example of this is seen in (78), where the declarative clause in (78.1) controls the *kù*-clause in (78.2).

(78) 1. *kôc*                      *wán*    *kêen*                      *kù*                      *ràn*  
[[person.PL.CS1    P2    travel]    [and    person.SG.CS1  
*é*    *kwàat*    *rjàaj*                      *àa = cé*                      *bàné*  
PST    drive    plane.SG]]    D.PL = PF    come and do.NF

*tòw,*  
die.NF

‘The passengers and the pilot died,’ (Lit. ‘The aforementioned people who travelled and the person who was driving the plane died’)

2. *kù pìir màdùl è kwèek.*  
and live Madul.SG.CS1.GEN of Kuek.SG  
‘but MacDonald survived.’

Another example is (79), where the declarative clause in (79.2) controls the *kù*-clause in (79.3).

- (79) 1. *wán cî-nè jè gâam è*  
when PF-UNSP.CT 3SG agree.NF [by  
*râaan èbân,*  
person.SG.GEN all]

‘After it was agreed upon by everybody,’

2. *kòc àa = cî bâné kwâaq.*  
person.PL D.PL = PF.UNSP come and do.NF pick.NF  
‘people were nominated’

3. *kù têek-è kè pìñ bìik*  
and distribute.CF-UNSP 3PL down.ALL [FUT.3PL  
*tòk uâat è uâan*  
message.SG take.CF.NF [PREP [place.PL.CS1  
*mèc.*  
be\_far]]]

‘and were delegated to convey the message to remote areas.’ (t.)

But when the perfect auxiliary verb is used with perfect meaning in the controller, it is often repeated in the *kù*-clause. Thus, *cé* in the declarative clause in (80.1) is repeated with the second person singular form *cá* in the *kù*-clause in (80.2). And the NST form *cî* in the temporal clause in (81.3) is repeated in the *kù*-clause in (81.4). Other examples are seen above in (42.2), (63.2) and (65.2).

- (80) 1. *kè jīn à = cé l̥ooŋ ɖ̥ooŋ k̥̥ɔ̥ɔ̥t̥*  
 then 2SG D.SG = PF law.PL break.NF back.PL  
 ‘So you have violated the laws’ (Lit. ‘Then you have broken the laws’ backs’)
2. *k̥̥ù cá ɖ̥̥aal è*  
 and PF.2SG [despise.NMLZ.SG.CS1 of  
*n̥j̥àl̥íc bâaaɟ.*  
 God.SG.GEN] disregard.NF  
 ‘and disregarded sacrilege of God.’ (t.)
- (81) 1. *pw̥òor à = k̥̥ɔ̥ŋ t̥òok*  
 cultivate.NMLZ.SG D.SG = do\_first finish.NF  
 ‘Cultivation should take place first’
2. *b̥é lw̥òok k̥̥ɔ̥k r̥òot*  
 FUT [trial.PL.CS1.GEN other.PL.GEN] self.PL  
*b̥èer j̥īl*  
 do\_again.NF begin.NF  
 ‘so that new cases come up’
3. *t̥è c̥ī k̥á d̥òm-ìc lw̥òok,*  
 when PF.NST [thing.PL.CS1 field-ESS/ABL] yield.NF  
 ‘after harvesting’ (Lit. ‘when things in the field have yielded’)
4. *k̥̥ù c̥ī t̥óŋp̥i̥iŋ kw = àgót*  
 and PF.NST groundnut.PL and = green\_bean.PL  
*kw = àkwéem [...] b̥èen bèj*  
 and = bean.PL [...] come.NF out.CP.ALL  
*d̥òm-ìc.*  
 field-ESS/ABL  
 ‘and after groundnuts, green beans, beans [...] have come out from the field.’ (t.)

In some cases, however, the perfect auxiliary verb with perfect meaning is not repeated in a dependent *k̥̥ù*-clause; the reason seems to be semantic. An example is seen in (82). In the controlling temporal clause in (82.2), the perfect auxiliary verb *c̥é* indicates a state that has resulted from the event denoted by the non-finite main verb



*ηέεεε* ‘collapse’. The absence of the auxiliary verb in the *kù*-clause in (82.3) seems to be due to the absence of a resulting state here, as the impersonal transitive verb *lêet̚* ‘make shiver’ denotes an iterative process.

- (82) 1. *gòo jâal b̚ε̚en t̚ɔ̚η b̚á̚n*  
 SEQ.3SG do\_then.NF come.NF [LOC chief.SG]  
 ‘Then he came to the inspector,’  
 2. *k̚é c̚é j̚íc ηέεεε,*  
 while PF stomach.SG.EP collapse.NF  
 ‘scared,’ (Lit. ‘while his stomach has collapsed’)  
 3. *k̚ù lêet̚.*  
and shiver.3SG  
 ‘and he trembled.’ (Lit. ‘and it makes him shiver’) (t.)

As with the other auxiliary verbs, a dependent *kù*-clause may itself introduce the perfect auxiliary verb, as exemplified in (83.4). This *kù*-clause is dependent on the temporal clause in (83.3), which has no perfect auxiliary verb. The perfect auxiliary verb in (83.4) indicates a state resulting from the event of moving to a sitting position.

- (83) 1. *n̚àa w̚á̚n à p̚é̚ε̚ε̚c,*  
 when when ? wake\_up.3SG  
 ‘When he woke up,’  
 2. *k̚é t̚ì̚η t̚ì̚r̚ì̚mb̚ì̚l è b̚à̚n*  
 then see [car.SG.CS1 of chief.SG.GEN]  
 ‘then he saw the inspector’s car’  
 3. *k̚é k̚â̚aac*  
 while stand  
 ‘standing’  
 4. *k̚ù c̚é b̚à̚n n̚ù̚c k̚é*  
and PF chief.SG.GEN sit.NF [COM  
*k̚ô̚c cá̚a̚t k̚é j̚è.*  
 person.PL.CS1 [walk [COM 3SG]]  
 ‘and the inspector himself sitting with those escorting him.’ (t.)

## 8 Conclusion

As shown in this article, Dinka has a coordination construction in which a clause with dependent status is coordinated with a preceding clause by means of the conjunction *kù* ‘and’; we have seen that *kù* is also used for coordinating both noun phrases and independent clauses. The dependent *kù*-clause is dependent in the sense that, in itself, it does not express any particular semantic function, but is interpreted as having the same semantic function as its preceding coordinand, which thus controls the interpretation of the *kù*-clause. To a large extent, a dependent *kù*-clause also has fewer markers of tense, aspect and mood (TAM) than its coordinand, but again it is interpreted as having the same TAM as that clause. Since a dependent *kù*-clause is not subordinate, it falls into the category that Foley and Van Valin (1984) call cosubordinate, and it belongs to what Longacre (2007) calls initial-consecutive (as opposed to medial-final) chaining structures.

The controlling clause may be of any type semantically and syntactically. Thus, the controlling clause in Dinka is not restricted to being an independent clause. The controlling clause may also be a dependent clause, whether an adverbial clause or a relative clause. By contrast, all dependent *kù*-clauses are structured alike syntactically.

As observed by Stassen (1985: 90) and Longacre (1990), among others, there is a strong tendency for languages with medial-final chaining to be SOV in clause structure and for languages with initial-consecutive chaining to be VSO or SVO in structure. The Dinka language conforms to this tendency since it has both SVO and VSO constructions (but not SOV).

It is generally taken for granted that in order for two (or more) units to be coordinated, they must be of the same type, cf. e.g. Haspelmath (2007: 1). While this condition is clearly fulfilled when *kù* coordinates noun phrases or independent clauses, a dependent *kù*-clause does not have the same syntactic status as the clause with which it is conjoined (unless the latter is also a dependent *kù*-clause). But the sameness condition may be said to be fulfilled semantically, in that the overall construction forces an interpretation of the dependent *kù*-clause as having the same semantic function and TAM as its coordinand.

## Abbreviations

? morpheme with unidentified meaning, 1PL first person plural, 1SG first person singular, 2PL second person plural, 2SG second person singular, 3PL third person plural, 3SG third person singular, AFF affirmative, ALL allative, AP antipassive, APPL applicative, CAUS causative, CF centrifugal, COM comitative, COMPL complementizer, CONT continuous, CP centripetal, CS1 first construct state, CS2 second construct state, CT having a circumstantial topic, D declarative, DEM demonstrative, DEM1 first person demonstrative, DEM3 third person demonstrative, DIM diminutive, EP externally possessed, ESS/ABL essive/ablative, FUT future, GEN genitive, H shift to high tone, HAB habitual, IRR irrealis, LOC locative, MID middle, NEG negation, NF non-finite, NMLZ nominalized, NP noun phrase, NST having a non-subject topic, P2 time particle: in the distant past of today (as opposed to recent past of today), P3 time particle: earlier than last midnight (possibly hesternal), P4 time particle: long ago, PF perfect, PL plural, PREP multipurpose preposition, PRO proform, PST past, QUANT quantification marker, REC reciprocal, SEQ sequential, SG singular, UNSP unspecified subject.

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