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12. Complex sentences

This chapter deals with complex sentences and has five sections. The first section, 12.1, deals with adverbial clauses. Section 12.2 discusses purpose clauses. Section 12.3 treats complement clauses. Section 12.4 presents other clause linking. Section 12.5 is concerned with quotative clauses.

12.1. Adverbial clauses

Various strategies are used to mark adverbial support clauses. They are:

1. conjunction plus clause
2. head noun plus relative clause plus postposition
3. headless relative clause plus postposition
4. clause marked with conjunction plus postposition
5. head noun plus relative clause
6. headless relative clause

12.1.1. Conditional clauses

In the normal order of conditional clauses the supporting clause precedes the focus clause. The term “focus clause” is used for the clause that denotes the crucial and resulting state or activity; the term is taken from Dixon and Aikhenvald (2009) (see also Mous and Ongaye Oda (2009)). Affirmative supporting conditional clauses appear with various conjunctions. These conjunctions are oo/ootoo, ka/kande and awta. All these conjunctions occur with suffix -n, whose semantic value is not yet known to me (see also Ongaye (in press)). What is clear to me about this suffix, however, is that its occurrence with conjunctions makes subject clitics flexible. Furthermore, it does not allow the occurrence of the dependent clause marker -o. In the glossing, I use N to represent suffix -n. Negative conditionals are marked with the relative pronoun a and the conjunction male ‘without’ while concessive conditionals are marked with the conjunction kande ‘if’ and the adverb punu or nefu ‘even’.

Focus (main) clauses do not have conjunctions or any particular suffixes that set them apart from supporting conditional clauses. However, a pause is required after the supporting clause when it precedes the focus clause, and when the subject clitic of the focus clause does not move to the supporting clause.

In the subsequent discussions, I present conditional sentences that express events that are likely to happen, events that are likely but not certain to happen, and events that are unlikely to happen. Furthermore, concessive conditionals are treated.
I begin with the discussion of conditional sentences which show the likelihood of the events in the focus clauses. Let us look at the examples in (1). In (1a), the first person subject clitic occurs with the conjunction oo. In both (1b) and (1c), the conjunction oo occurs with suffix -n. As a result of this suffix, the dependent clause marker -o disappears. The distinction between (1b) and (1c) is that in (1b) the first person subject clitic occurs with the conjunction whereas in (1c) it occurs with the verb. In all the examples, the dependent/support clauses precede the focus clauses. The example in (1d) is unacceptable because the subject clitic in= can only move to the verb if the conjunction contains the suffix -n in the support clause.

(1a)  oo in dey-o piifaa-si?
in = dam-a
1 = eat-IPF.FUT
‘If I come, I will eat the lunch.’

(1b)  oo-n in dey-a piifaa-si?
in = dam-a
1 = eat-IPF.FUT
‘If I come, I will eat the lunch.’

(1c)  oo-n in=d ey-a piifaa-si?
in = dam-a
1 = eat-IPF.FUT
‘If I come, I will eat the lunch.’

(1d)  *oo in dey-o piifaa-si?
in = dam-a
1 = eat-IPF.FUT
(intended: ‘If I come, I will eat the lunch.’)

Conditional sentences in which the speaker expresses that the event is likely but not certain to happen require the conditional conjunctions, except kande(n),
to occur with the suffix -n. The aspect in the support clause may be present imperfective (2a) or perfective (2b).

(2a)  
oonin tikupa anni, inkil lela  
\[
\text{oo-n = in \ tika-opa \ ?an-ni,}
\]
if-N = 1  house-to  go-IPF.PRES
\[
in=ki-? \quad \text{lel-a}
\]
1 = you-DAT  tell-IPF.FUT
‘It is not yet certain to me whether I will go home, but if I decide to do so, I will let you know.’

(2b)  
oonin urmalaapa aanaay, sookittasin pidda  
\[
\text{oo-n = in \ urmala-apa \ an-ay ,}
\]
if-N = 1  market-to  go-PF[3M]
\[
sOOKIITA-si?= in \ pidd-a
\]
salt-DEF.M/F = 1  buy-IPF.FUT
‘I’m not yet sure whether to go to market, but if I do go, I will buy the salt.’

Conditional clauses that express unlikely events occur with the conjunction kande(n) and perfective aspect in the support clause. Here are some examples:

(3a)  
kande naka piisa deyay, kodaa? ?idikka\text{\-a}  
kande=i \ nama \ piisa \ dey-ay, \ kodaa-si?  
if=3  person  all  come-PF  work-DEF.M/F
\[
i=dikkad-a
\]
3 = finish.MID-IPF.FUT
‘If everybody came, the work would get finished.’

(3b)  
kande \?ormasa\text{-n} katay, kuuraaytin oorja  
kande-n \ ?orma-si=in \ kat-ay,  
if-N  ox-DEF.M/F = 1  sell-PF
\[
kuura-ayti=in \quad \text{oor-f-a}
\]
debt-2.SG.POSS.SG = 1  return-CAUS-IPF.FUT
‘If I sold the ox, I would pay your debt.’

Conditional clauses that express unlikely events may also occur with a present imperfective aspect in the if-clause. In this case, only the conjunction kande is used, as in (4).
Nominal conditionals that express unlikely events (contrary to facts) are marked with the conjunction **kanden** and the nominal subject clitics **an=** for first persons, **aʔ=** second persons and **ø** for third persons, as in any other nominal clause. First and second person plurals require personal object pronouns in addition to the subject clitics. Some examples:

(5a)  
**kanden akkarmaa, keltaytasiʛ ʛapta**

\[ \text{kanden-n} \quad \text{ʔaʔ=karmaa, keltayta-siʔ=iʔ} \]

\[ \text{catch-2-IPF.FUT} \]

‘If you (SG) were a lion, you (SG) would catch the baboon.’

(5b)  
**kanden karmaa, keltaytasiʔ ʛapa**

\[ \text{kanden-n} \quad \text{karmaa, keltayta-siʔ=i=ʛap-a} \]

\[ \text{lion baboon-DEF.M/F 3=catch-IPF.FUT} \]

‘If he were a lion, he would catch the baboon.’

(5c)  
**kanden inoon χampiraa, moontannin hirra**

\[ \text{kanden-n} \quad \text{ʔino=in χampiraa, moonta-nn=in hir-n-a} \]

\[ \text{we=-1 birds sky-INST=1 fly[PL]-PL-IPF.FUT} \]

‘If we were birds, we would fly in the sky.’
So far I have discussed affirmative conditionals. Below I discuss negative conditionals. Negative conditionals occur with the same conjunctions as the affirmative conditionals. A negative conditional with the meaning ‘unless’ has a different form, shown below. Negative conditionals require negative subject clitics, as in (6).

(6a) oon urmalaapa anannenee kinnin ketoasis ki? iyyaɗa  
\[ \text{oon} \quad \text{urmalaaa-opa} \quad \text{an} = \text{an-ni} = \text{an} \quad \text{kit-in} \]  
\[ \text{if}-\text{N} \quad \text{market-to} \quad 1\text{NEG} = \text{go-IPF-NEG} \quad \text{be-NEG} \]  
\[ \text{kodaasi}\text{=in} \quad \text{ke-}\text{=iyyad-a} \]  
\[ \text{work-DEF.M/F} = 1 \quad 2\text{SG.PRO.ACC-DAT} \quad \text{help-IPF.FUT} \]  
‘I am not yet certain whether I go to market or not but if I do not go, I will help you with the work.’

(6b) kanden urmalaapa anaaani kodaaasi? iinkit? iyyaɗa  
\[ \text{kande-n} \quad \text{urmalaaa-opa} \quad \text{an} = \text{aan-in} \]  
\[ \text{if-N} \quad \text{market-to} \quad 1\text{NEG} = \text{go-NEG} \]  
\[ \text{kodaas}\text{=i}\text{=ki=inyad-a} \]  
\[ \text{work-DEF.M/F} = 1 \quad 2\text{SG.PRO.ACC-DAT} \quad \text{help-IPF.FUT} \]  
‘If I do not go to the market, I will help you with the work.’

A negative conditional with the meaning ‘unless’ has the relative pronoun a and the postposition male ‘without’. The relative pronoun introduces headless relative clauses. Here are some examples:

(7a) an ija akkinu male anden?nu  
\[ \text{a=in} \quad \text{ifa} \quad \text{akk-n-u} \]  
\[ \text{REL} = 1 \quad 3\text{SGM.PRO[ACC]} \quad \text{see-1PL-NEG.IPF.FUT} \]  
\[ \text{male} \quad \text{an} = \text{dey-n-u} \]  
\[ \text{without} \quad 1\text{NEG} = \text{come-1PL-NEG.IPF.FUT} \]  
‘Unless we see him, we shall not come (back).’

(7b) aa inun akkin male indeyan  
\[ \text{a=i} \quad \text{inu=in} \quad \text{akk-n} \]  
\[ \text{REL} = 3 \quad 1\text{PL.PRO[ACC]} = 3\text{NEG} \quad \text{see-P} \]  
\[ \text{male} \quad \text{in=dey-a-n} \]  
\[ \text{without} \quad 3\text{NEG} = \text{come-IPF.FUT-P} \]  
‘Unless they see us, they will not come (back).’

Concessive conditionals are marked with the conjunction kande ‘if’ and the adverb punu or nefo ‘even’. Subject clitics are attached to kande. The conces-
sive conditional conjunction *kanɗe punu* may appear as discontinuous. This same conjunction and adverbs are also used to mark concessive clauses. The following are illustrative examples.

(8a)  

\[
\text{kanɗee punu } \text{deʔta ohta}iʔ \? \text{ʔiʃeennaʔ } \? \text{ʔandaafjo} \\
\text{kanɗe}=i \text{ punu } \text{dey-t-a } \text{ohta-siʔ} \\
\text{if}=3 \text{ even } \text{come-3F-IPF.FUT } \text{cloth-DEF.M/F} \\
\text{ʔiʃeenna-ʔ } \text{an}=dəaf-o \\
3SGF.PRO[ACC]-DAT \text{ 1NEG= give-NEG.IPF.FUT} \\
\text{‘Even if she comes, I will not give her the cloth.’}
\]

(8b)  

\[
\text{kanɗee}punu \text{ deʔtan anaaʔ } \? \text{ʔakkitan} \\
\text{kanɗe}=iʔ \text{ punu } \text{dey-t-a-n } \text{ana=aʔ} \text{ akk-t-a-n} \\
\text{if}=2 \text{ even } \text{come-IPF} \text{ 1SG.PRO.ACC = 2NEG see-IPF.FUT-P} \\
\text{‘Even if you (PL) come, you (PL) will not see me.’}
\]

(8c)  

\[
\text{kanɗee punu amma } \text{indeyin kuliʔ } \? \text{ʔiχoratta} \\
\text{kanɗe}=i \text{ punu } \text{ʔamma } \text{in=ɗey-i-n} \\
\text{if}=3 \text{ even } \text{now} \text{ 3NEG = come-PF-NEG} \\
\text{kuliʔ } \text{i}=\text{χoraɗ-t-a} \\
latter \text{ 3 = be.fined-3F-IPF.FUT} \\
\text{‘Even if she has not come now, she will be fined latter.’}
\]

A concessive clause is marked by the conjunction *kanɗe* ‘if’ and the adverbs *nefu/punu* ‘even’. Subject clitics occur with *kanɗe* part of the conjunction. Here are some examples:

(9a)  

\[
\text{kanɗee nefu } \text{kaaʃasiŋiŋt } \text{cąpa } \text{iʃoonnaʔ } \? \text{ʔandaafjo} \\
\text{kanɗe}=in \text{ nefu } \text{kaaʃa-siniʔ } \text{cąp-a} \\
\text{if}=1 \text{ even } \text{money-DEF.P} \text{ have-IPF.FUT} \\
\text{iʃoonna-ʔ } \text{an}=dəaf-u \\
3PL.PRO[ACC]-DAT \text{ 1NEG = give-NEG} \\
\text{‘Even if I have the money, I will not give it to them.’}
\]

(9b)  

\[
\text{namasik kanɗee punu } \text{deyay } \text{χawwaʔteen anaa} \\
\text{nama-siʔ } \text{kanɗe}=i \text{ punu } \text{dey-ay} \\
person-DEF.M/F \text{ if}=3 \text{ even } \text{come-PF[3M]} \\
\text{χawwaʔte=in } \text{an-a} \\
alone=1 \text{ go-IPF.FUT} \\
\text{‘Even if the person came, I would go alone.’}
\]
The concessive adverb *nefu* is different from *punu* in that the former may occur clause-finally. For example, in (10a), *kande* and *nefu* occur contiguously while in (10b) *nefu* occurs clause-finally. This positional shift does not alter the semantics of the sentence. *kande* and *nefu* do not exchange their positions, as doing so yields an ungrammatical sentence, as illustrated in (10c).

(10a)  \[ \text{kandeen nefu kaafasini} \text{ctapa ifoonna} \text{?andaafu} \]
      \[ \text{kande=in nefu kaafaa-sini?} \]
      although = 1 although money-DEF.P
      
      \[ \text{ctap-a ifoonna-? an=daaf-u} \]
      have-IPF.PRES they-DAT 1NEG = give-NEG
      ‘Although I have the money, I will not give it to them.’

(10b)  \[ \text{kandeen kaafasini} \text{ctapa nefu ifoonna} \text{?andaafu} \]
      \[ \text{kande=in kaafaa-sini? ctap-a} \]
      if = 1 money-DEF.P have-IPF.PRES
      
      \[ \text{nefu ifoonna-? an=daaf-u} \]
      even 3PL.PRO[ACC]-DAT 1NEG = give-NEG
      ‘Even if I have the money, I will not give it to them.’

(10c)  \[ \text{*punon kande kaafasini} \text{ctapa ifoonna} \text{?andaafu} \]
      \[ \text{punu=in kande kaafaa-sini? ctap-a} \]
      if = 1 if money-DEF.P have-IPF.FUT
      
      \[ \text{ifoonna-? an=daaf-u} \]
      3PL.PRO[ACC]-DAT 1NEG = give-NEG
      (intended: ‘Even if I have the money, I will not give it for them.’)

12.1.2. Temporal clauses

Temporal adverbial clauses are introduced by *awta* ‘when’, *oo* ‘when, if’, *ee/etee* ‘when’, or *a*.

The temporal adverbial conjunction *awta* ‘when’ may occur in the perfective as in (11a) or the imperfective as in (11b).

(11a)  \[ \text{awtan keeray, ini} \text{faj} \text{taddaapay} \]
      \[ \text{awta=in keer-ay in=faj taddaaap-ay} \]
      when = 1 run-PF 1 = 3SGM.PRO.ACC catch.up.with-PF
      ‘When I ran, I caught up with him.’
awta paritun oli akkina
\[
\text{awta}=i \quad \text{par-it-u}=\text{in} \quad \text{oli} \quad \text{akk-n-a}
\]
when = 3 \hspace{1em} \text{sunrise-3F-DP.IPF.FUT} = 1 \hspace{1em} \text{REC} \hspace{1em} \text{see-PL-I PF.FUT}

‘We will see each other when the sun rises.’

In temporal clauses, the conjunction oo may occur in the imperfective as in (12). Remember that this conjunction is basically a conditional conjunction, as discussed earlier.

(12a) oon kaaфаasinit teyun kid dǟaʃa
\[
on= in \quad \text{kaфаа-siniʔ} \quad \text{tey-u}=\text{in}
\]
when = 1 \hspace{1em} \text{money-DEF.P} \hspace{1em} \text{obtain-DP.IPF.FUT} = 1

\[
kɛʔ \quad \text{dǟaʃ-a}
\]
2SG.PRO.AC-DAT \hspace{1em} \text{give-IPF.FUT}

‘When/if I will obtain the money, I will give it to you (SG).’

(12b) oo atoota feyyaʔ ?awditee dɛhootaasiʔ ?iʛokti
\[
oo=i \quad \text{atoota} \quad \text{feyya-ʔ} \quad \text{awdi-t-i},
\]
when = 3 \hspace{1em} \text{sun} \hspace{1em} \text{very.well-DAT} \hspace{1em} \text{shine-3F-PF}

\[
dɛhoota-asiiʔ \quad i=\text{kok-t-i}
\]
malt-DEM.M/F \hspace{1em} 3 = \text{dry-3F-PF}

‘This malt dried when the sun shone very well.’

In the following examples, the conjunction ee/etee is used. It occurs only in the perfective as shown in (13).

(13a) een aanay χɔrmasin akkay
\[
ee= in \quad \text{\hspace{1em} χɔrmas-iʔ=in} \quad \text{akk-ay}
\]
when = 1 \hspace{1em} \text{go-PF} \hspace{1em} \text{ox-DEF.M/F=1} \hspace{1em} \text{see-PF}

‘When I went there, I saw the ox.’

(13b) etee dɛʔti maanaa koʔti
\[
etee=i \quad \text{dɛy-t-i} \quad \text{maana}=i \quad \text{kod-t-i}
\]
when = 3 \hspace{1em} \text{come-3F-PF} \hspace{1em} \text{what}=3 \hspace{1em} \text{do-3F-PF}

‘What did she do when she came?’

The relative pronoun a also serves as a temporal clause marker. The following are illustrative examples.

(14a) a cɟoyra murriyon iʃa akkay
\[
a=i \quad \text{cɟoyra} \quad \text{murr-ไnyo}=\text{in}
\]
REL = 3 \hspace{1em} \text{tree} \hspace{1em} \text{cut[SG]-IPF.PRES.3SGM} = 1
Temporal adverbial clauses may also occur with the relative pronouns a and the postposition kammaa as in (15a) or the conditional conjunction oo and the postposition kammaa as in (15b).

(15a)  an tika kayni kammaa roopa ipaayti

REL = 1  house  reach-PL-PF  after

roopa  i=paay-t-i
rain  3 = start-3F-PF

‘It started to rain after we arrived home.’

(15b)  oon heeriya dikkifu kammaan faça a ika

oo=in  heer-iya  dikkif-u
if=1  buy[PL-NML]  finish-DP.IPF.FUT

kammaa=in  faça a  ik-a
after = 1  local.beer  drink-IPF.FUT

‘I will drink faça a after I finish buying.’

12.1.3. Reason and result clauses

In this section, I discuss reason and result clauses together because of semantic relationships. Reason and result clauses are semantically related in that result (effect) is the outcome of reason (cause). Both reason and result clauses occur with the (possessive) noun čoota ‘concerning/about’ and malla ‘because (of)’ or the relative pronoun a. The morpheme malla occurs in the final position of the support clause. Here are some examples:

(16a) attič čootaap paačti malla antaa immalaal ti

atti?= čoota=i?  paač-t-i
2SG.PRO-NOM  concerning = 2  be.sick-2-PF
because go-INF 2=be.unable.to-2-PF
‘You (SG) could not go because you (SG) were sick.’

‘The hut collapsed because there is no pillar under it.’

The following are additional examples:

‘The children were flogged because they were late.’

‘He broke his hand because he fell (down).’

Purpose is expressed by the conjunction akkaa and the postposition malla as in (18a) or the relative pronoun a and the postposition malla as in (18b).

‘I am saving money in order to buy an ox.’
(18b)  
\[
\text{antiʔ ʔan χorma piɗɗu mallan kaaʄaa kattanni}
\]
\[
\text{antiʔ a=in χorma}
\]
\[
1SG.PRO-NOM that=1 ox
\]
\[
\text{piɗɗ-u malla=in kaaʄaa}
\]
\[
\text{buy[SG]-DP.IPF.FUT because=1 money}
\]
\[
katt-ad-ni
\]
\[
\text{collect-MID-IPF.PRES}
\]
\[
\text{‘I am saving money in order to buy an ox.’}
\]

Purpose can also be expressed by using an infinitive or verbal noun with or without the dative case marker instead of a support clause. The following are illustrative examples.

(19a)  
\[
\text{ʛimaytasiʔ ʔalleeta ʛupiya mallaa ʛoraa ʛuuray}
\]
\[
\text{ʛimayta-siʔ alleeta ʛup-iya malla=i}
\]
\[
\text{old.man-DEF.M/F hut build-NMLZ because=3}
\]
\[
\text{ʛoraa ʛuur-ay}
\]
\[
\text{trees cut[PL]-PF[3M]}
\]
\[
\text{‘The old man cut trees in order to build a hut.’}
\]

(19b)  
\[
\text{ʛimaytasiʔ ʔalleeta ʛupiyaʔe ʛoraa ʛuuray}
\]
\[
\text{ʛimayta-siʔ alleeta ʛup-iyaʔ=i}
\]
\[
\text{old.man-DEF.M/F hut build-VN-DAT=3}
\]
\[
\text{ʛoraa ʛuur-ay}
\]
\[
\text{trees cut[PL]-PF[3M]}
\]
\[
\text{‘The old man cut trees in order to build a hut.’}
\]
\[
\text{(lit.: The old man cut trees for building a hut.)}
\]

12.2. **Complement clauses**

Complement clauses occur with the complementisers ine, sedė and akkaa. The complementisers ine and sedė occur in the position after an overt subject, while the complementiser akkaa occurs in the object position. Details of higher predicates and their modality interpretations are examined in Ongaye (2004). The following are illustrative examples.

(20a)  
\[
\text{Kussittus sedė χorma piɗɗaye ana χasayʃay}
\]
\[
\text{Kussittuʔ sedɛ=i χorma}
\]
\[
\text{Kussitto-NOM that=3 ox}
\]
Conjoined consecutive clauses are marked by the conjunction ka, which is followed by an intonation break. This is shown below.

(21a)  
inuʔ dioyrasim murri iʃan kalli  
\begin{align*}  
\text{inu-ʔ} & \quad \text{dioyra-s}\text{i? = in} \\
1\text{PL.PRO-NOM} & \quad \text{tree-DEF.M/F = 1} \\
\text{ka} & \quad \text{iʃa-n} \\
\text{and} & \quad \text{3SGM.PRO[ACC]-INST} \\
\text{ka} & \quad \text{kali-n-i} \\
\end{align*}  
\text{cut[SG]-1PL-PF}  
\text{Come.home-1PL-PF}  
\text{We cut down the tree and brought it home.}

(21b)  
iʃaʔ diluppaa anay ka ?unta pohay  
\begin{align*}  
\text{iʃa-ʔ} & \quad \text{dila-oppupa = i} \\
3\text{SGM.PRO-NOM} & \quad \text{field-into = 3} \\
\text{an-ay} & \quad \text{ka} \\
\text{go-PF[3M]} & \quad \text{and} \\
\text{unta} & \quad \text{poh-ay} \\
\text{crops} & \quad \text{harvest-PF[3M]} \\
\end{align*}  
\text{He went to the field and harvested crops.}

Conjoined consecutive clauses that involve imperatives are also joined by the conjunction ka. Examples:
In chapter 4, I discussed that coordinated nouns can be combined with the conjunction *ka* or *ifu*. However, the use of the conjunction *ifu* instead of *ka* in consecutive clauses is not allowed, as demonstrated in (23).

(23a) *imuŋ cøyrasim murri ifu? ifjan kalli  

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{imu-} & \text{?} & \text{cøyra-si= in} & \text{mur-n-i} \\
1\text{PL.PRO-NOM} & \text{tree-DEF.M/F=1} & \text{cut[SG]-PL-PF} \\
\text{ifu?} & \text{ifa-n} & \text{kal-n-i} \\
\text{and} & \text{3SGM.PRO[ACC]-INST} & \text{return.home-1PL-PF} \\
\end{align*}
\]

‘We cut down the tree and brought it home.’

(23b) *χooya ifu dukadoosinh haada  

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{χooy-a} & \text{ ifu? daka} & \text{aa-osini?= haad-a} \\
\text{come-IMP.PL} & \text{stones-DEM.P carry-IMP.PL} \\
\end{align*}
\]

(intended: ‘Come and carry these stones!’)

12.3.2. Contrast

Contrast is expressed by *maa* or *umma*. The conjunction *maa* is most often adversative. The following are illustrative examples.

(24a) *ʔan-anti maa idapti  

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{i=an-t-i} & & \text{maa} & & \text{i=dap-t-i} \\
3 & = \text{go-3F-PF} & \text{but} & \text{3 = not.find-3F-PF} \\
\text{She went (there) but could not find it.'}
\end{align*}
\]

(24b) *ʔiʔay maa inmiiddammi  

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{i=pilʔ-ay} & & \text{maa} & & \text{in=miidd-am-n-i} \\
3 & = \text{fall-PF} & \text{but} & \text{3NEG = hurt.SG-PAS-NEG-PF} \\
\text{He fell but he is not hurt.’}
\end{align*}
\]

(24c) kahartannim maa laha a patay  

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{kaharta-nnin} & & \text{maa} & & \text{lahaa-a} & & \text{pat-ay} \\
\text{ewe-NEG} & \text{but} & \text{ram-CLF disappear-PF[3M]} \\
\text{‘It is not a ewe but a ram that went missing.’}
\end{align*}
\]
In the following example, the conjunction umma is used.

(25) \[iʃa = in \quad as-ni \quad umma\]
    \[him = 1 \quad \text{wait-IPF.PRES} \quad \text{but}\]
    \[dey-ni-in = kiy-o\]
    \[come-IPF.PRES-3NEG = \text{be-NEG} \,[3M]\]
    ‘I am waiting for him but he does not come.’

In the following proverb, the coordinating conjunction ka expresses contrast rather than addition. The proverb is used when someone who is afraid of a stronger person (likened here with acacia species kolalta) threatens another less strong person (likened here with a thin plant species seyta).

(26) \[kolal \quad fuurʃaa \quad ka \quad seytan \quad puta\]
    \[kolalta \quad fuur-f-aa \quad ka \quad seytan\]
    \[acacia.species \quad fear-DCAUS-VN \quad \text{and} \quad \text{plant.species-INST}\]
    \[put-a\]
    \[win-VN\]
    ‘Fearful of kolalta but victorious over seyta.’

12.3.3. Alternatives

Alternatives are expressed by -m (27a) or the conjunction taakine ‘or, otherwise’ (27b).

(27a) \[pilliyaasiʔ \quad inʛeeɗam \quad ayi\]
    \[pilliyaas-sil? \quad in=ʛeeɗ-a-m \quad ?\]
    \[knife-DEF.M/F \quad 1 = \text{take-IPF.FUT-or} \quad \text{here}\]
    \[in = diiʃ-a\]
    \[1 = \text{leave-IPF.FUT}\]
    ‘Shall I take the knife or leave it here?’

(27b) \[urmalaaap? \quad ?anta \quad taakine \quad diluppupan \quad ollin \quad sookanna\]
    \[urmalaa-opa=iʔ \quad an-t-a \quad taakine\]
    \[market-to = 2 \quad \text{go-2-IPF.FUT} \quad \text{otherwise}\]
    \[dila-oppupa=in \quad ollin \quad sookad-a-a\]
    \[field-into = 1 \quad \text{together} \quad \text{go.to.field-1PL-IPF.FUT}\]
    ‘You (SG) will go to market. Otherwise we will go to the field together.’
A rejection type of alternative expression ‘instead of/rather than’ is marked by forms a...kapaa or an infinitive with kapaa or a verbal nominal with kapaa. With the conjunction a...kapaa, the subject clitic must occur with the a. The morpheme kapaa occurs in the final position of a dependent clause. There is a pause after the dependent clause. Here are some examples:

(28a) an pijaaʔʔ a=an-an kapaa, ohaʔ an-u kapaa, instead.of=1 water-DAT go-DP.IPF instead.of ohaʔ an-a fodder-DAT=1 go-IPF.FUT ‘Instead of going to fetch water, I will go collect fodder.’

(28b) aʔ essi a=an-an kapaa, aye muki ka parole paraa keﬁ a=iʔ essi an-t-u kapaa, aye instead.of=2 this.time go-2-DP.IPF instead.of here muk-i ka parole paraa-n sleep-IMP.SG and tomorrow morning-INST ked-i go.in.the.morning-IMP.SG ‘Instead of going home at this time (of the day), spend the night here and go (there) tomorrow early in the morning.’

The alternative clause which is expressed by the use of the infinitive/verbal noun and kapaa requires the word wooly- ‘be preferable’ in the main clause. The verb root in the illustrative example in (29a) occurs with the infinitive suffix -iya, while the one in (29b) occurs with a verbal nominal suffix -taa.

(29a) urmalaapa aaniya kapaa dîluppupa aaniyaa wooly iya an-iya kapaa dîl-doppupa market-to go-VN instead.of field-into an-iya=i wooly-i go-INF=3 be-good-PF ‘It is better to go to the field than to go to the market.’

(29b) urmalaapa antaa kapaa dîluppupa aantaawooyi an-taa kapaa dîl-doppupa market-to go-VN instead.of field-into an-taa=i wooy-i go-VN=3 be.good-PF ‘Going to the field is better than going to the market.’
It is possible for an infinitive and a verbal nominal to interchangeably occur in either clause. For example, in (30a), the first clause has an infinitive form while the second clause has a verbal nominal form. In (30b), the verbal nominal form occurs in the first clause while the infinitive form occurs in the second clause.

(30a) urmalaapa aaniya kapaa dîluppupa aantaa woyyi
    urmala-opa an-lya kapaa dîla-oppupa
market-to go-INF instead.of field-into

    an-taa=i woyy-i
go-VN =3 be.good-PF
‘To go to the field is better than going to the market.’

(30b) urmalaapa aantaa kapaa dîluppupa aaniyaa woyyi
    urmala-opa an-taa kapaa dîla-oppupa
market-to go-VN instead.of field-into

    an-lya=i woyy-i
go-INF =3 be.good-PF
‘Going to the field is better than to go to the market.’

12.4. Quotative clauses

Quoted clauses occur within the focus clause. They are headed by the verb kid-ti ‘say’. The example in (31a) uses direct reporting whereas the one in (31b) has an indirect report.

(31a) inatasiʔ ?inkalaye kiʔti
    inata-siʔ in=kal-ay=i kiɗ-t-i
girl-DEF.M/F 1=return.home-PF[3M] =3 say-3F-PF
‘The girl said, “I came home.”’

(31b) iʃeennaʔ ?iʃaʔ ?ikalayee kiʔti
    ifeennaʔ ifaʔ ?ikalayee kiʔti
3SGF.PRO-NOM 3SGM.PRO-NOM 3=return.home-P =3

    kid-t-i=i
say-3F-PF =3
‘She said that he had come home.’