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8. Postpositions, adverbials and conjunctions

8.1. Postpositions

Postpositions occur either with a final -a or -aa. When they occur with a short final -a, they indicate the reference object (e.g. a container). When they occur with a final long -aa, they indicate the located object (e.g. a contained object). Earlier works (e.g. Black 1973; Bliese and Sokka 1986; Getahun 1999; Daudey and Hellenthal 2004) did not recognise both the difference in the quantity of the final vowel and the semantic distinction between the reference and located object. In table 1, I give the list of the postpositions in the language.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>final -a</th>
<th>final -aa</th>
<th>Gloss</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>çara</td>
<td>çaraa</td>
<td>‘on’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>kapa</td>
<td>kapaa</td>
<td>‘near’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>çuda</td>
<td>çudaa</td>
<td>‘on (non-horizontal plane)’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>tupa</td>
<td>tupaa</td>
<td>‘behind’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>tura</td>
<td>turaa</td>
<td>‘in front of’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>kela</td>
<td>kelaa</td>
<td>‘under’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>kara</td>
<td>karaa</td>
<td>‘in(side)’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>mina</td>
<td>minaa</td>
<td>‘in front’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>oppa</td>
<td>oppaa</td>
<td>‘in (centre)’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>çuta</td>
<td>çutaa</td>
<td>‘behind (a bit far)’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>tula</td>
<td>tulaa</td>
<td>‘in front of (a bit far)’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>kamma</td>
<td>kammaa</td>
<td>‘behind’</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 1: Konso postpositions

The following sentences illustrate how the short and long final vowels on the postposition indicate reference object (ground) or the located object:

(1a) tika kara sah-i
house in.REF sweep-IMP.SG
‘(You (SG)) Sweep the (inside of the) house!’

(1b) tika kara-a sah-i
house in-LOC sweep-IMP.SG
‘(You (SG)) Sweep it out of the house!’

(2a) kannootasi çudan facay
kannoota-sti? çuda = in fac-ay
calabash-DEF.M/F on.REF = l wash-PF[3M]
‘I washed (the exterior of) the calabash.’
In examples (1a) and (2a) above, the postpositions end in -a while those in (1b) and (2b) end in -aa. It is this difference in the quantity of the final vowel that accounts for the difference in the interpretation of the sentences: sentences (1a) and (2a) with postpositions ending with -a indicate that the sweeping and washing affects a specific part of the house and the calabash, respectively; the sentences in (1b) and (2b) with postpositions ending with -aa indicate that the nouns 'house' and 'calabash' are used as ground or reference points for something else that is swept and washed, respectively.

The postpositions also occur with the locative suffix -ʔ. The final -aa and the locational suffix make a semantic distinction with such verb roots as ʛeeɗ- 'to take', piɗɗ- 'to buy[SG]' and kat- 'to sell'. The semantic distinction is that postpositions ending with the long vowel have the meaning of 'taking something away from something else' while the locative suffix renders the meaning of 'adding something to something else'. The following are illustrative examples.

(3a) ʛoroosiniʛ ʛuɗaa ʛeeɗi
ʛoraa-osiniʔ ʛuɗa-a ʛeeɗ-i
trees-DEM.P on-LOC take-IMP.SG
'(You (SG)) Take (some trees) from these trees!'

(3b) ʛoroosiniʛ ʛuɗaʛ ʛeeɗi
ʛoraa-osiniʔ ʛuɗa-ʔ ʛeeɗ-i
trees-DEM.P on-LOC take-IMP.SG
'(You (SG)) Add (some trees) to these trees!'

(3c) punittaasiʛ ʛuɗaa piɗɗi
punitta-asiʔ ʛuɗa-a piɗɗ-i
coffee-DEM.M/F on-LOC buy[SG]-IMP.SG
'(You (SG)) Buy (some coffee) from this coffee!'

(3d) punittaasiʛ ʛuɗap piɗɗi
punitta-asiʔ ʛuɗa-ʔ piɗɗ-i
coffee-DEM.M/F on-LOC buy[SG]-IMP.SG
'(You (SG)) Buy (some coffee) in addition to this coffee!'

The postposition equivalent to the English preposition ‘until, up to’ is expressed by the locational head noun haka and the genitive particle a, and the object noun of the postposition occurs with the specifier suffix -tiʔ as shown in
(4). Mous suggested to me that the locational head noun haka could be a loan word from Swahili through some intermediate languages, as it is a word for ‘border’ which is used as a preposition for ‘until’.

(4) haka a χarratit tikaasis sahi
haka a χarra-tiʔ tika-asiʔ
until GEN gate-SPEC house-DEM.M/F

sah-i
sweep-IMP.SG
‘(You (SG)) Sweep this house up to the gate!’

Similarly, the postposition equivalent to the English preposition ‘about’ is expressed by the noun ʛoota ‘concerning’, the genitive particle ʔa and the specifier suffix -te and the directional adverb ɗesa (see 8.2.2 below). The following is an illustrative example:

(5b) attic ʛoota-awo ɗesa maanaʔ ?upta
attiʔ ʛoota-awo ɗesa
2SG.PRO-NOM concerning-1SG.POSS.M/F towards

maana=iʔ up-t-a
what=2 know-2-IPF.FUT
‘What do you know about me?’

Note that the postposition turaa ‘in front of’ is used to express detrimental action as in (6a-b). Moreover, with the same detrimental meaning, turaa ‘in front of’ may occur with the background suffix -yye as in (6c).

(6a) kaaʄaan inantasit turaa ɗeeɗay
kaaʄaa=in inanta-siʔ turaa ɗee-ɗay
money=1 girl-DEF.M/F in.front.of take-PF[3M]
‘I took money away from the girl.’

(6b) ifat namasit turaa ɗoraʔa ʔimuray
ifat-nama-siʔ turaa
3SGM.PRO-NOM man-DEF.M/F in.front.of

ɗoraʔa i=mur-ay
trees 3=cut-PF[3M]
‘He cut the trees away from the man.’

(6c) ɗoyra-si=in ifa turaa-yye
tree-DEF.M/F = 1 3SGM[ACC] in.front.of-BKGRD
8.2. Adverbs

In this section, I discuss locative adverbs (8.2.1) and directionals (8.2.2), combination of locative adverbs and directionals (8.2.3), time adverbs (8.2.4) and conjunctions (8.3).

8.2.1. Locative adverbs

Both underived and derived locative adverbs exist. There are four underived locatives in Karatte dialect (7a), but three in my dialect. In my dialect the underived locative ile ‘up there’ is not used. Instead, the derived locative irre ‘further up there’ is used. Derived locatives are derived by geminating the onset of the last syllable of the underived locative (7b). Derived locatives show location further away from the deictic centre.

(7a) ile ‘up there’
    aye ~are ‘here’
    die ‘there (horizontal plane, sideways)’
    χate ‘down there’

(7b) ille/irre ‘further up there’
    disse ‘further there (sideways)’
    χatte ‘further down there’

In the following diagramme, I attempt to show the parallel between the horizontal and vertical planes for the underived and derived locatives. The arrows show the direction of the location. The deictic centre is the locative aye ‘here’.
Consider the following illustrative examples:

(8a) χormasiʔ ʔirree ca
χorma-siʔ irre=i kiy-a
ox-DEF.M/F up.there=3 be-IPF.PRES
‘The ox is up there.’

(8b) ifeennad dissipa iʔanti
ifeen-ʔ disse-opa i=aan-t-i
3SGF.PRO-NOM there.further-DEST 3=go-3F-PF
‘She went further there.’

(8c) orsiχ χate maanaa koʔni
orra-siʔ χate maana=i koo-ni
people-DEF.M/F down what=3 do-IPF.PRES
‘What are the people down there doing?’

The locative adverb disse and its derived form disse mostly involve finger pointing (by the addressee) in the direction of the located object to make it clear for the addressee that the located object is placed in the direction being pointed in. The object could be located on the right or left side.

When individuals are positioned on a higher elevation (say, in a tree) and on a lower elevation (say, on the ground), the words moonta ‘sky’ and piita ‘earth, ground’ also serve as locatives meaning ‘up’ and ‘down’, respectively, as demonstrated in (9).

(9) antim moonteen cama iʃap piitee ca
anti-ʔ moonta = in kiy-a-ma
1SG.PRO-NOM sky = 1 be-IPF.FUT-but

‘I am up here but he is down there (on the ground).’

The adverb opa is used to indicate destination as in (10).

(10a) kuntiχ χonsupaa tay
kunte-ʔ χonso-opa=i tay-ay
kunte-NOM Konso-DEST=3 leave-PF[3M]
‘Kunte went to Konso.’

(10b) inantasit tikupa iɗeʔti
inanta-siʔ tika-opa i=ɗey-t-i
girl-DEF.M/F house-DEST 3=come-3F-PF
‘The girl came home.’
8.2.2. Directional adverbs

There are three directional adverbs. These are given in (11).

(11)  χata ‘downwards—from a higher altitude to a lower altitude’
      ūela ‘upwards—from a lower altitude to a higher altitude’
      ūesa ‘sideways—on a horizontal plane’

The deictic centre is the locative aye ‘here’, as shown in the following diagramme.

\[ \begin{array}{cccc}
  & \text{χata} & \text{desa} & \text{aye} & \text{desa} & \text{ūela} \\
\text{ēye} & \downarrow & \rightarrow & \rightarrow & \leftarrow & \rightarrow
\end{array} \]

8.2.2. Combining locative adverbs and directional adverbs

The locative adverbs and the directional adverbs can combine. When we combine the locative adverb irre ‘up there’ with the directional adverbs, we obtain the combinations in (12a). When we combine the locational aye ‘here’ with the directionals, we get the combinations in (12b).

(12a)  irreχata ‘from up there towards the speaker’
      irreųesa ‘from up there horizontally’
      irreųela ‘from up there downwards’

(12b)  ayeχata ‘from up there to here/from here downwards’
      ayeųesa ‘from here to somewhere on a horizontal plane’
      ayeųela ‘from down up to here/from here downwards’

Below are illustrative examples:

(13a)  keraaʔi? irreųataa lekkaday
        keraa-siʔ irreųata=i lekkad-ay
        thief-DEF.M/F up.there.downwards=3 climb.down-PF[3M]
        ‘The thief climbed down from up there downwards.’

(13b)  mottooʔaasiʔ ṭayedesa itarpay
        mottooʔaasiʔ aye
        car-DEF.M/F here
Most often, utterances like those in (13) are accompanied by finger-pointing.

The word assë used with the locative aye combines with the directionals generating a meaning like ‘straight, along this’ along the direction mentioned.

The locatives and directionals may combine with the destination adverb opa. The placement of the destination adverb with locatives differs from its placement with directionals: with locatives it is suffixed to the locatives (14a), but with directionals it occurs before the directional (14b).

(14a) aypa /aye + opa/ ‘to here’
ilipa /ile + opa/ ‘to up there’
disipa /dise + opa/ ‘to there (horizontal)’
\(\chi\)atipa /\(\chi\)ate + opa/ ‘to down there’
iripa /irre + opa/ ‘to up further there’
dissipa /disse + opa/ ‘to further there (horizontal)’
\(\chi\)attipa /\(\chi\)atte + opa/ ‘to down further there’

(14b) opadela ‘one step up from there’
opada\(\text{es}\)a ‘one step from there (horizontal)’
opaxata ‘one step down from there’

The directionals can be cliticised to the locatives as presented in the following table.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Locative</th>
<th>Directional</th>
<th>Combination</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>irre</td>
<td>(\chi)ata</td>
<td>(\chi)ree(\text{e})aa &lt;?(\text{irre})ee(\text{ta})&gt; ‘from there down here’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>irre</td>
<td>(\text{dela})</td>
<td>(\text{irre})e(\text{es})a ‘from up there upwards’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>irre</td>
<td>desa</td>
<td>(\text{irre})es(\text{sa}) ‘from up there on the horizontal plane’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>aye</td>
<td>(\chi)ata</td>
<td>aye(\text{e})(\text{e})aa &lt;(\text{aye})ee(\text{e})e(\text{a})&gt; ‘from here downwards’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>aye</td>
<td>(\text{dela})</td>
<td>aye(\text{e})a ‘from here upwards; from down up here’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>aye</td>
<td>desa</td>
<td>aye(\text{es})a ‘XXX’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(\text{dise})</td>
<td>(\chi)ata</td>
<td>(\text{dis})ee(\text{e})(\text{e})aa &lt;(\text{dis})ee(\text{e})(\text{e})a(\text{e})&gt; ‘from there on the horizontal plane downwards’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(\text{dise})</td>
<td>(\text{dela})</td>
<td>(\text{dis})ee(\text{e})(\text{e})la ‘from there on the horizontal plane upwards’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(\text{dise})</td>
<td>desa</td>
<td>(\text{dis})ee(\text{e})s(\text{a}) ‘from there on the horizontal plane onwards’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(\text{disse})</td>
<td>(\chi)ata</td>
<td>(\text{dis})ee(\text{e})(\text{e})(\text{e})(\text{a}) &lt;(\text{dis})ee(\text{e})(\text{e})(\text{e})(\text{a})(\text{e})&gt; ‘from further there downwards’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(\text{disse})</td>
<td>(\text{dela})</td>
<td>(\text{dis})ee(\text{e})(\text{e})(\text{e})(\text{a})(\text{e}) ‘from further there upwards’</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Locative | Directional | Combination
---|---|---
disse | desa | disseesa ‘from further there horizontally’
χate | χata | χateeχaa <?χateeta> ‘from down there downwards’
χate | dela | χateela ‘from down there upwards’
χatte | χata | χatteeχaa <?χatteeta> ‘from further down there downwards’
χatte | dela | χatteela ‘from further down there upwards’
χatte | desa | χatteesa ‘from further down there on horizontal plane’

Table 3: Directionals cliticising to locatives

The following table contains the (im)permissible combinations of locatives, the destination adverb and directionals.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Locative</th>
<th>destination</th>
<th>directional</th>
<th>combination</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>aye</td>
<td>opa</td>
<td>dela</td>
<td>aypadela</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>aye</td>
<td>opa</td>
<td>desa</td>
<td>aypadesa</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>aye</td>
<td>opa</td>
<td>χata</td>
<td>aypaχata</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>irre</td>
<td>opa</td>
<td>dela</td>
<td>irripadela</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>irre</td>
<td>opa</td>
<td>desa</td>
<td>*irripadesa</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>irre</td>
<td>opa</td>
<td>χata</td>
<td>*irripaχata</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>disse</td>
<td>opa</td>
<td>dela</td>
<td>*disipadela</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>disse</td>
<td>opa</td>
<td>desa</td>
<td>disipadesa</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>disse</td>
<td>opa</td>
<td>χata</td>
<td>*disipaxata</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>disse</td>
<td>opa</td>
<td>desa</td>
<td>*disipadela</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>disse</td>
<td>opa</td>
<td>desa</td>
<td>disipadesa</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>disse</td>
<td>opa</td>
<td>χata</td>
<td>*disipxata</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>χate</td>
<td>opa</td>
<td>dela</td>
<td>χatipaxata</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>χate</td>
<td>opa</td>
<td>desa</td>
<td>*χatipadela</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>χate</td>
<td>opa</td>
<td>χata</td>
<td>*χatipadesa</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>χatte</td>
<td>opa</td>
<td>dela</td>
<td>χattipadela</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>χatte</td>
<td>opa</td>
<td>desa</td>
<td>χattipadesa</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>χatte</td>
<td>opa</td>
<td>χata</td>
<td>χattipaxata</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 4: Combining locatives, destination adverb and directionals

8.2.3. Time adverbs

In this subsection I present time adverbs. I begin with the discussion of parts of a day. A day can be decomposed into various adverbial time frames given in (15).
The following time adverbs refer to time frames within the day of conversation. The reference is the moment of conversation *amma* ‘now’.

Using the time adverb *awwi* ‘today’, the day of conversation, as a reference point we have the following time adverbs.

The time adverbs in (18) refer to nights. Except the night of the day of conversation, the rest refer to past nights. In Konso, one cannot use the night of the day of conversation *raawwa* ‘tonight’ after sundown. The day ends at sundown and the preceding night is considered to be part of the 24-hour cycle: night + day, not day + night.

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13 *helaanna* has a variant form *helaadda*.
A week is *tappaa* or *torpaa* from *tappa* ‘seven’ or *torbaa* ‘seven’.

A recent past or a near future is expressed by the adverb *yensi* ‘these days’. The reading of past or future depends on the aspect of the sentence. In (19), for example, we have the time adverb *yensi* and the verb root *roop* ‘to rain’. (19a) is different from (19b) in that it contains a perfective aspect, which, together with the time adverb, shows that the event of raining is a completed event. (19b) contains a future imperfective, which, together with the time adverb, indicates that the event of raining is not a completed event but an event expected to happen soon. With the present imperfective, the adverb *yensi* expresses an event that has been going on for some time, as in (19c).

$$(19a)\quad yensi \quad i = roop\text{-}t\text{-}i$$
$$\text{these.days} \quad 3 = \text{rain-3F-PF}$$
‘It rained recently.’

$$(19b)\quad yensi \quad i = roop\text{-}t\text{-}a$$
$$\text{these.days} \quad 3 = \text{rain-3F-IPF.FUT}$$
‘It will rain sometime.’

$$(19c)\quad yensi \quad i = roop\text{-}n\text{i}$$
$$\text{these.days} \quad 3 = \text{rain-IPF.PRES}$$
‘It is raining these days.’

We also have time adverbs that refer to a year. These are given in (20). The reference is the year of conversation.

$$(20)\quad \begin{array}{l}
\text{yeswi} \quad \text{‘this year’} \\
\text{parpaliʔ} \quad \text{‘last year’} \\
\text{parturaʔ} \quad \text{‘the year before last year’} \\
\text{partussa} \quad \text{‘the third year before the year of conversation’} \\
\text{paraanna} \quad \text{‘next year’} \\
\text{parkeettu} \quad \text{‘the years to come (after next year)’}
\end{array}$$

Adverbs referring to a day following the day of an event are marked by the dative suffix as in (21a). When reference is made to a day preceding the day of an event, the postposition *tura* ‘in front of’ is used with the time adverbs as in (21b).

$$(21a)\quad \begin{array}{l}
\text{faasika parraytaʔe deʔti} \\
\text{faasika} \quad \text{parraytaʔe} = i \quad \text{dey-t-i}
\end{array}$$
$$\text{Easter} \quad \text{next.day-DAT = 3} \quad \text{come-3F-PF}$$
‘She came the day after Easter.’
Easter in front of yesterday = 3 come-3F-PF

‘She came on the day before Easter.’

The division of the year into months is closely associated with agricultural cycle. The year is divided into twelve months. The first month of the year is January (see, also Yohannes and Gemechu 1996:9). A month is broadly classified into two weeks of moonshine and two weeks of dark nights. The twelve months of the year are the following:

- **January** (ophā)
- **February** (sakaanukama)
- **March** (murano)
- **April** (peelalta)
- **May** (harta)
- **June** (tela)
- **July** (olχolaʃa)
- **August** (sessayʃa)
- **September** (partupta)
- **October** (kiʃa)
- **November** (ollinɗala)
- **December** (poorinka)

A week has seven days, most of which are named after the different places where market is held. Thus, the names of the days of the week differ from place to place. Below I give the days of the week as they are called in my area.

- **Monday** (ompakku)
- **Tuesday** (lankayya)
- **Wednesday** (opppattaali)
- **Thursday** (paʛawli)
- **Friday** (paʛawli parrayta)
- **Saturday** (palawwa)
- **Sunday** (saampata)

Some people, particularly old people, use the name úmmoossa instead of lankayya for Tuesday, suggesting that in the past markets were held in úmmoossa. Alternatively, lankayya is called palawwa a ʃakkaʔ ‘the small palawwa’ as a small number of people hold market in the same place where a very large number of people hold market on palawwa ‘Saturday’. The reason why the small market is held on Tuesday in palawwa is because lankayya is far from my area. Another remark is that if market is not held on the day following a market day, then the name of the previous market day and the time adverb parrayta ‘the following day’ are used, as in paʛawli parrayta ‘Friday’.
8.3. Conjunctions

The following is the list of the conjunctions:

(24) oo/ootoo/kande ‘if’ conditional
awta/ettee ‘when’ temporal
akkaa ‘that’ complement
kasu/kuli ‘also, even’ inclusive
ka/ifu? ‘and’ coordination/consecutive
maa/umma ‘but’ contrast
taakine ‘or/otherwise’ alternative

The conjunctions listed above are discussed in the chapter on Complex sentences in this study. See also Mous and Ongaye (2009). Below, I give brief remarks and illustrative examples.

Conditional conjunctions mark support clauses in conditional sentences as can be seen from the example in (25). For details of conditionals, see 12.1.1.

(25) iʃaʔ ooɗeyo, konfasiʔ ʔiteyyaɗa

\[
\text{iʃa}-\text{ʔ oo } \text{ɗey-o}, \quad \text{konfa-siʔ i}=\text{teyyad-a} \\
3\text{SGM.PRO-NOM if come-DP.IPF.FUT} \quad \text{shorts-DEF.M/F} \quad 3=\text{receive-IPF.FUT} \\
\]

‘If he comes, he will receive the shorts.’

The temporal conjunctions awta and etee ‘when’ mark temporal clauses as shown in (26). The conjunction awta also serves as a conditional conjunction (see details in 12.1.2).

(26) awtak konfasit teyto, ?anal leli

\[
\text{awta=}=\text{ʔ konfa-siʔ tey-t-o}, \quad \text{ana-ʔ lel-i} \\
\text{when}=2 \quad \text{shorts-DEF.M/F} \quad \text{find-2-DP.IPF.FUT} \quad \text{1SG.PRO[ACC]-DAT} \quad \text{tell-IMP.SG} \\
\]

‘When you find the shorts, let me know.’

The conjunction ka marks not only coordinated nouns as in (27a) but also conjoined consecutive clauses as in (27b).

(27a) silpoota ka aakaafa
hoo and spade
‘hoe and spade’
The conjunction *ifu?* conjoins only nouns as in (28a). The example in (28b) is unacceptable because the conjunction *ifu?* is used to conjoin consecutive events.

(28a)  kappooli *ifu?* yoonasi aakkay
      kappooli ifu= in akk-ay
      Kappoole and Yoonasi = 1 see-PF[3M]
      ‘I saw Kappoole and Yoonase.’

(28b)  *χooy-a *ifu? ɗakaɗooosinih haaɗa
      χooy-a ifu= and stones-DEM.P carry-IMP.PL
      (intended: ‘Come and carry these stones!’)

The conjunctions *maa* and *umma* express counter-expectation or contrast, as shown in (29):

(29a)  urmalaa-*a* iʔanti *maa* kappaa-*a* ?iɗapti
       urmalaa-opa i= an-t-i *maa* kappaa-si
       market-to 3 = go-3F-PF but wheat-DEF.M/F

       *i=ɗap-t-i*
       3 = not.find-3F-PF
       ‘She went to market but could not find the wheat (to buy).’

(29b)  koɗaasin koʔni *umma* dikkanninco
       kodaa-*si?= in kod-ni umma
       work-DEF.M/F = 1 work-IPF.PRES but

       *dikkad-ni= in-kiy-o*
       finish-IPF.PRES = 3NEG-be-NEG
       ‘I do the work but it does not get finished.’
Alternatives are expressed by the conjunction taakine ‘or, otherwise’. Example:

(30) diluppua sookafu taakine urmalaapa aani
    dil-oppupa sookad-u taakine
    field-into go.to.field-IMP.SG or

    urmalaa-opa aan-i
    market-to go-IMP.SG
    ‘(You (SG)) Go to the field or market!’

The suffix -m is also used to mark an alternative, as shown in (31).

(31) tikaa-si? in=sah-a-m
    house-DEF.M/F 1=sweep-IPF.FUT-or

    in=diif-a
    1=leave-IPF.FUT
    ‘Shall I sweep the house or leave it?’