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20. Question words and particles

In this chapter I discuss pronominal, adverbial, clausal and modifying content question words, as well as the marking of polar questions.

20.1. Content question words

Lumun has pronominal, adverbial, clausal and modifying content question words. Modifying question words always have a concord. The pronominal, adverbial and clausal question words are listed in table 105, the modifying question words in table 106. Question words can be divided into those ending in the question word marker -ta (first columns of both tables), the same forms without -ta (second columns), and question words containing the (concord and) demonstrative pronominal base (c)-en (third columns).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>pronominal</th>
<th>ending in -ta</th>
<th>without -ta</th>
<th>ending in (c)-en</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>pronominal</td>
<td>ɔ́ttɔ́t̪a/ɔ́ttɔ́nt̪ən ‘who’</td>
<td>akkwɛn/ ɔ́kkwɛŋnən ‘who’</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ɬɛn ‘what’</td>
<td>ɬɛmɛn ‘what’</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>clausal</td>
<td>akkaɪnən, akkaɪnən ‘why’</td>
<td>akkaɪn, akkaɪn ‘why’</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>adverbial</td>
<td>karoʃə, karoʃə ‘where’</td>
<td>kəren ‘where’</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ɬɛn ‘when’</td>
<td>ɬɛmɛn ‘when’</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>tátə, kátə ‘how’</td>
<td>tət̪ə, kət̪ə ‘how’</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>akkəraʃə ‘what time’</td>
<td>akkərat ‘what time’</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 106 Modifying content question words

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>ending in -tə</th>
<th>without -tə</th>
<th>ending in (c)-en</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>c-štə/tətan ‘whose’</td>
<td>c-šəntə ‘what kind of’</td>
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<tr>
<td>c-əntə ‘where’</td>
<td>c-əntə ‘what kind of’</td>
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<tr>
<td>c-arətə ‘how’</td>
<td>c-arətə ‘how’</td>
<td>c-ənətə ‘why’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>c-əntə ‘for what purpose, why’</td>
<td>c-əntə ‘for what purpose, why’</td>
<td>c-əntə ‘why’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>c-əntə ‘how many’</td>
<td>c-əntə ‘how many’</td>
<td>c-əntə ‘which’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>c-rətə ‘which’</td>
<td>c-rətə ‘which’</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Question words ending in -ṭa have their own intensifying adverb ippu, or -ppu, which gives a sense of urgency to the question. An example was provided in 17.1.4.

Because one way of question formation involves left-dislocation of the content (non-subject) question word, the word order in neutral affirmative statements is recalled here: S V O Adj.

*Position in the clause and question constructions*

Question words can be used alone. With a verbal or adjectival predicate, they occur in one or two of the following positions or constructions:

- in situ. Subject question words, which always remain in situ, are followed by the focus marker akk- replacing the subject concord;
- left-dislocated before the subject. In these constructions the question word is followed by akka +H ‘that’ or, in case of ‘where’, by the locative relative na;
- at the right edge of the clause, preceded by itti ‘that’.

Next to being used in situ, several of the question words in the first column of table 105 allow for a clause-initial construction with akka +H, as do əkkwé̂n ‘who’ and njimpén ‘what’ (third column). The forms without -ṭa (second column) are not used clause-initially with akka +H. karatá ‘where’ can be used clause-initially, but is then followed by the locative relative na (see 11.3).

A question with a question word in situ and the same question with an akka +H -construction follow here.

\[
\text{òkùl \ w-a-ròko \ njín-ṭa} \\
\text{child \ c-eat:INCOMPL \ what-QW}
\]

what will the child eat?
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ŋɪ́nta  akka  ǫkól  ʂọ̣kọ́
what-qw  that  child  eat:DEP:INCOMPL
what will the child eat?

The verb in a clause introduced by the complementizer akka +H or the locative relative ná is either a Dependent Incompletive, a Completive, the Present of ‘be’, or a complex verb of which the (first) auxiliary verb is a Dependent Incompletive, a Completive, or the Present of ‘be’. By contrast, the focus marker akk- precedes a non-dependant verb. An example of the latter:

Ṣt̪-t̪a  akk-a.řẹkọ́
pers.3-qw  foc-get:INCOMPL
who will eat it?

Modifying question words come after the noun or noun phrase they modify. C-šńt̪a ‘why’ modifies subjects, which it directly follows, and precedes a clause introduced by akka +H (see 20.1.7).

Several modifying question words can modify personal pronouns: C-ṣt̪ta, C-ṣtt̪an ‘whose’, C-okkwén, C-okkwénọ́n ‘whose’, C-ářọ́ta ‘where’, C-âren ‘where’, C-arât̪ta ‘how’, C-arât ‘how’, C-šńt̪a ‘why’, C-ọrọ́nọ́t̪ta ‘how many’, C-ọrọ́nọ́k ‘how many’ (examples are given in this chapter).

Examples illustrating the meaning and use of question words as well as constructions in which they occur are provided in sections 20.1.1 to 20.1.9. The question words are grouped together mainly on the basis of shared lexical formatives. This gives the following clusters:

- Ṣt̪ta, Ṣtt̪an ‘who’, ọkkwén, ọkkwénọ́n ‘who’, C-ṣt̪ta, C-ṣtt̪an ‘whose’, C-ọkkwén, C-ọkkwénọ́n ‘whose’;
- karọ́t̪a/karọ́t̪a, koren, C-ářọ́ta ‘where’, C-âren ‘where’; acńńt̪a ‘when’, acń ‘when’;
- tāt̪ta/kāt̪ta ‘how’, tât/kât ‘how’, C-arât̪ta ‘how’, C-árat ‘how’;
• akkáraṭṭa ‘what time of the day’, akkárat ‘what time of the day’;
• c-ọt̪ẹ́nta ‘for what purpose, why’, c-ọt̪ẹ́n ‘for what purpose, why’, c-ọnta ‘why’;
• C-ɔrənta ‘how many’, C-ɔrənok ‘how many’;
• C-iaṭa ‘which’, C-ia ‘which’

20.1.1. ‘who’ and ‘whose’

ọtta/ọttάn ‘who’, ọkkwẹn/ọkkwẹŋn ‘who’, C-ọtta, C-ọttάn ‘whose’ and C-ọkkwẹn/C-ọkkwẹŋn ‘whose’ share a formative (based on) ọsk ‘s/he’ (including the persona prefix). Though in these forms the sequence ọsk has been shortened to ọ, I will gloss the formative as PERS.3

ọtta/ọttάn ‘who’

ọtta is made up of a formative based on ọsk ‘s/he’, including the persona prefix (ọs-), and the question word marker -ta. It has a plural which is formed through attachment of the plural suffix -ŋn of nouns with the persona prefix. ọtta + -ŋn > ọttάn.

ọtta/ọttάn is used in different syntactic functions: subject, object, as part of a prepositional phrase. The syntactic function determines which construction(s) is/are possible. In the examples below, it functions as the subject of a verbless clause:

ọt-ọta
PERS.3-QW
p-en
C-DEM

who is it? (i.e. whom are you talking about?)

ọt.ọt-ọn ẹn-ọf
who-PL DEM-C-NEARSP

who are they? (lit.: who are these? For example about people who are present, or while pointing at people in a picture)
When ọ́tta/ọ́ttan replaces the subject of a verbal or adjectival clause, a focus construction with akk-is required, or alternatively, with app-for the singular and ạtt- for the plural (see 19.1):

\[\text{ọ́t-ta} \quad \text{a-p-p-arik} \quad \text{PERS.3-QW} \quad \text{FOC-C-C-big} \]

who is the biggest?

\[\text{ọ́t-tá-n} \quad \text{á-t-t-tá.t} \quad \text{PERS.3-QW-PL} \quad \text{FOC-C-C-come:COMPL} \]

who (PL) came?

\[\text{ọ́t-ta} \quad \text{akk-a.kkót} \quad \text{ọ́re} \quad \text{PERS.3-QW} \quad \text{FOC-do:INCOMPL} \quad \text{work} \]

who will do the work?

As an object, ọ́tta/ọ́ttan can be used in situ (first and second example below) or fronted in a construction with the complementizer akka + H (third example below):

\[\text{ọ́-kín} \quad \text{t-tót.é} \quad \text{ọ́t-tá-n} \quad \text{no.ppan} \quad \text{PERS.3A} \quad \text{c-find:COMPL} \quad \text{who:QW-PL} \quad \text{inside} \]

who(PL) did they find inside?

\[\text{ŋ-kw-a.ik} \quad \text{p-a.lílîne} \quad \text{ọ́t-ta} \quad \text{PERS.3-QW} \quad \text{2-C-bec:PR} \quad \text{c-run:INCOMPL} \quad \text{whom are you running from?} \]

\[\text{ọ́t-ta} \quad \text{akk-a} \quad \text{ŋ-kw-a.ik} \quad \text{p-a.lílîne} \quad \text{PERS.3-QW} \quad \text{that} \quad \text{2-C-bec:PR} \quad \text{c-run:INCOMPL} \]

whom are you running from?

After a preposition, the initial vowel ọ of ọ́tta/ọ́ttan changes into a, in the same way as the persona prefix ọ́ in pronouns, personal names and kinship and relational terms (see 4.10.1). The question word can be used in situ, but can also be fronted followed by akka + H. In the latter case, preposition and question word are separated: the preposition remains in place adopting its absolute form (second example below).
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who (PL) did they leave behind?

A special use of ɔ́ttə is found in a question about names. This requires a construction with the complementizer ɪttɪ:

what is your name? (lit.: you have received the name that who?)

ɔ́ttə/ɔ́ttən can, apparently, be used in complement questions, at least in some cases. The following sentence was not rejected:

I do not know who came first

Commonly, however, ɔkkwən/ ɔkkwəŋən ‘who’ is applied in complement clauses (unless the complement clause represents direct speech).

ɔkkwən/ɔkkwəŋən ‘who’

ɔkkwən ‘who’ contains a formative based on ɔsk ‘s/he’, including the persona prefix ɔ́, and the concord ɔ́p- (agreeing with ɔsk) + demonstrative pronominal base ɔ́n (see 8.1). As elsewhere, the realization of the sequence of pronominal k and concord p deviates from general phonological rules, being realized as [kʷ] instead of as [p]. The plural of ɔkkwən is formed with -ŋən: ɔkkwəŋən.

Though ɔkkwən/ɔkkwəŋən already contains ɔ́p- as a formative, in a verbless construction it can still be predicated by ɔ́p- (or plural ɔ́p-):
who is this about? (i.e. whom are you talking about?)

ɔkkwɛ́n implies a speech context; unlike ɔ́t̪t̪a, it is not used in thetic questions. The following examples contrast ɔ́t̪t̪a and ɔkkwɛ́n. ɔ́t̪t̪a can be used in context as well as “out-of-the-blue”; the use of ɔkkwɛ́n in the second example below conveys the speaker’s assumption or awareness that the people were already talking about the person who died when s/he joined the conversation:

ɔ́t̪t̪a   a-p-p-iš.t
PERS.3-QW  FOC-C-DIE:COMPL
who died?

ɔkkwén   a-p-p-iš.t
who:DEM  FOC-C-DIE:COMPL
who died? (for example upon joining a group of people at a funeral who are talking about the deceased)

Furthermore, ɔkkwɛ́n/ɔkkwɛ́n̓ is typically used in complement clauses. Two examples follow here, the first with ‘who’ as subject of the complement clause, the second with ‘who’ as object.

m-p-ɔmma   ɪtti   ɔk.kw.én   akk-ɔkkɔt.ê
1-C-not_know:INCOMPL  that  who:DEM  FOC-DIE:COMPL
I do not know who did it

ɔ-kín  t-erɛ́t-e   ɪtti   ɔk.kw.én̓-ɔn   akkà  ɔ-kín   akkarɔ
PERS-3A  C-speak_about:COMPL  that  who:DEM-PL  that  PERS-3A  call:DEP-INCOMPL
they talked about who (PL) they would invite

Note that the example above ‘I do not know who did it’ is different from a construction with ɔkkwí i- (see 6.1.5):

m-p-ɔmma   ɔk.kwí   i-p-ɔkkɔt.ê
1-C-not_know:INCOMPL  the_one  RES-C-DIE:COMPL
I do not know the one who did it
The nominal modifiers c-štta/c-šttàn ‘whose’ and c-ókkwèn/c-ókkwèŋn have the connexive c-ɔ ‘of’ as a formative. The difference in meaning between the two is similar to that of the pronominal forms. The first question below can, for example, be asked when two people are passing by a grave. The one puts the question to the other, who may or may not know the answer. The second question can be used when walking into a group of people who are gathered around a grave: it is assumed that these people have been talking or are talking about the dead person and know who he or she is.

**tupu**  
hole_in_ground  
whose grave is this?

**tupu**  
hole_in_ground  
whose grave is this?

In a context where something was missed c-ókkwèn is used upon asking for clarification. However, c-ókkwèn is sometimes also used without such a conversational context, as an alternative to c-štta.

**c-ceccé**  
PERS-Ceccé  
whose Ccecc are you? / whose Ccecc are you? (or: in a comparable way as in the previous example: whose Ccecc is this about?)

**c-ceccé**  
PERS-Ceccé  
whose Ccecc are you?

A pronominal proclitic can be attached to the connexive construction:

**ŋ-kw-šk-kw-ên**  
2-C-of.PERS.3-C-DEM  
whose (son/daughter) are you? / whose (son/daughter) are you?
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ŋ-kw-ɔ́-t̪-a
2-C-of,PERS.3-QW
whose (son/daughter) are you? / whose (son/daughter) are you?

20.1.2. ‘what’, ‘why’ and ‘what kind of’

The question words ŋínta ‘what’, akaínta/akkaínta ‘why’, akaín/akkaín ‘what kind of’, c-ɔ́ńta ‘what kind of’ and ɲimpén ‘what’ all share the formative based on ɲín ‘what’. Most question words are compatible with ɲín having a falling tone, except ɲimpén, the latter suggests a high or rising tone. I represent it with a high tone, since in the one example I have where it is not preceded by an element with high tone, it is realized as high.

ana ŋ-kw-a.tı-ɔkkɔ́t ɲín
and 2-C:IT:INCOMPL-DO:DEPINCOMPL what
and what will you do about it?! (lit. go and do)

ŋínta ‘what’

ŋínta, containing ɲín ‘what’ and -t̪a as formatives, can be used in a verbless clause. The concord p- in the first example, which is a fixed expression, is implicitly understood to agree with papo ‘thing’.

ɲín-ta ın-p
what-QW C-DEM
what is it? (what is this that you are talking about?)

ɲínta can be used in a verbless clause with complementizer ıttı ‘that’:

ɲín-ta ıttı tı-ɔmekɔ́
what-QW that NOM-scarify
what is scarification?

As the subject of a verb, ɲínta is followed by the focus marker akk-, or alternatively by app- (not aŋŋ-). app- is used in Tɔ́ɨmaṭɔ́n and, for my consultant, implicitly agrees with papo ‘thing’.
ηίν-τα  akk-a.ίk  
what-QW  FOC-be:PR
what is happening? (what is (it)?)

ηίν-τα  a-p-p-əkkwɔt.έ  
what-QW  FOC-C-kill:COMPL
what has destroyed it? (lit.: killed)

ηίν-τα  akk-ɔnόt  ttu  pάί  
what-QW  FOC-have  that  pǎi
what does pǎi mean?

ηίντα  as object can be in situ or left-dislocated followed by akka + H:

ʊkʊl  w-a.ʁɔko  ηίν-τα  
child  C-eat:INCOMPL  what-QW
what will the child eat?

ηίν-τα  akka  ʊkʊl  ʊrɔkɔ  
what-QW  that  child  eat:DEPINCOMPL
what will the child eat?

ηίντα  can be in situ preceded by a preposition. Alternatively, it can be left-dislocated, with an absolute preposition remaining in place:

η-kw-aa.t  η-ηίν-τα  
2-C-come:COMPL  with-what-QW
by what did you come here? (i.e. by what means of transport)

ηίν-τα  akka  η-kw-aa.t  η.ηί  
what-QW  that  C-come:COMPL  with:ABS
by what did you come here? (i.e. by what means of transport)

ηίν  ‘what’

ηίν, without the question morpheme -τα, does not function as a neutral question word. In the earlier cited example, repeated here, it already implies the speaker's negative view: you can do nothing.
In combination with a Benefactive verb ṇί́n̥a is interpreted as ‘why’ (‘for what’). Compare:

\[
\text{ṇ-kw-a.ǐlk} \quad \text{p-a.llot} \quad \text{tɔ-in-ta}
\]
2-C-bePR \quad C-run:TO:INCOMPL \quad up_on:what-QW
what are you running to?

\[
\text{ṇ-kw-a.ǐlk} \quad \text{p-a.lline} \quad \text{ṇí́n-ta}
\]
2-C-bePR \quad C-run:FOR:INCOMPL \quad what-QW
why are you running? (lit.: you are running for what?)

In case of two objects, ṇí́n̥a in situ as the first (benefactive) object of a Benefactive verb, gives the reading ‘why’:

\[
\text{ana} \quad \text{m-p-a.ɽókine} \quad \text{ṇí́n.tá} \quad \text{ṇúrú} \quad \text{ṇ-ṇ̄atí}
\]
and \quad 1-C-eat:FOR:INCOMPL \quad what:QW \quad asida \quad with-water
and why would I eat asida with water? (lit.: and I will eat for what asida with water?)

Alternatively, the reason object is left-dislocated in a construction with akka + H:

\[
\text{ana} \quad \text{ṇí́n-ta} \quad \text{akka} \quad \text{a-n-ɽókine} \quad \text{ṇúrú} \quad \text{ṇ-ṇ̄atí}
\]
and \quad what-QW \quad that \quad CONJ-1-eat:FOR:DEPINCOMPL \quad asida \quad with-water
and why would I eat asida with water? (lit.: and I will eat for what asida with water?)

As a second (patient) object, ṇí́n̥a in situ gives the reading ‘what’:

\[
\text{m-p-a.ñékine} \quad \text{ɔ-kakká} \quad \text{ṇí́n-ta}
\]
1-C-take:FOR:INCOMPL \quad PERS-Kakka \quad what-QW
what can I take to Kakka?
In such a case, that is with a verb that takes both a beneficiary and a patient object, a construction with *njintə akka* + H is ambiguous:

\[
\text{njintə akka a-n-ønkine ø-kakkå}
\]

what can I take to Kakka? / why do I bring it to Kakka?

**akkainţa / akainţa** ‘why’

The use of the combination akkainţa or akainţa ‘why’ (< akka + njintə), which comes after the verb phrase, avoids such ambiguity. Whereas a clause with (fronted) *njintə akka* + H as ‘why’, or with *njintə* in situ as ‘why’, requires a verb in benefactive derivation, the equivalent clause with akkainţa/akainţa has a non-benefactive verb:

\[
\text{nj-kw-a.ik p-a.lló aka.in-ţa}
\]

why are you running?

\[
\text{mp-a.ønkine ø-kakkå aka.in-ţa}
\]

why will I take it to Kakka?

**akkain / akain** ‘why’

akkain and its variant akain, which lack the question morpheme -ta, are typically used as quick remarks, interrupting the speaker. Rather than like real questions, they function like exclamations, expressing that something is considered unusual:

\[
\text{njokol n-ellá}
\]

children c-be_absent:INCOMPL

akkan why

I have no children (lit.: children are lacking). why?!

**c-ønţa** ‘what kind of’, **c-øn** ‘what kind of’
c-ɔ́nìta ‘what kind of’ and c-ɔ́n ‘what kind of’ contain the connexive c-ɔ and ŋìnta or ŋìn. They function as modifiers of a noun phrase:

œ-part  p-ɑŋ  p-a.kkɔttet  ɲóčól  ɲ-5-in-taş

what kind of sauce does your wife always make? (App. IV, 12)

k-kw-ŋkwɔnšt  ćkól  w-5-in-taş

what child did she give birth to? (a girl or a boy?)

The next example has c-ɔ́n, without -taş. It is not really a question, but conveys that the people don’t want to hear the tit tit of the boy:

ana  tit  tit  t-ərek  t-5-in

and tit tit c-some c-of-what

and what kind of “tit tit” (is this now)?! (“tit tit” is a sound made out of fear.

Context: a small boy went into a cave to find a porcupine, but now he is afraid and wants to get out. The people outside want the boy to stay inside and get the porcupine). (fr. written story)

ŋìmpɛn ‘what, why’

ŋìmpɛn contains the formative ɲìn ‘what’ and the demonstrative base ɛn ‘that’. The concord is again p. Like ɔkkwɛn, ŋìmpɛn is not used thetically, but needs a (speech) context; it refers to a matter that is (assumed to be) already being discussed. The question below stands in a context of people knowing that they should do something, but they don’t know what. ŋìmpɛn can be used in situ or in a fronted construction with akka + H:

ana  ɔ-nín  ʨ-a.kkɔt  ɲm-p-ɛn

and  Pers-1a c-do:incompl what-c-dem

but what can we do?

ana  ɲm-p-ɛn  akka  ɔ-nín  ɔkkɔt

and what-c-dem that pers-1a do:depincompl

but what can we do?
Like ṣkkwen, ṣmpen is also used in complement clauses, whether in situ (first example below), or fronted within the complement clause preceding akka +H (second example). In the second example, ŋinta was considered acceptable as well; in the first this was less clear.

ọ-kíń ṭ-erettáre·t istringstream that ọ-kíń ṭ-ákkót ṣím-p-ën
PERS-3A  C-talk_to_each_other:COMPL  that PERS-3A  C-do:INCOMPL  what-C-DEM
they discussed amongst each other what they would do

ṛík.1  n-tán  á-n-ánt-ókóta
pass_entrance:IMP  with-up_on:ABS  SUBJ-1-can:DEPINCOMPL-look_at:DEPINCOMPL
ṣím-p-ën akka ṣ-ppénná ṣkkínt-óŋ
what-C-DEM  that PERS-Penna  do_for:DEPINCOMPL-O2
come inside to me, so that I can see what Penna is doing to you

ṣmpen akka has the reading ‘why’ when it functions as first object of a Benefactive verb. Note that in the previous example -ųŋ ‘you’ is understood as the first object of ṣkkíntet ‘do for’, so that ṣmpen is understood as the second (patient) object. In the example below the natural interpretation is the other way round: ṣmpen is understood as the first object of Benefactive ṣmmakíntet ‘follow for’ (< ṣmmakót ‘follow’), giving a ‘why’ reading. Enclitic -ók ‘him, her’ functions as second (patient) object:

ọ-kíń ṭ-érẹ́.e  istringstream ṣím-p-ën akka
PERS-3A  C-speak_about:COMPL  that what-C-DEM  that
k-kw-á.ík  p-á.ḥmamáń-śk
3-C-bePR  C-follow_for.PLUR:INCOMPL-O3
they spoke about why she is always following him

ṣmpen is also used in questions to which no answer is expected:

ana  ṣ-kw-ápp-ṣrúnc.ät-in  ṣím-p-ën
and 2-C-again:INCOMPL-throw_at.PLUR:DEPPRFV-1:O  what-C-DEM
and what will you throw at me again?! (implication: there is nothing left to throw at me) (App. IV, 116)
where is the threshing floor?

20.1.3. ‘where’

**karaṭā / karaṭa, karen, c-aratā and c-ären** ‘where’ share a formative that vacillates between (k)ər and (k)ar. karaṭā and karaṭa are sometimes pronounced with a first vowel ā rather than a. The initial vowel a of c-aratā and c-ären comes from the copula (c-ā ‘be’) rather than being part of the formative. Whether or not there is a relationship with the noun karan ‘place’ is unclear.

**karaṭā / karaṭa** ‘where’

karaṭa or karaṭa ‘where’ can be used in situ. In this position, the two tonal alternatives are equivalent, as shown in the following. The first realization is based on karaṭā, the second on karaṭa.

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{lícít} & \quad l-á.ík \quad \text{káró-tā} / \quad \text{lícít} & \quad l-á.ík \quad \text{kara-ta} \\
\text{threshing_floor} & \quad \text{c:be:PR} \quad \text{where-qW} & \quad \text{threshing_floor} & \quad \text{c:be:PR} \quad \text{where-qW}
\end{align*}
\]

where is the threshing floor?

karaṭā / karaṭa can precede an adjunct of time (or manner):

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{ŋ-kw-cöt} & \quad \text{káró-tá} \quad \text{meccíñ} \\
2-\text{c:go:COMPL} & \quad \text{where-qW} \quad \text{yesterday}
\end{align*}
\]

where did you go yesterday?

Alternatively, ‘where’ can be fronted. In this construction only the tonal variant karaṭā is used. Fronted karaṭā is not followed by akka + H, but by locative relative ná (discussed in 11.3):

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{kara-tá} & \quad \text{na} \quad \text{licít} \quad l-á.ík \\
\text{where-qW} & \quad \text{where:REL} \quad \text{threshing_floor} & \quad \text{c:be:PR}
\end{align*}
\]

where is the threshing floor?
In complement clauses karətə/karətά and kəren are not used, only the locative relative ná:

m-p-ɔmma na k-kw-ɔnō kəmón
1-c-not_know:INCOMPL where:REL 3-c-have house

I don’t know where s/he has his/her house he lives (I don’t know where s/he lives)

Like other locative constituents karətə/karətά can be preceded by ŋ- ‘with, by, (away) from’, but not by any of the other proclitic prepositions:

lićık l-aa.t ē-káró-tâ / ē-kárə-ta
goats c-come:COMPL with-where-QW with-where-QW

where have the goats come from?

kəren ‘where’

kəren probably contains the demonstrative pronominal base en as a formative (see 8.1), but there seems to be no trace of a concord. Like ńmpen and akkwén, kəren is used in questions which are not really questions, but imply a negative statement. For example, the speaker is telling somebody that some of his goats escaped and says ‘and where were you?!’, implying: I needed you then to search with me, but you didn’t show up:

a-ń-kw-ɔká.t kəren
CONJ-2-c-be:COMPL where

and where were you?! (you didn’t show up!)

In the example below, somebody has just said that s/he has a threshing floor, but as far as the hearer knows this is not the case:

lićít l-á.ık kəren
threshing_floor c-be:PR where

where is (this) threshing floor?!
**Karen** with proclitic ŋ- ‘with, by, (away) from’ is a standard expression in answer to the greeting tāṭta ‘how is it?’. It is an evasive answer, communicating an unwillingness to give further details:

**tāṭ-ṭa**
how-QW

ŋ-kāren
with-where

how are you? fine (but don’t ask further questions!)

C-ároṭa ‘where’ and C-āren

The related nominal modifiers are C-ároṭa ‘where’ and C-āren ‘where’. C-ároṭa is used in order to obtain information about the whereabouts of somebody or something:

ŋpin  p-āroṭa
PERS.q3qin  C-where
where is ŋpin?

appenṭiná  w-āroṭa
groundnuts  C-where
where are the groundnuts?

a-ŋ-kw-āroṭa
CONJ-2-C-where
and where are you?

By contrast, C-āren in the next example is not a neutral inquiry after somebody’s whereabouts. It implies that the person was expected to be present, but is not:

k-kw-ře.t  itti  k-kw-á.kaappōrtakō  ána  k-kw-āren
3-C-say:COMPL  that  3-C-return:INCOMPL  and  3-C-where
s/he said that s/he would come back, but where is s/he?!

In the example below, the chicken saw the cat coming, but now does not see it anymore, which is worrying. The chicken asks the jackal:
The following example is not a neutral question after the whereabouts of the addressee’s children (ɲʊkʊl), but departs from the knowledge that the addressee does not have children and conveys that this is not really how it should be:

\[\text{ana á-ɲ-án ŋ-àren}\]

and where are yours?! (you should get serious and have a child!)

20.1.4. ‘how’

\[\text{táṭṭa, táttáráticas, tāt and c-aráticas all share the formative tāt ‘how’ (as do aakkáratə and aakkárat ‘what time’, see 20.1.5). kāṭṭa and kāt share the variant of tāt, kāt.}\]

\[\text{taṭṭa/kaṭṭa ‘how’}\]

\[\text{táṭṭa ‘how’ and kāṭṭa ‘how’ are generally preceded by the complementizer ɪttī ‘that’. The combination ɪttī kāṭṭa / ɪttī táṭṭa is used in situ:}\]

\[\text{ŋ-kw-a.kkót ŋóré ēŋ-ŋ-i īttī kāṭ-ṭa/tāt-ṭa}\]

2-c-do:INCOMPL work DEM-C-NEARSP that how-QW / how-QW

how will you do the work?

In the next example táṭṭa/kāṭṭa is not preceded by ɪttī, but the defective verb -şpari contains the same formative -tī as ɪttī:

\[\text{k-kw-şpari tāt-ṭa / kāt-ṭa}\]

3-c-say how-QW / how-QW

what did s/he say?

In the next case ɪttī is absent. The expression is a fixed formula, a greeting upon seeing somebody who has just got up:


η-kw-icāt.ē  tāt-ta / kāt-ta
2-c-lie_down:COMPL (that-)how-QW / (that-)how-QW
how did you sleep? (greeting in the morning)

tātta and kātta ‘how’ are very common greetings:

tāt-ta / kāt-ta
how-QW / how-QW
m-p-ɔpərōt
1-c-good

how are you? I am fine

ittī kātta (or ittī tātta) is also used in complement clauses:

m-p-ɔpət.ē  ittī ɔ-non t-ánt-ɔkōne-n  ittī
1-c-like:COMPL that PERS-2A C-can:INCOMPL-show:DEPINCOMPL-01 that
ɔ-non t-a-ra  tūn ittī kāt-ta  ɔnē
PERS-2A C-cultivate:INCOMPL onion that how-QW here
could you show me how you (PL) grow onions here? (lit.: I want that you (PL) can show me …) (fr. written text)

tātta/kātta cannot be left-dislocated.

tātta can be reduplicated to tāṭṭārāṭṭa. The reduplication has an intensifying effect. A how-question with tāṭṭārāṭṭa is not a neutral question for information, but expresses that something is thought to be (have been) very difficult. Which part is the reduplicated part is not clear. In the example I have glossed the second part as the reduplicated part:

η-kw-aat.ē  tāṭṭā-rāṭṭa
2-c-come:COMPL how~INTS

how did you manage to come? (for example when there were no buses)

tāt/kāt ‘how’
The short forms tāt/kāt ‘how’ are used in expressions that function as exclamations rather than as real questions. The example below has the implicit connotation of ‘you probably have nothing to say’:

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{ana } & \text{ c-non } \text{ ũ-} & \text{ a-re } & \text{ tāt} \\
\text{and } & \text{ PERS-2A } & \text{ c-speak:INCOMPL } & \text{ how} \\
\text{and what do you (pl) have to say?! (lit.: and how will you speak?!)}
\end{align*}
\]

Comparable to ɔkkwɛn and ɛmpɛn, and like ɔtti kāṭṭa/ittu tāṭṭa, the short forms tāt/kāt are furthermore used in complement clauses. The following example functions as complement of ‘they talked about’:

\[
\text{… ana } \text{ c-llé } \text{ p-ɔkijɛ.ɛ-ɔk n-toan } \text{ kāt} \\
\text{and } \text{ PERS-husband } \text{ c-chase:COMPL-03 with-home how} \\
\text{…and how her husband had chased her from the house (from wr. story)}
\]

Unlike ɔtti kāṭṭa / ittu tāṭṭa the short forms require some context; they are not easily used ‘out of the blue’. The first sentence below can, for example, be used in a conversation between two people who are walking through an onion field, and one of which is known or assumed to have knowledge about the cultivation of onions:

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{m-p-ɔŋt.ɛ } & \text{ itti } \text{ c-non } \text{ ũ-} & \text{ a-tānt-ɔkåne-n} \\
\text{1-c-like:COMPL } & \text{ that } & \text{ PERS-2A } & \text{ c-can:INCOMPL-show:DEPINCOMPL-01 that} \\
\text{c-non } & \text{ ũ-a. ra } & \text{ tūn } & \text{ tat } \text{ cænë} \\
\text{PERS-2A } & \text{ c-cultivate:INCOMPL onion how here} \\
\text{could you show me how you grow onions here? (lit.: I want that …)}
\end{align*}
\]

In a complement clause tāt/kāt can be left-dislocated followed by akka + H:

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{m-p-ɔŋt.ɛ } & \text{ itti } \text{ c-non } \text{ ũ-} & \text{ a-tānt-ɔkåne-n} \text{ tat } \text{ akka} \\
\text{1-c-like:COMPL } & \text{ that } & \text{ PERS-2A } & \text{ c-can:INCOMPL-show:DEPINCOMPL-01 that} & \text{ that} \\
\text{c-non } & \text{ ũ-a. ra } & \text{ tūn } & \text{ cænë} \\
\text{PERS-2A } & \text{ c-cultivate:INCOMPL onion here} \\
\text{could you show me how you grow onions here? (lit.: I want that …)}
\end{align*}
\]
C-arática ‘how’, C-arât ‘how’

The modifying word C-arática ‘how’ contains the copula C-á and tâtta (tât ‘how’ + the question word marker -tâ) as formatives. Some examples:

nennî  n-kw-a.rât-tâ
Nenni       2-c-how-QW
Nenni, how are you?

ɔ-nennî  p-a.rât-tâ
PERS-Nenni  c-how-QW
how is Nenni?

lon  l-a.rât-tâ
words       c-how-QW
what is going on?

In the example below C-arática modifies an object pronoun:

ɔ-nɔn  t-imma.kât-ɔk  p-á.rât-tâ
PERS-2A  c-see:PST-o3  c-how-QW
how was s/he when you (pl) saw him/her? (lit.: you saw him/her being how?)

The short form is C-arât is used in quick questions for further details:

palla  p-ellá  |  ana  p-p-ellá  p-árát
cat  C-be_absent:INCOMPL  and  PRO-C-be_absent:INCOMPL  C-how
the cat is not here. and how come it is not here?

20.1.5. ‘what time’

akkâraṭṭa contains akka + H ‘that’ and tâṭṭa ‘how’ as formatives, but has developed a tone pattern of its own. akkâraṭṭa is used in order to inquire after the time of the day that something happened or is expected to happen.
at what time did you go home? I went in the evening

akkáraṭṭa can be left-dislocated, followed by akka + H:

akkáraṭ-ṭa akka nj-kw-e5.t toan
what_time-QW that 2-c-go:COMPL home

at what time did you go home?

The short form can be used as a quick way of asking more precise information:

ɔ-ɪáa p-a.ɪk p-ânte.n | akkārat
PERS-mother C-be:PR C-come:INCOMPL what_time

my mother is coming. what time? (the assumption is that the mother will come today)

akkáraṭṭa is not used for asking after the (clock) time of the present moment. The expression for this is:

c̣ipki c-ia-tā
sun C-which-QW

what’s the time? (lit. the sun is which?)

20.1.6. ‘when’

While akkáraṭṭa ‘what time’ inquires after the time of the day that something happened or is expected to happen, acinta ‘when’ is used in case of a larger time frame. A question with acinta conveys no knowledge (or assumption) on the part of the speaker about the day of the event.

nj-kw-aa.t kārōṭṭóm ácín-ta
2-c-come:COMPL Khartoum when-QW

when did you arrive in Khartoum?
The short form acín needs a (speech) context and typically has an expressive value. The example below, is not a neutral question inquiring after the time or day that the speaker and addressee will fight, but conveys an eagerness to fight and perhaps the suggestion that the addressee may want to escape from it. The addressee replies that they will fight now.

\[ \text{ana} \ ə-ːɾɨt \ ə-ːɾ-ət̪-ə \ \text{acín} \ | \ ə-ːɾɨt \ ə-ːɾ-ət̪-ə \ \text{ácc} \] 
ana PERS-12 c-fight:INCOMPL when PERS-12 c-fight:INCOMPL now

and when will we fight?! we will fight now!

In the next example acín is used as a quick interruption to ask when something is going to take place:

\[ ə-ːɾáə \ p-ə.ɨk \ p-ːəntən \ | \ \text{acín} \] 
PERS-mother c-be:PR c-come:INCOMPL when

my mother is coming, when? (no knowledge/assumption about the time frame is conveyed)

The example below with acín is not a real question. It is asked after the eggs of the bird got broken and the implied answer is ‘never’:

\[ \text{ana} \ pəɾʊp̥e \ p-ːp-əkkẘnə \ \text{acín} \] 
and bird c-again:INCOMPL-produce:INCOMPL when

\[ \text{akka} \ p-ːp-ʊkkẘ.t \ pəɾɨn \] 
that PRO-c-become-old:COMPL finally

and when will the bird produce (eggs) again? because it will be old (implied answer: never)

The form acín is further used in a complement clause. acíntha is possible as well. Both are used only in final position:

\[ m-p-əmma \ \text{itt} \ ə-ːkɨn \ t-ːəntən \ \text{acín} / \text{acín}-\text{ta} \] 
1-c-not know:INCOMPL that PERS-3A c-come:INCOMPL when / when-QW

I do not know when they will come (lit.: I do not know that they will come when)
20.1.7. ‘for what purpose’ and ‘why’

C-οτέντα ‘for what purpose, why’ and C-οτέν ‘for what purpose, why’

C-οτέντα modifies a noun and expresses ‘for what purpose’ or ‘why’. The long form is used in neutral questions. In the example below it functions as predicate:

\[ \text{pɔt̪ən} \quad \text{p-οτέν-τα} \]
\[ \text{basket}(k.o.) \quad \text{c-for what purpose-qw} \]

for what is the basket?

In the next example C-οτέντα modifies an object noun. The object noun phrase remains in situ:

\[ \text{n-ţ-a.pp̪ōre} \quad \text{kamor} \quad \text{k-οτέν-τα} \]
\[ 2\text{A-c-put at.plur:incompl} \quad \text{sand} \quad \text{c-for what purpose-qw} \]

why are you collecting sand?

The noun phrase can be fronted in a cleft construction with the copula:

\[ \text{tɔɾɛ́} \quad \text{t-οτέν-τά} \quad \text{t-á} \quad \text{ŋ-kw-ńnů} \]
\[ \text{fear} \quad \text{c-for what purpose-qw} \quad \text{c-cop} \quad 2\text{-c-have} \]

why are you afraid? (lit.: fear for what purpose it is you have?)

\[ \text{takʊɾt} \quad \text{t-οτέν-τά} \quad \text{t-á-kkɔt} \quad (\langle \text{t-á} + \text{ŋ-} + \text{ɔkkɔt} \rangle) \]
\[ \text{style of young man} \quad \text{c-for what purpose-qw} \quad \text{c-cop-(2)-d:dep:incompl} \]

why do you dress up like a young man? (lit.: style for what purpose it is you make?)

C-οτέντα and C-οτέν can be used in a complement clause. In this environment there seems to be no difference between the long and the short form:

\[ \text{m-p-ɔmma} \quad \text{itti} \quad \text{pɔt̪ən} \quad \text{p-οτέν-τα} \quad / \quad \text{p-οτέν} \]
\[ 1\text{-c-not know:incompl} \quad \text{that} \quad \text{basket}(k.o.) \quad \text{c-because of what-qw} \quad \text{c-because of what} \]

I do not know what the basket is for
In a main clause, the short form conveys a negative judgement:

\[ \text{pɔtən} \quad \text{pɔtən} \]

basket(k.o.) c-because_of_what

for what is the basket?! (we don’t need it, you should not have brought it)

\[ \text{ɔ̌n'ta} \text{ 'why'} \]

\( \text{ɔ̌n'ta} \) ‘why’ modifies a subject (pro)noun. It is used in a construction with \( \text{akka} + \text{H} \), often in combination with \( \text{ittinå} \) ‘so, like this’. Questions with \( \text{ɔ̌n'ta} \) are not neutral inquiries, but convey that it would be better if the situation were different, they express some worry, disappointment or disapproval.

\[ \text{ɔ̌n'ta} \text{ akka w-tkò} \text{ cik} \]

child c-why that PRO-SIT:DEP/NOM VREF

\[ \text{cínāŋ} \quad \text{ákkómnå} \]

there_where_you_are since

why is the child still sitting here?

\[ \text{ɔ̌n'ta} \text{ akka ðrɔ̌n akkɔ́nto ðttnå} \]

PERS-12A c-why that PERS-12A be_born:DEP/NOM so

why were we born like this?

In the following example pronominal \( t \) refers to a pig (\( \text{tuṭtərụk} \)):

\[ \text{t-t-ɔ̌n'ta} \text{ akka ðt-t-á.ík t-ɔ̌n'ta} \text{ ðttnå} \]

PRO-c-why that PRO-c-be:PR c-cry:INCOMPL so

why is it (the pig) crying like this?

The following is an example of \( \text{ɔ̌n'ta} \) without the connecting \( \text{akka} \). \( \text{pɔnån} \), which is related to \( \text{ɔnnån} \) ‘mother’, is an abusive term.

\[ \text{k-kw-ɔ̌n'ta} \text{ ant-áine} \text{ pɔnån} \]

3-c-why can:DEP/NOM-come_to:DEP/NOM mother

why, on his/her mother, let him/her come back (in anger, as a threat)

\[ ^{28} \text{Irregular Incompletive (< òɗ 'cry').} \]
20.1.8. ‘how many’

*c-ɔrɔnɔt-ta* expresses ‘how many’. First some examples of predicative use:

**c-non t-ɔrɔnɔt-ta**

*PERS-2A c-how_many-QW*

how many are you?

**kɔmɛn k-ɔrɔnɔt-tá f-kaʊnta cæné**

*rooms c-how_many-QW res-c-be_built:INCOMPL here*

how many rooms will be built here? (lit.: the rooms (are) how many which will be built here?)

When *c-ɔrɔnɔt-ta* modifies the object, the object noun phrase can remain in situ, but also be fronted. When fronted, it is followed by a relative construction with *i-c-a* (second example below).

**ŋ-kwɔn mɛn m-ɔrɔnɔt-ta**

*2-c-have palm_fruits c-how_many-QW*

how many palm fruits do you have?

**mɛn m-ɔrɔnɔt-tá f-má ŋ-kwɔnú**

*palm_fruits c-how_many-QW res-c-cop 2-c-have*

how many palm fruits do you have?

Like the other forms without *-tá*, *c-ɔrɔnɔk* is used as a quick (perhaps interruptive) question:

**c-kíŋ t-á.ʃk t-ʾanṭan mënní**

*PERS-3A C-be:PR C-come:INCOMPL today*

**t-ɔrɔnɔk**

*c-how_many*

they are coming today / how many (are they)?
20.1.9. ‘which’

The nominal modifier c-ıatâ expresses ‘which’. An object noun phrase with c-ıatâ can be used in situ, but can also be fronted. When fronted, it is followed by a relative construction with i-C-a:

\[
\text{ŋ-kw-akkó.t} \quad \text{tákórtít} \quad \text{t-ıá-tá} \\
\text{2-c-do:incompl} \quad \text{style_of_young_man} \quad \text{c-which-QW}
\]

in which young man's style will you dress?

\[
\text{takórtít} \quad \text{t-ıá-tá} \quad \text{i-tıkkót} \\
\text{style_of_young_man} \quad \text{c-which-QW} \quad \text{res-c-cop.(2)-do:depincompl}
\]

in which young man's style will you dress? (lit.: the young man's style is which that you will do?)

Modifying question words, like other modifiers, can be used independently. In the next example, pronominal p- has implicit reference to papó (thing).

\[
\text{ráya} \quad \text{ana} \quad \text{p-ıa-tá} \quad \text{i-p-á} \quad \text{ŋ-kw-ıkkó.t.é} \\
\text{my_mother} \quad \text{and} \quad \text{c-which-QW} \quad \text{res-c-cop} \quad \text{2-c-do:compl}
\]

mother, and what is it that you have made? (can refer to food)

The short form (C-ıa) is commonly used in complement clauses, but in the examples below c-ıatâ was considered acceptable as well.

\[
\text{cık} \quad \text{c-ırrók} \quad \text{táru} \quad \text{anγôna} \\
\text{place} \quad \text{c-cold} \quad \text{Taçu} \quad \text{very}
\]

\[
\text{ŋ-kw-ımma} \quad \text{ıt} \quad \text{pəru} \quad \text{p-ıá} \\
\text{2-c-not_know:incompl} \quad \text{that} \quad \text{dry_season} \quad \text{c-which}
\]

\[
\text{ana} \quad \text{cökko} \quad \text{c-ıa} \\
\text{and} \quad \text{rainy_season} \quad \text{c-which}
\]

Taçu is a very cool place. You will not know which is the dry season and which is the rainy season (i.e. in both periods it is cool) (fr. written story)
I don’t know, there are many ropes and I do not know which one among them is your father’s (lit.: I do not know that your father’s (is) which among (them)) (fr. written dialogue)

The short form is also used to shortly ask ‘which one’?

give:IMP-o1 book
give me the book! which one?

20.2. Question particles

20.2.1. The question particle -i

Attachment of the enclitic question particle -i turns a statement into a (neutral) polar question. Such a question solicits a response that starts with å ‘yes’, or ã / ã / m ‘no’. Questions marked by -i can be used thematically, they require no specific context.

The tonal realization of questions evolves from the tonal properties of the element to which the question particle is attached; questions do not seem to have a specific intonation pattern. The particle functions largely as a regular low-toned item, except after an element with a rising (LH) tone. After a rising tone, application of the Tone Shift Rule (see 3.3.1) would be expected, resulting in a falling tone on the question particle. Instead, the particle can be tonally realized in two ways: as rising or as low. The paradigm follows here:

after L ḋkwọ̀nọ́ pọ̀lla-i (pọ̀lla + -i) ‘do you have a cat?’
after H ḋkwọ̀nọ́ ṭakọ́rọk-i (ṭakọ́rọk + -i) ‘do you have a chicken?’
after LH ḋkwọ̀nọ́ tọ́k-i (tọ́k + -i) ‘do you have a dog?’
after LH ηkwonó tok-1 (tōk + -1) ‘do you have a dog?’
after HL ηkwonó purupé-1 (purupé + -1) ‘do you have a bird?’

When the particle is attached after a final vowel with a H tone, the LHL tone that would result on the long vowel is simplified to HL, and realized over the long vowel or diphthong. Though the same effect is found upon attachment of the prepositional pro-clitics і-, ɔ-, то- and ʞо- to low-toned nouns with long vowels, and in one case of a diphthong (apart from _ioctl ‘in the beans’, there is also ioctl, see 3.1.2), this does not seem to be a general tone rule of the language. LHL tones are attested on long vowels and diphthongs, though not very often. Examples are: тʊŋ ‘shovel’, ɛɛ ‘stab, blow’, ɔɔk ‘s/he’, naːk ‘on him/her’, ʊɛ ‘instrument(k.o.)’, koː ‘digging tool’, caːl ‘sack’, caːn ‘rat (sp.)’, ɛɛ ‘go’, kaːn ‘bee’, naːn ‘on me’, naːŋ ‘on you’. Two examples with tone simplification follow here:

ηkwonó maté-1 (< maːtɛ-í < maːtɛ + -1) ‘are you sleepy?’ (lit.: do you have sleep?
ηkwonó parí-1 (< parí-í < parí + -1) ‘do you have a wife?’

Some examples of polar questions with answers follow here.

η-kw-ɪna škoro kárro-1 2-c-know:INCOMPL engrave:DEPINCOMPL mother_tongue-Q
jj m-p-ɪná yes 1-c-know:INCOMPL
can you write Lumun? yes, I can

c-ʈʈɛ p-a.ɪk-1 PERS-your_father c-be:PR-Q

a-a c-ŋappá p-ɪs.t no-REDUP PERS-my_father c-die:COMPL
is your father still alive? no, my father died

In answer to a negative question, jj ‘yes’ is applied for confirmation of the negative situation:
In speech, a single question sometimes has more than one question particle. The example below has a question particle, with tone as in prepausal position, after the possessor pronoun. \textit{ntít} is therefore like an afterthought. It does, however, belong to the question, so that it must take the question particle as well. When elicited, this sentence would only have the question particle at the end, after \textit{ntít}.

\texttt{ŋ-kw-ānn-ittā-i}  
2-C-NEG-get\_married:DEPCOMPL-Q

\texttt{jį m-p-ānn-ittā}  
yes 1-C-NEG-get\_married:DEPCOMPL

are you not married? / no, I am not (lit.: yes, I am not married)

Another example is the following. The question particle is obligatory after the first clause, but not after the second, which is not really part of the question. Still, it is possible to use it there:

\texttt{ŋ-kw-ômма lխ bağlı l-ôн-ǐ n.tr-ǐ}  
2-c-not\_know:INCOMPL ropes C-POSS2A-Q fromLABS-Q

do you not recognize your ropes among them? (fr. written dialogue)

Combinations of a question word lacking -\texttt{ţa} (see 20.1) and the question particle -\texttt{i} are possible. An example follows here. \texttt{ŋəm} ‘for what’ retains its rhetorical flavour suggesting here that there is no good reason for collecting urine, while at the same time -\texttt{i} questions that supposition:

\texttt{ŋ-kw-iččá p-á.îk-ǐ akka m-p-əká-ť p-ellâ-ť / p-ellá-r-i}  
2-c-still C-be:PR-Q that 1-c-be:COMP C-be\_absent:COMP C-be\_absent:COMP-Q

are you still there? because I was not there ...

his wife and children said, nonsense, urine for what?! (i.e. urine is good for nothing, or is it??) (App. IV, 52)
20.2.2. The tag question word pár ‘is it?’

The tag question word pár ‘is it’ consists of the (non-person) pronoun clitic p- (implicitly referring to papu ‘thing’), the concord + copula p-á, and the question particle -tá. The tag question word can be used after a positive but also after a negative statement. It solicits confirmation (jí ‘yes’) by the addressee.

you and I are going to do some work today, aren’t we?

It can also be used after a negative statement:

who did you say has come?
resumes the earlier question:

who greeted the other people, then/she returns to the friend and
example: somebody has asked his/her friend how/she is and then
-ɛ is also used on informal greeting questions between friends. For

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The particle for informal information recovery -ɛ is also used on informal greeting questions between friends. For

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The question particle -ɛ behaves tonally in the same way as -ɪ and -a, and like those particles, does not coalesce with a preceding vowel.

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Like -a, -ɛ differs from -ɪ and can be used in a conversational context for recovery of information or for confirmation that the implication of what has just been said has been correctly understood. It can be used on a statement or a content question. -ɛ differs from -ɪ in that it is typically used in informal situations or for example by somebody who is not really following the conversation between friends or family, for example used in informal situations. For example, somebody has asked his/her friend -ɛ-KW-IŘ-T Hɛ-R-ɛ how/she is and then switches to another person and asks how he/she is.

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The question particle -ɛ behaves tonally in the same way as -ɪ and -a.
kar-č
how-RECOVINF
and how is it?

20.2.5. Absence of question marking

Question marking is entirely absent in verbless questions. Such questions follow on a statement and ask whether the same is true for someone or something else. The question just consists of ana + H ‘and’ and a personal pronoun (whether a participant or a third person) or a noun (phrase). Its predication is understood to be the same as that of the preceding statement, which may have been uttered by the speaker but also by the addressee. These questions do not invite a response starting with ‘yes’ or ‘no’, merely a confirming or denying statement.

m-p-ɔpərɔt ana c-ũŋ
1-c-good and PERS-2

m-p-ɔpərɔt
1-c-good

I am fine, and you? I am fine

m-p-a.ık p-a.ɛg ana c-ũŋ
1-c-be:PR c-go:INCOMPL and PERS-2

m-p-ānn-ɛg
1-c-NEG-gō:DEPINCOMPL

I am going, and you? I am not going

ɔ-kɔkko p-ɔŋó
PERS-Kokko c-ill

ana ɔ-laló
and PERS-Lalu

ɔ-laló p-ɔpərɔt
PERS-Lalu c-good

Kokko is ill. And Lalu? Lalu is fine