

A Grammar of Pichi

Kofi Yakpo

Draft
of January 22, 2019, 13:38

Studies in Diversity Linguistics 000



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ISSN: 2363-5568

A Grammar of Pichi

Kofi Yakpo


Yakpo, Kofi. 2019. *A Grammar of Pichi* (Studies in Diversity Linguistics 000). Berlin: Language Science Press.

This title can be downloaded at:

<http://langsci-press.org/catalog/book/85>

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Indexed in EBSCO

ISBN: 978-3-96110-133-7 (Digital)

978-3-96110-134-4 (Hardcover)

978-3-96110-135-1 (Softcover)

ISSN: 2363-5568

DOI:[10.5281/zenodo.2546450](https://doi.org/10.5281/zenodo.2546450)

Source code available from www.github.com/langsci/85

Collaborative reading: paperhive.org/documents/remote?type=langsci&id=85

Cover and concept of design: Ulrike Harbort

Typesetting: Kofi Yakpo, Sebastian Nordhoff, Hing-Yuet Fung

Proofreading: Amir Ghorbanpour, Bev Erasmus, Christian Döhler, Eitan Grossman, Felix Anker, Felix Kopecky, Hing-Yuet Fung, Ivica Jeđud, Jeffrey Pheiff, Jeroen van de Weijer, Ludger Paschen, Mykel Brinkerhoff, sebastiannordhoff, Vadim Kimmelman, Valentin Vydrin, Yvonne Treis

Fonts: Linux Libertine, Libertinus Math, Arimo, DejaVu Sans Mono

Typesetting software: Xe_{La}T_EX

Language Science Press

Unter den Linden 6

10099 Berlin, Germany

langsci-press.org

Storage and cataloguing done by FU Berlin

Freie Universität



Berlin

To Yèni and Fodé

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Symbols and abbreviations

-	morpheme boundary	DEF	definite article
=	clitic morpheme boundary	EMP	emphatic
!	directive clause; vocative	F	feminine gender
*	ungrammatical example	FN	first name
,	continuative intonation and pause	FOC	focus marker and identity copula
.	utterance-final: declarative intonation	H	high tone(d syllable)
.	word-medial: morpheme boundary in derived compound	HAB	habitual marker
(...)	untranscribed part of utterance	IDEO	ideophone
[]	explanation of translated elements	INDF	indefinite
/	speech interruption	INDP	independent/emphatic pronoun
?	final: question intonation	INTJ	interjection
?	initial: grammaticality dubious	INTR	intransitive
[á]	IPA transcription	IPFV	imperfective aspect marker
/a/	phoneme	L	low tone(d syllable)
<a>	grapheme	L.H	low-high tone sequence over two adjacent syllables
á	high tone diacritic	LH	rising contour tone over same syllable
à	low tone diacritic	LN	last name
%	boundary tone	LOC	locative preposition
1, 2, 3	first, second, third person	LT	lexical tone
ABL	abilitive mood marker	MVC	multiverb construction
ADV	adverbial(ising suffix)	n.a.	not applicable
BE	identity copula	NAME	personal name
BE.LOC	locative-existential copula	NEG	negative/negator
BT	boundary tone	NP	noun phrase
CPD	tone deletion in compounding	NSPC	non-specific
		OBJ	object (case)
		OBL	obligative mood marker
		PFV	narrative perfective marker
		PL	plural(iser)

Symbols and abbreviations

PLACE	place name	SBJ	subject (case)
POSS	possessive (case)	SBJV	subjunctive marker
POT	potential mood marker	SG	singular
PP	prepositional phrase	SKT	“suck teeth”
PREP	associative preposition	SP	sentence particle
PRF	perfect tense-aspect	SPEC	specific
PST	past tense marker	SUB	subordinator
Q	question particle	SVC	serial verb construction
QNT	quantifier	TMA	tense-mood-aspect
QUOT	quotative marker	TR	transitive
RED	reduplicant in reduplication	v1	initial verb in MVC
REP	repeated word in repetition	v2	second verb in MVC
		VP	verb phrase

10 Clause linkage

Relations between clauses may be established in various ways in complex clauses consisting of more than one verb. A relation between clauses can be expressed by using linking adverbials and anaphoric pronouns (§10.1). Adjacent clauses may also be linked by continuative intonation alone, or in combination with the other means available (§10.8). Clause linkers may be employed in order to form complex coordinate (§10.3), complement (§10.5), relative (§10.6), and adverbial clauses (§10.7).

The resulting constructions are syntactically integrated to varying degrees. For instance, subjunctive clauses introduced by *mék* 'SBJV' (§10.5.5), purpose clauses introduced by *fɔ* 'PREP', and complement clauses introduced by *fɔ* 'PREP' or *de* 'IPFV' are less finite and arguably syntactically subordinate to their main clauses. At the same time, it is not very useful to posit a relation of syntactic subordination between clauses in many (other) adverbial relations. In these structures, the linked clauses retain their full potential for the expression of person, tense, aspect, and modality (e.g. the various types of adverbial clauses introduced by *wé* 'SUB', cf. §10.7.1). Clauses may also be linked in multiverb constructions, which are covered separately in section §10.8.

10.1 Linking adverbs and anaphor

Linking adverbs occur at the beginning of a clause and ensure referential continuity with a preceding clause, often in combination with continuative intonation. Recurrent linking elements are *áfta* 'then, afterwards', *bɔt* 'but', the phrasal adverbial *dán tén* '(at that time)', as well as the anaphoric phrase *na ín* 'FOC 3SG.INDP'.

The adverb *áfta* 'then, afterwards' relates a situation with a previous one. It can be employed in ways very similar to that of certain clause linkers in prosodically more integrated constructions involving the clause linker *wé* 'SUB' (cf. §10.7.1). In the following sentence, *áfta* and *wé* both establish a link of temporal succession with the preceding clause. Both elements are preceded by continuative intonation (indicated by a comma):

- (1) *Yu gó yu pé, siete mil yu baja, áfta yu finis yu sube, wé yu*
2SG go 2SG pay seven thousand 2SG go.down then 2SG finish 2SG go.up SUB 2SG
de pák mɔ siete mil, wé yu sube.
IPFV pack more seven thousand SUB 2SG go.up
'You go, you pay, seven thousand, you go down, then you finish, you go up and
take seven thousand again and go up.' [f203fp 012]

Example (2) shows how the sequential meaning of *áfta* can be read as a result relation in combination with continuative intonation:

10 Clause linkage

- (2) *A nó sabí ús=tín bin kán pás, áfta e gó na hospital.*
 1SG.SBJ NEG know Q=thing PST PFV pass then 3SG.SBJ go LOC hospital
 ‘I don’t know what happened that he went to (the) hospital.’ [ye03cd 074]

The adverb *áfta* may also introduce the then-clause of reality conditionals in which the if-clause is introduced by *lek* ‘like’ (3):

- (3) *Lek náu, lek Boyé só na mi mán, áfta mi sísta go*
 like now like NAME like.that FOC 1SG.POSS man then 1SG.POSS sister POT
kól=an sé, wé e go kán, “ús=sáy mi brɔda-lɔ dé?”
 call=3SG.OBJ QUOT SUB 3SG.SBJ POT come Q=side 1SG.POSS brother.CPD-law BE.LOC
 ‘Suppose now, suppose Boyé here were my husband, then my sister would call him, if she came, “where’s my brother-in-law?”’ [ro05de 005]

Example (4) shows how the sequential meaning of *áfta* can be read as a reason relation:

- (4) *Ef yu sí sé, sɔn sáy di plés klín, áfta den de dú di tín den*
 if 2SG see QUOT some side DEF PLACE be.clean then 3PL IPFV do DEF thing PL
fáyn, yu nó go bísín ef yu gasta mɔní.
 fine 2SG NEG POT be.busy if 2SG spend money
 ‘If you see that, somewhere the place is clean and/ because things are done well, you don’t bother if you spend money.’ [ma03hm 066]

The phrasal adverbial *dán tén* ‘at that time’ also relates a situation to a preceding one. In (5b), *dán tén* indicates a temporal relation of simultaneity with the preceding clause (a):

- (5) a. *E mít mi antí.*
 3SG.SBJ meet 1SG.POSS aunt
 ‘He met my aunt.’ [fr03ft 086]
 b. *Dán tén mi antí gét belé.*
 that time 1SG.POSS aunt get belly
 ‘At that time my aunt was pregnant.’ [fr03ft 087]

The phrase *na ín*, consisting of the focus marker *na* and the emphatic 3sg pronoun *ín* establishes various types of anaphoric relationships (cf. also §7.4.3.3). In (6), a temporal interpretation is favoured due to the presence of the adverbial *las doce* ‘twelve (o’clock)’:

- (6) *Bikɔs ín de sé, éni las doce na ín ín*
 because 3SG.INDP IPFV QUOT every the.PL twelve FOC 3SG.INDP 3SG.POSS
abuela kin kán kól=an.
 grandmother HAB come call=3SG.OBJ
 ‘Because she would say, always at twelve o’clock, that’s when her grandmother used to come and call her.’ [ed03sb 150]

10.2 Clause linkers

Next to the use of anaphors, intonation, and SVCs, Pichi employs a large array of clause linkers to express relations between clauses. Linkers that serve to introduce adverbial clauses more specialised in their meanings are dealt with in §10.7. At the same time, most types of relations, including adverbial ones, can be expressed by one, or a combination of, the multifunctional elements *wé* ‘SUB’, *sé* ‘QUOT’, *mék* ‘SBJV’, and *fɔ* ‘PREP’.

These four linkers have multiple, partially overlapping functions, which are mapped in Figure 10.1. The ways in which these four linkers introduce different types of clauses are covered in the following sections of this chapter.

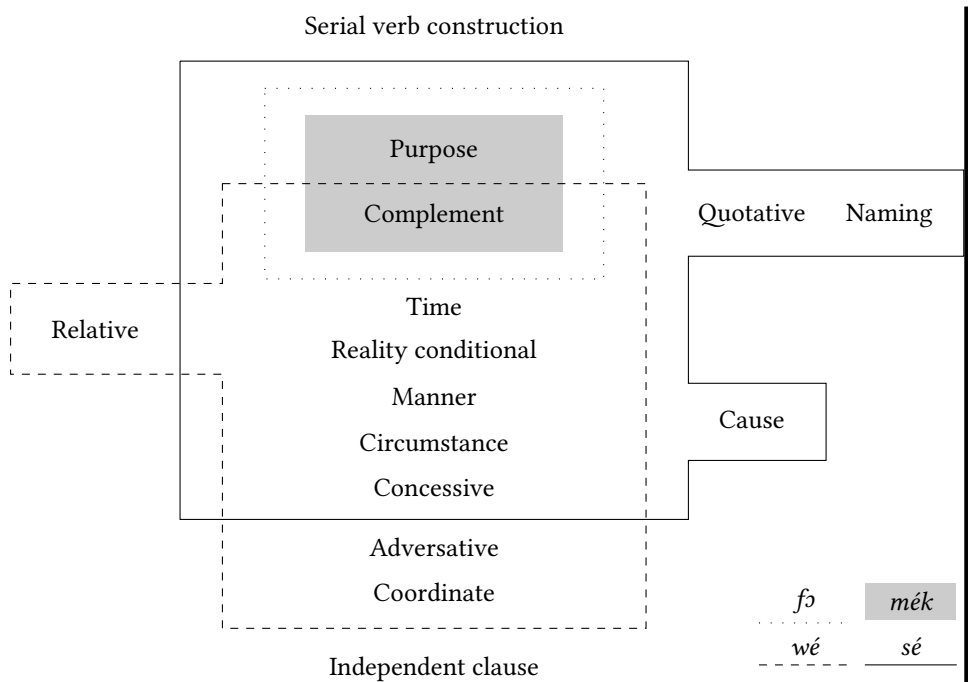


Figure 10.1 Functions of *fɔ*, *mék*, *wé*, and *sé* by clause type

10.3 Coordination

Coordinate clauses may be linked by way of intonation as well as the linkers *wé* ‘SUB’ and *an* ‘and’. In (7), *bús* ‘forest’ bears a continuative boundary tone, which links the clause to the following one after the comma.

- (7) Só e gó na **bús**, e sé e de gó kíl bíf.
 so 3SG.SBJ POT LOC forest 3SG.SBJ QUOT 3SG.SBJ IPFV go kill wild.animal
 ‘So he went to the forest, (and) he said he was going to kill wild game.’ [ma03sh 004]

The clause linker *wé* ‘SUB’ can, amongst its other uses, link coordinate clauses. The preposition *wet* ‘with’ may only conjoin NPs (cf. §5.5), hence an important function of *wé* is to serve as a clausal connective that can be translated as ‘and (then)’. The formal differentiation between NP and clausal coordination in Pichi corresponds to an areal (West) African pattern (Mithun 1988: 349–353).

In the following excerpt from a personal narrative, the first *wé* ‘SUB’ in (b) establishes a link (b) to the preceding clause (a) after a clause-final declarative intonation (indicated by the full stop). At the same time, context suggests a more temporal meaning of ‘when’ of the second *wé* in (b). Clause (c) resumes the narrative after declarative intonation at the end of (b):

- (8) a. *Áfta na mi gran-má a bin de kól mamá.*
 then FOC 1SG.POSS grand-ma 1SG.SBJ PST IPFV call mother
 ‘So it’s my grandmother that I used to call mother.’ [fr03ft 016]
- b. *Wé wi kán kán na tón, wé a bigín gó skúl, wé a bin gét,*
 SUB 1PL PFV come LOC town SUB 1SG.SBJ begin go school SUB 1SG.SBJ PST get
a tínk sé seis años.
 1SG.SBJ think QUOT six years
 And then we came to town, and then I began to go to school, when I was, I think six years old.’ [fr03ft 017]
- c. *A bigín gó skúl*
 1SG.SBJ begin go school
 ‘I began going to school.’ [fr03ft 018]

The sequential and temporal meanings of *wé* ‘SUB’ in clauses like (8b) above may extend into contiguous meanings such as adversative (9). The various related meanings of *wé* in these contexts may blur beyond recognition the demarcation between the coordinate clauses described in this section and the adverbial clauses covered in §10.7.1.

- (9) a. *Frijoles yés frijoles.*
 bean.PL yes bean.PL
 ‘[The Cubans call them] frijoles, yes frijoles.’ [ed03sp 119]
- b. *Wé yá só, frijoles na haricots na yá.*
 SUB here like.that bean.PL FOC beans LOC here
 ‘While here, frijoles is haricot here.’ [ed03sp 120]

The quotative marker *sé* ‘QUOT’ also functions as a sequential connective and clause coordinator in ways very similar to *wé* ‘SUB’ when it signals inner speech or “internal

awareness” (Güldemann 2008: 422) and thereby often occurs without an overt subject as in (10):

- (10) a. *Den de kál dís tín fɔ cacahuete, den de kál=an maní.*
 3PL IPFV call this thing PREP groundnut 3PL IPFV call=3SG.OBJ ground.nut
 ‘They call this peanut thing, they call it “maní”.’ [ed03sp 082]
- b. *Sé mónin tén a go gó, a báy, a ték tú*
 QUOT morning time 1SG.SBJ POT go 1SG.SBJ buy 1SG.SBJ take two
peso (...)
peso
 ‘So in the morning, I would go and buy (it), I would take two pesos (...)’
 [ed03sp 083]

The element *an* ‘and’ may link NPs as well as coordinate clauses. Its use is, however, exceedingly rare, and speakers overwhelmingly favour coordinate structures linked by means of *wé* ‘SUB’ or reduced clauses involving secondary predication (cf. §11.3):

- (11) *E nák di tébul an di stáyl wé e nák di tébul strón, e*
 3SG.SBJ hit DEF table and DEF style SUB 3SG.SBJ hit DEF table be.strong 3SG.SBJ
kán sék di plét an di plét kán brók.
 PFV shake DEF plate and DEF plate PFV break
 ‘He hit the table and the way that he hit the table in a strong way, he shook the plate, and the plate broke.’ [au07se 014]

The disjunctive coordinator *ɔ* ‘or’ may also link coordinate clauses, cf. (54) for an example.

10.4 Quotation

The element *sé* ‘QUOT’ is characterised by an exceptional polyfunctionality that includes use as a lexical verb ‘say’ and use as quotation marker for direct speech and naming, renders inner speech and internal awareness, introduces adverbial clauses of manner, circumstance, and purpose, and reaches into the domain of clausal complementation. Following Güldemann (2008), I assume that the function as an index of direct reported speech lies at the heart of the functional versatility of *sé* ‘QUOT’.

The element *sé* occurs with a more lexical meaning of ‘say’. It may take TMA marking and at the same time predicate a quotative construction. In the following example, *sé* is employed as a speech verb. It is marked for potential mood by means of *go* ‘POT’ and introduces a direct quote:

10 Clause linkage

- (12) *Di dé wé yu go níð=an, yu go sé “a nó gét pamáyn”, yu*
 DEF day SUB 2SG POT need=3SG.OBJ 2SG POT QUOT 1SG.SBJ NEG get oil 2SG
go kót gadinéks.
 POT cut egg-plant
 ‘The day that you will need it, you are going to say “I don’t have oil,” (and) you
 will cut egg-plants.’ [ab03ay 015]

In the example below, the use of *sé* as a lexical verb ‘say’ coincides with the presence of habitual marking (i.e. *kin* ‘HAB’). However, in the overwhelming majority of instances, *sé* remains bare, and hence marked for factative TMA, since quotative constructions by their very nature occur in reported, past-time discourse:

- (13) *E kin sé “kán wi gó na Barca wi gó dríng.”*
 3SG.SBJ HAB QUOT come 1PL go LOC PLACE 1PL go drink
 ‘He usually says “come let’s go to Barca and drink”.’ [ro05rt 029]

The transition from a more lexical reading of *sé* to a more functional one is far from clear-cut (which is why I have opted for a unitary gloss of ‘QUOT’ in all contexts). First, distributional restrictions set *sé* apart from the true speech verbs *tók* ‘talk, say’ and *tél* ‘tell’. For instance, *sé* does not normally take a nominal object, as does *tók*. Compare (14a) and (14b).

- (14) a. * *Mék a sé wán wód.*
 SBJV 1SG.SBJ QUOT one word
 Intended: ‘Let me say one word.’ [to07fn 219]
 b. *A tók wán wód.*
 1SG.SBJ talk one word
 ‘I said one word.’ [to07fn 220]

Beyond that, adverbials do not usually modify *sé* ‘QUOT’ (15a). Adverbials only appear as quoted complements indexed by *sé* (b). Again, there is no restriction on adverbial modification of the speech verb *tók* ‘talk, say’ (c):

- (15) a. * *A sé=an kwík.*
 1SG.SBJ QUOT=3SG.OBJ quickly
 Intended: ‘I said it quickly.’ [to07fn 221]
 b. *A sé “kwík”.*
 1SG.SBJ QUOT quickly
 ‘I said “quickly”.’ [to07fn 222]
 c. *A tók=an kwík*
 1SG.SBJ talk=3SG.OBJ quickly
 ‘I said it quickly.’ [to07fn 223]

Secondly, *sé* ‘QUOT’ is not normally encountered as a verbal complement. Hence below, the speech verb *tók* ‘talk, say’ appears as verbal complement to the modal verb *fít* ‘can’. The appearance of *sé* in this position is not attested.

- (16) *Yu fít tók “a de fil di sént fō lek háw e de kúk di*
 2SG can talk 1SG.SBJ IPFV feel DEF scent PREP like how 3SG.SBJ IPFV cook DEF
plantí” ∘ “a de siente di sént sé pòsin de kúk plantí dé”.
 plantain SP 1SG.SBJ IPFV feel DEF scent QUOT person IPFV cook plantain there
 ‘You can say “I smell the scent of him cooking the plantain”, or “I smell the scent
 that somebody is cooking plantain there”.’ [dj05ae 026]

Note that I do not analyse *sé* as a V2 of a complementation SVC when it functions as a complementiser to a verb like *siente* ‘feel’ above (cf. also §10.5.6). The peculiar distribution of *sé* as a speech “verb” and its broad functional domain, which extends far beyond complementation, may point to the fact that *sé* ‘QUOT’ did not start out as a speech verb in the first place. Instead, it is conceivable that the use of *sé* as a speech “verb” is derived from quotation just like its many other functions (cf. Güldemann 2008: 272–275). In this view, the resemblance of *sé* with a purported English etymon *sáy* may be due either to chance or to the convergence of diverse etymologies and functions in one form.

The recurrent use of quotative clauses introduced by *sé* ‘QUOT’ with or without a preceding subject in order to render direct and inner speech is a conspicuous feature of longer stretches of narrative discourse. Direct speech in Pichi rarely serves the sole aim of giving neutral reports of utterances. One of its crucial functions is the creation of an atmosphere of vivacity and authenticity that builds up tension and draws listeners into the narrative. Compare (17a–17e), in which speaker (ed) recalls his difficulty in distinguishing a transsexual man from a woman:

- (17) a. *A sé “na mán dís?”*
 1SG.SBJ QUOT FOC man this
 ‘I said “this is a man?”’ [ed03sb 222]
 b. *E sé “na mán.”*
 3SG.SBJ QUOT FOC man
 ‘He said “it’s a man”.’ [ed03sb 223]
 c. *A sé “yu de krés mán.”*
 1SG.SBJ QUOT 2SG IPFV be.crazy man
 ‘I said “you’re crazy, man”.’ [ed03sb 224]
 d. *E sé “na mán dís.”*
 3SG.SBJ QUOT FOC man this
 ‘He said “this is a man”.’ [ed03sb 225]
 e. *Sé na mán?*
 QUOT FOC man
 ‘(You) say it’s a man?’ [ed03sb 226]

Example (18) shows that the absence of overt subjects in this type of discourse opens up a grey area in which there is ample room for both a more functional and a more lexical reading of a subject-less, clause-initial *sé*. Compare the unambiguous use of *sé* as a speech verb in (18a) with the alternative translations of the subject-less *sé* in (18b):

- (18) a. *E go sé e de fie, e nó go gí mí di tín*
 3SG.SBJ POT QUOT 3SG.SBJ IPFV fear 3SG.SBJ NEG POT give 1SG.INDP DEF thing
wé a de sén=an.
 SUB 1SG.SBJ IPFV send=3SG.OBJ
 ‘He would say, he was afraid (and) he wouldn’t give me the thing that I was sending him for.’ [ab03ab 041]
- b. *Sé ín nó wánt in abuelo skrách=an.*
 QUOT 3SG.INDP NEG want 3SG.POSS grandfather scratch=3SG.OBJ
 ‘(He’d) say he [EMP] doesn’t want his grandfather to scratch him.’ or ‘Because he doesn’t want his grandfather to scratch him.’

Reported discourse also renders inner speech at important narrative junctures. In such a context, reported discourse may serve to express the intention of referents as in the sentences below:

- (19) *In bráda den ál kómót na tón yá só den sé den de kán*
 3SG.POSS brother PL all go.out LOC town here like.that 3PL QUOT 3PL IPFV come
ték=an.
 take=3SG.OBJ
 ‘His brothers all left town, (so) they said they came to take her.’ [ab03ay 142]
- (20) *E nó sabí tók ni Panyá, e sé e wánt muchachita de*
 3SG.SBJ NEG know talk even Spanish 3SG.SBJ QUOT 3SG.SBJ want young.girl of
diecisiete años.
 seventeen year.PL
 ‘He doesn’t even know how to talk Spanish (and) he says he wants a young girl of seventeen years.’ [ye03cd 053]

Speakers may use 3rd person pronouns in reported speech as in (20) above or insert direct quotations as in (21) below. These elements together constitute some of the conspicuous characteristics of Pichi narrative discourse, in which the already weak boundary between direct and indirect speech in Pichi is often deliberately blurred as part of a performance-oriented narrative technique:

- (21) *Tidé e kán e sé, “a tínk sé a go finis ál di*
 today 3SG.SBJ come 3SG.SBJ QUOT 1SG.SBJ think QUOT 1SG.SBJ POT finish all DEF
resto”.
 rest
 ‘Today he came, he said “I think I am going to finish all the rest”.’ [ye03cd 147]

A further facet of the quotative function is the use of *sé* in a naming construction which serves to identify a nominal element by name and introduce members of a list (cf. Güldemann 2008: 398). The named or listed items appear as nominal objects of *sé*.

- (22) *Kríó mamá ðen wé ðen de tók Píchi ðen kin tók sé grín.*
 Krio mother PL SUB 3PL IPFV talk Píchi 3PL HAB talk QUOT green
 ‘The elderly Krio women, when they talk Píchi, they usually say green.’
 [as opposed to ‘verd’ like younger people] [dj05ce 257]

In combination with the verb *kól* ‘call’, the naming construction translates as ‘be in a kinship relation with X’:

- (23) *Na fada-ló, na di papá wé e bón mí, na ín*
 FOC father.CPD-law FOC DEF father SUB 3SG.SBJ beget 1SG.INDP FOC 3SG.INDP
mi mán go kól sé suegro.
 1SG.POSS man POT call QUOT father-in-law
 ‘That is the father-in-law, that is the father who begot me, it is him that my husband would call father-in-law.’ [ro05de 007]

Sentence (24) exemplifies the use of *sé* in listing. In these examples, the name or members of the list appear as nominal complements of *sé*:

- (24) *A fít tél yú sé morera, teca, kalabo.*
 1SG.SBJ can tell 2SG.INDP QUOT mulberry teak kalabo
 ‘I can tell you mulberry, teak, kalabo [listing types of wood].’ [ro05de 051]

The use of *sé* to identify a nominal element represents the only context in which the quotative marker does not introduce a clause. Through this characteristic, the naming construction may be structurally identical to a copula construction involving the focus marker and identity copula *na* ‘FOC’. Compare the two consecutive sentences in (a) and (b) below:

- (25) a. *Na mi mamá.*
 FOC 1SG.POSS mother
 ‘That’s my mother.’ [dj05ce 036]
 b. *Sé mi móm.*
 QUOT 1SG.POSS mother
 ‘Namely my mum.’ [dj05ce 037]

The data also contains examples in which the use of *sé* as a deictic identifier of a nominal entity has been taken to its logical conclusion. In (26), *sé* expresses identity in combination with the copula and focus marker *na*:

- (26) *Di pikín ðl sé na mi yón bikəs a ðón pé móní.*
 DEF child all QUOT FOC 1SG.POSS own because 1SG.SBJ PRF pay money
 ‘The children are all mine because I have paid money [the dowry].’ [hi03cb 196]

Aside from the functions covered in this section, the element *sé* ‘QUOT’ is employed as a general clausal complementiser (cf. §10.5).

10.5 Complementation

This section covers complex clauses featuring subordinate clauses with the syntactic function of complements. In the following, such clausal participants are referred to as complement clauses. Five strategies of integration of main and subordinate verbs are used next to each other, and sometimes they overlap (cf. Table 10.1). These strategies are covered in the following sections.

10.5.1 Finiteness

Finiteness is an indicator of the degree of integration of Pichi complement clauses with main clauses. Main verbs vary with respect to how syntactically independent their complement predicates may be. Main verbs differ with respect to the complementiser they occur with, the time reference they project over their complement predicates, the person and TMA marking potential they accord their complement verbs, and the potential they confer on their complement verbs to be negated. In this vein, complement clauses consisting of a verb alone constitute the non-finite pole and complement clauses, in which the verb retains its full syntactic potential and constitutes the finite pole of complement clauses. Table 10.1 checks the four principal complementation strategies in Pichi against five diagnostics of finiteness. “Complement clause” is abbreviated as “CC” in the table, “main clause” as “MC”.

The complementation strategies in Table 10.1 form part of a continuum of complement clauses. The cline from non-finiteness to finiteness encompasses four complementation strategies, featuring the three overt complementisers *fɔ* ‘PREP’, *mék* ‘SBJV’, and *sé* ‘QUOT’, and a “zero” strategy. At the left end of the continuum, we find the highest number of syntactic restrictions in CCs linked to main verbs via the associative preposition *fɔ* ‘PREP’. These are aspectual and modal auxiliary constructions. The subject of the CC verb must be co-referential with that of the main verb, is dependent on the temporal specification provided by the main verb, and may not be marked independently for person, negative polarity, or TMA.

A significant number of modal and aspectual auxiliary verbs take clausal complements without an intervening complementiser, indicated by the column headed by “∅ (none)” in Table 10.1. A small sub-group of these verbs may, however, optionally be followed by the imperfective marker *de*, which may then be seen to function as complementiser. However, the presence of *de* ‘IPFV’ also adds an aspectual nuance by emphasising the continuous nature of the situation denoted by the CC verb. Such structures are therefore slightly more finite. On the one hand, the CC verb may be marked for aspect. On the other hand, the time reference of the CC verb is determined by the taxis relation projected by the MC verb over the complex clause; for example the CC verb *chóp* ‘eat’ is necessarily

Table 10.1 Complementation and finiteness

Feature/strategy	<i>f</i> ₃ 'PREP'	Ø / <i>de</i> 'IPFV'	<i>mék</i> 'SBJV'	<i>sé</i> 'QUOT'
TMA reference of CC verb?	depends on MC verb	depends on MC verb	depends on MC verb	independent from MC verb
Same or different subject CC?	same	same	same or different	same or different
Is person marking with the CC verb obligatory, optional, or illicit?	illicit	illicit	obligatory	obligatory
Is independent negation of the CC verb obligatory, optional, or illicit?	illicit	illicit	obligatory	obligatory
Is TMA marking on the CC verb obligatory, optional, or illicit?	illicit	optional, with some verbs	optional, but restricted	obligatory

in a relation of simultaneous taxis with the MC verb *bigín* ‘begin to’ in a complement construction like *a bigín de chóp* ‘I began to eat.’

Subjunctive complement clauses are, again, more finite. They may be same or different subject, always feature person marking, and must be negated independently of the main verb to signal negative polarity. They are, however, restricted in their TMA marking potential and depend on the main verb in their time reference (they are invariably future-projecting). At the right end of the continuum we find fully-fledged biclausal structures introduced by the quotative marker *sé* ‘QUOT’, which therefore functions as a typical finite complementiser. Not included in Table 10.1 are the clause linkers *ɛf(ɛ)* and *if* ‘if’, which may function as complementisers in indirect question clauses (cf. §10.6.5).

10.5.2 Complement-taking verbs and complementisers

Table 10.2 lists approximately sixty frequent Pichi main verbs that may take different types of complement clauses. The table sorts these verbs according to the type of complement clause linkage these verbs are attested with. The feature “semantic class” correlates strongly with the complementiser provided in the “linkage type” column. Beginning from the top of the table, the clause “linkage types” increase in finiteness as they descend towards the bottom. Verbs that may take complements introduced by *sé* ‘QUOT’ are not fully listed, since that would make the list unduly long. Equally, some of the verbs listed with complementisers other than *sé* ‘QUOT’ may nevertheless take complements introduced by *sé* when these are statements of fact and have independent time reference, e.g. *a de sóri sé e dón kán* ‘I’m sorry that he has come.’ Conversely, speech verbs take quotative complements introduced by *sé* but subjunctive complements when these are indirect commands, e.g. *a hála sé “kán”* ‘I hollered “come”’ vs. *a hála sé mék e kán* ‘I hollered for him to come.’

Some verbs are listed twice under two types of clause linkage where the functions of complement clauses differ correspondingly. For example, *wánt* usually appears without an overt complementiser (\emptyset) in prospective aspect constructions. However, *wánt* takes \emptyset and *de* ‘IPFV’ complements in same-subject (desire) modal auxiliary constructions, and must take *mék* ‘SBJV’ with different-subject complements. Likewise, the general subordinator *wé* ‘SUB’ is not listed in Table 10.2, since its function as a complementiser is marginal. Table 10.2 does not capture many other distributional complexities of complementisers and idiosyncracies of complementation, including negation in complement constructions. Details are provided in the corresponding sections of this chapter.

10.5.3 *De* ‘IPFV’

The aspectual and modal verbs *bigín* ‘begin’, *wánt/wónt* ‘want, be about to’, *fít* ‘can’, and *géfo* ‘have to’ feature complements introduced by the zero strategy or complement verbs preceded by the imperfective marker *de* ‘IPFV’. *Bigín* is particularly likely to occur with *de* ‘IPFV’ when used as an ingressive auxiliary (cf. §6.4.1 for examples). The use of the imperfective marker *de* emphasises the continuous nature of the situation denoted by the verb. Compare the following constructions.

Table 10.2 Complement-taking verbs, semantic class, and type of clause linkage

Semantic class	Verb	Gloss	Ø	<i>de</i> 'IPFV'	<i>fɔ</i> 'PREP'	<i>mék</i> 'SBJV'	<i>sé</i> 'QUOT'
Aspectual & modal	<i>kɔmɔt</i>	Egressive	×				
	<i>finis</i>	Completive	×				
	<i>sigue</i>	Continuative	×				
	<i>wánt</i>	Prospective	×				
	<i>bigín</i>	Ingressive	×	×			
	<i>fit</i>	'can'	×	×			
	<i>géfɔ</i>	'have to'	×	×			
	<i>hébul</i>	'be capable of'	×				
	<i>mánech</i>	'manage to'	×				
	<i>sabí</i>	'know how to'	×				
	<i>lék</i>	'like to'	×				
	<i>kóstɔn</i>	'be used to'	×				
	<i>léf</i>	'stop (doing)'			×		
	<i>lán</i>	'learn to'			×		
Experiential & body state	<i>fɔgét</i>	'forget to'			×		
	<i>bísin</i>	'be busy (with)'			×		
	<i>táya</i>	'be tired of'			×		
	<i>gládin</i>	'be happy to'			×		
	<i>sóri</i>	'be sorry to'			×		
	<i>sém</i>	'be ashamed of'			×		
Weak deontic	<i>fáyn</i>	'be fine to'			×	×	×
	<i>bád</i>	'be bad to'			×	×	×
	<i>gúd</i>	'be good to'			×	×	×
	<i>hád</i>	'be difficult to'			×	×	×
	<i>ísi</i>	'be easy to'			×	×	×
	<i>fia</i>	'be afraid to'			×	×	×
	<i>mém̥ba</i>	'remember to'			×	×	×
	<i>fil</i>	'feel like'			×	×	×
	<i>tráy</i>	'try to'	×		×	×	×
	<i>níd</i>	'need to'			×	×	×
	<i>grí</i>	'agree to'			×	×	×
	<i>hélp</i>	'help to'			×	×	×

Semantic class	Verb	Gloss	∅	<i>de</i> 'IPFV'	<i>fɔ</i> 'PREP'	<i>mék</i> 'SBJV'	<i>sé</i> 'QUOT'
Strong deontic	<i>wánt</i>	'want to'	×	×		×	×
	<i>mék</i>	'cause to'				X	X
	<i>léf</i>	'allow to'				×	×
	<i>fɔs</i>	'force to'				×	×
	<i>tún</i>	'persuade to'				×	×
	<i>tél</i>	'tell to'				×	×
	<i>áks</i>	'ask to'				×	×
	<i>bég</i>	'ask to'				×	×
Speech	<i>tók</i>	'talk, say'					X
	<i>tél</i>	'tell that'					×
	<i>hála</i>	'shout that'					×
	<i>ánsa</i>	'answer that'					×
Perception & cognition	<i>chék</i>	'think that'					×
	<i>tínk</i>	'think that'					×
	<i>nó/sabi</i>	'know that'					×
	<i>bilíf</i>	'believe that'					×
	<i>kechóp</i>	'realise that'					×
	<i>sí</i>	'see that'					×
	<i>hía</i>	'hear that'					×
	<i>smél</i>	'smell that'					×
	<i>fil</i>	'feel that'					×
	<i>e dé</i>	'it is that'					×
(Other) factives	<i>na (nóto)</i>	'it is (not) that'					×
	<i>dí tín dé</i>	'the thing is that'					×
	<i>dí kés dé</i>	'the thing is that'					×

- (27) *Yú wónt de gó?*
2SG want IPFV go
'You want to (get) go(ing)?' [nn07fn 202]
- (28) *Yu fít de bón yu pikín den (...)*
2SG can IPFV give.birth 2SG child PL
'You can be (continuously) having your children (...)' [ab03ab 197]
- (29) *Yu géfɔ de tón=an.*
2SG have.to IPFV turn=3SG.OBJ
'You have to (continuously) be stirring it.' [dj03do 057]

Note that both verbs in the constructions above are always co-referential; they have a subject in common. Aspect-marking for simultaneous taxis via imperfective aspect is also found with depictive secondary predicates (cf. §11.3).

10.5.4 *fɔ* ‘PREP’

The multifunctional element *fɔ* ‘PREP’ is, amongst its many other uses, employed to mark the citation form of verbs (e.g. *fɔ rós* ‘to burn’, *fɔ espia* ‘to spy on’). As a clause linker, *fɔ* introduces nominal, hence non-finite complements. Hence, when *fɔ* is used as a complementiser, the complement verb may not take an overtly expressed subject and the main and complement verbs have the same subject by default.

Some aspectual and modal verbs are characterised by variation in their occurrence with *fɔ*-complements. For instance, *grí* ‘agree’ and *tráy* ‘try’ are attested with the zero strategy of complementation and with complements introduced by *fɔ*. The modal verb *tráy* ‘try’ appears without the element *fɔ* in (30) and with it in (31):

- (30) *E wánt tráy mén fɔs.*
 3SG.SBJ want try cure first
 ‘She wanted to try to get better first.’ [ed03sb 044]
- (31) *E de tɪnap, smól pikín wé e de tráy fɔ tɪnap yet.*
 3SG.SBJ IPFV stand up small child SUB 3SG.SBJ IPFV try PREP stand up yet
 ‘She’s beginning to stand, a small child that is still trying to stand.’ [dj05be 219]

As a complementiser, *fɔ* introduces the complements of aspectual and modal verbs that may not occur without an overt complementiser. One of these verbs is *léf* ‘leave, stop to’ (32), a verb that expresses the aspectual notion of cessation:

- (32) *Mék e léf fɔ dríng.*
 SBJV 3SG.SBJ leave PREP drink
 ‘She should leave drinking.’ [ra07fn 033]

The element *fɔ* ‘PREP’ also introduces the complements of a number of experiential and body state verbs, which are also not attested in any other type of construction. These verbs predetermine a simultaneous time reference of their complements. An example follows, in which *fɔ* introduces the complement of the experiential verb *sém* ‘be ashamed’ (33):

- (33) *Náw a dón de finis sém fɔ wér dán sús, ɛfa bin nó*
 now 1SG.SBJ PRF IPFV finish be.ashamed PREP wear that shoe if 1SG.SBJ PST know
a fɔ kér óda sús.
 1SG.SBJ COND carry other shoe
 ‘Now I am completely ashamed to be wearing those shoes, if I had known I would have brought another (pair of) shoes.’ [ma03hm 021]

Furthermore, *fɔ* introduces complements of a number of verbs whose meaning contains an element of proposal, desire, evaluation, and similar affective nuances compatible with deontic modality. I regroup these verbs under the label “weak deontic”. The deontic meaning of these verbs is also compatible with the modal meanings of *fɔ* itself

(cf. §6.7.3.2). When main and complement verbs have the same subject, the complement clause may be introduced by *fɔ*. Compare the verbs *ísi* ‘be easy’ (34) and *grí* ‘agree’ (35):

- (34) *Di chóp ísi fɔ chóp.*
 DEF food be.easy PREP eat
 ‘The food is easy to eat.’ [ye07je 095]
- (35) *Di gál nó grí fɔ fála mí.*
 DEF girl NEG agree PREP follow 1SG.INDP
 ‘The girl didn’t agree to come with me.’ [au07ec 060]

Any weak deontic verb may alternatively take a subjunctive clause complement introduced by the subjunctive marker and modal complementiser *mék* ‘SBJV’ if the main verb is understood to induce a posterior time reference over the complement verb. For example, the complements of the weak deontic verb *mémba* ‘remember to’ may be introduced by *fɔ* ‘PREP’ (36) or by *mék* ‘SBJV’ (37). In both sentences below, the main and complement clauses share the same subject. However, the subjunctive clauses is more finite – it requires an overt subject. In contrast, the use of a *fɔ*-complement does not permit the occurrence of an overt subject.

- (36) *A mémba fɔ kól=an.*
 1SG.SBJ remember PREP call=3SG.OBJ
 ‘I remembered to call her.’ [au07ec 067]
- (37) *A mémba mék a kól=an.*
 1SG.SBJ remember SBJV 1SG.SBJ call=3SG.OBJ
 ‘I remembered to call her.’ [au07ec 065]

With weak deontic verbs, the subjunctive marker *mék* ‘SBJV’ may not only be employed instead of *fɔ* ‘PREP’. A subjunctive clause may also immediately follow *fɔ*. Hence all weak deontic verbs may feature the complementiser series *fɔ mék* ‘PREP SBJV’ as in (38) below:

- (38) *So wé yu dón lán yu lánwech éñ, e dón hád fɔ mék yu lán*
 so SUB 2SG PRF learn 2SG language INTJ 3SG.SBJ PRF hard PREP SBJV 2SG learn
Panyá.
 Spanish
 ‘So when you’ve learned your (home) language, it is hard for you to learn Spanish.’ [to03gm 020]

The use of subjunctive complement clauses is, however, required with weak deontic verbs whenever the main and complement clauses do not have the subject in common. Compare (31) above with (39) below. Both sentences feature the main verb *tráy* ‘try’:

- (39) (...) *a go tráy mék e báy mí dán káyn gafas por dios.*
 1SG.SBJ POT try SBJV 3SG.SBJ buy 1SG.INDP that kind glasses by God
 ‘(...) I will try that she buys me that kind of glasses, by God.’ [ye07ga 003]

A subjunctive complement is also necessary if the complement verb is negated. This is so because non-finite verbs – including those that appear in *fɔ*-complements – are not normally negated in Pichi. Compare the negated complement clause introduced by *mék* ‘SBJV’ in (40) with the affirmative complement clause introduced by *fɔ* ‘PREP’ in (36) above. Both sentences involve the main verb *mémba* ‘remember’:

- (40) *Na ín a mémba mék a nó gó dé.*
 FOC 3SG.INDP 1SG.SBJ remember SBJV 1SG.SBJ NEG go there
 ‘That’s when I remembered not to go there.’ [bo05fn 021]

The evaluative verbs *fáyn* ‘be fine’, *hád* ‘be hard’, *ísi* ‘be easy’, *bád* ‘be bad’, and *gúd* ‘be good’ may be followed by a *fɔ*-complement when the subject of the main clause is expletive, i.e. refers to no specific person or entity as in (41). Complements of evaluative main verbs with expletive subjects function as the notional subject of the main clause:

- (41) *E fáyn fɔ dríng smól-wán.*
 3SG.SBJ fine PREP drink small-ADV
 ‘It’s good to drink little.’ [ma03hm 071]

Once the complement situation has a fully referential subject (which is necessarily not co-referential with the expletive subject of the main clause), a subjunctive complement clause is required (42):

- (42) *Wé yu de dríng, e dé fáyn sé mék yu nó chák.*
 SUB 2SG IPFV drink 3SG.SBJ BE.LOC fine QUOT SBJV 2SG NEG get.drunk
 ‘When you drink, it’s good not to get drunk.’ [ur07fn 288]

Note the presence of the quotative marker and general complementiser *sé* ‘QUOT’ in (42) above. Any subjunctive clause may additionally be preceded by *sé* (cf. §10.5.5):

10.5.5 *Mék* ‘SBJV’

Verbs expressing the strong deontic notion of manipulation are only attested with subjunctive complements introduced by *mék* ‘SBJV’. These complements have a dependent time reference; the complement situation is always posterior to that of the main verb. Strong deontic verbs invariably express a strong degree of manipulation, a notion that is compatible with the use of subjunctive mood in directives (cf. §6.7.3.3). Below follow subjunctive complements of the manipulative verbs *fɔs* ‘force’ (43) and *tún* ‘tune, persuade’ (44):

- (43) A *fʒs=an mék e lúk mí.*
 1SG.SBJ force=3SG.OBJ SBJV 3SG.SBJ look 1SG.INDP
 ‘I forced him to look at me.’ [dj05ae 034]
- (44) A *tún=an sé mék e báy mí motó.*
 1SG.SBJ tune=3SG.OBJ QUOT SBJV 3SG.SBJ buy 1SG.INDP car
 ‘I coaxed her into buying me a car.’ [ye05fn 044]

The class of manipulative complement-taking verbs also includes the verbs *mék* ‘make, cause to’ (45) and *léf* ‘leave, permit’ in their respective functions as causative and permissive-causative verbs (cf. §9.4.4):

- (45) E *mék mék in húman dríng di cerveza.*
 3SG.SBJ make SBJV 3SG.POSS woman drink DEF beer
 ‘He made his woman drink the beer.’ [dj05be 001]

The manipulative verb of desire *wánt* ‘want’ is very versatile. It may occur in same subject complement clauses (cf. e.g. 113) or may take complements featuring the imperfective marker *de* ‘IPFV’ (cf. e.g. 27). When the subjects of the main and complement clauses are not the same, a subjunctive *mék*-complement is required:

- (46) E *nák di plét pan di tébul bikɔs e wánt mék di plét brók.*
 3SG.SBJ hit DEF plate pan DEF table because 3SG.SBJ want SBJV DEF plate break
 ‘He hit the plate on the table because he wanted the plate to break.’ [au07se 194]

Speech verbs employed as verbs of ordering and manipulation always take subjunctive complements. Examples of such indirect imperatives are provided in the following two sentences involving the verbs *tél* ‘tell (to)’ (47) and *bég* ‘ask to’ (48):

- (47) *Áfta, bueno tél=an sé mék e bák yú di mɔní.*
 then good tell=3SG.OBJ QUOT SBJV 3SG.SBJ give.back 2SG.INDP DEF money
 ‘Then, ok, tell him that he should give you back the money.’ [ye03cd 032]
- (48) E *bin bég=an sé mék e kíl di fɔl.*
 3SG.SBJ PST beg=3SG.OBJ QUOT SBJV 3SG.SBJ kill DEF fowl
 ‘She asked him to kill the fowl.’ [dj05ae 043]

In a few instances in the data, the complements of strong deontic verbs are not introduced by *mék* ‘SBJV’; the subjunctive marker is absent. I give two examples featuring the main verbs *léf* ‘leave, permit’ (49) and *wánt* ‘want’ (50):

- (49) Na ín mi gran-má bin kán tók sé in nó go léf
 FOC 3SG.INDP 1SG.POSS grand-ma PST come talk QUOT 3SG.INDP NEG POT leave
 mi a gó.
 1SG.INDP 1SG.SBJ go
 ‘That’s when my grandma said that she [EMP] wouldn’t let me go.’ [fr03ft 078]

- (50) Sé ín nó **wánt** in abuelo **skrách**=an.
 QUOT 3SG.INDP NEG want 3SG.POSS grandfather scratch=3SG.OBJ
 ‘(He) said, he [EMP] didn’t want his grandfather to scratch him.’ [ab03ab 042]

Notwithstanding the absence of the subjunctive marker, I analyse the clauses in bold in (49) and (50) above as subjunctive clauses. Evidence comes from the reduced TMA marking that characterises these clauses. Although both subordinate clauses are future-referring, they are not marked by *go* ‘POT’ as they would if they occurred in main clauses or clauses with independent time reference (e.g. in quotative clauses introduced by *sé* ‘QUOT’). Instead, the subordinate verbs *gó* ‘go’ and *skrách* ‘scratch’ appear stripped of any TMA marking as do subjunctive complements introduced by *mék* ‘SBJV’.

This shows that the reduction of TMA marking, or “deranking” (Stassen 1985: 76–86; cf. also Cristofaro 2003) of the subjunctive subordinate clause is just as much a diagnostic of subjunctive mood as is the presence of the modal complementiser *mék* ‘SBJV’.

10.5.6 Sé ‘QUOT’

We saw in the preceding two sections that the quotative marker *sé* ‘QUOT’ can optionally introduce any subjunctive complement featuring the modal complementiser *mék* ‘SBJV’. This distribution is in line with the function of the quotative marker as a general complementiser.

The quotative marker *sé* ‘QUOT’ introduces the finite complement clauses of speech (51), cognition (52), and perception verbs (53). Complement clauses introduced by *sé* have independent time reference and are not reduced; they are finite and may occur with the full range of TMA marking as in the following examples:

- (51) Ye, a kán **tél**=an sé ‘chica, mí nó lék yú bót wi fit
 yeah 1SG.SBJ PFV tell=3SG.OBJ QUOT girl 1SG.INDP NEG like 2SG.INDP but 1PL can
 dé lek kómpin’.
 BE.LOC like friend
 ‘Yeah, I told her “girl, I don’t love you but we can be like friends.”’ [ru03wt 029]
- (52) Nó a **tínk** sé realmente yu níd pikín.
 INTJ 1SG.SBJ think QUOT really 2SG need child
 ‘Actually, I think that one really needs children.’ [fr03ft 163]
- (53) Yu jós **hía** sé pósín den bin de tók, bót yu nó listín.
 2SG just hear QUOT person PL PST IPFV talk but 2SG NEG listen
 ‘You just heard that people were talking but you didn’t listen.’ [au07se 109]

When *sé* ‘quot’ introduces the complements of speech verbs, the difference between direct and indirect speech hinges on pronominal reference. For instance, the sentence in quotes in (51) above is a direct speech complement of *tél* ‘tell’, because reference to *chica*

‘girl’ switches from =*an* ‘3SG.OBJ’ in the main clause to the object pronoun *yú* ‘2SG.INDP’ in the complement clause.

With cognition and perception main verbs, the perceived situation can also be expressed as an adverbial time clause introduced by *sé* ‘QUOT’ (54) (cf. also 115 further below) or *wé* ‘SUB’ (cf. 109), and an adverbial time clause introduced by *lek háw* ‘the way that’ (54). The adverbial clause is marked for imperfective aspect, since it is simultaneous with the main clause situation:

- (54) *A de hía ín sé e de nák di gitá ɔ a de hía*
 1SG.SBJ IPFV hear 3SG.INDP QUOT 3SG.SBJ IPFV hit DEF guitar or 1SG.SBJ IPFV hear
ín lek háw e de nák di gita.
 3SG.INDP like how 3SG.SBJ IPFV hit DEF guitar
Lit. ‘I hear him that he’s playing the guitar.’ or ‘I hear him how he’s playing the guitar.’ [dj05ae 053]

The quotative marker also introduces the complements of copula verbs in statements of facts. In such factive clauses, the copula verb takes a dummy noun like *tín* ‘thing’, *kés* ‘matter’, or the expletive subject pronoun *e* ‘3SG.SBJ’. Factive main clauses like the one in (55) are very common as introductory formulas in narrative discourse (cf. also 98):

- (55) *E dé sé dán gál e bin de kán yá.*
 3SG.SBJ BE.LOC QUOT that girl 3SG.SBJ PST IPFV come here
 ‘It’s that/it came to pass that that girl used to come here.’ [ru03wt 019]

Evaluative verbs like *fáyn* ‘be fine’, *gúd* ‘be good’, or *bád* ‘be bad’ can induce either an indicative or a subjunctive mood over their complements. Evaluative verbs are followed by indicative complements when these are intended to convey factual information about present or past situations (56):

- (56) *E fáyn sé e kán yéstadé.*
 3SG.SBJ fine QUOT 3SG.SBJ come yesterday
 ‘It’s good that he came yesterday.’ [dj07ae 260]

A subjunctive complement (albeit with the usual optional *sé* ‘QUOT’) is required when the evaluative main verb refers to a potential situation (57). By expressing a preference, it harmonises with the deontic sense associated with the subjunctive mood in Pichi:

- (57) *E fáyn sé mék e kán tumóro.*
 3SG.SBJ fine QUOT SBJV 3SG.SBJ come tomorrow
 ‘It’s good for him to come tomorrow.’ [dj07ae 257]

Interrogative complements of speech, cognition, and perception verbs are no different from headless, free relative clauses and are covered in §10.6.5.

10.5.7 *Wé* ‘SUB’

The multifunctional linker *wé* ‘SUB’ is employed as a subordinator in relative clauses, an adverbial clause linker and a clausal coordinator. In a small minority of complement relations in the corpus, it is also used as a complementiser.

The *wé*-clause in (58) is a borderline case that may either be analysed as an adverbial clause, i.e. a modifying time clause, or a subject complement clause:

- (58) *E dón sté, a títik sé e dón sté wé una bin gét*
 3SG.SBJ PRF be.long 1SG.SBJ think QUOT 3SG.SBJ PRF be.long SUB 2PL PST get
insecticida yá.
 insecticide here
 ‘It’s long ago, I think that it’s long ago that you people had insecticide here/
 when you people last had insecticide here.’ [fr03wt 060]

The same holds for the *wé*-clause in (59), which can be interpreted as the complement clause of *hía* ‘hear’ or an indirect interrogative clause, although the presence of a subsequent *sé*-complement clause favours the latter interpretation:

- (59) *Yu nó hía wé a tél Mario sé quiero cocinar?*
 2SG NEG hear SUB 1SG.SBJ tell NAME QUOT I.want cook
 ‘You didn’t hear that I told Mario that I want to cook?’ or ‘You didn’t hear when I told Mario that I want to cook?’ [ye03cd 124]

In turn, the complement status of the *wé*-clause in (60) featuring the experiential main predicate *sóri* ‘feel sorry’ is unequivocal. The functional equivalence of *wé* and the general complementiser *sé* in such complement clauses is illustrated by way of the analogous example in (61). However, the data contains no examples of *wé*-complement clauses to speech verbs:

- (60) *Mék yú nó fíl sóri wé a nó gí yú nó nátín.*
 SBJV 2SG.INDP NEG feel sorry SUB 1SG.SBJ NEG give 2SG.INDP NEG nothing
 ‘Don’t be disappointed that I didn’t give you anything.’ [to03gm 046]
- (61) *A de fíl sóri sé e de kíl di fól.*
 1SG.SBJ IPFV feel sorry QUOT 3SG.SBJ IPFV kill DEF fowl
 ‘I feel sorry that she’s killing the fowl.’ [dj05ae 014]

The following example involving *wé* ‘SUB’ is also a straightforward case of complementation involving an experiential main predicate:

- (62) *Tenk gód wé yu dón kán!*
 thank God SUB 2SG PRF come
 ‘Thank God that you have come!’

10.5.8 Complements of nouns

The elements *fɔ* ‘PREP’ and *sé* ‘QUOT’ may also introduce purposive complements of nouns and modify a head noun in a way very similar to a relative clause. Below, *fɔ* introduces the non-finite (hence nominal) complement *pás* ‘pass’ of the head noun *sáy* ‘place’. The same function may be fulfilled by *sé* ‘QUOT’. In the second half of the, the *sé*-clause attributes a finite complement clause to the head noun *sáy* ‘place’, and thereby, introduces a *quasi* relative clause:

- (63) *E gét ɔda sáy fɔ pás, bɔt a de fɛn di sáy sé yu nó*
 3SG.SBJ get other side PREP pass but 1SG.SBJ IPFV look for DEF side QUOT 2SG NEG
go gét hambóg fɔ pípul den.
 POT get irritation PREP people PL
 ‘There is another place to pass (through), but I am looking for the place where you wouldn’t be bothered by people.’ [ma03ni 009]

In the first example below, a *sé*-clause specifies the matter of the abstract noun *fúlis* ‘foolishness’. In the second example, the anaphoric demonstrative pronominal *dá wán* ‘that one’ is modified by a subjunctive marked purpose clause introduced by *sé* ‘QUOT’:

- (64) *A sé bikɔs una Camerún, una gét di fúlis sé, wé nów wé*
 1SG.SBJ QUOT because 2PL PLACE 2PL get DEF foolishness QUOT SUB now SUB
yu ték=an, yu go sél=an.
 2SG take=3SG.OBJ 2SG POT sell=3SG.OBJ
 ‘I say because you Cameroonians, you have the foolish habit that, when now, when you take it, you will sell it.’ [ab03ay 151]
- (65) *Yu trowé=an, yu pút ɔda nyú wán insay, dá wán sé mék e nó*
 2SG pour=3SG.OBJ 2SG put other new one inside that one QUOT SBJV 3SG.SBJ NEG
simél.
 smell
 ‘(...) you pour it away, (then) you put another new one [water] inside, that (is) so that it does not smell.’ [dj03do 048]

10.6 Relativisation

In Pichi, subjects, objects, and PPs, as well as possessor and possessed nouns may be relativised. The most common means of forming relative clauses involves the use of the morphologically invariant subordinator *wé* ‘SUB’ as a relative clause linker. Next to *wé* ‘SUB’, the linkers *sé* ‘QUOT’ and *fɔ* ‘PREP’ marginally fulfil the function of relative clause linkers when they introduce noun complements (cf. §10.5.8).

In the second strategy of relative clause formation, no relative clause linker is employed and the relative clause simply follows the main clause. Hence, there is a “gap” between the two clauses. However, resumptive pronouns may optionally refer back to the

relativised head noun in most types of relative clauses. Aside from that, restrictive and non-restrictive relative clauses are not systematically distinguished on formal grounds.

The use of resumptive pronouns is nearly general in subject relative clauses with [+specific] head nouns, fairly common in object relative clauses, and rare in the relativisation of PPs. The frequency of resumptive pronouns with subject relative clauses runs counter to the predictions of the relativisation accessibility hierarchy (cf. Keenan & Comrie 1977), and it should be worthwhile investigating whether it constitutes an areal West African phenomenon (see, however, a similar distribution of resumptive pronouns in Tok Pisin (Sankoff & Brown 1976) and popular Brazilian Portuguese (Tarallo 1983).

In the example sentences in this section, relative clauses are set in squared brackets. Table 10.3 summarises important features of the different types of relative clauses that Pichi has (RC = relative clause).

Table 10.3 Features of relative clauses

Feature	Subject RC	Object RC	PP RC	Possessor RC
Are “gap” RCs attested?	No	Yes	Yes	No
Are resumptive pronouns found in relativised position?	Yes	Yes	Yes	n.a.
Are free relative clauses attested?	Yes	Yes	Yes	No
Is stranding of prepositions attested?	n.a.	n.a.	Yes	n.a.
Is pied-piping of prepositions attested?	n.a.	n.a.	No	n.a.

10.6.1 General characteristics

The linker *wé* ‘SUB’ introduces relative clauses as well as adverbial and coordinate clauses. Since the use of resumptive subject pronouns is very common (but still optional) in subject relative clauses with [+specific] head nouns (cf. Table 10.3 above), some subject relative clauses may therefore have the same constituent order as an adverbial clause introduced by *wé* ‘SUB’. Consider the alternative relative and adverbial translations I provide for sentence (66):

- (66) *Ól dí mán den [wé den gét mɔní], na di tín wé den de mék.*
 all this man PL SUB 3PL get money FOC DEF thing SUB 3PL IPFV make
 ‘All these men who have money, that’s what they do.’ or ‘All these men, when they have money, that’s what they do.’ [ed03sb 133]

However, the meaning of the sentence above is not as ambiguous as it may appear. Relative clauses are never separated from their main clauses by a prosodic break; relative constructions form single prosodic units. In contrast, adverbial clauses are very often separated from their main clauses by a prosodic break: The main clause bears continuative intonation, and the subordinate clause is separated from the main clause by a pause. The adverbial clause then begins with the high pitch onset that is characteristic for independent utterances (cf. also §3.4.4). An adverbial interpretation of the clause introduced by *wé* ‘SUB’ in (66) above would therefore only be possible if a comma were inserted between *mán den* ‘men’ and *wé* ‘SUB’.

In contrast, pronoun resumption, even if possible, is not very often seen in object relative clauses, even if the head noun is [+specific]. In the object relative clause below, *gét* ‘get’ is not followed by an object pronoun co-referential with the head noun *móní*:

- (67) *Mék e bák yú di móní [wé e gét].*
 SBJV 3SG.SBJ give.back 2SG.INDP DEF money SUB 3SG.SBJ get
 ‘Let him give you back the money that he got.’ [fr03cd 027]

The possibility of abstaining from pronoun resumption in Pichi relative clauses, such as (67) (for a subject relative clause without a resumptive pronoun, cf. 78 below) and the prosodic unity of relative constructions are good arguments for viewing relative clauses as embedded clauses.

Relative clauses always follow the head NP that they refer to. The head NP and its relative clause can be separated by quantifiers (68), as well as topic and focus particles (69). The examples in this section and the following ones also show that TMA and person marking in relative clauses is “balanced” (Stassen 1985); hence it is not reduced in comparison with that of declarative clauses:

- (68) *Somos tú dásol [wé wi dé láyff] (...)*
 we.are two only SUB 1PL BE.LOC life
 ‘We are, (it’s) only two of us that are alive (...)’ [ab03ay 133]
- (69) *Son dé yét séf [wé a nó mék].*
 some BE.LOC yet EMP SUB 1SG.SBJ NEG make
 ‘Some is actually still left that I haven’t made.’ [dj03do 009]

Headed restrictive and non-restrictive relative clauses cannot be distinguished on formal grounds. In (70), the commas in squared brackets in the translation indicate the non-restrictive alternative interpretation of the sentence. Note the presence of the English loan *apart from* in this example:

- (70) *Apart from mi antí [wé e dé yá], ɔ di pikín den fɔ mi*
 apart from 1SG.POSS aunt SUB 3SG.SBJ BE.LOC here or DEF child PL PREP 1SG.POSS
gran-má wet mi gran-pá [wé den stíl dé láyff], den-ól den
 grand-ma with 1SG.POSS grand-pa SUB 3PL still BE.LOC life 3PL.INDP.CPD-all 3PL

dé na Panyá.

BE.LOC FOC Spain

‘Apart from my aunt [,] who is here, or the children of my grandmother and grandfather [,] who are still alive, they are all in Spain.’ [fr03ft 038]

If the head noun has plural reference, the pluraliser *den* ‘PL’ appears immediately after the head noun and before the subordinator *wé* ‘SUB’ (71). Note the presence of the resumptive subject pronoun *den* ‘3PL’ in the relative clause, which is co-referential with the head noun *tín den* ‘things’:

- (71) *Porque dân tín na tín den [wé den dón sté dân tén den wé esclavitud*
because that thing FOC thing PL SUB 3PL PRF stay that time PL SUB slavery
dé].
BE.LOC

‘Because those are things that have stayed (from) those times when there was slavery.’ [hi03cb 228]

Pichi exhibits generous possibilities of relative clause formation (cf. Keenan 1985: 148). For example, the relativisation of a nominal that is part of a coordinate structure is permitted (72). Equally, a relative clause may contain a focused resumptive pronoun (73):

- (72) *Bikəs mí dé sən stáyl, layk dân gél [wé mí wet=an bin*
because 1SG.INDP BE.LOC some style like that girl SUB 1SG.INDP with=3SG.OBJ PST
gó dé], a tél=an sé a wónt sí háw den de mék.
go there 1SG.SBJ tell=3SG.OBJ 1SG.SBJ want see how 3PL IPFV make
‘Because I was (feeling) a way, like that girl with whom I went there, I told her that I wanted to see how it is done.’ [ed03sb 149]

- (73) *Bət di pé wé yu géfo pé, if yu nó de gí mí yu fəs mán [wé*
but DEF pay SUB 2SG have.to pay if 2SG NEG IPFV give 1SG.INDP 2SG first man SUB
na in gí yú dí belé], yu de gí mi di pikín [wé de
FOC 3SG.INDP give 2SG.INDP this belly 2SG IPFV give 1SG.INDP DEF child SUB IPFV
kəmót].
come.out

Lit. ‘But the price that you have to pay (is), if you don’t give me your first man, who it is him who gave you the first pregnancy, you will give me the child that will come out.’ [ed03sb 020]

Likewise, there is no restriction on the relativisation of the subject or object of a complement clause (74) or of an indirect question clause (75):

- (74) *Na dân báy [wé a tél yú sé in mamá dón gó na Panyá].*
FOC that boy SUB 1SG.SBJ tell 2SG.INDP QUOT 3SG.POSS mother PRF go LOC Spain
‘It is that boy (of) who I told that his mother has gone to Spain.’ [he07fn 253]

- (75) *A gét sɔn kómpin, sɔn Ghana-mán [wé a nó sabí ús=sáy*
 1SG.SBJ get some friend some Ghana.CPD-man SUB 1SG.SBJ NEG know Q=side
dán mán dé].
 that man BE.LOC
Lit. ‘I have a friend, a Ghanaian who I don’t know where that man is.’ [ed03sb
 188]

Relative constructions are also made use of to express adverbial relations of time, location, and manner through the relativisation of generic nouns like *áwa* ‘time, hour’, *tén* ‘time’ (119), *dé* ‘day’ (120) and *stáyl* ‘manner, style’ (§10.7.4).

10.6.2 Subjects and objects

Subject relative clauses normally feature a resumptive subject pronoun that is co-referential with the [+specific] relativised noun. Relative clauses featuring a relativised subject pronoun also usually contain a resumptive pronoun if the head NP is not a 3rd person pronoun (77):

- (76) *Éf yu chóp ɔl díɪs chóp [wé e nó dón], tumóro yu go sík.*
 if 2SG eat all this food SUB 3SG.SBJ NEG done tomorrow 2SG POT be.sick
 ‘If you eat all this food that is not done you’ll be sick tomorrow.’ [ro05ee 045]
- (77) *Mí na wán húman [wé a síryɔs].*
 1SG.INDP FOC one woman SUB 1SG.SBJ be.serious
 ‘I [EMP] am a woman who is serious.’ [ro05ee 017]

Sentence (77) exemplifies the relativisation of subject NPs without resumptive pronoun marking. Although the head nouns *gabonés* and *guineano* are preceded by the definite article *di* ‘DEF’, these nouns have [-specific], generic reference, hence they are not reiterated by a resumptive subject pronoun in the relative clause (cf. also §5.1.4):

- (78) *Pero di gabonés [wé de tók Bata] wet di guineano [wé de tók Bata],*
 but DEF Gabonese SUB IPFV talk Fang with DEF Guinean SUB IPFV talk Fang
di sonido nó dé di sén.
 DEF sound NEG BE.LOC DEF same
 ‘But the Gabonese who talks Fang and the Guinean who talks Fang, the sound is not the same.’ [ma03hm 048]

“Gap” subject relative constructions without the subordinator are not attested. However, object relative clauses formed by means of the gap strategy are sometimes heard. The relativised cognate object in (79) is a patient object. Note the absence of the subordinator *wé* ‘SUB’ as well as that of a resumptive object pronoun in the relative clause after the verb *wánt* ‘want’:

- (79) *Mék e bít yú, mék e dú yú di dú [e wánt] (...)*
 SBJV 3SG.SBJ beat 2SG.INDP SBJV 3SG.SBJ do 2SG DEF do 3SG.SBJ want
 ‘Let him beat you, let him do to you [what he wants] (...)’ [bo03cb 135]

Object relative clauses involve the use of the subordinator *wé* ‘SUB’ in the vast majority of cases. Take note of the absence of a resumptive object pronoun with reference to the non-specific head noun *bloques den* ‘blocks’:

- (80) *Son bloques den léf [wé den géfo monta] nó?*
 some block.PL PL remain SUB 3PL have.to mount INTJ
 ‘Some blocks remain that have to be mounted, right?’ [ye03cd 114]

A resumptive pronoun may also refer to a recipient head noun in a double-object construction (81). Recipient resumptive pronouns are optional and may therefore be omitted as in (82):

- (81) *Yu sí dán pikín dé [wé in mamá de gí=an chóp]?*
 2SG see that child there SUB 3SG.POSS mother IPFV give=3SG.OBJ food
 ‘Have you seen that child whose mother is giving her food?’ [li07fn 455]
- (82) *A bin sí di pikín [wé di húman bin gí chóp na strít].*
 1SG.SBJ PST see DEF child SUB DEF woman PST give food LOC street
 ‘I saw the child that the woman gave food to in the street.’ [dj05ae 065]

10.6.3 Prepositional phrases

There are no formal constraints on the relativisation of PPs. However, this type of relativisation is rather rare compared to that of subjects and objects. The following relative constructions involve relativised prepositional phrases introduced by the prepositions *fə* ‘PREP’ and *pan* ‘on’. These two prepositions, as well as the preposition *wet* ‘with’, can also be stranded, in other words they may remain in their original position, while the relativised NP appears at the beginning of the sentence. Pied-piping of prepositions, i.e. the appearance of the preposition at the beginning of the relative clause, is not attested:

- (83) *Di béd [wé e de slíp pan], e dé na di rúm.*
 DEF bed SUB 3SG.SBJ IPFV sleep on 3SG.SBJ BE.LOC LOC DEF room
 ‘The bed that she sleeps on, it’s in the room.’ [tr05fn 047]

In the more common alternative to stranding, a resumptive pronoun fills the original position of the relativised noun. Compare *wet=an* ‘with her’ in (72) above. Alternatively, a resumptive pronoun need not be used at all. The exact meaning of the sentence is then provided by pragmatic context. In such instances of “prepositional phrase chopping” (Tarallo 1983; 1985) disambiguation is left to pragmatic context.

In (84), there is no *wet* ‘with’ in the relative clause to point to the semantic role of instrument of the relativised head noun *gón* ‘gun’:

- (84) *Den de gó wet dán gón [wé den de kíl bíf] ɔ pistola.*
 3PL IPFV go with that gun SUB 3PL IPFV kill wild.animal or pistol
 ‘They go with that gun which they kill wild animals (with) or a pistol.’ [ed03sb 114]

Similarly, the *wé*-clause in (85) induces a locative, that in (86b) an instrumental interpretation. It is also of interest that (86b) is an example for the use of *fɔ* as an introducer of a noun complement that is very similar in function to the preceding relative clause (cf. §10.5.8):

- (85) *A kán kɔmót na dán hós [wé a bin dé].*
 1SG.SBJ PFV go.out LOC that house SUB 1SG.SBJ PST BE.LOC
 ‘I left that house which I had been (in).’ [ab03ay 097]
- (86) a. *Yu nó nó na ús=tín, matapenso?*
 2SG NEG know FOC Q=thing pestle
 ‘You don’t know what it is, a pestle?’ [ye05ce 098]
- b. *Dán tín [wé den de mék súp], fɔ mék fufú.*
 that thing SUB 3PL IPFV make soup PREF make fufu
 ‘That thing they make soup (with), in order to make fufu (with).’ [dj05ce 099]

In a similar vein, the *wé*-clauses in (87) and (88) allow that a causal meaning is inferred:

- (87) *So na di tín [wé e rón], e kɔmót.*
 so FOC DEF thing SUB 3SG.SBJ run 3SG.SBJ go.out
 ‘So that is why [lit. the thing that] she fled, (and) she left.’ [ed03sb 041]
- (88) (...) *e go sé e de fíe e nó go gí mí di tín*
 3SG.SBJ POT QUOT 3SG.SBJ IPFV fear 3SG.SBJ NEG POT give 1SG.INDP DEF thing
[wé a de sɛn=an].
 SUB 1SG.SBJ IPFV send=3SG.OBJ
 ‘(...) he would say he is afraid, he would not give me the thing that I had sent him (for).’ [ab03ab 041]

Such constructions are structurally no different from those involving objects, and, like the latter, they may involve “gap” constructions. Note the absence of the subordinator *wé* ‘SUB’ in the following example. The head noun of the relative clause *sáy* ‘side, place’ is the syntactic object of *sidón* ‘sit (down), stay’:

- (89) *A de gó nía di sáy [Paquita sidón].*
 1SG.SBJ IPFV go near DEF side NAME stay
 ‘I am going near where Paquita stays.’ [dj05be 147]

Prepositional phrase chopping should be differentiated from instances in which the goal of a verb may be expressed as an object, as is the case in double-object constructions involving *pút* ‘put’ in (90) (cf. §9.3.4 for more details). Once more, note the occurrence of a “gap” relative clause in this example:

- (90) *A ték tú peso a báy dân dís-tín, sɔn smól pépa* [*den de*
1SG.SBJ take two peso 1SG.SBJ buy that this-thing some small paper 3PL IPFV
pút=an cacahuete].
put=3SG.OBJ groundnut
‘I took two pesos (and) I bought this whatsit, a small paper (into which)
groundnuts are put.’ [ed03sp 083]

Example (91) shows how the resumption of the entire relativised noun in the position of relativisation can be an alternative to stranding or chopping. Anaphoric NP reiteration is accompanied by a deictic element, the demonstrative *dís* ‘this’ in (91):

- (91) *Bikɔs wán isla dé* [*wé e fíba sé petroleo dé na dís*
because one island BE.LOC SUB 3SG.SBJ seem QUOT oil BE.LOC LOC this
isla].
island
‘Because there is an island of which it seems that there is oil on this island.’
[fr03ft 109]

In sentence (92) below, the direct object *sɔn fáyn* ‘a beauty’ is resumed through another full NP, namely the demonstrative pronominal *dá wán* ‘that (one)’:

- (92) *A sé blák gél den gét sɔn fáyn* [*wé wáyť húman den nó gét dá*
1SG.SBJ QUOT black girl PL get some fine SUB white woman PL NEG get that
wán].
one
‘I say black girls have a beauty which white women do not have (that one).’
[ed03sp 046]

Full NP anaphora can also be observed in the complex relative construction in (75) above, where *dán mán* ‘that man’ in the relative clause refers to the head noun *Ghana-mán* ‘Ghanaian’. All these structures are reminiscent of correlative constructions found in other languages and demonstrate the diversity of relativisation strategies in Pichi.

10.6.4 Possessors

When a possessor noun is relativised, a co-referential possessive pronoun and the possessed noun immediately follow the subordinator *wé* ‘SUB’ (93):

- (93) (...) *den de kómót na wán pueblo [wé in ném na*
 3PL IPFV hail.from LOC one village SUB 3SG.POSS name FOC
Basakato dé la Sagrada Familia].
 PLACE

‘(...) they come from a village whose name is Basakato dé la Sagrada Familia.’
 [fr03ft 042]

The preceding example features a possessor head noun that functions as the subject of the relative clause. When the possessor head noun functions as the object of the relative clause, it is relativised by way of a structure in which the head noun and the relative clause function as the topic. The remainder of the main clause functions as the comment, and is set off from the topic by a pause, while a possessive pronoun anaphorically refers to the head noun (94):

- (94) *Dán húman [wé a só yú], in motó dé na strít.*
 that woman SUB 1SG.SBJ show 2SG.INDP 3SG.POSS car BE.LOC LOC street
 ‘That woman which I showed you, her car is in the street.’ [dj05ae 068]

Possessed nouns are relativised like core participants. Reference is upheld due to the juxtaposition of the possessed noun and the relative clause (95):

- (95) *A ték di stík in kandá [wé a sí dé], a rós=an.*
 1SG.SBJ take DEF tree 3SG.POSS bark SUB 1SG.SBJ see there 1SG.SBJ burn=3SG.OBJ
 ‘I took the bark_i of the tree_j that_i saw there, I burnt it_i.’ [bo05n 001]

10.6.5 Free relatives and indirect questions

Free relative clauses do not feature an overt head noun and are introduced by a question word. In free relative constructions featuring question words, the relative clause is formally identical with the corresponding content question (cf. §7.3.2). The subordinator *wé* ‘SUB’ is not employed to introduce free relative clauses. Free relative clauses often function as objects of verbs of cognition, perception, asking, or speaking.

Below, we find a free subject relative clause, which is introduced by the question word *wétin* ‘what’:

- (96) *A dón tél yú [wétin pás na nét], dán nét.*
 1SG.SBJ PRF tell 2SG.INDP what pass LOC night that night
 ‘I’ve already told you what happened in the night, that night.’ [ab03ab 043]

Free relatives introduced by the question words *údat* ‘who’, *ús=mán* ‘who’, and *ús=pósin* ‘who’ question human referents. The following two examples are free object relative clauses:

- (97) *Den nó nó [údat hambóg=an].*
 3PL NEG know who bother=3SG.OBJ
 ‘They don’t know who disturbed her.’ [dj05ce 127]

- (98) *Mí nó sabí [ús=mán den kil], a nóba hía dán torí séf.*
 1SG.INDP NEG know Q=man 3PL kill 1SG.SBJ NEG.PRF hear that story EMP
 ‘I don’t know which man they killed, I haven’t even heard that story.’ [ro05de 049]

The corresponding question words also introduce the free variants of relative clauses with generic head nouns like *tén* ‘time’ and *sáy* ‘side’ which function as adverbial clauses of time and place. Compare (99).

- (99) *E néa tél mí [ús=tén e go rích dé].*
 3SG.SBJ NEG.PRF tell 1SG.INDP Q=time 3SG.SBJ POT arrive there
 ‘He hasn’t told me when he is going to arrive there.’ [eb07fn 582]

The question word *háw* ‘how’ introduces free relatives and indirect questions that question a property (100), quantity, or degree; the latter two in the collocation *háw móch* ‘how much’ (101):

- (100) *Bət mí wánt sabí [háw dán tín dé].*
 but 1SG.INDP want know how that thing BE.LOC
 ‘But I wanted to know how that thing is.’ [ed03sb 147]
- (101) *Mí nó áks=an [háw móch e wónt].*
 1SG.INDP NEG ask=3SG.OBJ how much 3SG.SBJ want
 ‘I [EMP] didn’t ask him how much he wants.’ [lo07fn 068]

Indirect yes-no question clauses may be introduced by the clause linker *ɛf(ɛ)* or *if* ‘if’ which then functions as a complementiser in combination with sentence-final question intonation. Alternatively, such question clauses may be introduced by *sé* ‘QUOT’ if phrased as a question in the type of direct speech that characterises the use of quotative *sé* ‘QUOT’ in many contexts:

- (102) *Sé yu wánt sabí ɛf rén de fól, nó?*
 QUOT 2SG want know if rain IPFV fall INTJ
 ‘(You) say you want to know if the rain is falling, right?’ [dj07ae 236]
- (103) *Mí séf, ɔl pósín den kin áks mí sé yu dón bón?*
 1SG.INDP EMP all person 3PL HAB ask 1SG.INDP QUOT 2SG PRF give.birth
 ‘Even me, everybody usually asks me “have you given birth?”’ [fr03ft 144]

10.7 Adverbial relations

The clause linkers *wé* ‘SUB’ and *sé* ‘QUOT’ together have the potential to participate in the expression of most types of adverbial relations that we find in Pichi. Additionally, Pichi features an array of adverbial clause linkers with more specific meanings. These are

summarised in Table 10.4 below. The following sections provide an overview of adverbial clause formation in Pichi. Purpose clauses are covered in §10.7.6.

The first column in Table 10.4 below provides an overview of the types of adverbial clauses attested. The second column contains the linkers that introduce these types of clauses in Pichi. Alternative means of formation are given in the remaining three columns: The third column indicates whether a clause introduced by *wé* ‘SUB’ or *sé* ‘QUOT’ can be used instead of the linker in the second column in order to express the same adverbial relation.

The fourth column provides other alternatives for expressing the corresponding adverbial relation. Independent sentences may also be linked through adverbials. These are contained in the last column on the right. A blank space indicates that the corresponding means is not available.

10.7.1 *Wé* ‘SUB’

The subordinator *wé* ‘SUB’ may introduce adverbial clauses of time, condition, and concession. Although *wé* is most commonly used to express temporal relations the other uses are frequent as well. A *wé*-clause may precede (104) or follow (cf. 110 below) its main clause and is often set off from preceding and following material by a prosodic break (cf. also §10.6.1). In this function, *wé* is best translated as ‘when’:

- (104) *Wé a go fínis skúl, a go tón dókta.*
 SUB 1SG.SBJ POT finish school 1SG.SBJ POT turn doctor
 ‘When I finish school, I’ll become a doctor.’ [ro05ee 023]

The expression of time relations by means of *wé*-clauses cannot be divorced from the function of *wé* ‘SUB’ of introducing sequences of coordinate clauses. Compare the time clause in (104) with the multiple occurrences of *wé* here:

- (105) *Pero wé a kán mít dís mán, wé wi bigín bón in yón pikín den.*
 but SUB 1SG.SBJ PFV meet this man SUB 1PL begin beget 3SG.POSS own child PL
 ‘But then/when I met this man, and then we began to have his own children.’
 [ab03ab 214]

Time clauses introduced by *wé* are interpreted as being in a relation of temporal overlap with the main clause if both clauses contain imperfective readings (106) or are unspecified with respect to aspect like the two clauses in (104) above containing the potential mood marker *go* ‘POT’:

- (106) *Wé e kin kómót wók a kin mék=an só, lek háw*
 SUB 3SG.SBJ HAB come.out work 1SG.SBJ HAB make=3SG.OBJ like.that like how
mún fínis.
 month finish

‘When he leaves work, I do to him like this [stretches out hand in a gesture that indicates that her husband’s salary should be handed over to her], as soon as the month is over.’ [ro05rt 042]

Table 10.4 Adverbial relations

Clause type	Clause linkers	Linkage with <i>wé</i> or <i>sé</i> alone?	Other means of linkage?	Linkage by adverbial?
Time	<i>bifó</i> 'before' <i>læk háw</i> 'as soon as'	<i>wé</i> 'SUB'	<i>di tén wé</i> 'the time that'	<i>áfta</i> 'then', <i>dásɔl</i> 'then', <i>dán tén</i> 'that time', <i>na</i> <i>in/na dé</i> 'then'
Manner	<i>læk háw</i> 'the way that'		<i>di síáy/l wé</i> 'the manner that'	<i>na só</i> 'that's how'
Locative			<i>di sáy/plés wé</i> 'the place that'	
Cause	<i>bikos/porque</i> 'because', <i>as/como</i> 'since', <i>fóséka</i> 'due to'	<i>sé</i> 'QUOT'		<i>na in (mék)</i> 'that's why', <i>so</i> 'so'
Purpose	<i>mék</i> 'SBJV', <i>fɔ</i> 'PREP'			
Extent	<i>sóté</i> 'until'	<i>sé</i> 'QUOT'		
Limit	<i>dásɔl sé/ónli sé</i> 'only that'			
Source	<i>fɾɔn wél/síns (wé)</i> 'since'			
Conditional	<i>ɛf/ɛfɛ/ɪf</i> 'if', <i>læk (sé)</i> 'like'	<i>wé</i> 'SUB', <i>sé</i> 'QUOT'	Juxtaposition	
Concessive	<i>ɛf/ɛfɛ/ɪf</i> — <i>séf</i> 'even if', <i>aunque</i> 'although', <i>adanké</i> — <i>wáns</i> 'even if'	<i>wé</i> 'SUB', <i>sé</i> 'QUOT'		<i>bat</i> 'but'

The relation between a main clause and a dependent clause introduced by *wé* can also be one of temporal succession rather than overlap. The interpretation of the temporal relation between the clauses depends on the lexical aspect class of the verbs involved as well as on aspect-marking. For example, in (107) perfective marking with the dynamic verbs *rích* ‘reach’ and *sé* ‘say, QUOT’ implies succession, however brief the interval:

- (107) *Wé a rích na hós dé, a sé ‘yu go tél mi di sáy*
 SUB 1SG.SBJ reach LOC house there 1SG.SBJ QUOT 2SG POT tell 1SG.INDP DEF side
wé unu kin gó mítɔp.’
 SUB 2PL HAB go meet
 ‘When I reached the house, I said “you’re going to tell me where you usually meet.” [ro05rt 018]

Temporal succession can be rendered more explicit through the use of the perfect marker *dón* ‘PRF’ in the main or dependent clause. Hence, the main clause in (108) is posterior to the time clause introduced by *wé* ‘SUB’:

- (108) *A go firma wé a go dón chóp.*
 1SG.SBJ POT sign SUB 1SG.SBJ POT PRF eat
 ‘I will sign when I have finished eating.’ [ye03cd 038]

The boundary is fuzzy between temporal and other adverbial meanings of clauses introduced by *wé*. In (109), the temporal sense of the *wé*-clause shades off into a manner or circumstance sense. Context may also give rise to a concessive meaning of the subordinate clause (110):

- (109) *Den púl di motó na garaje wé den de pús=an.*
 3PL remove DEF car LOC workshop SUB 3PL IPFV push=3SG.OBJ
 ‘They removed the car from the workshop by pushing it.’ [ro05ee 052]
- (110) *Náw fɔ mék den fit gét wán amiga nadó wé yu sista den sabí,*
 now PREP SBJV 3PL can get one girlfriend outside SUB 2SG sister 3PL know
in go had.
 3SG.INDP POT be.hard
 ‘Now for them to be able to have a girl-friend outside while/although your sisters know, that will be difficult.’ [ro05rt 034]

The relation between the first clause in (111a) and the clause introduced by *wé* is best interpreted as adversative. This is illustrated by the follow-up clause in (111b):

- (111) a. *Yu nó bin dé na mákit, wé a tél yú sé mék yu*
 2SG NEG PST BE.LOC LOC market SUB 1SG.SBJ tell 2SG.INDP QUOT SBJV 2SG
bríng mi watá?
 bring 1SG.INDP water
 ‘Weren’t you at the market although I had told you to bring me water?’
 [ye0503e? 069]

- b. *Wétin yu kán sin watá?*
 what 2SG come without water
 ‘Why did you come without water?’ [ye0503e? 070]

Finally, in (112b), we find two wholly independent clauses separated by an intonation break, with the second one being introduced by *wé*. The *wé*-clause is contrasted with the implicitly understood concessive proposition in squared brackets. Clause (112b) may be interpreted as being in a causal relationship to clause (a):

- (112) a. *Son mamá den, den bád.*
 some mother PL 3PL bad
 ‘Some mothers, they are bad.’ [ab03ay 109]
- b. *Wé yu pikín, yu nó aconseja ín frɔn doce años.*
 SUB 2SG child 2SG NEG advise 3SG.INDP from twelve years
 ‘Because as for your child, you didn’t advise her from twelve years on.’
 [although you know about the dangers of early pregnancy].’ [ab03ay 109]

The linker *wé* ‘SUB’ is also encountered in the temporal source clause introducers *frɔn wé* and *síns wé*, both of which mean ‘since’ (cf §10.7.10).

10.7.2 Sé ‘QUOT’

The quotative marker *sé* ‘QUOT’ may provide adverbial modifications of purpose and result, cause, manner and circumstance, time and condition. The answer to (a) in (b) below can be interpreted as a cause clause. The *sé*-clause in this example once more vividly illustrates the diversity of meanings of *sé*, particularly in contexts like this one, where it straddles the boundary between quotation proper and other, related functions:

- (113) a. *Wétin yu de wét?*
 what 2SG IPFV wait
 ‘What [why] are you waiting?’ [fr03wt 048]
- b. *Sé in mamá go dráyb=an fós.*
 QUOT 3SG.POSS mother POT drive=3SG.OBJ first
 ‘(He) says/because his mother will chase him away at first.’ [dj03wt 049]

The codemixed example (114) features a *sé*-clause that permits a temporal or conditional interpretation. These interpretations are favoured due to the sentence-initial position of the *sé*-clause. The sentence is also instructive because the speaker uses the Spanish temporal conjunction *cuando* ‘when’ in order to render Pichi *sé* ‘QUOT’ when reiterating the clause in Spanish:

10 Clause linkage

- (114) “Yu hól wán motó”, yu de dráyb=*an*, pero sé yu gét, *cuando* tienes,
 2SG hold one car 2SG IPFV drive=3SG.OBJ but QUOT 2SG get when you.get
 “a gét wán motó”.
 1SG.SBJ get one car
 ‘“Yu hól wán motó” (means) you’re driving it, but if you possess it, when you have it “a gét wán motó”.’ [dj05ae 223]

A *sé*-clause that follows a main clause and is marked for temporal overlap with the main clause by means of imperfective aspect may function as a modification of manner or circumstance in the same way as a *wé*-clause. Compare (115) with (109) above:

- (115) *Den púl di motó na garaje sé den de pús=an.*
 3PL remove DEF car LOC workshop QUOT 3PL IPFV push=3SG.OBJ
 ‘They removed the car from the workshop by pushing it.’ [pa05fn 024]

Such clauses also lend themselves to a concessive interpretation if suggested so by pragmatic context. Compare the concessive *wé*-clause in (110) with the following *sé*-clause in (116):

- (116) *E dú di ejercicio sé e táya.*
 3SG.SBJ do DEF exercise QUOT 3SG.SBJ be.tired
 ‘She did the exercise while/although she was tired.’ [ra07ve 021]

Finally, *sé* is optionally attested with many adverbial clause linkers, among them *bikəs* (*sé*) ‘because’. *Sé* is obligatory when prepositions take clausal, rather than nominal complements, e.g. *fəséko sé* ‘due to, because’, and *lek sé* ‘as if’ (117):

- (117) “A hól wán motó” na *lek sé* yu de dráyb *wé* yu de wók.
 1SG.SBJ hold one car FOC like QUOT 2SG IPFV drive SUB 2SG IPFV work
 ‘“A hól wán motó” is like you drive (a car temporarily) while you work.’ [dj05ae 225]

10.7.3 Time clauses

I have shown that temporal relations between clauses may be established in various ways through the polyfunctional linker *wé* ‘SUB’. The following clause linkers express adverbial relations of time with more specific meanings.

Relative clauses featuring the generic head nouns *áwa* ‘time’, *tén* ‘time’, and *dé* ‘day’ function as time clauses. The nature of the temporal relation between the main and the relative clause situations is determined by lexical and clausal aspect marking:

- (118) *Di húman kán na hós di áwa [wé a de kúk].*
 DEF woman come LOC house DEF hour SUB 1SG.SBJ IPFV cook
 ‘The woman came to the house when I was cooking.’ [ro05de 022]

- (119) *Di tén* [wé den bin de kán hía wet kenú], (...)
 DEF time SUB 3PL PST IPFV come here with canoe
 ‘(The time) when they were coming here by canoe (...)’ [ed03sb 189]
- (120) *Di dé* [wé a nó wánt gí yú quinientos] a de gí
 DEF day SUB 1SG.SBJ NEG want give 2SG.INDP five.hundred 1SG.SBJ IPFV give
 yú trescientos para tu cigarillo.
 2SG.INDP three.hundred for your cigarette
 ‘(The day) when I don’t want to give you five hundred, I give you three hundred
 for your cigarette.’ [ro05rt 045]

The clause-linker and collocation *lek háw* ‘as soon as’ introduces time clauses. Time clauses introduced by *lek háw* precede their main clauses and establish a relation of anteriority with the main clause. This linker may also introduce adverbial manner clauses (cf. §10.7.4 below):

- (121) *Tumóro, lek háw* *yu tók wet Buehú, yu kól mí,* (...)
 tomorrow like how 2SG talk with NAME 2SG call 1SG.INDP
 ‘Tomorrow, as soon as you’ve talked to Buehu, you call me, (...)’ [fr03cd 111]

The linker *bifó* ‘before’ introduces time clauses that are in a relation of posteriority to the main clause. *Bifó*-clauses are preferably sentence-initial, though they are also found in sentence-final position in after-thought apposition, as in (123):

- (122) *Bifó a kin gráp, a de sí big big fáya.*
 before 1SG.SBJ HAB get.up 1SG.SBJ IPFV see big REP fire
 ‘Before I could get up, I saw a huge fire.’ [ab03ay 067]
- (123) (...) *wé den sáyn yu bigín baja mś, bifó yu énta.*
 SUB 3PL sign 2SG begin go.down more before 2SG enter
 ‘(...) when they have signed, you begin to go down once more before
 you enter.’ [f203fp 004]

It is interesting that the corpus contains no instance of an after-relation expressed by *áfta* ‘after’ in analogy with *bifó* in (123) above. Apparently, *áfta* may only serve as an ‘and then’ clausal connective and does not mean relational ‘after’. Hence, after-relations must be constructed as iconical ‘and then’ relations with the proadverbial *áfta* as in (124):

- (124) *Léf=an, a go chóp, áfta a go dríng.*
 leave=3SG.OBJ 1SG.SBJ POT eat then 1SG.SBJ POT drink
 ‘Leave it, I will eat, then I will drink.’ [ye03cd 079]

Alternatively, the after-relation can be expressed by an initial *wé*-clause accompanied by perfect marking, as in (125):

- (125) *Sifta, wé a dón sifta ín, e de léf wet di watá.*
 sift SUB 1SG.SBJ PRF sift 3SG.INDP 3SG.SBJ IPFV leave with DEF water
 ‘Sift (it), when I have sifted it, it’ll be left with the water.’ [dj03do 007]

10.7.4 Manner clauses

Manner clauses may be expressed through a relative construction featuring the generic head noun *stáyl* ‘style, manner’:

- (126) *A bin chóp di plantí di stáyl [wé pòsin den fò Malábo den de chóp=an]*
 1SG.SBJ PST eat DEF plantain DEF style SUB person PL PREP Malabo 3PL IPFV
 food=3SG.OBJ
 ‘I ate the plantain the way Malabo people eat it.’ [dj05ae 069]

Manner clauses may also be formed by way of adverbial clauses introduced by the collocation *lek háw* ‘like how’ = ‘the way that’. Compare the near-identical sentence above with the two following ones:

- (127) *Mí chóp di plantí lek háw Malabo-pípul den de chóp=an.*
 1SG.INDP eat DEF plantain like how Malabo.CPD-people PL IPFV eat=3SG.OBJ
 ‘I [EMP] ate the plantain the way Malabo people eat it.’ [ro05de 019]
- (128) *A nó sabí ús=tín den nó go restaura ín lek háw e bin*
 1SG.SBJ NEG know Q=thing 3PL NEG POT restore 3SG.INDP like how 3SG.SBJ PST
dé jamás.
 BE.LOC ever
 ‘I don’t know why they won’t restore it the way it was back then.’ [hi03cb 038]

Manner clauses introduced by *lek háw* ‘like how’ are also often employed to denote the perceived situation of a main clause verb of sensory perception like *hía* ‘hear’ (129), *sí* ‘see’, *lúk* ‘look’, *smél* ‘smell’ (130), and *fil* ‘feel’. Such clauses vacillate between readings denoting manner and temporal overlap:

- (129) *A de hía ín lek háw e de nák di gita.*
 1SG.SBJ IPFV hear 3SG.INDP like how 3SG.SBJ IPFV hit DEF guitar
 ‘I hear him playing the guitar.’ or ‘I hear (him) how he’s playing the guitar.’
 [dj05ae 053]
- (130) *A de smél di sént fò lek háw e de kúk plantí.*
 1SG.SBJ IPFV smell DEF scent PREP like how 3SG.SBJ IPFV cook plantain
 ‘I smell the scent of him cooking plantain.’ [dj05ae 025]

The collocation *lek háw* also forms part of the idiomatic phrase *lek háw yu (de) sí X* (X referring a person) which means something along the lines of ‘when looking at X you should also know’. Compare the following example:

- (131) *Mí, lek háw yu de sí mí a dón sí plénte tín.*
 1SG.INDP like how 2SG IPFV see 1SG.INDP 1SG.SBJ PRF see plenty thing
 ‘(As for) me, when you looking at me you should also know that I have seen many things [in life].’ [ab03ab 023]

Manner clauses introduced by *lek háw* may shade off into a temporal reading and vice-versa. Manner clauses generally follow their main clauses as in the preceding examples. In contrast, time clauses introduced by *lek háw* normally precede their main clauses (cf. 121 above in the previous section).

However, we also sometimes find manner clauses introduced by *lek háw* in a sentence-initial, topical position. When such a clause is marked for an imperfective reading, it is likely to be interpreted as a manner clause. *Lek háw* then means ‘the way that’ (132):

- (132) *Lek háw e de wáka, e butú, e nó bén.*
 like how 3SG.SBJ IPFV walk 3SG.SBJ stoop 3SG.SBJ NEG bend
 ‘The way he’s walking (now), he’s stooped over, he’s not bent over.’ [au07se 082]

On the other hand, if a sentence-initial clause introduced by *lek háw* is marked for a perfective reading, it is very likely to be interpreted as a time clause. *Lek háw* then translates as ‘as soon as’. In (133), the subordinate clause contains the factative marked (hence perfective) dynamic verb *pút* ‘put’. Compare the temporal interpretation of this sentence with the manner reading of (132) above. Also compare the temporal interpretation of the factative-marked verb *pút* ‘put’ in the previous section in (121) above:

- (133) *Lek háw e pút dán mɔní na mi hán, nó wét mɔ!*
 like how 3SG.SBJ put that money LOC 1SG.POSS hand NEG wait more
 ‘As soon as he has put that money into my hand, no time to waste!’ [ro05rt 043]

If a manner interpretation is nevertheless desired for a clause featuring a situation marked for a perfective reading, a relative construction featuring the head noun *stáyl* ‘style, manner’ is chosen. In (134), the manner relation is expressed via a relative construction. This option is chosen because the subordinate dynamic verb *nák* ‘hit’ is marked for factative TMA, hence it is perfective and bounded:

- (134) *E nák di tébul an di stáyl [wé e nák di tébul strón],*
 3SG.SBJ hit DEF table and DEF style SUB 3SG.SBJ hit DEF table be.strong
e kán sék di plét, an di plét kán brók.
 3SG.SBJ PFV shake DEF plate and DEF plate PFV break
 ‘He hit the table and the way that he hit the table in a strong way, he shook the plate, and the plate broke.’ [au07se 014]

Other means of providing manner modification by clauses are adverbial SVCs and the use of adverbial clauses introduced by *wé* ‘SUB’ and *sé* ‘QUOT’. Note that equative clauses – manner clauses which serve as the standard in a comparison – are also introduced by the collocation *lek háw* (cf. 209–210).

10.7.5 Locative clauses

The formation of locative clauses involves the relativisation of the generic head nouns *sáy* ‘side’ and less frequently *plés* ‘place’. Locative adverbial relations can only be expressed via such relative constructions, because the linker *wé* ‘SUB’ does not introduce headless locative relative clauses:

- (135) *Náw e dón wánt bigín de fét wet di chía, di sáy [wé den sidón].*
 now 3SG.SBJ PRF want begin IPFV fight with DEF chair DEF side SUB 3PL sit
 ‘Now he already wanted to begin fighting with the chair, where they were sitting.’ [ab03ab 132]
- (136) *Yu nó nó di plés [wé a sidón]?*
 2SG NEG know DEF PLACE SUB 1SG.SBJ stay
 ‘You don’t know where I stay?’ [he07fn 307]

10.7.6 Purpose and result clauses

The clause linkers *fɔ* ‘PREP’ and *sé* ‘QUOT’, as well as the subjunctive marker *mék* are employed to introduce purpose clauses. A purpose relation typically involves a willful and animate subject that intentionally performs a main clause action aimed at the completion of the situation in the subordinate clause. There are no semantic restrictions on the type of main verb that purpose clauses may modify in Pichi. Neither is there any formal difference between “realised” (i.e. that the purpose is achieved) and “unrealised” purpose clauses (cf. Bickerton 1981: 59).

Thus below, we find purpose clauses modifying main clauses with verbs as diverse as *ol* ‘be old’ or *wét* ‘wait’:

- (137) *A dón tú ol fɔ mared.*
 1SG.SBJ PRF too old PREP marry
 ‘I’m too old to marry.’ [fr03ab 206]
- (138) *A go firma, wét fɔ mék a chóp, a bég.*
 1SG.SBJ POT sign wait PREP SBJV 1SG.SBJ eat 1SG.SBJ beg
 ‘I’ll sign, wait for me to eat/have eaten, please.’ [ye03cd 043]

The motion verbs *gó* ‘go’ (139) and *kán* ‘come’ (140 below) may optionally reinforce the purposive sense of the subordinate clause:

- (139) *Den kán kér mí na Madrid fɔ mék den gó opera mí.*
 3PL PFV carry 1SG.INDP LOC PLACE PREP SBJV 3PL go operate 1SG.INDP
 ‘They took me to Madrid in order to operate on me.’ [fr03ft 026]

When the subjects of the main and subordinate clauses are identical, the purpose clause may be introduced by the non-finite clause linker *fɔ* ‘PREP’ alone (140):

- (140) *Mi papá bin kán yá fɔ kán wók.*
 1SG.POSS father PST come here PREP come work
 ‘My father came here in order to work.’ [fr03ft 063]

When the main and subordinate clauses have different subjects, the purpose clause is expressed as a more finite subjunctive clause. Such purpose clauses are marked in the same way as other types of different-subject subordinate clauses that involve a form of deontic modality. The subjunctive marker may optionally be preceded by *fɔ* ‘PREP’ as in (141):

- (141) *Layk háw den go pút yú na tébul yu dón de rɔ́tin, fɔ mék den gó*
 like how 3PL POT put 2SG.INDP LOC table 2SG PRF IPFV rot PREP SBJV 3PL go
bér yú kwík.
 bury 2SG.INDP quickly
 ‘As soon as they put you on the table you are already rotting away for you to be buried quickly.’ [ed03sb 101]

However, a very frequent alternative is for both different- (142) and same-subject (143) purpose clauses to be introduced by the subjunctive marker alone:

- (142) *Na ín den táy=an mék e nó kɔ́mɔ́t.*
 FOC 3SG.INDP 3PL tie=3SG.OBJ SBJV 3SG.SBJ NEG go.out
 ‘That’s why they tied it [the dog] so that it wouldn’t leave.’ [ma03hm 005]
- (143) *A go gó lúk=an fɔ wán vecino mék a lúk las*
 1SG.SBJ POT go look=3SG.OBJ PREP one neighbour SBJV 1SG.SBJ look the.PL
damas.
 lady.PL
 ‘I’ll watch it at a neighbour’s in order to look at the (first) ladies.’ [ma03hm 074]

Negation of the subordinate situation obligatorily entails the use of subjunctive purpose clauses, even where the subjects of the main and subordinate clauses are identical, as in (144):

- (144) *A dríng di méresin fɔ mék a nó sík.*
 1SG.SBJ drink DEF medicine PREP SBJV 1SG.SBJ NEG be.sick
 ‘I drank the medicine in order not to fall sick.’ [ro05de 021]

When the purpose clause is fronted for emphasis, it is not usually introduced by *mék* alone. Instead, the purpose clause is normally introduced by *fɔ* ‘PREP’ or *sé* ‘QUOT’ and then followed by *mék* ‘SBJV’. This is probably so because a sentence-initial *mék* ‘SBJV’ signals the presence of a subjunctive-marked directive main clause:

- (145) *Fə mək* *yu fit énta yu géfə* *bísin na wán pósín fə di fámbul*
 PREP SBJV 2SG can enter 2SG have.to be.busy LOC one person PREP DEF family
 (...)

‘In order to be able to enter, you have to be involved with a person of the family (...)’ [ed03sb 077]

Different subject purpose clauses may also additionally feature the quotative marker *sé* ‘QUOT’ like any other subjunctive subordinate clause. In such cases, the purpose clause is also usually marked for subjunctive mood. Compare the sentence below; it contains a purpose clause introduced by *sé mək* as well as one introduced by *mək* alone:

- (146) *A bin lás gó a de fén bíg bíg mamá den, sé mək den*
 1SG.SBJ PST end.up go 1SG.SBJ IPFV look.for big REP mother PL QUOT SBJV 3PL
bí mi gél frén, mək den de gí mi cháp.
 BE 1SG.POSS girl friend SBJV 3PL IPFV give 1SG.INDP food
 ‘I finally went to look for mature/established women for them to be my girlfriends, for them to give me food.’ [ed03sp 079]

The following two sentences featuring clauses introduced by the quotative marker *sé* can be interpreted as purposive although they are not followed by subjunctive clauses. These sentences are further evidence for the polyfunctionality of the quotative marker. Here, the expression of speaker intention through inner speech rendered in a quotative construction acquires a purposive reading.

This is the case in the 1st person statement of intention in direct speech in (147), in which *sé* functions more like a clause linker as well as in the 3rd person indirect speech, in which *sé* behaves like a lexical verb (148):

- (147) *A wáka wet=an sé ‘tidé a go gó vive ín.’*
 1SG.SBJ walk with=3SG.OBJ QUOT today 1SG.SBJ POT go live 3SG.INDP
 ‘I went with him so that today I would witness it.’ [ed03sb 007]
- (148) *So e go na bús e sé e de gó kí bíf.*
 so 3SG.SBJ POT LOC forest 3SG.SBJ QUOT 3SG.SBJ IPFV go kill wild.animal
 ‘So he went to the forest in order to/he said he’d go kill a wild animal.’ [ma03sh 004]

Finally, a *sé*-clause may acquire a result reading when it features non-modal TMA marking or when a modal complementiser is absent. Compare the following example:

- (149) (...) *e sút=an sé e dón wónt gó ték=an,*
 3SG.SBJ shoot=3SG.OBJ QUOT 3SG.SBJ PRF want go take=3SG.OBJ 3SG.SBJ see
e sí di tín dón de tón pósín.
 DEF thing PRF IPFV turn person
 ‘(...) he shot it [the animal] and was about to go take it, (when) he saw the thing turning into a human-being.’ [ma03sh 005]

10.7.7 Cause clauses

Cause relations may be expressed through *sé*-clauses and adverbial clauses introduced by the linkers *bikɔs* (*sé*) ‘because’, *foséka* ‘due to, for the sake of’, and *ás* ‘as’. Speakers also employ the Spanish-origin linkers *porque* ‘because’ and *como* ‘as’, which have been borrowed into Pichi and form an integral part of the Pichi system of clause linkage (cf. §13.2.3 for a more detailed treatment in the context of codemixing). Compare *bikɔs* (*sé*) below:

- (150) *A dréb mi mán bikɔs sé a nó wánt=an mɔ.*
 1SG.SBJ drive 1SG.POSS man because QUOT 1SG.SBJ NEG want=3SG.OBJ more
 ‘I drove my husband away because I didn’t want him anymore.’ [ro05de 015]

Cause clauses introduced by *bikɔs* may appear at the beginning of the sentence (151). When this is so, the cause clause is focused with *na* ‘FOC’ and reiterated by means of one of the resumptive expressions *na ín* ‘FOC 3SG.INDP’ and *na di tín* ‘FOC DEF thing’, both of which mean ‘that’s why’ in this particular context:

- (151) *Na bikɔs e bón pikín, na di tín mék e dáy.*
 FOC because 3SG.SBJ give.birth child FOC thing make 3SG.SBJ die
 ‘It is because she gave birth (to a child), that’s why she died.’ [dj05be 051]

Cause clauses introduced by *ás* ‘as’ (152) and *como* ‘since’ (153) precede their main clauses:

- (152) *Ás den nɔba bin sí plantí, den bin chóp=an rón-wán.*
 as 3PL NEG.PRF PST see plantain 3PL PST eat=3SG.OBJ wrong-ADV
 ‘As they hadn’t yet seen plaintain, they ate it in the wrong way.’ [ro05ee 062]
- (153) *Como e sabí sé dán tín dé na mi hát (...)*
 since 3SG.SBJ know QUOT that thing BE.LOC LOC 1SG.POSS heart
 ‘Since she knows that that thing [matter] is in my heart (...)’ [ro07fn 673]

The linkers *bikɔs* ‘because’ and *porque* ‘because’ may be found in the initial position in sentences (i.e. in prosodically independent utterances) with a weak causal link with preceding sentences. In such instances, these linkers function as discourse markers that introduce elaborations to preceding material. Compare the use of *porque* in (154):

- (154) a. *E bin fɔ dé fáyn.*
 3SG.SBJ PST COND BE.LOC fine
 ‘That would have been fine.’ [fr03ft 172]
- b. *Porque mi séf, fɔs tén a bin de sidón dásɔl wet húman den.*
 because 1SG.INDP EMP first time 1SG.SBJ PST IPFV stay only with woman PL
 ‘Because me, formerly I was staying only with women.’ [fr03ft 173]

The preposition *fəséka* (and its free variant *fəséko*) ‘due to, for the sake of’ takes nominal, not clausal, complements (cf. e.g. 25). However, when *fəséka* is followed by the quotative marker and complementiser *sé* ‘QUOT’, the resulting collocation may introduce a cause clause like the other linkers treated in this section (155):

- (155) *Mí dú=an fəséko sé a bin wánt hélp=an.*
 1SG.INDP do=3SG.OBJ due.to QUOT 1SG.SBJ PST want help=3SG.OBJ
 ‘I [EMP] did it because I wanted to help her.’ [ro05ee 069]

10.7.8 Extent and result clauses

Speakers make use of the linker *sóté* ‘until’ in order to express a relation of temporal extent, as in the first example below. Such clauses may also be interpreted as result clauses in the appropriate context (157). *Sóté* ‘until’ is a multifunctional word that is also used as a preposition (cf. §9.1.3), as a degree adverbial (cf. §7.7.3), and in the expression of spatial extent (cf. e.g. 4):

- (156) *Mék e wét sóté mún dón, wé wi gét di məní, gó báy di chóp.*
 SBJV 3SG.SBJ wait until month finish SUB 1PL get DEF money go buy DEF food
 ‘Let him wait until the month is over, when we have the money, (then we) go buy the food.’ [hi03cb 214]
- (157) *A chóp frijoles sóté a táya.*
 1SG.SBJ eat bean.PL until 1SG.SBJ be.tired
 ‘I ate beans until I was tired (of it).’ [ed03sp 121]

Extent clauses introduced by *sóté* are marked for subjunctive mood when the speaker expresses an anticipated outcome as in (158). This usage may be due to transfer from Spanish. The equivalent Spanish conjunction *hasta que* ‘until (that)’ is also used with the subjunctive mood. Compare the subjunctive-marked *llegue* ‘arrive’ in (159).

- (158) *Tón=an tón=an, mék yu nó para sóté mék e tík lek*
 turn=3SG.OBJ turn=3SG.OBJ SBJV 2SG NEG stop until SBJV 3SG.SBJ be.thick like
háw e bin dé só.
 how 3SG.SBJ PST BE.LOC like.that
 ‘Stir it, stir it, don’t stop until it is as thick as it was right now!’ [dj03do 058]
- (159) *¡Haga cola hasta que llegue el cajero!*
 do line until that arrive:SBJV the teller
 ‘Make a line until the teller arrives!’ (Own knowledge)

However, the appearance of subjunctive marking in a clause like (158) above also harmonises with deontic notions like preference and desire that also underlie the use of subjunctive in similar clause types, e.g. purpose clauses:

10.7.9 Limit clauses

Limit clauses are formed by using the quantifying adverb *dásɔl* ‘only’ before the appropriate adverbial clause linker. Below, *dásɔl* ‘only’ collocates with *fɔ* ‘PREP’, which in turn, introduces a non-finite purpose clause:

- (160) *A bin mék=an dásɔl fɔ hélp.*
 1SG.SBJ PST make=3SG.OBJ only PREP help
 ‘I did it only in order to help.’ [dj05be 129]

The following example illustrates the use of *dásɔl* followed by *sé* ‘QUOT’, which introduces a finite complement clause:

- (161) *Wi de sí dásɔl sé di píses dón héng.*
 1PL IPFV see only QUOT DEF piece.of.cloth PRF hang
 ‘We only see that the piece of cloth is already hanging.’ [li07pe 059]

The quantifying adverb *ónli* ‘only’ may be employed in the same way as *dásɔl* and occurs equally often in limit clauses. In this sentence, *ónli* ‘only’ precedes a cause clause introduced by *bikɔs* ‘because’:

- (162) *Ónli bikɔs yu de tók só, yu de salút só, yu de ánsa*
 only because 2SG IPFV talk like.that 2SG IPFV greet like.that 2SG IPFV answer
só.
 like.that
 ‘Only because you talk like that, you greet like that, you respond like that.’
 [au07se 158]

10.7.10 Source clauses

Temporal source clauses may be introduced by the collocations *frɔn wé* {from SUB} ‘since’ and *síns wé* ‘since SUB’ = ‘since’. Both collocations require the subordinator because they involve prepositions that take nominal complements. Compare the following examples:

- (163) *Frɔn wé dán béłps de wók, chico, e dón chéneh.*
 from SUB that babe IPFV work boy 3SG.SBJ PRF change
 ‘(Ever) since that babe has been working, man, she has changed.’ [dj07ae 173]
- (164) *Frɔn wé a bí pikín a bin wánt kómót na dís kóntri.*
 from SUB 1SG.SBJ BE child 1SG.SBJ PST want go.away LOC this country
 ‘(Ever) since I was a child, I wanted to leave this country.’ [ro05ee 027]

The preposition *síns* ‘since’ is one of two dedicated temporal prepositions of Pichi (the other one being *ápás* ‘after’, cf. §8.2.2) and may introduce source clauses in combination with the subordinator *wé* ‘SUB’, cf. (165) below:

- (165) *Síns wé a bí pikín, a de mémba fɔ kɔmɔt na dí kóntri.*
 since SUB 1SG.SBJ BE child 1SG.SBJ IPFV think.of PREP go.out LOC this country
 ‘Since I was a child, I think about leaving this country.’ [li07fn 303]]

10.7.11 Conditional clauses

Table 10.5 summarises the most common ways of expressing conditional relations in Pichi. It features the three functionally identical IF-clause introducers *ɛf*, *ɛfɛ*, and *if*, all of which mean ‘if’ as well as the various types of TMA marking attested in the IF- and THEN-clauses. I comment on the relative frequency of the different constructions below:

Table 10.5 Conditional relations

Type	Introducer	IF-clause	THEN-clause
Reality	<i>ɛf</i> , <i>if</i> ‘if’	Non-modal tense & aspect	Non-modal tense & aspect
Potential	<i>ɛf</i> , <i>if</i> ‘if’	Factative TMA, <i>go</i> ‘POT’, <i>de</i> ‘IPFV’	<i>go</i> ‘POT’, <i>de</i> ‘IPFV’
Counterfactual	<i>ɛf</i> , <i>if</i> ‘if’	<i>bin</i> ‘PST’	<i>(bin) fɔ</i> ‘(PST) PREP’

For one part, a conditional relation can be expressed by the juxtaposition of clauses and a prosodic break at the margin of the first clause (indicated by commas). In such sentences, the order of clauses is iconical; the IF-clause(s) come(s) first, as in (166):

- (166) *Yu kɔmɔt dán, yu wánt énta mɔ́, yu géfɔ gó pé ɔ́da quinientos.*
 2SG go.out down 2SG want enter more 2SG have.to go pay other five.hundred
 ‘(If) you come out from below and you want to enter again, you have to go pay five hundred again.’ [f203fp 005]

Secondly, a conditional relation may be signalled overtly through the use of the equative preposition and clause linker *lek* (*sé*) {like QUOT} ‘as if, supposing that’ (167). The use of *lek* (*sé*) is not attested with counterfactuals:

- (167) *Lék sé yu de dríng nɔ́, dán pɔ́sin wé dé yandá, e de kán*
 like QUOT 2SG IPFV drink INTJ that person SUB BE.LOC yonder 3SG.SBJ IPFV come
sube wí wet glás, na di tɪn wé mék mék yu nó dríng nó
 go.up 1PL.INDP with glass FOC DEF thing SUB make SBJV 2SG NEG drink NEG
nátin wet glas.
 nothing with glass
 ‘Supposing that you were (out) drinking, right, (and) that person who is over there comes up to us with a glass, that’s what would make you not drink anything from a glass.’ [ed03sb 097]

The linker *lek* may also introduce the THEN-clauses of conditional sentences. In the few cases attested, the IF-clause is then always explicitly marked by the conditional clause introducer *ef* or *if*. This constellation renders a form of bipartite and discontinuous conditional clause marking. Compare the following sentence:

- (168) *Ef* *yu bin bigín lás wík, lek* *yu dón fínis di wók.*
 if 2SG PST begin last week like 2SG PRF finish DEF work
 ‘If you had begun last week, you would have finished the work.’ [ro05de 029]

The third way of expressing a conditional relation is the most frequent one in the data and involves one of the conditional clause linkers *ef*, *efe*, or *if* ‘if’. These forms are equivalent in meaning and occur in free variation. However, *ef* is the most frequent form. Any of these linkers may introduce the IF-clause of reality, potential, and counterfactual conditionals. Sentence (169) is a reality conditional:

- (169) *Pero ef* *na húman na big húman yu mán nó de tón big mán.*
 but if FOC woman FOC big woman 2SG man NEG IPFV turn big man
 ‘But if it’s the wife who’s an influential woman, your [her] husband doesn’t [automatically] turn into an influential man.’ [ma03hm 079]

Sentence (170) features a potential conditional relation. The most common type of potential conditional features factative TMA in the IF-clause, while the THEN-clause features the potential marker *go*. Sometimes, the imperfective marker *de* ‘IPFV’ comes to mark conditional modality in the THEN-clause instead of *go* ‘POT’ (cf. e.g. 174)

- (170) *Ef* *yu chóp ál dís chóp wé e nó dón, tumóro yu go sík.*
 if 2SG eat all this food SUB 3SG.SBJ NEG done tomorrow 2SG POT sick
 ‘If you eat/ate all this food that is not done, you’ll/d be sick tomorrow.’ [ro05ee 045]

The markers *go* ‘POT’ (171) and *de* ‘IPFV’ (172) are also found to mark conditional modality in hypothetical statements contingent upon inferred conditions. The two following sentences are not preceded by an overt IF-clause. The “condition” is deduced from context:

- (171) *Mí nó go tél=an nó nátín.*
 1SG.INDP NEG POT tell=3SG.OBJ NEG nothing
 ‘I [EMP] wouldn’t tell him anything.’ [bo03cb 138]
- (172) *Nóto mí a de énta insay dán hós ó.*
 NEG.FOC 1SG.INDP 1SG.SBJ IPFV enter inside that house SP
 ‘It’s not me who would enter that [haunted] house.’ [ne05fn 031]

Although the verb in the IF-clause of potential conditionals usually appears with factative TMA, a minority of conditionals also feature *go* ‘POT’ or *de* ‘IPFV’ in the IF-clause and in the THEN-clause, as in (173) and (174). I interpret this use as instances of modal harmony between the two hypothetical situations:

- (173) *Ɛf den go gó bér yú, den sɛn go gó na dán bérin.*
 if 3PL POT go bury 2SG.INDP 3PL EMP POT go LOC that burial
 ‘If they go to bury you, they themselves will go to that burial.’ [ed03sb 102]
- (174) *If yu nó de gí mí yu fós mán wé na in gí yú dí*
 If 2SG NEG IPFV give 1SG.INDP 2SG first man SUB FOC 3SG.INDP give 2SG.INDP this
bélé, yu de gí mi di pikín wé de kómót.
 belly 2SG IPFV give 1SG.INDP DEF child SUB IPFV come.out
Lit. ‘But the price that you have to pay (is), if you don’t give me your first man
 who it is him who gave you the first pregnancy, you will give me the child that
 will come out.’ [ed03sb 020]

Counterfactual conditionals feature the past marker *bin* in the IF-clause. In the THEN-clause, we either find the marker sequence *bin fɔ* ‘PST COND’ (175) or the conditional mood marker *fɔ* ‘COND’ alone (176) irrespective of past or present tense reference of the situation. Also note the occurrence of potential mood marking in the complement clause introduced by sé ‘QUOT’ in (176):

- (175) *Ɛf a bin sí=an yéstadé a bin fɔ gí=an di mɔní.*
 if 1SG.SBJ PST see=3SG.OBJ yesterday 1SG.SBJ PST COND give=3SG.OBJ DEF money
 ‘If I had seen her yesterday, I would have given her the money.’ [ro05de 028]
- (176) *Ɛf a bin nó sé e nó go fól a fɔ bríng ída sú.*
 if 1SG.SBJ PST know QUOT 3SG.SBJ NEG POT rain 1SG.SBJ COND bring other shoe
 ‘If I had known that it wouldn’t rain, I would have worn other shoes.’ [ma03hm 025]

The marker(s) (*bin*) *fɔ* are also encountered in counterfactual statements contingent upon inferred conditions (177). Sentence (178) illustrates that *fɔ* may fulfil the latter function by itself, without explicit tense marking by *bin*, if a past tense temporal frame has been set by prior discourse:

- (177) *E bin fɔ dé fáyn.*
 3SG.SBJ PST COND BE.LOC fine
 ‘It would have been nice.’ [fr03ft 172]
- (178) *Yu fɔ gét hemorrhagia sóté blód fínis nów.*
 2SG COND get hemorrhage until blood finish now
 ‘You would have hemorrhaged until your blood would have finished.’ [ab03ay 094]

In the vast majority of cases, the IF-clause precedes the THEN-clause in Pichi conditionals. Nevertheless, the corpus contains a few instances of initial THEN-clauses (179). These types of conditionals are pragmatically marked and usually involve focus of the proposed

THEN-clause. This example is also of interest, because it reflects some of the residual obligation meaning that the preposition *cum* modal particle *fɔ* may have in counterfactual conditionals (cf. also §6.7.3.2):

- (179) *A bin fɔ mǎred a los veinti-uno ɛf Maura in papa nó bin*
 1SG.SBJ PST COND marry at DEF.PL twenty-one if NAME 3SG.POSS father NEG PST
dáy.
 die
 ‘I should/would have married at twenty-one if Maura’s father hadn’t died.’
 [ab03ab 210]

10.7.12 Concessive clauses

Concessive meaning may be expressed by clauses introduced by *wé* ‘SUB’ (cf. 110) and *sé* ‘QUOT’ (cf. 116). Alternatively, concessive meaning may be expressed through conditional clauses in conjunction with clausal focus by means of the focus particle *séf* ‘EMP’, or by way of the Spanish-derived clause linker *aunque* ‘although’. In (180), the conditional relation is not signalled overtly. The presence of the focus particle *séf* ‘EMP’ alone is sufficient to signal concession:

- (180) *Yu nó séf, yu jós kán yu nó go sabí, yu nó go tók lɛkɛ dén.*
 2SG know EMP 2SG just come 2SG NEG POT know 2SG NEG POT talk like 3PL.INDP
 ‘Even if you know, if you have just come, you wouldn’t know, you wouldn’t talk like them.’ [ma03hm 044]

A concessive clause may also be introduced by the linkers *ɛf(ɛ)* and *if*, just like a conditional clause. TMA marking is also the same as in conditional clauses:

- (181) *ɛf yú na smól húman séf, den go kól yú dama.*
 if 2SG.INDP FOC small woman EMP 3PL POT call 2SG.INDP lady
 ‘Even if you [EMP] are an insignificant woman, they’ll call you lady.’ [ma03hm 076]

Concessive clauses are sometimes also introduced by the Spanish clause linker *aunque* ‘although’ (182):

- (182) *Aunque nóto paludismo, if den gív tratamiento yu nó go dáy.*
 although NEG.FOC malaria if 3PL give treatment 2SG NEG POT die
 ‘Even if it is not malaria, if they give you a treatment, you won’t die [of the treatment].’ [fr03wt 061]

The linker *adɔnké* ‘no matter if’ also introduces concessive clauses. *Adɔnké* is often part of a disjoint structure, namely *adɔnké* — *wáns*, ‘even if — once’. The concessive clause is introduced by the first, and the main clause by the second element (183):

- (183) (...) *adonké e nó sí yú wán hól dé, e nó b́́sin, wáns*
 even.if 3SG.SBJ NEG see 2SG.INDP one whole day 3SG.SBJ NEG be.busy once
yu bŕ́ng di pamáy_n.
 2SG bring DEF oil
 ‘Even if she didn’t see you the whole day, she didn’t care, if only you brought
 the oil.’ [ab03ab 036]

10.8 Intonation

Continuative intonation accompanies various types of clause linkage (cf. also §3.4.4). For example, it may be found at the boundary between coordinate clauses and the main and subordinate clauses in conditionals. Continuative intonation also occurs on its own without any other linker to signal a relation between adjacent clauses. By definition, serial verb construction do not, however, involve continuative intonation. They form single prosodic units. The main and subordinate clauses of relative constructions are not normally linked by continuative intonation either.

The deictic manner adverb *só* ‘like that’ in the example below bears a continuative boundary tone. Such a non-final intonation at the boundary of the first clause signals that it is linked with the subsequent one. The nature of the relation between the clauses is determined by context. In this case, a cause relation reading is favoured:

- (184) *Bókú motó den dé yá só, a nó nó sé Pancho mék leke*
 much car PL BE.LOC here like.that 1SG.SBJ NEG know QUOT NAME make like
sé e de sube bihén wí e baja mó.
 QUOT 3SG.SBJ IPFV go.up behind 1PL.INDP 3SG.SBJ go.down more
 ‘(Because) a lot of cars were just there, I didn’t know that Pancho pretended to
 go up behind us and went down again.’ [ye03cd 176]

Conditional relations are also frequently signalled by means of continuative intonation alone instead of clause linkers (185):

- (185) *Yu mék=an in fray-rés, in banána dé, e go*
 2SG make=3SG.OBJ 3SG.POSS fry.CPD-rice 3SG.POSS banana there 3SG.SBJ POT
chóp=an.
 eat=3SG.OBJ
 ‘(if/when) you make him his fried rice (and) his banana, he will eat it.’ [ro05rt 059]

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ISBN 978-3-96110-133-7



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