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the Expression of Information Structure.

A documentation of its diversity across Africa

dited by Inc. Bigdler and Anne Schwarz

The Expression of Information Structure

A documentation of its diversity across Africa

Edited by

Ines Fiedler

Humboldt University, Berlin

Anne Schwarz

Humboldt University, Berlin & James Cook University, Cairns

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ins Schwarz

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Why contrast matters

Information structure in Gawwada (East Cushitic)

Mauro Tosco University of Turin

The article discusses the information structure of Gawwada, an East Cushitic language of Southwest Ethiopia, along the lines of the Prague School and Lambrecht's (1994) theory.

Gawwada does not have any dedicated focus-marking device – contrary to previous preliminary statements and in stark contrast with many Cushitic languages of the Horn of Africa. Moreover, it is argued that the category of focus itself is only scarcely grammaticalized in this language. It is rather "Contrast", marked through a clitic element =kka, which is central to the information structure of the language. It is also argued that possibly other purported Focus Markers of other Cushitic languages (most notably Somali) may be interpreted, at least partially, as markers of contrast.

Other pragmatic-marking strategies discussed in the article include the presence vs. absence of Subject-Verb agreement, the presence vs. absence of Subject Clitics, and, to a lesser degree, word order change and object-incorporation.

. Cieneralities!

Gawwada (/kawwada/, [gawada])² is a language of southwestern Ethiopia, an area well-known for its ethnic and linguistic heterogeneity: Cushitic and Omotic language of the Afroasiatic phylum are spoken, alongside (generally to the West and along the Sudanese border) a good number of Nilotic and Surmic languages of the Nilo-Saharan phylum, and at least one language (Ongota) of uncertain classification. Gawwada itself is a dialect of the Dullay cluster, which according to current classification is a direct offspring of East Cushitic. Administratively, the region is located in the "Southern Peoples, Nations, and Nationalities Region" (until 1991 it was part of the much smaller Gamu-Gofa province, a name often still encountered). According to the 1994 Ethiopian Census there were approximately 42,000 speakers of Dullay varieties.

The Dullay-speaking people have no common ethnonym for themselves and their language. The denomination "Dullay" (introduced by Amborn, Minker and Sasse 1980) – actually the local name of the river known in Amharic as Weyt'o has largely replaced in scientific literature other terms, such as "Werizoid" (Bender 1971; Black 1976) and "Qawko" (Hayward 1978), "Gawwada" has recently been introduced in Ethiopia as a cover term for all the Dullay-speaking groups except the Ts'amakko; here "Gawwada" will be used for the dialect spoken in and around the village of Gawwada (approximately at 5°25' N, 37°14' E), about 40 km.s (one hour drive) westwards of Konso and to the north of the road leading to Jinka and the Omo valley.

Basic syntactic structure

Sentential word order in Gawwada is SOV; phrasal word order is generally Head Modifier.

As is generally the case in Cushitic, the verb is inflected (at least in the positive paradigms) for the person and number of the subject, as well as, with limitation to a third singular subject, for its gender (Masculine vs. Feminine). In the basic syntactic configuration (whose pragmatic value will be detailed further below) the verb is preceded by a subject clitic, which inflects for person but not for number nor for gender; all in all, four different subject clitics are found: 1.sm; *an= vs. 2.sm; *aC= (where C is a copy of the following consonant) vs. two clitics for a third person: a Specific ("spec") *i= vs. Generic subject ("GEN") *ia=. The subject clitics will be considered as fulfilling the syntactic role of subjects, and any NP coreferential with the subject clitic will be treated as syntactically dislocated. As predicted by the Preferred Argument Structure (Du Bois 1987), sentences with both subject and object expressed by full nominals are quite rare in spontaneous discourse. The following sentence exemplifies the canonical sentential word order:

(1) [puta]_S [puruur-e]_O [p=pperak-i]_V hyena_man wind-f spec=send-pfv.3m the hyena man sent onwards the wind (from the folktale "The Hyena Man")

More often, the NP coreferential with the subject clitic is missing:

(2) kaar-k-o saap-p-e-ma ?i = hhadd i = pa tree-SING-M aboveness-INT-PL=DIFF SPEC=climb-PFV.3M=1.09E 'he climbed upon the tree and...'
(from the folktale "The Lion and the Monkey")

Following the usage in other Cushitic languages (especially in Somali, cf. Saced 1999), one may refer to the syntactic string made up by the subject clitic, the object clitic, various adpositional and adverbial element and the verbal form, as the "Verbal Group". The internal structure of the Verbal Group reproduces the sentential SOV basic word order. Thus, a pronominal object of 1st or 2nd person follows the subject clitic before the verb:

^{1.} Data have been collected in Arba Minch and in Gawwada town in various periods of field work from 2000, I gratefully acknowledge the financial support of my former institution, the Università di Napoli "l'Orientale" for funding my research, and the help of the Institute of Ethiopian Studies at Addis Ababa University for the permission to carry on fieldwork in Ethiopia. The final version of this article was written in August 2006 during a stay at the Max Planck Institute for Evolutionary Anthropology in Leipzig, whose assistance I gratefully acknowledge. Thanks are also due to an anonymous referee for many insightful comments and criticisms.

The transcription is phonological and follows I. P. A. conventions, except for $<\hat{s}>=$ IPA /J/, $<\hat{c}>=$ IPA /J/, and $<\hat{y}>=$ IPA /J/, </>> and <math><//>>= mark the boundary of a non-terminal and a terminal intonation unit, respectively.

All errors and omissions are, of course, my exclusive intellectual property.

Voice opposition is not phonological for plain stops, and voiceless /p, t, k/ are used throughout in the transcription. This is an areal feature encompassing Dullay, Konsoid, and possibly other varieties, as shown by Sasse (1986).

^{3.} For the subject clitics in Gawwada and Cushitic, cf. Tosco (2005); for a feature-geometric account and a comparison with the subject clitics of various Romance varieties, cf. Tosco (2007).

Phonological stress induces the gemination of a following consonant across a clitic boundary.

(3) Pan ho haas a pa LSBJ 2SG,M,OBJ tell IPPV ISG=LINK 'I tell you...' (opening line of riddles)

There is no object clitic of 3rd person; adpositional phrases with a 3rd person pronominal object are represented before the verbal form by the Mover affix n-(MOV) followed by Centrifugal -a (OUT) or Centripetal -u (IN). In (4) and (5) n-u= is cliticized to the following verbal form, and its referent is contextually determined; the same applies to =n-a in (6):

- (4) n-u=sall-û=ppa

 MOV-IN=speak-CONS.3M=LINK

 'and he told them to...' (from the folktale "The Lost Hunter")
- (б) n-a-ye-padaw моу-опт=1sg.ов)=add.iмв.sg 'give me more of it!' (from the folktale "The Hyena Man")

A MOV-IN OF MOV-OUT sequence may be further followed by the Diffusive position = ma (DIFF), building with it a phonological word:

(7) karr-att-akk-o kaww-att-o ?i=nn-a=ma
squirrel-sing-sing-m stone_wall-sing-m spec=mov-out=diff
do!-os-i=pa
fall-caus-pfy.3m=link
'the Squirrel made a stone wall fall upon him (: the Dove)'
(from the folktale "The Francolin and the Squirrel")

The SOV and HMod word orders are followed quite strictly; apart from occasional afterthoughts, an exception is made for the rare positioning of antitopic material after the verb (on which see Section 3.3 below).

3. Theoretical background

Following a tradition going back at least to the Prague School, I assume that propositions are universally structured into a presupposed and a non-presupposed portion, or Topic and Focus, respectively. Broadly speaking, "topic is a linguistic counterpart of the presystemic notion of known or 'given' information and 'focus'

ts that part of the sentence structure that conveys 'new information' in the prote-typical case" (Hapicová, Parice and Sgall 1998.3). Topic will therefore be defined here in terms of aboutness and reference, i.e. as, roughly speaking, as the part of the proposition which is talked about and is the centre of current interest. As regards Focus, the notion of "new information" needs elucidation. As is well known, the focal part of a proposition is not necessarily new in the discourse; it is rather informationally new, i.e., it fills a gap in the previous state of knowledge. This applies in innumerable cases but is most patently evident in identificational questions and answers (of the type "Who did X?" – "Y did"); the speaker who makes the question is often familiar with the referent which is provided (and which is coded as the Focus) in the answer, Still, s/he cannot associate it with the missing element in her/his state of knowledge. This element is "new" not because of its status in the discourse, but in relation to the asserted proposition. "Cf. Lambrecht (1994: 257) and the following for an ample discussion of "newness" and focus.

Focus will therefore be defined here as

"the element of information whereby the presupposition and the assertion differ from each other. The focus is that portion of a proposition which cannot be taken for granted at the time of speech. It is the *unpredictable* or pragmatically *non-recoverable* element in an utterance."

(Lambrecht 1994, 207; emphasis in the original)

Contrastive focus and focalization as a marker of theticity (two major domains of focalization in African languages) will cover only a subset of the overall focus configurations of a language and will be dealt with in separate sections. Following again Lambrecht (1994), 1 will further assume three major focus categories predicate focus (PF), sentence focus (SF), and argument focus (AF). These in turn correspond, respectively, to Topic-Comment, Event-reporting (or Presentational), and Identificational structures.

Before turning to the expression of Focus, the next section will expound the structure of Topic in Gawwada. It will be shown that, not unexpectedly. Topic will not be marked as such, that its position within the predication will be (a few exceptions pending) initial, and that its role will be generally (but not always) expressed syntactically by a subject.

^{5.} C.f. Lambrecht (1993) 257 fell) for an ample discussion of "newness" and form

^{6.} C.I. Corem (2000) for an employee of localization in Altican languages following a ninch stractor of fundamental focus, and to the exclusion of Topic Commental tractures.

Topics

The SOV sentence word-order of Gawwada mirrors the pragmatic structure Topic Comment. Sentence (1) above, repeated here below, is taken from a folktale whose actors are: the hyena man; his victim, a girl; and her elder brother, who at last succeeds in killing the hyena man and literally rescues his sister from the grave. In the sentences preceding (1), the brother had set up to kill the hyena man, who is now re-introduced as the topic:

(1) [puta]_{TOP} [*uruur-e *i=**erak-i]_{roc} hyena man wind-p spec=send-ppv.3m 'the hyena man, he sent onwards the wind' (from the folktale "The Hyena Man")

This example also shows that nouns in Gawwada need no determination in order to be grounded in a sentence: puta is "the" hyena man of the story, and it does not need articles (not existent in Gawwada) nor other deictic material.

A deictic can nevertheless be present; in the same folktale, the hyena man is referred to as puta=s-i; =s-i is made up of the Deictic =s- (DEICT) followed by Specific 1 (spec), here (as usually in texts) with an anaphoric meaning. Although present previously in the text, the hyena man had been superseded in the preceding sentences by the other major actor (the girl's brother). The use of the deictic material reactivates it:

(8) t = i - u $rac{3}{a} = y - i / [puta = s - i]_{TOP}$ P-OUT-SPEC=MOV-IN GEN=tell-PFV.3M hyena_man=DEICT-SPEC [haarre saap-p-e=ma 4=hhadd-i=pa] donkey F above INT-PL=DIFF SPEC=climb-PFV.3M=LINK "Then, they say, that hyena man mounted upon his donkey and..." (from the folktale "The Hyena Man")

On the other hand, a full nominal may obviously be absent and its place be taken by an independent personal pronoun:

(9) [4so] rop [4 kkell-am act i pa], or MAIDE SPEC WARTI-PASS-MID-PEV.3M LINK 'he had been warned, but...' (from the folktale "The Two Mice")

The presence in topic position of a full NP and of a pronoun is a relatively care strategy; more commonly, the topic is represented only by the relevant subject clitic and the verbal inflexion. In the following excerpt the subject of the first clause only (which was introduced earlier as (7)) is overtly mentioned ("the Squirrel"), while in the second clause the referent of the subject is understood by default (lack of an overt subject implying continuity of subjects), and in the third sentence through agreement (third plural) and textual inference (the two protagonists of the story are the Squirrel and the Francolin):

(10) [karr-att-akk-o] inc. Ikaww att-o squirrel-sing-sing-M stone_wall-sing-M $do^{\varsigma}-os-i=pa]_{FOC}$ 2i=nn-a=mafall-CAUS-PFV.3M=LINK SPEC=MOV-OUT-DIFF [paš-o hulul-itt-atte=s-í [pog-ú=ppa] roc/ kill-cons.3m=link field-m dove-sing-assoc.f=deict-spec dim-ad-onki] harvest-MID-CONS.3PL 'the Squirrel made a stone wall fall upon him (: the Dove), so that he (: the Squirrel) killed him (: the Dove), and therefore they (: the Squirrel and the Francolin) could harvest the Dove's field' (from the folktale "The Francolin and the Squirrel")

In the following sentence the first NP (piy-e 'the ground') can be understood as known (it is the area under the Monkey's tree and where the Lion presently is) it is therefore topical. Topicality is expressed here through the Delette Specific combination =s-i (cf. (8) above):

bów (11) $[piy-e=s-i]_{TOP}$ [hard-o=tta-i land-F=DEICT-SPEC hand-M=INSTR-SPEC IDEOPH pay-as-ú=ppa]_{roc} [šog-ú] say-caus-cons.3m=link hit-cons.3m 'and [the Lion] struck the ground with his paw: BOOM!' (from the folktale "The Lion and the Monkey")

Although the pragmatic role of Topic is commonly played by the syntactic subject, it can also be filled by a previously introduced, and therefore known and topical, object. In the following sentence the indirect object 'iso 'he' is in sentence initial position, followed by the direct object ?aak-it-akk-o 'an animal':

Paak-it-akk-o (12) Piso kal e mal von 3M IDP downhill POIFF animal sing sing M an derak n il.... Lang send pur revisor 'I'll send befond him an animal' (from the followle "The Lion and the Monfey")

Occasionally and very rarely, a topic may appear in postverbal position, as an antitopic, Prosodically, an antitopic often forms its own intonational unit, and as such it is separated from the preceding verbal form:

(13) [weyt-o=kka ?an=?aak-i]_{roc}/ [ano] TOP W.-M. CONTR LSBJ go home-pfv.lsg lsg.idp 'I went home to Weyto, me' (from a conversation)

Topic-comment structures and the formal unmarkedness of focus in Gawwada

In Gawwada, the basic word order SXV (where X may be null) is used for categorical sentences (as opposed to thetic sentences, on which see below Section 6) and refleets a pragmatic order Topic-Focus. Any shared (by the speaker and the audience) knowledge which is necessary in order to understand the sentence is presented first, followed by any "new" (in the sense outlined in Section 3) material - which is in tocus. In Lambrecht's (1994) terms, it is a predicate focus (PF) structure.

The focal part of the sentence can include an object NP (as in (1) above), or an adpositional phrase, as in (14):

(14) [kels-akk-o] TOP [kaar-k-ito saap-p-ete monkey-sing-M tree-sing-assoc.m aboveness~INT-ASSOC.PL H= Sakk-ad-il, oc SPEC Sit-MID-PFV.3M 'the Monkey was sitting on a tree' (from the folktale "The Lion and the Monkey")

the new information may on the contrary also be represented by a bare verbal form preceded by the relevant subject clitic:

(1'a [puta] for [it pput in a] for byena man spec tall sem pev 3m mov our the hyena man fell down, and ... (from the folkfale "The Hyena Man")

Given the absence of an object pronoun of third person, this is especially common whenever the verb is transitive and the object is known. The Topic is represented by the Subject Clitic and can be interred from the preceding context:

(16) I'l llag as i a alone sere morallow cars per sie may our The made him swallow it, and ... (from the followie "The Lone and the Munkey") In verbless sentences the focal part of the sentence is represented by a nominal:

(17) |saamb o h aayu|₁₀₀ [setten]_{gav} M-18G, POSS eight DOV-M 'I have eight sons' (lit.: "My boys are eight") (from "Makurra Garmane's story")

In a very few cases neither a verbal form nor a nominal are necessary in order to have new information; in (18) an ideophone is used in order to predicate something about a nominal:

(18) $^{7}an=ho=haa\check{s}-a=pa$ $[xatt-e]_{TOP}$ $[lipp]_{FOC}$ 1.SBJ=2SG.M.OBJ=tell-IPFV.1SG=LINK [sarg-o] TOP [hiss] FOC arm-M 'I tell you: "The fire (makes) lípp, and the arm (makes) híss" (from the riddle "The Night")

This structure is stylistically marked for riddles; much as other riddles are built upon a second clause which is counterexpectational in respect to a first clause (cf. (39), (40), (41), (49)), here we have a parallel structure built upon two elements, each of which is predicated with an ideophone not followed, as usual ideophones are (cf. (11), (43)), by the verb pay 'to say', thus creating a mild contrastive effect.

A verbal form may be likewise omitted in answers if the verbal form can be inferred from the question, as in the following exchange in a spontaneous conversation:

a=las-i? (19) Q.: pirr-e me?e GEN=sell-pfv.3m Birr-PL how many 'How much they sell it?' pirr-e setten]_{FOC} A.: [huɗanko ?izzah=pa three=LINK Birr-PL eight 'Thirty-eight Birrs [Ethiopian Dollars]' (from a conversation)

The structure of the focal part of the sentence can be quite complex: in the following sentence the order of the two NPs, both of them focal, follows iconically the direction and goal of the movement (first the direction, then the final destination). The Subject (and Topic) is represented only by the verbal agreement on the verbal form (a, marking a Third Musculine of the First Class of the Dependent paradigm), while all the semence is at facus:

(20) kal-a piy-atte karm-ita
downhill-out ground-assoc.v lion-assoc.m
pak-o-ma pus-s-a
mouth-m=diff fall-sem-cons.3m
'and [the Monkey] fell down to the ground into the Lion's mouth'
(from the folktale "The Lion and the Monkey")

Topic Comment sentences may be taken as the default pragmatic structure of the language. Whatever the complexity of these sentences, their pragmatic implication is all borne out negatively: no special marking (either lexical markers or special morphosyntactic devices) is used, nor any word order change from SOV. As a consequence of the fact that Topic-Comment structures are unmarked for focal articulation (cf. Lambrecht 1994: 296), they are often open to alternative focus readings; while most sentences presented in this section are instances of Predicate Focus, (19) above, which is an answer to a WH question, is patently a case of Argument Focus, which will be dealt with in detail further below. Gawwada is essentially not different from English in this respect: English sentences in which the predicate (the default domain for focus) is accented often permit two or more focus readings. As Lambrecht puts it, different focus construals 'are not uniquely determined by the prosodic structure of the various sentences. Rather they are, in part at least, determined by the expectations created with the context questions' (Lambrecht 1994: 298). This is captured in the following "Principle of Predicate-Focus Interpretation":

"Sentences whose verb phrases carry an accent have predicate-focus structure. The predicate-focus structure is the unmarked focus structure and allows for alternative focus readings. Such alternative readings are contextually determined."

(Lambrecht 1994: 304)

Similar are the Topic-Comment structures of Gawwada: they are the default structure and they too allow for alternative readings – most notably, as Argument Focus structures. The latter are contextually determined.

But pragmatically marked structures do obviously exist in Gawwada. It is to them, against the backdrop of the default Topic-Comment sentences, that we turn in the next sections.

Thetic sentences and the focalization of new subjects

In thetic sentences the bipartite organization of the sentence into a presupposed and a non-presupposed portion is by definition absent: "[T]he thetic statement forms a unit with respect to what it contributes to the discourse at a given point. It expresses a pragmatically unanalyzed state of affairs and presents it as a piece of complex information" (Sasse 1987: 558, emphasis in the original); it is a *monomial predication* (Sasse 1995: 4; emphasis in the original). Therefore, in thetic sentences no element is predictable or presupposed; rather, "both the subject and the predicate are in focus. The focus domain is the sentence, minus any topical non-subject arguments" (Lambrecht 2000: 617).

Thetic sentences are the only place in Gawwada where an unmistakable focus configuration is used – although without a specific focus marker.

In order to express theticity, languages have recourse to a wide array of structures, whose common denominator is the fact that subjects lose, partially or totally, their subject properties, either in terms of case-marking, control of agreement, position in the sentence, and the like. They can also be introduced through a presentative particle or verb, or have special intonational features. In Cushitic languages, neither presentative elements nor intonation are available to mark pragmatic functions. Rather, the usual strategy to introduce a new participant in the semantic role of subject is to have recourse to what is normally called subject focalization. Basically, this involves the suspension of subject-verb agreement. Second, in languages with a morphologically-marked subject case (such as Somali and 'Afar), this will likewise be absent, and the subject NP will appear in the so-called absolute case-form. Finally, if Subject Clitics precede the verbal form in the basic syntactic configuration, no Subject Clitics will appear in thetic sentences.

^{7.} On her part, Rosengren stresses that "[T]he distinction thetic/categorical is an extralinguistic, conceptual distinction between two ways to prespectivize an event. Thetic stands for a perspective where an event is looked upon as a stage, that is, an event in the flow of other (potential) events; categorical stands for a perspective where an event is divided into two parts, one of which in turn is viewed as an entity to which something happens or which is doing something" (Rosengren 1997: 472; emphasis in the original).

^{8.} An exception is made for polar questions, which are marked by high pitch on the final syllable. The rare use in East Cushitic of intonation in order to mark pragmatic functions is possibly linked to the pitch-accent nature of accent in these languages. Cf. Dik (1997: 328, fn. 16.) on the tendency of tone languages not to use accentuation (or accentuation alone) in order to mark focus.

^{9. &#}x27;The absence of subject marking and of subject verb agreement suggests that the origin of this construction lies in a cleft sentence. C.f. Heine and Reh (1983) for an early African overview, as well as Simeone-Senelle, Vanhove and Houmedgaba (2000) for an analysis of the 'Afar focus along similar lines'.

In certain East Cushitic languages all three structural properties are found—with the possible added complication (e.g. in Somali; Saeed 1984) of a reduction of subject-verb agreement, rather than its total suspension. In languages in which no Subject Clitics exist, such as 'Afar (cf. Simeone-Senelle, Vanhove and Houmedgaba 2000), one will only find the suspension of subject-verb agreement (with the verb appearing in the form of the third singular feminine in 'Afar) and the absence of subjectal markings on the subject. In Gawwada, where the category of case is not realized on nouns, only the absence of the Subject Clitics and the suspension of the subject-verb agreement—with the verb appearing in the form found with a 3M subject whatever the gender, person, and number of its logical subject—are relevant. A further, by no means obligatory correlate of Sentence Focus is word-order change, whereby the subject comes to occupy the position immediately before the verbal form, with all the other nominals preceding it.

All this can be summarized in the following scheme:

Expression of Sentence Focus in Thetic sentences in Gawwada:
Rule # 1: verb in the 3M form;
Rule #2: no Subject Clitic
Rule #3 (optional): SXV → XSV

In the first sentence of the following excerpt (which is also the first sentence of a folktale), the subject is plural but the verb (${}^{s}uk$ -a) is in the third singular masculine form; by way of comparison, the second sentence, in which the same subject nouns are topical, contains an inflected third plural form, preceded by Specific $i = (i + \nabla uk \cdot anki)$:

xašarr-itt-e=pa=n-a (21) knyas-k-o tor-okk-o francolin-sing-F=Link=MOV-OUT day-sing-m one-sing-m karr att akk-o Ille=tta=i Sand e squirrel-sing-sing-m REC=INSTR=SPEC water-PL Suk-o/ ?j=\$\$nk-ankj=nna drink 1PFV.3M SPEC=drink-1PFV.3PL=MOV-OUT one day the Francolin and the Squirrel were drinking water together. As they were drinking....' topening lines of the folktale "The Francolin and the Squirrel")

This structure is the normal choice whenever new participants, who will later become topical, are introduced; it is therefore particularly common at the onset of a story. Other examples include (22) and (23). In both cases the subject is Masculine; Rule #1 (absence of subject verb agreement) is therefore "invisible", but Sentence Focus is still marked by the absence of the Specific #i= in front of the verb (Rule #2);

- (22) kan eⁱⁿ to cite karm o taak e mule=n-u mal-i=pa day r one sing r lion M animal-ri all=MOV-IN cheat-PFV.3M=LINK 'One day the lion cheated all the animals, and...' (opening line of the folktale "The Lion and the Monkey")
- (23) k'an-e to'-ott-e quw-li-o qooš-i=pa
 day-F one-SING-F man-SING-M hunt-PFV.3M=LINK
 dap-ad-ú
 lose-MID-CONS.3M
 'One day a man went hunting and got lost' ("there was a man who went hunting and got lost"; opening line of the folktale "The Lost Hunter")¹¹

Examples (21) and (22) further show that monoargumentality of the verb (intransitive, medio-passives, etc.) does not apply as a criterion for theticity in Gawwada (cf. Sasse 1995: 20 ff. for a discussion of monoargumentality in thetic constructions in European languages): it is true that in (21) <code>Sand-e Suk-a Swere</code> drinking water' could in principle be interpreted as an instance of an incorporated-object construction ("they were water-drinking"; cf. below, Section 9), and therefore be ruled out as an instance of a transitive verb in a thetic sentence; but this analysis is certainly excluded for <code>Saak-e mulo=n-u mal-i=pa</code> 'cheated all the animals' in (22). The same applies to the riddle in (24), which is a text composed of a single clause:

- (24) cikkir-e t-ayyu takk-ay-a shaving_knife-F F-1sg.poss little-INT-M piy-e mulo gun-i land-F all shave-PFV.3M 'my little shaving-knife shaved the whole country' (from the riddle "The Fire"; cikkir-e is Feminine; the non-Sentence-Fire is form of the verb would be $\mathcal{H}=\mathcal{G}\mathcal{G}un-ti$)
- (25) is instead a proverb made up of two clauses; as the verb of the second clause is in the Imperative mood the two clauses are linked by the enclitic element = ye. The subject of the first clause is Masculine, and again Rule #2 only (absence of the Subject Clitic) is in evidence:

^{10.} Kan-e 'day' is a loan from Ambaric Kän. It is common in the opening line of folkstories instead of native kuyas k.o.

^{11.} The absence of Subject Clairs on the verb of the second clause (dap-ad-à 'he got lost') has nothing to do with Sentence Focus. It is rather determined by the following conclitions; the verb is in the Consecutive paradigm (which is used under specific conditions on any non-first number of a chain of clauses), moreover, the two clauses share the same subject.

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(25) Forhan-k-o xaf-i=ye/ toosad-e leef-a
spear-sing-m arrive-prv.3m=link.imp cutting stick-r sharpen-impsi
"The spear arrives - sharpen your cutting-stick!" [the spear is here a metaphor for the rain, whose arrival marks the beginning of work in agriculture]
(a proverb)

As it has been mentioned, a possible correlate of Sentence Focus is the position of the subject directly before the verb, preceded by temporal or locative adverbials and complements:

(26) šull-ito warś-e 'ak-a
calabash-assoc.m beer-r be_there-iprv.3m
'There is beer in the calabash' (elicited sentence; warś-e 'beer' is feminine)

vs. the corresponding categorical, topic-comment sentence, with Subject-Verb agreement and SXV word order:

(26') warš-e šull-ito ?[=55ak-ta beer-p calabash-Assoc.m spec=be_there-ippv.3p "The beer is in the calabash' (elicited sentence)

The same word order is found in the following two textual examples: in (27), which is the onset of a folktale, the subject (\$eet-t-e\$ 'girl') is preceded by the same adverbial of time seen in (22) and (23) (\$kan-e\$ to?-ott-e\$; 'one day') as well as a complement of space (\$koll-atte* 'at the river'); similarly in (28) the subject (\$puffa\$^c-e\$ 'hunger') is preceded by a topical pronoun (\$ye=s-i* 'me') and a deictic expression (\$h-a-i=s-a hoorr-ito* 'here in the forest'):

(27) kan-e to to tote koll-atte seet-t-e
day-F one-sing-F river-assoc.F girl-sing-F
sand-e meed-ad-a
water-PL fetch-MID-IPFV.3M
'there was one day a girl who was fetching water at the river'
(from the folktale "The Hyena Man")

As well as:

(28) ye=s-i h-a-i=s-a

1sg.obj=deict-spec m-out-spec=deict-gen

hoorr-ito kitt-atte puffac-e ye=pod-a=n-a

forest-assoc.m within-assoc.r hunger-r 1sg.obj=kill-ipfv.3m=mov-out

'here in the forest hunger is killing me...' (from the folktale "The Two Mice")

(puffac-e 'hunger' is Feminine)

It must nevertheless be mentioned that, independently of pragmatic considerations, adverbials of time and place tend to occur at the left-edge of the clause (cf. also (54) and (55) below). Moreover, the rightwards shift of a subject after an object is very rare in our corpus – cf. again the SOV word order in (21) (xašarr itt-e=pa=n-a [...] sand-e suk-a), (22) (karm-o saak-e mulo=n-u mal-i=pa), and (24) (cikkir-e [...] piy-e mulo dun-i), and is best considered a tendency in Gawwada. It is nevertheless very salient and can be interpreted as a strong clue in order to recover the Sentence Focus in a language where other clues are often absent.

Marking contrast: =kka

Apart from the presence or absence of the Subject Clitics in front of the verb and the presence vs. absence of Subject-Verb agreement – which we have seen to be the strategies used in Gawwada to express Sentence Focus – Sasse (in Amborn, Minker and Sasse 1980) lists as pragmatic-marking devices for the Dullay cluster (and in particular the Eastern dialects Harso and Dobaze) object-incorporation (formally identified as the presence of a nominal object immediately before the verb and after the Subject Clitic, i.e.: Subj. Cl. O V) and the use of the "focus markers" = kka and = tta. On the negative side, one can add as a peculiarity of Gawwada (and of Dullay in general) the absence of clefts – an unexpected fact, clefts being widespread in Ethiopian languages (cf. Appleyard 1989).

Gawwada words normally end in one and only one vowel. Exceptions are most numerals (cf. (17), (39)), the ideophones (cf. (18), (33)), and most imperative singular verbal forms.

5.1 =kka: from "additive particle" to "contrast marker"?

When asked about the meaning of =kkn, native speakers often point out that it means "also, too". The following are two examples from a much wider corpus:

- (29) kawwar-k-o "i="faik-i=pa=na"
 G.=sing-M sprc=go-pev.3M=link=mov-out
 minn-add-e=kka dil-l-o=ppa
 house-plur-pl=contr burn=sem-cons.3M=link
 'the Gawwadas marched on and they further set fire to the houses (of the enemy)' (from the text "The War between Gawwada and Gollango")
- minn add etc ol ha 110 house-plur-assoc.pl thing-sing-m m-m hoq q al e ma / la yil-n-i full-int-caus-vn=diff GEN eat-FUT-PFV.3M Pol-akk-a kar a pod da kka м-м people-м kill-sam-тмрк3м-сомти thing-sing-M N=SSak-a-pa SPEC-be there-IPPV.3M=LINK 'in the houses there is plenty of things one can eat; there is also something which kills people' (from the folktale "The Two Mice")

Of course, =kka in (29) may also be rendered with "even; too" (e.g., 'they even set fire to the houses'), and some degree of contrast is evident in (30) ("but there is..."): the "additive" meaning of =kka, which is the most evident to speakers, is probably the starting point of a grammaticalization process leading eventually to the (textually far more common) use of =kka as a full marker of contrast, to which we turn now.¹³

7.2 Contrasting topic: =kka as a topic-switching device

=kka occurs in a number of pragmatic functions, but it seems possible to assume "contrast" as the common denominator of them all (=kka will therefore be glossed "contra"). The constituent under contrast may itself be the topic (or a part of it)

or the focus (or, again, a part of it). This alone suffices to bar a characterization of -kka in terms of a focus marker tout court.

Bearth (1999) has rightly stressed the importance of studying the pragmatic markers from their textual, spontaneous use. It is a fact that as soon as one leaves the question and answer framework upon which much syntactic work has traditionally been based and delves into actual texts and spontaneous conversations, it becomes apparent that many purported "focus markers" are actually something else, or they are not only, nor essentially, focus markers at all.

Cushitic languages are no exception to this. The most obvious example is Somali, whose grammar of focus is without a doubt the single most studied syntactic feature of the language. Following a tradition going back at least to Andrzejewski (e.g., 1964, 1975) and further pursued by Saeed (e.g., 1984, 1999), Lecarme (e.g., 1994), Puglielli (e.g., 1981) and her associates in Rome (e.g., Svolacchia, Moreu and Puglielli 1995), and many others, we have obtained a fairly fine grained knowledge (often couched within a generative framework) of the syntactic conditionings of "focus marking" in Somali. In contrast, the pragmatic and discourse conditioning of focus have received much less attention; among the very few studies dealing with the pragmatics of Somali sentences, one can mention Hetzron (1965), El-Solami-Mewis (1980, 1981), and, in particular, Gebert (1986). As a consequence, attention has been brought upon the conditions for the placement of "narrow" focus and the order of topical NPs within the sentence, while texts (be them written or oral) have hardly been studied at all (a notable exception being Ajello 1995). Still, an analysis of textual material reveals a starkly different picture: on the basis of an analysis of Somali written texts, Tosco (2003) has argued that focus is only one, nor even the most prominent, function of the Somali focus markers baa and ayaa. In fact, their use as topic-switching and action-enhancing devices is central in text-building.

Much the same is true of Gawwada =kka: while from the elicitation of isolated sentences one could well get the impression of =kka as a bona fide focus marker, as soon as one is confronted with texts and spontaneous conversations one realizes that the picture is much more complicated. And just as in Somali, from an analysis of oral, generally unplanned texts and spontaneous conversations it emerges that one of the textually most prominent functions of =kka is its use as a topic-switching and topic-resumptive device; by marking contrast against the active topic, =kka therefore re-activates an old one.

The following sentence is a very easy example of the topic-switching value of =kka: the family of a missing man has consulted a sorcerer; after he has explained what to do, the family once again assumes the role of topical subject, and is marked by =kka:

^{23.} In Somali one finds a postelitic particle ba with the meanings: (a) distributive ('each, who ever', etc.); (b) 'at all', 'even', and (c) 'also' (cf. Musse and Andrejewski 1956: 67–68 for a good summary with many examples). The origin of the Somali focus markers baa and apaa is unknown; although Lamberti (1984) proposes a development from a former copula verb, a connection between ba and baa is at least a possibility.

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(31) n-u='allu-ppu / [*usunde=kka] rop *!=**ass-e

MOV-IN=Speak-CONS.3M=LINK 3PL.IDF=CONTH SPEC=go-PFV.3PL
'... he spoke to them; and they went away'

(from the folktale "The Lost Hunter")

In a similar vein, in the folktale "The Lion and the Monkey" the Lion summons all the animals, with the secret intention to choose among them his next meal. The Monkey only does not attend. After that, the Lion is reintroduced as the protagonist of the story. It comes as no surprise that it is marked by =kka:

(32) ye sokaay-û ppa / [karm o ska] top.

NEG.3 come PEV.NEG.3 LINK hon M contus

sasa-k-o kat-a i spec think-mid-pev.3m

'(the Monkey only) did not come; therefore, the Lion thought in his heart...'

(from the folktale "The Lion and the Monkey")

Still, Gawwada is very different from Somali: Somali *baa*, *ayaa* and their allomorphs are indeed used in order to mark a newly introduced constituent – and this is probably their most common function in transitive clauses, especially in isolation. Gawwada = *kka* is never employed in this way. As a result of his cogitations in (32) above, the Lion decides to send after the Monkey another animal, and in (33) the Hyena is introduced, becoming the new topic (and, syntactically, the subject) immediately afterwards:

(33) [*oraap-att-c *erak-û]_{roc} // [*oraap-att-c]_{TOP} hyena-sing-F send-cons.3m hyena-sing-F [*!=*?assi-ti=pa]_{roc} spec=go-pfv.3F=Link
'... and he [: the Lion] sent the Hyena; the Hyena went and,...' (from the folktale "The Lion and the Monkey")

A similar sentence in Somali would require the presence of a focus marker in order to be grammatical:

(33') waraaba-ha b-uu dir-ay hyena-m,art foc-3m send-pst.3m 'he sent the Hyena' (Somali)

Forcing instead the presence of =kka in Gawwada would yield a grammatical sentence, but with a completely different reading:

(33") **oraap-att-e=kka **erak-a**
hyena-sino-r=conta send-cons.3m
'... and he [: the Lion] sent the Hyena too'

From (33) one further sees that, as anticipated in Section 4 above on Topics, a recently introduced element is frequently not pronominalized in its second occurrence as a topic, and it is frequently repeated as full noun in the following intonation unit. This "pronoun avoidance" is evident in many similar examples, such as (34):

(34) Paak-e Parass-e Parap-k-o=n-u
animal-pl spec=go-pfv.3pl elephant-sing-m=mov-in
Sall-onki=nn-a /
speak-cons,3pl=mov-out
[Parap-k-o=kka]_{TOP} Pl=kkišaas-a=pa
elephant-sing-m=contr spec=laugh-ipfv.3m=link
"The animals went and told the Elephant. So the Elephant laughed and (from the folktale "The Elephant and the Frog")

Contrary to the second clause in (33), in (34) the subject of the second clause in also followed by =kka, although the Elephant (2arap -k-a) is certainly topical in this context (being present in the clause immediately preceding). Why is it so? A further difference may explain this: in (34) the verb of the first clause (5ali - 5ali - 5ali) is followed by the 5ali - 5ali on 5ali ; for the absence of the Subject Clitic cf. fn. 10) is followed by the 5ali - 5ali postpositional clitic =n(n)- 14 , while neither =n(n)a nor other clitics are found after the verb of the first clause in (33) (2erak - 4a) in esent'). The presence vs. absence of =kka is here linked to the presence vs. absence of a postposition on the preceding verb: in (33) the two actions (sending the Hyena after the Monkey on the part of the Lion and the Hyena leaving) are seen as separate and independent actions (and a rather long pause intervenes between them). In (34), on the contrary, the two clauses are linked, but the topic is switched: the animals in the first clause speak to the Elephant and tell him of the Frog's plan to kill him; as a consequence, the Elephant bursts into laughter. Here =kka acts therefore as a topic-switching device.

Similarly, in (35) the Lion, who had been the addressee of the animals' speech in the preceding clauses, is reintroduced once again as the topic and the main actor, and is marked by =kka:

^{14.} =n- and other clitics (such as =pa LINIK, and =ma DIFF) have their consonant geminated (resulting in =nn-, =ppa, =mma) when the preceding syllable bears a phonological stress (cf. fn. 5) and also as a result of the assimilation of the last consonant of the preceding word.

^{15.} For the syntax and semantics of clause linking in Gawwada cf. Tosco (2008)

(35) Pass-a-pa ala teem may 28G IDP GO IMPSG=LINK Try-SEM-CONS.28G Pasy 1/ tainu POUT-SPEC-MOV-IN GEN-Say-PPV.3M [karm o kka] rop 2 hhat i pa Pass ii ppa lion M CONTR SPEC Set_up PPV3M LINK go CONS.3M LINK "... you go and try yourself!" - they [; the animals] said. And so the Lion got up and left.... (from the folktale "The Lion and the Monkey")

Further examples of =kka in its role of a topic-switching element are (36) and (37): here the Francolin, who has been spoken to by the Squirrel, becomes the topical subject and is re-introduced with the independent pronoun "ise 'she' followed by =kka

- (36) Pan tard i ve ye=šah / Lary be tired-pry. Iso Link.imp Iso.org wash-impso Pise kkal ron 4 Soh-ti pa SPIDE CONTR SPEC WASh-PEV,3P CINK 10 I am tired - so wash me!". And she washed him... (from the folktale "The Francolin and the Squirrel")
- dees a ppa/ ass a pa pas a go improuting look for cons.2sg=link field-m to okk o na taki kom ko tree-sing M one-sing M Mov-out be there-prv.3M h-aani ve dim-oy // M TPL POSS LINKIMP hit-cons.2sg Pise kkal Top dars at ti pa saran-k-o JUIDP CONTR goatskin-sing-m collect-MID-PPV.3F-LINK 'ass o ppa go-cons. 31 LINK '(The Squirrel told her:) "Go and look: that field which has only one tree in it is ours; so harvest it!" And so she [: the Francolin] took up a goatskin and went...' (from the folktale "The Francolin and the Squirrel")

In the following excerpt from a first-person account of a hunting party the use of akka after the personal pronoun restarts the narration and resets it in motion after the description of what the hunters found hidden in the forest:

(38) an Jeem mad incom a mirk-itt-e Labrelook and and relectionary out bushbuck and a lakki mi'ay e-pa yany e fille hours-ad-a/ two child be like mother a rec suck-mid-ippy.3m Pano kkal jon xattay kaw-e ISG.IDP=CONTR quickly gun-F ²an=n-a=laak-i=pa 1.sbj=mov-out=turn-prv.1sg=link 'we looked around: and there were two bushbucks, a mother and her cub, suckling. So I quickly pointed my gun at them and...' (from the text "A Hunting Party")

Contrasting focus: =kka as a counterexpectation marker 7-3

Similar to its use as a topic-switching device but closer to the traditional concept of a focus element in Cushitic is the use of =kka as a counterexpectational marker. In this use, =kka follows a new element and operates as a focus marker. At the same time, the newly-introduced element sets the scene for the next clause, which runs against the expectations created by the first. By this operation of scene-setting, the first clause becomes topical at the discourse level: still, =kka marks it qua new and focal.

In (39), a riddle, =kka appears in its variant k= because the preceding word, the numeral salah 'four,' is consonant-ending. The presence of =kka on the object of the first clause makes sense only at the light of what follows, and the whole could be rendered as: "look here: I got four legs, and still I cannot walk":

(39) $[luk \sim k - e]$ salah_{FOC} k=an=šeek-i=pa / CONTR=1.SBJ=get-PFV.1SG=LINK leg~PLUR-PL four ²ašš-anko ²ano ?alkas-í go-vn 1sg.idp can-ipfv.neg.1sg 'I got four legs, but I cannot walk' (from the riddle "The Stool")

The same in (40), another riddle, which can be roughly rendered as: "although I got a mouth and two ears, I still don't talk":

qaam-e lakki=kka] (40) [pak-o to?-okk-o=pa mouth-m one-sing-m=link ear-pl two=contr Sall-ad-1 ²an=šeek-i=pa Pano LSBJ=get-pfv.1sg=link Isg.idp speak-mid-ipfv.neg.1sg 'I got a mouth and two cars, but I cannot speak' (from the riddle "The Pot") In a similar vein, in (41) = kka brings attention to a clause (containing in its turn a relative), about which something unexpected is predicated ("although the headrest my father and mother gave me fell, it did not break"):

(41) [ker-e Pappa=pa ye=tech-eni yaay-e headrest-pr. father=LINK mother-F me=give-PFV.3PL H-ppuse-kkal, poc ye=kond-am-é SPEC=fall-PPV.3PL=CONTR 3.NEG=break-pass-ipfv.neg.3pl 'the headrest my father and mother gave me fell without breaking' (from the riddle "The Name"; ker-e 'headrest' is morphologically plural)

The use of ** kka in the following sentence can be understood as generally highlighting and emphasizing the subject Paak-it-akk-o to Pokk-o one animal':

[?aak-it-akk-o to?-okk-o=kka] (42) *immu* 3.juss.neg animal-sing-sing-m One-SING-M=CONTR Papar s-a-ma hag-u place=DRICT-GEN=DIFF be absent-juss, NEG.3M 'let not even one animal be missing!' (from the folktale "The Lion and the Monkey")

Sentence (43) shows two occurrences of =kka within one and the same sentence: the first ** kka marks a contrastive topic ("as for me..."); the second one introduces a new referent. As the word expressing this new referent (the ideophone xapáp) is consonant ending, the allomorph k= is used, proclitic to the following word (the verbal phrase an payni 'I'll say'). The Francolin is here answering the Squirrel, who has explained his strategy in case of danger and asked about the Francolin's, and (43) is the Francolin's answer. =kka can therefore mark a new, focal element, but only when a contrast is evident or implicit against another possible argument ("as for me, I'll instead flap my wings..."):

(43) ['ano kka] rop [xapáp]_{roc} k an pay-n-i pa ISC.IDP CONTR IDEOPH CONTR=1.SBJ=Say-FUT-PF.1S=LINK has a get_up-cons.lsc 'as for me, I'll flap my wings and get off' (from the folktale "The Francolin and the Squirrel"; "to say xapáp" is an idiom for 'to flap the wings')

Although textually secondary in respect to its use as a topic-switching device, the role of =kka as a contrastive-focus marker is not at all uncommon. In the following the Elephant, informed by the other animals that the Frog is planning to kill

him the next time he will approach the river, tells he is going to take a nap, and that tomorrow only - not today - he will go to the river:

(44) [qayná=kka]_{roc} ²an=²ašši-n-a Sand-e suk-á tomorrow=contr 1.sbj=go-fut-ipfv.1sg water-pl drink-cons.1S 'TOMORROW I'll go and drink water' (from the folktale "The Elephant and the Frog")

These and similar sentences show how =kka can misleadingly be interpreted as a focus marker: it does act as a focus marker, but only in the same sense in which certain English operators (determiners, quantifiers, etc.) do mark focus in focussensitive constructions (cf. Hajičová, Partee and Sgall 1998: 24 and the following). These sentences also indicate that =kka, in its use as a focus marker, may only mark a narrow focus: e.g., in (43) =kka marks the preceding word xapáp as an Argument Focus, but obviously it is the whole sentence $xapáp \ k=an=pay-n-i=pa$ has-a 'I'll flap my wings and get off' to be focal, insofar as it predicates something new and unpredictable about the topic.

From =kka to =kk-i: the marking of specificity in contrast 7.4

The specificity affix -i (spec), whose most common occurrence is after the Deictic =s-, can also be attached to Contrastive =kka, yielding =kk-i. =kk-i therefore combines the contrast inherent in =kka with the specific value of -i. =kk-i acts also as a Contrastive Focus marker, and its value may be seen in (45) and (46), in which ?ato=kk-i is best translated as 'YOU are the one' and ?ano na?a=kk-i as 'only ME', respectively:

- sant-í=kka=ma / (45) [?]ano so?-akk-o be-ipfv.neg.1sg=contr=diff 1sg.idp magic-sing-m so?-akk-o ?ato=kk-í 2sg.idp=contr-spec magic-sing-м 'I am not a sorcerer - YOU are!' (elicited sentence)
- (46) lakki ?í=??ar-am-anki=mma / $to^{?}-ott-e=s-i$ two SPEC=know-pass-IMPF.3P=SIT one-SING-F=DEICT-SPEC na?a=kk-i Pille=n-a ar-a=n-aPamo ISG, IDP only CONTR SPEC REC MOV-OUT know-IPFV. ISG=MOV-OUT 'two of them are known (by everybody); but one - only ME I know it' (from the riddle "The Penis")

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Why contrast matters: With Middle with

Another example is provided by the sentence immediately preceding example (12) above, in which the Lion realizes that the Monkey is missing from the animals' gathering:

(17) kels-akk o kk i ye okaay-ú=ppa /
monkey sing-m= contr-spec neg.3=come-pf.neg.3m=link
liso kal-e-ma lit-akk-o
am.idp downhill-f=diff animal-sing-sing-m
lishi=send-fut-pfv.lsg
lit was the monkey who did not come = I'll send behind him an animal'
(from the folktale "The Lion and the Monkey")

In the following we even have a textually rare instance of a repeated =kk-i:

(4B) h-aayu=n-a tal-t-e

M-18G,POSS=MOV-OUT goat-SING-F

to*-ott-e=kk-i=kk-i ye
One-SING-F=CONTR-SPEC=CONTR-SPEC NEG.3
h-a-i=ss-a Sak-ti=pa

M-OUT-SPEC=DEICT-GEN be_there-IPFV.NEG.3F=LINK
'I did not have even one single goat at home'
(from the text "A Hunting Party")

The use of =kk-i is not textually prominent. It is furthermore often difficult to identify; in rapid, connected speech, =kka often assimilates its final vowel to the Specific affix -i acting as a Subject Clitic of third person; such an assimilation of the phonological string /=kka ?=/ yields a phonetic string [k:i], blurring any difference with =kk-i.

7.5 The end of contrast? =kka in negative clauses

A very frequent use of =kka is after a negative verbal form: although negative verbal forms not followed by =kka have been encountered repeatedly (cf. (39), (40), and (41)), this use is quite common, often without any apparent difference in meaning:

(39) First to soll e san seek i pa san anu

eye sing e one sing i lan geleffy lan line lag ide into his i kka

thing is see if even as anything (from the radile "The Needle")

(50) faak e mule torkday e mul/
animal ri all here come rev. 3ri Mov.out
kopol akk o ye n a vak tokka
fat sing M NEG. 3 MOV.out be there-impeneg.3M=Contr
'all the animals came, but a fat one was not there'
(from the folktale "The Lion and the Monkey")

From (49) and (50) it becomes apparent that, again, the notion of contrast is crucial: in (49) the use of =kka marks counterexpectionality, in (50) opposition (between all the other animals and the Monkey).

The use of =kka with a negative verbal form is strongly preferred in dialogues if no object is present:

(51) [?]ano [?]ar-í=kka lsg.idp know-ipfv.neg.lsg=contr 'I do not know'

vs. the scarcely acceptable:

(51') [?]ano [?]ar-í
1sg.ipp know-ipfv.neg.lsg

Once again, contrast often seems to be pivotal, as is evident from (52):

(52) ²ano paš-o=s-í ²ano

lsg.idp field-m=deict-spec lsg.idp
²ar-i=kka=ye / ²ášši-ni=pa
know-ipfv.neg.lsg=contr=link.imp go-juss.lpl=link
ye=hi?-as-áy
lsg.obj=see-caus-cons.2sg
'as for me, I don't know that field; let's go and you'll show me!'
(from the folktale "The Squirrel and the Francolin")

At the same time, it is also possible that =kka is currently undergoing further grammaticalization as a negative marker. There are no negative particles in Gawwada, and many negative forms use the same segmental affixes found in positive paradigms, with stress only marking the difference (phonological stress on the last syllable marking the negative; cf. $^{7}ar-i$ 'I knew' vs. $^{7}ar-i$ 'I do not know'). The further grammaticalization of =kka into a negative marker, and the bleaching of its semantic contents, is therefore not surprising. It has already happened in Ts'amakko, another Pullay variety bordering Gawwada to the West: here all the negative verbal forms in main clauses are obligatorily followed by =kka, which has apparently lost any residual pragmatic value (Sava 2005; 16.2).

7.6 Conclusions on =kka and the marking of argument focus

Contrastiveness is not universally of good repute as a pragmatic category: according to Lambrecht, 'contrastiveness, unlike focus, is not a category of grammar but the result of the general cognitive processes referred to as "conversational implicatures" (Lambrecht 1994: 291). This study has nevertheless shown that in Gawwada Contrast is a linguistic category, which finds its specific lexical expression in specific configurations. As expected, it has been seen that in Gawwada Contrast may apply to both Topics and (maybe with less frequency) Foci. As a marker of Contrastive Focus =kka is therefore the foremost means for the expression of Argument Focus. The latter, however, does not receive a single, uniform treatment. In the expression of Argument Focus =kka is in its turn in competition with at least another strategy, to which we turn now: word-order change.

8. Argument focus, again: Word-order change

The postverbal positioning of an NP was mentioned in Section 4 in connection with antitopics, where it was also stressed how the clause-final position of the verb is quite strictly adhered to in Gawwada. A few examples of postverbal positioning of an NP which cannot be assumed under the rubric of antitopicality have nevertheless be recorded:

(53) mukus itt e lokk o Sand-c dit a frog-sing-r slowlyness-m levelly-our water-PL n-a taax ti pa / sint-e Sil-a=n-a MOV-OUT-SWITT-PFV.3F-LINK nose-F up-out-mov-out hul i ppa / ass-u kut-a non-ito enter-CONS.3F-LINK go-CONS.3 uphill-OUT brain-ASSOC.M 'the Frog slowly swam close to him (: the Elephant), entered up into him, and went up into his brain' (from the folktale "The Elephant and the Frog")

Pending an analysis as an afterthought, and noticing that the Elephant's brain will play a role further on in the text, one may assume here that by means of the postverbal positioning of the NP *kut-a non-ito* 'up the brain' an element which will later become topical is first introduced and given relevance: in other words, it is a focal element.

Within the focal part of a proposition, place and time expressions in particular are amenable to post-verbal position. In (54) the locative word *kat-a* 'down' is specified after the verb; in (55) a temporal adverbial is likewise positioned postverbally:

- (54) [hantu hai kat a han-holi]_{roc}/
 now M-OUT SPIC down OUT 1.88]=go_back-ppy.15G
 [kal-a minn-add-c=ma]_{roc}
 downhills-OUT house-plur-pl=DIFF
 'Now I went back down there down, to the village' (from a conversation)
- (55) [qol-e]_{TOP} [²i=ppu⁵-e hantú]_{FOC}
 cattle-PL SPEC=fall-PFV.3PL now
 '(the price of) cattle fell down, nowadays' (from a conversation)

On the contrary, the position of NPs in preverbal position is quite free (once again conforming to a general rule in East Cushitic; cf. Tosco 2003 for Somali). Any nominal may be brought to the left in extrasentential position and be resumed by a postposition or by the Deictic plus Specific marker =s-i (DEICT-SPEC, as seen above in (28), (46), and (52)). In particular, apart from the use of =kka, word-order change is the second strategy employed in order to express Argument Focus.

An adpositional phrase with a non-pronominal object is sometimes left-extraposed together with the adposition, with the adposition repeated in front of the verbal form:

(56) *ahk-e=n-u n-u=*sall-i=ppa
family-F=MOV-IN MOV-IN=speak-CONS.3F=LINK
'... she told her family:...'

("to her family, she spoke to"; from the folktale "The Hyena Man")

More frequently, the NP is extraposed without any adposition:

(57) haarr-atte konn-att-ito tulluf-akk-o donkey-ASSOC.F back-SING-ASSOC.M dust-SING.M n-a=kuut-am-a

MOV-OUT=pick_up-PASS-IPFV.3M

'only dust came out of the Donkey's back'

(from the folktale "The Donkey and the Oxpecker")

Also a third person direct or indirect object may be followed by the Deictic plus Specific marker =s-i (DEICT-SPEC, as seen above in (10), (11), (46), (52)). In (58) this element occurs three times: after a topical indirect object NP ($muku^s$ -itt-c-s-i 'the frog'), which is left-dislocated before a direct object NP (sand-e-mulo-s-i 'all the water'), and finally after a personal pronoun (ise 'she') which fills the syntactic position of the indirect object NP after dislocation. While it was seen above (cf. Section 2) that a third person pronominal object is usually not expressed and is recoverable from context, in this case the use of the personal pronoun, marked by =s-t, is necessary in order to focalize it through =kka, yielding isc-s-t-kka:

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('M) muku'-itt-c-s-i 'and-c mulo-s-i
frog-sing-f-deict-spec water-pt all deict-spec
isc-s-i-kka ia-tech-i
3E.IDP-deict-spec-contr gen-give-pfv.3M
'the frog was given all the water'
(lit: "as to the frog, it was to her that all the water was given";
from the folktale "The Elephant and the Frog")

9. Incorporation

Any account of the information structure of Gawwada would be deficient without mentioning incorporation. Incorporation is defined here as the positioning of an object noun after a Subject Clitic and/or the adposition and immediately before the verbal form (similar conditions apply in Somali; cf. Tosco 2004). In the examples below, incorporation is shown by the clitization of a postposition ((59), (60)) or of an object pronoun (61) in front of the noun, rather than immediately before the verb: the noun and the verb make thus a tight unit, if not a compound, and they cannot be separated.

As the incorporated element is de-contextualized and made non-referential, it comes as no surprise that generic nouns, such as nouns expressing position and movement, are typical targets of incorporations; one example is *kitt-atte* 'within' (from *kitt-e* 'interior'), which in (59) is found in the configuration *kitt-atte* 'ak' to be found in a place':

(59) kaar-k-o to²-okk-o n-a=kitt-atte
tree-sing-m one-sing-m mov-out=interior-assoc.F

sak-a
be_there-ipfv.3m
'in it (: the field), just one tree exists'
(from the folktale "The Squirrel and the Francolin")

That *kitt-atte* is incorporated to the following verbal form is shown by the positioning of $n \cdot a = (\text{MOV-OUT})$, which refers to the location expressed in the preceding sentence (pa\$-o 'the field'), and which usually precedes immediately the verb:

(59') kaar k-o to okk-o kitt-atte
tree-sing-m one-sing-m interior assoc.
n-a=sak-a
mov-out=be_there-ippv.3m
'there is just one tree in it'

Equally non-referential are knoth e 'bride wealth' in (60) (knoth-e 'akk-act' to take one's bride wealth'), and kal*-e 'provisions for a voyage' in (61) (kal*-e knot' to prepare – lit, "make" – provisions for a voyage'):

- (60) *all inda=pa n-a=kodd-e *akk-ad-anku
 go imrri=link mov-out=bridwealth-r take-mid-cons.2pi.
 'go and take from him the bride wealth!'
 (from the folktale "The Hyena Man")
- (61) ye kali-e kod-ma / Pan=Pašši n a

 1sd.onj=provisions-pi make.impsd=dipp 1.snj=go-put-ippv.isd
 paš-o poh-å=yye
 field-m hit-cons.isd=link.imp

 'Prepare me some provisions I'll go and harvest the field!'

 (from the folktale "The Squirrel and the Francolin")

Incorporation is on the whole not very common in Gawwada (much less, e.g., than in Somali). Its pragmatic relevance lies in its backgrounding and detopicalizing role: irrespective of the type of focus structure (Predicate, Sentence, or Argument) in which it occurs, the incorporated noun is not under focus (although it can obviously enter into a focalized predicate).

10. Conclusions

This is the first study on the information structure of Gawwada, still basically an undescribed language, and further, finer-grained research and analysis are needed, nevertheless, this article has shown how Gawwada, as most languages, uses a wide array of strategies in order to express pragmatic functions. Using Lambrecht's (1994) tripartite division of focus structures into Predicate, Argument, and Sentence Focus, it has been seen that Gawwada employs the following focus-marking strategies:

- Predicate Focus (Topic-Comment sentences): SXV word order, presence of Subject Clitics in front of the verb; full Subject-Verb agreement.
- 2. Sentence Focus (Thetic sentences):
 - a. absence of Subject Clitics;
 - b. suspension of Subject-Verb agreement (verb in the 3м form);
 - c. (occasionally) XSV word order;
- 3. Argument Focus: no unitary strategy, but:
 - a. word order (left-extraposition of NPs);
 - b. =kka (if contrast is implied)

The focus marking devices themselves can therefore be syntactical (involving the use of different word orders), morphological (different agreement patterns), or lexical.

The interest of Gawwada for comparative and typological purposes alike lies in its being very different from Somali and other languages of the Horn, which make extensive use of focus-marking elements (although, as it has been argued above, also the so-called focus markers of Somali are used in a wide array of other pragmatic functions). The conclusions reached in this study fly in the face of many preconceptions and expectations about the marking of pragmatic structures in Cushitic languages: in Gawwada no dedicated focus marker exists, and its expression is parasitic of other categories. Insofar as focus – specifically, Argument Focus – is marked, it is through elements which cover other functions as well.

The expression of Topic does not fare better: while no dedicated topic markers exist (here following what seems a general pattern in Cushitic and in the languages of the area), a contrastive Topic is often marked.

For both Contrastive Topic and (but only as a possible strategy among others) Argument Focus, one and the same element is employed: the clitic =kka (and its proclitic allomorph k=), and both functions are best considered derivative for this element. While =kka could, $prima\ facie$, be interpreted as a focus marker, it has been shown that its main functions lie instead in the marking of topic-switch and topic-resumption on the Topic side, and the marking of Argument Focus on the Focus side, =kka itself = and here lies another interesting feature of Gawwada = finds its only unitary value as a marker of Contrast, either of a textual kind (to a previously mentioned element) or of a presuppositional kind (to any expectation of the addressee).

Gawwada is also interesting in an areal perspective because, different from many languages of the Horn of Africa, it does not have recourse to clefts; instead, presence vs. absence of Subject-Verb agreement, presence vs. absence of Subject Clitics, contrastive particles, and, to a lesser degree, word order change and object-incorporation are all used, either alone or in combination.

As a final word, this study – based almost entirely on oral texts and spontaneous conversations – has shown once again how only through the painstaking analysis of spontaneous textual material one may hope to arrive at disentangling the complexity of pragmatic marking in natural languages.

Abbreviations

ART	article (in Nomali)	M	masculine
ASSOC	associative	MID	middle
CAUS	causative	MOV	mover
CONS	consecutive	NEG	negative
CONTR	contrast	ОВЈ	object
DEICT	deictic	OUT	centrifugal
DIFF	diffusive	PASS	passive
I.	feminine	PST	past (in Somali)
FOC	focus marker (in Somali)	PFV	perfective
FUT	future	PL	plural
GEN	generic	PLUR	plurative
преори	ideophone	POSS	possessive
шР	independent	REC	reciprocal/reflexive
IMP	imperative	SBJ	subject
IN	centripetal	SEM	semelfactive
INT	intensive	SG	singular
IPFV	imperfective	SING	singulative
INGR	ingressive	SPEC	specific
INSTR	instrumental	VN	verbal noun
juss	jussive	1, 2, 3	1st, 2nd, 3rd person
LINK	linker		

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