

Bàsàa Wh-questions and Prosodic Structuring*

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We show that wh-words are a tool to investigate the prosodic structure of Bàsàa. Our claim is that the end of an Intonation Phrase (IP) can be identified by the presence of a long vowel on the wh-word. We propose that wh-words, which sometimes surface as C \acute{V} and sometimes as C $\acute{V}\acute{V}$, are underlyingly of the C \acute{V} form and they introduce a floating H. Whenever the association of this floating H with the first tone bearing unit that follows the wh-word is prevented by the presence of an IP boundary, a mora is created on the wh-word in order to realize the floating H. We briefly discuss the interface approach of Immediately After the Verb (IAV) focus (Costa and Kula, 2008) and we show that Bàsàa wh-questions and answers do not support this hypothesis. Finally, Bàsàa fronted wh-phrases, just like Hausa's fronted foci (Leben et al., 1989), seem to provide support to the idea that intonational effects are also at play in the present tone language.

1 Introduction

Bàsàa is a Western Bantu language spoken in Cameroon, in the Coastal region. Codified A43 by Guthrie (1948), this language counts approximately 282 000 (according to SIL 1982). As far as description is concerned, Bàsàa can be considered as one of the best described languages in Cameroon (see Hyman, 2003; Makasso, 2008, and references therein).

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The prosody of the language reveals the existence of two lexical tones, High (H / $\acute{\ }$) and Low (L / $\grave{\ }$) that can be changed into Falling (HL / $\hat{\ }$), Rising (LH / $\check{\ }$) and Downstepped (!H / \downarrow) depending on the context. The phonological processes reported in the language are: High Tone Spreading (HTS), floating tone and downstep.

On the segmental level, the phonology of Bàsàa points out a lexical contrast between long and short vowels. This contrast is illustrated in (1).

- (1)
- a. fá ‘to be’ vs. fáá ‘those’
 - b. kàr ‘to chase away’ vs. kààr ‘book’
 - c. kúr ‘blow’ vs. kúúr ‘tortoise’
 - d. sò ‘to wash’ vs. sòò ‘to flow’
 - e. tǽ ‘disappear’ vs. tǽé ‘his/her’

Bàsàa is thus distinct from a number of oft-discussed Eastern and Southern Bantu languages like Chichewa, Chitumbuka or Zulu. In these languages, vowel length is non-contrastive. Vowel lengthening targets the penultimate syllable of a word and tends to be conditioned by the position of this word within a prosodic domain. This process is well-known for being the most straightforward way to identify the presence of a Phonological Phrase and/or an Intonation Phrase in a number of Bantu languages (for instance, see Kanerva, 1990; Downing, 2006, respectively on Chichewa and Chitumbuka).

In contrast with these languages, Bàsàa has retained the Proto-Bantu vowel-length contrast (on this topic, see Hyman, 2009) and vowel lengthening is thus not surprisingly less available to signal prosodic boundaries. Interestingly, there however seems to be a restricted set of items whose vowel length is conditioned by their position within a prosodic domain. The wh-words listed in (2) belong to this set, and they thus provide us with useful information as to the presence or absence of some prosodic boundaries. As their form does not vary depending on their position, we leave aside other wh-phrases like ‘why’ or ‘which’-phrases.

- (2)
- ndǽé ‘Who’
 - kíí ‘What’
 - láá ‘How’
 - hǽé ‘Where’

To the best of our knowledge, no work has yet investigated the prosodic phrasing in Bàsàa. The present article is a first endeavour in this direction.

This paper is structured as follows. In Section 2, Bàsàa wh-questions are introduced. We distinguish two types of wh-questions based on (i) the location of the wh-phrase and (ii) the type of answers the question is preferably associated with. In Section 3, we discuss the fact that the length of vowel of the wh-phrase varies depending on its location within the question, and particularly on whether

it is located at a certain prosodic edge, namely the right edge of an Intonation Phrase. We argue that the wh-words listed in (2) are underlyingly of the form CV+H: they have a short vowel and introduce a floating High tone. Whenever the wh-word is non-final within an Intonation Phrase, the floating High tone associates with the first syllable of the word that follows it and the wh-phrase itself surfaces as short. Whenever the wh-phrase is final within its Intonation Phrase (which is also the case when it is pronounced in isolation, as in (2)), the necessity to realize this floating tone forces the lengthening of the wh-words vowel. Wh-phrases' length is thus an indicator of prosodic boundaries. Section 4 concludes the paper.

2 Bàsàa wh-questions

In Bàsàa, the canonical word order is the following:

Subject - TAM - Verb - Indirect Object - Direct Object - Adjuncts

The data we collected with the *SynphonI/BantuPsyn Questionnaire on questions* shows that when forming a wh-question, Bàsàa speakers have several strategies at their disposal. The surface positions in which the different wh-phrases can occur are summarized in Table 1.

Table 1 : Distribution of wh-phrases in Bàsàa

Wh-phrases	Fronted	IAV	In situ
Subject – nǔ́é(é)/kí(í)	✓	×	✓
Direct Object – nǔ́é(é)/kí(í)	✓	✓	×
Indirect Object – nǔ́é(é)/kí(í)	✓	✓	×
Manner – lá(á)	✓	✓	×
Temporal – kél ⁺ kíí	✓	×	✓
Locative – h́é(é)	✓	✓	×

2.1 Fronted wh-questions

As shown in Table 1, all types of wh-phrases have in common that they can be extracted from their canonical position and located in clause-initial position. This is first illustrated with the non-subject wh-questions in (3) to (9).¹

¹ Abbreviations: Cl: class; pl: plural; CONN: connective; DEM: demonstrative; DET: determiner; DISJ: disjoint; DS: dummy subject; EMPHPRO: emphatic pronoun; FV: final vowel; LOC: locative; NEG: negation; P₁: past 1; P₂: past 2; PRES: present; sg: singular; SM: subject marker.

- (3) A: **kí** mààṅgé à ò-sómb?
 what child SM3sg P₁-buy
 ‘What did the child buy?’
 B: **líkúbé ɔ́ón** à ò-sómb .
 banana EMPHPRO SM3sg P₁-buy
 ‘He bought a banana.’
- (4) A: **kí** à ṅ-⁺áṅ?
 what SM3sg PRES-read
 ‘What is he reading?’
 B: **kààr ì m̀òndó j̀ón** à ṅ-⁺áṅ.
 book CONN new EMPHPRO SM3sg PRES-read
 ‘He is reading this new book.’
- (5) A: **kí** à ò-ló⁺ná bés?
 what SM3sg P₁-bring us
 ‘What did she bring us?’
 B: **màkàlà m̀ón** à ò-ló⁺ná bés .
 doughnuts EMPHPRO SM3sg P₁-bring us
 ‘She brought us doughnuts.’
- (6) A: **ndjéé** à m̀-òó⁺má í cinema?
 who SM3sg P₁-meet LOC movies
 ‘Who did she meet at the movies?’
 B: **Paul jén** à m̀-òó⁺má í cinema.
 Paul EMPHPRO SM3sg P₁-meet LOC movies
 ‘She met Paul at the movies.’
- (7) A: **kí** mààṅgé à ò-sómb j̀âp?
 what child SM3sg P₁-buy mother
 ‘What did the child buy to his mother?’
 B: **βítamb gwón** mààṅgé à ò-sómb j̀âp.
 shoes EMPHPRO child SM3sg P₁-buy mother
 ‘The child bought the mother shoes.’
- (8) A: **héé** mààṅgé à ṅ-kê?
 where child SM3sg P₁-go
 ‘Where did the child go?’
 B: **í f̀òm jén** mààṅgé à ṅ-kê.
 LOC market EMPHPRO child SM3sg P₁-go
 ‘The child went to the market.’
- (9) A: **láá** à m̀-òól j̀óò?
 how SM3sg P₁-get here
 ‘How did he get here?’

B: **nì màkòò jén** à m-óól jódò.
 with foot EMPHPRO SM3sg P₁-get here
 ‘He got here on foot.’

When a language shows different types of wh-interrogatives, the question often arises whether all the variants are equivalent, that is, (i) whether they can all be used in the same discourse context and (ii) whether they all call for the same type of answers. In Bàsàa, these variants are not equivalent. When a wh-phrase is fronted, the wh-question is characterized by the fact that it asks for a *precise* answer. It is appropriate when both speaker and hearer have an identified set in mind, that is when the wh-phrase is *D-linked* in the sense of Pesetsky (1987). In addition, the speaker who uses this type of wh-questions has strong expectations on the hearer to be able to provide an answer. This type of expectations has also been observed in Shingazidja (Bantu, G44d, spoken in La Grande Comore) by Patin (2011).

Bàsàa fronted wh-questions are preferably answered with an exhaustive answer, in which the item answering the question is located in clause-initial position and is followed by a so-called ‘emphatic pronoun’ in Hyman (2003)’s terminology.² Sentences with an initial focus and an ‘emphatic pronoun’, as the ones given in (3)B to (9)B, are also used in contrastive and corrective contexts as well as in alternative questions.

More importantly for the present discussion, when the wh-phrase is fronted, its vowel is long and its H is realized with a perceivably higher pitch than other sentence initial H tones. This point will be developed further in Section 3.

In languages in which the canonical position of a subject is clause-initial, it is sometimes difficult to determine the structural position of a subject wh-phrase, that is, whether it is in situ or whether it has been fronted to the same position as clause initial non-subject wh-phrases. Depending on the discourse context in which the question is uttered, that is, whether or not the wh-question requires a *precise answer*, Bàsàa subject wh-phrases exhibit either a long vowel, or a short one. We take it that the length of the subject wh-phrase indicates whether it is in situ (short vowel) or fronted (long vowel).

2.2 In situ and IAV wh-questions

Let us now turn to the other type of wh-questions found in this language. As shown by the table 1, Bàsàa is similar to other Bantu languages like e.g. Aghem (Watters, 1979) or Makhuwa (Van der Wal, 2006) in that the Immediately After

² Whenever the initial focus is a noun phrase, as in (3)B to (7)B, the ‘emphatic pronoun’ agrees in class with it. In all other cases, as with the prepositional phrases in (8)B and (9)B, it shows a class 1 agreement. See Hamlaoui and Makasso (in prep.) for a re-analysis of ‘emphatic pronouns’.

the Verb (IAV) position has a special status. In these languages, focal elements occupy the IAV position. This is illustrated in (10) and (11), respectively with a subject wh-question/answer pair and a locative wh-question/answer pair in Aghem (SVO):

(10) Aghem

A: à m̀ ñíŋ **ndúghó**?
 DS P₂ run who
 ‘Who ran?’

B: à m̀ ñíŋ **éná**?
 DS P₂ run Inah
 ‘Inah ran.’ (Watters, 1979, 144)

(11) Aghem

A: fíl á m̀ zí **ghé** bé-⁺kó?
 friends SM P₂ eat where fufu
 ‘Where did the friends eat fufu?’

B: fíl á m̀ zí **án** ⁺óm bé-⁺kó?
 friends SM P₂ eat in farm fufu
 ‘The friends ate fufu at the farm.’ (Watters, 1979, 147)

The following examples show that in Bàsàa too, in presence of a certain type of focal items, i.e. one of the wh-phrases given in (2), the canonical word order (S-V-IO-DO-Adjuncts) is abandoned so as to place this item right after the verb. Two things are worth noting concerning the type of sentences illustrated in (12a), (13a) and (14a). First, in this context, the wh-phrase takes a CV form. Second, the word following the wh-phrase gets a H tone on its first syllable – /jàŋ/ > [jàŋ], /káàr/ > [káàr] and /màkàlà/ > [mákàlà], respectively – just like when it is located in the IAV position³. We will come back to this in Section 3.

(12) a. mààŋgé à ñ-sómb **kí** jàŋ?
 child SM3sg P₁-buy what mother
 b. ?mààŋgé à ñ-sómb jàŋ **kí**?
 child SM3sg P₁-buy mother what
 ‘What did the child buy for his mother?’

(13) a. à ñ-kú⁺húl **hé** káàr?
 SM3sg P₁-obtain where book
 b. ?à ñ-kú⁺húl káàr **héé**?
 SM3sg P₁-obtain book where
 ‘Where did he get the book?’

³ In Bàsàa, words with an underlyingly non-H first tone bearing unit show that items located in the IAV position receive a H tone at all tenses except for Past 3. This is discussed in Section 3.1.

- (14) a. à m-̀b̀̀̀n l̀́á m̀́ákàlà?
SM3sg PRES-make how doughnuts
b. ?à m-̀b̀̀̀n m̀́ákàlà l̀́áá?
SM3sg PRES-make doughnuts how
'How does he make doughnuts?'

The examples from (12b) to (14b), in which the wh-phrase is left in situ, are not completely ungrammatical, but strongly dispreferred. Example (12b) is appropriate as a rhetorical question, conveying the meaning 'The child didn't buy anything for his mother'.

Interestingly, the IAV position in Bàsàa differs from the one found in these other Bantu languages in that it only attracts a subclass of non-subject wh-words that is, the ones given in (2). Subject wh-words and temporal wh-phrases are either in situ or fronted, but never IAV. As illustrated in examples (15) to (18), whenever these wh-phrases are located IAV, the sentence is ungrammatical.

- (15) a. ǹ́ǰé à n-̀téhé Juma?
who SM3sg P₁-see Juma
b. *à n-̀téhé ǹ́ǰé(é) Juma?
SM3sg P₁-see who Juma
'Who saw Juma?'
- (16) a. k̀́í í n-̀tímbá ǹ́jà̀ngà?
what SM7 P₁-damage bridge
b. *í n-̀tímbá k̀́í(í) ǹ́jà̀ngà?
SM7 P₁-damage what bridge
'What damaged the bridge?'
- (17) a. à βí-̀sóm̩b í k̀́ààr ìní k̀́él+k̀́íí?
SM3SG P₂-buy í book DEM when
b. *à βí-̀sóm̩b k̀́él+k̀́íí í k̀́ààr ìní?
SM3SG P₂-buy when í book DEM
'When did he buy this book?'
- (18) a. mà̀àngé à βí⁺tí n⁺sáŋ k̀́ààr k̀́él+k̀́íí?
child SM3sg p₂-give father book when
b. *m̀̀àngé à βí⁺tí k̀́él+k̀́íí n⁺sáŋ k̀́ààr?
child SM3sg p₂-give when father book
'When did the child give the book to his father?'

When the subject wh-phrase is short, it is generally co-articulated with the subject marker {à}, giving rise to the form [ǹ́ǰâ]:

- (19) ǹ́ǰâ n-̀téhé Juma?
who-SM3sg P₁-see Juma
'Who saw Juma?'

Incidentally, the fact that a subject can be questioned and focused in situ indicates that, in contrast with many Bantu languages, in Bàsàa there is no general ban on preverbal foci.

Another specificity of Bàsàa's IAV position is that this position is located immediately after the *tensed* verb. This is illustrated in (20) to (22). In the presence of a modal verb or an auxiliary, the wh-word appears *within* the verbal complex.⁴

- (20) ù ñ-sòmból **kí** ɕʒé?
 SM2sg PRES-want what eat
 'What will you eat?'
- (21) mààŋgé à ñ-là **kí** ʃôŋ?
 child SM3sg P₁-can what do
 'What could the child do?'
- (22) ù jè **lá** í †lámb gâteau?
 SM2sg PRES-be how loc cook cake
 'How are you baking the cake?'

Bàsàa wh-questions with an in situ or IAV wh-phrase do not come with the same presupposition and exhaustiveness requirement as fronted wh-phrases. Whereas a negative answer of the type "nobody" or "nothing" is odd with a fronted wh-question, it is perfectly acceptable for a wh-question with a wh-phrase IAV or in situ. As illustrated with the question-answer pairs in (23) to (30), these questions are preferably answered with a canonical sentence (instead

⁴ The negation can be inserted between the tensed verb and the IAV wh-word, as in the following examples:

- (i) mààŋgé à ŋ-†gwés **ʃé** **kí** tí ñsáj?
 child SM3sg PRES-like NEG what give father
 'What doesn't the child want to give to his father?'
- (ii) à ŋ-†gwés há **ʃé** **kí** tí ñsáj?
 SM3sg PRES-like again NEG what give father
 'What doesn't he want to give to his father anymore?'

In the presence of the negation, the wh-phrase can also surface lower in the structure, right after the lexical verb:

- (iii) à yá-là ʃé sómb **kí** jáání í ʃòm?
 SM3sg F₂-can NEG buy what tomorrow loc market
 'What won't he be able to buy tomorrow at the market?'

This type of sentences are consistent with the other questions discussed here, in which the wh-word is IAV and non-final within the sentence. They will be discussed in Hamlaoui and Makasso (in prep.), which concentrates on the syntax of questions and focus in Bàsàa.

of a sentence with fronted focus). The fact that there is no requirement on the focused item within the answer to the wh-question to appear IAV means that the motivation for the wh-words in (2) to occupy the IAV position is not related to their focal nature.

- (23) A: mààṅgé à òsóm **kíí?**
 child SM3sg P₁-buy what
 ‘What did the child buy?’
 B: à òsóm **líkúbé.**
 SM3sg P₁-buy banana
 ‘He bought a banana.’
- (24) A: à ḡ-⁺áṅ **kíí?**
 SM3sg PRES-read what
 ‘What is he reading?’
 B: à ḡ-⁺áṅ **káàr ì mòndó.**
 SM3sg PRES-read book CONN new
 ‘He is reading this new book.’
- (25) A: à ò-ló⁺ná **kí** bés?
 SM3sg P₁-bring what us
 ‘What did she bring us?’
 B: à ò-ló⁺ná bés **màkàlà.**
 SM3sg P₁-bring us doughnuts
 ‘She brought us doughnuts.’
- (26) A: à m-òó⁺má **noḡé** í cinema?
 SM3sg P₁-meet who LOC movies
 ‘Who did he meet at the movies?’
 B: à m-òó⁺má **Paul** í cinema.
 SM3sg P₁-meet Paul LOC movies
 ‘He met Paul at the movies.’
- (27) A: mààṅgé à òsóm **kí** ṅàṅ?
 child SM3sg P₁-buy what mother
 ‘What did the child buy to his mother?’
 B: mààṅgé à òsóm ṅàṅ **ḃítámb.**
 child SM3sg bought mother shoes
 ‘The child bought the mother shoes.’
- (28) A: à jè **hé** lèn?
 SM3sg PRES-be where today
 ‘Where is he today?’
 B: à jè lèn í ⁺**mbáj.**
 SM3sg PRES-be today LOC village
 ‘He is at the village today.’

- (29) A: mà̀̀ngé à ì-ké ^hhée?
 child SM3sg P₁-go where
 ‘Where did the child go?’
 B: à ì-ké í bòm.
 SM3sg P₁-go LOC market
 ‘He went to the market.’
- (30) A: à m̀-ból lá ɲóò?
 SM3sg P₁-get how here
 ‘How did he get here?’
 B: à m̀-ból ɲóò nì mà̀kòò.
 SM3sg P₁-get here with foot
 ‘He got here on foot.’

The examples (23), (24) and (29) show that an IAV wh-phrase is not obligatorily short, and that what determines the length of these phrases is whether or not it is sentence-final. This fact will be discussed in Section 3.

In sum, in this section we have shown that Bàsàa exhibits two types of questions which are not equivalent from a semantic and pragmatic perspective: on the one hand, questions with a fronted wh-phrase and on the other hand, questions with an in situ or IAV wh-phrase. We have briefly introduced the fact that wh-words vary in length. Let us now turn our account of this phenomenon.

3 Prosodic structuring in Bàsàa wh-questions

3.1 Short wh-words

As was shown in the previous section, there are several positions in which a wh-word can occur in Bàsàa and it can either surface as C[́]V[́] or C[́]V.

We propose that in Bàsàa, the wh-words given in (2) are underlyingly of the form C[́]V + H. Whenever the wh-word is in a position in which it is phrased with the following word, the floating H is realized on the first syllable of this word. This has been observed in two contexts. The first context is within a constituent, as in ‘where’ (‘where’ + ‘place’) in (31) and ‘which man’ (‘who’ + ‘man’) in (32).

- (31) h́é ˈ hòmá → h́é h́ó[↓]má
 | | | | |
 H H L H H H !H
- (32) nǔ́é ˈ mùt → nǔ́é mùt
 | | | |
 H H L H HL

The second context is when the wh-word is located in the IAV position and is non-final within the sentence. This is illustrated with the examples (12),

(13), (14) and (28) repeated below. Each wh-question is followed by the auto-segmental representation of the relevant part of the clause.

- (12) mààṅgé à ñ-sómb **kí** pàṅ?
 child SM3sg P₁-buy what mother
 ‘What did the child buy for his mother?’

... **kí** ´ pàṅ → **kí** pàṅ
 | |
 H H L H HL

- (13) à ṅ-kú^hhúl **hé** kààr?
 SM3sg P₁-obtain where book
 ‘Where did he get the book?’

... **hé** ´ kààr → **hé** kààr
 | ||
 H H LL H HL

- (14) à m-ḃòṅ **lá** mákàlà?
 SM3sg PRES-make how doughnuts
 ‘How does he make doughnuts?’

... **lá** ´ mákàlà → **lá** mákàlà
 | |||
 H H L L L H L L L

- (28) à jè **hé** lèn?
 SM3sg PRES-be where today
 ‘Where is he today?’

à jè hé ´ lèn → à jè hé lèn
 | | |
 L L H H L L L HL

It has been argued that, at least for a subset of Bantu languages, including Bàsàa (Costa and Kula, 2008), the motivation for focal items to occupy the IAV position is prosodic. However, the data collected and presented in this paper does not corroborate this approach. Costa and Kula, the tenants of this position, have established a link between conjoint-disjoint distinction in verb forms (first observed by Meeussen, 1959), the prosodic marking associated with conjoint forms and focusing. The distinction between conjoint and disjoint verb forms indicates whether a verb is final within its clause or not. It can be expressed through the presence/absence of a morphological marker as in the Zulu data in (33) (Buell, 2006), where the morpheme {-ya-} marks the disjoint form.

- (33) Zulu
 a. a-bafana ba-**ya**-cul-a.
 DET-CI2-boys SMCI2-DISJ-sing-FV
 ‘The boys are singing.’

- b. a-bafana ba-cul-a i-ngoma.
 DET-Cl2-boys SMCl2-sing-FV DET-Cl9-song
 ‘The boys are singing a song.’

It can also be expressed tonally, as in the examples (34) from Tswana (Creissels, 1996, 110), where the tone on the last syllable of the verb indicates whether the phrase that follows the verb is part of the same clause/constituent.

(34) Tswana

- a. bá bínè lé bònè.
 SM3pl dance with 3pl
 ‘They do not dance/are not dancing either.’
- b. bá bíné lé bònè.
 SM3pl dance with 3pl
 ‘They do not dance/are not dancing with them.’

The idea is that by immediately following the conjoint verb, focused items obtain the prosodic marking necessary to satisfy interface conditions on the prosodic marking of focus. This prosodic marking can be tonal and/or phrasal depending on the language. It is illustrated for Makhuwa in (35). According to Costa and Kula (2008), in this language, this prosodic marking consists of the realization of tonal lowering (LHL → LLH).

(35) Makhuwa

- a. ni-m-váhá enuní maátsi.
 SM1pl-PRES-give Cl10-birds Cl16-water
 ‘We give the *birds* water.’
- b. ni-m-váhá maatsí enúni.
 SM1pl-PRES-give Cl6-water Cl10-birds
 ‘We give *water* to the birds.’ (Van der Wal, 2006, 239–241)

In Bàsàa, final verbs are also distinguished from non-final ones. This is illustrated in (36), in which the verb ‘selling’ ends with a L when it is final and a H when it is non-final. The process is seen as the remnants of the conjoint-disjoint forms. In addition, the language exhibits a process of “metatony” (see Nurse, 2006), by which a *High tone spreads from the last vowel of the verb onto the following tone bearing unit*. This happens in (36b) and (36c): the word ‘doughnuts’, whose underlying representation is /màkàlà/, becomes [mákàlà] due to the fact that it is IAV. The item that immediately follows the verb is thus somehow prosodically distinguished, as it acquires a H tone.

- (36) a. mè n-nùṅùl
 SM1sg PRES-sell
 ‘I’m selling.’

- B: à ñ-ló⁺ ná ðóóŋgé **màkàlà**.
 SM3sg P₁-bring children doughnuts
 ‘She brought the children doughnuts.’

3.2 Long wh-words

Whenever the wh-word is fronted or final within the sentence (be it IAV or not), it exhibits a long vowel. Our contention is that this is due to the fact that it is final within its prosodic group, that is, it is right-aligned with a prosodic boundary. This boundary prevents the floating H introduced by the wh-word from associating with the next tone bearing unit. The need for tonal association of this floating H forces the vowel of the wh-word to be lengthened. This is illustrated with the questions (3), (8) and (30), repeated below, which exhibit a fronted wh-word.

- (3) **kíí** mààŋgé à ñ-sómb?
 what child SM3sg P₁-buy
 ‘What did the child buy?’

$$\begin{array}{ccccccc} \text{kí} & \acute{} & \text{mààŋgé} & \dots & \rightarrow & \text{kíí} & \text{mààŋgé} & \dots & (* \text{kí} & \text{mààŋgé} & \dots) \\ | & & || & | & & || & || & | & & | & || & | \\ \text{H} & \text{H} & \text{LL} & \text{H} & & \text{HH} & \text{LL} & \text{H} & & \text{H} & \text{HL} & \text{H} \end{array}$$

- (8) **héé** mààŋgé à ñ-kê?
 where child SM3sg P₁-go
 ‘Where did the child go?’

$$\begin{array}{ccccccc} \text{hé} & \acute{} & \text{mààŋgé} & (\dots) & \rightarrow & \text{héé} & \text{mààŋgé} \\ | & & || & | & & || & || & | \\ \text{H} & \text{H} & \text{LL} & \text{H} & & \text{HH} & \text{LL} & \text{H} \end{array}$$

- (30) **láá** à ñ-òól pódò?
 how SM3sg P₁-get here
 ‘How did he get here?’

$$\begin{array}{ccccccc} \text{lá} & \acute{} & \text{à} & (\dots) & \rightarrow & \text{láá} & \text{à} \\ | & & | & & & || & | \\ \text{H} & \text{H} & \text{L} & & & \text{HH} & \text{L} \end{array}$$

This process of creating a mora in order to realize the floating H also occurs in sentence final position. This is illustrated with the question (29), repeated below, which presents an IAV wh-word. In this example the tense marker introduces a floating H, which associates with the lexical verb and forces the dissociation of the verb’s lexical L. This L subsequently lowers the wh-phrase H, which is realized as a !H. This suggests that the verb and the wh-phrase are not separated by a prosodic boundary or, in other words, that they are phrased

together.

(29) mààṅgé à ṅ-ké ⁺héé?
 child SM3sg P₁-go where
 ‘Where did the child go?’

(...) à ṅ -kè ´ hé ´ → à ṅ -ké ⁺héé
 | | | | | |
 L L H L H H L L H !H H

If one assumes that the sentence edge matches the edge of a major prosodic domain such as an Intonation Phrase (IP) boundary, then a sentence final wh-phrase is aligned with an IP boundary. The similarity in behaviour between fronted and sentence final wh-words suggests that the prosodic boundary with which they are aligned is of the same nature. For the time being, we assume that both types of wh-phrases are thus aligned with the right-edge of an IP.

Although they have in common that they are always long, fronted and clause-final wh-phrases differ with respect to their tonal realization. Fronted wh-phrases seem to exhibit an extra high tone, that is, they are realized with a higher pitch than other initial H tones. This phenomenon, for which systematic investigation still remains to be done, is reminiscent of the ‘local H raising’ observed in fronted foci in Hausa by Leben et al. (1989). They observe that in this Chadic tone language, a single H tone on a word can be raised to highlight this word.

As was briefly stated in Section 2.1, fronted wh-phrases are more pragmatically/semantically loaded than IAV/in situ wh-phrases. They are close to what has been described as a ‘contrastive’ or ‘identificational’ focus. Just like in Hausa, it is reasonable to say that fronted wh-phrases are thus associated with more emphasis than IAV/in situ wh-phrases (Hartmann and Zimmermann, 2007). We propose that Bàsàa’s local H raising on fronted wh-phrases expresses this emphasis and suggests that there are intonational effects in the tone language discussed here. It is important to note that fronted wh-phrases are, so far, the only focal items exhibiting this extension of pitch, which suggests that it is not to be considered as focus marking.

4 Conclusion

In this paper, we have concentrated on wh-questions in Bàsàa. In this North-western Bantu language which has retained the Proto-Bantu vowel length contrast, a subset of wh-words’ length varies depending on their position within the clause. As summarized below, they can either surface as C[´]V or C[´]V[´]:

- **WH_i** SM_i-TAM-(AUX/MOD)-V-(XP)]_{IP} → C[´]V
- Subject SM-TAM-AUX/MOD-**WH**-V-(XP)]_{IP} → C[´]V[´]

- Subject SM-TAM-V-**WH**-XP]_{IP} → C'V
- Subject SM-TAM-V-**WH**]_{IP} → C'V'
- **WH**]_{IP} Subject SM-TAM-(AUX/MOD)-V-(XP)]_{IP} → C'V'

We have proposed that these wh-words are underlyingly of the C'V form, and they introduce a floating H. Whenever the wh-word is aligned with a prosodic boundary, there is no other choice but creating a mora in order to ensure the realization of the floating H. Considering that both sentence final and fronted wh-phrases behave in the same way in surfacing as C'V', we assume that they are aligned with the same type of prosodic break, that is, the right edge of an Intonation Phrase. If this assumption is correct and if we assume that Intonation Phrase boundaries are aligned with clause boundaries, this suggests that the fronted wh-phrase is not part of the same clause as the rest of the wh-question. The prosody of Bàsàa wh-questions thus provides us with important evidence as to the syntactic structure of these sentences (Hamlaoui and Makasso, in prep.).

We have seen that the prosodic behaviour of IAV wh-words and the focused item that corresponds to them in the answer to the wh-question do not support the idea, put forward by Costa and Kula (2008) that the remains of the conjoint-disjoint distinction, the prosodic marking of the conjoint form and focusing are linked.

Finally, a local High Tone Raising on fronted wh-phrases, which differ from IAV and in situ wh-phrases in terms of emphasis, suggests that intonative effects are at play in yet another tone language, Bàsàa.

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