

Components of the Nominal System of Nandome

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Abstract

The paper discusses the components of the nominal system of Nandome. Nandome (a dialect of Dagaare) is a Gur language spoken in north western Ghana (the Upper West Region). The paper looks at the prototypical and the non-prototypical nouns of Nandome, how they are classified generally in terms of how they are perceived in the world and how they are classified in terms of the natural classes that exist due to linguistic influence. On the non-prototypical nouns the paper touches on; the pronouns, the nominalizations, and the noun clauses. Determiners, adjectives, units of measure and locatives are also discussed as the modifiers that are part of the components of the nominal system. These discussions would set the bases for a later discussion of the syntax of the nominal system of Nandome. Data was taken from the SIL African wordlist. The nouns were observed and the identified trends help make the paper. Focus group discussions, observation of natural discourse and intuitional knowledge were also used.

Keywords: Nominal system, Noun, Nominal, Nandome, Gur, Determiner, Adjective, Units of measure, Locative

1.0 Introduction

The paper gives discoveries so far on the description of the Nandome grammar. The paper focuses on the nominal system of Nandome by discussing the components of the nominal system in Nandome. The nominal system is made up of the nouns (prototypical nouns), the nominals (non-prototypical nouns) and modifiers. The nominals include; the pronouns, the noun clauses and the nominalizations. The modifiers include the determiners, the adjectives, the units of measure and the locatives. This will set the bases for discussions on the syntax involved in the nominal system of Nandome. The syntax aspect of the nominal system is reserved for another paper. In this paper the nouns and the nominals are presented in a way that reflects how they are perceived in the world (general grouping). They are also presented in classes created due to linguistic factors (natural classes). Other issues that are discussed about the nominal system include; determiners (how to point to nouns), adjectives (how to describe nouns), locative (how to indicate the location of a noun) and units of measure (how to interpret the quantity of a noun).

1.1 The People of Nandom

Nandome is a dialect of Dagaare spoken by the people of Nandom. The people are also known as Nandome and their population is about 46,040 (GSS 2014). The Nandome are a sub-ethnic group in the northwest of the Upper West Region of Ghana and in some southwest parts of Burkina Faso. The people of Nandom are part of the Dagaaba. The Dagaaba according to Bodomo (1997) are an outgrowth of the Mole-Dagbani group which migrated to the semi-arid Sahel region and the lower northern region within the 14th-17th century.

Kunbour (2002) attest that during the colonial era, “naalun” (chieftaincy) marginalized the “tendaalun” (custodian of the earthshrine) which is consistent with Bilikpe (p.c). Personal conversation with Bilikpe, “Kpisib¹ Naa” (Chief of Kpisib) reveals that the Dagaaba in pre-European era were neither organised into Chieftdom, Kingdoms nor Empire. Chieftaincy was later introduced by the European as part of the pioneering attempts at decentralisation. Currently, Nandom is a paramountcy headed by the Nandom Naa (paramount chief of Nandom), the divisional chiefs and the sub-divisional chiefs alongside the ‘Tengandem’ (land owners) who wield religious power and serve as custodians of Nandom. In modern politics Nandom is also a District.

The Nandome are basically farmers; however, there have been formal education since the missionary era and for that reason professions such as teaching and nursing among others are prolific within the district. African Traditional Religion, Christianity and Islam are practised within the district.

Abdul-Korah (2007) notes that several waves of internal migration, beginning in at least the late 19th century have brought a sizable Dagaaba population to towns in the southern part of the nation, notably the Brong Ahafo Region. This is as well true with the Nandome. This implies that Nandome and for that matter, Dagaare is spoken in the diaspora.

1.2 The Nandome Dialect

Nandome is a dialect of Dagaare spoken in Nandom and its areas of influence such as Hamile, Fielmou and Ko. Bodomo’s (1997) dialectal classification observed that Nandome is a northern dialect. According to Bodomo

¹ Kpisib is divisional Chieftdom that is under the Nandom Paramountcy

(1997) the other dialects of Dagaare include: the central dialect (which is the documented dialect), the southern dialect and the western dialect (which is mainly not spoken within Ghana).

1.3 The Sociolinguistics of Nandome

It is inferable from section 1.2 that some speakers of Nandome will have English as a second language (in the case of those with formal education) and some will have some of the Akan dialects as a second language (in the case of those who travel southwards). Multilingualism is also possible in which the repertoire will be made of Nandome as L1, English as L2 and any Akan dialect as L3.

1.4 Basic Linguistic Features of Nandome

Eight (8) word classes are observed so far in Nandome (noun, verb, adjective, adverb, determiner, pre/postposition, conjunctions and interjection). Words in Nandome are monosyllabic or disyllabic. Nouns (except names of persons) and adjectives are mainly disyllabic. Affixes, both inflectional and derivational, are mostly suffixes (**bá** + {-rí} → **bárí** ‘friends’). Possession is realised as a zero morpheme. Uninflected verbs used in clauses are in the perfect aspect by default.

Phonologically, it is a two-tone language, the tone is either high or low (**bá** ‘friend’ and **bà** ‘erect’, **fúr** ‘to sip’ **fùr** ‘open eye widely’). Nine (9) different vowel phonemes have been observed: /i/, /ɪ/, /u/, /ʊ/, /e/, /ɛ/, /o/, /ɔ/ and /a/. Besides /a/, the other vowels are in Advanced and unadvanced Tongue Root pairs. All these vowels have nasal counterparts. Twenty-four (24) consonants have also been observed, these include: /p/, /b/, /t/, /d/, /f/, /v/, /s/, /z/, /ky/, /gy/, /k/, /g/, /kp/, /gb/, /ŋm/, /m/, /n/, /w/, /ŋ/, /ɲ/, /l/, /h/, /r/ and /y/. Syllabic consonants include: /m/, /n/, /ŋ/ and /l/. The sounds are summarized in table (1) and table (2) below. The phonemes are based on impressionistic auditory observation of the Nandome dialect, as the area awaits scientific acoustic study.

Nandome allows consonant clustering on condition that the first phoneme is either /g/, or /b/ and the second phoneme is /r/. Such a cluster cannot occur in word initial position. For example: /**bágr**/ ‘regrinding’; /**sabr**/ ‘lung’. /g/ in word medial or word final position can be realised as [w]. For example: /**nyig**/ and /**nyiw**/ ‘burn’.

	front	centre	back
close	i		u
	ɪ		ʊ
middle	e		o
	ɛ		ɔ
open		a	

Table 1: Vowel Chart of Nandome

	<i>Bilabial</i>	<i>Labiodental</i>	<i>Alveolar</i>	<i>Palatal</i>	<i>Velar</i>	<i>Labio velar</i>	<i>Glottal</i>
<i>Plosives</i>	p b		t d		k g	kp gb	
<i>Fricatives</i>		f v	s z				h
<i>Affricates</i>				ky gy			
<i>Lateral</i>				l			
<i>Trill</i>			r				
<i>Glide</i>	w			y			
<i>Nasal</i>	m		n	ɲ	ŋ	ŋm	

Table 2: Consonant Chart of Nandome

(sounds at the left side are voiceless and those at the right side are voiced)

In the orthography all phonemes maintain the same symbols except the following;

- /ɪ/ becomes 'e'
- /ʊ/ becomes 'o'
- /ɲ/ becomes 'ny'
- /ŋm/ becomes 'mw'
- /ŋ/ becomes 'ng'

Syntactically the language follows the subject-verb-object pattern. Nandome marks focus, {**ně**} at the clause level. Sentence (1) below serves as an example;

1. **Der kɔ ne a wɛ**

Dér kô nĩ à wɛ
 Der farm.Perf Foc. Def. farm

'Der farmed the farm'

In Nandome when two noun phrases follow consecutively, any premodifying determiner in the succeeding noun phrase(s) deletes. Observe the differences in (2a) and (2b) below;

2. a. **A bie a gan ne**
 à bié à gán né
 Def. child.Pos Def. book that
 'that book of the child'

b. **A bie gan ne**
 à bié gán né
 Def. child.Pos book that
 'that book of the child'

1.5 Language Family

Figure 1 below summarises the trace of language families down to Nandome. Writings in bold upper case represent the language families that trace down to Nandome. Against each bold text are writings in bracket representing the other coordinate subgroups that are in the same level with the subgroup suggested by the text in bold.

Figure 1 is drawn based on information in Bendor-Samuel (1989) and Bodomo (1997). The idea of **Mabia** languages and the dialect classification in Dagaare are from Bodomo (1997).

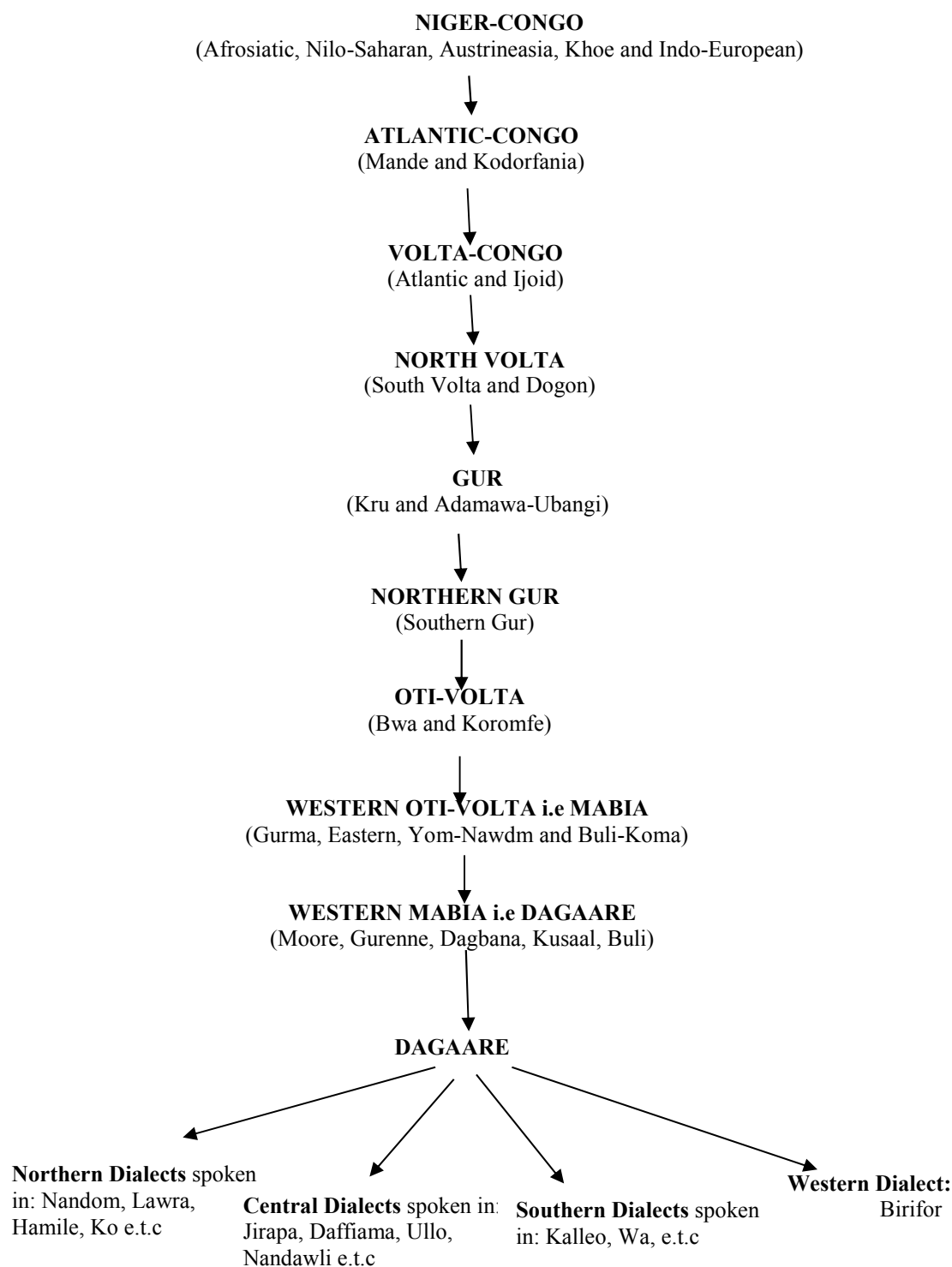


Figure 1: Language Family

2.0 An Overview of the Components of the Nominal System in Nandome

The components of the nominal system of Nandome are summarized in figure 2 below. In the diagram below, the circle represents the collection of the nouns and the nominals (the pronouns, the noun clause, and the nominalizations). So far, all nominalizations prove to be situations of ‘verb+Nominal affix’. There are no evidences of ‘adjective + nominal affix’ as of now. In the diagram below the rectangles represent the major groups of modifiers and the functions they have towards the members of the circle. All the members in the circle function as noun heads. The arrows pointing to the circle indicate that the function of the respective groups of

modifiers is towards the members of the circle.

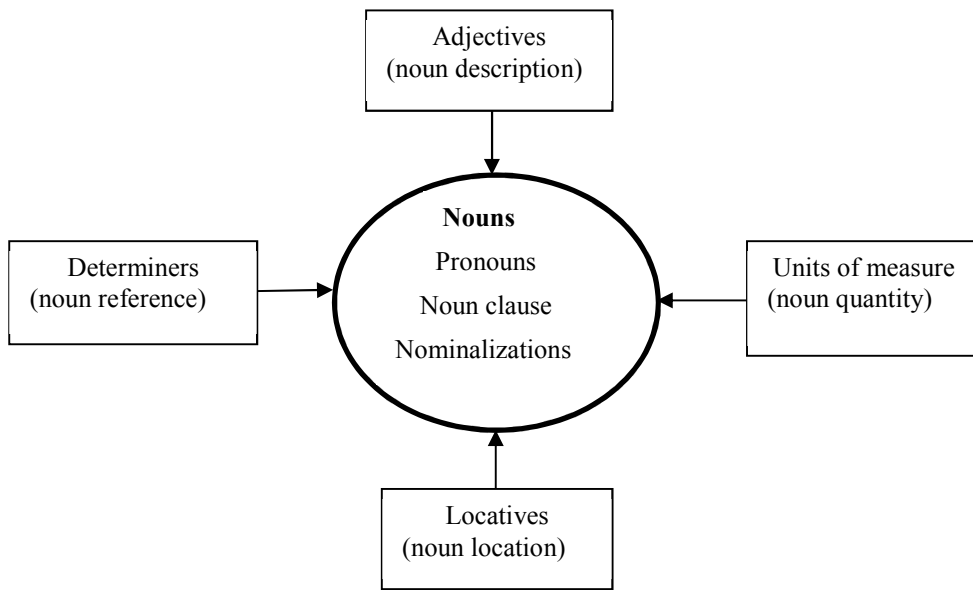


Figure 2: Overview of the Components of the Nominal System

3.0 General Classes of Members of the Circle (How they are perceived in the world)

The members of the circle are divided into two main types the prototypical nouns (in bold text) also known as the nouns and the non-prototypical nouns (in normal text) also known as the nominals. The subsequent discussions look at the general groupings of nouns as well as general groupings of the nominals.

3.1 General Classes of Nouns in Nandome

The general classes refer to the groupings of nouns according to how they are perceived in the world. The nouns in Nandome can generally be put into two major groups. These are the proper nouns and the common nouns. Figure 3 below summarizes the general groupings of nouns. Reading from left to right, 'Noun' is the apex and the minimal division of the noun are the terminals. Examples are in the appendix.

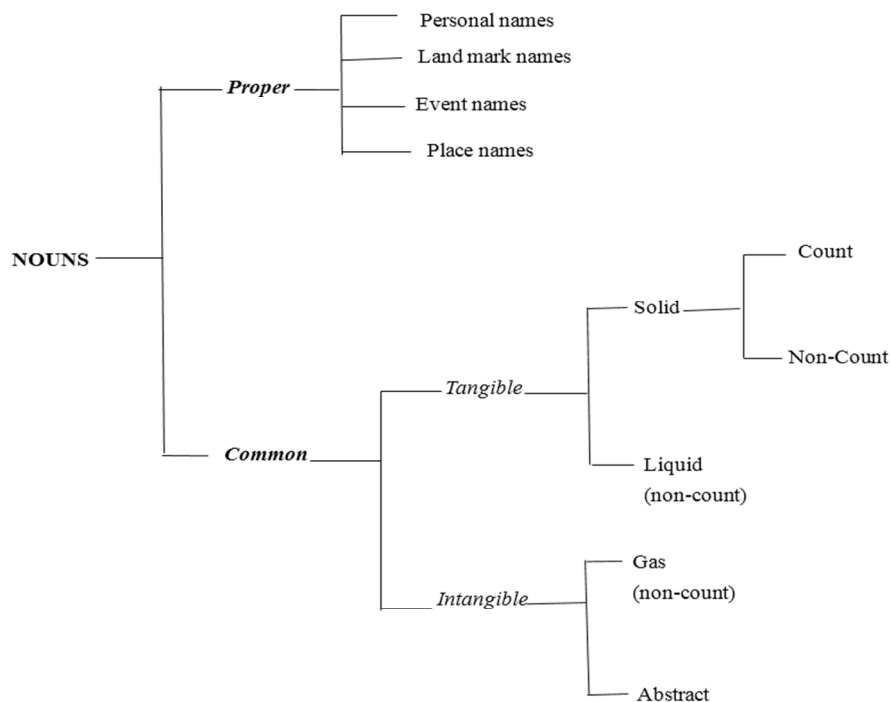


Figure 3: General Outline of the Noun

Arguments here about Nandome are presumable for all languages. When one takes a look at the figure 3 above there are two main types of nouns; the proper nouns and the common nouns. When one takes a look at the corresponding examples in the appendix one will notice something about the proper nouns. Critically, in terms of semantics, proper nouns constitute a system of indexing the nouns that directly refer to something in the world. This indexing system is for easy or unique identification. For example the name ‘Charles’ does not directly refer to anything in the world, it only serves as an index that is used to aid the identification of a particular human, but the name ‘human’ is the true noun that refers directly to something in the world. The situation is the same with the proper noun in Nandome. This therefore means that, it is only the common nouns that refer directly to things in the world. This implies that the common nouns are the ‘true nouns’. The implication of this on the syntax is that, constructions that have proper nouns may be argued to have been results of a transformational rule that replaces the true noun (a bundle of semantic features) with a proper noun before theta and case assignments.

3.1.1 Collective nouns

Collective nouns are nouns that are interpreted as a group of entities. They are basically also common nouns. In Nandome these type of nouns are very few. These collective nouns have their plural forms as well. Some examples include;

3.	Noun	Plural	Gloss
a.	Tug	tugr	Grove
b.	Yir	yie	family
c.	Zag/zaw	zagr/zawr	collection of animals
d.	Kar	kare	wide stretch of uncultivated lands
e.	per	pεε	breed/kind
f.	kpaaro	kpaarokpaaro	association
g.	siwzan	siwzan	swamp of bees

Table 3: Personal Pronoun of Nandome

In Nandome the singular form of every noun can be used to denote collectiveness. In other words singular nouns can be used generically. When a noun is used like this it comes with certain syntactic restrictions and these restrictions will be looked at in another paper that looks at the syntax aspect of the nominal system. An example of the generic use of a noun is in example ‘4’ below;

4.	baa	bε	nɔnε	bεnge	ε
	báá	bé	nōnè	béŋé	é
	dog	Neg	like	beans	Foc

‘dog does not like beans’

Baa ‘dog’ as in example ‘4’ though in the singular form represents all dogs.

3.2 General Classes of Nominals

Nominals refer to the non-prototypical nouns. In Nandome they are either pronominal (used in place of a prototypical noun) or they are compensatory strategies of repackaging typical non-referential elements of the language into referential entities. Pronouns are those used in place of prototypical nouns. Noun clauses and nominalizations are compensatory strategies in the language that help speakers refer to an issue that does not typically belong to a referential group of elements. Results of nominalisations are never monomorphemic. The subsequent discussions look at the pronouns, the noun clauses and the nominalizations.

3.2.1 Pronoun

According to Hartmann and Stork (1972), Quirk, Greenbaum, Leech and Svartvik (1985), Mish (1991) and Loos, Day, Jordan and Wingate (2004), a pronoun refers to a word that functions like a noun and is used in place of a noun or a noun phrase. Hartmann and Stork (1972), Quirk et al (1985), Mish (1991) and Loos et al (2004), further define personal pronoun as a pronoun that expresses a difference of person deixis. In Nandome such pronouns have respective emphatic forms. The personal pronouns in Nandome are presented in table ‘3’ below;

<i>Pronoun</i>	<i>Emphatic form</i>	<i>Gloss</i>
ĩ	mãã	1sg
mẽ	mãã	1sg object
tì	tĩĩ	1pl
fù	fũũ	2sg
nĩ	nĩĩ	2pl
ù	úl	3sg
bè	bél	3pl human
à	ál	3pl non-human

Consider the following examples in ‘5’ and ‘6’ below;

5.	Der	de	na
	dér	dì	ná

- Der eat.Perf Foc
 ‘Der has eaten’
6. a. **O de na**
 ù dì nǎ
 3sg eat.Perf Foc
 ‘he/she has eaten’
- b. ***bɛ de na**
 bè dì nǎ
 3pl eat.Perf Foc

In ‘6a’ the third person singular **o** ‘3sg’ replaces the noun **Der** of ‘5’. The replacement comes with the implication that the interlocutors both have knowledge of **Der**, who the pronoun **o** ‘3sg’ refers to. To replace a noun with a pronoun in Nandome some conditions must be met, the pronoun and the noun should agree in features of person, number and in the case of the third person, the human or non-human feature must be met. **O** ‘3sg’ grammatically replaces **Der** because they are both third person and they are both singular. However, ‘6b’ is ungrammatical because **bɛ** does not have all its features in common with **Der**. They are both third person but **bɛ** is in the plural form whilst **Der** is in the singular form. Constructions with pronouns are superficial structures from the underlying structures that have the prototypical noun, the noun clause or the nominalized forms.

Nandome also make use of reflexive pronouns. Reflexive pronouns in Nandome are bimorphemic, that is, they are made of two morphemes. The two morphemes include; a pronoun or its emphatic form as the base and a reflexivization suffix **mi`ɲá** ‘self’. Hartmann and Stork (1972), Quirk et al (1985), Mish (1991) and Loos et al (2004) defines a reflexive pronoun as a pronoun that has coreference with the subject. Coreference talks about the fact that such pronouns refer semantically to the same entity expresses by the subject. The reflexive pronouns of Nandome are presented in table ‘4’ below;

<i>Pronoun</i>	<i>Emphatic form</i>	<i>Reflexive form</i>	<i>Gloss</i>
ĩ	mǎǎ	ĩmi`ɲá / mǎǎmi`ɲá	Myself
tì	tĩĩ	tìmi`ɲá / tĩĩmi`ɲá	Ourselves
fù	fũũ	fùmi`ɲá / fũũmi`ɲá	Yourself
nĩ	nĩĩ	nĩmi`ɲá / nĩĩmi`ɲá	Yourselves
ù	úl	ùmi`ɲá / úlmi`ɲá	him/herself
bè	bél	bèmi`ɲá / bélmi`ɲá	themselves human
à	ál	àmi`ɲá / álmi`ɲá	themselves non-human

Table 4: Reflexive Pronouns of Nandome

In table ‘4’ above, the fact a pronoun takes the suffix **mi`ɲá** ‘self’ does not automatically make it a reflexive pronoun. The syntactic occurrence of a pronoun with the suffix **mi`ɲá** ‘self’ is what determines if the form is a reflexive or not. If the said bimorphemic form occurs where it does not corefer with a subject then it is not a reflexive pronoun it is only an emphatic pronoun. Consider the examples ‘7’ and ‘8’;

7. **der mwaa ne o minga**
 dér ɲmǎǎ nĩ ù mi`ɲá
 Der cut.Perf Foc him self
 ‘Der cut himself’

Ominga ‘himself’ refers to the same person that **Der** refers to, for this reason there is a coreferential relationship between the pronoun **ominga** ‘himself’ and the subject **Der**. Therefore **ominga** ‘himself’ is a reflexive pronoun. Consider below;

8. **o minga no mwaa a nɛn**
 ù mi`ɲá nũ ɲmǎǎ à nɛn
 him self that cut.Perf Def meat
 ‘himself that cut’

In the above there is no coreferential relationship between the pronoun **ominga** ‘himself’ and the noun ‘meat’. Therefore the pronoun is not a reflexive pronoun. It only lays emphasis that a particular person (but not any other person) cut the meat.

3.2.2 Nominalizations

Nooman (1985), Quirk et al (1985) and Loos et al (2004) define nominalisation as a noun phrase that corresponds systematically with a clausal predication which contains a head noun that is morphologically related to a corresponding verb. Nominalisations, in this context, refer to verbs that are turned into nouns with the help of a nominal affix. They are also known as deverbal nouns. In Nandome they are further divided into; the gerund nominalisation, the agent nominalisation and the non-agent nominalization. The non-agent nominalizations could denote the instrument used in an act or the patient of an act. Irrespective of what the non-agentive nominalisation denotes, the phonetic form is the same, only context can tell what is denoted. Some examples are in ‘9’-‘11’

below;

The gerund nominalisation (see Bilikpe 2016 for more details on gerunds in Nandome);

9.	A	de	b	ta	na
	à	dí	b	tá	ná
	Def	eat	GM	reach.Perf	Foc

‘The eating has reached’

The agent nominalization;

10.	A	de	rɛ	ta	na
	à	dí	ré	tá	ná
	Def	eat	AG	reach.Perf	Foc

‘the eater has reached’

The patient nominalization and the instrument nominalization;

11.	A	bon	de	ra	ta	na
	à	bón	dí	rá	tá	ná
	‘Def	thing	eat	PT	reach.Perf	Foc’
	‘Def	thing	eat	INST	reach.Perf	Foc’

‘the thing to be eaten has reached/the thing used in eating has reached’

Consider for example, the nominalization in ‘11’, a **bondera** ‘the thing used in eating’, it can be **tera** ‘spoon’ or **nuu** ‘hand’. The terms **tera** and **nuu** obviously refer directly to entities concrete in the world, for that matter they are typically referential elements. However in Nandome there is no original term referring to the fact that the **tera** ‘spoon’ or **nuu** ‘hand’ is used as an instrument for eating. One may never get a monomorphemic term directly from the lexicon referring to such a fact. The language then finds a way to give a name to the fact that the spoon or the hand can be used for eating. The language in the process then uses nominalization to get a name for the situation.

3.2.3 The Noun Clause

The noun clause is also known as the nominal clause. The noun clause is a clause that functions as a noun phrase (Hartmann and Stork, 1972; Crystal, 1985; Quirk et al, 1985 and Loos et al (2004). In simpler terms the noun clause refers to the type of nominal that is made up of a subject and a verb whether implicitly or explicitly. It is a process whereby a clause is rank shifted to occur in an argument position in another clause. Some examples include ‘12’ and ‘13’ below;

12.	Der	wa	na	so	bɛ	zɔ
	dér	wà	ná	só	bé	zö
	Der	come.Perf	Foc	own	3pl human	run.Perf

‘they run away owing to the fact that Der has come’

13.	O	yel	kɛ	oo	kyen	te	de	a	bon
	Ò	yèl	ké	óó	kyén	tì	dé	à	bón
	3sg	say	Comp	3sg	go	Asp	take	Def	thing

‘he/she said that he/she should go and take the thing’

The clause typically is not a referential element in the language. However the language finds a syntactic strategy of reducing the clause to a referential entity such that it occurs as an argument in another clause.

4.0. Natural Classes of the Members in the Circle (Groupings to linguistic influence)

The noun class system refers to the fact that the nouns in a language may be put into groups based on some linguistic reason. In Nandome the nouns are grouped basically for phonological reasons where the singular and plural forms of nouns show some phonological similarity. There is also a semantic influence on some group of nouns. According to Avey (2002) there is a semantic correlation among the classes in all the languages of the Niger-Congo family group. This semantic correlation is that there is a +HUMAN class of nouns in all these languages. Avey (2002) adds that Gurune, Moore, Dagaare and Akan are all Niger-Congo languages that evidence the semantic correlation. Bodomo’s (1997) work on Dagaare and Avey’s (2002) work on Gurune evidence this pattern. The current study in Nandome also provides evidence for this correlation. The current study is also similar to Bodomo’s (1997) where he identified noun classes of Dagaare and explained that phonology plays a key role in many of the classes. The classes are presented below;

4.1. Natural Classes of Nouns

Class 1; members in this class are semantically classified. They have the property +HUMAN. In Nandome they can further be divided into two:

a) This sub-class involves nouns that take **be** as the plural marker;

döö	‘man’	déébé	‘men’
pög	‘woman’	pögbé	‘women’
nír	‘person’	níbé	‘people’

b) This sub-class contains kinship nouns. They take the suffix {-mině} to form their plural. Examples include;

yéb	‘sibling (brother/sister)’	yébmíně	‘siblings’
sää	‘father’	säämíně	‘fathers/uncles’
mää	‘mother’	määmíně	‘mothers/aunts’

Class 2; contains nouns with close syllable endings. These can be further divided into four sub-classes. These include;

a) Nouns with closed syllables that have duplicates of the same vowel as the nuclei:

kùúr	‘hoe’	kùè	‘hoes’
júúr	‘yam’	ji’ é	‘yams’
vúúr	‘stick for stirring’	vúé	‘sticks for stirring’

b) Nouns with closed syllable endings that have /r/ as coda:

yúór	‘name’	yéé	‘names’
yùòr	‘pot’	yèè	‘pots’
dér	‘ladder’	déé	‘ladders’

c) Nouns with closed syllable endings that have [gr] as coda:

bágr	‘shoulder’	bágé (or báwé)	‘shoulders’
bígr	‘tree fibre’	bígé (or bíwé)	‘fibres’
tí’gr	‘cage’	tí’gé	‘cages’

d) Nouns with closed syllable endings that have /g/ as coda:

dúg	‘big pot’	dúgr	‘big pots’
túg	‘groove’	túgr	‘grooves’
bōg	‘hole’	bōgr/ bōgrú	‘holes’

e) Nouns with closed syllable endings that have any other consonant as coda:

tòòb	‘ear’	tòbè	‘ears’
gyél	‘egg’	gyélé	‘eggs’
gbél	‘narrow stretch of something’	gbélé	‘narrow stretches of something’

Class 3; nouns ending with open syllable. These can be divided into three classes;

a) Nouns with open syllable ending with low tone nucleus:

sòò	‘knife’	sòró	‘knives’
diè	‘room’	di’ rú	‘rooms’
bàà	‘river’	bàró	‘rivers’

b) Nouns with open syllable, ending with high tone nucleus:

núò	‘fowl’	núúr	‘mouths’
múò	‘grass’	múúr	‘grasses’
báá	‘dog’	báár	‘dogs’

Class 4; disyllabic nouns in which the last syllable has an onset and is opened:

kpàrò	‘shirt’	kpàri	‘shirts’
li’lé	‘chick’	li’li’	‘chicks’
súlú	‘ladle’	súli’	‘ladles’

Class 5 is the class that tackles the issues of nasality in terms of noun classes. It can further be divided into two main sub-classes. The classes include;

a) Nouns with open syllables with nasal vowels as nuclei:

tĩĩ	‘medicine’	tĩĩní	‘medicines’
kũũ	‘water’	kũũní	‘different collections of water’
kǎǎ	‘oil’	kǎǎní	‘different collections of oil’

b) Nouns ending with a nasal consonant (not /ŋ/):

pén	‘rag’	péně/pémě	‘rags’
tám	‘bow (/arrow)’	támě	‘bows’
pán	‘door’	pámě	‘doors’

c) Nouns ending with /ŋ/:

sōŋ	‘rabbit’	sōn	‘rabbits’
ōŋ	‘mouse’	ōn	‘mice’

5.0 Determiners

Hartmann and Stork (1972), Lyons (1977b), Crystal (1980), Mish (1991) and Loos et al (2004) all agree that a determiner is a word or an affix that belongs to a class of noun modifiers that expresses the reference of the noun. The quantity of the noun can also be expressed by the determiner. In Nandome there are two types of determiners identified; the articles and the demonstratives. Pei and Gaynor (1954), Hartmann and Stork (1972), Crystal (1980), Mish (1991) Loos et al (2004) consider the article to be the type of determiner that identifies a noun's definite or indefinite reference. These devices in language help the users of the language to point to nouns. Hartmann and Stork (1972), Quirk et al (1985), Mish (1991) Loos et al (2004) also agree that a demonstrative is a type of a determiner that is used deictically to indicate a noun's spatial, temporal, or discourse location. They play a key role in the type of reference that the user makes to a noun. In Nandome the determiners identified include those in table '5';

Table 5: Determiners of Nandome

<i>Articles</i>	<i>Gloss</i>
à	Def
kàŋ	InArt
minẽ	InArt pl
<i>Demonstratives</i>	<i>Gloss</i>
ŋã	this
bẽŋã	these (humans)
ámã/ánã	these (non-human)
ól/nẽ	that
bél	those (human)
ál	those (non-human)

Definiteness is defined by Loos et al (2004) as a category concerned with the grammaticalization of identifiability and non-identifiability of referents on the part of a speaker or addressee. Pei and Gaynor (1954), Lyon (1968), Hawkins (1978), Anderson (1985), Mish (1991) and Loos et al (2004) define definiteness as the interpretation that shows that an expression's referent(s) is in some way identifiable to both speaker and addressee. This is the idea that the definite article **a** 'Def' creates in its usage. An example is '14';

14. **a** **bie**
 à bi'é
 Def child
 'the child' (both speakers have knowledge of the child)

Pei and Gaynor (1954), Lyon (1968), Hawkins (1978), Crystal (1980), Mish (1991) and Loos et al (2004) define indefiniteness as a kind of interpretation that indicating that the referent(s) of an expression is not presumed to be identifiable. This is the idea that indefinite articles (InArt) and (InArt pl) create in their usage. An example is '15';

15. **bie** **kang**
 bi'é kàŋ
 child InArt
 'some child' (there is no common knowledge between speaker and addressee)

The articles **kang** 'InArt' and **menẽ** 'InArt pl' are used to refer to nouns when there is no common knowledge of the noun shared by the speaker and the listener. **Menẽ** 'InArt pl' is used when the head noun is in plural form. Some examples are '16' and '17' below;

16. **boɔ** **kang**
 búö káj
 goat InArt
 'a goat'
17. **boor** **menẽ**
 búú r minè
 goat pl InArt.pl
 'some goats'

Nga 'this', **benga** 'these (human)' and **ama** 'these' are used to refer to a noun in a way that shows that the noun is close enough to the speaker in terms of distance or in terms of time. **Benga** 'these (human)' is used when the noun is referring to a human and is in the plural form. **Ama** 'these' is used when the noun is non-human and is in the plural form. Consider the example in '18' and '19';

18. **zie** **nga**

- zi'é ṅá
place this
'this place'
19. **ziir** **ama**
zi'í' r áamá
place pl these
'these places'

Ol 'that', **bɛl** 'those (human)' and **al** 'those (non-human)' are used to refer to a noun in a way that shows that the noun is not close enough to the speaker in terms of distance or in terms of time. **Bɛl** 'those (human)' is used when the noun is referring to a human and is in the plural form. **Al** 'those (non-human)' is used when the noun is non-human and is in the plural form. Example are in '20' and '21';

20. **laa** **ol**
láá úl
bowl that
'that bowl'
21. **labɛ** **al**
lá bé ál
bowl pl those
'those bowls'

According to Ouhalla (1994) a head and its specifier must agree in relevant features. This follows in Nandome such that the determiners selected to occur with nouns based on the agreement in features. In Nandome the features on which the noun head and the specifying determiner need to agree include; number and some instances feature +/-human. For example the head noun **zie** 'place' is in the singular form and the demonstrative **nga** 'this' is also in the singular form. Based on this number agreement the sentence in '18' is grammatical. In '19' **ziir** 'place' is in the plural form and that agrees with the demonstrative **ama** 'these' which is also in the plural form. The sentence in '19' is does also grammatical. Consider the following constructions in '22' and '23' below where there is no agreement between the head and the specifier.

22. ***zie** **ama**
zi'é áamá
place these
'these place'
23. ***ziir** **bɛl**
zi'í' r bɛl
place pl those (+human)
'those (+human) places'

The sentences in '22' is ungrammatical because the head noun **zie** 'place' is in the singular form whilst the demonstrative **ama** 'these' is in the plural form. This constitutes a violation of the head-specifier agreement principle. The sentence in '23' in also ungrammatical because the head noun **ziir** 'places' are not human but the demonstrative **bɛl** 'those +human' has the feature +human.

Demonstratives have been spoken about in terms of closeness in distance or time. The question is: at what point is an entity considered close in distance or time? Or, at what point is an entity considered far in distance or time? There is no definite measure, for instance a speaker in Ghana can refer to an entity in Egypt using the demonstrative **nga** 'this' which denotes closeness in distance. A speaker can refer to an entity which is in the same room with him/her using the demonstrative **ol** 'that' which shows it is far in distance. The answer to the puzzle is that the speaker creates a boundary in his/her mind subconsciously. When the entity falls within the boundary it is subconsciously considered as close and is therefore used with **nga** 'this' or the appropriate plural form. When the entity falls outside the boundary, it is considered far and thus is used with **ol** 'that' or the appropriate plural form. If the speaker subconsciously sets Africa as the boundary, he/she will consider an entity in Egypt as within the boundary. If the speaker subconsciously sets a boundary as the distance within an arm's reach, he/she will consider an entity which is in the same room but beyond his/her arm's reach as far.

6.0 Adjectives

Hartmann and Stork (1972), Lyons (1977b), Mish (1991), Loos et al (2004) and Gardenfors (2014) are of the view that an adjective specifies the properties of a noun. They are the devices in the language that are used to describe the nature of nouns. There are the prototypical adjectives and the non-prototypical adjectives. In Nandome several groups of prototypical adjectives have been discovered. Some examples include;

6.1 Prototypical Adjectives

- | | | |
|----------------------------|---------------------|--------------------------|
| 24. Colour adjectives | | |
| | Adjective | Gloss |
| | a. pela/pola | white |
| | b. sela/selba/sebla | black |
| | c. doo | yellow |
| | d. vaar | green |
| | e. zee | red |
| 25. Size adjectives | | |
| | Adjective | Gloss |
| | a. kpɛɛ-kyaapele | big-small |
| | b. yelo-feela | wide-narrow |
| | c. wogo-mwaa | tall/long-short |
| | d. bero/meelo | fat/slim |
| 26. Shape adjectives | | |
| | Adjective | Gloss |
| | a. vilovilo | circular |
| | b. maglo | mangled |
| | c. kpankoor | oval like a calabash |
| | d. yergberɛ | irregularly wide |
| | e. mweloo | twisted |
| 27. Appearance adjectives | | |
| | Adjectives | Gloss |
| | a. nyela | shiny |
| | b. vela-digr | clean-dirty |
| | c. kyaa-lige | bright-dark |
| | d. vela | beautiful |
| 28. Texture adjectives | | |
| | Adjectives | Gloss |
| | a. nyaara-saala | rough/smooth |
| | b. kpalo-lɔm | hard/soft |
| | c. varo-gonɛgonɛ | rigid-flexible |
| | d. kpage-monono | lumpy-smooth |
| | e. saalo-kyarkyar | slimy-not slimy |
| 29. Temperature adjectives | | |
| | Adjectives | Gloss |
| | a. maar-tolo | cold-hot |
| | b. bolbol | lukewarm |
| 30. Weight adjectives | | |
| | Adjectives | Gloss |
| | a. terbe-kɛlkɛl | heavy-light |
| 31. Age adjectives | | |
| | Adjective | Gloss |
| | a. peela | baby |
| | b. paala | new |
| | c. kora | old |
| | d. nyang | aged |
| | e. pɔl/sera | young-young female |
| 32. Taste adjectives | | |
| | Adjectives | Gloss |
| | a. noo | sweet |
| | b. tuo | bitter |
| | c. miiru | sour |
| | d. tiire | beyond sour (unpleasant) |

There is an adjective that is used to show distaste and disapproval. The adjective is **bon kang/bonbon kang** ‘something’. It is used when a certain quality that is expected is not met. For example if **kpar pela** ‘white shirt’ was expected and the person wears a different colour the person commenting can say **kpar bon kang** ‘shirt something’. It should be noted that there are other ways of expressing this distaste.

6.2 Non-prototypical Adjectives

There are also words that are not prototypical adjectives that can be used in a way that will give them an adjectival function. Non prototypical adjectives are referred to as *adjectivals* in this paper. The adjectivals are of two types; the word adjectival and the clause adjectival. The word form adjectivals so far discovered are nouns. They occur to the left of the head noun. Their descriptive effect is based on some relationship between them (the adjectival) and the head noun. Consider the examples below;

33. **tanɛ yir**
 táné yí r
 mud house
 ‘mud house’

34. **Bagr noɔ**
 bǎgr nǔō
 Ritual fowl
 ‘fowl for a ritual’

In ‘33’ the relationship is that the adjectival noun **tanɛ** ‘mud’ is the material that is used to build the house. In ‘34’ the relationship is that the adjectival noun **bagr** ‘ritual’ is the purpose that the fowl will be used to satisfy. This adjectival-noun relationship has a very wide scope. So far the major relationships which adjectival nouns denote include; material that the head noun is made of, the origin of the head noun, the purpose of the head noun, the location of the head noun. When a gerund performs an adjectival function towards a noun, the relationship that exist is that the gerund represents a purpose whilst the noun head represents an entity that needs to play a role in achieving the purpose. Consider the example in ‘35’ and ‘36’;

35. **A sebo kparo**
 à séb ú kpàrú
 Def dance GM shirt
 ‘the dancing shirt’

36. **A kyenu zie**
 à kyén ú zǐ’é
 Def go GM place
 ‘the place to go’

The phrase means that the head noun, **kparo** ‘shirt’, is worn anytime the gerund, **sebo** ‘dancing’, is the purpose. The second phrase also means that, for the purpose of **kyenu** ‘going’, **zie** ‘place’ should be the destination, in simpler terms for the purpose of whatever movement that is to be made that particular chosen place should be the destination. Gerunds that perform an adjectival function towards nouns are therefore the only identified group so far that has a specified adjectival relationship with the nouns they qualify.

A clause in Nandome can also perform an adjectival function. As of now all adjectival clause are restrictive. A restrictive relative clause is a relative clause that helps to identify the referent of the word that it modifies (Comrie, 1989 and Loos et al 2004). Observe the following examples in ‘37’ and ‘38’;

37. **A bie nɛ na zaa wa a ka a**
 à bí’é nɛ ná zǎǎ wà à ká à
 Def child that Comp yesterday come Def here Foc
 ‘that child who came here yesterday’

38. **A weɛ nga na ko a**
 à wiè ŋǎ ná kō à
 Def farm this Comp farm.Perf Foc
 ‘this farm which is farmed’

7.0 Units of measure for nouns (UOM)

A common noun whether count or non-count can still be measured. Measurement in this context refers to the ability to express or appreciate, definitely or roughly, the quantity of a given entity. The units of measure therefore refer to the semantic devices that make it possible to express or appreciate the quantity of a given entity. There are three major units of measures; those that express definite measure of an entity, those that give an indefinite measure, in other words they give a very relative estimation of the quantity of an entity and those that create the sense of a part from a whole (the partitive).

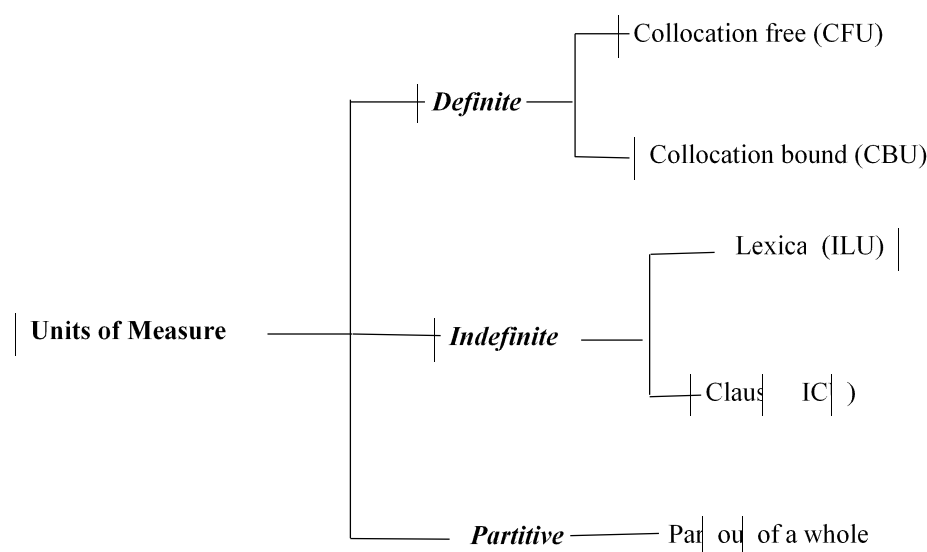


Figure 4 Outline of the Units of Measure of Nandome

7.1 Definite units of measure

They give a more precise measurement and offer a minimal chance for relativity. Such units of measure will help users of the language to, in all contexts, have very similar interpretations of quantities of an entity. These units of measure encourage more definite interpretations of quantity because they are themselves nouns that basically denote standard containers that are known to users of the language. Definite units of measures, besides the cardinal numerals, do not occur with collective nouns. Definite units of measure have two types; collocation free units (CFU) and collocation bound units (CBU). CFU are those that are free to operate with all nouns without any collocation restriction and CBU are those that are bound to collocate with certain nouns. Loos et al (2004) define collocation as the co-occurrence of two or more lexemes in an unchanging syntactic and semantic relationship. The collocation bound units co-occur with certain nouns in an unchanging syntactic and semantic relationship. The identified frequently used CFU include (37) and the identified frequently used CBU ones include (38);

39.	CFU	Gloss	
	a. laa	bowl	
	b. mwan	calabash	
	c. pee	basket	
	d. dog	big pot	
	e. voora	sack	
	f. bogr	barn	
	g. galo	gallon	
	h. kap/kapo	cup	
	i. baage	bag	
	j. die	room	
	k. toa	glass/bottle	
	l. torko	pushing truck/cart	
	m. tipa/atakolata/tanka etc.	cargo trucks	
	n. been, ayi, ata	cardinals numerals (for only countable nouns and collective nouns)	
40.	CBU	Gloss	Collocates with
	a. Bir	seed/knut	nouns with the size of a grain or knut
	b. Gbil	ball	things that can take a ball form eg tan ‘mud’
	c. Gbel	cop	kamaan ‘maize’
	d. Zu	head	kyi ‘millet’

Some constructions involving the use of CFU include the following;

41.	koa	dogr	ayi
	kũõ	dúg	áyí

- water bigpot. pl two
 ‘two big pots of water’
42. **benge laa (labeen)**
 béŋɛ làà (làbéén)
 beans bowl.sg (bowl-one)
 ‘a bowl of beans (one bowl of beans)’
43. **dakögre diru ata**
 dāköög rí di` rú átá
 chair pl room pl three
 ‘three rooms of chairs’

It can be observed that the units of measure when present in a noun phrase are those affected by the plural marker and the numerals. For example in (41) the **dogr** ‘pots’ are what is two not **koɔ** ‘water’. When the noun is a countable noun, the plural marker is phonologically realized on both the noun and its unit of measure (see 43). When the unit of measure is one the language user can omit mentioning ‘one’ **been** (see 42). Nouns that collocate with CBU members can still occur with the CFU members. For example **kamaan** ‘maize’ collocates with CBU member, **gbel** ‘cop’, but **kamaan** ‘maize’ is still able to occur with **voɔra** ‘sack’ which is a CFU member. See the construction below;

Despite that in (39) the units of measure are collocation free, it does not follow that each of those units can occur with all nouns. For example the following constructions are ungrammatical;

44. ***koɔ pero ayi**
 kũõ pè rù áyí
 water bigbasket pl two
 ‘two baskets of water’
45. ***gyele toro ata**
 gy él é tõ rù átá
 egg pl bottle pl three
 ‘three bottles of egg’

These are ungrammatical because they do not meet any pragmatic possibilities among the users of the language. For instance a basket cannot hold water hence we cannot have (42) **koɔ pero ayi** ‘three baskets of water’. This will exceptionally be possible if the water is put in some container before being put into the basket. In the case of (43) an egg cannot be put in a bottle, making it impossible to measure eggs with a bottle. These examples will prove that there exist a pragmatic filter that oversees how CFU should occur with nouns. The pragmatic filter does this by checking the practicability of the measurement.

Some constructions involving the use of CBU and the nouns they collocate with are as follows;

46. **Kal gbile ayi**
 kál gbi l é áyí
 dawadawa ball pl two
 ‘two balls of dawadawa’
47. **Kyi zuru ata**
 kyi` zú rú átá
 millet head pl three
 ‘three heads of millet’

7.2 Indefinite Units of Measure

These units of measure allow for so much relativity. Users of a language will have different imaginations of these units of measure in different contexts. These units also have two types. These types include; the indefinite lexical units (ILU) and the indefinite clausal units (ICU). ILU are words that are used to signal quantity of a noun whilst the ICU are relative clauses that are used to signal a measure of a noun. Some identified examples of ILU and some identified examples of ICU are below;

The ILU include;

48. ILU Gloss
 a. Yaga plenty/a lot
 b. Bilanz few/little
 c. Zuu lot

Some constructions involving ILU include;

49. **Bondi yaga**
 búndì yágá
 food plent
 ‘plenty food’

50. **Tero** **paa**
 tì rù páá
 tree pl lot
 ‘big tree’

The ICU are relative clauses. They start with a complementizer. They include;

51. **Na** **bɛ** **ter** **tɛwr**
 nà bɛ tɛr tɛwr
 Comp Neg have meaning
 ‘that is of meaningless quantity’ (superfluous)
52. **Na** **bɛ** **ter** **vuɔ**
 nà bɛ tɛr vùò
 Comp Neg have space
 ‘that is of spaceless quantity’ (no space is ever enough)
53. **Na** **bɛ** **ter** **to** **kaafo**
 nà bɛ tɛr tō káá fù
 Comp Neg have touch see GM
 ‘that is of an untouchable quantity’
54. **Na** **bɛ** **saale** (**saale** is also synonymous with **segbon**)
 nà bɛ sááli
 Comp Neg enough
 ‘that is not enough’

Some constructions involving ICU include;

55. **libir** **na** **bɛ** **ter** **tɛwr** **ɛ**
 lí’bì’r nà bɛ tɛr tɛwr é
 money Comp Neg have meaning Foc
 ‘money that is superfluously huge’
56. **wɛro** **na** **bɛ** **ter** **to** **kaafo**
 wè rù nà bɛ tɛr tō káá fù
 farm pl Comp Neg have touch see GM
 ‘farms that are untouchable’

7.3 The Partitive

According to Gove (1966), Richards, Platt, and Weber (1985) and Loos et al (2004), partitive case is a case that expresses the partial nature of the referent of the noun it marks, as opposed to expressing the whole unit or class of which the referent is a part. This refers to the units of measure that create in the mind of the user the idea that the quantity measured is a part of a certain whole. The partitive is unique in that the other units of measure (that is definite and the indefinite) only give users a sense of the measured quantity of a noun; however the partitive gives not only the measured quantity but adds the sense that some fraction is left or the sense that the measured quantity is coming out of a whole. It helps language users interpret quantity in fractional terms. Some partitives include;

- | 57. | Partitive | Gloss | Implication |
|-----|-----------|---------------|--------------------------|
| a. | mene | some | there is some other part |
| b. | mwaa | part/leftover | there is some other part |
| c. | kyle | leftover | part has been used |
| d. | bonguura | leftover | part has been used |
| e. | mil/gbil | full one | no part left |
| f. | za | all | no part left/no numbers |

Some examples of the partitives include the following;

58. **a** **dɛɛbɛ** **mɛnɛ**
 à déé bɛ mìnɛ̃
 Def man pl some
 ‘some of the men’
59. **Sikiri** **kyle**
 sí’kí’rì’ kyélé
 sugar leftover
 ‘leftover sugar’

8.0 Locatives

According to Longacre (1983) and Loos et al (2004), a locative is a semantic role which identifies the location or

spatial orientation of a state or action. The Oxford dictionary defines a locative as relating to or denoting a case in some languages of nouns, pronouns, and adjectives, expressing location. The two definitions show that both actions (verbs) and entities (nominals) require the use of locatives. In our context the use of locatives with nominals is the focus. The locatives in Nandome are basically postpositional phrases. On a critical look these postpositional phrases are made of a genitive noun followed by another noun which indicates the place. For example;

60. **Tee** **zu**
 tiè zú
 Tree.Pos top
 'top of a tree'
61. **Die** **poɔ**
 di`è pùḍ
 room.Pos inside
 'inside the room'

9.0 Summary and Conclusion

The study presents findings so far in the grammar description of Nandome. The components of the nominal system of Nandome presented in this paper set a bases for the discussion of syntax of the nominal system of Nandome. The paper reveals four groups of noun heads (members in the circle in figure 2); the nouns, the pronouns, the noun clauses and the results of nominalizations. The nouns are basically divided into the proper and the common noun. The common nouns are further divided into the tangible and the intangible nouns. The tangible nouns are further divided into the solid and the liquid nouns whilst the intangible nouns are further divided into the gas and the abstract nouns. In terms of the noun clauses a non-finite noun clause is yet to be observed. The nominalizations include; the gerundive, the agentive and the non-agentive nominalizations. In terms of natural classes, the nouns exhibit seven (7) different classes. The agentive nominalization is similar to class (1) which takes **bɛ** as a plural marker, the non-agentive is similar to class 4 which uses /i/ or /ɪ/ as the plural marker and the gerundive nominalization is similar to class six (6) which do not have an overt marker for plurality. The paper also reveals four major groups of modifiers to the various groups of the noun heads. These modifiers include; the determiners, the adjectives, the units of measure and the locatives. The determiners are divided into articles and demonstratives. The adjectives are divided into the real adjective and the adjectivals. The adjectivals are also divided into the word adjectivals (which refer to the nouns that are used as adjectives) and the clause adjectivals. The units of measure are divide basically into those that offer definite measure, those that offer indefinite measure and those that depict a fraction (the partitives). Those of the definite measure are either collocation free or collocation bound. Those of indefinite measure are either in single word form or in a clause form. The locatives are made up of a genitive noun and another noun which acts as a postposition.

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Abbreviations

1	first person
2	second person
3	third person
AG	agent marker
CBU	collocation bound unit
CFU	collocation free unit
Comp	complementizer
Def	definite article
Foc	focus marker
GM	gerund marker
GSS	Ghana statistics service
ICU	indefinite clausal unit
ILU	indefinite lexical unit
In Art	indefinite article
INST	instrument marker
Neg	negation marker
Perf	perfect aspect marker
pl	plural marker
Pos	possession marker
PT	patient marker
sg	singular

Appendix

Proper nouns

Personal names

- a. Der
- b. Yuora
- c. Aanyinemuo
- d. Kuubebobr
- e. Mwinniabangne

Event names (EN)

- a. Kakube (festival)
- b. Kobine (festival)
- c. Kukurbagr (festival)
- d. Bagrkyur

Land mark names

- a. Kaabaa (waterbody)
- b. Marya Tang (mountain)- Mt. Mary
- c. Bulebule (waterbody)
- d. Yezu Tang (mountain)-Mt. Jesus
- e. Tangsela – Black Mt.

Place names

- a. Nandom
- b. Bu
- c. Goziir
- d. Segru
- e. Pataal

Common nouns

Concrete Count	Gloss
a. teɛ	tree
b. pero	sheep
c. kɔg	stool
d. laa	bowl
e. kure	shorts

Liquid	Gloss
a. koɔ	water
b. dorɔ	urine
c. dɔã	drink
d. zeɛr	soup
e. zee	blood

Time Abstract	Gloss
a. yuon	year
b. bibir	day
c. koseɛra	week
d. kyug	month
e. gogo-miti	hour-minute

Concrete Non-count	Gloss
a. tan	soil
b. zɔ̃	flour
c. biire	sand
d. kyɪ	millet
e. bin	faeces

Non-time Abstract	Gloss
a. Potuo	wickedness
b. popeelo	happiness
c. Nyuur	envy
d. noɔ	joy
e. iangtuo	laziness

Gas (G)	Gloss
a. seseb	air
b. zoor	smoke
c. gaas	gas fuel