

òkélò òtùàkò gĩ- nón bóth dhàkò m̀erè.
 Okelo 3.speak.PFV thing- HEA PREP woman 3.SG.POSS
 'Okelo spoke about that to his wife.'

The verb *m̀iyò* 'give', however, presents the recipient without a preposition:

ìmíyò ẁunú gĩ pí.
 2.give.IMV 2.PLS 3.PLO water
 'You give them water.'

Peripheral participants are introduced by means of a rich set of prepositions, for which see section 6.1.

4 The verb phrase

The verb phrase has the following basic structure:

negation - auxiliary - verb - object

Examples

món ònyò cùò bà mító màdhò gíní thábá.
 women or men NEG want.IMV drink 3.PLS tobacco
 'Neither women nor men want to smoke.'

4.1 Verbs

Verbs are inflected for a variety of grammatical functions, in particular for person, number, aspect (4.3.1), modality (4.3, 4.5), and valency (4.2). Labwor is an inherently aspectual language, and in accordance with their aspectual behavior, verbs can be divided into the five lexical classes to be discussed below. These classes are defined in terms of the aspectual event schema that they represent, where event schemas are described in terms of the following three phrases: an initial boundary or change of state (CS₁), a state or situation (S), and a final boundary or change of state (CS₂).

(a) **Totally stative verbs (TSTA).** Compared to many other languages, Labwor has a large membership of verbs belonging to this class. Events described by TSTA verbs have no boundary; the lexical meaning consists of a state (S) only. The following are members of this verb class:

<i>kwáàr</i>	‘to be red’
<i>béèr</i>	‘to be good’
<i>pàth</i>	‘not to be’
<i>pék</i>	‘to be heavy’
<i>pwôth</i>	‘to be slippery’
<i>ràc</i>	‘to be bad’
<i>tùò</i>	‘to be ill, sick’

These verbs can combine neither with the perfective nor the progressive aspect, they are compatible only with the imperfective, which highlights the existing state (S). Thus, while the imperfective sentence in (1) is well-formed, the corresponding perfective (2) and progressive sentences (3) are not.

- (1) *kìdhí* *pék*.
stone be.heavy.IMV
‘The stone is heavy.’
- (2) **kìdhí* *ópék*.
stone be.heavy. PFV
- (3) **kìdhí* *tíê kà* *pèk*
stone PROG be.heavy

(b) Inceptive stative verbs (ISTA). This is a fairly small class of verbs, which highlight the initial boundary (CS₁) and the current state (S) of an event, while the final boundary (CS₂) is not part of the lexical meaning of these verbs. Only the following verbs were identified in König's (forthc.) sample:

<i>cìŋ</i>	'to stand'
<i>kwɔ</i>	'to be alive'
<i>nénɔ</i>	'to be awake'
<i>ŋeo</i>	'to know'
<i>rɔm</i>	'to be equal, to be enough'

All three aspects, imperfective, perfective, and progressive, can be used with these verbs. The imperfective highlights the existing state, the perfective the completed crossing of the initial boundary (CS₁), and with the progressive the situation change is viewed as if it were a gradual process that is not yet completed.

(c) Action verbs (ACTI). These verbs cover the prototypical event type, which has a clear beginning (CS₁), a delimited timespan during which the event takes place (S), and a clear ending (CS₂). The following is a small sample of verbs belong to this class:

<i>càmò</i>	'to eat'
<i>cìdhò</i>	'to go'
<i>kùòr̀ò</i>	'to wait'
<i>kwàf̀ò</i>	'to steal'
<i>módhó</i>	'to drink (water)'
<i>nén</i>	'to see'
<i>ŋwêc</i>	'to run'
<i>tèdhò</i>	'to speak'
<i>tír</i>	'to break'
<i>yàb̀ò</i>	'to open'

The imperfective and the progressive highlight the ongoing action (S); the perfective views the event as a whole and highlights the crossing over to CS₂, whereby the perfective also gets a past tense connotation. The following examples illustrate this verb class with the three aspect categories:

Òkéló kwàlò àthín.

Okelo steal.IMV child

(a) 'Okelo steals the child.'

(b) 'Okelo usually steals a child.'

Òkéló òkwàlò àthín.

Okelo steal.PFV child

'Okelo has stolen the child.'

Òkéló tíê kà kwàlò àthín.

Okelo PROG steal child

'Okelo is stealing the child.'

(d) Gradually terminative verbs (GTER). These verbs are telic; they highlight the end of the event (CS₂), the beginning is unimportant, i.e. it is not part of the event schema. In König's (forthc.) sample there is only one verb in this class, namely *thò* 'to die'. The verb combines with all the aspect markers, its event schema consists of two phases: the final boundary (CS₂), preceded by a short state (S). The left boundary (CS₁), which would mark the beginning of the event, is not lexicalized. The progressive highlights the phase S which leads to the final change of state (CS₂):

èn óthò.

3.SG die.PFV

'He is dead.'

èn thó.

3.SG die.IMV

(a) 'He dies.' or (b) 'He can die.'

èn tíê kà thò.

3.SG PROG die

'He is in the process of dying.'

(e) Totally terminative verbs (TTER). These verbs are completely telic in meaning in that all three phases of the event schema instantly follow each other -- to the extent that once started, the end of the event is already reached. König (forthc.) found only one verb belonging to this class, namely *nùòjò* 'to find'. The perfective highlights the event being successfully completed, e.g.,

én ónùòjò tcìlín.

3.SG find.PFV money

'He (already) found money.'

Neither imperfective nor progressive can be used in their actual meaning since the event schema excludes the highlighting of the phase S; rather, the imperfective receives a habitual reading:

én núójó tcìlín.

3.SG find.IMV money

'He usually finds money.'

The progressive encodes a factitive meaning of a repeated act of finding:

à tíê kà nùòjò tcìlín.

1.SG PROG find money

'I find money. (I have found already some and I am still finding more).'

Copulas

In quite a number of contexts, utterances can be used without a copula, e.g.,

má- nón bɔɔ.
 PRON- HEA bɔɔ⁴
 'It is bɔɔ vegetable.'

More often than not, utterances can be used with or without copula without any significant difference in meaning, e.g.,

àthín 'még- á.
 child PREP- 1.SG
 or

àthín òbèdò még- á.
 child 3.be.PFV PREP- 1.SG
 'The child is mine.'

There are two copular verbs, namely *tîê* and *bèdò* and the two have largely complementary functions: Whereas *tîê* is mainly used to denote existence (1) and location (2), *bèdò* serves the expression of classification (3) and identification (4):

(1) án àtîê.
 1.SG 1.SG.be
 'I exist, I am around.'

(2) gín tíê kà- cà.
 3.PL be LOC- DIST
 'They are there.'

⁴ *bɔɔ* is perhaps the most popular (spinach-like) vegetable of the Labwor.

(3) líéc óbèdò lènì.
 elephant 3.be.PFV animal
 'An elephant is an animal.'

én bínó bèdò àpúóny.
 3.SG FUT be.INF teacher
 'She is going to be a teacher.'

(4) èthínò nà tíê kányì òbèdò mé wá.
 children REL be here 3.be.PFV PREP 1.EX
 'The children who are here are ours (i.e. not yours).'

But the situation is more complex in that both copulas have overlapping functions. For example, *bèdò* can also be used for existence (1) and location (2):

(1) òbèdò.
 3.be.PFV
 'He exists.'

(2) àmító bèdò ká- cá.
 1.SG.want.IMV be.PFV LOC- DIST
 'I want to be there.'

But only *bèdò* can present nominal predicates (1) while *tíê* may present qualities (2):

(1) én bédó àpúóny.
 3.SG be teacher
 'She is a teacher.'

- (2) tíê nà bêr.
 be REL be.good
 'It is good.'

The functions of the two copulas can be summarized thus (where parentheses stand for “minor function”):

Function	<i>bèdò</i>	<i>tíê</i>
Existence	(+)	+
Location	(+)	+
Classification	+	-
Identification	+	-
Nominal predicate	+	-
Quality	-	+

bèdò is negated by means of the general negator *ba*, and the same applies to *tíê* but more often the latter takes the negative auxiliary *pé* instead (see 4.4):

bòò tíê. 'There is *bòò* vegetable.'

bòò be

bòò ó'pé. 'There is no *bòò* vegetable.'

bòò 3.be.NEG

4.2 Valency

There are three inflectional categories that serve to decrease the valency by one argument, which are the antipassive, the anticausative, and the benefactive. None of them is entirely productive but of all three, the antipassive is the most productive while the benefactive occurs only with a small number of verbs.

Antipassive

There is a classic antipassive category in Labwor, whereby the patient of a transitive verb is deleted, thus turning the transitive verb into an intransitive one, e.g.,

mán	òbèdò	mé	lùòkò	bój.	Transitive
this	3.be.PFV	PREP	wash.INF	clothes	
'This is for washing clothes.'					

mán	òbèdò	mé	lùòk.	Antipassive
this	3.be.PFV	PREP	wash.INF.AP	
'This is for washing (e.g. oneself).'				

The morphological means employed is inflectional, consisting of a change of the verb stem, as illustrated by the following examples:

<i>Transitive stem</i>	<i>Antipassive stem</i>	<i>Meaning</i>
càmò	cìèm	'eat'
lùòkò	lùòk	'wash'

The antipassive is however not an entirely productive operation: While many transitive verbs have a corresponding antipassive stem, a number of them do not.

Anticausative

Another morphosyntactic operation leading from transitive to intransitive verbs has the effect that the agent argument of the transitive verb is deleted, the patient thereby assuming the role of the sentence subject, e.g.,

ànyáká	òtèdò	rìjó.	Transitive
girl	3.cook.PFV	meat	
'The girl has cooked the meat.'			

rìṅó	ètèdò.	Anticausative
meat	3.cook.PFV.AC	

The following illustrates the imperfective paradigm of person markers of the anticausative stem *nén* of the transitive verb *nènò* 'to see':

1.SG	(án)	àncn	'I am seen, I am visible'
2.SG	(in)	inén	
3.SG	(én)	nén	
1.EX	(wán)	ènén	
1.IN	(ónú)	ènén	
2.PL	(wún)	inén	
3.PL	(gín)	nén	

Example

òt	tíè	kà	nén.
house	PROG	see.IMV.AC	
'The house is visible.'			

The anticausative stem can, at least in many contexts, be indistinguishable from the transitive one (see the example above), but usually it is not, as the following examples of imperfective stems show:

<i>Transitive stem</i>	<i>Anticausative stem</i>	<i>Meaning</i>
nènò	nén	'see'

One difference concerns the third person perfective forms, where the prefix *ɔ/o-* changes to *ε/e-* in the anticausative:

<i>Transitive form</i>	<i>Anticausative form</i>	<i>Meaning</i>
ɔkwàlò	èkwàlò	'steal'
òmòdhò	èmòdhò	'drink (water)'
ònènò	ènènò	'see'
òtèdò	ètèdò	'cook'

Benefactive

The benefactive is coded by means of the morpheme *-ɪ* which is suffixed to the verb stem:

kèl pì! 'Bring water!'

kèl- ɪ n- à pì!
 bring- BEN PREP- 1.SG.POSS water
 'Bring me water!'

Causative

Causativity of verbs is almost invariably coded by means of a grammaticalized form of the verb *mìyò* 'give' as the main verb:

én wóló. 'He coughs.'

én míyá àwóló.
 3.SG give.IMV.1.SG.O 1.SG.S.cough.IMV

'He makes me cough.'

4.3 Tense, aspect, and modality (TAM)

4.3.1 Inflections

Labwor is essentially an aspectual language with an obligatory imperfective vs. perfective distinction: Verb forms in declarative utterances must be inflected for either of these aspects. Unlike Lango (cf. Noonan 1992), Labwor has no inflectional progressive aspect; rather, a progressive is formed regularly via periphrasis, as we will see below. The main inflectional categories of TAM being imperfective (IMV), perfective (PFV), and subjunctive (SUBJ). There is no regular segmental morphology distinguishing these TAM categories, rather, there is an interaction of tonological and phonological features characterizing them.

Imperfective

For details on the behavior of this category, see 4.1. The following is an example of an imperfective paradigm of person markers:

1.SG		à-cámó rìṅó	'I eat meat'
2.SG		ì-cámó rìṅó	
3.SG		cámó rìṅó	
1.EX	(wán)	wè-cámó rìṅó	
1.IN	ónú	è-cámó rìṅó	
2.PL	wún	ì-cámó rìṅó	
3.PL	gín	cámó rìṅó	

Perfective

Typically, the perfective expresses completed actions and bounded situations viewed as a whole, e.g.,

éń ńńó àgúń. Imperfective
 3.SG smoothen.IPF pot
 'He will smoothen the pot.'

vs.

éń óńńó àgúń. Perfective
 3.SG 3.smoothen.PFV pot
 'He has made the pot smooth.'

For details on the behavior of the perfective, see section 4.1.

Subjunctive

The subjunctive form constitutes, among others, the base of the imperative stem (where the prefix is omitted), and it is used with complement verbs in some categories of deontic modality. For example, the verb *míò* 'want' expresses volition when taking the indicative as a complement (cf. (1)) but obligation with the subjunctive (2):

(1) éń mító ńńèńó.
 3.SG want.IMV know.INF
 'He wants to know.'

(2) éń mító òńé.
 3.SG want.IMV 3.know.SUBJ
 'He should, must know.'

The subjunctive is commonly used in purpose clauses, e.g.,

kòńy ék kúr óthòó.
 help PUR NEG.IMP 3.die.SUBJ
 'Help him so that he won't die!'

The following is a sample of subjunctive stems (third person singular forms):

<i>Infinitive</i>	<i>Subjunctive</i>	<i>Meaning</i>
càmò rìjò	òcàm ríjò	'eat meat'
ciém	òciém	'eat (AP)'
cùŋ	òcùŋ	'stand up'
kwàlò	òkwál	'steal'
lùòkò bòŋ	òlùòk bòn	'wash clothes'
mìnò pì	òmì pí	'give water'
mòdhò pì	òmòth pí	'drink water'
nènò	òněn	'see'
ŋènò	òŋé	'know'
wòlò	òwǎl	'cough'

A number of intransitive verbs take the suffix *-í* (PL *-í*) in the subjunctive (cf. 4.5):

<i>Infinitive</i>	<i>Subjunctive</i>	<i>Meaning</i>
lùòkò	òlùòk-í	'wash (AP)'
ŋwèc	òŋwèc-í	'run'
tèdò	òtèd-í	'cook (AP)'
yàbò	òyàb-í	'open (AP)'

4.3.2 Periphrastic constructions

In the same way as inflectional aspect constructions, there are also lexical-periphrastic constructions that have been created to express aspect and tense distinctions.

Phasal concepts

In order to express ingressive and completive actions, the most common way is by using, respectively, the telic verbs *càkò* 'start, begin' and *tièkò* 'finish' in an aspectual function:

gín ɔcàkò càmò rìṅó.
3.PL 3.start.PFV eat.INF meat
'They began to eat meat.'

òkélò ótièkò màdhò kḍṅò.
Okelo 3.finish.PFV drink.INF beer
'Okelo finished drinking beer.'

Habitual

While the imperfective expresses habitual actions in many of its uses, the most pronounced way for coding habituality is by using *màró* 'love, like' with an infinitival verb complement. Example (1) illustrates the lexical use of the verb while (2) can be understood to express either the lexical or the grammatical meaning of a habitual aspect. In contexts where the lexical meaning makes little sense, as in (3), *màró* has primarily a habitual function.

(1) éṅ máró àthín.
3.SG love.IMV child
'He loves the child.'

(2) éṅ máró bìnò.
3.SG love.IMV come.INF
a 'He likes to come.'

b 'He usually comes.'

- (3) én máró tùò.
3.SG love.IMV be.sick
'He is usually sick (also: 'He is always sick.').'

Progressive

Unlike some other Western Nilotic languages, Labwor has a full-fledged progressive aspect, which is a grammaticalized construction based on the location schema (*X is at Y*), using the copular verb *tíê* and the locative preposition *kà*. The nominal character of the construction is still visible in the fact that the pronominal object is coded as a possessive attribute:

tíê kà kùrò ná.
be LOC wait.INF POSS.1.SG
'He is waiting for me.'

With inchoative-stative verbs the progressive highlights an inchoative process:

àgúlú ìl. 'The pot is smooth.'

vs.

àgúlú tíê kà ìl.
pot be LOC be.smooth
'The pot is becoming smooth.'

àtíê kà ñèò.
1.SG.be LOC know.INF
'I am learning it.'

Future

Labwor is overall an aspectual language in that the distinction imperfective vs. perfective is the most pervasive and frequently used means of signalling temporal contours of actions or events. Nevertheless, there are also two recurrent tense categories.

One is based on a crosslinguistically common schema, namely directed motion (*X goes to Y*), where the verb *binò* 'come' serves as an auxiliary and the main verb appears as an infinitival complement; consider the following example:

én bédó àpúóny.

3.SG be teacher

'He is a teacher.'

vs.

én bínó 'bédó àpúóny.

3.SG come.IMV be teacher

'He will be a teacher.'

That this future is a fully grammaticalized tense is suggested by the fact that the auxiliary verb and its historical source can cooccur in the same clause:

(án) àbínó bínô.

1.SG 1.SG.come.IMV come.INF

'I will come.'

Past

An entirely different source of grammaticalization has been used to develop a construction that can best be interpreted as a periphrastic past tense; consider the following examples:

án. 'It is me.'

1.SG

vs.

ònúòrjò án. 'It was me.'

The form *ònùòhò* is the third person perfective form of the verb *mìòhò* 'find' which has been grammaticalized to a past tense marker. The following example illustrates both the lexical (1) and the functional use of the form (2).

(1) *ònùòhò.* 'He found it.'
 3.find.PFV

(2) *ònùòhò bínó.* 'He came.'
 PAST come.INF

That the past tense marker *ònùòhò* is felt, at least to some extent, to be verbal in character is suggested by the fact that it cannot cooccur with its lexical source, i.e. the verb *mìòhò* 'to find', hence the following example is not well-formed:

? *én ónùòhò ònùòhò.*
 3.SG PAST 3.find.PFV

Unlike other de-verbal tense markers, *ònùòhò* has not developed into an auxiliary but rather behaves like an adverb; hence, it can appear in various syntactic slots of the clause. Thus, in the following examples it is placed either clause-initially (1) or clause-finally (2):

(1) *ònùòhò àtíê kà àthím àcíêl.* 'I had one child.'
 PAST 1.SG.have child one

or

àtíê kà àthím àcíêl ònùòhò
 1.SG.have child one PAST

ònùòhò also serves to present irrealis conditionals:

ká ónùòṅò dhákó tíê k- èthínò kó cúínyé-yòm.
 PROT PAST woman have- children APO be.happy
 'If the woman had had children she would have been happy.'

4.4 Negation

Verbal negation is achieved by means of the general negator *ba*, which follows the subject noun phrase and precedes the verbal word, e.g.,

án bá àbédò àthím mē àcíél.
 1.SG NEG 1.SG.be.IMV child PREP one
 'I am not the first child.'

The following illustrates the imperfective paradigm of negation:

1.SG án bá ànénó dhìàṅ 'I don't see a cow'
 2.SG ín bá `ménó dhìàṅ
 3.SG én bá nénó dhìàṅ
 1.EX wán bá ènénó dhìàṅ
 1.IN ónù bá ènénó dhìàṅ
 2.PL wún bá `ménó dhìàṅ
 3.PL gín bá nénó dhìàṅ

ba causes a following high tone to be downstepped:

én bá 'ócuṅ.

3.SG NEG 3.stand.PFV
 'He doesn't stand.'

The copula *tiê* may take *ba* but more often uses the negative auxiliary *pé* instead:

án bá àtiê ká- cá.
 1.SG NEG 1.SG.be LOC- DIST

or

án àpé ká- cá.
 1.SG 1.SG.be.NEG LOC- DIST
 'I am not there.'

Since *tiê* occurs in a number of grammaticalized constructions, *pé* is also found in all those constructions as the negative counterpart of *tiê*, such constructions being in particular those of existence (1), predicative possession (2), and the progressive aspect.

(1) pì ó'pé.
 water 3.be.NEG
 'There is no water.'

cf.

pì tíê.
 water be
 'There is water.'

(2) gín ó'pé kí tíc.
 3.PL 3.be.NEG PREP work
 'They have no work.'

cf.

gín tíê kí tíc.

3.PL 3.be.NEG PREP work
 'They have work.'

Concerning negation in modally marked constructions, see 4.5 below.

4.5 Imperative and deontic modality

The second person singular imperative consists of the simple subjunctive stem. The corresponding plural form takes the dominant [+ATR] suffix *-í*, which changes a [-ATR] verb stem into [+ATR]:

lò éń! 'Defeat him!'

lò-ù gí! 'Defeat (ye) them!'

kùr náka kòth òcùé!

wait until rain 3.rain.PFV
 'Wait until it rains!'

The following is a sample of imperative verb forms:

<i>Infinitive</i>	<i>Imperative</i>		<i>Meaning</i>
	<i>Singular</i>	<i>Plural</i>	
bínó	bín	bín-ú	'come'
cúj	cúj	cùj-ú	'stand up'
kèlò	kèl	kèl-ù	'bring'
kùr	kùr	kùr-ú	'wait'
kwàlò	kwàl	kwàl-ù	'steal (tr.)'

lìb	lì	lì-ú	'smoothen'
lùkò	lùk	lùk-ú	'wash'
mìyò	mǐ	mì-ú	'give'
mòdhò	mòdh-í	mòdh-ú	'drink (water)'
nènò	nén	nèn-ú	'see'
ḡwècò	ḡwèc-í	ḡwèc-ú	'run'
wóló	wól	wól-ú	'cough'
yàbò	yàp	yàb-ú	'open'

Quite commonly, the imperative form takes the second person subject pronoun *i/i-* of the modality paradigm (see below):

̀kúr	<i>or</i>	ín	̀kúr!	'(You) wait!'
2.SG.wait		2.SG	2.SG.wait	

A negative imperative is formed with the particle *kúr* followed by the subjunctive verb form:

kúr	íḡó	wú'nú	dhòk	kì	lúth!
NEG.IMP	2.hit.SUBJ	2.PLS	cattle	PREP	stick
'Don't beat the cows with a stick!'					

kòny	gí	ék	kúr	óthò	gíní!
help	3.PLO	PURP	NEG.IMP	3.die.SUBJ	3.PLS
'Help them so that so that they won't die!'					

kúr (wún) itúák- 'ú lép thùr!
 NEG.IMP 2.PL.S 2.speak- PL tongue Labwor
 'Don't (ye) speak the Labwor language!'

The imperative is part of the paradigm of deontic modality of obligation:

1.SG kúr ábín 'I shouldn't come'
 2.SG kúr íbín (a) 'you shouldn't come', (b) 'don't come!'
 3.SG kúr ó'bín 's/he shouldn't come'
 1.IN wán kúr ébín 'we (but not you) shouldn't come'
 1.EX ónú kúr ébín 'we (all) shouldn't come'
 2.PL wún kúr íbín-ú (a) 'you (PL) shouldn't come',
 (b) 'don't (ye) come!'
 3.PL gín kúr ó'bín 'they shouldn't come'

There is a range of periphrastic constructions employed for expressing distinctions of deontic modality. Obligation is not only coded by the subjunctive but perhaps more commonly by the matrix verb *mító* 'want', with the complement verb presented in the subjunctive:

én mító òlùšk bòn.
 3.SG want.IPF 3.wash.SUBJ clothes
 'She must wash the clothes.'

Ability and permission are expressed generally by either of the matrix verbs *rámò* 'be sufficient' or *tùèrò* 'be able':

éń rómó càmò
 3.SG be.sufficient eat.INF
 'He is allowed to/can eat.'

òkélò túéró yàbò.
 Okelo be.able open.INF
 'Okelo may open it.'

A hortative construction is formed with the imperative form (*wèk*) of the verb *wèk* 'leave' plus the person-inflected subjunctive form of the main verb. Example (1) shows the lexical use of *wèk*, while (2) illustrates the hortative paradigm:

(1) éń ówèkò díél- é kàny.
 3.SG 3.leave.PFV goat- 3.SG.POSS here
 'He left his goat here.'

(2) wèk àcídíhí 'let me go!'

 wèk ócídíhí 'let him go!'

 wèk gí ócídíhí 'let them go!'

There is also a hortative first person plural form which consists of the particle *áru* and the verb taking the second person plural suffix *-ú*:

áru écídíh- ú! 'Let us go!'

HORT 1.PL.go.SUBJ- PL