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The first article proposes a new name for the Southern Khoisan family, based on the fact that all sufficiently attested languages show some reflex of the noun *tuu 'people'. This is a more suitable alternative to previous terms, because it not only unambiguously identifies the genealogical unit and is in line with established conventions for classificatory nomenclature, but also avoids several drawbacks of other terms, among them the heretofore unproven idea of a genealogical unit Khoisan. The second article gives more substantial and systematic evidence that Tuu alias Southern Khoisan itself is in fact a coherent genealogical entity. It first outlines basic structural features of Tuu languages showing that they constitute a robust and typologically fairly distinct language type. It goes on to show that this is associated with a sufficient amount of soundmeaning correspondences, in both grammar and lexicon, in order to warrant an interpretation in terms of inheritance from a common ancestor language. Both studies are the result of work carried out in the project 'Genetic and typological profile of the Tuu language family (alias Southern Khoisan): cataloguing and linguistic analysis of existing sources'. My sincere thanks to the 'Deutsche Forschungsgemeinschaft' for having sponsored this project with a research grant.

Studies in Tuu (Southern Khoisan)

Tom Güldemann

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"Tuu" - a new name for the Southern Khoisan family¹

The languages commonly subsumed under the name "Southern Khoisan" have been grouped into a classificatory unit since D. Bleek's survey research in the early 20th century. That this is indeed a genealogically defined group has been maintained by most scholars familiar with the primary language data although hardly any work has been published to substantiate this claim. For first substantial data on this topic, the reader is referred to Hastings (2001) and the paper appearing here in the same issue of ULPA.

It is certainly not desirable to arbitrarily change nomenclature which identifies a certain entity more or less correctly and is well established in the previous literature. So the first question here is: Why a new name for the family at issue? There exist several reasons for this, which will be outlined below. To begin with, I present in Table 1 a fairly complete list of labels assigned to this group in previous surveys of Khoisan.

Family name	Reference
Southern Bushman	Bleek 1927 etc.
Southern Khoisan	Schapera 1930
Southern Khoisan	Greenberg 1963
Taa and !Wi as two independent families	Westphal 1971
Khoisan méridional composed of !Kwi and Non-!Kwi	Köhler 1981
Südkhoisan	Winter 1981
!Ui-Taa	Güldemann and Voßen 2000

Table 1: Names for the family in previous surveys

The use of a geographical designation "southern" in the majority of the above terms has several defects. Of relatively minor concern is that this usage is factually incorrect. The most southerly of the languages which have been subsumed under the label Khoisan are actually Khoekhoe varieties belonging to the Khoe family (alias Central Khoisan). More serious is the fact that the term invites potential confusion with the commonly used term "South African Khoisan" going back to Greenberg's work. This comprises all of Khoisan except the isolated languages Sandawe and Hadza in Tanzania, including the family at issue. Still more problematic is that a label involving a RELATIONAL geographical term like "southern" does not provide a basic, self-contained identification of the group. Intimately connected with this is that "Southern" is set into opposition to "Northern" and "Central",

¹ The paper has been announced for quite some time as: *Khoisan Forum, Working Papers* 19. Köln: Institut für Afrikanistik, Universität zu Köln; that this did not materialize was beyond my control.

The glosses of the examples are my own. Abbreviations: IPFV imperfective, PRO pronoun, PROP proper name, Q question, REL relative, STAT stative. Arabic numbers indicate nominal agreement classes insofar as they are relevant.

inviting - as intended explicitly by Schapera and Greenberg and tentatively by Köhler - the conclusion about a genealogical link between all lineages assigned to Khoisan. This hypothesis, however, has thus far not been established by standardly accepted linguistic methods and is far from obvious on the basis of the available data (see inter alia Güldemann and Voßen 2000).

"!Ui-Taa" or similar terms have suggested themselves as alternatives since the publications of Westphal, who opposed Greenberg's general classification hypothesis, referring instead to the two major subgroups of the family by their respective common form for 'person'. However, such a designation has actually been used explicitly only once, in the recent survey by Güldemann and Voßen (2000). Compared with the major defects mentioned for the first set of terms, it certainly fares better, but it is also not ideal. A binary term referring to major subbranches is still not an optimal identificatory label for this group. "Basic-level" classificatory units ("families" in the sense of Nichols (1992)) predominantly have basic and simple labels. This is also warranted for the family at issue, even more so because in the present state of knowledge it is a primary unit on the world level in having no obvious genealogical relative. Equally important is the fact that a term like !Ui-Taa presupposes a particular internal composition for the family, namely a neat split into two branches. This hypothesis has thus far not been established by historical-comparative work, and it will never be so with any certainty because the majority of languages have become extinct without having been documented sufficiently. A term like !Ui-Taa might arguably be acceptable were it not for the fact that there exists an alternative label that is clearly more suitable in the present context. This will be the subject of the remainder of the article.

Note first in this respect that there exists a general trend in Khoisan studies to replace geographical terms for the major language groups in Southern Africa by a nomenclature that is based on the respective common terms for 'person, people', a trend which has become more and more established: "Khoe" for Central Khoisan, "Ju" for Northern Khoisan,² and finally "!Ui" and "Taa" for apparently cohesive subgroups of the family at issue. This usage conforms with a widespread practice for other genealogical language groups in and outside Africa, and in Khoisan research in particular goes back to Westphal (1971) and Köhler (1971, 1973/4).

What is still lacking is a term of this kind for the whole of Southern Khoisan. A survey of the data available on this family yields a lexical item which is a very good candidate vis-à-vis the nomenclature conventions mentioned above. Bleek (1956: 239-40) lists a nominal entry restricted to but well attested across the family. It has the form tu and is translated by her as 'man' and/or 'who'.

Although Bleek does not justify the association of the two different meanings, her analysis is certainly justified by the available data because the relevant languages share the following grammatical trait: content interrogatives ("wh-questions") are frequently rendered by the cooccurrence of a general question marker with an indefinite proform which conveys the onomasiological category

² For this family, there exists a competing alternative using the term "!Xũu", also meaning 'person'.

of the referent under consideration (see Bhat (2000) for a crosslinguistic perspective on this phenomenon). The indefinite proform can be a generic noun, a pronoun, or even a verbal item. The last possibility is exemplified by a structure in Eastern !Xõo in which the notion 'where' is expressed by the combination of the general question marker /V and the indefinite locative verb $\bar{a}h'\tilde{a}$ 'be (at some place)'.

(1) /-é bōlo //xáo ń āh'ã !núm tshûu /îi
Q-3 PROP.3 ? be.somewhere stay sit STAT
Where does bōlo ||xáo live? (Traill 1994: 18)

Concerning the notion 'who', it can be stated for the family that the indefinite proform of the complex interrogative can involve a pronoun or a generic noun meaning 'person, people'. The latter case is shown by the following example from |Xam (see Güldemann (forthcoming a) for the modified transliteration). The relevant question type is conveyed by a combination of the general question marker *xa* and the singular stem !u(i) 'person', which displays in addition a suffix *-di* or *-de* conveying 'which'.³

(2) !u-di xa aa n/aa !utau
person.1-which Q 1REL see Sirius
Who was it who saw Sirius? (Bleek and Lloyd 1911: 338-9)

The same phenomenon applies to the stem tu, which motivated Bleek's assumption of an etymological relation between the stem's attestations glossed as 'man' and those glossed as 'who'. This is shown in the following example from N|huki and will be substantiated below by data from other languages.

(3) tyú xè 'à Owà person Q your child
Wie is jou kind? [who is your (SINGULAR) child?] (Westphal, no date)

I will now present cognates of the etymon from virtually all reasonably well documented speech varieties, covering almost the entire distribution area of the family. This presentation takes not only the assumed basic meaning of the noun into account, but also its possible use in interrogatives and - as will be demonstrated below - in contexts where it serves as (the nucleus of) a proform.

First, the lexeme is found across the entire Taa branch of the family, where it has a fairly homogeneous meaning, namely 'people'. The best information comes from the Lone Tree variety of

³ The stem !u(i) is a cognate of the noun that provided the designation for one of the two recognized branches of the family. The suffix -di, -de seems to be derived itself from an indefinite locative verb 'be (at some place)' (see Güldemann forthcoming c), because it is similar in behavior to $!X\tilde{o} \ \bar{a}h'\tilde{a}$, which also renders both 'where' and 'which'. Thus, the interrogative reading of -di, -de, too, would have been tied originally to its cooccurrence with a question marker.

Eastern !Xõo. Traill (1994: 154, 157) has the entry tuu 'people, kin' (noun class 4), which is the suppletive plural counterpart of the stem taa 'person (specially a Bushman), a proper person' (noun class 3).⁴ Further, Traill (1994: 156) reports a plural suffix -tu, which is restricted to human plural nouns of class 4; it is highly probable that this morpheme goes back to an earlier compound pattern with tuu 'people' as its head noun. Finally, in discussing pronominal paradigms, Westphal (1971: 416) gives the following relevant information from the \ddagger Hua variety of Eastern !Xõo: "The alternative in [3rd-person] plural [see the second clause in example (4); the significance of the glottal gesture in tu'u is unclear] literally means 'The people are walking' but it is frequently used in the meaning of 'They are walking'." That is, the noun can be used as a proform, here for the category 3rd-person human plural.

(4) *hu'u ba y!aa* or *tu'u ba y!aa*4PRO IPFV walk people.4 IPFV walk
They are walking (Westphal 1971: 416)

The scanty data available for Western Taa varieties largely conform with the above. Bleek (inter alia 1956: 240) gives tu with the meaning 'person' for a variety in central-western Namibia called by her |Nu||en. For reasons one can only speculate about, she fails to note a restriction of the noun to plural number. This, however, is attested in the remaining data on Western Taa collected in the same area and further south (Westphal (1966: 139) on N|amani, Traill (1974: 15) on \bigcirc Ha and Aminuis !Xõo).

Several details in the above presentation, especially as regards the most reliable data provided in Traill's (1994) dictionary, are noteworthy for the following discussion: (a) the relevant noun stem has in most, if not all, varieties a plural meaning; (b) it can be recruited for various grammatical purposes; (c) its phonetic form [tuu] displays a sequence of two identical vowels and thus conforms to an expected stem-formation pattern CVV; and (d) the entire stem pair *taa/ tuu* has at least in some varieties a special connotation of 'proper person, person from one's own group, San person'.

Another set of attestations comes from the little-known varieties encountered in the Lower Nosop area. With respect to |Haasi, the data given by Story (1999) do not display a noun stem with such a meaning and they pose general problems of analysis. However, his text (ibid.: 33-4) contains several tokens of the word *sitjo*: meaning 'us' and referring consistently to the social group of the speaker. It is highly probable that this form is morphologically complex, being composed of the 1st-person plural exclusive pronoun *si* and a nominal stem *tjoo* cognate with *tuu* 'people', and thus means literally 'us/our (EXCLUSIVE) people'. This hypothesis is based on (a) the close semantic match between the |Haasi expression in the text and its two putative cognates *si* and *tuu*, especially regarding the exclusive reference to one's own social group, (b) the fact that the phonetic differences between *tjoo*

⁴ The noun *taa* has provided the name for the Taa branch of the family.

and *tuu* are minor and explainable (o and u alternate frequently in older transcriptions; palatalization is known in the relevant area, cf. in (3) the form *tyu* in the geographically close N|huki), (c) the observation that such complex proforms are not uncommon in the area, and (d) the fact that Story's word list (ibid.: 23) also gives expressions with *tjo*: as equivalents of 'they', 'we', and 'you (PLURAL)' (however, these are not transparent semantically and lacking in the pronoun list of his grammar sketch). For another variety, |'Auni, Bleek (1937: 265) lists the following relevant items: *tuke*, *tuku*, *tutuse*, and *tutusi*, translated as 'men, boys, people'. It is beyond the scope of this paper to explain these different forms in detail and show that Bleek's analysis of them is blurred (see Güldemann (2002) regarding the last two forms). It suffices to note here that the first element *tu* in all these forms is cognate with the etymon under discussion. Also, Bleek (ibid.: 255, 259) gives an element *du* as a pronoun meaning 'you (PLURAL)' or 'they'. Although her data must be evaluated with caution, these items may represent other instances of the grammatical use of the generic noun *tu*.

The noun stem has equally clear reflexes across the !Ui branch of the family. In the group of varieties documented best, namely the |Xam cluster south of the Lower and Middle Orange River, *tukon* 'men' is given as the suppletive plural counterpart of the stem *gwai* 'man, male' (Bleek 1928-30: 92). It can be added from my own research on this language that this form contains besides the relevant stem a plural suffix (double plural marking, here by suppletion and suffix, is a general trait in this language and the family in general; see Güldemann forthcoming b, c). Bleek also mentions that this plural form is used regularly as the head of a compound pattern deriving masculine plural animates.

(5)	toï	gwai	vs.	toï-ta	tukən
	ostrich	male		ostrich-?	males
	male ostrich, strong ostrich			male ostri	ches (Bleek 1928-30: 96)

A similar picture is found in the closest attested relative of |Xam, namely the cluster of !Ui varieties north of the Orange River in Gordonia. My analysis of Westphal's field notes on N|huki has yielded *tyu-ke* 'men' (again with the additional plural suffix) vs. $\neq oo$ 'man' as well as a complex interrogative *tyu* (...) *xae* 'who' which is composed of the stem and a general question marker (see (3) above). Other closely related varietes from Gordonia as well as those further southeast give evidence at least for the grammatical function as interrogative. Maingard (1937: 247) gives tj^hu -*xai* 'who' for \ddagger Khomani, and Bleek (2000: 23) similarly has *tu* involved in 'who'-questions of her N||ng. For \ddagger Ungkue, too, Meinhof (1929: 169, 181) reports the stem *tu* as the interrogative 'who'. Finally, it is probable that the ||Xegwi items *towa* and *twa-y* 'who' given by Lanham and Hallowes (1956: 118) also contain a reflex of this stem.

On account of all these data, it is possible to reconstruct a noun *tuu for the entire family. In some languages, it has a more limited semantic reference to 'men'. It has also acquired additional uses in

various pronominal expressions and sometimes has even been restricted to these contexts. However, a unifying and probably original meaning accounting for all attestations of the stem is 'people'.

I therefore propose this etymon in the form "Tuu" as the name for the entire genealogical unit. The new term is in line with established conventions for classificatory nomenclature in Khoisan studies and elsewhere, and it provides an unambiguous reference for the family which is suitable for any kind of further genealogical classification.

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Tuu as a language family¹

1. Introduction

Since Bleek (1927), the Tuu family, then known as "Southern Bushman", has been considered almost unanimously to be a genealogical unit within Khoisan; Westphal is the only scholar who has expressed reservations against this view. Nevertheless, sufficient empirical data in support of this hypothesis have yet to be presented. Traill's (1975) insightful study on some problems and potentials of establishing cognates aside, Hastings (2001) is in fact the first work ever that is dedicated to the question of whether Tuu is a language family.

There exist several reasons for such a situation. First, Khoisan languages have in general raised little interest in systematic historical-comparative work, in spite of the longstanding discussion about their classificatory status; Voßen's (1997) study on the Khoe family remains the first and only extensive work within this linguistic framework.

Second, very few Khoisan scholars have been working on Tuu languages with a deeper and sustained interest. Besides W. Bleek and L. Lloyd's groundbreaking work, only two scholars come to mind in this respect, D. Bleek and A. Traill.

Last but not least, the constraints regarding the empirical data for such a comparative study are considerable indeed. The majority of languages are extinct today; the only modern survivors are (a) several varieties of the Taa cluster in Botswana and Namibia and (b) remnants of the N||ng cluster in South Africa. The majority of historically attested varieties are only known from short word lists. The documentation of languages for which more data are available is highly defective; often the relevant field work extended over a very short time span and there are several cases where the data represent an idiolect of a single speaker. The Lone Tree dialect of Eastern !Xõo and, with reservations, the Strandberg and Katkop dialects of the |Xam cluster are the only varieties for which sufficient material has been available for some time. This situation will also bias any comparative Tuu research in the future, even if all still extant varieties will be fully documented.

The following discussion is an attempt to give, on the basis of the presently available data, more systematic empirical substance to the idea of Tuu as a language family and to remedy a situation in which only a few specialists are capable of understanding the reason why D. Bleek established this

¹ This paper was presented at the "International Symposium on Khoisan Languages and Linguistics in Memory of Jan W. Snyman" in Riezlern (Germany) January 4-7, 2003. The abbreviations used in examples are: ASS associative/ genitive, COP copula, D dual, DAT dative, DECL declarative, DEI deictic, FEM feminine, GQ general question, INT intention, IPFV imperfective, MPO multipurpose oblique, NOM nominalization, P plural, PROP proper name, Q question, REL relative, RELV relevance, S singular, STAT stative. Bare Arabic numerals refer to agreement classes which are indexed by pronominal items; only if immediately followed by S or P, they refer to person categories.

group in the first place. Compared to Hastings (2001), this study does not considerably expand the range of linguistic phenomena supporting the hypothesis. However, it is hoped to be an improvement on this first study, because it (a) includes more languages and dialects, (b) characterizes their general typological homogeneity, and (c) proposes a more substantial body of first, if still preliminary, reconstructions of grammatical and lexical items.

The presentation comes in two parts. In Section 2, I will outline various typological characteristics of the languages at issue, showing that Tuu represents a robust linguistic type, involving also cross-linguistically marked structures. While these shared features support the genealogical hypothesis, it must be borne in mind that they do not identify Tuu as a genealogical unit as long as the relevant grammatical markers do not involve cognate forms. Indeed, other Non-Khoe Khoisan² languages share many of these typological properties, but must be kept apart from the classificatory unit to be treated here. That the typological commonalities are accompanied by grammatical and lexical form-meaning correspondences will be demonstrated in Section 3; this can serve as a first basis for a more complete reconstruction of Proto-Tuu in the future. I will be concerned primarily with the unity of Tuu against other Khoisan language groups such as Khoe (alias Central Khoisan) and Ju (alias Northern Khoisan), i.e. the external classification of this family; its internal sub-grouping will not be discussed here.

Figure 1 gives a tentative sub-classification of Tuu and assigns the major data corpora available up to the present together with the respective researcher(s). Most importantly, it deviates from the previous conception that Lower Nosop varieties such as |'Auni and |Haasi belong to the !Ui branch. This cannot be justified here in detail; first evidence for this view is provided by Güldemann (2002).

Branch Selected varieties (main researchers) Subgroup

(1)Taa

	a. Eastern	Lone Tree !Xõo (Traill)
	b. Western	N amani (Westphal), N u en (D. Bleek)
	c. Lower Nosop	'Auni (D. Bleek), Haasi (Story)
(2	?)!Ui	
	a. N ng	[‡] Khomani (Doke, Maingard), N huki (Westphal), Langeberg (D. Bleek)
	b. Xam	Strandberg (W. Bleek, Lloyd), Katkop (W. Bleek, Lloyd), Achterveld (W. Bleek)
	c. Vaal-Orange	[‡] Ungkue (Meinhof), Ũ 'e (D. Bleek)
	d. Outliers	Xegwi (Lanham, Hallowes, Ziervogel), !Gã!ne (Anders)

Figure 1: Preliminary classification of Tuu

² See Güldemann (1998), Güldemann & Voßen (2000), and Güldemann (forthcoming) for this concept.

The data for the following comparison come from half a dozen Tuu varieties on which lexical AND grammatical material is available. If possible and necessary, I take recourse to more than one data corpus, namely for the Lower Nossop and N||ng groups. An overview over the language sample is given in Table 1, including abbreviations to be used below and the primary data sources. The geographical location of the languages is shown in the map; as can be seen there, the sample languages encompass the larger part of the attested distribution area of the family.

Unit	Subgroup	Variety	Abbr.	Major data sources
1	Eastern Taa	!Xõo of Lone Tree	XO	Traill 1994
2	Lower Nosop	'Auni	AU	D. Bleek 1937
		Haasi (idiolect)	HA	Story 1999
3	N ng	‡Khomani	KH	Doke + Maingard in Rheinallt Jones 1937
		N huki (idiolect)	NU	Westphal field notes
4	Xam	Xam of Strandberg	XA	W. Bleek & Lloyd 1911, D. Bleek 1928-30,
				D. Bleek 1956 (for lexicon)
5	Vaal-Orange	[‡] Ungkue (idiolect)	UN	Meinhof 1929
6	!Ui outliers	Xegwi	XE	Lanham & Hallowes 1956, Ziervogel 1955

Table 1: Sources of the present Tuu comparison



Distribution of the sampled Tuu languages

2. A general typological profile of Tuu

The following data do not aim at any comprehensive layout of the general language type, but give only a few characteristic structures which sufficiently identify a specific typological profile.

2.1. Basic clause structure

The unmarked constituent order in Tuu languages can be schematized as follows:

SUBJECT VERB OBJECT ADJUNCT

Markers for predication operators like negation, tense, aspect, modality, etc. are preverbal. There is one recurrent exception in that a gram encoding such concepts as perfect, resultative, stative, and relevance appears after the verb (phrase).

(1) XO

*''/nāh-m-sá !āh'u nêẽ /îi*PROP-2-P this.way be **RELV**The Lala are like this (Traill in prep.)

Serial verb constructions as well as more lexicalized compound-like verbs are found in all languages on which there is sufficient material.

(2) XO

 $\bar{a}h\ s\hat{\imath}i$ $s\hat{a}a$ // \dot{g} -be $\#h\hat{u}$ -ma $/n\bar{a}$ - $\tilde{\imath}$ $\#n\tilde{a}\tilde{\imath}$

 2S and go
 chop-3
 cut.up-2
 DAT-1D
 1D

 and you go to chop [class-3 concord speech error] it [skin.2] up for us two (Traill in prep.)

(3) XA

hi-ng tai !ũu //'aa
2-DECL walk go go.away
they walk off (Bleek & Lloyd 1911: 2)

(4) UN

k<u>ĕ</u>-tn n **gari !are** bone-P 3P **fall go.out**

Die Knochen fielen heraus [the bones fell out] (Meinhof 1929: 171/4)

Another important characteristic is that verbs are in their great majority maximally mono-transitive and that postverbal nominals outside a verb's valency are mostly marked by a default preposition, called here multipurpose oblique marker, which is independent of semantic roles.

(5) XO

!qhôo	k ē	f ābe	k ē	tâa	ŧàã		
teach	MPO :3	black.person.3	MPO :3	person.3	language.2		
teach the black man person's language i.e. !Xóõ (Traill 1994: 88)							

(6) XA

hi-ng	/ũeng-ki	/'ee	//xauken	au	/o'a	au	hĩ	/x'aa
2-DECL	do.thus-?	enter	blood	MPO	stomach	MPO	2	hand
They put the blood in the stomach with their hands like this. (Bleek & Lloyd 1911: 278)								

2.2. Selected special sentence types

Several Tuu languages display a complex construction for the expression of intention and proximative with the following structure:

SUBJECT INTENTION-GRAM PRONOUN-SUBJECT VERB

Its important property is that the subject is repeated after the intention marker as a pronoun. This presumably results from an earlier biclausal quotative structure conveying internal awareness, something like [X say/think X do], which was later grammaticalized with the special meaning of volition.

(7) UN

ha etang ha !hun'a n
3S INT [3S beat 1S]
er will mich schlagen [he wants to beat me] (Meinhof 1929: 170)

(8) XO

ùh ń tú'ù sâa
4 ? INT:[4 go]
they intend going [lit.: they want, they go] (Traill 1994: 154)

Another typical trait in the family is that questions are characterized by a general question marker with a fixed position in the clause; compare Eastern !Xõo where the interrogative gram /-AGR occurs in sentence-initial position.

(9) XO *l-é* /*îi*GQ-3 be.present
is he here? (Traill 1994: 53)

This element also applies to term questions where it interacts functionally with an indefinite proform which conveys the onomasiological category of the questioned constitutent, like the pronoun $\dot{e}h$ in (10) or the generic noun $ty\dot{u}$ 'person' in (11).

(10) XO

 $l-\bar{a}$ \acute{n} $b\grave{a}$ $k\acute{a}ne$ $k\acute{e}$ $\grave{e}h$ GQ-2S ? IPFV want MPO:3 3 Whom/ what do you want? (Traill 1994: 18)

(11) NU

tyúxè'àOwàpersonQ2SchildWie is jou kind?[who is your (SINGULAR) child?] (Westphal f.n.)

Moreover, one of the generic proforms with the locative meaning 'be somewhere' conveys repeatedly both a 'where' and a 'which' question; in the second context, it functions as the attributive modifier of the noun in question.

```
(12) XO
```

a. /-é bōlo //xáo ń āh'ã !núm tshûu /îi
GQ-3 PROP.3 ? be.somewhere stay sit STAT
Where does bōlo ||xáo live? (Traill 1994: 18)

b. *l-ā* ń bà káne ká 'âã-sa tã' āh'ã kã`
GQ:2S ? IPFV want MPO:2 eat-NOM.2 REL:2 be.somewhere REL:2 Which food do you want? (Traill 1994: 18)

In |Xam, this seems to hold from a historical perspective in that the earlier verb (de in (13)a.) has become a suffix on the noun (di in (13)b.).

```
(13) XA
```

a. *a* xa de 2S GQ be.somewhere where art thou? (Bleek 1928-30: 168)

b. !u-di xa aa n/aa !utau
person.1-which GQ 1REL see Sirius
Who [lit.: which person] was it who saw Sirius? (Bleek & Lloyd 1911: 338-9)

2.3. Nominal number and gender

Number marking on nouns is mostly irregular and complex; moreover, it is not deeply integrated with the gender system (see below). Formal devices for encoding number are stem suppletion (especially with the most frequent human nouns), stem-final changes, suffixes, and reduplication. These devices can be combined so that double number marking is not infrequent.

(14) NU

Meaning	Singular	Plural	Marking device	
'thing'	gau	gon	stem suppletion	
'white person'	/hũ-si	/hũ-ke	suffix	
'man'	<i>‡00</i>	tyu-ke	stem suppletion + suffix	
'child'	/oba	/oe-ke	stem change + suffix	(Westphal f.n.)

Güldemann (2000) presents some comparative data on gender systems in Tuu to which the reader is referred. There exists a major split between Taa and the rest of the family, inter alia in terms of the number of agreement classes and genders.³ In languages which have gender, this is largely covert on the noun. In the !Ui branch, agreement targets are restricted to personal pronouns. Agreement classes are often not number-sensitive so that the respective gender-sensitive pronoun is used in both singular and plural; number-sensitive classes are mostly restricted to human/animate genders. This can result in a relatively rare classification type in which there are more genders than agreement classes. Recurrent assignment criteria are \pm human, \pm animate, and \pm part-whole, but not \pm sex.

2.4. Noun phrase

The noun phrase order is mostly head-initial [NOUN MODIFIER]. Tuu languages do not have a large word class of adjectives; stems expressing quality concepts as well as quantifiers and demonstratives have often verbal characteristics so that they are constructed as relative modifiers.

(15) NU

/aiki he n//aa woman REL that that woman (Westphal f.n.)

As an exception to the general head-initial noun phrase order, associative constructions are predominantly head-final [GENITIVE NOUN] whereby two basic types can be distinguished: one has a medial linker and the other is characterized by mere juxtaposition of the two nouns; the second structure can be reserved for inalienable relations.

(16) KH

a ka		≠ĩ	vs.	//gaĩ	//kai/ka
2S AS	SS	thoughts		wolf	girl
your t	houg	ghts		wolf's	girl (Maingard 1937: 243)

³ I argue in Güldemann (2002) that there are indications that the Lower Nosop varieties |'Auni and |Haasi go in this respect with Taa rather than !Ui languages which is a major reason for aligning them tentatively with the former subgroup.

(17) UN

'a-s	/a <u>v</u> a	vs.	n	/anansi
2S-ASS	child		1 S	tongue
dein Kind	l [your child]		mei	ne Zunge [my tongue] (Meinhof 1929: 168)

(18) XE

tle	ge	//hi	vs.	!hoa	khi
people	ASS	teeth		cow	tail
people's teeth				cow's	tail (Ziervogel 1955: 55)

The juxtaposed genitives are also employed for expressing specific locative relations in that relational nouns are used as the structural head. If such a locative adjunct is outside the verb's valency, a circumpositional noun phrase arises due to the necessary presence of a preposed MPO-marker.

(19) XO

qùa-têń/îiké'Onà.je/nànhornbill-P?stayMPO:3tree.3headthe hornbills are on top of the tree (Dickens & Traill 1977: 136)

(20) NU

/oe-ke	ke	n//aa	ng	n//ng	//a'i		
children-P	DECL	stay	MPO	hut	inside		
the children are in the house (Westphal f.n.)							

2.5. Nominal compounds

Nominal compounds which are structurally parallel to head-final genitive constructions are a salient feature of Tuu languages. There are two major types. Grammatically productive compounds serve the derivational encoding of diminutive, sex, and size (see 3.1.2 below). Other compounds are lexicalized and can be semantically opaque. These are especially frequent for body part terms.

(21) Base *thu 'mouth, hole, inside'

a. XO	'//núbi tshôe	'armpit'	(Traill 1994: 127)
	/xán tshôe	'floating ribs'	(Traill 1994: 59)
	/qōhbi tshôe	'hip joint'	(Traill 1994: 62)
b. AU	n/oi- tu -ke	'nostrils'	(Bleek 1937: 269)
c. NU	n//ung- tyu	'chest'	(Westphal f.n.)
d. XA	/k''attən -tu	'armpit'	(Bleek 1956: 338)
	!nun- tu	'ear'	(Bleek 1956: 485)

(22) Base **n/aa* 'head, fruit'

() -			
a. XO	/kx'àa /nàn	'finger'	(Traill 1994: 60)
	g//xúũ /nàn	'knee'	(Traill 1994: 112)
b. AU	/k''a na	'hand'	(Bleek 1937: 269)
(23) B	ase * <i>xu</i> 'face, surface, sid	le'	
a. XA	!ka:- xu	'chest, breast'	(Bleek 1956: 418)
b. XE	ts'a- gu	'eye'	(Lanham & Hallowes 1956: 111)

The plural forms of compounds can be complex in that the marking concerns both the head and the modifier, as in (24), or only the modifier, as in (25).

(24)	XO			
S	kâ /à̯.li	0àa	'baby blue wilde	beest'
Р	(kâ) /à̯.lu -tê	O'âni		(Traill 1994: 53)
(25)	XA			
a. S	n!oa	хи	'sole'	
Р	n!oa-n!oa-ng	хи		(Bleek & Lloyd 1911: 12-3)
b. S	!au	tu	'belly'	
Р	!au -!au -ten	tu		(Bleek & Lloyd 1911: 153)

2.6. Pronouns

Normally, the segmental form of pronouns does not change with different syntactic contexts, i.e. as subject, object, possessor, etc., which indicates that they are comparable in behavior to nouns. This is corroborated by the fact that pronouns can be subject to several types of modification, just like normal nouns.

XO (26)

> èh té'è *ì k*-ì g!xá'u DEI:3 ? COP-1 south.wind.1 3

this one [lit.: he here] is the south wind (Traill 1994: 87)

(27) NU

ke dja'an n-xae **1S-FEM** DECL walk I (feminine) am going (Westphal f.n.)

3. Towards a historical-comparative reconstruction

This section will give a list of grammatical and lexical features, which are likely to be part of the future historical-comparative reconstruction of the Tuu family. The existing isoglosses between individual languages or sub-groups of languages are more numerous. I will confine myself here to giving only isoglosses for which there is good reason to assume a Proto-Tuu form, because they affect Eastern !Xõo, Lower Nosop, and the !Ui branch, or at least Eastern !Xõo and !Ui as a group. The comparison excludes (a) evidence for the internal coherence of !Ui which is an apparently solid genealogical sub-unit, (b) items shared between Eastern !Xõo and Lower Nosop which indicate a second genealogical sub-unit Taa, and (c) isoglosses between Eastern !Xõo and just |Xam whose significance is difficult to assess against the entire family, because the comparative data on these two languages is far more extensive.

Note that of the many Taa dialects only the northeastern !Xõo variety of Lone Tree is sufficiently documented so far. Given its geographically peripheral position and its attested adstratum from the Khoe language G|ui (Traill & Nakagawa 2000), it is possibly not representative for the entire branch and thus not the most suitable for a lexical comparison between !Ui and Taa.

3.1. Morphology

3.1.1. Pronouns

Before the background of the grammatical profile sketched in Section 2, it is possible to give some morphological reconstructions. Here, the pronouns have always been central evidence for the genealogical hypothesis. The commonalities in pronominal systems are not always clear at first glance, because the inventories of modern languages are usually richer due to later innovations. 3rd-person pronouns are generally diverse across the family, because the gender systems with the pronouns as agreement indices differ; e.g., while Eastern !Xõo has five forms, |Xam has only two, and even similar forms are not obviously related. The old system for speech-act participants is reconstructable, however (see **Table 2(a)**). But the common Tuu forms often have alternatives, inter alia because generic nouns can be used in complex pronominal expressions in the function of anaphoric pronouns so that the inherited forms are less salient in the data.

3.1.2. Nominal compounds

While I have identified above nominal compounds as an important structural feature of Tuu languages, there also exist four concrete compound patterns in which cognate items are involved.

Table 2(b) shows that diminutive, feminine, and masculine forms are based on human nouns which across the family are likely to be related etymologically; the tentative reconstructions are *Oaa 'child', *qa(e) 'mother, female', and *ga 'father, male', respectively (see **Table 3(a)** for the comparative lexical data). The diminutive is a productive device in the family as a whole. Except for Eastern !Xõo, the other two patterns are restricted to a few kinship terms; there, the contrast between feminine and

masculine can be discerned from the different endings on otherwise identical stems (bold in Table 2(b)).

Finally, example (21) shows that the body-part compound based on the noun *thu 'mouth, hole, inside' can also be identified in all primary groups of the family.

3.1.3. Nominal number suffixes

There are two good candidates for reconstructable number-indexing suffixes for which the relevant comparative data are given in **Table 2(c)**: the plural suffix can be characterized in most languages as more or less productive, while the singular form seems to be lexically far more restricted.

)											
	OX	page	AU (HA)page	page	KH (NU)page	age	XA p	page	UN	page	XE (Z)]	page	*TUU
(a) Pronouns													
1S	n	35	Ĺ	255	Ĺ	244	Û	-	ũ	168	'iŋ-	109	*
1P.I	ih	35	·	255	· - 1	244		-	• <u></u> -	168	·	109	*;
1P.E	(isi)	35	si	255	si	244	si	-	si	168			*si
2S	ah	35	a	255	a	244	a	-	'a	168	'a-	109	*a
2P	uh	35	n	255	n	244	n	П	'n	168	'n-	109	n*
(b) Derivational noun compounds	l noun cor	yunodu	ls										
child, cf. 3(a)	Oaa	Ļ	Oaa		Oa				Oain		Oa-		*Oaa
DIMINUTIVE Oaa/ O'a-ni 47	⊙aa/ O'a	-ni 47	Opwai	278	Oko-ne	73	Opwa	7			Oa-ri	104	*Oa
mother, cf. 3(a) qa-e	qa-e		ka-e, qa-e		xã-		xoa				xoa		$a^{s}qa > b^{s}ka > b^{s}ka$
daughter	Oaa qae		Opwa:-xe 278	\$ 278	Okwa-xai	67	Opwa-xai 685	685	⊙a-χai	188			
sister			ka:-xe	273	ka-xai	239	ka-xai	564			(P a-ge-	44)	
grandmother			=		!koi-ce	257		440) = ,		
FEMININE	qae	177	-xe		-xai	239	-xai	m	-xai		-ge < -xe		*qa- > *kxa-
father, cf. 3(a)	ãa				ã-		o(a)				a(a)		*aa > $*$ õa
son	Oaa aa		opw on	278	⊙k 3	73	Opwoil	686	0'0	187	$\odot \tilde{0} \tilde{0}$	98	
brother			ka(:)-s(i) 273) 273	kãũ	239	∥kã:	546	ãũ	185			
grandfather					!kõ	257	ikõiŋ	440					
MASCULINE	ãa		uo-		-õ, -ũ		-oıj, -ữ, -ŋ	ŝ	-o, -ũ		õ		$*aa > *\delta$
(c) Number suffixes PLITRAL, -te	lixes -te	156	-ke -te	254	-ke -ce	240f	-ken -ten	4	-kn -t(e)n 167	167	(-le	43)	*-ke *-te
SINGULAR	-si.	185	-si (cf. br	brother)		241f			-si	167	-zi	111	*-si
¹ Bleek (1928-30: 93), ² Bleek (1928-30: 95f), ³ Bleek (1	, ² Bleek (192)	8-30: 95f)		8-30: 87),	.928-30: 87), ⁴ Bleek (1928-30: 88ff)	30: 88ff)							

Table 2: Grammatical isoglosses across Tuu

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3.2. Lexicon

Table 3 presents a list of lexical items which are shared by a sufficient number of Tuu varieties so that a reconstruction for the family as a whole is likely. There exist yet more isoglosses of this type, for example, for 'begin', 'blow', 'cheetah', 'cry', 'dog', 'drink', 'elephant', 'fire', 'laugh', and 'think'. These are excluded here, because they have also potential cognates in languages of the Khoe family and/or the Ju family, so that their historical significance remains unclear.

The lexical items are given in two forms. In the first line, I cite the original transcription except for tonal diacritics, because these are not informative at the present stage of research (with nouns, singular and plural forms are separated by a slash). Since the transcriptional and orthographical conventions differ considerably across the various sources, I have transferred each item in the second line into a broad, unifying transliteration, possibly abstracting from endings and suffixes. This is hoped to facilitate the comparison in bringing out similarities which are hidden by different transcriptions, etc. In the first line, I have added the page reference of the respective source given in Table 1. For |'Auni, ‡Khomani, and ||Xegwi, there are alternative sources in the form of |Haasi (HA), N|huki (NU), and Ziervogel's ||Xegwi (Z) data; if these provided an item, it is given in parentheses. A few data points come from yet other sources, these are indicated in footnotes. The rightmost column of the tables gives a very preliminary reconstruction; undoubtedly, this will have to be modified or even abandoned when more data become available.

Note that several candidates for regular sound correspondences, or regular transcription equivalents for that matter, are discernible, a few of which I will indicate in the following. For example, in the series for 'ear', 'neck', 'dog', 'egg', and 'wind', a palatal click in the majority of Tuu corresponds to an alveolar click in |Xam and a non-click consonant in ||Xegwi. Clicks with strong (= non-delayed) aspiration are given with a velar accompaniment /kh/ in the majority of Tuu, while Eastern !Xõo has /qh/, as can be seen in the series for 'hair', 'tooth', 'bee', 'water', and 'wind'. There are several cases where the majority of Tuu has an accompaniment at the C₁, while Eastern !Xõo displays a comparable vowel coloring; compare, for example, the different locus of glottalization in the series for 'bite' and 'eye'. Vowel pharyngealization in Eastern !Xõo, as in 'father', 'fat', 'sense', and 'walk', seems to have a counterpart in the rest of Tuu in several other suprasegmental features; it remains unclear whether all these differences reflect phonologically relevant features or simply transcriptional variations. Finally, a vowel sequence /V₁i/ in most of Tuu tends to turn up in ||Xegwi just as a (long) close front vowel (an earlier /u/ in V₁ appears as a preceding labialization); in Eastern !Xõo, the second vowel /i/ can be lacking altogether; compare the series for 'ear', 'eat', 'tooth', 'bird', 'dog', 'egg', 'fat', 'horn', 'hut', 'call', and 'sleep'.

It goes without saying that these comparative data are very tentative and may well contain a considerable number of correspondences which will later turn out to be spurious. It will take more research into the linguistic structure of the surviving Tuu languages as well as into the vast philological problems of the older sources on extinct varieties before more conclusive reconstructions

can be achieved. However, given the restricted quality of the data for all languages but Eastern !Xõo, I consider this lexical evidence to be substantial and robust enough for substantiating the genealogical hypothesis of Tuu.

	XO	page	AU ((HA) page	KH (NU)page	age	XA	page	NN	page	XE (Z)]	page	*TUU
nd	(a) Kinship and social relations child Oaa 47 Oaa	tions 47	Opwa Oa	278	Okwa- Oa-	67	Opwa <i>DIM</i> 684 Oa	<i>W</i> 684	Oain Oain	186	(Owa-ri Oa-	42)	*Oa
	ãa	195			aŋ-ce	239	0:a/ 0-	152			'a:/ 'a-	98	
	<u>a</u> a qae	177	kai	261	ang, ã- xaŋ-ce	239	o(oa) xoa	259			a(a) xwa	103	* aa
	- a-ũ/ -ã	54	ka-, qa- kẽ(n)	268	xang, xã- (e)		xoa kẽ	306	20	187	xoa ee	118	${}^{*}qa>ka>ka> ka(o)a$
	ă- tuu	54 157	ē tu-	265	e (tvu +who)	_	∣ẽ tu- + <i>who</i>	240	ë tu <i>who</i>	188	ee (to: <i>who</i>	36)	* ãe, ae
	tuu $\frac{1}{1000} \frac{1}{1000} \frac{1}{1000}$	99	tu hš ho	296	tyu (hon)		tu ho	906	tu	160	too ba	- 1	*tuu
	hao take ha-	8	hã, ha	107	ha-		ha ha	007	n a-	102	ha		$* ha-\sim {}^{(n)} ha-$
	P ãã .	53	kẽ:/ ʌn	268	(ai-/ aa)		P ka:-	296	$ \mathbf{a}^{-} \bar{\mathbf{a}}^{-} $	185	(a-zi	36)	<u>-</u> *
2	(b) Body and related terms		ν_, α ⁻		3		77		-(n)n		<u>-</u>		3
	num/-a	69			unlu milu	257	mum "	352					**************************************
	si'-i	186	ts'i:	265	ts'ii	257	ts(')i:	215f			ts'ii	103	
	si'i		ts'ii		ts'ii		ts'ii				ts'ii		*ts'ii
	' nuh-JV 'n uh-	71			(n gen-) n g						ŋhom'a ⁿ ho-	105	$* h_{\hat{Q}}\sim {}^{(n)} h_{\hat{Q}}$
	tshxaã dung166 tshxa-	1g166			cxei (txãi) tvxai, txãi	65	txai: txaii	245			-		*t(h)xa(i)
	'aa	71		266	a	83	a:	267	'a	187	(a:	35)	
	'aa ≢nuhã	147	'ã ∔nui	278		241	'aa Inun-tu	485	'a nuēn-tu	187	aa dlwĩi	103	* 'aa
	n∔uh-		n≠ui		ŭ†ui		n!un-, n!ũ-	<u> </u>	n uen-, n ũe-	ie-	dlũi		*n≠u(i)

Table 3: Lexical isoglosses across Tuu

	XO	page	AU (HA)page	page	KH (NU)page	age	XA	page	NN	page	XE (Z)]	page	*TUU
eat	'a-ã	197	रत्व २	259	205 805	257	ã:, ãi ************************************	3	ža °	185	Ťi, 'iŋ ž:	66	
eye	aa sa'ã <i>face</i>	184	a ts'a:-xu	265	a ts'a-xu	257	aa, ai ts'a-xau	213	a ts'a-χο	184	n ts'a-gu	111	. aa, al
,	sa'a-		ts'aa-		ts'a		ts'a-		ts'a-	(ts'a-		*ts'aa ?'see'
hand, arm	kx'aa kx'aa	60	k"a(n) kx'a(n)	269	kx'a kx'a	240	k"a kx'a	336	kX'ă kx'a	185	(P kxa-ŋ kxa-	44)	* kx'aa
hair	(g) qhuã ah1-	63f	khóö kho	268	khu khu	240	khu khu	314	- hun hıı-nø	187	khũ khĩ	98	*/////*
head	na-n/-ã	67	na:	269	1ja	257	na:	342	du bu nā	186	(na:	36)	
	n a-		n aa		n a	ļ	n aa		n aa		n aa		*n aa
lungs	-t('n c':.	106	kõnu-ke	274	∥kõi ≣≊:	7			'oňu 	186			
mouth	µп tshô- <i>inside</i> 165	de165	t(h)u	265	ta To	257	tu +hole	239	oug- tu	181	tu, t'u	108	
	tsho-		thu		tu		tu		tu		tu, t'u		*thu
neck	≢kx'a-ũ/ -ã 137	ã 137	ŧkõi	277	(‡kx'u)		!xã	496	µ'≠	187			
	†kx'a-u		‡õi		†kx'u		!xã		‡'u				*‡kx'a(-u)>‡kx'u
nose	nuhna	69	nõ	269	lju-tu	257	nũ-ru	352	nu-tu	187	nli	113	
	n ũh-		n õ		n u		n∣ũ-		-n u		n u		$n \tilde{u}, n \tilde{u}$
shoulder	gãe	107	∥gaë	273			∥ga‡e	523					
	glae		g a'e, g <u>a</u> e	je			gllae						*gllae
skin	tụm/ -a	157			Jõ	67	tũ(ŋ)	240			tũu, tuŋ	66	
	tụm				dyõ		tũ(ng)				tũ(ng)		*tũ-
tired	huu	99	hubu	267	((nq)nu)		-0X	365					
	huu		hubu		hubu		-0X						* khu, kho
tongue	' na-n∕ -na	1 70	ãri	266	an	257	lerři, lenni 272	i 272	'an-an-si	188			
	'n <u>a</u> -n		âri		'an		l'ẽri, l'eni		'an-				* 'ãri > 'ani
tooth	qhaã	117			kẽi-si	257	lkẽi	569			khi	105	
	qha-				∥ãi-		∥ãi				khi		* kha(i)

	OX	page	AU (HA)page	page	KH (NU)page	age	XA	page	NN	page	XE (Z)	page	*TUU
nimals and	(c) Animals and related terms	rms											
bee, honey	qhu-je/ -m 64 ahu-	1 64	ko:	268	kx'ɔ- kyo_lkho	64	ko-si o-	321			u-zi u-	109	*1740
	guh'-u/ -ã	59	<u> </u>	267		240	kwi	334	lhuī	188	(hwi	62)	
	g uh- ha-be/ -n	65	g oo haã, hʌn	267	ui (lau)		lui hau, hou	287	hui au	185	hui		inul*
	hau-		ha-		au		hau		au		2		* ha(u)
	†guã o≠n-	135	(kiï kii	21)	†gwi <i>ostri.</i> o‡ni	85	P !kui- tni	467			(tlwiŋ thino	45)	*o±n(i)
	saã	184				257	soeij	172			swĩi	108	
	sãa				sõe		sõeng				sũi		*sõe, sãa
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	n ŭ-		'õ, jõ				khoo		$ h\tilde{0}$				$* h\tilde{o}\sim {}^{(n)} h\tilde{o}$

	OX	page	AU (HA) page	page	KH (NU)page	age	XA	page	NN	page	XE (Z)	page	*TUU
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	!qhaa		()khaa		!kha		!khaa		-a š		qhaa		*!khaa
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give	na DAT 28,55	28,55	na	269			na	341					
	n a		n a				n a						*n a
g0	'a-e	128	lla	272	'a	257	a(i)	512	'a	185	(a	36)	
	'a-		'a		'a		'a(i)		'a		a		* 'a-

	OX	page	AU (HA)pa	page	KH (NU)page XA	page		page	NN	page	page XE (Z) page	page	*TUU
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I	"ai				ľãi		"ăi						* 'ãi, 'ai
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walk, travel	tại <i>far</i>	155	tãi	264	tãi	257	ta:‡ĭ, ta:‡i	187	tain	185	(t'ã'ã	45)	
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¹ Bleek (1956: 286) ² Bleek (1956: 585) ³ Bleek (1956: 374) ⁴ Bleek (1956: 548)													

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