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3.1. Nouns

3.1.1. Forms of noun stems. Common nouns potentially have three different stem forms depending on other morphemes which are suffixed to them: a "determiner stem" used with nunation (3.1.1.1) and definite determiners (3.2.1-2), a "definite form" used when no suffixes are attached (3.1.1.2), and a "genitive stem" used as the first member of a genitive construction (3.1.1.3).

3.1.1.1. "Determiner stem", nunation, and gender. When modified by the Previous Reference Marker (3.2.1), demonstratives (3.2.2), genitive pronouns (3.3.3), or "nunation" (see below), nouns take a stem form characterized by a particular vowel preceding the suffix. This vowel can be analyzed as having high tone, though the tone may change by regular phonological rules. Common nouns are cited with a suffix ˉn, called nunation by R. Lukas (1967/68) and adopted in Schuh (1974/75, 1977) and here. Since factors governing the presence and absence of nunation are pervasive I will begin by characterizing its function, origin, and form. Constructions with all the other categories of suffix mentioned above can be thought of merely as using the same stem with nunation replaced by the category in question.

In Schuh (1974/75, 1977) I accepted J. Lukas' (1968:102) claim that nunation is an overt mark of indefiniteness. Evidence for this analysis is of several types. First, nunation is mutually exclusive with definite determiners (3.2.1-2) and cannot be used with the head nouns of a genitive construction (-----). Second, nouns which are semantically definite do not take nunation in citation form, e.g. compass points and other specific locational words (wèelá 'north', ám@káalà 'right (hand)', dám@tó 'near') words referring to specific times (t@náa 'now', wáyá 'next year', p@D@kú 'in the morning'), proper names (Jláawí, Káaku, Múuzà, Càakwá), and terms of reference or address, including all vocatives (dáadá 'elder sister', yàayá 'elder brother', báará 'elder paternal uncle', kwáamí 'my friend!'). (Note that proper names can appear with nunation to mean "someone by the name ...", e.g. Jláawáan, Càakwán.) Third, when a noun is specific by the nature of the context where it is used, it lacks nunation. Thus, in greeting phrases such as Ngà máduwà? 'how's the household?' or sentences such as náa-gwzá íi áski 'I am returning to the market', only a specific household (máduwá) or market (áski) must be intended. Fourth, in narrative, a newly introduced character, thing, etc. will be cited with nunation, but any subsequent mention of that referent will have the definite form (3.1.1.2) or will have some definite determiner (3.2). See the chart in Schuh (1977:29) and here in 3.2.1 comparing the uses of nunation with uses of other determined noun forms; for further discussion of nunation as a marker of indefiniteness, see 3.2.3.

In Schuh (1974/75, 1977) I further argued that nunation was originally a definite determiner which was weakened semantically. The original non-determined citation form can be seen in dialects which do not use nunation, here illustrated by Gashua Bade. Determiner stems are formed as follows: (a) feminine nouns originally ending in short a, i, u simply suffix the determiner and add high tone; (b)

masculine nouns ending in short a, i, u replace the final vowel with -aa-, suffix the determiner, and add high tone; (c) masculine nouns ending in a consonant add the determiner with epenthetic -@- bearing high tone inserted before it (there seem to have been no feminine nouns ending in consonants at the level of proto-Bade); (d) nouns ending in long vowels, regardless of gender, suffix the determiner and add high tone. The only noun known to me which originally ended in long *-aa is 'town'; the vowels written here as e and o are always long underlyingly (in WB the diphthongs *ai and *au have changed to e and o, whereas in GB *e and *o have changed to the corresponding diphthongs); there are no word final long -uu's. The vowel -i(i) in final position is always heard short in GB, but in WB in a small proportion of the examples it appears as long. The following examples all have nunation as the determiner.

Western Bade

Gashua Bade

(a)	áfán	(f)	áfà	'sun'
	ákūn	(f)	ákù	'goat'
	gūnc@n	(f)	gūncí	'chin'
(b)	g@máan	(m)	@gmá	'thigh'
	kúnáan	(m)	kúnú	'stomach'
	@vjáan	(m)	@vjí	'monkey'
(c)	mázàr@n	(m)	mázàl	(WB) 'castrated goat'
	Dàc@n	(m)	'yát	(GB) 'billy-goat'
				'hair'
(d)	Dáan	(f)	Dàa	'town'
	gūnén	(f)	gūnāi	'hip joint'
	ūgzén	(m)	ūgzái	'pubic hair'
	àpsón	(f)	@psáu	' <u>Bauhinia reticulata</u> '
	àkón	(m)	àkáu	'back'
	dàbíin	(f)	dàbí	'hoe'
	màap@ndīin	(m)	màap@ndīi	'young man'

Thus, in WB gender can be overtly distinguished between nouns ending in -án (f) or -áan (m). For nouns ending in -@n, gender is not overtly differentiated, although historically the source of the @'s is different--feminine < *-i or -u, masculine < *∅. For nouns ending in long vowels there is no overt phonological differentiation historically or synchronically.

Two further correlations of the -aa- form of the Determiner Stem may be noted. First, a large number of nouns in GB and Ngizim terminate in -ak, where the k is not part of the etymological root. All these are masculine nouns cited with final -áan in WB: ákáráan 'thief' (GB ákálàk), àzáan 'arm' (GB àzák), fùwáan 'horn' (GB fùwák), gwàmáan 'ram' (GB gómàk), áz@máan 'Acacia seyal' (GB áz@màk). A second, semantic category which is invariably cited with -áan is mass nouns. In Amshi, these take plural agreement in demonstratives (3.2.2): p@jáan 'bran' (GB p@jí), áabáan 'shit' (GB áabú), ányáan 'milk' (GB ányí), áptáan 'flour' (GB áptà), tâgdáan 'money' (GB tâgdá).

3.1.1.2. "Definite forms" (DF). Nouns can appear without nunation or any other determiner. The principal uses for this form are (1) citation forms of inherently specific nouns such as those listed at the beginning of 3.1.1.1; (2) mention in a narrative of a previously mentioned referent if no other definite determiner is used:

Nna no urak@n₁ DeN wunajan₂ DeN @vjan₃; uraku₄ da g@mti wunaja₅ DeN @vji₆ i waran yauno wunaja₇ da karDi @vji₈.

Now (there was) a leopard₁ [nun.] and a dog₂ [nun.] and a monkey₃ [nun.]; well, the leopard₄ [PRM--3.2.1] brought together the dog₅ [DF] with the monkey₆ [DF] in wrestling and the dog₇ [DF] threw down the monkey₈ [DF].

(3) verbal nouns, when used as head of a verb phrase in the Imperfective (3.8.3.6); (4) locative relational words (-----) without nominal complements (áci @kf-íi [kúnū] 'he went [inside]', Diiṭōwāt@n@n tl-é [skū] 'the birds flew [up]'); (5) usually when a noun is the head of a locative phrase (áci ùkt@ kárén íi [áDà] 'he took the load on the [head]', n@jlaw íi sūwé-b [bdám] 'I sat at the edge of the [road]', n@ p áam@n íi kúnú-k [pátlákē] 'I poured water in the [water pot]', cāngār@n áa DÁN [ákwi] 'lice are on the [goats]').

This last use led R. Lukas (1967/68:202-204) to call this form of the noun Lokativform. However, from (1) and (2) it is clear that the principal use of the form is with nouns which have specific referents, either known from the meaning of the noun itself or from the context where it appears. Indeed, it is impossible to use this form with nouns functioning non-referentially or generically. The locative usage in (5) is striking in that it is difficult to explain in many of its occurrences. In some cases, of course, reference to locations would be referential by the circumstances in (1) or (2). There are cases, however, where this explanation is not available, e.g. @bjlám@n p@mBí dà Dyáwi ùktlérá áa [v@kí] 'a hyena once had her children in [a hole]' (note that 'hyena' has nunation; moreover, this phrase occurs at the beginning of a story). Phrases with location words bearing nunation are not necessarily ungrammatical, e.g. sái káyí dá nè á-skúk [dūwún] 'then the squirrel came on top of [a horse]'. The explanation for the frequent use of this form in locative phrases even where the noun has not been previously mentioned seems to depend on poorly understood pragmatic factors. It is not the locative use per se which determines that nouns appear in this form, but rather some broader factor which seems to have to do with known reference. Thus, following Schuh (1977), I have chosen the term Definite Form rather than Lukas' "locative form".

The usages in (3) and (4) require a different explanation. With respect to (4), I quote Schuh (1977:31):

... only nouns functioning as heads of noun phrases take determiners. Relational words like kúnú ['inside'] never take nunation. They can take the P[revious] R[eference] M[arker], but the function of the PRM here is to mark deletion of a noun phrase, not to mark previous reference of the relational word.. In a phrase like à kúnú-N mádùwà 'in the house' (lit: at belly-of house), kúnú functions much like -side or top in English 'inside (the house)', 'on top (of the house)'. The exact structure of such phrases is not clear, but the words kúnú-, '-side', and 'top' are certainly not the heads of nouns phrases. When words are used in functions other than the head of a noun phrase we are no longer in a position to say that they have determiners at all. Thus, in phrases like [íi kúnù 'inside'] absence of a suffix is not a sign of a \emptyset determiner. Such phrases simply illustrate forms these relational words take when not accompanied by a noun phrase complement or some overt mark of a deleted noun phrase complement.

A similar explanation applies to (3), where verbs serving as heads of Imperfective constructions do not take nunation or any other overt determiner (see 3.8.3.6 for many examples). Note that verbal nouns used as complements to verbs (-----) can take nunation, e.g. à jáw-è bārān 'let's go hunting'. Here the verbal noun is the head of a noun phrase, at least in syntactic surface structure.

In Schuh (1974/75, 1977) I argue that definite forms are a historical reflex of citation forms of nouns. We would therefore expect these forms to be identical to the citation forms in other dialects (taking regular sound changes into account). However, this is often not the case--compare the following WB Definite Forms with the GB forms in the list found in 3.1.1.1:

- | | | |
|-----|------------|-----------------------|
| (a) | áfà | 'sun' |
| | ákwì = ákù | 'goat' |
| | gùmċ | 'chin' |
| (b) | g@mì | 'thigh' |
| | kùnù | 'stomach' |
| | @vjì | 'monkey' |
| (c) | mázàr | 'castrated goat' |
| | Dàcì | 'hair' |
| (d) | Dà | 'town' |
| | gùnè | 'hip joint' |
| | ùgzè | 'pubic hair' |
| | àpsò | 'Bauhinia reticulata' |
| | àkó | 'back' |
| | dàbì | 'hoe' |

There is considerable variation, even with one speaker in the Definite Forms of many nouns (see Schuh (1977:17) for a small dialect survey), e.g. kàyáan 'squirrel' with DF kàyí or kàyá (GB kàyák), d@láan 'jackal' with DF d@lí or d@lá (GB d@lá), mùgbáan 'monitor

lizard' with DF mùgbì or mùgbá (GB m@gbá), áabāan 'shit' with DF áabú or áabà (GB áabū). Two major areas of discrepancy exist between WB Definite Forms and citation forms elsewhere. The vast majority of Definite Forms have final low tone, regardless of tone elsewhere; and masculine nouns with -āan in citation forms most frequently end in -i but often vary between -ī and -a, with a smaller number always ending in -a (mnyāan 'mouth' with DF mnyā only) and very few ending in -u.

Feminine nouns usually show the original final vowel in Definite Forms, though tone may differ; masculine nouns which originally ended in consonants usually have Definite Forms in final -i, though some end in a consonant.

Significantly, the areas of discrepancy are just those areas where using nunation in citation forms has caused neutralization of former distinctions. viz. nunation always requires final high tone, and masculine nouns originally ending in -a, -i, or -u all have -āan with nunation. It seems that the citation forms are now taken as "basic" in WB and that the creation of Definite Forms is moving toward certain regularized patterns, esp. final low tone and final -i for masculine nouns (final -i seems to be spreading even to feminine nouns--cf. gúDkwán 'pot' with DF gúDkwà or gúDkwì (GB gúDkwà) and 'goat' above).

3.1.1.3. "Genitive stem" (form of head noun in genitive constructions). When a noun appears as the head noun of N + N genitive constructions (-----), special rules determine its form. All nouns in this position take final low tone (which may be raised by Tone Raising, 2.5.1). Taking the vowel preceding nunation as basic, all nouns except masculine nouns with -aa- before nunation retain the same vowel in genitive constructions. The vowel -aa- --> -@- in all cases (with the exception of mnyāan 'mouth; edge', which sometimes appears as -mnyà, e.g. mnyà kárágāan 'the edge of the bush')(see-----and Schuh (1977:section 3.2.2) for more examples and for forms of the linking morpheme /k/);

<u>ádān</u>	(f)	'head'	(GB <u>ádà</u>)	<u>ádà-g dùwún</u>	'head of a horse'
<u>s@n</u>	(f)	'bottom'	(GB <u>sí</u>)	<u>s@-g d@māan</u>	'base of a tree'
<u>síilāan</u>	(m)	'bone'	(GB <u>síilàk</u>)	<u>síil@-g dùwún</u>	'bone of a horse'
<u>zàyāan</u>	(m)	'rope'	(GB <u>zàyí</u>)	<u>zàayí-g yâagá-w</u>	'rope for the boundary'
<u>kùnāan</u>	(m)	'inside'	(GB <u>kùnú</u>)	<u>kùnú-k s@rà</u>	'in the well'
<u>Báramāan</u>	(m)	'grain bin'	(GB <u>Bálámà</u>)	<u>Báram@-g jàDán</u>	'bin of peanuts'
<u>Dàc@n</u>	(m)	'feathers'	(GB <u>'yàt</u>)	<u>Dàc@-k iyàakāan</u>	'feathers of a hornbill'
<u>rén</u>	(m)	'place'	(GB <u>lài</u>)	<u>rè-g àmàt@n</u>	'place of women'
<u>gùnén</u>	(f)	'hip joint'	(GB <u>gúnāi</u>)	<u>gùnè-g dùwún</u>	'hip joint of a horse'
<u>àkón</u>	(m)	'back'	(GB <u>àkáu</u>)	<u>àkò-g zìyàm@n</u>	'back of an ostrich'

3.1.2. Noun plural formation. There are several types and subtypes of plural morphology. These serve as a "pool", with different villages exploiting each type to a different extent. With a few minor exceptions, all the types listed in Lukas (1967/68) are used in Amshi, but the type used with a particular root is often different. The most productive types in Amshi are -awat- and -aaCo- (see (2) and (4) below). A third very common, but less productive type, is -@n- (see (1) below). Many nouns may use either of the two most productive types, e.g. @gviiD@n 'night' with plurals @gviiDàwàt@n@n or @gviiDàaDón, and many nouns which use less productive plurals also can be used with one of these, e.g. @ktlâan 'cow' with plurals @ktlâan or @ktlâwàt@n@n. Plurals are not sensitive to gender--masculine and feminine nouns are distributed through all plural classes. Borrowed words are also incorporated into one of the common Bade patterns, e.g. àllón 'writing board' (< Hausa or Kanuri) with plural àllòwàt@n@n.

Like singulars, plurals of nouns are cited with nunation, but nunation is absent under the same circumstances as for singulars (3.1.1). Suffix citations listed below are the plural suffix minus nunation. "Singular stem" in discussion below refers to the singular form minus nunation and the vowel preceding nunation.

References to Lukas below are to section numbers in Lukas (1967/68).

(1) Plurals with a suffix -@n- (or rarely -an-)

The most common subtype adds -@n- plus nunation directly to the singular stem. Tone of the suffix is low if the preceding consonant is a voiced obstruent; for voiceless and sonorant consonants, my notes show many cases where tone is high even with preceding low.

gàskámāan	gàskám@n@n	'rooster'
bīilāan	bīil@n@n	'razor'
gāngān	gāng@n@n	'large drum'
dāawān	dāawūn@n	'francolin'
ngās@n	ngās@n@n	'spear'
pāat@n	pāat@n@n	'cat'
gāptōn	gāpt@n@n	'feather'
bāacāan (f. bācākén)	bāac@n@n	'one who does/owns...'

Nouns with labialized velar as their last consonant usually labialize this in the plural (t@rkwāan 'orphan', pl. t@rkūn@n) but a few nouns do not:

áikwāan	áik@n@n	'finger'
gúDkwān	gúDk@n@n	'pot'
gùskwāan	g@sk@n@n	'worm'

The following nouns have suffixes in the singular which are absent in the plural. The first two have a feminine derivational suffix -ak (cf. also the feminine form for 'one who does/owns...' above, which

neutralizes with the masculine in the plural). The other two have a suffix -uwa- of unknown function. Note that the words for 'fish', 'tooth', and 'testicle' lack nunation in the plural, perhaps to avoid three -VN- sequences in a row.

v@nàkôn	v@n@n	'fish'
áaDyúwákén	áaDy@n@n	'palm fronds'
nyànyúwáan	nyànyín	'tooth'
ànànùwáan	ànàn@n	'testicle'

A few nouns reduplicate a syllable when adding this suffix:

@zdáan	@zd@d@n@n	'vein'	
gùrà@m@n	gùrà@m@n@n	'dum palm'	
mág@ràv@an	mág@ràrv@n@n	'guest, stranger'	
mángáan	máng@g@n	'friend'	} (no nunation)
ngwáa-	ngùgún	'household'	

A small number of nouns add -an- rather than -@n-:

jág@ràan	jág@ràn@n	'quiver'
k@ríig@máan	k@ríig@màn@n	'lizard'
záwán	záwán@n	'stick'

The noun gwámáan 'ram' inserts log -aa- in the root and changes tone: gwáam@n@n.

(2) Plurals with -t- suffixes

-Vwat- V = ii or e if these vowels precede nunation; otherwise V = a [ɔ]

- tone of -Vwa- is Lo-Lo unless preceding syllable is high and consonant preceding V is not a voiced obstruent

In Amshi these plurals end in -@n@n, suggesting that the suffix should be -Vwat@n- plus nunation. However, comparative evidence shows the Amshi dialect is using "double" nunation. First, dialects that don't use nunation have a plural suffix -awat but not *-awat@n, e.g. Gashua Bade búl 'gown', pl. búláwát. Second, in the dialect(s) described in Lukas, section 104, the plural adds just -awat@n, e.g. k@nc@r@n 'giraffe', pl. k@nc@ráwát@n. However, in Amshi the first -@n is now interpreted as part of the suffix as evidenced by Definite Forms (3.1.1.2) such as àajlùwàwát@ní '(the) grey herons', found in texts.

@jlgíin	@jlgíiwát@n@n	'blind person'
gúmaaíin	gúmaaíiwát@n@n	'shirt'
ágùrén	ágùrèwát@n@n	'hare'
rákén	rákéwát@n@n	'bed'
bádēn	bádèwát@n@n	'Bade person'
bén	bèwát@n@n	'thing'
@fcáan	@fcàwát@n@n	'mat'
ákáráan	ákáráwát@n@n	'thief'
@vdán	@vdàwát@n@n	'open space'

míiwān	míiwáwát@n@n	˘nursing mother˘
kwām@n	kwāmawát@n@n	˘bull˘
kúuD@n	kúuDáwát@n@n	˘tortoise˘
Dìitón	Dìitawát@n@n	˘bird˘
hárón	háráwát@n@n	˘root˘
kázāan	kázawát@n@n	˘heart˘
p@rdōn	p@rdōwát@n@n	˘locust˘
Dáan	Dāwát@n@n	˘town˘

Three nouns were found using this plural type without double nunation:

fùwāan	fùwawát@n	˘horn˘
káamnāan	káamnawát@n	˘friend of opposite sex˘
mádāwāan	mádāwawát@n	˘shepherd˘

-(ag)et-: Lukas (sections 99, 101) lists a number of nouns with these plural suffixes; only four were found in Amshi (as with -Vwat- these have double nunation in Amshi):

@vjāan	@vjāgèt@n@n (= @vjāwát@n@n)	˘monkey˘
ñsāan	ñsāgèt@n@n (= ñs@n@n)	˘hippopotamus˘
kāamōn	kāamēt@n@n (Lukas, section 100, kāamót@n)	˘farm˘
zánén	zánét@n@n	˘man's gown˘

-at- Lukas (section 98) lists nine nouns of this type; only four were found in Amshi, one with double nunation, the other two without:

lākwānāamāan	lākwānāamāt@n@n	˘court parasite˘
māDgāan	māDgāt@n	˘follower˘
ámán	˘wife˘	} amát@n
gāamán	˘female˘	
m@n@n	˘husband˘	} m@sát@n
g@ms@n	˘male˘	

(3) Plurals with the suffix -c@n-

This plural is found with very few nouns in Western Bade but is common in Ngizim.

@tlkù@m@n	@tlkwāmc@n@n	˘fool˘
ñzām@n	ñzānc@n@n	˘hunter˘
ngār@n	ngārc@n@n	˘old person˘

The following nouns take this suffix with deleted or added consonants:

mākwātāan	mākwāc@n@n	˘young man˘
ākúyāan	ākúyāakc@n@n	˘deaf person˘
kwálāmāan	kwálāmāakc@n@n	˘dissolute person˘

(4) Plurals with vocalic suffixes

-aaCó-

C = repetition of last stem consonant for most nouns; for a smaller number of nouns, -aa- is inserted between the last two stem consonants

tone of -aa- is low unless preceding tone is high and consonant preceding -aa- is not a voiced obstruent

àbáan	àbàabón	˘bow˘
dùngwáan	dùngwàagón	˘leper˘
t@bān	t@bàabón	˘woven pot cover˘
b@gjlán	b@gjlàajlón	˘pigeon˘
kázàm@n	kázàmàamón	˘young woman˘
v@k@n	v@kàakón	˘hole˘
áayáp@n	áayápáapón	˘fault˘
kùt@ráan	kùtàarón	˘puppy˘
gùtáan	gwàatón	˘ear˘
máany@m@n	máanyáamón	˘boy˘
kúDgùm@n	kúDgwàamón	˘widow˘
màap@ndiin	màap@ndàayón	˘young man˘

-@Có- and -@Cé-

no -aa- in C

A small number of nouns add these suffixes. C in all cases I recorded is a reduplication of the last stem consonant. The following is an exhaustive list from my Amshi materials; Lukas (section 110) lists several more.

ádān	ádùDón	˘head˘
ám@n	ámúmón (= ámàamón)	˘hand˘
dán	d@dón	˘eye˘
Dāan	D@Dón	˘town˘
hwíiDāan	hwíiDùDón	˘cheek˘
mátlán	mátl@tlón	˘wound˘
wúnàajáan	j@j@n	˘dog˘

(singular is a compound 'son of dog'; some dialects have jāan)

-o- and -e-

Lukas (section 93) gives a few plurals formed by simple vocalic suffixes, e.g. f@fáan 'breast' pl. f@fón (= form used as singular in Amshi), ám@n 'hand' pl. ámén. The only noun pluralized in this way in Amshi is iiwàn@n 'day' pl. wànón, with deletion of prefixed ii- of the singular.

-(@n)aan (and -(@n)an?)

Several nouns add suffixes which show -aa- before nunation (three examples below have -a-, which could be a transcription error; in Amshi I found no plurals ending in -@nân, e.g. @dgân 'arrow' pl. @dg@nân, such as those given by Lukas, section 95). It is possible that these were originally collectives; mass and collective nouns in WB typically end in -aan (kájlùwáan 'two', sàasáan 'meat', etc.) and take plural agreement (3.2.2). It is significant that most nouns with these plurals are feminine derived nouns (3.9.2.1.2) with no

masculine counterparts (cf. Arabic where feminines are used as "singulatives" of collectives). These plurals can be divided into four types: (a) -áan added directly to the stem; (b) -áan added to the stem with the last stem consonant reduplicated; (c) -@náan added to the stem; (d) -@náan added to the stem with the second to last stem consonant reduplicated. With the exception of 'thorn', plurals of feminine derived nouns in -ako/e- retain -k- of the feminine suffix before the plural suffix. The following is an exhaustive list from my materials:

(a) @ktlán jij@makón	@ktláan jij@máan	'cow' 'thorn'
(b) ákán àpsón ágwDón	ák@káan àps@sán (? -aa-) ágwDùDáan	'fire' 'Bauhinia reticulata' 'Balatines aegyptiaca'
(c) ápápiiwān m@sáakón ngàafàkón	ápápiiw@náan m@sáak@náan ngàaf@nán (? -aa-)	'Cenchrus catharticus' 'tamarind' 'old nanny goat'
(d) @pcàaràkón ásákón g@ráwán hàayàkón màràkón pátlàkén	@pcàaràrk@náan ásásk@náan g@rárúwánáan (? g@rárw@náan) hàayàik@náan màràrk@náan pátlátlk@nán(?-aa-)	'Calotropis procera' 'stalk' 'gourd bottle' 'jujube' 'large fish trap' 'large water pot'

(5) Internal vowel change

In addition to the -aaCo- plurals listed in (4) above, which might be classified as using internal vowel change, Lukas lists four others (section 112). I found only one such plural in Amshi:

d@máan	dàm@n	'wood, tree'
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(6) Suppletive and irregular plurals

Rare or unique plural suffixes occur in the following:

m@d@n	m@dán	'person'
áaráan	áràrg@n@n	'(sg.) side of body; (pl.) ribs'
dùwún	dùwàang@n@n	'horse'
áayīn	áayèg@náan	'gazelle'
káaz@Dàkón	káaz@D@n	'chicken'

(The singular of 'chicken' is a feminine form (3.9.2.1.2) apparently based on the plural; some dialects use the base form singular, káazán.)

The following nouns have suppletive plurals:

ákūn	gàrwón	'goat'
gágàráan	ngàr@n@n	'old man'
	(= regular plural of <u>ngàr@n</u> 'old person')	

gàaráan (m) }	kàrgón	'important person; elder sibling'
gàar@n (f) }	yáarōn	'boy' (pl. 'boys', 'boys and girls'
máany@m@n	(= more common Amshi pl. <u>máanyáamón</u>)	
wúnyān	máanyáa-N ámat@n	'girl' (pl. "female children")
wùn@n 'son'	ùktlén	'offspring' (unspec. for gender)
wúnyān 'daughter' }	ùktlè msàt@n	'sons' (pl. "male offspring")
	ùktlèn àmat@n	'daughters' (pl. "female offspring")

Footnotes, Section 3.1

¹ Historically GB Dàa, WB Dáan 'town' is probably related to WB D@hán 'land, country', the two syllables having been reduced to one through elision of the h, with the merged syllable forming a long vowel. In modern Bade, both words still exist with the distinct meanings noted here.