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THE STRUCTURE AND FUNCTION OF YEMSA ADVERBIAL CLAUSES: EMPIRICAL STUDY

Mitike Asrat

Addis Ababa University (Ethiopia)
mitikeasrat2727@gmail.com

Girma Mengistu

Addis Ababa University (Ethiopia)
girma.mengistu@aau.edu.et

Endalew Assefa

Addis Ababa University (Ethiopia)
endexye2006@gmail.com

Abstract: Yemsa, an Omotic language spoken in Ethiopia, has received limited attention in linguistic research, particularly with regard to its adverbial clauses. The lack of a comprehensive description of Yemsa's adverbial clauses hinders our understanding of the language's structure and its place in the Afroasiatic language family. This study aims to provide a detailed analysis of the structure and function of adverbial clauses in Yemsa, exploring their forms, functions, and subordinate markers. The research is based on a corpus of spoken and written Yemsa data, collected through fieldwork and supplemented by existing literature. A descriptive approach is employed to analyze the data, focusing on the morphological and syntactic properties of adverbial clauses. The study reveals that Yemsa adverbial clauses exhibit a range of characteristics, including dependent-person suffixes, temporal markers, and bound morphemes that connect them to main clauses. The analysis identifies five types of adverbial clauses in Yemsa: temporal, locative, manner, reason, and purpose. The findings also show that Yemsa treats aspects in adverbial clauses similarly to main clauses, with the perfective aspect remaining unmarked and the imperfective aspect marked. This research contributes significantly to our knowledge of Yemsa and the Omotic language family, providing new information about the structure and function of adverbial clauses, which is valuable for developing linguistic pedagogical materials for Yemsa. The study's results have implications for linguistic theory, language pedagogy, and language documentation, highlighting the importance of descriptive research on understudied languages. The study's methodology and findings can serve as a model for future research on other languages, promoting a more comprehensive understanding of linguistic diversity and complexity.

Keywords: Yemsa, adverbial clauses, Omotic languages, Afroasiatic languages, linguistic structure, morphosyntax, language documentation.

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1. INTRODUCTION

The Yem ethnic group prefers to name themselves Yem or Yemma (Aklilu, 1992; Getachew, 2003; Derib, 2004; Zaugg-Correti, 2013). Yemsa is an Omotic language (Bender 2000; Azeb 2017). The description of the Yemsa adverbial clauses has significant implications for linguistics in typological studies within the Afroasiatic language family. It advances our knowledge of the syntactic characteristics specific to Yemsa and the broader Omoto language group. The material in this article is important for teaching Yemsa to journalists and translators and incorporating it into various sorts of professional communication.

This paper is to provide a detailed description of adverbial clauses in Yemsa. The number and depth of studies on Yemsa adverbial clauses are both limited and insufficient. Thus, this study aims to fill the gap in Yemsa's syntax. As a result, the description of the internal structure of adverbial clauses, an Omotic language of southwestern Ethiopia, presents fertile ground for linguistic exploration. A detailed description focusing on the internal structure of the adverbial clauses is scattered. This gap exposes a crucial area of linguistic inquiry regarding the syntax of adverbial clauses in Yemsa.

There is a research gap in the function and form of the adverbial clauses. The existing studies are phonological or morphological and predominantly catalogue the phonological and basic morphosyntactic properties of Yemsa, with limited attention to adverbial clause structure. This oversight leaves a substantial knowledge gap in the study of Yemsa's adverbial clauses. This research aims to enhance our understanding of the structure of Yemsa's adverbial clauses, provide comparative insights with other Afroasiatic languages, and contribute to broader discussions in linguistic typology.

The study addresses the following research questions:

1. What is the function and form of the Yemsa adverbial clause?
2. What adverbial clause types occur in Yemsa?
3. What subordinator markers occur in the adverbial clauses?

2. MATERIAL AND METHODS

The description of the form and function of the adverbial clauses uses the concepts described by Thompson et al. (2007), Cristofaro (2005a), Diessel (2001; 2005; 2008; 2013), Givón (1990), Kortmann (1997), and Podlesskaya (2001) to describe the semantics of adverbial clauses from a typological perspective. The typologies corresponding to the objectives are applied in the analyses. This consideration demonstrates that a descriptive approach is suitable for the analyses.

The informants were selected based on their language competence. All informants are native speakers of Yemsa. The data for this study have been collected from the Saja and Fofa areas, where native speakers of the language live. The four key informants, Demeke Jenbere (male, age 42), Tekalegn Ayalew (male, age 60), Almaz Tesfaye (female, age 40), and Adanche Kebede (female, age 54) contributed linguistic data and participated in discussion sessions.

The data were collected mainly through informant interviews using the elicitation technique about the form and function of adverbial clauses in Yemsa based on the clauses and sentences. The elicitation process involved presenting the informants with sentences in Amharic. Informants were then asked to provide the Yemsa equivalents for these sentences. The data were supplemented by texts. Following this, discussion sessions were conducted with the informants to clarify the data and minimize potential confusion.

The data were analyzed qualitatively, based on observable facts to illustrate how the language is used. A descriptive approach was employed to reveal the structure of Yemsa adverbial clauses. The analysis was conducted in the context of general definitions and typological classifications of adverbial constructions found in linguistic literature. Some shortcomings are unavoidable due to time limitations. The data were carefully transcribed, annotated, segmented, translated, and interpreted based on the collected linguistic data from elicitation. According to the data, the grammatical facts and regular patterns that occurred in the structures were analyzed. The data were transcribed phonetically and phonemically using IPA (International Phonetic Alphabet) symbols. When there was a difference between phonetic and phonemic forms, four-line glossing was applied: (i) phonetic form; (ii) morphological form with morpheme-by-morpheme segmentation; (iii) morphological glossing; (iv) free translation.

3. THEORETICAL BACKGROUND

Adverbial clauses are dependent clauses that function as modifiers (Häcker, 1999, p. 21). The primary syntactic modifying function extends to all levels of constituents, from individual words to sentences, with the exception of nouns, pronouns, and noun phrases (Häcker, 1998, p. 23).

A subordinate clause cannot be used independently (Cristofaro 2005a; 2014). Adverbial clauses are subordinate clauses that modify their superordinate counterparts, which can occur at a variety of levels (verb phrase, tense phrase, mood phrase), dimensions (times and worlds), and in diverse ways (Sæbø, 2011, p. 1420). These differences result in a categorization of adverbial clauses (temporal, modal, etc.) and a subcategorization based on a range of relations within these dimensions, depending on the subjunction; within the modal category, it is customary to distinguish between causal, conditional, purpose, result, and concessive clauses (Sæbø, 2011, p. 1420).

There is a list of considerations for subordination (Haiman & Thompson, 1984, p. 511). Those considerations are: identity between the two clauses of subject, tense, or mood; reduction of one of the clauses; a grammatical indication of the incorporation of one of the clauses; intonational linking between the two clauses; one clause being within the scope of the other; absence of tense iconicity between the two clauses; and identity between the two clauses of speech act perspective (Haiman & Thompson, 1984, p. 511).

Subordination is a syntactic property of specific sentence forms, commonly identified as adverbial, complement, and relative clauses in the descriptive tradition of European languages. (Cristofaro, 2016, p. 1). Adverbial clauses are subordinate clauses since their occurrence typically depends on the main sentence (Lin, 2015, p. 3). However, not all languages mark the distinction between dependent and independent clauses in the same way. Traditional grammar recognizes adverbial clauses as one of three major subordinate clause categories. They are semantically diverse and structurally complex. Adverbial clauses can improve discourse cohesiveness in addition to modifying the main clauses (Lin, 2015, p. 2-3). Adverbial clauses serve as adjuncts to other clauses (Verstraete, 2008, p. 758). Adverbial clauses operate as modifiers of predicates, predicate phrases, or clauses, just as lexical adverbs (van Lier, 2009, p. 65).

Adverbial clauses can perform different pragmatic tasks, which vary depending on their position relative to the related main clause (Diessel, 2013, p. 346). One or more of the following semantic links typically characterize adverbial clauses: temporal simultaneity (when/while); anteriority (after); posteriority (before); endpoints (until) and beginnings (since); realis, irrealis, and counterfactual conditionality; cause and reason; purpose; result; concession; adversativity (where-as/while); manner (Schmidtke-Bode & Diessel, 2021, p. 24-25).

The adverbial clause adds some information to what is stated in the other clause (Payne, 2006, p. 297). It conveys time, place, manner, and reasoning (Kroeger, 2005). The primary function of adverbial clauses is to offer information (temporal, locative, causal, conditional, etc.) about the circumstances in which the events portrayed in the main phrases occur (Lin, 2015, p. 2). They typically indicate time, place, cause or reason, consequence or result, extent, method, comparison, contrast, situation, or purpose (Das, 2008, p. 271). They operate to convey information on how, where, when, and why the action occurs (van Gelderen, 2012, p. 74). They are clause elements that often allude to circumstances of time, distance, reason, and manner, have a range of meanings, and can be put at the beginning, middle, or end of a sentence (Hasseltgård, 2010, p. i).

The complementizer specifies the manner (as), the time (before, after, since, when), the place (where), the condition (if), or the reason (because, why, since, in case, lest) of the embedded sentence in relation to the main clause (van Gelderen, 2012, p. 74-75). Adverbial clauses belong to a class of structures known as complex sentences (Croft, 2012; van Valin, 2004), clause combination (linkage), or subordination (Payne, 1997; Lehmann, 1988; Givón, 2001; Longacre, 2007; Comrie, 2008). Dixon (2009) and Diessel (2001; 2005; 2008) describe the semantics of adverbial clauses from a typological perspective. Adverbial clauses function as modifiers of the main predicate of the matrix clause (Häcker, 1999; van Lier, 2009; Diessel, 2013).

The SOV (subject-object-verb) and SVO word orders are the most frequently used cross-linguistically, while VSO is somewhat less prevalent but still common. VOS is the next most popular word order, whereas the two object-initial orders, OSV and OVS, are rare as fundamental word orders (Munro, 2013, p. 122). Traditional word order typologies include SOV, SVO, VSO, VOS, OVS, and OSV (Dryer, 1997, p. 69). There is a determination of precisely which pairs of elements correlate in the order with the verb and object (Dryer, 1992, p. 81). Languages use varied word order; for example, it could be verb beginning (V-initial) or verb-final (V-final), in which V-final languages have subjects and objects before the verb, and V-final languages often position all dependents before their heads (Dryer, 1991).

Adverbial clauses tend to occur in strong OV languages so that the sentence ends with the main clause. VO languages and a small number of OV languages can have both preposed and postposed adverbial clauses (Diessel, 2001; 2013). In strong verb-final languages, all adverbial clauses (ACs) can be in the preverbal position (Diessel, 2019, p. 100).

Complex sentences with start and final adverbial clauses can exhibit distinct syntactic and semantic features in which complex sentences with initial adverbial clauses are generally processed as a single unit; complex sentences with final adverbial clauses can be interpreted as two independent sentences or as a biclausal construction in which the main and adverbial clauses are intonationally combined and semantically dependent on each other (Diessel, 2013, p. 349). Verstraete (2007) states that final adverbial clauses are often understood based on the preceding main clause's epistemic and speech act aspects, while these features typically do not affect initial adverbial phrases (Verstraete, 2004). Adverbial clauses that are compatible with argument fronting have qualities of major clauses and are less integrated with the clauses they modify (Haegeman, 2012, p. 149).

Diessel (2013) describes adverbial clauses appearing before and after the main clause. The following table displays the six AC distributions in the languages (Diessel, 2001):

Table 1. The Ordering of Main and Adverbial Clause

	Language type	Description
1	Rigid ADV-S/VP	adverbial clauses (almost) always precede the main clause/predicate; e.g. Lezgian.
2	Non-rigid ADV-S/SVP	adverbial clauses usually precede the main clause/predicate but also readily occur in sentence-final position; e.g. Turkish.
3	Flexible ADV-S/VP S/VP-ADV	adverbial clauses commonly precede and follow the main clause/predicate; e.g. Modern Hebrew.
4	Mixed ADV-S/VP S/VP-ADV	adverbial clauses as a class occur both before and after the main clause/predicate, while specific semantic types of adverbial clauses always precede or always follow the main clause/predicate; e.g. Babungu (except for time and restrictive clauses).
5	Nonrigid S/VP-ADV	adverbial clauses usually follow the main clause/predicate but also readily occur in sentence-initial position; e.g. Arabana Wangkangurru.
6	Rigid S/VP-ADV	languages in which adverbial clauses (almost) always follow the main clause/predicate: no example.

Languages choose one of five options for positioning adverbial clauses (AC) relative to the main clause: rigidly preceding the main clause; non-rigidly preceding the main clause; flexibly placing the AC on either side of the main clause; rigidly following the main clause; non-rigidly following the main clause (Hetterle, 2015). Initial adverbial clauses are structurally and intonationally incomplete without the following (main) clause. However, they tend to be semantically more independent of the associated clause than adverbial clauses at the end of a complex sentence, where the subordinate clause frequently functions as an integral semantic component of the preceding (main) clause (Diessel, 2013, p. 348).

The position of adverbial subordinators, or morphemes that distinguish adverbial clauses based on their semantic relationship to the main clause, is an important aspect of sentence structure. (Dryer, 2005, p. 382). Adverbial subordinators can appear in various forms and positions within a sentence, including independent words that appear at the beginning of a subordinate phrase; independent words that appear at the end of a subordinate sentence; clause-internal adverbial subordinators; suffixal adverbial subordinators; multiple types of adverbial subordinators, with no single type being dominant (Dryer, 2005, p. 382). Some languages have multiple types of subordinators, with none being dominant. Adverbial subordinators can be found both as independent words in clause-final position and as verbal suffixes (Dryer, 2005).

The subordinate clauses are linked to the main clause by an overt subordinator (Aarts, 2006). Markers of subordination include subordinators, word order, verb forms, scope, intonation, semantic connection and grammatical reliance, main clause phenomena, lack of an overt sign of subordination, and circularity (Aarts, 2006). Indicators of adverbial clauses include the presence of a subordinator, deviation from unmarked word order, non-finiteness, verblessness, absence of an overt subject, and prosodical marking (Häcker, 1999). Kortmann (1997) defines adverbial subordinators as free forms or bound adverbial morphemes that specify some semantic interclausal (or circumstantial adverbial) relationship between the subordinate clause over which they operate and the modified matrix clause.

All languages use the adverbial clauses time, place, manner, cause/reason, purpose, result, condition, concession, contrast, addition, substitution, and similarity (Kortman, 1997; Givón, 2001; Thompson et al., 2007). Not all semantic links are equally essential in different structural forms of adverbial sentences; their relative relevance as coherence relations depends on the type of discourse (Lin, 2015, p. 6).

AC of time is a subordinate clause that serves the same purpose in the sentence as an adverb of time. The adverbial time connects the time of the situation denoted by its dependent clause to the time of the situation described by the matrix clause (Quirk et al., 1985). Adverbial clauses can express a variety of relations, including conditional relations, causal relations, temporal relations, concessive relations, concessive conditional relations, comparative relations, purposive relations, and resultative relations (Podlesskaya, 2001). Diessel (2001) identified the positional patterns of five types of adverbial clauses: conditional clauses, temporal clauses, causal clauses, result clauses, and purpose clauses. The adverbial relations classified by Givón (1990), Kortmann (1997), and Thompson et al. (2007) are purpose, temporal posteriority ('before' relations), temporal anteriority ('after' relations), temporal overlap ('when' relations), reality condition, and reason. Time is one of the most diverse conceptual realms of human thought because the speakers might imagine different events and scenarios that can be temporally connected (Haspelmath, 1997, p. 24).

When the situation described in the 'when' clause occurs before or after the event in the main clause, there may be a brief time interval between the two. However, this time interval is not crucial for the interpretation of the complex sentence (Cristofaro, 2005a). Dixon (2009) says that clauses refer to a point in time rather than a durational event.

Adverbial clauses of simultaneity duration refer to a length of time as opposed to 'when' clauses (Dixon, 2009). They code scenarios of co-occurrence or concomitance (Hetterle, 2015). Givón (2001) makes the following connections: precedence, subsequence, simultaneity, point coincidence, terminal boundary, initial boundary, and intermediacy.

In 'before' clauses, the period starts at some unspecified time point, whereas in 'after' clauses, the period starts at a time point provided by the 'after' clause and ends at some unspecified time point, or the end of time (Androutsopoulos, 2002, p. 58). 'Before'-point and 'after'-point will be used to refer to the time points provided by the 'before' and 'after' clauses respectively (Androutsopoulos, 2002, p. 58). The discourse-structuring or grounding function is particularly evident with WHEN- and conditional clauses (Haiman, 1978). A 'when' construction encodes a temporal link between two events that overlap; the actual amount of the overlap is unknown and subject to variation (Cristofaro, 2005c, p. 510). For each given language, 'when' clauses can be coded using balanced verb forms solely, deranked verb forms exclusively, or both balanced and deranked verb forms (Cristofaro, 2005c, p. 511). Both balanced and deranked 'when' clauses are common in the world's languages; balanced 'when' clauses appear more common than deranked 'when' clauses, although the difference between the two is not statistically significant (Cristofaro, 2005c, p. 511). Languages with purely balanced 'when' clauses are predominant in Africa, while languages with exclusively deranked 'when' clauses and languages with both deranked and balanced 'when' clauses are also common (Cristofaro, 2005c, p. 511).

Locative adverbial clauses are introduced by relative adverbs functioning as subordinate conjunctions. These adverbs convey the meanings 'where,' 'to where,' and 'from where' (Palmer, 2001). Payne (1997) goes so far as to state that "most languages treat purpose and reason alike".

Causal clauses are less connected to complicated sentences than other semantic categories of adverbial clauses. In contrast to temporal and conditional clauses, causal clauses typically include

the same verb forms and arguments as ordinary main clauses. They are usually placed after the semantically associated clause and are commonly expressed by a separate intonation unit. These features suggest that causal clauses are loosely connected with the associated main clause. They are realized by constructions that exhibit the same morphosyntactic properties as main clauses and thus may be analyzed as coordinate sentences rather than adverbial clauses (Diessel & Hetterle, 2011, p. 24). More exactly, causal clauses are incorporated in a speech pattern that includes three verbal actions (Diessel & Hetterle, 2011, p. 46):

1. A statement or activity that the hearer may not accept or understand;
2. The hearer's reaction to this statement (optional);
3. The speaker's justification or explanation of the controversial statement.

Purpose clauses are specified in functional rather than morphosyntactic terms, as the latter have limited application in cross-linguistic comparison (Cristofaro, 2005b, p. 506). A purpose structure encodes a relation between occurrences; this relationship is such that one of the connected events (coded by the main clause or the main event) is conducted to get the realization of another (coded by the purpose clause or the dependent event). Common examples of purpose relations include motion predicates in the primary event. In this scenario, both the independent and dependent events share a participant. However, non-motion predicates may be present, in which case the primary and dependent events do not need to share a participant. The dependent event's time reference is predetermined in the purpose clause; the main and dependent events do not need to be explicitly stated (Cristofaro, 2005b, pp.506-507).

The verb forms in purpose clauses are classed as balanced or deranked, and the related sentences are named balanced and deranked purpose clauses. A deranked verb form is structurally distinct from those used in independent declarative sentences. Deranking can take many forms, including the absence of categorial distinctions normally relevant to verbs in the language (e.g., tense, aspect, mood, or person agreement distinctions) or the use of special elements not relevant to verbs in independent declarative clauses, such as nominalizers, case marking, or adpositions. Deranked verb forms may include unique tense, aspect, mood, or person indicators not found in standalone declarative clauses (Cristofaro, 2005b, p. 506).

A purpose sentence in any given language can use deranked verb forms only, balanced verb forms only, or both. Languages containing deranked and balanced purpose clauses, or balanced purpose clauses only, are widespread, with the former being more prevalent than the latter. The balanced and deranked purpose clauses happen across the world's languages. Languages having only deranked purpose clauses are also prevalent in Africa (Christofaro, 2005b, p. 507).

4. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

4.1. The Structure and Function of Yemsa Adverbial Clauses

4.1.1. *The Morphosyntax of Adverbial Clauses*

In complex sentence structures, dependent and independent structures appear together. Adverbial clauses precede or follow the main clause, which is preposed (or initial) and postposed (or final) adverbial clauses, respectively. Dependents come before or after the head noun; it depends on the language feature. Yemsa is a subject-object-verb (SOV) in simple clause language; dependents appear before the head.

The adverbial clauses precede the main predicate, and the subordinate adverbial clauses come before the main clause. Diessel's (2001) classification of adverbial clauses (ACs) includes: Rigid ADV-S/VP; Non-rigid ADV-S/SVP; Flexible ADV-S/VP S/VP-ADV; Mixed ADV-S/VP S/VP-ADV; Non-rigid S/VP-ADV and Rigid S/VP-ADV. Yemsa belongs to the first group, which is Rigid ADV-S/VP. The AC precedes the main clause, forming a dependent clause. This dependent clause can be temporal as illustrated in Example 1.

- (1) [filmiis kènnānnéen ?òrifò sèlèmòn kèebà hàmm]
 film-s kè-nā-nnéen ?òrfò sèlèmòn kèebà hàmm
 film-DEF end-3MS-TEMP after Solomon house.POSS go.PFV.3MS
 'Solomon went home after the movie ended.'

Adverbials sometimes enjoy substantial freedom concerning syntactic positioning and, at other times, reveal extremely tight syntactic limits. They frequently show a stable order concerning other adverbials in the sentence (Austin et al., 2004, p. 3). As in 1, the AC position is relatively stable in the language word order structure.

Some adverbials allow for many possible placements concerning other parts in the clause that appear in a fixed order, while others exhibit more constrained behaviour (Austin et al., 2004, p. 4). As shown in 1, the adverbial position is fixed, which appears first.

The order of the adverbial and main clauses also correlates with the position of the adverbial subordinators: languages with both pre- and postposed adverbial clauses tend to have clause-initial subordinators, whereas languages with only preposed adverbial clauses tend to have clause-final subordinators (Diessel, 2001; Thompson et al., 2007). As in 1, the adverbial clause is preposed (or initial) and has a clause-final subordinator.

An adverbial clause preceding the main clause can be viewed as a syntactic projector, providing an anticipatory link to subsequent sentences quickly integrated into the unfolding sentence (Diessel, 2013, p. 346). As in 1, the adverbial clause connects with the main clause through a syntactic structure.

The adverbial clause is an initial adverbial; therefore, the adverbial clause is structurally and intonationally incomplete without the following (main) clause. They tend to be semantically more independent of the associated clause than adverbial clauses at the end of a complex sentence, as seen in Example 1. Final adverbial can serve as separate claims. Initial adverbial clauses are always pragmatically presupposed (Diessel, 2013, p. 349). As seen in Example 1, the initial adverbial clause is the presupposed clause.

As seen in Example 1, AC describes the time of the event. The AC is dependent on the main clause. Both subordinate clauses and main clauses make parts of complex sentences. The AC is a subordinate clause. Its function is subordinate to the main clause.

Adverbial clauses may be finite, non-finite, or verbless (Häcker, 1999; Aarts, 2006). The presence of a subject is obligatory in finite clauses but not in non-finite and verbless clauses (Häcker, 1999). As seen in Example 1, the subject structure appears in the AC.

Adverbial subordinators, which morphologically mark adverbial clauses, have two forms: distinct words and verbal suffixes (Lin, 2015, p. 4). As shown in Example 1, the adverbial subordinator appears in verbal suffixes.

(2) [kàamà girìfàtànneen kàbàasik kàamniisòn]
 kàamà gir-f-àt-a-nnéen kàbàa-s-k kàamn-s-òn
 promise make-IPFV-2S-TEMP time-DEF-LOC promise.POSS-DEF-ACC
 [ʔòodànik ʔòlìsifàt]
 ʔòodàn-k ʔòls-f-àt
 must-LOC keep-IPFV-2S
 ‘Whenever you make a promise, you must keep it.’

As seen in Example 3, *-nī* shows the 1P. As a result, the locative adverbial clause suffixes a person marker.

- (3) [sɪnànī kàbàasik meetà mǎnā dīmàasità dānīdīfàn]
 sɪnà-nī kàbàa-s-k meetà mǎa-nā dīmàa-s-tà dān-dīf-àn
 become-1P time-DEF-LOC dinner eat-1S place-DEF-on meet-PROG-1S
 ‘I am meeting her where we had dinner before.’

Yemsa uses verbal suffixes to indicate ACs, as in the following example. The morpheme *sē* ‘TEMP’ is a temporal indicator.

- (4) [dʒimmàsī kàrinisē tàksì ʔòp'p'īnī kèenī]
 dʒimmà-sī kàr-nī-sē tàksì ʔòp'p'-nī kèenī
 Jimma-in arrive-1P-TEMP taxi take.PFV-1P house.POSS
 'When we arrived in Jimma, we took a taxi to our home.'

In the ‘when’ clause, the exact extent of the overlap is unspecified and subject to variation. For instance, in Example 4 the linked events are simultaneous.

- (5) [bàr m̀sàràǝǝfǝ̀ ʔòdèṇā kàbàasik ʔèetnàasī nàwà giràk fillèn]
 bàr m̀sàràǝǝfǝ̀ ʔòdèṇā kàbàa-s-k ʔèetnàa-s-ī nàwà giràk
 she good hear.PFV-3FS time-DEF-LOC niece-DEF-GEN child happy
 [fillèn]
 fillèn
 jump.PFV.1S

‘My niece jumped around happily when she heard the good news.’

As is shown in Example 5, the perfective aspect is unmarked in the ACs and the main clause. The perfective aspect has a sequential meaning. The imperfective aspect is marked with *-f*, as in Example 6.

- (6) [bár nàò sinàṇāk tiǝǝkèjàassì ǰòlìsù dimàasità]
 bár nàò sinàṇā-k tiǝǝkèjàas-sì ǰòlìsù dimàa-s-tà
 he young become-3MS-PURP firm-in important place-DEF-on
 [ʔòp’ifē]
 ʔòp’-f-ē
 occupy-IPFV-3MS

‘Though he is young, he occupies an important position in the firm.’

The main clause can appear in its structure because it has an unmarked perfective aspect and a 1S marker, as in Example 7.

- (7) [tà qàzèt’aaṣòn ʔimnā kàbàasik mùlùgètànìn]
 tà qàzèt’aa-s-òn ʔimnā kàbàa-s-k mùlùgètàn-ìn
 I newspaper-DEF-ACC deliver.PFV-1S time-DEF-LOC mulugetan-ACC
 [màsikòtiisik biin]
 màskòt-s-k biin
 window-DEF-LOC see.PFV.1S

‘When I delivered the newspaper, I saw Mulugeta at the window.’

The main clause in the subordinate construction includes a person marker. Consider the following examples:

- (8) [ʔàjbàas wòlæssinqifēnà sìnifēnà kàbàasik]
 ʔàjbàa-s wòlæssinq-f-ēnà sìn-f-ēnà kàbàa-s-k
 brother.POSS-DEF introvert-IPFV-3MS become-IPFV-3MS time-DEF-LOC
 [sèlèmòn ʔàkmànòn wòllinqà]
 sèlèmòn ʔàkmànòn wòllinqà
 solomon very social

‘Solomon is very social, whereas his brother is an introvert.’

Adverbial clauses play a role in creating coherent discourse and are a major component of texts (Lin, 2015, p. 3). As seen in Example 8, an adverbial clause creates cohesive discourse.

As previously stated, this study tackles a research question: how do adverbial markers show in Yemsa's adverbial clauses? The temporal adverbial clauses are marked by suffixation. This result of adverbial clause marking not only distinguishes linguistic features across the Ometo languages but also provides insights for Afroasiatic typological investigations. Similarly, the research contributes to the understanding of morphological markers of adverbial subordinators. The results offer clear responses, demonstrating that adverbial markers have a role in constructing adverbial clauses. These findings highlight the significance of specific morphological markers in the grammatical framework of the Yemsa adverbial clause.

4.1.2. Types of Adverbial Clause

4.1.2.1. Temporal Clause

Temporal clauses are a subtype of temporal adverbials that, like non-clausal temporal expressions, aid in the temporal placement of events or states (Maienborn & Schäfer, 2011). There is a temporal marker in the adverbial clause in Example 9. The temporal AC suffixes *-nnéen* 'TEMP' in the realis verb stem. The temporal marker connects the main clause with the adverbial clause in time and states the event in terms of time.

- (9) [ʔàabbà nìbnì kàràsìrèzòorà zàgìtènnéén hànkalò nìbìnbì]
 ʔàabbà nìbnì kàràsìrèzòorà zàgìtè-nā-nnéén hànkalò nìbìnbì
 dad heart surgery undergone-3MS-TEMP after slowly
 [fàridifē]
 fàr-dīf-ē
 improve-PROG-3MS
 'Dad is slowly improving after undergoing heart surgery.'

In addition, the adverbial clause can come with temporal adverbs. There is precedence in the AC. As a result, the main clause event occurs after the dependent clause event. It is indicated by the temporal adverbs *hànkàlò* 'after' or by logical reasoning.

In Yemsa, in addition to the above temporal marker, there is another temporal marker, *-sē* 'TEMP'. Consider the following example:

- (10) [gòṅòos hàmināsē bàr nìbnì hìjòosìn kèrè]
 gòṅòo-s hàminā-sē bàr nìbnì hìjòo-s-n kèrè
 bear-DEF disapper-3FS-TEMP she slow tree-DEF-LOC climb.PFV.3FS
 'She slowly climbed down from the tree as soon as the bear had disappeared.'

The simultaneity is expressed in Example 10.

The following figure shows the temporal clause markers of Yemsa. A temporal relationship is expressed by the temporal suffixes *-nnéen* and *-sē*.

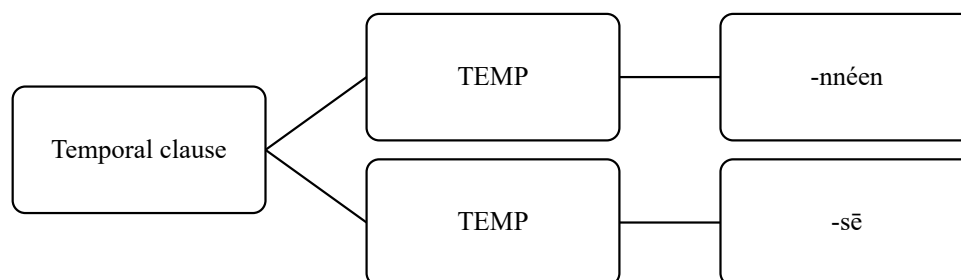


Figure 1. Temporal clause markers in Yemsa

Temporal subordinators express the temporal simultaneity, anteriority, or posteriority of meaning (Kortmann, 1997; Cristofaro, 2005a; Hetterle, 2015; Rönnedal, 2017). The temporal subordinator in Example 9 expressed anteriority.

Temporal clauses supplement the proposition of the main sentence with additional temporal information, encoding a temporal, fine-grained local semantic relationship such as precedence, subsequence, simultaneity, and point of coincidence (Cristofaro, 2005a). Consider the following examples:

- (11) a. [ʔàrùni kèer hàmināsē sinàk kèeri]
 ʔàrùni kèeri hà-m-nā-sé sinàk
 school house go.PFV-1S-TEMP before
 [wositònáasòn wòsitènā]
 wostò-nāa-s-òn wòstè-nā
 work-POSS-DEF-ACC work-1S.FUT
 ‘I’ll do my homework before I go back to school.’
- b. [bár ʔijòstàn gòndònènnéén sinàk ʃòfèriis]
 bár ʔijòstà-n gòndònè-nā-nnéén sinà-k ʃòfèriis
 he tree-ACC crash-3MS-TEMP become-LOC driver-DEF
 [biràtèrètàp’è]
 bìràtèrètàp’è
 sharp turn.PFV.3MS
 ‘The driver had made a sharp turn before he crashed into a tree.’

The temporal relation is marked in the adverbial clause in 11 (a and b). The events that happened *ʔàrùni kèer hàmināsē sinàk* ‘Before I go back to school’ and *bár ʔijòstàn gòndònènnéén sinàk* ‘before he crashed into a tree’ are encoded by *kèeri wostò-nāa-s-òn wòstè-nā* ‘I will do my homework’ and *ʃòfèriis bìràtèrètàp’è* ‘The driver had made a sharp turn’.

Anteriority clauses (after) refer to actions before the main clause. Temporal anteriority relations involve two SoAs occurring in time. The dependent SoA is anterior to the main one, as in 12.

- (12) [filmiis kènnéén ʔòrifò sèlèmòn kèebà hà-m]
 film-s kè-nā-nnéén ʔòrfò sèlèmòn kèebà hà-m
 film-DEF end-3MS-TEMP after Solomon house.POSS go.PFV.3MS
 ‘Solomon went home after the movie ended.’

In Example 12, the clause expresses anteriority. They are two SoAs. The dependent clauses occur before the main clause. The particle, which is *ʔòrfò* ‘after’, describes anteriority.

The temporal AC appears with locative phrases. Consider the following example:

- (13) [bár kèjāas girifēnānnēen sèlēmōnnò hàarè tēnnè]
 bár kèjāa-s girfē-nā-nnēen sèlēmōnnò hàarè tēnnè
 he house-DEF enter-3MS-TEMP Solomon angry look.PFV.3MS
 ‘Solomon looked angry when he entered the classroom.’

According to Kortmann (1997), the connection (*until*) specifies a circumstance posterior to the situation in the main clause and marks its endpoint (or end-period). Consider the following example:

- (14) [mèetàu hòoròtānnēen kàbà ʔòrgòni kàtifāt zàgifāt]
 mèetàu hòorò-tā-nnēen ʔòrgòni kàt-f-àt zàg-f-àt
 dinner ready--2S-TEMP foot walk-IPFV-2S take-IPFV-2S
 ‘Take a walk until dinner is ready.’

As illustrated in Example 14, the adverbial clauses (ACs) specify the time or endpoint of the main clause, and similarly, the starting time of the ACs. Temporal clauses are a feature of the Yemsa language, as demonstrated above.

As previously discussed, Yemsa’s temporal clause marker appears in adverbial verb suffixes. This element of Yemsa’s grammar demonstrates the more general typological properties of Afroasiatic languages, emphasizing its importance for comparative linguistic studies within this language family.

4.1.2.2. Locative Clause

In many languages, including English, the subordinator having the meaning of ‘where’ introduces locational clauses (Thompson et al., 2007). Consider the following examples:

- (15) [hàmnī dīmāastā zàatirā maa ʔàsànin dànfēni]
 hà-m-nī dīmāa-s-tā zàatrā maa ʔàsànin dàn-f-èni
 go-1P place-DEF-on every kind people meet.PFV-1P
 ‘We meet kind people everywhere we went.’

The word *dīmāa-s-tā* ‘place’ indicates the meaning of place. In Example 16, adverbials of the location are indicated through relative clauses headed by the noun *dīmāa-s-tā* ‘place,’ followed by definite -s. Consider the following example:

- (16) [kàbàk mèetàu mēenī dīmāa-s-tā dànidīfàn]
 kàbà-k mèetàu mēe-nī dīmāa-s-tā dàn-dīf-àn
 time-LOC dinner eat.PFV-1P place-DEF-on meet-PROG-1S
 ‘I am meeting her where we had dinner before.’

Nouns overlap in the locative and temporal adverbs (Hangeveled, 2020). Most temporal and locative sentences can be rephrased as relative clauses with heads like “time” or “place” (Thompson et al., 2007; Hellenthal, 2009). The locational phrase is rephrased, as is seen in Example 17.

- (17) [ʔàjnà hāmifānà ʔaagèná sàabàni kèjàasòn biinifānà]
 ʔàjnà hām-f-àná ʔaagèná sàabàni kèjàa-s-òn biin-f-àn
 wherever go-IPFV-1S always saba.POSS house-DEF-ACC see-IPFV-1S
 ‘Wherever I go, I always see Saba’s restaurant.’

It is easy to find languages of adverbial clauses of time, place, and manner that resemble and share features with relative clauses (Kortmann, 1997; Diessel, 2001; Thompson et al., 2007). The locational AC is rephrased by a relative clause, as is shown in Example 17. This kind of case happens in Kambatta: the locative clauses are RCs by the dependent morpheme (Tries, 2008).

The discovery of adverbial subordinators in the locative AC within Yemsa’s grammar delineates a distinguishing feature among the Ometo languages. This allows for comparative typological analyses, particularly in connection to the Bench language, through the lens of an adverbial subordinator.

4.1.2.3. *Manner Clause*

Manner adverbs in languages occur as inner specifiers of small verbs, and their usual role is to introduce agents (Adger & Tsoulas, 2004, p. 45). The ACs can show manners. The following example shows how the AC handled the event.

- (18) [bàrin kàrèfinnāsē hàarè tennè]
 bàr-in kàrèfin-nā-sē hàarè tennè
 he-ACC interrupt-1S-TEMP angry look.PFV.3MS
 ‘He looked at me angrily when I interrupted him.’

Mostly, adjunct distribution has a semantic role; linked to any structures to obtain a well-formed interpretation (Ernst, 2004, p. 103). As in Example 18, the clause is interpreted as a manner adverbial because it provides additional information.

4.1.2.4. *Causal Clause*

Causative links consist of sentences with a main clause and a subordinate clause (Diessel et al., 2011). Diessel (2001) explains that causal clauses describe the cause of the connected statement. The cause is typically linked to external motivation, whereas the reason is usually associated with internal motivation (Givón, 2001). Consider the following examples:

- (19) [màar sinà-nā ʔòdisūnā bòorà kilàsikàlini mùziqàasòn]
 màar sinà-nā ʔòdsū-nā bòorà kilàsikàlini mùzqàa-s-òn
 good become-1S sound-3MS reason classical music-DEF-ACC
 [ʔòdèfàn]

ʔòdè-f-àn

listen-IPFV-1S

‘I listen to classical music because it sounds beautiful.’

A reason clause is a subordinate adverbial clause that conveys the rationale for the action of the main sentence (Blake, 1988, p. 139). The reason is *màar màar sìnà-nā ʔòdisūnā bòorà* ‘because it sounds beautiful’, and this causes the main clause *kilàsikàlini mùzìqàasòn* ‘I listen to classical music’.

The causal clauses express a cause or reason for the situation explained in the main clause (Cristofaro, 2005; Hetterle, 2015). Payne (1997) claims most languages treat cause and reason similarly. In Yemsa, the reason clause is indicated by *bòorà* ‘reason’. As illustrated in Example 19, the cause is often associated with external motivation, but the reason is typically related to inward motivation.

In North Mao (Ahland, 2012), Sheko (Hellenthal, 2010), and Maale (Azeb, 2001), which are related to Yemsa, a reason clause is manifested through relative clauses and affixes. As shown in Example 20, Yemsa also indicates the reason clause by particle.

- (20) [pròjèktis màlònò wòsàsitànā bòorà ʔàbèrà ʔòoddètà wòsitè]
 pròjèkti-s màlònò wòsàstè-nā bòorà ʔàbèrà ʔòoddètà wòstè
 project-DEF correctly do-3MS reason abera carefully work.PFV.3MS
 ‘Abera worked carefully so that the project would be done correctly.’

The element *bòorà* ‘reason’ occurs between the AC and the main clause. Consider the following example:

- (21) [zàggirà màmisìfnā bòorà keennàsìrò màkònā]
 zàggirà màms-f-nā bòorà keennàsìrò màkò-nā
 strongly insist-IPFV-1S reason secret.POSS tell-1P.FUT
 ‘Since you insist, I will tell you my secret.’

4.1.2.5. Purpose Clause

Schmidtke-Bode (2009) notes that purpose clauses have no time reference concerning the main sentence. The purpose and reason sentences are not the object of the predicate but rather an explanation of its conditions (Verstraete, 2008, p. 757). As in the following example, the purpose clause elaborates on the issues described in the main clause:

- (22) [bàr fòonāk bàr mēefà]
 bàr fòo-nā-k bàr mēe-f-à
 she live-3FS-PURP she eat-IPFV-3FS
 ‘She eats so that she may live.’

In Example 22, the dependent clause is the purpose clause because the main clause, *bàr mēe-f-à* ‘she eats’ describes the intention or the goal of the dependent clause.

Many subordinators are formally equivalent to components with different syntactic purposes (Häcker, 1999). The subordinator and the instrumental or dative case marker have relations in Yemsa. The purpose clause is subordinated by *-k*.

Purpose relations connect two SoAs, one of which (the main one) is done to achieve the realization of the other (the dependent one) (Cristofaro, 2005). Consider the following example:

- (23) [bár milijòninir sinànak zàgìrè wòsitèfē]
 bár milijòninir sinà-nā-k zàgrè wòstè-f-ē
 he millionaire become-3MS-PURP hard work-IPFV-3MS
 ‘He works hard so he will become a millionaire.’

The main clause occurred to achieve the AC, as seen in Example 23. The purpose clause encodes a verbal situation, which is conducted to realize another verbal situation (Hetterle, 2015). The purpose clause encodes the verbal situation, as seen in Example 24.

- (24) [ʔàrùbàasik maa bùak ʔèebisitonāk ʔàkàmànòn]
 ʔàrùbàa-s-k maa bùak ʔèebstò-nā-k ʔàkàmànòn
 class.POSS-DEF-LOC top result graduate-3MS-PURP very
 [zàgìrè fèrèfē]
 zàgrè fèrè-f-ē
 hard read-IPFV-3MS
 ‘He reads so hard that he can graduate at the top of his class.’

As in 24, the realization of the purpose clause depends on the main clause’s occurrence.

The subtype of the purpose clause encodes the performance of one action to prevent an undesirable event from occurring (Hetterle, 2015). Consider the following example:

- (25) kòtʃò kòotʃò-nòj-tā gùmùni màamàa-s-ī-kìtò-nòn fāfòt
 chill catch-NEG-2S warm cloth-DEF-GEN-PL-ACC put.2S
 ‘Put on your warm clothes at least you should catch a chill.’

As in 25, the main clause occurrence helps to avoid the unpleasant feeling of the circumstance in the purpose clause.

Purpose clauses have considerable structural parallels with causal and result clauses (Thompson et al., 2007; Dixon, 2009; Schmidtke-Bode, 2009). As seen in Example 26, the clause describes the cause of the action:

- (26) [bàr ʔàkàmànòn ʔòpijà sinnā bòorà ràkkòk jèrò ʔàanè ʃimà]
 bàr ʔàkàmànòn ʔòpijà sin-nā bòorà ràkkòk jèrò ʔàanè ʃimà
 she very weak become-3FS reason hardly stand NEG can
 ‘She was so weak that she could hardly stand.’

This study on Yemsa adverbial clauses contributes to our understanding of the language's syntactic properties and fills a gap in the description of adverbial clauses in the Ometo language group. These data are valuable for Afroasiatic language typology studies and theoretical frameworks, perhaps paving the way for future comparative linguistics research.

5. CONCLUSION

The primary goal of this study was to demonstrate the structure and function of adverbial clauses in Yemsa based on identifying and analyzing morphological markers, adverbial subordinators, and syntactic positions of adverbial clauses. The study sought to fill a significant gap in linguistic literature by analyzing Yemsa's adverbial clause, thus improving our understanding of its grammar. This contribution aims to enhance linguistic typology by facilitating comparisons with other Afroasiatic languages and fostering a more thorough discussion.

This study has provided a detailed description of adverbial clauses in Yemsa, an Omotic language spoken in southwestern Ethiopia. Existing studies on Yemsa's syntax, particularly with regard to adverbial clauses, are limited and in need of further exploration. Therefore, this research has filled this gap by presenting a comprehensive description of the internal structure of Yemsa's adverbial clauses. Currently, in-depth analyses focusing on the structure of Yemsa's adverbial clauses are lacking. This oversight highlights a crucial area for future linguistic research into the syntax of adverbial clauses in Yemsa.

The data were described and analyzed using generic definitions and typological classifications of adverbial constructions from the linguistic literature. The data have been meticulously transcribed, annotated, segmented, translated, and analyzed using the language data gathered from elicitation.

Dependents appear before the head. Subordinate adverbial clauses come before the main clause. The adverbial clauses precede the main predicate. Adverbial clauses express time, place, purpose, manner, and reason. Adverbial clauses use a dependent-person suffix in their verb morphology. The dependent person suffixes are simple, IPFV, and future. Adverbial subordinators and verbal suffixes are dependent clause indicators. Yemsa uses verbal suffixes to denote ACs. Aspect is expressed in the same way that main clauses are. Adverbial and major clauses do not have a perfective marker but have an imperfective marker. The temporal marker connects the main clause and the adverbial clause in time. There are two temporal markers: -nnéen ('TEMP') and -sē ('TEMP') in Yemsa.

The adverbial clause can come with temporal adverbs. There is precedence in the ACs. As a result, the main clause event occurs after the dependent clause event. It is indicated by the temporal adverbs *ɖərɖə* 'after' and *hànkàlò* 'after' or by logical reasoning. Temporal subordinators express the temporal relationships of simultaneity or posteriority. The word *dīmāa-s-tā* 'place' indicates the meaning of place. Adverbials of the location are indicated through relative clauses headed by the noun *dīmāa-s-tā* 'place,' followed by a definite -s. The locational phrase is rephrased. The adverbial clauses (ACs) can indicate manners. The term *bòorà* 'reason' refers to the reason clause in Yemsa. The cause is related to external incentives, while the reason pertains to internal motivation. The particle *bòorà* 'reason' appears between the AC and the main clause. The dependent clause is the purpose clause because the main clause expresses the objective or goal of the dependent clause. The occurrence of the independent clause helps to avoid negative feelings.

The study of Yemsa adverbial clauses has significant implications for developing the general features of Omotic and Afroasiatic languages. It will contribute to preparing grammatical resources and educational materials for Yemsa, facilitate language teaching and learning at various grade levels, and provide data for computational linguistics, applied linguistics, and further comparative studies within the Omotic languages and beyond. In addition, it will provide syntactic data to researchers in the comparative syntactic study of the Omoto languages.

The usage of adverbial clauses in Yemsa may have implications for professional communication within the Yemsa-speaking population, particularly in education and cultural studies. The material in this article is significant for teaching Yemsa to journalists, translators, cultural studies scholars, and various sorts of professional communication. More research is recommended on the typological comparison of adverbial clause indicators among Omotic languages.

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Conflict of interest

The authors state that there is no conflict of interest.

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About the authors:

Mitike Asrat Demeke is a PhD candidate at Addis Ababa University, Ethiopia. His research interests include describing and documenting the morphology and syntax of the least-studied Ethiopian languages. ORCID: 0000-0000-4856-7514.

Girma Mengistu Desta, PhD, is an Assistant Professor of Linguistics in the Department of Linguistics and Philology at Addis Ababa University, Ethiopia. His research interests include language description, language typology, phonology, and tonology.

Endalew Assefa Temesgen, PhD, is an Associate Professor of Linguistics in the Department of Linguistics and Philology at Addis Ababa University, Ethiopia. His research interest is in descriptive linguistics.

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Appendix. List of symbols and abbreviations

1, 2, 3	1st, 2nd, 3rd person	PFV	Perfective
-	Morpheme boundary	P	Plural
[]	Phonetic representation	POSS	Possessive
AC	Adverbial clause	PROG	Progressive
ACC	Accusative	PURP	Purposive
ADV	Adverbial	S	Singular
DEF	Definite marker	SoA	State of Affairs
F	Feminine	SOV	Subject-object-verb
FUT	Future	SVO	Subject-verb-object
GEN	Genitive	TEMP	Temporal
IPFV	Imperfective	VP	Verb phrase
LOC	Locative	VOS	Verb-object-subject
M	Masculine	VSO	Verb-subject-object
NEG	Negative		
OSV	Object-subject-verb		
OVS	Object-verb-subject		