

Original paper

УДК 81

<http://doi.org/10.32603/2412-8562-2024-10-6-108-123>

Conditional Constructions in Yemsa

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Introduction. The main objective of this study is to produce a comprehensive description of Yemsa conditional constructions. The existing studies do not describe conditional clauses in Yemsa. This study aims to fill the gap in the description of the internal structure conditional clause of Yemsa.

Methodology and sources. The data were collected through the elicitation technique through informant interviews about the conditional clause in Yemsa. The data were analyzed using a descriptive approach without considering any particular theoretical framework. The data was described and analyzed in light of general definitions and typological classifications of conditional constructions in the linguistic literature.

Results and discussion. Antecedent and consequent clauses are attested. The morphemes occur in different types of conditional clauses. Canonical and non-canonical forms of conditional have been identified. The semantic-based classification of Yemsa conditionals is dealt with in light of Thompson et al.'s typological view. Real, unreal, counterfactual, hypothetical, concessive, and exceptive conditional are discussed. In Yemsa, the protasis of the real conditional clause type differs from the unreal protasis conditional clause type. A subordinate clause (the protasis) states some condition, the truth of which is not asserted, under which another main clause (the apodosis) holds.

Conclusion. The study will provide some syntactic data to researchers in the comparative syntactic description of the Omoto languages about conditional clauses. It will serve as a good resource material for further theoretical studies concerning conditional constructions in general.

Keywords: Yemsa, conditional clause, antecedent clause, consequent clause, canonical forms, non-canonical forms

For citation: Mitike Asrat, Girma Mengistu, Endalew Assefa (2024), "Conditional Constructions in Yemsa", *DISCOURSE*, vol. 10, no. 6, pp. 108–123. DOI: 10.32603/2412-8562-2024-10-6-108-123.

Acknowledgments: I thank the informants who participated in the interview. This paper is dedicated to my mother, Fentaye Ahmed (Eteweyiwa), and to my father, Asrat Demeke.

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Оригинальная статья

Условные конструкции в языке йемса

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Введение. Основной целью настоящего исследования является комплексное описание условных конструкций в языке йемса. Существующие исследования не раскрывают структуру условных предложений в языке народа йем. Данное исследование призвано восполнить этот пробел.

Методология и источники. Сбор данных осуществлялся методом элективного интервью с информантами на предмет условных предложений в языке йемса. Данные были проанализированы с использованием описательного подхода без учета какой-либо конкретной теоретической базы. Описание и анализ данных выполнены на базе общих определений и типологических классификаций условных конструкций в лингвистической литературе.

Результаты и обсуждение. В рамках исследования были установлены антецедент и консеквент условных предложений. Показано использование морфем в различных типах условных предложений. Выделены канонические и неканонические формы условных конструкций. Семантическая классификация условных предложений языка йемса рассматривается на базе типологического взгляда, предложенного Томпсоном и др. Рассмотрены реальные, нереальные, контрфактические, гипотетические, уступительные и исключительные условные конструкции. В языке йемса протазис реального условного предложения отличается от протазиса нереального условного предложения. Подчиненное предложение (протазис) вводит некоторое условие, истинность которого не утверждается, при котором выполняется другое главное предложение (аподозис).

Заключение. Исследование содержит синтаксические данные для сопоставительного синтаксического описания условных предложений в омотских языках и может быть использовано для дальнейших теоретических исследований, касающихся условных конструкций в целом.

Ключевые слова: язык йемса, условное предложение, антецедент, консеквент, канонические формы, неканонические формы

Благодарность: авторы благодарят всех лиц, согласившихся принять участие в интервью для проведения данного исследования. Статья посвящается Фентайе Ахмед (Этевейива) и Асрату Демеке.

Для цитирования: Митике Асрат, Гирма Менгисту, Эндейлу Ассефа. Условные конструкции в языке йемса // ДИСКУРС. 2024. Т. 10, № 6. С. 108–123. DOI: 10.32603/2412-8562-2024-10-6-108-123.

Introduction. Yemsa is an Omotic language that belongs to the Yem-Kefoid sub-group of the TN group languages [1–3]. The total population of Yem is 159,923 [4].

The number and depth of studies are limited and untouchable in the conditional clause of Yemsa. Thus, this study aims to fill the gap by the description of the internal structure conditional clause of Yemsa. This gap exposes a crucial area of linguistic inquiry, considering the potential of

such studies to illuminate the interconnection between morphology, syntax, and semantics in lesser-documented languages.

The study will address the following research questions:

1. What kind of conditional clause types occur in Yemsa, and what morphological markers are involved in the conditional construction?
2. what are strategies used to form a conditional clause, and what are morpho-syntactic features of Yemsa protases and apodoses?
3. What are typological classification and syntactic forms of Yemsa conditional constructions?

Methodology and sources. The description of conditional clause uses the typology of Thompson et al. [5]. The typologies corresponding to the objectives apply to the analyses. This consideration shows that a descriptive approach applies to the analyses.

The informants were selected based on their language competence. All informants are native speakers of Yemsa. The data for this study has been collected from the Saja and Fofa areas, where the native speakers of the language live. Four informants, Demeke Jenbere, Tekalegn Ayalew, Almaz Tesfaye, and Adanche Kebede, were used as key informants. According to age, Demeke is 42, Tekalegn is 60, Almaz is 40, and Adanche is 54. In terms of gender, two male and two female informants were consulted. All of them worked on supplying linguistic data and conducting discussion sessions.

The data were collected mainly through informant interviews using the elicitation technique about the internal structure of relative clauses in Yemsa based on the clauses and sentences. The elicited clauses and sentences were uttered for the informants in Amharic. Then, the informants were requested to offer Yemsa counterparts for the clauses and sentences. The data were supplemented by texts. After this event, there are discussion sessions with the informants to clarify the data and minimize confusion.

The data will be described and analyzed in light of general definitions and typological classifications of conditional constructions in the linguistic literature. The data were analyzed qualitatively. The data have been carefully transcribed, annotated, segmented, analyzed, 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 are described. Some shortcomings are unavoidable due to time limitations. The data were transcribed phonetically and phonemically through IPA symbols. When there is a difference between phonetic and phonemic forms, four-line glossing is used: (i) phonetic form; (ii) morphological form with morpheme-by-morpheme segmentation; (iii) morphological glossing; (iv) free translation.

Theoretical background. Conditionals consist of protasis and apodosis, in which the conditional clause can be antecedent or protasis, and the main clause can be consequent or apodosis [6–8]. As Häcker [9] contends prototypical use of conditional clauses, as implied by their name, is to state a condition on the fulfillment of which the truth-value of the matrix phrase depends. The antecedent clause precedes the consequent clause, which represents the morpho-syntactically marked part of a conditional construction, taken as a cross-linguistic feature [7]. A conditional construction is a complex sentence made up of a subordinate clause called a protasis, or if-clause, and a main clause called an apodosis; protasis is denoted by p and apodosis by q; the protasis

expresses a condition for the completion of the apodosis proposition [10, 11, 5]. As Podlesskaya [11] argues, protasis is an adverbial sentence that specifies possibilities and the degree of probability. Cross-linguistically, protasis is the morphosyntactically indicated part of a conditional utterance that comes before apodosis [11].

As Comrie [12] argues, conditional clauses in the world's languages indicate varying degrees of hypotheticality; that is, varying degrees of likelihood of truth-values through (i) explicit morphosyntactic features or (ii) deductions from other knowledge sources.

Most languages manifest a semantic-based distinction between real and unreal conditionals [5]. They summarized their semantic-based typology as follows:

Semantic-based distinction between real and unreal conditionals

Conditional clause	
Real	Unreal
1. Present	1. Imaginative
2. Habitual/generic	a. Hypothetical
3. Past	b. Counterfactual
	2. Predictive

Conditional clauses are real and unreal [12]. Again, there are two kinds of unreal conditional clauses: imaginative and hypothetical conditional clauses. The matrix clause is apodosis and an adverbial phrase by a specific conjunction called the protasis or the conditional's if-clause.

Real conditional states that if another proposition (represented by the antecedent sentence) holds, a proposition (expressed by the consequent clause) follows [13] and is unmarked for modality in many languages [14]. Thompson et al. [5] state future conditionals as imaginary and predictive, whereas unreal conditionals describe circumstances that are not real. As Podlesskaya [11] notes, conditionality is shown by segmental devices (affixes or function words) or (less frequently) particular word order patterns. In the related literature, the conditional constructions are relevance, speech act, and biscuit conditionals [15, 7, 8].

Comrie [12] and Givón [16] state cross-linguistically, counterfactual conditionals are distinguished in two ways: (i) by combining two semantically conflicting verbal inflections, such as the prototypically realis past, perfective, or perfect and the prototypically irrealis future, subjunctive, conditional, or modal; and (ii) by dedicated morphology.

Conditional clauses can be interpreted as propositions. As Häcker [9] says, the fundamental pattern of such a clause relationship is "If p, then q". This is known as the "condition proper" relationship. Aside from "condition proper," there are two related categories: "rhetorical condition," in which the form of a conditional clause is used to make an emphatic assertion, and "alternative condition," in which the subordinate clause contains a conditional element modifying the matrix clause content but whose fulfillment is not required for the matrix clause proposition to be true. As Bhatt and Pancheva [7] state, conditional structures are interpreted with the antecedent clause's proposition specifying the (modal) circumstances under which the main clause's proposition is true. As Häcker [9] contends, the prototypical use of conditional clauses, as implied by their name, is to state a condition on the fulfillment of which the truth value of the matrix phrase depends.

Conditional clauses can be expressed in different syntactic forms, as long as the referential dependency between the antecedent and the consequent clause is continuous [17]. The antecedent

clause precedes the consequent clause, which represents the morpho-syntactically marked part of a conditional construction, taken as a cross-linguistic feature [7].

A conditional construction is a complex sentence with a subordinate clause called a protasis, or if-clause, and a main clause called an apodosis. In logic, protasis is denoted by *p* and apodosis by *q*. The protasis expresses a condition for the apodosis proposition [10, 11, 5]. Conditionals are a subclass of sentences that contain adverbial clauses of circumstance. The inventory of circumstantial relations is shown by complex sentences [11]. It is a complex structure, which includes an adverbial clause with an antecedent (protasis) and the main clause, called a consequent (apodosis).

Diessel [18] argues that conditional clauses are hypothetical constructions to predict a future event. Conditional expressions are composed of two clauses: protasis ('if') and apodosis ('then') [11]. A protasis is an adverbial sentence that specifies possibilities and the degree of probability. Cross-linguistically, protasis is the morphosyntactically indicated part of a conditional utterance that appears before apodosis [11].

Most languages distinguish between protasis, apodosis, or both. Overt marking of the protasis appears to be the most typical case cross-linguistically, but there are several exceptions, such as Mandarin and Ngiyambaa. Conjunctions, verb form, and subject-verb (or subject-auxiliary) inversion mark the protasis [12]. The most common conditional pattern across languages has the two properties listed below: First, the protasis comes before the apodosis, which means, "In conditional statements, the conditional clause comes before the conclusion, as is the order in all languages. Second, conditionality is expressed in protasis [11]. Conditionality can be indicated through segmental devices (affixes or function words) or, less frequently, particular word order patterns [11]. A conditional marker is a suffix to the subordinate verb or free morphemes within the subordinate phrase. Suffixes are favored as conditional clause markers in languages with non-finite subordinate verbs, although prefixes are frequently employed with subordinate verbs to indicate agreement with the subject. In many languages, the usage of tense or aspect forms of a verb in protasis is limited to a small set of verb forms [11].

The following pieces of information are required to create an accurate representation of a conditional in a given language: the temporal status of combined clauses (do the introduced states of affairs refer to the past, present, or future?), the epistemic status (how does the speaker assess the reality of the introduced states of affairs?), the evaluative status (the speaker's attitude toward the introduced states of affairs in terms of (un)desirability or (dis)approval), and the polarity status (is the reality of the state of affairs introduced in the apodosis) [11]. This information is distributed among three groups of devices: conditional markers proper, grammatical markers on the protasis or (and) on the apodosis (tense, aspect, mood, and polarity markers), and "supporting" lexical devices (adverbial sentence modifiers, quantifiers, and particles). Depending on the grammaticalization approach of a specific language, different parts of this information may be brought together in different ways [11].

Results and discussion. Conditional clause in Yemsa

1. The morpho-syntax of conditional clause. The conditional clause forms from the antecedent and the consequent. The antecedent clause is an adverbial clause that contains the conditional marker; the consequent clause is the main clause. The conditional marker is *-nē* 'COND'. As shown in 1 (a and b):

- (1) a. [wònàwònà ʔisà sàatī dòstòzàqí fáatānē mùzik' ànì ʔàrùnì]
wònàwònà ʔisà sàatī dòstòzàq-fáa-tā-nē mùzk' à-nì ʔàrù
daily one hour practice-SEQ-2S-COND music-ACC lesson
[fòtā ʔimàtā]
fò-tā ʔimà-tā
be.there-2S able to-2S
'You may have music lessons if you practice for an hour a day.'
- b. [bár ʔàkàmànò ʔimà fèròʃí fáa-nā-nē jùnìvèrsìtì]
bár ʔàkàmànò ʔimà fèròʃ-fáa-nā-nē jùnìvèrsìtì
he very hard study-SEQ-3MS-COND university
[ʔáafà gírùinà]
ʔáafà gírù-nā
NEG enter-3MS
'He won't go to university unless he studies very hard.'

In 1 (a and b), the conditional clause is constructed from two clauses, which are the antecedent or protasis 'if-clause' and the consequent clause or apodosis 'then-clause.' The antecedent clauses are *wònàwònà ʔisà sàatī dòstòzàqí-fáa-nī-nē* 'if you practice an hour a day' and *bár ʔàkàmànò zàqirè fèròʃí-fáa-nā-nē* 'unless he studies very hard' are adverbial clause, which attaches the conditional marker *-nē* in the verb. Whereas the consequent clauses are *mùzìqànì ʔàrù fòtā ʔimà-tā* 'you may have music lessons' and *jùnìvèrsìtì ʔáafà gírù-nā* 'he won't go to university' are the main clauses. Hence, the conditional clause has antecedent and consequent clauses, as in 1 (a and b). As a result, 1 (a and b) are conditional clauses in Yemsa.

Diessel [18] states conditional clauses precede the main clause. In Yemsa, the same happens: the conditional clause precedes the main clause as in 1 (a and b).

Languages employ both grammatical and lexical strategies to express the degree of possibility [11]. As in 2, the degree of possibility is expressed through grammatical means.

- (2) [tàpèfáanīnē ʔàʃnú tèsùnì wòstòsòn hòp' inì ʔimànì]
tàpè-fáa-nī-nē ʔàʃnú tèsùnì wòstòsòn hòp'-nì ʔimà-nì
hurry-SEQ-1P-COND still first act catch-1P able to-1P
'If we hurry, we can still catch the first act.'

On the one hand, morphologically, the conditional clause has a conditional marker in the verb. On the other hand, syntactically, the conditional clause precedes the main clause. Consider the following example:

- (3) [ʃùnfánāas tiritì bèsitèfáanānē kòibàwà tèlevizhìni bījīnā]
ʃùnfánāa-s tiritì bèstè-fáa-nā-nē kòibàwà tèlevizhìni
favorite.POSS.1S-DEF show live-SEQ-1S-COND only television
[bījīnā]
bījī-nā
watch-1S
'I only watch TV if my favorite show is on.'

Languages employ a variety of techniques to signal whether a given syntactic structure is a conditional or another type of bi-clausal construction; the most prevalent crosslinguistic method

appears to be the explicit marking of the antecedent clause [7]. As shown in 4, Yemsa uses a morphological marking of the antecedent clause. The conditional marker appears in the verb of the antecedent clause.

- (4) [kàfànliisik fòjèfáatānē ʔàsùus gīrā sinānā]
kàfànliis-i-k fòjè-fáa-tā-nē ʔàsùu-s gīrā sinā-nā
team-for choose-SEQ-2S-COND man-DEF happy become-3MS
‘The man will be happy if you choose him for your team.’

Conditional markers can be suffixed to the stem [11]. As in 5, the conditional marker is a suffix in the verb of the antecedent clause. Therefore, the conditional marker is a suffix in the stem.

- (5) [dʒàkètiis nèek ʔàkàmànòn ʔinjà sɪnfáanānē tà sòolénā]
dʒàkèts nèe-k ʔàkàmànòn ʔinjà sɪn-fáa-nā-nē tà sòolé-nā
jacket you-for very big become-SEQ-1S-COND i change-1S
[ʃimàná]
ʃimà-nà
able to-1S
‘If the jacket is too big for you, I can alter it.’

Many languages that mark the protasis do not usually mark the apodosis [12]. In 5, the conditional marker is *-nē*, attached in the verb form of the antecedent clauses *sɪn-fáa-nā-nē*. As a result, it marks the protasis, not the apodosis.

Conditional clauses are formed through suffixation in Yemsa. Hence, the conditional marker attaches to the verb form of the antecedent clause. The presence of the conditional marker in the verb form of the antecedent clause is the basic structure of the conditional clause, as in 6.

- (6) [nèe ʃimà wòsitáatānē nèe wòsitòos fòtā ʃimà-tā]
nèe ʃimà wòst-áa-tā-nē nèe wòstòo-s fòtā ʃimà-tā
you hard work-SEQ-2S-COND you work-DEF be.there-2S able to-2S
‘You may have the job if you will work hard at it.’

In 6, the conditional clauses are constructed through the suffix *-nē*, attached to the verb form of the antecedent clause. Hence, *wòst-áa-tā-nē* ‘work’ has a conditional marker in the antecedent verb form.

In Afan-Oromo, conditional markers can be affixes linked to the subordinate verb or free morphemes within the subordinate clause [19]. As shown in the following example, this kind of fact also happens in Yemsa, where the conditional marker is affixed to the antecedent clause. It is not a free morpheme. However, it is an affix in the protasis clause.

- (7) [ʃèàsòn gàmigàlènnānē fàalā]
ʃèàsòn gàmigàlè-nā-nē fàal-nā
ice heat-2S-COND melt-3MS
‘If you heat ice, it melts.’

2. The antecedent (protasis or *if*-clause) and consequent (apodosis or *then* clause).

In Yemsa, the conditional construction has antecedent and consequent clauses. In 8, the antecedent clause has a conditional marker. The antecedent or the protasis (‘if’) clauses have the conditional marker *-nē*, suffixed to the verbal stem. The antecedent (protasis or ‘if’) clause appears in initial positions.

- (8) [màkìnà fàar sìnfáanānē sìnàrà gírà kábā]
màkìnà fàar sìn-fáa-nā-nē sìn-nā gírà kábā
car has become-SEQ-3FS-COND become-3FS happy PART
‘She would be happy if she had a car.’

In Yemsa, the consequent or apodosis clause appears in the language. In 9, the consequent, or apodosis (then clause), appears in the final position.

- (9) [lòtòrnì tikèti wàagèfáatānē hàtò wàagà mèrtā fīmà-tā]
lòtòrnì tikèti wàagè-fáa-tā-nē hàtò wàagà mèr-tā fīmà-tā
lottery ticket buy-SEQ-2S-COND some money win-2S able to-2S
‘If you buy a lottery ticket, you might win some money.’

The temporal reference of consequent clauses is non-past, as in 9. The consequent clause of 9 is in the non-completive aspect. The aspectual structures encode that the speaker undertakes the activity after the speech.

As in 9, the conditional marker is attached to the verb form antecedent clauses. It shows systematic relationships with numerous grammatical categories, including agreement and person markers.

These conditional types differ from prototypical ones in that their antecedent clauses state the conditions under which the subsequent clauses are discourse-relevant, rather than the conditions under which they are true or valid [7]. As in 10, the antecedent clause states the condition under the subsequent clause.

- (10) [tà kèèfìtèfáanānē wàagònā]
tà kèèfìtè-fáa-nā-nē wàagònā
I like-SEQ-1S-COND buy-1S.FUT
‘If I like it, I will buy it.’

The consequent clause probability depends on the occurrence of the antecedent clause. The probability of the consequent clause in 11 depends on the willingness of the antecedent clause, as in 11.

- (11) [nèe fòlèfáatānē jèetā fīmàtā]
nèe fòlè-fáa-tā-nē jèe-tā fīmà-tā
you want-SEQ-2S-COND come-2S able to-2S
‘You may come if you want to.’

The probability of the consequent clause in 11 depends on the willingness, whereas the probability of the consequent clause in 12 (a and b) depends on the action of the conditional clause. The subsequent words of 12 (a and b) convey a deontic mode of obligation, whereas the clauses of 11 express permission. As Saeed [20] argues, this modality is epistemic versus deontic.

- (12) a. [nèe zàgírà wòsìtèfáatānē nèe ?àafà ?àatàtázà]
nèe zàgrà wòstè-fáa-tā-nē nèe ?àafà ?àatà-tā
you hard work-SEQ-2S-COND you NEG pass-2S
‘You won’t pass unless you work hard.’
b. [nèe kùlìfùni gàfòsìkitònòn ?īmáafàkàatānē]
nèe kùlìfùni gàfò-s-i-kitò-nòn ?īm-fáa-tā-nē
you locker key-DEF-GEN-PL-ACC give SEQ-2S-COND

[nèe wòssàmàtā]

nèe wòssàmà-tā.

you reward-2S.FUT

‘You will be rewarded if you give me the keys to the locker.’

The following clause can be in any sentence mood. As seen in instances 13, the shape of the consequent clause is in the declarative and negative moods.

(13) [ʔànbà tífàasòn fèrètífaanīnē ʔòwàasòn gázgù ʔīmà-nī]

ʔànbà tífàasòn fèrèt-fāa-nī-nē ʔòwàasòn gázgù ʔīmà-nī
this article read-SEQ-1P-COND issue understand able to-1P

‘If we read this article, we can understand the issue.’

The agreement of subjects in consequent clauses can be of two types: the first type is where there is an agreement between the subject and the antecedent clause. In 13, the subject agreement markers in the consequent clauses match those in their respective antecedent clauses. -nī in the antecedent and consequent clauses indicates person and number. In Yemsa, the protasis, or ‘if-clause’, is marked with -nē ‘COND’, whereas the apodosis, or then-clause, is marked according to the aspect and modality properties of the situation described.

3. Types of Conditionals. Conditional constructions show a variety in terms of structure and type. The following section will discuss conditional types in Yemsa:

3.1. Real conditional. Most languages have a semantic distinction between real and unreal conditionals [5]. Yemsa makes a semantic distinction between real and unreal conditionals. A real conditional is a simple conditional referring to actual situations, as in 14.

(14) [sàabànòn bījfaatānē ʔànbà jàadàssàasòn ʔīmftà]

sàabà-nòn bīj-fāa-tā-nē ʔànbà jàadàssàa-s-ōn ʔīm-f-tā
saba-ACC see-SEQ-2S-COND this note-DEF-ACC give-IPFV-2S

‘If you see Saba, give her this note.’

Thompson et al. [5] divide real conditionals into three categories: present, habitual/generic, and past. The present conditionals denote current real situations, whereas the habitual/generic and past conditionals denote habitual/generic and past real situations, respectively. Consider the following example:

(15) [tāpità ʔéelifaatānē nèe ʔàwtòbùsìs dānā tà]

tāpità ʔéel-fāa-tā-nē nèe ʔàwtòbùsì-s dānā-tā
fast run-SEQ-2S-COND you bus-DEF get-2S.FUT

‘If you run fast, you will get the bus.’

The present real conditional clauses appear in 15. The prepositions of the antecedent and the consequent are related. The consequent clause’s temporal structure is non-past tense. It potentially receives a present-tense reading.

Ordinary conditionals can give the implicational relationship varied degrees of generality, i.e., the relationship between the introduced states of affairs can be both unique (specific) and habitual (generic) [11]. The generic or habitual conditionals occur in Yemsa. In this context, the protasis that contains the condition is marked by -nē ‘COND’, and the apodosis appears with the irrealis verb form. Consider the following examples:

- (16) [bùrònìisōn ʔùkkà fàafáatānē ʔàafà ràkkònā]
 bùròn-s-ōn ʔùkkà fàa-fāa-tā-nē ʔàafà ràkkò-nā
 mouth-DEF-ACC shut keep-SEQ-2S-COND NEG problem-3MS.FUT
 ‘There will be no problem if you keep your mouth shut.’

The antecedent clause verb form comes from the realis verb stem, as in 16. The main clause verb form appears in the present form. The event expressed in the antecedent clause is a prerequisite for the main clause.

Past real conditionals, as the name implies, express acts or occurrences in the past. They use past tense morphology in their consequent clauses; the utterance and assertion times do not overlap. Consider the following example:

- (17) [bár fèerfāanānē tá ʔàafà bīj-nā]
 bár fèer-fāa-nā-nē tá ʔàafà bīj-nā
 he be.there-SEQ-3MS-COND i NEG see-1S
 ‘If he were there, I wouldn’t see him.’

As in 17, the consequent clause of time appears in the past. As a result, the time of the antecedent and the consequent clause do not overlap. It makes assertions about past events and past real conditionals. The consequences apply to situations that existed in the past.

Each conditional clause type can take either the same or a different subject from the final verb. Consider the following examples:

- (18) [tápèfāanīnē ʔàfnù tèsùnì wòstòsòn hòp’ànī]
 tápè-fāa-nī-nē ʔàfnù tèsùnì wòstòsòn hòp’-f-nī
 hurry-SEQ-1P-COND still first act catch-IPFV-1P
 [ʃīmàní]
 ʃīmà-nī
 able to-1P
 ‘If we hurry, we can still catch the first act.’

As in 18, the antecedent and the consequent clause have the same subject. The following examples show the different subjects of the two clauses:

- (19) [tìbònìisōn dàastā zàg-fāa-tā-nē kàrfē]
 tìbònì-s-ōn dàastā zàg-fāa-tā-nē kàrf-f-ē
 foot.POSS-DEF-ACC floor put-SEQ-2S-COND cut-IPFV-3MS
 ‘It cuts out if you put your foot on the floor.’

The real conditional clause appears in the realis verb stem. The person and gender agreement occur in the verb form. The sequence and conditional marker appear in the real conditional clause.

3.2. Unreal conditional. Hypothetical conditionals are spoken before the actual state of affairs occurs. However, they make no predictions or evaluations of what may occur. Rather, they express some kind of wish. Consider the following example:

- (20) [mìlìjònì bìrrī fàar sìn-fāa-nā-nē màkìnà wàagònā]
 mìlìjònì bìrrī fàar sìn-fāa-nā-nē màkìnà wàagò-nā
 million birr has become-SEQ-1S-COND car buy-1S
 ‘If I had a million birr, I would buy a car.’

Counterfactual conditionals are assertions that could, would, or should have been true if other propositions were true [16]. The antecedent and the consequent clause propositions are true, as in 21 (a and b), because the proposition of the antecedent clause is true.

- The counterfactual conditional clauses can use the counterfactuality auxiliary. In 21 (a and b), the counterfactual conditional clause uses the auxiliary *sin-fáa-tā-nē* ‘become’ in the antecedent clause and the particle *kābā* at the end of the consequent clause. They are counterfactual conditionals, as they express contrary-to-fact states of affairs. Both constituent clauses of counterfactuals encode meanings that are contrary to what has happened.

(22) [wàagni fàar sinìfàanīnē filmīnī kèer hām-nī]
 wàagni fàar sìn-fāa-nī-nē filmīnī kèer hām-nī
 money has become-SEQ-1P-COND film house go-1P
 [kābā]
 kābā
 PART
 ‘If we had the money, we went to the movies.’

The tense of the consequent clause distinguishes predictive conditionals. The consequent clause can appear in the future tense. The antecedent clauses, on the other hand, can be perfective or imperfective, as in 23.

- (23) [ʔif̩f̩aanānē kēeniisitū fōonī]
 ʔif̩f̩-āa-nā-nē kēeni-s-i-tū fōo-nī
 rain-SEQ-3MS-COND house-DEF-GEN-FOC stay-1P.FUT
 ‘If it rains, we will stay at home.’

As in 23, there are predictive conditional clauses because the consequent clause uses the future tense. On the other hand, the antecedent clauses appear with an imperfective meaning.

As in 24, the conditional clause appears in predictive conditionals. Consider the following example:

- (24) [ʔĩrō ʔĩʃfáanānē sìnìmànī kèer hàmanī]
 ʔĩrō ʔĩʃf-áa-nā-nē sìnì-mà-nī kèer hà-mà-nī
 rain rain-SEQ-3MS-COND cinema-to house go-1P.FUT
 ‘If it should rain, we’ll go to the cinema.’

The future is a prototypical irrealis category; it refers to events that have not yet occurred and are thus unreal [21]. As shown in 25, the irrealis reading of predictive conditionals occurs because of the future-tense morphology in the consequent clause. It is irrealis because they do not happen in the real world. It is unreal.

- (25) ʔànbà màs’áfà-s-ōn fèré-fáa-tā-nē wòlùmni kéejũ màakàpàtni
 this book-DEF-ACC study-SEQ-2S-COND grammar good grounding
 [fò-tā]
 fò-tā
 be.there-2s
 ‘If you study this book, you will have a good grounding in grammar.’

The predictive, present, and habitual conditionals are not simple to identify. Yemsa uses the present conditional in the antecedent clause and the future conditional in the consequent clause, as in 26.

- (26) [ʃũnfàatānē ʔòomtòfètāk ʔétàasōn ʔóp’atā]
 ʃũn-fàa-tā-nē ʔòomtòfè-tā-k ʔétàa-s-ōn ʔóp’-à-tā
 like-SEQ-2S-COND dislike-2S-PURP medicine-DEF-ACC take-2S.FUT
 [ʃòlisifà]
 ʃòlisifà
 need
 ‘You will have to take the medicine, whether you like it or not.’

4. Concessive and exceptive conditionals. The assertability of its main clause, despite contradictory assumptions, renders it similar to a concessive sentence [5]. Concessive conditionals are interpreted in light of an existing causal assumption or anticipation. Consider the following example

- (27) [bàr kùfàasi zèeŋŋòò sìnìbàasòn]
 bàr kùfàasi zèeŋŋòò sìn-fàa-nā-nē
 she group leader become-SEQ-3FS-COND
 [ʔásùus hàmnà]
 ʔásùu-s hàmnà
 man-DEF go-3MS
 ‘The man went as if she were the leader of the group.’

5. Polarity in conditional clause. The antecedent clause has a negative polarity, whereas the consequent clause can have a positive polarity. Consider the following example:

- (28) bár ʔinnò-ìn bījā-nój-nā-nòn sèlèmòn sinnè
he we-ACC see-NEG-3MS-COND.NEG solomon walk.PFV.3MS
'Solomon walked past as if he hadn't seen us.'

Conclusion. The objective is to describe the conditional clause in Yemsa. The study of conditional construction, an Omotic language of southwestern Ethiopia, presents fertile ground for linguistic exploration. Despite Yemsa's significance in the Afroasiatic language family, comprehensive analyses focusing on its complex structure, particularly in conditional clauses, are sparse. This gap exposes a crucial area of linguistic inquiry, considering the potential of such studies to illuminate the interconnection between morphology, syntax, and semantics in lesser-documented languages. The study aims to investigate the mechanisms of conditional clauses in Yemsa. Specifically, the study analyzes the morphological markers and syntactical structures of conditional clauses in Yemsa, thereby contributing to a better understanding of its grammatical functioning. Through this examination, the research aims to fill a significant gap in the existing literature by providing comprehensive data on the conditional clause in Yemsa. This, in turn, will enhance the knowledge of Yemsa's linguistic structure, offer comparative perspectives with other Afroasiatic languages, and contribute to broader discussions in linguistic typology. This research aims to fill the identified gap by analyzing the conditional clause in Yemsa. The analysis gives morphological and syntactical facts about conditional construction in Yemsa.

The conditional clause forms from the antecedent and the consequent. The antecedent clause is an adverbial clause that contains the conditional marker; the consequent clause is the main clause. The result has contributed to the grammar book of Yemsa and the preparation of the teaching or pedagogical material for grade and college students in Yemsa. It will serve as input for language programming on computers. It will serve as input for comparative typological studies in other related languages in a conditional clause. It will serve as input to create a linguistic feature of Omotic languages. It enhances the knowledge of Yemsa's linguistic structure. Further research is recommended on information structure, blessing, and cursing in Yemsa. Those topics have not yet been studied. The findings of the conditional construction may lead researchers to do research in other Omotic languages in a comparative manner. In addition, the researchers will describe the interaction of conditional clauses with clauses.

APPENDIX

Symbols and Abbreviations

1, 2, 3	1st, 2nd, 3rd person
-	Morpheme boundary
[]	Phonetic representation
ACC	Accusative
COND	Conditional
COP	Copula
DEF	Definite marker
F	Feminine
FUT	Future
GEN	Genitive

IPFV	Imperfective
M	Masculine
NEG	Negative
PFV	Perfective
PL, P	Plural
POSS	Possessive
PRES	Present
PURP	Purposive
S	Singular
SEQ	Sequential

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*No conflicts of interest related to this publication were reported.
Received 05.04.2024; adopted after review 07.05.2024; published online 23.12.2024.*

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*О конфликте интересов, связанном с данной публикацией, не сообщалось.
Поступила 05.04.2024; принята после рецензирования 07.05.2024; опубликована онлайн 23.12.2024.*