

INTRODUCTORY REMARKS
ON THE LINGUISTIC SITUATION IN THE LAKE CHAD BASIN
AND THE STUDY OF LANGUAGE CONTACT

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0. GENERAL BACKGROUND

The Lake Chad Basin, roughly coinciding with the vast area covered by the waters of the Mega-Chad thousands of years back in history, today constitutes one of the most complex regions of Africa in terms of linguistic and culture history. It has been and still is, a zone of "transition" in many respects. The northern parts of this particular geographic area are more and more being swallowed by the continuously expanding desert, while its savanna-type central parts still offer resources sufficient to maintain more or less permanent human settlements. The southern parts of the Lake Chad Basin as delimited for our purposes, contain the more spectacular geographic features such as mountains, rivers, swamps, touching on even more fertile stretches of land still further south almost within sight of the tropical forests. This geographic diversity is rivalled by a no less spectacular richness in linguistic and cultural diversity.

The shores of Lake Chad must have attracted human economic and settlement activities ever since. It does not need much fantasy to imagine a continuous influx of different peoples into the area for centuries on end. Malcolm GUTHRIE, the great British Bantuist, considered the Lake Chad Basin attractive enough to postulate here the "Urheimat" of the pre-Bantu population whose migrations south- and eastwards from there were to change the face of the continent beyond recognition. (Most Bantuists today will no longer subscribe to this particular theory. The home of the proto-Bantu is generally assumed to lie further south in the grasslands of Cameroon.) However, archaeology has produced evidence of highly developed cultural and economic activities as shown in the terracottas and pottery found in the vicinity of the Lake, and has added to the mythologies concerning the giant "Sao" or "So" in the centre of the Basin. On the southwestern periphery in central Nigeria, the Nok terracottas rank among the finest and earliest testimonies of human genius in the area, not to speak of the "cultural centre(s)" in the Benue river valley which delimits the Lake Chad Basin to the south. Later, remarkable empires have risen and fallen in the area. One of their finest, the empire of Kanem-Borno, is still going strong in our days and looks back on a thousand years of uninterrupted tradition. Splendour and wealth of these empires derived to no little extent from the fact that the shores of the Lake, now divided between Niger, Nigeria, Cameroon, and Chad, lay at the continental cross-road of the eastern trans-Sahara trade route from Tunis and Tripolis, and the pilgrims' route between the population centres of the Western Sudan and the holy places beyond the Red Sea.

The impact of these more or less islamized empires on the non-islamic ("pagan") peoples within their reach, most of all the intrusion of the Kanuri speaking groups about 500 years ago from the north into the western parts of the Lake Chad Basin, later the Fulfulde speaking groups from the west and southwest, is primarily responsible for the ethnic

and linguistic pattern that we find today, and which is characterized by utter fragmentation. The autochtones were pushed or fled, as widely accepted hypotheses have it, into the less habitable "refuge areas" - such as the Mandara mountains in northern Cameroon and swamps of the Logone and Shari rivers in Cameroon and Chad, where the horses of the raiding parties would not follow. On the other hand, these so-called refuge areas seem to have been populated long before by different ethnic and linguistic groups, as more recent findings indicate. Again our fantasy will have no problems in imagining the extent to which autochtones and refugees in these areas must have contributed their linguistic, cultural and historical traditions to the present picture.

As a linguistic contact zone, the Lake Chad Basin is made up of a vast number of individual languages and dialect clusters, which belong to three of the four generally accepted macrofamilies of African languages : AFROASIATIC (ex "Hamitosemitic"), NIGER-CONGO (also "Congo-Kordofanian") and NILOSAHARAN. From a linguistic point of view alone, the area thus constitutes one of the most exciting fields of study, especially for those interested in the history of languages and language families, language contact, and cross-language and cross-language family typology.

1. THE LINGUISTIC SETTING

This section presents some background information on the distribution and classification of languages in the Lake Chad Basin for non-linguist readers who might not be familiar with what is common knowledge among the specialists. No new hypotheses shall be discussed here which could arouse the interest of the initiated ; as far as more or less widely accepted classifications exist, only these shall be presented. For more exact reference to geographical distribution, the reader is referred to CNRS's splendid collection of maps accompanying the volume *Afrique subsaharienne - Pidgins*

et créoles of "Les langues dans le monde ancien et moderne" (Paris, 1981), or to a fairly recent handbook of the languages of Africa, edited by B. HEINE, Th.C. SHADEBERG, and E. WOLFF (1981)

Fifty years ago (October 10, 1934), a scholar named Johannes LUKAS from the University of Hamburg, published a research report ("Die Gliederung der Sprachenwelt des Tschadsee-Gebietes in Zentralafrika") in the Hamburg periodical *Forschungen und Fortschritte*. The contents of this report were more widely propagated two years later when they appeared in the International Africa Institute's journal *Africa* (n°9, 1936), under the title "The linguistic situation in the Lake Chad area in Central Africa". It was in this report and subsequent publications, that Johannes LUKAS established significant subdivisions of the vast and heterogeneous language conglomeration known in his time as "Sudansprachen", and found evidence for the existence of what were then known as "Hamitic" languages :

"Sudanic"

1. the Kanuri group
("Kanuri", "Toda"/"Todaga", "Dazza"/"Dazzaga")
2. the Maba group
("Maba", "Mararet", "Runga")
3. the Bagirmi group
("Bagirmi", "Bulala", "Mudogo", "Kuka", etc.)
4. the Mandara (Wandala) group
("Mandara", "Bura", "Margi", "Kilba", "Chilbak", "Gamargu")

"Hamitic"

5. the Chado-Hamitic group
("Bade", "Karekare", "Buduma", "Kotoko", "Muzgu", "Mubi", "Masmadsche", "Kadschagise", etc.)

More recent insights into the genetic affiliations of the languages of the Lake Chad Basin, based on the epochal classification of J.H. GREENBERG (1963), would group these languages and their relatives in the following way. The "Sudanic" languages as conceived of by LUKAS and other scholars until the times of World War II has ceased to

exist as such. LUKAS' groups 1-3 are now to be found among the languages said to belong to the genetic unit called NILOSAHARAN, which GREENBERG (1963) had suggested as comprising the following :

- A. Songhai
- B. Saharan (= LUKAS' "Kanuri group")
- C. Maban (= LUKAS' "Maba group", but without "Mararet")
- D. Fur
- E. Chari-Nile :
 - 1. Eastern Sudanic (including LUKAS' "Mararet")
 - 2. Central Sudanic (including LUKAS' "Bagirmi group")
 - 3. Berta
 - 4. Kunama
- F. Koman.

For those linguists of the older generation who used to base their judgement of genetic affiliation heavily on typological criteria, like LUKAS and many other famous Africanists, this regrouping of the languages in question was far from being something unexpected : it had already occurred to LUKAS that at least his groups 1 and 2 were highly particular in terms of their morphology, rather "un-Sudanic" as he put it (1934 : 356).

Quite different from what was taken to be the "Sudanic type" were the languages of groups 4 and 5. For LUKAS, group 5 had definitely to be removed from "Sudanic", but not so group 4 despite a fair number of common features. In any case, even group 5 had to be viewed as "interbred with Sudanic" (1934 : 357). GREENBERG's hypotheses on the genetic relationship of these languages were straightforward : they formed but one language family within that larger genetic unit which replaced previous concepts concerning a "Hamitosemitic" macrofamily, i.e. the "Chad family" within AFROASIATIC :

- A. Semitic
- B. Egyptian

C. Berber

D. Cushitic

E. Chad (= LUKAS' "Mandara group" + "Chado-Hamitic group")

However, LUKAS' five groups did not exhaust the inventory of genetic linguistic units in the Lake Chad Basin. True enough, all the NILOSAHARAN languages in the region belong to either the Saharan family (Kanuri-Kanembu, Teda-Daza, Zaghawa, Berti) or the Chari-Nile family, and here to the branches :

Central Sudanic (internal sub-classification far from being universally accepted) : Barma ("Bagirmi"), Sara, Kenga, Kaba, Kara, Yulu ;

Eastern Sudanic (internal sub-classification far from being universally accepted) : Mararit, Tama, Daju, et al. ;

Maban : Maba, Karanga, Masalit, Runga, Mimi (of NACHTIGAL), Mimi (of GAUDEFROY-DEMOMBYNES) ;

although one could argue that the members of the last two sub-branches in the eastern parts of Chad and the western parts of Sudan are really already outside the scope of our delimitation of the Lake Chad Basin.

As regards members of the AFROASIATIC macrofamily, however, not all languages in the Lake Chad area belong to the Chad (or to use a term of wider acceptance : "Chadic") family. Actually, three of the 5 families of AFROASIATIC recognized by GREENBERG are represented in the area : although of fairly recent immigration, members of the Berber family (Tuareg, in Nigeria also referred to as "Buzu") keep moving south into the western portions of the Lake Chad Basin, not the least due to deteriorating ecological factors in their home territories which lie further north and north-east of the Basin. From the east, a steady immigration of members of the Semitic family has been observed for quite a span of time : Arabic speaking nomadic people, at times commonly referred to as "Shuwa" (at least in Borno). All other members of AFROASIATIC in the area belong to the Chadic family.

With about 130 languages, Chadic constitutes the largest family by far within the macrofamily.

However, in addition to AFROASIATIC and NILOSAHARAN, a third linguistic macro-unit, out of four recognized by GREENBERG, is represented in the southern part of the Lake Chad Basin, i.e. NIGER-CONGO, in particular the Adamawa-Eastern ("Adamawa-Ubangi" in more recent terminology) language family, and here again particularly its "Adamawa" branch which forms the southern fringe of the Lake Chad Basin, so to speak. Languages of this branch with immediate neighbours from either the Chadic family of AFROASIATIC or the Central Sudanic family of NILOSAHARAN are, among others (from west to east), Waja, Longuda, Yungur, Chamba in Nigeria, Fali, Mbum, Mundang, Tupuri in Cameroon, Bua et al. in Chad. A dynamic newcomer in the area, and also linguistically belonging to NIGER-CONGO, is Fulfulde (Fulani, Peulh) of the West-Atlantic family - only distantly related to its linguistic cousins of the Adamawa branch of the Adamawa-Ubangi family.

This concludes the enumeration of the major linguistic units in the Lake Chad Basin. Any study of linguistic contacts in the area will, therefore, first of all distinguish between incidents of contact of genetically related languages as opposed to contacts between languages that are genetically non-related.

2. LANGUAGE CONTACT AND LINGUISTIC METHODOLOGY

Readers who are not linguists by profession might wish to know what is meant by "language contact". Can languages, and cultures alike, really be in contact in the way we might say that people are in contact? How does one recognize and prove linguistic contact? And what would be the result of such contact? Sociolinguistics has attempted to give answers to such questions. Certainly, language contact, and culture contact likewise, presupposes "ethnic" contact.

Whereas one of the results of ethnic contact, for instance through intermarriage, may be biological hybridization, i.e. "mixed ancestry" of a particular individual, linguistic contact, quite distinctly, either results in "language change" or, in the extreme case, in "language shift", i.e. it may blurr the genetic affiliation of a language (language change) or replace one language by another (language shift) ; it does not, however, result in a situation that a language can be said to belong to two different genetic units at the same time (i.e. there is no linguistic hybridization in the sense of mixed ancestry for particular languages). Applying this axiom of historical linguistics to the Lake Chad Basin: no language in the area can, for instance, be at the same time genetically affiliated with both Chadic and Saharan. There may, however, exist a Chadic language which displays certain typological traits which are usually found not in Chadic but in neighbouring Saharan languages, for example, particular instances of word order, or which has a fair amount of common vocabulary with neighbouring Saharan languages - or the other way round. Whatever the particular case may be, the first rule of sound historical linguistics says : once a member of a particular genetic linguistic unit, always a member of that genetic unit !

The first rule of sound sociolinguistics, then, says : linguistic contact presupposes bilingualism. For languages to be in "contact" it is not sufficient to observe them cooccurring within a given geographical area, it is essential to observe bilingualism - i.e. two linguistic systems must cooccur in the mind of at least one individual ; in order to trigger off language change significant enough for linguists to later detect it, a fairly stable pattern of bilingualism must have prevailed for a minimum span of time and must have involved a minimum number of speakers. Bilingualism, of course, presupposes historical contact between linguistically, possibly also ethnically and/or culturally different groups of people. Therefore, if we can "prove" linguistic contact, this will constitute good evidence for

the non-linguist who is interested in the history of people and cultures in a given area - and this is what makes historical linguistics so attractive for non-linguistic researchers in Africa, even though many of them will have little knowledge about how such "linguistic evidence" actually comes about and on which theoretical and methodological premises it is built.

Linguistic contact, i.e. bilingualism, occurs between languages that may be related to each other genetically or not. Unusually, in the case of genetically related languages, the closer the relationship, the more difficult it is to detect interference phenomena. Two such cases in the central Lake Chad Basin and the particular problems of historical interpretation have been described by WOLFF (1974/75 and, from a more theoretical point of view, 1979). Linguistic interference from unrelated languages is much easier to detect - although it may be extremely difficult to locate the source of the interference, cf. WOLFF and GERHARDT (1977) for a description of heavy interferences across language family boundaries in the southwestern corner of the Lake Chad Basin (and section 3 below).

The discovery of linguistic interferences from other languages in the history of a particular language or language family is part of "historical linguistics". The most common tools of historical linguistics are the comparative method, the lexicostatistic (and other quantitative) method(s), the method of internal reconstruction, the study of loan words, and the study of linguistic typology. All methods aim at discovering two fundamental historical processes in linguistic history : divergence and convergence. Both divergence as well as convergence phenomena may result from linguistic interference (language contact) or come about by internal development. Sound historical linguistic work should be able to tell one from the other.

Among professional linguists, the comparative method is considered to be the most reliable to prove the genetic

relationship between languages. It is based on the comparison of languages in the two areas of study : phonology and lexicon, i.e. based on this method we are able to make statements about the historical development of particular "sounds" (phonemes) as well as about the historical changes of both sound and meaning of particular lexical items (words, morphemes) by establishing regular sound correspondences between languages. This also enables us to trace back all significant elements in the languages compared to common historical elements. The "proto-language" established by linguists on the basis of this particular historical method constitutes the shorthand summary of actual knowledge about sound correspondances ("sound laws") within the particular language family. Linguistic interference from other languages through language contact could then be seen in particular distributions of sound changes and lexical innovations.

Lexicostatistics and related quantitative methods when applied before the comparative method, have no means to identify "cognate" lexical items unless they are similar in their phonological shape. (Who could, for instance, follow P. NEWMAN, 1977, in counting Western Chadic Hausa *giwaa* "elephant" and Eastern Chadic Nancere *june* "elephant" as similar, like the English and Russian words *hundred* and *sto*, if one did not know the regular sound correspondences behind such cognates ?). In order to judge the reliability of hypotheses based on such quantitative methods, one would have to know whether the author has counted true cognates or mere similarities. When the percentages of "common vocabulary" are added up, it turns out most of the time that the languages sharing the highest percentages are also spoken in the vicinity of each other, i.e. in adjacent territories. Quantitative methods alone have no way of telling whether such "nearness" in genealogical relationship, which is indicated by higher percentages of common vocabulary ("retention rate"), is due to a long period of shared history, or to linguistic contact due to heavy bilingualism of speakers

of genetically related languages.

The study of loan words, on the other hand, is exclusively concerned with contact phenomena. Based on the theoretical assumption that people "borrow" a word from an other language if they did not have the thing or concept in their own cultural inventory which this word designates, many historians and ethnographers take linguistic borrowing as evidence for "cultural borrowing". But, recent linguistic work on "code switching" and the emergence of pidgins and creoles tell us that bilingual speakers - apparently freely - fluctuate between two languages in dialogue with another person who is bilingual in the same languages. The "borrowed" word may just belong to a different "domain" of linguistic performance in a basically bilingual context. It does, therefore, not mean that the original language did not possess a word with the same or similar meaning ! However, "lexical" borrowing is hard evidence for linguistic contact. The first to have explored "Ancient Benue-Congo loans in Chadic" in great detail was Carl HOFFMANN (1970) who identified the roots *b-l- "two", *m-n(-) "know", *ni(i) / nyi(i) "elephant", something like *gab for "divide", and *kur "tortoise", possibly also *g-m- "ten" as likely loans of very early times. One of the finest recent studies on lexical borrowing in the Lake Chad Basin is the work by Henry TOURNEUX on "Les emprunts en musgu" (1983). TOURNEUX identifies not only lexical loans in Musgu by their deviant tone patterns but also the likely sources for most of these items, ranging over a vast number of languages with quite different genetic affiliations : Arabic, Kanuri, Fulfulde, Barma, Hausa, and various other Chadic and non-Chadic languages of the Lake Chad Basin.

The three methods of historical linguistics which I have shortly outlined above, i.e. the comparative method, lexicostatistics, and the study of lexical borrowing, all share a major deficiency, despite all their merits : they are basically preoccupied with but one section of the linguistic reality of what we call language - the lexicon. The

lexical inventory of a language is, of course, the most easily accessible section. Any non-professional fieldworker can collect wordlists ! But the lexicon is, I would say, the most instable section of human language. The notion of "relexification" of languages which creolists have established, shows the extent to which a language gives up large portions of its lexical inventory in favour of a new inventory. (The other two methods of historical linguistics which were mentioned above, namely internal reconstruction and linguistic typology, can be applied to sections other than the lexicon.)

Unfortunately, most if not all recent classifications of languages are based on precisely this most instable section of the whole system, the lexicon. This is also true for the Chadic languages, no doubt the best documented family in terms of linguistic history in the Lake Chad Basin. This methodological bias, as far as Chadic is concerned, was first criticized, to the best of my knowledge, by Herrmann JUNGRAITHMAYR (1974, published 1978 a), whose lasting contribution to Chadic linguistics will be to have initiated comparative grammatical research in the field of particular properties of the Chadic verbal system, and to have opened our eyes to the prospects and problems of relating the comparative study of the Chadic verbal aspect/tense system to issues of comparative Afroasiatic grammar.

In addition to the lexical inventory, however, more stable sections of language might be studied in terms of divergence and convergence processes : the phonology (segmental and suprasegmental, i.e. not only vowels and consonants, but also the tonal and accentual properties), the morphology, the syntax, the semantic fields of the lexicon. Here, we have no simple inventories to be listed and compared, here we deal with interlocking systems and subsystems. In order to obtain a historical dimension and to trace linguistic interferences which result from previous instances of language contact, we have to reconstruct systems and subsystems for various stages in the linguistic history of

a given language or language group. The absolutely necessary prerequisite for the diachronic study of linguistic systems and subsystems, however, is the adequate analysis of the synchronic data. How could we think of "reconstructing" proto-systems if we did not understand the principles governing the equivalent systems in the languages as they are spoken today ?! Under these considerations, many comparative attempts in the fields of phonology, morphology, and syntax must be qualified (or disqualified) as being premature. One of the first and very promising attempts towards grammatical reconstructions of Chadic verb morphology, i.e. H. JUNGRAITHMAYR's series of papers since 1966 on the "aspect stems" of the verb in Chadic languages (for references see WOLFF, 1984), can be seriously criticized, among other things, for the lack of adequate foundations in the synchronic analysis of present-day aspectual systems in Chadic (see below) ; yet it marks the beginning of Chadic comparative grammar and has initiated a stimulating controversy on the nature and history of the Chadic (and, by implication, the Afroasiatic) verbal system.

3. ON GRAMMATICAL RECONSTRUCTIONS

The study of linguistic systems and subsystems in "contact" is, of course, a highly complex endeavour, but a very rewarding one. Until quite recently, even among professional linguists the idea was widespread that languages borrow words, but not "grammar". So it is not surprising to find very limited published materials of "grammatical interference" in our area, i.e. the Lake Chad Basin.

In 1975 (published 1977), Ekkehard WOLFF and Ludwig GERHARDT (University of Hamburg) presented an account of grammatical interferences between Chadic and Benue-Congo languages at the southwestern periphery of the Lake Chad Basin, i.e. in the region between the Central Nigerian

Plateau and the Benue valley where it cuts across the border between Nigeria and Cameroon. To our knowledge, that was the first attempt ever to systematically describe domains of linguistic interference in grammatical systems concerning Chadic languages. (H. JUNGRAITHMAYR, therefore, is mistaken when he writes in his 1980 article on contacts between Adamawa-Ubangi- and Chadic languages, that grammatical interference had never before been studied in that area and that all previous studies were limited to lexical borrowing.) The grammatical issues discussed by WOLFF / GERHARDT were :

1. the inventory of sounds and the restrictions in the distribution of sounds within the word ;
2. the morphology and semantics of verbal extensions ;
3. the morphology and syntax of the "intransitive copy pronouns" ;
4. the syntax of object pronouns ;
5. nominal plural marking.

This was then complemented by a list of 90 lexical items which were suspected to have been borrowed from one family to the other. (This list was expanded again in GERHARD 1983.)

The grammatical interference phenomena discovered by WOLFF / GERHARDT can be summarized as follows :

1. Chadic languages of the Angas-Goemai group, for instance, show the same types of restriction in the distribution of consonants within the word as neighbouring non-Chadic languages like Birom and Zarek.
2. Non-Chadic languages of several Plateau groups appear to have borrowed the grammatical category of "verbal plurality" from Chadic, yet maintaining the original grammatical formatives. Less certain is whether Chadic languages have borrowed certain verbal suffixes, together with highly idiosyncratic morphophonemic alternations, from neighbouring Benue-Congo languages, yet without borrowing the "meaning" of those suffixes.
3. Languages of both families in the contact area display the peculiar feature of "intransitive copy pronouns", i.e.

some or all intransitive verbs are obligatorily followed by a pronoun which corresponds in person and number, but not in phonological shape, to the subject pronoun. More recent insights indicate that this feature has been borrowed into Chadic from Benue-Congo.

4. The Benue-Congo languages in the area show no uniform pattern of object pronoun placement. If the placement of the object pronoun to the left of the verb is common Benue-Congo heritage, those languages which place it to the right of the verb might have borrowed this order from Chadic where it is quite normal to place the object pronoun after the verb.

5. Chadic Sura, Chip, and Angas form nominal plurals by adding the 3rd person plural pronoun to the noun stem of the singular. This is quite "un-Chadic", but very common in Benue-Congo languages. It is less clear whether reduplicated plurals in non-Chadic languages such as Koro, Kaje, Kagoma, etc., constitute grammatical loans from neighbouring Chadic in which reduplication is a common plural formative.

WOLFF / GERHARDT conclude that such extensive grammatical borrowing, in addition to heavy lexical borrowing, and in both directions, indicates long periods of instable bilingualism on both sides in the past which have resulted in the emergence of striking "areal features" of linguistic structure.

The question of grammatical interference concerning the verbal extensions was taken up again by WOLFF / MEYER-BAHLBURG (1979) in a study on the morphology and semantics of extended verb stems in Zarek, a Benue-Congo language of the Chadic / Benue-Congo borderline area in central Nigeria. In more detail, the characteristic interrelation of expression of verbal plurality and "imperfective aspect" that we find in many Chadic languages, is discussed as a further instance of grammatical borrowing from Chadic into Benue-Congo, in the linguistic area of semantics. The interrelation of the

two categories is illustrated, for instance, by the Zarek extended verb stem *taas* which means both "tell many (stories)" (= verbal plural) and "tell (a story) for a long time" (= imperfective / durative aspect).

In a paper already mentioned, H. JUNGRAITHMAYR (1980) takes up the question whether suprasegmental aspect-marking devices ("apotomy") in Chadic verbal systems constitute instances of grammatical borrowing from Adamawa-Ubangi languages of the Benue-Congo family. JUNGRAITHMAYR argues that, since southern Chadic languages and a number of Adamawa-Ubangi languages to the south "share the morphotonological feature of the binary verb aspect stem system" (p. 78), and since within the postulated model of Chadic linguistic history tonal marking devices must be "younger" (p. 80) than segmental marking devices, the tone marking of verb aspects in Chadic constitutes grammatical borrowing from Adamawa-Ubangi.

That paper, in particular, shows the dangers and weaknesses of premature comparative work :

1. If Chadic verbal aspect systems can be shown to operate a basic trichotomic rather than a dichotomic (or binary) aspect system - and there is strong published support for such a claim from various authors and descriptions (even from what one might wish to call the "JUNGRAITHMAYR school" itself, i.e. works by young scholars who have been guided to adopt certain ideas during their training in Marburg or under a cooperation agreement with CNRS's "Laboratoire des langues et civilisations à tradition orale" in Paris) -, the "borrowing hypothesis" loses much of its attractiveness.

2. It has not been established beyond reasonable doubt that those categories marked by particular tone patterns in one group of Chadic languages correspond historically to those categories marked by segmental changes ("reduplication", "infixation", "suffixation", etc.) in another group of Chadic languages, neither in terms of morphological structure nor in their synchronic syntactic and semantic

values, therefore one can hardly establish - other than by becoming guilty of aprioristic reasoning - that tonal contrasts are "younger" marking devices for these categories in Chadic than are the various segmental processes.

3. It is methodologically unsound to compare any type of tonal contrast, for instance high *vs.* low tone, with another type of tonal contrast, for instance low *vs.* high tone, as long as it is not established beyond reasonable doubt that the marking devices "correspond" to each other in a systematic way, i.e. that a "regular sound correspondence" can be established to "prove" that, for instance, the low tone that marks category C-I in some languages represents the same historical source as the high tone marking C-I in other languages of the same family - if not by some unmotivated and highly unlikely catch - all notion as "tone reversal" (JUNGRAITHMAYR 1978 b ; cf. also WOLFF 1985).

4. Generally, "borrowing hypotheses" should only be escaped into if internal reconstruction cannot account for the particular features under review. If one can provide reasonable evidence for an independent historical development of "tonality" in Chadic, there is no need to postulate linguistic contact as the source of this development. Such evidence for the likelihood of independent tonogenesis in Chadic has recently been provided (WOLFF 1983, and in this volume).

Thus, to conclude this introductory paper with a summarizing statement concerning problems and prospects of drawing historical inferences from so-called linguistic evidence, a caveat is called for, addressed to the non-professional linguist who wishes to incorporate such evidence into his own historical interpretations : linguistic contact is indeed "proof" of social and cultural interaction of people - but the evidence can only be as good as the linguistic methodology behind it.

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