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Runyambo Verb Extensions and Constraints on Predicate Structure

by

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# ABSTRACT

## RUNYAMBO VERB EXTENSIONS AND CONSTRAINTS ON PREDICATE STRUCTURE

by

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This study presents a description of the productive verb extensions in Runyambo, a Bantu language of Tanzania. It challenges the common view that the extensions are potentially a resource for increasing the number of a verb's arguments indefinitely, and shows instead that the extensions form part of a set of interrelated mechanisms, within the Bantu languages, which ensure that the arguments of a verb remain distinguishable from each other.

The first chapter provides a general background to the language and its speakers. Chapter two articulates a theoretical framework of argument differentiation which proposes a two-level theory of predicate structure (argument structure and lexical semantic structure) and helps focus attention on the means for distinguishing arguments from each other.

Chapters three and four treat the two extensions (the applicative and causative) that expand predicate structure. It is argued that the distinction between them suggests that

the number of thematic roles that participate in grammatical generalizations can be reduced to two, viz. actor and nonactor. The actor is a causative role, while the nonactor is an applicative role.

Chapter five deals with the three extensions (reciprocal, stative, and passive) that contract predicate structure. It shows that the extensions are organized around the binary distinction between actor and nonactor thematic roles.

Chapter six shows that extension combinations are highly constrained by the general requirement that arguments be distinguishable from each other. It is this requirement that finds reflection in restrictions on extension repetition and cooccurrence. These restrictions furnish further evidence for the dual thematic role organization proposed in this study. In addition, evidence that undermines the significance of variable ordering of the extensions is presented and it is suggested that some of the restrictions are compatible with a template-matching view of affixation.

Charle J. Fillmors

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# Runyambo Verb Extensions and Constraints on Predicate Structure

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#### ABBREVIATIONS

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- A Applicative
- AS Argument Structure
- C Causative
- CG Construction Grammar
- P Double Stem
- FUT Future Tense
- FV Final Vowel
- GB Government and Binding
- I Intensive
- L Locative
- LC Locative Clitic
- LFG Lexical Functional Grammar
- LMT Lexical Mapping Theory
- LSS Lexical Semantic Structure
- NEG Negative
- P Passive
- PF Perfective
- PR Present Tense
- PST Past Tense
- PSY Yesterday Past Tense
- R Reciprocal
- RF Reflexive
- S Stative
- TP Today Past Tense
- V Reversive

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#### CHAPTER ONE

#### GENERAL BACKGROUND

#### 1.0 Introduction

The aims of this study are two-fold. First it seeks to present a detailed description of the productive verb extensions (suffixes) in Runyambo,  $\dot{v}iz$ . the applicative, causative, passive, stative, and reciprocal extensions. Second, it seeks to show that although on the face of it these extensions are potentially a resource for indefinitely increasing the number of arguments on any verb, there are general predicate structure constraints which restrict the realization of this potential. In the course of realizing these aims, the study will articulate a theoretical framework of argument differentiation which makes no use of the notion of grammatical relations and severely restricts the inventory of thematic roles that participate in grammatical generalizations to two, viz. actor and nonactor.

This chapter gives a general background to the language and its speakers. Section 1.1 discusses the geography and socio-political context. Section 1.2 provides a linguistic profile of Runyambo to facilitate a better understanding of the discussion in subsequent chapters and of the data in the Appendix. Section 1.3 presents the descriptive and analytical problem posed by the verb extensions. Section 1.4 discusses the database on which the study is based.

#### 1.1 Geography and Society

The people whose language is the subject of this study inhabit the district of Karaqwe, in the northwestern corner of Tanzania. The district covers an area of 2,700 square miles, stretching roughly from 30°30' to 31°30'E, and from 1° to 2°S. This constitutes the core of the old Karagwe kingdom, but it is said that the kingdom used to stretch further south and east before German colonialists gave part of the territory to Karagwe's neighbors whose kings collaborated with the invaders at the turn of the century (Katoke 1970, 1975; Cory n.d.; Webster 1979). The current territory is almost completely demarcated by natural boundaries. The Kagera river constitutes the western boundary with Rwanda, the northern boundary with Uganda, and the northwestern boundary with the district of Bukoba within Tanzania. A tributary of the Kagera, River Mwisa, and Lake Burigi and the adjoining marshland, form the eastern boundary with Bukoba and Muleba districts. The southern boundary with Ngara district consists of a straight line from the southern tip of Lake Burigi just south of the 2nd parallel.

According to the preliminary report of the 1988 census, the population of Karagwe was 292,589. Given an annual growth rate of 2.7%, the current figure should be about 325,000 inhabitants<sup>1</sup>.

The indigenous inhabitants of Karagwe call themselves abanyambo and refer to their <u>orurími</u> 'tonque/language' as orunvambo or occasionally as ecinvambo. Since there has been considerable confusion in the literature on this score. a few clarifications are in order. The confusion is of two kinds. First, there is confusion in naming and locating the land, the people, and the language. This confusion apparently originates from Brvan (1959:107) who lists "nyambo(ru-)" and "Karagwe(ru-)" as two distinct languages spoken in the same area, then Tanganyika Territory, south of the Kagera river. Barreteau and Bastin's (1978) map compounds this confusion by seeming to locate these supposedly distinct languages in Uganda, north of the Kagera river! Although Rubanza (1988) correctly identifies Karagwe as the name of the old Kingdom, he wrongly aligns it with a "Mwani" dialect and never mentions Runyambo except in connection with Guthrie's and Nurse's works. While there is a Kimwani ward in Muleba district (not in Karagwe) on the shores of Lake Victoria, it is my understanding that the people of the area call their language oruháya, not orumwani. What should be clear is that Karaqwe is not the name of a language, a people, or even a town. It refers to an administrative territory much larger than a town or a village.

The second type of confusion is inherently controversial, having to do with the problem of defining and identifying languages and dialects. Guthrie (1948, 1967-71), and Bryan (1959), Bastin (1978), and Nurse (1979) after him,

identified Runyambo (E21) and Ruhaya (E22) as distinct languages (the latter with the Ziba, Ihangiro, and Hamba dialects). Heine's (1972) classification, however, only mentions Ruhaya. And from the perspective of the two most extensive studies of Ruhaya, Byarushengo et al.(1977) and Rubanza (1988), Runyambo does not exist (This is the stuff that wars are made of!). In this regard Bickmore's work (1989, 1992) is significant for having at least reaffirmed Runyambo's place on the map.

The treatment of Runyambo is an apt illustration of the "standard joke that a language is a dialect with an army and a navy" (Chomsky 1977:190)<sup>2</sup>. The Banyambo have always regarded their language as distinct from that of the Bahaya of Buhaya (Hayaland). But the advent of German and, later, British colonialists set the stage for the characterization of Runyambo as a Ruhaya dialect. Both Buhaya (Muleba, and Bukoba rural and urban, districts; 1988 population census: 665,412) and Karagwe were incorporated into an administrative entity called Bukoba, with headquarters at Bukoba town, on the shores of Lake Victoria. (Bukoba is now the regional capital of Kagera Region, which besides the districts already mentioned, also includes Ngara and Biharamulo districts). Alongside the colonial administration, the Christian missionaries established their first stations in Buhaya, learnt Ruhaya, translated the Bible, and built schools and health centers<sup>3</sup>. From there they moved into Karagwe and proceeded to preach and teach in Ruhaya<sup>4</sup> (cf Sundkler 1980).

In purely linguistic terms, Ruhaya, Runyambo, Runyankore, and Ruciga (Nurse's Rutara group) could be regarded as dialects of the same language. The intercomprehension rate among these tongues ranges between 75% and 85% (International Encyclopedia of Linguistics 1992; Ladefoged et al.  $1968:69)^5$ . But as the "standard joke" above suggests, such criteria are usually irrelevant or, at best, subsidiary when important decisions have to be made. It is conceivable that if the Rutara group were to be consolidated under one political order, a single standard language for the political entity could be developed/imposed. Guthrie's (1948) classification reflects the political reality by placing Runyankore and Ruciga in group 10 (with Luganda) because they are in Uganda, while Runyambo and Ruhaya, being on the other side of the border in Tanzania (then Tanganyika) are placed in group 20. Nor can Heine's genetic classification justify, in linguistic terms, the suppression of Runyambo except on the basis of the political dominance of Ruhaya during the past one hundred years, and/or on the basis of the numerical dominance of the speakers of Ruhaya - which reinforces the point: they can raise a bigger army and navy! Fortunately, in the sphere of language policy there has not been much room for fighting since both Runyambo and Ruhaya are subordinate to the national language, Kiswahili. All primary school instruction is conducted in Kiswahili and all materials for the adult literacy campaign of the 1970s were in Kiswahili. But unfortunately, this has also meant that both Ruhaya and

Runyambo, like all other ethnic languages of Tanzania, cannot hope to develop a literary tradition of their own, and will remain in the shadow of Kiswahili<sup>6</sup>.

#### 1.2 Linguistic Profile of Runyambo

In this section I only represent information that I consider sufficient for the reader to understand the subsequent data and discussion. No attempt is made to present a comprehensive grammar of Runyambo. For detailed discussion of various aspects of the language reference should be made to the following works on Runyambo and its sister languages: Bickmore 1989,1992; Buckley 1990; Byarushengo et al.1977; Hubbard 1993; Hyman & Byarushengo 1984; Rubanza 1988; Rugemalira 1990, 1991a&b, 1992, 1993a; Taylor 1959, 1985.

#### 1.2.1 Phonological sketch

The consonant and vowel inventories are shown below in (101) and (102) respectively.

(101)	stops	nasals	fricatives	approximants
	рb	m	fv	W
	td	n	s z	r
	сj	ñ		У
	kg			
			•	h

(102) i u e o ei a

The palatal nasal  $/\tilde{n}/$  will be orthographically represented as -ny- in this study. Vowel length is distinctive in the monophthongs. The inventory includes one diphthong /ei/ (as in omuséija 'man'; kubéiha 'tell lies').

Important alternations include the following:

i) h -> p/N \_ e.g. omuti guhângo 'big tree'

enju mpângo 'big house'

ii) r -> d/N\_\_\_ e.g. kurúma 'to bite'; kundúma 'to bite me'

iii) N -> N $\alpha$ place/\_\_C $\alpha$ place i.e. a nasal consonant assimilates to the place of articulation of the following consonant e.g. [e $\eta$ kura mp $\hat{a}$ : $\eta$ go] 'big rhino'.

iv) A high front vowel /;/ which is not phonetically distinct from /i/ brings about significant consonant alternations (Bourquin 1955, Hyman 1991). The vowel is incarnate in the 'agentive' and the 'perfective tense' morphemes (103), and in the causative morpheme (see chapter four).

(103) a) kwîta omwîs; beis;re

'kill' 'killer' 'they killed'

b)	kurira	omuriz;	bariz; re
~,		0	~~~~~~~~~~~~~~~~~~~~~~~~~~~~~~~~~~~~~~

'cry' 'cry baby' 'they cried'

In (103) /t,r/ -> /s,z/ before /;/.

V) A more general alternation consists in the palatalization of velar consonants before the front vowels, as illustrated in (104).

barucire
`they weaved'
bahiij;re
'they hunted'
bateecire
'they cooked'
batej;re

'to shave' 'shave for' 'they shaved'

In (104) both front vowels (including /;/) palatalize a preceding velar consonant. This is a fairly distinguishing characteristic of Runyambo (in contrast with Runyankore and Ruhaya), although even within Runyambo there are some dialectal and lexical variations). In general speakers in the eastern half of Karagwe are less likely to palatalize than speakers in the western half.

vi) Compensatory vowel lengthening is associated with glide formation (e.g. [kwóosa] from ku-ós-a 'to skip a day'; [kubyáara] from \*ku-bí+ar-a 'to plant'), and nasal-consonant clusters (e.g. [kubi:ŋga] 'chase') (cf Hubbard 1993). In this study the vowel length in these environments will be taken for granted and will not be marked in the orthography. Only lexically long vowels are represented by a double spell-out.

vii) Only high tone is marked (e.g. kukóma 'to tie'). Otherwise tone is low by default. Only where vowel length is derived, and therefore unmarked in the orthography, is falling tone marked (e.g. kuhênda 'to break').

#### 1.2.2 Nominal morphology

The nominal class prefixes are shown in Table 1.1.

Class	Prefix	subject	object	: example	gloss
1	o-mu-	a-	-mu-	omukázi	woman
2	a-ba-	ba-	-ba-	abakázi	women
3	o-mu-	gu-	-gu-	omuti	tree
4	e-mi-	e-	-ji-	emiti	trees
5	e-ri-	ri-	-ri-	eríino	tooth
	i-	ri-	-ri-	ihuri	egg
6	a-ma-	ga-	-ga-	amahuri	eggs
7	e-ci-	ci-	-ci-	ecicére	frog
8	e-bi-	bi-	-bi-	ebicére	frogs
9	e-(N)-	e-	-ji-	embúzi	goat
10	e-(N)-	e-	-zi-	embúzi	goats
11	o-ru-	ru-	-ru-	orúhu	skin
12	a-ka-	ka-	-ka-	akakázi	small woman
13	o-tu-	tu-	-tu-	otukázi	small women
14	o-bu-	bu-	-bu-	obugúfu	shortness
15	o-ku-	ku-	-ku-	okuguru	leg
16	a-ha-	ha-	-ha-	aharúhu	on the skin
17	o-ku-	ha-	-ha-	.kúnu	here
18	o-mu-	ha-	-ha-	omumiti	among trees
	Person	Sing/Pl	ur	Sing/Plur	
	1	N-/tu-		-N-/-tu-	
	2	o-/mu-		-ku-/-ba-	
	3	a-/ba-		-mu-/-ba-	

TABLE 1.1: Nominal class prefixes

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Note that the augment or initial vowel consists of only the mid and low vowels (o,e,a), and these can only cooccur with the high and low vowels (u,i,a) respectively in the class prefix proper (cf vowel harmony in the verb stem below). Class 17 survives only in the following forms: kúnu/kúnúúya 'here', kúriya 'there', oku 'this way', and okwo 'that way'. The other locative prefixes (classes 16 & 18) can attach to any nominal without displacing the original prefix on that nominal. As will be shown later (chapter three), these prefixes are related to the locative enclictics on the verb.

#### 1.2.3 Verb morphology

The nucleus of the verb complex is the root, to which various prefixes and suffixes may be attached. In the Appendix all verbs are listed with the ku- prefix, arguably a class 15 nominal prefix. The root, the ku- prefix, and the final vowel -a, together constitute the infinitive form of the verb (e.g. ku-som-a 'to read'). The simple imperative form drops the prefix and adds a high tone (e.g. sóma 'read!'). The final vowel is -e in the following cases:

i) Perfective and yesterday tenses:

(105) a) ba -som -ir -e 'they read' (yesterday)

they-read-PSY-FV

b) bá -á -som -;r-e 'they have already read'

they-PF-read-PF-FV

Both the yesterday past (-ir-) and the perfective (-i-..-;r-) require the final vowel -e.

ii) Certain combinations of imperative mood and pronominal prefix:

(106) a) ci-sóm -e 'read it'

it-read-FV

b) ba -rek-é ba -sóm -e `let them read'
them-let-FV they-read-FV

iii) Certain combinations of tense and negation:

(107) ti -ba -raa-sóm -e 'they won't read'

NEG-they-FUT-read-FV

Combining the -raa- future tense and the negative requires the final vowel -e.

Besides the -a, -e, and -;r-e suffixes, Runyambo has one more inflectional suffix -ag-, shown in (108).

(108) ti -tú-ka -cí-som -ág -a

NEG-we-PST-it-read-ever-FV 'we have never read it'

The -ag- suffix always cooccurs with negation and with the -ka- past tense, as shown in (108) i.e. it always needs them, but they don't need it.

There exists a large group of verb suffixes in Bantu languages which, following Guthrie (1962), are generally called extensions, implying that they extend the meaning of the verb they are attached to. Traditionally they are regarded as derivational suffixes, in contrast with the tense and mood suffixes discussed above, which are regarded as being inflectional. I will return to a consideration of the identification and relative productivity of the extensions in section 1.3. Here we need to note that there exists in Runyambo, as in many eastern Bantu languages, a vowel harmony rule between the root and the extension. Consider (109).

- (109) a) -guma -gum-ir-a -gum-is-a
  - b) -gamba -gamb-ir-a -gamb-is-a
  - c) -bíika -bíic-ir-a -bíic-is-a
  - d) -kóma -kóm-er-a -kóm-es-a
  - e) -reeba -reeb-er-a -reeb-es-a

The relevant feature in (109) is height. The suffix vowel is mid when the root vowel is mid; it is high elsewhere (cf Rugemalira 1990 for an underspecification theory account). However, as Table 1.2 shows, the CV roots as a group display

a different pattern that does not conform to the letter of this rule.

<u></u>				······································
Gloss	Infinitiv	re Root	-ir-	-is-
die	kúf(w)a	-fú-	-f(w)éera	-f(w)íisa
fall	kugwa	-gu-	-gweera	-gwiisa
cut	kúcwa	-cú-	-cwéera	-cwíisa
eat	kúrya	-ri-	-ríira	-ríisa
go	kuja	-ji-	-jiira	-jiisa
burn	kúsya	-h;-	-híira	-híisa
give	kúha	-hé-	-héera	-héisa
put	kúta	-té-	-téera	-téisa
grind	kusa	-se-	-seera	-seisa
defecate	kunia	-ne-	-neera	-neisa
be	kúba	-bé-	-béera	-béisa
dawn	kúca	-cé-	-céera	-céisa
drink	kúnywa	-nyó-	-nywéera	-nywéisa
exhaust	kúhwa	-h6-	-hwéera	-hwéisa

TABLE 1.2: Suffix vowel harmony in CV roots

The table shows that in CV roots the vowel of the causative (-is-) suffix is always /i/, whereas in the

applicative (-ir-) the vowel is /i/ if the root has /;/, and /e/ elsewhere. The passive follows the applicative pattern (see Katamba 1984 for the Luganda pattern).

One more pattern should be noted. It involves the reversive extension -ur-, shown in (110).

(110) a) -c	ing-ur-a	open
-------------	----------	------

b) -bar-ur-a burst	b)	-bár-ur-a	burst
--------------------	----	-----------	-------

- c) -gút-ur-a snap
- d) -tér-ur-a remove from hearth
- e) -gom-or-a fatten

The vowel in the reversive extension is /o/ after a root /o/, and /u/ elsewhere.

#### 1.3 The Challenge of the Verb Extensions

#### 1.3.1 Identifying the extensions

It is generally believed that the majority of Proto-Bantu verb roots had a -CVC- structure, except a few which had a -CV- structure (cf Guthrie 1967-71, Schadeberg n.d.). According to this view, complex verb roots in current languages were formed via a process of suffixation using suffixes with a -VC- structure. Several of these derivational suffixes have since ceased to be productive and the roots to which they are attached do not occur alone, or if they do occur, the meaning of root + suffix is not the sum of the parts. For illustration, consider the root -han- `censure, rebuke', and the various extensions that can attach to it in Table 1.3 (for glossing details see the Appendix).

Stem	A	с	Р	R	s	
1 -han-a 'censure'	+	+	+	+	-	
2 -han+am-a `climb'	+	+	+	+	+	
3 -han+ik-a `hang'	+	+	+	÷	-	
4 -han+uur-a `discuss'	+	+	+	-	+	
5 -han+ur-a `unhang'	+	+	+	+	+	

TABLE 1.3: Productive and non-productive verb extensions

Table 1.3 is centered around the root -han- in row 1. There are two patterns of suffixation on the root. On the horizontal pattern the applicative (A), causative (C), passive (P), reciprocal (R) and stative (S) derivations are fairly regular and predictable in meaning. The vertical pattern, involving the -am-, -ik-, -uur-, and -urextensions, is unpredictable. Each of the derivations on the vertical pattern (2-5) also participates in the horizontal pattern in turn. But the derivations on the horizontal pattern cannot participate in the vertical one (e.g. \*han-iram-a).

There are two gaps in the stative column, and one gap in the reciprocal column. As for the meaning of the derivations, only two are non-compositional, namely (4C) -hanuuza 'marvel' and (4S) -hanuuka '(of a rare, unexpected event) happen'. There is a discernible semantic relationship between -hana 'censure' and -hanuura 'discuss, decide, set rules'. There is also a relationship between -hanama 'climb' and -hanika 'hang'. And, of course, the reversive relationship between -hanika 'hang' and -hanura 'bring down' is readily available. This is reflected in the Appendix where -hanura is listed under -hanika, whereas all the others are given independent entries. Yet this is slightly problematic because, strictly speaking, the reversive of -hanika should be \*-hanikura. Furthermore, although the reversive does have the -ur- and -uur- variants shown in rows 4 and 5 on the Table (cf chapter five), by listing -hanuura separately in the lexicon we are giving the inaccurate impression that it has no relation to -hana. And yet it does not seem appropriate to posit the existence of a separate extension -uur-.

The problem with forms like -am-, -ik-, and -uur- in Table 1.3 consists in their lack of a systematic semantic relationship to a verb root and the consequent lack of productivity. Two other examples of non-productive extensions are shown in (112).

- (112) a) -by-âr-a 'plant' (\*-bí-)
  - b) -sig-ar-a `remain' (-sig-a `leave behind')
  - c) -rag-ar-a `fall' (-rag-a `bequeath,

bid farewell)

- d) -tag-at-a 'warm up' (\*-tag-)
- e) -fúmb-at-a 'embrace' (\*fúmb-)
- e) -kúr-at-a `follow' (-kúr-a `grow')

The -ar- and -at- extensions in (112) may be identified and isolated from roots which may or may not exist in the current language. On the basis of historical reconstruction it may be possible to arrive at a probable semantic pattern underlying the verb stems. But from the perspective of synchronic grammar, these extensions are essentially frozen onto their roots, and they do not offer much that is of interest to grammatical theory. For this reason they will not be considered any further in this study. Occasionally they pop up in the Appendix and they are coded as X, for "Other".

#### 1.3.2 Productive extensions and predicate structure

The decision to focus on five extensions (applicative, causative, passive, reciprocal; stative) in this study is based on their high degree of productivity and on the fact

that these five can enhance our understanding of predicate structure.

Productivity is understood in two senses here. The first sense is compositional determinacy (Shepardson 1986), i.e. the extent to which the whole root plus extension derivation is the sum of its parts semantically as well. The second sense involves the extent to which a particular extension can be attached to any verb root. On the basis of Table 1.3 alone, only the applicative and passive have a 100% productivity while each of the other three extensions has less than perfect productivity. As already noted, the reversive is morphologically problematic but the semantic transparency available with some forms places the extension somewhere in between the frozen -am-, -ik-, -ta-, -ar-, and the productive A, C, P, R, S.

The study of the five productive extensions has always presented a challenge to lexicographers of Bantu languages. The problem is whether to treat the derived items as independent entries and provide full glosses, or to treat them as fully predictable derivations which do not even need to be mentioned in the lexicon. For illustration consider the treatment of nyamaa 'be silent' in three Kiswahili dictionaries.

Johnson (1939) lists and glosses under this entry four related derivations - 'prepositional' nyamalia, 'causative' nyamaza, 'prepositional' nyamazia, and 'double causative'

nyamazisha. But even this fairly detailed dictionary does not attempt to show cooccurrences such as C+A nyamazishia, C+R nyamazishana, A+R nyamaziana, C+P nyamazishwa.

Kamusi (1981) only lists under the entry the extensions which may be attached to nyamaa. These are the applicative, stative, causative, and passive. It is not clear to me whether the applicative derivation that may thus be formed (nyamalia) is equivalent to Johnson's nyamazia. I do not know what nyamalika and nyamawa are supposed to mean. And nyamaza could erroneously be given a causative interpretation especially since nyamazisha is not mentioned. Clearly this dictionary lacks some essential details besides being too permissive about the regularity of the extension system.

Perrot (1965) has two entries together - nyamaa and nyamaza. In addition, a separate entry, nyamazisha, is also given. No attempt is made to indicate the existence of a relationship between this latter entry and the other two.

Even though the choices made by a particular lexicographer usually reflect other considerations, viz. target audience, available resources, and the nature of the product, the theoretical problem always looms in the background. But for a linguist in search of the ideal lexicon, these dictionaries leave a lot to be desired. Thus Shepardson (1986) faults even Kamusi (1981) for listing "these suffixes under each verb stem as if they were nonproductive" (p.36). He maintains that all five suffixes "are

potentially acceptable with each and every Swahili verb stem" (p.79), and that the "failure to achieve 100% 'predictability' is not because of any formal constraint on the SPARC suffixes" (p.170).

But in contradiction to Shepardson, this study will seek to show that there are indeed formal constraints on these extensions. Ever since Guthrie (1962) classified the extensions into transitivizers (+0), detransitivizers (-0), and neutral extensions (=0), various studies have repeatedly shown these extensions as effecting significant changes in predicate structures (see Scotton 1967a,b and Khamisi 1985 on Kiswahili, Satyo 1985 on Xhosa, and Machobane 1989 on Sesotho). The applicative and causative are transitivizers, while the rest are detransitivizers. Two basic questions keep coming up, albeit indirectly, in these studies:

i) Is there a limit on the number of arguments per verb?What is it and why? This question is related to the issues of suffix cooccurrence, ordering and repetition.

ii) What are the principles by which arguments are differentiated? This is the question underlying the notions of grammatical relations, thematic roles, and external vs internal argument.

Only Machobane (1989) attempts to give an explicit answer to the first question by proposing a principle stating that "the maximum number of internal arguments that a verb

can take is two" (p.129). But as the term "internal argument" itself demonstrates, the first question is inextricably linked to the second, and this study will propose a theory of argument differentiation for the analysis of these verb extensions.

#### 1.4 Materials and Methods

The data base for this study is contained in the Appendix. It consists of a lexicon of 530 Runyambo verb stems together with their extended derivations. The lexicon was compiled on the basis of the author's native-speaker knowledge, with valuable assistance from Leah Rugemalira, also a native speaker. Although every effort was made to list every probable derivation, with each extension individually and in combination with others, I have no illusions regarding the completeness of this lexicon as far as the 530 verbs are concerned. There are two kinds of limitations. The first is simple oversight and is potentially rectifiable without much controversy. But the second type of limitation is controversial because it concerns the delicate distinction between the possible and the plausible in verb extension semantics. It is directly related to the discussion on extension productivity above.

Shepardson (1986) criticizes Kamusi (1981) editors for placing "unnecessary constraints on the communicative potential of the language."

For instance, they say that mez-, 'swallow', has no reciprocal, apparently due the unlikelihood of two animate agents actually swallowing one another. In natural language, likelihood of occurrence has nothing to do with reality. The issue is not how likely it is that mezan-, 'swallow each other', can occur, but whether it is a possible utterance in some conceivable situation, and of course, it is, just as its translation is in English.(p.79)

While Shepardson has a good point about the futility of trying to imagine every context of usage for every root+extension derivation, he underestimates the formidable problem of distinguishing the regular and productive derivations from lexicalized forms which must be listed since they are unpredictable. It should be noted too, that a derivation may have both regular and lexical aspects. Dictionaries usually try to offer some guidance through Shepardson's acknowledged "myriad of semantic and pragmatic variables" instead of giving the impression that anything is possible. By excluding derivations of the "swallow each other" type, my lexicon is thus comparable to the common dictionaries; but it clearly goes further, particularly in persevering to record probable multiple combinations. In any case the exclusion should have no effect on the conclusions of this study, especially the conclusion that, given the nature of each of the extensions, certain derivations are indeed impossible, not just "improbable", as Shepardson (1986:167) maintains.

The relatively large data base, and the decision to publish it have their methodological significance. Whiteley (1966:47) cautions that "this is an area in which even the native speaker's intuition may prove an unreliable guide". Scotton (1967a:150) notes "a fair amount of disagreement as to whether or not many of the extended forms cited are operative for the general speaker of Swahili". Given this potential skepticism, and the potential for cross-linguistic variation, it is important that the data on which the conclusions are based be readily available. Even more important, given the possible variations from one verb to the next, it is important that we base our conclusions on a study of 500 verbs rather than on the analysis of only a handful of verbs.

The rest of this dissertation is organized as follows: Chapter two spells out the theoretical framework of the whole study. In order to answer the question about the number of possible arguments posed above, it avoids an analysis in terms of theories that represent predicate structure on four levels (grammatical relations, thematic roles, cases, and arguments) and instead, proposes a two-level theory of predicate structure (argument structure and lexical semantic structure).

Chapters three and four treat the two extensions (the applicative and causative) that expand predicate structure. It is argued that the distinction between them reflects the

only thematic role distinction that should count in the analysis of the verb extensions, viz. the distinction between actor and nonactor. The actor is a causative role, while the nonactor is an applicative role.

Chapter five deals with the three extensions (reciprocal, stative, and passive) that contract predicate structure. The central theme is that these extensions are organized around the binary distinction between actor and nonactor thematic roles, suggesting that the analysis of the verb extensions does not need a more elaborate inventory of thematic roles beyond this binary scheme.

Chapter six shows that the extension combinations are highly constrained by the general requirement that arguments be distinguishable from each other. It is this requirement that finds reflection in restrictions on extension repetition and cooccurrence.

# NOTES TO CHAPTER ONE

1 Although there were a number of immigrants during the sixties from Rwanda and Bukoba, this figure may still be taken as a reliable estimate of the speakers of Runyambo. The Tanzania census does not investigate linguistic or ethnic identity.

2 The larger context of this quote includes these questions and statements:

What is the "Chinese language"? Why is "Chinese" called a language and the Romance languages, different languages? The reasons are political, not linguistic. On purely linguistic grounds, there would be no reason to say that Cantonese and Mandarin are dialects of one language while Italian and French are different languages. Furthermore, what makes French a single language? I suppose fifty years ago neighboring villages could be found which spoke dialects of French sufficiently different so that mutual intelligibility was limited ...

Questions of language are basically questions of power, the kind of exercise of power that created the system of nation-states as in Europe. (Chomsky 1977:190-91)

3 Missionary work in Buhaya was quite successful: the first African cardinal, Laurian Rugambwa, and a former president of the Lutheran World Federation, the late Bishop Josiah Kibira, came from Buhaya.

4 One of the enduring traces of Ruhaya influence in Karagwe is the spelling of some mission station names which reflects Ruhaya rather than Runyambo pronunciation:

Runyambo	Ruhaya	Spelling
----------	--------	----------

[kéiso] [kái∫o] Kaisho

[rwambeizi] [rwambaizi] Rwambaizi

[peisózi] [paijózi] Nyaishozi

5 "In fact ... Runyankore, Rukiga, Runyoro, Rutooro, and Rutagwenda are all so similar that they might be regarded simply as dialects of the one language (which might, following a suggestion by Mr Mosha, be called Rutara, since it is in the area of the former Kitara Kingdom)" (Ladefoged et al. 1968:69).

6 In the religious sphere, Karagwe was separated from the Catholic diocese of Bukoba (Buhaya) in the late 1950s to form a new diocese of Rulenge which also includes the districts of Ngara and Biharamulo. The Lutherans too got their own Karagwe diocese in the late 1970s. Economically the tensions of a center-periphery relationship between Karagwe and Buhaya were particularly intense during the 1980s as the peasants of Karagwe sought to establish a separate marketing cooperative union under their own control.

#### CHAPTER TWO

#### A GRAMMAR OF ARGUMENT DIFFERENTIATION

2.0 Introduction

This chapter presents the analytical framework for the whole study. The first section (2.1) critically reviews a subtheory of Lexical Functional Grammar, namely the theory of linking or lexical mapping, as well as the status of grammatical functions and thematic roles. Section 2.2 sidesteps the problems arising out of linking theory by proposing a theory that seeks to represent predicate structure on two levels - argument structure (AS) and lexical semantic structure (LSS). Section 2.3 examines the various means of argument differentiation across languages and it is suggested that Bantu linguistic structure displays certain peculiarities which have the overall effect of limiting the number of things one can talk about within the structure of a single clause.

# 2.1 On Grammatical Relations and Thematic Roles

The study of Bantu verb extensions is closely tied to the study of verb valency, grammatical relations, and thematic roles (cf Guthrie 1962, Scotton 1967a, 1967b, Kimenyi 1980, Khamisi 1985, Satyo 1985, Rubanza 1986, Machobane 1989). In current linguistic theory up to four levels of representation are employed in order to capture the link between the valency of a verb and the syntactic and semantic realization of that valency. These levels are shown

Grammatical Relations:		subject, object		
Thematic Roles	:	agent, patient		
Cases	:	nominative, accusative		
Arguments	:	х, у,		

TABLE 2.1: Levels of representation of predicate structure

The theory of Government and Binding (Chomsky 1981:43) makes use of all four levels of representation: the thetacriterion states "that every  $\theta$ -role determined obligatorily in the D-structure must be filled by some argument with the appropriate GF [grammatical function], and that each argument must fill exactly one  $\theta$ -role as determined by its GF". Nonthematic GFs do not occupy argument positions and are represented at S-structure rather than at D-structure. Like GFs, which are configurationally determined via dominance and precedence, "case is assigned to NPs by virtue of the configurations in which they appear" (p.49). The content of the theory consists in spelling out the mechanisms for the appropriate linking of the various elements of all four levels<sup>2</sup>. Note that, from a particular perspective, there is a significant amount of redundancy: both GFs and cases are configurationally determined, and theta roles are assigned to

arguments. In addition, the proper determination of theta roles relies on GF information (p.42-43).

Lexical Functional Grammar does not posit a level of abstract case, choosing instead to record morphological case features in the functional structure like any other feature (e.g. person, number). For the remaining three levels, LFG has developed an elaborate sub-theory of lexical mapping or linking to articulate the relationship among them. How, for instance, is it determined that argument x is assigned the agent role and the subject function? In the next sub-section (2.1.1) I sketch the linking theory of LFG and offer an appraisal. The choice of LFG for critique is not merely a consequence of my linguistic upbringing. It is also based on the fact that the theory has the most detailed linking component.

## 2.1.1 Lexical mapping theory (LMT)

It appears to me that early LFG had a very good grasp of the real problem for natural language analysis, viz. the mapping of predicate arguments onto the phrases of a construction. As Bresnan & Kaplan (1982) pointed out, this is a problem because there is a many-to-many relation between argument types and phrase types, and also because there are variations in the forms of the phrases (NPs, PPs, affixes, clitics) that realize arguments across the languages of the world. In this early phase, LFG consisted of two basic

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components of the theory - functional structure, with undefinable grammatical functions, and constituent structure, which presented the surface realization of f-structure (cf. Bresnan (ed) 1982; Horrocks 1987). Successive elaboration of f-structure over the years has enriched this component immensely and resulted in a complete subtheory of linking, called lexical mapping theory, even though it may be argued that the basic notion of mapping was always implicit in the theory.

LMT consists of a set of principles for linking predicate arguments to semantic roles, and for linking the latter to grammatical functions (relations). This sub-theory of LFG originated from the desire to incorporate semantic information in the theory of grammatical functions.

The theory consists of three basic principles (Alsina 1990, Mchombo 1991, Alsina & Mchombo 1993). The first is the ordering of semantic roles within the argument structure of every predicate. This ordering corresponds to a universal hierarchy of semantic roles, represented in linear order in (201), so that the further to the left a semantic role is the more prominent (higher) it is.

# (201) agent>beneficiary>goal>instrument>patient>locative

The second principle consists of morpho-lexical operations which alter argument structures by adding or suppressing roles. For instance, the applicative morpheme adds a new semantic role to a predicate, while the passive

suppresses the highest role. The third principle is the assignment of grammatical functions to semantic roles according to the intrinsic properties of the semantic roles as well as their relative position on the universal hierarchy in (201). A crucial assumption here is that grammatical functions are decomposable into two primitive features +/r(estricted) and +/-o(bjective). Alsina (1990) defines these as follows: "Intuitively the restrictedness of a grammatical function refers to whether it can only be linked to a specific set of thematic roles [+r] or whether it can be associated with any thematic role [-r]; objective [+o] functions are those which are selected by transitive categories of predicators (verb and preposition) and which cannot appear with intransitive categories". This decomposition yields four syntactic functions:

(202) [-r,-o]: SUBJECT [+r,-o]: OBLIQUE THEME

[-r,+o]: OBJECT [+r,+o]: THEMATIC OBJECT

Each argument structure position is assigned two of these features depending on the intrinsic properties of the semantic role (intrinsic classification) and according to the role's position relative to other roles (default classification). Arguments are intrinsically classified [-o] unless they are patient-like in which case they may be classified [-r] or [+o]. Two constraints apply: the first is the Suppression constraint which stipulates that only syntactically unmarked arguments may undergo suppression

(i.e. only those classified [-r] or [-o]). The second constraint is the Instrinsic Classification constraint which states that the intrinsic classification [-r] can be assigned at most once in any given argument structure. This constraint, according to Bresnan & Moshi (1990), constitutes the parameter of variation which distinguishes asymmetrical languages (where objects are unequal) from symmetrical languages (where objects are equal). Symmetrical languages, according to this theory, lack this Asymmetric Object Paramenter (AOP).

Three problems arise from this theory. First it will be noted that the AOP construct is a grudging admission of the possibility of two direct objects in a construction. Indeed it is a statement of an exception to the LFG principle of "function-argument biuniqueness which requires that a unique function be assigned to each argument that is grammatically interpreted (i.e has some surface syntactic realization), and that a unique argument be assigned to each function that is associated with an argument" (Horrocks 1987:235)<sup>3</sup>. By this principle it is impossible to have more than one instance of a grammatical function or a thematic role. The AOP construct relaxes this constraint somewhat<sup>4</sup>. In determining whether or not a particular language violates the biuniqueness principle the problem boils down to a consideration of the nature of the mechanisms for identifying grammatical functions and thematic roles, a question that I will return to shortly.

The second problem in LMT is the absence of a mechanism for properly ordering and exhaustively assigning all of a verb's arguments to thematic roles. The absence of such a mechanism leads to the breakdown of the theory. Consider a case like (203) where a transitive verb kúnywa 'drink' undergoes the morpholexical operations of the causative and the applicative, adding two arguments in this way.

(203) Kató a - ka - tu - nywe - is - ez - á omwáná amáte Káto he -PST - us -drink - C - A -FV child milk 'Káto made the child drink milk for us'

The crucial question is: what role is to be assigned to each of the four noun phrases in (203)? Even if it is assumed that the lexical entry for the verb specifies the agent (drinker) and patient (drink) roles, the two new arguments are still unassigned. There is no automatic procedure to apply here because each of the causative and applicative extensions may license a variety of roles (see chapters 3 & 4). For the sake of argument here, let us assume that the applicative can license three role types p, q, and r, while the causative can license two, s and t. LMT lacks a mechanism that will specify which of the two additional arguments in (203) is to be assigned which applicative role out of the three possibilities, as well as which argument will be assigned which causative role out of the two possibilities. As already indicated, only one reading is acceptable: 'he made the child drink the milk for us' not \*'he made us drink the milk for

the child'5.

Now this is not a minor shortcoming that can be patched up. It is a more basic problem caused by the elevation of arbitrary, albeit convenient, descriptive labels (see my own choices in chapters 3 & 4) to a level of objective categories uniquely identifiable across verbs, theories, and languages. As I make use of my own arbitrary labels for descriptive convenience in the presentation of the data in the rest of this study, I will show that the LMT problem is essentially a problem of overgeneralization partly rooted in a theoretical commitment to autonomous syntax. Suffice it to say that there are no grounds on which to base a standard inventory of semantic roles, let alone a hierarchy of such roles<sup>6</sup>.

The third problem for LMT concerns the status of the features [r] and [o]. According to LMT, an unrestricted [-r] grammatical function is one that can be associated with any semantic role, while a restricted [+r] function can only be associated with a limited set of semantic roles. So the subject function is unrestricted since it can be linked to any role on the semantic hierarchy, from the agent at the top of the hierarchy, to the locative at the bottom. Note though, in connection with the discussion of thematic roles above, that if the role inventory is arbitrary and far from fixed, we may include roles such as reason and manner, that the subject cannot be linked to, in which case it may be considered restricted.

While the [r] feature is a classification of the grammatical functions, the [o] feature appears to be a classification of the semantic roles. Objective roles are those that are typically complements of predicators. The agent is the prototype [-o] role.

However the LMT literature is not clear about the status of these feature constructs. It appears as if grammatical functions are being defined in terms of semantic roles, while the semantic roles themselves are also being defined in terms of grammatical functions (e.g. "patient is intrinsically classified [-r], capturing the fact that it alternates between the functions of subject and object" (Alsina 1990:3)). What is in no doubt is that the limit of four grammatical functions (subject, object, thematic object, and oblique theme) is determined by the fact that there are only two features [r] and [o], each of which has two values, plus and minus. Incidentally, this limit of four grammatical functions may be a reflection of some empirical facts about language (some languages at least). But its significance in LMT depends on the status of the grammatical function categories of subject, object etc. Unfortunately, as has already been observed, grammatical functions and semantic roles are inextricably linked in this theory - which is not accidental since each of the four levels in Table 2.1 is indeed, in some neutral sense, a representation of grammatical relations: in grammar these are relations among the NPs as mediated by the verb; in the real world these are

relations among the participants in the action described by the verb. As such there is no independent mechanism for linking the level of grammatical functions to the level of semantic roles.(Recall the redundancy noted earlier in the GB conception of these levels.)

In effect the problem concerns the status of grammatical functions, and an appeal has to be made to the "traditional" or "standard" tests of objecthood (Bresnan & Moshi 1990), an issue that is discussed in the next sub-section.

# 2.1.2 Problems in defining grammatical functions

Unlike Transformational Grammar and its heir, GB theory, where grammatical relations are defined in terms of the constituent structure notions of dominance and precedence<sup>7</sup> (Chomsky 1965, 1981), early LFG (Bresnan 1982) followed the lead of Relational Grammar (Perlmutter & Postal 1974) in regarding grammatical relations as primitive, undefinable notions. It is only recently that LFG theorists have moved towards the position that regards grammatical relations as decomposable entities (Bresnan & Kanerva 1989, Bresnan & Moshi 1990, Alsina & Mchombo 1990a&b,1993, Alsina 1990, Mchombo 1991) and embraced the notion of syntactic tests or criteria for objecthood, reminiscent of Keenan's (1976) cluster concept of subject based on a "subject properties list". Yet attempting to define supposedly universal grammatical relations in this way is inherently problematic<sup>8</sup>. Criticizing Keenan's prototype definition of subject, Johnson

#### (1977:347) stated:

The relative interpretation runs into the following serious problem. If an NP merely needs more properties than any other NP in its clause to be e.g., a b[asic] SUBJ, then the definition would allow the case in which SUBJs in a language J are defined by a subset S of the SPL [subject properties list] and SUBJs of some distinct language M are defined by another subset T of the SPL, where S and T are disjoint. That is, totally different criteria could be used in the definition of SUBJ in J and M ... But one of [Keenan's] main assumptions is that "if we use different criteria to identify subjects in different Ls then 'subject' is simply not a universal category..."

Johnson's criticism is vindicated by several studies, including those by people who believe in grammatical relations. In Bantu the issue has usually revolved around the relative status of multiple 'objects' - whether realized as postverbal NPs, or as pronominal prefixes on the verb, or some combination of both as in (203) above. Bantuists generally rely on three tests for objecthood:

- Word order which of the NPs is closer (adjacent) to the verb;
- ii) Agreement which of the NPs is marked on the verb by an affix;
- iii) Subjectivization which of the NPs can become subject of the passive construction.

Hyman & Duranti (1982) make use of the three tests for objecthood but they note that "not only do the actual criteria for object status vary from one Bantu language to the next, but so do the strategies or factors influencing which arguments will acquire these criteria" (p.233). So even though they take the category 'object' for granted, they inadvertently show that it cannot be defined, even in Bantu alone.

In Rugemalira (1991a, 1993a) it was shown that while the word order test works well in Runyambo, usually placing the human NP closer to the verb than the non-human NP, this test cannot be used in Kiswahili where order is irrelevant and agreement is more important. In addition, the agreement test in Runyambo gave results that conflicted with the subjectivization test. Up to three potential<sup>9</sup> postverbal NPs can be marked on the verb, but not all of them can become 'subjects' of the passive construction.

Van Valin (1991) discusses similar problems for a properties (tests, criteria) approach towards subject in Icelandic. He presents examples "in which the coding properties [nominative case and verb agreement] either do not fall on the NP with the behavioral properties [raising] or are lacking altogether in the clause" (p.146).

Hudson (1991) believes that grammatical relations are basic to linguistic analysis. He then proceeds to select ten criteria for identifying objects in English. His tests are (where X is the NP being tested for objecthood, p.347):

- i) X passivizes easily
- ii) X extracts easily
- iii) X can follow a particle
- iv) X can be moved by Heavy NP shift
- v) X is accusative in a true case system
- vi) X must be subcategorized for
- vii) X has same semantic role as some monotransitive
   objects
- viii) X is normally non-human
- ix) Verb + X may constitute an idiom
- x) X is extractee of infinitival

In a construction of the type <u>Ann gave Fred a book</u>, Hudson picks 'a book' as the ordinary object and Fred is regarded as some sort of adjunct. Note that the Bantu tests would pick Fred as the primary (unrestricted) object. This was essentially the point of Johnson's (1977) critique of Keenan (1976): 'Object' cannot be regarded as a universal category if we use different criteria to identify it in different languages. Hudson (1991) indeed illustrates the opposite of his declared thesis, an opposite that Baker (1988) states very well: 'Subject' and 'object' "cannot be fundamental notions of the theory ... Thus whether one calls a certain phrase a subject or an object often depends more on what linguistic processes one is interested in at the time than on any deep property of language" (p.431)<sup>10</sup>.

Bhat's (1991) analysis of Kannada and Manipuri,

languages spoken in India, argues that grammatical relations are neither necessary nor universal. While such notions may be convenient in the description of "languages like English, which jointly encode semantic and pragmatic relations", in other languages "such abstract entities are completely unhelpful", and it is the distinct semantic and pragmatic factors that have more relevance (p.31).

To recapitulate: the basic problem with the linking theory of LFG is that it seeks to provide a set of principles for linking entities whose existence needs to be independently established in the first place. Neither grammatical relation categories like subject and object, nor thematic role categories like agent and patient can be regarded as linguistic primitives. As with the other theories that posit such categories as basic for linguistic analysis, the goal of the enterprise has become the determination of. the mechanisms for linking the various abstract levels.

In the next section I will excuse myself from these concerns and instead propose a simpler, two-level theory which can help us focus attention on the mechanisms of external realization rather than on internal linking. It is different from the other theories in two respects. First, it is based on the assumption that given the mapping problem discussed above, the analyst's task consists in determining the means available in a language and in natural language generally, for constraining the number of possible mapping

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solutions. In other words, the question to be answered is what are the means for argument differentiation in natural language. Second, as a consequence of the focus on the mapping/realization problem, only two levels will be utilized and no linking between them will be required<sup>11</sup>.

## 2.2 Predicate Structure

The theory of predicate structure being proposed here posits the existence of two levels of representation, viz. argument structure and lexical semantic structure.

The level of argument structure specifies the number of arguments that the verb can take (i.e.valency). The pertinent notion of argument here is that of a syntactic position or slot which needs to be filled by the linguistic expressions that realize a verb's participant roles. As such 'argument' and 'argument position' are interchangeable. The significant information available in the argument structure concerns the total number of arguments that the verb licenses. For instance, the argument structure of the verb give consists of three argument positions, while that of laugh has only one.

There are various ways across the world's languages in which the number of arguments may be increased or decreased. The best known valency increasing process is causativisation, found in various languages, e.g Turkish, Tagalog, Ewenki (Tungusic, Siberia), Malayalam, Nahuatl (cf. Comrie 1976, Mohanan 1982, Tuggy 1988). The Bantu verb

extensions that increase arguments are the applicative and the causative, discussed in chapters 3 and 4 respectively. The valency decreasers are the passive, stative, and the reciprocal, all discussed in chapter 5. A major problem tackled in this study concerns the limits, if any, that are imposed on these processes of transitivization and detransitivization.

Lexical semantic structure provides, among other idiosyncracies, information concerning the participant roles required by the verb, and in this way partly describes the meaning of the action denoted by the verb. These participant roles are best represented in terms specific to each verb or to groups of closely related verbs. The lexical semantic structure (LSS) of the verb 'give', for instance, states that the verb requires a 'giver', a 'recipient' and a 'gift'.

The predicate structure for the verb 'give' may be represented as in (204).

(204)

PREDICATE: give ARGUMENT STRUCTURE (AS): 3 LEXICAL SEMANTIC STRUCTURE (LSS): giver, [gift], [recipient]

In (204) the argument structure specifies the number of arguments permitted for the verb, whereas the lexical

semantic structure specifies the participant roles. The brackets around two of the roles indicate that the linguistic expressions that realize these roles are omissible under certain contexts (e.g. 'he gave [the foundation] one hundred dollars' - omissible recipient; 'I already gave' i.e. contributed - omissible gift and recipient). Although the number of participant roles may be equal to the number of argument positions, there is no one-to-one correspondence between the two levels. First, there are argument positions of some verbs which cannot be assigned any semantic content in the form of a participant role, e.g. the sole argument of weather verbs in some languages ('it rained'), or one of the arguments of 'seem' ('it seems that you like my argument'). Second, in Bantu languages, it is possible to increase the number of arguments without simultaneously increasing the number of participant roles. This is precisely the case with the "subjective" interpretation of the applicative and causative discussed in chapters three (section 3.2.2) and four (section 4.2.3) respectively. Third, as the discussion of the reciprocal in chapter five will show, it is possible to reduce the number of arguments while holding constant the number of participant roles.

Still, there is a requirement that every participant role in the lexical semantic structure be realized in a licensed argument position, and it is thus appropriate to speak of 'argument differentiation' as a shorthand for the process of keeping track of the expressions that realize a verb's participant roles and fill particular syntactic slots.<sup>13</sup> In other words, there cannot be more participant roles than the number of argument positions in which the roles are to be realized. Apart from this unidirectional matching requirement, there is no universal principle specifying the linking of particular participant roles to certain argument positions.

#### 2.3 Linguistic Mapping and Argument Differentiation

Grimshaw (1990) contends that equating argument structure with the number of argument positions related by a predicate makes the construct of limited interest. She goes on to propose a prominence theory of argument structure according to which argument structure is not merely a set of arguments, but "a structured representation over which prominence relations are defined." Information regarding prominence is available from the LSS of the predicate (not to be confused with my LSS above, which lists participant roles in verb specific labels), via the thematic hierarchy. Similarly Alsina (1993) maintains that in addition to information about the number of arguments, the arguments are ordered according to the thematic hierarchy, although thematic information is not included in argument structure.

Grimshaw's and Alsina's prominence theories, which necessitate the enrichment of argument structure, are

motivated by the need to determine the assignment of grammatical relations in a construction. In an earlier section I claimed that there is no basis for positing a level of grammatical relations (subject, object ...) or a level of a hierarchical and finite inventory of thematic roles (agent, patient ...). Prominence is dictated by the need to link the various levels of representation (see Table 2.1). But I have suggested that in order to examine the various mechanisms by which languages solve the mapping problem our concern needs to shift away from this multifarious representation. Such a move puts the real problem in stark relief.

Consider a construction in which the three phrases - a boy, a girl, and a teacher - realize the three arguments of 'give'. Since all three NPs here can be mapped onto any of the participant roles of the verb, there are six possible ways to do the mapping as shown in (205).

(205)	giver		recipient	gift
i)	a boy	gave	a girl	a teacher
ii)	a boy	gave	a teacher	a girl
iii)	a girl	gave	a boy	a teacher
iv)	a girl	gave	a teacher	a boy
V)	a teacher	gave	a boy	a girl
vi)	a teacher	gave	a girl	a boy

It will be noted that the rules of English stipulate that in a simple, active, declarative sentence, the NP linked to the giver argument must appear before the verb, while the other two appear after the verb. Of these two the recipient NP must precede the gift<sup>12</sup>. Any rearrangement requires concomitant changes in the morphosyntax of some NPs (e.g. to recipient, by giver) and/or of the verb (passive). In effect, the chief resource for argument differentiation in English and many configurational languages is word order. Yet there are variations, even within this group of languages, regarding the ways in which ordering is put to use, as well as the limits imposed on it. Irish, for instance, places all arguments after the verb, as shown in (206) (cf. Rugemalira 1993b).

- (206) a) thug an rí an teach mór don bhuachaill gave the king the house big to boy 'the king gave the big house to the boy' 'the king gave the boy the big house'
  - b) \*thug an rí an teach mór an buachaill
  - c) \*thug an rí an buachaill an teach mór (\*dative shift)
  - d) \*thug an rí don bhuachaill an teach mór

The argument differentiation rules for Irish require the giver argument to be placed immediately after the verb, followed by the gift, and then the recipient, which is marked with a preposition; without marking the recipient with a

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preposition the construction is not acceptable (206b); there is no dative shift version analogous to the English case (206c), and even with the preposition the ordering must not be altered (206d).

Now there are languages that do not make any significant use of the ordering strategy - the so-called nonconfigurational languages like Warlpiri (Hale 1983) and Malayalam (Mohanan 1982). Consider the Malayalam example in (207), glossed as 'the child saw the elephant' (Mohanan 1982:508).

(207)

- a) kutti aanaye kantu child-nom elephant-acc saw
- b) aanaye kutti kantu
- c) aanaye kantu kutti
- d) kantu aanaye kutti
- e) kantu kutti aanaye
- f) kutti kantu aanaye

There are six word order possibilities in (207) just as in the English example (205) above. But in the Malayalam example word order does not serve the argument differentiation function - in all six arrangements, the child is the 'seer' and the elephant is the 'thing seen', thanks to the case marking.

In some languages ordering serves a different purpose from that of other configurational languages. According to

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Bhat (1991), sentence initial position in Kannada is reserved for the topic. In other words, ordering marks a pragmatic relation rather than a grammatical relation, and semantic (role) relations are morphologically marked by case<sup>14</sup>. In general, languages that have a reduced or no role for the ordering strategy usually have extensive nominal morphology (case system) which provides alternative means for differentiating the arguments.

In Bantu languages the syntactic ordering strategy interacts with the semantic features of animacy, person and number (Rugemalira 1991a, 1993a), and as such the autonomous syntax thesis (viz. that the rules of syntax "don't refer to elements of the physical world" (Chomsky 1982:114)), cannot form part of the analytical framework<sup>15</sup>. In addition there is a variety of restrictions on various components of the grammar of these languages so that in the final analysis there is a limited number of things that one can talk about within a single clause. Most of the discussion in this study concerns the restrictions within the verb extension system (distinctions, repetition, cooccurrence and ordering), but other restrictions considered include those on the forms of realization of arguments (marked and unmarked NPs, pronominal affixes, and clitics), omissibility of constituents, and the distinction between arguments and adjuncts.

## NOTES TO CHAPTER TWO

1 Terminological variations in this area abound, but the differences in content are more apparent than real. Grammatical relations and grammatical functions are interchangeable. Government and Binding theorists prefer theta roles or  $\theta$ -roles over thematic or semantic roles, the latter terms being more easily identified with LFG. Essentially the same notions are involved as those of Fillmore's (1968) cases or Starosta's (1988) case roles. But while these may overlap with morphological cases in case marking languages, GB's abstract case is a more general notion set up as a level of representation independent of theta roles.

2 For recent treatments of these issues see Baker (1991) on configurationality and case, and Emonds (1991) on theta role assignment.

3 Note that here the level of argument structure is synonymous with that of thematic roles.

4 See Jackendoff's (1987) discussion of, and counterexamples to, the biuniqueness interpretation of the Theta Criterion of GB theory.

5 See Rugemalira (1991a,1993a) and the subsequent chapters below for a discussion of the limits imposed on argument realization types. In this particular example, only the first person pronominal prefix, but not the second or third, can

realize the "beneficiary" argument and give the egocentric interpretation of the whole event.

 i) a -ka - ku -nywe -is -ez - á omwáná amáte he -PST -you -drink- C - A - FV child milk
 \*'He made you drink the milk for the child'

'He really made the child drink the milk' 'He made the child drink a lot of milk'

ii) \*a- ka - ba - nywe -is-ez-á omwáná amáte he-PST-you/them-drink -C -A -FV child milk 'He made you/them drink the milk for the child' 'He made the child drink the milk for you/them'

Note that although i) is well-formed with the second person singular pronominal prefix, no additional participant role is added, and only the "subjective role" interpretation is available (see chapter 3). This interpretation is not available when the second/third person plural pronominal prefix is used, making ii) unacceptable. In short, then, there are language specific restrictions on the types of expressions (NPs, pronominals, etc.) which can instantiate certain participant roles, thereby facilitating argument differentiation and giving the correct interpretation for a construction. These restrictions defy both the autonomous syntax thesis and any attempt to set up universal linking principles.

6 See the various role inventories and definitions of each role in Fillmore (1968), Jackendoff (1987), Starosta (1988), and a review of the problems of role identification in Dowty (1991). For an anti-thematic role thesis see Ravin (1990).

Chomsky (1965:124) took precedence (or linear order) 7 seriously and dismissed the proposal that the elements on the right of the arrow in phrase structure rules be represented as a set rather than as a string. He maintained that strings convey more information "since they not only define an abstract system of grammatical relations but also assign an abstract underlying order to the elements." In subsequent work special rules had to be devised to derive the surface order of elements in non-SVO and non-configurational languages. For instance, Chomsky (1981:129) takes the position that, for Japanese, the assignment of grammatical functions is random, "which is to say that order is irrelevant." More recently Jackendoff (1990) has argued against a proposal (Larson 1990) to eliminate linear order in the analysis of double complement constructions, maintaining that such a proposal is too constrained because it relies only on dominance relations.

8 Among the early skeptics of the grammatical relations orthodoxy within the generativist tradition, Fillmore (1968:17) "suggested that there are good reasons for questioning the deep structure validity of the traditional

division between subject and predicate, a division assumed by some to underlie the basic form of all sentences in all languages. The position I take seems to be in agreement with that of Tesnière (1959,pp.103-105) who holds that the subject/predicate division is an importation into linguistic theory from formal logic of a concept which is not supported by the facts of language and, furthermore, that the division actually obscures the many structural parallels between 'subjects' and 'objects'".

9 The prestem pronominal affix cannot appear if the postverbal NP is present.

10 Compare the Bantu and Hudson tests above with Chung's (1976) tests for objecthood in Bahasa Indonesia: passive, reflexive, object preposing, control of equi, and relative clause formation.

11 In this regard Construction Grammar (CG) is different from GB and LFG in the amount of concern with the forms of realization (instantiation) of the various arguments. This is reflected in the detailed specifications for each grammatical construction. Like in GB and LFG, the linking problem in CG essentially consists in determining the connection between grammatical functions and semantic roles. But unlike these other theories, CG does not regard grammatical functions as universals of language, although they are considered to be essential in the grammar of languages like English (cf Fillmore & Kay 1993).

12 Williams (1981) proposes that this be indicated by underlining the giver. Fillmore & Kay (1993) set such a participant role apart in bold face as the "Distinguished Argument".

13 For purposes of economy of expression I make use of such terms as "omissible role" and "omissible argument". Omissibility concerns the possibility of leaving a particular role unrealized by any linguistic expression (cf. "null instantiation" in Construction Grammar). Although LFG regards this as "unspecified object deletion", in this study 'deletion' is reserved for the detransitivizing processes of the reciprocal, stative, and passive extensions, whereby the predicate structure is reconstituted by, at the very least, the reduction of the number of argument positions.

- 14 Consider these examples from Bhat (1991:12):
- hari rajuvannu hogalida
   Hari-nom Raju-acc praised
   'Hari praised Raju'
- ii) rajuvannu hari hogalida Raju-acc Hari-nom praised

'Raju was praised by Hari'

"The topic is Hari in (i) and Raju in (ii); this pragmatic difference is represented in these sentences by simply changing the order of the two arguments; their case markers remain unchanged and the verb also remains unchanged".

15 Hawkinson & Hyman (1974) discuss animacy, person and number phenomena as representing "the means by which semantic and pragmatic considerations undermine the absolutive power of a grammar". Foley & Van Valin (1985:287) show how "the information status of NPs [may be] determined by inherent properties of their referents, the most significant of which properties is being one of the immediate speech act participants: the speaker or the addressee", which translates into first and second person pronouns/affixes in the languages of the world.

#### CHAPTER THREE

#### THE APPLICATIVE

#### 3.0 Introduction

This chapter provides a descriptive account of the applicative extension. Section 3.1 discusses the form of the applicative as well as the various terms that have been used in the literature in connection with this extension. Section 3.2 presents the thematic roles available with the applicative, while section 3.3 presents the morphosyntactic and semantic patterns associated with the locative role. Section 3.4 takes up the analytical framework proposed in chapter two and argues that the applicative extension is essentially a transitivizer.

# 3.1 Form and Terminology

The applied or applicative extension has been reconstructed for Proto-Bantu as **\*id** (cf. Meinhof 1899, in Schadeberg n.d.:31; Guthrie 1967-71: CB4, CS2188; CB1 p.89). Other terms that have been used include "directive" and "instrumental" (Guthrie 1962:106)<sup>1</sup>, "objective", "prepositional", and "relative" (Doke 1935:52-53). According to Trithart (1983:1), "'Applied affix' is the general linguistic term for a verb affix which allows the non-subject arguments of the verb to be increased", especially when the affix in question "occurs with two or more distinct semantic relations", as is the case with the Bantu verb extensions, instead of only one, as is the case in nominal case marking systems (e.g. dative marker - recipient NP; accusative marker - patient NP; benefactive marker - benefactive NP). Schadeberg (n.d.:31), however, maintains that "the universally much better known term 'dative' has been circumvented by Bantuists, probably to avoid confusion with (Indoeuropean) nominal case marking".

Trithart's position does indeed blur the distinction between the verbal morphology of the Bantu affix and the nominal morphology of much of the "semantic relations" notions. But by asserting that "dative" is a "better known term", Schadeberg too seems to draw even closer parallels between Bantu verbal affixation and the nominal case marking systems in other languages. It may be that Bantuists promoted/coined the term "applicative" as suggested by Schadeberg and that this term subsequently acquired the general linguistic usage suggested by Trithart.<sup>2</sup> Ashton et al. (1954:330) suggest that the "applied form ... directs or extends the action of the simple form" to some other object/participant. Alsina (1990:35) states that the "applicative morpheme is a predicate which applies the action of the predicate with which it combines to a new participant, which is benefitted, utilized, involved as a location, etc." Whatever the etiology, the terms "applied" and "applicative" have become standard, used interchangeably, in referring to the -ir- extension (cf. inter alia, Khamisi 1985, Baker

1988, Rubanza 1988, Hyman 1990, Bresnan & Moshi 1990, Alsina & Mchombo 1990). In this connection Baker's (1989) reference to the Kinyarwanda -ho locative clitic as an applicative should be considered erroneous. The clitic originates from class 16 of the nominal class prefix system and to incorporate it into the verbal extension system would be highly confusing. Consider (301-303).

- (301) (aha-ntébe) a ka t a -hó ecitabo L - chair he-PST - put -FV -LC book `(on the chair) he put a book there'
- (302) a ka hunj- ir- á omu- nju he- PST - flee -A -FV L - house 'he fled into the house'
- (303) (enju) a- ka ji hunj-ir- á mu house he-PST - it - flee-A - FV- LC `(the house) he fled into it'

Note that in (301) the locative clitic (LC) -ho takes the place of the omissible locative complement 'chair', and that unlike the applicative in (302) and (303) the locative clitic in (301) and (303) occurs after the final vowel. It falls outside the domain of the verb stem which ends with the final vowel (FV). It is thus a clitic and very different from the verb extensions which are suffixes par excellence.<sup>3</sup>

Furthermore in (303) the applicative cooccurs with the locative clitic.

# 3.2 Applicative Thematic Roles

In this section I will give a detailed description of the various semantic effects that can be achieved by using the applicative. This description will be cast in terms of the thematic (or semantic) roles licensed by the suffix. Recall the discussion in chapter two regarding the problems related to the identification and definitions of the individual roles. In this section these problems will largely be ignored for the purposes of clarity of exposition. But a later section (3.4) will return to the argument that the analysis of the extensions, and probably general linguistic theory as well, does not need a conventional inventory of thematic roles.

# 3.2.1 Beneficiary role

This is the role most often cited in connection with the applicative extension. Three closely related senses are distinguishable. The first, do something for the benefit of, is illustrated in (304).

# (304) gur-ír- á **abantú**<sup>4</sup> enyama

buy-A -FV people meat 'buy meat for people'

The NP abantu 'people' is licensed by the applicative and carries the beneficiary role.

The second sense of the beneficiary role, do something on behalf of, is illustrated in (305).

(305) n -sííj-ir-á omwáná amajúta
me-smear-A-FV child oil
'smear oil on the child for me'

The intended reading is conceivable in a context like this: I am in a hurry dressing up to catch the bus. The child is not ready and I ask someone to smear (apply) oil on him/her. In granting my request this person is doing me a favor. Essentially then this sense is a slight variation of the benefit sense. In many instances constructions are ambiguous, as (306) & (307) show.

- (306) handiic -ir á omukéikurú ebarúha
  write A FV old woman letter

  (i) 'write a letter to the old woman'
  (ii) 'write a letter on behalf of the old woman'
- (307) twar-ír-á omukéikurú améizi carry-A-FV old woman water (i) `carry water to the old woman' (ii) `carry water for the old woman'

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It should be noted that in both (306) & (307) the new role in the first reading is sometimes referred to as a 'recipient' or a 'goal' (Bresnan & Moshi 1990, Alsina & Mchombo 1990, Grimshaw 1990, Emanatian 1991).

A note of caution on the semantics of 'beneficiary' is in order. "Benefit of" is not to be taken literally. In (306), for instance, the letter could be an eviction notice to the old woman, and this can hardly be to her benefit. But as long as the context provides no clue to the contrary, conventional interpretation tends towards the literal benefit sense. Otherwise a third sense, do something to the detriment of, is identified. Although the term "maleficiary" is sometimes used (Mchombo 1992)<sup>5</sup> this need not be conceived as a distinct role from the beneficiary, but as one of the available senses of the beneficiary. Consider (308)-(311).

- (308) reet -er- á omuséíjá abasúma bring-A -FV man thieves 'bring thieves to the detriment of the man'
- (309) it -ir -á abantú emipango
  kill-A -FV people plans
  'kill people's plans'
  i.e. kill plans to the detriment of the people who
  made them.

(310) ba - ka-mw - it -ir- á omwâna they-PST-her-kill-A -FV child `they killed her child' i.e. they killed the child to the detriment of its mother.

(311) ba - ka-n - som - er - á ebarúha they-PST-me-read - A -FV letter
i) 'they read a letter to me' (benefit/behalf senses)
ii) 'they read my letter' (disapproval implied: detriment sense).

In (308) the detriment sense hinges on the negative connotations associated with the NP abasúma 'thieves'. By contrast the detriment sense in (309) and (310) <u>largely</u> derives from the the verb 'kill' (killing is bad). Kimenyi (1980:45) assigned a 'possessor' role to cases like (309) & (310). The possessive relation essentially serves to underscore the intensity with which the possessor suffers from the detrimental action. When neither the verb nor the original NP provides sufficient cause for a detriment interpretation as in (311) the neutral/normal reading is the benefit/behalf sense(311i). But the wider sentential as well as extralinguistic context may still signal a detriment sense (311ii).

# 3.2.2 Subjective role

There is no equivalent notion in the conventional role inventories to what is termed the "subjective role" here, and illustrated in (312-317). In all these examples the extension creates a new argument position for the verb, but it does not provide an extra participant role to fill the position. The type of constituents that supply the relevant interpretations is limited to the reflexive, and the first and second person pronominal affixes.

The applicative in (312) & (313) cooccurs with and licenses the reflexive affix. Although both the extended verb and the unextended one are given the same gloss, there is an important difference in nuance describable as a sympathetic <u>point of view</u>; hence the term "subjective" (cf Kimenyi 1992). Here the applied construction, together with the reflexive morpheme, express the feelings of the speaker.

The point of view in (314a) is affectively neutral. With the applicative and the reflexive, (314b) could express approval in the context whereby the reader of the book, instead of participating in a quarrel, went away to read a book quietly. It could be disapproving if instead of lending a hand in a difficult task, the reader went away to read a book.

(b) ba - ka- mu - n - téér- er- a
they -PST- him-me -hit - A -FV
'they gave him a good beating' (satisfaction/glee)

```
(316)(a) tu- ka- nyw - á amáárwa
we-PST-drink-FV beer `we drank beer'
```

(b) tu- ka- ku- nyw - er- á amáárwa
we-PST-you- drink- A- FV beer
`we really drank a lot of beer' (satisfaction)

The contrasts in (315) & (316) again illustrate the intensity of feeling that the applicative construction together with the first and second person pronominal affixes help convey a feeling that may be stated thus: 'the action was done to my satisfaction'. Without the applicative there is only a plain statement of fact with no indication of how the speaker feels about it.

As already noted this usage is fairly idiomatic, being available only when the applicative cooccurs with the reflexive affix (312-314) or with the first or second person affixes (315-316), but not with any other affix or NP, as (317) shows.

(317) tu- ka- mu- nyw -er - á amáárwa
we-PST-her -drink-A -FV beer
'we drank her beer' (beneficiary)

Since the new argument introduced by the applicative in (317) is not realized by a reflexive or a first or second person pronominal, only the beneficiary interpretation is available, but not the subjective interpretation.

#### 3.2.3 Motive role

Motive NPs licensed by the applicative have been given a variety of labels including reason/cause, and purpose/goal. Trithart (1983:158) defines purpose/goal as "the NP which an action was performed to obtain or accomplish", and a cause/reason as "one which precipitated the action of the verb". This is a rather delicate distinction which at times seems to hinge on tense contrasts: reason/cause if past, and purpose/goal if in the future (cf Satyo 1985:180f). The possibilities available in Runyambo are shown in (318-322) while (323) provides a comparison with the beneficiary role.

- (318) a ka- mu jum ir- á obusúma he-PST-her -scold- A -FV stealing 'he scolded her for stealing' (reason/cause)
- (319) a ka- mu jum ir- á-ci he-PST-her -scold- A -FV-what 'why did he scold her' (reason/cause)

(320) ba - ka- rwan -ir- á embúzi
they-PST-fight -A -FV goat
'they fought over the goat' (reason/cause)

(321) kor - er- á ensimbi work- A -FV money 'work for money' (purpose/goal)

(322) ba - ka-rwan - ir- á obuhúuru
they-PST-fight -A -FV independence
'they fought for independence' (purpose/goal)

(323) kor - er- á omukáma work - A - FV king 'work for the king' (beneficiary)

In (318-320) obusúma 'stealing', -ci 'what/why', and embúzi 'goat' generally fit Trithart's characterization as NPs "which precipitated the action of the verb". Similarly ensimbi 'money' and obuhúuru 'independence' in (321-322) are characterizable as NPs "which the action was performed to obtain". But two observations are pertinent here. First, the distinction between purpose/goal vs reason/cause cannot be definite; there is no evidence, in the structure of the language, to support such a distinction. Rather the distinction is dependent on the extralinguistic context. The role assignments in (320) and (322), for instance, assume that the goat was there to be the cause of the fighting while independence was not there and people had to fight (struggle) to obtain it. Yet we could imagine a context in which the people had to fight in order to merit/win the goat, in which case this would be a goal. Second, as the minimal pair (321) and (323) shows, the assignment of roles relies to a large

extent on information regarding the animacy of the relevant referents (see chapter two).

3.2.4 Locative role

The use of the applicative to license a locative role is illustrated in (324).

Note that the applicative cooccurs with the locative noun class prefix. As will be shown below, this is the general pattern but by no means the only one with respect to locative complements.

```
3.2.5 Durative role
```

The applicative may license a durative role, as shown in (325).

#### (325) mer - ér- á **ebiró bísatu**

sprout- A - FV days three 'sprout in three days'<sup>6</sup>

The complement in (325) must be an amount of time, not a point in time like "yesterday" or "in the morning" which do not need the applicative as (326) shows.

# (326) bi -ka - mer - a ijwééri they-PST-sprout-FV day before yesterday 'they sprouted the day before yesterday'

3.2.6 Neutral role

The applicative cooccurs with two fixed expressions busa 'nothing' and cimo 'one' in an idiomatic construction, as shown in (327-330).

- (327) a ka -kor er- á busa he-PST -work- A -FV nothing 'he worked for nothing'
- (328) a ka ci reeb er- á busa he-PST - it - look- A -FV nothing 'he looked at it for free'
- (329) a ka jend- er- a cimo he- PST- go - A -FV one 'he went away for good' (i.e. with no intention of coming back)
- (330) a ka- nyw er- á címo he-PST-drink- A - FV one 'he drank even more' (i.e. with no intention of wanting to stop)

While (327) seems to be close to the motive role in the sense that the hoped for goal did not materialize, the rest are more difficult to fit in. I will refer to this usage as the "neutral role" and set it apart from the other idiomatic pattern ("subjective role" of section 3.2.2) which requires a different set of constituents and has a more easily classified semantic import, viz. viewpoint. In the case of the "neutral role" the range of interpretation is much narrower and more closely associated with the two expressions busa and cimo. The general sense in (327-328) may be characterized as 'the action was accomplished without reward/cost'; the sense in (329-330) is roughly 'the action was accomplished with no prospects of reversal'. It is no coincidence that the expressions busa and cimo are not only inanimate, but they are also abstract, lacking the quality of concrete embodiment<sup>7</sup>, which is an important dimension in the assignment of the traditional thematic roles.

## 3.3 Locative Patterns

In this section special consideration of the locative role is in order because of the morphosyntactic and semantic patterns available to this particular interpretation but not to any other interpretation discussed in 3.2 above.

# 3.3.1 Morphosyntactic patterns

The morphosyntactic patterns in question are primarily illustrated in (331-333).

70

(331) (a) gamb - ír - á omu- nju
speak - A - FV L - house 'speak in the house'
(b) \*gamb -á omu-nju

(b) biic -ir- á omu-nju store-A - FV L - house 'store (something) when in the house'

The issue in (331-333) involves the use or non-use of the applicative to license a locative role. The pattern in (331), i.e. +A, is the most common: as Table 3.1 shows, in the 530-verb sample, over 71% were found to require the applicative in order to take a locative complement. Six per cent of the verbs belong to the pattern in (332), i.e. -A, in prohibiting the applicative before a locative complement. Twenty per cent of the verbs can access either pattern, +A and -A, as shown in (333), and the choice will usually have semantic significance. There is a fourth pattern involving 16 verbs

(3%) whereby the applicative and the locative prefix are in complementary distribution, as (334) shows.

The choice between the applicative and the locative prefix in (334), i.e. -A or -L, does not carry any significant semantic contrast.

Group	affixes	pattern name	no. of verbs	ક
1	+A +L	+A	378	71
2	+A +L	+A	108	20
	-A +L	-A		
3	-A +L	-A	28	6
4	-A +L	-A	16	3
	+A -L	L		
		Total	530	100

Table 3.1 gives a summary of the patterns.

TABLE 3.1: Morphosyntactic patterns in applied locatives

Note that pattern -L is more significant than the table suggests: in Runyambo, place names are never marked with the locative prefix. With respect to the marking of locative NPs, some Bantu languages e.g. Kiswahili & Gitonga, use the suffix -ni, whereas other languages e.g. Runyambo and Kinyarwanda, use the locative prefixes ha-, ku-, mu-, and icorresponding to classes 16, 17, 18 and 24 of the noun class prefix system respectively (see footnote 3). But Kiswahili is like Runyambo in not marking place names, whereas Gitonga follows the Kinyarwanda pattern and marks place names (Kapinga 1983; Kimenyi 1980; Lanham 1955).

Group 2, 3, and 4 verbs are listed alphabetically in Tables 3.2, 3.3, and 3.4, respectively. All other verbs found in the Appendix but not listed in these tables belong to group 1.

kwânga	refuse	kwaka	burn
kwara	make bed	kubanza	start
kubáza	ask (question)	kubiika	store
kubinga	chase	kubóha	tie
kubúuza	ask (question)	kucáara	visit
kucukura	search	kucumba	cook
kucuncumu	ra jerk	kucúngura	redeem
kúcwa	cut	kucwêra	spit
kweba	forget	kweya	sweep
kúfa	die	kufukunku	ra empty
kufúmura	pierce	kufûnda	be narrow
kufura	wash (clothes)	kugarama	lie on back
kugarura	bring back	kugesa	harvest
kuguruka	jump	kuhanama	climb
kuhandiika	a write	kuhanika	hang
kuheeka	carry	kuhiiga	search/hunt
kuhinda	rouse	kuhunga	flee
kúhwa	be finished	kwîba	steal
kwibika	emerse/dip	kwiha	remove
kwihura	serve food	kwijura	fill up (intr)
kwimuka	rise	kujábika	emerse/dip
kujuba	fish	kukóma	tie
kukômba	lick	kukómera	SOW
kukónora	pull off	kukurura	pull
kukúura	uproot	kumara	finish
kumera	sprout	kumurika	shine/flash
kununka	<pre>sniff/stink</pre>	kunyejera	ascend
kunyurura	pull	kúnywa	drink
kwombeka	build	kupácira	load
kupágasa	work for a wage	kurába	pass
kuragara	drop (intrans)	kurahuka	hurry
kuréga	catch water	kureka	leave alone
kurenga	measure	kurênga	go over
kuronda	search	kuruga	exit

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kúrya	eat	kusáaga	exceed
kusaaruur	a harvest	kusaba	ask/request
kusára	cut	kuséenya	fetch firewood
kusemba	wrap	kusereka	hide
kusíga	leave behind	kusígisa	stir
kusíndika	push	kusoma	read
kusohora	exit	kusômba	fetch repeatedly
kusoroma	harvest	kusoroora	separate
kusuka	pour	kusútura	lift
kusuuma	descend	kuswêra	marry
kúsya	burn (intrans)	kúta	put
kutáha	scoop	kutadama	sit astride
kutânga	forbid;be first	kutéeka	cook
kutéera	hit	kutéma	cut
kutemba	ascend	kutiganda	fetch materials
kutiiza	borrow/lend	kutobera	sink
kutórora	kidnap/take away	kutúma	send
kutwânga	pound	kutwéija	press charges
kutyâza	sharpen	kuzînga	fold
kuzira	avoid	kuzoora	bring out

TABLE 3.2: Group two verbs

kwaya	plunder/take	kubúgana	meet
kwereera	float	kwêma	start
kuheima	gather materials	kwikara	stay
kúja	go	kukúrata	follow
kunága	lose; throw away	kwôna	destroy crops
kuráara	spend night; (of fir	e) go out	
kurambira	stretch out	kurunda	heap
kusagara	accompany	kusaka	fetch food
kusanga	find	kusénjeera	a buy beer
kusiiba	spend time	kusoora	annihalate
kutaaha	go home/enter	kutéékama	perch
kuterebura	a slip off (trans)	kutimba	dig
kutuuma	heap	kutúura	<pre>stay/live</pre>
kutwâra	carry	kuziha	swim
kuziika	bury		

TABLE 3.3: Group three verbs

kubûnga	wander	kubyâma	lie (down)
kucáara	visit	kugoba	reach/arrive
kugwa	fall	kuhika	reach/arrive
kwija	come	kwinama	bend
kujenda	go	kunia	defecate
kunyáara	urinate	kurárama	look up
kuseesa	spill	kusitama	sit
kutánaka	vomit	kutóonya	drip

TABLE 3.4: Group four verbs

# 3.3.2 Semantic patterns

(i) Spatial locative:

What may be called a spatial locative sense consists in locating the action expressed by the verb (335c), or locating a particular participant in the event, in some <u>space</u> (335a,b; 337c). This space could be a specific site of the whole event (336a,b), or the starting point, i.e. source (337a), or the ending point, i.e. destination, of a particular participant (336c, 337b). The specific details about the location of the various participants in the event can only be supplied by the context - crucially the specific verb semantics as well as the nature of the complements and the relationships among these complements in the real world.

- (335)(a) háát ir- á omu-nyungu
  peel A -FV L pot
  'peel into the pot' (destination of bananas)
  - (b) háát ir á **aha rutaro** peel - A - FV L - tray 'peel onto the tray'

(destination of peels or bananas)

(c) háát - ir - á omu - nju
 peel - A - FV L - house
 'peel in the house' (site of whole event)

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- (336)(a) Y kwit ir a X omu nju
  Y kill A FV X L house
  'Y kill X in the house' (site of Y & X or X)
  - (b) Y kwét er -a X omu nju
    Y call A FV X L house
    'Y call X in the house' (site of Y & X or Y)
  - (c) Y kujer- er- á omu- nyanja
    Y flow A FV L sea
    'Y flow into the sea' (destination of Y)
- (337)(a) Y kwih a X omu- nju
  Y remove- FV X L house
  'Y remove X from the house' (source of Y & X or X)
  - (b) Y kutwar a X omu nju
    Y carry FV X L house
    'Y carry X into the house' (destination of Y & X)
  - (c) Y kut- á X aha- mútwe
    Y put -FV X L head
    'Y put X on the head' (site of X)

The spatial locative is the most common sense of the locative role in that most verbs can be construed to carry this meaning or have only this meaning. As (335) shows, for

most verbs (group 1), this sense is obtained with the applicative. For a few verbs (group 3), this sense is available without using the applicative (cf.337).

Extralinguistic context is a crucial factor in the interpretation. In (335), for instance, nothing in the morphosyntax of this group one verb decrees the particular semantic interpretations suggested. Whereas (335a & b) pick out particular participants for locating, in (335c) it is the whole event, including the peeler, the bananas, and the peels, that gets located in the house. But it is our knowledge of the world which rules out the interpretation which would put the peeler in the pot in (335a), or on the tray in (335b). With the group 1 verbs in (336) the morphosyntax can be construed in different ways: in (a) the site of Y may be left unspecified while in (b) it is the site of X that may be left unspecified. Similarly the destination sense in (c) is part of the meaning of the verb kujera 'flow'. The three verbs in (337) show that it is possible to obtain source, destination and site interpretations without using the applicative<sup>8</sup>. Again there is considerable room for construal allowed by the semantics of the verbs kwiha 'remove' and kutwâra 'carry'. If in (337a) Y was in the house with X, then this is a location of the whole event; but if Y was not in the house (consider suitcase) then only the site of X (source) is being specified. In (337b), however, the verb kutwâra 'carry' is understood to imply that both Y (the carrier) and X (the carried) cannot end up in different

destinations, but "site of X" is also possible (consider suitcase again). The verb kuta 'put' in (337c) is understood to specify the site of X.

(ii) Temporal locative:

The most frequent sense obtained with the group 2 verbs consists in a contrast between the spatial locative sense for the -A pattern, and the expression of a broader temporal context of the whole event for +A. Consider (341-342).

(341)(a) garám - á omu-nju lie on back-FV L - house 'lie on the back in the house' (site:spatial locative)

 (b) garám - ir-á omu- nju
 lie on back - A - FV L - house
 'lie on the back when in the house' (temporal locative)

(342)(a) biik - a X omu - nju
store - FV X L - house
'store X in the house' (site: spatial locative)

(b) biic - ir - á X omu -nju
 store - A - FV X L - house
 'store X when in the house' (temporal locative)

The difference between (a) and (b) in (341) & (342) may be captured by saying that (a) is a response to a "where" question while (b) is a response to a "when" question. In the latter case the response does not make reference to conventional time units but to stages relative to the event in question. The temporal location may encompass the period leading up to the specific action, or the period after that action. The connotations may be something like: as early as the time he was in the house he was lying on his back/had stored X; or, not until he got to the house did he lie on his back/store X.<sup>9</sup> Most verbs in group 2 basically subcategorize for a spatial locative, but they may take the applicative which is then construed as licensing a temporal locative. In effect the verbs in group three are those that cannot be construed as taking a temporal locative complement.

### (iii) Participant locative vs event locative:

Some verbs in group 2 make use of the morphosyntactic contrasts available to signal a contrast between locating a particular participant and locating the whole event as shown in (343-344).

(343)(a) teek - á omu- nyungu cook -FV L - pot 'cook in the pot' (site of a participant)

- (b) teec er- á omu-nju cook - A - FV L -house 'cook in the house' (locating whole event)
- (344)(a) semb á omu rubabi
  wrap FV L leaf
  'wrap in a leaf' (site of a participant)
  - (b) semb ér á omu nju
     wrap A FV L house
     'wrap in the house' (locating whole event)

Without the applicative (343a &344a) the locative complement is interpreted as the site of a specific participant in the event. The applicative (343b &344b) serves to bring in a different locative complement that is the site of the whole event.

(iv) Source vs destination:

Some 11 verbs in group 2 make use of the applicative to license a new locative complement that is interpreted as the destination of a participant, by displacing the original locative complement – a source<sup>10</sup> – which is part of the verb's lexical semantic structure. This is illustrated in (345).

(345)(a) furuk - á omu - nju move - FV L - house 'move from the house' (source)

(b) furuc-ir - á omu- nju move - A - FV L - house `move into the house' (destination)

A verb like -fúruka 'move' in (345) is subcategorized for an omissible source locative and the applicative has the effect of licensing a destination locative in the position of the source, not in addition to it. The other verbs with this property are listed in Table 3.5, and are called "displacing verbs".

kubinga	chase	kujuba <sup>a</sup>	fish
kugesa <sup>b</sup>	harvest	kuhákuura	collect honey
kúhwa	be finished	kumara <sup>c</sup>	finish
kusoroma	harvest	kutáha	scoop
kutórora	kidnap/take away	kuyoora	scoop

#### Examples:

a kujubá omunyanja `fish from lake'

kujubirá omucitúkuru 'fish (and put catch) into basket'

- b kugesá omundimiro 'harvest from field' kugeserá omucitúkuru 'harvest into basket'
- c kumará amaarwá omunkáaye 'deplete/finish beer out of gourd' kumarirá amaarwá omunkáaye 'fill all beer into gourd' TABLE 3.5: Displacing verbs

The senses just discussed are the most salient semantic patterns in applied locatives, but there are other minor semantic effects associated with the contrast between the extended and the unextended verb. In a few cases (e.g. kukóma 'tie', kuhíiga 'search', kurába 'pass', kuséenya 'collect firewood', kukóra 'work') there is no semantic difference between the extended and the unextended verb with respect to accommodating a locative complement. In a few others there are semantic differences that are specific to each verb, and these need not detain us here.

## 3.3.3 Semantic groups of verbs

One possible line of enquiry into the nature of the morphosyntactic and semantic patterns available with locative complements is to investigate the relationship, if any, between semantic classes of verbs and the patterns. For instance, it is possible to set up a class of "cooking verbs" that fit example (343) above. These verbs would include kucumba 'cook', kugóya 'cook', kukáranga 'fry', kusígisa 'stir'. Similarly a class of "ascent/descent" verbs, all of them in Group 2, would include kunyejera 'ascend', kutemba 'ascend', kuhanama 'climb', kuragara 'drop', kusuuma 'descend'. Such classes may be suggestive of what to expect of a related vocabulary item but they can be helpful only to the extent that the class is definable with any precision. It is doubtful, however, that a semantic explanation of the

facts is possible<sup>11</sup>. In other words, the question is, what is a "cooking verb" or a "descent/ascent verb" and how does this class differ from the other verb classes in terms of the morphosyntactic and semantic patterns it participates in? Consider examples (343) & (344) above again. If we set up a class of "cooking verbs" for (343), shall we also set up a class of "wrapping verbs" for (344)?

This issue is significant because of the attempts that have been made in the past to set up a class of motion verbs and to analyse the locative patterns in these terms. Trithart (1983:160f) cites several examples to back up the claim that "the most widely described locative applied affix is the **verb of motion + goal locative** context". She notes, however, that there are several locative or motion contexts which may not involve a verb of motion. She suggests that the locative use, but realizing the inconsistencies in the various locative uses across Bantu languages and within single languages, Trithart concludes that other factors, neither lexical nor syntactic, but related to discourse context (e.g. 'dramatic import', 'new information') influence the appearance of the applied affix (p172).

Schadeberg (n.d.:32) is more sanguine about the "verbs of motion" as a class. He maintains that "with these verbs the locative use is especially frequent for obvious reasons" although he does not state those reasons. He goes on to claim that

The unextended verbs of motion indicate a movement either with or without implying a direction relative to the initial position of the movement. For example, the Ganda verb ddukshould be glossed as 'run off, run away from'. A locative expression accompanying such a verb specifies the place where the action starts. But, movements occur in space, and if they are linear then the need may arise to specify the terminal point. The starting point[,] usually understood in such situations, [...] can be left unmentioned. The use of the applicative extension in such circumstances signals that the locative expression does not refer to the primary place of the action.

Emanatian (1991:304) suggests that in interpreting the 'applicative object' it is possible to generalize over semantic classes of verbs and maintains that "motion verbs - and not cognition verbs or existential verbs - take goal applicative objects".

The basic intuition that these scholars seek to capture is that if a verb already encodes the idea of movement as in "come", "go", and "run", then the applicative will be dispensed with since it is the marker of movement in other verbs. But even while assuming the correctness of the assertion that the applicative is a marker of movement, the problem is whether it is possible to make a precise characterization of the notion "motion verb". The difficulty inherent in such an enterprise is visible in Trithart's (1983:160) attempt: "the verbs of motion are primarily 'leave' or 'come'; non-motion verbs are 'eat' or 'drink'". But was Trithart unaware of the fact that eating and drinking involve the movement of something from outside the body into the body normally via the mouth? Indeed it is possible to construe at least one participant in the event described by any verb as potentially mobile, and in this sense all verbs are potentially motion verbs. Consider (346 -347).

(346)(a) Y kugarama omu -nju 'Y lie on the back in the house'

(b) Y kugaram -ir -a omu-muhânda'Y lie on the back when on the way'

(347)(a) Y kwaka omu -nju 'Y burn in the house'

(b) Y kwac -ir - a omu -nju'Y burn when in the house'

In (346a) Y lies on his back in the house (spatial locative). In (346b), however, Y is perhaps travelling in a truck and lies on his back at some point on the way. Similarly in (347a) the fire burns in the house (spatial locative), whereas in (347b) there is an understanding that since fire does not make itself burn (does not light itself), some other participant Z was responsible for starting the fire and moving with it to or from the house (temporal locative). It could be that Z was trying to start the fire when he was outside the house but finally succeeded when he got into the house. Or it could be that Z did start the fire when he was in the house and then moved out of the house with it. The

important consideration is that at one point in time the fire was not in the house. In (348) the examples in (346b) and (347b) are reproduced with the "underlying" participants in the glosses.

- (348)(a) Y ku-garam-ir-a omu-muhânda 'Y lie on the back [in the truck] when on the way'
  - (b) Y kw-ac-ir-a omu-nju
    - 'Y (fire) burn when [Z still was/finally got with it] in the house'

The participants that are construed as being in motion in (348) (the truck and Z) cannot be represented in the construction but they indispensable for are the interpretation of the sentences. And since there is at least one participant that is in motion, the two verbs, kugarama 'lie on the back' and kwaka 'burn', should be classified as motion verbs. But by this criterion any verb is potentially a motion verb. From this perspective the notion of "motion verb" may be even less useful than narrow notions like "cooking verb" and "ascent/descent verb"! Two points need to be noted here. First, at least for Runyambo, there is no useful definition of a semantic class of "motion verbs". Second, whatever provisional definition one adopts for such a class, there are no generalisations to be made with respect to the semantic patterns discussed in section 3.3.2, or the

morphosyntactic patterns presented in section 3.3.1. In general, then, such classifications as "motion verb" or "cooking verb" do not facilitate the analysis of the applicative extension.

3.4 Argument structure and argument differentiation

In this section I will argue that the applicative creates an extra argument position for the host verb, and that we do not need the elaborate and hierarchical thematic role inventory in analysing it. This will set the stage for the argument, to be developed in chapter four (section 4.3.3), that the search for the "basic meaning" of the applicative is misdirected.

According to LFG theory, the applicative extension is a lexical item with its own argument structure which it fuses into the argument structure of the verb to which it is suffixed. In this way the applicative adds a new thematic role to the thematic structure of the verb, below the highest role (cf Bresnan & Moshi 1990). This accommodates the observation that the applicative does not introduce an agent. In addition, the thematic hierarchy restricts the types of thematic roles that the applicative can introduce in any thematic structure:

with verbs whose highest thematic role can only be interpreted as a patient, the only possible applied argument is a locative, as it is the only thematic role lower than the patient, which is the case with verbs of involuntary motion like.fall.. (Alsina 1990:36) The data in (349-350) make this hierarchy-based analysis difficult to sustain.

- (349) Yesu a ka- fe -er- á abantu
  Jesus he PST-die -A -FV people
  (patient) (beneficiary)
  'Jesus died for the people'<sup>12</sup>
- (350) enjúra e ka- gw -er á abarimi
  rain it-PST- fall- A -FV farmers
  (theme) (beneficary)
  'rain fell for the farmers'

In both (349) & (350) the applicative introduces a beneficiary in a structure that already has a patient/theme role. This casts doubt on the appropriateness of the conventional thematic role hierarchies. As was demonstrated in section 3.2 above, the applicative argument is amenable to a wide range of interpretations, but these interpretations are always made within a given linguistic and extralinguistic context. What is invariable is the fact that the applicative creates one more argument position for the verb it attaches to. Accordingly the crucial function of the applicative should appropriately be characterized as increasing a verb's valence by fusing its argument slot into the argument structure of the host verb. Consider (351-152).

- (351)(a) Kató a ka-biik á ensimbí (omu mufuko) kato he-PST-store-FV money (L - pocket) 'Kato stored the money in the pocket'
  - (b) Kató a -ka -biic-ir- a Kakúrú ensimbí (omu-mufuko) Káto he-PST-store-A-FV kakúru money (L- pocket) Káto stored money for Kákúru (in the pocket)'
  - (c) Kató a -ka biic -ir- á ensimbí omu-muhânda káto he-PST- store-A -FV money L -path 'Káto stored the money when on the path'

(d) \*Kató a-ka-biic-ir-á ensimbí omu-mufukó omu-muhânda
(e) kubíika 'store' :Y, X, [Z] + -ir:B->kubíícira:Y, X, [Z], B

The verb kubiika 'store' is a group 2 verb that takes an omissible participant locative without requiring the applicative (351a). The applicative may be used to license a beneficiary (351b), or a temporal locative (351c), but not both a participant locative and a temporal locative (351d). In (351e) this is summarized by representing kubiika 'store' as a verb that has three argument positions one of which is omissible; this argument structure fuses with that of the applicative, which has one argument positions. Note that the omissible fourth constituent will only be available if no other constituent instantiates a locative role (cf 351b vs

351d)<sup>13</sup>. In other words no two positions can be assigned a similar role. This is essentially the same restriction expressed as the Theta Criterion of GB and the Function-Argument Biuniqueness Principle of LFG (Chomsky 1981, Horrocks 1987). But note that in (352) biuniqueness has been violated.

- (352)(a) Kató a- ka- t á ecitabó aha- ntébe
  Káto he-PST-put-FV book L chair
  'Káto put a book on the chair'
  - (b) \*Kató (ecitabo) a -ka -ci-te -er-á omu-muhânda
     Káto (book) he-PST-it-put- A-FV L -path
     'Kato put it (the book) when on the path'
  - (c) Kató (ecitabo) a-ka -ci-te-er- á abajenyí aha-ntébe
     Káto (book) he-PST-it-put-A-FV guests L -chair
     'Káto put it (the book) on the chair for the guests'
  - (d) 'Kató (ecitabó) (aha-ntébe) a-ka -ci-te -er- a-hó Káto (book) (L -chair) he-PST-it-put-A -FV-LC omu-muhânda L - path 'Káto put it (the book) there (on the chair) when on the path'
    (e) \*Kató (ecitabo) a - ka - ci - te - er - á

aha- ntébé **omu -muhânda** 

(f) kúta 'put': Y, X, Z + -ir:B -> kutéera:Y, X, Z, B

Kúta 'put' is a group 2 verb with a non-omissible participant locative<sup>14</sup> (352a vs 352b; chair cannot be omitted). The applicative may be used to license a beneficiary (352c) or a temporal locative (352d), in which case the participant locative must be replaced by a locative clitic and cannot appear in postverbal position (352e). In (352f) kúta 'put' is represented as a verb with three argument positions which are increased to four by fusing with the applicative position.

The representations in (351e) and (352f) are unordered sets of variables with no meaning attached to them; the random and non-alphabetical arrangement is deliberate. The brackets on Z signal the omissibility of one constituent. As already noted, argument structure contains the crucial information regarding the number of arguments or positions available to the predicate. The information concerning what roles and phrase types can fill these slots is contained in the lexical semantic structure. Therefore there is nothing to distinguish the argument structure of kúta 'put' from that of kúha 'give'. Both have three positions in their argument structures. But the semantic structure specifies that kúta 'put' requires a 'putter' (agent), a 'puttee' (theme) and a site (locative), while kúha 'give' requires a 'giver' (agent), a 'gift' (theme), and a 'recipient' (beneficiary).

Both (351) and (352) show that as the number of arguments increases, the restrictions on what forms (expressions) can fill those argument positions become more and more strict (specific). This continues up to a point where there are no options left, i.e. no more means for realizing and differentiating arguments. But as (352) clearly shows, it is not proper to formulate such restrictions in terms of biuniqueness, since in this example, there are indeed two locative arguments in the same predicate structure. These arguments are distinguished by their forms of realization: one is a locative clitic (LC), and the other is a locative NP. Still, it is important to note that it is not mere morphological similarity of the complements in (351d) and (352e) that disgualifies these constructions. For it is possible to have two morphologically similar constituents, one filling an argument position, and the other being a mere adjunct, as (353) shows.

- (353)(a) a ka bar- á ensimbí <u>omu círo</u> (adjunct) he-PST -count-FV money L -night 'he counted money at night'
  - (b) \*a- ka- bar- á ensimbí <u>omu nju</u> (argument) he-PST-count-FV money L -house 'he counted money in the house'

- (c) \*a ka- bar- ir á ensimbí omu- círo he- PST-count-A - FV money L - night 'he counted money at night'
- (d) a -ka bar -ir- á ensimbí omu-njú (omu-círo)
   he-PST-count-A -FV money L -house (L -night)
   'he counted the money in the house (at night)'

Kubara 'count' is a group 1 verb which requires the applicative to license a locative complement. Without the applicative it is only possible to add a time adjunct to the sentence (353a), but not a locative argument (353b). With the applicative, the extra third argument position cannot be filled by a time adjunct (353c), but may be filled by a locative argument (353d). Note that the morphology of <u>omunju</u> 'in the house' is similar to that of <u>omuciro</u> 'in the night', which raises a question that is worth considering at this point, concerning the type of constituents that can fill argument positions. This is a particularly important question because of the role that has been given to matters of form, in the literature, in drawing the distinction between argument and adjunct.

According to Alsina (1992,1993) "obliques are always and only the expression of adjuncts", which are "optional by definition". By "obliques" is meant marked NPs (prepositional phrases and case-marked nouns), which in Runyambo consists of the L-marked NPs. It has already been shown that a full

unmarked NP, a pronominal prefix (i.e. a prestem affix, cf.305), an NP marked with the locative prefix (324), and a locative clitic alone (301) or in conjunction with a pronominal prefix (302), can fill an argument position. But not all NPs marked with the locative prefix can fill an argument position, as (353c-d) show. A distinction needs to be made within L-marked NPs.

omucíro	at night
aharwakána	on Thursday i.e. on the fourth day
omumwâka	in the year
omumwêzi	in the month
omwihângwe	in the day(time)
omukaséese	in the morning
omucanda	in the dry season

TABLE 3.6: Time expressions (adjuncts)

omunju	in the house
omumwírima	in the dark
omunsi	in the country
ahansi	below/down/on the ground
omumwêzi	on the moon
aheiguru	above/high
aharubaju	on the side

TABLE 3.7: Spatial expressions (arguments)

Table 3.6 shows the L-marked NPs that cannot fill argument positions but can only appear as adjuncts. These are time expressions which include day and night and divisions thereof, days of the week, months, years, and seasons. Table 3.7 gives spatial expressions and it is this type of constituents that fill argument positions. This distinction is made in semantic terms and recalls the thematic role labels that were discussed in section 3.2.5 and 3.3.2. The durative role can only be realized by expressions of duration, and these need not be L-marked NPs (325). The temporal locative role can be realized by spatial expressions of the type in Table 3.7, as well as place names. The latter are never L-marked in Runyambo. In sum, only L-marked NPs expressing points or periods in time<sup>15</sup> cannot fill argument positions and cannot be assigned participant roles. This in effect means that there is a definable but very small class

of linguistic elements that function as adjuncts in Runyambo, and that, contrary to Alsina's position, not all obliques function as adjuncts. This situation may be contrasted with that of languages like English where the same linguistic phrase may be an argument in one construction (e.g. he lives in Paris), but an adjunct in another construction (e.g. he died <u>in Paris</u>).

A final question concerning the distinction between arguments and adjuncts revolves around the cooccurrence of adjuncts. Cooccurrence is generally considered a distinctive feature for adjuncts on the basis of facts from languages like English (e.g. he wrote a poem on a piece of paper in English with a red pen). But cooccurrence is also possible with arguments as long as these multiple realizations are construed as filling one argument position, as shown in (354-356).

- (354) (a) a- ka -gamb-ir- á omu-nju aha-rwakaná omu-círo he-PST-speak-A-FV L -house L -Thursday L-night
   'he spoke in the house on Thursday at night'
  - (b) a -ka-gamb-ir- á **omu-nju** omu-ciró aha-rwakána
- (355)(a) a -ka -gamb -ir- á omu-mótoká omu-ngudo he-PST-speak-A -FV L -car L -road 'he spoke in the car on the road'
  - (b) a -ka gamb-ir-á omu-ngudó omu-mótoka
     'he spoke on the road in the car'

# (356) a -ka-gamb -ir-á abáaná abarúmuná abakázi he-PST-speak-A-FV children brothers wives 'he spoke to clansmen, brothers, wives'.

Two adjuncts can appear in either order (354). Similarly in (355) the two locative complements can appear in either order, filling one argument position in the same way that the noun phrases in (356) fill one argument position. The condition that each cooccurring phrase be construed as filling the same position also applies to adjuncts even though it is not usually acknowledged, the assumption being that there are no adjunct slots to speak of, that adjuncts are obtained free of charge as it were. Note though that each cooccurring adjunct, as is the case with arguments, has to be self-sufficient in the sense that it cannot be interpreted as being dependent on a previous or following adjunct. It may thus be appropriate to posit the existence of a single adjunct slot in the clause.

# 3.5 Summary

The applicative increases, by one, the argument positions of the verb with which it is fused. The variety of thematic roles that may be assigned to this argument position include beneficiary, subjective, motive, locative, temporal, and the neutral role. The various senses of the locative are realized via a number of morphosyntactic patterns which

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involve the use or non-use of the applicative. These senses involve such distinctions as locating the action in space or in time, locating the whole event or a participant in the event, and designating the source or the destination of a participant. It has been shown that the number of argument positions for each verb is strictly enforced but that it is possible to have two instances of the same thematic role in a given predicate structure. And finally it was shown that there is only a small class of time expressions and manner adverbs that may be added to a construction as adjuncts but which cannot fill argument positions. All other marked and unmarked NPs may be assigned roles and fill argument positions.

## NOTES TO CHAPTER THREE

1 Note that for Guthrie (1962:104f) there are three different affixes - applicative, directive, and instrumental - which happen to have the same shape: "a different function must always be recognized as a sign of a different extension"

2 Tuggy (1988) shows that one morpheme in Nahuatl performs 'applicative' and 'causative' functions. In the spirit of the Trithart account this morpheme should be called 'applicative'. Perhaps the distinction between causatives and applicatives is warranted in Bantu where these are marked by two distinct extensions. But even in this case there is the

possibility that the two extensions are historically descended from a single suffix (cf Trihart 1983:97), and as will be argued here, causative and applicative extensions perform the same syntactic function, viz. expanding the argument structure of a verb.

3 The clitic -mu originates from class 18 of the nominal class prefix system (see Trithart 1977 for a description of comparable facts in Ruhaya). A third locative clitic -yo, is associated with the class 17 nominal class prefix in Runyambo. But it appears to have originated from the ilocative prefix found in a few languages (e.g. Kinyarwanda, cf. Kimenyi 1980) and variously assigned to a class 19, 24, or 25 (cf Gregoire 1975).

4 Henceforth all NPs and pronominal prefixes licensed by the applicative and the causative will be in bold face.

5 Indeed Mchombo (1992) proposes a hierarchy in which his 'malefactive' role is almost at the bottom while the beneficiary is only second from the top: agent>beneficiary>goal/experiencer>instrument>patient/theme>

locative>malefactive>circumstancial

6 No applicative is involved in constructions equivalent to English 'V for x hours' 7 See Cherry (1992) for a discussion of concepts of animacy and embodiment and how they are represented in language.

8 It is worth noting though that source interpretations are typically obtained without the applicative.

9 Kimenyi 1980:37 described the contrast in terms of old vs new information: "The semantic difference between a [without the -ir- suffix] and the <u>b</u> sentences with the suffix -ir- is that in the former everything is new, whereas in the latter everything except the locative NP is old information. The -ir- suffix is always used in sentences which answer questions that ask where the action took place". While the new vs old information could be an appropriate characterization, Kimenyi's last sentence in this quote must be an oversight. For it is in the a versions that the where question (as well as who and what) arises, while the <u>b</u> versions answer the when question.

10 Schadeberg (n.d.) has suggested that such verbs should be glossed with the appropriate English preposition to indicate the direction of movement, e.g. kufúruka 'move from'.

11 See Fillmore (1986:98) on the limitations of semantic classification: "There are certain semantic groupings of

predicates that allow the two kinds of complement omission [indefinite omissible and definite omissible], but a genuine semantic explanation does not appear to be forthcoming"

12 See comparable data in Chichewa (Alsina & Mchombo 1990b:501)

13 See the discussion on causee omission in the next chapter.

14 Other verbs with non-omissible participant locatives include kwêma 'commence', kwiha 'remove', kuja 'go', kuruga 'leave', kutaaha 'enter', kurába 'pass', kusanga 'find'/'come upon'

15 To this we may add the adverbs bwangu 'quickly', mpóra 'slowly', bwémi 'upright', kúbi 'badly', kurunji 'nicely', and the clitic -je 'nicely'.

#### CHAPTER FOUR

## THE CAUSATIVE

## 4.0 Introduction

This chapter deals with the other transitivizing suffix, the causative. Section 4.1 discusses the various forms of the extension and their distribution in Runyambo. The semantic roles associated with the extension are presented in section 4.2. In section 4.3 it is argued that the causative extension is a valency increaser distinguishable from the applicative by the fact that it licenses an actor while the applicative licenses a nonactor role. The conclusion in section 4.4 states that this distinction provides a basis for an analytical framework that makes use of only these two thematic macro-roles in stating grammatical generalizations, instead of the detailed and hierarchical semantic role inventories in various current theories.

## 4.1 Forms of the Causative Extension

Like many other Bantu languages, Runyambo has two forms of what is generally called the causative extension, viz. -;and -is;-. Schadeberg (n.d:27f) provides an excellent summary of the "conflicting historical explanations [that] have been offered to account for the complex present distribution of the causative suffixes". The controversy has usually revolved around the question of whether we should reconstruct one causative extension or two for Proto-Bantu, and the related

question of which of the two forms is older. By focussing on the patterns of distribution, Bastin's (1986) detailed and extensive investigation has provided strong support for the reconstruction of two suffixes, even if the shape of the reconstructions themselves remains uncertain:

...l'usage des suffixes \*;c; et \*; était en première lieu déterminé par le contexte formel en protobantou. Le suffixe polyphone était obligatoire après voyelle tandis qu'après consonne le suffixe monophone était utilisé de manière reguliere. (p.130) [The use of the suffixes \*;c; and \*; was in the first place determined by the formal context in Proto-Bantu. The polyphonic suffix was obligatory after a vowel whereas after a consonant the monophonic suffix was used in a regular manner.]

This complementary distribution is illustrated in Table 4.1 where only the -is; - causative is available, and in Table 4.2 with verbs that appear to have -; - as the primary causative suffix.

kugwa	'fall'	kugwisa	'cause to fall'
kúcwa	'cut'	kucwîsa	'cause to cut'
kuja	' go '	kujiisa	'cause to go'
kusa	'grind'	kuseisa	'cause to grind'
kúca	'dawn'	kucéisa .	'cause to dawn'

TABLE 4.1: -is; - causative in CV roots

As Table 4.1 shows, the .CV roots take the -is;causative only (see Table 1.2 in chapter one for a complete list of the CV roots and their causative and applicative

derivations).

Basic stem	-i- derivation	-is;- derivation
kutaaha	kutaasya	kutaahisa
enter	take in	go home by means of
kwaka	kwaaca	kwaacisa
be aflame	set aflame	burn in some manner
kwôga	kwôja	kwójesa
wash (intr)	wash (tr)	cause to wash
kwîta	kwîsa	kwítisa
kill/catch	cause to kill	cause to catch
kwenda	kwenza	kwendesa
like/want	demand	cause to like
kukúra	kukúza	n.a
grow	raise	
kurába	kurábya	kurábisa
pass/be fruitfu	1. cause to pass	cause to be fruitful
kuguma	kugumya	kugumisa
be hard	make firm	make hard
	(character)	(substance)

TABLE 4.2: -;- and -is;- causatives in C-final roots

The consonant-final roots in Table 4.2 take the -;causative. With the exception of r-final roots, they may also take the -is;- causative, in which case there will usually be

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a different sense, so that the two derivations are not synonymous.<sup>1</sup> This means that the complementary distribution is perfect only in the case of r-final roots. The question that arises here is what factors led to the blurring of this complementarity. It appears that the basic factor was the loss of distinctiveness among the various forms as a result of the consonant alternations initiated by the -;- causative. These final-consonant alternations are shown in Table 4.2 above:  $h \rightarrow sy; k \rightarrow c; g \rightarrow j; t \rightarrow s; r/d \rightarrow z; b \rightarrow by;$ m -> my. The resulting blurring of the distinctiveness is best illustrated with the Kiswahili data in Table 4.3. The claim here is that this development affected all the Bantu languages at some early stage in their development.

Basic stem	-;- derivation	-is;- derivation
1 pita	pisha	pitisha
pass	give way	cause to pass
pika	*pisha	pikisha
cook	-	cause to cook
piga	*pisha	pigisha
hit	-	cause to hit
2 pata	pasha	patisha
get	cause to get (news)	cause to get
paka	*pasha	pakisha
smear	-	cause to smear
3 oga	osha	ogesha
wash (intr)	wash (tr)	cause to wash
oka	*osha	okesha
bake	-	cause to bake
ota	*osha	otesha
dream/sprout	-	cause to dream/sprout
4 waka	washa	*wakisha
be aflame	set aflame	-
anguka	angusha	*angukisha
fall	cause to fall	-

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As Table 4.3 shows, in Kiswahili, the consonant alternations brought about by -;- are: k,g,t  $-> \int$ . But because of the potential mergers, the use of -;- is selective. In the first three groups of verbs in the table the use of -i- after /k/, /g/ and /t/ is blocked whenever this would result in a merger and create confusion. In the fourth group there are no minimal pairs (\*wata, \*waqa; \*anguta, \*anguga) that would be the source of confusion, and so the -;- forms are available, but not the -is;- forms. In short then, it may be concluded that it was the need to avoid the potential confusion arising from the consonant mergers initiated by -;- that worked in favor of the -is;- causative: since this form of the suffix did not induce any of these consonant alternations -is; - could be relied upon to preserve the requisite distinctiveness. In this way -is; - acquired a measure of regularity and productivity not previously available to it.

Recall from Table 4.2 that the -i- causative has the effect, roughly, of palatalizing and/or spirantizing the preceding consonant. Now what would happen to roots ending in the "new consonants" which did not exist in Proto-Bantu<sup>2</sup> and which appear to have been by-products of the consonant alternation process? Table 4.4 shows that the potential conflict, again, was resolved by regularizing the -isi-causative.

Basic stem	-is;- derivation	
kugaya 'snub'	kugayisa 'cause to snub'	
kugóya 'cook'	kugóyesa 'cause to cook'	
kucânca 'get busy'	kucáncisa 'cause to get busy'	
kumânca 'wander'	kumáncisa 'cause to wander'	
kubeija 'carve'	kubeijesa 'cause to carve'	
kwija 'come'	kwizisa 'cause to come'	
kusígisa 'stir'	kusígisisa 'cause to stir'	
kuhéesa 'forge'	kuhéésesa 'cause to forge'	
kubáza 'ask'(question)	kubázisa 'cause to ask'	
kubúuza 'ask' (question)	kubúúzisa 'cause to ask'	
kuzaana 'play'	kuzaanisa 'cause to play'	
kutíina 'fear'	kutíínisa 'cause to fear'	
kufúnya 'fold'	kufúnyisa 'cause to fold'	
kunyúunya 'suck'	kunyúúnyisa 'cause to suck'	

TABLE 4.4: -is;- causative in "new consonants"

The derived or "new consonants" /y, c, j, z/ and /s/, as well as the dental and palatal nasals /n/ and / $\tilde{n}$ /<sup>3</sup>, can only take the -is;- causative. It should be noted here that we are not committed to the view that every occurrence of the "new consonants" is to be traced to the consonant alternation process initiated by -;-. The important point here is that the expanded consonant inventory, whatever the source of that expansion was, disturbed the existing equilibrium and made it difficult for consonant alternation to be maintained in its original form.

In short, the net result of the selective use of -;- in

order to preserve relevant distinctions is that the -is;causative has become the regular and productive form of the causative while the -;- causative is more idiosyncratic and more likely to be encountered in archaic senses. Still, compared to the more idiosyncratic and restricted occurrence of the -;- causative in some languages (such as Kiswahili), in Runyambo this form is still fairly widespread. Table 4.5 summarizes the relevant data.

Suffix form	Number of verbs
-is;- only	216
-;- only	194ª
Both -;- and -is;-	28
Total	438

a 37 of these verbs do not have r/d as final consonant, which means that there are 28+37 = 65 -;- causative forms without a /z/ ending in the sample

TABLE 4.5: Distribution of -;- and -is;- causative forms

In the verb sample there are altogether 438 verbs that take the causative extension. Of these, 216 (i.e. 49.3%) take -is;- only, while 194 (i.e 44.3%) take -;-. The vast majority of this latter group (157) have /r/ as the final consonant. Only 28 verbs (i.e. 6.4%) take both forms of the extension.

The surface form of the long causative in most cases is -is- or -es- and will be represented in this way in most of

the examples here. But there is sufficient evidence to show the presence of a superclose front vowel -;- (cf Trithart 1977). Runyambo has two such pieces of evidence in this regard. The first involves the appearance of the passive suffix after the causative as shown in (401).

- (401) a) bón es-;- a -> bónesa 'cause to see'
  - b) bón u a -> bónwa 'be seen'
    c) bón es -; u a -> bónesibwa 'be caused to see'
    \*bóneswa, \*bónesiwa

The superclose vowel in (401a) is deleted before the final vowel. In (401b) the passive extension -u- turns into a glide before the final vowel. When the passive cooccurs with the causative as in (401c), the consonant /b/ is inserted before the passive in order to break up the threevowel sequence, and as a result, the superclose vowel is preserved. Note that this vowel is not subject to vowel harmony.

The second piece of evidence is presented in (402) which shows that the applicative extension -ir-/-er- appears between the two parts of the causative -is-i-.

The derived forms in (402) show that there is a superclose vowel that mutates the consonant in the applicative  $(r \rightarrow z)$ and support the position that the long form of the causative suffix is composite and discontinuous. For the purposes of this discussion, however, I will ignore the details of the underlying forms and only include the superclose vowel in the examples when it actually appears in the surface forms. The consequence of this is that in giving a morpheme by morpheme gloss, the history of the mutated consonants such as the /z/in (402) above will not be pursued.

### 4.2 Causative Thematic Roles

The causative suffix is associated with two broad thematic roles, viz. the causee and the instrument roles. In addition an attitudinal interpretation, dubbed the 'subjective role' is also available.

4.2.1 Causee role

There are two closely related senses of the causee, manipulatee and helpee (comitative), as illustrated in (403-405).

(403) som - és - a Namará ecitabo
read- C -FV Namara book
a) 'make Namara read a book'
b) 'help Namara read a book' i.e. read with her

(404) kom - es - á Namará énku
tie - C - FV Namára firewood
a) 'make Namára tie firewood'
b) 'help Namára tie firewood' i.e. tie with her

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(405) ri - is - á abajenyi
```

eat- C - FV guests

- a) 'cause the guests to eat' i.e. feed them
- b) 'help the guests to eat' i.e. eat with them

The (a) interpretations in (403-405) illustrate the manipulatee sense in which the participant in question carries out the action described by the verb under some kind of control or instigation from another participant who does not take part in the said action. The (b) interpretations however illustrate the helpee sense in which both the causee and the causer take part in the action of the verb together. Note though that even in the case of the manipulatee sense the amount of control attributable to the causer may vary with the verb or with the noun phrase filling the actual position. For instance in (405a) the sense involves making it possible for guests to eat i.e. setting them up for a meal. If instead of abajenyi 'guests', we had abáana 'children', it would also be possible to construe a situation in which someone physically puts food in their mouths. As (405a) stands we are assuming the guests are adults who do not need

to be physically/force fed.

The semantics of individual verbs may not allow the distinction between manipulatee and helpee senses to be made. This is illustrated in (406-408).

(406) caaz - á abajenyi
visit+C-FV guests
'take the guests around'

(407) koroz - á omurwéire cough+C-FV patient `make a patient cough'

(408) yeg -es -á omwána learn-C-FV child 'teach a child'

Only the helpee sense is available in (406), while in (407-408) only the manipulatee sense is available.

4.2.2 Instrument role

The various senses of the instrument role viz. tool, means, and manner, are illustrated in (409-413).

(409) nywe -is -á oruséce drink-C- FV straw 'drink with a straw' (tool) (410) háát - is -á **omúsyo** peel - C -FV knife 'peel with a knife' (tool)

The causative in (409) and (410) licenses arguments (straw and knife) that are interpreted as tools.

(411) jenz - á **amaguru** go+C -FV legs 'go on foot' (means)

(412) somb -es -á egáari carry-C -FV bicycle 'carry by bicycle' (means)

In (411)-(412) the arguments licensed by the causative (amaguru and egáari) are interpreted as means.

- (413)a) gamb -is -á eciniga speak-C -FV anger 'speak with anger' (manner)
  - b) vuj is á amáani
     ríde- C FV force
     'ride with force' (manner)

The arguments licensed by the causative in (413) are interpreted as the manner sense of the instrument role. In general these labels are dependent on the nature of the entity to which the noun phrase filling the position in question refers. As such the distinctions among the senses in (409)-(413) are of little consequence.

4.2.3 Subjective role

As with the applicative, the causative extension too can license an argument position without a substantive participant role to go with it. This is what is called the subjective role because it signals the speaker's attitude or point of view. This is illustrated in (414).

(414) a - ka- • - som - es- á ecitabo she-PST-RF -read - C - FV book 'she pretended to read a book'

The argument position created by the causative extension in (414) must be filled by the reflexive affix. The semantic effect is to express the speaker's disapproval of the actor's behavior - pretending to read a book instead of attending to some other pertinent issue.

The foregoing discussion has shown, once more, the role of construal in the interpretation of the various senses of the causee and instrument roles. In the next subsection I

will show that even the distinction between causee and instrument has no specific linguistic marking, but that it is dependent on the meaning of the verb as well as the meanings of the constituents that realize particular participant roles.

## 4.2.4 Causee vs instrument

The causative suffix introduces one argument that is interpreted as causee or as instrument. There is no possibility of there being in the same predicate structure both a causee and an instrument. As such there is no basis, in the morphology of the verb, for a distinction between causee and instrument. What is required is a mechanism for identifying the constituent realizing the 'causative role' in any construction. The examples in (415)-(417) show that the mechanism relies on the semantics of the verb as well as the semantics of the individual constituents that realize the verb's participant roles.

- (415) a) a ka mu kom es á énku
  he-PST her tie C FV firewood
  'he made her tie the firewood'
  b) a ka mu kom es -á omuguha
  - he-PST -her tie C -FV rope 'he tied her with a rope' \*'he made her tie a rope'

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In (415a) -mu- 'her' is assigned the causee role on the understanding that enku 'firewood' is the thing that is tied (theme), a role required by the semantic structure of the basic verb kóma 'tie'. But in (415b) omuguha 'rope' is assigned the instrument role (the thing with which you tie), which leaves -mu- 'her' as the theme (the person tied).

- (416) a) a ka mu tem es- á omuti he-PST - her- cut - C - FV tree 'he made/helped her cut a tree' \*'he cut her with a tree'
  - b) a ka mu tem es- á ecísyo he-PST - her- cut - C - FV machete 'he cut her with a machete' \*he made her cut a machete'

The interpretations in (416) are based on the understanding that omuti 'tree' is the thing that is cut (theme), not the thing with which one cuts (instrument), while ecisyo 'machete' is understood as the thing with which one cuts (instrument), not the thing that is cut.

(417) a) a - ka - handiic - is -á ebarúha he-PST - write - C -FV letter 'he had [someone] write a letter' (causee omission)

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b) a -ka - handiic - is - á ekaráamu he-PST- write - C -FV pen 'he wrote with a pen' \*'he had someone write a pen'

An example of causee omission<sup>4</sup> is given in (417a): a letter is something you write (theme), not something you write with (instrument). In (417b) we have an instance of theme omission (unspecified object deletion in LFG, or indefinite null instantiation in Construction Grammar): a pen is not the theme (something you write), but the instrument.

To recapitulate: the distinction between causee and instrument is not linguistically marked in the same way as, for instance, locatives are distinguished from non-locatives (see chapter three), or the way applicative roles are distinguished from causative roles. In the next section I dwell on the latter distinction and argue that it provides the basis for a theory that recognises only two thematic roles.

#### 4.3 Argument Structure and Argument Differentiation

## 4.3.1 Valency increaser

Like the applicative, the causative extension increases the valency of a verb by creating one extra slot in the verb's argument structure. This is illustrated in (418)-

(420).

- (418) a) Kató a- ka -gw á [omu- méizi]
  Káto he- PST-fall-FV L water
  'Káto fell in the water'
  - b) Kató a- ka- gw -is -á omutí [omu- méizi]
     Káto he-PST-fall-C -FV tree L water
     'Káto felled the tree into the water'
  - c) kugwa 'fall': Y, [Z]+ -is-: T -> kugwisa: Y, [Z],T

The verb kugwa 'fall' has two argument positions one of which is omissible (418a). Recall from Table 3.4 (chapter 3) that this is one of the verbs on which the applicative alternates with the locative prefix when a locative complement is involved. Without the applicative the locative complement is omissible; with the applicative, the bare noun phrase must fill the slot. The causative in (418b) creates a third argument position. The representation in (418c) states that the two arguments of the verb fuse with the argument of the causative extension to form a structure with three arguments.

(419) a) a - ka- beij - á obwâto he-PST- carve-FV canoe' 'he carved a canoe'

- b) a ka beij es -á omwáná obwáto he-PST - carve- C -FV child canoe 'he made the child carve a canoe'
- c) kubeija 'carve':Y, X + -es-: T -> kubeijesa: Y, X, T

The verb kubeija 'carve' has two arguments, both of which are non-omissible (419a). A third argument is added to this argument structure by the causative (419b). This is represented in (419c) which shows that the two arguments of the base verb fuse with the causative argument to form a three-place argument structure.

- (420) a) a -ka -hend -á omwáná [omugôngo] he-PST-break-FV child back 'he broke the child's back'
  - b) a -ka henz -á omwáná emirino . he-PST-break+C -FV child work 'he broke the child with work'
  - c) a ka m penz á omwáná [omugôngo] he-PST - me-break+C-FV child back 'he made me break the child's back'

 d) \*a- ka - henz - á omwáná omugóngó emirimo he-PST- break+C-FV child back work
 'he broke the child's back with work'

e) kuhênda 'break':Y,X,[Z]+ -;-:T -> kuhênza:Y,X,[Z],T

The verb kuhênda 'break' has three arguments, one of which is omissible (420a). Only a body part (an inalienable part of one of the other two participants)<sup>5</sup> can fill this position, although other verbs with omissible arguments e.g. kutéeka 'cook' (see example 428 below), kúrya 'eat', kufura 'wash (clothes)', take constituents other than the body part type. Non-omissible arguments can be increased by means of the causative (420b). If the omissible argument has been filled this valency increase is possible only under restricted conditions: the fourth argument can only be a first person pronominal prefix (420c), but not a postverbal noun phrase (420d). The representation in (420e) states that the threeplace argument structure of this verb can be expanded to four thanks to the causative.

As an example of an argument structure in which all four arguments are non-omissible consider (421).

(421) a) a -ka - siig -á omwáná ebyondo he-PST-smear-FV child mud 'he smeared the child with mud' 123

b) a - ka- bi - mu - siij -is- á eciníga he-PST- it - her- smear-C - FV anger 'he smeared it on her with anger'

```
c) kusiiga 'smear':Y,X,Z + -is-:T -> kusiijisa:Y,X,Z,T
```

Kusiiga 'smear' is a verb with three non-omissible arguments. The causative (421b) adds a fourth argument. These arguments may be realized by a combination of noun phrases and pronominal prefixes: the significance of striking an appropriate mix of these forms, as well as the relative ordering of the noun phrases on one hand, and of the prefixes on the other, are discussed in detail in Rugemalira (1991a, 1993a) as the means by which arguments are kept distinct. The representation in (421c) states that the argument structure of this verb may be expanded to contain up to four positions.

Again, as is the case with the applicative, when all possibilities and restrictions are considered, there appears to be a limit on the number of distinct participants that can be mentioned in one clause. So far clauses appear to allow up to four such participants. In the next subsection I will seek to determine whether omissible constituents have any effect of relaxing this constraint.

4.3.2 Causee omission

The fact that the causee role may be unrealized in some cases has already been mentioned. This is illustrated in (422)-(423).

- (422) a ka- son -es -á omwênda he-PST- sew -C -FV dress 'he made [someone] sew a dress' (i.e. he had a dress made)
- (423) a ka- se -is á ebicóori he-PST-grind- C -FV maize 'he had [someone] grind the maize' (i.e. he had the maize milled)

In both (422) and (423) the causative licenses an argument that is nevertherless not realized in the construction. An examination of the verb sample brought up some thirty-seven verbs, out of 530, that are amenable to causee omission. These are listed in Table 4.6.

kubánjura	cultivate	kubeija	carve
kubiika	store	kucúgura	have diarrhoea
kucumba	cook	kucúuka	be weaned
kwêga	learn	kwêra	be clean/abundant
kwereera	float	kúfa	die
kufunga	lock	kugaba	fill breasts
kugaga	go bad	kúha	give
kúsya	be cooked	kuhóma	plaster
kwîma	deny	kujúga	pay dowry
kujúma	insult	kujwa	flow/shine
kunógoora	mould	kwôma	dry
kwônka	suck	kupima	measure
kurába	blossom	kurima	cultivate
kuruka	weave	kúrya	eat
kusára	cut	kusa	grind
kusînda	be drunk	kusoma	read
kusona	sew	kutâmba	treat
kutéeka	cook	kutéera	hit
kutumba	increase		

TABLE 4.6: Causee omission verbs

As Table 4.6 shows, causee omission verbs include verbs with more than one argument (transitives) as well as verbs with only one argument (intransitives). Two examples of the

latter are provided in (424)-(425).

- (424) a) abantu ba sind -a
  people they-be drunk-FV
  'people get drunk'
  - b) amaarwá ga sínz -a
     beer it -be drunk+C-FV
     'beer causes [people] to be drunk'
- (425) a) omwénda gu kó om a dress it -PST -dry -FV 'the dress dried'
  - b) omusana gw- om és -a
     sunshine it- dry- C -FV
     'The sunshine causes [things] to dry'

The single argument verbs kusînda 'be drunk' and kwôma 'dry' in (424) and (425) are expanded into two-place verbs by means of the causative, but the second argument in these constructions is omitted. In this respect Runyambo may be different from a language like Turkish where all causatives derived from transitive verbs, but not causatives from intransitive verbs, allow causee omission (Orgun, personal comunication). Alsina (1992) reports that in Chichewa too only causatives derived from transitive verbs (some of them

in fact) "allow the causee to alternate between an object and an oblique expression", which in Alsina's theory translates into the possibility of leaving the causee unrealized. It seems to me, however, that even in Chichewa and other Bantu languages, causee omission is a lexical property of certain causative verbs (irrespective of the transitivity of the basic stem) as suggested in Table 4.6. In Runyambo, of course, we cannot treat causee omission as a variant of the oblique causee - the par-phrase in French (Zubizarreta 1985) or the kwa-phrase in Chichewa (Alsina 1992) - since there is no such construction as oblique causee in this language<sup>6</sup>. And there is even less motivation for what Alsina (1992) calls a "passive analysis" (cf. Kayne 1975, Baker 1988, Alsina 1992). Such an analysis assumes "that passive morphology was effectively absorbed into the causative morphology" (Baker 1988:487). The discussion in chapter six, on the cooccurrence of the causative and passive extensions, will show that absorption of one extension by another, leaving no morphophonological traces, does not exist in the language. As Baker aknowledges, a passive analysis is adopted on the basis of a passive-like gloss (see alternate glosses for examples (422) and (423) above): "the causee appears either in a passive-like by-phrase or not at all (as an implicit argument)" (Baker 1988:487).

The predicate structures of causee omission verbs are like those of other verbs with omissible arguments (see examples 351 and 420). In the case of causee omission, the omissible argument is part of the predicate structure of the extended verb, whereas in the other cases the omissible argument is part of the predicate structure of the unextended verb. But in all cases an argument may or may not be realized (instantiated) by any linguistic constituent. If it is not realized, this may be because the identity of the participant is understood and recoverable from the context (definite omissible) or because it is unknown and/or irrelevant (indefinite omissible) (cf. Fillmore 1986:96).

One might be led to believe that if a constituent realizing a particular participant role has been omitted, then this should create room for the realization of other participant roles on which information is desirable. But omissibility does not create such room. Consider (426).

- (426) a) a -ka -sar -á omwáná [isóce] [aha-mútwe] he-PST-cut-FV child hair L -head 'he cut the child's hair from the head'
  - b) a ka-saz á omwáná/omwáná isóce
    he-PST-cut+C-FV child hair
    i) 'he made the child cut the hair'
    ii) 'he had [someone] cut the child's hair'
  - c) \*a- ka- saz á omwáná isóce akásyo he-PST- cut+C -FV child hair razor \*'he had [someone] cut the child's hair with a razor'

d) (akasyó) a-ka-ka- saz - á omwáná [isócé] [aha-mútwe]
 (razor)he-PST-it-cut+C-FV child hair L- head
 '(the razor) he cut the child's hair from the head
 with it'

Kusára 'cut' can appear with up to four arguments, only two of which are non-omissible. The body part and the locative complement are omissible (426a). Two readings are possible in (426b), one involving omwana 'child' as causee (hence the bold face), and the other involving causee omission (no bold face). The basic point illustrated in (426c) is that it is not possible to omit the causee and at the same time fill the slot with an instrument. The other problem with this construction concerns the piling up of postverbal unmarked noun phrases even if we were to read akásyo 'razor' as the sole causative argument (i.e. instrument). Three unmarked NPs after the verb stretch the system too far. Instead (426d) provides an appropriate mix of argument realization types marked and unmarked noun phrases, and prefixes. In addition it shows that it is possible to have a construction with up to five arguments. Still it is important to note the highly restricted nature of these arguments: the causative argument is topicalized and realized as a prefix (i.e. this is old information). Of the two omissible arguments, one must be a body part, and the other must be a participant locative, not an event locative (cf chapter 3). And we must keep in mind

the fact that the causative creates only one argument position.

Now if the causative and the applicative can create one argument position each, would a combination of the two extensions expand the argument structure of kusára 'cut' any further given the restrictions on argument realization types shown here? Whatever the answer to this question, again, it does seem that there exists a limit on the expandability of argument structures. Further discussion of this question must wait until the final chapter (see section 6.3).

A question that is of immediate relevance here concerns the limits (if any) that are imposed on the omissibility of arguments in any one construction. Without any such limits, a verb like kutéeka 'cook' with two omissible arguments - the stuff being cooked ('patient/theme') and the container of that stuff (participant locative) - could be causativized and placed in a construction where only one argument was realized (after causee omission). However, as (427) shows, this is not a well-formed construction (see also Alsina 1992, example 14).

```
(427) *a - ka - tééc- es - a
he -PST - cook -C -FV
`he had [someone] cook [something ] [in some container]'
```

The causative verb in (427) has four argument positions, one of which is a creation of the causative extension. Only one of these arguments is actually realized, and the other three

are omitted, which makes the construction ill-formed. As already mentioned, omissibility has to do with pragmatic considerations of whether a participant is known in the context or unknown and irrelevant. In this particular case if the omitted arguments were known in the context they would have to be realized as pronominal ('object') prefixes, and in this sense topicalized. As such the construction in (427) lacks a pragmatic motivation: why create a fourth argument position when three of them are unknown? For the unextended verb can handle up to three arguments very well. Note that if at least one more of the arguments in (427) is realized, the construction will be acceptable as (428) shows.

- (428) a) a ka teec es-á abáana he-PST - cook - C -FV children 'he made the children cook'
  - b) a ka teec es-á ebitooce
     he- PST- cook C -FV bananas
     'he made [someone] cook bananas'
  - c) a ka teec es-á omu-nyungú yanje he-PST - cook - C -FV L -pot my 'he made [someone] cook [something] in my pot'

The acceptability of (428) suggests that a four-place argument structure must have at least two of these arguments

realized. Two-place argument structures such as that of kwómesa 'cause to dry' in (425) must have at least one argument realized, and this would appear to be the lower limit. More generally, these constructions show that besides the restrictions on argument realization types, there is a restriction on the omissibility of arguments, and that this restriction is sensitive to the number of arguments in any one argument structure.

The notion of a lower limit on the omissibility of arguments is related to that of a lower limit on the number of arguments in any argument structure. The conception of predicate structure proposed in chapter two requires that a verb have at least one argument position, even if that position is not matched by a participant role, i.e. it has no semantic content. This is a familiar condition of predication theory. It is expressed as the 'subject requirement' of the Extended Projection Principle of GB, the 'Subject Condition' of LFG, and the 'Subject Principle' of Construction Grammar (cf. Horrocks 1987, Bresnan & Moshi 1990, Fillmore & Kay 1993). If we set aside the grammatical relations terminology in these formulations, then our notion of a lower limit on the number of arguments can be better appreciated: by definition, a verb must have at least one argument position. From this perspective, the verbal status of Portuguese chove 'its raining', would be shaky (cf. Fillmore & Kay 1993:8.22). In general, "weather verbs" in languages like Portuguese, may be regarded as, at best, defective verbs.

The discussion on the detransitivizing extensions in chapter five, as well as the discussion on cooccurrence in chapter six, will show that these devices for contracting argument structures cannot bring about the equivalent of verbal suicide by stripping the verb of all its argument positions. But before that we need to consider the nature of the distinction between the two transitivising extensions, the causative and the applicative, which have been the subject of discussion in this and the previous chapter.

# 4.3.3 Distinguishing causative from applicative

Tf both the causative and the applicative are transitivizers, how are the two extensions distinct? In order to appreciate the difference between them it is important to emphasize their similarity<sup>7</sup>. The first step in this direction is to abandon the 'higher cause'/'biclausal' analysis of the Bantu causative extension (cf. Jones 1971, Vitale 1981, Baker 1988, Li 1990, Alsina 1992). In many respects this analysis is a legacy of a linguistic theory based on the sentence, and the English sentence at that. In this tradition (Chomsky 1957, 1965) the sentence became the basic unit of analysis. The theory sought to determine the rules for distinguishing grammatical from ungrammatical sentences, and to formalize the relationships between sentences. Among the most engaging sentence relations were those of active vs passive (Chomsky 1957), dative shift vs non-dative shift (Fillmore 1965), causative vs non-causative (Fodor 1970, Shibatani 1976).

In arguing for a lexical theory, Mchombo (1978, 1980) maintained that there could not be a syntactic rule of dative shift since in Chichewa, and Bantu generally, only the morphological process of the applicative suffix existed, without a counterpart prepositional version available in languages like English. In a similar vein it could be argued that, in Runyambo at least<sup>8</sup>, we cannot posit, á la Baker (1988:149), a biclausal "analysis in which a lexical item undergoes syntactic movement to combine with another lexical item its structure". For in in Runyambo only the morphological causative is available, but not the periphrastic causative. Such an argument, however, plays in the hands of the biclausal analysts by foregoing an effort to present a general analysis of the Bantu causative extension, and by putting undue emphasis on a fact of the syntax of English and related languages. The fact that the English glosses of the examples above are biclausal does not warrant the imputation of biclausal structures on the Runyambo constructions.

It should be noted that in spite of the theoretical differences between the syntactic approach of Baker (1988) and the lexical approach of Alsina (1992), in both cases the representations of the causative extension are essentially notational variants. Alsina (1992) "proposes to analyze causative morphemes in many languages as three-place predicates in which the causer (or agent) acts on an individual, the patient, in bringing about an event, of which this individual is itself an argument". Baker's (1988) focus is on the movement of the root verb to combine with the causative affix, while Alsina speaks of the fusion of two thematic roles into one "fused argument". But in both theories the underlying assumption is identical to that behind the attempt to derive "kill" from "cause to die", namely "that word-to-phrase synonymies [even across languages] can ... be handled as instances of syntactic relations..." (Fodor 1970:430-31; also see Shibatani 1976).

Fodor's "three reasons" for rejecting the assumption are based on the differential behavior of 'kill' and 'cause to die' with respect to :

(i) do so substitution - 'kill' allows only one antecedent,whereas 'cause to die' allows two;

(ii) time adverbials - 'kill' allows only one adverbial of time, while 'cause to die' allows two (one indicating the time of the patient's death, the other indicating the time of the agent's causing activity);

(iii) instrumental adverbs - 'kill' allows only one noun phrase to control the subject of a modifying instrumental adverb, whereas 'cause to die' allows two noun phrases to alternately control that subject.

From this Fodor concludes that 'kill' should not be analysed as being derived from 'cause to die'.

Fodor's arguments were developed against the Generative Semantics analysis of English lexical causatives. Today, probably no linguist takes the Generative Semantics analysis

seriously. Yet the biclausal analysis of Bantu causative verbs is essentially that of Generative Semantics, the only difference being that now the synonymy is traced across languages thus: English 'cause' = Chichewa -its-; 'cause to cook' = 'phikitsa'. The biclausal analysis of 'cause to cook' is, in this way, extended to 'phikitsa'. I do not think this attempt to cast Chichewa, and Bantu generally, in the English mould is justified. I will instead propose an analysis of the Runyambo causative extension that seeks to advance "less typologically parochial concepts"<sup>9</sup> related to the nature of argument structure (cf. Bresnan & Moshi 1990).

The position being advanced here is that there is no 'causative sentence' any more than there is an 'applicative sentence'. In (418), for instance, sentence (b) is not derived from sentence (a). Rather, as (418c) shows, the extended or causative verb <u>kugwisa</u> is derived from the unextended or non-causative verb kugwa 'fall'. It is at this level of predicate composition that the distinction between causative and applicative has to be delineated by analysing the distinctions available within lexical semantic structures. This requires a redrawing of the lines of thematic role analysis.

The roles that can be assigned to arguments licensed by the causative in Runyambo and some other Bantu languages e.g. Luganda (Ashton et al. 1954), Ruhaya (Trithart 1977), Kinyarwanda (Kimenyi 1980), and Cishona (Hawkinson & Hyman 1974), are causee and instrument. Any other participant role that is not part of the lexical semantic structure of the basic verb can only be assigned by the applicative (cf Chapter 3). In a number of Bantu languages, e.g. Luhyia (Kanyoro 1983), Kichaga (Bresnan & Moshi 1990), Kiswahili (Khamisi 1985), Chichewa (Alsina & Mchombo 1990), and Kuria (Gould 1987), this division of labor between causative and applicative is more clearcut: the causative licenses a causee role, while the applicative licenses all other roles including the instrument. This is fairly strong linguistic evidence in support of the hypothesis that, in Runyambo and Bantu generally, the relevant grammatical generalizations can be adequately captured by means of only a binary distinction in thematic roles, viz. actor vs nonactor.

The position I will advance here is comparable to Dowty's (1991), who uses the terms "agent proto-role" and "patient proto-role" and suggests that "role types are simply not discrete categories at all, but rather are cluster concepts", and "that arguments may have different degrees of membership in a role type". In these terms the causative extension licenses a proto-agent i.e. an actor, while the applicative licenses a proto-patient, i.e. a nonactor.<sup>10</sup>

The cluster concept of thematic roles entails a level of indeterminacy in assigning participants between the two proto-roles. This indeterminacy is illustrated very well in the cross-linguistic variations with regard to the classification of what is traditionally referred to as the instrument role. In Jackendoff's (1987:401) conceptual

structures view of thematic roles, "instrument is not a new primitive role but an intermediary between Actor and Patient..." Weighing instruments against Dowty's (1991) "preliminary list of entailments" for proto-agents shows how languages can reach different results: instruments lack volitional involvement and sentience; but they cause events/changes, move, and exist independently of the event named by the verb. Languages that mark instruments with the applicative, thus classifying them with proto-patients, appear to disqualify instruments from the class of protoagents on account of lacking the first two entailments. And languages that mark instruments with the causative, thus classifying them as proto-agents, apparently give more weight to the last three qualities.

Even within individual languages there is linguistic evidence of this indeterminacy in assigning participants to one or the other of the proto-roles. In Runyambo, for instance, it is possible to use either the causative or the applicative to license an argument that may be interpreted as an instrument (and therefore a proto-agent) or as a locative (and therefore a proto-patient). This is illustrated in (429).

(429) a) a - ka - nywe -is- á enkázye he-PST -drink -C - FV gourd 'he drank from a gourd'

b) a - ka - nywe -er- á omu-nkázye he-PST -drink -A -FV L - gourd 'he drank from a gourd'

In (429a) the container of the drink is licensed by the causative while in (429b) it is licensed by the applicative and marked with the locative prefix. Yet, as the gloss indicates, there are no semantic differences between the two constructions.

Recall that in the argument differentiation framework adopted here, the predicate structure identifies the participant roles specific to each verb. Thus the lexical semantic structure of the verb 'give' specifies a giver, recipient, and gift. But the lexical semantic structure of the transitivizing suffixes, the applicative and the causative, is presented in terms of these thematic protoroles, as (430) shows.

(430) a) -is- ; Argument Structure: 1
Lexical Semantic Structure: [actor]
b) -ir- ; Argument Structure: 1
Lexical Semantic Structure: [nonactor]

Compared to the predicate structure of the normal verbs, the lexical semantic structure of the transitivers in (430) is highly underspecified, giving just enough information to distinguish the causative from the applicative, and indicating by means of brackets, the possibility of increasing the arguments without increasing the number of participant roles (cf. 'subjective role' above). These thematic protoroles are the concepts that enable us to make syntactic and semantic generalizations across verbs and languages. It is in these terms that the morpholexical operations performed by the verb extensions under discussion in this study are to be analysed.

Given the representations in (430) it follows that the search for the "basic meaning" of the applicative does not make much sense. The nonactor thematic role label is not only too broad, but it is also a negative label, including any participant role that is not an actor. In the search for the "basic meaning" of the applicative, the tendency has usually been to adopt narrower terms. Thus Trithart (1983) picks "beneficiary", Schadeberg (n.d.) picks "locative", and Emanatian (1991) settles for "recipient". But as I have argued, such terms are best regarded as being descriptive of the participant roles of specific verbs or groups of verbs. The assignment of these role labels is partly dependent on the verbs, and partly dependent on the complements. As such there is no justification for choosing any one of these labels as representing the "basic meaning" of a verbal extension. Such a stance compromises the level of generality demanded of the analysis of the verbal extensions.

# 4.4 Conclusion

The causative, like the applicative increases the valency of the verb by fusing its single argument into the verb's argument structure. The two extensions are in complementary distribution: the causative licenses an actor while the applicative licenses a nonactor. This binary division suggests, that at least for the purposes of analysing the transitivising extensions, it is not necessary to set up an elaborate inventory of semantic roles, let alone to posit a hierarchy of such roles. In the next chapter I will show that this binary scheme may be extended to the analysis of the detransitivizing suffixes as well.

## NOTES TO CHAPTER FOUR

1 Givon (1976:336) has expressed this "economy principle in the lexicon" thus: "Basically, what is involved is the contention that there are no real synonyms in a language, but only various degrees of partial synonymy. When the speaker is faced with a potential synonymy as a result of a derivation, borrowing, or semantic change, one of several things may happen: a) one of the items changes in meaning; b) one of the items becomes obsolete (i.e. gets relegated to an 'archaic dialect level'); c) one of the items becomes identified with another stylistic, social, educational, age, or geographic dialect; d) in the case of a lexical derivation rule, the rule skips that particular item whose derivation would have brought about synonymy."

b d j g p t c k "Instead of /c/ one might just as well use the symbol /s/; likewise, /z/ or /y/ instead of /j/, and /l/ instead of /d/".

3 There are frozen forms, e.g. from Kiswahili, showing that  $n \rightarrow \tilde{n}/_i$ : ona 'see' onya 'warn', onyesha 'show'; pona 'recover', ponya 'cure'. Runyambo has only bóna 'see', bónyabonya 'inflict hardship' i.e. cause to see hardship, torture. The -is- derivation is bónesa 'cause to see'.

4 Causee omission has been documented for a number of the Bantu languages including Kongo (Bentley 1887:663), Chibemba (Givon 1976:338), Kimeru (Hodges 1977:121, 133, 135), Lingala (Guthrie 1935:23), and Kiswahili (Scotton 1967a, b).

5 See Hyman (1977) on body part syntax.

6 The Chichewa and French 'oblique causee' constructions are illustrated in (i) and (ii) respectively.

 (i) Nungu i -na-phík-íts-a maúngu kwá kádzidzi porcupine it-PR-cook- C -FV pumpkins to owl
 'The porcupine had the pumpkins cooked by owl' (ii) L'architecte a faire tracer le plan méticuleusement par son associé
`The architect made design the plan carefully by his partner' (Zubizarreta 1985:262)

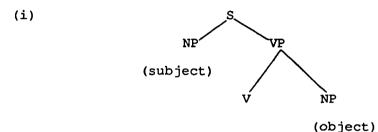
The kwa-phrase in (i) and the par-phrase in (ii) may be omitted. There is no Runyambo construction similar to these.

7 On the diachronic basis of the relationship between causative and applicative, Trithart (1983:97) states that "it seems likely that causative and applied extensions of similar phonological shape did, in fact, exist for Proto-Bantu, although no Bantu causative extension has previously been reconstructed with this form [-1-]".

8 Periphrastic (analytical) causative constructions are available in some Bantu languages such as Chichewa (Baker 1988) and Kiswahili (Vitale 1981, Rugemalira 1986). Note though that in both cases the verb of the matrix clause (chititsa in Chichewa, and <u>fanya</u> in Kiswahili) is a derivation with the causative extension, which raises the interesting question of which construction is prior to which.

9 The issue concerning the influence of particular languages in the formulation of supposedly universal linguistic principles is not to be taken lightly. It raises

fundamental questions, not only about linguistic methodology and theory, but also about the "production of knowledge" in general. Baker (1991), for instance, seeks to show "that it is correct to attribute configurational representations to Mohawk" similar to those posited for English in (i).



The author goes on to accuse some researchers of being "motivated by a kind of positivism and a desire to avoid forcing the structure of English onto other languages ... From this perspective, the null hypothesis is that (i) is not valid, and one asks whether there are facts that force one to posit (i). Other researchers are motivated by the assumption that the underlying structure of languages should be as similar as possible in order to account for the fact that any language can be learned without explicit training. From this perspective, the null hypothesis is that (i) is valid, and one asks whether there are facts which force one to abandon (i)." In other words, the agenda is about the validity or otherwise of (i), not the validity of some other representation, say, for the sake of argument, a flat structure (e.g. Mohanan's 1982 Flat Structure Hypothesis). The burden of proof is on the dissenter, and since positivism should be ruled out, as Baker seems to suggest, there is no

way that (i) can be proved not valid - for it is always possible to posit some abstract property that will make every recalcitrant piece of data fall in place. Briefly, even if we accept "the assumption that the underlying structure of all languages should be as similar as possible", why should this structure be assumed to be that posited for English, and not that of Mohawk?.

10 This binary scheme is comparable to that of Role and Reference Grammar (Foley & Van Valin 1984, Van Valin 1993) where the terms 'actor' and 'undergoer' are used. Note, however, that in the analysis sketched in the present study, I do not attempt to present actor and nonactor as part of an array of levels that have to be linked via a variety of mechanisms, as is the case in RRG (cf. figure (i)).

SYNTACTIC FUNCTIONS: Pivot Other core arguments SEMANTIC MACROROLES: Actor Undergoer THEMATIC RELATIONS: agt-effector-experiencer-loc-theme-pat LOGICAL STRUCTURE: argument positions

Figure (i): Levels of representation of predicate structure (from Van Valin 1993:84)

RRG regards the "thematic relations" as not "independently meaningful... Their primary function resides in their role in the algorithm which links syntactic and semantic

representations" (Van Valin 1993:43). By contrast, in the current study, the participant roles of the lexical semantic structure (cf. (204) in chapter two) are conceived as expressions of an individual verb's meaning while the macroroles (actor and nonactor) capture the syntactic and semantic generalizations about verbs in general.

#### CHAPTER FIVE

#### DETRANSITIVIZING EXTENSIONS

5.0 Introduction

This chapter presents the facts about the three extensions that decrease the number of a verb's arguments. The reciprocal extension is discussed in section 5.1, the stative in section 5.2, and the passive in section 5.3. I argue that the syntactic and semantic requirements of these extensions demonstrate the appropriateness of the actor vs nonactor distinction.

5.1 The Reciprocal

## 5.1.1 Forms of the reciprocal extension

Runyambo has two forms of the reciprocal extension, the productive -angan- and the frozen  $-an^{-1}$ . The latter is found on a small number of verb stems whose roots may or may not currently exist independently in the language as the examples in (501)-(502) show.

(501)	a) -bag+an-a	share, divide up
	b) -búg+an-a	meet
	c) -bweij+an-a	be lonely
	d) -éga+an-a	deny
	e) -fuka+an-a	wrestle, struggle
	f) -fút+an-a	chew

- h) -ing+an-a be equal
- i) -rw+an-a fight
- j) -tá+an-a separate (intr)
- (502) a) -tông-a demand payment -tóng-an-a quarrel
  - b) -tond-a
     create
     -tond-an-a
     discriminate against (by origins)
  - c)-nyw-a drink
    - -nyw-ân-a become friends
  - d) -jend-a go, walk
    - -jend-an-a go together

The examples in (501) show all ten verb stems (from the verb sample) that exist only with the -an- suffix and which, judging from their meanings, appear to have some connection with the reciprocal extension. In (502) however, the basic root exists independently of the suffix; with the suffix a special meaning that cannot be deduced from the basic root, is created. Note that the root in (502d) is not even transitive. In the verb sample there are 21 formations of the type in (502).

Occasionally a long vowel appears in this frozen form as (503) shows.

(503) a) -rag-a bid farewell, bequeath -rag-aan-a agree on some appointment

b) -sang-a find, come upon
 -sang-aan-a get together, convene

In spite of the vowel length, the meanings of the derivations in (503) are still transparent enough to warrant our recognizing the suffix as being related to the -an- suffix.

The regular and productive form, -angan-, can be attached to most transitive verb roots, provided the derivation makes sense. This is illustrated in (504).

(504) a) -nob-angan-a hate each otherb) -jun-angan-a help each other

Here and subsequently, I gloss this regular derivation using the same gloss for the root verb. Frozen or lexicalized reciprocal formations will appear with a gloss other than this standard 'V each other'.

There are verbs that have both the frozen formation with -an- and the regular derivation with -angan-, as (505) illustrates.

(505)	a)	-reeb-a	look
		-reeb-an-a	keep in touch
		-reeb-angan-a	look at each other
	b)	-kwât-a	hold/touch/sieze
		-kwát-an-a	be related; stick together;
			own together
		-kwát-angan-a	hold/sieze each other

c) -rás-a throw/shoot
 -rás-an-a fight, struggle
 -rás-angan-a shoot/throw at each other

In (505) the -an- derivation has specialized or lexicalized meanings while the -angan- derivation carries the standard reciprocal 'V each other' meaning. This distinction between -an- formations and -angan- formations has crucial implications for the claims that have been made on the basis of languages where only one form of the suffix (-an-) exists and it is difficult to separate lexicalized forms from regular derivations of the reciprocal. Contrary to the evidence that both R+C and C+R ordering is possiblein some Bantu languages (cf.Khamisi 1985, Alsina 1990, Hyman & Mchombo 1992) it does appear that a tendency to have a fixed C+R sequence exists in different Bantu languages (see chapter six).

5.1.2 Syntax and semantics of the reciprocal

The standard reciprocal construction requires a plurality of participants that are simultaneously actors and nonactors (undergoers), which is a classical violation of LFG's Function-Argument Biuniqueness (see section 2.1.1 for a discussion of this principle). This is illustrated in (506).

- (506) a) abakázi ba ka-reeb-angan-a
  women they-PST-look- R FV
  'the women looked at each other'
  - b) Namará na Neema ba -ka- kwat-angan-á emikóno
     Namára and Neema they-PST-hold- R- FV arms
     'Namára and Neema held each other's arms'

The required cluster of participants may be realized by a plural NP, as in (506a), or by its subtype, a coordinate NP, as in (506b).

Note that the -an- derivations also partake of the same constructions as those in (506), but may in addition separate the participant cluster and allow the part after the conjunction to occur post-verbally.

(507) a) Namará na Neema ba -kwat-án-a N and N they-hold-R-FV 'N and N are related'

> b) Namará a -kwat-an-a na Neema N she-hold-R -FV and Neema 'N is related to N'

In (507a) both NPs are marked on the verb by the plural pronominal prefix. But in (507b) only the preverbal noun phrase is marked on the verb, while the second noun phrase, together with its coordinating conjunction, occurs after the verb.

The semantics of the standard reciprocal construction (506) inherently place restrictions on possible derivations and constructions. This is due to the fact that reciprocity involves a 'golden rule' (do unto others what you would like them to do to you) or a tit-for-tat situation (depending on the circumstances) and thus requires a measure of symmetry or equality amongst the participants in the event described by the verb, such that in a two-argument verb, each of two NPs should occur equally well in either participant role. But the linguistic system is generally organized in such a way as to maximize asymmetry (inequality) among the participants. This is evident in two sub-systems.

First, the lexical semantic structure (LSS) of the verb sub-system specifies the different participant roles that are

crucial for argument differentiation, and this is the spirit of the Function-Argument Biuniqueness Principle and the Theta Criterion. But reciprocalization, by suppressing one argument position, forces two participant roles to be realized in one argument position. This is represented in (508).

(508)	PRED:	kukwâta	'hold'	+	angan	->	kukwátangana
	AS:	2			-	->	1
	LSS:	holder,h	oldee		ø	->	holder,holdee

The representation in (508) states that the verb kukwâta 'hold' consists of two argument positions and two participant roles - a holder and a holdee (for simplicity ignore the omissible argument position that must be filled by an inalienable part, cf. example (506b) above). The extension -angan- has a negative specification for argument positions, meaning that it suppresses one position from the verb to which it attaches<sup>2</sup>. The LSS is null, meaning that there is no change in the LSS of the host verb. The derivation is left with one argument position and two participant roles<sup>3</sup>. This means that each of the participants must also have relevant qualities of the other, i.e capable of realizing either role. In this way potential reciprocal derivations of many verbs are ruled out as semantically odd (e.g. \*-nywángana 'drink each other').

Second, the noun class sub-system organizes the linguistic elements that realize the participant roles into

sets of more or less equal members apparently on the basis of semantic features (see chapter one). Reciprocalization essentially involves NPs belonging to the same class. If they belong to different classes, they will be of the singular/plural pair (e.g. 1&2, 3&4, etc.). Gender conflict rules out reciprocal constructions involving constituents belonging to semantically different sets. This is illustrated in (509).

509) abantu na enjóka \*ba/\*zi/?bi-ka -nob-angan-a people and snakes they -PST-hate -R -FV 'people and snakes hated each other'

Abantu 'people'(class 2) and enjóka 'snakes' (class 10) do not have a common pronominal prefix with which to be marked on the verb. One occasionally, but rarely, hears the class 8 prefix -bi- (for 'things') used to resolve gender conflicts like these. A more reliable strategy is to avoid unequal conjuncts, particularly human and non-human noun phrases. Accordingly, the Runyambo rendering of the English gloss in (509) would avoid use of the reciprocal, preferring the equivalent of "people hated snakes and snakes hated people" (cf Givon 1970, 1972; Corbett & Mtenje 1987). What manifests itself as gender conflict is, of course, a reflection of the basic classification of the entities in the different classes as unequal, a classification that serves argument differentiation. The conflict is a manifestation of two

tendencies: reciprocalization attempts to create some symmetry in the linguistic system, but the effort is undermined by the asymmetrical classification system in the nouns.

In general, then, the restrictions on reciprocalization have their basis in the asymmetrical organization of the linguistic system.

5.1.3 Comparison with the reflexive

The reflexive morpheme deserves special mention here because there have been attempts to unify it with the reciprocal extension. For instance, Khamisi (1985) treats the reflexive affix, along with the reciprocal, as an instance of case subtraction i.e. detransitivization.

The reflexive morpheme is an invariant pronominal prefix -e-, and, in this way, is different from the verb extensions<sup>4</sup>. Consider (510).

(510) Neema a - ka- é - tem -a

N she-PST- RF- cut -FV

'Neema cut herself'

Like the reciprocal, the reflexive must be attached to a verb with more than one argument (transitive verb) such as kutéma 'cut' in (510). Reflexivization however does not reduce the number of argument positions (or case relations á la Khamisi): the reflexive affix itself occupies one of the minimum two positions that must be filled. In other words, reflexivization does not modify predicate structure in any way. Rather the reflexive morpheme is, like the personal pronoun prefixes (especially the first person pronoun), an argument realization type. What is special about it is that it indicates that the two participant roles bound by it have one referent in the world.

#### 5.1.4 Summary

The regular reciprocal extension derives reciprocal verbs. It is a detransitivizer that reduces the number of a predicate's arguments by one and in this way requires the matching of one argument position with two participant roles.

# 5.2 The Stative

## 5.2.1 Forms and terminology

The forms that I will call the stative extension (following Ashton 1944, Scotton 1967a, Khamisi 1985, Mchombo 1992) display some variation and a measure of confusion, but the names are even more varied. The forms in question are presented in (511-514). In (511) are presented all ten -ik-/-ek- derivations found in the verb sample.

(511)	a)	-bón-ek-a	'be visible/available/seen/found'

b) -hénd-ek-a 'break' (intr)

c) -som-ek-a 'be legible'

d) -sees-ek-a	'spill' (intr)
e) -cw-êk-a	'become extinct'
f) -át-ik-a	'be shattered'
g) -báás-ik-a	'be possible'
h) -kwát-ik-a	'be available'
i) -many-ik-a	'be known/famous'
j) -ragar-ik-a	'fall/scatter'

The vowel in the extension participates in the usual height harmony. This is the extension that has been referred to by a wide variety of labels including neuter, stative, intransitive, neuter(neutro)-passive, quasi-passive, neuterstative, metastatic-potential (cf. Satyo 1985:159, Schadeberg n.d.:141). Other languages with severe limitations on the productivity of -ik- have been noted in the literature<sup>5</sup>. But there are many languages where -ik- is a very productive extension, even if not on the same level as the other extensions under discussion here (e.g. Kiswahili).

The foregoing extension must not be confused with the homophonous and totally unproductive "impositive" extension (Schadeberg's term) illustrated in (512).

(512) a) -tánd+ik-a 'start'
b) -éj+ek-a 'put something leaning'
c) -rób+ek-a 'soak'

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All examples in (512) are transitive and the roots do not currently exist independently in the language<sup>6</sup>

In this study I will depart from conventional practice and treat the -uk-/-ok- derivations illustrated in (513-514) as statives similar to those in (511).

(513)	a)	-cînga	-cing-ur-a	-cing-uk-a
		'close'	'open'(trans)	'open'(intr)
	b)	-céba	-céb-ur-a	-céb-uk-a
		'mash'	'cut into pieces'	'splinter'(intrans)
	c)	-	-hem-ur-a	-hem-uk-a
			'disgrace'	'be ashamed'

The traditional "reversive" -ur-/-uk- pair is shown in (513a), but no such "reversive" interpretation is available in (513b). Similarly in (513c) there is no root verb on which a reversive interpretation can be based. But common to all three examples is the fact that the -uk- detransitivizes the -ur-formation. There are 84 (16%) such derivations in the verb sample (not counting -uk- forms that are independent entries or that appear in other suffix combinations). While recognizing the common syntactic and semantic properties of -uk-/-ok- and -ik-/-ek-, certain morphophonological peculiarities of -uk-/-ok- deserve mention. First, as (513) shows, the -uk-/-ok- form is not added to the -ur-/-or- form (\*-cing-ur-uk-a). Second, note that the -uk- formations display their own vowel harmony pattern (with -ur-) different

from the height harmony of -ik-/-ek- and the other extensions (see chapter one). Third, there are more -ur- stems that do not have corresponding -uk-/-ok- stems than the other way round (see Appendix). And finally, reduplicated forms exist for -ur-/or- but not for -uk-/-ok-. Consider (514)<sup>7</sup>.

- (514) a) -kóma -kóm-ooror-a -kóm-oorok-a
  'tie' 'untie' 'become untied'
  - b) -téga -tég-uurur-a -tég-uuruk-a
     'trap' 'untrap' 'become untrapped'
  - c) -hóma -hóm-oor-a -hóm-ook-a 'plaster' 'unplaster' 'become unplastered'

The examples in (514) show that reduplication involves the doubling of -ur-/-or- and the initial vowel of the suffix (514a-b), or only the vowel (514c). But the -uk-/-ok-extension does not participate in this morphological alternation, which reinforces the position that, syntactically, this extension is simply a detransitivizer that applies to given -ur-/-or- formations<sup>8</sup>.

5.2.2 Syntax and semantics of the stative

The syntactic pattern for the stative extension is exemplified in (515).

(515) a) a - ka - bón-á izóoba he-PST - see-FV sun 'he saw the sun'

b) izóóba li- ka- bón-ek-a
 sun it-PST -see-S -FV
 'the sun was visible'

The stative extension in (515b) has modified the predicate structure of -bóna 'see' by deleting one argument position and one participant role. The result is a one-argument predicate -bóneka. This is shown in the predicate structure representation in (516).

(516)	PRED:	kubóna	'see' +	ek	->	kubóneka
	AS:	2		-	->	1
	LSS:	actor,	nonacto	r -acto	or ->	nonactor

In this representation the verb kubóna 'see' loses one argument position when it combines with the stative extension which has a negative specification for argument structure. In addition, the verb loses the actor thematic role, leaving only the nonactor in the LSS.

It was earlier argued (chapter four) that linguistic theory need only set up a binary set of thematic roles viz. actor and nonactor (cf. Foley and Van Valin's actor and undergoer; Dowty's proto-agent and proto-patient). These

facts about the syntax and semantics of the stative extension provide additional evidence that this binary system is wellgrounded in the structure of language. Mchombo (1992) argues from the same facts for a theory that recognizes a detailed and hierarchical inventory of thematic roles. He notes that "the stative is restricted to applying to configurations with agent and patient/theme in the thematic structure, such that it eliminates the agent, making the patient/theme the sole and highest expressed role ... ". Now for such an inventory of thematic roles to be established beyond reasonable doubt, we need to determine the basis on which the stative extension would choose to operate on constructions with agent and patient only, excluding all other role combinations e.g. agent and beneficiary, patient and locative, etc. The hypothesis of a binary distinction in thematic roles preempts the search for such a justification by subsuming all those minor thematic roles into the two macro- or proto-roles.

The stative extension then removes the actor role and leaves only the nonactor<sup>9</sup>. The resulting construction is amenable to two interpretations, traditionally referred to as "stative" and "potential"<sup>10</sup>. As the gloss for kubóneka 'be visible/available/seen/found' amply shows, these senses need not be mutually exclusive (cf Schadeberg n.d:43, Scotton 1967a:110-111). The appropriate semantic interpretation may be determined by each specific verb. For instance kusomeka 'be legible' has only the potential sense, while kumanyika 'be known/famous' has only the stative sense. In other instances the tense/aspect may determine the appropriate reading as Schadeberg notes:

A general tendency exists to express the "potential" and "state" connotations with different tenses, the first of these with "present" or "habitual", and the second with "perfective" of [sic] "past". In negative sentences, too, the "potential" interpretation is by far the most natural one. (p.43)

#### 5.2.3 Summary

The stative extension is a detransitivizer that decreases the number of a verb's arguments by one and removes the actor role from the lexical semantic structure.

## 5.3 The Passive

5.3.1 Forms and distribution of the passive extension

The shape of the passive extension in Runyambo is a virtually invariant -w-, reconstructed as \*-u- (Guthrie 1970:217 CB4). Only in two other environments does a consonant /b/ precede this glide. These are i) after CV roots (517), and ii) after causative -;-, which includes frozen forms such as (518a), as well as productive forms such as (518b).

- (517) a) -rya 'eat' -ríibwa 'be eaten'b) -sa 'grind' -seebwa 'be ground'

In (517) the consonant /b/ is inserted after the root-final vowel, and before passive -u-. The final consonant of the root in (518a) is considered to be a product of the -;-alternation process (t -> s; see chapters 1&4 above), but the root -hées- is so frozen that some speakers allow -héeswa as the passive (implying the absence of -;- and the originality of /s/)<sup>11</sup>. In (518b) we have a genuine passive of a causative derivation. In both cases the /b/ is inserted to break up the vowel sequence<sup>12</sup>.

The passive extension is quite regular: in the 530-verb sample, 318 (60%) accept the passive extension (without counting cooccurrences with other extensions).

## 5.3.2 Syntax and semantics of the passive

The passive extension derives passive verbs, but in the overwhelming majority of cases, this has no effect on the predicate structure, in the sense that the number of arguments remains unchanged. As such the only significant effect is to rearrange the order of the participant roles, as (519) shows.

# (519) a) omwáná a -ka -kom-á enjóka child he-PST-tie-FV snake 'the child tied a snake'

b) enjóká e -ka- kom-w-á omwâna
 snake it-PST-tie-P-FV child
 'the snake was tied by the child'

In both the active (519a) and passive (519b) versions, both arguments are obligatory. The difference lies in the order of the arguments. The active form requires that the actor (the participant doing the tying) occur in preverbal position, while the passive form requires this actor in post-verbal position, and the nonactor in preverbal position. Preverbal position for the actor is incompatible with the passive form of the verb, as (520) shows.

- (520) a) omwáná enjóka a ka ji kóm-a child snake he-PST - it - tie-FV 'the snake, the child tied it'
  - b) \*omwáná enjóka e -ka -mu -kóm-w-a child snake it-PST-him-tie-P-FV

In (520) the positions of the NPs omwâna 'child' and enjóka 'snake' are interchangeable, but their pronominal forms on the verb cannot be so tampered with. Even if the actor is unknown and/or irrelevant, the passive form cannot be used. Instead the impersonal construction with the third person plural pronominal is used. This is illustrated in (521).

(521)	a) *enjóka		e-ka-kóm-w-a	'the	snake	was	tied'
	b)	enióka b	a -ka -ii-kóm-a	'the	snake	was	tied'

Without the actor argument, (521a) is not acceptable (cf.519b). The pronominal form -ba- stands in for the required actor argument and covers up the speakers ignorance or reluctance to state the identity of the actor (521b).

In short then, for the vast majority of Runyambo verbs that behave like kukóma 'tie', the passive extension derives a passive verb whose predicate structure requires that the actor occur in postverbal position<sup>13</sup>. In this respect the Runyambo passive is an information-packaging device that assigns prominence to a nonactor argument (Keenan 1985, Foley & Van Valin 1985). The argumenthood of the actor (after losing prominence) varies across and within languages and may be indeterminate. This is why Grimshaw (1990) sets up the intermediate notion of "argument adjuncts" which "like arguments and unlike adjuncts, are regulated by relationship to an a[rgument]-structure, yet like adjuncts and unlike arguments, they do not satisfy a-structure positions" p.107. I will disagree with Grimshaw on this point and maintain that, at least for Runyambo, there is no need for this hybrid notion (argument adjunct), which, by the definition of arguments as obligatory and adjuncts as optional, would be contradictory.

The significant difference regarding the status of the actor argument in Runyambo is provided by a small class of verbs that justifies the inclusion of the passive among detransitivizing suffixes. These verbs fall into two groups, and in each case one argument is deleted.

The first group consists of fourteen passive forms which are more or less frozen with a meaning of their own. Their argument structures may contain an omissible argument and a non-omissible one as illustrated in (522).

- (522) a) amate ga-ke eb -á [abáana] milk it-PST-forget-FV children 'the milk was forgotten [by the children]'
  - b) abáána ba -ke eb -w-á [amáte] children they-PST-forget-P-FV 'the children forgot [the milk]'

The verb in (522) is a bit peculiar because it does not conform to a direct morpheme-by-morpheme gloss (cf. French: ma mère me manque 'I miss my mother')<sup>14</sup>. This appears to be a reflection of the difficulty of imposing an actor/nonactor dichotomy on the verb's participant roles. Its LSS requires the sentient participant capable of forgetting to appear in postverbal position where it is optional (522a), while the thing that is forgotten occurs in preverbal position. The passive (522b) reverses this ordering, but omissibility remains a property of the argument occurring in postverbal position. The relevant point here is that, unlike the majority of verbs already discussed, this verb's passive derivation need not have two arguments. Passive verbs with a similar property are listed in (523).

(523) a) kugeitwa	be wed	(in church)
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b)	kusingwa	be	defeated, lose		
c)	kuswêrwa	be	married (of a woman)		
d)	kuténdekwa	be	ordained/consecrated	(of	clergy)
e)	kuzáarwa	be	born		

The remaining eight passive derivations have two senses each. In each case one of the senses requires only one argument as illustrated in (524).

```
(524) a) abáána ba - ka-rem -w-á ecisísi
children they-PST-beat-P-FV calabash
    'the children were overwhelmed by the calabash'
```

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b) abáána ba - ka - rem-w-a
children they-PST -beat-P-FV
'the children got tired'
```

The verb kurema 'beat, be too much, be beyond capacities of' does have a regular passive derivation that requires two arguments (524a). But the derivation also has a special sense that does not allow two arguments (524b). Table 5.1 summarizes the relevant information in this group of verbs.

Basic stem	2-arg. passive	1-arg. passive
-báza	-bázibwa	bázibwa
ask/question	be asked	be examined (catechism)
-bátiza	n.a. <sup>a</sup>	-bátizibwa
baptize		be baptized
-cûnda	-cûndwa	-cûndwa
shake	be shaken	be tormented
-goba	-gobwa (ho) <sup>b</sup>	-gobwa
reach; suffice	be reached	be satisfied (each
		getting their share)
-hika	-hikwa (ho) <sup>b</sup>	-hikwa
reach;suffice	be reached	be satisfied
-rema	-remwa	-remwa
beat	be beaten	be tired
-rúma	-rúmwa	-rúmwa
bite	be bitten	be in labor
-sanga	-sangwa(mu) <sup>b</sup>	sángwa! <sup>c</sup>
find/come upon	be found	be found home

## Notes:

. ....

<sup>a</sup> This is a loan word with only one passive sense.
<sup>b</sup> Verbs with non-omissible locative arguments take a locative clitic when the locative NP is preposed (see chapter three).
<sup>c</sup> This is a formulaic guest's response to a host's nyejéra 'come in/welcome'.

TABLE 5.1: Passives with variable argument structure

requirements.

The second group of verbs in which the passive functions as a detransitivizer is more difficult to determine. This is because the detransitivizing effect comes as a result of a combination of the passive with tense/aspect, and possibly, intonation. This combination produces a "stative" sense of the verb<sup>15</sup>. This may be achieved by combining the today past (TP) tense with an interrogative intonation.

(525) a) embúzi zá -á -kóm-w-a? goats they-TP-tie-P-FV 'have the goats been tied'?

> b) \*embúzi zi -ka -kóm-w-a? goats they-PST-tie-P-FV

In (525a) the today past tense and the question intonation make it possible for the passive derivation to express a stative sense, thus dropping the actor argument. With a different tense in (525b), the construction is not acceptable without the actor argument.

The present and habitual tenses can also express the stative sense with the appropriate passive derivations. Consider (526-527).

(526) a) endwára ne-e -támb-w-a disease PR-it-cure-P-FV 'the disease is curable'

- b) \*endwára e -ka -tâmb-w-a disease it-PST-cure-P-FV
- (527) a) obutúzi bu -rííb-w-a
  mushrooms they-eat -P-FV
  'mushrooms are edible'
  - b) \*obutúzi bu -ka -ríib-w-a mushrooms they-PST-eat -P-FV

The present tense is illustrated in (526a) while the habitual tense, with no overt morphological marking, is illustrated in (527a). Again any other tense is unacceptable without the actor argument (526b, 527b).

It does not seem possible, however, to make any significant generalization about the use of tense with the passive derivations to express a stative sense. It is not clear how many verbs are amenable to such formations. Attempts to determine this are hampered by the fact that no single tense is consistent in expressing a stative sense across verbs. For instance, the today past tense cannot salvage (526b) and the present tense cannot redeem (525b). In addition, as (525) suggests, pragmatic considerations associated with intonation complicate the situation.

#### 5.3.3 Summary

The detransitivizing function of the passive extension is severely restricted, being available in only a small fraction of verbs, some of which require the combination of the extension with an appropriate tense and/or intonation. In this respect we may represent the passive as we did the stative above, even though the actor/nonactor distinction is rather dubious here.

(528)	PRED:	kurema	'beat'	+	W	->	kuremwa	'be	tired'
	AS:	2			-	->	1		
	LSS:	actor, n	onactor	2	-actor	->	nonacto	or	

The representation in (528) is meant to show the similarity of the stative extension and the passive extension only in those few cases where the passive functions as a detransitivizer. Like the stative, in such cases the passive has a negative specification for argument structure, and it deletes the actor role. This similarity, however, is more significant because it may shed light on the root cause of the restrictions imposed on the passive as detransitivizer. It is possible that, at least in Runyambo, the passive has moved away from the detransitivizing function because of the existence of the stative. For most verbs, the passive is a

prominence assigner that rearranges the participant roles in the typical case, by putting the actor in postverbal position, and the nonactor in preverbal position.

### 5.4 Conclusion

Of the three Runyambo extensions considered in this chapter, the stative represents the best case of a detransitivizer by getting rid of one of the two original argument positions and participant roles. The resulting stative verb is truly intransitive, with no actor role. As we shall see in the next chapter, this absence of an actor will constrain the range of extension combinations that the stative can participate in.

The reciprocal gets rid of an argument position but retains the participant roles in the LSS. This imposes the restriction of a measure of parity (or symmetry) on the participant roles that must share an argument position: they must share some qualities of an actor. Beyond this, any other participant role with its argument position - whether new or original (relative to the reciprocalization process) - is not affected. This means that reciprocal verbs may be left with more than one argument, and in this sense need not be intransitive. Reciprocalization only decreases the number of arguments by one.

The passive, even when it does not detransitivize a verb, modifies the syntactic specifications in the LSS by

requiring a nonactor to occur in preverbal position. In the appropriate context (verb, tense), the actor may also be removed together with its argument position.

In chapter four it was argued that the distinction between the causative and the applicative extensions is rooted in the binary distinction between thematic roles viz. actor vs nonactor. This discussion of the detransitivizing extensions, especially the stative and the passive, again clearly demonstrates how basic this thematic scheme is. In Runyambo, and in Bantu generally, the stative extension can only apply to predicate structures with two arguments, actor and nonactor. Similarly, in Runyambo and many Bantu languages, the passivization process can only involve two specific arguments, even if the host predicate structure has more than two arguments (cf. Rugemalira 1991a).

Although the reciprocal is designed to blur the distinction between actor and nonactor (since it requires some parity between them), this extension too works on the basis of this binary distinction: even in verbs with more than two arguments, there are only two specific arguments that can participate in reciprocalization.

In short, whatever the number of argument positions in a predicate structure, and whatever the participant roles (which are represented in verb-specific labeis), the processes of increasing and decreasing arguments, implemented via the verb extensions, appear to support a basic thematic role distinction between actor and nonactor.

So far the discussion has focussed on the properties of individual extensions. These syntactic/semantic properties of the individual extensions in themselves impose restrictions on the repetition and cooccurrence of the extensions. The number and type of extensions that can occur on any one verb root conform to the general properties of predicate structures. The ordering of the extensions, however, may be conditioned by morphophonology. The next chapter will tackle these issues.

## NOTES TO CHAPTER FIVE

1 Generally in Bantu -an- is the more widely attested form, while -angan- appears to be restricted to only a few zones (cf Schadeberg n.d.). In Ciyao -angan- is the frozen form (Whiteley 1966).

2 Noting Guthrie's (1962) indeciseveness regarding the status of the reciprocal extension as a detransitivizer or as a pronominal that replaces "the direct object of the simplex radical", Mchombo & Ngunga (1992) see the need to devise additional arguments (beyond showing its difference from pronominals and its similarity to other verb extensions) to prove that it is a detransitivizer. But it seems to me that this is an unnecessary burden imposed by the 'each other' gloss and the theory of anaphors built around it by generative grammar (cf Chomsky 1981, Brame 1981, Lebeaux 1983, Heim, Lasnik & May 1991).

3 This provides additional motivation for a dual representation of predicate structure - argument structure and lexical semantic structure (see chapter two).

4 Mchombo (1993) shows that the "reflexive and the reciprocal in Chichewa have different distributional properties": the former is a syntactic argument bound to the subject, while the latter is a morpholexical element that changes argument structures. It is maintained that even within English generative grammar the identification of the reflexive and reciprocal (each other) as the variety of NPs governed by principles of bound anaphora is relatively recent, and that this identification "has not only led to misanalyses but is also openly contradicted by the facts about Bantu languages. As such not only do the two have to be kept separate, but they must also be included, and dealt with, within different components of the grammar".(See also Mchombo 1991.)

5 Schadeberg (n.d) mentions Mfinu (B83), Herero (R31), Mongo (C61), Kongo-Ntanda (H16g), Mbunda (K15) and Dciriku (K33).

6 Only six formations that can be related to independently existing roots were found in the verb sample: -arika 'set up fruit to ripen'; seclude a bride; (from -ara

'make the bed')

-1jika `cause to seek shelter from rain' (trans); (from -1ga
`make rain')

-rúmika 'cup/bleed (trans); (from -rúma 'bite')
-sibika 'tie/tether'; (from -siba 'lock up)
-tóneka 'arouse pain from a wound'; (?from -tóna 'announce
the arrival of a surprise'
-tumbika 'soak' (trans); (from -tumba 'increase' (intrans))

In the appendix the "impositive" formations like those in (512) are generally listed as independent entries.

7 Schadeberg (n.d:69) calls -uk- the "separative" extension and notes that "its syntactic characteristics are similar to the neutro-passive" (i.e. -ik-). He also maintains that "in most present-day languages productivity is from \*-ud- to \*-uk- rather than the other way round". Whiteley (1966:39) too groups -uk-/-ok- with -ik-/-ek-.

8 In languages where the -ik-/-ek- form is more productive, it is possible for such formations to coexist with -uk-/-ok- formations, as this Swahili example shows: -fung-a 'close'; -fung-ik-a 'be closable' -fug-u-a 'open'; -fung-uk-a 'be openable/open' 9 Verb roots with three non-omissible arguments like -ha 'give' do not have stative derivations.

10 Khamisi (1985) uses this distinction to set up two homophonous extensions, the stative and the potential.

11 Determining whether a root-final consonant is historically a product of the -;- mutating process or not can be tricky as the example in (i) shows.

(i) a) -bátiza 'baptize'

b) -bátizibwa 'be baptized' (??-bátir-;-u-a)

c) -bátiriza 'baptize for/at' (??-bátir-ir-;-a)

The passive (ib) and the applicative (ic) treat the final consonant of the root -z- as if it were a product of the familiar  $r \rightarrow z$  alternation before -;-; but we know that the verb is a loan from English, and the -z- is original. There is no root \*-bátir- in the language.

12 But see a different position by Schadeberg (n.d.) who reconstructs a short form \*-u- and a long form \*-ibu- of the passive extension in Proto-Bantu.

13 Even verbs with three non-omissible arguments (e.g. kúha 'give') have only one passive version (cf Rugemalira 1991a).

14 Other verbs with a similar property include kutáma 'disgust'/'displease', kurema 'beat'/'overwhelm', kubúra 'lack'/'disappear'.

15 cf. English:

i) The glass was broken by Peter (PROCESS)

ii) (We realized that) the glass was broken (STATE)

.

### CHAPTER SIX

### COOCCURRENCE RESTRICTIONS

6.0 Introduction

Whiteley (1966:47) maintains that "In theory each of the single extensions may combine with any other in any order, but in practice there are a number of restrictions on this... However, even when such restrictions are accounted for, there are vastly more forms possible than have as yet been recorded". In this chapter I will argue that such a "theory" is invariably wrong and that besides what Whiteley considers to be mere practical restrictions (e.g. passive must be final), there are ordering and cooccurrence restrictions that must be considered to be part and parcel of an adequate theory for analysing the extensions. It will be shown that when these latter restrictions are considered, the number of possible forms is much smaller than Whiteley has speculated, and that this is a desirable result for a theory of argument differentiation.

Section 6.1 discusses the impossibility of repeating an extension. In 6.2 I discuss cooccurrence and ordering restrictions involving two or more extensions. The significance of these restrictions within the system of mutually reinforcing mechanisms for minimizing mapping options is discussed in section 6.3.

6.1 Extension Repetition

There exists a strong restriction against repeating an extension anywhere in the derivation. This means that there are no derivations with the extension sequences in (601).

(601) a) \*AA<sup>1</sup>, \*CC, \*SS, \*PP, \*RR
b) \*ACA, \*CAC, \*PAP, \*SAS, \*RAR etc.

Following MacWhinney and Menn (1984), the restriction in (601) has been attributed to the Repeated Morph Constraint (RMC) by Hyman and Mchombo (1992). Note though that, in the case of Chichewa, it is possible to repeat an extension when a different extension intervenes, i.e. some sequences in (601b) are permitted in Chichewa. According to MacWhinney and Menn the RMC is a "weak morphological universal... which tends to prohibit sequences of phonologically identical morphs" (p.529). This is because "repetition creates some inconvenience for language processing" (p.519). As I will demonstrate presently, phonological considerations play a role in extension combinations. But I want to argue that the restriction on suffix repetition is not a phonological restriction, and thus not a case of the RMC. Rather this is a basic constraint on the size (number of argument slots) and (lexical semantic) content of predicate structures.

If the restriction were merely phonological, we would not expect the language to tolerate its large scale violation within the same suffix system. Consider (602).

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(602) a) kwîra 'grow dark' kwirira 'grow dark at'

- b) kuseesa 'spill' kuseesesa 'cause to spill'
- c) kubinga 'chase' kubingangana 'chase each other'

The verbs in (602) are illustrative of a large number of roots with endings that are phonologically identical to the applicative (602a), the causative (602b), and the reciprocal (602c) extensions. The similarity is only partial in the case of (602c), but the -ir-/-er- cases (602a) are particularly numerous. Yet there is no attempt to delete or to avoid these forms.

In addition, the Intensive and Reversive extensions have forms that duplicate segments, as (603) shows.

(603)	a)	kujenda 'go'	kujenderera 'progress'
	b)	kúca 'dawn'	kucéérererwa 'be late'
	c)	kurira 'cry'	kuririirira 'inconvenience with too
			much crying'
	d)	kukóma 'tie'	kukómeerera 'pack up'
			kukómoorora 'untie'

The intensive forms in (603a-d) as well as the reversive form in (603d) show that a particular sequence of segments can be repeated two or three times, even when part of the root shares in this similarity.

Note that the Appendix does have a few derivations entered under the A+A code (kucúricirira 'cover for', from kucúrika 'tilt', kucúricira 'cover'; kurecerera 'cease at', from kureka 'let alone', kurecera 'cease'; kutwéijerera 'press charges for', from kutwéija 'press charges', kutwéijera 'press charges against'). Essentially these forms are of the same type as (602a) where the root contains a form similar to the applicative extension, the only difference being that the A derivation in these three cases carries a special sense which is amenable to independent applicativization. In other cases where this special sense seems to have no relationship to the original root, I have given such a derivation a separate entry (e.g. kukómera 'sow', independent of kukóma 'tie'; kunájira 'sleep', independent of kunága 'throw'). With the three A+A derivations there is sufficient semantic transparency to warrant the lexicographic decision to list them under their supposed roots. That these forms exist is quite revealing. From all this I conclude that there is no phonological restriction on sequences of identical elements and that the restriction on extension repetition must be sought elsewhere.

Recall from chapter four, that the distinction between causative and applicative reflects the binary distinction between actor and nonactor thematic roles. Now if the repetition of any of these transitivizers was allowed, this would seriously undermine the system of argument differentiation which is partly based on the inequality

between causative and applicative arguments. Indeed the repetition prohibition is quite problematic for an analysis that utilizes a detailed inventory of thematic roles. If an inventory such as (201) above had a basis in linguistic structure, it would be reasonable to expect multiple occurrences of, say, the A extension, each such occurrence licensing a distinct role from among the possibilities allowed (beneficiary, locative, etc. cf. chapter three). But, as (604) shows, this is not possible.

- (604) a) \*a ka tu zaar -ir -ir- a omwáná omunju she- PST- us -deliver-A -A -FV child in house 'she gave birth to a child for us in the house'
  - b) a ka tu zaar -ir á omwâna she-PST - us -deliver-A - FV child 'she gave birth to a child for us'
  - c) a ka zaar ir- á omunju she-PST- deliver-A -FV in house 'she gave birth in the house'

The unacceptable double applicative is illustrated in (604a); the first A licenses the beneficiary (-tu- 'us'), while the second A licenses the locative (omunju 'in the house'). In contrast the acceptable constructions in (604b,c) show that only one applicative suffix per verb is possible and that

this may license one and, in our terms, the only applicative thematic role - the nonactor<sup>2</sup>.

Similarly the C extension can occur only once, and will license the actor role. Consider (605).

- (605) a) \*ba -ka -ji- baaj -is -is-á omwáná omúsyo they-PST-it-slaughter- C - C-FV child knife 'they made the child slaughter it with a knife'
  - b) ba -ka -ji- baaj -is- á omúsyo they-PST-it-slaughter-C - FV knife 'they slaughtered it with a knife'
  - c) ba -ka -mu baaj -is á enkóko they-PST-him-slaughter-C -FV chicken 'they made/helped him slaughter the chicken'

As (605a) shows, the C extension cannot be doubled in order to allow two extra arguments (causee and instrument)<sup>3</sup>. Rather only one causative argument can be added to any predicate structure (605b,c).

As with the transitivizing extensions, the prohibition against repeating the detransitivizers conforms to the binary thematic organization of the verb extension system. Recall from chapter five, that both the stative and the passive target the actor thematic role. Once this role is removed from the predicate structure (or, in the case of the passives of most verbs, deprived of prominence) then the process cannot be repeated since the requisite environment is no longer present. In the case of the reciprocal, which in effect blurs the distinction between actor and nonactor and requires participants that can simultaneously fit both thematic roles, repetition would extend this blurring effect even further, implicating more participant roles, and in this way undermining the argument differentiation scheme. Consider (606).

- (606) a) X verb Y Z
  - b) X & Y verb+ -angan- Z
  - c) \*X & Y and Z verb+ -angan- + -angan-

A double reciprocal would require a construction with at least three arguments to start with, as shown in (606a: e.g. X reetera 'bring for' Y Z). The first reciprocalization would reduce the number of argument positions to two (606b:e.g. X & Y reeterangana 'bring for each other' Z). The second reciprocalization would further reduce the argument positions to one only. Now this one argument slot would have to be shared by three participant roles. These participants would have to have some common qualities (some degree of equality). The prohibition against double reciprocals then indicates that such a predicate cannot exist because its arguments would be indistinguishable from each other (606c)<sup>4</sup>.

In short, then, the prohibition against the repetition of extensions is not a morphophonological restriction, but a predicate structure constraint that preserves the asymmetrical argument differentiation scheme.

# 6.2 Extension Cooccurrence and Ordering

If there were no restrictions at all, there would be 325 different ways of selecting and arranging the five extensions under consideration, assuming that in any one derivation each suffix occurs only once. As the Appendix makes clear, however, the actual number of arrangements possible is much smaller. It has been argued that a different order implies a different meaning (cf Guthrie 1962, Satyo 1985, Baker 1985,1988, Alsina 1990, Hyman & Mchombo 1992). In this section I will argue that the significance of variable verb suffix ordering has been overestimated. I will present evidence that accommodates both an "analytic, 'beadstringing' model" and a "holistic template-matching view of affixation" (MacWhinney & Menn 1984:529), thus undermining the significance of ordering. I will then argue that in most cases, it is the content of the combinations (cooccurrence), rather than their order, that is of significance to predicate structure.

### 6.2.1 Phonological conditioning

It has been noted in several Bantu languages that the "single vowel suffixes", the passive -u- and causative -;-,

are placed at the end<sup>5</sup>. As a result of this phonological requirement, combinations of the A extension with either the C or P are very instructive. Since the \*PA sequence is ruled out the AP sequence is amenable to two interpretations, as (607) shows.

- (607) a) a ka ji- kom -er-w- a Kakúru she-PST - it- tie -A -P-FV Kakúru 'she was tied it for by Kakúru'
  - b) a ka rem er-w- á omunju she-PST - beat- A -P-FV in house 'she got exhausted in the house'

The sequence in (607a) follows the scope interpretation (tie for + passive). But in (607b) the order is the opposite of what is expected from the scope interpretation (be exhausted + applicative)<sup>6</sup>.

Similarly the AC sequence (where C=-;-) has two interpretations, just as the CA sequence (where C=-is-) has two interpretations (for the distribution of -;- and -isrefer to chapter four). Consider (608).

(608) a) a - ka- mu- kor - ez-á egáari (ez <- er-;-)
she-PST-him-repair-A+C-FV bicycle
'she had the bicycle repaired for him'</pre>

b) a - ka- tu - son - es -ez - á emyênda she-PST- us - sew - C -A -FV dresses 'she had dresses made for us'

The glosses in (608) include two scope interpretations:'cause to V-for' (causative of applicative) and 'on behalf of, cause to V' (applicative of causative). This means that the ordering of A and C is phonologically conditioned, and that it has no syntactic/semantic significance.

Combinations of causative and passive always have the P last, as (609) shows.

- (609) a) serikári e -ka rez -á abaataní omwâna government it-PST-raise+C-FV neighbors child 'government made neighbors raise the child'
  - b) abaataní (omwána) ba ka-mu -rez -;-bw-a serikári neighbors child they-PST-him-raise-C-P-FV government 'neighbors were caused by govt to raise him'
  - c) \*omwáná (abaataní) a-ka-ba -rez -;-bw-a serikári
     child neighbors he-PST-they-raise-C-P-FV government
     '?the child was caused to be raised by them

     (neighbors) by govt.'

The causative allows a third argument in the predicate structure of rera 'raise' (609a). As expected, the passive of the causative in (609b) has the passive extension after the causative extension. There is no possibility of a PC sequence (\*rerwesa). As (609c) shows, a second passive version is not available in Runyambo, and even its purported English gloss is suspect to me<sup>7</sup>. In this sense, the prohibition against the PC sequence is not merely phonological, but is also based on predicate structure constraints (see the discussion on \*PR and \*PS in section 6.2.4 below).

6.2.2 Morphologically fixed sequences

Now, consider non-phonologically determined fixed sequences. The CR sequence, at least in Runyambo, is the productive possibility, whereas RC sequences exist only in frozen reciprocals. As (610) shows, the CR sequence is amenable to two interpretations.

(610) ba - ka - kom -es -angan- á énku/omuguha
 they-PST- tie -C - R -FV firewood/rope
 'they caused/helped each other to tie firewood'
 'they caused the rope to tie each other, i.e. they
 tied each other with a rope'

The variable glosses in (610) are not matched by variable extension order. This makes me skeptical of the analytical and comparative (to English) approach for the CR/RC

combination (recall the discussion on biclausal analysis in chapter four). Hyman & Mchombo (1992) represent the sequences as in (611).

(611) a) RC: [[[mang]an]its] 'cause to tie each other'
b) CR: [[[mang]its]an] 'cause each other to tie'

But in spite of the considerable confusion that often arises in the discussion of these arrangements and their English glosses, it appears that a bracketed (hierarchical) representation for the R and C combination is not appropriate, at least in Runyambo. Rather an unbracketed string (a flat structure), shown in (612), is all that is needed.

(612) CR: -kóm-es-angan-

What (612) suggests is that there is no structure to dictate the interpretation. It argues for a holistic perspective whereby the full array of the suffixes in the derivation is scanned before an appropriate interpretation is made. In support of this view, note that there is no productive RC (\*-angan-is-) sequence in Runyambo. Instead all RC sequences are based on frozen reciprocals, illustrated in (613) (refer to the earlier examples in (501) and (502)).

- (613) a) bag+an-is-a divide up (trans)
  - b) rw+an-is-a attack; cause to fight
  - c) tóng-an-is-a pick a quarrel with (\*cause to demand payment from each other)
     d) nyw-án-is-a cause to become friends (\*cause to drink each other)

In (613), whether or not the root exists independently of the -an- suffix, the causative transitivizes the frozen reciprocal<sup>8</sup>. An examination of the Appendix will show that there are no causatives of productive -angan- reciprocal derivations (see footnote 1 for -angan- forms carrying an intensive meaning and amenable to causativization).

6.2.3 Variable order

Only the AR/RA combination exhibits a truly variable sequencing, and, in this sense requires an analytical step-

- (614) a) ba -ka -bon -angan-ir-á omunju they-PST-see - R -A -FV in house 'they saw each other when in the house'
  - b) ba ka bon er-angan- á enju
     they-PST see A R -FV house
     'they saw/found a house for each other'

In (614) the order of the extensions determines the way in which they are interpreted, i.e. their scope: (614a) is an applicative of a reciprocal, while (614b) is a reciprocal of an applicative.

## 6.2.4 Predicate structure constraints

Finally, all the remaining suffix combinations are constrained by predicate structure to occur in only one sequence (SA/\*AS), or not to occur at all (615).

(615) \*SP, \*RP, \*SR/\*RS, \*CS/\*SC

Each of the combinations in (615), except that of causative and stative, involves two detransitivizers, each of which targets the actor. When one of the extensions has applied, the next cannot apply because the requisite environment has been destroyed by the first extension (bleeding). After the stative has removed the actor, the passive has no actor to target for removal or whose prominence is to be taken away; and the reciprocal has no other participant role to bind to the nonactor. And after the reciprocal has applied, binding two participant roles into one argument position, even when a third role exists, passive cannot apply since this third role cannot be assigned the requisite prominence in the first place. This is illustrated in (616).

- (616) a) abáana ba -ka -siig -angan-á amajúta children they-PST-smear- R -FV oil 'the children smeared oil on each other'
  - b) \*amajúta ga-ka -siig -angan-w- á abáana
    oil it-PST-smear R -P-FV children
    'the oil was smeared on each other by the children'

Note that even without the reciprocal, a verb with three arguments like siiga 'smear' in (616) allows only one passive version which assigns prominence to the other human/animate participant, but never to the inanimate one. In (616a) the reciprocal has already bound the two animate participants into one argument position. Since the passive targets the actor for removal or demotion to non-prominence, the process of passivization should fail in (616b) on account of there being a composite argument with actor and nonactor properties simultaneously<sup>9</sup>. Of course, if a third participant role does not exist, then passivization cannot even be attempted since there is no candidate to assign prominence to.

Similarly after the R extension, the stative should not apply because of the inseparable actor/nonactor argument created by reciprocalization. Recall that the S extension targets the actor for removal.

This analysis of the non-occurrence of the \*SP, \*RP, \*RS and \*SR sequences is also pertinent to the \*PR and \*PS sequences which violate the phonological requirement that the

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passive be placed last. It is certainly the case that, irrespective of ordering considerations, detransitivizing extensions do not cooccur. In particular, the requirements of the R extension are irreconcilable with those of the S and P extensions. While the R wants to bind actor and nonactor to each other, the S and P want the two roles to remain separate, with the nonactor in a prominent position and the actor actually eliminated or, at least, in a non-prominent position.

The \*CS/\*SC combination is prohibited because, simply put, it involves a useless playing around with the same thematic role, viz. the actor. The causative adds the actor, while the stative removes the actor. Since the stative applies to structures with two arguments only, this disqualifies the majority of causative structures, which have three arguments because they are based on transitive verbs. But even causative constructions with two arguments like gwisa 'cause to fall' cannot be stativized since all that is needed in order to remove the actor is to get rid of the causative extension. Conversely, stative constructions like hendeka 'break', which must have one argument, cannot be causativized since all that is needed in order to introduce an actor is to get rid of the stative extension.

The only combination remaining in this choice of two extensions is that involving the applicative and the stative. It is the only combination which allows one sequence (SA) AND whose prohibition of the other sequence (\*AS) can be solely described as a predicate structure constraint. Some combinations do not occur in either sequence at all; others occur in one sequence, but can be regarded as being restricted by phonological requirements as well as predicate structure constraints; and one (CR/\*RC) can be regarded as being morphologically fixed.

Recall that the stative applies to two-argument structures only. We assume that only those verbs that can take the S extension on their own, can be expected to allow the AS sequence. But note that if a two-place predicate structure takes the applicative, it will have three arguments, and therefore be automatically disqualified from taking the stative. On the other hand, if a predicate structure has lost the actor argument via the stative extension, it can happily be expanded by the applicative and take another nonactor argument (SA). There may be restrictions on this added argument for purposes of distinguishing it from the other arguments. Hence the observation that this new argument must be a "locative" or a "reason" role (Mchombo 1992). But these restrictions on the interpretation of the A participant role in SA constructions do not, contrary to Mchombo's position, require that we posit a thematic hierarchy. If the A cannot introduce a "beneficiary" after the S has applied, this is because the said "beneficiary" role by definition implies the presence of an actor ("agent") who carries out the action for the benefit of, or on behalf of, the "beneficiary". Hence the observation

that the "beneficiary", and any role introduced by the A, cannot be the highest role at the point of its introduction. Because there is no actor, as a result of the S, there cannot be a "beneficiary". In short, there is no basis here for a further fragmentation of the nonactor macro-role.

# 6.2.5 Summary

The foregoing discussion has dealt with the nature of the restrictions on combinations of two extensions. Table 6.1 is a summary of that discussion.

NATURE OF REMARKS SEQUENCE RESTRICTION 1 \*AA, \*CC Pred.Structure Non-cooccurring \*RR,\*SS \*PP 2 CA, AC Phonology Fixed order; two interpretations for each sequence 3 AP, \*PA Phonology Fixed order; two interpretations for one sequence Fixed order; causee omission 4 CP, \*PCPhonology & Pred. Structure option for some verbs has effect of second interpretation 5 CR, \*RC Morphology Fixed order; two interpretations for one sequence; ignore frozen RC forms 6 AR, RA Sem. scope Variable order; analysable 7 \*SP/\*PS Pred.structure Non-cooccurring detransitivizers \*RP/\*PR Phonology \*SR/\*RS 8 \*CS/\*SC Pred.structure Non-cooccurring 9 SA/\*AS Pred.structure One order, one interpretation

TABLE 6.1: Cooccurrence and ordering restrictions:choice of two extensions

Two observations are in order. First, if we ignore the three rows (1, 7, & 8) where the combinations do not occur, we are left with four rows displaying a fixed order (2, 3, 4, & 5) as against two (6, & 9) where variable sequencing is significant. But since only one of the sequences in row 9 is acceptable, this means that only two arrangements, out of the 25 possible, actually make use of the ordering option for semantic effect. Overall only eight arrangements can occur. This is certainly not what Baker's (1985) "Mirror Principle" would lead us to expect<sup>10</sup>.

Second, whatever the nature of the restriction on permissible combinations and sequences, the overall effect is to minimize the options, NOT to maximize them. Hence the use of one fixed sequence to achieve two intepretations in rows 2, 3, 5, and possibly 4. Also where variable sequencing is phonologically permissible, the interpretation may be kept constant (cf. row 2; Chichewa PA=AP (Hyman & Mchombo 1992); Xhosa, see footnote 10). This holistic, non-analytical tendency has reached its extreme level in frozen forms where each form has to be learnt separately. This is not an insignificant aspect of the verb extensions (see Appendix), but it tends to be downgraded whenever we focus on the productive aspect. With this in mind we should not be surprised if Bantu lexicographers continue to list all verb suffixes and their derivations in contradiction to Shepardson's (1986) suggestion.

## 6.2.6 Combining three extensions

Permissible combinations involving three or more extensions will be extremely rare since they can only be based on what is permissible in Table 6.1. As Table 6.2 shows, only four arrangements are all that is possible when three extensions are selected.

SEQU	ENCE	EXAMPLE			
• • • •				••••••	
1 C.	AR son-es-e:	z-angan-a 'ca	use to sew	for each other	1
A	CR búr-iz-a	ngan-a 'cause	to disapp	ear for each ot	her'
	nój-ez-ar	ngan-a 'crush	thoroughl	y for each othe	er'
~ • • • •	• • • • • • • • • • • •			• • • • • • • • • • • • • • • •	•••••
2 C	AP son-es-e:	zi-bw-a 'caus	e to be se	wn for'	
A	CP nój-ezi-k	ow-a 'caus	e to be cr	ushed for'	
• • • •	• • • • • • • • • • • •			•••••	••••••
3 *(	CRA bón-es-a	angan-ir-a ?'	cause to s	ee each other a	it'
4 *	SAR bón-ec-e	er-angan-a ?'	become vis	ible to e.o.'	
5 *:	SAC bón-ec-e	ez-a 'cause t	o be visib	le at'	
6 *1	RAC bón-anga	an-iz-a ?'cau	se to see	each other at'	

TABLE 6.2: Cooccurrence and ordering restrictions: choice of three extensions

Table 6.2 lists only those sequences that on the basis of Table 6.1 contain no prohibited sequences of two

extensions. Only four of the possible eight arrangements are acceptable. In fact, however, the variation in ordering is insignificant since the CA/AC variation is phonologically determined. The sequences in rows 4,5, and 6 seem to suggest that, even if another extension intervenes to break up a prohibited sequence of two, there is still no chance for the combination with three extensions - a position that reinforces the holistic perspective. Furthermore it is significant that only one arrangement of the three extensions C, A, and R should be acceptable (cf rows 1,3, and 6). As the question marks on the glosses indicate, it is not even certain what the interpretations should be and whether there should be any difference between the CRA and the RAC sequences. These facts clearly reinforce the holistic perspective by according significance to the content of the combination and attaching little or no significance to variable ordering.

As it happens the most felicitous three-extension combinations involve the two transitivizers and the reciprocal (cf row 1). And given the restrictive nature of the reciprocal, there is not much room for maneuver in interpreting such forms. Consider (617).

(617) a) ba -ka -son-es-ez-angan-á emyênda they-PST-sew-C -A -R - FV dresses 'for each other they had dresses sewn'

b) \*a - ka -son-es-ez-angan-á abááná emyênda
 he-PST -sew-C -A -R -FV children dresses
 'he had the children sew dresses for each other'

The verb sona 'sew' in (617) allows causee omission. In (617a) the composite argument created by reciprocalization is -ba- 'they'. But in (617b) abáana 'children' cannot be interpreted as a composite argument since there is no predicate structure that could sustain such an interpretation. I will demonstrate this step by step:

(618) a)

X son - es- ez -a Y emyênda : Causee omission; 3 args max. sew - C - A -FV

'X cause [someone] to sew dresses for Y'

#### b)

X & Y son-es-ez-angan-a emyênda: Causee omission and sew-C -A -R -FV reciproc.; 2 args max. 'for each other X & Y cause [someone] to sew dresses'

Clearly a construction like (617b) is not possible. As (618) shows, there cannot exist a sufficient number of arguments with the appropriate properties to give the interpretation 'X cause Y; to Verb (Z) for each other;'. Note from Table 6.2 that the examples in row 1 consist of verbs with a maximum of three non-omissible arguments after the

applicative and causative have expanded the structures (618a). After reciprocalization, only two non-omissible arguments should be available (618b). It was noted in chapter four that, as the number of arguments in a predicate structure increases, so do the restrictions on the respective arguments, all this for the purpose of argument differentiation. In a construction with four non-omissible arguments, one of the arguments must be a first person pronominal affix (see example (203) and footnote 5 in chapter two). Now reciprocalization will require that this first person pronominal affix be interpreted as the composite argument (actor and nonactor). As (619) shows, this is problematic.

- (619) a) ?tu ka- tem-es-ez-angan- á omuséíjá emiti we -PST- cut-C -A -R -FV man trees 'wej made the man cut trees for each otherj'
  - b) \*a -ka -tu-tem-es-ez-angan- á emiti
     he-PST-us-cut-C -A -R -FV trees
     'he made us j cut trees for each other j'

Although there is uncertainty on the acceptability of (619a), its restricted nature is not in doubt: no form other than -tu- 'us' can realize the composite argument obtained after reciprocalization. The unacceptability of (619b), on the other hand, is in conformity with the tendency to minimize the options: in a reciprocal construction, the composite argument, which must be a plural form, must occupy the neutral actor position before the tense marker.

Finally the combination of causative, applicative and passive is also equally restricted to predicate structures with at most three non-omissible arguments. This is illustrated with a causee omission verb in (620).

- - b) \*omwénda gu-ka -mu -son-es-ezi-bw- a Káto dress it-PST-her-sew-C -A -P -FV Káto
    'the dress was caused to be sewn for her by Káto' i.e. it was Káto who had the dress sewn for her.

As already discussed, the actor (Káto) is required in (620a), and the causee is omissible. But there is only one passive version, and (620b) which assigns prominence to the other argument is not acceptable. Indeed this is the only option since constructions that must have four arguments cannot be passivized. Consider (621).

(621) Kató a ~ka -ba -tu-bon-es-ez-á ensimbi Káto he-PST-them-us-see-C -A -FV money 'for us Káto made them obtain money'

For best results (621) has the appropriate mix of noun phrases and pronominal prefixes. In (622) I show that no attempt to assign prominence to any of the three other arguments via passivization can succeed.

- - b) \* (ensimbi) ba -ka -zi-tu-bon-es-ezi-bw-a Káto money they-PST-it-us-see-C -A -P-FV Káto
     'they were made to obtain it (the money) for us by Káto'
  - c) \*ensimbi zi-ka -ba -tu-bon-es-ezi-bw-a Káto
     money it-PST-them-us-see-A P -FV Káto
     'the money was made to be obtained by them for us
     by Káto'

In all three attempts to use the passive to assign prominence to a different argument in the construction is not acceptable. In general, the examples in (619) and (622) appear to indicate that it is not possible to reciprocalize or passivize a structure with four non-omissible arguments. Considering the limited number of arrangements available in Table 6.2 it should be apparent that three extensions is the limit of possibilities on any single verb root. Any combination of four would have to repeat a causative or an applicative, or force a cooccurrence of detransitivizers all of which options are prohibited. In this connection Satyo's (1985) observation is pertinent:

Combinations occur freely ... up to three in a sequence with regular semantic predictability ... Combinations involving four, five and (rarely) six tend to be less predictable in meaning, ... [showing] a gentle curve towards lexicalization in their development (p.298).

In the light of the foregoing discussion, it should be added that combinations of three extensions showing regular semantic predictability are considerably constrained, at least in Runyambo. But even across the various Bantu languages, after the variations in phonological restrictions have been considered, it does appear that predicate structure constraints alone severely cut down the number of possible combinations.

# 6.3 Conclusion

The foregoing discussion has demonstrated that the means for expanding predicate structures have inbuilt restrictions which are part and parcel of the mechanisms for argument differentiation. The transitivizers, the applicative and causative extensions, can cooccur, but neither can be repeated. Consequently the maximum number of new arguments

possible in any predicate structure must be two. For instance, in a one-argument verb like imuka 'rise' the maximum number of arguments after applicativization and causativization is three - X imuciza Y Z 'X caused Y to rise for Z'. For a verb with four arguments the upper limit will be six. Consider (623).

(623) a -ka -ka-n -sar-iz - á omwáná [isócé] [ahamútwe] he-PST-it-me-cut-A+C-FV child hair on head X Y Z B T M 'he cut the child's hair on the head with it for me'

The predicate structure for the unextended verb sára 'cut' accommodates up to four arguments (cf. example (426a) above). Two of these arguments are omissible. In (623) this structure has been expanded to accommodate two more arguments by means of the A and C extensions. At this point the structure has reached the limit of expandability since neither A nor C can be repeated. And the restricted nature of the arguments cannot be overemphasized. Two of the arguments (Y and Z) are realized as pronominal affixes, one of which (Z) must be a first person affix<sup>11</sup>. Of the two omissible arguments, one must be an inalienable part (T) and the other a participant locative (M). Considering the severity of these restrictions, it appears that such structures must be very rare indeed. In the entire verb sample I have not found a verb that can beat sára 'cut' with regard to the number of arguments it can be

made to accommodate. Yet it is not the number six that is of significance. Rather what (623) illustrates so well is that the requirement that arguments be distinguishable from each other is the basis of all these restrictions. It appears that, for any language, the greater the number and types of resources for argument differentiation, the greater the possibility of obtaining predicate structures with multiple arguments, and ultimately, the more things that can be talked about within the confines of a single clause. For instance, in English it is possible to hang many things around a single verb by using the many prepositions which, in addition, may be repeated. The constituents so formed will appear as adjuncts in the clause. In Runyambo, however, similar things can only be incorporated into the structure of the verb by means of the transitivizing extensions which, moreover, cannot be repeated. As was argued in chapter three, the items added in this way need to be regarded as arguments.

Since I went out of my way to test the limits in (623), it should be pointed out that argument differentiation demands that the number of arguments in any predicate structure be kept to the necessary minimum. If one predicate structure rather than two must be employed, then the most likely arguments to get early discharge will be the omissible ones. This is why it was claimed, rather tentatively, in Rugemalira (1992), that the highest number of arguments possible for any predicate structure is four<sup>12</sup>. That appears to be true only when omissible arguments are ignored. So consider the verb kúha 'give' which has three non-omissible arguments.

- (624) a) Kató a ka m- pe er -á abááná amáte Káto he-PST -me-give- A -FV children milk 'Káto gave the children milk for me'
  - b) Kató a- ka- m- pe is- á abááná amáte Káto he-PST-me-give- C -FV children milk 'Káto made me give the children milk'
  - c) \*Kató a -ka ku -m pe is-ez- á abááná amáte Káto he-PST- you-me-give- C -A -FV children milk 2 1 3 4 5 i) 'Káto made you give the children milk for me' ii) 'Káto made you give me milk for the children' iii) 'Káto made me give you milk for the children' iv) 'Káto made me give the children milk for you' v) 'Kato made the children give me milk for you' 'Kato made the children give you milk for me' vi)

As (624) shows, the argument structure of kúha 'give', can accommodate at most one more argument, by means of the applicative (624a) or the causative (624b), thereby becoming a four-argument structure. Although the resource for adding another argument exists, viz. cooccurrence of the applicative and causative extensions, the resulting structure, under all six imaginable interpretations is not acceptable (624c). This suggests that non-omissible arguments cannot exceed an upper limit of four. Note that kúha 'give' is not a causee omission verb. In a sense, the unacceptability of (624c) is based on the fact that the resources for constraining the number of possible mappings are overstretched by the number of arguments available.

Similar complexities are involved in the reciprocalization of four-argument constructions. Consider (625).

- (625) a) a ka- n-tem -es-ez-á omuséíjá emiti she-PST-me-cut -C- A -FV man trees 'for me she made the man cut trees'
  - b) ?tu-ka-tem-es-ez-angan-á omuséíjá emiti
    we-PST-cut-C -A R FV man trees
    'for each other we made the man cut trees'
    ?i) cause-cut for each of us
    ?ii) cause-cut for us and himself
  - c) \*ba -ka -n -tem-es-ez-angan-á emiti they-PST-me-cut- C-A - R -FV trees `for each other they made me cut trees'
  - d) \*mu -ka -n -tem-es-ez-angan-á emiti you(pl.)-PST-me-cut-C- A - R - FV trees `for each other you made me cut trees'

It will be recalled that the reciprocalization of a fourargument structure like (625a) will produce a structure with a maximum of three arguments (625b-d). And also recall that the mapping options have already been reduced by the restriction that the composite argument be realized in initial ('subject') position. Even then we are left with at least two different interpretations, (i) and (ii), in each of the three constructions that can be formed out of (625a). The first person pronominal affix in (625b) seems to help the chances of acceptability for the construction. But on the whole, the intended meanings in all three reciprocal constructions cannot be expressed within the confines of a single clause. The general point deserves restatement: predicate structures with four non-omissible arguments cannot be expanded or contracted without violating the general requirement that arguments be distiguishable from each other.

## NOTES TO CHAPTER SIX

1 The Intensive (I) extension (-irir-, see example 603 and the appendix) should not be regarded as a double applicative (AA), as Johnson (1939) (who called it a "double prepositional") and Satyo (1985:231) do. The Intensive extension usually derives a new lexical item with the meaning "keep V-ing", although in a number of cases such a relationship is too remote to be of much significance. The peculiarity of the intensive lies in the fact that it has no common form across Bantu languages, and that rather than being a fixed form, it is a semantic notion that assumes various forms. In Runyambo the chief form is like a double A, but other forms include I+C, R (cf kugumangana 'become hard'; kwómangana 'become really dry', kutémangana 'fight'), and a variety of other forms included in the Appendix under the X (Other) category. In Chichewa, on the other hand, the chief form is similar to the C extension with the addition of a high tone, but this is doubled if another suffix follows (cf Hyman & Mchombo 1992). In Xhosa the intensive meaning may be expressed with forms that are similar to a double A or a double C (cf Satyo 1985:231).

2 Hyman & Mchombo (1992) have an example that apparently contradicts this position:

mang-ir-an-ir-an- 'tie for each other at (a place)' This example is problematic because it is not presented in a sentence context, which makes it difficult to evaluate its acceptability together with all the arguments licensed. Sam Mchombo (personal communication) considers the examples in (i) and (ii) to have a very low "likelihood of occurrence" (hence the question mark; see also note 3 below).

 (i) ? a -na -zond-er-an-ir-an-a njoka ku-ulaya they-PST-hate-A -R -A -R -FV snakes in-Europe 'they hated snakes for each other in Europe'

(ii) ? a -na -ph -er-an-ir-an-a njoka ku-ulaya they-PST-kill-A -R -A -R -FV snakes in-Europe 'they killed snakes for each other in Europe'

Mchombo's judgements represent one type of two typical responses researchers get from native speakers with respect to marginal structures on which important theoretical claims seem to hinge. Charles Fillmore (personal communication), in connection with the possibility of doubling the Japanese causative suffix sase, notes that the responses are "No, that is not Japanese" and "I can see what you mean (but I would not say that)". The analytical framework proposed in this study follows the first type of response. Mchombo's theoretical position, however, follows the second type of response. There are two aspects to Mchombo's theoretical position which favor the plausibility of suffix doubling. The first aspect concerns the relevance of the competence/performance distinction. It is claimed that the rules of the language do not prohibit sentences (i) and (ii) above (and those in note 3 below, with double causative extensions), but that performance factors related to memory and processing mechanisms are the source of the trouble. Second, given the importance attached to a detailed (and hierarchical) inventory of thematic roles in LFG, it follows that a double applicative construction, licensing a beneficiary and a locative, should be acceptable.

3 Baker (1988:370) has the following Chichewa examples with two causative suffixes but he rates their grammaticality questionable:

- i) ?Asilikali a na vin its-its-a atsikana kwa kaidi
   soldiers they-PST-dance- C -C -FV girls to prisoners
   'The soldiers made the prisoners make the girls dance'
- ii) ?Mkango u -na -meny-ets-ets-a mbuzi kwa anyani lion it-PST-hit -C -C -FV goat to baboons 'The lion made someone make the baboons hit the goats'

4 Note that Hyman & Mchombo's (1992) examples that have a repeated -an- suffix do not involve a double reciprocalization, but are instances of an ordering requirement that "-an- must be spelled out a second time when added to a base that has an applicative in it". See also Satyo (1985:232-3) on Xhosa where both A and C require double spellout of -an-.

5 "...un suffixe monophone -y- ou -w- tend à être représenté après tout autre suffixe" ["a monophone suffix -yor -w- tends to be represented after all other suffixes] (Meeussen 1959:58). Hyman (1990) notes that in several languages this tendency applies despite scope considerations, and despite the fact that the causative form has been lexicalized and the non-causative does not occur alone. In

Runyambo, for instance, the applicative forms of verbs with frozen causatives show non-occurring root forms:

báza 'ask', báriza 'ask for' (from \*bár-ir-;-a)

búuza 'ask', búúriza 'ask for' (from \*búúr-ir-;-a)

banza 'start', bandiza 'start for' (from \*band-ir-;-a) But see chapter five, footnote 11, for the possibility of overgeneralization to environments without any frozen causative.

In Kiswahili the A is a vowel, which leads to the unavailability of the A+C sequence (cf Khamisi 1985).

6 In Chichewa where the phonological restriction does not apply because the passive extension -idw- is not a vowel, both AP and PA sequences are allowed, with AP amenable to both scope interpretations (cf Hyman & Mchombo 1992).

7 See the discussion on causee omission in chapter four.

8 Khamisi (1985, example 78b) uses the causative (patanisha 'reconcile') of a frozen form (pat-an-a 'agree'; \*'get each other') to show that the R+C sequence is productively available. This must be an oversight on the author's part since in a different context (example 68) he does note that pig-an-w-a '(e.g. of war) be fought', from pig-a 'hit', is formed on a frozen reciprocal, and that therefore the R+P sequence is not a productive possibility. Satyo (1985:237,247) gives two examples of the R+C sequence which appear to me to be frozen and quite comparable to the Runyambo examples in (613a,b):

-hlukanisa `cause to separate'

-khandanisa 'cause to hit each other' The example sentence reinforces this view:

índoda ikhandánisa ámátye ngómatshíni

'the man maikes the stones grind each other by means of a machine'

Note that in this Xhosa sentence khandanisa is glossed as 'make/cause to grind each other', not as 'cause to hit each other', an indication that there may be a special sense associated with this derivation. In addition Satyo (1985:250) contains some evidence of R doubling in Xhosa RC combinations: -bonanisana 'cause to see each other'. Satyo notes "a very high frequency of occurrence of combinations of extensions in which -is- is the initial component of a string" p.243.

I have a suspicion that a similar situation holds in Chichewa: a reexamination of the examples used by Alsina (1990) (meny-an-its-a 'cause to hit each other'), and by Hyman and Mchombo (1992) (mang-an-its-a 'cause to tie each other'), might reveal a frozen aspect in their meanings. Sam Mchombo (personal communication) notes that he is inclined to double the R in the RC combination, obtaining RCR. The significant point to be noted is that even though there is neither a phonological nor a predicate structure constraint against the RC/CR combination, it appears that there is a strong tendency in various languages to allow only one of the two possible sequences to appear productively.

9 It is not clear to me whether languages which allow a second passive version allow the RP sequence.

10 "More generally, it has often been observed that the order of affixes on the verb corresponds to the semantic scope of those affixes, with outermost affixes interpreted as superordinated predicates ... This strict parallelism between the order of the morphemes on the verb and the way that the form is interpreted is an example of what Baker (1985a) calls the MIRROR PRINCIPLE effect, where the morphology "reflects" the syntax in a perspicuous way" (Baker 1988:373).

Satyo (1985:282) makes a similar claim in his analysis of Xhosa verb extensions but fails to demonstrate the validity of that claim: "The manoeuvring of these extensions in a sequence has the associated change in communicative value. In other words, the order that one selects in a combination reflects appropriately the manner in which an idea is conceptualised." Indeed the author seems to be unaware of statements in the same chapter to the effect that sequencing is irrelevant (that PA=AP; RP=PR; PC=CP): (iii) /-w-/ + /-el-/ Example: -bhal-w-él- 'be written for' This combination is rather restricted in its occurrence. It is used alternatively or interchangeably with its reverse /el-+-w-/ without any semantic changes or differences. In this behaviour, it resembles the combinations /-an-/+/-w-/ and /w-/+/-an-/ mentioned above...

(iv) /-w-/+/-is-/
This combination is interchangeable with /-is-/+/w/.
(Satyo 1985:245)

Apparently the phonological requirement to place the passive at the end does not hold in Xhosa.

11 In Kirimi the second 'object' prefix slot can only be available if it is filled by the first person affix (Hualde 1989). In Runyambo it is the third slot that must be filled by the first person affix. Note in this connection, that Machobane's (1989) GB framework forces her to adopt a peculiar position. By her "Internal Argument Principal" (IAP), "the maximum number of internal arguments that a verb can take is two". So a construction with three NPs as internal arguments is not acceptable. But if one of the NPs is replaced by a pronominal affix, the construction is acceptable. Machobane adopts the admittedly problematic position that three cases have been assigned, but has to maintain that the affix is not an argument because this would violate the IAP (pp.139-44).

12 See also the discussion in chapter two about the upper limit on possible grammatical functions in LFG. Similarly descriptions of other Bantu languages within a grammatical relations framework show an upper limit of four grammatical relations (cf. inter alia Byarushengo et al. 1977 on Ruhaya, Satyo 1985 on Xhosa, and Machobane 1989 on Sesotho).

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### APPENDIX

#### LEXICON OF RUNYAMBO EXTENDED VERBS

KEY:

A - applicative C - causative D - double stem I - intensive P - passive R - reciprocal S - stative V - reversive X - otherkwacura scratch A- kwagurira scratch for C- kwaguza cause to scratch P- kwagurwa be scratched R- kwagurangana scratch each other A+P- kwagurirwa be scratched something C+R- kwaquzangana cause to scratch each other kwaka shine, (of fire) give flame, (of car) start; deprive of A- kwacira give flame/start at; deprive of for C- kwaca cause to give flame/start - kwacisa be caused to deprive of/to be deprived of R- kwakangana deprive each other of P- kwakwa be deprived of I- kwaciira receive kwambuka cross (water) A- kwambucira cross at C- kwambuca take across P- kwambukwa be crossed C+A- kwambuciza take across for/at C+R- kwambucangana take each other across kwana - (of banana tree) give fruit; (of grasshoppers) chirp A- kwanira give fruit at C- kwanisa cause to give fruit I- kw**aniira** groan kwanga refuse, dislike A- kwánjira refuse for/at C- kwánjisa cause to refuse/dislike R- kwángana (of wife) temporarily go away from husband - kwángangana dislike each other P- kwángwa be disliked I- kwánjirira refuse for, withhold help A+R- kwánjirangana refuse at each other A+P- kwánjirwa be refused at C+R- kwánjisangana cause each other to refuse something C+P- kwánjisibwa be caused to refuse/dislike R+A- kwánganira (of wife) go to (place) away from husband - kwánganganira dislike each other at

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R+C- kwánganisa cause to go away from husband kwara make a bed, spread out (a sheet) A- kwarira make a bed for; spread out (esp.grass) on floor C- kwaza cause to make bed P- kwarwa (of bed) be made X- kwarika cover bananas to ripen; keep a bride secluded V- kwarura bring a bride out of seclusion - kwaruura uncover I- kwariirira spread out grass on floor A+R- kwarirangana make bed for each other A+P- kwarirwa be made a bed for kw**åsa** chop, split A- kwásiza chop for/at C- kwásisa cause to chop P- kwásibwa be chopped X- kwásama open one's mouth X+V- kwásamura open someone's mouth kwata crack, shatter A- kwátira crack for/at C- kwátisa cause to crack S- kwátika crack(intr.) P- kwátwa be cracked A+R- kwátirangana crack for each other A+P- kwátirwa be cracked for C+R- kwátisangana cause each other to crack C+P- kwátisibwa be caused to crack S+A- kwáticira crack at kwaya plunder, take away everything A- kwayira plunder for C- kwayisa cause to plunder P- kwaywa be plundered A+P- kwayirwa be plundered for kú**ba** be A- kubéera be for; help C- kubéisa cause to be A+P- kubéerwa be fortunate; be helped A+R- kubéérangana help each other kubáaga slaughter A- kubáájira slaughter for/at C- kubáájisa cause to slaughter P- kubáagwa be slaughtered A+R- kubáájirangana slaughter for each other C+R- kubáájisangana cause each other to slaughter kubáasa be able, be strong enough to A- kubáásiza stand up to someone for P- kubáásibwa be decisively challenged/stopped S- kubáásika be possible

R- kubáásangana cope with each other kubába (of certain plants & insects) prick A- kubábira prick for/at C- kubábisa cause to prick P- kubábwa be pricked R- kubábangana prick each other V- kubábura scorch; spank S- kubábuka be scorched I- kubábiirira scorch; cause to feel itchy C+A- kubábisiza cause to prick for C+R- kubábisangana prick each other with V+A- kubáburira scorch for/at; spank for/at V+R- kubáburangana spank each other V+P- kubáburwa be scorched; be spanked kubagana share, divide up A- kubaganira share at, divide up for C- kubaganisa divide up P- kubaganwa be shared S- kubaganuka come apart V- kubaganura cause to come apart C+A- kubaganisiza divide up for kubánjura clear the ground before sowing A- kubánjurira clear the ground for C- kubánjuza cause to clear the ground P- kubánjurwa be cleared A+R- kubánjurirangana clear the ground for each other C+P- kubánjuzibwa be caused to clear the ground kubanza do first, start A- kubandiza start for/at C- kubanzisa cause to start P- kubanzibwa be started A+R- kubandizangana start for each other kubara count A- kubarira count for; estimate C- kubaza cause to count P- kubarwa be counted R- kubarangana count each other V- kubaruura tell a tale I- kubariirira estimate A+C- kubariza cause to count/ be counted for A+P- kubarirwa be counted for A+R- kubarirangana count for each other C+P- kubazibwa be caused to count C+R- kubazangana cause each other to count kubárura burst (trans) A- kubárurira burst for C- kubáruza cause to burst S- ku**báruka** burst (intr)

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A+R- kubárurirangana burst for each other C+R- kubáruzangana cause each other to burst S+A- kubárucira burst at kubáza ask, inquire, examine A- kubáriza inquire for/at C- kubázisa cause to inquire P- kubázibwa be asked/examined R- kubázangana ask each other I- kubáriiriza be too inquisitive A+R- kubárizangana inquire for each other ku**baziira** sew A- kubaziirira sew for/at C- kubaziiza cause to sew P- ku**baziirwa** be sewn C+R- kubaziizangana cause each other to sew kubátiza baptize A- kubátiriza baptize for/at P- kubátizibwa be baptized R- kubátizangana baptize each other A+R- kubátirizangana baptize for each other, baptize each other at kubéiha tell lies, deceive A- kubéihera deceive for/at C- kubéihesa cause to tell lies P- kubéihwa be deceived R- kubéihangana deceive each other I- kubéiherera accuse unjustly D- kubéihabeiha persuade, coax gently/by deception A+P- kubéiherwa be deceived at A+R- kubéiherangana deceive for each other R+A- kubéihanganira deceive each other at I+P- kubéihererwa be accused unjustly I+R- kubéihererangana accuse each other unjustly kubeija carve, do carpentry A- kubeijera carve for/at C- kubeijesa cause to carve P- kubeijwa be carved A+C- kubeijesera cause to carve for A+P- kubeijerwa be carved something C+P- kubeijesibwa be caused to carve kubiika store, put away A- kubiicira store for C- kubiicisa cause to store, entrust with - kubiica entrust with P- kubiikwa be stored I+C- kubiicirisa be fond of storing things A+P- kubiicirwa be stored something

kubika bring news of death of A- ku**bicira** bring news of death of someone to A+R- kubicirangana bring news of death to each other kubinga drive away, chase A- kubinjira chase for/at/into C- kubinjisa cause to chase P- kubingwa be chased R- kubingangana chase each other A+P- kubinjirwa be chased something A+R- kubinjirangana chase for each other R+A- kubinganganira chase each other at kubira foam & overflow A- kubirira foam at C- kubiza cause to foam ku**bóha** bind A- kubóhera bind for/at C- kubóhesa cause to bind P- kubóhwa be bound R- kubóhangana bind each other V- kubóhoorora unbind S- kubóhooroka become unbound I- kubóheerera bind severely A+P- kubóherwa be bound for/at A+R- kubóherangana bind for each other, bind e.o. at C+P- kubóhesibwa be cause to bind C+R- kubóhesangana cause each other to bind V+C- kubóhooroza cause to unbind V+P- kubóhoororwa be unbound S+A- kubóhcorocera become unbound at ku**bóna** see A- kubónera see for/at C- kubónesa cause to see P- ku**bónwa** be seen R- kubónangana see each other; meet S- kubóneka be visible, be available D- ku**bónabona** suffer A+P- kubónerwa be found something A+R- kubónerangana see/find for each other S+A- kubónecera be visible at C+A- kubóneseza cause to see for C+P- kubónesibwa be caused to see C+R- kubónesangana cause each other to see R+A- ku**bónanganira** see each other at R+C- ku**bónanganisa** cause to meet D+A- kubónabonera suffer at D+C- kubónabonesa cause to suffer - kubónyabonya cause to suffer ku**bóya** be a bully A- kubóyera bully, be a bully at

C- kubóyesa cause to be a bully A+P- kubóyerwa be bullied C+P- kubóyesibwa be caused to be a bully ku**búgana** meet A- kubúganira meet for C- kubúganisa cause to meet P- kubúganwa be met R- kubúgangana meet/encounter each other kubûmba mould A- kubúmbira mould for/at C- kubúmbisa cause to mould P- kubûmbwa be moulded A+P- kubúmbirwa be moulded something A+R- kubúmbirangana mould for each other C+A- kubúmbisiza cause to mould for C+R- kubúmbisangana cause each other mould kubûnga wander off idly, visit A- kubúnjira wander idly for/ to C- kubúnjisa cause to wander idly - ku**búnja** cause to wander; peddle X- kubúnguza make frequent and idle visits C+P- kubúnjibwa be caused to wander kubunga treat fracture medically A- kubunjira treat for/at C- kubunjisa cause grain, wood etc. to be bored into by insects P- kubungwa be treated; (of grain, wood) be bored into by insects kubúra be lost, disappear, be lacking A- kubúrira disappear at/into C- kubúza lose, cause to disappear P- kubúrwa lack something D+C- kubúzabuza (also kubúrabuza) bewilder, pester with too many demands D+A+P- kubúraburirwa suffer, be bewildered ku**búuza** ask, inquire A- ku**búúriza** inquire for/at C- kubúúzisa cause to inquire P- kubúúzibwa be asked R- kubúúzangana ask each other I- kubúúririza be too inquisitive A+R- kubúúrizangana inquire for each other, ask e.o. at ku**bwéigora** bark A- kubwéigorera bark at C- kubwéigoza cause to bark C+P- kubwéigozibwa be caused to bark C+R- kubwéigozangana cause each other to bark

kubweijana be lonely A- kubweijanira be lonely at C- kubweijanisa cause to be lonely C+P- kubweijanisibwa be caused to be lonely kubyama lie down, go to bed A- kubyámira lie on C- kubyâmya put to bed – ku**byámisa** cause to go to bed X- kubyámisiriza lure into sleep A+P- ku**byámirwa** be laid on A+R- kubyámirana (of many) lie helplessly e.g. the sick, fallen trees kubyāra plant A- kubyárira plant for C- kubyaza cause to plant P- ku**byårwa** be planted A+P- kubyárirwa be planted something C+P- kubyázibwa be caused to plant kúca dawn A- ku**céera** dawn while at C- ku**céisa** cause to dawn; pass a sleepless night; greet, wish good day C+A- kucéiseza greet for (also:kukéiseza) I+P- kucáérererwa be late (i.e. be thoroughly dawned upon by the dav) I+C- kucéérereza cause to be late I+C+P kucéérerezibwa be caused to be late kucáara go for a walk, visit A- kucáárira go for a walk to, visit a person/place C- kucáaza take someone for a walk/visit D- kucááracaara walk about A+C- kucááriza take someone around for A+P- kucáárirwa be visited A+R- kucáárirangana visit each other C+P- kucáázibwa be taken around C+R- kucáázangana take each other around ku**céba** mash A- kucébera mash at; examine, check on C- kucébesa cause to mash P- kucébwa be mashed S- ku**cébuka** splinter into pieces V- kucébura cut into pieces D- kucébaceba pound/cut into many little pieces A+P- kucéberwa be mashed something, be mashed at; be examined A+R- kucéberangana mash for e.o.; check on each other S+A- kucébucira splinter into pieces at V+A- kucéburira cut into pieces for/at

V+A+R- kucéburirangana cut into pieces for each other kucéncura sift A- kucéncurira sift for/at C- kucéncuza cause to sift P- kucéncurwa be sifted S- ku**céncuka** be siftable A+P- kucéncurirwa be sifted something, be sifted at A+R- kucéncurirangana sift for each other ku**cénena** filter A- kucénenera filter for/into C- kucénenesa cause to filter P- kucénenwa be filtered S- kucénenuka trickle through a filter X- kucéneka suck blood out of body X- kucénenuza squeeze the last drops through the filter A+P- kucénenerwa be filtered something, be filtered at A+R- kucénenerangana filter for each other C+P- kucénenesibwa be caused to filter C+R- kucénenesangana cause each other to filter S+A- kucénenucira trickle through a filter at/into kucinga shut, close A- kucínjira shut for, obstruct view C- kucínjisa cause to shut P- kucingwa be shut V- kucingura open S- ku**cinguka** open (intransitive) C+A- kucinjisiza cause to be shut for A+P- kucinjirwa be shut something, be obstructed in view A+R- kucinjirana shut in/out - kucinjirangana obstruct each other's view C+P- kucinjisibwa be caused to shut C+R- kucinjisangana cause each other to shut V+A- kucingurira open for V+C- kucinguza cause to open V+P- kucingurwa be opened S+A- kucingucira open at kucira recover, escape danger; exceed A- kucírira recover at/for C- kuciza cause to recover; exceed with P- kucirwa be exceeded R- kucirana be unequal I- kuciriirira escape very narrowly from danger A+C- kucíriza cause to recover for/at C+R- kucizangana be unequal with respect to kucúgura have diarrhoea A- kucúgurira have diarrhoea on/at C- kucúguza cause to have diarrhoea P- ku**cúgurwa** be ....

kucukura search intensively A- ku**cukurira** search for C- kucukuza cause to search P- ku**cukurwa** be searched A+R- ku**cukurirangana** search(dig out) for each other A+C- kucukuzangana cause to search(dig out) for each other ku**cumba** cook A- kucumbira cook for C- kucumbisa cause to cook P- kucumbwa be cooked I- kucumbirira care for someone by providing good meals A+P- kucumbirwa be cooked something, be cooked at A+R- kucumbirangana cook for each other C+A- kucumbisiza cause to be cooked something C+P- kucumbisibwa be caused to cook C+R- kucumbisangana cause each other to cook ku**cúmbajira** limp A- kucúmbajirira limp at C- kucúmbajiza cause to limp C+P- kucúmbajizibwa be caused to limp C+R- kucúmbajizangana cause each other to limp ku**cúmita** spear, pierce A- kucúmitira spear for; cut down some young banana trees C- kucúmisa cause to spear P- kucúmitwa be speared R- kucúmitangana spear each other A+P- kucúmitirwa be speared something, be speared at A+R- kucúmitirangana spear for each other C+P- kucúmisibwa be caused to spear C+R- kucúmisangana cause each other to spear R+A- kucúmitanganira spear each other at kucuncumura jerk A- kucuncumurira jerk for/at C- kucuncumuza cause to jerk P- kucuncumurwa be jerked R- kucuncumurangana jerk each other S- kucuncumuka be jerked A+P- kucuncumurirwa be jerked something, be jerked at A+R- kucuncumurirangana jerk for each other C+P- kucuncumuzibwa be caused to jerk C+R- kucuncumuzangana cause each other to jerk kucunda shake, churn(butter) A- kucúndira shake for/at C- kucunza cause to shake; torment P- kucûndwa be shaken; be tormented X- kucúndagura shake repeatedly A+P- kucúndirwa be shaken something, be shaken at A+R- kucúndirangana shake for each other C+P- kucúnzibwa be caused to shake; be tormented

C+R- kucúnzangana cause each other to shake; torment each other X+S- kucúndagurika shake (intransitive) kucúngura redeem A- kucúngurira redeem for/at C- kucúnguza redeem with P- kucúngurwa be redeemed R- kucúngurangana redeem each other A+P- kucúngurirwa be redeemed something, be redeemed at A+R- kucúngurirangana redeem for each other C+R- kucúnguzangana cause each other to redeem ku**cúra** wail A- kucúrira wail for/at C- kucúza cause to wail (e.g. by mentioning name of deceased) A+P- kucúrirwa be mourned A+R- kucúrirangana mourn for each other C+P- kucúzibwa be caused to wail C+R- kucúzangana cause each other to wail kucúreera be quiet, be humble A- kucúreerera quieten at C- kucúreeza guieten C+A- kucúreereza quieten for C+P- kucúreezibwa be caused to quieten C+R- kucúreerangana quieten each other kucúrika tilt, turn upside down A- kucúricira tilt for/at; cover P- kucúrikwa be tilted V- kucúruura turn upside up A+A- kucúricirira cover for/at A+P- kucúricirwa be covered kucúriza whistle A- kucúririza whistle at C- kucúrizisa cause to whistle P- kucúrizwa be whistled kucúuka be weaned A- kucúucira be weaned at C- ku**cúuca** wean V- ku**cúúkura** wean C+A- kucúúciza wean in (duration) V+A- kucúúkurira wean for, wean in (duration) V+P- kucúúkurwa be weaned kúcwa disown; cut up A- kucwera disown at; cut up for/at; C- kucwisa cause to cut up P- kucwêbwa be cut up S- kucwéka become extinct A+R- kucwérangana cut up for each other

C+P- kucwisibwa be caused to disown/cut up S+A- kucwécera meet e.g. a visitor on the way S+I- kucwécerera be completely destroyed S+R+C- kucwékanisa cross (e.g. a road) kucwera spit A- kucwérera spit for (reason) C- kucweza cause to spit P- kucwêrwa be spat R- kucwérangana spit on each other X- kucwéraguzibwa spit often C+R- kucwézangana cause each other to spit kweba be forgotten A- kwebera be forgotten at C- kwebesa cause to forget P- kwebwa forget R- kwebangana forget each other A+P- kweberwa forget (while) at C+R- kwebesangana cause each other to forget C+I- kwebesereza distract kwébembera be in front, lead A- kwébemberera lead for C- kwébembeza put in front P- kwébemberwa be preceded by, be led kwéfuuza regret, be remorseful A- kwéfuuriza regret at kw**êga** learn A- kwéjera learn at, learn for(e.g. a profession) C- kwégesa teach P- kw**êgwa** be learnt C+P- kwégesibwa be taught C+R- kwégesangana teach each other C+I- kwégesereza teach in order to convert, coach regarding what to say kwégaana deny A- kwéganira deny at kwégama lean A- kwégamira lean against C- kwégamya cause to lean against A+P- kwégamirwa be leaned upon kwéganya feel lazy/not up to the task/unwilling to tackle a task A- kwéganyira feel self pity, be considerate of one's energies I- kwéganyiirira feel lazy X- kuganyira feel pity/consideration for X+A- kuganyirira pity for/at

X+P- kuganyirwa be pitied X+R- kuganyirangana feel pity for each other kwéjeka put leaning A- kwéjecera put leaning for C- kwéjecesa cause to put leaning P- kwéjekwa be put leaning R- kwéjekangana put each other leaning A+P- kwéjecerwa be put something leaning A+R- kwéjecerangana put leaning for each other kwéhanga dare foolishly (i.e. against ability) A- kwéhanjira dare at (place) R- kwéhangaana muster one's energies X- kwéhangamurira attempt the impossible kwéjiza pretend A- kwéjiriza pretend on someone kwékomya make sure of future recognition, recognize A- kwékomeza reconize at kw@ma start from; (of animals) be on heat, conceive A- kwémera conceive at C- kw**êmya** (of male animals) serve kwémera withstand, endure; provide support A- kwémerera provide support for R- kwémerangana endure each other P- kwémerwa be endured; be supported I- kwémeerera stand up I+C- kwémeereza erect, cause to stand up I+C+P kwémeerezibwa be caused to stand up kwenda like, want A- kwendera like for/at, wish for C- kwenza demand P- kwendwa be liked R- kwendangana like each other A+C- kwendeza demand for/at A+P- kwenderwa be liked at A+R- kwenderangana wish for each other C+R- kwezangana demand from each other R+A- kwendanganira like each other at kwera (of crop) ripen, be abundant; be clean, be white A- kwérera ripen for/at; be clean (while) at; testify to someone's innocence C- kwesa have a good crop; clean satisfactorily X- kwérurukana be whitish, lose original color A+C- kwéreza have a good crop for/at A+R- kwérerangana testify to each other's innocence C+P- kwézibwa be produced in abundance; be cleaned

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kwereera float C- kwereeza cause to float, hold high C+P- kwereezibwa be caused to float kwerura winnow A- kwerurira winnow for/at C- kweruza cause to winnow P- kwerurwa be winnowed A+P- kwerurirwa be winnowed something A+R- kwerurirangana winnow for each other C+P- kweruzibwa be caused to winnow C+R- kweruzangana cause each other to winnow kwésiga trust A- kwésijira trust for/at R- kwésigangana trust each other P- kwésigwa be trusted kwésiza be quiet A- kwéziriza be quiet at kw**êta** call A- kwétera call for/ (while) at C- kwétesa cause to call P- kwêtwa be called R- kwétangana call each other X- kwétabuka respond (vocally) to a call I- kwéterera give same name as someone else; keep calling animals to follow A+P- kwéterwa be called for/at A+R- kwéterangana call for each other C+P- kwétesibwa be caused to call I+C- kwétereza call repeatedly (so pester) kwétenga desire, long for A- kwétenjera desire at, wish for C- kwétenjesa cause to desire P- kwétengwa be desired kwétonda introduce oneself; be careful, concentrate A- kwétondera introduce self to/at; be careful at kwévuga recite poetry A- kwévujira recite poetry for/at C- kwévujisa cause to recite poetry P- kwévugwa (of poetry) be recited kweya sweep up A- kweyera sweep up for/into C- kweyesa cause to sweep up P- kweywa be swept up A+P- kweyerwa be cleaned a place A+R- kweyerangana sweep up for each other C+A- kweyeseza cause to sweep up for

C+R- kweyesangana cause each other to sweep up kwéyayaamura vawn A- kwéyayaamurira yawn at C- kwéyayaamuza yawn in (manner) kúfa die; break down, go bad(esp. beer) A- ku**féera** die for/at C- kufiisa fail to make good beer, (of animals) lose young to death X- kuféérecerera be completely destroyed A+P- kuféerwa lose a relative to death kufoora change colour (transitive) A- kufoorera change colour for/at C- kufooza cause to change colour P- kufoorwa be changed in colour S- kufooka change colour(intransitive) A+C- kufoorera cause to change colour for A+P- kufoorerwa be changed colour for A+R- kufoorerangana change colour for each other C+P- kufoozibwa be caused to change colour S+A- kufoocera change colour at kufuka be cold; blow the nose A- kufucira be cold at; blow the nose at C- kufucisa cause to blow the nose ku**fukaana** wrestle A- kufukaanira wrestle for/at C- ku**fukaanisa** cause to wrestle ku**fukunkura** empty out A- kufukunkurira empty into C- kufukunkuza cause to empty out P- kufukunkurwa be emptied out S- ku**fukunkuka** empty out (intransitive) A+P- kufukunkurirwa be emptied something A+R- kufukunkurirangana empty out for each other C+P- kufukunkuzibwa be caused to empty out kufúmbata embrace A- kufúmbatira embarace for/at C- kufúmbasa cause to embrace P- kufúmbatwa be embraced R- kufúmbatana embrace each other A+P- kufúmbatirwa be embraced for/at C+R- kufúmbatanisa cause to embrace each other R+A- kufúmbatanira embrace each other at ku**fúmura** pierce A- kufúmurira pierce for/at C- kufúmuza cause to pierce P- kufúmurwa be pierced

R- kufúmurangana pierce each other S- kufúmuka be pierced D- kufúmafumura pierce repeatedly A+P- kufúmurirwa be pierced something A+R- kufúmurirangana pierce for each other C+A- kufúmuriza cause to pierce for/at C+P- kufúmuzibwa be caused to pierce S+A- kufúmucira be pierced at D+P- kufúmafumurwa be pierced repeatedly D+S- kufúmafumuka be pierced repeatedly ku**fúna** gain, profit A- ku**fúnira** gain for/at C- kufúnisa cause to gain kufunda be narrow, fail to fit A- kufúndira be narrow at C- ku**funza** cause to be narrow; reduce distance/job ahead P- kufundwa be unable to fit into a dress V- kufúnduura open (remove lid, stopper) S- ku**fúnduuka** open (intr) V+A- kufúnduurira open for/at V+C- kufúnduuza cause to open V+P- kufúnduurwa be opened S+A- kufúnduucira become open at V+A+R- kufúnduurirangana open for each other V+C+R- kufúnduuzangana cause each other to open ku**fúndicira** cover A- ku**fúndicirira** cover for/at C- kufúndiciza cause to cover P- ku**fúndicirwa** be covered R- kufúndicirangana cover each other A+P- kufúndicirirwa be covered at A+R- kufúndicirirangana cover for each other C+R- ku**fúndicizangana** cause each other to cover ku**funga** imprison, lock A- kufunjira imprison for/at · C- kufunjisa cause to imprison/be imprisoned P- kufungwa be imprisoned V- kufungura dilute - kufungurura unlock, let out of prison S- kufunguka be diluted - ku**funguruka** be unlocked A+P- kufunjirwa be imprisoned for/at A+R- kufunjirangana imprison for each other C+A- kufunjisiza cause to be imprisoned for C+R- kufunjisangana cause each other to imprison/be imprisoned S+A- kufungucira be diluted at V+A- kufungurira dilute for/at V+C- kufunguza cause to dilute V+P- kufungurwa be diluted

V+P- kufungururwa be set free V+C+A- kufunguriza cause to be diluted something ku**fúnya** fold, prepare a body for burial; drive (cattle) A- kufúnyira fold for/at; drive for C- kufuyisa cause to fold; cause to drive X- kufúnyanyara be wrinkled D- kufúnyafunya crumple P- kufúnywa be folded, be driven A+P- kufúnyirwa be folded something, be driven cattle A+R- kufúnyirangana fold for each other; drive for e.o. C+P- kufúnyisibwa be caused to fold; be caused to drive C+R- kufúnyisangana cause each other to fold; cause e.o. to drive X+A- kufúnyanyarira be wrinkled at X+C- kufúnyanyaza cause to be wrinkled D+A- kufúnyafunyira crumple for/at D+C- kufúnyafunyisa cause to crumple X+A+C- kufúnyanyariza cause to be wrinkled for kufura wash clothes A- kufurira wash for/at C- kufuza cause to wash P- kufurwa be washed A+C- kufuriza cause to be washed clothes, wash with for A+P- kufurirwa be washed clothes A+R- kufurirangana wash for each other C+P- kufuzibwa be caused to wash C+R- kufuzangana cause each other to wash kufúrura move ( esp.house and goods) A- kufúrurira move for/to C- kufúruza cause to move P- kufúrurwa be moved R- kufúrurangana cause each other to move S- kufúruka move (intransitive) A+P- kufúrurirwa be moved to A+R- kufúrurirangana move each other to C+R- kufúrurangana cause each other to move S+A- kufúrucira move to, settle at ku**fútana** chew A- ku**fútanira** chew for/at C- kufútanisa cause to chew P- kufútanwa be chewed A+P- kufútanirwa be chewed something, be chewed at A+R- kufútanirangana chew for each other C+R- kufútanisangana cause each other to chew kufuuha (in marriage) be very jealous; spray A- ku**fuuhira** be jealous to; spray onto C- kufuuhisa cause to be jealous; cause to spray A+P- kufuuhirwa be victim of jealousy; be sprayed onto

A+R- kufuuhirangana be jealous to each other; spray onto e.o kufuuta crush, squeeze juice A- kufuutira crush for/at C- kufuutisa cause to crush P- kufuutwa be crushed A+P- kufuutirwa be crushed something A+R- kufuutirangana crush for each other C+R- kufuusangana cause each other to crush kugaaniira converse A- kugaaniirira narrate to, tell; converse at C- kugaaniiza cause to converse; tease A+C- kugaaniiriza tease for A+P- kugaaniirirwa be told C+P- kugaaniizibwa be caused to converse; be teased ku**gaaya** whimper A- kugaayira whimper at C- kugaayisa cause to whimper kugaba distribute, give away; (of milk) fill mother's breasts A- kugabira give to/at C- kugabisa cause to give away; cause to have milk in breasts P- kugabwa be given away V- kugabura divide amongst A+P- kugabirwa be given something A+R- kugabirangana give to each other V+A- kugaburira give food(esp. to a child) V+C- kugabuza cause to divide amongst V+P- kugaburwa be divided up V+A+P- kugaburirwa be fed; be given one's share kugaga (of food) go bad A- kugajira go bad at C- kugajisa cause to go bad C+P- kugajisibwa be caused to go bad kugamba speak, denounce A- kugambira speak to, tell; denounce at C- kugambisa cause to speak P- kugambwa be said, be denounced R- kugambangana denounce each other I- kugambirira speak to on behalf of, tell for; speak one's mind X- kwégambisiriza hint, speak indirectly A+P- kugambirwa be told A+R- kugambirana confer together. C+P- kugambisibwa speak nonsense; speak indiscreetly R+A- kugambanganira denounce each other at kugana tell stories A- kuganira tell stories to/at

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C- kuganisa cause to tell stories P- kuganwa be told A+P- kuganirwa be told stories A+R- kuganirangana tell each other stories C+P- kuganisibwa be caused to tell stories C+R- kuganisangana cause each other to tell stories kugangabura split, crack A- kugangaburira split for C- kugangabuza cause to split P- kugangaburwa be split A+R- kugangaburirangana split for each other C+R- kugangabuzangana cause each other to split kugarama lie on one's back; be flat A- kugaramira lie on back for/at C- kugaramya cause to lie on the back; make flat A+C- kugaramiza cause to lie on back for/at kugarura bring back A- kugarurira give back to, stop at; forgive C- kugaruza cause to bring back P- kugarurwa be brought back R- kugarurangana bring each other back S- ku**garuka** return S+A- kugarucira return while at, stop at be repeated; be returned to S+P- kugarukwa A+P- kugarurirwa be given back something; be forgiven A+R- kugarurirangana give back to each other; forgive e.o. R+A- kugaruranganira stop each other at ku**gaya** scorn, despise A- kugayira despise for/at C- kugayisa cause to despise P- kugaywa be despised R- kugayangana despise each other A+P- kugayirwa be despised at A+R- kugayirangana despise for each other C+R- kugayisangana cause each other to despise kugeita marry in church A- kugeitera marry in church for/at C- kugeitesa cause to marry in church P- kugeitwa be married in church A+P- kugeiterwa be married in church for/at kugesa harvest (esp. millet, sorghum) A- kugesera harvest for/into C- kugesesa cause to harvest P- kugesibwa be harvested A+C- kugeseza cause to harvest for A+R- kugeserangana harvest for each other kugoba reach, be complete

A- kugobera reach in (time); reach and camp at C- kugobya cause to reach, deliver; cause to be complete; defraud P- kugobwa be reached, be sufficiently covered by supplies R- kugobangana reach each other; get together A+C- kugobera defraud (transitive) A+P- kugoberwa be reached(esp. by trouble), be one's turn C+I- kugobesereza complete full amount kugomora fatten A- kugomorera fatten for/at P- kugomorwa be fattened R- kugomorangana fatten each other S- ku**gomoka** grow fat S+A- kugomocera grow fat at ku**gona** snore A- kugonera snore at C- kugonesa cause to snore C+P- kugonesibwa be caused to snore ku**gonda** give in A- kugondera give in at C- kugondesa cause to give in X- kugondeka bend (transitive) - kugondama be bent X+A- kugondecera bend for/at X+P- kugondekwa be bent kugorora straighten, iron; reconcile A- kugororera straighten for/at C- kugoroza cause to straighten; oversleep, wake up late P- kugororwa be straightened; be reconciled R- kugororangana straighten each other S- kugororoka be straight A+R- kugororerangana straighten for each other; reconcile for each other S+A- kugororocera become straight while at kugóya cook sorghum meal A- kugóyera cook for/at C- kugóvesa cause to cook P- kugóywa be cooked A+P- kugóyerwa be cooked something, be cooked at A+R- kugóyerangana cook for each other C+P- kugóyesibwa be caused to cook C+R- kugóyesangana cause each other to cook ku**guguna** gnaw A- kugugunira gnaw for/at C- kugugunisa cause to gnaw P- kugugunwa be gnawed A+P- kugugunirwa be gnawed something, be gnawed at A+R- kugugunirangana gnaw for each other

C+P- kugugunisibwa be caused to gnaw C+R- kugugunisangana cause each other to gnaw kuguma remain, continue; be hard (solids), be difficult, be well (healthy) A- kugumira remain for; be hard for/at C- kugumya keep to self, retain; gumyá omutima have courage, persevere - kugumisa harden, encourage R- ku**gumangana** become hard A+P- kugumirwa have difficulty C+A- kugumisiza harden for, encourage for C+P- kugumisibwa be hardened; be confirmed in the faith C+I- kugumisiriza encourage, give heart R+C- kugumanganisa cause to become hard kugura buy A- kugurira buy for/at C- kuguza cause to buy, sell P- kugurwa be bought A+C- kuquriza sell for/at A+P- kugurirwa be bought something A+R- kugurirangana buy for each other C+P- kuguzibwa be sold something C+R- kuguzangana cause each other to buy, sell to e.o. A+C+R- kugurizangana sell for each other ku**guruka** jump, skip A- kugurucira jump for/at C- kuguruca cause to jump, toss up P- kugurukwa be jumped R- kugurukangana jump each other D- ku**guraguruka** jump about in excitement A+C- ku**guruciza** jump about C+P- kugurucibwa be caused to jump C+R- kugurucangana cause each other to jump kugútura snap, cut A- kugúturira cut for/at C- kugútuza cause to cut P- kugúturwa be cut S- kugútuka snap, be cut D- kugútagutura cut into many pieces A+P- kugúturirwa be cut something A+R- kugúturirangana cut for each other C+P- kugútuzibwa be caused to cut C+R- kugútuzangana cause each other to cut D+S- kugútagutuka be cut into many pieces S+A- kugútucira snap at kugwa fall, fail A- kugwera fall on; waylay C- kugwisa cause to fall P- kugwebwaho be fallen on

I- kugwerera stagger A+P- kugwerwa be hit by something falling; be waylayed A+R- kugwerangana fall on each other; waylay each other C+A- kugwisiza cause to fall for I+R- kugwererana stagger C+A+R- kugwisizangana cause to fall for each other kuqweigoora strip sisal A- kuqweigoorera strip sisal for/at C- kugweigooza cause to strip sisal P- kuqweigoorwa (of sisal) be stripped A+C- kugweigooresa cause to be stripped sisal A+P- kugweigoorerwa be stripped sisal A+R- kugweigoorerangana strip sisal for each other C+P- kuqweigoozibwa be caused to strip sisal C+R- kugweigoozangana cause each other to strip sisal kúha give A- kuhéera give for/at C- kuhéisa cause to give, cause to be given; praise P- kuhéebwa be given something A+R- kuhéérangana give to each other at C+I- kuhéisereza praise intensively C+R- kuhéisangana praise each other A+C- kuhééreza give, hand to, serve A+C+R- kuhéérezangana give to each other kuhaata peel A- kuhaatira peel for/at C- kuhaatisa cause to peel P- kuhaatwa be peeled D- kuhaatahaata peel fast A+P- kuhaatirwa be peeled something, be peeled at C+P- kuhaasibwa be caused to peel C+R- kuhaasangana/haatisangana cause each other to peel kuhaba lose one's way A- kuhabira lose one's way into/while at C- kuhabya cause to lose way . - kuhabisa cause to lose way, mislead S- kuhabuka (of god) manifest self V- kuhabura advise, direct C+P- kuhabisibwa be caused to lose way C+R- kuhabisangana mislead each other S+A- kuhabucira (of god) manifest self to/at V+A- kuhaburira advise for/at; steer(vehicle) V+C- kuhabuza inquire about way, seek (esp. medical) advice kuhakana dispute A- kuhakanira dispute about/at C- kuhakanisa contradict P- kuhakanwa (of an argument) be disputed A+P- kuhakanirwa be disputed about C+A- kuhakanisiza contradict for/at

kuhákuura draw out (esp. honey from hive) A- kuhákuurira draw out for/at C- kuhákuuza cause to draw out P- kuhákuurwa be drawn out A+R- kuhákuurirangana draw out for each other A+P- kuhákuurirwa be drawn something(esp. honey) C+P- kuhákuuzibwa be caused to draw out C+R- kuhákuuzangana cause each other to draw out kuháma take root, be fixed firmly; gain strength A- kuhámira gain strength at C- kuhámya hold firmly - kuhámisa hold firmly kuhamba assault (esp. a woman); be scarce A- kuhambira assault at C- kuhambisa cause to assault P- kuhambwa be assaulted R- kuhambangana assault each other; have a habit of assaulting A+P- kuhambirwa be assaulted at kuhana censure, rebuke A- kuhanira rebuke for/at C- kuhanisa cause to rebuke P- kuhanwa be rebuked R- kuhanangana rebuke each other A+P- kuhanirwa be rebuked at A+R- kuhanirangana rebuke for each other kuhanama climb A- kuhanamira climb for C- kuhanamisa cause to climb P- kuhanamwa be climbed R- kuhanamangana climb each other S- kuhanamuka climb down A+P- kuhanamirwa be climbed for A+R- kuhanamirangana climb for each other C+P- kuhanamisibwa be caused to climb C+R- kuhanamisangana cause each other to climb kuhandiika write, register A- kuhandiicira write for/at C- kuhandiicisa cause to write P- kuhandiikwa be written A+P- kuhandiicirwa be written something (e.g. a letter), be written at C+A- kuhandiicisiza cause to be written something kuhanga create; be in fashion; kuhangá améiso gaze at/look to A- kuhanjira create at

C+P- kuhakanisibwa be contradicted

C- kuhanjisa say/use something frequently P- kuhangwa be created S- kuhanguka (of first rain) come V- kuhangura enable a barren woman to have a child - kuhangurura put out of fashion C+R- kuhanjisangana refer to each other frequently V+S- kuhanguruka go out of fashion V+P- kuhangururwa be put out of fashion V+S+A- kuhangurucira go out of fashion at ku**hânga** be noon A- kuhánjira be noon while at A+P kuhánjirwa have noon come upon kuhánguha grow fat A- kuhánguhira grow fat at C- kuhángusya cause to grow fat C+P- kuhángusibwa be caused to grow fat kuhanika hang up A- kuhanicira hang up for/at C- kuhanicisa cause to hang up P- kuhanikwa be hang up S- kuhanuka come down V- kuhanura take down A+P- kuhanicirwa be hung something A+R- kuhanicirangana hang up for each other V+A- kuhanurira take down for/at V+C- kuhanuza cause to take down V+P- kuhanurwa be taken down V+A+P- kuhanurirwa be taken down something V+C+R- kuhanuzangana cause each other to take down V+A+R- kuhanurirangana take down for each other kuhanuura discuss, decide A- kuhanuurira advise C- kuhanuuza express surprise (reflexive:kwéhanuuza seek advice) P- kuhanuurwa be decided/resolved S- kuhanuuka do something for the first time A+R- kuhanuurirangana advise each other ku**hára** scrape A- kuhárira scrape for C- kuháza cause to scrape P- kuhárwa be scraped X- kuháragata scrape A+R- kuhárirangana scrape for each other

C+P- kuházibwa be caused to scrape

kuhaya threaten (intransitive)
A- kuhayira threaten
C- kuhayisa cause to threaten
A+P- kuhayirwa be threatened

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A+R- kuhayirangana threaten each other
kuheeka carry (usually on the back);
     (of maize plant) form a cob
A- kuheecera carry for/at; form the cob in (time)
C- kuheecesa cause to carry
P- kuheekwa be carried
R- kuheekangana carry each other
S- kuheekuka come off the back
V- kuheekura take off the back
 - kuheekurura take off the back
V+S- kuheekuruka come off the back
A+P- kuheecerwa be carried something, be carried at
A+R- kuheecerangana carry for each other
C+A- kuheeceseza cause to carry for
R+A- kuheekanganira carry each other at
V+A- kuheekururira take off the back for/at
V+S+A- kuheekurucira come off the back at
kuhéesa forge ( as a metal smith)
A- kuhééseza forge for/at
 - kuhéésera forge for/at
C- kuhéésesa cause to forge
P- kuhéeswa be forged
 - kuhéésibwa be forged
A+R- kuhéésezangana forge for each other
C+R- kuhéésesangana cause each other to forge
kuheheera be cool, be soft/moist;
     have a 'frog' in one's throat
A- kuheheerera be soft at
C- kuheheeza cause to be soft
C+P- kuheheezibwa be caused to be soft
kuhéijera groan
A- kuhéijerera groan at
C- kuhéijeza cause to groan
C+P- kuhéijezibwa be caused to groan
C+R- kuhéijezangana cause each other to groan
kuheima (of bees) gather materials for making honey
A- kuheimera gather for
C- kuheimesa cause to gather
A+P- kuheimerwa be gathered something
A+R- kuheimerangana gather for each other
C+R- kuheimesangana cause each other to gather
C+P- kuheimesibwa be caused to gather
kuhêmba light (a fire)
A- kuhémbera light for
C- kuhémbesa cause to light
P- kuhêmbwa be lit
I- kuhémberera put moral pressure on
A+P- kuhémberwa be lit a fire
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A+R- kuhémberangana light for each other C+A- kuhémbeseza cause to be lit a fire C+P- kuhémbesibwa be caused to light C+R- kuhémbesangana cause each other to light ku**hemura** disgrace A- kuhemurira disgrace for/at P- kuhemurwa be disgraced R- kuhemurangana disgrace each other S- kuhemuka be ashamed S+A- kuhemucira be ashamed at kuhênda break; overburden A- kuhéndera break for/at C- kuhênza cause to break; overburden with P- kuhêndwa be broken, be overburdened R- kuhéndengana break each other; overburden each other S- kuhéndeka break (intrans); toil D- kuhéndahenda break quickly; break into many pieces A+P- kuhénderwa be broken something A+R- kuhénderangana break for each other C+P- kuhénzibwa be caused to break; be overburdened with C+R- kuhénzangana cause each other to break; overburden each other with S+A- kuhéndecera break at; toil for/at kuhéra be gone for too long A- kuhérera be gone at, esp.in akahereráhi what became of him? C- kuhéza finish, complete I- kuhéreera be near S- ku**héreka** entrust I+C- kuhéreeza put near I+R- kuhéreerana be near each other I+S- kuhéreeruka be last, see last S+A- kuhérecera see off S+P- kuhérekwa be entrusted with I+R+C- kuhéreeranisa put near each other ku**higa** jostle, make an opening; move (trans) A- kuhijira jostle for/at C- kuhijisa cause to jostle P- kuhigwa be jostled D- kuhigahiga jostle, make an opening A+C- kuhijiza make room for, give way C+R- kuhijizangana give way to each other ku**hijika** squeeze in small space; be intolerant, persecute A- kuhijicira fix in place, support P- kuhijikwa be squeezed R- kuhijikangana persecute each other S- kuhiguka fall over V- kuhigura knock over A+C- kuhijiciza cause to support

S+A- kuhigucira fall over at V+A- kuhigurira knock over for/at kuhiiga hunt; look for A- kuhiijira hunt for/at; look for/at C- kuhiijisa cause to hunt P- kuhiigwa be hunted R- kuhiigangana hunt each other A+P- kuhiijirwa be hunted something A+R- kuhiijirangana hunt for each other C+R- kuhiijisangana cause each other to hunt I+C- kuhiijiriza search intensively ku**hiika** (of rain) threaten to fall A- kuhiicira threaten at I+C- kuhiiciriza threaten seriously kuhika arrive, reach; amount to, be sufficient A- kuhicira arrive and camp at, reach C- kuhica cause to arrive, fulfil amount P- kuhikwa be reached; be satisfied, befully covered R- kuhikaana be together and in harmony I+C- kuhiciiriza fulfil amount A+P- kuhicirwa be reached R+C- kuhikaanisa put together kuhinda thunder; rouse from sleep A- kuhindira thunder at; rouse for/at C- kuhinza cause to thunder P- kuhindwa be roused S- ku**hinduka** change, turn (round); turn against V- ku**hindura** change, turn (transitive) X- ku**hindagana** rush, stampede D+S- kuhindahinduka be changeable D+V- kuhindahindura turn repeatedly S+R- kuhindukana turn against each other V+P- kuhindurwa be turned V+R- kuhindurangana turn each other V+A+C- kuhinduriza change for the worse (in health) ku**híngura** go past A- kuhingurira go past something while at C- kuhinguza cause to go past P- kuhingurwa be passed C+R- kuhinguzana cause each other to go past C+P- kuhinguzibwa be caused to go past kuhinya fold, A- kuhinyira fold for/at C- kuhinyisa cause to fold P- kuhinywa be folded D- kuhinyahinya crumple I- kuhínyirira fold up trousers/shirt sleeves A+R- kuhinyirangana fold for each other

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C+R- kuhinyisangana cause each other to fold I+C- kuhinyiriza fold up trousers/shirt sleeves ku**hóma** plaster A- kuhómera plaster for C- kuhómesa cause to plaster P- kuhómwa be plastered S- kuhómooka become unplastered; (of plaster) fall off V- kuhómoora unplaster I- kuhómeerera seal a crack esp. of a leaking container A+P- kuhómerwa be plastered something 1 A+R- kuhómerangana plaster for each other C+P- kuhómesibwa be caused to plaster C+R- kuhómesangana cause each other to plaster V+A- kuhómoorera unplaster for V+P- kuhómoorwa be unplastered V+A+R- kuhómoorerangana unplaster for each other kuhóra cool; lend A- kuhórera cool at; lend at C- kuhóza cause to cool; plead a case; (Reflexive:kwéhoza borrow) P- kuhórwa be lent R- kuhórangana lend to each other C+C- kuhózesa cause to plead a case, cause to answer charges C+P- kuhózibwa (of a case) be pleaded/argued I+C- kuhóreereza soothe, calm (trans) C+R- kuhózesangana cause each other to answer charges kuhunga flee A- kuhunjira flee at/to; doze C- kuhunjisa cause to flee P- kuhungwa be fled S- kuhunguka visit on the way V- kuhungura inherit a wife S+A- kuhungucira visit on the way at V+A- kuhungurira inherit wife at kuhúra lose appetite during pregnancy, dislike A- kuhúrira lose appetite at; hear, obey P- kuhúrwa be disliked (by a pregnant person) I- kuhúriiriza listen attentively A+C- kuhúriza hear with; have hearsay A+P- kuhúrirwa be heard, be obeyed kúhwa end, be no longer there, be exhausted A- kuhwêra end at C- kuhwéisa go dry (esp. cow's milk), diminish (esp. food) X- kuhwérecerera be completely destroyed, be annihilated I- kuhwérera wear out (e.g. a pencil) kuhwéza be clear (with light), see clearly; be intelligent A- kuhwéreza light up for; be intelligent at C- kuhwézesa light up with

kw**iba** steal A- kwiibira steal for C- kwiibisa cause to steal; accuse of stealing P- kwibwa be stolen R- kwiibangana steal from each other A+P- kwiibirwa be stolen something A+R- kwiibirangana steal for each other C+P- kwiibisibwa be caused to steal C+R- kwiibisangana cause each other to steal; accuse each other of stealing kwibika dip, soak A- kwibicira dip for C- kwibicisa cause to dip P- kwibikwa be dipped R- kwibikangana dip each other X- kwibira sink, dive A+P- kwibicirwa be dipped something A+R- kwibicirangana dip for each other C+R- kwibicisangana cause each other to dip X+A- kwibirira sink while at X+C- kwibiza cause to sink kwica rest; breathe A- kwiciza rest at; breathe at C- kwicisa cause to breathe I+C- kwiciriza agree, respond in affirmation kwiga make rain A- kwijira make rain for/at C- kwijisa cause to make rain P- kwigwa (of rain) be made X- kwigama shelter from rain - kwijika (of rain) cause to seek shelter A+P- kw**ijirwa** be made rain A+R- kwijirangana make rain for each other C+R- kwijisangana cause each other to make rain kwigura open A- kwigurira open for C- kwiguza cause to open P- kwigurwa be opened S- kwiguka open (intr) X- kwigara close, seal A+P- kwigurirwa be let in A+R- kwigurirangana open for each other C+P- kwiguzibwa be caused to open C+R- kwiguzangana cause each other to open kwiha remove A- kwihira remove for C- kwihisa cause to remove P- kwihwa be removed

I- kwihirira start from, arise from A+P- kwihirwa be removed something kwihura serve food A- kwihurira serve food to/at C- kwihuza cause to serve food P- kwihurwa (of food) be served S- kwihuka 'get off the hook' A+P- kwihurirwa be served food A+R- kwihurirangana served each other food C+P- kwihuzibwa be caused to serve food C+R- kwihuzangana cause each other to serve food kwija come A- kwizira come towards C- kwizisa cause to come A+P- kwizirwa be approached kw**ijuka** recall A- kwijucira recall while at C- kwijuca cause to recall, remind P- kwijukwa be recalled, be remembered I- kwijuciriza keep recalling a past experience C+R- kwijucangana remind each other kwijura (of container) be filled; (of subtance) fill a container A- kwijurira be filled at C- kw**ijuza** fill P- kwijurwa(mu) be filled V- kwijurura diminish (from fullness) (trans) X- kwijururuka dwindle, diminish (from fullness) (intr) A+C- kwijuriza fill up V+P- kwijururwa (of container) be unfilled kwikara stay A- kwikarira stay for; fell in wrestling C- kwikaza cause to stay, stay with P- kwikarwamu be stayed in A+P- kwikarirwa be felled A+R- kwikarirangana fell each other C+P- kwikazibwa be caused to stay C+R- kwikazangana keep each other company kwima withhold, refuse A- kwimira withhold for/at C- kwimisa cause to withhold, cause to be refused something P- kwimwa be refused something R- kwimangana refuse each other something C+P- kwimisibwa be caused to be refused something C+R- kwimisangana cause each other to withhold kw**imuka** rise A- kwimucira rise for/at

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C- kwimuca raise, rouse A+C- kwimuciza raise/rouse for/at A+R- kwimucirangana rise for each other C+P- kwimucibwa be raised, be roused C+R- kwimucangana raise/rouse each other A+C+R- kwimucizangana raise/rouse for each other kwinama bow down, be bent A- kwinamira bow to/at, bend towards C- kwinamisa cause to bow, bend - kwinamya bend, cause to bow P- kwinamwaho be bent over S- kwinamuka go uphill, lift one's head V- kwinamura raise, take uphill I- kwinamirira (Reflexive:kuyéinamirira be bowed down in grief/thought A+P- kwinamirwa be bowed to A+R- kwinamirangana bow to each other C+R- kwinamisangana cause each other to bow - kwinamyangana cause each other to bow C+P- kwinamisibwa be caused to bow/bend S+A- kwinamucira go uphill at V+A- kwinamurira raise for/at, take uphill for V+P- kwinamuzwa be raised, be taken uphill V+R- kwinamurangana raise each other, take each other uphill kwingana be equal A- kwinganira be equal at C- kwinganisa compare, equalize C+A- kwinganisiza compare for/at, equalize for/at C+P- kwinganisibwa be equalized kwira grow dark (at sunset) A- kwirira grow dark while at C- kwiza cause to grow dark I+C- kwiririza cause to delay until nightfall C+P- kwizibwa be caused to grow dark I+C+P- kwiririribwa be delayed until nightfall kwirira move nearer/farther A- kwiririra move nearer to C- kwiririsa cause to be nearer/farther P- kwiririrwa be approached R- kwiririrangana move closer to each other kwiruka run A- kwirucira run towards/for/at C- kwiruca cause to run, chase P- kwirukwa be run; be deserted A+P- kwirucirwa be run to/for/in A+C- kwiruciza cause to run for C+R- kwirucangana cause each other to run

kwita kill, spoil, treat badly

A- kwitira kill for/at; spoil for/at C- kwisa cause to kill - kwitisa cause to kill P- kwitwa be killed R- kwitana kill each other, struggle, compete - kwitangana kill each other D- kwiteita obscure esp. by change of topic A+P- kwitirwa be killed something A+R- kwitirangana kill for each other C+R- kwitisangana cause each other to kill - kwisangana cause each other to kill, kill each other with R+A- kwitanira kill each other for, struggle for - kwitanganira kill each other at R+C- kwitanisa cause to struggle kuja go A- kujiira go for C- kujiisa cause to go P- kujiibwa be gone to C+R- kujiisangana cause each other to go kujábika dip A- kujábicira dip for/at V- kujábu(u) ra take out of a pot P- kujábikwa be dipped V+A- kujábu(u)rira take out of a pot for kujánjaba nurse A- kujánjabira nurse for/at C- kujánjabisa cause to nurse P- kujánjabwa be nursed R- kujánjabangana nurse each other A+P- kujánjabirwa be nursed someone, be nursed at A+R- kujánjabirangana nurse for each other ku**jenda** go, walk A- kujendera go for/at C- kujenza cause to go - ku**jendesa** cause to go D- kujendajenda go for a walk, stroll, travel about P- kujendwa be walked R- kujendana go together I- kujenderera progress, go on; do purposely A+P- kujendesibwa be caused to go - kujenzibwa be caused to go A+R- kujenderana go together with (of mixture or bundle) C+A- kujendeseza cause to go for I+C- kujendereza cause to progress I+C+P- kujenderezibwa be caused to progress

kujera flow; measure
A- kujerera flow for/at/into
C- kujera cause to flow; try

I- kujereera supervise A+P- kujererwa be approached by something flowing C+P- kujezibwa be caused to flow kujigeija bear the firstborn A- kujigeijera bear firstborn for/at P- kujigeijwa be born first ku**juba** fish A- kujubira fish for/at C- ku**jubisa** cause to fish P- kujubwa be fished S- kujubuka be diluted V- kujubura dilute; permit A+P- kujubirwa be fished something A+R- kujubirangana fish for each other C+P- kujubisibwa be caused to fish C+R- kujubisangana cause each other to fish S+A- kujubucira be diluted at V+A- kujuburira dilute for; permit for V+R- kujuburangana permit each other V+A+R- kujuburirangana dilute for each other; permit for each other kujúga pay dowry; (esp. goats) howl A- kujújira pay dowry to; howl at C- kujújisa cause to pay dowry; cause to howl P- kujúgwa (of wife) be paid dowry for A+P- kujújirwa be paid dowry A+R- kujújirangana pay dowry to each other C+R- kujújisangana cause each other to pay dowry kujúma insult, scold A- kujúmira insult for/at C- kujúmisa cause to insult, cause to be insulted/scolded P- kujúmwa be insulted R- kujúmangana insult each other; have a habit of insulting others C+R- kujúmisangana cause each other to be insulted R+A- kujúmanganira insult each other at kujumbika bake in the ashes A- kujumbicira bake for C- kujumbicisa cause to bake P- kujumbikwa be baked V- kujumbura remove from the ashes; force out of hiding S- kujumbuka emerge out of hiding A+P- kujumbicirwa be baked something A+R- kujumbicirangana bake for each other C+R- kujumbicisangana cause each other to bake kujumeera (of cattle) cry A- kujumeerera cry at C- kujumeeza cause to cry

kujuna help A- kujunira help for/at C- kujunisa cause to help P- kujunwa be helped R- kujunangana help each other A+P- kujunirwa be helped at A+R- kujunirangana help for each other C+R- kujunisangana cause each other to help kujunda rot A- kujundira rot at C- kujunza cause to rot C+P- kujunzibwa be caused to rot kujunga squeeze banana juice A- ku**junjira** squeeze for/at C- kujunjisa cause to squeeze P- ku**jungwa** be squeezed I- kujunjiirira tread severely A+P- kujunjirwa be squeezed banana juice, be squeezed at A+R- kujunjirangana squeeze for each other C+R- kujunjisangana cause each other to squeeze kujúra be homesick, miss A- kujúrira be homesick at; testify C- kujúza cause to be homesick P- kujúrwa be missed A+C- kujúriza call as a witness A+P- kujúrirwa be given favorable testimony A+R- kujúrirangana testify for each other A+C+R- kujúrizangana call each other as witness kujúura undress, take off clothes A- kujúúrira undress for/at C- kujúuza cause to undress P- kujúurwa be undressed, ( of clothes) be taken off R- kujúúrangana undress each other S- kujúuka get off A+R- kujúúrirangana undress for each other C+R- kujúúzangana cause each other to undress S+A- ku**júúcira** get off at kujwa (sun) shine; (juice) flow A- kujwera shine for/at; flow for/at C- kujwisa cause to shine, have sunshine; cause to flow A+P- kujwerwa be flowed onto C+A- kujwisiza cause to flow for C+P- kujwisibwa be caused to shine; be caused to flow I+R- kujwererana flow profusely, bleed profusely ku**jwāra** wear, put on A- kujwárira wear for/at C- kujwaza cause to wear

P- kujwārwa be worn X- kujwéka dress, clothe C+R- kujwázangana cause each other to wear X+A- kujwécera dress/clothe for/at X+P- kujwêkwa be dressed/clothed X+R- kujwékangana dress/clothe each other ku**kába** faint, die A- kukábira faint at C- kukábya cause to faint I- kukábirira faint for kukága detect by smell A- ku**kájira** smell for/at C- kukájisa cause to smell P- kukágwa be detected by smell R- kukágangana detect each other by smell A+P- kukájirwa be smelled something A+R- kukájirangana smell for each other ku**káma** milk A- kukámira milk for/at C- kukámisa cause to milk P- kukámwa be milked D- kukámakama (of clothes) be half dry S- kukámuuka (e.g. water) be squeezed out, drip V- ku**kámuura** squeeze out (liquids), press (wet items) A+P- ku**kámirwa** be milked something, be milked at A+R- kukámirangana milk for each other C+P- kukámisibwa be caused to milk C+R- kukámisangana cause each other to milk S+A- kukámuucira drip at V+A- kukámuurira squeeze out/press for/at V+C- kukámuuza cause to squeeze out/press V+P- kukámuurwa be squeezed/pressed V+A+P- kukámuurirwa be squeezed/pressed something V+A+R- kukámuurirangana squeeze/press for each other V+C+P- kukámuuzibwa be caused to squeeze/press V+C+R- kukámuuzangana cause each other to squeeze/press kukambura pull down (house) A- kukamburira pull down for C- kukambuza cause to pull down P- ku**kamburwa** be pulled down S- ku**kambuka** fall to ruin/disrepair D- kukambakambura pull down violently A+P- kukamburirwa be pulled down (a house) A+R- kukamburirangana pull down for each other C+P- kukambuzibwa be caused to pull down C+R- kukambuzangana cause each other to pull down S+A- kukambucira fall to ruin in (duration) kukána insult with tongue click

A- ku**kánira** insult for/at

C- kukánisa cause to insult P- kukánwa be insulted R- kukánangana insult each other A+R- kukánirangana insult for each other kukanda massage; (of a field) grow bushy A- kukandira massage for/at C- kukandisa cause to grow bushy P- kukandwa be massaged R- kukandangana massage each other V- kukanduura clear a bushy place V+A- kukanduurira clear for V+C- kukanduuza cause to clear kukânga startle A- kukánjira startle for/at C- kukánjisa frighten with P- kukångwa be startled X- kukángaza be restless X- kukángarana be startled (intransitive) kukánika repair, fix (i.e.do work of a mechanic) A- ku**kánicira** repair for/at C- kukánicisa cause to repair P- kukánikwa be repaired A+P- kukánicirwa be repaired something A+R- kukánicirangana repair for each other C+R- kukánicisangana cause each other to repair kukánjura chew A- ku**kánjurira** chew for/at C- kukánjuza cause to chew P- ku**kánjurwa** be chewed A+P- kukánjurirwa be chewed something C+R- kukánjuzangana cause each other to chew kukéíkura (of women) grow old A- kukéíkurira grow old at C- kukéíkuza cause to grow old kukóókoota be shrivelled, be dwarfed A- kukóókootera be shrivelled at C- kukóókoosa cause to be shrivelled S- kukóókootoka be shrivelled (used as a curse) kukóma tie, imprison A- kukómera tie for/at C- kukómesa cause to tie - ku**kómya** blink P- kukómwa be tied R- kukómangana tie each other S- kukómooroka become untied/loose V- kukómoorora untie, loosen I- kukómeerera pack up

D- kukómakoma tie quickly A+P- kukómerwa be tied something A+R- kukómerangana tie for each other - kukómerana tie together (in one bundle); lock inside C+A- kukómeseza cause to tie for C+P- kukómesibwa be caused to tie C+R- kukómesangana cause each other to tie S+A- kukómoorocera become loose at V+A- kukómoororera untie for/at V+C- kukómooroza cause to untie V+P- kukómoororwa be untied V+R- kukómoororangana untie each other V+A+P- kukómoororerwa be untied something kukómaga beat barkcloth A- kukómajira beat barkcloth for/at C- kukómajisa cause to beat barkcloth P- kukómagwa (of barkcloth) be beaten A+P- kukómajirwa be beaten barkcloth A+R- kukómajirangana beat barkcloth for each other kukômba lick up A- kukómbera lick up for/at C- kukómbesa cause to lick up P- kukômbwa be licked up A+P- kukómberwa be licked something A+R- kukómberangana lick up for each other C+P- kukómbesibwa be caused to lick up C+R- kukómbesangana cause each other to lick up ku**kómera** sow A- kukómerera sow for C- kukómeza cause to sow P- kukómerwa be sowed A+P- kukómererwa be sowed something C+R- kukómezangana cause each other to sow kukona be underdone/undercooked; castrate A- kukonera be underdone at; castrate for/at C- kukonesa cause to be underdone, undercook P- kukonwa be castrated A+P- kukonerwa be castrated something A+R- kukonerangana castrate for each other C+A- kukoneseza undercook for; cause to castrate for C+P- kukonesibwa be caused to be undercooked kukonda fell A- kukondera fell for/at C- kukondesa cause to fell P- kukondwa be felled X- kukondeka cause to hang down loosely; put up a rough shelter

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kukónora pull off (esp. fruit) A- kukónorera pull off for/at C- kukónoza cause to pull off P- kukónorwa be pulled off S- kukónoka fall off A+P- kukónorerwa be pulled something A+R- kukónorerangana pull off for each other C+R- kukónozangana cause each other to pull off S+A- kukónocera fall off at kukóra work; make; do; repair; touch A- kukórera work for C- kukóza cause to work/make/do; cause to repair, cause to be repaired; dip morsel in sauce - kukózesa cause to work; cause to be repaired P- kukórwa be done/made; be repaired D- kukórakora grope A+C- kukóreza dip morsel for; cause to be repaired something A+P- kukórerwa be done a job; be repaired something A+R- kukórerangana work/make/do for each other; repair for each other C+R- kukózangana cause each other to work; cause each other to repair D+A- kukórakorera grope for/at C+R- kukózesangana cause each other to work/repair A+C+R- kukórezangana dip morsel for each other; cause each other to be repaired something kukórora cough A- kukórorera cough at C- kukóroza cause to cough C+R- kukórozangana cause each other to cough ku**kúba** fold A- kukúbira fold for/at C- kukúbisa cause to fold - kukúbya nickname (appreciative) P- kukúbwa be folded S- kukúbuuka turn round - kukúbuuruka unfold V- kukúbuura turn round (transitive) - ku**kúbuurura** unfold (trans) X- kukúbajiza call by nickname (appreciative) A+P- kukúbirwa be folded something A+R- kukúbirana fold together (in one bundle) C+R- kukúbisangana cause each other to fold - kukúbyangana call each other by nickname S+A- kukúbuucira turn round at kukúbuurucira unfold at V+A- kukúbuurira turn round for - kukúbuururira unfold for/at V+C- kukúbuuza cause to turn round - kukúbuuruza cause to unfold

A+R+C- kukúbiranisa fold (legs) while seated ku**kumba** fall/roll over A- kukumbira fall over at; fall onto C- kukumbisa cause to fall over - kukumbya cause to fall over X- kukumbagara fall over A+P- kukumbirwa be fallen onto C+P- kukumbisibwa be caused to fall over C+R- ku**kumbyangana** cause each other to fall over X+A- ku**kumbagarira** fall over at X+C- kukumbagaza cause to fall over kukúna be polite, be hospitable A- kukúnira be polite to, respect C- kukúnisa cause to respect A+P- kukúnirwa be respected, be accorded hospitality A+R- kukúnirangana be polite to each other, be hospitable to each other kukûnda like, love; agree A- kukúndira like for/at; agree to C- kukûnza cause to like P- kukûndwa be liked R- kukúndangana like each other A+R- kukúndirangana like each other for kukunga howl A- kukúnjira howl for/at C- kukûnja cause to howl - kukúnjisa cause to howl R- ku**kúngana** be quarrelsome C+R- kukúnjangana cause each other to howl ku**kúra** grow A- kukúrira grow at; be older than C- kukúza cause to grow; overestimate someone's age A+P- kukúrirwa be younger than C+P- kukúzibwa be caused to grow old C+R- kukúzangana grow old together; overestimate each other's age kukúrata follow, go after A- kukúra (a) tira follow, go after C- kukúrasa cause to follow, bring after P- kukúratwa be followed A+P- kukúra(a)tirwa be followed kukurura drag A- kukururira drag for/at C- kukuruza cause to drag; drag oneself along P- kukururwa be dragged R- kukururangana drag each other S- kukururuka be dragged

A+P- kukururirwa be dragged something A+R- kukururirangana drag for each other kukúura uproot A- kukúúrira uproot for C- kukúuza cause to uproot P- kukúurwa be uprooted S- kukúuka come out (of the soil) A+P- kukúúrirwa be uprooted something A+R- kukúúrirangana uproot for each other C+P- kukúúzibwa be caused to uproot C+R- kukúúzangana cause each other to uproot kukwata hold, catch; touch; (of plant) take root A- kukwátira hold for/at; be stuck C- kukwasa cause to hold; help; cause to be caught; corner - kukwátisa cause to be caught P- kukwâtwa be held/caught R- kukwátangana hold each other - kukwátana be related S- kukwátika be available D- kukwátakwata feel all over; touch repeatedly I- kukwátirira hold as surety A+P- kukwátirwa be held something A+R- kukwátirangana hold for each other - kukwátirana hold things together (as in a bundle); share the use of something C+A- kukwásiza corner for; cause to hold for C+P- kukwásibwa be caused to hold; be helped C+R- kukwásangana help each other - kukwátisangana cause each other to be caught R+C- kukwátanisa hold things together (as in a bundle); carry out a task together with I+C- kukwátiriza cause to be held as surety, mortgage kumanya know A- kumanyira know for/at C- kumanyisa cause to know, inform P- kumanywa be known I- kumanyiira get used to R- kumanyangana know each other S- kumanyika be well known, be famous C+A- kumanyisiza inform for/at C+P- kumanyisibwa be informed, be caused to know C+R- kumanyisangana inform each other I+R- kumanyiirangana get used to each other S+A- kumanyicira become famous at, be known at kumara finish; exhaust, deplete A- kumarira finish for/at C- kumaza cause to finish P- kumarwa be finished R- kumarangana exhaust each other A+R- kumarirangana finish for each other

kumera (of plants) sprout, germinate A- kumerera sprout for C- kumeza cause to sprout P- kumerwamu (of place) have plants sprout in I- kumereera live a long time, live for ever A+C- kumereza cause to sprout for C+P- kumezibwa be caused to sprout kumiga press A- kumijira press for/at C- kumijisa cause to press P- kumigwa be pressed R- kumigangana press each other S- kumiguka (e.g. a ripe banana) be pressable A+P- kumijirwa be pressed something A+R- kumijirangana press for each other C+P- kumijisibwa be caused to press C+R- kumijisangana cause each other to press R+A- kumiganganira press each other at kumira swallow A- kumirira swallow for/at C- kumiza cause to swallow P- kumirwa be swallowed X- kumirinkusa gulp C+P- kumizibwa be caused to swallow ku**móka** bark A- kumócera bark at C- kumóca cause to bark A+P- kumócerwa be barked at A+R- kumócerangana bark at each other C+P- kumócibwa be caused to bark C+R- kumócangana cause each other to bark kumurika shine/flash, shine on, be alight A- kumuricira shine for C- kumurica cause to shine P- kumurikwa shine on, be lit R- kumurikangana shine on each other A+P- kumuricirwa be lit a light A+R- kumuricirangana light for each other kumwenya smile A- kumwenyera smile for/ at C- kumwenyesa cause to smile D- kumwenyamwenya be all smiles kumyora screw, wind; dislocate a joint A- kumyórera screw for/at; dislocate for/at P- kumyôrwa be dislocated S- kumyôka have a dislocated joint R- kumyórangana dislocate each other's joints

S+A- kumyócera dislocate a joint at/while at kunaaba wash (intransitive) A- kunaabira wash for/at C- kunaabisa wash, bathe (transitive) P- kunaabwa (e.g. water, soap) be use in washing A+P- kunaabirwamu (of container, river etc.) be bathed in C+R- kunaabisangana wash each other kunága throw away; neglect A- kunájira throw away for C- kunájisa cause to throw away; sell cheap D- kunáganaga scatter P- kunágwa be thrown away R- kunágangana neglect each other - kunágana shirk responsibility for someone e.g. a child X- kunágeija be careless about C+R- kunájisangana cause each other to throw away D+A- kunáganajira scatter for D+P- kunáganagwa be scattered (kunágwanagwa) ku**nájira** sleep A- kunájirira sleep at C- kunájiza cause to sleep C+P- kunájizibwa be caused to sleep C+R- kunájizangana cause each other to sleep kunanura satisfy S-kunanuka be satisfied A+S- kunanucira be satisfied at kunéna bite, gnaw A- kunénera bite for/at C- kunénesa cause to bite P- kunénwa be bitten ku**nia** defecate A- kuneera defecate on C- kuneisa cause to defecate P- kuneebwa be defecated A+P- kuncerwa be defecated on A+R- kuneerangana defecate on each other C+A- kuneiseza cause to defecate for C+P- kuneisibwa be caused to defecate C+R- kuneisangana cause each other to defecate kuniájiira plod along A- kuniájiirira plod along at C- kuniájiiza cause to plod along X- ku**niáganiaga** plod along C+P- kuniájiizangana cause each other to plod along kuniga choke A- kunijira choke for/at

C- kunijisa cause to choke, cause to be choked P- kunigwa be choked R- kunigangana choke each other A+R- kunijirangana choke for each other C+R- kunijisangana cause each other to choke with R+A- kuniganganira choke each other at kuniha overeat, (of eaten food) be too much for A- kunihira be too much at C- kunihisa cause to overeat ku**noba** hate A- kunobera hate for/at C- kunobesa cause to hate P- kunobwa be hated R- kunobangana hate each other R+A- kunobanganira hate each other at kunóga be thoroughly crushed/pounded A- kunójera be thoroughly crushed at C- kunója crush thoroughly A+C- kunójeza crush thoroughly for/at C+P- kunójibwa be thoroughly crushed A+C+R- kunójezangana thoroughly crush for each other kunógoora make clay pots, mould A- kunógoorera mould for/at C- kunógooza cause to mould/be moulded P- kunógoorwa be moulded A+P- kunógoorerwa be moulded something A+R- kunógoorerangana mould for each other C+P- kunógoozibwa be caused to mould C+R- kunógoozangana cause each other mould kunógora cut a piece off A- kunógorera cut a piece for/at C- kunógoza cause to cut a piece P- kunógorwa be cut S- kunógoka be cut A+P- kunógorerwa be cut a piece A+R- kunógorerangana cut a piece for each other C+P- kunógozibwa be caused to cut a piece C+R- kunógozangana cause each other to cut a piece kunúga loathe, be disgusted A- ku**nújira** loathe at C- kunújisa cause to loathe P- kunúgwa be loathed R- kunúgangana loathe each other, have a habit of loathing R+A- kunúganganira loathe each other at kununka stink, smell; sniff A- kununcira smell to C- kununcisa cause to smell

P- kununkwa (mu) be sniffed in R- kununkaana stink all over I+C- kununciriza sniff about C+P- kununcibwa be caused to stink kunura taste nice, be delicious A- kunurira taste nice to C- kunuza cause to taste nice A+P- kunurirwa be pleased by taste of C+P- kunuzibwa be caused to taste nice kunyáara urinate A- kunyáárira urinate on C- kunyáaza cause to urinate P- kunyáarwa be urinated A+P- kunyáarirwa be urinated on A+C- kunyááriza cause to urinate for A+R- kunyáárirangana urinate on each other C+P- kunyáázibwa be caused to urinate C+R- kunyáázangana cause each other to urinate kunyaata eat without vegetables or relish A- kunyaatira eat ...at C- kunyaatisa cause to eat ... - kunyaasa cause to eat... P- kunyaatwa be eaten without relish kunyaga swindle, cheat A- kunyajira swindle for/at C- kunyajisa cause to be swindled P- kunyagwa be swindled R- kunyagangana swindle each other A+P- kunyajirwa be swindled at C+A- kunyajisiza cause to be swindled for C+R- kunyajisangana cause each other to be swindled kunyágarara be troubled, be poorly off A- kunyágararira be troubled at C- kunyágaraza trouble, put in a poor condition C+R- kunyágarazangana trouble each other kunyeeta grow older, mature A- kunyeetera mature at C- kunyeesa cause to mature C+P- kunyeesibwa be caused to mature C+R- kunyeesangana cause each other to mature kunyejera go uphill; be welcome A- kunyejerera go uphill at; be welcome at C- kunyejeza cause to go uphill; welcome, treat with hospitality P- kunyejerwa be climbed C+P- kunyejezibwa be welcomed C+R- kunyejezangana welcome each other

kunyiga press down on (esp. cooked bananas) A- kunyíjira press for/at C- kunyijisa cause to press P- kunyígwa be pressed A+R- kunyijirangana press for each other C+R- kunyijisangana cause each other to press kunyurura pull A- kunyururira pull for/at C- kunyurusa cause to pull P- kunyururwa be pulled R- kunyururangana pull each other S- kunyururuka be elastic, be pulled A+P- kunyururirwa be pulled something A+R- kunyururirangana pull for each other C+P- kunyuruzibwa be caused to pull C+R- kunyuruzangana cause each other to pull R+A- kunyururanganira pull each other at kunyúunya lick up, suck up A- kunyúúnyira lick up for/at C- kunyúúnyisa cause to lick up P- kunyúunywa be licked up X- ku**nyúúnyuuta** suck out A+P- kunyúúnyirwa be sucked up something A+R- kunyúúnyirangana suck up for each other C+R- kunyúúnyisangana cause each other to suck up kú**nywa** drink A- kunywêra drink for/at C- kunywéisa cause to drink P- kunywâbwa be drunk by R- kunywana make blood brotherhood/friendship X- kunywéisaguzibwa have a habit of drinking anything/anywhere A+P- kunywérwa be drunk something A+R- kunywérangana drink for each other C+A- kunywéiseza cause to drink for C+P- kunywéisibwa be caused to drink C+R- kunywéisangana cause each other to drink R+A- kunywánira make friendship for/at R+C- kunywánisa cause to make friendship I+R- kunywérerana drink together (as a mixture); have a custom of sharing beer kunywéjera kiss A- kurywéjerera kiss for/at C- kunywéjeza cause to kiss P- ku**nywéjerwa** be kissed R- kunywéjerangana kiss each other C+P- kunywéjezibwa be caused to kiss kwoca be hot, heat, roast, burn

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A- kwoceza burn for/at C- kwocesa cause to burn P- kwocibwa be burnt R- kwocangana burn each other A+R- kwocezangana burn for each other, burn e.o. at C+R- kwocesangana burn each other with kwôga bathe (intransitive) A- kwójera bathe at C- kwôja wash, bathe (transitive) - kwójesa cause to wash P- kwôgwa (of water, soap etc.) be washed with X- kwógoroza rinse A+C- kwójeza wash for/at C+P- kwójibwa be washed C+R- kwójangana wash each other X+P- kwógorozibwa be rinsed kwógosa twist rope, weave rope A- kwógoseza twist for/at C- kwógosesa cause to twist P- kwógosibwa be twisted kwôma dry up (intransitive) A- kwómera dry up for/at C- kwómesa cause to dry up - kwômya cause to dry up R- kwómangana dry up thoroughly X- kwómesereza (of a guilty person) deny guilt vehemently, stand by a denial of guilt firmly R+C- kwómanganisa cause to dry thoroughly kwómbeka build A- kwómbecera build for C- kwómbecesa cause to build P- kwómbekwa be built A+P- kwómbecerwa be built something A+R- kwómbecerangana build for each other C+P- kwómbecesibwa be caused to build C+R- kwómbecesangana cause each other to build kwôna (of animals) spoil crops in the fields A- kwónera spoil crops for C- kwónesa cause to spoil crops A+P- kwónerwa be spoilt crops C+A- kwóneseza cause to spoil crops for kwonjera continue, add C- kwonjeza increase, give more to P- kwonjerwa be given more X- kwonjeserera add to C+R- kwonjesangana give more to each other kwônka suck at the breast

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A- kwóncera suck at C- kwônca suckle P- kwônkwa be sucked A+C- kwónceza suckle for/at C+P- kwóncibwa be suckled kwôra become poor A- kwórera become poor for/at C- kwôza cause to become poor C+P- kwózibwa be caused to become poor C+R- kwózangana cause each other to become poor kwóreka show A- kwórecera show at C- kwóreca put on display P- kwórekwa be shown I- kwórecerera demonstrate R- kwórekangana show to each other R+A- kwórekanganira show to each other at kwóroba be soft, be weak; be obedient A- kwórobera be soft to/at; be obedient to C- kwórobya soften, weaken kwóroora bring up, look after A- kwóroorera bring up for/at C- kwórooza cause to bring up P- kwóroorwa be brought up A+R- kwóroorerangana bring up for each other C+P- kwóroozibwa be caused to bring up kwôsa omit/skip a day A- kwósera omit a day for/at C- kwósesa cause to omit a day C+R- kwósesangana cause each other to omit a day kwôta warm oneself A- kwótera warm oneself at C- kwótesa cause to warm oneself P- kwótwa (of fire) be used to warm oneself C+R- kwótesangana cause each other to warm self kwoya be hard on; hanker after A- kwoyera be hard on for/at; hanker after at C- kwoyesa cause to be hard on; cause to hanker after P- kwoywa be hankered after R- kwoyangana be hard on each other C+P- kwoyesibwa be caused to be hard on; be caused to hanker after C+R- kwoyesangana cause each other to hanker after kupácira load, board (a vessel, vehicle) A- kupácirira load for/at, board at C- kupáciza cause to load, put on board

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P- kupácirwa be loaded, be put on board C+R- kupácizangana put each other on board kupágasa work for a wage A- kupágasiza work for a wage for/at kupika pump A- kupicira pump for C- kupicisa cause to pump P- kupikwa be pumped A+P- kupicirwa be pumped something A+R- kupicirangana pump for each other C+R- kupicisangana cause each other to pump kupima measure, weigh A- kupimira measure for/at C- kupimisa cause to measure P- kupimwa be measured R- kupimangana measure each other A+P- kupimirwa be measured something A+R- kupimirangana measure for each other C+P- kupimisibwa be caused to measure C+R- kupimisangana cause each other to measure kupukura stab A- kupukurira stab for/at C- kupukuza cause to stab P- kupukurwa be stabbed R- kupukurangana stab each other A+P- kupukurirwa be stabbed something A+R- kupukurirangana stab for each other C+P- kupukuzibwa be caused to stab C+R- kupukuzangana cause each other to stab ku**raaha** castrate A- kuraahira castrate for/at C- kuraahisa cause to castrate V- ku**raahuura** castrate V+P- kuraahuurwa be castrated A+P- kuraahirwa be castrated something A+R- kuraahirangana castrate for each other kuraama curse A- kuraamira curse for/at C- kuraamisa cause to curse P- kuraamwa be cursed R- kuraamangana curse each other A+R- kuraamirangana curse for each other kuráara spend the night; (of fire) go out A- kuráárira (of a guest) spend the night at; (of a bird) sit on eggs C- kurázza cause to spend the night; extinguish (fire) P- kuráárwa (mu) be spent the night in

X- kuráárika invite to a task/function A+C- kurááriza invite to a task/function; extinguish fire for/at A+P- kuráárirwa have a guest spend the night kurába pass; (of plants) blossom, produce fruit A- kurábira pass through; produce fruit at C- kurábya cause to pass; (of lightining) flash - kurábisa get a good crop P- kurábwa (of a path etc.) be passed through kurábura enlighten, make clever A- kuráburira enlighten for/at C- kurábuza cause to enlighten P- kuráburwa be enlightened R- kuráburangana enlighten each other S- kurábuka be clever A+P- kuráburirwa be enlightened someone A+R- kuráburirangana enlighten for each other S+A- kurábucira be clever at kuraga say goodbye; promise; bequeath A- kurajira say goodbye for/at; bequeath for/at C- kurajisa cause to say goodbye; cause to bequeath P- kuragwa be bid farewell; be bequeathed something I- kurajiira order, give directions R- kuragangana say goodbye to each other; bequeath to e.o. - ku**ragaana** agree, promise I+A- kurajiirira give directions about R+C- kuragaanisa give an appointment, promise I+A+C- kurajiiriza give directions repeatedly with admonitions not to forget kuragara go down, fall A- kuragarira fall at C- kuragaza cause to fall; wipe off P- kuragarwa drop something S- kuragarika fall, be scattered C+P- kuragazibwa be wiped off S+A- kuragaricira be scattered at kuragura prophesy, divine, foretell A- kuragurira prophesy for/at C- kuraguza consult a diviner/soothsayer P- kuragurwa be prophesied A+P- kuragurirwa be told a prophesy A+R- kuragurirangana prophesy for each other kurahira swear, vow A- kurahirira swear at C- kurahiza cause to swear ku**rahuka** be quick A- kurahucira be quick at something

C- kurahuca do quickly kurahura bully; (of chickens) scratch A- kurahurira bully for/at C- kurahuza cause to bully; cause to scratch P- kurahurwa be bullied; be scratched R- kurahurana be a bully, bully each other ku**rambika** lay A- kurambicira lay for/at P- kurambikwa be laid X- ku**rambira** lie down I+C- kurambiciriza straighten out (legs while seated) kurámbura inspect A- kurámburira inspect for C- kurámbuza cause to inspect P- kurámburwa be inspected R- kurámburangana inspect each other A+P- kurámburirwa be inspected something A+R- kurámburirangana inspect for each other C+P- kurámbuzibwa be caused to inspect C+R- kurámbuzangana cause each other to inspect kurambuura make to lose weight by denying food A- kurambuurira make lose weight for/at P- kurambuurwa be made to lose weight S- ku**rambuuka** lose weight R- kurambuurangana make each other lose weight S+A- kurambuucira lose weight at ku**ramuca** greet A- kuramuciza greet for/at I- kuramukanisa greet one another kuramura judge, reconcile, decide A- kuramurira judge for/at C- ku**ramuza** bargain, haggle P- ku**ramurwa** be judged C+P- kuramuzibwa (of price) be bargained kuramya greet/pay homage to the king A- kuramiza greet king for/at X- kuramisiriza be on tenterhooks, keep fingers crossed kuranda (of plants) creep; repair a crack in a calabash A- kurandira creep at; repair for/at C- kurandisa cause to creep; cause to repair P- kurandwa be repaired X- kurandagatana creep all over kuranga announce A- kuranjira announce to C- kuranjisa display/announce lost item

P- kurangwa be announced R- kurangaana spread (bad/confidential) news I- ku**ranjirira** preach A+P- kuranjirwa be announced something I+P- kurangaanwa be infamous kurangaara gape A- kurangaarira gape at C- kurangaara cause to gape C+P- kurangaazibwa be caused to gape C+R- kurangaazangana cause each other to gape kurara (esp. animals) wander A- kurarira wander at C- kuraza cause to wander S- kuraruka become mad V- kurarura cause to become mad C+P- kurazibwa be caused to wander V+R- kurarurangana cause each other to become mad kurárama look up A- kuráramira look up at C- kuráramisa cause to look up X- kurárika raise (head) A+P- kuráramirwa be looked up at A+R- kuráramirangana look up at each other C+R- kuráramisangana cause each other to look up kurása shoot, throw A- kurásira throw at, shoot for/at - kurásiza shoot for/at P- kuráswa be shot R- kurásangana shoot each other, throw at each other - ku**rásana** struggle, fight A+P- kurásirwa be thrown something kureeba look, watch, see, look for A- kureebera search for/at, see at, watch for; cheat by looking at answers C- kureebesa cause to see - kureebya keep uninvited watch in order to do mischief D- kureebareeba look about P- kureebwa be seen R- kureebana keep in touch by visiting each other - kureebangana look at each other I- kureeberera supervise, watch over I+C- kureeberers hang around in order to receive crumbs A+P- kureeberwa be watched something kureeberwámu be transparent, allow sight (e.g. a hole), reflective (e.g. a mirror) be A+R- kureeberangana cheat by looking at each other's work C+P- kureebesibwa be caused to see C+R- kureebesangana cause each other to see

kureega tighten (e.g. a bow) A- kureejera tighten for/at C- kureejesa cause to tighten P- kureegwa be tightened S- kureeguka become slack - ku**reeguruka** become slack V- kureegura slacken - kureegurura slacken A+P- kureejerwa be tightened something A+R- kureejerangana tighten for each other C+P- kureejesibwa be caused to tighten C+R- kureejesangana cause each other to tighten ku**réeta** bring A- ku**réétera** bring for C- kuráesa cause to bring, come with (means/manner); smoke - kuréétesa cause to bring P- kuréetwa be brought R- kuréétangana bring each other - kuréétana come together, arrive together I- ku**rééterera** sing solc A+P- kurééterwa be brought something A+R- kurééterangana bring for each other - kurééterana flow/leak/bleed profusely C+A- kuréésera smoke at C+P- kuréésibwa be caused to bring; be smoked C+R- kuréétesangana cause each other to bring I+P- kuréétererwa be sung kuréga tell tales on; set container to catch rain water A- kuréjera set container for C- kuréjesa cause to set container, catch with (container) P- kurégwa be victim of tales; (of rain water)be caught, (of container) be set up to catch water R- kurégangana tell tales on each other A+P- kuréjerwa be caught water, be set up a container A+R- kuréjerangana catch water for each other, set up containers for each other C+R- kuréjesangana cause each other to catch water/set up containers kureiha be long, be tall A- kureihera be long for/at C- kureihesa cause to be long, lengthen, overestimate length S- kureihuuka become long, become tall C+P- kureihesibwa be lengthened S+A- kureihuucira become long at kureka let, leave alone A- kurecera leave alone for/at; stop doing; throw a spear at P- kurekwa be left alone R- kurekangana leave each other alone S- kurekuka fall from grasp V- kurekura let go from grasp, set free

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A+A- kurecerera stop doing at A+C- kurecera cause to stop doing A+R- kurecerangana end a relationship kurema be too much for, beat; make sandals A- kuremera be too much at; make sandals for C- kuremesa exhaust, cause to fail; cause to make sandals P- kuremwa be tired, fail; (of sandals) be made R- kuremangana be too much for each other, disagree I- kuremeera be heavy S- kuremuuka regain strength, be rested A+P- kuremerwa be tired at C+A- kuremeseza exhaust for C+P- kuremesibwa be caused to be tired C+R- kuremesangana cause each other to be tired/to fail R+A- kuremanganira disagree at I+A- kuremeerera be heavy for/at I+C- kuremeers cause to be heavy I+A+P- kuremeererwa be weighed down kuremba be very ill, be thoroughly beaten A- kurembera be very ill for/at C- kurembya cause to be very ill A+C- kurembers cause to be very ill for/at C+P- kurembyangana cause each other to be very ill kurenga measure; be mean (esp. with respect to food) A- kurenjera measure for; be mean to C- kurenjesa cause to measure; try; tempt P- kurengwa be measured A+P- kurenjerwa be measured something A+R- kurenjerangana measure for each other C+P- kurengesibwa be tempted C+R- kurengesangana tempt each other - ku**rengesana** hesitate/guess kurânga go from view, go beyond a point/rule, (of sun) set A- kurénjera set at, go beyond at C- kurénja (of character) be unacceptable; pass day; cause to go beyond D- kuréngarenga (of sun) be evening twilight P- kurêngwa be surpassed C+A- kurénjenza hint kuréngahara be ignorant, lack skill/dexterity A- ku**réngaharira** be ignorant at C- kuréngahaza cause to be ignorant C+P- kuréngahazibwa be caused to be ignorant ku**rera** rear (a child), babysit A- kurerera rear for/at C- kureza cause to rear P- ku**rerwa** be reared

R- ku**rerangana** rear each other

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A+P- kurererwa be reared a child A+R- kurererangana rear for each other C+P- kuresibwa be caused to rear C+R- kurezangana cause each other to rear kuriba (of a commodity) fail to sell A- kuribira fail to sell at (place) C- kuribisa cause to fail to sell A+A- kuribirira fail to sell for (person) C+P- kuribisibwa be caused to fail to sell kuribata tread on, march A- kuribatira tread on for/at C- kuribatisa cause to tread on - kuribasa cause to tread on P- kuribatwa be trodden R- kuribatangana tread on each other I- kuribatiirira tread severely A+P- kuribatirwa be trodden something kuriha pay damages A- kurihira pay damages to C- kurihisa cause to pay damages P- kurihwa be paid as damages C+P- kurihisibwa be caused to pay damages C+R- kurihisangana cause each other to pay damages kurima dig, cultivate A- kurimira dig for C- ku**rimisa** cause to dig P- kurimwa be dug A+P- kurimirwa be dug something A+R- kurimirangana dig for each other C+P- kurimisibwa be caused to dig C+R- kurimisangana cause each other to dig kurinda look after, watch, protect; wait A- kurindira watch for; wait for/at C- kurinza cause to watch; cause to wait P- kurindwa be watched/protected; be waited for R- kurindangana protect each other; wait for each other A+R- kurindirangana protect for each other kurira cry, weep A- kuririra cry at C- kuriza cause to cry I- kuririirira (of a child) cry a lot to someone's inconvenience C+P- kurizibwa be caused to cry kuroga bewitch A- kurojera bewitch for/at C- kurojesa cause to bewitch, accuse of witchcraft P- kurogwa be bewitched

R- kurogangana bewitch each other V- kurogoorora exorcise I- kurojeerera fixate the victim of a magic spell on something A+P- kurojerwa be bewitched something A+R- kurojerangana bewitch for each other R+A- kuroganganira bewitch each other at kuronda look for, search A- kurondera search for/at C- kurondesa cause to search - kuronza cause to search P- kurondwa be looked for I- kurondoora resemble a relative (in character or physical features) A+P- kuronderwa be searched something C+P- kuronzibwa be caused to search ku**róota** dream A- kuróótera dream at C- kuróótesa cause to dream P- kuróotwa be dreamed R- kuróótangana dream about each other V- kuróótorora tell a dream I- kuróóterera have nightmares kuroza taste A- kuroreza taste for/at C- kurozesa cause to taste P- kurozibwa be tasted A+R- kuroresangana taste for each other C+R- kurozesangana cause each other to taste kuruga exit, come from A- kurujira exit for C- kurujisa cause to exit P- kurugwamu be exited ku**ruka** weave A- kurucira weave for/at C- kurucisa cause to weave P- kurukwa be weaved A+P- kurucirwa be weaved something A+R- kurucirangana weave for each other C+R- kurucisangana cause each other to weave

kurúma bite A- kurúmira bite for/at C- kurúmisa cause to bite P- kurúmsa be bitten; be in labor R- kurúmangana bite each other; have a habit of biting X- kurúmika cup, bleed V- kurúmuura give an antidote for a bite R+A- kurúmanganira bite each other at

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X+A- kurúmicira cup for/at ku**runda** heap up A- kurundira heap up for C- kurunza cause to heap up P- kurundwa be heaped up R- kurundaana gather A+P- kurundirwa be heaped up something R+A- kurundaanira gather for/at R+A+P- kurundaanirwa be gathered something kurunga season (food) A- kurunjira season for/at C- kurunjisa cause to season P- kurungwa be seasoned X- kurunjisiriza be fond of seasoning A+P- kurunjirwa be seasoned something A+R- kurunjirangana season for each other C+R- kurunjisangana cause each other to season kururuma (esp. of motor) rumble A- kururumira rumble at C- kururumya cause to rumble kurwana fight, struggle A- kurwanira fight for C- kurwanisa cause to fight; scold I- kurwanirira fight for, help I+P- kurwanirirwa be fought for/helped kurwâra be ill A- kurwáárira become ill at (place) C- kurwaza cause to become ill; nurse P- kurwârwa (of a disease) be had I- kurwááririra become ill at someone's inconvenience C+P- kurwáázibwa be caused to become ill C+R- kurwáázangana cause each other to become ill; nurse each other kúrya eat; irritate A- ku**ríira** eat for/at C- kuriisa cause to eat, feed P- kuriibwa be eaten D- kuryarya cheat R- kuryâna quarrel, fight I- kuriiriria take more than one's fair share X- kuriisaguzibwa have a habit of eating anything/anywhere A+R- kuriirangana eat for each other C+A- kuriisiza cause to eat for, feed for C+P- kuriisibwa be caused to eat, be fed C+R- kuriisangana cause each other to eat, feed each other kusa grind A- kuseera grind for/at; overcharge, be expensive

C- kuseisa cause to grind P- ku**seebwa** be ground A+R- kuseerangana grind for each other C+A- kuseiseza cause to grind for C+P- kuseisibwa be caused to grind C+R- kuseisangana cause each other to grind kusaasa ache, hurt; be needed badly A- ku**saasira** hurt at; feel pity for P- kusaasibwa be hurt; need badly R- kusaasangana hurt each other kusáaga be left over, be plenty, exceed A- kusáajira be left over at C- kusáajisa cause to be left over - kusáaja cause to be left over P- kusáagwa be exceeded R- kusáágaana be too much, be all over V- kusáágura leave over A+C- kusáájiza offend C+R- kusáájisangana cause each other to be left over V+C- kusááguza leave over kusaarira be bitter A- kusaaririra be bitter at C- kusaariza cause to be bitter I- kusaariirira be bitter to (person) C+P- kusaarizibwa be caused to be bitter A+P- kusaariirirwa feel a bitter taste kusaaruura harvest A- ku**saaruurira** harvest for/at C- ku**saaruuza** cause to harvest P- ku**saaruurwa** be harvested A+P- kusaaruurirwa be harvested something ku**saba** ask, beg, pray A- ku**sabira** beg for/at, pray for C- kusabisa cause to beg P- kusabwa be begged R- ku**sabangana** beg each other I+C- kusabiiriza beg importunately A+P- kusabirwa be begged something, be prayed for A+R- kusabirangana beg for each other C+P- kusabisibwa be caused to beg C+R- kusabisangana cause each other to beg kusagara accompany A- kusagarira accompany for C- kusagaza cause to accompany P- kusagarwa be accompanied R- kusagarana accompany each other A+P- kusagarirwa be accompanied someone C+P- kusagazibwa be caused to accompany

kusaka go and work for food, fetch food A- kusacira fetch food for/at C- kusacisa give food to take home P- kusakwa (of food) be fetched A+P- ku**sacirwa** be fetched food A+R- kusacirangana fetch food for each other C+R- kusacisangana give food to each other kusakaara thatch A- kusakaarira thatch for/at C- kusakaaza cause to thatch P- kusakaarwa be thatched S- kusakaaruka become unthatched V- kusakaarura unthatch A+P- kusakaarirwa be thatched something A+R- kusakaarirangana thatch for each other C+P- kusakaazibwa be caused to thatch C+R- kusakaazangana cause each other to thatch kusáma bleed (transitive) A- kusámira bleed at C- kusámisa cause to bleed P- ku**sámwa** be bled R- kusámangana bleed each other ku**samaara** stare, gape A- ku**samaarira** stare at C- kusamaaza cause to stare A+C- kusamaariza cause to stare for A+P- ku**samaarirwa** be stared at C+P- kusamaaribwa be caused to stare kusamba kick; writhe in agony A- kusambira kick for/at C- kusambisa cause to kick P- kusambwa be kicked R- kusambana commit fornication/adultery - kusambangana kick each other A+P- kusambirwa be kicked something A+R- kusambirangana kick for each other R+A- kusambanira commit fornication at kusamburura undo weavework A- kusambururira undo weavework for/at C- kusamburuza cause to undo weavework P- kusambururwa (of weavework) be undone S- ku**samburuka** be undone A+P- kumbururirwa be undone weavework A+R- kusambururirangana undo weavework for each other C+R- kusamburuzangana cause each other to undo weavework S+A- kusamburucira be undone at

kusándaga make incisions, vaccinate

A- kusándajira make incisions for V- kusándajisa cause to make incisions P- kusándagwa be cut R- kusándagangana make incisions on each other A+P- kusándajirwa be cut someone kusanga meet, find A- ku**sanjira** meet for C- kusanjisa cause to meet P- ku**sangwa** be met R- kusangangana meet each other at - kusangaana meet, come together ku**sánjira** cover A- ku**sánjirira** cover for/at C- kusánjiza cause to cover P- ku**sánjirwa** be covered R- ku**sánjirangana** cover each other S- ku**sánguuruka** be uncovered V- kusánguurura uncover A+P- kusánjirirwa be covered something A+R- kusánjirirangana cover for each other C+R- kusánjizangana cause each other to cover S+A- kusánguurucira be uncovered at V+A- kusánguururira uncover for/at kusára cut A- kusárira cut for/at; cut umbilical cord of newborn; prune banana tree C- kusáza cause to cut P- ku**sárwa** be cut R- kusárangana cut each other I- kusáriirira trim cultivated plot to end day's work A+A- kusáririra prune banana tree for A+C- kusáriza cause to be cut something; cause to prune A+R- kusárirangana cut for each other C+R- kusázangana cause each other to cut kusarara be numb A- kusararira be numb at C- kusaraza cause to be numb S- ku**sararuka** lose numbness C+P- kusarazibwa be caused to be numb kusasura pay A- kusasurira pay for/at C- ku**sasuza** cause to pay P- ku**sasurwa** be paid R- kusasurangana pay each other A+P- kusasurirwa be paid for A+R- kusasurirangana pay for each other C+R- kusasuzangana cause each other to pay kusátura split open

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A- kusáturira split for/at
C- kusátuza cause to split
P- kusáturwa be split
S- kusátuka be split
A+P- kusáturirwa be split something
A+R- kusáturirangana split for each other
C+P- kusátuzibwa be caused to split
C+R- kusátuzangana cause each other to split
S+A- kusátucira be split at
kusébuka sprout again
A- kusébucira sprout at
kuseega be ill for a long time
A- kuseejera be ill at
C- kuseejesa cause to be ill
C+R- kuseejesangana cause each other to be ill
kuseemeeka pant
A- kuseemeecera pant for/at
C- kuseemeeca cause to pant
C+R- kuseemeecangana cause each other to pant
kuséenya collect firewood
A- kuséényera collect firewood for/at
C- kuséényesa cause to collect firewood
P- kuséenywa be collected
X- kuséényagura shatter
A+P- kuséényerwa be collected firewood
A+R- kuséényerangana collect for each other
C+R- kuséényesangana cause each other to collect firewood
X+A- kuséényagurira shatter for
X+S- kuséényagurika be shattered
X+S+A- kuséényaguricira be shattered at
kuseesa spill
A- kuseesera spill for/on
C- kuseesesa cause to spill
P- kuseeswa be spilled
S- kuseeseka be spilled
R- kuseesaana spill all over, use
(esp. liquids) extravagantly
X- kuseesekara fill and spill over
A+P- kuseeserwa be spilled something on
S+A- kuseesecera spill over onto
X+C- kuseesekara cause to fill and spill over
kuseka laugh, mock
A- kusecera laugh/smile at
C- kuseca cause to laugh
 - kusecesa cause to laugh
P- kusekwa be laughed at, be mocked
R- kusekangana mock each other with respect to something
I- kuseceerera mock, laugh at
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I+P- kuseceererwa be mocked, be laughed at A+R- kusecerangana smile at each other C+P- kusecibwa be caused to laugh C+R- ku**secangana** cause each other to laugh I+C- kuseceereza laugh a lot ku**sékura** pound A- kusékurira pound for/at C- kusékuza cause to pound P- kusékurwa be pounded A+P- kusékurirwa be pounded something A+R- kusékurirangana pound for each other C+R- kusékuzangana cause each other to pound kusécera destroy, decimate A- kusécerera decimate for/at C- kuséceza cause to decimate P- ku**sécerwa** be decimated R- kusécerangana decimate each other ku**semba** wrap up A- ku**sembera** wrap up for/at C- kusembesa cause to wrap up P- kusembwa be wrapped up S- kusemburuka become unwrapped V- ku**semburura** unwrap A+P- kusemberwa be wrapped up something A+R- kusemberangana wrap up for each other C+P- kusembesibwa be caused to wrap up C+R- kusembesangana cause each other to wrap up S+A- kusemburucira become unwrapped at V+A- ku**sembururira** unwrap for kusémbuka walk slowly when ill A- ku**sémbucira** walk slowly for/at C- kusémbuca cause to walk slowly C+R- kusémbucangana cause each other to walk slowly kusémera be pleasant, be clean A- kusémerera be pleasant for/at C- kusémeza cause to be pleasant; operate on A+C- ku**sémerera** cause to be pleasant for; operate on for/at A+P- ku**sémererwa** be happy C+P- kusémeribwa be operated on kusénda withhold hospitality A- kuséndera withhold hospitality for/at C- kuséndesa cause to withhold hospitality P- ku**séndwa** be denied hospitality R- kuséndangana withhold hospitality from each other kusénjeera buy beer A- kusénjeerera buy beer for

C- kusénjeeza cause to buy beer

P- kusénjeerwa (of beer) be bought R- kusénjeererangana buy beer for each other A+P- kusénjeererwa be bought beer A+R- kusénjeererangana buy beer for each other kusénsera permeate, enter A- kusénserera permeate through C- kusénseza cause to enter P- kusénserwa be permeated kusereka hide (something from someone) A- kuserecera hide for C- kusereca cause to hide P- ku**serekwa** be hidden R- kuserekangana hide something from each other V- kuserekurura bring out of hiding X- ku**serura** expose; (of moon) rise, appear A+P- kuserecerwa be hidden something A+R- kuserecerangana hide for each other C+R- ku**serecangana** cause each other to hide something kusiba lock, imprison A- kusibira lock for/at C- kusibisa cause to lock P- kusibwa be locked X- kusibika fasten, tether V- ku**sibura** unfasten A+P- kusibirwa be locked something A+R- kusibirangana lock for each other C+R- kusibisangana cause each other to lock X+A- kusibicira fasten for X+P- kusibikwa be fastened V+A- kusiburira unfasten for V+P- ku**siburwa** be unfastened V+A+P- kusiburirwa be unfastened something V+A+R- kusiburirangana unfasten for each other kusiga leave behind A- kusijira leave behind while at; entrust to C- kusijisa cause to leave behind P- ku**sigwa** be left behind R- kusigangana leave at different times, go at different paces X- kusigara be left behind, stay I- kusijirira leave before the end A+P- kusijirwa be entrusted with something A+R- kusijirangana entrust each other with C+P- kusijisibwa be caused to leave behind; wander to a new concern C+R- kusijisangana cause each other to leave behind X+C- kusigaza cause to stay; be left with kusigeigana pass the buck A- kusigeiganira pass the buck at

C- kusigeiganisa pass the buck to A+P- kusigeiganirwa (of task) be subject of contention C+P- kusigeiganisibwa (of person) be passed the buck ku**sígisa** stir A- ku**sigisira** stir for/at C- kusígisisa cause to stir P- kusigisibwa be stirred - kusígiswa be stirred A+P- kusigisirwa be stirred something A+R- kusigisirangana stirr for each other kusigura steal a person's wife; provide cause for not doing something A- ku**sigurira** steal.. for C- kusiguza cause to steal.. P- ku**sigurwa** be stolen R- kusigurangana provide excuse for each other kusiiba spend the day; fast A- kusiibira pass the day on(food) C- kusiibya cause to spend the day P- kusiibwamu be spend the day in V- kusiibura bid farewell V+A- kusiiburira bid farewell for/at V+P- ku**siiburwa** be bidden farewell V+R- kusiiburangana bid each other farewell V+S- kusiiburuka break the fast kusiiga smear, paint A- kusiijira smear for/at C- kusiijisa cause to smear P- kusiigwa be smeared R- kusiigangana smear each other A+R- kusiijirangana smear for each other kusiima thank, approve of A- kusiimira thank for/at C- kusiimisa cause to thank P- ku**siimwa** be thanked R- kusiimangana thank each other; like each other A+P- kusiimirwa be thanked someone kusiimura wake up (transitive) A- kusiimurira wake up for/at C- kusiimuza cause to wake up P- kusiimurwa be woken up S- kusiimuka wake up (intransitive) A+P- kusiimurirwa be woken someone C+R- kusiimuzangana cause each other to wake up S+A- kusiimucira wake up at kusiisa spoil A- kusiisira spoil for/at; encamp

C- kusiisisa cause to spoil P- kusiiswa be spoilt X- ku**siisikara** be spoilt, go wrong kusiita crush A- kusiitira crush for/at C- kusiitisa cause to crush P- kusiitwa be crushed I- kusiitiira crush, press hard on A+P- kusiitirwa be crushed something A+R- kusiitirangana crush for each other kusika pull; inherit A- kusicira pull for/at C- kusicisa cause to pull; bequeath R- ku**sikana** wrangle - kusikangana pull each other P- kusikwa be inherited X- kusikankura pull forcefully S- ku**sikuka** be pulled off V- ku**sikura** pull off/out R+C- ku**sikanisa** bring into a wrangle V+A- kusikurira pull off for V+C- kusikuza cause to pull off V+P- ku**sikurwa** be pulled off kusikina hicough A- kusikinira hicough at C- kusikinisa cause to hicough kusimba erect, place upright A- kusimbira erect for C- kusimbisa cause to erect P- kusimbwa be erected S- ku**simbuka** (of e.g. a car) move, be movable V- kusimbura set in motion, move (trans & intr) A+P- kusimbirwa be erected something A+R- kusimbirangana erect for each other C+R- kusimbisangana cause each other to erect V+A- kusimburira set in motion for V+C- kusimbuza cause to set in motion kusinda be drunk; groan with pain; (of lion) roar A- kusindira be drunk for/at C- kusinza cause to be drunk S- ku**sinduuka** become sober V- ku**sinduura** make sober C+P- kusinzibwa be made drunk C+R- kusinzangana make each other drunk S+A- ku**sinduucira** become sober at kusindika push; dispatch/send A- kusindicira push for; (of mother) push baby out C- kusindicisa cause to push

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P- kusindikwa be pushed R- kusindikana shove, jostle A+P- kusindicirwa be pushed something; (of baby) be pushed out A+R- kusindicirangana push for each other C+R- kusíndicisangana cause each other to push ku**síndura** uproot A- ku**síndurira** uproot for C- ku**sínduza** cause to uproot P- kusindurwa be uprooted S- kusinduka be uprooted A+P- kusindurirwa be uprooted something A+R- kusindurirangana uproot for each other C+R- kusinduzangana cause each other to uproot ku**singa** rub clean A- ku**sinjira** rub for/at C- ku**sinjisa** cause to rub P- ku**singwa** be rubbed A+P- kusinjirwa be rubbed something A+R- kusinjirangana rub for each other C+R- kusinjisangana cause each other to rub ku**singa** win, overcome A- ku**sínjira** win at C- kusinjisa cause to win; cause to be overcome/fail P- kusingwa fail, be overcome R- ku**singangana** compete X- kusinjisiriza make fail unfairly A+P- kusinjirwa fail for/at R+A- ku**sínganganira** compete at kusisa resemble R- kusisana resemble each other R+A- kusisanira resemble each other for/at R+C- kusisanisa confuse, mix up, compare (esp. faces) R+P- kusisanwa be resembled ku**sitama** sit A- kusitamira sit on C- kusitamisa cause to sit A+P- kusitamirwa be sat on ku**soba** go wrong A- kusobera baffle, be wrong at C- ku**sobya** err S- ku**sobooka** be clear, be understandable - kusobooroka (e.g. of weavework) be set right V- kusoboorora set right; explain - ku**sobora** cope with, be able A+P- kusoberwa be baffled and saddened A+C- kusobeza err for, disappoint S+A- kusoboocera be clear to/at

V+A- kusoboororera expalain for/at V+P- ku**soboororwa** be explained something V+R- kusoboororangana explain to each other S+A+P- ku**soboocerwa** understand clearly; be enlightened/modern kusohora qo out A- ku**sohorera** go out at C- kusohoza cause to go out S- ku**sohooroka** fall out (e.g. from a bundle) V- kusohoorora pull out A+C- ku**sohoreza** cause to go out for/at C+P- kusohozibwa be taken out S+A- kusohoorocera fall out at V+A- kusohoororera pull out for/at kusókoza comb A- ku**sókoreza** comb for/at C- kusókozesa cause to comb P- kusókozibwa be combed R- kusókozangana comb each other kusoma read; attend school/church; sip A- kusomera read for/at C- kusomesa cause to read; teach/preach P- ku**somwa** be read S- ku**someka** be legible I- kusomerera curse by reading from a holy book I+C- kusomeereza drink while eating A+P- kusomerwa be read something A+R- kusomerangana read for each other C+P- kusomesibwa be taught, be preached to C+R- kusomesangana cause each other to read kusômba fetch in several trips A- ku**sómbera** fetch for C- kusómbesa cause to fetch P- ku**sômbwa** be fetched I- kusómberera fetch in several trips A+P- kusómberwa be fetched something A+R- kusómberangana fetch for each other C+P- kusómbesibwa be caused to fetch C+R- kusómbesangana cause each other to fetch kusomboora move items from a house; steal (almost) everything A- kusomboorera move items for/at C- kusombooza cause to move items P- kusomboorwa (of things) be moved, be stolen; (of people) lose items through theft S- kusombooka come together from all over ku**sona** sew A- ku**sonera** sew for/at

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C- kusonesa cause to sew P- ku**sonwa** be sewn A+P- kusonerwa be sewn something A+R- kusonerangana sew for each other C+A- kusoneseza cause to sew for C+P- kusonesibwa be caused to sew C+R- kusonesangana cause each othe to sew ku**songora** sharpen (e.g. a peg) A- kusongorera sharpen for/at C- kusongoza cause to sharpen P- kusongorwa be sharpened S- ku**songoka** be sharpened A+P- kusongorerwa be sharpened something A+R- kusongorerangana sharpen for each other C+P- kusongozibwa be caused to sharpen C+R- kusongozangana cause each other to sharpen ku**soora** extinguish (esp. a plant) A- ku**soorera** extinguish for/at C- kusooza cause to extinguish P- ku**soorwa** be extinguished S- ku**sooka** be extinguished A+P- kusoorerwa be extinguished something A+R- kusoorerangana extinguish for each other C+R- kusoosangana cause each other to extinguish ku**sora** pay tax A- kusorera pay tax for C- kusoza cause to pay tax P- kusorwa (of tax) be paid A+C- kusoreza cause to pay tax for/at; sniff A+P- kusorerwa be paid tax for A+R- kusorerangana pay tax for each other C+P- kusozibwa be caused to pay tax C+R- kusozangana cause each other to pay tax ku**soroma** pick A- kusoromera pick for/at C- kusoromesa cause to pick P- kusoromwa be picked A+P- kusoromerwa be picked something A+R- kusoromerangana pick for each other C+R- kusoromesangana cause each other to pick ku**soroora** set apart, sort out A- ku**soroorera** set apart for/at C- kusorooza cause to set apart P- kusoroorwa be set apart A+P- kusoroorerwa be sorted something A+R- kusoroorerangana sort out for each other C+P- kusoroozibwa be caused to sort out C+R- kusoroozangana cause each other to sort out

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kusótooka walk feebly/stealthly A- kusótoocera walk feebly for/at; stalk C- kusótooca cause to walk feebly A+P- kusótoocerwa be stalked C+P- kusótoocibwa be caused to walk feebly ku**suka** pour A- ku**sucira** pour for/at C- kusucisa cause to pour P- kusukwa be poured X- kusukaanura pour from one vessel into another A+P- kusucirwa be poured something A+R- kusucirangana pour for each other C+R- kusucisangana cause each other to pour ku**súmika** join, tie a knot A- ku**súmicira** tie a knot for/at C- kusúmicisa cause to tie a knot P- kusúmikwa be tied into a knot X- kusúminkanisa splice, mend (a rope) A+P- kusúmicirwa be tied a knot A+R- kusúmicirangana tie a knot for each other C+R- kusúmicisangana cause each other to tie a knot kusúna pinch; (of breasts) develop A- ku**súnira** pinch for/at C- kusúnisa cause to pinch P- kusúnwa be pinched R- kusúnangana pinch each other A+P- kusúnirwa be pinched someone A+R- kusúnirangana pinch for each other kusunga flatter, lionize A- kusunjira flatter at C- kusunjisa cause flatter P- kusungwa be flattered R- ku**sungangana** flatter each other kusûnga regard a person as shameful A- kusúnjira regard as shameful at C- kusúnjisa cause to regard as shameful P- kusûngwa be regarded as shameful R- kusúngangana regard each other as shameful A+R- kusúnjirangana regard as shameful for each other C+R- kusúnjisangana cause each other to be regarded as shameful R+A- kusúnjirangana regard each other as shameful at kusúra herald, be an omen A- kusúrira herald for/at C- kusúza cause to herald P- kusúrwa be heralded A+P- kusúrirwa be heralded something A+R- kusúrirangana herald for each other

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kusútura lift A- kusúturira lift up for; lift many things simultaneously C- kusútuza cause to lift up P- kusúturwa be lifted up S- ku**sútuka** go up/rise A+P- kusúturirwa be lifted something A+R- ku**súturirangana** lift up for each other C+P- kusútuzibwa be caused to lift C+R- kusútuzangana cause each other to lift ku**suubura** peel A- kusuuburira peel for C- kusuubuza cause to peel; invest P- kusuuburwa be peeled A+P- kusuuburirwa be peeled something A+R- ku**suuburirangana** peel for each other C+P- kusuubuzibwa be caused to peel C+R- kusuubuzangana cause each other to peel kusuuma go down hill A- kusuumira go down hill at C- kusuumya take down hill P- kusuumwa (of a hill) be descended C+R- kusuumyangana take each other down hill ku**suura** greet A- kusuurira greet for/at C- kusuuza cause to greet; approach P- kusuurwa be greeted R- kusuurangana greet each other V- kusuuru(u)ra uncover A+C- kusuuriza check on, visit A+P- ku**suurirwa** be greeted someone A+R- kusuurirangana greet for each other V+P- kusuuru (u) rwa be uncovered V+R- kusuuru(u) rangana uncover each other kuswara be exposed, be shamed C- kuswaza expose, shame C+A- kuswariza expose for/at C+P- kuswazibwa be exposed C+R- kuswazangana expose each other ku**sweka** cover A- kuswecera cover for/at C- kuswecesa cause to cover P- kuswekwa be covered R- kuswekangana cover each other A+P- kuswecerwa be covered something A+R- kuswecerangana cover for each other C+R- kuswecesangana cause each other to cover ku**swêra** (of a man) marry

A- kuswérera marry at C- kuswêza cause to marry P- kuswêrwa (of a woman) be married R- kuswérangana marry each other I- kuswérerera arrange a marriage for (a man) C+P- kuswézibwa be caused to marry C+R- kuswézangana cause each other to marry kúsya burn, catch fire; ripen; be cooked A- kuhiira burn at; pity C- kuhiisa cause to be cooked; brew beer I- kuhiirira be excited X- kuhiisiriza (esp. of a boil) be very `ripe' and ready to burst open A+P- kuhiirwa (mu) have something burn at; be lucky C+A- kuhiisiza cause to ripen for/at C+P- kuhiisibwa cause to be ripe/cooked kúta put A- kutéera put for C- kutéisa cause to put; forbid P- ku**téebwa** be put C+A- kutéiseza cause to put for, forbid for C+P- kutéisibwa be forbidden something C+R- kutéisangana forbid each other kutáaga seek pity; clutch at/try anything for help A- kutáájira seek pity from C- kutáájisa cause to seek pity X- kutááguza clutch at anything for help I+C- kutáájiriza plead, entreaty A+C- kutáájisangana cause each other to seek pity A+R- kutáájirangana seek pity from each other ku**táágura** tear A- ku**táágurira** tear for/at C- kutááguza cause to tear P- kutáágurwa be torn S- kutááguka become torn X- kutáágurikana be dawn A+P- kutáágurirwa be torn something A+R- kutáágurirangana tear for each other C+P- kutááguzibwa be caused to tear C+R- kutááguzangana cause each other to tear kutaaha go home, enter A- kutaahira enter for/at; (of bees) enter hive C- kutaahisa go home with (means) - kutaasya take/bring inside P- kutahwa be entered I- ku**taahirira** intrude upon

A+C- kutaahisa force one's way through

C+P- kutaahisibwa be caused to go home

I+P- kutaahirirwa be intruded upon

kutáana separate (intransitive); do by turns A- ku**táánira** separate at C- kutáánisa cause to separate X- kutáánuukana separate (intransitive) kutaba struggle to get out of a quagmire/mud, play in mud A- kutabira struggle at; cover esp. a hole with earth C- kutabisa cause to struggle P- kutabwa (esp. of mud) be played with S- kutabuka emerge, arise; (of child) be very active/playful V- kutabura (of water) boil C+P- kutabisibwa be caused to struggle C+R- kutabisangana cause each other to struggle V+A- kutaburira boil at kutabaara visit the king's residence; go to pick a fight A- kutabaarira visit for; pick a fight at C- kutabaaza cause to pick a fight P- kutabaarwa be attacked S- kutabaaruka return safely; (of a mother) deliver safely kutagata be warm A- kutagatira be warm at C- kutagasa warm A+P- kutagatirwa feel warm C+A- kutagasiza warm for C+P- kutagasibwa be warmed kutáha scoop, draw (e.g. water) A- kutáhira scoop for/at C- kutáhisa cause to scoop P- kutáhwa be scooped A+P- kutáhirwa be scooped something A+R- kutáhirangana scoop for each other C+P- kutáhisibwa be caused to scoop C+R- kutáhisangana cause each other to scoop kutáhata carry in the hand esp. with something else on the head A- kutáhatira carry for C- kutáhatisa cause to carry P- kutáhatwa be carried A+P- kutáhatirwa be carried something A+R- kutáhatirangana carry for each other C+P- kutáhasibwa be caused to carry kutáma disgust, displease A- kutámira disgust at C- kutámisa anger P- kutámwa be angry, dislike R- kutámangana dislike each other A+P- kutámirwa dislike at

C+P- kutámisibwa be caused to dislike kutámba cure (a disease); offer sacrifice A- kutámbira treat (a patient), rescue C- kutámbisa cure with (medicine), consult a doctor concerning a disease - kutámbya bother, be a nuisance, persecute P- kutámbwa (of a disease) be cured A+P- kutámbirwa (of a patient) be treated A+R- kutámbirangana treat each other C+A- kutámbisiza cause (a patient) to be treated C+R- kutámbyangana persecute each other kutámbura stride A- kutámburira stride at C- kutámbuza cause to stride P- kutámburwa (of a journey) be stridden S- kutámbuka stride S+A- kutámbucira stride at kutámika feed, put into the mouth A- kutámicira feed for/at P- kutámikwa be fed R- kutámikangana feed each other A+P- kutámicirwa be fed at ku**tana** fester A- kutanira fester at C- kutanisa cause to fester C+P- kutanisibwa be caused to fester kutánaka vomit A- kutánacira vomit on C- kutánaca cause to vomit P- kutánakwa be vomited X- kutánacirana vomit severely A+C- kutánaciza cause to vomit for A+P- kutánacirwa be vomited on A+R- kutánacirangana vomit on each other C+P- kutánacibwa be caused to vomit C+R- kutánacangana cause each other to vomit kutandama sit astride A- kutandamira sit astride for/at C- kutandamya cause to sit astride V- kutandamura set astride I+C- kutandamiriza sit astride A+P- kutandamirwa be sat astride for A+R- kutandamirangana sit astride for each other ku**tándika** start work A- kutándicira start work for/at C- kutándicisa cause to start work P- kutándikwa (of work) be started

A+P- kutándicirwa be started something A+R- kutándicirangana start for each other C+R- kutándicisangana cause each other to start kutanga forbid, bring back; go ahead/be first A- kutánjira forbid for/at C- kutánjisa cause to forbid P- kutângwa be forbidden A+P- kutánjirwa be brought back something A+R- kutánjirangana bring back for each other C+R- kutánjisangana cause each other to bring back kutangaara be surprised A- kutangaarira be surprised at C- kutangaaza surprise A+P- kutangaarirwa be marvelled kutantamura enlarge A- kutantamurira enlarge for/at C- kutantamuza cause to enlarge P- kutantamurwa be enlarged S- kutantamuka become large A+P- kutantamurirwa be enlarged something A+R- ku**tantamurirangana** enlarge for each other C+P- kutantamuzibwa be caused to enlarge C+R- kutantamuzangana cause each other to enlarge kutaraaka splash, pop out (intransitive) A- ku**taraacira** splash at C- kutaraaca cause to splash A+P- kutaraacirwa have something splash onto self C+A- kutaraaciza cause to splash for/at ku**tárika** set up to dry A- ku**táricira** dry for C- ku**táricisa** cause to dry P- kutárikwa be dried I+C- kutáriiciriza dry with insufficient heat A+P- kutáricirwa be dried something A+R- kutáricirangana dry for each other ku**tátira** warn A- kutátirira warn for/at P- kutátirwa be warned R- kutátirangana warn each other kutebya tell a story, converse A- kutebeza tell a story to/at I+C- kuteberera add fanciful parts to a story, exaggerate A+P- kutebezibwa be told a story kuteega curse, procure a magic spell A- kuteejera curse at C- kuteejesa cause to curse

P- kuteegwa (of magic spell) be procured V- kuteegura make offering to undo magic spell against self I- kuteejerera curse someone, procure magic spell against someone I+P- kuteejererwa be cursed I+R- kuteejererangana curse each other kutéeka cook; (of solution) settle; make (a law) A- kutéécera cook for/at; settle at; make a law for; pile up C- kuteecesa cause to cook P- kutéekwa be cooked R- ku**téékaana** settle, calm down V- kutéékurura unpack D- kutéékateeka prepare I- kutéécerera press down upon; concentrate A+P- kutéécerwa be cooked something A+R- kutéécerangana cook for each other C+P- kutéécesibwa be caused to cook C+R- kutéécesangana cause each other to cook - kutéécerana pile upon each other R+A- ku**téékaanira** settle for R+C- kutéékaanisa cause to calm down I+C- kutéécereza think, reflect kutéékama perch; be naughty A- kutéékamira be naughty to C- kutéékamisa cause to be naughty A+P- kutéékamirwa be victim of naughty behavior A+R- kutéékamirana be naughty to each other ku**téera** hit A- kutéérera hit for/at; prune a banana tree C- kutéeza cause to hit, cause to be hit P- ku**téerwa** be hit R- ku**téérangana** hit each other - kutéérana cause to be at loggerheads; mix up A+P- kutéérerwa be pruned; be hit for/at A+R- kutéérerangana hit for each other C+P- kutéézibwa be caused to hit C+R- kutéézangana cause each other to hit/be hit R+A- kutééranganira hit each other at - kutééranira cause to be at loggerheads for; mix at I+C- kutéérereza be a bad quy kutéga set a trap; shave A- kutéjera set a trap for, ambush; shave for C- kutéjesa cause to set a trap; cause to shave; become incorrigible P- kutégwa be trapped; be shaved ' R- ku**tégangana** trap each other S- kutéguuruka (of a trap) go off V- kutéguurura unset a trap - kutégura clear space by putting things away,

- ku**tegura** clear space by putting things away, remove dishes after a meal

A+P- kutéjerwa be set a trap, be ambushed A+R- kutéjerangana set a trap for each other; ambush each other C+P- kutéjesibwa be caused to set a trap; be caused to shave C+R- kutéjesangana cause each other to set a trap; cause each other to shave S+A- kutéguurucira go off at V+A- kutéguururira unset a trap for/at V+P- kutéguururwa be unset I+C- kutéjeresa wait for, expect V+A+R- kutéguururirangana unset traps for each other kutéjeka control, manage, make rules A- kutéjecera manage for/at C- kutéjecesa cause to manage P- kutéjekwa be managed A+R- kutéjecerana have mutual understanding/control I+C- kutéjecereza lord it over others ku**téisura** let go A- ku**téísurira** let go for/at P- kutéisurwa be dropped, be let free S- ku**téisuka** slip off kutéma cut A- kutémera cut for/at C- kutémesa cause to cut P- kutémwa be cut R- kutémangana cut each other, fight S- kutémuuruka (of a bush) be cleared; (of a sore) enlarge, get worse V- kutémuurura clear overgrown bush A+P- kutémerwa be cut something A+R- kutémerangana cut for each other C+P- kutémesibwa be caused to cut C+R- kutémesangana cause each other to cut R+A- kutémanganira cut each other at R+C- kutémanganisa cause to fight V+A- kutémuururira clear overgrown bush for V+C- kutémuuruza cause to clear overgrown bush V+R- kutémuurusangana cause each other to clear overgrown bush ku**temba** go up A- ku**tembera** go up at C- kutembya take up P- kutembwa be climbed V- kutembuura begin a new field A+C- kutembera take up for/at V+C- kutembuuza cause to begin a new field kuténdeka ordain; put in a special position A- kuténdecera ordain for P- kuténdekwa be ordained

R- kuténdekangana ordain each other kutengeeta sway, be loose A- kutengeetera swav at C- kutengeesa cause to sway C+P- kutengeesibwa be caused to swav kutênsa confer, plot; court (a woman) A- kuténseza confer at; court for/at kutéra even ploughed land A- kutérera even for C- kutéza cause to even P- kutérwa be evened I- kutéreera be flat; be calm/settled/satisfied A+P- kutérerwa be evened ploughed land A+R- kutérerangana even for each other C+P- kutézibwa be caused to even C+R- kutézangana cause each other to even I+C- kutéreeza make flat; make settled I+C+P- kutéreezibwa be made flat, be calmed ku**térama** stay up late A- kutéramiza stay up late for/at C- kutéramva cause to stav up late A+P- kutéramirwa have guests stay up late A+R- kutéramirangana stay up late for each other kuterebura slip off, take away quickly/briefly A- kutereburira slip off for/at P- kutereburwa be slipped off S- kuterebuka slip off (intransitive) kutéreka give beer A- kutérecera give beer for/at C- kutérecesa cause to give beer P- kutérekwa be given beer R- kutérekangana give beer to each other I- kutérescerera offer sacrifice kuterera slip, be smooth A- kutererera slip at C- kutereza cause to slip C+P- kuterezibwa be caused to slip kutérura lift off from fire A- ku**térurira** lift off for/at C- kutéruza cause to lift off P- kutérurwa be lifted off S- kutéruka fall off balancing point A+P- kutérurirwa be lifted something A+R- ku**térurirangana** lift for each other C+P- ku**téruzibwa** be caused to lift off C+R- kutéruzangana cause each other to lift off

kutéta (of a child) be spoilt A- kutétera be spoilt at C- kutésa spoil ( a child) C+A- kutéseza spoil for/at kutetema tremble A- kutetemera tremble at C- kutetemesa cause to tremble C+R- kutetemesangana cause each other to tremble kutétera (of a hen) cackle A- kutéterera cackle at C- kutéteza cause to cackle C+P- kutétezibwa be caused to cackle ku**tiga** pierce A- ku**tijira** pierce for C- kutijisa cause to pierce P- kutigwa be pierced A+C- kutijiza hint, wink A+P- kutijirwa be pierced something A+R- kutijirangana pierce for each other C+P- kutijisibwa be caused to pierce C+R- kutijisangana cause each other to pierce kutiganda cut wood for building A- kutigandira cut wood for/at C- kutigandisa cause to cut wood P- kutigandwa be cut ku**tiina** fear A- kutiinira be afraid at/for C- ku**tiinisa** frighten P- kutiinwa be feared R- kutiinangana fear each other C+R- kutiinisangana frighten each other kutiiza lend, borrow; invite A- kutiiriza borrow for/lend for; invite for P- kutiizibwa be lent/be borrowed; be invited R- kutiizangana lend to each other; invite each other kutimba dig (holes) A- kutimbira dig for C- kutimbisa cause to dig P- kutimbwa be dug A+P- kutimbirwa be dug something A+R- kutimbirangana dig for each other C+P- kutimbisibwa be caused to dig C+R- kutimbisangana cause each other to dig kutinda bridge; set up a bed A- kutindira bridge for/at; set up a bed for

C- kutindisa cause to bridge P- kutindwa be bridged V- kutinduura unset a bed A+P- kutindirwa be bridged something A+R- kutindirangana bridge for each other C+P- kutinzibwa be caused to bridge C+R- kutinzangana cause each other to bridge kutitira be cold A- kutitirira be cold at C- kutitiza cause to be cold C+P- kutitizibwa be caused to be cold C+R- kutitizangana cause each other to be cold kutobera sink; (of sun) set A- kutoberera sink at C- kutobeza cause to sink; pass the day P- kutoberwamu be sank in C+P- kutobezibwa be caused to sink kutomera knock into A- kutomerera knock into for/at C- kutomeza cause to knock into P- kutomerwa be knocked into R- kutomerangana knock into each other C+P- kutomezibwa be caused to knock into C+R- kutomezangana cause each other to knock into kutóna announce a surprise event A- kutónera (of an insect) sting P- kutónwa be given surprise news R- kutónangana give surprise news to each other X- kutóneka arouse pain from a wound A+C- kutóneza cause to sting, cause to be stung A+P- kutónerwa be stung X+X- kutónekara have a wound irritated kutonda (of god) create; discriminate against a non-relative A- kutondera create for/at P- kutondwa be created R- kutondangana discriminate against each other V- kutondoora trace one's lineage kutóndora peel, split pods A- kutóndorera peel for C- kutóndoza cause to peel P- kutóndorwa be peeled S- kutóndoka be peeled, lose skin A+P- kutóndorerwa be peeled something A+R- kutóndorerangana peel for each other C+P- kutóndozibwa be caused to peel C+R- kutóndozangana cause each other to peel S+A- kutóndocera be peeled at

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kutonga demand payment of a debt
A- kutónjera demand payment for/at
C- kutônja complain to oneself about misfortunes
  kutónjesa cause to demand payment
P- kutôngwa be told to pay a debt
R- kutóngana quarrel
 - kutóngangana demand payment from each other
I- kutónjerera direct incantations to the spirits
X- kwétonjeza pray to the spirits (i.e. demand fair
     treatment from the supernatural powers. N.B. reflexive)
 - kutónjesereza be a very impantient creditor
C+A- kutónjeza complain to self at
R+A- kutónganira plead for
R+C- kutónganisa attack verbally, engage someone in
     a guarrel
kutóoka sprout
A- kutóócera sprout at
kutóonya drip
A- kutóónyera drip onto
I- kutóónyerera drizzle
A+C- kutóónyeza cause to drip onto; write elegantly
A+P- kutóónyerwa be dripped something onto
V+S- kutóónyororoka stop drizzling
kutóora take, receive; (of a path) come into common use
A- kutóórera take for/at
C- kutóoza cause to take; cause to come into common use;
     select
P- kutôrwa be taken
R- kutóórana pick up something lost by chance
A+C- kutóóreza copy, imitate, mimick
kutóroboza pick fruit before ripening
A- kutóroboresa pick for
C- kutórobozesa cause to pick
P- kutórobozibwa be picked
kutórora cause to run away, kidnap
A- kutórorera cause to run away for/to/at
C- kutóroza cause to kidnap
P- kutórorwa be kidnapped, be caused to run away
R- kutórorangana cause each other to run away
S- kutóroka
            run away
A+R- kutórorerangana kidnap for each other
S+A- kutórocera run away at/to
kutota be too soft (due to too much water)
A- kutotera be too soft at
C- kutosa cause to be too soft
kutukura be red
A- kutukurira be red at
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C- kutukuza cause to be red P- kutukurwa have a part of self become red C+R- kutukuzangana cause each other to be red kutúma send(a person); summon A- kutúmira send for/at C- kutúmisa cause to send; cause to summon P- kutúmwa be sent R- kutúmangana send each other A+P- kutúmirwa be summoned someone C+P- kutúmisibwa be caused to summon I+C- kutúmiiriza send on erands too often kutumba swell, increase A- kutumbira swell at C- kutumbisa cause to swell X- ku**tumbika** soak X+A- kutumbicira soak for X+P- kutumbikwa be soaked kutunda do business, acquire wealth A- kutundira do business for/at P- kutundwa (of wealth) be acquired A+P- kutundirwa be acquired wealth kutûnga be rich; keep, care for A- kutúnjira be rich for/at; keep for C- kutúnjisa cause to be rich; cause to keep P- kutungwa be kept kutunta fly A- kutuntira fly at C- kutunsa cause to fly X- kutuntumura make fly away X+S- kutuntumuka fly away kutúntuza worry, bother (transitive) A- kutúnturiza worry for/at P- kutúntuzibwa be caused to worry R- kutúntuzangana cause each other to worry kutúra object to; (of animals) go out to graze A- kutúrira infect C- kutúza (of a child) sleep kutuuma heap up A- kutuumira heap up; heap up for C- kutuumisa cause to heap up P- kutuumwa be heaped up S- kutuumuuka (of smoke) go up, (of a ball) bounce V- kutuumuura blow smoke, bounce a ball A+P- kutuumirwa be heaped something A+R- kutuumirangana heap up for each other C+R- kutuumisangana cause each other to heap up

S+A- kutuumuucira go up at V+A- kutuumuurira blow for/at V+P- kutuumuurwa be blown kutúura live, reside; put down (a load), relieve of a load A- kutúúrira relieve for C- ku**túuza** live with; cause to put down, cause to relieve P- ku**túurwa** be lived in; be put down, (of a person) be relieved of a load A+P- kutúúrirwa be relieved someone of a load C+P- kutúúzibwa be caused to put down C+R- kutúúzangana cause each other to put down ku**twânga** pound A- kutwánjira pound for/at C- kutwánjisa cause to pound P- kutwangwa be pounded A+P- kutwánjirwa be pounded something A+R- kutwánjirangana pound for each other C+A- kutwánjisisa cause to pound for C+R- kutwánjisangana cause each other to pound C+P- kutwánjisibwa be caused to pound kutwâra take, carry; conceive; rule A- kutwárira take for; take presents to a newly married daughter; conceive at C- kutwaza cause to take; be rough in manners P- ku**twārwa** be taken; be conceived; be ruled R- kutwárangana take each other A+P- kutwárirwa be carried something A+R- kutwárirangana carry for each other C+P- kutwázibwa be caused to take C+R- kutwázangana cause each other to take kutwéija press charges; pay tribute/gifts to a ruler A- kutwéijera press charges against somebody C- kutwéijesa cause to press charges P- kutwéijwa (of a case) be brought forward A+A- kutwéijerera press charges against somebody for/at A+R- kutwéijerangana press charges against each other A+P- kutwéijerwa be charged; be handled a case for C+R- kutwéijesangana cause each other to press charges C+P- kutwéijesibwa be caused to press charges kutyåza sharpen A- kutyáriza sharpen for/at C- kutyázisa cause to sharpen P- kutyázibwa be sharpened A+R- kutyárizangana sharpen for each other C+R- kutyázisangana cause each other to sharpen ku**vúga** drive, ride

A- ku**vújira** drive for/at C- ku**vújisa** cause to drive

P- ku**vúgwa** be driven A+P- kuvújirwa be driven something A+R- kuvújirangana drive for each other C+P- kuvújisibwa be caused to drive C+R- kuvújisangana cause each other to drive kuvumba go to (usually) a neighbor's to drink beer A- kuvúmbira seek beer at C- kuvúmbisa cause to seek beer P- kuvumbwa be visited by people when there is beer R- kuvúmbangana visit each other for beer kuyoora scoop up A- kuyoorera scoop up for/at C- kuyooza cause to scoop up P- kuyoorwa be scooped up A+P- kuyoorerwa be scooped up something A+R- kuyoorerangana scoop up for each other C+P- kuyoozibwa be caused to scoop up C+R- kuyoozangana cause each other to scoop up kuzaana play A- kuzaanira play for/at C- kuzaanisa cause to play, joke P- kuzaanwa (of a game) be played A+P- ku**zaanirwa** be played a game A+R- kuzaanirangana play for each other C+P- kuzaanisibwa be caused to play C+R- kuzaanisangana cause each other to play kuzáara deliver, give birth A- kuzáárira deliver for/at C- kuzázza cause to deliver P- kuzáarwa be born A+C- kuzááriza cause deliver for A+P- kuzáárirwa be born child, be born at C+P- kuzáázibwa be caused to deliver C+R- kuzáázangana cause each other to deliver kuzénjerera go to a place many times; be dizzy C- kusénjereza cause to go to a place many times; cause to be dizzy C+P- kuzénjerezibwa be caused to go many times; be caused to be dizzy kuzibira prevent A- kuzibirira prevent for/at C- kusibisa cause to prevent P- kuzibirwa be prevented R- kuzibirangana prevent each other kuziha swim A- kuzihira swim at C- kuzihisa cause to swim

C+R- kuzihisangana cause each other to swim kuziika bury A- kuziicira bury for C- kuziicisa cause to bury P- kuzikwa be buried V- kuziikuura exhume A+P- kuziicirwa be buried something A+R- kuziicirangana bury for each other C+R- kuziicisangana cause each other to bury V+A- kuziikuurira exhume for V+P- kuziikuurwa be exhumed ku**zimba** swell A- kuzímbira swell for/at C- kuzímbisa cause to swell - kuzimbya cause to swell V- kuzímburura cause a swelling to disappear S- kuzímburuka (of a swelling) disappear C+P- kuzímbisibwa be caused to swell V+A- kuzímburucira (of swelling) disappear at kuzimura pay back a dowry (after a divorce) A- ku**zimurira** pay back a dowry to C- kuzimuza cause to pay back a dowry P- kuzimurwa (of a dowry) be paid back C+R- kuzimuzangana cause each other to pay back a dowry ku**zína** dance, sing A- kuzínira dance for/at C- kuzínisa cause to dance P- kuzinwa be danced I- ku**zinirira** sing softly in celebration/in anticipation of a prize A+P- kuzínirwa be entertained with a dance/song A+R- kuzinirangana dance for each other C+R- kuzinisangana cause each other to dance kuzinda choke (transitive); close off A- kuzindira choke for/at C- kuzindisa cause to choke - kuzinza cause to choke P- kuzindwa suffocate C+P- kuzindisibwa be caused to choke kuzinduka visit (usually with presents) A- ku**zinducira** visit (person) A+P- ku**zinducirwa** be visited A+R- kuzinducirangana visit each other kuzinga role up; give a charm to prevent escape A- kuzínjira role up for/at; charm for/at C- kuzinjisa cause to roll up P- kuzingwa be rolled up; be charmed

D- kuzingazinga make very weak, paralyse X- kuzingama paralyse, fail to grow normally S- ku**zínguruka** become unwound V- ku**zingurura** unwind I- kuzinjirira wind round A+P- ku**zínjirwa** be rolled something A+R- kuzinjizangana roll up for each other C+R- ku**zinjisangana** cause each other to roll up D+P- ku**zingwazingwa** (ku**zingazingwa**) be weakened (e.g. by an illness) X+A- kuzíngamira paralyse at S+A- kuzingurucira become unwound at V+A- ku**zingururira** unwind for/at V+P- kuzingururwa be unwound I+P- kuzínjirirwa be wound round kuzira be taboo, be forbidden; avoid A- kuzirira avoid at C- kuziza cause to avoid P- ku**zirwa** be avoided R- kuzirangana be taboo to each other - kuzirana be taboo to each other V- kuzirura make end avoidance kuzítira enclose, fence off A- kuzítirira enclose for C- kuzítiza cause to enclose P- kuzítirwa be fenced off A+P- ku**zitirirwa** be fenced off something A+R- kuzítirirangana fence off for each other C+P- kuzitizibwa be caused to fence off C+R- kuzítizangana cause each other to fence off kuzônga sway; go indirectly, take long to reach a destination, (of a route) be circuitous A- ku**zónjera** sway at C- kuzônja cause to sway; cause to go indirectly C+P- ku**zónjibwa** be caused to go indirectly kuzoora find, present to view; widen (eyes) i.e. be on the lookout A- kuzoorera find for C- kuzooza cause to find; cause to widen (eyes) P- kuzoorwa be found S- kuzooka be found A+P- kuzoorerwa be found something A+R- kuzoorerangana find for each other C+P- kuzoozibwa be caused to find; be caused to widen eyes C+R- kuzoozangana cause each other to find; cause each other to widen eyes