Subject-agreeing Complementizers and Their Functions in Chokwe, Luchazi, Lunda, and Luvale

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1. Introduction

Complementizers in some African languages have been analyzed as having derived from the verb 'say' (Givón 1972a; Ngonyani 1999). This paper shows that complementizers in four closely related languages Bantu languages, namely Chokwe, Luchazi, Lunda, and Luvale spoken in northwest Zambia and some adjacent parts of Angola and the Democratic Republic of Congo, might have originated from personal possessive pronominal stems. The complementizers are not characteristic of most of the Bantu languages in that they are inflected for number and person, that is, they agree with the subject of the main clause.

Besides describing the morphology of the complementizers, the paper analyzes in detail their various functions and uses in the four languages. They are used to introduce declarative complement clauses, subjunctive complement clauses, direct and indirect quotatives, and complements of object phrases. Another peculiar feature of these types of complementizers is that the verb of the main clause may be deleted.

2. Independent pronouns and possessive pronouns

There seems to exist a connection between independent pronouns, possessive pronouns, and subject-agreeing complementizers in morphological terms. The first and second person independent pronouns and personal possessive pronominal stems are identical. While independent pronouns can stand alone as words, possessive pronominal stems can only occur attached to the agreement prefixes whose forms are determined by the noun class of the possessed element. Compare the examples of constructions with independent pronouns in (1) and Table 1 and those of possessive pronouns in (2) and Table 2.¹ ²

(1) a. Chokwe
   Etu tú-li uka wetu.
   PRO1pl SA1pl-be alone PRO1pl
   ‘We are alone.’
b. Luchazi
Ange yange njĩ-na-mw-iz-i.
PRO1sg PRO1sg SA1sg-TAM-OM1-know-fv
‘I know him’

c. Lunda
Ami n-a-mon-a mukwenzi.
PRO1sg SA1sg-TNS-see-fv youth
‘I saw the youth.’

d. Luvale
Va-a-mu-mwene ikiye
SA2-TNS-OM1-see.RP-fv PRO1
‘They saw him.’

In Tables 1 and 2, class 1 and class 2 pronouns refer to the human third person singular and plural pronouns, respectively.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Chokwe</th>
<th>Luchazi</th>
<th>Lunda</th>
<th>Luvale</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1sg</td>
<td>ami</td>
<td>ange</td>
<td>ami</td>
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<tr>
<td>2sg</td>
<td>yena</td>
<td>ove</td>
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<td>class 1</td>
<td>iye</td>
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<td>yena</td>
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<td>1pl</td>
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<tr>
<td>class 2</td>
<td>ayo</td>
<td>bakiku</td>
<td>wena</td>
<td>vakiko</td>
</tr>
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</table>

**Table 1.** Independent Pronouns

In the following examples of possessive constructions, the possessive pronoun comes after the possessed element with which it agrees in number, person, and noun class. The possessive pronouns display prefixes of different forms depending on the noun class of the possessum.

(2) a. Chokwe
chi-soka ch-e
7-basket 7-POSS2sg
‘your basket’

b. Luchazi
ka-ngátu ka-áng-e
12-cat 12-POSS1sg
‘my cat’

c. Lunda
mu-koko w-índi
3-sheep 3-POSS1
‘his sheep’

d. Luvale
ká-wa k-ove
12-dog 12-POSS2sg
‘your dog’
Complementizers that introduce declarative complement clauses consist of an invariable prefix and a pronominal stem, which varies according to the number and person of the subject of the main clause (Horton 1949; White 1949; Fleisch 2000; and Kawasha 2003). In Chokwe, Luchazi, and Luvale the invariant prefix is \textit{ngw}-, but in Lunda it is \textit{n}-. The complementizer agrees in number and person with the subject of the main clause. (This type of agreement differs from the verbal and modifier agreements in that it is the stem that varies in form rather than the prefix). These complementizers can be traced to the possessive personal pronouns, unlike complementizers in some Bantu languages such as Bemba (Givón 1972: 126, 2001: 70), Kiswahili (Ngonyani 1999), and KiKaonde, and West African languages such as Kwa and Ewe (Hopper and Traugott 1997), where the complementizers derive from verbs of saying like \textit{ti} and \textit{kwamba}.\footnote{KiKaonde, a Bantu language spoken in Zambia, uses the complementizer \textit{mba} that derives from the verb \textit{kwamba} ‘to say’. As for Bemba, another Bantu language spoken in Zambia, the complementizer is \textit{ti} from the verb \textit{ukutila} ‘to say’.}

\begin{table}[h]
\centering
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|c|c|}
\hline
 & Chokwe & Luchazi & Lunda & Luvale \\
\hline
1sg & ami & ange & ami & ami \\
2sg & e & ove & eyi & ove \\
\textit{class 1} & enyi & eni & indi & enyi \\
1pl & etu & etu & etu & etu \\
2pl & enu & enu & enu & enu \\
\textit{class 2} & o & avo & awu & avo \\
\hline
\end{tabular}
\caption{Possessive Pronominal Stems}
\end{table}

3. Complementizers

The example in (3a) has a class 1 complementizer \textit{ngwenyi} which agrees in person and number with the subject of the main clause (subject prefix \textit{ka}-). The same behavior is noted in (3b) in which the shape of the complementizer \textit{ngweni} is determined by the subject of the main clause \textit{mbambi} ‘duiker’. The Lunda example in (3c) contains a class 1 complementizer \textit{nindi} which agrees with the

\footnote{The first person singular and class 1 subject prefix are not overtly expressed in the present perfect aspect. The two are differentiated by virtue of tones.}
subject *mukwénzi* ‘youth’, while the Luval example in (3d) has the complementizer *ngwenyi* agreeing in person and number with the class 1 subject of the main clause.

While the origin of the complementizer root in all the four languages is clearly traceable to the personal possessive pronoun, the source of the complementizer prefix *ngu-* in Chokwe, Luchazi, and Luval and *n-* in Lunda cannot be easily deciphered. Horton (1949: 181) suggests that the complementizer prefix in Luval has its origin from the Luval ideophone *gwa* that denotes a clacking sound. This does not seem to be the case on the following grounds. First, this ideophone also exists in Lunda in the form of *ngwa* with the meaning ‘cutting, breaking across’, but the language has a different complementizer prefix. If the complementizer prefix had derived from the ideophone, one would expect Lunda to have the same prefix just like the other three languages. Second, Fleisch (2000: 101) observes that the ideophones in Luchazi differ very much from the Luval ones. Yet, the two languages have an identical complementizer prefix. This is clearly in contradiction with Horton’s assertion about the origin of the complementizer prefix found in Luval. In addition, the morpheme *ngu* is found in Lunda as well as in Chokwe as an ideophone with a completely different meaning ‘to be strong, be in good health’. Semantically, the two ideophones cannot be said to be identical.

This set of complementizers is only found with first and second speech act participants as well as classes 1 and 2. The four languages differ from most Bantu languages in terms of the features of noun classes; they display a striking distinction between animate nouns and inanimate nouns. Nouns belonging to classes other than 1 and 2 are subdivided into animates and inanimates. Animate nouns display double prefixes in the plural form, that is, they take both their noun class prefix plus the class 2 noun prefix *a-*. Furthermore, with the exception of possessives, animate nouns trigger class 1 and 2 agreement affixes rather than those of the classes to which they belong (Horton 1949; White 1944, 1949; Doke 1967; Fleisch 2000; Kawasha 2003). The division of nouns into subcategories may explain the reason why complementizers are restricted to first and second speech act participant and classes 1 and 2 only. Horton (1949: 181) observes that the complementizers for “inanimates are infrequent, but are found in native fables” in Luval. However, this is very doubtful as fables use animals which, as already mentioned, employ class 1 and 2 complementizers. The following Lunda examples contain a class 12 noun *kapela* ‘snake’ in (4a), and a class 13 *atupela* ‘snakes’ (4b), which trigger class 1 and 2 subject agreement markers *wu-* and *a-* instead of *ka-* and *tu-*.

\[(4)\]

a. Ka-pela w-a-suluk-ili mu-wina.
   12-snake SA1-TNS-slither-RP LOC-hole
   ‘The snake slithered down into the hole.’

   2-13-snake SA2-TNS-slither-RP LOC-hole
   ‘The snakes slithered down into the hole.’

c. Ka-pela w-á-mu-zhah-a wú-chin-i ma-lóka?
   12-snake SA2sg-TNS-OM-kill-fv SA2sg-run away-SUBJ 6-wriggle
   ‘You killed the snake, why should you run away from the wriggles?’

d. Ka-pela w-a-món-a níndi chi-sakala a-na-luwañesh-i.
   12-snake SA1-TNS-find-fv COMP1 7-nest SA2-TAM-disturb-fv
   ‘The snake found that the nest had been disturbed.’
Table 3. Complementizers

3.1. Functions of the complementizers

The subject-agreeing complementizers perform several functions in the four languages. They introduce declarative complement clauses that occur after the verbs of perception, saying, and cognition or thought. Direct and indirect quotes are formally indistinguishable in the four languages, as the same subject-agreeing complementizers introduce both types of speeches.

(5) a. Chokwe
Ka-na-amb-e ngwenyi mw-angana h-a-f-w-a.
SA1-TAM-say-fv COMP1 1-chief TAM-SA1-die-fv
‘He said that the chief is dead.’

b. Luchazi
Ka-sumbi ngwenyi yyi! ku-tsia, ni nji-ku-tsia.
12-chicken COMP1 yes INF-eat and SA1sg-INF-eat
‘The chicken said, “Yes! I will eat.” ’

c. Lunda
ka-pela w-a-món-a níndi chi-sakala a-na-luwañesh-i
12-snake SA1-TNS-find-fv COMP1 7-nest SA2-TAM-disturb-fv
‘The snake found that the nest had been disturbed.’

d. Luvale
Tu-na-shinganyek-a ngwetu na-va-jiha va-ishi vava-vulu.
SA1pl-TAM-think-fv COMP1pl FUT-SA2-kill 2-fish 2-many
‘We think that they will kill many fish.’

Crosslinguistically, the indirect reporting of something said, thought, etc. has deixis adapted to the reporter’s speech. However, this is not the case with these languages; the actual words of the speaker are captured as they were uttered and the deixis is appropriate to the time when they were uttered. Changes rarely occur with regard to person and tense, and the deixis is not adapted to the viewpoint of the reporter when quoting someone indirectly. The first person frequently occurs in the complement when the third person is used in the main clause. In other words, the voice of the reported or original speaker remains unaffected. This suggests that indirect quotes might have developed from direct quotes. The features of the direct quotatives parallel what has been described by Holt (1996) as direct reported speech. She points out that a direct reported speech can be distinguished from an indirect reported speech if “the speaker structures in such a way as to suggest that he or she is reproducing a former locution”. In some cases, pronoun shifts in the third person do occur in reported speech.
(6) a. Chokwe
Tw-a-mu-lwez-ele ngwetu ya-ko.²
SA1pl-TNS-OM1-tell-RP COMP1pl go-IMP
‘We told him (that), “Go!”’

b. Lunda
A-kwénzi a-a-toñozhok-eli náwu Nswana Ø-ne-enzh-i
2-youth SA2-TNS-think-RP COMP2 Nswana SA1-TAM-come-fv
na-ku-mw-ot-a.
TAM-INF-OM1-ask.for.marriage-fv
(Lit: ‘The youth thought that Nswana has come to ask her for marriage.’)
‘The youth thought that Nswana had come to ask her for marriage.’

c. Luvale
Etu tu-na-tachikiz-a ngwetu ve-ez-anga zau.
PRO1pl SA1pl-TAM-know-fv COMP1pl SA2-come-PST yesterday
‘We know that they came yesterday.’

When the content of the complement clause is not asserted by the subject of the main clause, that is, when a person reports what he or she just hears and not the actual words of an actual speaker, the class 2 complementizer náwu in Lunda, ngwo in Chokwe, and ngwavo in Luchazi and Luvale are used instead of the one agreeing with the subject of the main clause. The verb ‘hear’ in all the four languages also means ‘understand’. The complementizer ngwo in (7a), náwu in (7b), and ngwavo in (7c) do not agree with the Chokwe first person subject prefix ngu-, the Lunda first person singular ní-, nor the Luvale first person plural tu-. These subjects do not trigger the corresponding complementizers ngwami, námi, and ngwetu.

(7) a. Chokwe
Ngu-ne- ev-o ngwo mu-angana h-a-fw-a.
SA1sg-TAM-hear-fv COMP2 1-chief TAM-SA1-die-fv
‘I hear that the chief is dead.’

b. Lunda
Ø-na-tiy-i náwu wú-na-ku-keña ku-swana ku-Mayoña.
SA1sg-TAM-hear-fv COMP2 SA2g-TAM-INF-want INF-inherit LOC-Mayoña
‘I hear that you want to inherit at the Mayoña.’

² In Lunda, verbs in the second person singular in the imperative form are inflected with the morpheme -ku, a combination of -ku and the vowel -u. The suffix is homophonous with the locative suffix. In the other three languages, the suffix occurs as -ko, consisting of the suffix -ku and the vowel -o, which is attached only to monosyllabic verb roots. Further, first and second person object pronouns never appear after the verb, though third persons do occur as pronouns suffixed to the verb. The affix -ku is clearly a locative although it has the same form as the second person singular object prefix. Words in Lunda do not end in either of the mid vowels e and o. The locative is also used in subjunctive constructions as a more polite alternative to the imperative form in the second person singular. Some monosyllabic verbs such as ya ‘go’, nwa ‘drink’ and dá take either the suffix -ku-ko or -aña/anga as in dáña ‘eat’ and yaña ‘go’, instead of the locative suffix.
c. Luvalle
Tu-ne-evw-u ngwavo ku-Kawita ku-li nyama.
SA1pl-TAM-hear-fv COMP2 LOC-Kawita INF-be meat
‘We hear that there is meat at the Kawita’s.’

In Lunda, the same complementizers also function as question morphemes and are affixed to the
question marker -di⁶ with speech verbs in the position where a complement clause would normally
occur.

(8) a. Ni-a-mu-lezh-eli mw-âna námi-di?
SA1pl-TNS-OM1-tell-fv 1-child COMP2-Q
‘What did I tell the child?’

b. a-ndimi a-na-hôsh-i náwu-dí?
2-farmer SA2-TAM-say-fv COMP2-Q
‘What have the farmers said?’

3.2. Verb ellipsis in the main clause

The verb of the main clause can be omitted, leaving only the subject followed by the
complementizer that functions as a non-verbal predicate with the understood interpretation and
meaning of the verb of saying, thinking, intention, etc.⁷ The lack of an overtly expressed verb in the
main clause does not affect the semantics of the sentence, as it is recoverable from the context of the
discourse.

(9) a. Luchazi
Kaha mbati ngweni ange nji-na-tav-a
then tortoise COMP1 PRO1sg SA1sg-TAM-agree-fv
‘Then the tortoise said, “I agree”.’

b. Lunda
Kabuchi nindi enu a-nvwali zh-âmi báyi mu-toñozhoka nénu
Kabuchi COMP1 PRO2pl 2-parent 2-POSS1sg CONJ SA2pl-think COMP2pl
Ø-na-ku-hôsha má-zu a-kasawuntu.
SA1sg-TAM-INF-say 6-word 6-disrespectful
‘Kabuchi said, “My parents, don’t think that I am saying words”.’

c. Luvalle
Ngwami tway-enu
COMP1sg come-IMP2pl
‘I say come.’ (Horton 1949: 182)

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⁶ When a nominal object is questioned, the verb suffixes the question element, as shown by the example below
with a non-speech verb.

A-ndimi a-na-let-i-di?
2-farmer SA2-TAM-bring-fv-Q
‘What have the farmers brought?’

⁷ In his description of Luvalle, Horton (1949: 182) observes that the complementizer is used in a copular sense
without a verbal antecedent.
d. Luvale
   Ngwavo ngocho?
   COMP2 what
   ‘Is that what they say?’ (White 1949: 73)

No verb like kwamba ‘to say’ in (9a) and (9b), or the verb kuhosha/kwila ‘to say’ in (9c) are explicitly stated. The main clause in the examples in (9a-b) consists of the only subject noun, and (9c) has only the subordinate clause that begins with the complementizer ngwami. In all these examples, the main clause has an implied meaning of a verb of saying.

This elliptical phenomenon is very frequent in all the four languages. The context of the utterance enables the listener or reader to figure out the verb that the speaker or writer leaves out. Consider the examples in (10) and (11) in which the verb of thought is implied in the main clause and the complement clause refers directly to the thought expressed.

(10) Lunda
   a. Yéna níndi Nswana Ø-ne-enz-i na-ku-mw-óta.8
      PRO1 COMP Nswana SA1-TAM-come-fv with-INF-OM1-marry
      ‘She (thought) that Nswana had come to marry her.’
   b. A-mándumi zh-índi ch-a-a-mu-mwéni-wu a-a-tiy-ili
      2-uncle 2-POSS1 REL-SA1-TNS-OM1-see-RP-REL2 SA1-TNS-feel-RP
      ku-wáha náwu Ø-na-yi-lét-eli ya-kuvwála.
      INF-please COMP2 SA1-TAM-OM2-bring-RP 7-clothes
      ‘His uncles felt pleased when they saw him (thinking) that he had brought them clothes.’
      (Chilayi 1989: 22)

(11) Luvale
   a. Etu ngwetu mw-a-hasa vene
      PRO1pl COMP1pl FUT-SA1-be.able indeed
      ‘We (think) that he will be able.’
   b. Kaha ngwami na-ngu-y-a-ko
      then COMP1sg FUT-SA1sg-go-fv-NEG
      ‘I (decided) that I will not to go.’

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8 The morpheme na- is an associative morpheme meaning ‘and, with’; it is also used to signal an infinitival purpose clause with verbs of motion such ya ‘go’, inza ‘come’, etc. Additionally, it occurs with the verb di ‘be’ to express possession as well as to code progressive/continuous aspect. However, it must be noted that it is different from the perfect tense-aspect marker na-.

a. Wu-a-hosh-a ne-e-bwambu d-indi
   SA1-TNS-speak-fv with-5-friend 5-POSS1
   ‘She spoke with her friend.’

b. Wu-di na-wu-tá
   SA1- be with-11-gun
   ‘She has a gun.’

c. Wu-di na-ku-dá
   SA1-be with-INF-eat
   ‘She is eating.’
Despite this elliptical phenomenon, the main clause is not used as a fragment and the complement clause cannot be an independent clause as is the case in English. Thompson (2002: 144-145) states that in spoken English, complement-taking verbs and *that*-prefixed clauses can be used by themselves as fragments and in places “where they do not occur in the canonical complement constructions”. That is, some constructions that look like complement clauses are simply independent clauses. In addition, complement-taking verb phrases “occur with no overt associated clauses either in the vicinity or in the previous discourse”. In (12a) below, *I think* is used with no accompanying complement clause. *I’m not sure* is presented in its own prosodic phrase, and not as part of a construction consisting of a main clause and a complement clause. *I know* in (12b) also occurs in its own prosodic phrase.

(12) a. … this is =,  
… pepsin,  
I think,  
… I’m not sure

b. I know =,  
I’ve been sleeping about ten hours, every night.  
… and I’m still,  
like,  
… but I think I’m over it faster than I would be (p. 144)

In Lunda, the subject of the main clause can be introduced by the infinitive *kutiya* ‘to listen, to hear’ and/or *kuchinka* which function as discourse markers. The main clause consists of the infinitive as the first constituent, followed by the subject preceding the complementizer. Despite the absence of the verb, the context clearly provides the interpretation of the meaning of the discourse.

(13) Lunda

a. Kuchinka Noliya nindi, ‘Ami awēni O-ne-eluk-i ochu
answer Noliya COMP1 PRO1sg self SA1-TAM-know-fv DEM7
chi-ni-di na-kw-ila.’
REL7-SA1sg-be with-INF-do
‘Noliya answered (that), I, myself, know what I am doing.’

b. Kutiya wena nāwu tú-yi-dim-b-i.10
INF-hear PRO2 COMP SA1pl-OM2-deceive-SUBJ
‘And they said, let’s deceive them.’

4. Subjunctive complement clauses

Subjunctive dependent complement clauses also occur after the subject-agreeing complementizers to express irrealis meaning of purpose, intention, and desire. The subjunctive mood is characterized by the prefixation of the subject prefix directly onto the complement verb without any tense marker and the verb stem is coded with the suffix -i in Lunda, and -e in the other three languages.

(14) Lunda

a. Ch-e-e-el-ilí nindi a-tal-i ha-nyima
when-SA1-TNS-do-RP COMP1 SA1-look-SUBJ LOC-back/behind

9 The infinitive *kuchinka* only occurs as a discourse marker in present day Lunda.
10 PRO2 refers to a human third person plural independent pronoun.
‘When he thought of looking behind, he saw a lion.’

‘He began to chase him so that he could grab the drum.’

‘We want that they bring them here.’

‘He thinks of cutting the firewood.’

‘They named that child Kanswata.’

‘You will find where it is written “Head of school”.’ (Chipoya et al 1995:2)

‘so that the chicken may call the crocodile his brother’

‘They considered John a prophet.’ (Horton 1949:182)

Note that Kanswata in (16a), mu-ána-ye ‘his child’ in (17), and the kapolofweto ‘prophet’ in (18) are object complements that modify the direct objects ōna mu-ána ‘that child’, ngandu ‘crocodile’, and Yowano ‘John’. They are introduced by the complementizers náwu, ngwenyi, and ngwavo that agree in
person and number with the class 2 subject prefix a- ‘they’ in (16a), the nominal subject kasumbi ‘chicken’ in (17), and class 2 subject prefix va- ‘they’ in (18) of the main clauses.

In the Lunda example in (16b), the noun phrase mukulímpi washikola ‘school head/principal’, which is introduced by the class 2 complementizer náwu, is the complement of the omitted locative head noun hachisu ‘on the door’. In addition, the form of both the postverbal relativizer -wu and the complementizer indicates that the relative clause has a class 2 subject.

6. Conclusion

This paper has shown that in Chokwe, Luchazi, Lunda, and Luvale, there exists a set of complementizers that agree with the subject of the main clause. These subject-agreeing complementizers can be traced to the possessive pronominal stems in terms of morphology. They perform multiple functions. They introduce declarative complement clauses of verbs of utterance, perception, cognition or thought. Both direct and indirect quotatives are introduced by the same type of complementizers. In addition to introducing declarative complement clauses, the subject-agreeing complementizers can be part of the subjunctive complement clauses to express irrealis meaning of purpose, intention, and desire. They are also employed to introduce the complement of the direct object or locative noun. Another feature of subject-agreeing complementizers lies in the fact that the verb of the main clause can be omitted without any semantic effect regarding the interpretation of the sentence.

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