

# Relative (pro)nominals in Kirundi

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## 1 Introducing the puzzle

- Across the Bantu family, it is common for subject relative clauses to display ‘anti-agreement effects’ (AAEs), most apparently when the relativized subject is a singular human (for Lubukusu (Diercks 2009, 2010), Nande (Schneider-Zioga 2000, 2007), Abo (Burns 2013), and Bemba (Cheng 2006; Henderson 2007, 2009, 2013)).
- In a standard clause with a Class 1 (singular human) subject, the typical Class 1 agreement morpheme *a-* appears. When the same subject is relativized, standard agreement is not allowed (1b); instead, *u-* appears (1c).

- (1) a. Umulendo **a**-ka-belenga ibuku.  
1boy 1.AGR-FUT-read 5book  
‘The boy will read the book.’
- b. \*umulendo **ú**-a-ka-belenga ibuku  
1boy 1.REL-1.AGR-FUT-read 5book  
‘the boy who will read the book’
- c. umulendo **ú**-**u**-ka-belenga ibuku  
1boy 1.REL-1.AAE-FUT-read 5book  
‘the boy who will read the book’ (Bemba; Cheng 2006, 197)

- These so-called ‘anti-agreement effects’ (AAEs) are characterized by two properties: (i) distinct morphology, in comparison to standard subject-verb agreement marking and (ii) a limited distribution, appearing only when the highest clause-bound argument is relativized.

### Puzzle

- ⇒ What triggers the distinct morphology (*a-* vs. *u-*)?
- ⇒ Why does it only appear in some contexts (local subject relatives)?

- Many past analyses attribute the alternative morphology to the movement and/or features associated with relativization (see, e.g., Schneider-Zioga 1995,

2007; Cheng 2006; Henderson 2013; Baier 2018).

- The locality restrictions, however, are not otherwise expected in  $\bar{A}$ -movement phenomena, necessitating a variety of complex secondary claims (e.g. anti-locality, strong chain repair, criterial freezing, etc.).
  - Kirundi provides a fruitful context in which to (re-)assess past analyses because it shows agreement alternations akin to those analyzed as AAEs but in a notably *different* distribution.
  - In Kirundi, *headed* relative clauses show typical agreement (*a-* for Class 1) (2a). It is only in *headless* relative clauses (HRCs) that alternative morphology *u-* appears (2b).
- (2) a. Ndâzi [u-mu-gabo **a**-garúk-a].  
I.know AUG-1-man 1.AGR-return-IPFV  
‘I know the man who will return.’
- b. Ndâzi [u-**u**-gáruk-a].  
I.know AUG-1.AAE-return-IPFV  
‘I know the (person who) will return.’
- **Uh oh!** If AAEs are a result of  $\bar{A}$ -movement, both headed and headless relative clauses should display AAEs.

### Proposal

- ⇒ Apparent AAEs in Kirundi HRCs are not the result of  $\bar{A}$ -movement; in fact, HRCs are not formed by  $\bar{A}$ -movement at all.
- ⇒ HRCs are nominalizations of high verbal projections. The resulting construction functions as a proform NP (like ‘one’ in English).
- ⇒ The puzzling properties of AAEs naturally fall out of such an approach.
  - Morphology: pronominal forms  $\neq$  verbal forms.
  - Locality: Kirundi nominalizations only target the highest argument.

### Roadmap

- §2 Background on Kirundi
- §3 Evidence against  $\bar{A}$ -movement
- §4 Evidence for a nominalization approach
- §5 Interpreting HRCs

## 2 Background on Kirundi

- Kirundi is an Eastern Bantu language, classified as Zone J (Interlacustrine/Great Lakes) (Bastin 2003). It is spoken by 12.5 million speakers in the country of Burundi where it is the national language.
- Kirundi is part of a dialect continuum with Kinyarwanda (Rwanda) and smaller contiguous communities in Tanzania, Uganda, and the DRC.

### 2.1 Nouns

- Nouns are composed of an initial "augment" vowel (D), a noun class prefix (NCP; *n*), and a root:

(3) Kirundi Noun Structure  
 $D - n - \sqrt{\quad}$

- The augment is situated in D (Ndayiragije et al. 2012).
- The NCP is a categorizing *n* head with gender and number features (Kramer 2014, 2015; Carstens 2008; Fuchs and van der Wal 2021).
- Noun class (gender) denotes 16 broad semantic categories.

(4) Variation in noun class with the root *-ntu*

Noun Class	Singular	Plural
People (1/2)	<i>u-mu-ntu</i> ‘person’	<i>a-ba-ntu</i> ‘people’
Things (7/8)	<i>i-ki-ntu</i> ‘thing’	<i>i-bi-ntu</i> ‘things’
Diminutive (12/13)	<i>a-ka-ntu</i> ‘small thing’	<i>u-du-ntu</i> ‘small things’
Non-tangible (14)	<i>u-bu-ntu</i> ‘humanity’	
Places (16)	<i>a-ha-ntu</i> ‘place’	<i>a-ha-ntu</i> ‘places’

### 2.2 Verbs

- Verbs in Kirundi obligatorily display subject-verb agreement expressing number and gender/person. This agreement morpheme appears at the start of the verbal construction.

(5) a. N-a-bón-ye                      i-gi-tabo.  
 1SG.AGR-PST-read-PFV AUG-7-book  
 ‘I read a book (yesterday).’  
 b. U-mu-gabo a-tēk-a                      u-mu-ceri.  
 AUG-1-man 1.AGR-cook-IPFV AUG-3-rice  
 ‘The man cooks rice.’

- Tone can be lexical (*umuryāngo* ‘family’ vs. *umuryāngo* ‘door’) or grammatical (*nasomye* ‘I read (earlier today)’ vs. *nasomye* ‘I read (before today)’ (Ntahokaja 1994, 162)).

## 3 Evidence against $\bar{A}$ -movement approach

- Variation in the morphology of headed vs. headless relative clauses in Kirundi places doubt on an  $\bar{A}$ -driven approach to AAEs.

### 3.1 Headed vs. headless clauses

- Standard headed relative clauses have no overt relative complementizer but are nonetheless distinguishable because they exhibit common properties of dependent (non-matrix) clauses.
- The most apparent of these properties is the addition of a high tone on the second syllable of the embedded verb root. This is found in all headed relative clauses and embedded complement clauses.
- In the example below, this dependent high tone differentiates a matrix clause (6a) from its relative clause counterpart (6b)

- (6) a. U-mu-gabo a-tēk-a u-mu-ceri.  
 AUG-1-man 1.AGR-cook-IPFV AUG-3-rice  
 ‘The man cooks rice.’ (Matrix)
- b. Ndakūnda [u-mu-gabo \_\_\_\_ a-tēk-á u-mu-ceri].  
 I.like [AUG-1-man 1.AGR-cook-IPFV AUG-3-rice]  
 ‘I like the man (who) cooks rice.’ (Relative)

- Headed relative clauses can also be formed with objects and across clauses.

- (7) Ndakūnda [u-mu-ceri a-tēk-á u-mu-gabo \_\_\_\_].  
 I.like AUG-3-RICE 1.AGR-cook-IPFV AUG-1-man  
 ‘I like the rice the man cooks.’
- (8) Ndakūnda [u-mu-ceri tūzǐ [kó u-mu-gabo a-tēk-á \_\_\_\_]].  
 I.like AUG-3-RICE we.know C AUG-1-man 1.AGR-cook-IPFV  
 ‘I like the rice we know that the man cooks.’

- HRCs are formed from an augment, a class-denoting morpheme, and a verbal projection. The class morpheme is where we see irregular morphology.

- (9) Ndakūnda [u-u-tēk-a u-mu-ceri].  
 I.like AUG-1-cook-IPFV |sc aug-3-rice  
 ‘I like the (one (person) who) cooks rice.’

- In terms of distribution, Kirundi HRCs pattern exactly like previously documented AAE relative clause constructions – they must be local and clause-bound.
- Attempts to create object or long-distance HRCs are illicit. In fact, it’s not even clear what it would look like to have an object or long-distance HRC.

- (10) I like...
- a. \*[u-u-kūnd-a]  
 AUG-1-like-IPFV  
 ‘the (one who) is liked’
- b. \*[u-u-a-kūnd-a Muco]  
 AUG-1-1.AGR-like-IPFV Muco  
 ‘the (one who) Muco likes’
- c. \*[u-u-tūzǐ Muco a-kūnd-a]  
 AUG-1-we.like Muco 1.AGR-like-IPFV  
 ‘the (one who) we know Muco likes’

- Instead, passivization (11) or a pronoun head (12) is required.

- (11) Ndakūnda [u-u-kūnd-u-a].  
 I.like AUG-1-like-PASS-IPFV  
 ‘I like the one (who) is liked.’
- (12) a. Ndakūnda [u-u-ó Muco a-kūnd-á].  
 I.like AUG-1-ONE Muco 1.AGR-like-IPFV  
 ‘I like the one Muco likes.’
- b. Ndakūnda [u-u-ó tūzǐ [kó Muco a-kūnd-á]].  
 I.like AUG-1-ONE we.know that Muco 1.AGR-like-IPFV  
 ‘I like the one we know that Muco likes.’

### Recap

- Kirundi HRCs pattern exactly like AAE constructions as documented in Bemba and other Bantu languages.

1. distinct morphology
2. limited distribution

- However, Kirundi *headed* relative clauses do *not* pattern in this way.

### (13) Headed vs. headless relative clauses

	Headed	Headless
Morphology	<i>a-</i>	<i>u-</i>
Distribution	everywhere	highest local argument
Tone	σó	óσ

- In addition, HRCs differ from headed relative clauses in their tonal pattern – a corollary of dependent clause syntax.

## 3.2 Analysis: HRCs are non- $\bar{A}$ relative clauses

⇒ Proposal: HRCs in Kirundi are not created by  $\bar{A}$ -movement and therefore, their distinct morphology is not driven by  $\bar{A}$ -driven AAEs.

- Only HRCs exhibit the properties associated with Bantu AAEs. Headed relative clauses do not.
- The properties of HRCs do not *obviously* support an  $\bar{A}$ -construction.
  1. only the highest nominal is targeted
  2. HRCs cannot be long distance (a basic test of  $\bar{A}$ -movement)
  3. there is no wh-element or relative pronoun

- All other expected  $\bar{A}$ -constructions in the language exhibit standard subject-verb agreement and not *u*-morphology.

(14) Distribution of agreement/concord morphemes

<i>a-</i>	<i>u-</i>
matrix clauses	obj. markers
dependent clauses	demonstratives
adjunct clauses	quantifiers
cleft/ <i>wh</i> -constructions	numerals
headed relatives	pronouns
light-headed relatives	HRCs

- Are HRCs relative clauses at all? Newman 2022 argues for the need to disassociate the descriptive label "relative clause" from the theoretical concept  $\bar{A}$ -dependency:

a relative clause is "any kind of modification of an NP which contains an extended projection of a verb root"

- An example of a non- $\bar{A}$  relative clause in English is found in modifying gerunds. Like Kirundi HRCs, these constructions lack overt *wh*-morphology and can only modify the highest clause-bound nominal.

(15) English non- $\bar{A}$  relative clause

- the [\_\_\_ girl-stinging] bee
- \*the [bee \_\_\_-stinging] girl

- Non- $\bar{A}$  constructions with relative clause interpretations have similarly been proposed for Northern Paiute and Hiaki (Toosarvandani 2014; Harley 2020).
- An additional piece of evidence against HRCs being  $\bar{A}$ -movement phenomena is that the distinct morphology associated with Bantu AAEs is found elsewhere in Kirundi, outside of the verbal domain.
- The same morphology and a similar distribution occurs with a subset of pronouns and noun modifiers. In these forms, the *u-* morpheme is clearly an *n* head, like the NCPs of standard nouns.

- (16) a. Ndakũnda [u-**u**-ũndi].  
I.like AUG-1-other  
'I like the other (one).'

- b. Ndakũnda [u-**u**-â-njé].  
I.like AUG-1-of-me  
'I like mine (my one).'

- However, similar to HRCs, what appears after the NCP can be more complex than a bare noun root (see for instance the possessive in (16b)).
- This overlap in morphology and distribution opens the door for an account of Kirundi HRCs in the nominal and not verbal domain.

## 4 HRCs in the nominal domain

- Having argued against an  $\bar{A}$ -movement approach, I now argue for a nominalization approach to explaining HRCs.

### 4.1 *u-* as a NCP

- As noted, all nouns in Kirundi have a noun class prefix (NCP) expressing gender and number (note: this is also true of adjectives).

- (17) [U-**mu**-âna **mu**-ĩzá] a-ra-za.  
AUG-1-child 1-beautiful 1.AGR-DJ-come.IPFV  
'The beautiful child is coming.'

- If HRCs are nominal constructions, we must also assume that they possess an *n* head akin to *mu-* above.

- However, HRCs never appear with a *mu-* morpheme; instead, they have a *u-* morpheme in this position.

- (18) [U-**u**-têka] a-ra-za.  
AUG-1-cook 1.AGR-DJ-come.IPFV  
'The one who cooks is coming.'

- While  $\bar{A}$ -movement accounts claim that this morpheme is subject-verb (anti-) agreement, I will present evidence that it is a noun class prefix.

- (19) AAE HRC Structure  
D – AGR – verbal projection

- (20) Nominalization HRC Structure (Repeated)  
D – *n* – verbal projection

- First, HRCs pattern like nouns in their co-occurrence with the augment. The augment is obligatory for all nouns unless preceded by the negative operator *nta* or another determiner. The same is true of HRCs.

- (21) a. Nta (\*u-)mu-hũngu.  
 there.is.no (\*AUG)-1-boy  
 ‘There is no boy.’  
 b. Nta (\*u-)u-têka.  
 there.is.no (\*AUG)-1-cook  
 ‘There is no boy.’

- Second, the *u-* NCP appears in other words that occupy nominal positions.
- Third, these other words lack verbal elements that could take part in agreement.

- (22) a. U-kũnd-a [u-mu-gabo]?  
 2s-love-IPFV AUG-1-man  
 ‘Do you love the man?’  
 b. U-kũnd-a [u-ũ-hé]?  
 2s-love-IPFV AUG-1-which  
 ‘Which one do you love?’
- (23) a. Hari [u-mũ-ntu] u-kũnd-á.  
 there.is AUG-1-person 2s-love-IPFV  
 ‘There’s the person you love.’  
 b. Hari [u-u-ó] ukũnd-á.  
 there.is AUG-1-one 2s-love-IPFV  
 ‘There’s the one you love.’

**Quick aside: *u-* vs. *mu-*?**

- Why do HRCs have an *u-* NCP and not a *mu-* one?
- In examining their distribution, the *u-* words in Kirundi fall into three clear groupings which map exactly onto the nominal proform typology proposed by Déchaine and Wiltschko 2002.

Type	Proform	Syntax	Distribution	Semantics
demonstratives	pro-DP	D syntax	argument	definite
numerals	pro-φP	neither	argument/predicate	variable
other	pro-NP	N syntax	predicate	constant

- **Proposal:** Kirundi proforms (like HRCs) always use *u-* morphology.

- The claim that HRCs are pro-NPs supports the difference in the interpretation

of HRCs and DPs (24). It also touches upon the proposal by Little et al. 2023 for a null nominal head anaphoric to a discourse salient set ( $\emptyset_{\text{dom}}$ ).

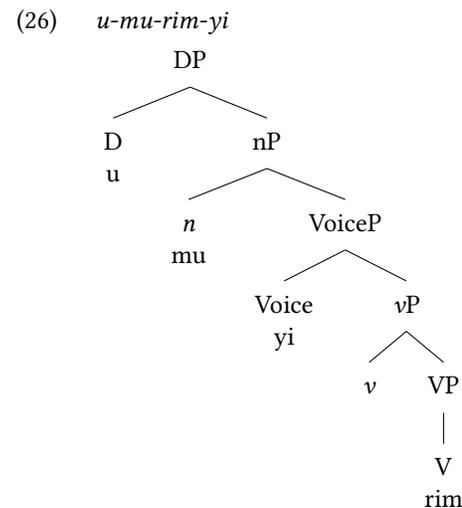
- (24) A-bā-ntu ba-tatu.  
 AUG-2-people 2-three  
 ‘There are three people.’  
 a. Hari u-u-urírĩmba.  
 there.is AUG-1-sing  
 ‘There is one (of them) who sings.’  
 b. Hari u-mũ-ntu a-rirĩmba.  
 there.is AUG-1-person 1.AGR-sing  
 ‘There is (another) person who sings.’

**4.2 HRCs as nominalizations**

- How do HRCs fit into Kirundi nominalization strategies?
- The NCP, as a categorizing *n* head, is often used to nominalize a verb root.

- (25) a. -rim- ‘to farm’ → *u-mu-rim-a* ‘a field’  
 b. -rim- ‘to farm’ → *u-mu-rim-yi* ‘a farmer’

- Let’s look specifically at this second example because like HRCs, it denotes an entity. In Kirundi, the agent-introducing suffix *-yi* is adjoined to verb roots to derive agent nominalizations. I locate this suffix in Voice (Myers 2023).



- In entity-denoting nominalizations, it is always the highest argument which is expressed (similar to Baker and Vinokurova 2009 on Kikuyu). Thus, an object nominalization can only be done with a passivized verb, marked by the *-u* suffix.

- (27) a. *-tum-* ‘to send’ → *u-mu-tum-u-a* ‘a messenger’  
 b. *-yobor-* ‘to lead’ → *u-mu-yobor-u-a* ‘an employee’

- Notably, these are the same locality restrictions that characterize HRCs and other proposed AAE constructions in Bantu.

- There are a several differences between *mu-* nominalizations and HRCs.

- HRCs are productive; other nominalizations are limited in the lexicon.

- (28) a. *u-u-rím-a* ‘the one who farms’ – *u-mu-rim-yi* ‘a farmer’  
 b. *u-u-bón-a* ‘the one who sees’ – *\*u-mu-bon-yi* ‘a seer’

- HRC nominalizations can include tense/aspect/mood. Others cannot.

- (29) a. *u-u-a-rím-ye*  
 AUG-1-PST-cook-PFV  
 ‘the one who cooked’  
 b. *\*u-mu-a-rim-i-ye*  
 AUG-1-PST-cook-VOICE-PFV  
 Intended: ‘the former(?) farmer’

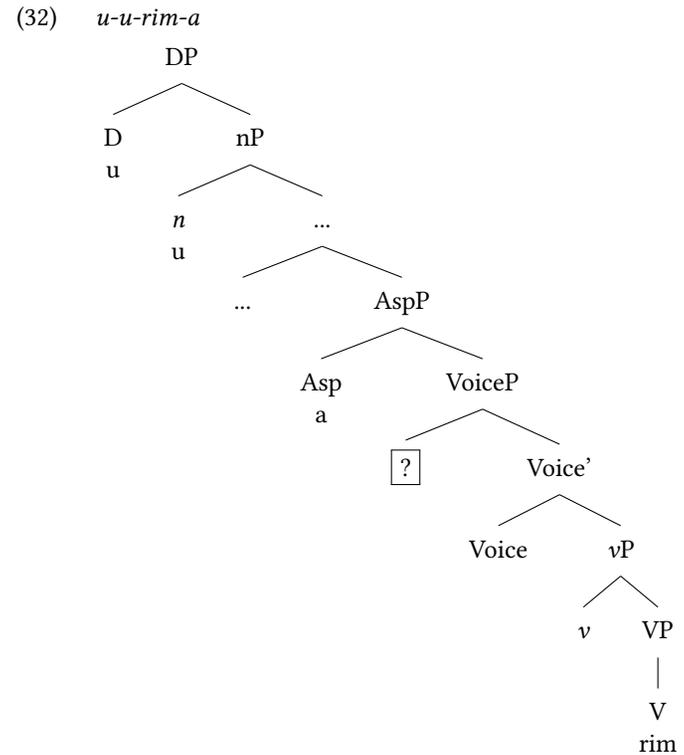
- HRCs can include objects and adverbs; non-HRC nominalizations cannot.

- (30) a. *u-u-sóm-a*      *i-bi-tabo*  
 AUG-1-read-IPFV AUG-8-book 8-many  
 ‘the one who reads lots of books’  
 b. *\*u-mu-som-yi*      *i-bi-tabo*  
 AUG-1-read--VOICE-PFV  
 ‘the book-reader’

- Based on these data, it is clear that HRCs require a more complex structure than *mu-* nominalizations: the verbal projection is larger, likely up to TP.

- (31) [<sub>DP</sub> u- [<sub>NP</sub> u- [<sub>TP</sub> -ríma]]]

- However, there is no overt subject or overt subject-verb agreement to hint at what is projected in subject position.



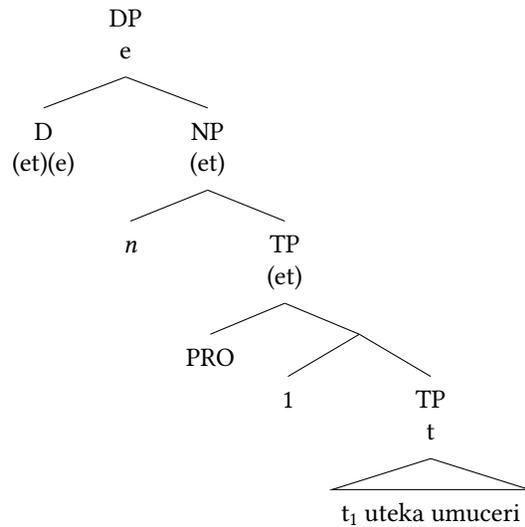
## 5 Interpreting HRCs

- How are we getting an entity interpretation from the nominalization of such a high verbal projection?
  - Unlike with *u-mu-rim-yi* which can be nominalized when the predicate is still unsaturated, the presence of higher projections require an alternate analysis.
- What is in the subject position introduced by Voice?
  - If a null subject is projected, we may expect agreement and a saturated predicate (<t>). The latter would require type gymnastics of some sort to result in an NP of type <e,t>.
  - If there is no subject projected, how does the derivation continue to project higher?

• Potential options for interpretation:

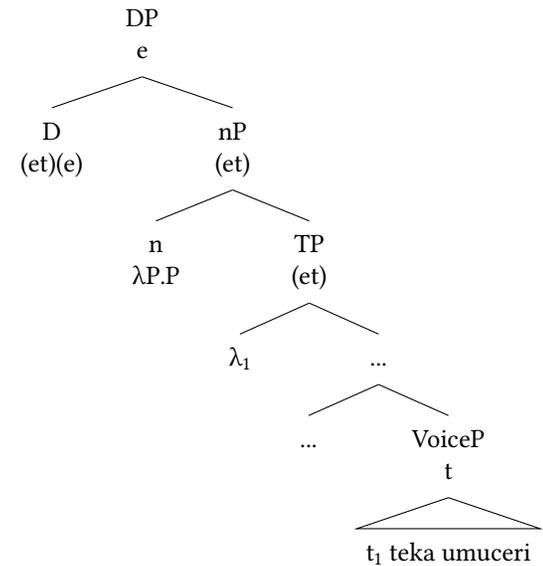
1. No subject – the verbal projection remains unsaturated throughout, leaving a TP of type  $\langle e, t \rangle$ .
2. Null subject + type-shifting
  - (a) A-movement – phrase-internal subject movement à la quantification into an XP (Heim and Kratzer 1998)

(33) *u-u-teka u-muceri* à la Heim & Kratzer



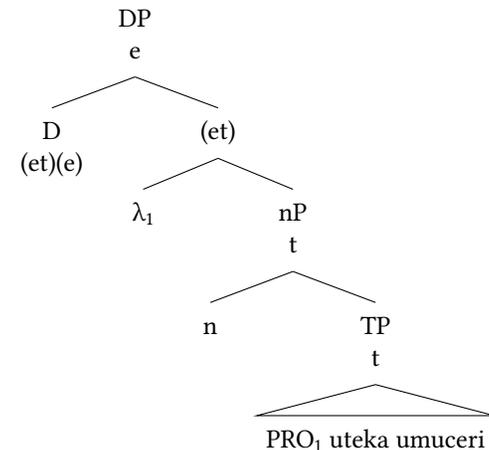
- (b) Operator at VoiceP – an operator is projected in subject position and then binds its own trace after moving to the highest pre-nominalization projection (Harley 2020)

(34) *u-u-teka u-muceri* à la Harley



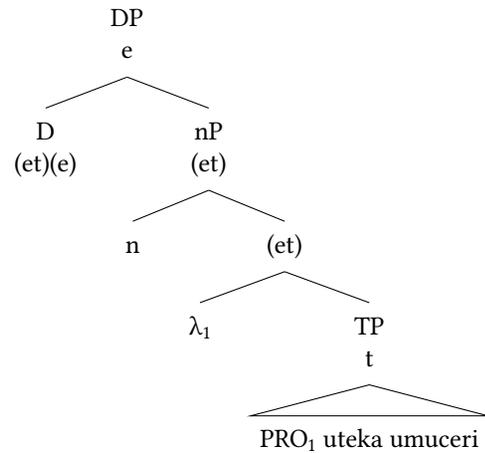
- (c) Operator at determiner – operator inserted with D because a determiner requires a set of entities as its argument (Toosarvandani 2014)

(35) *u-u-teka u-muceri* à la Toosarvandani



- (d) Operator at nominalization (riff on Toosarvandi's D operator; for Kirundi, we need the NP to take in type  $\langle e, t \rangle$ ) – operator is inserted with *n* because a nominalizer requires  $\langle e, t \rangle$

(36) *u-u-teka u-muceri* with *n* operator



#### Next steps

- Pros/Cons for these structures – which are theoretically more attractive?
- Are there tests that could help decide between one or the other?

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