

On complementizer choice in Swahili

SASAL 1

*Jahrestagung der Deutschen
Gesellschaft für Sprachwissenschaft*
Universität Tübingen
February 24, 2022

Aron Finholt

University of Kansas
finhola@ku.edu, aronfinholt.com

Distribution of *kwamba* and *kuwa*

This project investigates the distribution of the Swahili complementizers *kwamba* and *kuwa*, which are both used to introduce a finite indicative clause under clause embedding predicates like *-ambia*, 'tell' (1).

- (1) *Hamisi a-li-ni-ambia kwamba/kuwa a-na-penda kusoma*
Hamisi 1SM-PAST-1SG.OM-tell COMP/COMP 1SM-PRES-like
read.INF
'Hamisi told me that he likes to read.' (Mpiranya, 2015:220)

Kuwa and *kwamba* are reported to be interchangeable, with no interpretive or distributional distinctions.

Distribution of *kwamba* and *kuwa*

Although such a distributional description of *kwamba/kuwa* is generally accepted, the fact that these two complementizers appear to exist in free variation is *prima facie* surprising.

- Each has distinct lexical origins as infinitival verb forms; *kwamba* being derived from ‘to tell’, and *kuwa* from ‘to be’.
- Interpretative differences have been reported in similar dual-complementizer systems (e.g. Greek, Italian Dialects) (Ledgeway, 2000; Angelopoulos, 2019)
- Many Bantu languages have multiple complementizers, including ‘say’-complementizers, many of which serve “evidential”-like functions (Botne, 1997; Güldemann, 2008; Diercks, 2013)

- We examine the question of complementizer choice through regression-based analysis of (Tanzanian) Swahili Corpus data, and follow-up elicitation.
- Ultimately, we find that complementizer choice in Swahili is (at least) partially predictable based on a subset of factors that have been shown to influence complementizer choice cross-linguistically.
- Based on these results, we propose a system in which complementizer choice in Swahili encodes *relative belief*.

Methodology

Corpus:	Helsinki Corpus of Swahili 2.0 → approx 25 million words → fully morphologically tagged
Token Type:	Embedding Predicate+[_{CP} <i>kwamba/kuwa</i> . . .]
Total Token Count:	26,064

The factors we investigated were chosen based on what was feasible to look at in a corpus.

Factor 1: Predicate class

Predicate class (or selection) is known to affect complementizer choice cross-linguistically (Kiparsky and Kiparsky, 1971; Hooper and Thompson, 1973; Noonan, 2007; Roussou, 2010), many others

- We initially divided up the predicates based on the classification in Hooper and Thompson (1973).
- Eventually, we collapsed these into just two categories
 - **Attitude predicates** (*-fikiri* 'think'): those predicates which entail the existence of a belief-holder.
 - **Reportative predicates** (*-sema* 'say'): those predicates which do not entail the existence of a belief-holder.

Factor 2: Person of subject

The person of the main-clause subject has also been shown to affect complementizer choice cross-linguistically (Kiparsky and Kiparsky, 1971; Givón and Kimenyi, 1974; Massamba, 1986)

- In Kinyarwanda, the complementizer *kongo* is reported to not be possible under factives with 1st/2nd person subjects (Givón and Kimenyi, 1974).

- (2) a. *yiibagiwe kongo amazi yari mare-mare*
3SG.forgot COMP water was deep
'He forgot that the water was deep (and I doubt it).'
- b. **niibagiwe kongo amazi yari mare-mare*
1SG.forgot COMP water was deep
[Intended: 'I forgot the water was deep (and I doubt it).']

Factor 3: Mood

The mood of the embedded clause has also been shown to be a factor in complementizer selection (Ledgeway, 2000; Roussou, 2010), many others.

- Subjunctive mood in the embedded clause is often correlated with a particular complementizer as in, e.g., Greek.

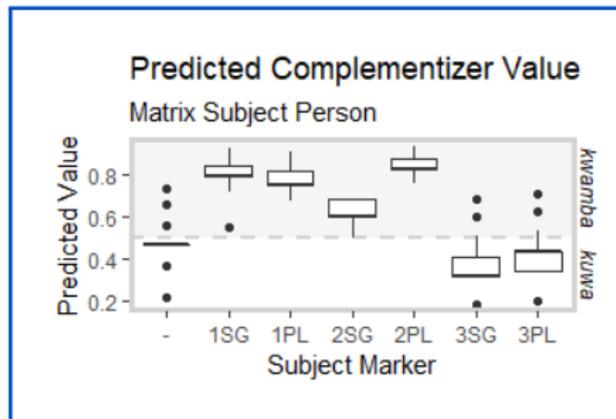
Overview of results

Factors investigated

- ① Predicate class
- ② Person of subject
- ③ Mood

- All three factors are significant predictors of complementizer choice
- *However*, the person of the main clause subject is by far the most significant factor affecting complementizer selection.

Results: Matrix Subject Person

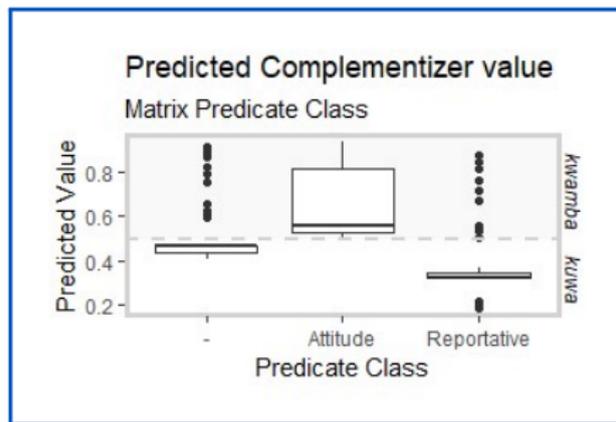


Our model assigned predicted values to each token in the corpus based on the likelihood of finding *kwamba* given the coded factors present. Predicted values closer to 1 indicate that *kwamba* is more likely. Predicted values closer to 0 indicate that *kuwa* is more likely.

Key Findings

- Matrix Subject Person found to be the strongest individual predictor in the model.
- *First* and *third*-person subjects were shown to be significant predictors; *first*-person subjects correlate with *kwamba*, *third*-person subjects correlate with *kuwa*.

Results: Matrix Predicate Class

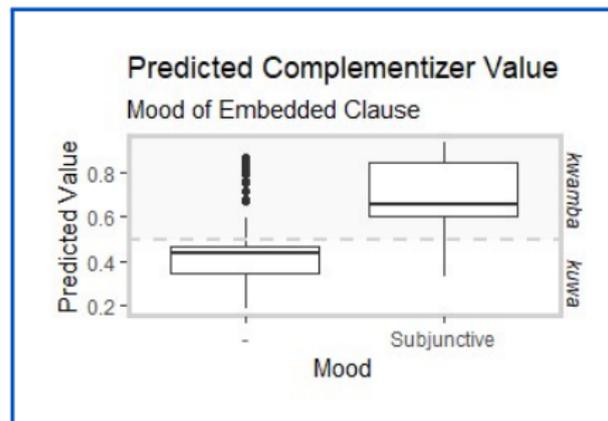


Our model assigned predicted values to each token in the corpus based on the likelihood of finding *kwamba* given the coded factors present. Predicted values closer to 1 indicate that *kwamba* is more likely. Predicted values closer to 0 indicate that *kuwa* is more likely.

Key Findings

- Matrix Predicate Class found to be second strongest predictor in the model.
- *ATTITUDE* predicates (e.g. *-fikiri*, 'think') shown to correlate with *kwamba*, while *REPORTATIVE* predicates (e.g. *-sema*, 'say') instead correlate with *kuwa*.

Results: Mood of Embedded Clause



Our model assigned predicted values to each token in the corpus based on the likelihood of finding *kwamba* given the coded factors present. Predicted values closer to 1 indicate that *kwamba* is more likely. Predicted values closer to 0 indicate that *kuwa* is more likely.

Key Findings

- Mood of Embedded Clause found to be weakest predictor in the model.
- Presence of the subjunctive in the embedded clause (e.g. FV *,-e*) shown to correlate with *kwamba*.

Discussion

There are two major takeaways from our corpus study.

- First, the distinct factor correlations demonstrate that *kwamba* and *kuwa* are not in free-variation.
- Second, despite these predicting factors, the choice between *kwamba* and *kuwa* is not categorical; either may appear with any of the aforementioned factors.

These takeaways suggest that *kwamba* and *kuwa* are not selected by an element in a higher clause (c.f. Roussou (2010) on complementizers in Greek); they simply interact with such elements indirectly.

Discussion

Based on the results of our corpus study, we propose that *kwamba* and *kuwa* make a semantic distinction:

- *Kwamba* anchors the embedded clause to an individual's beliefs/thoughts/attitudes.
- *Kuwa* anchors the embedded clause to a pragmatically salient event/situation.

We assume that complementizers serve to identify propositions based on the information content of contentful “anchors”: e.g. events, individuals, mental states, etc. (Hacquard, 2006; Kratzer, 2006, 2013; Moulton, 2015).

Following Kratzer (2006), we further assume that complementizers house the function `CONTENT`, which identifies an event/individual with propositional content and returns the set of worlds modally accessible from that content (Hacquard, 2006; Moulton, 2015).

Meaning of *kwamba*

We define *kwamba* as a standard complementizer housing the function CONTENT (Hacquard, 2006; Moulton, 2015).

- With *kwamba*, CONTENT(e) is the set of worlds modally accessible from an event, e , associated with the embedding verb (3).

$$(3) \quad \llbracket \text{KWAMBA} \rrbracket = \lambda P \lambda e. \forall w' \in \text{CONTENT}(e), P(w') = 1$$

Put differently, CONTENT(e) simply provides an appropriate modal background given the embedding predicate (e.g. *believe*-type: DOX, *say*-type: RPG, Giorgi and Pianesi (1997); Mari and Portner (2021)).

Meaning of *kwamba*

The model shows a significant correlation between *kwamba* and *first-person* subjects, ATTITUDE predicates, and subjunctive mood.

Each of these correlations follows straightforwardly from *kwamba* anchoring the embedded clause to the beliefs/hopes of an *individual*:

- **First-person subjects:** the speaker is intrinsically more aware of their own thoughts than of others', making it easier to 'check' the modal base to ensure that $P=1$.
- **Attitude predicates:** such predicates are typically used to discuss the thoughts/beliefs/attitudes of local attitude holder.
- **Subjunctive mood:** crosslinguistically, subjunctive mood tends to trigger a layer of relativized belief that targets an attitude holder (Givón, 1994; Portner, 2018)

Meaning of *kuwa*

In contrast, it is a bit more difficult to determine whether *kuwa* contributes any meaning based on the results of our corpus study.

Given the correlation with REPORTATIVE predicates, we may say that it minimally differs from *kwamba* in that it doesn't appear to project the thoughts/beliefs/attitudes of an individual, but that is all.

To investigate whether *kuwa* contributes any additional meaning, we conducted a follow-up elicitation study with a native speaker of Tanzanian Swahili. Native speaker judgments reveal that:

- *kwamba* does appear to anchor the embedded clause to an *individual*; it sometimes results in 'subjective' belief reports.
- *kuwa* instead anchors the embedded clause to a pragmatically salient *event/situation*; it sometimes yields an evidential reading.

Native Speaker Judgements

The contrast between *kuwa/kwamba* is best illustrated by modulating the available evidence in a circumstance of evaluation.

For example, when there is concrete evidence to support the truth of P, only *kuwa* is available. In the following context, the available evidence in the situation almost guarantees Tanzania's winning the match.

- (4) *We're watching Tanzania play in a football [soccer] match. There is 5 minutes left to play, and Tanzania is up by 3.*

i-na-onekan-a kuwa/#kwamba Tanzania i-ta-shind-a
9SM-PRES-seem-FV COMP/COMP 9Tanzania 9SM-FUT-win-FV
'It seems like Tanzania will win.'

Here *kuwa* effectively expresses an evidential meaning; there is sufficient evidence in the situation to conclude that Tanzania will win.

Native Speaker Judgements

In contrast, only *kwamba* is available in a context where there is much less evidence that Tanzania will win:

- (5) *We're watching Tanzania play in a football [soccer] match. It's halftime, and Tanzania is up one to nil.*

i-na-onekan-a kwamba/#kuwa Tanzania i-ta-shind-a
9SM-PRES-seem-FV COMP/COMP 9Tanzania 9SM-FUT-win-FV
'It seems like Tanzania will win.'

The use of *kwamba* here ostensibly serves to project the speaker's beliefs about the outcome of the match.

Native Speaker Judgements

A similar contrast occurs with first-person subjects (6).

- (6) *ni-na-fikiri kuwa/kwamba Tanzania i-ta-shind-a*
1SG-PRES-think COMP/COMP Tanzania 9SM-FUT-win-FV
'I think that Tanzania will win [the football/soccer match].'

The use of *kwamba* expresses what the speaker believes/hopes will occur; the speaker could simply be cheering for Tanzania.

With *kuwa*, however, the speaker is interpreted to have some extra insider-knowledge leading them to believe that P.

Discussion

The evidential properties of *kuwa* and the belief-projection properties of *kwamba* lend support to our proposed analysis:

- *kwamba* anchors the embedded clause to an individual.
- *kuwa* anchors the embedded clause to an event/situation.

With this distinction in mind, we may now present an analysis for *kuwa*. We invoke a direct evidential-type semantics for *kuwa* involving two events (de Haan, 1999; Faller, 2004; Speas, 2004; Garfield et al., 2010).

- *kuwa* asserts that there exists a (pragmatically relevant) event e' that properly contains the event associated with the embedding verb, e , and that all accessible worlds from e are P worlds (7).

$$(7) \quad \llbracket \text{KUWA} \rrbracket = \lambda P \lambda e. \exists e' [e \subset e'] \wedge \forall w' \in \text{CONTENT}(e), P(w') = 1$$

where e' is an event containing evidence pertaining to P.

Discussion

Kuwa differs from *kwamba* in that the event CONTENT takes as its argument is contained within a larger event; *kuwa* situates the modal background associated with the embedding verb within a larger event containing evidence pertaining to the truth of P.

With this, we now have a straightforward analysis for the correlations between *kuwa* and REPORTATIVE predicates/*third-person* subjects:

- **Reportative predicates:** make reference to a *situation* where something was uttered.
- **Third-person subjects:** the speaker could make reference to a situation to report about a *third-person* subject (e.g. the speaker heard them say P), or they could make reference to a situation that the subject themselves used to make a report.

Discussion

In addition to the corpus data and elicited judgments, we find substantial diachronic and typological evidence to support the proposed analysis.

Analyzing *kwamba* as anchoring an embedded clause to an individual's beliefs follows from its diachronic source as a *say*-verb.

- *say*-complementizers often project the beliefs of a local attitude holder in Bantu (Diercks, 2013) and other languages (Güldemann, 2008).

The evidential properties of *kuwa* may be similarly traced back to its diachronic origin as a copular verb.

- In this sense, *kuwa* is used to express that there is a relevant situation/event to support the truth of P; “the situation is that P”.

Conclusion

- Taken with speaker judgement data, the results of our corpus analysis suggest that *kwamba/kuwa* are not in free variation.
- Instead, we propose that *kwamba* and *kuwa* make a semantic distinction; *kwamba* anchors the embedded clause to an individual's beliefs, while *kuwa* anchors the embedded clause to a pragmatically relevant event/situation.
- The evidence puts Swahili in line with other Bantu languages which make similar epistemic distinctions in the C domain, and, moreover, with languages that make a distinction between solipsistic belief (i.e. belief held by a single individual) and more general belief.

Special thanks to our consultant Chacha Wambura, my advisor and co-author John Gluckman, as well as the Bantu research/reading group (KUBantu) at the University of Kansas.

- Angelopoulos, N. (2019). *Complementizers and Prepositions as Probes: Insights from Greek*. PhD thesis, UCLA.
- Botne, R. (1997). Evidentiality and epistemic modality in Lega. *Studies in Language*, 21(3):509–532.
- de Haan, F. (1999). Evidentiality and Epistemic Modality: Setting boundaries. *Southwest Journal of Linguistics*, 18(1):83–101.
- Diercks, M. (2013). Indirect agree in Lubukusu complementizer agreement. *Natural Language & Linguistic Theory*, 31(2):357–407.
- Faller, M. (2004). The Ingredients of Reciprocity in Cuzco Quechua. *Journal of Semantics*, 24:255–288.
- Garfield, J., Speas, M., and de Villiers, J. (2010). Direct evidentials, case, tense and aspect in tibetan: evidence for a general theory of the semantics of evidentials. *Natural Language Linguistic Theory*. doi: <https://doi.org/10.1007/s11049-013-9193-9>.
- Giorgi, A. and Pianesi, F. (1997). *Tense and aspect: From semantics to morphosyntax*. Oxford University Press.
- Givón, T. (1994). *Voice and Inversion*. John Benjamins.
- Givón, T. and Kimenyi, A. (1974). Truth, belief and doubt in Kinyarwanda. *The Papers from the Fifth Annual Conference on African Linguistics*, 5:95–114.

- Güldemann, T. (2008). *Quotative Indexes in African Languages: A Synchronic and Diachronic Survey*, volume 34 of *Empirical Approaches to Language Typology*. Mouton de Gruyter.
- Hacquard, V. (2006). *Aspects of Modality*. PhD thesis, Massachusetts Institute of Technology.
- Hooper, J. B. and Thompson, S. A. (1973). On the Applicability of Root Transformations. *Linguistic Inquiry*, 4(4):465–497.
- Kiparsky, P. and Kiparsky, C. (1971). Fact. In Steinberg, D. and Jakobovits, L., editors, *Semantics: an interdisciplinary reader in philosophy, linguistics, and psychology*. Cambridge.
- Kratzer, A. (2006). Decomposing attitude verbs. accessed online at <http://semanticsarchive.net/Archive/DcwY2JkM/attitude-verbs2006.pdf>.
- Kratzer, A. (2013). Modality for the 21st century. In *The Language-Cognition Interface: 19th International Congress of Linguists*.
- Ledgeway, A. (2000). *A Comparative Syntax of the Dialects of Southern Italy: A Minimalist Approach*. Blackwell.
- Mari, A. and Portner, P. (2021). Mood variation with belief predicates: Modal comparison and the raisability of questions. *Glossa: a journal of general linguistics* 40(1). doi: <https://doi.org/10.16995/glossa.5726>.

- Massamba, D. P. B. (1986). Reported speech in Swahili. In Coulmas, F., editor, *Direct and Reported Speech*, pages 99–120. Mouton de Gruyter.
- Moulton, K. (2015). CPs: Copies and Compositionality. *Linguistic Inquiry*, 46(2):305–342.
- Noonan, M. (2007). Complementation. In Shopen, T., editor, *Language Typology and Syntactic Description*, volume II, pages 52–150. Cambridge University Press.
- Portner, P. (2018). *Mood*. Oxford University Press.
- Roussou, A. (2010). Selecting complementizers. *Lingua*, 120:582–603.
- Speas, M. (2004). Evidentiality, logophoricity, and the syntactic representation of pragmatic features. *Lingua*, 114(3):255–276.