Yoruba Pé and Kí: Verbs or Complementizers

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This paper discusses the Yoruba items Pé and Ki. These items have sometimes been analyzed as verbs and sometimes as complementizers. Thus their status has not been clearly established. In this paper, we look at the various structures in which these items occur and at their behaviour and proceed to reanalyze them. In this re-examination attention is paid to the distributional criteria of both verbs and complementizers. The paper concludes that pé and ki are complementizers not verbs.

1. Introduction

Complementizers may be defined simply as particles which serve to mark out clause boundaries. They are usually found at the beginning of subordinate or embedded clauses. Complementizers thus serve to introduce clauses. An example of a complementizer is *that* in English as found in the sentence below:

(1) I know that he will arrive early.

The properties of complementizers play a crucial role in clause analysis and in the formulation of general properties of grammar, particularly within the GB framework. It is hoped that a study of comp-like elements in Yoruba will provide further insights into the role and properties of complementizers in grammar. Before going into the discussion of Yoruba complementizer-like elements we will briefly discuss some relevant features of the complementizer system. **1.1. Syntactic position of complementizers.** Our discussion here will be within the framework of Government and Binding Theory [Chomsky 1977, 1981]. The syntactic position occupied by complementizers is that of COMP. The COMP node is introduced by the phrase structure rule for sentences:

S' \rightarrow COMP S

 $COMP \rightarrow \pm WH$

One of the main assumptions in GB is that all sentences begin with a COMP node. The COMP node is specified for the feature \pm WH, where -WH is the abstract element that dominates non-interrogative clauses while +WH dominates interrogative clauses. Verbs select for the feature \pm WH. The main function of COMP is to designate a node in sentence initial position where constituents moved by fronting transformations can be attached. An example is the WH-movement transformation which moves constituents into sentence initial position. A second important function of COMP is to provide a syntactic position for sentence introducing elements such as question particles and complementizers. That Yoruba sentences begin with a COMP node is not controversial as Yoruba has sentence initial question particles such as $nj \not\in$ and $s \note$. Also, WH-movement takes place in the language. These facts are illustrated in the examples below:

(2) a. <i>Ǹjé Bólá wá?</i> QPRT Bola came	'Did Bola come?'
b. <i>Sé Bólá wá?</i> QPRT Bola came	'Did Bola come?'
c. <i>Ta ni ó rí?</i> WH FOC you saw	'What did you see?'

1.2. Complementizer-like elements in Yoruba. In Yoruba there are three items which may be identified as complementizers. They are pé, ki and ti.¹ In this paper

¹The sentence introducer ki is sometimes realized as pé ki, that is everytime we have ki alone it may be taken as an instance of deletion of pé from pé ki, but pé alone does not represent deletion of ki from pé ki. Pé alone is a separate complementizer as can be seen in the following examples.

(i)	Ayq	mờ	pé	Bólá	ti	lọ
	Ayo	knows	that	Bola	has	gone

 (ii) *Ayọ mộ (pé) kí Bộlá tỉ lọ Ayo knows that Bola has gone we are concerned with the elements $p\dot{e}$ and $k\dot{i}$ as these are the elements on which controversy exists. Not all Yoruba linguists agree that $p\dot{e}$ and $k\dot{i}$ are complementizers. Some Yoruba linguists regard these items as verbs [Oyelaran 1983, Bamgbose 1966]. Below we will attempt to extablish the true staus of these elements. First we look at $p\dot{e}$:

2. The Sentence Introducer pé

Arguments for $p\acute{e}$ as a verb have been motivated mainly by the fact that $p\acute{e}$ occurs in minimal sentences where it means 'say'. The examples below illustrate this usage:

(3)	a.			<i>awọn</i> they		<i>dé</i> arrived
	b.	<i>Olú</i> Olu	<i>pé</i> said	<i>wọn</i> they	<i>wá</i> came	

Sentences such as those in (3), where $p\acute{e}$ cooccurs with other verbs, have been analysed as serial verbal constructions [Oyelaran 1983]. Serial verbal constructions (SVC) are sentences which contain sequences of two or more verbs without any syntactic marker of subordination such as complementizers. Thus Oyelaran, on the basis of sentences such as (3), analyzes the sentences (4) below as instances of SVC [Oyelaran 1983]:

- (4) a. Olú gbàgbé <u>pé</u> Bólá ti jáde
 Olu forget (?) Bola PERF go out
 'Olu forgot that Bola has gone out'
 - b. Olú rántí <u>pé</u> Bólá ńsun Olu remember (?) Bola sleeping
 'Olu remembered that Bola was sleeping'

(iii) <i>Ayo ń</i> Ayo PROG		'Ayo is expecting Bola to go.'
(iv) * <i>Ayọ ń</i> Ayo PROG		

From the examples we can see that $p\ell kl$ and kl occur in the same context but $p\ell$, $p\ell kl$, and kl may not substitute for each other without a change in meaning. (See Lawal [1989] for some discussion on their distribution and meanings). The shorter form kl is used more frequently than the longer $p\ell kl$, so whenever we talk of kl we are also referring to $p\ell kl$.

- c. Ó dàbí eni pé mo ti pàdé rè it seem person (?) I have met him 'it seems that I have met him'
- d. Ó jǫ bí eni pé òjò féé rǫ it look like person (?) rain want fall 'it looks like (that) it wants to rain'

The claim is that $p\acute{e}$ in (4) above is similar or identical in meaning with the sequence of $p\acute{e}$ and another verb in (3) where it is a verb meaning 'say'. We will show below that this claim is untenable and that the sentences in (4) are not instances of SVC but sentential complement clauses with $p\acute{e}$ having the status of a complementiser. We will give arguments based on the distributional and syntactic properties of $p\acute{e}$ to support our claim.

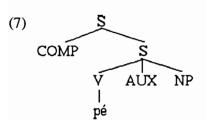
2.1. Syntactic position of $p\acute{e}$ **.** One of the main problems which anyone who wants to analyze $p\acute{e}$ as a verb will have to account for is why $p\acute{e}$ occurs in sentence initial position, i.e. the COMP position. This is illustrated with the examples below:

(5) pé a jǫ lǫ dára
() we together went good
'that we went together was good'

(6) pé obinrin ló borí jo mí lójú
() woman FOC-she won resemble me eye 'that a woman won surprised me'

In the above examples $p\acute{e}$ cannot be said to be the subject of the sentence as claimed by Oyelaran [1983]. In the first place for $p\acute{e}$ to be the subject of the sentence it must be a phrasal category not a lexical category since only phrasal categories can occupy an argument position, e.g. subject position. But $p\acute{e}$ is a lexical category not a phrasal category since it is only a bare verb stem.

The implication of having a bare verb as a subject of the sentence is theoretically not acceptable as it will mean permitting a structure like (7).



Such a structure cannot be defended or justified. Moreover, before a verb can occupy the subject position of a sentence in Yoruba, it must be nominalized. In Yoruba, nominalized verbs take special forms. They are either reduplicated as illustrated in (8),

(8) a. <i>jó</i> dance	→ jíjó	'dancing'
b. <i>lọ</i> go	\rightarrow lílọ	'going'
c. <i>pe</i> call	\rightarrow pipe	'calling'

or they are preceded by a nominalizing morpheme, as in (9):

(9) a.	<i>jó</i> dance	\rightarrow	i-jó	'dancing'
b.	<i>lọ</i> go	\rightarrow	à-lọ	'going'
c.	mộ know	\rightarrow	ì-mộ	'knowledge'
d.	<i>gbàgbé</i> forget	\rightarrow	ì-gbàgbé	'forgetting'

The sentence introducer $p\acute{e}$ cannot be classified as a nominalized verb because it does not exhibit the required nominalized form. $P\acute{e}$ also does not satisfy another minimum criteria for verbs which is that it cannot undergo reduplication for nominalization. All Yoruba verbs have this ability. Even defective verbs like $b\acute{a}$, fi, and, $t\acute{e}t\acute{e}$ may be reduplicated. This is illustrated in (10a-c):

- (10) a. títètè tí ó tètè lo dára hurry that he hurry go good
 'his hurrying to go is good'
 - b. bíbá tí ó bá Bólá lọ dára accompanying that he accompany Bola go good 'his accompanying Bola's going is good'

c. *fífi tí Bólá fi òbe gé isu dára* using that Bola use knif cut yam good e

'Bola's cutting the yam with a knife is good'

Contrast the above with the $p\dot{e}$ sentences in (10d-f):

d.				dára pé a lọ good () we went
e.	*pípé	<i>tí</i>	ó	gbàgbé pé Bísí ńbọ
	()	that	he	forgot () Bisi is coming
f.	*pípé	<i>tí</i>	ре́	a lo
	()	that	()	we went

Another point against classifying $p\dot{e}$ as a verb is the fact that $p\dot{e}$ clauses may be conjoined with $\dot{a}ti$. In Yoruba the coordinator for verbs or VP is si not $\dot{a}ti$. The coordinator $\dot{a}ti$ may only conjoin nouns. It cannot conjoin verbs or VP's:

(11) a. *mo [VP lo sí oja] <u>àti</u> mo [VP ra isu] I went to market and I bought yams
b. mo [VP lo sí oja] mo si [VP ra isu] I went to market I and bought yams
'I went to the market and I bought yams'
a. [má Bólá wa] àti [má ma wa] dára

- c. [NP pé Bólá wa] àti [NP pé mo wa] dára
 () Bola came and () I came good
 'that Bola came and that I too came is a good thing'
- d. *[NP pé Bólá wa] si [NP pé mo wa] dára
 () Bola came and () I came good

Koopman [1984] argues for the verbal status of a similar element in Vata by claiming that the element na in Vata is an empty verb selected by the higher verb which cannot directly select a sentential complement. Such a hypothesis cannot work for $p\acute{e}$ for the simple reason that $p\acute{e}$ does not introduce only verbal complements. It also introduces noun complement clauses:

- (12) a. [NP *iròhìn pé ìyawó oga bímo*] VP … news
 () wife boss bring forth baby
 'the news that the boss' wife has had a baby ...'
 - b. [NP èro pé òun ó lo sí èwon] VP... idea () he will go to prison
 'the idea that he will go to prison ...'
 - c. [s mo gbǫ [NP ìròhìn pé Babangida ń bǫ]]
 I heard news () Babangida is coming
 'I heard the news that Babangida is coming'

Thus, $p\acute{e}$ cannot be analyzed as an empty verb which is selected by the main verb as is the case with Vata na.

2.2. Pé in the S' system. Having shown that pé is not a verb we are now in a position to account for the S-initial position of pé in sentences such as (5) and (6) repeated here as (13):

(13) a. pé a jǫ lǫ dára

() we together went good

'that we went together was good'
b. pé obinrin ló borí jǫ mí lójú

() woman FOC-she won resemble me eye

'that a woman won surprised me'

Let us consider the phrase structure rules for the sentence which we gave earlier:

 $S' \rightarrow COMP S$ $COMP \rightarrow \pm WH$

The assumption from the above rules is that all sentences begin with a COMP node. As shown earlier, Yoruba sentences also begin with a COMP node. The syntactic position occupied by $p\acute{e}$ which is sentence initial is the position of COMP, i.e. the position occupied by items such as complementisers and other sentence introducing particles. The COMP node is specified for the binary feature \pm WH. The sentence introducer $p\acute{e}$ introduces non-interrogative clauses. It can therefore be safely assumed that $p\acute{e}$ has the feature -WH. Its syntactic position and

its syntactic distribution in contrast to that of the verb $p\dot{e}$ in (3) makes it uncontroversially a complementiser. It occurs in the position where complementisers occur.

Further evidence in support of the complementiser status of $p\dot{e}$ comes from its behaviour in coordinated clauses:

(14)	a.	-		<i>ti</i> [<i>pé ó</i> nd that sh	• ·	- • •	•
	b.	-	-	<i>àti</i> [<i>pé</i> and that		-	VP

In such coordinated clauses as can be seen from the examples above $p\acute{e}$ must be repeated. This shows that $p\acute{e}$ is a constituent of the S' system.

The above facts and the foregoing discussion show that $p\dot{e}$ is an instance of an initial COMP node, not a verb or VP. $P\dot{e}$ may be translated as *that* in English. See Lawal [1989] for a discussion of the meaning properties of this element.

3. The Sentence Introducer Kí

The second COMP-like element we shall examine is the sentence introducer ki. As with $p\acute{e}$ not all Yoruba linguists agree on the complementiser status of ki. For instance Awobuluyi [1978] classifies ki as a nominalizing morpheme while Bamgbose [1966] classifies it as a preverb.

3.1. The two "kV" morphemes of Yoruba. Before we proceed, however, it is important to point out that the sequence involving the ki classified by Awobuluyi as a nominalizer should be distinguished from the homophonous sequence involving the ki which introduces clauses. Awobuluyi, however, lumps the two together as can be seen in the example given in Awobuluyi [1978].

(15)	a.	<i>eni <u>kí</u> eni</i> person () person	→ enikéni	'anybody'
	b.	<u>kí</u> kợ ilé () build house		'building houses'
	c.	<i>éyan <u>kí</u> èniyan</i> person () person	→ èyankéniyan	'a good for nothing'
	d.	<u>kí</u> a sọ òótó () we say truth		'it is good to say the truth'

e.	<u>kí</u>	a	SỌ	òtító	'to say the truth'
	()	we	say	truth	

It is obvious that Awobuluyi's analysis of ki as a nominalizer is wrong as the nominalizing morpheme is ki rather than ki.² That this morpheme shows up as ki in the examples below supports this claim:

(16)	a.	<i>ìgbà</i> time	-	\rightarrow	ìgbàkúbà	'anytime'
	b.	<i>ìsọ</i> saying	<i>ìsọ</i> saying	\rightarrow	ìsọkúsọ	'bad sayings'

The 'u' is sometimes deleted before vowels other than 'i', and optionally deleted before 'i'. Secondly in (15b) the sequence ki is not the nominalizing morpheme ki but the reduplicated 'k' of the verb ko, followed by the vowel 'i' as in examples like (17):

(17)	a.	<i>lọ</i> go	\rightarrow	lílǫ	'going'
	b.	<i>wá</i> come	\rightarrow	wíwá	'coming'
	c.	<i>kí</i> greet	\rightarrow	kíkí	'greetings'

And in (15d) and (15e) ki is a sentence or clause introducer not a nominalizing morpheme. We shall justify this below.

3.2. Syntactic distribution of ki. The sentence introducer ki is analysed in Bamgbose [1966] as a verb, more precisely a preverb, but ki shares most of the syntactic features and behaviour associated with the element pé, which suggests that ki cannot be a verb. First, like pé, and unlike verbs, ki occurs in S-initial position, a position which a bare verb cannot occupy without being nominalized. Ki does not have a nominalized form in this position:

(18) a. *kíkí a lọ dára ki-NOM we go good

²This was first pointed out to me by a reviewer.

b. kí a lọ dára 'that we should go is good' () we go good

Contrast the ki sentence above with the sentence below where a verb occupies the S-initial position:

c. [<i>lílọ wa</i>] d <i>ára</i> going our good	'our going is good'
d. *[<i>lọ wa</i>] dára	

go our good

Example (18d) is ungrammatical because the verb has not been nominalized. Secondly, ki unlike verbs cannot undergo the process of predicate clefting by reduplication:

(19) a. *kíkí tí ó dára kí ó wa ki-NOM that it good () we go
b. *kíkí tí ó dára kí a lọ ki-NOM that it good () we good

Contrast the unacceptable ki sentences with the sentences below where the verb has been clefted:

- c. gbígbàgbé tí Bólá gbàgbé kí ó ti ìlèkùn forgetting FOC Bola forgot () she shut door 'forgetting to shut the door that Bola forgot'
- d. fífé tí mo fé kí Bólá fé Bísí marrying FOC I want () Bola marry Bisi 'marrying that I want Bola to marry Bisi'

Thirdly, ki clauses just like $p\dot{e}$ clauses may not be coordinated with si, the coordinator for VPs. Rather the coordinator that may be used is $\dot{a}ti$, the coordinator for NPs and PPs.

 (20) a. wón gbàgbé [kí wón ra búréđì] àti [kí wón gbé omô] they forgot () they bought bread and () they pick child 'they forgot to buy bread and to pick the child' b. *wón gbàgbé [kí wón ra búrédì wón] <u>sì</u> [kí gbé omo] they forgot () they buy bread they and () pick child

Fourthly, when ki clauses are coordinated, ki like pé must be repeated, showing that it forms part of the expansion system of S' system (see the examples (20a) above).

Ki is sometimes found in main clauses, and this has been used as evidence against its complementiser status [Bamgbose 1966]. However, this fact is uncontroversial since in such sentences ki occupies the S-initial position, which is the COMP position:

- (21) a. kí Olúwa pệlú wa () God be with us
 - b. kí e tètè dé
 () you quick come
 '*that come back quickly'

Its occurrence in such structures does not count as evidence against its complementiser status. Moreover, other COMP-like elements are also realized in main clauses in Yoruba. The examples below illustrate this:

- (22) a. <u>sé</u> Bólá ti dé? QPrt Bola PERF arrived 'has Bola arrived?'
 - b. <u>hiế</u> Bộlá lọ? QPrt Bola went 'did Bola go?'

The COMP position in a main clause may have zero-realization or it may be overt. What the data here shows is that Yoruba is one of the few languages where the COMP is realized overtly in main clauses and is unlike English, which has zero-realization of COMP in main clauses. The occurence of ki in main clauses does not therefore count as evidence against its status as a complementiser.

4. Conclusion

We have shown in this paper that the items p e and ki in Yoruba are comlementizers, not verbs. We found that pe and ki have the properties which characterize complementizers rather than verbs. Most importantly, our analysis clarifies certain issues in Yoruba grammar: First, sentences in which pe cooccurs with other verbs are not serial verbal constructions but complement clauses and secondly, the syntactic position occupied by $p\acute{e}$ and $k\acute{i}$ is shown not to be that of subject but rather that of COMP, a position which is consistent with the facts and with the true status of these items.

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