

**KIMERU CAUSATIVES: A MORPHOSYNTACTIC STUDY IN A CONSTRUCTION
GRAMMAR APPROACH.**

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REQUIREMENTS FOR THE AWARD OF MASTER OF ARTS IN LINGUISTICS,
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DECLARATION

I declare that this is my original work and has never been submitted to any higher education institution for examination.



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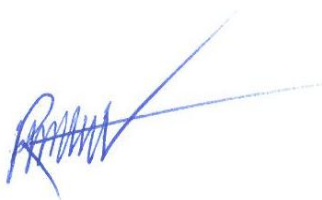


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DEDICATION

To my one and only loving husband,
For your patience, love, and understanding,
And keeping me company through the late
Nights. I am forever grateful.

To my lovely daughter Kelsie,
The best I could ever ask for,
You always gave me a serene, quiet
And undisturbed moments all through,
I had all afternoons to put this piece together,
While you enjoyed your sleep all hours long
Much love to you, darling.

To my extended family,
For believing in me and giving your all
To see me through this project,
Your prayers and encouragements were
Overwhelming.

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LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

CAUS - Causative morpheme

FV - (Verb) final vowel

TNS -Tense

SUBJ - subject

OBJ - object

OBL - oblique

V-verb

PP – prepositional phrase

AP - adjectival phrase

SYN - syntax

SEM - semantics

MORP - morphology

POS - position

PRED -predicate

3PS – third person singular

3PL – third person plural

CxM – construction morphology

CxG – construction grammar

INF - infinitive

BEN - benefactive

1PL – first person plural

IPA - International Phonetic Alphabet

INTR - intransitive

TR – transitive

Pat- patient

Rec - recipient

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DEFINITION OF TERMS

Construction grammar

A theory of syntax that relies on constructions as the basic principle of grammatical organization. It operates on the assumption of a conventional pairing of form and meaning.

Constructions

In this study, constructions are conventionalized clusters of semantic, syntactic, phonological, or pragmatic features that recur as further indivisible associations between form and meaning.

Constructs

This refers to the physical realizations of constructions.

Form

In this theory, it refers to any combination of syntactic, morphological, or phonological features.

Meaning

It is a broad sense that includes reference to lexical, semantics, and event structures. It is an exemplification or explication of something. In other words, meaning is a function.

Causative

It describes a state of affair that generally refers to a causative circumstance. It is a linguistic expression meaning cause to. It involves a causee and causer in a causal situation between two events, one of which is believed to be caused by the other. Causatives involve a subject causing something or someone to do something or cause a state change.

Causer

Whatever/whoever causes the action to be done in a causation event or activity.

Causee

Whoever or whatever does the action in the causation event or activity.

Lexical causatives

These are verbs that mean cause to, but lack productivity and are in suppletive relation with their non-causative partner. E.g., “kill” and “die.”

Morphological causatives

This refers to causation, where a causative morpheme is an affix and is attached or applied to the base verb that is a non-causative. They are mostly said to be regular or productive.

Analytical causatives

This refers to verbs with causation as the underlying meaning. E.g., a verb meaning cause, make, let, etc.

Usage-based approach

This refers to an approach in construction grammar where the mental grammar is related to exposure to an utterance many times.

Basic/base verb

It is the root of a verb. The form that is usually in the dictionary. One without suffixes

Direct causation

This refers to a situation where the causer's action affects change in the caused event. It is also known as manipulative causation

Indirect causation

This refers to a situation where the causer does not intervene in the caused event. It happens without any force from the causer as the causee is free to cause change. It is also known as directive causation.

Entrenchment

This concept is derived from the tenets of cognitive grammar to refer to the storage of constructions and linguistic concepts in the long term memory and retrieving them when needed.

Input

Input refers to the language which a learner/ child is exposed to in his/her environment.

Output

Output is the language that the learner produces by way of speech or written after processing the input

ABSTRACT

This study sought to study causatives in the Kimeru language. Common Kimeru words used in this study were derived from its Igoji dialect. The study's objectives were: to find out how causatives are formed in Kimeru, to describe the structure of causative constructions in Kimeru, and to examine morphological causatives using the Goldberg theory of construction grammar. This is a theory of cognitive linguistics that claims that language is not inborn, but instead, learners learn constructions from generalizations and the environment to which they are exposed. The constructions are then stored in the human mind and produced when the need arises. The research was based on a sample of Kimeru words and phrases obtained from native speakers of the Igoji dialect. Simultaneously, the researcher analyzed the data used in this study and counter-checked by four other native speakers, the Igoji dialect, for authenticity. Some other data was obtained from secondary sources, which included storybooks and other Kimeru materials and articles. The data was then put into categories and analyzed syntactically by explaining the argument structure of causative verbs in Kimeru. Templates explaining the semantic component and syntactic analysis of Kimeru causatives were exemplified and observations made about the nature of the causatives. Much emphasis was laid on morphological causatives in Kimeru with modification of the templates provided by Goldberg (1995) to accommodate the morphological process of causativization in Kimeru. The discussions found out that Kimeru has three causative types, with the morphological causatives being highly productive and the lexical and analytic causatives less common. It was also found that indirect causation, which involved the lexical and analytic causative verbs, can be well accounted for using the construction grammar theory. The argument structure representation occurred with the caused-motion and resultative constructions. Another finding was that the argument structure of morphological causatives could be accounted for using the construction grammar theory by modifying the templates and generalizations of the transitive, caused-motion, resultative, and ditransitive constructions. This study concluded that the argument structure of causative verbs in Kimeru could be accounted for using the construction grammar theory.

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CHAPTER ONE: INTRODUCTION

1.0 General Introduction

This chapter first will look at the background of the Kimeru language and its dialects as identified by different scholars. We will also look at the background of causatives, and later on, we will have a brief background of the construction grammar. The second section will discuss the research problem, followed by the research questions and the objectives. The chapter will also look at the justification of the study, and its scope will be defined. Later the study will look at the literature review and the theoretical framework, and lastly, the study will look at the techniques or methods used in data collection.

1.1 Background to the Kimeru Language

Kimeru is a Bantu language spoken by the Ameru people. According to Guthrie (1967), Proto-Bantu is the Bantu language's mother language, which was spoken about 2500-3000 years ago. Bantu is a term that refers to the people and also the language they speak. Bantu languages trace their origin from the Niger-Congo family, and they became scattered all over Africa due to migrations by its speakers in search of better lands to settle on. The Bantus settled in different places, which lead to the Bantu language dividing further into smaller languages in which the Kimeru language finds its roots. The Ameru occupy the Meru, Tharaka Nithi, and part of Isiolo county in Kenya. Different scholars have differed in the number of dialects there are in Kimeru. Marete (1981) identifies five (5) dialects, namely: Gichuka, Kimwimbi, Kiimenti, Kitharaka, and Gitigania, while Bennett (1981) isolates six (6) dialects which includes; Gichuka, Kimwimbi, Kiimenti, Kitharaka, Gitigania, and Kiigoji. However, Gacunku (2005) identifies eight (8) dialects of Kimeru: Gitigania, Kiigoji, Kimiitine, Kimwimbi, Kimuthambi, Gichuka, Kiigembe, and Kiimenti. The Imenti dialect is said to be the dominator of other dialects in Kimeru, according to Taitumu (2014). Some people also call it the Standard Kimeru. Igoji and Miitine are inseparable from Imenti as they are linguistically closer as compared to other dialects.

Mberia (1981), in his argument, classified Kitharaka as a distinct language, unlike a dialect of Kimeru. However, this argument is not enough conviction that it is a language on its own since it is mutually intelligible to the other dialects of Kimeru and geographically close. Politically, Kitharaka falls under Tharaka Nithi County, which is composed of the Meru

people. Kimeru has a considerable degree of mutual intelligibility to Kikamba, Kikuyu, and Kiembu languages, which border it regionally. This study was conducted in the Kiigoji dialect of Kimeru, which is spoken in Igoji East and West Wards of South Imenti Constituency.

Good (2005) noted that the Bantu languages are highly agglutinative and have highly productive verbal suffixes that alter verb roots' semantics and valences. Many scholars also argue how the suffixes integrate or with the base verbs bring about a unification of morphology and syntax; hence there is a relationship between them. Causatives are therefore said to be morphosyntactic in nature.

1.1.2 Background to Construction Grammar

Construction grammar is a theory of syntax usually abbreviated as CxG. It was first propagated in the works of Charles Fillmore, Paul Kay, and George Lakoff in the 1980s. This theory is argued to have its origin from the notion of De Saussure (1916) on form and meaning. This prompted the construction of grammarians to dig deep into the principle of pairing of form and meaning, which applied to words and morphemes and all grammatical descriptions. Therefore, they coined the word “construction” from the phrase “conventional pairing of form and meaning.” This is how the theory was named construction grammar, with its central principle being that constructions are the only unit of grammatical representation. Much more about the theory and how it works will be explained under the theoretical framework. This theory will be used in this study to analyze morphological causatives.

1.1.3 Background to Causatives

The study of causatives was first done in Russia in the 1960s in the works of Xolodovic. Many studies have been done since then, as in the works of Shibatani (1976), Zubizarreta (1985), Comrie (1989), Falk (1991), and Kulikov and Nedjalkov (1992), among others. Before the first book on causatives was published, causatives were a morphological phenomenon. The first publication bridged the gap between syntax and morphology, leading to a syntactic approach to causatives. Scholars have chosen different approaches in their study of causation in languages since then. Some have used the generative grammar approaches by Noam Chomsky, while others have deviated to cognitive grammar approaches such as the construction grammar theory. It is so far not clarified as to which is the best theory that studies causation in languages. Such theoretical differences prompt the need to undertake this

study. Most of the studies have been done in the English language, although some scholars have looked at causation in natural languages, including Bantu languages.

In Kimeru, some scholars have studied causatives. These include Mwangi (2001), who investigated morphological causatives in central Kenya Bantu languages, Kimeru being one of them. She further explained the relevance of the distribution of causative affixes to the difference between lexical and non-lexical causatives. She used a syntactic and semantic approach in her study. Mbaka and Ileri (2017) investigated causation in Gichuka, a dialect of Kimeru, using the theory of Distributed Morphology and X-bar theory. They focused on the syntax of causative morphemes in Gichuka. Hodges (1977) investigated causatives, transitivity, and objecthood in Kimeru using the Relational Grammar approach. Considering that Kimeru has morphological causatives, and the studies done on them as mentioned, it is, therefore, necessary to study them using a different theory and one that is not of generative grammar as most scholars have done. There is so far no study carried out on causatives in Kimeru using a Construction Grammar Approach to the best of our knowledge. This is the research gap. Within the research gap, there is the following research problem.

1.2 Problem Statement

This study aims at looking at causation in Kimeru language using the construction grammar theory. The construction grammar theory is a theory under cognitive linguistics that seeks to account for how human beings learn and speak a language. It views constructions as the underlying principle of grammatical organizations. These constructions encompass all grammatical descriptions, including abstract phrasal patterns.

Construction grammarians claim that this theory can account for cross-linguistic anomalies because language can be learned without innate hard-wiring as children learn from their environment and experiences and form generalizations organized as networks in the human mind. Causatives are part of grammatical constructions that occur in all languages of the world. Lyons (1963) says that “in many languages, there is a productive grammatical rule for forming causative verbs.”

So far, a causative study using construction grammar has been done by various scholars. Stephanowitsch (2001) looked at the argument structure of causatives constructions using a construction grammar approach to analytical causatives. While Kanetani (2007) looked at

causation and reasoning using a construction grammar approach to conjunctions of reason. These scholars, among many others, have studied causation using different approaches. Considering that they looked at analytical and lexical causatives, which occur in isolated languages, they studied causation only at the word level. From their works, causation using construction grammar worked on lexical causatives and analytical ones. So the interesting research question occurs on how Construction Grammar can explain morphological causatives that do not function at the word level.

1.3 Research Questions

This study sought to answer the following research questions:

- i. How are causatives in the Kimeru language formed?
- ii. How does the semantic structure of causatives in Kimeru look like?
- iii. How can causative constructions in Kimeru be accounted for using Goldberg's theory of construction grammar?

1.4 Objectives of the Study

The following objectives will guide this research:

- i. To find out how causatives are formed in Kimeru.
- ii. To investigate the semantic structure of Kimeru causative constructions.
- iii. To examine causative constructions using Goldberg's theory of construction grammar.

1.5 Justification of the Study

This study aims at enhancing scholarly knowledge in understanding Kimeru causatives using Goldberg's theory of Construction grammar and therefore equip other researchers of Kimeru grammar. This study investigated the types of causatives in Kimeru and explained them using Goldberg's construction grammar model. The finding of this study will also be useful in comparative linguistics as linguists can compare causatives in the Igoji dialect and other Kimeru dialects or with other languages where causatives have been studied or are yet to be studied. Sociolinguists can also use this data to study the different dialects of Kimeru.

1.6 Scope of the Study

This research only covered causation in Kimeru language with the framework of Goldberg's theory of construction grammar. Only the research data on morphological causatives was only be accounted for using this theory. More so, the data collected will only be from the Igoji dialect of the Kimeru language. Considering the limitations of time, space, financial and other resources, the data collected will be as much as required to meet this study's objectives. Ninety (90) causatives will be collected for this study.

1.7 Literature Review

This section discusses the works that will significantly inform this study in one way or another. We will start by reviewing studies done on the Kimeru language and expound on those that help understand causatives. We also reviewed causatives and discuss how different scholars approached this grammatical area and what they say about causation in general. Later we discussed literature review on construction grammar and majorly how different approaches have been applied to causatives.

1.7.1 Literature on Kimeru

Kimeru language has received many studies in different areas using different theories. Taitumu looked at "Kimeru word-formation processes using an onomasiological approach" in his M.A Thesis. Part of what he analyzed is how the Kimeru verbs are formed, and he states that to form verbs that mean make or have somebody /something do something requires the addition of the suffix -ethi- to a relevant verb in the Tigania dialect. Taitumu (2014:86). His notion of verb derivation in Kimeru, which involves a suffix's addition to show causation, enhances our understanding in analyzing morphological causatives.

Kanana (2016) investigated reduplication in Kimeru and studied Kimeru parts of speech's open categories using the morphological doubling theory. Her analysis of full and partial reduplication of Kimeru verbs will be of importance to this study as it will inform us of how causation and reduplication (cause someone or something to do something repeatedly or for a more extended period) are related.

Some studies on Kimeru causatives include; Hodges (1977) looked at the assignment to object status for the NPs of the verb after being derived into causation. He uses the relational grammar theory to study morphological causatives. His argument on direct object, indirect

object, transitive and intransitive verbs on causatives will be important in this study. We shall see how the morphological structure of causatives varies after derivation—Mwangi (2001), who studied causatives in central Kenya Bantu languages. Kimeru is one of these languages. Her study will positively inform this study, especially her analysis of causatives' types because of the high degree of mutual intelligibility of the languages she looked at. We will gain much insight into how Bantu languages express causation, Kimeru being one of them. Mbaka and Ileri (2017) will be of interest to this study. Gichuka being one of the Kimeru dialects, will shed some light on this study on causative morphemes.

Other studies that have been done on Kimeru include; Mberia (1979), Marete (1981). Gacunku (2005), Mwambia (2006), Kithinji (2008), Penina (2009), Kanana (2011), and Kirigia (2018), among others. The majority of these scholars looked at Kimeru from a phonological and morphological dimension.

1.7.2 Literature Review on Causatives

The subject of causatives and causation has received many scholarships for many years now. This study will be significantly influenced by the works of Comrie (1976, 1989 and 2003), Dixon (2000), among others.

Many scholars have looked at causation using different theories and in different languages. Some of the works that will inform this work include:

Dixon (2000) approached causatives from a typological point of view. He discussed form, syntax, and meaning of causative constructions of different languages such as English, Persian, Hungarian, Japanese, etc. he argues that languages are different in their syntax of causatives and the meaning these different causatives bear. He added that some languages have more than one causative types and that the causatives usually have differences in meaning. He discusses three types or “mechanisms” of causative constructions; morphological, periphrastic, and lexical causatives. In his discussion, he explained how causatives and transitivity are related.

Shibatani (2002) studied causatives using synchronic and diachronic approaches. According to him, every human language has a way of expressing causation, and no grammar would be complete without causatives. He takes a semantic orientation towards causation but later

argues that it is integrated with lexicalization hence a continuum. Shibatani (2000: 109) quotes Comrie (1981), who suggest that the continuum between indirect and direct causation is not different from analytic, morphological, and lexical causatives.

He demonstrates the idea of “direct and indirect causation,” which to his views should be “manipulative and directive causation.” Shibatani (2002) argued that while morphological causatives specifically have a causer ordering or giving instruction to the causee, lexical causatives are indicated in situations involving a physical manipulation of the causee by the causer.

Shibatani uses a relatively good number of languages to demonstrate his claims. He later concludes by saying that causation is productive in all languages.

Bostoen and Munduke (2011) investigated a syncretism of causatives and applications in Mbuun, a Bantu language in the Democratic Republic of Congo. According to them, morphological causatives express direct causation, while analytical causatives lead to indirect causation using auxiliaries. They state that the morphological causative, which uses the suffix *-is-* is valence increasing in that the intransitive verb becomes transitive while the transitive verb becomes ditransitive. They say that this is because the causative verb introduces a causer and a causee. They concluded that in Mbuun, morphological causatives look like applicative, and they are derived from base verbs.

1.7.3 Literature Review on Construction Grammar Approaches

Several approaches have been developed on construction grammar. These include Goldberg (1995), Croft (2001), and Fillmore (2013), among others. These models, however, have received scholarly criticism from different scholars. In this study, the Usage-Based Model by Bybee is our main concern.

Various scholars have done causative studies using construction grammar. Stephanowitsch (2001) looked at the argument structure of causatives constructions using a construction grammar approach to analytical causatives. He centers his discussion on the works of Goldberg. Kanetani (2007) looked at causation and reasoning using a construction grammar approach to conjunctions of reason. He also used the Goldberg approach of construction

grammar. These studies will positively inform this study in discussing analytic and morphological causatives in Kimeru.

1.8 Theoretical Framework

1.8.1 Construction Grammar

This is a theory whose first publication appeared in the 1980s, such as in the works of Fillmore, C. (1985), Fillmore and O'Connor (1988), Lakoff (1987), and Wierzbicka (1988).

The theory entails the use of constructions and analysis of syntactic structures. Construction grammar is a theory of cognitive linguistics that has its origin from the Saussurean notion of the linguistic sign, that is, a conventional pairing of form and meaning. De Saussure (1916) says that form is a sound pattern or significant, while meaning is a mental concept or the *signifié*. Construction grammar is a theory of syntax where constructions are the central units of grammatical representations. All the proponents of construction grammar opposed the then-dominant theory of syntax by Noam Chomsky.

Chomsky (1995), while generative grammar approaches investigate the mental principles and parameters underlying all human language and hence a claim from its proponents that they have achieved a very high level of descriptive and explanatory adequacy. They ignore many linguistic phenomena that cannot be accounted for using principles and parameters theories, yet these linguistic phenomena are part of a speaker's mental representation of language. Sag (2010: 488), these projections and empty categories are “different from those of construction grammar which associates the same set of properties and interpretations directly.” Construction grammar states that human beings learn constructions from their environment using their cognitive processes. Children learn constructions and make generalizations depending on what is exposed to them by entrenchment. Constructions vary cross-linguistically.

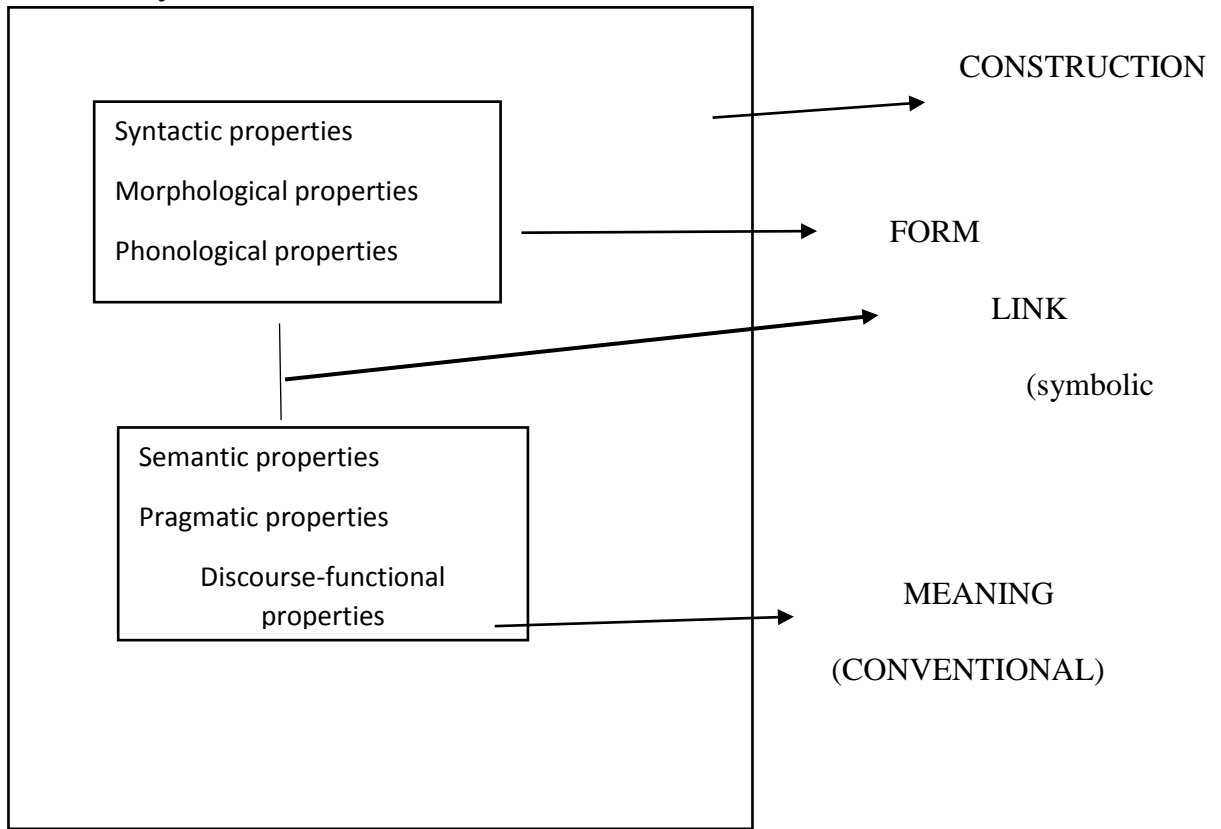
Fillmore and Kay (1999:1) said that to adopt a constructional approach is to undertake a commitment in principle to account for the entirety of each language; this is to mean that the construction grammar theory accounts for form (syntactic, morphological, and phonological) and function/meaning (semantic, pragmatic, etc.) aspects of an expression in a unified way in any language. According to them, construction grammar should be consistent with one's

cognition and social interaction, and it should be a grammar with universal impact and not applying to only some aspects of language but all. This can be traced from the history of construction grammar developed from Fillmore's (1975, 1982, and 1985) works on Frame Semantics. Frame Semantics, which is also an area in cognitive linguistics, is defined as background information and not according to truth conditions.

Fillmore (1988) argued that construction grammarians do not assume a clear-cut linguistic boundary between lexicon and syntax but consider all constructions to be part of a lexicon-syntax continuum or "a construction." These constructions include words or morphemes and other grammatical descriptions such as idioms and abstract phrasal patterns.

Other proponents, namely, Croft and Cruse (2004: 265), listed three basic principles that qualify linguistic elements to be termed as constructions. These are; a) the independent existence of constructions as symbolic units and them being vital in describing the grammar of human language. b) The uniform representation of grammatical structures and c) the taxonomic organization of constructions in a grammar as quoted from Kanetani (2007). Croft and Cruse also claimed that there is a lexical-syntax continuum, and they illustrated this using a structure as shown below;

Fig 1: Lexical-Syntax Continuum Framework



(Croft and Cruse 2004: 258)

1.8.2 Goldberg and Construction Grammar

Goldberg (1995) states that construction grammar is a theory of language that views the constructions as the basic principle of grammatical organization where construction is defined as an element associated with meaning. Therefore, it encompasses a range of linguistic aspects such as: morphemes, idioms, phrases, and abstract syntactic patterns. Words alone cannot be carriers of meaning in a language and cannot be relied on to account for semantic meaning conveyed in a language. According to Goldberg and other constructionists, syntactic organization plays a significant role in encoding semantic meaning in a language. This refers to the way words are organized in a sentence that would result in a difference in the meaning of words and phrases.

She lays down systematically an integrated theory of argument structure constructions. She studied peripheral and marginal or low-frequency constructions, including English

ditransitive, caused-motion, way constructions, and polysemy. This has been summarized by Ramondal (2014) in the table below.

Table 1: English Argument Structure Constructions

1. Ditransitive	X causes Y to receive Z	SUBJ V OBJ OBJ2 Job kicked Bob the ball.
2. Caused motion	X causes Y to move Z	SUBJ V OBJ OBL Job kicked the ball into the ditch.
3. Resultative	X causes Y to become Z	SUBJ V OBL XCOMP Job kicked Bob black and white.
4. Way constructions	X creates Y to move Z	SUBJ V OBJ (way OBL Job kicked his way out of the cell
5. Conative	X directs action at Y	SUBJ V OBL (at) Job kicked at the ball

She states that a sentence's meaning is determined by its arguments and the construction where the verb and its arguments occur. As illustrated above, a verb can appear in different argument structure constructions as with the verb 'kick.' This means that the argument structure is associated with the syntactic constructions in which the verb occurs.

The central tenets of construction grammar are: firstly, it is anchored on the claim that human language is a symbolic system (Hoffmann 2017a), says the central units of any language are the presence of linguistic signs (arbitrary and conventional pairing of form and meaning). Hoffmann (2019) also claims “construction grammar maintains that arbitrary form-meaning pairings are not only a useful concept for the description of words but that all levels of grammatical descriptions involve such conventionalized form-meaning pairings.” The conventional pairings of form and meaning are known as construction, and it contains morphemes, words, idioms, and abstract phrasal patterns.

For example, morpheme construction

Un- construction:

FORM: [(An) - X] ↔ MEANING: ‘not X.’

E.g. (Unwell unfaithful unworthy)

The construction above involves form and meaning pairing with the arrow (two directions) expressing the two poles' symbolic pairing within a construction.

Secondly, construction grammar postulates different views on the degree of abstractness and schematics of the mental representation (Hoffmann 2019). Some approaches advocate for the storage of little abstract and general constructions that one requires to speak. However, Hoffmann presents a usage-based analysis (Bybee 2006) that considers the role of factual data constituting the input for the speaker's generalizations. This would mean that the mental representation is determined by what a speaker is exposed to and how frequently they are exposed. Hoffmann (2019) says that, in a usage-based perspective, to have a mental representation network, type and token frequency have to be in interaction as they play a very significant role in entrenchment and schematization. Hoffmann concludes that “constructions with a similar meaning can always be expected to show cross-linguistic differences since they are language-specific, construction-specific inferences from language use” Hoffmann (, 2019).

Hoffmann (2019), in his argument about the usage-based model, assumed that mental representations are stored in taxonomic networks. Learners first come across constructions that they store in the memory. Those structures that the learner has been exposed to more in different contexts lead to more abstract constructions.

A learner will be exposed to specific utterances, which if he/she is severely exposed to become entrenched as a ‘micro-construction’ in the long term memory. More abstract constructions or ‘meso-constructions become entrenched. There can be more than one level of meso-constructions, and lastly, the most schematic construction, such as a ditransitive construction, is known as a macro-construction. Hoffmann (2019) says that type and token input frequency plays an essential role in the entrenchment and schematization of linguistic elements.

Despite the different formalizations of constructions in construction grammar as discussed above and presented in the works of (Fillmore (1988), Fillmore and Kay (1999), Croft and Cruse (2004), Goldberg (1995), and Bybee (2006), they all agree with the tenets and principles of construction grammar.

In using the construction grammar theory, I accept the tenets mentioned above in making my proposals. Above all, this study uses Goldberg's model in most aspects of the analysis of Kimeru causatives. This study considers grammar as being controlled by the tenets of construction grammar.

1.9 Methodology

1.9.1 Sample Selection and Data Collection Techniques

Data collection was done using purposive sampling to attain an accurate set of representative data samples. This was done through primary data sources and personal intuition. The primary sources of data included narratives and storybooks written originally in Kimeru. The researcher read materials mainly by scanning them and compiling the types of causatives found in these sources. These materials were bought from the bookshop, accessed from the internet, and others borrowed from retired primary school teachers who used these materials in teaching Kimeru in primary schools when the language was a compulsory subject.

The researcher was also an informer of this study since she is a native speaker of the Kimeru language Igoji dialect. The researcher relied on her knowledge of this language to generate data on causatives and used four (4) native speakers of this language, to confirm the data collected's authenticity and correctness. This was to avoid subjectivity and biases or mistakes in the research data and ensure that it was relevant to the study. Four (4) native speakers are composed of two (2) males and two (2) females, all of twenty-five (25) years and above. Since they are readily available and easy to access, four speakers were chosen considering the time and space limitation. Age was an important consideration in this study since it is believed that a native speaker is competent in the first language by around twenty-five years of age. These speakers were contacted via WhatsApp and recorded on call since the government banned physical meetings and gathering to contain the coronavirus pandemic. From their responses, ninety (90) causatives were selected for the study.

1.9.2 Nature of the data collected

The collected data will include ninety causatives in the Kimeru language under three types (lexical, morphological, and analytical) constructed in different ways possible that will be employed in the use of causatives in the Kimeru language. Also, the possible range of meanings associable with them in varying situations. This data will be written as well as recorded audios. This set of data was enough to equip the researcher in conducting the study exhaustively.

1.9.3 Data Analysis

This study focused solely on causation in the Kimeru language. It was based on lexical, analytic, and morphological causatives in Kimeru using the construction grammar theory. It focused further on causatives formation in the Kimeru language and delved into investigating the structure of Kimeru causative constructions then later examined causative constructions using Goldberg's theory of construction grammar. For example, the idea of schematization and entrenchment can be as below.

FORM: SBJ V OBJ OBJ



MEANING: 'Agent, Causes Recipient to Receive Theme by V-ing.

The collected data ensured that the researcher focused on all aspects of causative formation using construction grammar theory. The data was written down, classified, described, transcribed, tabulated, analyzed syntactically and morphologically, and explanations of the data were done.

1.10 Conclusion

This chapter looked at the background of the Kimeru language, construction grammar, and causatives. It looked at the problem statement, the research questions, and the research objectives. It also looked at the justification of the study, and its scope was defined. Later, the study discussed the literature review and the theoretical framework, and finally, data collection methods.

CHAPTER TWO: KIMERU PHONEMES INVENTORY AND CAUSATION

2.1 Introduction

This chapter focuses on information about the Kimeru language and the Igoji dialect. This information is needed to help us to understand the discussion laid down in the forthcoming chapters. First, the chapter outlines the Kimeru vowel and consonant phonemes, their IPA and orthographic symbols, and presents each phoneme's example in a word for easy understanding. Later this chapter discusses causation in Kimeru and examines how causatives are formed in Kimeru; hence this will help us identify the types of causatives in Kimeru language.

2.2 Kimeru Phonemes Inventory

In this section, we will look at the Kimeru phonemes and the Igoji dialect. Other dialects might have more consonant phonemes than the Igoji dialect, although the vowel phonemes are always the same.

2.2.1. Kimeru Phonemes

There are seven vowels in Kimeru with their long vowel counterparts. The letters are a, e, i, o, u, î, û

These vowels are illustrated in the table below.

Table 2: Kimeru Short and Long Vowel Phonemes

SHORT VOWELS	LONG VOWELS
a	a:
ε	ε:
i	i:
o	o
u	u:
e	e:
o	o:

The vowels are described as follows according to the vowel trapezium;

- a) Two high vowels,

/i/ - front, high, unrounded

/u /, - back, high, rounded

Two mid vowels,

/e/ - front, mid-high unrounded

/o / - back, mid-high, rounded

Two mid-low vowels,

/ɛ/ - front, mid-low, unrounded

/ɔ/- back, mid-low, rounded

One low vowel

/a/ - front, low, unrounded

These vowels can further be illustrated using an example as shown below

Table 3: Examples of Words Containing the Kimeru Vowel Phonemes

Orthographic	IPA Symbol	Example
1. a	/a/	Baaba /βa:βa/ - father
2. e	/ɛ/	Enda /ɛnda/ -to love
3. i	/i/	Marigu /marigu/ -bananas
4. o	/ɔ/	Ona /ɔna/ -to see
5. u	/u/	Muntû /munto/ -person
6. î	/e/	îkai /ekai/ -cheeck
7. û	/o/	mbûri /mbori/ goat
8. aa	/a: /	baaba /βa:βa/ -father
9. ee	/ɛ: /	ndeeni /ndɛ:ni/ - inside
10. ii	/i: /	mariiko /mari:kɔ/cooking places
11. oo	/ɔ: /	
12. uu	/u: /	noo /nɔ:/ loquat fruits
13. î î	/e: /	muuro /mu:rɔ/ river
14. û û	/o: /	rîrîria /re:ria/ compensate for bûûra /βo:ra/ wax (in the ear)

2.2.2. Kimeru Consonant Phonemes Inventory

There are twenty three (23) Kimeru consonants. These consonants sound segments can explained as follows;

1. /β/ voiceless bilabial fricative
2. /ð/ voiced inter-dental fricative
3. /t/ voiceless alveolar plosive
4. /r/ voiced alveolar trill
5. /j/ voiced palatal fricative
6. /j/ voiced palatal approximant
7. /k/ voiceless velar plosive
8. /ɣ/ voiced velar fricative
9. /m/ voiced bilabial nasal
10. /n/ voiced alveolar nasal
11. /ɲ/ voiced palatal nasal
12. /ŋ/ voiced velar nasal
13. /w/ voiced labial-velar approximant
14. /s/ voiced alveolar fricative

2.2.2.1 Prenasalised Consonants

There are nine prenasalised consonants in the Igoji dialect.

1. /mp/ prenasalized voiceless bilabial plosive
2. /mb/ prenasalized voiced bilabial plosive
3. /ŋk/ prenasalized voiceless velar plosive
4. /ŋg/ prenasalized voiced velar plosive
5. /nt/ prenasalized voiceless alveolar plosive
6. /nd/ prenasalized voiced alveolar plosive
7. /nð/ prenasalized voiced dental fricative
8. /ɲʃ/ prenasalized voiced palatal fricative
9. /ns/ prenasalized voiceless alveolar fricative

These consonants can be illustrated in the form of a table as follows;

Table 4: Kimeru Consonant Phonemes

	bilabial	dental	Alveolar	palatal	Velar
Nasal	m		n	ɲ	ŋ
Plosive			t		k
Fricative	β	ð	s	j	ɣ
Trill			r		
Approximant	w			j	

These consonants can further be illustrated based on their orthographic representation as follows in the table below;

Table 5: Example of Words Containing the Kimeru Phonemes

Orthographic	IPA	Kimeru word	Transcription	English
1. b	/β/	Baaba	/βa:βa/	Father
2. mb	/mb/	Mbûri	/mbori/	Goat
3. c	/s/	Cuburia	/suburia/	Sufuria
4. nc	/ns/	Ncamba	/nsamba/	Cock
5. nd	/nd/	Ndaa	/nda: /	Lice
6. g	/ɣ/	Gacui	/ɣasui/	Chick
7. ng	/ŋg/	Ngûrwe	/ŋgorwε/	Pig
8. j	/j/	Jûûjû	/jo:jo/	Grandparent
9. nj	/ɲf/	Njoka	/ɲfɔka/	Snake
10. k	/k/	gĩkombe	/yekɔmbε/	Cup
11. nk	/ŋk/	nkima	/ŋkima/	Ugali
12. m	/m/	mama	/mama/	Sleep
13. n	/n/	naarua	/na:rua/	Today
14. ng'	/ŋ/	ng'ara	/ŋara/	Scratch
15. mp	/mp/	mpera	/mpera/	Guava

16. r	/r/	rîma	/rema/	To dig
17. t	/t/	tana	/tana/	To circumcise
18. nt	/nt/	ntare	/ntarɛ/	Wild berries
19. th	/ð/	thinga	/ðiŋga/	Smear with
20. nth	/nð/	ithanthatu	/iðanðatu/	mud
21. w	/w/	weeru	/wɛ:ru/	Six
22. y	/j/	yaarî	/ja:re	Light
23. ny	/ɲ/	nyûngû	/ɲoŋgo/	Cooking stone
				Pot

2.3. Causation

This is a phenomenon that occurs in almost all the languages of the world. Every language has its way of showing causation, and Kimeru is one of them. This being a typological study will look at this phenomena and how it manifests itself in Kimeru.

There are three types of causatives in Kimeru, which include lexical causatives, morphological causatives, and analytic causatives. This chapter endeavors to discuss these types of causatives concerning the idea of productivity, direct and indirect causation, and object marking.

2.3.1 The Morphological Causative

The primary way of showing causation in Kimeru is by using an affix attached to the verb's base. In morphological causatives, a non-causative verb becomes a causative by the addition of a causative morpheme. Two causative morphemes are added to the base of the verbs in Kimeru. They are realized as -i- and -ithi- affixes, and they are added to the base of a verb regardless of the phonological structure of the verb hence showing causation. Affixation is the morphological process that makes a non-causative verb a causative. The following examples are an illustration of morphological causatives.

(1a) Rir -i - a

Cry -CAUS -FV

Cause to cry

(1b) Rir -ithi -a

Cry- CAUS- FV

Make to cry

(2a) Um – i – a

Dry – CAUS- FV

Cause to dry

(2b) Um – ithi- a

Dry – CAUS – FV

Make to dry

(3a) Or – i – a

Cool- CAUS – FV

Cause to cool

(3b) Or – ithi – a

Cool – CAUS- FV

Make to cool

The above examples, 1 a), 2 a), and 3 a) have the affix -i- added to the verbs' bases, respectively. This morpheme carries the meaning 'cause to' whenever it is attached to the base of the verb. However, not all verbs in Kimeru take this suffix. The following verbs are ill-formed and cannot be used to show causation.

(4a) Andik-a

Write

(4b) *Andik –i- a

Write - CAUS- FV

Cause to write

(5a) tema

cut

(5b) *tem -i- a

Cut -CAUS- FV

Cause to cut

(6a) buta

Sack/ fire

(6b) but- i-a

Sack/fire-CAUS- FV

Cause to sack/fire

Examples 1 b), 2 b), and 3 b) have the suffix –ithi- attached to the verb's base to show causation. This morpheme carries the meaning ‘make to’ whenever it is attached to a verb's base. Those verbs that cannot take the morpheme –i- to show causation usually take the morpheme –ithi- instead. This can be illustrated by example 4, 5, and 6 c as below.

(4c) Andik – ithi -a

Write- CAUS- FV

Make to write

(5c) Tem - ithi - a

Cut - CAUS- FV

Make to cut

(6c) But – ithi – a

Sack/ fire -CAUS -FV

Cause to sack/ fire

This type of causation is productive since someone can take almost the same verb and add an affix to form a causative. However, there are certain features or elements that determine how causatives are formed from the two affixes in Kimeru. It depends on the type of a verb that either of these affixes is attached to. This makes us to classify verbs as either transitive or intransitive and as either stative or dynamic.

2.3.2. The Analytic Causative

This section introduces another type of causative known as the analytic causative. It involves two verbs, one of which shows causation. The verb ‘tuma’ is used in Kimeru as an example of an analytic causative. It means ‘make/cause to.’ For example:

(7) Mbura igutuma mwanki juora.

Rain 3PS-TNS-make-FV-CAUS fire go.out.

‘The rain has made the fire go out.’

‘Mbura’ is the causer noun while ‘igutuma’ is the cause's predicate, and they make up the first clause. ‘Mwanki’ is the causee noun, and ‘uora’ is the predicate of effect as they make up

another clause. The predicate of cause usually occurs before the clause expressing the caused event.

Comrie 1981 says that this type of causative is rare in many languages. However, it is the main type of causative in English since English does not have the morphological type of causative.

The analytic causatives involve a verb that shows causation and is attached to another verb. In a sentence, the analytic ‘tuma’ usually has the form ‘X causes Y to verb.’

2.3.3 Lexical Causatives

These involve situations where the relationship between expression of effect and causation is not systematic and therefore has to be handled lexically rather than morphologically. This causation is not very not productive in Kimeru.

It involves two types the suppletive pairs such as kill (cause to die) and die in English and the labile causatives. Comrie 1989 states that the suppletive causatives forms are the most explicit instance of lexical causatives.

2.3.3.1. Suppletive Causative

A suppletive causative involves a pair of verbs with a similar syntactic and semantic relationship, with one lexical verb being a causative (denoting cause to) and the other pair being a non-causative. Lyons 1968 says that this relationship occurs with both intransitive and transitive verbs, which have different verb roots in causative and anti- causative alternations. This means that suppletive causatives does not involve a regular pattern or relationship between the two members of the pair. . One pair is a causative member, and it usually contains an extra argument and bears the notion of causation. Here one of the verb is the basic verb while the other is its causative counterpart as in the pair kill and die in English. This relationship is as illustrated below in English.

(8a). Rose died.

(b) Racheal killed Rose.

This pair is suppletive since it has ‘die’ as the basic verb and ‘kill’ as the causative counterpart. Therefore, we say that ‘die’ is a suppletive lexical causative while ‘kill’ is a

suppletive lexical anti-causative. The two verbs have the same syntactic and semantic relationship. In Kimeru, the verbs below are suppletive causatives.

- i. Kua (die) – uraga (kill)
- ii. Ura (get lost) – ta (lose)
- iii. Bua (good) –thondeka (make good)
- iv. Uma (move out) – Ruta (move s/one or s/thing out)
- v. Ija (come) – reta (make s/one come by bring them)
- vi. Gunda (get ripe) - rinda (ripen)
- vii. Twika (cut) – Gita (cut something)

Example in a sentence in Kimeru.

(9a) Kanana a-ku-rind-a ndigu.

Kanana 3PS-TNS-ripe-FV bananas.

Kanana has made the bananas ripe.

9b) Ndigu i-ku-gund-a.

Banana 3PL-TNS-ripe-FV

The bananas are ripe.

2.3.3.2. Labile Causatives

The labile causation involves a causative and non-causative verb which has the same root in different events. It does not involve a change in the verb. It can either be transitive or intransitive. In this category, there is what is termed as inchoative- causative verb pair according to Haspelmath 1993. He describes this pair as ‘a pair of verbs that express the same basic situation and differ only because the causative verb meaning includes an agent participant who causes the situation. Whereas, the inchoative verb meaning excludes a causing agent and presents the situation as occurring spontaneously.’(P 90). The inchoative member is usually intransitive while the causative pair is transitive. English has these pairs such as; melt (TR) and melt (INTR), break (TR) and break (INTR), move (TR) and move (INTR) among others. An example in a sentence is.

(10a). The table moved.

(10b) The girl moved the table.

In sentence 10, a) the verb moved is intransitive and does not have a participatory agent that causes the table to move. It is, therefore, an inchoative verb. 10 b), on the other hand, contains the agent girl who causes the table to move; hence the verb is transitive and causative.

An example in Kimeru is ‘cencia,’ a verb meaning to change.

(11a) Ngia i-gu-cenci-a.

Gear 3PS-TNS-change-FV

The gear has changed.

(11b) Ndereba a-gu-cenci-a ngia.

Driver 3PS-tns-change-FV gear.

The driver has changed the gear.

Sentence (11 a), which contains the inchoative verb ‘cencia’ involves a change in state where a gear gets changed maybe from gear one to gear two, whereas sentence (11b), which contains an inchoative - causative counterpart verb ‘cencia’ describes the driver causing the gear to change.

Different patterns can be derived for inchoative –causative alternations. These patterns are grouped as follows.

a) Causative alternation

This involves a case where the inchoative is basic, and the causative is derived (haspelmath1993). An inchoative verb having a transitive alternant which resembles it phonologically is basically what this pattern portrays. In Kimeru, the same verb enters the inchoative and the causative events that the inchoative is embedded by the causatives illustrated in example 11 a) and b). However, in some languages, the causative verb may be derived by adding an affix; this does not occur in Kimeru. More examples in Kimeru include;

1. Kemba (inchoative) vs kemba (transitive) – sediment/decant
2. Cencia (inchoative) vs cencia (transitive) - change
3. Murika (inchoative) vs. murika (transitive) - light
4. Aria (inchoative) vs aria (transitive) - talk
5. Ambiria (inchoative) vs ambiria (transitive) – start

b) Anti-causative alternations

This involves a situation where the causative verb is basic while the inchoative verb is derived. The inchoative verb is here termed as an anti-causative since it is intransitive and shows a situation only affecting the subject, usually the patient undergoer. Semantically and syntactically, there is no a causer in the inchoative verb. The inchoative member in Kimeru occurs by derivation, which means the addition of an affix. These include:

- i. Gita (causative) vs git-uk-a (inchoative) – cut
- ii. Buta (causative) vs but-ik-a (inchoative) – erase
- iii. Una (causative) vs. un-ik-a (inchoative) – break
- iv. Inja (causative) vs. inj-uk-a (inchoative) – have holes on the ground.
- v. Tuma (causative) vs tum-an-a (inchoative) – stitch
- vi. Tura (causative) vs tur-ik-a (inchoative) – pierce

This can be illustrated using the sentence below.

(12a) Giti gi-ku-unik-a.

Chair 3PS-TNS-break-FV

The chair has broken.

(12b) Makena a-ku-un-a giti.

Makena 3PS-TNS- break-FV chair

Makena has broken the chair.

In sentence 12 a), the inchoative verb ‘unika’ is intransitive and involves a change in state where the chair gets broken without a causer. On the other hand, sentence 12 b) has a transitive verb ‘una,’ which requires a causer as the agent and a causee as the patient and therefore tables a situation where Makena causes the chair to break.

The suffixes –uk-, -ik-, and –an- are used to derive the inchoative verbs in Kimeru.

b) Equipollent alternations

This involves a situation where no member of the pair is derived from another, but both the inchoative and the causative counterpart are derived from the same root, which denotes a basic situation but derived using different suffixes. This means that equipollent alternations are in an independent derivation. In Kimeru, they include;

- i. Rug-uk-a (inchoative) vs rug-ur-a (causative) - open
- ii. It-ik-a (inchoative) vs it-ur-a (causative) – pour
- iii. Cit-uk-a (inchoative) vs. cit-ur-a (causative) - frighten
- iv. Tamb-uk-a (inchoative) vs tamb-ur-a (causative) – tear
- v. Kun-uk-a (inchoative) vs kun-ur-a (causative) – open (of bottle)
- vi. Tha-uk-a (inchoative) vs tha-ur-a (causative) - tether
- vii. Bung-uk-a (inchoative) vs bung-ur-a (causative) – unbutton
- viii. Unjug-uk-a (inchoative) vs. unjug-ur-a (causative) – stir
- ix. Gar-uk-a (inchoative) vs gar-ur-a (causative) – turn
- x. Cumb-uk-a (inchoative) vs cumb-ur-a (causative) - disturb
- xi. Bang-uk-a (inchoative) vs. bang-ur-a (causative) – disarrange
- xii. Tug-uk-a (inchoative) vs. tug-ur-a (causative) – topple
- xiii. At-uk-a (inchoative) vs at-ur-a (causative) – break/split
- xiv. Thar-uk-a (inchoative) vs thar-ur-a (causative)- undo (crocheting)
- xv. Cuk-uk-a (inchoative) vs cuk-ur-a (causative) – unplait
- xvi. Ut-uk-a (inchoative) vs Ut-ur-a (causative) – pluck feathers
- xvii. Tum-uk-a (inchoative) vs tum-ur-a (causative) – unstitch
- xviii. Inj-uk-a (inchoative) vs inj-ur-a (causative) – dig a hole

For example in the sentences below;

(13a) Suba i-gu-ku-nuk-a.

Bottle 3PS-TNS-open-FV

The bottle has opened.

(13b) Mwalimu a-gu-ku-nur-a suba.

Teacher 3PS-TNS-open-FV bottle.

The teacher has opened the bottle.

In sentence 13, a) the verb is inchoative in that it denotes a change in state of the patient (the bottle) without the effect of a causer, while 13 b) is a causative verb which shows a causer (the teacher) causing the bottle to open. Both verbs only differ by the suffix added to each. In Kimeru, the morpheme deriving the inchoative is –ik- and -uk- while the causative counterpart has the morpheme –ur-.

As discussed above on lexical causatives, it is clear that Kimeru has verbs that are causative in meaning, and these verbs are transitive. Their counterpart (inchoative) are usually anti-causatives or otherwise termed as decausated. There always occurs a derivational relationship between inchoative and causative verbs, as has been discussed above. For lexical causatives, the causee is always a patient. While the causative verbs have a causer and a causee, i.e., an agent and patient, respectively, whenever they occur, the inchoative verbs only have a patient participating in the events where they occur. Also, causative verbs usually occur in events where there is an external causer, but inchoative never requires an external causer interference as they show an event that occurs spontaneously.

On a conclusion remark, however, it is important to note that not every inchoative verb has a causative-inchoative counterpart and not every inchoative-causative counterpart has a causative verb.

2.4. Conclusion

This chapter has informed us of the Kimeru vowels and consonant phonemes and how they are articulated in different words. This chapter has introduced seven Kimeru vowel phonemes alongside their long counterparts and twenty-three Kimeru consonants, with nine of them being prenasalized. The Igoji dialect of Kimeru, just like all the other dialects, is not complete without prenasalization.

This chapter also focused on causatives in Kimeru. Three types of causatives have been identified: morphological causatives, the analytic causative ‘tuma,’ and lexical causatives. This classification of causatives into three categories has helped us appreciate that there are

morphological causatives in Kimeru. Therefore, this being our main concern will help us discuss morphological causative using the construction grammar theory and its relationship with the argument structure.

CHAPTER THREE: CAUSATION AND THE PREDICATE STRUCTURE

3.1. Introduction

This chapter looked at how the three types of causatives affect the predicate of the sentence in Kimeru. We take a closer look at the predicate of causative structures and their semantic implication in the sentence.

First, we look at the difference between direct and indirect causatives since these differences categorize causatives as either analytic, lexical, or morphological in section 3. This helps in figuring out the distribution of arguments in the predicate. Secondly, the definition of a verb and predicate is explained. Since this study deals with causative verbs, it looks at how arguments are semantically and syntactically distributed in the predicate. Furthermore, this section explains the different constructions that occur with causative verbs, the predicate's arguments, and a structural representation of each of the constructions that occur with.

3.2. Direct and Indirect Causation

Before looking at how causation affects the predicate of the sentence in Kimeru, it is important to shed some light on the notion of direct and indirect causatives as they will define the distribution of the argument structure on the predicate. This notion of how direct or indirect a causative is looked at semantically.

3.2.1. Semantic Orientation of Causatives

This idea of direct and indirect causation has to do with the relationship that the causer and the causee exhibit with respect to the caused event. For direct causation, it means that the causer's actions carry over to the caused event, while for indirect causation, the caused event enjoys an autonomous status free of the causer's intervention. This can lead to the definition of these kinds of causatives as follows:

3.2.1.1. Direct Causation

For direct causatives, the causer physically manipulates the patient (causee) to bring about a change in state in an event. It is also known as manipulative causation (Shibatani 1976: 31) and contrastive causation (Masica 1976:55), which states that the agent does something to the object by direct contact to bring about its new condition or denote a state change. For example, in English

(14) Mary broke the flower vase.

This sentence means that Mary caused the flower vase to break by letting it fall on the ground. This could have been intentionally or unintentionally. However, the breaking of the flower vase is attributed directly to the action of Mary.

In Kimeru, the following is an example of a direct causation.

(15) Bolisi a-ku-urag -a mwamba.

Police 3PS-TNS-kill-CAUS-FV thief

The police has killed a thief.

Here the action of killing the thief is associated directly to the police. The police performs a physical action of killing the thief, maybe by shooting him/her.

In Kimeru, direct causation is denoted by verbs such as uraga ‘kill’, which is a suppletive type of lexical causative.

3.2.1.2. Indirect Causation

In indirect causation, on the other hand, which is also known as ‘distant causation’ (Masica 1976), the agent acts as an instigator of the caused event as there is no direct physical contact between the causee and the causer. The intermediary agent mediates between the causer agent and the resulting state. In this kind of causation, there happens to be a time interval between the causing agent and the caused state in this mediation. For example:

3. Tom made Mary break the flower vase.

In sentence 3 the action of breaking the flower vase is done by Mary through a force from Tom. Mary does not do the action directly; instead, Tom mediates and causes her to break the

flower vase by pushing her towards it and causing the flower vase to fall and break. This an example of an analytic causative. Which has two predicates, ‘make’ and ‘break’ (causative inchoative).

In Kimeru, the analytic causative ‘tuma’ also denotes indirect causation as expressed in the sentence below:

(16) Mbeya i-gu-tum-a nguo i-tambuk-a.

Rat 3PS-TNS-make-FV-CAUS cloth 3PS-tear-FV

‘The rat has made the cloth to tear.’

Here, the sentence means that the cloth tearing action is indirectly related to the rat's action. The rat has caused the cloth to tear by making holes in it.

The analytical causative is very rare in Kimeru (only ‘tuma’ is realized as analytic causative in Kimeru); instead, most of the causative constructions in Kimeru are morphological causatives; see the following examples:

(17 a) Tiga gu-tong-ithi-a mwana mwanki.

Stop INF-TNS-touch-CAUS-FV child fire

‘Stop making the child touch fire.’

(17b) Kawira a-gu-tum-ithi-a irinda ririeru.

Kawira 3PS-TNS-sew-CAUS-FV dress new

‘Kawira has sown a new dress’

(17c) Makena a-gu-tu-ken-i-a mno narua.

Makena 3PS-TNS-1PL-happy-CAUS-FV very today

‘Makena has made us very happy today.’

According to Shibatani (2000), lexical causatives express situations involving physical manipulation of an object or person (the causee) by the causer, while morphological causatives involve the causer giving an order, direction, or instruction to the causee. This is to

mean that lexical causatives denotes direct causation while analytical and morphological causatives denote indirect causation. This equally applies to Kimeru causatives, where lexical causatives denote direct causation while analytic causatives denote indirect causation. However, in Kimeru, morphological or productive causatives denote both direct and indirect causation, as will be explained below.

Comrie (1981:172) in Shibatani (2000) suggests the following about form and meaning pairing in causatives. “Many languages have a formal distinction correlating with this distinction between direct and indirect causation.” He says that the continuum from analytic to morphological and to lexical causatives is the same as that from less direct to more direct causation in a language. This also proves the point that in Kimeru, lexical causatives express direct causation. In contrast, for morphological and analytic causatives, the degree of directness decreases with morphological causatives expressing direct and indirect causation depending on which of the causative morphemes (-i- and -ithi-) is attached to the base of the verb and analytic causative expressing indirect causation.

In Kimeru, the two morphemes of causation (-i- and -ithi-) in morphological causatives differ indirectness. While the -i- morpheme indicates direct causation (the causer acting on the patient directly) when attached to a verb's base, the morpheme -ithi- shows indirect causation (the causer acts indirectly hence involves an intermediary agent) when attached to the base of the verb. The following examples can illustrate this:

(18a) Ngombe i-gw-onk-i-a kajau.

Cow 3PS-TNS-suckle-CAUS-FV calf

‘The cow has suckled the calf.’

(18b) Mutwiri a-gw-onk-ithi-a.ngombe kajau.

Mutwiri 3PS-TNS suckle-CAUS-FV cow calf

‘Mutwiri has made the cow suckle the calf.’

In sentence 18, a) the causative morpheme –i-brings about direct causation. In that, the cow allows the calf suckle it willingly. There is direct contact between the action ‘suckling’ and the agent ‘cow.’ Therefore, this morpheme is used to show direct causation. In sentence 18 b), the cow does not act suckling the calf, but Mutwiri makes the calf suckle by forcing the cow,

maybe by tying its legs. This is an instance of indirect causation marked by the -ithi-morpheme of causation. Generally, direct causatives are usually associated with the patient role, while indirect causatives are prototypically related to the agent role.

3.3. The Verb and the Predicate

A verb is a word that denotes action that is taking place, or it is a state of being. It is usually a content word (main part) in a sentence. A verb is usually part of the predicate, and together with the complement, they explain what the subject in a sentence is doing or is all about. Without a verb in a sentence, information is impartially conveyed, and communication is broken. Interestingly, even a verb by itself (without a subject) can be a sentence. For example: eat, go, come, etc. Simple sentences also have a subject and a verb only. For example, Jesus wept.

A verb is imperative because it determines the number and types of complements that it will take and those which correctly co-occur with it.

Causatives are verbs, among many other types of verbs, which will be looked at in this study. They are verbs that denote that something or someone causes the other (thing or someone) to do something or cause a state change. Causatives express a relationship between a causer (subject) and a caused event (predicate). Many linguists generally argue a causative is a two-place predicate (causer and the caused event). This is illustrated by a sentence such as:

(19) Maami a-ku-thek-i-a mwana.

Mother 3PS-TNS-laugh-CAUS-FV child

'The mother has made the child laugh.'

In the above sentence, the mother is the causer (subject) and semantically the agent participant. She makes the baby laugh (maybe by tickling it or doing something funny). The baby is the causee (who is made to laugh), and the predicate of this sentence is has made the child laugh, which has a verb and a direct object. The above sentence is transitive. Its verb takes one object (direct).

However, apart from being a two-place predicate. Causatives in Kimeru can be a three-place predicate. This means that there is a patient role involved in addition to the causer and the caused event. For example:

(20) Murimi a-gu-keth-ithi-a antu majani.

Murimi 3PS-TNS-pick-CAUS-FV people tea leaves

'Murimi has made the people pick tea leaves.'

In this sentence, we have a subject (agent) 'Murimi,' a verb 'pick,' and a direct object 'tea leaves' and an indirect object 'people.' The above sentence is ditransitive. One which takes two objects.

A predicate is the part of a sentence that provides more information about the subject. Causative verbs are usually part of the predicate, and they affect the argument structure in different ways.

Verbs show up in a wide range of matrices of complements, according to Goldberg (2009). For example, the verb 'throw' can occur in the following constructions: intransitive, transitive, resultative, ditransitive, and way construction, as illustrated by sentences (20a-f).

(20a) The ball has been thrown into the ditch. (Passive Intransitive)

b) The baby has thrown the ball. (Transitive)

c) The baby has thrown the ball through the window. (Way-construction)

d) The baby has thrown the ball to the goalpost. (Caused-motion)

e) The baby threw the ball excellently. (Resultative)

f) Mother threw a party for the baby. (Ditransitive – metaphorical extension)

However, this study is concerned with causatives and will not dive into constructions that do not show caused events. This study will, therefore, endeavor to explain the following constructions that occur with causatives.

I) caused-motion constructions

II) Resultative constructions

III) Transitive constructions

IV) Ditransitive constructions

3.4. Caused-Motion Constructions

Caused-motion verbs are verbs that denote that something or someone causes another (thing or someone) to move from one place to another or in a particular direction. In English, caused-motion constructions can be identified in the following expressions from Goldberg (1995:152).

For example:

(21a). They laughed the poor guy out of the room.

b) Frank squeezed the tissue off the table.

c) Mary urged Bill into the house.

d) Sue let the water out of the bathtub.

e) Sam helped him into the car.

f) They sprayed the paint onto the wall.

Sentences with caused-motion verbs are basically having a grammatical relation set of Subject Verb Direct Object and Oblique configuration. This can be identified in the sentence (21a-f) above. Goldberg explains that the meaning of caused-motion constructions to be “X generally caused Y to move Z” (loc/path). This meaning is associated with the Subject-verb object oblique (path/location) formal pattern whose syntactic structure is [Subj [V Obj Obl]] in a situation where the verb is non-stative, and the oblique is a directional phrase (Goldberg 2009:101). This meaning can be framed as X causes Y to move Z by V-ing.

Goldberg argues that this construction involves intransitive verbs with three predicate arguments (verb, object, oblique). Caused motion constructions cannot be noticed or identified in the verb's meaning in isolation; for example, the verbs laugh, squeeze, urge, let helped and spray are not causatives, and they do not denote motion. This means that an

independent verb is not a causative and does not denote motion. A causal interpretation or relationship is only established if the caused-motion construction semantics is linked to the verb's frame-semantics meaning. In a caused-motion construction, therefore, the subject functions as an agent, the direct object as the mover or moving thing, and (if any) the oblique within the PP as a goal in the caused-motion event. The following expressions in Kimeru can illustrate this:

(22a) Mwandiki a-gut-a mbecha kithaka-ni.

Mwandiki 3PS-TNS-lose-FV bush-in

'Mwandiki has lost money in the bush.'

b) Mukami a-ku-rut-a murengeti kaja.

Mukami 3PS-TNS-remove-FV outside

'Mukami has removed the blanket outside.'

c) Mwari agwitura ruuji kaja.

Girl 3PS-TNS-pour-FV water outside

'The girl has poured water outside.'

d) Ng'ombe i-gu-tugur-a gikabu ndii.

Cow 3PS-TNS-topple-FV basket ground

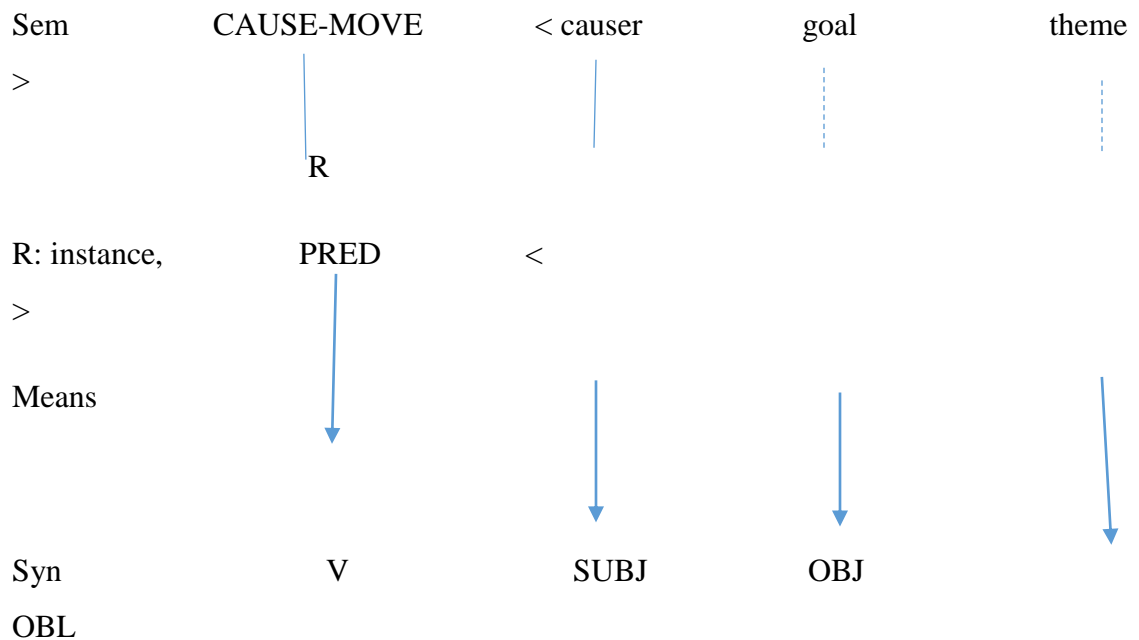
'The cow has toppled the basket on the ground.'

Caused motion constructions denote a physical transfer of a thing from the agent to the designated goal through a certain path or location. In caused-motion constructions, the moving object does not do so by itself, but it is caused to move by the subject's energy. This has been illustrated by sentences (22a-d), which have the meaning X causes Y to move Z by losing, removing, pouring, and toppling, respectively. These verbs, however, do not show overt causation independently neither are they motion verbs. Goldberg says that caused-

motion construction has a metaphorical extension in that a construction may have a predicate denoting a change of ownership from the agent to the recipient. Therefore caused-motion constructions are meant to encompass the idea of physical movement and possession transfer.

A caused-motion construction can be represented as below according to (Goldberg 1995:52).

Fig. 2: Caused-Motion Construction



At the top of this template, the meaning of this construction is shown by specific thematic roles. The arrows point towards the syntactic form and show the fusion of the roles. The space left between the brackets is where any given verb in the construction will be placed. The complete lines show arguments that must be matched by the participant of the verb, while the broken line represents the construction's roles. R stands for a restriction of the verb (for instance, cause to move in this case) is related to the verb by instance means or manner. This is what helps us to know which verb occurs at the PRED feature. The potential verb should produce the agent role such as a remover in sentence 22b); the other roles are supplied by the construction, i.e., remover, removee, and the location.

In summary, caused-motion constructions have three arguments and occur with intransitive verbs. This shows that for causative verbs in Kimeru, only lexical causatives, both the suppletive and causative-inchoatives, would occur in caused-motion constructions. These verbs do not show motion and causation when not attached to the agent and patient in question. Although caused-motion constructions show causation, they cannot be used with morphological causatives in Kimeru; hence, they only partially account for causation in Kimeru. Interestingly here also is the idea that caused-motion constructions occur with the direct causatives kind of causation.

3.5. The Ditransitive Constructions

The ditransitive construction refers to any expression with two noun phrases occurring after the verb in the predicate of a sentence. One of the noun phrases is a direct object, while the other is an indirect object.

For example, in English

(23) My aunt bought me a beautiful dress.

This sentence means that my aunt bought a dress intending to give it to me. It means that X intends to cause Y to receive Z by buying.

In Kimeru, ditransitive constructions can be illustrated by:

(24) Gacheri a-gu-tum-ir-a Mugambi barua

Gacheri 3PS-TNS-send-BEN-FV Mugambi letter

Gacheri has sent a letter to Mugambi.

Sentence (24) means that Gacheri sent a letter with the intention of it reaching Mugambi. It, therefore, has the meaning Gacheri causes Mugambi to receive a letter by sending.

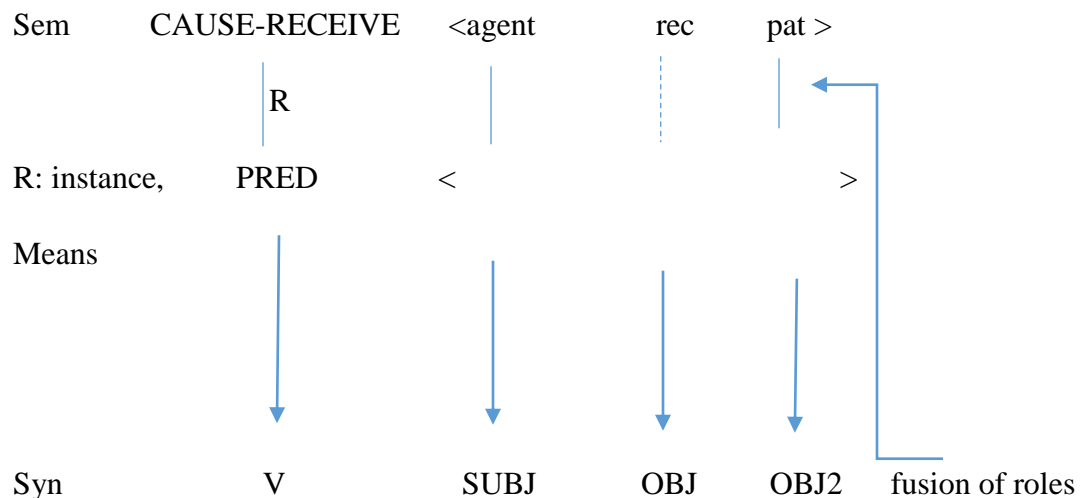
A ditransitive verb is basically a transitive verb with an extra object. Therefore ditransitive verbs involve the addition of an argument to the predicate and three-argument roles hence mark it. Semantically, a ditransitive verb has three roles, which are the agent role, the theme role, and the recipient role. The meaning of ditransitive constructions is X causes Y to receive Z. Subject Verb Object Object2 expresses the syntactic structure of ditransitive constructions.

These constructions have the underlying meaning of a successful transfer, which means one causes another to receive something by V-ing. Therefore, it involves the transfer between a conscious agent (one who intends to give) and a willing recipient (one who is willing to receive). Always ditransitive verbs have their goal argument (recipients) as animates.

Apart from denoting the successful transfer of something from the causer to the recipient, ditransitive constructions convey the causer's idea intending to do something for the recipient. They can also have the implication of intended rather than actual or future transfer. This would therefore have the meaning “X intends to cause Y to receive Z.”

The semantics of ditransitive constructions is represented as: “CAUSE-RECEIVE <agent, recipient, patient>” Goldberg 1995:49. The structural template for ditransitive constructions is as shown in figure two below according to Goldberg 1995:50

Fig 3. Ditransitive Construction



The above figure is interpreted as follow; semantically, the construction is represented as ‘CAUSE-RECEIVE <agent, rec, pat>. The PRED is an entity that is to be filled by the verb, which will be integrated into this construction. For example, the verb ‘throw.’ construction shows explicitly the roles of the construction that are fused with the roles of the verb. These are shown by using a completely straight line between the argument roles and the verb's participant roles. A broken line shows roles that are not obligatorily fused with those of the verb. A ditransitive construction is noted to be unique since it links the recipient's role with the object's grammatical function.

The verb is integrated in the construction by its relation 'R' means or instance. The above figure shows a representation of pairing between a syntactic level of grammatical functions and their semantic counterpart level representation.

In conclusion, the meaning of a ditransitive construction is in its ability to take two objects, as illustrated in examples 11 and 12. The template for ditransitive constructions is also well accounted for by Goldberg; however, the meaning X causes Y to receive Z does not apply for morphological causatives in Kimeru. The Kimeru causative morpheme -ithi- changes a transitive verb to a ditransitive one. The ditransitive formed from the causative morpheme has the form subject verb direct object indirect object, but it does not have the meaning X causes Y to receive Z. The templates of ditransitive construction with morphological causatives will be further illustrated in chapter four.

3.6. Resultative Constructions

Resultative constructions apply to arguments that undergo a change in state due to the action denoted by the verb. This usually applies to arguments that are semantically patients. The meaning of resultative constructions is X causes Y to become Z by V. The structural syntactic representation of resultative constructions is subject verb object oblique. For example:

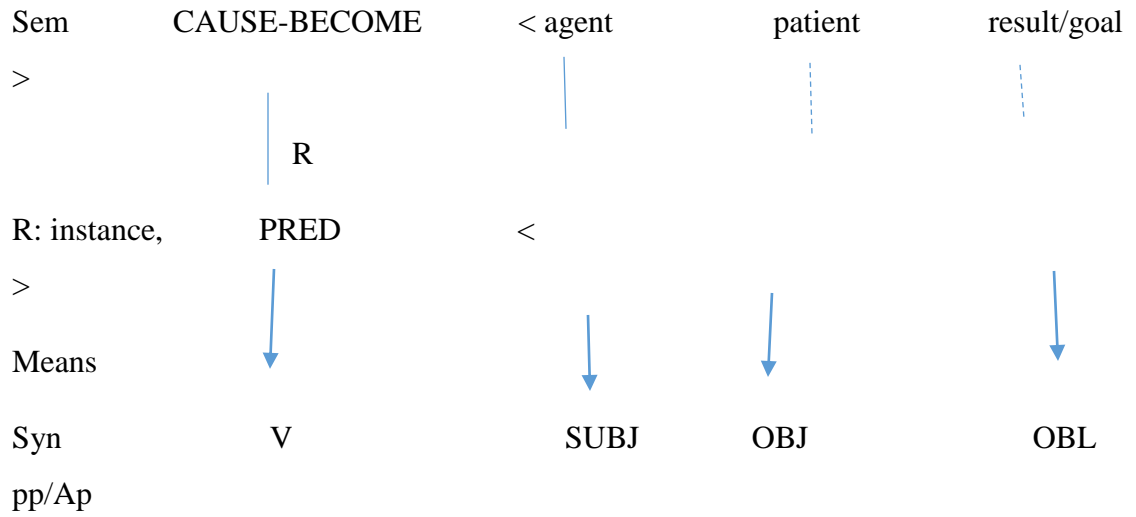
(25a). The worker swept the compound clean.

(25b). Her boyfriend drove her crazy.

(25c) The thief broke the door agape.

Resultative constructions can be represented as in the figure below derived from (Goldberg1995:189).

Fig. 4: Resultative Constructions



However, the following are exceptions for the occurrence of resultative constructions:

- i. They cannot co-occur with directionals.
- ii. They cannot be applied to theme arguments of ditransitive expressions.
- iii. Two different resultative phrases cannot occur together.
- iv. They cannot occur with motion verbs unless a metaphorical interpretation is underlying it.

In Kimeru, the suppletive pairs of lexical causatives show direct causation and an event's endpoint; hence lexical causatives occur with resultative. For example:

(26) Kamau a-k-urag-a ithe

Kamau 3PS-TNS-kill-CAUS-FV father

'Kamau has killed his father.'

In the above sentence, it is noted that Kamau's father has died, which is the result of the action denoted by the verb.

To be noted, what distinguishes resultative constructions from other constructions is the fact that resultative require an inciter argument, which is generally animate. They can only apply to patient arguments and occur with lexical causatives and not analytic causatives. Resultative constructions occur with direct causation (meaning no intervening period between the beginning and end of the action). The adjectives occurring with resultative must be able to

denote an endpoint of a scale, and mostly these adjectives are non-gradable adjectives that show that an activity cannot go on anymore.

3.7. Transitive Constructions

A transitive construction refers to any expression that takes an object (direct object). It is also known as a monotransitive verb. The predicate of transitive constructions has one object. Unlike a transitive verb construction whose action is non-volitional and non-agentive, transitive constructions have an obligatory agent.

Causation leads to the addition of a causer argument in the predicate of intransitive verbs, which acts on the causee to act. Transitive construction, therefore, has the syntactic structure Subject Verb Object whose meaning can be represented as X causes Y to do/change Z by V-ing. Once causation occurs, the non-causative verb's subject becomes an object that is semantically a patient since there is an agent (causer) in the causative form. In morphological causatives, the addition of a suffix to the verb's base changes the verb form's semantics and valence from intransitive to transitive and from transitive to ditransitive. The causative morpheme, in this case, is said to be a transitivizer (causer of transitivity); Kimeru morphological causatives can illustrate this as below:

(27a) Nguo i-kuuma.

Clothes 3PS-TNS-dry-FV

'The clothes have dried.'

(27b) Kathambi a-ku-um-i-a ngu

Kathambi 3PS-TNS-dry-CAUS-FV clothes

'Kathambi has dried the clothes.'

The transitive construction is part of morphological causatives, and the respective templates will be discussed in chapter 4.

3.8. Conclusion

This chapter has explained the different faces of causative verbs in Kimeru constructions. It has looked at transitive, ditransitive, caused-motion, and resultative constructions that occur

with Kimeru causatives and the different argument roles they take. It has been noted that for a verb to occur in a specific construction, the participant roles related to the verb must fuse or be linked to the argument roles of the constructions.

Causation is a valence-increasing operation in Kimeru. This can be accounted for by the transitive and ditransitive constructions explained above. We have also seen that the Kimeru causative morphemes *-i-* and *-ithi-* is a transitivizer. However, Goldberg's generalizations on the meaning and form of transitive and ditransitive constructions create a gap when applied to morphological causatives in Kimeru. This necessitates a modified way of how these templates should look like when applied to morphological causatives.

This study also acknowledges a continuum that exists from lexical, though morphological to analytic causatives in Kimeru, which correlates to a continuum from direct, through less direct to an indirect causation.

It has also been observed that caused-motion and the resultative constructions occur only with lexical and analytic causatives in Kimeru and not with morphological causatives. The transitive and ditransitive constructions, however, occur with morphological causatives in Kimeru. This leads us to a closer look at the morphological causative and the argument structure they occur in chapter four.

CHAPTER FOUR: THE ARGUMENT STRUCTURE OF MORPHOLOGICAL CAUSATIVE CONSTRUCTIONS

4.1 Introduction

This chapter is concerned with the argument structure of Kimeru morphological causatives. Majorly, Goldberg's works will be informed and will involve modification of the frameworks laid done by Goldberg to accommodate constructions involving morphological causatives in Kimeru. It is a chapter narrowed down from the discussion and argument in chapter three, which majorly involves what Goldberg terms as the introductory sentence structure of different constructions. This chapter will seek to explain morphological causatives constructions, which is not analyzed by Goldberg since her data source in English and English does not have morphological types of causatives.

In the first section, this study will analyze the Kimeru causative morpheme in relation to construction grammar ideas of form and meaning pairing. An illustration using morphological causatives will also be shown both for the -i- morpheme and the -thi- morpheme, which are the two morphological causatives in Kimeru. In the second section, the study will make an introduction to the argument structure and its relationship to construction grammar. In the third section of this chapter, the transitive construction of morphological causatives in Kimeru will be discussed. A generalization of how the argument structure of morphological causatives intransitive construction looks like analyzed using its corresponding template in a construction grammar approach. And in the second last section of this chapter, the argument structure of the ditransitive construction of morphological causatives will be outlined, and a modification of its templates in order to accommodate morphological causatives will be structured. Lastly, a conclusion will be made in the last section of this chapter about the argument structure of morphological causatives in Kimeru using the construction grammar approach and whether that construction grammar approach can account for different construction cross-linguistically.

4.2. The Causative Morpheme as a Construction

In Kimeru, morphological causatives are marked by the morpheme -i- and -ithi-. Construction grammar considers morphemes to be part of the lexicon; hence they are constructions. According to constructionists, the output of a morphological process is stored in the lexicon as constructions. Booij (2010) noted that since these morphemes lead to the formation of productive causatives, one can easily predict how new (causatives) are formed from verbs. Morphology affects all three dimensions of a word; these are phonological, syntactic, and semantic. In English, for example, the prefix un- is a morpheme attached to adjectives to show the opposite its form and meaning representation can be illustrated as below:

FORM:	PHONOLOGY:	[[ɸn ₋₁] X ₂] ₃
	MORPHOLOGY:	{{UN ₋₁ } ADJ ₂ } ADJ ₃ }
MEANING:	SEMANTICS:	'not ₁ A ₂ ' ₃

In the above structure, 'X' is a variable that can be replaced by an adjective which, when attached to the morpheme 'un-' would bring about an opposite counterpart. The numerical ₁, ₂, and ₃ in the representation stand for the different constructions that can be identified in the adjectives' formation. It is known as the co-indexation of components that form the complex adjective. That is the construction co-indexed 1, and the construction co-indexed 2 form the construction co-indexed 3. Each of these constructions is stored independently in the human mind. The above schema represents the form and meaning pairing of adjectives such as untrue, unfaithful, unclean, and untidy, among others.

If we attempt to explain the form meaning representation of the adjective 'dishonest' which has a different morpheme will be:

FORM:	PHONOLOGY:	[[dis ₋₁] ɔnest ₂] ₃
	MORPHOLOGY:	[[DIS ₋₁] ADJ ₂] ADJ ₃
MEANING:	SEMANTICS:	'dishonest' ₃

In Kimeru, the causative morphemes can be represented below for the -i- and -ithi- morpheme respectively in form and meaning pairs:

FORM: PHONOLOGY: $[X_2 [-i-1] X_2]_3$
 MORPHOLOGY: $[V_2 [-i-1] V_2] V_3$

MEANING: SEMANTICS: ‘ V_2-i-1 ’ V_3

FORM: PHONOLOGY: $[X_2 [-i\ddot{o}i-1] X_2]_3$

MORPHOLOGY: $[V_2 [-ithi-1] V_2] V_3$

MEANING: SEMANTICS: ‘ $V_2-ithi-1$ ’ V_3

For example, the form and meaning pairing of the Kimeru verb *ruga* ‘to cook’ in its causative form *rugithia* ‘make to cook’ will be represented as below:

FORM: PHONOLOGY: $[rug_2 [-i\ddot{o}i-1] a_2]_3$

MORPHOLOGY: $[rug_2 [-ithi-1] a_2] V_3$

MEANING: SEMANTICS: ‘*rugithia*’ (make to cook)

The form and meaning pairing of the Kimeru verb *ina* ‘sing’ in its causative form *inia* ‘cause to sing’ will be represented as below:

FORM: PHONOLOGY: $[in_2 [-i-1] a_2]_3$

MORPHOLOGY: $[in_2 [-i-1] a_2] V_3$

MEANING: SEMANTICS: ‘*inia*’ (cause to sing)

The verb ‘*ina*’ is intransitive. However, this verb can occur with the two causative morphemes -i- and -ithi- yielding both the transitive or ditransitive constructions, as will be discussed in the preceding sections of this chapter. The form and meaning pairing of the causative

morphemes can be derived for argument structures of the transitive and ditransitive constructions in Kimeru.

In summary, it is significant to show the form and meaning pairing of the two causative morphemes in Kimeru. The two morphemes are distinct constructions which are lexicalized differently though semantically similar. The pair with -i-, is used for intransitive verbs that change into transitive ones, while the -ithi- is for transitive verbs that change into ditransitive ones. Learners of Kimeru, when learning Kimeru, can recognize and distinguish between the occurrences of these morphemes. Learners can also use the verbs formed from these morphemes in different syntactic frames, especially considering that the -i- morpheme does not occur in ditransitive constructions. This leads us to the next section on the verbs' argument structure, such as those with morphological causatives.

4.3 Argument Structure Approach to Construction Grammar

Goldberg (1995) seeks to explain what someone learns when learning a language. Goldberg first acknowledges and agrees with other construction grammar linguists that a construction involves form and meaning pairing. She provides a framework of generalizing construction cross-linguistically, as discussed in chapter three, as a way of generalization at some levels of argument structure constructions.

According to Goldberg, the study of argument structure provide the basic meaning of clausal patterns in a language. For example, the verb's meaning can be accounted for differently if the same verb occurs in different constructions. The semantic expressions in these different constructions are attributed to the constructions themselves and not to the verb that occurs with them; see chapter three.

A presupposition of the argument structure construction involves 'a combination of roles that designate humanly relevant scenes' (Goldberg1995: 40). This involves event types that basically denote someone acting on or causing change on someone else or something. Another principle posited by the argument structure is a distinction between participant roles (those provided by the verb) and argument roles (those associated with the construction).

The verb is taken to be of uttermost importance in the analysis of constructions in the argument structure. It determines the number of arguments it can co-occur with. The meaning of a sentence construction is attached to the meaning of every element it is constituted of and the syntactic form combining these elements to make an expression. Goldberg terms this as a notion of ‘compositionality’ in (Goldberg1995:13).

In her framework, Goldberg displays a precise mapping of semantic roles and their syntactic correspondence in analyzing different constructions' argument structure. However, the verb's meaning has to be associated with frame semantics meaning (as an encyclopedic entry) and not to the constructional meaning, which basically involves the fusion of semantic and syntactic roles. The role of frame semantics in interpreting and constructing meaning in argument structure constructions cannot be underestimated as it helps in preemption and making correct inferences.

However, this chapter seeks to find templates for morphological causative construction in Kimeru and build up on the gaps created by Goldberg’s generalizations on the argument structure. Morphemes are constructions since they are part of a linguistic process in a language. They, therefore, have a form and a function. The pattern of forming morphological causatives in Kimeru is productive and is stored in the human mind as construction. Goldberg also remarks that sentence patterns of a language seem to involve constructions.

On profiling of roles, Goldberg (1995) explains that a verb has roles that are profiled (obligatory in all uses of the verb) and those that are non-profiled (not attached to the verb meaning). Profiled roles are indicated in bold. The non-profiled roles are a contribution of the argument structure construction it is occurring in.

The main verb combines with other argument structures to birth different constructions such as the intransitive, transitive, and ditransitive. This study seeks to discuss the transitive and ditransitive structure of morphological causatives in Kimeru and show a generalization laid down in its templates. Goldberg says that there is an assumption that the form and meaning of sentence patterns is considered from a semantic and syntactic viewpoint. This happens with the help of the syntactic and semantic information specified by the (main) verb. Since morphological causatives in Kimeru occur due to the addition of a causative morpheme to a

basic verb, the derived verb forms the main verb in the constructions they occur in, in this case, the transitive and intransitive constructions. The causatives have a wide matrix of complements from two-argument roles to three-argument roles.

4.4. Transitive Construction in Morphological Causatives

This refers to a construction that has one object in the predicate of an expression. In the case of Kimeru, a transitive construction is formed from an intransitive verb by the addition of the -i- morpheme. For example:

(28) Gina wa karimi a-ku-thur-a.

Mother of Karimi 3S-TNS-annoy-FV

'Karimi's mother is annoyed.'

The above sentence is an intransitive sentence in which the intransitive verb is 'thura.'

The transitive version of this sentence would be illustrated as below:

(29) Karimi a-ku-thur-i-a gina wae.

Karimi 3S-TNS-annoy-CAUS-FV mother her

'Karimi has annoyed her mother / made her mother annoyed.'

This sentence has the verb 'thura' as being transitive due to the causative morpheme's addition. The causative morpheme extends it, and thus an additional object is added.

In this sense, then the sentence has Karimi's mother as the subject and the rest of the sentence as the predicate containing an intransitive verb 'thura.' By causativization, however, there is formation of a transitive construction in which an agent 'Karimi' is added and the subject 'gina wa Karimi' of the intransitive sentence becomes the object (gina wae) of the transitive sentence. The differences in the subject and object in this sentence result from the pronoun 'wae' which stands for 'her' and the possessive marker in 'gina wa Karimi' that is 'Karimi's mother.

A template for transitive constructions can be represented as below as a modification from Goldberg's notion on the argument structure of the transitive constructions. The form of transitive constructions is 'subject' 'verb' 'object' while the meaning, according to Goldberg,

is X ACTS ON Y. This can be represented by the following schematic generalization of form and meaning pairing.

SUBJ V OBJ \longleftrightarrow ACT-ON <agent, patient>

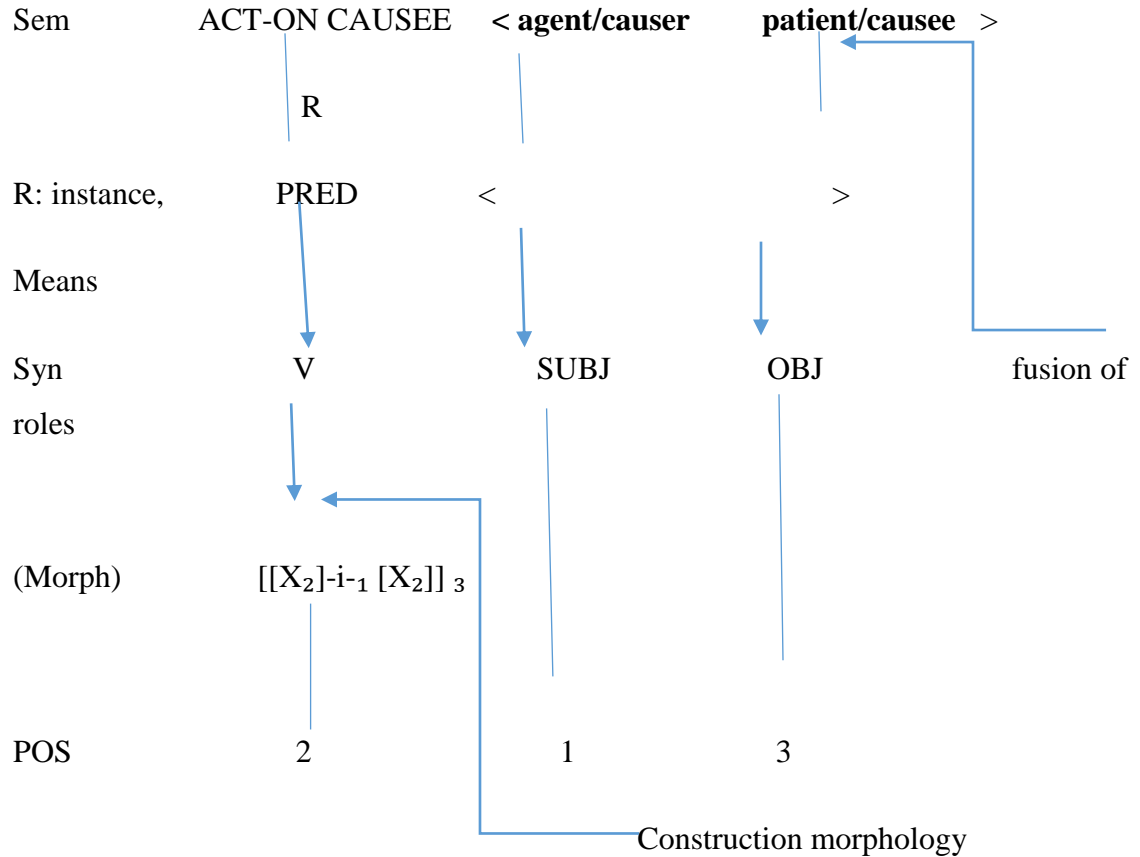
The two-direction arrow represents a relationship between a particular form and its meaning. In this representation, there is nothing that indicates that the verb has undergone a morphological process of causativization. To show this for morphological causative verbs in Kimeru, we generate the following generalization: In analyzing the argument structure of morphological causatives, we postulate a modified notation of the above schematic representation to be as follows:

i) SUBJ V OBJ \longleftrightarrow ACT- ON (CAUSEE)> **AGENT, PATIENT**>

ii) SUBJ V OBJ \longleftrightarrow ACT-ON (CAUSEE) [(PRED) V [[X₂]-i-₁ [X₂]] ₃]
<**CAUSER, CAUSEE**>

The structural representation of the morphological causatives argument structure for transitive constructions is suggested as below:

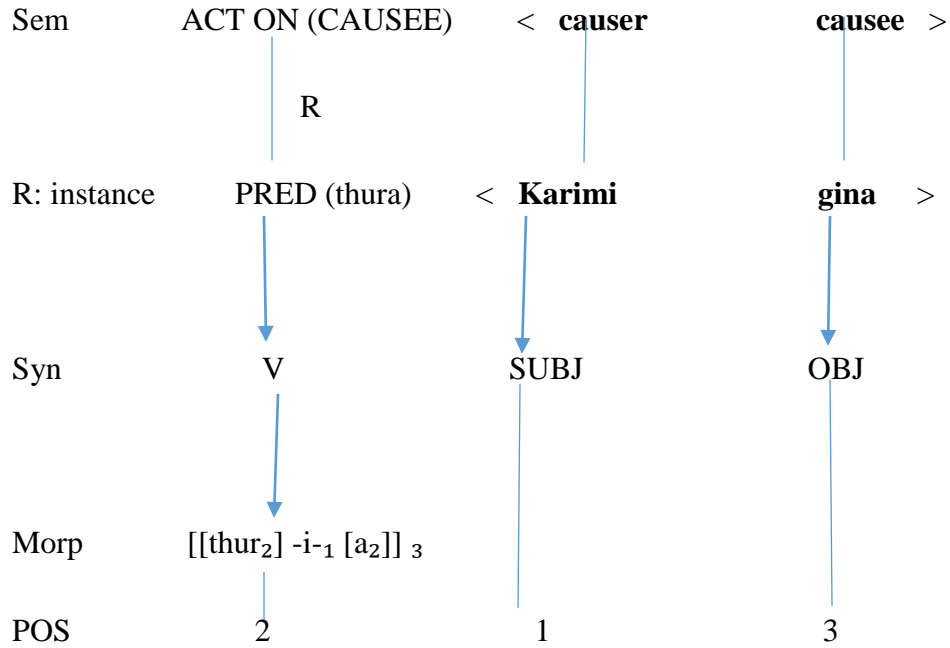
Fig 5: Transitive Construction for Morphological Causative Verbs



A morphological representation of the causative verb is proposed as an addition to this template by an illustration of the form and meaning of the morphological causative verb represented by the morphology slot in the above diagram. This is for the argument structure of a transitive construction. The linear order of how the arguments occur intransitive sentences is also added by the position slot. There is, however, no specification of the mood or voice of the sentence. Construction morphology abbreviated as CxM is a notion of construction grammar that accounts for morphemes' form and meaning pairing.

In the transitive construction, the argument structure of morphological causatives will be interpreted as in the structure below, using the example of sentence one above.

Fig 6. The Fused Structure of the Transitive Verb Thura ‘Annoyed’



As illustrated above, the predicate-argument structure can take two arguments in this case, ‘Karimi and ‘gina.’ The thematic roles are always equal to the number of arguments the verb can take.

4.4.1. Resultative Constructions for Morphological Causatives

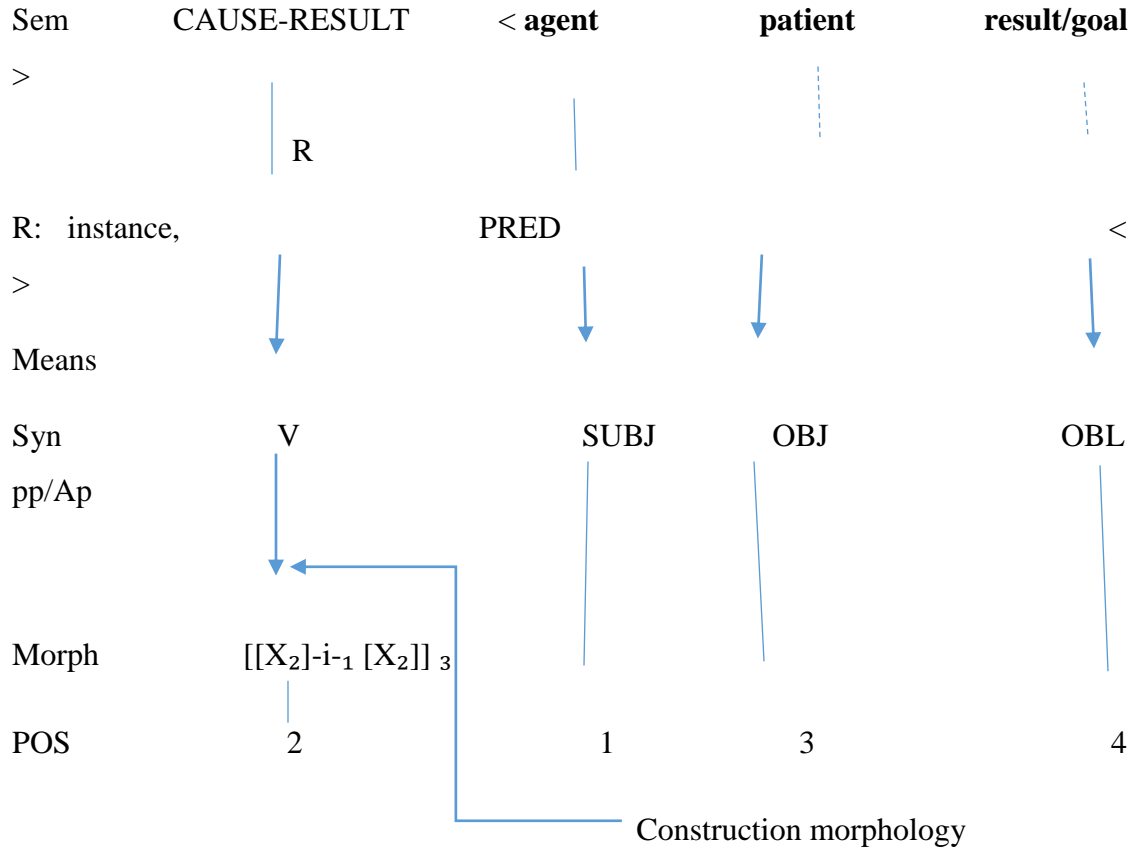
As noted in chapter three, section 3.6, resultative constructions refer to arguments resulting in a state change due to the action denoted by the verb involved. This introduces an argument role that is semantically a patient. We choose to discuss resultative as a sub-section of transitive construction because they have the same syntactic structure, although different semantic concepts. Actually, resultative apply to direct objects of transitive verbs.

The structural syntactic representation of resultatives is SUBJ V OBJ OBL. The oblique of resultative construction is usually a non-gradable adjective.

The meaning of resultative constructions is X causes Y to become Z by Ving, according to Goldberg (1995). Here this meaning will be modified to fit into Kimeru morphological causatives to X causes Y to result in Z by Ving. Other changes will be as those that occurred for transitive and ditransitive constructions.

The causative morpheme -i- in Kimeru leads to the formation of resultative constructions. It can be represented as in the figure below;

Fig. 7: Resultative Constructions for Morphological Causatives



For example:

(30a) Kathambi a-ku-um-i-a nguo jiauma

Kathambi 3PS- TNS- dry-CAUS-FV dry

'Kathambi has made the clothes dry.'

(30b) Kathambi a-ku-thamb-i-a nyomba yathera.

Kathambi 3PS-TNS-wash-CAUS-FV house clean.

'Kathambi has washed the house clean / has made the house clean.'

Resultative constructions denote a change of state or accomplishment of something. For example, sentence (30a) denotes a change of state from wet to dry. On the exception, they do not occur with directional neither can they be applied to the theme argument of ditransitive constructions. Unlike the caused-motion constructions, resultatives do not occur with motion verbs, as we shall see in section 4.4.2 on caused-motion constructions.

4.4.2. Caused-Motion Construction for Morphological Causatives

Caused-motion verbs are verbs that denote that something or someone causes another (thing or someone) to move from one place to another or in a certain direction. Caused-motion verbs are basically having a grammatical relation set of Subject Verb Direct Object and Oblique (path/location) configuration just like that of resultative construction. Its meaning can be framed as X causes Y to move Z by V-ing. They occur with motion verbs such as fall, run, lift, etc.

For example

(31a) Mwamba a-ku-matuk-i-a Makena majanini.

Thief 3PS-TNS- run-CAUS-FV Makena

'The thief has made Makena run in the tea plantation.'

(31 b) Kimani a-gu-kir-i-a nkunia kuma ndi.

Kimani 3PS-TNS-lift-CAUS-FV sack from down

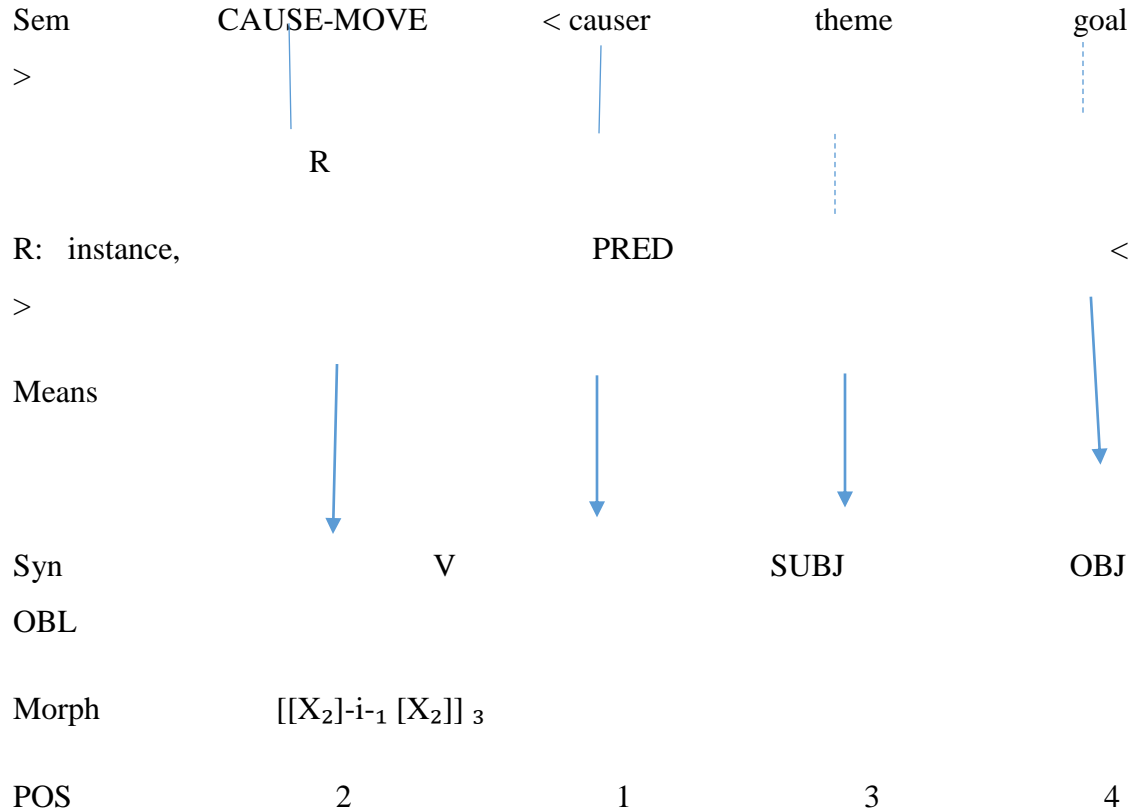
'Kimani has lifted the sack from the ground.'

(31c) Muthomi a-ku-gw-ithi-a suba ndi

Muthomi 3PS-TNS-fall-CAUS-FV bottle down

'Muthomi has made the bottle fall down.'

Fig. 8: Caused-Motion Construction for Morphological Causatives



For the caused-motion construction, the template does not change. It remains as postulated by Goldberg except for the addition of the morphology slot and the arguments' linear arrangement.

Example (31c) seems to be a contradiction. However, a few verbs change their transitivity from intransitive to transitive using the causative *-ithi-*. Here the meaning of *fall* changes to *drop*. For example:

(32) Mwana a-ku-gw-ithi-a gikombe ndi.

Child 3PS-TNS-drop-CAUS-FV cup down

'The child has dropped the cup down.'

4.5 Ditransitive Construction in Morphological Causatives

It is a construction that involves a verb taking two objects, a direct and indirect object. Basically, it is a predicate with two noun phrases. The point of departure from the templates and meaning portrayed by Goldberg about ditransitive construction lies in the fact that Kimeru morphological causatives neither form a structure which does not imply the meaning X CAUSES Y TO RECEIVE Z BY V-ing nor does it have a basic sense of successful transfer. This structure and meaning can only be a generalization of other types of causatives such as those Goldberg terms as ‘verbs of instantaneous causation of ballistic motion’ and ‘verbs of continuous causation in a deictically specified direction’ (Goldberg1995:38). However, all those do not apply to morphological causatives, such as those found in Kimeru. For example:

(33a) Kathambi a-ku-ur-ithi-a mwana nguo.

Kathambi 3PS-TNS-wash-CAUS-FV child clothes

‘Kathambi has made the child wash clothes.’

(33b) Mwari a-ku-gwat-ithi-a burana mwaki.

Girl 3PS-TNS-catch-CAUS-FV sweater fire

‘The girl has made the sweater catch fire.’

In sentence (33a) and means that the agent ‘Kathambi’ has caused the recipient ‘mwana’ to wash clothes. It is a ditransitive sentence with two objects. The recipient can choose to wash the clothes or not wash the clothes, which would mean that the meaning of successful completion of the action will not be achieved. It, therefore, has a concealed meaning that Kathambi had the intention of making the child wash clothes. It, however, does not have the meaning cause to receive. Same for sentence (33b). now look at the sentence below:

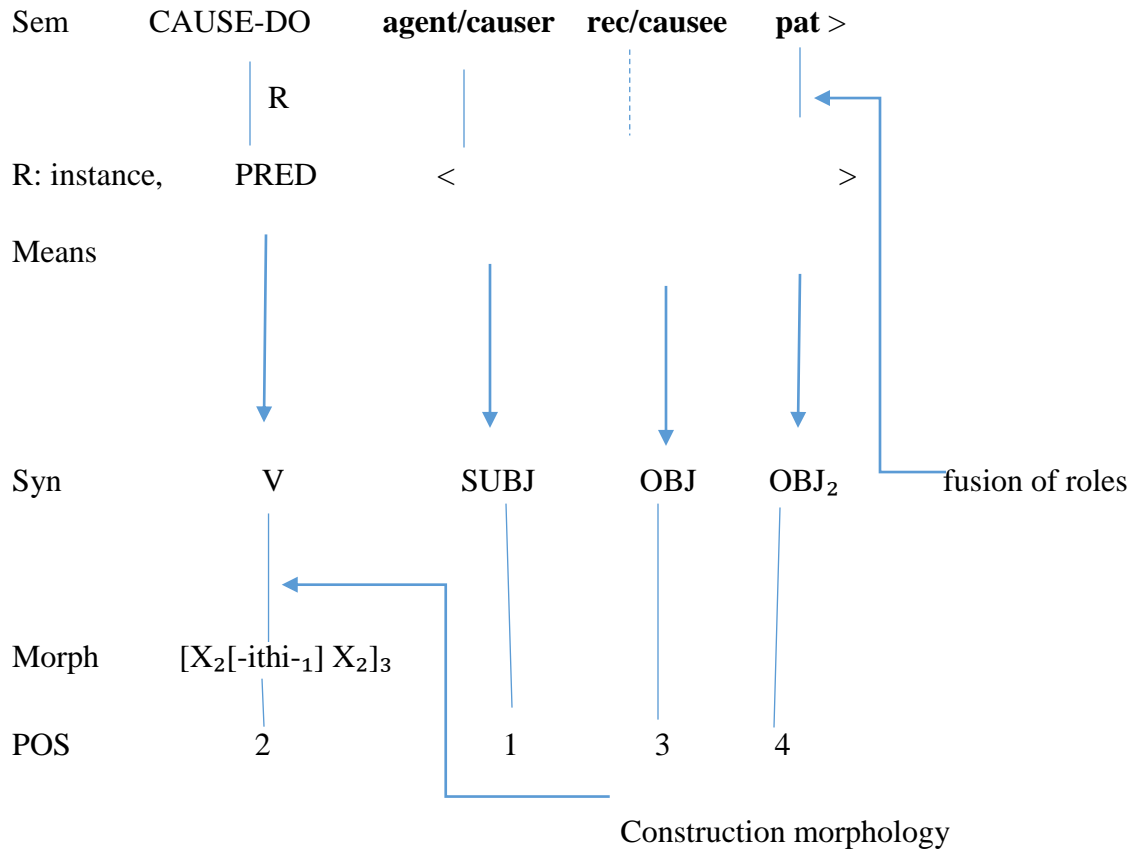
(34) Kathambi a-ku-ur-ithi-a mwana nguo na a-i-ur-a.

Kathambi 3S-TNS-wash-CAUS-FV child clothes and 3PS-TNS-3PL-wash-FV

‘Kathambi has made the child wash clothes, and she washed them.’

This sentence denotes the completion of an activity of washing clothes, unlike sentence (33a). Whereas sentence (34) has the meaning of completing the action denoted by the causative verb, sentence (33a) seems to lack that meaning. In languages, however, the natural way of speaking would be as in sentence (33a), unlike sentence six, which is used when reporting

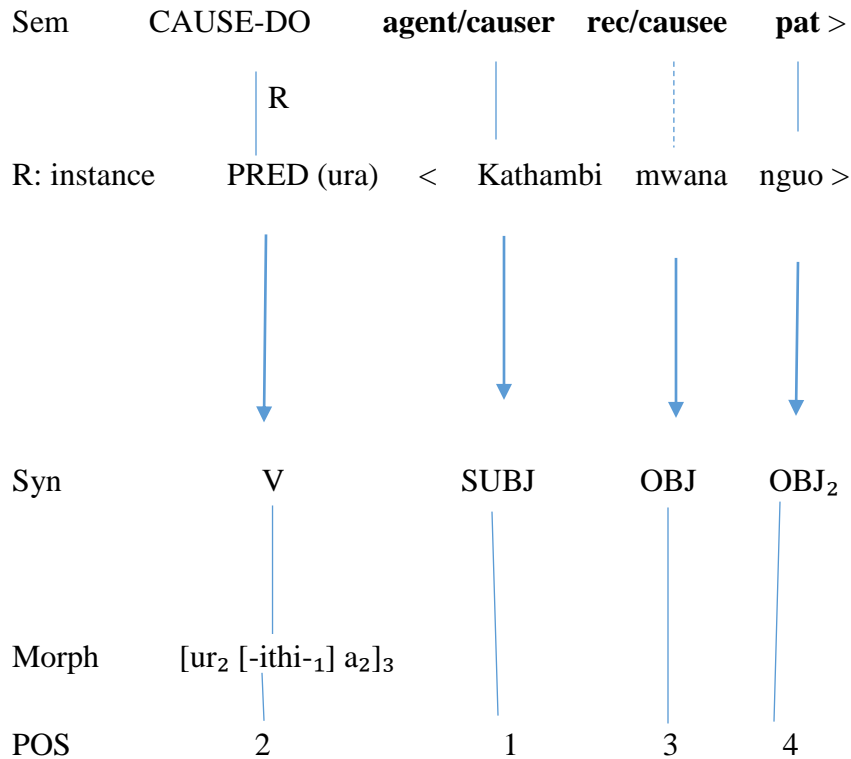
Fig.9: Ditransitive Construction for Morphological Causatives



In this template, we propose the meaning cause to do and not cause to receive, as Goldberg explained. The recipient role in ditransitive construction is the only semantic role linked to the object's grammatical function. This is due to the existence of two noun phrases after the verb.

The representation of sentence 5a) above would be as follows:

Fig 10. The Fused Structure of the Ditransitive Verb Ura ‘Wash’



4.6. Other Causatives

Apart from the morphological causative in Kimeru, there is the analytic ‘tuma’ causative and lexical causatives. The morphological causative cannot co-occur with the other types of causatives. There are, however, instances of double causation in Kimeru where the analytic ‘tuma’ occurs with the morphological causative. For example:

(35a) Gina a-gu-tum-a ithe a-thinj-ithi-a mburi.

Mother 3PS-TNS-make-CAUS-FV father 3PS-slaughter-CAUS-FV goat
‘The mother made the father to make the goat be slaughtered.’

(35b). Mwalimu a-gu-tum-a muritwa a-thek-i-a muntu

Teacher 3PS-TNS-make-FV pupil 3PS- laugh-CAUS-FV person.
‘The teacher has made the pupil cause the person to laugh.’

As shown above, double causation occurs as a combination of the causative morpheme and the analytic causative. The analytic causative in Kimeru can occur in the argument structure of caused-motion constructions, as was discussed in chapter three, section 3.4.

The lexical causatives, on the other hand, are known for accounting for direct causation; hence they occur with the argument structure of caused-motion and resultative constructions as in chapter three section 3.6. This chapter, however, deviated from analyzing these types of causatives since they do not seem to occur naturally in Kimeru as compared to English and ventured into morphological causatives only.

4.7. Conclusion

A morphological causative construction involves the specification of an additional argument, which in this case, is a causer into the basic clause. A morphological causative construction is recognizable in a language because of a causer's addition to the sentence's underlying clause. In Kimeru, causativization of non-causative verbs by affixation results in intransitive and ditransitive constructions. It is this process that changes an intransitive verb into a transitive verb and a ditransitive verb. In the transitive construction, the argument structure also occurs in the caused-motion constructions and the resultative constructions, which are not observed in ditransitive constructions.

The above-explained templates provide a unification and integration of the structural and lexical information in the argument structure of transitive, resultative, caused-motion, and ditransitive constructions for morphological causatives in Kimeru. Morphemes are proven to be constructions that can be represented schematically.

For both causative morphemes in Kimeru, a causer argument is added, and this changes the subject of the intransitive verb to be the object of the transitive verb and ditransitive verb which it occurs. The verbs formed after causativization function as the main verbs in these constructions. Although it was mainly observed that the morpheme *-i-* attaches to intransitive verbs and *-ithi-* to transitive verbs. Double causation also occurs in Kimeru by combining the analytic causative 'tuma' and the morphological causative with *-ithi-* morpheme.

As a final remark, other types of causatives are the analytic 'tuma,' and the lexical causatives and the idea of double causation, are evident in Kimeru. Their argument structure was well accounted for using the construction grammar in chapter three since they basically correspond to the English causatives that were analyzed by Goldberg.

CHAPTER FIVE: SUMMARY, CONCLUSION, AND RECOMMENDATION

5.1. Summary of the Findings

The study showed that Kimeru has seven short vowels with their long counterpart. The language has twenty-three consonants with nine consonants prenasalized in the Igoji dialect. After that, the study discussed the three types of causatives found in Kimeru. These included: the morphological causatives, the analytic causative, and the lexical causatives. Kimeru applies three ways of forming causatives. It is a multi-strategy language as far as causation is concerned. The morphological causative in Kimeru is highly productive. It involves a morphological process whereby a verb is derived into another.

On the argument structure of causatives, constructions in Kimeru caused-motion constructions were discussed and corresponding templates provided from Goldberg drawn. Ditransitive constructions were also analyzed as well as resultative constructions. It was noted that these constructions occur only with lexical and analytic causatives and never with morphological causatives. This analysis concludes that these types of constructions show direct causation and not indirect causation. Goldberg's analysis proved not to be centered on analyzing morphological causative verbs, which then prompted us to devise accounting for the argument structure of morphological causatives in Kimeru.

The form and meaning pairing for the causative morphemes in Kimeru was discussed, examining the argument structure in a construction grammar approach, as explained by Goldberg. There was an endeavor to analyze the argument structure of transitive caused-motion, resultatives, and ditransitive constructions for morphological causative verbs in Kimeru. A generalization and schematic representation of these constructions was discussed with modifications made where necessary in order to account for the argument structure of morphological causatives in Kimeru. Apart from the templates drawn from Goldberg's works, Booij's analysis of the construction morphology was of importance to this study. It helped in modifying the templates for morphological causatives by providing a link between syntax and morphology. Therefore a slot to accommodate the form and meaning pairing for morphological causative was created. Also, as a way of modification, the linear arrangement of construction was exemplified.

5.2. Conclusion

From the analysis of the data collected and the findings discussed above, this study draws the following conclusions:

One, Kimeru causative verbs can be handled using the construction grammar approach, and its data accounted for using the construction grammar theory to the argument structure. Goldberg's analysis of basic sentence constructions was in totality able to account for Kimeru lexical and analytic causatives as they occurred in the argument structure of caused-motion, ditransitive and resultative verbs.

Second, the Kimeru morphological process of forming causative verbs is highly productive. This allows for entrenchment and preemption of this type of verbs in the human mind. What proved problematic was how to account for morphological causative verbs using the construction grammar approach. However, with few modifications on the argument structure of the transitive construction, caused-motion resultative, and the ditransitive constructions templates from Goldberg (1995), we developed schemas for how a typical argument structure of morphological causatives would look like. This was also built upon the idea of considering morphemes to be constructions, and a closer look at Booj (2010) works on construction morphology. Although the construction grammar theory has some loopholes, the different approaches taken by constructionists in their efforts to explain that all aspects of a language are constructions that are stored in the human mind and that there is no distinction between the lexicon and syntax aid greatly in accounting for cross linguistics disparities.

Language is defined as a conventional way of using symbols in communication. Linguists of the early years, like de Saussure, termed language as involving linguistic signs, sound patterns, and mental concepts. It is from these notions that the construction grammar ideal of arbitrary form and meaning pairing is anchored. These linguistic signs are schematic, and their templates can be filled with linguistic materials, as observed with causatives in Kimeru. Works of construction grammar portray a syntactic approach to cognitive linguistics, and therefore it is a theory that is adequately equipped to account for how language is learned, and it is recommendable for pedagogical purposes in the study of linguistics.

5.3. Recommendation

Although this study looked at causation in Kimeru from a construction grammar approach, it only dwelled on the argument structure of causative verbs in Kimeru. Therefore, it is recommended that a further study be conducted to account for the frequency and overgeneralization patterns of these constructions in Kimeru. We explain how causatives are entrenched and preempted by language learners showing the mental representations and processing of causative verbs. Since construction grammar is a theory that has not received much study in African languages, we also recommend that more research be conducted to find out if this theory can apply to all languages and especially those whose morphological system is indeed very productive.

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