

**A FUNCTIONAL GRAMMAR APPROACH TO THE
ANALYSIS OF GIKUYU EMPHATIC CLAUSES**

BY

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DECLARATION

This dissertation is my original work and has not been presented for a degree in any other university.

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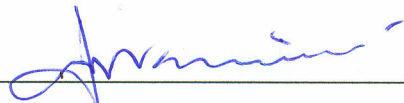
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DEDICATION

This work is dedicated to my dear wife Alice, my two sons Albert and Arnold and my dear mother Monica.

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This project would not have been a success at all had it all depended on me alone.

I owe gratitude to God whose grace kept me moving all through. May He be glorified forever. I heartily thank my supervisors, Dr. Mwangi and Dr. Wangia, who have guided me with great patience to shape this project right from the scratch. Their mentoring all the way long has been invaluable. I owe gratitude to all the teaching staff of the Kenyatta University Department of English and Linguistics and the non-teaching staff at the department such as Kirui for their great assistance and encouragement.

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To all these and many others, may God bless and reward you in his best way.

ABBREVIATIONS

Adj P- adjectival phrase

A- adverbial

C- complement

N- noun

NP- noun phrase

Pron- pronoun

S- subject

SVC- subject-verb-complement

SVO- subject-verb object

SVOA- subject-verb-object-adverbial

S-C- subject-complement

V- verb

VP- verb phrase

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DEFINITION OF TERMS

clitic - a morpheme with syntactic characteristics of a word but phonologically bound to another.

communicative competence- ability to communicate proficiently or speak appropriately in a community

configuration- combination of linguistic elements forming a clause

conflated- (of more than one function) realized by a single linguistic element at the same time

emphatic structures- clauses with linguistic elements ordered for the purpose of stressing a part of the clause

enclitic- a clitic that follows its host

end focus- a kind of prominence achieved by placing a linguistic element towards the end of the clause

endoclititic- a clitic that splits the root and is inserted between the two parts

end weight- a kind of prominence achieved by placing a long and complex linguistic element towards or at the end of the clause

linguistic competence- speaker's knowledge of a language, his ability to produce grammatically correct sentences

paradigmatic- organized in sets from which choices can be made

polarity- (of a sentence) either positive or negative

pragmatics- the use of language in a particular situation

primary tense- past, present or future at the moment of speaking, time relative to

now

secondary tense- past, present or future relative to primary tense

structure- a viable meaningful combination of functions like Mood and Residue

synesis- a grammar based on functional conceptual framework

topicalisation- fronting an element in a clause to make it the topic of the sentence

ABSTRACT

There is need to preserve and popularise African languages and scholars like Momanyi (2007) call for research, documentation and preservation of the languages by the native speakers. This work is a response to this need.

It is a work divided into five chapters. The first chapter is the introduction which provides a background to the study and the statement of the problem. The section also shows the need to study the emphatic structures of Gikuyu, being an area that has been neglected in the past. Also noted is the need to analyse the Gikuyu emphatic clauses functionally, another relatively neglected area since many of the past scholars have used a formal approach. The study has established the categories of Gikuyu emphatic structures, described the order of the linguistic elements in them, identified the kind of prominence they achieve and established how they can be analysed functionally.

The chapter also highlights the significance of the study, justifying it in terms of its applied, practical and theoretical significance. It closes with the scope and limitations of the study.

The second chapter provides a review of literature relevant to the study. The literature includes studies on Gikuyu and other Bantu languages. Some studies that

have applied Functional Grammar theories have also been reviewed. The section then provides a description of the theory to be applied, Functional Grammar Theory by Halliday (1985).

The methodology used is described in the third chapter. It starts with the research design, which is qualitative, followed by the sampling size and procedure. Purposive sampling has been applied. Data collection procedure follows. The chapter ends with data analysis and presentation method. The data is analysed thematically.

Chapter four presents and analyses the data. It is divided into two sections. Section one presents the syntactic emphatic categories that have been identified in Gikuyu. They are classified into three broad categories: the reordering class, the postponement class and the dislocation class. Categories under each class are discussed in details, giving the order of elements in the categories and the kinds of prominence assigned to the highlighted elements in them. The second part applies Halliday's Functional Grammar Theory (1985) to analyse the clauses in terms of *clause as exchange*.

The last chapter, chapter five, summarizes the findings of the study. It further draws the conclusion, gives recommendations and finally suggests some areas related to the study for further research.

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CHAPTER 1

1.0 INTRODUCTION

This first chapter is an introduction to the study. It provides its background and the statement of problem. This is followed by the objectives and the research, questions and assumptions. Justification and significance of the study follows and the chapter closes with the scope and limitations.

1.1 BACKGROUND TO THE STUDY

Many people consider African languages inferior to European ones. Some Africans themselves have internalized the idea, disliking their own (African) names and languages (Momanyi, 2007). Many Gikuyu native speakers, especially the young ones, tend to use English a lot in their communication instead of Gikuyu.

European languages have been more extensively studied and developed than the African languages. For instance, Lehinste (1970:19) observes that the language that had been most widely studied, at least by then, was English and there had been an assumption that what held in the language was generally true. In other

words, what applied in English could generally apply in other languages. This, however, can only be verified through studying other languages more.

To change the mentality that African languages are inferior, there has been a rising need to study and develop them. Momanyi (2007) calls upon African scholars and researchers to research, document and preserve local African languages, noting their importance as vehicles of knowledge. He adds that the languages should speak for the continent and should be developed to maintain the African culture. They are the languages of the majority in the continent, hence the languages of enculturation and socialization in the intra-ethnic African setting.

Many scholars have embarked on this course. Such include King'ori (2005) who has studied Kiswahili and Njoroge (2004) whose study is on Gikuyu. Institutions of higher learning have even established centres for African languages. These include University of Pennsylvania which has African Studies Centre and Goethe University – Germany with Institute of African Linguistics. There is therefore need to conduct studies on the languages to complement these efforts.

In East Africa, Kiswahili is the most widely used language, being used by both the educated and the non-educated, hence the need to study and develop it. This however does not water down the need to study other languages in the region.

Such languages include Gikuyu, the language this research seeks to study. It is true that to communicate in any language knowledge of its grammar is paramount. This encompasses what Chomsky (1965 and 1986) terms as *linguistic competence*, which is the speaker's knowledge of a language, his ability to produce grammatically correct sentences (Wardhaugh, 1986). It is therefore important for researchers to study these grammars.

In addition, it is also important to focus on how grammar functions to give meaning since communication is all about passing meaning. One significant concern of linguists should be how the functions of a language relate to the language itself (Kress, 1976:7). This is a concern of Functional Grammar.

Halliday (1985) identifies three functions of language: *ideational/reflexive function*, *interpersonal/active function* and *textual function*. (See Theoretical Framework). The ability to communicate competently, or rather to speak appropriately in a community, is what Wardhaugh (1986) terms as *communicative competence*. It is important to be competent in different languages, especially now that the world has become a global village.

There is need to move beyond the morphology and formal grammar of the African languages and consider the functional aspect of the languages. This is the angle from which this study intends to approach Gikuyu since most of the scholars who have studied the language have applied the formal approach. See Ndung'u (1991)

who analyses the Gikuyu sentence formally, noting that the sentence takes the basic sentence structure of SVO (subject-verb-object).

Formal grammar and Functional grammar differ in their analysis of the sentence. Formal grammar analyses the sentence in terms of grammatical categories like S, V, O and A (adverbial). Emphasis is on rules of well-formedness of the sentence. A formal analysis of the sentence 'The minister did buy a new vehicle' would be as follows:

The minister/ did buy/ a new vehicle.
 S V O

On the other hand, Halliday's Functional Grammar (1985) analyses the sentence on the basis of the function of the language the sentence has. In for instance the interpersonal function of the language, the sentence would be analysed as 'clause as exchange', the meaning it would carry, as follows:

Figure 1.1. clause as exchange analysis

| | | | |
|---------------------|---------------|-------------------|----------------------|
| The minister | did | buy | a new vehicle |
| <i>Subject</i> | <i>Finite</i> | <i>Predicator</i> | <i>Complement</i> |
| <i>Mood</i> | | <i>Residue</i> | |

There is also need to study how African languages organize information in their clauses for specific purposes. Quirk et.al. (1972) notes that such studies would present language as a 'linearly organized communication system'. He notes that it is an area comparatively neglected, concurring with Kress (1976). To the best of our knowledge not much has been done on this. The contention here is that the linguistic elements in a clause, phrases in this case, can be ordered or organized in various ways. Though the basic meaning of the clause may not be affected by this, the emphatic meaning may be. (Collins and Hollo, 2000). Consider the following sentences:

1. I hate corrupt leaders.
2. Corrupt leaders I hate.

In both sentences, the basic meaning is the same- the speaker hates leaders who are corrupt. However, the fronting of 'corrupt leaders' in (2) gives the phrase thematic prominence for emphasis, giving the clause a different emphatic meaning from that in (1). Sentence (2) is an example of *topicalisation*, a category of emphatic structures in the English syntax.

In view of the above, this study explores Gikuyu applying Functional Grammar approach. Its major concern is to analyse the emphatic clauses of the Gikuyu syntax within Functional Grammar Theory (Halliday, 1985). The study aims at promoting Gikuyu, a Bantu language mainly spoken in the central Kenya region

and also in some parts of the Rift Valley. According to Mwangi (2001:3), the language belongs to the language sub-family of Niger-Congo and it is language number 51. It falls in zone E and group 50. She notes that the 1999 provisional census gave 5.3 million as the estimated number of speakers of the language.

Having talked about the importance of linguistic and communicative competence, the study also aims at improving the same among the users of Gikuyu. It looks at variables like active and passive structures. The knowledge of when and why to use one variable like the passive instead of the other or how to place certain elements prominently in clauses would form part of communicative competence.

1.2 STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

There have been remarkable efforts to study Gikuyu phonologically, morphosyntactically and semantically. (See Kuria, 2005; Mwangi, 2001 and Wango, 1998 respectively).

However, studies on Gikuyu clauses are scarce, particularly on the organization of information for specific purposes. There is need therefore to venture into the area. A linguistic gap exists here since, to the best of our knowledge, there is no study addressing the organization of information in the Gikuyu clause for functional purposes. It is necessary to avail this lacking information.

A gap also exists with regard to emphatic categories in the Gikuyu syntax.

Functional Grammar Theory (Halliday, 1985) has provided a basis for such a study. This can be seen as a step beyond the formal analysis of the structure of the Gikuyu sentence.

1.3 OBJECTIVES OF THE STUDY

The objectives of this study are:

1. To establish categories of emphatic structures in the syntax of Gikuyu.
2. To identify the kind of prominence achieved in the different categories established.
3. To explain Gikuyu emphatic clauses within Halliday's Functional Grammar theory.

1.4 RESEACH QUESTIONS

The study seeks to answer the following questions.

1. What are the categories of emphatic structures in the syntax of Gikuyu?
2. What kind of prominence is achieved in the different categories of Gikuyu emphatic clauses?
3. How can Gikuyu emphatic clauses be explained within Halliday's Functional Grammar Theory?

1.5 RESEARCH ASSUMPTIONS

The study is guided by the following assumptions:

1. Gikuyu syntax has various categories of emphatic structures.
2. Various categories of Gikuyu emphatic clauses assign certain kinds of prominence to certain linguistic elements.
3. Gikuyu emphatic clauses can be explained within Halliday's Functional Grammar theory.

1.6 JUSTIFICATION AND SIGNIFICANCE OF THE STUDY

This research is unique in that we have not come across any work addressing the Gikuyu emphatic structures. It is justifiable in terms of its applied, practical and theoretical significance.

1.6.1 Applied significance

The findings of this study complement the already existing body of knowledge on the African languages, and Gikuyu in particular. In addition, the findings could be of benefit to institutions and people studying African languages since they could provide data for related studies.

In the course of the study, we identified other related gaps that need to be filled. The study therefore provides a basis for further related studies.

1.6.2 Practical significance

To the users of Gikuyu, the findings are of significance as they have practical applications. The findings show the need and how to structure their utterances in order to express certain meanings, and emphasize certain constituents in the clauses. This stems from the fact that Functional Grammar is paradigmatic, a grammar of choice, a choice of meaning. (Halliday, 1985: xix-x x.)

1.6.3. Theoretical significance

To the best of our knowledge, no Gikuyu study has applied Functional Grammar Theory by Halliday (1985). This study therefore applies the theory to analyse Gikuyu structures functionally, opening a new vista in the language.

1.7 SCOPE AND LIMITATIONS

When using a language, emphasis can be done phonologically or syntactically. Phonological emphasis entails the use of prosodic features like intonation and stress. Syntactic emphasis, also known as grammatical emphasis, involves placing

linguistic elements at the beginning or towards the end of the clause, giving them thematic, or end focus; or end weight prominence (Collins and Hollo, 2000). This research is limited to syntactic emphasis evident in Gikuyu.

In terms of theory, there is Functional Grammar by Dik (1968) and Functional Grammar by Halliday (1985). The study has applied Halliday's version since it is the more recent.

Halliday identifies three kinds of meanings of the clause: clause as a message- the kind of meaning carried by a clause in the textual function, clause as exchange- the meaning in the interpersonal function and clause as representation (of a process)- the meaning of a clause in the ideational function. Only *clause as exchange* is applied in this study.

After giving an introduction to this study in this chapter, the next focuses on literature related to the study and the theory on which it is based.

CHAPTER 2

LITERATURE REVIEW AND THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

2.0 INTRODUCTION

This chapter has two parts. The first part provides a review of literature related to the study and the second part provides a theoretical framework on which the study is based.

2.1 LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1.0 INTRODUCTION

In this first part of the chapter, literature review is provided under three subheadings: syntactic studies on other Bantu languages, studies on Gikuyu and studies within Functional Grammar.

2.1.1 SYNTACTIC STUDIES ON OTHER BANTU LANGUAGES

Several syntactic studies have been carried out on other Bantu languages such as Kiambu. Nyaga (1998) has analysed the Kiambu simple sentence syntactically

using the Government and Binding Theory. This is a formal theory whereas we intend to apply a functional one.

Kioko (1994) has studied Kikamba. Her concern is on the Kikamba verb morphology and looks for example at the passive forms of the verb. She uses an electric approach applying Government and Binding (Chomsky, 1981), Relational Grammar (Perlmutter, 1983) and Lexical Functional theories (as edited by Bresnan, 1982). Our theoretical approach is therefore different.

Makeni (2006), explores the acquisition of concordial morphemes by Lukhayo speaking pre-school children aged between 3 and 5 years. His focus is in the area of morphosyntax. He explains patterns of linguistic forms regarded to characterize Bantu languages. The concordial morphemes he investigates are demonstratives, possessives, quantifiers and adjectives. His major concerns are the effects of age and sex on the acquisition of the morphemes by the children and whether some of these morphemes are acquired before the others. This distincts the study from ours since our focus is on Gikuyu emphatic structures. His theoretical approach differs from our in that he uses an electric approach applying Natural Order Hypothesis (Krashen and Terell, 1987) and Transformational Generative Theory (Chomsky, 1957, 1965).

Wabwire (2010) studies the Olukhayo noun phrase. He studies the structure of noun phrase in terms of head, determiners and modifiers; the functions of the noun phrase such as subject, object, complement and adverbial in Lukhayo and finally analyses the noun phrase within the X-bar syntax (Radford, 1988). This is a development of X-bar Theory associated with Chomsky (1970). This study differs from ours in that his concern is the noun phrase whereas ours is on the Gikuyu emphatic clause. We have also applied a different theoretical approach.

Kiswahili, another Bantu language closely related to Gikuyu has been widely studied. Both have a lot in common. For example, Kawa (2003) and King'ori (2005) observe that the Kiswahili sentence too takes the SVO basic order. The subject could be a noun or pronoun, or could be omitted as in the imperative. This is also true in Gikuyu.

Njoroge ni mutana. (Njoroge is generous.)
S (noun)

We ni mutana. (he/she is generous)
S(pron)

Rehe mubira ucio. (Bring that ball)
(Subject omitted)

The two also agree that the Kiswahili sentence is characterized by agreement.

King'ori notes agreement rules force a form to change to match another form in

the sentence. For instance, the subject NP agrees with the VP and also the AdjP.

This too holds in Gikuyu.

The same position is echoed by Nurse and Philipson (2003) who note that in Bantu the SVO order is basic and that the syntax is characterized by formal noun class agreement within the NP and also between the NP and the VP.

King'ori (2005), Kawa (2003) and Nurse and Philipson (2003) analyse the Kiswahili sentence formally which differs from our intended functional analysis of the Gikuyu emphatic clause. The studies are however relevant on the aspect of agreement since the agreement between the NP and VP must also be observed in the Gikuyu emphatic clauses on which our interest is.

2.1.2 STUDIES ON GIKUYU

Among those who have studied Gikuyu are Kamau (2002), who has analysed the phonological changes associated with the affixation in the Gikuyu verb within lexical phonological Theory by Kiparsky (1982). The study differs from ours since ours is not based on phonological theories but on a functional theory.

Kuria (2005) examines the consonantal inconsistency between orthography and phonology of Gikuyu within the following theories: Autosegmental Phonology

(Goldsmith, 1990), Phonological Recordability (Koda, 1997 and Kay, 1987) and Linguistic Mental Representation (Mattingly, 1992). The study is also different from ours since our interest is not on phonology but on emphatic clauses.

There are a number of works on the Gikuyu verb. Such include Mwangi (2001) who applies the Merger Theory (Marantz, 1984) and Incorporation Theory (Bakar, 1988a) in studying the morphosyntax of the Gikuyu verb.

In her study, Mwangi (2001) studies the grammatical function changing morphemes, among them the passive construction. She looks at the morphology of the passive verb and the associated syntactic consequences. Our study aims to, at a point, distinguish between the emphatic meaning of the active and passive clauses using the Functional Grammar theory. This differentiates our work from Mwangi's since our interest is not on the passive verb morphology but on the emphatic meaning evident in the active- passive alternations.

Ndung'u (1991) identifies the types of Gikuyu sentences acquired by Gikuyu children at various stages. The types identified by Ndung'u are therefore likely to be encountered in the study. These types are illustrated below.

a) The simple sentence:

Nyonire Kamau. (I saw Kamau)

b) Compound sentence:

The clauses are linked by coordinators like *na* (and) *no* (but), *kana* (or)

Nyonire Kamau no ndinamugeithia. (I saw Kamau but I did not greet him)

c) Complex sentences:

The clauses in this are linked by subordinators like *riria* (when), *ni getha*

(so that)

Nyonire Kamau riria thiire mucii. (I saw Kamau when I went home).

Ndung'u's analysis of the sentence reveals that the Gikuyu sentence takes the basic sentence structure of SVO (subject-verb-object).

| | | |
|-----------------------------------------------------|---|----|
| (Nii) nda / geithia / Kamau (I have greeted Kamau). | | |
| S | V | O |
| NP | | NP |
| Pron | | N |

Our study will differ from Ndung'u (2001) since our approach will not be formal but functional in the analysis of the Gikuyu emphatic clauses. We shall also not focus on the acquisition of these clauses.

Others who have studied Gikuyu include Everton (1972), Wango (1998) and Njoroge (2004) whose works differ from ours in terms of areas of interest. Everton

(1972) looks at the generative transformational grammar of Gikuyu. Wango's (1998) interest is in language and gender while Njoroge's (2004) is in the Gikuyu verbal inflexions.

2.1.3 STUDIES WITHIN FUNCTIONAL GRAMMAR

Gathenji (1981) is relevant to this study both in terms of the language studied and the theoretical approach. She analyses the Gikuyu verbal extensions functionally, looking at verbal suffixes and their associated meanings like causative and reversative. She looks at the effects of verbal suffixation on syntax and uses functional labels like agent and goal.

Despite Gathenji's theoretical approach being similar to ours, our work will apply Functional Grammar Theory by Halliday (1985) as compared to Functional Grammar Theory by Dik (1968) used by Gathenji. Our study is also different in that while Gathenji's focus is on the Gikuyu verbal suffixation, our focus will be on Gikuyu emphatic structures.

Nyarige (2002) has applied Halliday's Functional Grammar Theory in her study though it is not on Gikuyu. She studies the thematic organization in clauses in students' English compositions. She analyses the clauses in terms of 'clause as message', (theme- rheme configuration). She further identifies the grammatical

categories that appear at the theme position. We intend to apply the mood- residue configuration in this study.

This first part reviews the literature related to the study. The focus changes to the theory applied in the study in the second part of the chapter.

2.2 THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

As already mentioned, this study has used Functional Grammar Theory as developed by Halliday (1985). Halliday explains that a Functional Grammar is a grammar based on a functional rather than a formal conceptual framework. The theory concerns itself with how language is used to express certain kinds of meanings by looking at how linguistic items combine in structures (like clauses) to express these meanings. Such a grammar is referred to as synesis (Halliday, 1985:xiv).

The theory explores the metafunctional nature of language. Metafunctions are the kinds of meanings around which languages are organized. These are:

- Ideational/reflexive function
- Interpersonal/active function
- Textual function

The ideational function is the use of language to understand the environment, and the interpersonal is the use of language to act on others in the environment. These two are the major kinds of meanings, with the textual function giving the two relevance. It creates text or texture (Kress, 1976). Kress summarizes the three as follows:

“Since language serves a general ideational function, we are able to use it for the specific purposes and situation types involving the communication experience---interpersonal function---for all specific forms of personal and social interaction --- textual function is actually a prerequisite to the other two.” (Kress, 1976:25)

These metafunctions are realized in the clause of a language. Halliday points out that functional grammar takes all kinds of sentences- simple, compound and complex- as clauses. Functionally, the clauses are analyzed in what he calls STRUCTURES. He defines a structure as any viable meaningful configuration of functions (e.g. theme, predicator etc.) of the same kind. The constituents of a clause are labeled functionally in terms of the functions they have in the structure. Each function combines with one or more others of the same kind in these configurations.

Halliday identifies three kinds of the configurations which he terms as ‘the three principal **kinds of meanings** that are embodied in the structure of a clause’.

(Halliday, 1985:37). These are:

- Clause as message
- Clause as exchange
- Clause as representation (of a process)

These are related to the three meta-functions of the language. Clause as message is the meaning carried in the textual function, clause as exchange in the interpersonal

function and clause as representation in the ideational function. Each kind has its own configuration of functions which form a structure.

Clause as message is divided into two parts, *theme* and *rheme*, which are metafunctional labels. 'Theme' is the psychological subject of the sentence, which concerns the message. It is the first element in the clause. Everything that comes after theme is the 'rheme'. The configuration is illustrated below with the analysis of the clause 'Mother bought my wife this new dress yesterday'.

Figure 2.1. Clause as message.

| | |
|---------------|------------------------------------------------|
| Mother | bought my wife this new dress yesterday |
| <i>Theme</i> | <i>Rheme</i> |

Clause as representation consists of functional labels like actor, process, beneficiary, goal and circumstance as illustrated below.

Figure 2.2. Clause as representation.

| | | | | |
|---------------|----------------|--------------------|-----------------------|---------------------|
| Mother | bought | my wife | this new dress | yesterday |
| <i>Actor</i> | <i>Process</i> | <i>Beneficiary</i> | <i>Goal</i> | <i>Circumstance</i> |

This study confines itself to **clause as exchange**. Clause as exchange has two parts: MOOD, which contains Subject and Finite; and RESIDUE, which has Predicator, Complement and Adjunct as shown in the table below.

Figure 2.3a. clause as exchange

| | | | | |
|----------------|--------------------------|-----------------------------|-----------------------|-------------------------------|
| Mother | bought | my wife | this new dress | yesterday |
| <i>Subject</i> | <i>Finite (past)</i> | <i>Predicator (buy)</i> | <i>Complement</i> | <i>Complement Adjunct</i> |
| Mood | Residue | | | |

Subject is explained as a nominal group that tells us what the sentence is about. It is the grammatical subject and therefore controls the subject-verb agreement.

Finite is part of the verbal group, the part expressing the primary tense (in relation to the time of speech, e.g. is, has, did), modality (e.g. can, must) and polarity (positive or negative). These are the MOOD elements.

However, the Mood may also contain what Halliday (1985:81) terms as Mood Adjunct. Mood Adjuncts are expressions related specifically to the meaning of the Finite verbal operator and typically appear next to it. This includes expressions of degree, probability and intensity. 'Willingly' in the following sentence is such an example expressing inclination.

Mother willingly bought my wife this new dress yesterday.

Mood Adjuncts could at times occur in the initial or final position of the clause.

Willingly mother bought my wife this new dress yesterday.

Mother bought my wife this new dress yesterday willingly.

They are called Mood Adjuncts since at whichever position they occur, they form part of the mood element.

Figure 2.3b: clause as exchange with Comment, Mood and Circumstantial Adjuncts

| | | | | | | | |
|------------------------|----------------|---------------------|----------------------|-------------------------|-------------------|-----------------------|-------------------------------|
| Surprisingly | mother | willingly | bought | | my wife | this new dress | yesterday |
| <i>Comment Adjunct</i> | <i>Subject</i> | <i>Mood Adjunct</i> | <i>Finite (past)</i> | <i>Predicator (buy)</i> | <i>Complement</i> | <i>Complement</i> | <i>Circumstantial Adjunct</i> |
| | Mood | | | Residue | | | |

This is as opposed to Conjunctive Adjuncts like ‘however’, Comment Adjuncts like ‘surprisingly’ and Circumstantial Adjuncts like ‘yesterday’. The first two are not part of the proposition and therefore are neither part of the Mood nor of the Residue (Haliday, 1985:83). Circumstantial Adjuncts (Adjuncts henceforth) are part of the Residue element.

With the RESIDUE elements, *Predicator* is the verbal element in the clause minus the finite in the mood. It is therefore non-finite specifying the secondary tense (past, present or future in relation to the primary tense), aspects like the

As Halliday (1985) notes, his functional grammar is largely based on Firth's System – Structure Theory, which is a theory of meaning as choice, language as choice. The theory represents language or any part of it as a 'resource for making meaning by choosing' (Halliday, 1985).

Kress (1976:33) states: "Halliday's thinking was the establishing a formally and conceptually adequate linguistic theory based on choice". He adds that any language is a network of options in a simultaneous and hierarchical relationship, a network of system. He defines a system as a set of options or things of which one must be chosen together with a statement of the condition under which the choice is available.

Systemic grammar, and therefore functional grammar, is for this reason paradigmatic. A choice is made from a given set, like subject, actor and theme. The three fall under what has traditionally been called 'subject' in a sentence. This is in line with the observation by Collins and Hollo (2000) on the choice between clauses, that clauses may alternate depending on the way they are structured as a message, the basic meaning not changing. The choice of a variant of a clause in a context is dependent on the kind of prominence that a certain linguistic element such a phrase receives. The prominence could be associated either with *topic*, *information/end focus* or *end weight*.

Let us use the phrase '*his own daughter*' in the sentence 'The angry father declared his own daughter a bastard', which we take as basic, to illustrate the first two. When an element is placed at the initial position of the clause, it receives the **topic/theme** prominence:

His own daughter the angry father declared a bastard.

End focus involves moving the constituent towards the end of the clause:

The angry father declared a bastard *his own daughter*.

End weight involves placing a long and complex constituent towards the end of the clause:

It surprises me *that he declared his own daughter a bastard*.

(as opposed to 'That he declared his own daughter a bastard surprises me').

On the same line, when making a choice from a set of clauses to express the desired meaning (or message), the organization of information, or the order of the constituents in the clauses is considered. The following sentences have **the same basic meaning but different emphatic meaning** since the element topicalised is different:

- *The angry father* declared his own daughter a bastard.
- *His own daughter* the angry father declared a bastard.
- *A bastard* the angry father declared his own daughter.

Kress (1976) terms such sets as being part of clause system network. The choice of the clause structure can be taken as a choice of meaning. This is the approach taken in this study towards Gikuyu.

The above discussion describes the theoretical framework applied in the study.

The following chapter is a description of the methodology used in the collection of the data.

CHAPTER 3

METHODOLOGY

3.0 INTRODUCTION

This chapter looks at the research design, sampling size and procedure, data collection procedure and finally data analysis and presentation.

3.1 RESEARCH DESIGN

The research design is qualitative. The study describes and classifies the categories of syntactic emphatic structures in Gikuyu. The structures fall under three broad categories: the reordering class, the postponement class and the dislocation class. The reordering class includes the passive construction, the cleft sentence, topicalisation and inversion categories. Under the postponement class are the existential structures, the 'occurrential' structure, extraposition and the discontinued nominal element categories. The dislocation class has the dislocation of the complement of a preposition and object dislocation categories.

3.2 SAMPLING SIZE AND PROCEDURE

Purposive sampling has been applied in this study. This is because the process was guided by the categories of the Gikuyu emphatic structures identified and therefore only the relevant structures could be picked. These are the structures with the desired organization of elements. A total of thirty six sentences were picked. Gikuyu publications with the desired clauses were selected. These are selected books from the Gikuyu Bible including Isaiah and Revelation which are prophetic books and Psalms and Proverbs, artistic books. Other books from the Bible are John, Luke, Judas, Genesis, Jeremiah and Lamentations. The study also sourced from the book '1000 Gikuyu Proverbs' and Gikuyu hymn books 'Nyimbo cia Kuinira Ngai', 'Mitha Mugikuyu' and 'Nyimbo Njeru cia Mitha Mugikuyu'.

3.3 DATA COLLECTION PROCEDURE

The data collected is in the form of Gikuyu clauses with elements ordered for emphatic purpose. The data was collected by picking relevant sentences/clauses from the sources identified in 3.2 above.

Being Gikuyu native speakers, we have also used our intuitive knowledge of the language to generate more data. Chomsky (1965,1986) calls the speaker- hearer's knowledge as his language as competence. He describes *grammatical competence*

which comprises syntactic, semantic and phonological linguistic ability of the language user. With the syntactic knowledge of one's native language, a native speaker is able to construct grammatical sentences and recognize ill-formed structures even if they are new to him/her. With this in mind as Gikuyu native speakers, we felt justified to generate our own illustrations.

3.4 DATA ANALYSIS AND PRESENTATION

Since the study is qualitative in approach, the type of analysis is thematic. The data collected has been classified and presented according to the various emphatic categories. The clauses have then been analysed functionally in terms of 'clause as exchange'.

This chapter presents a description of the methodology, which is qualitative in approach, used in collecting the data. The next chapter describes Gikuyu emphatic clauses, and also analyzes them in terms of Functional Grammar Theory (Halliday, 1985).

CHAPTER 4

DATA PRESENTATION AND ANALYSIS

4.0 INTRODUCTION

This chapter is divided into two sections. Section one discusses the various categories of Gikuyu emphatic clauses, describing the arrangement of the linguistic elements in the them, while section two analyses the structures in these categories in the light of Halliday's Functional Grammar theory in terms of *Clause as Exchange*.

4.1 AN INTRODUCTION TO EMPHATIC CLAUSES

Various scholars have come up with different kinds of emphatic clauses. These scholars include Collins and Hollo (2000), Leech and Svartvik (1975), Bloor (1995) and Quirk et. al.(1972). The categories they have come up with include the passive construction, cleft sentence and the existential construction.

Collins and Hollo (2000:134) observe that clauses may differ in terms of their structure as a message but not in the basic meaning they express. Consider the following pair of sentences:

1. Paul bought a car yesterday.

2. A car Paul bought yesterday.

The sentences basically mean the same but the structure of the elements is different. The structure in (2) is such that the object of the sentence, 'a car', has been brought to the initial position for emphasis. This is referred to as 'topicalisation' since it makes an element other than the subject the topic. The sentence is an example of emphatic structures. The term *emphatic structures* is used in this study to mean sentences in which linguistic elements are ordered in a particular way with the aim of assigning emphasis on certain elements. Sentence (1) is the basic sentence from which (2) is derived.

Linguistic elements are arranged in varying ways depending on the element on which the emphasis is. The element could be placed at the beginning of the clause or at or towards the end. Linguists have identified three kinds of prominence achieved this way:

- Topic/thematic prominence
- End focus prominence
- End weight prominence

Topic/thematic prominence is the prominence an element receives on being made the topic of a sentence. Leech and Svartvik (1975:176) define topic as the first element in a clause but they exclude conjunctions and some adverbs when

they occur initially. Collins and Hollo (2000:134) add that it is what the sentence is about. In 'Paul bought a car yesterday', 'Paul', the subject, occupies the initial position but in 'A car Paul bought yesterday', the object 'a car' takes the first position to become the topic of the sentence, hence receiving thematic prominence.

End focus and **end weight prominence** are associated with the final position in a clause. **End focus** occurs when 'the new or the most important idea or piece of information' appears towards the end of the clause. (Leech and Svartvik, 1975:175). They add that saving the main point up to the end makes a sentence more effective. Collins and Hollo (2000) observe that end focus falls on the last open class word such as a noun. 'His daughter' in the following sentence receives end focus prominence:

He declared a bustard his daughter.

End weight on the other hand occurs on long and complex elements placed at or towards the end of the clause (Collins and Hollo, 2000:134). The clausal nominal element underlined in the sentence below receives end weight prominence:

He has declared a bustard a girl he has lived with for years.

4.1.1 GIKUYU EMPHATIC CLAUSES

Though the studies available on emphatic structures are mainly on English, this study reveals that emphatic structures exist in Gikuyu too. This chapter discusses the Gikuyu emphatic structures in three broad classes. The consideration in the classification is a general similarity in the ways in which the categories in each class assign emphasis to specific elements. The three classes are:

- a) Reordering Class
- b) Postponement Class
- c) Dislocation Class

In each category discussed, examples are provided with the elements that are emphasized underlined and the basic sentences from which they are derived also provided. The English translations are given in italics below each Gikuyu sentence.

4.1.2 REORDERING CLASS

Structures under this class are those that involve moving an element in the clause from a basic position in response to informational factors. (Collins and Hollo, 2000:143). The element moved occupies a position that is more prominent.

Categories in this class include:

- The passive construction
- The cleft sentence
- The pseudo-cleft sentence
- Topicalisation
- Inversion

4.1.2.1 THE PASSIVE CONSTRUCTION

According to Collins and Hollo (2000), a sentence is either active or passive, depending on the semantic role associated with the subject in a typical clause expressing an activity. The subject has the role of ‘actor’ in the active sentence and ‘patient’ (Collins and Hollo, 2000) or ‘affected’ (Quirk et. al. 1972) in the passive sentence.

Active: Kamau wrote the book.

Passive: The book was written by Kamau.

The underlined are the subjects in the sentences. ‘Kamau’ does the action of writing in the active sentence hence taking the role of actor. ‘The book’ in the passive sentence receives the effect of the action, hence taking the role of affected.

The passive clause is derived from the active one, which is taken as the basic, to emphasise on certain elements. This process is referred to as ‘passivisation’.

The process occurs in Gikuyu as illustrated below:

1. Mburi igucagio ni munyu. (Barra, 1960:48)

A goat is attracted by salt.

Basic- Munyu ugucagia mburi.

Salt attracts a goat.

2. Musa ahoya ni erirwo ni Ngai. (Nguthuru P.E.F.A. Church, 1999:346)

Moses after praying was told by God.

Basic- Ngai ni erire Musa ahoya.

God told Moses after praying.

3. Musa ndaheirwo thayu ni ciana cia Isiraeli.

Moses was not given peace by the children of Israel.

Basic- Ciana cia Isiraeli citiaheire Musa thayu.

The children of Israel did not give Moses peace.

(Example (3) is from researcher's intuitive knowledge.)

The above illustrations show that the Gikuyu passive structure alters the order of elements in the active sentence. The active has the 'actor' as the subject (*munyu* in example (1)) and the 'patient' as the object (*mburi* in example (1)). In the passive, the 'patient' becomes the subject and the 'actor' a complement of the preposition *ni* (by) in the by-phrase introduced after the verb. Collins and Hollo (2000) call this **the agent by-phrase**. Other elements of the predicate like the adverbial could follow.

It should be noted that the agent by-phrase can be omitted in the Gikuyu passive clauses.

Examples:

4. Andu aria athingu makarihwo maundu mega. (Proverbs 13:21)

The people who are righteous will be rewarded with good things.

5. Nyumba yakwa niiracinirwo.

My house was burnt down.

Example (5) is imagined as would be said by a person reporting the burning down of their house by some unknown people, or by a mob hence difficult to identify the specific person who did the act.

Passivisation causes the ‘actor’ to appear towards the end for *end focus* or *end weight* prominence. The preposition *ni* (by) serves to highlight the actor. *Munyu* (salt) in (1) and *Ngai* (God) in (2) get *end focus* prominence since they are not complex elements. They comprise one word only, a noun. However, *ciana cia Isiraeli* (the children of Israel) in (3) receives *end weight* prominence since it is a complex element. It is a nominal element comprising a head noun – *ciana* (children) and a post-modifying prepositional phrase – *cia Isiraeli* (of Israel).

The passive also gives *thematic prominence* to the ‘patient’ especially in structures lacking the agent by-phrase. *Andu aria athingu* (the people who are righteous) in (4) and *Nyumba yakwa* (my house) in (5) occupy the initial position to receive this kind of prominence.

Quirk et. al. (1972) observe that the principles of prominence work together rather than against one another since some clauses may be seen to achieve both thematic prominence and prominence associated with the final position. For instance, besides giving end weight prominence to *ciana cia ithe* (*the children of his father*), sentence (2) gives *thematic* prominence to *Jusufu* (Joseph).

4.1.2.2 THE CLEFT SENTENCE.

A cleft sentence is a structure in which the basic sentence is divided or cleaved into two parts, a main clause and a subordinate clause. In the English cleft, the subordinate clause is a relative clause. The element that attracts emphasis is placed as a complement in the independent clause. ‘A new leader’ for instance is the object in the basic sentence but a complement of the verb ‘is’ in the derived cleft sentence:

Basic: We want a new leader.

Cleft: It is a new leader that we want.

Gikuyu also has such clauses. The Gikuyu cleft sentence is introduced by *ni* which is equivalent of a conflated subject 'it' and the verb 'is'. This serves to introduce the highlighted element in the clause. A complement clause follows this element.

Examples:

1. Ni Ngai witu turahaka. (Kiongo, 2005:41)

It is our God (that) we are appeasing.

Basic-Turahaka Ngai witu.

We are appeasing our God.

2. Ni kuriukia ariukagia ngoro yakwa. (Psalms 23:3)

It is to restore that he restores my heart.

Basic- Ariukagia ngoro yakwa.

He restores my heart.

3. Niwe undwarite akanjeeria nduma-ini.

It is he who has taken me to darkness.

Basic- Andwarite akanjeeria nduma-ini.

He has taken me to darkness.

The cleft structure alters the order of the elements in the basic sentence as a result of the highlighted element changing position for prominence. We use example (1) to illustrate this. The basic sentence appears as one unit, a sentence with the unmarked sentence order with the subject at the beginning followed by the predicate.

Turahaka Ngai witu. (*We are appeasing our God*)

The expression *turahaka* conflates both the subject of the sentence *tu* (we) and the verb *rahaka* (are appeasing).

The need to place emphasis on the object *Ngai witu* (our God) at an earlier position results in the cleft structure. The cleaving results from introducing the expression *ni* (it is) to introduce the element being emphasized. The first part of the structure is the main clause introduced by *ni* and followed by the highlighted element *Ngai witu*. It is then followed by the subordinate clause *turahaka* (that we are appeasing).

This sentence could be prompted by the question ‘whom are we appeasing?’. In this case, *Ngai witu* could be considered as the new information. It is therefore focal and actually contrastive; it is *Ngai witu* being appeased and not any other person. The complement clause would then be optional. (Collins and Hollo, 2000:142). In such a case, the highlighted element would receive *end focus* prominence.

Since the highlighted element occurs towards the end of the clause, it basically receives *end focus* prominence. It is worth noting that the highlighted element could be the subject (example (3)) or part of the predicate (examples (1) and (2)).

4.1.2.3 PSEUDO CLEFT STRUCTURE

A pseudo cleft clause resembles a cleft in that it too appears to have two parts. However, only one part has the structure of a clause, a subordinate 'wh' nominal clause. The other part is a phrase lacking the subject, or even the verb when it comes initially. It is the part containing the highlighted nominal element. The pseudo-cleft structure can be of the following two kinds. In either kind, the structure takes the SVC sentence order. (Quirk et. al.1972:954).

On the one hand, the highlighted element (underlined below) could be the subject and the 'wh' clause the complement of the verb 'be'.

A new leader is what we need.

On the other hand, the 'wh' clause could be the subject and the highlighted element the complement.

What we need is a new leader.

The two kinds of the pseudo-cleft structure are evident in Gikuyu. The highlighted element may be the subject of the structure and a subordinate nominal clause equivalent to the 'wh' nominal clause the complement.

Examples:

1. Ukiigu wa mundu niguu uhaguraga njira ciake. (Proverbs 19:3)

A person's stupidity (it) is what mars his ways.

Basic- Ukiigu wa mundu uhaguraga njira ciake.

A person's stupidity mars his ways.

2. Mutharaba-ini wa mukuuri niho ndahoeire uhonokio. (Uzima Press,1974 :70)

At the cross of the redeemer (it) is where I prayed for salvation.

Basic- Ndahoeire uhonokio mutharaba-ini wa mukuuri.

I prayed for salvation at the cross of the redeemer.

The basic structure in (1) has the SVO order with *ukigu wa mundu* (a person's stupidity) as the subject, *haguraga* (mars) as the verb and *njira ciake* (his ways) as the object. To give rise to the pseudo-cleft structure, the subordinate clause *niguo uhaguraga njira ciake* (it is what mars his ways) is introduced to emphasise on the subject of the basic which still remains the subject in the resultant pseudo-cleft structure. Note that the expression *niguo* is an equivalent of 'it is what'. *Ni* is a conflation of the subject and the verb and is equivalent to 'it is'. *Guo* is equivalent to the relative pronoun 'who'. The subordinate clause is therefore an equivalent of a 'wh' relative clause.

The basic sentence in (2) has the SVOA order with *nd-* (I) as the subject, *-ahoeire* (prayed for) as the verb, *uhonokio* (salvation) as the object and *mutharaba-ini wa mukuuri* (at the cross of the redeemer) as the adverbial. The emphasis in the

pseudo-cleft is on the adverbial and it is pointed out by the subordinate clause *niho ndahoeire uhonokio* (it is where I prayed for salvation). *Niho* is equivalent to ‘it is where’. *Ni* is equivalent to the subject and the verb and therefore equivalent to ‘it is’. *Ho* is a relative adverb equivalent to ‘where’ and it is followed by a relative clause *ndahoeire uhonokio* (it is where I prayed for salvation).

Coming at the initial position, the highlighted nominal elements in both (1) and (2) receive *thematic* prominence.

Alternatively, the highlighted element may be the complement of the structure and the subordinate nominal clause the subject:

3. Kiria twarikia kwamukira ni Jesu Kristu ari mugima. (Kiongo, 2005:72)

What we have just received is Jesus Christ being whole.

Basic- Twarikia kwamukira Jesu Kristu ari mugima.

We have just received Jesus Christ being whole.

The highlighted nominal element *Jesu Kristu ari mugima* (Jesus Christ being whole) is placed at the end to receive *end weight* prominence. It is a complex nominal element comprising the head noun *Jesu Kristu* (Jesus Christ) post-modified by *ari mugima* (being whole). But when the highlighted element is not complex, for instance if it was just *Jesu Kristu* (Jesus Christ), then the prominence would be *end focus*.

4.1.2.4 TOPICALISATION

The topic or the theme of the sentence is the element that comes at the beginning and it is what the sentence is about (Quirk et. al. 1972). It is normally the subject in the basic sentence such as ‘the ministers’ in:

The ministers like dark suits.

Topicalisation is a process that involves making an element from the predicate the topic of the sentence, in place of the subject, by moving it to the initial position.

The derived clause is therefore semantically different from the basic since it is about a new thing. Consider ‘dark suits’ which has been topicalised in the following sentence though the subject remains ‘the ministers’.

Dark suits the ministers like.

Gikuyu has clauses that exhibit topicalisation.

Examples:

1. Mwiri uri thakame gutiri utarwaraga. (Barra, 1960:78)

A body that has blood there is none that does not become sick.

Basic- Gutiri mwiri uri thakame utarwaraga.

There is no body that has blood that does not become sick.

2. Hari mundu kirimu gwika nai ni ta ithako.(Proverbs 10:23)

To a fool doing evil is like a game.

Basic- Gwika nai ni ta ithako hari mundu kirimu.

Doing evil is like a game to a fool.

Mwiri uri thakame (A body that has blood) and *hari mundu kirimu* (To a fool) have been topicalised in (1) and (2) respectively. The topics of their respective basic sentences, which are also the subjects, are 'gu-' (there) and 'gwika nai' (to do evil).

And as can be seen in the above examples, the subject of the sentence follows the highlighted element in the derived clauses. The rest of the predicate follows.

By occupying the initial position in the structure, the topicalised element receives *thematic* prominence.

4.1.2.5 INVERSION

Inversion involves a post verbal element changing places with the subject in a sentence. For instance, Collins and Hollo (2000:144) discuss locative inversion in English in which a post-verbal expression indicating location moves to the front of the clause. At the same time, the subject moves to the post-verbal position.

Basic: The tired man/ sat/ on a stone.

S V Adv

Inversion: On a stone/ sat/ the tired man.

Adv V S

The basic sentence has the order SVA. Inversion changes the surface order to AVS.

Inversion differs from topicalisation in that whereas the subject moves to a post-verbal position in inversion, it maintains its pre-verbal position in topicalisation. Compare the position of the subject 'the tired man' in the inverted clause above to its position when it is topicalised below:

On a stone/ the tired man/ sat.

Adv S V

In Gikuyu, the inversion noted is mainly between the subject and the complement which switch positions in sentences with SVC structure. This subject-complement inversion (S-C inversion henceforth) is noted to occur in structures in which the verb is *ni*, an equivalent of the present tense form of the verb 'be' (is/are).

Three kinds of S-C inversion have been noted in the language which we have labeled as follows:

- Direct subject-complement inversion
- Inversion with emphatic 'no' (is actually)

- Inversion with the restrictive pronoun

In the ‘direct’ S-C inversion, the subject and the complement simply switch positions without effecting any other change in the sentence unlike the other two kinds.

Examples:

1. Mugiro ni uria wothe ugakaana Mwathani.

Cursed is everyone who denies The Lord.

Basic: Uria wothe ugakaana Mwathani ni mugiro.

Everyone who denies The Lord is cursed.

2. Muruguo ni ucio. (John 19:24)

Your son is that one

Basic: Ucio ni muruguo.

That one is your son.

In (1) and (2) above, the subject of the basic sentence is *uria wothe ugakaana Mwathani* (whoever denies The Lord) and *ucio* (that) respectively. The complements are *mugiro* (cursed) and *muruguo* (your son). Upon inversion, the subjects move past the verb ‘ni’ (is) while the complements take the position before the verb.

We label the second kind of S-C inversion **inversion with emphatic 'no'** (is/are actually) because when the inversion occurs, the verb *ni* changes to *no* to place emphasis on the subject which comes after it in the derived structure.

3. Kindu kiuru no mundu ethukitie we mwene (Barra, 1960:35)

The bad thing is actually a person having defiled himself.

Basic- Mundu ethukitie we mwene ni kindu kiuru .

A person having defiled himself is the bad thing.

Both the 'direct' S-C inversion and 'inversion with emphatic *no*' aim at giving prominence to the subject at the final position. Therefore, *uria wothe ugakaana Mwathani* (whoever denies The Lord) in (1) and *mundu ethukitie we mwene* (a person having defiled himself) in (3) receive *end weight* prominence. *Ucio* (that one) in (2) receives *end focus* prominence.

We term the third kind of S-C inversion as **inversion with restrictive pronoun** since in the process of inverting the subject and the complement, a restrictive pronoun is used. Such pronouns include *rio* (it) and *we* (him/her) in (4) and (5) below. We have labeled these pronouns thus because they distinguish the highlighted nominal element from any choice. Note that the pronoun occurs as a clitic.

4. Jesu nirio ritwa riake. (Uzima Press, 1974:124)

Jesus is his name.

Basic- Ritwa riake ni Jesu.

His name is Jesus.

5. Jehova niwe muriithi wakwa. (Psalms 23:1)

The Lord is my shepherd.

Basic- Muriithi wakwa ni Jehova.

My shepherd is The Lord.

The source of (4) talks about a friend like no other the speaker has and the inverted illustration implies that *Jesu* (Jesus) is his name, thus distinguishing it from any other name. In (5) the shepherd of the speaker is none other than *Mwathani* (the Lord).

Note that the basic sentence in (4) has the subject as *ritwa riake* (his name) and the complement as *Jesu* (Jesus). In the derived clause, the complement moves to the initial position. The pronoun *rio* (it) is encliticised to the verb *ni* (it is) and then the subject is moved to the post-verb position. In (5) the complement *Jehova* (The Lord) changes places with the subject *muriithi wakwa* (my shepherd) and the pronoun *we* (him) is encliticised to the verb.

Unlike the first two kinds of S-C inversion, inversion with the restrictive pronoun aims at highlighting the complement by fronting it, thus assigning it *thematic* prominence. This is the prominence *Jesu* (Jesus) and *Jehova* (The Lord) receive.

4.1.3 POSTPONEMENT CLASS

The postponement class has those categories that remove an element from its basic position in a sentence to a later one, either towards or at the end, for prominence associated with the final position. (Quirk et. al. 1972:962).the categories here include:

- Existential structures
- 'Occurrential' structures
- Extraposition
- Discontinued nominal element.

4.1.3.1 EXISTENTIAL STRUCTURES

Existential structures (existentials henceforth) are sentences that indicate the notion of existence. (Quirk et. al. 1972:956). They move nominal elements from their subject position in the basic sentence to be highlighted after the verb in the derived structures, the existentials. The expressions that introduce them indicate that something existed, exists or will exist. They have a dummy pronoun as the subject which ensures that the highlighted element ('material' according to Collins and Hollo 2000:138) does not occur at the initial position, or even as the subject,

but always as a complement of the verb. The time is indicated by the appropriate form of the verb 'be' which is the verb in the existentials.

The English existential for instance has the dummy pronoun 'there' as the subject which combines with 'was', 'is' or 'will be' to show the existence. The material follows the verb.

Basic: Something is disturbing him.

Existential: There is something disturbing him.

The indefinite pronoun 'something' is the subject in the basic sentence but it occurs as a complement in the existential.

Gikuyu too has existential structures. These can be in the past, present or future tense. The expressions introducing them are confluations of three elements: the focus marker, the subject and the verb. (see the analysis of *nikwari*- there was- below)

The past tense existentials are introduced by the expression *nikwari* which has the underlying form *nikuari*. It conflates the following elements:

-the focus marker *ni* (the initial particle according to Barlow, 1960:117 and Gechaga, 1994:19)

-the subject *ku*, an equivalent of the locative 'there'

The tense marker *a*, indicating distant past

-the verb *ri*, equivalent to 'was/were'

Example:

1. Nikwari andu aingi marwarite mangu bururi wa Isiraeli. (Luke 4:27)

There were many people suffering from Leprosy in Israel.

Basic- Andu aingi nimarwarite mangu bururi wa Isiraeli.

Many people were suffering from Leprosy in Israel.

Andu aingi (many people) is the subject in the basic sentence in the above example. However, in the derived existential, it becomes the complement of the verb *ri* (was) which is introduced alongside the dummy pronoun *kwa* (there) as the subject.

Existentials in the present tense are introduced by expressions like *nikuri/kuri/kwi* or *nihari/hari/he*. These are confections equivalent to 'there is/are' with the subject as *ku* or *ha*. The focus marker *Ni* is however optional (hence *kuri* or *hari*). *Ri* here is equivalent to 'is/are'.

Examples:

2. Nikuri andu amwe metonyereirie thiritu-ini yanyu. (Judas 1:4)

There are some people who have entrenched themselves into your midst.

Basic- Andu amwe metonyereirie thiritu-ini yanyu.

Some people have entrenched themselves into your midst.

3. He mugambo wa mundu ukwanirira weru-ini. (Luke 2:4)

There is a person's voice that is crying in the wilderness.

Basic- Mugambo wa mundu ni ukwanirira weru-ini.

A man's voice is crying in the wilderness.

The subjects of the basic sentences of (2) and (3) above are *andu amwe* (some people) and *mugambo wa mundu* (a person's voice) respectively. In their existentials however, the elements have become complements of the verb *ri* ('are' in (2) and 'is' in (3)). It should be noted that the expression *he* in (3) has an underlying form *hari*, a conflation of the subject *ha* (there) and the verb *ri* (is).

The future existentials are introduced by the expression *nigukakorwo/gukakorwo*, equivalent to 'there will be'. The subject is *gu* (there), the tense prefix *ga* (will) and the verb *korwo* (be). Example (3) could be expressed in the future as follows:

4. Nigukagia mugambo wa mundu ukwanirira weru-ini. (Luke 2:4)

There will be a person's voice crying in the wilderness.

Basic- Mugambo wa mundu ni ukaanirira weru-ini.

A person's voice will cry in the wilderness.

The above examples are affirmatives. Gikuyu has negative existentials which indicate the non-existence of something. The negator *ti* (no) is introduced in the expression indicating the existence. For instance, those in the present tense are

introduced by the phrase *gutiri* (there is no) which conflates the subject *gu* (there), the negator *ti* (no) and the verb *ri* (was/were).

Example:

5. *Gutiri nyoni njega mwere-ini.* (Barra, 1960:16)

There is no nice bird in the millet field.

This however is a peripheral example without a basic counterpart.

The phrase indicating the existence of something in the positive or non-existence in the negative existential clause serves to introduce the highlighted element which is always an indefinite nominal element such as *andū amwe* (some people) in 2 above. Whatever comes after this element is referred to as an extension (Collins and Hollo, 2000). *Metonyereirie thiritu-ini yanyu* (who have entrenched themselves into your midst) in (2) above is such an example.

By removing the subject from an initial position in the basic sentence to a complement position in the existential, the Gikuyu existential structure assigns it *end focus* prominence since it appears towards the end of the existential.

4.1.3.2 'OCCURRENTIAL' STRUCTURES

We use the term 'occurrential' structures here to refer to Gikuyu clauses that indicate the notion of occurrence. They indicate that something occurred or will

occur. They are similar to the existentials in terms of the derivation process and structure. However, the verb in the ‘occurrential’ structure is not an equivalent of the verb ‘be’ but describes the nature of occurrence.

Examples:

1. Nigwokire mundu wareketio ni Ngai wetagwo Johana. (John 1:6)

There came a person sent by God called John.

Basic- Mundu wareketio ni Ngai wetagwo Johana niokire.

A person sent by God who was called John came.

2. Nigugoka ungi wi hinya kuri nii. (Luke 2:16)

There will come another one who is mightier than I.

Basic- Ungi wi hinya kuri nii niagoka.

Another one who is mightier than I will come.

There is however another kind of structure of the ‘occurrential’, particularly when the occurrence is in the past. The structure lacks the focus marker *ni*. Instead of the clause beginning with *nikwonekire*, it begins with *gukioneka*. Both expressions mean ‘there appeared’ or ‘there was seen’.

Examples:

3. Gukigia mugambo munene iguru. (Revelation 12:15)

There occurred a great voice in heaven.

Basic- Mugambo munene ukigia iguru

A great voice occurred in heaven.

4. Gugiuka mutumia e na cuba wi maguta. (Mark 14:3)

There came a woman with a bottle containing oil.

Basic- Mutumia e na cuba wi maguta agiuka.

A woman with a bottle containing oil came.

This kind of a structure does not occur alone but requires a connector like *gugicoka* (then) before it.

Gugicoka gukigia mugambo munene iguru. (Revelation 12:15)

Then there occurred a great voice in heaven.

‘Occurrentials’ are introduced by the expression indicating the notion of occurrence such as *nigwokire* (there came) in (1) or *gukigia* (there occurred) in (3). This is followed by the nominal element that is highlighted for emphasis, for example *mundu wareketio ni Ngai* (a person sent by God) in (1). Finally comes the extension if the clause has one.

The highlighted element receives *end focus* or *end weight* prominence. *Mugambo munene* (a great voice) in (3) receives *end focus* prominence since it is a simple noun phrase. The materials in the other examples receive *end weight* prominence since they are nominal clauses such as *ungi wi hinya kuri nii* (another one who is mightier than I) in (2). This is a complex nominal element that has a pronoun *ungi* (another) post-modified by a relative clause *wi hinya kuri nii* (who is mightier than

I). A sentence such as the basic of (2) with such a complex element as the subject would be odd.

4.1.3.3 EXTRAPOSITION

Extraposition involves moving a subordinate nominal clause functioning as subject to the right of the predicate, after which its position is occupied by a substitute form. (Collins and Hollo, 2000:138) The result is a clause with two subjects: the anticipatory subject (the substitute) and the postponed subject. (Quirk et. al. 1972).

Example:

Basic: That Wanjiru won gold is surprising.

Extraposition: It is surprising that Wanjiru won gold.

The basic sentence has the SVC structure. In the extraposed structure, the subordinate clausal subject 'that Wanjiru won gold' shifts from the initial position it occupies in the basic sentence to the final position for emphasis. In its place at the beginning of the clause is introduced a substitute subject, the anticipatory 'it'. The two are subjects with the same referent.

Gikuyu exhibits extraposition in both positive and negative statements. In the affirmative clause, the substitute form is the introductory *ni*. This conflates both the anticipatory subject and the verb and is equivalent to 'it is'.

Examples:

1. Niwega muno gucokeria Jehova ngatho. (Psalms 92:1)

It is very good to give the Lord thanks.

Basic- Gucokeria Jehova ngatho ni wega muno.

To give the Lord thanks is very good.

2. Ni mutego hari mundu kuuga na kihiko, kindu giki nindaamurira Ngai.

(Proverbs 20:25)

It is a trap for a person to say in haste, this thing I offer to God.

Basic- Hari mundu kuuga na kihiko, kindu giki nindaamurira Ngai

ni mutego.

For a person to say in haste, this thing I offer to God is a

trap.

It should be noted that *ni* in the basic sentence is only a verb equivalent to 'is' whereas *ni* in the derived clause is a conflation of the subject and the verb equivalent to 'it is'. It is the same with *ti* which is equivalent to 'it is not' in the negative clause. (See 3 below.)

The negative extraposition begins with *ti* (it is not).

3. Tiwega (ati) mundu uyu aikare wiki.(Genesis 2:18)

It is not proper (that) this man should stay alone.

Basic- (Ati) mundu uyu aikare wiki tiwega .

(That) this man should stay alone is not proper.

The extraposed clause could be a non-finite one (examples (1) and (2)) or an *ati* (that) clause though the word *ati* is optional (example (3)).

The basic sentences in this category have the SVC structure. They have non-finite clausal subjects such as *gucokeria Jehova ngatho* (to give the Lord thanks) in (1) or an equivalent of a 'that' clause such as *ati mundu uyu aikare wiki* (that this man should stay alone) in (3). The verb is *ni* (is). Upon extraposition, the clausal subject is moved past the verb and a substitute '*ni*' in the positive and *ti* in the negative clauses introduced at the beginning. This is followed by the complement of the verb and then the extraposed element comes finally.

Gikuyu allows for the combination of *ni/ti* and the complement into one word like *tiwega* (it is not proper). Extraposition in Gikuyu helps to avoid awkward statements with long and complex elements at the beginning as is the case in the basic sentence of example (2).

Since the postponing in extraposition involves a clausal element, it is assigned *end weight* prominence.

4.1.3.4 DISCONTINUED NOMINAL ELEMENT

Part of a complex nominal element in a clause may be moved to a later position in the clause for emphasis associated with the final position. And as Quirk et. al. (1972:966) notes, the element commonly affected is the post-modification of a noun phrase.

Example:

Basic: A person to talk to us has been invited.

Discontinued: A person has been invited to talk to us.

In the above example, the subject of the basic sentence is 'a person to talk to us'. It is discontinued in the derived clause. The part 'to talk to us' which post-modifies the head noun 'person' has been taken to the final position for end weight prominence.

This process is evident in Gikuyu too. The discontinued nominal element could be a clausal element containing a post-modifying relative clause, a coordinated noun phrase or a noun phrase containing a post-modifying prepositional phrase.

When the nominal element contains a relative clause (in bold below), it is that relative clause that is moved.

1. **Matuku nimagoka maria ngarahurira Daudi mūndu muthingu.**

(Jeremiah 23:5b)

Days will come when I will raise for David a righteous person.

Basic- **Matuku maria ngarahurira Daudi mundu muthingu ni magoka.**

Days when I will raise for David a righteous person will come.

When the post-modifier is a prepositional phrase, it is the prepositional phrase that is moved.

2. **Muni kiriti niwe ui uria thina uigana wa migogo na nyamu.** (Barra, 1960:72)

The forest clearer is the one who knows the extent of the trouble of logs and animals.

Basic- **Muni kiriti niwe ui uria thina wa migogo na nyamu uigana.**

The forest clearer is the one who knows the extent of the trouble of logs and animals.

We use the term ‘coordinated noun phrase’ to refer to an element such as a subject consisting of two noun phrases joined by a coordinating conjunction. In such a case, the part postponed is the conjunction and the second noun phrase.

3. **Irio ii ha, na ndibei?** (Lamentations 2:12a)

Food is where, and wine?

Basic- **Irio na ndibei ii ha?**

Food and wine are where?

Generally, the order of elements in the clause is maintained as in the basic.

However, the part of the nominal element to be postponed is detached from the other and taken past the predicate to the end of the clause.

By doing this, the element receives either *end weight* prominence (examples 1 and 2) or *end focus* prominence (example 3).

4.1.4 DISLOCATION CLASS

Dislocation involves the introduction of a new element in a clause, thereby causing another element, a nominal element, to move to a more prominent position. In English, the dislocating element is a personal pronoun and it takes the place of the dislocated element. The dislocation could be either to the right (right dislocation) or to the left (left dislocation) according to Collins and Hollo, (2000:145). This is exemplified below with the personal pronoun 'it' being introduced in the basic sentence to dislocate the object 'that play'.

Basic: I must watch that play.

Right dislocation: I must watch *it*, that play.

Left dislocation: That play, I must watch *it*.

Dislocation occurs in Gikuyu too. The dislocated element could be a complement of a preposition or an object in the basic sentence.

4.1.4.1 DISLOCATION OF THE COMPLEMENT OF A PREPOSITION

A complement of a preposition is dislocated through the introduction of a possessive pronoun like *make* (his/her) and *gwake* (his/her) in (1) and (2) below respectively. In the process, the preposition is dropped.

Examples:

1. Mundu mwaganu maundu make me kihera. (Proverbs 13:5)

A wicked person his ways have disgrace..

Basic- Maundu ma mundu mwaganu me kihera.

The ways of a wicked person have disgrace.

2. Muruti wira, kuhuta gwake ni kurutithanagia nake (Proverbs 16:26)

A labourer, his appetite works with him.

Basic- Kuhuta kwa muruti wira ni kurutithanagia nake.

The appetite of a labourer works with him.

Mundu mwaganu (a wicked person) in the basic sentence of (1) appears as the complement of the preposition *ma* (of) and *muruti wira* (a labourer) in (2) as a complement of the preposition *kwa* (of). In the derived clause (1), the possessive pronoun *make* (his/her) is introduced as a post-modifier of *maundu* (the ways) to

displace *ma mundu mwaganu* (of a wicked person) to the initial position. The preposition *ma* is dropped. The same happens to *muruti wira* (a labourer) in (2) which is dislocated by the possessive pronoun *gwake* (his/her) which post-modifies the noun *kuhuta gwake* (his appetite). The preposition *kwa* (of) is dropped.

The pronouns occupy the space of the displaced complement of the preposition. The two illustrations above are examples of left dislocation and they assign the elements *thematic* prominence. It is however possible that the pronouns could displace the element to the right giving it prominence associated with the final position. Example (1) could for instance appear as:

3. Maundu make me kihera mundu mwaganu.

His ways have disgrace a wicked person.

The complement is displaced to the final position to receive *end focus* prominence.

4.1.4.2 OBJECT DISLOCATION

The object in the sentence may also be displaced by a personal pronoun.

However, the pronoun in this case occupies a different position from that of the object in the basic position.

Examples:

1. Kundu kuria kunyotu ningaguitiriria maai. (Isaiah 44:3)

The place that is parched I will pour on it water.

Basic- Ningaitiriria kundu kuria kunyotu maai.

I will pour on the place that is parched water.

2. Mundu wa mahitia, waganu niurutururaga. (Proverbs 13:6)

A sinner, wickedness destroys him.

Basic- Waganu ni utururaga mundu wa mahitia.

Wickedness destroys a sinner.

Gu (it) and *mu* (him/her) in (1) and (2) respectively displace the object noun phrases *Kundu kuria kunyotu* (the place that is parched) and *Mundu wa mahitia* (a sinner) but do not take their exact places in the basic sentence. They instead occur as endoclitics, being endocliticised to the verb. In (1), *gu* (it) is endocliticised to the verb *ningaitiriria* ((I) will pour in) and *mu* (him/her) to *niurutururaga* ((it) destroys). Note that the object in (1) is locative in nature.

The above illustrations are examples of left dislocation. Placed in the initial position, the displaced elements receive *thematic* prominence.

But the object could also be displaced to the right. Example (1) could occur as follows in the right dislocation process:

3. Ningaguitiriria mai, Kundu kuria kunyotu.

I will pour on it water, the place that is thirsty.

Being a clause, the displaced element in (3) receives *end weight* prominence.

Having identified and described the various categories in Gikuyu emphatic clauses, our focus now changes to the application of Halliday's functional grammar theory in analyzing them in the following section.

4.2 FUNCTIONAL GRAMMAR ANALYSIS OF GIKUYU EMPHATIC CLAUSES

4.2.1 INTRODUCTION

This section applies Halliday's Functional Grammar Theory in analyzing Gikuyu emphatic clauses. The clauses are analysed in terms of *clause as exchange*.

As discussed in the theoretical framework, *clause as exchange* is one kind of meanings that the structure of a clause carries (Halliday, 1965:37). It divides the clause into two major sections: the Mood and the Residue. The Mood consists of the elements Subject and Finite while the Residue consists of the elements Predicator, Complement and Adjunct. These are labels of the functions various elements carry in the clause. This study borrows Halliday's way of distinguishing these labels from formal grammar ones. The Functional Grammar labels are henceforth written with the first letter in the upper case.

It is also important to note that whereas both the Mood elements (Subject and Finite) are obligatory in the clause, only the Predicator is in the Residue. A clause may lack either or both the Complement and the Adjunct. (See figures (4.1a) and (4.1d) respectively). It should however be noted that when the main verb in the clause is 'be' or 'have' in the simple past or present tense, it appears as Finite only. (Halliday, 1985:78-9). The clause then lacks the Predicator.

Gikuyu is an agglutinative language since it at times puts together more than one element in one word. The expression serving as the verb in the Gikuyu sentence comprises other elements serving other functions such as subject and object. This is reflected when the clause is analysed in terms of clause as exchange.

Consider the structure *ningaguitiriria* (I will pour on it) in the following clause.

Kundu kuria kunyotu ningaguitiriria maai.

The parched place I will pour on it water

The structure is analysed as follows:

| | | | | |
|-----------------|----------|---------------------------|-----------|-----------------|
| <i>Ni</i> | <i>n</i> | <i>ga</i> | <i>gu</i> | <i>itiriria</i> |
| - | (I) | (will) | (it) | (pour on) |
| focus marker | subject | future tense marker | object | verb |

When the clause is analysed in terms of clause as exchange, the expression therefore has more than one function. It serves in the Mood as Subject and Finite and at the same time in the Residue as Predicator and Complement. (See figure (4.12a) in subsection 4.2.4.2).

This conflation of elements is noted in all the clauses analysed in this section. We now revisit the various types of Gikuyu emphatic clauses starting with the reordering ones in order to account for them theoretically.

4.2.2 REORDERING CLASS

4.2.2.1 THE PASSIVE CONSTRUCTION

As already noted in the previous section, the ‘patient’ in the Gikuyu passive clause occupies the subject position. It takes the function of Subject in the Mood part of the clause, for example ‘*mburi*’ (goat) in figure (4.1a) below. The agent by-phrase, *ni munyu* (by salt) functions as Adjunct in the Residue. The verbal element *igucagio* (is attracted) conflates the Subject, the Finite and the Predicator.

The Residue in the passive clause could contain, alongside the Predicator, both the Complement and the Adjunct or lack either or both. Figure (4.1a) is an example of a passive structure lacking a complement.

Figure 4.1a: Passive structure without Complement.

| | | | | |
|-------------------------------|-----------------------|----------------------------------------------|------------|-----------------------------------|
| Mburi <i>A goat</i> | i <i>it</i> | guucagio <i>is attracted</i> | | ni munyu <i>by salt</i> |
| Subject | Subject prefix | Finite <i>habitual</i> <i>positive</i> | Predicator | Adjunct |
| Mood | | | Residue | |

Note that the Finite in this case has no overt marker but it is understood to be present. A passive without the Adjunct is one without the agent by-phrase as in figure (4.1b).

Figure 4.1b: Passive structure without Adjunct.

| | | | | |
|-----------------------------------------------------------------|--------------------------|----------------------------------|------------------------------------|------------------------------------------|
| Andu aria athingu <i>The people who are righteous</i> | ma <i>they</i> | ka <i>will</i> | rihwo <i>be rewarded</i> | maundu mega <i>good things</i> |
| Subject | Subject prefix | Finite <i>future positive</i> | Predicator | Complement |
| Mood | | | Residue | |

The Residue could however contain both the Complement and Adjunct (figure (4.1c)) or neither of the two to consist of only the Predicator (figure (4.1d)).

Figure 4.1c: Passive structure with both Complement and Adjunct.

| | | | | | |
|-----------------------------|-----------------------|--------------------------------|-------------------------------|------------------------------|----------------------------------------------------------------------|
| Musa <i>Moses</i> | n <i>he</i> | da <i>was not</i> | heirwo <i>given</i> | thayu <i>peace</i> | ni ciana cia <i>Isiraeli by the children of Israel</i> |
| Subject | Subject prefix | Finite <i>past negative</i> | Predicator | Complement | Adjunct |
| Mood | | | Residue | | |

Figure 4.1d: Passive structure with neither Complement nor Adjunct.

| | | | | |
|----------------------------------------|------------------------------------|-----------------------|--------------------------------|--------------------------------|
| Nyumba yakwa <i>My house</i> | ni (focus marker) | i <i>it</i> | ra <i>was</i> | cinirwo <i>razed</i> |
| Subject | Mood Adjunct | Subject prefix | Finite <i>past positive</i> | Predicator |
| Mood | | | | Residue |

The focus marker *ni* is classified under Mood Adjunct, coming before subject prefix.

4.2.2.2 THE CLEFT SENTENCE

As noted earlier, the first word in the cleft structure, *ni*, conflates both the subject and an equivalent of the verb 'is'. In *clause as exchange* analysis, it is therefore a conflation of two functions: Subject and Finite. The highlighted element and all that comes after it form the Complement.

Note that the conflation lacks Predicator as the verb is equivalent to 'is' which functions only as Finite.

Figure 4.2: The cleft structure

| | | |
|-----------|---------------------------------------------|-----------------------------------------------------------------------------|
| Ni | | Ngai witu turahaka <i>our God that we are</i> <i>appeasing</i> |
| <i>It</i> | <i>is</i> | |
| Subject | Finite <i>present</i> <i>positive</i> | Complement |
| Mood | | Residue |

4.2.2.3 PSEUDO CLEFT STRUCTURE

The order that the elements take in a pseudo cleft structure determines the functions they have in the clause, particularly the functions of the Subject and Complement.

In the first order, in which the subject of the clause is the highlighted element and the equivalent of the ‘wh’ nominal clause the complement, it is the highlighted element that takes the Subject function in the Mood while the relative clause functions as Complement.

Figure 4.3a: A pseudo-cleft with the highlighted element as Subject

| | | |
|-------------------------------------------------------|---------------------------------------------|----------------------------------------------------------------------|
| Ukiigu wa mundu <i>A person's stupidity</i> | ni <i>is</i> | nigwo uhaguraga njira ciake <i>what collapses his ways</i> |
| Subject | Finite <i>present</i> <i>positive</i> | Complement |
| Mood | Residue | |

On the other hand, when the ‘wh’ nominal clause equivalent comes initially, it is the one that takes the Subject function while the emphasized element serves as complement.

As can be seen in Figures (4.3a) above and (4.3b) below, the pseudo-cleft configuration lacks the Predicator since it has an equivalent of ‘is’, the present tense of the verb ‘be’, as the verb.

Figure 4.3b: A pseudo-cleft with the subordinate nominal clause as Subject

| | | |
|----------------------------------------------------------------------|---------------------------------------------|----------------------------------------------------------------|
| Kiria twarikia kwamukira <i>What we have just received</i> | ni <i>is</i> | Jesu Kristu e mugima <i>Jesus Christ being whole</i> |
| Subject | Finite <i>present</i> <i>positive</i> | Complement |
| Mood | Residue | |

4.2.2.4 TOPICALISATION

The structures analysed above have what can be described as the unmarked order of the clause as exchange functional categories, the Mood function coming initially. Some processes meant for emphasis in the Gikuyu clause like topicalisation however may lead to a different ordering of the categories with a Residue element coming initially.

It should be noted that despite an element becoming the topic or theme of the sentence, it does not take the Subject function in the clause as exchange. It has the function it would have in the basic sentence. As a result, the clause could begin with Complement if the topicalised element is a nominal element in the predicate. The Mood elements follow and then the rest of the Residue elements follow. The result is a discontinuous Residue (Halliday, 1985:81).

Figure 4.4a: Topicalisation: Complement occurring initially

| | | | |
|----------------------------------------------------------|---------------------------|---------------------------------------------|-------------------------------------------------------|
| Mwiri uri thakame <i>A body that has blood</i> | gu <i>there</i> | tiri <i>is none</i> | utarwaraga <i>that does not become sick</i> |
| Complement | Subject prefix | Finite <i>present</i> <i>negative</i> | Complement |
| Residue | Mood | | |

The Adjunct could also occur initially should the topicalised element be an adverbial, for example in the form of a prepositional phrase.

Figure 4.4b: Topicalisation: Adjunct occurring initially

| | | | |
|----------------------------------------------|---------------------------------------|---------------------------------------------|----------------------------------------|
| Hari mundu kirimu <i>To a fool</i> | gwika nai <i>doing evil</i> | ni <i>is</i> | ta ithako <i>like a game</i> |
| Adjunct | Subject | Finite <i>present</i> <i>positive</i> | Complement |
| Residue | Mood | | |

4.2.2.5 INVERSION

Three kinds of subject-complement inversion have been discussed in Gikuyu: ‘direct’ subject-complement inversion, inversion with ‘emphatic *no*’ and inversion with the ‘restrictive pronoun’. In all the three, as the subject inverts with the complement, so do the functions of the elements in the clause as exchange. The Residue elements come before the Mood elements since it is the element functioning as Complement that starts the clause.

Figure 4.5a: ‘Direct’ subject-complement inversion

| | | |
|--------------------------------|---------------------------------------------|----------------------------------------------------------------------------|
| Mugiro <i>Cursed</i> | ni <i>is</i> | uria wothe ugakaana Mwathani <i>everyone who denies the Lord</i> |
| Complement | Finite <i>present</i> <i>positive</i> | Subject |
| Residue | Mood | |

Figure 4.5b: Inversion with emphatic 'no'

| | | |
|--------------------------------------------|---------------------------------------------|---------------------------------------------------------------------------|
| Kindu kiuru <i>The bad thing</i> | no <i>is actually</i> | Mundu ethukitie we mwene <i>a person having defiled himself</i> |
| Complement | Finite <i>present</i> <i>positive</i> | Subject |
| Residue | Mood | |

Figure 4.5c: Inversion with restrictive pronoun

| | | |
|-----------------------------|---------------------------------------------|-------------------------------------------|
| Jesu <i>Jesus</i> | ni <i>is</i> | rio ritwa riake <i>his name</i> |
| Complement | Finite <i>present</i> <i>positive</i> | Subject |
| Residue | Mood | |

4.2.3 POSTPONEMENT CLASS

4.2.3.1 EXISTENTIAL STRUCTURES

In the analysis of existential structures, the Mood part of the clause comes first.

The first expression in the clause, which indicates the notion of existence, has two functions, Subject and Finite since it is the word that carries both the subject and the verb if the sentence is given a formal analysis. The expression also carries the focus marker *ni*, which is optional in an affirmative existential. It forms part of the Mood element as a Mood Adjunct. The negative existential does not have the focus marker.

The existential structure may have the Adjunct (figure (4.6a)) or not (figure (4.6b))

Figure 4.6a: A negative existential with Adjunct

| | | | |
|---------------------------|-----------------------------|----------------------------------------|------------------------------------------------|
| Gu <i>There</i> | tiri <i>is no</i> | nyoni njega <i>nice bird</i> | mwere-ini <i>in the millet field</i> |
| Subject prefix | Finite present negative | Complement | Adjunct |
| Mood | | Residue | |

Figure 4.6b: An affirmative existential without Adjunct

| | | | |
|-----------------------------|---------------------------|-------------------------|---------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|
| Ni (focus marker) | ku <i>There</i> | ri <i>are</i> | andu amwe metoyereirie thiritu-ini yanyu <i>people who have entrenched themselves in your midst</i> |
| Mood Adjunct | Subject prefix | Finite present positive | Complement |
| Mood | | | Residue |

It should be noted that the existential structure lacks the Predicator since it has *ri* (is/are) as the verb. Another important thing to note with the analysis of the existential structure is that the Adjunct is an optional element as illustrated below.

Figure 4.6c: An existential without Adjunct

| | | |
|---------------------------|-----------------------------|----------------------------------------|
| Gu <i>There</i> | tiri <i>is no</i> | nyoni njega <i>nice bird</i> |
| Subject prefix | Finite present negative | Complement |
| Mood | | Residue |

4.2.3.2 'OCCURENTIAL' STRUCTURES

'Occurential' structures take a similar analysis as the existentials, with the adjunct being optional. The positive structure has the focus marker while the negative structure lacks one. However, the 'occurential' structure has the Predicator which lacks in the existential.

Note that in the clause *nigugoka ungi wi hinya kuri nii* (there will come another one who is mightier than I), the expression *nigugoka* has an underlying form *nigukauka* and it conflates the following:

- the focus marker *ni*
- the subject *gu* (locative 'there')
- the future tense marker *ka* (will)
- the main verb *uka* (come)

In the clause as exchange, *gu* serves as the Subject, *ka* as the Finite and *uka* as the Predicator. The full analysis of the clause is as follows:

Figure 4.7a: Positive 'occurential' without Adjunct

| | | | | |
|-----------------------------|---------------------------|----------------------------------|---------------------------|-------------------------------------------------------------------------------|
| Ni (focus marker) | gu <i>There</i> | ka <i>will</i> | uka <i>come</i> | ungi wi hinya kuri nii <i>another one who has more power than I</i> |
| Mood Adjunct | Subject prefix | Finite <i>future positive</i> | Predicator | Subject |
| Mood | | | Residue | |

Figure 4.7b: Negative 'occurential' with Adjunct

| | | | | |
|---------------------------|------------------------------------------|----------------------------|-----------------------------------------------|----------------------------------|
| Gu <i>There</i> | ki <i>did</i> | gia <i>occur</i> | mugambo munene <i>a great voice</i> | iguru <i>in heaven</i> |
| Subject prefix | Finite <i>past</i> <i>positive</i> | Predicator | Complement | Adjunct |
| Mood | | Residue | | |

4.2.3.3 EXTRAPOSITION

The analysis of an extraposed clause in terms of clause as exchange produces a unique kind of configuration. This is because two independent elements in the clause function as Subjects, one at the beginning (the anticipatory subject) and the other one at the end after the Complement (the postponed subject).

The first element is the introductory *ni* which conflates the Subject and the Finite. The other element is the one postponed from the initial subject position in the sentence to a later position for prominence. Both function as Subject since their referent is the same. The result in the analysis is a discontinuous Mood.

Figure 4.8a: Negative Extraposed structure

| | | | |
|-------------------------------|---------------------------------------------|------------------------------|--------------------------------------------------------------------------------|
| Ti <i>It is not</i> | | wega <i>proper</i> | (ati) mundu uyu aikare wiki <i>(that) this man should stay alone</i> |
| Subject | Finite <i>present</i> <i>negative</i> | complement | Subject |
| Mood | | Residue | |

Figure 4.8b: Positive Extraposed structure

| | | | |
|---------------------------|---------------------------------------------|--------------------------------|----------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|
| Ni <i>It is</i> | | mutego <i>a trap</i> | hari mundu kuuga na kihiko, kindu giki nindaamurira Ngai <i>for a person to say in haste this thing I offer to God</i> |
| Subject | Finite <i>present</i> <i>positive</i> | Complement | Subject |
| Mood | | Residue | |

4.2.3.4 DISCONTINUED NOMINAL ELEMENT

When a nominal element is discontinued, two things are likely to happen. The first is that the Mood could become discontinued. This happens when the discontinued element is the subject in the basic sentence because the part detached from the nominal element appears after Residue. It is therefore the Subject that is discontinued.

In figure (4.9a) below, the subject *Matuku maria ngaarahurira Daudi mundu muthingu* (days when I will raise for David a righteous person) is discontinued. The detached element, *maria ngaarahurira Daudi mundu muthingu* (when I will raise for David a righteous person) comes after the expression *nimagoka* ((they) will come). The expression has an underlying form *nimakauka*. *Ni* is the focus marker, *ma* the Subject (they), *ka* the future tense marker (will) and *uka* the verb (come).

Figure 4.9a: Discontinued subject

| | | | | | |
|------------------------------|--------------------------------|--------------------------|--------------------------------------------|---------------------------|----------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|
| Matuku <i>Days</i> | ni (focus marker) | ma <i>they</i> | ka <i>will</i> | uka <i>come</i> | maria ngaarahurira Daudi mundumuthingu <i>when I will raise for</i> David a righteous person |
| Subject | Mood Adjunct | Subject prefix | Finite <i>future</i> <i>positive</i> | Predicator | Subject |
| Mood | | | | Residue | |

The other likelihood is that both Mood and Residue could remain intact and in the unmarked order. This is the case when the element discontinued is a post-verbal one in the basic sentence. The element discontinued in the following illustration is *thina wa migogo na nyamu* (the trouble of logs and animals). It is the prepositional phrase *wa migogo na nyamu* (of logs and animals) that is moved.

Figure 4.9b: Discontinued post-verbal nominal element

| | | |
|-----------------------------------------------------------|---------------------------------------------|-------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|
| Muni kiriti <i>The forest</i> <i>clearer</i> | ni <i>it is</i> | we ui uria thina uigana wa migogo na nyamu <i>the one who knows the extent of trouble of logs and animals</i> |
| Subject | Finite <i>present</i> <i>positive</i> | Complement |
| Mood | | Residue |

4.2.4 DISLOCATION CLASS

4.2.4.1 DISLOCATION OF THE COMPLEMENT OF A PREPOSITION

When a possessive pronoun is introduced to dislocate a complement of a preposition (preposition of possession), the dislocation could be either a left or a right one. Since the dislocated bit is part of a nominal element, it serves in the same function as the other bit, whether in the left or right dislocation. The dislocating element serves in the same function too.

Figure 4.10a: Left dislocation of the complement of a preposition

| | | |
|---------------------------------------------------------------------|---------------------------------------------|----------------------------------|
| Mundu mwaganu maundu make <i>A wicked person his ways</i> | me <i>have</i> | kihera <i>disgrace</i> |
| Subject | Finite <i>present</i> <i>positive</i> | Complement |
| Mood | | Residue |

Figure 4.10b: Right dislocation of the complement of a preposition

| | | |
|---------------------------------------------------------------------|---------------------------------------------|----------------------------------|
| Maundu make Mundu mwaganu <i>His ways a wicked person</i> | me <i>have</i> | kihera <i>disgrace</i> |
| Subject | Finite <i>present</i> <i>positive</i> | Complement |
| Mood | | Residue |

The above configurations lack the Predicator since the verb of the structures, *me*, is equivalent to 'have'. As earlier mentioned clauses with the main verb as 'have' in the simple present or past tense do not have the predicator.

4.2.4.2 OBJECT DISLOCATION

Dislocation of the object in the clause results in duplication of the function of Complement. This is because the dislocating pronoun, which is endoclititicised to the verb, serves the same function of Complement just like the dislocated element. Figure (4.12a) below illustrates this. Note that in the configuration, the verbal element of the clause serves as many as four functions. *Gu* (it) is the endoclititic that attaches itself to the expression *ningaitiriria* (I will pour on) to give rise to the expression *ningaguitiriria* (I will pour on it). It displaces *Kundu kuria kunyotu* (the place that is parched), the object, to the left. It is therefore an example of left dislocation. The result is an analysis with a discontinuous Residue.

Figure 4.11a: Left dislocation of the object

| | | | | | | |
|-------------------------------------------------------------------------|----------------------------------|-----------------------|---------------------------|-------------------------|------------------------------------|------------------------------|
| Kundu kuria kunyotu <i>The place that is parched</i> | ni (focus marker) | n <i>I</i> | ka <i>will</i> | gu <i>it</i> | itiriria <i>pour on</i> | maai <i>water</i> |
| Complement | Mood Adjunct | Subject prefix | Finite <i>future</i> | Complement prefix | Predicator | Complement |
| Residue | Mood | | | | | |

The right dislocation of the same element could result in an order with neither the Residue nor Mood being discontinuous. However, the two Complements, which have the same referent, are still separated. These are *gu* (it) and *kundu kuria kunyotu* (the place that is parched)

Figure 4.11b: Right dislocation of the object

| | | | | | | |
|--------------------------------|----------------------|-------------------------------------------------------------|------------------------|-----------------------------------|-----------------------------|------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|
| Ni (focus marker) | n <i>I</i> | ka <i>will</i> | gu <i>it</i> | itiriria <i>pour on</i> | maai <i>water</i> | kundu kuria kunyotu <i>the place that</i> <i>is parched</i> |
| Mood Adjunct | Subject | Finite <i>positive</i> <i>future</i> <i>active</i> | Complement prefix | Predicator | Complement | Complement |
| Mood | | | Residue | | | |

To summarise, the chapter has described the Gikuyu emphatic clauses in its first part and applied Haliday's functional grammar in analysing them in the second. The following chapter forms the conclusion to the study.

CHAPTER 5

SUMMARY OF FINDINGS, CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

5.0 INTRODUCTION

This final chapter has a summary of the findings, conclusion and also the recommendations. It finally provides area recommended for further research.

5.1 SUMMARY OF THE FINDINGS

The findings are organized according to the objectives of the study. The first objective of the study was to establish the categories of emphatic structures in the syntax of Gikuyu. The study has identified the various categories in the syntax which are broadly categorized into three groups. These are:

- Reordering class
- Postponement class
- Dislocation class

Categories in the **reordering** class include the passive, the cleft, the pseudo-cleft, topicalisation and inverted structures. These clauses move an element from a position it occupies in a basic sentence in the process of their derivation in

response to informational factors. The element may be moved to the initial position or towards the end.

In the **postponement** class, the clauses move an element from a position occupied in a basic sentence to place it at or towards the end of the derived clause. The categories here include the existential, 'occurrential', extraposition and discontinued nominal element structures.

The final class, the **dislocation** class, has structures that introduce an element in a basic sentence moving another element, a nominal element, to a more prominent position. The dislocated element could be moved to the right (right dislocation) or to the left (left dislocation). The class has three categories: the subject dislocation, dislocation of the complement of a preposition and object dislocation clauses.

The second objective of the study was to identify the kinds of prominence assigned to the highlighted elements in these clauses. As pointed out above, categories in both the *reordering* and *dislocation classes* involve movement of a highlighted element either to the front or towards the end of a clause. **Thematic prominence** is assigned to the elements that are moved to the initial position. On the other hand, elements moved towards the end of the clause are assigned prominence associated with the final position of a clause. This could be **end focus prominence** for simple elements such as a noun phrase comprising only one word

or **end weight prominence** when the element involved is a complex one such as a nominal clause.

The *postponement class* categories have the highlighted elements placed at or towards the end of the clause assigning them either **end focus prominence** or **end weight prominence**.

The final objective was to explain the Gikuyu emphatic clauses within Functional Grammar Theory (Halliday, 1985). The study shows that all the emphatic categories can be analysed within the theory, specifically in terms of *clause as exchange*. The clauses are divided into two parts: the Mood and the Residue. The Mood carries the Subject and the Finite, both of which are obligatory in the configuration. The Residue consists of the Predicator, Adjunct and Complement. Adjunct and Complement are not obligatory in the configuration but the Predicator is obligatory except when the main verb of the clause is *ni* (is) or *ri* (have/has).

5.2 CONCLUSION

The conclusion drawn are based on the findings of the study. To start with, the Gikuyu syntax has various emphatic structures in the syntax. These differ in the way they order their elements as compared to the basic sentences from which they are derived. Using this as the basis, the Gikuyu emphatic structures fall under three

broad categories: the reordering class, the postponement class and the dislocation class.

Secondly, the Gikuyu emphatic clauses assign various kinds of emphasis to the elements they highlight. This is achieved by positioning the element at prominent position in the clauses. Some elements are positioned initially to receive thematic/topic prominence while others are positioned at or towards the end to receive either end focus or end weight prominence.

Finally, Gikuyu emphatic clauses can be analysed in terms of Halliday's Functional Grammar Theory. The clauses can be analysed in terms of *clause as exchange*, a kind of meaning carried by the structure of a clause as discussed in the theory. The analysis divides them into two parts, the Mood and the Residue.

5.3 RECOMMENDATIONS

This study has highlighted various ways in which the Gikuyu syntax highlights various elements. We recommend that users of Gikuyu, whether native speakers or not, familiarize themselves with these ways so that as they use the language, they are able to convey the emphatic meaning they desire to communicate.

On the same line, we feel the language should be promoted and popularized more. We recommend that the native speakers of Gikuyu, especially the young people who like using foreign languages instead of their own, should endeavor to use it a lot in their communication.

We also recommend that scholars delve into studying other aspects of Gikuyu that have not yet been explored. Institutions offering studies on African languages should adopt the findings of such studies in their syllabuses. This will bring to light the richness of the language making it more popular.

AREAS FOR FURTHER RESEARCH

In connection to the last recommendation above, we suggest that studies be carried in the following areas.

As discussed in the theoretical framework, Functional Grammar Theory (Halliday, 1985) identifies three kinds of meaning of a clause: clause as exchange, clause as message and clause as representation (of a process). This study has limited itself to analyzing the emphatic structures in terms of clause as exchange only. It is recommended therefore that studies be carried out to find out how the other two kinds of meaning apply in the analysis of the structures.

The Functional Grammar Theory has been applied in this study to explain only one kind of structure, the Gikuyu emphatic structures. There is need to find out how the theory can apply in analyzing other kinds of Gikuyu structures. On the same line, there is need to apply the theory in other languages, especially African languages.

This study has dealt with syntactic emphasis only in Gikuyu. However, it is true that emphasis can also be marked phonologically. There is need therefore to look into the latter.

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