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Cleft constructions and focus in Kirundi

Mena Lafkioui, Ernest Nshemezimana and Koen Bostoen

Abstract

Although cleft constructions are one of the main focus marking devices in Bantu languages, they have received little attention. This corpus-based study aims at remedying this lack by examining the intricate morphosyntax and semantics of clefts in Kirundi (Bantu, JD62) and the different functions they fulfil in its information structure, which mostly pertain to argument focus marking. As we demonstrate in this article, clefting is subject to high formal constraints in Kirundi; specific morphemes and word order changes are the main strategies to mark focus. We also show here that, in addition to the cross-linguistically common cleft types (basic clefts, pseudoclefts and inverted pseudoclefts), Kirundi also distinguishes a type that we call ‘cleft-like’ constructions, which relate to clefts but are structurally or functionally divergent. A sub-type of the latter category contains several constructions in which the scope of focus is extended to the entire sentence.

Keywords: cleft constructions, focus, Bantu, information structure
Introduction

The present article addresses the rich and complex morphosyntax of cleft constructions in Kirundi (Bantu, JD62) and the role they play in its information structure. Following Lambrecht (2001: 467) – and accordingly also Jespersen (1937; 1949) on which Lambrecht’s work is largely based – we regard a basic cleft construction (BC) as “a complex sentence structure consisting of a matrix clause headed by a copula and a relative or relative-like clause whose relativized argument is coindexed with the predicative argument of the copula. Taken together, the matrix and the relative express a logically simple proposition, which can also be expressed in the form of a single clause without a change in truth conditions.”

(1) Basic cleft (BC) = matrix clause (MC) + relative clause (RC)
    MC = cleft marker (CM) + clefted constituent

Beside its syntactic and semantic non-compositionality, a BC has the specific feature of being an identificational equative formation. It is used in Kirundi to mark focus. We consider focus to be a broad functional category which ‘indicates the presence of alternatives that are relevant for the interpretation of linguistic expressions’ (Krifka 2007: 18, following Rooth 1992). As we show in this article, the clefted constituent in Kirundi is generally in the scope of focus in that it represents the most salient pragmatic information which the hearer has to seize according to the speaker or is part of it (cf. Dik 1997: 326). In many languages of the world, at least one sentence accent necessarily indicates the focus (Lambrecht & Michaelis 1998). Kirundi differs in this respect because it does not need any focus accent. Specific morphemes and changes in linear word order fulfil this function. On the other hand, as we demonstrate in this article, Kirundi ties in with the general tendency to distinguish at least three main focus categories (Lambrecht 1994): 1) predicate focus (PF)1, which is the unmarked focus category standing for a topic-comment articulation, 2) argument focus (AF), which is used for identifying or specifying an argument (often with contrastive articulation), and 3) sentence focus (SF), which introduces a new discourse entity or event (thetic articulation).

Although clefts are one of the main focus marking devices in Bantu languages (Demuth 1987; Suzman 1991; Sabel & Zeller 2006; Cheng & Downing 2013; Hamlaouï & Makasso 2015), especially in conversation, they have received little attention. Some Burundian grammarians took a certain interest in clefting in Kirundi (Sabimana 1986: 189-222; Ndayiragije 1999; Bukuru 2003: 295), but only in a subsidiary way. No systematic and thorough study on the matter exists. This study aims at filling this gap by means of a detailed analysis of Kirundi cleft constructions based on a text corpus of 196,000 oral and 2,033,000 written tokens, whose compilation was started at Ghent University under the supervision of Gilles-Maurice de Schryver as part of the PhD research that led to the dissertation of

1. This is not to be confounded with ‘predication focus’ or ‘predicate-centred focus’ as defined by Güldemann (2003: 330-331), i.e. focus that is centred on either the verb lexeme or a predication operator linked with the verb expressing values such as polarity, truth, time, aspect, or modality, but excludes objects and adjuncts. In Kirundi, this kind of focus is marked by the so-called ‘disjoint’ (Nshemizimana & Bostoen forthcoming).
Mberamihigo (2014). Apart from cleft constructions, which are biclausal, the corpus also provides evidence for two main types of monoclausal focus strategies with distinctive word order configurations. A first type consists of those constructions displaying canonical SVO word order in which the so-called morphological ‘conjoint/disjoint alternation’ is used to distinguish between object and adjunct focus on the one hand and predicate-centred and sentence focus on the other hand. As argued in Nshemezimana and Bostoen (forthcoming), only the disjoint is a dedicated focus marker in that it has a distinctive morphological form which signals that the event to which a predicate refers is the most salient pragmatic information in a given communicative setting. In the absence of this ‘event focus marker’, the constituent following the verb is focussed by default. In a sentence with canonical word order, this is either an object or an adjunct. A second type of monoclausal focus constructions consists of those in which the subject is post-verbal. These are the so-called ‘subject inversion’ constructions (Marten & van der Wal 2014) of which several subtypes exist in Kirundi according to Nshemezimana (2016: 111-186): patient inversion also known as ‘subject-object reversal’, instrument inversion, complement inversion, formal locative inversion, semantic locative inversion, and default agreement inversion with the expletive ha-subject marker. All share the same discursive function, i.e. subject focus, except disjoint-marked expletive inversion constructions, which are found in thetic statements. In contrast to clefts, subject inversion constructions received much attention in Bantu linguistics (Bresnan & Kanerva 1989; Demuth & Harford 1999; Ndayiragije 1999; Marten 2006; Zerbian 2006; Buell 2007; Bostoen & Mundeke 2011; Creissels 2011; Zeller 2013; Guérois 2014; Hamlaoui & Makasso 2015).

Figure 1. Distribution of sentence types in a randomly selected sample of 982 written and 942 oral Kirundi sentences

In natural Kirundi language use, subject inversion constructions are relatively marginal compared to clefts, as is shown in Figure 1, which represents the distribution of sentence types in two randomly selected and representative corpus samples consisting of respectively 982 written and 942 oral Kirundi sentences. The bar graph in Figure 1 displays the same proportions for both sub-corpora. The overall majority of sentences comply with the canonical SVO word order (respectively 84.6% and 88%). Cleft constructions (respectively 6.9% and 5.7%)
are clearly a more common focus strategy than subject inversion constructions (respectively 2.5% and 1%). Presentational constructions (respectively 2.6% and 3.8%), which some scholars regard as a subcategory of cleft constructions (Léard 1992; Lambrecht 2001), also occur more frequently than subject inversion. We do not consider presentational constructions here, since they are distinct from clefts both functionally and morphosyntactically. They are not identificational equatives and they involve other markers, such as hari ‘there is’, nga+demonstrative ‘here it is’ or desemanticized perception verbs (Nshemezimana 2016: 257-295).

Cleft constructions into Kirundi can be subdivided into three main categories: basic clefts, pseudoclefts, and inverted pseudoclefts. The notion “basic” is used here with regard to the structure of the different cleft constructions in Kirundi and not with regard to their frequency of usage. As shown in Figure 2, which represents the proportion of different cleft types identified in the corpus samples, constructions cross-linguistically considered to be pseudoclefts are significantly more frequent than so-called “basic” clefts in Kirundi. In the sample of written sentences, pseudoclefts (42.6%) and inverted pseudoclefts (44.1%) represent together 86.7% of all cleft constructions. In the sample of oral sentences, they even stand for 92.6% of all cleft constructions, i.e. respectively 50% and 42.6%.

![Figure 2. Distribution of cleft types in a randomly selected sample of 982 written and 942 oral Kirundi sentences](image)

This corpus-based study starts with a description of the main components of Kirundi cleft constructions in §1. Subsequently, the different cleft types are discussed according to both their morphosyntactic-semantic and pragmatic properties: basic clefts in §2, pseudoclefts in §3 and inverted pseudoclefts in §4. Some cleft-like constructions that relate to clefts but are structurally or functionally deviant are dealt with in §5.
1. Constituents of Kirundi cleft constructions

In this section, we discuss the main formal elements of Kirundi cleft constructions: the copula (§1.1), the clefted constituent (§1.2), and the relative clause (§1.3).

1.1. Copula

In Kirundi, cleft copulas are verbs with a weak degree of verbality in terms of valence, modality, and grammatical person marking. As we argue below, some of them have evolved into dedicated cleft markers, a property that is attested across languages (Lambrecht 1994; Blanche-Benveniste 2002; Muller 2002). Kirundi has three types of copula to mark clefting: 1) the invariable particle ni (84% in the written corpus sample and 89% in the oral corpus sample) and its negative counterpart si (respectively 6% and 2%), 2) a series of composite forms based on the root -ri with its concord prefixes (respectively 9% and 7%) and 3) those based on the root -a which is combined with negation markers, such -ta- and nti- (respectively 1% and 2%).

The copulas ni and si are widespread in Bantu and have been reconstructed in Proto-Bantu (Meeussen 1967: 115). They are well documented in the Great Lakes Bantu languages closely related to Kirundi, such as Masaba (JE31) (Purvis 1907), Kinyarwanda (JD61) (Kimenyi 1980) and Kiha (JD66) (Harjula 2004). They can neither be marked for subject agreement nor incorporate TAM morphology, but are marked by a high tone in Kirundi, as shown in (2) to (4). Meeussen (1959: 176) considers them as part of a paradigm of so-called “indices” which constitute a complex together with the nominal or pronominal form that follows and therefore writes them as joined to the following word, a convention to which we and others do not adhere, because they are still to be considered as separate words in Kirundi. The copulas ni and si only occur in the main clause, where they are equivalent to the indicative mood and fulfil different functions which Mikkelsen (2005) associates with copular clauses: predication (2), specification (3), and equation (4), but not location.

(2) Iyo ng’iingo ní nshaásha.
“This measure is new.”
(Igitabo Camategeko, Laws, 2000s)

i-i-o N-gingo ní N-shaásha
AUG₂-PP₁-DEM₃ NP₂-measure COP NP₂-new

(3) Umugoré sí Frida gusa.
“The woman is not just Frida.”
(Ikirezi, Theatre, 1990s)

u-mu-goré sí Frida gusa
AUG₁-NP₁-woman NEG.COP Frida only
Mushíkiwé ní umubáanyi waanje.
“His sister is my neighbour.”
(Dialogue02050914revu, Magazines, 2010s)

mushíkiwé ní u-mu-báanyi u-aanje
his.sister COP AUG1-NP1-neighbour PP1-POS1

From this last use as identificational equative copula, ní and sí have evolved into dedicated cleft markers through the loss of their characteristic high tone and the bleaching of their different copular meanings. In Kirundi, they specifically mark focus within clefts, though not yet within monoclausal constructions, as is the case in certain other Bantu languages, such as Kikuyu (Schwartz 2003). When introducing the matrix clause of a Kirundi cleft construction, as in (5) and (6), they no longer function as an identificational copula, but specifically mark identificational focus. The fact that low-toned ni and si are still distinctive in terms of polarity suggests that they have not fully grammaticalized yet into dedicated discourse markers, even if si is particularly rare in cleft constructions, especially in oral discourse (occurring in only 2% of all clefts).

Ni amaráso yáacu yaséesetse.
“It is our blood that was shed.”
(BVUrwimo, Peace, 2000s)

ni a-ma-ráso a-áacu a-á-sees-ek-ye“
CM AUG6-NP6-blood PP6-POS1pLoc SP6-REM.PST-shed-NEUT-PFV.REL

Si mwe mwaántooye.
“It is not you who chose me.”
(UbwuzureBushasha, Religion, 1960s)

si mwe mu-á-n-tóor-ye“
NEG.CM you.PL SP2e-REM.PST-OP1Loc-choose-PFV.REL

The copula -ri also corresponds to a Proto-Bantu reconstruction, i.e.*-di (Meeussen 1967: 86). In contrast to ní and sí, it can be marked for subject agreement and incorporate certain tense morphology (Meeussen 1959: 145-147). The copula -ri stands in complementary distribution with ní and sí in that in the main clause it only expresses predication, specification and identification/equation in tenses other than the present, as shown in (7), where it marks predication in the remote past.

Abakényezi baári beénshi mu basérukira imigaambwe.
“Women were numerous among the party representatives.”
(EUfinal, Politics, 2010s)

a-ba-kényezi ba-á-ri ba-iínshi mu ba-sérukir-a
AUG2-NP2-woman SP2-REM.PST-be NP2-many LOC18 NP2-represent-FV
i-mi-gaambwe
AUG4-NP4-party

In the present tense, -ri can only express location in the main clause, as illustrated in (8).
(8) Ico kigabiro kiri ku musózi Munyinya.
“This memorial tree is on Munyinya hill.”
(IragiNdanga, Traditional Culture, 2000s)

Furthermore, -ri occurs in either relative clauses, as in (9), or in other subordinate clauses, such as indirect speech clauses introduced by the complementizer kó in (10) to (12). The functions of -ri in subordinate clauses are similar to those of ni and sí in the main clause. It expresses predication, as in (9), specification, as in (10), and identification, as in (11). In addition, as shown in (12), it can also convey location, as in the main clause. When it is used in the present tense and does not express location, as in (10), it invariably occurs as ari. The initial prefix a- marks neither agreement nor co-reference and can therefore be considered to be an expletive marker.

(9) Bígeze aho, uwarí mukurú muri bó arabahooyahooya.
“Then, he who was of age amongst them calmed them.”
(UbwuzureBushasha, Religion, 1960s)

(10) […], bavuga kó abatuutsi arí ubwoko bwaátoowe n’Imáana.
“[…] they say that the Tutsi are an ethnic group which was elected by God.” (GL0881, Politics, 1990s)

(11) Ntitwoovuga kó bóóse baári abatatagifu.
“We cannot say that all were saints.”
(Mushingantahe, Peace, 2000s)
(12) Bavuga kó Imáana irí mu kibaánza ca mbere.
“They say God ranks first (lit. God is in the front place).”

(CU101118Ubu, Peace, 2010s)

In cleft constructions, -ri replaces ni and si in tenses other than the present, as in (13), or when the cleft occurs in a subordinate clause, as in (16). At the beginning of a cleft’s matrix clause, -ri maintains its capacity for subject marking, as shown in (13), where it agrees with the noun class of the clefted noun abarimiro.

(13) Baari abarimiro baakuundá kunywá itaábi ryiínshi.
“It was the people from Kirimiro who used to smoke a lot of tobacco.”

(BBW1010033Imana, Information, 2010s)

If a singular speech participant is clefted, as in (14a), -ri does not agree with the clefted participant, but takes the default class 1 subject prefix, in contrast to its regular subject agreement as a copula (Meeussen 1959: 145-147). If a plural speech participant is clefted, in (14b), -ri either agrees with the clefted participant or takes the default class 2 subject prefix.

(14) a. Ico gihe yaári jeewé nasiiivyé gusa.
“At that time, it was me only who was absent.”

(Introspection)

b. Ico gihe twaári/baári tweebwé twasiivyé gusa.
“At that time, it was us only who were absent.”

(Introspection)

2. Data labelled as ‘introspection’ were generated by the second author on the basis of his native speaker competence.
In certain tenses and moods, such as the future or the potential, -ri is used in its invariable expletive form and preceded by the copula -ba, which carries subject and TAM marking. The cleft marker ari itself is marked by the characteristic high tone of the so-called ‘conjunctive’ mood (Meeussen 1959: 109), as shown in (15).

(15) **Booba ari baá baáana baajé?**
    “Would it be these children who have come?”
    (*Ntusige*, Theatre, 1970s)

\[
\text{ba-oó-bá a"-ri ba-a ba-áana ba-Ø-az-ye"} \\
\text{SP₂-POT-be EXPL.CJC-be PP₂-DEM_{iv} NP₂-child SP₂-PRS-come-PFV.REL}
\]

The invariable expletive form ari is also used when the cleft is part of a subordinate clause and conveyed in the present tense, as in (16).

(16) **Mbona ari je yiitwáararitse gusa.**
    “I see that it is in me only that he is interested.”
    (*Abahungu*, Education, 1980s)

\[
\text{N-Ø-bón-a a"-ri je a-Ø-iitwáararik-ye" gusa} \\
\text{SP₁-PRS-see-IPFV EXPL.CJC-be me SP₁-PRS-be.interested-PFV.REL only}
\]

The expletive form ari also has a restrictive equivalent atari in cleft constructions. Although the prefix -ta-, which follows the expletive a-, usually marks negation, this is not the case in clefts, where it rather adds a restrictive value to their content. Moreover, for clefts with -ta- to be felicitous, they must be part of the main clause and articulated with a proper exclamation or interrogative intonation. In the case of an exclamation, atari could be paraphrased as ‘it is just X who/that...’, as in (17), whereas in the context of questioning it conveys the idea of ‘isn’t it?’, just like with si in (18a), but with more intensity, as in (18b).

(17) **CONTEXT: “Is it Maria or Suzanne who has just hit Peter?”**

\[
\text{N’ukurí Suzaána atari we yakubíse Peetéro!} \\
\text{in.fact Suzanne EXPL-NEG-be her SP₁-N.PST-hit-PFV.REL Peter}
\]

(18) a. **Ha ha ha! None si wewé wabígize?**
    “Ha ha ha! Is it not you then who has done it?”
    (*Igiti*, Theatre, 2010s)

\[
\text{nooné si wewé u-á-bi-gir-ye"?} \\
\text{then NEG.CM you.SG SP₂-REM.PST-OP_{8}-do-PFV.REL}
\]

3. QUIS refers to Kirundi data which were generated through the ‘Questionnaire on Information Structure’ with native speakers other than the second author (Skopeteas *et al.* 2006).
b. **Atarí wewé wabígize none?**
   “Is it really not you then who has done it?”
   (Transformation from *Igiti*, Theatre, 2010s)\(^4\)
   \(a\)-\(ta\)-\(rí\) \(wewé\) \(u\)-\(á\)-\(bi\)-\(gir\)-\(ye\)u
   \(nooné\)?
   \(\text{EXPL-NEG-be you.SG SP}_{2s}\text{_REM.PST-OP}_8\text{do-PFV.REL then}\)

Adverbials such as *n’ukurí* ‘in fact’ (17) and *nooné* ‘then’ often join the -\(ri\) marker in cleft constructions. Depending on the discursive context, they can even be compulsory. In (17), for instance, *n’ukurí* cannot be omitted as long as the sentence is prosodically marked as an exclamation.

The last copulas occurring in Kirundi clefts are *ntaa* and *atáa*, which are built on the same root *-a* in combination with a negation marker. The exclusive copula *ntaa* ‘there is no(t)’, which comprises the negation marker *nti-*, belongs to the same paradigm of “indices” as *ní* and *sí*, which Meeussen (1959: 176) distinguishes as forming a complex together with the following noun or pronoun. It also only appears in main clauses, as in (19).

(19) **Ntaa gukéekeranya.**
   “There is no doubt.”
   *(CMPPR_Brahnam, Religion, 2010s)*
   *ntaa* \(kú-kéekerany-a\)
   \(\text{NEG.COP NP}_{15}\text{-doubt-FV}\)

The copula *atáa*, which comprises the negation prefix *-ta-* preceded by the expletive marker *a-*, stands in complementary distribution with *ntaa* in that it only occurs in subordinate clauses (Meeussen 1959: 87). Such is the case in (20).

(20) **Nabóna atáa batuutsi agiríra náabí.**
   “I saw that he did not do evil to the Tutsi.”
   *(Icíza, Novels, 1970s)*
   \(N\)-\(á\)-\(bón\)-\(a\) \(atáa\) \(ba\)-\(tuutsi\) \(a\)-\(gir\)-\(ir\)-\(a\) \(náabí\)
   \(\text{SP}_{13s}\text{-REM.PST-SEE-IPFV NEG.CM NP}_{2\text{_Tutsi}}\text{SP}_{1}\text{-do-APPL-IPFV evil}\)

These negative copulas could be compared to the negative copula construction ‘there is no’ (cf. French ‘*il n’y a pas*’). Their positive equivalent is the copula *hari* ‘there is’, (cf. French ‘*il y a*’), which introduces existential-presentational clauses. However, in the context in question, they are not presentational constructions, because they match the formal properties of a cleft (see 1) and they can be converted into a single clause without altering the initial truth conditions, as demonstrated in (21b).

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4. Corpus data transformed on the basis of the native speaker competence of the second author are indicated with “Transformation from”.
(21) a. **Ntaa bwóoko bwáahemutse.**
   “There is no ethnic group which betrayed.”  
   *Ijambo.Ntare.6607, Politics, 1960s*
   `ntaa` **bu-óoko** **bu-á-hemuk-ye**
   `NEG.CM` **NP**₁₄`-ethnic.group` **SP**₁₄`-REM.PST-betray-PFV.REL`

b. **Ubwóoko ntibwáahemutse**
   “The ethnic group did not betray.”
   `u-bu-óoko` `nti-bu-á-hemuk-ye`

1.2. Clefted constituent

In Kirundi, only three part of speech categories can be clefted: nouns, pronouns, and adverbs. Moreover, certain syntactic functions are more often involved in clefting than others. Subjects are most often clefted (44.6% in the oral corpus sample, 60.6% in the written corpus sample), either as a noun, as shown in (15), or as a pronoun, as shown in (22).

(22) **Ni je nabátooye.**
   “It is me who elected you.”
   *Yaga, Religion, 1960s*
   `ni` **je** `N-á-ba-tóor-ye`
   `CM` **me** `SP`₁₅`-N.PST-OP`₂ₓ` `-elect-PFV.REL`

Objects can also be clefted, but it happens less frequently, especially in written language: 37.5% in the oral corpus sample and only 25.3% in the written corpus sample. Moreover, object clefting is generally only allowed when the relative clause does not contain a lexical subject. The latter pertains to discourse-old information to which can only be referred with an anaphoric subject pronoun, as is the case in (23), where the subject prefix of the relative verb *yanyóoyé* refers to the aforementioned referent who praises the superior qualities of the cow. The focussed object *ay’íinká* highlights that he has not drunk the milk of any domestic animal but the cow.

(23) **Ni ay’íinká yanyóoyé**
   “It is that of the cow that he has drunk.”
   *Agahogo, Songs, 1990s*
   `ni` **a-a-a** `i-N-ká` **a-a-nyó-ye**
   `CM` **AUG**₆`-PP`₉`-PRCS` **AUG**₉`-NP`₉`-COW` **SP**₁`-N.PST-drink-PFV.REL`

Passivation is another strategy used to enable the clefting of a logical object. It allows deleting the lexical subject, as in (24), or demoting it to an oblique agent phrase, e.g. *n’abáansi* “by the enemies”, so that the object can become part of the matrix.
(24) **Baári abatuutsi baároonderwa.**

*(Mushingantahe, Peace, 2000s)*

“It was the Tutsi who were targeted.”

\[
\begin{array}{lllllllll}
\text{ba-á-ri} & \text{a-ba-tuutsi} & \text{ba-á-roond-er-u-a}^a
\end{array}
\]

\[\text{SP}_2{\text{REM.PST-be}} \quad \text{AUG}_2{\text{NP}_2}{\text{-Tutsi}} \quad \text{SP}_2{\text{REM.PST-look-APPL-PASS-IPFV.REL}}\]

When the clefted object is questioned, as in (25) and (26), it can co-occur with a lexical subject. Otherwise, a BC is less accepted, as shown in (27); a PC, as in (28), would then be preferred.

(25) **Ni igikí umuuntu yookorá?**

“What is it that a person can do?”

*(WTF_Ibigize, Health, 2010s)*

\[\begin{array}{llllllllllll}
\text{ni} & \text{i-ki-kí} & \text{u-mu-ntu} & \text{a-oo-kór-a}^a
\end{array}\]

\[\text{CM} \quad \text{AUG}_1{\text{-PP}_7}{\text{-what}} \quad \text{AUG}_1{\text{-NP}_1}{\text{-person}} \quad \text{SP}_1{\text{-POT-do-IPFV.REL}}\]

(26) **Ni ndé Mungu yatóoye ngo abé Nyina wa Yeézu?**

“Who is it whom God chose to be the mother of Jesus?”

*(Yaga, Religion, 1960s)*

\[\begin{array}{llllllllllll}
\text{ni} & \text{nde} & \text{Mungu} & \text{a-á-tóor-ye}^a & \text{ngo} & \text{a-bá-e}
\end{array}\]

\[\text{CM} \quad \text{who} \quad \text{God} \quad \text{SP}_1{\text{-REM.PST-choose-PFV.REL}} \quad \text{QUOT} \quad \text{SP}_1{\text{-be-SBJV}}\]

\[\text{mother} \quad \text{PP}_7{\text{-CON}} \quad \text{Yezu} \quad \text{Nyina} \quad \text{u-a} \quad \text{Jesus}\]

(27) **’Ni umwááana Kabura yakúbise**

“It is a child that Kabura hit”

*(Introspection)*

\[\begin{array}{llllllllllll}
\text{ni} & \text{u-mu-áana} & \text{Kabura} & \text{a-á-kúb-ye}^a
\end{array}\]

\[\text{CM} \quad \text{AUG}_1{\text{-NP}_1}{\text{-child}} \quad \text{Kabura} \quad \text{SP}_1{\text{-REM.PST-hit-PFV.REL}}\]

(28) **Uwó Kabura yakúbise ni umwááana**

“The one that Kabura hit is a child”

*(Introspection)*

\[\begin{array}{llllllllllll}
\text{u-u-ó} & \text{Kabura} & \text{a-á-kúb-ye}^a & \text{ni} & \text{u-mu-áana}
\end{array}\]

\[\text{AUG}_1{\text{-NP}_1}{\text{-PRCS}} \quad \text{Kabura} \quad \text{SP}_1{\text{-REM.PST-hit-PFV.REL}} \quad \text{CM} \quad \text{AUG}_1{\text{-NP}_1}{\text{-child}}\]

Certain adverbs can also be clefted in Kirundi, though not all. The temporal adverb **keénsí ‘often’,** for instance, can occur in the matrix clause of a Kirundi cleft construction, as shown in (29). However, other temporal adverbs, such as **kera ‘long ago’,** are incompatible with clefting, even if they belong to the same semantic category. Replacing **keénsí** by **kera** in (29) would make the sentence ungrammatical, even if the relative verb occurred in the remote past tense. More research is needed to establish which adverbs are accessible to clefting in Kirundi.

(29) **Ariko ni keénsí tuyareénga.**

“But it is often that we violate them (the laws).”

*(Kw’isoko_2010_50, Religion, 2010s)*
1.3. The relative clause

Relative clauses (RC) in Bantu are mainly marked by morphosyntactic and/or prosodic means (Nsuka-Nkutsi 1982). When there is a dedicated relative morpheme, such as a relative pronoun, it often occurs as an integrated part of the conjugated verb. Kirundi relative verbs are not marked by a dedicated relative pronoun or particle. Prosody plays a decisive role in signalling relative clauses. It is only a high tone with a relatively variable surface realization in the conjugated verb form that allows distinguishing a relative clause from a main clause.\(^5\) Meeussen (1959: 106) calls this high tone “postradical”, since it is most often – though not always – realized on the syllable following the root. For convenience sake, we associate it here in the glossing to the verb’s final suffix, which usually is an aspectual marker, using a period. In a direct relative, as in (30), the head noun of the relative clause is also its subject and triggers subject agreement on the relative verb.

\[(30)\]  
\((…)\) abakózi baávyiize néezá  
“(…) employees who learned well.”  
\((Inzira, Politics, 2000s)\)  
\(a-ba-kózi\) \(ba-á-bi-íig-ye\) \(néezá\)  
\(\text{Aug}_2\text{-NP}_2\text{-employee} \text{ SP}_2\text{-REM.PST-OP}_8\text{-learn-PFV.REL well}\)

In an indirect relative, the head noun of the relative clause is not its subject and does not trigger any agreement on the relative verb, as seen in (31) and (32). The antecedent is most often a prototypical object, as in (31), but can also be an oblique argument, such as the comitative participant in (32).

\[(31)\]  
Impanuuro umwaámi yaháaye abaruúndi bíiwé.  
“The advice that the king gave to his Burundians.”  
\((Amakuru, Politics, 1960s)\)  
i-N-hanuuro \(u-mu-aámi\) a-á-há-ye\(\text{\textsuperscript{th}}\)  
\(\text{Aug}_1\text{-NP}_1\text{-advice} \text{ AUG}_1\text{-NP}_1\text{-king} \text{ SP}_1\text{-REM.PST-give-PFV.REL}\)  
a-ba-ruúndi ba-fiwé  
\(\text{Aug}_2\text{-NP}_2\text{-Rundi SP}_2\text{-POSS}_1\)

\[(32)\]  
Ababáanyi tubaaná (…)  
“The neighbours with whom we live together (…)”  
\((Mushingantahe, Peace, 2000s)\)

---

5. The prosodic phenomena presented in this article are mainly perception-oriented and based on both oral and oralised written data from the corpus. We intend to examine these phenomena in the future from an instrumental perspective.
Headless direct relatives, which Meeussen (1959: 82, 109) calls “l’autonome” or “relatif substantivé”, are characterized by an initial vowel, the so-called ‘augment’ (Meeussen 1959: 63), as shown in (33).

\[(33) \quad \text{(…)} \quad \text{abasába ubuhunzi.} \]
\[\quad \text{“… those who seek asylum.”} \]
\[\quad (\text{UDI}_5.\text{KumenyaAmategeko}, \text{Education}, 2000s) \]
\[\quad \text{a-ba-Ø-sab-a”} \quad \text{u-bu-hunzi} \]
\[\quad \text{AUG}_{2}\text{-NP}_{2}\text{-neighbour} \quad \text{SP}_{1\text{n}}\text{-PRS-be-ASSOC-IPFV.REL} \quad \text{AUG}_{1\text{d}}\text{-NP}_{2}\text{-asylum} \]

Headless indirect relatives, as in (34), are introduced by the so-called “précessif”, which consists of the marker -ó preceded by the augment and the pronominal prefix (Meeussen 1959: 97-98).

\[(34) \quad \text{(…)} \quad \text{Abaruúndi bateze ivyó muzóobaázanira (…).} \]
\[\quad \text{“(…) Burundians wait for what you will bring them (…)”} \]
\[\quad (\text{Ubuzima}, \text{History}, 1990s) \]
\[\quad \text{a-ba-ruúndi} \quad \text{ba-Ø-tég-ye} \quad \text{i-bi-ó} \]
\[\quad \text{AUG}_{2}\text{-NP}_{2}\text{-Rundi} \quad \text{SP}_{2}\text{-PRS-wait-PFV} \quad \text{AUG}_{5}\text{-PP}_{2}\text{-PRCS} \]
\[\quad \text{mu-zoo-ba-azan-ir-à”} \quad \text{SP}_{2\text{r}}\text{-FUT-OP}_{2}\text{-bring-APPL-IPFV.REL} \]

Prosodically, Kirundi does not distinguish between a restrictive RC (35) and a cleft RC (36). In both cases, the RC forms together with the antecedent one single intonation unit which ends with a conclusive descending intonation marker and which we mark here with parentheses.

\[(35) \quad \text{Ababáanyi tubaaná bóóbó baári bábabóonye.} \]
\[\quad \text{“The neighbours with whom we live together, as for them, they had seen them.”} \]
\[\quad (\text{Mushingantahe}, \text{Peace}, 2000s) \]
\[\quad \text{a.} \quad (\text{a-ba-báanyi} \quad \text{tu-bá-an-a”}) \quad \text{ba-ó-ba-ó} \]
\[\quad \text{AUG}_{2}\text{-NP}_{2}\text{-neighbour} \quad \text{SP}_{1\text{n}}\text{-be-ASSOC-IPFV.REL} \quad \text{PP}_{2}\text{-SBST-PP}_{2}\text{-SBST} \]
\[\quad \text{ba-á-ri} \quad \text{ba”-a-ba-bón-ye} \]
\[\quad \text{SP}_{2}\text{-REM.PST-be} \quad \text{SP}_{2}\text{.CIC-N.PST-OP}_{2}\text{-see-PFV} \]
\[\quad \text{b.} \quad *[(\text{a-ba-báanyi}) \quad (\text{tu-bá-an-a”})] \quad \text{ba-ó-ba-ó} \quad \text{ba-á-ri ba”-a-ba-bón-ye} \]

\[(36) \quad \text{Ni wewé twiizéeye.} \]
\[\quad \text{“It is you whom we had believed.”} \]
\[\quad (\text{Kw’isoko}_2012_15, \text{Religion}, 2010s) \]
\[\quad \text{a.} \quad (\text{Ni wewé} \quad \text{tu-á-fízeer-ye“}) \]
\[\quad \text{CM} \quad \text{you} \quad \text{SP}_{1\text{n}}\text{-REM.PST-believe-PFV.REL} \]
\[\quad \text{b.} \quad \text{Ni} \quad *[(\text{wewé}) \quad (\text{tu-á-fízeer-ye“})] \]
However, the two RC types are distinct with regard to their syntactic and semantic formation. While a cleft RC stands in an independent predication relation to the antecedent (cleft constituent), a restrictive RC depends on its antecedent, which it modifies and to which it assigns a restrictive value.

2. Basic clefts

2.1. Morphosyntactic and semantic properties

A basic cleft construction (BC) in Kirundi, which is comparable to an ‘it-cleft’ in English, contains a matrix clause (MC) and a relative clause (RC). The MC is composed of 1) a sentence-initial cleft marker (= CM) and 2) a clefted constituent. The latter plays a double role in the BC; it is both the predicate of the MC and the argument of the verb in the RC. MC and RC are prosodically united in one single intonation unit. Consequently, a basic cleft construction as in (5) does not allow for an intonation break between its MC and the RC or for any syntactic modification that separates the two clauses, as illustrated in (37), where the comma represents an intonation pause.

(37) *Ni amaráso yáacu, yaséesetse.
   “It is our blood that was shed.”
   *(BVUrwimo, Peace, 2000s)*
   ni a-ma-ráso a-áacu *(a-á-sees-ek-ye⁷)*
   CM AUG₆-NP₆-blood PP₆-POSS₆ SP₆-REM.PST-shed-NEUT-PFV.REL

2.2. Pragmatic properties

A BC is a binary information-structural construction which contains a focal unit (FU) and a non-focal unit (= topical unit = PPRS). Its matrix clause (MC) corresponds to the focal unit (FU), whereas its relative clause (RC) stands for the pragmatic presupposition (PPRS) of the sentence, i.e. what Prince (1978) calls ‘hearer-old’. A Kirundi example is presented in (38):

(38) a. Nii ndé azóonkíza iki kibiribiri kiinkweégera urupfú?
   “Who will save me from this body which attracts the death to me?”
   *(Ikete, Religion, 1970s)*
   ni ndé a-zóo-n-kíz-aia i-ki-i kí-biribiri
   CM who SP₁-FUT-OP₁₅₁ save-IPFV.REL AUG₇-PP₇-DEM NP₇-body
   ki-Ø-n-kweég-ir-a u-ru-pfú
   SP₇-PRS-OP₁₅₁-attract-APPL-IPFV AUG₁₁-NP₁₁-death

b. Ni Yeézu Kristu azóogukíza ico kibí.
   “It is Jesus Christ who will save you from this evil.”
   *(Ikete, Religion, 1970s)*
   ni Yeézu Kristu [a-zóo-ku-kír-i-aia]
   CM Jesus Christ SP₁-FUT-OP₂₂₀ save-CAUS-IPFV.REL
   i-ki-o kí-bí
   AUG₇-PP₇-DEM NP₇-evil
This sentence is extracted from a biblical text in which the apostle Paul asks who will deliver him from his sinning nature. The answer in (38b) is a BC that comprises the FU ni Yeézu Kristu and the PPRS azóogukíza ico kibi (= RC). The latter conveys propositional content that is made accessible in the corresponding question in (38a), which means that it is already activated in the short-term memory of the interlocutors at utterance time.

However, this basic information structure is not valid for all BCs in Kirundi. Some rather behave pragmatically as what Prince (1978) calls ‘informative presupposition’ clefts. Such clefts are used in contexts where the propositional content is presented as known although the addressee does not necessarily share this common knowledge. The example in (39), a sentence taken from a biblical narrative that tells about the apostle Paul who speaks to his believers of what is at the source of their salvation, could be interpreted in this way.

(39) Ni ubuntu bwaátumye múkira, kubéera ukweémera kwáanyu.  
“It is the grace which had made that you were saved because of your belief.”  
(UbwuzureBushasha, Religion, 1960s)

By means of this utterance, the apostle asserts that his addressees are saved by the grace of God because of their faith. And in doing so, he assumes that they, as Christian believers, are aware of that, although there is no assurance that they actually do, since there is no discursive ratification for that, which explains the appearance of the afterthought kubéera ukweémera kwáanyu (‘because of your faith’). The RC bwaátumye múkira ‘which saved you’ does not retake earlier given information, but rather represents supposedly common knowledge, which maintains its presupposed quality even when (39) is converted into a PC, as in (40).

(40) Icaátumye múkira ni ubuntu.  
“What had made that you were saved is the grace (of God).”  
(Transformation from UbwuzureBushasha, Religion, 1960s)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>BC</th>
<th>Type (T)</th>
<th>MC</th>
<th>RC</th>
<th>Example</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>T₁ = AF</td>
<td>T₁a</td>
<td>Focal</td>
<td>Non-focal PPRS</td>
<td>(38b)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>T₁b</td>
<td>Focal</td>
<td>Focal Informative presupposition</td>
<td>(39)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 1. Focus types expressed via BC
3. Pseudoclefts

3.1. Morphosyntactic and semantic properties

While pseudoclefts (PC) are logically equivalent to basic clefts (BC) – both are equatives with an identificational reading – they differ from them in terms of syntax because their RC occurs in initial position in headless form; the most known case of such a marked formation is Jespersen’s example from English ‘What I like best is champagne’. In terms of prosody, PCs are distinct from BCs in that they comprise two intonation units instead of one unique unit. In Kirundi, the first unit ends with an ascending continuative intonation (end of RC), followed by an intonation break on the first syllable of the second unit which ends with a conclusive intonation marker (end of MC). Consequently, the intonation segmentation of a PC is as in (41).

(41)  
Ibibáangamiye uwo mucó ni amadíni yiigíisha kó kizirá gukóreesha imiti y’íkirúndí.

“What hampers this practice are the religions which teach that it is prohibited to use (traditional) Rundi medicine.”

(IragiNdanga, Traditional Culture, 2000s)  
(i-bi-ø-báangam-ir-yeu u-u-o mu-có)  

The headless RC of a PC, as in (42), comprises a relative verb which is marked by an initial augment and functions as a noun.

(42)  
Icaánzanye ni ukuroondera ubumwé.

“What made me come was the quest for friendship.”

(IjamboRyaGishi, Traditional Culture, 1980s)  
i-ki-á-n-ø-az-an-yeu ni  

The nominalization of the RC icaánzanye (‘what made me come’) is marked by the augment. As shown in (41) and (42), the headless RC of a PC usually does not manifest noun class agreement with the clefted constituent in the MC. It tends to take a default pronominal prefix belonging to either the singular class 7, as in (42), or its plural equivalent class 8, as in (41). Prototypical members of this noun class pair in Kirundi and other Bantu languages are inanimate referents, such as
objects, tools, and utensils (Katamba 2003: 115). It also contains the generic noun for ‘thing(s)’, i.e. kintu/bintu. In the headless RC of PCs, such as (41) and (42), the pronominal prefixes of classes 7 and 8 can be considered to be impersonal markers. Kirundi does allow grammatical agreement between the two clauses of the PC, such as in (43), transformed from (5), but it is rather uncommon with inanimate referents in natural language use.

(43) **Ayaséesetse ni amaráso yáacu.**
    “What was shed is our blood.”
    (Transformation from *BVUrwimo*, Peace, 2000s)
    a-a-á-sees-ek-ye“ ni a-ma-ráso a-áacu
    AUG₆-PFV.REL-shed-NEUT-PFV.REL CM AUG₆-NP₆-blood PP₆-POSS₁PL.

Some authors, such as Blanche-Benveniste et al. (1990), consider the rectional link between both clauses, like in (43), as evidence for the monoclusal nature of PCs, in which the COP constituent would function as a simple auxiliary. However, this claim does not hold well for Kirundi, as the language provides more ample evidence of PCs without any grammatical linking markers, as in (41) and (42). Such is also the case in (44).

(44) **Icaátumye yáanka ni kubéera haári mu mpéra caane.**
    “What had made him refuse is because it was too much towards the end.”
    (*BBC120216Ferguson*, Information, 2010s).
    i-ki-á-túm-ye“ a-áank-a ni kubera
    AUG₇-PFV.REL-make-IPFV.REL CM because
    ha-á-ri mu N-péra caane
    SP₁₆-PFV.REL-be LOC₁₈ NP₉-end much

Our Kirundi data fit better the hypothesis which considers this kind of nominalization as a cognitive-discursive strategy that reduces the cost of perceptive processing (Apothéloz 2012), especially because the attested RCs (left clauses) are relatively short compared to the corresponding MCs (right clauses). MCs can be easily extended in order to meet certain discursive needs, such as repairing reformulations and determinative extensions. A case in point is presented in (45a), in which the noun phrase abiígiisha ‘teachers’ is extended by the restrictive RC biígiisha ku mashuúle y'i Mugoogo ‘who taught in the schools of Mugongo’, and which conserves its grammaticality after its conversion into a BC, as in (45b).

(45) a. **Abaádukijije ni abiígiisha biígiisha ku mashuúle y'i Mugoogo.**
    “Those who had saved us were the teachers who teach in the schools of Mugongo.”
    (*Mushingantahe*, Peace, 2000s)
    a-ba-á-tu-kir-i-ye“ ni a-ba-iígiisha
    AUG₂-PFV.REL-save-CAUS-PFV.REL CM AUG₂-NP₂-teacher
    ba-Ø-igish-a“ ku ma-shule a-a i Mugoogo
    SP₂-PFV-teach-IPFV.REL LOC₁₇ NP₆-school PP₆-CON LOC₁₉ Mugongo

b. Ni abiígiisha bígiisha ku mashuúle y’i Mugoogo baádukijije.
“It is the teachers who teach in the schools of Mugongo who had saved us.”
(Transformations from Mushingantahe, Peace, 2000s)

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{ni a-ba-iígiisha} & \quad \text{ba-Ø-iígi-sh-á}^{\text{a}} \\
\text{ku ma-shule} & \quad \text{a-a}
\end{align*}
\]

Mugongo

\[
\begin{align*}
i & \quad \text{Loc}_{19} \\
\text{Mugongo} & \quad \text{Sp}_{2}-\text{Rem.-Op}_{15},-\text{save}\text{-CAUS-PFV.REL}
\end{align*}
\]

In (46), the RC of the PC is introduced by the so-called ‘precessive’ ícó, as usually is the case in headless indirect relatives, as we have shown in (34) (§ 1.3). Here as well, the most commonly used ‘precessive’ pronouns are those of classes 7 (ícó) and 8 (ivyó).

(46) Ícó dukorá ni ukugerageza kubáhuuz a vyúkuri.
“What we do is to try to reconcile them sincerely.”
(CU100427, Peace, 2010s)

\[
\begin{align*}
i-\text{ki-ó} & \quad \text{tu-Ø-kór-a}^{\text{a}} \\
i-\text{ku-geragez-a} & \quad \text{vyúkuri}
\end{align*}
\]

The RC of a PC can be light-headed in Kirundi, as in (47), where the generic noun íkintu ‘thing’ is used to introduce the RC kibabáje ‘which is shocking’. The augment, which usually marks the verb of a headless subject relative, as in (33), occurs here on the generic head noun.

(47) Aríko ikiintu kibabáje n’ukó haáciiye hajamwó imigwi y’úbubaandi
“But what is shocking is that groups of bandits were formed afterwards.”
(Mushingantahe, Peace, 2000s)

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{aríko i-ki-ntu} & \quad \text{ki-bábaz-ye}^{\text{a}} \\
i & \quad \text{u-ku-ó}
\end{align*}
\]

The RC of a PC can be light-headed in Kirundi, as in (47), where the generic noun íkintu ‘thing’ is used to introduce the RC kibabáje ‘which is shocking’. The augment, which usually marks the verb of a headless subject relative, as in (33), occurs here on the generic head noun.

3.2. Pragmatic properties

In terms of sentence pragmatics, PCs are particular in that their left clause, the headless RC, encloses referential and presupposed content that needs to be ratified by the subsequent right clause, i.e. the MC (Higgins 1973). Consequently, the RC has a non-focal function, whereas the MC is focal. In Kirundi, the ratification condition of the RC is prosodically marked by the ascending continuitive intonation at its end, which is followed by an intonation break at the beginning of the MC. This specific sentence intonation pattern not only allows indicating the incompleteness of the sentence with just the RC, but also indicates the boundary between the two clauses.
involved. Moreover, these prosodic properties point out that the RC is subject to a special discursive operation, that is, topicalisation. As a result, every PC in Kirundi comprises a ‘marked’ topic conveyed by the RC (= PPRS) and a ‘marked’ focus conveyed by the MC (= FU), as we can see in (48).

(48) Aríko icó twoovugá ni ukó ubutuúngaane bw’ábaantu butaburá agaháze.  
“But what we could say is that justice of men is not free from imperfection.”  
(CU100529, Peace, 2010s)  
aríko i-ki-ó tu-o-vúg-aí ni ukó  
but AUG,PP,PRCS SP,--POT--say--IPFV.REL CM that  
u-bu-tuúngaane bu-a a-ba-ntu bu-ta-búr-aí  
AUG,Justice PP,CON AUG,--NP,--person SP,--NEG--lack--IPFV.REL  
a-ka-háze  
AUG,--NP,--imperfection

PCs are heavily dependent on the referential context for their adequate interpretation, since their sentence-initial presupposed proposition forms a connection between the content that is predictable and the content that needs to be focalised. That is why in conversation they frequently occur inside Q-R pairs (Prince 1978; Blanche-Benveniste 1997). However, they can also occur in monolocutions to which sentence (49) testifies.

(49) Abashígikiye uwo mucó ni abahiígi.  
“Those who support this practice are the hunters.”  
(IragiNdanga, Traditional Culture, 2000s)  
a-ba-shígikir-yeí u-u-o mu-có ni a-ba-hiígi  
AUG,--NP,--support--PFV.REL AUG,--PP,--DEM,--NP,--pratice CM AUG,--NP,--hunter

The topical proposition abashígikiye uwo mucó ‘those who support this practice’ expresses the PPRS that (1) there is a specific practice (i.e. traditional hunting), which can be inferred from the accessible context, i.e. an inquiry into hunting practices in certain areas of Burundi, and (2) that practice is supported by certain people, which are identified in the focalised proposition as hunters. Without the inferential context, the PPRS could not fulfil its linking function here and would hinder the discursive coherence.

Contrast is a frequently used discursive device in Kirundi PCs, which for reasons of expressiveness may be marked by a contrastive accent. Contrast can pertain to the MC of the PC, as in (50b), or to a couple of MCs united in one PC, as in (51).

(50) a. Ni baandé banywá umunánaási?  
“Who is it who drinks pineapple beer?”  
(CU110826Ishu, Peace, 2010s)  
ni ba-ndé ba-o-nyó-aí u-mu-nanasi  
CM PP,--who SP,--PRS--drink--IPFV.REL AUG,--NP,--pineapple
b. Inzogá y’úmunánaási inyoobwa na bóóse. Aríko abayíkuúnga gusúumba ni abaantu bakenyé.

“Pineapple beer is drunk by everyone. However, those who love it most are the poor.”

(CU110826 Ishu, Peace, 2010s)

Besides its contrastive articulation, the AF of (50b) specifies the variable of the argument in an exhaustive way, which means that the AF stands for the entire set of elements able to be replaced with the variable (Declerck 1988; Lambrecht 2001). In (51), a contrast is made between two propositions.

(51) Ivyó dutuunzé si ivyaácu ni ivyáawe.

“What we have at our disposal is not ours but yours; it is yours.”

(Karaba, Theatre, 1960)

This PC contains a shared RC (= PPRS) that introduces the topic ivyó dutuunzé ‘what we have’ and a double MC whose propositions si ivyaácu (‘it is not ours’) and ni ivyáawe (‘it is yours’) are put in contrast. Contrast comes about by means of the interplay between the refutation of the identificational proposition of the first MC and the affirmative identification of the second MC.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Type (T)</th>
<th>RC</th>
<th>MC</th>
<th>Example</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>T₁ = AF</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>T₁a</td>
<td>Non-focal PPRS</td>
<td>Focal Identification/specification</td>
<td>(48)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>T₁b</td>
<td>Non-focal PPRS</td>
<td>Focal Identification/specification + Contrast</td>
<td>(50b)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>T₁c</td>
<td>Non-focal PPRS</td>
<td>Focal Refutation-identification + Contrast</td>
<td>(51)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 2. Focus types expressed via PC
4. Inverted pseudoclefts

4.1. Morphosyntactic and semantic properties

Inverted pseudoclefts (IPC) are identificational formations that start, just like BCs, with the identifying sequence, mainly a noun phrase that appears in sentence-initial position and that is followed by a RC that appears after the copula, as in (52) and (53), where the clefted constituent is subject of the RC. In both cases, the clefted constituent, which belongs to class 2, is co-referenced by the anaphoric pronoun bó, which is traditionally called a ‘substitutive’ (Meeussen 1959: 83-88) and takes over its grammatical function in the subordinated clause. In contrast to PCs, the RC of an IPC is not headless, because the substitutive cannot be replaced by an augmented relative verb. Replacing bó babajá by ababajá in (52) and bó baámufashije by abaámufashije in (53) would make these IPCs ungrammatical.

(52) Abatwáarwa bavuga kó abatwaáre arí bó babajá imbere muri vyóóse
“The subjects say that the leaders are the ones who lead them in everything.”

(CU110603Ubu, Peace, 2010s)

a- ba-twaár-u-a  ba-ô-vúg-a  kó  [a-ba-twaáre  a-rí
AUG₂-PP₂-lead-PASS-IPFV  SP₂-say-IPFV  that  AUG₂-leader  EXPL-be
ba-ô  ba-ô-ba-gí-aₚₜ  imbere  muri  bi-ôóse]ipc
PP₂-SBST  SP₂-REM-PST-OP₁-gó-IPFV.REL  in.front  LOC₁₈  PP₈-all

(53) Abayisaraámú ni bó baámufashije caane.
“Muslims are the ones who helped him [Rwagasore] a lot.”

(CU110427, Peace, 2010s)

a- ba-yisaraámu ni  ba-ô  ba-á-mu-fásh-yeₚₜ  caane
AUG₂-Muslim  CM  PP₂-SBST  SP₂-REM-PST-OP₁-help-IPFV.REL  much

When the clefted constituent of an IPC is the object of the RC, as in (54), it is also anaphorically resumed by a coreferential pronoun, in casu ryó. The latter is not to be confounded with the so-called ‘precessive’, which introduces a headless indirect relative and takes the augment. Replacing ryó by iryó in (54) would make the IPC ungrammatical.

(54) Ijuru ní ryó uboná.
“The sky is what you see.”

(Bangaryubagabo, Short Stories, 2000s)

i-juru   ni   ri-ó   u-Ø-bón-aₚₜ
AUG₅-sky  CM  PP₅-SBST  SP₂₂₁-PRS-SEE-IPFV.REL

In other words, morphosyntactically speaking, IPCs distinguish themselves from PCs not only by the fact that their RC is sentence-final, but also because they are always introduced by an anaphoric pronoun. Hence they are not headless, as PCs are, but light-headed. The pronominal head of IPCs also makes them structurally different from BCs whose clefted constituent cannot be a substitutive that is
coreferential with a left-dislocated topic preceding the CM, as umugen in (55). It can only take a pronominal clefted constituent when no dislocated topic constituent precedes the cleft marker, as in (22) above.

(55) **Umugen, ni ndé yamútsiindiye ?**
“The future bride, who is it that conquered her?”
(Imigani, Folktales, 1980s)

\[ u\text{-}mu\text{-}geni \quad ni \quad ndé \quad a\text{-}á\text{-}mu\text{-}tsiind\text{-}ir\text{-}ye" ? \]

However, similar to the other cleft types, IPCs can be converted into corresponding canonical monoclusal constructions without modifying the propositional content, as in (56) and (57) compared to (52) and (53) respectively.

(56) […]kó abatwaáre babajá imbere muri vyóóse.
“that the leaders lead them in everything.”
(Transformation from CU110603Ubu, Peace, 2010s)

\[ kó \quad a\text{-}ba\text{-}twaáre \quad ba\text{-}ø\text{-}ba\text{-}gi\text{-}a \quad imbere \quad muri \quad bi\text{-}óóse \]

that \[ AUG_{2}\text{-NP}_{2}\text{-leader} \quad SP_{2}\text{-PRS\text{-}OP}_{2}\text{-go\text{-}IPFV} \quad \text{in\text{-}front} \quad \text{LOC}_{18} \quad \text{PP}_{8}\text{-all} \]

(57) **Abayisaraámu baáramufáshije caane.**
“Muslims helped him a lot.”
(Transformation from CU110427, Peace, 2010s)

\[ a\text{-}ba\text{-}yisaraámu \quad ba\text{-}á\text{-}ra\text{-}mu\text{-fásh\text{-}ye} \quad caane \]

\[ AUG_{2}\text{-NP}_{2}\text{-Muslim} \quad SP_{2}\text{-REM\text{-}DJ\text{-}OP}_{1}\text{-help\text{-}PFV} \quad \text{much} \]

4.2. Pragmatic properties

IPCs in Kirundi represent a distinctive information-structure type, because they include a fronted sentence-initial constituent that plays a double pragmatic role. It has both a focal articulation in the proposition of the left clause and a topical articulation in the proposition of the right clause. The right clause serves as presupposed discursive context to the fronted constituent; it even may reduplicate it. IPCs are thus highly context-sensitive. They appear in conversation as well as in narration, often with a contrastive articulation. They are frequently attested in Q-R sequences, as in (58).

(58) a. **Abatáanga ubusáserdoóti ni baandé?**
“Those who confer priesthood are who?”
(Ikatekisimu, Religion, 1920s)

\[ a\text{-}ba\text{-}Ø\text{-táang\text{-}a}^{a} \quad u\text{-}bu\text{-}sáserdoóti \quad ni \quad ba\text{-}ndé? \]

\[ AUG_{2}\text{-PP}_{2}\text{-give\text{-}IPFVREL} \quad AUG_{14}\text{-NP}_{14}\text{-priesthood} \quad CM \quad PP_{2}\text{-who} \]

b. **Abeépiskoópi basa ni bó bataangá iryo sakrameentu.**
“The bishops alone are the ones who confer that sacrament”.

\[ a\text{-}ba\text{-éepiskoópi} \quad ba\text{-}sa \quad ni \quad ba\text{-}ó \quad ba\text{-}Ø\text{-taang\text{-}a}^{a} \]

\[ AUG_{2}\text{-NP}_{2}\text{-bishop} \quad CP_{2}\text{-only} \quad CM \quad PP_{2}\text{-PRS\text{-}CS} \quad SP_{2}\text{-PRS\text{-confer\text{-}IPFVREL} \]

4.2. Pragmatic properties

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In this Q-R pair, the noun phrase *abeépiskoópi basa* (‘only the bishops’) of the answer in (58b) fulfils the function of AF with reference to the proposition conveyed in the matching question in (58a). This focal constituent specifies the variable of the argument non-exhaustively, since it denotes a closed set of selected referents; i.e. only X and no other, X being the variable. The same noun phrase also fulfils the function of topic with reference to the proposition expressed in the subsequent cleft *ni bó bataangá íryo sakrameentu* ‘it is the ones who confer that sacrament’. Co-referential resumption of the subject-argument is required here. The example in (59) shows a contrastive IPC, which is extracted from a narrative about education in Burundi.

(59)  Murúumva reeró kó uwo mugoré ata kagayé afisé, ahuúbwo umugabo ni wé yagize ikosá ry’ákagayé.
“Vous savez que seules les évêques ont conféré ce sacrement.”

Contrast is set in this utterance between the focal referent *ahuúbwo* (‘the husband’) articulated in the affirmative IPC and the topical referent *umugore* (‘the wife’) articulated in the preceding refutation. It is the mirrored pragmatic reading of refutation-affirmation that creates contrast here, in addition to the sentence-initial phrase *ahuúbwo* ‘rather’, which amplifies its discursive effect.

Unlike what is usually the case, the clefted constituent of an IPC does not need to represent discourse-new information. As shown in (60), where the interlocutor explains why she does not feel free to go out, it may be discourse-old but still focal, as is the case for *ababáanyi* ‘the neighbours’.

(60)  Igitúma tudashobóra gútembeerana ukó dushaaká ni ukó ababáanyi bé n’ábaándi batuboná. Kenshi ababáanyi ni bó baduteéranya n’ábavééyi.
“What makes that we cannot go together as we wish is that the neighbours and the others could see us. Often, the neighbours are the ones who threaten us with the parents.”

Contrast is set in this utterance between the focal referent *ahuúbwo* (‘the husband’) articulated in the affirmative IPC and the topical referent *umugore* (‘the wife’) articulated in the preceding refutation. It is the mirrored pragmatic reading of refutation-affirmation that creates contrast here, in addition to the sentence-initial phrase *ahuúbwo* ‘rather’, which amplifies its discursive effect.
The clefted constituent **ababáanyi** ‘the neighbours’ had been mentioned before, but is still focal, because the speaker uses the IPC here to highlight it as the most salient among alternatives. The RC contains discourse-new information which can be considered as an appendix (Mertens 2012), an extension that provides additional but not essential communicative information.

### Table 3. Focus types expressed via IPC

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>IPC</th>
<th>Type (T)</th>
<th>Fronted constituent</th>
<th>MC + RC</th>
<th>Example</th>
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<tr>
<td>T₁ = AF</td>
<td>T₁a</td>
<td>Focal Identification</td>
<td>Non-focal PPRS</td>
<td>(58b)</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>T₁b</td>
<td>Focal Identification + Contrast</td>
<td>Non-focal PPRS</td>
<td>(59)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>T₁c</td>
<td>Focal Given</td>
<td>Focal Appendix</td>
<td>(60)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### 5. Cleft-like constructions

There are constructions in Kirundi that are somehow related to cleft constructions but do not hold all of their formal or functional properties. The first type of construction which easily may be confused with a PC is a kind of equative construction with an attributive quality, as in (61).

(61) **Uwutá❣ira uwíiwé ní nyagupfa.**

“The one who does not have his own ones is worthy of death.”

(*Duharanire, Peace, 2000s*)

\[
\text{u-u-tá-gir-a}^u \quad \text{u-u-íiwé} \quad \text{ní} \quad \text{nyagupfa}
\]

\[
\text{AUG}_{1}^{1} \text{-PP}_{1}^{1} \text{-NEG-have-IPRV.REL} \quad \text{AUG}_{1}^{1} \text{-PP}_{1}^{1} \text{-POS} \quad \text{COP} \quad \text{worthy.of.death}
\]

Although the sentence in (61) has the morphosyntactic properties of a PC, the adjective **nyagupfa** is not clefted but functions as attribute of the subject in order to convey the equative-attributive expression ‘to be worthy of death’.

The following case shows how certain discursive contexts do permit semantic detaching of the two clauses of a BC, but not without altering its ‘marked’ equative status. Even though the response in (62b) has the exact formal properties of a BC, its two comprising parts are semantically disconnected and have the following reading: [MC= ‘X was talking with Y’ + RC= ‘X was telling a story to Y’]. It is just a ‘basic’ equative construction. The RC determines the antecedent **Nziisabira** and adds a secondary predication to the cleft construction. The formal transformation in (62c) confirms the unmarked equative status of (62b) without changing the initial truth
conditions. The operation consists of completely detaching the two clauses of (62b) by modifying its prosodic properties. The auxiliary *yaríko* is no longer marked by the ‘postradical’ high tone that characterizes relative clauses in Kirundi.

(62) a. **Uwó mwaaríko muravúgana ni ndé?**
   “The one with whom you were talking is who?”
   *(Amazi, Theatre, 1970s)*

   **u-u-o mu-a-rikó**n
   **mu-ra-vú-g-an-a ni ndé?**
   AUG₁-PP₁-PRCS SP₂N₁-N,PST-PROG,REL SP₂₁-DJ-talk-ASSOC-IPFV CM who

b. **Ni Nziisabira yaríko araánciira umuganí.**
   “It is Nzisabira who was telling me a story.”
   *(Amazi, Theatre, 1970s)*

   **ni Nziisabira a-a-rikó**n
   **aⁿ-ra-N-ci-ir-a**
   CM Nziisabira SP₁-N,PST-PROG,REL SP₁₁-CJC-DJ-OP₁₃₀₂,tell-APPL-IPFV
   **u-mu-ganí**
   AUG₃-NP₃-story

c. **Ni Nziisabira, yaríko araánciira umuganí.**
   “It is Nzisabira, he was telling me a story.”
   *(Transformation from Amazi, Theatre, 1970s)*

   **ni Nziisabira a-a-rikó**n
   **aⁿ-ra-N-ci-ir-a**
   CM Nziisabira SP₁-N,PST-PROG SP₁₁-CJC-DJ-OP₁₃₀₂,tell-APPL-IPFV
   **u-mu-ganí**
   AUG₃-NP₃-story

Yet sentence (62b) could still be conceived as a BC, but a BC of a special kind; i.e. a reduced BC, because it is reduced to its MC, which functions as predicate phrase. Kirundi accepts this particular construction type, provided that the referential content of the elided RC is accessible in the available discursive context, which in this case is enclosed in (62a) but is not endowed with the appropriate “alternative” for its interpretation as a BC. Furthermore, example (62b) is also problematic as to how to determine the pragmatic value of its RC. Like sentence (38b), it is part of a Q-R sequence in which the element asked about is the subject of the governing verb. But unlike (38b), the proposition of its RC *yaríko araánciira umuganí* ‘who was telling me a story’ is not presupposed in the matching question. Neither is there a context that provides presuppositional content. The RC of (62b) is thus distinct from a typical cleft RC. It is a semantically detached RC, i.e. an appositive RC, which forms an independent predication relation through which a new assertion is established in addition to what is asserted in the preceding MC. In that case, how do we make out whether the RC of (62b) holds any presuppositional value? A conversion test provides the answer to this question. If the RC is anyhow presupposed, then it should allow switching the order of the BC clauses and in doing so it should function as a referential support to the available predication, as in a PC. This operation is excluded here, as is displayed in (63), which would be an infelicitous construction in Kirundi as an answer to (62a).
What impedes the RC of (63) to take a sentence-initial position in front of the copula, which is usually reserved for topical and hence presupposed content, is its non-presupposed focal content. Consequently, in the same context as that of (62), an answer like (64) would be acceptable, because the content of its inverted RC uwó twaaríko turavúgana ‘the one with whom I was talking’ is presupposed and directly accessible in the corresponding question in (62a).

(64) Uwó twaaríko turavúgana ni Nziisabira. “The one to whom we talked was Nzisabira.”
(Transformation from Amazi, Theatre, 1970s)

What impedes the RC of (63) to take a sentence-initial position in front of the copula, which is usually reserved for topical and hence presupposed content, is its non-presupposed focal content. Consequently, in the same context as that of (62), an answer like (64) would be acceptable, because the content of its inverted RC uwó twaaríko turavúgana ‘the one with whom I was talking’ is presupposed and directly accessible in the corresponding question in (62a).

The most salient information component of the equative construction in (62b) is the constituent Nziisabira, which has a double information-structural articulation. Its denotatum has a focus relation to the left proposition in which it assumes a semantic argument role. It is the argument focus (AF). Its denotatum also has a topic relation to the right proposition, which has a topic-comment articulation (unmarked focus). It should be noted that even though the right proposition contains focal value, it has not the same degree of focality observed in the left proposition, because it does not partake in the pragmatic relation that offers a satisfactory solution to the question asked in (62a). Information-wise, it rather functions as an appendix. Additional proof for this analysis is given in (65), which is a perfectly acceptable PC-conversion of the construction in (62b).

(65) ctxt: Who is the one to whom you talked?
Uwó twaaríko turavúgana ni Nziisabira yaríko araánciira umuganí. “The one to whom we talked, it is Nzisabira who was telling me a story.”
(Transformation from Amazi, Theatre, 1970s)
In (66b), the RC is also part of the focal information, but this construction structurally related to a BC is not uttered in an AF context. It is rather to be considered as a thetic statement (Sasse 1987). In Q-R sequences, such statements occur as answers to questions conveying the general idea of ‘what is happening?’ or ‘what happened?’, as in (66a). The R-part contains the discursive object enquired about which relates to the whole sentence and thus conveys SF, as in (66b), where it fulfils a presentational-eventive function. Although this example matches the formal properties of a BC, it does not match its functional properties, as the given semantic context does not allow selecting an “alternative” that clefts require.

(66) a. **Habaaye iki?**
   “What is happening?”
   (QUIS, 2010s)
   ha-ø-bá-ye iki
   SP_{16} -PRS-be-PFV what

b. **Ni umuntu yiitáaye mu rúuzzi**
   “It is a person who has thrown himself in the river.”
   (QUIS, 2010s)
   ni u-mu-ntu a-Ø-i-tá-ye\textsuperscript{u} mu ru-úuzzi
   CM AUG_{1}-NP\textsubscript{1}-person SP_{1}-PRS-REFL-throw-PFV.REL LOC_{18} NP_{11}-river

Lastly, ‘inferential constructions’ corresponding to the French c’est que constructions, as in (67), are also ambiguous ones. The question whether they are subordinated or not has cross-linguistically raised a lot of discussion (Declerck 1992; Delahunty 1995; Pusch 2006). In Kirundi, they are frequently attested, as in (67).

(67) **Uwagíriye náabí mugeenziwé, uwabábaje uwuúndi, uwiíshe, uwutéeranije abaándi, beén’uúwo n’impeérezwa y’iíwé Ímáana ntiýaákira.** (Gen. 4. 5; Mt. 5, 23-26). **Ni ukó abá yúkuuye itéeká y’umwáana w’Ímáana.**
   “He who did evil to his neighbour, he who hurt another, he who killed, he who sows discord among people ... that one, even his offering, God will not accept it. (Gen. 4. 5; Mt. 5, 23-26). It is that he removed his own dignity as a child of God.”
   (Ikete, Religion, 1970s).
   u-u-á-gir-ir-ye\textsuperscript{u} náabí mu-genziwe
   AUG_{1}-PP\textsubscript{1}-REM.PST-do-APPL-PFV.REL evil NP_{1}-his.friend
   u-u-á-bábaz-ye\textsuperscript{u} u-u-ndi, u-u-á-íc-ye\textsuperscript{u},
   AUG_{1}-PP\textsubscript{1}-hurt-PFV.REL AUG_{1}-PP\textsubscript{1}-other AUG_{1}-PP\textsubscript{1}-REM.PST-kill-PFV.REL
   u-u-téerany-ye\textsuperscript{u} a-ba-ndi beéne u-u-o
   AUG_{1}-PP\textsubscript{1}-sow.discord-PFV.REL AUG_{1}-PP\textsubscript{1}-other like AUG_{1}-PP\textsubscript{1}-DEM\textsubscript{u}
   na i-n-perezwa i-iwe Ímana nti-i-i-akíir-a
   and AUG_{9}-NP\textsubscript{9}-offer PP\textsubscript{9}-POSS God NEG-SP\textsubscript{9}-OP\textsubscript{9}-accept-PFV
   (Gen. 4. 5; Mt. 5, 23-26) **ni ukó a-bá-a\textsuperscript{u}**
   (Gen. 4. 5; Mt. 5, 23-26) CM that SP\textsubscript{1}-be-PFV.REL
This inferential construction (in italics) contains the marker ni and a subordinated clause introduced by the complementizer ukó. The subordinated clause functions as a predicate phrase that relates to the pre-copulative content, which is not lexically expressed but is inferred from the context and is therefore called ‘inferential’. This sort of construction is distinct from a BC mainly because the constituent that comes after the copula is a complementizer (ukó or variants) which is followed by a regular subordinated clause expressed in the relative mode, as is regularly the case after (u)kó (Meeussen 1959: 224).

There are also inferential constructions that closely relate to PCs but still differ from them in that their pre-copulative clause (left clause) does not belong to the categories that permit clefting (noun phrase and substantivized RC). Consequently, a PC reading of sentence (68) is excluded.

(68) Níibá utávyéémera ni ukó urí murí wáá murwi w’ábiíhebuuye.
“If you do not believe in it, it is that you belong to that category of desperate people.” (Imbonesha123, Magazines, 2010s)

Although the complementizer ukó regularly serves as a referential construction marker in Kirundi, there are constructions in which it does not play this role, as in (69).

(69) Icó twookorá ni ukó twoogabanya ubutégetsi.
“What we could do it is that we could share power.” (CU101004Ukwege, Peace, 2010s)

The sentence in (69) is a PC, but of a special kind. It is an ‘amalgam cleft’ (Declerck 1992), which is characterised by a fully or partly reduplication of the subject and the verb in the two clauses it comprises. In this case of an amalgam pseudocleft, it is the subject tu- (1PL) and the tense marker of the main clause that are repeated in the subordinated clause. Without these features, (69) would be a regular PC, just like its equivalent in (70):
Additional proof for (69) being a PC and not an inferential construction is that it allows to eliminate the equative phrase without altering the truth conditions of the sentence, as is displayed in the corresponding juxtaposed construction in (71).

(71) Icó twookorá, twoogabanya ubutégetsi.
(Transformation from CU101004Ukwege, Peace, 2010s)
“What we could do, we could share power.”

Conclusion

Clefting in Kirundi involves formally complex biclausal constructions which convey a propositional content that is logically simple. The systematic query of a randomly selected corpus sample of nearly 2000 Kirundi sentences has pointed out that cleft structures are far more common focus constructions in both written and oral language use than the so-called ‘subject inversion’ constructions. Of the three cleft constructions attested, pseudoclefts and inverted pseudoclefts are the most productive, while ‘basic’ clefts turn out to be rarely used in natural Kirundi. Both pseudoclefts and inverted pseudoclefts are highly context-sensitive, which is reverberated through a multiplicity of subtypes, which are often difficult to pinpoint.

As for their pragmatics, clefts are primarily used in Kirundi for the purpose of marking argument focus. Clefts are in complementary distribution with another kind of biclausal constructions, i.e. presentationals, which tend to convey sentence-focus. According to the corpus sample queried for this study, clefts are more commonly relied on to focus subjects than to focus objects whose clefting is moreover subject to more constraints. Pronouns and adverbs are the only other clefted word categories, though only rarely, and not across the whole paradigm in the case of adverbs, a constraint which needs more in-depth study.

With regard to the information-structural properties of the relative clause, two types of cleft constructions are identified: 1) clefts with a non-focal relative clause that functions as pragmatic presuppositional background, and 2) clefts with a focal relative clause which may serve various discursive purposes. In basic clefts, it has been observed as the conveyor of an informative presupposition; in inverted pseudoclefts, as an informational extension or focal appendix. Moreover, contrastive articulation frequently appears in PCs and ICPs, occasionally with a contrastive
accent on the focal unit so as to amplify its expressive load, an intonational feature that requires dedicated experimental research, just like the intonation of Kirundi clefts more generally.

In addition to the three prototypical cleft types, Kirundi also distinguishes what we have called ‘cleft-like’ constructions, since they look or behave like clefts but are deviant with respect to certain of their formal or functional features. This peripheral category contains a number of in-between constructions which hold properties of both cleft and presentational constructions and which seem to facilitate the introduction of new referents and situations into the discourse. In these cases, the scope of focus is broadened to the whole sentence.

Finally, it should be noted that, in Kirundi, the mapping of morphosyntax and information structure is relatively rigid concerning clefting – not only as regards the subject argument but also as regards the other arguments – which is reflected in the marginal function that is allocated to sentence prosody in this language.

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Abbreviations

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<tr>
<th>Abbreviation</th>
<th>Description</th>
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<td>AF</td>
<td>argument focus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>APPL</td>
<td>applicative</td>
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<td>ASSOC</td>
<td>associative</td>
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<td>AUG</td>
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<td>final vowel</td>
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<td>[...]&quot;</td>
<td>floating high tone</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IPC</td>
<td>inverted pseudocleft</td>
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IPFV   imperfective
LOC    locative prefix
MC     matrix clause
N.PST  near past
NEG    negative
NEG.CM negative cleft marker
NEG.COP negative copula
NEUT   neuter/neutron-passive
NP     noun prefix
OP     object prefix
PASS   passive
PC     pseudocleft
PF     predicate focus
PFV    perfective
PL     plural
POSS   possessive
POT    potential
PP     pronominal prefix
PPRS   pragmatic presupposition
PRCS   precessive
PROG   progressive
PRS    present
PST    past
PSTF   postfinal
RC     relative clause
REF    reference
REFL   reflexive
REL    relative
REM    remote
SBST   substitutive
SF     sentence focus
SG     singular
SP     subject prefix

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Lang, pp. 95-118.


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Résumé
Bien que les constructions clivées constituent l’un des principaux marqueurs de focus dans les langues bantu, peu d’attention leur a été accordée. La présente étude sur base de corpus a pour but de remédier à cette lacune en examinant la morphosyntaxe complexe et la sémantique des clivées en kirundi (bantu, JD62) ainsi que les différentes fonctions qu’elles remplissent dans sa structure informationnelle, qui se rapportent essentiellement au marquage de focus argumental. Comme nous le démontrerons dans cet article, les clivées en kirundi font l’objet de fortes contraintes formelles ; les principales stratégies permettant de marquer le focus utilisent des morphèmes spécifiques et le changement de l’ordre des mots. Nous montrerons également qu’en plus des types de clivées communs dans bien des langues (clivées de base, pseudoclivées et pseudoclivées inversées), le kirundi distingue aussi un type que nous appelons « constructions d’apparence clivée », qui s’apparentent aux clivées, mais en sont éloignées du point de vue structurel ou fonctionnel. Parmi elles, une sous-catégorie contient plusieurs constructions dans lesquelles la portée de la focalisation s’étend à la phrase entière.