

# Bantu DP structure: A *n* analysis of gender

## Bantu noun classes

- All nouns in Bantu languages belong to a noun class.
- Bantu languages have on **average 12-20 noun classes**.
- Carstens (1991, 1993, 2008) analyzes Bantu noun classes as **combined number and gender information**, e.g. classes 1/2 are SG/PL of gender A, as visible in the noun prefix, concord on modifiers, and verb agreement (cf. Bresnan 1991):

(1) A	SG	<b>m-</b> toto	hu- <b>yu</b>	<b>a-</b> na-soma
		1-child	DEM-1	1SM-PRES-read
	PL	<b>wa-</b> toto	ha- <b>wa</b>	<b>wa-</b> na-soma
		2-children	DEM-2	2SM-PRES-read
D	SG	<b>ki-</b> tabu	hi- <b>ki</b>	<b>ki-</b> na-som-wa
		7-book	DEM-7	7SM-PRES-read-PASS
	PL	<b>vi-</b> tabu	hi- <b>vi</b>	<b>vi-</b> na-som-wa
		8-book	DEM-8	8SM-PRES-read-PASS

## Question:

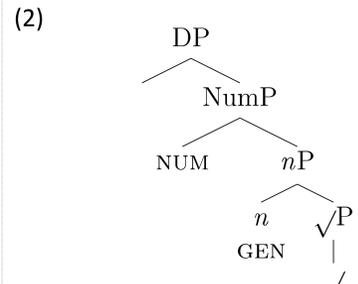
What is the structural representation of noun classes and gender in Bantu languages? How are non-derived noun classes structurally similar to or different from derived noun classes (infinitives, diminutives, etc.)?

## Goal:

To show that analyzing gender as located on *n* (Kramer 2014) in Bantu languages provides new insight into Bantu DP structure, thereby offering further evidence for gender on *n* as a crosslinguistically plausible and uniform analysis.

## Gender on little *n*

- Little *n* renders a structure nominal, whether it is attached to a root, a noun, verb or clause.
- We assume Kramer's (2015) structure of the DP:



- Distributed Morphology insertion rules determine how roots and heads are spelled out in each (obligatory) context:

(3) a.	( $n_A$ (Vguest))	→ geni	m-geni 'guest' (class 1)
b.	( $n_C$ (Vcar))	→ gari	ma-gari 'cars' (class 6)
c.	$n_A$ + SG	→ m-	m-toto 'child' (class 1)
d.	$n_A$ + PL	→ wa-	wa-toto 'children' (class 2)

- Kramer notes that there can be **many 'flavors' of *n***.

Where no references are indicated, data are gathered by the authors.

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## Gender on *n* as nominalizer

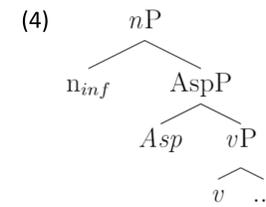
- If gender is on *n*, then we expect **derived nouns of a particular category** to have **consistent gender**, e.g. all infinitives are assigned the same gender.

- In Bantu languages, **infinitives have a dedicated noun class** (class 15), suggesting a dedicated  $n_{inf}$  cuts off the verbal projection (4):

(5)

a.	n-a-laba	b.	o- <b>ku-</b> (mu-)laba
	1SM-PST-see		AUG-15-(10M-)see
	'I saw.'		'to see (him/her)'

[Luganda]



- Nominalizations of other categories can be formed using regular noun class prefixes.

(6)

a.	-rat- 'love'	b.	<b>le-</b> rat-o	c.	<b>mo-</b> rat-iw-a
			5-love-NMLZ		1-love-PASS-FV
			'love (n.)'		'beloved one'

[Northern Sotho, Mletshe 2017: 32-33]

- These show variation in size, and can even contain an object (V+O) -- evidence of nominalizing *n* being able to take a larger verbal projection as its complement.

(7)

a.	<b>mu-</b> sal-a-n-kwawa	b.	<b>mu-</b> ten-z-a-ggulu
	3-cut-FV-9-earmpit		1-shake-CAUS-FV-heaven
	'sleeveless cloth'		'earthquake'

[Luganda]

- This demonstrates that **gender as marked by noun class markers has nominalizing properties**, as predicted by a *n* analysis of gender.

## Locatives as *n*

- In many Bantu languages, **locatives are DPs**, not PPs (cf. Marten 2010).
- Locative DPs can also be analysed using *n*, with crosslinguistic variation in size of the complement:
- $n$  + root (limited)

(8)

pá-ntú	kú-ntú	mú-ntú
'on a place' Cl. 16	'somewhere' Cl. 17	'somewhere inside' Cl. 18

[Luba-Kasai L31a; Kuperus & Mpunga wa Ilunga 1990: 37]

(9)

pa-n-gándá	kú-n-gándá	mu-n-gándá
16-9-house	17-9-house	18-9-house
'at the house'	'to the house'	'in the house'

[Bemba, Marten 2012: 433]

(11)

o-mu-ti	m- <b>o-</b> mu-ti
AUG-3-tree	18-AUG-3-tree
'a/the tree'	'in the tree'

[Kwanyama, Halme 2004:162]

- If the augment reflects D (De Dreu 2008, Visser 2008), then its presence between the locative and basic prefix indicates a DP complement, as seen for the Kwanyama augment **-o-** (11). This is impossible in Lugwere:

(12)

<b>a-</b> ka-tale	o-mu-ka-tale	*o-mu- <b>a-</b> ka-tale
AUG-12-market	AUG-18-12-market	AUG-18-AUG-12-market
'market'	'at/on the market'	

[Lugwere]

- Therefore **not all languages have a 'double DP' structure** for locatives as in (13) (pace Bresnan & Mchombo 1995; Carstens 1997, 2008); Lugwere takes a NumP complement (10).
- Even for locatives without an overt locative prefix, verbal agreement reveals the same structure:

(14)

Nyumba-ni	pa-/ku-/m-na	wa-tu	w-engi.
9.house-LOC	16-/17-/18-have	2-people	2-many
	'In/at the house are many people.'		

[Swahili, Carstens 1997:402]

- The behaviour of Bantu locatives as nouns and the variation in complement size can straightforwardly be captured in a *n* analysis of gender.

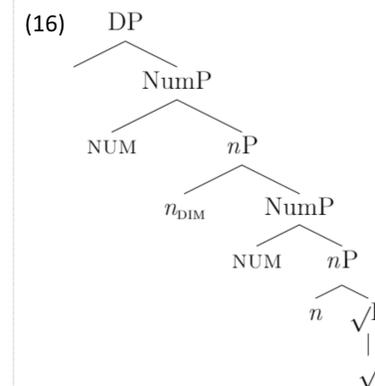
## Denominals: diminutives & augmentatives

- Diminutives and augmentatives form another class of derived nominals.
- These nouns are formed through the addition of a **dedicated noun class marker**:

(15)

a.	mu-kómáná	c.	<b>ka-</b> mu-kómáná
	1-boy		12-1-boy
	'boy'		'tiny boy'
b.	<b>ru-</b> mu-kómáná	d.	<b>zi-</b> mu-kómáná
	11-1-boy		21-1-boy
	'thin, scraggly boy'		'big boy'

[Shona; Déchaine et al. 2014:35]



- This can also be analyzed as stacking of *n* with diminutive semantics → a **denominal noun** analysis of diminutives and augmentatives.
- In some languages (e.g. Makonde), diminutive/augmentative prefixes take a smaller complement (a root), replacing the original noun class marker.
- Following Kramer (2014), the **gender on the highest *n* "wins"** in determining verbal agreement:

(17)

<b>chi-</b> mù-kómáná	<b>chi/*à-</b> nò-fámbá
7-1-boy	7SM/*1SM-HAB-walk
'(The) slim boy walks.'	

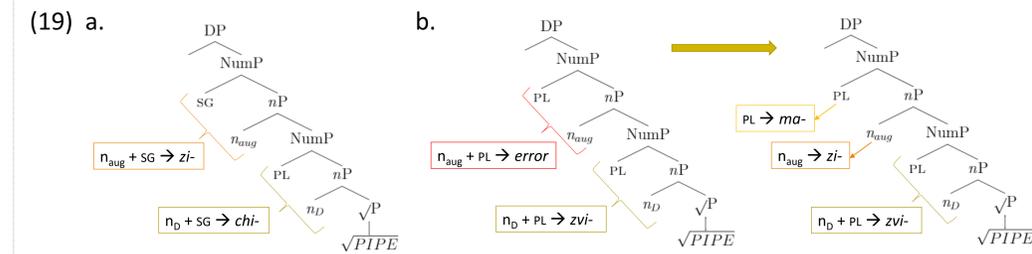
[Shona, Déchaine et al. 2014 adapted]

## Multiple instances of NUM?

(18)

a.	<b>zi-chi-</b> kwepá	b.	<b>ma-zi-zvi-</b> kwepá
	21-7-pipe		6-21-8-pipe
	'big pipe'		'big pipes'

[Shona, Déchaine et al. 2014]



- Class 6 **ma-** is the default plural in many languages.
- Given language-specific insertion rules, the *n* analysis of gender **properly accounts for multiple instances of number**.

## Further research

- In some languages, locatives (but typically not diminutives) allow concord on modifiers either with the inner noun or the outer locative (Bresnan & Mchombo '95, Carstens '97).
- Locative nouns can also be formed by the suffix **-ni**. In languages where this is the only locative marker, we assume that this is the spell-out of  $n_{loc}$ . A further puzzle are languages with both pre- and suffixes (though not always obligatory):

(20)

a.	va-tákúlú	b.	o-ttóló-ní	c.	m-múrúddá-ní
	16-9a.courtyard		17-well-LOC		18-3.village-LOC
	'at home'		'at the well'		'in the village'

[Cuwabo, Guerois 2014: 51, 63]

- There is further variation in deverbal nouns taking a suffix depending on the semantics of the resulting noun, typically **-i** or **-o** (Mugane 1997, Mletshe 2017).

(21)

a.	mu-shum-i	<	-shum- 'work'	b.	vu-tshil-o	<	-tshil- 'live'
	1-work-NMLZ				14-live-NMLZ		
	'worker'				'life'		

[Venda, Mletshe 2017: 32]

## Conclusions:

Postulating gender on *n* allows for a crosslinguistically uniform and plausible analysis; doing so also captures common nominalizing properties of Bantu noun class markers and provides a unified structure of Bantu nominals, including derived nominals and potentially locatives.