

NAIROBI EVANGELICAL GRADUATE  
SCHOOL OF THEOLOGY

THE PARTICLE *ro* IN BBALEDHA (LENDU)

BY

Honore' BUNDUKI KWANY

*A Linguistic Project Submitted to the Graduate School in Partial  
Fulfillment of the Requirements for the Degree of Master of Arts  
in Translation Studies*

JUNE 2004

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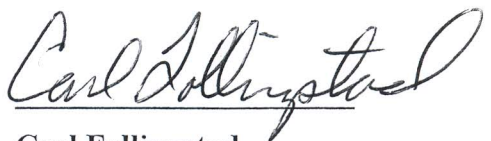
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Approved:

Supervisor:



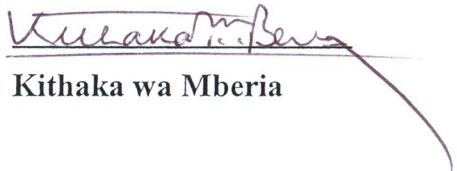
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Student's Declaration

THE PARTICLE *rò* IN BBALEDHA (LENDU):

I declare that this is my original work and has not been submitted to any other College or University for academic credit.

The views presented herein are not necessarily those of the Nairobi Evangelical Graduate School of Theology or the Examiners.

(Signed)  \_\_\_\_\_  
Honoré BUNDUKI KWANY

June, 2004

## ABSTRACT

This paper targets to discuss the role of the particle *rò* in Bbaledha (Lendu). This particle seems to have a procedural function when used in discourse. Also, it overlaps in form with a postposition, which is readily known as marking direction toward something or a point.

In this paper, I will look at the different meanings and functions of the particle *rò* with the purpose of bringing them together into a core meaning and function. I will, therefore, use two theories to achieve my goal: Relevance Theory and Cognitive Linguistics. I will argue that the particle *rò* has a core meaning that can be traced as originating from a substantive and means “body”, as an abstract feature rather than a tangible thing. So, it seems that, while it is used in discourse, the particle *rò* contributes to turning the hearer’s perspective in a deictic-procedural manner either to a period in time or a thing.

In this paper, I also look at the syntactic distribution of the particle *rò* at different constituent levels, namely word, phrase, clause and between clauses. In fact, it looks as if in all constituents *rò* occurs in final position and tends to move with the constituent within which it is.

This work consists of six chapters. The first chapter is a general introduction to the language, its genetic affiliation, its phonology, word-order typology and orthography. Chapter two specifically discusses the two theories of explanation: Relevance Theory and Cognitive Linguistics. Chapters three and four elaborate on the syntactical distribution of *rò* in different constituents. Finally, chapters five and six respectively present the search for the core meaning and function of the particle *rò* and the conclusion.

## ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

This work is the result of the contribution of many people in my life and towards my studies. So, it is difficult to list all those who helped in any possible way. I apologize in advance to those whom I may have left out. Let them, hereby, find my deep gratitude.

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I wish to thank all the Translation Studies Department staff and the NEGST staff, in general, for offering us one of the best training times for future ministry. Many thanks to Dr. Blass, Dr. and Mrs Sim, Mrs Huttar and Doctor Huttar, the head of the Translation Studies Department, who with wisdom and love, has always managed to bring us together as a family.

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## ABBREVIATIONS

Adj:	Adjective
Adj cl:	Adjective clause
Aff:	Affirmation (particle)
Aux:	Auxiliary
cl:	Clause
Emp:	Emphatic
Cnt:	Continuous
Fut:	Future
Hab:	Habitual
HN:	Head Noun
M:	Modifier
Mrk:	Marker
N:	Noun
Neg:	Negation (particle)
NP:	Noun phrase
O:	Object
P:	Possessor
Part:	Particle

Past (DP):	Distant Past
Past (IP):	Intermediate Past
Past (RP):	Recent Past
Pl:	Plural
POSS:	Possessive
PP:	Postpositional Phrase
Qst:	Question
Redupl.:	Reduplication
RelCL:	Relative Clause
Sg:	Singular
Stc:	Sentence
Std:	Standard
V:	Verb

## **CHAPTER 1**

### **INTRODUCTION**

#### 1.1. Introduction

The major concern of this chapter is to give an overview of the language being analyzed in this work namely Lendu, also called “Bbaledha” by its own speakers. Section 1.2 presents the genetic affiliation of the language, demographic and ethnographic information, and section 1.3 briefly introduces the word-order typological characteristics of Lendu. Sections 1.4 and 1.5 respectively review the dialects and the phonology and orthography of the language as studied by different linguists so far. Section 1.6 reviews previous linguistic research carried out on the language. Section 1.7 explains the method of data collection, and 1.8 gives the scope and the goal of the work.

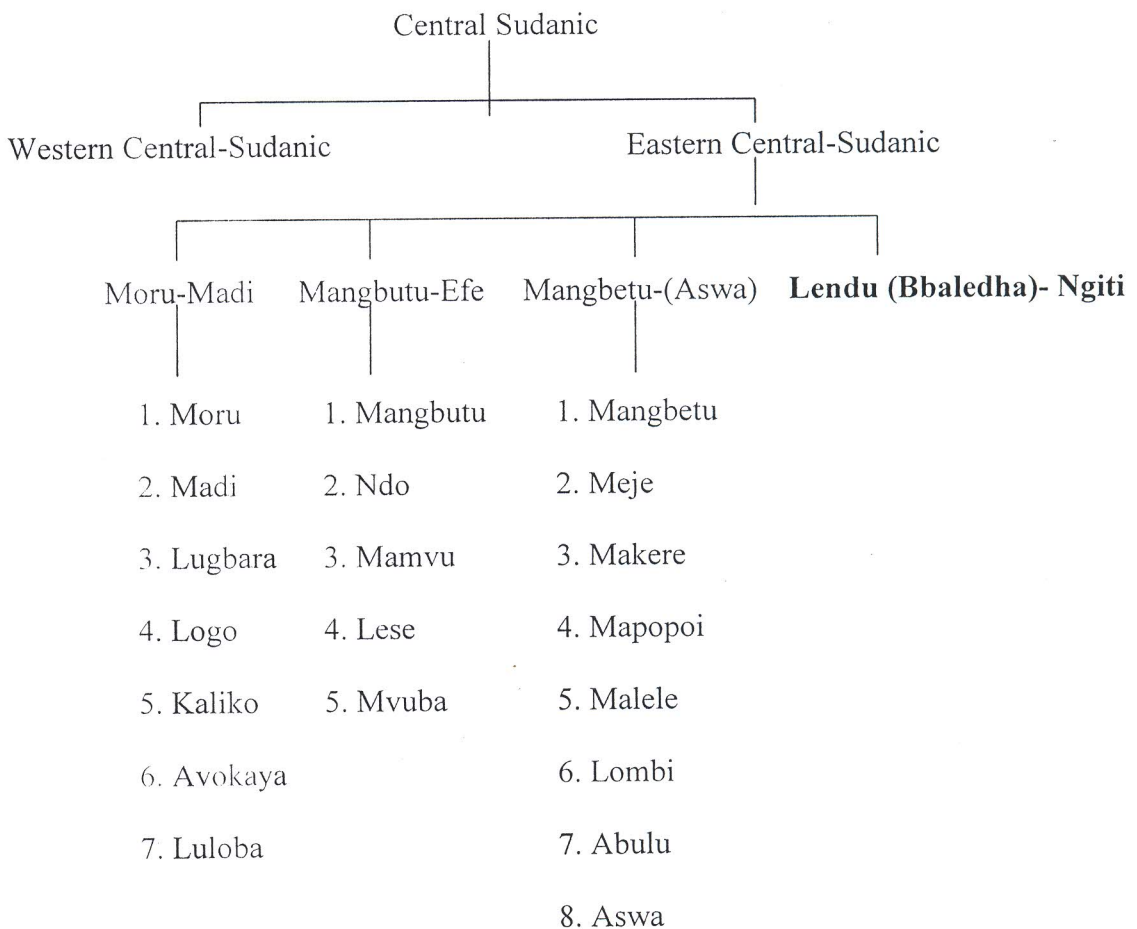
#### 1.2. Genetic affiliation, demographic and ethnographic information

Lendu (Bbaledha, Bbadha, Kilendu) is spoken in the District of Ituri in the northeastern part of the Democratic Republic of Congo on the Western side of Lake Albert and to a lesser extent across the borders of the country and on the Eastern side of the lake in the northwest region of the Republic of Uganda. It is spoken by two ethnic groups: Hema and Lendu. Hertens (1940, 268) notices that the Lendu people came to that area earlier than the 17th century. Indeed, it is reported that at their arrival in the

area, around the 17th century, the Babira and the Alur found the Lendus already settled in the region. (Hertens (1940, 268))

According to Grimes (2000), Lendu is a Central-Sudanic language that belongs to the Eastern Central-Sudanic sub-group together with the Moru-Madi, Mangbutu-Efe, and Mangbetu-(Aswa). See chart 1 adapted from Kutsch Lojenga (1994, 3 and 9) below:

**Chart 1. Genetic Affiliation of Lendu (Bbaledha)**



Dimmendaal (1986, 161) estimates the population of the Lendu community to be approximately 500,000 people. However, Kutsch Lojenga (1994, 4-6) estimates a higher number; namely about 850,000. Another informant estimates the number of Lendu speakers at around 1 million, though that estimation includes Hema and Lendu, which are separate ethnic groups. The recent war between these two ethnic groups of Lendu speakers might have resulted in a reduction of this population.

The great majority of the Hema and Lendu people live in rural areas. Though they speak the same language, they have significant cultural differences. The Hema are herdsmen and are very attached to their cattle, and are always after land for their livestock. The Lendu, on the other hand, are cultivators who value the land as the source of life through agriculture. Both groups also have fishing as an occupation. It is obvious that such opposed cultural habits can only result in social conflict between the two groups if the situation is not well handled (Hertens (1940, 268-270)). Only a real Christian impact would bring such extremes of culture into one harmonious community and people.

Finally, it is worth mentioning that the Lendu speakers themselves use the auto-denomination 'Bbaledha' (the language of the Bbale) to refer to their language. The term 'Lendu' was used by the political administration (Kutsch Lojenga 1994, 3). However, Dimmendaal (1986, 161) argues that the term comes from Alur. The Alur actually use the term 'Lendru' and duplicate it sometimes in the phrase '*lendru ma lendru*' 'worthless person' for the purpose of mockery.

In the history of cohabitation between the Hema and Lendu, the term 'Lendu' has brought about a lot of misunderstandings and conflict because of what it means. The

prefix /le-/, as Dimmendaal (1986, 11) says, "... is often used in Lendu in combination with body part and kinship terms; it indicates intimate (inalienable) possession". There is no doubt that /-ndu/ comes from *ndru* 'person'. So *lendu* would literally mean 'a person of', a meaning, which does not appear accurate, confronted with historic facts. However, the word /bba/, used by Lendu speakers themselves, means village. So, *Bbale* would simply mean the 'owner of the village'. This explanation seems to be more accurate as it pertains to and also coincides with the early arrival of the Lendu in the area they currently occupy.

### 1.3. Lendu word-order typology

To understand the relevance of the position of the particle *rò* in different constituents, it is good to briefly look at the Lendu word-order typological characteristics. As far as word-order typology is concerned, Lendu is considered as a head-final language. In fact, Kutsch Lojenga (1989) says that Lendu attests both the SVO and the SOV word order. The latter (SOV) order occurs mainly when the main verb is in the present tense as in example (1) or in the future tense with or without the future tense marker *síkǎ*, as in example (2) and (3).

- (1) *Ké zǎ 'ǎ ('ǎ)*  
 he meat eat-CNT Redupl.  
 'He is eating meat.'



(2) *Ké zǎ 'à ('ǎ)*  
 he meat eat-Fut Redupl.

'He will eat meat.'

(3) *Ké sǐkǎ zǎ 'à ('ǎ)*  
 he Fut meat eat Redupl.

'He will eat meat.'

However, in all past tenses - recent past (4), immediate past (5) and distant past (6) - Lendu attests SVO order. Indeed, the recent past and the immediate past occur more frequently in daily speech. The distant past is more frequent in story telling and reporting events of the past.

(4) *Ke 'à zǎ ('ǎ)*  
 he eat-Past (RP) meat Redupl.

'He has eaten the meat.'

(5) *Ke 'à è zǎ ('ǎ)*  
 he eat Past (IP) meat Redupl.

'He ate the meat.'

- (6) *Ke 'à ngáé zǎ ('ǎ)*  
 he eat Past (DP) meat Redupl.  
 'He ate the meat.'

Despite the possibility of two basic word orders, the particle *rò* occurs only post-positionally, which reflects sensitivity to SOV word order. Below is a summary of Greenberg's universals listed in Payne (1997,72) with Lendu examples:

**Chart 2. Word order typological characteristics in Lendu**

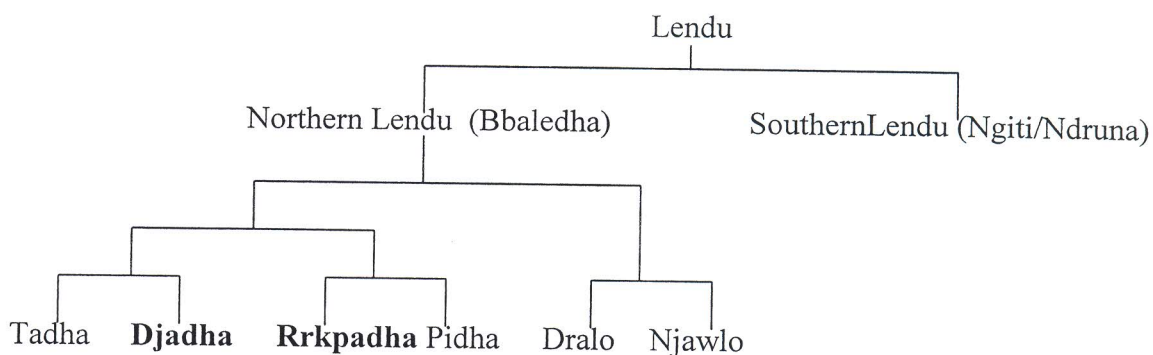
<u>Parameter</u>	<u>Order</u>	<u>Example</u>	<u>Translation</u>
Main clauses	O V and V O	(01) and (04)	(01) and (04)
Adpositions	postpositions	<i>dza dʒó</i> house on	'on the house'
Possessor and HN (Genitive)	P-N	<i>Ngabu dzá dza</i> Ngabu POSS house	'the house of Ngabu'
HN and modifier	M-N	<i>bbò dza</i> big house	'the big house'
RelCL and HN	RelCL-N	<i>Ngabu dzzi ná dza</i> Ngabu buy that house	'The house that Ngabu has bought'.

<u>Parameter</u>	<u>Order</u>	<u>Example</u>	<u>Translation</u>
Comparatives	Std-Mrk-Adj	<i>í dza dʒò/ù kə̀</i> this house Mrk be  <i>bbò ná dza</i> big that house	‘the house that is bigger than this’.
Inflected Aux	Aux-V	<i>Ngabu ngó sɪ̃</i> Ngabu was coming  <i>ádzarò,...</i> from the house,...	‘Ngabu was coming from the house,...’
Qst Part	Stc Initial	<i>írí ká kə̀ bbábbǎ̀ lò</i> This Qst be true matter	Is this true?
Qst Words	Stc Initial or elsewhere	<i>ngba ká íe dzè</i> Child Qst who push	Who pushed the child?

#### 1.4. Dialects

Lendu has two major dialect clusters, which are known as Northern Lendu or Bbaledha and Southern Lendu or Ngiti (Ndruna). The dialect cluster targeted in this work is the Northern Lendu. Within it, there are several dialects: Tadha, Djadha, Rrkpadha, Pidha, Ddralo and Njawlo. The suffixes *-dhà* and *-lò* respectively mean ‘language’ and ‘speech’.

### Chart 3. Lendu dialects



My own dialect is the Rrkpadha, but I grew up in the area where Djadha is spoken and so came to have good control of it. Therefore, the data in this work is of Djadha, which is also the larger dialect and the one used for the Bible Translation and literature so far.

The major differences between Rrkpadha and Djadha are both phonological and lexical. For instance, the former often uses the diphthongs /ai/ and /aɪ/ instead of /i/ and /ɪ/ in Djadha. Examples below illustrate this:

	<u>Djadha</u>	<u>Rrkpadha</u>
this	ɪ	aɪ
moon	bɪ	bàɪ
fight	li	laɪ
egg	bi	baɪ
buffalo	bɪ	baɪ
to beat	dhɪdha	dhaɪdha
to fall	chɪdha	chaɪdha

Some lexical terms differ in the two dialects, too.

	<u>Djadha</u>	<u>Rrkpadha</u>
beans:	<i>gǔdha</i>	<i>suu</i> or <i>gyaɹdha</i>
snake:	<i>suu</i>	<i>mbaidhá</i>
cow:	<i>tsí</i>	<i>ndrĩtsí</i>
white man:	<i>shá</i>	<i>là</i>

### 1.5. Phonology and Orthography

In his inventory of Lendu consonants and glides, Dimmendaal (1986, 163) presents 30 phonemes including a glottal sound. This sound, he argues, contributes to the formation of glottalized consonants such as 'b, 'd, 'j, 'y. He also quotes Tucker's inventory of the Lendu consonants, which present 37 sounds including a syllabic /ɾ/. This /ɾ/, Tucker claims, occurs as an allophone of /l/. In table 4 below, an inventory of Lendu phonemes is presented. Note in particular that glottalized consonants (implosives) are represented by clusters of plosives and sometimes doubled with a glide. Each phoneme is presented on the left, with its corresponding orthographic equivalent on the right. Below is a complete inventory of the Lendu consonant phonemes.

Chart 4. Lendu Consonant Phonemes and their orthographic representations

		Bi-labial	Labio-dental	Dental	Alveolar	Palatal	Velar	Glottal	Labio-velar
Implosives	Vl	/ɸ/ pb			/t/ td	/c/ tdy			
	Vd	/ɓ/ bb			/d/ dd	/f/ dy		/ʔ/ ʔ	
Plosives	Vl	/p/ p			/t/ t		/k/ k		/kɸ/ kp
	Vd	/b/ b			/d/ d		/g/ g		/gɸ/ gb
Pren. Plosives		/ <sup>m</sup> b/ mb			/ <sup>n</sup> d/ nd		/ <sup>ŋ</sup> g/ ng		/ <sup>ŋ</sup> gɸ/ ngb
Flat Fricatives	Vl		/f/ f	/θ/ th				/h/ h	
	Vd		/v/ v	/ð/ dh					
Grooved Fric.	Vl				/s/ s	/ʃ/ sh			
	Vd				/z/ z /z/ z	/ʒ/ j			
Affricates	Vl				/tʃ/ ts	/tʃ/ ch			
	Vd				/dʒ/ dz	/dʒ/ dj			
Pren. Affricate					/ <sup>n</sup> dʒ/ nz	/ <sup>n</sup> dʒ/ nj			
Nasals		/m/ m			/n/ n	/ɲ/ ny			
Laterals					/l/ l				
Glides						/j/ y	/w/ w		
Trills					/r/ r /r/ r				

With respect to the vowel system of Lendu, Hertens (1940, 273) says that Lendu has 13 vowel phonemes of which one, /ə/, is central and two others, /ɪ/ and /ʉi/, are not quite central. However, he claims that /ɪ/ is ‘front’ and /ʉi/ is ‘back’. He also attests a nasalized vowel /õ/, which, he claims, is ‘back’. But Dimmendaal lists only 8 vowel phonemes in the Lendu system. He quotes Tucker who says that the /u/ in Lendu is in some contexts fronted and unrounded as /ʉ/. However, Dimmendaal argues that /ʉ/ has phonemic status so it is not an allophone of /u/.

When we consider Kutsch Lojenga’s (1989) position, which is not very different from Dimmendaal except for this latter’s vowel phoneme /ʉ/, it looks more acceptable. In fact, she says that /ʉ/ might be the evolution of the (+ATR) /\*o/ and resolves to symbolize it /ə/, since it is more centralized than Dimmendaal’s postulated phoneme /ʉ/. (See Kutsch Lojenga, 1989: 116-119 for further discussion).

My own inventory of the Lendu vowels, which is not very different from Kutsch Lojenga (1989), is presented in Chart 5 below:

**Chart 5. Lendu vowel phonemes**

	<u>FRONT</u>	<u>CENTRAL</u>	<u>BACK</u>
<b>Close</b>	/i/ i		/u/ u
	/ɪ/ i		/ʉ/ ʉ
<b>Close-mid</b>		/ə/ ə	
<b>Open-mid</b>	/ɛ/ e		/ɔ/ o
<b>Open</b>			/ɑ/ a

The orthography used in this work is the one that was adopted for Bible translation in Djadha, the major dialect of Lendu. We will use the symbol /i/ for /ɪ/ and /u/ for /ʊ/. As for /ə/, it will be used as such in the writing system instead of the /ɛ/ used in Bible translation.

#### 1.6. Previous Linguistic Research on Lendu

Students of the “Institut Supérieur Pédagogique” of Bunia and Bukavu have written many unpublished works on Lendu. Unfortunately, because of distance and war in the Ituri District, I could not consult them. Several articles have also been published on Lendu phonology by Dimmendaal (1986), Hertens (1940) and Kutsch Lojenga (1987, 1989). The major works relevant for analysis of the particle *rò* in Lendu are Kutsch Lojenga (1987, 1989, 1994).

#### 1.7. Data Collection Methodology

The data for this linguistic project is from the writer and from a Bible translator pastor who is on leave in Nairobi for study reasons. Both the pastor and the writer are native speakers of Lendu, though from two different ethnic groups. The writer’s dialect is Rrkpadha, but I grew up in the area where Djadha is spoken and I used it for everyday communication from an early age to age 18. The pastor’s dialect is Djadha. For this study, I mainly used elicited data where I wrote down some examples of my own. However, I also wrote down some examples from live communication.



Another source of data is the booklet entitled *Bbaledhà nǎ Ngǎ*. These are stories which were written by a Lendu Bible translator, Dheto Losina. This booklet was used to get my text data. Two of those texts are presented in the appendix to this work. Other sources of data are some Lendu informants with whom I exchanged messages on various data.

### 1.8. The Goal of the Project

Specifically, this work studies the use of the particle *rò* in Lendu. It attempts to look at the syntactic distribution of the particle and also makes some tentative proposals regarding its semantic function. The goal of this analysis is first of all to contribute to the analysis of the Lendu language in order to give helpful hints to Lendu Bible translators who will have to translate using the particle *rò*. Secondly, I would like to present an analysis of the language to the community of linguists with the purpose of receiving feedback that can help me improve my expertise in linguistic description. Thirdly, I would also like to awaken the curiosity of all the Lendu speakers, especially intellectuals, on the complexity of our language and the necessity to put our efforts together in order to come up with tools that can contribute to the promotion of literacy in Lendu. Lastly, I would like to provide an aid to all those who may want to know more about particles in the Lendu Language.

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## CHAPTER 2

### ANALYZING *rò* AS A ‘PARTICLE’: A PRESENTATION OF AN EXPLANATORY LINGUISTIC MODEL

#### 2. 1. Introduction

This chapter elaborates on three major points. Section 2.2 reviews the definition of ‘particle’ as suggested by several linguists. This is an important point in order to clarify the perspective that is taken in this work. Section 2.3 considers the approach to ‘meaning’ whether ‘maximal’, ‘minimal’ or ‘prototype’ in the analysis. The ‘prototype’ approach leaves room for the definition of words as elements on a continuum. Section 2.4 presents the linguistic models of explanation adopted in this work (Relevance Theory and Cognitive Linguistics).

#### 2.2. Review of particle definition

Particles are notoriously difficult to define and classify. Indeed, in this section, we will try to review the different definitions that have been suggested for the term.

According to Hansen (1998, 37), “the term ‘particle’ is traditionally used in the pretheoretical sense of ‘uninflected words’” and thus constitute an extremely “‘heterogeneous’ category both functionally and distributionally.” This seems to be a

rather broad definition of the term. Kutsch Lojenga (1994, 389) shares this same point of view, but she also pushes further towards a more narrow definition when she states “particles are classified as those words which are not nouns, pronouns, modifiers, or postpositions”. She also says “particles are different from the grammatical class of modifiers in that they cannot be nominalised....” Nevertheless, she looks at particles as words that play a modifying role at word, phrase and clause level, but this seems to be also true for a great many other word classes and so does not define the class as precisely as might be desired.

In his attempt to define the term, Follingstad (2001,133) quotes Hurford (1994, 152) who states the following:

“Particles” is a term used of small words (and occasionally affixes), which do not easily fit into any word class, such as common noun, auxiliary, modal, article, or preposition. Particle is thus something of an “escape (or cop-out) category” for grammarians. “If it’s small and you don’t know what to call it, call it a particle” seems to be the practice; and a very useful practice it is, too, as it avoids pushing words into categories in which they do not properly belong.

According to Abraham, (1991, 250) particles constitute sorts of “opaque grammatical class” in the sense that they have “restricted, non-lexical, and blurred meanings” and would sometimes “...appear side by side in the lexicon with lexemes in identical shape, but with different categorical status”. And also, following a Relevance Theory perspective, Follingstad (2001, 134) notes that “particles often encode procedural meaning; that is, **particles act as guides and triggers to an interpretational procedure**, [emphasis from Follingstad (2001)] rather than having referential conceptual content of their own. They actively generate inferences in a

context (Sperber and Wilson 1986, 1995, Blakemore 1992) rather than passively ‘mean’ something by reference to an object or event.” (Sperber and Wilson 1986).

In light of the previous discussion, it is generally agreed that particles are typically uninflected. They tend to stand across grammatical categories functionally and distributionally. They seem to play a modifying role at different constituent levels (morpheme, word, phrase and clause). And finally, though they very often seem to have ‘blurred meanings’, nonetheless they have meanings that need to be traced out and uncovered. So, it is definitely difficult to classify and define particles, yet in some cases their form can overlap with other lexemes. ‘Small words’ that have an identifiable grammatical function (e.g. interjections, conjunctions) are not to be considered ‘particles’ in light of this approach to particle definition.

It is therefore worth mentioning that as a particle, *rò* seems to reflect the difficulties of definition stated above. It is monosyllabic. It also appears as an affix and sometimes its form overlaps with some ‘small words’ readily identified in the language as postposition or conjunction. Therefore, my task in this work is to find what could be the core function and meaning, if any, for the different distributions of *rò* using a relevance theoretic ‘procedural’ approach, and a cognitive linguists’ ‘prototype’ approach.

### 2.3. General analytical approach

As far as particle research is concerned, there has been a long debate on the analytical approach between the ‘meaning minimalists’ and the ‘meaning maximalists’ (Hansen 1998, 85). Researchers agree that particles can have a wide range of meaning.

However, the difference between the two groups mentioned above arises from the way they look at this variation in meaning. Maximalists believe that each meaning that the particle has is related to the semantics of each and every particle in each separate context, so that the particle is actually a different meaning unit in each new context. Therefore, maximalists look at particles from the perspective of a strict ‘homonymy’ approach (Hansen 1998, 86).

However, minimalists take another perspective altogether. Hansen (1998, 86) says they “...will attempt to isolate a unitary core meaning, usually of a highly abstract and schematic nature, from which all uses of a given item can be derived”. The variation of meaning is seen as resulting from the interaction with the context. This tends to be a more pragmatic and ‘monosemy’ approach.

Both approaches seem to have their weaknesses. The first leaves too much room for the one analyzing to give as many interpretations as possible to fit the interpretation he is happy with and also results in too many homonyms of the same unit. The second, on the contrary, “may result in descriptions that are too abstract and general to be of significant practical value” (Hansen 1998, 87).

Hansen (1998, 87) also presents a third approach, which is closer to the prototype theory of Payne (1997). In fact, Hansen says there is a so-called ‘polysemy’ approach. She states the following:

Analysts who take this stance assume that particles may indeed have different senses which are not merely a matter of pragmatics, but that rather than being homonymous and discrete, these various senses are related, either in a chain-like fashion through family resemblances, or as extensions from a prototype. (Hansen 1998, 87)

This last approach seems to reconcile the first two. It accepts the minimalist view that particles can have a ‘single basic meaning’, the ‘prototype’, but it also leaves room for the maximalist view in the sense that the meaning of a particle cannot be determined in a radical and single way since in some contexts senses can overlap. In this paper I will mainly draw on this third approach with a special consideration of the minimalist view as my starting point.

Finally, Hurford (1994, 149-150) insightfully concludes stating, “first, word classes (such as the “particle” class) must be categorized based **on a particular language** [emphasis from the author], particularly on “pattern of use” as well as semantic criteria”.

#### 2. 4. Linguistic models of explanation

This section briefly reviews two linguistic theories that will be used as model of explanation. They will be used to sort out and explain the basic function of the particle *rò*. These theories will also permit the analyst to understand and trace what could be considered to be the core meaning of the particle. Sections 2.4.1 and 2.4.2 respectively describe a relevance theory and a cognitive linguistic approach to particles.

##### *2.4.1. Relevance Theory*

Relevance Theory is a theory that has been advocated by Sperber and Wilson (1995) to account for the interaction of linguistic meaning and contextual factors in utterance interpretation. In fact, their claim is that every human cognitive process is conceived in a way that the greatest cognitive effect might be achieved at the effort of

the smallest processing cost. This approach has proved to be one of the fittest to bridge the gap that arises as the result of discontinuity between semantics and pragmatics. As a result, some discourse features can better be explained pragmatically than semantically. This seems to be the case for particles, which, as we have said before, have a more “abstract and schematic” meaning. In most cases they simply seem to function as markers that have the role to trigger a specific meaning in a discourse context. This seems to be the case for the particle *rò*, which is the subject of this study.

In this study, I will particularly draw on the procedural meaning and interpretational procedure in Relevance Theory to understand the core function of the particle *rò* in context. My hunch is that the particle *rò* provides a procedural-interpretational basis in every situation where it appears (affixed to morphemes, with words, phrases or between clauses).

#### *2.4.2. Cognitive Linguistics*

Cognitive Linguistics is a new approach, which tries to understand what reason is and how a conceptual system is organized. It attempts to explain some linguistic facts from a totally new perspective as Lakoff (1987) says. Traditionally reason was looked at as ‘abstract and disembodied’; but the new perspective, Lakoff states, is that “reason has a bodily basis”. He elaborates this statement as follows:

The traditional view sees reason as literal, as primarily about propositions that can be objectively either true or false. The new view takes imaginative aspects of reason - metaphor, metonymy, and mental imagery - as central to reason, rather than as a peripheral and inconsequential adjunct to the literal (Lakoff 1987, xi).



In search for the core meaning of  $r\grave{o}$ , we will basically exploit this second theory; that is, the view of reason as presented by proponents of cognitive linguistics. In fact, the core meaning of the particle  $r\grave{o}$  probably lies somewhere between substantives and postpositions built upon a metaphor. Specifically, I will build my argumentation on two points: the metonymic explanation of the core meaning of  $r\grave{o}$  and the extension of the prototype theory.

## CHAPTER 3

### THE SYNTACTIC DISTRIBUTION OF *rò* IN PHRASES

#### 3.1. Introduction

This chapter describes four different usages of *rò*. Section 3.2 elaborates on *rò* as an affix. Section 3.3 evaluates the use of *rò* in noun phrases. In fact, in noun phrases, *rò* seems to have two basic senses, one of which requires that it correlates with a specific verb. Section 3.4 examines the use of *rò* in adjective phrases. Finally, Section 3.5 considers the use of *rò* in a postpositional phrase. What is syntactically common in all these usages is that *rò* always occurs in a constituent final position.

#### 3.2. *rò* as an affix

As an affix, *rò* has three major usages. It can be suffixed to a demonstrative (3.2.1), to a numeral (3.2.2), and to a pronoun (3.3.3). In each case the meaning conveyed is different. This section looks at these usages and their meaning components as observed in context.

### 3.2.1. *Demonstrative + rò*

Payne (1997,103) says: “demonstratives imply “pointing to”, or “demonstrating”, the object they refer to, ... demonstratives often express distance, or orientation with respect to the speaker/hearer.” Lendu has three basic demonstratives, which are: *í* ‘this’(pointing to), *fí* ‘that’(proximal and also demonstrating with orientation to past or future) and *chá* ‘that’ (distal and/or demonstrating with respect to past). Example (7) below illustrates these different cases:

(7)

- *í ngba* ‘This child’
- *í ddò ró lò kè tsátsá* ‘These days things are difficult’  
This day Part matter be difficult
- *fí ngba* ‘That child’ (pointing at)
- *fí dyí* ‘That day’ (past or future)
- *chá ngba* ‘That child’ (pointing at)
- *chá dyí* ‘That day’ (past only)

Three demonstratives can also be combined with *rò* to make conjunctions and/or connectors.

Note that almost all the conjunctions and/or connectors made from demonstratives + *rò*, seem to be related to time somehow (see Chart 6 on page 23). The first, *írò*, generally embodies the implication of contrast of the past time with the present time. The deictic *í* specifically applies to something near. However, in this case

it points at the epoch in which the event is taking place. The second, *fírò* contrasts the past time with the present. But let's notice that in daily usage *fírò* has become a connector that establishes cohesion between the preceding events and the following ones. It is also used to connect different steps in a demonstration. The third, *cháro*, expresses the idea of condition. It refers to the event in the past as contrasted with another a bit farther in the past. This usually expresses a condition that can no longer be fulfilled. Regret and especially missed opportunities are expressed by *chárò*. And the last, *fíròmǎ* is a connector that indicates the continued flow in sequences of event despite the intervention of another contrary event at some point in the course of time. Finally, it will later be seen that one of the major uses of *rò* in clauses is to indicate the subordination of time. Chart 6 below sums up the use of *rò* as an affix attached to demonstratives.

**Chart 6: *rò* as an affix**

<u>Demonstrative-<i>rò</i></u>	<u>Gloss</u>	<u>Conjunction</u>	<u>Meaning</u>
• <i>í - rò</i>	this-Part	<i>írò</i>	'in the present time'
• <i>fí - rò</i>	that-Part	<i>fírò</i>	'in the past time, then'
• <i>chá - rò</i>	that-Part	<i>chárò</i>	'with reference to past time, if'
• <i>fí - rò - mǎ</i>	that-Part-and	<i>fíròmǎ</i>	'even then'

### 3.2.2. Numeral + *rò*

The use of *rò* as an affix attached to a numeral also encompasses quantifiers such as *bí* ‘many’. The meaning in the two cases will still be the same, that is, strict exclusion as in (9) and (10), when only one person does something, or inclusion (11), when many undertake the action together. Examples below illustrate this fact. Sentence (8) is used as reference to single out the relevant sentence without *ddĩ-rò*, which is presupposed in (9) and (10).

(8) *ke sǐ ngba rò*  
 he find child Part  
 ‘He found the child’.

(9) *ke sǐ ngba rò ddĩ-rò*  
 He find child Part one-Part  
 ‘He himself found the child. (He was alone)’

(10) *ngba rò ke sǐ ddĩ-rò*  
 child Part he find one-Part  
 ‘He found the child who was alone’.

(11) *zǎ rò nzu sǐ bí-rò*  
 animal Part children find many-Part

The children found the animal when they (children) were many.

On the basis of the preceding examples, specifically (8) and (10), it can be said that the relationship and difference between *ddĩ-rò* and *bí-rò* lies at the semantic level. Both appear as focus expressions in the sense that they draw the hearer's attention to the grammatical subject. Nevertheless, *ddĩ-rò* expresses exclusion (only one person) while *bí-rò* shows inclusion or an action done collectively (many people).

When we look at (8) and (9), we realize that in (9) *ddĩrò* 'himself, alone' is at the end of the sentence simply to exemplify exclusive focus; that is, 'he' and no other one from a potential number set. In fact, it contrasts the state of strict exclusiveness with that of other potential members of the set. According to König (1991, 98), an exclusive particle (like *ddĩrò* in this case) "excludes the complement of the value(s) for the relevant open sentence and is thus negative in its truth conditions." This suggests that in (9), *ke sǐ ngba rò* 'He found the child', is the presupposed relevant sentence. But also with the addition of *ddĩrò* the presupposition becomes negative in its truth conditions. Thus, 'no other person found the child' is what the speaker seems also to convey.

Nevertheless, the sentence is still ambiguous simply because *ddĩrò* is by nature an adjective and it should be qualifying a noun. In sentence (9) there are two nominal forms: N1, which is the subject pronoun *ke* and N2, which is the object noun *ngba*. So, either it is the child who was alone when he/she was found or it is the man who found the child who was alone at the time he discovered the child. In (10), however, when the object *ngba* is fronted, the exclusive focus shifts on it but still controlled by *ddĩrò*. And finally, *bí-rò* in (11) emphasizes that the action was undertaken as a group.

Indeed, it is good to notice that *ddĩrò* itself cannot be fronted in this case. An attempt to do so results in ungrammatical sentences like in (12) and (13) below:

\*(12) *ddĩ-rò ke sĩ ngba rò*  
 One-Part he find child Part  
 Alone he found the child.

\*(13) *ddĩ-rò ngba rò ke sĩ*  
 One-Part child Part he find  
 Alone the child he found.

A summary of the use of *rò* as numeral + affix is presented below:

**Chart 7: *rò* as numeral + affix**

<u>Numeral-rò</u>	<u>Gloss</u>	<u>Adjective</u>	<u>Meaning</u>
• <i>ddĩ - rò</i>	one-Part	<i>ddĩrò</i>	‘alone’
• <i>ro - rò</i>	two-Part	<i>rorò</i>	‘just the two of them’
• <i>gbo - rò</i>	three-Part	<i>gborò</i>	‘just the three of them’
• <i>bí - rò</i>	many-Part	<i>bírò</i>	‘just many of them, just as a group’

From chart 7 above, it appears that *rò* can be affixed to any numeral or quantifier to express strict exclusiveness (one actor) or inclusion in case the action referred to is undertaken by more than one actor.

### 3.2.3. *Combination of pronoun with rò as a reflexive pronoun*

According to Lichtenberk F. (1994, 3504), “in a prototypical reflexive situation (R of S), a participant acts on himself or herself, rather than on any other.” Payne (1997, 198) shares the same point of view but in different words when he says, “a prototypical reflexive construction is one in which subject and object are the same entity”. Indeed, both writers also agree that reflexivity can be expressed lexically (through a verb bearing that meaning), morphologically (through a morpheme) or analytically that is, through reflexive pronouns. Lendu marks it with *rò* analytically, that is, the reflexive pronouns in Lendu are formed through suffixation of the particle *rò* to object pronouns (14) and (15).

(14) *pí krì ndi-ndĩrò*

chief cut him-himself

‘The chief has cut himself.’ (He has wounded himself)

(15) *ngba dù ndi-ndĩrò*

child knock him-himself

‘The child has knocked himself.’



Like the *rò* affixed to numerals and quantifiers to express strict exclusiveness or inclusion, the combination of pronoun with *rò* as reflexive pronoun also tends to mark exclusiveness and/or emphasis. It is good though to notice that reflexive pronouns do not always express reflexivity. In some contexts, and this is the case with Lendu reflexives, they may be used with an emphatic rather than reflexive function as in example (16) where the chief in person (not necessarily alone) and not another person, has killed the animal. Actually, being in position of authority, the chief can command his subjects to kill an animal and still report that he is the one who did it. In (16), however, the emphasis is on the chief as personally accomplishing the action of killing. In Lendu it looks as if whenever the recipient of the action is different from the agent, the reflexive pronoun always plays an emphatic function. Examples below can testify to this fact.

- (16) *pí ndĩndĩrò hwí zǎ.*  
 chief 3 Sg-Redup.-Part kill animal

‘The chief himself has killed the animal.’

- (17) *ke ndĩ-ndĩ-rò sǐ ngba rò*  
 he 3 Sg-Redup.-Part find child Part

‘(He), himself, found the child’.

- (18) *le ndĩ-ndĩ-rò sǐ ngba rò*  
 she 3 Sg-Redup-Part find child Part  
 ‘(She), herself, found the child’.

Let’s notice that sometimes the subject pronoun is added just for the sake of distinguishing the gender, especially in the third person singular as in (17) and (18). This shows that *ndĩ-ndĩ-rò* is grammatically neuter; that is, relative to gender.

Chart 8 below presents a summary of the Lendu reflexive pronouns.

**Chart 8: Lendu reflexive pronouns**

<u>Object Pronouns</u>	<u>Reflexive (Pron+rò)</u>	<u>Meaning</u>
• <i>ma</i> (me)	<i>ma-má-rò</i>	‘myself’
• <i>ní</i> (you) sg	<i>ní-ní-rò</i>	‘yourself’
• <i>ndĩ</i> (him)	<i>ndĩ-ndĩ-rò</i>	‘himself’
• <i>le</i> (her)	<i>ndĩ-ndĩ-rò</i>	‘herself’
• <i>rǐ</i> (it)	<i>ndĩ-ndĩ-rò</i>	‘itself’
• <i>kò/mà</i> (us)	<i>kò-kǒ-rò/mà-mǎ-rò</i>	‘ourselves’
• <i>nǎ</i> (you) pl	<i>nǎ-nǎ-rò</i>	‘yourselves’
• <i>kpa</i> (them) pl	<i>ndĩ-mǎ-rò</i>	‘themselves’

In some contexts, the object pronoun preceding the reduplication can be omitted, except in the third person plural, only to leave these short forms of reflexives:

- *má-rò* ‘myself’
- *ní-rò* ‘yourself’
- *ndĩ-rò* ‘him/her/itself’
- *kǒ-rò/mǎ-rò* ‘ourselves’
- *nĩ-rò* ‘yourselves’
- *ndĩ-mǎ-rò* ‘themselves’

### 3.3. *rò* in noun phrases

Section 3.3 examines the use of *rò* in noun phrases. In fact, in noun phrases, *rò* seems to have one basic sense. Its meaning is ‘some of’ or ‘part of’. This is exemplified in (19) and (20) where it is shown that *rò* can move as a unit together with the head noun. Thus, two structures are attested: SVO (19) and OSV (20). It is good to mention that Lendu speakers very often prefer the structure in (20) for reasons that need to be investigated further. In (20) it is true that some of the water has been drunk but the speaker specifically wants to convey that it is “he” (the most agent-like constituent) who did it. Let’s also notice that in this very case if *rò* is omitted the meaning will change but still be correct. In fact, (21) and (22), where the speaker does not want to emphasize the partitive aspect, testify to that fact. Finally, this meaning of *rò* seems to be different altogether from the one attested in (9) section 3.2. where *rò* is used as an affix (23).

(19) *ke jù ddà rò*  
 He drink water Part  
 ‘He has drunk part of the water’.

(20) *ddà rò ke jù*  
 water Part he drink  
 ‘He is the one who has drunk part of the water’.

(21) *ke jù ddà -*  
 He drink water -  
 ‘He has drunk water’.

(22) *ddà - ke jù*  
 water - he drink  
 ‘He is the one who drank the water’.

(23) *ke sǐ ngba rò ddĩ-rò*  
 He find child Part one-Part  
 ‘He himself found the child. ( He was alone)

An examination of the sentences in (19-21) reveals that the common structure with *rò* in noun phrases is as follows:

- NP1... Verb... NP2 *rò* ... (PP *dhò* 'for/to')
- NP2 *rò* ... NP1... Verb... (PP *dhò* 'for/to')
- NP2 ... NP1... Verb... (PP *dhò* 'for/to')

(NP1= Subject, NP2= Direct Object, PP= Oblique Object)

The constituent between parentheses stands as optional and occurs only in case the verb that is used requires an oblique object as in examples (24) and (25) below:

(24) *kpa bbě rĩtsi rò ngba dhò*  
 They give thing Part child for  
 'They gave some of the things for the child.'

(25) *ĩtsi rò kpa bbě ngba dhò*  
 thing Part they give child for  
 'They gave some of the things for the child.'

### 3.4. *rò* in adjective phrases

Section 3.4 elaborates on the use of *rò* in adjective phrases. In this case, it functions as an element of a predicate adjective construction. Payne (1997, 111) puts predicate adjectives and predicate nominals in the same family of constructions. The former, he says, generally express attribution and the latter proper inclusion and equation. In their definition, Timberlake and Nichols (1992, 266) state the role of

“noun, adjective, or participle” used as lexical parts of speech in syntactic constructions such as predicate nominals. They simply “predicate a property of an individual”.

In Lendu, it appears as if some elements of the predicate adjective are very often omitted only to leave overt the adjectival complement. (This is the reason why we will also look at this use in the next chapter in section 4.3.1 while discussing the use of *rò* between clauses.) And also, as noted in (26) and (27) below, *rò* in this case cannot modify its immediate constituent; it signifies ‘a state or age at which an action is undertaken’. Thus, in (26), the adjectival complement *jàddǎ* ‘young’ predicates a property of *ke* ‘he’. To make explicit the stative aspect carried by adjective + *rò*, a predicate nominal structure can be added without altering the original meaning, as in (27).

(26) *ke kù ngbai jáddǎ rò.*

he marry wife young Part

‘He has married a wife young’. Or, ‘He has married a wife while he is still young.’

(27) *ke kù ngbai jáddǎ ndĩ kə rò.*

he marry wife young him be Part

‘He has married a wife while he is still young.’

There is no doubt that *jáddǎ ndĩ kə rò* is an adjective predicate of which the ordinary order *ndĩ kə jáddǎ rò* ‘him be young Part’ has been altered because it is embedded in another clause as an adverbial. *ndĩ*, which acts as the subject of the

imbedded adjective predicate, is coreferential with *ke* 'he' as agent and not *ngbai* 'wife'. If the focus was to be put on *ngbai* 'wife', then a feminine pronoun would be used to specify the fact as in examples (28) and (29):

(28) *le ke kù jàddǎ rò*  
 she he marry young Part

'He has married her while she is still young.'

(29) *le ke kù jàddǎ le kə rò.*  
 she he marry young her be Part

'He has married her while she is still young.'

The underlying meaning seems to be clearer in (28); that is, he has married her at the time she was still young.

### 3.5. *rò* in postpositional phrases

Section 3.5 examines the use of *rò* in postpositional phrases. In a postpositional phrase, *rò* has two major usages. 3.5.1 describes *rò* as a directional postposition meaning 'close to'. In 3.5.1 I will also briefly contrast *rò* with its counter-part *ró* which acts as postposition to express location and meaning 'on' or 'in'. However, 3.5.2 discusses another usage of *rò* as postposition after the verb *sř* 'find'. In this case it augments the verb to have the meaning 'find something' or literally 'find the body of something'.

### 3.5.1. *rò* as a directional postposition

In postpositional phrases, *rò* acts as a postposition meaning ‘close to’. It always occurs after the NP that it is marking in accordance with the OV/VO constituent order typology of Lendu. These facts strengthen sensitivity to the SOV word-order in Lendu as basic.

Generally, in postpositional phrases *rò* shows direction, emphasizing proximity between the thing that is moving towards another and the thing towards which the other thing is moving. (30) illustrates this function. Indeed, (30) is the best example to indicate direction and proximity. Contrary to what has been attested in the noun phrase, the postpositional phrase containing *rò* and the direct object that precedes cannot be moved together. Thus, (32) is not correct in Lendu. However, just the postpositional phrase can be fronted with its phrasal constituent as illustrated in (31).

- (30) *kpa dzè ngba dza rò.*  
 they push child house Part  
 ‘They pushed the child close to the house’.

- (31) *dza rò kpa dzè ngba*  
 house Part they push child  
 ‘It is the child that they pushed to the house’.



\*(32) *ngba dza rò kpa dzè*  
 child house Part they push

\*‘The child close to the house they push.’

From the sentences above it appears that the structure of *rò* as postposition is as follows:

- NP1... V ... NP2 ...PP (N+rò)
- PP (N+rò) ... NP1 ... V ... NP2

As a postposition *rò* has a counter-part, the high tone *ró*, which expresses location, as in (33) and means ‘against or close to’.

(33) *ngba kè dza ró.*  
 child be house Part

‘The child is against or close to the house’.

(34), however, is an example of *rò* with low tone. The difference between (33) and (34) is that in the former the emphasis is on the state of being already there, close to the house. But in the latter, there has been a movement from somewhere close to the house.

(34) *kpa dzè ngba dza rò.*  
 they push child house Part

‘They pushed the child close to the house’.

### 3.5.2. *rò* as a verbal postposition

As a verbal postposition, *rò* always correlates with the verb *sř* 'find'.

Concerning such a use of preposition (postposition in Lendu), Jaworska (1994, 3306) states:

A variety of syntactic tests point to the conclusion that where intransitive preposition (traditionally referred to as 'particle') and the verb are not adjacent, the preposition is the head of a prepositional phrase. However, when the intransitive preposition is adjacent to the verb, it constitutes part of a complex verb...

As in (30) and (31), *rò* occurs immediately after the head noun of the constituent but never adjacent to the verb. Also, in the context of verbal postposition, *rò* acts as a frozen postposition, or 'particle' that is, it is void of its initial meaning but it borrows on what I would rather call the 'core or root meaning', which I assume relates to the 'body' or the 'body of someone/something' (not necessarily a dead body or corpse). In fact, in Lendu you can still find the 'body' of the corpse. Thus, the meaning in examples (35) and (36) is 'find someone/something'.

(35) *kpa sř ngba rò tsí dzà nà*

They find child Part cow house in

'They found the child in the pen.' (Literally: 'they found the body of the child...')

(36) *ngba rò kpa sř tsí dzà nà*

Child Part they find cow house in

'They found the child in the pen.' (Literally: 'they found the body of the child...')

In this chapter we saw the use of *rò* as an affix (3.2), in noun phrases (3.3), in adjective phrases (3.4) and in postpositional phrases (3.5). As an affix, it has been noticed that *rò* can be suffixed to a demonstrative, a numeral and a pronoun, and respectively expresses ‘time or period at which an event occurs’, ‘exclusion and/or inclusion’ and ‘emphasis’, especially with reflexive pronouns that do not express reflexivity.

In noun phrases, however, *rò* functions as a particle, which always appears adjacent to the word that it modifies; it means ‘some of’ or ‘part of’. In adjective phrases, *rò* occurs as an element of the predicate adjective construction and stands adjacent to the attributive element and modifies, not its immediate constituent, but the subject being complemented by the predicate adjective. The meaning in this case also refers to ‘time or period during which an event occurs’. Finally, we have seen that in postpositional phrases *rò* has two uses. First, it functions as a prototypical postposition of direction with a high tone locational counter-part. Second, it occurs as an augmenting particle to the verb *sř* in order to have the meaning ‘find x’.

Indeed, as an affix and in noun phrases, adjective phrases and postpositional phrases, we have noticed that *rò* always occurs constituent finally. In Chapter four, we will look at the use of *rò* at the clause level.

## CHAPTER 4

### THE SYNTACTIC DISTRIBUTION OF *rò* BETWEEN CLAUSES

#### 4.1. Introduction

This chapter examines the use of *rò* between clauses that is as a conjunction. Conjunctions, Hansen (1998, 38) says, naturally fall under the category of particles together with adpositions, interjections, focus particles, modal particles, certain kinds of adverbs and discourse markers. Therefore, 4.2 and 4.3 will respectively expand on the examination of *rò* as a conjunction from two perspectives. Section 4.2 discusses *rò* as an adversative conjunction, and 4.3 looks at it as a subordinating conjunction. Finally, 4.4 examines the direction of linkage of *rò* between clauses.

#### 4.2 *rò* as an adversative conjunction

In Lendu, *rò* is attested as an adversative conjunction. In such a case, it stands between the two clauses that it joins as in (38). But in (36) and (37), the two clauses can also be juxtaposed or separated completely and still be adversative in meaning. While being used as an adversative conjunction the particle *rò* brings a strong idea of opposition in the second clause, to the first clause.

(36) *ma dǐ é nǐ nà ngbà Sáà dādǎ.*  
 me stay Mood you with yes hour gone  
 ‘I would stay with you. Time has gone’.

(37) *ma dǐ é nǐ nà ngbà; sáà dādǎ.*  
 me stay Mood you with yes hour gone  
 ‘I would stay with you; time has gone’.

(38) *ma dǐ é nǐ nà ngbà rò sáà dādǎ.*  
 me stay Mood you with yes Part hour gone  
 ‘I would stay with you, but time has gone’.

Actually, it is difficult to tell, at a glance, how the two sentences in (36) are related. However, the two clauses are causally related and stand in a consequential relation, so that in (38) we would assume that the speaker would not stay with his host because time has gone. We would say that the speaker is actually presenting his apologies to his host and he backs up his argument with a reason (time that has gone). So, *rò* simply seems to shift the perspective and attention of the hearer to the reason, which is intended to eliminate in the sense of replacing the previous statement and validating the second which is not the case in (36) and (37) where the two propositions are simply put side by side. The English meaning of *rò* in (38) would be ‘but’.

It is good to notice that *rò* is not the only adversative particle in Lendu. Lendu also marks weak contrast with the particle *ndè* which very often occurs at the beginning of a sentence. In this case, if there are two independent clauses that are conjoined or juxtaposed and need to be joined by *ndè*, they will simply be split into two, with the second taking *ndè* at the beginning as in (39). Very often *ndè* is translated as ‘but’ in this case too, but with a weak idea of contrast.

- (39) *ma dǐ é nǐ nà ngbà Ndè sáà dàdǎ.*  
 me stay Mood you with yes But hour gone  
 ‘I would stay with you. But, time has gone’.

In (39), the speaker is not strictly rejecting or opposing the idea in the first proposition by the second in the sense of rejecting the former, but he is simply stating an alternative reality prevailing at that time. So contrary to (38), the speaker in (39) would rather stay with his host and will simply have informed the host that, indeed, time has gone.

Indeed, *ndè* also appears at the beginning of paragraphs in case no other connector is needed and usually it is not necessarily translated though it can have a wide range of meaning (but, and, so, ...) in case it is.

### 4.3. *rò* as a subordinating conjunction

This section discusses the use of *rò* as a subordinating conjunction. As a subordinating conjunction *rò* can express three adverbial relationships: time (4.3.1), cause (4.3.2) and concession (4.3.3).

#### 4.3.1. *Temporal rò*

There seem to be two types of use of *rò* in temporal clauses. While used in a subordinating clause of time, *rò* appears at the end of the subordinate clause which can come before (40) or after (41) the main clause as in examples below:

(40) *àdzá ndĩ tsù rò ke i dzáítso théchə*

In house him enter Part he close house-mouth directly

‘When he entered the house, he immediately closed the door.’

(41) *ke i dzáítso théchə àdzá ndĩ tsù rò*

he close house-mouth directly in house him enter Part

‘He immediately closed the door when he entered the house.’

In (40) and (41), the two actions are almost simultaneous. The second action closely follows the first. In other words, ‘He entered the house first’ and almost at the same time came the second action ‘He closed the door’.

Nevertheless, as mentioned in chapter three (3.4), *rò* also appears in adjective predicative put together with a main clause to mark simultaneity of events in both clauses as exemplified in (27) below reproduced in (42):

- (42) *ke kù ngbai jàddă ndĩ kə rò.*  
 he marry wife young him be Part  
 ‘He has married a wife while he is still young.’

In (42), however, there is superposition of an action on an indefinite span of time. It is difficult to put the time when he got married and the time he was young in a sequential order. Rather the two events occurred in the same period of time with one ‘marrying a wife’ being superposed on the other. To put it differently, the fact of being young cannot be specifically located in time with sharp boundaries; it covers a long span of time. Yet, it is possible to locate marriage in time in terms of the period or date when it took time. Another Lendu word that expresses time is the compound conjunction *nánganà* ‘when’ (literally ‘that **place** in’). The semantic and pragmatic nuance between this latter and *rò* needs to be investigated. However, from the literal meaning of *nánganà* ‘when’ there is a possibility to say that it refers to time but with an implicit spatial connotation embedded.

For the most part, it looks as if temporal *rò* basically turns the attention of the hearer to two simultaneous or superposed events. The main clause serves as the basis of



reference of time for the subordinate, which brings in the concomitant action/event to the main clause action/event.

#### 4.3.2. Causal *rò*

When *rò* joins a subordinate clause of cause to a main clause, it stands at the end of the subordinate, which will usually come before the main clause as in (43) and (44). In (43), the actor will go back home for the reason that he had left his children sick. And in (44) ‘He’ deserves to eat the liver for the simple reason that he is the one who killed the animal.

- (43) *nzu ma bbà è dhè nà rò má ngəngə bbě*  
 Children me leave Past sick with Part me go-back tomorrow  
 ‘Because I had left the children sick, I will go back tomorrow.’

- (44) *zǎ ke hwi rò ddi jǐ ke á zǎ gǎ*  
 Animal he kill Part it love he eat animal liver  
 ‘Because he is the one who killed the animal, it is good that he eats the liver.’

However, in some cases, the subordinate can come after the main clause, then the conjunction *rò* is compulsorily replaced by another conjunction *dhònáló*. It is important though to notice that even if the conjunction changes, the meaning does not. A comparison of (43) with (45) and (44) with (46) can testify of this fact. And also in (45) and (46), *dhònáló* ‘because’ presents one of the rare cases of subordination

conjunctions, that occurs clause initially. Actually, the language, being head-final, tends to attest conjunctions and other particles clause and constituent finally.

- (45) *má ngəngé bbě dhónáľǒ nzu ma bbà è dhè nà*  
 me go-back tomorrow because children me leave Past sick with  
 ‘I will go back tomorrow because I had left the children sick.’

- (46) *ddi jǐ ke á zǎ gó dhónáľǒ zǎ ke hwi*  
 it love he eat animal liver because animal he kill  
 ‘It is good that he eats the liver because he killed the animal.’

Literally *dhónáľǒ* means ‘for that matter/for which matter’. This is a compound conjunction that embodies a relative clause. *-ná-* in Lendu is the relativizer and *ľò* ‘matter or word’ appears here as the referent of the relative pronoun. So this conjunction means ‘the matter for which’ in other words, ‘because’. With the literal reading of the compound conjunction, (45) and (46) would read:

‘I will go back tomorrow **the matter for which** I left the children sick.’

‘It is good that he eats the liver **the matter for which** he killed the animal.’

Finally, further investigation is necessary to establish the exact difference between causal *rò* and *dhónáľò*.

### 4.3.3. *Concessive rò*

The particle *rò* is also used as a subordinating conjunction to express concession in Lendu. König (1991,86) asserts that “concessive sentences entail both their component clauses. Asserting a concessive sentence... amounts to asserting both p and q against the background assumption of a general incompatibility between the eventualities described by ‘p’ and ‘q’.” This case is very frequent in Lendu when expressions meaning ‘though’ and ‘although’ are used in the language. Indeed, in this case the subordinate clause could either have a negation or an affirmation marker +*mǎ* correlating with *rò* to express concession. Here I do not claim that *rò* alone is concessive, but no concession is possible if *mǎ* is not in correlation with *rò*. Generally the affirmation or negation in the subordinate clause contrasts with the action in the main clause in the sense of eliminating it or just presenting a concession. The idea that is expressed is that of doing the thing that is said in the main clause while being very much aware of the truthfulness of what is stated in the main clause. Examples (47) and (48) below illustrate this much better:

(47) *ngbà mǎ chǒ ǔkpà dzz-ngǒe ndĩ nyǒddà nà klà rò*  
 yes even - cock cry-Past him tears with IDEO Part

‘Although the cock cried bitterly,

*ke kpa jĩ ngǒe ngo dhé*

he they slaughter-Past still Emp

they just killed him.’

(48) *nzá mǎ chǒ ní bě ma rǒ má sí*  
 not even - you know me Part me come  
 ‘Although you don’t know me, I will come

*ní bbà ngo dhé.*  
 you Loc still Emp  
 to your place’.

The use of concessive *rǒ* can be summed up as follows:

- Affirmation marker+*mǎ* ... *rǒ*
- Negation marker+*mǎ* ... *rǒ*

#### 4.4. Direction of linkage with *rǒ* between clauses

As said above, Lendu is a head-final language. It thus attests particles and other grammatical units in constituent-final position, except for ‘*dhònálǒ*’ (see section 4.2).

Both ‘*dhònálǒ*’ and *rǒ* occur in subordinate clauses but in different positions. The first occurs clause-initially while the latter always occurs in constituent-final position. In case ‘*dhònálǒ*’ is put in constituent-final position the result is an incorrect sentence as in

(49).

\*(49) *ddi jǐ ke á zǎ gǒ zǎ ke hwi dhònálǒ*  
 it love he eat animal liver animal he kill because

\* ‘It is good that he eats the liver he killed the animal because.’

In subordinate clauses, *rò* always modifies the constituent and/or the clause immediately preceding it as (50), (51) and (52) illustrate.

(50) *ma dǐ é nǐ nà ngbà rò sáà dàdǎ.*  
 me stay Mood you with yes Part hour gone  
 ‘I would stay with you, but time has gone.’

(51) *nzu ma bbà è dhè nà rò má ngəngé bbǎ*  
 Children me leave Past sick with Part me go-back tomorrow  
 ‘Because I had left the children sick, I will go back tomorrow.’

(52) *ngbà mǎ ché ǎkpà dzz-ngé ndǐ nyǒddà nà klà rò*  
 yes even - cock cry-Past him tears with IDEO Part  
 ‘Although the cock cried bitterly,

*ke kpa jǐ ngé ngo dhé*  
 he they slaughter-Past still Emp  
 they just killed him.’

In this chapter we have seen two major uses of *rò* between clauses. First, it occurs as an adversative conjunction (4.2) and stands between the two clauses that it joins and marks ‘elimination’ - the replacing of the previous statement and validation of

the second. Second, it occurs as a subordinating conjunction (4.3), in which case it has three different uses. First, it marks simultaneity of events in temporal sentences (4.3.1). Second, it shifts the perspective to the ‘reason’ for which something can or cannot be done (4.3.2). And last, it marks concession (4.3.3). The next chapter will try to account for all of the insights of the varied meanings of *rò* in a unified manner using Relevance Theory and Cognitive Linguistics approach.

## CHAPTER 5

### THE CORE FUNCTION AND MEANING OF *rò*

#### 5.1. Introduction

The purpose of this chapter is to see in which category of particles *rò* qualifies and later on to see, for the different types of occurrence of *rò* that we have, if they have related meaning. As said before (see section 2.3), my approach is more minimal than maximal. This chapter also considers two other major points. First, (5.2) discusses the core function of the particle *rò*. Second, (5.3) looks at the core meaning of *rò*. It mainly examines what could be the root meaning of the particle. It is important to mention that I am using ‘function’ to refer to the pragmatic role of the particle and ‘meaning’ to point at its semantic extension.

#### 5.2. Core function of *rò*

This section discusses the issue of the core function of *rò* in light of Relevance Theory. For the sake of consistency, the points will be discussed through three charts that separately discuss the function of the form at the word (chart 9), phrase (chart 10) and

clause (chart 11) levels. At word level, *rò* is an affix that is suffixed to a demonstrative, a numeral and a pronoun to express three things:

1. time or period at which an event occurs,
2. exclusion and/or inclusion
3. emphasis, (especially with reflexive pronouns that do not express reflexivity)

The major function of *rò* at the word level seems to be ‘directing attention to x’

(x can be a period in time, an agent in the case of exclusion/inclusion and emphasis).

Example (53) below gives the general presupposition underlying (54), (55) and (56), which respectively direct attention to time when (53) occurred, exclusiveness of the agent in (53) and emphasis on the agent in (53).

(53) *ngba rò ke sǎ.*  
 Child Part he find  
 ‘He found the child’.

(54) *ngba rò ke sǎ fú-rò théchó*  
 Child Part he find that-then directly  
 ‘He directly found the child THEN (at THAT very time)’.

In this case, the speaker wants to tell the hearer that the child was found at a time in the past which comes probably shortly after they separated or shortly after another event of which the two are aware, but not now.



(55) *ngba r̀ò ke s̄ĩ dđĩ-r̀ò.*

child Part he find one-Part

‘He ALONE found the child’. (In other words, he was not with another person when he found the child. He was exclusively alone.)

(56) *ngba r̀ò ke s̄ĩ ndĩ-r̀ò.*

Child Part he find him-Part

‘He, HIMSELF (not another person), found the child’.

Chart 9 below summarizes the use and function of *r̀ò* as an affix.

**Chart 9. Summary of the use of *r̀ò* as an affix**

<b>r̀ò as an affix</b>			
	<b>Demonstrative</b>	<b>With a numeral</b>	<b>With a pronoun</b>
<b>Domain of operation</b>	word	word	word
<b>Structure</b>	demonstrative + <i>r̀ò</i>	numeral + <i>r̀ò</i>	pronoun + <i>r̀ò</i>
<b>Position with constituent being modified</b>	adjacent	adjacent	adjacent
<b>Position within constituents</b>	word-final	word-final	word-final
<b>Function</b>	directing attention to a period in time	directing attention to the agent as one only or a set	emphatic role directed on the agent
<b>Meaning</b>	‘then, these days’	‘alone’/‘as a group’	‘x him/herself’

In phrases, however, *rò* appears adjacent to the word that it modifies only in NP and directional PP, but not in adjective phrases and verbal PP contexts. It has three major functions in this case:

1. it modifies a noun
2. it expresses simultaneity of action,
3. it directs focus to a thing, namely the ‘patient’ when it acts as verbal postposition.

These three functions are better illustrated in examples (57), (58) and (59) below:

(57) *ddà*      *rò*      *ke*      *jù*  
 water    Part      he      drink

‘He is the one who has drunk part of the water’.

In (57), *rò* modifies *ddà* ‘water’. The presupposed proposition is *ke jù ddà* ‘He has drunk water’. However, the speaker in (57) wants to specify that he has not drunk all of the water but just part of it. *rò* here in (57) encodes information, which facilitates the interpretation of the utterance. Similarly, in (58) the speaker puts two propositions side by side: ‘He has married a wife’ and ‘He is old’. Without *rò* the two propositions do not hold together anymore, but they lose their meaning and become ungrammatical as in (59).

They can be explicated as one sentence only if *rò* is added. However, if the tone on the adjective becomes low or if the adjective is brought before the noun, then (59) will become correct but with different meanings as shown in (60) and (61).

(58) *ke k̀̕ ngbai ngó rò.*

he marry wife old Part

‘He has married a wife old’. Or, ‘He has married a wife while he is old.’

(59) \* *ke k̀̕ ngbai ngó*

he marry wife Old

‘He has married a wife old’

(60) *ke k̀̕ ngbai ngò*

he marry wife very old

‘He has married a very old wife.’ (The underlying idea is also that of ‘old looking wife’)

(61) *ke k̀̕ ngó ngbai*

he marry old wife

‘He has married an old wife.’ (In this case the wife he has married is definitely old.)

Finally, in (62), *rò* makes manifest the existence of the object of the verb *s̀̕*, which would lose its meaning otherwise as in (63). So, in this case it is *rò* that brings optimally relevant interpretation to the utterance. In fact, the verb *s̀̕dha* from which *s̀̕* comes, means ‘to come’ without the verbal postposition *rò*.

(62) *ngba rò ke sĭ.*

Child Part he find

‘He found the child’.

(63) \**ngba - ke sĭ*

Child - he come

\*‘Child he come.

Chart 10 below gives a summary of the use and function of *rò* in noun phrases.

**Chart 10. Summary of the use of *rò* in phrases**

<i>rò</i> in phrases				
	NP	Adj. P	PP	
			Directional	Verbal
<i>Domain of operation</i>	NP	Adj P	PP	PP
<i>Structure</i>	noun + <i>rò</i>	Adj + <i>rò</i>	NP + <i>rò</i>	V + NP + <i>rò</i>
<i>Position with constituent being modified</i>	adjacent	not adjacent	adjacent	not adjacent
<i>Position within constituents</i>	constituent-final	constituent-final	constituent-final	constituent-final
<i>Function</i>	modify noun	marks simultaneity of proposition	directing perspective to a place or thing	directing perspective to a thing (a place)
<i>Meaning</i>	‘part of, some of’	‘period at which an event takes place’	‘close to’	‘find x’

Lastly, between clauses, *rò* marks the time during which an action took place concomitantly with another action (as in temporal clauses) or to a reason that backs the speaker's decision, as in the case of the causal and concession clauses. The chart below gives a summary of the function of *rò* between clauses.

**Chart 11. Summary of the use of *rò* between clauses**

<b><i>rò</i> between clauses</b>				
	<b>Adv Conj</b>	<b>Subordinating Clauses</b>		
<b><i>Structure</i></b>	cl + <i>rò</i> + cl	subordinate cl + <i>rò</i>	subordinate cl + <i>rò</i>	Aff/Neg + <i>mǎ</i> + <i>rò</i>
<b><i>Position with constituent being modified</i></b>	between clauses	clause-final	clause-final	clause-final <i>rò</i>
<b><i>Position within constituents</i></b>	between clauses	between clauses	between clauses	between clauses
<b><i>Function</i></b>	contrast	shifting attention to a period in time	shifting attention to a reason	shifting attention to a concession
<b><i>Meaning</i></b>	'but'	'when'	'because'	'although'

In conclusion, we have seen that *rò* functions both as a typical postposition and a particle. As a postposition, it marks 'direction towards something' and as particle its main

function is to establish a deictic procedure. Indeed, it shifts and directs the reader's attention to something in space or to a period in time in the sense of making the thing manifest to the hearer. In relation to deictic procedures Ehlich (1982,325) states:

The deictic procedure is a linguistic instrument for achieving focusing of the hearer's attention towards a specific item, which is part of the respective deictic space...

We have seen through different uses of *rò* that it perfectly serves as an instrument to focus the hearer's attention on a thing and/or period of time. In many cases we have seen that without *rò* the deictic-procedural interpretation was not possible. *rò* also contributes to the formation of connectors in combination with deictic expressions. Those connectors also bear a deictic feature, be it spatial or temporal.

### 5.3. Core meaning of *rò*

Following some discussions with Lendu speakers, it looks evident that *rò* could mean "body". Or to put it differently, the features of the definition of *rò* can be the following: [ $\pm$  animate, + specific, + locational/+ directional, + very close to]

Lakoff (1987), in his development of cognitive semantics, focuses on the use of non-literal language, specifically metonymic models. He says "it is extremely common for people to take one well understood or easy-to-perceive aspect of something and use it to stand either for the thing as a whole or for some other aspect or part of it" (Lakoff 1987,77). In fact, metonymy is a figure of speech based on the relationship part-whole. The metonymic model is a cognitive linguistics approach based on that relationship. It looks as if in some contexts Lendu uses the feature [+ very close to] sometimes doubled

with [+ locational/+ directional] metonymically to stand for the body of the thing or person.

For example, to nominalize the postposition *ró* you add the nominalizer *-nga* ‘place’. So, *ma-ró-nga* ‘me-Part-place’ will literally mean “the place very close to me”. However, the free translation, which is also the understanding of Lendu speakers, is “body”. *Ma-rò* ‘me-Part’ will literally mean “on me”; the free translation will be “on my body”. Let’s look at these words in sentential contexts in examples (64) and (65) below:

(64) *má ma-ró-nga é*  
 me me-Part-place wash

Literal Translation: ‘I am washing the place very close to me.’

Free Translation: ‘I am washing my body.’

(65) *má rù njě ma-rò*  
 me cloth put on me-Part

Literal Translation: ‘I am putting the cloth on the place very close to me.’

Free Translation: ‘I am putting the cloth on (my body).’

In both examples, *ró* and *rò* which are respectively [+locational] and [+directional] stand not for the place ‘on which’ or ‘where to’ the action focuses but for the body of the thing or person itself.

## CHAPTER 6

### CONCLUSION

In this work, I have discussed the syntactic and functional distribution of *rò*. This analysis has been done at three different constituent levels, namely the word, the phrase and the clause. In the first case, I have shown that *rò* is an affix (3.2) that is suffixed either to a demonstrative (3.2.1), a numeral (3.2.2) or a pronoun (3.2.3). The result of demonstrative + *rò* is connectors that bear procedural meaning. Numeral + *rò* results in exclusive/inclusive terms. Finally pronoun + *rò* makes a reflexive pronoun which acts as an emphatic pronoun in case the subject and the object are not the same.

In phrases, I have discussed three uses of *rò*. One is in the noun phrase (3.3). In the noun phrase *rò* is a particle that turns attention from the presupposed proposition to the optimally relevant one. *rò* in adjective phrases (3.4) indicates simultaneity of events expressed in superposed propositions. *rò* in postpositional phrases (3.5) has two uses: one as a prototypical postposition of direction (3.5.1) and the other as a particle (3.5.2) that correlates with a specific verb to augment it.

Between clauses, I have seen that *rò* functions as an adversative conjunction (4.2) or a subordinating conjunction (4.3). In this last case, *rò* can introduce time



(4.3.1), reason (4.3.2) and concession (4.3.3). The discussion of *rò* between clauses was followed by the examination of the direction of linkage with *rò* between clauses (4.4). I have argued that *rò* occurs constituent-finally and affects the subordinating clause. I have noticed that the position of *rò* in constituent-final position exemplifies the sensitivity of Lendu to the SOV structure.

Following the minimalist, Relevance Theory and Cognitive Linguistics perspectives, I have come to several conclusions concerning the function and core meaning of *rò*. First, I have noticed that *rò* is both a postposition and a particle. As postposition, I have argued that it marks direction towards something and has a counterpart with the high tone, which marks location. As a particle, I have argued that *rò* has a core function, which is procedural. It tends to shift the hearer's attention to the relevant interpretation of an utterance. In this case, *rò* points at several different things in different contexts: period, place, reason, concession, etc. And finally, the core meaning of *rò* seems to be 'body of something', of course in an abstract sense.

I do not claim to have done a complete and perfect work. I do believe that this topic needs to be investigated further on basis of diversified data, both elicited and text data collected from a larger number of the language speakers. This work explains the uses of *rò* and some uses of its counterpart *ró* as found in the text material in appendixes A and B.

## APPENDIX

### TEXT: FOLK TALE

(Form *Bbaledhà nǎ ngĩ* by Dheto Losina)

A.     *ǎkpà*           *mà*   *chèmbukpà*   *nà*  
The Cock       and   the Sheep       with

The Cock and the Sheep

*Dǎidyí*     *lə*           *sǐngóe*       *dǎikpáke* *bbà*   *rò,*       *ke dǎingóe*  
One day    guest        came           a-man    at    Part       he thought

One day, a guest came to a man. He (the man) decided to make his guest happy.

*ndĩ*   *bbé*   *hwè*   *ndǐdzá*   *ləba*   *dhò.*   *Ke*   *pòngóe*   *rí*   *ndǐbbá*   *ngbai*  
him    give    joy    him-of    guest    for    he        said       it    him-of    wife

He said this to his wife:

*dhò*   *ǎ*        *“Màdzá í*   *ləba*   *dhò*   *ddi*   *kà*    *le*        *ǎ*        *chèmbukpà.”*  
for    this    me-of    this    friend    for    it    can    Indef    slaughter        Sheep

“Kill the Sheep for my friend.”

*Fúrí*    *ǔkpà*    *rrngóe*    *rò,*    *ǔkpà*    *dí*    *ndí*    *hwí*    *gbǒ*    *nà*  
That-it    Cock    heard    Part    Cock    begin    him    kill    laughter    with

When the Cock heard this, he (the Cock) began to laugh at the Sheep saying:

*ǐ*    *ndí rí*    *pǒ*    *chèmbukpà ní*    *rò:*    “*Chèmbukpà íle,*    *ní ró rí*  
this    him it    say    Sheep    to    Part    Sheep    this-Indef    you against it

“Dear Sheep, it’s all done for you!”

*sí*    *ngbà.*    *Ní*    *kpá*    ‘*a*    ‘*á*    *njə.*”    *Fúrí*    *bbóngóe*    *bbò*  
come    yes    you    they    eat    eat    today    That-it    gave    big

They will eat you today.

That made the Sheep very sad.

*njedha*    *chèmbukpà dhò.*  
sadness    Sheep    for

*Fúró,*    *dzaba*    *pòngóe*    *rí*    *ndídzá ləba*    *dhò:*  
Then    house-father    said    it    him-of friend    for

Then, the host said to his friend:

“*Ní*    *ddò*    *kò kusó*    *yengà dđí.*”    *Ndè*    *ləba*    *pò*    *rí*    *ke dhò*    *ǐ*  
you    sleep    we near    week one    But    friend    say    it    he for this

“You will stay one week with us.”      But the friend said this to him:

“*Kò*    *ddò*    *é*    *ngbà*    *rò,*    *mabbá nzɛ*    *ma*    *bbà*    *è*    *dhè*  
we    sleep    could    yes    Part    me-of children me    leave    Past    sickness

“Yes, we could stay one week but because I left my children sick, I will go back

*nà rò, má ngə ngó bbă.” Fúlò ndĩ rr rò,*  
with Part me return return tomorrow That-word him hear Part  
tomorrow.”

So, when the host heard that,

*dzaba lé chembupkà djò ndĩ è dđĩ ná lò nyĩ*  
House-father change Sheep on him Past think that word order

the host changed his mind and said:

*rò, ke pò rĩ: “Kpádjo lé ji ǎkpà lə dhò.” Fúrò*  
Part he say it now Indef slaughter Cock guest for Then

“Now, kill the Cock for the guest.”

Then,

*ǎkpà nyǒ ddà ngó rǎ klà dzè dhò. Fúròmǎ le jingé*  
Cock eye tears were go Ideo cry for Even then Indef slaughtered

the Cock began to cry bitterly.

Even then, they just slaughtered

*ǎkpà ngo dhé.*  
Cock still Emph

the Cock.

*Fúlòdhò dđĩ nzá ngànĩ kò njĩ hwè*  
Because of that it not begin we do joy

Because of that, let's not rejoice (like the Cock did) when another person is hurting.

*dtike*      *bà*      *njedha nári dhò*      *ddiddĩ*      *fú*      *ũkpà*      *njìngóe*      *nári*  
 Another-he      find      sadness that-it for      like      that      Cock      did      that-it

*bbàí rí.*      *Njátí*      *ddĩke*      *bǎ*      *njedha*      *ró,*      *á*      *lĩ*      *ní*      *kedzá'*  
 like it      If      one-he      find      sadness      Part      Imp      put      you      he-of

If someone is in trouble, put yourself in his/her shoes.

*nga nà.*      *Nzǎ ní*      *gbo*      *njàke*      *dhónálo*      *ní*      *ró*      *rí*      *sǎ*      *chu nǎ*  
 place in      Not you      laugh      another-he      because      you against it      come      way in

Do not laugh at him/her, because the next turn might be yours.

**B.**      *Tsó nǎ*      *dyǎ*      *mà*      *ádzá*      *dyǎ*      *nà*  
             Bush in      rat      and      in-house      mouse with

Bush-rat and Home-mouse

*Ddĩdyí*      *tsó*      *nǎ*      *dyǎ*      *sǐngóe*      *ábba*      *dyǎ*      *bbà.*      *Ndè,*      *ábba*  
 One day      bush      in      rat      came      home      mouse      at      And      home

One day, the rat went to visit the mouse.

The home of the

*dyǎ*      *bbánga*      *ngóe*      *ddĩkpáke*      *dzá.*      *Ábba*      *dyǎ*      *tsúngóe*  
 mouse      dwelling      was      a-man      house      Home      mouse      introduced

mouse was in the house of a man.

The mouse welcomed

*ndĩró*      *lə*      *ádzá.*      *Fú*      *dza*      *nǎnga*      *chèngóe*      *nyǒ.*  
 his      guest      in-house      That      house      in-place      was      food

his guest in the house.

That house was full of food.

*Fúrò, tsó nǎ dyǎ pòngóe ri ádzá dyǎ dhò: "í nyò*  
Then bush in rat said it in-house mouse for this food

Then, the rat said to the mouse:

"Let me

*rò má nyo ma nà cho ddĩ kà ndĩ ddò le nǎ*  
Part I eat me in year one can it sleep person in

eat some of this food until I am full for one year."

*nánga tsǐ." Fúlò ádzá dyǎ mǎ ǎ ndĩmà*  
that-place like That-word in-house mouse they speak them

When the two friends were talking about these things, the owner

*kànǎ tsó nǎ dyǎ nà nánaganà, dzaba tsùngóe àdzá*  
between bush in rat with that-place-in house-father got (in) in-house

of the house got in with a lamp in his hand.

*ndĩdhó tálà nà.*  
him-of lamp with

*Tálà kudjò ke bégóe dyǎ rò, ke mà dǐnǐ dyǎ*  
Lamp teeth-on he saw rat Part he they chased rat

When he saw the (two) rats in the light of the lamp, he chased them around in the house

*ndĩmà ró ádzálú gbrũ rò, dyǎ vèngóe rà rùnǐ màlùmálù*  
them Part house-in Ideo Part rat Past go hide cupboard

until the rats went to hide under the cupboard.

*tsènà. Tsó nǎ dyǎ thí vèdǐ tá “kpli kpli kpli.”*  
 under bush in rat heart began beating IDEO

The heart of the rat started to beat very fast.

*dza ba ne nga rò, ke sǐ dyǎ rò nzá che.*  
 house father look place Part he find rat Part not at all

The house owner looked everywhere but he could not find the rats at all.

*Fírò ke pò rí: “Nǐ dhò rí ché ngbà!”*  
 Then he say it you for it be-luck yes

Then, he said: “You are lucky!”

*Drè nga dǐ nári gòtǐ, ddo dhǐ sáà*  
 long place stay that-it after sleep of hour

After a long time, when it came time to sleep, and when he (the house owner) put the

*sǐ rò, ke dhéngée tálà théchó rò, ndrǔ ràngée ddo*  
 come Part he put-off lamp immediately Part people went sleep

light off, everybody went to sleep.

*dhò. Ddǐ nga gò kudjàinǎ nánganà, tsó nǎ*  
 for silent place become late-in-night that-time-in bush in

When everything became quiet, the rat said to the mouse:

*dyǎ pò rí ádzá dyǎ dhò: “Iri ká kè ddǐ nǐ*  
 rat say it home mouse for this-it Qst be yes you

“Is this the condition in which you

*é dí kànǎ ná lò ina dhé a?" Ddi ká*  
 Hab stay in that matter this Emp Qst It Qst  
 live? "Is it

*kà írì kàlú chọ nǎ é ngè ngó mǎ rí a?*  
 be this-it through - you Hab become old even it Qst  
 through such situations that you go until you become old?"

*Ápǎ madhó gǎlǐ nja ma ngó màdzá njedha tsò*  
 Bring-out me-of bike so I go back me-of sadness mouth

Bring out my bike so that I can go back to endure my sufferings in the bush.

*vè tsó nà dté." Fúrò tsó nǎ dyǎ ngè tchéché*  
 support bush in that Then bush in rat go back immediately

So, the rat immediately went back in the bush.

*tsó nà.*  
 bush in

*Nzǐ kǒ lǐ kò nyǒ ndrǔ dhí rísi rò.*  
 Not we put our eyes people of things Part

Let's not envy things that belong to other people.

*Ákònjǐ nǐ kòdhò kòkǒrò. Sese mǎ kò bà ná rísi*  
 Imp-we-do work we-for ourselves little even we find that thing

Let's work ourselves.

Let the little we can get be ours.



<i>é</i>	<i>kò</i>	<i>ngàngà</i>	<i>dhí</i>	<i>rí.</i>	<i>Adzá</i>	<i>dyě</i>	<i>ngé</i>
be	we	really	of	it	home	mouse	was

The mouse was boasting with the

<i>ndí</i>	<i>gbǒ</i>	<i>ndrũ</i>	<i>dhí</i>	<i>nyò</i>	<i>nà</i>	<i>nzá</i>	<i>le</i>	<i>bbě</i>	<i>ndí</i>
him	laugh	people	of	food	with	not	they	give	it

food that belonged to other people without having been given it.

<i>ndí</i>	<i>dhò</i>	<i>rò.</i>
him	for	Part

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