
Clausal Complementation in Dizin

Bizualem Amlak¹

Girma Mengistu²

Desalegn Hagos³

Abstract

This paper examines clausal complementation in Dizin, one of the least studied languages in the Southwest part of Ethiopia. The study focuses on the Maji dialect. It describes clausal complements and their functions in light of Noonan (2007) and others' cross-linguistic observation. The study follows a qualitative research approach based on basic linguistic theory, which advocates the description of a language on its own properties. The data were collected using elicitation from key consultants and from natural texts like fables in Maji district. The findings show that Dizin has finite, infinitive and nominalized complement clauses. The study also shows that the position of these complement clauses is fixed, that is, clausal complements occur left-adjacent to the matrix predicate. The study further shows that finite complement clause and nominalized complement clauses occur in object and subject slots, while infinitive complement clause appears only in object slot. Moreover, it is found that Dizin is right-headed language in the typology of clausal complementation.

Keywords [Clause, predicate, complementation, slot]

1. Introduction

The Dizi people live mainly in the West Omo Zone of the Southwest Ethiopia regional state. The neighboring people of Dizi are Me'enit to the north, Suri to the South and West and Sheko to the Northwest (Abeje2000 :10).The Dizi people settled predominantly to elevations that lie from 1,200 to 2.200 meters above sea level, which is comfortable for a variety of crop production. As a result the Dizi people are largely agrarian who make their income mainly

¹Lecturer at Mizan-Tepi University and PhD candidate at Addis Ababa University, Ethiopia (buzedawit@gmail.com).

² Assistant Professor at Addis Ababa University, Ethiopia.

³Assistant Professor at Addis Ababa University, Ethiopia

from agriculture. The Dizi people are largely followers of Orthodox Christianity.

The Dizi people call their language Dizin (Beachy 2005). It has about 35,988 native speakers (CSA 2007:99). Dizin was transcribed into writing very recently using the Latin script. The Latin-based orthography is more phonetic and hence the written and spoken forms are similar. Dizin is taught as a subject at elementary and high school. It is also used as a language of media on FM of Bench-Maji Zone. Amharic is also spoken as a second language by most Dizin speakers in towns, and also serves as official and a vehicular language among speakers of different languages.

Genetically, the Dizin language belongs to the Dizoid group of the Omotic language family (Bender, 2000;2003). Because of their genetic affiliation, Dizin is closely related to languages like Sheko and Na'ö (Aklilu 2003; Bender,2000;2003).As a result, three of them are referred to as Dizoid. According to Akililu (2003:65), the language has three dialects-Jaba, Adikas, and Maji. The writer also indicates that Dizin is a tonal language with three levels of tone- low, mid and high.

Grammatical descriptions of the language have been written by Toselli (1939), Keefer (1969a, 1969b), Habtemarim (1982), Claudi and Serzisko (1985), Breez (1988), Beachy (2005, 2008, 2018), Allan (1976, 1978), Tamirat (1988), Aklilu (1994, 2000, 2003). According to Beachy (2005:52), Dizin is closer to agglutinating at one end and fusional at the other, i.e. Dizin is a polysynthetic language. It is also verb-final and pro-drop language syntactically. The author further indicates that Dizin employs SOV word order, although OSV is also possible in the order being pragmatically determined.

The foregoing are studies that have been conducted on Dizin thus far. But none of them have examined clausal complementation of Dizin. This paper, therefore, tries to describe clausal complementation in Dizin, which could possibly be helpful for the study of the typology of clausal complementation cross-linguistically.

2. Literature Review

2.1 Typological Notes on Complementation

Linguistic works are available on complementation clauses and complementation patterns in different languages. They are both theoretical and typological by nature. Noonan's (1985) seminal work on complementation is the first in its kind that treats complementation cross-linguistically. After Noonan's (1985) study on the phenomenon, different linguists have contributed to the typology of complementation and complement clauses (Cristofa-faro 2003, 2008; Noonan, 2007; Dixon and Aikhenvald 2006). Without disregarding the contribution of other linguists' work, Noonan's (2007) and Dixon and Aikhenvald (2006) studies on complementation have been reviewed and their ideas adopted to describe clausal complementation in Dizin.

2.2 The Phenomenon of Complementation

The idea of complementation was first proposed by Noonan (1985). He defines complementation in simple terms as a syntactic situation that arises when a notional sentence or predication is an argument of a predicate. Quite similarly, Cristofaro (2003:95) defines complementation as a syntactic situation, where one clause functions as an argument of another clause (i.e., a clause can function as a subject or object of a predicate of a matrix clause).

2.3 Grammatical Criteria

As Dixon and Aikhenvald (2006:5) list out, to be recognized as a complement clause, a constituent have to satisfy four criteria: i) it must have the internal structure of a clause; ii) it can be used as a core argument of a higher clause; iii) it will always describe a proposition which can be a fact, an activity or a potential state, and iv) it functions as core argument for verbs such as 'see', 'hear', 'tell', 'like', and 'want'.

The typological literature on complement clause indicates that the majority of the world's language have complement clause construction which occur in various forms in different languages or within a single language (Noonan 2007; Dixon and Aikhenvald 2006). English, for example, have four main complement types, while others may have more or less number of complements. A case in point is Irish which has two complement types (Noonan 2007).

A complement type, according to Noonan (2007:54-55) can be identified by i) the morphology of the predicate, ii) the sorts of syntactic relations of the predicate has with its arguments (complement-internal syntax), and iii) the syntactic relations of the complement constructions as a whole with the rest of the sentence (complement-external syntax).

As Noonan (2007:55) points out, forms such as words, particles, clitics, or affixes usually occur along with complement types. They are used to identify the entity as a complement and hence are called complementizers. The writer also indicates that more than one complementizer may occur within a given complement type. For example the particles ‘*that*’ and ‘*if*’ in English can occur and function with the same complement type called *that clause*. On the other hand, there are complement types which lack overt complementizers at all.

2.4 Clausal Complements in Omotic Languages

In their cross-linguistic typological study of complementation, Dixon and Aikhenvald (2006:1) state, in many languages certain verbs mainly ‘know’, ‘believe’ ‘see’, ‘hear’, ‘like’, tell ‘and ‘want’ take a clausal complement instead of noun phrases as a core argument. This is also observed in Naayi³ (a Southwest Omotic language in Ethiopia), which is related to Dizin, the focus of the present study and Maale (a North Omotic language in South Ethiopia) Omotic languages. In what follows, clausal complement types, their forms and order of clauses in these languages are briefly reviewed.

2.4.1 Clausal Complements in Maale

In Maale. Azeb (2001) investigates three types of clausal complements: The first type is a nominalized complement clause, which is introduced by the complementizer *-tsi*, which is affixed after the aspect marker. The second type is an infinitival complement clause identified by the infinitive marker – *itsi*. The third type is a complement clause marked by the free morpheme *gudi* ‘like/as’ or by a bound morpheme *-ani*. Azeb also states the morphemes *gudi* and *-ani* can also be used to mark purposive clauses.

With regard to order of clauses, in Maale, the complement clause precedes the matrix verb. This is parallel with all verb-final languages (Shopen 2007).

³ In the literature of linguistics, it is also known as Na’o.

The following examples from Maale show the use of complement clause as object and its order with respect to the matrix verb.

- (1) a. [*ta* *mífá* *zíró* *mukk-andá-tsi*]⁴
1s:GEN sister-NOM tomorrow come-F:IPF-NMR
tá *?e-á-ne*
1S:NOM know-IPF-A:DCL
'I know that my sister will come tomorrow.' (Azeb 2001:273)
- b. *?íín* [*kawo* *mú?-itsi*] *?is's'-é-ne*
3MS:NOM dinner:ABS eat-INF refuse-PF-A:DCL
'He refused to eat dinner.' (Azeb 2001: 176)
- c. *táái* [*madá-o* *haff-anda* *gudi*]
1S:NOM work:ABS give up-F:IPF COM
?iza-m *keez-é-ne*
3MS:ABS-DAT tell-PF-A:DCL
'I told him to stop the work.' (Azeb 2001: 179)

2.4.2 Clausal Complements in Naayi

In the same way, in Naayi, Andualem (2020:236) identifies different types of complement clauses, namely indicative, which is expressed by the relative clause marker *-ba* followed by the accusative case marker *-(n)a*. Subjunctive complement type that is expressed by *-b* together with the dative marker *-is*. Nominalized complement clause as he states does not have marker, whereas participial complement clauses are marked by *-ki* for present progressive and *-te* for past.

The order of clauses is the same as that of maale. i.e. Complement clauses occur preceding the matrix clause. According to Andualem (2020:240), indicative complement clauses do not dependent on the time reference of the complement-taking predicates, while subjunctive complement clauses do. For better understanding, consider the following indicative and subjunctive complement clauses from Naayi, which occur preceding the matrix clause and function as object.

⁴ This square bracket indicates clausal complements throughout this paper.

- (2) a. [*qùrfá* *is-ñ-a-ba-ná*]
 lunch 3SM-eat-PAST-REL-ACC
 tus-n`-ba-naa-te-ta´-n
 know-TSR-REL-1S-COP-REAL-PRSP
 ‘I have known that he ate lunch.’ (Andualem 2020 :236)
- b. [*ne-s-ta* *is teg-e-ke-a-b-is*]
 DIST-DEF.M-LOC he go-NEG-remain-IRR-REL-DAT
 n= has-n-ki
 1PL-want-TSR-exist
 ‘We want him not to go there.’ (Andualem 2020 :240)

To sum up, the preceding studies that were examined are important for understanding the forms, types and syntactic features of Dizin complement clauses as they are interrelated to it. As a result, it can serve as a basis for the analysis of the present study.

3. Descriptive Framework

In describing and analyzing clausal complement in Dizin, Basic Linguistic Theory (BLT) is employed. According to Dixon (1997:128), BLT stands for “the fundamental theoretical concepts that underlie all work in a language description and change, and the postulation of general properties of human language.” It is the theory of linguistics which consists of the study and comparison of the grammatical patterns of individual languages (Dixon 2010:5). Dryer (2006) points out that BLT is a descriptive theory concerned with ‘what languages are like’ and the primary goal of this theory is descriptive, without any intended theoretical significance like concerns about “why languages are the way they are”. He further claims that its goal is, ‘to describe a set of facts, without any particular theoretical implications.

Since BLT focuses on the description of language in its own terms without the influence of others, the investigator has considered it relevant and hence adopted for the present study to describe clausal complementation in Dizin.

4. Methods

The data for this study were gathered from the Maji district. This district was chosen because it is a place where the Maji dialect (the standard one) is dominantly spoken, and used in writing. The data used in this paper were collected in different ways. Linguistic elicitation and natural texts on fables

were used to obtain the required data. Four informants, two men and two women between the age of 25 and 65 years, were asked to produce clauses and sentences, as well as to narrate natural fables. Based on the collected data, each feature and manifestation of Dizin’s clausal complements has been explained in depth.

5. Data Description and Discussion

5.1 Complement Clause Types in Dizin

Dizin has three complement clauses which are classified according to the type of complementizers: i) Finite complement clause, ii) infinitive complement clause and iii) nominalized complement clause.

5.1.1 Finite Complement Clause

In this section, the form, function, position, factive (a statement that presupposes its truth), non-factive (a statement that does not assume its own truth) and predicates that take finite complement clause have been discussed in brief.

5.1.1.1 Form of Finite Complement Clause

Dizin has finite complement clause, which is introduced by the complementizer-*das* ‘that’ suffixed to the dependent verb. It takes the form of an embedded clause that is structurally identical to main clause (i.e. s-o-v). The complement clause verb expresses aspect, time reference and pronominal agreement independently of the main clause. This is also true in Naayi as mentioned in the literature review. Further evidence of the independence of a *-das* clause is that it can include its own peripheral constituents of time and place. The examples in (3) illustrate the case.

- (3) a. *áku* [*k’oj* *bal-t* *kómtu*
aku one place-LOC komtu
í-al-kì-das] *t’ús-dā-gò*
3SF-sit-PF-CP know-IPF-3SM
‘Aku knows that Komtu has sat at one place.’

- b. *áku* [*bíáru kómtu í-tā-dā-das*]
 aku tomorrow komtu 3SF-go-IPF-CP
éb-dā-gò
 believe-IPF-3SM
 ‘Aku believes that Komtu will go tomorrow.’
- c. *mətu* [*kómtu zóku í-húr-kì-das*]
 metu komtu ox 3sf-buy-PF-CP
t’ús-dā-gò
 know-ipf-3SM
 Metu knows that Komtu had bought an ox.’
- d. ... *nuhu-a* [*á-óit-en*
 hyena-DEF.M 3SM.POSS-cattle-DEF.f
í-siag-kì-das] *t’ús-dā-gò*
 3SF-give-pf- birth-CP know-IPF-3SM
 ‘...the hyena knows that his cow has given birth a calf.’

However, there is an exception that is found in direct speech, where the complement clause is not embedded in the matrix clause. It appears in the form of main clause, as shown in (4).

- (4) a. *téema_i* [*e_i⁵ kómtu-n jáφ-nò*] *gé-gè*
 teema komtu-ACC meet-1S say-3SF
 ‘Teema said, ‘I met Komtu.’’
- b. ...*ejk-a_i* *nuhu-a-sis* [*ʔḥ-zók-a_i*
 lion-DEF.m hyena-DEF.M-DAT 1S.POSS-DEF.M
out siag-ò] *gé-gò*
 calf give birth-3SM tell-3SM
 ‘...the lion told to the hyena, “My ox gave birth a calf.”’

As indicated in (4), the clause in square bracket is clausal complement, which stands as direct objects of the matrix verbs. It appears freely, without the complementizer, and takes the form of main clause order. To put it another

⁵ The letter “e” stands for an empty noun phrase though the subject is marked by the affix -*no*.

way, the object complement clause does not occur as an embedded clause, rather occurs independently in direct speech.

Declarative complement clauses are obligatorily introduced by the complementizer-*das* which cannot be omitted. Stated differently, the complementizer-*das* in Dizin, is obligatory, unlike ‘*that*’ in English which can be omitted safely. Consider the examples in (5).

- (5) a. *ts’óní* [*kómtu í fúb-kì-das*] *t’ús-kì-gò*
ts’oni komtu 3SF-die-PF-CP know-PF-3SM
‘Tsoni knew that komtu died.’
- *b. *áku* [*kómtu í-fúb-kì*] *t’ús-kì-gò*
aku komtu 3SF-die-PF know-PF-3SM
‘Aku knew komtu died.’

Example (5b) shows that Dizin does not allow an embedded clause without a complementizer, and that is why it is ungrammatical.

When it comes to declarative and interrogative sentences, the complementizers are similar. The example in (6) illustrates the occurrence of *-das* in interrogative complement clauses.

- (6) *áku* [*kómtu í-jǎ-kí-das*] *óʒ-ò*
aku komtu 3SF-come-PF-CP ask-3SM
‘Aku asked whether komtu came.’

5.1.1.2 The Syntactic Function of finite Complement Clause

In languages like English, the complement clause regularly occurs as arguments of verbs, i.e. they can be used as subject and direct object. Likewise, in Dizin, finite complement clause can be used as subject and direct object of the matrix verb. The following examples show the syntactic function of finite complement clause as object.

- (7) a. *áku* [*téema í-fúb-kì-das*]o *t’ús-dǎ-gò*
aku teema 3SF-die-PF-CP know-IPF-3SM
‘Aku knows that Teema has died.’

- b. [*kómtu í-fúb-kì-das*]o *áku t'ús-dē-gò*
 komtu 3SF-die-PF-CP aku know-IPF-3SM
 ‘That Komtu has died, Aku knows.’

Finite complement clause introduced by *-das* can also be used in subject slot position, i.e. it can be used as subject of a proposition), as examples (8) illustrate below.

- (8) a. [*kómtu í-jā-kì-das*]s *t'ús-dḡ-kì-gò*
 komtu 3SF-come-PF-CP know-PASS-PF-3SM
 ‘That Komtu came has been known.’
- b. [*īzū éjkú á-dēbúf-kì-das*]s *dzāf tí-gò*
 he lion 3SM-kill-PF-CP good COP-3SM
 ‘That he has killed a lion is good.’

5.1.1.3 The Placement of Object Complement Clauses

Normally, object complement clauses appear in the middle of the matrix clause, but they can also occur clause-initially for topicalization. This is illustrated in (9).

- (9) a. *áku* [*gíamu kómtu í-fúb-kì-das*]o *t'ús-ò*
 aku yesterday komtu 3SF-die-PF-CP know-3SM
 ‘Aku knew that Komtu died yesterday.’
- b. [*gíamu kómtu í-fúb-kì-das*]o *áku t'ús-ò*
 yesterday komtu 3SF-die-PF-CP aku know-3SM
 ‘Yesterday, that Komtu died, Aku knew.’
- *c *áku t'ús-dē-gò* [*gíamu kómtu í-fúb-kì-das*] o
 aku know-IPF-3SM yesterday komtu 3SF-die-PF-CP

The example in (9a) indicates that the complement clause is placed in the middle of the sentence, whereas in (9b), it occurs in sentence-initial position. Placing complement clause in sentence-final position brings about ungrammatical structure, as shown in (9c). In short, one can say that finite object complement clause occurs in the same position as nominal direct object, i.e. it must come preceding the matrix verb. In normal circumstances,

the position of the complement clause can be represented as: subject-complement clause - matrix predicate.

5.1.1.4 Factive and Non-factive Complement Clauses

Complement clause introduced by *das* expresses factive and non-factive propositions depending on the nature of the predicate in the matrix verb.

When speakers presuppose the truth of the proposition indicated by the embedded clause and assert something about it, they use factive verbs in the matrix clauses. The examples in (10) have factive verbs like *dúf-* ‘regret’, *t’ús-*, ‘know’, *wəz-* ‘admit’ help to presuppose the truth of the embedded clause and select complement clause that allow a factive reading.

- (10) a. *áku [kómtu í-dəbúf-də-kì-das] t’ús-kì-gò*
aku komtu 3SF-kill-PASS-PF-CP know-PF-3SM
‘Aku knew that Komtu was killed.’
- b. *ts’óni [kómtu í-tā-kì-das] dúf-ò*
tsoni komtu 3SF-go-PF-CP regret-3SM
‘Tsoni regretted that Komtu went.’

In (10a) the speaker asserts the embedded proposition ‘*that Komtu was killed*’ to indicate the fact that Aku knew it, in(10b) he asserts the proposition ‘*that Komtu went*’ to show Thoni’s regret.

On the other hand, speakers use non-factive verbs which used to assert the truth of the embedded clause with varying degrees of decisiveness. The examples in (11) employ non-factive verbs, so that the embedded clause allows non-factive reading.

- (11) a. *kómtu [áku tum á-tā-i-das]*
komtu aku tum 3SM-go-FUT-CP
t’ərt’ír-də-gé
suspect-IPF-3SF
‘Komtu suspects that Aku will go to Tum.’

- b. *áku* [*bíáru kómtu í-tā-i-das*]
 aku tomorrow komtu 3SF-go-FUT-CP
éb-dā-gò
 think-IPF-3SM
 ‘Aku thinks that Komtu will go tomorrow.’

Below are sample predicates that are typically used in factive and non-factive contexts (12).

- (12) a. Factive verbs: *dúf-* ‘to regret’, *kíá-* ‘to ignore’, *gè-* ‘to reveal’, *éjā-* ‘admit’, *t’ús-* ‘to know’, *tsāj-* ‘to forget’ etc.
- b. Non-factive verbs: *wádʒis-* ‘to claim’, *t’úss-* ‘to conclude’ *hóts’-* ‘to think’ etc.

5.1.1.5 Finite Complement Clause-Taking Predicates

The collocation of a particular complement and a particular matrix predicate is determined by the meaning and grammatical nature of the matrix predicate. In other words, predicates are selective in the type of complement they take (selection constraint). Noonan (2007:120) identifies about 14 classes of embedded predicates. This is what he calls a “complementary predicate”. Listing all verbs may not practically be possible, and hence the investigator will briefly illustrate representative sample of three verb classes that take a finite complement clause. These are:

- i) Utterance predicate : *gé-* ‘say’, *óʒ-* ‘ask’, *ófik-* ‘call’, *gé-* ‘tell’ etc
 ii) cognitive predicate : *ís-* ‘understand’, *ámìnd-* ‘believe’, *t’ús-* ‘know’, etc.
 iii) perception predicate: *só-* ‘see’, *wōb-* ‘taste’, *sís-* ‘hear’ *māʃin-* ‘feel’ etc.

Now let us see each type of predicates with illustrative examples.

5.1.1.5.1 Utterance Predicate

Utterance predicates (for example, telling, notifying, etc.) are used by agents to convey information. The complement assigned to the utterance predicate represents the transmitted information (Noonan 2007: 121). Information can be reported in direct or indirect speech. Dizin verbs that can be used as utterance predicates include *ge-* ‘say’, *ge-* ‘tell’, *t’usis-* ‘announce’, *k’ol-* ‘beg’ etc., as can be seen in the following sentences:

- (13) a. *kómtu* [*áku k'əjd-ŋ á- fúf-i-das*]
 komtu aku work-ACC 3SM-resign-FUT-CP
t'úsis-è
 announce-3SF
 'Komtu announced that Aku will resign.'
- b. *áku* [*kómtu-n í-jal-i-das*] *k'ól-ò*
 aku komtu-ACC 3SF-stay-FUT-CP beg-3SM
 'Aku begged that Komtu would stay.'
- c. [*áku_i [e_i zók-á-s á-húr-i-nò]* *gé-gò*
 aku ox-DEF-ACC 3SM-sell-FUT-1S say-3SM
 'Aku said "I will sell the ox."

Declarative clauses are selected by utterance predicates like *t'úsis*- 'to announce', *k'ól*- 'to beg' and *gé*- 'to say', as used in (13), to report something that was announced, begged and said respectively.

5.1.1.5.2 Verbs of Perception

Immediate Perception Predicates comprise verbs, such as *see*, *hear*, and *feel* etc. These predicates specify a sensory mode in which the subject directly perceives the complement encoded event. The examples in (14) indicate that the perception verbs *k'aməs*- 'to taste' and *sis*- 'to feel' can select either a declarative or an interrogative clause.

- (14) a. [*áku* *úg-a* *á-kíást-das*]
 aku milk-DEF.M 3SM-become.sour-CP
kāməs-ò
 taste-3SM
 'Aku tasted that the milk became sour.'
- b. *áku* [*bátf-a* *á-kólda-kì-das*]
 aku cloth-DEF.M 3SM-dry-PF-CP
sis-ó
 feel-3SM
 'Aku felt whether the cloth dried.'

5.1.1.5.3 Cognition Verbs

The matrix predicates in this category, which are cognitive or related to knowledge, take experiencer subjects. For example, cognition verbs like *eb*-‘to believe’ and *t’us* ‘to know’ can take finite complement clause. Consider the examples in (15).

- (15) a. *áku* [*gíámu kómtu í-jā-kì-das*]
 aku yesterday komtu 3SF-come-PF-CP
éb-dā-gò
 believe-iPF-3SM
 ‘Aku believes that komtu came yesterday.’
- b. *kómtu* [*áku á-tā-kì-das*] *t’ús-kì-gè*
 komtu aku 3SM-go-PF-CP knew-PF-3SM
 ‘Komtu knew that Aku went.’

To recapitulate, the previous subsections have shown that finite complement clause introduced by *-das* ‘that’ exhibits syntactic behavior similar to nominal arguments. First, it may function as object and subject of a sentence. Second, it normally appears left-adjacent to the matrix predicate. It has also been shown that finite complement clause can express factive and non-factive proposition depending on the meaning and nature of the matrix predicate.

5.1.2 Infinitive Complement Clause

5.1.2.1 Form of Infinitive Complement Clause

Languages differ in terms of the number of infinitives they constitute. For example, it is well known that English comprises two types of infinitives, such as infinitive with ‘to’ and bare infinitive. Dime, as stated by Mulugeta (2008:60-61), has two infinitive types: infinitive with *-in* and infinitive with *-ta*. When it comes to Dizin, the infinitive is formed by affixing *-dn* and *-kñ* to a verb root and bare infinitive as the data collected and Beachy’s (2005) seminal work indicate. This can be seen from the examples with infinitival verbs in (16) below.

- (16) a. *.gib-kɨ* ‘to chase’, *k’atf’-kɨ* ‘to knock’
 b. *tə-dn* ‘to go’, *k’əj-dn* ‘to work’
 d. *tamir-∅* ‘to learn’, *k’ol-∅* ‘to beg’

It seems that *-kɨ* is affixed to a verb root that ends with a voiced stop and affricates; while *-dn* is affixed after a verb root that ends with a vowel or a glide and a bare infinitive is used if the verb root ends with trills and laterals but this is not conclusive. It needs further research.

Infinitive complement clauses are structurally different from main clauses. They cannot express aspect and time reference independently. In many languages, the subject of infinitive complement clause is left implicit when it is coreferential with the antecedent. The same holds true in Dizin. Consider the examples given in 17).

- (17) a. *áku_i* [*e_i tum* *á-tā-dn*] *út-dā-gò*
 aku tum 3SM-go-INF like-IPF-3SM
 ‘Aku likes to go Tum.’
- b. *áku_i* [*e_i á-tāmīr-∅*] *út-dā-gò*
 aku 3SM-learn-INF like-IPF-3SM
 ‘Aku likes to .’learn.’
- c. *áku_i* [*e_i kíánu* *á-gīb-kɨ*] *út-dā-gò*
 aku dog 3SM-chase-INF like-IPF-3SM
 ‘Aku likes to chase a dog.’

As indicated above, the infinitival verbs in (17) do not inflect for aspect and time, whereas the verbs in the main clause do. The examples also show that the subjects of the infinitive complement clauses are not overtly expressed. Instead, they are indicated by the silent pronoun which does not exist phonetically.

5.1.2.2 Function of Infinitive Complement Clause

Syntactically, infinitival complement clause can only function as direct object. It is also used with meanings, activity rather than to indicate factive or non-factive propositions. It appears in the middle of the main clause or it

occurs left-adjacent to the matrix verb. The examples in (18) show the function of infinitive complement clause used as object.

- (18) a. *jīnū_i* [e_i *ʔḥ-k'əj-dḥ*]o *út-dā-nò*
 I 1S-work-INF like-IPF-1S
 'I like to work.'
- b. *áku_i* [e_i *á-tāmír-Ø*]o *bás-dā-gò*
 aku 3SM-learn-INF want-INF-3SM
 'Aku wants to learn.'

5.1.2.3 Control Properties of Verbs

5.1.2.3.1 Subject Control Verbs

Subject control verbs are verbs that have an infinitival argument clause and a subject that functions as the antecedent of the implied PRO⁶-subject. In this paper, this empty category or PRO is represented by letter “e” The examples in (19) illustrate the relation that occurs between the antecedent and the PRO-subject of the complement clause.

- (19) a. *tsóni_i* [e_i *kíánu_j* *á-gíb-kḥ*] *út-dā-gò*
 ts'oni dog 3SF-go-INF like-IPF-3SM
 'Ts'oni likes to chase a dog.'
- b. [*áku_i* [e_i *úgu_j* *á-bəj-dḥ*] *bás-dā-gò*
 aku milk 3SM-drink-INF want-IPF-3SM
 'Aku wants to drink milk.'

The verbs *út*-‘like’ in (19a) and *bás*- ‘want’ in (19b) are subject control verbs (PRO must be coreferential with *Ts'oni* and *Aku*). A list of a small sample of transitive subject control verbs is given in (20).

⁶In generative syntax, PRO stands for a null noun phrase. The situation is known as ‘control’, where the subject or object of the matrix predicate provides the subject of a non-finite subordinate verb with dummy subjects is represented by PRO (Carnie 2002).

(20) Transitive verbs: *tsəj* ‘to forget’, *mokir*-‘to try’, *ój*-‘to refuse’, *wút*-‘to fail’, *tamir*-‘to learn’, *saskis*- ‘to postpone’, *dir*-‘to avoid’, *kalb*-‘to dare’ etc

5.1.2.3.2 Object Control Verbs

Object control verbs are verbs that must have an infinitival argument clause and an object that functions as the antecedent of the implied PRO-subject of the complement clause. The examples in (21) show the case.

- (21) a *áku_i* *kómtu-n_j* [*e_j úgu* *í-bəj-dŋ*]
 aku komtu-ACC milk 3SF-drink-INF
 bás-dā-gò
 want-IPF-3SM
 ‘Aku wants komtu to drink milk.’
- b *áku_i* *kómtu-n_j* [*e_j í-jā-dŋ*] *gé-gò*
 aku komtu-ACC 3SF-come-INF tell-3SM
 ‘Aku told Komtu to come.’
- *c [*áku_i* *kómtu-n_j* [*e_j úgu* *í-bəj-dŋ*] *bás-dā-gò*
 aku komtu-ACC milk 3SF-drink want-IPF-3SM
 ‘Aku wants komtu to drink milk.’

The verbs *bas*- ‘want’ and *ge*- ‘tell’ in (21a&b) are object control verbs. In both sentences, the PRO subjects are coreferential with *Komtu*. However, the example in (21c) is ungrammatical as the antecedent does not co-refer the implied subject of the complement clause.

To summarize, the previous subsections have shown that infinitive complement clause exhibits its own syntactic behavior. First, it can only function as object of a sentence. Second, it is placed left-adjacent to the main verb. It has also been indicated that the subject of the infinitival complement clause is controlled by the matrix predicate.

5.1.3 Nominalized Complement Clause

Nominalized complement clause is the other type of complement clause with internal structures of noun phrases. But there is no complete evidence in favour of viewing its head as a lexical noun. That is, the verb in nominalized

clause has verbal features as person and number though it lacks tense-aspect features. Nominalized complement clause is introduced by-z.

Just like finite complement clause, nominalized complement clause functions as object and subject of a proposition. The following examples indicate how the nominalized complements function in object slot.

- (22) a. *áku_i [e_i átfiku á-ጎጥ-z]_o út-dā-gò*
 aku meat 3SM-eat-NMR like-IPF-3SM
 ‘Aku likes eating meat.’

- b. *[e_i [e_i míágu ጎጥ-ጎጥ-z]_o út-dā-nò]*
 (I) milk 1S-eat-NMR like-IPF-1S
 ‘I like eating egg.’

Nominalized complements introduced by-z used not only as object but also as subject slot. The examples provided in (23) show the use of nominalized clauses as object of a clause.

- (23) a. *[áku-kḥki átfiku á-ጎጥ-z]_s dʒāf tí-gò*
 aku-GEN meat 3SM-NMR good COP-3SM
 ‘Aku’s eating meat is good.’

- b. *[kómtu-kḥki múg í-bəj-z]_s inīs*
 komtu-GEN local beer 3SF-NMR me
híál-s-ò
 annoy-CAUS-3SM
 ‘Komtu’s drinking local beer annoyed me.’

Noonan (2007:118) views clausal nominalization into two categories: nominalized proposition and activity or state nominalization. According to him, nominalized proposition refers expressions that are used by speakers to check information provided previously, while, activity or state nominalization indicates the kinds of activities or states, but not specific events that have background information. This feature is also observable in Dizin, as is shown in the following example:

- (24) a. [*tz-kɣki* *kiánu* *á-dǝbúf-z*]_s *ts'óni-n*
 3SM-GEN dog 3SM-kill-NMR ts'oni-ACC
 hiál-s-ò
 annoy-CAUS-3SM
 ‘His killing a dog annoyed Tsoni.’
- b. *jĩmūi* [*e_i átfiku* *ʔŋ-ʔŋ-z*]_o *út-dǝ-nò*
 I meat 1S-eat-NMR like-IPF-1S
 ‘I like eating meat.’

The functional difference which can be observed between these examples is that (24a) is nominalized proposition complement clause, whereas (24b) is an activity type complement clause.

6. Conclusion

This paper examined clausal complementation in Dizin. Syntactically, three types of complement clauses are attested. The first is finite complement clause introduced by *-das*, and the second is infinitive complement clause introduced by *-dn, -kɣ* and bare infinitive and the third type is nominalized complement clause marked by *-z*.

It was found that the position of complement clause is fixed, that is, it occurs immediately preceding the matrix predicate. More specifically, finite complement clause occurs in both object and subject slots. It expresses factive and non-factive propositions depending on the nature of the matrix predicate. The finite complement clause occurs preceding the matrix predicate and has its own person-number, gender and aspect-time features. It was also showed that infinitive complement clause appears only in object slot and expresses activity and potential readings. Unlike finite complement clause, infinitive complement clause does not show aspect-time features independently. The paper also identified that nominalized clause occurs in both object and subject slots and express factive proposition and activity or state meanings. In this regard, it is believed that the present description will help to compare the Dizin clausal complements with other languages in and outside of Ethiopia and contribute to a broader understanding of clausal complements in Omotic languages in general and in Dizin in particular.

Abbreviations and Symbols

ACC	Accusative	1S	First person singular
Causative	CAUS	2S	Second person plural
COP	Copular verb	3SM	Third person singular masculine
CP	Complementizer	3SF	Third person singular feminine
DEF.F	Definite feminine	1PL	First person plural
DEF.M	Definite masculine	2PL	Second person plural
FUT	Future	3PL	Third person plural
GEN	Genitive	·	High tone
IPF	Imperfective	-	Mid-tone
INF	Infinitive	˘	Low tone
INST	Instrument	[]	Syntactic constituent
Locative	LOC	*	Ungrammatical structure
NMR	Nominalizer		
O	Object		
PASS	Passive		
PF	Perfect		
S	Subject		

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