Subordination in Karitiana

Luciana Storto

Universidade de São Paulo

Abstract

This paper describes and analyzes subordination phenomena in Karitiana (Arikém branch, Tupi family). In section 2, adverbial embedded clauses are discussed, and their subordinating morphology is shown to be equivalent to aspectual morphemes occurring in matrix clauses. In sections 3 and 4 complement and relative clauses are discussed, respectively. The conclusion, in section 5, is that embedded clauses in the language are not nominalized, but truncated versions of matrix sentences.

Embedded clauses in Karitiana are characterized by verb-final word orders (SOV ou OSV) and by the occurrence of bare verbs, that is, verbs without inflectional morphology such as tense, agreement or mood. This pattern of constituent order is in complementary distribution with the pattern in matrix clauses, that never occur in a verb-final order (SVO, OVS, VSO e VOS), and obligatorily present inflectional morphology (Storto 1999, 2002). Subordinating conjunctions, when present, invariably occupy the last position in the sentence, that is, they occur post-verbally. This is what is expected in a head-final language such as Karitiana (and Tupi languages in general), in which heads select their complements to the left.

Storto (1999) has explained this complementary distribution suggesting that Karitiana has a basic verb-final word order in the verb phrase (observed in subordinate clauses) and matrix clauses involve movement of the verb to the left periphery of the sentence, motivated by the acquisition of inflectional morphology such as tense and agreement. This accounts for the verb-initial (VSO, VOS) or verb-second (SVO, OVS) word orders in transitive sentences, in which the preverbal arguments are focused, and postverbal arguments are presupposed information (Storto 1999, 2008, 2010). One first question that must be answered is why embedded clauses do not project functional heads such as tense, agreement or mood. A possible answer would be to say that all embedded clauses are nominalized. If this were correct, however, we wouldn’t expect the presence of functional morphemes such as aspect in embedded environments, but they do occur. The answer that Storto (1999) gives to that question is that embedded clauses in Karitiana are truncated versions of their matrix counterparts, in which aspectual...
morphemes are the only overt functional heads available, whereas in matrix clauses other functional heads also project.

Key words: subordination; verb movement; aspect; Karitiana; Tupi

1. Introduction


There is a sharp difference between matrix and embedded clauses in Karitiana that is central to the understanding of the language. As most, if not all Tupian languages, the language is invariably verb-final in non-finite clauses and nominalizations (Moore 1994, Moore 2005, Galucio 2005, Rodrigues 2005). In this paper we will show that embedded clauses in Karitiana are non-finite and occur in verb-final orders (SOV and OSV), as expected in a verb-final language. Karitiana differs from most Tupi languages, however, in that the typical OV pattern is not the rule in matrix clauses, which are inflected for mood, tense and agreement and never occur in verb-final orders. This complementary distribution between matrix and embedded clauses was identified and explained by Storto (1999) as the result of an obligatory verb movement to the left periphery in matrix clauses associated to the acquisition of inflec-
tional morphology. Landin (1984) and Everett (2006) do not believe that Karitiana has agreement, considering the person prefixes on the verb to be pronouns. However, even in their analysis, one has to grant that the presence of tense is correlated with the complementary distribution in word order between matrix and embedded sentences. In that respect, Karitiana reminds us of the verb second Germanic languages. It is unlike Germanic languages, however, in that the left periphery head to which the verb moves in matrix clauses is not the subordinating head.

The only functional heads overtly present in embedded clauses are aspectual morphemes that invariably occur sentence-finally. These aspectual subordinators form a syntactic and prosodic unit with the verb, but are not affixal, since they have their own stress and are clearly pronounced as separate phonological words. The syntactic unit in question is derived by head movement and is equivalent to compounds in the language, that may be formed by more than one phonological word and constitute a prosodic unit described by Storto (1999) as a phonological phrase:

\[(1) \ [ São Paulo \ pip \ y-otam \ tykiri ] \ Ø-naka-pop-Ø \ Maria \\
São Paulo in 1-arrive perf 3-decl-die-nfut Maria \\
‘When I arrived in São Paulo, Maria died’\]

\[(2) \ [ São Paulo \ pip \ y-otam \ kit ] \ Ø-naka-pop-Ø \ Maria \\
São Paulo in 1-arrive before 3-decl-die-nfut Maria \\
‘Before I arrived in São Paulo, Maria died’\]

\[(3) \ [ São Paulo \ pip \ y-otam \ byyk ] \ Ø-naka-pop-Ø \ Maria \\
São Paulo in 1-arrive after 3-decl-die-nfut Maria \]

\[\text{For lack of space, the present paper will not review the arguments given by Storto (1999) for this analysis. A summary of the arguments can be found in Storto (2003), that can be downloaded from www.fflch.usp.br/dl/storto/publicacoes.}\]

\[\text{Abbreviations used in this paper: (abs.)cop.agr = absolutive copular agreement, advzr = adjecitivizer, assert = \textit{insert}}\text{assertative mood, cit = citative mood, cop = copula, decl = declarative mood, deic = deictic, dir.evid = direct evidential, fut = future tense, imp = imperative mood, impf = imperfective aspect, impf.mot = imperfective aspect suppleted for motion; impf.sting = imperfective aspect supleted for sitting position; impf.sup. = imperfective aspect supleted for supine position; impf.p = imperfective aspect (plural), ind.evid = indirect evidential, loc = locative, nfut = non-future tenses, neg.pol = negative polarity item, obl = oblique case, part = participle, perf = perfective, posp = postpositions, pgr = progressive aspect, qtfr = quantifier, sub = subordinator, 3 = third person prefix (singular or plural), 3anaph = third person anaphoric prefix (singlular or plural), 1s = first person singular prefix, 1p = first person plural prefix, 2s = second person singular prefix, 2p = second person plural prefix.}\]

\[\text{Inside these phonological phrases, certain phonological processes may apply that do not apply inside words (Storto 1999, Storto & Demolin 2005).}\]
‘After I arrived in São Paulo, Maria died’

In the next sections three different types of subordinate constructions will be described: adverbial, complement, and relative clauses. Similarities and differences among them will be discussed, and an analysis of embedded clauses in general will be given that takes them to be truncated versions of matrix clauses.

2. Adverbial embedded clauses

Adverbial embedded clauses are structures that are subordinated to a matrix verb without being an argument of that verb, but modifying it adverbially, as an adjunct. Sentences (1-3) given above are examples of that kind of structure, easily identified by their aspectual subordinators. These subordinators can be roughly translated as ‘when/if’, ‘before’, ‘after’, but much more work needs to be done on their function and compositional semantics before we fully understand their denotations. For this reason, we do not intend to give a comprehensive analysis of aspectual heads in this paper. We will limit ourselves to showing that the semantics of aspectual subordinators may be complex, since they are not always monomorphemic as byy$k seems to be in (3). In some cases, subordinators are clearly formed by at least three morphemes:

(4) Ty-ki-ri   perfective
     Ty-ki-’oot  imperfective progressive (neutral for number)
     Agi-’oot   imperfective progressive (plural)

It seems to be correct to analyze the morphemes ki and agi as the roots of the aspectual subordinators, because they can be found elsewhere in the language as copular verbs or aspectual auxiliaries (Storto, to appear). Also, the enclitic ‘oot has been described by Storto (2002) as an aspectual clitic in matrix sentences.

The subordinator tykiri refers to a completed or finished event (perfective). When the event is ongoing, the subordinator tyki ‘oot is used:

(5) [Ti’y Marcelo ‘y tykiri] Ø-na-pa’ira-t João

4 These translations, although useful, miss the point because the actual meanings of these morphemes do not include any temporal notions: concomitant, perfective, imperfective, anterior or posterior would be more accurate descriptions of their meaning.
When Marcelo ate the food, João got angry.

While Maria was planting manioc, the man killed the game.

Agi’oot is the plural version of tyki’oot, used when an event is imperfective and plural. For a complete discussion of verb and auxiliary suppletion meaning plurality of events, I refer the reader to Storto (to appear):

What is crucial to the analysis of aspectual heads is that they are not limited to embedded clauses, occurring also in matrix clauses. If the same heads that in embedded clauses occur at the end of the clause end up in the left periphery of the sentence in matrix clauses, it is reasonable to assume that when the verb moves to acquire inflectional morphology in matrix sentences, it takes along with it those aspectual functional heads. First, the status of aspectual morphemes will be discussed, and at the end of this section an analysis of embedded clauses as truncated versions of matrix clauses will be given.

2.1. Aspectual auxiliaries in matrix clauses

The aspectual clitic ‘oot seen above in embedded environments (6, 7 and 8) is not limited to such uses, but also occurs associated with matrix verbs. In these environments, it is used to characterize an event as inchoative or inceptive (Storto 2002):
(9) Ø-Naka-heredn-’oot taso  
3-decl-get.together-inceptive man  
‘The men started to get together’

The root morphemes $ki$ and $agi$ that are present inside aspectual subordinators in (1, 5, 6, 7 and 8) occur as existential copular verbs (10, 13) or aspectual auxiliaries (11, 15) in matrix clauses as well:

(10) Yjxa naka-‘agi-$t$ hak  
people decl-be.pl-nfut here  
‘There are people here’

(11) Y-’a tyki y-haj  
1-be perf 1-elder.brother  
‘I am here, my brother’

(12) [Hak taso aka] Ø-na-aka-$t$ hotel ongy-$t$  
here man cop. 3-decl-cop-nfut hotel employees- abs.cop.agr  
‘A/the man who is here is a hotel employee’

(13) [Hak taso ki] Ø-na-aka-$t$ hotel ongy-$t$  
here man cop.pl 3-decl-cop-nfut hotel employees- abs.cop.agr  
‘A/the man who are here are hotel employees’

(14) Ø-Py-mangat tyka-$dn$ taso Luciana  
3-assert-lift impf-nfut man Luciana  
‘Luciana is lifting a/the man/men’

(15) Ø-Py-mangat agi-$dn$ taso Luciana  
3-assert-lift impf.p-nfut man Luciana  
‘Luciana is lifting a/the man/men’ (more than once)

The structure of sentence pairs (12-13) and (14-15) requires some discussion. Muller, Storto & Coutinho-Silva (2006a, 2006b) have shown that Karitiana is a language without arti-
cles and quantifiers in the noun phrase but with bare nouns that can be used as singular or plural, definite or indefinite. This creates a lot of ambiguity, since any sentence with non-pronominal arguments will have a number of possible interpretations. The absence of functional material in the noun phrase seems to be compensated in the language by the use of verb and auxiliary reduplication to pluralize events (Sanchez-Mendes & Muller (2007)). When a verb is reduplicated in Karitiana, or when suppletion of verbs and auxiliaries occurs, a pluralizing operation takes place in the event, and part of the ambiguity disappears (Storto (to appear)). In (12-13) we have demonstrative constructions used as subjects of copular sentences. Muller, Storto & Coutinho-Silva (2006a, 2006b) were the first to identify these demonstrative phrases and embedded clauses, arguing that they are formed by a deictic element, the noun and the copula aka. Coutinho-Silva (2008) has argued that these structures are head-internal relative clauses, headed by a copula aka or ki (plural) and modified by a positional deitic that has the status of an adverbial or adjunct inside the relative. A more complete description of the syntax of copular and cleft sentences in Karitiana can be found in Storto (2008, 2010). In (14-15) we have a pair of sentences that differ solely in the use of different aspectual auxiliaries: when the auxiliary tyka is used, a singular interpretation for the event is available, and when agi is used, a plural interpretation of the event is forced. These aspectual heads are considered auxiliaries because in matrix clauses they are suffixed by tense, as in (14-15) and in other examples to be shown below (Storto 2002).

David Landin (1984) and Caleb Everett (2006) describe these aspectual heads that occur in matrix clauses as verb suffixes. I disagree with them on this issue, because, although they do form a syntactic unit with the verb, they constitute separate phonological words, having independent stress and being pronounced separately from the verb in slow speech. Since they form complex heads with the verb, however, the two together form a phonological phrase in which phonological processes such as stress deletion take place (Storto 1999, 2002, Storto & Demolin 2005).

Landin (1984) was the first to describe some of the aspectual morphemes occurring in matrix clauses in Karitiana as markers of progressive aspect that also indicate the position of the body of a subject:
The aspect suffix indicates not only the progressive form of the verb, but also the position or stance of the referent of the subject, e.g. sitting, standing, in motion or supine. The examples given by Landin are given below:

(16) I Ø-na-oky tysyp-Ø saara
    he 3-decl-kill impf.supine-nfut alligator
    ‘He is killing the alligator’

(17) Taso Ø-na-atik tyso-t kinda
    man 3- decl –throw impf.stdng-nfut thing
    ‘The man is throwing things’

(18) Yn Ø-na-aka-t i-bik tyjha-t iso pityp
    I 3- decl –cop-nfut part-sit impf.sting-cop.agr fire beside
    ‘I am sitting beside the fire’

(19) I Ø-na-aka-t i-pon tyka-t
    I 3- decl –cop-nfut part-hunt impf.mot-cop.agr
    ‘He is hunting’

Storto (2002) agrees with Landin (1984) about the fact that progressive meaning has to be expressed through the use of the aspectual morphemes described above, but she shows that other kinds of imperfective meanings besides the progressive can be encoded by those same morphemes. Her examples are given below:

Progressive uses

(20) A-ohen (naakat) i-’ot tyka-t,
    ‘He is sitting beside the fire’

The examples given by Landin are modified here to adapt to the current Karitiana orthography and are corrected according to the description of the language given in Storto (1999, 2002). In Landin’s examples, the morphemes he analyzes as a progressive is considered a suffix that replaces the tense suffix. Storto (1999, 2002) analyzes these morphemes as independent phonological words that form a syntactic unit with the verb. She also differs from Landin in that she shows that aspectual heads may be suffixed by tense in matrix clauses. Landin also has a very different analysis of copular sentences than Storto (1999, 2008, 2010), and for that reason both the segmentation and the glosses given by Landin had to be adapted to Storto (2010).

This sentence is a copular construction used with the omission of the copular verb. Omitting the copula is possible whenever it is inflected in the nonfuture tense (Storto 2008). This sentential type is similar to non-declarative sentences such as the one given in (11), but differs from them in that here the clausal complement of the
'Your penis-ring is falling, my dear (friend)'

(21) Pyr-yryt tysyp-yn i 'a
assert-arrive impf.sup.-nfut 3 there
'There they come'

(22) Hyť hadn-’a tyso-t tyym i, a-so’oot<o> mini an him
bosy?
Interr speak-do impf.stdng-nfut then he 2-see neg.pol. you game in.law
'Oh, he was saying then, didn’t you see where the game is, brother in law?'

(23) I-ndo tysyp<γ>-’oot Ø-naka-tat saryt Ora
3-finish impf.sup-incept 3-decl-go ind.evid. Ora
'Ora was starting to finish, they say'

Non-progressive uses

(24) I-ndo tysyp ‘ejo hyť
3-finish impf.sup grave interr
'Oh, the grave is finished?'

(25) Ø-Pyry-ndo tysyp-yn ‘ejo
3-assert-finish impf.sup-nfut grave
'Yes, the grave is finished’

The imperfective meaning of a verb like ‘to finish’ in (24)-(25) is difficult to understand, because the event of ‘finishing the grave’ is indeed completed, but marked as imperfective to show that it has been an event with internal duration. The text from which these sentences were taken describes a mortuary ritual in which many steps have to be taken as part of the completion of the grave. According to Comrie (1974), there is typological evidence of imperfective aspect used with completed events as long as the event has a durative character. The last use Storto (2002) gives for imperfective auxiliaries is one in which the imperfective aspectual auxiliary, normally used to mean “lying down”, may also be used to mean plural.

copula [verb+aspect] has a suffix of absolutive copular agreement.
7 The supine aspectual auxiliary, normally used to mean “lying down”, may also be used to mean plural.
pect is use to describe a state. Another example we have seen of a stative use of the imperfective is example (11):

Stative

(26) Y-mboyr-a y-man, syypo hadna-na yn ti-m’a tysyp<y>-ty
1-save-imp 1-husband eyes speak-advzr I ofc-caus-be impf.sup-obl
‘Save me dear, for I have a vertigo’

Storto (2002) segments the prefix *ty-* and the root of the auxiliary, pointing out that the root suppletes to convey the meanings of plural or different body positions:

(27) Ty-ka ‘movement’
    Ty-so ‘standing
    Ty-syp ‘supine/lying down (also plural)’
    Ty-jfä ‘sitting’

Other examples of aspectual auxiliaries in matrix clauses are given in (28-31). They are useful to show that in declarative or assertative sentences aspectual morphemes are the same, forming a syntactic unit with the verb to the point that the tense suffixes occur on the auxiliary (*-t/-Ø for declarative and *-<v>n for assertative mood):

(28) João Ø-naka-m’a tyka-t ambi
    João 3-decl-caus-do impf. mot-nfuthouse
    ‘João is making a house’

(29) João Ø-naka-’y tyfä-t asyryty
    João 3-decl-eat impf.sting-nfut banana
    ‘João is eating a banana’

(30) Ø-Pyry-’y tyfä-dn asyryty João
    3-assert-eat impf.sting-nfut banana João
    ‘João is eating a banana’
(31) Ø-Pyr-yltyt tysyp-yn  i  ‘a
3-assert-arrive imperf.p-nfut they there
‘There they come’

The progressive use of the auxiliary may be combined with another aspectual head pasagng, meaning posteriority, with stative verbs:

(32) Ø-Pyr-osedn pasagng tyka-dn Pedro
3-assert-happy posterior impf.mot-nfut Pedro
‘Pedro is becoming happy’

This aspectual morpheme meaning posteriority also occurs in embedded environments, as we will see in section 3.

2.2. Constituent order in adverbial embedded clauses

Another aspect of adverbial subordinate clauses that must be mentioned is that their constituent order may be either OSV or SOV when non-pronominal subjects are involved. The former is the usual order in colloquial sentences, SOV being used in a more formal style found in myths and other types of traditional narratives (Storto 1999):

(33) OSV subordinate clauses:

[Boroja taso oky tykiri] Ø-naka-hyryp-Ø õwã
snake man kill perf 3-decl-cry-nfut child
‘When the man killed the sanke, the child cried (coloquial)’

(34) SOV subordinate sentences

[Taso boroja oky tykiri] Ø-naka-hyryp-Ø õwã
man snake kill perf 3-decl-cry-nfut child
‘When the man killed the snake, the child cried (archaic)’

With pronominal arguments inside the embedded clause, we have an obligatory cliticization of the pronoun to the verb:
In section 4 it will become clear that, in relatives, the order of constituents is motivated syntactically. In those structures, there is a special morpheme marking the verb when the object is the head of the relative. In such cases, the object moves to the left periphery of the embedded clause, and the word order is a fixed OSV. If the subject is the head, it moves to the left edge of the clause as well, the word order is SVO, but there is no special morphology on the verb.

2.3. Discussion

We have seen that the same aspectual heads that occur as subordinators in embedded clauses are used as aspectual auxiliaries forming a syntactic unit with matrix verbs. Storto (1999) explains these facts by saying that the verb phrase is the complement of these aspectual heads, and that the verb moves to adjoin to the aspectual heads in embedded clauses:

(37) \[
\text{AspP} \\
\text{Spec} \quad \text{Asp'} \\
\text{VP} \quad \text{Asp} \\
\text{V'} \quad \text{Subj} \quad \text{V} \quad \text{Asp} \\
\text{Obj} \quad \text{t}
\]

That same verb and aspect unit moves further to adjoin to other functional heads in matrix clauses. Since the aspectual head selects the verb phrase to its left, when the verb adjoins to this head it appears at the end of the sentence. Mood, tense and agreement, however, are heads that attract the verb to the left periphery of the sentence, and when the verb moves to
adjoin to them, it occupies the first or second position in the sentence. This is represented in tree diagram (38) that has a Focus head as the leftmost head to which the verb adjoins. The empty specifier position of FocP may be filled by a focused noun phrase or empty (Storto 2010). This diagram is a departure from Storto 1999 that considered the leftmost head to be a complementizer (C). The reason why this new view is advocated is the fact that subordinators in Karitiana are not complementizer-like heads, since they also occur in matrix clauses.

(38)

3. Complement embedded clauses

Complement embedded clauses are structures that are clausal objects of an embedded verb. These clauses may be direct or indirect objects, but we will concentrate here on indirect objects, given that clausal direct objects invariably have the structure of head-internal relative clauses (cf. section 4). Many verbs that in English would have clausal complements that are direct objects, such as ‘to see’, ‘to know’, ‘to like’ and ‘to want’, in Karitiana have indirect objects. That is, these verbs are syntactically intransitive, and if they have a clausal argument
as object, it is a non-obligatory indirect object, marked by the same oblique postposition found in indirect arguments of ditransitive verbs. In this section, the structure of such clausal indirect objects is discussed.

(39)  \[Y-py-pyting-yn \quad yn \ [him \ pisyp \ \text{Inácio} \ opi]\-ty\]

1-assert-want-nfut I game meat Inácio cut-obl
‘I want that Inácio cuts the meat’

(40)  \[Y-py-sondyp-yn \quad yn \ [\text{Inácio} \ 'ep \ opi]\-ty\]

1-assert-know-nfut I Inácio tree cut-obl
‘I know that Inácio cut the tree’

(41)  \[Yn \ Ø-na-aka-t \ i-sondyp-Ø \ [\text{Inácio} \ 'ep \ opi]\-ty\]

I 3-decl-cop-nfut part-know-abs.cop.agr Inácio tree cut-obl
‘I know that Inácio cut the tree’

(42)  \[Y-py-sondyp-yn \quad yn \ [\text{Inácio} \ 'ep \ opi]\ pasagng]-\<ã>-ty\]

1-assert-know-nfut I Inácio tree cut posterior-obl
‘I Know that Inácio will cut the tree’

(43)  \[Y-py-so’oot-yn \quad yn \ [\text{Inácio} \ 'ep \ opi]\-ty\]

1-assert-see-nfut I Inácio tree cut-obl
‘I saw that Inácio cut the tree’

(44)  \[Y-py-so’oot-yn \quad yn \ [\text{Inácio} \ 'ep \ opi]\ tyka]-ty\]

1-assert-see-nfut I Inácio tree cut impf.mot.-obl
‘I saw that Inácio was cutting the tree’

As seen in examples (42) and (44) above, in these types of embedded clauses, aspectual auxiliaries such as \textit{tyka} and \textit{pasagng}, meaning imperfective and posterior aspect, respectively, may occur, but there is no morphology of tense, aspect or agreement on the verb. The similarities between complement and adverbial embedded clauses are obvious: in both cases the verb is bare and aspectual auxiliaries may follow it, and the aspectual auxiliaries that occur in both
types of embedded clauses also occur in matrix clauses. The use of imperfective aspect in matrix clauses has been discussed in section 2. An example of the use of posterior aspect together with the imperfective in a matrix clause was also given in (32), repeated below as (45):

(45) Ø-Pyr-osedn pasagn tyka-dn Pedro
    3-assert-happy posterior impf.mot-nfut Pedro
    ‘Pedro is becoming happy’

The crucial difference between adverbial and complement embedded clauses, however, is that only the latter may be relative clauses. There are two kinds of evidence for that characterization of complement clauses. The first one is the fact that the translation of a relative clause may be the same as that of a completive embedded clause (Storto 1999):

(46) [Dikisy y-man ti-oky]-ty y-ta-so’oot yn
    spider 1-husband ofc-kill-obli 1-decl-see  I
    ‘I saw the spider that my husband killed’ or ‘I saw that my husband killed THE SPIDER’

Second, restrictions of constituent order in relatives and complement clauses may be the same: if an object is relativized, it must be on the left edge of the sentence, with a verb prefixed by the object focus prefix ti- thus yielding OSV word-order, as in (46); if a subject is relativized instead, SOV word-order is obligatory, as we will see in the next section. It must be emphasized that complement clauses, however, do not have to be relatives. We have seen in (39), for instance, a complement clause with OSV word-order in which the verb was not marked by the object focus construction prefix, in the same way that in adverbial clauses OSV sentences do not get focus morphology. We turn now to the structure of relative clauses in Karitiana.

4. The structure of relative clauses

Storto (1999) points out that the relativized noun phrase (subject, direct object, or indirect object) is always clause-initial in relative clauses. She argues that the relativized noun phrase is moved to clause-initial position in relatives in the same way that it is moved in wh-questions and focus sentences (answers of wh-questions, for instance). The evidence presented for that analysis, besides the constituent order, is the presence of a prefix ti- on the
verb (glossed OFC for object focus construction) in those syntactic environments when the object is clause-initial (OSV in embedded clauses or OVS in matrix clauses):

(47) $Yn \ (\emptyset-na-aka-t) \ i-so’oot-\emptyset \ [taso \ òwà \ mi]-ty$
I decl-cop-nfu part-see-abs.cop.agr. man child beat-obl
‘I saw the man who has beaten the child’

(48) $Yn \ (\emptyset-na-aka-t) \ i-so’oot-\emptyset \ [òwà \ taso \ ti-mi]-ty$
I decl-cop-nfut part-see-abs.cop.agr. child man ofc-beat-obl
‘I saw the child whom the man has beaten’

(49) Non-declarative OFC
‘ep \ i-ti-pasngañ-t \ jfonso
tree \ 3-ofc-count-nfut \ woman
‘The woman counted TREES’

(50) Object wh- question
$Morà-mon \ taso \ ti-i-oky-t?$
Qu-int.cop man ofc-part-kill-abs.cop.agr.
‘What is it that the man killed?’
Cleft answer to wh-question

\[ Pikom \quad (\emptyset-na-aka-t) \quad taso \quad ti-oky-t \]
monkey 3-decl-cop-nfut man ofc-part-kill- abs.cop.agr
‘It is monkeys that the man killed’

Declarative OFC: answer to wh-question

\[ Pikom \quad a-ta-oky-t \quad taso \]
monkey dofc-decl-kill-nfut man
‘Monkeys, the man killed’

Relatives in subject position:

\[ [\text{jfônso} \, ôwâ \, mi] \quad \emptyset-na-aka-t \quad i-hyryp-\emptyset \]
woman child beat 3-decl-cop-nfut part-cry-abs.cop.agr
‘The woman who has beaten the child cried’

\[ [ôwâ \quad \$fônso \, ti-mi] \quad \emptyset-na-aka-t \quad i-egngy-t \]
child woman ofc-beat 3-decl-cop-nfut part-vomit-abs.cop.agr
‘The child whom the woman has beaten vomited’

Relatives in oblique object position

\[ [\text{Dikisy} \, y-man \, ti-oky]-ty \, y-ta-so’oot \, yn \]
spider 1-husband ofc-kill-obl 1s-decl-see I
‘I saw the spider that my husband killed’ or ‘I saw that my husband killed THE SPIDER’

Relatives in direct object position

\[ Yn \quad \emptyset-naka-mi-t \quad [ôwâ \, ti’y \, y] \]
I 3-decl-beat-nfut child food eat
‘I have beaten the child who ate the food’

Note that when, inside the relative, there is an intransitive verb that has an oblique argument relativized, this argument, marked by the oblique postposition, is fronted in the same way as a direct object or subject are:
The same pattern obtains with ditransitive verbs, which have themes as indirect objects:

(58) Yn naka-hit Nelson [presente-ty y-amâ]-ty
    1s decl-give Nelson present-obl I-buy-obl
    ‘I gave Nelson the present that I bought’

There is no reason to analyze relatives in Karitiana as nominalizations, as researchers have done with other Tupi languages (Galúcio 2006 for Mekêns, Moore 1989, 2006 for Gavião), for many reasons. First, since there is no overt nominalizer in such clauses. Second, we know that movement has occurred inside the relative because when the object is relativized the object focus construction prefix ti- is obligatory. The obligatory movement of the relativized noun phrase – subject, object or indirect object - to the left periphery of the relative clause (Spec,AspP in our tree diagram) by itself yields the desired reading of a focus operator binding a variable. The object focus prefix ti- also occurs in object wh-questions that have the structure of cleft sentences (Storto 1999, 2008, 2010), and in object focus constructions (as in (49)) that are fully inflected matrix clauses. Because of examples like (49), it is not possible to say that the OFC constructions nominalize the relative clause, as Galúcio (2006) claims is true for Mekêns. The nominalizer of clausal complements of the copula verb headed by adjectives or intransitive verbs is the participle prefix i- in Karitiana (Storto 2008, 2010). Finally, other phrases that distribute as noun phrases, such as demonstrative phrases and universally quantified phrases have been shown to be relative clauses in the language (Muller, Storto & Coutinho-Silva 2006a, 2006b, Coutinho-Silva 2008) and there is no evidence indicating that they are nominalized. This is not to say that Galucio and Moore are incorrect in their analyses of Makens and Gavião. Karitiana clearly differs from these languages in this respect, as there is no nominalizing morphology in any embedded clause with the exception of copula complements.

5. Conclusion
Karitiana has at least three types of embedded clauses. In none of these types of clauses the verb is inflected for tense, mood or agreement. It appears in its bare form, sometimes followed by aspectual auxiliaries. We show that such auxiliaries also occur in matrix clauses, where they form a complex head with the verb and get inflected for tense. We argue that the absence of tense in embedded clauses by itself is not a good evidence for nominalization. There is no reason why a nominalized clause should have aspectual morphemes or plural suppletion (on verbs and auxiliaries, marking events as plural), and embedded clauses in Karitiana may have both. We hypothesize, instead, following Storto (1999) that embedded clauses are truncated versions of matrix clauses in the language. Whereas matrix clauses have functional heads such as aspect, tense, mood and agreement, in embedded clauses the only functional head available is aspect.

References


________ “Copular constructions in Karitiana: a case against case movement”. In *Proceedings of Semantics of Under-represented Languages in the Americas 5*. Amherst: The University of Massachusetts at Amherst. 2010.


