Subordination in Karitiana

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1. Introduction

Karitiana is an endangered Amerindian language spoken today by approximately 400 people who live in Área Indígena Karitiana, a reservation located 95 Km south of the urban area of Porto Velho, the capital of the state of Rondônia, Brazil. The language is the sole representative of the Arikém family, one of the ten genetic groupings identified inside the Tupi stock.1

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

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clauses and nominalizations (Moore 1994, 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 inflectional 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.\(^2\)

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:\(^3\)

\[
\text{(1) } [\text{São.Paulo pip } y-otam tykiri] \ θ-naka-pop-Ø \text{ Maria} \\
\text{São.Paulo in 1-arrive PERF 3-DECL-die-NFUT Maria} \\
\text{When I arrived in São Paulo, Maria died.}
\]

\[
\text{(2) } [\text{São.Paulo pip } y-otam kit] \ θ-naka-pop-Ø \text{ Maria} \\
\text{São.Paulo in 1-arrive before 3-DECL-die-NFUT Maria} \\
\text{Before I arrived in São Paulo, Maria died.}
\]

\[
\text{(3) } [\text{São.Paulo pip } y-otam byyk] \ θ-naka-pop-Ø \text{ Maria} \\
\text{São.Paulo in 1-arrive after 3-DECL-die-NFUT Maria} \\
\text{After I arrived in São Paulo, Maria died.}
\]

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\(^2\) 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.

\(^3\) Inside these phonological phrases, certain phonological processes may apply that do not apply inside words (Storto 1999, Storto & Demolin 2005).
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 byyk seems to be in (3). In some cases, subordinators are clearly formed by at least three morphemes:

\[(4)\]
\[
\begin{array}{ll}
Ty-ki-ri & \text{perfective} \\
Ty-ki-’oot & \text{imperfective progressive (neutral for number)} \\
Agi-’oot & \text{imperfective progressive (plural)} \\
\end{array}
\]

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 ʼoot is used:

\[(5)\]
\[
[Ti’y Marcelo ʼy tykiri] 0-na-pa’ira-t João \\
food Marcelo eat PERF 3-DECL-anger-NFUT João \\
\]
When Marcelo ate the food, João got angry.

\[(6)\]
\[
[Gok Maria amang tykiʼoot] 0-na-oky-t him taso \\
manioc Maria plant PERF 3-DECL-kill-NFUT game man \\
\]
While Maria was planting manioc, the man killed the game.

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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.
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):

(7) \[a-oty-p a-tat tyki-’oot] y-ta-so’oot-Ø yn an-ty
2S-bath-LOC 2S-go IMPF-PGR 1S-DECL-see-NFUT I 2S-OBL
While you (sg.) were going to bathe, I met you (sg.).

(8) \[Aj-oty-p aj-hot agi-’oot] y-ta-so’oot-Ø yn ajxa-ty
2P-bath-LOC 2P-go.PL IMPF.P-PGR 1S-DECL-see-NFUT I 2P-OBL
While you (pl.) were going to bathe, I met you (pl.).

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 IMPFV 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.
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 articles 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-b) 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 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” (Landin 1984: 6).

The examples given by Landin are given below:

\[(16)\] i Ø-na-oky tysyp-Ø saara
he 3-DECL-kill IMPF.SUP-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 tyja-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
he 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:

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5 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).
Progressive uses

(20) a-ohen (naakat) i-’ot tyka-t ŏę
2-penis-ring PART-fall IMPF.MOT-COP.AGR dear
Your penis-ring is falling, my dear (friend).

(21) pyr-yyrt tysyp-yn i ’a
ASSERT-arrive IMPF.SUP-NFUT 3 there
There they come.

(22) ḳyĩĩ 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<y>-’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 hy)
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 aspect is used to describe a state. Another example we have seen of a stative use of the imperfective is example (26):

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6 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 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.
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 Î 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-ļ̃a 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-NFUT house
    João is making a house.

(29) João Ø-naka-’y tyfa-t asyryty
    João 3-DECL-eat IMPF.STING-NFUT banana
    João is eating a banana.

(30) Ø-pyry-’y tyja-dn asyryty João
    3-ASSERT-eat IMPF.STING-NFUT banana João
    João is eating a banana.

(31) Ø-pyr-yyrt tysyp-yn i ’a
    3-ASSERT-arrive IMPERF.P-NFUT they there
    There they come.

The progressive use of the auxilary 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:

\[\text{[boroja taso oky tykiri]} \quad \text{Ø-naka-hyryp-Ø õwã}\]

snake man kill PERF 3-DECL-cry-NFUT child

When the man killed the sanke, the child cried (coloquial).

(34) SOV subordinate sentences

\[\text{[taso boroja oky tykiri]} \quad \text{Ø-naka-hyryp-Ø õwã}\]

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:

(35) \[\text{y-ta-ahy-t \; ym} \; \text{[y-pyt'y tykiri]}\]

1-DECL-drink-NFUTI I-eat PERF

When/if I eat, I drink.

(36) \[\text{Ø-na-ahy-t \; taso} \; \text{[ta-pyt'y tykiri]}\]

3-DECL-drink-NFUT man 3ANAPH-eat PERF

When/if the man eats, he drinks.

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:
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.
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-poting-yn  yn [him pisyp Inácio opĩ]-ty
    1-ASSERT-want-NFUT I game meat Inácio cut-OBL
    I want that Inácio cuts the meat.

(40)  y-py-sondyp-yn  yn [Inácio ‘ep opĩ]-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 [Inácio ‘ep opĩ]-ty
    1-DECL-COP-NFUT PART-know-ABS.COP.AGR Inácio tree cut-OBL
    ‘I know that Inácio cut the tree.

(42)  y-py-sondyp-yn  yn [Inácio ‘ep opĩ 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  yn [Inácio ‘ep opĩ]-ty
    1-ASSERT-see-NFUT I Inácio tree cut-OBL
    I saw that Inácio cut the tree.

(44)  y-py-so’oot-yn  yn [Inácio ‘ep opĩ 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 tyka and 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):
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 completement embedded clause (Storto 1999):

\begin{verbatim}
(46) [dikisy y-man ti-oky]-ty y-ta-so’oot yn
    spider 1-husband OFC-kill-OBL 1-DECL-see I
    I saw the spider that my husband killed or
    I saw that my husband killed THE SPIDER.
\end{verbatim}

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.

\section*{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):

\begin{verbatim}
(47) yn (Ø-na-aka-t) i-so’oot-Ø [taso õwã 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 (Ø-na-aka-t) i-so’oot-Ø [õwã 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.
\end{verbatim}
(49) Non-declarative OFC
‘ep i-ti-pasagngã-t jonso
tree 3-OFC-count-NFUT woman
The woman counted TREES.

(50) Object wh- question
morã-mon taso ti-i-oky-t
Qu-INT.COP man OFC-PART-kill-ABS.COP.AGR
What is it that the man killed?

(51) Cleft answer to wh-question
pikom (Ø-na-aka-t) taso ti-i-oky-t
monkey 3-DECL-COP-NFUT man OFC-PART-kill-ABS.COP.AGR
It is monkeys that the man killed.

(52) Declarative OFC: answer to wh-question
pikom a-ta-oky-t taso
monkey DOFC-DECL-kill-NFUT man
Monkeys, the man killed.

(53) Relatives in subject position:
[jonso õwã mi] Ø-na-aka-t i-hyryp-Ø
woman child beat 3-DECL-COP-NFUT PART-cry-ABS.COP.AGR
The woman who has beaten the child cried.

(54) [õwã jonso ti-mi] Ø-na-aka-t i-egngy-t
child woman OFC-beat 3-DECL-COP-NFUT PART-vomit-ABS.COP.AGR
The child whom the woman has beaten vomited.

(55) Relatives in oblique object position
[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.

(56) Relatives in direct object position
yn Ø-naka-mi-t [õwã 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:

(57) y-py-so’oot-<o>n yn [ti’y-ty õwã pytagng]-<a>ty
1-ASSERT-see-NFUT I food-OBL child rob-OBL
I saw the food that the child has robbed.

The same pattern obtains with ditransitive verbs, which have themes
as indirect objects:
There is no reason to analyze relatives in Karitiana as nominalizations, as researchers have done with other Tupi languages (Galúcio 2006 for Mekéns, 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 since 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 Mekéns. 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 Mekéns 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.
Abbreviations
ABS.COP.AGR=absolutive copular agreement, ADVZR=adjectivizer, ASSERT=assertative mood, CAUS=causative, COP=copula, DECL=declarative mood, DOFC=declarative object focus construction, IMP=imperative mood, IMPF=imperfective aspect, IMPF.MOT=imperfective aspect suppleted for motion; IMPF.STDNG=imperfective aspect suppleted for standing position; IMPF.STING=imperfective aspect suppleted for sitting position; IMPF.SUP=imperfective aspect suppleted 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, PGR=progressive aspect, 3=third person prefix (singular or plural), 3ANAPH=third person anaphoric prefix (singular or plural), 1S=first person singular prefix, 2S=second person singular prefix, 2P=second person plural prefix.

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