

# Verbs with archaic first person inflection in Cariban languages

Florian Matter  
University of Bern

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# **1 Introduction**

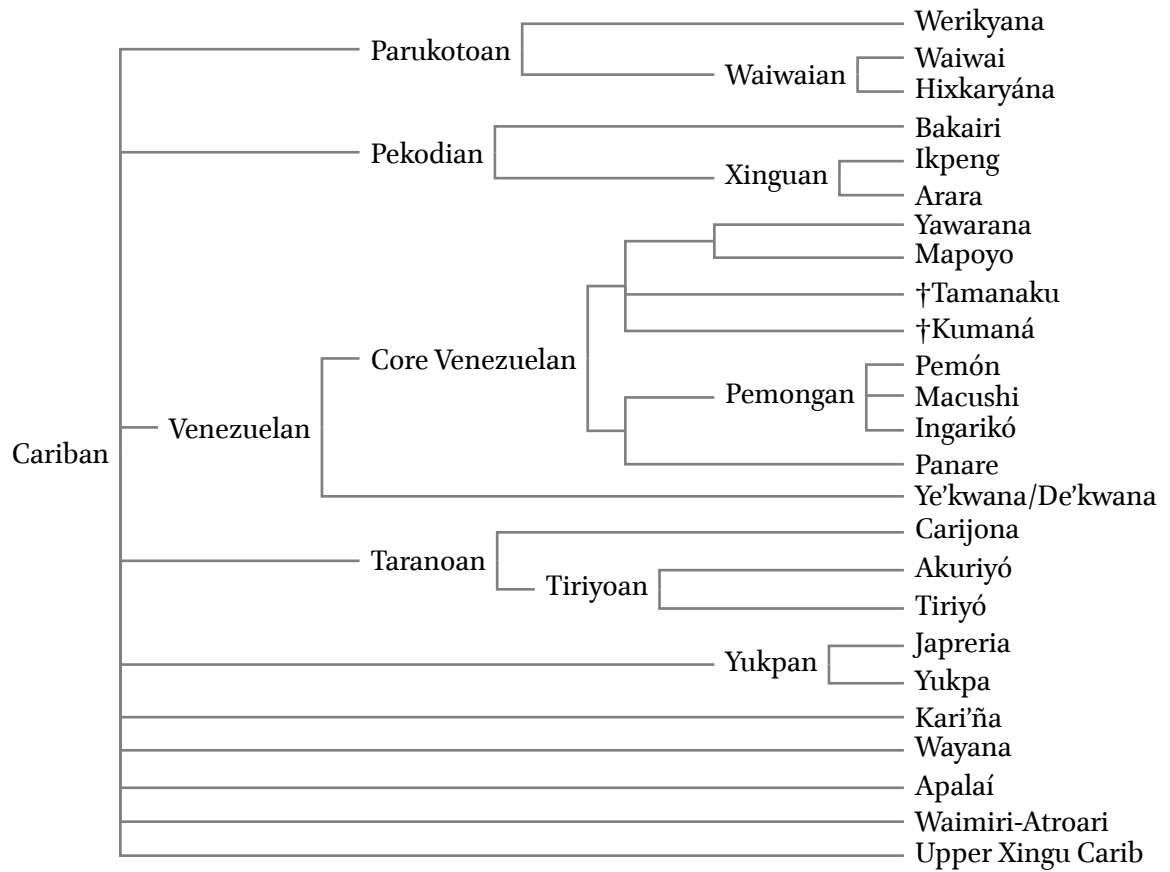


Figure 1: The Cariban language family

## 2 Cariban verbal person marking and marker extensions

The archaic person markers discussed in this paper are the result of incomplete person marker extensions, i.e., modifications to the ancestral prefix system. This section provides the necessary background for said ancestral system (Section 2.1), the split-S system which will be relevant later (Section 2.2), and the concept of person marker extensions (Section 2.3).

### 2.1 Verbal person marking in Proto-Cariban

Proto-Cariban is reconstructed by Gildea (1998) as using a person paradigm called Set I in its independent verb forms, shown in Table 1.<sup>1</sup> The choice of person marker in transitive verbs can be characterized as being conditioned by a basic person hierarchy  $1/2 > 3$ . The locuphoric markers, those referring to SAP participants, had two forms, an A-oriented one for direct (SAP>3) scenarios and a P-oriented one for inverse (3>SAP) scenarios. This was not the case for third person referents, which only had one marker, since third person only surfaced in nonlocal (3>3) scenarios, and third-person prefixes did not distinguish different different third persons. Local scenarios were expressed in a non-transparent manner, by using the 1+2 prefix *\*k-* in both cases.<sup>2</sup>

Formally identical or etymologically related markers occurred in intransitive verbs, which showed a split-S system (Table 1b). That is, S<sub>A</sub> verbs took similar markers as the A-oriented ones in transitive verbs, with the exception of first person (1>3 *\*t(i)-* vs 1S<sub>A</sub> *\*w-*), as well as the absence of *\*i* after all S<sub>A</sub> prefixes. On the other hand, S<sub>P</sub> verbs took markers fully identical

<sup>1</sup>I use standard IPA symbols in my transcription of Cariban languages, with the exception of coronal rhotics, which I simply represent with ⟨r⟩, rather than ⟨ɽ⟩ for Wayana or ⟨ɽ̥⟩ for Ye'kwana etc. In languages with strong morphophonological processes and/or subphonemic orthography I show the original transcription in an additional surface line when presented in an interlinearized glossed example. I follow Gildea (2018) in using ⟨ə⟩ for the proto-vowel reconstructed by Meira & Franchetto (2005), although it was likely more back (Gildea et al. 2010).

<sup>2</sup>The presence of a 1+2 person value implies that of a 1+3 value. This is expressed with a free pronoun combined with third person morphology in Cariban languages, so it is not represented in this table.

Table 1: Proto-Cariban Set I (main clause) person markers (Meira et al. 2010: 495; Gildea & Zúñiga 2016: 497)

(a) Transitive					(b) Intransitive		
A/P	1	2	1+2	3	S <sub>A</sub>	S <sub>P</sub>	
1		<i>*k-</i>		<i>*t(i)-</i>	1	<i>*w-</i>	<i>*u(j)-</i>
2	<i>*k-</i>			<i>*m(i)-</i>	2	<i>*m-</i>	<i>*ə(j)-</i>
1+2				<i>*kit(i)-</i>	1+2	<i>*kit-</i>	<i>*k-</i>
3	<i>*u(j)-</i>	<i>*ə(j)-</i>	<i>*k-</i>	<i>*n(i)-</i>	3	<i>*n-</i>	<i>*n(i)-</i>

to the P-oriented ones. The third person marker in  $S_P$  verbs was identical to the one in  $3>3$  scenarios ( $*n(i)-$ ), while the  $3S_A$  marker did not have an  $*i$ , like the other  $S_A$  prefixes.

As in many other split-S systems found in languages of the world, the intransitive verbal lexicon was divided into the two classes, with verbs inherently being  $S_A$  or  $S_P$  verbs. That is, while in transitive verbs, the choice of the person marker had a crucial semantic contribution, it is predictable in intransitive verbs. This is illustrated with modern Kari’ña data in (1–2).

(1) Kari’ña

- a. *mi-kupi-ja*  
2>3-bathe-PRS  
‘You bathe him/her.’ (Hoff 1968: 160)
- b. *a-kupi-ja*  
3>2-bathe-PRS  
‘S/he bathes you.’ (Yamada 2011: 63)

In (1), the choice between the second person A- and P-oriented markers *mi-* and *a-* depends on the scenario: The transitive verb *kupi* ‘to bathe’ takes *mi-* in  $2>3$  scenarios (1a), but *a-* in  $3>2$  scenarios (1b). While intransitive verbs show the same (or very similar) person markers, they contribute no semantic difference here (2).

(2) Kari’ña

- a. *sipi tink-a-ri m-ekema-non hen*  
net pull-NMLZ 2-be.afraid-PRS.UNCERT eh?  
‘You’re afraid to pull up the net, aren’t you?’ (Courtz 2008: 253)
- b. *aj-awoi-ja*  
2-get.up-PRS  
‘You are getting up.’ (Hoff 1968: 167)

Rather, *ekema* ‘to be afraid’ takes an A-oriented marker, since it is an  $S_A$  verb (2a), while the  $S_P$  verb *awomi* ‘to get up’ takes a P-oriented marker (2b).<sup>3</sup>

In fact, the split-S system is not only fully lexically conditioned, but there are clear semantic mismatches between class membership and semantics: ‘to be afraid’ with an “agentive” marker can hardly be considered a volitional act, in fact ‘you’re afraid of pulling up the net’ clearly has a second person patient (experiencer). Similarly, ‘to get up’ with a “patientive” marker is a clear semantic mismatch as well. These mismatches are not isolated cases, as will be discussed in Section 2.2.

<sup>3</sup>The root *awomi* ‘to get up’ is subject to syllable reduction and assimilation to the prefix-initial *j*.

Table 2: Participles of S<sub>A</sub> and S<sub>P</sub> verbs (Schuring n.d.: 39; Alves 2017: 118, 207; Meira 1999: 333, 334; Tavares 2005: 400; E. Koehn & S. Koehn 1986: 35, 1994: kuruaz-154; Hoff 1968: 430, 433; T. E. Payne & D. L. Payne 2013: 232, 244)

Language	S <sub>A</sub>	S <sub>P</sub>
Werikyana	<i>t-ehurka-fɛ</i> ‘fallen’	<i>ti-jaʔ-so</i> ‘burnt’
Arara	<i>t-o-ep-te</i> ‘come’	<i>t-oregrum-te</i> ‘sad’
Tiriyó	<i>ti-w-ɔturu-e</i> ‘talked’	<i>t-əpəə-se</i> ‘tired’
Wayana	<i>tə-w-epi-he</i> ‘bathed’	<i>t-onopi-he</i> ‘painted’
Apalaí	<i>t-o-ito-se</i> ‘gone’	<i>t-ihto-se</i> ‘gone down’
Kari’ña	<i>tu-w-oʔka-se</i> ‘come out’	<i>t-okari-se</i> ‘told’
Panare	<i>t-o-tatihpə-se</i> ‘wailed’	<i>ti-sirike-fɛ</i> ‘tired’

## 2.2 Defining features and origins of the split-S system

As seen in the previous section, the split-S defined two inflectional classes for intransitive verbs within the Set I system. However, there were some other morphological criteria distinguishing S<sub>A</sub> from S<sub>P</sub> verbs in Proto-Cariban: a) presence vs absence of the S<sub>A</sub> marker \**w*-; b) absence vs presence of the second person prefix \**ə(j)*- in imperatives; and c) presence vs absence of a derivational detransitivizing prefix.

Many languages show an S<sub>A</sub> class marker in deverbalized forms, which can be reconstructed to Proto-Cariban as \**w*-.<sup>4</sup> With S<sub>A</sub> verbs, \**w*- occurred immediately between the possessive prefixes and the verb stem, while S<sub>P</sub> verbs took the bare prefixes. Reflexes of \**w*- in languages from different branches are illustrated in Table 2 for participles, and in Table 3 for nominalizations.

The distinction between S<sub>A</sub> and S<sub>P</sub> is also borne out in imperatives, the suffix for which can be reconstructed as Proto-Cariban \*-*kə*. Here, S<sub>P</sub> verbs took the P-oriented second person prefix \**ə(j)*-, while S<sub>A</sub> verbs were unprefixed. This is illustrated with reflexes in various modern languages in Table 4. As in the case of the S<sub>A</sub> marker \**w*- participles and nominalizations, some languages have lost the distinction between S<sub>A</sub> and S<sub>P</sub> verbs in imperatives, for example Panare.

There is one further property uniting S<sub>A</sub> verbs, which is not based on inflectional morphology. As mentioned in Section 2.1, mismatches between the semantics of intransitive verbs and their A- or P-oriented inflectional morphology are common. However, the Cariban split-S system goes further than all other known such systems, in that its division of the verbal lexicon does not follow any discernible semantic criteria whatsoever. Meira (2000) takes a sizable corpus of intransitive verbs from Tiriyó, Kari’ña, Apalaí, and Wayana, and categorizes them by applying different criteria commonly encountered in split-S systems. He shows that

<sup>4</sup>See Meira (2000: 227), who identifies reflexes of this morpheme as having “no purpose other than being ‘class markers’, without any obvious semantic or functional load”.



Table 3: Nominalizations of S<sub>A</sub> and S<sub>P</sub> verbs (Schuring n.d.: 49, 74; Alves 2017: 97; Meira 1999: 246; Tavares 2005: 130, 409; E. Koehn & S. Koehn 1986: 90, 1994: 192-203; Hoff 1968: 135, 392; T. E. Payne & D. L. Payne 2013: 390; M.-C. Mattéi-Müller 1994: 23)

Language	S <sub>A</sub>	S <sub>P</sub>
Werikyana	<i>o-w-ehurka-tpiri</i> ‘your fall’	<i>o-onenmehi-tpiri</i> ‘your waking up’
Arara	<i>w-orik-tubo</i> ‘dancing place’	<i>erejmi-tpo</i> ‘killing instrument’
Tiriyó	<i>ji-w-aturu-to</i> ‘(for) my talking’	<i>j-emamina-to</i> ‘(for) my playing’
Wayana	<i>i-w-aturu-topo</i> ‘my story’	<i>j-iniki-topo</i> ‘my object for sleeping’
Apalaí	<i>j-epi-topo</i> ‘my bathing place’	<i>j-enuru-topō-piri</i> ‘the place of my birth’
Kari’ña	<i>a-w-ekupi-ri</i> ‘your taking a bath’	<i>aj-ere?na-Ø</i> ‘your fainting’
Panare	<i>j-u-fjireema-n</i> ‘their eating’	<i>tj-arunkampati-n</i> ‘his hair standing on end’

Table 4: Imperatives of S<sub>A</sub> and S<sub>P</sub> verbs (Derbyshire 1965: 44, 89; Alves 2017: 161; Meira 1999: 323; Tavares 2005: 227; E. Koehn & S. Koehn 1986: 62, 1994: Mopo/20; Hoff 1968: 190; M.-C. Mattéi-Müller 1994: 5, 17)

Language	S <sub>A</sub>	S <sub>P</sub>
Hixkaryana	<i>omoh-ko</i> ‘come!’	<i>oj-okajim-ko</i> ‘go up!’
Arara	<i>odotpot-ko</i> ‘come back!’	<i>o-alum-ko</i> ‘jump!’
Tiriyó	<i>epi-kə</i> ‘bathe!’	<i>ə-eremina-kə</i> ‘sing!’
Wayana	<i>əməm-kə</i> ‘enter!’	<i>əw-eremi-kə</i> ‘sing!’
Apalaí	<i>otu?ko</i> ‘eat!’	<i>o-ni?ko</i> ‘sleep!’
Kari’ña	<i>o?ma?ko</i> ‘stop!’	<i>aj-awon-ko</i> ‘get up!’
Panare	<i>ape-? flee!</i>	<i>ahpən-kə</i> ‘jump!’

neither (non)activities, (non-)agency, (in-)animacy, nor Aktionsart satisfactorily predict the class membership of intransitive verbs.

Rather, the reason for a verb to take the A- or P-oriented prefix is (at least diachronically) a morphological one. Meira (2000: 217–221) demonstrates that those intransitive verbs which (etymologically) have a detransitivizing prefix are treated as  $S_A$  verbs, while essentially all others are  $S_P$  verbs:

Almost all verbs in the  $S_A$  class are detransitized forms of transitive verbs, either synchronically (with still existing transitive sources) or diachronically (with reconstructible but no longer existing transitive sources) (Meira 2000: 201)

Meira (2000: 221–223) also argues that the detransitivizing prefixes are indeed deriving  $S_A$  verbs, rather than being inflectional in nature: a) there are a few underived  $S_A$  verbs, with no detransitivizing prefix; b)  $S_A$  verbs can develop irregular semantics compared to their transitive counterparts; c) it is unpredictable whether the A or P argument of the underlying transitive verb becomes the S of the derived  $S_A$  verb; d) some originally derived  $S_A$  verbs have lost their transitive counterparts; and e) “basic” concepts are expressed as derivations of more complex concepts, like ‘to dance ( $S_A$ )’ from ‘to dance with (TR)’. He also notes that this leads to an inflectional split not based in meaning, but rather morphology:

Apparently, the morphological behavior of the  $S_A$  verb class is an accidental consequence of the fact that detransitivization, as far back as we can reconstruct, entails all the morphology described [...] as typical of  $S_A$  verbs. The alignment of person-marking prefixes appears not to be driven by any semantic forces in the language; it is as though they were being dragged by the evolution of the reflexive marker. (Meira 2000: 226)

As for the form of this reflexive marker, Meira et al. (2010: 505–512) reconstruct two distinct prefixes for Proto-Cariban: reciprocal *\*ate-* and reflexive *\*e-*, although they have since merged into a single morpheme in modern Cariban languages. Modern reflexes of *\*ate/e-* show a range of meanings, which can all be characterized as “detransitive”; this range is illustrated with Tiriyo examples in (3).

Table 5: Underived Proto-Cariban S<sub>A</sub> verbs (Gildea & D. Payne 2007: 30)

Form	Meaning
* <i>tə</i> [ <i>mə</i> ]	‘to go’
* <i>ətepi</i>	‘to come <sub>1</sub> ’
* <i>ka</i> [ <i>ti</i> ]	‘to say’
* <i>əmə</i> [ <i>mi</i> ]	‘to enter’
* <i>eti</i>	‘to dwell, be <sub>2</sub> ’
* <i>a</i> [ <i>p</i> ]	‘to be <sub>1</sub> , say’
* <i>əməki</i>	‘to come <sub>2</sub> ’

(3) Tiriyo (Meira 2000: 218–219, 1999: 128, 256)

<i>nonta</i> ‘abandon’	→	<i>e-nonta</i> , <i>əi-nonta</i>	‘abandon each other’ (reciprocal)
<i>suka</i> ‘wash’	→	<i>e-suka</i> , <i>əi-suka</i>	‘wash self’ (reflexive)
<i>pahka</i> ‘break (TR)’	→	<i>e-pahka</i>	‘break (INTR)’ (anticausative)
<i>puunəpi</i> ‘think about’	→	<i>əh-puunəpi</i> , <i>əi-puunəpi</i>	‘think, meditate’ (antipassive)

The morphological variation featured in ‘to abandon each other’ and ‘to wash self’ is due to the mentioned collapse between the two Proto-Cariban prefixes: *e-* is a reflex of the reflexive prefix \**e-*, while the form *əi-* originates in reciprocal \**əte-*. However, both can occur with either meaning – at least for these two verbs.

As mentioned, there are a few S<sub>A</sub> verbs that are not derived from transitives, and do not have a reflex of \**əte/e-*, either. Meira (2000: 221) characterizes these as very old and exceptional, and counts between 5 and 7 verbs, depending on the language. Gildea & D. Payne (2007) identify 7 such underived S<sub>A</sub> verbs as reconstructible to Proto-Cariban, shown in Table 5. These verbs will be discussed in more detail in Section 4.

### 2.3 Person marker extensions in intransitive verbs

The original Proto-Cariban split-S system has been subject to change in many languages, in some even to the point of total loss. Besides such modifications as for example losing the S<sub>A</sub> class marker \**w-* (Section 2.2) or losing certain person values altogether, these changes have

largely been due to person prefixes being extended to new verbs.<sup>5</sup> There have been many such person marker extensions in Cariban languages, and some are still ongoing. This is shown by Gildea (1998), using the Parukotoan languages as an example. We have reproduced his tables as a tree diagram in Figure 2, with adapted transcription – and in the case of Werikyana, the addition of  $\emptyset/j$ - as an alternative 1S<sub>P</sub> marker (Spike Gildea, p.c.). Apart from segmental changes to individual morphemes, the following restructuring innovations happened in the Set I paradigm in Parukotoan:

### 1. Proto-Parukotoan

- (a) 1S<sub>A</sub> \**w*- to 1>3
- (b) 1+2 \**k*- to 1S<sub>P</sub> (completed in Proto-Waiwaian, ongoing in Werikyana)
- (c) 1+2 \**kit*- to 1+2S<sub>P</sub> (completed in Proto-Waiwaian, ongoing in Werikyana)

### 2. Proto-Waiwaian

- (a) 1S<sub>P</sub> \**k*- to 1S<sub>A</sub>
- (b) innovative \**owiroj*- ‘1PRO LK’ for 1P

### 3. Waiwai

- (a) 2S<sub>A</sub> *m*- to 2S<sub>P</sub>

Hixkaryana has preserved split-S only in the second person prefixes, while Werikyana still shows variation in the first person and 1+2 prefixes. Waiwai, on the other hand, has lost the system entirely, which notably happened via distinct innovations at three different diachronic stages. In this case, the loss of the inflectional classes also entailed the loss of the other morphological traces of the system. That is, the S<sub>A</sub> class marker \**w*- (Section 2.2) was lost in Waiwai, as evidenced by the contrast between the Waiwai and Werikyana deverbal forms in (4a) and (4b). Similarly, the 2S<sub>P</sub> prefix *a*- was extended to imperatives of (former) S<sub>A</sub> verbs (4c–d), but only C-initial ones (R. E. Hawkins 1998: 62).

<sup>5</sup>One could also imagine a scenario whereby verbs of one of the classes are gradually replaced with innovative verbs from the other class, as suggested for Panare by Meira (2000: 225). However, the verbs Meira sampled came from the A-section of M.-C. Mattéi-Müller’s (1994) dictionary (Spike Gildea, p.c.), and *at-/aff-/as-* is a frequent reflex of \**ate/e*- in Panare, meaning that many S<sub>A</sub> verbs are *a*-initial, thus explaining the 80:40 S<sub>A</sub>:S<sub>P</sub> ratio in Meira’s sample. Thus, the hypothesis that Panare has largely replaced S<sub>P</sub> with S<sub>A</sub> verbs remains to be thoroughly tested. For the moment, the most likely scenario leading to the eventual loss of the split-S system features markers being extended to new verbs.

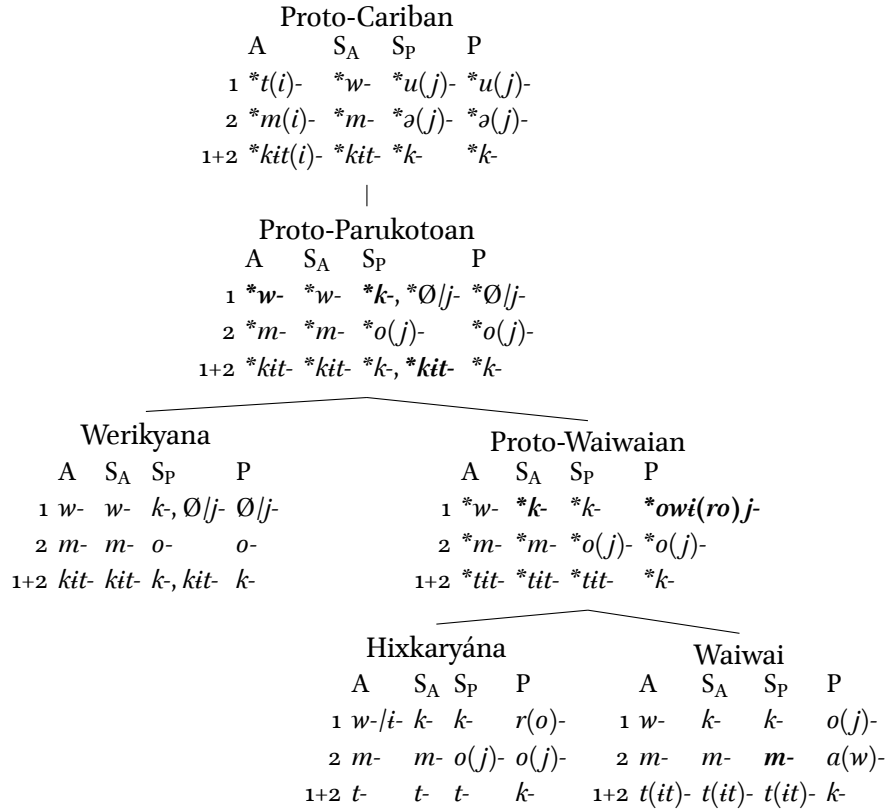


Figure 2: Person marking extensions in Parukotoan, after Gildea (1998: 94)

- (4) a. Waiwai (R. E. Hawkins 1998: 98)  
*k-eφirka-tʃhe*  
 1+2-fall-ADVZ.after  
 ‘after our fall’
- b. Werikyana (Schuring n.d.: 49)  
*ku-w-ehurka-tpiri*  
 1+2-S<sub>A</sub>-fall-NMLZ.PST.PERT  
 ‘our fall’
- c. Waiwai (R. E. Hawkins 1998: 177)  
*a-mo-ko*  
 2-come-IMP  
 ‘come!’
- d. Hixkaryána (Derbyshire 1985: 191)

*m-omoki-no*  
 2S<sub>A</sub>-come-IMM  
 ‘You have come.’

While different cases of loss of split-S are discussed by Gildea (1998: 91–96), this paper focuses on a so far neglected aspect of these person marking extensions. We argue that they are executed via lexical diffusion, characterized as a type of extension by Harris & Campbell (1995: 106–115); this hypothesis is supported by three facts.

First of all, the variation in first person and 1+2 prefixes described above for Werikyana is not completely free. Rather, some verbs only allow for example first person *k-*, but not *j-*, while others can occur with both, which is the expected pattern in a lexical diffusion scenario. In addition, this is speaker-dependent (Spike Gildea, p.c.), which is what one would expect from a change in progress. Second, while there is no detailed diachronic scenario for the switch of 1>3 *\*t-* and 1S<sub>A</sub> in the Tiriyoan languages (Section 3.3), Meira (1998: 111–112) argues that it must have happened gradually rather than instantaneously, and entailed both markers spreading at the same time. Whether this gradual switch was along ordered lines or not, lexical diffusion must have played a role. Finally, the process of lexical diffusion is seen most clearly where it was incomplete. Not all person marker extensions spread through the entire lexicon, but rather stopped short of some verbs. This is illustrated for Tiriyo first person forms of S<sub>A</sub> verbs in (5); regular S<sub>A</sub> verbs take phonologically determined allomorphs *s-* ( / *\_e* ) and *t-* ( / *\_ə* ), but *tən* ‘to go’ takes an “irregular” or “archaic” prefix *wi-*; it was not affected by the spread of innovative *t-/s-* and therefore preserves the old prefix.

- (5) Tiriyo 1S<sub>A</sub> verbs (Meira 1999: 292, 294)
- |                 |            |
|-----------------|------------|
| <i>s-epi</i>    | ‘I bathed’ |
| <i>s-entapo</i> | ‘I yawned’ |
| <i>t-əturu</i>  | ‘I talked’ |
| <i>t-əəniki</i> | ‘I slept’  |
| <i>wi-tən</i>   | ‘I went’   |

This paper is primarily about these incomplete extensions, and the verbs that were not affected by them.

That is, apparently ongoing changes like the situation discussed above for Werikyana will not be investigated in detail. The same is true for extensions that affected the entire verbal lexicon, although we will briefly comment on them. We have investigated the 19 person marker extensions we are aware of, but only 6 of them left a group of irregularly or archaically inflected verbs. Interestingly, these verbs are always S<sub>A</sub> verbs, and the irregular marker is always a first person one. While there have been extensions for other person values as well, they never affect S<sub>A</sub> verbs, only S<sub>P</sub> ones, and they always affect the entire lexicon, at least based on the attested data. Besides the completed extension of *\*k-* to 1S<sub>P</sub> and of *\*tit-* to 1+2S<sub>P</sub> in Proto-Waiwaian (Figure 2), examples include the extension of 1+2S<sub>A</sub> *s(i)-* (< *\*kit-*) in Apalaí

Table 6: Some examples for completed extensions (Gildea 1998: 90–92)

(a) Apalaí			(b) Panare			(c) Waimiri-Atroari		
$S_A$		$S_P$	$S_A$		$S_P$	$S$		
1	$\emptyset/i-$	$i-/j-$	1	$w(i)-$	$\emptyset/j-$	1	$w(i)-/i-$	
2	$m(i)-$	$o-$	2	$m(i)-$		2	$m(i)-$	
1+2	$s(i)-$		1+2	$n(i)-$		1+2	$h(i)-$	
3	$n(i)-$		3	$n(i)-$		3	$n-/ \emptyset$	

(Table 6a), of  $2S_A m(i)-$  in Panare (Table 6b),<sup>6</sup> or the extension of the entire  $S_A$  set in Waimiri-Atroari (Table 6c).

The remainder of this paper is structured as follows: In Section 3, we discuss each of these six incomplete extensions individually, listing all attested unaffected verbs, and reconstructing proto-paradigms where necessary. In Section 4, we take a comparative look at the verbs that were not affected by these extensions and searches for possible motivations. Finally, we discuss the findings and put them in a general context of language change and morphology in Section 5.

### 3 The innovative $1S_A$ markers

As stated in Section 2.3, the person marker extensions which did not spread through the entire lexicon all have in common that they feature innovative first person markers on verbs that are (at least historically) members of the  $S_A$  class. There are six attested such innovations, three of which can be reconstructed to intermediate proto-languages. The new  $1S_A$  prefix is formally identical to the  $1+2$  marker (Proto-Cariban  $*k-$ ) in three cases, to the  $1S_P$  marker (Proto-Cariban  $*u(j)-$ ) in two cases, and to the  $1>3$  marker (Proto-Cariban  $*t-$ ) in one case. Section 3.1 investigates the innovation of  $*k-$  in Proto-Pekodian, reflected in the three daughter languages Arara, Ikpeng, and Bakairi. Section 3.2 takes a closer look at the extension of  $*k-$  in Proto-Waiwaian, which was briefly shown in Section 2.3. Section 3.3 concerns the extension of  $*t-$  in Proto-Tiriyoan (or Proto-Taranoan), reflected in modern Tiriyo and Akuriyo. Sections 3.4 to 3.6 look at innovative first person markers which are only attested in single modern languages:  $k-$  in Akuriyo, and  $j-$  in Carijona and Yukpa.

#### 3.1 Proto-Pekodian $*k-$

The Pekodian branch was suggested by Meira & Franchetto (2005), as the result of fieldwork on Bakairi by Meira and the availability of more material on Ikpeng. It consists of closely

<sup>6</sup>The presence of the third person marker  $n-$  for  $1+2$  is due to the wholesale loss of that inflectional value.

Table 7: Regular Pekodian S<sub>A</sub> verbs (Meira 2003a: 4; Alves 2017: 150; Pachêco 2001: 52)

	Bakairi ‘to go up’	Arara ‘to dance’	Ikpeng ‘to run’
1	<i>k-əku-</i>	<i>k-origu-</i>	<i>k-aranme-</i>
2	<i>m-əku-</i>	<i>m-origu-</i>	<i>m-aranme-</i>
1+2	<i>kid-əku-</i>	<i>kud-origu-</i>	<i>kw-aranme-</i>
3	<i>n-əku-</i>	<i>Ø-origu</i>	<i>Ø-aranme-</i>

related Arara and Ikpeng, with Bakairi as a more distant member. Meira & Franchetto (2005) focused on phonological and lexical properties, so no reconstructive work on Proto-Pekodian morphosyntax can be found in the literature. All three Pekodian languages have a regular 1S<sub>A</sub> marker *k-*, as evidenced by the paradigms in Table 7.<sup>7</sup> We can thus reconstruct a Proto-Pekodian 1S<sub>A</sub> marker *\*k-*.

For Arara, Alves (2017) describes six<sup>8</sup> S<sub>A</sub> verbs which have a first person marker *w(i)-* rather than *k-*, listed in (6). From a comparative view this list is not quite complete, as there is also a reflex of the copula *\*a[p]*, serving syntactically as a postposition introducing adverbial clauses meaning ‘if’ or ‘when’ (Alves 2017: 199–201). However, its inflectional morphology features verbal Set I prefixes, including first person *w-* (7).

(6) Arara (Alves 2017: 153)

*wi-*geni** ‘I said’  
*w-i<sup>ff</sup>ini* ‘I was, lied down’  
*w-ebini* ‘I came’  
*w-ibini* ‘I bathed’  
*w-iptoyri* ‘I went down’  
*w-idoli* ‘I went’

(7) Arara (Alves 2017: 200)

1 *w-aptam* ‘when/if I was’  
2 *m-od-aptam*  
1+2 *kud-aptam*  
3 *Ø-aptam*

In his brief discussion of Bakairi verbal person marking, Meira (2003a) reports the existence of two subclasses of S<sub>A</sub> verbs, one taking first person *w-*, and one *k-*. The verb used to illustrate the first group is *i* ‘to bathe’ (8), contrasting with regular *əku* ‘to go up’ in Table 7 above.

(8) Bakairi (Meira 2003a: 4)

*w-i-də*  
1S<sub>A</sub>-bathe-IMM  
‘I bathed’

<sup>7</sup>In Table 7 and the remainder of this paper, we omit any possible TAM suffixes, since our focus lies on the prefixes and stems, and since full paradigms containing the same TAM suffix are rarely found.

<sup>8</sup>Seven under her analysis, which sees the two meanings of *if<sup>ff</sup>i* ‘to be, to lie down’ as different verbs.



Of course, ‘to bathe’ is also found in the *w*-list for Arara. While Meira (2003a: 4) does list *ge* ‘to say’, *tə* ‘to go’, and *æ(wi)* ‘to come’ as examples of *S<sub>A</sub>* verbs, he does not indicate whether they belong to the class of *S<sub>A</sub>-1* verbs, with first person *k-*, or the *S<sub>A</sub>-2* verbs, with *w-*.<sup>9</sup> Luckily, while von den Steinen (1892) did not accurately record all phonemic distinctions in Bakairi (Meira 2005), he does provide inflected forms of cognates to the Arara verbs in (6). We present them in (9) according to our current understanding of Bakairi phonology and verbal morphology, based on Wheatley (1969), Meira (2003a, 2005), and Franchetto & Meira (2016).

(9) Bakairi (von den Steinen 1892: 131, 397, 76, 137, 374, 130)

- |  |   |
|--|---|
| <p>a. ⟨u-yépa⟩<br/> <i>u-ge-pa</i><br/> <i>1S<sub>A</sub>-say-NEG</i><br/> ‘I don’t say.’</p>        | <p>d. ⟨kχ-itaké-he⟩<br/> <i>k-itagi-se</i><br/> <i>1S<sub>A</sub>-go.down-NPST?</i><br/> ‘I go down.’</p>           |
| <p>b. ⟨wi-táki⟩ / ⟨wi-tági⟩<br/> <i>w-i-taki</i><br/> <i>1S<sub>A</sub>-be-INT</i><br/> ‘I was.’</p> | <p>e. ⟨úta⟩ / ⟨uúta⟩<br/> <i>u-tə</i><br/> <i>1S<sub>A</sub>-go</i><br/> ‘I go.’</p>                                |
| <p>c. ⟨kχaewí-le⟩<br/> <i>k-æwi-li</i><br/> <i>1S<sub>A</sub>-come-IMM</i><br/> ‘I came.’</p>        | <p>f. ⟨töre-w-akine⟩<br/> <i>təra w-a-kine</i><br/> there <i>1S<sub>A</sub>-be-PST.CONT</i><br/> ‘I was there.’</p> |

All available descriptions of the third Pekodian language, Ikpeng, list *k-* as the only *1S<sub>A</sub>* marker (Pachêco 1997: 55; Campetela 1997: 105; Pachêco 2001: 64; Alves Chagas 2013: 205). However, most Ikpeng cognates of the Arara verbs with *1S<sub>A</sub> w-* actually do not take *k-*, but rather *i-* or Ø, as shown in (10). The exception is ‘to go’, which has *k-* (11). There is a formally identical Ikpeng cognate of Arara *iptoj* ‘to go down’, but no first person forms are attested (Angela Chagas, p.c.). Further, while there are reflexes of *\*a[p]* ‘to be’ in Ikpeng, only *\*eti* reflexes seem to occur with first person inflectional prefixes (Gildea 2018: 401).

(10) Ikpeng

- a. *i-ge-li*  
*1-say-REC*  
‘I said.’ (Pachêco 2001: 209)

<sup>9</sup>It should be noted at this point that Meira (2003a) indicates that the same verbs which take first person *w-* in Bakairi also take a *1+2* marker *k-*. However, this marker is only illustrated for ‘to bathe’, both by Meira (2003a) and von den Steinen (1892). Given the lack of data for other verbs, we will not further discuss this potential additional pattern. If the characterization by Meira is accurate, then the pattern is fully parallel to the distribution of the first person prefixes.

Table 8: Verbs preserving 1S<sub>A</sub> \**w*- in Proto-Pekodian (Alves 2017: 153, 200; Pachêco 2001: 42, 80, 139, 209; von den Steinen 1892: 76, 130, 131, 137, 374, 397; Pachêco 1997: 68; Meira 2003a: 4; p.c., Angela Fabíola Alves Chagas)

	Proto-Pekodian	Arara	Ikpeng	Bakairi
‘say’	* <i>wi-ge-</i>	<i>wi-ge-</i>	<i>i-ge-</i>	<i>u-ge-</i>
‘bathe’	* <i>w-ipi-</i>	<i>w-ibi-</i>	Ø- <i>ip-</i>	<i>w-i-</i>
‘be-1’	* <i>w-ap-</i>	<i>w-ap-</i>	–	<i>w-a-</i>
‘be-2’	* <i>w-effi-</i>	<i>w-iffi-</i>	Ø- <i>effi-</i>	<i>w-i-</i>
‘come’	* <i>w-epi-</i>	<i>w-ebi-</i>	<i>k-arep-</i>	<i>k-æwi-</i>
‘go down’	* <i>w-iptə-</i>	<i>w-ipton-</i>	?- <i>ipton-</i>	<i>k-itəgi-</i>
‘go’	* <i>w-itən-</i>	<i>w-ido-</i>	<i>k-aran-</i>	<i>u-tə-</i>

b. Ø-*effi-li*

1-be-REC

‘I was.’ (Pachêco 2001: 139)

c. *affagotpop* Ø-*ip-ffi*      *ik-gwa-kffi*

always      1-bathe-NPST      river-LOC.aquatic-ALL

‘I always bathe in this river.’ (Pachêco 1997: 68)

(11) Ikpeng (Pachêco 2001: 80)

*k-aran-ffi*

1-go-NPST

‘I’m going.’

Table 8 gives an overview of the first person forms of the seven verbs under discussion, along with our Proto-Pekodian reconstruction. The presence and distribution of the Ikpeng 1S<sub>A</sub> marker *i*-/Ø suggests that it is cognate with Arara 1S<sub>A</sub> *w(i)*-. Indeed, Proto-Xinguan \**w* is attested as sometimes being lost in Ikpeng, as evidenced by the correspondences in Table 9. While it is by no means a regular sound change, it allows us to securely connect the two prefixes. Similarly, the supposed change of \**wi* to Bakairi *u* is found in other correspondences, like *udo* (Meira & Franchetto 2005) from Proto-Cariban \**witoto* ‘person’ (Gildea & D. Payne 2007: 4). Thus, we reconstruct a 1S<sub>A</sub> prefix \**w(i)*- to Proto-Pekodian, identical to the Arara one in form and distribution.

As for the forms of the verb stems, a few comments are necessary: For ‘to be’, Ikpeng *e* is very likely the original vowel, given the Proto-Cariban form \**eti* (Section 4.1).

For ‘to go down’, we reconstruct \**i* as the initial vowel rather than \**i*, see Section 4.5. Further, the forms are not fully cognate; Meira & Franchetto (2005) make no mention of a regular correspondence between Bakairi *gi* and Ikpeng *ŋ*. However, the addition of a final

Table 9: Loss of *\*w* in Ikpeng (de Souza 1993: 44, 70; Alves Chagas 2013: 118; Alves 2017: 143; Pachêco 2001: 21, 164; de Souza 2010: 9; Campetela 1997: 40)

Meaning	Arara	Ikpeng
‘to defecate’	<i>watke</i>	<i>atke</i>
‘DAT’	<i>wina</i>	<i>ina</i>
‘dog’	<i>wokori</i>	<i>akari</i>
‘capuchin monkey’	<i>tawe</i>	<i>tae</i>
‘to sleep’	<i>winki</i>	<i>inki</i>

*ŋ* in Proto-Xinguan is attested elsewhere,<sup>10</sup> and based on the fact Bakairi has generally lost much segmental material, we suggest that both *ŋ* and *gi* are later additions to a root *\*iptə*.

The forms for ‘to come’ are not fully cognate, either: Ikpeng and Bakairi both show a reflex of the Proto-Pekodian detransitivizer *\*əd-* in combination with a root reconstructible as *\*epi*. In contrast, the Arara first person form is directly based on this root *\*epi*. However, reflexes of *\*əd-epi* can be found elsewhere in the Arara paradigm (12).

(12) Arara (Alves 2017: 150)

*m-odebi-ni*

2S<sub>A</sub>-come-REC

‘You came.’

On the other hand, both Ikpeng and Bakairi show reflexes of *\*əd-ebi* throughout the whole paradigm. Following the line of reasoning used by Meira (1998: 114) (see also Section 3.3) for a similar pattern in the three Taranoan languages, we suggest that the idiosyncratic pattern in Arara is reconstructible to Proto-Pekodian, and that Bakairi and Ikpeng independently regularized the paradigm to only use *\*əd-epi*.

The V-initial nature of ‘to go’ is evidenced in its Xinguan forms, while Bakairi *\*wi* → *u* muddled the morpheme boundary; other forms are V-initial (Section 4.3). The Ikpeng form *aran* is compatible with our reconstruction *\*itən*, when one considers that Ikpeng *a* is an attested outcome of *\*ə*.<sup>11</sup> This attested change of *\*ə* to *a* need only be preceded by an assimilatory lowering of initial *\*i* to *\*ə*, to yield the form *aran* from *\*itən*. Other Ikpeng reflexes of ‘to go’ offer evidence for the suggested intermediate stage *\*ətən*: *ero-li* ‘s/he went’ (Pachêco 2001: 25).

Summing up, an innovative 1S<sub>A</sub> marker *\*k-* is reconstructible to Proto-Pekodian. Seven

<sup>10</sup> a) Proto-Cariban *\*əne* ‘to see’, Arara and Ikpeng *eney*; b) Proto-Cariban *\*əta* ‘to hear’, Arara *tay*, Ikpeng *iray*; and c) Proto-Cariban *\*ənə* ‘to eat meat’, Arara *oŋoŋ* ‘to bite’ (Gildea & D. Payne 2007: 8; Alves 2017: 56, 144, 57; Pachêco 2001: 25, 270).

<sup>11</sup> a) *akari* ‘dog’ in Table 9 above; b) *anma* ‘path’ (Pachêco 2001: 24) from Proto-Cariban *\*ətema* (Gildea & D. Payne 2007: 12); and c) *jaj* ‘tree’ (Pachêco 2001: 98) from Proto-Cariban *\*jaje*.

verbs can be reconstructed as having resisted this innovation, and preserving  $1S_A$   $*w(i)$ - in Proto-Pekodian. In later, individual developments, Bakairi extended  $k$ - to ‘to go down’, and Ikpeng to ‘to go’. Further, both languages regularized the paradigm of ‘to come’ to  $*ad-epi$ , accompanied by the extension of  $k$ -.

### 3.2 Proto-Waiwaian $*k$ -

This extension was briefly discussed in Section 2.3; the new  $1S_P$  prefix  $*k$ -, already innovated at the Proto-Parukotoan stage, was later extended to  $1S_A$  in Proto-Waiwaian. This created a unified  $1S$  category, reflected in both Hixkaryána and Waiwai (Table 10). Not all verbs were affected by this extension; Waiwai *ka* ‘to say’ does not take  $k$ -, but rather conservative  $wi$ - (13a). Its Hixkaryána counterpart has a prefix  $i$ - (13b), a potential reflex of  $1S_A$   $*w(i)$ -. A formally identical prefix occurs in  $1>3$  scenarios in Hixkaryána (13c), which regularly corresponds to Waiwai  $w(i)$ - (13d).

- (13) a. Waiwai (R. E. Hawkins 1998: 71)  
*wiikekpe*  
*wi-ka-jakpe*  
 1-say-PST  
 ‘I said.’
- b. Hixkaryána (Derbyshire 1985: 124)  
*roxehra nay hami Kaywerye ikekoni*  
*ro-fe-hira n-a-je hami kajwerje i-ka-jakoni*  
 1-DES-NEG 3-be-NPST.UNCERT EVID K.  $1S_A$ -say-REM.CONT  
 ‘I said (to myself), “Kaywerye evidently doesn’t like me”’
- c. Hixkaryána (Derbyshire 1985: 191)

Table 10: Regular ‘to fall’ ( $S_A$ ) and ‘to sleep’ ( $S_P$ ) in Proto-Waiwaian (R. E. Hawkins 1998: 30; Howard 2001: 150; Derbyshire 1985: 189, 190, 196; W. N. Hawkins & R. E. Hawkins 1953: 209, 211)

	Proto-Waiwaian		Hixkaryána		Waiwai	
	‘to fall’	‘to sleep’	‘to fall’	‘to sleep’	‘to fall’	‘to sleep’
1	$*k-e\phi urka-$	$*ki-winiki-$	$k-e\phi urka-$	$ki-niki-$	$k-e\phi irka-$	$ki-winiki-$
2	$*m-e\phi urka-$	$*o-winiki-$	$m-e\phi urka-$	$o-wniki-$	$m-e\phi irka-$	$mi-winiki-$
1+2	$*t-e\phi urka-$	$*tit-winiki-$	$t-e\phi urka-$	$ti-niki-$	$t\acute{f}-e\phi irka-$	$tit-winiki-$
3	$*n-e\phi urka-$	$*ni-winiki-$	$n-e\phi urka-$	$ni-niki-$	$n-e\phi irka-$	$ni-winiki-$

Table 11: Verbs preserving 1S<sub>A</sub> \*w- in Proto-Waiwaian (Derbyshire 1979: 4; R. E. Hawkins 1998: 71, 85; Derbyshire 1985: 70, 197, 198; p.c., Spike Gildea)

	Proto-Waiwaian	Hixkaryána	Waiwai
‘say’	*wi-ka-	i-ka-	wi-ka-
‘be-1’	*w-ah-	w-ah-	w-a-
‘be-2’	*w-efi-	w-efe-	w-eefi-
‘go’	*wi-tom-	i-to-	kiw-tom-

*i-koroka-no*

1>3-wash-IMM

‘I washed him.’

- d. Waiwai (R. E. Hawkins 1998: 192)

*wîyesî*

*wi-jo-jasi*

1>3-boil-NPST

‘I will boil it.’

This correspondence allows us to establish Hixkaryána *i-* a reflex of \*w(*i*)-, similar to Ikpeng (Section 3.1). Notably, Derbyshire (1985) does not see this *i-* as an irregular 1S<sub>A</sub>, but as the regular 1>3 marker, because he considers Hixkaryána *ka* ‘to say’ to be transitive, an issue which will be discussed in Section 4.2.

There are three more verbs which did not take innovative \*k- in Proto-Waiwaian, shown alongside \*ka ‘to say’ in Table 11. The two roots for ‘to be’ are straightforwardly reconstructible, whereas ‘to go’ is somewhat of a special case. While Hixkaryána has the expected *i-*, Waiwai seems to have combined innovative *k-* with the old \*w-, an analysis also considered by Gildea (1998: 90). Alternatively, this form was influenced by deverbalized forms of ‘to go’, where a reflex of the S<sub>A</sub> class marker \*w- has become fossilized (14).

- (14) Waiwai reflexes of the S<sub>A</sub> class marker \*w-

- a. *o-wto-topo-nho* ‘my trip’ (R. E. Hawkins 1998: 92)
- b. *o-wto-ŋhe* ‘after I went’ (R. E. Hawkins 1998: 165)
- c. *ki-wto-me* ‘for us to go’ (R. E. Hawkins 1998: 204)

In any case, Hixkaryána ‘to go’ was clearly not affected by the extension of \*k-, allowing us to reconstruct a Proto-Waiwaian first person form \*wi-tom-.

Summing up, we reconstruct the four verbs \*efi and \*a(h) ‘to be’, \*ka(s) ‘to say’, and \*tom ‘to go’ as preserving the old 1S<sub>A</sub> marker \*w- in Proto-Waiwaian, while the rest took on innovative \*k-.

Table 12: Regular Proto-Tiriyóan S<sub>A</sub> verbs (Gildea 1994: 87; Meira 1999: 292, 294)

	‘to bathe (INTR)’			‘to sleep’		
	Proto-Tiriyóan	Tiriyó	Akuriyó	Proto-Tiriyóan	Tiriyó	Akuriyó
1	* <i>ʃ-epi-</i>	<i>s-epi-</i>	<i>ʃ-epi-</i>	* <i>t-əəniki-</i>	<i>t-əəniki-</i>	<i>k-əəniki-</i>
2	* <i>m-epi-</i>	<i>m-epi-</i>	<i>m-epi-</i>	* <i>m-əəniki-</i>	<i>m-əəniki-</i>	<i>m-əəniki-</i>
1+2	* <i>ke-epi-</i>	<i>ke-epi-</i>	<i>ke-epi-</i>	* <i>kit-əəniki-</i>	<i>kit-əəniki-</i>	<i>kəʔ-əəniki-</i>
3	* <i>n-epi-</i>	<i>n-epi-</i>	<i>n-epi-</i>	* <i>n-əəniki-</i>	<i>n-əəniki-</i>	<i>n-əəniki-</i>

Table 13: Verbs preserving 1S<sub>A</sub> \**w-* in Proto-Tiriyóan (Meira 1999: 292, 294, 339, 1998: 112, 113, 114, 115, 165)

	Proto-Tiriyóan	Tiriyó	Akuriyó
‘go’	* <i>wi-təmi-</i>	<i>wi-tən-</i>	<i>ə-təmi-</i>
‘say’	* <i>wi-ka-</i>	<i>wi-ka-</i>	<i>wi-ka-</i>
‘come’	* <i>w-əʔepi-</i>	<i>w-əepi-</i>	<i>Ø-eepti-</i>
‘be-1’	* <i>w-a-</i>	<i>w-a-</i>	<i>Ø-a-</i>
‘be-2’	* <i>w-eʔi-</i>	<i>w-ei-</i>	<i>?-eʔi-</i>

### 3.3 Proto-Tiriyóan \**t-*

The Taranoan languages were already grouped together by Girard (1971), consisting of closely related Tiriyó and Akuriyó (subsumed here under the moniker Tiriyóan), and the more distant member Carijona. Meira (1998) provides an extensive phonological, morphological, and lexical reconstruction of Proto-Taranoan. The Set I paradigms of Tiriyó and Akuriyó contain an interesting puzzle: Proto-Cariban 1>3 \**t-* and 1S<sub>A</sub> \**w-* seem to have switched places. This resulted in a regular 1S<sub>A</sub> marker \**ʃ-* / *\_e*, \**t-* / *\_ə* (Table 12); the latter allomorph was subsequently replaced by *k-* in Akuriyó (Section 3.4).

The question of how this switch happened in detail (Meira 1998: 107–112) still has no answer, although it seems necessary to assume a scenario whereby both \**t-* and \**w-* for a time occurred on both transitive and intransitive verbs (Meira 1998: 112).<sup>12</sup> As for intransitive verbs unaffected by the spread of \**t-*, Meira (1998) reconstructs the first four items in Table 13 as taking \**w-* in Proto-Taranoan; we offer our reconstructed Proto-Tiriyóan forms. To this list, we add the other copular root \**eʔi* (Proto-Taranoan \**effi* [Meira 1998: 165]), which has first person *w-* at least in Tiriyó.

<sup>12</sup>In fact, even the issue of *when* this happened is open. It could have happened at the Proto-Taranoan stage, but the subsequent introduction of *j-* in Carijona (Section 3.5) would have erased any traces of such an innovation. Accordingly, Meira (1998) hesitates to assign this extension to a specific proto-language. We take a conservative stance and reconstruct it to Proto-Tiriyóan only, but acknowledge the possibility of it happening already in Proto-Taranoan.

We agree with Meira's (1998: 113) identification of the idiosyncratic Akuriyó first person prefix  $\partial$ - on 'to go' as a reflex of  $*wi$ -. Both components of the irregular change  $*wi$ - >  $\partial$ - – loss of  $*w$  and lowering of  $*i$  to  $\partial$  – are found in other person prefixes (15).

- (15) a. Akuriyó (Gildea 1994: 86)  
            $(w)i$ -*toka*  
           1>3-hit  
           'I hit him/her.'
- b. Akuriyó (Meira 1998: 114)  
            $k\partial?$ -*eepi*  
           1+2-come  
           'We came.'

For 'to come', Meira (1998: 114–115) reconstructs Proto-Taranoan  $*\partial epi$  for the first person, and  $*eepi$  for the others, based on the idiosyncratic paradigmatic pattern in Tiriyó and the vowel length in Akuriyó. Akuriyó (and Carijona) then levelled this original distribution, similar to what we have suggested for Pekodian (Section 3.1). We agree with this scenario, with the exception that Tiriyó  $\partial epi$  is clearly cognate with  $*\partial t-epi$  (Section 4.4), meaning that the Proto-Tiriyóan form must have been  $*\partial?epi$ .

In addition, Gildea (1994) recorded four more Akuriyó verbs seemingly not affected by innovative  $*t$ - (16a), all  $e$ -initial movement verbs. We have only found a Tiriyó cognate for *erama* 'to return', which behaves like a regular  $S_A$  verb in taking  $s$ - (16b). Further, these verbs are not mentioned by Meira (1998), who was also working with Gildea's (1994) data. Given that this data potentially has strong Tiriyó and/or Wayana influence (Gildea 1998: 253) and the lack of support by Meira's data, we cannot reconstruct these verbs as not being affected by the extension of Proto-Tiriyóan  $*t$ -.

- (16) a. Akuriyó  $1S_A$   $*w$ - (Gildea 1994: 84–86)  
           'return'  $\emptyset$ -*erama*-  
           'get up'  $\emptyset$ -*eokahtə*-  
           'jump'  $w$ -*ejahka*-  
           'go out'  $w$ -*ekirika*-
- b. Tiriyó  $s$ -*erama*- (Meira 1999: 301)

### 3.4 Akuriyó $k$ -

After the split-up of Proto-Tiriyóan, when  $*t$ - had largely replaced  $*w$ -, Akuriyó innovated yet another  $1S_A$  marker:  $k$ -. It seems to have replaced  $*t$ - only in specific environments, with the two markers showing a clear phonologically conditioned distribution in the Akuriyó data available to us (Gildea 1994), with all relevant verbs shown in Table 14. Meira (1998: 107)

Table 14: Regular Akuriyó 1S<sub>A</sub> markers (Gildea 1994: 77, 79, 82, 84, 85, 86, 87)

first person <i>k</i> -	first person <i>ʃ</i> -
<i>æmpa</i> - ‘to learn’	<i>epi</i> - ‘to bathe (INTR)’
<i>əʃʃena</i> - ‘to cry’	<i>ekirika</i> - ‘to stay back’
<i>əiwa</i> - ‘to tremble’	<i>entapo</i> - ‘to yawn’
<i>əmami</i> - ‘to enter’	<i>etonema</i> - ‘to lie down’
<i>ətajijka</i> - ‘to run’	<i>ewai</i> - ‘to sit down’
<i>əturu</i> - ‘to talk’	<i>ehpa</i> - ‘to bathe (INTR)’
<i>əniki</i> - ‘to sleep’	

largely confirms the distribution shown here, but mentions “several cases of first person *t*- in Akuriyó” (on *ə*-initial verbs), albeit without any examples. He also suggests that *k*- might be more recent, with which we agree – since the distribution *\*t*- / *ə* / *\*ʃ*- / *ə* is reconstructible to Proto-Tiriyoan, the most likely scenario is *k*- replacing *\*t*- but not *\*ʃ*-. The few *t*- mentioned by Meira (1998) were then either reintroduced under Tiriyo influence, or are the last remnants of the replacement of *\*t*-.

In addition, there is an S<sub>A</sub> verb *i(h)tə* ‘to go down’, which has an irregular first person marker *p*- in Akuriyó, also reconstructible to Proto-Tiriyoan (17). It was not affected by the extension of Akuriyó *k*-, but its relative chronology to the extension of Proto-Tiriyoan *\*t*- is unclear (see also Section 4.5).

- (17) Tiriyoan ‘to go down’ (Meira 1999: 294; Gildea 1994: 84)

Tiriyo *p-ih-tə*-  
Akuriyó *p-itə*-

### 3.5 Carijona *j*-

As discussed by Meira (1998: 105–107), Carijona has extended the 1S<sub>P</sub> marker *j(i)*- to S<sub>A</sub> verbs.<sup>13</sup> This, in combination with the extension of 2S<sub>A</sub> *m*- and 1+2S<sub>A</sub> *kit*-/*kis*- to S<sub>P</sub> verbs, results in a single unified S category (Table 15). Although the split-S system has been lost entirely, former S<sub>A</sub> verbs can be identified by taking a detransitivizer, like *ehinəhi* ‘to fight’, derived from *hinəhi* ‘to kill’ (Robayo Moreno 2000: 179) (18).

<sup>13</sup>Since all affected S<sub>A</sub> verbs are V-initial, only the / *ə*-V allomorph *j*- occurs in that context.



Table 15: Regular Carijona verbs (Robayo Moreno 2000: 173; Meira 1998: 106)

	‘to arrive’	‘to dance’
1	<i>ji-tuda-</i>	<i>j-eharaga-</i>
2	<i>mi-tuda-</i>	<i>m-eharaga-</i>
1+2	<i>kisi-tuda-</i>	<i>kis-eharaga-</i>
3	<i>ni-tuda-</i>	<i>n-eharaga-</i>

- (18) Carijona (Koch-Grünberg 1908: 79)  
*hənɛ(x)tónoko-máɾɛ y-ɛ-hənɛ(x)yai*  
*hinəhtono-ko=marə j-e-hinəhi-jai*  
 enemy-PL=with 1-DETRZ-kill-NPST.CERT  
 ‘I fight with the enemies.’

As noted in Section 3.3, this extension also erased any traces of a potential Proto-Taranoan 1S<sub>A</sub> marker *\*t-*. However, it did not fully eclipse the old 1S<sub>A</sub> marker *\*w-*, which is attested as being preserved in the verbs *tə* ‘to go’ (19a) and *a* ‘to be’ (19b).

- (19) Carijona (Guerrero-Beltrán 2016: 5, 42)
- a. *wi-tə-e=rehe*  
 1-go-NPST=FRUST  
 ‘I almost go (but I am not going to go).’
- b. *əji-marə-ne w-a-e*  
 2-with-PL 1-be-NPST  
 ‘I am with you all.’

Further, the verb *ka* ‘to say’ has a zero-marked first-person form (20). Based on other C-initial verbs like *tə* ‘to go’ or *tuda* ‘to arrive’, one would either expect *wi-* or *ji-*. We analyse this  $\emptyset$  as a reflex of *\*wi-*, primarily based on the (albeit more regular) loss of *\*w* in Ikpeng and Hixkaryána, and the presumed higher propensity of an irregular marker for idiosyncratic phonological erosion. Further, one may suggest the difference to C-initial *tə* ‘to go’ to result from that verb’s former V-initial nature (Section 4.3).

- (20) Carijona David Felipe Guerrero-Beltrán (p.c.)  
*dēmēmara kae ɛwĩ iya*  
*n-tə-mə=mara Ø-ka-e əwi i-ja*  
 3-go-PST=DUB 1-say-NPST.CERT 1PRO 3-OBL  
 ‘“Did s/he leave?”, I say to him.’

Table 16: Regular Yukpa verbs (Largo 2011: 72, 76; Meira 2006: 139)

	‘to fall’	‘to sleep’	‘to wash self’
1	<i>j-ata-</i>	<i>ji-ni-</i>	<i>j-otum-</i>
2	<i>m-ata-</i>	<i>mi-ni-</i>	<i>m-otum-</i>
3	<i>n-ata-</i>	<i>ni-ni-</i>	<i>n-otum-</i>

### 3.6 Yukpa *j-*

Yukpa has lost most of its Set I constructions, mostly employing innovative ones (Meira 2006). It preserves the Set I prefixes in the immediate past, where the 1<sub>SP</sub> marker appears to have been extended to S<sub>A</sub> verbs, as evidenced by the paradigms in Table 16. The loss of split-S in favor of the 1<sub>SP</sub> marker is accompanied by the 2<sub>SA</sub> marker *m(i)-* extending to S<sub>P</sub> verbs, and 1+2 being lost as an inflectional value.

The normal intransitive first person marker is *j(i)-*, including those with clear reflexes of the detransitivizer *\*ate/e-*, like *otum* ‘to wash self’ in Table 16. The analysis that this is a reflex of the 1<sub>SP</sub> marker *\*u(j)-* is supported by the same form occurring in 3>1 scenarios (21a).

(21) Yukpa (Meira 2006: 139)

- a. *aw j-esare*  
1<sub>PRO</sub> 3>1-see  
‘S/he saw me.’
- b. *aw Ø-esare*  
1<sub>PRO</sub> 1>3-see  
‘I saw it.’

On the other hand, 1>3 scenarios are zero-marked (21b). Since Proto-Cariban 1<sub>SA</sub> *\*w(i)-* was extended to 1>3 scenarios in most languages (Gildea 1998: 81–82), and since it is prone to phonological erosion across the family (Sections 3.1 and 3.2), we argue that the zero in 1>3 scenarios is in fact the Yukpa reflex of *\*w-*.

In intransitive verbs, this first-person zero marking is attested only for *to* ‘to go’ (22). It contrasts with regular C-initial verbs taking *ji-*, like ‘to sleep’ in Table 16. Thus, we conclude that the extension of *j-* in Yukpa only stopped short of *to* ‘to go’, which preserves a phonologically reduced reflex of *\*wi-*.

(22) Yukpa (Meira 2006: 139)

- aw Ø-to*  
1<sub>PRO</sub> 1<sub>SA</sub>-go  
‘I went.’

## 4 Resistant verbs from a comparative perspective

In Section 3, we introduced six distinct extensions of personal prefixes into 1S<sub>A</sub> territory, and identified verbs resistant to each innovation. The set of unaffected verbs was rather small in most cases, and there is a considerable etymological overlap between the (proto-)language-specific verb groups. In this section, we present these verbs from a comparative perspective and discuss their reconstructability. Section 4.1 treats both roots of the copula *\*eti/a[p]* ‘to be’, Section 4.2 *\*ka[ti]* ‘to say’, Section 4.3 *\*itə[mə]* ‘to go’, and Section 4.4 *\*(ət)jəpi* ‘to come’; these are all verbs that Gildea & D. Payne (2007) reconstructed as S<sub>A</sub> verbs that were not derived from transitive verbs. Section 4.5 takes a look at *\*ipitə* ‘to go down’, which is resistant in Proto-Tiriyoan and Proto-Pekodian; Section 4.6 investigates Proto-Pekodian *\*ipi* ‘to bathe’, and **undefined Label** Tiriyo ‘to defecate’. The *e*-initial verbs not affected by the extension of *\*k-* in Akuriyó (Section 3.4) will not be discussed here, as they are a large and phonologically coherent group.

### 4.1 *\*eti/a[p]* ‘to be’

For a comprehensive comparative overview for this verb, we refer the reader to Gildea (2018: 375–382), who reconstructs two distinct roots serving as verbs ‘to be’ in modern Cariban languages. One is the older copula *\*a[p]*, which can be reconstructed as already having various irregularities in Proto-Cariban. The other is a root *\*eti* reconstructed by Meira & Gildea (2009) and Gildea (2018) as originally meaning ‘to dwell, live’, but serving as a copula in Proto-Cariban.<sup>14</sup> Various modern languages use reflexes of these two roots in a suppletive manner, conditioned by person and/or TAM value. Both roots preserved 1S<sub>A</sub> *\*w-* in Proto-Pekodian, Proto-Waiwaian, and Proto-Tiriyoan (Sections 3.1 to 3.3). Akuriyó *a* was not affected by the extension of *k-* (Section 3.4), while *e?i* is not attested in a first-person form. Carijona innovated *j-*, but only in the *effi* root allomorph (23a); the *a* root preserves *w-* (23b). Yukpa innovated *j-* for reflexes of both *\*a[p]* and *\*eti*, which are preserved as encliticized auxiliaries in certain constructions (24).

(23) Carijona

- a. *iretibə effinəme gərə jeffi*  
*ireti-bə    effi-nə=me    gərə j-effi-i*  
 then-from   be-INF=ATTRZ   still   1-be-PFV  
 ‘Then I was already grown up.’ (Robayo Moreno 1989: 177)
- b. *əji-marə-ne w-a-e*  
 2-COM-PL   1-be-NPST  
 ‘I am with you all.’ (Guerrero-Beltrán 2016: 42)

<sup>14</sup>Such a stative, locative source is also suggested by the existence of *iffi* ‘to lie down’ in Arara (Alves 2017: 196).

(24) Yukpa (Meira 2006: 143–144)

	NPST	PST
1	= <i>j-a(-s)</i>	= <i>j-e</i>
2	= <i>mak(o)</i>	= <i>m-e</i>
3	= <i>mak(o)</i>	= <i>n-e</i>

## 4.2 \**ka[ti]* ‘to say’

Most reflexes of this verb are simply *ka*, but a fleeting syllable \**ti* is reconstructed by Gildea & D. Payne (2007), best visible in the imperative forms of some languages (25).

(25) Apalaí

*kafti-ko* ‘say!’ (E. Koehn & S. Koehn 1986: 35)

A comparison of the longest forms attested in each language is shown in Table 17. Segments of cognate forms in this and other tables were aligned automatically with LingPy (List et al. 2021), for easier recognition of correspondences. This verb was not affected by any of the extensions found in Proto-Pekodian, Proto-Waiwaian, Proto-Tiriyoan, Akuriyó, and Carijona (Sections 3.1 to 3.5). We do not know the first person forms of its Yukpa reflex *ka*.

As briefly mentioned in Section 3.2, Derbyshire (1985) analyzes this verb as transitive in Hixkaryana. This analytical choice is not only motivated by avoiding an idiosyncratic intransitive first person prefix *i-*: Hixkaryana *ka* also behaves like a transitive verb in other ways, for instance by showing the complementary distribution of the third person marker *n-* and preceding objects – in this case direct speech or ideophones (26).

(26) Hixkaryana

- a. *oni wyaro nkekoni biryekomo, tiyoni wya*  
*oni wjaro n-ka-jakoni birjekomo ti-joni wja*  
 this like 3-say-REM.CONT boy COR-mother OBL  
 ‘This is what the boy said to his mother.’ (Derbyshire 1985: 36)
- b. *moro ha, ketxkoná hatá.*  
*moro ha ka-jafkoni hati*  
 MED.DEM.INAN INTS say-REM.CONT.PL HSY  
 ‘“That one there” they said.’ (Derbyshire 1965: 14)

In (26a), the prefix *n-* occurs because there is no preceding object (‘he said it like this’). In (26b), it does not occur, because ‘they said’ is preceded by direct speech. This complementary distribution is otherwise only found with transitive verbs (Gildea 1998: 59–60). The verb shows the same pattern, albeit inconsistently, in Tiriyo (Carlin 2004: 267).

Table 17: Reflexes of *\*ka[ti]* ‘to say’ (Meira 2003a: 4; Franchetto 2008: 48; Pachêco 2001: 209; Alves 2017: 153; Derbyshire 1985: 182; Meira 1998: 113; E. Koehn & S. Koehn 1986: 107; R. E. Hawkins 1998: 26; Camargo & Tapinkili 2010: 66; Abbott 1991: 59; Swiggers 2010: 123; Courtz 2008: 430; Caesar-Fox 2003: 125; M.-C. Mattéi-Müller 1994: 102; p.c., Spike Gildea)

Language	Form
Werikyana	<i>ka[s]</i> k a s
Hixkaryána	<i>ka[h]</i> k a h
Waiwai	<i>ka[s]</i> k a s
Arara	<i>ke</i> k e
Ikpeng	<i>ke</i> k e
Bakairi	<i>ke</i> k e
Tiriyó	<i>ka</i> k a
Akuriyó	<i>ka</i> k a
Carijona	<i>ka</i> k a
Wayana	<i>ka[i]</i> k a i
Apalaí	<i>ka[fi]</i> k a ʃ i
Kari’ña	<i>ka</i> k a
Kapón	<i>ka</i> k a
Pemón	<i>ka</i> k a
Macushi	<i>ka</i> k a
Panare	<i>ka[h]</i> k a h
Upper Xingu Carib	<i>ki</i> k i

Further comparative evidence also points to *\*ka[ti]* ‘to say’ showing transitive traits: Tiriyo *ka* is characterized as the only intransitive verb being able to take the causative suffix *-po* and the agentive nominalizer *-ne* (Meira 1999: 263, 169). The exceptionality of *ka* ‘to say’ taking *-po* ‘CAUS.TR’ has also been noted for Kari’ña (Courtz 2008: 82) and Wayana (Tavares 2005: 258). The agent nominalizer *\*-ne* gave rise to the Panare gnomic verbal suffix *-ne* on transitive verbs (Gildea 1998: 184–185). The occurrence of *-ne* on *ka* has led to differing categorizations as transitive (T. E. Payne & D. L. Payne 2013: 214) or intransitive (M.-C. Mattéi-Müller 1994: 102). Reflexes of another transitive causativizer *\*-metipo* (Gildea 2015) are found with *ka* in Apalaí (E. Koehn & S. Koehn 1986: 51) and Waiwai (R. E. Hawkins 1998: 52).

Our classification of ‘to say’ as an intransitive verb is supported primarily by prefix patterns: Kari’ña offers a minimal pair between transitive *ka* ‘to remove’ and intransitive *ka* ‘to say’, *sikai* ‘I took it away’ vs *wikai* ‘I said’ (Courtz 2008: 288, 45).<sup>15</sup> Similarly, ‘to say’ in Pekodian languages has a reflex of 1S *\*w-* (Section 3.1), and not 1>3 *s-* (Bakairi) or *\*ini-* (Proto-Xinguan). Additionally, the S<sub>A</sub> class marker *w-* occurs on nominalizations in Kari’ña (27), and it is probably reflected in vowel length in the Tiriyo (Meira 1999: 333) and Wayana (Tavares 2005: 196) participles.

- (27) Kari’ña (Courtz 2008: 202)  
*Òmakon wà oti ywykàpo kaiko.*  
*o-ʔma-kon ʔwa oti i-wi-ka-ʔpo kai-ko*  
 2-child-PL OBL greeting 1-S<sub>A</sub>-say-PST.NMLZ say-IMP  
 ‘Pass my greetings to your children.’

Summing up, this verb could be reconstructed as being intransitive based on its prefixes, but transitive based on some suffixes. Hixkaryána has lost the main intransitive criteria, making its reflex look more like a transitive verb. It is not attested as being affected by any of the person marker extensions under discussion.

### 4.3 *\*itə[mə]* ‘to go’

This verb is reconstructed by Gildea & D. Payne (2007) as *\*tə[mə]*, with the second syllable only rarely occurring, as in the case of *\*ka[ti]* ‘to say’. It is true that many reflexes are clearly *t*-initial, for example Hixkaryána *ntoje* ‘he went’ (Derbyshire 1985: 27), Tiriyo *təkə* ‘go!’ (Meira 1999: 246), or Wayana *kuptəm* ‘we went’ (Tavares 2005: 195). However, once one considers all forms of the various reflexes of this verb (Table 18), an initial vowel *\*i* must clearly be reconstructed – in contrast to unambiguously C-initial *\*ka[ti]* ‘to say’.<sup>16</sup> which was subsequently

<sup>15</sup>Interestingly, the Kari’ña causativized form *kapo* ‘to make say’ does not have the regular 1>3 prefix *s(i)-*, but irregular *w(i)-* (Courtz 2008: 430).

<sup>16</sup>One may add that many inflected forms, like e.g. Tiriyo *witanne* or Arara *widoli* ‘I went’ (Meira 1999: 43; Alves 2017: 153) are ambiguous, since an epenthetic *i* breaks up CC clusters on the prefix-verb boundary.

reanalyzed as part of the prefixes in many languages. This verb was not affected by the any of the extensions discussed in Section 3.

Table 18: Reflexes of *\*itə[mə]* ‘to go’ (Cruz 2005: 291; Meira 1999: 292; Tavares 2005: 195; Gildea 1994: 87; Alves 2017: 153; Derbyshire 1985: 27, 248; R. E. Hawkins 1998: 45, 62; Pachêco 2001: 54, 80; von den Steinen 1892: 112, 374; Cáceres 2011: 181, 216; Meira 1998: 112; Hoff 1968: 168; Meira 2006: 139; Cáceres & Gildea 2018: 4; M. C. Mattéi-Müller 1975: 74; M.-C. Mattéi-Müller 1994: 198; Abbott 1991: 48, 50; García Ferrer 2006: 172; Franchetto 2002: 6; p.c., Spike Gildea)

Language	Form					
Werikyana	<i>to[mə]</i>	t	o	m	o	
Hixkaryána	<i>[i]to</i>	i	t	o		
Waiwai	<i>[e]to[m]</i>	e	t	o	m	
Arara	<i>ido</i>	i	d	o		
Ikpeng	<i>aran</i>	a	r	a	n	
Ikpeng	<i>ero</i>	e	r	o		
Bakairi	<i>[i]tə</i>	i	t	ə		
Tiriyó	<i>tə[n]</i>		t	ə	n	
Akuriyó	<i>[ə]tə[mí]</i>	ə	t	ə	m	i
Carijona	<i>təmə</i>		t	ə	m	ə
Wayana	<i>[i]tə[m]</i>	i	t	ə	m	
Kari’ña	<i>to</i>		t	o		
Kari’ña	<i>[i]ʔ</i>	i	ʔ			
Ye’kwana	<i>itə[mə]</i>	i	t	ə	m	ə
Ingarikó	<i>ətə</i>	ə	t	ə		
Pemón	<i>[e]tə</i>	e	t	ə		
Macushi	<i>[a]ti</i>	a	t	i		
Panare	<i>tə[n]</i>		t	ə	n	
Yawarana	<i>tə</i>		t	ə		
Mapoyo	<i>tə</i>		t	ə		
Upper Xingu Carib	<i>[e]te</i>	e	t	e		
Yukpa	<i>to</i>		t	o		



#### 4.4 *\*(ət-)jəpi* ‘to come’

This verb is reconstructed as monomorphemic *\*ətepi* by Gildea & D. Payne (2007: 30), but an inspection of all the attested reflexes (Table 19) suggests a somewhat more complex story. Crucially, the *\*ət* part is not reflected in the majority of forms, and many languages have reflexes of *\*əpi*, *\*jepi*, or *\*jəpi* for the *\*epi* part. We argue that these forms go back to a Proto-Cariban verb of the form *\*(ət-)jəpi*, morphologically segmentable into a detransitivizer and a root *\*jəpi*. Evidence for the originally *\*j*-initial nature of the root is found in the Pemon-gan languages and Werikyana; the presence of *\*əpi* and *\*epi* reflexes in Werikyana raises the question of whether this *j* is part of the root. The Werikyana form *johi* only occurs in the Progressive (28a), and indeed *j(-)* may be a reflex the Set II third person marker *\*i-* combined with the S<sub>A</sub> class marker *\*w-*, overtly present with other person values (28b). However, while C-initial verbs do show a clear reflex of third person *\*i-* (28c), regular V-initial verbs do not show *j-*, but  $\emptyset$  (28d). Thus, it seems more likely that the *j* is indeed part of the root, rather than an outcome of *\*i-w-*.

(28) Werikyana Spike Gildea (p.c.)

- a. *johi-ri*  
3.come-PROG  
‘S/he is coming.’
- b. *o-w-ohi-ri*  
2-S<sub>A</sub>-come-PROG  
‘You are coming.’
- c. *i-nki-ri*  
3-sleep-PROG  
‘S/he is sleeping.’
- d.  $\emptyset$ -*osone-ri*  
3-dream-PROG  
‘S/he is dreaming.’

Most forms on which Gildea & D. Payne’s (2007) *\*ətepi* seems to be based do not show evidence for *\*j*. However, we interpret the *i* in the Akawaio form *əsipi* as additional evidence of the sequence *\*jə*, which has the same outcome *i* in the Macushi reflex of bare *\*jəpi*, *ipi*.

There are many forms going seemingly reflecting *\*əpi* and *\*epi*, distributed widely through the family. A unifying account of these forms sees the root *\*jəpi* undergoing two major sound changes: a) *\*j*-loss; and b) *\*ə*-umlaut after *\*j*. Both phenomena are widespread in the family (Meira et al. 2010). However, these sound changes appear to have applied irregularly, and not always in the same order. For example, the Kari’ña form *opi* can only be explained if *\*j* was lost before the umlaut of *\*ə* to *\*e*, which happened elsewhere after *\*j*. On the other hand, forms like Ye’kwana *ehə* must be the result of *\*ə* → *\*e* / *\*j*\_, with subsequent loss of *\*j*.

Table 19: Reflexes of ‘to come’ (Abbott 1991: 32; Álvarez 2000: 102; Caesar-Fox 2003: 125; Cruz 2005: 299, 415; Cáceres 2011: 438; Robayo Moreno 2000: 178; Meira 1998: 168; M. C. Mattéi-Müller 1975: 74; Meira 1999: 294; Alves 2017: 150; E. Koehn & S. Koehn 1986: 37; Pachêco 2001: 265; Stegeman & Hunter 2014: 160; Meira 2003a: 4; T. E. Payne & D. L. Payne 2013: 65; Méndez-Arocha 1959: 68; Courtz 2008: 429; Meira & Franchetto 2005: 182; p.c., Spike Gildea)

Language	Form						
Werikyana	<i>oohi</i>				oo	h	i
Werikyana	<i>johi</i>				j	o	h i
Werikyana	<i>ehi</i>				e	h	i
Arara	<i>odebi</i>	o	d	-	e	b	i
Arara	<i>ebi</i>				e	b	i
Ikpeng	<i>arep</i>	a	r	-	e	p	
Bakairi	<i>æwi</i>	ə		-	e	w	i
Tiriyó	<i>æpi</i>	ə		-	e	p	i
Tiriyó	<i>epi</i>				e	p	i
Akuriyó	<i>eepi</i>				ee	p	i
Carijona	<i>ehi</i>				e	h	i
Apalaí	<i>oepti</i>	o		-	e	p	i
Kari’ña	<i>opi</i>				o	p	i
Ye’kwana	<i>ehə</i>				e	h	ə
Akawaio	<i>əsipi</i>	ə	s	-	i	p	i
Akawaio	<i>jepi</i>				j	e	p i
Ingarikó	<i>jə</i>				j	ə	
Ingarikó	<i>jepə</i>				j	e	p ə
Patamona	<i>jepi</i>				j	e	p i
Patamona	<i>jəpi</i>				j	ə	p i
Pemón	<i>jepi</i>				j	e	p i
Panare	<i>əpi</i>				ə	p	i
Yawarana	<i>əpi</i>				ə	p	i
Mapoyo	<i>epi</i>				e	p	i
Upper Xingu Carib	<i>ee</i>				ee		

The Akuriyó form *eepi* looks like a reflex thereof as well, but the length is unexpected, and is analyzed by Meira (1998) as reflecting an earlier diphthong *\*æe*.

Our interpretation of the *\*at* portion as a detransitivizer is primarily based on its form, as well as its paradigmatically conditioned occurrence in some languages. Although the semantics of combining a detransitivizer with an intransitive verb do not really make sense, some historical S<sub>P</sub> verbs are attested as adding the detransitivizer to become S<sub>A</sub> verbs. For example, S<sub>P</sub> *\*wāniki* ‘to sleep’ becomes Tiriýó *āniki* (Meira 1999: 252) and Kari’ña *āniki* (Courtz 2008: 429), both S<sub>A</sub>. Waiwai ‘go to sleep’ can be *winik* (R. E. Hawkins 1998: 30) or *et-winik* (W. N. Hawkins & R. E. Hawkins 1953: 204). The parallels to ‘to sleep’ end here, since bare *\*jāpi* ‘to come’ apparently already was an S<sub>A</sub> verb, as evidenced by its status in Werikyana, Kari’ña, Panare (29), Arara, and Tiriýó.

(29) Panare (T. E. Payne & D. L. Payne 2013: 65)

*ju-w-āpi-n ka=m kano?*  
 3-S<sub>A</sub>-come-NSPEC Q=2.AUX rain  
 ‘Do you think it is gonna rain?’

While these sound changes and the addition of *\*at-* do account for the majority of the forms in Table 19,<sup>17</sup> the distribution within the family is rather chaotic. Not only do very closely related languages show different forms, like Yawarana and Mapoyo, but distinct forms can even be found within the same language, usually conditioned by different prefixes. This was discussed in Section 3.1 for Arara, which has reflexes of *\*at-jāpi* and *\*jāpi* within the same paradigm. A similar situation is found in Tiriýó, where the Set I paradigm shows a reflex of *\*atepi* (< *\*atjāpi*) for first, but of *\*epi* (< *\*jāpi*) for the other persons (30).<sup>18</sup>

(30) Tiriýó (Meira 1999: 294)

1 *w-āpi*  
 2 *mān-epi*  
 1+2 *ke-epi*  
 3 *n-epi*

Summing up, this verb is highly irregular, both from a synchronic and diachronic perspective. It seems that reflexes of the detransitivizer *\*at(e)-* were optionally added to an S<sub>A</sub> verb root *\*jāpi*, which further underwent umlaut and loss of *\*j*, but in no systematic manner, resulting in the chaotic picture in Table 19.

<sup>17</sup>Apart from aforementioned Akuriyó *eepi*, another exception is the Apalaí form *oepe*, where the detransitivizer would have the reflex *os-* (Meira et al. 2010: 506). While *oepe* would be a regular outcome of *\*ā-jāpi*, the /\_C allomorph of the detransitivizer is *e-* in Apalaí. The form may be due to borrowing from Tiriýó, which has lost intervocalic *\*t* to create *āpe*. Alternatively, Apalaí *oepe* could be a fossilized loan from Wayana, which has replaced its reflex of *\*atjāpi*, but where regular sound changes would also have resulted in the loss of intervocalic *\*t* (Tavares 2005: 63).

<sup>18</sup>While the 1+2 form is a regular outcome of *\*kit-epi*, the second person form is mysterious.

As discussed in Section 3.1, innovative *\*k-* was introduced on the Arara reflex of *\*jəpi*, but not on the Ikpeng and Bakairi reflexes of *\*əɬjəpi*. Both reflexes of *\*əɬjəpi* (Tiriyó) and of *\*əɬjəpi* and/or *\*epi* (Akuriyó) resisted the introduction of *\*t-* in Proto-Tiriyóan. Carijona *ehi* shows innovative *j-*, rather than conservative *w-* (31). It is unknown whether there is a Yukpa reflex of this verb, and it was fully replaced in Proto-Waiwaian by *\*omoki* ‘to come’ and was thus not a potential target of innovative *\*k-*.

- (31) Carijona (Guerrero Beltrán 2019: 102)

*əɬi-wa-e*      *j-eh-i*  
 2-search-SUP 1-come-PFV  
 ‘I came looking for you.’

#### 4.5 *\*ipitə* ‘to go down’

Reflexes of this verb were not affected by the extensions of *\*k-* in Proto-Pekodian (Section 3.1) and *k-* in Akuriyó (Section 3.4). The resistance against the former extension was overcome in Bakairi. In Akuriyó, the verb already had an irregularly inflected first person form with *p-*, inherited from Proto-Tiriyóan.

At first sight, it may seem that it was affected by the independent extensions of *j-* in Carijona (32a) and Yukpa (32b).

- (32) a. Carijona (Guerrero Beltrán 2019: 102)

*əɬi-wa-e*      *j-eh-i*  
 2-search-SUP 1-come-PFV  
 ‘I came looking for you.’

- b. Yukpa (Meira 2003b)

*aw yéwtu*  
*aw*      *j-ewuhtu*  
 1-go.down  
 ‘I went down.’

However, a look at the comparative picture suggests a much more complicated situation. Table 20 shows all attested cognates, some already discussed, including verb class membership and aligned segments. While a form *\*ipitə* can be reconstructed to Proto-Cariban, different (proto-)languages do not agree about the class of this verb. The reflexes are fairly evenly split between *S<sub>A</sub>* and *S<sub>P</sub>* – in those languages that preserve the split-S system.

In one language, Wayana, the verb shows traits of both classes, leading us to consider it a “mixed” verb in the synchronic analysis of Wayana. It takes the first and second person *S<sub>P</sub>* markers *j-* and *əw-* (Tavares 2005: 200), but the 1+2*S<sub>A</sub>* marker *kut-* (Tavares 2005: 206). It also

shows the S<sub>A</sub> class marker *w-* in nominalizations ([waygodown . way-73]), but behaves like an S<sub>P</sub> verb in taking a second person prefix in imperatives ([waygodown . way-71]).

- (33) a. Carijona (Guerrero Beltrán 2019: 102)

*aji-wa-e j-eh-i*  
2-search-SUP 1-come-PFV  
'I came looking for you.'

- b. Yukpa (Meira 2003b)

*aw yéwtu*  
*aw j-ewuhtu*  
1PRO 1-go.down  
'I went down.'

Its causativized form is *iptaka* (Tavares 2005: 255), containing a reflex of the transitivizer *\*-ka*, which was restricted to S<sub>P</sub> verbs in Proto-Cariban (Gildea & Cáceres in preparation). This leads us to posit the hypothesis that the verb was a regular member of the S<sub>P</sub> class in pre-Wayana, but partially switched to the S<sub>A</sub> class. This in turn implies that all reflexes of this verb with S<sub>A</sub> status were members of the S<sub>P</sub> class at some point, but switched classes.

Wayana-external comparative evidence supports this hypothesis: The Arara causativized form is *enipton* (Alves 2017: 66), and Kari'ña has a cognate form *eni?to* (Courtz 2008: 263); *oni?to* 'to go down' in Table 20 is a detransitivized form thereof, lit. 'to get oneself down'. Both causativized forms contain a reflex of the (rare) transitivizer *\*en-*, which was usually found with S<sub>P</sub> verbs (Gildea & Cáceres in preparation). Besides the irregular first person *p-*, Tiriyo *ih̥tə* shows other irregularities, in particular in its causativized forms (Meira 1999: 263). Thus, it seems that this verb was originally S<sub>P</sub>, but then switched its class in four and a half languages of the family, for so far unknown reasons.

These circumstances make it impossible to answer the question of whether it was affected by the extensions in Proto-Tiriyoan, Carijona, and Yukpa. For Proto-Tiriyoan, we cannot establish a relative chronology of the verb class change, the introduction of the idiosyncratic marker *\*p-*, and the extension of *\*t-*. It could have been an S<sub>P</sub> verb at the time of the extension, it could have been an S<sub>A</sub> verb and remained unaffected, or it could have been affected, but with a subsequent erasure of the results by the introduction of *\*p-*. For Carijona and Yukpa, we cannot know whether the verb switched verb class before the breakdown of the entire split-S system – this is a plausible scenario especially in the former case. In all three cases, it is possible that the verb had S<sub>A</sub> status at the time of the extension, but it is also possible that it was not even a potential target due to its S<sub>P</sub> status. On the other hand, the class change must have happened before the split-up of Tiriyo and Akuriyo, and therefore this verb resisted the extension of Akuriyo *k-*. Likewise, the class change must have taken place before the extension of Proto-Pekodian *\*k-*, since other scenarios would require an S<sub>P</sub> verb taking on regular S<sub>A</sub> markers, but selecting the archaic first person marker.

Table 20: Reflexes of \**ipitə* ‘to go down’ (Meira 2003b; Derbyshire 1979: 196; R. E. Hawkins 1998: 55; Guerrero Beltrán 2019: 118; Camargo & Tapinkili 2010: 44; Camargo 2002: 99; Courtz 2008: 263; Cáceres 2011: 450; Stegeman & Hunter 2014: 139; Álvarez 2008: 139; Abbott 1991: 34; M.-C. Mattéi-Müller 1994: 88; Méndez-Arocha 1959: 68; Bruno 1996: 58; Gildea 1994: 84; Alves 2017: 153; von den Steinen 1892: 137; Meira 1998: 116; p.c., Angela Fabíola Alves Chagas, Spike Gildea)

Language	Form	Class							
Proto-Parukotoan	* <i>iϕito</i>	S <sub>P</sub>		i	ϕ	i	t	o	
Werikyana	<i>ihito</i>	S <sub>P</sub>		i	h	i	t	o	
Hixkaryána	<i>hto</i>	?			h		t	o	
Waiwai	<i>hto</i>	—			h		t	o	
Proto-Pekodian	* <i>iptə</i>	S <sub>A</sub>		i	p		t	ə	
Arara	<i>iptonj</i>	S <sub>A</sub>		i	p		t	o	- ŋ
Ikpeng	<i>iptonj</i>	?		i	p		t	o	- ŋ
Bakairi	<i>itagi</i>	S <sub>A</sub>		i			t	ə	- g i
Proto-Tiriyoan	* <i>ihtə</i>	S <sub>A</sub>		i	h		t	ə	
Tiriyó	<i>ihtə</i>	S <sub>A</sub>		i	h		t	ə	
Akuriyó	<i>ihtə</i>	S <sub>A</sub>		i	h		t	ə	
Carijona	<i>ehitə</i>	—		e	h	i	t	ə	
Wayana	<i>iptə</i>	S <sub>A</sub> / S <sub>P</sub>		i	p		t	ə	
Apalaí	<i>ihito</i>	S <sub>P</sub>		i	h		t	o	
Kari’ña	<i>oniʔto</i>	(S <sub>A</sub> )	o - n -	i	ʔ		t	o	
Ye’kwana	<i>əʔtə</i>	S <sub>P</sub>		ə	ʔ		t	ə	
Kapón	( <i>uʔtə</i> )	—							
Pemón	( <i>uʔtə</i> )	—							
Macushi	( <i>auti</i> )	—							
Panare	<i>əhtə</i>	S <sub>A</sub>		ə	h		t	ə	
Yawarana	<i>əhtə</i>	—		ə	h		t	ə	
Yukpa	( <i>ewu[h]tu</i> )	—							
Waimiri-Atroari	<i>iti</i>	—		i			t	i	

#### 4.6 Proto-Pekodian *\*ipi* ‘to bathe’

This verb only emerged as resisting an extension in the case of Proto-Pekodian (Section 3.1), but is widely attested in the family. Verbs for intransitive ‘to bathe’ are usually based on transitive verbs in Cariban languages, which are reflexes of *\*pi*, or *\*kupi* in Pemongan, Panare, Kari’ña, and Ye’kwana<sup>19</sup> (Table 21). As we have shown in Section 3.1, Proto-Pekodian can be reconstructed as having the pair *\*ipi* (INTR) / *\*ip(i)* (TR). Thus, while Proto-Pekodian ‘to bathe (TR)’ has perfectly regular cognates in other languages of the family, intransitive ‘to bathe’ is divergent in this branch, changing *\*e-* to *\*i*. The reasons for this are unknown; we are not aware of *\*i-* as a regular development of the detransitivizer in Pekodian, see also Meira et al. (2010: 506). However, it should be noted that other languages also show unexpected developments in this verb, consider the apparent addition of *ew-* in Hixkaryána or the chaotic mixture of *\*pi* and *\*kupi* in languages spoken in Venezuela.

<sup>19</sup>For Ye’kwana, note that while intransitive *e?hi* points to *\*e-kupi*, transitive *ihi* looks like a reflex of *\*pi*.

Table 21: Comparison of intransitive and transitive ‘to bathe’ (Derbyshire 1979: 198; R. E. Hawkins 1998: 192, 203; Alves 2017: 150, 162; Pachêco 1997: 103; Campetela 1997: 123; Meira 2003a: 4, 2005: 285, 1999: 697; Gildea 1994: 87; Camargo & Tapinkili 2010: 24, 52; Meira 2000: 218; Courtz 2008: 304; Cáceres 2011: 439, 454; Stegeman & Hunter 2014: 37; de Armellada 1944: 34, 129; M.-C. Mattéi-Müller 1994: 8, 294; p.c., Spike Gildea)

(a) Reflexes of * <i>e-pi</i> ‘to bathe (INTR)’						(d) Reflexes of *( <i>i</i> ) <i>pi</i> ‘to bathe (TR)’					
Language	Form					Language	Form				
Werikyana	<i>eehi</i>		ee	-	h i	Werikyana	<i>ihi</i>	i	h	i	
Hixkaryána	<i>ewehi</i>	e	w	e	- h i	Hixkaryána	<i>ihi</i>	i	h	i	
Waiwai	<i>ejeɸu</i>	e	j	e	- ɸ u	Waiwai	<i>pi</i>		p	i	
Arara	<i>ibi</i>			i	- b i	Arara	<i>ip</i>	i	p		
Ikpeng	<i>ip</i>			i	- p	Ikpeng	<i>ip</i>	i	p		
Bakairi	<i>i</i>			i		Bakairi	<i>i</i>			i	
Tiriyó	<i>epi</i>		e	-	p i	Tiriyó	<i>pi</i>		p	i	
Akuriyó	<i>epi</i>		e	-	p i	Akuriyó	<i>pi</i>		p	i	
Wayana	<i>epi</i>		e	-	p i	Wayana	<i>upi</i>	u	p	i	
Apalaí	<i>epi</i>		e	-	p i	Apalaí	<i>pi</i>		p	i	
(b) Reflexes of * <i>e-kupi</i> ‘to bathe (INTR)’						Ye'kwana	<i>ihi</i>	i	h	i	
Language	Form					Pemón	<i>pi</i>		p	i	
Kari'ña	<i>ekupi</i>	e	-	k u	p i	Panare	<i>ipi</i>	i	p	i	
Ye'kwana	<i>eʔhi</i>	e	-		? h i	(e) Reflexes of * <i>kupi</i> ‘to bathe (TR)’					
Kapón	<i>ekuʔpi</i>	e	-	k u	? p i	Language	Form				
Pemón	<i>ekupi</i>	e	-	k u	p i	Kari'ña	<i>kupi</i>	k	u	p	i
(c) Reflexes of * <i>ə-kupi</i> ‘to bathe (INTR)’						Kapón	<i>kuʔpi</i>	k	u	? p i	
Language	Form					Panare	<i>kupi</i>	k	u	p	i
Panare	<i>akupi</i>	a	-	k u	p i						



## 5 Discussion

In Section 4, we reconstructed the verbs which were unaffected by the incomplete extensions discussed in Section 3. Table 22 shows the correlation between the extensions and verbs; only verbs that were unaffected in at least two cases are listed. That is, Tiriyo *weka/oeka* ‘to defecate’ is not shown. We will discuss

Table 22: Overview of extensions and (un-)affected verbs

	<i>*ka[ti]</i> 'to say'	<i>*itə[mə]</i> 'to go'	<i>*a[p]</i> 'to be-1'	<i>*eti</i> 'to be-2'	<i>*(ət-)japi</i> 'to come'	<i>*ipitə</i> 'to go down'	<i>*e-pi</i> 'to bathe'
Proto-Waiwaian <i>*k-</i>	×	×	×	×	—	—	✓
Hixkaryána	×	×	×	×	—	—	✓
Waiwai	×	(✓)	×	×	—	—	✓
Proto-Pekodian <i>*k-</i>	×	×	×	×	×	×	×
Arara	×	×	×	×	×	×	×
Ikpeng	×	✓	—	×	✓	?	×
Bakairi	×	×	×	×	✓	×	×
Proto-Tiriyoan <i>*t-</i>	×	×	×	×	×	N/A	✓
Tiriyó	×	×	×	×	×	N/A	✓
Akuriyó	×	×	×	?	×	N/A	✓
Akuriyó <i>k-</i>	×	×	×	?	×	×	×
Carijona <i>j-</i>	×	×	×	✓	✓	N/A	?
Yukpa <i>j-</i>	?	×	✓	✓	—	N/A	—

### 5.1 Possible motivations: Bybee's (1985) network model

The fact that reflexes of several reconstructible verbs emerged as being unaffected by different extensions (Sections 4.1 to 4.5) suggests that there is some strong motivation for these verbs to do so. The most well-known contribution regarding irregularity in the lexicon is Bybee (1985), with her network model of morphology, which is well-suited for the data at hand. It aims “to account for cross-linguistic, diachronic and acquisition patterns in complex morphological systems” (Bybee 1995: 428). It does so by modeling shared morphological properties such as inflectional patterns as emerging from connections of differing strength between related words in the mental lexicon. For example, a large group of connected “strong” English verbs with *strɪŋ–straɪŋ* at its center and pairs like *rɪŋ–raɪŋ*, *spɪn–spaɪn*, or *stɪk–staɪk* at its periphery is attracting more verbs in certain dialects: *sni:k–snaɪk* or *brɪŋ–braɪŋ* (Bybee 1985: 129–130). These verbs are recruited based on the lexical connection they form with prototypical members of the group, and accordingly develop “irregular” past tense forms.

For the causes of these lexical connections, Bybee (1985: 118) suggests the criteria of semantic similarity, phonological similarity, and morphological similarity. Another important factor in her model is frequency, since more frequent words have a higher lexical strength (Bybee 1985: 119). This higher lexical strength results in less influence from other lexemes, meaning that irregular forms are more likely to be preserved in high-frequency items. Thus, from a diachronic perspective, the prediction is a) that semantically/phonologically/morphologically similar verbs adapt the same morphological properties, and b) that frequent verbs show a certain immunity to changes.

When considering the resistant verbs in our Cariban case, reiterated in **undefined Label**, a very salient property emerges: Most of the verbs lack a reflex of the detransitivizer *\*at(e)-/e-* usually found in *S<sub>A</sub>* verbs. That is, there is an apparent connection between presence of the detransitivizer and innovating new *1S<sub>A</sub>* markers. This was already noted for a group of Proto-Taranoan verbs taking irregular *\*w-* by Meira (1998: 112):

This category includes a small number of stems, among which ‘to go’, ‘to come’, ‘to say’, ‘to go down’, ‘to defecate’, and the copula. These are basically the verbs that are not synchronically or diachronically detransitivized. yet belong to the A conjugation.

The characterization of the absence of *\*ate/e-* resulting in irregular verbs is also applicable to other languages and branches, most clearly so for Pekodian, which I will discuss in Section 5.1.1.

On the other hand, the fact that reflexes of *\*at(e)-/e-* are found on “normal” *S<sub>A</sub>* verbs also means that they are all *\*ə-* or *\*e-* initial. That is, the morphologically caused lexical connection between regular *S<sub>A</sub>* verbs is also phonological in nature. In some cases, phonological conditioning seems to have indeed been the crucial factor, discussed in detail in Section 5.1.2.

Finally, the first four verbs in **undefined Label** are also united by the fact that they are usually among the most frequent ones. This has e.g. been noted for Kari’ña by Courtz (2008: 75): “It is difficult [...] to imagine an intransitive or transitive origin for some of the most frequent middle verbs”. Such frequency effects are discussed in Section 5.1.3.

Semantic connections do not appear to play a role, except potentially in the case of the ill-understood movement verbs in understudied Akuriyó.

In many cases it is difficult to decide which of the three relevant factors best explains the pattern in a specific language. Rather, it seems that the three factors largely converge in the Cariban case, as discussed in Section 5.1.4.

### 5.1.1 Morphology: Proto-Pekodian

A clear-cut example where morphology is the sole deciding factor is the introduction of Proto-Pekodian *\*k-*. As I have argued in Section 3.1, there were two forms for ‘to come’, *\*epi* and *\*əd-epi*, the latter with a detransitivizing prefix. The Arara reflex shows a first person form *w-ebi-*, while its sister language Ikpeng and the cousin Bakairi have forms based on *\*k-ədəpi*: *k-arep-* and *k-əewi-*. For Proto-Pekodian, the group of verbs which resisted the extension of *\*k-* can succinctly be defined as those without a detransitivizing prefix, fully accounting for the group of unaffected verbs.

### 5.1.2 Phonology: Akuriyó, Carijona, Yukpa

There is one case where phonological connections account for the lexical distribution of the innovative marker. That is the introduction of Akuriyó *k-*, which only affected *ə*-initial verbs –

but not *e*-initial ones, which kept *ff* (Section 3.4). Using Bybee's (1985) network model, these classes form a consistent lexical group, based on their phonological form. The Akuriyó case is rather different from the others under discussion here, as the unaffected group of verbs is fairly large, since it includes regular *S<sub>A</sub>* verbs with a reflex of the detransitivizer \**e*-. There are two other cases, namely Carijona *j*- (Section 3.5) and Yukpa *j*- (Section 3.6).

In the case of Carijona, the group of affected verbs can be characterized as being *e*-/ə-initial. That is, as in other languages, regular derived *S<sub>A</sub>* verbs – those with a reflex of \**at*(*e*)/*e*- underwent the innovation, as shown in Section 3.5. However, underived *e*-initial *S<sub>A</sub>* verbs also took on new markers, as shown in (34).

(34) Carijona

- a. *əji-wa-e*      *j-eh-i*  
2-search-SUP 1-come-PFV  
'I came looking for you.' (Guerrero Beltrán 2019: 102)
- b. *irə*      *waffinakano*    *tæ*      *j-ehitə-e*  
INAN.ANA body.of.water along.bounded 1-go.down-NPST  
'...I go down through that guachinacán.' David Felipe Guerrero (p.c.)
- c. *iretibə effinəme gərə jeffi*  
*ireti-bə*    *effi-nə=me*    *gərə j-effi-i*  
then-from be-INF=ATTRZ still 1-be-PFV  
'Then I was already grown up.' (Robayo Moreno 1989: 177)

(34a) shows the verb 'to come', which in Carijona is a reflex of \**jəpi* (> \**epi*), not of \**atepi*. (34b) shows the verb 'to go down', which has acquired an unexpected *e* in Carijona, compare the reconstruction in **undefined Label**. Whether this development was distinct from the introduction of the new prefix *j*- or whether it was a result of regularization is impossible to say. Finally, (34c) shows the verb *effi* 'to be', which also takes *j*-. Interestingly, this verb shows a suppletive alternation between *effi* and *a*, where the old marker *w*- is preserved with the latter root allomorph (35).

(35) Carijona (Guerrero-Beltrán 2016: 42)

- əji-marə-ne*    *w-a-e*  
2-COM-PL 1-be-NPST  
'I am with you all.'

The only other place where this *w*- is attested is with C-initial *tə* 'to go' (36), meaning that the property of being ə- or *e*-initial fully accounts for the distribution of innovative *j*-.

- (36) Carijona (Guerrero-Beltrán 2016: 5)  
*wi-tə-e=rehe*  
 1-go-NPST=FRUST  
 ‘I almost go (but I am not going to go).’

An apparently more extreme case is Yukpa, where *j-* is not only found on the reflex of *\*eti* (37a), but also on that of *\*a[p]* (37b).

- (37) Yukpa (Meira 2006: 142, 143)
- a. *aw utuwanpa=p=j-e*  
 1PRO study=PROG=1-be  
 ‘I was studying.’
  - b. *aw juwatpi=p=j-a-s*  
 1PRO chief=ESS=1-be-NPST  
 ‘I am the chief.’

The only place where I have identified a reflex of *\*w-* is on C-initial *to* (22). This makes it possible to characterize the extension as affecting all V-initial verbs.

- (38) Yukpa (Meira 2006: 139)  
*aw Ø-to*  
 1PRO 1S<sub>A</sub>-go  
 ‘I went.’

### 5.1.3 Frequency: Bakairi?

Among the investigated cases of incomplete extensions, Bakairi is the only language where one might suggest frequency effects that are not coupled to something else, but the evidence is scarce. In Section 5.1.1, I argued that the Proto-Pekodian verbs *\*ipi* ‘to bathe’ and *\*[i/i]ptə* ‘to go down’ resisted the introduction of *\*k-* because they did not have a reflex of *\*əte/e-*. However, while Bakairi *i* ‘to bathe’ preserved the Proto-Pekodian pattern, *itagi* ‘to go down’ subsequently innovated *k-*. While it is possible that *i*, which also means ‘to wash’ (von den Steinen 1892: 105), is more frequent in Bakairi discourse than ‘to go down’, such a claim would have to be supported by corpus data, which are not available.

### 5.1.4 Converging factors

I have shown that in one case, morphological criteria account for the distribution of conservative and innovative prefixes, and that three cases can adequately be explained by purely phonological criteria. I suggested that the development in Bakairi after the Proto-Pekodian

stage may be due to frequency, but only very speculatively so. No semantic patterns have emerged as a conditioning factor for preserving old 1S<sub>A</sub> markers in any of the cases under study. As for the other three factors, the main conclusion is that they largely converge in the case of Cariban S<sub>A</sub> verbs. Take for example the “most” resistant verb, which is not attested as having taken on a new first person marker in any language, \*ka[ti] ‘to say’. It is at the same time: a) highly frequent; b) the only C-initial S<sub>A</sub> verb in Proto-Cariban; and c) one of the few S<sub>A</sub> verbs without a reflex of \*ət(e)-/e-. That is, one would expect it to resist morphological innovation based on all three factors: frequency, phonological form, and morphological makeup.

The same kind of convergence is found for most other verbs consistently emerging as resistant across the family. They are more frequent than other S<sub>A</sub> verbs, and diverge phonologically and morphologically from them. This results in an overall picture where the factors leading to irregular or archaic morphological patterns strongly overlap, to a degree where one cannot simply decide which factor ultimately contributed. While this means that Bybee’s (1985) model for the most part nicely accounts for the Cariban patterns, the conditioning factors she suggests are highly interrelated.

## 5.2 Conclusion

- why are the most irregular verbs all underived S<sub>A</sub> verbs? **something** is there
- ultimately plays into the mystery of how the hell the split-S system actually came into being
- not surprising that more frequent S<sub>A</sub> verbs have no \*ət-, but definitely surprising that ‘say’, ‘go’, and ‘be’ are S<sub>A</sub> verbs in the first place!

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