

## **A'ingae (Cofán/Kofán)**

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### **Abstract**

This chapter presents the basic grammatical properties of A'ingae, a language isolate spoken in the provinces of Putumayo and Nariño in Colombia and in the province of Sucumbíos in Ecuador. Some of the more remarkable properties of A'ingae that are addressed in the chapter are: the phonemic status of prenasalized plosives and affricates; the large amount of grammatical clitics available in the language; the presence of classifiers; the extensive use of headless noun phrases; the largely parallel behaviour of verbal and non-verbal predicates; the switch reference and tail-head linkage system; and the segmental marking of information structural functions.

### **1. Classification, demographics, and sociolinguistic background**

A'ingae is a language spoken in the provinces of Putumayo and Nariño in Colombia, along the San Miguel, Guamués, and Putumayo rivers, and in the province of Sucumbíos in Ecuador along the Aguarico River. UNESCO reports 379 speakers in Colombia and 600 speakers in Ecuador in 2008. The language is considered to be 'severely endangered' in Colombia and 'definitely endangered' in Ecuador. There is, however, a positive language attitude, and due to intermarriage the number of speakers might actually be increasing. The current description is based on data from the Ecuadorian variety of A'ingae, with most data having been gathered in the village of Dureno (located at 0°3'0.00"N, 76°41'60.00"W).

A'ingae (ISO 639-3: con; Glottolog: cofa1242) is a language with no known genetic affiliations. It was classified as a Chibchan language in Rivet (1924), as an Andean B language in Greenberg (1960), and as an Equatorial language in Greenberg (1987). Loukotka (1968), Tovar and Larrucea de Tovar (1984), and Kaufman (1990), however, list A'ingae as a separate linguistic group, and this is what is also found in more recent classifications such as Lewis et al. (2016). A'ingae is also treated as an isolate in Adelaar and Muysken (2004: 454).

Though the language is better known as Cofán or Kofán, the speakers themselves refer to their language as A'ingae, a name consisting of the stem *a'i* 'Cofán person' and the manner clitic *=ngae*, thus meaning 'in the manner of the Cofán people'. The Spanish denomination *Cofán* may be related to the name of the Cofanes River, which was called *Cofa-na'en* 'Cofa-river' at the time of the Spanish occupation. The term Cofán is used below as an ethnonym, following Cepek (2012).

No complete grammar of A'ingae has been produced. Major publications include Borman (1962, 1976, 1977, 1981, 2015), Fischer (2002, 2007), Fischer and van Lier (2011), Hengeveld and Fischer (2018b), and Repetti-Ludlow et al. (2019) for the Ecuadorian variety, and Tobar Gutiérrez (1995) for the Colombian variety. A full grammar is in preparation (Hengeveld & Fischer in prep.). AnderBois and Silva (2018) is an open-access text collection. Additional materials are accessible at <http://cds.library.brown.edu/projects/kofan/LingView/#/index/>.

Most examples in this chapter are taken from the data collected by Rafael Fischer between 2001 and 2006 in the villages of Dureno, Sábalo, and Sinangoe in Ecuador. These data are coded in the following way: date of recording, abbreviations of names of speakers involved, topic, time code/line number. Additional examples are taken from legends told by Enrique Criollo and presented in M.B. Borman (1990). These data are coded by the abbreviation 'BC' followed by the legend number and the line number within the legend. Other examples are taken from the earlier publications on A'ingae by M.B. Borman mentioned above, and are then referenced in the regular way. When an example was obtained in elicitation this is indicated by means of the abbreviation 'elic'.

## 2. Phonology

### 2.1. Phonological inventory

A'ingae has a moderately large consonant inventory consisting of 27 consonants, which are shown in Table 1. A characteristic feature of A'ingae is the three-way distinction within the classes of plosives and affricates, where voiceless, aspirated and prenasalized (and therefore voiced) phonemes are found.

**Table 1. Consonants**

	BILABIAL	LABIO-DENTAL	ALVEOLAR	POST-ALVEOLAR	PALATAL	VELAR	GLOTTAL
VOICELESS PLOSIVE	/p/		/t/			/k/	/ʔ/
ASPIRATED PLOSIVE	/p <sup>h</sup> /		/t <sup>h</sup> /			/k <sup>h</sup> /	
PRENASALIZED PLOSIVE	/ <sup>m</sup> b/		/ <sup>n</sup> d/			/ <sup>ŋ</sup> g/	
FRICATIVE		/f/	/s/	/ʃ/			/h/
VOICELESS AFFRICATE			/ts/	/tʃ/			
ASPIRATED AFFRICATE			/ts <sup>h</sup> /	/tʃ <sup>h</sup> /			
PRENASALIZED AFFRICATE			/ <sup>n</sup> dz/	/ <sup>n</sup> dʒ/			
NASAL	/m/		/n/		/ɲ/		
FLAP			/ɾ/				
APPROXIMANT		/v/			/j/	/ɥ/	

Borman (1962) distinguishes the voiced velar fricative /ɣ/, which he represents as /g/. We follow Repetti-Ludlow et al. (2019) in identifying it as a velar approximant. Its phonemic status is evident from minimal pairs such as that in (1).

- (1) a. /ʃi.ɥa/ 'God'

- b. /t͡ʃi.tʰa/ ‘tear’

Tobar Gutiérrez (1995) does not include the glottal stop /ʔ/. In our data, however, we find minimal pairs like (2), in which the glottal stop contrasts with a bilabial voiceless plosive. Similar examples are provided in Repetti-Ludlow et al. (2019).

- (2) a. /a.ʔi/ ‘person’  
 b. /a.pi/ ‘pan’

A’ingae has five oral and five nasal vowels (Table 2). A formant analysis in Repetti-Ludlow et al. (2019) confirms this distribution. The /o/ and /õ/ have broad ranges of manifestations, ranging from [o] to [ʊ], and from [õ] to [ö].

**Table 2. Vowels**

	FRONT	CENTRAL	BACK
CLOSE	/i/, /ĩ/	/i/, /ĩ/	
MID	/e/, /ẽ/		/o/, /õ/
OPEN		/a/, /ã/	

## 2.2. Phonological processes

Important phonological processes in A’ingae include diphthongization, glide insertion, glottal stop insertion, denasalization, and nasalization, the latter occurring in various contexts.

### 2.2.1. Diphthongization and glide insertion

Diphthongization occurs when certain combinations of vowels are clustered within a syllable. Repetti-Ludlow et al. (2019) detect the following diphthongs in their data: [ai], [oe], [oa], [oi], [ii], and [ao], as well as their nasalized counterparts [ãĩ], [õẽ], [õã], [õĩ], [ĩĩ], and [ãõ], but this list is not exhaustive. They furthermore note that the sequence /ae/ is consistently realized as [ai]. Some examples are given in (3).

- |     |                          |           |                          |              |
|-----|--------------------------|-----------|--------------------------|--------------|
| (3) | [ai.pa]                  | ‘savage’  | [ãĩ]                     | ‘dog’        |
|     | [a.si.k <sup>h</sup> oe] | ‘upriver’ | [a.t <sup>h</sup> i.fõẽ] | ‘distribute’ |
|     | [k <sup>h</sup> oa]      | ‘pumpkin’ | [k <sup>h</sup> õã.ŋgi]  | ‘two’        |
|     | [moi.te]                 | ‘never’   | [sõĩ]                    | ‘tamal’      |
|     | [a.k <sup>h</sup> ii]    | ‘paddle’  | [kĩĩ.tsĩ]                | ‘so that’    |
|     | [kao.fa]                 | ‘cane’    | [ãõ.na]                  | ‘skimmer’    |
|     | [a.k <sup>h</sup> ia]    | ‘just’    | [e.hĩã]                  | ‘attach’     |

A diphthong is thus always either completely oral or completely nasal. When an oral and a nasal vowel are clustered the entire diphthong becomes nasal, as will be shown below.

### 2.2.2. Glottal stop insertion

As shown in Table 1, the glottal stop forms part of the phoneme inventory of A'ingae. However, it is not always phonemic, as a glottal stop may also be inserted by phonological rule. This rule is applied if a sequence of three vowels would otherwise arise. Both examples in (4) end with the clitic =*a*, which in (4a) follows a syllable with a single vowel and in (4b) with two vowels. Only in the latter case a glottal stop is inserted.

- (4) a. /no.ts<sup>h</sup>i.a/ [nõ.ts<sup>h</sup>ia] good=QUAL=ADJR  
 b. /<sup>m</sup>bia.a/ [bja.ʔa] long=ADJR

### 2.2.3. Nasalization

Nasality is a prominent feature of A'ingae. In the phoneme inventory there are nasal consonants, prenasalized plosives and affricates, and nasal vowels. A number of nasalization processes add to the observed nasality. The relevant processes include the nasalization of the voiceless unaspirated plosives /p/ or /t/ into [ᵐb] and [ᵐd] when following a nasal vowel; the realization of the approximants /v/ and /j/ as [m] and [ɲ] when following a nasal vowel; the nasalization of oral vowels when preceding or following a nasal vowel; the nasalization of oral vowels following nasal consonants; and the nasalization of oral vowels when preceding a prenasalized plosive or affricate.

The nasalization process works progressively in cases in which a nasal vowel precedes one of the voiceless unaspirated plosives /p/ or /t/. In these circumstances these plosives are prenasalized and thereby voiced. This is demonstrated with two pairs of morphologically complex words in (5) and (6). In (5) both words contain the nominalizer -*pa* (/pa/), which in (5a) is preceded by an oral vowel and in (5b) by a nasal vowel. In (6) both words contain the new topic clitic =*ta* (/ta/), which in (6a) is preceded by an oral vowel and in (6b) by a nasal one.

- (5) a. /seʔ.he.pa/ [seʔ.he.pa] heal-NMLZ 'medicine'  
 b. /ʃ.hĩ.pa/ [ʃ.hĩ.<sup>m</sup>ba] rain-NMLZ 'rain'  
 (6) a. /ʋa.ta/ [ʋa.ta] PROX=NEW.TOP 'this'  
 b. /haʔ.ɲõ.ta/ [haʔ.ɲõ.<sup>n</sup>da] now=NEW.TOP 'now'

The approximants /v/ and /j/ are also affected by the presence of a preceding nasal vowel, and in such circumstances are realized as [m] and [ɲ], respectively, as in (7) and (8).

- (7) /kõ.sĩ.ve/ [kõ.sĩ.mẽ] woolly.monkey=ACC.IRR 'woolly monkey'  
 (8) /tõ.je/ [tõ.ɲẽ] make-INF 'to make'

Oral vowels undergo a process of nasalization when preceding a prenasalized consonant, as shown in (9) and (10).

- (9) /di.fo.<sup>n</sup>de.k<sup>h</sup>i/ [di.ʃõ.<sup>n</sup>de.k<sup>h</sup>i] child=H.PL 'children'  
 (10) /tisi.<sup>m</sup>be/ [tiʃ.<sup>m</sup>be] REFL=BEN 'his'

Oral vowels also nasalize when preceding or following a nasal vowel. The following examples show both possibilities, forward nasalization in (11) and backward in (12). These examples also show that diphthongs are always either completely oral or completely nasal.

- (11) /ho.vaʔ.kã.o/ [ho.vaʔ.kãõ] DIST=SIM=AUGM ‘exactly like that’  
 (12) /k<sup>h</sup>i.ʃa.ẽ/ [k<sup>h</sup>i.ʃãĩ] recover-CAUS ‘heal’

Nasalisation crosses a consonant boundary when a nasal vowel and non-nasal vowel or glide are separated by the glottal fricative /h/ or the glottal stop /ʔ/. This can be seen in the examples in (13) and (14).

- (13) a /tsõ.he/ [tsõ.hẽ] do-IPFV  
 b /ãĩ.ha/ [ãĩ.hã] dog=CNTR.TOP  
 (14) a /riḃẽʔ.je/ [riḃẽʔ.ɲẽ] Ruben=NOM.PST  
 b /hiʔ.ja/ [hiʔ.ɲã] exist=ASS

Finally, oral vowels also nasalize when they follow a nasal consonant, as in (15).

- (15) a. /hai.me.pa/ [hai.mẽ.<sup>m</sup>ba] Jaime=ASSC  
 b. /ɲoɲa.pa/ [ɲõɲã.<sup>m</sup>ba] make=SS

These examples furthermore show the percolating effect of nasalization: the vowels following the nasal consonants /m/ and /ɲ/ are nasalized, and in turn trigger prenasalization of the following /p/.

#### 2.2.4. Denasalization

Borman (1962) and Tobar Gutiérrez (1995) assume the presence of voiced plosives and affricates in the consonant inventory of A’ingae, which would then be prenasalized in word-internal onset position when following a nasal vowel. This analysis is problematic, however, especially since there are several highly frequent clitics in the language that are systematically realized with a prenasalized onset. For instance, the dative clitic =*nga* (<sup>n</sup>ga/), the beneficiary clitic =*mbe* (<sup>m</sup>be/), and the human plural clitic =*ndekhû* (<sup>n</sup>dek<sup>h</sup>i/) never occur in non-prenasalized form. Acoustic measurements reported on in Repetti-Ludlow et al. (2019) confirm the prenasalized nature of the voiced stops and affricates, as these turn out to be prenasalized even in word-initial position, though with a lower intensity and a shorter duration than in word-medial position. In order to understand the distribution of prenasalized and non-prenasalized voiced plosives and affricates, it therefore seems more useful to assume a rule of denasalization for prenasalized plosives and affricates occurring in word-initial onset position. The nasality of the vowel preceding the prenasalized consonant is then accounted for by the nasalization rule discussed in the previous paragraph and illustrated in (9) and (10).

We thus find that the rule of denasalization of prenasalized voiced plosives and affricates leads to the realizations of these phonemes listed in (16), which are in complementary distribution.

- (16) <sup>m</sup>b/ [ḃb, b]    <sup>n</sup>d/ [ḏd, d]    <sup>ɲ</sup>g/ [ḡg, g]    <sup>n</sup>dz/ [ḏz, dz]    <sup>n</sup>dʒ/ [ḏʒ, dʒ]

To demonstrate that this is the correct analysis we need examples of contrasting morphologically complex forms in which in one case nasality spreads backwards to an underlying oral vowel and in another does not display such nasal spreading. Such examples are shown in (17) and (18) with the verbal form /fa.'ka/ ‘fail, lack’.

- |      |                           |                           |           |                |
|------|---------------------------|---------------------------|-----------|----------------|
| (17) | /ʃa.'ka.pa/               | [ʃa.'ka.pa]               | fail-NMLZ | 'fault'        |
| (18) | /ʃa.'ka. <sup>m</sup> bi/ | [ʃa.'kã. <sup>m</sup> bi] | fail=NEG  | 'did not fail' |

In (17) the verb is followed by the action nominalizer suffix *-pa*, which has a voiceless onset consonant, hence there is no spreading of nasality. In (18) the same verb form is followed by the negation clitic *=mbi* (<sup>m</sup>bi/), and in this case the nasal feature of *=mbi* spreads backward to the previous vowel, as can be observed in the surface form [ʃa.'kã.<sup>m</sup>bi]. These examples clearly show that prenasalized segments instigate the nasal spreading and therefore must be prenasalized phonemes.

### 2.3. Phonotactics

A syllable consists minimally of a simple vocalic nucleus and maximally of a single consonant as the onset, two diphthongizing vowels as the nucleus, and a glottal stop as the coda, the glottal stop being the only coda allowed, and only if followed by a consonantal onset. If the nucleus consists of two diphthongizing vowels and either one is nasal, both are realized nasally. The possible syllable structures can therefore be listed and illustrated as in (19):

- |      |      |                     |              |             |                 |
|------|------|---------------------|--------------|-------------|-----------------|
| (19) | V    | [a.ʔi]              | 'person'     | [ĩ.hĩ]      | 'rain'          |
|      | VV   | [ai.je.he]          | 'push'       | [ãĩ]        | 'dog'           |
|      | CV   | [a.ʔi]              | 'person'     | [tʃã]       | 'mother'        |
|      | CVV  | [k <sup>h</sup> oa] | 'pumpkin'    | [kãõ]       | SIM.ADVR        |
|      | Vʔ   | [iʔ.fa]             | bring=SBJ.PL | [ãʔ.fa]     | eat=SBJ.PL      |
|      | VVʔ  | [aiʔ.ʋo]            | 'body'       | [ãĩʔ.fa]    | dog=CLF:lateral |
|      | CVʔ  | [paʔ.tʃo]           | 'dead'       | [mã.nãʔ.fa] | send=SBJ.PL     |
|      | CVVʔ | [dʒaiʔ.tʃo]         | sit=NMLZ     | [ã.nãĩʔ.ma] | 'hammock'       |

Several clitics begin, morphologically speaking, with a glottal stop followed by another consonant. This initial glottal stop, however, is always realized as the coda of the syllable to which the clitic is attached. This is shown in (20) and (21).

- |      |                               |                            |                     |                   |
|------|-------------------------------|----------------------------|---------------------|-------------------|
| (20) | /tsa/+ /ʔkã/                  | [tsaʔ.kã]                  | ANA=SIM             | 'like that'       |
| (21) | /mẽ <sup>n</sup> de/ + /ʔtʃo/ | [mẽ. <sup>n</sup> deʔ.tʃo] | beautiful-CLF:round | 'a beautiful one' |

### 2.4. Prosody

Borman (1976: 3) notes that word stress is generally located on the penultimate syllable of a word, or on the penultimate syllable before a glottal stop within the word; if there is only one syllable preceding the glottal stop, then that syllable will be stressed. Some words not containing a glottal stop are listed in (22), and some containing a glottal stop in (23).

- |      |              |                            |                 |   |
|------|--------------|----------------------------|-----------------|---|
| (22) | [‘a.fã]      | [ĩ.'ha.ma]                 | [a.pe.'tʃo.khi] | [k <sup>h</sup> a.fai.se.'k <sup>h</sup> õã. <sup>n</sup> gi] |
|      | 'speak'      | 'heart'                    | 'trousers'      | 'seven'   |
| (23) | [‘a.feʔ.põẽ] | [‘a.siʔ.t <sup>h</sup> ãẽ] | [‘aʔ.hi]        | [‘ja.jaʔ.pa]  |
|      | 'pay'        | 'think'                    | 'vomit'         | 'grease'  |

Borman (1976), however, takes the phonological word as his point of departure, and therefore includes words containing clitics in his analysis. Given that many clitics start

with a glottal stop, this explains in part why he has to make a distinction between words that do and do not contain a glottal stop. It therefore seems better to define the domain of stress assignment in morphosyntactic terms. Using this type of domain, the stress position within words can then in most cases be defined with respect to the (basic or derived) stem it contains. The examples in (24) through (26) show that, in general, the addition of inflectional suffixes and/or clitics does not affect the stress position within a word, while the addition of derivational suffixes does.

(24)	[ 'seʔ.he]	[ 'seʔ.he.je]	[ 'seʔ.heʔ.fa.ja]	[seʔ.'he.pa]
	heal	heal-INF	heal=SBJ.PL=IRR	heal-NMLZ
				'medicine'
(25)	[ 'kan.se]	[ 'kan.se.je]	[ 'kan.se.pa]	[kan.'se.pa]
	live	live-INF	live=SS	live-NMLZ
				'life'
(26)	[o'vak <sup>h</sup> o]	[o'vak <sup>h</sup> o=ʔʃo]	[ova'k <sup>h</sup> o-pa]	
	chop	chop=SUB	chop-NMLZ	
		'axe'	'adze'	

In some cases, there are minimal pairs only distinguished by stress. Repetti-Ludlow et al (2019) provide the following example:

- (27) a. [ 'nēpi] 'disappear'  
 b. [nē'pi] 'arrive'

Within these cases, sometimes stress distinguishes between nouns and verbs, as shown in the verbal and nominal uses of [ã<sup>n</sup>de] 'land, reach land' and [pi.je] 'wife, marry a woman' in (28)-(29). These two parts of speech (see Section 3.3) thus have a clear correlate in the prosodic system of the language.

(28)	[ã <sup>n</sup> de]	[ 'ã <sup>n</sup> de]
	'reach land (V)'	'land (N)'
(29)	[pi.'je]	[ 'pi.je]
	'marry a woman'	'wife'

In terms of sentence intonation, A'ingae systematically distinguishes between main and subordinate clauses. Main clauses have a rising pitch on the penultimate syllable, followed by a slight drop in pitch at the end of the intonational phrase. In subordinate clauses, high pitch is sustained on the last two syllables of the intonational phrase. This distinction between main and subordinate clauses ties in transparently with the clause-chaining strategy that is characteristic of A'ingae, where cosubordinate clauses are linked together and end with a main clause (see Section 7.4). Prosodic means are not used to distinguish illocutionary values of clauses. Declarative, interrogative, and imperative clauses have the same intonation. The distinction between them is expressed through segmental means.

## 2.5. Orthography

An orthography for A'ingae was developed in the sixties by Marlytte Bubs Borman and Roberta Borman and first used in R. Borman (1962). The first explicit description can be found in M.B. Borman (1976). From a linguistic point of view, the

orthography, though it is systematic, has some less transparent properties. Aspiration of plosives and affricates is shown through reduplication of the consonant, thus [t<sup>h</sup>] is represented as <tt> and [t<sup>h</sup>s] as <tss>. Furthermore, there are some clear Spanish traits in the orthography, such that a [k] in front of an [e] or an [i] is written <qu>, while it is written <c> in front of other vowels. Combining these two properties, an aspirated [k<sup>h</sup>] then becomes <qqu> in front of an [e] or an [i] and <cc> in front of other vowels.

A new orthography generally adopted by the A'ingae community solves these problems by using <k> for /k/ and an <h> following a consonant or affricate to show aspiration, thus <kh> for /k<sup>h</sup>/. Prenasalized consonants are written as a combination of a homorganic nasal and the relevant consonant, thus <mb> for [m<sup>b</sup>], etc. A further change is that the new orthography uses the vowel symbols <a, e, I, u, û> and rather than the series <a, e, i, o, u> used in the Borman orthography.

In both the Borman and the new orthography, nasal and nasalized vowels are represented by adding an <n> to the vowel, except when this vowel is preceded or followed by a nasal consonant or followed by a prenasalized consonant, in which case the <n> is dropped. For instance, <adan> is used for [adã] ‘Adam’, but <aiña> rather than <aiñan> for [aiɲã] ‘tame’. In nasal diphthongs the <n> is written only once, following the diphthong as a whole, and only if the diphthong is not preceded or followed by a nasal consonant or followed by a prenasalized consonant. For instance, <ashaen> is the orthographic representation of [aʃãẽ] ‘start’. Words borrowed from Spanish and still recognized as being Spanish generally maintain their original orthography. An overview of the orthographic manifestation(s) of individual phonemes is given in Table 3 for consonants and Table 4 for vowels.

**Table 3. Consonants—orthography**

/p/	<p, mb>	<sup>n</sup> /g/	<ng, g>	<sup>n</sup> dz/	<nz, z>
/p <sup>h</sup> /	<ph>	/f/	<f>	<sup>n</sup> dʒ/	<ndy, dy>
/t/	<t, nd>	/s/	<s>	/m/	<m>
/t <sup>h</sup> /	<th>	/ʃ/	<sh>	/n/	<n>
/k/	<k>	/h/	<j>	/ɲ/	<ñ>
/k <sup>h</sup> /	<kh>	/tʃ/	<ts>	/r/	<r>
/ʔ/	<ʔ>	/tʃ/	<ch>	/v/	<v, m>
<sup>m</sup> b/	<mb, b>	/tʃ <sup>h</sup> /	<tsh>	/j/	<y, ñ>
<sup>n</sup> d/	<nd, d>	/tʃ <sup>h</sup> /	<chh>	/ɥ/	<g>

**Table 4. Vowels—orthography**

/i/	<i, in>	/ĩ/	<in, i>
/ĩ/	<û, ûn>	/ĩ̃/	<ûn, û>
/o/	<u, un>	/õ/	<un, u>
/e/	<e, en>	/ẽ/	<en, e>
/a/	<a, an>	/ã/	<an, a>

### 3. Word classes and morphological structure

#### 3.1. Basic morphological profile and formative types

The relevant units in the morphology of A'ingae are stems, clitics, and suffixes. Apart from suffixation, reduplication and vowel lengthening occur as morphological processes. Stems may be free or bound, in the sense that some do not require additional morphology to be used as a morphosyntactic word, while others do. Example (30)

illustrates the occurrence of free stems as words.

- (30) *ñá=ma=tsû*                      *kukuya*      *an*  
 1.SG=ACC.REAL=3      devil              eat  
 ‘The devil ate me.’  
 (20060118-BM-Interview-0102.873)

In (30) both the stem *kukuya* ‘devil’ and the stem *an* ‘eat’ are used in syntax without additional morphology; *ñá* 1SG is another stem that could have been used by itself, but is not here. Free stems may be subdivided into nouns, verbs, and meteorological words (see Section 3.3).

There are at least 35 bound stems. These all express properties or states and are undetermined as regards their part of speech membership (Section 3.3) and therefore can be considered to constitute a class of flexible stems. For instance, in (31a) the bound stem *bia* ‘long’ combines with the attributive clitic =*a* in a nominal word, whereas in (31b) it combines with the causative suffix *-ña* in a verbal word.

- (31) a. *bia*’=*a*                                      *dû’shû*                                      (\**bia dû’shû*)  
 long=ATTR                                      child  
 ‘tall child’ (elic.)  
 b. *tutu-fa-’khu=ve=tsû*                                      *bia-ña=’fa=’ya*  
 white-CLF:lateral=AUG=ACC.IRR=3                      long-CAUS=SBJ.PL=ASS  
 ‘They lengthened (the cotton) into white rope.’  
 (20040215-03-LC-Unfendyu’ndyu-042)

Similarly, in (32a) the bound stem *amûnde* ‘dirty’ combines with the causative suffix *-en*, creating a verbal word; in (32b) with the quality marker =*tshi*, creating a property word; in (32c) with the quality marker and adverbializer =*e*, creating an adverbial word; and in (32d) with the contrastive topic marker =*ja*, creating a nominal word. Without any marker the use of this stem would be ungrammatical.

- (32) a. *amûnde-an*  
 dirty-CAUS  
 ‘make dirty’  
 (20060122-TA-JuicioTexacone-0099.193)  
 b. *amûnde=tshi*  
 dirty-QUAL  
 ‘dirty’  
 (20050710-Letter-2-003)  
 c. *amûnde=tsh=e*  
 dirty-QUAL=ADVR  
 ‘in a dirty manner’  
 (20040202- FASC-Panzaye-2-011)  
 d. *amûnde=ja*  
 dirty=CNTR.TOP  
 ‘dirty one’  
 (20040202-FASC-Panzaye-2-087)

A special class of bound stems is the one that contains the stems of ignorative words, that is, words that can be used as interrogative or indefinite pro-forms. Thus the

bound stem *ma-* IGNR1 is present in the following ignorative words.<sup>1</sup>

- (33) a *ma=jan*  
 IGNR1=CNTR.TOP  
 ‘who/someone, which/some’  
 b *ma=ni*  
 IGNR1=LOC  
 ‘where/somewhere’  
 c *ma=ne*  
 IGNR1=ABL  
 ‘from where/from somewhere’

A’ingae is very rich in clitics. There are no proclitics, only enclitics. There are sentence-level second-position enclitics and constituent-level enclitics, as in (34).

- (34) *atesû=ti=ki ke=ja Secoya a’i=ma*  
 know=INT=2 2.SG=CNTR.TOP Secoya person=ACC.REAL  
 ‘Do you know Secoya people?’  
 (20060118-MM-2-0503.367)

The first constituent in the clause, in this case the predicate, is followed by two sentence-level clitics, the interrogative clitic =*ti* and the subject clitic =*ki*. The second singular subject pronoun *ke* is followed by the constituent-level clitic =*ja*, which marks contrastive topics. The object *Secoya a’i* is followed by the constituent-level clitic =*ma*, which marks accusative case. As will be shown, sentence-level clitics have scope over the clause, while constituent-level clitics have scope over the relevant constituent.

There are two groups of constituent-level clitics. The first group attaches to referential noun phrases and subordinate clauses, the second group to predicate phrases. Examples of the first group are given in (35), of the second group in (36).

- (35) a *juva ñña dû’shû=ndekhû=’sû dû’shû*  
 DIST 1.SG child =HUM.PL=ATTR child  
 ‘those children of my children’  
 (20060118-LM-2-0306.901)  
 b *ingi=ma atesian=’sû pûshe’sû*  
 1.PL=ACC.REAL teach-ATTR woman  
 ‘the woman that teaches us’ (elic.)
- (36) a *tuya ñua’me Dureno=’sû=’fa=ngi*  
 still really Dureno=ATTR=SBJ.PL=1  
 ‘We were still really (people) from Dureno.’  
 (20060118-LM-3-0520.177)  
 b *fae a’ta=yi=ti fiesta-en-je=’fa*  
 one day=EXCL.FOC=INT party-CAUS-IPFV=SBJ.PL  
 ‘Do they party just for one day?’  
 (20060104-AQ-Matachi-0292.918)

<sup>1</sup> Other bound stems in this class are *jungue-* IGNR2 and *mi-* IGNR3. The semantic distribution of these bound stems is not entirely clear.

The clitic =*sû* ATTR attaches to a noun phrase in (35a) and to a clause in (35b). The clitic =*'fa* combines with a non-verbal predicate in (36a) and a verbal one in (36b).

The clitic status of the elements discussed here shows up most clearly in the fact that they display freedom of host selection. This is evident for the clausal clitics, as these attach to the first constituent in the clause irrespective of its category. Constituent-level clitics, however, also display this feature, as shown in the following examples, all involving the locative clitic =*ni*. The clitic =*ni* attaches to a demonstrative pronoun in (37a), to a noun in (37b), to an attributive adjective in (37c), and to an inflected verb in (37d). In all cases it attaches to the rightmost element of a noun phrase, independently of the category of that element.

- (37) a. *ju=ni*  
DIST=LOC  
'there'  
(20040202-FASC-Panzaye-1-034)
- b. *nasipa=ni*  
field=LOC  
'in the field'  
(20040215-03-LC-Unfendyu'ndyu-009)
- c. *tise ethi rande=ni*  
3.SG house big =LOC  
'in his big house'  
(20060118-BM-Interview-2653.057)
- d. *jingesû ja-ye tsa a'i cerveza=ma*  
HORT go-INF ANA person beer=ACC.REAL  
*chava-en-je=ni*  
buy-CAUS-IPFV=LOC  
'Let's go to where that man is selling beer.' (elic.)

Suffixes mostly have a derivational function. Six aspectual and two directional suffixes are the exception, and attach to verbs only. Example (38) illustrates the use of the causative and cislocative suffixes.

- (38) *se'je-an-ngi='fa=ja pa=ve da=sane*  
heal-CAUS-AM:GO&DO=SBJ.PL=IMP die=ACC.IRR become=NEG.PURP  
'Come here to get cured so you don't die.'  
(20040218-EC-Interview-039)

Derivational suffixes are found on nouns and verbs, and some of these can attach to both classes of words, as shown in (39).

- (39) a. *changu-en*  
hole-CAUS  
'make a hole'  
(20040202-FASC-Panzaye-3-008)
- b. *chava-en*  
buy-CAUS  
'sell'  
(20050701-MA-Letter-2-003)

Finally, reduplication and vowel lengthening occur as morphological processes. These are illustrated in (40) and (41) and express iterative and durative aspect.

- (40) *ingi=ma=tsû*      *iñe'=en*      *atu~tu='fa='ya*  
 1.PL=ACC.REAL=3    hurt=ADVR    chop~ITER=SBJ.PL=ASS  
 ‘They are going to chop us in a painful manner.’  
 (20040215-03-LC-Unfendyu’ndyu-028)

- (41) *ja=pa*    *thatha~:*      *akhûi-'khu-'chu=i'khû*  
 go=SS    search~DUR    paddle-CLF:angular-CLF:round=INS  
 ‘He went off and looked and looked with his paddle.’  
 (20060118-MM-2-0007.2)

### 3.2. Head and dependent marking

A’ingae is a dependent-marking language: at the clausal level argument roles are expressed through clitics that attach to the relevant NP and are not expressed on the verb. Subjects are expressed through second-position clitics at the clausal level, so that they mark neither heads nor dependents. These observations are illustrated in (42).

- (42) *rande*    *kuri-fi'ndi=ma=ngi*      *ke=nga=ja*      *afe*  
 big    gold-CLF:bits=ACC.REAL=1    2.SG=DAT=CNTR.TOP    give  
 ‘I gave you big money (a large bill).’  
 (20040218-EC-Interview-190)

This example shows the accusative clitic =*ma* attached to the P argument *rande kurifi'ndi* ‘big money’, and the dative clitic =*nga* attached to the recipient argument *ke* 2SG. The first-person subject is expressed through the first-person clitic =*ngi* that attaches to the first constituent of the clause, which here happens to be the P argument. If the verb had been in the first position, then that verb would have been the host for this clitic, as can be seen in (33) above.

Within noun phrases the pronominal possessor is unmarked when preposed and marked when postposed, while the possessive relationship is never marked on the head noun (43).

- (43) a. *ñã*      *tsa'u*  
 1.SG    house  
 ‘my house’  
 (20060118-BM-Interview-0702.642)
- b. *tsa'u*    *ñã=mbe*  
 house    1.SG=BEN  
 ‘my house’ (elic.)

Other case-marked noun phrases may also be used as a modifier within a noun phrase, but these require the addition of the attributive marker =*'su* when preceding the head noun, as illustrated in (44). The locative phrase *tsampi=ni* ‘in the forest’ is followed by the attributive clitic =*'sû*, which allows it to be used as a nominal modifier. In this case there are thus two subsequent instances of dependent marking.



- (49) a. *duscientus uchenta dular=ma gana-je='fa=ma*  
 two.hundred eighty dollar=ACC.REAL earn-IPFV=SBJ.PL=ACC.REAL
- in'jan kan-se veintidos a'ta=nga*  
 think look-DUR twenty two day=DAT  
 'Imagine, they earn 280 dollars, in 22 days.'  
 (20050701-BandT-Spontaneous-0733.481)
- b. *ji=pa ana a'ta*  
 come=SS sleep day  
 'After coming (he) slept and dawned (i.e., got up at dawn).'  
 (20040215-01-LC-Tetetene)

Numerals constitute a further class of free stems. A'ingae numerals are gradually disappearing from the language. Most speakers use the A'ingae words *fûe* 'one' and *khuangi* 'two', and sometimes the word *khuanifûe* 'three'. From three onwards, counting generally proceeds using Spanish loans. Other originally A'ingae numerals (Borman 1976) are *khathûfayi* 'four', *fûefayi* 'five', *khafaiseyi* 'six', *khafaise(yi)khuangi* 'seven', *khafaise(yi)khuanifûe* 'eight', *khafaise(yi)khathûfayi* 'nine', *tive pa'tshi* 'ten' (or the Quechua loan *chunga*), and *tsû'thepi pa'tshi* 'twenty' (or *khuangi chungu*).

There is also a small class of adverbial stems, which can be distinguished on morphological and syntactic grounds. Adverbs never take any inflection and occur as adjuncts within the clause. The following is a list of all adverbs identified so far.

- (50) Manner: *jûnde* 'quickly', *tuyi* 'involuntarily', *vasûi* 'slowly'  
 Degree: *ba've* 'more or less', *buve* 'more', *panshen* 'very'  
 Phasal: *khase* 'again', *pan* 'almost', *tayu* 'already', *tuya* 'still, yet'  
 Temporal: *ja'ñu* 'now', *kani* 'yesterday', *kanite* 'day before yesterday',  
*mingûite* 'never', *umbue* 'later', *tayupi* 'formerly' (of Quechua  
 origin), *tsangae* 'forever', *tse'i* 'then', *tû'i* 'tomorrow', *vaeyi*  
 'recently', *zie* 'hardly'  
 Modal: *akhia* 'just', *isha* 'really', *mûite* 'difficultly', *nane* 'surely', *ñua'me*  
 'truly'

Finally, there is a small number of basic adjectives: *ega* 'bad', *kipa* 'yellow', *kuenza* 'old', *kûna* 'raw', *u'tie* 'first', *chipiri* 'small', *sape* 'flat', and *tsu'si* 'deep'. Some adjectives have been borrowed from Spanish: *barato* 'cheap', *español* 'Spanish', *karo* 'expensive', *rande* 'big', and *suave* 'easy'.

## 4. Noun phrases

### 4.1. The overall structure of the noun phrase

The A'ingae noun phrase has the overall structure shown in Table 5. Word order in the noun phrase is in certain aspects relatively flexible, as most modifiers may precede or follow the head noun. Determiners, unmarked possessors and numerals always precede the noun and its modifier. There is no agreement within the noun phrase.

**Table 5. Template of the noun phrase**

-4	-3	-2	-1	0	+1	+2	+3
Determiner	Unmarked possessor	Numeral	Other modifiers	Head	Other modifiers	Enclitics number and Size	Enclitic nominal tense
Demonstrative			Adjective	Pronoun	Adjective	Associative (=pa/=mba)	Nominal past
Quantifier			Noun phrase	Noun	Noun phrase	Augmentative (=’u(n))	(=’ye/=’ñe)
Specificity-marker			Relative clause	Derived noun	Relative	Collective (=nakhû)	
Sameness-marker			Adverb	Compound	clause	Human plural (=ndekhû)	
				Ø			

## 4.2. The heads of noun phrases

### 4.2.1. Pronominal heads

Personal pronouns (Table 6) distinguish three persons (first, second, third) and two numbers (singular, plural), while no gender or clusivity distinctions are made. The same set is used for the expression of the possessor within noun phrases.

**Table 6. Personal pronouns**

	SINGULAR	PLURAL
1	<i>ña</i> ‘I, my’	<i>ingi</i> ‘we, our’
2	<i>ke</i> ‘you, your’	<i>ke’i</i> ‘you all, your’
3	<i>tise</i> ‘he/she/it, his/her/its’	<i>tisepa</i> ‘they, their’

Pronominal second-position subject clitics express person but no number (Table 7). These clitics are used when a new topic is introduced.

**Table 7. Second-position subject clitics**

1	= <i>ngi</i>
2	= <i>ki</i>
3	= <i>tsû</i>

These pronouns and clitics may cooccur in the same sentence (51).

- (51) *ke=ta=ki*                      *fûenga=sû*              *kompañeru=ma*  
 2.SG=NEW.TOP=2              together=ATTR      companion=ACC.REAL

*kukama=ngae*  
 mixed.blood=MANNER  
 ‘You will speak Spanish with your friends.’  
 (20060118-LM-2-0173.214)

There is a single reflexive pronoun *tisû* that is used in all persons and numbers, both at the clause level and as a possessor within a noun phrase, as in (52) and (53).

- (52) *tisû=ma*                      *afa’cho*  
 REFL=ACC.REAL              think=SUB  
 ‘the thing he said to himself’  
 (BC03.035)

- (53) *tisû*              *antia=me*                      *a’mbia=ndi=ki*              *Colombia=ni*  
 REFL              relative=ACC.IRR              have=INT=2              Colombia=LOC  
 ‘Have you got your own relatives in Colombia?’  
 (20040218-SC)

There is a five-way distinction in demonstratives, as listed in Table 8.

**Table 8. Demonstratives**

DEMONSTRATIVE	GLOSS	MEANING/USE
---------------	-------	-------------

<i>va</i>	PROX	proximal
<i>juva</i>	DIST	distal
<i>ya</i>	SENS	sensory deixis
<i>tsa</i>	ANA	anaphoric reference to entity or event
<i>tse</i>	ANA.LOC	anaphoric reference to location or time

The proximal is used with referents located near the speaker. The distal *juva* ‘that, yonder’ is used when the referent is located further away from the speaker, including non-visible locations. The proximal and distal can be used both independently and adnominally. The sensory demonstrative *ya* is used in the expression of sensory deixis. That is, it is used to refer to entities that can be perceived through one of the senses, such as a sound or a smell; it always appears on its own, that is, it is not used as a noun modifier. Example (54) illustrates the use of this demonstrative (n.b., *ya* refers to a grunting noise heard).

- (54) *ya=ta=tsû*                      *Amado chanange*  
 SENS=NEW.TOP=3    *Amado paca*  
 ‘That, Amado, was a paca.’  
 (20040202-FASC-Panzaye-2-043)

There are two anaphoric demonstratives: *tsa* is used for entities (55) and events (56); *tse* is used for locations (57) and time intervals (58). The former can be used both independently and adnominally.

- (55) *a’i=ma*                      *indi.*              *Kukuya*              *tsa=ma*              *an*  
 person=ACC.REAL    seize.              demon              ANA=ACC.REAL    eat  
 ‘He (the demon) seized the man. The demon ate him.’  
 (BC09.011-012)

- (56) *tise*              *pûshe*              *tayu*              *athe*              *tsa=ma*  
 3.SG    wife              already              see              ANA=ACC.REAL  
 ‘His wife had already seen that (the redness of the eyes of the devil).’  
 (BC09.032)

- (57) *tse=ni=tsû*              *a’jû=pa*              *di’sha=ve*              *da*  
 ANA.LOC=LOC=3    vomit=SS              blossom=ACC.IRR    become  
 ‘There they vomit and become apprentices.’  
 (20060118-BM-Interview-1556.153)

- (58) *tse=tsû*              *thesi*              *na’sû=ma*              *da*  
 ANA.LOC=3              tiger              chief=ACC.REAL    become  
 ‘Then the tiger became the chief.’  
 (20040218-SC)

Ignorative pro-forms are based on bound ignorative stems (Section 3.1). Two have a pronominal use: *junguesû* ‘what/something’ and *majan* ‘who/someone’, as shown in (59) and (60).

- (59) a. *jungue=sû=tsû*  
 IGN2=ATTR=3

- ‘What is it?’  
(20040202-FASC-Panzaye-2-024)
- b. *tayupi='kan jungue='sû=ma chava-je='fa=mbi=si*  
 already=SIM IGNR2=ATTR=ACC buy-IPFV=SBJ.PL=NEG=DS  
 ‘For a long time they have not been buying anything.’  
 (20050701-MA-Letter-2-004)
- (60) a. *ma=jan=tsû ka'ni-an*  
 IGNR1=CONTR.TOP=3 enter-CAUS  
 ‘Who let him in?’  
 (20040202-FASC-Panzaye-3-002)
- b. *ma=jan=jan kurifi'ndi*  
 IGNR1=CNTR.TOP=CNTR.TOP money  
 ‘Some even (received) money.’  
 (20040218-EC-Interview-182)

#### 4.2.2. Nominal heads of noun phrases

As mentioned in Section 3.3, there is a clearly identifiable class of nouns in A'ingae. In (61) a noun is used directly as the head of a noun phrase.

- (61) *biani='sû ande*  
 far-ATTR country  
 ‘a far-away country’  
 (20050701-MA-Letter-3-021)

Compounds may also occupy the head position of a noun phrase. In (62), *kuchhi nan* ‘pig meat’ is a compound, modified as a whole by *kû'ama* ‘red’. In (63), *charapa dûsû'chu* is a compound, where the second element is itself a nominalization derived with a classifier. In compounds the modifying element always precedes the head.

- (62) *va kuchhi nan kû'=a=ma*  
 PROX pig meat red=ADJR=ACC.REAL  
 ‘this red pig meat’ (elic.)
- (63) *tša charapa dûsû-'chu*  
 ANA charapa.turtle conceive-CLF:round  
 ‘that charapa turtle egg’ (elic.)

Heads of noun phrases may also be derived nouns. There is a habitual agent nominalizer (*-fasi*), and a versatile nominalizer *-pa/-mba* that produces action nominals but also nouns denoting entities involved in some way in the action denoted by the verb, as illustrated in (64) and (65).

- (64) *ku'fe-fasi*  
 play-HAB.NMLZ  
 ‘playful person’
- (65) a. *ku'fe-pa*  
 play-NMLZ

- ‘game’
- b. *se’je-pa*  
heal-NMLZ  
‘medicine’
- c. *khana-mba*  
steal-NMLZ  
‘thief’

An important set of nominalizing suffixes express various shapes of objects (Dąbkowski 2017; Pride 2017). They are classifier-like in their meanings, but have a derivational status in A’ingae, as they can derive nouns from verbs (66a), basic nouns (66b), derived nouns (66c), and pro-forms (66d)

- (66) a. *dû’sû-’chu*  
conceive-CLF:round  
‘egg’  
(20040218-EC-Interview-227)
- b. *bu’mbu-je*  
chonta.palm-CLF:flat  
‘leaf of a chonta palm’  
(20060119-AnC-Cunsiana-02-0060.734)
- c. *khupa-’thi-khû*  
defecate-LOC.NMLZ-CLF:delimited  
‘buttocks’  
(20040202-FASC-Panzaye-2-058)
- d. *va-ki*  
PROX-CLF:linear  
‘this road/river’ (elic.)

The full set of suffixes producing nouns is given in Table 9.

**Table 9. Noun-producing suffixes**

<i>V-pa/-mba</i>	NMLZ	nominalizer
<i>V-fasi</i>	HAB.NMLZ	habitual nominalizer
<i>X-’chu</i>	CLF:round	classifier round or small
<i>X-’fa</i>	CLF:lateral	classifier lateral
<i>X-fin’di</i>	CLF:splinter	classifier splinter-like
<i>X-fu’chu</i>	CLF:scattered	classifier scattered
<i>X-je(n)</i>	CLF:flat	classifier flat
<i>X-jin</i>	CLF:large	classifier large
<i>X-ki</i>	CLF:linear	classifier linear
<i>X-’khu</i>	CLF:angular	classifier angular
<i>X-khû</i>	CLF:delimited	classifier delimited
<i>X-si</i>	CLF:spiny	classifier spiny
<i>X-ite</i>	TEMP.NMLZ	temporal nominalizer
<i>N-e(n)</i>	PLACE	place name

#### 4.2.3. Headless noun phrases

Finally, noun phrases may be, and frequently are, headless. In (67b) the human plural clitic is attached to an attributive phrase with the clitic = 'sû, just as it attaches to a regular noun in (67a). In (68a) an attributive phrase ending in =a(n) modifies a head noun, while in (68b) it is used referentially without a nominal head.

- (67) a. *dû'shû=ndekhû*  
 child=HUM.PL  
 'children'  
 (BC02.008)
- b. *san'jan='sû=ndekhû*  
 season=ATTR=HUM.PL  
 'those who seasoned the food'  
 (20060104-AQ-Matachi-0040.546)
- (68) a. *sin='u=an*                      *kanjansi*  
 black=AUG=ADJR      boa  
 'a black boa'  
 (BC14.022)
- b. *ñu=tshi=a*  
 good-QUAL=ADJR  
 'a good one'  
 (20050701-MA-Letter-2-039)

### 4.3. Modification

As shown in Table 5, the types of modifiers of nouns to be distinguished in A'ingae are unmarked possessor, numerals, and other modifiers. Within the last class, one should distinguish adjectives, noun phrases (unmarked or case-marked), adverbs, and relative clauses. The discussion of the latter will be postponed until Section 7.3.4.

#### 4.3.1. Adjectival modifiers

There are only few basic adjectives in A'ingae, and these were listed in Section 3.3. These are supplemented by derived ones. In (69) *kûna* is a basic adjective, while *kû'* is a bound stem that has to be accompanied by the adjectivalizer =a in order to be used attributively.

- (69) *kû'=a*                              *nan*      *kûna*  
 red=ADJR                              meat      new  
 'raw red meat' (elic.)

The adjectivalizer often combines with the quality marker =tshi, which derives quality stems from verbal stems and bound stems. An example is given in (70). The clitic =tshi may also combine with the adverbializer =e to create adverbial expressions, as in *ñu='tsh=e* 'well' (good=QUAL=ADVR).

- (70) *ñu=tshi=a*                              *a'i*  
 be.good-QUAL=ADJR      person  
 'a good person' (elic.)

The adjective may precede or follow the noun, as shown in the pair in (71).

- (71) a. *kiya rande*  
 agouti big  
 ‘a big agouti’  
 (20040202-FASC-Panzaye-1-016)
- b. *rande kiya*  
 big agouti  
 ‘a big agouti’  
 (20040202-FASC-Panzaye-1-017)

#### 4.3.2. Noun phrases, adverbs, and numerals as modifiers

Adverbs and noun phrases other than possessor phrases provided with the attributive clitic = *'sû* may act as modifiers preceding the noun. The following examples illustrate the modifying use of a bare noun phrase (72), a noun phrase marked for its semantic role (73), a temporal adverb (74), and a locative adverb (75).

- (72) *na'en= 'sû kukuya*  
 river=ATTR devil  
 ‘the river devil’  
 (20060118-BM-Interview-0016.82)
- (73) *tsampi=ni= 'sû tsa'u=nga=ja napi= 'fa= 'ya*  
 forest=LOC=ATTR house=DAT=CNTR.TOP arrive=SBJ.PL=ASS  
 ‘They reached their own forest house.’ (elic.)
- (74) *tayupi= 'sû a'i*  
 formerly=ATTR person  
 ‘the people from the past’  
 (20050701-MA-Letter-3-006)
- (75) *bia=ni= 'sû ande*  
 far=LOC=ATTR land  
 ‘a country far away’  
 (20050701-MA-Letter-3-021)

Nominal modifiers with the attributive clitic = *'sû* are different from compounds (Section 4.2.2), as compounds are combinations of lexical units, while the modifier with = *'sû* is a phrasal unit.

Function-marked noun phrases may also follow the head noun, and in that case do not take the attributive clitic, as shown in (76) through (78).

- (76) *shavu chipiri khuangi a'i=mbe*  
 canoe small two person=BEN  
 ‘a small canoe for two persons’ (elic.)
- (77) *tsa sinjûnkhu rande tsampi sepakhue-fa*  
 ANA valley big forest behind-CLF:lateral

‘that big valley behind the forest’ (elic.)

- (78) *tsa’u ña=mbe*  
house 1.SG=BEN  
‘my house’ (elic.)

Possessor phrases do not encode an alienability distinction. When used as modifiers, they behave differently from other function-marked noun phrases. Example (78) shows that in postnominal position a possessor phrase behaves in the same way as other function-marked noun phrases. But when the possessor phrase precedes the noun in the general modifier position, it does not have to be accompanied by the attributive (79).

- (79) *pûshesû=ndekhû=mbe thena’ngu*  
woman=HUM.PL=BEN leg  
‘women’s laps’  
(20060104-AQ-Matachi-0178.903)

Furthermore, when a pronominal possessor precedes the noun, it may occur in its bare form, that is, without a case marker and without the attributive clitic, in a special position preceding the numeral, while other modifiers follow the numeral, as in (80) and (81). These examples also illustrate the special position that numerals occupy within the template of the noun phrase: following the bare possessor phrase and preceding other modifiers.

- (80) *tsa ke khuangi dû’shû*  
ANA 2.SG two child  
‘those two children of yours’ (elic.)

- (81) *khuangi rande shavu*  
Two big canoe  
‘two big canoes’ (elic.)

#### 4.4. Grammatical elements in the noun phrase

Grammatical elements internal to the noun phrase may be found in slots -4, +2, and +3 in the template in Table 5. Position -4 hosts free grammatical words; positions +2 and +3 host a number of enclitics. Position -4 may be occupied by the demonstratives *va* PROX, *tsa* ANA and *juva* DIST. Other elements that may occupy this position are quantifiers other than numerals, the specificity marker, and sameness markers. Demonstratives were discussed in Section 4.2.1, as they may be used as heads of noun phrases as well. The other categories are discussed here.

A’ingae has regular universal and distributive quantifiers, as in (82) and (83).

- (82) *pa’khu ña chhichhi’khu*  
UNIV.QNT 1.SG knife  
‘all my knives’ (elic.)

- (83) *pûi puzu*  
DISTR.QNT well  
‘each well’ (elic.)

Non-specificity is marked optionally by means of the ignorative word *manjan* (84).

- (84) *injan=ngi afa-ye manjan tsandie=i'khû*  
 want=1 talk-INF which/some man=INS  
 'I want to talk to any man.' (elic.)

Finally, the words *tue* SAME and *fûesû* OTHER may be used in this position, as illustrated in (85) and (86).

- (85) *chhichhi=tsû na=ma tue chhichhi'khu=i'khû=yi*  
 cut=3 meat=ACC.REAL SAME knife=INS=EXCL.FOC  
 'He cut the meat with the same knife.' (elic.)

- (86) *chava=ngi fûesû simba-'khu=ma*  
 buy=1 OTHER fishing-CL:angular=ACC.REAL  
 'I bought a different fishing hook.' (elic.)

Clitics in position +2 may be occupied by markers of plurality and size. Only noun phrases referring to humans may (but need not) be marked for plurality. The general human plural marker =*ndekhû* is illustrated in (87). It may attach to all elements that can head a noun phrase.

- (87) *pûshesû=ndekhû*  
 woman=HUM.PL  
 'women'  
 (20060118-MM-1-0036.938)

Another clitic, =*nakhû* (88), is used to create a collective expression and is also restricted to human referents.

- (88) *pûshesû=nakhû*  
 woman=COLL  
 'a group of women' (elic.)

Additionally, there is an associative clitic that indicates that the referents of the noun phrase are associated with the head noun (89).

- (89) *mandarena=pa*  
 Magdalena=ASSC  
 'the missionaries that are with Magdalena'  
 (20050701-MA-Letter-2-005)

Plurality of subjects may also be indicated by the verbal clitic =*'fa* SBJ.PL (Section 5.3).

A final clitic with a rather complicated meaning that occurs in this position is =*'u*. This augmentative clitic generally co-occurs either with the classifier -*'chu* CLF:round, or with the classifier -*'khu* CLF:angular. The former often has an approbative connotation, while the latter often has a pejorative connotation. The addition of the clitic =*'u* reinforces these connotations. Examples are (90) and (91).

(90) *da muñeku- 'chu= 'u*  
 FILLER doll-CLF:round=AUG  
 ‘And the little doll?’  
 (20040202-FASC-Panzaye-1-014)

(91) *ta'e- 'khu= 'u juva=ja tuyá*  
 hard-CLF:angular=AUG DIST=CNTR.TOP already  
 ‘That one is freaking hard.’  
 (20060119-AnC-Consiana-01-0068.651)

In position +3 only one enclitic occurs. This is the nominal past enclitic = 'ye (92), which refers to deceased persons and often has an honorific overtone.

(92) *hashe 'ye=ndekhû= 'ye*  
 old.man=HUM.PL=NOM.PST  
 ‘the late elders’  
 (20060104-AQ-Matachi-0367.446)

Note that, as shown in (92), this enclitic may follow the human plural clitic =ndekhû, which occupies position +2.

#### 4.5. The noun phrase as a clausal constituent

The noun phrase as described in the preceding sections when embedded in the clause may be followed by a series of clitics which signal its role in the clause and in the discourse. The clitics occur in a fixed order (93), where the NP position may be internally complex (Table 5). This order is illustrated in (94).

(93) NP=Case=Focus=Givenness

(94) *kha=nga=yi=ta*  
 other=DAT=EXCL.FOC=NEW.TOP  
 ‘to the others only’  
 (20060119-AnC-Consiana-01-02-0430.455)

The case markers of A'ingae are listed in Table 10.

**Table 10. Case markers**

= <i>ma</i>	ACC.REAL	realis accusative
= <i>ve/=me</i>	ACC.IRR	irrealis accusative
= <i>mbe</i>	BEN	beneficiary
= <i>nga</i>	DAT	dative
= <i>ye/=ñe</i>	ELAT	elative
= <i>i'khû</i>	INS	instrument
= <i>'pi</i>	LIM	limitative
= <i>ni</i>	LOC	locative
= <i>ngae</i>	MANN	manner, path
= <i>ne</i>	SO	ablative

Noteworthy in A'ingae is the existence of two different case markers for P arguments,

here called ‘realis accusative’ and ‘irrealis accusative’, as the case markers indicate the reality status of the P argument (see also Karsten 2020). The irrealis accusative is used in negative sentences, and when the P argument depends on a verb expressing desire, causation, or creation; that is, it is used for P arguments that are not (yet) present or do not (yet) exist at the reference time. Some examples are given in (95) and (96).

- (95) *matichi=ve=ta=ti=ki*                      *in'jan=fa*  
 machete=ACC.IRR=NEW.TOP=INT=2      want=SBJ.PL  
 ‘Do you want machetes?’  
 (BC01.032)

- (96) *khu'a=ve*                      *me'i'un*  
 squash=ACC.IRR    NEGP  
 ‘There were no squash.’  
 (BC07.043)

The realis accusative is used for P arguments that are present or do exist at the reference time, and is illustrated in (97).

- (97) *sumbu-en=jan*                      *ain-fa='u=ma*  
 emerge-CAUS=IMP    dog-CLF:lateral=AUG=ACC.REAL  
 ‘Get the dog out.’  
 (20040202-FASC-Panzaye-2-007)

The irrealis accusative is also used to mark depictives, as shown in (98).

- (98) *amûnde=tshi=ve*                      *tsun='fa=ya*  
 dirty-QUAL=ACC.IRR    do=SBJ.PL=IRR  
 ‘We’ll make it dirty.’  
 (20040202-FASC-Panzaye-2-120)

The case markers may be followed by up to two markers of information status, as already indicated in (93). There are two focus markers and two topic markers (Table 11). A further example of their ordering is given in (99).

- (99) *amûndega=tsû*    *ain=khe=ja*  
 mad=3                      dog=ADD.FOC=CNTR.TOP  
 ‘How mad that dog is.’  
 (20040202-FASC-Panzaye-2-056)

**Table 11. Clitics marking information status**

= <i>khe</i>	ADD.FOC	additive focus
= <i>yi/=ñi</i>	EXCL.FOC	exclusive focus
= <i>ta/=nda</i>	NEW.TOP	new topic
= <i>ja(n)</i>	CNTR.TOP	contrastive topic

## 5. Predicate phrases

### 5.1. The overall structure of the predicate phrase

Predicate phrases may be verbal on the one hand and non-verbal or auxiliary on the other. Verbal predicates can take suffixes and a wider range of clitics than non-verbal predicates and auxiliary constructions. These ranges are given in Table 12

**Table 12. Template of the predicate phrase**

-1	0				+1	+2	+3	+4
	Head							
Adjunct	0	+1	+2	+3	Number	Mood	Negation	Illocution
	Head	Aspect	Aspect, Direction	Event location, Relative tense				
Manner and Degree adverb(s)	V	Durative (lengthening) Iterative (reduplication)	Imperfective (- <i>je(n)</i> )	Distal (- <i>nga</i> )	Plural subject (= 'fa)			Imperative (= <i>ja(n)</i> ) Prohibitive (= <i>jama</i> ) Mitigated imperative (= <i>kha</i> )
			Preculminative (- <i>ji(n)</i> )	Posterior (- <i>ye/-ñe</i> )				
			Prospective (- <i>yi/-ñi</i> )	Simultaneous (- <i>in</i> )				
			Diminutive (- <i>kha</i> )					
			Iterative (- <i>ñakha</i> )			Irrealis (= <i>ya/=ñā</i> )	Negation (= <i>mbi</i> )	Assertive (= ' <i>ya/=ñā</i> )
			Quality (= <i>tshi</i> )			Counter-expectation (= ' <i>ma</i> )		
			Cislocative (- <i>ngi</i> )					
			Translocative (- <i>nga</i> )					
	Auxiliary constructions, non-verbal predicates							
	Prospective (V- <i>ye/-ñe</i> + <i>tson-jen</i> ) Intrinsic ability (V- <i>ye/-ñe</i> + <i>osha</i> ) Acquired ability (V- <i>ye/-ñe</i> + <i>atesû</i> ) Habitual (V- <i>ye/-ñe</i> + <i>atesû</i> ) Habitual (V= <i>pa+kanse</i> ) Non verbal predicates, including: Habitual (V= <i>khesu</i> ) Negative Habitual (V= <i>masia</i> ) Obligation (V= <i>ya/=ñā =cho</i> )							

Non-verbal predicates and auxiliary constructions do not allow the attachment of aspectual and directional suffixes and do not allow the expression of imperative and prohibitive mood. In what follows, we first discuss the possible fillers of the head position in the predicate phrase, then we will present the various groups of enclitics, the attachment of adjuncts, and finally we give an overview of the TMA system as a whole.

## 5.2. The head of the predicate phrase

Verb stems may be simple or derived. The latter include passive (100), reciprocal (101), and causative (102) stems, all created by means of suffixation.

(100) *chan=mba=nga=ja*                      *indi-ye='ya*  
 mother=ASSC=DAT=CNTR.TOP    hold-PASS=ASS  
 ‘He was grabbed by a woman.’  
 (20060104-AQ-Matachi-0070.477)

(101) *da*            *fi'thi-khu='fa='ya =tsû*  
 FILLER    kill-RECP=SBJ.PL=ASS=3  
 ‘They killed each other.’  
 (20050726-CL-1-0054.355)

(102) *sumbu-en=ja*  
 emerge-CAUS=IMP  
 ‘Get it out.’  
 (20040202-FASC-Panzaye-2-126)

Verbs may be aspectually modified through reduplication of the last syllable of the verb or by lengthening of the last vowel of the verb stem. This (modified) verb stem may then combine with directional and aspectual suffixes, which in turn may be followed by relative tense suffixes and event location suffixes, in that order, as shown in (103).

(103) *tû'i*            *t<sup>h</sup>û~t<sup>h</sup>û-ngi-ye*  
 tomorrow    fell~ITER-AM:GO&DO-INF  
 ‘Tomorrow we’ll come to fell it.’  
 (BC03.008)

These processes create verbal words out of verbal stems. As shown in Table 11, such a verbal word may then occupy the head position of a verbal predicate phrase.

The head position may also be occupied by the combination of a lexical verb in a non-finite form together with an auxiliary verb (104), in which the verb *atesû* ‘know’ is used as an auxiliary expressing habitual aspect.

- (104) *jungue=sû=ma=tsû*      *ñua 'me*      *tsetse 'pa=ve*  
 IGNR2=ATTR=ACC.REAL=3      really      chicha=ACC.IRR
- tsetse 'pa-en-ñe*      *atesû='fa*  
 chicha-CAUS-INF      HAB.AUX=SBJ.PL  
 'What did they use to make chicha with?'  
 (20060118-BM-Interview-1928.155)

Directional and aspectual suffixes cannot be added to auxiliaries, unless in a fixed combination. Thus, the verb *tsun* 'do', when used as an auxiliary expressing imminent future, necessarily combines with the imperfective (105).

- (105) *khasheye=ta*      *pa-ye*      *tsun-je=ña*  
 old.man=NEW.TOP      die-INF      do-IPFV=ASS  
 'The old man was about to die.'  
 (20040215-03-LC-Unfendyu'ndyu-023)

Non-verbal predicates may be of several types. They are indicated in square brackets in the following examples. Examples (106) through (108) show the predicative use of bare elements: a bound stem (106), an adjective (107), and a numeral (108).

- (106) *ñua 'me*      [*tansin*]='*fa=mbi*  
 truly      straight=PLS=NEG  
 'It is not settled yet.'  
 (20060118-LM-2-0542.989)
- (107) [*ega*]='*tsû*      *tsa*      *ain=ja*  
 bad=3      ANA      dog=CNTR.TOP  
 'That dog is bad.'  
 (Borman 1981: 20)
- (108) [*khuangi*]='*fa=tsû*  
 two=SBJ.PL=3  
 'They are two.'  
 (20040202-FASC-Panzaye-2-036)

Noun phrases may be used as predicates in different forms. An example with a simple noun phrase is given in (109), while in (110) the predicative noun phrase is a complex one, containing a 'chu relative clause.

- (109) [*antian*]='*fa='ya=tsû*  
 blood.relative=SBJ.PL=ASS=3  
 'They are blood relatives.'  
 (20050726-CL-1-0161.237)
- (110) *aipa*      *a 'i,*      *tsa=tsû*      [*ñua 'me*      *tsetse 'pa=ma*  
 Secoya      person      ANA=3      really      chicha=ACC
- kû 'i=pa*      *kanse='fa='chu*      *a 'i]='fa*  
 drink=SS      live=SBJ.PL=SUB      person=SBJ.PL

‘The Secoyas, those are the people that really drink chicha.’  
(20060118-BM-Interview-2152.797)

Function-marked noun phrases used as predicates are shown in (111) and (112).

(111) *ñā* [antia=mbe]=tsû  
1.SG blood.relative=BEN=3  
‘It is my brother’s/sister’s.’ (elic.)

(112) [va=ni]=tsû  
PROX=LOC=3  
‘Here it is.’  
(20040202-FASC-Panzaye-3-019)

Finally, headless noun phrases may be used predicatively too (113).

(113) *tša’u-ñā=mba* [tuya ñua’me ju=ni Dûrenu=’sû]=’fa=ngi  
house-CAUS=SS still really DIST=LOC Dureno=ATTR=SBJ.PL=1  
‘After building a house we were still really from that Dureno there.’  
(20060118-LM-3-0520.177)

Apart from bound stems, numerals, and noun phrases, the habitual and negative habitual participles may also be used as non-verbal predicates. The non-verbal nature of these participles can be seen in their attributive use illustrated in (114) and (115).

(114) *an=khesû te’ta-’chu*  
eat=HAB flower-CLF:round  
‘edible fruit’ (elic.)

(115) *atesû=masia a’i*  
know=NEG.HAB person  
‘ignorant people’  
(20050701-MA-Letter-2-040)

These same attributive participles can also be used predicatively, and then behave like other non-verbal predicates. This is shown in (116) and (117).

(116) [an=khesû]=tsû  
eat=HAB=3  
‘It is to be eaten.’  
(20040218-EC-Interview-071)

(117) *je’nda kûti’chu kuku=ta=ti* [tša=’ka=en fi’thi=masia]  
then yachapo demon=NEW.TOP=INT ANA=SIM=ADVR kill=NEG.HAB  
‘Then the yachapo demon is not killed like that?’  
(20040218-EC-Interview-0429.314)

### 5.3. Predicate clitics

The predicate may be followed by a range of clitics, as shown in Table 12. In position +1, only the plural subject clitic may occur. It indicates that the subject of the clause is plural (118).

- (118) *setsa=ne=nda=tsû ji='fa='ya*  
 low=ABL=NEW.TOP=3 come=SBJ.PL=ASS  
 ‘They came from downriver.’  
 (20060118-MM-2-0503.367)

Note that the second-position subject enclitic =*tsû* is unmarked for number. The plural interpretation arises only as a result of the presence of the plural subject enclitic =*'fa*.

Position +2 hosts the irrealis enclitic. Example (119) shows that it follows the plural subject enclitic.

- (119) *va 20 de va khuvû=ni=ngi bu='fa=ya khase*  
 PROX 20 of PROX moon=LOC=1 gather=SBJ.PL=IRR again  
 ‘The 20<sup>th</sup> of this month we will meet again.’  
 (20060122-TA-JuicioTexacone-0256.233)

The irrealis clitic may be used with non-verbal predicates, though with severe restrictions. Only demonstrative non-verbal predicates occur with this clitic (120).

- (120) *tsa=ya=tsû ingi kanse='chu=ja*  
 ANA=IRR=3 1.PL live=SUB=CNTR.TOP  
 ‘That will be our life.’  
 (002-002-EC-Interview-197)

But this restriction is often circumvented by using a periphrastic verbal construction using the verb *da* ‘become’ (121).

- (121) *ñajan fathakhu=ve da=ya*  
 1.SG=CNTR.TOP cliff=ACC.IRR become=IRR  
 ‘I’m going to become a cliff.’  
 (BC07.136)

In position +3, the negative enclitic =*mbi* occurs. Example (122) shows that it follows the plural subject enclitic and the modal enclitic.

- (122) *ja'ñu=nda=ngi mañan='fa=ya=mbi*  
 now=NEW.TOP=1 free=SBJ.PL=IRR=NEG  
 ‘Now we won’t let it go.’  
 (20040202-FASC-Panzaye-3-052)

Another clitic occurring in this position is the counterexpectational clitic =*'ma*. It follows the irrealis clitic, as shown in (123).

- (123) *a'vû-ye ji-'ma. Ma'kaen je'nda sa'vû=ya ñua'me*  
 warm.up-INF come=CNTRX how well warm.up truly

*cha'ndi='sû='kan*

cold=ATTR=SIM

'He came to warm up! Now how will he warm up being cold like that.'

(20060118-MM-2-0068.196)

Finally, in position +4 several illocutionary markers occur. One is the highly frequent but rather elusive clitic = 'ya. This clitic is interpreted here as indicating that the clause in which it occurs is an assertion. This analysis is warranted by the fact that this clitic does not cooccur with the interrogative, imperative, and prohibitive clitics, nor with the hortative particle. This clitic follows the negative clitic from position +3 (124).

(124) *tsa=ma=nda=tsû*      *shunchhan=ya=mbi='ya*

ANA=ACC=NEW.TOP=3    smell=IRR=NEG=ASS

'He will not smell that.'

(20040218-EC-Interview-0419.697)

Other illocutionary markers are the imperative, prohibitive, and mitigated imperative clitics. These may only be used with verbal predicates. As indicated in Table 12, they do not cooccur with the irrealis clitic in position +2 and the negative clitic in position +3, but they may cooccur with the plural subject marker, as illustrated for imperatives in (125).

(125) *kanse='fa=ja*

live=SBJ.PL=IMP

'Stay here.'

(20060119-AnC-Consiana-01-0316.491)

The fact that these clitics do not cooccur with the irrealis and negative clitics follows from the fact that irrealis is already implied by these forms, and that negation is expressed in the prohibitive form itself.

#### 5.4. Predicate adverbs

Manner and degree adverbs modifying a verbal or non-verbal predicate precede it, as shown in examples (126) and (127).

(126) *jûnde*      *ji=ja*

quickly      come=IMP

'Come quickly!'

20040202-FASC-Panzaye-2-002)

(127) *ba've*      *rande=tsû*

somewhat      big=3

'It is somewhat big.'

(20040202-FASC-Panzaye-2-027)

#### 5.5. Tense, aspect, mood, and polarity

##### 5.5.1. Introduction



aspect quantifies over events of subparts of events. There are three markers expressing qualificational aspect. First, the imperfective suffix *-je*, which is also used to express habitual aspect, is used in (131) to express progressive aspect.

- (131) *in'jan-je=mbi=tsû*      *Cadena=ja*  
 think-IPFV=NEG=3      Cadena=CNTR.TOP  
 ‘Cadena is acting silly.’ (lit. ‘Cadena is not thinking.’)  
 (20040202-FASC-Panzaye-2-021)

Next is a suffix *-ji* expressing preculminative aspect. In combination with a dynamic predicate, this expresses the process leading up to an endpoint (132). In combination with a stative predicate, it expresses the process leading up to the ingress into the state (133).

- (132) *ja'ñu=ja*      *atesû=mbi=gi*      *akhepa-ji=gi*  
 now=CNTR.TOP    know=NEG=1      forget-PRECU=1  
 ‘Nowadays I don’t know, I’m forgetting (and will eventually have forgotten).’  
 (20060118-BM-Interview-2275.889)

- (133) *dû'shû=ta=tsû*      *bia-ji*  
 child=NEW.TOP=3    long=PRECU  
 ‘The child is becoming tall.’ (i.e., will eventually be tall) (elic.)

The prospective aspect marker *ja-yi* is perhaps etymologically a combination of the verb *ja* ‘go’ and an aspectual marker. Since this aspectual marker is not found with any other verb, the combination may be considered lexicalized. It is used in constructions like the one in (134).

- (134) *avû*    *vachu='sû*    *ja-yi*  
 fish    net=ATTR    go-PROSP  
 ‘I am going fishing with my net.’  
 (BC11.005)

In other cases, prospective aspect is expressed through an auxiliary construction consisting of the posterior form of the main verb followed by the verb *tsun* ‘do’ in the imperfective, as illustrated in (135).

- (135) *matachi=ma=gi*      *kundase-ye*    *tsun-je*  
 Matachi.clown=ACC=1    tell-INF      PROSP.AUX-IPFV  
 ‘I’m going to tell you about the Matachi clown.’  
 (20060104-AQ-Matachi-0000.0)

Turning now to quantificational aspect distinctions, A’ingae turns out to be especially rich in expressions pertaining to this category. Durative aspect is expressed in A’ingae through vowel lengthening, as illustrated in (136).

- (136) *isû-an=mba*      *kan'jen~:*  
 give\_birth-CAUS=SS    live~DUR  
 ‘After having children they lived there for a long time.’  
 (BC01.049)

There are two ways of expressing repetitive aspect. The first is by means of the suffix *-ñakha* (137), the second is through reduplication of part of the stem (138).

- (137) *tsun=mba khatikhû-ñakha ka'ni-ji*  
do=SS crawl-REP enter-PRECUL  
‘Then crawling he started to enter.’  
(BC18.012)

- (138) *chhi~chhi=pa phiña=mba api=nga si'nge=nga utsian*  
slice~REP=ss put=SS pot=DAT fire=DAT put.on  
‘Having sliced it she put it in the pot and set it on the fire.’  
(BC13.021)

The imperfective suffix *-je* illustrated above as expressing progressive aspect, is used in (139) to express habitual aspect.

- (139) *tayupi=ja charapa dû'sûchu=ve kaje=ni*  
former=CNTR.TOP charapa.turtle egg=ACC.IRR downriver=LOC  
  
*ja-je='fa='ya*  
go-IPFV=PL=ASS  
‘In earlier times they used to go downriver for *charapa* eggs.’  
(20040218-EC-Interview-227)

The diminutive aspect suffix *-kha*, also used as a diminutive on nouns, is illustrated in (140) and indicates that an event took place for a short duration of time.

- (140) *asi'thaen-kha.*  
think-DIM  
‘Think a little bit.’  
(20060118-BM-Interview-1130.564)

There are two periphrastic constructions that express habitual and negative habitual aspect. The constructions are based on the habitual and negative habitual participles, used as non-verbal predicates (Section 5.2). They express habitual (141) and negative habitual (142) aspect.

- (141) *sûfuthu=khesû*  
float=HAB  
‘It was floatable.’  
(BC12.131)

- (142) *ka'ni-an=masia*  
enter-CAUS=FRUS=NEG.HAB  
‘He was impenetrable.’  
(BC12.093)

Finally, the combination of a posterior verb form with the verb *atesû* ‘know’, which may

also be used as an auxiliary expressing acquired ability (Section 5.5.5), is often used to express habitual aspect as well, as shown in (143). The same holds for the combination of a same subject verb form in *=pa*, followed by the verb *kanse* ‘live’ (144).

- (143) *munda=ma an-ye atesû=ti=ki*  
 peccary=ACC eat-INF know=INT=2  
 ‘Do you eat peccary?’  
 (BC07.062)

- (144) *ja’ñu kundase=pa kanse=mbi=’ya*  
 now tell=SS HAB.AUX=NEG=ASS  
 ‘Nowadays I don’t tell stories.’  
 (20060118-MM-2-0105.99)

#### 5.5.4. Tense

A’ingae does not make any absolute tense distinctions. In cases of future reference the irrealis mood is used (145), but this form is not exclusively temporal, as we will show in Section 5.5.5. In cases of non-future reference, the verb is unmarked (146). The past or present interpretation of unmarked sentences is contextually determined.

- (145) *ña=ma=nda=tsû fi’thi=’fa=ya=’ya*  
 1.SG=ACC=NEW.TOP=3 kill=PL=IRR=ASS  
 ‘They will kill me.’  
 (20040218-EC-Interview-0246.473)

- (146) *tša ke’i=ta=ki atesû=’fa=∅=mbi=’ya*  
 ANA 2.PL=NEW.TOP=2 know=SBJ.PL=REAL=NEG=ASS  
 ‘You don’t know these things.’  
 (20040215-01-LC-Tetetene-007)

In terms of relative tense distinctions, the infinitival verb form expresses posteriority in subordinate clauses (147). It also sometimes surfaces in main clauses with the reading of an absolute future (148).

- (147) *ñuame-khe tsampi=ve agathuen-ye=ta=ti=ki in’jan=’fa*  
 really-ADD.FOC jungle=ACC.IRR create-INF=NEW.TOP=INT=2 want=SBJ.PL  
 ‘Do you really want me to create jungle for you?’  
 (BC01.030)

- (148) *chiga=ma iñajan-ye*  
 god=ACC.REAL pray-INF  
 ‘He’ll pray to God.’  
 (BC01.060)

Simultaneity is expressed by the simultaneous clitic *=in*, which occurs in subordinate clauses only (149).

- (149) *bûthu-in ja tsampi=ni*  
 run=SIMUL go jungle=LOC  
 ‘Running he went off into the jungle.’  
 (BC01.046)

### 5.5.5. Mood

There are relatively few modal elements in A’ingae. This may have to do with the fact that many modal distinctions are covered by the irrealis category mentioned above. Examples (150) and (151) show some of its uses. The examples encountered so far seem to suggest that the irrealis expresses facultative and epistemic modality.

- (150) *tsa=ya=tsû*  
 that=IRR=3  
 ‘It could be that one.’  
 (20040202-FASC-Panzaye-1-010)

- (151) *sumbu-en=ya*  
 emerge-CAUS=IRR  
 ‘I think it can be gotten out.’  
 (20040202-FASC-Panzaye-3-012)

There are modal constructions that make use of an auxiliary, both expressing facultative modality. The auxiliaries *atesû* ‘know’ in (152) and *usha* ‘be able’ in (153) are used in combination with a posterior verb form to express acquired and intrinsic ability, respectively.

- (152) *ña-khe ke’i=’kan ñuña-ñe atesû*  
 1.SG-ADD.FOC 2.PL=SIM make-INF ACQ.ABIL.AUX  
 ‘I also, like you, know how to make things.’  
 (BC26.009)

- (153) *tsûthe=ma indi-ye usha=mbi*  
 foot-ACC get.hold.of-INF INTR.ABIL.AUX=NEG  
 ‘I can’t get hold of its feet.’  
 (20040202-FASC-Panzaye-2-030)

In order to express obligation, a periphrastic expression is used (154), which is actually a non-verbal predication that makes use of the subordinator =’*chu*, which in this case creates a headless relative clause that itself contains a verb in the irrealis mood. The entire construction can then be paraphrased as ‘The men were (ones) to kill by cutting’.

- (154) *a’i chatû kati=ya=’chu*  
 man cut destroy=IRR=SUB  
 ‘The men had to kill them with their machetes.’  
 (BC17.108)

The counter-expectational clitic has a modal meaning too. It indicates that an event does not have the expected outcome or does not develop as expected (155).

- (155) *jun tuya=tsû ku'i-je='fa. Kû'i=ya='ma=tsû da Magricio=khe*  
 yes still=3 drink-IPFV=PL drink=IRR=CNTRX=3 FILLER Mauricio=ADD.FOC  
 'Yes they still drink (ayahuasca). They'll drink (unlike what you'd expect),  
 eh, even Mauricio!"  
 (V104-BM-Interview-2572.588)

### 5.5.6. Negation

There are two ways to express negation in A'ingae. One is through negative predicates based on the root *me'/me'i* 'no', the other through the clitic =*mbi* NEG, which attaches to the predicate. Negative predicates are a combination of the negative particle *me'/me'i* 'no' and one of the markers =*tshi* QUAL, =*'un* AUG, or =*'chu* SUB, thus turning it into a non-verbal predicate best translated as 'non-existent'. Negative predicates formed with =*tshi* QUAL and =*'un* AUG are used in the expression of negative existentials (156), while the form with =*'chu* SUB is used to express negative possession (157).

- (156) *ni kukama=me=khe me=tshi*  
 not.even colono=ACC.IRR=ADD.FOC NEG.PRED=QUAL  
 'There were not even colonos'  
 (20040218-EC-Interview-031)

- (157) *numero=ve me='chu=tsû va=ja*  
 number=ACC.IRR NEG.PRED=SUB=3 PROX=CNTR.TOP  
 'This one doesn't have a number'  
 (20060122-TA-JuicioTexacone-0986.235)

Negative existential clauses are pseudo-transitive clauses. The only argument *kukama=me* in (156) occurs in the accusative. Negative possessive clauses are transitive.

The clitic =*mbi* is used to express any other type of negation, and can be attached to verbal (158) and non-verbal (159) predicates.

- (158) *pa=ya'=mbi=ngi*  
 die=IRR=NEG=1  
 'I'm not going to die.'  
 (BC12.033)

- (159) *santa Rosa=ni=ja tsa='ka=mbi='ya*  
 Santa Rosa=LOC=CNTR.TOP ANA=SIM=NEG=ASS  
 'It is not like that in Santa Rosa.'  
 (20060118-BM-Interview-2637.82)

## 6. Simple clauses

### 6.1. Alignment

Virtually all clausal constituents in A'ingae may be dropped, provided they are inferrable from context. The clause, however, usually consists minimally of a predicate, as in (160).

- (160) *kanjen*

stay  
 ‘He stayed’  
 (001-04-03-LC-Unfendyu’ndyu-034)

When arguments are expressed, they are aligned in a nominative-accusative pattern, both morphologically and syntactically. Examples (161) and (162) show that the only argument of one-place predicates with an A argument (161) and a P argument (162), and the A argument of two-place predicates (163) all take nominative zero marking which characterizes the subject in A’ingae, while the P argument of two-place predicates takes accusative marking (163) in active sentences.

(161) *fae kukama=∅=tsû ji-je=’ya*  
 one colono=NOM=3 come-IPFV=ASS  
 ‘One colono used to come.’  
 (20040218-EC-Interview-060)

(162) *ñã=∅=nda=gi pa-ye tsun-je*  
 1.SG=NOM=NEW.TOP=1 die-INF do-IPFV  
 ‘I’m going to die.’  
 (BC20.143)

(163) *a’i=’chu=khu=∅=ta=tsû kurifi’ndi=ve in’jan=’fa*  
 person=DIM=AUG=NEW.TOP=3 money=ACC.IRR want=PL  
 ‘The poor people want money.’  
 (20050701-BandT-Spontaneous-0523.899)

Furthermore, there is optional agreement in person expressed through second-position clitics, which always agree with the subject argument: =*tsû* in (161), =*gi* in (162), and =*tsû* in (163). Finally, there is optional agreement in number through the predicate clitic =*’fa* illustrated in (163), which again agrees with the subject argument.

In passive constructions, the P argument becomes the subject of the clause, takes nominative marking, and triggers agreement, while the A argument is expressed in the dative case, as shown in (164).

(164) *ingi=ta=ngi tsai-ye iyu=nga*  
 we=NEW.TOP=1 bite-PASS snake=DAT  
 ‘We were bitten by a snake.’ (elic.)

From a syntactic perspective, the subject controls co-reference (165), as well as switch-reference in dependent clauses. Switch reference will be discussed in Section 7.

(165) *ja-yi=ngi Quito=ni [∅ sarûpa=ma chava-ye]*  
 go-INCH=1 Quito=LOC [ clothes=ACC buy-INF]  
 ‘I am going to Quito to buy clothes.’ (elic.)

## 6.2. Basic constituent order

Constituent order in main clauses is relatively flexible, where the variation is mainly driven by pragmatic factors. The dominant order, however, is SOV, or rather SO-Predicate, as many clauses do not contain a verb. This order is illustrated in (166).

- (166) *a'i mani=ma isû*  
 person peanut=ACC take  
 'The people took the peanuts.'  
 (BC03.050)

The dominant predicate-final constituent order of the language is reflected in the fact that (co)subordinate clauses, differently from main clauses, are strictly predicate-final, as in (167), in which the subordinate clause is shown in square brackets.

- (167) *ingi kanse-ya='cho=ne=nda=ti injenge=mbi*  
 1PL live-IRR=SUB=SO=NEW.TOP=INT important=NEG
- kûintsû [koenza=ndekhu o*  
 SWR.CONJ elder=HUM.PL or
- yaya=ndekhu tisu dushu=ndekhu=ma iyu'u-ye]*  
 dad=HUM.PL REFL child=HUM.PL=ACC scold-INF  
 'Isn't it important for how we will live that the elders, or the parents,  
 reprimand their children?'  
 (20060118-BM-Interview-2521.02)

The predicate-final nature of the dominant word order of the language also correlates (see Dryer 1992) with a number of other ordering features of the language, such as the fact that A'ingae has postpositions and suffixes and the fact that the quality follows the standard in comparative constructions. The latter is shown in (168).

- (168) *shavu chipiri=ta=tsu rande shavu=ma titshe fava=tshi*  
 canoe small=NEW.TOP=3 big canoe=ACC.REAL more light-QUAL  
 'A small canoe is faster than a big canoe.' (elic.)

On the other hand, modifiers in the noun phrase may both precede and follow the head noun (Section 4.3), which is also indicative of a less rigid word order patterning.

The dominant order SO-Pred may well be an epiphenomenon and correlate with the pragmatic functions that seem to regulate word order in A'ingae. The main factor in the distribution of arguments and adjuncts before and after the predicate seems to be that new or contrastive information precedes the predicate, while given information, when expressed at all, follows it. Examples of this are given in (169) and (170).

- (169) (Context: He killed his small pet and gave it to him. Splitting it the owner took half. He gave half to the man.)  
*isû=pa shu'khue=mba an na=ma a'i*  
 take=SS cook=SS eat meat=ACC person  
 'The man took it, cooked it, and ate the meat.'  
 (BC07.068)

- (170) (Context: But his eyes were reddish like fire.)  
*tise pûshe tayu atte tsa=ma*  
 3.SG wife already see ANA=ACC  
 'His wife had already seen that.'

(BC09.032)

In the main clause in (169) the P argument *na=ma* and the subject *a'i* both follow the predicate *an*. Both arguments have been introduced in the previous context. In (170), the patient argument *tsa=ma* refers back to the state-of-affairs described in the immediately preceding context, while the referent of the subject argument *tise pûshe* is a new topic in the given context.

### 6.3. Sentential mood and sentence types

A'ingae distinguishes assertive, polar interrogative, content interrogative, imperative, prohibitive, and hortative sentence types. These are realized using different morphosyntactic strategies. The imperative, prohibitive, and mitigated imperative are expressed through predicate clitics in position +2 (Section 5.1). The assertive is realized through a predicate clitic as well, but now in position +4. The polar interrogative is expressed through a clause-level second-position clitic. Content questions can be identified by the fact that the ignorative word is always in initial position, and hortative sentences have an hortative particle in initial position. An example of each of these sentence types is given in (171) through (177).

(171) Assertive

*na'e=nga indi='fa='ya matachi=ma*  
river=DAT hold=PL=ASS matachi.clown=ACC  
'They held the matachi clown down in the river.'  
(V103-01-AQ-Matachi-0073.408)

(172) Imperative

*tsa='ka=en tsun=ja*  
ANA=SIM=ADV do=IMP  
'Do it like that!'  
(20060104-AQ-Matachi-0187.963)

(173) Prohibitive

*anthe=jama chigane*  
let.go=PROH please  
'Don't let it go please!'  
(20040202-FASC-Panzaye-3-025)

(174) Mitigated Imperative

*injan = 'fa=kha*  
think=PL=DIM  
'Mind you!/Be careful!'  
(20040202-FASC-Panzaye-3-030)

(175) Yes/no-Interrogative

*fûesû=ti jin*  
OTHER=INT exist  
'Is there another one?'  
(20040202-FASC-Panzaye-2-112)

(176) Content Interrogative  
*ma=jan=tsû ka'ni-a*  
 IGNR I=CONTR.TOP=3 enter-CAUS  
 'Who let you in?'  
 (20040202-FASC-Panzaye-3-002)

(177) Hortative  
*jinge kû'i-ye*  
 HORT drink-INF  
 'Let's drink!'  
 (20040218-EC-Interview-2659.033)

Like polar interrogatives, reportative clauses are also expressed through a sentence-level second-position clitic =*te*. This is the only type of evidentiality marking found in A'ingae. Reportative clauses do not constitute a different sentence type, as the reportative clitic may co-occur with the assertive marker (178).

(178) *khashe'ye=ndekhû=ja ñuña=si=te matachi=ja*  
 elder=HUM.PL=CNTR.TOP make=DS=RPT matachi.clown=CNTR.TOP  
  
*tsa=ma undikhû=pa tsa='ka=en=jan ku'fe='ya*  
 ANA=ACC dress=SS ANA=SIM=ADVR=CNTR.TOP play=ASS  
 'It is said that after the elders made (the clothes), the Matachi clown would dress up and play.'  
 (20060104-AQ-Matachi-0034.404)

None of the sentence types is characterized by a specific intonation, and in terms of word order only questions have certain restrictions that other sentence types do not have, in the sense that the question word is always in initial position in content-interrogatives, while the focus constituent is always in initial position in polar interrogatives.

## 7. Clause-linking

### 7.1. Introduction

The A'ingae system of clause-linking is described in detail in Fischer (2007) and Fischer and van Lier (2011). Here we present the major properties of the system. In Section 7.2. we discuss coordination, in Section 7.3 cosubordination, in Section 7.4 subordination, and in Section 7.5 reported speech. Important in the discussion of complex clauses are the formal distinctions that obtain between main and (co)subordinate clauses in A'ingae. As shown in Section 6, (co)subordinate clauses in A'ingae are strictly predicate-final, while word order in main clauses is relatively free. Furthermore, the optional second-position subject enclitics used in main clauses are not allowed in (co)subordinate clauses. Where useful, clause boundaries will be indicated with square brackets in what follows.

### 7.2. Coordination

Clausal coordination is often expressed through simple juxtaposition (179).

- (179) [ñ̃a=da=ngi an] [tise=ta=tsû a=mbi]  
 I=NEW=1 eat he=NEW=3 eat=NEG  
 ‘I ate, and/but he didn’t eat.’ (elic.)

This is a clear case of the coordination of main clauses, as each of the two coordinated clauses displays a second-position clitic, =ngi in the first clause, =tsû in the second.

Juxtaposed clauses like those shown in (179) may be in a conjunctive or an adversative relation. This must become clear from context. If the two readings have to be disambiguated, the complex elements *tuya’kaen* (from *tuya=’kan* still=SIM) (180) and *tsama* (from *tsa=’ma* ANA=CNTRX) (181) have to be used.

- (180) *ja’ñ̃u=ja, panshen rande ande=tsû tuya’kaen tshipakhû=tsû*  
 now=CNTR.TOP very big land=3 moreover mud=3  
 ‘Now, it’s a rather big piece of land, and it’s muddy.’  
 (20060118-LM-2-0345.682)

- (181) *khen ja=si=gi khen putaen Amado tsa’ma ñ̃utshe athe=mbe putaen*  
 thus go=DS=1 thus shoot Amado but well see=NEG shoot  
 ‘As it went that way, I just shot at it, Amado, but without seeing it well.’  
 (20040202-FASC-Panzaye-1-008)

There is a dedicated coordinating particle for disjunction, borrowed from Spanish (182).

- (182) [tse=’khu=ve=yi=ti=ngi afa-ya] u [minga=ya=ngi]  
 that- speak=IRR or how=IRR=1  
 AUG=ACC.IRR=EXCL.FOC=INT=1  
 ‘Shall I speak just till here, or what shall I do?’  
 (20050701-MA-Letter-2-042)

### 7.3. Subordination

#### 7.3.1. Types of subordinate clauses

A’ingae exhibits both finite and non-finite subordinate clauses. The former are created through the attachment of conjunctions or case markers as enclitics at the end of the clause; the latter are created through the attachment of the posterior or simultaneity marker. The enclitics used in the former case can in many cases also be used with noun phrases. As regards the functions of these forms, relative clauses can be both finite and participial in form: the finite ones can precede or follow the head noun, the participial ones can only precede the head, and they can be externally headed, internally headed or headless. Complement as well as adverbial clauses can be finite or non-finite too, depending on the type of complement-taking predicate or the adverbial function to be expressed. In what follows we discuss complement clauses (Section 7.3.2), adverbial clauses (Section 7.3.3), and relative clauses (Section 7.3.4) separately.

#### 7.3.2. Complement clauses

Table 13 lists the markers that can be used with complement clauses.

#### Table 13. Markers of complement clauses

zero	----
= 'chu	subordinator (SUB)
-ye/-ñe	infinitive (INF)
-ye/-ñe + <i>kuintsu</i>	infinitive (INF) + switch reference conjunction (SWR.CONJ)

A common strategy in forming complement clauses is to add an accusative case marker to a regular clause without an intervening subordinator. This type of subordination is illustrated in (183) and (184).

(183) [*ingi paña-je*]=*ma=tsû dyuju='fa*  
 1.PL hear-IPFV=ACC=3 fear=PL  
 'They are afraid that we will listen.'  
 (20060118-LM-2-0188.456)

(184) [*duscientus uchenta dular=ma gana-je='fa*]=*ma in'jan kanse*  
 two.hundred eighty dollar=ACC earn-IPFV-PL=ACC think look  
 'Imagine they earn 280 dollars.'  
 (20050701-BandT-Spontaneous-0733.481)

A second complementation strategy involves the use of the subordinator = 'chu, which is added to a clause and may then be followed by a case marker, as in (185) and (186).

(185) *atesû=mbi [ke ña=nga tevaen='chu]=ma*  
 know=NEG you I=DAT write=SUB=ACC  
 'I didn't know that you had written to me.' (elic.)

(186) *ña athe='ya [mamakhashe=ye=pa ñuña='chu]=ma*  
 I see=ASS grandmother=NOM.PST=ASSOC make=NMLZ=ACC  
 'I've seen my late grandparents do it.'  
 (20040215-03-LC-Unfendyu'ndyu -043)

The third strategy involves a non-finite form, the posterior verb form. Complements of this type are used when reference is made to unrealized situations, as in (187) and (188).

(187) *fire [sumbu-en ka-ñe]=ngi in'jan*  
 Fidel emerge-CAUS try-INF=1 want  
 'Fidel, I want to try to get it out.'  
 (20040202-FASC-Panzaye-2-097)

(188) *ña=ja asithaen=ngi [kinikhu=ve da-ye]*  
 I=CNTR.TOP think=1 tree=ACC.IRR become-INF  
 'I think I'll become a tree.'  
 (20040215-03-LC-Unfendyu'ndyu-027)

When the posterior verb form is used without a conjunction, as in (187) and (188), there is coreference between the subject of the main and the subordinate clause. When there is no coreference, the switch reference conjunction *kûintsû* has to be used, as in (189).

(189) *texaco abugadu=tsû iñaja='ña kûintsû*  
 Texaco lawyer=3 request=ASS SWR.CONJ

[*ingi=ja infurme=ma afe-ye*]  
 1.PL=CNTR.TOP report=ACC give-INF  
 ‘Texaco’s lawyers request that we give them a report.’  
 (20060122-TA-JuicioTexacone-0099.193)

### 7.3.3. Adverbial clauses

Table 14 lists the markers that can be used with adverbial clauses.

**Table 14. Markers of adverbial clauses**

zero	----
- <i>ye</i>	infinitive (INF)
- <i>ye</i>	infinitive (INF) + switch reference conjunction
+ <i>kuintsu</i>	(SWR.CONJ)
= <i>e(n)</i>	adverbializer (ADVR)
= <i>'kan=en</i>	similative (SIM) + adverbializer (ADVR)
= <i>khia=e</i>	restrictive (RESTR) + adverbializer (ADVR)
= <i>mbi=e</i>	negative (NEG) + adverbializer (ADVR)
= <i>in</i>	simultaneous (SIMUL)
= <i>sane</i>	negative purpose (NEG.PURP)
= <i>'thi</i>	locative (LOC.NMLZ)

Adverbial clauses too can be formed by simply adding a case marker to a regular clause. The only case marker that can be used in this way is =*ni* LOC. The adverbial clauses thus formed express location (190) or time (191).

(190) [*tsa kû'i-je='fa]=ni ansûnde-pa*  
 ANA drink-IPFV=PL=LOC climb-SS  
 ‘He climbed to where those (people) were drinking...’ (elic.)

(191) [*vendi kitsa=pa=i'khû kanse]=ni=tsû*  
 Randy father=ASSC=INS live=LOC=3

*cumpaniña=ja va-'ki=ye ansûnde=ya*  
 oil.company=CNTR.TOP PROX- climb=ASS  
 CLF:linear=ELAT

‘...it must have been when we lived with Randy’s parents that the oil companies came up by this road.’  
 (20040218-EC-Interview-124)

When combined with one of the clitics =*ta* NEW.TOP or =*ja* CNTR.TOP, which is used to introduce new topics, the interpretation is that of a conditional, as shown in (201).

(192) *tsa'ma ña dû'shû=ndekhû=khe*  
 but 1.SG child=HUM.PL=ADD.FOC

*ma-ki a'ta paji]=ni=ja ma=ni=ngi*  
 which-CLF:LINE day be.sick=LOC=CNTR.TOP IGN1=LOC=1

*ñã-ja se'jian-ye usha=ya*  
 1.SG=CNTR.TOP cure-INF be.able=IRR  
 'But, if my children some day also get sick, where will I cure them?'  
 (20050701-MA-Letter-2-037)

The posterior verb form, used in complementation, is also used to form purposive clauses (193). Here too the switch reference conjunction is used to indicate that the subject of the purposive clause is different from that of the main clause (194).

(193) *rafe=tsû ja Qûitu=ni [sarûpa=ma chava-ye]*  
 Rafael=3 go Quito=LOC clothes=ACC buy-INF  
 'Rafael went to Quito to buy clothes.' (elic.)

(194) *afe kan=ja [kûintsû kata-ye]*  
 give look=IMP SWR.CONJ cast-INF  
 'Give (the spear to him) so that he can cast (it).' (elic.)

The third strategy to form adverbial subordinate clauses involves the adverbializing clitic =*e*, as in (195).

(195) *va=ni=ngae [butho panshan=e] ji='ya*  
 PROX=LOC=MANN run pass=ADVR come=ASS  
 'I came running here.'  
 (20040202-FASC-Panzaye-1-005)

This clitic can also be attached to clauses ending in the clitics =*khia* RESTR and =*'kan* SIM, or both, to create a clause of unreal circumstance, as illustrated in (196).

(196) *[gringu=mbi]=khia='ka=en tsa=khe shûjû*  
 gringo=NEG=RESTR=SIM=ADVR that=ADD.FOC rub  
 'As if he weren't a gringo, he too rubbed (cured).'  
 (20040306-AC-01-Pajiisûne-0160.128)

It can furthermore attach to the negative clitic =*mbi*, where together they fuse into the form =*mbe*. This clitic combination is then used to create a clause of negative circumstance (197).

(197) *atesû=mb=e va='thi kanse='fa='ya*  
 know=NEG=ADVR PROX=LOC.NMLZ live=PL=ASS  
 'We lived here without knowing (about them).' (elic.)

Circumstantial clauses are formed by the simultaneous clitic =*in* (198), locative clauses make use of the locative nominalizer =*'thi* (199), and clauses of negative purpose of the clitic =*sane* (200).

(198) *shan 'khu [bûtu-in] sumbu*  
 deer jump=SIMUL emerge  
 'The deer jumped out.'  
 (BC20.124)

(199) *umba=ni=ngae=ta=tsû*      [*ingi na'en*      *tsa sumbu-ye='thi]*  
 up=LOC=MANN=TOP=3      1.PL river      ANA come.out=LOC.NMLZ  
*lindero=ja*      *ja enthing=ni*  
 delimitation=CNTR.TOP      go middle=LOC  
 'Upriver, where our river sprouts, the delimitation goes landwards.'  
 (20060118-LM-2-0402.827)

(200) *sumbu-en-ye=tsû*      *injenge*  
 emerge-CAUS-INF=3      important

[*panshan=e*      *amûnde'=tshi=e*      *tsetse'=sane]*  
 pass=ADVR      dirty=QUAL=ADVR      chew=NEG.PURP  
 'It is important to get the dog out so that he doesn't make it dirty chewing it.'  
 (20040202-FASC-Panzaye-2-011)

### 7.3.4. Relative clauses

Table 15 lists the markers that are used with relative clauses.

**Table 15. Markers of relative clauses**

= 'chu	subordinator (SUB)
= 'sû	attributive (ATTR)
= a(n)	adjectivalizer (ADJR)

Relative clauses may be formed using the clitic subordinator = 'chu that is also used for complement clauses. These clauses may occur in prenominal position (201), in postnominal position (202), they may be headless (203), and internally headed (204). In (204) *kachapa=ma* is case-marked according to its function within the subordinate clause, that is, the patient of *aiña* 'domesticate'. If not, it would have been marked with =ve ACC.IRR, which is instead attached to the subordinate clause as a whole.

(201) [*ke kanse*]= 'chu    *ande=nga=tsû napi=ya*  
 2.SG live=SUB      land=DAT=3      arrive=IRR  
 'It will reach the country you live in.' (elic.)

(202) *yuri='ye*      [*ke'i sù-je*]= 'chu=*ja*  
 Yori=NOM.PST 2.PL say-IPFV=SR=DEF  
 'the late Yori you are talking about'  
 (20050726-CL-1-0207.132)

(203) *ji='fa='ya*    [*tisû=pa kanchana=me ñuña*]= 'chu=*ye*  
 come=PL=ASS REFL=ASSC ladder=ACC.IRR make=SUB=ELAT  
 '...they came via that which they themselves had made into a ladder.'  
 (20040215-03-LC-Unfendyu'ndyu-052)

(204) *tise*      *mama=ni*      *ja~ja='fa='ya*  
 3.PL      mother=LOC      go~ITER=PL=ASS

[*kachapa=ma*    *tisepa*      *aiña*]= 'cho=*ve*  
 parrot=ACC      they      domesticate=SUB=ACC.IRR

‘...they went to their mother for the parrot they had domesticated.’  
(20040215-03-LC-Unfendyu’ndyu-053)

Another type of relative clause is formed by using the attributive clitic =*sû* (205). This is an agent relative clause, and is always prenominal. Relative clauses with the adjectivalizer clitic =*a* are always prenominal as well (206).

(205) [*ingi=mbe sema*]=’*sû=ndekhû*  
1.PL=BEN work=ATTR=HUM.PL  
‘people that work for us’ (elic.)

(206) *tsa [feña-en-kha=a] kundase-pa=ya=tsû tsa=ja*  
ANA laugh-CAUS-DIM=ADJR tell-NMLZ=IRR=3 ANA=CNTR.TOP  
‘It’s a funny story that will make you laugh, that one.’  
(20060118-MM-2-0327.788)

#### 7.4. Cosubordination

A’ingae uses cosubordinate clauses in narrative chaining constructions. Cosubordinate clauses are strictly predicate-final and lack subject clitics. Either one of two enclitics is attached to cosubordinate clauses, one (=pa) expressing same subject reference, the other (=si) different subject reference. The first is used to indicate that the subject of the next clause is identical to the subject of the current clause (207), the second to indicate that it is different (208).

(207) *sumbu-en=mba chathû tuva=ja thupa*  
emerge-CAUS=SS cut throw=IMP intestines  
‘Get the intestines out and cut them.’  
(20040202-FASC-Panzaye-2-127)

(208) *chathû muen=si=te vani=ngae amphi ji=’ya*  
cut send=DS=RPT here=MANN fall come-ASS  
  
*tsa tise mama-ja*  
ANA 3.SG mum=CNTR.TOP  
‘When it (the parrot) sent her off cutting (the rope that was holding a ladder), their mother fell down.’  
(20040215-03-LC-Unfendyu’ndyu-064)

Example (209) illustrates how both types of cosubordinate clause work together to create a sentential paragraph. The first clause has the elders as its subject. The different subject marker in this clause is consistent with the fact that the Matachi clown is the subject of the second clause. The same subject marker of this second clause indicates that the Matachi clown will continue to be the subject in the third clause.

(209) *khashe’ye=ndekhû=ja ñuña=si=te matachi=ja*  
elder=HUM.PL=CNTR.TOP make=DS=RPT matachi.clown=CNTR.TOP  
  
*tsa=ma undikhû=pa tsa=’ka=en=jan ku’fe=’ya*  
ANA=ACC dress=SS ANA=SIM=ADV=CNTR.TOP play=ASS

‘After the elders made (the clothes) the Matachi clown would dress up and play.’  
(20060104-AQ-Matachi-0034.404)

Sentential paragraphs such as the one illustrated in (209) play an important role in tail-head linkage, in which sentential paragraphs are linked together by repeating the last predicate of one paragraph as the first predicate of the next one (210). Here the verb *afe* ‘give’ ends the first sentential paragraph (210a) and opens the next one (210b). Note that this repeated verb is itself marked for switch reference.

(210) a. *tse’i=tsû vendi kitsa=ja ji=pa*  
then=3 Randy father=CNTR.TOP come=SS

*kûñajûn’chu=ma=khe afe=’ya*  
sweets=ACC=ADD.FOC give=ASS

‘Then Randy’s father came and also gave us candy.’

b. *afe=si dû’shû=ja shunchhankan=’fa=’ya*  
give=DS child=CNTR.TOP smell=PL=ASS

‘After giving them, the children smelled them.’

(20040218-EC-Interview-069)

## 7.5. Direct speech

A common way of expressing direct speech is by using a construction with the adverb *khen* ‘thus’, often combined with the reportative clitic =*te* (211).

(211) *va=nga cha’ndi=’sû=gi khen=de sû=’ya*  
PROX=DAT cold=ATTR=1 thus=RPT say=ASS

*matachi=ja*

matachi.clown=CNTR.TOP

‘‘I’m cold in these (clothes)’’ so the Matachi said.’

(20060104-AQ-Matachi-0090.782)

The reported clause is not embedded in the following clause. Rather, the reported clause is a main clause, and *khen* refers back anaphorically to this main clause in the subsequent, reporting, main clause. Several properties of the construction corroborate this. First of all, in contrast with subordinate and cosubordinate clauses, the reported clause may contain the subject clitic, as illustrated in (211). Furthermore, again unlike subordinate and cosubordinate clauses, the reported clause is not necessarily predicate-final, as shown in (212), in which the subject *aya* ‘spirit’ is in clause-final position. Finally, both the reported clause and the reporting clause have main clause intonation.

(212) *ethi=ni kan’jen aya khen=de sû=si*  
interior.of.house=LOC stay spirit so=RPT say=DS

‘‘There is a ghost in the house’’, thus saying...’

(20060104-AQ-Matachi-0251.843)

The direct speech construction is used with utterance predicates, as in (211) and (212), but also with predicates of thinking, as in (213).

- (213) *usha=ya=mbi=ngi khen=ngi asi'thaen*  
 be.able=IRR=NEG=1 so=1 think  
 ‘“I will not be able” I think.’  
 (20060104-AQ-Ccarapacha-0023.39)

The construction is also used when reporting sound-symbolic forms, as in (214).

- (214) *pûshesû-ta tu tu tu tu tu khen=de uchhi='ya*  
 woman=NEW.TOP tu tu tu tu tu so=RPT knock=ASS  
 ‘The woman knocked “tu tu tu tu”.’  
 (20040215-03-LC-Unfendyu'ndyu-007)

Reported speech that follows the reporting clause can, however, also be realized without the use of *khen* in asyndetic constructions like (215) and (216). Note that here too each clause has main clause intonation.

- (215) *sû='ya sa'vû=ja*  
 say=ASS warm.up=IMP  
 ‘They told him “warm up!”.’  
 (20060104-AQ-Matachi -0090.782)

- (216) *a'i afa jû ande=ve ñuña-ñe=ngi ñumbiye='fa*  
 person say well land=ACC.IRR make-INF=1 be.sad=PL  
 ‘The people said “Yes, we are grieving for you to make some land”.’  
 (BC01.019)

## 8. Discourse and information structure

Several grammatical features of A'ingae point at the importance it attaches to the explicit marking of (dis)continuity in discourse. First of all, the subject clitics are used when the subject is a new or resumed topic (217).

- (217) (Context: ‘The crayfish boa scolded the upriver boa, “Why are you eating people? You're eating too much.”’)
- a. *umba-khû=ni=sû kanjansi paña=mba=tsû i'na*  
 upriver-CLF:delimited=LOC=ATTR boa hear=SS=3 cry  
 ‘When the upriver boa heard that she cried.’  
 (BC20.086)
- b. *afa kan=en=khe=ngi pa=ya ña=nda*  
 say look=ADVR=ADD.FOC=1 die=IRR 1.SG=NEW.TOP  
 ‘She said, “That's the way it is and I'm going to die”’.  
 (BC20.087)

In (217a) there is a shift in topic from the crayfish boa to the upriver boa, which is marked by the presence of the subject clitic =*tsû* ‘3’. In the main clause in (217b) the topic continues to be the upriver boa, so that in this case the subject clitic, which would otherwise have attached to *afa* ‘say’, is absent.

When (pro)nominal subjects, and other arguments and adjuncts are new topics, they are marked by the new topic clitic =*ta/=nda* NEW.TOP or the contrastive topic clitic =*ja(n)* CNTR.TOP. These clitics are used when there is a change in participants, time,

and/or location, and are illustrated in (218) and (219).

(218) (Context: start of letter)

*ñā=nda=ngi ja'ñu=nda=ngi mende=tsh=e kanse='ya*  
1.SG=NEW.TOP=1 now=NEW.TOP=1 bad=QUAL=ADVR live=ASS  
'Now I live poorly.'  
(20050701-MA-Letter-3-001)

(219) (Context: A husband marries a woman who does miracles and thinks:)

*mañan=ya=mbi=ngi ñā=ja pûshesû=ma=ja ja'ñu=ja*  
send=IRR=NEG=1 I=CNTR.TOP woman=ACC=CNTR.TOP now=CNTR.TOP  
'I will never send my wife away.'  
(20060119-AnC-Cunsiana-02-0053.891)

In (218) both the single participant and the time of occurrence are new and marked, and in (219) both participants and the time of occurrence are new and marked. The functional difference between the new and contrastive topic markers is that the latter are used when the contrast with alternative referents is emphasized. Resumed topics are expressed in a position preceding the predicate but not marked with =*ta/nda* or =*ja(n)*. An example is *tise pûshe* 'his wife' in (170).

Given information generally remains unexpressed in A'ingae (220).

(220) (Context: 'She arrived there and asked "Are you sitting down?")

*khen su=si jun*  
thus say=DS yes  
'When (she) asked, (they said) "Yes".'  
(20040215-03-LC-Unfendyu'ndyu-018)

As shown in Section 6.2, when given information is expressed at all, it follows the predicate, while new information precedes it.

## 9. Conclusions

In this chapter we have given an overview of the main grammatical properties of A'ingae. As regards the phonology, we paid special attention to nasals, prenasalized plosives and affricates, and (de)nasalization, as a prominent property of this language. We have also shown that clitics play a much more prominent role in the language than affixes and express many grammatical categories. This contributes to the high degree of transparency of the language (Hengeveld & Fischer 2018a), as does the largely parallel treatment of nominal and verbal predicates. In the nominal domain we have paid attention to the presence of classifiers that do not only classify the referents of noun phrases but are also of a nominalizing nature. Complex constructions make ample use of the switch reference and tail-head linkage systems, which work together in subdividing texts into sentential paragraphs. Finally, information structural functions are partly expressed by segmental means, which show that A'ingae pays special attention to the marking of new or contrastive versus given information.

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## Abbreviations

ADD.FOC = additive focus	HORT = hortative
ADJR = adjectivalizer	HUM = human
ADVR = adverbializer	IGNR = ignorative
AM:COME&DO = associated motion come and do	LIM = limitative
AM:GO&DO = associated motion go and do	MANN = manner, path
ANA = anaphoric reference to entity or event	NEG = negation
ANA.LOC = anaphoric reference to location or time	NEG.PRED = negative predicate
AUG = augmentative	NEG.PURP = negative purpose
CLF:angular = classifier angular	NEW.TOP = new topic
CLF:delimited = classifier delimited	NMLZ = nominalizer
CLF:flat = classifier flat	NOM.PST = nominal past
CLF:large = classifier large	OTHER = difference marker
CLF:lateral = classifier lateral	PASS = passive
CLF:linear = classifier linear	PLACE = place name
CLF:round = classifier round or small	PRECUL = preculminative
CLF:scattered = classifier scattered	PROX = proximal
CLF:spiny = classifier spiny	QUAL = quality
CLF:splinter = classifier splinter-like	RESTR = restrictive
CNTR.TOP = contrastive topic	SAME = sameness marker
CNTRX = counterexpectational	SBJ.PL = plural subject
DIM = diminutive	SENS = sensory deixis
DISTR.QNT = distributive quantifier	SIM = simulative
DS = different subject cosubordinator	SIM = simultaneous
ELAT = elative	SS = same subject cosubordinator
EXCL.FOC = exclusive focus	SUB = subordinator
	SWR.CONJ = switch reference conjunction
	TEMP.NMLZ = temporal nominalizer
	UNIV.QNT = universal quantifier

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