

Verbal applicatives in Nuuchahnulth*

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In this article, I provide a description and analysis of the morphemes *čit* ‘do to’, *hta* ‘do towards’ and *chin* ‘do for’ in the Southern Wakashan language Nuuchahnulth (*nuučaahnut*). I argue that these morphemes are verbal applicatives that add a non-core argument to the thematic structure of a verb.

Verbal applicatives in Nuuchahnulth are interesting to investigate because they exhibit typologically unique behaviour that has never been studied before. Applicatives are traditionally considered functional elements whose only purpose is to add an indirect object to the argument structure of the verb (Pylkkanen 2002: 17). Nuuchahnulth is the only known language that productively uses independent verbs for this purpose.

Nuuchahnulth is an indigenous language of Canada spoken in the province of British Columbia. It consists of 14 major dialects, most of which have never been studied. All of these dialects are now highly endangered and urgently need to be documented.

We are the Nuu-chah-nulth-aht. We continue to follow our ancestors’ true self-determination and real self-sufficiency when they lived and thrived on the lands and waters on the West Coast of Vancouver Island.

(The Nuuchahnulth Tribal Council)

* I would like to express my gratitude and appreciation to the language consultants of Nuuchahnulth Mary Jane Dick, Sarah Webster and Katherine Fraser. This article is dedicated to the people of Nuuchahnulth.

The article is based on my General’s paper at the University of British Columbia, Canada, defended in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy. This research has not been published before.

1 Introduction

The main objective of this work is twofold: First, to provide a detailed description of the morphemes *čit* ‘do to’, *hta* ‘do towards’ and *chin* ‘do for’ in Nuuchahnulth (*nuučaanut*), an endangered indigenous language of British Columbia. Second, to propose a syntactic analysis of these morphemes.

Different languages employ different strategies for introducing a new discourse participant (Pylkkanen 2002). For example, English uses so-called double object constructions: (a) *John melted some ice*. (b) *John melted Mary some ice* (*Mary* is a new participant). The Bantu language Venda uses the special suffix *-el*: *Mukasa o-nok-is-el-a Katonga mahada* ‘Mukasa melted Katonga the snow’ (*Katonga* is a new participant). By contrast, Nuuchahnulth productively uses verbs to introduce discourse referents. In this respect, Nuuchahnulth is an unusual language, as it is the only language known to exploit such a strategy (Rose 1981). While it has been noted before that Nuuchahnulth has many typologically unique characteristics (Davidson 2002; Nakayama 2001; Stonham 1999), this way of introducing a new discourse participant has received very little attention in linguistic research (Klokeid 1978).

The data used in the article were collected by the author (unless specified otherwise) through fieldwork with three native speakers of the Ahousaht (*ʔaahuusʔath*) dialect of Nuuchahnulth. The speakers are literate females of 55-65 years of age. They are bilingual (with English as second language). The data were elicited using the research method of collecting native speakers’ introspective judgments, which is a standard method in linguistic research. This method involves asking native speakers to judge constructed sentences for their well-formedness. The sessions were transcribed and tape-recorded. The collected data were first checked with the speakers, and then entered into a computer database. The field-notes and the database are accessible to other researchers, as well as to educational institutions interested in the data. The research was carried out in Vancouver and on Vancouver Island, British Columbia, Canada.

The article is organized as follows: Section 1 provides a short overview of the language. Section 2 describes the morphemes *čit* ‘do to’, *hta* ‘do towards’ and *chin* ‘do for’ in Nuuchahnulth. Section 3 outlines previous analyses of the morpheme *čit* ‘do to’. Section 4 presents the proposal. Section 5 is devoted to the syntax of applicatives in Nuuchahnulth. Section 6 presents the conclusions. The article also contains an Appendix with a list of verbs used with the morphemes *čit*, *hta* and *chin*.

2 Nuuchahnulth

Aboriginal British Columbia is renowned for its linguistic diversity. In Canada, there are between 50 and 73 Aboriginal languages representing 11 language families (Ignace 1998). In British Columbia alone, there are between 27 and 34 Aboriginal languages, representing eight distinct language families. All of these languages have experienced a tremendous decline during the past century, and most are currently in danger of extinction (Kinkade 1991).

Nuuchahnulth is among these highly endangered languages. There are 14 traditionally unwritten dialects of Nuuchahnulth, out of which, only four have been described (Ahousaht, Ditidaht, Kyuquot, and Tseshah). It is very important to document the language, because the number of native speakers is rapidly declining. Most community members below the age of 60 do not speak or understand Nuuchahnulth at all, which makes the revival of the language very difficult (Nakayama 2001).

Nuuchahnulth (NCN) is spoken along the west coast of Vancouver Island from Cape Cook to Pachena Point. It belongs to the Southern Wakashan branch of the Wakashan language family, along with two other languages: Ditidaht and Makah. Ditidaht is spoken on the southern coast of Vancouver Island. Makah is spoken on the Olympic Peninsula in Washington State, USA.

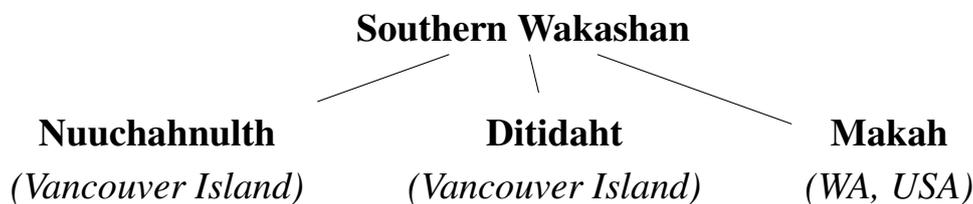


Figure 1: The Southern Wakashan branch of the Wakashan language family

The clausal structure of the language is characterized by predicate-initial word order with subject inflection (person/number/mood) on the predicate (Wojdak 2002: 1). There is no object inflection on the predicate with the exception of imperatives.

- (1) a. makuk^w-mit-siš maḥṭii
 buy-PAST-3SG.IND house
 ‘I bought a house.’
- b. * makuk^w-mit-ʔiš maḥṭii
 buy-PAST-3SG.IND house
 ‘I/He/She bought a house.’

There are two distinct verb classes in NCN: incorporating verbs (*ʔu*-verbs) and non-incorporating verbs (independent verbs) (Woo & Wojdak 2001). Incorporating verbs appear either suffixed to the morpheme *ʔu*, or to an incorporated object. *ʔu* is an “empty” pleonastic morpheme glossed as \emptyset (“empty”).

- (2) a. *ʔu-ʔap-mit-ʔiš čakup maḥʔii*
 \emptyset -buy-PAST-3SG.IND man house
 ‘A man bought a house.’
- b. *maḥʔii-ʔap-mit-ʔiš čakup*
 house-buy-PAST-3SG.IND man
 ‘A man bought a house.’
- c. * *ʔap-mit-ʔiš čakup maḥʔii*
 buy-PAST-3SG.IND man house
 ‘A man bought a house.’ (Woo & Wojdak 2001: 1)

Non-incorporating verbs never occur with *ʔu* or an incorporated object.

- (3) a. *makuk^w-mit-ʔiš čakup maḥʔii*
 buy-PAST-3SG.IND man house
 ‘A man bought a house.’
- b. * *ʔu-makuk^w-mit-ʔiš čakup maḥʔii*
 \emptyset -buy-PAST-3SG.IND man house
 ‘A man bought a house.’
- c. * *maḥʔii-makuk^w-mit-ʔiš čakup*
 house-buy-PAST-3SG.IND man
 ‘A man bought a house.’ (Woo & Wojdak 2001: 1)

Neither verbal type can appear suffixed to a subject.

- (4) a. * *čakup-ʔap-mit-ʔiš maḥʔii*
 man-buy-PAST-3SG.IND house
 ‘A man bought a house.’
- b. * *čakup-makuk^w-mit-ʔiš maḥʔii*
 man-buy-PAST-3SG.IND house
 ‘A man bought a house.’ (Woo & Wojdak 2001: 1)

3 The morphemes *čit* ‘do to’, *hta* ‘do towards’ and *chin* ‘do for’

According to the speakers’ judgments, all three morphemes denote an action done to an object. These three morphemes are the only ones in the language with this meaning. Following Rose (1981), Davis & Sawai (2001), Wojdak (2002) and Sawai (2002), I gloss the morpheme *čit* as ‘do to’ and the morpheme

chin as ‘do for’. Rose also translates the morpheme *hta* as ‘do to’. However, according to the native speakers, this translation misses a difference in meaning between the morphemes *čit* and *hta*. The morpheme *čit* means ‘do (something) to an object’, while the morpheme *hta* means ‘do (something) with focus on an object’. To capture this difference in meaning, I suggest to translate *hta* as ‘do towards’ with the native speakers’ agreement.

The morphemes *čit* ‘do to’, *hta* ‘do towards’ and *chin* ‘do for’ can occur either clause-finally, or clause-initially. These morphemes can optionally incorporate certain types of complements (*wh*-words, quantifiers, and personal and reflexive pronouns). The different positions of the morphemes and optional incorporation are described below.

I. No Incorporation:

- a. [pred¹ DO IO-*čit/hta/chin*]
- b. [IO-*čit/hta/chin* pred DO]

II. Incorporation:

- a. [DO-pred IO-*čit/hta/chin*]
- b. [IO-*čit/hta/chin* DO-pred]

The morpheme *čit* ‘do to’

- (5) a. ʔu-yii-mit-ʔiʃ John ʔiiḥciip ʔaya-čit (clause-final)
 ∅-give-PAST-3SG.IND John flowers many-do.to
 ‘John gave flowers to many.’
- b. ʔaya-čit-mit-ʔiʃ John ʔu-yii ʔiiḥciip (clause-initial)
 many-do.to-PAST-3.SG.IND John ∅-give flowers
 ‘John gave flowers to many.’
- c. $\text{ʔiiḥciip-yii-mit-ʔiʃ}$ John ʔaya-čit (incorporation)
 flowers-give-PAST-3SG.IND John many-do.to
 ‘John gave flowers to many.’
- d. ʔaya-čit-mit-ʔiʃ John ʔiiḥciip-yii (incorporation)
 many-do.to-PAST-3SG.IND John flowers-give
 ‘John gave flowers to many.’

¹ pred = predicate

The morpheme *hta* ‘do towards’

- (6) a. ʔu-yii-mit-ʔiʃ John ʔaya-hta (clause-final)
 \emptyset -give-PAST-3SG.IND John flowers many-do.towards
 ‘John gave flowers to many.’
- b. ʔaya-hta-mit-ʔiʃ John ʔu-yii ʔiihciip (clause-initial)
 many-do.towards-PAST-3SG.IND John \emptyset -give flowers
 ‘John gave flowers to many.’
- c. $\text{ʔiihciip-yii-mit-ʔiʃ}$ John ʔaya-hta (incorporation)
 flowers-give-PAST-3SG.IND John many-do.towards
 ‘John gave flowers to many.’
- d. ʔaya-hta-mit-ʔiʃ John ʔiihciip-yii (incorporation)
 many-do.towards-PAST-3SG.IND John flowers-give
 ‘John gave flowers to many.’

The morpheme *chin* ‘do for’

- (7) a. ʔu-hci-siʃ haʔum sut-chin (clause-final)
 \emptyset -cook-1SG.IND food you-do.for
 ‘I cook food for you.’
- b. sut-chin-siʃ ʔu-hci haʔum (clause-initial)
 you-do.for-1SG.IND \emptyset -cook food
 ‘I cook food for you.’
- c. haʔum-hci-siʃ sut-chin (incorporation)
 food-cook-1SG.IND you-do.for
 ‘I cook food for you.’
- d. sut-chin-siʃ haʔum-hci (incorporation)
 you-do.for-1SG.IND food-cook
 ‘I cook food for you.’

The morphemes *ciʔ* ‘do to’, *hta* ‘do towards’ and *chin* ‘do for’ obligatory suffix to the following objects: the reflexive pronoun $\text{ʔuk}^w\text{a}$ ‘self’, the personal pronouns *sii* ‘me’, *sut* ‘you-SG’, *niih* ‘us’ and *siih* ‘you-PL’; and *wh*-words if these objects occur in the sentence. They optionally suffix to object-quantifiers and to the pleonastic morpheme ʔu- . These morphemes never attach to a subject.

- (8) a. $\text{ʔuk}^w\text{a-ciʔ-mit-ʔiʃ}$ čakup ʔu-čus (with reflexive pron.)
 self-do.to-PAST-3SG.IND man \emptyset -make.fun
 ‘A man made fun of himself.’

- b. $\text{ʔu-}\acute{\text{c}}\text{us-mit-ʔi}\acute{\text{s}}$ $\acute{\text{c}}\text{akup } \text{ʔuk}^{\text{w}}\text{a-}\acute{\text{c}}\text{i}\acute{\text{t}}$
 \emptyset -make.fun-PAST-3SG.IND man self-do.to
 ‘A man made fun of himself.’
- c. * $\text{ʔu-}\acute{\text{c}}\text{i}\acute{\text{t}}\text{-mit-ʔi}\acute{\text{s}}$ $\acute{\text{c}}\text{akup } \text{ʔuk}^{\text{w}}\text{a } \text{ʔu-}\acute{\text{c}}\text{us}$
 \emptyset -do.to-PAST-3SG.IND man self \emptyset -make.fun
 ‘A man made fun of himself.’
- d. * $\text{ʔu-}\acute{\text{c}}\text{i}\acute{\text{t}}\text{-mit-ʔi}\acute{\text{s}}$ $\acute{\text{c}}\text{akup } \text{ʔuk}^{\text{w}}\text{a-}\acute{\text{c}}\text{us}$
 \emptyset -do.to-PAST-3SG.IND man self-make.fun
 ‘A man made fun of himself.’

In (8a) and (8b), the morpheme *čit* ‘do to’ is suffixed to the reflexive pronoun $\text{ʔuk}^{\text{w}}\text{a}$ ‘self’, and the sentences are correct. In (8c) and (8d), this morpheme is not suffixed to the reflexive, and the sentences are ungrammatical.

- (9) a. $\text{sii-}\acute{\text{c}}\text{i}\acute{\text{t}}\text{-mit-ʔi}\acute{\text{s}}$ $\acute{\text{c}}\text{akup } \text{ʔu-}\acute{\text{c}}\text{us}$ (with personal pron.)
 me-do.to-PAST-3SG.IND man \emptyset -make.fun
 ‘A man made fun of me.’
- b. $\text{ʔu-}\acute{\text{c}}\text{us-mit-ʔi}\acute{\text{s}}$ $\acute{\text{c}}\text{akup } \text{sii-}\acute{\text{c}}\text{i}\acute{\text{t}}$
 \emptyset -make.fun-PAST-3SG.IND man me-do.to
 ‘A man made fun of me.’
- c. * $\text{ʔu-}\acute{\text{c}}\text{i}\acute{\text{t}}\text{-mit-ʔi}\acute{\text{s}}$ $\acute{\text{c}}\text{akup } \text{sii } \text{ʔu-}\acute{\text{c}}\text{us}$
 \emptyset -do.to-PAST-3SG.IND man me \emptyset -make.fun
 ‘A man made fun of me.’
- d. * $\text{ʔu-}\acute{\text{c}}\text{i}\acute{\text{t}}\text{-mit-ʔi}\acute{\text{s}}$ $\acute{\text{c}}\text{akup } \text{sii-}\acute{\text{c}}\text{us}$
 \emptyset -do.to-PAST-3SG.IND man me-make.fun
 ‘A man made fun of me.’

In (9a) and (9b), the morpheme *čit* ‘do to’ is suffixed to the personal pronoun *sii* ‘me’, and the sentences are grammatical. In (9c) and (9d), this morpheme is not suffixed to the same personal pronoun, and the sentences are incorrect.

- (10) a. $\text{ʔa}\acute{\text{c}}\text{a-}\acute{\text{c}}\text{i}\acute{\text{t}}\text{-mit-ʔi}\acute{\text{s}}$ $\acute{\text{c}}\text{akup } \text{ʔu-}\acute{\text{c}}\text{us}$ (with *wh*-object)
 who-do.to-PAST-3SG.IND man \emptyset -make.fun
 ‘Who(m) did a man make fun of?’
- b. * $\text{ʔu-}\acute{\text{c}}\text{i}\acute{\text{t}}\text{-mit-ʔi}\acute{\text{s}}$ $\acute{\text{c}}\text{akup } \text{ʔa}\acute{\text{c}}\text{a } \text{ʔu-}\acute{\text{c}}\text{us}$
 \emptyset -do.to-PAST-3SG.IND man who \emptyset -make.fun
 ‘Who(m) did a man make fun of?’
- c. * $\text{ʔu-}\acute{\text{c}}\text{i}\acute{\text{t}}\text{-mit-ʔi}\acute{\text{s}}$ $\acute{\text{c}}\text{akup } \text{ʔa}\acute{\text{c}}\text{a-}\acute{\text{c}}\text{us}$
 \emptyset -do.to-PAST-3SG.IND man who-make.fun
 ‘Who(m) did a man make fun of?’

In (10a), the morpheme *čit* ‘do to’ is suffixed to the *wh*-word *ʔača* ‘who’, which yields a grammatical sentence. In (10b) and (10c), however, this morpheme is not suffixed to the *wh*-word, and the sentence is incorrect.

- (11) a. *hiš-čit-mit-ʔiš* *čakup ʔu-čus* (with quantifier)
 everybody-do.to-PAST-3SG.IND man \emptyset -make.fun
 ‘A man made fun of everybody.’
- b. *ʔu-čus-mitʔiš* *čakup hiš-čit*
 \emptyset -make.fun-PAST-3SG.IND man everybody-do.to
 ‘A man made fun of everybody.’
- c. *ʔu-čit-mit-ʔiš* *čakup hiš-aata* *ʔu-čus*
 \emptyset -do.to-PAST-3SG.IND man everybody-direction \emptyset -make.fun
 ‘A man made fun of everybody.’

In (11a) and (11b), the morpheme *čit* ‘do to’ is suffixed to the quantifier *hiš* ‘everybody’. In (11c), this morpheme is not suffixed to the quantifier. All three sentences are grammatical, which illustrates that the morpheme *čit* ‘do to’ can optionally suffix to quantifiers. The sentence (11c) also shows that *čit* ‘do to’ can attach to the pleonastic morpheme *ʔu*.

In (12), the sentence can only be correct if the *wh*-word is an object. If the *wh*-word refers to the subject, the sentence becomes ungrammatical.

- (12) *ʔača-čit-mit-ʔiš* *hiš-aata* *ʔu-čus* (with subject)
 who-do.to-PAST-3SG.IND everybody-direction \emptyset -make.fun
 * ‘Who made fun of everybody?’ (*wh*-word = subject)
 ‘Who(m) did everybody make fun of?’ (*wh*-word = object)

The discussed above is summarized in the Table 1 below.

Table 1: The use of *čit* ‘do to’, *hta* ‘do towards’ and *čin* ‘do for’ in Nuuchahnulth

Category		<i>čit/hta/čin</i>
Objects	Reflexive pronoun <i>ʔuk^wa</i> ‘self’	✓ (obligatory)
	Personal pronouns <i>sii</i> ‘me’, <i>sut</i> ‘you-SG’, <i>niih</i> ‘us’, <i>siih</i> ‘you-PL’	✓ (obligatory)
	<i>Wh</i> -words	✓ (obligatory)
	Quantifiers	✓ (optional)
	Pleonastic morpheme <i>ʔu</i> -	✓ (optional)
Subjects		*

4 Previous analyses of the morpheme *čit* ‘do to’

There has been no research done explicitly on the morphemes *hta* ‘do towards’ and *chin* ‘do for’. However, two syntactic analyses of the morpheme *čit* ‘do to’ have been proposed. Both analyses focus on the interaction of *čit* ‘do to’ with *wh*-words.

According to one analysis (Davis & Sawai 2001), *čit* is an object auxiliary generated above the VP. According to the other analysis (Sawai 2002), *čit* is a focus particle generated above the IP. It has also been suggested by Wojdak (2002) that *čit* could be analyzed as an accusative case marker. I discuss all three proposals in turn below.

4.1 *čit* ‘do.to’ is an object auxiliary (Davis & Sawai 2001)

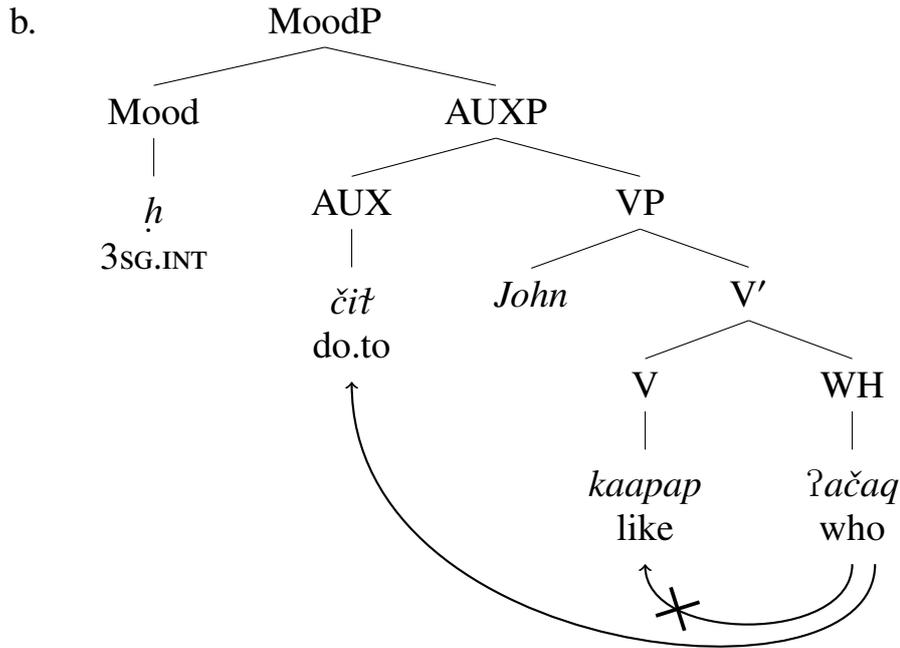
According to Davis & Sawai, *čit* is an incorporating object auxiliary projected above the VP. *Wh*-words attach to *čit* ‘do.to’ when used with a non-incorporating verb. The *wh*-verb complex then undergoes head-movement to Mood, and after that to C (13b).

To account for the fact that a *wh*-word cannot incorporate into a non-incorporating verb, Davis & Sawai adopt a “relativized” version of Relativized Minimality² (Rizzi 1995). They propose that only potentially incorporating predicate can count as an intervening head for purposes of incorporation. Therefore, in (13b) above, the *wh*-word *ʔaača* ‘who’ incorporates into the auxiliary *čit* ‘do.to’ without a minimality violation.

A fatal problem with Davis & Sawai’s analysis was pointed out by Wojdak (2002). According to Wojdak, if extended to account for the reflexive pronoun *ʔuk^wa* ‘self’, the analysis violates Relativized Minimality. Thus, in (14b), the movement *a* should be blocked, because the auxiliary *čit* ‘do.to’ intervenes between I and V. The sentence (14b) is predicted to be ungrammatical. However, it is attested in NCN (see below).

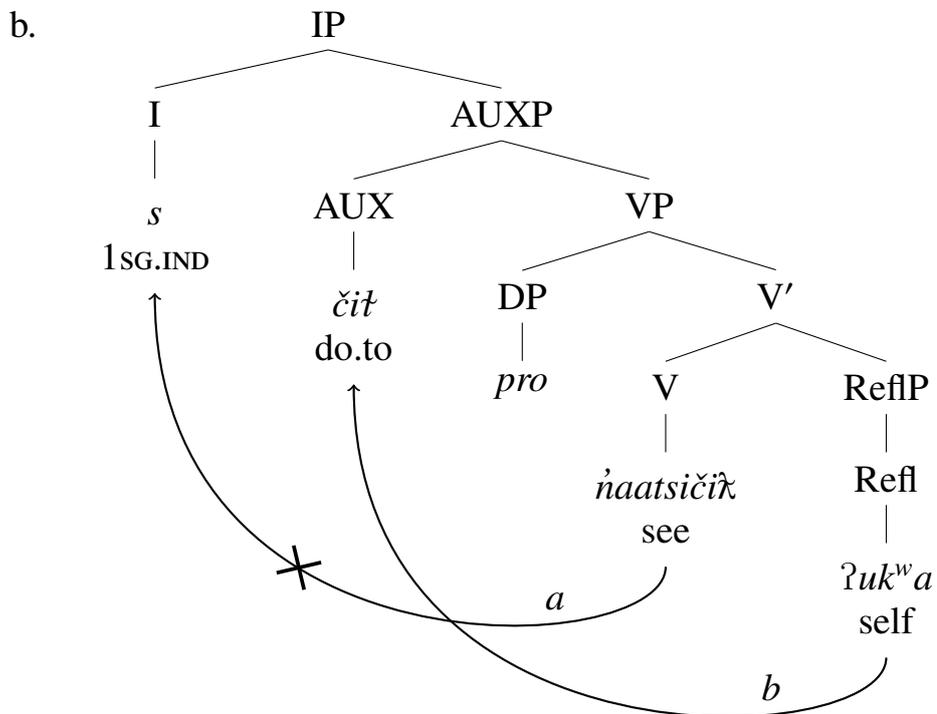
- (13) a. *ʔaača-čit-ḥ* kaapap John
 who-do.to-3SG.INT like John
 ‘Who does John like?’

² *Relativized Minimality*: X x-governs Y if there is no Z such that (i) Z is a typical potential x-governor for Y; (ii) Z c-commands Y and Z does not c-command X.



(Davis & Sawai 2001: 128)

- (14) a. *ńaatsičiḱ-s ʔuk^wa-čit*
 see-1SG.IND self-do.to
 'I saw myself.'



(Wojdak 2002: 12)

4.2 *čit* ‘do.to’ is a focus particle (Sawai 2002)

According to Sawai (2002), *čit* ‘do to’ is a focus particle generated above the IP in the head of FocP. The *wh*-phrase moves into Spec,FocP to check the strong [focus] feature of the head.

This analysis predicts that *čit* ‘do to’ should always appear before the main predicate, because it is generated above the main predicate in a syntactic tree. However, this does not account for the correct sentences where *čit* ‘do to’ is used clause-finally after the main predicate (see 15 below).

(15) What did you do to yourself?

- a. ʔu-ćus-mit-siš ʔuk^wa-čit
 ∅-make.fun-PAST.1SG.IND self-do.to
 ‘I MADE FUN of myself.’
- b. mačič-mit-siš ʔuk^wa-čit
 bite-PAST-1SG.IND self-do.to
 ‘I BIT myself.’

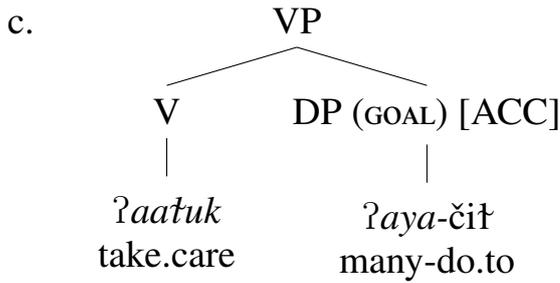
This analysis also predicts that in (15), the reflexive pronoun ʔuk^wa ‘self’ should be focused, because it attaches to the focus particle *čit*. However, as the data above indicate, it is not the case in the language. In (15a), only the verbs *ćus* ‘make fun’ is focused and in (15b), only the verb *mačič* ‘bite’ is focused.

4.3 *čit* ‘do.to’ is a structural accusative case marker

If the morpheme *čit* ‘do to’ were a structural ACC case marker, it would predict that this morpheme cannot be sensitive to theta roles of the verb’s arguments. Thus, in both (16) and (17) below, *čit* ‘do to’ should attach to ʔaya ‘many’ because ʔaya is a complement of the verb.

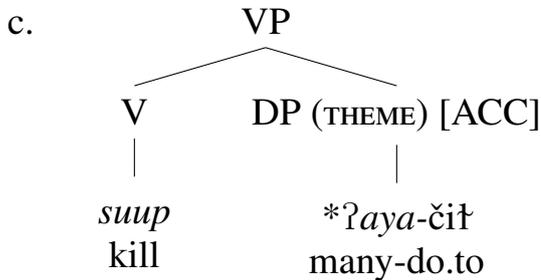
- (16) a. ʔu-ʔaaʔuk-mit-ʔiš čakup ʔaya-čit (ʔaya = GOAL)
 ∅-take.care-PAST-3SG.IND man many-do.to
 ‘A man took care of many.’
- b. * ʔu-ʔaaʔuk-mit-ʔiš čakup ʔaya (ʔaya = GOAL)
 ∅-take.care-PAST-3SG.IND man many
 ‘A man took care of many.’³

³ This example as well as all correct examples below are grammatical data in Nuuchahnulth volunteered by native speakers. The examples do not miss information, compared with their English translations, where the word *something* is missing.



(17) a. * ?u-suup-mit-?iš čakup ?aya (?aya = THEME)
 ∅-kill-PAST-3SG.IND man many
 ‘A man killed many.’

b. ?u-suup-mit-?iš čakup ?aya (?aya = THEME)
 ∅-kill-PAST-3SG.IND man many
 ‘A man killed many.’



However, as the data above indicate, it is not the case in the language. The NCN sentences show that this morpheme is sensitive to theta roles of the verb’s complements. In (16), ?aya ‘many’ is a GOAL argument of the verb. The morpheme čit ‘do to’ attaches to this argument, and the sentence is correct. In (17), ?aya ‘many’ is a THEME argument. The morpheme čit ‘do to’ attaches to it, and the sentence is ungrammatical. This sensitivity with regard to theta-roles is not predicted by the analysis of čit ‘do to’ as an ACC case marker.

To rule out a possibility that the verb *suup* ‘kill’ in (17) is “special”, such that it does not assign ACC case to its complement, I illustrate below more examples where čit ‘do to’ is ungrammatical on the THEME argument of the verb (18-20).

(18) a. * ?u-?iic-mit-?iš čakup ?aya-čit (?aya = THEME)
 ∅-eat-PAST-3SG.IND man many-do.to
 ‘A man ate a lot.’

b. ?u-?iic-mit-?iš čakup ?aya (?aya = THEME)
 ∅-eat-PAST-3SG.IND man many
 ‘A man ate a lot.’

In (18) above, čit ‘do to’ is ungrammatical on the THEME argument ?aya ‘many’ of the verb ?iic ‘eat’.

- (19) a. * ʔu-kwiiʔ-mit-ʔiʃ John ʔaya-*čit* (ʔaya = THEME)
 ∅-make-PAST-3SG.IND John many-do.to
 ‘John made a lot (of something).’
 b. ʔu-kwiiʔ-mit-ʔiʃ John ʔaya (ʔaya = THEME)
 ∅-make-PAST-3SG.IND John many
 ‘John made a lot (of something).’

In (19) above, *čit* ‘do to’ is ungrammatical on the THEME argument ʔaya ‘many’ of the verb *kwiiʔ* ‘make’.

- (20) a. ʔu-yii-mit-ʔiʃ John ʔaatnaʔis ʔaya-*čit*
 ∅-give-PAST-3SG.IND John children many-do.to
 * ‘John gave children lots (of something).’
 ‘John gave (something) to many children.’
 b. ʔu-yii-mit-ʔiʃ John ʔaatnaʔis ʔaya
 ∅-give-PAST-3SG.IND John children many
 ‘John gave children lots (of something).’
 * ‘John gave (something) to many children.’

In (20), *čit* ‘do to’ is ungrammatical on the THEME argument ʔaya ‘many’ of the verb *yii* ‘give’. However, it is grammatical with the GOAL argument of this verb. Thus, in (20a), ʔaya ‘many’ is a GOAL argument of the verb *yii* ‘give’. The morpheme *čit* ‘do to’ attaches to this argument, and the sentence is correct. In (20b), ʔaya ‘many’ is a THEME argument of the same verb *yii* ‘give’, and the grammatical sentence occurs without *čit* ‘do to’.

Another argument that shows that *čit* ‘do to’ is not a structural ACC case marker concerns passive constructions in NCN. If this morpheme were a structural ACC case marker, we would expect it not to appear on the THEME which has been promoted to subject in passive constructions (see Kim 2001 on object promotion in passive constructions). However, as the example (21b) below indicates, *čit* ‘do to’ is grammatical on the promoted object in a passive clause (compare with 21a).

- (21) a. ʔu-čus-mit-ʔiʃ Mary sut-*čit*
 ∅-make.fun-PAST-3SG.IND Mary you-do.to
 ‘Mary made fun of you.’
 b. sut-*čit*-ʔat-mit-ʔick ʔu-čus-ʔat ʔuhʔat Mary
 you-do.to-PASSIVE-PAST-2SG.IND ∅-make.fun-PASSIVE by Mary
 ‘You were made fun of by Mary.’

As (21) shows, the morpheme *čit* ‘do to’ is used in both active and passive clauses, which is not predicted by this analysis.

Another piece of evidence that *čit* ‘do to’ is not a case marker comes from its position in a clause. If *čit* ‘do to’ were a case marker, we would expect it to appear attached to the argument and act as a constituent with the argument. However, as the examples below indicate, *čit* ‘do to’ can occur either on the argument, or separated from it (as in 22b, compare with 22a), which is unexpected if analyzing *čit* ‘do to’ as a case marker.

- (22) a. ʔaya-*čit*-mit-ʔiš čakup ʔu-čus (on the argument)
 many-do.to-past-3sg.ind man ø-make.fun
 ‘A man made fun of many.’
- b. ʔu-*čit*-mit-ʔiš čakup ʔaya ʔu-čus (separated)
 ø-do.to-past-3sg.ind man many ø-make.fun
 ‘A man made fun of many.’

5 The proposal

I propose that the morphemes *čit* ‘do to’, *hta* ‘do towards’ and *čin* ‘do for’ are verbal applicatives that add a non-core (additional) argument to the thematic structure of a verb. In 5.1, I show that these morphemes are verbs. In 5.2, I argue that these morphemes serve to introduce a non-core argument.

5.1 The morphemes *čit* ‘do to’, *hta* ‘do towards’ and *čin* ‘do for’ are verbs

One argument in favor of the verbal status of the morphemes *čit* ‘do to’, *hta* ‘do towards’ and *čin* ‘do for’ is that they appear independently as verbs meaning ‘do to’, ‘do towards’ and ‘do for’.

The morpheme čit ‘do to’

- (23) a. ʔu-*čit*-mit-ʔiš John ʔumʔiiq (as a verb in a statement)
 ø-do.to-PAST-3SG.IND John mother
 ‘John did (something) to mother.’
- b. ʔača-*čit*-mit-ḥ John (as a verb in a question)
 who-do.to-PAST-3SG.INT John
 ‘Who(m) did John do (something) to?’

The morpheme hta ‘do towards’

- (24) a. ʔu-hta-mit-ʔiš John ʔumʔiiq (as a verb in a statement)
 ø-do.towards-PAST-3SG.IND John mother
 ‘John did (something) to mother.’
- b. ʔača-hta-mit-ḥ John (as a verb in a question)
 who-do.towards-PAST-3SG.INT John
 ‘Who(m) did John do (something) to?’

The morpheme chin ‘do for’

- (25) a. ʔu-chin-mit-ʔiš John ʔumʔiiq (as a verb in a statement)
 ø-do.for-PAST-3SG.IND John mother
 ‘John did (something) for mother.’
- b. ʔača-chin-mit-ḥ John (as a verb in a question)
 who-do.for-PAST-3SG.INT John
 ‘Who(m) did John do (something) to?’

These morphemes can have the same arguments as other verbs in NCN: they can be used with common nouns, proper names, inanimate nouns, reflexive pronouns, personal pronouns and quantifiers.

- (26) a. ʔu-čit-mit-ʔiš John ʔumʔiiq
 ø-do.to-PAST-3SG.IND John mother
 ‘John did (something) to mother.’
- b. ʔu-ćus-mit-ʔiš John ʔumʔiiq
 ø-make.fun-PAST-3SG.IND John mother
 ‘John made fun of mother.’

In (26a) above, the morpheme *čit* ‘do to’ is used with the common noun *ʔumʔiiq* ‘mother’. In (26b), the verb *ćus* ‘make fun’ is used with the same common noun.

- (27) a. ʔu-čit-mit-ʔiš Mary John
 ø-do.to-PAST-3SG.IND Mary John
 ‘Mary did (something) to John.’
- b. ʔu-ćus-mit-ʔiš Mary John
 ø-make.fun-PAST-3SG.IND Mary John
 ‘Mary made fun of John.’

In (27a), the morpheme *čit* ‘do to’ is used with the proper name *John*. In (27b), the verb *ćus* ‘make fun’ is used with the same proper name.

- (28) a. $\text{ʔu-}\dot{c}it\text{-mit-ʔi}\dot{s}$ John huupuk^was-uk Bill
 \emptyset -do.to-PAST-3SG.IND John car-POSSESSIVE Bill
 ‘John did (something) to Bill’s car.’
 b. $\text{ʔu-}\dot{c}us\text{-mit-ʔi}\dot{s}$ John huupuk^was-uk Bill
 \emptyset -make.fun-PAST-3SG.IND John car-POSSESSIVE Bill
 ‘John made fun of Bill’s car.’

In (28a), the morpheme *čit* ‘do to’ is used with the inanimate noun *huupuk^was* ‘car’. In (28b), the verb *ćus* ‘make fun’ is used with the same inanimate noun.

- (29) a. $\text{ʔuk}^w\text{a-}\dot{c}it\text{-mit-ʔi}\dot{s}$ John
 self-do.to-PAST-3SG.IND John
 ‘John did (something) to himself.’
 b. $\text{ʔuk}^w\text{a-}\dot{c}us\text{-mit-ʔi}\dot{s}$ John
 self-make.fun-PAST-3SG.IND John
 ‘John made fun of himself.’

In (29a), the morpheme *čit* ‘do to’ is used with the reflexive pronoun *ʔuk^wa* ‘self’. In (29b), the verb *ćus* ‘make fun’ is used with the same reflexive pronoun.

- (30) a. $\text{sut-}\dot{c}it\text{-mit-ʔi}\dot{s}$ John
 you-do.to-PAST-3SG.IND John
 ‘John did (something) to you.’
 b. $\text{sut-}\dot{c}us\text{-mit-ʔi}\dot{s}$ John
 you-make.fun-PAST-3SG.IND John
 ‘John made fun of you.’

In (30a), the morpheme *čit* ‘do to’ is used with the personal pronoun *sut* ‘you’. In (30b), the verb *ćus* ‘make fun’ is used with the same personal pronoun.

- (31) a. $\text{ʔu-}\dot{c}it\text{-mit-ʔi}\dot{s}$ John hiš-aata
 \emptyset -do.to-PAST-3SG.IND John everybody-direction
 ‘John did (something) to everybody.’
 b. $\text{ʔu-}\dot{c}us\text{-mit-ʔi}\dot{s}$ John hiš-aata
 \emptyset -make.fun-PAST-3SG.IND John everybody-direction
 ‘John made fun of everybody.’

In (31a), the morpheme *čit* ‘do to’ is used with the quantifier *hiš* ‘everybody’. In (31b), the verb *ćus* ‘make fun’ is used with the same quantifier.

Another piece of evidence that *čit* ‘do to’, *hta* ‘do towards’ and *chin* ‘do for’ are verbs comes from examples where these morphemes can occur with the passive suffix *-ʔat*, just like other verbs in NCN.

- (32) a. $\text{ʔu-}\check{c}it\text{-ʔat-mit-ʔi}\check{s}$ ʔumʔiiq
 \emptyset -do.to-PASSIVE-PAST-3SG.IND mother
 ‘It was done to mother.’
- b. $\text{ʔu-}\acute{c}us\text{-ʔat-mit-ʔi}\check{s}$ ʔumʔiiq
 \emptyset -make.fun-PASSIVE-PAST-3SG.IND mother
 ‘Mother was made fun of.’

In (32a), the morpheme *čit* ‘do to’ appears with the passive suffix *-ʔat*. In (32b), the verb *ćus* ‘make fun’ is used with the same passive suffix.

In NCN, only incorporating predicates can occur with the expletive morpheme *ʔu-* (Woo & Wojdak 2001). As the data below show, the morphemes *čit* ‘do to’, *hta* ‘do towards’ and *čin* ‘do for’ can also occur with the expletive *ʔu-* (see also Section 2.2).

- (33) a. $\text{ʔu-}\check{c}it\text{-mit-ʔi}\check{s}$ John ʔumʔiiq
 \emptyset -do.to-PAST-3SG.IND John mother
 ‘John did (something) to mother.’
- b. $\text{ʔu-}\acute{c}us\text{-mit-ʔi}\check{s}$ John ʔumʔiiq
 \emptyset -make.fun-PAST-3SG.IND John mother
 ‘John made fun of mother.’

In (33a), the morpheme *čit* ‘do to’ appears with the expletive morpheme *ʔu-*. In (33b), the verb *ćus* ‘make fun’ is used with the expletive *ʔu-*.

Another similarity with incorporating verbs is that *čit* ‘do to’, *hta* ‘do towards’ and *čin* ‘do for’ can suffix to a *wh*-word.

- (34) a. $\text{ʔa}\acute{c}a\text{-}\check{c}it\text{-mit-ʔi}\check{s}$ John
 who-do.to-PAST-3SG.IND John
 ‘Who(m) did John do (something) to?’
- b. $\text{ʔa}\acute{c}a\text{-suup-}\check{h}\text{-ʔa}\acute{c}$ John
 who-kill-3SG.INT-CONFIRM John
 ‘Who did John kill?’

In (34a), the morpheme *čit* ‘do to’ appears suffixed to the *wh*-word *ʔača* ‘who’. In (34b), the verb *ćus* ‘make fun’ is also suffixed to the same *wh*-word.

I have shown above that the morphemes *čit* ‘do to’, *hta* ‘do towards’ and *čin* ‘do for’ and incorporating verbs behave very similarly in NCN. The question arises: are there any differences? The only difference found is that unlike other incorporating verbs, *čit* ‘do to’, *hta* ‘do towards’ and *čin* ‘do for’ cannot suffix to a noun or another verb.

- (35) a. * ʔa-ʔiič-čit-mit-ʔiš John
 PL-old.person-do.to-PAST-3SG.IND John
 ‘John did (something) to old people.’
 b. ʔa-ʔiič-ʔaatuk-mit-ʔiš John
 PL-old.person-take.care-PAST-3SG.IND John
 ‘John took care of old people.’

In (35a), the morpheme *čit* ‘do to’ is ungrammatical when suffixed to the noun *ʔaʔiič* ‘old people’. In (35b), the verb *ʔaatuk* ‘take care’ appears suffixed to the noun *ʔaʔiič* ‘old people’.

- (36) a. * ʔiix-čit-mit-ʔiš John ʔumʔiiq
 laugh-do.to-PAST-3SG.IND John mother
 ‘John did (something) laughing at mother.’
 b. ʔiix-čus-mit-ʔiš John ʔumʔiiq
 laugh-make.fun-PAST-3SG.IND John mother
 ‘John made fun laughing at mother.’

In (36a), the morpheme *čit* ‘do to’ is ungrammatical when suffixed to the verb *ʔiix* ‘laugh’. In (36b), the verb *čus* ‘make fun’ is suffixed to the verb *ʔiix* ‘laugh’.

I attempt to explain this difference between *čit*, *hta* and *čin* and other incorporating verbs in NCN in the Section 6.3.

The discussed above is summarized in the Table 2.

Table 2: The morphemes *čit* ‘do to’, *hta* ‘do towards’, *čin* ‘do for’ are verbs

Properties	Verbs	<i>čit/hta/čin</i>
Occur as verbs in sentence	✓	✓
Used with: common/proper, animate/inanimate nouns, pronouns, quantifiers	✓	✓
Appear with passive <i>-ʔat</i>	✓	✓
Occur with expletive <i>ʔu-</i>	✓	✓
Suffix to <i>wh</i> -words, pronouns, quantifiers	✓	✓
Suffix to nouns, verbs	✓	X

5.2 The morphemes *čit* ‘do to’, *hta* ‘do towards’ and *chin* ‘do for’ are applicatives

Many languages have a means of adding an indirect object to the argument structure of a verb (Pylkkanen 2002). This is widely attested in the Bantu languages amongst many others (Bresnan & Moshi 1993). Such additional arguments are called applied arguments. The term applicatives is used to refer to elements that serve to add an applied argument to the argument structure of a verb. I argue that the morphemes *čit* ‘do to’, *hta* ‘do towards’ and *chin* ‘do for’ are applicatives, because they are used to introduce such additional (non-core) arguments.

In the following example (37a), the intransitive stative verb *hiix^wat* ‘be angry’ has the core argument AGENT ‘I’. In (37b) and (37c), the non-core argument *ʔaya* ‘many’ is added, in which case the morphemes *čit* ‘do to’ or *hta* ‘do towards’ appear in the sentence.

- (37) a. *hiix^wat-ḥi-siš*
 be.angry-STATE-1SG.IND
 ‘I am angry.’
- b. *hiix^wat-ḥi-siš* *ʔaya-čit*
 be.angry-STATE-1SG.IND many-do.to
 ‘I am angry at many.’
- c. *hiix^wat-ḥi-siš* *ʔaya-hta*
 be.angry-STATE-1SG.IND many-do.towards
 ‘I am angry at many.’

čit ‘do to’ and *hta* ‘do towards’ are also used in questions when an additional argument occurs in the sentence (38a and 38b below).

- (38) a. *ʔača-čit-k* *hiix^wat-ḥi*
 who-do.to-2SG.INT be.angry-STATE
 ‘Who are you angry at?’
- b. *ʔača-hta-k* *hiix^wat-ḥi*
 who-do.towards-2SG.INT be.angry-STATE
 ‘Who(m) are you angry at?’

In (38a) and (38b), the non-core argument ‘who’ is added. As a result, the morphemes *čit* ‘do to’ or *hta* ‘do towards’ appear in the sentence.

- (39) a. *kamatq-šiḷ-ʔaqḷ-siš* ...
 run-PERF-FUTURE-1SG.IND
 ‘I will run (e. g. to the store).’

- b. kamatq-šił-ʔaqł-siš ʔaya chin ...
 run-PERF-FUTURE-1SG.IND many-do.for
 ‘I will run for many (on behalf of many).’

In (39a), the intransitive unergative verb *kamatq* ‘run’ has the core argument AGENT ‘I’. In (39b), the non-core argument ‘many’ is added, which causes the morpheme *chin* ‘do for’ to appear in the sentence.

- (40) ʔača-*chin*-ʔaqł-k kamatq-šił
 who-do.for-FUTURE-2SG.INT run-PERF
 ‘For who(m) will you run?’

In (40), the non-core argument ‘who’ is added, and the morpheme *chin* ‘do for’ is used in the sentence.

- (41) a. qaacii-tʔap-mit-ʔiš John suuḥaa
 give.food-bring-PAST-3SG.IND John salmon
 ‘John brought a salmon.’
 b. qaacii-tʔap-mit-ʔiš John suuḥaa ʔaya-*čit*
 give.food-bring-PAST-3SG.IND John salmon many-do.to
 ‘John brought a salmon to many.’
 c. qaacii-tʔap-mit-ʔiš John suuḥaa ʔaya-*hta*
 give.food-bring-PAST-3SG.IND John salmon many-do.towards
 ‘John brought a salmon to many.’

In (41a), the transitive verb *qaacii* ‘bring’ has two core arguments: the AGENT ‘John’ and the THEME ‘salmon’. When the non-core argument ‘many’ is added, the morphemes *čit* ‘do to’ or *hta* ‘do towards’ are used in the sentence (41b), (41c).

- (42) a. ʔača-*čit*-mit-ḥ John qaacii-tʔap suuḥaa
 who-do.to-PAST-2SG.INT John give.food-bring salmon
 ‘Who(m) did John bring a salmon to?’
 b. ʔača-*hta*-mit-ḥ John qaacii-tʔap suuḥaa
 who-do.towards-PAST-2SG.INT John give.food-bring salmon
 ‘Who(m) did John bring a salmon to?’

In (42a) and (42b), the non-core argument ‘who’ is added. As a result, the morphemes *čit* ‘do to’ or *hta* ‘do towards’ appear in the sentence.

- (43) a. haʔum-ḥcii-siš
 food-cook-1SG.IND
 ‘I cook food.’

- b. haʔum-ħcii-siš ʔaya-*chin*
 food-cook-1SG.IND many-do.for
 ‘I cook food for many.’

In (43a), the transitive verb *ħcii* ‘cook’ has two core arguments, the AGENT ‘I’ and the THEME ‘food’. When the non-core argument ‘many’ is added, the morpheme *chin* ‘do for’ appears in the sentence (43b).

- (44) ʔača-*chin*-k haʔum-ħcii
 who-do.for-2SG.INT food-cook
 ‘Who(m) do you cook food for?’

In (44), the non-core argument ‘who’ is added, and the morpheme *chin* ‘do for’ is used in the sentence.

I have shown above that the morphemes *čit* ‘do to’, *hta* ‘do towards’ and *chin* ‘do for’ occur with additional arguments in NCN. If these morphemes are applicatives, i. e. they serve to add a non-core argument to the thematic structure of a verb, we would expect that additional arguments cannot be added without these morphemes. This prediction is shown to be correct in the examples below.

- (45) a. * qaacii-tʔap-mit-ʔiš John suuḥaa ʔaya
 give.food-bring-PAST-3SG.IND John salmon many
 ‘John brought a salmon to many.’
 b. qaacii-tʔap-mit-ʔiš John suuḥaa ʔaya-*čit*
 give.food-bring-PAST-3SG.IND John salmon many-do.to
 ‘John brought a salmon to many.’
 c. qaacii-tʔap-mit-ʔiš John suuḥaa ʔaya-*hta*
 give.food-bring-PAST-3SG.IND John salmon many-do.towards
 ‘John brought a salmon to many.’
- (46) a. * haʔum-ħcii-siš ʔaya
 food-cook-1SG.IND many
 ‘I cook food for many.’
 b. haʔum-ħcii-siš ʔaya-*chin*
 food-cook-1SG.IND many-do.for
 ‘I cook food for many.’

The current theory predicts that the applicative morphemes *čit* ‘do to’, *hta* ‘do towards’ and *chin* ‘do for’ cannot be used with a core argument of the verb. Below I show that this prediction is borne out, as these morphemes are ungrammatical with a core THEME argument of the verb.

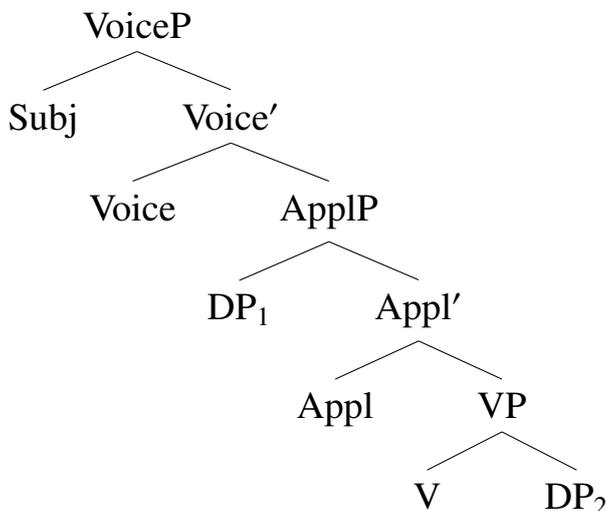
- (47) a. haʔum-ħćii-siš ʔaya
 food-cook-1SG.IND many
 ‘I cook lots of food.’
- b. ʔu-ħćii-siš [ʔaya haʔum]
 ∅-cook-1SG.IND many food
 ‘I cook lots of food.’
- c. * ʔu-ħćii-siš
 ∅-cook-1SG.IND
 ‘I cook.’
- d. * haʔum-ħćii-siš ʔaya-čit
 food-cook-1SG.IND many-do.to
 ‘I cook lots of food.’
- e. * ʔu-ħćii-siš [ʔaya-čit haʔum]
 ∅-cook-1SG.IND many-do.to food
 ‘I cook lots of food.’

In (47d) and (47e), the applicative is attached to the core THEME argument, and the sentences are ungrammatical.

6 A syntactic structure for the NCN applicatives

Pylkkanen (2002) argues that cross-linguistically there are two different types of applicatives: high applicatives and low applicatives. High applicatives denote a relation between an event and an individual and attach above the verb (48). Low applicatives denote a relation between two individuals and attach below the verb (50). The two constructions are similar in that in both, the applied (additional) argument asymmetrically c-commands the direct object.

(48) (Pylkkanen 2002: 19)



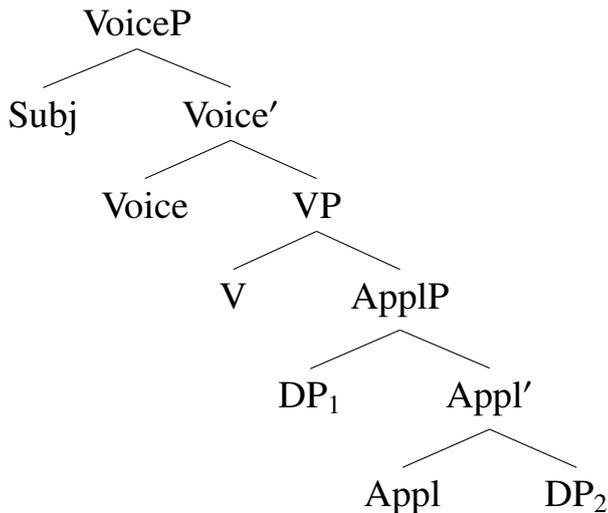
In (48), the applicative adds another participant to the event described by the verb. An example with a high applicative is shown in (49).

(49) High applicative: Luganda (Pylkkanen 2002: 25)

Mukasa ya-tambu-le-dde Katonga
 Mukasa PAST-walk-APPL-PAST Katonga
 ‘Mukasa walked for Katonga.’

(Katonga is an additional participant added to the event of walking.)

(50) (Pylkkanen 2002: 19)



In (50), the applied argument bears no semantic relation to the verb, it only bears a transfer of possession relation to the direct object. This is illustrated in English sentences below.

(51) Low applicative: English (Pylkkanen 2002: 19)

- a. *I wrote John a letter.*
 (I wrote a letter and the letter was to the possession of John.)
- b. *I baked my friend a cake.*
 (I baked a cake and the cake was to the possession of my friend.)
- c. *I bought John a new VCR.*
 (I bought a new VCR and the VCR was to the possession of John.)

6.1 Semantic diagnostics (Pylkkanen 2002)

In order to distinguish between high and low applicatives, Pylkkanen applies two semantic diagnostics:

(52) Semantic diagnostics for high and low applicatives

- a. *Diagnostic 1: transitivity restrictions*
 “Since a low applicative denotes a relation between the direct and

indirect object, it cannot appear in a structure that lacks a direct object. Therefore, only high applicatives should be able to combine with unergative verbs” (23).

b. *Diagnostic 2: verb semantics*

“Since low applicatives imply a transfer of possession, they make no sense with verbs that are completely static: for example, an event of holding a bag does not plausibly result in the bag ending up in somebody’s possession. High applicatives, on the other hand, should have no problem combining with verbs such as hold: it is perfectly plausible that somebody would benefit from a bag-holding event” (23).

Pylkkanen also mentions that low applicatives are productive with unaccusative verbs (38).

Applying these diagnostics to the NCN applicatives, I show that they behave like *high* applicatives.

- (53) a. sut-*chin*-ʔaqʰ-siš kamatq-šič ...
 you-do.for-FUTURE-1SG.IND run-PERF
 ‘I will run for you (e. g. to the store).’
 b. kamatq-šič-ʔaqʰ-siš sut-*chin* ...
 run-PERF-FUTURE-1SG.IND you-do.for
 ‘I will run for you (e. g. to the store).’

In (53), the applicative *chin* ‘do for’ is used with the unergative verb *kamatq* ‘run’, which is only possible with high applicatives according to Pylkkanen’s *Diagnostic 1*.

- (54) a. sut-*chin*-mit-siš suu λiqʰyak
 you-do.for-PAST-1SG.IND hold key
 ‘I held a key for you.’
 b. suu-mit-siš λiqʰyak sut-*chin*
 hold-past-1sg.ind key you-do.for
 ‘I held a key for you.’

In (54), the applicative *chin* ‘do for’ is used with the static verb *suu* ‘hold’, which is only possible with high applicatives according to Pylkkanen’s *Diagnostic 2*.

- (55) a. * sut-*chin*-ʔaqʰ-siš hinin
 you-do.for-FUTURE-1SG.IND arrive
 ‘I will arrive for you (e. g. to the airport).’

- b. * *hinin-ʔaqλ-siš* *sut-çhin*
 arrive-FUTURE-1SG.IND you-do.for
 ‘I will arrive for you (e. g. to the airport).’

In (55), the applicative *çhin* ‘do for’ is ungrammatical when used with the non-incorporating unaccusative verb *hinin* ‘arrive’, which is predicted for high applicatives.

- (56) a. * *sut-çhin-ʔaqλ-siš* *ʔu-ñii*
 you-do.for-FUTURE-1SG.IND arrive
 ‘I will arrive for you (e. g. to the airport).’
 b. * *ʔu-ñii-ʔaqλ-siš* *sut-çhin*
 arrive-FUTURE-1SG.IND you-do.for
 ‘I will arrive for you (e. g. to the airport).’

In (56), the applicative *çhin* ‘do for’ is ungrammatical with the incorporating unaccusative verb *ñii* ‘arrive’.

The results are summarized in Table 3.

Table 3: The morphemes *çit* ‘do to’, *hta* ‘do towards’ and *çhin* ‘do for’ are high applicatives

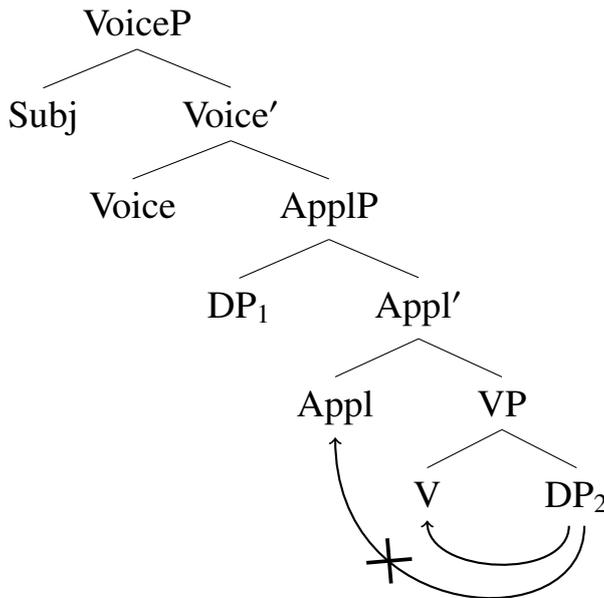
Combine with ...	High applicatives	Low applicatives	<i>çit/hta/çhin</i>
Unergative verbs	✓	×	✓
Static verbs	✓	×	✓
Unaccusative verbs	×	✓	×

6.2 Syntactic predictions

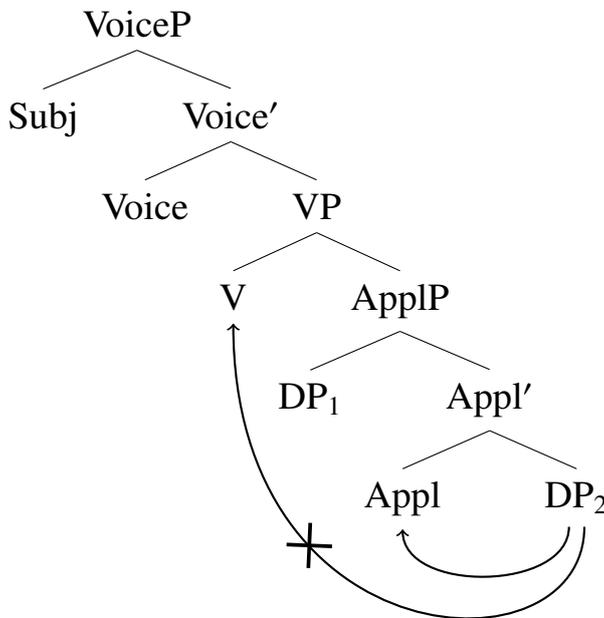
The two structures in (48) and (50) also make different syntactic predictions, namely predictions about incorporation. Thus, the structure for high applicatives predicts that the direct object should be able to incorporate into the verb, and it cannot incorporate into the applicative (see 57).

The structure for low applicatives in (58) predicts that the direct object should be able to incorporate into the applicative, and it cannot incorporate directly into the verb.

(57) (High applicative)

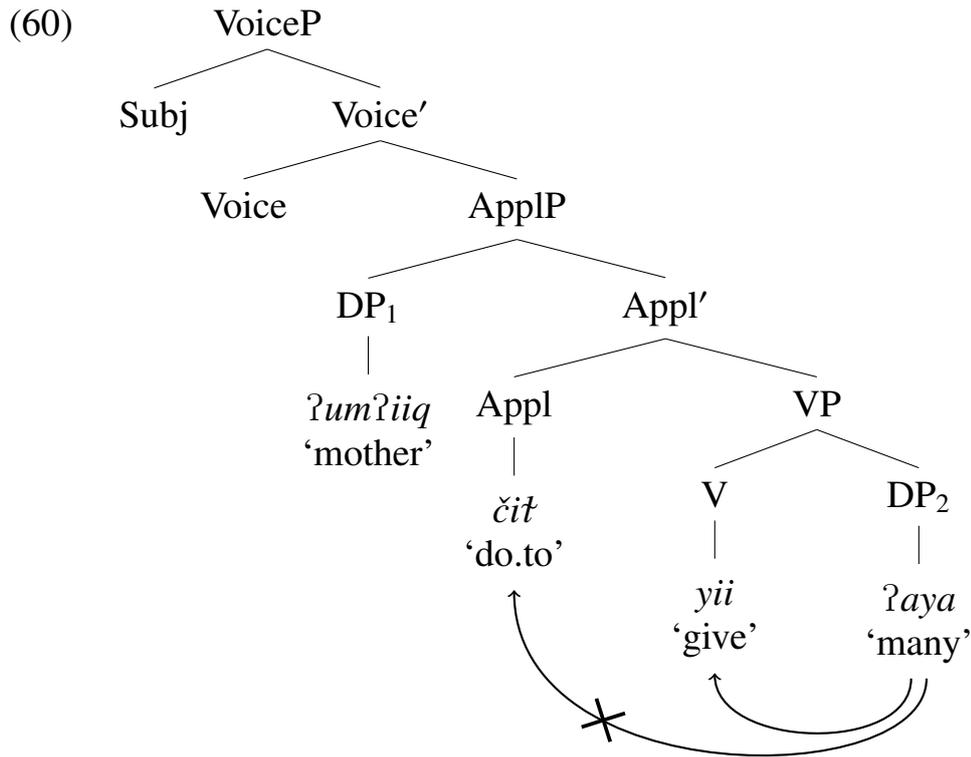


(58) (Low applicative)

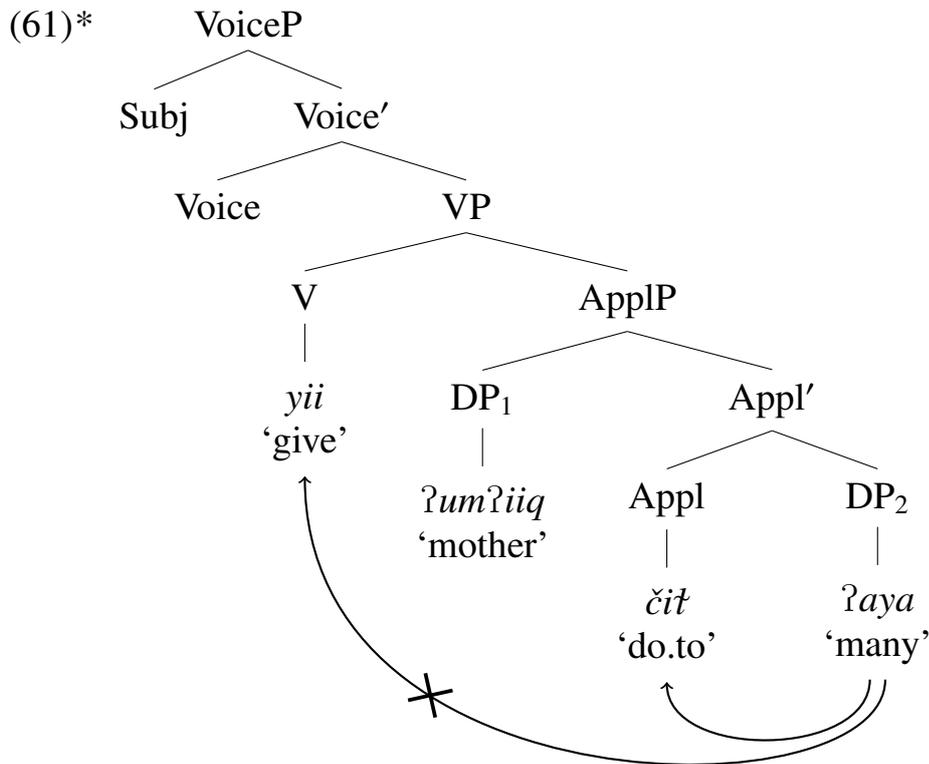


The NCN data show that the direct object can in fact incorporate into the verb, and it can never incorporate into the applicative, which is evidence in favor of the *high* applicative structure in NCN.

- (59) a. $\text{ʔu-}čit\text{-mit-ʔiš}$ ʔumʔiiq ʔaya-yii
 $\emptyset\text{-do.to-PAST-3SG.IND}$ mother many-give
 ‘He/She gave lots to mother.’
- b. * ʔu-yii-mit-ʔiš $\text{ʔumʔiiq ʔaya-}čit\text{-}$
 $\emptyset\text{-give-PAST-3SG.IND}$ mother many-do.to
 ‘He/She gave lots to mother.’



The structure for high applicatives in (60) predicts that the direct object *?aya* ‘many’ should be able to incorporate into the verb *yii* ‘give’. It also predicts that the direct object should *not* be able to incorporate into the applicative *cit* ‘do to’. These predictions are borne out in the sentence (59a) above.



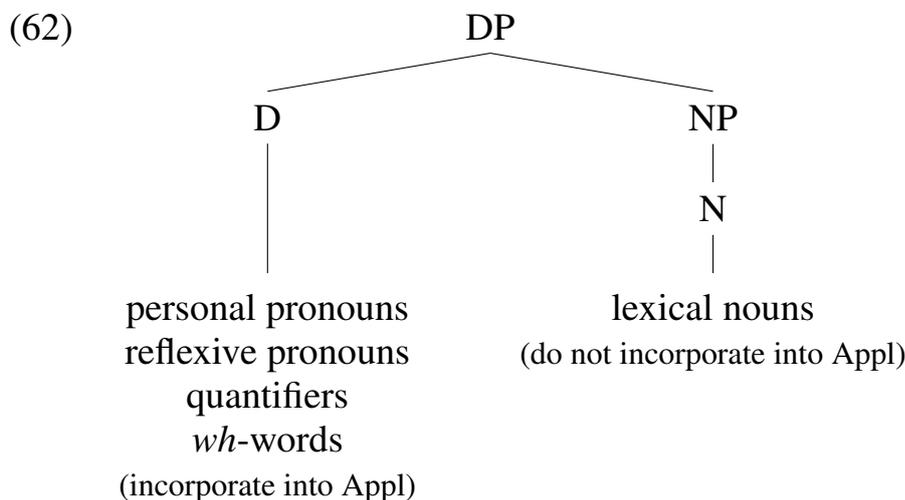
The structure for low applicatives in (61) predicts that the direct object *ʔaya* ‘many’ should be able to incorporate into the applicative *čit* ‘do to’. It also predicts that the direct object should *not* be able to incorporate into the verb *yii* ‘give’. However, these predictions are incorrect (see the sentence 59b above).

Thus, only the structure for high applicatives makes the correct predictions about incorporation in NCN.

To summarize, according to Pyllkanen’s semantic diagnostics (2002), the morphemes *čit* ‘do to’, *hta* ‘do towards’ and *čin* ‘do for’ are high applicatives. Syntactic predictions also show that these morphemes are high applicatives.

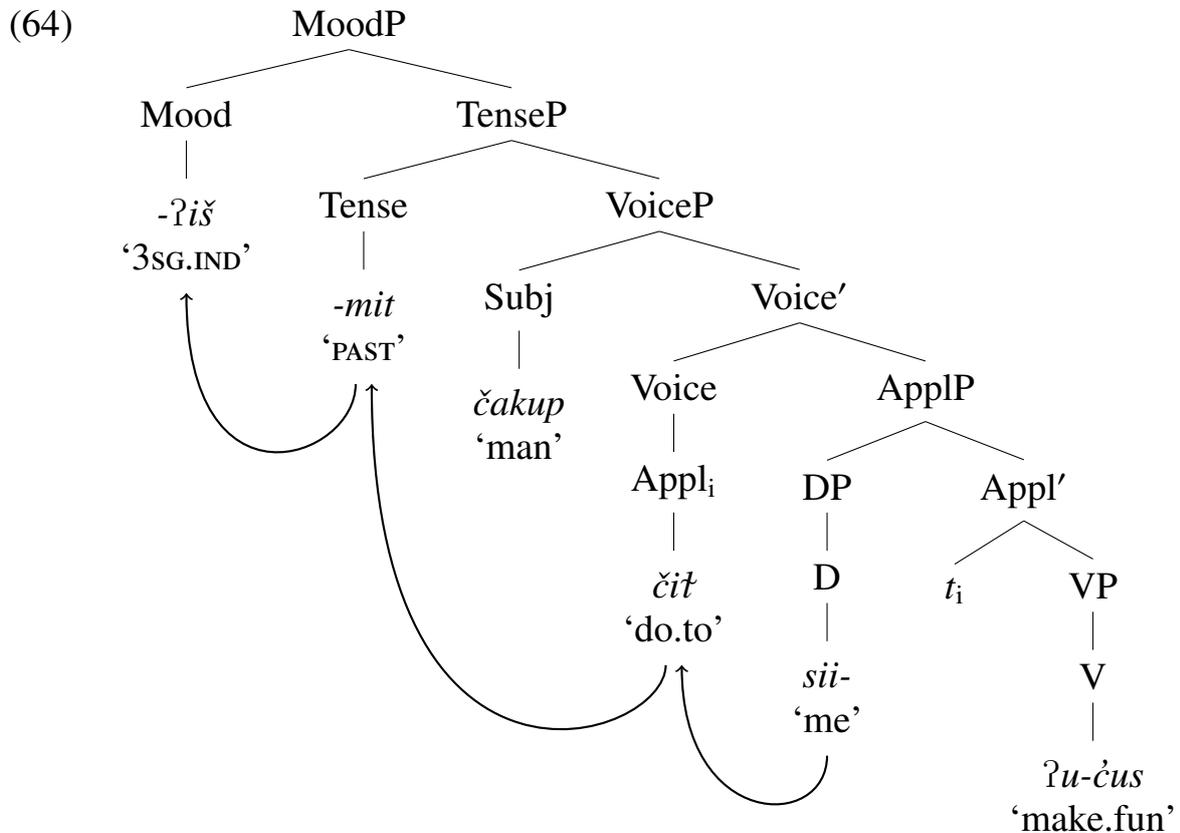
6.3 *čit*, *hta* and *čin* as incorporators of functional elements

In the Section 5.1, I showed that the morphemes *čit* ‘do to’, *hta* ‘do towards’ and *čin* ‘do for’ behave very similarly to incorporating verbs in NCN. They can incorporate personal and reflexive pronouns, quantifiers and *wh*-words. However, they cannot incorporate nouns and other verbs. Here, I propose that the reason for this is that *čit*, *hta* and *čin* are functional heads that can only incorporate functional elements, like the ones listed above. Thus, in the structure (62) below, personal and reflexive pronouns, quantifiers and *wh*-words are generated in D and can get incorporated into the applicatives. Nouns and verbs are lexical elements, and therefore, they cannot be incorporated into the applicatives.



To generate a sentence like the one in (63) below, the applicative first moves to the Voice head, at which stage a functional element (in this case a pronoun) gets incorporated into it. Then the applicative with the incorporated into it element moves past the subject to the Tense head, and finally to the Mood head (see the structure in 64).

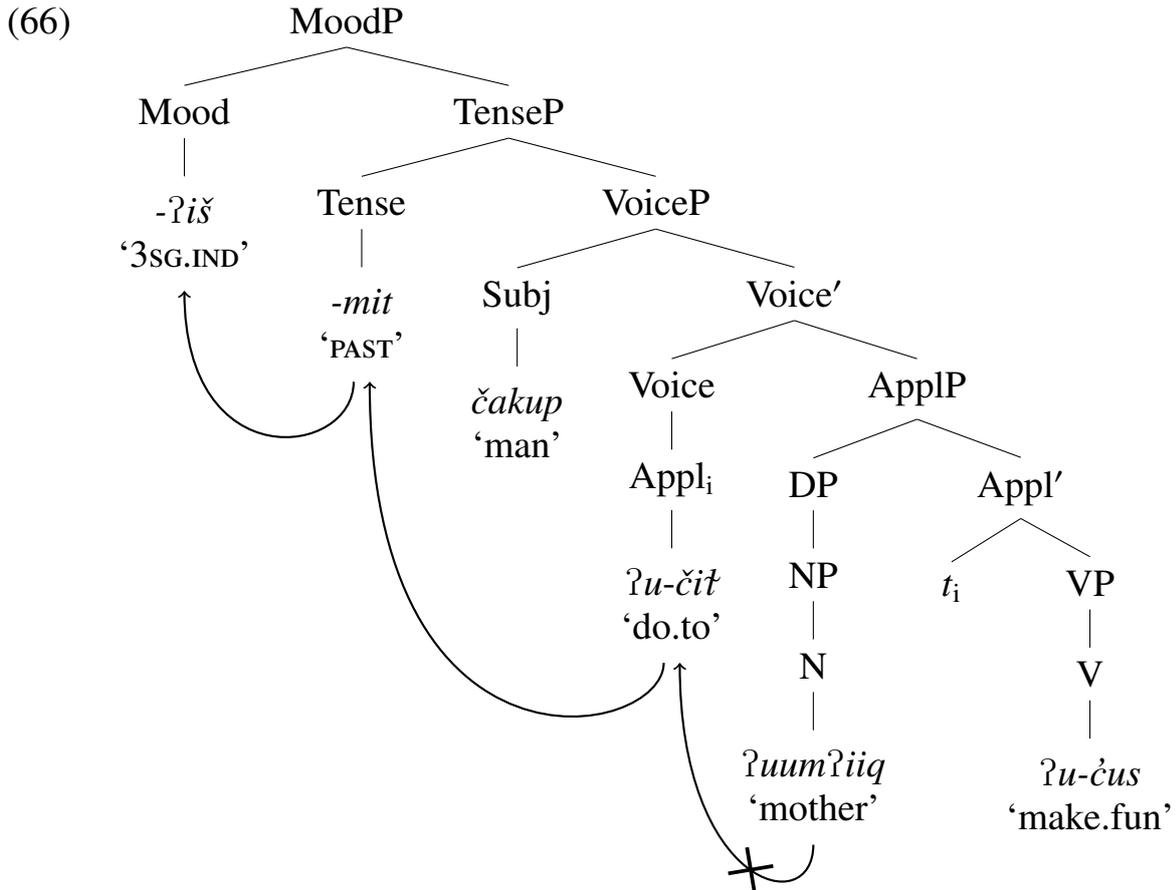
- (63) *sii-čit-mit-ʔiš* *čakup ʔu-ćus* (repeated from 9a)
 me-do.to-PAST-3SG.IND man \emptyset -make.fun
 ‘A man made fun of me.’



In the sentence (65) below, the noun *ʔumʔiiq* ‘mother’ is a lexical element and therefore, it cannot get incorporated into the applicative *čit-*. The noun remains in the position it was generated in, namely, in Spec of ApplP position. The applicative moves to the Mood head via the intermediate Voice and Tense heads, thus generating the correct word order (see the structure in 66).⁴

- (65) *ʔu-čit-mit-ʔiš* *čakup ʔumʔiiq ʔu-ćus* (repeated from 9a)
 \emptyset -do.to-PAST-3SG.IND man mother \emptyset -make.fun
 ‘A man made fun of (the) mother.’

⁴ I assume that the expletive morpheme *ʔu-* is a morphological place holder, because it appears on the incorporating predicate only if no incorporation into this predicate takes place.



7 The conclusions

I have provided a detailed description and analysis of the morphemes *čit* ‘do to’, *hta* ‘do towards’ and *chin* ‘do for’ in the Ahousaht dialect of Nuuchahnulth. I have argued that these morphemes are verbal applicatives that add a non-core argument to the thematic structure of a verb and showed that *čit* ‘do to’, *hta* ‘do towards’ and *chin* ‘do for’ are high applicatives that attach above the main verb in a syntactic tree.

At the end, I would like to draw attention to the Nuuchahnulth community and the critical status of the language. The Nuuchahnulth community has a special position in the larger Canadian society. Their cultural traditions and language are in danger of being lost as a result of rapid English acculturation (Kinkade 1991). My language consultants recall being severely punished for speaking Nuuchahnulth in school, even as late as the 1950’s. As a result, many Nuuchahnulth parents did not teach their children to speak the language, hoping to spare them a similar humiliation. In spite of this emotional trauma, an increasing number of Nuuchahnulth people are now willing to relearn their language. For these reasons, the need for documentation and data analysis of the language becomes a pressing matter.

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Abbreviations and symbols

∅	Pleonastic morpheme
1	First person
2	Second person
3	Third person
ACC	Accusative case
APPL	Applicative
CONFIRM	Confirmative
IND	Indicative
INT	Interrogative
NCN	Nuuchahnulth
PERF	Perfective
PL	Plural
SG	Singular

Appendix

Table 4: Nuuchahnulth verbs used with *čit/hta/čin*

Verbs	Translation	- <i>čit</i>	- <i>hta</i>	- <i>čin</i>
ʔuupw̃in	to owe	✓	✓	X
ʔuuʔatsumḥi	to yearn for, to be infatuated with ...	X	X	X
ʔuup̃aa	to dislike, to disapprove of	✓	✓	X
ʔumaap	to pay attention to ..., to listen to ...	✓	✓	X
ʔuukš	to ask for ...	✓	✓	✓
ʔuučus	to make fun of ..., to mock	✓	✓	X
ʔuksaap	to coax into ..., to encourage	✓	✓	X
ʔuqh̃yuu	to be related to ...	✓	✓	X
ʔuyii	to give	✓	✓	X
ʔuuʔatuk	to take care of ...	✓	✓	✓
ʔuuḥčii	to cook	X	X	✓

Table 4: Nuuchanulth verbs used with *čit/hta/chin* (continued)

Verbs	Translation	- <i>čit</i>	- <i>hta</i>	- <i>chin</i>
ʔuʔaap	to buy	X	X	✓
ʔuʔaata	to need	✓	X	X
ʔuʔatu	to fall off, to come off, to spend	X	X	X
ʔuʔiip	to give to ...	X	✓	X
ʔuʔinʔaš	to take place of ...	✓	✓	X
ʔuʔinḥk ^w aʔap	to grind up	✓	✓	✓
ʔuʔinʔ	to serve ... (e. g. in a feast or a birthday party)	✓	✓	X
ʔuʔuʔiiḥ	to hunt, to collect	X	X	✓
ʔuuʔučiqa	to miss an object (e. g. socks)	X	X	X
ʔuʔuḥkuk	to look like, to resemble	X	X	X
ʔuʔuk ^w ink	to talk with ...	X	X	X
ʔuʔumču	to feed (someone spe- cific)	X	X	X
ʔuʔumḥi	to be able to do	X	X	X
ʔuʔusum	to want	X	X	X
ʔumahsa	to want	✓	✓	X
ʔuʔuukt	to obtain by ...	X	X	✓
ʔuʔuuk ^w inkḥ	to tease	✓	✓	X
ʔuʔuusapi	to depend on ...	X	X	X
ʔuʔuwa	to complain	✓	✓	X
ʔuʔašt	to accomplish by ..., to be done by ...	✓	X	X
ʔuʔiḥ	to come upon ...	X	X	X
ʔucaʔap	to take (something from here to there)	✓	✓	X
ʔučaas	to bet (in a gambling situation)	X	X	✓
ʔucḥii	to be on top, higher leverage	✓	✓	X

Table 4: Nuuchanulth verbs used with *čit/hta/chin* (continued)

Verbs	Translation	- <i>čit</i>	- <i>hta</i>	- <i>chin</i>
ʔucuqšič	to put something into one's mouth	X	X	X
ʔuhaaʔas	to go and buy	X	X	X
ʔuhsaa	to have a craving for certain food or sweets	✓	X	X
ʔuhta	to do to ...	X	X	X
ʔukčiq	to travel alongside another vessel	X	X	X
ʔukčaaš	to sit with someone outside on the ground	X	X	X
ʔukčiiš	to sit with somebody in a house/room/floor	X	X	X
ʔukčiiš	to sit with somebody on a bench/couch	X	X	X
ʔukčumyiš	to accompany another person (e. g. in dance)	X	X	X
ʔuktšič	to shrink	✓	✓	X
ʔuk ^w iiš	to make	✓	X	✓
ʔumaʔin	to be stingy, not wanting to share person or object	✓	✓	✓
ʔunaak	to have, to be in possession of ...	✓	X	X
ʔunaq	to be fond of eating (something specific)	✓	✓	X
ʔuʔuuł	to get paid	X	X	X
ʔuqtaap	to think	✓	✓	✓
ʔusiik	to be made	X	X	✓
ʔustaasip	to set down (something) on a table	✓	✓	✓
ʔutwiiʔiš	to be the first in line	✓	X	X
ʔuuʔapuła	to be underneath, defeated	✓	✓	X
ʔuuʔinhi	to be waiting for ...	✓	✓	X

Table 4: Nuuchanulth verbs used with *čit/hta/chin* (continued)

Verbs	Translation	-<i>čit</i>	-<i>hta</i>	-<i>chin</i>
ʔuuʔinqʷ	to handle something specific, to dislike	✓	✓	×
ʔuuʔiʷ	to go for, to take	✓	✓	×
ʔuuʔukči	to side with ...	✓	✓	×