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The grammatical expression of emotions in Tacana and other Takanan languages
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Abstract

This paper studies four grammatical markers of emotions in Tacana, an Amazonian language from the Takanan family spoken in Northern Bolivia. Two markers express positive emotions, chidi ‘affection’ and ichenu ‘compassion’. The other two express negative emotions: base ‘depreciation 1’ and madha ‘depreciation 2’. The paper also provides a historical-comparative study of similar morphemes in the other Takanan languages (Araona, Cavineña, Ese Ejja and Reyesano). The Tacana affection morpheme is probably reconstructible to a diminutive marker in proto-Takanan. The compassion and two depreciation morphemes are not reconstructible but recent grammaticalizations of lexical items still used in the different Takanan languages. Interestingly, these lexemes do not display any synchronic or diachronic link with the expression of “diminutivization” or “augmentativization”. Therefore, this paper suggests that the morphological expression of emotions should be studied in its own right, and not necessarily as a subtype of the evaluative field of research.

Keywords: Takanan languages; Amazonian languages; emotions; evaluative morphology.

1 Introduction

All five Takanan languages, from the Amazonian lowlands of Northern Bolivia and Southeastern Peru (Araona, Cavineña, Ese Ejja, Reyesano and Tacana), have bound grammatical morphemes (affixes or clitics) which express the emotions of the speaker (affection, tenderness, love, empathy, pity, compassion, depreciation, anger, revulsion, disgust, contempt, etc.). In this paper, emotions are defined as “psychological states distinct from sensations (pain, hunger…) and from purely ‘intellectual’ judgements (knowing, believing…)” (Ponsonnet this volume; see also 2014:9–17). To date, these morphemes have received little attention and no publication to
date has explored the interest that they represent for the field of general-typological linguistics. This paper presents the first description of four emotion markers in one of these languages, Tacana. Two of these markers express positive emotions, *chidi* ‘affection’ and *ichenu* ‘compassion’. The other two express negative emotions: *base* ‘depreciation 1’ and *madha* ‘depreciation 2’. The paper also provides a synthesis of similar morphemes documented in the other Takanan languages and an attempt at reconstructing their history. It shows, among other things, that the affective morpheme *chidi* is probably reconstructible to a diminutive marker *tsi* in proto-Takanan. The compassion and depreciation morphemes appear to be recent grammaticalizations in the four languages.

In current typological work, morphemes of this type are typically discussed under the rubric of “evaluative morphology”, the core of which concerns the expression of “diminutivization” (small size or quantity) and “augmentativization” (big size or quantity) (see for example Jurafsky 1996; Bauer 1997; Grandi & Körtvélyessy 2015; Ponsonnet this volume). From that perspective, emotion morphemes are either construed as “diminutive” or “augmentative” markers with emotional (“pejorative” or “ameliorative”) extensions or as having at least a diachronic link to “diminutive” or “augmentative” morphemes. As this paper shows, this interpretation is justified in the case of the Tacana affective morpheme *chidi*, which has among its possible readings the expression of small size or quantity and which likely originated in a diminutive marker in proto-Takana. But it is not justified in the case of the three other Tacana emotion morphemes (those expressing compassion and depreciation), which do not display any synchronic or diachronic link with the expression of “diminutivization” or “augmentativization”. Therefore, this paper suggests that the morphological (grammatical) expression of emotions should be studied in its own right, and not necessarily as a subtype of the evaluative (“diminutive” and “augmentative”) field of research.

The paper is organized as follows. Section 2 is a brief introduction to the Tacana language, the Takanan family and the data used for this study. Section 3 provides a description of the four Tacana emotion morphemes: *chidi* ‘diminutive-affection’ in §3.1, *ichenu* ‘compassion’ in §3.2, *base* ‘depreciation 1’ in §3.3 and *madha* ‘depreciation 2’ in §3.4. In each section, the morphemes are described according to their syntactic distribution, their meanings, their productivity and their likely diachronic origin. Finally, Section 4 compares these suffixes to similar markers in the other Takanan languages (Araona, Cavineña, Ese Ejja and Reyesano) and attempts a historical reconstruction. This section is organized according to the three broad semantic meanings expressed by the markers: affection (§4.1), compassion (§4.2) and depreciation (§4.3). The paper ends with a summary and conclusions (§5).

## 2 Background information on Tacana, the Takanan family and the data for this study

Tacana is a critically endangered language only spoken fluently, in two dialects, by a few dozen elderly people, and only in a very limited range of contexts. It is also basically undescribed. Apart from a short formal grammar cast in the non-transparent tagmemic framework (Ottaviano & Ottaviano 1967), the only grammatical study is a grammar sketch centered essentially on verbal morphology (Guillaume 2013). The data used for this study are primarily textual narratives (about 3,300 sentences in Toolbox) and elicited utterances (about 700 sentences in Toolbox). These come from about four months of fieldwork that I conducted on the Tumupasa dialect (Tumupasa village) between 2009 and 2013. Secondly, the data are supplemented by published materials on the same dialect produced by the Summer Institute of Linguistics (SIL)
in the 1980s. These materials include a collection of texts (Ottaviano 1980; about 980 sentences in Toolbox) and a dictionary with illustrative sentence examples (Ottaviano & Ottaviano 1989; about 3,000 entries). Note that no controlled elicitation with native speakers was conducted specifically on the topic of the present paper, which means that the study relies exclusively on my own interpretation of the available corpus – in particular of the native speakers’ translations in local Bolivian Spanish of the examples which contain the emotion morphemes in the corpus.

The Takanan language family consists of five extant languages, all neighbors to each other in the Amazonian lowlands of northern Bolivia and southeastern Peru. The languages are listed in Table 1, together with information on their location, the estimated number of speakers and ethnic group members, and the main grammatical studies available.

Table 1. Takanan languages (figures from Crevels & Muysken 2009 for Cavineña, Araona, Tacana and Reyesano; and from Vuillermet 2012; this volume for Ese Ejja)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>name</th>
<th>location</th>
<th>no. speakers</th>
<th>no. ethnic group members</th>
<th>main grammatical studies on the languages</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Cavineña</td>
<td>Bolivia</td>
<td>601</td>
<td>1683</td>
<td>Guillaume (2008)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ese Ejja</td>
<td>Bolivia, Peru</td>
<td>1500</td>
<td>1700</td>
<td>Vuillermet (2012)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Tacana</strong></td>
<td>Bolivia</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>7345</td>
<td>Guillaume (2013; fieldnotes 2009-2013)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Figure 1 gives Girard’s (1971) internal classification of the family. This classification is based on a phonological reconstruction from word lists collected by travelers in the 19th century and missionary linguists from the Summer Institute of Linguistics (SIL) in the 1950s-1960s. The classification consists of three branches (Kavinik, Chamik and Takanik), all placed at the same level within the family tree, with Tacana classified within the Takanik sub-branch, together with Araona and Reyesano.

3 Emotion morphemes in Tacana

The Tacana emotion morphemes to be discussed in this paper are listed in Table 2, together with information on their meanings, their locus of marking and their likely etymologies.
Table 2. Morphemes with expressive meanings in Tacana

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>morphemes</th>
<th>Meanings</th>
<th>locus of marking</th>
<th>plausible etymology</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>chidi</td>
<td>diminutive &amp; affection</td>
<td>nouns, verbs, adverbs</td>
<td>unknown</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ichenu</td>
<td>compassion</td>
<td>nouns, pronouns, verbs, adjective</td>
<td>adj. ‘poor’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>base</td>
<td>depreciation 1</td>
<td>nouns, pronouns, verbs</td>
<td>vb. ‘be mistaken’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>madha</td>
<td>depreciation 2</td>
<td>verbs</td>
<td>adj. ‘bad’</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Since this article focuses on the expression of emotions, I won’t be discussing ‘evaluative’ morphemes which do not have emotional meaning, such as, for example the ‘pure’ diminutive/attenuative marker *pad'i*. And since the article only deals with the grammatical expression of emotions, I will not be presenting morphemes whose status is not bound, boundedness (lack of autonomy) being taken here as a good formal indicator of the grammaticalized status of an element.

The four morphemes to be discussed, *chidi*, *ichenu*, *base* and *madha*, are bound elements from both morphosyntactic and phonological perspectives. They cannot stand alone as free words; they can only be used in combination with a free word host, and they cannot receive independent stress. As illustrated in (1a,b), (2a,b), (3a,b) and (4a,b), the four morphemes must attach to a preceding word which has phonological independence, such as the nouns given in isolation in the a-examples. Together, they form a phonological word with a single stressed syllable, as in the b-examples; the syllable that is stressed is determined according to the standard stress rules of the language.\(^1\) If the emotion morphemes were not bound in the sequences exemplified here, the illustrated sequences would have displayed two stressed syllables, as in the c-examples which are ill-formed (as indicated by the ‘*’ symbol).\(^2\)

(1) *chidi* ‘affection’

a. *[ebakʷa]*
   
   *ebakwa*
   
   ‘child’

b. *[ebakʷátčidi]*

   *ebabwa = chidi*

   child=DIM

   ‘small / dear child’ ye146

c. *[ebakʷa tčidi]*

(2) *ichenu* ‘compassion’

a. *[dėha]*
   
   *deja*
   
   ‘person’

b. *[deháйтčeno]*

   *deja = ichenu*

   person=COMPAS

   ‘poor / pitiable person’ lo001

c. *[dėha itčeno]*

---

\(^1\) Phonologically free lexical or grammatical words in Tacana are underlyingly stressed on the 3\(^{rd}\) mora (i.e., vowel or semi-vowel [j]) counting from the left. The 3\(^{rd}\) mora stress pattern shows up on the surface when the word heads a phonological word which consists of at least four moras, as in all the b-examples. When the word heads a phonological word with three or less moras, stress falls on the penultimate mora, as in the a-examples.

\(^2\) A list of abbreviations is given in §7. The Tacana consonant phonemes are *p, b, t, d [d̪], d' [d̪ʰ], dʰ [ð], ts [tʃ], ch [tʃ], s [s], sh [ʃ], k, kw [kw], r [ɾ], m, n, j [h], w [w/ʊ] and y [j]*. The vowel phonemes are *a, e, i [i/j] and u [ʊ/w]*. Note that the illustrative examples include the free translation in local Bolivian Spanish that was given by the native speakers who helped me transcribe and translate the texts. The codes that follow the translation lines (e.g., ye146) correspond to the place of the example in my (Toolbox) databases. Unless explicitly specified, the examples come from texts.
(3)  base ‘depreciation 1’

   a. [ebákʷa]  b. [ebákʷábase]  c. *[ebákʷa  báṣe]
   ebakwa        ebabwa =base
   ‘child’       child = DEPREC1
                  ‘damned / despicable child’ n4.0348

(4)  madha ‘depreciation 2’

   a. [manójtja]  b. [manomáðajtja]  c. *[máno  mádajtja]
   manu-iti-a     manu-madha-iti-a
   die-PFV-PST    die-DEPREC2-PFV-PST
   ‘someone died’ ‘someone bad died’ ci199

Emotion morphemes can be either clitics (marked by the equal sign ‘=’, as with =chidi, =ichenu and =base in the above examples) or suffixes (marked by the hyphen sign ‘-’ in with -madha as in the above example). As will be shown several times below, some morphemes can have both statuses, clitic or affix, depending on the construction they are used in. Due to this dual status, when mentioning the morphemes in the text of the paper, I will not use the symbols ‘=’ and ‘-’.

3.1 Affection: chidi [teidi]

The first emotion morpheme, chidi, is the most frequent of the four, found 177 times in the corpus. In a majority of the examples available, it is used to modify nouns. But there are also a number of cases, which include some from natural speech, where it is found modifying verbs and adverbs.³ Its function and grammatical status (clitic or affix) is slightly different depending on the word class it modifies. With nouns and adverbs, it is a clitic with diminutive or emotional values (affection). By contrast, with verbs, it is a suffix with attenuative and politeness values.⁴ The morpheme chidi must be a very old morpheme. There is no known etymology but part of it, the syllable chi, is reconstructible to proto-Takanan (see §4.1).

When chidi is used with nouns it can first express small size, as in (5a,b), or a small quantity, as in (5c). The diminutive meaning of chidi is probably the more frequent in the data. Besides, as argued in §4.1, diachronically, diminution is probably the original meaning of the suffix. For these reasons, I gloss chidi as DIM in the examples. Note that in (5a-c), the meaning of smallness (of size or quantity), expressed by the diminutive suffix -ito / -ita in the translation lines in local Bolivian Spanish, is not part of the initial semantic content of the nouns (‘house’, ‘bag’, ‘money’); it must therefore be a contribution of chidi.

(5)  chidi modifying nouns, diminutive meanings

   a. …mekwana-sa  ete = chidi = kwana ani -(i)na
      3PL-DAT    house = DIM=PL    sit-PST.HAB
      ‘(… en el monte) tenían sus casitas (donde ellos dormían).’ pe005

³ It is unknown whether chidi can appear with pronouns.
⁴ In the SIL dictionary from Ottaviano & Ottaviano (1989), chidi is classified as an adjective and its meaning defined as “diminutivo (cariñoso), intensificador” (p. 25).
‘(… in the forest) they had small houses (where they would sleep).’

b. Kema mariku=chidi ani-(i)na.
   1SG.GEN bag=DIM sit-PST.HAB
   ‘… tenía (yo) un mariquito…’ du038
   ‘… I had a small bag.’

c. Yechu yama chipilu=chidi ina-piru-iti-a.
   finally 1SG.ERG money=DIM grab-START-PFV-PST
   ‘Recién yo he podido agarrar / recibir platita.’ (n4.0185 / elicited)
   ‘Recently I managed to get a little bit of money.’

With nouns, chidi can also express affection, tenderness or compassion, as in (6a-c). In the translation lines in Spanish, these meanings are expressed either by the diminutive suffix -ito / -ita or the adjective pobre ‘poor’ preposed to the noun. In the contexts where these examples have been uttered the small size/quantify meanings would not make sense; the father in (a), the husband in (b) and the (adult) child in (c) are not particularly small persons, as far as one can tell from the narratives where these examples occurred.

(6) chidi modifying nouns, affection meanings

a. Be ema tata=chidi.
   PFV 1SG father=DIM
   ‘Ya me voy doncito.’ tm023
   ‘I’m going, my dear sir.’

b. Jid’iu-pe-ta-iti-a=wekwana mida yawe=chidi.
   peal-COMPL-A3-PFV-PST=3PL 2SG husband=DIM
   ‘(Las ranas) te pelaron todo el cuero, maridito,” le dijo su esposa.’ rn060_ott (Ottaviano 1980:14)
   ‘(The frogs) skinned you completely, my dear / poor husband.’

c. Ai, kema ebakwa=chidi=we ye epuna=base=ja mu beju
   INTERJ 1SG.GEN child=DIM=RESTR this woman=DEPREC1=ERG CONTR PFV
   jana a-netia-ta-iti-a.
   cook AUX.TR-STANDING-A3-PFV-PST
   ‘¡Ai, pobre hijo, esa maldita nuera le cocinó!’ es102_ott (Ottaviano 1980:50)
   ‘Ahh, my poor child, this damned woman cooked (and killed) him.’

Because of the pragmatic proximity between small size and affection, when chidi modifies nouns which generally refer to small entities or nouns which can refer to small entities in the context of particular utterances, it is not always possible to unambiguously distinguish between the small size/quantity meanings and the affective meanings. In the following examples, for instance, chidi, translated by the Spanish diminutive suffix -ito / -ita, could have either or both meanings.
(7) *chidi* modifying nouns, ambiguous readings (diminutive or affection)

a. *Ebakwa=* *chidi* mesa *ya-ani.*
   child=dim 3sg.dat IPFV-sit
   ‘Tenía dice su hijito,’ ye020
   ‘He had a small(?) / dear(?) child.’

b. … *jaitiana-idha, mesa uchi=* *chidi*=neje…
   pass-pst.rem 3sg.gen dog=dim=assoc
   ‘… ha pasado con su perrito…’ pe006
   ‘… he passed with his small(?) / dear / poor(?) dog…’ (following context: the dog will be eaten up by peccaries)

c. *Emud’u=* *chidi* da *pisa-iti-a.*
   cub=dim top shoot-pfv-pst
   ‘(Capibara) maltoncito he cazado.’ mc022
   ‘I killed a small(?) / poor(?) (capibara) cub.’

In some examples, as in (8), the translation in Spanish provided by my Tacana consultants do not include any ‘trace’ of the contribution of *chidi* (by way of a diminutive or some other expression). In this example, the modified noun, *tata* ‘sir’, refers to myself, in which case *chidi* must have an affective meaning, since I am not small.

(8) *chidi* modifying a noun, not translated

> *Jewe ura=teje tata=* *chidi* Antonio *tueda yama, ye cuento mi,*
   now time=until sir=dim Antonio that 1sg.erg this story 2sg
   e=kisa-inia, amigo.
   IPFV-relate-IPFV.sitting.1/2 friend
   ‘Hasta hoy en día, don Antonio, eso yo este cuento le estoy contando.’ mq063
   ‘Until now, my dear sir Antonio, I have told you this story, my friend.’

As a noun modifier, *chidi* is analyzed as a clitic, rather than a suffix, because it does not need to be directly attached to the modified noun. This can happen when the noun is followed by an attributive adjective, in which case *chidi* attaches to the adjective, as in (9a). It can also happen when the head noun is not overtly expressed, in which case *chidi* attaches to a noun modifier such as the numeral word in (9b) or a demonstrative in (9c).

(9) *chidi* modifying nouns, hosted by different types of noun modifiers

a. … *yama jei a-idha,* [ede ania]=*chidi* ba=putsu.
   1sg.erg believe aux.tr-pst.rem young_person nice=dim see tmp.ss
   ‘… yo le acepté, viéndolo un lindo joven.’ au146
   ‘… I believed him, seeing that he was a nice young man.’

b. *Depue da beta=* *chidi*=we beju *eid’e pu-iti-a.*
   then top two=dim=rest restr pfv alive be-pfv-pst
   ‘Sólo dos chicos se salvaron.’ in013_ott (Ottaviano 1980:80)
‘Only two small (children) survived.’

c. … da=chidi etse, jana y-a-saseuti=puji…
   this=DIM 1DL cook IPFV-AUX.TR-ARRIVE=PURP
   ‘… esita para llegar a cocinar…’
   ‘… in order for us to cook this small (bird).’ lo016

Note that when *chidi* is used simultaneously with other noun modifying clitics, it is placed closer to the modified noun than the other clitics, as can be seen in (5a), with =kwana ‘PL’ and (6c), with =we ‘RESTR’.

The diminutive marker *chidi* is also found modifying verbs. In the available corpus, I have only a few examples of this use (seven in total) and in most of them, the verb is in the imperative mood. In that context, the diminutive is analyzed as a suffix (rather than a clitic), since its position is between the verb root and other verbal suffixes. As for its function, it has an attenuative effect, expressing the fact that the verb action is done ‘a little bit’ or ‘a short time’, as in (10a), which corresponds to a verb stem (i.e., a non-inflected form) provided as an entry of Ottaviano & Ottaviano’s (1989) dictionary. In the examples from my own corpus, in the imperative mood, the attenuative effect appears to be accompanied by a politeness function, used to soften an order, as in (10b) and (10c).

(10) *chidi* modifying verbs

a. *pa-chidi*
   cry-DIM
   ‘lloriquear’ (Ottaviano & Ottaviano 1989:90)
   ‘whine, cry a little bit’

b. *Baja-chidi-icha-ke kema!*
   buy-DIM-REITR-IMP 1sg.DAT
   ‘(Ya se está terminando mi coca, don Antonio.) Cómprameloc un poquito más otra vez!’ n2.0248 (participant observation)
   ‘(I’m running out of coca leaves, don Antonio.) Could you again buy a little bit for me / please!’

c. *Pue-chidi-ke!*
   come-DIM-IMP
   ‘¡Vení!’ n2.0175
   ‘Come a little bit / please!’

The analysis of *chidi* as a suffix when hosted by verbs is based on morphosyntactic, rather than phonological, grounds. In that use, as already commented, *chidi* can be followed by other verb suffixes which can only be used with verbs. In addition, as far as I can tell on the basis of the available examples, the position within the morphological structure of the verb appears to be fixed: it occurs between the verb root and final TAM suffixes.

Finally, the diminutive marker *chidi* can be used with adverbial-like elements. This use is attested in two examples in the corpus, with *sai-da* ‘well’ (11a) and *biakwawa* ‘rio arriba’ (11b). In the Spanish translation, *chidi* is rendered again via the diminutive suffix -ito / -ita. With *sai-
da ‘well’, chidi seems to have an intensifying meaning (‘very’, ‘properly’, ‘carefully’)\(^5\) or perhaps an affective sense ‘affectionately, lovingly’. By contrast, with biakwawa ‘rio arriba’, chidi seems to have an opposite attenuation meaning (‘a little bit’). It is unclear whether chidi has additional emotional meanings here.

(11) chidi modifying adverbial-like elements

a. Pamapa, sai-da=\textit{chidi}, babu, \textit{dhiri ped'u=neje babu}.
   all well-ASF=DIM wrap_body_of clothes piece=ASSOC wrap_body_of
   ‘Ya todo biencito se lo envuelve con trapo (el bebé recién nacido).’
   ‘(The recently born baby) is entirely and \textit{very(?)} well wrapped with a piece of cloth.’ pa018

b. Biakwawa=\textit{chidi} ba-(a)na beu bute-taji.
   upriver=DIM see-PST PFV go_down-ABIL
   ‘Arribita he visto como bajar.’ lp020
   ‘A little bit(?) upriver (from where I was) I saw how I could go down.’

3.2 Compassion: \textit{ichenu} [itceeno]

The second emotion morpheme, \textit{ichenu}, occurs 33 times in the available corpus. It is found marking animate\(^6\) nouns, pronouns, verbs and adjectives. Depending on its use, it is analyzed either as a clitic or a suffix. It is used to express empathy, pity or compassion.\(^7\) Its meanings are exclusively emotional. Its etymology appears to be the adjective \textit{ichenu} ‘poor’.

The most frequent use of \textit{ichenu} is with animate nouns, which can refer to humans (12a,b) or animals (12c). In the Spanish translations, \textit{ichenu} is expressed by way of the adjective \textit{pobre} ‘poor’ preposed to the head nouns.

(12) \textit{ichenu} modifying animate nouns

a. Beu jichu deja=\textit{ichenu} mu chue e-\textit{tsiatsia-bade}
   PFV that.DIST man=COMPAS CONTR there IPFV-shout-IPFV.HANGING
   jusia-badiana-ti-ta=\textit{su}.
   throw-HANGING-GO-A3=TMP.DS
   ‘Allá el \textit{pobre} hombre está gritando porque lo ha dejado arriba.’ lo032
   ‘There (on top of the tree) the \textit{poor} man was shouting, having been abandoned (lit.
   thrown).’

b. Daja pu-idha, \textit{tata=ichenu}=kwana=sa asease=kwana biawa tiempo...
   thus be-PST.REM father=COMPAS=PL=GEN hunting=PL old time
   ‘Así ha sido la cacería de los taitas así antes (cuando eran bravo los chanchos).
   ‘So was the hunting of our \textit{poor} fathers in the old time (when the peccaries were very
   dangerous and attacked them or their dogs).’ pe047

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\(^{5}\) In Ottaviano & Ottaviano’s (1989) dictionary, the sequence saida chidi is translated as ‘very good/well’ (Span. \textit{muy bueno}) (p. 25).

\(^{6}\) It is unknown whether \textit{ichenu} can appear with non-animate nouns.

\(^{7}\) In the SIL dictionary from Ottaviano & Ottaviano (1989), \textit{ichenu} is not listed, but the (probably related) morpheme chenu ‘deceased’ is (p. 25). See further comments on chenu below.
c. *Da=putsu da iche-ta-idha=wekwana jida uchi=ichenu=kwana.*
   thus=TMP.SS thus hit-A3-PST.REM=3PL that dog=COMPAS=PL
   ‘Por eso (porque los perros no se los habian cazado nada) así lo pegaron esos pobres perros.’ ha016
   ‘For that reason they would whip these poor dogs (because the dogs had not been able to hunt anything).’

*Ichenu* is also found modifying independent pronouns (a word class distinct from nouns in Tacana), as illustrated with the two examples in (13), with first person referents.8 These examples come from the same narrative where the speaker relates her childhood when she and her sister once got beaten by their violent older brother. Even though *ichenu* is not overtly expressed in the Spanish translation lines, the contexts compare with the ones above, in which a participant finds themselves in a situation that triggers empathy, pity or compassion.

(13) *ichenu* modifying pronouns

a. *Etseju=ichenu y-ani wapese e-pu-ani beu.*
   1DL.EXCL=COMPAS IPFV-sit clean_cotton IPFV-AUX.ITR-IPFV.SITTING PFV
   ‘Nosotros (con mi hermana) nomás estabamos, algodón estamos despalando.’ tm026
   ‘Poor us (me and my sister) were there, cleaning cotton seeds (when my brother arrived, drunk and very bad-tempered).’

b. *Ya-di=ichenu iche.*
   1SG-ALSO=COMPAS hit
   ‘A mi también me pegó.’ tm034
   ‘(After beating my sister, my brother) beat poor me as well.’

From a morphosyntactic perspective, the fact that *ichenu* can attach to both nouns and pronouns, which correspond to distinct word classes, suggests an analysis in terms of a clitic, rather than an affix. This analysis is further supported by one example where *ichenu* is separated from its host by a short pause (14).9

(14) *ichenu* modifying an animate noun, separated by a pause

   *Dia-dia-ja pa beu jida deja, =ichenu.*
   eat-REDUP-DESID QUOT PFV that man =COMPAS
   ‘Quería comer dice ese hombre pobrecito.’ os051
   ‘He was hungry, the poor man (because his wife would not make food for him).’

The morpheme *ichenu* is also found attached to a verb in two distinct constructions. In the first construction, which corresponds to the majority of the examples available, and illustrated in (15a,b,c), *ichenu* occurs between the verb root and the final suffixes, in a position similar to that of the diminutive *chidi* in (10b) and (10c). Like *chidi*, in this construction, *ichenu* is analyzed as a suffix. Note that in (15a,b,c), *ichenu* is not expressed in the Spanish translation line.

---

8 Note that these are the only examples I have of *ichenu* appearing with a pronoun. It is therefore unknown whether *ichenu* can be used with non-singular pronouns.

9 It is unknown whether *ichenu*, like *chidi*, can attach to a noun modifier such as, for example, an adjective.
But again, the situations depicted involve a pitiful participant, which suggests that in this context, _ichenu_ expresses the same meanings of empathy, pity or compassion. For instance, the man who is ‘climbing down’ in (15a) is the same poor abandoned fellow who was shouting in (12a). And the dogs who are poorly fed in (15c) are the same as those that are beaten in (12c).

(15) _ichenu_ marking verbs (construction 1)

a. Enekita pa beu _bute-ichenu-ití-a_ beu.
   really QUOT PFV go_down-COMPAS-PVF-PST PFV
   ‘Ya en verdad dice que se bajó.’ lo054
   ‘He climbed down (from the tree, the poor man who had been abandoned).’

b. _Ase-tsawa-ichenu-ke_ pa da!
   walk-SOC.CAUS-COMPAS-IMP QUOT TOP
   ‘¡Ayúdale dice andar (a ese inválido que pasa en la calle)! n4.0130 (spontaneous / volunteered)
   ‘Help him walk (this poor disabled person who is passing in the street)!’

c. _Etsau=kama=we pamapa tsine e-tia-ichenu-ta-ani_
   bone=RESTR=RESTR all day IPFV-offer-COMPAS-A3-IPFV.SITTING
   mesa uchi=kwana.
   3SG.GEN dog=PL
   ‘Puro hueso nomás todos los días les daba a sus perros.’ ha010
   ‘Everyday they would give only bones to their dogs, the poor ones.’

In the second construction, attested in only one example in the corpus, reproduced in (16), _ichenu_ occupies a distinct position, occurring after the verb final suffixes. This example comes from the text about the poor abandoned fellow who was shouting (12a) and who climbed down from the tree (15a). Despite its three distinct positions, the semantic contribution of _ichenu_ appears to remain the same in the three examples.

(16) _ichenu_ marking a verb (construction 2)

_Dapia pa beu e-tsiatsia-bade=ichenu,_
   there QUOT PFV IPFV-shout-IPFV.HANGING=COMPAS
   _bute-yu-ja=putsu._
   go_down-REITR-DESID=TMP.SS
   ‘Estaba gritando por bajarse.’
   ‘He was shouting, the poor (man), wanting to go down (from the tree).’ lo026

Finally, the same text provides an additional example of _ichenu_, this time in a construction where it is attached to an adjective, _beidaji_ ‘happy’, in predicative function (17). Here, once again, in spite of a different position, the semantics of _ichenu_ appears to be the same as above, namely that of expressing the empathy, pity or compassion on behalf of the speaker about a protagonist of the story (here the subject of the predicative adjective).
(17) *ichenu* marking an adjective

\[ \text{Beidaji} = \text{ichenu} \quad \text{beu daja} \quad \text{y-a-ta-ani} = \text{su}. \]

happy = COMPAS PFV thus IPFV-tell-A3-IPFV.SITTING = TMP.DS

‘Contento se quedó cuando le estaba diciendo.’

‘He was happy, the poor (man), when he was told (how to climb down from the tree).’

In both (16) and (17), *ichenu* is analyzed as a clitic for lack of evidence that it could be a suffix (such as, for instance, available examples where *ichenu* would be followed by another suffix). Note that, like *chidi*, when *ichenu* is used simultaneously with other noun modifying clitics, it is placed closer to the modified noun than the other clitics, as can be seen in (12b,c) with =kwana ‘PL’.

It is worth noting that semantically in all the three above constructions, despite its position next to a verbal stem, verbal word or predicative adjective, *ichenu* appears to function as a modifier of an argument of the predicate, rather than of the event denoted by the verb or the property denoted by the adjective. In the few examples available, *ichenu* targets an absolutive argument: the S of an intransitive clause in (15a), (16) and (17), the O of a transitive clause in (15b) and the recipient of a ditransitive clause in (15c). In other words, the function of *ichenu* appears to remain the same, whatever its locus of marking. What factors motivate its position, on the predicate (verbal or adjectival) or on an argument requires future research.

The marker *ichenu* is formally strikingly similar to a ‘deceased referent’ marker, *chenu*, which is used to modify animate nouns in the same position and with the same enclitic status as *ichenu*, as illustrated in (18).

(18) formally comparable marker *chenu* ‘deceased’

\[ \text{Tata} = \text{chenu} = \text{sa} \quad \text{ebakwa} = \text{kwana} \quad \text{kwina} = \text{putsu} \quad \text{pa-sena-ta-iti} = \text{a}. \]

father = deceased = GEN child = PL arrive = TMP.SS cry-ARRIVE-S3.PL-PFV-PST

‘Los hijos del taita llegando se pusieron a llorar (se había muerto el papá).’

‘The children of the deceased father cried upon arrival (to the father’s house).’

It is very likely that these two markers are related historically, although it is not entirely clear how. *Ichenu* ‘poor’ appears to have originated from an adjective lexeme *ichenu* ‘poor, pauper, pitiful’. (It does not appear to be reconstructible in proto-Takana; see §4.2.) Such a term is not attested in present day Tacana – Tacana *ichenu* cannot stand alone as a free word – but it is attested in Reyesano, which is genetically the closest Takanan language (§2). An example is provided in (19), from my own Reyesano corpus. Note that in Reyesano, the class of adjectives requires a dummy suffix -me.

(19) Reyesano adjective *ichenu* ‘poor’

\[ \text{Ekama} \quad \text{muwa} \quad \text{te} \quad \text{ichenu-me}. \quad \text{Tunawe} = \text{wichi} \quad \text{te} \quad \text{chipilu-ji}. \]

1PL FOC BM poor-ASF 3PL=RESTR BM money-PROP

‘Nosotros eramos pobre. Ellos eran que tenían plata.’

‘We (the Reyesanos) were poor. It is only them (our bosses) who were rich (lit. with money).’

\[ ^{10} \text{Note that formally, recipient and theme arguments of ditransitive constructions are treated identically in Takanan languages.} \]
In Tacana, although there is no independent adjective lexeme ichenu synchronically, there is evidence that such a lexeme must have existed at a prior stage. The evidence comes from the transitive verb ichenuba- ‘feel pity for’ which contains ichenu plus a syllable ba. In this verb, it is easy to identify the -ba derivational suffix (cognate to the verb ‘see, feel’) which is used productively to turn lexical adjectives into transitive verbs meaning ‘feel that O is ADJ’, as illustrated in (20a,b,c,d). Note that in Tacana, the class of adjectives requires a dummy suffix -da (functionally equivalent to the dummy suffix -me of Reyesano).11 As suggested in (20e), it is very likely that ichenuba- ‘feel pity for’ originated from the combination of an independent adjective lexeme *ichenu ‘poor’ (which has now been lost as an adjective, having grammaticalized as an emotion marker), combined with the derivational suffix -ba.

(20) Derived verbs Basic adjectives
a. -adhi-ba- ‘feel disgusted by’ ← adhi-da ‘dirty-ASF’
b. -ibune-ba- ‘feel compassion for’ ← ibune-da ‘appreciated-ASF’
c. -iyu-ba- ‘feel scared by’ ← iyu-da ‘scary-ASF’
d. -wani-ba- ‘smell’ ← wani-da ‘smell-ASF’
e. -ichenuba- ‘feel pity for’ (← *ichenu-da ‘poor-ASF’?)

3.3 Depreciation 1: base [bâse]

The third emotional suffix, base, is fairly frequent in the corpus, found 81 times. In most examples available, it is used to modify nouns. A few examples also have it on a pronoun or a verb. Its function is exclusively emotional, expressing a range of negative feelings (anger, disgust, contempt, etc.) on the part of the speaker for a particular referent.12 It is always a clitic. Its etymology is possibly an intransitive verb meaning ‘be wrong, be mistaken’.

An example containing base as a noun modifier was already given in (6c). It is repeated below, where its overt translation in the Spanish line, the adjective maldito ‘damned’, is highlighted.

(6c) base modifying a noun

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{Ai, kema } & \text{ebakwa}=\text{chidi}=\text{we ye } \text{epuna}=\text{base}=\text{ja } \text{mu } \text{beju} \\
\text{INTERJ } & \text{1SG.GEN child=DIM=RESTR this woman=DEPREC1=ERG CONTR PFV} \\
\text{jana } & \text{a-netia-ta-iti-a.} \\
\text{cook } & \text{AUX.TR-STANDING-A3-PFV-PST} \\
\end{align*}
\]
\[\text{‘¡Ai, pobre hijo, esa maldita nuera le cocinó!’ es102_ott (Ottaviano 1980:50)}\]
\[\text{‘Ahh, my poor child, this damned woman cooked (and killed) him.’}\]

Additional examples of base modifying nouns are given in (21). They show a diverse range of referents: humans (21a,b), animals (21c,d), a spirit (21e) and an inanimate entity (21f). In

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11 All five Takanan languages have a subclass of bound adjectives which require a dummy (semantically empty) affix in order to be used as independent words (in citation form or in different syntactic constructions). The form and status (prefix vs. suffix) are different according to the languages: suffix -da in Araona, Cavineña and Tacana, suffix -me in Reyesano and prefix kya- in Ese Eja.

12 In the SIL dictionary from Ottaviano & Ottaviano (1989), base is classified as an adjective and its meaning defined as follows: “algo que no sirve, despreciable, vil. Es la palabra imprecatoria. Se usa cuando se quiere menospreciar a sí mismo, o a cualquiera otra persona o cosa. Se usa en la pelea cuando se quiere insultar a otro. También se usa mucho en los cuentos, chistes y charlas obscenas.” (p. 11).
the Spanish translation of (21e), the language consultant rendered base again with the adjective maldito. In (21d), he chose porquería 'despicable', which expresses the feeling of revulsion and disgust. In the Spanish translation of the remaining examples, base is not spelt out at all, which also happens in many other examples from texts or obtained from elicitation on other topics.

(21) base modifying nouns (human, animal, spirit and inanimate)

   1SG.GEN child=DEPREC1 dog let go of-A3-PFV-PST
   ‘Mi hijo lo largo al perro.’ n4.0348 (elicited)
   ‘My damned child let go of the dog.’ (Which makes me angry because I had told him to hold it.)’

   2DU-GEN brother=DEPREC1=ERG TOP 2DL FUT-shoot-A3
   ‘¡(Escapen!) Su hermano los quiere matar.’ tm061
   ‘(Escape!) Your damned brother will kill you.’ (talking about the same violent brother as in (13a,b))

c. Yama da iwa-dha-iti-a uchi=base.
   1SG.ERG TOP call-FRUST-PFV-PST dog=DEPREC1
   ‘Yo le he llamado en vano al perro (pero no vino).’ n2.0042 (elicited)
   ‘I called my damned dog in vain (he didn’t come).’

d. Kema e-me=su da e-dajaja jida caimán=base.
   1SG.GEN NPF-hand=LOC TOP FUT-fall that caiman=DEPREC1
   ‘En mi mano va caer ese caimán porquería.’ ci177
   ‘That despicable caiman will die (lit. fall) in my hand.’ (talking about a caiman that threatened to eat up the speaker’s daughter)

e. Tsa-da=mue kema jida einid'u=base.
   liked-ASF=NEG 1SG.DAT that spirit=DEPREC1
   ‘No quiero a ese maldito maligno.’ es128_ott (Ottaviano 1980:150)
   ‘I don’t like this damned spirit.’ (talking about the speaker’s husband, a wicked spirit who forced her to marry him)

   that Wayu=DEPREC1=LOC 1SG fall-PFV-PST
   ‘En el arroyo Wayu me he caído.’ lp113
   ‘I fell in that damned Wayu (stream).’

The marker base is analyzed as a clitic rather than a suffix. This analysis is based on the fact that, like chidi, base does not need to be directly attached to the noun it modifies. It can encliticize to another item when the noun is followed by an adjective, whether the noun is overtly expressed, as in (22a), or not expressed, as in (22b). This can also happen with headless noun phrases with a demonstrative, as in (23a,b). In passing, note the use of the Spanish augmentative suffix -(n)azo to translate base in (22b).
(22) 

**base** modifying nouns with an adjective host


  garden small=DEM=DEPREC1 1DL help-A3-DESID AUX.ITR-POT

  ‘Chaco chiquitito va a querer que le ayudemos sembrar.’

  ‘He is probably going to want us to help him make his **damned** minuscule garden.’

  gu052

b. *Kepia tse tueda tuna-da=base ai ja-bana-ti-kwa?*

  where MAYBE that lazy-ASF=DEPREC1 what MID-plant-MID-POT

  ‘Que va sembrar algo ese (hombre) flojonazo?’

  ‘What could this **damned** lazy (man) be able to plant (in the field)?’

(23) **base** modifying nouns with a demonstrative host


  damn_it PFV 1SG again this=DEPREC1=ERG lie_to AUX.TR-A3-PFV-PST

  ‘Carajo. Otra vez ya me volvió a mentir este (zorro).’

  ‘Damn it! That damned (fox) lied to me again!’

b. *Wape=su da e-sakwina jida=base.*

  mass_of_floating_sticks=LOC TOP FUT-appear that=DEPREC1

  ‘En la palisada va salir ese (caimán) porquería.’

  ‘That despicable (caiman) is going to appear out of the mass of floating sticks.’

Another piece of evidence in favor of the clitic status is that **base** can also modify independent pronouns, as illustrated in (24).

(24) **base** modifying a pronoun

*Ema defiende-taji=bie da metse=base daja*

  1SG defend-ABIL=EVENTHOUGH TOP 2DL=DEPREC1 thus

  pue-yu-me pu-iti-a.

  come-REITR-INTENS AUX.ITR-PFV-PST

  ‘En vez de defenderme, Ustedes dos se han venido.’

  ‘Instead of defending me (against the jaguar) you (escaped) went back home, damned you.’

Example (25) is the only example of **base** attaching to a verb. Note that semantically **base** appears to still be a modifier of the (subject) argument of the verb (‘caiman’), not a modifier of the verb event (‘lie’). In that construction, **base** seems to behave similarly to **ichenu** (cf. §3.2). More examples, including transitive verbs, would be needed to know whether **base**, like **ichenu**, would also target absolutive arguments, and what factors might motivate its position, on the verb/predicate or on an argument.

(25) **base** marking a verb

*Jade dapia pa-sa=base!*

  let's_see there HORT-lie=DEPREC1
‘A ver, ahí que esté echado (el caimán).’
‘Let it lay there, that damned (caiman)!’

In all of the available examples, base is analyzed as a clitic, rather than a suffix, because it can attach to a range of different word classes. In addition, unlike what we saw with chidi and ichenu (and base), there are no examples showing base followed by a suffix.

Note that, like chidi and ichenu, when base is used simultaneously with other clitics, it is placed closer to the host than the other clitics, as can be seen in (26), with =kwana ‘PL’ and =bawi ‘RESTR’.

(26) base modifying a noun, followed by other enclitics

…miada mu tueda animal=base=kwana=bawi
2SG.ERG CONTR that animal=DEPREC1=PL=RESTR
jeti-jeti y-a-inia…
fetch-REDUP IPFV-AUX.TR-IPFV.SITTING.1/2
‘Cada vez tú traías así esos animales despreciables, no más.’ rm066_ott (Ottaviano, Ida. 1980.) (Ottaviano 1980:17)
‘Every time you would fetch only those despicable animals…’

The etymology of base is unclear. Here I will tentatively suggest that it comes from an intransitive verb base ‘be wrong, be mistaken’. There is no such verb in present-day Tacana, but there is evidence that such a verb is possibly reconstructible. The evidence comes from the transitive verb, basea ‘cheat on, fool’, illustrated in (27).

(27) basea ‘cheat on, fool’

Daja basea-taji mike tata.
thus cheat_on-ABIL 2SG.GEN father
‘Así le mintamos a tu padre.’ au085a
‘This way we can fool your father’

The verb basea is formed of the sequence base followed by a vowel a. In the language, a is found in a number of transitive / intransitive pairs where it functions as a causative marker, as illustrated in (28a-d). It is therefore possible that the a in transitive basea is the same causative marker which would have applied to an intransitive verb base ‘be wrong, be mistaken’, which has been lost in the present-day language.14

(28) Causative derivation

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Base</th>
<th>Meaning</th>
<th>Causative Marking</th>
<th>Corresponding Intransitive verb</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>a.</td>
<td>neti-a-‘stand (tr)’</td>
<td>← neti-‘stand (itr)’</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>b.</td>
<td>seje-a-‘fill (tr)’</td>
<td>← seje-‘fill (itr)’</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>c.</td>
<td>uru-a-‘fell’</td>
<td>← uru-‘fall’</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>d.</td>
<td>utsu-a-‘burn (tr)’</td>
<td>← utsu-‘burn (itr)’</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>e.</td>
<td>basea-‘cheat on’</td>
<td>← *base-‘be mistaken’?</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

13 In Spanish, Ottaviano & Ottaviano (1989) define the meanings of this verb as follows: *embrollar, engañar, traicionar*.
14 I have not been able to identify any cognate form in other Takanan languages.
3.4 Depreciation 2: madha [maða]

The last emotion morpheme, madha, is much less frequent in the database, being only found seven times. Its exact meaning is less certain than that of the other emotion morphemes. In all the examples, it is used as a verb suffix, occurring between the verb root (possibly the verb stem) and the final inflectional suffixes. As for its etymology, it is most probably the adjective madha-da ‘bad’ mentioned in footnote 15.

Three illustrative examples of madha from my own corpus of texts are given in (29a-c).

(29) madha marking verbs

   there TOP die-DEPREC2-PFV-PST  
   ‘Ahí se ha muerto (el caimán).’ ci199  
   ‘He died there (the despicable caiman that almost ate me).’

   PFV in any manner 1SG HORT-go_up-DEPREC2-GO-REITR through_here  
   ‘Cómo sea me voy a subir por aquí.’ lp045  
   ‘In any manner I will climb up here / anyhow I’m gonna have to climb up here (crawling on my knees).’

c. Jade, dasu mu pa-pu-madha-ti-yu=we ekwanaju.  
   Let’s see then CONTR HORT-be-DEPREC2-GO-REITR=RESTR 1PL.EXCL  
   ‘Ya entonces, nos vamos a ir nomás.’ tm021  
   ‘Well then, let’s go (since your daughter is not here)!’

In most of the translations of the available examples, madha is not expressed. Yet, it appears to always occur in situations which depict participants and/or situations which are in one way or another unpleasant to the speaker. Example (29a) is from the same text as (21d), (23b) and (25), where the speaker tells the story of her misadventures with a despicable caiman that threatened to eat her up. Example (29b) comes from the same text as (11b) and (21f), where the speaker relates how he twisted his knee and had a very hard time going back home. Finally, in (29c), the context is that the speaker is very disappointed (if not humiliated) that the daughter of his addressee, that he had specifically come to visit, is absent. (This example is part of the same text as (13a,b) and (21b) about the violent brother.) On the basis of this very small pool of examples, I am inclined to analyze madha as a second depreciative marker, used to express a negative feeling on the part of the speaker for a situation or participants towards which they have hostile, unfriendly, uncomfortable or unpleasant feelings. It is unclear if and how this marker differs semantically from the first depreciative marker base, although one might be tempted to suggest that base is used whenever a particular participant can be blamed for the situation that has arisen, and madha when this is less clear (i.e., where the situation is negative but it has not necessarily been caused by a particular participant in the situation).16

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15 In the SIL dictionary from Ottaviano & Ottaviano, madha is not listed as a bound morpheme. It only shows up as either a verbal lexeme meaning ‘harm, defame, interrupt’ or an adjective lexeme, meaning ‘a lot, bad’; see Ottaviano & Ottaviano (1989:77) and more discussion on these forms below.

16 I thank an anonymous reviewer for this suggestion.
The only examples where madha is given a translation are (30a) and (30b), which both come from SIL data. Both show madha on the verb d’u- ‘pour water on’. The first occurrence, translated by malintencionadamente ‘maliciously’, comes from a text published in 1980 where a woman relates how she killed her hated husband. The second occurrence, translated by mucha (agua) ‘a lot of (water)’, is an entry of the 1989 SIL dictionary. This latter example most probably comes from the same text as (30a).

(30) madha marking verbs

a. …yama beju chua-d’u-madha-iti-a.
   1SG.ERG PFV head-pour_water_on-DEPREC2-PFV-PST
   ‘(Luego), derramé (agua) sobre su cabeza (de mi marido) malintencionadamente.’
   es137_ott (Ottaviano 1980:52)
   ‘I poured (boiling water) on the head (of my hated husband, in order to kill him).’

b. -chua-d’u-madha-
   head-pour_water_on-DEPREC2-
   ‘derramar mucha agua en la cabeza’ (Ottaviano & Ottaviano 1989:26)
   ‘pour a lot of water on the head’

The translation of (30b), with the quantifying expression ‘a lot of’, does not appear to involve a depreciative sense, which suggests that the translation of (30a) is probably more appropriate. I suspect that the translation ‘a lot of’ is influenced by the fact that Tacana has an adjective madha-da meaning ‘a lot of, many’, as discussed further below.

It is most likely that the depreciative suffix -madha is historically related to the adjective madha-da ‘bad’, illustrated in (31).17

(31) adjective madha-da ‘bad’

E-dhe-tsuitsui-(a)ni, [ai madha-da] dia=putsu.
IPFV-stomach-hurt-IPFV.SITTING thing bad=ASF eat=TMP.SS
‘Me duele el estómago, porque comí algo malo.’ (Ottaviano & Ottaviano 1989:33)
‘My stomach hurts because I ate something bad.

Even though this adjective is rarely used in my Tacana corpus, it has fairly clear cognates in all the other Takanan languages (cf. adjectives masa-da in Cavineña, kya-mase in Ese Ejja, masawe in Araona and emasa in Reyesano, which all mean ‘bad’) and it was reconstructed in proto-Takanan as *maza by Girard (1971:99). These facts provide good evidence that the depreciative suffix -madha grammaticalized out of an adjective meaning ‘bad’.

Note however that, as mentioned above, Tacana also has a formally identical adjective madha-da with a different meaning, namely ‘a lot of, many’, illustrated in (32). This adjective is more frequent in my corpus.

17 Another possible cognate is Ottaviano & Ottaviano’s (1989:77) transitive verb madha- ‘harm, defame, interrupt’ (Span. hacer mal a, difamar, interrumpir / entrecortar), which was already mentioned in footnote 15. Unfortunately, this form is not attested in my corpus. What is more, in their dictionary, Ottaviano & Ottaviano do not provide any illustrative example of its use in a sentence. More work is needed to determine whether such a verb really exists or existed in Tacana.
Arguably, madha-da ‘a lot of, many’ could equally be a possible etymology for the depreciative suffix, which would have followed the well-known augmentative > pejorative path (Ponsonnet this volume). There is comparative evidence, however, that the adjective madha-da ‘a lot of, many’ is not the source of the depreciative suffix. As far as I know, there are no attested cognate forms meaning ‘a lot of, many’ in any of the other Takanan languages, which suggest that the Tacana adjective madha-da ‘a lot of, many’ is probably a recent semantic extension from the adjective madha-da ‘bad’. Note that such an extension, from ‘bad’ to ‘a lot of, many’ is not unheard of, having been documented in at least some Australian languages of Cape York Peninsula (Gaby 2006:286, fn 158).

4 Emotion morphemes in the Takanan family: synthesis and reconstruction

In this section, I present a synthetic analysis of grammatical morphemes expressing emotions in all the languages of the Takanan family. The morphemes are organized according to their broad semantic meanings: affection (§4.1), compassion (§4.2) and depreciation (§4.3). For comparative and reconstruction purposes, I also present, for the three semantic domains, and when available, a number of morphemes which do not have emotional meanings synchronically but are probably cognate (entirely or partly) to the Tacana emotional morphemes discussed in §3.

4.1 Affection

The morphemes which express affection-related emotions are listed in Table 3, together with likely cognate morphemes which do not express emotions. The latter are underlined. The cognate parts of these morphemes are indicated in bold.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Language</th>
<th>Morpheme</th>
<th>Meaning</th>
<th>Source/Notes</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Cavineña</td>
<td>chi [tɕi]</td>
<td>‘affection, dearly beloved’ (on kinship terms only)</td>
<td>(Guillaume 2008:440)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ese Ejja</td>
<td>sisi [sis]</td>
<td>‘small, little’</td>
<td>(Vuillermet 2012:324)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tacana</td>
<td>chidi [tɕidi]</td>
<td>‘affection, tenderness, compassion, small size/quantity, attenuation’</td>
<td>§3.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Reyesano</td>
<td>wichí [bitei]</td>
<td>‘only, at least’</td>
<td>Guillaume (field notes 2004-2008)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As we can see, besides Tacana, two languages display grammatical markers expressing affection (Cavineña and Araona). Among these, only the Cavineña marker chi is formally related...
to Tacana *chidi*. The Araona marker *lipi* ‘affectionately’, does not show any formal similarity, which points to a different historical origin. Unlike Tacana *chidi*, Cavineña *chi* only expresses affection and with very limited productivity. In the available data, it is suffixed to six noun roots which express kinship relations (‘grandfather’, ‘grandmother’, ‘father’, ‘mother’, ‘uncle’ and ‘aunt’), and only when possessed by a speech act participant (1st or 2nd person) (see details in Guillaume 2008:440–441). An example where *chi* is suffixed to the noun *tata* ‘father’ possessed by a 1st person singular participant is given in (33).

(33) Cavineña *chi* ‘affection’

\[ Tuda\ ike\ e-kwe\ tata-\chi=ra\ escuela=ju\ isha-kware... \]

then 1SG 1SG-GEN father-AFFTN=ERG school=LOC put.in-REM.PST

‘De ahi me metió mi papá en la escuela…’ mg003 (Guillaume 2008:677)

‘Then my dad sent me to school…’

In Ese Ejja and Reyesano, there do not appear to be any affection-related markers. However, it is reasonable to believe that Ese Ejja *sisi* ‘small, little’, illustrated in (34), and Reyesano *wichi* ‘only, at least’, illustrated in (35) (see also (19) above) are historically related to Tacana *chidi* and Cavineña *chi*, because of their semantic and formal similarity.

(34) Ese Ejja *sisi* ‘small, little’

\[ Akwi-\textit{sisi}\ saja\text{-}ya\text{-}ka\text{-}ani\ \text{beni}=a. \]

tree-little cut-?GO(O)-3A-PRS wind=ERG

‘The wind cuts (away?) the little branches.’ {elicited} (Vuillermet 2012:671)

(35) Reyesano *wichi* ‘only, at least’

\[ Te\text{-}tabijedu\ maika,\ walipa=\textit{wichi}\ te,\ m-e-uepe-da. \]

for\_that\_reason not\_exist hen=RESTR BM 1SG-IPFV\text{-}raise-IPFV

‘Por eso ya no quiero, gallina no más yo crio.’ bn179 (Guillaume field notes 2004-2008)

‘For that reason I don’t have (cattle), I raise only chickens.’

The historical connection between Cavineña *chi* and Ese Ejja *sisi* is supported by their phonological, morphosyntactic and semantic similarities. From a phonological perspective, as established by Girard (1971:31ff), there are regular sound correspondences between Cavineña *ch* [tʃ] (preceding i) and Ese Ejja *s* [s]. If we accept Girard’s (1971:31ff) proto-phoneme *ts* [tʃ] as the ancestor of these two sounds, we can reconstruct a form *tsi* [tʃi] in proto-Takanan. The Ese Ejja *sisi* would therefore correspond to a reduplicated reflex of proto-Takanan *tsi* [tʃi]. In the case of Tacana and Reyesano, the phonological evidence is not as transparent; according to Girard’s (1971:31ff) reconstruction, the reflexes of *ts* [tʃ] should be *ts* [tʃ], not *ch* [tʃ], in both languages. Still, the two sounds *ts* [tʃ] and *ch* [tʃ] are phonetically very similar. Also note that in both Tacana *chidi* and Reyesano *wichi*, the syllable *chi* is accompanied by an adjacent syllable (synchronically non-segmentable) which contains the palatal vowel *i* (postposed *di* in Tacana and preposed *wi* in Reyesano). The presence of the alveo-palatal *ch* rather than (otherwise expected) post-alveolar *ts* in these two languages could therefore be the result of the influence of this syllable. More work is needed to confirm this hypothesis.
From a morphosyntactic perspective, the historical connection is supported by the fact that the four postulated cognate markers are used in the same construction, as noun modifiers in a noun phrase, where they are postposed to the head noun. We can therefore suggest that this construction goes back to the proto-language. The origin and raison d’être of the presence of a postposed syllable di in Tacana chi di and preposed wi in Reyesano wich i remains to be investigated. In the case of wi in Reyesano, it is possible that it is related to the restrictive (delimitative) enclitic =we ‘only’, which is found in both Reyesano (Guillaume 2012:219) and Tacana (see (6c), (9b), (15c) and (29c)).

Finally, from a semantic perspective, the historical connection is supported by the fact that the different meanings expressed by the four postulated cognate markers – affection in Cavineña and Tacana, diminutive in Ese Ejja and exactness (‘only, at least’) in Reyesano – are frequently expressed by the same markers in the languages of the world, as revealed by typological work on evaluative morphology (Jurafsky 1996; Mutz 2015; Ponsonnet this volume). According to the predictions of these authors, the diminutive meaning should have been historically prior, with later extensions to affection.

4.2 Compassion

Table 4 lists the morphemes that express compassion-related emotions in the different languages of the Takanan family.

**Table 4. Grammatical morphemes expressing compassion-related emotions in the Takanan family**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Language</th>
<th>Morpheme</th>
<th>Meaning</th>
<th>Source</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Cavineña</td>
<td>shana</td>
<td>‘pity, empathy’</td>
<td>(Guillaume 2008:654)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ese Ejja</td>
<td>che</td>
<td>‘discourse marker’</td>
<td>(Vuillermet 2012:334)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tacana</td>
<td>ichenu</td>
<td>‘empathy, pity, compassion’</td>
<td>§3.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Reyesano</td>
<td>chenu</td>
<td>‘empathy’ (Span. empático)</td>
<td>(Guillaume field notes 2004-2008; 2012:219)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Apart from Tacana, compassion-related emotion markers are unambiguously present in two languages, Cavineña and Reyesano. The Cavineña marker shana is formally quite distinct from Tacana and most likely has a different origin.18 By contrast, the Reyesano marker chenu, illustrated in (36), is formally almost identical to the Tacana morpheme; the only difference being the lack of the word-initial i. In terms of its distribution, Reyesano chenu is a second position enclitic (2012:219).

(36) Reyesano chenu ‘empathy’

\[
\text{Baudza } =\text{chenu m-a-puti-a te ki te}=\text{du.} \\
yesterday =\text{EMP 1SG-PST-go-PST BM 1SG.GEN field}=\text{LOC} \\
\text{‘Ayer pobre he ido a mi chaco.’ te001 (Guillaume 2012:216)} \\
\text{‘Yesterday I went to my field, poor me.’}
\]

The inclusion of the Ese Ejja marker che in Table 4 is more tentative. Vuillermet (2012:334) does not discuss its meaning and functions: it is found in a single example, reproduced in (37),

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18 In Guillaume (2008:655) I have proposed the lexical verb shana ‘leave, abandon’ as a possible etymology.
where it is labeled ‘discourse’ (marker). However, according to the same author (p.c., March 2016), the meaning of this morpheme is likely to be similar to that of Tacana ichenu and Reyesano chenu, expressing compassion or pity at least in some contexts. Also, from a formal perspective, a historical connection between the three markers is not unexpected considering their formal resemblance and also the distributional similarity with the Reyesano marker, as a 2nd position enclitic.

(37) Ese Ejja che ‘discourse marker’

\[
\begin{array}{llllll}
Akyana=sea=che & xeshe-aña & owepoxi & kwa & anoso, & azucar=kwana \\
\text{things}=1\text{INCL.ERG}=\text{DISC} & \text{buy-PRA}1/2 & \text{a}\_\text{little} & \text{REL}? & \text{rice} & \text{sugar(Span.)}=\text{PL} \\
kwa & esea=xeshe-sa & a-je. & \text{REL}? & 1\text{INCL.ERG}=\text{buy-DES} & \text{do-FUT} \\
\end{array}
\]

‘(In the town) we buy at least rice and sugar, what we want/need to buy.’ {KaAch.060}
(Vuillermet 2012:334)

In Araona, I was not able to identify in the available descriptions any compassion-related marker or any morpheme which might be related at least formally with compassion-related markers in the other languages.

In §3.2 I have argued that Tacana ichenu probably derives from an adjective lexeme ichenu ‘poor, pauper, pitiful’, which is still attested in Reyesano. Whether this adjective grammaticalized as a compassion marker independently in the two languages or at an earlier stage (proto-Tacana-Reyesano or proto-Takanik) is unknown at the present time.

4.3 Depreciation

Finally, Table 5 presents morphemes which express depreciation-related emotions in the different languages of the Takanan family.

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19 In other examples, Ese Ejja che might as well express meanings of disgust or contempt and in yet other examples irritation or annoyance (Vuillermet p.c., March 2016).
20 I am assuming that =che is a second position enclitic because in example (37), its host, =sea ‘1INCL.ERG’, is itself analyzed as a second position enclitic by Vuillermet (2012:352);
Table 5. Grammatical morphemes expressing depreciation-related emotions in the Takanan family

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Language</th>
<th>Morpheme</th>
<th>Translation</th>
<th>Source</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Cavineña</td>
<td>amaama</td>
<td>‘damned, stupid’ (Span. maldito, de porra, malicioso)</td>
<td>(Guillaume field notes 1996-2003)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>jara/wana</td>
<td>‘adversative’ : discontent, anger, disgust, regret, pity, disappointment, confusion, distrust’</td>
<td>(Guillaume 2008:241ff)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ese Ejja</td>
<td>jya</td>
<td>‘depreciative: s.o. not liked, action done in any manner’ (Span. como sea)</td>
<td>(Vuillermet 2012:499)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Araona</td>
<td>o</td>
<td>‘disapproval, depreciation, disgust’ (Span. desaprobacion, despreciativa, desagrado)</td>
<td>(Pitman 1980:55, 117)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>shodi</td>
<td>‘regret’ (Span. sentido, arrepentirse)</td>
<td>(Pitman 1980:55; Emkow 2006:524)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>shili</td>
<td>‘depreciation, contempt, old, bad’ (Span. depreciativo, despectivo, viejo, malo)</td>
<td>(Pitman 1980:117)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tacana</td>
<td>base</td>
<td>‘anger, disgust, contempt’</td>
<td>§3.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>madha</td>
<td>‘adversative’</td>
<td>§3.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Reyesano</td>
<td>masamasa</td>
<td>‘damned, stupid’ (Span. maldito, cojudo, malo)</td>
<td>(Guillaume field notes 2004-2008)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>wiyawiya</td>
<td>‘negative attitude of speaker over the proposition’</td>
<td>(Guillaume field notes 2004-2008; 2012:218)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*The choice of the term ‘adversative’ for labelling the marker jara/wana in Cavineña is unfortunate because this term is generally used for other types of meanings in general linguistics, such as for markers expressing contradiction (e.g., English adversative conjunctions but and yet).

As one can see, depreciation markers are attested in all the languages. Cavineña, Araona and Reyesano, similarly to Tacana, have two markers expressing these meanings. In Ese Ejja, one finds only one depreciation marker, jya.21

In terms of formal similarities, the only observable pattern is the resemblance between Tacana madha [maða] and Reyesano masamasa, illustrated in (38).

(38) Reyesano masamasa ‘damned’

\[
\text{M-e-surasura-badze te, m-a-wachujea-ta(-a) te,} \\
\text{1SG-IPFV-fish-IPFV.HANGING BM 1SG-PST-jump.on-A3-PST BM} \\
\text{[iba masamasa].} \\
\text{jaguar damned} \\
\text{‘Estaba pescando, me brincó el tigre maldito.’ ab002 (Guillaume field notes 2004-2008)} \\
\text{‘When I was fishing the damned jaguar jumped on me.’} \\
\]

The historical connection between the two morphemes is supported by the regular sound correspondences between Tacana dh [ð] and Reyesano s [s] (Girard 1971:31). However, the

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21 Ese Ejja also has a grammatical apprehensive marker, chana, which, like the depreciation markers, expresses negative feelings related to the domain of ‘fear’ (Vuillermet 2012:474–475; this volume). This marker is not included here for two reasons: firstly, it is semantically quite different from the depreciation morphemes; secondly, there is no such marker in Tacana (and in any of the other Takanan languages).

- 23 -
two markers, even if they possibly express similar semantics, have a very different morphosyntactic distribution: Tacana *madha* is part of the verb morphology while Reyesano *masamasa* is a noun modifier. (Reyesano *masamasa* is analyzed as an independent word because it appears to hold independent stress. However, from a morphosyntactic perspective it is bound to its nominal host since it cannot occur by itself.) This suggests that they followed independent paths of grammaticalization. In §3.4 I suggested that the Tacana adversative *madha* comes from an adjective lexeme *madha-da* ‘bad’ which exists synchronically in the language. It turns out that synchronically, as already mentioned in §3.4, Reyesano also has a related adjective lexeme, *emas* ‘bad’, illustrated in (39). Therefore, it is likely that the two depreciation markers followed independent paths of grammaticalization out of formally related (cognate) adjectival lexemes present in the two languages.

(39) Reyesano adjective *emas* ‘bad’

\[ K-e-ichadu \quad te \quad [iye \quad anu \quad emasa]. \]

1PL-FUT-leave BM this woman bad

‘La vamos a dejar a esta mujer mala.’ cn034 (Guillaume 2012:210)

‘We’re going to leave that bad woman.’

For some of the markers in Table 5, the likely etymological source of the markers that are not related to each other is documented. In Cavineña, the ‘adversative’ *jara/wana* most likely comes from the intransitive/transitive pair of posture verbs *jara* ‘lie’ and *wana* ‘lay’ (Guillaume 2008:244); the origin of the depreciative *amaama* is unknown. In Ese Eija, the depreciative *jya* is probably related to the transitive verb *jya* ‘leave, throw’ (Vuillermet 2012:499, 685). In Reyesano, the ‘negative attitude’ marker *wiyawiya* might be connected to the intransitive verb *wiya* ‘urinate’ (proto-Takanan *wira*; Girard 1971:134). Finally, in Araona, the origin of the three negative emotion markers *o*, *shodi* and *shili* is unknown.

5 Summary and conclusions

In this paper I have described four emotion grammatical markers in Tacana, presented a synthesis of emotion markers in the whole Takanan family, and proposed a reconstruction of their history. In doing so, I have also surveyed a number of morphemes which do not have emotional meanings but are probably cognate to the Tacana emotional morphemes.

The study firstly reveals that three emotional meanings are recurrently expressed grammatically in all these languages: affection, compassion and depreciation. For all three categories, the emotion markers are primarily noun modifiers. In some cases, however, the same markers can also occur on a verbal or adjectival base or other word classes, such as adverbs. When attached to a verb or an adjective in predicative function, the emotion markers can either modify the verb or the adjective (ex. Tacana diminutive *chidi*) or modify an argument (ex. Tacana compassion *ichenu* and depreciation *base*).

Secondly, the study shows that only one emotion morpheme, the affective, can be reasonably reconstructed to proto-Takanan, in the form of a (probable diminutive) marker *tsi* [tsi]. The

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22 The resemblance between the verb *jya* ‘leave, throw’ and the depreciative suffix *-jya* is not noted by Vuillermet. However, Vuillermet points out the resemblance between the verb *jya* ‘leave, throw’ and an associated motion suffix *-jya* ‘GO’ which has the exact same phonological and morphosyntactic properties as the depreciative suffix (p. 685). Here I am assuming that both depreciative and associated motion markers have the same etymology.
etymology of this marker is unknown. It might be relevant to point to its formal resemblance with the diminutive / affective marker *chicha* in the neighboring language Mojeño (see Rose This volume), which could suggest an instance of borrowing, whether from Mojeño into proto-Takanan or vice versa.

The emotion markers which express compassion or depreciation meanings display very little formal similarities among each other and cannot be reconstructed to proto-Takanan. However, their etymological sources are easier to recover: these tend to be either lexical adjectives (‘poor’ → COMPASSION and ‘bad’ → DEPRECIATION in Tacana and Reyesano) or lexical verbs (‘abandon’ → COMPASSION in Cavineña, ‘lie/lay’ → ADVERSATIVE in Cavineña, ‘leave, throw’ → DEPRECIATIVE in Ese Eja). For the field of typology, it is noteworthy that none of these etymologies display any obvious link with the expression of “diminutivization” or “augmentativization”, a fact which suggests that the study of the morphological (grammatical) expression of emotions should not necessarily be construed as a subcomponent of the study of “diminutive” and “augmentative” markers, as has often been done so far.
6 Acknowledgements

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### 7 Abbreviations

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Abbreviation</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>ABIL</td>
<td>abilitative</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>AFFTN</td>
<td>affection</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ASF</td>
<td>(dummy) adjective suffix</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ASSOC</td>
<td>associative</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>AUX</td>
<td>auxiliary</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>BM</td>
<td>(constituent) boundary marker</td>
</tr>
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<td>compassion</td>
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<td>completive</td>
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<td>CONTR</td>
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<td>first depreciation marker</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DEPREC2</td>
<td>second depreciation marker</td>
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<td>DES / DESID</td>
<td>desiderative</td>
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<td>DIM</td>
<td>diminutive</td>
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<td>DISC</td>
<td>discourse marker</td>
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<td>DS</td>
<td>different subject</td>
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<td>dual</td>
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<td>empathy</td>
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<td>frustative</td>
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<td>GO</td>
<td>go &amp; do (verb action)</td>
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<td>(dummy) noun prefix</td>
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<td>reduplication</td>
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<td>Span.</td>
<td>Spanish borrowed term</td>
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<tr>
<td>SS</td>
<td>same subject</td>
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<tr>
<td>TMP</td>
<td>temporal subordinator</td>
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</tbody>
</table>
8 References


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