

Headless Relative Clauses in Chuj

Justin Royer

McGill University

justin.royer@mail.mcgill.ca

Abstract

This paper explores various types of headless relative clause constructions in Chuj, a Mayan language spoken in Huehuetenango, Guatemala and Chiapas, Mexico by 45,000 to 70,000 speakers (Piedrasanta, 2009). The main focus is free relative clauses; Chuj features three: maximal free relative clauses, existential free relative clauses, and free-choice free relative clauses. I follow Caponigro (2003, 2004) and Kotek and Erlewine (2016) in positing that maximal free relative clauses and existential free relative clauses are structurally identical at their core, and that the difference in their interpretations is a consequence of the elements that each kind combines with. Toward the end of the paper, I also show that Chuj features a rich inventory of strategies to form other types of headless relative clauses. These include headless relative clauses introduced by both a *wh*-word and determiners [+Wh, +Det], those introduced only by determiner [-Wh, +Det], and those that are formed with neither a *wh*-word nor a determiner [-Wh, -Det].

1. Introduction and basic features of Chuj

Chuj belongs to the Q'anjob'alán branch of the Mayan language family, and is closely related to Q'anjob'al, a language also discussed in this volume (see Mateo Toledo). It is spoken by 45,000 to 70,000 speakers in the department of Huehuetenango, Guatemala and in the state of Chiapas, Mexico (Piedrasanta, 2009). Unless otherwise indicated, all data in this paper come from two sources: elicitation with speakers of the San Mateo Ixtatán and Nentón dialects of Chuj, and a corpus of several hours worth of transcribed audio and video narratives. The corpus is stored and available in the *Archive of Indigenous Languages of Latin America*, under the collection *Chuj Oral Tradition* (Mateo Pedro and Coon 2017). Examples from the corpus are marked with “txt”.

1.1 Verb phrase and basic clause structure

Chuj is verb initial in neutral discourse. The San Mateo Ixtatán and Nentón variants have basic VOS word order, while the San Sebastián Coatán variant features VSO word order (Maxwell 1982). Examples of the San Mateo variant are provided below – (1) features an intransitive verb with basic VS order, whereas (2) is a transitive sentence with basic VOS order.¹

¹ The abbreviations in the glosses follow the Leipzig Glossing Conventions, with the following Chuj or Mayan-specific exceptions: A – Set A (ergative, possessive); ABST – abstractive; B – Set B (absolutive); DTV – derived transitive status suffix; DUB – dubitative; EPEN – epenthesis; EXT – existential; FR – free relative; HUM – human; IV – intransitive status suffix; N.CLF – noun classifier; NUM.CLF – numeral classifier; PREP – preposition; PROSP – prospective; PV – topic/focus marker on preverbal arguments; RC – relative clause; REP – reportative; STAT – stative suffix; SUB – subordinate clause suffix; SUF – unanalyzed suffix; TV – transitive status suffix. Glosses and translations in Chuj taken from other sources are in some cases modified for consistency. Spanish to English translations are my own.

(1) Ix-kot nok' wakax.
 PFV-arrive N.CLF cow
 'The cows arrived.' (txt)

(2) Ix-y-il waj Xun ix Malin.
 PFV-A3-see N.CLF Xun N.CLF Malin
 'Malin saw John.' (Buenrostro 2013, 57a)

As is common in Mayan languages, topicalized and focused constituents appear pre-verbally (Aissen 1992), and SVO order is thus frequent (see Bielig 2015). Both topicalized and focused elements are preceded by *ha*, but topics may be distinguished from focused elements because of the way each is realized. While topics trigger the presence of a resumptive classifier, *winh* in (3a), focused elements do not, as in (3b).

(3) a. *Topicalization*
 [**Ha waj Petul**] ix-y-il *(**winh**) jun ix ix.
 PV N.CLF Petul PFV-A3-see N.CLF one N.CLF woman
 'As for Petul, he saw a woman.' (Bielig 2015, 3)

b. *Focus*
 [**Ha waj Petul**] ix-il-an jun ix ix.
 PV N.CLF Petul PFV-see-AF one N.CLF woman
 'It was Petul who saw a woman.' (Bielig 2015, 2)

The examples in (3) also show that focused transitive subjects trigger the presence of Agent Focus morphology in the verb stem, as illustrated by the presence of *-an* in example (3b) (see Stiebels 2006 and Coon et al. 2014 on Agent Focus in Mayan languages), which is not present with topics like (3a). As will be shown in the following sections, Agent Focus morphology is also triggered by transitive *wh*-subjects, and in constructions with relativized transitive subjects.

A fully inflected verb stem may consist of, in order of appearance, tense-aspect marking (TAM), absolutive and ergative person marking, a limited class of adverbial elements, the root, derivational morphology, and a “status suffix”, discussed below. Example (4) illustrates this order, and an example of a verb stem is shown in (5).

(4) TAM – SET B (ABS) – SET A (ERG) – ADV – root – DERIV – STATUS SUFFIX

(5) Ix-ach-in-te-chel-ej.
 PFV-B2SG-A1SG-INTS-hug-DTV
 'I hugged you a lot.'

Like other Mayan languages, Chuj generally shows an ergative-absolutive pattern of alignment observed via head-marking on the predicate. Following the tradition in Mayan linguistics, ergative morphemes are referred to as “Set A”, also used to cross-reference possessors, whereas absolutive is referred to as “Set B”. Set A and Set B morphology is provided in Table 1 below.

Table 1: Set A and Set B morphology in Chuj²

	Set A (ERG + POSS)		Set B (ABS)
	Pre-C	Pre-V	
1SG	(h)in-	w-	(h)in-
2SG	(h)a-	(h)-	(h)ach-
3SG	s-	y-	Ø-
1PL	ko-	k-	(h)onh-
2PL	(h)e-	(h)ey-	(h)ex-
3PL	s-	y-	Ø-

Chuj has four main aspect markers, provided in Table 2 (see Carolan 2015 on the relevance of tense in Chuj). While perfective, imperfective, and prospective are marked with prefixes on the verb stem, progressive is marked with the use of a predicate triggering an ergative split, which Coon and Carolan (2017) attribute to a possessed nominalized verb stem (see also Comrie 1978; Larsen and Norman 1979; Robertson 1980; Bricker 1981; Kaufman 1990 and Zavala 2017 on this construction in Mayan languages). The progressive predicate exhibits phonological variation, appearing either as *lan*, *wan*, *lananh*, or *leman* depending on the variant (Buenrostro 2004).

Table 2: Tense-Aspect Marking in Chuj

Aspect	Marker
Perfective	<i>ix-</i>
Imperfective	<i>tz-</i>
Prospective	<i>ol-</i>
Progressive	<i>lan / wan / lananh / leman</i>

While all intransitive stems in Chuj are suffixed with the intransitive status suffix *-i*, transitive stems are divided into two types: root transitives are suffixed with a partially harmonic vowel *-V'*, whereas derived transitive stems are suffixed with *-ej* (Coon to appear). Both *-i* and *-V'* are only pronounced when appearing at the edge of a prosodic phrase (Hopkins, 1967). Examples of underived intransitive and transitive root stems are provided below:

- (6) Wach ix-in-wa'-i.
 well PFV-B1S-eat-IV
 'I ate well.'
- (7) Ix-ach-in-chel-a'.
 PFV-B2S-A1S-hug-TV
 'I hugged you.'

² The grapheme “h” is written word-initially and signals the absence of glottal stop insertion, otherwise expected on vowel-initial forms.

As in other Mayan languages, any lexical element may appear as a stative “non-verbal” predicate, in which case the predicate does not appear with a TAM marker. Examples are provided with the existential predicate *ay* ‘there is’ in (8), and with the bare nominal root in (9).

(8) **Ay** jun nok’ tz’i’ t’atik.
 EXT one N.CLF dog here.
 ‘There’s a dog here.’

(9) **Winak** hin.
 man B1S
 ‘I’m a man.’

1.2 Noun phrase

Most noun phrases in Chuj are introduced by at least one of a set of determiner-like elements, including noun classifiers, the indefinites *jun* or *juntzanh*, or demonstratives. The maximal extension of the noun phrase is provided in (10).

(10) Q > NUM.CLF > PL > N.CLF > SET A (POSS) > ADJ > N > RC > DEM

In order of appearance, noun phrases can be formed of quantifiers, followed by numeral classifiers, plural marking (for humans only), noun classifiers, Set A possessive marking, adjectives, the noun stem, relative clauses, and demonstratives.³ Three examples illustrating these elements are provided below.

(11) Ha [DP **winh chanh winak**] Matin s-b’i’ winh.
 PV N.CLF tall man Matin A3-name N.CLF
 ‘The skinny man is called Matin.’

(12) Tz-y-al ko-ti’ [DP **cha-wanh heb’ winh y-une’ ix Malin**].
 IPFV-A3-speak A1PL-language two-NUM.CLF PL.HUM N.CLF A3-child N.CLF Malin
 ‘Malin’s two boys speak Chuj.’

(13) K’ank’an [DP **masanil k’en walab’ ix-in-man chi**].
 yellow all.of N.CLF plates PFV-A1SG-buy DEM
 ‘Those three plates that I bought are yellow’

A key characteristic of the Chuj noun phrase is its rich system of nominal classification, also a property of other Q’anjob’alan languages (Hopkins, 2012). In example (12), a total of three morphemes classify the noun *une* ‘child’. First is the numeral classifier *-wanh*, which categorizes the noun as animate. Chuj features two numeral classifiers; *-wanh* appears before animate nouns, while *-e’* before inanimate nouns. Numeral classifiers are obligatory with Mayan-based numerals above 1. Second is the plural marker *heb’*, which marks plurality for humans only and is obligatory

³ Note that adjectives sometimes appear in a post-nominal position in Chuj (Maxwell 1976). Coon (2018) proposes that these are actually relative clauses with a null head and copula.

with all human nouns that are pluralized.⁴ Third is the noun classifier *winh*, which classifies the noun in (12) as masculine. There are about 16 noun classifiers (with some inter-speaker variation), which classify nouns according to physical or social attributes. However, note that some nouns cannot be classified with a noun classifier, including body part terms, abstract nouns (e.g. ‘strength’, ‘love’), and nouns denoting objects made of materials that have been newly integrated in the Chuj vocabulary (e.g. objects made of plastic). All three types of classifying morphemes, namely numeral classifiers, the plural marker for humans, and noun classifiers are relevant for the content of this paper, as they participate in the formation of relative clauses.

Distinctions in definiteness and specificity in Chuj will be relevant to the discussion of different types of headless relatives below. Noun classifiers have frequently been associated with definiteness and referentiality in previous work on Q’anjob’alan languages (see e.g. Craig 1986; Buenrostro et al. 1989; Zavala 2000). In recent work, I showed that the combinations of morphemes on the left side of Table 3 result in the interpretations on the right side of Table 3 (Royer 2018).

Table 3: Referential configurations in Chuj

DP	Result
INDF + N	<i>Indefinite</i>
INDF + N.CLF + N	<i>Specific indefinite</i>
N.CLF + N	<i>Unique/maximal definite</i>
N.CLF + N + DEM / TOP + N.CLF + N	<i>Anaphoric definite</i>

Though the view of noun classifiers as definite determiners appears to be challenged by the fact that they may co-occur with indefinites, as shown in Table 3, I maintain that noun classifiers are *unique* definite determiners at their core. In Royer 2018, I argue that noun classifiers, as unique definite determiners, may combine with indefinite quantifiers to restrict their domain to a singleton set, resulting in a specific interpretation of the indefinite (see Schwarzschild 2002 on singleton indefinites). Under this view, it follows that whenever a noun classifier appears alone with a noun, the result is a unique or maximal definite.⁵ An example with context is provided in (14):

(14) Context: *You’re at Matal’s house and you hear snoring sounds. You know she lives with one dog, but you can’t imagine how these sounds could possibly come from the dog! You ask her where these sounds come from, and she replies:*

Tz-way **nok’** tz’i’ t’a-chi.
 IPFV-sleep N.CLF dog PREP-DEM
 ‘The dog sleeps there.’

⁴ Kotek and Erlewine (to appear) report that human-denoting nouns may appear without the plural marker, while still having a plural reading (see example (98a) and (99a) of their paper). However, speakers I have consulted reject this judgment.

⁵ There is an exception to this. When appearing in the scope of an existential quantifier, noun classifiers that appear alone with a noun may have an indefinite plural interpretation (except nouns that denote humans which require the human plural marker). Further note that (i) cannot have a singular interpretation. Such an interpretation is only available in presence of *jun*, as in *Ay jun nok’ tz’i’ t’atik* ‘there’s a dog here’.

(i) Ay nok’ tz’i’ t’atik.
 EXT N.CLF dog here
 ‘There are dogs here.’

To form anaphoric definites, noun classifiers are either combined with the distal demonstrative *chi* or appear as preverbal topics, as illustrated in the dialogue in (15).

- (15) a. Ay jun nok' tz'i' t'a-tik.
 EXT one N.CLF dog PREP-DEM
 'There's a dog here.'
- b. Fido s-b'i' [nok' tz'i' #(chi)]. / [Ha nok' tz'i'] Fido s-b'i' nok'.
 Fido A3-name N.CLF dog DEM PV N.CLF dog Fido A3-name N.CLF
 'The dog's name is Fido.'

While singular indefinite arguments are introduced with *jun* 'a/one', plural indefinite arguments appear with *juntzanh* 'some' (Domingo Pascual 2007). An example of an indefinite with *jun* with appropriate context is provided in (16). *Jun* and *juntzanh* may also optionally combine with noun classifiers, forcing a specific 'wide-scope' interpretation (see Royer 2018).

- (16) Context: *I just arrived in a village for the first time, and I'm looking for a place to put my mattress and sleeping bag. I ask my host whether I can put my mattress in a corner. I'm not aware that there were dogs around, but my host replies that I can't, because...*
 Tz-way *(jun) (nok') tz'i' t'achi.
 IPFV-sleep one N.CLF dog there
 'A dog sleeps there.'

Though *jun* and *juntzanh* are commonly described as indefinite determiners in Q'anjob'alan languages (see e.g. Domingo Pascual 2007; Mateo Toledo 2017), their underlying semantics remains to be further studied. Zavala (2000), on related Akatek, describes *jun* not as an indefinite, but as a *singulative*. This is based on the fact that these morphemes are also used in definite environments, in which case they specify number on nouns that would not otherwise be marked for this feature. An example is (17), where the choice of *jun* or *juntzanh* within a definite DP disambiguates between singular and plural readings of the noun.

- (17) Ha jun / juntzanh nok' tz'i' lan s-wa'-an b'at ha-tek nok'.
 PV one / some N.CLF dog PROG A3-eat-SUB DIR.go A2SG-food N.CLF
 'The dog/dogs is/are eating your food.'

Chuj features two demonstratives, proximal *tik* and distal *chi*. Both always appear at the extreme right edge of nominal phrases. Demonstratives also play an important role in the formation of headed and headless relative clauses, as will become clear in the following sections. For an example of a demonstrative construction, see (13) above.

Finally, note that noun classifiers may also appear alone (without an overt nominal), in which case they have been described as anaphoric pronouns (see e.g. Craig 1977; Zavala 2000; Mateo Toledo 2017, and Royer 2017). An example is provided in (18).

- (18) Tz-way nok'.
 IPFV-sleep N.CLF
 'He (the dog) is sleeping.'

2. Interrogative clauses in Chuj

In this section I introduce Chuj's wh-expressions (i.e., simple wh-words and complex wh-phrases), provided in Table 4, and describe how they behave in interrogative constructions.

Table 4: Wh-expressions in Chuj⁶

WHO	<i>mach</i>
WHAT	<i>tas</i>
WHEN	<i>b'ak'inh</i>
WHERE	<i>b'aj / b'ajt'il / ajt'il</i>
HOW	<i>tas TAM-aj / tas (TAM)-A-utej</i>
WHY	<i>tas yuj</i>
WHICH (+ N)	<i>mach</i> ⁷
WHAT + N	<i>tas N-ʌl</i>
HOW MUCH (+N)	<i>jantak</i>
HOW MANY (+N)	<i>jantak / jay+NUM.CLF</i>

Before moving on to the structure of wh-constructions, note the following details about the wh-expressions in Table 4. First notice that there are three possible variants of the locative wh-word, namely *b'aj*, *b'ajt'il* and *ajt'il* (in this paper, I refer to the three as *b'ajt'il*). All can be used interchangeably with no difference in semantic interpretation. Second, though *tas yuj* 'why' is a frozen form, it is diachronically decomposable as two words: *tas* 'what', and a relational noun *-uj* 'for/because' with third person Set A marking *y-*. Third, note that the wh-quantifier *jay* 'how many' obligatorily surfaces with a numeral classifier and is only possible with count nouns, whereas *jantak* 'how much/how many' does not take a numeral classifier and may combine with both count and mass nouns. Fourth, notice that *how* interrogative clauses are formed with *tas* 'what' combined with one of the following two options with no apparent difference in meaning: (i) *TAM-aj*, a combination of imperfective aspect and the intransitive root *aj* 'to stay'; and (ii) *TAM-Set.A-utej*, a fully inflected form of the verb *utej* 'to do'. Finally, the wh-expression *mach* may refer to either WHO or WHICH. Further details about this distinction and how to diagnose it are provided at the end of this section.

Turning to wh-interrogative clauses, some examples of matrix ones are provided below with *tas* 'what', *b'ajt'il* 'where', and *b'ak'inh* 'where'.

⁶ Note that the plural marker *-tak* may suffix to most wh-words to form plural readings (e.g. *tastak* 'what.PL', *machtak* 'which.PL' and *b'ajtak* 'where.PL'), not represented here for simplicity.

⁷ Another form, *chajt'il* 'which', is cited in the literature (see e.g. Domingo Pascual 2007). However, very few instances of this form were found in the corpus and, though consultants I worked with did accept wh-questions with *chajt'il*, they did not naturally produce them.

- (19) **Tas** tz-a-k'ul-ej?
 WHAT IPFV-A2SG-do-DTV
 'What are you doing?' (txt)
- (20) **B'ajt'il / b'aj / ajt'il** tz-s-man k'apak heb' winh?
 WHERE IPFV-A3-buy clothes PL.HUM N.CLF
 'Where did they buy clothes?' (txt)
- (21) **B'ak'inh** ol-ach-jaw=ok?
 WHEN PROSP-B2SG-arrive=IRR
 'When will you arrive?'

As can be observed in the above examples, Chuj wh-words in interrogative constructions are fronted to a pre-verbal position. Multiple fronted wh-expressions are not possible, as illustrated in example (22).

- (22) ***Mach tas** ix-bo'-an-i?
 WHO WHAT PFV-do-AF-IV
 Intended: 'Who did what?'

Recall from example (3b) above that focused transitive subjects trigger Agent Focus morphology in the verb stem. The same is true for transitive wh-subjects, as shown in example (23):

- (23) **Mach** ix-in-il-an-i?
 WHO PFV-B1SG-see-AF-IV
 'Who saw me?' (Kotek and Erlewine to appear, 12c)

Chuj is a pied-piping with inversion language, meaning that when pied-piped, morphemes get inverted with respect to their canonical order with the wh-word.⁸ To better illustrate, first consider example (24) which shows that in its regular position, the inflected relational noun *yet'* precedes the NP *winh huktak* 'your brother':

- (24) Ix-in-b'at [**y-et'** winh h-uktak].
 PFV-B1SG-go A3-with N.CLF A2SG-brother
 'I left with your brother.'

Now consider (25) below. After being pied-piped, the relational noun *yet'* now follows *mach* 'who', contrary to its standard order.

- (25) **Mach y-et'** ay-ek' winh ha-mam?
 WHO A3-with EXT-DIR.pass N.CLF A2SG-father?
 'Who is your father with?' (Buenrostro 2009, 42)

As is the case in at least some other Mayan languages (see Mateo Toledo this volume and Vázquez Álvarez and Coon this volume), wh-words *in situ* cannot have an interrogative meaning in Chuj,

⁸ This feature of Chuj is reflected in the wh-expression *tas yuj*, decomposable as *tas* 'what' and the relational noun *Set.A-uj*.

Interestingly, *tas* ‘what’ may also combine with a nominal domain, in which case it triggers the presence of a harmonic *-Vl* suffix on the noun, glossed as an ‘abstractive’ suffix in previous work (see e.g. Buenrostro 2009). This construction does not allow for the presence of any D-level material in the noun phrase, including noun classifiers and demonstratives, as illustrated in the example below:¹⁰

- (31) **Tas** (*ch’anh) libro’-*(**al**) (*tik) ix-a-man-a’?
 WHAT N.CLF book-ABS DEM PFV-A2SG-buy-TV
 ‘What book did you buy?’

There is no restriction with respect to which *wh*-expressions may appear in an embedded interrogative clause in Chuj, and *wh*-expressions in these constructions behave like their matrix counterparts. Like matrix *wh*-interrogative clauses, *wh*-words in embedded interrogative clauses are obligatorily fronted to the left periphery of their clause:

- (32) Yowalil k-ojtak [**tas** juntzanh yanhal tz-och-i].
 obligatory 1PL-know WHAT some medicine IPFV-enter-IV
 ‘It’s obligatory that we know what medicine to use/inject.’ (txt)

- (33) Ix-sat hin-k’o’ol [**b’ak’inh** ix-ach-b’at-i.]
 PFV-forget 1S-stomach WHEN PFV-B2S-go-IV
 ‘I forgot when you came.’

3. Headed Relative Clauses in Chuj

Before discussing headless relatives, I introduce *headed relative clauses*. Headed RCs in Chuj are externally-headed, with the head always appearing in a position preceding the relative clause. As in other Mayan languages, Chuj does not possess any independent marker of relativization (exceptions include Ch’ol and Chontal, see Martínez Cruz 2007, Osorio May 2016 and Vázquez Álvarez and Coon this volume). Two strategies are employed to form headed RCs: (i) a gap strategy¹¹ and (ii) a relative pronoun strategy, both of which are commonly used in other Mayan languages (see e.g. Gutiérrez-Bravo 2012 on Yucatec Mayan and Guarcax González 2016 on Kaqchikel). The list of relative pronouns and their availability for use in strategy (ii) is provided in Table 5, and the two strategies are discussed in turn immediately below.

¹⁰ The difference between (30) and (31) is interesting for the semantics of *wh*-expressions. Both *mach* ‘which’ and *tas* ‘what’ may take nominal domains, but only *tas* requires and allows the abstractive *-Vl* suffix. This may be indicating a core semantic difference between ‘which’ and ‘what’ expressions, in that the former is inherently d-linked while the latter is not (Pesetsky 1987); I leave this as a topic for future work.

¹¹ By “gap strategy”, I refer to HRCs that are not introduced with an overt relative pronoun. Crucially, this label should not be interpreted as a claim that HRCs that do use the relative pronoun strategy lack a syntactic “gap”.

Table 5: Wh-expressions used as relative pronouns in Chuj

WHO	*mach
WHAT	*tas
WHEN	*b'ak'inh ; <i>b'ajt'il</i> is used instead
WHERE	✓ <i>b'ajt'il</i>
HOW	✓ <i>tas TAM-aj / tas (TAM)-A-utej</i>
WHY	✓ <i>tas yuj</i>
WHICH (+ N)	✓ <i>mach</i>
WHAT + N	* <i>tas N-VI</i>
HOW MUCH/MANY (+N)	✓ <i>jantak</i> , ✓ <i>jay-NUM.CLF</i>

The wh-words WHAT and WHO may not be used as relative pronouns in Chuj, and a “gap” strategy must instead be employed. In the example in (34), the relativized noun *anh trago* ‘the drink’ immediately precedes the relative clause and a gap, represented as “___”, appears in the argument position; *tas* may not appear.

- (34) Ha t'a Mejiiko tz-kot [*anh trago (*tas)* [*tz-y-uk'* ___ *anima' chi*]].
 PV PREP Mexico IPFV-come N.CLF drink WHAT IPFV-A3-drink people DEM
 ‘That drink that the people drink comes from Mexico.’ (txt)

Similarly, the wh-word for WHO, *mach*, cannot be used as a relative pronoun (though see subsection 3.2 for the difference between *mach* ‘who’ and *mach* ‘which’). An example is provided below:

- (35) Context: *Only one man has been crying.*
 Ix-in-chel [*winh winak (*mach)* *lan y-ok'-i* ___].
 PFV-A1SG-hug N.CLF man WHO PROG A3-cry-IV
 ‘I hugged the man who was crying.’

The gap strategy can also be used with most headed RCs that use the relative pronoun strategy, as we will see next. In headed RCs, relative pronouns appear at the edge of relative clauses, immediately following the head noun. Most wh-expressions can serve as relative pronouns, the only exceptions being *tas* (including *tas + -VI*), *mach* (WHO), as shown above, and *b'ak'inh*.

Locative headed RCs are the only type of headed RC that *must* use the relative pronoun strategy. Any of the variants of *b'ajt'il* can work as a relative pronoun with no significant difference in meaning, as shown in (36).

- (36) Chakchak te' pat [*(b'aj/b'ajt'il/ajt'il) ix-in-aj-i].
 red N.CLF house WHERE PFV-B1SG-be.born-IV
 'The house where I was born is red.'

The remaining wh-expressions can serve as relative pronouns in headed RCs, though the gap strategy is also available for all of these, as indicated by the optionality of the relative pronoun in each construction. Examples of *tas TAM-aj*, *tas yuj*, and the wh-quantifiers are provided in examples (37) to (39) below.

- (37) Ay forma [(tas tz'aj) tz'an-j-i atz'am y-uj heb'].¹²
 EXT way HOW cook-PASS-IV N.CLF A3-by PL.HUM
 'There's a way that they cook salt.' (txt)

- (38) Ha jun yuj tik [(tas yuj) ix-ach-xit' ek' t'a Mejiko] te-chuklaj.
 PV one reason DEM WHY PFV-B2SG-go DIR.pass PREP Mexico INTS-bad
 'The reason why you went to Mexico is bad.'

- (39) Ix-jaw masanil anima' [(jantak / jay-wanh) ix-w-aw-t-ej] chi.
 PFV-come all people HOW.MANY PFV-A1SG-call-SUF-DTV DEM
 'All the people that I invited came.'

Though *b'ak'inh* cannot serve as a relative pronoun, temporal headed RCs can be introduced by any of the variants of *b'ajt'il*. The gap strategy is also available.

- (40) Ay-nhej jun s-k'uh-al [(b'ajt'il) / (*b'ak'inh) tz-y-ak' k'inh chi heb'].
 EXT-only one A3-day-NMLZ WHERE WHEN IPFV-A3-do party DEM PL.HUM
 'There is only one day when they celebrate their birthday.' (txt)

Recall from section 2 that *mach* can be used as both WHO and WHICH in Chuj. As Table 5 shows, only the WHICH reading of *mach* is possible as a relative pronoun. The distinction between the two readings of *mach* can be made explicit if we take into consideration the partitive nature of WHICH, namely that the entity that is referred to by WHICH must be interpreted as a subset of a larger contextually salient set (see Pesetsky 1987 on d-linking and Comorosvki 1996 on partitivity). On the other hand, WHO is neither connected to partitivity nor must it refer to a contextually salient set of entities. We thus expect contexts that disallow a partitive reading to disallow WHICH readings, but not WHO readings. To illustrate, consider the following example:

- (41) Context: *Xun only has one child, it's a boy, and both the speaker and hearer know this. We are only talking about this boy without comparing him to any other child.*
 Ha winh unin [(#mach) ix-s-k'ib-tz-it-ej waj Xun] te-junk'o'olal winh.
 PV N.CLF child WHO PFV-A3-grow-CAUS-SUF-DTV N.CLF Xun INTS-happy N.CLF
 'The child who Xun raised is happy.'

The context in (41) forces an interpretation in which *mach* must refer to WHO, because it is clear that there is only one salient boy in the context.

¹² The wh-expression *tas TAM-Set.A-utej* is interchangeable as a relative pronoun with *tas TAM-aj* in this example.

On the other hand, when it is salient from context that more than one boy is involved, then the presence of the relative pronoun is felicitous. Consider the following context and example:

- (42) Context: *Xun is a teacher and he has 20 boys in his class. They all have been equally behaving badly. Xun chooses one boy to scold in front of the class, to give all kids a lesson.*
 Ha winh unin [(**mach**) ix-s-tum-ej waj Xun] te-kus-nak winh.
 PV N.CLFboy WHICH PFV-A3-scold-DTV N.CLFXun INTS-sad-STAT N.CLF
 ‘The boy that John scolded is sad.’

In this context, a partitive reading is available – the entity referred to by *mach* forms part of a larger contextually salient set of boys. The use of *mach*, though optional, is therefore allowed.

Finally, note that *mach* can sometimes co-occur with a noun classifier to form a headed RC. An example is provided in (43), where *mach* co-occurs with *nok*, the classifier for animals.

- (43) Ix-w-il [nok’ tz’i’ [**mach nok**’ te-jelanh tz-jinhw-i] tik].
 PFV-A1SG-see N.CLF dog WHICH N.CLF INTS-fast IPFV-run-IV DEM
 ‘I saw the dog that runs fast.’

4. Headless Relative Clauses in Chuj

In this section, I describe Chuj *headless relative clauses (HRCs)*. Though the main focus of the paper is on free relative clauses (headless relative clauses introduced with a *wh*-element and no head of any kind), other types of headless relative clauses are also described at the end. In section 4.1, I describe three kinds of free relative clauses: maximal free relatives, existential free relatives, and free-choice free relatives. In section 4.2, I move on to other types of headless relative clauses, including headless relative clauses introduced by determiners; those introduced by both a determiner and a *wh*-word; and those formed of neither a *wh*-word nor a determiner.

4.1. Headless Relative Clauses introduced by *wh*-words: Free Relative Clauses

Here, I show that Chuj features three types of *free relative clauses (FRs)*: maximal FRs, existential FRs, and free-choice FRs. I survey all *wh*-expressions allowed in each type and conclude that most *wh*-expressions can appear in FRs, with some minor variation depending on what type of FR is being used. I follow Caponigro (2003, 2004) and Kotek and Erlewine (2016) in positing that maximal FRs and existential FRs are structurally identical at their core and that their different interpretations are a consequence of the elements each construction combines with.

4.1.1. Maximal Free Relative Clauses in Chuj

Maximal FRs (Max-FRs) in Chuj appear with almost all *wh*-expressions, the only exception being *b’ak’inh* ‘when’, also not allowed with headed RCs. The list of *wh*-expressions heading Max-FRs is presented in Table 6.

Table 6: Distribution of wh-expressions in Max-FRs in Chuj

WHO	✓ mach
WHAT	✓ tas
WHEN	*b'ak'inh
WHERE	✓ b'ajt'il
HOW	✓ tas TAM-aj / (TAM)-A-utej
WHY	% tas yuj
WHICH (+ N)	✓ mach
WHAT + N	✓ tas N-//
HOW MUCH/MANY (+N)	✓ jantak, ✓ jay-NUM.CLF

Examples (44) to (51) show examples of each wh-expression allowed in Max-FRs. Note that though some of the English translations appear as headed RCs, all Chuj examples are FRs.

- (44) Ix-onh-lolon y-et' [**mach** tz-'al-an Kanjob'al].
 PFV-B1PL-speak A3-with WHO IPFV-speak-AF Q'anjob'al
 'We spoke with (the person) who speaks Q'anjob'al.'
- (45) H-il-nab' wal [**tas** ix-s-b'o' kan heb' winh tik]!
 A2SG-see-SUF much WHAT PFV-A3-make DIR.arrive PL.HUM N.CLF DEM
 'Look at what they did!' (txt)
- (46) Ix-in-xit' ek' [**b'aj/b'ajt'il/ajt'il** aj-nak hach].
 PFV-A1SG-go DIR.pass WHERE be.born-STAT B2SG
 'I went to where you were born.'
- (47) Ol-in-b'o'-o' [**tas tz'aj / tas tz-h-utej** ha-b'o'-an-i].
 PROSP-A1SG-make-TV HOW A2SG-make-SUB-IV
 'I'll make it the way you make it.'
- (48) %Ix-onh-tzewaj-i [**tas yuj** ix-y-al heb' t'a-y-onh].
 PFV-B2SG-laugh-IV WHY PFV-A3-say PL.HUM PREP-EPEN-B1PL
 'We laughed about the reason they gave to us.'
- (49) Ix-in-man [**mach** ix-cha' ha-k'o'ol].
 PFV-A1SG-buy WHICH PFV-please A2SG-stomach
 'I bought which(ever) one you liked.'

(50) Ix-cha' hin-k'o'ol [**tas lum-al** ix-a-man-a'].
 PFV-please A1SG-stomach WHAT land-ABS PFV-A2SG-bought-TV
 'I like the land you bought.'

(51) Ol-in-tz'anh [**jantak / jay-e'** ix-in-man-a'].
 PROS-A1SG-cook HOW.MANY PFV-A1SG-buy-TV
 'I'll cook the amount I bought.'

Example (48) is marked with “%” because it receives varying judgments, from absolutely grammatical to not so good. This might be due to competition with the noun *yuj* ‘reason’, which could replace *tas yuj* above, which would result in a headed RC with gapping.

The only wh-word that is not allowed to serve as a relative pronoun in Max-FRs is *b'ak'inh* ‘when’, and, contrary to headed RCs, *b'ajt'il* cannot be used as a relative pronoun to substitute for WHEN. Instead, speakers use either *ha*, which is usually used as a topic/focus marker, or *yik'*, a relational noun meaning ‘for’. The usage of both these morphemes at the same time is also possible, as in *hayik'*. An example is provided (52).¹³

(52) Ha-chi tz-k'ul-ej heb' winh [**ha/*b'aj / *b'ak'inh** ix-w-il-an
 PV-DEM IPFV-do-DTV PL.HUM N.CLF PV/WHERE/WHEN PFV-A1SG-see-SUB
 el-ta].
 DIR.leave-SUF
 'This is what they were doing when I discovered it.' (txt)

The examples above show that Max-FRs may appear as objects (e.g. (51)) or as complements to relational nouns (e.g. (46)), but Max-FRs can also be found in different syntactic positions, including as the subjects of transitive (53) and intransitive (54) verbs and as indirect objects (55).

(53) Ix-s-man jun te' onh [**mach** tz-al-an Kanjob'al].
 PFV-A3-buy one N.CLF avocado WHO PFV-speak-AF Q'anjob'al
 'The person who speaks Q'anjob'al bought an avocado.'

(54) Ix-k'a' b'at-i [**tas** ix-a-man-a'].
 PFV-rot DIR.go-IV WHAT PFV-A2SG-buy-TV
 'What you bought has rotted.'

(55) Ix-w-ak' k'en tumin t'a [**mach** ix-kan-an k'e'en].
 PFV-A1SG-give N.CLF dinero PREP WHO PFV-ask.for-AF N.CLF
 'I gave the money to (the person) who asked for it.'

Also note that the relative pronoun *b'ajt'il* can appear in positions otherwise occupied by both PPs and NPs. While (56) features an example of *b'aj* introducing a PP argument, (57) shows one in which *b'aj* introduces an NP subject argument.

¹³ Speakers agree that *ha* in (52) could be replaced by either *yik'* alone or *hayik'* together, without any obvious consequences with respect to the meaning of the utterance.

(56) Ix-in-xit' ek' [FR **b'aj** ay hach] / [PP t'a San Mateo]
 PFV-A1SG-go DIR.pass WHERE EXT B2SG PREP San Mateo
 'I went [where you live] / [to San Mateo].'

(57) Te-wach [FR **b'aj** ay hach] / [NP San Mateo]
 INTS-good WHERE EXT B2SG San Mateo
 '[Where you live] / [San Mateo] is nice.'

Semantically, Max-FRs in Chuj behave like definite/maximal DPs. A semantic environment that demonstrates the definite/maximal interpretation of Max-FRs is ellipsis. To illustrate, let us first consider the contrast between elided definite and indefinite NPs. When the antecedent NP of an elided NP is definite, then the elided NP must be co-referential to the antecedent NP. This may be observed in example (59), considering the contexts in (58), where the only possible interpretation is one in which Malin spoke to the same elder as Xun.

(58) Context A (coreferential): *Xun and Malin spoke with the same elder.*
 Context B (non-coreferential): *Xun and Malin spoke with different elders.*

(59) Context A: ✓, Context B: *
 Ha waj Xun ix-lolon winh y-et' **winh** icham. Pax ix Malin.
 PV N.CLF Xun PFV-speak N.CLF A3-with N.CLF elder Also N.CLF Malin
 'Xun spoke with an elder. Malin did so also.'

This restriction is not present in antecedent clauses that contain indefinite NPs. This is demonstrated in (60), again considering the contexts in (58), where the utterance is felicitous even when the elided NP refers to a different elder than the one John saw.

(60) Context A: ✓, Context B: ✓
 Ha waj Xun ix-lolon winh y-et' **jun winh** icham. Pax ix Malin.
 PV N.CLF Xun PFV-speak N.CLF A3-with one N.CLF elder Also N.CLF Malin
 'Xun spoke with an elder. Malin did so also.'

When replacing the relevant antecedent NP above with a FR, we observe that Max-FRs act like definite NPs and not like indefinite NPs. Consider context (61) and example (62). For the utterance to be felicitous, the elided NP, whichever person Malin saw, must be the same person Xun saw, as was the case with the definite NP.

(61) Context A (coreferential): *Xun and Malin spoke to the same person who speaks Q'anjob'al.*
 Context B (non-coreferential): *Xun and Malin spoke to different people who both speak Q'anjob'al.*

(62) Context A: ✓, Context B: *
 Ha waj Xun ix-lolon winh y-et' [**mach** tz'-al-an Kanjob'al]. Pax
 PV N.CLF Xun PV-speak N.CLF A3-with WHO IPFV-speak-AF Q'anjob'al also
 ix Malin.
 N.CLF Malin
 'Xun spoke with (the person) who speaks Q'anjob'al. Malin did so also.'

The maximality of Chuj Max-FRs is also illustrated in example (63) below. During elicitation, consultants were asked to judge an utterance in a context where the addressee, who we know knows all of the people who lied, must indicate to the speaker who lied. If the addressee knows that four people lied, but only points to one person, then consultants agree that the addressee is not following instructions, emphasizing the maximality condition on Max-FRs.

- (63) Ch'ox t'a-y-in [**mach**-(tak) ix-'es-an-i]!
 indicate PREP-EPEN-B1SG WHO-PL PFV-lie-AF-IV
 'Show me who lied!'

Structurally, Max-FRs in Chuj are similar to regular questions, allowing almost all wh-words, which appear at the left edge of the FR. They require no special morphology and exhibit no restrictions on tense-aspect and/or person marking.

I follow Kotek and Erlewine (2016) in positing that Max-FRs in Chuj are CPs at their core (see also Vázquez Álvarez and Coon this volume on the Mayan language Ch'ol). According to these authors, Max-FRs have a covert (*t*) D-layer resulting in an argument of type *e* (Caponigro 2003). The proposed structure is represented below.

- (64) Ix-in-s-mak' [DP *t* [CP **mach** ix-hul ek'-i]].
 PFV-B1SG-A3-hit WHO PFV-came DIR.pass-IV
 'The person who came hit me.' (Kotek and Erlewine 2016, 36)

4.1.2. Existential Free Relative Clauses in Chuj

Existential FRs (Ex-FRs) in Chuj appear embedded under specific types of predicates, including non-verbal existential predicates like *ay* 'there is', certain quantificational predicates, and dynamic verbs such as *say* 'to look for' (see Grosu 2004 on dynamic verbs).

The parallel structure between the Max-FRs in the preceding section and the Ex-FRs examined here can be clearly seen with the predicate *ay*, which participates in the formation of a variety of different clauses, including existentials (65a), locatives (65b) and possessives (65c). Note that in Chuj, locatives like (67b) are distinguished from existentials like (67a) in requiring a directional particle after the predicate (Elias 2018).

- (65) a. *Existential*
Ay heb' ix ix t'a pat.
 EXT PL.HUM N.CLF woman PREP house
 'There are women in the house.' (Elias 2018, 27)
- b. *Locative*
Ay *(ek') heb' ix ix t'a pat.
 EXT DIR.pass PL.HUM N.CLF woman PREP house
 'The women are in the house.' (Elias 2018, 28)

c. *Possessive*

Ay jun winh hin-kumpare.
 EXT one N.CLF A1SG-compadre
 ‘I have a compadre.’

(txt)

Existential clauses, as in (65a), are cross-linguistically known to disallow definite arguments (Milsark 1974; Freeze 1992). In the pair in (68) below, surface-identical FR strings appear in both the existential and locative constructions. As expected, the use of an FR in existential constructions requires an indefinite interpretation (i.e. an Ex-FR, not a Max-FR). Locative clauses, on the other hand, do *not* restrict their arguments to indefinites, and a Max-FR interpretation arises in (66b).

(66) a. Ay [**tas** tz-ko-chi'-a t'a y-ib'an te' mexa].
 EXT WHAT IPFV-A1PL-eat-TV PREP A3-on N.CLF table
 ‘There’s something to eat on the table.’ / not ‘What we (will) eat is on the table.’

b. Ay *ek'* [**tas** tz-ko-chi-a' t'a yib'an te' mexa].
 EXT DIR.pass WHAT IPFV-A1PL-eat-TV PREP A3-on N.CLF table
 ‘What we (will) eat is on the table.’ / not ‘There’s something to eat on the table.’

Table 7 shows a list of *wh*-words that serve as relative pronouns in Ex-FRs. The *wh*-words that cannot function as relative pronouns in Ex-FRs are *b'ak'inh* ‘when’, *tas N-VI* ‘what + N’, and *mach* ‘which (+ N)’ (not to be confused with *mach* ‘who’).

Table 7: Distribution of *wh*-expressions in Ex-FRs in Chuj

WHO	✓ mach
WHAT	✓ tas
WHEN	*b'ak'inh; b'aj or b'ajt'il used instead.
WHERE	✓ b'ajt'il
HOW	✓ tas TAM-aj / tas (TAM)-A-utej
WHY	% tas yuj
WHICH (+ N)	* mach
WHAT + N	* tas N-VI
HOW MUCH/MANY (+N)	✓ jantak, ✓ jay-NUM.CLF

Examples of *wh*-expressions used as relative pronouns in Ex-FRs are provided in (67) to (72). All Ex-FRs in these examples are complements to the existential predicate *ay*, and the lack of a

directional particle following the predicate guarantees their existential status. Head nouns were added to English translations for translation purposes only. Note that a question was added prior to example (72) to clarify the context in which this utterance would be felicitous.

- (67) Ay [**mach** tz'-och s-k'o'ol t'a-y-onh].
 EXT WHO IPFV-leave A3-stomach PREP-EPEN-B1PL
 'Someone/some people hate(s) us.' (txt)
- (68) Ay [**tas** ix-in-man-a'].
 EXT WHAT PFV-A1SG-buy-TV
 'We bought something' (Kotek and Erlewine to appear, 70)
- (69) Ay [**b'aj** mas te'-ay=xo kontrol].
 EXT WHERE more INTS-EXT=still control
 'Some places have more control.' (txt)
- (70) Ay [**tas tz'aj/tzkutej** ko-b'o'-an ixim wa'il].
 EXT HOW A1PL-make-SUB N.CLF tortilla
 'There's (a way) how to make tortillas.'
- (71) % Ay [**tas yuj** ix-in-kot-i].
 EXT WHY PFV-B1SG-come-IV
 'There's (some reason) why I came.'
- (72) Tas ay ko-man-an-i? ('what is there to buy?')
 Ay [**jay-e'** onh], [ay **jantak** keneya]...¹⁴
 EXT HOW.MANY-NUM.CLF avocado EXT HOW.MUCH/MANY bananas
 'There's some amount of avocado, some (bigger) amount of bananas...'

As was the case with Max-FRs, *tas yuj* 'why' receives varying judgments regarding its acceptability in Ex-FRs. Again, I suggest that this variation might be due to competition with the noun *yuj* 'reason' – (71) could be in competition with (73) below, which is not a free relative but a regular HR with a gap:

- (73) Ay **yuj** ix-in-kot-i.
 EXT reason PFV-B1SG-come-IV
 'There's a reason I came.'

Though the temporal wh-word *b'ak'inh* cannot be used in Ex-FRs, the wh-word for WHERE, *b'ajt'il*, may again replace it, as demonstrated in (74). In fact, *ay b'aj* is frequently used in natural discourse to mean both 'sometimes' and 'some places'.

¹⁴ As the translation indicates, free relatives with the wh-quantifiers *jantak* and *jay-NUM.CLF* appear to lead to different inferences with respect to quantity. While the use of *jay-NUM.CLF* leads to an inference of low quantity, the use of *jantak* leads to one of high quantity.

- (74) Ay [**b'aj** / ***b'ak'inh** tz-ko-nub' ko-ti'].
 EXT WHERE/WHEN IPFV-A1PL-unite A1PL-mouth
 'Sometimes we close our mouth.' (txt)

Note that when *tas* appears with a nominal domain, it cannot appear in an Ex-FR, as also pointed out in Kotek and Erlewine to appear:

- (75) *Ay [**tas** **lu'um-(al)** ix-in-man-a'].
 EXT WHAT land-ABST PFV-A1SG-buy-TV
 Intended: 'We bought some land.'

In addition, *mach* 'which (+N)', not to be confused with the *mach* for WHO, is illicit in Ex-FR constructions, as shown by the ungrammaticality of (76):

- (76) *Ay [**mach** (**lu'um**) ix-in-man-a'].
 EXT WHICH land PFV-A1SG-buy-TV
 Intended: 'We bought something (some land).'

Ex-FRs are also introduced by predicates other than the existential quantifier *ay*, including the negated existential *malaj* (77), other predicates with existential force such as *ch'ok* 'other' (78), quantifiers with a predicative function like *tzijtum* 'many' (79), and dynamic verbs such as *say* 'to look for' (80) (Kotek and Erlewine to appear).

- (77) **Malaj** [**tas** tz-ko-chi-a'].
 NEG.EXT WHAT IPFV-A1PL-eat-TV
 'We don't have anything to eat.' (txt)

- (78) **Ch'ok** [**b'aj** tz-in-man te'].
 other WHERE IPFV-A1SG-buy N.CLF
 'I buy it (the wood) somewhere else.' (txt)

- (79) **Tzijtum** [**b'aj** tz-onh-ek'-i].
 many WHERE IPFV-B1PL-pass-IV
 'We go to many places.' (txt)

- (80) **Ix-s-say** winh [**tas** ix-y-ab'lej].
 PFV-A3-look.for N.CLF WHAT PFV-A3-sample.food
 'He looked for something to eat.' (txt)

Many other quantificational predicates and dynamic verbs may embed Ex-FRs, including *aj* 'to be born', *ojtakel* 'to find', *chax* 'to be found', *masel* 'every', *jab* 'little', etc. (see Kotek and Erlewine to appear for more examples).

Ex-FRs behave like wh-questions, feature no restriction on tense-aspect or person marking, and do not require irrealis morphology. Structurally, I follow Kotek and Erlewine (2016) in positing that, just like Max-FRs, Ex-FRs are CPs with fronted wh-words. Contrary to Max-FRs, which are proposed in Kotek and Erlewine (2016) and section 4.1.1 above to involve an additional (t) D-

layer resulting in an argument of type *e*, existential FRs must remain of type $\langle e, t \rangle$, which explains their limited distribution to only predicates that allow CP complements of type $\langle e, t \rangle$.

4.1.3. Free Choice Free Relative Clauses in Chuj

Chuj features a free-choice item, *yalnhej-wh*, which is also described in Kotek and Erlewine to appear. Though Kotek and Erlewine treat *yalnhej* as one segment synchronically, Buenrostro (2009) decomposes *yalnhej* as two separate morphemes: *yal*, an ability modal, and the clitic *nhej* ‘only’.¹⁵ I adopt Buenrostro’s convention in this paper. Isolated examples of *yal* and *nhej* are found below:

(81) Tz-**yal** hin-noxw-i.
 IPFV-can A1SG-swim-IV
 ‘I can swim.’ (Buenrostro 2009, 218)

(82) Ay=**nhej** jun s-k’u’-al b’ajt’il tz-y-ak’ k’inh chi.
 EXT=only one A3-day-NMLZ WHERE IPFV-A3-do party DEM
 ‘There’s only one day when they party.’ (txt)

Yalnhej may combine with a FR, the result being a *free choice FR (FC-FR)*, as in (83). It may also appear alone or combine directly with *wh*-words and nominals, as demonstrated in example (84) and (85).

(83) Ol-in-b’at=ok **yal=nhej** [b’aj ol-ach-b’at=ok].
 PROSP-B1SG-go=IRR can=only WHERE PROSP-B2SG-go=IRR
 ‘I’ll go wherever you go.’

(84) Ol-w-awt-ej [**yal=nhej tas**].¹⁶
 PROSP-A1SG-read-DTV can=only WHAT
 ‘I’ll read anything / whatever.’ (Kotek and Erlewine to appear, 40)

(85) [**Yal=xo=nhej tas te’-al**] tz’-och-i.
 can=already=only WHAT wood-ABST IPFV-enter-IV
 ‘Any stick can be used.’ (txt)

Almost all *wh*-expressions in Chuj may combine with *yalnhej* to form a FC-FR, except for *tas yuj* ‘why’. Interestingly, *b’ak’inh* may behave as a relative pronoun when combining with *yalnhej*, which is not possible with any of the other relativization constructions discussed in this paper. Table 8 shows the list of the possible *wh*-words in FC-FRs.

¹⁵ An analysis of *yalnhej* as a unique morpheme does not capture the fact that it may be interrupted by clitics like *xo* ‘already’ and *to* ‘still’, see example (85).

¹⁶ Another possibility is that *wh*-words in this position could be grammaticalized nouns.

Table 8: Distribution of wh-expressions in FC-FRs in Chuj

WHO	✓ mach
WHAT	✓ tas
WHEN	✓ b'ak'inh
WHERE	✓ b'ajt'il
HOW	✓ tas TAM-aj / tas (TAM)-A-utej
WHY	* tas yuj
WHICH (+ N)	✓ mach
WHAT + N	✓ tas N- <i>VI</i>
HOW MUCH/MANY (+N)	✓ jantak, ✓ jay-NUM.CLF

Examples containing each of the possible wh-words in FC-FRs are provided in (86) to (92), with the exception of *b'ajt'il*, already provided in (83) above.

- (86) [**Yal=nhej mach** tz-jaw-i] ol-in-och y-et'ok.
 can=only WHO IPFV-come-IV PROSP-B1SG-enter A3-with
 'I will help whoever comes.' (Kotek and Erlewine, to appear)
- (87) Ol-in-man-a' [**yal=nhej tas** ol-a-man-a'].
 PROSP-A1SG-buy-TV can=only WHAT PROSP-A2SG-buy-TV
 'I will buy whatever you buy.'
- (88) Ix-say winh [**yal=nhej tas tz'aj** y-al-an winh t'a-y ix].
 PFV-look.for N.CLF can=only HOW A3-speak-SUB N.CLF PREP-EPEN N.CLF
 'I looked for whatever (way) to speak with her.'
- (89) Ol-in-b'at=ok [**yal=nhej b'ak'inh** ol-ach-b'at=ok].
 PROSP-B1SG-go=IRR can=only WHEN PROS-B2SG-go=IRR
 'I'll go whenever you go.'
- (90) [**Yal=nhej mach** libro] ix-in-sik'l-ej.
 an=only WHICH book PFV-A1SG-choose-DTV
 'I chose whichever book.'
- (91) [**Yal=nhej tas** libro'-al] ix-in-sik'l-ej.
 an=only WHAT book-ABST PFV-A1SG-choose-DTV
 'I chose whatever book.'

- (92) Ol-in-tup [**yal=nhej jantak** s-tojol].
 PROS-A1SG-pay can=only HOW.MUCH A3-cost
 ‘I’ll pay whatever (amount) it costs.’

As for *tas yuj*, it cannot combine with *yalnhej* to form a FC-FR. This is illustrated by the ungrammaticality of (93).

- (93) *Ix-say winh [**yal=nhej tas yuj** s-lolon y-et’ ix].
 PFV-look.for N.CLF can=only WHY A3-speak A3-with N.CLF
 Intended: ‘He looked for whatever reason to speak with her.’

FC-FRs conform to the findings of cross-linguistic work on FC-FRs in triggering both *ignorance* and *indifference* readings (Dayal 1997, von Stechow 2000). For example, given a context which forces the ignorance reading, speakers judge FC-FRs with *yalnhej* as felicitous, as shown in (94).

- (94) Context: *It smells really good and I know it is because you’re cooking. I can’t see what it is, nor can I figure out what it is just by its smell. I tell you:*
 [**Yal=nhej tas** lan ha-tz’anh-an-i] te-wach s-jab’.
 can=only WHAT PROG A2SG-cook-SUB-IV INTS-good A3-smell
 ‘Whatever you’re cooking smells really good.’ (ignorance reading)

Chuj FC-FRs are also felicitous in contexts that trigger *indifference* readings, as in (95). In this case, the ignorance reading is blocked – John knew what he had with him, he was just indifferent about what it was.

- (95) Context: *John is telling the story about when he was out of money on a trip and had to cook whatever he found, regardless of what it was.*
 Ix-in-tz’anh-a’ [**yal=nhej tas** ay-ek’ t’a-y-in].
 PFV-A1SG-cook-TV can=only WHAT EXT-DIR.pass PREP-EPEN-B1SG
 ‘I cooked whatever I had with me.’ (indifference reading)

In sum, Chuj features a free-choice item, *yalnhej*, which, despite appearing in other non-relativized structures, has the capacity of combining with relative clauses, the result being a FC-FR. Both *ignorance* and *indifference* readings are possible with Chuj FC-FRs.

4.1.4. Conclusion

A summary of possible wh-expressions in headed RCs, Max-FRs, Ex-FRs, and FC-FRs is provided in Table 6. Much of the observed variation has to do with headed RCs versus FRs. While headed RCs allow neither *tas* nor *mach* (WHO) as relative pronouns, these relative pronouns are acceptable in all three types of FRs. One puzzling point of variation is with *b’ak’inh*, which is almost never allowed as a relative pronoun, except when occurring with FC-FRs. There also appears to be variation in the acceptability of *tas yuj* as a relative pronoun, with considerable discrepancy in speaker judgments. Finally, observe that the distribution of wh-words in Ex-FRs is more limited than in Max-FRs and FC-FRs. While the wh-words *mach* (WHICH (+N)) and *tas N-VI* (WHAT + N) are possible with the latter two, they are not possible with the former.

Table 9: Distribution of wh-words across constructions in Chuj

	Headed RC	Max-FR	Ex-FR	FC-FR
WHO (<i>mach</i>)	*	✓	✓	✓
WHAT (<i>tas</i>)	*	✓	✓	✓
WHEN (<i>b'ak'inh</i>)	*	*	*	✓
WHERE (<i>b'ajt'il</i>)	✓	✓	✓	✓
HOW (<i>tas TAM-aj / tas (TAM)-A-utej</i>)	✓	✓	✓	✓
WHY (<i>tas yuj</i>)	✓	%	%	*
WHICH (+N) (<i>mach</i>)	✓	✓	*	✓
WHAT + N (<i>tas N-VI</i>)	*	✓	*	✓
HOW MUCH/MANY (+N) (<i>jantak / jay-NUM.CLF</i>)	✓	✓	✓	✓

4.2. Other headless relative clauses

In the previous section, a specific type of HRC was described: FRs, i.e., headless relative clauses that are introduced with wh-expressions. There are, however, other possibilities for the formation of HRCs, as is the case with other Mayan languages (see AnderBois and Chan Dzul this volume on Yucatec Maya and Vázquez Álvarez and Coon this volume on Ch'ol). One possibility is that they be introduced by the determiner-like elements discussed in section 2 above, including noun classifiers, demonstratives, quantifiers or by any combination of these elements. I refer to these as “[-Wh, +Det] HRCs” and discuss them in section 4.2.1. Chuj may also form HRCs which include both a determiner and a wh-word, which I refer to as “[+Wh, +Det] HRCs”, and discuss them in section 4.2.2. Finally, HRCs can arise without being introduced by either determiners or wh-words. I refer to these as “[-Wh, -Det] HRCs” and introduce them in section 4.2.3.

4.2.1 [-Wh, +Det] HRCs

HRCs in Chuj appear with a number of determiner-like elements including demonstratives, noun classifiers, the plural marker *heb'*, and any quantifier (including *jun* and *juntzanh*). Examples of all of these possibilities are provided in (96) to (99).

- (96) Tz-cha hin-k'o'ol [ix-a-man **chi**].
 IPFV-please A1SG-stomach PFV-A2GS-buy DEM
 'I like the one you bought.' (demonstrative)

- (97) Tz-cha hin-k'o'ol [**lum** ix-a-man-a'].
 IPFV-please A1SG-stomach N.CLF PFV-A2SG-buy-TV
 'I like the one (pot) you bought.' (classifier)
- (98) [**Heb'** ix-jaw-i] te-junk'o'olal heb'.
 PL.HUM PFV-come-IV INTS-happy PL.HUM
 'Those who came are happy.' (plural marker)
- (99) Y-el-ta [**jun** s-kuch-an COMAR].
 A3-go.out-SUF one A3-name-STAT COMAR
 'What is called COMAR came out.'¹⁷ (*jun*) (txt)

These elements may co-occur, as with regular noun phrases, leading to the same referential distinctions established in Table 3 above. An example is provided in (100), where a noun classifier and a demonstrative co-occur. Another example is provided in (101), where, similarly, the numeral *jun* and a noun classifier co-occur.

- (100) Ha winhaj Xun [**winh** k'oj-an em **chi**].
 PV N.CLF Xun N.CLF sit-STAT DIR.down DEM
 'Xun is the one that is sitting.' (Buenrostro 2009, 155)
- (101) Ix-cha' hin-k'o'ol [**jun winh** ix-hul-ek' ewi].
 PFV-please A1SG-stomach one N.CLF PFV-come-DIR.pass yesterday
 'I like the one who came yesterday.'

4.2.2 [+Wh, +Det] HRCs

Demonstratives, noun classifiers, and the plural marker may also combine with a wh-word to introduce HRCs. For instance, consider the naturally occurring example in (102), which features a headless relative formed of a wh-word, a noun classifier, and a demonstrative.

- (102) [**Mach winh** niwan tz'-uk'-an **chi**], ha toton jun niwan jom chi tz-
 WHO N.CLF big IPFV-drink-AF DEM PV DISC one big jom DEM IPFV-
 kot t'a winh.
 arrive PREP N.CLF
 'The one who drinks a lot, we give him a big *jom*.' (txt)

Another example is (103), which shows that all three determiners may appear and combine together with a wh-word in a headless relative, though none of them are obligatory.

- (103) Ix-onh-lolon-i y-et' [**mach (heb')** (**ix**) [tz'-al-an Kanjob'al] (**chi**)].
 PFV-B1PL-speak-IV A3-with WHO PL.HUM N.CLF IPFV-speak-AF Q'anjob'al DEM
 'We spoke with (the people) who speak Q'anjob'al.'

¹⁷ COMAR (*Comisión Mexicana de Ayuda a Refugiados*) is a governmental refugee organisation in Mexico.

4.2.3 [-Wh, -Det] HRCs

When in the scope of existential predicates, HRCs that lack both a relative pronoun and a determiner can also arise. This is the case in example (107) below.

- (107) Ay [ix-in-man-a'].
EXT PFV-A1SG-buy-TV
'I bought (things) / I went buying' (lit. There is that I bought.)

Other environments do not allow this option, including predicates like *say* 'to look for', which usually select for Ex-FRs, as shown in examples (108) and (109). The fact that [-Wh, -Det] HRCs are only possible with existential predicates is shared with at least Yucatec Maya, as described in AnderBois and Chan Dzul this volume.

- (108) Ix-cha' hin-k'o'ol [*(tas) ix-a-b'o'-o'].
PFV-please A1SG-stomach WHAT PFV-A2SG-make-TV
Intended: 'I like what you made.'

- (109) Lan hin-say-an [*(tas) ol-in-man-a'].
PROG A1SG-look.for-DEP WHAT PROSP-A1SG-buy-TV
'I'm looking for something to buy.'

Future investigation should attempt to establish the structure of utterances like (107) and whether they truly are headless relatives rather than headed RCs with a null or omitted head.

5. Conclusion

This paper surveyed different types of relative clause constructions in Chuj. This included headed relative clauses, and a variety of different headless relative clause constructions. The main focus was on free relative clauses. I showed that Chuj possesses three kinds of FRs: Max-FRs, Ex-FRs, and FC-FRs. I followed Kotek and Erlewine (2016) on Chuj and Caponigro (2003, 2004) more generally in positing that Max-FRs and Ex-FRs are CPs at their core, and that they minimally differ in terms of their distribution: while Ex-FRs are selected by a limited set of existential predicates and remain of semantic type $\langle e, t \rangle$, Max-FRs have an extra covert DP layer, resulting in an argument of type e . Finally, I also demonstrated that, apart from free relatives ([+Wh, -Det] HRCs), Chuj possesses three different types of HRCs: [-Wh, +Det] HRCs, [+Wh, +Det] HRCs, and [-Wh, -Det] HRCs.

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