ɔwíʔyixa - A Sketch Grammar

u/tryddle

May 2021

Contents

1 Introduction

ɔwíʔyixa[1], more known under the English exonym Awiha, is a conlang I created in November 2019. While I originally documented the language exclusively on paper, this is an attempt at providing a sketch grammar of the language for the sake of accessibility. Awiha is mainly inspired by indigenous North American languages, especially those from the contiguous United States. I shall give a brief typological overview: the language is heavily synthetic;[2] it exhibits an elaborate templatic stem derivation system, as well as noun and adverb incorporation and a complex, direction-based morphosyntactic alignment. This concludes my introduction to the *ɔwíʔyixa* language; have fun reading!

2 Phonology

In this section I will discuss the phonology of the Awiha language. Section 2.1 gives an overview of the consonant phonemes and their associated phonological processes, and I will present the contrastive hierarchy of the language's consonants in 2.1.3. Then I will move on to present Awiha's vowel system in 2.2. I will discuss tones in section 2.2.2, phonotactics in section 2.3, and morphophonology in section 2.4.

2.1 Consonants

2.1.1 Consonant phonemes[3]

	Labial	Dental	Velar	Glottal
Plosives	p	t	k	ʔ
Non-Sibilants		θ	x	h
Sibilants		s		
Glides	w		y	
Nasals	m	n		

Table 1: Consonant phonemes

2.1.2 Allophonic processes and dialectal variation

- t → d / V_V
- {hy, hw} → {ç, ʍ}
- C.h → h.C

[1] I'd like to thank the inhabitants of #ssmc, as well as the members of Holcon for their everlasting support; they have not only helped me regarding issues in conlanging, but have also become good friends. I'd like to thank akam chinjir for helping me out with a ton of problems I had using LaTeX, and Sinoël for introducing me to the funny world of linguistics. Furthermore I thank Anhilare for the organization of the relay which caused me to create this document in the first place. The abbreviations used in this sketch grammar are given at the end of this document.

[2] I will abstain from using the label 'polysynthetic' here, as I consider this label not descriptive enough to accurately characterize Awiha's morphosyntax.

[3] The palatal approximant will be represented as ⟨y⟩ in this document, following Americanist tradition.

- θ.s → s.θ
- {xs, sx} → ʃ
- w → m / Ṽ_
- w → ∅ / $\begin{cases} \_u \\ k\_ \end{cases}$
- C? → C'
- {m, n, w, y} → [-voice] / h_

  North Awiha
- t → s / V_i
- t → ts / _?
- k → kx / _?

  Coast Awiha
- t → c / _i,e
- t → ɟ / V_i,e

  South Awiha
- {t, k} → c / _i,e
- {t, k} → ɟ / V_i,e
- k → q / _a, ɔ
- k → ɢ / V_a, ɔ
- x → χ / _V[-low]

2.1.3 Contrastive hierarchy

To showcase how Awiha's consonant segments pattern, I have created a contrastive hierarchy which presents the consonantal system of the language. It is shown in figure 2.1.3

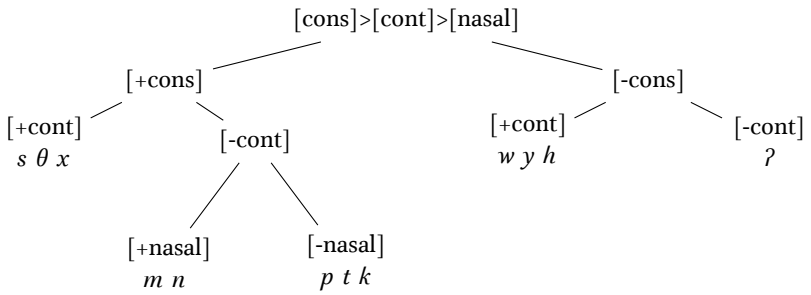

Figure 1: Contrastive hierarchy

We can infer from this table that /w y h ʔ/ pattern similarly (cf. (1)), and that all consonantal fricatives and all occlusives pattern pattern together respectively.

2.2 Vowels

2.2.1 Vowel phonemes

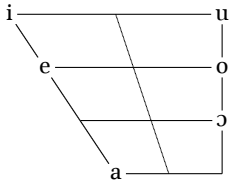

Figure 2: Plain vowel phonemes

Figure 2 showcases the plain vowel phonemes of the Awiha language. Every vowel may be phonemically lengthened; every vowel but /u/ may be nasalized, or may be nasalized and lengthened. Nasalized vowels are marked by an ogonek (*e.g.* /ã/ ⟨ą⟩), while long vowels are marked by an interpunct (*e.g.* /u:/ ⟨u·⟩) in most cases; at the end of a word a colon is used to mark long vowels (*e.g.* /u:/ ⟨u:⟩).[4]

2.2.2 Tone

Each vowel may also take one of three tones: high ⟨á⟩, unmarked low, and falling ⟨â⟩. The latter of these rarely appears within a stem, and is more commonly found on morpheme boundaries, *viz.* when a high and low vowel collide (cf. section 2.4). Together with nasalization and lengthening this yields a total vowel count of 44 phonemic vowel phonemes.

2.3 Phonotactics

The phonotactics of *Ɔwíʔyixa* are relatively complex and are showcased in example (1).

[4] I decided on this for the sake of readability, as well as due to personal aesthetic preferences.

(1) (C)(w,y,h,ʔ)V(h,ʔ)(C)

A syllable consists of an optional onset, a post-onset slot which may be filled by /w/, /y/ or /ʔ/, an obligatory nucleus, a pre-coda slot that can be occupied by either /h/ or /ʔ/ and an optional coda. There are no restrictions regarding the choice of consonants in the onset and coda slots.

2.4 Morphophonology

There are a few morphophonological processes in the Awiha language. I will showcase these in this section. Those processes predominantly affect vowels, although there are a few sound changes that influence consonants.

- {m, n}-{k, t} → h{k, t}
- x → h / _{-y, -w}
- e o → ∅ / _V[+high]

Affecting nasalization & coalescence

- $\tilde{V}_1$-V_2 → $\tilde{V}_2$ / V_2≠u
- $\tilde{V}$-u → $\tilde{V}$hu
- $\tilde{V}_1$-$\tilde{V}_2$ → $\tilde{V}_2$:
- V-$\tilde{V}$ → Vh$\tilde{V}$

Affecting tone & coalescence

- $\acute{V}_1$-V_2 → $\hat{V}_2$
- $\acute{V}_1$-$\acute{V}_2$ → $\acute{V}_2$
- V_1-$\acute{V}_2$ → $\acute{V}_2$

Other processes

- V-u-V → VwV
- V-i-V → VyV
- {y,w}-C → {yi,wu}C
- C-{w,y}-{C,#} → C{u,i}{C,#}
- V_1-V_1 → V_1:

If a phonological environment cannot be repaired by the processes shown above, a schwa [ə] is inserted so that the environment becomes phonotactically legal. More research has to be conducted on this epenthesized vowel, and I will not elaborate on it here for the sake of brevity.

2.4.1 Apophony

ɔwíʔyixa exhibits word-internal vowel modification, also called apophony, in some contexts. Most of the environments in which apophony occurs are related to stem derivation. Table 2 provides an overview of vowels and their mutated counterparts. This type of apophony is called 'pure vowel gradation', and contrasts with another type of apophony, *viz.* 'tonal vowel gradation'. In the latter, the vowel additionally changes its tonal quality: a high tone becomes low, a low tone becomes a falling tone and a falling tone becomes high.

V	V_a	V	V_a
a	ɔ	ɔ	a
e	i	o	u
i	e	u	o

Table 2: Pure vowel gradation

Nasalized vowels undergo apophony according to table 2; however, there is one exception: the mutated variant of /õ/ is /ẽ/, since /ũ/ does not exist in Awiha. This concludes the discussion of the language's phonology.[5]

3 The Noun

While verbal morphology is more complex than nominal morphology in the *ɔwíʔyixa* language, one should not neglect it. I will consider number in section 3.1, nominal apposition in section 3.2, possession in section 3.3, the formation of possessed stems in 3.4 and deverbal derivation in section 3.5. Finally, I will present evaluative markers in section 3.6 and oblique cases in section 3.7.

3.1 Number

Nominal number in Awiha follows an intricate system distinguishing inherent unmarked number and complementary number marked by the plural suffix *-kɔ́*. Each noun belongs to one of four plural classes. All animate nouns make up class I, while inanimate nouns are distributed among classes II, III, and IV. Class I nouns (*e.g.* *θéʔ* 'old man') are inherently singular or dual, and their complementary form is plural (*e.g.* *θéʔkɔ́* 'old men'). Class II nouns are inherently dual or plural (*e.g.* *sɑ̨m* 'hands'), while their complementary counterpart is singular (*e.g.* *sɑ̨hkɔ́* 'hand'). Class III nouns are inherently dual and their complementary form is singular or plural (*e.g.* *ʔyûx* 'eyes$_d$', *ʔyûkɔ́* 'eye(s)$_{s/p}$'). Finally, class IV nouns cannot take the complementary number marker and their number is disambiguated by verbal number marking. An example for a class IV noun is *kyǫ́ʔ* 'rock'. An overview of these noun classes is given in 3.

[5]Since I will not expand on templatic derivation patterns here, this paper does not describe any apophonic processes. I recommend the interested reader check out Fernandez 2001, in which the author focusses on morphophonology, but also considers apophony in detail.

	-∅	*-kɔ́*
Class I	singular/dual	plural
Class II	dual/plural	singular
Class III	dual	singular/plural
Class IV	disambiguated by verb markers	

Table 3: Noun classes

3.2 Nominal apposition

Nominal apposition may be constructed by simple juxtaposition, as can be inferred from example (2a). The oblique cases (cf. section 3.7) all attach on a phrase-level, as can be seen in (2b). While these morphemes may qualify as clitics cross-linguistically, I shall refer to them as suffixes, as traditional Awihanist grammatical terminology precedes the coining of the term 'clitic'.[6]

(2) a. *Okɟ́hawa* *mą́ti*
Okɟ́hawa mą́ti
man's.name *good.friend*
"My good friend Okɟ́hawa"
Or: "Okɟ́hawa, my good friend"

b. *Okɟ́hawa* *mą́tihw*
Okɟ́hawa mą́ti-hw
man's.name *good.friend*-NOM.TOPIC
"As for my good friend Okɟ́hawa"
Or: "As for Okɟ́hawa, my good friend"

3.3 Possession

There are two strategies for possession in the *Ɔwí?yixa* language. The first of these is person-marker possession. With this strategy, the nominal appears in its possessed form (cf. section 3.4 below) and receives a set II personal marker, in which the marker's agent-like argument corresponds to the possessor, while the secondary argument — which is only represented on the marker itself by number — corresponds to the possessee. This is showcased in example (3). More information on set II personal markers can be found in section 4.2.1.

(3) *pwɛ́* *θutpyú·h* *nątpyǫ·hsɟ́mę*
pwɛ́ θut-pyú·h ną-t-pyǫ·hs-ɟm-ę
2S/A 1S>DII-*book*.IV 1S>DIII-*be.separated-forget*-PAST-INTRG
"Did you lose my books$_{d}$?"

[6] Note that in traditional Awihanistics, the notion of a clitic does in fact exist; however it refers to a morpheme which acts like an affix syntactically, but exhibits some distinct phonological phenomena. Cf. Fernandez 2001 for an accurate phonological description of Awiha's clitics.

The second strategy to mark possession in the Awiha language is by juxtaposition of the possessor and the possesse, which appears in its possessed form and takes the possessed prefix *aw-*.[7] In these constructions, the possessor precedes the possessee, which hints at the head-final structure of *Ↄwíʔyixa*. This is exemplified in (4).

(4)

	anǫ́·θ	*awpyú·h*		*êhtpyǫ·hsi̧mę*
[	anǫ́·θ	aw-pyú·h	]$_{NP}$	ên-t-pyǫ·hs-i̧m-ę
	mother.I	POSSD-*book*.IV		3S>DIII-*be.separated-forget*-PAST-INTRG

"Did s/he lose my mother's books$_d$?"

Note that the explicit marking of a first person possessor is seldomly encountered on kinship terms; in these cases, the first person is treated as the unmarked, implied possessor.

3.4 Possessed stem formation

To incorporate a noun into a verb, and in possessive constructions (cf. section 3.3 above), a secondary stem has to be used. This stem may then be incorporated into the verb or may take the personal marker as discussed above. As soon as a noun is not incorporated or possessed, it will take its standard citation form. Some examples for noun stems and their possessed variants are given in (5).

(5)

kúma	*-kúwą-*	'fruit'
kwáhkwɔ́ʔ	*-kwɔ́·h-*	'pig'
mąpá	*-mąnθV-*	'dog'

More information on noun incorporation can be found in section 4.2.3. While I will not provide a full list of possessed stem formation templates, I will give the possessed forms of each noun in the dictionary (cf. appendix A).

3.5 Deverbal derivation

There are several ways to derive nouns from verbs in the Awiha language. I will showcase these morphemes in this section. Firstly I will present the agent nominalizer *-we*; I will move on to discuss the patient nominalizer *-y*, the instrumentalizer and location nominalizer *-kaθ*, the relativizer *-én*, the inanimate agent nominalizer *-wǫ* and lastly the general nominalizer *ɔ-*. Although most of these affixes attach to already-formed verb stems, in rare cases, they may also attach to the root itself, as shown in example (6).

(6) *-í-* *îkaθ* 'mouth' **íhsekaθ*

In this example, the instrumentalizer attaches to the root *-í-*. Suffixing the morpheme to the stem *-íhse-* 'to talk' yields an ungrammatical result. In the following section I will use underlines to emphasize the morpheme that is being discussed.

[7] This prefix is homophonous with the set II third person reflexive prefix. More research has to be conducted on the diachronics of this specific marker.

3.5.1 *-we* NMLZ:AGENT

The agent nominalizer *-we* derives an agent-denoting nominal from a transitive verb. An example for this is given in (7).

(7) *-hɔ́twɔ́kʔi-* 'to accomplish sth.' *hɔ́twɔ́kʔiwe* 'winner, finalist, graduate'

It may also derive event-denoting nominals, as showcased in example (8).

(8) *-wɔ́ʔhɔ́x -* 'rain (V)' *wɔ́ʔhɔ́hwe* 'rain (N)'

3.5.2 *-y* NMLZ:PATIENT

The patient nominalizer *-y(i)* derives an patient-denoting nominal from a verb. (9) exemplifies this derivation process.

(9) *-mɻ́·n-* 'to hunt sth.' *mɻ́·nyi* 'game been hunted'

It may also derive agent-denoting nominals from intransitive verbs. Some ergative characteristics can be observed here. An example for this is presented in (10).

(10) *-pa·x-* 'to go' *pahy* 'traveller'

3.5.3 *-kaθ* NMLZ:INSTR/LOCAT

This nominalizer derives an instrument-denoting nominal from a verb. When suffixed to a verb stem or root, a low tone is transferred onto the preceding vowel. This is presented in example (11).

(11) *-í-* 'speak, tell, say *etc.*' *îkaθ* 'mouth, tongue'

It may also derive a location-denoting nominal, as seen in (12).

(12) *-mɻ́·n-* 'to hunt sth.' *mɻ̂·hkaθ* 'hunting area'

3.5.4 *-én* REL

The relativizer *-én* may be used to form relative clauses. The marker attaches to a finite verb, which is demonstrated in (13). It may only appear juxtaposed to a nominal and requires the conjunct order.

(13)

kápį:	*múhąnɻ́·mįmnįhén*	*múné·yie*
kápį:	mú-ą-nɻ́·m-įm-nįh-én	mú-né·y-y-e
boy.I	1S>Sii-*be.upright-see*-PAST-PUNCT-REL	1S>Sii-*kiss*-PROG-DESID

"The boy I saw standing (over there), I want to keep kissing him"

A verb relativized by *-én* may not be used in a headless relative clause, as shown in (14).

(14) * *múhąnɻ́·mįmnįhén* *múné·yí*
mú-ą-nɻ́·m-įm-nįh-én mú-né·y-í
1S>Sii-*be.upright-see*-PAST-PUNCT-REL 1S>Sii-*kiss*-DESID

Intended: "I want to kiss the one who I saw standing over there"

3.5.5 *-wǫ* NMLZ:INAN.AGENT

This derivational suffix is used to derive inanimate, agent-denoting nominals from verb stems and roots. This process is exemplified in (15).

(15) *-wɔ́ʔ-* 'fall, drop, rain' *wɔ́ʔwǫ* 'rockfall'

3.5.6 *ɔ-* NMLZ

This marker is a general nominalizer that may be used for several purposes. It may derive event-denoting nominals from finite verbs; in this case, the personal markers on the finite verb become the arguments of the deverbal noun, as seen in (16); its usage is exemplified in (17). Note that this nominalizer requires independent order instead of the expected conjunct order.

(16) *yą́xíhseyis* 'they are able to beat around the bush'

(17)

ɔyą́xíhseyis	*âxwɔ́wáhkąw*
ɔ-yą́-axíhse-y-s	â-xwɔ́-ú-áh-ką-áw
NMLZ-3S-*beat.around.the.bush*-PROG-ABIL	3C>SII-*sick*-*become*-PRES-CAUS-PROG

"Them being able to beat around the bush (all the time) is irritating (me)."

Ɔ- may also derive headless relative clauses. Compare (14) with (18). In the former, the sentence is ungrammatical, since the relativizer *-én* cannot be used for headless relative clauses; on the contrary, the general nominalizer in the latter example may fulfill this function.

(18)

ɔmúhąnę́·mu	*múné·yí*
ɔ-mú-ą-nę́·m-w	mú-né·y-í
NMLZ-1S>SII-*be.upright*-*see*-PAST	1S>S-*kiss*-DESID

"I want to kiss the one who I saw standing over there"

3.5.7 Inflecting deverbal nouns

Just like regular nominals, deverbal nouns may also take inflection. Since most deverbal nouns belong to plural class IV, they cannot take the complementary number marker *-kɔ́*. Exceptions to this rule consist of animate deverbals, such as the ones produced by *-we* and *-y*. These animate nouns belong to class I. An example for this exception is given in (19).

(19)

pahykɔ́	*ąwʔú·wohǫ̂twɔ́kʔiy*
pahy-kɔ́	ąw-ʔú·wo-hǫ̂twɔ́kʔi-y
traveller.I-C	3REFLII-*eye*-*hide*-PROG

"The travellers are quite shy"
Lit.: "The travellers are eye-hiding themselves"

Deverbal nouns that are not derived from finite verbs may also take set II personal markers to express possession.[8] Some examples for this are given in (20).

(20)	*mᶎ́·nyi*	'hunted animal'	*sánmᶎ́·nyikɔ́*	'the game$_s$ you$_d$ hunted'
	îkaθ	'mouth, tongue'	*yᶎ̂kaθ*	'his/her tongues'

Similarly, deverbal nouns may also take oblique cases, if it's appropriate with respect to semantics. More information on oblique cases can be found in section 3.7. Example (21) presents a type of oblique case attached to a deverbal noun.

(21)	*mᶎ̂·hkaθ*	'hunting area'	*mᶎ̂·hkaθʔox*	'toward the hunting area'

3.6 Evaluative markers

There are two evaluative markers in Awiha, the augmentative and the diminutive. The augmentative marker *-h(á)* emphasizes the size, importance or age of the marked noun. Its usage is exemplified in (22).

(22) *phątwa·h* *neθᶎ́męxu*
phątwa:-h ∅-neθé-ᶎ́męx-w
father-AUG 3SI-*angry-seem*-PAST
"(My) late father seemed angry"

The second evaluative marker is the diminutive *-si·*, which is used to encode small size, low importance *etc.* of the marked noun. It may also be used for contexts in which the marked noun is perceived as 'cute'. Example (23) showcases the usage of the diminutive.

(23) *túʔw* *mąpási:* *ą̂wépéxuy*
túʔw mąpá-si: ą̂-wépéx-w-y
1O *dog*-DIM 3S>DII-*run.towards*-PAST-PROG
"The cute little dog was running towards us$_d$"

3.7 Oblique cases

Additionally to number, possession and evaluative markers, nouns may also take so-called oblique cases. These cases may express spatial information or features related to information structure, but may not reflect what a proto-typical "case" conveys; nevertheless I will use the Awihanist terminology by tradition.

[8] Cf. section 3.3

3.7.1 Directional-locational cases

There are 2 directional-locational cases in the Awiha language. The first of these is the directional case *-ʔox*, which primarily expresses movement towards the marked noun. An example for this is given in (24).

(24) *twɔ́·tʔox* *ɛ́hɔpá·xsá*
twɔ́·t-ʔox ɛ́-hɔpá·xsá
home-DIR 2SI-*go.to*
"You$_p$ are going home"

This marker may also mark motion from, as well as motion through the marked noun, and can also be used for benefactive oblique.[9] The second spatial case in *Ɔwíʔyixa* is the locational case marker *-aʔw*, which expresses the location at the marked noun. It may appear together with modified verbal stems to express a wide range of locational semantics. An example for the usage of this morpheme can be found in (25).

(25) *wɔ́ʔhɔ́xkaθaʔw* *yąpịnʔịse·hwi*
wɔ́ʔhɔ́xkaθ-aʔw yą́-pịnʔịs-e:-hw-y
clouds-LOC 3PI-*sleep*-FUT-NEG.AGENT-PROG
"Nobody will be sleeping in the clouds"

3.7.2 Nominal topic marker *-hw*/*-hu*

The nominal topic marker *-hw*/*-hu* is not a proto-typical case marker, but I have kept this name to follow Awihanist tradition. To express that a marked noun takes up a prominent pragmatic role, *i.e.* that it is being talked about in the sentence, this marker is attached to the noun. An example for this is given in (26).

(26) *ámąti·hw* *înməsɛ́mɛ̨hyu*
á-mąti:-hw în-m-ə-sɛ́mɛ̨hy-w
2S>S-*good.friend*-NOM.TOPIC 3S>PIII-*be.prominent*-EP-*look.good*-PAST
"As for this good friend of yours, she is very pretty"

The topic and the subject of the clause can be distinct. If that is the case, the topic appears in clause-initial position, as shown in example (27).

(27) *sịksịkhu* *mąpá* *mị·hiwum*
sịksịk-hw mąpá ∅-mị·hi-w-m
possum-NOM.TOPIC *dog* 3S>SII-*bite*-NEG
"As for the possum, the dog did not bite it"

[9] For the sake of brevity I shall not give examples for these usages here.

3.7.3 Morpheme order

Now that I've considered the entirety of nominal inflection in Awiha, I shall present the order in which these affixes appear within the noun stratum. (28) presents this order.

(28) (*poss.*)—[root—*deriv.*]—(*-kɔ́* C)—(*-h* AUG / *-si:* DIM)—(*-ʔox* DIR / *-aʔw* LOC / *-hw* NOM.TOPIC)

As can be inferred from this figure, a nominal with a spatial case may not be topicalized using the nominal topic marker *-hw*/*-hu*.[10] Example (29) showcases how multiple morphemes may be attached to a single stem.

(29) *okwɔ́·hkɔ́haʔw* [...]
o-kwɔ́·h-kɔ́-h-aʔw
1P>Cii-*pig*-C-AUG-DIR
"(They went) toward our pigs, the large ones"

3.8 Conclusion

This concludes the discussion of nouns in the *Ɔwíʔyixa* language. In the preceding section I have discussed number and possession first; then I gave a brief overview of the formation of possessed stems. After a showcase of deverbal derivational morphology and evaluative markers, I finally considered oblique cases and their behaviour.

4 The Verb

4.1 Verb stems

To derive verb stems from roots, a complex templatic morphological pattern is employed. This pattern transforms the root according to its phonotactic structure and produces a stem that belongs to one of four verb classes: inanimate intransitive, inanimate transitive, animate intransitive and animate transitive. These stems may then be modified by derivational morphology, which yields a big range of verbal semantics. In this section I will give brief examples of every root structure and some derived stems; I will not provide a comprehensive list of verb stem templates for the sake of brevity.[11] Firstly, I will give an overview of the phonotactics of roots.[12]

[10] Topicalization of directional nominals as well as of other parts of speech is the topic of section **??**.

[11] For an extensive study of verbal stem templates cf. Hudson 2006.

[12] While many verb stems can be traced back to a root, there are some opaque forms whose etymology is unclear. Many of these stems are either loanwords, or their original roots have faded into obscurity. More research has to be conducted on the nature of non-derived verb stems.

4.1.1 Root structure

There are three basic types of roots: those with a V syllable structure, those with a CV syllable structure and those with a CVC syllable structure. While each of these may be subdivided into further categories, I will focus on those three. Examples for these three basic root shapes are given in example (30);

(30)	-V-	*-ę́-*	'see, watch, observe *etc.*'
	-CV-	*-tɔ́-*	'put, place *etc.*'
	-CVC-	*-pá·x-*	'go, walk *etc.*'

4.1.2 Intransitive animate stems

To derive intransitive animate stems, several templates are used according to the roots phonotactics. The derived stem may be used as an intransitive verb and may have an animate S. An example for this is given in (31).

(31)	*-í-*	'speak, tell *etc.*'	*-íhse-*	'to talk (intr. anim.)'

4.1.3 Intransitive inanimate stems

These stems may be used as intransitive stems, but in contrast to intransitive animate stems, they require an inanimate S. In 32, an example is given for this stem type.

(32)	*-ą́-*	'touch, burn *etc.*'	*-ą́·mąx-*	'to feel (intr. inanim.)'

4.1.4 Transitive animate stems

These stems are once again derived from roots and form transitive verbs with an animate O. This is a hint at the ergative structure of the Awiha language. An example for a root and a derived TA verb is given in (33).

(33)	*-mį́·ʔ-*	'break, hurt, hit *etc.*'	*-męhkį-*	'to hit sb. (trans. anim.)'

4.1.5 Transitive inanimate stems

These stems feature a transitive meaning with an inanimate O, as showcased in example (34).

(34)	*-í-*	'speak, tell *etc.*'	*-wíʔki-*	'to speak sth. (a language)'

4.1.6 Stem modifiers

There is a set of modifiers that may alter the meaning of stem directly after the derivation of said stem from the root. These are called 'stem modifiers'. There are two subclasses of stem modifiers: locational/directional and qualitative modifiers. In (35), a locational/directional modifier is showcased, while (36) exemplifies the usage of qualitative modifiers. A comprehensive list of stem modifiers can be found in table 4 below.

(35) *w-* 'on top *etc.*' *-wę́nθi-* 'to search sth. on top'

(36) *-mê·θ* 'bad, slow (PEJ)' *-pá·xsa·mêθ-* 'to crouch'

Stem modifier	Meaning
w(é)-/wę-	'on top, from the top off'
(h)ŝ)-/hę̂-	'below, under, from under'
ʔy-/ʔí-	'in front off, from; on the right'
ax-/hɔ́-/há-	'behind, towards; on the left'
s-...-ʔy/sá-...-ʔy/sá-...-î	'good, fast'
-mê·θ/-ę̂·θ	'bad, slow'
a:-	INT

Table 4: List of verbal stem modifiers

4.1.7 Predicative adjectives

To derive predicative adjectives from the adjective stem, the verb templates for intransitive inanimate may be used. This process can only derive predicative adjectives for inanimate subjects. To express a predicative meaning with an animate subject, incorporation is used. An example for the derivation of inanimate predicative adjectives from adjective stems is shown in (37).

(37) *-kwęx-* 'red' *-kwęnʔęx-* 'to be red (inan.)'

4.1.8 Reduced stems

There are some stems which do not conform to the phonotactic system described in section 2.3. These stems are called 'reduced stems'; they transform into a legal phonological form by means of the morphophonological processes given in section 2.4. Some examples for reduced stems are given in (38).

(38) *-pá·xs-* 'to go, to walk'
-ą́·nθ- 'to feel X, to have an X shape (inan.)'

4.2 Verbal morphology

Awiha's verbal morphology is quite complex, with 10 affix slots; this template is shown in table 5. In the following section I will move through this verb stratum slot by slot and discuss the different affixes that come in these slots. Furthermore I will give examples for each of the affixes' usage. I will discuss personal markers in section 4.2.1, modifier incorporation in 4.2.2, noun incorporation in 4.2.3 and preverbs in 4.2.4. I will then move on and consider the several suffixes that may be attached to the verb stem, starting with the first T/A (tense-aspect) slot in section 4.2.5 and negation in section 4.2.6; I will present the functioning of the passive and other valency-modifying markers in section 4.2.7. Lastly I will present the second T/A slot in section 4.2.8, the postverb slot in 4.2.9 and the switch-reference clitics in 4.2.10. In the following section I will use underlines to emphasize the morpheme(s) talked about.

-4	-3	-2	-1	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
person marker	modifier	noun	preverb	stem	tense	negation	valency	aspect	postverb	SR

Table 5: Verb stratum

4.2.1 Personal markers

The manner in which *Ɔwíʔyixa* marks person on the verb is quite complex and requires an in-depth analysis which I won't deliver here for brevity's sake. Nevertheless I will showcase the different person marker sets and their usages in this section. There are four sets of person markers, all of which I will discuss here. There are two intransitive sets and three transitive sets. I will now consider the nature and behaviour of these sets.

Intransitive markers The two intransitive sets are the intransitive inanimate (Ia) and the intransitive animate (Ib) markers. Table (6) gives an overview of the Ia set while table (7) showcases the Ib set.

person	3s	3d	3p	3c
form	*∅-*	*á-*	*į-*	*a-*

Table 6: Set Ia markers

person	1s	1p	2s	2d	2p	3s	3d	3p	3c
form	*u-*	*o-*	*ês-*	*és-*	*ę́-*	*∅-*	*ą́-*	*yą́-*	*ą-*

Table 7: Set Ib markers

The usage of these markers is predictable: those which belong to set Ia are used with intransitive inanimate verbs and those of set Ib are used with intransitive animate verbs, like those in example (39) and (40).

(39) *kyǫ́ʔ* *i̱kwęnʔęx*
kyǫ́ʔ i̱-kwęnʔęx
rock.IV 3Pi-*be.red*

"The rocks$_P$ are red"

(40) *θâhkɔ́* *ępéxe·y*
θâm-kɔ́ ą̱-épéx-e:-y
child.I-C 3Ci-*run*-FUT-PROG

"The children will be running"

Set II markers The second set of personal markers is used for marking transitive verbs. They encode the person and number of an explicitly agentive argument, as well as the number of the verb's secondary argument, in this case, the O. The S forms are used when the argument lacks the complementary number marker and the noun is semantically singular — therefore this form only appears with singular class I nouns.[13] The P paradigm is employed when, besides lacking the complementary number marker, the noun is semantically plural. This distribution is limited to class II nouns, which may be either dual or plural. The D forms are used with non-complementary class II and III nouns, while the C forms are used for classes I-III, in presence of the complementary number marker *-kɔ́*. For class IV nouns, the forms for S, D and P are used to encode the noun's number, since those do not take *-kɔ́*. Tables (8) and (9) present the entirety of set II markers.

	1S	1P	2S	2D	2P
REFL	*tu-*	*ó-*	*wê-*	*wé-*	*e-*
S	*mú-*	*ǫ-*	*á-*	*na-*	*ta-*
D	*θut-*	*ót-*	*sám-*	*san-*	*pás-*
P	*út-*	*ô-*	*wát-*	*sen-*	*pas-*
C	*tú-*	*o-*	*we-*	*sán-*	*pes-*

Table 8: Set II markers

	3S	3D	3P	3C
REFL	*aw-*	*áw-*	*ât-*	*ąw-*
S	*∅-*	*á-*	*ya-*	*â-*
D	*ą̂-*	*ąs-*	*át-*	*át-*
P	*yą́-*	*âw-*	*yą-*	*ât-*
C	*â-*	*ą́w-*	*yá-*	*ą́n-*

Table 9: Set II markers *cont'd*

Some examples for the usage of these forms are given in (41).

[13] For an overview of these number classes, cf. 3.1

(41) a. *kyǫ́ʔ* *yą́hɔ́twɔ́kʔi*
kyǫ́ʔ yą́-hɔ́twɔ́kʔi
rock.IV 3S>PII-*lift*
"S/he is lifting the rocks"

b. *sąhkɔ́* *owę́mʔiw*
sąm-kɔ́ o-wę́mʔi-w
hand.II-C 1P>CII-*see*-PAST
"We saw (your) hand"

Set III markers The third set of personal markers encode person and number of an argument that is explicitly non-agentive, as well as the O's number. The A of the marked verb is implied, and differs based on the non-agentive argument. Tables 10 and 11 present these markers.

	1S	1P	2S	2D	2P	3S	3D	3P	3C
S	*są-*	*sɔ́-*	*pɔ-*	*xɔ́-*	*sɔ-*	*í-*	*xé-*	*sé-*	*sa-*
D	*ną-*	*nót-*	*nɔ́t-*	*sét-*	*xét-*	*ên-*	*ném-*	*sén-*	*są́-*
P	*yú-*	*mû-*	*mû-*	*sát-*	*xát-*	*în-*	*ném-*	*sén-*	*są́-*
C	*nǫ-*	*nót-*	*kɔ́t-*	*sɔ́t-*	*xɔ́t-*	*ǫ́-*	*ném-*	*sén-*	*są́-*
(implied)	2S/3S	←	—	—	—	2S/3S.OBV	—	→	3P

Table 10: Set III markers

	2S/3S
S	*mu-*
D	*θét-*
P	*yǫ́n-*
C	*kɔ́-*
(implied)	1S

Table 11: Set III markers *cont'd*

The set III markers are not only used for ditransitive constructions (cf. (42a)), but also to express benefactives (cf. (42b)) and malefactives (cf. (42c)). The non-agentive argument may also be a possessor, as shown in example (42d), or may be used with intransitive animate verbs, more specifically those that refer to bodily emanations or perceptions (*e.g.* 'being X', 'looking X', 'smelling X' *etc.*, cf. (42e)). The examples in (42) showcase the different usages of set III markers.

(42) a. *kúmakɔ́* *są́θǫ́·hma·w*
kúma-kɔ́ są́-θǫ́·hma:-w
fruit.II-C 3C>CIII-*give*-PAST
"(They) gave them (the men) a fruit"

b. *kyǫ́ʔ* *muhɔ́twɔ́kʔiy*
kyǫ́ʔ mu-hɔ́twɔ́kʔi-y
rock.IV 2S/3S>Siii-*lift*-PROG
"(I) am lifting the rock for you"
Or: "(I) am lifting the rock for her/him"

c. *ʔíkehikękɔ́* *nǫkwį·mihw*
ʔíkehikę-kɔ́ nǫ-kwį·mih-w
nettle.II-C 1S>Ciii-*take*-PAST
"(You) took the nettles to my detriment"

d. *twɔ́·t* *sénwą́·hma:*
twɔ́·t sén-wą́·hma:
house.II 3P>Piii-*raid*
"(The tribe) raided their$_p$ houses"

e. *mûsá·hsʔyi*
mû-sá·hsʔy-y
2S>Piii-*smell.good*-PROG
"(Now) you're smelling good"

To disambiguate the implied argument, the S/A forms of personal pronouns may be used (cf. 5.3).

Set IV markers The alert reader might have noticed that there are some gaps in set III paradigms; these gaps include forms for an implied first person plural A, as well as an implied non-singular second person A. Set IV markers are not specified for an implied A like set III. Instead, the A must be stated explicitly, either by a pronoun or by an overt nominal. An overview of set IV is given in table 12.

	1S	1P	2S	2D	2P	3S	3D	3P	3C
S	*sa:-*	*sɔ́:-*	*pɔ:-*	*xɔ́:-*	*sɔ:-*	*í:-*	*xé:-*	*sé:-*	*sá:-*
D	*sate:-*	*sɔ́te:-*	*pɔte-*	*hɔ́te-*	*sɔte-*	*íte:-*	*xéte:-*	*séte:-*	*sáte:-*
P	*sa·ki:-*	*sɔ́·k-*	*pɔ·k-*	*hɔ́·k-*	*sɔ·k-*	*í·k-*	*xé·k-*	*sé·k-*	*sá·k-*
C	*satô-*	*sɔ́tô-*	*pɔtô-*	*xɔ́tô-*	*sɔtô-*	*ítô-*	*xétô-*	*sétô-*	*sátô-*

Table 12: Set IV markers

Some examples of the usage of these markers are given in (43)

(43) a. *pwę́* *mą́·hkɔ́* *satôʔɔ́·wę́mʔiwuką*
pwę́ mą́·hm-kɔ́ satô-ʔɔ́:-wę́mʔi-w-ką
2S/A *spear*.III-C 1S>Civ-*just*-*see*-PAST-CAUS
"You$_d$ just showed me (your) spear"

b. *tú·h* *yéh* *pɔ·yá·hiye:*
tú·h yéh pɔ:-yá·hi-y-e:
1S/A *fish*.I 2S>Siv-*catch*-PROG-DESID
"We are trying to catch a fish for you"

This concludes the discussion of personal markers in Awiha.

4.2.2 Modifier incorporation

In the *ɔwíʔyixa* language, modifier incorporation describes the incorporation of adverb- and adjective-like words into the verb compound. In the following section I will discuss the functioning of this process.

Adverb incorporation Usually, adverbs always appear incorporated, especially when the semantic bond between verb stem and adverb is strong. To emphasize an adverb's meaning, it may appear unincorporated. Adverbs do not have a corresponding incorporated stem like nouns. (44a) and (44b) exemplify the contrast between incorporated and free adverbs.

(44) a. *pa·hwe* *wę́hxhɔ́twɔ́kʔiw*
pa·hwe ∅-wę́hx-hɔ́twɔ́kʔi-w
journey 3S>SII-*thrice-finish*-PAST
"He's done the trip thrice"

b. *wę́hx* *pa·hwe* *hɔ́twɔ́kʔiw*
wę́hx pa·hwe ∅-hɔ́twɔ́kʔi-w
thrice *journey* 3S>SII-*finish*-PAST
"He's done the trip **thrice**"

Adjective incorporation The most common usage of adjective incorporation is with the verbs ADJ-∅- and ADJ-*ú*-, meaning 'to be ADJ' and 'to become ADJ' respectively. When a noun is incorporated into the verb, and is also further described by an attributive adjective, this adjective must be incorporated too. These usages of adjective incorporation are demonstrated in examples (45a) and (45b).

(45) a. [...] *swį́m*
∅-swį́-∅-m
3SI-*same-be*-NEG
"(that one) is not the same"

b. *ą̂hǫkyǫ́·hɔ́twɔ́kʔihį́mnį́hę*
ą̂-hǫ́-kyǫ́·h-hɔ́twɔ́kʔi-į́m-nį́h-ę
3S>DII-*big-rock*.POSSD-*lift*-PAST-PUNCT-INTRG
"Did s/he lift these two big rocks?"

This concludes the discussion of modifier incorporation in the *ɔwíʔyixa* language.

4.2.3 Noun incorporation

In this section, I will briefly glance over the functioning of noun incorporation in Awiha.[14] When a noun is incorporated, it must always take its possessed form, which is listed in the dictionary (cf. appendix A). I will now consider the conditions under which a noun may be incorporated. Firstly, a noun may be incorporated if its bond with the verb is very tight; this

[14] If the reader wants a more thorough analysis of Awiha's noun incorporation system, I suggest they read Daws' chapter in the 2017 monograph 'Noun incorporation'.

may refer to the case in which the event is performed habitually, as in (46a), or when the verb requires an incorporated object, *e.g.* *-kwį·mih-* 'to take sth.' or *-ú-* 'to become N'. The latter usage is exemplified in (46b).

(46) a. *nɔ́·hx* *yé·wimɻ́·nu*
∅-nɔ́·hx ∅-yé·wi-mɻ́·n-w
3S>SII-*mother*.POSSD 3S>SII-*fish*.POSSD-*hunt*-PAST
"Her mother was a fisherman"

b. *Na·pi* *sį·hnáwkɻ́ht*
Na·pi ∅-sį·hn-ú-áw-kɻ́-áht
woman's.name 3S>SII-*possum*.POSSD-*become*-PAST-CAUS-PUNCT
"Na·pi made him turn into a possum"

Furthermore, the noun is incorporated when it refers to a body part, as can be seen in example (47).

(47) *ya·w* *nɻ́ʔyú·womǝmęhkɻ́w*
ya·w nɻ́-ʔyú·wo-m-męhkɻ́-w
3S/A 1S>DIII-*eye*.POSSD-*stick.out-hit*-PAST
"He poked me in the eyes"

If a noun refers to old information and should be moved into the background with respect to information structure, it is incorporated. This appears most often in narratives, but may also be observed in casual speech. An example for this is given in (48a), (48b) and (48c).

(48) a. *nɔ́·hx* *yéhkɔ́* *âmɻ́·nuyθú* [...]
∅-nɔ́·hx yéh-kɔ́ â-mɻ́·n-w-y=θú
3S>SII-*mother*.POSSD *fish*.I-C 3S>C-*hunt*-PAST-*PROG*=*when*
"Her mother was fishing when [...]"

b. *hǫ* *mɻ́pá* *ɻ́ka·yɔmɻ́·hihɻ́mnɻh* [...]
hǫ mɻ́pá ǫ́-îka·yɔ-mɻ́·hi-ɻm-nɻh
big *dog*.I 3S>CIII-*face*.POSSD-*bite*-PAST-PUNCT
"[when] suddenly a big dog came and bit her in the face [...]"

c. *yókɔh* *âyé·wiwęmaʔkwɔ́w*
yókɔh â-yé·wi-węmaʔkwɔ́-w
so.that 3S>CII-*fish*.POSSD-*drop*-PAST
"[...] so that she dropped it (the fish)"

A noun may also be incorporated when it exhibits one of two semantic roles, namely, the location or the instrument of a predicate. This is exemplified in (49a) and (49b). Note that a noun fulfilling these roles may also stay independent, if the speaker wants to emphasize on it (cf. example (25)).

(49) a. *âtyo·hxwɻ́·stǝnyɔ·su*
â-tyo·h-xwɻ́·s-'t-nyɔ·s-w
3S>CII-*head-knife-be.separated-cut*-PAST
"They scalped the skull"

b. *owene·węmɔmpánáw*
o-wene·wę-mɔmpá-n-áw
1Pi-*shore*.POSSD-*eat*-ANTIP-PROG
"We are eating at the shore"

Lastly, the speaker may rely on individual judgment whether to incorporate a noun. If said noun is low on animacy, saliency and agentivity scales, it may be optionally incorporated. If a noun is too phonologically complex, instead of using the equally complex possessed form, category incorporation may occur, as showcased in example (50). Note that in this case, phonological complexity is most often based on the speaker's judgment; therefore, one speaker might deem a noun worthy of category incorporation, while another might incorporate it normally.

(50) *pwę́* *îka·yɔkɔ́* *ítôtwɔ·hxwę̂·stənyɔ·su*
pwę́ îka·yɔ-kɔ́ ítô-twɔ·h-xwę́·s-'t-nyɔ·s-w
2S/A *face*.III-C 3S>CIV-*body.part-knife-be.separated-cut*-PAST
"You$_d$ separated his face (from his head) with a knife"

This concludes the discussion of noun incorporation in Awiha.

4.2.4 Preverbs

There is a closed class of prefixes that appear in a directly preverbal position. Those prefixes all express meanings related to spatial orientation and direction. A full list of preverbs is given in table 13 below.

Preverb form	Meaning
-ą-	'be upright, stand upright'
-we-	'on the ground, flat'
-s-	'leaning onto sth., stable'
-íθ-	'instable, not quite fitting, *rare:* balanced'
-m-	'be prominent, stick out'
-h-	'be contained, be structured'
-'t-	'be separated, be not together'

Table 13: List of preverbs

Some examples for the usage of preverbs are given in (51) below.

(51) a. *kyǫ́?* *ąwętwɔ́k?áwu*
kyǫ́? ∅-ą-wętwɔ́k?i-áw-w
rock.IV 3S>SII-*be.upright-put.down*-PAST-PASS
"The rock was put down so that it stood upright"

b. *êswepá·xsa·mêθi*
ês-we-pá·xsa·mêθ-y
2SI-*on.the.ground-crouch*-PROG
"You're crouching on the floor"

This concludes the discussion of preverbs in the Awiha language.

4.2.5 T/A markers I

In this section I will consider the first tense/aspect slot and its morphemes. This first suffix slot may be filled by one of three markers, each of which having three forms depending on the syntactic properties of the verb. Table 14 presents the markers that may appear in this slot.

	Independent	Conjunct	Inverse
Present	-∅-	*-ɻ-*	*-áh-*
Past	*-w-*	*-ɻm-*	*-áw-*
Future	*-e:-*	*-ę-*	*-é:-*

Table 14: T/A markers I

Some notes on the usage of the different forms. The independent forms are the default ones, being used in independent clauses and imperatives. The conjunct forms are used in non-relative subordinate clauses, as well as in interrogative clauses. The inverse order is used whenever a valency-modifying suffix appears in slot 3 of the verb stratum (cf. section **??**). If a verb qualifies for both the inverse and the conjunct modes being used, the inverse is used. Some examples of the different forms appearing in different contexts are given in example (52).

(52) a. *yá·ʔ* *múkyǫ́·hmęhkɻ*
yá·ʔ mú-kyǫ́·h-męhkɻ-∅
3O 1S>SII-*rock*.POSSD-*hit*-PRES
"I hit him with a rock"

b. *...=kɔ* *yá·ʔ* *múkyǫ́·hmęhkɻ:*
...=kɔ yá·ʔ mú-kyǫ́·h-męhkɻ-ɻ̲
=*but*.SS 3O 1S>SII-*rock*.POSSD-*hit*-PRES
"[...] but I hit him with a rock"

c. *ya·w* *múkyǫ́·hmęhkɻ́hw*
ya·w mú-kyǫ́·h-męhkɻ-áh-w
3S/A 1S>SII-*rock*.POSSD-*hit*-PRES-PASS
"He was hit by a rock (that I threw at him)"

Now onto the semantics of tense marking in Awiha. The present tense is mainly used for gnomic statements, actions that happened just now or up to an hour prior to the speech time, as well as events that will (probably) happen up to an hour following speech time.
The past tense is used for events that have occurred prior to one hour before speech time. This includes most mythological stories, and past events in casual conversation. The past tense may also be used in narratives.
The future tense is employed when an event is described as taking place at any time after the speech time. This includes probable events as in example (53a), as well as events that will definitely happen in the future, as in (53b).

(53) a. *uxwê:*
u-xwɔ́-∅-e:
1Si-*sick*-*be*-FUT
“I will (probably) be sick (tomorrow)”

b. *i·sę́:*
∅-i·są́-e:
3Si-*die*-FUT
“She will die some day”

As mentioned above, contexts like in (53b) may also be expressed by using the present tense in its gnomic meaning. This is showcased in (54).

(54) *i·są́*
∅-i·są́-∅
3Si-*die*-PRES
“One dies (at some point)”

This concludes the discussion of the first suffix slot.

4.2.6 Negation

In this section I will consider the two suffixes that may appear in the second suffix slot. As with the T/A markers, those morphemes also have different variants depending on whether the verb is used in an independent clause, in a dependent clause or whether a valency-modifying marker is present. Table 15 presents the negation markers.

	Independent	Conjunct	Inverse
Negative (NEG)	*-m-*	*-įn-*	*-áhm-*
Negative agent (NEG.AGENT)	*-hw-*	*-ęhm-*	*-áhk-*

Table 15: Negation markers

The negative marker may be used to negate an entire predicate, as in example (55).

(55) *ésę́nθiʔyum*
és-sę́nθiʔy-w-m
2Di-*watch.out*-PAST-NEG
“You two aren’t alert (even though you should be!)”

The negative agent markes introduces a negated S/A-like argument to a predicate. It does not negate an already existing subject, but rather takes the role of a negative pronoun, as exemplified in (56). This marker acts like a third person complementary nominal, and requires the according person agreement prefixes.

(56) *túʔw* *âʔiwę́mʔihęhmįyę*
túʔw â-ʔiwę́mʔi-ęhm-įy-ę
1O 3C>Sii-*look.at*-NEG.AGENT-PROG-INTRG
“Is nobody looking at me?”

This concludes the discussion of negation in the Awiha language.

4.2.7 Valency-modifying markers

In this section I will consider the different markers that appear in suffix slot 3 of the verb stratum. Those morphemes are all concerned with valency-modifying processes. In the following I will go through each of the suffixes and showcase their semantics and behaviour.

Passive *-w-* The passive marker *-w-* derives an intransitive clause from a transitive one, however it may not be called a 'prototypical' passive, as there are some differences between this syntactic notion and the behaviour of the marker in Awiha. The passive marker requires the inverse variants for all T/A and negation morphemes, and can be applied to any transitive predicate. When *-w-* is present within the verb stratum, the O of the underlying transitive clause turns into the S of the surface intransitive clause. However, this only affects dependent marking; the person agreement on the verb remains unchanged. Since only pronouns have distinct S/A and O forms, and bare nominals don't, with the latter, the passive marker is the only indicating factor that the clause is indeed intransitive.[15] Some examples for transitive clauses and their passivized intransitive counterparts are given in (57) and (58). Note that the underlying A may either be omitted, or be marked by the locational marker *-aʔw*.

(57) a. *yáʔ* *múkyǫ́hmęhkį̀w*
yáʔ mú-kyǫ́h-męhkį-w
3O 1S>SII-*rock*.POSSD-*hit*-PAST
"I hit him with a rock"

b. *yaw* *múkyǫ́hmęhkąwu*
yaw mú-kyǫ́h-męhkį-áw-w
3S/A 1S>SII-*rock*.POSSD-*hit*-PAST-PASS
"He was hit by a rock (that I threw)"

(58) a. *táhsáʔ* *múkyǫ́hmęhkį̀w*
táhsáʔ mú-kyǫ́h-męhkį-w
owner 1S>SII-*rock*.POSSD-*hit*-PAST
"I hit the owner with a rock"

b. *táhsáʔ* *múkyǫ́hmęhkąwu*
táhsáʔ mú-kyǫ́h-męhkį-áw-w
owner 1S>SII-*rock*.POSSD-*hit*-PAST-PASS
"The owner was hit by a rock (that I threw)"

The passive is most often used to emphasize that the O of the underlying transitive clause is contrastive information, *i.e.* that it is the focus of the clause.[16]

[15] More information on pronouns can be found in section 5.3.
[16] More information on information structure can be found in section ??.

Antipassive *-n-* The antipassive marker *-n-* again derives an intransitive clause from a transitive one; nevertheless, its functioning is very distinct from the passive discussed above. The antipassive, besides requiring inverse T/A and negation forms, transforms an underlying transitive clause into an intransitive one by converting the underlying A into the S of the intransitive clause. The underlying O cannot be stated, but is implied pragmatically. An example for a transitive clause and its derived antipassive correspondent is given in (59). Unlike the passive, the antipassive requires person agreement that is aligned with the surface argument structure; hence, the derived intransitive verb takes set I agreement markers.

(59) a. *áyáhí·θékɔ́* *túmɻmpáw*
á-yáhí·θé-kɔ́ tú-mɻmpá-w
2S>SII-*rice*.POSSD-C 1S>C-*eat*-PAST
"I ate your rice"

b. *umɻmpáwən*
u-mɻmpá-áw-n
1SI-*eat*-PAST-ANTIP
"I ate (something)"

The antipassive construction is often employed when the O of the underlying transitive clause is deemed unimportant enough to be dropped.

Causative *-kɻ-* The causative *-kɻ-* derives a transitive clause from an underlying intransitive one. It introduces a new A — the causer — to the clause's argument structure; the underlying S of the intransitive clause then transforms into the O of the newly formed transitive clause. Just with the antipassive, the person agreement prefixes adapt to this change of argument structure, and align with the surface A and O-like arguments. An example for an intransitive clause and its derived causative counterpart may be found in example (60) below.

(60) a. *kúmakɔ́* *ayɔtpɔx*
kúma-kɔ́ a-yɔtpɔx
fruit.II-C 3SI-*be.black*
"(This) fruit is black"

b. *kúmakɔ́* *túyɔtpɔxáhkɻ*
kúma-kɔ́ tú-yɔtpɔx-áh-kɻ
fruit.II-C 1S>CII-*be.black*-PRES-CAUS
"I turned (this) fruit black"

This concludes the discussion of valency-modifying markers in the Awiha language.

4.2.8 T/A markers II

In this section I will consider the second tense/aspect slot and its markers. This slot may be filled by one of two markers, which once again have three forms: the independent, conjunct and inverse forms.[17] Table 16 presents the morphemes of this slot.

[17] For the usage of the different forms, cf. section 4.2.5

	Independent	Conjunct	Inverse
Punctual	-∅-	*-nɨh-*	*-áht-*
Progressive	*-y-*	*-ɨy-*	*-áw-*

Table 16: T/A markers II

The punctual markers are used whenever an event is analyzed as having no further interior composition. It may also be called 'perfective', however I'm following Awihanist tradition by using the long-established term. The progressive markers are used whenever an event is seen as exhibiting further interior composition. It may express habitual, progressive or continuous semantics.[18]

4.2.9 Postverbal markers

The postverb slot may be filled by a variety of suffixes possessing a wide range of meanings and semantics. While these markers do not immediately follow the verb stem, they are named postverbal based on their location at the end of the inflected verb; only the switch-reference enclitics come after them. An overview of some postverbal markers is given in table 4.2.9.

Postverbal marker	Meaning
Interrogative	*-ę*
Imperative	*-kɔ:*
Obligative	*-ʔi*
Inceptive	*-w*
Abilitative	*-s*
Desiderative/conative	-V_a:
Dubitative	*-ahǫ́k*

Table 17: List of postverbal markers

I will now consider each entry's semantics and behaviour in the paragraphs below.

Interrogative *-ę* The interrogative *-ę* is used to denote that the predicate constitutes a question, whether it be a polar question or one with a wh-word. It requires the conjunct forms of negation and T/A suffixes. An example for a polar question is given in (3) above. An example for a wh-word question is given in (61) below.

(61) *tɔhs* *wení·wɨyę*
tɔhs we-ní·w-ɨy-ę̲
who 2S>CII-*talk.to*-PROG-INTRG
"Whom are you talking to?"

[18] For the sake of brevity, no examples for the punctual and progressive forms shall be listed here. The author considers the already existant examples in this grammar sketch to be sufficient for this purpose.

Imperative *-kɔ:* The imperative *-kɔ:* is used primarily to mark imperative and hortative clauses. When combined with a second person subject, this morpheme denotes a command; when it is a first person subject, the hortative sense is used: the speaker encourages an action. Lastly, with third person subjects it may also express the recommendation or slight obligation to act. This last meaning is less wide-spread and may only be observed in speech by the elder. The imperative meaning of *-kɔ:* is exemplified in (62), its hortative usage in (63) and its jussive meaning in (64).

(62) *ɛ́pa·xsəkɔ:*
ɛ́-pá·xs-kɔ:
2Pi-*go*-IMP
"Go away!"

(63) *osǫ́mɔmpê·hkɔ:*
o-sǫ́-mɔmpá-e:-n-kɔ:
1Pi-*first-eat*-FUT-ANTIP-IMP
"[So] let's go eat first!"

(64) *á·hskɔ:*
á·hs-kɔ:
smell-IMP
"She should smell (that)"

Obligative *-ʔi* The obligative marker *-ʔi* is similar to the jussive meaning of the imperative, as it is too used to express a sense of obligation, although a stronger one than with the jussive. An example for this is given in (65).

(65) *ês á·hsʔi*
ês-á·hs-ʔi
2Si-*smell*-OBLIG
"You$_s$ have to smell (that)"

Inceptive *-w* The inceptive may be used alongside with the progressive to express that an event has just started. When it co-occurs with a punctual marker, the sentence is considered semantically infelicitious. An example for the usage of the inceptive is given in (66).

(66) *yąsɔ́tɔ́saʔyáwəwáwu*
yą́-sɔ́tɔ́saʔy-áw-w-áw-w
3Pi-*lift*-PAST-PASS-PROG-INCEP
"[Then] they (the nettles) started growing[19]"

An example for the infelicitious usage of the inceptive is presented in (67).

(67) ?*nɛ́·máwáhtu*
nɛ́·m-áw-áht-w
see-PAST-PUNCT-INCEP
Intended: "He began seeing it"

[19] In this case, the expression 'lift-PASS' has been lexicalized to mean 'to grow, to age'. This newly innovated verb exhibits set I person agreement.

Abilitative *-s* The abilitative *-s* is used to express the subject's ability to act. As showcased in example (68), it may convey that the subject is physically able to act. In (69), the subject possesses the know-how to act, but is physically incapable thereof. Still, the abilitative is employed.

(68) *épéxəs*
∅-épéx-s
3Si-*run*-ABIL
"He (the toddler) is able to run"

(69) *kwokʔis*
∅-kwokʔi-s
3Si-*paint*-ABIL
"He knows how to paint (but he can't, for his arm is broken)"

Desiderative/conative -V$_a$: WiP

Dubitative *-ahǫ́k* The dubitative *-ahǫ́k* is used to convey the speaker's doubt regarding the event described. It is often accompanied by the phrase *múhęhsǫm kwohwǫ* '[but] I do not know the truth', which intensifies the sense of doubt. An example for the dubitative's usage is given in (70).

(70) a. *éskwɔ̂tnahǫ́k*
és-kwɔ̂t-n-ahǫ́k
2Si-*hear*-ANTIP-DUBIT
"I doubt you (can) hear anything"

b.

éskwɔ̂tnahǫ́kxɔ	*múhęhsǫm*	*kwohwǫ*
és-kwɔ̂t-n-ahǫ́k=xɔ	mú-ęhsǫ-m	kwohwǫ
2Si-*hear*-ANTIP-DUBIT=*but*.DS	1S>Sii-*know*-NEG	*truth*.IV

"I really doubt you (can) hear anything"

4.2.10 Switch-reference markers and conjunctions

There are 8 conjunctions that can be cliticized onto the verb stem; they all appear at the very end of the verb stratum in slot 6. Six of the eight conjunctions are also switch-reference markers. An overview of conjunctions is given in table 18.

Form	Gloss
=nąs	while.DS
=yóh	while.SS
=xɔ	but.DS
=kɔ	but.SS
=kyá	so.DS
=nahá	so.SS
=θú	when
=pɔ	then

Table 18: List of conjunctions

The same-subject (SS) forms are used whenever the S/A of the dependent clause is co-referential with the S/A of the matrix clause. The different-subject (DS) forms are used whenever these are not the same. WiP

4.3 Conclusion

In the preceding section I have considered the Awiha verb. I have discussed verb stems, as well as verbal morphology. Regarding the latter, I have presented the language's personal markers, incorporation, preverbs and tense-aspect suffixes. Then I moved on and considered the nature of negation and valency-modifying suffixes. Lastly I have showcased postverbs and conjunction markers.

5 Other parts of speech

In this section I will discuss other parts of speech that are neither nominal nor verbal. Adjectives are presented in section 5.1, and adverbs in section 5.2. Lastly I will discuss pronouns in section 5.3 and particles in section 5.4.

5.1 Adjectives

Attributive adjectives follow the noun they describe. They may also be incorporated (cf. section 4.2.2). Predicative adjectives may be either formed via templatic derivation (for inanimate subjects) or can be incorporated into the null copula (for animate subjects).

5.2 Adverbs

Adverbs may appear at any position within the clause. They can also be incorporated (cf. section 4.2.2).

5.3 Pronouns

In Awiha, pronouns are exclusively used to disambiguate in contexts where an argument is not clearly defined by personal markers. Table 19 showcases the langauge's pronouns.

	S/A	O	OBL
1	*tú·h*	*túʔw*	*tux*
2	*pwé̱*	*pwé̱ʔ*	*sé·h*
3	*ya·w*	*yá·ʔ*	*yá-x*

Table 19: Pronouns

The S/A forms are used for purposes of emphasis and for disambiguation in constructions using set IV personal markers. The O forms are used in transitive constructions with no overt O argument to disambiguate and to determine person. Furthermore it is used with *-hw* NOM.TOPIC in all cases when a pronoun is marked as the topic. In that context, *yá·ʔhu* may also mean 'about that, as for that, regarding that'. The OBL forms are used when a pronoun fulfills the role of a peripheral argument. This is mostly the case whenever a pronoun replaces a noun marked by one of the two directional-locational oblique cases.

5.4 Particles

WiP

6 Syntax

In the following section I will examine the characteristics of clauses in the *Ɔwíʔyixa* languages.

6.1 Independent clauses

WiP

6.2 Embedded clauses

6.2.1 Complement clauses

To form a complement clause, the verb of the dependent clause is nominalized using *ɔ-*. Regarding person agreement, the nominalized verb is seen as possessing complementary number; hence, the according personal markers are employed. An example for this is given in (17).

6.2.2 Relative clauses

Relative clauses are formed by either the general nominalizer *ɔ-* or the relativizer *-én*. While the former is used for headless relative clauses (as in example 18), *-én* is used for all other types of relative clauses.

6.3 Information structure

WiP

Glossing Abbreviations

1	First person	**IV**	Plural class IV
2	Second person	**LOC**	Locational
3	Third person	**LOCAT**	Location-denoting
ABIL	Abilitative	**N**	Noun
ADJ	Adjective	**NEG**	Negation
AGENT	Agent-denoting	**NEG.AGENT**	Negated agent
ANTIP	Antipassive	**NMLZ**	Nominalizer
AUG	Augmentative	**NOM.TOPIC**	Nominal topic
C	Complementary number	**NP**	Noun phrase
CAUS	Causative	**O**	O case
D	Dual	**OBL**	Oblique case
DESID	Desiderative	**OBLIG**	Obligative
DIM	Diminutive	**OBV**	Obviate
DIR	Directional	**P**	Plural
DS	Different-subject	**PASS**	Passive
DUBIT	Dubitative	**PAST**	Past
EP	Epenthesized vowel	**PATIENT**	Patient-denoting
FUT	Future	**PEJ**	Pejorative
I	Plural class I	**POSSD**	Possessed
II	Plural class II	**PRES**	Present
III	Plural class III	**PROG**	Progressive
IMP	Imperative	**PUNCT**	Punctual
INAN	Inanimate	**REFL**	Reflexive
INCEP	Inceptive	**REL**	Relativizer
INSTR	Instrument-denoting	**S**	Singular
INT	Intensifier	**S/A**	S/A case
INTRG	Interrogative	**SS**	Same-subject

A Dictionary

á·hs [á:hs] *v·ia.*

1. to smell like ADJ, to smell like N
2. to emit a noticeable smell

From *-á:-* 'smell, taste *etc.*'; derivatives include *sá·hsʔy* 'to smell good' and *á·hsę̂·θ* 'to smell bad'.

á·hsę̂·θ [á:hsə̂̃:θ] *v·ia.*

1. to smell bad, to stink
2. to be venomous, to be a bad influence
3. to rot (animals or humans)

Derived from *á·hs* ‘to smell’ via *-ę̂·θ*.

ákį: [ákĩː] *n/a.*

1 there is, there are; it exists;
2 *used by the elderly:* to wait (itr.)

ąmąh [ãmãh] *v·ti.*

1 to deem sth. ADJ, to think sth. is ADJ
2 to have a strong opinion about sth.

Derivations include *ąmąhę̂·θ* ‘to disapprove’ and *sąmąhʔy* ‘to approve’.

ąmąhę̂·θ [ãmãhe̊̂ːθ] *v·ti.*

1 to deem sth. bad, to disapprove of sth.
2 +ANTIP*:* to be foul (inan.), to be mischievous

Derived from *ąmąh* ‘to deem’ via *-ę̂·θ*.

anɔ́·θ [anɔ̋ːθ] *n·I.* POSSD *-anɔ́·yǫ-*

1 mother, caregiver, parent (synonym with *nɔ́xa* ‘mother’)
2 aunt, godmother
3 maternal relative, mother-in-law
4 female (of an animal), mother (of an animal)

ą́·nθ [ą̋ːnθ(V)] *v·ia.*

1 to feel ADJ, to feel like N
2 to have a distinct texture, to be smooth
3 to have a complex personality, to have anger issues

From *-ą́ː-* ‘touch, burn *etc.*’.

ęhsǫ [ẽhsõ] *v·ia/compl/ti.*

1 to know sth., to be certain about the nature of sth.
2 to think that, to know that
3 to learn, to study

háwę́mʔi [háwe̋́mʼi] *v·ti.*

1 to see sth. that is behind, that is hidden
2 to search for sth., to look for sth.

Derived from *wę́mʔi* ‘to see’ via *há-*.

heʔ [heʔ] *n·I.* POSSD *he·h*

1 wife, female partner, long-term girlfriend
2 (young) woman, female teenager

hɔpá·xs [hɔpáːʃ(V)] *v·ia.*

1 to hike to N-DIR, to walk to N-DIR
2 to go to N-DIR

From *pá·xs* 'to go' via *hɔ́-*; unexpected loss of high tone, possibly dissimilation.

hwɔm [ʌɔm] *n·IV.* POSSD *hwǫ·hǫ*

1 spouse, partner; (long-term) boyfriend, girlfriend
2 relationship, marriage

keʔ [keʔ] *adj.*

1 new, young, fresh
2 raw, bloody; *referring to meat with tendons*
3 clean, pure

kǫko: [kɔ̃ko:] *v·ti.*

1 to rule sth., to lead sth. (a group)
2 to be the first at sth. (a race), to be very good at sth.
3 to own sth., to hold sth.

Derivations include *kǫko·we* 'leader' and *kǫko·y* 'tribe'.

kǫko·we [kɔ̃ko:we] *n·I.* POSSD *kɔ́no·hw*

1 leader (of a group), ruler, chief (of a tribe)
2 the first one (of a selected few), the primary one

Derived from *kǫko:* 'to rule' via *-we*.

kǫko·y [kɔ̃ko:j] *n·IV.* POSSD *kɔ́no·hy*

1 "that which is ruled", dominion, territory
2 tribe, tribal system; *by extension:* democracy

Derived from *kǫko:* 'to rule' via *-y*.

kwohwǫ [koʌõ] *n·IV.*

1 truth, "that which is correct"

Derivations include *múhęhsǫm kwohwǫ* 'I do not know the truth'; cf. *ęhsǫ* 'know' and section 4.2.9.

kwɔ̂t [kɔ̂t] *v·ti.*

1 to hear sth., to understand sth.
2 to listen to sth. (a sound)
3 to sing
4 *by zero derivation, rare:* ear

Derivations include *kwɔ̂tyi* 'what is heard'.

kwɔ̂tyi [kɔ̂tji] *n·iv.*

1 "that which is heard", "that which can be perceived"

2 news, message

Derived from *kwɔ̂t* 'to hear' via *-y(i)*.

nɔ́xa [nɔ́xa] *n·I.* POSSD *nɔ́·hx*

1 mother, one who breastfeeds, one who gives birth (synonym with *anɻ́·θ* 'mother')
2 origin, source (of an animal or a human)
3 old woman, grandmother

nyɔ·s [njɔːs] *v·ti.*

1 to cut sth., to separate sth.
2 to destroy sth., to obliterate sth.
3 +ANTIP*:* to cover the tracks, to travel incognito

nʔé [n'é] *adj.*

1 two, second; secondary, unimportant
2 other, another

oh [oh] *adv.*

1 allegedly, supposedly (in narratives)
2 *rare:* in my opinion, to be honest

on [on] *adj.*

1 all, every single (one); each, many
2 +1PL*:* inclusive marker

pá·xs [pá:ʃ(V)] *v·ia.*

1 to go (away), to run away
2 to walk, to go slowly
3 to go on a walk, to stretch one's legs

Derivations include *pá·xsa·mêθ* 'to crouch' and *hɔpá·xs* 'to go to'.

pá·xsa·mêθ [pá:ʃaːmêθ] *v·ia.*

1 to crouch, to go very slowly
2 to crawl on all fours, to scuttle, to scrabble
3 to sneak around; *by extension:* to stick one's nose in other people's business
4 to be subordinate, to prostrate

Derived from *pá·xs* 'to go' via *-mêθ*.

sá·hsʔy [sáːhs'j(V)] *v·ia.*

1 to smell good
2 to be likeable, to be a nice person
3 to be ready to be hunted (with respect to animals)

Derived from *á·hs* 'to smell'.

sąmąhʔy [sãmãhʔj(V)] *v·ti.*

1 to deem sth. good or necessary; to approve of sth.
2 +ANTIP*:* to be welcoming, to be nice to guests, to be likeable

Derived from *ąmąh* 'to deem' via *s-...-ʔy*.

sápí: [sápí:] *v·ia/compl.*

1 to say that
2 to explain sth., to inform about sth.

Derivations include *-sé·h-sápí:* 'to tell a story', cf. *séʔ* 'story'.

-sé·h-sápí: [sé:hsápí:] *v·ia.*

1 to tell a story (to N-DIR)
2 to engage in a conversation with N-DIR

From *sápí:* 'to say' and *séʔ* 'story'.

séʔ [séʔ] *n·IV.* POSSD *sé·h*

1 story, narrative (of sth. that has happened)
2 tale, narrative (of sth. that has not happened)
3 lifespan, evolution

θéʔ [θéʔ] *n·I.* POSSD *θé·h*

1 old man, grandfather, wise man
2 shaman, chief
3 leader (of a group), *by extension:* pack leader (animals)

wę́mʔi [wḗm'i] *v·ti.*

1 to see sth., to understand sth.
2 to watch sth. (an event)

Derivations include *háwę́mʔi* 'to search' and *ʔiwę́mʔi* 'to look at'.

ʔiwę́mʔi [ʔiwḗm'i] *v·ti.*

1 to look at sth., to take a look at sth.
2 to examine sth., to carefully study sth.

Derived from *wę́mʔi* 'to see' via *ʔi-*; unexpected loss of high tone, cf. *hɔpá·xs* 'to go to'.