Dedicated to G.D., J.K., P.A., T.F., C.L., and many others

Hapi

a constructed language by u/tryddle

a reference grammar

May 2020

Version: 0.1

Date: 8 March, 2021

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Abbreviations

1 + 2	first person plural inclusive
1 + 3	first person plural exclusive
1PPOS	first person plural possessive
1S	first person singular
1SPOS	first person singular possessive
2/3	second/third person
2HPOS	second person singular honorific possessive
2S	second person singular
2SPOS	second person singular possessive
3P	third person plural
3PPOS	third person plural possessive
3S	third person singular
3SF	third person singular female
3SM	third person singular male
3SN	third person singular neuter
3SPOS	third person singular possessive
1	first person
3	third person

4	fourth person
ABS	absolutive
AG	agent
ANTIP	antipassive
AUG1	augmentative 1
AUG2	augmentative 2
AUX	auxiliary
BELOW	'below' case
C	complementizer
CL	classifier
CNGR	congruent
COP	copula
DAT	dative
DECL	declarative
DEM	demonstrative
DEM:DIST	distal demonstrative
DEM:PROX	proximal demonstrative
DEP	dependent
DET	determiner
DIM	diminutive
DPAST1	distant past
DPAST2	remote past
ERG	ergative
FUT	future
HORT	hortative

INFER	inferred
INSTR	instrument
LINK	linking particle
LOC	locative
NEC	necessity modal
NEG	negative
NEXT.TO	'next to' case
NVIS	non-visual
ON.TOP	'on top' case
PASS	passive
PAST2	secondary past
PAT	patient
PERF	perfective aspect
PERL	perlative
PL	plural
PRIV	privative
PROG	progressive
PROX	proximal
Q	interrogative mode
QUOT	quotative
R	reduplication
RPAST1	recent past
RPAST2	intermediate past
SEMBL	semblative
SEQ	sequential

SG	singular
SUBJ	subject
VIS	visual

1 Introduction

This preliminary reference grammar is the product of the attempt at documenting the Hapi language, a constructed language made by me, u/tryddle. In my just over 2 ½ years of conlanging, I've learned much, but not only because of my own ability to insert information into my brain, but also because of many people that have supported and helped me on the way. Without them, and most probably without you, the interested reader, this whole language would probably not exist. When I first discovered conlanging as an art form in late 2017, I was interested — immediately. Thanks to Artifexian[1] and his youtube channel, as well as Mark Rosenfelder and his amazing book 'The Language Construction Kit', I was introduced into the rabbit hole of linguistics, more specifically the rabbit hole of language construction. The goal of this document is not only to document the Hapi language in all of its complexity, but also to document a language only using the markdown language LaTeX; a challenge which I've failed to achieve so many times before. But now onto the most important part of this introduction. Obviously I want to thank many people who have helped me on this journey. Primarily, I especially thank Gordon Daws, Jacob Kronenberg, Paul Daly, Tobias Fernandez and Carl Leon, to whom this reference grammar is dedicated. They have supported me in so many ways, not all concerning

[1] https://www.youtube.com/user/Artifexian

conlanging, that it would have been heresy to not include them in these acknowledgements. Special thanks to Akam Chijir, who has helped me in many ways while I was battling the uncanny complexity of LaTeX.

2 Background of the study

The following study was conducted during my three-year stay in the Kanangan rainforest, more specifically in Hapi territory. During this time, I learned a lot about the Hapi language and its people. In this chapter, I shall consider the background of this study, explaining some cultural background, as well as some typological characteristics. In section 2.1 I will discuss the nomenclature of the language's name, starting with the term 'Hapi', and then moving onward to several terms of self-reference, as well as exonymic terms of reference. In section 2.2 I will present the origins and the historical distribution of the Hapi language, as well as give some insight into the family5 language family. Then, in section 2.3 I will discuss some previous research that has been conducted on the language. In section 2.4 I will consider a quick typological overview of the language, to give the reader an insight what is about to be discussed. After a quick language vitality assessment in section 2.5, I will give an overview of the present study, presenting its content in a compact manner. The Hapi language is spoken by around 250 people in the Kanangan rainforest, near the Palhen tributary of the Kanang river. They live in huts called the *koí* and each village consists of 20-40 people. Women and men live separately, the woman with their children and female teens and the men with the male teens. They worship multiple dieties or spirits, with most of them taking on the form of animals or

geographical landmarks. Further ethnographical studies have to be conducted on the culture of the Hapi people, and I encourage every reading ethnologist to help making progress in the documentation of these people.

2.1 Nomenclature

2.1.1 The Term 'Hapi'

The term 'Hapi' is only an exonymic term of reference given to the Hapi people and their language by the Yamonari people, which derives from the term *hap-i* in Yamarri, the language of the Yamonarï, which approximately can be translated to the meaning 'needle people'. This is most probably a reference to the cosmetic needles and piercings the Hapi often insert into their noses, lips and ears to depict prosperity and/or wealth. The Yamonari and the Hapi people are two adjacent people which have interacted with each other several times, but generally live very separated and isolated, as they are the only tribes in the region of the Palhen river. The first appearance of the term 'Hapi' was in the Ataman encyclopedia *ndéke7undu*, where the ethnicity is described as "a peaceful tribe living in the midst of the forest known as the forest of *kámgá7*".[1]

[1] A term coined by the Ataman geographers meaning 'large forest'.

2.1.2 Terms of self-reference and ethnic diversity

2.2 Origins and classification

2.3 Previous research

2.4 Typological characteristics

2.5 Language vitality assessment

2.6 The present study

3 Phonology

In this chapter, I will concentrate on the phonological aspects of Hapi, and present the main features of its phonology. In section 3.1.1, I will focus on the language's consonants, section 3.1.2 discusses vowels, section 3.1.3 gives the phonetic description of these phonemes and section 3.1.5 focuses on the allophony of these sounds. After that, we will discuss the non-segmental phonology of Hapi, starting with the stress assignment system in section 3.2, then in section 3.3, we will discuss the phonotactics and syllable structure, and finally concluding with the tonal system of Hapi. Throughout this chapter, examples are given, first in phonological transcription, and then in phonetic and orthographic transcriptions. Examples are presented in both the International Phonetic Alphabet (IPA) and the tentative Hapi orthographic system.

3.1 Segmental Phonology

In this section, I will present the language's phonemes, including its consonants and vowels, and their phonotactic distribution within the syllable. Furthermore I will give a list of minimal pairs for both consonants and vowels.

3.1.1 Consonants

In this section, I will present the language's consonant phonemes. There are 6 consonant phonemes in the Hapi language. Table 3.1 presents the consonant sounds, while table 3.2 depicts those sounds in the tentative Hapi orthography.

	Peripheral	Alveolar	Non-Alveolar
Stop	p∼b	t∼r	k∼g
Fricative	h	s∼ts	ʃ∼ʂ∼χ

Table 3.1: Consonant phonemes

	Peripheral	Alveolar	Non-Alveolar
Stop	p	t	k
Fricative	h	s	x

Table 3.2: Tentative consonant orthography

3.1.2 Vowels

In this section I will showcase the Hapi language's vowels. There are three phonemic vowels, which is significantly less than of most adjacent languages. Table 3.3 gives an overview of these sounds, while table 3.4 presents the tentative Hapi orthography of these sounds. Each vowel may also take one of three tones; this will be discussed in section 3.4

	Front	Back
High	i	o
Low	a	

Table 3.3: Vowel phonemes

	Front	Back
High	i	o
Low	a	

Table 3.4: Tentative vowel orthography

3.1.3 Phonetic description of phonemes

3.1.3.1 Consonants

In this section I will consider the phonetic description of consonants in Hapi. Allophonic variations are discussed in section 3.1.5. All consonants may appear in word-intial and in word-medial position. Since all syllables in the language are open[1], there is no restriction on where a consonant segment may be placed. In the following section, examples for each position and each consonant will be given.

/p∼b/ is a voiceless or voiced bilabial stop. It is pronounced as /b/ by most children and women, while it is pronounced /p/ by most men and the elderly. It appears in both word-initial and word-medial position. Henceforth it will be standardized to /p/.

(3.1) /pàah/ [pʰaːʔɻ] *pàah* 'small river'

/ʂopàì/ [ʂo˧paɻ̩˩] *xopàì* 'rotten wood'

/t∼r/ is a voiceless alveolar stop or a voiced alveolar trill. It is pronounced as /r/ by most children and women, while it is pronounced /t/ by most men and the

[1]Note that the onset may be filled by /h/, in which case either the subsequent segment is preaspirated, or it is debuccalized to /ʔ/. Thus, most if not all syllables can be analyzed as being open.

elderly. It appears in both word-initial and word-medial position. Henceforth it will be standardized to /t/.

(3.2) /táosiiʂó/ [tʰaǫˀʃiː˧hoˀ] *táosiihó* ‘male cousin’
/hótahóoi/ [hoˀta˧oːˀi˧] *hótahóoi* ‘black iguana’

/k∼g/ is a voiceless or voiced velar stop. It is pronounced as /g/ by most children and women, while it is pronounced /k/ by most men and the elderly. It appears in both word-initial and word-medial position. Henceforth it will be standardized to /k/.

(3.3) // [] ‘’
// [] ‘’

/h/ is a voiceless glottal fricative. It appears in word-initial and word-medial position.

(3.4) // [] ‘’
// [] ‘’

/s∼ts/ is a voiceless alveolar fricative or affricate. It is pronounced as /s/ by most children and women, while it is pronounced /ts/ by most men and the elderly, especially in emphasized speech. It appears in both word-intial and word-medial position. Henceforth it will be standardized to /s/.

(3.5) // [] ‘’
// [] ‘’

/ʃ~ʂ~χ/ is a voiceless alveolar or retroflex or uvular fricative. It is pronounced as /ʃ/ by most children, as /ʂ/ by most women and the elderly, and as /χ/ by men and in emphasized speech. It is sometimes debuccalized to /h/ in rapid speech. It appears in world-initial and word-medial position. Henceforth, it will be standardized to /ʂ/

(3.6) // [] ‘’

// [] ‘’

3.1.3.2 Vowels

In this section I will consider the phonetic description of consonants in Hapi. Vowels may appear in the nucleus of a syllable as short vowel, as long vowel or as a glide.[2] In the following section, examples for each appearance of each vowel will be given.

/i/ is a high front unrounded vowel. It may appear as short or long vowel, or as a glide.

(3.7) // [] ‘’

// [] ‘’

// [] ‘’

/o/ is a close-mid back rounded vowel. It may appear as short or long vowel, or as a glide.

[2]This excludes /a/, since it never appears as a glide. Compare

/hoa/	[ho̯a]	*hoa*	3SG
/siikào/	[si:kao̯]	*siikào*	‘canoe’

This may be related to a diachronic approach where /o/ might have been /u/ in the past, changing its realizations slowly over the course of many years. If that was the case, a glide pair like /j w/ would have been very reasonable.

(3.8) // [] ‘’
// [] ‘’
// [] ‘’

/a/ is a low front unrounded vowel. It may appear as short or long vowel.

(3.9) // [] ‘’
// [] ‘’

3.1.4 List of Minimal Pairs

In the following section I will give a list of minimal pairs for both consonants and vowels.

3.1.4.1 Consonants

(3.10)	*háiki*	‘type of nut’	*haípi*	‘soup’
	kaxá	‘to eat’	*saxá*	CL:palm.tree.trunk
	paáti	‘bird’	*pahi*	‘bird’

3.1.4.2 Vowels

Firstly I will consider minimal pairs of vowel quality, then I will move onto vowel length minimal pairs and finally I will present tonal minimal pairs.

(3.11)	*hì*	CL:time	*hó*	‘man’s name’
	kahoa	‘to build’	*kahoó*	‘big tree’
	sáhaa	‘to be grateful’	*sahóó*	‘to carve’

(3.12)	*hì*	CL:time	*hó*	‘man’s name’
	kahoa	‘to build’	*kahoó*	‘big tree’
	sáhaa	‘to be grateful’	*sahóó*	‘to carve’

(3.13)	*hakó*	‘ago’	*hákoo*	‘NEC’
	hása	‘loincloth’	*hasáa*	‘to be the first’
	káhí	‘turtle’	*kahíí*	‘boat’

(3.14)	*hoi*	COP:LOC	*hói*	‘to give’
	hóika	‘to build’	*hóíka*	‘big tree’
	ii	‘when’	*íí*	3SN

3.1.5 Allophonic Variations

The following section discusses all phonological processes that alter the phonetic realizations of phonemes in a remarkable way. This does not include morphophonological changes.

3.1.5.1 Stop Allophony

1) /p/ is realized as [ç] before the high vowel /i/.

(3.15) $p \rightarrow ç \ / \ \_i$

2) /p/ is aspirated at the beginning of a word.

(3.16) $p \rightarrow p^h \ / \ \#\_$

3) /b/ is realized as [ʝ] or [ɟ] before /i/.

(3.17) $b \rightarrow ʝ, ɟ \; / \; \_i$

4) /b/ is devoiced at the beginning of a word.

(3.18) $b \rightarrow p \; / \; \#\_$

5) /t/ is aspirated at the beginning of a word.

(3.19) $t \rightarrow t^{h} \; / \; \#\_$

6) /r/ is devoiced at the beginning of a word.

(3.20) $r \rightarrow \underset{\circ}{r} \; / \; \#\_$

7) /k/ is strengthened to [kx] at the beginning of a word and in a stressed syllable.

(3.21) $k \rightarrow kx \; / \; \left\{ \begin{array}{c} \#\_ \\ \left[\begin{array}{c} +\text{stress} \end{array} \right] \end{array} \right.$

3.1.5.2 Fricative Allophony

8) /h/ is realized as [ç] before /i/.

(3.22) $h \rightarrow ç \; / \; \_i$

9) /h/ is elided between two distinct vowels.

(3.23) $h \rightarrow \varnothing \; / \; V\_V$

10) /h/ is realized as [ʔ] at the end of a word.

(3.24) $\text{h} \rightarrow \text{ʔ} \; / \; \begin{cases} \_\# \\ \textit{[h] elsewhere} \end{cases}$

11) /s/ is palatalized to [ʃ] before /i/.

(3.25) $\text{s} \rightarrow \text{ʃ} \; / \; \begin{cases} \_\text{i} \\ \textit{[s] elsewhere} \end{cases}$

12) /ʂ/ is debuccalized to /h/ in between two distinct vowels.

(3.26) $\text{ʂ} \rightarrow \text{h} \; / \; \begin{cases} \text{V}_1 \_ \text{V}_2 \\ \textit{[ʃ}\sim\textit{ʂ}\sim\textit{χ] elsewhere} \end{cases}$

3.1.6 Conclusion

In what has preceded, I have explained the segmental phonology of Hapi, starting with the consonant and vowel phonemes in section 3.1.1 and 3.1.2. Then I posited a phonetic description of these segments in 3.1.3, while presenting a list of minimal pairs in section 3.1.4. Finally, I have considered the allophonical processes that shape the phonetic realizations of phonological words. Thus, in the following sub-sections, stress, as well as syllable structure and tone, all three suprasegmental features of Hapi, will be discussed.

3.2 Stress

Stress in Hapi is very predictable, since it invariably falls on the penultimate syllable of the stem. As can be seen in examples (3.27) and (3.28), conjunct suffixation does not change the stress distribution, still yielding an expected stress pattern.

(3.27) /pàa.ʂo/ [ˈpaɻ.hoꜜ] *pàaxo* ‘tendon’
/pàa.ʂo.áh/ [ˈpaːɻ.hoꜜ.aʔ˥] *pàaxoáh* ‘a large tendon’

(3.28) /hó.sii/ [ˈho˥.ʃiːꜜ] *hósii* ‘son’
/hó.sii.ʂii/ [ˈho˥.ʃiːꜜ.hiːꜜ] *hósiixii* ‘grandson’

3.3 Syllable Structure and Phonotactics

In the following section I will consider the syllable structure of the Hapi language. The language accepts open syllables of the types V, CV, CVh, CVV and CVVh. Phonetically closed syllables are not attested. The syllable structure of Hapi is presented in (3.1), where τ stands for the contour tone of the syllable.

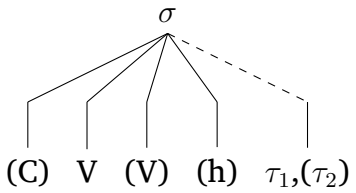

Figure 3.1: Syllable Structure

3.3.1 Types of syllable structure

In the following section I will give examples for each type of syllable in the Hapi language, of which there are five different types, namely: V, CV, CVh, CVV and CVVh. Firstly, the simplest of all possible syllables is V. (3.29) gives an example for this syllable type.

(3.29) /à/ [a˩] *à* LINK

This grammatical particle is depicted formally in figure (3.2).

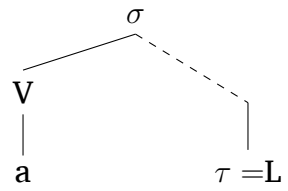

Figure 3.2: Syllable Structure: Example 1

Then, filling in the onset yields the next syllable type, CV. Example (3.30) is an example for this syllable type.

(3.30) */kó/* [ko˥] *kó* 3SM

The phonological form of this pronoun is depicted formally in figure 3.3

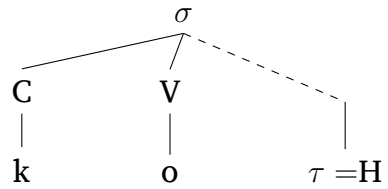

Figure 3.3: Syllable Structure: Example 2

We can now add another vowel to the nucleus, yielding a syllable of the type CVV and a new tone slot, as depicted in example (3.31) and figure 3.4.[3]

(3.31) */pói/* [poi̯ˀ] *pói* 2S

[3]Note that syllables of the type VV are also possible. The author has decided not to list this rarely occuring feature.

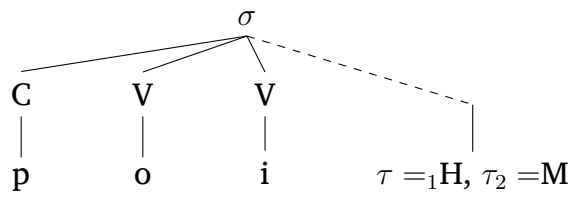

Figure 3.4: Syllable Structure: Example 3

Now onto the last two syllable types: by filling in the coda with /h/, the syllable becomes closed, as can be seen in examples (3.32) and (3.33) and in figures 3.5 and 3.6.

(3.32) /sóh/ [soh˥] *sóh* 'and, with'

(3.33) /ʂòih/ [ʂoi̯ʔˎ] *xòih* '(my) brother'

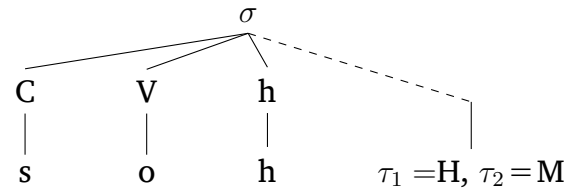

Figure 3.5: Syllable Structure: Example 4

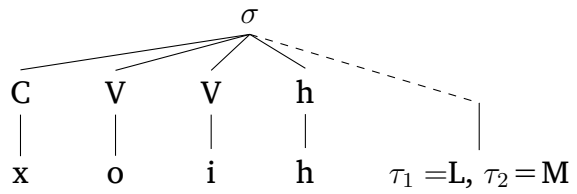

Figure 3.6: Syllable Structure: Example 5

3.4 Tone

In this section I will discuss the tonal system of Hapi. The language distinguishes three tones, the high tone, the neutral middle tone and the low tone. All tones may occur in any combination within the syllable and the phonological word. The tentative Hapi orthography marks tone using diacritics: the high tone is represented by the acute ◌́, the low tone is depicted by the grave diacritic ◌̀ and the middle tone is left unmarked. Examples (3.34 - 3.36) present instances of each tone.

(3.34) /káiʂo/ [kxaiˊ̰ʂo˧] *káixo* '(my) mother'

(3.35) /ʂapati/ [ʂa˧pa˧ti˧] *xapati* 'string (of a bow)'

(3.36) /tàhòhì/ [tʰa˩ho˩çi˩] *tàhòhì* 'poison (for a dart)'

Tones may also come as floating tone on certain morphemes, such as the adessive suffix *-(V̀)xa*. In these cases, the preceding vowel may take the floating tone, or the preceding tone gets overwritten, as can be seen in example (3.37).

(3.37) /táíʂo/ [taiˊ̰˥ʂo˧] *táíxo* 'stave'
/táíʂòʂa/ [taiˊ̰˥ʂo˩ʂa˧] *táíxòxa* 'stave (on top)'

3.5 Morphophonology

In this section I will consider various morphophonological processes that occur in the Hapi language. To start, I will clarify the terms of some morphophonological units such as the conjunct affix, the disjunct affix and the clitic in section

3.5.1. I will present some allomorphic variations in section 3.5.2 that apply to all morphemes with the required environment, then moving onward to discuss each morpheme that exhibits notable morphophonological changes towards its root in section 3.5.3. Doing that, I will begin with the plural marker PL, then moving on to the diminutive marker DIM in the sections 3.5.3.1 and 3.5.3.2. Afterwards, I will consider the morphophonology of the declarative disjunct suffix DECL in section 3.5.3.3.

3.5.1 Definitions of morphophonological Units

In the following section I will examine the definitions of the morphophonological units employed in the Hapi language, namely, the conjunct affix, the disjunct affix, the clitic and the particle.

3.5.1.1 Conjunct Affixes

In the Hapi language, those affixes are classified as conjunct affixes which do constitute a single phonological word unit with the stem and attach on stem-level. However, they do not change the stress distribution within the word, so that stress invariably falls on a syllable that belongs to the stem. In interlinear gloss, this type of morphemic juncture is denoted by '-', as can be inferred by example (3.38).

(3.38) **ˈtʰiːˌʃiˀaʔˀ**

tiisí - áh

amulet - AUG1

'*the/a big (i.e. mighty) amulet*'

3.5.1.2 Disjunct Affixes

While conjunct affixes attach to the stem and form a tight unit with it, disjunct affixes attach to the word unit on the word-level. However they're still more tightly bound to the phonological word as other words, as section 3.5.1.4 shows. They do not change stress, and do not form a morphophonological unit with the word, so that rules like for example the debuccalization of /h/ at the end of a word apply to the affix-stem unit. In interlinear gloss, this type of juncture is marked by '=', as can be seen in example (3.39).[4]

(3.39) **ha˧ˈtaːˀ˥çi?˧kǫ̱a˥˩**

ha - taápi - h = kóa

ANTIP - paint - 1 = DECL

'*(I) am painting (something)*'

3.5.1.3 Clitics

In Hapi grammar, clitics are morphemes which attach at phrase-level, i.e. cannot change stress but form a morphophonological unit with the word they attach to, whether it be the head or the dependent of a phrase. The clitic is marked by '==', and its usage is showcased in example (3.40).

[4]Note, that cross-linguistically, this sign is used to mark clitics; in this grammar however, '==' will be used to denote such phrase-level morphemes.

(3.40) **… ˈʃiːˋti˧to˧**

tàhòhí	-h	kàah	-xí	=kóa	síiti	-∅	==to	
poison	-ERG	kill	-RPAST1	=DECL	uakari	-ABS	==VIS	

‘*(Earlier today,) the poison (of a dart) killed an uakari monkey, I saw that*’

3.5.1.4 Distinction from Words and ʔ-Insertion

While the distinction word-clitic, or especially the difference between word and disjunct might appear shallow at first, upon further introspection into the phonological processes that appear on word boundaries, the difference might become clearer. The main process that plays a significant role in this is the so-called ʔ-Insertion on empty onsets. This is a process that exclusively applies on word-initial empty onsets, which are then filled with a glottal stop [ʔ]. In example (3.41), an example is given for **a)** glottal stop insertion, and **b)** a proof on how disjuncts are distinct from conjuncts, more specifically, how certain allophonic processes only occur within the phonological word. For the sake of simplicity, I will not transcribe tone in this example.

(3.41)

tàhopoí	**tóti**	**xàahaó**		**kaihatoo**
S	Adv	V	= Disj	Adv
tʰa.ˈo.poi̯	ˈtʰo.ti	χaː	= hao̯	kxai̯.ˈa.toː
tàhopoí	tóti	xàa	= haó	kaihatoo
1+2:AG	ready	COP	= S/A>A(SE)	now

póóihaó			**páikòih**			**kóhsa**	
[[V	-Aff]$_p$	=Disj]$_s$	[Aff-	N	-Aff]$_p$	N	-∅
p^{h}o:.i	-ʔ	=haǫ̱	p^{h}ai̯-	koi̯	-ʔ	kxoh.sa	-∅
póói	-h	=haó	pái-	kòi	-h	kóhsa	-∅
arrive	-1	=S/A>A(SE)	2HPOS-	house	-DAT	matter	-ABS

ítàahaká				**hìhohihákoo**	
[[Aff-	V	-Aff]$_p$	=Disj]$_s$	[Disj=	[V]$_p$]$_s$
ʔi-	ta:	-ha	=ka	çi.o.çi=	ˈso.to
í-	tàa	-a	=ká	hìhohi=	hákoo
Q-	AUX	-1	=DECL	delay=	should

‘*Being ready, arriving at your house, should we (still) delay the affair?*[5]’

Processes like k→kx, t→t^h and p→p^h, which are widely spread throughout the phonological realm, appear only near word-boundaries (namely, on the beginning of a word), and not on disjunct boundaries. An example is given in (3.42) and (3.43).

(3.42) **so.ˈsa:.i kxo**

so.ˈsa:.i kxo

sosáai kó

cat 3SM

‘*tomcat*’

[5]In this example []$_p$ indicates a phonological word, while []$_s$ denotes the disjunct-word unit.

(3.43) **çi.ˈki.ʃiʔ.kǫa**

çi - ˈki.ʃiʔ - ∅ = kǫa

hi - kísih - h = kóa

ANTIP - dislike - 1 = DECL

'*I dislike (it)*'

3.5.2 Allomorphic Variations

In this section I will discuss the basic parameters and morphophonological processes that apply to most, if not all bound morphemes in the Hapi language. The basic constraints or parameters of all bound morphemes are as follows.

3.5.2.1 Degemination of |h-h|

Every context |h-h| is degeminated to |h|. This context is formalized in (3.44) and exemplified in (3.45).

(3.44) h-h → h

(3.45)

sáái		**háikia**		**kaai**	**tà**	**hóahkóa**		
sáá	= í	háiki	- a	kaai	tà	hóah	- h	= kóa
eat	= S/A > S(SE)	type.of.nut	- PL	foul	1S:SUBJ	vomit	- 1	= DECL

'*After having eaten (some) foul nuts, I am (now) vomiting*'

3.5.2.2 Coalescence of morphemes in rapid speech

Certain morphemes are fused in rapid speech, however there haven't been made any observations about these coalescence patterns. An example is given in (3.46).

(3.46) **kaóxìihaíh** **kíih** **hóíaka** (rapid speech)

kaóxìiha	- íh	kíih	hóí	- a	= ka
teacher	- ERG	old	give	- 2/3	= DECL

xáháìh		**xíoki**
xáháìi	- h	xíooki
student	- DAT	gift

'*The old teacher gives a gift to a student*'

3.5.2.3 /h/-Insertion

In each context of the form |VV-V|, /h/ is inserted on the morpheme boundary. This process is schematized in (3.47) and exemplified in (3.48). In the context |V-VV| the same rule applies.

(3.47) VV-V $\rightarrow$ VVhV

(3.48) This section is work-in-progress

3.5.3 Morpheme-specific Processes

3.5.3.1 Debuccalization of the marker PL

The debuccalization of the abbreviated version of the plural marker PL, namely the morpheme *-s* is one of the most widely appearing processes in the Hapi language. The rule can be formalized as presented in (3.49). An instance of this process is exemplified in (3.50).

(3.49) s → h / _C

(3.50) **ókoíhtah**

ó- koí -s -tah

2SPOS- hut -PL -PERL

'*(we shall go) via your huts*'

3.5.3.2 The Diminutive marker DIM

The diminutive marker DIM undergoes two major processes: firstly, the deletion of the morpheme's onset, secondly, the dissimilation of the morpheme's nucleus. The deletion of the morpheme's onset, namely, of |ʂ|, appears in the context of a preceding /h/; this rule is formalized in (3.51), an example is given in (4.10), but shall be reiterated here.

(3.51) ʂ → ∅ / h_

(3.52) **hápaahii**

hápaah -xii

dog -DIM

'*the little dog*'

The dissimilation of the morpheme's nucleus happens in the context of an /i/ in the preceding syllable's nucleus. This rule is depicted in (3.53) and exemplified in (3.54).

(3.53) i: → o / i(h).C_

(3.54) **hósiixo**

hósii -xii

son -DIM

'*the/a grandson*'

3.5.3.3 Assimilation of the declarative affix DECL

The declarative disjunct affix DECL, *=kóa*, is often reduced to *=ká* or *=ka* after a syllable containing /a/. This context is formalized in (3.55) and an example is given in (3.56).

(3.55) kóa → ka,ká / a_

(3.56)

kó	**hásaaka**			**taahsáahi**	
kó	hásaa	-a	=kóa	taah	-sáahi
3SM:SUBJ	be.the.first	-2/3	=DECL	effort	-PRIV

'*He won (the race) without any effort*'

4 The Noun and the Noun Phrase

This chapter discusses the noun and the noun phrase in the Hapi language. In the first section of this chapter, I will present the nominal morphology of the language. I will start by considering the nominal root and the noun structure in section 4.1.1, then discussing gender marking in 4.1.2. I will move on and present the number marking, as well as diminutives and augmentatives in the sections 4.1.3, 4.1.4 and 4.1.5. In section 4.1.6 I will consider the language's possessive system, first covering possessable, and then unpossessable nouns. In section 4.1.7 I will discuss the Hapi case system in all its complexity. Moving onward onto section 4.2 I will consider the structure of the noun phrase and its components, starting with the order of the noun phrase elements in 4.2.1 and an overview of the Hapi pronoun system in section 4.2.2. After a comprehensive consideration of the language's classifier system in 4.2.3, I will lay out the different parts of the noun phrase in the sections 4.2.4, 4.2.5 and 4.2.6.

4.1 Nominal Morphology

The internal structure of Hapi nouns is examined in this section, focussing on the grammatical categories encoded by nominal morphology i.e. gender, number, diminutives, augmentatives, possession and case.

4.1.1 Nominal Root

The structural properties of the nominal root include a set of suffixes responsible for the expression of number, diminutives, augmentatives, and case, while a set of prefixes is used to express possession on possessable nouns. Nominal roots can be divided into two morphophonological subtypes, which take different prefixes depending on the first segment in the root. If **(i)** the root starts with a vowel, then a certain set of prefixes is used, and if **(ii)** the root starts with a consonantal sound, another set is employed.

4.1.1.1 Internal structure of nominal roots

In the following section I will consider the internal phonological structure of nominal roots, starting with the rare monosyllabic roots, then moving onward to the comparatively often found disyllabic, trisyllabic and polysyllabic, i.e. roots with more than four syllables, roots.

4.1.1.1.1 Monosyllabic roots

There is a set of *4* monosyllabic roots in the Hapi language, which are all considered to be very basic roots. There have been no reports of roots of the structure V or CV. Some examples for monosyllabic roots of the shape CVh, CVV and CVVh are given in example (4.1), (4.2) and (4.3).

(4.1) /ʂòih/ [ʂoi̯ʔʎ] *xòih* ‘(my) brother’

(4.2) /pí:/ [çi:˥] *píí* ‘major river’

(4.3) /kóih/ [kxoi̯ʔ˥] *kóih* ‘hideout’

4.1.1.1.2 Disyllabic roots

The majority of nominal roots in the Hapi language are disyllabic. In the analyzed corpus of *54* nominal roots, there were *27* disyllabic roots.

4.1.1.1.3 Trisyllabic and polysyllabic roots

There is a decent amount of tri- and polsyllabic nominal roots in the Hapi language. Trisyllabic roots are mostly of the shape CVV.CVV.CV, CV.CV.CVV, V.CV.CV(V) or CV.CV.CV. CV.CVV.CV and other roots rarely occur, presupposing there are any. Some examples for tri- and polysyllabic nominal roots are given in example (4.4).

(4.4) /hòkaapa/ [ho˩kxa:˧pa˧] *hòkaapa* ‘hunter’

4.1.1.2 Overview

An overview of the nominal stem structure of the Hapi language can be seen in table 4.1. In the first prefix slot, the possessive markers can be found, right before the root. Then, the augmentative and diminutive conjunct suffixes are placed right after the root. The case markers are located afterwards, only being interrupted by the number marker *-(so)a*.

-1			0	1	2	3	4
Possession			ROOT	Aug/Dim	Case	Number	Case
	#V	#C		AUG		PL	
1 SG	ń-	há-		-áh- / -aóh-		-(so)a	
1 PL		hi-		DIM	see Section 4.1.7		see Section 4.1.7
2 SG	ó-			-xii-			
2 PL	oh-	o-					
2 HON	pò-	pái-					
3 SG	k̀-	kì-					
3 PL	t̀-	tà-					

Table 4.1: Nominal Stem Structure

4.1.2 Gender

While gender is not explicitly marked on nouns, it can be denoted by using a noun and the respective third person female or male pronoun, namely *hoa* and *kó*, juxtaposing it after the inflected noun root, as can be seen in examples (4.5) and (4.6).

(4.5) hàòxa hoa
capybara 3SF
'*female capybara*'

(4.6) hàòxa kó
capybara 3SM
'*male capybara*'

4.1.3 Number

The Hapi language distinguishes two types of number marking on nouns, singular and plural, glossed as SG and PL respectively. While the singular is left unmarked, the plural is marked by the suffix *-(so)a*, as can be seen in examples (4.7) and (4.8). Instead of the full form *-soa*, the abbreviated form *-s* may be used, as exemplified in (4.9).[1]

(4.7) há- sáhpa -soa
1SPOS- arrow.head -PL
'*my arrowheads; my collection of arrowheads*'

[1] In this case the abbreviated plural marker *-s* is morphophonologically debuccalized to /h/.

(4.8) hóh -áh -a -óh
man -AUG1 -PL -ERG
'*(the) big men (had slain a snake...)*'

(4.9) ó- koí -s -tah
2SPOS- hut -PL -PERL
'*(we shall go) via your huts*'

4.1.4 Diminutives

To form a noun's diminutive form, the suffix *-xii* is used. It cannot only used be for simple diminutives as in (4.10), but also is employed derivationally for certain noun>noun processes; for example, it may be used for the derivation of 'grandson' from the word 'son', or can be used pejoratively to derive nouns that are connotated with a certain derogatory sense, as in (4.11) and (4.12).

(4.10) hápaah -xii
dog -DIM
'*the little dog*'

(4.11) pái- hósii -xii
2HPOS- son -DIM
'*your$_{HON}$ grandson*'

(4.12) páhsóoih -a -xii
bug -PL -DIM
'*those pesky little bugs!*'

4.1.5 Augmentatives

The augmentative form, which is marked by the suffix *-áh* AUG1, encodes augmentative semantics, as well as derives kinship terms in the opposite direction as the diminutive, i.e. *káixo* 'mother' > *káixoáh* 'grandmother', as exemplified in (4.13) and (4.14). It may also encode some sort of honorific sense of praising, as can be seen in example (4.15).

(4.13) táhaa -áh
barrel -AUG1
'*a big barrel*'

(4.14) kápihoo -áh
father -AUG1
'*(my) grandfather*'

(4.15) hahópìi -áh
sloth -AUG1
'*(Praise be!) The sloth god!*'

There is also the augmentative suffix *-aóh*, which may be employed in the same sense as *-áh* AUG1. (4.16) gives an example for an augmentative using the second augmentative suffix.

(4.16) ahitáh -aóh
iguana -AUG2
'*a huge iguana*'

The two augmentative suffixes may also be stacked to increase the augmentative, praising meaning usually encoded by these morphemes. In this case, the suffix *-áh* comes first, as can be seen in example (4.17).

(4.17) sósikíí -áh -aóh
wooden.beam -AUG1 -AUG2
'*an immense wooden beam*'

4.1.6 Possession

There are several types of possession in the Hapi language, which are presented in the following section. I will consider possessable nouns in section 4.1.6.1 and will discuss unpossessable nouns in section 4.1.6.2. Concerning the different types of possession, an overview is given in this section. The Hapi language distinguishes between **(i)** possessable and **(ii)** unpossessable nouns. Unpossessable nouns can further be subdivided into **(iia)** indirect possessesable unpossessable nouns and **(iib)** inherently possessed unposessable nouns.

4.1.6.1 Possessable Nouns

Most nouns in the language are possessable, i.e. can be marked for possession by the employment of personal markers which are prefixed to the root. I will discuss the employment of personal markers in 4.1.6.1.1 and the interaction between possession and nominal classifier, discussing a construction called the possesive classifier construction in section 4.1.6.1.2

4.1.6.1.1 Personal Markers

There are personal marker which may be employed to encode possession on possessable nominals. Table 4.2 gives an overview of the personal marker paradigm.

Person		Morpheme	
		#V	#C
1	SG	ḿ-	há-
	PL		hi-
2	SG	ó-	
	PL	oh-	o-
	HON	pò-	pái-
3	SG	ǹ-	kì-
	PL	t̀	tà-

Table 4.2: Possessive personal markers: Overview

Some examples for the usage of these personal markers can be found below. Example (4.18) and (4.19) showcase the employment of the '#V floating tone' markers *ḿ-* and *t̀-*, while (4.20) exemplifies the usage of the honorific marker *pái-*. As can be seen in example (4.19), the third person plural morpheme may also be used as an inter-clausal forth person pronoun. This is true for most employments of this pronoun, not only in its possessive form.

(4.18) **háhoáta**

ḿ - ahoáta

1SPOS - bow

'*my/our bow*'

(4.19) **tàhoáta**

tì- ahoáta

3PPOS- bow

'*their bow/his$_j$ bow*'

(4.20) **páipáaxo**

pái- páaxo

2HPOS- tendon

'*your$_{HON}$ tendon (the one you extracted from the meat)*'

4.1.6.1.2 Nominal Classifiers and Possession

There is also another special construction to express possession, using nominal classifiers and personal markers. This constructions is showcased in example (4.21). After the inflected noun, the according classifier is inserted, with the respective personal marker attached to it.[2] The classifier may also be moved to the front within a clause to focus the aspect of possession, as can be seen in example (4.22).

(4.21) káhi kì- hóó

chicken.egg 3SPOS- CL:egg

'*his chicken egg*'

(4.22) **hóhóikaííxi** **kói** **hò**

hó∼ hóika = ííxi koí - ∅ h- ò

R:build = S/A/O > O(SE) hut - ABS 1SPOS- CL:anim:sg

[2]More on nominal classifiers in section 4.2.3

póóihi		**xósóóxíkóa**				**hápaáh**	
póói	-i	xósóó	-xí	-∅	=kóa	hápaáh	-h
come	-DEP	bite	-RPAST1	-2/3	=DECL	dog	-ERG

‘*As he was once again building another hut, my dog came and bit (him)*’

4.1.6.2 Unpossessable Nouns

There is a closed set of unpossessable nouns in the Hapi language, which either **(i)** can’t be possessed directly, or **(ii)** can’t be possessed at all, with a suppletive, possessable form being used for other means of possession. Those two types are called indirect possessable unpossessable nouns and inherently possessed unpossessable nouns. I will first consider indirect possessable unpossessable nouns in this section, just before presenting the different semantic aspects of inherently possessed unpossessable nouns, as well as showcase their suppletive possessable forms. The semantics of indirect possessable unpossessable nouns (henceforth indPUNs; c.f. inherently possessed unpossessable nouns, inhPUNs) vary greatly within the language, and are summarized in table 4.3, where an overview of the most common cross-linguistic semantic groups in Hapi is given.

Semantic Group	Example	Possessability
landscape features	rivers, mountains	indPUN
professions	hunters, shamans	indPUN
social relationships	neighbour, servant	indPUN
kinship terms	mother, brother	inhPUN
body parts	head, limbs	inhPUN
possessive attributes	age, name	inhPUN
mental states	fear, mind	(possessable)
part-whole relationships	side, top	(possessable)

Table 4.3: Common Cross-linguistic Semantic Groups and their Possessability in Hapi

IndPUNs include geographical features, such as rivers, mountains or trees, as well as professions or persons, such as hunters and shamans. They all may be possessed via certain indirect possession strategies which are showcased in examples (4.23), (4.24) and (4.25). In these cases, the possession is semantically quite indirect, only encoding loose association, e.g. proximal distance to landscape features or the belonging to a family of professions and persons.

(4.23) hòkaapa hi- táa
hunting.person 1PPOS- CL:profession
'*our hunter; the hunter that belongs to our family*'

(4.24) xííkoh =à tàahoih
hill =LINK 1
'*my/our hill; the hill that is located near my/our hut*'

(4.25) àkóóih xáa pòih
in.law COP 2S.DAT
'*your in-law*'

In example (4.23), the construction explained in section 4.1.6.1.2 is employed; this construction is not only used in these cases, but also, as explained in the referred section, to focus the possessed noun. In example (4.24), another construction is used. The linking disjunct affix *=à* is suffixed to the head, while the respective emphatic pronoun form is inserted right after it.[3] In example (4.25), the copula is used to connect the head noun with the dative form of the possessing pronoun. This construction is rather sparsely used, while the other ones are employed quite often.

4.1.6.2.1 Kinship Terms

Kinship terms are one of the most often used inhPUNs in the Hapi language. As they're all inherently possessed by the first person singular, they each have a suppletive form that can be regularly possessed using the prefixes discussed in section 4.1.6.1.1. Table 4.4 gives an overview of the most commonly used kinship inhPUNs and their suppletive possessable counterparts.

inhPUN	Possessable Form	Meaning
xòih	kàháa	(my) brother
kápihoo	káota	(my) father
haóxí	hósii	(my) son
káixo	xapisóo	(my) mother

Table 4.4: InhPUNs and Suppletive Forms (Kinship)

Example (4.26), (4.27) and (4.28) showcase the usage of the suppletive forms.

[3]Compare section 4.2.2 for a comprehensive overview of the Hapi pronoun system.

(4.26) tài xàa haóxí -ò
DEM:PROX COP son -CL:anim:sg
'*This is my son*'

(4.27) *tài xàa ó- haóxí -ò
DEM:PROX COP 2SPOS- son -CL:anim:sg
Intended: '*This is your son*'

(4.28) tài xàa ó- hósii -ò
DEM:PROX COP 2SPOS- son -CL:anim:sg
'*This is your son*'

4.1.7 Case

In this section I will consider the language's case system. The Hapi case system is relatively complex, featuring a total of 10 cases, which can be subdivided into 3 core cases, 4 non-core cases and 3 relational cases. In section 4.1.7.1 I will discuss the language's core cases, in section 4.1.7.2 I will present its non-core cases and in section 4.1.7.3 I will consider its relational cases.

4.1.7.1 Core Cases

In the following section I will present the language's core cases. These cases are employed to mark core arguments such as S, A, P, D, T, and R for their appropriate role. In this context, the absolutive case marks the S of intransitive verbs, as well as the P of transitive and the T of ditransitive verbs. The ergative

case marks the A of transitive verbs and the D of ditransitive verbs, while the dative case marks most commonly the R of a ditransitive verb, but also the second argument of a extended intransitive clause.[4] These cases are all marked in the first case slot.

4.1.7.1.1 Absolutive Case -∅ ABS

Employed to encode the S of intransitive clauses, the primary function of the absolutive case is showcased in example (4.29); the speaker informs the listener about an extraordinary warrior, who, earlier on that day, showed mercy for an enemy warrior. This is seen as a very unusual and strange action to be done by a warrior, hence the explicit statement of the fact.

(4.29) **toíhoh sáhaaxíkóa**

toíhoh	-∅	sáhaa	-xí	-∅	=kóa	
warrior	-ABS	show.mercy	-RPAST1	-2/3	=DECL	

'*Earlier today, the warrior showed mercy*'

Besides that, the absolutive case also marks the P of transitive clauses as in (4.30) and the T of ditransitive verb, thus making the Hapi language a indirective language. Example (4.31) gives an example for this tertiary function of the absolutive case. In (4.30), the speaker talks about a young girl who ate an underripe mangaba fruit, and got stomach aches from it the day after. In (4.31), the speaker reports of a benevolent teacher, who gifts a student of his a present.

[4] See section 5.1.1.3 for more information on extended intransitive clauses.

(4.30) **hoa** **sááhikóa** **háiikáh**

hoa sáá -hi -∅ =kóa háiikáh -∅

3SF:AG eat -RPAST2 -2/3 =DECL type.of.fruit -ABS

'*She ate a mangaba fruit (yesterday)*'

(4.31) **kaósóaíh** **kíih** **hóíakóa** **xáháìih** **xíooki**

kaósóa -íh kíih hóí -a =kóa xáháìi -h xíooki -∅

teacher -ERG old give -2/3 =DECL student -DAT gift -ABS

'*The old teacher gives a gift to a student*'

4.1.7.1.2 Ergative Case *-(V́)h* ERG

This case is used to mark the A of transitive clauses, as well as the D of ditransitive verbs. These two functions are exemplified in (4.32) and (4.31). In (4.32), the neighbour of the speaker was taking the raw meat back from the fire place back to his hut, and this for unknown reasons.

(4.32) **àkóóihíh** **xáh** **hóhiaka**

àkóóih -íh xáh hóhi -a =kóa

neighbour -ERG raw.meat take -2/3 =DECL

'*(My) neighbour is taking the raw meat (with him)*'

4.1.7.1.3 Dative Case *-ÙVh/-s* DAT

The dative case is used to mark the R of a ditransitive clause, as well as the extended argument of an extended intransitive clause. These two contexts are exemplified in (4.31) and (4.33). In (4.33), a child is playing with the mud.

(4.33) **kó** **sahóóhakóa** **xóahasàxa**

kó sahóó -a =kóa xóaha -s -àxa

3SM:SUBJ carve.in -2/3 =DECL mud -DAT -ON.TOP

'*He is scratching (something) in the mud*'

4.1.7.2 Non-Core Cases

The non-core cases are employed in the contexts of peripheral, non-core arguments, hence their name. There are four non-core cases, all of which are marked in the first case slot.

4.1.7.2.1 Locative Case *-hóo* LOC

The locative case marks a noun for a locational meaning, i.e. the position in, from, or toward a certain object. Specifically, the locative case may bear a pure locational meaning, usually translated as 'in, at', a lative meaning, which can be translated using the adposition 'to(wards)', and an ablative meaning, i.e. 'from, by'. These meanings are showcased in the examples (4.34), (4.35) and (4.36). In each of those, the speaker was asked to describe several contexts in which the verbs 'be at', 'go' and 'come' were all used with the locative case.

(4.34) **tàhokó hoihkóa há pííháhóo**

tàhokó hoi -h =kóa há pií -áh -hóo

1+3:SUBJ be.at -1 =DECL CNGR river -AUG1 -LOC

'*We(excl.) are at the river*'

(4.35) **tàhokó háahkóa há pííháhóo**

tàhokó háa -h =kóa há pií -áh -hóo

1+3:SUBJ go -1 =DECL CNGR river -AUG1 -LOC

'*We(excl.) go to the river*'

(4.36) **tàhokó póóihkóa há pííháhóo**

tàhokó póói -h =kóa há pií -áh -hóo

1+3:SUBJ come -1 =DECL CNGR river -AUG1 -LOC

'*We(excl.) come from the river*'

4.1.7.2.2 Perlative Case *-tah* PRL

The perlative case expresses that something is moved 'through' or 'along' the referent of the noun that is marked. It also marks the demoted A of passive constructions. The examples (4.37) and (4.38) demonstrate the case's usage. While (4.37) might not need any further explanation, (4.38) does. There, the speaker tells a narrative of a foolish young girl, who, at the end of the story, is eaten by a giant crab. This is a symbol for the punishment for her 'unlawful' actions.

(4.37) **tàahopí há hááháahká**

tàahopí há hää- háa -h =kóa

1+2:SUBJ CNGR HORT- go -1 =DECL

ókoíhtah

ó- koí -s -tah

2SPOS- hut -PL -PERL

'*We shall go via your huts*'

(4.38) **hoó asááhàòkóapò**

hoó a- sáá -hàò =kóa ==pò

3SF:PAT PASS- eat -DPAST1 =DECL ==INFER:PAST2

xáohaóhtah

xáoh -aóh -tah

crab -AUG2 -PERL

'*She was eaten by a huge crab (they told me)*'

4.1.7.2.3 Privative Case *-sáahi* PVT

The privative case expresses the acting of a verb 'without' a certain noun, more or less yielding a construction of a 'NOUN-less' meaning. Together with the copula marker *xàa*, the semantics of 'to not have NOUN' may be achieved. This and the more general meaning of the privative case are shown in examples (4.40) and (4.39). (4.39) tells us about a young, inexperienced hunter who doesn't quite know how to separate meat from fat elegantly. In (4.40), the speaker utters this sentence in the context of a hunt, in which another hunter has slain a green iguana, whereas the speaker has not.

(4.39) **kó** **sahóóhikóa**

kó sahóó -hi =kóa

3SM:SUBJ separate.meat.from.fat -RPAST2 =DECL

tíahsáahi

tíah -sáahi

care -PRIV

'*He separated meat from fat carelessly*'

(4.40) **ahitáhsáahi** **xàa** **tà**

ahitáh -sáahi xàa tà

green.iguana -PRIV COP 1S

'*(Unlike you,) I do not have a green iguana*'

4.1.7.2.4 Semblative Case *-haixá* SMB

The semblative case denotes the similarity of the subject to the marked noun. This function is explained in example (4.41). There, the speaker narrates an event from his childhood, in which a sick stranger arrived at the village; his condition is described in (4.41).

(4.41) **haxápií hóahtóhikóa tísoohaixá**

haxápií	hóah	-tóhi	=kóa	tísooh	-haixá
stranger	vomit	-DPAST1	=DECL	frog	-SEMBL

'*The stranger vomited like a frog*'

4.1.7.3 Relational Cases

In this section I will consider the relational cases of the Hapi language. These cases are employed to specify a certain relational sense, i.e. they mark a noun for their spatial relationship with another noun. As will be discussed in section 4.1.7.4, these cases may be stacked with other non-core cases to yield more specified semantics. These cases are simply named after their English semantic equivalents;

4.1.7.3.1 'on top of' *-(V̀)xa* ON.TOP

The 'on top of' case primarily[5] marks a noun's position to be roughly 'on top of' another noun, as can be seen in example (4.42). (4.43) shows, how a construction of the shape 'x-ON.TOP y' can indicate possession in the form of 'y has x'.

(4.42)

haípi	**haahakóa**			**píihàxa**	
haípi	haah	-a	=kóa	píihà	-xa
soup	cook	--2/3	=DECL	fire.place	-ON.TOP

'*The soup is cooking above the fire place*'

(4.43)

kihaòhxa		**póxihoo**
kihaòh	-xa	póxihoo
type.of.fruit	-ON.TOP	2S

'*You/you$_{pl}$ have a tucumã fruit*'

4.1.7.3.2 'below' *-(t)aó* BELOW

The 'below' case marks a noun's position to be roughly 'below' another noun, as can be seen in example (4.44).

(4.44)

tàhtíh	**hoí**	**xasíítaó**	
tàhtíh	hoí	xasíí	-taó
poison.frog	COP	leaf	-BELOW

'*The poison dart frog sits under the leaf*'

[5]Another usage is sketched out in section 5.1.1.3.3

4.1.7.3.3 'next to' *-(h)aí* NEXT.TO

The 'next to' case marks a noun's position to be roughly 'next to' another noun, as can be seen in example (4.45). There, the speaker reports of a girl that was, defying the traditional Hapi culture, eating a soup next to her father, even though said traditions don't allow members of either gender to eat in the proximity of each other.

(4.45) **pihih tááhtóhikóa haípi kìkáotahaí**

pihih tááh -tóhi =kóa haípi kì- káota -haí

girl drink -DPAST1 =DECL soup 3SPOS- father -NEXT.TO

'*The girl was drinking soup next to her father*'

4.1.7.4 Case Stacking

In the Hapi language, second slot cases may be stacked with first slot cases to yield specific semantics, which are shown in table 4.5. Note that the privative and semblative cases do not allow any relational combination.

	Locative			Perlative
	Locational	Lative	Ablative	
'on top of'	focal 'on top of'	'to above'	'from above'	'via above'
'below'	foc. 'below'	'to below'	'from below'	'via below'
'next to'	foc. 'next to'	'to (next to)'	'from next to'	'via next to'

Table 4.5: Case Stacking Combinations

The relational-locational combinations that are shown in the table are 'focal' variants of the normal, uncombined relational cases and contrast with them in a such a way that the focal versions are more particular. An example for this is given in (4.46), where, after a child is told to put a smaller stone onto a bigger one, the child asks whether it has done so correctly. The reply is (4.46).

(4.46) **kií, haò kaíi hàohóoxa**

kií haò kaíi haò -hóo -xa

no rock COP rock -LOC -ON.TOP

'*No, the rock must be (exactly) on top of the (other) rock*'

Maybe: examples for every cell in the table? Perhappu a bit too much :pensive:

4.1.8 Conclusion

In the preceding section, I have discussed the structure of the nominal root in section 4.1.1, the ways of encoding gender, number, diminutives and augmentatives in the sections 4.1.2, 4.1.3, 4.1.4 and 4.1.5 respectively, have considered possession in its comprehensive aspects in section 4.1.6 and have presented the Hapi case system in section 4.1.7.

4.2 Noun phrase structure

The structure of the Hapi noun phrase, while not as complex as the verb phrase's, is still worthy of a comprehensive discussion. In the following section I will first consider the order of noun phrase elements in section 4.2.1, then the language's pronoun system in section 4.2.2, before moving on to the extensive classifier

system in section 4.2.3. Afterwards I will lay out different parts of the remaining noun phrase, namely, demonstratives in section 4.2.4, quantifiers and numerals in section 4.2.5, concluding with attributes such as adjectives and possessives in section 4.2.6.

4.2.1 Order of noun phrase elements

The elements of the noun phrase appear in a specific order, as schematized in example (4.47).

(4.47) (QUANT) - (DEM) - (N) - head - (PSR) - (ADJ)

Thus, quantifiers with the respective classifiers (4.48), demonstratives (4.49), and nouns modifying the head (4.50) all precede the noun, while possessors (4.51) and adjectives (4.52) follow it.

(4.48) xasó - soo kìah - a
six - CL:fingers finger - PL
'*six fingers*'

(4.49) hao kahíí
DEM:DIST pig
'*that pig*'

(4.50) xòxíi haíka
leaves type.of.palm
'*maripa palm leaves*'

(4.51) sosáai =à kápihoo
cat =LINK father
'*my father's cat*'

(4.52) hati tóhaki
servant foolish
'*the foolish servant*'

4.2.2 Pronouns

The Hapi pronominal system distinguishes on a first level between so-called independent and possessive pronouns. The independent pronouns take the role of S, A and O, as well as an instrumental usage. They ca be subdivided into ergative, neutral and accusative pronouns depending on their morphosyntactic alignment. The system also makes the distinction between person and number, as well as clusivity in first person pronoun. There is also a dedicated honorific pronoun *hií* and a third person plural pronoun which can be used as fourth person pronoun. The set of possessive pronouns are used in an independent or strong manner, i.e. not with a determinative sense, but rather as a true pronominal, c.f. 'my' (determinative) and 'mine' (independent).

4.2.2.1 Independent pronouns

An overview of independent non-possessive pronouns is schematized in table (4.6).

	A	S	P	Dat	Instr
Ergative:					
1S	*tàah*	*tà*	*tà*	*tàh*	*tàsóo*
1 + 2	*tàahopí*	*tàhopí*	*tàhopí*	*tàhopìh*	-
2S	*páó*	*pói*	*pói*	*pòih*	*pósòo*
3P or 4	*koìh*	*xah*	*xah*	*xàh*	*xasóó*
Neutral:					
1 + 3	*tàhokó*	*tàhokó*	*tàhokó*	*tàhokòh*	-
2P	*póh*	*póh*	*póh*	*pòh*	-
Accusative:					
	kó	*kó*	*kòà*	*kòh*	
3S	*hoa*	*hoa*	*hoó*	*hòah*	hisóo
	íí	*íí*	*kòà*	*ìih*	
2Hon	*hií*	*hií*	*pói*	*hìih*	*pásoò*

Table 4.6: Independent non-possessive pronominal system

4.2.2.1.1 Ergative pronouns

The ergative pronouns, as can be inferred from their name, have merged the forms for S and P, while the A form remained distinct. They include the first and second person singular, first person plural inclusive and third person plural pronouns. Some usages of ergative pronouns are found in examples (4.53) - (4.55).

(4.53)

tà	**hóíkatah**	**háahoò**	**xóatiho**
tà	hóíka -tah	háa -h -o ==ò	xóati -h -o
1S:SUBJ	big.tree -PERL	go -1 -FUT ==SEQ	search.for -1 -FUT

haíhosoaho			**há**
haího	-soa	==ò	há
berry	-PL	==SEQ	CNGR

'*I'll be going via the big tree, and then (I) will search for berries (there)*'

(4.54) This section is work-in-progress

(4.55) This section is work-in-progress

4.2.2.1.2 Neutral pronouns

The neutral or direct pronouns have a single form for all core functions. They consist of the first person plural exclusive and the second person plural pronouns. Some examples are given in (4.56) and (4.57).

(4.56) This section is work-in-progress

(4.57) This section is work-in-progress

4.2.2.1.3 Accusative Pronouns

The set of accusative pronouns that are employed in the Hapi language possess a form for A and S, and another, distinct form for P. They feature the third person singular pronouns, as well as the second person honorific pronoun. Some example sentences using these pronouns are given in (4.58), (4.59) and (4.60).

(4.58) This section is work-in-progress

(4.59) This section is work-in-progress

(4.60) This section is work-in-progress

4.2.2.1.4 Dative Pronouns

The set of dative pronouns may be used in the same way the dative case is employed. It marks the recipient of a ditransitive clause, as well as the extended argument of an extended intransitive clause. It is also used in some possessive constructions. The examples (4.61) and (4.62) showcase the usage of these pronouns.

(4.61) This section is work-in-progress

(4.62) This section is work-in-progress

4.2.2.1.5 Instrumental pronouns

The majority of the non-possessive pronouns have a suppletive form that can be used to denote the semantic instrument of a verb. Only the first and second person plural pronouns do not have an additional instrumental form. Some examples for the instrumental usage of these forms are given in (4.63) and (4.64).

(4.63) This section is work-in-progress.

(4.64) This section is work-in-progress.

When using the first person singular, second person singular and second person honorific instrumental pronoun, another reading may be achieved, namely, an intensification of the salience of the subject or agent. The examples in (4.65) and (4.66) showcase the usage thereof.

(4.65) **áahíkóa** **‘tàah** **kohaíkoahi**

áa - hi - ∅ = kóa tàah kohaíkoa - i

say - RPAST2 - 2/3 = DECL 1S:AG dig.a.hole - DEP

kiihikóa **há** **tàsóo’** **ko**

kii - hi - ∅ = kóa há tàsóo ko

AUX:PERF - RPAST2 - 2/3 = DECL CNGR 1S:INSTR QUOT

‘*He said: “I dug a hole all by myself”.*’

(4.66) This section is work-in-progress.

4.2.2.2 Possessive pronouns

The independent possessive pronouns are given in table (4.7).

	SG	PL	HON
1	háhi	hí	-
2	óó		páihi
3	kìhi	tài	-

Table 4.7: Independent possessive pronouns

Some examples for the usage of these are presented in (4.67) and (4.68).

(4.67) **tài hati íxàa há óóhò?**

tài hati í- xàa há óó -ò

DEM:PROX servant Q- COP CNGR 2SPOS -CL:anim:sg

'*Is that servant yours?*'

(4.68) **ò kahaóó xàa kìhiò [...]**

ò kahaóó xàa kìhi -ò

and uncle COP 3SPOS -CL:anim:sg

'*And it was his uncle [...]*'

4.2.2.3 Demonstrative Pronouns

The set of demonstrative pronouns consists of N forms, which are shown in table 4.8. Note the similarity between these and the demonstrative adjectives presented in section 4.2.4.

	VIS	NVIS	INANIM
PROX	tài 'this'	-	ho 'this/that' (inanimate)
DIST	hao 'that'	hih 'that' (not visible)	

Table 4.8: Demonstrative Pronominal System

Some cases for the usage of these pronouns are exemplified in (4.69), (4.70) and (4.71).

(4.69) **tài xàa áaxíhao há kóhii kó**

tài xàa áa -xí -∅ -hao há kóhii kó

DEM:PROX COP say -RPAST1 -2/3 -DEM CNGR C 3SM:SUBJ

xàa kaai hóhò

xàa kaai hóh -ò

COP sick man -CL:anim:sg

'*This (pointing at man) is the man who said [of himself] that he was sick*'

(4.70) **hákapióó áahaokóa ho**

hákapióó áa -a -o =kóa ho

nobody say -2/3 -FUT =DECL that

'*Nobody is going to say that*'

(4.71) **hih xàa óxíihò**

hih xàa óxíí -ò

DEM:NVIS COP child -CL:anim:sg

'*That (pointing at approximate direction) was a child [not an animal]*'

4.2.2.4 Emphatic pronouns

Besides the set of independent, possessive and demonstrative pronouns, there is also a system of emphatic pronouns which are used in certain contexts. The set of those pronouns is depicted in table 4.9. Note how there is neither a clusivity nor a number nor a honorific distinction within the pronouns of this set.

	SG/PL
1	tàahoih
2	póxihoo
3	hóaxáko

Table 4.9: Emphatic Pronouns

These pronouns are used in N major contexts: **a)** in possessive constructions using the disjunct affix *=à* (4.72), **b)** as emphatic pronouns (4.73).

(4.72) **xoxííhà** **tàahoih**
xoxíí =à tàahoih
palm.fiber =LINK 1
'*my/our palm fiber*'

(4.73) **hóaxáko** **taií** **kohaa** **toihaka**
hóaxáko taií kohaa toih -a =ka
3 glass hole open -2/3 =DECL
'*It is him/her who is opening the window*'

4.2.3 Classifiers

In the following section I will discuss the language's extensive classifier system. I will start by considering an overview as well as a brief explanation of the different classifiers; afterwards I will clarify the syntactic distribution of these classifiers.

4.2.3.1 Overview and Features

The different features all can be categorized in the values they can take. The first distinction that is to be made outside of the feature matrix is the MATERIAL distinction. This distinction that is made distinguishes animate, inanimate and abstract nouns, as can be inferred from table 4.10.

	Animate	Abstract	Inanimate
SG	ò	ki	*(see tables below)*
PL	haí		

Table 4.10: MATERIAL distinction

The next features are SHAPE (saliently one-dimensional (long), saliently two-dimensional (flat), saliently three-dimensional (round)), SIZE (big, small), QUANTA (singular, plural, bunch of, basketful), RIGIDITY (flexible, rigid, brittle, non-discrete) and LOCATION (extended vertically, extended horizontally, parallel objects, objects in a row). The next N tables give an overview of some classifiers in the Hapi language. A full list of classifiers can be found in appendix A.

Saliently 1D - Long				
Big	Flexible		**hó**	*ropes, ladders, (long) vines*
	Rigid	Singular	**ká**	*trunks/pole-like objects that have fallen over*
			saxá	*palm tree trunk, pole-like objects*
			hió	*pillars (of a house), supporting beams*
Small	Flexible		**xái**	*short hair, short ropes*
	Rigid	Singular	**aáxi**	*single banana*
			óah	*tubes, hollow objects, bones, flutes*
		Plural	**hosó**	*tubes, hollow objects, bones (plural)*
	Brittle	Singular	**kaata**	*small branches of trees which are easily breakable*
	Non-Discrete		**xoxi**	*liquids in a long container, water (in a bottle)*
			xóhii	*viscous liquids*

Table 4.11: Some Saliently 1D Classifiers

4.2.3.2 Syntactic Distribution

In the following sub-section I will discuss the syntactic distribution of the classifiers presented above. I will not mention the quantifier-head concordance that is present in the Hapi language, as it already has been considered in this same section.

4.2.3.2.1 Classifier possession

A prominent usage of classifiers in the Hapi language is classifier possession. This construction was already shown in example (4.21), but shall be reiterated here. The examples (4.74) - (4.76) show the general structure of such constructions. Right after the possessee, the classifier follows its head, before the possessor is introduced to the phrase.

(4.74)

haí	**hápaáh**		**ó**	**táosiihó**	**haxápií**	
haí	hápaáh	- h	ó	táosiihó	haxápií	- ∅
thus	dog	- ERG	CL:anim	male.cousin	stranger	- ABS

xósóóhió				**xah**
xósóó	- hi	- ∅	== ó	xah
bite	- RPAST2	- 2/3	== SEQ	4

sóxiihió [...]			
sóxii	- hi	- ∅	== ó
scream	- RPAST2	- 2/3	== SEQ

'*(And) thus the dog of my (male) cousin$_i$ bit the stranger$_j$, and he$_i$ screamed, [and ...]*'

(4.75) **pasío** **hosi** **kàaha**
pasío hosi kàaha
blow.gun CL:thin.pole.like man's.name
'*Kàaha's blow gun*'

(4.76) **papáxi** **xào** **póhsa**
papáxi xào póhsa
mouth CL:facial.body.parts jug
'*jug's mouth*'

4.2.3.2.2 Predicate Nominals

Predicate nominals also agree with their copular subject by means of being suffixed the adequate classifier, as can be seen in example (4.77), (4.78) and (4.79).

(4.77) **tài** **kohi** **xàa** **toohóósaxá**
tài kohi xàa toohóó -saxá
DEM:PROX trunk COP type.of.palm -CL:trunks
'*This trunk is of a peach palm*'

(4.78) **xóah** **xàa** **hòkaapaò**
xóah xàa hòkaapa -ò
man's.name COP hunter -CL:anim:sg
'*Juan is a hunter*'

(4.79) **hao táhiáki xàa páihikahía**

hao táhiáki xàa páihi -kahía

DEM hammock COP 2HPOS -CL:hanging

'*This hammock is yours$_{HON}$*'

4.2.4 Demonstrative Adjectives

The demonstrative adjectives of the Hapi language are very similar, if not identical to those demonstratives described in 4.2.2. A short overview is given in table 4.12.

	VIS	NVIS	INANIM
PROX	tài 'this'	-	hao 'this/that' (inanimate)
DIST	hao 'that'	híi 'that' (not visible)	

Table 4.12: Demonstrative Adjectives Overview

Some examples for the usage of these are given in (4.80) and (4.81).

(4.80) **hao hahópìi xàa tàiha**

hao hahópìi xàa tàiha

DEM:DIST sloth COP there

'*There is that sloth [which we saw earlier]*'

(4.81) **híi tukáh hihahíaka**

híi tukáh háhihahí -a =ka

DET:NVIS toucan sing -2/3 =DECL

'*That toucan is singing*'

4.2.5 Quantifiers and Numerals

4.2.5.1 Quantifiers

Non-numeral quantifiers precede the noun together with the adequate classifier. Examples can be seen in (4.82), (4.83) and (4.84).

(4.82) This section is work-in-progress

(4.83) This section is work-in-progress

(4.84) This section is work-in-progress

4.2.5.2 Numerals

Numeral quantifiers also precede the modified noun, together with the adequate classifier. More information on numerals is given in chapter 7. The position of numerals within the noun phrase is exemplified in (4.85), (4.86), and (4.87).

(4.85) **hao** **akahííopa** **ahóikahàòkóa**

hao	akahííopa	a -	hóika	- hàò	- ∅	= kóa	
DEM	bridge	PASS -	build	- DPAST1	- 2/3	= DECL	

hikoíípahahì

hikoíípaha	- hì
ten	- CL:time

	apíhaiha koa	**hakó**
	apíhaiha ko - a	hakó
	year - PL	ago

'*That bridge was built ten years ago*'

(4.86)

tóhò	**óxíísoa**
tóh - ò	óxíí - soa
three - CL:anim:sg	child - PL

'*three children*'

(4.87)

posá	**aíxia**		**xàa**	**tàh**
po - sá	aíxi	- a	xàa	tàh
nine - CL:banana.trunks	banana.plant	- PL	COP	1S:DAT

'*I have nine banana tree plants*'

4.2.6 Attributes

4.2.6.1 Adjectives

Adjectival attributes follow the noun. More information on adjectives is given in chapter 6. The order of adjectival elements in the noun phrase is given below in the examples (4.88) and (4.89).

(4.88) This section is work-in-progress

(4.89) This section is work-in-progress

4.2.6.2 Possessives

The main strategy for possessives in the Hapi language is depicted in the examples (4.90) and (4.91). There, the linking disjunct affix *=à* is attached to the head, followed by the possessor in the absolutive case.

(4.90) **óíhtià sóasih**
óíhti =à sóasih
monkey =LINK person
'*the person's monkey*'

(4.91) **kókókóà haxápií**
kókókó =à haxápií
gun =LINK stranger
'*the stranger's gun*'

Another strategy to mark possession on nouns is the so-called copular strategy. There, the possessor is put in the dative case and is connected to the possessee by the copula *xàa*. This strategy can be seen in the examples (4.92) and 4.93).

(4.92) This section is work-in-progress

(4.93) This section is work-in-progress

4.2.6.3 Noun modifying

The final type of attribute in the Hapi language is noun juxtaposition. A noun may modify another noun in which case the modifying noun precedes the head noun. (4.94) and (4.95) show examples thereof.

(4.94) tahai xohoá
goat milk
'*goat milk*'

(4.95) hiiho kohkí
sheep fur
'*wool*'

4.2.7 Conclusions

In the preceding chapter I have considered the structure of the nominal word and the nominal phrase. I have presented the internal structure of the nominal root, demonstrated the morphological categories that are marked on the noun, namely, number, diminutive and augmentative, possession and case, and have discussed the formation of gender-specified nouns by juxtaposition. After a brief consideration of the order of noun phrase elements, I then moved on to the pronominal system, schematized the extensive set of classifiers of the language, and presented further any other noun modifiers such as demonstratives, quantifiers and numerals, adjectives, possessives and noun modifying nominals, all in the context of the noun phrase.

5 The Verb and the Verb Phrase

This chapter discusses the verb and the verb phrase in the Hapi language. In the first part of this chapter, I will discuss verbal morphology, considering the structure of the verbal stem and its conjuncts, disjuncts and clitics. In section 5.1.1 I will consider the structure of the verbal root; then I will move through the verb slot by slot, starting with the mode affix in section 5.1.2. Subsequently I will discuss valency in section 5.1.3, past tenses in 5.1.4, person agreement in section 5.1.5 and the future tense in section 5.1.6. In the second part of this chapter, I will explain the verb phrase structure, beginning with the order of verb phrase elements in section 5.2.1. Then, I will consider the relationship of second-position particles within the verb phrase in section 5.2.2. Finally, I will present the role of adverbs in section 5.2.3.

5.1 Verbal Morphology

In this section, the structure of Hapi verbs is examined, focussing on the grammatical categories encoded by morphology, i.e. mode, valency, tense and person.

5.1.1 Verbal Root

The structural properties of the verbal root include a set of prefixes and suffixes for the expression of mode, valency, tense and person.

5.1.1.1 Internal stucture of verbal roots

In the follwowing section I will consider the internal phonological structure of verbal roots, analyzing the syllabic composition of said roots. There is a set of *13* monosyllabic, *26* disyllabic and *4* trisyllabic or polysyllabic roots in the corpus of *42* Hapi verbs.

5.1.1.2 Overview

An overview of the verbal stem structure of the Hapi language can be seen in table 5.1. In the first slot, the mode conjunct prefixes are found; in the second slot, the valency conjunct prefixes are located. After the root, the past, person, future and causative markers can be found. Finally, the declarative disjunct marker is located in the final slot.

5.1.1.3 Verb Classes

There are six classes of verbs in the Hapi language. Firstly, there are the basic intransitive, extended intransitive, transitive and ditransitive verbs, which are categorized by their valency. The remaining three verb classes are auxiliary verbs, complementizing verbs and compound verbs, the latter of which may be also subdivided into positional compound verbs and nominal compound verbs.

-2	-1	0	1	2	3	4	5
Mode	Val	ROOT	Past	Person	Future	Caus	Decl
INDIC	∅-	ANTIP1	RPAST1	-xí	-o	CAUS1	=kóa
INTRG	í-	hV-	RPAST2	-hi	see Section 5.1.5	-áh	
OPT	hó-	ANTIP2	DPAST1	-tóhi		CAUS2	
HORT	háa-	kai-PASS	DPAST2	-hàò		-kó	
		a-					

Table 5.1: Verbal Stem Structure

Intransitive and transitive verbs constitute an open class, while the rest of the verb classes are closed.[1] A list of all closed class verbs is presented in appendix B.

5.1.1.3.1 Intransitive Verbs

Intransitive verbs are verbs which take one S argument, as can be seen in example (5.1). This argument, presupposing it is not a pronoun, is left unmarked, i.e. takes the absolutive null morpheme. If the argument is a pronoun, it must take its S form, as can be seen in example (5.2).

(5.1) **tahai sóíhikóa**

tahai sóí -hi =kóa

goat sleep -RPAST2 =DECL

'*The goat slept*'

(5.2) **pói sóíhikóa**

pói sóí -hi =kóa

2S:ABS sleep -RPAST2 =DECL

'*You slept*'

[1] N.b.: there needs to be more research conducted on the nature of the extended intransitive class, as I have not yet found out whether it is closed or open.

5.1.1.3.2 Extended Intransitive Verbs

Extended intransitive verbs are verbs which take two arguments, an S argument and an E argument. The S argument takes the absolutive case morpheme or the S pronoun form, whilst the E argument takes the dative case or the dative pronoun form. Some examples are shown in (5.3) and (5.4). Some extended intransitive verbs related to movement, such as *háa* 'to go' or *póói* 'to come' take the locative case for their E argument, as shown in (5.5). There are *5* extended intransitive verbs in the analyzed corpus. Some explanations concerning (5.4) and (5.5): in the former, the speaker tells us about a ritual in which a mother is applying a special facial paint to her son; in the latter, the speaker is talking to his fellow huntsman, mentioning how one of their dogs was playfully following a bird.

(5.3) **kahoa hókaáhàòkóa íákìih**

kahoa hókaá -hàò =kóa íákí -ìih

turtle live.in -DPAST2 =DECL tree.hole -DAT

'*The turtle lives in a tree hole*'

(5.4) **xapisóoha hóaxáko sahóóhaká kòh**

xapisóo =à hóaxáko sahóó -a =ká kòh

mother =LINK 3 apply.color -2/3 =DECL 3SM:DAT

'*His mother was painting his [face]*'

(5.5) **hao** **háahaka** **paatihóo**

hao háa -a =ka paáti -hóo

DEM:PROX go -2/3 =DECL type.of.bird -LOC

'*This one is following a macaw*'

5.1.1.3.3 Transitive and Ditransitive Verbs

Transitive verbs are verbs which take two arguments, an A and an P argument. If the arguments of a transitive verb are pronominal, they take their respective A and P form. A noun in the A function takes the ergative case, marked by the morpheme *-(V́)h*, while a noun in the P function takes the unmarked absolutive case. Examples of the usage of transitive verbs and their arguments' marking can be seen in (5.6) and (5.7). In (5.6) the speaker recounts a story in which a negligent boy mislaid his ritual loincloth, only to be found by the speaker; the speaker is surprised as she sees mice chewing on the cloth.

(5.6) **hòotaháh** **kíxohxíkóa** **hása**

hòotah -a -h kíxoh -xí =kóa hása

mouse -PL -ERG chew -RPAST1 =DECL loincloth

'*The mice chewed the loincloth*'

(5.7) **xah** **kíxohxíkóa** **kòà**

xah kíxoh -xí =kóa kòà

3P:AG chew -RPAST1 =DECL 3SN:PAT

'*They chewed it*'

Ditransitive verbs are verbs which take three arguments; those arguments are called D, T and R, and refer to the donor, theme and recipient of the verb. For nouns, the D function is marked by the ergative case, the T function is marked by the absolutive case and the R function is marked by the dative case. For pronouns, D and T correspond to the A and P forms, while the dative forms are used for the R function. There are *2* ditransitive verbs in the analyzed corpus. Examples (5.8) and (5.9) showcase the usage of ditransitive verbs.

(5.8) **tííkóh kóóh hóíhikóa tatìih**

tííko -h kóóh hói -hi =kóa tati -h

man's.name -ERG fruit give -RPAST2 =DECL child -DAT

'*Diego gives a fruit to [his] child (for good)*'

(5.9) **kó kòà hóíhikóa hòah**

kó kòà hói -hi =kóa hòah

3SM:AG 3SN:PAT give -RPAST2 =DECL 3SF:DAT

'*He gives it to her*'

The R of a ditansitive verb might also be marked by the 'on top of' relational case; in that case, the action is temporary, while with the dative case, the action is permanent.[2] This usage is exemplfied in (5.10).

(5.10) **tííkoh kaxií hóíhikóa tatìxa**

tííko -h kaxií hói -hi =kóa tati -xa

man's.name -ERG idol give -RPAST2 =DECL child -ON.TOP

'*Diego gives the idol to [his] child (as a loan)*'

[2]This obviously only applies if the verb can bear such a type of aspect; for example with the verb *taih*, 'to thank sb. for sth.' this distinction wouldn't make sense.

5.1.1.3.4 Auxiliary Verbs

Auxiliary verbs are verbs which mark aspect, negation and modality. there are two types of auxiliaries, non-affixing auxiliary verbs and affixing auxiliary verbs. I will first discuss the former, and subsequently move onto the latter. Non-affixing auxiliaries, despite their name, absorb all inflection from the lexical head. They encode negation and aspect. The lexical head then takes the dependent form, marked by the suffix *-i*. There are *3* non-affixing auxiliaries in the analyzed corpus of *5* auxiliaries. (5.11) exemplifies the usage of non-affixing auxiliaries.

(5.11) **hóh** **kìkahoó** **hóikai**

hó - h kì - kahoó hóika - i

man's.name - ERG 3SPOS - boat build - DEP

toóxíkóa **ii** **tàah** **kòà**

tóó - xí - ∅ = kóa ii tàah kòà

AUX:PROG - RPAST1 - 2/3 = DECL when 1S:AG 3S:PAT

ákiihi **kiixíi** **há**

ákiih - i kii - xí - ∅ - i há

see - DEP AUX:PERF - RPAST1 - 2/3 - DEP CNGR

'*Joe was constructing his boat, when I had seen him.*'

Affixing auxiliary verbs use an affixing process, in which the lexical head is attached to the auxiliary. The inflection of the verb is absorbed by the general auxiliary *tàa*. There are *1* affixing auxiliaries in the analyzed corpus of *5* auxiliaries. An example of their usage can be seen in example (5.12).

(5.12) **páó híí kaxáhákoo tàahaka**

páó híí kaxá = hákoo tàa - a = ka

2S:AG meal eat = NEC AUX - 2/3 = DECL

'*You should eat your meal (or else you will be hungry later)*'

To negate an auxiliary verb, instead of using the negation auxiliary, the disjunct prefix *kaí=*, which is derived from the past negative auxiliary *kaíhao*, is used. Example (5.13) showcases this negation strategy.

(5.13) **kóíhihóo ahá háakaíhákoo atàa**

kóíhi - hóo ahá háa = kaí = hákoo a - tàa

forest - LOC alone go = NEG = NEC PASS - AUX

'*One shouldn't go into the forest alone.*'

5.1.1.3.5 Complementizer Verbs

Complementizer verbs are verbs which take an entire clause as their object, such as e.g. *áa* 'to say (that)' or *óa* 'to think'. They may take all normal inflectional affixes. To mark the end of a complement clause, the complementizers *kóó-* or *kóhii* are used.[3]. The usage of complementizer verbs is exemplified in (5.14).

(5.14) **kóíhihóo ahá háahákoo atàa kóhii káixoáh**

kóíhi - hóo ahá háa = hákoo a - tàa kóhii káixo - áh

forest - LOC alone go = NEC PASS - AUX C mother - AUG1

[3]More on the usage of complementizers in section 10.3.2

áatóhikóa

áa -tóhi =kóa

say -DPAST1 =DECL

'*[My] grandmother said that one shouldn't go into the forest alone*'

While the complementizers mark indirect speech, there is a quotative marker *ko* to mark direct speech. An example of this technique can be found in (5.15).

(5.15) **'kóíhihóo ahá háahákoo atàa' ko káixoáh**

kóíhi -hóo ahá háa= hákoo a- tàa ko káixo -áh

forest -LOC alone go= NEC PASS- AUX QUOT mother -AUG1

áatóhikóa

áa -tóhi =kóa

say -DPAST1 =DECL

'*[My] grandmother said: "One shouldn't go into the forest alone"*'

5.1.1.3.6 Positional Compound Verbs

Positional compound verbs are verbs with a bipartite stem. The first part (called V1) is from a relatively open class of ca. 100 members, while the second part (called DTR) is from a closed class of 10 members. They inflect like normal intransitive or transitive verbs. The DTRs depict explicit or implied motion in a certain **D**irection, into a **T**opological **R**elation. There are four subclasses of V1s, classificatory (type of figure or ground), dispositional (posture or position of the figure), means (manner or means of change), and trajectory (shape of path of change). While the first of these constitutes an open class, the rest of them are closed class. A full list of all V1s and DTRs can be found in appendix C. Examples (5.16) and (5.17) showcase the usage of transitive and intransitive positional compound verbs.

(5.16)

hoa	**tapáxi**	**xóhiitohíxíkóato**						**hííkohóo**	
hoa	tapáxi	xóhii	- tohí	- xí	= kóa	== to		hííkoh	- hóo
3SF:AG	honey	liquid	- in	- RPAST1	= DECL	== VIS		bowl	- LOC

'*She poured the honey into the bowl (I saw it)*'

(5.17)

íí	**saháxìhikóa**				
íí	sahá	- xì	- hi	= kóa	
3SN:SUBJ	fall	- away	- RPAST2	= DECL	

'*It (the leaf) fell away from me, i.e. it was blown away by the wind*'

5.1.2 Mode

5.1.2.1 Indicative

5.1.2.2 Interrogative

5.1.2.3 Optative

5.1.2.4 Hortative

5.1.3 Valency

5.1.3.1 Antipassive

5.1.3.2 Passive

5.1.3.3 Causative

5.1.4 Past tenses

5.1.4.1 Recent Past

5.1.4.2 Distant Past

5.1.5 Person agreement

5.1.6 Future tense

5.2 Verb phrase structure

5.2.1 Order of verb phrase elements

5.2.2 Second-position particles

5.2.3 Adverbs

5.2.3.1 Lexical Adverbs

5.2.3.2 Verbal Adverbs

6 Adjectives and Adverbs

6.1 Adjectives

6.1.1 Color Terms

6.1.2 Adnominal Adjectives

6.1.3 Adverbal Adjectives

6.2 Adverbs

6.2.1 Lexical Adverbs

6.2.1.1 Spatial Adverbs

6.2.1.2 Temporal Adverbs

6.2.1.3 Manner Adverbs

6.2.2 Verbal Adverbs

6.2.2.1 Overview

6.2.2.2 Transitive Class Adverbals

6.2.2.3 Intransitive Class Adverbals

6.2.2.4 Mixed Class Adverbals

7 Numerals

7.1 Introduction

7.2 Cardinal Numerals

7.3 Ordinal Numerals

7.4 Collective Numerals

7.5 Multiplicative Numerals

7.6 Distributive Numerals

7.7 Other Quantifiers

7.7.1 PLACEHOLDER

8 Other Verbal Categories

8.1 Particles

8.1.1 PLACEHOLDER

8.2 Disjunct Affixes

8.2.1 PLACEHOLDER

8.3 Clitics

8.3.1 PLACEHOLDER

9 Derivation

9.1 Nominal

9.1.1 Noun-Noun Derivation

9.1.2 Others-Noun Derivation

9.2 Verbal

9.2.1 Verb-Verb Derivation

9.2.2 Others-Verb Derivation

9.3 Other Derivation

9.3.1 Adjectival Derivation

9.3.2 Adverbal Derivation

10 Clause-level Syntax

10.1 Constituent Order

10.2 Types of sentences

10.2.1 Declarative

10.2.1.1 Copular Clauses

10.2.1.2 Existential Clauses

10.2.1.3 Intransitive Clauses

10.2.1.4 Extended Intransitive Clauses

10.2.1.5 Transitive Clauses

10.2.1.6 Ditransitive Clauses

10.2.2 Interrogative

10.2.2.1 Polar Questions

10.2.2.2 Question Words

10.2.3 Imperative

10.2.3.1 Imperative Clauses

10.2.3.2 Optative Clauses

10.2.3.3 Hortative Clauses

A List of classifiers

B List of closed class verbs

C List of V1s and DTRs