


A grammar of Yuwan

Yuto Niinaga

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Abbreviations and symbols

Abbreviations

A	agent-like argument of	extscduB	dubitative
	transitive verb; adjective	extscdu	dual
extscabl	ablative	extscecs	the existential, copula, and stative verb
extscacc	accusative		elicitational data
extscadj	inflectional adjectival affix	El	formal nouns
extscadnZ	adnominalizer	extscfn	focus
extscadvrs	adversative	extscfoc	data from the folktale
extscadvz	adverbializer	Fo	genitive
extscall	allative	extscgen	glide slot in a syllable
extscappr	approximative	G	imperative
extscass	assertive	extscimp	indefinitizer
Aux. V	auxiliary verb	extscindfz	ingressive
extscavC	auxiliary verb construction	extscingr	instrumental
extscben	benefactive	extscinst	intentional
C	any consonant	extscint	a kind of
extsccap	capability	k.o.	lexical verb
extsccaus	causative	Lex. V	lengthened (infinitival) form
extsccfm	confirmation	LF	literally
extsccfp	clause-final particle	lit.	limitative
extscclf	classifier	extsclmt	locative
extsccmp	comparative	extscloc	listing
extscnd	conditional	extscst	light verb construction
Co	data from the conversation	extscslvc	light verb
extsccom	comitative	extscslv	mesial
extscosl	causal	extscmes	Mermaid construction
extscdat	dative	extscmmC	not applicable
extscdim	diminutive	N/A	negative
extscdir	directional	extscneg	non-honorific
extscdist	distal	N extschon	nominalizer
extscdrg	derogative	extscnlz	

Abbreviations and symbols

extscnom	nominative	extscred	reduplicant
NP	nominal phrase	extscrfl	reflexive
extscnpst	non-past	extscrs	resultative
extscobl	obligative	S	an argument of
extscodn	ordinary number		intransitive verb
P extscass	passive	extscsf	simple (infinitival) form
extscpfc	predicate of focus	extscsg	singular
	construction	extscsim	simultaneous
extscpf	pear film	extscsol	solidarity
extscpl	plural	extscstV	stative verb
extscplq	polar question	extscsugs	suggestive
extscpol	politeness	extscsupp	suppositional
extscpos	possibility	extscstop	topic
P	patient-like argument of	extscumrk	unmarked verbal affix
	transitive verb	V	any vowel; verb
extscprog	progressive	VP	verbal phrase
extscprox	proximal	V _{back}	back vowels
extscrpr	preparative	V _{non-back}	non-back vowels
extscpst	past	V _{non-i}	vowels excluding //i//
extscptcp	participle	X	an anonymous
extscpurp	purposive		personal name
extscqt	quotation		

Symbols

#	syllable boundary
#	context is unnatural
\$	word boundary
*	ungrammatical expression ancestral form (see also 'Pre-note (b)' in appendix)
+	boundary of a compound boundary of reduplication boundary of a contracted adjectival predicate, boundary of the fusion of <i>ccji</i> (extscqt) and <i>j'</i> - 'say'
-	affix boundary
=	clitic boundary
A/B	A or B
//A//	"A" is a morphophoneme (or underlying form)
/A/	"A" is a phoneme (or surface form)

Transcription methods

These transcription methods are inspired by those of Stuart McGill (2009: 7–9, 43–52).

Interlinear examples

Each example is composed of four tiers: the surface tier (the phonemic representation), the underlying tier (the morphophonemic representation), the tier for morpheme-by-morpheme gloss, which conforms to the convention of the Leipzig Glossing Rules¹ and the tier for free translation provided by the present author. The surface tier does not have morpheme boundaries. This way, it is possible to handle fusions and morphophonological alternations with interlinear morphemic glosses.

- (1) mukasinu janagijaaccjəə
mukasi=nu janagi+jaa=ccji=ja
old.days= extscgen
nən.jaa. surface tier
nə-an=jaa underlying tier
dirty+house=
‘There is not (a house) like a dirty [i.e. outdated] house of the old
days.’ free translation tier

The following markers are used in a surface (if it is deleted, in an underlying) tier.

- , after an interjection or an adverbial clause; before the hearer’s nod assent; enclosing an inserted expression
- . after a sentence (not within a word); between syllable boundaries (within a word)²

¹These are available at <https://www.eva.mpg.de/lingua/pdf/Glossing-Rules.pdf>.

²As mentioned in §??, there is no sequence [n.V] (V: vowel) within a phonological word in Yuwan, so any sequence of /VnV/ within a phonological word in the surface form would be /V.nV/ [V.nV], not /Vn.V/ [Vn.V].

Transcription methods

? after an interrogative sentence

! after an imperative sentence

.. short pause

... long pause

xxx unintelligible speech

() enclosing a defective utterance or a misstatement

|| enclosing standard Japanese

Additionally, the underlying tier is provided in *italics*, the free translation is enclosed within single quotation marks, and information inferable from the context may be added with round brackets in the free translation. Some morphemes can be translated into more than one meaning (or function) in English, i.e. polysemy. In that case, we gloss it in the following order (cf. [Lehman 2004](#): 11–12): (1) if we can abstract the polysemous meanings into one meaning, we use the abstract meaning as its gloss; (2) if we cannot do this, we gloss the relevant meaning in each example. In the second case, I sacrificed the consistency of the glossing and the form, because it is helpful for the reader to know the correspondence between the glossing and the free translation. Finally, in the free translation, ‘...’ means there is a remaining portion of the sentence that has been left out.

In many cases, context is supplied for an example, and it is enclosed in square brackets on the upper side of examples. Paraphrases in English (with speaker extscid) in quotation marks may follow the description of the context. In addition, if other kinds of information, e.g., syntactic constructions, are needed, another line may be added below the glossing line (cf. [Lehman 2004](#): 4–5).

- (2) [Context: extsctm and extscms were looking at the beams of TM’s house; MS: ‘There are few houses (that have the beams) like these.’]

extsctm: mukasinu janagijaaccjə nən.jaa.

mukasi=nu janagi+jaa=ccji=ja nə-an=jaa

{[old.days= extscgen] [dirty+house]}=

{[Modifier] [Head]}_{NP}

‘There is not (a house) like a dirty [i.e. outdated] house of the old days.’ [Co: 111113_01.txt]

Further, each example will be shown with the data of its source, i.e. genre of data and the file name of source, in the square brackets on the lower right side of examples (for more details on the abbreviations used to indicate the source data, see §??).

In-text example

An in-text example is placed in the following order: surface forms in slash marks, underlying forms in *italics*, morpheme-by-morpheme glosses, and free translation in single quotation marks, as in /janagiɟaaccjə/ *janagi+jaa=ccji=ja* (dirty+house=extscqt= extscotop) ‘like a dirty house.’ If we do not need to show a morpheme boundary, we will use a period in glosses to imply there are a few morphemes, such as /janagiɟaaccjə/ (dirty.house.QT.TOP). Contrary to interlinear examples, the surface forms of in-text examples may show their morpheme boundaries if the need arises, such as /janagi+jaa=ccjə=ə/ (dirty+house=QT=TOP). Sometimes, IPA symbols are used to access the concrete sounds in square brackets, e.g., [jɒŋɟijɟaːt̪ɕɜː]. The underlying forms (i.e. morphophonemic) may be expressed not only with italics but also double slash marks, such as //ja//. Forms in the middle stage of morphophonemic processes are also shown in double slash marks. If the relevant form is not a grammatical word, i.e. bound roots or affixes like *kam-* ‘eat’ or *-i* (extscimp), a hyphen is attached to mark the place of morpheme boundaries.

Orthography

Yuwan has mainly six vowels [i, u, ɔ, ɒ, i, ɜ] (see §??). In many of the previous studies of Amami dialects (including that of Yuwan), the first four vowels have been transcribed into ‘i, u, o, a (*a* in italic)’ but the last two vowels have been transcribed as ‘i’ [i] and ‘ë’ [ɜ]. In this grammar, [i] and [ɜ] are transcribed as ‘i’ and ‘ə’ since (1) they do not need diacritics, and (2) [ə] is closer to [ɜ] than [ë] (but we do not use ‘ɜ’ because it is not as familiar as ‘ə’).

Furthermore, Yuwan has glottalized consonants such as [ʔj, ʔw, ʔm, ʔn, ʔt, ʔk, ʔɕ], which have been transcribed as ‘ʔC’ or ‘C’ (C is any consonant), depending on the researcher’s interpretation of those phones. The latest IPA diacritics³ do not have ‘’ even though this diacritic is very useful to describe these consonants. In this grammar, the glottalized consonants are regarded as single phonemes (see §??) and transcribed as ‘j’, ‘w’, ‘m’, ‘n’, ‘t’, ‘k’, and ‘c’.

³Available at [http://www.langsci.ucl.ac.uk/ipa/IPA_chart_\(C\)2005.pdf](http://www.langsci.ucl.ac.uk/ipa/IPA_chart_(C)2005.pdf).

Finally, Yuwan has homorganic nasals, and if we cannot infer their underlying form from the paradigmatic information, we recognize them as archiphonemes (Lass 1984: 46–49). Yuwan has /m/ and /n/, which are homorganic. For example, in /jum-an/ [ju.mqN] (read- extscneg) ‘do not read’ and /jum-gadi/ (read - until) [juŋ.gq.di] ‘until (someone) reads,’ /m/ can be [m] or [ŋ] depending on the following phonemes. Similarly, in /in=un/ [ʔi.nu.N] (dog=also) ‘also a dog’ and /in=gadi/ [ʔiŋ.gq.di] (dog= extsclmt) ‘as well as dogs,’ /n/ can be [n] or [ŋ] depending on the following phonemes. [ʔqm.mq:] ‘mother,’ however, is made up of a single root, so we cannot know whether its first [m] would be /m/ or /n/. In this case, we recognize the existence of archiphoneme /N/ and avoid choosing the unique underlying phoneme. In this grammar, the archiphoneme is transcribed as ‘n,’ since the use of /N/ implies the existence of a phoneme other than /m/ and /n/. Thus, [ʔqm.mq:] is *anmaa* (see §?? for more details). The other symbols used in this grammar coincide with their phonetic representations (or commonly accepted phonemic representations) (see also §??).

1 Nominal phrases

The nominal phrase (NP) has the following construction. The round brackets mean that the contents inside are optional, and the equal sign “=” indicates a clitic boundary.

- (1) [(Modifier) Head]_{NP} (=Case)

An NP is made of a modifier slot and a head slot, to which a case particle may be attached to as an NP extender. I will call an NP that contains a case particle an “extended NP” following [Shimoji \(2008: 167\)](#). An NP can be followed by a sequence of two case particles. So far, the second case of the sequence is genitive or nominative (see §?? about genitive, and §?? about nominative), with the exception of infinitives followed by *n=kara* (DAT1=ABL) (see §??). An (extended) NP can function as an argument, predicate, or modifier of an NP. If an NP functions as a predicate, it does not take any case, although there are a few exceptions (see §??). In the following sections, we will consider Modifier (see §??), Head (see §??), and Case (see §??) respectively. In addition, the constituents that fill the slots in the NP in Yuwan are very sensitive to the animacy hierarchy, which will be addressed in §??

1.1 Modifier

The modifier slot of an NP is not obligatory, and it can be filled by an NP itself (i.e. genitive case), adnominal word, and adnominal clause. Let us see some examples in the following sections.

1.1.1 Modifier filled by an NP

If a nominal is to modify another nominal in an NP, first it fills the head slot of an NP taking a genitive case particle, and then it fills the modifier slot of the larger NP recursively.

- (2) [Context: Talking about the days when US (the hearer) sold fish]

1 Nominal phrases

sima=nu j'u=nu naa.
 community=GEN fish=GEN name
 '(I asked if you know) the name of the fish of (our) community.' [Co: 110328_00.txt]

The above NP can be analyzed as follows.

- (3) <[*sima*_{Head=nu}_{Case}]NP: Modifier *j'u*_{Head=nu}_{Case}]NP: Modifier *naa*_{Head}>NP

If the NP modifier is address an noun (see §??) such as *anmaa* 'mother' or a nominal that contains *-taa* (PL) (see §??), it does not take the genitive case, and only juxtaposition shows the possessive meaning as in (??a-b).

- (4) a. [Context: Remembering the day when a few students came to see TM's mother]
anmaa mæci kjuuta.
anmaa mæ= kaki k-jur-tar
 mother front=ALL come-UMRK-PST
 '(They) used to come to (my) mother's place.' [Co: 110328_00.txt]
- b. [Context: Talking about US's grandchild, whom US had went to see]
uttaa mæci mata |oohuku| aicji
u-ri-taa mæ= kaki mata oohuku aik-ti
 MES-NLZ-PL front=ALL again back.and.forth walk-SEQ
izjanwakejo.
ik-tar-n=wake=joo
 go-PST-PTCP=CFP=CFM1
 '(I) went to their place [i.e. the family of US's grandchild] and came back again on foot.' [Co: 110328_00.txt]
- c. [Context: Asking a person to go to another place]
k'wanu mæci c'ji kurirancji j'icjattoojoo.
k'wa=nu mæ= kaki k-ti kurir-an=ccji j'-tar-too=joo
 child=GEN front=ALL come-SEQ BEN-NEG=QT say-PST-CND=CFM1
 'I said (to him), "Would you please come to (my) son's place?"' [Co: 120415_00.txt]

A nominal that is not an address noun nor followed by *-taa* (PL) should take the genitive case to fill the modifier slot of an NP such as *k'wa=nu* (child=GEN) in (??c). The constructions in (??a-b) are merely juxtaposition, and not compounding (see §?? for more details).

There are a few cases where a genitive case particle *nu* can follow another case particle. The sequences of case particles are underlined below.

- (5) a. [Context: Hearing that US's son went somewhere]
 amakacinu |sjokurjoo| muccji ikidaroo.
a-ma=kaci=nu sjokurjoo mut-ti ik-i=daroo
 DIST-place=ALL=GEN food have-SEQ go-INF=SUPP
 ' (He) would probably bring the food for that place.' [Co: 110328_00.txt]
- b. [Context: Speaking about a ditch there used to be]
 huukubumizjuukaranu mizi nati,
huukubu+mizjuu=kara=nu mizi nar-ti
 Hukubu+ditch=ABL=GEN water COP-SEQ
 ' (It) is a water from the ditch at Hukubu, so ...' [Co: 120415_00.txt]
- c. [Context: Seeing a photo taken in celebration of setting up the first outdoor lamps in the shopping street of the village]
 un tukinnu juwəja aran?
u-n tuki=n=nu juwəə=ja ar-an
 MES-PTCP time=DAT1=GEN celebration=TOP COP-NEG
 'Is (the photo about) the celebration at that time?' [Co: 120415_00.txt]
- d. kumannu tukinnja |kootookaninen|gadi
ku-ma=nan=nu tuki=n=ja kootooka+ni+nen=gadi
 PROX-place=LOC1=GEN time=DAT1=TOP junior.high+two+year=LMT
 jappa.
jar-ba
 COP-CSL
 'At the time when (we were) there [lit. at the time of at here], compulsory education was until the second grade of junior high school.' [Co: 120415_00.txt]
- e. |sugiuradenki|tu |sjuukaisjo|tunu əda...
sugiura+denki=tu sjuukaisjo=tu=nu əda
 Sugiura+electricity=COM meeting.place=COM=GEN space
 ganbəi acjutattu.
ga-n=bəi ak-tur-tar-tu
 MES-ADVZ=only open-PROG-PST-CSL
 'There was a space like that between the Sugiura electric appliance shop and the meeting place.' [Co: 111113_02.txt]

nu (GEN) follows *kaci* (ALL) as in (??a), *kara* (ABL) as in (??b), *n* (DAT1) as in (??c)¹, *nan* (LOC1) as in (??d) (about the alternation from //nan// to /n/, see §??), and *tu* (COM) as in (??e).

1.1.2 Modifier filled by adnominal word or adnominal clause

The adnominal word fills only the modifier slot of an NP taking no genitive particle, and it obligatorily takes a specific inflectional affix, e.g. *-a* (ADNZ) and *-n* (ADNZ) (see Chapter ??).

- (6) a. [Context: Taking about the present author]
 waa mæci saki umoocjanwake.
 waa-a mæð=kaci saki umoor-tar-n=wake
 1SG-ADNZ front=ALL first move/stay.HON-PST-PTCP=CFP
 ‘(He) came to my place first.’ [Co: 110328_00.txt]
- b. [Context: Speaking with MY]
 ude, kun nikan kadin nji!
 ude ku-n nikan kam-ti=n nj-i
 well PROX-ADNZ mikan eat-SEQ=ever EXP-IMP
 ‘Well, try to eat this *mikan*!’ [Co: 101023_01.txt]

/waa/ *waa-a* (1SG-ADNZ) ‘my’ in (??a) fills the modifier slot of an NP, whose head is *mæð* ‘front.’ *ku-n* (PROX-ADNZ) ‘this’ in (??b) fills the modifier slot of an NP, whose head is *nikan* ‘*mikan*.’

Furthermore, a modifier slot of an NP can be filled by an adnominal clause, whose final constituent is a participle (see §??).

- (7) [Context: Speaking of the time when US was selling fish]
 simananti tujun j’udu
 [sima=nanti tur-jur-n]_{Adnominal clause} j’u=du
 community=LOC2 take-UMRK-PTCP fish=FOC
 ujutaroooga?
 ur-jur-tar-oo=ga
 sell-UMRK-PST-SUPP=FOC
 ‘(You) used to sell fish which (people) caught in the community [i.e. not buying from outside the community]?’ [Co: 110328_00.txt]

In the above example, *sima=nanti tur-jur-n* (community=LOC2 take-UMRK-PTCP) ‘catching in the community’ is an adnominal clause, which modifies its head *j’u* ‘fish’.

¹When *nu* (GEN) follows *n* (DAT1), the head of an NP is always *tuki* ‘time’ in my texts.

1.2 Head

1.2.1 The structural property of head

The head slot of an NP is obligatory, and can be filled by a nominal.

- (8) Head is filled by a nominal
 [Context: Talking of kinds of snails]
 ariga tanmjaa jappajaa.
a-ri=ga tanmjaa jar-ba=jaa
 DIST-NLZ=NOM mud.snail COP-CSL=SOL
 ‘That is a mud snail, you know.’ [Co: 111113_02.txt]

In (??), *tanmjaa* ‘mud snail’ fills the head slot of an NP, which is followed by a copula verb.

The head slot of an NP can be filled by the infinitive (see §??).

- (9) Head is filled by an infinitive
 [Context: Speaking with MY about the present author]
 |benkjoo| sjun c’junkjaccjiboo, gan sji
benkjoo sir-jur-n c’ju=nkja=ccjiboo ga-n sir-ti
 study do-UMRK-PTCP person=APPR=speaking.of MES-ADVZ do-SEQ
 sjuti, |benkjoo| sii jappajaa.
sir-jur-ti benkjoo sir-i jar-ba=jaa
 do-UMRK-SEQ study do-INF COP-CSL=SOL
 ‘Speaking of a person who does studies, (he) does studying like that, you know.’ [Co: 101023_01.txt]

In (??), the infinitive /sii/ *sir-i* (do-INF) ‘doing’ fills the head slot of an NP, which is followed by a copula verb.

It should be noted that an NP can have recursive structure. A head nominal followed by a genitive particle can fill the modifier slot recursively as in (??), whose construction is as follows: “[Modifier Head]_{Modifier} Head.” In addition, a head modified by an adnominal clause can fill the head slot recursively, which is further modified by an adnominal as in (??b) in §??, whose construction is as follows: “Modifier [Modifier Head]_{Head}.”

1.2.2 Bound head (formal nouns)

A head of an NP is usually a free form as in the previous section. There are, however, some morphemes that are bound, i.e. cannot start an utterance by

themselves, but can fill the head slot of an NP. Such morphemes are called “formal nouns” in this grammar associated with the same term used in the traditional Japanese linguistics. So far, I have found thirteen formal nouns in my texts: *si* ‘thing; person; fact’, *kutu* ‘event’, *hudu* ‘quantity’, *bun* ‘share’, *taməə* ‘sake’, *hazi* ‘certainty’, *nintəə* ‘people’, *nagati* ‘along’, *hutəə/butəə/datəə* ‘vicinity’, *turoo* ‘place’, *mama* ‘still’, *tui* ‘as’, and *hui* ‘pretend’. They can be modified by at least one of adnominals, address nouns, or adnominal clauses.

1.2.2.1 *si* ‘thing; person; fact’

The formal noun *si* behaves differently from other formal nouns. For example, the semantic content is so “light” that it can indicate almost all of the substances, i.e. humans, non-humans, or events. Furthermore, *si* (FN) behaves like an affix when it follows the verbal stems, i.e., the verbal stem that precedes *si* (FN) does not take the participial affix *-n* (PTCP). This phenomenon does not occur in the case of other formal nouns. I will present the details of *si* (FN) in turn below.

Semantically, the formal noun *si* can indicate either human or non-human referents. *si* in (??a) indicates a person, but *si* in (??b-c) indicates non-human referents.

(10) Human referent

- a. [Context: Talking about how to cook in the old days]
 nanzijucjinkjoo sjusəə waakjabəi arantakai?
nanziju=ccji=nkja=ja sir-jur=si=ja waakja=bəi ar-an-tar=kai
 fireplace =QT=APPR=TOP do-UMRK=FN=TOP 1PL=only
 ‘Perhaps, (it was) only us, who did (the cooking) at fireplaces, wasn’t (it)?’ [Co: 111113_02.txt]
- b. Non-human referent
 uraga j’usinan (hintooja sjun
ura=ga j’-jur=si=nan hintoo=ja sir-jur-n
 2.NHON.SG=NOM say-UMRK=FN=LOC1 reply=TOP do-UMRK-PTCP
 ..) hintooja sjussa.
hintoo=ja sir-jur-sa
 reply=TOP do-UMRK-POL
 ‘(I) will reply to what you say.’ [Co: 120415_01.txt]
- c. [Context: Talking about the bulletins of Yuwan made by the speaker’s son]

kurəə |mae|nusi zjajaa.
ku-ri=ja *mae=nu=si* *zjar=jaa*
 PROX-NLZ=TOP before=GEN=FN COP=SOL
 ‘This is the thing (made) before.’ [Co: 120415_01.txt]

Additionally, *si* can indicate an event. In other words, it can function as a so-called “complementizer” (see also §??).

- (11) a. [Context: Looking at a picture, where people older than TM got together.]
 wakaran... kan sji juratasəə
wakar-an *ka-n* *sir-ti* *juraw-tar=si=ja*
 understand-NEG PROX-ADVZ do-SEQ get.together-PST=FN=TOP
 sijan.
sij-an
 know-NEG
 ‘(I) don’t know.... (I) don’t know that (they) got together like this.’ [Co: 120415_00.txt]
- b. [Context: TM asked when US had come to her house.]
 nanga kunəəda umoocjasəə kun
nan=ga *kunəəda* *umoor-tar=si=ja* *ku-n*
 2.HON.SG=NOM the.other.day come.HON-PST=FN=TOP PROX-ADNZ
 cʰjunu cʰjəərai?
cʰju=nu *k-təəra=i*
 person=NOM come-after=PLQ
 ‘(Is it) after this person [i.e. the present author] came (to your house) that you [i.e. US] came (here) the other day?’ [Co: 110328_00.txt]

In (??a-b), *si* indicates neither a human nor a non-human referent, but indicates an event as a whole.

Within a clause, an NP headed by *si* can fill the argument slot as in (??b) or the nominal predicate slot as in (??c). Within an NP, *si* cannot fill the head slot only by itself: */sinu ai/ *si=nu ar-i* (FN=NOM exist-NPST) [Intended meaning] ‘There is something.’ In order to fill the head slot of an NP, *si* has to be modified by adnominals, genitive NPs, or address nouns as in (??a-c). The modifiers and *si* (FN) are underlined below.

- (12) a. Modified by an adnominal word
 [Context: Talking about laundry detergent]

1 Nominal phrases

uraasəə ooja iziran.jaa.
 ura-a=si=ja oo=ja izir-an=jaa
 2.NHON.SG-ADNZ=FN=TOP bubble=TOP go.out-NEG=SOL
 ‘Yours [i.e. your laundry detergent] does not make bubbles, does it?’
 [El: 120928]

b. Modified by a genitive NP

[Context: Talking about a photograph collection]

|taken|nusiga mutu zja.
 taken=nu=si=ga mutu zjar
 Taken=GEN=FN=NOM original COP

‘The things from Taken [i.e. pictures gathered in Taken] are originals
 (of the collection).’ [Co: 11113_02.txt]

c. Modified by an address noun

anmaasəə dīru?
 anmaa=si=ja dī-ru
 mother=FN=TOP which-NLZ
 ‘Which one (is) mother’s?’ [El: 140227]

There is a characteristic unique to the formal noun *si*, which differentiates *si* from other formal nouns. *si* cannot be modified by an adnominal clause (with the exception of the case where *-an* (NEG) precedes *si*). Rather, it behaves like a verbal affix directly following a bound verbal stem (cf. affix-like clitics in §??). Relevant examples were already shown in (6-10 a-b, 6-11 a-b). Thus, I will compare *si* and another formal noun, e.g. *turoo* ‘place,’ in (??a-b).

(13) a. Head is *si* (FN)

[Context: Talking about the present author]

an nisəə muccji ikjusəə nun
 a-n nəisəə mut-ti ik-jur=si=ja nuu=n
 DIST-ADNZ young.man have-SEQ go-UMRK=FN=TOP what=any
 nənba, jakkəə.
 nə-an-ba jakkəə
 exist-NEG-CSL trouble

‘There is not anything [i.e. any food] the young man can take (for meals), so it’s a pity.’ [Co: 101023_01.txt]

b. Head is *turoo* ‘place’

[Context: Looking at a picture, where people gathered in front of a truck]

ikjun turookai?
ik-jur-n *turoo=kai*
 go-UMRK-PTCP place=DUB

‘Is (this) a scene where they go (somewhere)?’ [Co: 120415_00.txt]

An adnominal clause should take a participle as its predicate in Yuwan (see §??). Thus, *turoo* ‘place’ in (??b) is modified by an adnominal clause whose predicate is a participle /ikjun/ *ik-jur-n* (go-UMRK-PTCP). However, in (??a), *si* is not modified by an adnominal clause, but it follows directly a bound verbal stem /ikju/ *ik-jur* (go-UMRK), which does not take the participial affix *-n*. Therefore, in (??a), we may say that the formal noun *si* has lost its ability to fill the head slot of an NP. Rather, it behaves as an affix, and the verbal form /ikjusi/ *ik-jur=si* (go-UMRK=FN) as a whole has developed the ability to fill the head slot of an NP (see also §??). If *si* is directly preceded by the negative participial affix *-an* (NEG), the preceding clause has the same form with the adnominal clause whose head is a common noun as in (??a-b).

(14) Directly preceded by *-an* (NEG)

a. Head is *si* (FN)

kamansəə jiccjoo nən.
kam-an=si=ja *jiccj-soo* *nə-an*
 eat-NEG=FN=TOP good-ADJ STV-NEG

‘The fact (you) do not eat (anything) is not good (for your health).’ [El: 100222]

b. Head is *c’ju* ‘person’

hanməəga kaman c’ju nati c’jijoo.
hanməə=ga kam-an c’ju *nar-ti* *k-ti=joo*
 meal=NOM eat-NEG person become-SEQ come-SEQ=CFM1

‘(I)’ve become a person who cannot eat meal (very much).’ [Co: 120415_01.txt]

In (??b), the predicate of the adnominal clause, i.e. *kam-an* (eat-NEG), precedes the common noun *c’ju* ‘person.’ Similarly, in (??a), *kam-an* (eat-NEG) does not undergo any reduction before *si* (FN). In this case, we may say that the predicate *kam-an* (eat-NEG) in (??a) fills the predicate slot of the adnominal clause whose head is *si* (FN).

1.2.2.2 *kutu* ‘event’

I will present examples of *kutu* ‘event.’ In (??a), *kutu* ‘event’ is modified by a genitive NP *mukasi=nu* (past=GEN), and in (??b) it is modified by an adnominal clause whose head is the participle /*kadan/ kam-tar-n* (eat-PST-PTCP).

- (15) a. With a genitive NP [= (??a)]
 tarun mukasinukutu siccjun c’joo
 ta-ru=n mukasi=nu=kutu sij-tur-n c’ju=ja
 who-NLZ=any past=GEN=event know-PROG-PTCP person=TOP
 wuranbajaa.
 wur-an-ba=jaa
 exist-NEG-CSL=SOL
 ‘There is not anyone who knows the events of the past.’ [Co:
 110328_00.txt]
- b. With an adnominal clause
 dookunii cikimunna urihudu cikijunban,
 dookunii+cikimun=ja u-ri+hudu cikir-jur-n=ban
 white.radish+pickles =TOP MES-NLZ+quantity
 kadankutoo t’in nən.
 kam-tar-n=kutu=ja t’ii=n nə-an
 pickle-UMRK-PTCP=ADVRS eat-PST-PTCP=event=TOP one.CLF=even
 ‘I pickle so many white radishes, but there is no time when I ate
 (them).’ [Co: 101023_01.txt]

1.2.2.3 *hudu* ‘quantity’

I will present examples of *hudu* ‘quantity.’ *hudu* ‘quantity’ in (??) is modified by an adnominal clause whose head is the participle /*tujun/ tur-jur-n* (take-UMRK-PTCP).

- (16) With an adnominal clause
 [Context: Remembering a flood in the past]
 naa, |ikkai|nu mununkjoo sjasin
 naa ikkai+me=nu mun=nkja=ja sjasin
 FIL one.CLF+time=GEN thing=APPR=TOP picture
 tujunhudugadəə arannən,
 tur-jur-n=hudu=gadi=ja ar-annən
 take-UMRK-PTCP=quantity=LMT=TOP COP-NEG.SEQ
 ‘Well. The first one [i.e. flood] wasn’t quite worthy of a photograph...’ [Co:

120415_00.txt]

An example of compounding of *hudu* ‘quantity’ was also shown in (??b).

1.2.2.4 *bun* ‘share’

I will present examples of *bun* ‘share.’ In (??a), *bun* ‘share’ is modified by an adnominal *u-n* (MES-ADNZ), and in (??b) it is modified by an adnominal clause whose head is the participle /kikjun/ *kik-jur-n* (hear-UMRK-PTCP).

- (17) a. With an adnominal
 [Context: Explaining that there are not so many plates in TM’s house]
 unbundu saran anmun.
u-n=bun=du *sara=n* *ar-n=mun*
 MES-PTCP=share=FOC plate=also exist-PTCP=ADVRS
 ‘There are so many plates as (there are).’ [Co: 110328_00.txt]
- b. With an adnominal clause
 [Context: Talking about traditional songs; ‘If (I) hear a music tape, ...’]
 samisjen kikjunbunsji nuutaccjəə sigu
samisjen kik-jur-n=bun=sji *nuu+uta=ccji=ja* *sigu*
 samisen hear-UMRK-PTCP=share=INST what+song=QT=TOP soon
 wakajuttoo.
wakar-jur=doo
 understand-UMRK=ASS
 ‘Soon (I) can understand what song (it is) only by hearing (the sound of) samisen.’ [Co: 111113_01.txt]

1.2.2.5 *taməə* ‘sake’

I will present examples of *taməə* ‘sake.’ In (??a), *taməə* ‘sake’ is modified by an adnominal *urakja-a* (2.NHON.PL-ADNZ), and in (??b) it is modified by an adnominal clause whose head is the participle /noosjun/ *noos-jur-n* (leave-UMRK-PTCP).

- (18) a. With an adnominal
 uraa baasanna jazin
ura-a *baasan=ja* *jazin*
 2.NHON.SG-ADNZ grandmother=TOP necessarily
 magankjanu urakjaataməəja |nacuwa|
maga=nkja=nu *urakja-a=taməə=ja* *nacu=wa*
 grandchild=APPR=GEN 2.NHON.PL-ADNZ=sake=TOP summer=TOP

1 Nominal phrases

jazin kinukkwa jatattujaa.
 jazin kin-kkwa jar-tar-tu=jaa
 necessarily clothes-DIM COP-PST-CSL=SOL
 ‘Your grandmother necessarily prepared clothes for (her) grandchild,
 (i.e.) you, in summer.’ [Co: 120415_01.txt]

b. With an adnominal clause

[Context: Thanking ms for his kind cooperation to preserve the old tradition of Yuwan]

noosjuntaməə urakjaga |kjoorjoku| sji
 noos-jur-n=taməə urakja=ga kjoorjoku sir-ti
 leave-UMRK-PTCP=sake 2.NHON.PL=NOM cooperation do-SEQ
 kurijun mun nati,
 kurir-jur-n mun nar-ti
 BEN-UMRK-PTCP thing COP-SEQ
 ‘To preserve (the old traditions) a person like you is so kind as to
 cooperate (with us), so ...’ [Co: 111113_02.txt]

1.2.2.6 *hazi* ‘certainty’

I will present examples of *hazi* ‘certainty.’ In (??a), *hazi* ‘certainty’ is modified by a genitive NP *u-ma=nu* (MES-place=GEN), and in (??b) it is modified by an adnominal clause whose head is the participle /wun/ *wur-n* (exist-PTCP).

(19) a. With a genitive NP

[Context: Looking at a picture] umanuhazi zjaga.
 u-ma=nu=hazi zjar=ga
 MES-place=GEN=certainty COP=CFM3
 ‘(The place you are speaking of) must be there.’ [Co: 111113_01.txt]

b. With an adnominal clause

[Context: Looking at a picture] josihironiitaa
 josihiro+nii-taa
 Yoshihiro+older.brother-PL
 wunhazi zjassigajaa.
 wur-n=hazi zjar-siga=jaa
 exist-PTCP=certainty COP-POL=SOL
 ‘Yoshihiro must be (there).’ [Co: 120415_00.txt]

In both of the examples of (??a-b), the NPs headed by *hazi* ‘certainty’ fill the

predicate slots with the copular verb *zjar-*. In addition, the NP headed by *hazi* 'certainty' can fill the modifier slot of an NP as in (??).

- (20) [Context: Talking about TM's son]
j'aranhazinu mungadi jatti.
j'-ar-an=hazi=nu mun=gadi j'-ar-ti
say-PASS-NEG=certainty=GEN thing=LMT say-PASS-SEQ
'A thing that need not be said is said (about him).' [Co: 120415 01.txt]

In the above example, *hazi* ‘certainty’ is modified by an adnominal clause *j²-ar-an* (say-PASS-NEG) ‘(need) not be said,’ and the NP headed by *hazi* ‘certainty’ recursively filled the modifier slot of an NP with genitive case, whose head is *mun* ‘thing.’

1.2.2.7 *nintəə* ‘people’

I will present examples of *nintəə* ‘people.’ In (??a), *nintəə* ‘people’ is modified by an adnominal *u-n* (MES-ADNZ), and in (??b) it is modified by an adnominal clause whose head is the participle /nacikasjan/ *nacikasj-sa+ar-n* (familiar-ADJ+STV-PTCP), and in (??c) it undergoes compounding with *juwan* ‘Yuwan.’

- (21) a. With an adnominal
 [Context: TM said that she knew some old people went to see prefectural highway.]
 un nintəənu hanacjattu.
u-n nintəə=nu hanas-tar-tu
 MES-ADNZ people=NOM talk-PST-CSL
 ‘They said (that they went there, so I know that).’ [Co: 120415_00.txt]
- b. With an adnominal clause
 [Context: Looking at a picture]
 minna nacikasjannintəəbɪ.
minna nacikasj-sa+ar-n=nintəə=bɪ
 everybody familiar-ADJ+STV-PTCP=people=only
 ‘(They are) all familiar people.’ [Co: 120415_01.txt]
- c. Compounding
 [Context: Looking at a picture where the women of Yuwan are dancing the traditional dance]

1 Nominal phrases

kurəə, juwannintəənu, dantikai?
ku-ri=ja juwan+nintəə=nu daa=nanti=kai
 PROX-NLZ=TOP Yuwan+people=NOM where=LOC2=DUB
 ‘(Where do) the people of Yuwan (dance?) Where is this?’ [Co:
 111113_01.txt]

1.2.2.8 *nagatii* ‘along’

I will present examples of *nagatii* ‘along.’ In (??a), *nagatii* ‘along’ is modified by an adnominal *u-n* (MES-ADNZ), and in (??b) it goes through compounding with *koo* ‘river’. So far, there is no example where *nagatii* ‘along’ is modified by an adnominal clause.

- (22) a. With an adnominal
 [Context: Talking about TM’s house in the past]
jaaja unnagatii haija buubuu tubjakudi,
jaa=ja u-n=nagatii hai=ja buu+buu tubjakum-ti
 house=TOP MES-ADNZ=along ash=TOP RED+floating scatter-SEQ
 ‘(In my) house, around there, ashes scattered.’ [Co: 111113_02.txt]
- b. Compounding
 [Context: Remembering how to gather wood for business in the past]
jamanu kii urisji koonagatii |hora| siccji
jama=nu kii u-ri=sji koo+nagatii hora sikk-ti
 mountain=GEN tree MES-NLZ=INST river+along hey draw-SEQ
kjuuroogai?
k-jur-oo=ga=i
 come-UMRK-SUPP=CFM3=PLQ
 ‘(Do you remember that people) harvest the trees on the mountain
 along the river by that (river boat)?’ [Co: 111113_01.txt]

In addition, *nagatii* ‘along’ can be the head of a compound, and it means ‘while.’

- (23) *hudəəsinaɡatii, nun kangəəɡutoo*
hudəəs-i+naɡatii nuu=n kangəər+kutu=ja
 bring.up-INF+along what=any think.INF+event=TOP
nən.jojaa.
nə-an=joo=jaa
 exist-NEG=CFM1=SOL
 ‘While (you) are bringing up (your child), there is nothing to think about

[i.e. you are in a trance].’ [Co: 120415_01.txt]

The compound *hudəəs-i+nagati* (bring.up-INF+along) ‘while (someone) is bringing up’ is similar to the special-type compound in (??a) in §?? However, they are different from each other since the former heads an adverbial clause. Further research is required for this expression.

1.2.2.9 *hutəə/butəə/datəə* ‘vicinity’

I will present the examples of *hutəə*, *butəə*, and *datəə*, meaning ‘vicinity’. *hutəə* may be replaced by *butəə* freely. In (??a), *hutəə* ‘vicinity’ is modified by an adnominal *u-n* (MES-ADNZ), and in (??b) it goes through compounding with *kusi* ‘Kushi.’

(24) a. With an adnominal

[Context: Talking about MY]

attaaja, un, unhutəənan

a-ri-taa=ja u-n u-n=hutəə=nan

DIST-NLZ-PL=TOP MES-ADNZ MES-ADNZ=vicinity=LOC1

wutancijjaa.

wur-tar-n=ccji=jaa

exist-PST-PTCP=QT=SOL

‘(I heard) that she and her family were around there.’ [Co: 110328_00.txt]

b. Compounding

kusi^hhutəənu c^hju zja.

kusi+hutəə=nu c^hju zjar

Kushi+vicinity=GEN person COP

‘(The person in the picture) is a person from around Kushi.’ [Co: 111113_02.txt]

Similarly, *datəə* ‘vicinity’ can be modified by an adnominal or undergoes compounding. In (??a), *datəə* ‘vicinity’ is modified by an adnominal *u-n* (MES-ADNZ), and in (??b) it goes through compounding with *sutu* ‘outside.’

(25) a. With an adnominal

undatəəja nuuga aru?

u-n=datəə=ja nuu=ga ar-u

MES-ADNZ=vicinity=TOP what=FOC exist-PFC

‘What is around that place?’ [El: 120919]

1 Nominal phrases

b. Compounding

kazi hikijassa atoo, gan sji nati,
kazi hik-i+jass-sa ar-too ga-n sir-ti nar-ti
 cold draw-INF+easy-ADJ STV-CSL MES-ADVZ do-SEQ COP-SEQ
 sutudatəə aikjankarajaa
sutu+datəə aik-an=kara=jaa
 outside+vicinity walk-NEG=after=SOL
 ‘(I) am liable to catch a cold, so (I) do not walk around outside.’ [Co:
 120415_01.txt]

So far, there is no example where *hutəə/butəə/datəə* ‘vicinity’ is modified by an adnominal clause.

1.2.2.10 *turoo* ‘place’

I will present examples of *turoo* ‘place.’ In (??a), *turoo* ‘place’ is modified by an NP *sugoja-taa* (Sugoya-PL), which fills the modifier slot by juxtaposition, and in (??b) it is modified by an adnominal clause whose head is the participle /*asaan/ asa-sa+ar-n* (shallow-ADJ+STV-PTCP).

- (26) a. With an NP filling the modifier slot by juxtaposition
 [Context: Remembering a scene around TM’s house in the past]
sugojataaturoobəi jaanu atanwake.
sugoja-taa=turoo=bəi jaa=nu ar-tar-n=wake
 Sugoya-PL=place=only house=NOM exist-PST-PTCP=CFP
 ‘There was a house only at the Sugoya’s place.’ [Co: 120415_00.txt]
- b. With an adnominal clause
 [Context: Talking about how to carry woods using ships along the river]
|sijo|nu asasanturoo jatin,
sijo=nu asa-sa+ar-n=turoo jar-ti=n
 tide=NOM shallow-ADJ+STV-PTCP=place COP-SEQ=even
 ‘Even if it was the place where the tide was shallow, ...’ [Co:
 111113_01.txt]

1.2.2.11 *mama* ‘still’

I will present examples of *mama* ‘still.’ In (??a), *mama* ‘still’ is modified by an adnominal *u-n* (MES-ADNZ), and in (??b) it goes through compounding with *zitensja* ‘bicycle.’

- (27) a. With an adnominal
 [Context: Explaining how to make the pickles of white radish]
 unnan unmana |bakecu|nan kan sji
u-n=nan u-n=mama bakecu=nan ka-n sir-ti
 MES-ADNZ=LOC1 MES-ADNZ=still bucket=LOC1 PROX-ADVZ do-SEQ
 tatiti ukuboo,
tatir-ti uk-boo
 stand-SEQ put-CND
 ‘If (you) stand (the white radishes with seasoning) there, in the
 bucket, as they are, ...’ [Co: 101023_01.txt]
- b. Compounding
 |zitsensja|mama hankəəti,
zitsensja+mama hankəər-ti
 bicycle+still tumble-SEQ
 ‘(The boy) tumbled while riding on the bicycle.’ [PF: 090225_00.txt]

So far, there is no example in texts where *mama* ‘still’ is modified by an adnominal clause.

1.2.2.12 *tui* ‘as’

I will present examples of *tui* ‘as.’ In (??), *tui* ‘as’ is modified by the adnominal clause whose head is the participle /j’icjan/ *j’-tar-n* (say-PST-PTCP).

- (28) With an adnominal clause
 |zibunga| j’icjantuidaroogaccji un jingoo j’icji,
zibun=ga j’-tar-n=tui=daroo=ccji u-n jinga=ja j’-ti
 RFL=NOM say-PST-PTCP=as=SUPP=QT MES-ADNZ mam=TOP say-SEQ
 ‘The man said that, “(It is) just as (I) myself said”, and ...’ [Fo:
 090307_00.txt]

So far, there is no example in texts where *tui* ‘as’ is modified by other than adnominal clauses.

1.2.2.13 *hui* ‘pretend’

I will present examples of *hui* ‘pretend.’ In (??), *hui* ‘pretend’ is modified by the adnominal clause whose head is the participle *sij-an* (know-NEG).

1 Nominal phrases

(29) With an adnominal clause

sijanhuikkwa sji,

sij-an=hui-kkwa sir-ti

know-NEG=pretend-DIM do-SEQ

‘Pretending not to know (about the thrown snacks), ...’ [Co: 120415_01.txt]

So far, there is no example in texts where *hui* ‘pretend’ is modified by other than adnominal clauses.

1.3 Case

Yuwan has fourteen case particles, which are clitics that follow an NP. They are classified into the argument case, which marks a dependent in a clause (nominative, accusative, dative 1, dative 2, allative, locative 1, locative 2, locative 3, instrumental, ablative, comitative, limitative, and comparative) and the genitive case, which marks a modifier in an NP. Yuwan has a nominative-accusative case marking system.

Table 1.1: . Case particles

Names	Forms	Prototypical functions
Nominative	<i>ga/nu</i>	S, A
Accusative	<i>ba</i>	P
Dative 1	<i>n</i>	beneficiary
Dative 2	<i>nkati</i>	recipient of information
Allative	<i>kaci</i>	goal of locomotion
Locative 1	<i>nan/nən</i>	place of contact
Locative 2	<i>nanti/nənti</i>	location
Locative 3	<i>zji</i>	location distant from the speaker
Instrumental	<i>sji</i>	instrument
Ablative	<i>kara</i>	source
Comitative	<i>tu</i>	participant of association
Limitative	<i>gadi</i>	limit
Comparative	<i>jukkuma</i>	standard of comparison
Genitive	<i>ga/nu</i>	NP modifier

I will discuss case particles in Yuwan in the following order. First, I will present the morphophonological alternation that are found in some case particles in §??

Some of the case particles undergo contraction with their preceding demonstrative nominals, i.e. *ku-ri* (PROX-NLZ), *u-ri* (MES-NLZ), or *a-ri* (DIST-NLZ), which was already discussed in (??) and (??) in §?? Second, the morphosyntax and semantics of each case particle is shown in §?? Thirdly, case particles that have similar functions are compared with one another in §?? Finally, the grammaticalization found in a few case particles in Yuwan will be discussed in §??

1.3.1 Morphophonology of case particles

The following morphophonological alternations are found in the case particles in Yuwan

(30) Morphophonological alternations of case particles

- a. fusion: *kaci* (ALL) (see §??); *kara* (ABL) (see §??);
- b. epenthesis: *n* (DAT1) and *nan* (LOC1) (see §??);
- c. deletion: *nan* (LOC1) and *nanti* (LOC2) (see §??).

1.3.1.1 Fusion of *kaci* (ALL)

If the allative case *kaci* follows vowels, the following fusion frequently occurs. Please note that the fusion of //ci, si, zi// and *kaci* requires a little attention because it forms not /Cəəci/ but /Cjəəci/.

- (31) a. High front vowel
 // C i // + *kaci* (ALL) > /Cjəəci/
 [C is //c, s, z//]
 // C i // > /Cəəci/
 [C is not //c, s, z//]
- b. High mid vowel²
 // C i // > /Cəəci/
- c. High back vowel
 // C u // > /Cooci/
- d. Other short vowels
 // C V_i // > /CV_iV_i ci/

²If the consonant before a mid-vowel is bilabial or velar, the fused form /əəci/ often sounds like [ɜːtɕi] and [jːtɕi], and the latter may be interpreted as /iici/. Audio-instrumental research is needed on this point in the future.

1 Nominal phrases

e. Long vowels and diphthongs

// V V // > /Vvci/

f. Elsewhere

// C // > /Ckaci/

The fusion of //i, i, u// and *kaci* (ALL) changes the original vowel positions, but the other short vowels retain their original positions. I will show examples below.

(32) a. High front vowel

kuci ‘mouth’ + *kaci* (ALL) > /kucjæci/ (* /kucæci/)

kusi ‘(name of place)’ > /kusjæci/ (* /kusæci/)

tuzi ‘wife’ > /tuzjæci/ (* /tuzæci/)

k’ubi ‘neck’ > /k’ubæci/

b. High mid vowel

umuti ‘front’ + *kaci* (ALL) > /umutæci/

c. High back vowel

haku ‘box’ + *kaci* (ALL) > /hakooci/

d. Other short vowels

jama ‘mountain’ + *kaci* (ALL) > /jamaaci/

kumamoto ‘(place name)’ > /kumamotooci/

e. Long vowels or diphthongs

naa ‘inside’ + *kaci* (ALL) > /naaci/

hizjai ‘left’ > /hizjaici/

f. Elsewhere

mun ‘thing’ + *kaci* (ALL) > /munkaci/

1.3.1.2 Fusion of *kara* (ABL)

The process of fusion in the ablative case *kara* is the same as that of the allative case *kaci* (see §??). The only difference between them is the phonemes in their final syllables, i.e., the former is /ra/ and the latter is /ci/.

(33) a. High front vowel

// C i // + *kara* (ABL) > /Cjæra/

[C is //c, s, z//]

// C i // > /Cæra/

[C is not //c, s, z//]

- b. High mid vowel³
// C i // > /Cəəra/
- c. High back vowel
// C u // > /Coora/
- d. Other short vowels
// C V_i // > /cv_iV_i ra/
- e. Long vowels and diphthongs
// V V // > /VVra/
- f. Elsewhere
// C // > /Ckara/

The fusion of //i, i, u// and *kara* (ABL) changes the original vowel positions, but the other short vowels retain their original positions. I will show examples below.

- (34) a. High front vowel
kuci ‘mouth’ + *kara* (ABL) > /kucjəəra/ (* /kucəəra/)
kusi ‘(name of place)’ > /kusjəəra/ (* /kusəəra/)
tuzi ‘wife’ > /tuzjəəra/ (* /tuzəəra/)
k’ubi ‘neck’ > /k’ubəəra/
- b. High mid vowel
umuti ‘front’ + *kara* (ABL) > /umutəəra/
 - c. High back vowel
atu ‘later’ + *kara* (ABL) > /atoora/
 - d. Other short vowels
jama ‘mountain’ + *kara* (ABL) > /jamaara/
kumamoto ‘(place name)’ > /kumamotoora/
 - e. Long vowels or diphthongs
naa ‘inside’ + *kara* (ABL) > /naara/
hizjai ‘left’ > /hizjaira/
 - f. Elsewhere
unin ‘that time’ + *kara* (ABL) > /uninkara/

³If the consonant before a mid-vowel is bilabial or velar, the fused form /əəra/ often sounds like both [ɜ:ra] and [ɜ̃:ra], and the latter may be interpreted as /iira/. Audio-instrumental research is needed on this point in the future.

1.3.1.3 Epenthesis of dative case 1 *n* and locative case *nan* (LOC1)

A syllable must have a nucleus filled by a vowel (see §??). Thus, if the dative case *n* or locative case *nan* (LOC1) happens to precede a syllable filled by a single consonant at a morpheme boundary, an epenthetic vowel /i/ is inserted as a nucleus.

- (35) $\emptyset > /i/ \text{ / } n \text{ (DAT1) } _ //n\#//$
nan (LOC1)
- a. Dative
jinga ‘man’ + *n* (DAT1) + *n* ‘also’
 $> /jinga. ni \text{ } n/$
 - b. Locative 1
 - i. *kun* (PROX.ADNZ) + *nan* (LOC1) + *n* ‘also’
 $> /kun \text{ } na.ni \text{ } n/$
 - ii. *kun* (PROX.ADNZ) + *nən* (LOC1) + *n* ‘also’
 $> /kun \text{ } nən.ni \text{ } n/$

In cases where *n* (DAT1) follows a syllable-final $//n/$ (instead of preceding $//n/$ such as (??a)), an epenthetic vowel /u/ is inserted between them by the application of a phonological rule discussed in §??, e.g. *bun* ‘the Bon festival’ + *n* (DAT1) $> /bu.nun/$. This raises the question of what happens in cases where *n* (DAT1) is surrounded by $//n/s$. In those cases, as mentioned before (at the beginning of §??), the morphophonemic rule (??) applies first, and that is sufficient in order to adjust the syllable structure.

- (36) *wan* (1SG) + *n* (DAT1) + *n* ‘also’
 $> /wan. ni \text{ } n/$
 $*/wa.nu. ni \text{ } n/$

1.3.1.4 Deletion in locative cases *nan* (LOC1) and *nanti* (LOC2)

The locative cases *nan* (LOC1) and *nanti* (LOC2) may become $/n/$ and $/nti/$ respectively, i.e., $//na//$ in their initial position may be deleted, when they follow a vowel.

- (37) *nan* (LOC1) $>$
 $/n/ \text{ / } //V// \text{ } _$
nanti (LOC2) $> /nti/$

- (38) a. Locative 1
kuma ‘here’ + *nan* (LOC1) + *nu* (GEN)
 > /kuma n nu/
 b. Locative 2
sja ‘lower side’ + *nanti* (LOC2)
 > /sja nti/

Additionally, if the locative case *nan* (LOC1) follows a vowel and also precedes a syllable filled by a single consonant, it becomes /ni/. In other words, //na// is deleted with *i*-insertion (see §??).

- (39) *nan* (LOC1) > /ni/ //V// _ //C#//
 (40) Input form *ui* ‘upper side’ + *nan* (LOC1) + *n* ‘also’
 //na// deletion: ui n n
 /i/ insertion: ui ni n
 Output form /ui. ni n/

When it is not followed by a syllable filled by a single consonant, it is preferred to avoid the deletion of //na//. That is, *kuma* (PROX.place) + *nan* (LOC1) > /kuma=nan/ is preferred. In fact, /kuma=n/ is judged as possible when I asked my consultants whether it can be used, but it is rarely uttered not only in the discourse, but also in elicitation. For this reason, the /ni/ is not regarded as the dative case *n*, but is regarded as the deleted (and *i*-inserted) form of *nan* (LOC1). Moreover, interpreting this /n/ as the deleted form of *nan* (LOC1) makes it easy to see the correspondence between *nan* (LOC1) and *nanti* (LOC2).

1.3.2 Syntax and semantics of case particles

The fourteen case particles, i.e. the argument cases (nominative, accusative, dative 1, dative 2, allative, locative 1, locative 2, locative 3, instrumental, ablative, comitative, limitative, and comparative,) and the genitive case, are discussed in the following subsections in turn.

1.3.2.1 Nominative case *ga/nu*

The nominative case has two morphemes *ga* and *nu*, and they are chosen depending on the lexical meanings (or the animacy hierarchy) of their head nominals (see also §?? and §?? for more details). The nominative case is used in the following environments.

1 Nominal phrases

- (41) Nominative case is used to mark,
- Subject of predicates;
 - Object of transitive verb that expresses incapability;
 - Predicate NP of the subordinate clause in negative;
 - Lexical verb in the AVC that expresses incapability or includes /nə-n/ (RSL-NEG);
 - Infinitives in the complement slot of LVC that expresses incapability;
 - Object of *wakar-* ‘understand.’

I will present examples of (??a-f) in turn below.

With regard to (??a), the nominative case is used to mark the subject of intransitive verb, transitive verb, or copula verb.

- Subject of verbal predicates (intransitive verb)
[Context: Remembering TM’s mother who knew traditional things very much]
anmataaga wuppoojaa.
anmaa-taa=ga wur-boo=jaa
mother-PL=NOM exist-CND=SOL
‘If (my) mother were here, (it would be good).’ [Co: 110328_00.txt]
 - Subject of verbal predicates (transitive verb)
[Context: Rembering a scene from the Pear Film]
uziiga muti, un k’wanu muccji izji,
uzii=ga mur-ti u-n k’wa=nu mut-ti ik-ti
old.man=NOM pick.up-SEQ MES-ADNZ child=NOM have-SEQ go-SEQ
‘The old man picked up (the pears), and the child brought (them), and ...’ [PF: 090827_02.txt]
 - Subject of adjectival predicates
nama haanu awusan ucin,
nama haa=nu awu-sa+ar-n uci=n
still leaf=NOM green-ADJ+STV-PTCP during=DAT1
‘While the leaves were still green, ...’ [Co: 101023_01.txt]
 - Subject of nominal predicates
[Context: Looking at a picture]
kumaga hasi jappa.
ku-ma=ga hasi jar-ba
PROX-place=NOM bridge COP-CSL
‘Since here is a bridge.’ [Co: 120415_00.txt]

In (??a), /anmataa/ *anmaa-taa* (mother-PL) is the subject of the verbal predicate (whose head is the intransitive verb *wur-* ‘exist’), and it takes the nominative case particle *ga*. In (??b), *uzii* ‘old man’ is also the subject of the verbal predicate (whose head is the transitive verb *mur-* ‘pick up’), and it takes the nominative case particle *ga*. Similarly, *u-n k’wa* (MES-ADNZ child) ‘that child’ is the subject of the verbal predicate (whose head is the transitive verb *mut-* ‘have’), and it takes the nominative case particle *nu*. In (??c), *haa* ‘leaf’ is the subject of the adjectival predicate (whose head is *awu-sa* (blue-ADJ) ‘blue’), and it takes the nominative case particle *nu*. In (??d), *ku-ma* (PROX-place) ‘here’ is the subject of the nominal predicate, and it takes the nominative case particle *ga*. It should be noted that there are some situations where the nominative case does not appear. For example, the subject of an imperative sentence usually does not appear, but sometimes it can appear. In that case, the subject does not take the nominative case.

a. Subjects of imperative

- i. [Context: TM tried to make MY pronounce the word for ‘knee’ in Yuwan.]

ura *j’icjin* *nji!*

ura *j’-ti=n* *nj-i*

2.NHON.SG say-SEQ=also EXP-IMP

‘You try to say (it)!’ [Co: 110328_00.txt]

- ii. [Context: TM asked MS to make the topic of their conversation for recording.]

ura |*wadai*| *cikiti* *kurippa*.

ura *wadai* *cikir-ti* *kurir-ba*

2.NHON.SG topic make-SEQ BEN-CSL

‘Would you please make the topic (of our conversation)?’ [Co: 120415_01.txt]

The subjects of the above examples, i.e. *ura* ‘you’, do not take any case in imperative sentences. Moreover, if the NP is followed by *ja* (TOP), *du* (FOC), *ga* (FOC), and *n* ‘also; even; any’, the nominative case cannot occur (see §??).

With regard to (??b), there are examples, where the nominative case does not mark the subject of the clause, but mark the object. In such a case, the clause expresses “incapability,” and it should use *ga* (not *nu*) with a verb containing *-an* (NEG) (see §?? for more details).

1 Nominal phrases

a. Objects of the transitive verbs

i. Object taking *ga* (NOM)

wanna, joo, anmai hanməɣa, hanməga kaman cʰju
wan=ja joo anmai hanməɣ=ja hanməɣ=ga kam-an cʰju
1SG=TOP FIL so.much meal=TOP meal=NOM eat-NEG person
nati cʰjijoo.
nar-ti k-ti=joo
become-SEQ come-SEQ=CFM1

‘I, (about) the meal, came to be a (kind of) person who cannot eat the meal so much.’ [Co: 120415_01.txt]

ii. Object taking *ba* (ACC)

hanməɣba kamanboojaa
hanməɣ=ba kam-an-boo=jaa
meal=ACC eat-NEG-CND=SOL

‘(We) have to eat the meal.’ [Co: 101020_01.txt]

In (??b), the verb is *kam-* ‘eat’ and its object, i.e. *hanməɣ* ‘meal’, is followed by the accusative case *ba*, which is a regular case marking for the object (see §??). In (??a), however, the object of the same verb takes *ga* (NOM), with a meaning of incapability. Other examples are also shown below.

a. Objects of the transitive verbs

i. |wadai|ga siranba.

wadai=ga sir-an-ba
topic=NOM do-NEG-CSL

‘(I) cannot initiate a topic, so ...’ [Co: 120415_01.txt]

ii. hanasimiciga sijanbajaa.

hanas-i+miciga sij-an-ba=jaa
talk-INF+way=NOM know-NEG-CSL=SOL

‘(I) don’t know the way to talk (well), so (I cannot communicate well with the present author).’ [Co: 120415_01.txt]

The clauses in (??) and (??) express incapability in spite of there being no morphemes to express capability such as *-ar* (CAP) or *kij-* (CAP).

With regard to (??c), an NP in the predicate phrase [i.e. the nominal predicate] usually does not take any case particle, but if it is in negative and also in the adverbial (or adnominal) clause, it takes one of the nominative case particles (see §??).

a. [= (??b)]

uraga tumainu aran
 ura=ga tumai=nu ar-an
 2.NHON.SG=NOM night.duty=NOM COP-NEG
 Subject [NP Copula
 tukin,
 tuki=n
 time=DAT1
 verb]Nominal predicate phrase

‘When you are not on night duty, ...’ [Co: 111113_02.txt]

The above example shows that not only the subject, i.e. *ura=ga* (2.NHON.SG=NOM), but also the NP in the predicate, i.e. *tumai=nu* (night.duty=NOM), take the nominative case.

With regard to (??d), the nominative case can be used to mark the lexical verbs in the auxiliary verb construction (AVC) that express incapability or includes /nə-n/ *nə-an* (RSL-NEG).

a. Lexical verbs in AVC expressing incapability

- i. kuminkjanu nənboo, kadiga ikjankara,
kumi=nkja=nu nə-an-boo kam-ti=ga ik-an=kara
 rice=APPR=NOM exist-NEG-CND eat-SEQ=NOM go-NEG=CSL
 ‘If there is no food such as rice, (we) cannot live, so ...’ [Co: 120415_01.txt]

Lexical verbs in AVC whose auxiliary verb is /nə-n/ *nə-an* (RSL-NEG)

- ii. [Context: Wondering whether the owner of the electric shop is there; MY: ‘(He) may be there.’]
 naa, unmama hanməə kamgjaa izjīnu FIL
 nənboo. ikjasjigajaaroo.
naa u-n=mama hanməə kam-Ø+gjaa ik-ti=nu
 MES-ADNZ=still meal eat-INF+PURP go-SEQ=NOM exist-NEG-CND
 how-ADVZ=DUB
 ‘If (he) has not gone to eat the meal yet (and if he is not still out) that, (he may be there). (But actually I) wonder if (he is).’ [Co: 110328_00.txt]
- iii. [Context: Talking about the beam in the ceiling; ‘(The beam) of your house is very white.’; MS: ‘Yeah, (it) is not as black as yours.’; TM: ‘(Yours) is not black, I suppose. ...’]

1 Nominal phrases

məəcjiga nənba.

məəs-ti=ga nən-an-ba

fire-SEQ=NOM exist-NEG-CSL

‘(Your family) has not burned (wood as we did in my place, where the kitchen was very close by), so (yours is white).’ [Co:

11113_01.txt]

In (??a), the lexical verb in the AVC, i.e. /kadi/ *kam-ti* (eat-SEQ), takes *ga* (NOM). The predicate means incapability, although there is no verbal morpheme to express capability such as *kij-* (CAP) or *ar-* (CAP), which is similar to the cases in (??) and (??). In (??b-c), the lexical verbs in the AVCS, i.e. /izji/ *ik-ti* (go-SEQ) and /məəcji/ *məəs-ti* (fire-SEQ), take *nu* (NOM) or *ga* (NOM) (see also §??).

With regard to (??e), the nominative case can be used to mark the infinitives in the complement slot of LVC that expresses incapability.

- a. Infinitive in the complement slot of LVC

aikiga siikijanba.

aik-i=ga sir-i+kij-an-ba

walk-INF=NOM do-INF+CAP-NEG-CSL

Complement LV

‘(I) cannot walk [lit. do walking], so (I cannot bring the pickles from my house).’ [Co: 120415_01.txt]

In (??), the infinitive in the complement slot of the light verb *sir-* ‘do,’ i.e. *aik-i* (walk-INF), takes *ga* (NOM) (see also §??).

With regard to (??f), the nominative case can be used to mark the object of *wakar-* ‘understand; know.’

- a. To mark the object of *wakar-* ‘understand.’

i. un |zjookjoo|nu wakajui?

u-n zjookjoo=nu wakar-jur-i

MES-ADNZ situation=NOM understand-UMRK-NPST

‘Do (you) understand the situation (that I told)?’ [PF: 090827_02.txt]

ii. jakitəəranu atuga wakaran.

jakir-təəra=nu atu=ga wakar-an

burn-after=GEN after=NOM know-NEG

‘(I) don’t know (what happened) after (the houses) burnt.’ [Co: 120415_01.txt]

Before concluding this section, I will present the examples where the nominative can follow another case particle as in (??a-b).

a. Nominative following another case

- i. kumakaciga asikenkai?
ku-ma=kaci=ga asiken=kai
 PROX-place=ALL=NOM Ashiken=DUB
 ‘(The area) from here is Ashiken?’ [Co: 111113_01.txt]
- ii. kun c’jutu kun c’jutuga
ku-n c’ju=tu ku-n c’ju=tu=ga
 PROX-ADNZ person=COM PROX-ADNZ person=COM=NOM
 dikimun.jo.
dikimun=joo
 genius=CFM1
 ‘This person and this person are genius.’ [Co: 120415_00.txt]

The above examples show that the nominative case can follow another case particle when they are the subjects of the nominal predicates.

1.3.2.2 Accusative case *ba*

The accusative case *ba* is normally used to mark the object of transitive verbs. In (??a), *ura* ‘you’ is an animate pronoun and the object of a transitive verb *abir-* ‘call’. In (??b), *nasi* ‘pear’ is an inanimate common noun and also the object of a transitive verb *mur-* ‘pick up.’

- a. i. Object of transitive verb (animate pronoun)
 mattaku wakaranba, uraba abiranboo.
mattaku wakar-an-ba ura=ba abir-an-boo
 at.all understand-NEG-CSL 2.NHON.SG=ACC call-NEG-CND
 ‘I called you because if (I) don’t call you, (I) won’t understand (what I should do) at all.’ [Co: 101023_01.txt]
- ii. Object of transitive verb (inanimate common noun) [= (??a)]
 nasiba t’*hi* t’*hi* mutunwakejo.
*nasi=ba t’*hi* t’*hi* mur-tur-n=wake=joo*
 pear=ACC one.CLF one.CLF pick.up-PROG-PTCP=CFP=CFM1
 ‘(The old man) is picking up pears one by one.’ [PF: 090222_00.txt]

Both object NPs in (??a-b) take the accusative case particle *ba*. Additionally, the accusative case *ba* can be omitted as follows.

- a. Patient of transitive verb (inanimate common noun)

uziiga daibangiinanti nasi mutunwake.
 uzii=*ga* *daiban+kii=nanti nasi mur-tur-n=wake*
 old.man=NOM big+tree=LOC2 pear pick.up-PROG-PTCP=CFP

‘An old man is picking pears off on a big tree.’ [PF: 090305_01.txt]

In both (??b) and (??), the NP *nasi* ‘pear’ is the object argument of the verb *mur-* ‘pick up.’ On the one hand, the former takes *ba* (ACC); on the other hand, the latter does not take any case. So far, such an omission of *ba* (ACC) has rarely been found when the object is a personal pronoun, a human demonstrative, or an address noun (except for the causative construction discussed in (123b) in §??). (The example of common noun, however, was found in (26) in §??, which is taken from the elicitation.) In fact, these lexical groups appeared so many times in the text, but there are only a few instances where they are used as objects. Therefore, it is difficult to know whether it is impossible that *ba* (ACC) is really unable to be omitted after these lexical groups. Mitsukaido, which is a dialect of Japanese, has two accusative forms, one of which has a phonetic form, i.e. *godo*, but the other does not (zero form), and the choice of them depends on the animacy of their head NP (Sasaki: 2004: 129). In Yuwan, the choice of *ba* (ACC) is not restricted by the animacy of its head NP, but there is a possibility that the omissibility of the accusative case is influenced by the animacy of the head of an NP. The omissionability of accusative case particle after an inanimate referent NP seems to have a relation with one of the components of transitivity “INDIVIDUATION OF O” in Hopper and Thompson 1980.

It should be noted that the accusative case *ba* can be used to mark the goal of (deictic) locomotion verbs.

- a. Goal of a deictic locomotion verb

- i. [Context: Speaking about an acquaintance] = (??c)

nasjeba izji c’jæroo, akka taməə naa
nasje=ba ik-ti k-tæra=ja a-ri=ga taməə naa
 Naze=ACC go-SEQ come-after=TOP DIST-NLZ=GEN sake already
 issai warusoo jantatto.
issai waru-soo j’-an-tar-too
 all bad-ADJ say-NEG-PST-CSL

‘After going to and returning from Naze, (she) did not say anything bad about him.’ [Co: 101023_01.txt]

- ii. *jama izji,*
jama ik-ti
mountain go-SEQ
 ‘(The people) go to the mountain (to get wood to make a coffin),
 and ...’ [Co: 111113_01.txt]

In (??a), the locomotion verb *ik-* ‘go’ takes *ba* (ACC) to mark the goal NP, i.e. *nasje* ‘Naze.’ In (??b), the goal NP is not marked by any case particle. In fact, both of the accusative case *ba* (ACC) and the allative case *kaci* (ALL) can mark the goal of locomotion verbs (see §??). Thus, it is difficult to determine the omitted case particle in (??b). The verbs that can take *ba* (ACC) for the goal of locomotion are all deictic locomotion verbs, i.e. *ik-* ‘go,’ *k-* ‘come,’ and *umoor-* ‘go; come (honorific).’

Before conclusion, it should be noted that the accusative particle *ba* is different from the topic particle *ja*. Therefore, they can make a sequence as in (??) in §??

1.3.2.3 Dative case 1 *n*

The dative case 1 *n* has a wide range of use: beneficiary, causee, agent of passive construction, agent of verbs to express capability, and time. It is also used to mark the benefactor (in a broad sense), whose examples will be shown (??b) in §??

- a. i. Beneficiary
nuu jatin *sigu c’jun* *kuricjasa* *sii*
nuu jar-ti=n *sigu c’ju=n* *kurir-cja-sa* *sir-i*
 what COP-SEQ=even soon person=DAT1 give-want-ADJ do-INF
natijo.
nar-ti=joo
 become-SEQ=CFM1
 ‘Whatever it is, (I) feel like wanting to give (it) to a person
 without hesitation.’ [Co: 120415_01.txt]
- ii. Causee
arin *karasoojæ.*
a-ri=n *kar-as-oo=jæ*
 DIST-NLZ=DAT1 borrow-CAUS-INT=CFM2
 ‘(I) will make that person borrow (it).’ [El: 120921]
- iii. Agent of passive construction

[Context: An old man found gold under the ground, but he did not bring it home, so his wife was surprised to hear that.]

gan jiccjan mun həəku tuti
ga-n jiccj-sa+ar-n mun həə-ku tur-ti
 MES-ADVZ good-ADF+STV-PTCP thing early-ADVZ take-SEQ
 konboo, cʰjun timirariidoocji
k-on-boo cʰju=n timir-arir-Ø=doo
 come-NEG-CND person=DAT1 find-PASS-INF=ASS

jʰicjanmun,

jʰ-tar-n=mun

say-PST-PTCP=ADVRS

‘(The wife) said that, “If (you) don’t bring such a good thing, (it) will be found by another person,” but ...’ [Fo: 090307_00.txt]

iv. Agent of verbs to express capability

wannin kakarissa.
wan=n=n kak-arir-sa
 1SG=DAT1=also write-CAP-POL

‘I also can write (it).’ [El: 121001]

v. Time

icinkuin attu hanasjun
icii=n=kui=n a-ri=tu hanas-jur-n
 when=any=INDF=any DIST-NLZ=COM talk-UMRK-PTCP
 tukinnja,
tuki=n=ja
 time=DAT1=TOP

‘Whenever (I) talk with him, ...’ [Co: 111113_02.txt]

In (??a), *cʰju* ‘person’ is the beneficiary of the verb *kurir*- ‘give’ and takes *n* (DAT1). In (??b), *a-ri* ‘that person’ is the causee of the verb *kar-as*- (borrow-CAUS) ‘make (someone) borrow’ and takes *n* (DAT1). In (??c), *cʰju* ‘person’ is the agent of the passive construction whose predicate includes the passive affix *-arir* and it takes *n* (DAT1). In (??d), *wan* (1SG) is the agent of the verb *kak-arir*- (write-CAP) ‘can write’ and takes *n* (DAT1). In (??e), *tuki* ‘time’ takes *n* (DAT1).

The dative 1 *n* can follow the verbal infinitives. This combination expresses the time of the event.

- a. amanan wuinkara, naa naikwa kawati,
a-ma=nan wur-i=n=kara naa naikwa kawar-ti
 DIST-place=LOC1 exist-INF=DAT1=ABL already a.little strange-SEQ
 ‘(The person) was already strange since (the person) was there, and ...’
 [Co: 120415_01.txt]

In the above example, *n* (DAT1) follows the infinitive of the *wur*- ‘exist’, i.e. /wui/ *wur-i* (exist-INF), and is followed by *kara* (ABL) meaning ‘from the time ...’. Such a phenomenon, i.e. the combination of an infinitive plus *n* (DAT1) meaning the time of the event, is said to be common in Ryukyuan languages (Prof. Shigehisa Karimata, 2013 p.c.). There are no examples in my texts where *n* (DAT1) is followed by *kara* (ABL) if the preceding word is a nominal, e.g. **tuki=n=kara* (time=DAT1=ABL). Thus, it seems that the *n* following a nominal would be different from *n* following a verb. However, I will regard them as the same morpheme *n* (DAT1) because of the following reasons: (a) both kinds of *n* behave in the same way on morphophonological alternation; (b) *n* (DAT1) following a nominal can also mean the time of the event.

- a. i. Following a nominal
k’uusjuunnja wurantancji?
k’uusjuu=n=ja wur-an-tar-n=ccji
 air.raid=DAT1=TOP exist-NEG-PST-PTCP=QT
 ‘(Did you said) that (MY) was not living here at the time of the air raid (in the World War II)?’ [Co: 110328_00.txt]
- ii. Following a verb
usato|obasan|ga wuinnja muru jiccja
usato+obasan=ga wur-i=n=ja muru jiccj-sa
 Usato+aunt=NOM exist-INF=DAT1=TOP very good-ADJ
 atanmuncjijo.
ar-tar-n=mun=ccji=joo
 STV-PST-PTCP=ADVRS=QT=CFM1
 ‘The time when Usato lived (here) was very good.’ [Co: 110328_00.txt]

In ((?a-b), both instances of *ja* (TOP), which follow *n* (DAT1), become /nja/. Furthermore, in ((?a), the nominal *k’uusjuu* ‘air raid’ followed by *n* (DAT1) does not mean ‘air raid’ itself but means ‘the time of air raid,’ which is similar to the use of *n* (DAT1) that follows the verb /wuin/ *wur-i=n* (exist-INF=DAT1) meaning ‘the time when (someone) exists.’

1.3.2.4 Dative case 2 *nkati*

The dative case 2 *nkati* is used to mark the recipient of information.

- a. Recipient of information

[Context: TM advised her son about how to treat a certain acquaintance of them]

wanna mata sigu arinkati j^ʔicjancjijo.

wan=ja mata sigu a-ri=*nkati* j^ʔ-tar-n=ccji=joo

1SG=TOP again soon DIST-NLZ=DAT2 say-PST-PTCP=QT=CFM1

‘I said (it) to that person [i.e. my son] without hesitation.’ [Co: 120415_00.txt]

In the above example, *a-ri* (DIST-NLZ) ‘that person’ is the addressee of the verb *j^ʔ* ‘say’ and takes *nkati* (DAT2). *nkati* (DAT2) can co-occur with *j^ʔ* ‘say,’ *hanas* ‘talk,’ and *jusir* ‘teach.’ The origin of *nkati* (DAT2) is not clear so far. Although we cannot say the correct candidate for its origin, we can say a wrong candidate. The initial phoneme /n/ of *nkati* (DAT2) is not made of the contraction of the genitive particle *nu* (see (??) in §?? for the contraction of the genitive *nu*), because the demonstrative nominal does not take the genitive particle *nu* if it indicates human (see Table ?? in §?? and (??) in §??). In (??), the demonstrative /ari/ *a-ri* (DIST-NLZ) clearly indicates a human referent, so it cannot take *nu* (GEN). That is, the /n/ of *nkati* (DAT2) is not made of *nu* (GEN), at least considering the modern synchronic data.

1.3.2.5 Allative case *kaci*

The allative case *kaci* is used to mark the goal of locomotion.

- a. i. Goal of locomotion (*nagir*- ‘throw’)

[Context: A man got angry thinking that he had been cheated by the old couple.]

janmækaci nagiti, un jingoo

janmæ=kaci *nagir-ti* u-n jinga=ja

garden=ALL throw-SEQ MES-ADNZ man=TOP

hingitancji.

hingir-tar-n=ccji

run.away-PST-PTCP=QT

‘(It was said) that the man threw (mud) in their garden and ran away.’ [Fo: 090307_00.txt]

- ii. Goal of deictic locomotion (*ik-* ‘go’)

[Context: Looking at a picture, TM was guessing where the scene was.]

in, in. jaakaci ikjunturoo zja.
in in jaa=kaci ik-jur-n=turoo zjar
 yes yes house=ALL go-UMRK-PTCP=place COP

‘Oh, yeah. (It) is a scene of going to the house.’ [Co: 120415_01.txt]

In (??a), *janmæ* ‘garden’ is the goal of the verb *nagir-* ‘throw’ and takes *kaci* (ALL). In (??b), *jaa* ‘house’ is the goal of the verb *ik-* ‘go’ and takes *kaci* (ALL) too.

Additionally, *kaci* (ALL) can be used to mark the result of change with *nar-* ‘become.’ However, such an example is very rare. Among 44 examples, where the predicates are *nar-* ‘become,’ there are only two such examples.

- a. i. [Context: A bad man threw a pot filled with mud.]

un janmæakaci nagirattætān ciboga mata
u-n janmæ=kaci nagir-ar-tæar-tar-n cibo=ga mata
 MES-ADNZ garden=ALL throw-PASS-RSL-PST-PTCP pot=NOM again
 kundoo kinkakaci nati,
kundu=ja kinka=kaci nar-ti
 this.time=TOP gold.coin=ALL become-SEQ

‘The pot thrown in the garden became (filled with) golds coins again this time.’ [Fo: 090307_00.txt]

- ii. [Context: Speaking about a teacher who taught at the elementary school of TM’s childhood]

atoo cjuugakkookaci nati,
atu=ja cjuugakkoo=kaci nar-ti
 after=TOP junior.high.school=ALL become-SEQ

‘After (that), (he) became (a teacher at) a junior high school, and...’ [Co: 120415_00.txt]

- iii. tacumianjootuzituuga nakawudo nati,
tacumi+anjoo+tuzituu=ga nakawudo nar-ti

Tatsumi+older.brother+couple=NOM matchmaker become-SEQ

‘Mr. and Mrs. Tatsumi became matchmaker, and ...’ [Co: 120415_00.txt]

- iv. [Context: Talking about a tradition]

jurunkjoojoo, hajasa nibuppoo, kuuhuu
 juru=nkja=ja=joo haja-sa nibur-boo kuuhuu
 night=APPR=TOP=CFM1 early-ADJ sleep-CND owl
 nati, uri sjuncji j'icji
 nar-ti u-ri sir-jur-n=ccji j'-ti
 become-SEQ MES-NLZ do-UMRK-PTCP=QT say-SEQ
 '(Old people) said that if you go to sleep early at night, (you)
 become an owl, and do it, and ...' [Co: 11113_02.txt]

Both *kinka* 'gold coin' in (??a) and *cjuugakkoo* 'junior high school' in (??b) are the goals of change indicated by *nar*- 'become' and marked by *kaci* (ALL); however, such a goal is normally not marked by any case particle as in (??c-d). So far, the difference between them is not so clear, but there is a good example in another language of Ryukyuan. In Irabu (Southern Ryukyuan), there are two case particles *n* (DAT1) and *nkai* (ALL), both of which can be used with *nar*- 'become', and the allative case is used when the speaker feels that there is a long distance between the source and the goal of change (Shimoji 2013). Looking back to the examples of Yuwan in (??a-b), it is possible to assume a long distance between the source and goal of change. In (??a), the source 'mud' became the goal 'gold coin,' and in (??b), the source '(a teacher at the) elementary school' became '(a teacher at the) junior high school.' There is, however, an example which does not use *kaci* (ALL) in spite of there being a long distance between the source and the goal, e.g. the source 'a child' and the goal 'an owl' in (??d). Therefore, it may be said in Yuwan that if *kaci* (ALL) is used as the goal of change, the distance between the source and goal is relatively long, but not vice versa.

1.3.2.6 Locative case 1 *nan/nən*

The locative case 1 *nan* (or *nən*) is used to mark the place of contact; *nən* is used only after the demonstrative adnominal (see (??) in §??). At least, *nan* (LOC1) needs two referents, i.e. a place and something (or someone) that makes contact with the place. *nan* (LOC1) follows an NP that indicates the place, and the subject of an intransitive clause, or the object of a transitive clause indicates a referent that makes contact with the place. First, let us see intransitive (or less transitive) clauses.

- a. i. un sjanan cibonu ati,
u-n sja=nan cibo=nu ar-ti
 MES-ADNZ below=LOC1 pot=NOM exist-SEQ
 ‘There was a pot under there, and ...’ [Fo: 090307_00.txt]
- ii. [Context: Talking about MY]
 = (??a)
 attaja (un) un hutəənan
a-ri-taa=ja u-n u-n hutəə=nan
 DIST-NLZ-PL=TOP MES-ADNZ MES-ADNZ vicinity=LOC1
 wutancijjaa.
wur-tar-n=ccji=jaa
 exist-PST-PTCP=QT=SOL
 ‘(I heard) that she and her family were around there.’ [Co: 110328_00.txt]
- iii. [Context: A boy who put a basket full of pears in front of his bicycle bumped into a stone.]
 isinan atati,
isi=nan atar-ti
 stone=LOC1 bump-SEQ
 ‘(The boy) bumped into a stone, and ...’ [PF: 090225_00.txt]

In (??a), *un sja* ‘the place under there,’ which takes *nan* (LOC1), is the place where the subject *cibo* ‘pot’ exists. In (??b), *un hutəə* ‘around there [lit. that vicinity]’, which takes *nan* (LOC1), is the place where the subject /attaa/ *a-ri-taa* (DIST-NLZ-PL) ‘she and her family’ stayed. In (??c), *isi* ‘stone’, which takes *nan* (LOC1), is the place that the subject *inja+warabi* ‘boy [lit. small child]’, though it was omitted in the above sentence, made contact with. The period for the subject to be in contact with the place of *nan* (LOC1) differs from a relatively long instance as in (??a-b) to a short instance as in (??c). Such a difference results from the meaning of each verb and the context where it is used. In my texts, the following intransitive verbs co-occured with *nan* (LOC1): *ar-* ‘exist,’ *tamar-* ‘accumulate,’ *hamar-* ‘get stuck,’ *wur-* ‘exist,’ *umoor-* ‘exist (honorific),’ *tat-* ‘stand,’ *nihur-* ‘sleep,’ *tumar-* ‘stay,’ *cik-* ‘stick to,’ *kaar-* ‘relate to,’ *hənkj-* ‘enter,’ and *atar-* ‘bump.’

Then, I will show the examples of transitive (especially three-participant) clauses.

1 Nominal phrases

- a. i. *kiinu sjanannja kagonu t'aaci*
kii=nu sja=nan=ja kago=nu t'aaci
 tree=GEN below=LOC1=TOP basket=GEN two.CLF.thing
ucjuti,
uk-tur-ti
 put-PROG-SEQ
 'Under the tree, (the old man) put two baskets, and ...' [PF:
 090222_00.txt]
- ii. [Context: Describing how the village mayor answers the
 questions addressed to him by members of the village assembly]
attaaga jun munnan hintooja
a-ri-taa=ga j'-jur-n mun=nan hintoo=ja
 DIST-NLZ-PL=NOM say-UMRK-PTCP thing=LOC1 reply=TOP
sjuppa.
sir-jur-ba
 do-UMRK-CSL
 '(He) makes a reply (smoothly) to what they say, so ...' [Co:
 120415_01.txt]

In (??a), *kii=nu sja* 'the place under the tree,' which takes *nan* (LOC1), is the place where the object *kago=nu t'aaci* 'two baskets' exists. In (??b), */attaaga jun mun/ a-ri-taa=ga j'-jur-n mun* (DIST-NLZ-PL=NOM say-UMRK-PTCP thing) 'what they say,' which takes *nan* (LOC1), is the place that the object *hintoo* 'a reply' makes contact with, although the meaning of 'contact' is very abstract here. At the beginning of this section, I said that in the transitive clause the place of *nan* (LOC1) is the one that the object (not the subject) makes contact with. However, among about twenty examples of transitive clauses that include *nan* (LOC1), there is only one example where it seems that the subject (but not the object) would be the referent contacting with the place of *nan* (LOC1).

- a. [Context: Seeing a picture where a harvest festival is held and people were wandering and dancing around the community, while men only wore the cotton belts called 'mawashi' in order to do sumo wrestling, and women walked and danced, having the meal for festival, between the men]
wunagunintən ədanan kuri muccji, woman+people=also
wunagu+nintəə=n əda=nan ku-ri mut-ti
 between=LOC1 PROX-NLZ have-SEQ

‘Also the women had this [i.e. the meal for festival] between (the men), and ...’

|hai, hai, hai, hai.|

hai hai hai hai

yes yes yes yes

‘Oh, yeah.’ [Co: 11113_01.txt]

In the above example, the object *ku-ri* ‘this [i.e. the meal for festival]’ is not the referent that made contact with the place *əda* ‘the space between (the men)’. Rather, the subject *wunagu+nintə* ‘women’ made contact with the place of *nan* (LOC1). Thus, it seems that this example would be a counterexample of the generalization at the beginning of this section. However, the above sentence uttered by TM was stopped with the converbal form /muccji/ *mut-ti* (have-SEQ), which means that there is a possibility that TM could continue the utterance with a certain verb that can take *nan* (LOC1), say *wur-* ‘exist.’ In fact, TM’s utterance was interrupted by the nodding of MS (and TM did not continue the preceding sentence).

Before concluding this section, I want to remark the fact that *nan* (LOC1) can directly follow demonstrative adnominals, and then *nan* (LOC1) may alternate with *nən*.

- a. i. Demonstrative adnominal + *nan* (LOC1)

[Context: Explaining how to make the pickles of white radish]

un_{nan} un mama |bakecu|_{nan} kan

u-n=nan u-n mama bakecu=nan ka-n

MES-ADNZ=LOC1 MES-ADNZ still bucket=LOC1 PROX-ADVZ

sjī tatiti ukuboo,

sir-ti tatir-ti uk-boo

do-SEQ stand-SEQ put-CND

‘If (you) stand (the white radishes with seasoning) there, in the bucket, as they are, ...’ [Co: 101023_01.txt]

- ii. Demonstrative adnominal + *nən* (LOC1)

unnən nasinu natunwake.

u-n=nən nasi=nu nar-tur-n=wake

MES-ADNZ=LOC1 nasi=NOM bear-PROG-PTCP=CFP

‘There are pears there [i.e. on the big tree].’ [PF: 090827_02.txt]

In (??a), *nan* (LOC1) directly follows an adnominal *u-n* ‘that (one)’ and they express a place as a whole. In (??b), *nən* (LOC1) also directly follows

an adnominal *u-n* ‘that (one).’ *nan* (LOC1) can follow both nominals and demonstrative adnominals. On the other hand, *nən* (LOC1) can follow only demonstrative adnominals.

1.3.2.7 Locative case 2 *nanti/nənti*

The locative case 2 *nanti* is used to mark the place of dynamic action. In (??a), /daibangii/ *daiban+kii* ‘big tree,’ which takes *nanti* (LOC2), is the place where the action *nasi mur-* (pear pick.up) ‘to pick up pears’ occurs. In (??b), *jaa* ‘house,’ which takes *nanti* (LOC2), is the place where the action *nusi=sji hanməə sir-* (RFL=INST cooking do) ‘to do cooking by oneself’ occurs.

- a. i. [= (??)]
 uziiga daibangiinanti nasi mutunwake.
 uzii=ga daiban+kii=nanti nasi mur-tur-n=wake
 old.man=NOM big+tree=LOC2 pear pick.up-PROG-PTCP=CFP
 ‘An old man is picking pears off on a big tree.’ [PF: 090305_01.txt]
- ii. uroo jaananti nusijsi hanməə sji, kamii?
 ura=ja jaa=nanti nusi=sji hanməə sir-ti kam-i
 2.NHON.SG=TOP house=LOC2 RFL=INST cooking do-SEQ eat-INF
 ‘You do cooking by yourself, and eat (the meal) at home?’ [Co:
 120415_01.txt]

This is a mere conjecture, but *nanti* (LOC2) can be thought to be made of /nan wuti/ *nan wur-ti* (LOC1 exist-SEQ) ‘to exist at (somewhere), and ...,’ since normally the environment where *nanti* (LOC2) can be used shows complementary distribution with that of *nan* (LOC1). For example, *nanti* (LOC2) cannot be used with *wur-* ‘exist,’ but *nan* (LOC1) can (see also §??). Furthermore, *nanti* (LOC2), as well as *nan* (LOC1), can directly follow demonstrative adnominals with an optional alternation with *nənti* as in (??). In (??a), *nanti* (LOC2) directly follows an adnominal *u-n* ‘that (one)’ and they express a place as a whole. In (??b), *nənti* (LOC2) also directly follows an adnominal *u-n* ‘that (one)’ with its vowel centralization.

- a. i. Demonstrative adnominal + *nanti* (LOC2)
 kunugurugadi (kun ..)
 kunuguru=gadi ku-n u-n=nanti
 recently=LMT PROX-ADNZ MES-ADNZ=LOC2

unnanti cukututanmundoojaa.
cukur-tur-tar-n=mun=doo=jaa
make-PROG-PST-PTCP=ADVRS=ASS=SOL
'(They) were making dyed goods until recently there.' [Co:
111113_01.txt]

- ii. Demonstrative adnominal + *nānti* (LOC2)
 daibangiinu ati, unnānti jinganu |hasigo|
daiban+kii=nu ar-ti u-n=nānti jinga=nu hasigo
 big+tree=NOM exist-SEQ MES-ADNZ=LOC2 man=NOM ladder
kiiti,
kiir-ti
 put-SEQ
 ‘There was a big tree, and there a man put a ladder (against it),
 and ...’ [PF: 090222 00.txt]

Thus, it is reasonable to think that the initial syllable /nan/ of *nanti* (LOC2) has the same origin with *nan* (LOC1).

1.3.2.8 Locative case 3 *zji*

The locative case 3 *zji* is used to mark the location of an action, which is distant from the speaker. It is probable that *zji* (LOC3) was grammaticalized from the converb /*izji/ ik-ti* (go-SEQ) ‘to go, and ...’ (see §??). The head verb of *zji* (LOC3) must have an animate subject (except for the metaphorical expression).

- a. i. usjəə amanu ... kusabutuuzji
usi=ja a-ma=nu kusabutu=zi cinag-ti
 ox=TOP DIST-place=GEN thick.grass=LOC3 hitch-SEQ
 cinazji koojaccji jʔicji,
k-oo=ja=ccji jʔ-ti
 come-INT=SOL=QT say-SEQ
 ‘Let’s go to hitch the ox to the thick grass there’, said (the man),
 and ...’ [Fo: 090307_00.txt]
- ii. [= (??b)]
 sabiisabi aikikippoo, cikimununkja
sabi+sabi aik-i+kij-boo cikir+mun=nkja
 RED+smoothly walk-INF+CAP-CND pickle.INF+thing=APPR

1 Nominal phrases

jaazji tikkoorinmun.
jaa=zji tikk-oori-n=mun
house=LOC3 bring-CAP-PTCP=ADVR
'If (I) could walk smoothly, (I) could go home and bring the
pickles, but (I cannot).' [Co: 120415_01.txt]

In (??a), *a-ma=nu kusabutuu* 'thick grass there,' which takes *zji* (LOC3), is the goal where the subject goes and takes the action *usi* (ox) + *cinag-ti k-* (hitch-SEQ come) 'to go to hitch the ox.' In this example, the subject is 'the man,' although it is not overtly expressed in the example. In (??b), *jaa* 'house,' which takes *zji* (LOC3), is the goal where the subject goes and takes the action *cikir+mun=nkja* (pickle.INF+thing=APPR) + *tikk-* (bring) 'to bring the pickles.' In this example, the subject is 'I' [i.e. the speaker TM], although it is not overtly expressed in the example. In both of the examples, the places indicated by (NPs followed by) *zji* (LOC3) are distant from the speaker, which is the main characteristic specific to *zji* (LOC3) (see also §??).

1.3.2.9 Instrumental case *sjī*

The instrumental *sjī*, which is used to mark primarily an instrument, but in fact it can be used to mark a very broad meaning, e.g. material, reason, and membership of agent. First, let us see examples of instrumental *sjī*.

a. Instrument

[Context: Complaining about an acquaintance's slander]

wanga kucisji nusiboo
wan=ga kuci=sji nusi=ba=ja
1SG=NOM mouth=INST RFL=ACC=TOP

jamacjuncji,
jam-as-tur-n=ccji
have.a.pain-CAUS-PROG-PTCP=QT

'(The person said) that I was making the person ill using (my) mouth,
and ...' [Co: 120415_01.txt]

In the above example, *kuci* 'mouth' is the instrument used to criticize someone, and it takes *sjī* (INST). The next examples are used to mean material, where the NP marked by *sjī* (INST) becomes a part of the result of action.

a. Material

- i. [Context: Hearing that US spoke to the present author in the standard Japanese]

|hoogen|sji j'anboo.

hoogen=sji j'-an-boo

dialect=INST say-NEG-CND

‘(You) have to speak in the dialect [i.e. Yuwan].’ [Co: 110328_00.txt]

- ii. c'jasuguu kusasji mata usati

c'jasuguu kusa=sji mata usaw-ti

soon grass=INST again cover-SEQ

‘Soon (the man) covered (the pot filled with gold coins) with grass again.’ [Fo: 090307_00.txt]

In (??a), *hoogen* ‘dialect’ is the material to make an utterance, and it takes *sji* (INST). In (??b), *kusa* ‘grass’ is also the material to cover the pot, and it takes *sji* (INST) too.

Next, let us look at examples of *sji* used to give a reason.

a. Reason

- i. [Context: Talking about students who participate in the training camp held in the village]

hasijaankjanu |gassjuku|sji

hasij-jaa=nkja=nu gassjuku=sji

run-person=APPR=NOM training.camp=INST

kjuuroogai?

k-jur-oo=ga=i

come-UMRK-SUPP=CFM3=PLQ

‘Runners would come for training camp, you know.’ [Co: 110328_00.txt]

- ii. [Context: Remembering the days of the World War II]

k'uusjuusji attakəə jakitattujaa.

k'uusjuu=sji attakəə jakir-tar-tu=jaa

air.raid=INST everything be.burnt-PST-CSL=SOL

‘Everything was burnt by the air raid, so (there are no houses from that time).’ [Co: 110328_00.txt]

In (??a), *gassjuku* ‘training camp’ is the reason that the runners come to the village, and it takes *sji* (INST). In (??b), *k'uusjuu* ‘air raid’ is also the reason that everything was burnt in the village, and it takes *sji* (INST) as well.

Finally, I will show examples of an agent made up of multiple members, where the NP marked by *sji* (INST) expresses how many people or what kind of people composed of the membership of a collective agent.

a. Membership of agent

- i. [Context: There are three boys who saw another boy bumping against a stone by bicycle, and the pears fell off the front basket; ‘The three (happened to) pass the way, and stand the bicycle of the boy who bumped (there), and ...’]

micjaisji (ka) kasjəə sji, kagokaci
micjai=sji kasjəə sir-ti kago=kaci irir-jur-n=wake
 three.CLF=INST help do-SEQ basket=ALL put.in-UMRK-PTCP=CFP
 irijunwake.

‘The three (of them), helped (the boy), and put (the pears) in the basket.’ [PF: 090222_00.txt]

- ii. [Context: Speaking to MS]

uroo jaananti nusijsi hanməə sji, kamii?
ura=ja jaa=nanti nusi=sji hanməə sir-ti kam-i
 2.NHON.SG=TOP house=LOC2 RFL=INST meal do-SEQ eat-INF
 ‘You cook by yourself and eat (the meal) at home?’ [Co: 120415_01.txt]

- iii. burakusji sjən |suidoo| jatikai?
buraku=sji sir-təər-n suidoo jar-ti=kai
 community=INST do-RSL-PTCP water.conduit COP-SEQ=DUB
 ‘(It) was the water conduit that has been set up by the community?’ [Co: 110328_00.txt]

In (??a), *micjai* ‘three people’ is the membership of agent who helped the boy, and it takes *sji* (INST). In (??b), *nusi* (REL) ‘oneself’ is the membership of agent who makes the meal, and it takes *sji* (INST). In (??c), *buraku* ‘community’ is also the membership of agent who has set up the water conduit, and it takes *sji* (INST) too. These NPs marked by *sji* (INST) add some pieces of information about the membership of agents. In other words, there may be another NP that indicates the agent itself, e.g. *ura* ‘you’ in (??b), which is the subject of the sentence. The form of the instrumental case, i.e. *sji*, is the same with a converbal form of *sir-* ‘do’, i.e. *sji* (do.SEQ). It is probable that *sji* (INST) originates from /*sji/ sir-ti*

(do-SEQ). However, the two forms are different from each other in modern Yuwan, since *REFex:key:1 sji* (INST) in the environments discussed above cannot take other inflection as the verb, e.g. one cannot say */nusi sjuttoo/ *nusi sir-jur=doo* (RFL do-UMRK=ASS) [Intended meaning] ‘(I) will do by myself’; (??) the NP before *sji* (INST) cannot take another case particle, e.g. one cannot say */nusunu sji/ *nusi=nu sir-ti* (RFL=NOM do-SEQ) instead of *nusi=sji* (RFL=INST) in (??b).

1.3.2.10 Ablative case *kara*

The ablative *kara* is used to mark a source, which is a starting point of an action (or event) in space or time as in (??a-b). There are also examples of semantic extension of these as in (??c-d).

a. Spatial source

- i. [Context: Talking about the staff of the village office, who went to help the people after the earthquake disaster on 11 **March2011**]

kumakara kinju jakubakara, naa, an
ku-ma=kara kinju jakuba=kara naa a-n
 PROX-place=ABL yesterday village.office=ABL FIL DIST-ADNZ
 siminu mizinkja nunkuin cinkudi,
simi=nu mizi=nkja nu=n=kui=n cinkum-ti
 Sumiyo=GEN water=APPR what=any=INDF=any load-SEQ

‘From here, yesterday, from the village office, (they) loaded (a truck) with that water from Sumiyo and other things [lit. anything], and ...’ [Co: 110328_00.txt]

Temporal source

- ii. waakjaa anmataa mæakacjæ mukasikara
waakja-a anmaa-taa mæə=kaci=ja mukasi=kara
 1PL-ADNZ mother-PL front=ALL=TOP past=ABL

kjuutattoo.

k-jur-tar=doo

come-UMRK-PST=ASS

‘From the past, (people who want to learn the traditional songs) would come to my mother’s place.’ [Co: 110328_00.txt]

Semantic extension

- iii. aræ attaa mæra muratən jaa
a-ri=ja a-ri-taa mæə=kara muraw-tæər-n jaa
 DIST-NLZ=TOP DIST-NLZ-PL front=ABL receive-RSL-PTCP house

1 Nominal phrases

jappa.

jar-ba

COP-CSL

‘Since that is the house (he) has received from them.’ [Co: 111113_01.txt]

- iv. urakjaa (mm) ziisan
 urakja-a ziisan məə=kara=du
 2.NHON.PL-ADNZ grandfather front=ABL=FOC
 məəradu narajutancji.
 naraw-jur-tar-n=ccji
 learn-UMRK-PST-PTCP=QT

‘(My mother said) that (she) learned (the traditional songs) from your grandfather.’ [Co: 111113_01.txt]

In (??a), *ku-ma* ‘here’ and *jakuba* ‘the village office’ are spatial sources, from which the truck loaded with relief supplies would set off. In (??b), *mukasi* ‘the past’ is a temporal source, from which the people started to come to see TM’s mother in order to learn the traditional songs. The next two examples are semantic extension from spatio-temporal uses. In (??c), /attaa məə/ *a-ri-taa məə* ‘them [lit. thier front]’ is the source from which the ownership of the house is transferred. In (??d), /urakjaa ziisan/ ‘your grandfather’ is the source from which the knowledge of the traditional songs is transmitted.

1.3.2.11 Comitative case *tu*

The comitative *tu* is used to mark a participant of association. The participant of association is an added member of situation indicated by verbal predicate, nominal predicate, or adjective predicate. In (??a), *nan* ‘you (honorific)’ is the participant associated with the speaker, and it takes *tu* (COM). In (??b), *u-n=nintəə* ‘those people’ are the participants associated with *muhaa+anjoo-taa* ‘Muha and his friends’ and takes *tu* (COM). Finally, in (??c), *urakja-a ziisan* ‘your grandfather’ is the participant associated with the speaker’s mother, and also takes *tu* (COM).

- a. i. With verbal predicate
 injasainnja, nantoo
 inja-sa+ar-i-n=ja nan=tu=ja
 small-ADJ+STV-INF-time=TOP 2.HON=COM=TOP

asibantajaa.

asib-an-tar=jaa

play-NEG-PST=SOL

‘(I) did not play with you when (we) were young.’ [Co: 110328_00.txt]

ii. With nominal predicate

muhaaanjootaa unnintætu æəciri

muhaa+anjoo-taa u-n=nintæ=tu æəciri

Muha+older.brother-PL MES-ADNZ=people=COM classmate

nati, muru dusi jata.

nar-ti muru dusi jar-tar

COP-SEQ very friend COP-PST

‘Muha and his friends were classmates with those people, and (they) were very friendly.’ [Co: 120415_00.txt]

iii. With adjectival predicate

[Context: Talking of TM’s mother]

urakjaa ziisanu nissja ata.

urakja-a ziisan=tu nissj-sa ar-tar

2.NHON.PL-ADNZ grandfather=COM similar-ADJ STV-PST

‘(My mother) was similar to your grandfather.’ [Co: 111113_02.txt]

In the above examples, *tu* (COM) follows only one NP. On the other hand, *tu* (COM) can connect two (or more) NPs together, and there are twenty such examples in my texts. It can be said from the data of text that if the combined NPs are the subject (except for that of nominal predicate), only the first NP is followed by *tu* (COM), i.e. NP1=*tu* NP2.

a. i. Subject of an intransitive verb

an saeetu ujuribæidu kjun.

a-n saee=tu ujuri=bæi=du k-jur-n

[DIST-ADNZ Sae=tu Uyuri=only=FOC] [come-UMRK-PTCP]

[Subject] [Intransitive verb]

‘Only Sae and Uyuri come (to the day-care center).’ [Co: 120415_01.txt]

ii. Subject of a transitive verb

[Context: Remembering the days when TM’s son took her to sightseeing]

1 Nominal phrases

masajukitaatu ataankjaga xxx
masajuki-taa=tu *a-ri-taa=nkja=ga* =*nkja*
 [Masayuki-PL=COM DIST-NLZ-PL=APPR=NOM] APPR
 [Subject] [Transitive verb]
 nkja simiti,
simir-ti
 [do.CAUS-SEQ]

‘Masayuki (and his family) and they had (me) do xxx, and ...’ [Co: 120415_01.txt]

In (??a), *a-n saee* ‘(that) Sae,’ which is the first NP of the subject, takes *tu* (COM). In (??b), *masajuki-taa* ‘Masayuki (and his family),’ which is the first NP of the subject, also takes *tu* (COM).

However, if the combined NPs are the subject of a nominal predicate or the object of a transitive clause, not only the first NP but also the second NP is followed by *tu* (COM), i.e. NP1=*tu* NP2=*tu*.

a. Subject of nominal predicates

- i. hamaiciuziitu waakjaa
hamaici+uzii=tu *waakja-a*
 [Hamaitsu+grandfather=COM 1PL-ADNZ
 [Subject] [Nominal
 torataroouziitudu kjoodəə janmun.
torataroo+uzii=tu=du *kjoodəə jar-n=mun*
 Torataro+grandfather=COM=FOC] [brother COP-PTCP=ADVRS]
 predicate]

‘Hamaitsu and my grandfather Torataro are brothers.’ [Co: 11113_01.txt]

- ii. kun c’jutu kun c’jutuga
ku-n *c’ju=tu* *ku-n* *c’ju=tu=ga*
 [PROX-ADNZ person=COM PROX-ADNZ person=COM]
 [Subject] [Nominal predicate]
 dikimun.jo.
dikimun=joo
 [genius]=CFM1

‘This person_i and this person_j are genius.’ [Co: 120415_00.txt]
 Object of transitive verbs

- iii. [Context: Remembering that the present author asked TM to pronounce ‘head’ and ‘knee’ in Yuwan]
 cuburutu cibusitu j’icjutiga, waræcɟijo.
cuburu=tu cibusi=tu j’-tur-ti=ga waraw-i=ccɟi=joo
 [head=COM knee=COM] [say-PROG-SEQ]=FOC laugh-INF=QT=CFM1
 [Object] [Transitive verb]
 ‘(We) were saying ‘head’ and ‘knee’ (in Yuwan), and laughed.’ [Co: 110328_00.txt]
- iv. ittannu kinsji |haori|tu kintu
ittan=nu kin=sji haori=tu kin=tu
 one.CLF=GEN cloth=INST [haori=COM cloth=COM]
 [Object] [Transitive verb]
 nuuwarĩtattu.
nuuw-ariir-tar-tu
 [sew-CAP-PST-CSL]

‘From a roll of cloth (about ten meters in length), (we) could sew a haori [i.e. a short Japanese overgarment] and a (light cotton) kimono.’ [Co: 120415_01.txt]

In (??a), each NP, i.e. /hamaicu+uzii/ ‘Hamaitsu’ and /waakjaa torataroouzii/ ‘my grandfather Torataroo’ being the subject of nominal predicate, is followed by *tu* (COM). Similarly, in (??b), each NP, i.e. /kun c’ju/ ‘this person_i’ and /kun c’ju/ ‘this person_j’ being the subject of nominal predicate, is followed by *tu* (COM). In (??c), each NP, i.e. *cuburu* ‘head’ and *cibusi* ‘knee’ being the object of transitive verb, is followed by *tu* (COM). Similarly, in (??d), each NP, i.e. *haori* ‘haori’ and *kin* ‘cloth’ being the object of transitive verb, is followed by *tu* (COM).

1.3.2.12 Limitative case *gadi*

The limitative *gadi* is used to mark limits, which is a limitation of action (or event) in space and time, and there are examples of semantic extension of them.

- a. i. Spatial limits
 [Context: Talking about the size in the past of TM’s house]
 amagadi, ude, naanai nagasa
a-ma=gadi ude naa+nai naga-sa
 PROX-place well already+little long-ADJ

atanmundoo.

ar-tar-n=mun=doo

STV-PST-PTCP=ADVRS=ASS

‘(It) was a little longer even to reach that place.’ [Co: 111113_01.txt]

ii. Temporal limits

namagadi daanan wutattukai?

nama=gadi daa=nan wur-tar-tu=kai

now=LMT where=LOC1 exist-PST-CSL=DUB

‘Where was (he) until recently?’ [Co: 120415_01.txt]

iii. Semantic extension

[Context: Talking about a song that used to be sung when a meeting of old people was held]

|tagaini| naa huccjunkjoo minna

tagai=ni naa huccju=nkja=ja minna

each.other=DAT already old.person=APPR=TOP everyone

urəə mjantin sicjutattooja,

u-ri=ja mj-an-ti=n sij-tur-tar=doo=ja

MES-NLZ=TOP see-NEG-SEQ=even know-PROG-PST=ASS=SOL

|jonban|gadi.

jonban=gadi

fourth=LMT

‘Each, all of the old people already knew (the song from the first verse) to the fourth, even if (they) did not see it [i.e. a card with the lyrics].’ [Co: 120415_01.txt]

In (??a), *a-ma* ‘that place’ is the spatial limit, which constraints the size of TM’s old house, and it takes *gadi* (LMT). In (??b), *nama* ‘now’ is the temporal limit, until which a man had been living there, and it also takes *gadi* (LMT). In (??c), *jonban* ‘fourth’ is the limit of the number of the song’s verses, which is an example of the semantic extension of the spatio-temporal meaning of *gadi* (LMT).

gadi (LMT) is not only a case particle, but also a limiter particle. *gadi* (LMT) in the limiter-particle use can replace the nominative case. In addition, it may follow other case particles. The limiter particle *gadi* (LMT) can express some emphasis, e.g. the speaker’s surprise (see §??). I will present an example here.

a. *gadi* (LMT) as a limiter particle

[Context: Talking about the present author]

tookjookaragadi umoocjun c'juboo kattəə
 tookjoo=kara=gadi umoor-tur-n c'ju=ba=ja kattəə
 Tokyo=ABL=LMT move.HON-PROG-PTCP person=ACC=TOP freely
 warabinən sji cikəədu sjunmun, wanna.
 warabi=nən sir-ti cikaw-i=du sir-jur-n=mun wan=ja
 child=like do-SEQ use-INF=FOC do-UMRK-PTCP=ADVRS 1SG=TOP
 'I ordered even a person who came from Tokyo [i.e. the present
 author] freely like a child.' [Co: 110328_00.txt]

In the above example, *gadi* (LMT) follows an extended NP *tookjoo=kara* (Tokyo=ABL) 'from Tokyo.' That is, *gadi* (LMT) does not show the (spatial) limit of anything here, but expresses the speaker's surprise about the present author's coming from Tokyo.

1.3.2.13 Comparative case *jukkuma*

The comparative *jukkuma* is used to mark the standard of comparison. (The speaker TM also taught me another form *junma* (CMP), but she has never used the form in the free conversation.) An NP followed by *jukkuma* (CMP) can modify an adjective, an adverb, or a nominal.

a. Modifying an adjective

- i. [Context: Talking about the size of a traditional coffin; MS: '(It) is as large as a box to fill in the tea.']
 aran. urijukkumoo hiisai.
 ar-an u-ri=jukkuma=ja [hi-i-sa]_{Adjective +ar-i}
 COP-NEG MES-NLZ=CMP=TOP big-ADJ+STV-NPST
 'No. (The coffin) is bigger than that [i.e. a box to fill in the tea].'
 [Co: 111113_01.txt]

Modifying an adverb

- b. arijukkumoo həəku hiiranba.
 a-ri=jukkuma=ja [həə-ku]_{Adverb} hiir-an-ba
 DIST-NLZ=COMP=TOP early-ADVZ wake.up-NEG-CSL
 '(You) have to wake up earlier than that person.' [El: 130816]

Modifying a nominal

- c. arəə waakjajukkuma sja jappajaa.
 a-ri=ja waakja=jukkuma [sja]_{Nominal} jar-ba=jaa
 DIST-NLZ=TOP 1PL=CMP below COP-CSL=SOL
 'He is younger than me.' [lit: 'That person is below than me.'] [Co:

110328_00.txt]

- d. wan.jukkuma sidoo wurandoo.
wan=jukkuma [sida]_{Nominal}=ja wur-an=doo
 1SG=CMP over=TOP exist-NEG=ASS
 ‘There is no one (who) is older than me.’ [lit. ‘(The people whose ages are) over than me do not exist.’] [El: 130816]

In (??a), *u-ri* ‘it’ is the standard that is compared with the traditional coffin, modifying the adjective *hii-sa* ‘big.’ In (??b), *a-ri* ‘that person’ is the standard that is compared with the hearer, modifying the adverb *həə-ku* ‘early.’ In (??c), *waa-kja* ‘we’ is the standard that is compared with *a-ri* ‘he,’ modifying the nominal *sja* ‘below.’ In (??d), *wan* ‘I’ is the standard that is compared with the people in the community, modifying the nominal *sida* ‘over.’ In all examples in (??a-d), the standards take *jukkuma* (CMP).

1.3.2.14 Genitive case *ga/nu*

The genitive has two morphemes *ga* and *nu*, and they are chosen depending on the lexical meaning of their head nominals (see §??). Syntactically, the genitive case follows a head of an NP, which fills the modifier slot of another larger NP recursively, i.e. {[NP=GEN]_{Modifier} Head]_{NP} (see also §??). The meaning of genitive case (or the semantic relation between the modifier and the head) is very wide. Here, I will present its prototypical use (i.e. the possession) and marginal use (i.e. the apposition).

(42) a. Possession

an c^ojunu naaja sijan.
a-n c^oju=nu naa=ja sij-an
 {[DIST-ADNZ person=GEN]_{Modifier} [name]_{Head}]_{NP}=TOP know-NEG
 ‘I don’t know that person’s name.’ [Co: 110328_00.txt]

b. Apposition

waakjaa cirinkjanu kikukotankja,
waakja-a ciri=nkja=nu kikuko-taa=nkja
 {[1PL-ADNZ classmate=APPR=GEN]_{Modifier} [Kikuko-PL=APPR]_{Head}]_{NP}
 attankjaga wun ucibəi jappoo,
a-ri-taa=nkja=ga wur-n uci=bəi jar-boo
 DIST-NLZ-PL=APPR=NOM exist-PTCP inside=only COP-CND
 ‘If it is just while there are our friends, Kikuko and her friends, (and if it is just while there are) those people, ...’ [Co: 120415_01.txt]

In (??a), *a-n c^ʔju* ‘that person’ is a possessor and is followed by *nu* (GEN), and it modifies the head nominal *naa* ‘name,’ which is a possessee. In (??b), *waakja-a ciri=nkja* ‘our friends’ and *kikuko-taa=nkja* ‘Kikuko and her friends’ are in apposition, i.e., they indicate the same referents.

The genitive has two morphemes, i.e. *ga* and *nu*, and they are formally same with those of the nominative case (see §??). Thus, one may regard them as the same single case, i.e. “the nominative-genitive case.” I would not, however, regard them as the same case because of REFEX:key:1 the differences of syntactic distribution and (??) the differences of correspondence to the animacy hierarchy.

First, an NP followed by the nominative case fills the argument slot of a clause, and its head is the predicate phrase as in (??a-b) (see §??). On the other hand, an NP followed by the genitive case fills the modifier slot of an NP, and its head is a nominal as in (??c-d) (see §??).

(43) Filling the argument slot of a clause

- a. *ariga..* *sizuobaaga* *wuppoo, jiccja*
a-ri=ga *sizu+obaa=ga* *wur-boo jiccj-sa*
 DIST-NLZ=NOM Shizu+grandmother=NOM exist-CND good-ADJ
atənmundoo.
ar-təər-n=mun=doo
 STV-RSL-PTCP=ADVRS=ASS
 ‘If Shizu were here, (it) would be good (now).’ [Co: 120415_01.txt]

- b. *umoo* *kan* *sji* *kiinu* *ati,*
u-ma=ja *ka-n* *sir-ti* *kii=nu* *ar-ti*
 MES-place=TOP PROX-ADVZ do-SEQ tree=NOM exist-SEQ
 Argument Predicate

‘There is a tree like this, and ...’ [PF: 120415_01.txt]

Filling the modifier slot of an NP

- c. *agga* *ututunan* *masuoccji* *j^ʔicji,* *wuti,*
a-ri=ga *ututu=nan* *masuo=ccji* *j^ʔ-ti* *wur-ti*
 DIST-NLZ =GEN younger.sibling=LOC1 Masuo=QT say-SEQ
 ‘That person has a younger sibling called Masuo, and ...’ [lit. ‘In that person’s younger sibling is (a person) called Masuo, and ...’] [Co: 120415_00.txt]
- d. [= (??a)]

kiinu sjanannja kagonu t'aaci ucjuti,
kii=nu sja=nan=ja kago=nu t'aaci uk-tur-ti
 tree=GEN under=LOC1=TOP basket=GEN two.CLF put-PROG-SEQ
 Modifier Head

'Under the tree, (tha man) put two baskets, and ...' [PF: 090222_00.txt]

In the first two examples, both *a-ri* (DIST-NLZ) 'that person' in (??a) and *kii* 'tree' in (??b) fill the argument slots of the clauses. More specifically, they are subjects of the clauses. In the next two examples, however, the same NPs do not fill the arguments but fill the modifier slots of NPs. In (??c), *a-ri* (DIST-NLZ) 'that person' modifies the head nominal *ututu* 'younger sibling' (about the contraction from *a-ri=ga* > /agga/, see §??). In (??d), *kii* 'tree' modifies the head nominal *sja* '(th place) under (something)'. It is true that each case particle in (6-80 a, c), i.e. /ga/, and those in (6-80 b, d), i.e. /nu/, have the same form respectively. However, I will propose that they should be regarded as different case particles.

Secondly, the choice of *ga* and *nu* depends on the lexical meaning of the head nominals. However, the lexical group that takes the nominative case particle *ga* (NOM) is different from that of the genitive case particle *ga* (GEN) as in Table ?? (see Table ?? in §?? for more details).

Table 1.2: Differences between the nominative and the genitive (following singular NPs)

	Personal pronominals	Human demonstratives	Address nouns	The
Nominative case	<i>ga</i>	<i>ga</i>	<i>ga</i>	<i>nu</i>
NP modifiers	Adnominal	<i>ga</i>	Juxtaposition	<i>nu</i>

The above table shows that personal pronominals, human demonstratives, and address nouns take the nominative case particle *ga*, and the other nominals take *nu*. On the other hand, the genitive case *ga* is taken only by human demonstratives, because personal pronominals inflect as adnominals when they fill the modifier slot of an NP like [*waakja-a*]_{Modifier} [*anmaa*]_{Head} (1PL-ADNZ mother) 'our mother,' and also address nouns do not take any case (in other words, use juxtaposition) when they fill the modifier slot of an NP like [*naohide+uzii*]_{Modifier} [*ututu*]_{Head} (Naohide+grandfather younger.sibling) 'Naohide's younger sibling' (see §?? in detail). In fact, there is no difference when the two cases follow common nouns, e.g. *kii* 'tree' as in (6-80 b, d). Considering the distributional difference shown in Table ??, I will propose that they should be regarded as different

cases. This point of view owes to the idea of “distributional cases” in Comrie (1991).

The genitive particle *nu* often contracts to /n/ when the external head of the genitive NP, i.e. “NP₂” in “NP₁=GEN NP₂,” indicates space.

(44) Head nominal (modified by the genitive NP) is *sja* ‘under’

- a. [Context: Talking about the shore protection at the community]
 jakuban sjanu, (ee) namanu |sinrjoosjo|nu
jakuba=nu sja=nu nama=nu sinrjoosjo=nu sja=nanti
 village.office=GEN under=GEN now=GEN clinic=GEN under=LOC2
 sjanti,

‘Down from the village office [lit. at (the place) under the village office] (that existed before), down from the clinic (that exists) now (at the same place), ...’ [Co: 11113_02.txt]

- b. micin sjanan.

mici=nu sja=nan

road=GEN under=LOC1

‘(The post office exists) down along the road [lit. at (the place) under the road].’ [Co: 120415_00.txt]

Head nominal (modified by the genitive NP) is *nizii* ‘corner’

- c. jaman nizii nati.

jama=nu nizii nar-ti

mountain=GEN corner COP-SEQ

‘Since (our house) was (at) the foot of the mountain.’ [Co: 11113_02.txt]

Head nominal (modified by the genitive NP) is *məə* ‘front’

- d. un kin məəkaci muduti kii.

u-n kii=nu məə=kaci mudur-ti k-i

MES-ADNZ tree=GEN front=ALL return-SEQ come-INF

‘(The boys) were back to the front of the tree.’ [PF: 090305_01.txt]

- e. urakjaa uman məənu an..

urakja-a u-ma=nu məə=nu a-n

2.NHON.PL-ADNZ MES-place=GEN front=GEN DIST-ADNZ

1 Nominal phrases

|obasan|ga |iciban|jo.
obasan=ga iciban=joo
old.woman=NOM number.one=CFM1

‘That old woman who lived in front of your place [lit. of the front of your that place] is number one.’ [Co: 120415_01.txt]

Head nominal (modified by the genitive NP) is *buci* ‘edge’

f. kon buci?

koo=nu buci

river=GEN edge

‘Near the river?’ [lit. ‘(At) the edge of the river?’] [Co: 110328_00.txt]

g. Context: Speaking about TM’s mother; TM: ‘Until (she) learn (how to tap a rhythm

zijun buci uccjuti,
ziju=nu buci ut-tur-ti
kitchen.stove=GEN edge hit-PROG-SEQ

‘(My mother) was hitting the edge of the kitchen stove, and ...’

The contraction shown in (??a-g) does not occur in the case of a nominative case particle *nu* (NOM), which partly supports the appropriateness of distinguishing the genitive case particle from the nominative case particle in Yuwan.

Finally, the genitive case may follow another case particle, which was already shown in (??a-e) in §??

1.3.3 Comparison among similar case particles

In the following subsections, I will compare some case particles that have similar functions. In §??, dative 1, dative 2, and allative will be discussed. In §??, the locative 1, 2, and 3 will be discussed.

1.3.3.1 Dative 1, dative 2, and allative

All of the cases *n* (DAT1), *nkati* (DAT2), and *kaci* (ALL) may co-occur with verbs that have a meaning related with direction. The details of their differences are not very clear, but there are restrictions on their co-occurrence with their head verbs depending on the meanings of the verbs. The possibility of their co-occurrence with several verbs (or verbal affixes) is shown in the following table and examples. In Table ??, “+” means that the case particle can co-occur with the verbs (or verbal affixes), and “-” means cannot.

In (??), “*” means that the form is not grammatical in the environments.

Table 1.3: *n* (DAT1), *kaci* (ALL), and *nkati* (DAT2)

<i>-arir</i> (PASS)	<i>-as</i> (CAUS)	<i>kurir</i> - ‘give’	<i>j’</i> - ‘say’	<i>nagir</i> - ‘throw’	<i>ik</i> - ‘go’		
<i>n</i>	(DAT1)	+	+	+	+	-	-
<i>kaci</i>	(ALL)	-	+	+	+	+	+
<i>nkati</i>	(DAT2)	-	-	-	+	-	-

- (45) a. Co-occurrence with *-arir* (PASS) to mark the agent
 wanna zjun/*zjuukaci/*zjunkati oosattidoo
 wan=ja zjuu=n/zjuu=kaci/zjuu=nkati oos-ar-ti=doo
 1SG=TOP father=DAT1/father=ALL/father=DAT2 scold-PASS-SEQ=ASS
 ‘I was scolded by (my) father.’ [El: 130820]
- b. Co-occurrence with *-as* (CAUS) to mark the causee
 arin/arikaci/*arinkati kakasoojəə.
 a-ri=n/a-ri=kaci/a-ri=nkati kak-as-oo=jəə
 DIST-NLZ=DAT1/DIST-NLZ=ALL/DIST-NLZ=DAT2 write-CAUS-INT=CFM2
 ‘(I) will make that person write (it).’ [El: 130820]
- c. Co-occurrence with *kurir*- ‘give’ to mark the recipient
 arin/arikaci/*arinkati kuriroojəə.
 a-ri=n/a-ri=kaci/a-ri=nkati kurir-oo=jəə
 DIST-NLZ=DAT1/DIST-NLZ=ALL/DIST-NLZ=DAT2 give-INT=CFM2
 ‘(I) will give (it) to that person.’ [El: 130820]
- d. Co-occurrence with *j’*- ‘say’ to mark the recipient of the information
 uroo tarun/tarukaci/tarunkati
 ura=ja ta-ru=n/ta-ru=kaci/ta-ru=nkati
 2.NHON.SG=TOP who-NLZ=DAT1/who-NLZ=ALL/who-NLZ=DAT2
 j’icji?
 j’-ti
 say-SEQ
 ‘To whom did you talk to?’ [El: 130820]
- e. Co-occurrence with *nagir*- ‘throw’ to mark the goal
 *dan/daakaci/*dankati nagiti?
 daa=n/daa=kaci/daa=nkati nagir-ti
 where=DAT1/where=ALL/where=DAT2 throw-SEQ
 ‘Where did (you) throw (it)?’ [El: 130820]
- f. Co-occurrence with *ik*- ‘go’ to mark the goal

1 Nominal phrases

uroo	*dan/daaci/*dankati	ikjui?
ura=ja	daa=n/daa=kaci/daa=nkati	ik-jur-i
2.NHON.SG=TOP where=DAT1/where=ALL/where=DAT2 go-UMRK-NPST		
‘Where do (you) go?’ [El: 130820]		

As far as the verbs (and the verbal affixes) in Table ?? are concerned, we can say the following things. First, *n* (DAT1) can co-occur with several verbs or verbal affixes with the exception of *nagir-* ‘throw’ and *ik-* ‘go.’ Thus, *n* (DAT1) seems not to be used to mark the goal in a narrow sense. In other words, the “goal” marked by *n* (DAT1) is the recipient or causee. Secondly, *kaci* (ALL) can co-occur with almost all of the verbs or verbal affixes with the exception of *-arir* (PASS). In fact, *-arir* (PASS) has little meaning strongly related with direction. Thus, it may be possible to say that *kaci* (ALL) can be used with verbs that have a meaning related with direction. Finally, *nkati* (DAT2) can be used only with *j’-* ‘say.’ As mentioned in §??, *nkati* (DAT2) can be used only to mark the recipient of the information.

1.3.3.2 Locative 1, locative 2, and locative 3

All of the cases *nan* (LOC1), *nanti* (LOC2), and *zji* (LOC3) can express the place where the action (or event) (indicated by the head verb) occurs. The details of their differences are not very clear, but there are restrictions on co-occurrence with verbs or the context where they are used. The possibility of co-occurrence with a few verbs and a nominal is shown in the following table and examples. In Table ??, “+” means that the case particle can co-occur with the verbs (or the nominals), and “-” means cannot.

Table 1.4: *nan* (LOC1), *nanti* (LOC2), and *zji* (LOC3)

Co-occurrence with		Verbs	Nominal	
<i>wur-</i> ‘exist (animate)’	<i>ar-</i> ‘exist (inanimate)’	<i>udur-</i> ‘dance’	<i>ku-ma</i> ‘here’	
<i>nan</i> (LOC1)	+	+	-	+
<i>nanti</i> (LOC2)	-	-	+	+
<i>zji</i> (LOC3)	+	-	+	-

In (??), “*” means that the form is not grammatical in the environment.

- (46) a. Co-occurrence with *wur-* ‘exist (animate)’

wanna amanan/*amananti/amazji
 wan=ja a-ma=nan/a-ma=nanti/a-ma=zji
 1SG=TOP DIST-place=LOC1/DIST-place=LOC2/DIST-place=LOC3
 wuroojəə.
 wur-oo=jəə
 exist-INT=CFM2
 ‘I will be there.’ [El: 130817]

- b. Co-occurrence with *ar-* ‘exist (inanimate)’

tiganna
 tigan=ja
 letter=TOP
 amanandu/*amanantidu/*amazjidu
 a-ma=nan=du/a-ma=nanti=du/a-ma=zji=du
 DIST-place=LOC1=FOC/DIST-place=LOC2=FOC/DIST-place=LOC3=FOC
 attoo.
 ar=doo
 exist=ASS
 ‘The letter is there.’ [El: 130817]

- c. Co-occurrence with *udur-* ‘dance’

*amanan/amananti/amazji	wuduroojəə.
a-ma=nan/a-ma=nanti/a-ma=zji	wudur-oo=jəə
DIST-place=LOC1/DIST-place=LOC2/DIST-place=LOC3 dance-INT=CFM2	
‘(I) will dance there.’ [El: 130817]	

If the clause is used to mean that the subject of the intransitive verb (or the object of the transitive verb) stays (or contacts) somewhere, *nanti* (LOC2) cannot be used, but *nan* (LOC1) and *zji* (LOC3) can as in (??a) (see also §??). Because of the same reason, *ar-* ‘exist’ can be used with *nan* (LOC1), but cannot be used with *nanti* (LOC2) as in (??b). Additionally, *ar-* ‘exist’ must have an inanimate subject (strictly speaking, an inanimate “core argument,” see §?? for more details). On the contrary, *zji* (LOC3) always has an animate subject (see §??). Therefore, *zji* (LOC3) cannot be used with *ar-* ‘exist’ as in (??b). If the head verb expresses a dynamic action, the place of action cannot be marked by *nan* (LOC1), but can be marked by *nanti* (LOC2) and *zji* (LOC3) as in (??c).

Furthermore, *zji* (LOC3) has a restriction; it cannot follow an NP that indicates a place where the speaker exists at the time of utterance (see §?? for more details). Thus, *zji* (LOC3) cannot follow *ku-ma* (PROX-place) ‘here.’

- (47) Co-occurrence with *ku-ma* ‘here’

1 Nominal phrases

- a. *nan* (LOC1)
 wanna kumanan wuroojəə.
 wan=ja ku-ma=nan wur-oo=jəə
 1SG=TOP PROX-place=LOC1 exist-INT=CFM2
 ‘I will be here.’ [El: 130817]
- b. *nanti* (LOC2)
 wanna kumananti wuduroojəə
 wan=ja ku-ma=nanti wudur-oo=jəə
 1SG=TOP PROX-place=LOC2 dance-INT=CFM2
 ‘I will dance here.’ [El: 130817]
- c. *zji* (LOC3)
 *wanna kumazji wuroojəə. [El: 130817]
 wan=ja ku-ma=zji wur-oo=jəə
 1SG=TOP PROX-place=LOC3 exist-INT=CFM2

nan (LOC1) and *nanti* (LOC2) can be used with *ku-ma* ‘here’ as in (??a-b), but *zji* (LOC3) cannot as in (??c), which made a clear contrast with (??a), where a similar expression, i.e. *wan=ja a-ma=zji wur-oo=jəə* (1SG=TOP DIST-place=LOC3 exist-INT=CFM2) ‘I will be there’ is grammatical.

1.3.4 Grammaticalization of case particles

In Ryukyuan languages, some case particles are said to have been created through grammaticalization of a certain verbal form (NishiokaNakahara2000: 87, Shimoji 2008: 207). Yuwan also has a few case particles which seem to have come from grammaticalization. For example, it is possible that the instrumental case *sji* has come from /sji/ *sir-ti* (do-SEQ) (see §??). The locative case 2 *nanti* may have come from the combination of *nan* (LOC1) plus /wuti/ *wur-ti* (exist-SEQ) (see §??). Additionally, the locative case 3 *zji* seems to have come from /izji/ *ik-ti* (go-SEQ). All of these case particles include, as their putative origin, the same converbal affix, i.e. *-ti* (SEQ), which makes an adverbial clause that precedes the main clause (see also §??). Thus, it is reasonable that such a clause becomes an argument of the predicate of the main clause considering the verb-final word order in Yuwan. In the remainder of this section, we will look at *zji* (LOC3) in detail.

There are two reasons why we can say that *zji* (LOC3) and /izji/ (go-SEQ) have the same origin; (a) resemblance between the two forms; (b) the same restriction on the reference point, or the “deictic center” (cf. Fillmore1971 [1997]). With regard to (a), there is no problem since *zji* (LOC3) and /izji/ *ik-ti* (go-SEQ) has the same form excluding the existence of the initial vowel /i/. With respect to (b),

neither form allows their goals to be the place where the speaker exists at the time of utterance. Briefly speaking, neither can be used with *ku-ma* (PROX-place) ‘here.’ First, let us see the examples that have no problem because of the correct context.

(48) [Context: The speaker has not arrived at the goal yet.]

- a. /izji/ (go.SEQ)
 ama izji, asiboojaa.
 ama ik-ti asib-oo=jaa
 there go-SEQ play-INT=SOL
 ‘Let’s go there, and play (together)!’ [El: 130816]
- b. /zji/ (LOC3)
 amazji asiboojaa.
 ama=zji asib-oo=jaa
 there=LOC3 play-INT=SOL
 ‘Let’s go and play there (together)!’ [El: 130816]

As mentioned in §??, the deictic locomotion verb *ik-* ‘go’ can take accusative case *ba* to mark its goal, and also can easily omit such *ba* (ACC) as in (??a). Both of the above examples are grammatical, but similar sentences cannot be acceptable as in (??). The sentence-initial “#” means that the context is not acceptable to produce the sentence.

(49) [Context: The speaker has already arrived at the goal.]

- a. /izji/ (go.SEQ)
 #kuma izji, asiboojaa. [Expressed meaning] ‘Let’s go here, and
 kuma ik-ti asib-oo=jaa
 here go-SEQ play-INT=SOL
 play (together)!’ [El: 130816]
- b. /zji/ (LOC3)
 #kumazji asiboojaa. [Expressed meaning] ‘Let’s go and play
 kuma=zji asib-oo=jaa
 here=LOC3 play-INT=SOL
 here (together)!’ [El: 130816]

In (??a-b), the speaker has not arrived yet at the goal. Thus, both /izji/ (go.SEQ) and /zji/ (LOC3) are grammatical. However, in (??a-b), the speaker has already arrived at the goal, so both /izji/ (go.SEQ) and /zji/ (LOC3) become unacceptable.

In other words, /izji/ (go.SEQ) and /zji/ (LOC3) cannot take the place where the speaker exists at the time of utterance as their deictic center.

I would not, however, like to regard the two forms as absolutely identical. Rather, it is more appropriate to regard that there has been a grammaticalization from /izji/ *ik-ti* (go-SEQ) to *zji* (LOC3), since the latter has (c) the loss of initial vowel, (d) the impossibility of insertion of another case particle, and (e) the capability to take directly a human referent as the goal of (deictic) locomotion. With regard to (c), /zji/ (LOC3) seems to have dropped the initial vowel /i/ of /izji/ *ik-ti* (go-SEQ). With regard to (d), *ik-* ‘go’ can take the accusative case to mark the goal of deictic locomotion as in (??a). On the contrary, /zji/ (LOC3) cannot take (or be preceded by) it as in (??b).

(50) Capability of the accusative’s insertion

a. /izji/ (go.SEQ)

wanna unba izji, asidi koojəə.
wan=ja un=ba ik-ti asib-ti k-oo=jəə
 1SG=TOP sea=ACC go-SEQ play-SEQ come-INT=CFM2
 ‘(I) will go (to) the sea, and play (there) and come (back).’ [El: 130817]

b. /zji/ (LOC3)

*wanna unbazji asidi koojəə. [Intended
wan=ja un=ba=zji asib-ti k-oo=jəə
 1SG=TOP sea=ACC=LOC3 play-SEQ come-INT=CFM2
 meaning] ‘(I) will go (to) the sea, and play (there) and come (back).’
 [El: 130817]

With regard to (e), *zji* (LOC3) can directly take a human referent as the goal, although *ik-* ‘go’ cannot.

(51) Capability of directly taking a human referent as the goal

a. /izji/ (go.SEQ)

*akira izji, abiti koo! [Intended meaning] ‘Go to Akira’s
akira ik-ti abir-ti k-oo
 Akira go-SEQ call-SEQ EXP-IMP
 place and call him and come (back)!’ [El: 130817]

b. /zji/ (LOC3)

akirazji abiti koo!
akira=zji abir-ti k-oo
 Akira=LOC3 call-SEQ EXP-IMP
 ‘Go to Akira’s place and call him and come (back)!’ [El: 130817]

The above three differences show almost all of the features of grammaticalization discussed in Heine and Kuteva2002 as follows.

- (52) Four features of grammaticalization in Heine and Kuteva2002 A.
 desemanticization (or ‘semantic bleaching’) - loss in meaning content;
 B. extension (or context generalization) - use in new contexts;
 C. decategorialization - loss in morphosyntactic properties characteristic of lexical or other less gramaticalized forms;
 D. erosion (or ‘phonetic reduction’) - loss in phonetic substance.

In the context of the above features, (6-89 B) corresponds to the above (e), i.e. the capability to take directly a human referent as the goal of (deictic) locomotion; (6-89 C) corresponds to the above (d), i.e. the impossibility of insertion of another case particle; and (6-89 D) corresponds to the above (c), i.e. the loss of initial vowel. Although Heine and Kuteva2002 assume the (6-89 A) precedes others (with a possible exception of (6-89 C)), the semantic bleaching (or loss in meaning content) does not seem to occur in the case of *zji* (LOC3) in Yuwan since the restriction of goal of locomotion of *ik-* ‘go’ still applies to *zji* (LOC3). A particle made of the grammaticalization of a verb meaning ‘go’ is found in the another language of Ryukyans. In Shimoji (2008: 207), there is a clitic /nkii/, which is said to be made of *n ik-i-i* (DAT go-EP-SEQ), and it expresses ‘going to’ (glosses in Irabu are changed in order to correspond to those in Yuwan by the present author, and “EP” means an epenthetic vowel).

In addition, there is a particle that also has the form /zji/, but it can follow a verbal predicate.

- (53) [Context: The speaker will go to somewhere.]
 wanun səəba numoozjijəə.
 wan=n səə=ba num-oo=zji=jəə
 1SG=also alcohol=ACC drink-INT=DIRC=CFM2
 ‘I will also go to drink alcohol.’ [El: 130817]

The above sentence, however, becomes unacceptable if the context is different.

- (54) [Context: The speaker will not go to anywhere, but drinks at the place where she is.]
 #wanun səəba numoozjijəə. [Expressed meaning] ‘I will
 wan=n səə=ba num-oo=zji=jəə
 1SG=also alcohol=ACC drink-INT=DIRC=CFM2
 go to drink alcohol.’ [El: 130817]

The above example shows that if the speaker will not be apart from the place where she exists at the time of utterance, the particle *zji*, which is glossed “DIRC” here meaning “directional,” cannot be used. The restriction is the same with that of the case particle *zji* (LOC3) (and *ik-* ‘go’). Thus, it is probable that both of *zji* (LOC3) and *zji* (DIRC) have the same origin. They are, however, cannot be regarded as the same morpheme in the present Yuwan since their syntactic circumstances are different from each other. That is, *zji* (DIRC) follows a verb in the predicate slot, but *zji* (LOC3) follows an NP in an argument slot.

1.4 Animacy hierarchy

Yuwan has several phenomena which are concerned with the animacy hierarchy in linguistic typology (about the animacy hierarchy, see Silverstein 1976, Comrie 1989, Dixon 1994, Whaley 1997, Corbett 2000, and Croft 2003 [1990] [1990] among many others). For example, only personal pronouns have dual forms in Yuwan (see §??). Additionally, there are four other phenomena that are correlated with the animacy hierarchy: the choice of plural markers, the choice of tactics used in the modifier slot of an NP, the choice of the nominative case forms, and the choice of the existential verbs. See the following table (Table ??), where “address nouns” include mainly elder kinship terms and personal names, both of which can be used to address the hearer (see §??). “Human demonstratives” in the following table mean that the demonstrative nominals are used to indicate human referents (see §??). The rightmost column (“the other nominals”) also includes non-human demonstratives (i.e. the demonstrative nominals used to indicate non-human referents).

Generally, human interrogatives, e.g. *ta-ru* (who-NLZ) ‘who’ in Yuwan, does not come up for discussion of animacy hierarchy (at least in the papers introduced above). The data of Yuwan shows that the distribution of human interrogatives is partly similar to personal pronominals with regard to the singular form as an NP modifier, e.g. /*ta-a*/ (who-ADNZ) ‘whose’ and /*ura-a*/ (2.NHON.SG-ADNZ) ‘your.’ It is also partly similar to human demonstratives and address nouns with regard to the plural marker (and the plural form as an NP modifier), e.g. /*ta-t-taa*/ (who-NLZ-PL) ‘who (plural)’ and /*a-t-taa*/ (DIST-NLZ-PL) ‘those people.’ A possible reason why the human interrogative behaves in the same way with the personal pronominals is as follows. Human interrogatives and personal pronominals are literally “pronominal,” and also they obligatorily indicate human referents. On the other hand, the demonstrative nominals (and also the reflexive pronouns to be discussed in §??) may indicate non-human referents (see §??). Thus, the

Table 1.5: Animacy hierarchy in Yuwan

Personal pronominals		Human inter
1st/2nd	3rd	Animate Inanimate
fix tabular		
Number		
Singular markers ^a <i>-n</i> / <i>-Ø</i> N/A <i>-ru</i> <i>-ri</i> N/A N/A		
Dual marker <i>-ttəə</i> N/A N/A N/A N/A		
Plural markers ^b <i>-kja</i> N/A <i>-taa</i> <i>-taa</i> <i>-taa nkja</i>		
NP modifiers		
Singular Adnominal N/A Adnominal <i>ga</i> Juxtaposition <i>nu</i>		
Dual <i>ga</i> N/A N/A N/A N/A		
Plural Adnominal N/A Juxtaposition Juxtaposition Juxtaposition <i>nu</i>		
Case particles		
S/A <i>ga</i> N/A ^c <i>ga ga nu</i>		
P <i>ba</i> (Not found) <i>ba ba ba</i> / <i>Ø</i>		
Existential verbs <i>wur-</i> <i>wur-</i> <i>wur-</i> <i>wur-</i> <i>wur-</i> <i>ar-</i> / <i>nə-</i>		

^aIf a word ends with *-ru* (NLZ) or *-ri* (NLZ), it expresses the singularity, at least in natural discourse.

^bThis alignment depends on the text data. In the elicitation data, human demonstratives may take *nkja* (APPR), and non-human demonstratives may take *-taa* (PL) (see §?? for more details).

^cIf the subject of a clause is an interrogative word, it does not take the nominative case particle, but takes the focus particle *ga* (which is different from the nominative *ga*). See §?? and §?? for more details.

pronominal characteristic and the obligatoriness of indicating human referents may differentiate the personal pronominals and the human interrogatives from the others.

In the following subsections, we will see the details of the plural markers (see §??), the NP modifiers (see §??), and the nominative case (see §??). The accusative case was already discussed in §?? About existential verbs, see §??

1.4.1 Plural (or approximative) markers

1.4.1.1 Semantics of plural (or approximative) markers

Yuwan has three morphemes that can express a kind of plural meaning: *-kja*, *-taa*, and *nkja*. These morphemes can be used to indicate more than one referent,

which is a function of both of the ordinary plural and the “associative plural” in other languages (cf. Corbett 2000: 101-111). However, the “plural” markers in Yuwan can be used in another situation. They can indicate a virtually single referent. I will present the relevant examples of *-kja*, *-taa*, and *nkja* in turn below.

First, *-kja* (PL) can indicate not only plural specific referents, but also a single specific referent as in (??a-b). It can be translated into ‘a person like me.’

(55) *-kja* (PL)

- a. [Context: Speaking to MS about the tuna fishing in old days]
wanna sijan. waakjoo sijandoo.
waa-n=ja sij-an waa-kja=ja sij-an=doo
1-SG=TOP know-NEG 1-PL=TOP know-NEG=ASS
‘I don’t know. I don’t know (the detail of the tuna fishing).’ [Co: 120415_01.txt]
- b. [Context: US told TM and MY that TM knew everything, but TM said she knew nothing herself, but that her mother had known everything important.]
= (??)
waakjan sijanmun.
waa-kja=n sij-an=mun
1PL=also know-NEG=ADVR
‘I don’t know anything either.’ (or ‘A person like me doesn’t know anything either.’) [Co: 110328_00.txt]

In (??a), TM and MS were talking alone about the tuna fishing in old days, and TM said she did not know about it in detail. Here, the *waa-kja* (1-PL) in this example indicates the speaker herself alone as an instance of people who are not familiar with the tuna fishing. The semantic “non-plurality” of the referent can be implied by the singular pronoun /wan/ *waa-n* (1-SG), which precedes and is paraphrased by the following *waa-kja* (1-PL). In (??b), there are only four participants in the scene, and TM told US that she (i.e. TM) did not know anything showing her modesty. In this case, the expression *waa-kja* (1-pL) did not indicate a referent other than TM (see also the discussion about (??) in §??). In order to specify the ability to indicate a single referent using the form *waa-kja* (1-PL), I did an elicitation as in (??), where the singularity of the agent is stressed by the extended NP *cʔjui=sji* (one.person.CLF=INST) ‘alone.’ Both of *-kja* (PL) and *cʔjui=sji* ‘alone’ are underlined below.

(56) [Context: There are only two people, and one talks to the other.]

urəə mucikasjanu, waakjoo cʰjuisjəə
 u-ri=ja mucikasj-sa=nu waa-kja=ja cʰjui=sji=ja
 MES-NLZ=TOP difficult-ADJ=CSL 1-PL=TOP one.person.CLF=INST=TOP
 siikijandoo.
 sir-i+kij-an=doo
 do-INF+CAP-NEG=ASS
 ‘That is difficult, so I cannot do (it) alone.’ [El: 130820]

In (??), the speaker uses *waa-kja* (1-PL) in order to pick up herself as an instance who cannot do the difficult thing.

These uses of *-kja* (PL) are very frequent in Yuwan. One may remember the so-called “associative plural” (or “group plural”) in other languages (cf. Corbett 2000: 101-111). However, there is a crucial difference between the function of the “plural” in Yuwan and that of the associative plural in other languages. On the one hand, the common usage of the associative plural markers in other languages is to indicate a specific group. In other words, whether or not there are a number of unspecific referents in the group, the group itself must be specific. For example, if you are a pupil of an elementary school and school lunches are provided, you can say something like: *We don’t need to bring lunch by ourselves*. Here, the plural form *we* indicates a specific referent (i.e. the speaker), and the remaining referents may be specific or unspecific. Anyway, the group indicated by *we*, i.e. the pupils of the school as a whole, must be specific. On the other hand, the plural markers of Yuwan can indicate a certain group that is *not* specific in itself. For example, *waa-kja* (1-PL) in (??a) does not indicate any specific group. If we dare to identify the group in the context, it might be a group where the members are not familiar with the tuna fishing in those days. In the case of (??b), it seems more difficult (or impossible) to identify such a group indicated by *waa-kja* (1-PL). The “group” mentioned here is very different from that of *we* in English in terms of specificity. In fact, the unspecificity of the group indicated by *-kja* (PL) is not the sufficient condition to distinguish it from the plural forms in other languages. For example, the “houses” in *I suppose there are many houses in the city* in English can indicate an unspecific group. Thus, I have to mention another difference between *-kja* (PL) and the plural forms in other languages. On the one hand, *-kja* (PL) can be used to indicate a single referent as an example (to illustrate the proposition expressed by the clause where *-kja* (PL) is included). For example, *waa-kja* (1-PL) in (??a-b) indicates the speaker alone as an example (to illustrate the proposition expressed by the clause where *-kja* (PL) is included). On the other hand, *-s* in *houses* in English does not have a meaning like that.

The above argumentation is summarized as follows.

- (57) The difference between *-kja* (PL) and the plural markers in other languages;
- kja* (PL) can indicate an unspecific group (which is different from the associative plural);
 - kja* (PL) can indicate a singel referent as an example (to illustrate the proposition expressed by the clause where *-kja* (PL) is included).

The above characteristics also found in the other plural markers in Yuwan, i.e. *-taa* (PL) and *nkja* (APPR).

I will present examples of *-taa* (PL). (??a) is a conversation of TM with US. (??b) is a conversation of TM with MS.

(58) *-taa* (PL)

- [Context: TM is speaking to US about the present author. (US's reply is omitted from the convesation for convenience.)]
jonesigetaa c'jantu attaa ziisantugajoo
jonesige-taa c'jan=tu a-ri-taa ziisan=tu=ga=joo
 Yoneshige-PL father=COM DIST-NLZ-PL grandfather=COM=NOM=CFM1
 |itoko|bæi najuncji.
itoko=bæi nar-jur-n=ccji
 cousin=only become-UMRK-PTCP=QT
 'Yoneshige's father and his [i.e. the present speaker's] grandfather are cousin, (I heard).' [Co: 110328_00.txt]
- [Context: There was a bell used to tell time, and it used to be rung by a subordinate who was working under the chief of the Yuwan district.]
kucjoo-san=nu sja=nan. mata, a-t-taa=ja,
kucjoo-san=nu sja=nan mata a-ri-taa=ja
 chief.of.a.ward-HON=GEN below=LOC1 again DIST-NLZ-PL=TOP
c'ju=ja ci-cju-tat-tu.
c'ju=ja cik-tur-tar-tu
 person=TOP accompany-PROG-PST-CSL
 'A subordinate was working under the man, (who was) the chief of our ward, so ...' [Co: 111113_02.txt]

In (??a), TM and US had not seen the other members of the present author's family. Thus, it is natural to think that /*attaa*/ *a-ri-taa* (DIST-NLZ-PL) in this example indicates specifically the present author alone. At least, it is difficult to translate TM's second utterance into 'their grandfather' in this context. One might

think that the plurality of the modifier is induced by the head nominal, i.e. *ziisan* ‘grandfather,’ because kin terms are always related with a broad kinship relation. However, it is not the case at least in the case of Yuwan. For example, a singular form (i.e. /akka/ *a-ri=ga* (DIST-NLZ=GEN)) can fill the modifier slot of an NP whose head is the same kinship term (i.e. *ziisan* ‘grandfather’) as in (??b) in §?? Next, in (??b), /attaa/ *a-ri-taa* (DIST-NLZ-PL) indicates the chief of the Yuwan district. One district has one chief. Thus, /attaa/ *a-ri-taa* (DIST-NLZ-PL) in this example should be interpreted as indicating only one referent.

In both of the examples above, *-taa* (PL) is preceded by the demonstrative stem *a-ri* (DIST-NLZ). *-taa* (PL) can also follow address nouns (see §??). An address noun followed by *-taa* (PL) can also indicate a single referent as in (??).

- (59) [Context: TM said that she used to practice the traditional dance until someone visited her.]

minakotaa, akka k’uugadi,
minako-taa a-ri=ga *k-gadi*
 Minako-PL DIST-NLZ=NOM come-until
 ‘Minako_i, until she_i come (here), ...’ [Co: 120415_01.txt]

In (??), *minako-taa* (Minako-PL) indicates only one referent, i.e. ‘Minako.’ The semantic “non-plurality” of the referent can be implied by the singular pronoun *a-ri* (DIST-NLZ) ‘she,’ which followed and paraphrased the preceding *minako-taa* (Minako-PL), which is very similar to the case in (??a). In order to specify the ability to indicate a single referent using *-taa* (PL), I did an elicitation research as in (??), where the singularity of the agent is stressed by the extended NP *c’jui=sji* (one.person.CLF=INST) ‘alone.’ Both *-taa* (PL) and *c’jui=sji* ‘alone’ are underlined below.

- (60) *-taa* (PL)

[Context: TM is talking about a person, and the person is the only candidate who is assumed by the speaker.]

urəə mucikasjanu, attaa c’juisjəə
u-ri=ja *mucikasj-sa=nu* *a-ri-taa* *c’jui=sji=ja*
 MES-NLZ=TOP difficult-ADJ=CSL DIST-NLZ-PL one.person.CLF=INST=TOP
 siikijandoo.
sir-i+kij-an=doo
 do-INF+CAP-NEG=ASS
 ‘That is difficult, so he cannot do (it) alone.’ [El: 130820]

In (??), /attaa/ *a-ri-taa* (DIST-NLZ-PL) is used to indicate a person as an example who cannot do the difficult thing mentioned, which can be translated into ‘a person like him.’

Finally, I will present examples of *nkja* (APPR). In (??a), TM and MS were looking at a picture, and she said that she did not know such a scene on it. Here, *ku-ri=nkja* (PROX-NLZ=APPR) did not indicate plural pictures in the photographic collection, but indicated a single specific picture that they were looking at (perhaps with unspecific pictures that were also unfamiliar to TM). In (??b), there is only a house where the speaker lived, and *nkja* (APPR) is used to indicate the house as an example of the old houses where there is no papered sliding door.

(61) *nkja* (APPR)

[Context: TM and MS were looking at a picture (in a photographic collection), where was a scene TM had not seen before]

- a. *sijan, kurinkjoo.*
sij-an ku-ri=nkja=ja
 know-NEG PROX-NLZ=APPR=TOP
 ‘(I) don’t know this [i.e. the picture].’ [Co: 120415_00.txt]
- b. *waakjaa jankjoo |husumasjoozi|n nənba,*
waa-kja-a jaa=nkja=ja husuma+sjoози=n nə-an-ba
 1-PL-ADNZ house=APPR=TOP k.o.door+k.o.door=also exist-NEG-CSL
 ‘Our house did not have *fusuma* [i.e. thick papered sliding door] and also *shōji* [i.e. thin papered sliding door], so ...’ [Co: 111113_02.txt]

The characteristics of these examples correspond to those in (??a-b).

The above uses of the “plural” markers in Yuwan do not seem to be similar to the uses of the plural markers in other languages. At least, they are different from the so-called associative plural. It is probable that a use of the plural markers that is named “approximative” by Corbett (2000: 239-240) may be the candidate. For example, Corbett (2000: 239) cited the use of the plural markers in Dogon (spoken in Mari): *isu mbe nie mbe* (fish PL oil PL) ‘fish, oil, and similar things’ [‘du poisson, de l’huile et cetera’ in the original text in Plungian (1995: 11)]. According to Corbett (2000: 240), “(t)he approximative requires more research. There is evidence only for the use of the plural.” Therefore, the more elaborated research of the plural markers in Yuwan will present the good examples for the approximative.

For the reader’s convenience, I glossed both of *-kja* and *-taa* as “PL” (i.e. plural). On the other hand, I glossed *nkja* as “APPR” (i.e. approximative) considering its capability to follow not only nominals but also verbs (see §?? for more details).

1.4.1.2 Morphosyntax of plural (or approximative) markers

The three plural markers *-kja* (PL), *-taa* (PL), and *nkja* (APPR) are chosen in this order corresponding to the lexical meaning of their preceding nominals, which is subject to the animacy hierarchy of Yuwan (see Table ??). A similar phenomenon, where more than one plural marker correspond to the animacy hierarchy, is found in other Ryukyuan languages, e.g. Ogami (Southern Ryukyuan) (Pellard 2010: 133), and also in other languages, e.g. Eastern Huasteca Nahuatl (Corbett 2000: 77-78). The verb in Yuwan do not show any number agreement with the arguments.

First, personal pronominals use *-kja* (PL) to express the plural (or approximative) meaning (see also §??). In (??a), the first person pronoun has its plural form *waa-kja* (1-PL). In (??b), the second person honorific pronoun has its plural form *naa-kja* (2.HON-PL). In (??c), the second person non-honorific pronoun has its plural form as *ura-kja* (2.NHON-PL).

(62) a. Personal pronominal (1st person)

[Context: Remembering her childhood after looking at a relatively new picture, where children wore clothes of Western style]

waakjaga warabi sjuininkjoo, ganba
 waa-kja=ga warabi sir-tur-i-n=nkja=ja ganba
 1-PL=NOM child do-PROG-INF-time=APPR=TOP therefore
 hukunkjoo t'in nənba.
 huku=nkja=ja t'hi=n nə-an-ba
 clothes.of.Western.style=APPR=TOP one.CLF=even exist-NEG-CSL
 'When we were children, there were no Western style clothes.' [Co:
 111113_01.txt]

b. Personal pronominal (2nd person honorific)

[Context: Speaking to US, whose family used to deal in fish]

naakjaga sji moojuinnja, simanu
 naa-kja=ga sir-ti moor-jur-i-n=ja sima=nu
 2.HON-PL=NOM do-SEQ HON-UMRK-INF=TOP island=GEN
 j'udarooga?
 j'u=daroo=ga
 fish=SUPP=CFM3
 'When you dealt in (fish), (they were) probably fish from the
 community [i.e. fish taken around the community].' [Co:
 110328_00.txt]

1 Nominal phrases

- c. Personal pronominal (2nd person non-honorific)

[Context: Talking about a riverboat of the MS's family]

urakjoo nusinkjanu atattudu, siccjuro.

ura-kja=ja nusi=nkja=nu ar-tar-tu=du sij-tur-oo

2.NHON.PL=TOP RFL=APPR=NOM exist-PST-CSL=FOC know-PROG-SUPP

'You probably know (it), because you have a riverboat of your own.'

[Co: 111113_01.txt]

Second, human interrogatives, human demonstratives and address nouns (i.e. elder kinships and personal names) use *-taa* (PL) to express the plural (or approximative) meaning. In (??a), the human interrogative root *ta-* 'who' has its plural form /tattaaga/ *ta-ru-taa* (who-NLZ-PL). In (??b), a human demonstrative root *u-* (MES) has its plural form /uttaaga/ *u-ri-taa* (MES-NLZ-PL). In (??c), an address noun (elder kinship) *anmaa* 'mother' has its plural form /anmataa/ *anmaa-taa* (mother-PL). Finally, in (??d), an address noun (personal name) *nobuari* 'Nobuari' has its plural form *nobuari-taa* (Nobuari-PL).

- (63) a. Human interrogative

tattaaga umoojuru?

ta-ru-taa=ga umoor-jur-u

who-NLZ-PL=NOM exist.HON-UMRK-PFC

'Who would (still) be alive (over ninety years old)?' [Co: 110328_00.txt]

- b. Human demonstrative

[Context: Looking for a picture, where a ritual in marriage called 'Sansankudo' was held]

uttaaga |sansankudo| sjun turonkjanu

u-ri-taa=ga sansankudo sir-tur-n turoo=nkja=nu

MES-NLZ-PL=NOM k.o.ritual do-PROG-PTCP place=APPR=NOM

izituttijaa.

izir-tur-ti=jaa

go.out-PROG-SEQ=SOL

'There was a scene where they were doing Sansankudo.' [Co:

120415_00.txt]

- c. Address noun (elder kinship)

[Context: TM and US said that it would be nice if there were TM's mother.]

anmataaga wuppoojaa.
anmaa-taa=ga wur-boo=jaa
 mother-PL=NOM exist-CND=SOL

‘If there were (a kind of person like my) mother.’ [Co: 110328_00.txt]

d. Address noun (personal name)

[Context: Talking about a riverboat in old days]

naa nobuaritaakaroo siccjukkai?
naa nobuari-taa=kara=ja sij-tur=kai
 already Nobuari-PL=ABL=TOP know-PROG=DUB

‘I wonder if (the generation) after Nobuari already know (it).’ [Co: 111113_01.txt]

Finally, the other nominals use *nkja* (APPR) to express the plural (or approximate) meaning. If indefinite pronouns or demonstrative pronouns do not indicate human referents, they express the plurality using *nkja* (APPR) as in (??a-b). On the other hand, the reflexive pronoun *nusi* (RFL) also exploits *nkja* (APPR) to indicate the plurality, although the referent is a human, i.e. the hearer, as in (??c). Common nouns always exploit *nkja* (APPR) despite the referents being humans or non-humans as in (??d-e).

(64) a. Non-human interrogative

[Context: TM was surprised that US brought a lot of foods to TM’s house.]

nunkjabaga mata muccji moocjaru?
nuu=nkja=ba=ga mata mut-ti moor-tar-u
 what=APPR=ACC=FOC again have-SEQ HON-PST-PFC

‘What did (you) bring (here) again?’ [Co: 110328_00.txt]

b. Non-human demonstrative

[Context: Looking at a picture]

kurinkjoo daakai?
ku-ri=nkja=ja daa=kai
 PROX-NLZ=APPR=TOP where=DUB

‘Where (is) this [i.e. the scene of the picture]?’ [Co: 120415_00.txt]

c. Human reflexive pronoun [= (??c)]

[Context: Talking about a riverboat of the ms’s family]

urakjoo, nusinkjanu atattudu, siccjuro.
urakja=ja nusi=nkja=nu ar-tar-tu=du sij-tur=oo
 2.NHON.PL=TOP RFL=APPR=NOM exist-PST-CSL=FOC know-PROG-SUPP

‘You probably know (it), because you have a riverboat of your own.’

1 Nominal phrases

[Co: 111113_01.txt]

d. Human common nouns

mata namanujoo warabinkjoojoo,
mata nama=nu=joo warabi=nkja=ja=joo
 moreover now=GEN=CFM1 child=APPR=TOP=CFM1
 huccjunkjaboo sikandoojaa.
huccju=nkja=ba=ja sik-an=doo=jaa
 old.person=APPR=ACC=TOP like-NEG=ASS=SOL

‘Moreover, the children in these days do not like the old people.’ [Co: 120415_01.txt]

e. Non-human common noun

[Context: Looking at a picture]

kuzinkjoo nənbajaa.
kuzi=nkja=ja nə-an-ba=jaa
 shoe=APPR=TOP exist-NEG-CSL=SOL

‘There were not any shoes (in those days).’ [Co: 110328_00.txt]

nkja (APPR) can follow other plural markers, i.e. *-kja=nkja* (PL=APPR) and *-taa=nkja* (PL=APPR). In those cases, *nkja* (APPR) ignores the correspondence with the animacy hierarchy. First, let us see examples of *-kja=nkja* (PL=APPR).

(65) Double plural marking

a. Personal pronominal (1st person)

[Context: Looking at a picture, where there were a few men]

waakjankjoo waasa asaa.⁴
waakja=nkja=ja waa-sa ar-sa
 1PL=APPR=TOP young-ADJ STV-POL

‘I am young(er than them).’ [Co: 111113_02.txt]

b. Personal pronominal (2nd person non-honorific)

[Context: Talking about riverboats]

urakjankja, josidanu ozisantankja
ura-kja=nkja josida=nu ozisan-ta=nkja=ga
 2.NHON-PL=APPR Yoshida=GEN unlce-PL=APPR=NOM

⁴The regular process is *ar-sa* (STV-POL) > /assa/ (see §1.2.1.4), but it realizes as /asaa/ in this example.

(..tankja)ga mucjutakai?

mut-tur-tar=kai

have-PROG-PST=DUB

‘(I) wonder if you all [i.e. your family] (and) Yoshida’s uncle and his family had (riverboats).’ [Co: 11113_01.txt]

In fact, the combinations of *-kja* (PL) and *nkja* (APPR) as in (??a-b) are very rare. On the other hand, the combinations of *-taa* (PL) and *nkja* (APPR) are very common in Yuwan.

(66) Double plural marking

a. Human interrogative

urakjaa t’iiuicjiboo, tattankja?

urakja-a t’ii+ui=ccjiboo ta-ru-taa=nkja

2.NHON.PL-ADNZ one.CLF+above= speaking.of

‘Speaking of (the people who are) one (year) older (than) you, who (were they)?’ [Co: 120415_00.txt]

b. Address noun (personal name) & Human demonstrative

[Context: Remembering the days when people practiced the traditional dances]

sugojaga ari sjuinnja, kijomitankja,

sugojaga a-ri sir-tur-i=n=ja kijomi-taa=nkja

Sugoya=NOM DIST-NLZ do-PROG-INF=DAT1=TOP Kiyomi-PL=APPR

attankja, muru... sjutanmun,

a-ri-taa=nkja muru sir-jur-tar-n=mun

DIST-NLZ-PL=APPR very do-UMRK-PST-PTCP=ADVRS

‘When Sugoya was doing that [i.e. the practice of their traditional dances], Kiyomi and her friends, they used to do [i.e. participate in] (the practice) eagerly, but ...’ [Co: 120415_01.txt]

c. Address noun (elder kinship)

[Context: Looking at a picture where a formal opening of a prefectural road was held]

waakjaa anmatankjaga izji c’jancji j’icji,

waakja-a anmaa-taa=nkja=gaga ik-ti k-tar-n=ccji j’-ti

1PL-ADNZ mother-PL=APPR=NOM go-SEQ come-PST-PTCP=QT say-SEQ

‘My mother and her friends said that (they) had been [i.e. participated in] (the formal opening), and ...’ [Co: 120415_01.txt]

In my texts, there are more than thirty examples that have the combination of *-taa=nkja* (APPR).

Finally, there is also an example of double marking of *nkja* (APPR). However, it seems unproductive, since there is only one such example in my texts.

(67) Double plural marking

Common noun

[Context: Remebering the old days when Amami Ōshima was occupied by the US military]

unininkjoo, ..

*unin*⁵=*nkja*=*ja* *gakkoo+sjeito=nkja=nkja=ga=jaa*

that.time=APPR=TOP school+pupil=APPR=APPR=NOM=SOL

|gakkoo+sjeito|nkjankjagajaa. ari nati,

a-ri

nar-ti

DIST-NLZ

COP-SEQ

‘In those days, (the teachers felt that) the pupils were that [i.e. in danger], so ...’ [Co: 120415_00.txt]

nkja (APPR) has a freer distribution than *-kja* (PL) and *-taa* (PL). Such a fact clearly correlates with the fact that it can follow not only nominals but also verbs, e.g. /*mudutinkja*/ *mudur-ti=nkja* (return-SEQ=APPR) (see§?? for more details). *nkja* (APPR) is a form usually taken by nominals in the lowest (or the rightmost) of the animacy hierarchy in Yuwan. Therefore, it may be possible to say that the above possibility of double plural marking, where the following plural morpheme must be *nkja* (APPR), indicates that the plurality itself decreases the “animacy” of NP, since the personal pronominals, human interrogatives, and human demonstratives in the singular do not take *nkja* (APPR) directly (at least in the texts), but those in the plural can take it. Such a characteristic of the plural forms to decrease the “animacy” of an NP is found also in Polish, although the converse phenomenon is found in Russian (Comrie 1989: 188).

Before concluding this section, I present the differences between *-kja* (PL) and *nkja* (APPR). It is probable that the two forms are cognate, and that /n/ of *nkja* (APPR) was **nu* (GEN) in the past. However, they have to be regarded as different morphemes in modern Yuwan because of the following three reasons. First, *nkja* (APPR) can follow the converbal affix *-ti* (SEQ), but *nu* (GEN) never follows *-ti* (SEQ). Second, /n/ of *nkja* (APPR) cannot be paraphrased as /nu/, which is different from the contracted genitive particle /n/ discussed in (??) in §?? Third, the plural

⁵*unin* ‘that time’ must take the allomorph /unini/ before a consonant that fills a coda slot of a syllable.

form of *ura* (2.NHON.SG) ‘you’ is /urakja/ (not /uraakja/), which means that the morpheme preceding *kja* is not the adnominal *ura-a* (2.NHON-ADNZ) ‘your.’

1.4.2 NP modifiers

The words which can fill the modifier slot of an NP use different morphosyntactic means to modify their head nominal depending on their lexical meanings, which are subject to the animacy hierarchy of Yuwan (see Table ??). The distribution of means in the singular is partly different from that in the plural, which is caused by a plural affix *-taa*, which can attach to human interrogatives, human demonstrative, and address nouns. If these three lexical groups take *-taa* (PL), they fill the modifier slot of an NP without any other morpheme, i.e. juxtaposition. As mentioned before, the description of the rightmost nominals (“the other nominals”) in Table ?? is a little simplified. In fact, non-human demonstratives in the singular, e.g. *a-ri* ‘that’, can take not only *nu* (GEN) but also *ga* (GEN) in an environment, the detail of which is explained at the last of 6.4.2.1.

In the following subsections, we will see examples in the singular (see §??). Next, we will see the examples in the plural (see §??). Only the personal pronouns have the dual forms, e.g. /wa-ttəə/ (1-DU) ‘the two of us,’ and they take *ga* (GEN) when they fill the modifier slot of an NP, which is briefly discussed in §??

1.4.2.1 NP modifiers in the singular

An NP modifier in the singular chooses one of the following four means in this order, i.e. affixing of *-a* (ADNZ), taking *ga* (GEN), juxtaposition, and taking *nu* (GEN), corresponding to the animacy hierarchy of Yuwan (see Table ??).

First, personal pronominals and human interrogatives in the singular become adnominals using an adnominalizer *-a* when they fill the modifier slot of an NP (see also §?? and §??). In (??a), the first-person pronominal takes its adnominal form /waa/ *waa-a* (1.SG-ADNZ) ‘my.’ In (??b), the second-person honorific pronominal takes its adnominal form /naa/ *naa-a* (2.HON.SG-ADNZ) ‘your (honorific).’ In (??c), the second-person non-honorific pronominal takes its adnominal form *ura-a* (2.NHON.SG-ADNZ) ‘your (non-honorific).’ Finally, in (??d), the human interrogative takes its adnominal form *ta-a* (who-ADNZ) ‘whose.’

(68) Adnominals

a. Personal pronominal (1st person)

[Context: Talking about a man who used to dub tapes of songs voluntarily for villagers;

1 Nominal phrases

‘He said his recorder was not useful these days, and...’]

waa injasan |kasetto|kkwagadi muccji
 waa-ainja-sa+ar-n kasetto-kkwa=gadi mut-ti
 1SG-ADNZ small-ADJ+STV-PTCP cassette.recorder-DIM=LMT have-SEQ
 izji,
 ik-ti
 go-SEQ

‘(He) took even my small cassette recorder, and...’ [Co: 120415_01.txt]

- b. Personal pronominal (2nd person honorific)

naa mæakaci c’jæradu,
 naa-a mæə=kaci k-tæra=du
 2.HON.SG-ADNZ front=ALL come-after

‘After (the present author) came to your place, ...’ [Co: 110328_00.txt]

- c. Personal pronominal (2nd person non-honorific)

uraa |boosi|dooccji j’icji,
 ura-a boosi=doo=ccji j’-ti
 2.NHON.SG-ADNZ hat=ASS=QT say-SEQ

‘(The boy) said, “(It’s) your hat.”’ [PF: 090827_02.txt]

- d. Human interrogative

ude, umanu nikan taa nikan xxx
 ude u-ma=nu nikan ta-a nikan
 well MES-place=GEN mikan who-ADNZ orange
 ‘Well, whose *mikan* is (this) one [lit. *mikan*] there?’ [Co:
 101023_01.txt]

Second, human demonstratives in the singular take the genitive case particle *ga* when they fill the modifier slot of an NP as in (??) (about the contraction *-ri=ga* > /kka/, see (??) in §??).

- (69) Genitive case particle *ga*

Human demonstratives

akka naa nuucji?
 a-ri=ga naa nuu=ccji
 DIST-NLZ=GEN name what=QT

‘What is that person’s name?’ [Co: 110328_00.txt]

Third, address nouns (elder kinships or personal names) in the singular can fill the modifier slot of an NP by themselves; in other words, they use juxtaposition

to function as NP modifier. In (??a), the elder kinship term *anmaa* ‘mother’ fills directly the modifier slot of an NP. In (??b), the personal name *kacumi* ‘Katsumi’ fills directly the modifier slot of an NP too.

(70) Juxtaposition

a. Address noun (elder kinship)

[Context: Remembering the day when a few students came to see TM’s mother]

anmaa mæci kjuuta.

anmaa mæð=kaci k-jur-tar

mother front=ALL come-UMRK-PST

‘(They) used to come to (my) mother’s place.’ [Co: 110328_00.txt]

b. Address noun (personal name)

kun sigu kaduja namanu kacumi jaa

ku-n sigu kadu=ja nama=nu kacumi jaa

PROX-ADNZ immediately corner=TOP now=GEN Katsumi house

jappa.

jar-ba

COP-CSL

‘This one at this corner is Katsumi’s house now.’ [Co: 120415_00.txt]

Fourth, most of the other nominals in the singular take the genitive case particle *nu* when they fill the modifier slot of an NP. In (??a), the non-human interrogative *nuu* ‘what’ takes a genitive particle *nu*. In (??b), the non-human demonstrative *a-ri* ‘that’ takes a genitive particle *nu*. In (??c), both common nouns *zii* ‘ground’ and *micja* ‘soil’ take genitive particle *nu*.

(71) Genitive case particle *nu*

a. Non-human interrogative

nuunu nangikaicjidu umujun.

nuu=nu nangi=kai=ccji=du umuw-jur-n

what=GEN trouble=DUB=QT=FOC think-UMRK-PTCP

‘(I) wonder what (kinds) of trouble (I took).’ [i.e. ‘I didn’t want to take such a trouble.’] [Co: 120415_01.txt]

b. Non-human demonstrative

1 Nominal phrases

|sjenkjo|nu, arinu tukin, naajoo,
sjenkjo=nu a-ri=nu tuki=n naa=joo
 election=GEN DIST-NLZ=GEN time=DAT1 already=CFM1

‘(At) the time of election, (at the time) of that [i.e. the election], you know, ...’ [Co: 120415_00.txt]

c. Common nouns

[Context: Remembering a lesson told by TM’s acquaintance]

ziinu micjanu naanan dikijun munna
zii=nu micja=nu naa=nan dikir-jur-n mun=ja
 ground=GEN soil=GEN inside=LOC1 be.born-UMRK-PTCP thing=TOP
 gaija t’in nancji.
gai=ja t’ii=n na-an=ccji
 harm=TOP one.CLF=even exist-NEG=QT

‘(He said) that the things that were made in the soil of the ground are not dangerous at all.’ [Fo: 090307_00.txt]

It should be noted here that the choice of genitive particles is decided by the lexical meaning of the head within the modifier NP, not by the modifier NP as a whole. This is shown by the following example.

(72) Common noun

[Context: TM and US had been talking about an acquaintance, whose nickname they knew, but they did not know his full name.]

an c’junu naaja sjan.
a-n c’ju=nu naa=ja sij-an
 DIST-ADNZ person=GEN name=TOP know-NEG

‘(I) don’t know that person’s name.’ [Co: 110328_00.txt]

In (??), the common noun *c’ju* ‘person’ indicates a human and is modified by a demonstrative *a-n* (DIST-ADNZ) ‘that.’ Thus, the whole NP *a-n c’ju=nu* (DIST-ADNZ person=GEN) ‘that person’s’ seems to have the same definiteness and “humanness” with the human demonstrative *a-ri=ga* (DIST-NLZ=GEN) ‘that person’s’ in (??). The former, i.e. *a-n c’ju=nu* ‘that person’s,’ however, still takes *nu* (GEN), while the latter, i.e. *a-ri=ga* ‘that person’s’ takes *ga* (GEN). These facts mean that the genitive case does not take care of the lexical meaning of the modifier NP as a whole, but only takes care of the head nominal within it. Interestingly, the nominative case behaves differently from the genitive case in this point (see §?? for more details).

Lastly, it should be mentioned that non-human demonstratives can take either *nu* (GEN) as in (??b) or *ga* (GEN) as in (??a-b), and the former is the usual choice. This fact makes the correspondence of non-human demonstratives within the animacy hierarchy a little complicated.

(73) Non-human demonstrative

- a. [Context: Talking about a famous big banyan tree that used to be there]
 naakjoo ukka sjanti asibanti?
naakja=ja u-ri=ga sja=nanti asib-an-ti
 2.HON.PL=TOP MES-NLZ=GEN under=LOC2 play-NEG-SEQ
 ‘Didn’t you play at the place under that [i.e. the banyan tree]?’ [Co: 110328_00.txt]
- b. [Context: TM heard that MY put an egg into the miso soup in the every morning.]
 ugga naakaci irippoo, jiccjai.
u-ri=ga naa=kaci irir-boo jiccj-sa+ar-i
 MES-NLZ=GEN inside=ALL put.in-CND good-ADJ+STV-NPST
 ‘If (you) put (it) inside that [i.e. the soup], (it will) be good.’ [Co: 101023_01.txt]

The above demonstratives do not indicate humans, but they can take *ga* (GEN). The flexible correspondence with the animacy hierarchy found in the above examples was not found in the behavior of plural markers in the text corpus, where human demonstratives always take *-taa* (PL), and non-human demonstratives do not take it (see §?? about the data from elicitation).

The behaviour of words in the singular to fill the modifier slot of an NP was shown above; then, we will see that in the plural in the following section.

1.4.2.2 NP modifiers in the plural

An NP modifier in the plural chooses one of the following three means in this order, i.e. affixing *-a* (ADNZ), juxtaposition, and taking *nu* (GEN), corresponding to the animacy hierarchy of Yuwan (see Table ??).

First, personal pronominals in the plural, as well as in the singular, become adnominals using an adnominalizer *-a* when they fill the modifier slot of an NP. In (??a), the first-person pronominal takes its plural adnominal form *waakj-a* (1PL-ADNZ) ‘our.’ In (??b), the second-person honorific pronominal takes its plural adnominal form *naakja-a* (2.HON.PL-ADNZ) ‘your (plural honorific).’ In (??c), the

1 Nominal phrases

second-person non-honorific pronominal takes its plural adnominal form *urakj-a* (2.NHON.PL-ADNZ) ‘your (plural non-honorific).’

(74) Adnominals

a. Personal pronominal (1st person)

waakjaa uziitaaga gan sji jatassiga.
waakja-a uzii-taa=ga ga-n sir-ti jar-tar-siga
 1PL-ADNZ grandfather-PL=NOM MES-ADVZ do-SEQ COP-PST-POL
 ‘My husband [lit. our grandfather (in the perspective of TM’s grandchildren)] did so.’ [Co: 101023_01.txt]

b. Personal pronominal (2nd person honorific)

naakjaa jaakacinkjoo |nenzjuu|
naakja-a jaa=kaci=nkja=ja nenzjuu
 2.HON.PL-ADNZ house=ALL=APPR=TOP always
 ikjutanban,
ik-jur-tar-n=ban
 go-UMRK-PST-PTCP=ADVR
 ‘(I) used to go to your house, but ...’ [Co: 110328_00.txt]

c. Personal pronominal (2nd person non-honorific)

urakjaa jaaga, uinu jaaga mukasinu
urakja-a jaa=ga ui=nu jaa=ga mukasi=nu
 2.NHON.PL-ADNZ house=NOM above=GEN house=NOM past=NOM
 jaaja.
jaa=jaa
 house=SOL
 ‘Your house, the house above, (is) a traditional house, you know.’ [Co: 111113_01.txt]

Second, human interrogatives, human demonstratives, and address nouns in the plural can fill the modifier slot of an NP by themselves. In other words, they use juxtaposition to function as an NP modifier. In (??a), the human interrogative plural form /tattaa/ *ta-ru-taa* (who-NLZ-PL) directly fills the modifier slot of an NP. In (??b), the human demonstrative plural form /attaa/ *a-ri-taa* (DIST-NLZ-PL) directly fills the modifier slot of an NP. In (??c), the address noun (elder kinship) plural form *baasan-taa* (grandmothr-PL) directly fills the modifier slot of an NP. In (??d), the address noun (personal name) plural form *minoe-taa* (Minoe-PL) directly fills the modifier slot of an NP.

(75) Juxtaposition

a. Human interrogative

kurəə tatta cirikai?

ku-ri=ja ta-ru-taa ciri=kai

PROX-NLZ=TOP who-NLZ-PL classmate=DUB

‘Whose classmate is this person?’ [Co: 120415_00.txt]

b. Human demonstrative

attaa jaaga nama (an) acjurooga.

a-ri-taa jaa=ga nama ak-tur-oo=ga

DIST-NLZ-PL house=NOM now open-PROG-SUPP=CFM3

‘Their house is probably unoccupied now.’ [Co: 120415_00.txt]

c. Address noun (elder kinship)

baasantaa məə k’uranu atarooga. grandmother-PL front

baasan-taa məə k’ura=nu ar-tar-oo=ga

storehouse=NOM exist-PST-SUPP=CFM3

‘There was probably a storehouse (in) front of (my) grandmother(’s house).’ [Co: 110328_00.txt]

d. Address noun (personal name)

arəə minoetaa c’jantaaga cikitən

a-ri=ja minoe-taa c’jan-taa=ga cikir-təər-n

DIST-NLZ=TOP Minoe-PL father-PL=NOM make-RSL-PTCP

|suidoo| jatikai?

suidoo jar-ti=kai

water.conduit COP-SEQ=DUB

‘Was that the water conduit which was made by Minoe (and her family)’s father (and his friends)?’ [Co: 110328_00.txt]

The means of human interrogative and human demonstratives in the plural is different from that in the singular (see §??). Such a difference is clearly caused by the plural affix *-taa* (PL), which forces the means to fill the modifier slot of an NP to become juxtaposition. It is possible to think that *-taa* (PL) decreases the “animacy” of the above NPs. For example, human interrogatives change the means from *-a* (ADNZ), which is exploited by the nominals in the higher (or left side) rank of the animacy hierarchy, to juxtaposition, which is used by the nominals in the relatively lower rank of the animacy hierarchy. Considering these facts, the plurality seems to decrease the animacy of the relevant NPs (see also the remark on the double plural marking in §??).

Third, the other nominals in the plural take the genitive case particle *nu* when they fill the modifier slot of an NP. So far, there is no use of non-human plural

interrogatives in the modifier slot of an NP. In (??a), the non-human demonstrative in the plural *a-ri=nkja* (DIST-NLZ=APPR) takes a genitive particle *nu*. In (??b), the common noun in the plural *dusi=nkja* (friend=APPR) also takes the genitive particle *nu*.

(76) Genitive case particle *nu*

a. Non-human demonstrative

[Context: Talking about a person who was in the picture of an inn of neighborhood]

arinkjanu huccjunu sjasinnan
a-ri=nkja=nu *huccju=nu* *sjasin=nan*
 DIST-NLZ=APPR=GEN old.person=GEN photo=LOC1
 nututtojaa.

nur-tur=doo=jaa

appear/ride-PROG=ASS=SOL

‘(The person) appears in the photo of old people who lived in that [i.e. the inn].’ [Co: 120415_01.txt]

b. Common noun

[Context: After speaking about MS’s father, TM began to speak about the cousin of the friend of MS’s father.]

dusinkjanu zikinu |itoko|nu muhacianjootaa,
dusi=nkja=nu *ziki=nu* *itoko=nu* *muhaci+anjoo-taa*
 friend=APPR=GEN direct=GEN cousin=GEN Muhachi+older.brother-PL
 attankjoo, cunekoccjinkjoo j’icjan
a-ri-taa=nkja=ja *cuneko=ccji=nkja=ja* *j’-tar-n*
 DIST-NLZ-PL=APPR=TOP Tsuneko=QT=APPR=TOP say-PST-PTCP

kutoo nəntanmun.

kutu=ja *nə-an-tar-n=mun*

event=TOP exist-NEG-PST-PTCP=ADVR

‘The direct cousin [i.e. a cousin as a near relative (not by marriage)] of the friend (of your father), Muhachi, he never called (me) Tsuneko (without any honorific title).’ [Co: 120415_01.txt]

In fact, there are few examples where nominals both in the plural and in the lowest side of animacy hierarchy in Table ?? fill the modifier slot of an NP. Therefore, I have not found any example where a non-human demonstrative in the plural takes *ga* (GEN), which is clearly different from the case of non-human demonstratives in the singular discussed in (??) in §??

In §??, we have seen the combination of plural morphemes *-taa=nkja* (PL=APPR). However, there is only one example in my texts, where the combination occurs in the modifier slot of an NP. It uses juxtaposition to fill the modifier slot of an NP.

- (77) Address noun (elder kinship) with *-taa=nkja* (PL=APPR)

urakjaa zisantaankja kjoodəə
 {[*urakja-a* *ziisan-taa=nkja*]_{Modifier} [*kjoodəə*]_{Head}]_{NP}
 2.NHON.PL-ADNZ grandfather-PL=APPR brother
 janban,
jar-n=ban
 COP-PTCP=ADVRS

‘(My grandfather) is a brother of your grandfather (and his siblings), but ...’ [Co: 120415_01.txt]

The NP *urakja-a zisanta-nkja* (2.NHON.PL-ADNZ grandfather-PL=APPR) ‘your grandfather (and his siblings)’ directly fills the modifier slot of the larger NP, whose head is *kjoodəə* ‘brother.’ It is probable that juxtaposition is chosen here because the head within the modifier NP is an address noun (elder kinship), i.e. *ziisan* ‘grandfather,’ and also it contains *-taa* (PL).

1.4.2.3 NP modifiers in the dual

Only the personal pronouns have the dual forms, i.e. *wattəə* (1DU) ‘the two of us,’ *nattəə* (2.HON.DU) ‘the two of you (honorific),’ *urattəə* (2.NHON.DU) ‘the two of you (non-honorific),’ and *nattəə* (3DU) ‘the two of them’ (see also §??). These dual forms take *ga* (GEN) when they fill the modifier slot of an NP as in (§?a-d).

- (78) Genitive case particle *ga*

- a. Personal pronoun (1st person)

kurəə wattəəga mundoo.
ku-ri=ja *wattəə=ga mun=doo*
 PROX-NLZ=TOP 1DU=GEN thing=ASS

‘These are ours.’ [lit. ‘These are the two of us’s things.’] [El: 130812]

- b. Personal pronoun (2nd person honorific)

urəə nattəəga mundoo.
u-ri=ja *nattəə=ga mun=doo*
 MES-NLZ=TOP 2.HON.DU=GEN thing=ASS

‘These are yours.’ [lit. ‘These are the two of you’s things.’] [El: 130812]

- c. Personal pronoun (2nd person non-honorific)

urəə urattəəga mundoo.

u-ri=ja urattəə=ga mun=doo

MES-NLZ=TOP 2.NHON.DU=GEN thing=ASS

‘These are yours.’ [lit. ‘These are the two of you’s things.’] [El: 130812]

- d. Personal pronoun (3rd person)

nattəəga mun janban, murati, kami!

nattəə=ga mun jar-n=ban muraw-ti kam-i

3DU=GEN thing COP-PTCP=ADVR receive-SEQ eat-IMP

‘(These sweets) are theirs, but receive and eat (them)!’ [lit. ‘(These sweets) are the two of them’s, but receive and eat (them)!’] [El: 130814]

In the above contexts, the dual genitive forms may be replaced by the plural adnominals. For example, *wattəə=ga* (1DU=GEN) ‘the two of us’s’ in (??a) may be replaced by *waakja-a* (1PL-ADNZ) ‘our.’

1.4.3 Nominative case

The nominative case has two morphemes *ga* and *nu* (see §?? about the grammatical function of the nominative case). We choose one of them depending on the lexical meaning of the preceding nominals, which subject to the animacy hierarchy in Yuwan (see Table ??). On the one hand, the nominals other than the lowest (or rightmost) position in the animacy hierarchy (except for human interrogatives), i.e. personal pronominals, human demonstratives, and address nouns must take *ga* (NOM). On the other hand, the nominals in the lowest basically take *nu* (NOM). We could not know the nominative form of interrogatives, since it should be replaced by the focus marker *ga* (FOC) (see §?? and §??).

The nominals in the lowest of the animacy hierarchy, e.g. common nouns, basically take *nu* (NOM). However, they also take *ga* (NOM) in the following environments.

- (79) *ga* (NOM) prevails

Obligatorily if

- a. Clause has a nominal predicate; or
- b. Clause expresses incapability;
Frequently if
- c. Clause has an adjectival predicate; or

- d. Predicate expresses non-existence;
Sometimes if
- e. Subject indicates a definite human.

In the above five environments, the first two environments, i.e. (??a-b), obligatorily cause the NP to take *ga* (NOM), but the others just tend to cause it. I will present examples in the following subsections, where only the relevant examples, i.e. examples of nominals belonging to the lowest (or rightmost) rank of the animacy hierarchy (Table ??), are shown.

First, we will look at the basic alignment of *ga* (NOM) and *nu* (NOM) (see §??). Then, I will present the conditions where *ga* (NOM) prevails over *nu* (NOM) (see §?? - §??).

1.4.3.1 Basic alignment

Basically, the nominals in the higher rank of the animacy hierarchy of Table ??, must take *ga* (NOM), and the nominals in the lowest take *nu* (NOM).

First, I will present examples of nominals that must take *ga* (NOM). There is no difference of choice of case particles between the nominals in the singular and those in the plural, so they are simply shown together below.

(80) Personal pronominals (1st person)

a. Singular

naokonnæcʃi wanga jʰicjaroogai?
naoko+næ=ccʃi wan=ga jʰ-tar-oo=ga=i
 Naoko+older.sister=QT 1SG=NOM say-PST-SUPP=CFM3=PLQ
 ‘Do (you remember that) I spoke of Naoko?’ [Co: 120415_00.txt]

b. Plural

un hasinanti, ... waakjaga wutattoo.
u-n hasi=nanti waakja=ga wur-tar=doo
 MES-ADNZ bridge=LOC2 1PL=NOM exist-PST=ASS
 ‘We were [i.e. gathered] at the bridge.’ [Co: 110328_00.txt]

Personal pronominals (2nd person honorific)

c. Singular

nanga jʰujaa sjutarooga?
nan=ga jʰu+jaa sir-tur-tar-oo=ga
 2.HON.SG=NOM fish+house do-PROG-PST-SUPP=CFM3
 ‘You were probably running [lit. doing] a fish shop, right?’ [Co: 110328_00.txt]

d. Plural

naakjaga |socugjoo| sjəəraga waakjoo |gakkoo|kai?

naakja=ga socugjoo sir-təəra=ga waakja=ja gakkoo=kai

2.HON.PL=NOM graduation do-after=FOC 1PL=TOP school=DUB

‘(Is it) after you had graduated (from the elementary school, when) I (began to go to) school?’ [Co: 110328_00.txt]

Personal pronominals (2nd person non-honorific)

e. Singular

nobuari kunuguroo, uraga cjəəraga naa (mm)

nobuari kunuguru=ja ura=ga k-təəra=ga naa muru

Nobuari recently=TOP 2.NHON.SG=NOM come-after=FOC FIL very

murū (mm) uridoojaa.

u-ri=doo=jaa

MES-NLZ=ASS=SOL

‘Nobuari (is) recently that [i.e. feels good] after you came (back to Yuwan).’ [Co: 111113_02.txt]

f. Plural

[Context: Talking about a friend of TM]

urakjaga konboo, tudinnasanuccji juuboo,

urakja=ga k-on-boo tudinna-sa=nu=ccji j’-boo

2.NHON.PL=NOM come-NEG-CND lonely-ADJ=CSL=QT say-CND

‘(When the friend) said that, “(I) feel lonely if you do not come, so (come here),” ...’ [Co: 120415_01.txt]

Human demonstratives

g. Singular [= (??)]

minakotaa, akka k’uugadi,

minako-taa a-ri=ga k-gadi

Minako-PL DIST-NLZ=NOM come-until

‘Minako, until she come (here), ...’ [Co: 120415_01.txt]

h. Plural

attaaga sji kəə sjunban,

a-ri-taa=ga sir-ti k-i=ja sir-jur-n=ban

DIST-NLZ-PL=NOM do-SEQ come-INF=TOP do-UMRK-PTCP=ADVR

‘They (actually would) do (make lunch there) and come (here with it), but ...’ [Co: 101023_01.txt]

Address nouns (elder kinship)

i. Singular [= (??)]

uziiga daibangiinanti nasi mutunwake.
uzii=ga daiban+kii=nanti nasi mur-tur-n=wake
 old.man=NOM big+tree=LOC2 pear pick.up-PROG-PTCP=CFP
 ‘An old man is picking pears off on a big tree.’ [PF: 090305_01.txt]

j. Plural

daidai sunaobikija nagaiki(ikii)bikiccjidu
daidai sunao-biki=ja nagaiki-biki=ccji=du
 for.generations Sunao-pedigree=TOP long.life-pedigree=QT=FOC
 waakjaa anmataaga jutattu.
waakja-a anmaa-taa=ga j’-jur-tar-tu
 1PL-ADNZ mother-PL=NOM say-UMRK-PST-CSL
 ‘My mother used to say that (the members of) Sunao’s pedigree (has had) long life for generations.’ [Co: 111113_02.txt]
 Address nouns (personal name)

k. Singular

atoora nobuariga jappai |kaacjan|ga j’icjan tui,
atu=kara nobuari=ga jappai kaacjan=ga j’-tar-n tui
 after=ABL Nobuari=NOM after.all mother=NOM say-PST-PTCP as
 gan sji jatəttoocji.
ga-n sir-ti jar-təər=doo=ccji
 MES-ADVZ do-SEQ COP-RSL=ASS=QT
 ‘After (that), Nobuari (said) that, “After all, as mother said, (it) was like that.”’ [Co: 120415_00.txt]

l. Plural

nobuaritaaga, joo, naikwoo .. ujaja ujacji
nobuari-taa=ga joo naikwa=ja uja=ja uja=ccji joo
 Nobuari-PL=NOM FIL a.little=TOP parent=TOP parent=QT FIL
 joo .. ikjasjigacjinkja ido zjen .. zjen munna
ikja-sji=ga=ccji=nkja ido zjenzjen mun=ja j’-an
 j’an. how-ADVZ=FOC=QT=APPR well at.all thing=TOP say-NEG

‘Nobuari (said that) parents (are) parents [i.e. the ways of parents are different from his], (and) do not say anything (like) “How (do you do, mom?)” at all.’ [Co: 120415_01.txt]

In all of the above examples, the nominals in the higher (or left side) ranks of

the animacy hierarchy (except for human interrogatives), i.e. personal pronominals, human demonstratives, and address nouns, take *ga* (NOM).

Next, we will see example of the other nominals.

- (81) a. Non-human demonstrative (animate)

[Context: Talking about silkworms that were in the silk-reeling factory in the community]

namanu cjoodo an ... k'urusan
nama=nu cjoodo a-n k'uru-sa+ar-n cjoocjo=nu
 now=GEN just DIST-ADNZ black-ADJ+STV-PTCP
 cjoocjonu, (mmm) arinu wuncjijo. butterfly=NOM
a-ri=nu wur-n=ccji=joo

DIST-NLZ=NOM exist-PTCP=QT=CFM1

‘(In those days) there were (moths of silkworms) just (like) that black butterfly (in these days), (and actually, such) that [i.e. the moths] existed.’ [Co: 11113_01.txt]

- b. Non-human demonstrative (inanimate)

namanu (|taiku|) arinu an turoo.
nama=nu taiku a-ri=nu a-n turoo
 now=GEN sport DIST-NLZ=NOM exist-ADNZ place

‘(It is) the place, where that one [i.e. the sport gym] exists.’ [Co: 11113_01.txt]

- c. Common nouns (innanimate; human)

daibangiinu ati, unnanti jinganu |hasigo| kiiti,
daiban+kii=nu ar-ti u-n=nanti jinga=nu hasigo kiir-ti
 big+tree=NOM exist-SEQ MES-ADNZ=LOC2 man=NOM ladder put-SEQ

‘There was a big tree, and there a man put a ladder (against it), and ...’ [PF: 090222_00.txt]

- d. Common noun (human)

[Context: TM was surprised there was a boy with short hair on the picture, for boys in the past usullay have their heads shaven.]

naa, kurəə, kamacinkja muijacjun k'wanu
naa ku-ri=ja kamaci=nkja muij-as-tur-n k'wa=nu
 FIL PROX-NLZ=TOP head=APPR grow-CASU-PROG-PTCP child=NOM

wuti.

wur-ti

exist-SEQ

‘(Look at) this, (and) there is a child who grows (the hair of his) head.’

[Co: 120415_00.txt]

In (??a-d), the nominals in the lowest (or rightmost) rank of the animacy hierarchy take *nu* (NOM).

In the last of §??, it was mentioned that there can be a sequence of plural markers, i.e. *-taa=nkja* (PL=APPR), where the choice of nominative particle does not change as in (??b) or (??c).

1.4.3.2 *ga* (NOM) prevails obligatorily if the clause has a nominal predicate

As we have seen in the last of the previous section, usually the nominals in the lowest (or rightmost) rank of the animacy hierarchy take *nu* (NOM). There are, however, several cases where such a view is not the case. First of all, I will present the case where the predicate is filled by NPs, i.e. nominal predicates. In that case, the subject NP always takes *ga* (not *nu*).

(82) Non-human demonstratives

- a. [Context: Talking about kinds of snails]

ariga tanmjaa jappajaa.

a-ri=ga [*tanmjaa jar-ba*]_{Nominal predicate=jaa}

DIST-NLZ=NOM mud.snail COP-CSL=SOL

‘That is a mud snail, you know.’ [Co: 111113_02.txt]

- b. [Context: Wondering where the place in the picture is; ‘(It) may be Nogusuku.’]

kuriga jadui jappa.

ku-ri=ga [*jadui jar-ba*]_{Nominal predicate}

PROX-NLZ=NOM cottage COP-CSL

‘This is the cottage, so (it is probably Nogusuku).’ [Co: 120415_01.txt]

Common nouns

- c. [Context: TM asked MY where the words *cuburu* and *cubusi* in Yuwan indicate.]

cuburuga kumadarooga?

cuburu=ga [*ku-ma*]_{Nominal predicate=daroo=ga}

head=NOM PROX-place=SUPP=CFM3

‘(The place indicated by the term) *cuburu* is here, right?’ [Co:

1 Nominal phrases

110328_00.txt]

- d. jaaga ari jatattu. bonsan. house=NOM DIST-NLZ
jaa=ga [*a-ri jar-tar-tu*]Nominal predicate *bonsan*
 COP-PST-CSL Buddhist.monk
 ‘(Since the person’s) house was that. (That is,) the Buddhist monk.’
 [Co: 120415_00.txt]

The subjects of nominal predicates, i.e. *a-ri* ‘that’ in (??a), *ku-ri* ‘this’ in (??b), *cuburu* ‘head’ in (??c), and *jaa* ‘house’ in (??d), take *ga* (NOM), in spite of their being non-human demonstratives or common nouns.

A nominal predicate can be filled by an infinitive (or verbal noun) as follows (see §?? for more details).

(83) Head of a nominal predicate being the infinitive

- a. [Context: A couple tied an ox to the grass bound tightly, but the ox ran out.]
 mingin oosiran. un ...
ming-i=n oosir-an u-n kusabutuu=ga
 grab-REN=even have.time-NEG MES-ADNZ grass=NOM
 kusabutuuga bukuccji haziri.
buku=ccji [*hazirir-Ø*]Nominal predicate
 disconnected=QT be.free-INF
 ‘(They) don’t have time to grab (the ox). The bundled grass came out (of the ground).’ [Fo: 090307_00.txt]
- b. kun |ike|karanu mizjuuga agan
ku-n ike=kara=nu mizjuu=ga aga-n
 PROX-ADNZ pond=ABL=GEN ditch=NOM DIST-ADVZ
 iki.
 [*ik-i*]Nominal predicate
 go-INF
 ‘The ditch from this pond goes [i.e. extends] there.’ [Co: 120415_00.txt]

These examples show that the subjects of the nominal predicates filled by the infinitive also take *ga* (NOM) in spite of their being common nouns, i.e. *kusabutuu* ‘grass’ in (??a) or *mizjuu* ‘ditch’ in (??b).

1.4.3.3 *ga* (NOM) prevails obligatorily if the the clause expresses incapability

If all of the following conditions are satisfied, the NP is necessarily marked by *ga* (NOM).

(84) Conditions to mark an NP with *ga* (NOM):

- a. The clause, which includes the NP, expresses incapability as a whole;
- b. The NP is a “core argument” (other than the subject);
- c. There is a strong semantic relationship between the NP and its head VP.

The “core argument” here tends to be the object of a transitive verb, or the argument that has strong semantic relationship with the head verbs, e.g. *mii* ‘eye’ and *mj-* ‘look at,’ or *mimi* ‘ear’ and *kik-* ‘hear.’ It is difficult to call the “core arguments” subjects as in (??a-b), where the subjects are *a-n sinsjei* ‘the teacher’ or *a-n warabi* ‘the child,’ not *mii* ‘eye.’

- (85) a. an sinsjeija miiga mjicji moorancjidoo.
 a-n *sinsjei=ja* *mii=ga* *mj-ti* *moor-an=ccji=doo*
 [DIST-ADNZ teacher]=TOP eye=NOM see-SEQ [HON-NEG]=QT=ASS
 [Subject] [Honorific Aux. verb]
 ‘(I heard) that the teacher cannot see (with his) eyes.’ [El: 130816]
- b. #an warabəə miiga mjicji moorancjidoo.
 a-n *warabi=ja* *mii=ga* *mj-ti* *moor-an=ccji=doo*
 [DIST-ADNZ child]=TOP eye=NOM see-SEQ [HON-NEG]=QT=ASS
 [Subject] [Honorific Aux. verb]
 [Intended meaning] ‘(I heard) that the child cannot see (with his) eyes.’ [El: 130816]

In (??a-b), *mii* ‘eye’ is not the subject of the clauses, since the acceptability of the use of the auxiliary honorific verb is determined by its preceding NPs, i.e. *a-n sinsjei* ‘that teacher’ in (122 a) or *a-n warabi* ‘that child’ in (??b), both of which are the subjects of the above sentences (see also Chapter ??).

I will present other examples below.

(86) Expressing incapability

- a. [= (??a)]

diru? naa miiga mjanba.
di-ru naa mii=ga mj-an-ba
 which-NLZ yet eye=NOM see-NEG-CSL

'Which one? (I) cannot see (with my) eyes yet, so (it is difficult to see the picture).' [Co: 111113_01.txt]

- b. *miiga mjan nata.* eye=NOM see-NEG become-PST
mii=ga mj-an nar-tar

(I) lost my sight. [lit. ‘(My) eyes became unable to see (anything).’]
[Co: 120415_00.txt]

- c. *mimiga kikjanba.*
mimi=ga kik-an-ba
 ear=NOM hear-NEG-CSL

‘(They) cannot hear (with their) ears, so (they are difficult to talk with).’ [Co: 120415_01.txt]

In (??a-b), *mii* ‘eye’ is a common noun, but takes *ga* (NOM) and the clauses as a whole mean the incapability of the experiencer. In (??c), *mimi* ‘ear’ is also a common noun, but takes *ga* (NOM) and the clause as a whole means the incapability of the experiencer. The verbal roots themselves in (123 a-c), i.e. *mj-* ‘see’ and *kik-* ‘hear,’ can express capability, even though they do not include any morpheme that especially means capability (see also (??) and (??) in §??). In fact, *kik-* ‘hear’ can express capability when it does not follow *mimi=ga* (ear=NOM) as in (104) in §??

The predicates may optionally take the morpheme that expresses capability. The following example is similar to the environment of (??a), but the predicate takes a morpheme that means capability, i.e. *-ar* (CAP). In (??), the common noun *mii* ‘eye’ also takes *ga* (NOM).

- (87) Expressing incapability with *ar-* (CAP)

miiga mjaranba, naa taruccjæ
 mi=ga mj-ar-an-ba naa ta-ru=ccji=ja wakar-an
 eye=NOM see-CAP-NEG-CSL yet who-NLZ=QT=TOP
 wakaran.

understand-NEG

‘(I) cannot see (with my) eyes, so (I) can’t recognize who (it is in the picture) yet.’ [Co: 120415_00.txt]

It should be noted that *ga* (NOM) occurs even after “verbs” if the clause expresses incapability as in (??a-b).

- (88) a. Lexical verb in AvC expressing incapability [= (??a)]
 kuminkjanu nənboo, kadiga ikjankara, Lex. verb
kumi=nkja=nu nən-an-boo kam-ti=ga ik-an=kara
 rice=APPR=NOM exist-NEG-CND eat-SEQ=NOM go-NEG=CSL
 Aux. verb
 ‘If there is no food such as rice, (we) cannot live, so ...’ [Co: 120415_01.txt]
- b. Infinitive in the complement slot of LVC expressing incapability [= (??)]
 aikiga siikijanba. Complement LV
aik-i=ga sir-i+kij-an-ba
 walk-INF=NOM do-INF+CAP-NEG-CSL
 ‘(I) cannot walk [lit. do walking], so (I cannot bring the pickles from my house).’ [Co: 120415_01.txt]

These verbs are not “core arguments” since they are not nominals. However, the environments where *ga* (NOM) appears in (??a-b) are very similar to those of nominals as in (??). One may think that the *ga* (NOM) in this section is the focus particle *ga* in §?? In fact, I cannot deny this possibility (see also §??).

1.4.3.4 *ga* (NOM) prevails frequently if the clause has an adjectival predicate

If a clause has an adjectival predicate, the core arguments tends to choose *ga* (NOM) rather than *nu* (NOM). The “core arguments” here tend to be the subject of the clause, but sometimes it is difficult to call them subject as in (??a-b), where the subjects are *naakjaa anmaa-taa* ‘your mother’ or *an warabi* ‘that child,’ not *kui* ‘voice.’

- (89) a. naakjaa anmataaja kuinu kjurasa ati
naakja-a anmaa-taa=ja kui=nu kjura-sa ar-ti
 [2.HON.PL-ADNZ mother-PL]=TOP voice=NOM beautiful-ADJ STV-SEQ
 [Subject] [HON-UMRK-SEQ] [Honorific Aux. verb]
 moojuti?
moor-jur-ti

‘Did your mother have a beautiful voice?’ [El: 130816]

- b. #an warabəə kuinu kjurasa ati moojuti? [DIST-ADNZ
a-n warabi=ja kui=nu kjura-sa ar-ti moor-jur-ti
 child=TOP] voice=NOM beautiful-ADJ STV-SEQ [HON-UMRK-SEQ]
 [Subject] [Honorific Aux. verb]
 [Intended meaning] ‘Did that child have a beautiful voice?’ [El:
 130816]

In (??a-b), *kui* ‘voice’ is not the subject of the clauses, since the acceptability of the use of the auxiliary honorific verb *moor-* is determined by its preceding NPs, i.e. *naakjaa anmaa-taa* ‘your mother’ or *an warabi* ‘that child,’ which are the subjects of the above sentences (see also Chapter ??). If a clause has an adjectival predicate, the core arguments tends to choose *ga* (NOM) rather than *nu* (NOM) as in (??a-d). However, the adjectival predicate in the honorific avC does not induce such preference, and the core argument takes *nu* (not *ga*) as in (??a), at least in elicitation.

Examples that take *ga* (not *nu*) are shown below.

(90) Non-human demonstratives

- a. waakjaa cʰjantaaja kuriga nagasa ati,
*waakja-a cʰjan-taa=ja ku-ri=ga [naga-sa ar-ti]*Adjectival
 1PL-ADNZ father-PL=TOP PROX-NLZ=NOM long-ADJ STV-SEQ

predicate

‘My father was long in this [i.e. stature], so ...’ [i.e. ‘My father was tall, so ...’] [Co: 11113_01.txt]

- b. [Context: Talking about silkworms that were in the silk-reeling factory in the community, and the moths are similar to black butterflies that sometimes appear around TM’s house]
 arinu wuncji jo. ariga
a-ri=nu wur-n=ccji=joo a-ri=ga
 DIST-NLZ=NOM exist-PTCP=QT=CFM1 DIST-NLZ=NOM
 nissjagadi.
 [nissj-sa=gadi]Adjectival predicate
 similar-ADJ=LMT
 ‘There is that [i.e. black butterflies]. That is very similar (to the moths).’ [Co: 11113_01.txt]
 Common nouns

- c. haruotaanintəja kjoodənkjaga zjanasa
haruo-taa=nintəə=ja *kjoodəə=nkja=ga* [*zjana-sa*
 Haruo-PL=people=TOP brother=APPR=NOM many-ADJ
 ati,
ar-ti]Adjectival predicate
 STV-SEQ
 ‘Haruo and his family have many brothers (and relatives).’[lit. ‘About Haruo and his family, brothers (and relatives) are many.’] [Co: 120415_01.txt]
- d. jaaga injasankara,
jaa=ga [*inja-sa+ar-n*]Adjectival predicate=*kara*
 house=NOM small-ADJ+STV-PTCP=CSL
 ‘The house is small, so ...’ [Co: 120415_00.txt]

The core arguments, i.e. *ku-ri* ‘this [i.e. stature]’ as in (??a), *a-ri* ‘that (butterfly)’ as in (??b), *kjoodəə=nkja* ‘brothers (and relatives)’ as in (??c), and *jaa* ‘house’ as in (??d), take *ga* (NOM) in spite of their being non-human demonstratives or common nouns. I have not yet found any example in my text data where the non-human demonstrative takes *nu* (NOM) with adjectival predicates.

The prior uses of *ga* (NOM) as in (??a-d) are actually seen in Yuwan, but there are still a few examples where the arguments do not take *ga* (NOM), but take *nu* (NOM) even if their predicates are filled by adjectives.

(91) Common nouns

- a. agaraa munna kisjoonu
aga-raa *mun=ja* *kisjoo=nu*
 DIST-DRG.ADNZ thing=TOP temper=NOM
 cjussanu.
 [*cjuss-sa*]Adjectival predicate=*nu*
 strong-ADJ=CSL
 ‘That awful man has a strong [i.e. hot] temper.’[lit. ‘About the awful man, the temper is strong.’] [Co: 120415_01.txt]
- b. [Context: Looking at a man on the picture]
 |iro|nu k’urusajaa.
iro=nu [*k’uru-sa*]Adjectival predicate=*jaa*
 color=NOM black-ADJ=SOL
 ‘(He) looks black.’ [lit. ‘(About him), the color is black.’] [Co: 120415_00.txt]

1 Nominal phrases

The core arguments in the above examples take *nu* (NOM), although they have adjectival predicates.

1.4.3.5 *ga* (NOM) prevails frequently if the predicate expresses non-existence

If the predicate expresses non-existence, the core arguments frequently choose *ga* (NOM). In other words, if the predicate is filled by any one of these, i.e. *wur-an* (exist-NEG), *na-n* (exist-NEG), *umoor-an* (exist.HON-NEG), or *ar-ti moor-an* (exist-SEQ HON-NEG), the core arguments tend to choose *ga* (NOM). The “core arguments” here tend to be the subjects of the clauses, but sometimes it is difficult to call them subjects as in (??a-b), where the subjects are *a-n sinsjei* ‘that teacher’ or *a-n warabi* ‘that child,’ and not *kani* ‘money’.

- (92) a. *an* *sinsjeija* *kaniga* *ati* *mooransjuti*,
 a-n *sinsjei=ja* *kani=ga* *ar-ti* *moor-an=sjuti*
 [DIST-ADNZ teacher]=TOP money=NOM exist-SEQ [HON-NEG]=SEQ
 [Subject] [Honorific Aux. verb]
 injasan *jaanan* *sidi* *moojuncji*.
 inja-sa+ar-n *jaa=nan* *sim-ti* *moor-jur-n=ccji*
 small-ADJ+STV-PTCP house=LOC live-SEQ HON-UMRK-PTCP=QT

‘That teacher does not have money, so (he) lives in a small house.’ [lit. ‘About the teacher, there is no money, so (he) lives in a small house.’]
 [El: 130816]

- b. #*an* *warabəə* *kaniga* *ati* *mooransjuti*,
 a-n *warabi=ja* *kani=ga* *ar-ti* *moor-an=sjuti*
 [DIST-ADNZ child]=TOP money=NOM exist-SEQ [HON-NEG]=SEQ
 injasan *jaanan* *sidi* *moojuncji*.
 inja-sa+ar-n *jaa=nan* *sim-ti* *moor-jur-n=ccji*
 small-ADJ+STV-PTCP house=LOC live-SEQ HON-UMRK-PTCP=QT
 [Subject] [Honorific Aux. verb]

[Intended meaning] ‘That child does not have money, so (he) lives in a small house.’ [El:]

In (??a-b), *kani* ‘money’ is not the subject of the clauses, since the acceptability of the use of the auxiliary honorific verb *moor-* is determined by its preceding NPs, i.e. *a-n sinsjei* ‘that teacher’ or *a-n warabi* ‘that child,’ which are the subjects of the above sentences (see also chapter 3).

Other examples are shown below.

(93) Non-human demonstrative and common noun (inanimate)

- a. *kumannja* *ariga* *nəntattujaa*.
ku-ma=nan=ja *a-ri=ga* *nə-an-tar-tu=jaa*
PROX-place=LOC1=TOP DIST-NLZ=NOM exist-NEG-PST-CSL=SOL
|zaisan|ga anmai nəntattu.
zaisan=ga *anmai* *nə-an-tar-tu*
fortune=NOM so.much exist-NEG-PST-CSL
‘(The person) did not have that [i.e. fortune] here. (He) did not have
so much money.’ [lit. ‘There was not that [i.e. fortune]. There was not
so much money (for him).’] [Co: 120415_00.txt]
Common noun (inanimate)
- b. *un* *sicizibatiga* *tʰin* *nən*
u-n *sicizi+hatii=ga* *tʰii=n* *nə-an*
MES-ADNZ cycad+field=NOM one.CLF=even exist-NEG
natijaa.
nar-ti=jaa
become-SEQ=SOL
‘(It) has become (that) there is no such cycad field.’ [Co: 111113_02.txt]
Common nouns (human)
- c. *siccjun* *cʰjuga* *wuran*.
sij-tur-n *cʰju=ga* *wur-an*
know-PROG-PTCP person=NOM exist-NEG
‘There is not any person whom I know.’ [Co: 120415_01.txt]

The above examples show that the core arguments, i.e. *a-ri* ‘that [i.e. the fortune]’ and *zaisan* ‘fortune’ in (??a), *sicizi+hatii* ‘cycas field’ in (??b), and *c’ju* ‘person’ in (??c) take *ga* (NOM) in spite of their being non-human demonstrative or common nouns. The prior use of *ga* (NOM) is actually seen in Yuwan, but there are still several examples where the arguments do not take *ga* (NOM), but take *nu* (NOM) even if their predicates express non-existence.

(94) Common nouns

- [illegible]

1 Nominal phrases

wuranbaccji j'icjutiga,

exist-NEG-CSL=QT say-PROG-SEQ=FOC

‘Well, (I) said that there is not any person who knows such (a kind of) things, and ...’ [Co: 11113_02.txt]

b. [= (??a)]

kuminkjanu nənboo, kadiga ikjarankara,
kumi=nkja=nu nə-an-boo kam-ti=ga ik-ar-an=kara
 rice=APPR=NOM exist-NEG-CSL eat-SEQ=FOC go-CAP-NEG=CSL
 ‘If there is no food such as rice, (we) cannot live, so ...’ [Co: 120415_01.txt]

The core arguments in the above examples take *nu* (NOM), although their predicates express non-existence.

1.4.3.6 *ga* (NOM) prevails sometimes if the subject indicates a definite human

If the subject NP indicates a referent that is both definite and human, it sometimes chooses *ga* (NOM).

(95) Common nouns (human)

- a. un k'waga umanan |boosi| utucjəətattu,
u-n k'wa=ga u-ma=nan boosi utus-təər-tar-tu
 MES-ADNZ child=NOM MES-place=LOC1 hat drop-RSL-PST-CSL
 ‘That boy had left [lit. dropped] (his) hat there, so ...’ [PF: 090222_00.txt]
- b. an wunaguga siimiciga sijansjuti,
a-n wunagu=ga sir-i+mici=ga sij-an=sjuti
 DIST-ADNZ woman=NOM do-INF+way=NOM know-NEGSEQ
 ‘That woman don’t know the way to do (it), and ...’ [Co: 101023_01.txt]
- c. un c'juga jukkadi humijutassiga.
u-n c'ju=ga jukkadi humir-jur-tar-siga
 MES-ADNZ person=NOM always praise-UMRK
 ‘That person always praised (you).’ [Co: 120415_01.txt]

The subject NPs in the above examples indicate definite humans, as *u-n k'wa* (MES-ADNZ child) ‘that child’ in (??a), *a-n wunagu* (DIST-ADNZ woman) ‘that woman’ in (??b), and *u-n c'ju* (MES-ADNZ person) ‘that person,’ and all of them take *ga*

(NOM). The definiteness of these examples are clarified by the demonstrative ad-nominals, i.e. *u-n* (MES-ADNZ) or *a-n* (DIST-ADNZ). These examples show that the nominative case is very sensitive to the definiteness of the NP (not only the definiteness of its head), and such a sensitivity is a crucial difference between the nominative case and the genitive case (see (??) in §??).

Additionally, there are examples that do not take any overt form to express definiteness, but can be analyzed as definite referents. Those examples appear in the monologue of a folk tale.

(96) a. Reflexive pronoun

[Context: A man eavesdropped on the couple, and discovered that the husband found a pot filled with gold coins but did not bring it home.]

mookita. nusiga izji, tikkonbaccji j²icji,
mookir-tar nusi=ga ik-ti tikk-on-ba=ccji j²-ti

earn.money-PST RFL=NOM go-SEQ bring-NEG-CSL=QT say-SEQ

‘(The man) said that, “(I) earned money. (I) myself have to go and bring (it),” and ...’ [Fo: 090307_00.txt]

b. Common noun (human)

[Context: The man who eavesdropped on the couple went to the place where the pot was, but found a pot filled with mud, so he brought it back and threw it to the couple’s house. Then, the pot became filled with gold coins again.]

jingaga, jaaci nusarija nusijsi kan sji
jinga=ga jaa=kaci nusari=ja nusi=sji ka-n sir-ti

man=NOM house=ALL happiness=TOP RFL=INST PROX-ADVZ do-SEQ

həncji kjunmuncji,

hənk-ti k-jur-n=mun=ccji

enter-SEQ come-UMRK-PTCP=ADVRS=QT

‘The man (said) that, “Happiness comes to the house by itself like this,” (and ...)’ [Fo: 090307_00.txt]

In (??a), the antecedent of the reflexive *nusi* has already introduced in the story, so it must be definite. Additionally, the referent indicated by *jinga* ‘man’ in (??b) has already introduced in the story. There are only three persons that were introduced in the story, i.e. a couple of a man and a woman that are said to be honest, and a man who is sly. It is clear from the context that the nominal *jinga* ‘man’ in (??b) indicates the husband of the couple, so it must be definite too. Thus, these nominals in (??a-b) took *ga* (NOM).

The same phenomenon is also found in the case of the family name. The family name is actually a kind of personal name, but it cannot be used to address someone, which is different from address nouns. Thus, it must take a genitive particle *nu* if it fills in the modifier slot of an NP as in (??b). However, the family name can take *ga* (NOM) when it is the subject of a clause as in (??a), probably because the family name can also indicate definite humans.

(97) Common nouns (family name)

- a. Taking *ga* (NOM) as the subject
 |ittoki| motojamaga misje katuta.
ittoki motojama=ga misje kar-tur-tar
 for.a.while Motoyama=NOM shop rent-PROG-PST
 ‘For a while, Motoyama was renting the shop.’ [Co: 120415_00.txt]
- b. Taking *nu* (GEN) as the NP modifier
 |hai, hai, hai|. cjoodo motojamanu misje.
hai hai hai cjoodo motojama=nu misje
 yes yes yes just Motoyama=GEN shop
 ‘Yes, yes, yes, (that’s right). (It is) just (near) Motoyama’s shop.’ [Co: 120415_00.txt]

All of the above examples show that the definite human NPs may take *ga* (NOM), but there are also examples where they can still take *nu* (NOM).

(98) Common nouns

- a. [Context: TM asked when US had come to her house.]
 = (??b)
 nanga kunəəda umoocjasəə kun
nan=ga kunəəda umoor-tar=si=ja ku-n
 2.HON.SG=NOM the.other.day come.HON-PST=FN=TOP PROX-ADNZ
 cʰjunu cʰjərai?
cʰju=nu k-təəra=i
 person=NOM come-after=PLQ
 ‘(Is it) after this person [i.e. the present author] came (to your house) that you [i.e. US] came (here) the other day?’ [Co: 110328_00.txt]
- b. [Context: Three children were walking along the way.]

un k'wanu, c'juinu k'wanu isjoobiki hucji,
 u-n k'wa=nu c'jui=nu k'wa=nu isjoobiki huk-ti
 MES-ADNZ child=NOM one.CLF=GEN child=NOM whistle blow-SEQ
 'That child, the child (who is) one (of them) whistled, and ...' [PF:
 090305_01.txt]

- c. [Context: The Motoyama family borrowd a shop that had been closed.]

[hora], umanan motojamanu (ka ...)
 hora u-ma=nan motojama=nu kar k'uur-təər-tar-tu
 hey MES-place=LOC1 Motoyama=NOM borrow close-RSL-PST-CSL
 k'uutəətattu, kati, unnən nunkuin.
 kar-ti u-n=nən nuu-nkuin
 borrow-SEQ MES-ADNZ=LOC1 what-INDF
 'Hey, at the place, Motoyama, since (the shop) had been closed, rented
 (it), and (they sold) things [lit. anything] there.' [Co: 120415_00.txt]

The relevant NPs in (??a-c) indicate definite humans, but still take *nu* (NOM). The difference of frequency between *ga* (NOM) and *nu* (NOM) after definite human NPs is not very large. Therefore, it can be said that their alternation is merely optional one.

Before concluding this section, I will present a case where an indefinite person takes *ga* (NOM).

- (99) [Context: The very beginning of the monologue. 'I will start from the scene (where a man) picks up the pears. There is a pear tree, (i.e.) a big tree, ...']

unnənti uziiga c'jui joonasi
 u-n=nənti uzii=ga c'jui joonasi
 MES-ADNZ=LOC2 old.man=NOM one.CLF.person pear
 mutunwake.
 mur-tur-n=wake
 pick.up-PROG-PTCP=CFP
 'There, an old man is picking up pears.' [PF: 090225_00.txt]

As will be mentioned in §??, elder kinship terms can be used even if the referents are not actual relatives of the speaker. In (??), *uzii*, which can mean 'grandfather' as an address noun, indicates a man who appeared in the Pear Film. That is, it is not the real grandfather of the speaker TM. Additionally, it is the first time to indicate the man in the monologue. Thus, the *uzii* must be indefinite, but it

takes *ga* (NOM), not *nu* (NOM). The above fact means that a certain nominal that is higher in the animacy hierarchy (in Table ??) obligatorily takes *ga* (NOM) even if it actually indicates an indefinite referent.

1.4.3.7 Concluding remarks on the environments where *ga* (NOM) prevails

The environments shown above, where *ga* (NOM) prevails over *nu* (NOM), can be separated into two large groups: on the one hand, the environments influenced by the characteristic of the predicates as in §?? - §??: on the other hand, the environment influenced by the characteristic of the argument NPs as in §??

The alignment of the plural markers and NP modifiers in the animacy hierarchy is less flexible than that of the nominative case. The plural markers are concerned with the plurality of the head of an NP. The NP modifiers are also concerned with the relation within the NPs. Thus, both the plural markers and NP modifiers are parameters whose value is determined only within the NP. However, the nominative case is different from them, since it is concerned with the relation between the NP and the predicate. Those differences are considered to result in the differences in flexibility among them. Interestingly, the characteristics discussed in §?? - §?? are all concerned with low transitivity. Both the nominal predicate (in §??) and the adjectival predicate (in §??) have less (prototypical) transitivity, because they do not cause any change on any opponent (cf. Tsunoda 1991: 72). Additionally, the negative pole, i.e. incapability as in §?? and non-existence as in §??, is thought to have less transitivity (Hopper & Thompson 1980: 252).

However, it should be noted that all of the prior use of *ga* (NOM) in §?? - 6.4.3.6 may be regarded as the focus particle *ga* (FOC) (see §??). As mentioned in §??, I could not completely deny this possibility. We need to clarify the details of this problem in future research.

Comparing with plural markers and NP modifiers, the nominative case is very sensitive to the definiteness of the NP. The example (??) in §?? showed that NP modifiers are not sensitive to the definiteness of the whole NP, but that they are sensitive to the definiteness of the head nominal of the NP. Similarly, the plural markers are not sensitive to the definiteness of the whole NP, which is shown below.

- (100) [Context: Talking about the Bon festival, and some people in Ashiken said that the way taken by the people in Yuwan on the Bon festival was the actually traditional way.]

un cʰjunkjoo jutattujaa. {[Modifier]
u-n cʰju=nkja=ja jʰ-jur-tar-tu=jaa
 {[MES-ADNZ] [person]}=APPR=TOP say-UMRK-PST-CSL=SOL
 [Head]]NP
 ‘Those people used to say (so).’ [Co: 11113_01.txt]

In the above example, the NP, i.e. *u-n cʰju* (MES-ADNZ person) ‘that person,’ is definite since it has the demonstrative *u-n* (MES-ADNZ) ‘that (one)’ in the modifier slot. However, the plural marker that follows the NP is *nkja* (APPR), which is on the lowest position on the animacy hierarchy in Yuwan. In other words, such forms as **u-n cʰju-kja* (MES-ADNZ person-PL) or **u-n cʰju-taa* (MES-ADNZ person-PL) are not grammatical. However, the nominative case is sensitive to the definiteness of the whole NP, as discussed in §?? (especially, see (§?c)).

In conclusion, the form /ga/ comes to be used exclusively as the nominative case, which results in the form /nu/ to be used exclusively as the genitive case. A similar tendency is found in the nominative case and the genitive case in Irabu (southern Ryukyuan) (Michinori [Shimoji 2013](#) p.c.). There are actually a few examples that do not fit with the environments shown in the above subsections, but still take *ga* (NOM). I merely show them without any explanation.

- (101) a. [Context: A bad man threw a pot filled with mud.]
 = (??a)
 un janmækaci nagirattətan ciboga mata
u-n janməə=kaci nagir-ar-təər-tar-n cibo=ga mata
 MES-ADNZ garden=ALL throw-PASS-RSL-PST-PTCP pot=NOM again
 kundoo kinkakaci nati,
kundu=ja kinka=kaci nar-ti
 this.time=TOP gold.coin=ALL become-SEQ
 ‘The pot thrown into the garden became (filled with) gold this time again.’ [Fo: 090307_00.txt]
- b. [Context: Talking about an acquaintance; ‘The village office did the procedure (needed for the person), so...’]
 kaniga |goso|cji həncji.
kani=ga goso=ccji hənk-ti
 money=NOM a.lot=QT enter-SEQ
 ‘A lot of the money entered (his wallet).’ [Co: 120415_00.txt]
- c. [Context: Talking about an acquaintance]

1 Nominal phrases

un ziisanbəiga atanwake, kaniga. MES-ADNZ
u-n ziisan=bəi=ga ar-tar-n=wake kani=ga
old.man=only=NOM exist-PST-PTCP=CFP money=NOM
'Only the old man had the money.' [Co: 110328_00.txt]

2 Nominals

The nominals are divided into the subsets, i.e. common nouns, address nouns, reflexive pronouns, numerals, and indefinite pronouns. They are all free forms and are distinguished primarily by semantic criteria. Additionally, there is the deverbal nominal, i.e. the nominal derived from the verbal stems. These nominals will be discussed in §?? to §?? The formal nouns are also nominals, but they are clitics, which was already discussed in §?? We discussed that personal pronominals, demonstratives and interrogatives may be categorized not only as nominals, but also as other word classes, so they are called “cross-over categories” (see Chapter 5 for more details). These various kinds of nominals in Yuwan have strong relationships with the animacy hierarchy, and the details were discussed in §??

The affixes that attach only to the nominal stems are called the nominal affixes. Yuwan has only two nominal affixes: *-taa* (PL) and *-kkwa* (DIM). The plural affix *-taa* was discussed in §?? compared with other morphemes that can express plural meaning. The diminutive affix *-kkwa* will be discussed in the last section in this chapter (see §??). It should be noted that *-kja* (PL) in §?? is not categorized in the nominal affix, since it attaches to the personal pronominal stems (not nominal stems). In fact, *-kja* (PL) is a kind of nominalizer that can also express number, and the same point can be made about the other number affixes, i.e. *-n* (SG) and *-ttəə* (DU).

2.1 Common nouns

In §??, I will discuss the morphosyntax of common nouns.

In §??, I will discuss the semantic remarks on number of common nouns.

2.1.1 Morphosyntax of common nouns

A common noun can function as an NP of any kind (an argument, a predicate or an NP modifier). Nominals other than address nouns, reflexive pronouns, numerals, and indefinite pronouns are regarded as “common nouns.”

- (1) Common nouns (animate)

2 Nominals

a. Argument

muccji ikjoojəəcji maganu j'icjun
 mut-ti ik-oo=jəə=ccji maga=nu j'-tur-n
 have-SEQ go-INT=CFM2=QT [grandchild=NOM] say-PROG-PTCP
 [Subject]
 joosi.
 joosi
 atomosphere

‘The grandchild seems to say that, “(I) will take (the pears).”’ [PF: 090827_02.txt]

b. Predicate

kun c'joo, ido., taa .. maga
 ku-n c'ju=ja ido ta-a maga jar-tar-u
 this-ADNZ person=TOP oh [who-ADNZ grandchild COP-PST-PFC]
 [Nominal predicate]
 jataru?

‘Whose grandchild was this person?’ [Co: 120415_00.txt]

c. NP modifier

[Context: Complaining about the decline of her memory]
 maganu c'juigadəə sicjussiga,
 maga=nu c'jui=gadi=ja sij-tur-siga
 {[grandchild=GEN] [one.CLF]}=LMT=TOP know-PROG-POL
 {[Modifier] [Head]}_{NP}
 t'aimekaroo sijandoojaa.
 t'ai-me=kara=ja sij-an=doo=jaa
 two.CLF-time=ABL=TOP know-NEG=ASS=SOL

‘(I) know (the name of) one grandchild, but don’t know (that of) the second one (and more).’ [Co: 110328_00.txt]

In (??a), the animate common noun *maga* ‘grandchild’ fill the argument slot, which is the subject of the clause. In (??b), *maga* ‘grandchild’ fill the predicate slot of the clause, and it becomes nominal predicate with the copula verb *jar-* (cop). In (??c), *maga* ‘grandchild’ fills the modifier slot of an NP, whose head is a

numeral *cʔjui* ‘one person.’ The plurality of common nouns can be expressed by *nkja* (APPR).

(2) Common noun (animate) in the plural

[Context: Remembering that ms’s grandmother used to make kimono for grandchildren]

uraa	baasanna	jazin	magankjanu
<i>ura-a</i>	<i>baasan=ja</i>	<i>jazin</i>	<i>maga=nkja=nu</i>

2.NHON.SG-ADNZ grandmother=TOP necessarily grandchild=APPR=GEN

urakjaa	taməə,
<i>urakja-a</i>	<i>taməə</i>

2.NHON.PL-ADNZ sake

‘Your grandmother necessarily for grandchildren, for you all, ...’ [Co: 120415_01.txt]

In REFEX:7:2, *maga=nkja* (grandchild=APPR) ‘grandchildren’ has a plural meaning.

The above examples are all animate, but the same thing can be said to inanimate common nouns.

(3) Common nouns (inanimate)

- a. Argument [Context: Old people chanted an incantation when they felt the earthquakes.]

jaanu	jurippoo,	kjon	ciki	kjon
<i>jaa=nu</i>	<i>jurir-boo</i>	<i>kjoo=n</i>	<i>cik-i</i>	<i>kjoo=n</i>

[house=NOM] shake-CND Kyoto=DAT1 attach-IMP Kyoto=DAT1
[Subject]

cikiccji jutassigana.
cik-i *jʔ-jur-tar-siga=na*
attach-IMP say-UMRK-PST-POL=PLQ

‘If the house shakes, (old people said) that, “Send (it) to Kyoto! Send (it) to Kyoto!” [lit. “Attach to Kyoto! Attach to Kyoto!”]’ [Co: 110328_00.txt]

- b. Predicate
- | | | | |
|----------------|-----------------|-----------------|---------------------|
| arəə | attaa | məəra | muratən |
| <i>a-ri=ja</i> | <i>a-ri-taa</i> | <i>məə=kara</i> | <i>muraw-təər-n</i> |
- DIST-NLZ=TOP [DIST-NLZ-PL front=ABL receive-RSL-PTCP
[Nominal predicate]

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jaa jappa.
jaa jar-ba
 house COP-CSL]

‘Since that is the house (he) has received from them.’ [Co: 111113_01.txt]

- c. NP modifier [Context: Seeing a picture, where bundles of rice were hung out in the sun]

jaanu mæninkjadu gan sji
jaa=nu mæə=nan=nkja=du ga-n sir-ti
 {[house=GEN] [front]}=LOC1=APPR=FOC MES-ADVZ do-SEQ
 {[Modifier] [Head]}_{NP}
 sagijutanwake zjajaa.
 sagir-jur-tar-n=wake zjar=jaa
 hang-UMRK-PST-PTCP=FN COP=SOL

‘(They) would hang (bundles of rice) in front of (their) houses like this.’ [Co: 111113_02.txt]

- d. In the plural kan sji jankjanu
 ka-n sir-ti jaa=nkja=nu
 PROX-ADVZ do-SEQ house=APPR=NOM
 dikijukkjaija |nan+nengoro|karakai?
 dikir-Ø+jukkjaar-i=ja nan+nen-goro=kara=kai
 be.made-INF+INGR-INF=TOP what+year-about=ABL=DUB
 ‘When did the houses begin to be made like this?’ [Co: 110328_00.txt]

In (??a), the inanimate common noun *jaa* ‘house’ fill the argument slot, which is the subject of the clause. In (??b), *jaa* ‘house’ fill the predicate slot of the clause, and it becomes nominal predicate with the copula verb *jar-* (COP). In (??c), *jaa* ‘house’ fills the modifier slot of an NP, whose head is also a common noun *mæə* ‘front.’ In (??d), *jaa=nkja* (house=APPR) ‘houses’ has a plural meaning.

2.1.2 Semantic remarks on number of common nouns

We have seen that the plurality of common nouns is expressed by *nkja* (APPR) in the previous section. There is, however, a case, where the bare form of common nouns can imply plurality in itself. In the following discussion, the “bare form” indicates the form which is not followed by the plural markers in Yuwan.

(4) Common noun (indefinite and unspecific)

[Context: Speaking of a woman]

k'woo *ippaidoojaa*.*k'wa=ja* *ippai=doo=jaa*

child=TOP many=ASS=SOL

'(She has) many children, you know.' [Co: 120415_01.txt]

In REFEX:7:4, *k'wa* 'child' indicates plural referents in effect, since the predicate (i.e. *ippai* 'many') means plurality, but it does not need *nkja* (APPR). However, such an implication of plurality is only allowed for indefinite (and unspecific) referents as in (?). If the referent is definite, specific, and also human, the bare form must indicate only one referent. See (?).

(5) Common noun (definite, specific, and human)

[Context: Three boys noticed that another boy fell his hat, so they called the boy.]

saki izjan *micjaija* .. xxx *mata* *isjoobiki**saki ik-tar-n* *micjai=ja* *mata isjoobiki huk-ti* *u-n*

first go-PST-PTCP three.CLF=TOP again whistle blow-SEQ MES-ADNZ

hucji, *un* *k'waba abiti*,*k'wa=ba* *abir-ti*

child=ACC call-SEQ

'The three (boys) who went first again whistled, and called the boy, and ...'

[PF: 090222_00.txt]

In the above context, the referent called by three boys is only one. In other words, the expression *u-n k'wa* 'the boy [lit. that child]', which is definite, specific, and human, must have only a singular meaning. As mentioned in §??, the plural markers in Yuwan, including *nkja* (APPR), can indicate a single specific referent alone. Such an ambiguous characteristic of plural markers make it a little complicated to code or decode the meaning of number in Yuwan. The above contrast between REFEX:7:4 and (?) is summarized in the following tables (see Table ?? and Table ??).

The meaning "b" in the right-most column in Table ?? is characteristic of the plural markers in Yuwan (see §?? for more details). Table ?? shows that the common nouns that are indefinite and unspecific are ambiguous about their number in both encoding and decoding. The coding relation in REFEX:7:4 corresponds to that of "bare form" and "more than one referent." In another context, the bare form, which indicates an indefinite and unspecific referent, can also be decoded

Table 2.1: . Common nouns (indefinite and unspecific)

Form	«< Encoding	«< Meaning on number
	Bare form	
	a. One referent	
	Bare from + <i>nkja</i> (APPR)	
	b. One referent as an example of the member of an unspecific group	
	c. More than one referent	
	»> Decoding »>	

into simply “one referent.” However, if the common nouns indicate definite, specific, and human referents, the bare form cannot be used to indicate more than one referent, which is presented below.

Table 2.2: Common nouns (definite, specific, and human)

Form	«< Encoding	«< Meaning on number
(6)	Bare form	
	a. One referent	
	Bare from + <i>nkja</i> (APPR)	
	b. One referent as an example of the member of an unspecific group	
	c. More than one referent	
	»> Decoding »>	

no example numbers in tables

In Table ??, a line that existed in Table ??, i.e. the connection between “bare form” and “more than one referent,” was omitted. Thus, the coding relation between “bare form” and “one referent” is straightforward. Therefore we can know that the bare form in REFEX:7:5 indicates only one referent.

2.2 Address nouns

Address nouns can be used to call the opponent, which include a part of elder kinship terms and personal names. Additionally, certain profession, e.g. *soncjoo-san* (village.mayor-HON) ‘village mayor’ or *sinsjei* ‘teacher’ can be used as address nouns.

The elder kinship terms that can be used to address the opponent are as follows: *zjuu* ‘father,’ *cʰjan* ‘father,’ *anmaa* ‘mother,’ *okkan* ‘mother,’ *kaacjan* ‘mother,’ *uzii* ‘grandfather,’ *hannjəə* ‘grandmother,’ *ubaa* ‘grandmother,’ *nii* ‘older brother,’ *nəə* ‘older sister,’ which all appeared in my texts. In those kinship terms, *zjuu* ‘father,’ *anmaa* ‘mother,’ *hannjəə* ‘grandmother,’ and *anjoo* ‘old brother’ are relatively old expression, and the others are relatively new (borrowed) ones. These elder kinship terms, especially the relatively new ones, can be used even if the speaker does not have an actual relative relation with the opponent, e.g., *uzii* ‘grandfather’ in (??) in §??, where *uzii* is glossed and translated into ‘old man’ to fit in the context. The personal names that can be used to address people are all the first names, not the family names.

It should be mentioned that several kinship terms cannot be used to address the opponents, e.g., *uja* ‘parents,’ *jinga-nəə* (man-parent) ‘father [lit. male parent],’ *wunagu-nəə* (woman-parent) ‘mother [lit. female parent],’ *kjoodəə* ‘brother,’ *wunai* ‘younger sister,’ *jʰii* ‘younger brother,’ and *maga* ‘grandchild.’ These kinship terms that cannot be used to address the opponent are included in the common nouns in Yuwan (see §??).

The address nouns can function as an NP of any kind (an argument, a predicate or an NP modifier). In Yuwan, personal names are frequently compounded with elder kinship terms, e.g. *zjennjuki+anjoo* (Zenyuki+older.brother) ‘Zenyuki,’ where the elder kinship terms function like the honorific titles ‘Mr.’ or ‘Ms.’ in English, although they are used in a more friendly way. The honorific meaning is not translated in English in this grammar.

(7) Address nouns (elder kinship)

a. Argument

zjennjukianjooga |*heitai*|*kaci izji*,
zjennjuki+anjoo=ga *heitai=kaci ik-ti*
 [Zenyuki+older.brother=NOM] soldier=ALL go-SEQ
 [Subject]
 ‘Zenyuki went to (be) a soldier, and ...’ [Co: 120415_00.txt]

b. Predicate

kuri *sigemasaanjoo* *jappa*.
ku-ri *sigemasa+anjoo* *jar-ba*
 PROX-NLZ [Shigemasa+older.brother COP-CSL]
 [Nominal predicate]
 ‘This (person on the picture) is Shigemasa.’ [Co: 120415_00.txt]

c. NP modifier

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kun c'joo kisasianjoo zjuuja
ku-n *c'ju=ja* *kisasi+anjoo* *zjuu=ja*
 PROX-ADNZ person=TOP {[Kisashi+older.brother] [father]}=TOP
 arannən, {[Modifier] [Head]}_{NP}
ar-annən
 COP-NEG.SEQ
 'This person is not Kisashi's father, and ...' [Co: 120415_00.txt]

d. In the plural

an junizooanjootaaga simautaba
a-n *junizoo+anjoo-taa=ga* *sima+uta=ba*
 DIST-ADNZ Yonezo+older.brother-PL=NOM community+song=ACC
 hozonsiicji j'icji,
hozon+siir-i=ccji *j'-ti*
 preservation+do-INF=QT say-SEQ
 'Those (people,) Yonezo and his family said that (they would) do the
 preservation of the (traditional) songs (of) the community.' [Co:
 111113_01.txt]

In (??a), the (compounded) personal name *zjennjuki+anjoo* 'Zenyuki' fill the argument slot, which is the subject of the clause. In (??b), *sigemasa+anjoo* 'Shigemasa' fill the predicate slot of the clause, and it becomes nominal predicate with the copula verb *jar-* (COP). In (??c), *kisasi+anjoo* 'Kisashi' directly fills the modifier slot of an NP, whose head is also an address noun *zjuu* 'father'. In (??d), *junizoo+anjoo-taa* (Yonezo+older.brother-PL) 'Yonezo and his family' has a plural meaning.

As mentioned in §??, the plural forms in Yuwan may indicate not only plural specific referents, but also a single specific referent. Therefore, the plural forms are ambiguous about the semantic plurality in a narrow sense. The bare forms (i.e. the forms without the plural affix *-taa*) of address nouns, however, are different, since the bare forms of address nouns must indicate only one specific referent (with no other referents). Therefore, it may be appropriate to admit that the bare forms of address nouns have a zero affix that only indicates the singular meaning, e.g., *zjennjuki+anjoo-Ø* (Zenyuki+older.brother-SG). Here, it should be remembered that a similar problem has happened in common nouns, where certain common nouns must have correspondence between bare forms and (genuine) singular meanings (see §??). Those common nouns must indicate definite, specific, and human referents, which are the usual characteristics of address nouns (with the exception of elder kinship terms used to indicate non-relatives). Considering

these facts, it is more appropriate to think that the obligatory “singularity” of the address nouns is not attributed to the alleged affix $-\emptyset$ (SG), but on the meaning of the NP (with which the plural affixes co-occur). Thus, I propose that the address nouns in bare forms do not have any singular affix such as $-\emptyset$ (SG).

2.3 Reflexive pronouns

Yuwan has two reflexive pronouns, *nusi* and *duu*, and the choice of them seems to depend on the difference among idiolects. For example, TM only uses *nusi*, MY basically uses *nusi* but sometimes uses *duu*, which is always compounded like *duu+duu*, and MS uses only *duu*; the other people have not used reflexive pronouns in my texts. In many cases, the antecedent of the reflexive pronoun is the subject of the clause. In the following examples, the reflexive and its antecedent is marked by the small italic “*i*” in the underlying level. In addition, the reflexive pronouns in the underlying level and their correspondents in the free translation are underlined.

- (8) a. [Context: Talking about a riverboat of the MS’s family] = (??c)
 urakjoo, nusinkjanu atattudu,
urakja_i=ja [*nusi=nkja_i=nu* *ar-tar-tu*]_{Adverbial clause =du}
 2.NHON.PL=TOP RFL=APPR=NOM exist-PST-CSL=FOC
 siccjuro.
sij-tur-oo
 know-PROG-SUPP
 ‘You probably know (it), because you have a riverboat of your own.’
 [Co: 11113_01.txt]
- b. [Context: Speking about an acquaintance] = (??)
 wanga kucisji nusiboo
 [*wan=ga* *kuci=sji* *nusi=ba=ja*]
 1SG=NOM mouth=INST RFL=ACC=TOP
 jamacjuncji,
jam-as-tur-n=ccji]_{Complement clause}
 have.a.pain-CAUS-PROG-PTCP=QT
 ‘(The person said) that I was making the person ill using (my) mouth,
 and ...’ [Co: 120415_01.txt]

In (??a), the antecedent of *nusi* (RFL) is *urakja* ‘you,’ and it overtly appears in the sentence. On the contrary, in (??b), the antecedent of *nusi* (RFL), i.e. ‘the person,’

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does not overtly appear in the sentence, but it can be traced by the context. In both of the above examples, *nusi* (RFL) is in the subordinate clauses, but it can correspond with the antecedents in the main clauses.

Additionally, there are examples where *nusi* (RFL) does not seem to correspond with any specific antecedent, but seems to correspond with unspecific referents.

- (9) [Context: The husband of a couple did not bring back a pot filled with gold coins, since happiness comes naturally to honest people.]
- | | | | | |
|------------------|----------------|-----------------|------------------|-------------------|
| nusarija | nusinu | jaakaci, | nusarija | sizinnidu |
| <i>nusari=ja</i> | <i>nusi=nu</i> | <i>jaa=kaci</i> | <i>nusari=ja</i> | <i>sizin=n=du</i> |
- happiness=TOP RFL=GEN house=ALL happiness=TOP nature=DAT1=FOC
 həncji kjuncji.
 hənk-ti k-jur-n=ccji
 enter-SEQ come-UMRK-PTCP=QT
 ‘(He said to his wife) that the happiness comes into one’s house, (i.e.) the happiness (comes home) naturally.’ [Fo: 090307_00.txt]

In REFEX:7:8, it may be possible to think that *nusi* (RFL) corresponds to the man, i.e. the husband of the couple, but it is more natural to think that it corresponds to unspecific people. In other words, it is more appropriate to think that the utterance said by the man in (??) is a kind of conventional wisdom.

The above examples show that *nusi* (RFL) behaves in the same way with common nouns, since it takes *nkja* (APPR) as in (??a), and takes *nu* (GEN) in the modifier slot of an NP as in REFEX:7:8. Additionally, it usually takes *nu* (NOM) as the subject of the clause as follows.

- (10) [Context: Asking TM if she made the pickles.]
- | | | |
|-----------------|----------------|-----------------|
| kurəə | nusinu | cukuti? |
| <i>ku-ri=ja</i> | <i>nusi=nu</i> | <i>cukur-ti</i> |
- PROX-NLZ=TOP RFL=NOM make-SEQ
 [lit.] ‘Did yourself make this?’ [Co: 101023_01.txt]

In REFEX:7:9, the antecedent of *nusi* (RFL), i.e. ‘you,’ is not overtly expressed, but it can be inferred from the context. Considering this example, it may be appropriate to say that the antecedents of *nusi* (RFL) is the agent (or possibly experiencer) of the event expressed by the clause, rather than the subject of the clause.

nusi (RFL) can be reduplicated as follows, where the following root is lengthened.

- (11) [Context: Remembering the day the outdoor lamps were set in the shopping street of the village]
 nusinusiinu jaanu kadukadunan tatitancjijo.
nusi+nusi=nu jaa=nu kadu+kadu=nan tatir-tar-n=ccji=joo
 RED+RFL=GEN house=GEN RED+corner=LOC1 stand-PST-PTCP=QT=CFM1
 ‘(They) stood (the outdoor lamps) at each corner of each one.’ [Co: 120415_00.txt]

In the examples discussed above, *nusi* (RFL) indicates only a human referent. Additionally, *nusi* (RFL) can indicate non-human referents, e.g., *mjaa* ‘cat’ as in REFex:7:11.

- (12) mjaanu nusu maiba kada sjuttoo.
 mjaai=nu nusi=nu mai=ba kada sir-jur=doo
 cat=NOM RFL=GEN buttock=ACC smell do-UMRK=ASS
 ‘A cat smells the buttock of itself. [El: 130820]

2.4 Numerals

A numeral is constituted of a numeral root plus a classifier affix. So far, the following classifier affixes are found in Yuwan: *-ci* (CLF.thing), *-kəi* (CLF.time), and *-(ta)i* (CLF.human). However, these numerals are not very productive, and people usually borrow numerals from Standard Japanese. The numeral in Yuwan usually fills the head slot of an NP and does not fill the modifier slot. If it should fill the modifier slot of an NP, it takes *nu* (GEN). Numerals, if they are the subjects of the clauses, take *ga* (NOM) or nothing except for the cases where they take limiter particles. There are no examples where numerals take any plural marker in my texts so far.

In §??, I will discuss the syntax of numerals. In §??, I will discuss the morphology of numerals.

2.4.1 Syntax of numerals

First, we will examine the examples of *-ci* (CLF.thing). The combinations of numeral roots and *-ci* (CLF.thing) are summarized in Table ??. The morphological analysis of the numerals in Table ?? is shown in §??

For the numbers more than ten in Table ??, there are no native terms, so we have to use borrowings from standard Japanese. I will present examples of *-ci* (CLF.thing), where the numerals head the NPs.

Table 2.3: Numerals made with *-ci* (CLF.thing) (surface forms)

Numbers	Word forms	Meaning
1	tʰi	a thing
2	tʰaaci	two things
3	miici	three things
4	juuci	four things
5	icici	five things
6	muuci	six things
7	nanaci	seven things
8	jaaci	eight things
9	kʰuunuci	nine things
10	tuu	ten things

- (13) a. [Context: A man had put two baskets under a big pear tree.]

un kagonu tʰi cidi
u-n *kago=nu* *tʰi* *cim-ti*
 {[MES-ADVZ basket=GEN] [one.CLF.thing]} load-SEQ
 {[Modifier] [Head]}_{NP}
 ikjunwake.
ik-jur-n=wake
 go-UMRK-PTCP=CFP

‘(The boy) puts the one of the baskets on (the front of his bicycle) and goes.’ [PF: 090222_00.txt]

- b. [Context: There is a big pear tree, from which a man is picking up pears.] = (??a)

kiinu sjanannja kagonu tʰaaci
kii=nu *sja=nan=ja* *kago=nu* *tʰaaci*
 tree=GEN under=LOC1=TOP {[basket=GEN] [two.CLF.thing]}
 ucjuti, {[Modifier] [Head]}_{NP}
uk-tur-ti
 put-PROG-SEQ

‘Under the tree, (the man) put two baskets, and ...’ [PF: 090222_00.txt]

- c. [Context: A boy tumbled off his bicycle and the pears in the basket in front of the bicycle scattered. Three other boys helped him to gather

the pears. After that, the one of the three boys found the boy's hat, so he called him and handed the hat to him.]

gan sjan tuki mata joonasinu miici,
ga-n *sir-tar-n* *tuki mata joonasi=nu* *miicɨ*
MES-ADNZ do-PST-PTCP time again [[pear=GEN] [three.CLF.thing]]
 [[Modifier] [Head]]_{NP} hey receive-SQ

|hora|, murati c'jaroo.

hora muraw-ti k-tar-oo

come-PST-SUPP

‘(At) that time, probably (the boys) received three pears again, and came (back).’ [PF: 090222_00.txt]

The numerals tend to fill the head slot of an NP (except for the case of “quantifier-float” below). However, there is an example where the numeral fills the modifier slot of an NP as in REFEX:7:15. After you have read the description about quantifier-float below, it should be noted that all of the numerals as in (??) are not the examples of quantifier-float. This was shown by the case particles which the NP modifiers take in (??), where the NP modifiers take a genitive case *nu*, not *ba* (ACC), despite the NP’s being the objects of the clauses. This fact shows that the numerals are not apart from the preceding NPs, i.e. not floated quantifiers, but that they fill the head slots of the NPs with the preceding NP modifiers.

Second, the combinations of numeral roots and *-kəəi* (CLF.time) are summarized in Table ?? . The morphological analysis of the numerals in Table ?? is shown in §??

For the numbers above ten in Table ??, there are no native terms, so we have to use borrowings from standard Japanese. I will present examples of *-kaai* (CLF.time), where the numeral behaves as an adverb.

- (14) a. an tacigəə cʰjukəɪn tooritin njan.
 a-n tacigi=ja cʰjukəɪ=n toorir-ti=n nj-an
 DIST-ADNZ prop=TOP one.CLF.time=even fall-SEQ=ever EXP-NEG
 ‘That prop has never fallen even once.’ [El: 130816]
- b. mata.. uma tʰakəi izjai, cʰjai, sjattu.
 mata u-ma tʰakəɪ ik-tai k-tai sir-tar-tu
 again MES-place two.CLF.time go-LST come-LST do-PST-CSL
 ‘(The three boys) went there and came back two times.’ [PF:
 090225 00.txt]

-*kəəi* (CLF.time) goes through the phonological rule in §?? Therefore, one of the vowels is deleted as in (??b) or Table ?. However, if *n* ‘even’ follows -*kəəi*

Table 2.4: . Numerals made with *-kəəi* (CLF.time) (surface forms)

Numbers	Word forms	Meaning
1	c ^ʔ jukəi	once
2	t ^ʔ akəi	twice
3	mikəi	three times
4	jukəi	four times
5	icikəi	five times
6	mukəi	six times
7	nanakəi	seven times
8	jakəi	eight times
9	kunkəi	nine times
10	tukəi	ten times

(CLF.time), the environment is out of the application of the rule, and the underlying form appears in the surface form without any modification as /c^ʔju-kəəi=n/ (one-CLF.time=even) ‘even once’ in (??a).

Third, the combinations of numeral roots and *-tai* (CLF.person) are summarized in Table ?? . The morphological analysis of the numerals in Table ?? is shown in §??

Table 2.5: . Numerals made with *-tai* (CLF.person) (surface forms)

Numbers	Word forms	Meanings
1	c ^ʔ jui	a person
2	t ^ʔ ai	two people
3	micjai	three people
4	jutai	four people

For the numbers above four in Table ??, there are no native terms, so we have to use borrowings from standard Japanese. The following examples show the numerals containing *-(ta)i* (CLF.person).

- (15) a. *hunto*, an t^ʔaiga wuppoo, muru
hunto *a-n* t^ʔai=ga wur-boo muru
really {[DIST-ADNZ] [two.CLF.person=NOM]} exist-CND very
{[Modifier] [Head]}_{NP}

jiccja atanmundoo.
 jiccj-sa ar-tar-n=mun=doo
 good-ADJ STV-PST-PTCP=ADVRS=ASS

‘Really, if there were the two [i.e. if the two were alive], it would be very good.’ [PF: 090305_01.txt]

- b. un micjaiga |cjanto| hijati iriti,
 u-n micjai=ga cjanto hijaw-ti irir-ti {[MES-ADNZ]
 {[Modifier] [Head]]_{NP}

[three.CLF.person]]=NOM correctly pick.up-SEQ put.in-SEQ

‘The three correctly picked up (the pears) and put (them) in (the basket), and ...’ [PF: 090827_02.txt]

As mentioned above, numerals in Yuwan rarely fill the modifier slot of an NP. However, there is an example of the case.

(16) Numeral filling the modifier slot of an NP

[Context: Three children were walking a way.] = (??b)

un k’wanu, c’juinu k’wanu isjoobiki hucji,
 u-n k’wa=nu c’jui=nu k’wa=nu isjoobiki huk-ti
 MES-ADNZ child=NOM {[one.CLF=GEN] [child]]=NOM whistle blow-SEQ
 {[Modifier] [Head]]_{NP}

‘That child, the child (who is) one (of them) whistled, and ...’ [PF: 090305_01.txt]

So far, the reason for the above use of numerals in the modifier slot of an NP is not clear for me.

Furthermore, the numerals sometimes immediately follow the heads of the core arguments. In REFex:7:16, the address noun *uzii*, which usually means ‘grandfather’ but means ‘an old man’ here, takes the nominative case *ga*. The *ga* (NOM) must not be a genitive case, since address nouns do not take any case particle in the modifier slot of an NP (see §??). Thus, it is clear that the numeral *c’jui* (one.CLF.person) in (??) is neither the modifier nor head of the NP.

(17) Quantifier-float (After subject NP) [= (??)]

[Context: The very beginning of the monologue. TM: ‘(I will) start from the scene (where a man) picks up the pears. There is a pear-tree, (i.e.) a big tree, ...’]

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unnənti uziiga cʼjui joonasi
u-n=nənti uzii=ga cʼjui joonasi
 MES-ADNZ=LOC2 old.man=NOM one.CLF.person pear
 mutunwake.
mur-tur-n=wake
 pick.up-PROG-PTCP=CFP
 ‘There, an old man is picking up pears.’ [PF: 090225_00.txt]

Semantically, the numeral *cʼjui* (one.CLF.person) modifies *uzii* ‘old man’ meaning that the man indicated by *uzii* ‘old man’ is alone. Syntactically, however, the numeral *cʼjui* (one.CLF.person) is separated from the NP where *uzii* ‘old man’ exists. This kind of phenomenon is called “quantifier float” in Japanese linguistics (Shibatani 1990: 286). The example in REFEX:7:17 below may be an example of quantifier float, but it may also be analyzed as a single NP.

- (18) [Context: A boy tumbled in riding bicycle, and was injured.]

gan jinganu micjai, warabinu
ga-n jinga=nu micjai warai=nu
 MES-ADVZ man=NOM/GEN three.CLF.person child=NOM/GEN
 micjai, tuuti,
micjai tuur-ti
 three.CLF.person pass-SEQ
 ‘There three men, (i.e.) three child passed, and ...’ [PF: 090827_02.txt]

In REFEX:7:17, the expression *jinga=nu micjai* can be analyzed as either (man=NOM three.CLF.person), i.e. quantifier float, or (man=GEN three.CLF.person), i.e. a single NP, because the common noun *jinga* ‘man’ can take both *nu* (NOM) and *nu* (GEN) (see §??). In the former analysis, the numeral *micjai* (three.CLF.person) is a floated quantifier apart from the preceding NP. In the latter analysis, the numeral fills the head slot of the NP, where the preceding nominal *jinga* ‘man’ fills the modifier slot. The same argument can be applied to another NP in (??), i.e. *warabi=nu micjai*. There is no answer to determine which analysis is really correct.

All of the numerals in the above examples expressed cardinal numbers. If you want to express ordinary numbers, you may have the affix *-me* (ODN) follow the numerals introduced above. Considering the phoneme /e/, the affix *-me* (ODN) is thought to be borrowed from the standard Japanese relatively recently.

- (19) [Context: Complaining about the decline of her memory]

maganu c^ʔjuigadəə sicjussiga,
 maga=nu c^ʔjui=gadi=ja sij-tur-siga
 grandchild=GEN one.CLF.person=LMT=TOP know-PROG-POL
 t^ʔaimekaroo sijandoojaa.
 t^ʔai-me=kara=ja sij-an=doo=jaa
 two.CLF-ODN=ABL=TOP know-NEG=ASS=SOL
 ‘(I) know (the name of) one grandchild, but don’t know (that of) the
 second one (and more).’ [Co: 110328_00.txt]

Before concluding this section, I will present some combinations of the numerals with a few morphemes. First, the numerals can be compounded with the adverb *naa*. The combination means there are other referents whose number is indicated by the numerals. I will present examples in (??a-b).

- (20) Numerals compounded with *naa* ‘other’
- a. [Context: Seeing some acquaintances of TM in a picture]
 naac^ʔjuinu c^ʔjoo koogi jappa.
naa+c^ʔjui=nu c^ʔju=ja koogi jar-ba
 other+one.CLF.person=GEN person=TOP Kogi COP-CSL
 ‘Since another person is Kogi.’ [Co: 120415_00.txt]
- b. cikimunukkwaja naat^ʔii
ciki+mun-kkwa=ja naa+t^ʔii
 pickle.INF+thing-DIM=TOP other+one.CLF.thing
 |itadak|oojəə
 itadak-oo=jəə
 eat.modesty-INT=CFM2
 ‘(I) will eat another (piece of) pickles.’ [Co: 101023_01.txt]

Additionally, the numerals may be followed by a particle *naa* ‘each.’

- (21) [Context: Remembering the way of traditional funerals]
 aahata, miicinaa, t^ʔaacinaa
aa+hata miici=naa t^ʔaaci=naa
 red+flag three.CLF.thing=each two.CLF.thing=each
 ‘(They stood) red flags, three (of which in front of) each (line of the funeral), two (of which in front of) each (line of the funeral).’ [Co: 111113_01.txt]

Furthermore, the numerals can be followed by *-gina* ‘together.’

- (22) [Context: Talking about two acquaintances, who lived outside the community.]
 t'aigina kaaranba,
 t'ai-gina kaar-an-ba
 two.CLF.person-together relate-NEG-CSL
 'Both of the two did not contact (with the people in our community), so ...'
 [Co: 120415_01.txt]

The combinations of numeral roots and classifier affixes are far from productive. Therefore, the morphological analyses of numerals in the underlying forms are not expressed in the above discussion. The tentative morphological analyses of numerals in Yuwan will be discussed in the following subsection.

2.4.2 Morphology of numerals

It is possible to divide the numerals in Yuwan into the following morphemes, shown in Table ??.

Table 2.6: . Morphological analyses of the numeral (surface forms)

Numbers -ci (CLF.thing)	Numbers -kəəi (CLF.time)	Numbers -(ta)i (CLF.person)
1		t'ii
2		t'aa -ci
3		mii -ci
4		juu -ci
5		ici -ci
6		muu -ci
7		nana -ci
8		jaa -ci
9		k'uunu -ci
10		tuu

The above table shows that the numerals indicating 1, 9, and 10 behave irregularly.

The numeral that means 'one thing,' i.e, t'ii at the upper-most and left-most position in Table ??, appears that it is not followed by the classifier -ci (CLF.thing) and that it indicates the notion by itself. Additionally, the form t'ii (one.CLF.thing) is very different from the tentative root form c'ju- 'one,' which is used to indicate a single referent with -kəəi (CLF.time) and -i (CLF.person).

The numeral root that indicates nine referents is *k'uunu-* ‘nine’ when it is followed by *-ci* (CLF.thing), but is *kun-* ‘nine’ when it is followed by *-kəəi* (CLF.time).

The numeral that means ‘ten things,’ i.e. *tuu* at the lower-most and left-most position in Table ??, appears that it is not followed by the classifier *-ci* (CLF.thing) and that it indicates the notion by itself. The same form appears to be followed by *-kəəi* (CLF.time) with vowel deletion, i.e. /tu-kəi/ (ten-CLF.time) ‘ten times.’

The classifiers to count human is *-i* (CLF.person) if the preceding numeral roots indicate one or two person(s) such as /c'ju-i/ (one-CLF.person) ‘a person’ or /t'a-i/ (two-CLF.person) ‘two people,’ and it is *-tai* (CLF.person) if the preceding numeral roots indicate three or four people such as /mi-cjai/ (three-CLF.person) ‘three people’ (with the palatalization of //tai// to /cjai/) or /ju-tai/ (four-CLF.person) ‘four people.’

It is difficult to determine the underlying forms of the numeral root. In surface forms, they have more than one mora before *-ci* (CLF.thing), but do not necessarily have more than one mora before *-kəəi* (CLF.time) or *-(ta)i* (CLF.person). While there may be some other analyses, I propose the following analysis as the best.

Table 2.7: Numeral roots in Yuwan (underlying forms)

Numbers	Numeral roots
1	<i>t'ii</i> / <i>c'ju-</i>
2	<i>t'aa-</i>
3	<i>mii-</i>
4	<i>juu-</i>
5	<i>ici-</i>
6	<i>muu-</i>
7	<i>nana-</i>
8	<i>jaa-</i>
9	<i>k'uunu-</i> / <i>kun-</i>
10	<i>tuu</i>

In Table ??, only *t'ii* and *tuu* are free morphemes, and the others are bound morphemes. If numeral roots that have the same-vowel sequences at their root-final positions are followed by *-kəəi* (CLF.time) or *-(ta)i* (CLF.person), the vowel sequences become a single vowel. For example, *jaa-* ‘eight’ plus *-kəəi* (CLF.time) becomes /ja-kəi/, where //jaa// ‘eight’ becomes /ja/ because of the root-final vowel deletion. This analysis can avoid assuming a putative underlying form *t'i* ‘one thing,’ which does not appear in any surface form. In other words, I propose that

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all of the morphemes that have long vowel at their root-final position in the numerals to count things are originally long. Other examples that are relevant to vowel deletion are shown below.

Table 2.8: Morphophonological alternation with *-kəəi* (CLF.time)

Numbers Numeral roots	Underlying forms Classifiers	Surface forms Numerals
2	<i>t'aa-</i> + <i>-kəəi</i> (CLF.time)	> t'a-kəi
3	<i>mii-</i> +	> mi-kəi
4	<i>juu-</i> +	> ju-kəi
6	<i>muu-</i> +	> mu-kəi
8	<i>jaa-</i> +	> ja-kəi
10	<i>tuu</i> +	> tu-kəi

Table 2.9: Morphophonological alternation with *-(ta)i* (CLF.person)

Numbers Numeral roots	Underlying forms Classifiers	Surface forms Numerals
2	<i>t'aa-</i> + <i>-i</i> (CLF.person)	> t'a-i
3	<i>mii-</i> + <i>-tai</i> (CLF.person)	> mi-cjai
4	<i>juu-</i> + <i>-tai</i> (CLF.person)	> ju-tai

The above tables show that the root-final long vowels become short before *-kəəi* (CLF.time) or *-(ta)i* (CLF.person). In Table ??, the initial morphophoneme //t// in *-tai* (CLF.person) undergoes palatalization (plus affrication) and becomes /cj/, which is thought to be caused by the preceding morphophoneme //i// in *mii*-‘three.’

In this grammar, the morphemic boundaries of numeral words are not expressed (even if they are present at the underlying level) unless they need to be clearly distinguished.

2.5 Indefinite pronouns

Yuwan has affixes that turns interrogative nominal stems into indefinite pronouns: *-nkuin*, which is labeled as the “indefinitizer” (INDFZ) in this grammar. The combinations of the interrogative nominal stems and *-nkuin* (INDFZ) are shown in the following table.

Table 2.10: Indefinite pronouns in Yuwan

Interrogative nominals	Indefinitizer	Indefinite pronouns
<i>nuu</i> ‘what’	+ <i>-nkuin</i> (INDFZ)	> /nunkuin/ ‘anything’
<i>daa</i> ‘where’		> /dankuin/ ‘anywhere’
<i>icɿi</i> ‘when’		> /icinkuin/ ‘always’
<i>taru</i> ‘who’		> /tarunkuin/ ‘anybody’
<i>diru</i> ‘which’		> /dirunkuin/ ‘anyone (of them)’

Interrogative nominals that have the same-vowel sequence at stem-final positions undergo the vowel deletion discussed in §??, e.g. //nuu/ ‘what’ + *-nkuin* (INDFZ) > /nu-nkuin/.

I will present examples of Table ??. The indefinite pronouns in the underlying level and their correspondents in the free translation are underlined below.

(23) Interrogative nominals + *-nkuin* (INDFZ)

a. *nuu* ‘what’ + *-nkuin* (INDFZ)

[Context: TM tells the present author that US always does not sit still, but that she always tries to serve something to eat for the guest.]

nunkuin izjasicjjo. hanasinkjoo
nuu-nkuin izjas-i=ccji=joo hanasi=nkja=ja

what-INDFZ put.out-INF=QT=CFM1 conversation=APPR=TOP

sirancjjo.

sir-an=ccji=joo

do-NEG=QT=CFM1

‘(She) puts out [i.e. serves] anything. (She) does not (begin) the conversation.’ [Co: 110328_00.txt]

b. *daa* ‘where’ + *-nkuin* (INDFZ)

naa, dankuinkaci abiratti,
naa daa-nkuin=kaci abir-ar-ti

FIL where-INDFZ=ALL call-PASS-SEQ

‘(My mother) was called (for the recording of the traditional songs) anywhere, and ...’ [Co: 111113_01.txt]

c. *icɿi* ‘when’ + *-nkuin* (INDFZ)

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waakjoo icinkuin waratuncjijo.
 waakja=ja icii-nkuin waraw-tur-n=ccji=joo
 1PL=TOP when-INDFZ laugh-PROG-PTCP=QT=CFM1
 'I am always laughing (remembering the old days).' [Co:
 120415_00.txt]

- d. *taru* 'who' + *-nkuin* (INDFZ)
- | | | | | |
|--------------------|----|---------------|---------|--------|
| tarunkuin, | ta | .. | jiccjan | munnu |
| <u>ta-ru-nkuin</u> | ta | jiccj-sa+ar-n | mun=nu | ar-boo |
- who-NLZ-INDFZ who good-ADJ+STV-PTCP thing=NOM exist-CND
 appoo,

'If (my grandfather) had something good, he would give it to
anybody.' [Co: 120415_01.txt]

- e. *diru* 'which' + *-nkuin* (INDFZ)
- | | |
|--------------------|-----------|
| dirunkuin | kamijoo. |
| <u>di-ru-nkuin</u> | kam-i=joo |
- which-NLZ-INDFZ eat-IMP=CFM1
 'Eat anything (there).' [El: 130820]

The above examples show that *-nkuin* (INDFZ) changes the question-
 ings of the interrogative stems to the indefinite ones. As mentioned in §??, there
 are other affixes that can also turn interrogative stems into indefinite words, i.e.
-ninkuinin (INDFZ) and *-sjinkaasjin* (INDFZ). The difference among them is that
-nkuin (INDFZ) forms a nominal, but that *-ninkuinin* (INDFZ) and *-sjinkaasjin*
 (INDFZ) form adverbs. In fact, *-nkuin* (INDFZ) is very similar to *-ninkuinin* (INDFZ).
 One might think that the former could be divided into several morphemes such
 as /nkuin/ = *n=kui=n* (any=INDFZ=any). However, we do not accept this analysis.
 The indefinite pronoun *-nkuin* can be followed by *kaci* as in (??b). If we analyzed
 it as /nkuinkaci/ = *n=kui=n=kaci* (any=INDFZ=any=ALL), we would have to admit
 the order of *=n=kaci* (any=ALL), but *kaci* (ALL) usually precedes (not follows) *n*
 'any' when it follows interrogative nominals, e.g. *daa=kaci=n* (where=ALL=any)
 'anywhere' in (??a) in §??. Thus, we do not divide *-nkuin* (INDFZ) into multiple
 morphemes.

2.6 Deverbal nominals

There is an affix that can change verbal stems to nominal stems, i.e. *-jaa* ‘person.’ Additionally, verbal stems can become nominal stems by compounding, which was discussed in §?? and §??

Semantically, *-jaa* means ‘a person who does the action frequently and/or deliberately,’ which is abbreviated to ‘person’ or simply “NLZ” (i.e. nominalizer) in the gloss. Morphologically, *-jaa* ‘person’ can directly follow the verbal root as in (??a-b). Morphophonologically, it belongs to Type C verbal affixes (see §??). For example, the final //r// of *tur-* ‘take’ is lost before *-jaa* ‘person’ as in (??b).

- (24) a. *hasij-* ‘run’ + *-jaa* ‘person’ [Context: Talking about students who participate in the training camp held in the village]
 hasijaankjanu |*gassjuku*|*sji*
 hasij-jaa=nkja=nu *gassjuku=sji*
 run-person=APPR=NOM training.camp=INST
 kjuuroogai?
 k-jur-oo=ga=i
 come-UMRK-SUPP=CFM3=PLQ
 ‘Runners would come for training camp, you know.’ [Co:
 110328_00.txt]
- b. *tur-* ‘take’ + *-jaa* ‘person’ [Context: Talking about the relationship between a person and some people]
 attaa *sisitujaa.*
 a-ri-taa *sisi+tur-jaa*
 DIST-NLZ-PL boar+take-person
 ‘(He is) their boar-taker [i.e. a person who always takes boars, and he is their relative].’ [Co: 120415_00.txt]

Interestingly, the nominalized verbal stem in (??b), i.e. *tur-jaa* (take-person), can form a compound with a preceding nominal, i.e. *sisi* ‘boar.’

As mentioned above, the meaning of *-jaa* is not so simple that it is not very productive. However, if we restrict the context, it can follow a few derivational affixes, i.e. *-as* (CAUS) and *-arir* (PASS). The contexts of the following examples are suggested by the present author, and the speaker uttered the appropriate sentences according to the context.

- (25) a. *-as* (CAUS) + *-jaa* ‘person’ [Context: Talking about a naughty boy who always makes other children cry]

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agaraa munna nakasjaadoo.
 aga-raa mun=ja nak-as-jaa=doo
 DIST-DRG.ADNZ substance=TOP cry-CAUS-person=ASS

‘That bad boy always makes someone cry.’ [lit. ‘That bad boy is a person who always makes (someone) cry.’] [El: 121010]

- b. -arir (PASS) + -jaa ‘person’ [Context: Some children are talking about their mischief and trying to determine the person who apologize on their behalf.]

uroo oosarijaa naiccjidaroogai?
 ura=ja oos-arir-jaa nar-i=ccji=daroo=ga=i
 2.NHON.SG=TOP scold-PASS-person become-INF=QT=SUPP=CFM3=PLQ

‘Probably, you will undertake the role of a person who is scolded, right?’ [lit. ‘Probably, you intend to become the person who is scolded, right?’] [El: 121010]

The above examples show that -jaa ‘person’ does not necessarily indicates the “agent” of the action that the verbal root indicates. In (??b), the referent indicated by oos-arir-jaa (scold-PASS-person) ‘a person who is scolded (of the person’s own free will)’ is the patient of oos- ‘scold’ (not the agent).

2.7 Diminutive affix -kkwa

There is an affix -kkwa, which tends to attach to nominal stems that indicate small (or short) referents as in (??a-e), but it also attaches to the words that do not necessarily indicate small (or short) referents by themselves as in (??f-j). It never attaches to the personal pronouns or address nouns.

(26) -kkwa (DIM)

- a. waakjaga warabikkwa sjuin,
 waakja=ga warabi-kkwa sir-tur-i=n
 1PL=NOM child-DIM do-PROG-INF=DAT1
 ‘When I was a child [lit. was doing a child], ...’ [Co: 11113_01.txt]

- b. |cjoodo mikan|nu (kun) kun huukkwanu
 cjoodo mikan=nu ku-n ku-n huu-kkwa=nu
 just mikan=GEN PROX-ADNZ PROX-ADNZ piece-DIM=GEN
 t’ii kamboo, xxx jiccjai.
 t’ii kam-boo jiccj-sa+ar-i
 one.thing eat-CND good-ADJ+STV-NPST
 ‘If (I) eat just a piece of this mikan, (it) is good [i.e. sufficient] (for me).’

[Co: 101023_01.txt]

- c. injahunikkwakacigadi |bonbon bakudan utusi|tattu.
inja+huni-kkwa=kaci=gadi bon+bon bakudan utus-tar-tu
 small+ship-DIM=ALL=LMT RED+bong bomb fall-PST-CSL
 ‘(The American soldiers) dropped bombs even on the small ships.’
 [Co: 110328_00.txt]
- d. magakkwanu c’ji,
maga-kkwa=nu k-ti
 grandchild-DIM=NOM come-SEQ
 ‘The grandchild came, and ...’ [PF: 090305_01.txt]
- e. |ittoki|kkwa umanan ucjuti,
ittoki-kkwa u-ma=nan uk-tur-ti
 for.a.while-DIM MES-place=LOC1 put-PROG-SEQ
 ‘Putting (the pickles) there for a while, ...’ [Co: 101023_01.txt]
- f. haruesanga wuinnja dusikkwa
harue-san=ga wur-i=n=ja dusi-kkwa
 Harue-HON=NOM exist-INF=DAT1=TOP friend-DIM
 jatanmun,
jar-tar-n=mun
 COP-PST-PTCP=ADVR
 ‘When Ms. Harue was here, (she and I) were friends, but ...’ [Co: 120415_01.txt]
- g. usikkwa kawuroojaacji j’icji,
usi-kkwa kawur-oo=jaa=ccji j’-ti
 cow-DIM raise-INT=SOL=QT say-SEQ
 ‘(The couple) said that, “Let’s raise a cow,” and ...’ [Fo: 090307_00.txt]
- h. utakkwadu utajutattu, waakjaa anmaaja.
uta-kkwa=du utaw-jur-tar-tu waakja-a anmaa=ja
 song-DIM=FOC sing-UMRK-PST-CSL 1PL-ADNZ mother=TOP
 ‘My mother used to sing a song.’ [Co: 111113_01.txt]
- i. [= (??)]
 sijan huikkwa sji,
sij-an hui-kkwa sir-ti
 know-NEG pretend-DIM do-SEQ
 ‘Pretending not to know (about the thrown snacks), ...’ [Co: 120415_01.txt]

2 Nominals

- j. kaman minzjin njanban, nukkwān,¹
kama=n ming-ti=n nj-an=ban nuu-kkwa=n
 sickle=even grasp-SEQ=even EXP-NEG=ADVRs what-DIM=even
 ‘(The person said that) despite never having grasped a sickle (or)
 anything, ...’ [Co: 120415_01.txt]

²A nominal root composed of only a syllable with a long vowel usually retains its vowel length before *-kkwa* (DIM), but *nuu* ‘what’ in this example became /nu/, which conformed to the phonological rule in §??.

In (??a-e), the nominal stems preceding *-kkwa* (DIM) indicate small (or short) things, e.g., *warabi* ‘child’ in (??a). In (??f-j), the nominal stems preceding *-kkwa* (DIM) do not necessarily indicate small (or short) things. The nominal stems in (??f-h) seem to indicate referents that are familiar to the speaker, e.g., *dusi* ‘friend’ in (??f). The *-kkwa* (DIM) in (??i-j) seem to express some insulting meaning towards the referents of the nominal stems, e.g., *sij-an hui* (know-NEG pretend) ‘pretending not to know’ in (??i).

Morphophonologically, *-kkwa* (DIM) needs the insertion of /u/ after a nominal stem that ends with //n//.

(27) Vowel insertion between //n// and *-kkwa* (DIM)

- a. *mun* ‘thing’ + *-kkwa* (DIM) > /mu.nuk.kwa/
- b. *in* ‘dog’ > /i.nuk.kwa/
- c. *gazjan* ‘mosquito’ > /ga.zja.nuk.kwa/

The vowel insertion in (??a-c) conforms to the phonological rule in §??. Additionally, *-kkwa* (DIM) sometimes deletes a vowel in the same vowel sequence, e.g., *mizjuu* ‘ditch’ + *-kkwa* (DIM) > /mizjukkwa/, which conforms to the phonological rule in §??. However, if the nominal stem is composed of only a syllable with a long vowel, the vowel deletion is not likely to occur, e.g., *koo* ‘river’ + *-kkwa* (DIM) > /kookkwa/. There is an adverb that seems to include *-kkwa* (DIM), i.e. /joikkwa/ [jɔikkʷɑ] ‘silently,’ which is frequently pronounced as /joikwa/ [jɔikʷɑ]. However, /joi/ cannot form a free form by itself, which means /k(k)wa/ in this adverb is not the diminutive affix in modern Yuwan.

Morphologically, *-kkwa* (DIM) can attach not only to common nouns as in (??a-h), but also to formal nouns as in (??i), interrogative nominals as in (??j), and demonstrative nominals as in (??a-b).

(28) *-kkwa* (DIM) attaching to demonstrative nominals

- a. kurikkwakaci simiti, (e, e,) naracjui.
ku-ri-kkwa=kaci simir-ti naras-tur-i
 PROX-NLZ-DIM=ALL do.CAUS-SEQ make.sound-PROG-NPST
 ‘(I) made (him dub the song) to this [i.e. cassette tape], and am
 (always) making (it) sound [i.e. listening to it].’ [Co: 120415_00.txt]
- b. |oiwai|nu umakkwanan motodacunekocjibai
oiwai=nu u-ma-kkwa=nan motoda+cuneko=ccji=bai
 monetary.gift=GEN MES-place-DIM=LOC1 Motoda+Tsuneko=QT=only
 kacji,
 ka-ti
 write-SEQ
 ‘Writing (my name) Tsuneko Motoda on that place on (the envelope
 to put in a) monetary gift, ...’ [Co: 110328_00.txt]

In (??a-b), the demonstrative nominals indicate small things, i.e. *ku-ri* (PROX-NLZ) ‘this’ indicates a cassette tape, and *u-ma* (MES-place) ‘there’ indicates the small part on the envelop.

It is probable that the diminutive affix *-kkwa* discussed above is a cognate with the common noun *k’wa* ‘child,’ since *k’wa* ‘child’ is sometimes realized as /kkwa/ as in (??b).³

(29) *k’wa* ‘child’

- a. k’wamaganu acimati,
k’wa+maga=nu acimar-ti
 child+grandchild=NOM gather-SEQ
 ‘Children and grandchildren gather, and ...’ [Co: 111113_01.txt]
- b. ujakkwa jappoojoo,
uja+k’wa jar-boo=joo
 parent+child COP-CND=CFM1
 ‘If (we) are parent and child, ...’ [Co: 120415_01.txt]
- c. daibank’wadoo.
daiban+k’wa=doo
 big+child=ASS
 ‘(He is) a big child.’ [El: 110327]

³Niinaga (2010: 39) argued that the nominal *k’wa* ‘child’ is always realized with glottalization, i.e. [ʔkʷɑ]. However, it is merely a tendency, since there is an example like /ujakkwa/ *uja+k’wa* (parent+child) as in (??b).

2 Nominals

- d. kun mjan k'wakkwanu sjugisajaa.
 ku-n mjaa=nu k'wa-kkwa=nu sjugi-sa=jaa
 PROX-ADNZ cat=GEN child-DIM=NOM small-ADJ=SOL
 'This kitten [lit. cat's child] (is) small.' [El: 110327]

The above examples show that *k'wa* 'child' is realized as /k'wa/ with the exception of (??b). I propose that *k'wa* 'child' is different from *-kkwa* (DIM) in the modern Yuwan. First, *k'wa* 'child' does not induce the vowel insertion when it attaches to //n// as in (??c).⁴ On the contrary, *-kkwa* (DIM) always induce the vowel insertion when it attaches to //n// as in (??a-c). Secondly, *-kkwa* (DIM) can co-occur with *k'wa* 'child,' and each morpheme expresses a meaning different from each other as in (??d). Thus, I propose that the affix *-kkwa* (DIM) is different from (the compounding of) *k'wa* 'child' in the modern Yuwan.

Before concluding this section, it should be mentioned that *-kkwa* (DIM) can follow two kinds of adjectival roots, i.e. *inja-* 'small' and *sjugi-* 'small' as in (??a-b).

(30) Adjectival roots + *k'wa* 'child'

- a. kan sjan injakkwa muccjuti,
 ka-n sir-tar-n inja-kkwa muk-k-tur-ti
 PROX-ADNZ do-PST-PTCP small-DIM bring-PROG-SEQ
 '(The person) was bringing a small thing like this, and ...' [Co:
 120415_00.txt]
- b. sjugikkwabai. glt '(There are) only small things.' [El: 110327]
 sjugi-kkwa=bai
 small-DIM=only

The above examples show that *-kkwa* (DIM) can also follow adjectival roots (not only nominal roots). Therefore, one may think that *-kkwa* (DIM) is a clitic (not an affix) according to the criteria in §?? However, we do not accept this analysis, since there are only two adjectival roots that can precede *-kkwa* (DIM). It is probable that this irregularity can be explicable considering the diminutive affix's preference for small referents as its preceding stems as in (??a-e). Additionally, there is another environment where the adjectival root behaves like the nominal root. For example, the adjectival root and the nominal root can fill the

⁴ *daiban* 'big' can form a compound with another nominal root, e.g., *daiban* 'big' + *kii* 'tree' > /daibangii/ 'big tree,' where "rendaku" (or sequential voicing) (see §??) also happens, i.e. //k// > /g/.

preceding slot in compounds without any affix; on the contrary, the verbal root needs an infinitival affix, which makes the verbal stem like nominal, in order to fill the preceding slot in compounds (see §?? for more details). Thus, I propose that *-kkwa* (DIM) is still an affix (not a clitic).

Furthermore, there is a case where *-kkwa* (DIM) seems to follow an adjectival “word” (not an adjectival “root”), i.e. /*injaasakkwa*/ ‘small.’

- (31) nobujataa amakkwakaci injaasakkwa kan sj ..
nobuja-taa a-ma-kkwa=kaci injaasakkwa ka-n sir-ti
 Nobuja-PL DIST-place-DIM=ALL small PROX-ADVZ do-SEQ
 ‘(The ditch extends) small like this to that place (that belongs to) Nobuja and his friends ...’ [Co: 120415_00.txt]

At first sight, one may think the word /*injaasakkwa*/ can be divided into *inja-sa-kkwa* (small-ADJ-DIM). However, we do not accept this analysis because of the two reasons. First, the word /*injaasakkwa*/ is always used adverbially as in REFex:7:30. Secondly, the vowel in its middle position is always long, i.e. /*injaasa*/ (not /*inja_a*/). Thus, I will propose that /*injaasakkwa*/ is an adverb composed of only one root (at least) in the modern Yuwan.

Root -*as* -*arir* -*tuk* -*arir* -*tur* -*jawur* -*an* -*təər* -*tar* - Inflectional affix
CAUS PASS PRPR CAP PROG POL NEG RSL PST
-*jur*

3 Verbal morphology

UMRK

There are some restrictions concerning their combinations. The impossible combinations are summarized below, where “impossible combinations” means that the combinations have not appeared in my texts, or that the present author cannot find proper contexts for the questions in elicitation.

(2) Impossible combinations

- a. **-arir* (PASS) + *-arir* (CAP)
- b. **-arir* (PASS) + *-jur* (UMRK)
- c. **-tuk* (PRPR) + *-tur* (PROG)
- d. **-tuk* (PRPR) + *-tar* (PST)
- e. **-jawur* (POL) + *-təər* (RSL)

The possibility of combinations described above is about the one composed of two derivational affixes. The combination composed of more than two derivational affixes is not so common in the text corpus, and to find proper contexts to investigate such a combination is so difficult that their possibility is not clear so far.

In the top of this section, I said the word-final inflectional affix in a verb is obligatory but that the preceding affixes are optional; however, the morphology of Yuwan is a little more complicated. The word-final inflectional affixes in Yuwan can be categorized into two distinct groups, one of which cannot directly follow the verbal root, and also cannot follow *-as* (CAUS) or *-tuk* (PRPR), and obligatorily needs a certain affix as in (3b) to precede.

(3) Inflectional affixes

- a. Group I: Can directly follow the verbal root
Finite-form affixes : *-oo* (INT), *-i* (IMP), *-na* (PROH), *-iba* (SUGS), *-azii* (NEG.PLQ), *-tar* (PST)
Participial affix : *-an* (NEG)
Converbal affixes : *-ba* (CSL), *-boo* (CND), *-ti* (SEQ), *-təəra* ‘after’, *-tai* (LST),
-jagacinaa (SIM), *-gadi* ‘until’
Infinitival affix : *-i/-Ø* (INF)
- b. Group II: Cannot directly follow the verbal root
Finite-form affixes : *-i* (NPST), *-oo* (SUPP), *-mi* (PLQ), *-sa* (POL), *-siga* (POL), *-u* (PFC)

Participial affix : *-n* (PTCP)

Converbal affixes : *-tu* (CSL), *-too* (CSL), *-nən* (SEQ)

On the one hand, Group-I affixes can directly follow the verbal root; on the other hand, Group-II affixes cannot, but need another affix to precede. The minimal combinations with the above two types of inflectional affixes are shown below.

(4) Minimal combinations

a. Group I

Root - Affix e.g. /turoo/ *tur-oo* (take-INT) ‘will take’

b. Group II

Root - Affix - Affix e.g. /tujui/ *tu-jur-i* (take-UMRK-NPST) ‘take’

The non-past affixe *-i* in Group-II affixes cannot follow the verbal root directly: */tui/ *tur-i* (take-NPST) is not permitted. The affixes required by Group-II affixes are shown below, where non-relevant affixes are deleted by double lines.

(5) Affixes needed by Group-II affixes

Root *-as -arir -tuk -arir -tur -jawur -an -təər -tar* - Inflectional affixes

CAUS PASS PRPR CAP PROG POL NEG RSL PST (Group II)

-jur

UMRK

The above arrangement shows that if the word-final affix belongs to the Group-II affixes in (3b), one of the following affixes must precede them: *-arir* (PASS), *-arir* (CAP), *-tur* (PROG), *-jawur* (POL), *-jur* (UMRK), *-an* (NEG), *-təər* (RSL), or *-tar* (PST). However, three kinds of verbal roots, i.e. the existential verbal root, the copula verbal root, and the stative verbal root, can take Group-II affixes directly (see §??). It should be noted that there are some restrictions on the combinations between these affixes in (5) and Group II inflectional affixes. For example, there is no combination made of *-an* (NEG) plus *-i* (NPST). The possible combinations between derivational affixes and inflectional affixes will be shown in §??

There are two special affixes: *-an* (NEG) and *-tar* (PST). In (1), they are in non-word-final positions. They can, however, stand in a word-final position without any inflectional affix. For example, /turan/ *tur-an* (take-NEG) ‘don’t take,’ and /tuta/ *tur-tar* (take-PST) ‘took.’ In other words, I propose that *-an* (NEG) and *-tar* (PST) can behave similarly with the inflectional affixes in (3), which is shown in (6). They are underlined below.

3 Verbal morphology

- (6) a. Ending with *-an* (NEG)
 Root *-as -arir -tuk -arir -tur -jawur -an*
 CAUS PASS PRPR CAP PROG POL NEG
- b. Ending with *-tar* (PST)
 Root *-as -arir -tuk -arir -tur -jawur -an -təər -tar*
 CAUS PASS PRPR CAP PROG POL NEG RSL PST
-jur
 UMRK

-an (NEG) and *-tar* (PST) in word-final positions can be regarded as Group-I affixes since they can directly follow verbal roots. It should be noted that these affixes “can” finish a verb. Therefore, they are free to finish the verbal string, and can continue it. For example, *-an* (NEG) can be followed by *-ba* (CSL), or *-tar* (PST) can be followed by *-oo* (SUPP): /*turanba/ tur-an-ba* (take-NEG-CSL) ‘because (someone) does not take’ and /*tutaroo/ tur-tar-oo* (take-PST-SUPP) ‘may have taken.’ In fact, the above analysis in (6) suggests that there are no zero inflectional affixes that follow *-an* (NEG) or *-tar* (PST). In other words, we do not accept the analysis that presupposes zero inflectional affixes as in (7), where “...” means that there are several more candidates of inflectional affixes.

- (7) Analysis not to be accepted
- | | |
|--|----------------------|
| Derivational affixes | Inflectional affixes |
| Root <i>-as -arir -tuk -arir -tur -jawur -an -təər -tar -Ø</i> (ASS) | |
| CAUS PASS PRPR CAP PROG POL NEG RSL PST | <i>-oo</i> (SUPP) |
| <i>-jur -i/-Ø -n/-Ø</i> (PTCP) | |
| UMRK NPST | <i>-siga</i> (POL) |
| ... | |

The above table shows that the tense contrast is expressed in the penultimate slot of the verb: *-tar* (PST) vs. *-i/-Ø* (NPST). Additionally, new zero affixes are postulated in the final slot of the verb, i.e. *-Ø* (ASS) and *-Ø* (PTCP). In this analysis, the final and penultimate slots would be inflectional. We do not take this zero-affix analysis, because of the following two reasons. First, the analysis postulates the zero affix *-Ø* (ASS), which does not have any non-zero form. This kind of zero morpheme is less convincing than another zero morpheme that has a non-zero form, e.g. *-i/-Ø* (NPST) or *-n/-Ø* (PTCP) (cf. Haas 1974: 49). Second, if we accept this analysis, there appears a case where we have to recognize a distinction between non-visible zero affixes, i.e. *-Ø* (ASS) and *-Ø* (PTCP) as in (8a-b).

(8) Negative polarity

a. Main clause

wanna amanu ziija jumarandoo.
wan=ja a-ma=nu zii=ja jum-ar-an-Ø-Ø=doo
 1SG-TOP DIST-place=GEN character=TOP read-CAP-NEG-NPST-ASS=ASS

‘I cannot read the Chinese character there.’ [El: 130821]

b. Adnominal clause]

uraga jumarán ziija diruu?
ura=ga jum-ar-an-Ø-Ø zii=ja di-ru
 2.NHON.SG read-CAP-NEG-NPST-PTCP character=TOP which-NLZ

‘Which is the Chinese character that you cannot read?’ [El: 130821]

Affirmative polarity

c. Main clause

wanna amanu ziigadəə jumarittoo.
wan=ja a-ma=nu zii=gadi=ja jum-arir-Ø-Ø=doo
 1SG-TOP DIST-place=GEN character=LMT=TOP read-CAP-NPST-ASS=ASS

‘I can read the Chinese character there.’ [El: 130821]

d. Adnominal clause

uraga jumarín ziija diruu?
ura=ga jum-arir-Ø-n zii=ja di-ru
 2.NHON.SG read-CAP-NPST-PTCP character=TOP which-NLZ

‘Which is the Chinese character that you can read?’ [El: 130821]

The examples (8-8 a, c) express the verbal forms in the predicates of the main clauses (in negative and affirmative polarity). The examples (8-8 b, d) express the verbal forms in the predicates of the adnominal clauses (in negative and affirmative polarity). The verbal forms in (8a-b) are the same /jumarán/, and their differences are expressed only by the underlying two different zero morphemes, i.e. -Ø (ASS) in (8a) and -Ø (PTCP) in (8b). Such a nonvisible opposition is called “distinction of indiscernibles” (Haas 1974: 36), and it was said that “within a set of paradigmatic contrasts distinction of indiscernibles is inadmissible” (McGregor 2003: 83). In fact, we can avoid this “distinction of indiscernibles” by postulating -n (PTCP) in (8b). In that case, the verb form /jumarán/ is analyzed as *jum-ar-an-Ø-n* (read-CAP-NEG -NPST-PTCP). However, this analysis needs another morphophonological rule, where -an (NEG) becomes /-a/ before -n (PTCP). This rule is irregular, since the ordinary measure to avoid /n.n/ sequence in Yuwan is a vowel insertion (see §??). Therefore, we do not take the zero-morpheme analysis

as in (7), and admit special kinds of affixes that can both close and continue the verbal stems, i.e. *-an* (NEG) and *-tar* (PST). The word-final use of *-tar* (PST) will be discussed in §?? The word-final use of *-an* (NEG) will be discussed in §?? The non-word-final use of these affixes will be discussed in §??

All of the above verbal affixes are summarized as in Table 1.1 using the inflectional criteria as in (9).

- (9) Inflectional criteria
 - A. Appears only in the word-final position;
 - B. Can finish a word without another preceding affix;
 - C. Relevant to syntactic finiteness.

In (9), A and C have some relations with the features of inflection recognized in the languages of the world (Haspelmath2010).

Table 3.1: Inflectional affixes and derivational affixes of verbs

A	
Inflectional affixes	
Group I	+ + + <i>-oo</i> (INT), <i>-i</i> (IMP), <i>-na</i> (PROH), <i>-iba</i> (SUGS), <i>-azii</i> (NEG.PLQ), <i>-ba</i> (C)
Group II	+ - + <i>-i</i> (NPST), <i>-oo</i> (SUPP), <i>-mi</i> (PLQ), <i>-sa</i> (POL), <i>-siga</i> (POL), <i>-u</i> (PFC), <i>-n</i>
(Group I)	- + + <i>-an</i> (NEG), <i>-tar</i> (PST), <i>-i/-Ø</i> (INF)
Derivational affixes	- - + <i>-arir</i> (PASS), <i>-arir</i> (CAP), <i>-tur</i> (PROG), <i>-təər</i> (RSL), <i>-jawur</i> (POL), <i>-jur</i>
Note: The infinitival affixes <i>-i/-Ø</i> can appear in the word-internal position of compounds (see §??). Therefore, they cannot fulfill the criterion A in (9).	

Group-I & Group-II affixes appear only in the word-final position (8-9 A) with the exception of *-an* (NEG), *-tar* (PST), and *-i/-Ø* (INF). Only Group-I affixes and *-an* (NEG) and *-tar* (PST) can finish a verb without another preceding affix (8-9 B). As mentioned in the beginning of this chapter, the verbal form in the predicate determines the clausal type. In other words, all of the Group-I affixes, Group-II affixes, *-an* (NEG), and *-tar* (PST) are relevant to syntactic finiteness. Additionally, the affixes in the fourth row of Table 1.1, i.e. *-arir* (PASS), *-arir* (CAP), *-tur* (PROG), *-təər* (RSL), *-jawur* (POL), and *-jur* (UMRK) (also with *-an* (NEG) and *-tar* (PST)) are necessarily required by Group-II affixes. Thus, those affixes are also relevant to syntactic finiteness. We will call the affixes which satisfy two or more criteria of (9) “inflectional affixes,” and the other remained affixes “derivational affixes” in

the verbal morphology. It should be noted that the productivity among the above verbal affixes is not so much different from one another. For example, the derivational affix *-jur* (UMRK) can follow no less verbal roots than the inflectional affix *-i* (IMP) can. Therefore, the term “derivational” does not imply less productivity, at least for verbal affixes, in this grammar.

Additionally, it should be mentioned that certain clitics are very similar to Group II inflectional affixes, i.e. the affix-like clitics (see §??): *si* (FN), *doo* (ASS), *ka* (DUB), *kai* (DUB), *kamo* (POS), *ga* (CFM3), and *gajaaroo* (DUB). These clitics fill the final slot of the verb, which is usually filled by inflectional affixes as in (1), and the clitics cannot follow a verbal root directly (except for *kai* (DUB)), and need one of the affixes in (5) in order for them to follow a verbal stem.

In the following sections, the morphophonology of verbs will be discussed in §?? The special types of verbal stems that have some morphological, syntactical, and semantical characteristics will be discussed in §?? The verbal inflectional morphology will be discussed in §?? The verbal derivational morphology will be discussed in §??

3.2 Morphophonology of verbs

3.2.1 Rules for verbal roots and affixes

In this section, we examine the morphophonological rules needed in order to correctly produce the output verbal forms. A complete list of the possible combinations of roots, derivational affixes, and inflectional affixes are shown in appendix. Morphophonology of infinitives will be discussed in another section (see §??). Additionally, the morphophonological rule of *-tar* (PST) and *-mi* (PLQ) will be discussed in each section (see §?? and §??).

Verbal affixes can be grouped into four (morphophonological) types, chiefly distinguished by their initial morphophonemes. In Table 1.2, the four types disregard the differences between derivational affixes and inflectional affixes, or the syntax-related differences among inflectional affixes (i.e. finite-form affixes or converbal affixes).

Each type of affix needs a different set of (morpho)phonological rules to output the correct surface forms (see §?? - §??).

The verbal stems are distinguished into 17 types, determined by their final morphophonemes (except for the irregular types). The types of verbal stems are shown below with a few examples.

Each type of verbal stem undergoes a different application of morphophonological rules according to the four types of verbal affixes (or clitics) in Table 1.2.

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Table 3.2: Four types of verbal affixes (or clitics)

Types
A. vowel-initial <i>-an</i> (NEG), <i>-arir</i> (PASS), <i>-as</i> (CAUS), <i>-azii</i> (NEG.PLQ), <i>-i</i> (IMP), <i>-iba</i> (SUGS), <i>-oo</i> (IN)
B. <i>t</i> -initial <i>-tar</i> (PST), <i>-tuk</i> (PRPR), <i>-tur</i> (PROG), <i>-təər</i> (RSL), <i>-ti</i> (SEQ), <i>-tai</i> (LST), <i>-təəra</i> ‘after’
C. deletion of the prededing non-nasal resonants <i>-jawur</i> (POL), <i>-jaa</i> ‘person,’ <i>-jur</i> (UMRK), <i>-ja</i>
D. assimilation; vowel insertion <i>-ba</i> (CSL), <i>-boo</i> (CND), <i>-gadi</i> ‘until,’ <i>-na</i> (PROH), <i>-sa</i> (POL), <i>-sig</i>

The examples in Table 1.4 illustrate the different results caused by the applications of different morphophonological rules. The morpheme boundaries at the surface form level are shown in some of the following examples.

The above table shows that each stem has a different set of outputs. Thus, I propose that there are 17 types of verbal stems (from the morphophonological perspective).

There are, however, some verbal stems that do not conform to the regular (morpho)phonological rules. For example, these stems include the light verb *sir*- ‘do,’ the deictic motion verbs *ik*- ‘go,’ *k*- ‘come,’ and *tikk*- ‘bring,’ the honorific verbs *umoor*- (move.HON), *misjoor*- (eat.HON), *moor*- (HON), *taboor*- (give.HON), and *moosir*- (die.HON), the verbal roots ending with //aw// (such as *hijaw*- ‘pick up,’ *waraw*- ‘laugh,’ and *juraw*- ‘gather’), and others such as *sij*- ‘know,’ *jurukub*- ‘happy,’ and *hənk*- ‘enter.’ The subdivision of these verbal stems is shown below (for their actual surface forms, see appendix).

The deictic motion verb *tikk*- ‘bring’ behaves in the same way as *k*- ‘come.’ One may think that *tikk*- ‘bring’ is a compound composed of *tur*- ‘take’ + *k*- ‘come.’ However, the first vowel is not /u/ but /i/, and *tur*- ‘take’ should become /tui/ *tur+i* (take-INF) when it fills the preceding stem of a compound (see §??). Thus, we do not regard *tikk*- ‘bring’ as a compound. All the honorific verbs behave in the same way as *umoor*- (move.HON); however, only *moosir*- (die.HON) behaves in the same way as *sir*- ‘do.’

The following four subsections (§??-§??) discuss the relevant morphophonological rules needed for each type of verbal affixes (with the relevant phonological rules). Additionally, a special attention should be paid to the passive affix and the capable affix, which will be discussed in §??

Table 3.3: 17 types of verbal stems

No.	Stem-final morphophonemes	Examples
1.	V _{non-back} r	<i>hingir</i> - ‘escape,’ <i>abir</i> - ‘call,’ <i>kəər</i> - ‘exchange’
2.	V _{back} r, V _{back} w	<i>tur</i> - ‘take,’ <i>umuw</i> - ‘think,’ <i>nuuw</i> - ‘sew,’ <i>k’uur</i> -/ <i>k’uuw</i> - ‘close’
3.	pp	<i>app</i> - ‘play’
4.	b	<i>narab</i> - ‘line up,’ <i>asib</i> - ‘paly’
5.	Vm	<i>jum</i> - ‘read,’ <i>kam</i> - ‘eat,’ <i>num</i> - ‘drink’
6.	nm	<i>tanm</i> - ‘ask,’ <i>cinm</i> - ‘wrap’
7.	V _{non-i} k	<i>kak</i> - ‘write,’ <i>maruk</i> - ‘bundle’
8.	V _{non-i} kk	<i>sukk</i> - ‘draw,’ <i>mukk</i> - ‘bring’
9.	Vs <i>us</i> - ‘push,’ <i>k’joos</i> - ‘break’	
10.	ss	<i>kuss</i> - ‘kill’
11.	t	<i>ut</i> - ‘hit,’ <i>mat</i> - ‘wait,’ <i>kat</i> - ‘win’
12.	\$C(G)	<i>j’</i> - ‘say,’ ^a <i>mj</i> - ‘see’
13.	ij	<i>kij</i> - ‘cut,’ <i>kij</i> - ‘put on (clothes),’ <i>k’ubij</i> - ‘tie,’ <i>hasij</i> - ‘run’
14.	V _{non-i} g	<i>tug</i> - ‘whet,’ <i>hag</i> - ‘peel’
15.	ik	<i>kik</i> - ‘hear,’ <i>sik</i> - ‘spread’
16.	i(n)g	<i>uig</i> - ‘swim,’ <i>ming</i> - ‘grasp’
17.	in	<i>sin</i> - ‘die,’ <i>ikin</i> - ‘live’

Notes:

- (a) “V_{non-back}” indicates the non-back vowels //i, ɪ, ə/, “V_{back}” indicates the back vowels //u, o, a/, “V_{non-i}” indicates vowels excluding //i/, and “\$” represents a word boundary;
- (b) The verbal roots ending with //ir// are *hingir*- ‘escape,’ *izir*- ‘go out,’ and *ubuir*- ‘memorize.’ *izir*- ‘go out’ may be pronounced as *izjir*, although the former is preferred over the latter. These roots do not go through the *j*-insertion rule that is described in §??, which may imply that historically the final //i// of these verbal stems is different from that of the other verbal stems (e.g. *kik*- ‘hear’ or *sin*- ‘die’);
- (c) *k’uur*- ‘close’ may alternate with *k’uuw*-, and *koor*- ‘buy’ may alternate with *koow*- or *kawur*-. In addition, *oor*- ‘meet’ may alternate with *oow*-. However, *nugoor*- ‘don’t do’ does not have any other underlying form.

^aThe word-initial glottalization of *j’*- ‘say’ is frequently weakened to become /j/.

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Table 3.4: Different applications of rules to verbal stems and affixes showing their surface forms

Affix types	
No.	A. vowel-initial B. <i>t</i> -initial C. deletion D. others Stems' final e. g. -an -ta -jur -na
1.	V _{non-back} r -an Ø-ta Ø-jur C _i -na
2.	V _{back} r, V _{back} w -an Ø-ta Ø-jur C _i -na
3.	pp -an C _i Ø-ta -jur -una
4.	b -an Ø-da -jur -una
5.	V _m -an Ø-da -jur -na
6.	nm -an Ø-da -jur -una
7.	V _{non-i} k -an Ø-cja -jur -una
8.	V _{non-i} kk -an C _i Ø-cja -jur -una
9.	V _s -an Ø-cja -jur -ina
10.	ss -an C _i Ø-cja -jur -ina
11.	t -an C _i -cja c-jur c-ina
12.	\$C(G) -an -icja (Ø)-jur -uuna
13.	ij -an -cja -jur C _i -na
14.	V _{non-i} g -an Ø-zja -jur -una
15.	ik -jan Ø-cja -jur -una
16.	i(n)g -jan Ø-zja -jur -una
17.	in -jan Ø-zja -jur -na

Note:

- (a) “Ø” indicates the deletion of a morphophoneme before the morpheme boundary;
- (b) “C_i” indicates the consonant before the morpheme boundary is assimilated to the following consonant;
- (c) /c/ before the morpheme boundary means the original //t// alternates with /c/.

Table 3.5: . Irregular type verbal stems

Affix types				
Irregular stems	A. vowel-initial	B. t-initial	C. deletion	D. others
a.	<i>sir-</i> ‘do’ - IR IR -			
b.	<i>k-</i> ‘come’ IR IR - IR			
c.	<i>ik-</i> ‘go’ - IR - -			
d.	<i>umoor-</i> (move.HON) - IR - -			
e.	<i>hijaw-</i> ‘pick up’ IR - IR IR			
f.	<i>sij-</i> ‘know’ - IR - -			
g.	<i>jurukub-</i> ‘happy’ - - - IR			
h.	<i>hənk-</i> ‘enter’ IR IR - -			

(IR: irregular process, “-”: regular process)

3.2.1.1 Type A: rule for vowel-initial verbal affixes

Verbal affixes that begin with a vowel need a rule to explain the following difference.

- (10) a. *kak-* ‘write’ + *-an* (NEG) > /kak-an/
 b. *kik-* ‘hear’ > /kik-jan/

The example in (10a) presents a simple combination of *kak-* ‘write’ + *-an* (NEG) > /kakan/, but the example in (10b) needs *j*-insertion between the morphemes such as *kik-* ‘hear’ + *-an* (NEG) > /kikjan/.

There are nine verbal affixes that cause *j*-insertion: *-an* (NEG), *-arir* (PASS), *-arir* (CAP), *-as* (CAUS), *-azii* (NEG.PLQ), *-i* (IMP), *-iba* (SUGS), *-oo* (INT), and *-oo* (SUPP). These affixes will be called “vowel-initial affixes” (or “Type-A affixes”). It should be mentioned, however, that there is an affix that begins with a vowel, but does not cause *j*-insertion, i.e. *-i* (INF) discussed in §?? If the following conditions are met, /j/ is inserted before vowel-initial affixes: (a) the verbal stem has //i// in the word-final syllable, and (b) the verbal stem does not end with //j¹// or //r// (for the explanation of the restriction of //r//, see note (b) of the Table 1.3). These conditions can be schematized as in (11), where “A-affix” means the Type-A (i.e. vowel-initial) affixes. In the following schemata, morphological units are surrounded by square brackets, which are attached by their morphological information at the

¹Stem-final //j// prohibits the *j*-insertion because it would make the /jj/ sequence, which never appears in Yuwan.

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lower-right side. Supplemental information is also provided in square brackets under the rule schema.

- (11) $\emptyset > j / [iC]_{\text{stem}} [_]_{\text{A-affix}}$
 [C is not //j, r//]

The rule application and the output forms are shown in Table 1.6. In the following tables, the hyphen “-” in the cells means non-application of the rules.

Table 3.6: Verbal stems + *-an* (NEG)

Stem No. 1. $V_{\text{non-back}}$

e.g. *hingir- abir- kəər-* ‘kuur- nugoor- koow-’ ‘escape’ ‘call’ ‘exchange’ ‘close’ ‘don’t do’ ‘buy’

The affix *-iba* (SUGS) tends to become /ba/ after the verbal stems No. 5 and 17, e.g. *jum-* ‘read’ + *-iba* (SUGS) > /jumba/ (rather than /jumjiba/) and *sin-* ‘die’ + *-iba* (SUGS) > /sinba/ (rather than /sinjiba/). In addition, the combination of *uig-* ‘swim’ and *-iba* (SUGS) always becomes /uig-iba/ (not /uig-jiba/).

Table 1.6 shows that the verbal stems No. 15-17, which satisfy the conditions of the rule application discussed above, induce *j*-insertion. In order to achieve simplicity with the above combination, we choose these output phonemes of the verbal stems as their underlying morphophonemes.

3.2.1.2 Type B: rules for *t*-initial verbal affixes

The rules for affixes that begin with //t// are required in order to explain the differences as follows.

- (12) a. *abir-* ‘call’ + *-ti* (SEQ) > /abi-ti/
 b. *jum-* ‘read’ > /ju-di/
 c. *kak-* ‘write’ > /ka-cji/
 d. *sin-* ‘die’ > /si-zji/

The first example shows a relatively simple combination of *abir-* ‘call’ + *-ti* (SEQ) > /abitɪ/, but the other three examples need voicing *-ti* > /di/, affrication *-ti* > /cɟi/, or both *-ti* > /zɟi/.

There are seven verbal affixes that cause the above alternations: *-tar* (PST), *-tuk* (PRPR), *-tur* (PROG), *-təər* (RSL), *-ti* (SEQ), *-tai* (LST), and *-təəra* ‘after.’ These affixes are called “*t*-initial affixes” (or “Type-B affixes”) because they all begin with //t//. It should be mentioned, however, that there are two affixes that begin

with //t// but do not conform to the following rules, i.e. *-tu* (CSL) and *-too* (CSL) discussed in §?? If there is a combination of a verbal stem and a *t*-initial affix, the five rules below are applied in the following order: REFex:key:1 if the stem only contains consonants, //i// is inserted after the stem; (??) if the stem has the vowel //i// in its final syllable (and the final consonant is not //r//) or if the stem-final morphophoneme is //t, s, k, g//, the initial //t// of the *t*-initial verbal affix becomes //cj//; (??) if the stem ends with //b, g, m, n//, the initial consonant of the *t*-initial verbal affix is voiced; (??) the final consonant (except for //t//) of the stem is deleted; (??) if the stem ends with a non-nasal consonant, it is assimilated with the following consonant. In the following schema, “B-affix” refers to the above Type-B (i.e. *t*-initial) verbal affixes.

- (13) 1. Insertion
 $\emptyset > i / [C(G)]_{\text{stem}} _ []_{\text{B-affix}}$
 2. Affrication (palatalization)
 $t > cj / [VC]_{\text{stem}} _ []_{\text{B-affix}}$
 [V is //i// and C is not //r//]
 or [C is //t, s, k, g//]
 3. Voicing
 $C(G) > C(G) / [C(G)]_{\text{stem}} _ []_{\text{B-affix}}$
 [-v] [+v] [C is //b, g, m, n//]
 4. Deletion
 $C > \emptyset / []_{\text{stem}} []_{\text{B-affix}}$
 [C is not //t//]
 5. Assimilation
 $C > C_i / []_{\text{stem}} [C_i]_{\text{B-affix}}$
 [C is not nasal]

It should be noted that the above rules do not apply to the negative affix *-an* (NEG). All of the “*t*-initial affixes” can follow *-an* (NEG) without any morphophonological change, e.g., *-an-ti* (NEG-SEQ) becomes /-an-ti/ (not /-a-di/) as in (105) in §??

3.2.1.3 Type C: rules for affixes (and clitics) deleting non-nasal resonants

There are affixes and clitics that delete the preceding non-nasal resonants: *-jawur* (POL), *-jaa* ‘person,’ *-jur* (UMRK), *-jagacinaa* (SIM), *-mi* (PLQ), *-n* (PTCP), *jaa* (SOL), and *si* (FN), which are called “Type-C affixes (or clitics).” In the following schema, “C-affix/clitic” refers to these affixes and clitics.

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Table 3.7: Verbal stems + *-ti* (SEQ)

Stem No. 1. V _{non-back} r 2. V _{back} r, V _{back} w	
e.g. <i>hingir- abir- kəər- ʔkuur- nugoor- koow-</i>	
‘escape’ ‘call’ ‘exchange’ ‘close’ ‘don’t do’ ‘buy’	
(Input) <i>hingir-ti abir-ti kəər-ti ʔkuur-ti nugoor-ti koow-ti</i>	
1.	Insertion - - - - -
2.	Affrication - - - - -
3.	Voicing - - - - -
4.	Deletion <i>hingi-ti abi-ti kəə-ti ʔk</i>
5.	Assimilation - - - - -
(Output) <i>hingi-ti abi-ti kəə-ti ʔkuu-ti nugoo-ti koo-ti</i>	
Stem No. 2. V _{back} r 3. pp 4. b 5. Vm 6. nm 7. V _{non-i} k	
e.g. <i>tur- app- narab- jum- tanm- kak-</i>	
‘take’ ‘play’ ‘line up’ ‘read’ ‘ask’ ‘write’	
(Input) <i>tur-ti app-ti naab-ti jum-ti tanm-ti kak-ti</i>	
1.	Insertion - - - - -
2.	Affrication - - - - - <i>kak-cji</i>
3.	Voicing - - <i>narab-di jum-di tanm</i>
4.	Deletion <i>tu-ti ap-ti nara-di ju-d</i>
5.	Assimilation - <i>at-ti</i> - - - -
(Output) <i>tu-ti at-ti nara-di ju-di tan-di ka-cji</i>	
Stem No. 8. V _{non-i} kk 9. Vs 10. ss 11. t 12. \$C(G)	
e.g. <i>sukk- us- kuss- ut- jʔ- mj-</i>	

(14) Deletion

C (or G) > Ø / [_]_{stem} [_]_{C-affix/clitic}
 [C is non-nasal resonant]

Only the affix *-jagacinaa* (SIM) requires an additional rule, i.e., it becomes /jaa-gacinaa/ after a verbal root containing only consonant(s).

(15) Lengthening

-jagacinaa (SIM) > *-jaagacinaa* / [C(G)]_{stem} _

3.2.1.4 Type D: rules for the other verbal affixes (or clitics)

It is necessary to derive rules for the other verbal affixes in order to explain the differences as follows.

- (16) a. *jum-* ‘read’ + *-na* (PROH) > /jum-na/
 b. *abir-* ‘call’ > /abin-na/
 c. *kak-* ‘write’ > /kak-una/
 d. *us-* ‘push’ > /us-ina/

The first example shows a simple combination of *jum-* ‘read’ + *-na* (PROH) > /jumna/, but the next three require either nasal assimilation or vowel-insertion at the morpheme boundary. The verbal affixes that require these rules include *-na* (PROH), *-ba* (CSL), *-boo* (CND), *-gadi* ‘until,’ *-sa* (POL), *-siga* (POL), *-tu* (CSL), and *-too* (CSL). In addition, some “affix-like clitics” (see §??) are subject to the same rules, i.e. *doo* (ASS), *ka* (DUB), *kai* (DUB), *kamo* (POS), *ga* (CFM3), and *gajaaroo* (DUB). They are called “Type-D affixes (or clitics).” If a verbal stem is combined with these affixes (or clitics), six rules should be applied in the following order. Please note that if two rules have the same number, such as REFex:key:3a and (??), their order is free. The rules are: (??) if the final morphophoneme of the verbal stem is //t//, it becomes //c//; (??) if the final morphophoneme of the verbal stem is a consonant after a syllable boundary, //u// is inserted before the affix; (??) if the final morphophoneme of the verbal stem is //w, j, r// (non-nasal resonants), it is assimilated to the following consonant; (??) if the final morphophoneme of the verbal stem is not resonant and the following affix begins with consonant (i.e. there is no inserted vowel), //u// is inserted before the affix; (??) if the stem originally contains only consonants, the inserted vowel of following syllable is lengthened; (??) if the final morphophoneme of the stem is //c, s//, the following //u// becomes //i/. In the following schema, “D-affix (or clitic)” refers to the verbal

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Table 3.8: Verbal stems + *-jur* (UMRK)

<p>Stem No. 1. $V_{\text{non-back}r}$ 2. $V_{\text{back}r}$, $V_{\text{back}w}$</p> <p>e.g. <i>hingir- abir- kəər- 'kuur- nugoor- koow-</i></p> <p>'escape' 'call' 'exchange' 'close' 'don't do' 'buy'</p>	
<p>(Input) <i>hingir-jur abir-jur kəər-jur 'kuur-jur nugoor-jur koow-jur</i></p> <p>Deletion <i>hingi-jur abi-jur kəə-jur 'kuu-jur nugoo-jur koo-jur</i></p> <p>(Output) <i>hingi-jur abi-jur kəə-jur 'kuu-jur nugoo-jur koo-jur</i></p>	
<p>Stem No. 2. $V_{\text{back}r}$ 3. pp 4. b 5. Vm 6. nm 7. $V_{\text{non-}i}$ k</p> <p>e.g. <i>tur- app- narab- jum- tanm- kak-</i></p> <p>'take' 'play' 'line up' 'read' 'ask' 'write'</p> <p>(Input) <i>tur-jur app-jur narab-jur jum-jur tanm-jur kak-jur</i></p> <p>Deletion <i>tu-jur - - - -</i></p> <p>(Output) <i>tu-jur app-jur narab-jur jum-jur tanm-jur kak-jur</i></p>	
<p>Stem No. 8. $V_{\text{non-}i}$ kk 9. Vs 10. ss 11. t 12. \$(G)</p> <p>e.g. <i>sukk- us- kuss- ut- j' - mj-</i></p> <p>'pull' 'push' 'kill' 'hit' 'say' 'see'</p> <p>(Input) <i>sukk-jur us-jur kuss-jur ut-jur j'-jur mj-jur</i></p> <p>Deletion <i>- - - - Ø-jur/j'-ur^a m-jur</i></p> <p>(Output) <i>sukk-jur us-jur kuss-jur uc-jur Ø-jur/j'-ur m-jur</i></p>	
152	<p>Stem No. 13. ij 14. $V_{\text{non-}i}$ g 15. ik 16. i(n)g 17. in</p> <p>e.g. <i>kij- tug- kik- uig- ming- sin-</i></p>

Table 3.9: Verbal stems + *-jagacinaa* (SIM)

Stem No. 12. Only C(G) cf. 5. Vm
e.g. $j^?$ - <i>mj- jum-</i>
‘say’ ‘see’ ‘read’
(Input) $j^?$ - <i>jagacinaa mj-jagacinaa jum-jagacinaa</i>
Deletion $j^?$ - <i>agacinaa</i> ^a <i>m-jagacinaa -</i>
Lengthening $j^?$ - <i>aagacinaa m-jaagacinaa -</i>
(Output) $j^?$ - <i>aagacinaa m-jaagacinaa jum-jagacinaa</i>

^aStem-final //j// is not deleted in order to retain the original root form; instead, the affix-initial //j// is deleted.

affixes and clitics discussed above. It should be noted that if *kai* (DUB) or *kamo* (POS) follows *-tar* (PST), these rules do not apply and they simply delete the //r// of *-tar* (PST) (see §??).

- (17) 1. Affrication
 $t > c / [_]_{\text{stem}} [_]_{\text{D-affix (or clitic)}}$
2 Insertion
 $\emptyset > u / \#C]_{\text{stem}} [_ C]_{\text{D-affix (or clitic)}}$
3a. Assimilation
 $C > C_i / [_]_{\text{stem}} [C_i]_{\text{D-affix (or clitic)}}$
[C is //w, j, r//]
3b. Insertion
 $\emptyset > u / [C]_{\text{stem}} [_ C]_{\text{D-affix (or clitic)}}$
[C is not //m, n, w, j, r//]
4a. Lengthening²
 $\emptyset > V_i / [C(G)]_{\text{stem}} [V_i _]_{\text{D-affix (or clitic)}}$
4b. Centralizing
 $u > i / [C]_{\text{stem}} [_]_{\text{D-affix (or clitic)}}$
[C is //c, s//]

²The stems preceding type D affixes seem to behave as if they were phonological words since they become bimoraic like many of the phonological words in Yuwan (cf. §??).

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Table 3.10: . Verbal stems +

-na (PROH)	
Stem No. 1. V _{non-back} r 2. V _{back} r, V _{back} w	
e.g. <i>hingir- abir- kəər- ʔkuur- nugoor- koow-</i>	
‘escape’ ‘call’ ‘exchange’ ‘close’ ‘don’t do’ ‘buy’ (Input) <i>hingir-na abir-na kəər-na ʔkuur-na n</i>	
1. Affrication - - - - -	
2. Insertion - - - - -	
3a. Assimilation <i>hingin-na abin-na kəən-na ʔkuun-na nugoona-na koon-na</i>	
3b. Insertion - - - - -	
4a. Lengthening - - - - -	
4b. Centralizing - - - - -	
(Output) <i>hingin-na abin-na kəən-na ʔkuun-na nugoona-na koon-na</i>	
Stem No. 2. V _{back} r 3. pp 4. b 5. Vm 6. nm 7. V _{non-i} k e.g. <i>tur- app- narab- jum- tanm- kak-</i>	
‘take’ ‘play’ ‘line up’ ‘read’ ‘ask’ ‘write’ (Input) <i>tur-na app-na narab-na jum-na tanm-na kak-</i>	
1. Affrication - - - - -	
2. Insertion - <i>app-una</i> - - <i>tanm-una</i> -	
3a. Assimilation <i>tun-na</i> - - - - -	
3b. Insertion - - <i>narab-una</i> - - <i>kak-una</i>	
4a. Lengthening - - - - -	
4b. Centralizing - - - - -	
(Output) <i>tun-na app-una narab-una jum-na tanm-una kak-una</i>	
Stem No. 8. V _{non-i} kk 9. Vs 10. ss 11. t 12. \$C(G)	
e.g. <i>sukk- us- kuss- ut- jʔ- mj-</i>	
‘pull’ ‘push’ ‘kill’ ‘hit’ ‘say’ ‘see’ (Input) <i>sukk-na us-na kuss-na ut-na jʔ-na mj-na</i>	
1. Affrication - - - <i>uc-na</i> - -	
2. Insertion <i>sukk-una</i> - <i>kuss-una</i> - <i>jʔ-una</i> <i>mj-una</i>	
3a. Assimilation - - - - -	
3b. Insertion - <i>us-una</i> - <i>uc-una</i> - -	
4a. Lengthening - - - - <i>jʔ-uuna</i> <i>mj-uuna</i>	
4b. Centralizing - <i>us-ina</i> <i>kuss-ina</i> <i>uc-ina</i> - -	
(Output) <i>sukk-una us-ina kuss-ina uc-ina jʔ-uuna mj-uuna</i>	
Stem No. 13. ij 14. V _{non-i} g 15. ik 16. i(n)g 17. in e.g. <i>kij- tug- kik- uig- ming- sin-</i>	
‘cut’ ‘whet’ ‘hear’ ‘swim’ ‘grab’ ‘die’ (Input) <i>kij-na tug-na kik-na uig-na ming-na sin-na</i>	
1. Affrication - - - - -	
2. Insertion - - - - <i>ming-una</i> -	
3a. Assimilation <i>kin-na</i> - - - - -	
3b. Insertion - <i>tug-una</i> <i>kik-una</i> <i>uig-una</i> - -	
4a. Lengthening - - - - -	
4b. Centralizing - - - - -	

3.2.1.5 Passive and capable affixes alternation

The passive affix (see §??) and the capable affix (see §??) have many similar allomorphs. Their output forms are determined by the following affixes. For a more economical analysis, I postulate three underlying forms for the passive and capable affixes respectively: *-arir*, *-ariir*, and *-ar*.

Both of the forms *-arir* and *-ariir* conform to the (morpho)phonological rules already presented in the previous sections. However, the form *-ar* needs special attention, because the means taken to avoid syllable-final /r/ are different from the other rules. The final //r// of *-ar* is relatively “strong,” as it were. The //r// is not deleted but retained in all cases, which is contrary to the rules in §?? and §??, where //r// before Type-B affixes or Type-C affixes must be deleted.

(18) Rule for *-ar* (PASS/CAP)

- a. Assimilation: *-ar* (PASS/CAP) > -at / _ []_{B-affix}
- b. Deletion: *-jagacinaa* (SIM) > -agacinaa / *-ar* (PASS) _

(19) Examples

- a. Assimilation (to the following morphophoneme)
tur- ‘take’ + *-ar* (PASS) + *-tar* (PST)
 > *tur*- -at -ta
- b. Deletion (of the following morphophoneme)
oos- ‘scold’ + *-ar* (PASS) + *-jagacinaa* (SIM)
 > *oos*- -ar -agacinaa

These rules show that the //r// of *-ar* (PASS) does not drop but rather assimilates with the following //t// as in (19a). In addition, the //r// of *-ar* (PASS) does not drop but instead deletes the following //j// of *-jagacinaa* (SIM) as in (19b).

3.2.2 Some notes on the interpretation of the verbal paradigm

3.2.2.1 *r*-final stems

There are two kinds of *r*-final stems in Yuwan (stem No. 1-2 in Table 1.3 in §??). It is worth noting that stem No. 1 (whose final morphophonemes are a non-back vowel plus //r//) does not require /i/ insertion to produce infinitives, but stem No. 2 (whose final morphophonemes are a back vowel plus //r// or //w//) do require this insertion, similar to other consonant-final stems. The combination of a verbal stem plus the infinitival affix is called infinitive (see §?? for more details).

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Table 3.11: Combinations of the passive and capable affixes and other affixes showing their surface forms

Preceding

passive/capable affixes Following

affixes (or clitics) Preceding

passive/capable affixes Following

affixes (or clitics)

-arir -ariir -ar Type A *-arir -ariir -ar* Type C

ar_{P/C} *-an* (NEG) ari_P ^a *-jaa* ‘person’

ar_C *-azii* (NEG.PLQ) ari_{P/C} *-joor* (POL)

ar_P *-i* (IMP) ar_P *-jagacinaa* (SIM)

arir_C *-iba* (SUGS) arii_{P/C} *si* (FN)

ar_P *-oo* (INT) arii_{P/C} *-mi* (PLQ)

Notes:

arir_C ariir_C *-oo* (SUPP) ari_{P/C} *-n* (PTCP)

ariir_C *-u* (PFC) *-arir -ariir -ar* Type D

ari_{P/C} *-i* (NPST) arip_{P/C} *-ba* (CSL)

-arir -ariir -ar Type B arip_{P/C} *-boo* (CND)

ari_C arii_{P/C} ^b at_{P/C} *-tar* (PST) arit_{P/C} *doo* (ASS)

at_P *-tuk* (PRPR) arik_{P/C} *kai* (DUB)

at_{P/C} *-tur* (PROG) aris_{P/C} *-sa/-siga* (POL)

arii_C at_P *-təər* (RSL)

at_{P/C} *-ti* (SEQ)

at_{P/C} *-tai* (LST)

(a) The lower right symbols on the surface (i.e. non-italic) forms express

Table 3.12: Infinitives of the verbal stems No. 1, 2, and 7

Stem No.	1	2	7
Ex.	<i>abir-</i> ‘call’	<i>tur-</i> ‘take’	<i>kak-</i> ‘write’
Infinitives (in surface forms)	<i>abi</i>	<i>tui</i> ^a <i>kaki</i>	
Infinitives (in underlying forms)	<i>abir-Ø</i> (call-INF)	<i>tur-i</i> (take-INF)	<i>kak-i</i> (write-INF)

^aPhonological rule (see §??): *tur* + *i* > *tui*

Considering Table 1.12, one might think that the stem-final //r/ of stem No. 1 (e.g. *abir-* ‘call’) is not part of the preceding stem but rather part of the following affix as in (20).

- (20) Current analysis: *abir-* ‘call’ + *-an* (NEG)
Possible analysis: *abi-* ‘call’ + *-ran* (NEG)

In that case, we would be able to explain the phenomenon in Table 1.12 more simply. The consonant-final verbal stems, e.g. *tur-* ‘take’ and *kak-* ‘write,’ would require *-i* (INF), but the vowel-final verbal stems, e.g. *abi-* ‘call,’ would require *-Ø* (INF). However, we will not adopt this analysis for the reasons discussed below.

Table 3.13: . Combinations of verbal roots and Type-A affixes and Type-D affixes

Stem No.	1	2
Ex. <i>abir-</i> ‘call’ <i>tur-</i> ‘take’ <i>kak-</i> ‘write’		
Followed by Type-A affixes <i>abir an</i> (NEG) <i>tur an</i> (NEG) <i>kak an</i> (NEG)	<i>i</i> (IMP)	<i>i</i> (IMP)
Followed by Type-D affixes <i>abin na</i> (PROH) <i>tun na</i> (PROH) <i>kak u na</i> (PROH)	<i>abib ba</i> (CSL)	<i>tun</i>

If we propose the final //r/ of stem No. 1 (e.g. *abir-* ‘call’) does not belong to the root but to the following affix, we would then have to interpret the root-final /n/ or /b/ before Type-D affixes (e.g. *-na* (PROH) or *-ba* (CSL)) as affix-initial consonants, such as *-nna* (PROH) or *-bba* (CSL). This analysis, however, is not applicable since these forms could not appear after other verbal stems, such as *kak-* ‘write’ + *-na* (PROH) > /kak-una/ (* /kak-unna/), or *kak-* ‘write’ + *-ba* (CSL) >

/kak-uba/ (* /kak-ubba/ nor * /kak-uppa/). Thus, it is more appropriate to propose that the //r// belongs not to the following affixes but to the preceding stems.

3.2.2.2 Not setting up “base types”

Some of the previous research on Northern Ryukyuan languages proposed an analysis of the verbal stems, which is different from that adopted by the present author. They propose that the initial (morpho)phonemes of the verbal derivational affixes are treated as the final (morpho)phonemes of the verbal roots; for example, Uchima et al. (1976: 74ff.) for Yuwan (Amami), and Nishioka & Nakahara (2000: 37, 55) for Shuri (Okinawa). The example below is taken from Uchima et al. (1976)’s analysis, where the term “base” is used to refer to what I call a verbal root (the phonological representations and glosses are adjusted by the present author).

Table 3.14: Analysis of the verb in Uchima et al. (1976)

Base types E.g. ‘write’	Stem-derivational affix	Ending
Basic	kak	oo (INT), i (IMP), etc.
Renyou	kakj	-u ₁ (UMRK) i (NPST), ru (PFC), etc.
Onbin (‘euphony’)	kacj	-i/-i (SEQ), -eera, -əə, -a, -u ₂ (PROG) i (NPST), n

Notes:

- (a) Uchima et al. (1976: 78) propose that the “real base” is /kak/ and the other forms, i.e. /kakj/ and /kacj/, are its variants depending on the morphological environments;
- (b) Uchima et al. (1976: 91-92) argue that the sequential converbal forms (“SEQ” in Table 1.14), which are labeled *Setsuzoku-kei* ‘conjunctive form’ in their terms, can be /i/ or /i/. However, the speaker TM, who is the main consultant for the present research, says it should be /i/ in all cases. Although, it sometimes sounds like /i/ after alveolar affricates or fricatives.

The above table shows that Uchima et al. (1976) distinguishes three “base types,” although, I do not make such a distinction (see Chapter 8). I found three disadvantages in proposing the base types: (a) the redundancy in the explanation of the semantic differences between verbs; (b) the emergence of unnecessary homophonic affixes; (c) the inability to explain a sequence of *t*-initial affixes.

First, if we allow the above segmentation as in Table 1.14, the difference between /kak-i/ (write-IMP) and /kacj-i/ (write-SEQ) would be explained by the difference in base (i.e. Basic vs. Onbin) and also by the difference in affix (i.e. /i/ (IMP) vs. /i/ (SEQ)). On the other hand, if we assume only one base (i.e. root) *kak*- ‘write,’ and regard the alleged base-final (morpho)phonemes /cj/ as the initial (morpho)phonemes of the following affix such as /cji/ (SEQ), then the above difference can be more succinctly explained by the difference in affix, i.e. /i/ (IMP) vs. /cji/ (SEQ).

Table 3.15: Comparison of analyses by Uchima et al. (1976) and the present author (in surface forms)

Gloss	write-IMP	Gloss	write-SEQ
Uchima et al. (1976)	e.g. kak-i	e.g. kacj-i	Note: In the
The present author	e.g. kak-i	e.g. ka-cji	

present author’s analysis, the deletion of the root-final morphophoneme //k// in *kak*- ‘write’ is explained by a morphophonological rule (see §??).

Furthermore, the analysis proposed by Uchima et al. (1976) creates unnecessary homophonic morphemes such as *-i* (IMP) vs. *-i* (SEQ), and *-u₁* (UMRK) vs. *-u₂* (PROG). On the other hand, our analysis does not fall into this trap, e.g. *-i* (IMP) vs. *-ti* (SEQ), and *-jur* (UMRK) vs. *-tur* (PROG).

Finally, the “base type” analysis cannot explain a sequence of *t*-initial affixes (for more discussion on *t*-initial affixes, see §??). For example, a combination such as *nar*- ‘become’ + *-tur* (PROG) + *-ti* (SEQ) > /na-tu-ti/³ (become-PROG-SEQ) exists in Yuwan. If we adopt the “base type” analysis, the first two morphemes would be analyzed as /nat-u/ (become-PROG), but we are unable to explain the final morpheme, i.e. /ti/ (SEQ), because Uchima et al. (1976: 91-92) considers the affix to be /i/ (SEQ). In other words, their analysis would result in the ill-formed utterance */nat-u-i/.

Table 3.16: Comparison of analyses by Uchima et al. (1976) and the present author (in surface forms)

Output forms expected by each analysis	Gloss
Uchima et al. (1976)	*nat-u-i (become-PROG-SEQ)
The present author	na-tu-ti (become-PROG-SEQ)

³Morphophonological rules (see §1.2.1.2): *nar* + *tur* + *ti* > *natuti*.

Uchima et al. (1976) cannot predict the correct form /-ti/ (SEQ) because they have misunderstood the initial phoneme of /-ti/ (SEQ) (and also other *t*-initial affixes) as a part of a root (not of an affix). Therefore, the affix cannot begin with /t/ in their analysis.

In conclusion, in order to achieve an economical, clear, and exhaustive analysis, we avoid setting up “base types” as previous researchers have done.

3.3 Stem types

The stem types classified by morphophonological criteria were all shown in Table 1.3 in §?? In this section, we will consider some stems which have unique semantic-syntactical and/or morphosyntactic characteristics.

First, Yuwan has semantically and syntactically interesting stems, i.e. honorific verbal stems. The honorific verbal stems can express the speaker’s respect for the subject of the predicate (see Chapter 3). The details of the honorific verbs will be discussed in §??

Second, we will look at the differences between three kinds of verbal stems: the existential verbs, the copula verbs, and the stative verbs. These verbal stems have a few alternate morphemes. Let us see the following table, where the variation of affirmative copula forms is a little simplified.

Table 3.17: Existential verb vs. copula verb vs. stative verb (simplified)

Polarity	Affirmative		Negative	
Core NPs	Animate	Inanimate	Animate	Inanimate
Existential verbs	wur-	ar-	wur-	nə-
Copula verbs	jar- ar-			
Stative verbs	ar- nə-'			

wur- is always an existential verb, and jar- is always a copula verb. The form /ar-/, however, can be a morpheme of all of the three verbal stems. Similarly, the form /nə-/ may be a morpheme of either the existential verb or the stative verb. The details of Table 1.17 will be shown in the following subsections: the existential verbs (see §??), the copula verbs (see §??), and the stative verbs (see §??). The morphosyntactic similarities among these three verbs will be discussed in §??

3.3.1 Honorific verbs

As mentioned in Chapter 3, honorific verbs express the speaker's respect for the subject of the predicate. Generally, the respect is dedicated to the people older than the speaker. There are, however, some cases where the people younger than the speaker receive the speaker's respect; in that case, there is another factor that induces such respect, e.g. the academic prestige as in (22a-b) and (23) in §??

There are two types of honorific verbs. One of them can fill the predicate slot of a clause by itself, i.e. lexical honorific verbs. The other cannot fill the predicate slot only by itself, i.e. auxiliary honorific verbs, and it needs a lexical verb to precede it, which is called the auxiliary verb construction (see §??).

(21) Two types of honorific verbs

a. Lexical honorific verb

[Context: TM thanks to US, who is older than TM.]

nanga	umooejattu,	cjoodo jiccja
nan=ga	umoor-tar-tu	cjoodo jiccj-sa ar-tar
2.HON.SG=NOM	[come.HON-PST]	just good-ADJ
[Lex.	verb] _{VP}	
ata.		

STV-PST

'You came, so (it) was very good.' [Co: 110328_00.txt]

b. Auxiliary honorific verb

[Context: TM explained to US that the present author had wanted to see her.]

nanga	hanacjɿ	moojun	mun
nan=ga	hanas-tɿ	moor-jur-n mun	kik-i-cja-sa+ar-n=ccjɿ
2.HON.SG=NOM	[speak-SEQ	HON-UMRK-PTCP]	thing
kikicjasancjɿ		j'icjɿ,	
j'-tɿ			

hear-INF+want-ADJ+STV-PTCP=QT say-SEQ

'(The present author) said that (he) wanted to hear what you said.'

[Co: 110328_00.txt]

In (21a), *umoor-* (come.HON) is a lexical honorific verb, and it expresses the speaker's respect for the subject *nan* (2.HON.SG) 'you.' In (21b), *moor-* (HON) is an

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auxiliary honorific verb, that follows the lexical verb *hanas-* ‘speak,’ and *moor-* (HON) expresses the speaker’s respect for the subject *nan* (2.HON.SG) ‘you.’

In the following subsections, I will discuss the lexical honorific verb (see §??) and the auxiliary honorific verb (see §??).

3.3.1.1 Lexical honorific verb

Yuwan has the following four lexical honorific verbs.

Table 3.18: Lexical honorific verbs

Lexical honorific verbs	Relevant non-hon
<i>umoor-</i> (exist/go/come/say.HON) <i>wur-</i> ‘exist’, <i>ik-</i> ‘go’, <i>k-</i> ‘come’, <i>j’-</i> ‘say’	
<i>imoor-</i> (exist/go/come.HON) <i>wur-</i> ‘exist’, <i>ik-</i> ‘go’, <i>k-</i> ‘come’	
<i>misjoor-</i> (eat.HON) <i>kam-</i> ‘eat’	
<i>moosir-</i> (die.HON) <i>sin-</i> ‘die’	

The speaker TM said that *umoor-* is more traditional than *imoor-*. Actually, *umoor-* is used more often than *-imoor* in my texts. The example of *umoor-* meaning ‘come’ was already shown in (21a). I will present other examples where *umoor-* means ‘go,’ ‘exist,’ or ‘say.’

(22) Lexical honorific verb *umoor-*

- a. Meaning ‘go’ [Context: US thought that the present author went to the house of TM, who is *cinəə* ‘Tsune’ in the following example.]

cinəə məə xxx saki *umoocjidarocji*
cinəə məə saki umoor-ti=daroo=ccji umuw-ti=ga
 Tsune front first go.HON-CSN=SUPP=QT think-SEQ=FOC
umutiga,

‘(I) thought that (he) probably went to Tsune’s place, and ...’ [Co: 110328_00.txt]

- b. Meaning ‘exist’ [Context: Talking about the present author]

jonesigetaaga *wutan* *jaanan*
jonesige-taa=ga *wur-tar-n* *jaa=nan*
 Yoneshige-PL=NOM exist-PST-PTCP house=LOC1

umoojunwake?

umoor-jur-n=wake

exist.HON-UMRK-PTCP=CFP

‘Is (he) in the house where Yoneshige and his family lived?’ [Co: 110328_00.txt]

- c. Meaning ‘say’ [Context: Talking about an incantation old people chanted when they felt the earthquakes]

naakja⁴ anmataa zisinnu tuki, zisinnu siboo,⁵

naakja-a anmaa-taa zisin=nu tuki zisin=nu sir-boo

2PL-ADNZ mother-PL earthquake=GEN time earthquake=NOM do-CND

kjon ciki kjon cikicjæ

kjoo=n cik-i kjoo=n cik-i=ccji=ja

Kyoto=DAT1 attach-IMP Kyoto=DAT1 attach-IMP=TOP

umooranti?

umoor-an-ti

say.HON-NEG-SEQ

‘Did your mother say, “Send (it) to Kyoto! Send (it) to Kyoto!” [lit. “Attach to Kyoto! Attach to Kyoto!”], when (they) feel earthquakes, (at) the time of earthquakes?’ [Co: 110328_00.txt]

check numbering

In (22a), *umoor-* expresses the speaker US’s respect for the subject, although it did not overtly appear in the clause. The subject indicates the present author, who was younger than US, but the academic prestige of the university seems to have made her use honorific verbs. In (22b), *umoor-* expresses the speaker US’s respect for the (not appearing) subject, i.e. the present author. In (22c), the speaker TM expresses the respect for /naakja anmataa/ ‘your mother,’ i.e. US’s mother.

Next, I will present an example of *misjoor-* (eat.HON).

- (23) Lexical honorific verb *misjoor-* (eat.HON)

[Context: Talking about the present author]

misjoorankai?

misjoor-an=kai

eat.HON-NEG=DUB

‘Does (he) eat (the snacks US brought)?’ [Co: 110328_00.txt]

⁴The regular process must be *sir-boo* (do-CND) > /sibboo/ (or /sippoo/), but it becomes /siboo/ in this example.

⁵The regular process must be *naakja-a* (2.HON.PL-ADNZ) > /naakjaa/, but it becomes /naakja/ in this example.

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In (23), *misjoor-* (eat.HON) expresses the speaker's respect for the (not appearing) subject, i.e. the present author.

Finally, I will present an example is of *moosir-* (die.HON).

- (24) Lexical honorific verb *moosir-* (die.HON)
 [Context: Talking about TM's friend who is older than her]
kunəəda *tacuuga* *moosjarooga*.
kunəəda *tacuu=ga* *moosir-tar-oo=ga*
 the.other.day Tatsu=NOM die.HON-PST-SUPP=CFM3
 '(You) probably (know that) the other day, Tatsu passed away.' [Co:
 120415_00.txt]

In (24), *moosir-* (die.HON) expresses the speaker's respect for the subject, i.e. *tacuu* 'Tatsu,' who was older than the speaker. If you want to express a more respect than that expressed by *moosir-* (die.HON), you may use the light verb construction where the complement slot is filled by *umoor-an* (exist.HON-NEG) and the light verb is *nar-* 'become' as in (??a) in §??

The speaker TM said that there is a lexical honorific verb that shows the speaker's respect for the recipient (not the subject): *huur-* (give.back.HON) 'give (something) back.' However, this honorific verb has never appeared in my texts. The same form can be used in my texts to mean 'send (somebody) off,' but it does not express the speaker's respect to anyone. In other words, it is not a honorific verb.

3.3.1.2 Auxiliary honorific verb

There are two auxiliary honorific verbs in Yuwan.

Table 3.19

Auxiliary honorific verbs

Auxiliary honorific verbs	Relevant non-honorific verbs
<i>moor-</i> (HON)	N/A
<i>taboor-</i> (BEN.HON)	<i>kurir-</i> (BEN)
<i>umoor-</i> (come.HON)	<i>k-</i> 'come'

The auxiliary honorific verbs in Table 1.19 need to be preceded by a lexical verb, and the lexical verb always takes *-ti* (SEQ) (see §?? for more details). *moor-* (HON) is used just to add an honorific meaning to the preceding verb. In other words, *moor-* (HON) is an auxiliary honorific verb that is semantically unmarked.

On the contrary, *taboor-* (BEN.HON) and *umoor-* (come.HON) add other meanings besides the honorific meaning. First, I will present examples of *moor-* (HON).

(25) Auxiliary honorific verb *moor-* (HON)

- a. [Context: Speaking to US]

gazjumaru sicji moojuijojaa.
 gazjumaru sij-ti moor-jur-i=joo=jaa
 banyan.tree [know-SEQ HON-UMRK]=CFM1=SOL
 [Lex. verb Aux.]

‘(You) would know the banyan tree, wouldn’t you?’ [Co:
 110328_00.txt]

- b. [Context: Speaking to US, whose family used to deal in fish] = (??b)

naakjaga sji moojuinnja, simanu
 naa-kja=ga sir-ti moor-jur-i=n=ja sima=nu j’u=daroo=ga
 2.HON-PL=NOM [do-SEQ HON-UMRK-INF]=DAT1=TOP island=GEN
 j’udarooga?

fish=SUPP=CFM3

‘When you dealt in (fishes), (I) suppose (they are) fishes from the
 community [i.e. fish caught around the community].’ [Co:
 110328_00.txt]

In (25a), *moor-* (HON) expresses the speaker’s respect for the subject of the predicate, i.e. the hearer US. In (25b), *moor-* (HON) expresses the speaker’s respect for the subject of the predicate, i.e. US’s family.

The next example is *taboor-* (BEN.HON). *taboor-* (BEN.HON) adds not only a honorific meaning to the preceding verb, but also expresses that the event expressed by the preceding verb is to the speaker’s benefit.

(26) Auxiliary honorific verb *taboor-* (BEN.HON)

|sinsjei|, an k’wa abiti taboori.
 sinsjei a-n k’wa abir-ti taboor-i
 teacher DIST-ADNZ child [call-SEQ BEN.HON-IMP] [Lex.]

‘Teacher, would (you) please call that child (for me)?’ [EL: 130820]

In (26), *taboor-* (BEN.HON) expresses the speaker’s respect for the subject of the predicate, i.e. *sinsjei* ‘teacher’. Additionally, *taboor-* (BEN.HON) expresses that the action indicated by the preceding lexical verb *abir-* ‘call’ is beneficial to the speaker (see §?? for more details).

Finally, the auxiliary verb *umoor-* (come.HON) is shown below.

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- (27) Auxiliary honorific verb *umoor-* (come.HON)
 [Context: Talking about the present author]
 urin taziniti umoocjattu, [Lex. verb Aux. verb]_{VP}
u-ri=n *tazinir-ti umoor-tar-tu*
 MES-NLZ=also [ask-SEQ come.HON-PST-CSL]
 ‘(He) came and ask (me) of that, so ...’ [Co: 110328_00.txt]

In (27), *umoor-* (come.HON) expresses the speaker’s respect for the subject of the predicate, i.e. the present author. The verbal form /*umoor-*/ can also be used as a lexical honorific verb as in Table 1.18, and the lexical verb *umoor-* can mean several meanings such as ‘exist (honorific),’ or ‘go (honorific).’ Therefore, the honorific auxiliary verb *umoor-* may also mean those meanings. So far, however, I have found only the meaning of ‘come (honorific)’ as in (27) in my texts.

3.3.2 Existential verb

Semantically, the existential verbs in Yuwan express the existence of a core argument. The “core argument” here usually indicates the subject of a clause, but sometimes it does not, which is discussed in §?? Syntactically, the existential verbs fill the predate phrase of a clause, and makes a verbal predicate phrase (see §?? about the verbal predicate phrase). Yuwan has three existential verbs *wur-*, *ar-*, and *nə-*, which correlate with the animacy (in a narrow sense) of the core arguments, which is summarized in the following table. A kind of possession can be expressed by the existential verbs, which will be discussed in §??

Table 3.20: Existential verbs (not in AvC)

Core NPs	Animate	Inanimate
Polarity	Affirmative / Negative	Affirmative Negative
Existential verbs	<i>wur- ar- nə-</i>	

If the core argument is animate, *wur-* ‘exist’ is used. If the core argument is inanimate, *ar-* ‘exist’ or *nə-* ‘exist’ is used. *wur-* ‘exist’ can take negative affixes, but *ar-* ‘exist’ cannot. *nə-* ‘exist’ always takes one of the negative affixes directly. The negative affixes are *-an* (NEG) or *-azii* (NEG.PLQ), which go through reduction or assimilation with *nə-* ‘exist’ such as /*nə-n*/ (exist-NEG) or /*nə-əzii*/ (exist-NEG.PLQ). I present examples of Table 1.20 in turn below: *wur-* ‘exist’ in §??, *ar-* ‘exist’ in 8.3.2.2, and *nə-* ‘exist’ in §??

3.3.2.1 *wur-* ‘exist’

If the core argument of the clause indicates an animate referent, *wur-* ‘exist’ is chosen as the existential verb (see §?? about the core arguments of existential verbs). In (28a-b), the core arguments are animate, i.e. *anma-taa* ‘(such a person like my) mother’ and *mukasi=nu c’ju* ‘old people.’ Thus, *wur-* ‘exist’ is used.

(28) Core argument is animate

a. Affirmative polarity

anmataaga wuppoojaa.
anmaa-taa=ga wur-boo=jaa
 mother-PL=NOM exist-CND=SOL
 ‘If there were (my) mother.’ [Co: 110328_00.txt]

b. Negative polarity

mukasinu c’junkjoo wuranbajaa.
mukasi=nu c’ju=nkja=ja wur-an-ba=jaa
 past=GEN person=APPR=TOP exist-NEG-CSL=SOL
 ‘There are no old people.’ [Co: 101023_01.txt]

Yuwan has several phenomena which is concerned with the animacy in a broad sense (see §??). The existential verbs, however, are chosen by the animacy in a narrow sense. Therefore, even if the referent is not a human but still is an animate referent, *wur-* ‘exist’ (not *ar-*) is chosen.

(29) Non-human animate subject

[Context: Talking about silkworms that were in the silk-reeling factory in the community]

namanu cjoodo an ... k’urusan
nama=nu cjoodo a-n k’uru-sa+ar-n cjoocjo=nu
 now=GEN just DIST-ADNZ black-ADJ+STV-PTCP butterfly=NOM
 cjoocjonu, (mmm) arinu wuncjijo.
a-ri=nu wur-n=ccji=joo
 DIST-NLZ=NOM exist-PTCP=QT=CFM1

‘(In those days) there were (moths of silkworms) just (like) that black butterfly (in these days), and that [i.e. the moths] actually existed.’ [Co: 111113_01.txt]

In (29), the core argument, which is also the subject, indicates a non-human animate referent, i.e. a butterfly, and still *wur-* ‘exist’ is chosen. Similarly, the lexical honorific verb *umoor-* (exist.HON), which is a honorific counterpart of *wur-* ‘exist,’ can be used only when the core argument is animate as in (21a) in §??

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3.3.2.2 *ar-* ‘exist’

If the core argument of the clause indicates an inanimate referent and the predicate is in affirmative, *ar-* ‘exist’ is chosen as the existential verb (see §?? about the core arguments of existential verbs).

- (30) Core argument is inanimate (affirmative polarity)

hanankjanu aijaa.
hana=nkja=nu ar-i=jaa
 flower=APPR=NOM exist-NPST=SOL
 ‘There are flowers (in this picture).’ [Co: 11113_01.txt]

In (30), the core argument, which is also the subject, is an inanimate referent, i.e. *hana* ‘flower,’ and also the clause is in affirmative. Thus, *ar-* ‘exist’ is used. In principle, *ar-* ‘exist’ conforms to the deletion of the final //r// before *t*-initial affixes as in (31a) (see §?? for more details). However, it is sometimes not deleted, but assimilates to the following //t// as in (31b).

- (31) a. dandannu atijaa.

dandan=nu ar-ti=jaa
 step=NOM exist-SEQ=SOL
 ‘There were steps (at the place in the picture).’ [Co: 120415_00.txt]

- b. un kabəə nama attijaa, wanna.
u-n kabi=ja nama ar-ti=jaa wan=ja

MES-ADNZ paper=TOP still exist-SEQ=SOL 1SG=TOP
 ‘I still have the paper.’ [lit. ‘As for me, there were still papers.’] [Co: 110328_00.txt]

So far, the assimilation of the root final //r// of *ar-* ‘exist’ occurs only in the combination of *ar-ti=jaa* (exist-SEQ=SOL), although it is not obligatory as in (31a).

Basically, *ar-* ‘exist’ is used only in affirmative. However, there are two cases where *ar-* ‘exist’ is used in negative. First, if the existential verb takes the politeness affix *-jawur*, *ar-* ‘exist’ is always used, no matter which polarity the predicate is in.

- (32) *ar-* ‘exist’ + *-jawur* (POL)

nun ajawurandoo.
nuu=n ar-jawur-an=doo
 what=any exist-POL-NEG=ASS
 ‘There is not anything.’ [El: 1201xx]

In (32), the existential verb is in negative taking *-an* (NEG), but the existential verb is *ar-* ‘exist’ (not *nə-*).

Secondly, if the existential verb fills the lexical verb slot in the auxiliary verb construction (see §??), it is always *ar-* ‘exist,’ no matter which polarity the predicate is in.

- (33) *ar-* ‘exist’ in AvC [= (35d)]
 an sinsjeija kanija ati moorancjido. [Lex.
a-n sinsjei=ja kani=ja ar-ti moor-an=ccji=doo
 DIST-ADNZ teacher=TOP money=TOP [exist-SEQ HON-NEG]=QT=ASS
 verb Aux. verb]_{VP}
 ‘That teacher does not have any money.’ [El: 120924]

In (33), the VP that contains an existential verb is in negative, but the existential verb is *ar-* ‘exist’ (not *nə-*).

3.3.2.3 *nə-* ‘exist’

If the core argument of the clause indicates an inanimate referent and the predicate is in negative, *nə-* ‘exist’ is chosen as the existential verb (with the exception of a few cases discussed in §??) (see §?? about the core arguments of existential verbs).

- (34) Core argument is inanimate (negative polarity)
-an (NEG)
- a. [Context: TM told that she cannot move her tongue very well.]
 han nənba.
haa=n nə-an-ba
 teeth=also exist-NEG-CSL
 ‘Also, I don’t have any teeth.’ [Co: 110328_00.txt]
- b. *umanannja nənnən,*
u-ma=nan=ja nə-an-nən
 MES-place=LOC1=TOP exist-NEG-SEQ
 ‘(The storehouse) did not exist there, and ...’ [Co: 120415_00.txt]
-azii (NEG.PLQ)
- c. [Context: TM and MS were looking for a pounder.]
 nəəzii? umanannja?
nə-azii u-ma=nan=ja
 exist-NEG.PLQ MES-place=LOC1=TOP
 ‘Isn’t (it there)? At the place?’ [Co: 120415_00.txt]

Strictly speaking, *nə-* ‘exist’ is obligatorily chosen when it is directly followed by the negative affixes. Therefore, if the negative affixes cannot directly follow the existential verbal stems, *nə-* ‘exist’ cannot be chosen, and instead *ar-* ‘exist’ is chosen as in (32) and (33) in §??

3.3.2.4 Core argument of the existential verbs

The choice of existential verbs is determined by the core arguments in the clauses, and the core arguments do not necessarily indicate the subjects of the clauses. I present examples below, where the existential verbs are used to mean possessional meaning. Roughly speaking, the construction literally meaning ‘About X, there is Y’ means ‘X has Y’. Besides, *umoor-* (exist.HON) in the following examples is a honorific lexical verb, whose non-honorific counterpart is *wur-* ‘exist.’ Therefore, the core argument of *umoor-* (exist.HON) must indicate an animate referent. In the following examples, the core arguments and existential verbs are underlined.

- (35) a. *umoor-* (core argument is animate)
- | | | | |
|------------|-------------------|---------------|--------------------------|
| <u>an</u> | <u>sinsjei</u> ja | <u>jii</u> ja | <u>umoor</u> ancjidoo. |
| <i>a-n</i> | <i>sinsjei=ja</i> | <i>jii=ja</i> | <i>umoor-an=ccji=doo</i> |
- [DIST-ADNZ teacher]=TOP brother=TOP [exist.HON-NEG]=QT=ASS
[Subject] [Honorific verb]
‘That teacher does not have a brother.’ [El: 120924]
- b. #*umoor-* (core argument is animate)
- | | | | |
|-------------|------------------|---------------|--------------------------|
| # <u>an</u> | <u>warabi</u> ja | <u>jii</u> ja | <u>umoor</u> ancjidoo |
| <i>a-n</i> | <i>warabi=ja</i> | <i>jii=ja</i> | <i>umoor-an=ccji=doo</i> |
- [DIST-ADNZ child]=TOP brother=TOP [exist.HON-NEG]=QT=ASS
[Subject] [Honorific verb]
(Intended meaning) ‘That child does not have any money.’ [El: 140227]
- c. **umoor-* (core argument is inanimate)
- | | | | |
|-------------|-------------------|----------------|--------------------------|
| * <u>an</u> | <u>sinsjei</u> ja | <u>kani</u> ja | <u>umoor</u> ancjidoo |
| <i>a-n</i> | <i>sinsjei=ja</i> | <i>kani=ja</i> | <i>umoor-an=ccji=doo</i> |
- [DIST-ADNZ teacher]=TOP money=TOP [exist.HON-NEG]=QT=ASS
[Subject] [Honorific verb]
(Intended meaning) ‘That teacher does not have any money.’ [El: 120924]
- d. *ar-* (core argument is inanimate)

an sinsjeija kanija ati
a-n *sinsjei=ja* *kani=ja* *ar-ti moor-an=ccji=doo*
 [DIST-ADNZ teacher]=TOP money=TOP exist-SEQ
 [Subject] [Honorific verb]
 moorancjidoo.

 [HON-NEG]=QT=ASS

‘That teacher does not have any money.’ [EL: 120924]

In (35a), the subject of the clause is *sinsjei* ‘teacher,’ which is clear from the unacceptability of (35b). The difference between (35a) and (35b) is only on the subjects of the clauses (see also Chapter 3). On the contrary, the difference between (35a) and (8-35c) is only on the core arguments immediately preceding the predicates, i.e. *jiii* ‘brother’ and *kani* ‘money.’ As mentioned before, the core argument of *umoor-* (exist.HON) must indicate an animate referent. Thus, (35c) is ungrammatical since the core argument, i.e. *kani* ‘money,’ is inanimate. If we replace *umoor-* (exist.HON) in (35c) with *ar-ti moor-* (exist-SEQ HON), which is a honorific expression of *ar-* ‘exist’ (see §??), as in (35d), the sentence can be grammatical, since *ar-* ‘exist’ may take an inanimate core argument. These examples show that the core argument of the existential verbs is sometimes different from the subject.

3.3.3 Copula verbs

Syntactically, the copula verb in Yuwan fills the predecate phrase together with an NP, and makes a nominal predicate (see §?? for more details). Yuwan has four copula verbs, i.e. *jar-*, *zjar-*, *nar-* and *ar-*, and they correlate with the polarity of the predicates in principle.

jar-, *zjar-*, and *nar-* appear only in affirmative, and *ar-* appears basically in negative. Syntactically, the copula verbs always follow an NP, but there is a case where *ar-* (cop) can appear only by itself (see §?? for more details). Basically, the NP followed by *ar-* (cop) in the predicate phrase takes *ja* (TOP) in the main clause. However, there are some cases where the NP preceding *ar-* (cop) takes the nominative case in a subordinate clause (see §?? for more details).

If the copula does not take any negative affix, one of the copula verbs, i.e. *jar-*, *zjar-*, or *nar-* is chosen. Among them, *jar-* (cop) is most productive, i.e., it can be followed by many kinds of verbal affixes. Interestingly, the copula verbs can take particular inflectional affixes directly, and the distinction between Group-I

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affixes and Group-II affixes in §?? is neutralized here. I will present the verbal affixes that can directly follow the copula roots in Table 1.21. “+” indicates the copula roots can be followed by the right-most verbal affixes.

Table 3.21: The possible combinations of the copula roots and verbal affixes

Copula roots	Verbal affixes
<i>jar- ar- nar- zjar-</i> Finite-form affixes	
+ <i>-tar</i> (PST)	
+ <i>-oo</i> (SUPP)	
+ <i>-u</i> (PFC)	
+ <i>-azii</i> (NEG.PLQ)	
<i>jar- ar- nar- zjar-</i> Participial affixes	
+ + <i>-n</i> (PTCP)	
+ <i>-an</i> (NEG)	
<i>jar- ar- nar- zjar-</i> Converbial affixes	
+ + + <i>-ti</i> (SEQ)	
+ <i>-tai</i> (LST)	
+ <i>-ba</i> (CSL)	
+ <i>-boo</i> (CND)	
+ + <i>-sa</i> (POL)	
+ + <i>-siga</i> (POL)	
<i>jar- ar- nar- zjar-</i> Derivational affix	
+ <i>-təər</i> (RSL)	

The above table shows the following facts: (a) *jar-* (COP) can precede every verbal affix in Table 1.21, with the exception of the negative affixes, i.e. *-an* (NEG) and *-azii* (NEG.PLQ), and *-u* (PFC); (b) the negative affixes always take *ar-* (COP); (c) *nar-* takes only *-ti* (SEQ). In Table 1.21, the environments where *zjar-* (COP) appears are very restricted. However, it does not mean that *zjar-* (COP) is hardly used in Yuwan. In fact, *zjar-* (COP) often appears in other environments, where the nominal predicate is followed by the particles *jaa* (SOL) or *ga* (CFM3), or without any affix nor particle (see §??).

The following subsections will discuss each copula verbal root: *jar-* (COP) in §??, *zjar-* (COP) in §??, and *ar-* (COP) in §?? The three copula verbal roots *nar-* (COP), *jar-* (COP), and *ar-* (COP) can take *-ti* (SEQ), and the differences among them are discussed in §?? Additionally, *zjar-* (COP) can take the same affixes as *jar-* (COP), the detail of which will be discussed in §??

3.3.3.1 *jar-* (COP)

All of the combinations of *jar-* (COP) and verbal inflectional affixes are shown below, with the exception of the cases discussed in §?? and §??

- (36) a. *-tar* (PST)
 [Context: Speaking about acquaintances of TM and MS; TM: ‘Muha is as old as those people, and...’]
murudusi jata.
murudusi jar-tar
 very friend COP-PST
 ‘(They) were very (good) friends.’ [Co: 120415_00.txt]
- b. *-oo* (SUPP)
ukka cugəə, mata, (maga,) maga jaroo.
u-ri=ga cugi=ja mata maga maga jar-oo
 MES-NLZ=GEN next=TOP again grandchild grandchild COP-SUPP
 ‘About the next (scene) after that, again, probably (it is) a grandchild.’
 [PF: 090827_02.txt]
- c. *-tai* (LST)
gan sji jatai,
ga-n sir-ti jar-tai
 MES-ADVZ do-SEQ COP-LST
 ‘(It) is like that, and ...’ [El: 120921]
- d. *-ba* (CSL)
tawuja tawu jappa.
tawu=ja tawu jar-ba
 plain=TOP plain COP-CSL
 ‘The plain is (actually) plain, so ...’ [PF: 090222_00.txt]
- e. *-boo* (CND)
 [Context: TM remembered a story that her acquaintance told in the speech contest spoken in the dialects in Amami before.]
uri jappoo, cjoo ukkarajo.
u-ri jar-boo cjoo u-ri=kara=joo
 MES-NLZ COP-CND just MES-NLZ=ABL=CFM1
 ‘If (it) is that [i.e. If I tell the story remembering his talk], (it begins) just from that (scene).’ [Fo: 090307_00.txt]

Additionally, *jar-* (COP) can take the derivational affix *-təər* (RSL). The combination *jar-* (COP) and *-təər* (RSL) can take either *-i* (NPST) or *-tu* (CSL) as in (37).

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(37) -təər (RSL)

- a. an gazimarunu appoo, naa, hunttoo, naa,
 a-n gazimaru=nu ar-boo naa hunttoo naa
 DIST-ADNZ banyan.tree=NOM exist-CND FIL real FIL
 urikusa, naa, |nippon.ici| jatəijoo.
 u-ri=kusa naa nippon+ici jar-təər-i=joo
 MES-NLZ=just FIL Japan+one COP-RSL-NPST=CFM1
 ‘If that banyan tree existed, it would be number one in Japan.’ [Co:
 11113_02.txt]
- b. uziitu waakjaa anmaatu, ...
 uzii=tu waakja-a anmaa=tu mukasi+uta=nkja
 grandfather=COM 1PL-ADNZ mother=COM past+song=APPR
 mukasiutankja nunkuin zjoozi jatəttujaa.
 nuu=n=kui=n zjoozi jar-təər-tu=jaa
 what=any=INDF=any good.at COP-RSL-CSL=SOL
 ‘(ms’s) grandfather and my mother were good at everything.’ [Co:
 11113_02.txt]

The other combinations made from *jar-* (COP) with other affixes are shown in §?? and §??

3.3.3.2 *zjar-* (COP)

zjar- (COP) may appear when the nominal predicate is followed by nothing as in (38a). On the other hand, *zjar-* (COP) always appears when the nominal predicate is followed by *jaa* (SOL) or *ga* (CFM3) in the non-past tense and in affirmative as in (38b-c) (see §?? for more details).

- (38) a. Followed by nothing
 kuri jamatuhuui zja.
 ku-ri jamatu+huu-i zjar
 PROX-NLZ mainland.Japan+see.off-INF COP
 ‘This is (the scene of) seeing off (the people who go to) mainland Japan.’ [Co: 11113_01.txt]
- b. Followed by *jaa* (SOL)
 kurəə (eee) sjenzjen ucisjən mun zjajaa.
 ku-ri=ja sjenzjen ucis-təər-n mun zjar=jaa
 PROX-NLZ=TOP before.war take-RSL-PTCP thing COP=SOL
 ‘This is the thing [i.e. the picture] taken before the war.’ [Co:

111113_02.txt]

- c. Followed by
- ga*
- (CFM3) [= (??a)]

umanuhazi zjaga.

u-ma=nu=hazi *zjar=ga*

MES-place=GEN=certainty COP=CFM3

‘(The place you are speaking of) must be there.’ [Co: 111113_01.txt]

These examples show that if *zjar-* (COP) is followed by particles, it does not take any affix. In other words, *zjar-* (COP) behaves like a particle by itself (not like a verb taking an inflectional affix). Actually, the stem-final //r// of *zjar-* (COP) appears only when it is followed by *-sa* (POL) (or *-siga* (POL)) as in (45b) in §??, where the assimilation from //r// to /s/ occurs. The stem-final //r// had been deduced from the following two facts: REFEX:key:1 other copula verbs, especially, *jar-* (COP) and *ar-* (COP), have the stem-final //r//, which appears even in the surface forms, e.g. /jaroo/ *jar-oo* (COP-SUPP) as in (36b) in §?? or /aran/ *ar-an* (COP-NEG) as in (39a) in §??; (??) the most productive verbal stem-final morphophoneme is //r// in Yuwan. In fact, *zjar-* (COP) seems to be in the process of grammaticalization to become a particle. Interestingly, the younger generation (in their sixties in 2013) use the same copula form *zjar-* in any case in the non-past tense, e.g. /zjappoo/ *zjab-boo* (COP-CND) (not /jappoo/ as in the older generation).

3.3.3.3 *ar-* (COP)

ar- (COP) usually takes one of the negative affixes, i.e. *-an* (NEG) or *-azii* (NEG.PLQ) as in (39a-c), with the exception of the cases where *ar-* (COP) takes *-u=i* (PFC=PLQ) as in (39d) or *-ti* (SEQ) in AVC (see §??).

- (39)
- an*
- (NEG)

- a. kurəə (an ..) kazumataaja aranna?

ku-ri=ja *a-n* *kazuma-taa=ja* *ar-an=na*

PROX-NLZ=TOP DIST-ADNZ Kazuma-PL=TOP COP-NEG=PLQ

‘Isn’t this [i.e. the scene in the picture] (about) Kazuma and his friends?’ [Co: 120415_00.txt]

- b. jakubaja arannən, xxx

jakuba=ja *ar-an-nən* *kendoo=daroo*

village.office=TOP COP-NEG-SEQ prefectural.road=SUPP

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|kendoo|daroo.

‘(It) is not the village office, but (it is) the prefectural road.’ [Co: 120415_00.txt]

-azii (NEG.PLQ)

- c. kurəə hakaja arazii?
ku-ri=ja haka=ja ar-azii
 PROX-NLZ=TOP tomb=TOP COP-NEG.PLQ

‘Isn’t this a tomb?’ [Co: 120415_01.txt]

-u=i (PFC=PLQ)

- d. arəə akiradu arui?
a-ri=ja akira=du ar-u=i
 DIST-NLZ=TOP Akira=FOC COP-PFC=PLQ

‘Is that person Akira?’ [El: 130822]

In principle, the copula verbs need a preceding NP in order to fill in the nominal predicate phrases (see §??). However, the copula form *ar-an* (COP-NEG) can be uttered only by itself as in (40).

(40) Independent use of *ar-an* (COP-NEG)

[Context: Conversation between MY and TM]

miiciɖu cigajurooga?
miici=du cigaw-jur-oo=ga
 three.thing=FOC different-UMRK-SUPP=CFM3

‘Probably, (you) are three years younger (than she)?’

aran.

ar-an

COP-NEG

‘No.’ [Co: 110328_00.txt]

In (40), MY asked TM if TM was three years younger than US, and TM answered negatively. This example shows that *ar-an* (COP-NEG) can be used only by itself as a negative reply to a polar question.

Furthermore, *ar-an* (COP-NEG) can relativize its subject without any predicative NP as in (41).

- (41) wanga kiejuncji umutidu, urattəə gan
 wan=ga kik-tur-n=ccji umuw-ti=du urattəə ga-n
 1SG=NOM hear-PROG-PTCP=QT think-SEQ=FOC 2.NHON.DU MES-ADNZ
 sjan aran hanasi sjarooagai?
 sir-tar-n {[ar-an]_{Adnominal clause} hanasi_{NP}} sir-tar-oo=ga=i
 do-PST-PTCP COP-NEG tale do-PST-SUPP=CFM4=PLQ
 ‘Probably you told the unlikely tale like that since (you) thought that I
 was listening to (that), didn’t you?’ [Fo: 090307_00.txt]

In (41), the head of the NP, i.e. *hanasi* ‘tale,’ is modified by the adnominal clause that is only filled by a copula verb *ar-an* (COP-NEG), which means ‘unlikely’ in this example. The literal translation of the NP is ‘a tale not being,’ where the so-called “copula complement” cannot be recovered. In other words, *ar-an* (COP-NEG) in this example means ‘unlikely’ only by itself. The preceding words, i.e. /gan sjan/ *ga-n sir-tar-n* (MES-ADNZ do-PST-PTCP) ‘like that,’ are not the copula complement of *ar-an* (COP-NEG); in fact, they form another adnominal clause that modifies the following NP.

3.3.3.4 -ti (SEQ) with *nar-* (COP), *ar-* (COP), and *jar-* (COP)

It should be noted that *-ti* (SEQ) can be preceded by three types of copula roots, i.e. *nar-* (COP), *ar-* (COP), and *jar-* (COP).

First, *nar-* (COP) plus *-ti* (SEQ) expresses the reason.⁶

- (42) *nar-* (COP) + *-ti* (SEQ)
- a. naacibaa nati, ucizjasiga dikiranba.
 naacibaa nar-ti ut-i+izjas-i=ga dikir-an-ba
 tone.deafness COP-SEQ hit-INF+put.out-INF=NOM able.to.do-NEG-CSL
 ‘(I) am tone deaf, so (I) am not able to start hitting (the hand drums in singing and dancing with the traditional songs).’ [Co: 111113_01.txt]
- b. [= (??c)]
 jusiga siki natijoo,
 jusir-Ø=ga siki nar-ti=joo
 teach-INF=NOM fond COP-SEQ=CFM1
 ‘(My mother) was fond of teaching, so (everyone came to learn the traditional songs from my mother).’ [Co: 111113_02.txt]

⁶This remark owes to the grammar sketch of Kamikatetsu (Northern Ryukyuan) (Shirata et al. 2011: 146).

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In (42a), *naacibaa* ‘a tone deaf’ and *nar-* (COP) express that the speaker is a member of the people who are tone deaf, and with *-ti* (SEQ) they express the reason for the speaker’s incapability of hitting drums in singing. In (42b), *siki* ‘fond’ and *nar-* (COP) express that the speaker’s mother was fond of teaching, and with *-ti* (SEQ) they express the reason why everyone came to her place.

Second, although *ar-* (COP) is used with negative affixes in principle (see §??), there is a case where *ar-* (COP) appears in another environment, i.e. the auxiliary verb constructoin (see also §??).

(43) *ar-* (COP) + *-ti* (SEQ) in AVC

- a. |niizimasanto otoosan|taaga |kjoodai| ati
niizima-san=to otoosan-taa=ga kjoodai ar-ti
 Niijima-HON=COM father-PL=NOM brother [COP-SEQ
 [Lex. verb Aux. verb]_{VP}
 moojukkai?
moor-jur=kai
 HON-UMRK]=DUB

‘Are Mr. Niijima and (the author’s) father brothers?’ [Co:
 110328_00.txt]

- b. an c[?]joo sinsjei ati moojunnja?
a-n c[?]ju=ja sinsjei ar-ti moor-jur-i=na
 DIST-ADNZ person=TOP teacher [COP-SEQ HON-UMRK-NPST]=PLQ
 [Lex. verb Aux. verb]_{VP}
 ‘Is that person a teacher?’ [El: 130820]

The above examples show that the copula *ar-* (COP) is always followed by *-ti* (SEQ) when it fills the lexical verb slot in the AVC.

Finally, *jar-* (SEQ) is also followed by *-ti* (SEQ). In the non-sentence-final position, *jar-* (COP) plus *-ti* (SEQ) is always followed by *n* ‘even’ as in (44a) showing the meaning such as ‘even if’ (see also §??). In the sentence-final position, *jar-* (COP) plus *-ti* (SEQ) expresses both of the past tense and the lack of perceived certainty as in (44b-c) (see also §?? about insubordination).

(44) *jar-* (COP) + *-ti* (SEQ)

Non-sentence-final position

- a. |reitou|nansæka ucjukuboo, iciigadi jatin,
reitou=nan=sæka uk-tuk-boo ici=gadi jar-ti=n
 freezer=LOC1=just put-PFV-CND when=LMT COP-SEQ=even
 ucjukarii.
uk-tuk-arir-i
 put-PRPR-CAP-NPST
 ‘If (you) put (the pickles) in the freezer, you can keep (them) no
 matter how long (the period of preservation) was.’ [Co: 101023_01.txt]
 Sentence-final position
- b. tukunusimac^ʔju jatikai?
tukunusima+c^ʔju jar-ti=kai
 Tokunoshima+person COP-SEQ=DUB
 ‘Is (that person) from Tokunoshima island?’ [Co: 120415_01.txt]
- c. an c^ʔjoo taru jatiga?
a-n c^ʔju=ja ta-ru jar-ti=ga
 DIST-ADNZ person=TOP who-NLZ COP-SEQ=FOC
 ‘Who was that person?’ [El: 110327]

3.3.3.5 Environments where both of *zjar-* (COP) and *jar-* (COP) are used

Both of *zjar-* (COP) and *jar-* (COP) may take *-sa* (POL) and *-siga* (POL). So far, I have not found any difference between them. I present examples of *-sa* (POL).

(45) *-sa* (POL)

- a. an c^ʔjoo akira jassa.
a-n c^ʔju=ja akira jar-sa
 DIST-ADNZ person=TOP Akira COP-POL
 ‘That person is Akira.’ [El: 120921]
- b. an c^ʔjoo akira zjassa.
a-n c^ʔju=ja akira zjar-sa
 DIST-ADNZ person=TOP Akira COP-POL
 ‘That person is Akira.’ [El: 120921]

Both of *jar-* (COP) and *zjar-* (COP) can take the participial affix *-n* (PTCP), but the environments where they appear are different from each other. Before *mun* (ADVRS), *jar-n* (COP-PTCP) is chosen, and before *kara* (CSL), *zja-n* (COP-PTCP) is chosen as in the following examples.

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- (46) a. *takenna* *cjoo tabukuruccji an* *bun janmun.*
taken=ja *cjoo tabukuru=ccji a-n* *bun jar-n=mun*
 Taken=TOP just rice.field=QT DIST-ADNZ share COP-PTCP=ADVRS
 ‘(Speaking of) rice fields, Taken has [lit. is] just such a share.’ [Co: 111113_02.txt]
- b. *ujankjaga* *izjasi* *zjankara,* *nusinkjoo*
uja=nkja=ga *izjas-i* *zjar-n=kara* *nusi=nkja=ja*
 parent=APPR=NOM put.out-INF COP-PTCP=CSL RFL=APPR=TOP
sijanbajaa.
sij-an-ba=jaa
 know-NEG-CSL=SOL
 ‘Parents pay (the tuition fee), so (pupils) themselves do not know (the amount).’ [Co: 120415_00.txt]

The speaker TM said that the expression of the latter, i.e. /*zjankara*/ *zjar-n=kara* (COP-PTCP=CSL) can be replaced by /*nati*/ *nar-ti* (COP-SEQ) in §?? The copular participles are restricted in the cases where conjunctive particles follow them as in (46a-b). There is no case where nominal predicates fill the modifier slot of an NP in the non-past tense and the affirmative polarity (see §?? for more details).

3.3.4 Stative verbs

Syntactically, the stative verb in Yuwan fills the predecate phrase together with an adjective, and makes an adjectival predicate phrase (see §?? for more details). Yuwan has two stative verbs, i.e. *ar-* and *nə-*. The former, i.e. *ar-* (STV), appears in affirmative with the exception of the cases of AvC. The latter, i.e. *nə-* (STV), appears only in negative.

3.3.4.1 *ar-* (STV)

If the polarity of the predicate is affirmative, *ar-* (STV) may appear after the adjective inflected with *-sa* (ADJ).

- (47) Affirmative polarity
- a. *cjaa.* *uninna* *zjanasa* *atattujaa.*
cjaa *unin=ja* *zjana-sa* *ar-tar-tu=jaa*
 that.is.right that.time=TOP many-ADJ STV-PST-CSL=SOL
 ‘That’s right. At that time there were many (students) [lit. (the students) were many].’ [Co: 110328_00.txt]

- b. *urəə* *jiccja* *aroogai?*
u-ri=ja *jiccj-sa* *ar-oo=ga=i*
 MES-NLZ=TOP good-ADJ STV-SUPP=CFM3=PLQ
 ‘That is good (, isn’t it)?’ [El: 130820]

In (47a), the stative verb *ar-* makes an adjectival predicate together with the preceding adjective *zjana-sa* (many-ADJ). In (47b), the stative verb *ar-* makes an adjectival predicate together with the preceding adjective */jiccja/ jiccj-sa* (good-ADJ).

The stative verb *ar-* undergoes contraction with the preceding adjectival inflectional affix *-sa* when the stative verb takes *-i* (NPST) or *-n* (PTCP). For example, *jiccj-sa* (good-ADJ) + *ar-i* (STV-NPST) > */jiccjai/* (not **/jiccjaai/*) ‘good’ (see §?? for more details).

As mentioned above, *ar-* (STV) basically appears in affirmative. However, there is a case where *ar-* (STV) can appear in negative. If the stative verb fills the lexical verb slot in the auxiliary verb construction (see §??), the stative verb is always *ar-* (STV) (not *nə-*).

- (48) *ar-* (STV) in *avC*

an	c ^o joo	dujasoo ati	mooran.jaa.	[Lex.
<i>a-n</i>	<i>c^oju=ja</i>	<i>duja-soo ar-ti moor-an=jaa</i>		

 DIST-ADNZ person=TOP rich-ADJ [STV-SEQ HON-NEG]=SOL
 verb Aux. verb]_{VP}
 ‘That person is not rich, you know.’ [El: 130820]

In the auxiliary verb construction where the auxiliary verb is the honorific verb *moor-* (HON), the stative verb is always *ar-*, even though the predicate is in negative as in (48).

3.3.4.2 *nə-* (STV)

If the stative verb is followed by one of the negative affixes, i.e. *-an* (NEG) or *-azii* (NEG.PLQ), the stative verb is always *nə-*. They go through reduction or assimilation like */nə-n/ nə-an* (STV-NEG) or */nə-əzii/ nə-azii* (STV-NEG.PLQ). The adjective that precedes *nə-* (STV) always inflects with *-soo* (ADJ).

- (49) Negative polarity

- a. *-an* (NEG)

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[Context: Talking about the wooden beams of ms's house; MS: '(The wooden beams of my house) haven't become so black as those (of your house), you know.'] = (??b)

k'urusoo nəndarooga.

k'uru-soo nə-an=daroo=ga

black-ADJ STV-NEG=SUPP=CFM3

'(Those) are not black, right?' [Co: 111113_01.txt]

- b. nə- (STV) + -azii (NEG.PLQ)

an kasoo k'urusoo nəəzii?

a-n kasa=ja k'uru-soo nə-azii

DIST-ADNZ hat=TOP black-ADJ STV-NEG.PLQ

'Isn't that hat black?' [El: 111118]

3.3.5 Comparison among the existential verbs, copula verbs, and stative verbs ("ECS verbs")

In the above sections, we have discussed the differences among the three verbal stems, i.e. the existential verb, the copula verb, and the stative verb (henceforth, "ECS verbs"). The existential verb is sensitive to the animacy of the core argument, but the others are not. Moreover, the copula verb is likely to use *ar-* in negative. In contrast, the stative verb is likely to use *ar-* in affirmative (see also Table 1.17).

Moreover, they fill different kinds of predicate phrases. The existential verb fills the verbal predicate phrase, the copula verb fills the nominal predicate phrase, and the stative verb fills the adjectival predicate phrase (see Chapter 9 for more details). Thus, these ECS verbs are different from one another. There are, however, a few similarities among them: (A) they can directly precede Group-II affixes; (B) they choose the form /ar-/ in AvC.

First, in (3b) in §??, we have discussed a certain group of inflectional affixes, i.e. Group-II affixes, which cannot directly follow any verbal root. However, ECS verbs can directly precede Group-II affixes. For example, *-i* (NPST) and *-oo* (SUPP) are members of Group-II affixes, but they can follow the existential verbs directly.

(50) Existential verbs + Group-II affixes

- a. wur- 'exist (animate)' + -i (NPST)

[Context: Talking about an acquaintance; 'Has she passed away?']

aran. namoo umanan wui.

ar-an nama=ja u-ma=nan wur-i

COP-NEG NOW=TOP MES-place=LOC1 exist-NPST

'No. (She) is there now.' [Co: 110328_00.txt]

b. *ar-* ‘exist (inanimate)’ + *-oo* (SUPP)

an, namanu |jakkjoku|nu aroogai?

a-n nama=nu jakkjoku=nu ar-oo=ga=i

DIST-ADNZ now=GEN pharmacy=NOM exist-SUPP=CFM3=PLQ

‘That (pharmacy), (i.e.) the pharmacy (that exists there) now probably (still) exists, right?’ [Co: 11113_01.txt]

In (50a), *wur-* ‘exist’ directly precedes *-i* (NPST). In (50b), *ar-* ‘exist’ directly precedes *-oo* (SUPP). It should be noted that *-oo* (SUPP) has the same form with *-oo* (INT). They can usually be distinguished by their morphological environments, since the former belongs to Group-II affixes, and the latter belongs to Group-I affixes, and Group-I affixes can follow verbal roots directly. However, the existential verb *wur-* ‘exist’ can take Group-II affixes directly. Thus, we cannot distinguish them by their morphological environments. The following examples show this case.

(51) a. *wur-* ‘exist’ + *-oo* (SUPP)

[Context: Talking about TM’s daughter in law]

jaanan wuroojo.

jaa=nan wur-oo=joo

house=LOC1 exist-SUPP=CFM1

‘(She) may be in the house.’ [Co: 120415_01.txt]

b. *wur-* ‘exist’ + *-oo* (INT)

wanna kumanan |ittoki| wuroojəə.

wan=ja ku-ma=nan ittoki wur-oo=jəə

1SG=TOP PROX-place=LOC1 for.a.while exist-INT=CFM2

‘I will be here for a while.’ [El: 120919]

In (51a-b), we can distinguish *-oo* (SUPP) from *-oo* (INT) only by the contexts. In contrast with *wur-* ‘exist,’ another existential verb *ar-* ‘exist’ cannot take animate subjects. Thus, it is difficult for *ar-* ‘exist’ to take *-oo* (INT), since *-oo* (INT) expresses the subject’s intention (see §??). The example where the copula verb takes the Group II affix *-oo* (SUPP) was shown in (36b) in §?? An example where the stative verb takes *-oo* (SUPP) was shown in (47b) in §??

Secondly, ECS verbs choose the form /*ar-*/ among their variant morphemes when they fill the lexical verb slot in the auxiliary verb construction (“AVC”), although there is the exception *wur-* ‘exist.’ This behavior can be summarized as in Table 1.22.

Table 3.22: ECS verbs in the lexical verb slot in AvC

Core NPs	Animate	Inanimate
Existential verbs	<i>wur-</i>	<i>ar-</i>
Copula verbs	<i>ar-</i>	
Stative verbs	<i>ar-</i>	

Compare Table 1.22 with Table 1.17. We can notice that the form /ar-/ dominates over the other forms. The example of the existential verb in AvC was shown in (33) in §?? The example of the copula verb in AvC was shown in (43) in §?? The example of the stative verb in AvC was shown in (48) in §??

3.4 Inflectional morphology

We have discussed the criteria of verbal inflectional affixes in (9) in §?? Verbal inflectional affixes can be classified in three ways. By the morphophonological criteria, the verbal affixes can be separated into four groups (Type-A to Type-D affixes) as in Table 1.2 in §?? By the morphological criteria, the verbal inflectional affixes can be separated into two groups (Group-I and Group-II affixes) as in (3) in §?? In this section, the verbal inflectional affixes will be separated into four groups: the finite-form affix, the participial affix, the converbal affix, and the infinitival affix. The verb forms that take these affixes will be called finite forms, participles, converbs, and infinitives respectively. These groups will be called “inflectional categories” in this grammar.

The inflectional categories are determined by two types of criteria. The main criterion is syntactic, and the secondary criterion is morphosyntactic. First, we can divide the inflectional categories according to their “external syntax” (Haspelmath 1996), i.e. their behavior in a phrase or their behavior toward the main clause. If a verb form can behave like an adnominal in an NP, it is called participle. If a verb form can behave like an adverb (without any particle) toward the predicate of the main clause, it is called a converb (Haspelmath 1995). If a verb form can behave like a nominal toward the predicate of the main clause, it is called an infinitive. The remaining verbal forms are called “finite forms” in this grammar. These verbal forms can fill the predicate slot of a clause (see also §?? about the clause structure in Yuwan). In other words, they behave as the verb in their “internal syntax” (Haspelmath 1996) in respect of retaining, if partly, the original argument structures. That is the reason why they are categorized as verbs.

Table 3.23: Inflectional categories (with the main criteria)

Inflectional categories	External syntax
Finite form	N/A
Participle	Adnominal
Converb	Adverb
Infinitive	Nominal

The degree of retention of the internal syntax, or “clausehood,” is not the same among the above inflectional categories. All of the finite forms and participles can have their own subjects. Many of the converbs can have their own subjects, but *-tai* (LST) and *-jagacinaa* (SIM) cannot, and their subjects always coincide with those of the main clauses. Similarly, the infinitives cannot take their own subjects when they fill the predicate slot of the main clause, or fill the complement slot of the light verb construction (see §??). Regarding arguments other than subjects, all of the verbs in the above inflectional categories can take their own ones.

Secondly, the subsidiary criteria for the inflectional categories are morphosyntactic ones, which are composed of the morphological defectiveness and syntactic autonomy of the verbal form. These criteria have something to do with the term “finiteness” (cf. Nikolaeva2007: 1). However, there is not a clear-cut boundary between “finite” and “non-finite” in Yuwan. For example, converbs, which would be “non-finite forms,” can terminate a sentence (i.e. “insubordination” in §??). Furthermore, the participle usually modifies the head nominal in an NP, but it can also terminate a sentence in a focus construction (see “Kakari-musubi” in §??), and can head an adverbial clause with some conjunctive particles (see §??). Therefore, we do not propose “finite” vs. “non-finite” distinction in this grammar, and we will use the following criteria only for the distinction of the four inflectional categories. The selective criteria are as follows: (A) the word form can include the past affix *-tar*; (B) the word form can include the negative affix *-an*; (C) the verbal form can only fill the predicate of a main clause.

Considering the difficulty to determine the “finiteness” by the subsidiary criteria in Table 1.24, we will give the priority to the criteria of the external syntax shown in Table 1.23.

As mentioned in §??, *-an* (NEG) and *-tar* (PST) do not necessarily close a word; in other words, they can be in either word-final position or non-word-final position. If they fill the non-word-final position, they are not concerned with the discussion here. However, if they fill the word-final position, the verb forms need to be classified into one of the above inflectional categories.

Table 3.24: Inflectional categories (with the subsidiary criteria)

Inflectional categories	Can include <i>-tar</i> (PST)	Can include <i>-an</i> (NEG)	Can only fill the p
Finite form	+ / - + / - +		
Participle	+ / - + / - -		
Converb	- / (+) + / (-) -		
Infinitive	- - -		

Note:

“+” means that all of the affixes satisfy the criterion;

“+ / (-)” means that almost all of the affixes satisfy the criterion, but that a few affixes do not;

“+ / -” means that some affixes satisfy the criterion, but that the other affixes do not;

“- / (+)” means that almost all of the affixes do not satisfy the criterion, but that a few affixes do;

“-” means that no affixes satisfy the criterion.

Table 3.25: . Inflectional categories and affixes

Inflectional categories	All examples
Finite-form affixes	-oo (INT), -oo (SUPP), -i (IMP),
-i (NPST), -mi (PLQ), -u (PFC), -sa (POL), -siga (POL), -tar (PST)	
Participial affixes	-n (PTCP), -an (NEG)
Converbal affixes	-ba (CSL), -tu (CSL), -too (CSL),
Infinitival affixes	-i/-Ø (INF)

First, the verb form ending with *-an* (NEG) cannot include *-tar* (PST) within itself (but the verb form ending with *-tar* can include *-an*, see §??) and can fill not only the predicate of a main clause but also that of an adnominal clause. Thus, *-an* (NEG) cannot be classified into the finite forms by the subsidiary criteria in Table 1.24. I will propose that the verb form ending with *-an* (NEG) is a participle, and that the *-an* (NEG) itself is a participial affix in the word-final environment.

Secondly, the verb form ending with *-tar* (PST) can include itself. It can also include *-an* (NEG), and can only fill the predicate of a main clause. Thus, we can regard the verb form ending with *-tar* (PST) as a finite form, and also can regard *-tar* (PST) as a finite-form affix in the word-final environment.

In the following sections, I will present examples of each inflectional category: the finite form (see §??), the participle (see §??), the converb (see §??), and the

infinitive (see §??). Additionally, the possible combination of the inflectional affixes and the derivational (and non-word-final inflectional) affixes will be shown together in those sections. The lists composed of 17 types of verbal stems (see §??) and the inflectional affixes (excluding the Group-II affixes) are shown in appendix.

3.4.1 Finite form

The finite form is a verbal form that ends with the finite-form affixes in (52). The finite forms can fill only the predicate slot of a main clause. The finite-form affixes can be separated further by their functions.

(52) Finite-form affixes

- a. Tense
-i (NPST) and -tar (PST)
- b. Mood
-oo (INT) and -oo (SUPP)
- c. Politeness
-sa (POL) and -siga (POL)
- d. Speech act (Question)
-mi (PLQ) and -azii (NEG.PLQ)
- e. Speech act (Command)
-i (IMP), -na (PROH), and -iba (SUGS)
- f. Information structure
-u (PFC)

As mentioned in §??, the finite-form affixes can be separated into two groups, i.e. Group-I affixes or Group-II affixes. Therefore, the finite-form affixes that belong to Group-II affixes, i.e. -i (NPST), -oo (SUPP), -mi (PLQ), -sa (POL), -siga (POL), and -u (PFC), cannot directly follow the verbal roots (with the exception of ECS verbs discussed in §??). A complete lists of the possible combinations of 17 types of verbal stems (see §??) and the finite-form affixes will be shown in appendix.

In the following subsections, I will present the contrasts shown in (52) in turn.

3.4.1.1 Tense: -i (NPST) and -tar (PST)

The finite-form affixes -i (NPST) and -tar (PST) can express the tense opposition: non-past vs. past. First, I will present the verbal morphemes that can directly precede -i (NPST). The affixes deleted by double lines cannot directly precede -i (NPST).

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- (53) Verbal morphemes that can directly precede *-i* (NPST) (Finite-form affix; Group II)

Root *-as -arir -tuk -arir -tur -jawur -an -təər -tar -i* (NPST)

CAUS PASS PRPR CAP PROG POL NEG RSL PST

-jur

UMRK

The finite-form affix *-i* (NPST) belongs to Group-II affixes (see §??). Thus, it cannot directly follow any verbal root and always takes one of the affixes in (53) to close the word. I will present an example in (54).

- (54) *-i* (NPST)

[Context: TM and US were talking about the present author.]

|hoogen|nu attakəə wakajui.

hoogen=nu attakəə wakar-jur-i

dialect=NOM everything understand-UMRK-NPST

‘(He) understands everything (about our) dialect.’ [Co: 110328_00.txt]

On the contrary, *-tar* (PST) can directly follow any verbal root as in (55). I will present the verbal morphemes that can directly precede *-tar* (PST) in (55).

- (55) Verbal morphemes that can directly precede *-tar* (PST) (Finite-form affix; Group I)

Root *-as -arir -tuk -arir -tur -jawur -an -təər -tar*

CAUS PASS PRPR CAP PROG POL NEG RSL PST

-jur

UMRK

I will present an example of *-tar* (PST) in (56).

- (56) *-tar* (PST)

nobuarija mjiçji cʰjancji jʰicja.

nobuari=ja mj-ti k-tar-n=ccji jʰ-tar

Nobuari=TOP see-SEQ come-PST-PTCP=QT say-PST

‘Nobuari said that (he) visited (the person).’ [Co: 120415_01.txt]

The above example shows that *-tar* (PST) directly follows the verbal root *jʰ-* ‘say.’

In principle, the affix-final //r// or *-tar* (PST) assimilates to the initial consonant of the Type-D affixes (or clitics) (see §??). However, *-tar* (PST) becomes /ta/ (not /tak/) only before *kai* (DUB) or *kamo* (POS).

- (57) a. *-tar* (PST) before *kai* (DUB)
 cukutəə wutakai?
cukur-ti=ja *wur-tar=kai*
 make-SEQ=TOP PROG-PST=DUB
 ‘Was (anyone) making (cocoons)?’ [Co: 111113_01.txt]
- b. *-tar* (PST) before *kamo* (POS)
 takencʰjungkoo kʰuwasisan cʰjoo
taken+cʰju=nkja=ja *kʰuwasi-sa+ar-n* *cʰju=ja*
 Taken+person=APPR=TOP know.very.well-ADJ+STV-PTCP person=TOP
 wurantakamodoojaa.
wur-an-tar=kamo=doo=jaa
 exist-NEG-PST=POS=ASS=SOL
 ‘(It is) possible (that) there is no person who knows (about that) very
 well among the people in Taken.’ [Co: 111113_01.txt]

It should be mentioned that *-tar* (PST) in the finite-form use cannot appear in the interrogative clause. In that case, *-ti* (SEQ) is used to express the past tense (see §?? for more details). It should be noted that a clause that includes *-tar* (PST) and *kai* (DUB) is permitted as in (57a), since *kai* (DUB) expresses wondering to oneself, which is a peripheral type of the question (i.e. question to oneself) (see also §??). In other words, *-tar* (PST) expresses the speaker’s confidence in the factuality of the event, no matter how weak it is.

3.4.1.2 Mood: *-oo* (INT) and *-oo* (SUPP)

The finite-form affixes *-oo* (INT) and *-oo* (SUPP) express the mood. First, I will present the verbal morphemes that can directly precede *-oo* (INT). The affixes deleted by double lines cannot directly precede the word-final affix.

- (58) Verbal morphemes that can directly precede *-oo* (INT) (Finite-form affix;
 Group I)
 Root *-as -arir -tuk -arir -tur -jawur -an -təər -tar -oo* (INT)
 CAUS PASS PRPR CAP PROG POL NEG RSL PST
-jur
 UMRK

As mentioned before, *-oo* (INT) belongs to Group-I affixes, and it can directly follow the verbal roots as in (59a). It may also follow another verbal affix as in (59b-c).

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(59) -oo (INT)

- a. wanna ikjoojəə.
wan=ja ik-oo=jəə
 1SG=TOP go-INT=CFM2
 ‘I will go.’ [Co: 110328_00.txt]
- b. |onigiri| sji, mutasoojəə.
onigiri sir-ti mut-as-oo=jəə
 rice.ball do-SEQ have-CAUS-INT=CFM2
 ‘(I) will make a rice ball, and get (the present author) to have (it).’ [Co: 101023_01.txt]
- c. kimucjagisanu, wanga kawajəə utaroo.
kimucjagi-sa=nu wan=ga kawajəə ut-ar-oo
 feel.pity-ADJ=CSL 1SG=NOM substitute hit-PASS-INT
 ‘Since (I) feel pity (for you), I will be hit in place (of you).’ [El: 130820]

The example (59c) contains the passive affix *-ar*, and the verb as a whole expresses the intention of the subject (not the agent). In other words, *-oo* (INT) expresses the subject’s (not the agent’s) intention. The subject of the finite-form verb composed of *-oo* (INT) is always the speaker.

Secondly, *-oo* (SUPP) belongs to Group-II affixes. Thus, it cannot follow any verbal root directly.

(60) Verbal morphemes that can directly precede *-oo* (SUPP) (Finite-form affix; Group II)

Root *-as -arir -tuk -arir -tur -jawur -an -təər -tar -oo* (SUPP)
 CAUS PASS PRPR CAP PROG POL NEG RSL PST
-jur
 UMRK

I will present examples of *-oo* (SUPP) in (61a-b).

(61) -oo (SUPP)

- a. namanu, usi sjurooga?
nama=nu usi sir-jur-oo=ga
 now=GEN cow do-UMRK-SUPP=CFM3
 ‘Now (someone) raises cows, doesn’t he?’ [Co: 111113_01.txt]

- b. *nanga* *j'ujaa* *sjutaroo*ga?
nan=ga *j'u+jaa* *sir-jur-tar-oo=ga*
 2.HON.SG=NOM fish+house do-UMRK-PST-SUPP=CFM3
 'You used to run a fish shop, didn't you?' [Co: 110328_00.txt]

Apparently, *-oo* (INT) and *-oo* (SUPP) have the same form. Therefore, there are a few cases, where it is difficult to draw a distinction between the two affixes by their morphological environments, e.g. after "ECS verbs" (see §??) or after the derivational affix *-tur* (PROG) as in (62).

(62) After *-tur* (PROG)

- a. *-oo* (INT)
wanna amananti *juduroo*.
wan=ja a-ma=nanti *jum-tur-oo*
 1SG=TOP DIST-place=LOC2 read-PROG-INT
 'I will be reading (the book) there.' [El: 130820]
- b. *-oo* (SUPP)
akiroo amananti *juduroo*.
akira=ja a-ma=nanti *jum-tur-oo*
 Akira=TOP DIST-place=LOC2 read-PROG-SUPP
 'Probably, Akira is reading (the book) there.' [El: 130820]

In these examples, we can distinguish *-oo* (INT) from *-oo* (SUPP) only by the contexts (e.g. the subjects of the clauses).

3.4.1.3 Politeness: *-sa* (POL) and *-siga* (POL)

The finite-form affixes *-sa* (POL) and *-siga* (POL) are used to express politeness to the hearer. They belong to Group-II affixes, so they cannot directly follow any verbal root. The verbal affixes that can directly precede *-sa* (POL) and *-siga* (POL) are almost the same, but only *-an* (NEG) cannot precede *-sa* (POL) as in (63a). The affixes deleted by double lines cannot directly precede the word-final affix.

- (63) a. Verbal morphemes that can directly precede *-sa* (POL) (Finite-form affix; Group II)
 Root *-as -arir -tuk -arir -tur -jawur -an -təər -tar -sa* (POL)
 CAUS PASS PRPR CAP PROG POL NEG RSL PST
-jur
 UMRK

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- b. Verbal morphemes that can directly precede *-siga* (POL) (Finite-form affix; Group II)

Root *-as -arir -tuk -arir -tur -jawur -an -təər -tar -siga* (POL)

CAUS PASS PRFR CAP PROG POL NEG RSL PST

-jur

UMRK

As mentioned in §??, the old people rarely use the derivational politeness affix *-jawur*. On the contrary, they use the inflectional politeness affix *-sa* or *-siga* as in (64a-c).

(64) *-sa* (POL)

- a. [Context: TM asks MS to make a topic of conversation; TM: 'Please make a topic.']

həntooja sjussa.

həntoo=ja sir-jur-sa

reply=TOP do-UMRK-POL

'(I) will reply (to you).' [Co: 120415_01.txt]

-siga (POL)

- b. *sjemenbukuruja, (ari,) sazikkicroccji jutassiga.*
sjemen+hukuru=ja a-ri sazikkicro=ccji j'-jur-tar-siga
 cement+bag=TOP DIST-NLZ thirty.kilogram=QT say-UMRK-PST-POL

'(People) used to say that a cement bag (weighs) thirty kilograms.'

[Co: 111113_02.txt]

- c. *uraa naa anmai jansiga.*
ura-a naa anmai j'-an-siga

2.NHON.SG-ADNZ name very.much say-NEG-POL

'(The person) does not say your name (as) many times (as before).'

[Co: 120415_01.txt]

-sa (POL) and *-siga* (POL) are functionally very similar to each other. However, there seems to be a difference that only *-siga* (POL) follows *-tar* (PST) such as (6b). There are 27 examples of *-siga* (POL) and eight examples of *-sa* (POL) in my texts, and there are eight examples where *-siga* (POL) follows *-tar* (PST) but no example where *-sa* (POL) follows *-tar* (PST) (although *-sa* (POL) can follow *-tar* (PST) in elicitation).

3.4.1.4 Speech act (Question): *-mi* (PLQ) and *-azii* (NEG.PLQ)

The finite-form affixes *-mi* (PLQ) and *-azii* (NEG.PLQ) express the polar question (i.e. “yes-no question”). First, *-mi* (PLQ) belongs to the Group-II affixes, so it cannot directly follow any verbal root. The affixes deleted by double lines cannot directly precede the word-final affix.

- (65) Verbal morphemes that can directly precede *-mi* (PLQ) (Finite-form affix; Group II)

Root *-as -arir -tuk -arir -tur -jawur -an -təər -tar -mi* (PLQ)

CAUS PASS PRPR CAP PROG POL NEG RSL PST

-jur

UMRK

- (66) *-mi* (PLQ)

- a. Affirmative polarity

waakjaa janti .. kamjumi?

waakja-a jaa=nanti kam-jur-mi

1PL-ADNZ house=LOC1 eat-UMRK-PLQ

‘Do (you) eat in my house?’ [Co: 120415_01.txt]

- b. Negative polarity

uroo kakami?

ura=ja kak-an-mi

2.NHON.SG=TOP write-NEG-PLQ

‘Don’t you write (it)?’ [El: 121012]

-mi (PLQ) can be used both in affirmative and negative. It should be noted that *-an* (NEG) necessarily becomes /a/ when it precedes *-mi* (PLQ) as in (66b), i.e. *-an-mi* (NEG-PLQ) > /a-mi/.

Secondly, the other question finite-form affix *-azii* (NEG.PLQ) cannot be used in affirmative. In other words, *-azii* (NEG.PLQ) always expresses the negative polarity, and it cannot be preceded by *-an* (NEG).

- (67) Verbal morphemes that can directly precede *-azii* (NEG.PLQ) (Finite-form affix; Group I)

Root *-as -arir -tuk -arir -tur -jawur -an -təər -tar -azii* (NEG.PLQ)

CAUS PASS PRPR CAP PROG POL NEG RSL PST

-jur

UMRK

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I will present examples of *-azii* (NEG.PLQ) in (68).

(68) *-azii* (NEG.PLQ)

- a. *nəəzii?*
nə-azii
 exist-NEG.PLQ
 ‘Aren’t (they [i.e. the lamps]) there?’ [Co: 120415_00.txt]
- b. *cicjurazii?*
cik-tur-azii
 attach-PROG-NEG.PLQ
 ‘Isn’t (the outdoor lamp) set (there yet)?’ [Co: 120415_00.txt]
- c. *turazii?*
tur-azii
 take-NEG.PLQ
 ‘Don’t (you) take (it)?’ [El: 110917]

-azii (NEG.PLQ) in (68a-c) express the polar question in negative.

3.4.1.5 Speech act (Command): *-i* (IMP), *-na* (PROH), and *-iba* (SUGS)

The finite-form affixes *-i* (IMP) and *-na* (PROH) express command in a narrow sense, and *-iba* (SUGS) expresses suggestion. The same affixes can precede these finite-form affixes as in (69). The affixes deleted by double lines cannot directly precede the word-final affix.

(69) Verbal morphemes that can directly precede *-i* (IMP), *-na* (PROH), or *-iba* (SUGS)

(Finite-form affixes; Group I)

Root *-as -arir -tuk -arir -tur -jawur -an -təər -tar -i* (IMP)

CAUS PASS PRPR CAP PROG POL NEG RSL PST *-na* (PROH)

-jur -iba (SUGS)

UMRK

These three finite-form affixes cannot be preceded by the negative affix *-an*, which means that the polarity of them cannot be changed by *-an* (NEG). Thus, the finite-form affix that can express the affirmative command is only *-i* (IMP), and the finite-form affix that can express the negative command (i.e. prohibition) is only *-na* (PROH).

The examples of *-i* (IMP) are shown below.

(70) *-i* (IMP)

- a. *kucjæci iriri!*
kuci=kaci irir-i
 mouth=ALL put.in-IMP
 ‘Put (it) in (your) mouth!’ [El: 121010]
- b. *jəito kamijoocjidu jutattujaa.*
jəito kam-i=joo=ccji=du jʔ-jur-tar-tu=jaa
 much eat-IMP=CFM1=QT=FOC say-UMRK-PST-CSL=SOL
 ‘(Old people) used to say that, “Eat very much!”’ [Co: 120415_01.txt]

It should be noted that the verbal roots *k-* ‘come’ and *mukk-* ‘bring’ take another morpheme, i.e. *-oo* (IMP), to express command as in (71a-b).

(71) *-oo* (IMP)

- a. *ari .. koo, koocji,*
a-ri k-oo k-oo=ccji
 DIST-NLZ come-IMP come-IMP=QT
 ‘That person (said) that, “Come, come!”’ [Co: 120415_01.txt]
- b. *mukkoojocji jʔicjanmun,*
mukk-oo=joo=ccji jʔ-tar-n=mun
 bring-IMP=CFM1=QT say-PST-PTCP=ADVR
 ‘(I) said that, “Bring (the tape)!” However, ...’ [Co: 120415_01.txt]

-oo (IMP) in (71a-b) has the same form with *-oo* (INT) discussed in §??

The examples of *-na* (PROH) are shown below.

(72) *-na* (PROH)

- a. *umannja jʔuunajoo.*
u-ma=nan=ja jʔ-na=joo
 MES-place=LOC1=TOP sit-PROH=CFM1
 ‘Don’t sit there!’ [El: 120921]
- b. *uri tiɪ kiɪnnajoocji.*
u-ri tiɪ kiir-na=joo=ccji
 MES-NLZ hand put.on-PROH=CFM1=QT
 ‘(My husband said), “Don’t touch it!”’ [Co: 120415_01.txt]

The finite-form *-iba* (SUGS) expresses suggestion, which is a kind of command in a broad sense, but the imperativeness of *-iba* (SUGS) is much weaker than that of *-i* (IMP).

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(73) *-iba* (SUGS)

kuci muzikijiba.

kuci muzikij-iba

mouth twist-SUGS

‘How about twisting (the child’s) mouth (since he is a naughty boy).’ [El: 120521]

In fact, there are a few examples where the same form /-iba/ is used adverbially (or converbally) as in (74).

(74) Converbial use of /-iba/

a. ura tanmiba, jiccja ata.

ura tanm-iba jiccj-sa ar-tar

2.NHON.SG ask-CND good-ADJ STV-PST

‘If only (I) had asked you (to help teaching the dialect to the present author).’ [lit. ‘If (I) asked you, (it) was good.’] [Co: 11113_02.txt]

b. tubiba, jiccja asigana.

tub-iba jiccj-sa ar-siga=na

jump.into-CND good-ADJ STV-POL=CFM3

‘How about jumping into (the sea)?’ [lit. ‘If you jump into (the sea), (it) is good.’] [El: 110914]

If /-iba/ is used converbally, it always expresses a conditional meaning and is followed by the adjective *jiccj*- ‘good’ as in (74a-b). It is probable that the meaning of suggestion as in (73) is derived (or grammaticalized) from the uses such as (74b), which is an example of the insubordination (see §??). In modern Yuwan, the conditional meaning as in (74a) is usually expressed by another affix, i.e. *-boo* (CND) as in (90c). The uses such as (74a-b) are rare in Yuwan. Thus, I propose that the affix /-iba/ is mainly used as suppositional finite-form affix in modern Yuwan as in (73).

3.4.1.6 Information structure: *-u* (PFC)

The finite-form affix *-u* (PFC) is always preceded by an affix that ends with //r//. The affixes deleted by double lines cannot directly precede *-u* (PFC).

(75) Verbal morphemes that can directly precede *-u* (PFC) (Finite-form affix; Group II)

Root *-as -arir -tuk -arir -tur -jawur -an -təər -tar -u* (PFC)

CAUS PASS PRPR CAP PROG POL NEG RSL PST

-jur

UMRK

The finite-form affix *-u* (PFC) is often used in information questions (so called “wh-questions”) as in (76a-c) or polar questions (so called “yes-no questions”) as in (76d). *-u* (PFC) in the polar question is always followed by the clause-final particle *i* (PLQ), and also there is always *du* (FOC) in the same clause.

(76) *-u* (PFC)

Information question

- a. [Context: TM asked MS where the present author went.] (=5-34 a)

nisəə mata daaciga izjaru?

nisəə mata daa=kaci=ga ik-tar-u

young.man again where=ALL=FOC go-PST-PFC

‘Where did the young man go again?’ [Co: 120415_01.txt]

- b. (kun,) kun cʰjoo (ido..) taa. maga

ku-n ku-n cʰju=ja ido ta-a maga

PROX-ADNZ PROX-ADNZ person=TOP oh who-ADNZ grandchild

jataru?

jar-tar-u

COP-PST-PFC

‘Whose grandchild is this person?’ [Co: 120415_00.txt]

- c. [Context: TM was surprised that US brought a lot of foods to TM’s house.] = (??a)

nunkjabaga mata mucjji moocjaru?

nuu=nkja=ba=ga mata mut-ti moor-tar-u

what=APPR=ACC=FOC again have-SEQ HON-PST-PFC

‘What did (you) bring (here) again?’ [Co: 110328_00.txt]

Polar question

- d. kurəə |maiku|du mucjjuui? kun

ku-ri=ja maiku=du mut-tur-u=i ku-n

PROX-NLZ=TOP microphone=FOC hold-PROG-PFC=PLQ PROX-ADNZ

cʰjoo.

cʰju=ja

person=TOP

‘About this (picture), is this person holding a microphone?’ [Co:

11113_02.txt]

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In elicitation, it is easy to have the speaker utter the verbal form ending with *-u* (PFC) in the question sentence, but it is difficult in the declarative sentence. However, I have found two examples in my texts so far, where the speaker uses the finite form ending with *-u* (PFC) in the declarative sentence as in (77a-b).

(77) Declarative

- a. *utuzjoobasanna un c[?]junu samisjentudu*
utuzjo+obasan=ja u-n c[?]ju=nu samisjen=tu=du
 Utujo+old.woman=TOP MES-ADNZ person=GEN samisen=COM=FOC
utoo (sii..) sirariiru.
uta=ja sir-i sir-arir-u
 song=TOP do-INF do-CAP-PFC
 ‘Utujo can sing a song [lit. do a song] just with that person’s samisen.
 (Otherwise, she cannot sing a song.)’ [Co: 120415_00.txt]
- b. *tacuu|toka|ga juubadu, j[?]ariiru.*
tacuu=toka=ga j[?]-ba=du j[?]-arir-u
 Tatsu=APPR=NOM say-CSL=FOC say-CAP-PFC
 ‘(People) can say (a piece of advice to her), since (it is) Tatsu (who)
 says (it). (Otherwise, no one cannot say a piece of advice to her.)’ [Co:
 101023_01.txt]

In the above examples of the declarative sentence, *-u* (PFC) is preceded by *-arir* (CAP). Additionally, there is an example, where *-u* (PFC) is not preceded by *-arir* (CAP) in spite of being in the declarative sentence as in (78), although this example is from a proverb.

(78) Declarative (in a proverb)

- tuunu ujubəə məəkacidu magajuru. usijoocjəə*
tuu=nu ujubi=ja məə=kaci=du magar-jur-u usiju=kaci=ja
 ten=GEN finger=TOP front=ALL=FOC bend-UMRK-PFC back=ALL=TOP
magarandoo.
magar-an=doo
 bend-NEG=ASS
 ‘Ten fingers (on hands) bend just forward. (They) do not bend backward.’
 [i.e. ‘The members of a family should be close to each other like fingers.’]
 [El: 110328]

There is a possibility that the uses of the finite-verb ending with *-u* (PFC) in the declarative sentences in (77a-b) and (78) have the same characteristic. That

is, these sentences seem to express that the predicate can be valid only with the focused constituents, and that anything other than the focused constituents cannot make the predicate valid. For example, in (77a), the focused constituent *u-n c'ju=nu samisjen=tu=du* (MES-ADNZ person=GEN samisen=COM=FOC) ‘just with that person’s samisen’ make the predicate ‘can sing a song’ valid, and it implies that if the woman was not ‘with that person’s samisen,’ she cannot sing a song. Similar arguments may be applied in (77b) and (78).

In all of the above examples, there are foci in the sentences. The foci were on the interrogative words as in (76a-c), or marked by *ga* (FOC) as in (8-76 a, c) or *du* (FOC) as in (76d), (77a-b), and (78). Thus, *-u* (PFC) expresses that it forms a predicate of the focus construction (see §?? for more details about the focus construction).

3.4.2 Participle (verbal adnominal)

The participle is a verbal form that ends with the participial affixes, i.e. *-n* (PTCP) or *-an* (NEG).

3.4.2.1 *-n* (PTCP)

The participial affix *-n* (PTCP) belongs to Group-II affixes (see §??), i.e., cannot directly follow the verbal roots, and takes one of the affixes in (79). The affixes deleted by double lines cannot directly precede *-n* (PTCP).

- (79) Verbal morphemes that can directly precede *-n* (PTCP) (Participial affix; Group II)

Root *-as -arir -tuk -arir -tur -jawur -an -təər -tar -n* (PTCP)

CAUS PASS PRPR CAP PROG POL NEG RSL PST

-jur

UMRK

The verbal form ending with *-n* (PTCP) usually fills the predicate slot of an adnominal clause as in (80a-b), but it can fill that of a main clause as in (80c) or an adverbial clause as in (80d).

- (80) *-n* (PTCP)

Adnominal clause

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- a. sakkijja (hinzjaa) xxx hinzjaaba
 sakkii=ja hinzjaa [hinzjaa=ba sukk-tur-n]_{Adnominal clause}
 a_short_while_ago goat goat=ACC pull-PROG-PTCP
 succjun c'junu atooradu c'janmun.
 c'ju=nu atu=kara=du k-tar-n=mun
 person=NOM after=ABL=FOC come-PST-PTCP=ADVRS
 'A short while ago, the person who was pulling a goat came
 afterward, but (this time he came beforehand).' [PF: 090827_02.txt]
- b. naa hanasjun taniga nənbijaa.
 naa [hanas-jur-n]_{Adnominal clause} tani=ga nən-an-ba=jaa
 any.more talk-UMRK-PTCP seed=NOM exist-NEG-CSL=SOL
 'There is no seed to talk (about).' [Co: 120415_01.txt]
 Main clause
- c. an saetu ujuribəidu kjun.
 a-n saee=tu ujuri=bəi=du k-jur-n
 DIST-ADNZ Sae=COM Uyuri=only=FOC come-UMRK-PTCP
 'Those (people, i.e.) Sae and Uyuri come (to the meeting for old
 people).' [Co: 120415_01.txt]
 Adverbial clause
- d. wanna honami|cjan| naaja siccjunban,
 [wan=ja honami-cjan naa=ja sij-tur-n=ban]_{Adverbial clause}
 1SG=TOP Honami-DIM name=TOP know-PROG-PTCP=ADVRS
 naakjaa juminu naaja sijandoojaa.
 naakja-a jumi=nu naa=ja sij-an=doo=jaa
 2.HON.PL-ADNZ daughter.in.law=GEN name=TOP know-NEG=ASS=SOL
 'I know the name of Honami, but do not know your daughter in law's
 name.' [Co: 110328_00.txt]

In (80a), the participle /succjun/ *sukk-tur-n* (pull-PROG-PTCP) fills the predicate of the adnominal clause, which modifies *c'ju* 'person.' Similarly, in (80b), the participle /hanasjun/ *hanas-jur-n* (talk-UMRK-PTCP) fills the predicate of the adnominal clause, which modifies *tani* 'topic.' In (80c), the participle /kjun/ *k-jur-n* (come-UMRK-PTCP) fills the predicate of the main clause. When the participle terminates a sentence, there is always the focus marker *du* in the sentence (see aslo §??). In fact, the sentence terminated by the participle that ends with *-n* (PTCP) is not permitted by the speaker in elicitation. However, it appears in the texts several times. This interrelationship between *du* (FOC) and *-n* (PTCP) is similar to that of the focused constituents and *-u* (PFC) in §?? These phenomena are

called *kakari-musubi* (i.e. ‘government-predication’) in Japanese linguistics, and their details will be discussed in §?? In (80d), the participle /siccjun/ *sij-tur-n* (know-PROG-PTCP) is followed by the conjunctive particle *ban* (ADVRS), and fills the predicate of the adverbial clause. It should be noted that there is a saying as in (81), where the function of the participle is not very clear.

(81) Saying

kamjun cikjaradu attoo.
kam-jur-n *cikjara=du ar=doo*
 eat-UMRK-PTCP power=FOC exist=ASS

‘If (you) eat (much), (you will have) power.’ [Co: 120415_01.txt]

In (81), the participle /kamjun/ *kam-jur-n* (eat-UMRK-PTCP) functions like a con-verb meaning ‘if (you) eat (much).’ There is no other expression like (81) in Yuwan, so this saying seems to be a fossilized expression.

3.4.2.2 *-an* (NEG)

The participial affix *-an* (NEG) can directly follow the verbal roots (see §?? for more details).

(82) Verbal morphemes that can directly precede *-an* (NEG) (Participial affix; Group I)

Root *-as -arir -tuk -arir -tur -jawur -an*
 CAUS PASS PRPR CAP PROG POL NEG

In contrast with *-n* (PTCP), the participle composed of *-an* (NEG) usually fills the predicate slot of a main clause as in (83a), but it can fill that of an adnominal clause as in (83b) or an adverbial clause as in (83c-d).

(83) *-an* (NEG)

Main clause

a. kun |sjensjee|ja sijandoo.
ku-n *sjensjee=ja sij-an=doo*
 PROX-ADNZ teacher=TOP know-NEG=ASS

‘(I) don’t know this teacher (in the picture).’ [Co: 120415_00.txt]

Adnominal clause

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- b. k'waga dikiran c'ju nati,
 [k'wa=ga dikir-an]_{Adnominal clause} c'ju nar-ti
 child=NOM be.born-NEG person COP-SEQ
 'Since (the woman) was a person who cannot have a baby, ...' [Co: 120415_00.txt]
 Adverbial clauses
- c. urinkjaba j'icjutiga, warəəcjiɔ,
 u-ri=nkja=ba j-tur-ti=ga waraw-i=ccji=joo
 MES-NLZ=APPR=ACC say-PROG-SEQ=FOC laugh-INF=QT=CFM1
 |nankai|n, ... |hakkiri| j'iikijansjuti.
 nankai=n [hakkiri j'-i+kij-an=sjuti]_{Adverbial clause}
 what.time=even clearly say-INF+CAP-NEG=since
 '(I) laughed saying those things many times, ... since (I) couldn't pronounce (them) clearly.' [Co: 110328_00.txt]
- d. un kawajəəka sijanban, (nasinu
 [u-n kawajəə=ka sij-an=ban]_{Adverbila clause} nasi=nu
 MES-ADNZ instead=DUB know-NEG=ADVRS pear=GEN
 miici,) |sanninzure| jatattu, nasinu miici
 miici sanninzure jar-tar-tu nasi=nu miici
 three.thing three.people COP-PST-CSL pear=GEN three.thing
 murati,
 muraw-ti
 receive-SEQ
 '(I) don't know whether (the boys gave the pears) in return (for) the (help), but (the boys) received three pears, since there were three, and ...' [PF: 090225_00.txt]

In (83a), the participle *sij-an* (know-NEG) fills the predicate of the main clause, where the clause-final particle *do* (Ass) follows it. In (83b), the participle *dikir-an* (be.born-NEG) fills the predicate of the adnominal clause, which modifies *c'ju* 'person.' In (83c), the participle */j'iikijan/ j'-i+kij-an* (say-INF+CAP-NEG) is followed by the conjunctive particle *sjuti* 'since,' and fills the predicate of the adverbial clause. Similarly in (83d), the participle *sij-an* (know-NEG) is followed by the conjunctive particle *ban* (ADVRS), and fills the predicate of the adverbial clause. It should be noted that *-an* (NEG) can also fill the non-word-final position (see §??). In that case, the *-an* (NEG) does not paradigmatically contrast with *-n* (PTCP); in fact, they can co-occur (see §?? for more details).

3.4.3 Converb (verbal adverb)

A converb is a verbal form that ends with a converbal affix in (84). Converbs cannot include the past tense affix *-tar* (with the exceptions of *-tu* (CSL) and *-too* (CSL)). Converbs can fill the verbal predicate slot of an adverbial clause and also a main clause. The converbal affixes can be separated by their functions.

(84) Converbal affixes

- a. Causal
 -ba (CSL), *-tu* (CSL), and *-too* (CSL)
- b. Conditional
 -boo (CND)
- c. Listing
 -tai (LST)
- d. Temporal relation
 -gadi ‘until’, *-jagacinaa* (SIM), and *-təəra* ‘after’
- e. Sequential
 -ti (SEQ)

As mentioned in §??, the converbal affixes can be separated into two groups, i.e. Group-I affixes or Group-II affixes. The converbal affixes *-tu* (CSL) and *-too* (CSL) belong to Group-II affixes, and cannot directly follow any verbal root. It should be mentioned that *-tu* (CSL) and *-too* (CSL) always follow the past tense affix *-tar*, although *-tu* (CSL) can also follow *-təər* (RSL). A complete list of the possible combinations of 17 types of verbal stems (see §??) and the converbal affixes will be shown in appendix. Many of the converbs in (84) can take their own subject different from that of the main (or superordinate) clause, although the two converbs *-tai* (LST) and *-jagacinaa* (SIM) cannot. According to the criteria introduced by Nedjalkov (1995: 98-99), who did a typological overview of the converbs, almost all of the converbs in Yuwan can be grouped into “conjunctive converbs,” which has “(t)he function of the predicate of a subordinate clause” and “can have its own subject (i.e. subject different from the subject of the superordinate verb)” (ibid: 99). However, *-ti* (SEQ) may be categorized as “coordinative converbs,” which has “(t)he function of a secondary or coordinate predicate” and “is similar to the function of the English conjunction *and* (sometimes *but*) or to asyndetic coordination” (ibid: 98). Furthermore, *-tai* (LST) may be categorized as “converbs proper,” which has “(t)he function of an adverbial in a simple sentence” (ibid: 98) (see also §?? on the LVC composed of *-tai* (LST) and *sir-* ‘do’),

although there is a case where *-tai* (LST) seems to head a clause as in (93a) in §?? *-jagacinaa* (SIM) does not seem to fit any one of the criteria perfectly.

In principle, the converbs behave like the adverb in their “external syntax” (see §??). However, *-təəra* ‘after’ and *-ti* (SEQ) sometimes behave like the nominal (see §?? and §??). It is probable that these affixes will be classified into another new inflectional category in an alternative analysis.

In the following subsections, I will present the contrasts shown in (84) in turn.

3.4.3.1 Causal: *-ba* (CSL), *-tu* (CSL), and *-too* (CSL)

The converbal affixes *-ba* (CSL), *-tu* (CSL), and *-too* (CSL) fill the predicate of adverbial clauses, which express the cause for the event of the superordinate clause. They are very similar in function to each other, but morphologically the former, i.e. *-ba* (CSL), and the latter, i.e. *-tu* (CSL) and *-too* (CSL), are nearly in complementary distribution. On the one hand, *-ba* (CSL) belongs to Group-I affixes. Thus, it can directly follow a verbal root. Additionally, it can follow all of the derivational affixes and the inflectional affix *-an* (NEG), but cannot follow *-tar* (PST) as in (85a). On the other hand, *-tu* (CSL) and *-too* (CSL) almost always follow *-tar* (PST), and rarely *-tu* (CSL) follows *-təər* (RSL) as in (85b-c). Both *-tu* (CSL) and *-too* (CSL) begin with //t//, but they do not conform to the morphophonological rules for Type-B affixes discussed in §??. Rather, they conform to the rules for Type-D affixes in §??.

- (85) a. Verbal morphemes that can directly precede *-ba* (CSL) (Converbal affix; Group I)
 Root *-as -arir -tuk -arir -tur -jawur -an -təər -tar -ba* (CSL)
 CAUS PASS PRPR CAP PROG POL NEG RSL PST
-jur
 UMRK
- b. Verbal morphemes that can directly precede *-tu* (CSL) (Converbal affix; Group II)
 Root *-as -arir -tuk -arir -tur -jawur -an -təər -tar -tu* (CSL)
 CAUS PASS PRPR CAP PROG POL NEG RSL PST
-jur
 UMRK
- c. Verbal morphemes that can directly precede *-too* (CSL) (Converbal affix; Group II)
 Root *-as -arir -tuk -arir -tur -jawur -an -təər -tar -too* (CSL)

CAUS PASS PRPR CAP PROG POL NEG RSL PST

-jur

UMRK

The affixes deleted by double lines indicate that they cannot directly precede the word-final affix. The combinations in (85) show that *-ba* (CSL) is used only in the non-past tense, but that *-tu* (CSL) and *-too* (CSL) are used almost only in the past tense. In fact, the combination of *-təər* (RSL) and *-tu* (CSL) is very rare in my texts. This means that the contrast of *-ba* (CSL) vs. *-tu/-too* (CSL) is made by the tense opposition. In fact, *-too* (CSL) is always preceded by *-tar* (PST). Thus, one may think that *-tar* (PST) and *-too* (CSL) form a single portmanteau morpheme, i.e. *-tattoo* (PST.CSL). I do not propose this analysis simply because of the convenience of showing the complementary distributions among the affixes in (85a-c).

First, I will present examples of *-ba* (CSL).

(86) *-ba* (CSL)

- a. [Context: MY asked TM if TM had made the pickles; TM: ‘(I) don’t know. How (was it)?’]
 niizinnu appa, arandaroo.
 niizin=nu ar-ba ar-an=daroo
 carrot=NOM exist-CSL COP-NEG=SUPP
 ‘There are (pieces of) a carrot, so maybe (the pickles) are not (mine).’
 [Co: 101023_01.txt]
- b. umanan mata nagicikitəappa, uri tii
 u-ma=nan mata nagir-Ø+cikir-təər-ba u-ri tii
 MES-place=LOC1 again throw-INF+attach-RSL-CSL MES-NLZ hand
 kiinnajoocji.
 kiir-na=joo=ccji
 hang-PROH=CFM1=QT
 ‘(My husband said) that, “(The person) have thrown (some sweets) again (at our house), so don’t touch it.”’ [Co: 120415_01.txt]

The above examples show that *-ba* (CSL) has causal meaning. Interestingly, if *-ba* (CSL) follows the auxiliary verbs *kurir-* (BEN) or *taboor-* (BEN.HON) without the superordinate clauses, it means the “request” for the hearer (see §?? for more details).

Secondly, I will present examples of *-tu* (CSL). It should be noted that *-an* (NEG) cannot “directly” precede *-tu* (CSL), but it can “indirectly” precede it with *-tar* (PST) as in (87c).

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(87) -tu (CSL)

- a. boosi utucjəətattu, uri jaraccji,
boosi utus-təər-tar-tu u-ri jaras-ti
 hat drop-RSL-PST-CSL MES-NLZ give-SEQ
 ‘(The boy) have dropped (his) hat, so (the three boys picked it up and) handed it (to him), and ...’ [PF: 090305_01.txt]
- b. [= (??b)]
 nuucjigajaaroo kacjəəttujaa.
nuu=ccji=gajaaroo kak-təər-tu=jaa
 what=QT=DUB write-RSL-CSL=SOL
 ‘Something has been drawn (on the sign board of the store).’ [Co: 120415_00.txt]
- c. uci(ga)zjasiga siikijantattu, waakjaa
ut-i+izjas-i=ga sir-i+kij-an-tar-tu waakja-a
 hit-INF+put.out-INF=NOM do-INF+CAP-NEG-PST-CSL 1PL-ADNZ
 anmaaja gan sji uta jusirooccji,
anmaa=ja ga-n sir-ti uta jusir-oo=ccji
 mother=TOP MED-ADVZ do-SEQ song teach-INT=QT
 ‘(I) couldn’t start hitting (the hand drums in singing), so my mother (tried) to teach (me) the (traditional) songs like this, and ...’ [Co: 111113_01.txt]

-tu (CSL) is sometimes realized as /tuu/ as in (??c) in §??

Not only the morphological environments, but also the meanings of -tu (CSL) and -too (CSL) are very similar to each other. However, there seems to be the tendency that the causal relationships between the adverbial clause and the superordinate clause bound by -too (CSL) are more arbitrary than those by -tu (CSL). In other words, the causal relationships bound by -too (CSL) seem to be naturally translated into ‘and then’ in English as in (88a-c).

(88) -too (CSL)

- a. miici nasi kuritattoo, un micjaija
miici nasi kurir-tar-too u-n micjai=ja
 three.things pear give-PST-CND MES-ADNZ three.person=TOP
 jurukudi, kan sji hucjuti,
jurukub-ti ka-n sir-ti huk-tur-ti
 be.pleased-SEQ PROX-ADVZ do-SEQ wipe-PROG-SEQ
 ‘(The boy) gave (them) pears, and then those three (boys) were

pleased, and were wiping (the pears) like this, and ...' [PF:
090827_02.txt]

- b. *urəə* *mata taruga* *jatakai?*
u-ri=ja *mata ta-ru-Ø=ga* *jar-tar=kai*
 MES-NLZ=TOP again who-NLZ-SG=NOM COP-PST=DUB
cʰjutattoo, (*uri,*) *mukasinu* | *zjuukunu* *haru|ja*
k-tur-tar-too *u-ri* *mukasi=nu* *zjuuku=nu* *haru=ja*
 come-PROG-PST-CSL MES-NLZ past=GEN ten.nine=GEN spring=TOP
kuridu *utajutattujaacji* *jʰicji,*
ku-ri=du *utaw-jur-tar-tu=jaa=ccji* *jʰ-ti*
 PROX-NLZ=FOC sing-UMRK-PST-CSL=SOL=QT say-SEQ
 ‘And who was that person (who had brought the pamphlet of songs)?
 (Anyway, a person) was coming (here), and then (the person) said
 that, “(We) sang the old song *The spring in nineteen years old* with
 this (pamphlet), so (it is very familiar to us).”
- c. *kʰwan* *dikirantattoo,* *nusjəə* *jaakara* *izibati*
kʰwa=n *dikir-an-tar-too* *nusi=ja* *jaa=kara* *izibar-ti*
 child=even be.born-NEG-PST-CSL RFL=TOP house=ABL go.out-SEQ
izjanwake.
ik-tar-n=wake
 go-PST-PTCP=CFP
 ‘(The person) cannot have a baby, and then (the person) went out the
 house.’ [Co: 120415_00.txt]

It should be noted again that *-an* (NEG) cannot “directly” precede *-too* (CSL), but it can “indirectly” precede it with *-tar* (PST) as in (88c).

3.4.3.2 Conditional: *-boo* (CND)

The converbal affix *-boo* (CND) fills the predicates of adverbial clauses that express the condition that can realize the event of the superordinate clause. *-boo* (CND) belongs to Group-I affixes. Thus, it can directly follow a verbal root. Additionally, it can follow all of the derivational affixes and the inflectional affix *-an* (NEG), but cannot follow *-tar* (PST) as in (89).

- (89) Verbal morphemes that can directly precede *-boo* (CND) (Converbal affix;
Group I)

Root *-as -arir -tuk -arir -tur -jawur -an -təər -tar -boo* (CND)

CAUS PASS PRPR CAP PROG POL NEG RSL PST

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-*jur*

UMRK

-*boo* (CND) cannot follow -*tar* (PST). However, -*boo* (CND) can be used to express the situation that occurred in the past as in (90c).

(90) -*boo* (CND)

- a. *kuci hiisanma akipoo, |ireba|nu*
kuci hii-sanma akir-boo ireba=nu
 mouth wide-ADVZ open-CND artificial.tooth=NOM
utijunkara,
utir-jur-n=kara
 drop-UMRK-PTCP=CSL
 'If (I) open the mouth wide, the artificial teeth will fall out, so ...' [Co: 110328_00.tx]
- b. [Context: TM said that the hearer MY was better than her, since MY could walk around only with a stick.]
wanna ari usanboo, aikikijanba.
wan=ja a-ri us-an-boo aik-i+kij-an-ba
 1SG=TOP PROX-NLZ push-NEG-CND walk-INF+CAP-NEG-CSL
 'If I don't push that [i.e. handcart], (I) cannot walk (around) (so I think you are better than me).' [Co: 110328_00.txt]
- c. *|kjonen|baikara mioja|kun| siccjuppoo, jiccja*
kjonen=bai=kara mioja-kun sij-tur-boo jiccj-sa
 last.year=around=ABL Mioya-N/A do-PROG-CND good-ADJ
atənmundoojaa.
ar-təər-n=mun=doo=jaa
 STV-RSL-PTCP=ADVRS=ASS=SOL
 'If (I) had known Mioya since around the last year, (it) would have been good (but unfortunately I haven't known him that long).' [Co: 111113_02.txt]
- d. *naa naratuppoo, |gomennasai|cjinkjoo*
naa naraw-tur-boo gomennasai=ccji=nkja=ja
 already get.accustomed-PROG-CND I.am.sorry=QT=APPR=TOP
j'iimicjəə sijan.
j'i-mici=ja sij-an
 say-INF+way=TOP know-NEG
 '(I) have already got accustomed to (the present author), and then (I)

didn't remember to say, "I'm sorry" (when I forgot to serve the tea when he visited here).' [Co: 110328_00.txt]

- e. t^ʔaija amanan taccjuppoo, un
 t^ʔai=ja a-ma=nan tat-tur-boo u-n
 two.person=TOP DIST-place=LOC stand-PROG-CND MES-ADNZ
 c^ʔjuiga mucijattoo,
 c^ʔjui=ga muk-tar-too
 one.person=NOM bring-PST-CSL
 'Two (of the three boys) were standing there, and then the one (of them who remained) brought (pears), and then ...' [PF: 090827_02.txt]

In the first three examples (90a-c), *-boo* (CND) expresses the conditional meaning such as 'if' in English. However, in the last two examples (90d-e), *-boo* (CND) expresses the meaning such as 'and then' in English, which is similar to the meaning expressed by *-too* (CSL) in §?? Interestingly, the combination of *-an* (NEG) plus *-boo* (CND) has come to be used without a main clause, where the combination means an obligatory meaning such as 'has to' (see §?? for more details).

Before concluding this section, I want to present an affix, i.e. *-tarabacji*, which expresses a concessive meaning such as 'even if' in English. This affix has not appeared in my texts, but it was found in elicitation.

(91) *-tarabacji* 'even if'

- a. gan sji sjarabacji, nugoorasandoo.
 ga-n sir-ti sir-tarabacji nugoor-as-an=doo
 MES-ADVZ do-SEQ do-even.if escape-CAUS-NEG=ASS
 'Even if (you) do that, (I) won't let you escape.' [El: 120924]
- b. uraga ikjasaa nacjarabacji, nugoorasandoo.
 ura=ga ikja-saa nak-tarabacji nugoor-as-an=doo
 2.NHON.SG=NOM how-ADVZ cry-even.if escape-CAUS-NEG=ASS
 'No matter how much you cry, (I) won't let you escape.' [El: 120924]

Interestingly, the verb form ending with *-tarabacji* deprives the question meaning of the interrogative word *ikja-saa* (how-ADVZ) 'how much.' *-tarabacji* 'even if' may be divided into *-tar* (PST) plus *-abacji* 'even if,' since it is common for the past-tense morpheme to be used in the counterfactual proposition such as the subjunctive mood in English. We need to clarify the details of this affix in future research.

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3.4.3.3 Listing: *-tai* (LST)

The converbal affix *-tai* (LST) means that there are several events, and that the speaker indicates one (or a few) of the events using it. The following affixes can precede *-tai* (LST). The affixes deleted by double lines cannot directly precede *-tai* (LST).

- (92) Verbal morphemes that can directly precede *-tai* (LST) (Converbal affix; Group I)

Root *-as -arir -tuk -arir -tur -jawur -an -təər -tar -tai* (LST)

CAUS PASS PRPR CAP PROG POL NEG RSL PST

-jur

UMRK

I will present examples of *-tai* (LST).

- (93) *-tai* (LST)

a. nunkuin jusiti kuritai, uri sji kuritan
nuu-nkuin jusir-ti kurir-tai u-ri sir-ti kurir-tar-n
 what-INDFZ teach-SEQ BEN-LST MES-NLZ do-SEQ BEN-PST-PTCP
cʔjunu kutoo (umui, ii) wasirirannən,
cʔju=nu kutu=ja umuw-i wasirir-annən u-ri
 person=GEN event=TOP think-INF forget-NEG.SEQ MES-NLZ
 uri sjunban,
sir-jur-n=ban

do-UMRK-PTCP=ADVRS

‘About a person who taught (me) everything and did it [i.e. the help] (for me), (I) don’t forget (the person), and do it [i.e. remember], but ...’
 [Co: 120415_01.txt]

b. uba⁷ (mm) uziija jukkadi nubutai
u-ri=ba uzii=ja jukkadi nubur-tai urir-tai
 MES-NLZ=ACC old.man=TOP continuously climb-LST descend-LST
 uritai sjuti, nasi mutuui.
sir-tur-ti nasi mur-tur-i

do-PROG-SEQ pear pick.up-PROG-INF

‘The old man kept climbing and descending it [i.e. the ladder], and was picking up the pears.’ [PF: 090827_02.txt]

⁷The regular morphophonological alternation is *u-ri=ba* (MES-NLZ=ACC) > /uppa/, but it sounds like /uba/ here.

In (93a), the VP /jusiti kuritai/ *jusir-ti kurir-tai* (teach-SEQ BEN-LST) ‘teaching (everything to me), and ...’ fills the the head of an adverbial clause, and the superordinate clause again functions as an adnominal clause, which modifies *c’ju* ‘person.’ In (93b), the converbs /nubutai/ *nubur-tai* (climb-LST) ‘climbing, and ...’ and /uritai/ *urir-tai* (decend-LST) ‘descending, and ...’ fill the complement slot of the light verb construction (see also §?? for the light verb construction).

3.4.3.4 Temporal relation: *-gadi* ‘until,’ *-jagacinaa* (SIM), and *-tæra* ‘after’

The converbal affixes *-gadi* ‘until,’ *-jagacinaa* (SIM), and *-tæra* ‘after’ can express temporal relationships between the events expressed by the adverbial clauses and those of the superordinate clauses. First, *-gadi* ‘until’ indicates the time until which the event of the modified clause continues. It can directly follow these verbal morphemes in (94). The affixes deleted by double lines cannot directly precede the word-final affix.

- (94) Verbal morphemes that can directly precede *-gadi* ‘until’ (Converbal affix; Group I)

Root *-as -arir -tuk -arir -tur -jawur -an -tæar -tar -gadi* ‘until’

CAUS PASS PRPR CAP PROG POL NEG RSL PST

-jur

UMRK

It is probable that *-gadi* ‘until’ is cognate with the limiter particle *gadi* (LMT). However, *-gadi* ‘until’ can directly attach to the verbal root. On the other hand, any particle cannot follow the verbal root directly (except for *kai* (DUB)). Thus, I propose that *-gadi* ‘until’ is a morpheme different from *gadi* (LMT) in modern Yuwan. Examples of *-gadi* ‘until’ are shown below.

- (95) *-gadi* ‘until’

- a. *naakja k’uugadi, wutarooa?*

naakja k-gadi wur-tar-oo=ga

2.HON.PL come-until exist-PST-SUPP=CFM3

‘(I) suppose (that) until you came (here), (the person) had been (there, hadn’t he)?’ [Co: 110328_00.txt]

- b. *waakjoo |socugjoo| sikkadi kuzii hakandoojaa.*

waakja=ja socugjoo sir-gadi kuzi hak-an=doo=jaa

1PL=TOP graduation do-until shoe put.on-NEG=ASS=SOL

‘I hadn’t put on shoes until (I) graduated (from elementary school).’ [Co: 110328_00.txt]

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Interestingly, *-gadi* expresses a meaning different from ‘until’ if it is followed by the particle *n* ‘even,’ i.e. *-gadi=n* ‘by the time.’

- (96) *-gadi* ‘until’ + *n* ‘even’

ikugadinnja kinunkja kəətukijoo.
ik-gadi=n=ja kin=nkja kəər-tuk-i=joo
 go-until=even=TOP clothes=APPR change-PRPR-IMP=CFM1
 ‘By the time (you) go (out), change (your) clothes (to the formal ones),
 right?’ [El: 120926]

Secondly, *-jagacinaa* (SIM) indicates the time during which the event of the modified clause occurs. It can directly follow only the verbal root, or two derivational affixes *-as* (CAUS) and *-arir* (PASS) as in (97).

- (97) Verbal morphemes that can directly precede *-jagacinaa* (SIM) (Converbal affix; Group I)

Root *-as -arir -tuk -arir -tur -jawur -an -təər -tar -jagacinaa* (SIM)
 CAUS PASS PRPR CAP PROG POL NEG RSL PST
-jur
 UMRK

Morphophonologically, the //ci// of *-jagacinaa* (SIM) may be omitted. For example, *ik-jagacinaa* (go-SIM) can be realized either as /ikjagacinaa/ or /ikjaganaa/. Additionally, there is another form that express the same meaning with *-jagacinaa* (SIM), i.e. *-ganaa* (SIM). *-ganaa* (SIM) always needs to be preceded by *-i/-Ø* (INF), e.g. *ik-i-ganaa* (go-INF-SIM). Among them, *-jagacinaa* (SIM) is most productive. Therefore, I will present only examples of *-jagacinaa* (SIM) below.

- (98) *-jagacinaa* (SIM)

- a. kusa musijagacinan, jukkadi uta.
kusa musij-jagacinaa=n jukkadi uta
 grass pull-SIM=even always song
 ‘Even while (my mother) was pulling weeds, (she was) always
 (singing) a song.’ [Co: 11113_01.txt]
- b. ikjasjiga sjuruccji, nattəənkja hanasjagacinaa,
ikja-sji=ga sir-jur-u=ccji naa-ttəə=nkja hanas-jagacinaa
 how-ADVZ=FOC do-UMRK-PFC=QT 2.HON-DU=APPR talk-SIM
 kutusjəə sjoogacija uri jappa, un
kutusi=ja sjoogaci=ja u-ri jar-ba u-n
 this.year=TOP New_Year’s_Day=TOP MES-NLZ COP-CSL MES-ADNZ

sjoogaci nusjəə usikkwa kawuroojaacjɪ j'icjɪ
 sjoogaci nusi=ja usi-kkwa kawur-oo=jaa=ccjɪ j'-ti
 New_Year's_Day REF=TOP cow-DIM buy-INT=SOL=QT say-SEQ
 'The couple was saying, "What should (we) do?" and (said) that,
 "About the New Year's Day in the next year [lit. this year], (the fact)
 is that [i.e. they don't have a child]. Thus, let's buy a cow by
 ourselves (on) the New Year's Day.'" [Fo: 090307_00.tx]

Thirdly, *-təəra* 'after' indicates the time after which the event of the modified clause occurs. It can directly follow only the verbal root, or two derivational affixes *-as* (CAUS) and *-arir* (PASS) as in (99).

- (99) Verbal morphemes that can directly precede *-təəra* 'after'
 Root *-as -arir -tuk -arir -tur -jawur -an -təər -tar -təəra* 'after'
 CAUS PASS PRPR CAP PROG POL NEG RSL PST
-jur
 UMRK

I will present examples of *-təəra* 'after.'

- (100) *-təəra* 'after'
 a. [= (??d)]
 naakjaga |socugjoo| sjəəraga waakjoo |gakkoo|kai?
 naakja=ga socugjoo sir-təəra=ga waakja=ja gakkoo=kai
 2.HON.PL=NOM graduation do-after=FOC 1PL=TOP school=DUB
 '(Is it) after you had graduated (from the elementary school, when) I
 (began to go to) school?' [Co: 110328_00.txt]
 b. uninkara hiitəəraga, uraa mæci |denwa|ba
 unin=kara hiir-təəra=ga ura-a mæə=kaci denwa=ba
 that.time=ABL wake.up-after=FOC 2.NHON.SG front=ALL phone=ACC
 sjəəraga, bocuubocu cira arati,
 sir-təəra=ga bocu+bocu cira araw-ti
 do-after=FOC RED+slowly face wash-SEQ
 'After waking up at that time, (and) after calling you, (I) washed my
 face, and ...' [Co: 101020_01.txt]
 c. juwannintəə (xxx) nkjoo |zjuusannici|n
 juwan+nintəə =nkja=ja zjuusannici=n hii
 Yuwan+people =APPR=TOP ten.three.day=GEN day

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hii hakaba izji cʰjəəra,
haka=ba ik-ti k-təəra ujahuzi+macir-i=ccji
 tomb=ACC go-SEQ come-after ancestor+celebrate-INF=QT
 ujahuzimaciiccji jʰicji, ujahuzinu (mm)
jʰ-ti ujahuzi=nu sinsoomutu=kaci minna
 say-SEQ ancestor=GEN head.family=ALL everybody
 sinsoomutukaci miinna acimiti,
acimir-ti
 gather-SEQ

‘After going to and coming back from the tomb at the thirteenth day (of every month), the people of Yuwan, (who) called (the event) “the celebration of the ancestors,” gathered all of the relatives at the head family’s house.’ [Co: 111113_01.txt]

- d. jakitəəranu atuga wakaran.
jakir-təəra=nu atu=ga wakar-an
 burn-after=GEN after=NOM understand-NEG

‘(I) don’t know (what happened) after (the houses) burned (because of the air raid in the World War II).’ [Co: 120415_01.txt]

- e. [Context: TM was remembering the days when the present author came for the first time.]

naa, mutoo cʰjəəranu sigoo koo zja, un zja,
naa mutu=ja k-təəra=nu sigu=ja koo zjar un zjar
 FIL first=TOP come-after=GEN soon=TOP river COP sea COP
 jama zjaccji gan sjan munbəidu
jama zjar=ccji ga-n sir-tar-n mun=bəi=du
 mountain COP=QT MES-ADVZ do-PST-PTCP thing=only=FOC
 tazinijutattujaa.
tazinir-jur-tar-tu=jaa

‘At first, immediately after (the present author) came (to TM’s place), (he) used to ask only these kinds of things (like) the river, the sea, and the mountain.’ [Co: 111113_02.txt]

check completeness of glossing

- f. kuri josidanu |nikai|nkjanu dikitəəra
ku-ri josida=nu nikai=nkja=nu dikir-təəra
 PROX-NLZ Yoshida=GEN second.floor=APPR=NOM be.built-after

jappa.

jar-ba

COP-CSL

‘This [i.e. the date when the outdoor lamp was set] is after Yoshida’s second floor was built.’ [Co: 120415_00.txt]

In (100a-c), the clauses that include the verb forms composed of *-teera* ‘after’ adverbially modify the following clauses. In (100d-e), however, the clauses that include the verb forms composed of *-teera* ‘after’ fill the modifier slot of an NP. In fact, they are followed by *nu* (GEN). In (100f), the clause that includes the verb form composed of *-təəra* ‘after’ fills the NP slot of the nominal predicate phrase with a copula verb.

3.4.3.5 Sequential: *-ti* (SEQ) and *-nən* (SEQ)

The converbal affix *-ti* (SEQ) and *-nən* (SEQ) can express the sequential relationship between the events. In addition, the verbal form composed of *-ti* (SEQ) is obligatorily used to fill the non-final verbal slot in *avC* (see §?? for more details). In (101a-b), the affixes deleted by double lines cannot directly precede the word-final affix.

- (101) a. Verbal morphemes that can directly precede *-ti* (SEQ) (Converbal affix; Group I)

Root *-as -arir -tuk -arir -tur -jawur -an -təə -tar -ti* (SEQ)

CAUS PASS PRPR CAP PROG POL NEG RSL PST

-jur

UMRK

- (102) Verbal morphemes that can directly precede *-nən* (SEQ) (Converbal affix; Group II)

Root *-as -arir -tuk -arir -tur -jawur -an -təə -tar -nən* (SEQ)

CAUS PASS PRPR CAP PROG POL NEG RSL PST

-jur

UMRK

-ti (SEQ) can directly follow the verbal root. Basically, it is used in affirmative as in (103a-b). On the contrary, *-nən* (SEQ) is always preceded by *-an* (NEG), i.e., always used in negative as in (103c-d).

- (103) *-ti* (SEQ)

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- a. *cjuuto* *ikinnja* |*zitsensja*| *hankəərəcj*,
cjuuto ik-i=n=ja *zitsensja hankəər-as-ti*
middle go-INF=DAT1=TOP bicycle tumble-CAUS-SEQ
kʷugəərəcj, *baramukasjanwake*.
kʷugəər-as-ti baramukasir-tar-n=wake
tumble-CAUS-SEQ scatter-PST-PTCP=CFP
‘When (the boy) went halfway, (he) tumbled off the bicycle (that he was riding on), and scattered (the pears).’ [PF: 090222_00.txt]
- b. *idocji jʷicji*, (an) *mata* (an) *agan*
ido=ccji jʷ-ti a-n mata a-n aga-n
oh=QT say-SEQ DIST-ADNZ again DIST-ADNZ DIST-ADVZ
izjibati izji, amanan sawakotankja
izir-i+bar-ti ik-ti a-ma=nan sawako-taa=nkja
go.out-INF+?-SEQ go-SEQ DIST-place=LOC1 Sawako-PL=APPR
minakotankjaga wutattu,
minako-taa=nkja=ga wur-tar-tu
Minako-PL=APPR=NOM exist-PST-CSL
‘Saying that “Oh!” (I) went out there again, and there were Sawako, Minako and their friends, so ...’ [Co: 101020_01.txt]
-nən (SEQ)
- c. *jazin* |*hucuugo*|*ja* *cikawannən*,
jazin hucuugo=ja cikaw-an-nən
necessarily standard.Japanese=TOP use-NEG-SEQ
|*hoogen*|*bəidujaa* *nunkuin wakappa*.
hoogen=bəi=du=jaa nuu-nkuin wakar-ba
dialect=only=FOC=SOL what-INDFZ understand-CSL
‘Necessarily not using the standard Japanese, (it is OK) only with (our) dialect. Since (the present author) can understand anything.’ [Co: 110328_00.txt]
- d. |*sjoogakusjei*|*nu* |*sjeito*| *ciriti*, |*hito*
sjoogakusjei=nu sjeito ciriti-ti hito+
primary.schoolchild=GEN pupil accompany-SEQ one
... *kurabu*|*gadəə arannən*, *minna*
kurabu=gadi=ja ar-an-nən minna ciriti-ti=joo
club=LMT=TOP COP-NEG-SEQ everybody accompany-SEQ=CFM1

ciritijo,

‘(A teacher) came with the primary school children, and (they) are not enough (to be able to form) a club, and (the teacher) came (to my mother’s house) with all (these children), and ...’ [Co: 110328_00.txt]

In principle, *-ti* (SEQ) links clauses sequentially, which can usually be translated into ‘and.’ However, the combination of *-ti* plus *n* ‘even’ can mean ‘even if ...’ as in (104) (see §?? for more details).

- (104) abitin, kikjanba. j’icjin, kikjanba.
abir-ti=n kik-an-ba j’-ti=n kik-an-ba
 call-SEQ=even hear-NEG-CSL say-SEQ=even hear-NEG-CSL
 ‘Even if (I) call (her), (she) doesn’t hear. Even if (I) says (something to her), (she) doesn’t hear, so (I don’t visit her these days).’ [Co: 120415_01.txt]

In principle, *-ti* (SEQ) is used in the affirmative polarity as in (103a-b) and (104). However, *-ti* (SEQ) can be used in negative in the following cases. (A) *-ti* (SEQ) is followed by *n* ‘even’ and means a conditional meaning such as ‘(there is no problem) even if not, ...’ (B) *-ti* (SEQ) is used in insubordination.

First, I will present examples of (A).

- (105) *-an-ti=n* (NEG-SEQ=even) to mean ‘(there is no problem) even if not ...’
- a. naa, mutunu kutunkjagadəə sijantin,
naa mutu=nu kutu=nkja=gadi=ja sij-an-ti=n
 FIL origin=GEN event=APPR=LMT=TOP know-NEG-SEQ=even
 jiccjaccjidu juuba.
jiccj-sa=ccji=du j’ -ba
 no.problem-ADJ=QT=FOC say-CSL
 ‘(Younger people) say that, “(There) is no problem, even if (we) don’t know about the old events.”’ [Co: 111113_02.txt]
- b. naa, huccjunkjoo minna urəə
naa huccju=nkja=ja minna u-ri=ja
 FIL old.people=APPR=TOP everybody MES-NLZ=TOP
 mjantin, sicjutattujaa. |jonban|gadi.
mj-an-ti=n sij-tur-tar-tu=jaa jonban=gadi
 see-NEG-SEQ=even know-PROG-PST-CSL=SOL number.four=LMT
 ‘Even if (they) didn’t see that [i.e. a pamphlet of songs], all of the old

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people knew [i.e. had memorized] (the songs from No. 1) to No. 4.
[Co: 120415_01.txt]

Generally, the adjectival root *jiccj-* can be translated as ‘good’ in English. After the combinations *-an-ti=n* (NEG-SEQ=even), however, it is more appropriate to translate *jiccj-* as ‘no problem’ as in (105a). In fact, there is a case where *jiccj-* can be translated as ‘no problem’ without following *-an-ti=n* (NEG-SEQ=even) as in (??d) in §??

Secondly, the verbal form *-an-ti* (NEG-SEQ) can be used in the case of insubordination, i.e. the use of non-finite form in the main clause (see §??). In the interrogative clause, the finite-form affix *-tar* (PST) cannot be used, and instead *-ti* (SEQ) can be used to indicate the past tense, where *-an* (NEG) can precede *-ti* (SEQ) as in (106).

(106) *-an-ti* (NEG-SEQ) in the insubordination

naakjoo ukka sjanti asibanti?

naakja=ja u-ri=ga sja=nanti asib-an-ti

2.HON.SG=TOP MES-NLZ=GEN under=LOC1 play-NEG-SEQ

‘Didn’t you play under that [i.e. a big bayan tree]?’ [Co: 110328_00.txt]

The above example expresses the negative question in the past tense using *-an-ti* (NEG-SEQ).

There are examples where the converb *-ti* (SEQ) behaves similarly with the nominal, which will be discussed in §??

3.4.4 Infinitive (verbal noun)

An infinitive is a verbal form that ends with the infinitival affixes, i.e. *-i* (INF) or *-Ø* (INF). Infinitive cannot include the past tense affix *-tar* and the negative affix *-an* (NEG). The clause headed by an infinitive functions as a nominal, i.e. a nominal clause (see also §??). The morphophonology and the morphosyntax of the infinitives are fairly complicated. The morphophonology of the infinitives will be discussed in §?? The morphosyntax of the infinitives will be discussed in §??

3.4.4.1 Morphophonology of the infinitives

First of all, the two types of forms of infinitives, i.e. simple forms and lengthened forms, are shown below.

Table 3.26: . Infinitives (simple forms and lengthened forms)

Stem No.

ex. *hingir- abir- kəər- ʔkuur- nugoor- koow-^b* ‘escape’ ‘call’ ‘exchange’ ‘close’ ‘don’t do’ ‘buy’

Simple hingi abi kəə ʔkuu-i nugoo-i koo-i / ko-i Lengthened hingii abii kəə ʔkuu-ii nugoo-ii ko

Stem No. 2. $V_{\text{back}r}$ 3. pp 4. b 5. Vm 6. nm 7. $V_{\text{non-}i}$ k ex. *tur-^c app- narab- jum- tanm- kak-* ‘take

Stem No. 8. $V_{\text{non-}i}$ kk 9. Vs 10. ss 11. t 12. Only C(G) ex. *sukk- us- kuss- ut- jʔ- mj-* ‘pull’ ‘push’

Stem No. 13. ij 14. $V_{\text{non-}i}$ g 15. ik 16. i(n)g 17. in ex. *kij- tug- kik- uig- ming- sin-* ‘cut’ ‘whet’ ‘h

^aPhonological rule (see §??): w/r + i > i

^bPhonological rule (see §??): kooi > koi

^cPhonological rule (see §??): tur + i(i) > tui(i)

^dPhonological rule (see §??): ut + i(i) > uci(i)

The above table shows that the infinitives in Yuwan have two types of surface forms, i.e. the simple forms and the lengthened forms. Many of the simple forms have the single vowel /i/ at their final position, and many of the lengthened forms have the vowel sequence /ii/ at their final position. The lengthened forms can be used if the infinitive is a clause-final free form (not a clitic). Otherwise, the simple forms are used.

First, we will discuss the simple forms. The morphophonological rules for the simple infinitival forms are summarized as in (107).

- (107) The rules for the simple infinitival form;
1. The verbal stem No. 1 always takes $-\emptyset$ (INF);
 2. If both (A) the verbal stem belongs to 5, or 17, and (B) there is no possibility to form /C.C./, then the verbal stem takes $-\emptyset$ (INF);
 3. Otherwise, the verbal stems take $-i$ (INF);
 4. //r// before $-\emptyset$ (INF) and //j// before $-i$ (INF) are deleted;
 5. If the infinitive has only one mora in itself, its final vowel is lengthened.

This rule in (8-106 “4”) is required to explain the following behavior: *kij-i* (cut-INF) + *ja* (TOP) > /ki-i=ja/ (not */ki-jəə/), where the topic marker is never fused with the preceding morphophoneme (see also §??).

I will present examples of simple infinitival forms below. In the following tables, $-\emptyset$ (INF) is expressed even in the surface forms, and the infinitives are underlined.

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Table 3.27: Simple forms with *mai* (OBL)

Stem No.	1	5	12	13
Infinitival affix -Ø -Ø -i -i -Ø -i				
ex. <i>abir</i> - ‘call’ <i>jum</i> - ‘read’ <i>mj</i> - ‘see’ <i>kij</i> - ‘cut’ <i>sin</i> - ‘die’ <i>kak</i> - ‘write’				
(Input) <i>abir</i> -Ø+ <i>mai</i> <i>jum</i> -Ø+ <i>mai</i> <i>mj</i> -i+ <i>mai</i> <i>kij</i> -i+ <i>mai</i> <i>sin</i> -Ø+ <i>mai</i> <i>kak</i> -i+ <i>mai</i>				
Deletion of //r// or //j// <i>abi</i> -Ø+ <i>mai</i> - <i>m</i> -i+ <i>mai</i> <i>ki</i> -i+ <i>mai</i> - -				
Lengthening - - <i>m</i> -ii+ <i>mai</i> - - -				
(Output) <i>abi</i> -Ø+ <i>mai</i> <i>jum</i> -Ø+ <i>mai</i> <i>m</i> -ii+ <i>mai</i> <i>ki</i> -i+ <i>mai</i> <i>sin</i> -Ø+ <i>mai</i> <i>kak</i> -i+ <i>mai</i>				

mai (OBL) in Table 1.27 does not have a possibility to form a /C.C./ (not /C.C/) syllable structure. However, *n* ‘also’ in Table 1.28 has the possibility to form a /C.C./ syllable structure with *jum*- (the verbal stem No. 5) and *sin*- ‘die’ (the verbal stem No. 17). Therefore, these verbal stems take -i (INF) as in Table 1.28 (not -Ø (INF) as in Table 1.27).

Table 3.28: Simple forms with *n* ‘also’

Stem No.
Infinitival affix -Ø -i -i -i -i -i ex. <i>abir</i> - ‘call’ <i>jum</i> - ‘read’ <i>mj</i> - ‘see’ <i>kij</i> - ‘cut’ <i>sin</i> - ‘die’ <i>kak</i> - ‘write’
(Input) <i>abir</i> -Ø= <i>n</i> <i>jum</i> -i= <i>n</i> <i>mj</i> -i= <i>n</i> <i>kij</i> -i= <i>n</i> <i>sin</i> -i= <i>n</i> <i>kak</i> -i= <i>n</i>
Deletion of //r// or //j// <i>abi</i> -Ø= <i>n</i> - <i>m</i> -i= <i>n</i> <i>ki</i> -i= <i>n</i> - -
Lengthening - - <i>m</i> -ii= <i>n</i> - - -
(Output) <i>abi</i> -Ø= <i>n</i> <i>jum</i> -i= <i>n</i> <i>m</i> -i= <i>n</i> ^a <i>k</i> -i= <i>n</i> ^b <i>sin</i> -i= <i>n</i> <i>kak</i> -i= <i>n</i>

^aPhonological rule (§??): ii + *n* > in

^bPhonological rule (§??): ii + *n* > in

Table 1.28 is different from Table 1.27 in that the verbal stems No. 5 and 17 take -i (INF) in order to avoid */*jum*.n./ *jum*=*n* (read=also) or */*sin*.n./ *sin*=*n* (die=also).

Next, we will discuss the lengthened forms. The rules for the lengthened infinitival forms are summarized as in (108).

- (108) The rules for the lengthened infinitival form;
1. The verbal stem No. 1 takes $-\emptyset$ (INF) and the other stems take $-i$ (INF);
 2. $//r//$ before $-\emptyset$ (INF) and $//j//$ before $-i$ (INF) are deleted;
 3. If the infinitive has only one vowel at its final syllable, the vowel is lengthened.

I will present the lengthened infinitival forms in Table 1.29.

Table 3.29: Lengthened forms

Stem No.	1	5	1
Infinitival affix $-\emptyset$ $-i$ $-i$ $-i$ $-i$ ex. <i>abir-</i> ‘call’ <i>jum-</i> ‘read’ <i>mj-</i> ‘see’ <i>kij-</i> ‘cut’ <i>kak-</i> ‘write’			
(Input) <i>abir</i> - \emptyset <i>jum</i> - <i>i</i> <i>mj</i> - <i>i</i> <i>kij</i> - <i>i</i> <i>kak</i> - <i>i</i>			
Deletion of $//r//$ or $//j//$ <i>abi</i> - \emptyset - <i>m</i> - <i>i</i> <i>ki</i> - <i>i</i> -			
Lengthening <i>abii</i> - \emptyset <i>jum</i> - <i>ii</i> <i>m</i> - <i>ii</i> - <i>kak</i> - <i>ii</i>			
(Output) <i>abii</i> - \emptyset <i>jum</i> - <i>ii</i> <i>m</i> - <i>ii</i> <i>ki</i> - <i>i</i> <i>kak</i> - <i>ii</i>			

It was difficult to find the appropriate questions to let the speaker say the lengthened form of the verbal stem No. 17. Thus, Table 1.29 excludes the example of No. 17.

As mentioned before, the lengthened forms are frequently used if the infinitive is a free form (not a clitic) that fills the clause-final position as in (109a-b). If the infinitive is followed by another free form, the infinitive does not become a lengthened form, but it becomes a simple form as in (109c).

- (109) Lengthened form and simple form

- Followed by *doo* (ASS)

minnasji *abiidoo*.
minna=sji *abi*- \emptyset =*doo*
 everybody=INST call-INF=ASS
 ‘(We) call (him) together.’ [El: 130814]
- Followed by nothing

namaara *abii?*
nama=kara abi- \emptyset
 now=ABL call-INF
 ‘Do (you) call (her) now?’ [El: 110917]

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c. Followed by *jar-* (COP)

minnasji abi jataroo.

minna=sji abi-Ø jar-tar-oo

everybody=INST call-INF COP-PST-SUPP

‘Probably (they) called (him) together.’ [El: 130814]

In (109a-b), the infinitive *abi-Ø* (call-INF) is a clause-final free form. Thus, it takes the lengthened form /abii/. In (109c), the infinitive *abi-Ø* (call-INF) is not the clause-final free form, but the copular verb /jataroo/ *jar-tar-oo* (COP-PST-SUPP) is the clause-final free form. Therefore, the infinitive takes the simple form (not the lengthened form), i.e. /abi/. Usually, the infinitive takes the lengthened form if it is a clause-final free form as in (109a-b). In fact, there is a case where the infinitive that is a clause-final free form does not take the lengthened form as in (115a) in §??

In addition, *doo* (ASS) permits the verbal stem No. 5 (ending with //Vm//) to become not only the lengthened form, e.g. /jum-ii=doo/ (read-INF=ASS), but also the simple form, e.g. /jum-Ø=doo/ (read-INF=ASS), even in the clause-final position. This alternation is not permitted before *na* (PLQ), e.g. */jum-Ø=na/ (read-INF=PLQ), where the verbal stem No. 5 always takes the lengthened form, e.g. /jum-ii=na/ (read-INF=PLQ) ‘Does (someone) read?’ It is probable that this restriction avoids the confusion between *na* (PLQ) and *-na* (PROH), since the latter can form /jum-na/ (read-PROH) ‘Don’t read!’

Before concluding this section, it should be mentioned that the difference between the simple form and the lengthened form of infinitives may indicate an intonational unit. In other words, an infinitive would be lengthened if it is in the final position of the intonational unit. In that case, the clause-final particles, e.g. *doo* (ASS), seem to attach to the intonational unit. This analysis is in need of further research.

3.4.4.2 Morphosyntax of the infinitives

In this section, we will discuss the morphology and syntax of the infinitives. We will begin with the morphology. The verbal morphemes that can directly precede the infinitival affix *-i/-Ø* are shown in (110).

- (110) Verbal morphemes that can directly precede *-i/-Ø* (INF) (Infinitival affix; Group I)

Root *-as -arir -tuk -arir -tur -jawur -an -təər -tar -i/-Ø* (INF)

CAUS PASS PRPR CAP PROG POL NEG RSL PST

The above example shows that the verbal root can also directly precede *-i/-Ø* (INF). The affixes that can directly precede the infinitival affix, i.e. *-as* (CAUS), *-arir* (PASS), *-tuk* (PRPR), *-arir* (CAP), and *-tur* (PROG), belong to derivational affixes (see §??).

The infinitives can appear only by themselves, or appear in the compounding. The infinitive that appears in the non-final position in the compound takes the simple form discussed in §??. The examples of compounding were already presented in §?? and §??. We will discuss the infinitives that fill the word-final position below.

Syntactically, the infinitives in the word-final position can appear in the following syntactic environments in the clause.

- (111) The infinitives in the word-final position can appear
- In the complement slot of the light verb *sir-* ‘do’;
 - As the core argument of the nominal predicate;
 - In the predicate slot in the main clause;
 - Before *n* (DAT1) meaning ‘when.’

The lengthened form may appear only in the case of (111c). The infinitives of (111a-c) cannot take their own subjects. In other words, in those cases, the subjects of infinitives always coincide with those of the main clauses. The stative verb *ar-* can be followed by *-i* (INF) in the conditions of (8-110 a, d) as in the examples (112c) and (116f). However, the copula verb cannot take the infinitival affix.

With regard to (111a), the infinitive can appear in the complement slot of the VP, where the lexical verb is always *sir-* ‘do’ as in (112a-c). The infinitives take simple forms in this environment.

- (112) In the complement slot of the light verb *sir-* ‘do’

- | | | | | |
|----|-----------------------------------|--------------|---------------------|----------------|
| a. | <i>zjenzjen</i> | <i>munun</i> | <i>janbajoo,</i> | <i>kikin</i> |
| | <i>zjenzjen</i> | <i>mun=n</i> | <i>j'-an-ba=joo</i> | <i>kik-i=n</i> |
| | at.all | thing=also | say-NEG-CSL=CFM1 | [ask-INF=even] |
| | {[Complement] [LV]} _{VP} | | | |
| | <i>siran.</i> | | | |
| | <i>sir-an</i> | | | |
| | [do-NEG] | | | |

‘(He) does not say anything, so (I) do not ask him (either).’ [Co: 120415_01.txt]

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- b. wanun tanmidu sjan.
 wan=n *tanm-i=du* *sir-tar-n oiwai-kkwa*
 1SG=also [ask-INF=FOC] [do-PST-PTCP]
 {[Complement] [LV]}_{VP}
 |oiwai|kkwa

monetary.gift-DIM

‘I also asked (them). (To prepare) the monetary gift (on behalf of TM).’ [Co: 110328_00.txt]

- c. makanəicjasoo aija sjunban,
 makanaw-i+cja-soo *ar-i=ja* *sir-jur-n=ban*
 [give.a.feast-ING+want-ADJ STV-INF=TOP] [do-UMRK-PTCP]=ADVR
 {[Complement] [LV]}_{VP}
 ‘(I) want to give a feast (to the present author), but ...’ [Co: 101023_01.txt]

The above examples show that the infinitives fill the complement slots of the VPs composed of the light verb *sir-* ‘do.’ These structures are called the light verb construction, and details will be discussed in §??

With regard to (111b), the infinitive can become the core argument of the nominal predicate as in (113a-c) (see §?? for more details on nominal predicate). The infinitives take simple forms in this environment.

(113) As the core argument of the nominal predicate

- a. waakjaa anmaaja gan sji uta jusirooccji,
 waakja-a anmaa=ja *ga-n* *sir-ti* *uta* *jusir-oo=ccji*
 1PL-ADNZ mother=TOP MES-ADVZ do-SEQ song teach-INT=QT
 [Core argument] [Nominal predicate]
 jusiga siki jatanmundoo.
 jusir-Ø=ga *siki* *jar-tar-n=mun=doo*
 [teach-INF]=NOM [favorite COP-PST-PTCP]=ADVR=ASS

‘My mother (thought) that (she) tried to teach (me) the (traditional) songs in this way, and (she) liked teaching [lit. About her, teaching was a favorite (thing)].’ [Co: 111113_01.txt]

- b. *heisjeikaci kawaija* |*sjoowanannen|gadi?* [Core
heisjei=kaci kavar-i=ja *sjoowa+nan+nen=gadi*
 [Heisei=ALL change-INF]=TOP [Showa+what+year]=LMT
 argument] [Nominal predicate]
 ‘When did Showa [Japanese era, 1926-1989] change to Heisei
 [Japanese era, 1989 to present]?’ [lit. ‘The change into Heisei is until
 what year of Showa?’] [Co: 110328_00.txt]
- c. *c’jun* *simac’jutu* *hanasiga*
c’ju=nu *sima+c’ju=tu* *hanas-i=ga*
 [person=GEN community+person=COM talk-INF]=NOM
sikiccjijo. [Core argument] [Nominal predicate]
siki=ccji=joo
 [favorite]=QT=CFM1
 ‘(The person) likes talking with a person from another community.’
 [lit. ‘(About the person) talking with a person of (another) person’s
 community is favorite.’] [Co: 120415_01.txt]

It should be noted that the infinitive /*kawai/ kavar-i* (change-INF) ‘changing’ in (113b) retains its own argument *heisjei=kaci* (Heisei=ALL) ‘to Heisei.’ Similarly, the infinitive /*hanasi/ hanas-i* (talk-INF) ‘talking’ in (113c) retains its own argument *c’ju=nu sima+c’ju=tu* (person=GEN community+person=COM) ‘with a person from another community.’

With regard to (111c), the infinitive can be used in the predicate slot in the main clause. The infinitives take either simple forms or lengthened forms in this environment (see §?? for more details). The infinitive in the predicate slot may be followed by a copula verb as in (114a-c). That is, it forms a nominal predicate phrase.

(114) In the predicate slot in the main clause

- a. [Context: Remembering the days when people sent off the people
 who went to mainland Japan]
umanan *sanbasinu ati,* *umanti* *ciki*
u-ma=nan *sanbasi=nu ar-ti* *u-ma=nanti* *cikir-Ø*
 MES-place=LOC1 pier=NOM exist-SEQ [MES-place=LOC2 attach-INF
jatattu. [Nominal predicate]
jar-tar-tu
 COP-PST-CSL]
 ‘There is a pier there, and (the ship) came alongside there [lit. (the
 ship) was to dock there].’ [Co: 120415_00.txt]

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- b. |heitai|kaci xxx turari jappoo,
heitai=kaci tur-arir-Ø jar-boo nusi=ja
 [soldier=ALL take-PASS-INF COP-CND] RFL=TOP
 nusjee |konoehei|ccji j'icji,
konoe+hei=ccji j'-ti
 imperial.guard+soldier say-SEQ
 ‘(He said) that, “if (I) am called up to the military [lit. if (I) am taken to the military], (I) myself (will be) an imperial guard,” and ...’ [Co: 120415_00.txt]
- c. ukkaci makikum jatattujaa.
u-ri=kaci mak-i+kum-Ø jar-tar-tu=jaa
 [MES-NLZ=ALL roll-INF+into-INF COP-PST-CSL=SOL]
 [Nominal predicate]
 ‘(The old-type audio recorder) rolled up (the tape of one side) into that [i.e. the other side] (during the recording).’ [Co: 120415_01.txt]
- d. an junizooanjootaaga simautaba
a-n junizoo+anjoo-taa=ga sima+uta=ba
 DIST-ADNZ Yonezo+older.brother-PL=NOM [community+song=ACC]
 |hozon| siicji j'icji, [Subject] [Nominal predicate]
hozon sir-i=ccji j'-ti
 preservation do-INF]=QT say-SEQ
 ‘Those (people,) Yonezo and his family said that (they would) do the preservation of the (traditional) songs (of) the community.’ [Co: 111113_01.txt]

In (114a-d), the infinitives fill the predicate slot as nominals, which is clear from the copula verbs following them, although there is no copula in (114d). The infinitives in (114a-d) retain their “internal syntax” (Haspelmath 1996) such as *u-ma=nanti* (MES-place=LOC2) in (114a), *heitai=kaci* (soldier=ALL) in (114b), */ukkaci/u-ri=kaci* (MES-NLZ=ALL) in (114c), and *sima+uta=ba* (community+song=ACC) in (114d). However, infinitives in these environments cannot have its own subject, which is attested by the following examples.

- (115) a. *mizjuu* ‘ditch’ being the subject of the nominal predicate [= (??b)]
 kun |ike|karanu mizjuuga agan iki.
ku-n ike=kara=nu mizjuu=ga aga-n ik-i
 [PROX-ADNZ pond=ABL=GEN ditch]=NOM DIST-ADVZ [go-INF]
 [Subject] [Nominal predicate]

‘The ditch from this pond extends there.’ [lit. ‘The ditch from this ponds (is) to go there.’] [Co: 120415_00.txt]

- b. *mizjuu* ‘ditch’ being the subject of the verbal predicate

mizjuunu atattoo.

mizjuu=nu ar-tar=doo

ditch=NOM exist-PST=ASS

‘There was a ditch.’ [Co: 120415_00.txt]

The nominative particle has two forms *ga* and *nu*. The former *ga* (NOM) is used when the preceding nominal belongs to the higher position in the animacy hierarchy, and the latter *nu* (NOM) is used when the preceding nominal belongs to the lower position in the animacy hierarchy (see §?? for more details). Therefore, *mizjuu* ‘ditch’ normally takes *nu* (NOM) as in (115b), since it indicates an inanimate referent, which is in the lowest position in the animacy hierarchy. However, if the predicate is filled by an NP, i.e. a nominal predicate, the subject always takes *ga* (NOM) irrespective of the animacy of the preceding nominal (see §?? for more details). Thus, *mizjuu* ‘ditch’ in (115a) takes the nominative particle *ga* (not *nu*). This means the infinitive *ik-i* (go-INF) ‘going’ fills the predicate slot of the main clause, and the subject is *mizjuu* ‘ditch.’ In other words, *mizjuu* ‘ditch’ and *ik-i* (go-INF) does not form a single (nominal) clause. Otherwise, the alleged nominal clause as a whole would fill the predicate of the main clause, where the subject of the *ik-* ‘go’ has to take the nominative particle *nu*, since the internal syntax of the alleged nominal clause does not require *mizjuu* ‘ditch’ to take *ga* (NOM). Considering the above examples, we can conclude that the infinitive as the nominal predicate in the main clause (or complement clause) is a verbal form that can retain its arguments with the exception of the subject. The infinitive followed by *n* (DAT1), however, is not the case since it can retain the subject’s nominative *nu* as in *a-n c’ju=nkja=nu* (DIST-ADNZ person=APPR=NOM) in (116b) below.

With regard to (111d), if the infinitive is followed by *n* (DAT1), it can indicate a certain temporal point as in (116a-f). The infinitives take simple forms in this environment.

- (116) Before *n* (DAT1) indicating a temporal point

- | | | | |
|----|------------------------|---------------------------------|--------------------|
| a. | <i>usatoobasanga</i> | <i>wuinnja</i> | <i>murū iccja</i> |
| | <i>usato+obasan=ga</i> | <i>wur-i=n= atanmuncjijo.ja</i> | <i>murū iccj-a</i> |
| | Usato+old.woman=NOM | exist-INF=DAT1=TOP | very good-ADJ |

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ar-tar-n=mun=ccji=joo

STV-PST-PTCP=ADVR=QT=CFM1

‘When Usato was (with us) [i.e. was alive and healthy] it was very good.’ [Co: 110328_00.txt]

- b. an c’junkjanu |koocjoosjensjei|
a-n c’ju=nkja=nu koocjoo+sjensjei
 DIST-PTCP person=APPR=NOM principal+teacher
 sjuinga, amuronti singa,
sir-tur-i=n=ga amuro=nanti sir-i=n=ga
 do-PROG-INF=DAT1=NOM Amuro=LOC1 do-INF=DAT1=NOM
 amuronu k’wasainu sjan tukidarooga.
amuro=nu k’wasai=nu sir-tar-n tuki=daroo=ga
 Amuro=NOM fire=NOM do-PST-PTCP time=SUPP=CFM3

‘Probably, the time (when) that person was doing the principal (of the elementary school), the time (when he) did (it) at Amuro, is the time when Amuro caught fire.’ [Co: 110328_00.txt]

- c. [Context: Speaking to US, whose family used to deal in fish] = (??b)
naakjaga sji mooinnja, simanu
naa-kja=ga sir-ti moor-i=n=ja sima=nu
 2.HON-PL=NOM do-SEQ HON-INF=DAT1=TOP island=GEN
j’udarooga?
j’u=daroo=ga
 fish=SUPP=CFM3
 ‘When you dealt in (fish), (they were) probably fish from the community [i.e. fish taken around the community].’ [Co: 110328_00.txt]

- d. [= (??)]
amanan wuinkara, naa naikwa kawati,
a-ma=nan wur-i=n=kara naa naikwa kawar-ti
 DIST-place=LOC1 exist-INF=DAT1=ABL already a.little strange-SEQ
 ‘(The person) was already strange since [lit. from when] (the person) was there, and ...’ [Co: 120415_01.txt]
- e. uraga amaaci ikinnja, wanna
ura=ga a-ma=kaci ik-i=n=ja wan=ja
 2.NHON.SG=NOM DIST-place=ALL go-INF=DAT1=TOP 1SG=TOP

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Before concluding this section, I want to mention two affixes that have the same form and can appear in the predicate slot of the main clause, i.e. *-i* (INF) and *-i* (NPST). As discussed in §??, the non-past affix *-i* (Group-II affix) cannot directly follow any verbal root, e.g. **jum-i* (read-NPST). However, the same form *jum-i* (read-INF) can appear in the sentence-final position. So far, we have regarded this as the infinitival affix *-i* (not the non-past affix *-i*). This analysis is supported by the following facts that the non-past affix *-i* assimilates to the question particle *na* as in (118a) (see §?? for more details), but the infinitival affix *-i* does not as in (118b).

- (118) a. *-i* (NPST)
 namaara hon jumjunnja?
nama=kara hon jum-jur-i=na
 now=ABL book read-UMRK-NPST=PLQ
 ‘Do you read a book from now?’ [El: 130814]
- b. *-i* (INF)
 namaara hon jumiina?
nama=kara hon jum-i=na
 now=ABL book read-INF=PLQ
 ‘Do you read a book from now?’ [El: 110914]

In (118a), *na* (PLQ) is palatalized by *-i* (NPST) and also *-i* (NPST) is nasalized by *na* (PLQ): *//i=na//* > (palatalization) > */i=nja/* > (nasalization) > */n=nja/*. If the *-i* in (118b) is the non-past affix *-i*, the same rules have to be applied, and the results would be a form like */jumunnja/*: *//jum-i=na//* > (palatalization) > */jum-i=nja/* > (nasalization) > */jum-n=nja/* > (vowel insertion) > */jum-un=nja/* (about the alleged vowel insertion, see §??). However, *-i* (INF) is lengthened before *na* (PLQ) forming */iina/* (see §?? for more details about the lengthened infinitive). Thus, we assume that *-i* (INF) in (118b) is different from *-i* (NPST).

3.4.5 Affix that seems to be across word classes

The participial affix *-n* and the adnominalizer *-n* have the same form as in (119a-b).

- (119) a. The participial affix *-n*
- | | | | |
|----------|----------------|------------------|-------------------|
| hinzjaa | succjun | nisəənu | tuutai, |
| [hinzjaa | sukk-tur-n] | Adnominal clause | nisəə=nu tuur-tai |
| goat | pull-PROG-PTCP | young.man=NOM | pass-LST |
- ‘A young man who was pulling a goat passed (there), and ...’ [PF:

090305_01.txt]

b. The adnominalizer *-n*

[Context: TM and MY were asked to talk alone, so they felt difficulty to find a topic to talk of.]

kjuuja	an	nīsəənu	mjanba,
<i>kjuu=ja</i>	[<i>a-n</i>] _{Adnominal (word)}	<i>nīsəə=nu</i>	<i>mj-an-ba</i>
today=TOP	DSIT-ADNZ	young.man=NOM	see-NEG-CSL
jakkəə.			
<i>jakkəə</i>			
trouble			

‘Today that young man [i.e. the present author] does not see (us), so (we are in) trouble.’ [Co: 101023_01.txt]

Both of the affixes have the adnominal function. In (8-118a), /succjun/ *sukk-tur-n* (pull-PROG-PTCP) ‘pulling’ (and its object *hinzjaa* ‘goat’ in the same clause) modifies the following nominal *nīsəə* ‘young man.’ In (8-118b), *a-n* (DIST-ADNZ) ‘that (one)’ also modifies the following nominal *nīsəə* ‘young man.’ Thus, one might think these two affixes are the same single affix. However, I do not take the analysis, because of the difference of the root classes that precede *-n* (PTCP) and *-n* (ADNZ).

The root *sukk-* ‘pull’ can take an aspectual affix *-tur* (PROG) as in (8-118a) and a temporal affix *-tar* (PST) such as /succja/ *sukk-tar* (pull-PST). On the contrary, *a-* (DIST) cannot take those affixes such as */atun/ *a-tur-n* (DIST-PROG-PTCP) or */ata/ *a-tar* (DIST-PST). Thus, the former root *sukk-* ‘pull’ is morphologically different from the latter root *a-* (DIST). Furthermore, *a-* (DIST) contrasts with *ku-* (PROX) and *u-* (MES) in deictic function (see §??). In this grammar, the root class such as *sukk-* ‘pull’ is called the verbal root (see §??), and the root class such as *a-* (DIST) is called the demonstrative root (see §??). Moreover, the root such as *sukk-* ‘pull’ can take its own core (or peripheral) argument, e.g. *hinzjaa* ‘goat’ as in (8-118a). On the contrary, *a-* (DIST) cannot take any argument. Thus, *sukk-* ‘pull’ is also syntactically different from *a-* (DIST). A word that includes a verbal root and that can take its own argument may be called the verb. A word that includes a demonstrative root may be called the demonstrative. Therefore, /succjun/ *sukk-tur-n* (pull-PROG-PTCP) ‘pulling’ as in (8-118 a) is a verb, and *a-n* (DIST-ADNZ) ‘that (one)’ as in (8-118 b) is a demonstrative.

In conclusion, *-n* (PTCP) in (8-118 a) appears in the verb, but *-n* (ADNZ) in (8-118 b) does not appear in the verb. Thus, the former may be called the verbal affix, but the latter may not. That is, we do not regard them as the same affix (at least

synchronically). The verbal affixes such as *-n* (PTCP) are kinds of “word-class-changing” inflections (cf. Haspelmath 1996).

3.5 Derivational morphology

In this section, I will present the derivational affixes (see §??) and the verbal compounding (see §??).

3.5.1 Derivational affixes

There are eight verbal derivational affixes in Yuwan: *-as* (CAUS), *-arir* (PASS), *-tuk* (PRPR), *-arir* (CAP), *-tur* (PROG), *-jawur* (POL), *-jur* (UMRK) and *-təər* (RSL). Additionally, two inflectional affixes can appear in the non-word-final position like derivational affixes, i.e. *-an* (NEG) and *-tar* (PST). The possible (and impossible) combinations of them were already shown in (1) and (2) in §??. It is worth noting that *-tur* (PROG) and *-təər* (RSL) originated from the auxiliary verb construction (“AVC”): *-tur* (PROG) < **-ti* **wur*- (SEQ PROG); *-təər* (RSL) < **-ti* **ar*- (SEQ RSL) (see §?? for more details). It is probable that *-tuk* (PRPR) originated from the AVC composed of **-ti* (SEQ) and **uk*- (PRPR) (< **uk*- ‘put’). However, there is no use of the *uk*- ‘put’ as the auxiliary verb in modern Yuwan.

The derivational affixes can be classified into the following categories.

Table 3.30: Derivational affixes in Yuwan

Category	Form	Meaning
Valency-changing	<i>-as</i> Causative <i>-arir</i> Passive <i>-arir</i> Capability	
Aspect	<i>-jur</i> Unmarked <i>-tur</i> Progressive <i>-təər</i> Resultative	
Modality	<i>-tuk</i> Preparative <i>-jawur</i> Politeness	

In the following subsections, I will present examples of the derivational affixes in Table 1.30 in turn.

3.5.1.1 *-as* (CAUS)

-as (CAUS) makes the agent (or experiencer) of the action indicated by the verbal root become the causee, which is marked by *ba* (ACC) or *n* (DAT1) in principle. The causee of the intransitive verb is likely to be marked by *ba* (ACC), and that

of the transitive verb is usually marked by *n* (DAT1), but the latter may also be marked by *kaci* (ALL). Additionally, *-as* (CAUS) can introduce the causer, which is marked by the nominative case *ga* (or *nu*).

First, I will present the example of the intransitive verb *jam-* ‘have a pain.’

(120) Intransitive verbal root: *jam-* ‘have a pain’

a. Without *-as* (CAUS)

[Context: A boy fell off a bicycle on which a basketful of pears had been loaded.]

jinganu k'woo nasi (un) baramacjattu, naa,
jinga=nu k'wa=ja nasi u-n baramak-tar-tu naa
 male=GEN child=TOP pear MES-ADNZ scatter-PST-CSL FIL

jukkadi kan sji sjuti,
jukkadi ka-n sir-ti sir-jur-ti
 continuously PROX-ADVZ do-SEQ do-UMRK-SEQ

jamjuncji j'icjuti,
jam-jur-n=ccji j'-tur-ti
 have.a.pain-UMRK-PTCP=QT say-PROG-SEQ

‘The boy scattered the pears, and was saying (he) was continuously in pain doing like this, and ...’ [PF: 090827_02.txt]

b. With *-as* (CAUS) [= (??)]

[Context: Complaining about an acquaintance’s slander]

wanga kucisji nusiboo
wan=ga kuci=sji nusi=ba=ja
 1SG=NOM mouth=INST RFL=ACC=TOP

jamacjuncji.
jam-as-tur-n=ccji
 have.a.pain-CAUS-PROG-PTCP=QT

‘(The person said) that I was making the person ill using (my) mouth, and ...’ [Co: 120415_01.txt]

In (120a), the experiencer (i.e. *jinga=nu k'wa* ‘boy’) of the intransitive verb *jam-* ‘have a pain’ is the subject of the clause. Thus, it does not take *ba* (ACC). However, if *jam-* ‘have a pain’ takes the causative affix *-as*, the experiencer (i.e. *nusi* (RFL), which is a participant different from the speaker TM) takes *ba* (ACC) as a causee, and the causer (i.e. *wan* ‘I,’ which is the speaker TM) takes *ga* (NOM) as in (120b).

Secondly, I will present examples of the transitive verb *koow-* ‘buy.’

(121) Transitive verbal root: *koow-* ‘buy’

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- a. Without *-as* (CAUS)
 akiraga |hon| koojui
akira=ga hon koow-jur-i
 Akira=NOM book buy-UMRK-NPST
 ‘Akira buys a book.’ [El: 111118]
- b. With *-as* (CAUS)
 wanga akiran |hon| koowasoojəə.
wan=ga akira=n hon koow-as-oo=jəə
 1SG=NOM Akira=DAT1 book buy-CAUS-INT=CFM2
 ‘I will have Akira buy a book.’ [El: 111118]

In fact, there is no example where all of the causee, causer, and object of a transitive verb appear in the text data. That is not uncommon cross-linguistically (Dryer 2007: 79). Thus, the example in (121a) was taken in elicitation. In (121a), the agent (i.e. *akira* ‘Akira’) of the transitive verb *koow-* ‘buy’ is the subject of the clause, and marked by *ga* (NOM). However, if *koow-* ‘buy’ takes the causative affix *-as*, the agent (i.e. *akira* ‘Akira’) takes *ba* (ACC) as a causee, and the causer (i.e. *wan* ‘I’) takes *ga* (NOM) as in (121b). Interestingly, the causee of the transitive verb may be marked by *kaci* (ALL) as in (122), where the transitive verb is *kak-* ‘write.’

- (122) [= (??b)]
 arin/arikaci/*arinkati kakasoojəə.
a-ri=n/a-ri=kaci/a-ri=nkati kak-as-oo=jəə
 DIST-NLZ=DAT1/DIST-NLZ=ALL/DIST-NLZ=DAT2 write-CAUS-INT=CFM2
 ‘(I) will make that person write (it).’ [El: 130820]

As mentioned in §??, *ba* (ACC) may be omitted. Thus, the causee of the transitive verbs may be marked by nothing as in (123a-b).

- (123) Causee of the transitive verbs being not marked

- a. Causee is an inanimate referent
 cjuuto ikinnja |zitsensja| hankəərəcji,
cjuuto ik-i=n=ja zitsensja hankəər-as-ti
 middle go-INF=DAT1=TOP bicycle tumble-CAUS-SEQ
 ‘When (the boy) went halfway, (he) tumbled off the bicycle (that he was riding on), and ...’ [PF: 090222_00.txt]

- b. Causee is a personal pronoun

nan umoorasanboocji umuti,
nan umoor-as-an-boo=ccji umuw-ti
 2.HON.SG come.HON-CAUS-NEG-CND=QT think-SEQ
 ‘(I) thought that (I) have to make you come, and ...’ [Co:
 110328_00.txt]

In (123a), the causee (i.e. *zitsnsja* ‘bicycle’) of the verbal stem *hankəər-as* (tumble-CAUS) ‘to have (something or someone) tumble’ does not take any case particle. Similarly, in (123b), the causee (i.e. *nan* ‘you’) of the verbal stem *umoor-as* (come.HON-CAUS) ‘to have (someone) come’ does not take any case particle. Interestingly, when the head nominal is the personal pronoun, the alternation between *ba* (ACC) and nothing is rarely found in the non-causative clauses (see §??). However, in the causative-clause as in (123b), *ba* (ACC) may alternate with nothing.

The light verb *sir-* ‘do’ has a causative counterpart, i.e. *simir-* (do.CAUS), which is composed of a single root, and it cannot be divided into more than one morpheme such as **sir-mir-* (do-CAUS), since one cannot say, e.g. **/jummiroo/ jummir-oo* (read-CAUS-INT) in any context.

- (124) *simir-* (do.CAUS)

- a. kurəə kunuguru (sadaega si) sadaega
ku-ri=ja kunuguru sadae=ga simir sadae=ga
 PROX-NLZ=TOP these.days Sadae=NOM do.CAUS Sadae=NOM
simitəəti zja.
simir-təər-ti zjar
 do.CAUS-RSL-SEQ COP
 ‘This one [i.e. a picture] is (what) Sadae has made (my son) do [i.e. enlarge the picture] these dasys.’ [Co: 120415_00.txt]
- b. kurəə akiran simiroojəə.
ku-ri=ja akira=n simir-oo=jəə
 PROX-NLZ=TOP Akira=DAT1 do.CAUS-INT=CFM2
 ‘(I) will make Akira do this.’ [El: 111116]

In (124a), the causee (i.e. ‘my son’) is not expressed, and the causer (i.e. *sadae* ‘Sadae’) is marked by *ga* (NOM). In (124b), the causee (i.e. *akira* ‘Akira’) is marked by *n* (DAT1), and the causer (i.e. ‘I’) is not expressed. It should be mentioned that *sir-* ‘do’ can take *-as* (CAUS) as in (125), although it does not appear in the text data.

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- (125) *sir-* ‘do’ + *-as* (CAUS)
 atoora akiran sirasoojəə.
atu=kara akira=n sir-as-oo=jəə
 after=ABL Akira=DAT1 do-CAUS-INT=CFM2
 ‘(I) will make Akira do (it) later.’ [El: 111116]

Furthermore, the lexical causative verb *simir-* (do.CAUS) can take the causative affix *-as* (CAUS) redundantly. However, the combination of *simir-* (do.CAUS) and *-as* (CAUS) introduces only one participant (not two participants) in the event of the causal chain as in (126a-b).

- (126) *simir-* (do.CAUS) + *-as* (CAUS)
- a. |daibu| an c^ʔjunkjannja |daibu kuroo|
daibu a-n c^ʔju=nkja=n=ja daibu kuroo
 many DIST-ADNZ person=APPR=DAT1=TOP many hardship
simirasatta.
simir-as-ar-ta
 do.CAUS-CAUS-PASS-PST
 ‘(I) was made to undergo many hardships by that person.’ [Co: 120415_01.txt]
- b. atoora akiran simirasoojəə.
atu=kara akira=n simir-as-oo=jəə
 after=ABL Akira=DAT1 do.CAUS-CAUS-INT=CFM2
 ‘(I) will make Akira do (it) later.’ [El: 111116]

In (126a), the event expressed by the predicate includes only two participants, i.e. the causee (i.e. ‘I’), which is not expressed in the clause, and the causer (i.e. *a-n c^ʔju=nkja* ‘that person’). Similarly, in (126b), the event expressed by the predicate *simir-as* (do.CAUS-CAUS) includes only two participants, i.e. the causee (i.e. *akira* ‘Akira’) and the causer (i.e. ‘I’), although the causer is not overtly expressed in the clause. In other words, (126b) has the same meaning with (125). The examples in (126a-b) show that the double causative markings (both lexically and affixally) do not double the causal event itself. In other words, they do not mean ‘A causes B to make C do (something),’ but only mean ‘A causes B to do (something).’

3.5.1.2 *-ar(ir)* (PASS)

-ar(ir) (PASS) changes the syntactic valency of the transitive verb as in (127a-b). The morphophonological alternation of *-ar(ir)* (PASS) was discussed in §??

On the one hand, in (127a), the non-passive verbal stem, i.e. *sjug-i+agir-* (hit-INF+severely) ‘to hit severely,’ marks the agent with *ga* (NOM) and the patient with *ba* (ACC). On the other hand, in (127b), the passive verbal stem, i.e. *sjug-i+agir-ar* (hit-INF+ severely-PASS) ‘to be hit severely,’ marks the agent with *n* (DAT1) and the patient with *ga* (NOM). In fact, the agent in the passive clause can be marked only by *n* (DAT1) (see also (??a) in §??).

- (127) a. Without *-ar(ir)* (PASS)
- | | | | |
|--|----------------|----------------------------|---------------|
| akiraba | zjuuga | sjugjagitudoo. | Patient Agent |
| <i>akira=ba</i> | <i>zjuu=ga</i> | <i>sjug-i+agir-tur=doo</i> | |
| Akira=ACC father=NOM hit-INF+severely-PROG=ASS | | | |
| ‘(His) father is hitting Akira severely.’ [El: 111116] | | | |
- b. With *-ar(ir)* (PASS)
- | | | |
|---|---------------|-------------------------------|
| akiraga | zjun | sjugjagirattuddoo. |
| <i>akira=ga</i> | <i>zjuu=n</i> | <i>sjug-i+agir-ar-tur=doo</i> |
| Akira=NOM father=DAT1 hit-INF+severely-PASS-PROG=ASS | | |
| ‘Akira is being hit severely by (his) father.’ [El: 111116] | | |

The above example changes the case alignment of the arguments, but do not introduce another participant in the event expressed by the verbal root. However, there are examples that use *-ar(ir)* (PASS) to introduce another participant as in (128b).

- (128) Malefactive use of *-ar(ir)* (PASS) with the intransitive verb
- a. Without *-ar(ir)* (PASS)
- | | | |
|--|--------------|-----------------------|
| wanga | agan | ikjussaccji |
| <i>wan=ga</i> | <i>aga=n</i> | <i>ik-jur-sa=ccji</i> |
| 1SG=NOM DIST-ADVZ go-UMRK-POL=QT | | |
| ‘(I said to the present author) that, “I will go there.” [Co: 110328_00.txt] | | |
- b. With *-ar(ir)* (PASS)
- [Context: TM explained to MY why she had called her.] = (??c)
- | | | | |
|---|--------------------|----------------------------|-----|
| uran | daacika | ikjarincjiga, | ... |
| <i>ura=n</i> | <i>daa=kaci=ka</i> | <i>ik-ar(ir)-n=ccji=ga</i> | |
| 2.NHON.SG=DAT1 where=ALL=DUB go-PASS-PTCP=QT=FOC | | | |
| ‘(I thought) that (I) would suffer from your going somewhere, (so I called you.)’ [Co: 101020_01.txt] | | | |

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In (128a), the intransitive verb *ik-* ‘go’ has a single participant (i.e. ‘I’). In (128b), the same “intransitive” verb *ik-* ‘go’ takes the “passive” affix *-ar(ir)*. Here, besides the agent of *ik-* ‘go’ (i.e. *ura* ‘you’), another participant was introduced into the event, i.e. ‘I’, although it is not expressed overtly in the clause. The participant introduced by *-ar(ir)* (PASS) is always suffering from the action indicated by the verbal stem preceding it. This kind of use of the passive affix is called “malefactive” in Irabu Ryukyuan (Shimoji 2008: 493-498).

3.5.1.3 *-ar(ir)* (CAP)

-ar(ir) (CAP) expresses that the subject of the clause is capable to do the action indicated by the preceding verbal stem. The morphophonological behavior of *-ar(ir)* (CAP) is similar to *-ar(ir)* (PASS), but there are a few differences between them (see §?? for more details). *-ar(ir)* (CAP) can attach to the intransitive verb as well as the malfactive use of *-ar(ir)* (PASS) as in (129).

(129) With *-ar(ir)* (CAP)

waasan	cʔjunu	məəci	ikjaraanbajaa.
<i>waa-sa+ar-n</i>	<i>cʔju=nu</i>	<i>məə=kaci</i>	<i>ik-ar-an-ba=jaa</i>
young-ADJ+STV-PTCP	person=GEN	place=ALL	go-CAP-NEG-CSL=SOL

‘(I) cannot go to the young people’s place.’ [Co: 120415_01.txt]

Compare (129) with (128a-b). In (129), *-ar* (CAP) attaches to *ik-* ‘go’, but it does not introduce another participant, which is different from the malfactive use of *-ar(ir)* (PASS) (see §??).

Moreover, there is another difference between *-ar(ir)* (CAP) and *-ar(ir)* (PASS). The former follows *-tuk* (PRPR) as in (130a), but the latter precedes it as in (130b), although the combination of *-ar(ir)* (PASS) and *-tuk* (PRPR) is only found in elicitation.

(130) a. *-ar(ir)* (CAP) follows *-tuk* (PRPR) [= (44a)]

reitou nansəka	ucjukuboo,	iciigadi	jatin,
<i>reitou=nan=səəka</i>	<i>uk-tuk-boo</i>	<i>icii=gadi</i>	<i>jar-ti=n</i>
freezer=LOC1=just	put-PFV-CND	when=LMT	COP-SEQ=even

ucjukarii.
uk-tuk-ar(ir)-i
 put-PRPR-CAP-NPST
 ‘If (you) put (the pickles) in the freezer, you can keep (them) no matter how long (the period of preservation) was.’ [Co: 101023_01.txt]

- b. *-ar(ir)* (PASS) precedes *-tuk* (PRPR)
 oosattuki!
oos-ar-tuk-i
 scold-PASS-PRPR-IMP
 ‘Be scolded (to be mature)!’ [El: 100221]

-ar(ir) (CAP) can change the syntactic valency. In (131a), the subject of /*kacja/kak-tar* (write-PST) ‘wrote’ is marked by the nominative *ga*, which may be replaced by *n* ‘also’ as in (131b). If the verb takes *-ar(ir)* (CAP), the subject may be marked by the dative particle *n* (DAT1) as in (131c), where *n* (DAT1) is not replaced, but followed by *n* ‘also.’

(131) Without *-ar* (CAP)

- a. *wanga kacjattoo.*
wan=ga kak-tar=doo
 1SG=NOM write-PST=ASS
 ‘I wrote (it).’ [El: 140227]
- b. *wanun kacjattoo.*
wan=n kak-tar=doo
 1SG=also write-PST=ASS
 ‘I also wrote (it).’ [El: 140227]
- With *-ar(ir)* (CAP)

- c. *wannin kakattattoo.*
wan=n=n kak-ar-tar=doo
 1SG=DAT1=also write-CAP-PST=ASS
 ‘I was also able to write (it).’ [El: 140227]

Before concluding this subsection, it should be mentioned that there are few rare cases where the double marking of *-ar* (CAP) occurs. The affix *-ar* (CAP) is always reduplicated when the verbal root ends with //aw// and is in the non-past tense with *-an* (NEG): /*hijoo-r-ar-an/ hijaw-ar-ar-an* (pick.up-CAP-CAP-NEG) ‘cannot pick up,’ /*waroo-r-ar-an/ waraw-ar-ar-an* (laugh-CAP- CAP-NEG) ‘cannot laugh,’ and /*juroo-r-ar-an/ juraw-ar-ar-an* (gather-CAP-CAP-NEG) ‘cannot gather’ (see also the appendix).

3.5.1.4 *-jur* (UMRK)

-jur (UMRK) has multiple functions and it’s prototypical function is difficult to determine. In principle, it has the characteristics as in (132); see also (1) and (2) in §??

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(132) Morphologically, *-jur* (UMRK)

- a. Cannot co-occur with *-arir* (PASS)⁸ or *-arir* (CAP);
- b. Cannot co-occur with *-an* (NEG);
- c. Cannot co-occur with *-tur* (PROG);
- d. Cannot co-occur with *-jawur* (POL).

I will discuss each of these functions in turn.

With regard to (132a), *-jur* (UMRK) necessarily indicates the active voice. In Yuwan, there are three affixes that have the valency-changing function: *-as* (CAUS), *-arir* (PASS), and *-arir* (CAP). Thus, its incapability of co-occurrence with *-arir* (PASS) and *-arir* (CAP) greatly reduces the possibility of the change of valency.

With regard to (132b), *-jur* (UMRK) cannot co-occur with the negative affixes, i.e. *-an* (NEG) as in (1) in §?? or *-azii* (NEG.PLQ) as in (67) in §?? Yuwan does not have another method to express the negative polarity. Thus, the existence of *-jur* (UMRK) necessarily indicates the affirmative polarity.

With regard to (132c), *-jur* (UMRK) necessarily indicates non-progressive aspect. In Yuwan, there are three affixes (except for *-jur*) that have aspectual meaning: *-tuk* (PRPR), *-tur* (PROG), and *-təər* (RSL). Among them, *-tuk* (PRPR) and *-təər* (RSL) can co-occur with *-jur* (UMRK). The combination of *-jur* (UMRK) and *-tuk* (PRPR) will be discussed in §?? The combination of *-jur* (UMRK) and *-təər* (RSL) requires a special attention and it will be discussed in later in this section.

With regard to (132d), *-jur* (UMRK) necessarily indicates the non-polite style, although it does not necessarily mean the rudeness in a general sense, since *-jur* (UMRK) can co-occur with the honorific expression (see §?? for more details).

Additionally, *-jur* (UMRK) belongs to the Group-II affixes, which are required by some inflectional affixes such as *-i* (NPST) or *-mi* (PLQ), since those inflectional affixes cannot directly follow the verbal root (see (3b) in §?? for more details).

Considering the above facts, i.e. the active voice, the affirmative polarity, the non-progressive aspect, the non-politeness, and the necessity to some inflections, I propose that *-jur* has some “unmarked” characteristics and abbreviate them as “UMRK” in this grammar. I will show the examples of *-jur* (UMRK) below.

(133) *-jur* (UMRK)

⁸From the description in §1.1, one may think of the combination of *-arir-tuk-jur* (PASS-PRPR-UMRK). However, the combination of *-arir* (PASS) and *-tuk* (PRPR) is rare (see §1.5.1.3), and the combination more than two derivational affixes is also rare (see §1.1). Thus, we may postulate that *-jur* (UMRK) cannot co-occur with (or at least rarely co-occurs with) *-arir* (PASS).

- a. With *-i* (NPST) [= (54)]
 [Context: TM and US were talking about the present author.]
 |hoogen|nu attakəə wakajui.
hoogen=nu attakəə wakar-jur-i
 dialect=NOM everything understand-UMRK-NPST
 ‘(He) understands everything (about our) dialect.’ [Co: 110328_00.txt]
- b. With *-mi* (PLQ) [= (66a)]
 waakjaa janti .. kamjumi?
waakja-a jaa=nanti kam-jur-mi
 1PL-ADNZ house=LOC1 eat-UMRK-PLQ
 ‘Do (you) eat in my house?’ [Co: 120415_01.txt]

In addition, *-jur* (UMRK) can express habitual aspect if it precedes *-tar* (PST), *-ti* (SEQ), or *-təər* (RSL) as shown in (134a-g).

(134) *-jur* (UMRK) expressing habitual aspect

With *-tar* (PST)

- a. naakjaa jaakacjəə |nenzjuu|
naakja-a jaa=kaci=ja nenzjuu
 2.HON.SG-ADNZ house=ALL=TOP always
 ikjutanban,
ik-jur-tar-n=ban
 go-UMRK-PST-PTCP=ADVR
 ‘(I) always used to go to your house, but ...’ [Co: 110328_00.txt]
- b. injasainnja, minoetankjatu
inja-sa+ar-i=n=ja minoe-taa=nkja=tu
 young-ADJ+STV-INF=DAT1=TOP Minoe-PL=APPR=COM
 asibjutancji.
asib-jur-tar-n=ccji
 play-UMRK-PST-PTCP=QT
 ‘(I heard MY said) that (MY) used to play with Minoe in her childhood.’ [Co: 110328_00.txt]
- c. |kanarazu| amanti utoosjutattoo.
kanarazu a-ma=nanti utaw-as-jur-tar=doo
 necessarily DIST-place=LOC1 sing-CAUS-UMRK-PST=ASS
 ‘(Peopole) used to necessarily have (the participants) sing (the song) there.’ [Co: 110328_00.txt]

- [illegible]

good-ADJ STV-PST

‘(I) always used to say that, “There is no one who knows things like that [i.e. the dialect]” but if (I) asked you, (it) would have been good.’
[Co: 111113_02.txt]

With $-ti$ (SEQ)

- e. *icin* *waakjoo* *ikjuti*, *uri* *sjutassiga*.
icii=n *waakja=ja* *ik-jur-ti* *u-ri* *sir-jur-tar-siga*
 when=any 1PL=TOP go-UMRK-SEQ MES-NLS do-UMRK-PST-POL
 ‘I always used to go (to the class of kimono-making), and used to do
 it.’ [Co: 120415_01.txt]

- f. [Context: Looking at a picture taken in the old days, where some people wore European clothes (not Japanese clothes)]

kan sjan urinkjoo |nannengoro|kara
ka-n sir-tar-n u-ri=nkja=ja nannengoro=kara
 PROX-ADVZ do-PST-PTCP MES-NLZ=APPR=TOP when=ABL

kijuti?

kij-jur-ti

wear-UMRK-SEQ

‘Since when (people) got accustomed to wear that like this [i.e. European clothes]?’ [Co: 11113_01.txt]

With $-t\partial\partial r$ (RSL)

- g. urin sji, .. nunkuin
u-ri=n *sir-ti*, *nuu-nkuin* *sir-ti*
 MES-NLZ=also do-SEQ what-INDFZ do-SEQ

⁹ *sij-* ‘know’ and *-tur* (PROG) usually becomes /siccju(r)/ (see appendix), but it becomes /sicju(r)/ in this example.

sji moojutənwakejoo.
moor-jur-təər-n=wake=joo
HON-UMRK-RSL-PTCP=CFP=CFM1
‘(The person) did it too, and used to do (everything, and we can still see the results).’ [Co: 120415_01.txt]

The above examples show that the combinations of *-jur* (UMRK) with *-tar* (PST), *-ti* (SEQ), or *-təər* (RSL) can express habitual meaning. The habitual meaning of the clauses are also expressed by the co-occurring temporal words, i.e. *nenzjuu* ‘always’ as in (134a) and /*icin/ icii=n* (when=any) ‘always’ as in (134e).

In fact, there are a few examples where the combination of *-jur-tar* (UMRK-PST) does not express habitual meaning as in (135a-b).

(135) *-jur-tar* not expressing habitual aspect

- a. kunugurudu kurəə mucji kjuuta.
kunuguru=du ku-ri=ja mut-ti k-jur-ta
 recently=FOC PROX-NLZ=TOP have-SEQ come-UMRK-PST
 ‘(Satsue’s child) brought this (picture) recently.’ [Co: 120415_00.txt]
- b. [Context: The following three examples are from the conversation between TM and US.]
 ikjasji sji ikjutakai, amerikaacinkjoo?
ikja-sji sir-ti ik-jur-tar=kai amerika=kaci=nkja=ja
 how-ADVZ do-SEQ go-UMRK-PST=DUB America=ALL=APPR=TOP
 amerikaacjəə, ikjasji sji watajutakai?
amerika=kaci=ja ikja-sji sir-ti watar-jur-tar=kai
 America=ALL=TOP how-ADVZ do-SEQ cross.over-UMRK-PST=DUB
 ‘How did (the Uncle America) go to America? How did (he) cross over to America?’
- c. nuujo?
nuu=joo
 what=CFM1
 ‘What?’
- d. amerikaacinkjoo ikjasji sji izjakai, un
amerika=kaci=nkja=ja ikja-sji sir-ti ik-tar=kai u-n
 America=ALL=APPR=TOP how-ADVZ do-SEQ go-PST=DUB MES-ADNZ

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ameeziiija?

ameezii=ja

Uncle.America

‘How did the Uncle America [i.e. a nickname] go to America?’ [Co: 110328_00.txt]

In (135a), the event expressed by the clause (i.e. Satsue’s child’s bringing the picture) took place only once. Thus, *-jur* (UMRK) in this example cannot express habitual aspect. Similarly, the event in (135b-d) (i.e. the Uncle America’s crossing over to the US) took place only once. TM’s utterance in (135b) is almost the same with that in (135d), where *-jur-tar* (UMRK-PST) in (135b) is replaced by *-tar* (PST). The details of the function of *-jur* (UMRK) in (135a-b) is not very clear for the present author for now, and a finer investigation is required in the future.

3.5.1.5 *-tur* (PROG)

-tur (PROG) is originated from the AVC *-ti* (SEQ) plus *wur-* (PROG) (see Table ?? in §?? for more details). *-tur* (PROG) can express progressive aspect. That is, *-tur* (PROG) expresses continuing to do the action indicated by the verbal stem as in (136a), or keeping up the state caused by the action indicated by the verbal stem as in (136b-c).

(136) *-tur* (PROG) expressing progressive aspect

[Context: The very beginning of the monologue. ‘(I will) start from the scene (where a man) picks up the pears. There is a pear-tree, (i.e.) a big tree, ...’] = (??)

- a. unnənti uziiga cʰjui joonasi
 u-n=nənti *uzii=ga* *cʰjui* *joonasi*

MES-ADNZ=LOC2 old.man=NOM one.CLF.person pear

mutunwake.

mur-tur-n=wake

pick.up-PROG-PTCP=CFP

‘There, an old man is picking up pears.’ [PF: 090225_00.txt]

- b. [= (??a)]

|ittoki| motojamaga misje katuta.

ittoki *motojama=ga* *misje kar-tur-tar*

for.a.while Motoyama=NOM shop borrow-PROG-PST

‘For a while, Motoyama was renting the shop.’ [Co: 120415_00.txt]

c. [= (??a)]

kiinu sjanannja kagonu t'aaci ucjuti,
kii=nu sja=nan=ja kago=nu t'aaci uk-tur-ti
 tree=GEN below=LOC1=TOP basket=GEN two.CLF.thing put-PROG-SEQ
 'Under the tree, (the old man) put two baskets, and ...' [PF:
 090222_00.txt]

In (136a), the old man continued to pick up the pears. In (136b), Motoyama rented a shop and kept the contract for a while. In (136c), the old man put baskets down and left them there.

Interestingly, *-tur* (PROG) can follow the existential verb *wur-* 'exist (animate)'. In that case, the verbal stem expresses a punctual state of being there as in (137a-b).

(137) *-tur* (PROG) following *wur-* 'exist'

a. [Context: TM is talking about the meeting for old people held once a month in Yuwan.]

taruka t'aibəi wututi, kan
ta-ru=ka t'ai=bəi wur-tur-ti ka-n sir-tar-n
 who-NLZ=DUB two.CLF.person=about exist-PROG-SEQ PROX-ADVZ
 sjan hanasinkja sirarippoo,
hanasi=nkja sir-arir-boo jiccj-sa+ar-n=ban
 do-PST-PTCP conversation=APPR do-CAP-CND
 jiccjanban,

good-ADJ+STV-PTCP=ADVRS

'(It) will be good if some two (or three) people (including me) are being (there) and can make conversation like this, but ...' [Co: 120415_01.txt]

b. waakja umanan wututin, məə
waakja u-ma=nan wur-tur-ti=n məə tuur-ti=n

1PL MES-place=LOC1 exist-PROG-SEQ=even front
 tuutin, munna jan k'wa jatattu.
mun=ja j'-an k'wa jar-tar-tu
 pass-SEQ=even thing=TOP say-NEG child COP-PST-CSL

'(The child) was a child who did not say anything even if I was being there, even if (the child) passed right in front (of me).' [Co: 120415_01.txt]

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In the above examples, the combination of *wur-* ‘exist’ and *-tur* (PROG) expresses the temporary state of being at these places. This phenomenon is similar to “the Progress” form of *live* or *stand* in English discussed in Comrie (1976), since it is said that *be living* (or *be standing*) “refers to a more temporary state” (ibid.: 37).

In fact, *-tur* (PROG) does not necessarily express habitual meaning. However, it can be used in the context where the clauses have habitual meaning as in (138a-b).

(138) *-tur* (PROG) used in the contexts that have the habitual meaning

a. In the non-past tense [= (??c)]

waakjoo icinkuin waratuncjijo.

waakja=ja icii-nkuin waraw-tur-n=ccji=joo

1PL=TOP when-INDFZ laugh-PROG-PTCP=QT=CFM1

‘I am always laughing (remembering the old days).’ [Co:

120415_00.txt]

b. In the past tense [= (??)]

[Context: Talking with US about how they played in the past]

nuu sjutig, asidutakai?

nuu sir-jur-ti=ga asib-tur-tar=kai

what do-UMRK-SEQ=FOC play-PROG-PST=DUB

‘What did (we) do (when we) were playing (around here)?’ [lit.

‘Doing what, were (we) playing?’] [Co: 110328_00.txt]

In the above examples, the acts indicated by the verbal stems are (or were) being carried out habitually.

3.5.1.6 *-təər* (RSL)

-təər (RSL) is originated from the AVC *-ti* (SEQ) plus *ar-* (RSL) (see Table ?? in §?? for more details). *-təər* (RSL) has a function that is similar to the “perfect of result” that means that “a present state is referred to as being the result of some past situation” (Comrie 1976: 56). This aspect is called “resultative” in this grammar. *-təər* (RSL) can appear in any kind of predicate phrase as in (139a-d).

(139) *-təər* (RSL) expressing resultative

In the verbal predicates

a. [= (??a)]

un k^ʔwaga umanan |boosi| utucjəətattu,
u-n k^ʔwa=ga u-ma=nan boosi utus-təər-tar-tu
 MES-ADNZ child=NOM MES-place=LOC1 hat drop-RSL-PST-CSL
 ‘That boy had left [lit. dropped] (his) hat there, so ...’ [PF:
 090222_00.txt]

- b. zjennjukianjooga |heitai|kaci izji, (mm ..)
zjennjuki+anjoo=ga heitai=kaci ik-ti mii sir-ar-təər-ti
 Zenyuki+brother=NOM soldier=ALL go-SEQ eye do-PASS-RSL-SEQ
 mii sirattəəti,

‘Zenyuki went to the military, and injured [lit. had been done] (his)
 eyes, and ...’ [Co: 120415_00.txt]

In the adjectival predicates

- c. [Context: When the present author asked TM of the meaning of
 /k^ʔumitta/, TM said to MY.]
 urakjaga, mukasi jappoo, k^ʔumitta atəətijaa.
urakja=ga mukasi jar-boo k^ʔumitt-sa ar-təər-ti=jaa
 2.NHON.SG=NOM the.past COP-CND scrupulous-ADJ STV-RSL-SEQ=SOL
 ‘If (it) is in the past, you (must have been regarded as) /k^ʔumitta/ [i.e.
 scrupulous].’ [El: 120914]

In the nominal predicates

- d. haccjanna ikigaci jatəi?
haccjan=ja ikigaci jar-təər-i
 Hachan=TOP Ikegachi COP-RSL-NPST
 ‘Was Hachan (from) Ikegachi?’ [Co: 110328_00.txt]

In (139a), a boy dropped a hat, and the hat remained there (until another boy picked it up). In (139b), Zenyuki injured his eyes, and the injury lasted thereafter. In (139c), *-təər* (RSL) shows that the situation expressed by the clause is assumed in a possible world (other than the present real world). This kind of function of *-təər* (RSL) will be discussed later. In (139d), the place where Hachan was born [i.e. Ikegachi] cannot be changed from the past to the present. Therefore, *-təər* (RSL) is used in these examples.

As mentioned in §??, most of the converbal affixes, e.g. *-ba* (CSL), cannot co-occur with *-tar* (PST). In that case, *-təər* (RSL) expresses the past tense on behalf of *-tar* (PST) as in (140a-c).

(140) *-təər* (RSL) expressing the past tense before *-ba* (CSL)

- a. [Context: TM was wondering when the picture had been taken. In the picture, the men wore European clothes and the women wore Japanese clothes; TM: ‘When I was a child, there were no European clothes.’]

jingankjan kindu kicjutəəppajaa.
jinga=nkja=n kin=du kij-tur-təər-ba=jaa
 man=APPR=also kimono=FOC put.on-PROG-RSL-CSL=SOL

‘Men (in my childhood) were also wearing kimono [i.e. Japanese clothes], so (probably this picture was taken around the end of World War II).’ [Co: 111113_01.txt]

- b. daaciga¹⁰ cukuracji kii jataroojaa.
daa=kaci=gajaaroo cukur-as-ti k-i jar-tar-oo=jaa
 where=ALL=DUB make-CAUS-SEQ come-INF COP-PST-SUPP=SOL
 juwanc[?]joo cukujun c[?]joo
juwan+c[?]ju=ja cukur-jur-n c[?]ju=ja
 Yuwan+person=TOP make-UMRK-PTCP person=TOP
 wurantəəppa.
wur-an-təər-ba
 exist-NEG-RSL-CSL

‘Probably (they) had (someone) make (the riverboats) somewhere. Since there were no people in Yuwan who make (the riverboats).’ [Co: 111113_01.txt]

- c. [Context: Remembering a bayan tree that was famous since it was very big]

juwanc[?]joo gan sjan |sjumi|ga
juwan+c[?]ju=ja ga-n sir-tar-n sjumi=ga
 Yuwan+person=TOP MES-ADVZ do-PST-PTCP hobby=NOM
 nəntəəppajaa.
nə-an-təər-ba=jaa
 exist-NEG-RSL-CSL=SOL

‘The people in Yuwan did not have a hobby like that [i.e. taking pictures], so (there is no picture of the famous banyan tree).’ [Co: 111113_02.txt]

¹⁰It is probable that this /ga/ is not *gajaaroo* (DUB), but *ga* (FOC). In that case, this example would express question; that is, *daa* ‘where’ is not “indefinitised.”

In (140a-c), *-təər* (RSL) preceding *-ba* (CSL) expresses the past tense. Especially, it is clear from (140a), where the speaker compared the European clothes in the picture with the Japanese clothes in the past [i.e. in her childhood]. If one wants to express the resultative meaning in the same environment, one can reduplicate *-təər* (RSL) as in (141).

- (141) Double marking of *-təər* (RSL) expressing the resultative and the past tense before *-ba* (CSL)

[Context: TM tried to remember the day when MS's grandfather died.]

attaaja m'aritetəəppajaa.

a-ri-taa=ja m'arir-təər-təər-ba=jaa

DIST-NLZ-PL=TOP be.born-RSL-RSL-CSL=SOL

'Those people had already been born (at the time when MS's grandfather died), so ...' [Co: 120415_01.txt]

In (141), the first *-təər* (RSL) expresses the resultative aspect, and the second *-təər* (RSL) expresses the past tense preceding *-ba* (CSL). The double marking of *-təər* (RSL) is the only exception for the generalization in (1) in §??

Finally, I will present the examples where *-təər* (RSL) is used in the clauses that express counter-factual situation as in (142a-c).

- (142) *-təər* (RSL) used in the contexts that express counter-factual situation

- a. kan sjanturoonan |nannen|cji kəcjukuboo,
 ka-n sir-tar-n=turoo=nan nannen=ccji kak-tuk-boo
 PROX-ADVZ do-PST-PTCP=place=LOC1 what.year=QT write-PRPR-CND

jiccja atənbə.jaa.

jiccj-sa ar-təər-n=bən=jaa

good-ADJ STV-RSL-PTCP=ADVRS=SOL

'If (someone) put the date (when the picture was taken) around here, (it) would be good (for us), but (there is no date).' [Co: 120415_01.txt]

- b. unin|goro|kara naacibaacji umuwannən, jəito
 unin-goro=kara naacibaa=ccji umuw-an-nən jəito
 that.time-around=ABL tone.deaf=QT think-NEG-SEQ well
 hamicikiti narəəboo, (mmm)
 hamicikir-ti naraw-boo zjoozi
 do.one's.best-SEQ learn-CND good.at

zjoozi najutənmundoojaa.
nar-jur-təər-n=mun=doo=jaa
become-UMRK-RSL-PTCP=ADVRS=ASS=SOL

'If (I) didn't think that (I was) tone-deaf and did my best to learn (the traditional songs) since those days, (I) would have been good at (them), but (I didn't do that).' [Co: 111113_01.txt]

- c. [Context: TM regretted that she couldn't think of MS as a supporter to teach the dialect to the present author. Then, TM said the following utterance to the present author.]
 |benkjoɔ| najutənmondoo.
benkjoɔ nar-jur-təər-n=mun=doo
 study become-UMRK-RSL-PTCP=ADVRS=ASS
 '(If you had asked him, it) must have become good study (for you), but (it did not become so).' [Co: 111113_02.txt]

All of the above examples have the conditional adverbial clauses (i.e. protasis), overtly in (142a-b) and covertly in (142c), and these adverbial clauses express counter-factual situations. Thus, the superordinate clauses that express their conclusions (i.e. apodosis) also express counter-factual situations, where *-təər* (RSL) is used. The use of *-təər* (RSL) as in (142b) provides a clear contrast to *-tar* (PST) as in (134d) in §?? In (142b), *nar-jur-təər-n=mun* (become-UMRK-RSL-PTCP=ADVRS) ‘would have become (good at singing), but ...’ expresses a counter-factual situation. On the contrary, in (134d), *j^o-jur-tar-n=mun* (say-UMRK-PST-PTCP=ADVRS) ‘used to say (a phrase), but ...’ expresses the real fact.

3.5.1.7 *-tuk* (PRPR)

-tuk (PRPR) expresses that one does the act (indicated by the verbal stem) in preparation for the future. I will tentatively call this function as “preparative (PRPR)” in this grammar. Interestingly, *-tuk* (PRPR) cannot co-occur with *-tar* (PST). Thus, it is probable that this affix belongs to the irrealis modality. I will present examples of *-tuk* (PRPR) below.

- (143) a. [= (44a)]
 |reitou|nansəka ucjukuboo, iciigadi jatín,
reitou=nan=səka uk-tuk-boo icii=gadi jar-ti=n
 freezer=LOC1=just put-PFV-CND when=LMT COP-SEQ=even

ucjukarii.

uk-tuk-arir-i

put-PRPR-CAP-NPST

‘If (you) put (the pickles) in the freezer (in preparation for future), you can keep (them) no matter how long (the period of preservation) was.’ [Co: 101023_01.txt]

b. [= (142a)]

kan sjanturoonan |nannen|cji kacjukuboo,

ka-n sir-tar-n=turoo=nan nannen=ccji kak-tuk-boo

PROX-ADVZ do-PST-PTCP=place=LOC1 what.year=QT write-PRPR-CND

jiccja atənbə.jaa.

jiccj-sa ar-təər-n=bənbə=jaa

good-ADJ STV-RSL-PTCP=ADVRS=SOL

‘If (someone) put the date (when the picture was taken) around here (in preparation for future), (it) would be good (for us), but (there is no date).’ [Co: 120415_01.txt]

c. [Context: There was a person who threw a pack of sweets against the door of TM’s house.]

uri tii kiinnajoocji, ...

u-ri tii kiir-na=joo=ccji uk-tuk-i=joo=ccji

MES-NLZ hand hang-PROH=CFM1=QT put-PRPR-IMP=CFM1=QT

ucjukijoocji jʔicji,

jʔ-ti

say-SEQ

‘(My husband) said that, “Don’t touch (it). Put (it still there in preparation for future).” And then ...’ [Co: 120415_01.txt]

In (143a), to put the pickles in the freezer is required to preserve them. In (143b), to write the date in the picture is required to prepare for someone to know in future the correct date when the picture was taken. In (143c), to put the pack untouched is required for the person (who threw it) to notice that the pack is still there. In (143a-b), the clauses express counter-factual (or imaginary) events. In (143c), the clause that includes *-tuk* (PRPR) expresses command. That is, in all of the above examples, *-tuk* (PRPR) is used in irrealis mood.

3.5.1.8 *-jawur* (POL)

-jawur (POL) expresses the hearer-oriented politeness. *-jawur* (POL) sometimes alternates with *-joor*. In fact, TM and MY seldom use this politeness affix even if

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they speak with person who is older than them. In that case, they are likely to use the honorific verbs (see §??). However, MS, who is quite younger than other consultants, frequently uses the politeness affix. I will present examples of *-jawur* (POL) below, although they were used only in elicitation.

(144) *-jawur* (POL)

- a. wanga jumjawuroojəə.
wan=ga jum-jawur-oo=jəə
 1SG=NOM read-POL-INT=CFM2
 ‘I will read (it).’ [El: 110827]
- b. wanga dooka utarijawussa.
wan=ga dooka ut-arir-jawur-sa
 1SG=NOM please hit-PASS-POL-POL
 ‘I will be hit (to play a role in the comedy), please.’ [El: 121010]

Additionally, there is another politeness affix, i.e. *-(i)nsjoor*. However, it is not used productively in modern Yuwan, and it appeared only twice in the text corpus where the speaker imitated the phrase which she had heard when she was young as in (145).

(145) *-(i)nsjoor* (POL)

- |sjooju, sjekiju| konsjooricci.
sjooju sjekiju koow-nsjoor-i=ccji
 soy.sauce oil buy-POL-IMP=QT
 ‘(I hearded that people say), “Buy the soy sauce or the oil!”’ [Co: 110328_00.txt]

3.5.1.9 *-an* (NEG) and *-tar* (PST) in the non-word-final position

-an (NEG) and *-tar* (PST) can fill the word-final position: *-an* (NEG) as a participial affix (see §??), and *-tar* (PST) as a finite-form affix (see §??). However, they can also fill the non-word-final position in the verb as in (146), where *-an* (NEG) and *-tar* (PST) is neither a participial affix nor a finite-form affix any more.

(146) *-an* (NEG) and *-tar* (PST) in the non-word-final position

- | | | |
|------------------------|-------------------------------------|-------------|
| uihutəənu | (mm) | jaker antan |
| <i>ui+hutəə=nu</i> | <i>jaker-an-tar-n turoo=du ar-n</i> | |
| upper.place+around=GEN | burn-NEG-PST-PTCP | place=FOC |

turoodu an.

exist-PTCP

‘(Old houses) exist just (in) the places which did not burn (by the air raid in the World War II) around the upper place (of the mountain).’ [Co: 111113_01.txt]

3.5.2 Compounding

3.5.2.1 Basic structure

There are several verbs composed of more than one verbal stem. The sequential verbal stems is called the verbal compound. Usually, the verbal compound is composed of only two verbal stems. The final stem in the compounds can take any kind of verbal affixes, but the non-final stem can take only *-i/-Ø* (INF), which is a kind of “nominalizer” affix (see §?? for more details). The verbal compounds can be divided into two types depending on the strength of the unity of the stems. One type of the verbal compounds has a relatively strong unity between the stems. I have found the following three verbal compounds of this type.

Table 3.31: Verbal compounds (strong unity)

Initial stem	Non-initial stem	Compound
<i>us-</i> ‘push’ + <i>-i</i> (INF) + <i>jaas-</i> ‘give’	> / <i>usijaas-</i> /	‘push forward’
<i>nagir-</i> ‘throw’ + <i>-Ø</i> (INF) + <i>cikir-</i> ‘attach’	> / <i>nagicikir-</i> /	‘throw at’
<i>izir-</i> ‘go out’ + <i>-Ø</i> (INF) + <i>bar-</i> N/A	> / <i>izibar-</i> /	‘go out’

All of the verbal stems in Table 1.31, i.e. *us-* ‘push,’ *jaas-* ‘give,’ *nagir-* ‘throw,’ *cikir-* ‘make,’ and *izir-* ‘go out,’ can be used even by themselves, although *bar-* of /*izibar-*/ ‘go out’ cannot appear only by itself. In other words, the *bar-* is a so-called cranberry morpheme. *izir-* ‘go out’ and *izir-Ø+bar-* ‘go out’ seem to have the same meaning. In my texts, however, the former *izir-* ‘go’ is almost always used only by itself, and the latter *izir-Ø+bar-* ‘go out’ is used only to fill the lexical verb slot in the auxiliary verb construction as in (147c). I will present examples of the compounds in Table 1.31 below.

(147) Verbal compounds (strong unity)

a. /*usijaas-*/ ‘push forward’

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usijaasi!

us-i+jaas-i

push-INF+give-IMP

‘Push (it) forward!’ [El: 110330]

- b. /nagɪcɪkɪr-/ ‘throw at’ [= (86b)]

umanan mata nagɪcɪkɪtəəppa,

u-ma=nan mata nagir-Ø+cikɪr-təər-ba

MED-place=LOC1 again throw-INF+attach-RSL-CSL

‘(The person) have thrown (some sweets) again (at our house), so ...’

[Co: 120415_01.txt]

- c. /izibar-/ ‘go out’

agan izibati izji,

aga-n izi-Ø+bar-ti ik-ti

DIST-ADVZ go.out-INF+?-SEQ go-SEQ

‘(I) went out (of my house into) there, and ...’ [Co: 101020_01.txt]

Next, the other type of the verbal compounds has a relatively weak unity between the stems, where either the initial stem or the non-initial stem expresses a grammatical (rather than lexical) meaning. First, I will present an example where the initial stem expresses a grammatical meaning.

Table 3.32: Verbal stem that expresses a grammatical meaning in the initial stem of a compound

Form	Meaning only by itself	Meaning in the initial stem in a compound
<i>ut-</i>	‘hit’	Emphasis

- (148) Verbal compounds (weak unity; initial stem expresses a grammatical meaning)

- a. *ut-* (EMP)

ucitoocja, |amerikazin|gadi.

ut-i+toos-tar amerikazin=gadi

EMP-INF+lay.down-PST Amerika.person=LMT

‘(They) knocked out the American (soldiers stationed in Yuwan).’

[Co: 120415_00.txt]

- b. *ut-* (EMP)

saisai ucik'urawi!
 sai+sai ut-i+k'uraw-i
 RED+quickly EMP-INF+eat.DRG-IMP
 'Eat (the meal) quickly!' [El: 130821]

A morpheme that can express a grammatical meaning in filling in the initial slot in the compound is only *ut-*. It lexically means 'hit,' but it means some emphatic meaning when it precedes another verbal stem in the compound as in (148a-b).

Secondly, I will present verbal stems that can express grammatical meanings when they fill in the non-initial slot in the compound.

Table 3.33: Verbal stems that express grammatical meanings in the non-initial stems in

compounds		
Form	Meaning only by itself	Meaning in the non-initial stem in a compound
<i>kij-</i>	'cut'	Capability
<i>agir-</i>	'raise'	'elaborately'
<i>hatir-</i>	N/A	'thoroughly'
<i>k'uraw-</i>	(eat.DRG)	Derogative
<i>kum-</i> N/A	'into'	
<i>jukkjaar-</i> ^a	N/A	Ingressive

^aThe final consonant //ɾ// of the underlying form *jukkaar-* 'begin' is only included based on the supposition of the present author, since I could not elicit the speaker to utter the example where it is followed by a vowel-initial affix. There is another form /jukkjaajui/ *jukkjaa(r)-jur-i* (begin-UMRK-NPST) 'begins to do.' Thus, I attach //ɾ// to the stem, which is the most productive morphophoneme in the verbal stem-final positions.

Among the verbal stems in Table 1.33, *kij-* (CAP) is the most productive one (see also §??). *hatir-*, *kum-*, and *jukkjaar-* cannot be used only by themselves, i.e., they always follow another verbal stem as in (8-148 e-f, i-k). I will present below examples of compounds where the verbal stems in Table 1.33 follow other verbal stems.

- (149) Verbal compounds (weak unity; non-initial stems express grammatical meanings)
kij- (CAP)

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- a. naa|ittoki|du siikijuijo.
naa+ittoki=du sir-i+kir-jur-i=joo
 other+moment=FOC do-INF+CAP-UMRK-NPST=CFM1
 ‘(She) can do [i.e. can sing and dance the traditoinal music] for a while.’ [Co: 120415_01.txt]
- b. w’aacjinkjoo j’iikijantanmun.
w’aa=ccji=nkja=ja j’-i+kij-an-tar-n=mun
 pig=QT=APPR=TOP say-INF+CAP-NEG-PST-PTCP=ADVRS
 ‘(A teacher who came to Yuwan before) was not able to say w’a [i.e. ‘pig’] (in the correct pronuciation in Yuwan).’ [Co: 110328_00.txt]
agir- ‘elaborately’
- c. [Context: Telling a person to scour all the metal goods in the kitchen]
 attakəə tugjagirijoo!
attakəə tug-i+agir-i=joo
 everything whet-INF+elaborately-IMP=CFM1
 ‘Scour out all (of the metal goods) completely!’ [El: 121006]
- d. un maminkjoo kjuraasanma
u-n mam-i=nkja=ja kjura-sanma
 MES-ADNZ bean=APPR=TOP beautiful-ADVZ
 sjugjagirijoo!
sjug-i+agir-i=joo
 hit-INF+elabolately-IMP=CFM1
 ‘Smash the beans beautifully [i.e. elaborately]!’ [El: 130821]
hatir- ‘thoroughly’
- e. [Context: Talking about a man who came from mainland Japan to buy cycad leaves for business.] = (??b)
 kiihatippoo, sirituppajaa.
kij-Ø+hatir-boo sirir-tur-ba=jaa
 cut-INF+thoroughly-CND easy.to.understand-PROG-CSL=SOL
 ‘If (he) cut all the cycad leaves, you may know (what would happen then).’ [Co: 111113_01.txt]
- f. attakəə jumhatirijoo.
attakəə jum-Ø+hatir-i=joo
 everything read-INF+thoroughly-IMP=CFM1
 ‘Read thoroughly all of (the pages).’ [El: 121006]

k'uraw- (DRG)

- g. *kaniciboja urakja tuik'urawicji j'icji,*
kani+cibo=ja urakja tur-i+k'uraw-i=ccji j'-ti
 gold+pot=TOP 2.NHON.PL take-INF+DRG-IMP=QT say-SEQ
 '(The man) said that, "You take (this) damn gold pot!" and ...' [Fo:
 090307_00.txt]

- h. *agaraa munnu wuik'urati,*
aga-raa mun=nu wur-i+k'uraw-ti sir-arir-an-tar=jaa
 DIST-DRG person=NOM exist-INF+DRG-SEQ
 sirarantajaa.

do-CAP-NEG-PST=SOL

'That awful person was (there), and (we) could not do (any conversation).'

 [El: 111104]

kum- 'into'

- i. [= (114c)]

ukkaci makikum jatattujaa.
u-ri=kaci mak-i+kum-Ø jar-tar-tu=jaa
 MES-NLZ=ALL roll-INF+into-INF COP-PST-CSL=SOL

'(The old-type audio recorder) rolled up (the tape of a side) into that [i.e. the other side] (during the recoding).'

 [Co: 120415_01.txt]

- j. *wuduikumi!*

wudur-i+kum-i
 jump-INF+into-IMP
 'Jump into (there)!' [El: 110914]
jukkjaar- (INGR)

- k. [= (??d)]

kan sji jankjanu dikiijukkjaija
ka-n sir-ti jaa=nkja=nu dikir-Ø+jukkjaar-i=ja
 PROX-ADVZ do-SEQ house=APPR=NOM be.made-INF+INGR-INF=TOP
 |nan+nengoro|karakai?
nan+nen-goro=kara=kai
 what+year-about=ABL=DUB
 'When did the houses begin to be made like this?' [Co:
 110328_00.txt]

It should be noted that the stem-boundary of the verbal compounds in (149c-d) behaves differently from that of the nominal compounds, e.g. /hidesianjoo/

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hidesi+anjoo (Hideshi+older.brother) ‘Hideshi.’ Their difference is presented in Table 1.34, where the syllable boundaries in the surface forms of the compounds are indicated by periods.

Table 3.34: Morphophonological difference of //i// + //a// in a nominal compound and a verbal compound

Preceding stem
Nominal compound <i>hidesi</i> ‘Hideshi’ + <i>anjoo</i> ‘older brother’ > /hi.de.si.a.njoo/ [çideçiqn ¹ ɸ:] V

The above table shows that in the nominal compound the stem-final //i// and the stem-initial //a// retain their forms such as /i.a/. In the verbal compound, however, they are fused into /ja/.

3.5.2.2 Remarks on *kij-* (CAP)

kij- (CAP) introduced in §?? needs two more explanations. First, there is a case where the semantic scope of *kij-* (CAP) goes beyond the compound. I will present examples below, where the compounds are underlined.

(150) *kij-* (CAP) with AVC

- a. *kacji* *moikijunnja?*
kak-ti *moor-i+kij-jur-i=na*
{[write-SEQ] [HON-INF]}+CAP-UMRK-NPST=PLQ
{[Lexical verb]}
‘Would (you) be able to write (it)?’ [El: 120924]
- b. *hiiti* *moikijanna?*
hiir-ti *moor-i+kij-an=na*
{[get.up-SEQ HON-INF]}+CAP-NEG=PLQ
{[Lexical verb]}
‘Wouldn’t (you) be able to get up?’ [El: 120929]

It will be discussed in §?? that Yuwan has the auxiliary verb construction (AVC) in the verbal phrase (VP), and the AVC is composed of a preceding lexical verb and a following auxiliary verb. For example, /*kacji*/ *kak-ti* (write-SEQ) in (150a) is a lexical verb, and it forms an AVC with the following auxiliary verb *moor-* (HON). Similarly, /*hiiti*/ *hiir-ti* (get.up-SEQ) in (150b) is a lexical verb, and it also forms an AVC with *moor-* (HON). In (150a-b), *kij-* (CAP) forms a compound. Morphologically,

the compound only includes the auxiliary verbal stem, because there is a word boundary between the lexical verb and the auxiliary verb. Semantically, however, the scope of *kij-* (CAP) includes the whole AVC, i.e. both of the lexical verb and the auxiliary verb. This can be diagrammed as in the following table.

Table 3.35: . The difference of morphological unity and semantic scope of

<i>kij-</i> (CAP) (part 1)	
Lexical verb	Auxiliary verb + <i>kij-</i>
Morphological unity	«««««« Semantic scope ««««««< «««««««

The above table shows that *kij-* (CAP) morphologically forms a compound only with the auxiliary verbal stem. However, its semantic scope also includes the preceding lexical verb. In other words, *kij-* (CAP) seems to attach to the preceding VP as a whole, which may be diagrammed as follows.

Table 3.36: The difference of morphological unity and semantic scope of *kij-* (CAP) (part 2)

E.g. <i>kak-ti</i> (write-SEQ) <i>moor-i+kij-</i> (HON-INF+CAP) Morphologically [Lexical verb] _{word} [Auxilia

The semantic scope of the verbal affixes that attach to the auxiliary verb always include both of the lexical verb and the auxiliary verb. In that meaning, *kij-* (CAP) has the same characteristic with the verbal affixes. For example, if *-an* (NEG) attaches to the auxiliary verb, its semantic scope necessarily includes the preceding lexical verb as in (??) in §??, where *-an* (NEG) negates *umuw-* ‘think’ as well as *kurir-* (BEN).

Secondly, both of the verbal root *kij-* (CAP) and the verbal affix *-arir* (CAP) (see §??) can express capability. However, the range of capability they can express is different as in Table 1.37.

First, if the speaker construes that the capability of the action indicated by the verbal stem depends on the agent’s ability, one can use both *kij-* (CAP) and *-arir* (CAP) as in (151a-b).

- (151) Capability construed (by the speaker) as depending on one’s ability
- a. *kij-* (CAP)

Table 3.37: The range of capability that
kij- (CAP) and *-arir* (CAP) express

	<i>kij-</i> (CAP)	<i>-arir</i> (CAP)
Capability construed (by the speaker) as depending on one's ability	+	+
Capability construed (by the speaker) as depending on the surroundings	-	+

sijansjuti, cukuikijanta.

sij-an=sjuti *cukur-i+kij-an-tar*

know-NEG=SEQ make-INF+CAP-NEG-PST

‘(I) don’t know (how to make the dish), and could not make (it).’ [El: 101119]

b. *-arir* (CAP)

sijansjuti, cukuraranta.

sij-an=sjuti *cukur-ar-an-tar*

know-NEG=SEQ make-CAP-NEG-PST

‘(I) don’t know (how to make the dish), and could not make (it).’ [El: 101119]

In both of the examples in (151a-b), the speaker does not know how to make the dish. Thus, the capability in (151a-b) is construed by the speaker as depending on the speaker’s ability, where both of *kij-* (CAP) and *-arir* (CAP) can be used.

Secondly, if the speaker construes the capability of the action indicated by the verbal stem depends on the surroundings (not the agent’s ability), one cannot use *kij-* (CAP), and can only use *-arir* (CAP) as in (152a-b).

(152) Capability construed (by the speaker) as depending on the surroundings

a. *kij-* (CAP)

*himanu nənsjuti, cukuikijanta.

hima=nu *nə-an=sjuti* *cukur-i+kij-an-tar*

time=NOM exist-NEG=SEQ make-INF+CAP-NEG-PST

[Intended meaning] ‘(I) have no time (to spare), and could not make (it).’ [El: 101119]

b. *-arir* (CAP)

himanu nənsjuti, cukuraranta.
hima=nu nə-an=sjuti cukur-ar-an-tar
 time=NOM exist-NEG=SEQ make-CAP-NEG-PST

‘(I) have no time (to spare), and could not make (it).’ [El: 101119]

In both of the examples in (152a-b), the speaker does not have enough time to spare. Thus, the capability in (152a-b) is construed by the speaker as depending on the surroundings (not the speaker’s ability), where *kij-* (CAP) cannot be used, and only *-arir* (CAP) can be used.

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