Lagá, a language of Dōki

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A descriptive grammar

2019

Dedicated to miacomet, again

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| Glossing abbreviations

Gloss	*Term*
∅	null
.	morpheme separation
-	affix
:	inherent/non-concatenative
+	compounded
◇	infix
~	reduplication
AGT	agent
PAT	patient
NTR	intransitive
TRA	transitive
FIN	finite
NFN	non-finite
SIM	simultaneous
CNS	consecutive
INT	internal
IMM	immediate
NEG	negative
IND	indirect
DIR	direct
NAT	natural
INV	inverse
AUG	augmented
NNT	non-natural
SG	singular
DU	dual
PL	plural
EPL	extraplural
PRO	pronoun
1SG	first singular
1PL	first plural
2	second

Gloss	*Term*
3PER	third personal
3IMP	third impersonal
SAP	speech act participant
NNU	non-atomic
REA	realis
IRR	irrealis
LOC	local
DET	determiner
PRX	proximal
MED	medial
DST	distal
NDF	indefinite
POS	positional
LAT	lative
ABL	ablative
INS	instrumental
PUR	purposive
ESS	essive

0 | Introduction

In this book we shall explore and describe the Lagá language of the Mōhtāi people.

0.1 | Overview

In Ch. 0, I shall introduce the language, the conventions used in this book, and the history/context of the language (both internal and external). In Chs. 1 to 3, I shall discuss the sounds and features of the sounds of the language, both segmental and suprasegmental; as well as how the language is written, both natively and transcribed. In Ch. 4, I shall discuss how individual words interact to form phrases and clauses, and related structures and phenomena. In Chs. 5 to 11, I shall discuss the different classes of words, how they are modified, and their usage. In Ch. 12, I shall discuss the meanings of certain groups of words. Finally, in Apps. A to C, I will provide a (technically) non-exhaustive lexicon. some specific semantic divisions, and miscellaneous example sentences.

0.2 | Conventions

In this book, I shall use blue text for Lagá words, whether they be in orthographic transcription or non-bracketed phonemic transcription (common).

Forward slashes (/example/) are used for phonemic transcription, square brackets ([example]) are used for phonetic transcription, blue-text pipes (|example|) are used for morphemic transcription (except in glosses), and blue-text angle brackets (⟨example⟩) are used for orthographic transcription.

Underlined text (which may sometimes be enclosed by 'single quotes') is used for translations, sans-serif text is used for important terms, *italicized* text is used for normal emphasis, and SMALL CAPS is used for glossed terms. "Scare quotes" are used for non-standard, ironic, or otherwise deviant usages of terms; and ‹chevrons› are used for notations.

Glosses are structured as follows:

(0.1) phonemic transcription
⟨native script⟩
morphemic transcription (object language)
morphemic transcription (metalanguage)
translation
LIT. optional literal translation

Ungrammatical, unfelicitous, or otherwise "bad" glosses are preceded by an asterisk (*) on each line.

When used as examples to demonstrate a particular grammatical feature, the morphemic metalanguage transcription will usually only contain the relevant information.

0.3 | External history

Lagá is a speedlang (a conlang created within a time restraint) created by me, Mareck (M.M.N.H.). It was created within the timeframe of Sunday, October 11, 2020, to Sunday, October 25, 2020. The challenge was proposed by *miacomet*, a.k.a. *u/roipoiboy*.

The following creative restraints have been made:

- a pitch accent-type tonal system
- a vowel system with some other non-frontness, non-height, non-roundedness, non-orthogonal feature
- use differential object-marking
- at least two types of converb
- some sort of ablaut/apophony

As well as the following tasks:

- document and showcase the language
- translate five “syntax test” sentences, as provided by Zephyrus or some other acceptable source
- explain the number system

The pitch accent requirement is satisfied by the upstep phenomenon (§ 2.3). The vowel system requirement is satisfied by the non-orthogonal distribution of nasal vowels in the vowel inventory (§ 1.2). The differential object-marking requirement is satisfied by the phenomenon in which the indirect case is used on patients (strongly correlated to the traditional notion of “objects” in Lagá) only when they outrank the agent in animacy as determined by the empathy hierarchy. The converb requirement is satisfied by the five relationals (§ 8.3). The ablaut/apophony requirement is satisfied by the non-productive but still common nasal alternation that is found systematically in verbs (Ch. 8), and in various other places.

This document in of itself documents and showcases the language, satisfying the related task. Acceptably-sourced example sentences are found in App. C. The number system is detailed in § 12.1.

An unofficial theme of this language is ‘five’ (5).

0.4 | Internal history

The Lagá language is spoken by Mōhtāi people in the nation of Dōki, a large island north of the nation of Tseri, inhabited by the Náma people, who speak the gan Minhó language. Due to their proximity, there has been much contact between the two peoples.

While their island is physically larger than that of the Náma, the Mōhtāi have a significantly smaller population.

1 | Phonology

In this chapter and the following two chapters we explore the sounds and related phenomena of Lagá. This includes abstract (phonemic[1]) and concrete (phonetic) forms, as well as suprasegmental units and orthographic conventions. We shall use (a modified) *offIPA* for phonemic transcription, and *canIPA*[2] for phonetic transcription.

1.1 | Consonants

There are ten phonemic consonants in Lagá:

	labial	*dental*	*alveolar*	*velar*	*glottal*
plosive		t [t d̪]	ʦ [ʦ̢]	k [k g]	ʔ [ʔ]
constrictive	p [ᴘ p]		s [s̢ z̢ x]		
sonant			r [ɾ n ɳ ɦ̶]	w [w m ŋ ɸ]	
lateral		l [l ɬ]		ʟ [ɡɬ̢ kɬ̢]	

Figure 1.1: Consonant phonemes & taxophones

- /p/ is bilabial
- /t l/ are laminodental
- /ʦ s r/ are primarily apicoälveolar; /s/ may be velar, /r/ may be apicopostalveolar (“retroflex”) and glottal
- /k ʟ/ are velar
- /w/ is primarily labiovelar, but may be labial and velar
- /ʔ/ is glottal

Most notable in this inventory is the lack of labials, the only significant one being /p/, which primarily surfaces as a voiceless bilabial trill. Also interesting is the presence of the segment /ʟ/, which surfaces as a voiced velar lateral stop-stricative, a relatively rare sound. Nasals are not phonemic, and the segment /s/ sometimes surfaces as a velar constrictive.

1.1.1 | Consonant taxophony

- /t k s/ surface as [d̪ g z̢] after /r w/
- /p/ surfaces as [p] before /ũ/
- /s/ surfaces as [x] before /t p r w l/
- /r w/ surface as [n m] before /ũ ã/; /rr ww/ surface as [nn mm]

[1] Wherein a phoneme is a strictly *contrastive unit* that is abstracted to succinctly represent various but related phonetic surface forms.

[2] See *canipa.net*.

- /r/ surfaces as [n] before /t s l/; it surfaces as [ɳ] before /k ʟ/
- /w/ surfaces as [ŋ] before /t k s r l ʟ/, and before a word boundary
- /r w/ surface as [ɦ̶ φ] before /ʦ ʔ p/; /r/ surfaces as [ɦ̶] before a word boundary
- /l ʟ/ surface as [ɬ̚ k̚ɬ̚] after /t k s/
- otherwise, /t ʦ k ʔ p s r w l ʟ/ surface as [t ʈ̚ k ʔ̚ ʀ̚ ʂ ɾ̚ w l̚ ɡ̚ɬ̚]

1.2 | Vowels

There are five phonemic vowels in Lagá:

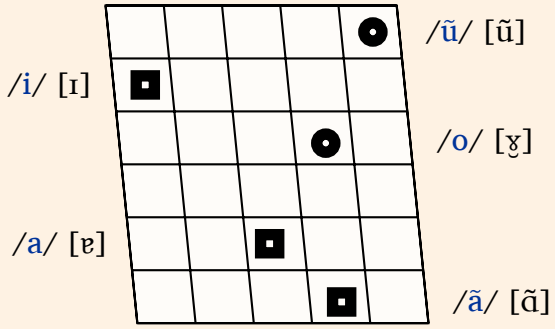


Figure 1.2: Vowel phonemes & taxophones

- /ũ/ is protruded-rounded; /o/ is compressed-rounded
- /ũ ã/ are nasalized

This vowel inventory is notable for its uneven distribution of nasal vowels, as well as the three variants of rounding (protruded-rounded, compressed-rounded, and unrounded). Also notable is the relative sparseness of front vowels.

Vowels experience little significant taxophonic variation.

1.3 | Phonotactics

Phonotactics describes the way phonemes are organized in relation to each other and within words.

1.3.1 | Phonological profile

The profile of the phonological word is as follows[3]:

$$\#\left[_{\omega}\ \mathrm{T}^{?}\left[_{\varphi}\left[_{\mu'_1}\ \mathrm{C_1V}\right]\left[_{\mu'_2}\ (\mathrm{C_1^{?}V})|\mathrm{C_2}\right]\right](\varphi|\mu'_1|\mathrm{C_2})^{*}\right]\#$$

Figure 1.3: Phonological profile

Wherein:

- # a word boundary
- ω a phonological word
- φ a foot
- μ' a moraic complex

[3]We shall use a modified (i.e., in conjunction with regex-like conventions) version of *Recursive Baerian Phonotactics Notation* (RBPN), a non-standard but infinitely more useful notation; see *Blumire & Baer (2017)*.

- [ ] a domain
- ◌$^{?}$ zero or one
- ◌* zero or more
- T upstep (§ 2.3)
- C_1 a consonant
- C_2 /t k s r w/
- V a vowel

2 | Prosody

Prosody is the patterns of tone, intonation, stress, and other suprasegmental units, as well as how these interact with each other.

2.1 | Isochrony

Isochrony is the rhythmic division of utterances. The isochrony of Lagá is moraically-timed, i.e., the duration of every mora (μ) is approximately equal.

It is important to note the difference between the moraic complex μ' and the mora μ; the former is comprised of the latter. Within a moraic complex, each vowel counts as one mora, and a coda consonant counts as one mora as well. Onset consonants do not affect mora count. This may be modeled as such:

It is also important to note the vocalic mora, which is a mora consisting of a vowel /i ũ o a ã/, as opposed to the mora proper, which may be any moraic unit (vowel or otherwise).

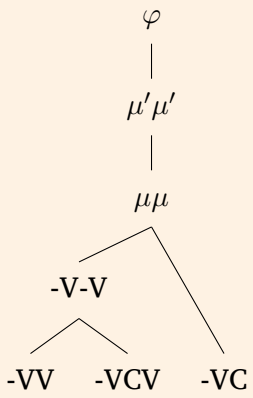


Figure 2.1: Moraic structure

Wherein a foot (φ) must be bimoraic; a bimoraic rime may consist of a vowel-vowel sequence, a vowel-consonant-vowel sequence, or a vowel-consonant sequence.

2.2 | Prosodic units

All utterances are divided into many levels of prosodic units.

The smallest unit is the mora, explained in the previous section. Above the moraic unit, there is the foot (φ). The structure of a foot is shown in § 1.3.1. Foot weight is measured in the number of moras contained within a foot. Light feet (φ') contain one mora (monomoraic), while heavy feet (φ) contain two (bimoraic).

2.3 | Upstep

Upstep is a word-level tonal phenomenon in which a single vocalic mora within a word may take upstep /◌́/ (H), or otherwise be unmarked /◌̀/ (∅).

Upstep surfaces as a high tone on the affected mora as well as all vocalic moras rightward (i.e., postceding) the marked mora, continuing until the end of the phonological word. The phonological word is comprised of a root and all its affixes, if present[1]. This may be modeled as such:

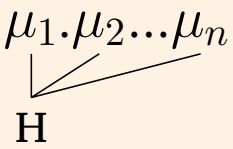


Figure 2.2: Upstep

If more than one upstep occurs in a word (via affixation or compounding), the rightmost upstep takes precedence; all other upstep are deleted. This may be modeled as follows:

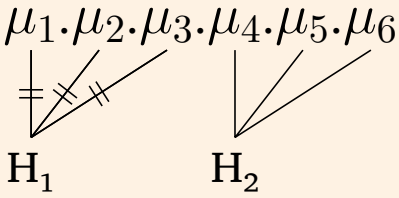


Figure 2.3: Upstep deletion

2.4 | Stress

Stress is characterized by an increase in volume and intensity of a mora. Stress in Lagá is rather weak, and always occurs on the heaviest leftmost (i.e., the first) moraic complex within the phonological word. Secondary stress follows trochaically, occurring on every other subsequent moraic complex.

[1] There is no separate section detailing differing domains as the phonological word is the only significant domain.

3 | Orthography

The native orthography of Lagá is an alphabet, wherein each glyph encodes only a single segment. The script was inherited from the Náma people[1], who in turn inherited it (partially) from the Moógatí people.

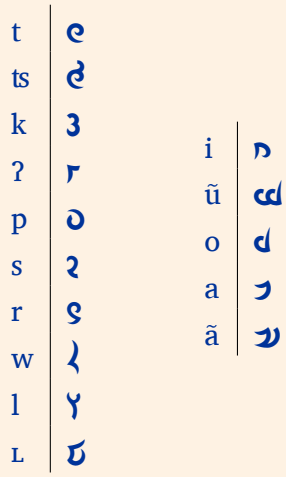


Figure 3.1: Script (native)

Spaces (i.e., some sort of word separator or word boundary marker) are not commonly used, although may appear in texts intended for foreigners and/or children.

3.1 | Punctuation & diacritics

·	end of a sentence
⁘	beginning of a text
~	end of a text
◌̇	marks long segments

Figure 3.2: Punctuation & diacritics (native)

The length diacritic ⟨◌̇⟩ is only used word-internally (i.e., not across word boundaries).

[1] Although telepathically disseminated by the Moógatí people to the Náma people (yes, that is canon), the Mōhtāi people are a later addition to the known world, and as such have inherited it more directly via cultural and social contact.

3.2 | Latin

	labial	*dental*	*alveolar*	*velar*	*glottal*
plosive		t ⟨d⟩	ʦ ⟨t⟩	k ⟨g⟩	ʔ ⟨k⟩
constrictive	p ⟨f⟩		s ⟨s s̲⟩		
sonant			r ⟨r n h⟩	w ⟨v m n̲ p⟩	
lateral		l ⟨l⟩		ʟ ⟨l̲⟩	

Figure 3.3: Consonants (latin)

Wherein:

- /s/ [x] ⟨s̲⟩
- /r/ [n ɦ] ⟨n h⟩
- /w/ [m ŋ φ] ⟨m n̲ p⟩
- otherwise, /t ʦ k ʔ p s r w l ʟ/ ⟨d t g k f s r w l l̲⟩

i ũ	⟨i ō⟩
o	⟨o⟩
a ã	⟨a ā⟩
◌ ◌́	⟨◌ ◌̀/◌́⟩

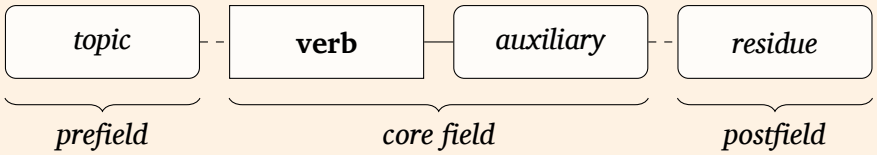
Figure 3.4: Vowels (latin)

Wherein upstep is written as ⟨◌̀⟩ on /i o a/ (i.e., ⟨ì ò à⟩), or as ⟨◌́⟩ on /ũ ã/ (i.e., ⟨ó á⟩).

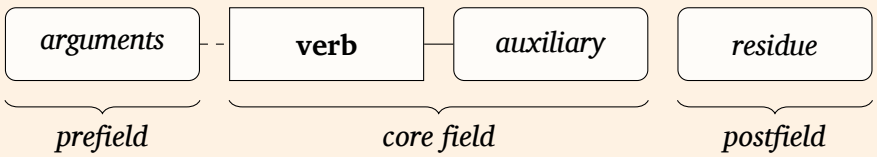
4 | Syntax

Syntax describes how words are ordered and how they relate to one another.

The order and structure of constituents of an independent clause (§ 4.7.1) is as follows:



In dependent clauses (§ 4.7.2), the structure differs as such:



4.1 | Prefield

The prefield contains the topic, which is the most-animate core argument[1]. Animacy is determined by the empathy hierarchy.

In dependent clauses, the prefield contains all arguments (still ordered by the empathy hierarchy).

4.2 | Empathy hierarchy

The empathy hierarchy ranks arguments semantically, which determines the order in which they go within a clause.

nature ≫ 1SG ≫ 1PL ≫ 2 ≫ *human* ≫ *fauna* ≫ *flora* ≫ *inanimate*

← *higher* ← → *lower* →

1SG, 1PL, and 2 refer to their respective persons, as detailed in Ch. 9. The class ‹*nature*› refers to natural forces, deities, and other such phenomena traditionally considered outside the scope of human control. The classes ‹*human*›, ‹*fauna*›, and ‹*flora*› are fairly self-explanatory, and are collectively considered animate entities. The class ‹*human*› also subsumes pronominal determiners (Ch. 10). The last class, ‹*inanimate*›, comprises all inanimate entities, and also includes abstract concepts and non-finite verbs (§ 8.1.2).

Within the classes themselves, named/unique entities are placed higher than non-unique/generic entities. With equally-classed entities, the more “salient” or agentive entity is chosen as the topic.

4.3 | Core field

The core field contains a verb and an optional auxiliary.

[1] Note that this “topic” is not motivated by information structure, but purely by semantics.

4.4 | Auxiliary slot

The auxiliary slot is the space directly postceding the verb, and may contain any one of the following:

- indirect-case noun (§ 5.1)
- non-finite verb (§ 5.2)
- pronoun (Ch. 9)
- determiner (Ch. 10)
- positional (Ch. 11)

These are collectively termed auxiliaries. Noun auxiliaries are primarily used for derivation of more specific verb and event meanings. Verb, pronoun, determiner, and positional auxiliaries are used for grammatical expression, such as modality and temporal designation.

Verbs may take any number of auxiliaries, but generally occur with between zero and two. Only one auxiliary may occupy the auxiliary slot (the true auxiliary), while other auxiliaries are demoted in various ways.

Auxiliary demotion follows a hierarchy:

$$\underset{\leftarrow \textit{higher} \leftarrow}{\textit{noun} \gg \textit{verb}} \gg \text{PRO} \gg \underset{\rightarrow \textit{lower} \rightarrow}{\text{DET} \gg \text{POS}}$$

Wherein the highest-ranked auxiliary stays the true auxiliary, while the others are demoted.

Noun and verb auxiliaries are demoted to obliques; nouns are marked with the essive positional (§ 11.5), while verb auxiliaries are simply moved to the postfield. With two verb auxiliaries, the less "salient", or otherwise less contextually-relevant verb auxiliary is demoted. Otherwise, two of the same type of auxiliary generally do not coöccur.

Determiner, pronoun, and positional auxiliaries are demoted to the postfield as well, postceding any obliques and ordered by the auxiliary hierarchy.

Postfield dependent clauses, such as predicates marked with a relational, postcede obliques, but precede postfield auxiliaries.

4.5 | Postfield

The postfield contains residue, which is usually a non-topic argument as well as obliques and demoted auxiliaries. If there is more than one oblique, they are ordered by the empathy hierarchy. As noted before, postfield auxiliaries (that are not already obliques, i.e., determiner, pronoun, and positional auxiliaries) are placed after any obliques, and are ordered by the auxiliary hierarchy.

In dependent clauses, the postfield only contains obliques and demoted auxiliaries.

4.6 | Obliques

Oblique arguments are those which are *not* core arguments. They are often adverbial in nature, describing goals, sources, locations, times, etc.

Obliques are marked with positionals (Ch. 11).

4.7 | Independent & dependent clauses

Clauses are divided into two syntactic types: independent and dependent clauses. These differ mainly in how the predicate is inflected and how it behaves.

4.7.1 | Independent

Independent clauses are those which may stand alone (disregarding insubordinate clauses, detailed in the next section). They are formed with finite verbs (§ 8.1.1).

4.7.2 | Dependent

Dependent clauses are those which modify a predicate or an argument. They are formed with non-finite verbs (§ 8.1.2).

Within dependent clauses, all pronouns take the irrealis mode.

In dependent clauses, temporal phenomena are arranged in relation to the superordinate independent (matrix) clause.

4.7.2.1 | Adverbial

Adverbial dependent clauses are those which modify a predicate, or a verb.

Adverbial clauses are often used to embed predicates within other predicates, as content clauses to attitude predicates (using a bare non-finite verb), or as a true adverbial (using a relational; see § 8.3).

(4.1) rũ rā́kito lao kũwũ sóri tsũū́

rũ	rā́kito	lao	kũwũ	sóri	tsũū́
PRO	sense	DET	bunny	grass	eat.NFN

I saw that the bunny was eating the grass

4.7.2.2 | Adnominal

Adnominal dependent clauses are those which modify an argument, or a noun[2].

Adnominal clauses are used to further describe or identify a noun. Only core arguments may take adnominal dependent clauses. The shared argument is aligned along a loose pivot (§ 4.14.1); it does not have to match its roles in both clauses. However, it must be a core argument of both clauses.

Restrictiveness of relative clauses is modulated by the presence of the indefinite determiner wãs in the adnominal clause. The determiner takes the place of the shared argument within the adnominal clause. Otherwise, the shared argument does not occur (or is "gapped") in the adnominal clause.

[2] Positionals (Ch. 11) are also used to form adnominal phrases, but these are not full clauses.

(4.2) rũ rãki?ós lao kũwũ sóri tsũ̋ũ
rũ rãki?ós lao kũwũ sóri tsũ̋ũ
PRO sense DET bunny grass eat.NFN
I saw the bunny that was eating the grass

(4.3) rũ rãki?ós lao kũwũ wãs sóri tsũ̋ũ
rũ rãki?ós lao kũwũ wãs sóri tsũ̋ũ
PRO sense DET bunny NDF grass eat.NFN
I saw the bunny, which was eating the grass

Headless relatives always take the indefinite determiner.

(4.4) wãs sóri tsũ̋ũ
wãs sóri tsũ̋ũ
NDF grass eat.NFN
that which is eating the grass

4.7.3 | Insubordination

Insubordination is the process of using a dependent clause as an independent clause (i.e., using the non-finite state on an otherwise syntactically-independent predicate).

Insubordination is primarily used to emphasize an entire clause, and is most often used for imperatives (§ 4.10).

4.8 | Transitivity

Transitivity describes the number of arguments a predicate may take, and how they relate to each other.

4.8.1 | Agent

The agent argument (AGT) is the argument that performs or induces the event.

4.8.2 | Patient

The patient argument (PAT) is the argument that undergoes or is effected by the event.

4.8.3 | Intransitive

Intransitive predicates (NTR) take a single core argument, the S argument.

The S argument may be the agent or patient, as differentiated by intransitive agreement (§ 8.2.1) or case-marking (§ 7.1).

4.8.4 | Transitive

Transitive predicates (TRA) take two core arguments, the A and O arguments.

Generally, the A argument is the agent, and the O argument is the patient.

4.9 | Alignment

Alignment (which may be better specified as *morphological* alignment) describes how arguments are marked and how they relate to their predicate.

4.9.1 | Accusative

The accusative alignment arranges the S and A arguments as the agent, and the O argument as the patient.

The accusative alignment is used in clauses in which the agent is more animate than the patient, as determined by the empathy hierarchy (§ 4.2). It is also used in intransitive clauses in which there is only an agent.

4.9.2 | Ergative

The ergative alignment arranges the S and O arguments as the patient; and the A argument as the agent.

The ergative alignment is used in clauses in which the patient is more animate than the agent. It is also used in intransitive clauses in which there is only an patient.

4.10 | Imperatives

Imperative clauses are those in which the speaker asserts that the listener perform an action.

As stated before, imperatives are formed simply via insubordination.

(4.5) tsũű

⟨[illegible]⟩

tsũű

eat.NFN

eat!

Soft imperatives, or requests, are formed by insubordinating an interrogative.

(4.6) ki kis kisrosó kũwũ tsir wo

⟨[illegible]⟩

ki	kis	kisrosó	kũwũ	tsir	wo
PRO	move.NFN	move.NFN:NEG	bunny	POS	PRO

may you give me the bunny?

4.11 | Interrogatives

Interrogative clauses are those in which the speaker requests information from the listener.

Interrogatives are formed by using the negative relational on a reduplicated auxiliary verb.

(4.7) kũwũ tsiiká tsũũrosó sóri
⟨[illegible]⟩
kũwũ tsiiká tsũũ -rosó sóri
bunny eat eat.NFN -NEG grass
is the bunny eating the grass?

They may also use the indefinite determiner wãs as a wh-word.

(4.8) wãs tsiiká tsũũrosó sóri
⟨[illegible]⟩
wãs tsiiká tsũũ -rosó sóri
NDF eat eat.NFN -NEG grass
what is eating the grass?

4.12 | Conditionals

Conditional statements are those which denote ‘if x, then y’; event y occurs because of as a result of x. Conditional statements are composed of two (or more) clauses, the protasis (the condition) and the apodosis (the consequence).

Conditionals are formed using the conditional relational (§ 8.3.4). The apodasis is marked as irrealis, either with the distal determiner auxiliary or a modal verb auxiliary.

(4.9) wo tsíito koi kű̃ kiswiti ʔóli rũ
⟨[illegible]⟩
wo tsíito koi kű̃ kis -witi ʔóli rũ
PRO eat DST PRO move.NFN -CON POS PRO
I will eat, if you come with me

4.13 | Third-person reference

Third-person reference denotes the act of referring to third-party entities, or entities that are neither the speaker nor listener. The pronominal usage of determiner often takes this role (especially for anaphoric and cataphoric uses), but nouns are also used.

Nouns used for third-person reference are usually in some way “generic” in nature, such as one of the various ‘person’ nouns kíʟi, lũʔi, satã, taó, tsáwo for human referents, or the general noun tsoo thing, something. Sometimes, the numerals ʔãsa, ʔũlo one (animate and inanimate) are used for a general animate/inanimate reference distinction (other numerals may also be used, but this is not as common).

4.14 | Pivot

Pivot (or *syntactic* alignment) describes how arguments relate between and across clauses. Pivot in Lagá is relatively loose, without major restraints on which roles arguments must take.

4.14.1 | Relativization

Relativization is concerned with which arguments may take an adnominal (or 'relative') clause (§ 4.7.2.2). Arguments that take such clauses must be a core argument in both the matrix clause and the dependent clause.

4.14.2 | Argument-dropping

Argument-dropping is concerned with the process of removing, or "dropping", arguments, and replacing them with pronominal determiners, or dropping the argument entirely.

This is done after an argument is established within the universe of discourse. The distal and indefinite determiners koi, wãs (§§ 10.4 and 10.5) are often used for this purpose, with their anaphoric usages that are divorced from the discourse participants. Generally, any established core argument may be replaced with a pronominal determiner. This may create "ambiguities", but context usually supplants such information.

4.14.3 | Questioning

Questioning is concerned with which syntactic constituents are open to being questioned (§ 4.11). Only core arguments may be questioned.

5 | Lexical classes

There are five lexical classes, or "parts of speech": verbs, nouns, pronouns, determiners, and positionals.

Nouns are the only open class (i.e., group that readily accepts new members); all other classes are closed.

5.1 | Nouns

Nouns are content words, and (as stated before) are the only open class of roots.

Each nominal root has an inherent number, singular, dual, or plural; this is detailed in the relevant section (§ 7.2).

Nouns in the indirect case may be used in the auxiliary slot of a verb in order to derive more narrow meanings.

5.2 | Verbs

There are five basic verbs in Lagá. Each one has a general verbal usage as well as a modal usage. They may be used alone, or in conjunction with a noun in the auxiliary slot or postfield in order to express more specific events.

Each verb has two stems, a finite and a non-finite form (§ 8.1). The non-finite forms are transparently derived from the finite via a non-productive nasal alternation in the vowels, as well as some upstep shift and fabrication.

Intransitive verbs undergo alternations depending on the role of their sole argument, agent or patient, such as 'eat' vs 'be eaten', and also have a transitive alternation, 'eat r'[1]. Such alternations are noted in lexicon entries.

Generally, the sole argument of an action is the agent, while the sole argument of a state is the patient.

5.2.1 | Eat

Eat (tsíi, tsũ̃ú) is the verb of consumption and internal physical states.

(5.1)
kũwũ tsiiká sóri

kũwũ tsiiká sóri
bunny eat grass
the bunny is eating the grass

(5.2)
kũwũw tsiisí Lósaw

kũwũw tsiisí Lósaw
bunny eat hunger
the bunny is hungry

When used as an auxiliary, it indicates desire and/or necessity.

[1] The letter r stands for 'argument'.

(5.3) kũwũ tsiiká tsũű́ sóri

kũwũ tsiiká tsũű́ sóri
bunny eat eat.NFN grass
the bunny wants/needs to eat the grass

5.2.2 | Say

Say (poa, pṹã) is the verb of expulsion, communication, and external physical states.

(5.4) rũ poata kũwũ

rũ poata kũwũ
PRO say bunny
I spoke to the bunny

(5.5) kũwũw poa rosũloswã

kũwũw poa rosũloswã
bunny say brown
the bunny is brown

When used as an auxiliary, it indicates possibility and/or inherent capability.

(5.6) kũwũ tsiiká pṹã sóri

kũwũ tsiiká pṹã sóri
bunny eat say.NFN grass
the bunny can (inherently) eat the grass

5.2.3 | Move

Move (kũs, kis) is the verb of transfer and motion.

(5.7) rũ kũsʔós kũwũ

rũ kũsʔós kũwũ
PRO move bunny
I am moving the bunny

(5.8) rũ kũsto tsir sáwʔow

rũ kũsto tsir sáwʔow
PRO move POS market
I am going to the market

When used as an auxiliary, it indicates obligation and/or situational capability.

(5.9) kũwũ tsiiká kis sóri

kũwũ tsiiká kis sóri
bunny eat move.NFN grass
the bunny should/can (situationally) eat the grass

It is also used for wishes and hopes.

(5.10) ki rãkilá kiwósoliw kis

⟨[illegible]⟩

ki rãkilá kiwósoliw kis

PRO sense satisfaction move.NFN

may you be happy!

5.2.4 | Sense

Sense (ŕ̃aki, rakí) is the verb of sensation, reception, and mental states.

(5.11) rũ rãkiʔós kũwũ

⟨[illegible]⟩

rũ rãkiʔós kũwũ

PRO sense bunny

I see/hear/sense the bunny

(5.12) rũ rãkiʔós rãksi

⟨[illegible]⟩

rũ rãkiʔós rãksi

PRO sense book

I am reading a book

(5.13) rũ ŕ̃akitũ tikroowã

⟨[illegible]⟩

rũ ŕ̃akitũ tikroowã

PRO sense sleep

I am asleep

Even though sensory functions may be specified via a body part noun auxiliary, this is often eschewed in colloquial speech, as it is usually inferrable by context or otherwise irrelevant.

When used as an auxiliary, it indicates a potential/hypothetical situation.

(5.14) kũwũ tsiiká rakí sóri

⟨[illegible]⟩

kũwũ tsiiká rakí sóri

bunny eat sense.NFN grass

the bunny might/could (possibly) eat the grass

5.2.5 | Put

Put (taro, tãrũ) is the verb of position. It is most often used to form action events (as well as events of position) in tandem with a noun auxiliary.

(5.15) rũ taroʔós kũwũ

⟨[illegible]⟩

rũ taroʔós kũwũ

PRO put bunny

I am positioning the bunny

(5.16) kũwũ tarosí tíri kotwã

⟨[illegible]⟩

kũwũ tarosí tíri kotwã

bunny put POS burrow

the bunny is in the burrow

(5.17) kũwũ tarosí siawã

kũwũ tarosí siawã
bunny put snug space
the bunny got into a snug space

(5.18) rũ taroto tsoowã

rũ taroto tsoowã
PRO put thing
I am doing something

(5.19) kũwũ tarosí tsir kotwã

kũwũ tarosí tsir kotwã
bunny put POS burrow
the bunny got into the burrow

It is also used as an existential copula, when a verb is syntactically required.

(5.20) toʔa taroká kũwũ

toʔa taroká kũwũ
DET put bunny
this (one) is the bunny

This is often used to confer verb-exclusive morphology onto nouns via circumlocution.

(5.21) kũwũ tũrãtílo tsiiká sóri

kũwũ tũrãtílo tsiiká sóri
bunny put.NFN:RES eat grass
even the bunny is eating the grass

(5.22) kũwũ tãrũ táʟi tãrũwiti

kũwũ tãrũ táʟi tãrũwiti
bunny put.NFN duck put.NFN:CON
(it is) the bunny or (it is) the duck

When used as an auxiliary, it indicates causation and/or permission.

(5.23) kũwũ tsiiká tãrũ sóri

kũwũ tsiiká tãrũ sóri
bunny eat put.NFN grass
the bunny is caused/allowed to eat the grass

A causer may be introduced with the instrumental positional ʔóli.

(5.24) kũwũ tsiiká tãrũ sóri ʔóli ʟosáw

kũwũ tsiiká tãrũ sóri ʔóli ʟosáw
bunny eat put.NFN grass INS hunger
the bunny is caused to eat the grass by hunger
hunger made the bunny eat the grass

6 | General morphology

General morphology describes the general form and function of morphemes.

6.1 | Affixes

Affixes (denoted as |-◌, ◌-|) are segments or groups of segments simply concatenated before (|-◌|) or after (|◌-|) the point to which they are attached.

Most root morphology comes in the form of affixes.

6.2 | Reduplication

Reduplication (denoted as |~◌, ◌~|) indicates that (a part of) the root word is copied and affixed at the designated area. Reduplication may consist of a segment (|C, V|), a mora (|μ|), a foot (|φ|), or the entire root word (|ω|).

Reduplication occurs primarily as the indirect inverse/augmented affix. However, full reduplication is also used colloquially to indicate universal quantification.

(6.1) kũwũkũwũ

kũwũ ~ω
bunny ~bunny
all bunnies

Reduplication is also observed in numerals, specifically in the numeral wũtiwũti ten, which is transparently constructed via reduplication of wũtiʔi five; however, this is not productive.

7 | Nominal morphology

Nouns inflect for case and number.

	NAT	INV	AUG
DIR	∅	-ró	-(s)ow
IND	-w(ã)	$\sim\mu_1$	

The indirect natural affix surfaces as |-w| after a single vowel, and as |-wã| after a consonant or vowel cluster. The indirect augmented affix surfaces as |-sow| after a vowel, and as |-ow| after a consonant.

The indirect inverse/augmented affix $|\sim\mu_1|$ surfaces as reduplication of the first mora complex of the root; upstep is also reduplicated, and upstep deletion occurs as expected. It is glossed as DIR.NNT (non-natural).

7.1 | Case

Case designates an argument's role in relation to the predicate.

7.1.1 | Direct

The direct case (DIR) marks the agent and/or patient of accusative-aligned clauses (both intransitive and transitive), and the agent of transitive ergative-aligned clauses.

(7.1) kũwũ tsiiká sóri

kũwũ tsiiká sóri
bunny.DIR eat grass.DIR
the bunny is eating the grass

(7.2) kũwũ tsiisí

kũwũ tsiisí
bunny.DIR eat
the bunny is eating

7.1.2 | Indirect

The indirect case (IND) marks the patient of ergative-aligned clauses (both intransitive and transitive).

(7.3) satãw tsiiká kũwũ

satã -w tsiiká kwmw
child -IND eat bunny
the child is being eaten by the bunny

(7.4) kũwũw tsíi

kũwũ -w tsíi
bunny -IND eat
the bunny is being eaten

It also marks noun auxiliaries (§ 4.4).

(7.5) kũwũw rãkisí tikroowã

kũwũw rãkisí tikroo -wã
bunny sense sleep -IND
the bunny is asleep

It is also used to mark possessors, in conjunction with a determiner (Ch. 10).

(7.6) sóri toʔa kũwũw

sóri toʔa kũwũ -w
grass DET bunny -IND
the bunny's grass

It is also used to mark obliques, in conjunction with a positional (Ch. 11).

(7.7) rũ kũsto tsir sáwʔow

rũ kũsto tsir sáwʔo -w
PRO move POS market -IND
I am going to the market

It is also used to form predicate nominals, or copular clauses, as well as appositives denoting identity, permanent states, and numeric quantity.

(7.8) koi tsáwo satãsa

koi tsáwo satã ~μ_1
DET people child -IND
those people are children

(7.9) topó rosũloswã

topó rosũlos -wã
eyes brown -IND
the brown eyes

(7.10) kũwũró wãsaw

kũwũró wãsa -w
bunnies two -IND
the two bunnies

7.2 | Number

Number designates the amount of an entity.

7.2.1 | Inherent number

Number is arranged in an inverse paradigm, in which all nouns are inherently singular, dual, or plural.

7.2.1.1 | Singular

The singular inherent number (SG) designates one entity. When used with the indefinite determiner (§ 10.5), it designates a part of an entity.

7.2.1.2 | Dual

The dual inherent number (DU) designates two entities. It is significantly less common than the other two inherent numbers, and is primarily restricted to natural and expected pairs (eyes, a couple, etc.).

7.2.1.3 | Plural

The plural inherent number (PL) designates two or more entities. It is also used as the inherent number for mass nouns, such as materials.

7.2.1.4 | Extraplural

The extraplural (EPL) is not an inherent number, but a number resulting from the augmentation of an inherently-plural noun. It designates a greater-than-expected amount, or groups of groups of entities.

7.2.2 | Natural

The natural number (NAT) is the default, inherent number.

(7.11) kũwũ
⟨[illegible]⟩
kũwũ
bunny.NAT
bunny
a bunny

(7.12) topó
⟨[illegible]⟩
topó
eyes.NAT
eyes
a pair of eyes

(7.13) tsáwo
⟨[illegible]⟩
tsáwo
people.NAT
people
a group of people

7.2.3 | Inverse

The inverse number (INV) “inverts” the default number, turning inherent singular to dual, and inherent dual and plural to singular.

(7.14) kũwũró
⟨[illegible]⟩
kũwũ -ró
bunny -INV
two bunnies
a pair of bunnies

(7.15) toporó
⟨[illegible]⟩
topó -ró
eyes -INV
eye
an eye

(7.16) tsaworó
⟨[illegible]⟩
tsáwo -ró
people -INV
person
a person

7.2.4 | Augmented

The augmented number (AUG) “augments” the default number, turning inherent singular and dual to plural, and plural to extraplural.

(7.17) kũwũsow

kũwũ -sow
bunny -AUG
bunnies

(7.18) topósow

topó -sow
eyes -AUG
eyes

(7.19) tsáwosow

tsáwo -sow
people -AUG
many people
peoples

8 | Verbal morphology

The five verbs each have two stems, each of which can take further morphology.

	FIN	NFN
eat	tsíi	tsũ̃ű
say	poa	pű̃ã
move	kũs	kis
sense	ŕ̃aki	rakí
put	taró	tãrũ

8.1 | State

State decribes the function of a verb.

8.1.1 | Finite

The finite state (FIN[1]) is used for independent predicates. Finite verbs always take agreement (§ 8.2).

(8.1) kũwũ tsiiká sóri

⟨[illegible]⟩

kũwũ	tsíi	-ká	sóri
bunny	eat.FIN	-3›3	grass

<u>the bunny is eating the grass</u>

8.1.2 | Non-finite

The non-finite state (NFN) is used for dependent predicates. Non-finite verbs may take a relational (§ 8.3) or be used bare. Their bare form is generally reserved for modal auxiliary uses (§ 5.2) and adnominal dependent clauses (§ 4.7.2.2). When used alone, their bare forms may be used for imperatives (§ 4.10) or emphatic/expletive statements.

(8.2) kũwũ tsíito wãs kispái

⟨[illegible]⟩

kũwũ	tsíito	wãs	kis	-pái
bunny	eat	DET	move.NFN	-GEN

<u>the bunny is eating and hopping</u>

(8.3) kũwũ tsiiká tsũ̃ű sóri

⟨[illegible]⟩

kũwũ	tsiiká	tsũ̃ű	sóri
bunny	eat	eat.NFN	grass

<u>the bunny wants/needs to eat the grass</u>

[1] The finite state is generally left implicit in glosses.

(8.4) kũwũ tsũű́ sóri

kũwũ tsũű́ sóri
bunny eat.NFN grass
the bunny that eats grass

(8.5) tsũű́

tsũű́
eat.NFN
eat!

8.2 | Agreement

Agreement tracks the core argument(s) of a predicate, and always occurs on finite verbs. There are two paradigms: intransitive and transitive agreement.

8.2.1 | Intransitive agreement

Intransitive agreement occurs on intransitive predicates, or predicates in which there is only one core argument.

	AGT	PAT
1SG	-to	-tũ
1PL	-wi	-wũ
2	-lá	-lã́
3PER	∅	
3IMP	-sí	

Wherein 1SG, 1PL, and 2 are their respective persons as detailed in § 9.1; 3HUM and 3NHU are third-person referents, and make a distinction between personal (PER) and impersonal (IMP). This distinction maps fairly well to a human/non-human dichotomy, but humanoids and humanoid figures (such as statues) also fall under the personal class[2].

Additionally, the SAP agreement morphemes make a distinction between agent (§ 4.8.1) and patient (§ 4.8.2), which the independent pronouns do not do.

(8.6) rũ tsíito

rũ tsíi -to
PRO eat -1SG.AGT
I am eating

(8.7) rũ tsíitũ

rũ tsíi -tũ
PRO eat -1SG.PAT
I am being eaten

8.2.2 | Transitive agreement

Transitive agreement occurs on transitive predicates, or predicates in which there are two core arguments.

Transitive agreement is polypersonal, in that it tracks both A and O core arguments of the predicate, wherein A→O.

[2]In contrast, such humanoid entities do not fall under the class ‹human› in the empathy hierarchy (§ 4.2).

→	SAP	3SG	3PL
1SG	-ta	-ʔós	-tsi
1PL	-wű	-rã	-tiw
2	-ki	-sat	
3	-lo	-ká	

Wherein SAP is speech act participant (Ch. 9), which subsumes both first and second persons. Additionally, the tracked O argument agreement distinguishes singular and plural in the third person.

The singular and plural numbers on the third person agreement references the derived semantic number of the referent (i.e., the number resulting from the natural-inverse-augmented paradigm). Here, the ‹plural› also encompasses dual and extraplural semantics, as well as coördinated nouns (§ 11.3).

Transitive agreement affixes are generally glossed as *x*›*y*, wherein ‹*x*› denotes the tracked A argument, and ‹*y*› denotes the tracked O argument. The affixes |-tiw, -ká|, which exhibit some merging, are glossed as SAP.NNU›3PL (speech act participant, non-atomic[3]) and 3›3.

(8.8) rũ tsiiʔós kũwũ
⟨[illegible]⟩
rũ tsíi -ʔós kũwũ
PRO eat -1SG›3SG bunny
I am eating the bunny

8.3 | Relationals

Relationals[4] designate the relationship between a non-finite verb and another predicate, temporal or otherwise. They only occur on non-finite verbs (but are not mandatory).

GEN	-pái
PST	-lãw
RES	-tílo
CON	-witi
NEG	-rosó

When used to generally link two predicates, the relational-taking verb is placed in the postfield, much like an oblique argument (§ 4.6). Unlike an oblique argument, it does not take a positional (Ch. 11).

(8.9) rũ kũsto lao tsir sáwʔow wãs topitó rakipái
⟨[illegible]⟩
rũ kũsto lao tsir sáwʔow wãs topitó raki -pái
PRO move DET POS market DET flatbreads sense.NFN -GEN
I went to the market and got some flatbreads

[3] i.e., nuclear; the expected NAT for ‘non-atomic’ might have been confusing.
[4] I don't like the term ‘converb’.

Relationals may be used on a reduplicated verb in the auxiliary slot for special uses.

(8.10) kũwũ tsiiká tsũũpái sóri
⟨[illegible]⟩
kũwũ tsiiká tsũ̃ű -pái sóri
bunny eat eat.NFN -GEN grass
the bunny is eating up the grass

When used on reduplicated verb auxiliaries that are in dependent adnominal clauses, the reduplicant verb may be dropped.

(8.11) kũwũ (tsũũ) sóri tsũũpái
⟨[illegible]⟩
kũwũ (tsũũ) sóri tsũ̃ű -pái
bunny (eat) grass eat.NFN -GEN
the bunny that is eating up the grass

Inclusion of the parenthetical verb is reserved primarily for formal speech and writing.

When referring to predicates affected by relationals, the main predicate is the superordinate independent predicate, and the marked predicate is the associated dependent predicate that takes a relational

8.3.1 | Generic

The generic relational (GEN) expresses a general relationship between predicate. It may indicate that the predicates are simultaneously-occurring, or that main predicate occurs within the marked predicate.

(8.12) kũwũ tsiisí wãs kispái
⟨[illegible]⟩
kũwũ tsiisí wãs kis -pái
bunny eat DET move.NFN -GEN
the bunny is eating and hopping
the bunny is eating while hopping

It is used on a reduplicated auxiliary verb to emphasize or intensify the meaning.

(8.13) ki tsíisat tsũũpái tópi
⟨[illegible]⟩
ki tsíisat tsũũ -pái tópi
PRO eat eat.NFN -GEN flatbread
you are really eating the flatbread
you are eating up the flatbread

8.3.2 | Posterior

The posterior relational (PST) expresses a consecutive relationship, in which the marked predicate occurs *after* the main predicate. This relationship is purely temporal, and does *not* imply causation.

(8.14) kũwũ tsiisí lao wãs rakílãw tikroowã
⟨[illegible]⟩
kũwũ tsiisí lao wãs rakí -lãw tikroowã
bunny eat DET DET sense -PST sleep
the bunny ate, then slept

It is used on a reduplicated auxiliary verb to form reflexive and reciprocal meanings.

(8.15) kũwũ rãkisí rakílãw
⟨[illegible]⟩
kũwũ rãkisí rakí -lãw
bunny sense sense.NFN -PST
the bunny sees itself

(8.16) kũwũ rãkiká rakílãw táLi
⟨[illegible]⟩
kũwũ rãkiká rakí -lãw táLi
bunny sense sense.NFN -PST duck
the bunny and the duck see each other

8.3.3 | Resultative

The resultative relational (RES) expresses a causative relationship, in which the marked predicate occurs as a result of the main predicate. It may also denote a more immediate temporal relationship than the posterior relational.

(8.17) kũwũw tsiisí Lósaw wãs tsũũtílo lao
⟨[illegible]⟩
kũwũw tsiisí Lósaw wãs tsũũ -tílo lao
bunny eat hunger DET eat.NFN -RES DET
because/when the bunny was hungry, it ate

It is used on a reduplicated auxiliary verb to give an additive-scalar meaning.

(8.18) kũwũ tsiiká tsũũtílo sóri
⟨[illegible]⟩
kũwũ tsiiká tsũ̃ű -tílo sóri
bunny eat eat.NFN -RES grass
the bunny even ate the grass

8.3.4 | Conditional

The conditional relational (CON) expresses a conditional relationship, in which the main event is (semantically) dependent on marked event. Generally, the main event is in some way marked as irrealis; this is most commonly done using the distal determiner auxiliary, although a modal verb auxiliary may also be used.

(8.19) wo tsíito koi kű̃ kiswiti ʔóli rũ
⟨[illegible]⟩
wo tsíito koi kű̃ kis -witi ʔóli rũ
PRO eat DET PRO move.NFN -CON POS PRO
I will eat, if you come with me

It may also be used to arrange the predicates as exclusive alternatives, in which either one or the other (but not both) are in some way "true". This usage is not restricted to realis or irrealis modes, and thus may overlap with the conditional proper usage.

(8.20) rũ tsíito lao wãs kiswiti
⟨[illegible]⟩
rũ tsíito lao wãs kiswiti
PRO eat DET DET move
I ate, or I went

It is used on a reduplicated auxiliary verb to form frustrative statements.

(8.21) kũwũ tsiiká tsũű̃witi sóri
⟨[illegible]⟩
kũwũ tsiiká tsũű̃ -witi sóri
bunny eat eat.NFN -CON grass
the bunny is trying to eat the grass
the bunny is eating the grass in vain

8.3.5 | Negative

The negative relational (NEG) expresses a negated relationship, in which the marked predicate does *not* occur. If the main predicate is irrealis, it has a causative relationship to the negated marked predicate. Otherwise, the relationship may be causative, in which the marked predicate's non-occurrence is because of the main predicate in some way, or more general.

(8.22) wo tsíito koi kű̃ kisrosó ʔóli rũ
⟨[illegible]⟩
wo tsíito koi kű̃ kis -rosó ʔóli rũ
PRO eat DET PRO move.NFN -NEG POS PRO
I will eat, if you do not come with me

(8.23) kũwũ tsiisí lao wãs tsũũrosó LÓSAW
⟨[illegible]⟩
kũwũ tsiisí lao wãs tsũũ -rosó LÓSAW
bunny eat DET DET eat.NFN -NEG hunger
because/when the bunny ate, it was not hungry
the bunny ate, and/then was not hungry

It is used on a reduplicated auxiliary verb to form negated independent clauses and interrogatives (§ 4.11).

(8.24) kũwũ tsiiká tsũũrosó sóri

kũwũ	tsiiká	tsũũ	-rosó	sóri
bunny	eat	eat.NFN	-NEG	grass

the bunny is not eating the grass
is the bunny eating the grass?

9 | Pronouns

Pronouns (PRO) are used to reference speech act participants (SAPs), or the speaker(s) and listener(s) of a conversation.

	REA	IRR
1SG	rũ	wo
1PL	tí	
2	ki	kű

They are primarily used to simply refer to SAPs.

(9.1) rũ tsiiʔós kũwũ

⟨[illegible]⟩

rũ	tsiiʔós	kũwũ
1SG.REA	eat	bunny

I am eating a bunny

They may also be used possessively.

(9.2) rũ kũwũ

⟨[illegible]⟩

rũ	kũwũ
1SG.REA	bunny

my bunny

Possessive pronouns are placed directly before their modified noun, and do not coöccur with deictic/possessive determiners.

9.1 | Person

Person describes the speech act participant.

9.1.1 | First singular

The first singular person (1SG) describes the speaker and only the speaker.

(9.3) rũ tsíito kũwũ

⟨[illegible]⟩

rũ	tsíito
1SG	eat

I am eating

9.1.2 | First plural

The first plural person (1PL) describes the speaker and any number of non-listener participants (i.e., exclusive "we").

(9.4) tí tsíiwi kũwũ

tí tsíito
1PL eat
we (not you) are eating

9.1.3 | Second

The second person (2) describes any number of listeners, or any number of speakers and listeners (i.e., inclusive "we").

(9.5) ki tsiilá kũwũ

ki tsiilá
2 eat
you are eating
we (including you) are eating

9.2 | Mode

Mode describes the quantification of the predicate.

9.2.1 | Realis

The realis mode (REA) is used in realis independent clauses. Realis clauses are those which are *not* considered irrealis (see next section).

(9.6) ki tsíisat kũwũ

ki tsíisat kũwũ
2.REA eat bunny
you are eating a bunny

Clauses that contain an evidential auxiliary are *not* considered irrealis, and thus take realis-mode pronouns.

(9.7) ki tsíisat kű̃ kũwũ

ki tsíisat kű̃ kũwũ
2.REA eat 2.IRR bunny
you are eating a bunny, I heard

Realis pronouns are also always used when a pronoun is modified by a positional.

(9.8) wo tsíito koi ʔóli ki
⟨[illegible]⟩
wo tsíito koi ʔóli ki
PRO eat DET POS 2.REA
I will eat with you

9.2.2 | Irrealis

The irrealis mode (IRR) is used in irrealis independent clauses, in all dependent clauses, and as evidential auxiliaries (detailed in the next section). Irrealis clauses are those which take a modal (verb) auxiliary (§ 5.2), as well as imperatives (§ 4.10), interrogatives (§ 4.11), conditional apodosis (§ 4.12), and future statements (§ 10.6.5). Additive-scalar, frustrative, and negated clauses (§§ 8.3.3 to 8.3.5) also take irrealis pronouns.

(9.9) kű̃ tsíisat rakí kũwũ
⟨[illegible]⟩
kű̃ tsíisat rakí kũwũ
2.IRR eat sense bunny
you might be eating a bunny

9.3 | Evidential usage

When used as auxiliaries, pronouns confer an evidential meaning to the verb. Only irrealis pronouns have this function, and there are three grades of evidentiality.

9.3.1 | Experiential

In the absence of an evidential auxiliary proper, the implicit "evidential" category is taken to be the experiential. This is associated with direct personal experience, such as witnessing the event oneself, as well as with general factual information and *a priori* knowledge.

(9.10) kũwũ tsiiká sóri
⟨[illegible]⟩
kũwũ tsiiká sóri
bunny eat grass
the bunny eats the grass
(I saw it)
(I know because bunnies generally eat grass)

9.3.2 | Inferential

The inferential evidential is expressed via the first-person pronoun wo, and is associated with information inferred by direct evidence (e.g., phenomena adjacent to the event), and other *a posteriori* knowledge.

(9.11) kũwũ tsiiká wo sóri

kũwũ tsiiká wo sóri
bunny eat PRO grass
the bunny eats the grass
(I inferred, e.g., from leftover grass)

9.3.3 | Reportative

The reportative evidential is expressed via the second-person pronoun kű̃, and is associated with information acquired from another source, such as hearsay or quotation. It also subsumes assumption without evidence.

(9.12) kũwũ tsiiká kű̃ sóri

kũwũ tsiiká kű̃ sóri
bunny eat 2.IRR grass
the bunny eats the grass
(I was told)
(I assume, but I have no evidence for this)

10 | Determiners

Determiners (DET) are used to designate nouns spatially and semantically.

LOC	siw
PRX	toʔa
MED	lao
DST	koi
NDF	wãs

They are primarily used as deictic designators, arranging nouns spatially in relation to the speaker and/or listener.

(10.1) toʔa kũwũ
⟨[illegible]⟩
toʔa kũwũ
PRX bunny
this bunny

They are also used pronominally for third-person referents (§ 4.13), with anaphoric and (to a lesser extent) cataphoric uses.

(10.2) toʔa tsiiká sóri
⟨[illegible]⟩
toʔa tsiiká sóri
PRX eat grass
this (e.g., bunny) is eating the grass

They are also used possessively, in conjunction with the indirect case.

(10.3) sóri toʔa kũwũw
⟨[illegible]⟩
sóri toʔa kũwũ -w
grass PRX bunny -IND
the bunny's grass
the grass of the bunny

Like possessive pronouns, determiners are placed directly before their modified noun.

10.1 | Local

The local determiner (LOC) is associated with entities very close to the speaker, usually touching/in contact with the speaker(s). Its domain is analogous to the first singular pronoun.

(10.4) siw kũwũ
⟨[illegible]⟩
siw kũwũ
LOC bunny
this bunny (that I am holding)

(10.5) siw tsiiká sóri
⟨[illegible]⟩
siw tsiiká sóri
LOC eat grass
this (that I am holding) is eating the grass

When used possessively, it denotes an inalienable relationship, or one that cannot easily be separated. This is most often used for body parts, family members, and indivisible part-whole relationships.

(10.6) topó siw kũwũw
⟨[illegible]⟩
topó siw kũwũw
eyes LOC bunny
the bunny's eyes

It is also obligatorily used to mark personal and place names.

(10.7) siw ʔasiró
⟨[illegible]⟩
siw ʔasiró
LOC *name*
Asirò

10.2 | Proximal

The proximal determiner (PRX) is associated with entities near the speaker(s), but not necessarily in contact with them. They are usually within reaching distance. Its domain is analogous to the first plural pronoun.

(10.8) toʔa kũwũ
⟨[illegible]⟩
toʔa kũwũ
PRX bunny
this bunny (that is near me)

(10.9) toʔa tsiiká sóri
⟨[illegible]⟩
toʔa tsiiká sóri
PRX eat grass
this (near me) is eating the grass

When used possessively, it denotes a subset alienable relationship; one that *can* be separated, and in which the possessee is in some way subordinate to the possessor.

(10.10) sóri toʔa kũwũw
⟨[illegible]⟩
sóri toʔa kũwũw
grass PRX bunny
the bunny's grass

10.3 | Medial

The medial determiner (MED) is associated with entities near the listener(s) and/or far from the speaker(s). Its domain is analogous to the second pronoun.

(10.11) lao kũwũ

lao kũwũ
MED bunny
that bunny (that is near you)

(10.12) lao tsiiká sóri

lao tsiiká sóri
MED eat grass
that (near you) is eating the grass

When used possessively, it denotes a reciprocal alienable relationship; one in which the possessor and possessee are equal.

(10.13) likó lao kũwũw

likó lao kũwũw
partner MED bunny
the bunny's mate

10.4 | Distal

The distal determiner (DST) is associated with entities far from both the speaker(s) and listener(s). Its domain is analogous to the third-person referents. It is the determiner most commonly used pronominally to refer to non-participant referents.

(10.14) koi kũwũ

koi kũwũ
DST bunny
that bunny (that far from both of us)

(10.15) koi tsiiká sóri

koi tsiiká sóri
DST eat grass
that (far from us) is eating the grass

When used possessively, it denotes a superset alienable relationship; one in which the possessee is in some way superordinate to the possessor.

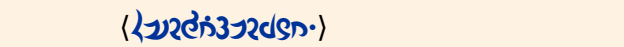
(10.16) kot koi kũwũw

kot koi kũwũw
burrow DST bunny
the bunny's burrow

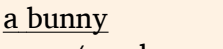
10.5 | Indefinite

The indefinite determiner (NDF) is associated with indefinite entities, or outside the universe of discourse.

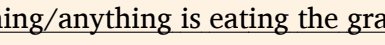
(10.17) wãs kũwũ
⟨  ⟩
wãs kũwũ
NDF bunny
a bunny
some/any bunny

(10.18) wãs tsiiká sóri
⟨  ⟩
wãs tsiiká sóri
NDF eat grass
something/anything is eating the grass

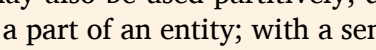
It may also be used partitively, denoting some portion of a whole. With a semantic singular, it refers to a part of an entity; with a semantic dual, it refers to one of the two entities; with a semantic plural, it refers to some amount less than the total.

(10.19) wãs kũwũ
⟨  ⟩
wãs kũwũ
NDF bunny
part of a bunny

(10.20) wãs kũwũró
⟨  ⟩
wãs kũwũ -ró
NDF bunny -INV
one bunny (of a pair)

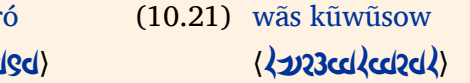
(10.21) wãs kũwũsow
⟨  ⟩
wãs kũwũ -sow
NDF bunny -AUG
some bunnies (of a group)

In questions, it functions as a general wh-word (who, what, when, etc.).

(10.22) wãs tsiiká tsũũrosó sóri
⟨  ⟩
wãs tsiiká tsũũrosó sóri
NDF eat eat.NFN:NEG grass
what is eating the grass

It is used logophorically in dependent clauses, referring to an argument outside of the dependent clause, a core argument of its host independent clause.

(10.23) rũ poatũ lao wãs tópi tsṹṹ
⟨  ⟩
rũ poatũ lao wãs tópi tsṹṹ
PRO say DET NDF flatbread eat
I said I ate flatbread

(10.24) rũ tsíito to?a wãs kispái
⟨  ⟩
rũ kũsto to?a wãs tsíiwiti
PRO eat DET NDF move
I am eating while walking

When used possessively, it denotes a short-lived or happenstance relationship; one that occurs unexpectedly or coincidently, in which the relationship is accidental or non-prototypical.

(10.25) látsã wãs kũwũw
⟨  ⟩
látsã wãs kũwũw
digging stick NDF bunny
the bunny's digging stick

10.6 | Temporal usage

When used as auxiliaries, determiners confer a temporal meaning to the verb, both in when the event is situated in relation to the time under discussion (tense), as well as the structure of the flow of

time regarding the event (aspect). Temporal auxiliaries are generally not used when the timeframe is explicitly stated, or implied by a previous clause. There are six grades of temporal description.

10.6.1 | Simple

In the absence of a temporal auxiliary proper, the implicit "temporal" category is taken to be the simple. This is largely associated with present events, or events that take place at the time of speaking. There is no reference to the exact structure of the flow of time.

It is most often translated as a simple present or present progressive.

(10.26) kũwũ tsiiká sóri

kũwũ tsiiká sóri
bunny eat grass

the bunny eats the grass
the bunny is eating the grass

10.6.2 | Perfect

The perfect temporal is expressed via the local determiner siw, and is associated with a past event that has some sort of present relevance. Present relevance may be of result, a state resulting from a past event, or of continuation, an event that started in the past but extends into the present.

(10.27) kũwũ tsiiká siw sóri

kũwũ tsiiká siw sóri
bunny eat LOC grass

the bunny has eaten the grass
the bunny is still eating the grass

10.6.3 | Dynamic

The dynamic temporal is expressed via the proximal determiner toʔa, and is associated with events with some sort of internal structure, most often incomplete or unbounded events.

It differs from the present progressive meaning of the simple temporal in that it has a broader range, and is not limited to the exact time of speaking[1]. It is also associated with the inception of an event, focusing on its beginning point.

(10.28) kũwũ tsiiká toʔa sóri

kũwũ tsiiká toʔa sóri
bunny eat PRX grass

the bunny is eating the grass
the bunny is starting to eat the grass

[1] The simple progressive sentence might be used as a response to "what is the bunny doing at this very moment", while the given dynamic sentence might be used as a response to "what is the bunny doing nowadays".

10.6.4 | Preterite

The preterite temporal is expressed via the medial determiner lao, and is associated with past completed events, events contained entirely in the past, and past events without internal structure. It may be seen as a past analogue to the simple temporal.

(10.29) kũwũ tsiiká lao sóri

kũwũ tsiiká lao sóri
bunny eat MED grass
the bunny ate the grass

10.6.5 | Future

The future temporal is expressed via the distal determiner koi, and is associated with future events and conditional apodosis. The future temporal is also considered irrealis.

(10.30) kũwũ tsiiká koi sóri

kũwũ tsiiká koi sóri
bunny eat DST grass
the bunny will eat the grass

10.6.6 | Imperfect

The imperfect temporal is expressed via the indefinite determiner wãs, and is associated with past habitual events, events that occurred regularly or was repeated in the past, and past progressive events, events that were ongoing in the past. Similar to the preterite, it may be seen as a past analogue to the dynamic temporal.

It is also used for general, “tenseless” statements, such as statements of perceived fact or general truth.

(10.31) kũwũ tsiiká wãs sóri

kũwũ tsiiká wãs sóri
bunny eat NDF grass
the bunny used to eat grass
the bunny was eating grass
the bunny eats grass

11 | Positionals

Positionals (POS) are used to designate oblique arguments (§ 4.6).

LAT	ʦir
ABL	kosó
INS	ʔóli
PUR	lok
ESS	tíri

They are primarily used to mark additional, non-core arguments. They express a non-agent, non-patient relationship to the predicate, and often involve some form of motion or otherwise efficiency. Nouns modified by a positional take the indirect case (§ 7.1.2).

(11.1) rũ kũsto ʦir sáwʔow
⟨[illegible]⟩
rũ kũsto ʦir sáwʔo -w
PRO move LAT market -IND
I am going to the market

They are also used to express adnominal relationships, relationships between nouns. Unlike true adnominal clauses, adnominal positional phrases are *not* restricted to core arguments.

(11.2) kũwũ ʔóli táʟiw
⟨[illegible]⟩
kũwũ ʔóli táʟi -w
bunny INS duck -IND
the bunny and the duck

Adnominal positionals are placed before their modified noun and any pronoun or determiner that also modifies it.

11.1 | Lative

The lative positional (LAT) is associated with motion to/toward/in/into a goal.

(11.3) kũwũ kũs ʦir kotwã
⟨[illegible]⟩
kũwũ kũs ʦir kotwã
bunny move LAT burrow
the bunny is going into the burrow

It is also used to mark the recipient of a verb of transfer.

(11.4) rũ kũsʔós kũwũ tsir ki
⟨[illegible]⟩
rũ kũsʔós kũwũ tsir ki
PRO move bunny LAT PRO
I am giving the bunny to you

It is also used to mark the demoted core argument of a verb with an applicative.

(11.5) kũwũ tsiiká tíri kot tsir sóriw
⟨[illegible]⟩
kũwũ tsiiká tíri kot tsir sóriw
bunny eat ESS burrow LAT grass
the bunny is eating grass at/in the burrow

It may also be used irresultatively, marking the patient of an atelic, goal-incomplete, or non-culminating event.

(11.6) kũwũ tsiisí lao tsir sóriw
⟨[illegible]⟩
kũwũ tsiisí lao tsir sóriw
bunny eat DET LAT grass
the bunny ate the grass (but did not finish)
LIT. the bunny ate to the grass

When used adnominally, it indicates an approximate relationship, in regard to or concerned with the marked noun. It may also be spatial, indicating location nearby or in the general vicinity of the marked noun.

(11.7) rãksi tsir kũwũkũ
⟨[illegible]⟩
rãksi tsir kũwũkũ
book LAT bunnies
the book about bunnies

(11.8) kũwũ tsir kotwã
⟨[illegible]⟩
kũwũ tsir kotwã
bunny LAT burrow
the bunny near the burrow

11.2 | Ablative

The ablative positional (ABL) is associated with motion away from/out of a source.

(11.9) kũwũ kũs kosó kotwã
⟨[illegible]⟩
kũwũ kũs kosó kotwã
bunny move LAT burrow
the bunny is coming out of the burrow

It is also used to mark the donor of a verb of transfer.

(11.10) rũ kũsʔós kũwũ kosó ki

⟨[illegible]⟩

rũ	kũsʔós	kũwũ	kosó	ki
PRO	move	bunny	ABL	PRO

I am taking the bunny from you

(11.11) rũ rãkiʔós kũwũ kosó ki

⟨[illegible]⟩

rũ	rãkiʔós	kũwũ	kosó	ki
PRO	sense	bunny	ABL	PRO

I am receiving the bunny from you

It is also used for temporal description, or location in time.

(11.12) kũwũ tsiisí kosó rairiswã

kũwũ tsiisí kosó rairiswã
bunny eat ABL yesterday
the bunny ate yesterday

When used adnominally, it indicates origin/source.

(11.13) kũwũ kosó toʔa kotwã

kũwũ kosó toʔa kotwã
bunny ABL DET burrow
the bunny from this burrow

11.3 | Instrumental

The instrumental positional (INS) is associated with accompaniment and means by which an event occurs (e.g., a tool).

(11.14) kũwũ tsiisí ʔóli táʟiw

kũwũ tsiisí ʔóli táʟiw
bunny eat INS duck
the bunny is eating with the duck

(11.15) rũ tsíito ʔóli torwã

rũ tsíito ʔóli torwã
PRO eat INS knife
I am eating with/using a knife

It is also used to introduce causees.

(11.16) ki kũssat lao kũwũ ʔóli wo

ki kũssat lao kũwũ ʔóli wo
PRO move DET bunny INS PRO
you took the bunny because of me
I made you take the bunny

When used adnominally, it coördinates nouns equally.

(11.17) kũwũ ʔóli táʟiw

kũwũ ʔóli táʟiw
bunny INS duck
the bunny and the duck

11.4 | Purposive

The purposive positional (PUR) is associated with purpose, benefit, causation, and/or intention regarding a goal.

(11.18) rũ kũsto lok kũwũw
⟨[illegible]⟩
rũ kũsto lok kũwũw
PRO move PUR bunny
I am coming for the bunny

When used adnominally, it designates the marked noun as the goal of purpose, benefit, or intention.

(11.19) sóri lok kũwũw
⟨[illegible]⟩
sóri lok kũwũw
grass PUR bunny
grass (meant, intended) for the bunny

11.5 | Essive

The essive positional (ESS) is associated with state of being, likeness/similarity, static location, and the manner in which an event occurs.

(11.20) kũwũ tsiisí tíri kotwã
⟨[illegible]⟩
kũwũ tsiisí tíri kotwã
bunny eat ESS burrow
the bunny is eating at/in the burrow

(11.21) rũ tsíito tíri Lósaw
⟨[illegible]⟩
rũ tsíito tíri Lósaw
PRO eat ESS hunger
I am eating hungrily

It is also used for noun auxiliaries used in tandem with another auxiliary, in which the noun auxiliary is demoted as an oblique argument and marked with the essive positional.

(11.22) ki rãkilá̃ lao tíri tikroowã
⟨[illegible]⟩
ki rãkilá̃ lao tíri tikroowã
PRO sense DET ESS sleep
you slept

When used adnominally, it is used to indicate composition and temporary states.

(11.23) kot tíri rosũw
⟨[illegible]⟩
kot tíri rosũw
burrow ESS dirt
the burrow (made) of dirt

(11.24) kũwũ tíri tikroowã
⟨[illegible]⟩
kũwũ tíri tikroowã
bunny ESS sleep
the sleeping/sleepy bunny

11.6 | Applicative usage

When used as auxiliaries, positionals have an applicative usage, functioning to promote an oblique argument to a core argument. There are five applicatives.

Oblique-promotion is used to instantiate an oblique argument as a core argument, which allows it to undergo certain processes such as relativization (§ 4.14.1). Otherwise, they behave similarly to their non-applicative counterparts.

11.6.1 | Lative applicative

The lative applicative promotes lative obliques.

(11.25) kũwũ kũská ʦir kot
⟨3ɑɑ⟨ɑɑ3ɑɑ23ɔɔdɒʂ3de·⟩
kũwũ kũská ʦir kot
bunny move LAT burrow
the bunny is going into the burrow

11.6.2 | Ablative applicative

The ablative applicative promotes ablative obliques.

(11.26) kũwũ kũská kosó kot
⟨3ɑɑ⟨ɑɑ3ɑɑ23ɔɔ3d2d3de·⟩
kũwũ kũská kosó kot
bunny move LAT burrow
the bunny is coming out of the burrow

11.6.3 | Instrumental applicative

The instrumental applicative promotes instrumental obliques.

(11.27) kũwũ ʦiiká ʔóli táʟɪ
⟨3ɑɑ⟨ɑɑɗň3ɔɾdYɒeɔʊɒ·⟩
kũwũ ʦiiká ʔóli táʟɪ
bunny eat INS duck
the bunny is eating with the duck

11.6.4 | Purposive applicative

The purposive applicative promotes purposive obliques.

(11.28) rũ kũská lok kũwũ
⟨ʂɑɑ3ɑɑ23ɔYd33ɑɑ⟨ɑɑ·⟩
rũ kũská lok kũwũ
PRO move PUR bunny
I am coming for the bunny

11.6.5 | Essive applicative

The essive applicative promotes essive obliques.

(11.29) kũwũ tsiiká tíri kot

⟨  ⟩

kũwũ	tsiiká	tíri	kot
bunny	eat	ESS	burrow

the bunny is eating at/in the burrow

12 | Semantics

Semantics are concerned with the meaning of words.

12.1 | Numerals

Numerals are words that express numeric value and quantity. There are ten basic numeral terms in Lagá:

ʔãsa, ʔũlo	one	SG
wãsa, wũlo	two	DU
sor, sás	three	PL
lor, lás	four	PL
wũtiʔi	five	SG
wũtiʔarũ	six	PL
ʟiíʟi	seven	PL
ʟiírãw	eight	PL
ʟiíso	nine	PL
wũtiwũti	ten	SG

Numerals one through four have two forms, wherein the forms ʔãsa, wãsa, sor, lor are used for animate referents, and the forms ʔũlo, wũlo, sás, lás are used for inanimate referents. These classes correspond to those described in § 4.2.

Numerals five through nine are loaned from gan Minhó, and the number ten is transparently derived from reduplication of the numeral five[1].

Modifying numerals take the indirect case. Referents of numerals take their semantic number from the morphological number of the numeral.

(12.1) kũwũ ʔãsaw
kũwũ ʔãsa -w
bunny.NAT one -IND
one bunny

(12.2) kũwũró wãsaw
kũwũ -ró wãsa -w
bunny -INV two -IND
two bunnies

(12.3) kũwũsow sorwã
kũwũ -sow sor -wã
bunny -AUG three -IND
three bunnies

12.1.1 | Larger numerals

Larger numerals are built from basic numerals via a base-ten positional system.

x_n - - - x_1 — x_0

[1] I feel it is important to note that wũtiʔi is in no way related to the Toki Pona term 'mute', which also means 'five' (or 'hand'); it is derived from gan Minhó 'mtèe'. I do not find Toki Pona particularly interesting, and find this coincidence to be rather unfortunate; while I *could* change it, I like the relationship to the gan Minhó numerals, and do not want to radically change its numerals in order to satisfy a relatively small annoyance.

Wherein each slot n consists of a numeric term x, and indicates $x10^n$ (i.e., x times 10 to the power of n); consecutive slots are then added together. The nonexistence of a value in a slot[2] is indicated by placing the root tsoo thing in the null slot. Numerals that modify other numerals in the formation of larger numerals take the indirect case as well.

(12.4) ʔãsa wũtiʔiw

⟨  ⟩

ʔãsa	wũtiʔi	-w
one	five	-IND

fifteen

Larger numerals inherit the morphological number from the last numeral in the numeric complex (i.e., x_0).

(12.5) kũwũ ʔãsaw ʔãsaw

⟨  ⟩

kũwũ	ʔãsaw	ʔãsaw
bunny.NAT	one	one

eleven bunnies

(12.6) kũwũró ʔãsaw wãsaw

⟨  ⟩

kũwũ	-ró	ʔãsaw	wãsaw
bunny	-INV	one	two

twelve bunnies

(12.7) kũwũsow ʔãsaw sorwã

⟨  ⟩

kũwũ	-sow	ʔãsaw	sorwã
bunny	-AUG	one	three

thirteen bunnies

[2] That is, zero, although this is not considered a numeral proper in Lagá.

| Appendices

Appendices A is a lexicon of nouns; appendix B details the semantic divisions of certain concepts, and appendix C gives various example sentences.

Compounds, idioms, etc., are considered distinct lemmas.

Lemma entries are structured as follows:

• ⟨native orthography⟩ root (morphosyntactic categories) : definition(s)

The ‹morphosyntactic categories› portion contains a noun's inherent number.

Definitions are separated by a double dagger ‹‡›. Definitions which rely on certain morphological or semantic phenomena are noted by preceding the entry with the specific category in parentheses. Double-dagger-delimited entries that follow a morphologically-dependent meaning inherit the morphological dependence of the previous entry if not noted otherwise.

Auxiliary uses are noted as follows:

▸ *verb* :: definition(s)

Idioms may have variable inflection slots, which are noted with italicized letters (e.g., ‹-x, -y-, z-›) in both transcription and native orthography.

Colloquial and metaphorical meanings are prepended by ‹*colloq.*› and ‹*metaph.*›, respectively.

A | Nouns

| People

Gendered words are divided into same/different/irrelevant gender, which is to be compared to the gender of the speaker.

• ⟨3nƱn⟩ kíʟi (SG) : person, adult (same gender)

• ⟨Ycdrn⟩ lũʔi (SG) : person, adult (different gender)

• ⟨2Jeɟ⟩ satã (SG) : child, teenager (gender irrelevant)

• ⟨eJd⟩ taó (SG) : baby, infant, newborn (gender irrelevant)

• ⟨ƌJ⟨d⟩ tsáwo (PL) : persons, people (gender irrelevant; this is often used for groups of people)

| Family

• ⟨Yn3d⟩ likó (SG) : partner, spouse (gender irrelevant)

• ⟨⟨ɟ⟨cd⟩ wãwũ (SG) : parent (same gender)

• ⟨eJed⟩ tato (SG) : parent (different gender)

• ⟨⟨ɟ⟨cdeJed⟩ wãwũtato (SG) : parent, family member of older generation (gender irrelevant)

• ⟨3nYn⟩ kilí (SG) : older sibling (same gender)

• ⟨eJOJ⟩ tapa (SG) : older sibling (different gender)

• ⟨eJOJ3Yn⟩ tapaklí (SG) : older sibling, older family member of same generation (gender irrelevant)

• ⟨⟨n2d⟩ wíso (SG) : younger sibling (same gender)

• ⟨⟨JYd⟩ wálo (SG) : younger sibling (different gender)

• ⟨⟨n2⟨JYd⟩ wiswálo (SG) : younger sibling, younger family member of same generation (gender irrelevant)

• ⟨⟨n2eJ⟩ tísta (SG) : twin sibling, same-age family member of same generation (gender irrelevant)

• ⟨ƌnġn⟩ tsirri (SG) : child (same gender)

• ⟨2n2⟨d⟩ siswo (SG) : child (different gender)

• ⟨ƌnġn2⟨d⟩ tsirriswo (SG) : child, family member of younger generation (gender irrelevant)

| Body

• ⟨3ndSd3d⟩ kioroko (SG) : stomach ‡ intestines ‡ seat of desire and personal wants, needs, goals, etc.
  ▸ *eat* :: (AGT,TRA) want (to obtain, have, get), long (for), desire ‡ love, lust (after)

• ⟨edOd⟩ topó (DU) : eyes, pair of eyes
  ▸ *sense* :: (AGT,TRA) see, look (at) ‡ (PAT) be seen

• ⟨Od⟨n⟩ powí (PL) : hair, body hair ‡ fur (of animals)
  ▸ *say* :: (PAT) be hairy, have hair/fur ‡ (AGT) become hairy, grow hair/fur
  ▸ *move* :: (AGT) bald, shed hair/fur ‡ (TRA) shave, cause to be bald

| Food

• ⟨edOn⟩ tópi (SG) : flatbread, unleavened bread ‡ food, a meal
  ▸ *eat* :: (AGT) eat (a meal) ‡ (TRA) have as a meal
  ▸ *put* :: (AGT) make/prepare food ‡ (PAT) be prepared (of food) ‡ (TRA) prepare as food, as a meal

Animals

- ⟨…⟩ kũwũ (SG) : bunny, rabbit, hare; woolly hare ‡ leporidae in general
- ⟨…⟩ tsowo (SG) : pika; plateau pika ‡ ochotonidae in general
- ⟨…⟩ táli (SG) : duck; ruddy shelduck ‡ waterfowl
- ⟨…⟩ kokí (SG) : yak ‡ cow, dzo, bovine

Animal products

- ⟨…⟩ taowã (SG) : egg ‡ (*colloq.*) child, baby

Plants

- ⟨…⟩ sóri (PL) : grass, hay grass; grass used as animal feed

Concepts

- ⟨…⟩ tsoo (SG) : thing, something
  ▸ *put* :: (AGT) perform an action, do something ‡ (PAT) have an performed on oneself, be affected by something
- ⟨…⟩ sosā́ (PL) : innate knowledge, *a priori* information
  ▸ *sense* :: (AGT/TRA) know (innately, personally) ‡ (PAT) be known (innately)
- ⟨…⟩ píro (PL) : experiential knowledge, *a posteriori* information
  ▸ *sense* :: (AGT/TRA) know (circumstantially, of information) ‡ (PAT) be known (circumstantially)
- ⟨…⟩ kóki (SG) : situation, event, state of affairs ‡ location (in time or space) ‡ truth, fact
- ⟨…⟩ roo (SG) : affirmation, confirmation
  ▸ *say* :: (AGT) affirm, confirm, agree ‡ (PAT) be affirmed, agreed (with)
- ⟨…⟩ tũs (SG) : negation, denial
  ▸ *say* :: (AGT) negate, deny, disagree ‡ (PAT) be negated, disagreed (with)

States

- ⟨…⟩ tikroo (SG) : sleep, rest ‡ unconsciousness
  ▸ *sense* :: (PAT) be asleep, sleep ‡ (AGT) fall asleep, become asleep/unconscious ‡ (TRA) cause to be asleep/unconscious
- ⟨…⟩ LÓsa (SG) : hunger, appetite ‡ desire, greed
  ▸ *eat* :: (PAT) be hungry, hunger ‡ (AGT) become hungry, start to hunger ‡ (TRA) cause to be hungry, hunger
- ⟨…⟩ kiwósoli (SG) : satisfaction, contentness, happiness
  ▸ *sense* :: BE SATISFIED, CONTENT, HAPPY ‡ (AGT) BECOME SATISFIED ‡ (TRA) CAUSE TO BE SATISFIED

Emotion

- ⟨…-x … r …⟩ tsíi-x kiorokow r tsṹũwiti : (AGT,TRA) envy, desire of that which one cannot or does not have (LIT. try to desire, desire in vain) ‡ (PAT) be envied

Colors

- ⟨…⟩ rosũlos (PL) : brown, reddish-brown; dirt-colored
  ▸ *say* :: (PAT) be brown, reddish-brown ‡ (AGT) become brown ‡ (TRA) cause to be brown

Numerals

- ⟨…⟩ ʔãsa (SG) : one, animate
- ⟨…⟩ ʔũlo (SG) : one, inanime
- ⟨…⟩ wãsa (DU) : two, animate
- ⟨…⟩ wũlo (DU) : two, inanimate
- ⟨…⟩ sor (PL) : three, animate
- ⟨…⟩ sás (PL) : three, inanimate

- ⟨…⟩ lor (PL) : four, animate
- ⟨…⟩ lás (PL) : four, inanimate
- ⟨…⟩ wũti?i (SG) : five
- ⟨…⟩ wũti?arũ (PL) : six
- ⟨…⟩ LiíLi (PL) : seven
- ⟨…⟩ Liírãw (PL) : eight
- ⟨…⟩ Liíso (PL) : nine
- ⟨…⟩ wũtiwũti (SG) : ten

| Locations

- ⟨…⟩ kot (SG) : bunny burrow, bunny nest
- ⟨…⟩ sáw?o (SG) : market, place where trade of goods and services occurs, often open-air

| Time

- ⟨…⟩ waiLai (SG) : day ‡ today
- ⟨…⟩ rairis (SG) : yesterday
- ⟨…⟩ wailáro (SG) : tomorrow
- ⟨…⟩ rairissai (SG) : a time period in the near past (further than yesterday)
- ⟨…⟩ wailárwai (SG) : a time period in the near future (further than tomorrow)

| Position

- ⟨…⟩ sia (SG) : snug/comfortable space
  ▸ *say* :: (PAT) be cute ‡ (AGT) become cute ‡ (TRA) cause to be cute
  ▸ *put* :: (PAT) be in a snug space ‡ (AGT) get into a snug space ‡ (TRA) put into a snug space
- ⟨…⟩ tílũ (SG) : lower position/location, ground position ‡ direction down, downward
  ▸ *put* :: (PAT) be in a lower position ‡ (AGT) get into a lower position ‡ (TRA) put into a lower position

| Terrain

- ⟨…⟩ rãw (SG) : mountain, rock formation

| Nature

- ⟨…⟩ rosũ (PL) : dirt, soil, ground

| Technology

- ⟨…⟩ látsã (SG) : digging stick ‡ digging implement in general
- ⟨…⟩ tor (SG) : small knife, used for cutting food
- ⟨…⟩ rãksi (SG) : paper ‡ book
  ▸ *sense* :: (AGT) read (a book) ‡ (TRA) read

B | Semantic divisions

`TODO` *more lexicon so this appendix can be used*

C | Example sentences

(3.1) "I made him prepare (some) food." (5MOYD #1339)

koi taro tópiw ʔóli wo rakí lao

⟨[illegible]⟩

koi	taro	tópi	-w	ʔóli	wo	rakí	lao
DST	put	flatbread	-IND	INS	1.IRR	sense.NFN	MED

<u>that (person) prepared food because of me</u>

<u>I made that (person) prepare food</u>

This sentence displays pronominal determiner usage, as well as the fairly common phenomenon of stacking auxiliaries.

(3.2) "João knows the girl to whom Manel gave what?" (5MOYD #1342)

satãw siw soãwo rakí sosẫw kũská kisrosó wãs ʔóli siw wãrãla lao tsir

⟨[illegible]⟩

satã	-w	siw	soãwo	rakí	sosẫ	-w	kũs	-ká	kis	-rosó	wãs	ʔóli	siw	wãrãla
child	-IND	LOC	*João*	sense	knowledge	-IND	move	-3›3	move.NFN	-NEG	NDF	INS	LOC	*Manel*

lao	tsir
MED	LAT

<u>to the girl that Soāvo knows, what was given by Mānāla?</u>

This sentence demonstrates how names function in the language, and how they are loaned. It is also rather syntactically difficult, especially in English, and some shifting around of clauses had to be done.

(3.3) "This (story) is impossible." (5MOYD #1344.1)

lao taroká tãrũrosó kóki

⟨[illegible]⟩

lao	taro	-ká	tãrũ	-rosó	kóki
MED	put	-3›3	put.NFN	-NEG	situation

<u>that's not so</u>

LIT. <u>that is not the situation, state of affairs, truth</u>

(3.4) "There are yaks in Tibet now." (5MOYD #1344.2)

kokísow tarosí toʔa tíri siw tiwitwã

⟨[illegible]⟩

kokí	-sow	taro	-sí	toʔa	tíri	siw	tiwit	-wã
yak	-AUG	put	-3IMP	PRX	ESS	LOC	*Tibet*	-IND

<u>yaks are in Divid (Tibet)</u>

(3.5) “I saw three just last week.” (5MOYD #1344.3)

rũ rãkiʔós koi sorwã kosó rairissaiwã

⟨[illegible]⟩

rũ rãki -ʔós koi sor -wã kosó rairissai -wã

1SG.REA sense -1›3SG DST three -IND ABL near past -IND

I saw three (of them) last week

Due to its length, this example had to be split up. It is relatively simple in construction, however.

(3.6) “Other people began to envy him.” (5MOYD #1345)

wãs tsáwo tsíi kiorokow lũʔi tsũṹwiti toʔa

⟨[illegible]⟩

wãs tsáwo tsíi kioroko -w lũʔi tsũṹ -witi toʔa

NDF people eat stomach -IND person eat.NFN -CON PRX

some people (began to) envy the person

This sentence demonstrates the emotional idiom tsíi-x kiorokow r tsũṹwiti envy, desire that which one cannot have, literally ‘have in one’s stomach in vain’.

(3.7) “I will go whether he agrees or not.” (5MOYD #1350)

wo kũsto koi lũʔi pṹãwiti roowã pṹãwiti tũswã

⟨[illegible]⟩

wo kũs -to koi lũʔi pṹã -witi roo -wã pṹã -witi tũs -wã

1.IRR move -1SG.AGT DST person say -CON affirmation -IND say -CON negation -IND

I will go if the person agrees or disagrees

This sentence demonstrates both the conditional and exclusive alternative uses of the conditional relational.

(3.8) “Why did you push your brother?”

kṹ tarosat tílũw wãs tsir tapaw lao lok

⟨[illegible]⟩

kṹ taro -sat tílũ -w wãs tsir tapa -w lao lok

2.IRR put -2›3SG lower -IND NDF LAT older sibling -IND MED PUR

why did you push your brother?