

MOKMOK

and its daughters, T'elom and Pt'ew

CDN SPEEDLANG 9

ironicallytrue and floof

Contents

Contents	ii
Abbreviations	iv
Introduction	v
I Phonology	1
1 Mokmok	2
1.1 Inventory and allophony	2
1.2 Morphophonology	2
2 Diachrony	3
Nasals	3
Labials	3
Dentals	3
Velars	4
Uvulars	4
Vowels	5
Other phenomena	5
3 The daughter languages	6
3.1 Inventories, orthography and allophony	6
4 Morphophonology	8
4.1 Common rules	8
Minimal word constraint	8
Glottal displacement	8
4.2 Țelom	9
Obstruents	9
Sonorant	9
Vowel dropping	9
Featural metathesis	9

II	Grammar	10
5	Nouns	11
5.1	Existential	12
5.2	Direct	12
5.3	Direct	12
6	Verbs	13
6.1	Voices	13
	Actor voices	13
	Patient voices	13
	Locative voice	13
6.2	Aspect	14
	Imperfective	14
	Perfective	14
	Background	14
6.3	Noun incorporation	14
7	Syntax and periphrastic constructions	15
7.1	Clause-internal syntax	15
7.2	Clauses	15
	Main clauses	15
	Relative clauses	15
	Causative clauses	15
	Conditional clauses	15
	Existential clauses	15
III	Examples and lexicon	16
8	Sentences	17
8.1	1105th 5MOYD	17
8.2	1560th 5MOYD	17
8.3	Syntax test 7	18
8.4	Syntax test 18	18
8.5	1454th 5MOYD	18

Abbreviations

Abbreviations are as follows:

1	first person	INAN	inanimate
AV	actor voice	PV	patient voice
BEN	benevolent/beneficiary	SG	singular

Introduction

Part I
Phonology

Chapter 1

Mokmok

§ 1. Inventory and allophony

The phonological inventory of Mokmok consisted of twenty-two consonants and five vowels:

		Labial	Dental		Velar	Uvular
			Plain	Sibilant		
Nasal		<i>*m</i>	<i>*n</i>		<i>*ng</i> [ŋ]	<i>*nq</i> [ⁿ g~ ⁿ q]
Stop	Plain	<i>*p</i>	<i>*t</i>	<i>*c</i> [t̪s]	<i>*k</i>	<i>*q</i>
	Glott.	<i>*p'</i> [p'~ɸ]	<i>*t'</i> [t']	<i>*ç</i> [t̪s']	<i>*k'</i> [k']	<i>*q'</i> [q']
Fric.			<i>*z</i> [θ]	<i>*s</i>	<i>*x</i>	<i>*h</i> [χ]
Sont.		<i>*b</i> [b~w]	<i>*d</i> [d~l]	<i>*j</i> [d̪z~z]	<i>*g</i> [g~uŋ]	
				Front	Back	
			High	<i>*i</i>	<i>*u</i>	
			Mid	<i>*e</i> [ɛ]	<i>*o</i>	
			Low		<i>*a</i>	

Table 1.1: Phonemes of Mokmok

Clusters within a syllable were not allowed. The sonorants were pronounced as stops word-initially, after a consonant, and in enunciated speech, and as continuants otherwise. A sequence of two sonorants was always pronounced as a continuant followed by a stop, e.g. **dd* [ld].

If the word ended in a short vowel followed by a long one, stress fell on the last one; otherwise, it fell on the penult.

§ 2. Morphophonology

Epenthetic **a* breaks up illegal clusters, and **g* hiatus.

A sequence of two glottalised stops with no non-glottalised consonant in between is forbidden. This is resolved by metathesis of the glottalisation to the next non-nasal consonant (turning it into a glottalised stop at the same place). If there is no viable consonant, the glottalisation is simply lost.

Chapter 2

Diachrony

Nasals — In Ṭelom, nasals were lost before stops, geminating the latter. The uvular *nq became [ʔ], but nasalised adjacent vowels in standard Ṭelom; the resultant phoneme will be called /*ñ*/ *n'*.

In Pṭew, *ng merged into *m in all environments, appearing as [m]. The uvular *nq becomes [w] in all positions except word-initially and directly after another consonant, where it merges with *q. Southern dialects also lose nasals before fricatives, nasalising the previous vowel. They also lenite intervocalic *m to [ṽ]; this contrasts with [m] from *ng.

All other cases of nasals were unchanged.

Labials — The glottalised labial stop *p' becomes [b̥] *b* in Ṭelom, [k'] *k* in southern Pṭew, and [p] *p* in all other cases. The plain stop *p becomes [f] in the coda in Ṭelom (and also medially in North Ṭelom), and intervocalically in Pṭew. This [f] is wholly lost in standard Pṭew (but does remain in many dialects). All other *p is simply [p] in Pṭew, as is the stop allophone of *b (word-initially and after consonants). Intervocalic *b* from *bb is [v] *v* in eastern Ṭelom and southern Pṭew.

The continuant allophone of *b (in medial and coda positions), is reflected universally as [w] *w*.

Dentals — The dental consonants reflex similarly to the labials. It should be noted that the coast-side lects (Pṭew) tend to favour true dental articulation, whereas the more inland ones (Ṭelom) may have denti-alveolars, or even alveolars for the sibilant consonants.

The glottalised stops are reflected as ejectives. The affricate is merged into the stop [t'] *t* in standard Ṭelom, and [d] *d* in eastern dialects.

In Ṭelom, the plain dental stop *t is lenited to [d] *d* intervocalically and [θ] *z* (the latter merging with *z) in the coda. In other cases, it is usually reflected as [t] in Pṭew and [t^h] in Ṭelom (both *t*). Some Ṭelom dialects lenite even this to [θ]. The stop is weakened to [s] word-initially before /i/ in eastern Ṭelom and southern Pṭew; this happens before the loss of short vowels.

The stop allophone of *d is consistently reflected as [d] in Ṭelom and [t] in Pṭew, whereas the continuant allophone is reflected as [l] *l*.

The two dental fricatives, *z and *s, are merged into /s/ *s* in Pṭew, although synchronically this phoneme is realized as [θ] before any form of [a] (short or long, plain or glottalised). They remain distinct as [θ s] in Ṭelom. [θ] becomes [h] in eastern Ṭelom.

The affricates are lenited to [s z] *s z* in Ṭelom, except *j after a continuant, which becomes [d] instead. In Pṭew, the plain dental affricate remains unchanged, whereas the voiced affricate *j merges with *c into [ts̄] *c*, and its continuant allophone merges into [l]. Between vowels, *j becomes [s] instead of [ts̄] in southern Pṭew.

Southern Pṭew dialects palatalise /s/ to [ʃ] before /i:/.

Velars — The glottalised velar stop *ḳ is debuccalised to [ʔ] ' in standard Ṭelom, and consistently reflected as [kʔ] *ḳ* in other lects.

The plain *k is fortified in Ṭelom to [kʰ] *k* word-initially and after consonants, and lenited to [x] *kh* in the coda. It is lenited intervocalically in Pṭew to merge with *x and then that shifts to /χ/ *h*. It is realised as [k] *g*¹, *k*² otherwise. Like with [tʰ], some Ṭelom dialects lenite [kʰ] to [x].

The stop allophone of *g is reflected as [k]. Its continuant allophone was originally [uɰ] *gh*; this realisation is seen in some dialects, but it is almost universally coloured to [w] next to *u. In standard Pṭew, it is reflected as [w] everywhere. The voiceless velar fricative *x merged into the voiceless uvular fricative, *h, and is found as such in modern Pṭew, [χ].

Some Ṭelom lects palatalise non-fortis velars to various levels — in general, [k x uɰ ŋ] become [ṭ ç j ɲ] *g x y ng*. Often (such as in standard Ṭelom) [x] is shifted even further to [ʃ] *x* next to /i j/; [ŋ] on the other hand is usually *only* fronted in the same positions and not others. It also does not affect earlier [uɰ] if it has been coloured to [w].

The fricative *x is rounded and slightly fronted in many lects. Some Ṭelom lects also have a weak rhotic articulation.

Uvulars — The uvular consonants have rather different reflexes, due to various different processes that affect the stops.

In Ṭelom, all uvular consonants are debuccalised — the nasal *nq to [ʔ] plus nasalisation as mentioned earlier, all the stops to [ʔ] ', and the fricative to [h] except in codas where it merged with *x. Some lects also retain a distinct affricate [ḳχ] *q* from *qq, similar to Pṭew.

In Pṭew, the plain uvular stop *q is reflected as [q] word-initially or after another consonant and as [χ] intervocalically. In codas, it colours any vowel that comes before it: *i, *o, and *u are all merged into *o, and *e and *a are merged into *a (for both shot and long vowels). The stop itself is then lost, with a secondary glottalization of the vowel left as a trace (resulting in the set of glottalised vowels /aʔ a:ʔ oʔ o:ʔ/ *a' aa' o' oo'*). Southern lects merge these further to only *a' aa'*, pronounced as [aʔ a:ʔ].

The void left by the loss of syllable-final *q is filled by the deglottalisation of *q' to simple [q] *q* in that position.

¹Ṭelom

²Pṭew

The voiceless uvular fricative *h is simply reflected as [χ] *h* in all positions. Following the general pattern of irregular development of the uvulars, the geminated voiceless uvular stop *qq is reflected not as a singleton plain stop, but as the voiceless uvular affricate [q̠χ] *x* in all positions.

Vowels — The development of the vowel system from Mokmok is relatively simple compared to the development of the consonantal system.

The biggest change was the loss of all unstressed short high vowels in Early Pṭew and Ṭelom (after intervocalic lenition), with compensatory shortening of all unstressed long high vowels to fill the void in Pṭew. The only time a short high vowel would not be deleted is when it would otherwise create an illegal consonant cluster that could not be easily resolved; this retention is more common in Pṭew lects which have stricter cluster restrictions than Ṭelom.

The only other major changes to vowels are the colouring and glottalization done by syllable-final *q in Pṭew, as discussed earlier; and the merger of *u *uu into *o *ii (*i *ii in the east) and prosthesis of [h] before initial vowels in Ṭelom.

Other phenomena — All geminates were shortened in Pṭew. The so-called 'geminate sonorants' are assimilated to stops [p t ts k] in Pṭew, but remain clusters [wb ld zd ɯk~jt̪] in Ṭelom.

Ṭelom lects have varying levels of tonality. They all have allophonic pitch next to glottals — the glottal induces a low pitch right next to it, so vowels before them have falling pitch, and ones after rising, e.g. *wee'* /wɛ:ʔ/ [wɛ̀ɛʔ] and *Ṭelom* /t'elom/ [t'ɛ̀lom]. Most lects also have high pitch on the vowel mora that originally contained a non-intervocalic plain stop; this is phonemicised by the lenition of these stops to fricatives.

There is also a tendency for these two sources of tone to spread through the word — vowel morae after a rising tone and before a falling tone have high tone, and unmarked ones before a rising tone, after a falling tone, and next to a high tone, have low tone. This happened before the loss of weak high vowels, making it synchronically unpredictable, as in *texgómis* /tʰɛ́x-t̪ómis/, from *tekigomis → [tʰɛ́k̪iɯómis].

Pṭew lects mostly have stress instead — Mokmok had stress on the penult unless the last syllable had a longer vowel (in which case that was stressed); this too was phonemicised via the loss of weak high vowels, giving *saṭél* /θa't'el/ from *zaṭedi [θa't'ɛli].

Chapter 3

The daughter languages

§ 3. Inventories, orthography and allophony

		Labial	Dental		Velar	Glottal
			Plain	Sibilant		
Nasal		<i>m</i>	<i>n</i>		<i>ŋg</i> [ŋ~ŋ]	<i>ŋ</i> [ʔ]
Stop	Fort.	<i>(p, bb)</i> [f]	<i>t, dd</i> [t ^h]	<i>(c, jj)</i> [s]	<i>k, gg</i> [k ^h]	
	Len.	<i>p, b</i> [p]	<i>t, d</i> [d]	<i>c, j</i> [t̃z~z]	<i>k, g</i> [t̃]	
	Glott.	<i>ɸ</i> [ɸ]	<i>ɸ</i> [tʰ]			<i>ḳ, ʔ</i> [ʔ]
Fric.			<i>t, z</i> [θ]	<i>c, s</i> [s]	<i>k, x</i> [x ^w ~ʃ]	<i>h</i>
Sont.		<i>w</i>	<i>l</i>	<i>j</i> [t̃z~z]	<i>y</i> [j]	
			Front	Back		
			High	<i>i</i>		
			Mid	<i>e</i> [ɛ]	<i>o</i>	
			Low		<i>a</i>	

Table 3.1: Phonemes of standard Țelom

Certain instances of /f s/ pattern as fortis. /x ŋ/ are [ʃ ɲ] next to /i j/. The lenis sibilant stop is [t̃z] in the onset and [z] otherwise. /ʔ/ is realised as glottalisation when in the coda; /ʔ̃/ is realised the same as /ʔ/, but adjacent vowels are nasalised. /ɸ/ may be realised as [b], and especially so non-initially, but still affects tone.

The orthography of Țelom is not completely phonemic. The phonemes /f s/ are written as *p c* when they come from older *p *c. The symbols *p t c k* can also indicate their lenis counterparts at the end of a root before a vowel, and fricatives before a consonant. In these cases, fortis stops are written as doubled letters. Thus, *ngaak ngaakk ngaakaz* /ŋǎ:x ŋǎ:k^h ŋà:t̃ʃáθ/. Fortis stops are also written as *bb dd jj gg* in the existential case of a noun whose root ends in a sonorant.

A mora's tone is mostly inferable from adjacent consonants (with these rules applying in the same order) — falling before glottals except /h/ and rising after; high before rising tone, after falling tone, and next to fortis stops; and low otherwise, and next to high tone. Long vowels are limited to the

same tones as short ones, viz. high, low, rising, and falling (in other words, morae in a long vowel cannot have rising or falling tone).

When the tone is unclear, it is marked with an acute accent for high tone and a grave for low; thus, *mokmòkto* /móxmòxt'ǒ/ (cf. *mokmok* /móxmóx/).

		Labial	Dental		Velar	Uvular
			Plain	Sibilant		
Nasal		<i>m</i>	<i>n</i>			
Stop	Ten.	<i>p</i> [p]	<i>t</i> [t̪]	<i>c</i> [t̪s̪]	<i>k</i> [k]	<i>q x</i> [q q̪χ]
	Glott.		<i>t̚</i> [t̪ʰ]	<i>ç</i> [t̪s̪ʰ]	<i>k̚</i> [kʰ]	<i>q'</i> [qʰ]
Fric.			<i>s</i> [s̪~θ]			<i>h</i> [χ]
Sont.		<i>w</i> [w]	<i>l</i> [l̪]			
			Front	Back	Glottal	
High		<i>i</i>		<i>u</i>		
Mid		<i>e</i> [ɛ]		<i>o</i>	<i>o'</i> [oʰ]	
Low				<i>a</i>	<i>a'</i> [aʰ]	

Table 3.2: Phonemes of standard Pṭew

The denti-alveolar affricates and fricative /t̪s̪, t̪s̪ʰ, s̪/ have fully interdental allophones [t̪θ, t̪θʰ, θ] before the vowels /a, a:, aʰ, aʰ:/ . Some vowels are coloured next to uvulars — short and long /ɛ a/ to [æ a], and short /i/ to [e].

Chapter 4

Morphophonology

Below, the term *obstruent* refers to fortis and glottalised stops, and fricatives. For morae, short vowels and coda consonants count as one each, and long vowels as two.

§ 4. Common rules

Minimal word constraint — Barring a few exceptions, all words must be at least either three morae or two syllables in western Ṭelom dialects, and two morae in Pṭew; in eastern and central Ṭelom dialects, monosyllabic words must have a long vowel. Words that are too small must be resolved in some way.

Pṭew and eastern and central dialects of Ṭelom simply lengthen the vowel when required.

In western Ṭelom dialects, words are resolved by adding an echo vowel to words ending in consonants, and a glottal stop to ones ending in a vowel.

Some non-content words, like pronouns and the complementiser, are instead cliticised onto an adjacent word.

Glottal displacement — Glottalised consonants in adjacent syllables are seen to be unstable all the way back in Mokmok.

In standard Ṭelom, if a root begins in a glottalised stop, the glottalisation is displaced after a suffix whose last consonant is glottalised. If the next consonant is an obstruent, it becomes a glottalised stop; and if it is a nasal, it becomes /ṽ/. Otherwise, the glottalisation is just lost.

In standard Pṭew, there is a general ban on having two ejective consonants in a row when there is another plain stop later on in the word — in this case, the second one becomes a plain stop, and the later stop becomes an ejective. If there is no later stop, the second ejective is simply deglottalised. In both these cases, the deglottalised consonant is regularly lenited.

These two cases, however, are essentially on the two ends of the Mokmok dialect continuum; and on top of that, they are standardised registers of the regional language. The dialects around and in between these vary widely in their specific treatments; often, there is simple deglottalisation, and in some lects specific consonants like /p/ block the process due to having no

glottalised version. Hypercorrection in non-standard dialects muddies the situation further.

Some examples are seen in table 4.1 (all consonants are written phonetically). There are four different sub-processes at work here: deglottalisation, of the ejectives, and glottalisation of the nasal and the final stop.

Of these, deglottalisation of the first ejective occurs in all but the standard registers, implying that it may be an innovation. That of the second, on the other hand, fails to occur in the central lects, i.e. eastern Țelom and southern PȚew. These are also the furthest

from the prestige lects, indicating that the distribution may have originally been by register rather than dialect; alternatively, it may be analogy from the other forms of the noun (which still have a glottalised stop), in which case it would be a central innovation.

Glottalisation of the nasal is evidently characteristic of Țelom in general. Glottalisation of the final stop is limited to the northern dialects of PȚew.

§ 5. Țelom

Obstruents — The realisation of root-final obstruents is conditioned by grammatical form. They can surface as fortis stops, lenis stops, or fricatives, and also glottalised stops in eastern dialects.

They surface as fortis stops in the existential case of southern dialects, and glottalised stops in the same case in eastern ones; as lenis stops before vowels; and as fricatives before consonants. They are written as *pp tt cc kk* or *p'ṭ ç ḳ* in the existential case, and *p t c k* otherwise.

Thus, for the root *ḱida-*, there are the following forms: EXS *ḱida'* /k'ǐdâ?/, DIR *ḱida* /k'ǐdá/, OBL *ḱidah* /k'ǐdáh/, GEN *ṭikiṭa* /t'íkít'ǎ/.

If the root ends in a geminate, it does not partake in these alterations.

Sonorant — Like obstruents, root-final sonorants become fortis or glottalised stops in the existential case.

Vowel dropping — *i* and *o* when from **u* are dropped when it would not create clusters within a syllable: the root *ḱixi-* gives *ḱixiz* with the suffix *-z*, but *ḱix* on its own. It is not dropped if this would make the word not meet the minimal size.

Featural metathesis — If there would be a sequence of a stop followed by a fricative or sonorant, the [+continuant] feature of the latter moves to the former — thus, *emat-* + *-la* gives *emasda* and not **ematla*.

	Direct	Genitive
St. T.	<i>ṭaniikh</i>	<i>ṭidaṇiikh</i>
Ce. T.	<i>ṭaaniik</i>	<i>tidaṇiik</i>
Ea. T.	<i>ṭaanik</i>	<i>ṣṭaanik</i>
So. P.	<i>ṭaanink</i>	<i>ṣṭaanink</i>
St. P.	<i>ṭaanink</i>	<i>ṭisaniinḳ</i>

Table 4.1: Glottal displacement

Part II
Grammar

Chapter 5

Nouns

The Mokmok languages have a relatively simple noun system, with four cases being morphologically marked: the direct, the oblique, the genitive, and the existential.

The direct marks the pivot of the clause — the ‘most important’ argument, so to say. The oblique marks the other core arguments, if there are any. The semantic roles of these is determined by the voice suffix on the verb.

The genitive marks possession as well as general relation between nouns, and the existential shows the existence of the noun (similar to how the verb ‘there be’ does in English).

Number is not marked inherently on nouns in the Mokmok languages, being indicated through context or optional plural particles or numerals.

The direct is unmarked, whereas the oblique and existential are marked through suffixes. The existential suffix lost its epenthetic *a* in Early Ṭelom, with some dialects geminating the last consonant and others glottalising it.

The genitive is unique among the endings in being marked through prefixation — this is clearly exhibited in both of the Mokmok languages, and thus must be reconstructed for the mother language.

It is not apparent exactly why this is or how this irregularity came about; the most likely explanation is an old preposition that got stuck onto the noun; the grammatical system of Mokmok must have already changed between this and the earliest records, as there are few traces of prepositions (with a transparent system of relational nouns used instead).

The reflexes in the daughter languages are somewhat more variable in form due to morphophonological alternations and diachronic conditioning. Below are some comparison tables for the cases:

Case	Ending
Exs.	*-(<i>a</i>)q
Dir.	*-∅
Obl.	*-(<i>a</i>)z
Gen.	*ṭi(<i>g</i>)-

Table 5.1: Case affixes in Mokmok

§ 6. Existential

Lang.	*beg-		*toku-		*ubee-		*piixi-	
Mok.	beqaq	'beuqaq	tokuq	'tokuq	ubeeq	ũ'we:q	piixiq	'p'i:xiq
Ear. Tl.	bekqu	bəkʔũ	tokoq	t ^h okoʔ	ubeeq	ʔwe:ʔ	biixiq	bi:xiʔ
Std. Tl.	begg	pék ^h	togo'	t ^h ótʃô ^ʔ	wee'	wê: ^ʔ	biixi'	bi:ʃi ^ʔ
Nor. Tl.	beḡ	pêk'	togo'	θókô ^ʔ	wee'	wê: ^ʔ	biixi'	bi:ʃi ^ʔ
Ear. Pt.	pewaq	'pewaq	toxog	'toxog	uwaaq	ũ'wa:q	piixog	'p'ixog
Std. Pt.	pewa'	'pewa ^ʔ	toho'	'toxo ^ʔ	waa'	wa: ^ʔ	piho'	'pixo ^ʔ

Table 5.2: Existential case affixes

The loss of *a* in Țelom is irregular, and [ũ] is added to the end to resolve the cluster.

§ 7. Direct

Lang.	*beg-		*toku-		*ubee-		*piixi-	
Mok.	beg	'beu	tok	'tok	ubee	u'we:	piixi	'p'i:xi
Ear. Tl.	begu	beuũ	toku	t ^h okũ	ubeeq	ũwe:ʔ	biixi	bi:xi
Std. Tl.	bege	pèjè	togo	t ^h ótʃò	wee'	wê: ^ʔ	biix	bi:ʃ
Nor. Tl.	beeg	pè:u	toog	θók:k	wee'	wê: ^ʔ	biix	bi:ʃ
Ear. Pt.	pew	'pew	toxu	'toxũ	uwee	ũ'we:	piixi	'pi'xi
Std. Pt.	pew	'pew	toh	'toḡ	wee	we:	pih	'piḡ

Table 5.3: Direct case affixes

§ 8. Direct

Lang.	*beg-		*toku-		*ubee-		*piixi-	
Mok.	begaz	'beuqaθ	tokuz	'tokaθ	ubeez	u'we:θ	piixiz	'p'i:xiθ
Ear. Tl.	begaz	beuqaθ	tokoz	t ^h okoθ	ubeez	ũwe:θ	biixiz	bi:xiθ
Std. Tl.	begaz	pèjàθ	togoz	t ^h ótʃòθ	weez	wè:θ	biixiz	bi:ʃiθ
Nor. Tl.	begah	pèuqàh	togoh	θókòh	weeh	wè:h	biixih	bi:ʃih
Ear. Pt.	pewas	'pewas	toxus	'toxũs	uwees	ũ'we:s	piixis	'pi'xis
Std. Pt.	pewas	'pewas	tohus	'toḡus	wees	we:s	pihis	'piḡis

Table 5.4: Oblique case affixes

Chapter 6

Verbs

Verbs are marked for voice and aspect.

§ 9. Voices

The voice of a verb indicates the semantic role of the noun marked with the direct case.

There are three categories of voices — actor voices (AV), patient voices (PV), and the locative voice (LV). The first of these is further divided into benevolent, malevolent, non-voluntary, and inanimate; and the second into beneficiary and inanimate.

Some verbs, especially the copulas, either take no voice or the locative. Imperatives can drop actor voices, but not patient or locative ones.

Actor voices — The benevolent voice (Mokmok *-ço, St. Țelom -țo, Ea. Țelom -do, Pțew -ço) is used for animate actors doing an action with neutral to benevolent intentions, and the malevolent (*-(g)ah, -(y)ax, -(gh)ax, -(w)ah) for the opposite: *moxmòkțo* ‘speaks sweetly; compliments; tells’ vs. *moxmòkax* ‘scolds; berates’.

The non-voluntary voice (*-(a)tti, -(a)t, -(a)tti, -(a)t) is used for animate actors who have no choice in doing the action. It is also used for the person made to do an action with causatives. Thus, *owo kawiiñahil ijgagițo* ‘you spread out the sugar’ (lit. ‘you made the sugar get spread out’).

The inanimate voice (*-nqa, -ña, -’a, -qa/-wa) is used for inanimate actors, and also contemptuously for animate actors: *pampiwa* ‘it rains’.

Patient voices — The beneficiary voice (*-(g)e, -(y)e, -(gh)e, -(w)e) is used when the patient benefits from the action — most often with the benevolent actor voice, and with certain intransitive verbs. Thus, *zogeț melixgaye* ‘I hugged the man’ and *pa’cwikawe* ‘I laugh’.

The inanimate voice (*-sii, -sii, -sii, -si) is used when the patient is inanimate, or if it is animate but is adversely affected by the action.

If the effect on an animate patient is neutral, either voice can be used. Pțew speakers tend to prefer the inanimate voice in this situation.

Locative voice — The locative voice (*-(g)is, -(y)is, -(i)s, -(w)s) is used for locations and also has a comitative sense: *beye ðiixiz ziis* ‘there is humid weather by the sea’.

§ 10. Aspect

There are three aspects — imperfective (IPF), perfective (PF), and background (BG).

Imperfective — The imperfective aspect is the default aspect of a verb. It is used for ongoing events, events that occur frequently or iteratively, and events that the subject desires the occurrence of: *be'ematto* 'I am eating', *mofi'a* 'the weather keeps happening/changing'.

It is also used as a conditional, with **il* (a word roughly meaning 'such, so, thus, if, then'): *mehukkuṭohil be'az ijmogik* 'if it/they come(s), tell me'.

Perfective — The perfective was marked with the infix **-ki-* after the first vowel of the verb stem. In the daughter languages, its marking is somewhat complex, due to sound changes. It is usually marked as *-x-* in Ṭelom, but *-gi-* where that would create illegal clusters. In Pṭew, it usually surfaces as *k*.

It is used for foreground events, such as ones used in narration of a story, or some incidence that happened in the past: *kawiin gekaz xogagiis* 'T hunted *gek* (a type of small animal) in the field'.

It is also used for the event that happens with the fulfilment of a conditional — this can be seen in the example of a conditional above.

Background — This aspect is marked by the clitic **oz* after the verb (Ṭelom *oz*, Pṭew *os*).

It is used for gnomic statements and background events in narration: *pe'teghomdohoz 'okiis* 'I was eating carp when T came'.

It is also used for ongoing events and actions, but it emphasises the occurrence or patient rather than the actor.

§ 11. Noun incorporation

Nouns can be incorporated into a verb by removing the last segment and prefixing them to the verb root. This is done often with the verbs 'do' and 'be'.

Chapter 7

Syntax and periphrastic constructions

§ 12. Clause-internal syntax

In general, verbs are placed at the end of a clause. The pivot — the noun marked with the direct case — is placed at the start, and other constituents fall between these. Genitive nouns and adjectives come after the noun, and relational nouns come before it.

Some adverbs, like those of time, can be placed anywhere

§ 13. Clauses

There are five types of clauses — main, relative, causative, conditional, and existential. Of these, the latter four are subordinate clauses and as such must be followed by the complementiser *il*. The main clause comes after any subordinate ones.

Main clauses — These are, as the name suggests, the main part of a sentence. They are the only type of clause that can stand on their own.

Relative clauses — These are used to relativise a clause, with the direct case noun being the pivot of both the relative clause and the main one.

Causative clauses — These are used in causative constructions. The verb always has the non-voluntary actor voice.

Conditional clauses — These are used to form sentences of the form ‘if X, then Y’. The condition verb is in the imperfective aspect, and the consequence verb in the perfective. For counterfactual statements, both clauses are in the perfective.

Existential clauses — These clauses consist solely of a noun in the existential, and the complementiser is optional. They focalise the noun, but differ from simple focalisation by making it the pivot — while the latter is either neutral or contrasts with another noun in its place, an existential clause contrasts the existence of such a noun with its non-existence.

Thus, while *iïpte molto* ‘the woman is helping’ might contrast with *zoget molto* ‘the man is helping’, *iïpte’il molto* ‘there is a woman who is helping’ would contrast with *iïpte apohil molto* ‘there isn’t a woman who is helping’.

Part III

Examples and lexicon

Chapter 8

Sentences

§ 14. 1105th 5MOYD

‘The blanket covered the body in a few seconds.’, in standard and eastern T’elom, and southern Pt’ew.

(8.1) *Ḃiisa’, zoor mippa’az kaxbiinna.*

Ḃiis -’ zoor mippa’ -z kaxḂiin -Ḃa
blink -EXS blanket body -OBL COVER<PFV> -AV.INAN

(8.2) *Ḃiisa’, hoor míffa’ah dookh’ifo’a.*

Ḃiis -’ hoor míffa’ -h dookh’ifo -’a
blink -EXS blanket body -OBL COVER<PFV> -AV.INAN

(8.3) *Ḃiisa’, hkule mpahas Ḃoohwiowa.*

Ḃiis -’ hkule mpah -s c’oohḂwio -wa
blink -EXS blanket body -OBL COVER<PFV> -AV.INAN

§ 15. 1560th 5MOYD

‘Now I have to wash THE DISHES, later I will make bread.’, in Mokmok, standard and eastern T’elom, and standard Pt’ew. The latter three form a continuum, as can be seen from both vocabulary and phonetics.

(8.4) *(Mk.) *Ugan ukki sakgasii, sekki nqeeḂoz gaḂo.*

ugan ukki sak- ga -sii, sekki nqeeḂo -z ga -Ḃo.
utensil here clean- do -PV.INAN there bread -OBL do -AV.BEN

(8.5) *(St. T.) Wana okk saxgasii, sekk Ḃeekoh gaḂo.*

wan okk sak- ga -sii sekk Ḃeeko -z ga -Ḃo
utensil here clean- do -PV.INAN there bread -OBL do -AV.BEN

(8.6) *(Ea. T.) Waan okh pazasii, sekh ’eekoz kado.*

wan okh paza -sii sekh ’eeko -z ka -do
utensil here wash -PV.INAN there bread -OBL do -AV.BEN

(8.7) *(St. P.) Uwan uk pasî, sek qeeḳos kaço.*

uwān uk pas -sî, sek qeeḳo -s ka -ço
utensil here wash -PV.INAN there bread -OBL do -AV.BEN

§ 16. Syntax test 7

‘The sun will shine tomorrow.’, in standard and eastern T’elom.

(8.8) *’Ida mopitoz sekk.*

’ida mopi -t = oZ sekk
sun shine -AV.NVOL = BG there

(8.9) *Ḳida mofizoh sekh.*

ḳida mofi -z = oh sekh
sun shine -AV.NVOL = BG there

§ 17. Syntax test 18

‘It’s raining.’, in standard T’elom.

(8.10) *Ḳiixmopḡa.*

ḳiix - mopi -ḡa
moist_weather - weather -AV.INAN

§ 18. 1454th 5MOYD

‘(As for) being stupid, Windi is no longer stupid.’, in standard T’elom.

(8.11) *Windi riddo abohoz.*

Windi riddo abo -hoz
Windi silly_person not_be -BG