AN OVERVIEW OF THE Q'ŁIN LANGUAGE

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Abstract

In the following article I will describe the Q'łin language as I am able to scientifically analyze it to this day. Q'łin is a speedlang[2] for r/conlang's 11th speedlang challenge, hosted by u/roipoiboy. I will begin by covering how Q'łin treats the content restrictions that the host mandated in Section 1. I will then move on and discuss the language's phonology in Section 2, before presenting the language's basic morphology in Section 3 and showcasing its phrasal and clausal syntax in Section 4. I will conclude this paper by providing some information on other topics such as semantics and epilinguistic phenomena.

1 Introduction

In the following section I will explain how I have fulfilled all necessary requirements for the speedlang challenge posited here.

- Diphthongs that are distinct from sequences: This is shown in Section 2.3.1. The diphthongs //aI// and //aU// undergo vowel harmony, whereas the sequences //aj// and //aw// do not. Furthermore, diphthongs are fully copied when reduplication occurs. Thus, they cannot be analyzed as being of compositional nature.
- Phoneme with a limited distribution: This is shown in Section 2.8. In Q'łin, /m/ only appears in verb roots denoting bodily emanations.

[1]I'd like to thank u/roipoiboy for hosting this speedlang and for listening to me ramble about all the cool features I've implemented here. I'd like to thank Astianthus and Evar for a similar reason, in that they gave some impulses. Lastly I'd like to thank Holly and Mary Satner-Ecke for their ever-lasting support. I love you guys.

[2]A language constructed with certain time and content restrictions.

- Root-templatic morphology: This is shown in Section 3.1.1. Verb roots may take different tone patterns depending on reality status and person of their S/A.
- Discourse markers: This is shown in Section 3.7. Q'łin features a plethora of discourse particles; the ones described here encode the relation between the knowledge of the speaker and the knowledge of the addressee, yielding a system similar to engagement.
- Evidentiality: This is shown in Section 3.6.1. The language possesses a three-way contrast in evidential markers, all of which are realized by attaching a so-called second-position clitic to the first element of the clause.
- Other prompts: While I haven't dealt with the script DLC or the AI prompts, I may include them in later versions. As of the end of the challenge, I have only fulfilled the requirements listed above.

2 Phonology

The Q'łin language features a large consonant inventory containing 51 phonemes, of which one, /m/, has a limited distribution governed by grammatical and lexical factors. A table containing all consonant phonemes is given in 1. Most consonants do not exhibit allophonic variation, with two major exceptions: /m n ŋ r r^w/ which devoice to [m̥ n̥ ŋ̊ r̥ $r̥^w$] word-finally, and labialization, which is only contrastive before unrounded vowels; thus, the distinction between C and C^w is neutralized when those consonants precede a rounded vowel. The vowel monophthong phonemes of Q'łin are given in table 2. There are two major phonological processes affecting monophthongs: reduction and harmony. Both processes deserve a detailed description and are presented in section 2.1 and 2.2 respectively. Some consonantal and vowel minimal pairs include:

(1)
a. *žiq* - *$ž^w$iq* 'young man' - 'to gasp'
b. *tséma* - *ts'éɬa* 'to burp' - 'big tree'
c.
d.

	Labial	Alveolar			Postalveolar		Velar		Uvular			Glottal
Nasal	*m*	*n*					*ŋ*					
		d	*d*^{w}				*g*	*g*^{w}				
Plosive		*t*	*t*^{w}				*k*	*k*^{w}	*q*	*q*^{w}	*q*^{ʕ}	*ʔ*
		t'					*k'*	*k*^{w}'	*q'*	*q*^{w}'		
		dz	*dz*^{w}		*dž*	*dž*^{w}						
Affricate		*ts*	*ts*^{w}	*ƛ*	*tš*	*tš*^{w}						
		ts'		*ƛ'*								
Fricative		*z*		*ɮ*	*ž*	*ž*^{w}	*ɣ*		*ř*	*ř*^{w}		
		s		*ɬ*	*š*	*š*^{w}	*x*	*x*^{w}	*χ*	*χ*^{w}		*h*
Approximant					*j*			*w*				
Trill		*r*	*r*^{w}									

Table 1: Consonant inventory

	Front		Central	Back	
High	*i*	*ü*		*ɨ*	*u*
Mid	*e*	*ö*		*ə*	*o*
Low			*a*		

Table 2: Vowel inventory

2.1 Vowel reduction

In most contexts and in their least marked form, all vowels are 'full'. They are then realized as [i y ɯ u e ø ɤ o a] respectively. In open root syllables with no coda, the rounding feature of these vowels are collapsed[3] and the vowels are reduced: /i ü/ > [ɪ], /ɨ u/ > [ʊ], /e ö/ > [ɛ], /ə o/ > [ɔ]. Children often appear to retain the rounding of the underlying vowels to some degree, yielding e.g. [ʏ] or [ɤ̈] for reduced /ü/ and /ə/ respectively. This asymmetry between root and affix phonology needs to be investigated more thoroughly. Gouskova (2021) provides a coherent introduction into this often neglected topic, but sadly does not refer to Q'łin.

[3]This excludes /a/, which is not specified for roundedness, at least phonologically.

2.2 Vowel harmony

Q'łin vowels can be divided into three groups based on their harmonic properties. The harmony system is based on the feature [±round], with the only neutral vowel being /a/. Therefore, the unrounded vowels /i ɨ e ə/ and the rounded vowels /ü u ö o/ form two distinct classes. The language is almost exclusively suffixing[4], and harmony spreads rightwards, with every suffix having an underlying vowel quality that changes depending on the harmony system's condition. However, rounding is not the only dimension in which harmony applies. Kaun (2009) states that, regarding rounding harmony, 'in most cases, conditions referring to tongue body position (height and/or backness) are imposed on either the triggering element, the target, or both.' This also applies to Q'łin, which can be classified as a Type 6 harmony system, according to Kaun (2009). Kaun identifies three principles with regards to rounding harmony influenced by vowel height: '(i) The trigger must be nonhigh.', '(ii) The target must be high.' and '(iii) The trigger and target must agree in height.' In Q'łin, harmony applies as long as either (ii) or (iii) is met, yielding a configuration where harmony is only blocked when the trigger is high and the target is nonhigh. In summary, nonhigh vowels undergo rounding harmony as long as the trigger is also nonhigh, while high vowels undergo harmony without regard to the height of the trigger. This process is exemplified in (2).

(2) a. TODO: Examples

This interaction of height and rounding is summarized in table 3. Here, a cell is marked by 'o' if rounding harmony occurs. The only instance in which rounding harmony does not occur takes place, when the target (i.e. the suffix vowel) is [-high] and the trigger (i.e. the rightmost vowel to which the suffix attaches) is [+high].

		trigger [-high]	[+high]
target	[-high]	o	x
	[+high]	o	o

Table 3: Height-rounding interaction

[4]With exception of the prefixation of reduplicated roots. This is discussed in section 3.2.1.

Some disharmonic roots exist; in these cases, the rightmost vowel determines the vowel quality of following suffixes. The origin of these disharmonic roots is debatable, with some scholars propagating the 'loanword' theory. Either way disharmonic roots need not be left out of the study of Q'łin vowel harmony.[5] Examples for disharmonic roots are given in (3).

(3)	a.	*ƛ'ű̀ɣehtšəʔ*	//ƛ'ű̀ɣeq-tšoʔ//	cattle-INTENS:PL	'indeed, cows'
	b.	*řəkʷő̀tšoʔ*	//řəkʷő-tšoʔ//	love-INTENS	'it is indeed love'

The vowel /a/ is neutral and does not have a corresponding rounded vowel. It is transparent to the harmonic assimilation and does not change its vowel quality in any context. Examples for the behaviour of /a/ are given in (4)

(4) a. TODO: Examples

The domain on which vowel harmony applies is the phonological word. It consists of the root and several suffixes, and does not include some enclitics that appear throughout the language. Therefore, those enclitics do not harmonize with the host they attach to. Examples for the harmonic domain on which that assimilatory process applies are given in (5).

(5) a. TODO: Examples

An autosegmental analysis of Q'łin vowel harmony will be provided in Satner-Ecke (forthcoming a). Until then, I encourage more phonologists to attempt a theoretical analysis of this system. For an OT analysis of another Type 6 harmony system see Kaun (2009).

2.3 Diphthongs

There are two diphthongs in Q'łin, both of which form a single unit and cannot be analyzed as a vowel sequence. Those dipthongs are //aI// and //aU//; their forms depend on lexical conditions. Thus, //aI// is either /ai/ or /aü/, and //aU// is either /ai̯/ or /au/. The actual surface realizations of these diphthongs vary greatly from dialect to dialect, and even within speaker communities. Acoustic and articulatory analyses of Q'łin diphthongs can be found in Boy (2005) and van Rijk (2003).

[5] As it has been done in Rannie (1978). The reader must proceed with caution while reading Rannie's early work on the language.

In roots, the phonemic realization of those diphthongs is conditioned lexically. A commonly cited minimal pair is *qłain* ‘small’ vs. *qłaün* ‘irresponsible, fat person’. In these cases, the rounding of the non-neutral element determines the rounding of the entire phonological word. Two examples of the harmonic effects of these diphthongs, using the minimal pairs from above, can be seen in (6).

(6) a. TODO: Examples

The language has often been cited (Marley 1930, 1948; Ryan 1956) as allowing diphthongs in suffixes - a rarity among Northwest Mnaroid languages. This theory can however be disproved by taking a closer look at the data these linguists have collected. All cases in which suffixal diphthongs have been observed were elicited from older speakers, whereas younger speakers - as well as speakers nowadays (Satner-Ecke 2011) - do not exhibit this ‘diphthongism’. Furthermore, it has to be noted that these older speakers were all living among the linguistically unrelated S’ic’ənem. Their language went extinct in the early 1960s, and by 1964 there were no Q’łin speakers left in their villages. It can be assumed that through geographical proximity, suffixal diphthongs were innovated by those speakers, but do not represent the entirety of the language. As it is spoken nowadays, diphthongs do not appear in suffixes at all.

2.3.1 Distinction from sequences

Another topic yet to be touched by scholars studying Q’łin is the phonological reasoning for the ‘diphthong analysis’ (Rannie 1991), as opposed to the ‘vowel sequence’ or ‘vowel-glide sequence’ notions. Research on this has been conducted and published for Kəllih in Rannie (1991), as well as for P’ač’a in D’Éline (1998). A thorough investigation of the phenomenon does not find its place in this paper, and is better suited for a later publication. Nevertheless I will still discuss the basics of the ‘diphthong analysis’ here.

As has been discussed in Rannie (1991), one of the prime reasons for analyzing //aI// and //aU// as diphthongs instead of vowel sequences is the behaviour in reduplicated stems. While it does not appear often, reduplication still plays an important role in the language, especially in child speak (Marley 1955). Generally it is most frequently observed with suffixes that require a reduplicated root; in these cases, it does not bear any semantics. However especially some non-iconic[6] usage of reduplication is of particular interest for typologists, and is present in Q’łin,

[6]The author acknowledges that there are some researchers doubting the non-iconicity of this type of reduplication, and rejects their argumentation.

as partial reduplication of noun stems is used to indicate ethnonyms, as well as deriving nouns referring to subadults in the animal world. This type of reduplication targets the C(C)V unit. If the targetted syllable's nucleus is filled by a diphthong, the entire diphthong is copied. This is proof for the non-compositionality of diphthongs, and refutes the 'vowel sequence' approach. An example for this reduplication type is given in (7).

(7)	a.	*kʷaɨkʷ'aɨʔ*	//kʷ'aU~kʷ'aU-ʔ//	R:gun-PL	'American people'
	b.	*dɣaidɣâiř*	//dɣaI~dɣâIř//	R:tiger	'tiger cub'

Moreover, there is a distinction between the diphthongs and vowel-glide sequences like //aj// or //aw//. Firstly, whereas the diphthongs are subject to lexically conditioned realizations depending on the underlying harmony features of the stem (cf. above), and can thus range from [ai] to [ɔʏ], vowel-glide sequences are always realized as their composite segments. Another argument may also be related to reduplication: since the aforementioned type of reduplication only targets the C(C)V unit, the glide/approximant[7] filling the coda slot is not copied.

2.4 Phonotactics

The basic syllable structure of Q'ɬin roots is given in (8).

(8) C(C)VC

Diphthongs, as discussed above, fill the nucleus, and do not claim a possible coda. There are several restrictions regarding the onset cluster: (i) the two consonants need to exhibit concordant voicing, and (ii) cannot be part of the same manner of articulation (MoA)- if they are occlusive; (iii) plosive-fricative clusters reduce to the respective affricate - if it exists; (iv) //Cw// clusters simplify to /Cʷ/, if said phoneme exists[8]. Cross-syllabic clusters that appear on syllable boundaries are simplified the same way as on morpheme boundaries (cf. Section 2.5.1). The phonotactics of suffixes is quantitatively reduced compared to the structure of roots. In extreme cases, suffixes may only consist of a single consonant, although they are most often in a VC shape. CV(C) suffixes are rare, but do exist, such as *-tšoʔ* -INTENS:SG.

[7]The author is using these terms synonymously, and is aware of differences some schools may propagate.

[8]There have been studies on the articulatory details of /CwV/ vs. /CʷV/ clusters in Q'ɬin (Boy 2006)

2.5 Morphophonology

There are a number of non-harmonic morphophonological processes that appear throughout the language. Due to a lack of space I will only describe a subset of them here.

2.5.1 Cluster resolution

Clusters that appear on syllable and morpheme boundaries are most often resolved by debuccalization to either /h/ or /ʔ/. I have yet to recognize a valid pattern for this quite opaque process; it seems that dorsal plosives generally debuccalize to /h/, whereas resonants tend to debuccalize to /ʔ/. Some examples for this are given in (9).

(9) a. *t'ühqˤú* //t'ŭk-qˤu// wagon-AUG 'a big wagon'

2.5.2 Grassmann's law

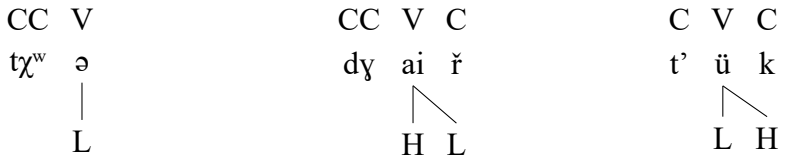
Grassmann's law as previously been described for Indo-European languages (De Decker 2015) and Salishan languages (Thompson & Thompson 1985). In the latter, it applies to the deglottalization of ejective consonants if they are followed by another ejective. Q'łin possesses a similar mechanism that only applies in reduplicative environments. If an ejective consonant is within the scope of the targeted complex, it appears deglottalized when reduplicated. This is exemplified in (10).

(10) a. *tüht'ŭk* //t'ük~t'ŭk// R:wagon 'nomadic people (unspecified)'

2.6 Tone

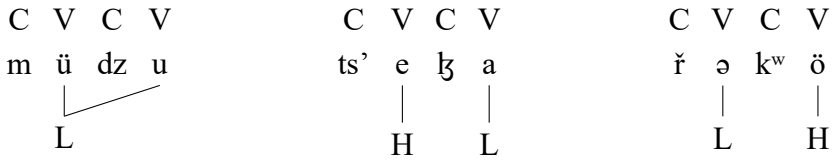
Q'łin features a complex system of tone melodies, which I will try to describe here in spite of the length restriction. For a more detailed description of tone in this language, see Aidan (2009). The tone-bearing unit (TBU) is generally considered to be the foot. The foot, an important phonological unit in Q'łin, consists of maximally two syllables. There are two underlying tonemes, H and unmarked L (the former marked by the acute <á>); every disyllabic root is marked by either LL, HL or LH. These toneme sequences can also appear in monosyllabic contexts, where they surface as a low, falling <â> and raising <ă> tone respectively. Some examples of autosegmental diagrams showcasing the basic monosyllabic tones are given in (11 - 13).

(11) *tχʷə* ‘to drink’ (12) *dɣâiř* ‘tiger’ (13) *t’ŭk* ‘wagons’



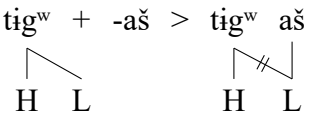
Some examples of disyllabic words with their respective tones are given in (14 - 16).

(14) *müdzu* ‘to piss’ (15) *ts’éɮa* ‘big trees’ (16) *řəkʷó́* ‘love’



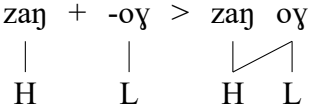
As soon as a suffix attaches to a monosyllabic stem, the underlying HL or LH structure extends its scope and the final tone moves to the syllable that has been newly incorporated into the phonological word. This can be seen in example (9); another example is given in (17).

(17) *tɬ̂gʷ* + *-aš* > *tɬgʷaš* ‘fools’

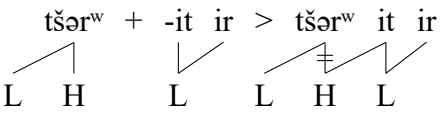


Moreover, as soon as a HH sequence arises morphophonologically, e.g. through root-template inflection (cf. Section 3.1.1), and a suffix attaches, this H tone is then spread onto this new syllable, where it is combined to an HL contour. The same process occurs upon suffix attachment onto a LH contour. If multiple suffixes are bound, or a polysyllabic suffix is attached, the H tone remains on the first syllable after the root. This behaviour is showcased in (18) and (19).

(18) *záŋ* + *-oɣ* > *záŋôɣ* ‘hunting’

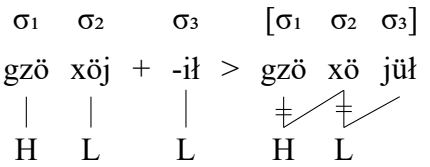


(19) *tšǎr*^{w} + *-ütür* > *tšər*^{w}*îtir* ‘having gotten into fog’



Furthermore, there are multiple morpheme-specific processes regarding tone behaviour. Two of them shall be discussed here. Firstly, there are some suffixes, like the derogatory augmentative *-ił*, which move a preceding H to the right edge of the phonological word. This happens within the scope of one syllable, so that after the process, the H connects to the syllable which follows the one it had been connected to earlier. This process is showcased in (20).

(20) *gzǿxöj* + *-ił* > *gzöxǿjüł* ‘big, lazy landowner’



All autosegmental principles in this section were taken from Yip (2002). A more detailed look at tone in the Northwest Mnaroid family is given in Shostalya (2010); a complete autosegmental analysis has not been released yet (Shostalya, p.c.). An approach using Optimality Theory is provided in Boy (forthcoming).

2.7 Prosody

In this section I will briefly touch on one prosodic process that is of great importance for an overarching phonological description of Q’łin. A prosodic study of the languages of the Kossór has been conducted in the early 1910s (Éric 1912), but I do not have access to this seemingly lost work. This one process I am referring to is the marking of the right edge of a phonological phrase by debuccalization. In Q’łin, phonological phrases are generally congruent with grammatical phrases; thus, at the end of each verb or noun phrase, the final consonant is debuccalized to /h/. This phenomenon occurs together with a slight intonational raising; information, as well as contrastive focus marking are based on that process, as both modify the phonological phrasing of the clause.

2.8 Phoneme restrictions and phonosemantics

There is one major restriction regarding phoneme distribution in Q'łin. /m/ only seems to appear in verbs related to bodily emanations. Some examples of this restriction are given in (21).

(21) a. *müdzu* 'to piss'
b. *tséma* 'to burp'

The roots containing /m/ behave as fully functional verbal roots, and can undergo morphological processes as usual. This behaviour is demonstrated in example (22).

(22) a. *müʔdzu* 'to piss all over the place'
b. *tséʔma* 'to burp violently'

While I did not have the ressources to conduct a complete study on it, there are some vocabulary items which seem to depict sound symbolism. Especially prevalent was the connection between the phoneme sequence of two uvular fricatives /χ(ʷ)...χ.../ and roots denoting an action related to fishing, an integral part of Q'łin culture. This phonaestheme appears throughout the language's lexicon, and is not restricted to any word class. This phenomenon is exemplified in (23).

(23) a. *χöχó* 'to go ice-fishing'
b. *χʷinχe* 'fishnets'
c. *χʷɬ́*[9] 'piscine'

3 Basic morphology

Q'łin distinguishes nine separate parts of speech, which I will discuss in the following sections: verbs (3.1), nouns (3.2), pronouns (3.3), adjectives and adverbs (3.4), adpositions (3.5), second-position clitics (3.6) and finally particles (3.7). Conjunctions will be discussed in section 4.4.1. While nouns, pronouns and adjectives may be described by the umbrella term 'nominals', I refuse to comply to that tradition here.

[9]While this adjective does not feature the aforementioned sequence of two uvular fricatives, I have decided to list it here as it clearly shows a semantic connections to the other words in the set.

3.1 Verbs

Verbs in Q'łin are complex and take a comparatively large number of suffixes. This degree of verbal synthesis might be familiar to the well-read, as it is apparent in almost exclusively all other Northwest Mnaroid languages, and might be considered a sprachbund feature of Kossór. An example of the high amount of morphology a single verb root can take in this language is given in (24).

(24) TODO: Examples

The verbal stem template is depicted in table 4. I will base the next sections on this, following each template column one by one. Before considering each morpheme's function however, I will briefly discuss the root-template morphology that is present in Q'łin's verbal system. A more detailed and refined version of the verb template given here can be found in Satner-Ecke (2008). Note that the morphemes which fill the different slots need not be mutually exclusive. Affix order is discussed in section 3.1.7.

√0	1	2	3	4
root	val	neg	asp	person

Table 4: Verbal template

3.1.1 Root-template morphology

There has been some discussion on root-template morphology in Q'łin, with most of it having occurred in several papers regarding a survey on morphological typology. In this section I will briefly present the basics of this system. The interested reader may refer to Whill (1988) for a more precise presentation, using another, more opaque approach. Verbs may take several suprasegmental tone melodies (cf. Section 2.6) to encode varying reality status and person by means of a SAP/non-SAP distinction. It is in this context that a HH sequence appears once again. Table 5 provides an overview of tonal morphemes, with the distinct root melodies being listed on the left, and the grammatical abbreviations on the top. Syncretic forms have been highlighted by distinct shades of gray.

	REAL:SAP	REAL:NSAP	IRR:SAP	IRR:NSAP
LL	LH	ø	HL	LL
HL	HH	ø	HL	LL
LH	LH	ø	HH	LL

Table 5: Tone templates

The usage of the distinct patterns varies as follows: the SAP and non-SAP forms are used when the S/A of the marked verb is 1st/2nd and 3rd person respectively. The irrealis templates are used for verbs denoting actions that take place in the future, negated verbs, polar questions and imperatives. The realis templates are used in all other cases, i.e. in past or present temporal reference, content questions etc. Examples for the usage of these suprasegmental root variations are given in (25).

(25) TODO: Examples

3.1.1.1 Other morphological processes marked by internal change There's another prominent morphological process which is not marked by root templates, but rather by infixation. This process derives an intensive from a verb root by infixing (or, in the case of monosyllabic open roots, suffixing) //ʔ// after the first vowel of the root. This process is shown in (26).

(26) a. *žrêj* 'to kill' *žréʔje* 'to slaughter'
b. *tχʷə* 'to drink' *tχʷəʔ* 'to drink alcohol regularly'

3.1.2 Valency-modifying morphemes

There are five suffixes that may appear in this slot, all of which modify the thematic relations within a clause. There have been no mentions of Q'ɬin grammatical relations in previous literature, except for a meager number of five sentences on the topic in Georgiy & Vasilievich (1920). In this section I will briefly go through each suffix, explaining their effects on valency and providing examples.

3.1.2.1 Detransitive *-öŋ* The detransitive marker *-öŋ* decreases a verb's valency by one, turning a transitive verb into an intransitive one. There are three major semantics associated with this morpheme, which are commonly referred to as the 'passive', 'reflexive' and 'reciprocal' (Georgiy 1920). According to a well-established work in the field of valency, the prototypical 'passive' is applied to an underlying transitive clause, turning it into a derived intransitive one by promoting the underlying O to S of the passive; moreover, the underlying A argument is demoted to being a peripheral argument (Dixon & Aikhenvald 2000). This can also be said for Q'łin: the underlying A argument is marked by the dative case //-əts//, but may be dropped if the derived S argument is to be focussed. This mechanism is exemplfied in (27) and (28).

(27) tχʷəhešʷəq ƛ'îrʷ žiqəts
tχʷə-ŋ-ešʷ-ə-q *ƛ'îrʷ* *žiq-əts*
drink-DETR-IMPFV-EP-3 water.ABS young_man-DAT

'The water is being drunk by a young man.'

(28) łăʔ, ƛ'îrʷ tχʷəhešʷəq (žiqəts)
łăʔ *ƛ'îrʷ* *tχʷə-ŋ-ešʷ-ə-q* *(žiq-əts)*
no water.ABS drink-DETR-IMPFV-3 young_man-DAT

'No, *the water* is being drunk by a young man.'

It can be observed how the derived S of the passive is always to be interpreted as definite. An indefinite reading is always considered infelicitious; it has to be noted that some younger speakers sometimes employ the indefinite variant. More data has to be gathered on that phenomenon.

(29) tχʷəhešʷəq ƛ'îrʷ žiqəts

* 'Some water is being drunk by a young man.'

However, the suffix *-öŋ* also has a secondary function, viz., to indicate reflexivity and reciprocity. These usages are overlapping, and with a plural subject the yielded verb form is ambiguous with respect to its semantics. This is exemplified in (30) and (31).

(30) žréjeŋətsʷaχ tsən
žrêj-eŋ-ətsʷ=aχ *ts-ən*
kill:IRR:SAP-DETR-2=REP 2SG-ABS

'You reportedly killed yourself (but you didn't)!'

(31) žréjeŋətsʷaχ tsaxən
žrêj-eŋ-ətsʷ=aχ *ts-ax-ən*
kill:IRR:SAP-DETR-2=REP 2-PL-ABS

'You reportedly killed yourselves.'
Or: 'You reportedly killed each other.'

3.1.2.2 Causative *-ɨgɨ* The causative marker *-ɨgɨ* increases a verb's valency by one by introducing a causer, thus deriving a transitive verb from an intransitive one, or a ditransitive verb from a transitive one. This newly-introduced A argument takes the ergative case, and the causee, i.e. the original A, retains its ergative marking. The possibilities for the case marking of causatives is discussed in greater detail in Dixon & Aikhenvald (2000). Similar languages in which the causee also retains A-marking include Kabardian (Northwest Caucasian) and Trumai (Isolate, Brazil). This valency-increasing process is showcased in example (33); (32) shows the respective intransitive clause, from which the transitive one in (33) is derived.

(32) ts'üšʷás tən
ts'ǔ-šʷ-as *t-ən*
eat-IMPFV-1SG 1-ABS

'I'm eating.'

(33) qeɣ ts'ürugušʷəqəs tən
q-eɣ *ts'ü-r-ugu-šʷ-əq-s* *t-ən*
3-ERG eat-EP-CAUS-IMPFV-3SG-1SG 1-ABS

'He's making me eat.'

An example showcasing the derivation of ditransitive verbs from transitive ones is given in (34). Note that the causative cannot be applied to ditransitives; to achieve the causative meaning, a periphrastic construction has to be employed.

(34) TODO: Examples

3.1.2.3 Applicatives The applicatives modify the grammatical relations of a verb by either (i) promoting an underlying peripheral, oblique argument to O function, transitivizing an intransitive verb, or (ii) promoting an underlying peripheral to O function, demoting the original O to the thematic periphery; this second process maintains transitivity. In (i), the underlying S becomes A, in (ii) it stays as is. This process applies for all applicatives, and the differences between the three applicatives described here lies in semantics. The pragmatic implications of each applicatives must be studied more thoroughly in the future.

3.1.2.3.1 Instrumental-comitative applicative *-oƛ'* The instrumental-comitative applicative promotes a peripheral argument to O function, with an instrumental or comitative semantic connotation. This is exemplified in (35).

(35) tə́jəɣ dádáɣ gʷiroƛ'öɣoqał
t-əj-əɣ *dada-ɣ* *gʷi-r-oƛ'-öɣ-oq-ał*
1SG-GEN-ERG father-ERG rise-EP-APPL.COMIT-NEG.IMPFV-HAB-3SG-1PL

raqˤu kən
raqˤ-u *k-ən*
live-DEP 1PL-ABS

'My father didn't live with us.'

3.1.2.3.2 Benefactive applicative *-orʷ* The benefactive applicative promotes a peripheral argument to O function, with the semantic role of this O argument being of benefactive nature. This is exemplified in (36).

(36) TODO: Examples

3.1.2.3.3 Locative applicative *-oqʷ'* The locative applicative promotes a peripheral argument to O function, with the semantic role of this O argument being the location of the event denoted by the verb. An example for this is given in (37).

(37) TODO: Examples

3.1.3 Negation

There are two negating suffixes in Q'łin which are mutually exclusive. Their selection is based on which aspect is marked on the verb: *-(e)ɣ* is used for perfective verbs whereas *-t(ü)χ* is employed in imperfective contexts. A description of those aspects can be found in (3.1.4). An exemplification of both of these morphemes can be found in (38) and (39).

(38) TODO: Examples

(39) TODO: Examples

3.1.4 Aspect morphemes

There are three underlying morphemes which can appear in this slot: the unmarked perfective *-ø*, the habitual *-žü* and the general imperfective *-(e)šʷ*. Although more research has to be conducted on the semantics of these suffixes, it can be said that their characteristics coincide with the basic crosslinguistic properties of perfective and imperfective markers. The perfective in Q'łin exhibits the same property mentioned in Comrie (1976), viz., the "lack of explicit reference to the internal temporal consituency of a situation". The general imperfective, on the other hand, is used when such an explicit reference is present. The habitual *-žü*, while typologically being a subtype of the imperfective, exists parallel to the general imperfective, and is used to denote that an event referred to by the verb is happening habitually; examples for that include weather phenomena and other recurring natural events, profession-related actions and recurring bodily happenings. These basic functions of the aspect markers in Q'łin are exemplified in (40 - 42). Note that none of these aspects imply a purely temporal relation — they are truly aspects, as tense is marked by auxiliaries in this language.

(40)	tšözóq	rʷerʷêk'	ŋaütsəts	ƛes
	tšöž-ø-oq	*rʷerʷêk'*	*ŋaüts-əts*	*ƛes*
	jump.on-PFV-3SG	R:cat.ABS	table-DAT	onto

'The kitten jumped onto the table.' (STEST#16)

(41) TODO: Examples

(42) TODO: Examples

An interesting property of the Q'łin perfective is that it is possible to use it in an 'ingressive' manner, denoting the beginning of an event, when directly contrasted with an imperfective. Such a behaviour can also be observed in the aorist of Ancient Greek (Comrie 1976). This phenomenon is exemplified in (43).

(43) TODO: Examples

3.1.5 Person cross-referencing

There are two sets of person-marking suffixes in Q'łin. The first, the A-set, is used to mark the S of an intransitive and the A of a transitive verb. It is thus cross-referencing the nominative subject. The second set, the O-set, is used to cross-reference the O of a transitive verb. This makes the person-marking system a nominative-accusative one, whereas the language's case system is organized ergatively. A summary of Q'łin's morphosyntactic alignment is given in section 4.2. Table 6 provides an overview of A-set suffixes, while table 7 depicts O-set suffixes. Both sets distinguish three persons (1, 2, 3) and two numbers (SG, PL). This is partly parallel to the language's pronominal system, which is discussed in section 3.3.

	SG	PL
1	*-(ə)t*	*-(ə)k*
2	*-(ə)ts(ʷ)*	
3	*-(ə)q*	

Table 6: A-set person suffixes

It is notable how both sets merge the singular and plural meanings in the second and third persons. There are also qualitative parallels to the pronominal system, as the cross-referencing suffixes and the bound pronouns have similar forms.

	sg	pl
1	*-(a)s*	*-(a)ł*
2	*-ɨr*	
3	*-dʷ*	

Table 7: O-set suffixes

Examples for the usage of these suffixes can be found in (44) and (45).

(44) ž^{w}iq[11] ƛ'ű̓ɣeq
ž^{w}iq-ø *ƛ'ű̓ɣeq*
gasp-3SG cattle.ABS
'The cow gasped.'

(45) TODO: Examples

3.1.6 Other suffixes

3.1.6.1 Deverbal derivation Q'łin speakers employ a plethora of deverbal derivational mechanisms, such as nominalizations, converbs and participles. It is this threefold distinction that I will use to classify derivational suffixes, with one additional suffix that is not to be classified. Table 8 provides an overview of the derivational morphemes discussed here, showcasing their syntactic functions, an example and the section in which the mechanisms will be explained.

Type	Syntactic function	Example	Section
Nominalizers	argument	*-udz^{w}* NMZ.EVENT	3.1.6.1.1
Converbs	adverbial	*-oɣ* SIM	3.1.6.1.2
Participles	adnominal	*-ak^{w}* IMPFV.ACT	3.1.6.1.3
Dependent *-u*	'auxiliary'	-	3.1.6.1.4

Table 8: Deverbal derivational suffixes

3.1.6.1.1 Nominalizers There are two nominalizers in Q'łin, one deriving agent-denoting nominals and the other one deriving event-denoting nouns from either fully inflected verbs, uninflected verb roots or verbs containing defective morphology. The form of the former is *-ɨr*, whereas the latter appears as *-udz^{w}*. The deverbal nouns that are derived by these two suffixes can appear in any argument position, and generally behave like fully functional nouns. Examples for the usage of these derived nominals can be found in (46).

(46) TODO: Examples

w

[11] Note that here, //-əq// surfaces as its phonologically conditioned variant //-ø//, an allomorph that appears after /q/.

3.1.6.1.2 Converbs There are two types of converbs in Q'łin, which have been named, according to Nedjalkov (1995), 'temporal' and 'non-temporal' converbs. The category of temporal converbs is composed of three suffixes which are displayed in table 9. Non-temporal converbs consist of two suffixes, displayed in 10.

Form	Temporal relation	Secondary function
-oɣ	simultaneous SIM	manner adverbial
-ütür	anterior ANT	-
-ütöŋ	posterior POST	-

Table 9: Temporal converbs

It has to be noted that the simultaneous converb *-oɣ* also has a secondary function, in which it simply states the manner in which an event is done. The exact semantic distinction between those two cases is to be studied more thoroughly, even though Kavardiy (2005) tries to formulate it on a formal level.

Form	Adverbial function
-oʔ	cause CVB:CAUS
-ok^{w}'a	concession CVB:CONC

Table 10: Non-temporal converbs

Some basic examples for the usage of converbs are given in (47) and (48).

(47) TODO: Examples

(48) TODO: Examples

In narratives, long chains of converbs are almost ubiquitous, and are especially commonly used by older speakers. The example in (49) is an excerpt from such a narrative.

(49)	záŋôɣ,	dzěɣ	ƛ̓öts'áʔ,	tšər^{w}îtir,	tšöɣû̂tür,	teɣ
	záŋ-oɣ	*dzě-ɣ*	*ƛ̓ŏ̆ts'-aʔ*	*tšə̆r^{w}-itir*	*tšŏ̆ɣ-ütür*	*t-eɣ*
	hunt-SIM	search-SIM	deer-PL	get.into.fog-ANT	get.lost-ANT	1SG-ERG

gʷirôqʷ'öšot	náʔtɨw	k'ok
gʷǐ-r-oqʷ'-öšʷ-ot	*náʔtɨ-w*	*k'ok*
rise-EP-APPL.LOC-IMPFV-1SG	hike-DEP	here

'While I went hunting, I was searching for deers, I got into a fog and got lost, (so) I (had to) hike back here.'

Generally it can be said that converbs modify the clause adverbially. This is in accordance to Haspelmath & König (1995), where a converb is defined as a "nonfinite verb form whose main function is to mark adverbial subordination". Converbs in Q'łin are generally nonfinite, and encode an adverbial meaning such as simultaneity, anteriority, posteriority, cause or concession. It is now to be noted that converbs may, in rare cases, mostly when used by younger speakers, be finite, i.e. may bear verbal inflection, at least to a certain degree. This mostly applies with respect to the valency-modifying suffixes of slot 1, and is exemplified in (50). Cf. Section 3.1.7 on suffix stacking.

(50)

žréjeŋəkʷ'a	hóʔöšotsʷ	k'o
žrêj-eŋ-əkʷ'a	*hóʔ-öšʷ-otsʷ*	*k'o*
kill-DETR-CVB:CONC	stand:IRR:SAP-IMPFV-2	here

'Although you were killed, if you were standing here [would you say the same?]'

3.1.6.1.3 Participles There are four participles in Q'łin, *-akʷ*, *-atsʷih*, *-əts*, *-oƛ̂*. Shagal (2017) provides a typology of participles, and thence I have adapted the terminology used for the description of the phenomenon in this language. The participles *-akʷ* and *-atsʷih*, glossed PTCP:IMPFV and PTCP:PFV respectively, are 'contextually oriented'. Whereas several major European languages have 'inherently oriented' participles, meaning they relativize agents or patients, Q'łin participles are more alike to the ones found in Mongolic or Turkic languages, in that they are contextually dependent. Thus, there is no formal distinction between active and passive participles, as e.g. in Russian or Latin. The sole difference between *-akʷ* and *-atsʷih* is of aspectual nature: whereas the former is used for imperfective relativizations, the latter encodes perfective aspect. A temporal sense seems to have been lost altogether, although some younger speakers have innovated a temporal reading in recent years, using the imperfective for the present and the perfective participle for the past. Examples for the contextual dependence of these first two participles can be found in (51 - 52).

(51) ditšɨq' ditšak^{w} tɬ́g^{w}əɣ
ditšɨq' *ditš-ak^{w}* *tɬ̂g^{w}-əɣ*
letter write-PTCP:IMPFV fool-ERG
'the fool who is writing the letter'

(52) tɬ́g^{w}əɣ ditšak^{w} ditšɨq'
tɬ̂g^{w}-əɣ *ditš-ak^{w}* *ditšɨq'*
fool-ERG write-PTCP:IMPFV letter.ABS
'the letter which is being written by the fool'

The third participle, *-əts*, is homophonous to the nominal dative case marker, implying a close intralinguistic relationship. It is used to relativize dative arguments, as shown in example (53). It cannot only be used for dative objects, but also for quirky subjects that take the dative case.

(53) təɣ ditšɨq' řats tɬ́g^{w}əts
t-əɣ *ditšɨq'* *řa-ts* *tɬ̂g^{w}-əts*
1SG-ERG letter.ABS give-PTCP:DAT fool-DAT
'the fool to which I gave the letter'

The last participle, *-oƛ̂*, relativizes an instrument. It is therefore called an 'instrument oriented' participle, and composes the group of oblique participles together with *-əts*. This form is once again reminiscent of the respective instrumental case marker *-oƛ̂ox^{w}*. An example for the participle's usage is given in (54).

(54) təɣ ditšɨq' ditšoƛ̂ t'enəƛ̂əx^{w}
t-əɣ *ditšɨq'* *ditš-oƛ̂* *t'en-əƛ̂əx^{w}*
1SG-ERG letter.ABS write-PTCP:INSTR pen-INSTR
'the pen with which I'm writing the letter'

The head of the participle clause is always marked according to its syntactic role within the participle clause. Case suffixes that mark the role of the head in the matrix clause are then attached to the already inflected head. This yields a case suffix chain that is reminiscent of the phenomenon of suffixaufnahme, which is described in Section ???. Some case suffixes that appear in this position may surface in a reduced phonological form; more research has to be conducted on the specific allomorphs. An example for this suffix stacking is given in (55).

(55) tɬgʷəɣ ditšakʷ ditšɨqʼoxʷ
tɬ̂gʷ-əɣ *ditš-akʷ* *ditšɨqʼ-oxʷ*
fool-ERG write-PTCP:IMPFV letter.ABS-INSTR
‘using the letter which is being written by the fool’

3.1.6.1.4 Dependent *-u* The so-called dependent marker *-u* is a point of controversy within Q’ɬin linguistics. In other works, it has been called an ‘infinitive’ (Garstheim 1990), the ‘static form’ (Georgiy 1920) as well as simply an ‘auxiliary form’ (Garstheim & Daiss 1992). In this paper I will revive the ancient tradition of calling an auxiliary dependent form - which this suffix marks - a ‘dependent’ marker, as used in other Kossórian languages (Zankya 1899). The dependent marker *-u* is primarily used to mark a major verb (cf. Aikhenvald’s terminology on serial verb constructions in Aikhenvald 2018) in an auxiliary verb construction. This is exemplified in (56), where the auxiliary *gʷɨ̌* absorbs all the inflection that would normally appear on the major verb, which then takes the dependent marker *-u*. In this case, the auxiliary indicates past tense.

(56) teɣ gʷirôqʷʼöšot náʔtɨw kʼok
t-eɣ *gʷɨ̌-r-oqʷʼ-öšʷ-ot* *náʔtɨ-w* *kʼok*
1SG-ERG rise-EP-APPL.LOC-IMPFV-1SG hike-DEP here
‘I hiked (back) here.’

3.1.7 Suffix order and stacking

TODO

3.2 Nouns

Nominal morphology in Q’ɬin features an intricate system of number marking, as well as a comparatively high number of morphological augmentatives and a rather complex case system. Furthermore, noun roots may be reduplicated; nevertheless, reduplicated roots are seldomly encountered. This type of root reduplication will be discussed in Section 3.2.1. Noun classes are considered in Section 3.2.2. Number will be discussed in Section 3.2.3, augmentatives in Section 3.2.4, and finally case in Section 3.2.5.

3.2.1 Root reduplication

There are two basic reduplication processes regarding noun roots: (i) derivational reduplication and (ii) 'formative' reduplication. Derivational reduplication includes the derivation of ethnonyms and nouns referring to animal subadults etc. This type of reduplication will be covered in Satner-Ecke (forthcoming b). 'Formative' reduplication refers to the partial reduplication of the first C(C)V unit of a root, which is semantically empty. This type of reduplication occurs only with certain suffixes, such as the animate augmentative *-ats'*, as can be seen in example (57).

(57) a. *žižiqats'* //ži~žiq-ats'// young_man-AUG a huge lad

3.2.2 Noun classes

3.2.3 Number

Generally, nouns inflect for singular and plural number. The nature of the morphology that encodes number differs however based on the animacy of the referent. For animate referents, the singular form of the noun is unmarked, whereas the plural is marked. For inanimate referents, the singular is marked. This classification according to animacy stands in contrast with the nominal classification that surfaces as agreement on adjectives. An overview of this number marking scheme is given in table 11.

	SG	PL
[+anim]	unmarked	marked
[-anim]	marked	unmarked

Table 11: Number marking

There is a plethora of number suffixes that occur on animate and inanimate nouns. Due to limited space I will only listen some of them here: *-ʔ*, *-aš*, *-aʔ* etc. for marked PL; *-tšoʔ* etc. for marked SG. There are some nouns such as *ƛ'îr*^{w} 'water' or *řək*^{w}*ó́* 'love' which are mass nouns, and thus do not take any number morphology. Moreover, there is a set of special number markers such as *-tšoʔ* which have an intensive connotation. They are used for several pragmatic purposes, e.g. 'affirmative' (also called verum) focus.

3.2.4 Augmentatives

There is a great number of augmentatives in the Q'łin language, such as *-qʕu*, *-ats'*, *-anats'* and *-ił*. Some of them, such as *-qʕu*, replace any number marking on the noun, neutralizing the singular-plural contrast for those nominals that take the suffix. Others, like *-ats'*, require the root to be reduplicated to yield a grammatical result. Semantically, there is a large range of meanings and connotations encoed by these suffixes. The inanimate augmentative *-qʕu* only appears on inanimate nouns, whereas *-ats'* and *-anats'* only appear on animate nouns. The suffix *-ił* is specifically used for derogatory augmentatives.

3.2.5 Case

There is a total number of five noun cases in Q'łin: the ergative, absolutive, genitive, dative and instrumental. In the ergative there is a contrast between definite and indefinite, which is the only definiteness contrast that can be encountered in the language. An overview of the cases and their forms is given in table 12.

	DEF	INDEF
ERG	*-əɣ*	*-əžʷ*
ABS	*-ø/-ən*	
GEN	*-əts*	
DAT	*-əj*	
INSTR	*-oƛ̂oxʷ/-xʷ*	

Table 12: Noun cases

3.3 Pronouns

3.4 Adjectives and adverbs

3.5 Adpositions

3.6 Second-position clitics

In Q'łin, second-position clitics (SPCs) constitute their own lexical class due to their semantic relation and syntactic distribution. As their name suggests, all SPCs are clitics which attach to the right of the first element in the clause - they are thusly

enclitics appearing at the 'second position'. The process of determining this 'first element' is still unclear. Georgiy (1932) suggests they appear on the first word of the clause, however the linguistic notion of a 'word' is still unclear. There has been some discussion on wordhood in Dixon (2010), and I refer the interested reader to said work. Another concept that has been mentioned in this context of SPCs in Q'łin is the 'phrase', as it is used in Aidan (2003); this is not an accurate label in this context, since for some speakers, SPCs appear within adjective chains, which would usually constitute a single phrase together with their head noun. It has to be examined whether there are some pragmatic factors altering the appearance of SPCs, but once again the limitations of space in this brief paper disallow me to elaborate. In this section I will solely focus on particular salient SPCs and their usage, meaning and behaviour.

3.6.1 Evidentiality

It has been a long established fact that Q'łin marks clauses for evidentiality status. Georgiy (1920) had already mentioned the lack of understanding of the natives when he, a Russian speaker, seemingly forgot to employ the right evidentiality marker; they considered his tellings to be "unreliable and foul-mouthed, as they would expect from [a non-native speaker]" (Georgiy 1920:33). Generally, there is a three-way contrast in the language's evidential system: direct *=(q')əq*, inferred *=üł* and reported *=aχ*. A similar contrast can be found in some Quechua languages (Aikhenvald 2012). An overview of evidential markers is depicted in table 13.

Form	Meaning
=(q')əq	direct DIR
=üł	inferred INF
=aχ	reported REP

Table 13: Evidential SPCs

In Q'łin, clauses may be unmarked for evidentiality (cf. (44), (49)). Thus, evidential SPCs are optional, and are exclusively used for specifying a context, or, in the case of *=q'əq*, for marking emphasis and information focus. Some morphosyntactic minimal pairs for the usage of evidentiality SPCs are given in (58 - 60).

(58) hoʔôʔd^{w}əq žréʔjew ƛ̓öts’áʔ
hǒʔ-oq-d^{w}=əq žréʔje-w ƛ̓ǒ́ts’-aʔ
stand:REA:NSAP-3SG-3SG=DIR kill:INTENS-DEP deer-PL

‘He suddenly began to slaughter the deers, I saw it.’

(59) hoʔôʔdüł žréʔjew ƛ̓öts’áʔ
hǒʔ-oq-d^{w}=üł žréʔje-w ƛ̓ǒ́ts’-aʔ
stand:REA:NSAP-3SG-3SG=INF kill:INTENS-DEP deer-PL

‘He suddenly began to slaughter the deers, I saw their corpses.’

(60) hoʔôʔd^{w}aχ žréʔjew ƛ̓öts’áʔ
hǒʔ-oq-d^{w}=aχ žréʔje-w ƛ̓ǒ́ts’-aʔ
stand:REA:NSAP-3SG-3SG=REP kill:INTENS-DEP deer-PL

‘I was told he suddenly began to slaughter the deers.’

3.7 Particles

There is a plethora of discourse particles used in Q’łin. In this section, I will only discuss a subset of them due to a lack of space. The ones that will be presented are subsumed under the category of so-called ‘engagement’ particles. This grammatical notion is discussed in Evans et al. (2017), but shall be briefly revised here to inform the uninformed. “Engagement systems encode the relative accessibility of an entity or state of affairs to the speaker and addressee”, and thus relate to the concept of epistemicity. In Q’łin, there are three such engagement markers, *ř^{w}ə* SYM, *ŋə* ASYM and *ŋər* IMPORT. While all three may appear in any kind of clause, they are most often encountered in non-interrogative contexts; furthermore, *ŋər* most often co-occurs with imperatives. Their actual meanings and usage circumstances are as follows: (i) *ř^{w}ə* is used when the speaker informs the addressee about something that the addressee has access to, but is not concentrated on. It is thus abbreviated as SYM, as it encodes a symmetric relationship between the knowledge of the speaker and the addressee.[12] (ii) *ŋə* is used when the speaker informs the addressee about something that the latter does not know or is not aware of. It is thus called ASYM. (iii) *ŋər* is used in similar contexts as the asymmetric marker, but encodes a sense of urgency that is not present in the other markers. Minimal

[12]The label ‘symmetric’ is taken from an anonymous contributor. Possible misunderstandings will be redirected to them.

pairs for the usage of these discourse particles in a non-interrogative context are given in examples (61 - 63).

(61) *Context*: The speaker and a friend have gotten up early in the morning to lead the sheep onto the meadows. The friend is busy untangling the leash of their sheepdog, when the speaker sees the sun rise. He says:

ɣarəq	jôɬ	řʷə
ɣar-ø-əq	*jôɬ*	*řʷə*
emit.light-PFV-3SG	sun.ABS	SYM

'The sun is rising now, look!' (STEST#10a)

(62) *Context*: A mother is waking up her son, who has overslept; he was supposed to wake up before the sun rises, but he went to bed too late the night before. The mother says to the son:

ɣarəq	jôɬ	ŋə
ɣar-ø-əq	*jôɬ*	*ŋə*
emit.light-PFV-3SG	sun.ABS	ASYM

'(Wake up,) The sun is rising now!' (STEST#10b)

(63) *Context*: A young man and his friends went out drinking, when one of his companions passed out on the bed. They need to leave the place before sun rises, so in the morning, the young man says to the unconscious friend in an urgent manner:

ɣarəq	jôɬ	ŋər
ɣar-ø-əq	*jôɬ*	*ŋər*
emit.light-PFV-3SG	sun.ABS	IMPORT

'(Quickly, quickly) The sun is rising now!' (STEST#10c)

4 Syntax

4.1 Phrasal syntax

4.1.1 Possession

4.2 Grammatical relations

4.3 Simple clauses

4.4 Complex clauses

4.4.1 Conjunctions

5 Other topics

5.1 Conceptual metaphors

Glossing Abbreviations

1	1st person	**IMP**	Imperative
2	2nd person	**IMPFV**	Imperfective
3	3rd person	**IMPORT**	Important
ABS	Absolutive	**INSTR**	Instrumental
ANT	Anterior	**INTENS**	Intensive
APPL	Applicative	**IRR**	Irrealis
ASYM	Asymmetric	**LOC**	Locative
CAUS	Causative	**NEG**	Negation
COMIT	Comitative	**NSAP**	non-SAP-denoting
CVB:CONC	Concessive (converb)	**PFV**	Perfective
DAT	Dative	**PL**	Plural
DEP	Dependent	**PTCP**	Participle
DETR	Detransitivizer	**PTCP:IMPFV**	Imperfective participle
EP	Epenthetic	**REA**	Realis
ERG	Ergative	**SAP**	SAP-denoting
GEN	Genitive	**SIM**	Simultaneous
HAB	Habitual	**SYM**	Symmetric

Appendix: Selected example sentences and narratives

(64)

gʷižiq	ɣaru	jôɮ
gʷi-ži-q	*ɣar-u*	*jôɮ*
rise-HAB-3SG	emit.light-DEP	sun

'The sun shone.' (STEST#03)

(65)

t'o	nɨ́qi	ŋər
t'o	*nɨ̂-q-i*	*ŋər*
there	go:IRR:SAP-EP-IMP	IMPORT

'Go away!' (STEST#26)

(66)

qehq'əjəxʷ	kałőq'oƛoxʷ	gʷišʷəq	kiru
qehq'ə-j-əxʷ	*kałőq'-oƛoxʷ*	*gʷi-šʷ-əq*	*kir-u*
donkey-GEN-INSTR	trick.PL-INSTR	rise-IMPFV-3SG	laugh-DEP

ton	tən
ton	*t-ən*
name.ABS	3SG-ABS

'Ton laughed at the donkey's tricks.' (Adapted from STEST#64)

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[13] In this section I will list all **real-world** papers, articles and books I have cited. Citations that I've made up for artistic purposes will obviously be not listed here, since they do not exist.

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