Yăŋwăp

Odenevo

21st Speedlang Challenge

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Abbreviations

1	1 st person	INTR	intransitive
2	2 nd person	LOC	locative
3	3 rd person	MAS	masculine
ABL	ablative	NEG	negative
ACC	accusative	NEU	neuter
ALL	allative	NFUT	non-future
СОМ	common	OBL	obligatory
COL	collective	PAUC	paucal
COP	copula	PERM	permissive
DAT	dative	PL	plural
DIST	distal	PN	proper noun
DIR	direction	POSS	possessive
EMPH	emphatic	PRES	present
ERG	ergative	PROV	proverb
FEM	feminine	PROX	proximal
FUT	future	PST	past
IMP	imperative	PURP	purposive
INDEF	indefinite	REFL	reflexive
INST	instrumental	SG	singular
INT	interrogative	TR	transitive

1 Introduction

1.1 Overview

In Section 1, I introduce *Yăŋwăp*, the conventions used throughout this document, and the history of the language, externally and internally, the former concerning the constraints of the challenge, and the latter discussing the language and its situation. In Section 2, I describe the phonology of the language, detailing the inventory, phonotactics, and the phonological rules that govern it. Then in Sections 5 and 4, I describe the noun complex and verb complex, respectively, and all their modifiers. In Section 6, I describe the syntactic rules of the language, discussing how various clauses are constructed. In Section 8, I give some examples of the language in use. In Section **??** I discuss emotional semantics. In Section 9 I give a non-exhaustive lexicon of the language.

1.2 Conventions

In this document, romanised *Yăŋwăp* text is coloured *red and italicised*. Phonemic transcription is in forward slashes (/example/), and coloured black, phonetic transcription is in square brackets ([example]), and small caps (EXAMPLE) are used for grammatical morphemes/functions within glosses. Within glosses, the convention is that if a category is unmarked, it is not given a gloss. I will now note what categories are considered unmarked: for verbs, the future tense, indicative mood, and affirmative polarity, for nouns, the nominative or absolutive case (function dependent on tense) and singular number.

Glosses are structured as follows:

(1) romanised transcription /phonemic transcription/ [phonetic transcription] morphophonemic transcription morpheme gloss

> translation LIT. optional literal translation

1.3 External History

This language was created by me, Odenevo, and is a speedlang, a constructed language created within a time constraint. *Yăŋwăp* was created within the time frame of the 21st speedlang challenge, Saturday, 7 September 2024 and Saturday, 21 September 2024. The challenge was proposed by PastTheStarryVoids

(u/PastTheStarryVoids), with the following constraints abridged from the original document:

- Have no more than two phonemes whose most common realisation is a fricative.
- Have at least one non-pulmonic consonant (with the expectation of a series).
- Have a place of articulation contrast within the one of the broader categories of labial, coronal, and dorsal.
- Make use of nominal tense, aspect, and/or mood.
- Have grammatical gender/noun class.
- · Have at least three ways of forming requests/commands
- Create at least two words for emotions that don't have a clear one-word label in English.

And the following three tasks:

- Document and showcase your language to present how these requirements are meant.
- Translate and gloss at least five example sentences from "syntax test sentences" or from 5MOYD

Now, I will explain how my language fulfils these constraints. In terms of phonological constraints, that is quite simple: there are no fricatives, even as allophones, the language has a series of ejectives, which contrast with plain stops in the onset position, and there a three way contrast between palatal/velar/labiovelar consonants a la Proto-Indo-European. I will note that the alveolar series also underwent palatalisation in the same conditions as the velar series, and these two series have broadly merged.

Nominal TAM is present in the form of case markers taking on the functional load of contrasting present and past clauses. This is due to the present and past markers were neutralised due to both suffixes being reflected as a nasal coda $/\eta$ / in the modern language. As the past was derived from an earlier passive, this means that past clauses are ERG/ABS while non-past clauses are NOM/ACC. The past tense, despite being 'passive', has been analogically extended to be used with intransitive verbs. though originally, there was no difference between the (unmarked) future and past. Grammatical gender exists in the language, which is reflected on numbers, adjectives, and demonstratives as suffixes, agreeing with a head nouns's gender/number. 3rd person pronouns are also marked for gender. These genders are masculine, feminine, plural, and neuter. Plural is less a gender in its own right but rather the neutralisation of the masculine and feminine genders for plural referents.

There are five ways of forming a command/request in *Yăŋwăp*:

- A bare imperative, which is formally the same as the future tense, but lacks any marking of the subject. This indicates a harsh/blunt command.
- The future tense, which indicates a polite/softened command.
- The auxiliary *ye* 'stop' (NFUT: *yaŋ*) is used as a prohibitive. The lexical verb must be nominalised, and is treated as an inanimate patient, meaning it takes the locative case in the non-past tense, and is unmarked for case in the past tense.
- The auxiliary *caŋ* 'must' (NFUT: id.) is used as a periphrastic imperative, which is more forceful/direct than the future tense, but not as much as the direct imperative. This may also be used to construct a hortative. This auxiliary requires the lexical verb to be nominalised and followed by the purposive suffix *-w/-t*.
- The auxiliary *păw* 'send' (NFUT: *păŋ*) is used as a permissive and to form a causative. This auxiliary has the same nominalisation requirement for the lexical verb as *caŋ*.

Concerning words for emotions that don't have a clear one-word label in English, there a few words of note, which are discussed in more detail in Section 7. One example is *cacă*- and it's derivatives, which refer to both what would be considered anger and sadness in English, perhaps best described as 'anguish', though it refers generally to negative emotions. Another example, or rather set of examples, are with the various words that divide up the English label 'love' into a number of different root forms; these can be generally described as *cămă*-'fraternal love or compassion', *naya*- 'romantic love and loyalty (to those of a comparable social rank)', and *ŋwăla*- 'paternal love and religious/spiritual devotion'. These terms do not cross over very well in English, but in *Yăŋwăp* this occurs rather naturally.

1.4 Internal History

Admittedly, I have not given the internal history of *Yăŋwăp* much thought, beyond the various sound changes I applied to the language to fulfil the constraints of the challenge. These are discussed in some detail in Section 2.5,

which considers the morphophonological alternations. These are more broadly discussed in the later sections concerning the nominal and verbal morphology of the language. Some interesting things about the culture of the speakers might be inferred from the discussion of emotional semantics (7), though I have primarily focused on developing the language and not on trying to interweave a broader cultural and material background for the speakers of *Yăŋwăp*.

2 Phonology

2.1 Phonemic Inventory

Yăŋwăp features an average sized consonant inventory, of 19 consonants. It has complete series of nasal, stop, and ejective consonants for five places of articulation: labial, alveolar, palatal, velar, and labiovelar (labialised velar). There are four additional liquid consonants, of which two can be considered glides /j w/, while the other two are the language's 'lateral' and 'rhotic', /l/ and /t/ respectively. It should be noted that /t/ is the only retroflex consonant in the language. More consonants are contrasted in onset position (19) than in the coda position (9), due to the collapse of the contrast between stops and ejectives, mergers/shifts concerning /l/ and glides, and the neutralisation of all nasals as a single archiphoneme /N/.

	Table 1: Consonants					
	Labial	Alveolar	Retroflex	Palatal	Velar	Labiovelar
Nacal	/m/	/n/		/ɲ/	/ŋ/	/ŋʷ/
Ivasai	т	п		ny	ŋ	ŋw
Stop	/p p'/	/t t'/		/c c'/	/k k'/	/k ^w k ^w '/
Stop	pp'	t ť		с с'	k k'	kw k'w
Liquid		/1/	/t/	/j/		/w/
Liquia		1	r	y/ÿ		w/ẅ

Note that orthographically, /j w/ are written $\ddot{y} \ddot{w}$ when following /n/ or /ŋ k k'/ respectively, as to make clear that these are glides, and not markers of palatalisation/labialisation.

The vowel inventory of the language is typologically common, having a six vowel inventory that contrasts the five cardinal vowels and schwa /a e \Rightarrow o i u/, though only one of these shows contrastive length, with the pair /a a:/. / \Rightarrow / is short, while all other vowels are long /e: o: i: u:/.

	Table 2 Front	2: Vowels Central	Back
High	/i:/		/u:/
mgn	i		и
Mid	/e:/	/ə/	/0:/
Iviiu	е	ă	0
Low		/a aː/	
LOW		аā	

Note that /a:/ \bar{a} is written *a* in final open syllables, as short /a/ does not occur in this position.

2.2 Phonotactics

Yăŋwăp has a simple surface syllable structure, with a basic constraint:

$(C^{1})V(C^{2})$

C¹: Any consonant V: Any vowel (/a a/ are permitted in non-final open syllables, /a: e: i: o: u:/ are not permitted in closed syllables) C²: Any of /Q¹ N p t c k k^w t j w/

2.3 Prosody

Yăŋwăp does not have a contrastive stress accent, and unconditionally stresses the last syllable of a word. However, enclitics do not shift the stress of a word rightward.

2.4 Allophony

Yǎŋwǎp has a few phonetic rules that apply to consonants, causing the surface reflexes of consonants to differ from their underlying forms.

- · Coda ejectives become plain stops.
- The retroflex tap assimilates neighbouring alveolar consonants to retroflex consonants when adjacent to them, so /n t t' l/ \rightarrow [n t t' l].
- /a.a/ becomes /a:/, hence the spelling \bar{a} .
- /ə/ is raised to [i] when stressed and not followed by one of /w j t/.
- /N/ assimilates in place of articulation to following consonants. When word-final, this consonant is realised as $[\eta]$, hence its orthographic representation as η in this position.
- Central vowels [a \Rightarrow i] are fronted [æ e i] and when adjacent to palatal consonants.

¹Only morpheme-final.

 Central vowels [a ə i] are rounded and retracted [p o u] when adjacent to labiovelar consonants. The preceding rule concerning palatalisation blocks this rule.

2.5 Morphophonology

In *Yăŋwăp*, there are a large number of morphonological alternations, due to the fact that the language historically lost all coda consonants in non-final syllables, but these codas had assimilatory effects on the following consonants; these rules no longer apply to new clusters. This was followed by a leftward stress shift if the final syllable was light, and then the unconditional loss of all final vowels. This means that underlyingly, many forms have vowels that may appear in inflected/conjugated forms. Importantly, coda stops at this earlier stage of the language did not exist, so all stop final words can be understood to have an underlying stem-final vowel; the same can be said about /t/ which arose from earlier onset /j/. This distinction is the source of the thematic/athematic stem distinction that I will mention when discussing nominal/verbal morphology.

The strangest alternation of note is the alternations between /t/, /c/, and /j/. /t/ derives from historic /j/. In onset position, /j/ underwent a number of shifts, causing it to result in /t/ in the modern language. However, before historic nasal codas, /j/ merged with /c/ instead. Any modern instances of onset /j/ arise from historic $/\Lambda/$, and all instances of coda /t/ were originally followed by a vowel.

I will now discussion the coda-assimilation alternations that occur, which can be observed with the allomorphs of suffixes dependent on the stem:

- /N/, the merger of all historic coda nasals, causes any following liquid to fortify into a stop, /l r j w/ \rightarrow /t c c k^w/.
- /Q/, which was historically a final stop, causes the lengthening of a vowel when there is no following consonant, however, when there is one, this rule does not occur, and instead, it geminates the following consonant. Gemination in stops causes them to become ejectives, though if these ejectives are found in coda position after later shifts, they become plain stops again. Non-stops show no affect from this gemination in the modern stage of the language, as it was lost with the dropping of all non-final codas.
- The liquid codas have no direct effect on the following consonant, though /l/ blocked lenition, while /j w/ allowed it.
- The lack of a preceding coda, or presence of /j w/ caused lenition, which caused all intervocalic medial stops to become liquids, following the shift /p t c k k^w/ \rightarrow /w l j G w/.

• The reflex of /G/ depends on the surrounding vowels. If it is preceded by a front vowel, then it merges with /j/, a back vowel, then /w/, but is dropped entirely if preceded by /a/. This causes the hiatus /a.a/ which is resolved by merging the two vowels as /a:/.

Another important rule is that of syncope, which causes the dropping of all even-numbered vowels counting leftward from stress, except the initial vowel unless it is absolutely initial. This rule doesn't apply to clitics, and clitics do not cause it, meaning that what would be the first syllable vowel would remain in that context. Note that the only vowel that is underlyingly permitted to occur absolutely initial is /a/, while all other vowels have a prothetic glide (recall that /j/ \rightarrow /t/ in onset position) which blocked initial vowel loss. This initial /a/ can be lost due to syncope, which allows ejective stops to occur initially. This means any stem alternations associated with forms beginning with an ejective predictably will alternate between an ejective stop initial followed by a vowel /C'V/, to a low vowel initial followed by an ejective stop /aC'/.

Syncope has a specific effect medially where /a/ may fall in hiatus with a preceding vowel. In this situation, a glottal stop is inserted. This vowel can be completely syncopated if it occurs initially, and the conditions for syncope allow it. If medial syncope is applied, then the glottal stop causes gemination of the segment it is adjacent to, but this is blocked by the presence of a preceding long vowel, in which case, the glottal stop is lost. If syncope does not apply then /?/ becomes a glide, assimilating to a preceding vowel, or is dropped before another instance of /a/, creating a long vowel. This rule is important as it regularly affects the third person proclitics.

Another issue arises from the historical merger of all short vowels into /a a/, wherein depending on whether a stem is suffixed or not, vowels alternate, wherein a final /e o/ will become /a/ when followed by a suffix, and a final /i u/ will become /a/ when followed by a suffix. New instances of /e o i u/ arose in non-final syllables via coalescence of coda glides, wherein /a/ coalesced to create high vowels, and /a/ coalesced to create low vowels; modern coda glides are reflexes of historic / Λ l/, which became /j w/.

3 Word Classes & Derivation

The following word classes can be distinguished in *Yăŋwăp*, which can be divided by what kinds of marking they can take:

- Nominals (nouns, gerunds, pronouns): inflect for case. Pronouns form a subclass that also distinguish number.
- Nominal Modifiers (adjectives, numerals/quantifiers, determiners): inflect for gender and number. A subclass of modifiers are participles (nominalised verbs followed by the locative case), which do not take any other inflections, but syntactically function the same way as adjectives would.
- Verbs: conjugate for tense and polarity.
- Particles: are unmarked at all times; this class purely consists of grammatical words.

Derivations between these word classes are possible, except with particles, as these have been irregularly derived from members of other classes. In the following sections, the derivational processes between these classes will be discussed, which can be divided into multiple processes, as a variety of strategies are used to achieve a given kind of transformation, i.e. verbal nominalisation (verb > noun).

3.1 Verbal Nominalisation

Verbal nominalisation is the process by which verbs are turned into nouns. The most prevalent strategy is that of forming a gerund, which is achieved by a suffix conventionally written as *-pa*, though it has various allomorphs, such as *-p*, *-w*, *-p'a*, and *-wa*. The gerund is simply the verb used as noun, and generally lacks any kind of semantic differences. Gerund forms are used as 'action nouns', as in to refer to an instance of an action being undertaken, or to refer to an event type more generally. It is also the primary non-finite form of a verb, and is used pervasively with auxiliary verbs to mark the lexical verb as non-finite, usually accompanied by case marking. When a gerund is marked with the locative case and precedes another noun, it can function as a nominal modifier, though unlike other modifiers, it does not take gender inflection.

Agent nouns may also be created by nominalising verbs. The productive agent nominaliser is *-rte*, which is suffixed to a gerund form, and this form is only used with human agents, and creates nouns that are masculine gender. A variant of this suffix, *-te* may also be applied to nouns to create associated persons. A more archaic agent nominaliser, *-meQ* may be suffixed directly to a verb (not a gerund); this agent nominaliser may be used humans, animals, and

even with inanimate referents, though the nouns it creates are usually masculine gender.

Instrument nouns are created by with the suffix, *-taw* (inflected allomorph: *-tla-*). This instrument nominaliser is productive, and results in nouns belonging to the neuter gender; this suffix is applied to the gerund. Patient nouns are created by the suffix, *-raw* (inflected allomorph: *-rla-*), and results in nouns belonging to the neuter gender; this suffix is applied to the gerund. Location nouns are created by two variants of a the same suffix, one the productive form while the other is archaic/obsolete, but still found in many forms. The productive suffix is *-tyăŋ*, while the obsolete suffix is *-căŋ*. The former suffix is applied to the gerund, while the latter directly attaches to the verb.

3.2 Modifier Nominalisation

Nominal modifiers may become proper nominals, and this process is quite simple. It is a simple zero-derivation process which creates a noun that refers to whatever the modifier specifies. The modifier may be directly combined with a following generic noun to create a more specific nominal form. The primary difference between this and an modified nominal is that there is only one instance of stress in this kind of construction, indicating that it constitutes one phonological word. Participles may not zero-derive, as they are already derived from nouns, making such a process redundant. However, a participle may compound with a following generic noun to create a more specific nominal form.

3.3 Nominal Predication

Nominals can be transformed into verbs via a number of strategies. These can be divided up by the kinds of verbs they result in. Stative verbs or nominal predicates are created by the application of the suffix -*ŋo* (NFUT: -*ŋaŋ*, NMLZ: -*ŋo/-ŋwa*-). Creation verbs are created by the application of the suffix -*r* (NFUT: -*raŋ*, NMLZ: -*ro/-rwa*-). Use verbs are created by the application of the suffix -*la* (NFUT: -*laŋ*, NMLZ: -*lo/-lwa*-). Inchoative verbs are created by the application of the suffix -*ri* (NFUT: -*răŋ*, NMLZ: -*răp/-rp'a*-).

4 Verb Complex

The verb phrase in *Yăŋwăp* has a number of elements, most important of which is the finite verb, which takes inflectional marking. There is only one suffix used with finite verbs, that being the non-future suffix, which takes the form $-a\eta$ /-aŋ/ or $-\ddot{a\eta}$ /-əŋ/ depending on the stem type, making verbs notably analytic, especially when compared to nouns. However, this does not mean that there is a paucity of morphological complexity. Due to the previously discussed morphophonology in *Yăŋwăp*, there are a large number of conjugation classes associated with verbs.

Due to this lack of marked contrasts on the verb, a large number of auxiliary verbs are necessary to express more complex grammatical distinctions, such as applicatives/valency changing operations, negation, and irrealis moods. Generally, the non-finite verbs in such auxiliary constructions are nominalised and will be usually followed by a case suffix, the choice of which can influence the aspectual meaning of a construction.

4.1 Conjugations

The two conjugations in *Yăŋwăp* are used for two broadly distinct functions: the future conjugation is used for future tense and imperative statements², while the non-future conjugation is used for present, habitual, and past statements. The distinction between the present/past grammatical structures will be discussed later, as these are distinguished by the usage of case markers. Polarity and mood do not play a role in the choice of conjugation. The nominalised forms of verbs will also be provided, along with case inflected forms, as these differ based on the conjugation.

The conjugations are divided into subconjugations, and they can be defined by the following traits:

- Thematic versus athematic, wherein the thematic conjugations underlyingly end with a vowel, and always have a nominaliser with a glide initial, and athematic conjugations do not.
- For thematic conjugations, syncopating versus retaining, wherein syncopating conjugations have their final vowel dropped in the future/unmarked form of the verb. The syncopating conjugations Ia/Ib/Ic, and Id/Ie merge in all contexts, however, the distinction between these is important because of how these classes are treated in the equivalent nominal declension classes.

 $^{^2{\}rm I}$ should note that some command/request constructions use the non-future, but 'bare' imperatives only use the future conjugation.

- For athematic conjugations, there are three conjugations, which are divided on whether they have a final consonant or not in the future/unmarked form: those that have none, those that have a final /ŋ/, and those that have a final /w/. Note that those that have no final consonant have a nominaliser with an ejective initial, while those that have /ŋ/ or /w/ have a stop initial.
- Each subconjugation notes the vowels/rhymes that alternate between the conjugated forms of a verb: the first vowel/rhyme appears in the future/unmarked form of the verb, while the second vowel appears in all other conjugated forms, except the bare nominalised form, which has the third rhyme, which consists of a rounded back vowel for thematic conjugations, and /Vp/ for the athematic conjugations, wherein /V/ is the second vowel.
- Nominalised forms that have case markings, such as the allative/dative, locative, and ablative, drop the second rhyme vowel, unless this vowel is the only vowel in the stem.

Thus, the conjugations can be described as follows:

I: Thematic, syncopating, nominaliser glide initial

Ia: $\emptyset \rightarrow /a / \rightarrow /o:/$ Ib: $\emptyset \rightarrow /a / \rightarrow /o:/$ Ic: $\emptyset \rightarrow /a / \rightarrow /o:/$ Id: $\emptyset \rightarrow /\partial / \rightarrow /u:/$ Ie: $\emptyset \rightarrow /\partial / \rightarrow /u:/$

II: Thematic, retaining, nominaliser glide initial

IIa: $/a:/ \rightarrow /a/ \rightarrow /o:/$ IIb: $/e:/ \rightarrow /a/ \rightarrow /o:/$ IIc: $/o:/ \rightarrow /a/ \rightarrow /o:/$ IId: $/i:/ \rightarrow /a/ \rightarrow /u:/$ IIe: $/u:/ \rightarrow /a/ \rightarrow /u:/$

III: Athematic, nominaliser ejective initial

IIIa: $/a:/ \rightarrow /a/ \rightarrow /ap/$ IIIb: $/e:/ \rightarrow /a/ \rightarrow /ap/$ IIIc: $/o:/ \rightarrow /a/ \rightarrow /ap/$ IIId: $/i:/ \rightarrow /a/ \rightarrow /ap/$ IIIe: $/u:/ \rightarrow /a/ \rightarrow /ap/$

IV: Athematic, nasal-final, nominaliser stop initial

IVa: $/a\eta/ \rightarrow /a/ \rightarrow /ap/$ IVb: $/\partial\eta/ \rightarrow /\partial/ \rightarrow /\partialp/$

V: Athematic, glide-final, nominaliser stop initial

Va: $/aw/ \rightarrow /a/ \rightarrow /ap/$ Vb: $/aw/ \rightarrow /a/ \rightarrow /ap/$

Table 5. Conjugation classes

	FUT	NFUT	NMLZ	NMLZ.ALL	NMLZ.LOC	NMLZ.ABL
Ia/Ib/Ic	-Ø	-aŋ	-aw	-W0	-war	-wa
Id/Ie	-Ø	-ăŋ	-aw	-W0	-war	-wa
IIa	-a	т-аŋ	-0	-waw	-war	-wa
IIb	-е	-aŋ	-aw	-W0	-war	-wa
IIc	-0	-aŋ	-aw	-W0	-war	-wa
IId	-i	-ăŋ	-aw	-W0	-war	-wa
IIe	-и	-ăŋ	-aw	-W0	-war	-wa
IIIa	-a	-аŋ	-ap	-p'aw	-p'ar	-р'а
IIIb	-е	-aŋ	-ap	-p'aw	-p'ar	-р'а
IIIc	-0	-aŋ	-ap	-p'aw	-p'ar	-р'а
IIId	-i	-ăŋ	-ăp	-p'aw	-p'ar	-p'a
IIIe	-и	-ăŋ	-ăp	-p'aw	-p'ar	-р'а
IVa	-aŋ	-aŋ	-ap	-paw	-par	-pa
IVb	-ăŋ	-ăŋ	-ăp	-paw	-par	-ра
Va	-aw	-аŋ	-ap	-paw	-par	-pa
Vb	-ăw	-ăŋ	-ăp	-paw	-par	-ра

4.2 Agreement

Yăŋwăp verbs may be modified by a number of agreement proclitics, which are prosodically treated as part of whatever element they follow, which is typically the verb, but can also be adverbs, or topical noun phrases.

These proclitics are not mandatory, but instead, are used as substitutes for noun phrases, though when they do appear, their specific order is required. The order of proclitics are: nominative/absolutive > ergative/instrumental > dative > locative > accusative. Note that despite these proclitics not being mandatory, emphatic pronouns are allowed to be used with these proclitics, given that they function as and are derived from reflexive pronouns.

Topical noun phrases, those which indicate old information, are placed in the same position as proclitics, and may substitute them. However, unlike proclitics, these noun phrases are prosodically independent.

		0	· •		
	NOM/ABS	ERG/INST	ACC.COM/DAT	ACC.NEU/LOC	ABL
1sg	$n\bar{a}=$	ne=	nat'=	nar=	nak'=
1pl	nay=	nayi =	nayu=	nayăr =	nayi =
2sg	ce=	ce =	caw =	car=	ce =
2pl	cay=	cayi=	cayăw=	cayăr=	cayi=
3sg.mas	e =	yi=	yăw=	yăr=	yi=
3sg.fem	<i>o</i> =	we =	waw=	war=	wo =
3pl	ar =	ri =	răw=	răr=	ru =
3.neu	aw =	le =	law=	lar=	lo =

Table 4: Agreement proclitics

The following examples show these proclitics and how they are used.

(2) а. Таwwo nācawpăw

/talwal na:calpəw/ [tɒw'wɒw næ:cæw'pow] taw-pa-ta nā=caw=păw cook-NMLZ-PURP 1SG.NOM=2SG.ACC=send

'I will tell you to cook.' LIT. 'I will send you to cook.'

b. Tawwaw nācawpăŋ

/talwal na:calpəŋ/ [tɒw^lwɒw næ:cæw^lpɨŋ] taw-pa-ta nā = caw = păw-ŋ cook-NMLZ-PURP 1SG.NOM = 2SG.ACC = send-NFUT

'You are going to cook.' LIT. 'I am sending you to cook.'

с. Таwwaw сеперăŋ

/talwal ce:najpəŋ/ [tɒw¹wɒw ce:ne:¹pɨŋ] taw-pa-ta ce=nay=păw-ŋ cook-NMLZ-PURP 1SG.ERG=2SG.ABS=send-NFUT

'You should have cooked.' LIT. 'I sent you to cook.'

d. *Nālarcawci* /na:laŗcalci:/ [na:laŗcæw'ci:] $n\bar{a} = lar = caw = ciQ$ 1SG.NOM = 3.NEU.ACC = 2SG.DAT = give

'I will give it to you.'

e. *Elarwoci* /e:larwawci:/ [e:larwo:'ci:] e = lar = wo = ciQ 3SG.MAS.NOM = 3.NEU.ACC = 3SG.FEM.DAT = give

'He will give it to her.'

f. Awyiyoci

/alji:wo:ci:/ [bwji:wo:'ci:] aw=yi=wo=ciQ 3.NEU.ABS=3SG.MAS.ERG=3SG.FEM.DAT=give-NFUT

'He gave it to her.'

g. Awnecawcăŋ /alnajcalcəŋ/ [ɒwne:cæw¹ciŋ] aw = ne = caw = ciQ-ŋ 3.NEU.ABS = 1SG.ERG = 2SG.DAT = give-NFUT

'I gave it to you.'

4.3 Negation

Negation in *Yăŋwăp* can be expressed in multiple ways. The most irregular form of negation derives from a prefix which now causes stem alternations. These alternations depend on the shape of the verb stem:

- If the verb begins with a closed syllables and starts with a consonant, the reflex of negation is through nasal-assimilation rule discussed in the section on morphophonology (2.5). If instead the syllable lacks an onset, then instead *m* is prefixed onto the stem.
- If the verb stem begins with an open syllable and the stem begins with a consonant, the prefix *a* is applied, which causes the nasal-assimilation rule to be applied to the following consonant. If the stem begins with a vowel, the prefix *am* is applied instead. In both contexts, syncope is then applied to the first syllable of the word.

This alternation is regularly applied to the first verb in a verb complex, not the matrix verb, so in serial verb constructions, the first verb takes this marker. It should be noted that this alternation causes some verbs to merge in their negative non-future/nominalised forms. This leads to some ambiguity that is commonly used in both poetry and jokes. An example of this is found with the verbs *ro* 'cut' and *co* 'call (like a bird)', where in the negative they are merged as *co*, meaning that 'I didn't cut (it)' and 'I didn't make a birdcall' are pronounced the same (*Neacyu co*), only distinguished by context.

This form of negation never occurs by itself, and is always accompanied by another morpheme, which is the preverbal negation particle, the form of which differs depending on tense of the verb. In the non-past *acyăr* is used, while in the past *acyu* is used; these may be reduced to *yăr* and *yu* respectively. This is due to this particle deriving from a case-inflected noun, and due to the pervasiveness of case marking tense, there is an analogical reason to do so.

The following examples present how negation is applied to clauses.

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(3) a. Naalartaŋ
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/na:lartaŋ/ [na:lar'tãŋ] naa = lar = taQ-ŋ 1SG.NOM = 3SG.ACC.NEU = eat-NFUT

'I am eating (something).'

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b. Naalaracyăr taŋ
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/na:laracjər taŋ/ [na:larac'jer 'tãŋ] naa=lar=acyăr ataQ-ŋ 1SG.NOM=3SG.ACC.NEU=NEG.NPST NEG.eat-NFUT

'I am not eating.'

4.4 Auxiliaries

Yăŋwăp has a number of auxiliary verbs which can be used to indicate various different modal categories, as well as associated motion/direction. These auxiliaries all involve the use of said auxiliary as the finite verb, while the lexical verb is demoted to a non-finite verb, via the nominalisation suffix. These were already presented in the conjugations, so I need not explain how the conjugations differ in terms of how they reflect the nominalised form of the verb. This nominalised verb also may have a case suffix, depending on the tense/aspect of the clause.

The proverb *ra* (NFUT: *raŋ*, NMLZ: *ro/raw-*) is primarily used as a complete substitute for another lexical verb. However, it can combine with borrowed

words that are used as verbs, as these tend to function as non-inflecting words; in this context, one could treat it like a light verb, and the non-inflecting verb as a coverb. The proverb may also be used to intensify the evidentiality/certainty behind a statement, increasing the certainty with the speaker believes something has/will/should happen.

(4) a. Awneraŋ

/alne:raŋ/ [pwne:'rãŋ] aw = ne = ra-ŋ 3.NEU.ABS = 1SG.ERG = PRO-NFUT

'I did it.'

b. Yawracaŋ awritanto raŋ

/jalracaŋ alri:tanto: raŋ/ [jæwra'cãŋ ɒwri:tãn'to: rãŋ] yaw-racaŋ aw = ri = tanto ra-ŋ PROX.NEU-land 3.NEU.ABS = 3PL.ERG = conquer PRO-NFUT

'They did 'conquer' these lands.'

c. Oyayăt kaw raŋ /o:jajət kal taŋ/ [o:jæ'jit 'kɒw tãŋ] o = yayăŋ-ta kaw ra-ŋ 3SG.FEM.ABS = PROX.LOC-ALL come PRO-NFUT

'She definitely came here.'

The prohibitive auxiliary *ye* (NFUT: *yaŋ*, NMLZ: *yo/yaw-*) is used to indicate that an action should not be undertaken by the addressee. The 2nd person referent may or may not be present when this auxiliary is used. When it is not present, the construction may be interpreted as stating that something is impossible or should not happen more generally, rather than forbidding the addressee from enacting it. The lexical verb takes the locative/neuter accusative case in the non-past and would be unmarked for case in the past, though a past prohibitive is viewed as ungrammatical.

 (5) a. Celarmanlawar ye /ce:larmanlawar je:/ [ce:larmãnlo'wor 'je:] ce = lar = manla-pa-ra ye 2SG.NOM = 3.NEU.ACC = tie.up-NMLZ-LOC PROH

'Do not tie it up.'

b. Larmanlawar ye /larmanlawar je:/ [larmãnlɒ'wɒr 'je:] lar = manla-pa-ra ye 3.NEU.ACC = tie.up-NMLZ-LOC PROH

'Nobody will tie it up.'

The abilitative auxiliary *we* (NFUT: *waŋ*, NMLZ: *wo/waw*-) is used to indicate that the agent/subject is capable of undertaking an action. This auxiliary may be used with the 2nd person to indicate an emphatic imperative. This auxiliary may also be used to indicate possibility, and when in the past tense, counterfactual statements. The nominalised verb is marked with the accusative/locative for non-past clauses, and is unmarked in past clauses.

(6) a. *Nātawwar we*

/na:talwar we:/ [na:tow'wor 'we:] nā = taw-pa-ra we 1sg.NOM = cook-NMLZ-ACC.NEU OBL

'I can cook (in general).' or 'I may cook.'

b. *Nātawwar waŋ* /na:talwar waŋ/ [na:tɒw'wɒŋ 'wɒŋ] nā = taw-pa-ra we-ŋ

1sg.nom = cook-nmlz-acc.neu obl-nfut

'I can cook (now).'

c. *Netalăw waŋ* /ne:taləw waŋ/ [ne:ta'low 'wɒŋ] ne = taw-pa we-ŋ 1SG.ERG = cook-NMLZ-ABS OBL-NFUT

'I could have cooked.'

The obligatory auxiliary *can* (NFUT: *can*, NMLZ: *cap*-) is used to indicate that the event is seen as necessary by the speaker. This auxiliary may be used with the 2nd person to indicate an emphatic imperative. This auxiliary may also be used to indicate strong probability, or inferred certainty. The nominalised verb is marked with the accusative/locative for non-past clauses, and is unmarked in past clauses.

(7) a. Cetap'ar caŋ

/ce:tap'at caŋ/ [ce:ta'p'at 'cæŋ] ce = taQ-pa-ra ca-ŋ 2SG.NOM = eat-NMLZ-ACC.NEU OBL-FUT

'You must eat (something).'

b. *Yitat'u tap caŋ* /ji:tat'əw tap caŋ/ [ji:ta't'u: 'tap 'cæŋ] yi = tat'u taQ-pa ca-ŋ 3SG.MAS.ERG = meal eat-NMLZ OBL-NFUT

'He must have eaten the meal.'

c. Etat'u tap'ar caŋ

/e:tat'əw tap'ar caŋ/ [e:ta't'u: ta'p'ar 'cæŋ] e = tat'u taQ-pa-r ca-ŋ 3SG.MAS.NOM = meal eat-NMLZ-ACC.NEU OBL-NFUT

'He must be eating the meal.'

d. Etat'u tap'ar caŋ /e:tat'əw tap'at caŋ/ [e:ta't'u: tap'at 'cæŋ] e = tat'u taQ-pa-r ca-ŋ 3SG.MAS.NOM = meal eat-NMLZ-ACC.NEU OBL-FUT

'He must eat the meal.'

The permissive auxiliary $p \check{a} w$ (NFUT: $p \check{a} \eta$, NMLZ: $p \check{a} p$) is used to indicate that the agent allows the patient of the event to enact it. This auxiliary may also be used to form a causative construction; it can be understood as a permissive if the speaker is the agent, and a causative if another referent is the agent. The nominalised verb is marked with the accusative/dative irrespective of tense.

(8) a. Wap'aw nācopăw

/wap'al na:co:pal/ [wb'pbw næ:co:'pbw] waQ-pa-ta nā = caw = păw leave-NMLZ-DAT 1SG.NOM = 2SG.ACC = PERM

'I will let you leave.'

b. *Tawwaw ceyipăŋ* /talwal ce:ji:pəŋ/ [tbw'wbw ce:ji:'piŋ] taw-pa-ta ce=yu=păw-ŋ cook-NMLZ-DAT 2SG.NOM=3SG.MAS.ACC=CAUS-NFUT

'You are making him cook.'

c. Wap'aw cayepăŋ /wap'al caje:pəŋ/ [wɒ'p'ɒw caje:'pɨŋ] waQ-pa-ta cay = e = păw-ŋ leave-NMLZ-DAT 2SG.ERG = 3SG.MAS.ABS = CAUS-NFUT

'You made him leave.'

The venitive auxiliary *kaw* (NFUT: *kaŋ*, NMLZ: *kap*-) is used to indicate motion towards the deictic centre. The nominalised verb is marked with the accusative/dative irrespective of tense.

(9) a. Artap'aw kaw /attap'aw kal/ [atta'p'bw 'kbw] ar = taQ-pa-ta kaw 3PL.NOM = eat-NMLZ-DAT VEN

'They will come here and eat.'

b. Artap'aw kaŋ /artap'al kaŋ/ [arta'p'bw 'kaŋ] ar = taQ-pa-ta kaw-ŋ 3PL.NOM = eat-NMLZ-DAT VEN-NFUT

'They are coming here to eat.'

c. Artap'aw kaŋ /aţtap'al kaŋ/ [aţţa'p'ɒw 'kaŋ] ar = taQ-pa-ta kaw-ŋ 3PL.ABS = eat-NMLZ-DAT VEN-NFUT

'They came here to eat.'

The andative auxiliary *wa* (NFUT: *waŋ*, NMLZ: *wap/wap'*-) is used to indicate motion away from the deictic centre. The nominalised verb is marked with the accusative/dative irrespective of tense.

(10) a. Pălar lap'aw owa

/palar p'al o:wa:/ [pəˈlar laˈp'ɒw o:ˈwɒ:] păw-ra laQ-pa-ta o=waQ wood-ACC.NEU take-NMLZ-DAT 3SG.FEM.NOM=AND

'She will go and take the wood there.'

b. *Pălar lap'aw owaŋ* /pəlar lap'al o:waŋ/ [pə'lar la'p'ɒw o:'wɒŋ] păw-ra laQ-pa-ta o=waQ-ŋ wood-ACC.NEU take-NMLZ-DAT 3SG.FEM.NOM=AND-NFUT

'She is taking the wood there.'

c. Păw lap'aw wewaŋ

/pəl lap'al we:waŋ/ ['pow la'p'ow we:'woŋ] păw laQ-pa-ta waQ-ŋ wood take-NMLZ-DAT 3SG.FEM.ERG = AND-NFUT

'She took the wood there.'

5 Noun Complex

Yăŋwăp nouns are inflected for case, while adjectives, determiners, and numerals are inflected for gender and number (or more precisely, gender/number, as the categories are conflated). All these word classes feature declensions, which is due to earlier mentioned morphophonological rules.

5.1 Nominal Declensions

Nominal declensions follow the same naming convention as the verbal conjugations. Consider the following declensions and their subclasses to be wholly equivalent to the same-named conjugtaions. Note that certain subclasses are only distinguished from each other in specific cases, such as declensions Ia/Ib/Ic and Id/Ie in the ablative case. The nominative/absolutive and ablative for classes II and III are the only classes that distinguish their respective a/b/c and d/e declensions.

	NOM / ADC	EDC /INST	ACC NEU/LOC		ADI
	INOINI/ABS	EKG/INSI	ACC.NEU/LOC	ACC.COM/DAT	ABL
Ia	-Ø	-е	-ar	-aw	-а
Ib	-Ø	-е	-ar	-aw	- <i>e</i>
Ic	-Ø	-е	-ar	-aw	-0
Id	-Ø	-i	-ăr	-ăw	-i
Ie	-Ø	-i	-ăr	-ăw	-U
IIa	-а	-е	-ar	-aw	-а
IIb	-е	-е	-ar	-aw	-е
IIc	-0	-е	-ar	-aw	-0
IId	-i	-i	-ăr	-ăw	-i
IIe	-u	-i	-ăr	-ăw	-U
IIIa	-а	-е	-ar	-at	-ak
IIIb	-е	-е	-ar	-at	-ak
IIIc	-0	-е	-ar	-at	-ak
IIId	-i	-i	-ăr	-ăt	-ăk
IIIe	-и	-i	-ăr	-ăt	-ăk
IVa	-аŋ	-ac	-ac	-at	-ak
IVb	-ăŋ	-ăc	-ăc	-ăt	-ăk
Va	-aw	-е	-ar	-at	-ak
Vb	-ăw	-i	-ăr	-ăt	-ăk

 Table 5: Nominal declension classes

Case markings in *Yăŋwăp* can be treated like postpositions or enclitics, as they only occur once per noun phrase, and when they are used more than once,

that is became a noun phrase is modifying a head noun. These case markings have specific functions, which I will now describe.

The nominative (NOM) or absolutive (ABS) case is the base form used for all non-final nouns within a noun phrase. This case is used to mark the subject of an intransitive clause, the agent of a non-past transitive clause, and the patient of a past transitive clause. In ditransitive clauses, it marks the agent in nonpast clauses, and the theme in past clauses. This case, or rather, the unmarked form of a noun, is used to indicate a possessor, if the relationship of possession is inalienable, or if the possessor is animate (masculine/feminine/plural).

The ergative (ERG) or instrumental (INST) case is used to mark the agent of past transitive/ditransitive clauses, as well as instruments or accompanying persons in any kind of clause.

The neuter accusative (ACC.NEU) or locative (LOC) case is used to mark a patient of the neuter class in non-past transitive/ditransitive clauses, and may be used to mark the location of an event (when modifying the clause) or a noun (when modifying a noun phrases).

The common accusative (ACC.COM) or dative (DAT) case is used to mark a patient of either the masculine, feminine or plural classes, in non-past transitive/ditransitive clauses, as well as the recipient of a ditransitive clause. It may be used to mark the purpose of an event, or the goal of a verb of motion.

The ablative (ABL) case is used to mark the source of a verb of motion, the reason for an event, and to mark an alienable inanimate (neuter) possessor.

5.2 Nominal Modifier Declensions

Modifiers of a noun, such as adjectives, numerals, and determiners, are declined obligatorily for the gender of a given noun. The gender categories are as follows: masculine MAS, feminine FEM, plural PL, and neuter NEU. Singular nouns take the masculine, feminine, and neuter, while plural nouns take the plural and neuter; masculine and feminine merge as 'plural', while neuter nouns do not distinguish number. Unlike case, all modifiers must take a gender suffix, which must agree with each other and the head noun.

Due to being obligatory, modifiers lack an 'ungendered' form, which has simplified the declension system quite a bit. There are only four declensions, instead of the usual five found with nouns, and each declension only has two sub-declensions, which are distinguished by what underlying vowel they end in with subclasses Ia, IIa, IIIa, and IVa ending in -a, and subclasses Ib, IIb, IIIb, and IVb ending in $-\check{a}$.

Modifiers may become treated as nouns, and thus take case marking themselves; in this case, each gender produces nouns belonging to specific declensions, all from declension I. These are: Id for masculine marked modifiers, Ia for feminine marked modifiers, Ie for plural marked modifiers, and Ic for neuter marked modifiers. Classes II and IV are very similar, except masculine marked class II modifiers will have -*c* may become -*c*'- when case endings are added to a modifier (assuming the consonant is not in coda position). When nominalised, neuter modifier endings, if followed by a vowel, will shift from -*Vw* to -*Vl*-, as with other cases of final -*w*.

Table 6: Modifier declension classes

	MAS	FEM	PL	NEU
Ia	-е	-0	-ar	-aw
Ib	-i	-U	-ăr	-ăw
IIa	-ac(')	-0	-ar	-aw
IIb	-ăc(')	-и	-ăr	-ăw
IIIa	-ac	-akw	-ac	-at
IIIb	-ăc	-ăkw	-ăc	-ăt
IVa	-ac	-0	-ar	-aw
IVb	-ăc	-U	-ăr	-ăw

5.3 Numerals

The following table details numerals in *Yăŋwăp*. Numerals 1-6 are simple, however, 7-9 are derived from lower numbers. The construction is a combination of *co*- which is a bound morpheme here meaning 'five', different from the usual stem *na*-, followed by a number that is added to give the total. Hence, 'seven' is 'five and two', 'eight' is 'five and three', and 'nine' is 'five and four'. Ten is a bit more complex, derived from the verb *lu* 'count', meaning literally 'that which is counted'.

	MAS	FEM	NEU
1	nyi	пуи	nyăw
	CC	DM	NEU
2	tč	ĭс	tăt
3	lč	ĭr	lăw
4	par		paw
5	уăс		yăt
6	nac		nat
7	colăc		colăt
8	colăr		colăw
9	сог	var	cowaw
10	lular		lulaw

Table 7: Cardinal Numerals

5.4 Determiners & Demonstratives

The following table details the determiners in *Yăŋwăp*. Proximal determiners (PROX) are used to indicate proximity, both spatial and temporal, and distal determiners (DIST) are used to indicate distance, both spatial and temporal. The distal determiners are used for anaphoric reference as well, and can be used as a definite marker. The interrogative determiners (INT) are used for content questions, modifying or substituting the questioned referent. The paucal (PAUC) determiner is used to indicate that there is a small amount of a given referent, while the collective determiner is used to indicate that all instances of a referent as being considered. The indefinite determiner (INDEF) is used to indicate a non-specific referent, but can only be used when referring to a single referent. The paucal determiner or no determiner at all are used when referring to multiple indefinite referents.

Table 8: Determiners

	MAS	FEM	PL	NEU
PROX 'this'	уе	уо	yar	yaw
DIST 'that'	е	0	ar	aw
INT 'which'	pe	ро	par	paw
PAUC 'some'	*	*	<u> </u>	ŋat
COL 'every'	*	*	yăr	уăw
INDEF 'a'	nyi	пуи	*	nyăw

Demonstratives in *Yăŋwăp* are derived from determiners and nouns, and are used more specifically as pronouns to refer to various kinds of referents. All determiners may be used as demonstratives, but there are additional demonstratives derived from nouns. Due to belonging to declension I, the reason demonstratives have alternative stems depending on whether it is unmarked (NOM/ABS) or marked for case.

	Table 9: Demonstratives						
	Location (nd. IVb)	Reason (nd. Ia)	Direction/Method (nd. IIId)				
PROX 'this'	уауăŋ	yowar, yawura-	yewi				
DIST 'that'	уăŋ	owar, wura-	āwi				
INT 'which'	рауăŋ	powar, pawura-	pewi				
PAUC 'some'	<i>пас</i> а́л	ŋapwar, ŋapura-	ŋakẅi				
COL 'every'	yăc'ăŋ	yăpwar, yăp'ura-	yăkẅi				
INDEF 'a'	nyăyăŋ	nyuwar, nyăwura-	nyiwi				

5.5 Personal Pronouns

Yănwăp has three sets of personal pronouns. The first, and more common set, are the pronominal clitics which have already been discussed earlier in Section 4.2. These will not be presented here, though their usage ought to be discussed. The second set are the emphatic pronouns, which are used primarily to emphasise a given person. These pronouns are primarily used for emphasis, but also have the secondary function of being reflexive pronouns, used to indicate when the patient and agent of a clause are the same. In that context, these pronouns function more similarly to the proclitics, in that they are unstressed, and take the expected position within the chain of case roles (nominative/absolutive > ergative/instrumental > dative > locative > accusative). However, when used for emphasis, the emphatic pronouns are treated as independent nouns. The third set are the possessive prefixes, which may be applied to any noun. However, these prefixes are anaphoric for 3rd person pronouns, meaning that if a possessing noun is present, the prefixes will not be. The only situation where both the possessive prefixes and explicit possessor may combine is where the noun is inalienable, as inalienable nouns require a possessive prefix, and can optionally have a possessor noun.

Table 10: Emphatic Pronouns & Possessive Prefixes								
	POSS	NOM/ABS	ERG/INST	ACC.COM/DAT	ACC.NEU/LOC	ABL		
1sg	naO	патар	патре	nampaw	nampar	патра		
1pl	nuQ-	nampay	патаруі	патаруйw	namapyăr	namapyi		
2sg	calvi	сатар	campe	campaw	campar	сатра		
2pl	<i>cu(y)</i> -	campay	сатаруі	сатаруйж	camapyăr	сатаруі		
3sg.mas	сă(у)-	сăтар	сăтре	cămpaw	cămpar	сăтра		
3sg.fem	wa-	wamap	wampe	wampaw	wampar	wampa		
3pl	ră(w)-	rămpay	rămapyi	rămapyăw	rămapyăr	rămapyi		
3.neu	la(w)-	lamap	lampe	lampaw	lampar	lampa		

 Table 10: Emphatic Pronouns & Possessive Prefixes

 NOM/ABS
 FBG/INST
 ACC COM/DAT
 ACC NEI

6 Syntax

6.1 Imperatives & Prohibitives

Imperatives in *Yăŋwăp* may be constructed via a number of different strategies, all of which have differing pragmatic functions. The most basic of which is the bare imperative, consisting of the future/unmarked verb form, without any marking of the 2nd person subject/agent via a proclitic; this is used to make a harsh/blunt command. This contrasts with the future tense proper, which requires a 2nd person subject/agent proclitic, which is a more softened command, but still implies a sense of authority by the speaker over the addressee.

(11) a. Wawtakwo!

/waltak^wo:/ [wpwtp[']k^wo:] waw=takwo 3sg.FEM.ACC=teach

'Teach her!'

b. Cewawtakwo. /ce:waltak^wo:/ [ce:wpwtp[']k^wo:] ce = waw = takwo 2SG.NOM = 3SG.FEM.ACC = teach

'You will teach her.'

There are also imperatives that are constructed with auxiliaries. The two auxiliaries used for this function are *caŋ*, the obligatory auxiliary, and *păw*, the permissive/causative auxiliary. The former is a more neutral kind of imperative, between the direct imperative and future tense is terms of forcefulness/politeness, while the latter is a formal imperative, which is more rarely used. As the name of the auxiliary indicates, can be used to indicate permission, or even a hortative, where the speaker and addressee are to do something together.

(12) a. Cewawtakwp'aw caŋ. /ce:waltak^wp'al caŋ/ [ce:wpwtpk'p'pw 'cãŋ] ce = waw = takwo-pa-ta caŋ 2SG.NOM = 3SG.FEM.ACC = teach-NMLZ-DAT OBL

'You must teach her.'

b. *Nāwawcetakwp'aw păw.* /na:walce:tak^wp'al pəl/ [nd:wdwce:tdk[']p'dw 'pow] nā=waw=caw=takwo-pa-ta păw 1sg.Nom=3sg.fem.dat=2sg.acc=teach-nmlz-dat perm

'I will let you teach her.'

c. *Naywawcetakwp'aw păw.* /najwalce:tak^wp'al pəl/ [næjwpwce:tpk'p'pw 'pow] nay = waw = caw = takwo-pa-ta păw 1PL.NOM = 3SG.FEM.DAT = 2SG.ACC = teach-NMLZ-DAT PERM

'Let's teach her (together).'

Prohibitives are constructed with the auxiliary *ye*. The prohibitive may or may not have the 2^{nd} person subject/agent proclitic present, though if it is present, that makes the prohibitive less forceful. If it is not present, the statement may also be interpreted as meaning 'nobody' can enact a given event, whether by it being disallowed or impossible. This construction is the only distinct prohibitive construction, beyond using negation with the other imperative constructions mentioned.

(13) a. Cewawtakwp'ar ye. /ce:waltak^wp'at je:/ [ce:wbwtbk'p'at 'je:] ce = waw = takwo-pa-ra 2SG.NOM = 3SG.FEM.ACC = teach-NMLZ-LOC PROH

'You cannot teach her.'

b. Wawtakwp'ar ye. /waltak^wp'at je:/ [wbwtbk'p'at 'je:] waw=takwo-pa-ra ye 3SG.FEM.ACC=teach-NMLZ-LOC PROH

'Do not teach her.' or 'Nobody can teach her.'

c. Walacyăr atkwo! /walacjət atk^wo:/ [wɒlæc'jet at'k^wo:] waw=acyăr atkwo 3sg.FEM.ACC=NEG.NPST NEG.teach

'Do not teach her!'

6.2 Questions

Polar questions in $Y \ddot{a} \eta w \ddot{a} p$ are constructed with a clause-final construction, of which there are two variants; the reduced form simply takes the form of a clause final clitic = kwi 'or', while the unreduced form is = kwi followed by $acy \ddot{a} r/acyu$ and the negative proverb CA (or the lexical verb/auxiliary used) with any required clitics attached to it. If the main clause is instead negative, then instead, the affirmative proverb RA (or the lexical verb/auxiliary used) is used with any attached proclitics.

The reduced form is much more common, and the unreduced form is primarily used for emphasis and/or formality. It terms of whether the proverb or original matrix verb are preferred, it is dependent on whether it was an auxiliary or not, or if it was the copula. Auxiliaries and the copula are preferred over the proverb, but the proverb is preferred over lexical verbs. Use of the lexical verb is indicative of strong emphasis, and may be used to imply that the addressee is perceived as being stupid or childish. However, it is also possible to go the other way and have both clauses have all their respective elements, except the second one is negated, with the first clause ending in = KWI, as in the final example in the following set.

(14) a. Kat cacyaŋ ŋaŋkwi?

/kat cacjaŋ ŋaŋk^wi:/ ['kat cæc'jãŋ ŋõŋ^w'k^wi:] kaN-w ca-căyaŋ ŋo-ŋ=kwi good-NEU 2.POSS-stomach COP-NFUT=Q

'Are you feeling well?'

b. Kat cacyaŋ ŋaŋkwi alacyăr ŋaŋ? /kat cacjaŋ ŋaŋk^wi: alacjət ŋaŋ/ ['kat cæc'jãŋ ŋõŋ^wk^wi: alac'jet 'ŋãŋ] kaN-w ca-căyaŋ ŋo-ŋ=kwi al=acyăr good-NEU 2.POSS-stomach COP-NFUT=Q 3.NEU.NOM=NEG.NPST ŋa-ŋ COP-NFUT

'Are you feeling well or are you not?'

c. Ewaŋkwi eacyu caŋ?

/e:waŋk^wi: e:acju: caŋ/ [e:wõŋ^wlk^wi: e:jac'ju: 'cæŋ] e = waQ-ŋ = kwi e = acyu ca-ŋ 3SG.MAS.ABS = leave-NFUT = Q 3SG.MAS.ABS = NEG.PST NEG.PRO-NFUT

'Did he leave or did he not?'

d. Ewaŋkwi eacyu kwaŋ?

e=acyu	kwa-ŋ
3SG.MAS.ABS = NEG.PST	NEG.leave-NFUT
	e = acyu 3SG.MAS.ABS = NEG.PST

'Did he leave or did he not leave?'

Content questions are formed by replacing the questions referent with a interrogative demonstrative or have the referent modified by an interrogative determiner. There is no wh-movement, and the referents remain in their expected position, though because a questioned referent is always not the topic, it tends to be placed on the left edge.

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(15) a. Payi pawe awpe yitaŋ?
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/paji: pawe: alpe: taŋ/ [pæˈji: pɒˈwe: ɒwˈpe: ˈtãŋ] pe-yă po-yă aw-pe taQ-ŋ INT.MAS-ERG INT.FEM-ERG DIST.NEU-fish eat-NFUT

'Who ate the fish?'

b. Paw yitaŋ? /pal ji:taŋ/ ['pow ji:'tãŋ] paw yi = taQ-ŋ INT.NEU 3.MAS.ERG = eat-NFUT

'What did he eat?'

```
c. Paw wecawtaŋ?
/pal we:caltaŋ/
['ppw we:cæw'tãŋ]
paw we=caw=ciQ-ŋ
INT.NEU 3SG.FEM.ERG=2SG.DAT=give-NFUT
```

'What did she give you?'

d. Payăt cewaŋ?

/pajət ce:waŋ/ [pæ'jit ce:'wõŋ] payăŋ-ta ce=waQ-ŋ INT.LOC-ALL 2SG.ABS=go-NFUT

'Where did you go?'

e. *Payăk cekaŋ?* /pajək ceːkaŋ/ [pæˈjik ceːˈkãŋ] payăŋ-ka ce=kaw-ŋ INT.LOC-ABL 2SG.ABS=go-NFUT

'Where did you come from?'

f. Yayăt pawuraw cekaŋ? /jajət pawu:ral ce:kaŋ/ [jæ'jit pɒwu:'rɒw ce:'kãŋ] yayăŋ-ta powar-ta ce=kaw-ŋ PROX.LOC-ALL INT.PURP-DAT 2SG.ABS=go-NFUT

'Why did you come here?'

g. Pocăpme oŋaŋ?

/po:cəpme: o:ŋaŋ/ [po:cep¹me: o:'ŋãŋ] po-căpme o=ŋo-ŋ INT.FEM-wife 3SG.FEM.NOM=COP

'Whose wife is she?'

7 Emotional Semantics

In *Yăŋwăp*, there is no explicit verb used to mean 'feel', but rather, a copular construction combines the nominal *căyaŋ*, which literally means 'stomach', while marked with a possessive prefix to indicate the undergoer, with an adjective. With 'feeling' verbs, that being stative verbs that indicate some kind of physical or psychological feeling, these are combined with *căyaŋ* with a possessive prefix to indicate the undergoer.

(16) a. Kat nacyaŋ ŋaŋ

/kat nacjaŋ ŋaŋ/ ['kat næc'jæŋ 'ŋãŋ] kaN-w na-căyaŋ ŋo-ŋ good-NEU 1.POSS-stomach COP-NFUT

'I am well/sated/pleased.'

b. Kat nacyaŋ ŋaŋ

/kat nacjaŋ ŋaŋ/ [ˈkat næcˈjæ̃ŋ ˈŋãŋ] kaN-w na-căyaŋ ŋo-ŋ good-NEU 1.POSS-stomach COP-NFUT

'I am well/sated/pleased.'

This can distinguish verbs that indicate some state with a metaphorical meaning that refers to a feeling, such as *taw*, which can mean 'burn', but when used in an emotion construction, it refers to a stomach ache, or more abstractly, to any bodily ache.

(17) a. Awtăŋ taŋ

/altəŋ taŋ/ [ɒwˈtɨŋ tãŋ] aw-tăŋ taw-ŋ DIST.NEU-tree burn-NFUT

'The tree is burning.'

 b. Nacyaŋ taŋ /nacjaŋ taŋ/ [næc'jãŋ 'tãŋ] na-căyaŋ taw-ŋ 1.POSS-stomach burn-NFUT

'I am aching.'

The basic words for cognitive emotions are as follows, with approximate English translations given, divided by emotional categories.

Words covering 'anger, anguish, sadness':

- cacă- (mod. adj.): angry, sad.
- cacăw (n. neu.): anger, sadness.
- cacăcme (n. neu.): wrath, depression.
- cacăr (v. tr.): anger, goad, sadden, aggrieve.

Words covering 'fear, hate, disgust':

- kwăna- (mod. adj.): afraid, disgusted.
- kwănaw (n. neu.): fear, hatred, disgust.
- *kwănacme* (n. neu.): cowardice, bigotry, phobia.
- *kwănar* (v. tr.): frighten, make disgusted.

Words covering 'shame':

- rawă- (mod. adj.): ashamed.
- rawăw (n. neu.): shame.
- rawăcme (n. neu.): self-hatred.
- rawăr (v. tr.): ashame.

Words covering 'joyful, pleased, happy':

- păwa- (mod. adj.): joyful, pleased, happy.
- păwaw (n. neu.): joy, pleasure, happiness.
- păwacme (n. neu.): acceptance, contentment.
- *păwar* (v. tr.): lighten up, please.

There are a number of words covering the category of 'love', which do not easily translate to English terms.

Words covering '(familial/fraternal) love, (group) loyalty, compassion':

- cămă- (mod. adj.): loving, loyal, patriotic, compassionate.
- cămăw (n. neu.): love, fraternity, compassion.
- cămăcme (n. neu.): patriotism, loyalty, filial piety, kindness.
- cămăr (v. tr.): adopt (into a community), make loving.

Words covering '(romantic) love, (peer) loyalty':

- naya- (mod. adj.): in-love, loyal.
- *nayat* (n. neu.): love, (individual) loyalty, devotion.
- *nayacme* (n. neu.): kindness, romance, loyalty, devotion.
- *nayar* (v. tr.): form a relationship with.

Words covering '(parental) love, devotion':

- *ŋwăla* (mod. adj.): supporting, devoted.
- *ŋwălaw* (n. neu.): parental love, devotion.
- *ŋwălacme* (n. neu.): parenthood, devotion, adherence.
- *ŋwălar* (v. tr.): adopt (as a parent), devote oneself to (a deity).

8 Examples

The following examples are taken from the list of Conlang Syntax Test Cases, randomly selected and then translated into *Yăŋwăp*.

(18) a. Răwaw karuyi ŋaŋkwi pawaw karuyi ŋaŋ?

/<code>tpwal karu:ji: nankwi pawal karu:ji: nan/</code> [<code>to'wpw karu:'ji: nonwikwi: pp'wpw karu:'ji: 'nan]</code> rawa-w karu-yi no-n = kwi pawaw karu-yi no-n grue-NEU sky-face COP-NFUT = or pale-NEU sky-face COP-NFUT

'Does the sky look blue or gray?' (Conlang Syntax Test 116)

b. Kwănalakpar wakwăŋ nayŋaŋ natrăw nacmăcme ŋaŋ

/k^wənalak'par wak^wəŋ naʎŋaŋ natrəw nacməcme: ŋaŋ/ [k^wõnalak'par wɒ'k^wũŋ næjnãŋ nat'row nacmec'me: ŋãŋ] kwănaw-k'e-pa-ra wakwăŋ nay=ŋo-ŋ na-taru-ta fear-lack-NMLZ-LOC people 1PL.NOM=COP-NFUT 1.POSS-country-DAT

na-cămăcme ŋo-ŋ 1.POSS-fraternal.love COP-NFUT

'We are a brave people, and love our country.' (Conlang Syntax Test 140)

c. Kakaw tăwmawar tăc yăk'ăc tăc răpăwcăk yăŋāwăc tacăŋ

/kakal təlmawar təc jək'əc təc rəpəwcək jəŋa:wəc tacəŋ/ [ka'kɒw towmɒwɒr tec je'k'ic 'tec rəpow'cik jēŋp:'wic tæ'cæŋ] ka-ka-w tăw-mo-pa-ra tă-r yăk'ă-r tăc REDUP-good-NEU sun-fall-NMLZ-LOC two-PL old-PL pair

ră-păwcăŋ-ka yăŋaQ-wăŋ-ra tac-ŋ 3PL.POSS-house-ABL door-side-LOC sit-NFUT

'On a fine summer evening, the two old people were sitting outside the door of their cottage.' (Conlang Syntax Test 144)

d. Cămăŋwarwo tăk căyac kwarowăwe căpăp raŋ

/cəməŋwarwo: tək cəjac k^waro:wəwe: cəpəp raŋ/ [cēmēŋ^wwɒrˈwo: 'tik ce'jæc k^wɒro:wo'we: ce'pɨp 'räŋ] căŋŋoraw-ka tăŋ-ka căyaŋ-ra kwară-wa-wăwo-yă apple-ABL tree-ABL middle-LOC red-FEM-little.bird-ERG că-păp ra-ŋ MASC.POSS-nest build-NFUT

'A robin has built his nest in the apple tree.' (Conlang Syntax Test 91)

e. *Kayrăr kawi cărăkwar caŋ* /kaλŋəŋ kawi: cəŋək'waŋ caŋ/

[kæjˈrər kɒ	wi: cerek'	wɒr ˈcæŋ]	
kayră-r	kawi-yă	că = răk-pa-ra	caŋ
clean-NEU	way-INST	2SG.NOM = write-NMLZ-ACC.NEU	OBL

'You must write more neatly.' (Conlang Syntax Test 37)

9 Lexicon

The following is a dictionary, exhaustively listing the vocabulary of *Yăŋwăp*. This excludes affixes and clitics, which are defined over the course of this description. The following format is used for each entry:

word (word class) declension/conjugation • definition.

This structure is applied to all words, except those that do not inflect, such as particles, which lack a defined declension/conjugation. To understand what these declensions/conjugations are, and how they pattern, please refer to the relevant sections on the document. Slashes in the *word* section indicate alternate forms of a stem found in inflected/conjugated forms. For all declension I nominals, and conjugation I verbs (as well as inflected forms of all gerunds), the stem alternates to some degree due to final vowel loss, and for stems with more than one underlying syllable, this can become quite complex, hence the need to write down these alternate stems.

A

a- (det.) Ia • distal determiner (DIST); can function as a definite article or topic marker. *acyăr* (part.) • non-past negative particle (NEG.NPST).

acyu (part.) • past negative particle (NEG.PST).

 $\bar{a}wi$ (n. pro.) IIId • distal direction demonstrative 'that way' (DIST.DIR).

С

caŋ (v. aux.) IVa • obligatory auxiliary (OBL); indicates obligation, necessity, strong probability, or certainty.
cacă (mod. adj.) Ib • angry, sad.
cacăcme (n. neu.) IIIb • wrath, depression.
cacăr (v. tr.) Ia • anger, goad, sadden, aggrieve.
cacăw (n. neu.) IC • anger, sadness.
came (n. neu.) IIb • blood, bodily fluids, (physical) strength, vitality.
cap (n. neu.) Ie • branch, stick, portion.
camap/camp- (n. pro.) Ia • 2nd person singular pronoun.
cămap/cămāŋwarw- (n. neu.) Ic • apple.
cămăr (mod. adj.) Ib • loving, loyal, patriotic, compassionate.
cămăr (v. tr.) Ia • anger, goad, sadden, aggrieve.
cămăr (v. tr.) Ia • anger, goad, sadden, aggrieve.
cămăw (n. neu.) Ic • love, fraternity, compassion.

căme (n. mas.) IIIb • (adult) man, father (when marked with possessor).
căcme/căcăm- (n. mas.) IVa • husband.
căŋ (n. mas.) IVb • child, boy, girl.
căpme/căpam- (n. fem.) IVa • wife.
căyaŋ (n. neu.) IVa • stomach, body, feelings.
ci (v. tr.) IIId • give, sell, lose (something).
co (v. tr.) IIc • call (like a bird).
colă- (mod. num.) IIb • seven.
colă- (mod. num.) Ib • eight.
cowa- (mod. num.) Ia • nine.

K

ka- (det.) IIIa • good, well, pleased, sated. *kac* (v. tr.) Id • bear, birth, rear. *kaŋ* (v. tr.) IVa • rise, climb, move upward. *kamaw* (n. mas.) Ib • large flying bird. *karu* (n. neu.) IIIe • sky, roof, firmament, heavens. *kaw* (v. aux.) Va • venitive auxiliary (VEN). *kaw/ak*- (n. neu) Ia • apple. *kaw* (v. intr.) Va • come, arrive, enter. *kayră*- (mod. adj.) Ib • clean, pure, neat, healthy, honourable.

K'

k'e/ak'a- (v. tr.) IIb • lack.

KW

kwară- (mod. adj.) Ib • red, orange, brown, ruddy. *kwama*- (mod. adj.) IIa • big, wide, great, powerful. *kwăna*- (mod. adj.) IIa • afraid, disgusted. *kwănacme* (n. neu.) IIIb • cowardice, bigotry, phobia. *kwănar* (v. tr.) Ia • frighten, make disgusted. *kwănaw* (n. neu.) Ic • fear, hatred, disgust.

L

la (v. intr.) IIIa • take, buy, seize. *lamap/lamp-* (n. pro.) Ia • 3^{rd} person neuter pronoun. *lă-* (mod. num.) Ib • three. *lu* (v. tr.) Ie • count, include, add (to a set). *lula*- (mod. num.) Ia • ten.

Μ

maŋ (n. neu.) Ia • fibre, rope. *manla* (v. tr.) IIa • bind, tie up. *mak* (n. mas.) Ia • wild animal, beast. *măyi* (n. neu.) IId • fruit. *mo* (v. intr.) IIc • fall, descend, escape.

Ν

na- (mod. num.) IIIa • six.
naya (mod. adj.) IIIa • in-love, loyal.
nayacme (n. neu.) IIIb • kindness, romance, loyalty, devotion.
nayat (n. neu.) Ic • love, (individual) loyalty, devotion.
nayar (v. tr.) Ia • form a relationship with.
namap/namp- (n. pro.) Ia • 1st person singular pronoun.
nampay/namapy- (n. pro.) Ia • 1st person plural pronoun.

NY

nyă- (mod. num.) Ib • one.
nyări (v. intr.) IIId • unify, become one.
nyă- (det.) Ib • indefinite determiner (PAUC).
nyăyăŋ (n. pro.) IVb • indefinite locative demonstrative 'somewhere' (INDEF.LOC).
nyiwi (n. pro.) IVb • indefinite direction demonstrative 'some way' (INDEF.DIR).
nyuwar/nyăwura- (n. pro.) Ia • indefinite purposive demonstrative 'some reason' (INDEF.PURP).

ŋ

yo (v. intr.) IIc • stand, copula (COP). *ya*- (det.) IIIa • paucal determiner (PAUC). *yakwi* (n. pro.) IIId • paucal direction demonstrative 'a few ways' (PAUC.DIR). *yapwar/yapura*- (n. pro.) Ia • pacual purposive demonstrative 'a few reasons' (PAUC.PURP). *yayăŋ* (n. pro.) IVb • paucal locative demonstrative 'a few places' (PAUC.LOC).

ŊW

ŋwo (v. intr.) IIIc • speak, talk, chatter.
ŋwawa- (mod. adj.) Ia • heavy, massive, fat
ŋwăla- (mod. adj.) IIa • supporting, devoted.
ŋwălacme (n. neu.) IIIb • parenthood, devotion, adherence.
ŋwălar (v. tr.) Ia • adopt (as a parent), devote onself to (a diety).
ŋwălaw (n. neu.) Ic • parental love, devotion.

0

owar/wura- (n. pro.) Ia • distal purposive demonstrative 'that reason' (DIST.PURP).

Р

pa- (mod. num.) Ia • four. *pa*- (det.) Ia • interrogative determiner (INT). pawa- (mod. adj.) Ia • white, pale, grey, blank. păp (n. neu.) Ib • nest, lair. *păt* (v. tr.) Ia • see, observe, watch. *păw* (n. neu.) Ia • wood, log, (tree) trunk, base (of an object). *păw* (v. aux.) Vb • permissive/causative auxiliary (PERM/CAUS); indicates that the agent allows the patient of an event to enact it. *păw* (v. tr.) Vb • send, order, direct. *păwa*- (mod. adj.) Ia • joyful, pleased, happy. păwacme (n. neu.) IIIb • joy, pleasure, happiness. *păwar* (v. tr.) Ia • lighten up, please. *păwaw* (n. neu.) Ic • acceptance, contentment. păwcăŋ/pălac- (n. neu.) Ia • (small, wooden) house, cottage, annex (extension of larger house). *pewi* (n. pro.) IIId • interrogative direction demonstrative 'how' (INT.DIR). pe (n. neu.) IIIb • arm peyăn (n. neu.) IVb • hand pe (n. neu.) Ic • fish payăŋ (n. pro.) IVb • interrogative locative demonstrative 'where' (INT.LOC). powar/pawura- (n. pro.) Ia • interrogative purposive demonstrative 'why' (INT.PURP).

P'

p'ă- (mod. adj.) IIIb • tall, long *apri/p'ăr*- (v. intr.) IIId • grow taller, grow longer

ra (v. aux.) Ia • proverb (PRO); substitutes another lexical verb, combines with non-inflecting borrowed verbs as light verb, and can indicate certainty. *rawă*- (det.) IVb • ashamed, dishonoured. *rawăcme* (n. neu.) IIIb • self-hatred. *rawăr* (v. tr.) Ia • ashame, dishonour. *rămap/rămp*- (n. pro.) Ia • 3rd person plural common pronoun. *răwa*- (mod. adj.) IVa • green, blue, grue *răk/răk'a*- (v. tr.) Ia • carve, draw, write. *ro* (v. tr.) IIc • cut, slice, split.

Т

ta (v. tr.) IIIa • eat, envelop, destroy. *tac* (v. intr.) Id • sit, stay, remain, inhabit. *takwo* (v. tr.) IIIc • teach, instruct, tame. *tanto* (v. tr.) non-inflecting • conquer, invade, annex. *taru* (n. neu.) IIe • land, territory, country. *tat'u* (n. neu.) IIe • meal, dish, piece of food. *taw* (v. tr.) Id • cook, boil, burn. *tă*- (mod. num.) IIIb • two. *tăŋ* (n. neu.) IVb • tree. *tătăŋ* (n. neu.) IVb • forest. *tăw* (n. neu.) Vb • the Sun. *totu/tawat*- (v. tr.) IIe • discard, remove, expel, exile. *totu/tawat*- (v. intr.) IIE • defecate (euphemistic).

W

wa (v. aux.) IIIa • andative auxiliary (AND). *wa* (v. intr.) IIIa • go, leave, exit. *wak'awă*- (det.) Ib • other, foreign, different *wakwăŋ* (n. pl.) IVb • people, group, community. *wamap/wamp*- (n. pro.) Ia • 3rd person singular feminine pronoun. *wame* (n. fem.) IIIb • (adult) woman, mother (when marked with possessor). *wayaw/wel*- (n. fem.) Ie • bitch. *wăŋ* (n. neu.) IVb • side, edge, nearby. *wăwo* (n. fem.) IIC • small flying bird. *we* (v. aux.) IIB • abilitative auxiliary (ABIL); indicates the agent/subject is capable of undertaking an action, may be used to indicate an imperative, possibility, and counterfactuals (in the past tense). *we* (v. tr.) IIb • taste, know, understand, remember.

R

wo (n. neu.) Ie • seed, source, origin.

Y

ya- (det.) Ia • proximal determiner (PROX). yayăŋ (n. pro.) IVb • proximal locative demonstrative 'here' (PROX.LOC). van/vam- (n. mas.) Id • horse, stallion. yankacma (n. fem.) IIIb • mare. yaw/yal- (n. mas.) Ie • dog. yawkacma (n. fem.) IIIb • bitch (archaic). yayaŋ/yeŋ- (n. mas.) IVa • snake. $y\ddot{a}$ - (mod. num.) IIIb • five. vă- (det.) IIb • collective determiner (COL). *yăk'ă*- (mod. adj.) IVb • old, senior, superior, earlier *yǎkwi* (n. pro.) IVb • indefinite direction demonstrative 'every way' (INDEF.DIR). yǎŋ (n. pro.) IVb • distal locative demonstrative 'there' (DIST.LOC). *yăŋwap* (n. neu.) Ia • the name of the language (lit. all-speaking). yăna (n. neu.) IIIa • door. yăpwar/yăp'ura- (n. pro.) Ia • collective purposive demonstrative 'every reason' (COL.PURP). yăyă- (mod. adj.) IVb • short, small yi (n. neu.) Id • face, front, expression, appearance *yăyăŋ* (n. pro.) IVb • collective locative demonstrative 'everywhere' (COL.LOC). *yewi* (n. pro.) IIId • proximal direction demonstrative 'this way' (PROX.DIR). yowar/yawura- (n. pro.) Ia • proximal purposive demonstrative 'this reason' (PROX.PURP).