# Pazè Yiù

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14<sup>th</sup> Speedlang Challenge

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## **Abbreviations**

1	1 <sup>st</sup> person	INTR	intransitive
2	2 <sup>nd</sup> person	IPFV	imperfective
3	3 <sup>rd</sup> person	IRR	irrealis
ABL	ablative	LOC	locative
AL	alienable	PERF	perfect
AOR	aorist	PL.	plural
COL	collective	PN	-
COP	copula		proper noun
DAT	dative	POSS	possessive
DIST	distal	PROV	proverb
ЕМРН	emphatic	PROX	proximal
IN	innessive	REFL	reflexive
INAL	inalienable	SG	singular
INST	instrumental	SGV	singulative
INT	interrogative	TR	transitive

## 1 Introduction

#### 1.1 Overview

In Section 1, I introduce Pazè Yiù, the conventions used throughout this document, and the history of the language, internally and externally, 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 4 and 3, I describe the noun complex and verb complex, respectively, and all their modifiers. In Section 5, I describe the syntactic rules of the language, discussing how various clauses are constructed. In Section 6, I give some examples of the language in use, and in Section 6, I give a description of how loanwords are incorporated into the language and their affect on the phonology.

## 1.2 Conventions

In this document, romanised Pazè Yiù text is coloured *blue* and italicised; Wolhut, another language discussed briefly in this document has its text coloured *orange* 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. Therefore, in the case of nouns where the default number is singular, dual, or plural/collective, this number is unmarked in gloss, or with the case of verbs, as the realis mood is unmarked and is default, it is unmarked.

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 conlang created within a time constraint. Pazè Yiù was created within the timeframe of the 14<sup>th</sup> speedlang challenge, Friday, 10 March 2023 and Sunday, 26 March

2023 (technically 27 March when I submitted). The challenge was proposed by Akam Chinjir (u/akamchinjir), with the following constraints abridged from the original document:

- · Have at least three marginal phonemes
- Have a morphophonological conspiracy, that being multiple unrelated processes causing a surface level constraint
- · Have a TAM category called the aorist
- Have no stative verbs
- Have a class of body part expressions with distinctive grammatical behaviour
- Have exactly as many adpositions as vowel phonemes, with no. of prepositions = no. of front vowels, and no. of postpositions = no. of back vowels

And the following three tasks:

- Showcase the language in a document that shows these constraints being fulfilled
- Show at least fiveways of saying "yes" or "okay"
- Translate and gloss at least five example sentences from "syntax test sentences" or from 5MOYD

The marginal phoneme constraint is fulfilled by the set of post-alveolar consonants /p  $\widehat{t_J}$   $\widehat{d_Z}$   $\int/$ , which only occur in loanwords or a small set of reduced grammatical words and slang words (2, 6). The morphophonological conspiracy present is a restriction on (C)V syllable structure, preventing codas even though underlyingly, they are allowed (2.2), and cause a number of alternations as clusters are reduced in a variety of ways (??, splitting nouns, verbs, and adjectives into declension/conjugation classes dependent on their underlying codas.

The language features an aorist tense/aspect, which is unmarked and is primarily a perfective or gnomic (3.3.1), though it can also serve as an imperative, though this kind of imperative is the most impolite construction (5.1). The language lacks stative verbs, which are primarily fulfilled by using the imperfective aspect with verbs (3.3.2), and the copula (3.6), which is formally a determiner, not a verb, with adjectives. Body part terms are unique in the language as being the only nouns that can have an unmarked dual number, as well as requiring inalienable possessive prefixes (shared with deictic/relator

nouns and kinship terms), though due to semantic shift, other words behave like body parts due to originally being body part terms. Pazè Yiù features three prepositions and two postpositions, which are derived from verbs and relator nouns, respectively; this may make it seem like there is a heavy constraint on adpositions, and thus, make it hard to convey positional meaning, but relator nouns serve to indicate position, combining with one of two postpositions, which indicate position beside/on and inside/within, respectively. The language features five adpositions (4.6), with three prepositions for each front vowel, and two postpositions for each back vowel; in my opinion, this was the most restrictive constraint, which essentially forced me to adopt a SVO word order and head-final noun phrases, imitating, to a degree, the syntax of Mandarin Chinese.

The three tasks are fulfilled by the document itself, Section 5.2.1, where the responses for questions are given, which covers the various words for "yes" and "no" in Pazè Yiù, and in Section 6, where examples from "syntax test sentences" are given, respectively.

## 1.4 Internal History

Pazè Yiù is a Ihutic language, belonging to the Southwestern branch of the family, typified by its simple syllable structure and complex metaphony rules, which are only found in a few other Ihutic languages. The language has heavily borrowed from the Central Ihutic language Wolhut (*Vohù*), spoken by the Hajeng (*Hazè*) people who rule the Pazè (note their endonyms are cognate), and borrowings from Kasyut will be discussed in Section 6. There are other language that have influenced the language, such as the languages of the *Daceca* (lit. 'hill tribes'), the Pazè Yiù term for the indigenous peoples of the lands they live in. Most of the borrowings from these languages occurred before the sound changes that heavily distinguished Pazè Yiù from other Ihutic languages, meaning that they are indistinguishable from native words in terms of shape and consonant/vowel restrictions.

## 2 Phonology

## 2.1 Phonemic Inventory

Pazè Yiù features an average sized consonant inventory, of 24 consonants, though given 4 of these are marginal, that being /p  $\widehat{t}$   $\widehat{d}$   $\widehat{d}$   $\Im$   $\Im$ , it could be suggested that in almost all native words, there are only 21 contrastive consonants. This can be further reduced down to 18, as the aspirated stops may be considered allophonic realisations of other consonants.

Figure 1: Consonants						
	Labial	Dental	Alveolar	Postalveolar	Velar	Glottal
Nasal	/m/		/n/	/n/	/ŋ/	
rasar	m		n	n(y)	ng	
Stops	/p p <sup>h</sup> b/ p ph b	/t t <sup>h</sup> d/			$/k k^h g/$	
зюря	p ph b	t th d			k kh g	
Affricates			$/\widehat{ts}  \widehat{dz}/$	/t∫ d͡ʒ/		
Amicales			c z	c(y) z(y)		
Fricatives	/f v/ f v		/s/	/ʃ/		/h/
riicatives	fν		S	s(y)		h
Liquids			/r/	/j/		
Liquius			r	y		

The vowel inventory of the language is typologically common, having a five vowel inventory that contrasts the cardinal vowels /a e o i u/. However, the language also features two diphthongs, /əi̯ əu̯/, which can be synchronically reconstructed as allophones of /i u/ respectively, which underlyingly occur before /ŋ k g h¹/.

Figure 2: Vowels			
	Front	Central	Back
High	/i/		/u/
111611	i		$\boldsymbol{u}$
Mid	/e/		/o/
WIIU	e		0
Low		/a/	
LOW		a	
Diphthongs	/əi̯/		/ə <u>u</u> /
Dibittions	ay		aw

Due to being intrinsically related to the phonotactics and morphophonology, archiphonemes will be discussed in such sections when relevant, though they can be considered part of the phonemic inventory, all of them are directly related to actual phonemes, and thus, shouldn't be considered as being contrastive.

## 2.2 Phonotactics

Pazè Yiù has an extremely simple surface syllable structure, with a basic constraint:

## (C)V

C: Any consonant except  $/p^h t^h k^h/$  initially, and any consonant except /j/ intervocalically.

V: A vowel; this vowel must be /a/ or /i/ if unstressed and not preceded by /i/, /v/, or another vowel.

An exception to the rule around  $/p^h$   $t^h$   $k^h/$  is found with reduced, grammatical words, or slang, where unstressed syllables can be dropped, leading to words beginning with aspirated stops, and in borrowings, where intervocalic /j/ can also occur. It should be noted that intervocalic /j/ and initial  $/p^h$   $t^h$   $k^h/$  are commonly either dropped and turned into tenuis stops, respectively, but urban speakers generally retain them. However, this syllable structure does not explain the complex morphophonology of the language, and thus, an underlying structure may better help explain the various alternations found in inflected forms. This syllable structure is as follows, for native words:

## $(C^1)V(C^2)$

 $C^1$ : /m n ŋ ph th kh p t  $\widehat{ts}$  k b d  $\widehat{dz}$  g f s h<sub>1</sub> h<sub>2</sub> v r j/1

V: Any vowel except  $/ \ni i \ni i$ , however the archiphoneme  $/ \ni /$  is included<sup>2</sup>, which is the only vowel that can only appear in weak, non-final unstressed syllables.

 $C^2$ : /N p t  $\widehat{ts}$  k f s h<sub>1</sub> h<sub>2</sub> v r j/

#### 2.3 Prosody

In Pazè Yiù, stress is phonemic, and occurs either on the penultimate or ultimate syllables. Stress doesn't have a great deal of importance in allophonic processes, though historically it caused gemination, which blocked lenition processes. In the romanised orthography, the stress accent is marked by a grave accent  $(\mathring{V})$ , though long stressed vowels are indicated by a circumflex

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup>As stated in the previous paragraph, aspirated stops only occur initially due to syllable dropping, though how they are formed is explained in the next section.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup>This vowel is not realised as schwa, but can be synchronically analysed as a non-low central vowel.

 $(\hat{v})$ , and unstressed long vowels are indicated by an acute accent  $(\hat{v})$ . Long vowels arise from two of the same vowel in a foot combining when they are in hiatus; feet are determined by stress, following that preceding the stress accent, there are trochees. If hiatus occurs, and there are three of the same vowel in a row, then the long vowel falls in a single foot every time; if there is only two vowels, it will just become a long vowel, no matter if the two vowels are in separate feet.

Vowel reduction rules, which turn most vowels into a and i, are determined by stress, falling on the weak syllables of each trochee. However, vowel reduction does not occur to a final vowel, and if enclitics are appended, the trochee rule follows rightward from stress. Thus, a word like kara 'filled, sated', when appended with the copula = ru, becomes kariru, with the second vowel affected by vowel reduction and metaphony, turning it into i.

## 2.4 Phonological Processes & Morphophonology

In Pazè Yiù, there are a large number of alternations associated with stems, affixes and clitics, and to understand them, the phonological rules that turn the underlying syllables into the surface realisation must be described. These rules also apply within stems, and are a major cause of restrictions in stem shape, which will be explained when relevant in this section. These phonological processes will be described in order, which is relevant due to the diachronic layers of these developments. Due to borrowings after the processes synchronically occurred, not all stems will follow these rules internally, but most will follow them when it comes to inflection and derviation.

- 1. **First palatalisation:**  $/\eta k g h_2/ \rightarrow /n \hat{ts} d\hat{z} h_1/$  before /j i e/.
- 2. **Unstressed syllable reduction:** Stress historically fell on one of the last two syllables, falling on the last closed one, or if neither was closed, the penultimate syllable. After this point, until the cliticisation of a number of morphemes, such as possessive and agreement markers, all unstressed syllables within a word would have no coda. This syllable constraint importantly effected a number of morphemes, such as the adjectival/nominal negation prefix a(m)-, which lost its final nasal in all contexts except when preceding a vowel initial word.
- 3. Laryngeal gemination: /h<sub>2</sub>/ geminates any adjacent consonant when clustered, but is lost after this point (except it partakes in nasal fortition, its modern reflex being /k<sup>h</sup>/). It devoices voiced obstruents, but does not aspirate stops.
- 4. **Glide insertion:** Any high vowel that is initial receives a prothetic glide, being /j/ before /i/, and /w/ before /u/. This rule also applies intervocalically, but between any non-low vowel and another vowel, with /e i/

causing the insertion of a following /j/, and /o u/ causing the insertion of a vollowing /w/.

- 5. **Vowel affection:** Coda /v r j/ all effect preceding vowels, with:
  - Any non-high vowel followed by /v/ becoming /o/, and any high vowel becoming /u/. Coda /w/ is lost.
  - Any non-high vowel followed by /j/ becoming /e/, and any high vowel becoming /i/. Coda /j/ is lost.
  - /ir ur/ become /er or/.
- 7. **Second palatalisation:** Medially /Cj/ clusters are palatalised, as follows: /tj dj sj/ $\rightarrow$ /ts dz h<sub>1</sub>/. All other clusters remain the same or have already been palatalised.
- 8. **Stress-based gemination/glottalisation:** If the stressed syllable has no coda, the following consonant is lengthened, and if the word is monosyllabic, then a glottal stop is inserted. This rule applies after the cliticisation and destressing of agreement/possessive prefixes. This is why the irrealis agreement prefixes lack any apparent gemination of the irrealis morpheme *yi*-, despite its initial glide.
- 9. **Debuccalisation:** /f ts s h<sub>1</sub>/ merge in coda position as /H/, while /p t k/ merge in coda position as /?/, but both of these are lost, causing gemination, which is itself later lost; the difference between the two is /H/ causes aspiration/devoicing of a following obstruent, while /?/ is neutral, and does not aspirate/devoice an adjacent obstruent.
- 10. **Vowel reduction:** Leftward from the stressed syllable, every odd numbered syllable is weak, and the vowel is reduced to /ə/, footed with the syllable to the right of it as an iamb. In contexts where the stressed syllable is not-antepenultimate, this rule also goes rightward, but does not reduce a final vowel. This reduced vowel is marked as *A*, always capitalised, to indicate that it is different from /a/, as it can become affected by metaphony, raised to /i/, but otherwise merging with /a/.
- 11. **Glide affection:** Unstressed /ə/ becomes /e/ and /o/ after /j/ and /w/ respectively.
- 12. **Glide dropping:** If a glide occurs non-initially, it is dropped. If it occurred in a coda position, vowel affection occurs again.
- 13. Lenition: Intervocalic consonants are lenited, as follows:

• 
$$/v j/ \rightarrow /\emptyset \emptyset/$$

- /b d  $\widehat{dz}$  g f s  $h_1/ \rightarrow /v$  r  $\emptyset$  G v r G/
- /p t  $\widehat{ts}$  k/  $\rightarrow$  /b d  $\widehat{dz}$  g/
- 14. Rhotic loss: Rhotic consonants are lost in coda position.
- 15. **Aspiration:**  $/h_1/$  causes aspiration of a preceding stop and is lost; it devoices a voiced affricate.
- 16. **A-mutation:** Leftward from the right-edge, /a/ causes any preceding high vowel to become a mid vowel.
- 17. **Metaphony:** Leftward from the right-edge, high vowels cause any preceding mid vowel, including /ə/ to become a high vowel, /i/.
- 18. **Nasal-shift:** Nasal consonants cause preceding high vowels to become mid vowels. This rule is blocked by an intervening /H/ or /?/, which still existed at this point.
- 19. **Central vowel merger:** /ə/ merges with /a/ and /i/ merges with /i/ in all contexts.
- 20. **Velar breaking:** Before /ŋ k g G/ high vowels are broken, becoming /əi̯ əu̯/. /G/ is lost after this point, making these consonants phonemic.
- 21. **Nasal loss:** The last remaining coda consonants, nasals, are lost. Phonetic nasalisation of vowels remains when an onset nasal precedes a vowel.
- 22. **Uvularisation**: When adjacent to a back vowel but not to a front vowel, velar consonants become uvular or retracted-velar, meaning  $/\eta$  k g/ $\rightarrow$  [N q G]. This is allophonic, and uvulars do not occur in loan words, meaning they are not marginal phonemes.
- 23. **Third palatalisation:** Alveolar consonants /n ts dz s/ become post-alveolar  $[n t] d\overline{s}$   $d\overline{s}$  when preceding /i. This rule makes these consonants allophonic except in loan words.

## 3 Verbs

Verbs as a class in Pazè Yiù can be defined by their use of postposed negation, and being allowed to use agreement prefixes and auxiliaries, which precede the verb stem. This definition allows nominalised, subordinate verbs to be considered as nouns, as they cannot use postposed negation, and cannot use agreement/auxiliaries; however, nominalised verbs can have arguments, they just lack any agreement with those arguments.

## 3.1 Agreement

In Pazè Yiù, there is obligatory agreement for the subject/agent of a finite verb, and non-obligatory agreement for the patient, theme, and recipient of a finite verb. The former is marked via a prefix, and the latter via enclitics that follow the verb stem. One distinction between these two kinds of agreement is found in the 3<sup>rd</sup> person, where the 3<sup>rd</sup> person is unmarked for subject/agent agreement, and lacks any number/animacy distinction, which it has in enclitic agreement. Subject/agent agreement is fused with irrealis marking, which leads to irrealis 3<sup>rd</sup> person agreement being marked solely by the irrealis marker. Note that the two forms given for the prefixes differ in terms of whether the final vowel of the prefix is the reduced vowel, which depends on the shape of the stem; the first form is the unreduced one, and the second form is the reduced one.

Figure	3.	Agreement	Markino
riguic	J.	Agiculiuli	Mark Mili

	Subject/Agent Realis	Subject/Agent Irrealis	Patient/Theme/Recipient
1sg	a-/i-	aza-/azi-	-a
13G	/ak-/	/ad͡za-/	/-ak/
1pl	nu-/no-/na-/ni-	ní-/nua-/nui-	-nu
IPL	/nu-/	/nui-/	/-nu/
2sg	ro-/ru-/ra-/ri-	rí-/roa-/rui-	<i>-ro</i>
25G	\r0-\	/roi-/	\-to\
2pl	rá-/ɾoa-/rui-	ruí-/reá-/reai-	-rá/-roa
ZPL	/roa-/	/ruai-/	/roa/
3sg.anim		yi-/ye-	-sa
38G.ANIM		/ji-/	/-sat/
3pl.anim		yi-/ye-	-saza
JF L.AINIM		/ji-/	/-sadza/
3.INAN		yi-/ye-	-ta
J.INAIN		/ji-/	/-ta/

#### 3.1.1 1st Person Singular

The agreement marking for  $1^{st}$  person singular involves a few alternations that ought to be considered. The prefix a- marks the realis  $1^{st}$  person singular, and is underlyingly /ak-/. This leads to the following alternations with the verb stem:

- Vowel initial stems will insert -g- between the prefix and stem.
- If a vowel initial stem has a front vowel underlyingly or the initial consonant is *y*-, then the inserted consonant is instead -*z*-.

- H- /h<sub>1</sub>-/ initial stems change the initial consonant to kh-, but an underlying initial /h<sub>2</sub>-/ also causes this shift.
- Lenition does not occur to any initial consonants.

When this prefix occurs with an unstressed initial stem, then the prefix retains the realisation a-, but before a stressed initial stem, the realisation is dependent on the following vowel. If the vowel is high, then the prefix takes the form i-, but otherwise remains a-.

The prefix *azi*- marks the irrealis 1<sup>st</sup> person singular, and is underlyingly /atsa-/. This prefix leads to the ordinary sound changes affecting initial syllables when preceded by a vowel, such as lenition. When the prefix is followed by a unstressed vowel, then the prefix is realised as *izi*-.

The enclite = a marks non-subject/agent  $1^{st}$  person singular arguments, and is underlyingly / = ak/. This clitic causes the final consonant of the stem to undergo lenition, if it exists, and if a preceding final vowel is unstressed, it follows the vowel affection/metaphony rules and becomes -a, leading to a long vowel ending -a.

## 3.1.2 1st Person Plural

The agreement marking for  $1^{st}$  person plural involves a few alternations that ought to be considered. The prefix nu- marks the realis  $1^{st}$  person singular, and is underlyingly /nu-/. This prefix leads to the ordinary sound changes affecting initial syllables when preceded by a vowel, such as lenition. Before a stressed initial stem, the realisation is dependent on the following vowel. If the vowel is high, then the prefix takes the form ni-, but otherwise the prefix is realised as na-.

The prefix nui- marks the irrealis  $1^{st}$  person plural, and is underlyingly /nui-/. This prefix leads to the ordinary sound changes affecting initial syllables when preceded by a vowel, such as lenition. Before a stressed initial stem, if the vowel is non-high, then the prefix takes the form nua-, but otherwise the prefix is realised as nui-. Before an unstressed initial stem, the prefix takes the form ni-.

The enclite = nu marks non-subject/agent 1<sup>st</sup> person plural arguments, and is underlyingly /= nu/. If a preceding final vowel is unstressed, it follows the vowel affection/metaphony rules and becomes -i.

## 3.1.3 2<sup>nd</sup> Person Singular

The agreement marking for  $2^{\rm nd}$  person singular involves a few alternations that ought to be considered. The prefix ro- marks the realis  $2^{\rm nd}$  person singular, and is underlyingly /ro-/. This prefix leads to the ordinary sound changes affecting initial syllables when preceded by a vowel, such as lenition. Before a stressed initial stem, the realisation is dependent on the following vowel. If the vowel is high, then the prefix takes the form ri-, but otherwise the prefix is realised as ra-. Before an unstressed initial stem, if the vowel is high, then the prefix takes the form ru-.

The prefix rui- marks the irrealis  $2^{nd}$  person singular, and is underlyingly /rui-/. This prefix leads to the ordinary sound changes affecting initial syllables when preceded by a vowel, such as lenition. Before a stressed initial stem, if the vowel is non-high, then the prefix takes the form rua-, but otherwise the prefix is realised as rui-. Before an unstressed initial stem, the prefix takes the form ri-.

The enclite = ro/= tho marks non-subject/agent  $2^{nd}$  person singular arguments, and is underlyingly /= ro/. If a preceding final vowel is unstressed, it follows the vowel affection/metaphony rules and becomes -a.

## 3.1.4 2<sup>nd</sup> Person Plural

The agreement marking for  $2^{\rm nd}$  person plural involves a few alternations that ought to be considered. The prefix roa- marks the realis  $2^{\rm nd}$  person singular, and is underlyingly /roa-/. This prefix leads to the ordinary sound changes affecting initial syllables when preceded by a vowel, such as lenition. Before a stressed initial stem, the realisation is dependent on the following vowel. If the vowel is high, then the prefix takes the form rui-, but otherwise the prefix is realised as roa-. Before an unstressed initial stem, the prefix takes the form rai-.

The prefix rui- marks the irrealis  $2^{nd}$  person plural, and is underlyingly /ruai-/. This prefix leads to the ordinary sound changes affecting initial syllables when preceded by a vowel, such as lenition. Before a stressed initial stem, if the vowel is low, then the prefix takes the form roi-, but otherwise the prefix is realised as rui-. Before an unstressed initial stem, the prefix takes the form rui-.

The enclite  $=r\acute{a}/=th\acute{a}$  marks non-subject/agent 2<sup>nd</sup> person singular plural, and is underlyingly /=roa/. If a preceding final vowel is unstressed, then the enclitic takes the form =roa/=thoa.

#### 3.1.5 3rd Person

The agreement marking for  $3^{rd}$  person is assymetric, and requires a broader discussion. For subjects/agents, the  $3^{rd}$  person is always unmarked, leading a contrast between zero-marking in the realis, and the prefix yi- in the irrealis, which is the underlying form of the irrealis morpheme that is otherwise fused with the other prefixes. This prefix has a single allomorph, ye-, which occurs before a stressed low vowel. This is an example of glide affection, where glides cause unstressed vowels to become front vowels, in the case of j, and back vowels in the case of v, v, is no longer phonetically a glide, but patterns as if it were pronounced [w].

For the  $3^{rd}$  person, there are three distinct enclitics, two of which distinguish number, while the other does. This is due to number only being marked for animate referents, which have the enclitics = sa/=ra when singular, and = saza/=raza when plural, these enclitics being / = sat/ and / = sadza/ underlyingly. Inanimate referents use the enclitic = ta/=tha/=da, which is underlyingly / = taN/.

#### 3.2 Mood

In Pazè Yiù there are two marked moods, and two polarities. Mood is marked via a morpheme that is fused with agreement prefixes, the forms of which are discussed in the previous section. Negation is marked by a suffix on the verb stem, which causes a number of stem alternations, due to metaphony, insertion of ghost consonants, and the dropping of stem internal codas in some stems.

#### **3.2.1** Realis

The realis mood is unmarked, and is used to discuss realis events; however, the name of this mood is somewhat inaccurate, as the imperative mood, which is irrealis, can be expressed via the realis mood, that being, a lack of irrealis marking. The realis mood is used for events that have occurred, or are occurring. This means that when the realis mood combines with the aorist, which is the unmarked tense/aspect category, the meaning can be understood to be past perfective, as present events, or habitual ones, are expressed via the imperfective aspect. This unmarked realis/aorist combination can also mark an imperative, though this is the more direct/impolite imperative which lacks any agreement, unlike an ordinary verb. Therefore, 'he/she/they/it eats', or 'eat!' as a command, are formally the same. When the realis combines with the imperfective, it primarily expresses habitual or present continuous events, as well as states, but can also express past continuous events and states; the intended meaning has to be understood in context, rather than being marked. When the realis mood combines with the perfect, it refers to past perfect or present

perfect events, but has also been extended to refer to states; thus, to say 'it is raining', one could say both 'rain has fallen' (PERF) or 'rain is falling' (IPFV).

#### 3.2.2 Irrealis

The irrealis mood is marked via an alternate agreement prefix for speech act participants, or by the prefix yi-/ye- for  $3^{rd}$  person subjects/agents. The irrealis mood is used for events that have not occurred at the time of utterance, or at another point of reference, for example, within a narrative speech event. This mood is used for statements of ability, possibility, or desire, but can also be used for imperatives, hortatives, and interrogatives. When the irrealis mood combines with the aorist, this is used to express a future perfective, or a past conditional/counterfactual event. When it combines with the imperfective, this is used to express a future imperfective, or a future expected state. When it combines with the perfect, it can refer to future perfect events, or past conditional/counteractual event.

#### 3.2.3 Verbal Negation

Verbal negation is generally marked by the suffixation of -i, interceded by an underlying consonant; the negative marker is underlyingly reconstructed as /wi/. However, the various verb stem classes should be discussed here to give a better understanding of the alternations. In the following table, CV is any syllable. while CV indicates the stressed syllable; CC indicates an underlying cluster or geminate, which leads to irregular alternations with a paired C, where only the second consonant appears. It should be noted that any of these stems can be preceded by an indefinite number of CV syllables, though the vast majority of verbs will only have up to three syllables in their base stem.

Figure 4: Verb Stem Classes & Negation

Class	Affirmative	Negative
Monosyllabic/Iambic Thematic	(CV)CÝ	(CV)Cúi
Trochaic Thematic	CÝCCV	CVCúi
Nasal-Final	(CV)CÝ	(CV)CÝphi
Glide-Final	(CV)CÝ	(CV)CÝi
Athematic	(CV)CÝ	(CV)CÝCi

This kind of negation is used in a variety of contexts, but it should be noted that it can only occur with finite verbs. In non-finite contexts, two negation

strategies are found; there is an older strategy, found primarily with adjectives and nouns, which involves the prefix a-, which has an invariable vowel (not affected by metaphony), though it is underlyingly /am/, and thus causes postnasal fortition to any preceding onset context. When applied to a vowel initial verb, this prefix takes the form am-.

## 3.3 Tense & Aspect

In Pazè Yiù, tense and aspect are marked only by three categories, and two auxiliaries, the imperfective and perfect auxiliaries. Though these aspects do not inherently express tense, when combined with the two moods, they combine to give a specific tense or tenses.

#### **3.3.1** Aorist

The aorist is the unmarked aspect, which is used to indicate perfective and gnomic events, though it is also used for imperative commands, as an unmarked verb can express a command by itself. The aorist combines with the realis and irrealis moods to indicate primarily past and future events, with the realis aorist indicating past events, and the irrealis aorist indicating future events, though it can also be used for statements of desire/possibility, and more polite imperatives, though it requires 2<sup>nd</sup> person agreement for this.

#### (2) a. *Amâ seza*.

/aməˈak ˈseddza/ [aˈma: ˈsedza] a-mâ seza 1sG-build house

'I built a house.'

#### b. Mâ seza.

/məˈak ˈsedd͡za/ [ˈmaː ˈsed͡za] mâ seza build house

'He/she/they built a house.' or 'Houses are built.' (a general truth) or 'Build a house!'

#### c. Izimâ seza.

/ətsiməˈak ˈseddza/ [iziˈmaː ˈsedza] azi-mâ seza 1sg.irr-build house

'I will/want to build a house.'

#### d. Rímâ seza.

/rəimə'ak 'seddza/ [ri:'ma: 'sedza] rui-mâ seza 2SG.IRR-build house

'You shall build a house.'

## 3.3.2 Imperfective

The imperfective aspect is marked by the auxiliary *ku*, and is used to indicate imperfective events, that being continuous or habitual events, and is also used to express states. Its usage does not differ greatly depending on realis or irrealis mood, though the realis imperfective is primarily used to indicate present events, and not past events, though past events can be expressed via this combination of mood and aspect.

#### (3) a. Varabè ku va se cavà.

/varəˈpe ku va se tsəˈva/ [varaˈbe ˈku ˈva ˈse ˈtsaː] varabè ku va se ci-và farmer IPFV take rock ABL-field

'The farmer is removing rocks from the field.'

## b. Azigù gahi bageda.

/atsəˈku ˈgahi bəˈkerta/
[adziˈgu ˈgahi baˈgeda]
azi-ku gahi bagè=ta
1sg.irripfv stop nightfall=loc

'I will be resting at nightfall.'

## 3.3.3 Perfect

The perfect aspect is marked by the auxiliary *ni*, and is used to indicate perfect events, as well as changes of state and non-permanent states. In the realis mood, the perfect primarily indicates past or present perfect events, and when it refers to states, it always refers to present states. In the irrealis mood, the perfect is used for future perfect events or conditional/counterfactual events.

## (4) a. Inì kara akhema.

 $/\partial k'$ ni 'kara  $\partial k'$ h $_1$ ema/[ĩ'ni 'kara a'k $^h$ ẽma] a-ni kara ak-hema 1SG-PERF fill 1SG.POSS-belly

'I have filled my stomach (and am not hungry).'

## b. Inì tâ.

/əkni təa/ [ĩˈɲi ˈtaː] 1sg-perf write a-ni tâ

'I know how to write.'
LIT. 'I had learned how to write.'

## c. Azanì hâ kerada

/atsə'ni h<sub>1</sub>ə'ak 'kerrəta/ [adz̃ãni 'ha: 'kerada] azi-ni hâ ke=ru=ta 1sg.IRR-PERF eat night=PROX=LOC

'I could have eaten tonight.'

## 3.4 Voice

Pazè Yiù has a number of voices marked by auxiliary verbs. These voices are the passive, cauastive, benefecative, and reflexive/reciprocal. The active voice is the default, unmarked voice of Pazè Yiù, where the unmarked object is the patient or theme; the agent is also unmarked, but always precedes the verb, so it cannot be confused with the patient or theme.

#### 3.4.1 Passive

The passive voice is marked by the auxiliary mo, which follows the aspectual auxiliaries. This auxiliary causes the subject of the verb to be the semantic patient, while the agent becomes an oblique, optional argument; it is marked by the instrumental preposition nga = .

## (5) a. Asà kangà /aksat kaˈŋah<sub>2</sub>/ [aˈsa kãˈŋa]

a-sa kangà 1sG-harvest grain

'I harvested the grain.'

#### b. Kangà mo sa ngâ

/ka'ŋah<sub>2</sub> mo sat ŋa'ak/
[kã'ŋa 'mo 'sa 'ŋa:]
kangà mo sa nga=a
grain PAS harvest INST=1SG

'The grain was harvested by me.'

#### 3.4.2 Causative

The causative voice is marked by the auxiliary fu, which follows the aspectual auxiliaries. This auxiliary causes the subject of the verb to become the patient, and turns any patients/themes into oblique arguments, marked with the locative postposition = ta.

## (6) a. Nawgu sa kangà

/nəuˈku sat kaˈŋah<sub>2</sub>/ [nəu̞ˈgu ˈsãnu kãˈŋa] nu-ku sa kangà 1SG-IPFV harvest grain

'We are harvesting the grain.'

## b. Parea fu ku sanu kangàta

/pə'daja fu ku 'satnu ka'ŋah2ta/ [pa'rea 'fu 'ku 'sãnu kã'ŋata] parea ku fu sa=nu kangà=ta chief IPFV CAUS harvest=1PL grain=LOC

'The chief is making us harvest the grain.'

#### 3.4.3 Benefactive

The benefactive voice is marked by the auxiliary vi, which follows the aspectual auxiliaries. This auxiliary causes the recipient to become the unmarked patient, and the original patient/theme is marked with the locative postpostion. With intransitive verbs, this introduces a recipient/benefactor argument that takes the patient slot.

## (7) Vi kaeda setha.

```
/vi kə'jetak 'seNta/

['vi ka'jeda 'setha]

vi kaet = a se = ta

BEN remove = 1SG rock = LOC

'He will get rid of the rocks for me.'
```

## 3.4.4 Reflexive & Reciprocals

Reflexives and reciprocals are marked via an enclitic, = o, which indicates the agent and patient are the same; reciprocals can only occur with the 1st person plural, for inclusive reciprocals, the 2nd person plural, for addressee reciprocals, and the 3rd person plural, for non-SAP reciprocals. Reflexive pronouns can also be used, which are primarily used as emphatic pronouns, such as for address; these are  $az\delta$  (1sg),  $na\delta$  (1pl),  $ra\delta$  (2sg), raoca (2pl),  $saz\delta$  (3sg.Anim), sazoca (3pl.Anim), and  $taph\delta$  (??).

#### (8) a. Akhavazo.

```
/akh_2a'bacjoN/
[ak^ha'vadzo]
ak-havaz=o
1sG-cut=REFL
```

'I cut myself.'

## b. Ráavazo.

```
/rəah<sub>2</sub>ə'bacjoN/

[ra:?a'va\overline{dzo}]

roa-havaz = o

2PL-cut = REFL
```

'You (pl.) cut each other.'

## c. Daea ni cuo.

```
/da'ea tsujoN/
[da'jeja tsuwo]
dea-a ni cu=o
warrior-PL PERF kill=REFL
```

'The warriors have killed each other.'

## d. Rigù yiù raò.

```
/rəˈku jəˈut rəˈjoN/
[riˈgu jiwˈut raˈwo]
```

```
ro-ku yiù raò
2SG-IPFV speak 2SG.REFL
'You're speaking to yourself.'
```

#### 3.5 Nominalisation

Pazè Yiù notably allows complete zero-derivation across word classes, meaning that no morphology is required to turn a verb like *kara* 'fill' into an adjective like *kara* 'filled', or into a noun *kara* 'fullness'. However, specific derivations like agent nouns or location nouns require suffixes, which will now be described.

The first of these is the narrow agent nominaliser, -pè, which literally means 'worker', but is frequently used to create nouns that refer to enactors of an event. This is restricted in its usage due to being still mostly lexical, and cannot, for example, be used with davà 'give birth' to create \*davabè 'mother'; it primarily is used with verbs that refer to regular tasks, that being jobs. A more general agent nominaliser can be used, -te, which is still productive, is primarily found with non-human referents, though archaic words do have human referents, while -pè is restricted to only having human referents.

- (9) a.  $hav\grave{a}$  'harvest by cutting'  $\rightarrow havap\grave{e}$  'harvester (farm worker)'
  - b. *havà* 'harvest by cutting' → *havate* 'scythe, sickle'

Another nominaliser is the location nominaliser,  $-\delta$ , which refers to the location at which an event takes place, or in the case of an adjective, a place that is typical of the attribute it refers to.

- (10) a. gahi 'stop, rest'  $\rightarrow$  gaiò 'resting place, camp'
  - b. va 'white, cloud-coloured'  $\rightarrow vi\dot{o}$  'mountains (which are covered in white clouds/fog), clouds'

## 3.6 Copula

In Pazè Yiù, there is a single copula, which is restricted in its usage. This copula is formally the same as the proximal determiner, and is postposed after the first argument, making it positionally like a verb, though it otherwise does not behave like one. It lacks any ability to take aspect marking, and requires its referents to be nouns or adjectives. The copula is used in comparative and superlative constructions, and some examples of these are shown below.

## (11) a. Parea yothagàthu gama.

/pəˈrea joNdəˈkaNru ˈgama/ [paˈreja jotʰaˈgatʰu ˈgãma] parea yo-dagà=ru gama chief 3.POSS.INAL-beard=COP big

'The chief's beard is big.'

## b. Siêthathu gama barò.

```
/sie'eh<sub>2</sub>təNru 'gama bə'ro/

[ʃi'je:t<sup>h</sup>at<sup>h</sup>u 'gãma ba'ro]

siê=ta=ru gama bu=ro

village=DIST=COP big DAT=2SG.POSS.AL
```

'That village is bigger than your (village).'

## c. Siêthathu gama biruci siê kâmao.

```
/sie'eh<sub>2</sub>təNru 'gama bə'suttsi sie'eh<sub>1</sub> kə'aməgo/

[ʃi'je:thathu 'gama bi'rutsi ʃi'je: 'ka:mawo]

siê=ta=ru gama bu=suci siê kâmo=go

village=DIST=COP big DAT=all village world=IN
```

'That village is the largest in the world.'

## 4 Nouns

In Pazè Yiù, nouns have two inflectional categories, possession and number. Nouns have a number of modifiers, some of which are before the head noun, and others which are after the head noun. Adjectives, numerals, genitives, and prepositions occur before the head noun, while determiners and postpositions follow it.

#### 4.1 Number

Nouns are marked for number, and are split into four classes: nouns that are default singular, taking the plural suffix -a /-ja/, nouns that are default dual, that take the singulative prefix fa(k)- /fak-/, and collective suffix  $-\dot{e}$  /jeh<sub>2</sub>/, and nouns that are default plural/mass, and take the singulative prefix fa(k)-.

(12) a. Ana / Anea /  $h_2$ ana  $h_2 \theta'$ nea/ ['ãna ã'neja]

```
ana-a
    ana
   maiden | maiden-PL
    'Maiden / Maidens.'
b. Yaphò / Faephò / Yophaè
    /jəNvok fajəNvok joNvajeh<sub>2</sub>/
    [ja'pho faje'pho jopha'je]
    yo-vo
                      | fa-yo-vo
                                                yo-vo-e
    3.POSS.INAL-hand | SGV-3.POSS.INAL-hand | 3.POSS.INAL-hand-COL
    '(Both) hands / One hand / Many hands.'
c. Farè / Favarè
    /fəˈreN fafəˈreN/
    [fa're fava're]
   farè
         | fa-farè
    stone | stone
   'Stones / One stone.'
```

## 4.2 Numerals

Numerals are complex in Pazè Yiù, primarily due to the fact that each cardinal number can have more than a single name, though only a few, primarily multiples of 5, as well as 8 and 9. There are both alternative names, and also numerals specifically used in counting, which derives from the fact that the speakers count by finger. The numerals themselves are all, barring the first three, derived from references to hands and fingers.

Figure 5: Numerals Cardinal (Primary) Cardinal (Counting) Ordinal 1 fa ри 2 νο sa 3 ru zirù 4 zazè ce 5 faekhò zavaekhò fagò 6 vuirù zivuirù 7 zivuazè vuazè 8 ciazè amazè ziciazè 9 avazè avamazè závazè 10 yekhò ko zaekhò zirù yekhò 15 ru yekhò rukò 20 ce yekhò zacè yekhò cegò 25 faekhò yekhò fagogò zavaekhò yekhò 50 yekhò yekhò kogò zaekhò yekhò

Numerals also feature another distinction, which is that they are commonly contracted to monosyllables or bisyllables, which is viewed by the speakers as a colloquialism, and contrasts with the more archaic 'counting' numbers, especially the smaller numbers. For example, 10 *yekhò*, can be contracted to *kho*, and 6 *vuirù*, can be contracted to *irù*. This change is what makes aspirated stops contrastive in initial position, at least with some speakers.

## 4.3 Possession

Nouns are split into two possessive classes, inalienable and alienable, with inalienable possession marked by prefixes, which are formally the same as the realis subject/agent prefixes, except the  $3^{rd}$  person, which is marked by the prefix yo-, and alienable possession is marked by the dative preposition bu = combined with a pronoun. Both forms of possession also allow a noun to precede, which in the  $3^{rd}$  person indicates the possessor.

Figure 6: Possession Examples

Inalienable	Alienable
akò 'my hands'	siê bâ 'my village'
nadata 'our father'	parea binù 'our chieftain'
raema 'your torso'	favara barò 'your (sg.) field'
roahema 'your guts'	daea barea 'your (pl.) warriors'
yaphò 'his/her/their eyes'	sa barà 'his/her/their sword'
kuza yephuthadea 'the family's ancestors'	dagatha saza garâ (baraza) 'the bearded peoples' gifts'

To express predicative possession, the alienable possessive construction is used, that being bu = combined with a pronoun, with the possesee followed by the copular clitic = ru. Inalienable nouns still use their prefixes, even when the alienable possessive construction is used.

#### 4.4 Determiners

In Pazè Yiù, determiners are a set of enclitics and a single proclitic which modify the noun, and directly attach to the beginnings and ends of the noun phrase. There are six determiners: two spatial, and four concerning specification. The two spatial determiners are =ta 'distal' and =ru 'proximal', while the four specifer determiners are =suzi 'all', ga= 'none', =o 'some', and =na 'any, which'.

```
a. Sàzada / Sàzaru / 'satsata 'satsaru/
['sadzada 'sadzaru]
saza = ta | saza = ru
people = DIST | people = PROX
'Those people / These people.'
b. Sàziruzi / Gasaza / Sàzao / Sàzana
/'satsəsutsi gak'satsa 'satsəo 'satsəna/
['sadzərutsi ga'sadza 'sadzawo 'sadzana]
saza = suzi | ga = saza | saza = o | saza = na
people = all | NEG = people | people = some | people = INT
'Everyone / Noone / Some people / Which people.'
```

## 4.5 Adjectives

Adjectives can be used in two distinct ways: attributively, when they modify nouns, and predicatively, when they form their own clause. The former in-

volves placing an adjective, or a number of adjectives, before a noun which they modify, while the latter involves the usage of the copula = ru, which goes after a noun or pronoun to describe to attribute it with the meaning of the adjective. Predication via the copula can also be used to equate two adjectives with each other, like how one would with nouns.

Adjectives, besides being able to be marked with the negative determiner ga =, may also have a negative form with the prefix a(m)-, which has become fossilised in the modern language. An example of this negative form can be found with the pair of adjectives agara 'hungry' and kara 'sated', which literally mean 'unfilled' and 'filled'. Some adjectives that appear to be derived from this prefix may lack a paired adjective, such as  $am\hat{o}$  'blind'.

## 4.6 Prepositions & Postpositions

There are three prepositions and two postpositions used in Pazè Yiù, which are as follows: bu = `DAT', ci = `ABL', nga = `INST', = ta `LOC' and = go `IN'. The dative preposition bu = is used primarily to mark recipients, goals of motion, possessors, and purposive converbs.

```
(14) a. Inì kota barò
           /ək'ni 'kosta bə'ro/
           [î'ni 'kota ba'ro]
                               ko = ta
                                            bu = ro
           1sG-give = 3.INAN DAT = 2sG
           'I gave it to you.'
       b. Ibù ngabè buraceza barò
           /ək'bu ŋa'peh<sub>2</sub> busəN'seddza bə'ro/
           [i'bu na'be bura'tsedza ba'ro]
                       nga = pe bu = saceza bu = ro
           1sg-arrive INST = foot DAT = house DAT = 2sg
           'I walked to your house.'
       c. Saceza barò
           /səNˈseddza bəˈɾo/
           [saˈtsedza baˈɾo]
           saceza bu = ro
           house DAT = 2SG
           'Your house.'
       d. Azâhi buâ
           /atsəˈgah<sub>1</sub>h<sub>1</sub>i buh<sub>1</sub>əˈak/
```

```
[a'dza:hi bu'wa:]
azi-gahi bu=hâ
1SG.IRR-stop DAT=eat
'I will stop to eat.'
```

The ablative preposition ci = is used to mark sources of motion and perfective converbs.

## (15) a. Ibù ciAseza

/ək'bu tsiyah2'sea/ [i'bu tsija'seja] a-bu ci=vaseza 1sG-arrive ABL=PN

'I came from Vaseza.'

## b. Izemâ ciâ

 $/\partial \widehat{ts}im_{\theta}'ak \ \widehat{tsih}_{1}\partial'ak/$ [adze'ma:  $\widehat{tsija}$ :]
azi-mâ
ci=hâ
1SG.IRR-work DAT=eat

'I will work after eating.'

The instrumental preposition nga = is used to mark instruments and demoted agents.

## (16) a. Ronareta ngadana?

/ronəˈretta ŋaˈtaNna/ [ronaˈreta ŋaˈdãna] ro-narè = ta nga = tana 2sG-combine = 3.INAN INST = INT.INAN

'With what did you combine them?'

## b. Kangà mo sa ngâ

/kaˈŋah₂ mo sat ŋaˈak/ [kãˈŋa ˈmo ˈsa ˈŋa:] kangà mo sa nga=a grain PAS harvest INST=1SG

'The grain was harvested by me.'

The locative postposition = ta is used to mark locations of actions, demoted patients/themes, and simultaneous converbs.

## (17) a. Agò yavà òada

/ak'vo jə'far 'ovəta/ [a'go ja'va] ak-vo yavà òa=ta 1sG-see spirit stream=LOC

'I saw a spirit by the stream.'

## b. Vi kaeda setha.

/vi kəˈjetak ˈseNta/ [ˈvi kaˈjeda ˈsetʰa] vi kaet=a se=ta BEN remove=1SG rock=LOC

'He will get rid of the rocks for me.'

## c. Caea yiuta ce ku mâ.

/tsəia jə'utta 'tse ku 'məak/ [tsa'jeja ji'juta 'tse ku 'maa] cî-a yiù-ta ce ku mâ liar-PL speak=LOC people IPFV work

'As liars are chattering, (proper) people are working.'

The innessive postposition = go is used to mark internal locations, and imperfective converbs.

## (18) a. Siêtathu gama biruci siê kâmao.

/sie'eh<sub>1</sub> taNru 'gama bə'sutīsi sie'eh<sub>1</sub> kə'aməgo/ [ʃi'je:tat<sup>h</sup>u 'gãma bi'rutsi ʃi'je: 'kã:mawo] siê=ta=ru gama bu=suci siê kâmo=go village=DIST=COP big DAT=all village world=IN

'That village is the largest in the world.'

## b. Ci barô asò dagà.

/tsi bə'ro ək'sor da'kaN/
['tsi ba'ro a'so da'ga]
ci bu=ro=go a-so dagà
leave DAT=2SG=IN 1SG-grow beard

'While you were away, I grew a beard.'
LIT. 'In your leaving, I grew a beard.'

#### 4.7 Pronouns

#### 4.7.1 Personal

In Pazè Yiù, free personal pronouns are derived from reflexive pronouns, which came to be used emphatically. Bound pronouns were the original set, which did not contrast for case role, but later developed distinctions due to the introduction of prepositions and postpositions. These free pronouns are as follows:

Figure 7: Free Personal Pronouns

	Singular	Plural
1	azo	naò
2	raò	raoca
3.ANIM	sazò	sazoca
3.INAN	taphò	

#### 4.7.2 Demonstrative

Demonstrative pronouns are formed by combining third person pronouns and determiners. In the following table, I will show the forms of each pronoun and give an approximate English translation of each. The interrogative pronouns are notable in that they are used to mark relative pronouns as well, and can express the meaning 'any', thus *sana* can also translate as 'anyone', *sàzana* as 'any people', and *tana* as 'anything'. The contracted form of *gadà* 'nothing', *da*, is frequently used as an intensifier with negative statements, and is placed after verb phrase. Pazè Yiù has negative concord, where multiple negation markers affirm each other instead of cancelling each other out.

Figure 8: Demonstrative Pronouns

110010 01 2 01110110110110110						
	Singular Animate	Plural Animate	Inanimate			
Proximal	sata 'this person'	sàzada 'these people'	tatha 'that thing'			
Distal	saru 'that person'	sàzaru 'those people'	tathu 'this thing'			
Universal		sàzaruzi 'everyone'	tàcizi 'everything'			
Negative	garà 'no-one'	garaza 'no people'	gadà 'nothing'			
Indefinite	sado 'someone'	sàzao 'some people'	tapho 'something'			
Interrogative	sana 'who'	sàzana 'which people'	tana 'what'			

## 5 Syntax

Pazè Yiù can be described as being primarily an analytic language with a few head-marking affixes, that being agreement, and inalienable possession, while negation and plurality marking is used to their heads, verbs and nouns, respectively. Clitics, such as postpositions and prepositions are fixed in terms of position within a phrase, are phonologically dependent on their heads, and are only distinguished from affixes in that they can be interceded by other morphemes. Prepositions and postpositions attach to the left and right edges of the noun phrase, while personal enclitics, marking the patient/theme of a verb, are attached to the right edge of the verb phrase.

In terms of head directionality, Pazè Yiù is mixed, having a head-initial clause structure, with verbs preceding their objects, though adpositional phrases can be moved freely within the clause, they tend to also be placed after the verb. Noun phrases are, by contrast, head-final in structure, with adjectives, numerals, and genitives preceding the noun. Determiners follow their heads, but this can be analysed as determiners substituting their noun as the head of the phrase, and the same could be said about postpositions.

Though the language features both prepositions and postpositions, this is not due to fossilisation of one system, but because prepositions are derived from verbs, while postpositions are derived from relator nouns, which indicated position. Thus, both systems can co-exist, and it leads to morphological oddities, such as prepositions taking agreement markers, though this can only occur in a context where there would have been an enclitic marking the same referent on the head verb. Thus, there are these three possible combinations, of which two are grammatical:

## (19) a. Parea ku siuza ngamâ.

/pəˈdea ku səˈut͡sak ŋaməˈak/ [paˈrea ku siˈjud͡za ŋãˈmaː] parea ku siù=a nga=mâ chief IPFV work=1SG INST=work

'The chief is leading us as we work.'

#### b. Parea ku siù angamâ.

/pəˈdea ku səˈut͡s əkŋaməˈak/ [paˈrea ku siˈju ãŋãˈmaː] parea ku siù a-nga=mâ chief IPFV work 1SG-INST=work

'The chief is leading us as we work.'

c. \*Parea ku siùza angamâ. /pəˈdea ku səˈut͡sak əkŋaməˈak/

```
[paˈrea ku siˈjud͡za ãŋãˈmaː]
parea ku siù=a a-nga=mâ
chief IPFV work=1SG 1SG-INST=work
```

'Intended: The chief is leading us as we work.'

## 5.1 Imperatives

In Pazè Yiù, there are a number of ways to express an imperative or a hortative; this is due to the fact that the unmarked verb was the original way of expressing requests, but more strategies developed with the introduction of the irrealis mood, as well as various verbs that can be used as auxiliaries to emphasise an imperative.

The first of these strategies is indistinguishable from the  $3^{\rm rd}$  person realis aorist, which may cause some confusion, though with this imperative strategy, no pronouns can be used, though the request could be preceded by an address towards the  $2^{\rm nd}$  person(s). This construction does not allow a number distinction due to a lack of agreement.

## (20) *Mâ seza*.

/məˈak ˈseddza/ [ˈmaː ˈsedza] mâ seza build house

'Build a house!'

The other primary imperative strategy is by using the irrealis aorist with the  $2^{\rm nd}$  person agreement prefixes. This is viewed by speakers as a more polite imperative.

## (21) a. Rímâ seza.

/rəimə'ak 'seddza/ [ri:'ma: 'sedza] rui-mâ seza 2SG.IRR-build house

'You (sg.) shall build a house.'

b. Roímâ seza.

/roəiməˈak ˈseddza/

```
rowi:'ma: 'sedza]
roai-mâ seza
2PL.IRR-build house
'You (pl.) shall build a house.'
```

A more forceful way to express this is through the usage of the motion verb CI, which when combined in a purposive construction, allows for another way to express an imperative.

## (22) Ruizi bumâ seza.

```
/roəˈtsi buməˈak ˈseddza/
[ruwiˈdzi buˈmaː ˈsedza]
rui-ci bu=mâ seza
2sg.IRR-go DAT=build house
```

'You (sg.), go and build a house!'

To express a hortative, or a request, the same auxiliary si 'let, allow' is used. The difference between these constructions is that a request requires the interrogative particle ga. These constructions are formally similar to the causative, in that they lead to a valency shift and turns a patient/theme into an oblique argument marked with = ta.

## (23) a. Ruirì hâga gîhi?

```
/ruə'si h<sub>1</sub>ə'akak gə'ih<sub>1</sub>h<sub>1</sub>i/

[ruwi'ri 'haga 'gi:hi]

rui-si hâ=a gîhi

2SG.IRR-let eat=1SG INT.AFF
```

'May I eat?'

## b. Ruirì hâga.

/ruə'si h<sub>1</sub>ə'akak/ [ruwi'ɾi 'haga] rui-si hâ=nu 2SG.IRR-let eat=1PL

'Let us eat.'

## 5.2 Interrogatives

Interrogatives in Pazè Yiù are divided into two types. There are polar questions, where the response is either affirmative or negative, or content questions, where the answer requires some kind of statement, either a noun phrase

or whole clause. Polar questions are marked by the particle  $gi\grave{a}yhi$  if the verb is affirmative, or  $g\hat{e}$  in the verb is negative. Affirmative verbs are used when the answer is expected to be affirmative, while negative verbs are used when the answer is expected to be negative. These particles follow the verb phrase. Content questions require an interrogative pronoun, which were discussed earlier in Section 4.7.2. Interrogative noun phrases remain in the position they would have in a declarative statement.

## (24) a. Ranì hâ giàyhi?

/rəˈni h<sub>1</sub>əˈak gəˈih<sub>1</sub>h<sub>1</sub>i/ [ɾãˈɲi ˈhaː giˈjəi̯hi] ro-ni hâ giàyhi 2sg-perf eat INT.AFF

'Have you eaten?'

## b. Ranì hâgi gê?

/rəni h<sub>1</sub>ə'akvi 'gee/ [ɾã'ɲi 'ha:gi 'ge:] ro-ni hâ-i gê 2SG-PERF eat-NEG INT.NEG

'Have you not eaten?'

## c. Ranì hâ ngadana?

/ɾəˈni h₁əˈak ŋaˈtaNna/ [ɾãɲi ha: ŋaˈdãna] ro-ni hâ tana 2SG-PERF eat INST=INT.INAN

'What have you eaten?'

## 5.2.1 Responses

Pazè Yiu primarily deals with questions by responding with an equivalent verbal clause. To respond to a question that asks about a future action, one responds by using the irrealis agreement word of the relevant person, usually the  $1^{st}$  person singular or plural, with the relevant verb. To respond to a question about a past action, then realis agreement words are used, as it concerns whether an action has been completed or not. Verbal negation applies to the verb to turn the response from an affirmative to a negative. In responses, the verb  $m\hat{a}$  can function as a proverb like English 'do', but this is only ever used to substitute a transitive or ditransitive verb; for intransitive verbs, the relevant proverb is ye, which is not used as a lexical verb.

```
(25) a. Ranì hâ giàyhi? – Inì mâ
            /rəˈni h<sub>1</sub>əˈak gəˈih<sub>1</sub>h<sub>1</sub>i əkˈni məˈak/
            [rã'ni 'ha: gi'jəihi i'ni 'ma:]
                       hâ giàyhi
            ro-ni
                                      a-ni
                                                     mâ
            2SG-PERF eat INT.AFF | 1SG-PERF PRO.TR
            'Have you eaten?' - 'I have (eaten something).'
       b. Ranì hâ gîhi? – Inì mâgi
            /rəˈni h<sub>1</sub>əˈak gəˈih<sub>1</sub>h<sub>1</sub>i əkˈni məˈakvi/
            [rã'ni 'ha: 'gi:hi i'ni 'ma:gi]
                        hâ gîhi
                                        a-ni
                                                     mâ-gi
            2SG-PERF eat INT.AFF | 1SG-PERF PRO.TR-NEG
            'Have you eaten?' - 'I haven't (eaten something).'
```

There are two words that function similarly to 'yes' and 'no', which lack any verbal function; these are the interrogative question markers themselves,  $g\hat{e}$  and giayhi. The former is used to give a affirmative response to an affirmative-leading question, and a negative response to a negative-leading question, while the latter is used to give a negative response to an affirmative-leading question, and a affirmative response to a negative-leading question.

```
(26) a. Ranì hâ giàyhi? - Gê.

/ɾəˈni h₁əˈak gəˈih₁h₁i ˈgee/

[ɾãˈɲi ˈha: giˈjəi̯hi iˈɲi ˈma: ˈgeː]

ro-ni hâ giàyhi | gê

2SG-PERF eat INT.AFF | AFF

'Have you eaten?' - 'Yes.'
b. Ranì hâgi gê? - Gê.

/ɾəni h₁əˈakvi ˈgee ˈgee/

[ɾãˈɲi ˈha:gi ˈgeː ˈgeː]

ro-ni hâ-i gê | gê

2SG-PERF eat-NEG INT.NEG | AFF

'Have you eaten?' - 'No.'
```

There is also a factor of politeness, wherein the aforementioned verbal clauses are used to give a more polite response, while the repetition of the interrogative markers are more direct and less polite. An even more polite response requires special response phrases, such as *tathu vu*, literally 'that is true', for an affirmative response, and *tathu imù*, literally 'that is false', for a negative response; note that these follow the same rules as the particle responses, and thus *tathu vu* is used to give affirmative responses to affirmative-leading questions, and negative reponses to negative-leading questions, and *tathu imù* 

does the opposite. To add further politeness requires the addition of respectful titles, such as when one would respond to one's father, the affirmative response would be *tathu vu akâte*, and the negative response is *tathu imù akâte*, where *akâte* is the polite form of 'my father'.

## 6 Examples

The following are examples from "Conlang Syntax Test Cases", and are given with the respective numbers in the list.

```
(27) a. Nâhi buatadarè siê, siêthathu biruci siê kâmao.
```

```
/nəˈgah_1h_1i buəktatəˈres sieˈeh_2təNru bəˈrotsi sieˈeh_2 kəˈgaməgo/ [ˈnahi buwatadaˈre ʃiˈje:tʰatʰu ˈka:mago] nu-gahi bu=a-tadarè siê | siê=ta=ru 1PL-stop to=1SG.POSS-paternal.uncle village | village=DIST=COP bu=suci siê kâmo=go big DAT=all village
```

'We visited my uncle's village, the largest village in the world.' (Example 150)

## b. Roâ garu burabò.

```
/roəga garu busəp'jo/
[ro'wa: 'garu bura'bo]
rui-ga ga=ru bu=sabò
2SG.IRR-hide secret=PROX DAT=tomorrow
```

'Keep this secret until tomorrow.' (Example 105)

## c. Yaru mui bâ ngabè.

```
/ˈjaru mu-vi bəˈak ŋaˈpeh<sub>2</sub>/
[ˈjaru ˈmuwi ˈba: ŋaˈbe]
yaru mu-i bu=a ci nga=pe
small cat-DIM DAT=1SG leave INST=foot
```

'My little kitten walked away.' (Example 17)

#### d. Nuciru kara ngaràza.

```
/'nuttsəru 'kara ŋa'satsa/
['nutsiru 'kara ŋa'radza]
nuci=ru kara nga=saza
street=COP filled INST=people
```

'The streets are full of people.' (Example 85)

e. Saza yokhaè ngaràza ko vo aku.

/ˈsatsa joNkəˈe ŋaˈsatsa kos vo ˈakku/

```
['sadza jokha'je ŋa'radza 'ko 'vo '?aku]
saza yo=kaè ko vo agu
people 3.POSS.INAL=hand.COL give two shout
'Many of the people shouted twice.' (Example 13)
LIT. 'Hands of people gave two shouts.'
```

## 7 Loanwords

Loanwords are common in Pazè Yiu, though the general rules surrounding them are a little opaque. For older loanwords, they generally fell into following Pazè Yiù phonology of the time, and then followed sound changes like any other word. The earliest loanwords also follow the 'no unstressed heavy syllables' rule, where any heavy syllables that aren't stressed, following the rules of stress assignment (last heavy penult/ultimate, or penult by default), they lose their codas. When adopting loanwords into Pazè Yiu, at least into the modern language, there are rules on how to treat the codas and clusters found in that language. These rules are as follows:

- Internal clusters are resolved by the preceding vowel being inserted to break up the cluster. If the cluster is initial, then the following vowel is inserted instead
- Final consonants are resolved with differing rules dependent on the original word class of the loanword.
  - If a loanword is a noun, and it ends with /Va/, where /V/ is any vowel, the loanword is treated as being plural, and thus, the stem form drops the final /-a/. The loaned form will remain the plural form.
  - If a noun ends with /Ve/ or /dze/, this loanword is analysed as a collective form, the final /e/ or /dze/ is dropped, giving the new stem form. The loaned form will remain the collective form.
  - If a noun begins with the syllable /fa/, assuming the word has more than one syllable, this is analysed as the singulative prefix, and /fa/ is dropped.
  - If a loanword is a verb, and it ends with /Ci/, where /C/ is not a voiceless stop/affricate or /th kh/, then the final syllable is analysed as being the negative suffix, and is dropped, including any consonants that might have preceded a bare /i/. The loaned form will remain the negative form.
- After all the following rules have been observed, if there is a final consonant left, the preceding vowel is inserted before it.

Many of the more recent borrowings into Pazè Yiu are from Wolhut, and these borrowings allow post-alveolar consonants in a wider set of contexts, which has led to some speakers of Pazè Yiu phonemicising the contrast. Rural speakers, outside of the major centres where interaction with Wolhut speakers is common, lack this contrast. Wolhut borrowings are unique in that they feature complex clusters and syllabic consonants, like /l/ and /r/, which are realised as vowels /u/ and /a/, respectively. I will now, for the sake of clarity, give some borrowings, and if possible, show their cognates that also come from Proto-Ihutic.

- huzya 'governor', from Wolhut huja 'commander' (cognate: parea 'chieftain')
- *ìfiti* 'formal speech', from Wolhut *ift* 'rhetoric' (cognate: *yiù* 'language')
- yasu 'steal', from Wolhut jasl 'rhetoric' (cognate: gara 'trade')
- sufute 'merchant', from Wolhut sufte 'caravan master' (cognate: siùte 'boss')
- hocyo 'immigrant, colonist', from Wolhut hoč 'worker' (cognate: pe 'mason')
- husifala 'Husifala (Wolhut's national god)', from Wolhut hušfal 'God' (no direct cognate)
- vata 'porter', from Wolhut wat 'porter' (no direct cognate)
- kuni 'faction, sect', from Wolhut kuñ 'scion, lineage' (cognate: kuza 'family')
- *hese* 'enlighten (oneself)', from Wolhut *hes* 'learn, discover, enlighten' (cognate: *peso* 'taste, know')
- angaka 'pagan, heathen', from Wolhut aŋk 'unenlightened' (cognate: amò 'blind')

There are a large number of early borrowings from the *Vaceca* languages, which can be distinguished by the fact they don't exactly follow the expected phonological rules that native stems do. I will now discuss some of these, and detail why they are odd.

- *haki* 'pine tree', from unknown subtrate \**çaki*; Proto-Southwestern Ihutic did not permit \*k before \*i, or \**ç* before non-front vowels.
- *suaca* 'ice', from unknown subtrate \**suwaca*; Proto-Southwestern Ihutic did not permit \*c before non-front vowels.

- mawnga 'cougar', from unknown substrate \*muŋa; Old Pazè Yiù did not permit /u/ to be preceded by /a/ in the next syllable.
- ngia 'child', from unknown substrate \*ŋi(j)a; Old Pazè Yiù did not permit /i/ to be preceded by /a/ in the next syllable, and /ŋ/ to be followed by /i/.

There are also borrowings which appear to be related to native Pazè Yiù (Ihutic) words, but are not from Wolhut or known another Ihutic language.

- *hara* 'lowlands', from unknown substrate \**hara*; this appears to be a backborrowing from a local language from Pazè Yiù or another Ihutic language, as *hara* is very close to *fara* 'field' in shape and meaning.
- ngamè 'porridge', from unknown substrate \*ŋVmek; this appears to be another back-borrowing from a local language from Pazè Yiù or another Ihutic language, as ngamè appears to be derived from combination of kangà /kaŋah¹/ 'grain' and mâ /məak/ 'make, mix, knead', see Wolhut mešk 'stew, mix'.