# LTS Torch - Xwere Gonom 

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## 1 Text

Geum aṛaṭaǧa deme ṭeǧeṛi na Ḍiranaḍaṛin ken Niidžanoodžom. Odohgiš ṭeǧeṛi isaṭaǧa Ḍaroḍa Gooḍige, xadla isekiipe ži ło’om gobom isadlaara ži daǧin geen yiḍibauyii ǧopa na dzii'in gobom siin.

Somodloamii ǧwama siin na xiidlin giažan na tsamiran giažan goamom. Goliiš iṭhanii siid, yapopo'oga dan giažan goamom, seke'liǧwed, iḍa'lian siid tsama. Soḍogii ǧwama siin, gehn gizin ihi'gian sii, ših iwaa'ian gizid, isoxoomiid Darọ̣a Gooḍige dzi ǧwamaga siin. Simipeǧwiid bee ken gizirin, setši'giǧwed, ołobii siid giaža goamom yitsa'minen.

Sithešii Darọ̣ Gooḍi ǧwamaga siin: Neteen atsama yah giaža goamom?
Soyoṛii ǧwama siin: Ke' ihdiš žod meh! Dan tsamiran giažan goamom yegwiaḍeh yah na dzii'in gobom yahin!

Geum, ṭianin hoš aratsamira siid giaža goamom. Ken tsamiran, siitšii Ḍaroḍa Gooḍige ṭeǧeṛi ihaṭaǧad gizira dzi ṭeǧeṛi isaṭaǧa dzii'ge gobom.

## 2 Grammar notes ${ }^{1}$

### 2.1 Introduction and overview

Xwere Gonom ['x $\left.{ }^{w} \varepsilon \varsigma \varepsilon ~ k כ ' n ธ ̃\right] ~ i s ~ s t r o n g l y ~ h e a d-i n i t i a l, ~ e x h i b i t i n g ~ a ~ b a s i c ~ V S O ~ c o n s t i t u-~$ ent order, prepositions and postposed adnominal modifiers. It possesses a system of three cases and displays differential argument marking depending on the animacy of subjects and objects. Verbs agree with their absolutive argument in person and number. There are a total of eleven aspects/moods, which are conflated into a single morphological category, but no morphological tense or voice. Grammatical number is a salient morphological category for animate referents only. Pronouns and verbal agreement distinguish clusivity in the first person and consanguinity in the first per-

[^0]son inclusive and second person; in the third person, there is a distinction between humans, other animates and inanimates.

### 2.2 Phonology

### 2.2.1 Phonemic inventory

There are thirty-six consonant phonemes. These are shown in Table 1 below in IPA alongside their romanisation.

|  | Bilabial | Dental/Alveolar |  | Retroflex | Palatal | Velar |  | Glottal |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  |  | Central | Lateral |  |  | Plain | Lab. |  |
| Nasal | m /m/ | $\mathrm{n} / \mathrm{n}$ / |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| Plosive | $\begin{aligned} & \mathrm{p} / \mathrm{p} / \\ & \mathrm{b} / \mathrm{\sigma} / \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{gathered} \mathrm{d} / \mathrm{t} / \\ \mathrm{t} / \mathrm{t}^{\prime} / \\ \mathrm{th} / \mathrm{t}^{\mathrm{h}} / \end{gathered}$ |  | $\begin{gathered} \mathrm{d} / \mathrm{t} / \\ \mathrm{t} / \mathrm{t}^{\prime} / \\ \text { thi } / \mathrm{t}^{\mathrm{h}} / \end{gathered}$ |  | $\begin{aligned} & \mathrm{g} / \mathrm{k} / \\ & \mathrm{k} / \mathrm{k}^{\prime} / \end{aligned}$ | gw /kw/ <br> kw /kw/ | , /2/ |
| Affricate |  | $\begin{aligned} & \mathrm{dz} / \mathrm{ts} / \\ & \mathrm{ts} / \mathrm{ts}^{\prime} / \\ & \mathrm{tsh} / \mathrm{ts}^{\mathrm{h}} / \end{aligned}$ | $\mathrm{dl} / \mathrm{t} /$ <br> tl /t'/ <br> tlh $/ \mathrm{th}^{\mathrm{h}} /$ | dž/ts/ tš /ts'/ tšh /tṣ ${ }^{\text {h/ }}$ |  |  |  |  |
| Fricative |  | $\begin{aligned} & \mathrm{s} / \mathrm{s} / \\ & \mathrm{z} / \mathrm{z} / \end{aligned}$ | ł/4/ | $\begin{aligned} & \check{s} / \mathrm{s} / \\ & \check{z} / \mathrm{z} / \end{aligned}$ |  | $\begin{aligned} & x / x / \\ & \check{g} / \mathrm{y} / \end{aligned}$ | $\mathrm{xw} / \mathrm{x}^{\mathrm{w}} /$ <br> ǧw / $/{ }^{w}$ / | h /h/ |
| Approx. |  | r /r/ | $1 / 1 /$ | r / $/$ / | y /j/ |  | w /w/ |  |

Table 1: Xwere Gonom consonant phoneme inventory

There are sixteen contrastive monophthongal combinations of quality, length and nasality. These are given in Table 2 below.

|  | Front | Back |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| High | $\begin{gathered} \mathrm{i} / \mathrm{I} / \mathrm{in} / \mathrm{im} / \mathrm{I} / \\ \mathrm{ii} / \mathrm{i}: / \mathrm{iin} / \mathrm{im} / \tilde{\mathrm{im}} / \end{gathered}$ |  |
|  |  |  |
| Mid | e $/ \varepsilon /$ en/em $/ \tilde{\varepsilon} /$ <br> ee /e:/ een/eem /ẽ:/ | o /o/ on/om / $\tilde{\mathrm{J}} /$ oo /o:/ oon/oom /õ:/ |
| Low | $\begin{gathered} a / a / a \\ a a / a: / a \end{gathered}$ | $\begin{aligned} & \text { 1/am /ã/ } \\ & \text { a/aam /ã:/ } \end{aligned}$ |

Table 2: Xwere Gonom monophthong inventory

In addition to these monophthongs, there are seven diphthongal qualities, all of which can occur as oral and nasal. These can be seen in Table 3.

|  | Front | Back |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| High | ia /ią/ ian/iam /iãa |  |
| Mid | ei /eí/ ein/eim /ẽ̃̃/ <br> $\mathrm{eu} / \mathrm{eu} / \mathrm{eun} / \mathrm{eum} / \mathrm{e} \tilde{\mathrm{u}} /$ | oi /oí/ oin/oim /õ̃̃/ oa /oą/ oan/oam /õãa/ |
| Low | ai /aí/ ain au /au/ aun | /aim /ãĩ/ <br> /aum /ãũ/ |

Table 3: Xwere Gonom diphthong inventory

### 2.2.2 Stress

Stress is weight sensitive and anchored towards the right edge of the word: a final syllable is stressed if it is heavy (i.e. contains a diphthong, long vowel, nasal vowel or coda consonant), otherwise stress is penultimate.

### 2.2.3 Select phonological processes

Vowel assimilations Let /i, e, o, a/ be cover symbols for all high front, mid front, back rounded and low vowels respectively. ${ }^{2}$ In what is essentially a form of vowel harmony, lexically-specific instances of /i/ and /a/ assimilate to the quality of neighbouring vowels. Ignoring any intervening consonants, assimilable /i/ becomes /o/ when adjacent to rounded vowels and assimilable /a/ becomes /e/ when adjacent to front vowels. Such alternations can be found in many affixes as well as in a certain number of roots. In addition to this, certain instances of /i/ may not trigger the assimilation of $/ \mathrm{a} /$ to $/ \mathrm{e} /$. This assimilation is responsible for alternations in the vowels of affixes marking categories such as case (§2.3.2), number (§2.3.3), agreement (§2.4.1) and aspect (§2.4.2) among others.

Laryngeal dissimilation Aspiration, inclusive of $/ \mathrm{h} /$, is a powerful feature in Xwere Gonom phonology and its presence results in the neutralisation of certain contrasts in the syllable it is found in as well as directly adjacent syllables. This may result in active alternations (especially in verb conjugations; see §2.4), some of which are more motivated than others from a synchronic point of view (for example, / $\mathrm{x} /$ acts as both a trigger and target of laryngeal dissimilation, as if it were aspirated even though it is not).

Laryngeal dissimilation causes the following neutralisations. It proceeds first regressively from the right-most instance of an aspirate or $/ \mathrm{h} /$ and then subsequently progressively:

[^1](1)
a. /6/ $\rightarrow$ /p/
f. /ts', ts ${ }^{\mathrm{h}} / \rightarrow$ /ts/
b. $/ \mathrm{t}^{\mathrm{t}}, \mathrm{t}^{\mathrm{h}} / \rightarrow \mathrm{t} /$
g. $/ \mathrm{x} / \quad \rightarrow \quad / \mathrm{k} /$
c. $/ \mathrm{ts}^{\prime}, \mathrm{ts}^{\mathrm{h}} / \rightarrow \mathrm{ts} /$
h. $/ \mathrm{x}^{\mathrm{w}} / \rightarrow \quad \rightarrow \mathrm{k}^{\mathrm{w}} /$
d. $/ \mathrm{tq}^{\prime}, \mathrm{tq}^{\mathrm{h}} / \rightarrow \mathrm{tt} /$
i. $/ \mathrm{h} / \quad \rightarrow \quad / \varnothing /$ or $/ \mathrm{p} /$
e. $/ t^{\prime}, \mathrm{t}^{\mathrm{h}} / \rightarrow \quad / \mathrm{t} /$

In addition to this, immediately following coda /h/ specifically, the following extra neutralisations are made:

| (2) a. /z/ | $\rightarrow$ | /s/ | d. $/ \mathrm{J}^{\mathrm{w}} /$ | $\rightarrow$ | /x ${ }^{\text {w }}$ / |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| b. / $/$ / | $\rightarrow$ | /s/ | e. /l/ | $\rightarrow$ | /4/ |
| c. / $/$ / | $\rightarrow$ | /x/ |  |  |  |

In this position, the more general rule of rhotic fortition also applies. This is discussed below.

Rhotic fortition Rhotic fortition refers to a process in which / $\mathrm{r}, \mathrm{r} /$ become and are neutralised with /t, $\mathrm{t} /$ outside non-intervocalic position, inclusive of word-initial and -final positions.

Coronal retroflexion Coronal retroflexion is a type of consonant harmony in which the dental/alveolar plosives and rhotic, i.e. /t, tri, $\mathrm{t}^{\mathrm{h}}, \mathrm{f} /$ (but not nasals, fricatives or laterals) are neutralised with their retroflex counterparts $/ t, t^{\prime}, t^{h}, r /$ in their vicinity. More specifically, retroflexion spreads iteratively and bidirectionally from any retroflex plosive or rhotic to any dental/alveolar plosive or rhotic but is blocked by any other non-glottal consonant (i.e. only oral and nasal vowels as well $/ \mathrm{R} /$ and /h/ are transparent to the propagation of retroflexion).

### 2.3 Nouns and pronouns

### 2.3.1 Humanness and animacy

Animacy is important in Xwere Gonom for whether a noun is able to be pluralised, what role the core cases indicate and also for determining agreement with pronouns and on verbs. Humanness is distinguished on pronouns and verbs. Neither inanimate nominals nor inanimate verb forms show any marking for number.

### 2.3.2 Case

Xwere Gonom possesses three grammatical cases: direct, inverse ( $=$ differential argument marking) and oblique. The direct is morphologically unmarked whereas the
inverse is marked by the suffix -ga/-ge/-ige/-oga/-iga/-a/-e and the oblique by the suffix -n/-m/-in/-om.

The language displays an integrated system of both differential object and subject marking dependent on an argument's animacy. The unmarked direct case is used on the subject of verbs with exception that inanimate subjects of both transitive and unergative verbs (i.e. intransitive verbs whose sole argument is agent-like) take the marked inverse case. The direct is also used on the objects of transitive verbs if inanimate whereas animate objects are marked with the inverse. This is illustrated by the following examples:
(3) Saradzoxa taž.
3.H.run.PROG woman
'The woman is running.'
(4) Itełii taž ḍa'.
3.INAN.throw.PF woman rock
'The woman threw the rock.'
(5) Soḍogii taž.
3.H.fall.PF woman
'The woman fell.'
(6) Oḍogii ḍa'.
3.INAN.fall.PF rock
'The rock fell.'
(7) Saṭhana taž łiinge.
3.H.see.IMPF woman man.DAM
'The woman sees the man.'
(8) Odžotii ḍa'ga koom.
3.INAN.hit.PF rock.DAM house
'The rock hit the house.'

The oblique case has a variety of uses. Firstly, it is used to mark modifiers in phrasal noun-noun compounds:
(9) łiin gondom
man fishing_rod.obl
'fisherman, angler'
(10) ḍoom gii'in
bridge crystal.OBL
'rainbow'

Oblique pronouns are used as possessive pronouns in all possessive relationships and bare full nouns are used in the oblique with inalienable adnominal possession (see also §2.3.5).
(11) ǧwama dein
mother 1sG.obl
'my mother'
(12) ǧwama xaanin
mother girl.OBL
'the girl's mother'
The complements of prepositions are also marked with the oblique case:
(13) ži de'nin
at shade.obl
'in the shade'
The oblique is used in the adverbialisation of adjectives and nouns:
(14) Sadzoxa wiinin taž.
3.H.run.IMPF good.OBL woman
'The woman runs well.'
It is also used without a preposition to mark certain inherently locative nouns to express a static location, origin of motion or goal of motion. If desired, this may be disambiguated by use of a preposition. This is illustrated with daǧ 'home' below.
a. Saṛaḍiiga daǧin łiin.
3.H.come.PROG home.OBL man
'The man is coming home.'
b. Saṛaḍiiga łiin na daǧin.
3.H.come.PROG man to home.OBL
'The man is coming home.'
Certain nouns with temporal meanings, such as zii' 'dawn' below, behave in a similar manner:
a. Gaarazomaan zii'in hau.

2sG.CS.sleep.CONT dawn.OBL 2sG.CS
'You were still asleep at dawn.'
b. Gaarazomaan hau žii zii'in. 2SG.CS.sleep.CONT 2sG.CS at dawn.OBL
'You were still asleep at dawn.'

The heads of noun phrases denoting a physical or temporal measurement also take the oblique case in order to express distances or durations.
(17) Saradzoxa gihsaanin hoš łiin.
3.H.run.PROG hour.OBL many man
'The man ran for many hours.'

### 2.3.3 Number

Nouns display a singular-plural but only for animate nouns, which are invariant with respect to number. This is marked by the suffix -d/-ad/-ed, which becomes $r /-a r /-e r$ when a case suffix is added (see rhotic fortition in §2.2.3). Nouns do not generally take overt plural marking when used with numerals or plural-like quantifiers, though they may optionally to stress plurality or numerousness.

### 2.3.4 Personal pronouns

Personal pronouns distinguish first, second and third persons. Third person pronouns distinguish human, non-human animate and inanimate. All pronouns but the third person inanimate display number distinctions. This is singular-plural for third person animate and second person, with a singular-dual-plural distinction in the first person only. In the second person, there are different terms for blood relations and other people, termed consanguineous and non-consanguineous. Finally, in the first person dual and plural, there exists a clusivity distinction. The full declension of all personal pronouns is provided in Table 4.

### 2.3.5 Adnominal possession

In adnominal possession, possessors follow possessees. The oblique pronouns are used as possessive adjectives and require a dummy head noun (e.g. žod 'thing') to be used pronominally. To be used as possessors of alienable possessees, nouns occur in a prepositional phrase headed by na 'to'. However, with inalienable possessees (e.g. body parts, kinship terms), no preposition is required and a bare possessor in the oblique is used. See below for illustrative examples.
a. ǧwen dein
b. ǧwen łiinin hand 1sG.obl
'my hand'
hand man.obl
'the man's hand'
a. bara dein father 1sG.OBL 'my father'
b. bara łiinin
father man.OBL
'the man's father'

|  | $\emptyset$ | DAM | OBL |
| ---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 1SG | deme | dege | dein |
| 1dU.INCL.CS | yan | yanga | yamin |
| 1DU.INCL.NCS | ǧan | ǧanga | ǧamin |
| 1PL.EXCL | išiid | išiire | išiirin |
| 1PL.INCL.CS | yah | yahga | yahin |
| 1PL.INCL.NCS | ğah | ğahga | ǧahin |
| 2SG.CS | hau | hauga | haum |
| 2SG.NCS | kii | kiige | kiin |
| 2PL.CS | gayad | gayara | gayarin |
| 2PL.NCS | kiid | kiire | kiirin |
| 3sG.H | sii | siige | siin |
| 3SG.NH.AN | hen | henge | henin |
| 3.INAN | žen | ženge | ženin |
| 3PL.H | siid | siire | siirin |
| 3PL.NH.AN | hened | henere | henerin |

Table 4: Personal pronoun declensions
(20)
a. toan dein
fishhook 1sG.obl
'my fishhook'
b. toan na łiinin
fishhook to man.OBL
'the man's fishhook'

### 2.4 Verbs

### 2.4.1 Verb agreement

Verbs agree with their absolutive argument, i.e. the subject of intransitive verbs and the direct object of transitive verbs. This is marked by a combination of prefixation and suffixation, summarised in Table 5.

|  | SG | DU | PL |
| ---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 1(EXCL) | d- | iš-/oš- -n | iš-/oš- -d |
| 1INCL.CS | - | y- -n | y- -h |
| 1INCL.NCS | - | ğ- -n | ğ- -h |
| 2.Cs | ga/ge- | - | aga-/ege- -h |
| 2.NCS | $\mathrm{m}-$ | - | am-/em- -h |
| 3.H | $\mathrm{s}-$ | - | $\mathrm{s}-\mathrm{d}$ |
| 3.NH.AN | $\mathrm{h}-$ | - | $\mathrm{h}-\mathrm{d}$ |
| 3.INAN | $\emptyset-$ | - | $\emptyset-$ |

Table 5: Verb agreement affixes

Note that the $/ \mathrm{h} /$ of the third person non-human animate prefix is deleted if the next consonant in the word is $/ \mathrm{h} /$ or an aspirate, which may lead syncretism with the inanimate form. Similarly, the $/ \mathrm{h} /$ in the suffix of some plural forms may lead to laryngeal dissimilation of a preceding consonant.

In addition to these person- and number-marking affixes, verbs are also marked with affixes to mark aspect, for which see §2.4.2.

### 2.4.2 Tense-aspect-mood

Aspect and mood are conflated into a single morphological category (hereafter referred to simply as "aspect") and there is no morphological tense marking. ${ }^{3}$ Verbs are inflected for eleven aspects and overt marking for one cannot co-occur with another. These eleven aspects can be divided into nine realis and two irrealis aspects, with realis aspects further subdivided into four imperfect and five perfective aspects. This is summarised in (21) below:
(21) a. Realis:
i. Imperfective:
imperfective, progressive, continuative, simultaneous
ii. Perfective:
perfective, terminative, immediative, anterior, consecutive
b. Irrealis:
conditional, optative
These are marked on the verb by a combination of stem gradation, prefixation and suffixation (in addition to which verbs also bear agreement marking; see §2.4.1). Verb stems have three grades: plain (Ø), glottalised (?) and aspirated (h). As one would expect, the $\emptyset$-grade of a verb stem is simply the verb stem without any additional special modifications. The laryngeal P - and h-grades are formed by right-edge-orientated infixation of coda $/ 2, \mathrm{~h} /$ in consonant-final stems and by a simple $/ 2$, $h /$ suffix in vowel-final stems. The addition of these laryngeal segments, especially $/ \mathrm{h} /$, may lead to alterations to the laryngeal features of consonants in the stem (see §2.2.3). The $\emptyset$-stem is used in all imperfective aspects (except the simultaneous), the perfective and the conditional; the 2 -stem is used in all perfective aspects (except the perfective itself) and the simultaneous; the h -stem is used only in the optative. Regarding prefixes, the imperfective aspects and the conditional take $a-/ e-$, with the progressive first also adding $r a-/ r e$ - and the perfective aspects and the optative take $i-/ o-$. The suffixes have much more varied forms, though the imperfective and progressive shows the same suffixal marking. The full range of different combinations of exponents for each aspect is provided in Table 6.

[^2]|  | Prefix | Stem grade | Suffix |
| ---: | ---: | :---: | :--- |
| IMPF | a-/e- | $\emptyset$ | -a/-e/-ra/-re |
| PROG | ara-/ere- | $\emptyset$ | $-\mathrm{a} /-\mathrm{e} /-\mathrm{ra} /-\mathrm{re}$ |
| CONT | a-/e- | $\emptyset$ | -aan/-een/-raan/-reen |
| SIMUL | a-/e- | 2 | -iǧwa/-oǧwa/-iǧwe/-ǧwa/-ǧwe |
| PF | i-/o- | $\emptyset$ | -ii/-yii |
| TERM | i-/o- | $?$ | -itl |
| IMM | i-/o- | $?$ | -in |
| ANT | i-/o- | 2 | -inen |
| CONSEC | i-/o- | $?$ | -ian |
| COND | a-/e- | $\emptyset$ | -iza/-oza/-ize/-za/-ze |
| OPT | i-/o- | h | -iš/-š |

Table 6: Summary of inflection for aspect

The imperfective presents an action or state as being temporally unbounded and, typically, as habitual, though this forms can be used with stative verbs to express the progressive (see §2.4.4). The progressive describes an action or state as being performed or holding at a given moment in time, be that present, past or future. The continuative is similar to the progressive but focuses on the continuity in time of that action or state in question, especially when contrasts with the coming and going of other events in the discourse (roughly equivalent the use of the adverb still in English). The continuative can also be used to present an event as continuing for an unexpectedly long or excessive amount of time. The simultaneous expresses that an action or state overlaps temporally with another. The duration of the action/state describe by the simultaneous typically fully encompasses the other action/state; its may temporally even extend beyond it but this is not crucial to the way an event is presented using the simultaneous. With stative verbs especially, the simultaneous may be used in roles fulfilled by manner adverbs in other languages.

The perfective, in contrast to the imperfective, presents an action or change of state as lacking internal temporal structure. With stative verbs this often expresses an inchoative meaning. The perfective is also sometimes used as an imperative. The terminative expresses the end point of an action or state, which may be before or after some event in the discourse. The immediative is similar to the terminative but serves to stress the temporal proximity of events. The anterior is used to situate the entirety of one action or state as preceding another. This is often used in a similar function to the (plu)perfect in other languages. The consecutive, conversely, is used to situate one event after another. Both past and future actions/states may be described by the anterior and consecutive.

The most prototypical use of the conditional is to mark the antecedent, but not the consequent, in sentences expressing that some event or state is contingent on something else. The optative is used in expressing hopes, wishes, desires and similar on. Alongside the perfective, it is also functions as an imperative and (co)hortative.

### 2.4.3 Verbal negation ${ }^{4}$

Verbs are negated by way of a pre-verbal particle. This is most often xen, as in the example below.
(22) Xen eziǧe taž ḍił.

NEG 3.INAN.eat.IMPF woman meat
'The woman doesn't eat meat.'
However, there also exists a range of additional specialised negators, shown in Table 7. These are also used pre-verbally.

| Form | Use |
| :--- | :--- |
| dliǧi | "non iam" negator: something that was the case prior to the ref- <br> erence time no longer holds, i.e. 'no more, no longer' |
| dzih | irrealis negator: used with the conditional and optative in declar- <br> ative clauses, also used with other aspects used in irrealis contexts <br> prohibitive negator: used to negate both optative and conditional <br> imperatives <br> assertive future-time negator: forcefully denies the possibility of <br> something happening after the reference time, also used with per- <br> fective imperatives for added force |
| maan | nondum negator: expresses that something has yet to occur prior <br> to the reference time, i.e. 'not yet' <br> avertive negator: expresses that an event was expected to happen <br> but did not <br> frustrative negator: expresses that an event happened but was not <br> successful or did not have the expected result |
| tšorom | žein |

Table 7: Specialised pre-verbal negators

### 2.4.4 Stativity

Verbs can be divided into dynamic and stative, such as those roots in (23) and (24) respectively.

[^3]a. dzox- 'to run'
(24) a. ṭhan- 'to see'
b. kaal- 'to hide (sth)'
b. xoš- 'to be dry'
c. tshoo- 'to chase'
c. xwaḍ- 'to be in a rage'

The most crucial behavioural different between the two sets of verbs is their behaviour with respect to aspect. Where dynamic verbs are able to display the full range of aspectual distinctions, stative verbs lack the progressive or continuative aspects. For dynamic verbs, the imperfective aspect expresses a habitual meaning. For stative verbs, however, the imperfective is ambiguous between a habitual and progressive reading (insofar as the distinction makes semantic sense for a given stative verb). See the following illustrative examples:
a. Hatshoora daha tšemenge.
3.NH.AN.chase.IMPF dog cat.DAM
'The dog chases the cat.'
b. Haratshoora ḍaha tšemenge.
3.NH.AN.chase.PROG dog cat.DAM
'The dog is chasing the cat.'
a. Haṭhana ḍaha tšemenge.
3.NH.AN.see.IMPF dog cat.DAM
'The dog sees the cat (habitually).'
b. *Haraṭhana ḍaha tšemenge.
3.NH.AN.see.PROG dog cat.DAM

Intended: 'The dog can see the cat (at this moment).'

### 2.4.5 Valency and transitivity

Verbs have a default transitivity. For example, zom- 'to sleep', being intransitive, does not take a direct object:
(26) Harazoma xaan.
3.NH.AN.sleep.PROG girl
'The girl is sleeping.'
The verb džot- 'to hit', however, is transitive and does take a direct object:
(27) Aradžota łiin ǧodžo.
3.INAN.hit.PROG man canoe
'The man is hitting the canoe.'
Nevertheless, many transitive verbs, such as ziǧ- 'to eat', may occur without an overt object in the clause or even without an object implied by context. However, the
verb itself still acts as a transitive verb and agrees not with the subject as it would with an intransitive verb (see §2.4.1) but with the omitted object. The agreement is always third person, with the humanness/animacy determined by the action of the particular verb. In the case of ziǧ-, this agreement is inanimate. Compare the sentence in (28a) with an overt object with that in (28b) which lacks one but still shows object agreement and the ungrammatical example in (28c) which lacks an object but agrees with the subject.
a. Ereziǧe deme hiḍa.
3.NH.AN.eat.PROG 1sG cooked_fish
'I am eating fish.'
b. Ereziǧe deme. 3.NH.AN.eat.PROG 1sG 'I am eating.'
c. *Dereziǧe deme.

1SG.eat.PROG 1SG
Intended: 'I am eating.'
However, not all verbs are unable to change their agreement marking. Certain intransitive verbs may be used transitively without any overt morphological marking. This includes a lack of change in agreement marking but, crucially, the absolutive agreement being agreed with changes from a subject to an object. If appropriate (see §2.3.2), the object may then be required to take on overt case marking. Such intransitive-transitive alternations are most often equivalent to stative/inchoativecausative alternations. This typically also has the effect of converting a stative verbs into a dynamic one. This is illustrated with xoš- 'to be dry' below.
a. Axoša d daha.
3.NH.AN.be_dry.IMPF dog
'The dog is dry.'
b. Araxoša deme ḍahaga.
3.NH.AN.be_dry.PROG 1SG dog.DAM
'I am drying the dog.'
Lastly, it should be noted that Xwere Gonom is a secundative language. That is, for ditransitive verbs, recipients are cast not as secondary or indirect objects but as primary direct objects. Ditransitive verbs thus agree with the recipient and not the theme. Ditransitive typically also use a double object construction, with the theme as the secondary object. This is exemplified below.
(30) Siitšii łiin ǧeinge gondo.
3.H.give.PF man boy.DAM fishing_rod
'The man gave the boy the fishing rod.'

### 2.4.6 Associated motion

Associated motion is the marking on a verb of a direction of motion involved in the commission of an action. This is marked on verbs by prefixes, of which there are four: cislocative, translocative, circumlocative and praeterlocative. These prefixes attached directly to the verb stem before any agreement or aspect marking. The forms and functions of the associated motion markers are summarised in Table 8.

|  | Prefix | Use |
| ---: | :--- | :--- |
| CIS | dii-/do-/dol- | motion towards the deictic centre |
| TRANS | mi-/mo-/m- | motion away from the deictic centre |
| CIRCUM | ža'-/že'- | motion generally proximal to or around the <br> deictic centre |
| PREATER | xwaa-/kwaa- | motion past but proximal to the deictic centre |

Table 8: Forms and functions of associated motion prefixes

The marking of associated motion is typically considered mandatory on verbs of motion but optional other verbs. The use of associated motion prefixes may be used in uses beyond those expressing literal movement, especially with verbs whose semantics do not easily lend themselves to this. For example, the cislocative may be used to indicate affectedness on the part of the verb's absolutive argument with change-of-state verbs or even verbs of cognition.

### 2.4.7 Verbal intensive

The verbal intensive is used to express that a state holds to a high degree or that an action is performed with especial speed, determination, vigour or competence, such as in the examples below.
(31) Sakokoošoga xaan.
3.h.be_happy.INT.IMPF girl
'The girl is very happy.'
(32) Itetełigii xaan loža.
3.INAN.throw.INT.IMPF girl fishing_net
'The girl threw the fishing net really well.'

Intensives are formed by a combination of the suffix -ig/-og and prefixed reduplication of the verb stem. These apply after aspectual stem alterations but before tense and number suffixes.

### 2.4.8 Verbal distributive

The verbal distributive is used to express that one or more of the arguments of a verb, most often the absolutive argument, is particularly numerous and/or dispersed in space and/or time in some way. This is illustrated by the following example.
(33) Eretsepire ǧein giga.
3.INAN.look_for.DISTR.PROG boy berry
'The boy is foraging for berries.'
The distributive is marked by the suffix -ir/-or, which is added after aspectual stem alterations but before tense and number suffixes. It does not require any overt plural marking on the verb that would not otherwise be present.

### 2.4.9 Verbal nouns

Verbal nouns are nominalised forms of verbs referring to the action, event or state expressed by the verb root. They are formed by way of the suffix $-(r) a /-(r) e$. They are commonly used as the complement of a main verb, as in the example below.
(34) Adžaaṛa ḍaha dziime gwe hedžin.
3.INAN.need.IMPF dog drink.NM with water.OBL
'The dog needs to drink water.'
Note that, as true nouns, even with transitive verb roots, they require a preposition in order to take objects. The choice of preposition is dependent on the semantics of both the verbal noun and object.

### 2.5 Property concepts

Property concepts are expressed by three different lexical categories: true adjectives, stative verbs and nouns. There exists only a very small set of true adjectives, which occur post-nominally when used attributively and may also be used predicatively either with an overt copula or simply in apposition with an intonational break between subject and complement. Examples include gaun 'new', žei 'bad' and tšod 'empty'. The use of true adjectives is illustrated in below with the last of these.
a. Ǧodžo tšoḍ.
canoe empty
'The empty canoe.'/‘The canoe is empty. ${ }^{5}$
b. Agara ǧodžo tšoḍ.
3.INAN.COP.IMPF canoe empty
'The canoe is empty.'

The remainder of property concepts are expressed by stative verbs or nouns. To be used attributively, stative verbs must be relativised (see §2.8.2). When used predicatively they simply behave as normal stative verbs. This is exemplified with xoš- 'to be dry' below.
a. Tlama yaxoša.
cloth REL.3.INAN.be_dry.IMPF
'The dry cloth.'
b. Axoša tlama.
3.INAN.be_dry.IMPF cloth
'The cloth is dry.'
Lastly, nouns which express property concepts occur either as bare post-nominal oblique modifiers or in a following modifying prepositional phrase when used attributively. To be used attributively, a dummy head noun such as žod 'thing' is used an the subject and complement occurs either in apposition or in a copular clause, similar to true adjectives. This is illustrated using the noun dožaa 'black colour' by the following examples.
a. Da'mii dožaan.
pebble black.obl
'The black pebble.'/'The pebble is black.'
b. Agara ḍa'mii dožaan.
3.INAN.COP.IMPF pebble black.OBL
'The pebble is black.'

### 2.6 Deixis

Deixis is sensitive to location relative to the main river running through the territory where the language is spoken with respect to the speaker (or alternatively the deictic centre of the discourse in narratives excluding both speaker and addressee). There are six deictic terms in the language, given in Table 9.

These terms overlap to a certain extent and the choice is often governed by the immediate context in which the deictic term is used as well as position relative to the river and speaker.

Deictic terms may be used as postnominal demonstratives, demonstrative pronouns and as location adverbs; however, though it is possible to use them on their own as pronouns or adverbs, they also often occur as a modifier alongside a generic head noun, e.g. tiin 'man', žod 'thing' or yit 'place'.

[^4]| No. | Form | Use |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| 1 | geen | generic but typically closely proximal to the speaker or <br> otherwise proximal in the discourse but not appropriately <br> covered by other terms |
| upriver from the speaker, particularly when not proximal |  |  |
| to the speaker; otherwise agnostic w.r.t. to location relative |  |  |
| to the water |  |  |
| downriver from the speaker, particularly when not prox- |  |  |
| imal to the speaker; otherwise agnostic w.r.t. to location |  |  |
| relative to the water |  |  |
| on the same side of the river as the speaker but most often |  |  |
| not closely proximal to them |  |  |
| on the opposite side of the river to the speaker |  |  |
| in the river, on the surface of the water or on an island in |  |  |
| the river, especially when vaguely proximal to the speaker |  |  |

Table 9: Deictic terms

### 2.7 Questions

Polar (AKA yes-no) questions are most often formed by adding the question particle gaa in clause-initial position to the corresponding declarative statement, as illustrated below.
(38) a. Obolii taž šom.
3.INAN.drink.PF woman milk
'The woman drank the milk.'
b. Gaa obolii taž šom?

Q 3.INAN.drink.PF woman milk
'Did the woman drink the milk?'
Content (AKA wh-) questions are typically formed by fronting the question word and its modifiers, as seen in the example that follows.

Teen obolii taž?
what 3.INAN.drink.PF woman
'What did the man drink?'
An inexhaustive list of question words is given below:
(40)
a. Dziteen 'why, how come'
f. Ti' yił 'where'
b. Neteen 'why, what for'
g. Ti' žod 'which (INAN)'
c. Ti' ło' 'when, if'
h. Teen 'what'
d. Ti' moṛo 'how much’
i. Toš, tošad 'who (SG, PL)'
e. Ti' tsoi 'which (AN)'

### 2.8 Clauses

### 2.8.1 Constituent order

The basic constituent order in an intransitive clause is VS:

## (41) Sarazoma taž.

3.H.sleep.PROG woman
'The woman is sleeping.'
In a (mono)transitive clause, the basic constituent order is VSO:

| (42) | Abola tiin šom. |
| :--- | :--- |
|  | 3.INAN.drink.IMPF man milk |
|  | 'The man drinks milk.' |

However, word order is moderately flexible and constituents may be moved around in order to help convey the information structure of an utterance. There is even limited tolerance of discontinuous noun phrases, with nouns and modifiers being able to be separated from one another when only one is fronted.

SVO/OVS may be used to focus a subject/object that is already present in the discourse. The element fronted for focus is typically accompanied by an intonational peak.

> a. Łiin abola šom.
> man 3.INAN.drink.IMPF milk
> 'It's the man that drinks milk.'
b. Šom abola łiin.
milk 3.INAN.drink.IMPF man
'It's milk that the man drinks.'
In certain contexts, fronting may also be used to express various types of topic. Fronted topics are usually followed by an intonational break and, unlike with focus, do not display an abnormal intonational peak.
(44) Hedž, abola deme.
water 3.INAN.drink.IMPF 1SG
'As for water, I drink that.'
(45) Tshe', adžaaṛa kii ti' moṛo?
egg 3.INAN.need.IMPF 2sG.NCS how_many
'When it comes to eggs, how many do you need?'
In actual fact, fronting for focus and fronting for topicalisation are slightly different processes: the focus position is pre-verbal (which more often than not also happens
to be clause initial) and the topic position is clause initial. This can be seen in very rare instances where both focalising and topicalising fronting occur, as below. This can then result in the order SOV or OSV.
(46) Tshe', łiin eziǧe.
egg man 3.INAN.eat.IMPF
'When it comes to eggs, it's the man who eats them.'

It is not uncommon, however, to see the order VOS. This is one way in which Xwere Gonom may express what would, in other languages, be conveyed by the passive voice.
(47) a. Sitigii ḍaha xaanga.
3.H.bite.PF dog girl.DAM
'The dog bit the girl.'
b. Sitigii xaanga ḍaha.
3.H.bite.PF girl.DAM dog
'The girl was bitten by a dog.'

### 2.8.2 Relative clauses

Relative clauses are formed by addition of the prefix $i-/ 0-/ y$ - to an already conjugated verb. The clause in which this verb is found is then able to act as a post-nominal modifier. The slot that the modified noun would occupy in the relative clause is left blank, though the relativised verb nevertheless agrees if the head noun is the omitted absolutive argument of the relative clause. This is illustrated by the examples below.
(48) a. Siṭhanii deme łiinge.
3.H.see.PF 1sG man.DAM
'I saw the man.'
b. Łiin isiṭhanii deme.
man REL.3.H.see.PF 1SG
'The man (whom) I saw.'
c. Hiredžii łiin isiṭhanii deme tshadla.
3.NH.AN.hunt.PF man REL.3.H.see.PF 1SG fish.DAM
'The man whom I saw caught a fish.'

Though Xwere Gonom lacks participles, relativised verbs can be used in a similar way to some participial forms in other languages.

### 2.8.3 Coordination

Phrases, most often noun phrases, can be coordinated with conjunctions, e.g. $d z i$ 'and', as in the example below.
(49) Eziǧe deme hiḍa dzi boan.
3.INAN.eat.IMPF 1SG cooked_fish and roe
'I eat fish and roe.'
Clausal coordination, however, is usually asyndetic, as can be seen in the following example sentences.

Arakama deme booh, sarazomad siid.
3.INAN.do.PROG 1sG work 3.NH.AN.sleep.PROG 3PL.H
'I am working and they are sleeping.'
(51) Diṭ̣hanii tšemen dege, hipe'ǧwian hen.

1SG.eat.PF cat 1SG.DAM 3.NH.AN.flee.CONSEC 3SG.NH.AN
'The cat saw me and then ran away.'

## 3 Vocabulary

The following part-of-speech abbreviations are used in the entries provided:

| adj. | adjective | prep. | preposition |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| adv. | adverb | q. | quantifier |
| conj. | conjunction | v.i.d. | intransitive dynamic verb |
| n.a. | animate noun | v.i.s. | intransitive stative verb |
| n.i. | inanimate noun | v.t.d. | transitive dynamic verb |
| num. | numeral | v.t.s. | transitive stative verb |

Declinable forms are entered in their unmarked direct form followed by the marked inverse (DAM) and oblique forms. Animate nouns are also followed by the corresponding plural forms. Verbs are entered with the uninflected stem followed by the third person inanimate singular forms of the imperfect ( $\emptyset$-stem), terminative ( 3 -stem) and optative (h-stem).
bau-, abaura, ibau'itl, ipauhiš v.t.s. $\mathbf{1}$ • to know. $2 \cdot$ to learn, to discover, to find out, to hear about.
bee, -ge, benen num. $\mathbf{1}$ • two. $2 \cdot$ second (as oblique ordinal numeral). $3 \cdot$ other (as oblique adnominal modifier).
dağ, -iga, -in n.i. house, home, abode, residence, dwelling, settlement, inhabited area.
dan prep. $1 \cdot$ via, through, along, by way of (perlative). $2 \cdot$ by means of, with, using (instrumental). $3 \cdot$ over, through, during (temporal duration).
dlaa-, adlaara, idlee'itl, idleehiš v.i.s. to live, to dwell.
dloam-, adloama, odloa'mitl, odloahmiš v.t.d. $1 \cdot$ to lead, to guide, to drive, to conduct. $2 \cdot$ to command, to be in charge of. $3 \cdot$ to drive (of vehicles). $4 \cdot$ to use, to operate (of machinery, devices).
dzii', -ge, -in n.i. \& n.a. $1 \cdot$ blood. $2 \cdot$ consanguineous relation (most often as an oblique adnominal modifier). Note: This word is invariably animate in sense 2 and variably animate in sense 1.
dzii' gobom n.a. ancestors, forefathers, forebears. Note: This is treated as a mass noun.

ḍal-, aḍala, iḍa'litl, iḍahłmiš v.t.d. to start, to begin.
Darọ̣ Gooḍi, -a -ge, -om -n n.a. personal name of a particular individual.
Diṛanaḍ, -a, -in; -aḍ, -ara, -aṛin n.a. individual of a particular ethnic group.
ḍog-, aḍoga, oḍo'gitl, oḍohgiš v.i.d. to fall.
gehn, -ige, -n n.i. $1 \cdot$ barrel. $2 \cdot$ trunk, bole. $3 \cdot$ torso. $4 \cdot$ mound.
gehn gizin n.i. beehive.
geum $a d v$. \& conj. $1 \cdot$ now, right now, at this moment. $2 \cdot$ then, after which, that being the case, at that a point in time (expresses a logical consequence and/or connects a subsequent event to a preceding event).
giaža, -g, -n n.i. fruit, nut.
giz, -iga, -in; -id, -ira, -irin n.a. bee (though usually not bumblebees).
goa•n, -ga, -mom n.i. blue, violet, purple colour.
goliiš, -e, -in n.i. $1 \cdot$ plant, vegetation. $2 \cdot$ growth (e.g. sprout on a tuber, tumour).
$3 \cdot$ offshoot, offspring.
gwiaḍ-, agwiaḍa, igwia'ḍitl, igwiahḍiš v.t.d. to tie, to link, to connect.
ǧop-, aǧopa, oǧo'pitl, oǧohpiš v.t.s. to respect.
 maternal aunt).
hig-, ahiga, ihi'gitl, ipihgiš v.i.d. to break.
hoš $q$. many/much, a lot of.
itš-, aitša, ii'tšitl, iihtšiš v.t.d. to give.
kel-, ekele, ike'litl, igehłiš v.i.s. to be happy, to be glad, to be jolly, to be enthusiastic.
kiip-, ekiipe, ikii'pitl, igiihpiš v.i.s. to be strong, to become strong, to get strong. ło' gobom, -ga $\sim$, -om $\sim$ n.i. far past, long ago, olden days, days of yore, ancient times.
łob-, ałoba, oło’bitl, ołohpiš v.t.d. to drop, to let go of, to let loose, to relinquish, to yield, to cede, to free, to liberate.
meh adj. such, that/this kind/sort.
na prep. $\mathbf{1} \cdot$ to, towards (indicating a destination). $2 \cdot$ up to, until. $\mathbf{3} \cdot$ to (indicating a recipient). $4 \cdot$ for (indicating a beneficiary). $5 \cdot$ for (indicating a purpose). $6 \cdot$ for (i.e. in exchange). $7 \cdot$ of (i.e. denoting attributive possession).

Niidžanoodžo, -ga, -m n.i. name of a particular settlement.
peğw-, epeǧwe, ipe'ǧwitl, ipehxwiš v.t.d. to flee, to escape (that being fled from is cast in a prepositional phrase headed by ken.
po'-, apo'a, opo'itl, opohiš v.i.s. $\mathbf{1} \cdot$ to bear, to carry, to contain. $2 \cdot$ to be laden with, to be full of. $3 \cdot$ to produce (e.g. flowers), to bear (e.g. fruit), to give birth, to produce.
ših, -iga, -in n.i. cloud.
t-, ata, i'titl, ihdiš v.t.d. to say, to tell, to mention.
thaš-, athaša, ithe'šitl, idehšiš v.t.d. to ask.
thog-, athoga, otho'gitl, odohgiš v.t.d. to listen to, to hear, to pay attention to.
tsam-, atsama, itsa'mitl, idzahmiš v.t.d. $1 \cdot$ to gather, to collect. $2 \cdot$ to harvest. Note: Frequently co-occurs with the distributive, especially in sense 2.
tsamira, -ga, -n n.i. harvest (event), gathering (event), collection (event).
tšig-, etšige, itši'gitl, idžihgiš v.i.s. $\mathbf{1} \cdot$ to be quick, to be fast, to be swift. $2 \cdot$ to act quickly, to do something quickly.
ṭaǧ-, aṭağa, iṭe'ǧitl, iḍehxiš v.t.d. to tell, to recount, to report, to relate, to describe, to talk about, to present.

ṭeǧeṛi, -ge, -n n.i. tale, story, account.
ṭhan-, aṭhana, iṭha'nitl, iḍahniš v.t.s. to see (i.e. to perceive something by sight but not necessarily volitionally or intentionally).
ṭian, -ge, -in n.i. day, daytime, daylight (a period of time when the sun is up, i.e. from dawn to dusk).
waa-, awaara, iwaa'itl, iwaahiš v.t.s. to resemble, to look like, to have the shape of, to take the form of.
xadl, -a, -in; -ad, -ara, -arin n.a. $1 \cdot$ person, human being.
xiidl, -ige, -in n.i. forest, wood.
xoom-, axooma, oxoo'mitl, ogoohmiš v.t.d. $1 \cdot$ to drown. $2 \cdot$ to sink. $3 \cdot$ to overwhelm.
yor--, ayora, oyo'ḍitl, oyohḍiš v.t.d. to reply, to answer.
ži prep. $1 \cdot$ in, at, on. $2 \cdot$ during. $3 \cdot$ under (e.g. the sun, pressure, etc.).
žod, -a, -in n.i. $1 \cdot$ thing (generic inanimate dummy word). $2 \cdot$ object, item, article.


[^0]:    1 The following glossing abbreviations are used: $1=$ first person, $2=$ second person, $3=$ third person, AN = animate, $\mathrm{ANT}=$ anterior, $\mathrm{CIRCUM}=$ circumlocative, CIS $=$ cislocative, COND $=$ conditional, $\quad$ CONSEC $=$ consecutive,$\quad \operatorname{CONT}=$ continuative,$\quad \mathrm{COP}=$ copula, $\quad \mathrm{CS}=$ consanguineous, DAM = differential argument marking, DISTR = distributive, DU = dual, EXCL $=$ exclusive, $\mathrm{H}=$ human, $\mathrm{IMM}=$ immediative, $\mathrm{IMPF}=$ imperfective, $\mathrm{INAN}=$ inanimate, $\mathrm{INCL}=$ inclusive, $\mathrm{INT}=$ intensive, $\mathrm{NCS}=$ non-consanguineous, $\mathrm{NEG}=$ negative, $\mathrm{NH}=$ nonhuman, $\quad \mathrm{NM}=$ nominaliser, $\quad \mathrm{OBL}=$ oblique $, \quad \mathrm{OPT}=\mathrm{optative}, \quad \mathrm{PF}=$ perfective,$\quad \mathrm{PL}=$ plural, PREATER $=$ preaterlocative, PROG $=$ progressive, $\mathrm{Q}=$ question particle, REL $=$ relative, $\mathrm{SG}=$ singular, SIMUL $=$ simultaneous, TERM $=$ terminative, TRANS $=$ translocative.

[^1]:    2 At least for our purposes here, the first vowel in a diphthong should be understood as the element that determines its primary features.

[^2]:    3 At least, matrix verbs do not display tense, though certain aspects arguably express pure/strict relative tense with dependent verbs.

[^3]:    4 See also my 2023 LCC talk on this topic: video at https://youtu.be/wzm6u47ney4, slides at https://keras-saryan.github.io/docs/xwg-lcc10-2023.pdf.

[^4]:    5 As noted above, the attributive and predicative uses have different intonation but this is not reflected in the romanised transcription here.

