Rówaŋma Loose ends from last time

Adverbs can be formed with nouns followed by the instrumental (-fsi)

result clause; to get, for getting, hope get, so - it's right > there is unto it truth, correct/right (verb) etc.

vastsey - to make

stuwhes **əstupəis* - enough/very much/too much maw stuwhésgo nktráthyu - i've had enough, *lit*. I've carried too much

To think that (to think in this way...) - fneh nhróir, ma-athróywhir > nthróyir > nhróir

Think and add??? I actually use the comitative and (-m(e))in Rówaŋma;

the comitative case is used to mark two nouns together \
*uŋŕín**me** lita* - cats and dogs (lit. dogs with cats)
this works for more constituents too\
*ŋéwhgo**m** jazíg**me** zídhgo nothłińe u* - there's skewers and doughnuts and fruit in
the food store (lit. the food store has some fruit with some doughnuts with some skewers)

however when the list is long **iko** can be added before the last element marked with the comitative, or in a more childish or emphatic manner before each element \

*źín**me iko** isk**am** whurson awsla* - shadows and smoke and fire all flow (lit. fire with shadows and also with smoke flow)\

(in response to listing emotions) ***iko*** *arne**m** **iko** frín**me** **iko** hekasi**m** **iko** stro**m** **iko** nilya**m**...* ~ (there's) anger and pain and peace and love and romance and... (etc.)

iko can mean different things depending on word order, so used as a phrasal coordinator it is and/also, and must come as the first word of the second phrase, otherwise if used at the end of a phrase it means too/as well\

*maw molya strow//**iko** (maw) molya strow* ~ I love you//I love you too

Or can be translated in a few different ways (pending), but one which I have developed is simply two irrealis verbs next to eachother coordinated by **aŋhko** (maybe), which incidentally is formed from **iko** with the irrealis verbal prefix **aŋh**\

***aŋhko** cer śe źondhar **aŋ**woluŋoth, **aŋhko** Madáŋwi **aŋh**śowha* ~ maybe he'll come here tomorrow or maybe he'll go to Madang

Phonology

Proto Rówaŋma inventory

	bilabial	dental/alveolar	velar	uvular
stop	p, b	<u>t</u> , d	k, g	q
nasal		Ŭ		
fricative		S		
liquid		r, l		

	front	central	back
close	i		u
mid		Ð	
open		а	

Syllable structure is (C)V(C), any consonant can appear in initial or coda position No diphthongs, any vowels in sequence are a hiatus and so are two syllables long with no separation, no more than two vowels can follow eachother in sequence. A maximum of three vowels can be in sequence.

Diachronic sound changes

- 1. L darkening: /l/ becomes /w/ syllable finally $I \rightarrow w$ / V_C, V_#
- **2.** Diphthongisation: the vowels in hiatus become diphthongs $iu \rightarrow ju$, $ia \rightarrow ja$, $ii \rightarrow ji$, $ui \rightarrow wi$, $ua \rightarrow wa$, $uu \rightarrow wu$, $ai \rightarrow e$, $au \rightarrow o$, $aa/aa \rightarrow aa$, $ai \rightarrow ai$, $au \rightarrow au$, $aa \rightarrow aa$, $aw \rightarrow o$, $aw \rightarrow o$, $iw \rightarrow ju$, $uw \rightarrow wu$, $aa \rightarrow aa$:
- **3.** Nasal assimilation: nasals assimilate both ways in consonant clusters with a plosive $NP[\alpha-P.O.A.] \rightarrow N[\alpha-P.O.A.]P[\alpha-P.O.A.]$
- **4.** Intervocalic fricatives voice: intervocalic s voices to z, (sequence ss remains unvoiced)
- 5. Uvular vowel colouring: the uvular consonants lower preceding and following vowels and diphthongs i, {e, ə}, u, {o, a}→e, a, o, a / U_,_U (/w/ and /j/ are transparent)
- 6. Unstressed schwa deletion: the schwa is deleted in unstressed environments with the following repercussions: Word initial NC → C:, Word initial I{S, s} → {S, s}I, consonant clusters of more than 4 plosives are split in groups of 4 from the end of the cluster, with an unwritten epenthetic short schwa placed to split up the cluster (overall PPRPP syllable where P is plosive and R is resonant). nasals laterals and sibilants are now syllabic in a cluster if necessary, syllabic /j/ palatalises the following consonant
- 7. Schwa colouring: schwa is coloured by the nearest vowel to it (priority is on the following vowel, but previous used for when schwa is the final vowel), in diphthongs and alone ∂→o/{u, o}, ∂→e/{i, e}, ∂→a/{a, a} (sporadic, often goes to /e/), also short schwa, ∂a→wa/{u, o}, ∂a→ja/{i, e}, ∂a→a:/{a, a}
- 8. Diphthong shifts: $ai \rightarrow e$, $ae \rightarrow ai$, $\{au, aw\} \rightarrow o$, $ao \rightarrow au$, $ae \rightarrow aa \rightarrow a$:

- 9. Voicing assimilation in clusters: voicing in consonant clusters spread through from the final consonant C[β-voice]C[α-voice]→C[α-voice]C[α-voice] (n and r transparent) [this rule carries forward from here on]
- **10. Gemination:** some consonant clusters simplify to geminated consonants $S_1S_2 \rightarrow S_2$:, {S, n}n \rightarrow n:, n{s, r, S} \rightarrow {s:, r, S:}, ss \rightarrow s:, rr \rightarrow r
- **11. Mass lenition:** single stops lenite (geminated stay as stops) in all contexts, apart from stop + sibilant
- 12. Degemination: all geminated consonants become single consonants
- 13. Initial cluster organisation: the only allowed word initial clusters at this stage are SS-, (s/F)S(r)-, N(s/F/S)(S)(r)-, (s)SN-, the others sort themselves out (this is not particularly standardised since this is not very many words)
- **14. Palatalisation:** any consonant that comes before /j/ undergoes palatalisation {p b m r }j→no change, {<u>t</u>, <u>d</u>, s, z, k, g, n, l}j→{c, <u>j</u>, <u>j</u>, <u>z</u>, c, <u>j</u>, <u>n</u>, λ}, {φ, θ, x, χ}j→ç, {β, ð, γ, в}j→j, qj→k, {gl, gl, γl, в}→λ
- **15. Coronal liquid metathesis:** V{r r}IV \rightarrow Vw{r r}V, {r r}CI \rightarrow wC{r r} / C can be a cluster
- **16. Labialisation:** diphthongs beginning with /w/ labialise preceding velar/uvular/bilabial stop or nasal (stays as a cluster for coronals/liquids/trills)
- **17. Alveolar trill becomes uvular trill:** $r \rightarrow R$ in all contexts
- **18. Uvular weakening:** $q \rightarrow \chi$ in all contexts
- **19.** Alveolar tap becomes uvular trill next to guttural fricatives: $r{x, \chi, \gamma, B} \rightarrow R$
- **20. W/Wh genesis from freakwicatives:** labialised fricatives become either /w/ or /m/ $\{\phi, \theta, \varsigma, x, \chi\}^w \rightarrow M, \{\beta, \delta, j, \gamma, \varkappa\}^w \rightarrow W$
- 21. Nasal assimilation but only a little bit: $\underline{n}w \rightarrow \underline{n}^w$
- **22. Palatal merger:** palatal fricatives and alveolo-palatal sibilants go into free variation with eachother
- 23. Vowel sequences involving m/w simplify: (here)w=m, w; {a, a}w → o:, {o, u}w → u:, {i, e}w → ju (intermediary stages where bracketed vowels converge to the latter and then become the final forms)
- **24. Palatal Syllable shift:** Palatals consonants followed by a /j/ in a syllable onset shift to the final consonant of the previous syllable, if there is already a cluster there then the palatal starts its own syllable using the vowel to its right
- **25. Labial-Lateral switcheroo:** $I\{w \ M\} \rightarrow \{w \ M\} / V_V$ (i.e. when the I has intruded onto the previous syllable)
- **26. Glide Precipitation:** when glides form a sequence inbetween a consonant and a vowel they become vowels, $CjwV \rightarrow CiwV$, $CwjV \rightarrow CujV$
- 27. Lablialised velar yeetification: labialised velar stops and nasals become bilabial stops or nasals {k^w, g^w, ŋ^w}→{p, b, m}
- 28. Back open vowel shift: /a/ shifts to either /a/ or /o/ depending on the vowel immediately to its right if it occurs before the stressed vowel and immediately to the left if it occurs after the stressed vowel, unless it is stressed, then it takes the quality from the vowel immediately to its left, and if the word only contains that vowel, for nouns take the definite singular form without the prefix becomes the stem. If this results in overlong vowels, delete a single segment and treat as a long vowel
- **29. Long vowel destruction:** long vowels become diphthongs i: \rightarrow eI, e: \rightarrow je, a: \rightarrow wo, o: \rightarrow av, u: \rightarrow ov
- **30. Back fricative shift:** /x/ and / χ / debuccalise to /h/; / χ /, / μ / and /R/ merge to / μ ~ χ /

- **31. Clusters involving /h/ become single phonemes:** consonants in direct contact with /h/ change (voiced > voiceless, ???? hj>ç), h+stop epenthetic mid vowel placed (e or o in context, as per) also lat fric. From freakwickatives
- **32. Final unstressed vowel apocope:** final unstressed single vowels disappear, when the previous syllable is open V→Ø / VC_# [-stress] (word final I permitted)
- **33. Voiced stop nasal assimilation:** voiced stops or fricatives before a nasal becomes a nasal too, if same, it disappears C[+voice, +obstruent]→C[+nasal] / _C[+nasal]
- 34. Nasalisation: vowels preceding a nasal consonant become nasalised
- **35. Bilabial labiovelar merger:** bilabial fricatives merge with labiovelar glides, $\beta \rightarrow w$, unconditionally*; $\phi \rightarrow M$, outside cluster. *this means that cluster initial/internal w becomes u if necessary
- 36. Bilabial fricative shift: \$\ophi\$→f\$ (this is now an allophone of \$\mathbb{M}\$, and appears syllable finally before clusters, as \$\mathbb{M}\$ cannot be cluster initial or internal, and it does not assimilate to the previous vowel, so it must stay f, unlike \$\mathbb{w}\$)

Modern Rówaŋma inventory + romanisation

Where romanisation differs from IPA, it is given in square brackets to the side of the IPA values

	labial	dental/alveol ar	palatal	velar/uvular	glottal
stop	p, b	<u>t</u> , ₫ ⟨t, d⟩	c~ce, j~j> (c,	k, g	
sibilant		S, Z	ç~ʃ~ɛ, j~ʒ~z		
fricative	(f)	θ , ð \langle th, dh \rangle	⟨S, Z⟩	п∽Х ⟨ţ ⟩	h
nasal	m, m ⟨m, mh⟩	n, n (n) ⟨n, nh⟩	ɲ, ŋ ⟨ń, ńh⟩	ŋ, ŋ ⟨ŋ, ŋh⟩	
rhotic		$r \langle r \rangle$			
liquid		<u>, i</u> ⟨ł, l⟩	j, ƙ ⟨y, ly⟩	m∼h ^w , w ⟨wh, w⟩	

	front	central	back
close	i~I		น~ช~ น ~ซ
mid	ę~e		<u></u>
open		а	

Diphthongs

 $ei\,\langle ey\rangle,\,oi\,\langle oy\rangle,\,ai\,\langle ay\rangle,\,je\,\langle ye\rangle,\,ju\,\langle yu\rangle,\,we\,\langle we\rangle,\,wo\,\langle wo\rangle,\,a\upsilon\,\langle aw\rangle,\,o\upsilon\,\langle ow\rangle$

Any two vowels in series are pronounced separately, with hiatus, not as a diphthong (e.g. oe = /o.e/)

When stress does not fall on the final vowel, it is marked with an acute accent: apa /a.'pa/, ápa /'a.pa/

The palatal fricatives are in free variation, with the standard being the true palatal fricatives [ç] and [j], with different regions using different sounds. Some speakers may have variation such as sibilants being used in clusters etc. but standard pronunciation uses the same palatal sounds universally.

The uvular fricative is also in free variation, with some speakers devoicing it in all contexts, while the standard is voiced everywhere but before unvoiced consonants. There are some speakers who voice it in all positions, with some still having it as a trill (although this is restricted to very specific regions).

Allophones and Spelling rules

Spellings in Rówaŋma are generally completely phonetic, however some phonemes are spelled differently to their realisations.

Roots are always spelled the same, no matter what the suffixes are, however voicing assimilation occurs spreading from the rightmost phoneme. This only affects the phonemes $|s|/z|/w|/\psi|/\partial/d$ and |w| (although this last one is not reflected in spelling). e.g.

zidh [zið] > zídhka ['ziθ.ka] lwaŕ [lwaʁ] > lwáŕfsi ['lwaχ.fsi] aws [aʊs] > áwsgo ['aʊz.go] When wh /տ/ is in a cluster it changes to [f], and w /w/ also devoices to [f]

tiwh [tiʌ] > tíwhśka ['t̪if.çka] gdaw [gdaʊ] > gdáwste ['ɡdaf.st̪e]

The velar nasal /ŋ/ is represented by ⟨ng⟩ when not before a velar consonant, such as in ŋaŕ /ŋав/. Before /k/, /ŋ/ is spelled n, so /ŋk/ is spelled ⟨nk⟩ as in nktra /ŋktra/. Before /g/, /ŋ/ is spelled as ⟨n⟩, but the digraph is separated by an apostrophe, so /ŋg/ is spelled ⟨ŋg⟩ as in śéyŋgo /'çeɪŋ.go/

The voiced velar stop (g) has the allophone [ŋ] in word final position, so leŋ is pronounced [leŋ]

Syllabic nasals surrounded by voiceless sounds can optionally be pronounced voicelessly. E.g.

```
ełntirte /e.ɬn.tir.te/ > [e.ɬ̪n.t̪ir.'t̪e]
```

Vowel quality changes based on position; /e/ and /o/ are true mid [e] and [o] in open syllables and close mid [e] and [o] in closed syllables - compare

le [le] leg [leg] ro [ro] rok [rok] /i/ and /u/ can alternate from [i] and [u] in open syllables to [I] and $[\upsilon]$ in closed syllables (although some speakers do not do this) - compare

ŋi [ŋi] ŋik [ŋɪk] haku [ha.'ku] hakum [ha.'kʊm]

Palatal sounds {c j c j n n j Λ } change vowels they are adjacent to (in the same syllable) in the following ways;

/i/ and /e/ are [i] and [e] and retain the same quality even in open/closed syllables (*ńik* [ɲik] not *[ɲɪk] and śe *[çe])

/u/ and /o/ front to [ʉ] and [θ] in open syllables and [ΰ] and [θ] in closed syllables (*hakúthyu* [ha.'kuθ.jʉ] *brźo* [brje] hakuś [ha.'kΰç] *brźom* [brjem]

dhloyu only the /u/ is affected because the palatal is in the next syllable [õlo.'ju] not *[õlo.'ju]

Nasal consonants optionally nasalise any vowel they occur directly afterwards in the same syllable

Vowels allophonically change voicing to breathy or creaky voice when surrounded by either voiceless or voiced consonants respectively, or word finally after voiceless or voiced consonants

Stress and timing

Stress falls on the final syllable of the root word, and if this is not at the end of a word, the stressed vowel receives an accent. e.g. owhánśo, nothŋhałíŋgo The language is mora timed, with heavy syllables (diphthong nucleus, consonant cluster) taking more time than light syllables (single vowel, syllabic nasal). Does this need defining?

Grammar

<u>Nouns</u>

Nouns inflect for many nominal cases (see full table below), with an unmarked word order of SOV - *maw ita u*; I have a dog, which in ditransitive clauses is ISOV - *thkak molya ńáwsgo śka*; you have given your child some water.

Postpositions

Noun classes: there are three noun classes, not marked on the bare form of the noun, but the demonstratives must agree: **i*the human, **lei* animate, **neu* inanimate

Number and definiteness marked with same affix -

*ta (single/only) > singular definite marker

*ni (few) > paucal definite marker

*əs (many) > plural definite marker

*no number > indefinite

these affixes precede the noun phrase, any incorporated noun is inherently indefinite, for definite construction you need to use a relative clause. [they glommed on about 23/24]

	singular	paucal	plural
human	* <i>it̪ət̪a</i> > t(a)-/d-	* <i>iṯəṉi ></i> n(i)/m-	* <i>ițəs</i> > (i)s-/z-
animate	* <i>ləi<u>t</u>a</i> > le(th/dh)-	* <i>ləi<u>n</u>i</i> > le(n)-	*ləis > l/u-
inanimate	*n̪əuṯa > no(th/dh)-	* <i>n̪əun̪i</i> > no(n)-	* <i>ឮəus</i> > n(o)/m-

The proto form literally means single-person, few-thing, etc.

person, the person, some people, people = han, **ta**han, **n**han, **is**han OR lila, **ta**lila, **n**lila, **s**lila

(the phonological rules here are that: **human** *ta*- proceeds any cluster of 2 stops, /h/, any resonant excluding /w/ or /r/, /t/ or /d/. Voicing assimilation occurs adjacent to voiced stops and fricatives. *ni*- is only used before nasals and /h/. *is/z*- is only used before /h/, a cluster of two stops and it becomes i- before a sibilant or palatal fricative -n and -th/dh only don't appear when they precede n/ń/ŋ or th/dh respectively

The partitive is used as the accusative for indefinite nouns. Proper nouns are always human and cannot be indefinite. Inanimate nouns can be marked with the accusative even if they are definite. Animate and non proper human nouns can only be marked with the accusative when indefinite. When the accusative is not marked explicitly word order of Subject - Direct Object is needed.

	singular	paucal	plural
human	ta	ni	is
animate	leth	len	le
inanimate	noth	non	no

The articles when used as particles and not prefixes are as follows

Pronouns and Demonstratives

Personal pronouns are unrelated to the demonstratives and evolve from earlier forms, so have slightly different forms related to a demonstrative (used in the early stages of the language which has been largely superseded in modern Rówaŋma) or noun phrase "this-friend". The dual is now only used for things that come in pairs, not two of a larger set (two people are plural, two eyes are dual)

*this əb <u>n</u> ar
*friend <i>lila</i>
*that <i>kiki</i>
*one <i>rab</i>
*two <u>nin</u>
*group <i>su<u>t</u>ri</i>
*person <i>i<u>t</u>ə</i>
*animal/being <i>ləi</i>
*manv əs

singular dual plural

first person	*əbnarrab > maw	*əbnarsu <u>t</u> ri > mori	
second person	*əbnarlila > molya	*əbnarsutrilila > morilya	
third person human	*kikii <u>t</u> ə > śe	*kikisu <u>t</u> ri > suri	
third person animate	*ləi <u>t</u> a > la	* <i>ləis</i> > les	
third person inanimate	* <i>n̪əuṯa</i> > na	*kikiin̪in̪ > nhin	*ฏəus > nos

these all have regular case marking, apart from the following; *in the partitive:* *mawgo > mog, *lesgo > leg, *nhiŋgo > nhig, *nosgo > nog *in the dative:* *mawka > mok, *leska > lek, *noska > nok *in the vialis:* *mawwi > mow

The language is pro-drop (check word order section for details)

The reflexive pronouns are related to the articles, and come from fusion of the article + *səŋ (same)

	singular	paucal	plural
human	ta + *sə <u>n</u> > tsen	ni + *səỵ > nzen	is + *səỵ > isen
animate	le- + *səỵ > lezen		u- + * <i>səỵ</i> > uzen
inanimate	n- + *ร <i>อ</i> <u>ก</u> > nzon		

The uses of the reflexive range from making the object of a verb the same as the subject (with no partitive marking for the inanimate) to the auto and anticausative (like in Spanish)

human - mok slila *isen* awsláśwen

my friends became confused

animate - lethŋŕin lezen źúfsi dárwe

Cats wash themselves with their tongues (gnomic statement)

inanimate - swinúnde nothizin nzen ŕuwécewen

the town didn't protect itself from the attackers

As well as clause coordination, where a participant in the next clause refers back to the same argument as before, where it is grammatically necessary to supply a noun or pronoun (so not in situations where the subject can be inferred for example), as using the regular personal pronoun implies obviation (only in the third person, where the two referents are the same gender) **GIVE MANY EXAMPLES**

This form can be used to mean the reflexive pronoun, and also the noun "the same (one)" and they can be used in the same sentence - i.e.

tsen tsen dárthyu - the same person bathed themself *nsen nzen dárthyu* - the same few people bathed themselves

Any particle modifying a noun directly precedes the noun.

There is a proximal - medial - distal contrast in demonstratives, and the adnominal and pronominal forms are structurally identical

The etymologies for these pronouns come from

*here **giə* *near **kəku* *far **uq*

proximal	singular	paucal	plural
human	*giəit̪ət̪a > śa	* <i>giəi<u>t</u>ən̯i</i> > ńhi	*giəi <u>t</u> əs > śes
animate	* <i>giələi<u>t</u>a ></i> lya	* <i>giələi<u>n</u>i</i> > ńi	*giələis > lyes
inanimate	* <i>giənəut̪a</i> > ma	* <i>giənəuni ></i> mi	*giənəus > ńos

medial	singular	paucal	plural
human	* <i>kəkui</i> t̪ət̪a > pya	* <i>kəkuit̪ən̪i</i> > mhi	* <i>kəkui<u>t</u>əs</i> > pyes
animate	* <i>kəkuləi<u>t</u>a</i> > pa	* <i>kəkuləi<u>n</u>i</i> > mi	* <i>kəkuləis</i> > pes
inanimate	* <i>kəkuŋəu<u>t</u>a</i> > ma	* <i>kəkuŋəuŋi</i> > mi	* <i>kəkun̪əus</i> > ŋos

distal	singular	paucal	plural
human	* <i>uqi<u>t</u>ət̪a</i> > weta	* <i>uqiṯən̯i</i> > weni	*uqi <u>t</u> əs > wes
animate	* <i>uqləi<u>t</u>a</i> > olya	* <i>uqləi<u>n</u>i</i> > ońi	*uqləis > olyes
inanimate	* <i>uqทูəu<u>t</u>ู</i> a > ŋa	*uqnəuni > ŋay	* <i>uqຼnəus</i> > ŋos

Postpositions

Originally in the protolang there were 5 postpositions for nouns, which have now become a set of 18 case/adopsitional suffixes.

The original prepositions were as follows

	proto meaning	proto-form	spacial meaning	temporal meaning
locative	nose	*luag	at	whilst, during (perf)
ablative	leave	*пәдә	away	from, since
allative	enter	*bi	to(wards)	until
vialis	insides, innards	*ipir	through/by way of	during (imperf)
dative	give	*ənka	to	

comitative	with	*əbnə	with	at the same

Modern postpositions:

case name	proto meaning	proto-form	modern form	spacial meaning	temporal meaning
locative	at	luag	-(w)aŕ	at, on	
inessive/cau sal	at[emph.]	luag əbnar	-(w)aŋma	in(side) - due to, caused by	
adessive	at the side of	pənuq ənka luag	fnohka -(w)aŕ	near/by/next to	around the same time as
supralocativ e	at sky*	qin ənka luag	heŋka -(w)aŕ	above	after
sublocative	at ground*	arti ənka luag	arthik -(w)aŕ	below	before
ablative	away	<u>п</u> әдә	-d(e)	from, away; with regards to, concerning	
elative	away[emph.]	nədə əbnar	-dma	out (from), outside of	
partitive*	sapling/ shoot/sprig	dəgəun	-ŋ/go	partial/a part of, direct object*	
delative	away down	nədə u* (*lost)	-dyu	down (off/from)	
allative	to(wards)	bi	-w(i)/i	to(wards), in response to	
illative	to[emph.]	bi əbnar	-źmar	into/inside	
vialis	innards	ipir	-iwhir/-ywhir	by/through	during
dative	given (to)	ənka	-k(a)	to/for	
superlative	towards to	biənka	-śka	up on(to)	
instrumental	to make	bas <u>t</u> əsii	-fsi	with/using	
comitative	with	әbฏә	-m(e)	with	at the same times as

initiative/ egressive	child	<u>t</u> əpka	-th(a)	born of; from (locative genitive like basque)	starting from
intrative	forest	pəpsə <u>t</u> əi <u>p</u>	-ste	within/surrou nded by	

*sky X (X of the sky) = the high(er) X X sky (sky of the X) = above X

*check definite marking section above

<u>Verbs</u>

Verbs inflect for aspect, tense, and mood, but not person or number with either a fusional marker coming from an old auxiliary placed afterwards, or fusional marking with the verb at the centre.

Template for compound verbs;

mood	stem	aspect	negation	auxiliary	tense
realis / irrealis	root	habitual / imperfective / perfective	affirmative / negative	intransitive / transitive	non past / past
<i>∞ *ən̪qə</i> maybe		<i>∞ </i>	<i>∞ </i>	*qə be / *buə have	<i>∞ l *i<u>n</u> past</i>
aŋh- aN-/_C (takes POA + voicing)	carries stress	{fusional shenanigans}		-(V)n	

Template for basal verbs:

mood	aspect	negation	stem	tense
realis / irrealis	habitual / imperfective / perfective	affirmative / negative	root	non past / past
<i>∞ l *əṇqə</i> maybe	<i>∞ </i>	<i>∞ I *ai</i> no		<i>∞ I *i</i> nֲ past
aŋh- aN-/_C (takes POA + voicing)	{fu	isional shenanigar	ns}	-(V)n

Template for imperatives:

stem	negation	mood
root	<i>∞ I *ai</i> no	*nip

carries stress	-(n)iwh* / -eń
----------------	----------------

* after /n/ the suffix is realised as -iwh Words glom together between rules 7 and 8.

Full verb table:

Rówangma verbs

Active

Impersonal does not use any person markers (i.e. it rains = rain.happens) and uses the intransitive conjugation

Some transitive (i.e. necessarily taking a complement) use the intransitive with an object marked with a postposition (e.g. bulith - *maw molyam bule* ~ I agree with you) but some use the transitive with an object marked with a postposition (e.g. mre - *maw molyak mryu* ~ I speak to you). This second option is how ditransitive verbs tend to work

Passive

The passive is formed by an impersonal use of the third person inanimate plural distal/medial demonstrative *ŋos*, or the third person human plural distal demonstrative *wes**, which leaves the accusative patient in topic position at the start of the sentence, and becomes **inseparable to the verb complex**. The agent is marked with the causal case and can appear anywhere, most likely after the patient, as if the focus was the agent, it could be said in the active.

I eat the fruit - maw nozídhgo hakow the fruit is eaten - nozídhgo ŋos hakow the fruit is eaten by me - nozídhgo máwaŋma ŋos hakow one eats the fruit* - nozídhgo wes hakow

*This use of the passive denotes a generic third person when the generic third person is the agent

*(śi... no) ma **ŋos** aŋgrawhúyu*\ (COORD. [...] COORD.) PRX.INAN.SG PASS=see.HAB\ *It may be seen (that...)*

*(śi... no) ma **wes** aŋgrawhúyu*\

(COORD. [...] COORD.) PRX.INAN.SG PASS=IRR.see.HAB\ *One may see (that...)* (lit. Those people may see that... ~ although this word order is only used for the passive, so "those people see that" would be translated differently)

*nothoresiwhiwhir nothpsten **wes** angrawhúyu\ Through the window the world might be seen*

Otherwise, when the indefinite person is not the agent, the word *han* meaning person is used in the indefinite to fill the role of "one" such as the German *Mann*

*lethitáwaŋma **han** ŋos udíscwen/lethita **han** udíscwen\

A person was bitten by the dog/the dog bit a person*

Volition can be marked by specific constructions, with the general word order encoding intentionality. This causes some issues as unintentional and undesired things cannot be expressed by the indicative mood, or passive with an agent. This means that a sentence like *"I lost my friend"* (as in, lost sight of/can't find present location) would have to be passivised into *"My friend has been lost"*.

*maw tamoklila ibráthyu **I lost my friend (on purpose)* This sentence is ungrammatical, as the verb to lose (*ibra* in this context) cannot be

intentional, so it must be;

tamoklila ŋos ibráthyu *My friend was lost*

If the non volitional subject is to be expressed, it takes the ablative, as in;

tamoklila máwde ŋos ibráthyu *My friend was lost from me* máwde tamoklila ŋos ibráthyu *I lost my friend (accidentally)*

this use is extended to unintentional acts which can take a volitional agent - i.e.

RECIPROCAL - uses active intransitive form, one agent marked with the allative case

Tense

Tense is either past or non past.

The past tense generally carries the same meaning in all contexts, so the habitual is a past habitual and the imperfect and perfect are past imperfect and past perfective respectively.

The non past is used for present actions in the imperfect - *maw ńáwsgo mídlo* (I am drinking water), general gnomic statements in the habitual - *maw ńáwsgo míbwe* (I drink water generally), and either present perfect for non instantaneous verbs - *maw lethńáwsgo mic* (I drank the water), or present simple for instantaneous verbs - *maw nodhzídhgo mhéthyu* (I throw the piece of fruit).

With instantaneous verbs the past simple and present perfect are the same form (past perfective), and so I threw the piece of fruit and I have thrown the piece of fruit would both be *maw nodhzídhgo mhéśwen*.

The future can be periphrastically expressed by verb+*n*śo owha (going to verb/after going, doing verb) however this is only used for actions with intention. So *I am going to prepare dinner* would be *maw nothśeres ńeránśo śowha* (here the perfective reads as a simple present, because the speaker is in a state of going to do something, and this suggests that they will go and make dinner soon). changing the verb to *dhlawha* suggests that this plan is for a more distant future, such as planning to make dinner next week (such as planning a large meal at an important time of year), and changing this to *owha* is suggesting that the

speaker will be going to be making dinner (such as they are going to be designated cook in the family in future).

The unmarked form is used as a converb or verbal noun (see below sections)

The perfective in the present is only used for certain verbs and certain verbs only use the imperfective in the present. Instantaneous verbs (fall, break, etc.) take the perfective and imperfect as present actions, but otherwise the perfective has a perfect like meaning (I have eaten)

Irrealis

Give form examples Give subjunctive examples Give conditional examples

Reflexive

The reflexive uses a normal verb and has the reflexive pronoun in place of an object (without any marking)

	singular	paucal	plural
human	tsen	nzen	isen
animate	lezen		uzen
inanimate	nzon		

Irregular verbs

owha (go)	I	+	-
non past	hab.	owha	eowha
	perf.	śowha	śeowha
	imp.	dhlawha	dhleowha
past	hab.	owhen	eowhen
	perf.	śowhen	śeowhen
	imp.	dhlowhen	dhleowhen

this verb marks future: it is marked as the main verb and the lexical as a converb maked by -nso -

maw zídhgo hakou - I am eating fruit

maw zídhgo hakúnśo dhlawha - I will be eating fruit

we (have)	+	-
-----------	---	---

non past	hab.	u	yu
	perf.	śu	śewe
	imp.	dhlawe	dhloyu
past	hab.	win	ewen
	perf.	thiwen	śewen
	imp.	dhlawin	dhlewen

we is used to mean "there is/are" with the literal translation of "the world has". this phrase has been shortened from **nopsten* _ u to "_ msen u" (look to copular constructions)

Converbs and Adverbs

Verbs can be serially compounded, with the meaning of "while doing X, do Y"

To attach the verbs in sequence, the converb must be in the non finite form, with postposition -m(e) *əbnə

e.g. maw mífme hakow - I (usually) eat while drinking/eat while having drunk/eat and drink (simultaneously)

Adverbs are formed with this converb form of stative verbs (morphologically indistinct from intransitives) e.g.

brźo - to be good, to prosper: brźom - well
maw brźom ułe - I (tend to) sleep well
awsle - to flow: awslem - fluidly, smoothly
śe awslem krazádlo - they(sing.) are walking smoothly (i.e. gracefully)

this is also how *to want* is expressed in Rówaŋma, with *ta taw* being affixed with -m to create *tam* e.g.

maw naŋ taw - I want that *maw naŋ tam aŋhu* - I want to have that (lit. I would have that wantingly)

Other converb affixes code for

Before doing Y, X; -nśo After doing Y, X; -eł If X then Y; -dh(u) Because X then Y; -s(i) In order to do X do Y -p(e)

Some verbs take multiple converb markers with similar but distinct meanings, e.g. dhim vs

dhis DEFINE

Negation is marked on the main (Y) verb fusionally, so to negate the converb you must add *e* before it. e.g.

maw brźom ułe - I sleep well maw e brźom ułe - I sleep badly (i.e. not well) maw brźom ułyu - I don't sleep well maw e brźom ułyu - I don't sleep badly (i.e. not well) These converbial construction also code for things like the future tense, with the verb to go taking TAM marking and negation, but the lexical verb existing as a converb placed before it. This is all treated as one verb phrase, in two separate verbs.

maw zídhgo hakow - I am eating fruit

maw zídhgo hakúnśo dhlawha - I will be eating fruit (lit. I am going before eating)

politeness is also encoded through converbial marking

to ask = gwo

(molya) gwodh anhtam X, hé? - lit. if asked would you want to X > please could you do X? gwodh X, hé? - can you do X

X, hé? are you doing that then (indirect command); can potentially be ruder than without the hé, as that can be seen as sarcastic

(stative sentence) - polite direct command/strong suggestion

(imperative) - command

The creation of verbs from noun phrases can also be done converbially - as there is no marking on the converb, e.g.

hekasiŋ ka - giving happiness

molya hekasin ka - you give happiness

hekasiŋ ka owhániwh - go (whilst) giving peace; goodbye, see you later

[bye - ksi<hekasi(g)]

Adverbs of place are formed the same way the demonstratives do -

proximal *giəunəndar > źondhar - here

medial *kəkuunəndar > pundhar - there

distal *uqunəndar > ohondhar - over there

And they are used in front of the verb complex, unless there is another adverb present, in which case, they are fronted to before the first noun

EXAMPLES

Verbal Nouns

Verbs can be derived into nouns through various methods depending on the type of noun it is being derived into, and the same verb can have different meaning and use in each derivation.

For *Abstract* nouns, there is zero derivation on the verbs non-finite form. These are inherently inanimate and take normal neuter definite prefixes.

For *Inanimate Objects*, the prefix n(o)- is added to the non-finite form and then inanimate definite prefixes are added onto the prefix, as the nominalisation is assumed to be indefinite and the n(o)- is reanalysed as part of the root.

The same happens for *Animate* and *Human* nominalisations, with *l(e)*- and *t(a)*- becoming part of the nominal stem, respectively

Abstract nouns can also be derived from the suffix -r(u) from the word idea, where any noun is placed before it, creating an inanimate noun, corresponding to "the action of X"

Whole verb phrases can be reanalysed as abstract nominalised verbs, and these are used in constructions such as the causative. E.g.

molyak maw nomréwaŕ sryu - I write (a letter) to you in this way

molyak nomréwaŕ sri - to write/writing to you in this way *molyak nomréwaŕ sri mok friŋgo dhles* - writing to you in this way causes me pain

Numbers and Counting

Rówaŋma uses a base ten counting system

The ordinal numbers are as follows,

- 1 **rab* raw
- 2 **iṟiṟ*i nin
- 3 **pə<u>nt</u>ə* fte
- 4 **kəs* hes
- 5 *ənduq doh
- 6 *gəlip lyiwh
- 7 *gəndəi ŕde
- 8 **bəktənəb* knew
- 9 **kəkip* kiwh
- 10 **pə<u>d</u>iu* ju

to count on your fingers (1 is thumb 5 is pinky)

raw 2

nin 12 👉

fte 123

hes 2345

doh 12345 (palm facing person addressed)

lyiwh 👌 but 345 together, palm perpendicular to addressee

ŕde 235 point up, 1 holds 4

knew 23 curve over like a hook

kiwh fist clutching thumb inside fingers, with pinky stretched up straight, palm facing person ju is pointing towards the person, inside of the arm facing up

```
To count over 10:
11 ju-raw > draw
12 ju-nin pədiuinin > diwinin > dwinin > dwin
13 ju-fte > jufte
14 ju-hes > juhes
15 ju-doh > judoh
16 ju-lyiwh > julyiwh
17 ju-ŕde > juŕde
18 ju-knew > juknew
19 ju-kiwh > jukiwh
20 nin-ju > nij
       21 - nij raw
       22 - nij nin ...
30 fte-ju > ftej
40 hes-ju > hec
50 doh-ju > doc
60 lyiwh-ju > lyic
70 ŕde-ju > ŕdej
```

80 knew-ju > knuj 90 kiwh-ju > kic

100 - ?

1000 - sey **sii* Cardinal numbers

The number directly precedes the noun it is cardinally describing. E.g.

raw ofe - one house lyiwh ita - six dogs fde nozidh - the seven fruits

These nouns cannot be marked as definite, but the number can be inserted inbetween the demonstrative and noun

maw **lyiwh** *itaŋ ohondhar** *grawhúyuen* - I saw six dogs over there (later in conversation) **ońi*** **lyiwh** *ita ńhaleŋ hakuś* - the(/those) six dogs ate some

meat

*here the demonstratives should line up, unless distance to referent changes

The paucal and plural may overlap for numbers of five and six, as paucal is generally 3-7 and plural is 5+ referents.

Ordinal numbers

Fusion with articles:

	human	animate	inanimate
1st	traw	uthraw	nthraw
2nd	tnin	lyinin	minin
3rd	tafte	lefte	nofte
10th	taju	leju	noju

When these are used the nouns they modify must be specified as definite e.g.

traw tahan - the first person (i.e. Adam/Eve) *lyinin lethita* - the second dog *lyinin lenita* - the second (small group of) dogs *noŕde nozidh* - the seventh fruit

<u>Adjectives</u>

Originally proto Rówaŋma was zero copula, so adjectives were reanalysed as unmarked verb roots when the copulae were added, so all adjectives are now within verbs, and an adjective can be made by adding verb endings on to any noun.

However, there was a small closed class of adjectives: all paired - big (rih **rik*) and (zdi **sədi*) small, fast and slow, warm/hot (lan **lan*) and cold (tho **t̪əu*), sweet (nir **nir*) and bitter, dry and wet, and dark/old (sah **sak*) and light/new (ti *t̪ət̪i), and many (hosi *qussi) and few These core adjectives directly precede the noun in-between the definite marker and noun

Rih and ??? can also be used as very/slightly

When deriving adjectives from nouns, add the verb suffix *-nka* (from *anka ankaw* - to show, display) or *-li* (from *ili ilyu* - to bear) to create the adjectival meaning. (some adjectives don't use these suffixes, but these are the only productive suffixes currently in the language) The use of each is largely arbitrary, although the difference tends to be in whether the adjective describes a visual attribute or an innate state of being. **EXAMPLES**

Comparison

The intransitive phrase is constructed as normal with a noun + adjectival verb, with the comparand (in the ablative case) placed after the subject. Superlative is all+ABL and must be definite

Instead of all use idiom

śe molyad nhołe - they are taller than you

Example equative - *Jon* fna nhróir, tsen *Meri*-m ŋhóhde sa (John thinks that Mary is as tall as himself)

Equative declamations use the verb **sen sa** (to be the same) with the adjective concept in noun form in the ablative case, and the comparand is in the comitative

<u>Negation</u>

Verbs are generally negated fusionally, however in cases of ambiguity or for emphasis, the word e (no) can precede the lexical verb being negated directly. (i.e. there is no double negation)

maw naŋ trícewen - I didn't see it *maw naŋ e trícewen* - I really didn't see it

suri nothŋhałíŋgo owhánśo śeowha - they're not going to the party *suri nothŋhałíŋgo e owhánśo śeowha* - they are definitely not going to the party

Nouns can be negated with *e* also, but this is in a more general, non definite sense. E.g. *moklila itaŋ grawhílay* - my friend can't see a dog *moklila é itaŋ grawhílay* - my friend can't see any dog

But nouns can also be negated by *aws*, originally meaning water (used modern day as liquid) from the idiom *bli áwsgo thradwe* - like holding water (still an idiom meaning to do nothing), with *aws* directly preceding the noun, and the verb marked as negative, e.g. *moklila aws itaŋ grawhílay* - my friend can't see any dog at all

aws hángo nothizin yu - there's no people in the town

Aws can also be used as a noun in it's own right, e.g.

maw áwsgo yu - I don't have anything (lit. I don't have nothing)

<u>Possession</u>

Alienable/inalienable

These can either be done as a compound word, or noun phrase. Compound words cannot be specified for number/definiteness, and so if that is necessary information it must be split up

inalienable is seen as an extension of your body/part of you, so takes the partitive -η/go: moglwaf/moŋ nolwaf = my nose noglwaf/noŋ nolwaf = their noses Samgolwaf/Sámgo nolwaf = Sam's nose

Alienable uses the dative *-k(a)*: mokita/mok lethita = my dog nokita/nok lethita = their dog Samkaita/Sámka lethita = Sam's dog

Volitive/irrealis possession (something you want to have, don't have yet, or might have in some sense) uses the ablative (with a meaning of concerning/about) mawdeita/mawde lethita = my dog (which i dont yet have, i.e. i am planning on having a dog in the future but I don't have it yet, this is my dog in that it is *mawdeita*)

The ablative also marks the locative genitive (iksampul) this can be written as a compound noun or separately

When adding any cases to the compound words, they are just treated as one word. E.g. maw **Samkaoŕé**waŕ woluŋyen - I arrived at Sam's house

For personal relations a split exists where people you are close with are marked with inalienable and further with alienable

Relative/Participial Clauses

(article) (object) verb head; verbs are used in their unmarked form the sleep cat *leth ułi ŋŕin* the sleeping cat

> the meat eat cat *leth ńhaleŋ haku ŋŕin* the cat which ate/is eating meat

[the (meat eat) cat] basket carry [*leth (ńhaleŋ haku) ŋŕin*] *theskaŋ nktraw* the cat which is eating/ate meat carries a basket

I [the (meat eat) cat] loved maw [leth (ńhaleŋ haku) ŋŕin] strówen I loved the cat which ate meat Tense must be inferred through context, and where it is necessary a coordinating clause is needed

The clause coordinators are derived from **neu* > no (~thing, that), and **keaien* > śeyn > śi (~which, what) and is used as follows

[(the one) which used to proper] they are going to take the(that) towr śi prosper.pst.hab they *no* the.town take.AFT go [śi brźwon] suri **no** nothizin ulyáhnśo dhlawha

There's one more thing I forgot to say to you śi you.DAT I say misplaced *no* thing.PART world has f**śi** molyak maw mre psiłódloen] **no** éyno msen u

If no other subject is supplied in the coordinated clause, it is assumed to be 3rd person singular, with si acting as a dummy subject as well as coordinator (as in the first example

Verbs of speech/consideration

Verbs such as to say sth/speak about, to think, to ponder etc. have an extra connective - nhróir (in this way, in such a way, so) which introduces the next part of the sentence

Maw fna nróir, rih mokore - i think my house is big

BUT

Maw nodhzamnad tkirut - I thought about the invite (hard/for a long time)

Inflectional/Derivational Morphology

proto Rówaŋma *this (*əbn̪ar*) (used only as a modal particle *má* in modern lang) is used as an intensifier added as a suffix to any word, with the form -m(a)

To form intransitive verbs from nouns put on *-ith/-le/-no* onto the noun stem, e.g.

gdaw ta- worker > gdawith gdawe to work aws leth- liquid > aws/e aws/a to be liquid; to flow zamna no- permission; invite > zamnano zamnana to be allowed; to be invited

To form transitive verbs from nouns add *-is/ys* onto the noun stem, e.g.

ła no- cover, lid > łays łáyzwe - to cover (over), seal; to house, provide for

Diminutives were formed by reduplication of the first consonant of a proto form + u for both nouns and verbs - since this has taken place in the past there is since another way to form diminutives (see below) and these items have since been lexicalised

**səri* > sri sryu - to scratch **su-səri* > suzri suzryu (+*locative*) - to draw, write, etch, carve

with vowel initial roots, the whole first syllable is used with -u
*əktip > tiwh - knife
*əkuəktip > ptiwh - little insect which stings you

yugi -yu -ey n.ditr *iubgi - to share (+comitative)

yujes noth- n.inan *iubgiəs - shared accomodation, apartment; communal area; community (pl. usu. small - extended family, neighbours, work mates etc.) yujuwin noth- n.inan *iubgiubin - community (large, i.e. whole town, people in general)

-uwin = large spaces, often flat or even, such as a plain yath - grass; yathuwin - field, plain; opening

amaŋku noth- n.inan *apnanədku - fabric, cloth, woven material > clothes, coverings aman -a -am v.intr *apnan - to weave; to create, make: to create by repetitive physical process, as in make/harvest crops (that have been sown), make a mosaic etc.

-ku is a nominalist for the result of the action of a verb - i.e. that which is Xed, the thing that is X

Questions

he **kə* - interrogative particle This is placed after the fully conjugated verb, or can be used as a general interjection of surprise (usually spelled *hé*, in conjunction with the spelling of modal particles) *molya śe grawhéywen*, *hé*? - didn't you see her?

These two replace any noun in normal position: *kəaiəŋ > śeyn - what thing, what? na śeyn? - what is it? wetalila śéyŋgo ilíloen? - what was that person over there making? śéynfsi suri le rałícwen? - they (hu.) hit them (an.) with what?

*kəqan > hahan - who?
pya hahan? - who is that there?
hahánka ńosoŕe? - whose are these houses? (here the possessor cannot fuse into the
possessee because it is being stressed, and questions must always use the separate word
form)

The following two are placed directly before the verb complex, unless being modified: *kəunəndar > hondhar - where? nothŋhałíŋgo hondhar ŋos ilínśo śowha? - Where will the event be held? molya hondhárde? - where are you from?

**kəarəsu* > wharzu - when? *molya wharzu woluŋénśo dhlawha*? - when will you arrive? *wharzuth molyagzamna zamnánśo dhlawha*? - from when will your pass be valid?

These two generally head the sentence (since the focus of the question is generally the question word) *kəənka > whoka - why? whoka nohénwaŋma lełeyspaŕ ŋábwe? - why are the clouds in the sky?

athro *atrəu - way, road, path

*kəatrəu > whathro > fro - which path, which way? fróywhir - how, in what way fróywhir molya leníin mhéśwen? - how did you throw the cat?

kəusi* > hozi - how many? (lit. what number) morilya **hozi isthka ilithyu? - how many children have you borne?

Copular Constructions

Rówaŋma is generally zero copula, so if any pronoun is being equated to a noun, no copula is needed. E.g.

I am a person = maw han

That there is a fruit = ma zidh

These are not houses = ŋos é* ofe

This works with proper nouns as well, as well as nouns themselves. E.g.

Come back with examples girlie

*when the negative copular construction is used, the *e* receives the emphasis (as opposed to having none, and being a clitic when negating nouns and noun phrases, and this is marked in writing as \acute{e})

The locative copula is expressed with to have, in the following manner;

The world/forest has X = there is/are X in the world (where X takes the partitive case) $X\eta$ /go msen we

The grammatical object is moved to the front of the sentence as it is the topic of the utterance

E.g. there are dogs (dogs exist) - *itaŋ msen u*

there are dogs (around right now) - *itaŋ msen dhlawe*

there were dogs (but they've all died/aren't here anymore) - *itaŋ msen win* there were dogs (here before, somewhere else now) - *itaŋ msen dhlawin*

This can be used with any words to refer to objects existing within any space (retaining the word order)

E.g. there are dogs [in this room(partitive of house)] - *itaŋ maoŕeŋ dhlawe* there are four people in this house [who live here permanently] - *háŋgo ma oŕe u* The stars are in the sky - *ishurna nothhen u*

we (have)		+	-
non past	hab.	u	yu
	perf.	śu	śewe
	imp.	dhlawe	dhloyu
past	hab.	win	ewen
	perf.	thiwen	śewen

	imp.	dhlawin	dhlewen
--	------	---------	---------

Modal Particles

Due to convention of being stressed in spoken language, these are normally marked with an accent, even though they are monosyllabic, and are counted as their own subclause, and can be used as general interjections

hé - generic question marker e.g. molya fte nfin u, hé? - do you have three cats?

zú - whoa! oh! hey! - expresses surprise and distaste or disappointment over a certain action e.g.

Molya naŋ śéynka mhéthyu, zú? - What did you throw that for?

né - huh? yeah? - expresses rhetorical questions, slightly scathing, suggests idiocy on part of addressee. e.g.

Molyagotheska áwsgo u, **ŋé**? - does your head have nothing in it, huh? Lethŋŕin źíthgo hakúloen, **ŋé**? - the cat(s) were eating soup then were they?

bós - come on - urgency of tone, e.g.

You need to come now

má - expresses intensity, e.g.

rih surik nothore, má - their house is like, really big

Conjunctions

Coordinating conjunctions work by sitting inbetween the two items being coordinated. They must be of the same type (i.e. sentence + sentence, noun + noun) verbs are coordinated with converbs (see above)

nouns are coordinated with postpositions:

and - the comitative case is used to mark two nouns together

uŋŕínme lita - cats and dogs (lit. dogs with cats)

this works for more constituents too

néwhgom jazígme zídhgo nothłińe u - there's skewers and doughnuts and fruit in the food store (lit. the food store has some fruit with some doughnuts with some skewers) however when the list is long *iko* can be added before the last element marked with the comitative, or in a more childish or emphatic manner before each element

źínme iko iskam whurson awsla - shadows and smoke and fire all flow (lit. fire with shadows and also with smoke flow)

(in response to listing emotions) *iko arnem iko frínme iko hekasim iko strom iko nilyam…* ~ (there's) anger and pain and peace and love and romance and... (etc.)

iko can mean different things depending on word order, so used as a phrasal coordinator it is and/also, and must come as the first word of the second phrase, otherwise if used at the end of a phrase it means too/as well

aŋhko cer śe źondhar aŋwoluŋoth, aŋhko Madáŋwi aŋhśowha

Maybe he'll come here tomorrow or maybe he'll go to Madang

mwis = because (from ma-wi is: cause of this)

<u>Time</u>

Time referents use the same deixis as demonstratives, with a proximal (current), medial (past), and distal (distant past) *arəsu arzu *time proximal - *giəarəsu > fiw-arzu > warzu: now medial - *kəkuarəsu > kw-arzu > parzu: then, before distal - *far *uqarəsu > oh-orzu > horzu: back then (a long time ago)

If you add the ablative ending *-d* onto any of these you get since(/maybe something else too?) or since the time when

warzu-waŕ > warzaŕ - when, while, in the time which, something ongoing to the relative time of the verb

nsó (?) already - something which has either been started or completed in the past (relative to the verb)

tku-izor > tkuzor > gzor - forever, always, an extremely long time

The standard place in the sentence for these are either as adverbs - directly before the verb. If there is already another adverb in the sentence, it would generally be moved to the beginning of the sentence before the subject unless another element would have heightened relevance and be moved forward.

Word order

Good god

Pro drop shenanigans Lack of case marking shenanigans