



Ecclesiastical Atili

Reference Grammar

Andrew Ray

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Foreword

This document describes the grammar of the invented language known as Atili (natively *Devikimu*, pronounced /dɛ.vi'ki.mu/), created by Andrew Ray. Production of Atili started in 2018. It is intended as a naturalistic artlang, and was constructed as a personal linguistics exercise for the author's sole entertainment. Hopefully, others will find it enjoyable also.

It is probable that this language will change with time; therefore, this reference grammar is not an ultimate authority on the current state of the language. There is and can be no date set down at which this project will be set in stone and made, as it were, *final*. It will continue to evolve for exactly as long as the author chooses.

Throughout this document, words in Atili are set in *italics*. Informal inline translations are given in "quotation marks." IPA pronunciations are set in /slæʃəz/. Examples will be set out from the main document and numbered. Examples will be drawn as follows:

Abbreviations used in this document

1	1st-person	IRR	Irrealis mood
2	2nd-person	ANIMAL	Live animal class
3i	3rd-person inanimate	LFO	Long flexible objects
3o	3rd-person obviate	LRO	Long rigid objects
3p	3rd-person proximate	MAS	Motion along a slope
1>2	(e.g.) subject > object	MASS	Mass class
ABSTRACT	Abstract class	MTW	Motion as through water
AL	Alienable	N	Nominalization
AND	Andative	NLM	Non-repetitive lateral motion
BALL	Round object class	OPEN	Open container class
BOX	Angular object class	PRES	Presumptive mood
BAR	Base altered root	PFV	Perfective aspect
BSR	Base standard root	PL	Plural number
C	Causative	POSS.1>OBJ	(e.g.) object possessor
COIL	Coiled object class	POSS.1>SBJ	(e.g.) subject possessor
COLL	Collective	POSS.SBJ>OBJ	subject possesses object
COP	Copula	PRF	Perfect aspect
CONTAINER	Container class	PRONE	Prone position
FDM	Fast downward motion	R	Relativizer
FAST	Fast forward motion	RELGEN	Relative genitive
FFO	Flat flexible object class	REST	Restive aspect
FOOD	Prepared food class	RIMP	Restive–imperative aspect
FRO	Flat rigid object class	RLM	Repetitive lateral motion
FUT	Future tense	RVM	Repetitive vertical motion
GEN	Genitive	SIT	Sitting position
HAB	Habitual aspect	STAND	Standing position
IPFV	Imperfective aspect	SUPINE	Supine position
INAL	Inalienable	VEN	Venitive
INCH	Inchoative aspect	VAR	Vocalic altered root
IND	Indefinite	VSR	Vocalic standard root
INF	Infinitive		
INV	Inverse voice		

Licensing and acknowledgments

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- caption, hyperref, geometry, graphicx, multicol, multirow, parskip, tabto, tabularx, tocloft, and xltextra for general layout and design;
- gb4e for glosses;
- phonrule for phonological rules;
- subfiles for document organization;
- TikZ (tikz) for diagrams; and
- vowel for the vowel chart.

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Phonetics

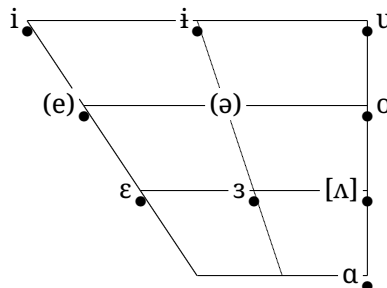
1 Phonology

Atili has a moderate phonemic inventory consisting of 15 phonemic consonants and 7 phonemic vowels, along with several allophonic variants.

(1.1) Consonant inventory of Atili; allophones are displayed in [brackets].

Series		Labial	Coronal	Lateral	Dorsal
Nasals		m	n		[ŋ]
Plosives	<i>voiced</i>	b	d		g
	<i>voiceless</i>		t		k
Fricatives	<i>voiced</i>	v	ʒ		ɣ~ʁ
	<i>voiceless</i>		ʃ		x~χ
Affricates	<i>voiced</i>		[dʒ]	[dʒ]	[gɣ]
	<i>voiceless</i>		[tʃ]	[tʃ]	
Liquids		w	j~ɹ	ɭ~ʎ	

(1.2) Vowel inventory of Atili; allophones are displayed in [brackets], phones in (parentheses) appear only in diphthongs.



(1.3) Vowel and semivowel qualities

Letter	<i>i</i>	<i>ĩ</i>	<i>u</i>	<i>e</i>	<i>ě</i>	<i>o</i>	<i>a</i>	<i>y</i>	<i>ÿ</i>	<i>w</i>	
IPA	i	ĩ	u	ɛ	ɜ	o	ɑ	ɬ	j	ɹ	
high	+	+	+	-	-	-	-	-	+	+	
low	-	-	-	-	-	-	+	+	-	-	
front	+	+	-	+	+	-	-	-	+	+	
central	-	+	-	-	+	-	-	-	-	+	
back	-	-	+	-	-	+	+	+	-	-	
reduced	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	+	-	-	
glide	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	+	+	
stress	primary or secondary stress						+	-	-	-	-
pstress	primary stress								-	-	-

1.1 Romanization

The Romanization in use in this document is a reasonable match for the phonetic inventory of the language, though not all allophones are distinguished. Vowels with acute accents in this Romanization indicate irregular stress patterns. This Romanization will be set in *italics* throughout the document.

(1.4) Romanization

Consonants			Vowels	Diphthongs		
<i>b</i> /b/	<i>k</i> /k/	<i>tl</i> /tʰ/	<i>a, á</i> /ɑ~ɬ/	<i>ay</i> /aj/	<i>wa</i> /ɔɑ~ɔɬ/	<i>ya</i> /ɛɑ~jɬ/
<i>d</i> /d/	<i>l</i> /l~ɮ/	<i>ts</i> /tʃ/	<i>e, é</i> /ɛ/	<i>äy</i> /ɑɹ~ɬɹ/	<i>we</i> /wɛ/	<i>ye</i> /jɛ/
<i>dl</i> /dɮ/	<i>m</i> /m/	<i>v</i> /v/	<i>ě, ě</i> /ɜ/	<i>ey</i> /ej/	<i>wě</i> /wɜ/	<i>yě</i> /jɜ/
<i>dz</i> /dʒ/	<i>n</i> /n~ŋ/	<i>w</i> /w~ɔ/	<i>i, í</i> /i/	<i>eÿ</i> /ɛɹ/	<i>wi</i> /wi/	<i>yo</i> /jo/
<i>g</i> /g/	<i>r</i> /r~ʁ/	<i>y</i> /j~ɟ/	<i>ĩ, ĩ</i> /ĩ/	<i>oy</i> /oj/	<i>wĩ</i> /wĩ/	<i>yu</i> /ju/
<i>gr</i> /gɹ/	<i>s</i> /s/	<i>ÿ</i> /ɹ/	<i>o, ó</i> /o/	<i>oÿ</i> /oɹ/		
<i>h</i> /x/	<i>t</i> /t/	<i>z</i> /z/	<i>u, ú</i> /u/			

1.2 Allophony

Several phonemes in Atili are subject to allophony.

1. $k \rightarrow g / _ [+voiced]$
2. $l \rightarrow [+affricate] / \left[\begin{array}{l} +coronal \\ +plosive \end{array} \right] -$

1.3 Phonological processes

Atili has a very large number of active phonological processes that can make the language difficult to learn. While the results of these processes is shown in the phonetic Romanization, it is not reflected in the native orthography.

The full list of phonological rules is set out below. The rest of this section will explain and give examples for these rules.

1. $i \rightarrow j / [-\text{high}] _$
2. $V^1V^1 \rightarrow V^1$
3. $[+\text{front}] \rightarrow [+\text{central}] / _ \text{t}$
4. $\text{t} \rightarrow \emptyset / _ C$
5. $\left[\begin{array}{l} +\text{high} \\ -\text{stress} \end{array} \right] \rightarrow [+\text{glide}] / _ V$
6. $w \left[\begin{array}{l} -\text{low} \\ +\text{back} \end{array} \right] \rightarrow u$
7. $\left[\begin{array}{l} +\text{high} \\ -\text{stress} \end{array} \right] \rightarrow \emptyset / VC _ CV$
8. $[+\text{plosive}] \rightarrow [+\text{voiced}] / _ [+\text{nasal}]$
9. $[+\text{plosive}]^1 [+\text{nasal}]^2 \rightarrow 2 \ 1$
10. $[+\text{nasal}] \rightarrow [\text{ALplace}] / _ \left[\begin{array}{l} +\text{plosive} \\ \text{ALplace} \end{array} \right]$

I-offglide (falling) diphthongization

1. $i \rightarrow j / [-\text{high}] _$

The vowel *i* [i] diphthongizes with preceding non-high vowels to produce a palatal offglide. When this happens at the end of a word, note that stress is still shifted as if the full vowel were present.

(1.1) $\begin{array}{l} \textit{kute} \\ \text{ku.te} \\ \text{'the follower'} \end{array} \quad + \quad \begin{array}{l} -i \\ *_{-i} \end{array} \quad \rightarrow \quad \begin{array}{l} \textit{kutey} \\ \text{ku'tej} \\ \text{'the follower's'} \end{array}$

(1.2) $\begin{array}{l} \textit{ala} \\ \text{'a.la} \\ \text{'the child'} \end{array} \quad + \quad \begin{array}{l} -i \\ *_{-i} \end{array} \quad \rightarrow \quad \begin{array}{l} \textit{alay} \\ \text{\textasciixc}^{\text{h}}\text{aj} \\ \text{'the child's'} \end{array}$

Vowel degemination

2. $V^1V^1 \rightarrow V^1$

Two of the same vowel that appear consecutively in a word are degeminated without exception. When this occurs at the end of a word, the stress remains on the final syllable.

(1.3) $\begin{array}{l} \textit{-adutyad} \\ *_{-}\text{\textasciixc}^{\text{h}}\text{du.tj}\text{\textasciixc}^{\text{h}}\text{d} \\ \text{'unable to decide'} \end{array} \quad + \quad \begin{array}{l} a- \\ *_{a-} \end{array} \quad \rightarrow \quad \begin{array}{l} \textit{adutyad} \\ \text{\textasciixc}^{\text{h}}\text{du.tj}\text{\textasciixc}^{\text{h}}\text{d} \\ \text{'He or she is unable to decide'} \end{array}$

$$(1.4) \quad \begin{array}{l} mazi \\ 'ma.ʒi \\ \text{'the man'} \end{array} \quad + \quad \begin{array}{l} -i \\ *i \end{array} \quad \rightarrow \quad \begin{array}{l} mazi \\ m\Lambda'ʒi \\ \text{'the man's'} \end{array}$$

Dark-L mutations

$$3. \quad [+\text{front}] \rightarrow [+\text{central}] / _ \text{ɫ}$$

When followed by a coda *l* [ɫ], front vowels *i* [i] and *e* [ɛ] are centralized to *ɨ* [ɨ] and *ɛ̄* [ɜ], respectively. It is important to note that the coda *l* is only overt at the end of a word due to coda *l* deletion.

$$(1.5) \quad \begin{array}{l} mazi \\ 'ma.ʒi \\ \text{'the man'} \end{array} \quad + \quad \begin{array}{l} -l \\ *ɫ \end{array} \quad \rightarrow \quad \begin{array}{l} mazɨl \\ 'ma.ʒɨɫ \\ \text{'of mankind'} \end{array}$$

$$(1.6) \quad \begin{array}{l} lɨte \\ 'ɨ.tɛ \\ \text{'courage'} \end{array} \quad + \quad \begin{array}{l} -l \\ *ɫ \end{array} \quad \rightarrow \quad \begin{array}{l} lɨtɛl \\ 'ɨ.tɜɫ \\ \text{'courageous'} \end{array}$$

$$(1.7) \quad \begin{array}{l} lɨte \\ 'ɨ.tɛ \\ \text{'courage'} \end{array} \quad + \quad \begin{array}{l} -l-na \\ *ɨna \end{array} \quad \rightarrow \quad \begin{array}{l} lɨtɛna \\ 'ɨ'tɜ.n\Lambda \\ \text{'the courageous one'} \end{array}$$

Coda L deletion

$$4. \quad \text{ɫ} \rightarrow \emptyset / _ C$$

The phoneme *l* [ɫ] is deleted whenever it occurs before another consonant.

$$(1.8) \quad \begin{array}{l} mol \\ moɫ \\ \text{'creamy cheese'} \end{array} \quad + \quad \begin{array}{l} u\text{-}bara \\ *u'ba.β\Lambda \\ \text{'to eat'} \end{array} \quad \rightarrow \quad \begin{array}{l} umobara \\ u.mo'ba.β\Lambda \\ \text{'to eat creamy cheese'} \end{array}$$

High vowel onglide (rising) diphthongization

$$5. \quad \left[\begin{array}{l} +\text{high} \\ -\text{stress} \end{array} \right] \rightarrow [+\text{glide}] / _ V$$

$$6. \quad w \left[\begin{array}{l} -\text{low} \\ +\text{back} \end{array} \right] \rightarrow u$$

A high unstressed vowel that is followed by another vowel is reduced to a glide to form a rising diphthong.

$$(1.9) \quad \text{underlying } *ioe \quad \rightarrow \quad \begin{array}{l} yoe \\ 'jo.ɛ \\ \text{'in front of'} \end{array}$$

$$(1.10) \quad \begin{array}{l} -\acute{e}zi-m \\ *'ʒ.ʒim \\ \text{'go falling'} \end{array} \quad + \quad \begin{array}{l} i- \\ *i \end{array} \quad \rightarrow \quad \begin{array}{l} y\acute{e}zim \\ 'ʒ.ʒim \\ \text{'I go falling'} \end{array}$$

$$(1.11) \quad \begin{array}{l} -\dot{e}zi-m \\ *3.3im \\ \text{'go falling'} \end{array} \quad + \quad \begin{array}{l} u- \\ *u \end{array} \quad \rightarrow \quad \begin{array}{l} w\dot{e}zim \\ 'w3.3im \\ \text{'to go falling'} \end{array}$$

This rule is applied from right to left, such that when two consecutive high vowels precede another vowel, only the second is diphthongized.

$$(1.12) \quad \begin{array}{l} -\dot{e}zi-m \\ *3.3im \\ \text{'go falling'} \end{array} \quad + \quad \begin{array}{l} u-i- \\ *ui \end{array} \quad \rightarrow \quad \begin{array}{l} uy\dot{e}zim \\ u'j3.3im \\ \text{'we go falling'} \end{array}$$

When the glide forms one of the combinations *wu* [wu] or *wo* [wo], the glide becomes monophthongized, resulting in plain *u* [u].

Nasal assimilation and metathesis

Nasal consonants *m* and *n* assimilate to match the place of articulation of a following plosive.

$$(1.13) \quad \begin{array}{l} -bara \\ *ba.β\Lambda \\ \text{'eat'} \end{array} \quad + \quad \begin{array}{l} i-hun- \\ *i.xun \end{array} \quad \rightarrow \quad \begin{array}{l} ihumbara \\ j.i.xum'ba.β\Lambda \\ \text{'I eat from a container'} \end{array}$$

$$(1.14) \quad \begin{array}{l} -vah-kin \\ *vax.kin \\ \text{'cook'} \end{array} \quad + \quad \begin{array}{l} i-hun- \\ *i.xun \end{array} \quad \rightarrow \quad \begin{array}{l} ivahunkin \\ j.i.v\Lambda'xun.kin \\ \text{'I cook in an open pot'} \end{array}$$

$$(1.15) \quad \begin{array}{l} -dovnye-m \\ *dov.nj\epsilon m \\ \text{'go down the road'} \end{array} \quad + \quad \begin{array}{l} i-um- \\ *ium \end{array} \quad \rightarrow \quad \begin{array}{l} yundovnyem \\ jun'dov.nj\epsilon m \\ \text{'I come running down the road'} \end{array}$$

If a plosive comes immediately before a nasal, it will become voiced and switch places with the nasal. In this scenario, too, the nasal will assimilate to the place of articulation of the plosive. Plosives that naturally follow nasals do not undergo voicing assimilation.

This process is the only means by which a distinction appears between phonemic [k] and [g].

This can produce some dramatic changes to underlying structure

1.4 Phonotactics

Atili has a moderate syllable structure, with the maximum permitted syllable as (C)(G)V(V)(C), where C represents a consonant, V a vowel, and G a glide consonant *y* or *w*. There are also limitations on where certain consonants may appear.

2 Prosody

Atili is a stress-timed language.

2.1 Primary stress

Normally, primary stress falls on the penultimate syllable of a word, though it can fall on the antepenultimate or final syllable. When primary stress does not occur on the penultimate syllable, it is marked with an acute accent (or for vowels written with umlauts, double acute accent).

(2.1) *aryo*
 'a.ɤjo
 'the bread'

(2.2) *ranhalo*
 ɤΛɤ'xa.ɫo
 'the beach'

Final stress is usually the result of an invalid grouping of vowels (including a repeated vowel) coming together at the end of the word. Typically, this group would just reduce down to a single vowel (for example, the group *ou* reduces to *u*), but when this happens in the final syllable of a word, it also causes final stress. This can happen in roots as attested by the native orthography, and less frequently can happen due to affixation, usually of the genitive suffix *-i*, as seen in the following examples.

(2.3) *mazi* + *-i* → *mazí*
 'ma.ʒi *i mΛ'ʒi
 'the man' 'the man's'

(2.4) *sala* + *-i* → *salay*
 'ʃa.ɫa *i ʃΛ'ɫaj
 'the fruit' 'the fruit's'

Some function words and common verbs also have final stress that does not derive historically from an invalid vowel grouping. For example, the word *elí*, “here,” and the copular verb *-kó*, “to be.” In addition, the relative clitic *é* always results in final stress, as seen in example 2.5.

(2.5) *istik* + *-é* → *istiké*
 'is.tik *ɛ ɤs.ti'ke
 'I was' 'that I was'

2.2 Secondary Stress

Secondary stress normally appears only on words that are more three syllables. It prototypically falls on every second syllable counting back from the primary stress.

(2.6) *azbosvarani*
 Λʒ.boʃ.vΛ'ɤa.ni
 'it started to rain'

(2.7) *barikodekím*
 .ba.ɤi.ko.dɛ'kim
 'he or she habitually sings'

(2.8) *astotiazé*
 .aʃ.to.ti.Λ'ʒɛ
 'that he or she have walked'

(2.9) *idebanda*
 i.dɛ'ban.dΛ
 'I am studying'

A closed syllable, however, can “steal” the secondary stress from a following open syllable. When this happens, secondary stress earlier in the word is adjusted to count two back from the closed syllable.

(2.10) *ezdovahyedué*
 ɛʒ.do.vax.jɛ.du'ɛ
 'that you put down a long rigid object'

(2.11) *astiazé*
 'aʃ.ti.Λ'ʒɛ
 'that he or she walked'

2.3 Intonation

2.4 Questions

Questions in Atili are marked by a dip in pitch just before the end of a sentence followed by a return to the original pitch. This manifests in two primary ways:

If the last word in a question is not stressed on the final syllable, there is a global fall on the stressed syllable, and the stressed syllable is lengthened.

(2.12)



Urusim buro dyo wozve:had?

ur~usim buro dyo w-o-z-vehad?

PL~wind why today PL-3i;IPFV-ABSTRACT-be_cold

'Why is it so cold today?'

Verbs

3 Overview

Atili verbal morphology is templatic; each segmentable morphological unit can be placed into a single specific slot within the verb template. The slot for the verb root is called “R,” while prefix and suffix slots are labeled with “P” or “S,” respectively, along with a number indicating the distance to the verb root, with higher numbers indicating slots farther away from the root.

Multiple types of marking are sometimes assigned the same slot. This happens when the markings either cannot co-occur (for example, aspect marking occurs only on finite verbs while infinitive marking only occurs on non-finite verbs) or are not segmentable.

(3.1) The verb template

P Prefixes	P8	Auxiliary aspect marking Infinitive marking
	P7	Inverse marking Obviation
	P6	Number marking Possessive marking
	P5	Agreement morphology Direct aspect marking
	P4	Negation
	P3	Positionals
	P2	Causatives
	P1	Incorporated nouns Classifiers Instrumentals
	R Root	R
S Suffixes	S	Converb marking Relativization Nominalization

4 Non-finite conjugations

Atili has several non-finite forms available, including infinitives, participles, and converbs.

4.1 Infinitives

The **basic infinitive** (INF) is marked with the prefix *u-* in position P8 and has very limited marking options. It is used to refer to an action in the general sense, and is used if the action of the verb is taking place, or has taken place in the past. The infinitive is placed as any other verb argument.

- (4.1) *U-nguda yu-s-vos.*
INF-weave 1>3o;IPFV-ABSTRACT-like
'I like to weave.'

The basic infinitive can only take negation, causatives, incorporated nouns, and instrumentals.

- (4.2) *U-vah-aryo-kin yu-s-vos.*
INF-C-bread-bake 1>3o;IPFV-ABSTRACT-like
'I like to bake bread.'

If the object of an infinitive cannot be incorporated, it must be placed immediately before the infinitive.

- (4.3) *Es u-kim yu-s-vos.*
2 INF-talk 1>3o
'I like to talk to you.'

The basic infinitive cannot be used if the matrix verb is in an irrealis aspect.

The **irrealis infinitive** (IRI) is marked with the P8 prefix *zu-*. This form of the infinitive is always used when the underlying statement is irrealis, but is also used with realis active unergative predicates to indicate unintentional action and with realis stative predicates to indicate that the state is entered frequently for short periods. For verbs that can be either active or stative, the irrealis infinitive tends to indicate an active reading.

4.2 Converbs

In addition to infinitives, Atili has several converbs that are used to form various constructions. The simplest converb is the general converb (CVB). It is formed by the addition of a suffix *-va* to the basic infinitive. The general converb is used to express that a single subject performed two (or more) actions.

The second type of converb in Atili is the causative converb (CSC). It is formed by the addition of the suffix *-(a)d*, and indicates the motivation behind the matrix action:

With a negative verb in the matrix clause, it indicates an excess.

The third type of converb is the purposive converb (PURP). It is formed with the suffix *-za*, and is used to indicate the intent behind an action.

When used with verbs like “think,” “say,” and “like,” the purposive converb marks logophor.

The final type of converb is the negative converb (NCB). It is formed by adding the negative prefix *ni-* to the irrealis infinitive (see section 4.1). This is used in place of the causative converb or the normal usage of the purposive converb to negate the converb clause. To negate a statement using a general converb or the logophoric usage of the purposive converb, the sentence must be split into two sentences or make use of a complement clause.

4.3 Nominalization

5 Aspect marking and agreement morphology

Atili “aspect marking” is really a combination of tense, aspect, and mood. However, since it is not normally possible to split the markings into individual tense, aspect, or mood markers, it is easier to consider all of these together. There are broadly two kinds of aspect marking, which are called “direct” and “auxiliary.” Direct aspect marking is fused with the polypersonal agreement morphology in slot P5, and is non-segmentable, while auxiliary aspect marking is segmentable and goes in slot P8. Below is a list of each aspect split up into direct and auxiliary marking type:

Direct aspects:

- Imperfective (IPFV)
- Perfective (PFV)
- Irrealis (IRR)

Auxiliary aspects:

- Future (FUT)
- Habitual (HAB)
- Inchoative (INCH)
- Perfect (PRF)
- Presumptive (PRES)
- Restive (REST)
- Restive–Imperative (RIMP)

Auxiliary aspects are always built by adding a P8 prefix to a fully finite verb in one of the direct aspects. In the list above, each auxiliary aspect is listed alongside its associated direct aspect. Some P8 prefixes can construct different auxiliary aspects when used alongside different direct aspects. For example, the P8 prefix *ba* creates the habitual aspect when added to an imperfective, but forms the future tense when attached to a perfective.

5.1 Direct aspects

There are three direct aspects in Atili: Imperfective, perfective, and irrealis. The markings for these are combined with the verbal agreement morphology and cannot be easily taken out. However, each aspect has a characteristic sound or sequence that is present in most of the forms for that aspect; thus, throughout this paper, these sounds may be used to stand in for that non-segmentable prefix: *∅- for the imperfective aspect, *s- for the perfective aspect, and *st- for the irrealis aspect.

Figures 5.1, 5.2, and 5.3 show the full agreement morphology for each of the direct aspects. In addition to the P5 agreement morphology, all constructions for obviative subject must take a P7 obviative prefix, and certain obviative subject and inanimate subject constructions must take a P7 inverse marker prefix (see Sections 5.4 and 5.3).

The imperfective aspect

The imperfective aspect is used to present actions as an ongoing process. In isolation, it usually implies a contemporaneous act, but it can also be used when recounting a past narrative to indicate background information.

- (5.1) *Yeredo ranhalo l' a-ti-m.*
Yeredo beach to 3p;IPFV-RVM-go
'Yeredo is walking to the beach.'

- (5.2) *Ranhalo l' i-ti-m.*
beach to 1;IPFV-RVM-go
'I am walking to the beach.'

(5.1) Agreement morphology for the imperfective aspect (*Ø-); obligate P7 prefixes are in brackets

		Object					
		Intrans.	1P	2P	Prox	Obv	Inan
Subject	1P	<i>i-</i>	<i>ï(l)-</i>	<i>it-</i>	<i>i-</i>	<i>ï(l)-</i>	<i>yu-</i>
	2P	<i>az-</i>	<i>azi-</i>	<i>azl-</i>	<i>az-</i>	<i>ë(l)-</i>	<i>az-</i>
	Prox	<i>a-</i>	<i>ay-</i>	<i>at-</i>	<i>a(l)-</i>	<i>a(l)-</i>	<i>o-</i>
	Obv	<i>[is-] a-</i>	<i>[kin-] ï(l)-</i>	<i>[kin-] ë(l)-</i>	<i>[kin-] a(l)-</i>	<i>[is-] a-</i>	<i>[is-] a-</i>
	Inan	<i>o-</i>	<i>[kin-] yu-</i>	<i>[kin-] az-</i>	<i>[kin-] o-</i>	<i>[kin-] a-</i>	<i>wa-</i>

(5.2) Agreement morphology for the perfective aspect (*s-); obligate P7 prefixes are in brackets

		Object					
		Intrans.	1P	2P	Prox	Obv	Inan
Subject	1P	<i>is-</i>	<i>ïs-</i>	<i>its-</i>	<i>is-</i>	<i>ïs-</i>	<i>yus-</i>
	2P	<i>ez-</i>	<i>ezi-</i>	<i>ezi-</i>	<i>ez-</i>	<i>ës-</i>	<i>ez-</i>
	Prox	<i>as-</i>	<i>ays-</i>	<i>ats-</i>	<i>as-</i>	<i>as-</i>	<i>os-</i>
	Obv	<i>[is-] as-</i>	<i>[kin-] is-</i>	<i>[kin-] ës-</i>	<i>[kin-] as-</i>	<i>[is-] as-</i>	<i>[is-] as-</i>
	Inan	<i>os-</i>	<i>[kin-] yus-</i>	<i>[kin-] ez-</i>	<i>[kin-] os-</i>	<i>[kin-] as-</i>	<i>was-</i>

(5.3) Agreement morphology for the irrealis aspect (*sto-); obligate P7 prefixes are in brackets

		Object					
		Intrans.	1P	2P	Prox	Obv	Inan
Subject	1P	<i>isto-</i>	<i>ïsto-</i>	<i>sisto-</i>	<i>isto-</i>	<i>ïsto-</i>	<i>yusto-</i>
	2P	<i>azdo-</i>	<i>azisto-</i>	<i>ezdo-</i>	<i>ezdo-</i>	<i>ësto-</i>	<i>ezdo-</i>
	Prox	<i>asto-</i>	<i>aysto-</i>	<i>sasto-</i>	<i>asto-</i>	<i>asto-</i>	<i>osto-</i>
	Obv	<i>[is-] asto-</i>	<i>[kin-] isto-</i>	<i>[kin-] ësto-</i>	<i>[kin-] asto-</i>	<i>[is-] asto-</i>	<i>[is-] asto-</i>
	Inan	<i>osto-</i>	<i>[kin-] yusto-</i>	<i>[kin-] ezdo-</i>	<i>[kin-] osto-</i>	<i>[kin-] asto-</i>	<i>wasto-</i>

- (5.3) *Ranho l' i-ti-m di azb-os-vara-ni.*
 beach to 1;IPFV-RVM-go while INCH-3i;PFV-water-fall
 'I was walking to the beach when it started to rain.'
- (5.4) *Vara mayrël o-tanu-ni.*
 water yesterday 3i;IPFV-MASS-fall
 'It was raining yesterday.'

Perfective aspect

The perfective aspect is used to present actions as taking place either instantaneously or over a fixed period of time. Often the perfective aspects are used to present actions as completed, but this is not necessarily the case. In isolation, the perfective usually implies that the action took place in the past.

- (5.5) *Renya ranhalo l' as-ti-m.*
 Renya beach to 3p;PFV-RVM-go
 'Renya walked to the beach.'
- (5.6) *Ranho l' is-ti-m.*
 beach to 1;PFV-RVM-go
 'I walked to the beach.'
- (5.7) *Ranho l' is-ti-m di o-vara-ni.*
 beach to 1;PFV-RVM-go while 3i;IPFV-water-fall
 'I walked to the beach while it was raining.'
- (5.8) *Vara mayrël os-tanu-ni.*
 water yesterday 3i;IPFV-MASS-fall
 'It rained yesterday.'

Irrealis aspect

The irrealis aspect or irrealis mood is used to present actions that either could have happened but did not or might have happened but the speaker is unsure. In the matrix clause, it can be translated to English as "could have" or "might have," and in a conjunct clause it expresses condition as in example 5.11. Note that in example 5.10, it may be inferred that the speaker *did not* go to the beach, since it is less likely that they would be unsure whether or not they went to the beach.

- (5.9) *Emano ranhalo l' asto-ti-m.*
 Emano beach to 3p;IRR-RVM-go
 'Emano might have walked to the beach.'
- (5.10) *Ranho l' isto-ti-m.*
 beach to 1;IRR-RVM-go
 'I could have walked to the beach.'
- (5.11) *Ranho l' isto-ti-m di azb-os-vara-ni.*
 beach to 1;IRR-RVM-go while INCH-3i;PFV-water-fall
 'If I had gone to the beach, it would have started to rain.'

The irrealis aspect is also used in certain subordinate clauses as a matter of grammar, for example with the verb *zēda*, “to think,” as in example 5.12, while example 5.13 is ungrammatical.

- (5.12) *Luka ranhalo l' asto-ti-m=é yu-Ø-zēda.*
 Luka beach to 3p;IRR-RVM-go=R 1>3i;IPFV-ABSTRACT-think
 ‘I think Luka went to the beach.’

- (5.13) **Luka ranhalo l' as-ti-m=é yu-Ø-zēda.*
 Luka beach to 3p;PFV-RVM-go=R 1>3i;IPFV-ABSTRACT-think
 ‘I think Luka went to the beach.’

It can also be used as an imperative when accompanied by the complement marker *é*.

- (5.14) *Zīwat ezdo-vah-ye-du=é!*
 knife 2>3i;IRR-C-LRO-sit=R
 ‘Put down the knife!’

5.2 Auxiliary aspects

There are seven auxiliary aspects in Atili. The auxiliary aspects are formed by combining one of four P8 auxiliary aspect prefixes with one of the three direct aspects. Figure 5.4 shows the formation of the five auxiliary aspects.

(5.4) Formation of the auxiliary aspects

		Direct aspect		
		Imperfective	Perfective	Irrealis
P8 prefix	<i>azb-</i>		Inchoative	
	<i>ba-</i>	Habitual	Future	
	<i>duz-</i>	Restive	Perfect	Restive–Imperative
	<i>ën-</i>			Presumptive

Future aspect

The future aspect or future tense is used to present actions that are reasonably expected to occur in the future. The future aspect is only used when there is no other time marking in the sentence; otherwise, the plain perfective or imperfective is used (compare examples 5.15 and 5.16). It is formed by adding the P8 prefix *ba-* to a perfective verb.

- (5.15) *Ne=ligram ba-ez-ru-kez.*
 IND=book FUT-2>3i;PFV-FFO-write
 ‘You will write a book.’
- (5.16) *Ne=ligram dyozin ez-ru-kez.*
 IND=book tomorrow 2>3i;PFV-FFO-write
 ‘You will write a book tomorrow.’

Habitual aspect

The habitual aspect is used to present actions that are or used to be taken as a matter of habit. This very often will correspond to the English simple present or to a “used to” construction. It is formed by adding the P8 prefix *ba-* to an imperfective verb.

- (5.17) *Maris b-a-ri-kode-kím.*
Maris HAB-3p;IPFV-STAND-song-say
'Maris sings.'
- (5.18) *Dabanda la dyovio b-az-mane-m di w-i-de-banda.*
school to every_day HAB-2;IPFV-FAST-go while PL-1;IPFV-SIT-study
'While we were studying, you used to run to school every day.'

Inchoative aspect

The inchoative aspect is used to present the start of an ongoing action. It can be fairly reliably translated to English as “is starting to” or “started to.” It is formed by adding the P8 prefix *azb-* to a perfective verb.

- (5.19) *Tëmaya ligram azb-os-ru-nevas.*
Tëmaya book INCH-3p>3i;PFV-FFO-read
'Tëmaya started reading the book.'
- (5.20) *Īva azb-os-bu-ni.*
ice INCH-3i;PFV-BALL-fall
'It is starting to hail.'

Perfect aspect

The perfect aspect is used to present an action as having effects that persist after completion to a later time, either to the present or to the time of a past narrative. Compare examples 5.21 and 5.22. It is formed by adding the P8 prefix *duz-* to a perfective verb.

- (5.21) *Kadez embin duz-os-mal-unze.*
Kadez door PRF-3p>3i;PFV-FRO-shut
'Kadez has shut the door.' (The door is still shut.)
- (5.22) *Kadez embin os-mal-unze.*
Kadez door 3p>3i;PFV-FRO-shut
'Kadez shut the door.' (The door may or may not still be shut.)

It can also be used to present past experiences, as in example 5.23.

- (5.23) *Suyurukó aĵki duz-ez-Ø-rugza?*
Suyurukó ever PRF-2>3i;PFV-ABSTRACT-play
'Have you ever played *Suyurukó*?'

Presumptive aspect

The presumptive aspect is used when making an assumption or inference. It is formed by adding the P8 prefix *ën-* to an irrealis verb.

- (5.24) *Vara ën-osto-tanu-ni.*
water PRES-3i;IRR-MASS-fall
'It must have rained.'
OR 'It must be raining.'

- (5.25) *Lu ën-isto-nëmin-rimu.*
still PRES-1;IRR-SUPINE-be_sick
'I must still be sick.'

Restive aspect

The restive aspect is used to indicate that an action is still ongoing or keeps being undertaken. It is formed by adding the P8 prefix *duz-* to an imperfective verb and is used in place of the explicit adverb *lu* "still" (compare examples 5.26 and 5.27).

- (5.26) *Siletu Zezël duz-a-ri-vádzete.*
Siletu Zezël REST-3p>3o;IPFV-STAND-angry
'Siletu is still angry with Zezël.'

- (5.27) *Siletu lu Zezël a-ri-vádzete.*
Siletu still Zezël 3p>3o;IPFV-STAND-angry
'Siletu is still angry with Zezël.'

Restive–imperative aspect

The restive–imperative aspect is used to tell someone to keep doing something. It is formed by adding the P8 prefix *duz-* to an irrealis verb.

- (5.28) *Duz-azdo-ri-vah-aryo-kin=é!*
RIMP-2>3i;IRR-STAND-C-bread-cook=R
'Keep baking bread!'

5.3 Inverse marking

When an inanimate argument is the agent of a transitive verb and the patient is not inanimate or an obviate argument is the agent and the patient is 1st-person, 2nd-person, or proximate, the inverse marker *kin* is inserted in position P7 and the opposite agreement marker is used in position P5.

- (5.29) *Mazi bekhan kin-a-ri-buna.*
Man dog INV-IPFV;3p>3o-STAND-bite
'The dog bites the man.'

When this happens, positionals and causatives match the agent instead of matching the patient.

- (5.30) *Mazi mel kin-o-y-aban.*
Man tree INV-IPFV;3p>3i-LRO-hit
'The man was hit by the tree.'

5.4 Verbal obviation

When an obviate animate noun is used as the subject of a sentence, a special prefix “*is*” is sometimes used. This prefix is affixed in position P7. This is necessary because several obviate subject forms look the same as the proximate subject forms.

- (5.31) *Emanyo buhinak-i yambu ba-ÿs-a-vah-bu-kin.*
Emanyo(3o) dinner-GEN potato HAB-3o-3o>3i;IPFV-C-BALL-cook.
‘Emanyo bakes a potato for dinner.’

6 Number and possession

6.1 Number agreement

If any direct arguments are plural, the verb must take a prefix in position P6. If the P6 comes before a vowel, the prefix is *w-*. Otherwise, it is *u-*.

- (6.1) *I-ri-kím.* → *W-i-ri-kím*
1;IPFV-STAND-say PL-1;IPFV-STAND-say
‘I am singing.’ ‘We are singing.’

- (6.2) *Emanyo dyovio ligram b-a-ru-kez.*
Emanyo every_day book HAB-3p;IPFV-FFO-write
‘Emanyo works on writing the book every day.’
→ *Emanyo dyovio li-ligram ba-w-a-ru-kez.*
Emanyo every_day PL~book HAB-3p;IPFV-FFO-write
‘Emanyo writes books every day.’

6.2 Possessive agreement

Verbs also mark the possession of their primary referents.

7 Classifiers and positionals

Atili verbs are usually marked with classifiers or positionals. Unlike the rest of the agreement morphology in Atili, classifiers and positionals follow an ergative pattern, corresponding to the “accusative” argument; that is, the subject for intransitive verbs, and the agent for transitive verbs. In general, classifiers are used when the accusative argument is semantically inanimate and positionals are used when it is human. When the accusative argument is non-human, but still semantically animate, either may be used, but not both.

However, there are several cases where a verb that would normally take a classifier will not. Verbs with instrumentals or incorporated nouns (see Section 9) cannot take noun classifiers, since these markings all occupy the P1 slot. However, these verbs can still take positionals where otherwise appropriate, since positionals go in the P3 slot.

7.1 Classifiers

Classifiers are markers that describe the shape or form of a referent. If there is no incorporated noun or instrumental (see Section 9) and the accusative argument is semantically inanimate, the

classifier is a P1 prefix on the verb. Figure 7.1 lists all of the different classifiers available in Atili. The choice of classifier can affect the meaning of the referent to which it applies, narrowing its lexical scope. Because Atili has a fairly small root vocabulary, this is vital for conveying small differences in meaning. Contrast examples 7.1 through 7.8.

- (7.1) *Salan n=azvenko o-vah-bu-kin.*
 Salan IND=COW 3p>3i;IPFV-C-BALL-cook
 ‘Salan cooks a meatball.’
- (7.2) *Salan n=azvenko o-vah-ani-kin.*
 Salan IND=COW 3p>3i;IPFV-C-BOX-cook
 ‘Salan cooks a brisket.’
- (7.3) *Salan n=azvenko o-vah-dua-kin.*
 Salan IND=COW 3p>3i;IPFV-C-LFO-cook
 ‘Salan cooks some pulled beef.’
- (7.4) *Salan n=azvenko o-va-ru-kin.*
 Salan IND=COW 3p>3i;IPFV-C-FFO-cook
 ‘Salan cooks a beef patty.’
- (7.5) *Salan n=azvenko o-vah-ma-kin.*
 Salan IND=COW 3p>3i;IPFV-C-FRO-cook
 ‘Salan cooks a steak.’
- (7.6) *Salan n=azvenko o-vah-tanu-kin.*
 Salan IND=COW 3p>3i;IPFV-C-MASS-cook
 ‘Salan cooks some ground beef.’
- (7.7) *Salan n=azvenko o-vah-ov-kin.*
 Salan IND=COW 3p>3i;IPFV-C-FOOD-cook
 ‘Salan cooks some beef.’
- (7.8) ! *Salan n=azvenko a-vah-tay-kin.*
 Salan IND=COW 3p>3o;IPFV-C-ANIMAL-cook
 ‘Salan cooks a cow alive.’

Note that in the above examples, the classifier comes in the middle of the lexical verb *vahkín* “to cook.” This is because *vahkín* is an example of a transitive verb formed by adding a causative marker to an intransitive verb (see Section 10.2). Because the causative is a P2 prefix and the classifier is a P1 prefix, classifiers come after causatives.

(7.1) Classifiers

Class	Form	Description	Examples
Round objects (BALL)	<i>bu-</i>	Round objects with depth	Ball, crumpled paper, fruit, pebble
Angular objects (BOX)	<i>ani-</i>	Angular objects with depth	Brick, closed book, table, bush
Long flexible objects (LFO)	<i>dua-</i>	Objects that are long, slender, and flexible	Rope, noodle, vines, brush
Long rigid objects (LRO)	<i>y(e)-</i>	Objects that are long, slender, and rigid	Stick, sword, corpse, tree
Coiled objects (COIL)	<i>lob-</i>	Long slender objects bent or twisted in a spiral or ball	Coiled rope, snake, ball of twine
Flat flexible objects (FFO)	<i>ru(l)-</i>	Objects that are flat and flexible	Clothes, sheet of paper, open book, leaf, moss
Flat rigid objects (FRO)	<i>ma(l)-</i>	Objects that are flat and rigid	Board, plate, window, tree bark, the ground
Container (CONTAINER)	<i>ho-</i>	Anything that can contain other things and objects in a sealed container	Bottle, house, robe, hole, hollow log, bottle of water, jar of jam
Object in an open container (OPEN)	<i>hun-</i>	Anything in an open container	Handful of dirt, pot of tea, fruit in a basket, water in a lake
Live animals (ANIMAL)	<i>tay-</i>	A live animal	Sheep, squirrel, dog
Prepared food items (FOOD)	<i>ov-</i>	Anything that has been prepared for human consumption	Cooked fish, salad, shelled nuts
Masses (MASS)	<i>tanu-</i>	An uncountable quantity of small or miscellaneous items that go together naturally, or a mass of substance	Sand, a pile of rocks, pages in a book, things taken in a burglary, the sky, the ocean, a cloud, a mountain, a country
Abstract Concepts (ABSTRACT)	<i>s-</i>	Abstract concepts and intangible objects	Love, independence, the law, gravity

7.2 Positionals

When the accusative argument is transitive, a positional is used instead of a classifier. Positionals describe the position or motion of a human or other animate referent. Positionals that indicate motion also mark the directionality of movement, either Andative (AND), meaning motion away from the speaker or reference location, or Venitive (VEN), meaning motion toward the speaker or reference. When the directionality of movement is not a concern, the andative may be used generally.

The use of positionals can be critical to the meaning of a statement because some verbs, such as *ma*, “to go,” are very non-specific. Positionals can help narrow in on a more specific meaning. Figure 7.2 lists all of the positionals available in Atili.

(7.2) Positionals

Position	Andative	Venitive	Description	Examples
Repetitive vertical motion (RVM)	<i>ti-</i>	<i>mi-</i>	Repetitive motion up and down (incl. metaphorically)	Walking, riding a horse, floating in water, talking incessantly
Repetitive lateral motion (RLM)	<i>ad-</i>	<i>l-</i>	Repetitive motion side to side	Swaying, riding a camel, dancing, stumbling, rocking, shivering, being angry
Non-repetitive lateral motion (NLM)	<i>dine-</i>	<i>ask-</i>	Moving to one side or the other without changing direction	Sidling, moving as a crab, dodging, being chased
Fast forward motion (FAST)	<i>mani-</i>	<i>um-</i>	Rapid forward motion along the ground	Running, galloping
Fast downward motion (FDM)	<i>ëzi-</i>	<i>nay-</i>	Rapid downward motion	Falling, jumping down, rolling down a hill
Motion along a slope (MAS)	<i>ib-</i>	<i>ob-</i>	Motion upward or downward at an angle	Climbing, gliding down
Motion as through water or air (MTW)	<i>iyak-</i>	<i>enki-</i>	Propelled motion through water or air and motion of similar nature	Swimming, flying, sailing
Standing still (STAND)		<i>ri-</i>	Not moving while standing	Standing
Sitting still (SIT)		<i>de-</i>	Not moving while seated	Sitting
Prone (PRONE)		<i>dali-</i>	Not moving while lying down on one's belly	Lying prone
Supine (SUPINE)		<i>nëmin-</i>	Not moving while lying down on one's back or side	Lying supine, lying on one's side

- (7.9) *Swilen hazo l' a-ti-m.*
 Swilen house to 3p;IPFV-RVM;AND-go
 ‘Swilen walks home.’

- (7.10) *Swilen hazo l' a-mi-m.*
Swilen house to 3p;IPFV-RVM;VEN-go
'Swilen comes walking home.'
- (7.11) *Swilen hazo l' a-n<d>a.*
Swilen house to 3p;IPFV-<RLM;AND>go
'Swilen stumbles home.'
- (7.12) *Swilen hazo l' a-Ø-ma.*
Swilen house to 3p;IPFV-RLM;VEN-go
'Swilen comes stumbling home.'
- (7.13) *Swilen hazo l' a-dine-m.*
Swilen house to 3p;IPFV-NLM;AND-go
'Swilen is being chased home.'
- (7.14) *Swilen hazo l' a-ska-m.*
Swilen house to 3p;IPFV-NLM;VEN-go
'Swilen comes home being chased.'
- (7.15) *Swilen hazo l' a-mani-m.*
Swilen house to 3p;IPFV-FAST;AND-go
'Swilen runs home'
- (7.16) *Swilen hazo l' a-w-m.*
Swilen house to 3p;IPFV-FAST;VEN-go
'Swilen comes running home'
- (7.17) *Swilen hazo l' a-ÿzi-m.*
Swilen house to 3p;IPFV-FDM;AND-go
'Swilen sleds down to the house.'
- (7.18) *Swilen hazo l' a-nay-m.*
Swilen house to 3p;IPFV-FDM;VEN-go
'Swilen comes sledding down to the house.'
- (7.19) *Swilen hazo l' a-y-ma.*
Swilen house to 3p;IPFV-MAS;AND-<MAS;AND>go
'Swilen climbs up to the house.'
- (7.20) *Swilen hazo l' a-ma.*
Swilen house to 3p;IPFV-<MAS;VEN>go
'Swilen comes climbing up to the house.'

(7.21) *Swilen hazo l' a-ya-n<g>a.*
Swilen house to 3p;IPFV-MTW;AND-<MTW;AND>go
'Swilen swims home.'

(7.22) *Swilen hazo l' a-ynki-m.*
Swilen house to 3p;IPFV-MTW;VEN-go
'Swilen comes swimming home.'

7.3 Metaphorical positions

Even with verbs that do not inherently imply movement (and particularly with verbs containing incorporated nouns, see section 9), it is still possible to use a positional of motion. In these cases, the positions take on a metaphorical meaning. With metaphorical movements, the venitive form is used when the action being taken produces a clear result; otherwise, the andative is used. Compare examples 7.23 and 7.24.

The Repetitive vertical motion positional can be used to indicate that an action is being performed in an unskilled or cheerful manner. It can also be used to show affection towards the performer.

(7.23) *Konmín a-mi-sala-vah.*
Konmín 3p-RVM;VEN-sandal-make
'Konmín is happily making sandals.'

(7.24) *Mazili a-n<d>ë-devara.*
boy 3p-<RVM;AND>bush-water
'The boy is clumsily watering the bush.'

(7.25) *Ilene a-m-vah-buhnak-kin.*
my_wife 3p-RVM;VEN-C-dinner-cook
'My dear wife is cooking dinner.'

The Repetitive lateral motion can be generalized to any slow back and forth motion, such as honing a blade, cutting with a saw, or strumming a stringed instrument.

(7.26) *Konmín as-ad-onga-kím.*
Konmín 3p;PFV-RLM;AND-zither-sing
'Konmín played the zither.'

(7.27) *Maneyri o-keÿ-Ø-vah-mëzina-huti.*
Maneyri 3p>3o-POSS.SBJ>OBJ-RLM;VEN-C-sharpen.
'Maneyri is sharpening his ax.'

8 Negation

Verbs are negated by inserting the prefix *m-* in position P5. The particle *ni* is also used before the verb. Negative verbs also must use the irrealis aspect.

This creates the most general form of negation. Contrast the following sentences:

(8.1) *sentence*
gloss
'translation'

9 Noun incorporation

9.1 Derivational noun incorporation

Noun incorporation is a very common manner for deriving new verbs. When this is done, either a full noun or a reduced form of the noun is inserted into the verb complex in position P1.

- (9.1) *Eda zīdu o-nansev-da.*
lemon 3i;IPFV-brine-sit.
'The lemon is being pickled.'

- (9.2) *I-yak-vara-vobras.*
1;IPFV-MTW-water-run
'I am swimming.'

9.2 Noun incorporation in discourse

Noun incorporation is also a common discourse strategy for reducing the salience of an object. When this is done, the entire noun or a reduced form is inserted into the verb complex in position P1. It is also used to mark an object as indefinite in place of the prefix *ne-*; note the difference between examples 9.3 and 9.4. With ditransitive verbs (see Section 10.4), only secondary objects can be incorporated, thus example 9.5 is ungrammatical.

- (9.3) *Vërun ligram az-ani-malon.*
Vërun book 2>3p;IPFV-BOX-give
'You give Vërun the book.'

- (9.4) *Vërun az-ri-ligram-malon.*
Vërun 2>3p;IPFV-STAND-book-give
'You give Vërun a book.'

- (9.5) * *Ligram az-Vërun-malon.*
Book 2>3i;IPFV-Vërun-give
'You give Vërun a book.'

This makes sense, since the primary object of a ditransitive verb is usually animate, and animate objects may never be incorporated. Thus, example 9.7 is ungrammatical and the sentence from example 9.8 must be used instead.

- (9.6) *Barus a-ri-hazo-vas.*
Barus 3p;IPFV-STAND-house-see
'Barus sees the house.'

- (9.7) * *Barus a-ri-Nïmo-vas.*
Barus 3p;IPFV-STAND-Nïmo-see
'Barus sees Nïmo.'

- (9.8) *Barus Nïmo a-ri-vas.*
Barus Nïmo 3p>3o;IPFV-STAND-see
'Barus sees Nïmo.'

Except in imperatives and other relative constructions, it is strongly dispreferred to incorporate the only free noun in a sentence and leave the sentence without any nouns or pronouns. It is possible to do this when focusing a first- or second-person referent that would normally be dropped using an explicit pronoun; thus, example 9.11 is acceptable.

- (9.9) ? *I-de-wina-bara.*
 1;IPFV-SIT-fish-eat
 'I eat some fish.'
- (9.10) *Ne=wina yu-ru-bara.*
 IND=fish 1>3i;IPFV-FFO-eat
 'I eat some fish.'
- (9.11) *Ik' i-de-wina-bara.*
 1 1;IPFV-SIT-fish-eat
 'I eat some fish.'

Oblique arguments can also be incorporated into intransitive verbs. When this happens, it a postposition may or may not be left stranded. There is no major distinction in meaning based on whether the postposition is stranded or dropped, and when left in place works to disambiguate. A stranded postposition always comes after the verb.

- (9.12) *Azdo-mi-hazo-m=é!*
 2;IRR-RVM;VEN-house-go=R
 'Come home!' OR 'Come out of the house!'
- (9.13) *Azdo-mi-hazo-m=é la!*
 2;IRR-RVM;VEN-house-go=R to
 'Come home!'
- (9.14) *Azdo-mi-hazo-m=é 'n!*
 2;IRR-RVM;VEN-house-go=R from
 'Come out of the house!'

As with derivational noun incorporation, when an incorporated noun is present for discourse reasons, no classifier is used. Thus examples 9.16 and 9.17 are both ungrammatical. If you want to use a classifier to disambiguate meaning, the object must not be incorporated as in example 9.18. Incorporated nouns have no effect on the use of positionals, however; therefore example 9.19 is acceptable. Note that when a noun has been incorporated, the positional, if any, is ascribed to the subject as with any intransitive verb, and is required when the subject is human.

- (9.15) *Bekhan os-azvenko-bara.*
 dog 3i;PFV-cow-eat
 'The dog ate some beef.'
- (9.16) * *Bekhan os-any-azvenko-bara.*
 dog 3i;PFV-BOX-cow-eat
 'The dog ate some brisket.'

- (9.17) * *Bekhan os-azvenko-ani-bara.*
 dog 3i;PFV-COW-BOX-eat
 ‘The dog ate some brisket.’
- (9.18) *Bekhan n=azvenko was-ani-bara.*
 dog IND=COW 3i>3i;PFV-BOX-beef-eat
 ‘The dog ate some brisket.’
- (9.19) *Bekhan os-d-azvenko-bara.*
 dog 3i;PFV-SIT-beef-eat
 ‘The sitting dog ate some beef.’

10 Causatives and transitivity

10.1 Ordinary causatives

Causatives are used to indicate that the patient was caused to take some action. Typically, the subject or agent of the original verb will become the patient, and the causer will become the new agent.

10.2 Causativization as a valency-changing operation

10.3 Labile verbs

While most transitive verbs in Atili drop their patient when used intransitively, there is a notable category of verbs that drop the agent. These are called labile verbs, and come broadly in three categories:

- Verbs describing a change of state: *-kin* “cook/bake,” *-dome* “cut,” *-inwa* “break,” *-bwëni* “lose.”
- Verbs of motion: *-leni* “move/go,” *-ni* “drop/fall,” *-utyad* “shake.”
- Other exceptional verbs: *-kim* “play (an instrument),” *-niama* “to be allowed.”

Contrast the following examples. Examples 10.1 and 10.2 use a normal verb, while examples 10.3 and 10.4 use a labile verb.

- (10.1) *Magret ranha a-w-mankis.*
 Magret horse 3p>3o-FAST;VEN-ride.
 ‘Magret comes in riding the horse.’
- (10.2) *Magret a-w-mankis.*
 Magret 3p>3o-FAST;VEN-ride.
 ‘Magret comes riding in.’
- (10.3) *Kadez o-ru-ní hagzad.*
 Kadez 3p>3i-FFO-fall leaf
 ‘Kadez drops a leaf.’
- (10.4) *O-ru-ní hagzad.*
 3i-FFO-fall leaf
 ‘A leaf falls.’

If it is desired to remove the patient of a labile verb, the replacement patient *zye* “something” can be substituted, or the patient may be left implicit altogether (though care should be taken in the latter approach that no better antecedent can be inferred).

(10.5) *Kadez zye o-ru-ní.*
 Kadez thing 3p>3i-FFO-fall
 ‘Kadez drops something.’

(10.6) *Kadez o-ru-ní.*
 Kadez 3p>3i-FFO-fall
 ‘Kadez drops (a thing).’

10.4 Agreement morphology for ditransitive verbs

11 Possessive morphology for verbs

(11.1) Accusative possessive morphology

	POSS.1	POSS.2	POSS.3	POSS.SBJ
AL	- <i>ki</i> -	- <i>ket</i> -	- <i>kisa</i> -	- <i>kay</i> -
INAL	- <i>si</i> -	- <i>set</i> -	- <i>sisa</i> -	- <i>say</i> -
RELGEN	- <i>ti</i> -		- <i>tisa</i> -	

(11.2) Ergative possessive morphology

	POSS.1	POSS.2	POSS.3p	POSS.3o
AL	- <i>l</i> (*)-	- <i>t</i> (*)-	- <i>ay</i> -	- <i>u</i> -/ <i>w</i> -
INAL OR RELGEN	- <i>a</i> (<i>l</i>)-	- <i>et</i> -	- <i>s</i> -	

Nouns

12 Quantities and amounts

12.1 Plurals

Nouns can be made plural by reduplicating the first syllable.

(12.1)	<i>mazi</i> man 'the man'	→	<i>ma~mazi</i> PL~man 'the men'
--------	---------------------------------	---	---------------------------------------

If the first syllable has a coda consonant or offglide diphthong, it is not included in the reduplicated syllable.

(12.2)	<i>bekhan</i> dog 'the dog'	→	<i>be~bekhan</i> PL~dog 'the dogs'
--------	-----------------------------------	---	--

(12.3)	<i>tay</i> mind 'the mind'	→	<i>ta~tay</i> PL~mind 'the minds'
--------	----------------------------------	---	---

If the first syllable has a centralized vowel (*ë* or *ï*), the reduplicated syllable will use the corresponding uncentralized vowel (*e* or *i*, respectively).

(12.4)	<i>zidu</i> lemon 'the lemon'	→	<i>zi~zidu</i> PL~lemon 'the lemons'
--------	-------------------------------------	---	--

(12.5)	<i>kënesi</i> question 'the question'	→	<i>ke~kënesi</i> PL~question 'the questions'
--------	---	---	--

If the first syllable has an onglide diphthong, the onglide vowel overtakes the syllable nucleus in the reduplicated syllable and the glide is deleted from the original syllable. For *w*, the onglide vowel is usually *u*, but can sometimes be *o*. For *y*, it is usually *i*, but can sometimes be *e*.

(12.6)	<i>dwenu</i> hearth 'the hearth'	→	<i>du~denu</i> PL~hearth 'the hearths'
--------	--	---	--

- (12.7) *wado*
objective
'the objective' → *or~ado*
PL~objective
'the objectives'
- (12.8) *yambu*
potato
'the potato' → *er~ambu*
PL~potato
'the potatoes'
- (12.9) *ryo*
king
'the king' → *ri~ró*
PL~king
'the kings'

Finally, in the event that the first syllable has no onset, an epenthetic *r* is inserted.

- (12.10) *inak*
meal
'the meal' → *ir~inak*
PL~meal
'the meals'
- (12.11) *evim*
hat
'the hat' → *er~evim*
PL~hat
'the hats'

When a one-syllable noun is pluralized, the reduplicated syllable never takes stress.

- (12.12) *ron*
woman
'the woman' → *ro~rón*
PL~woman
'the women'
- (12.13) *kal*
nose
'the nose' → *ka~kál*
PL~nose
'the noses'

When an explicit number is given, no reduplication is necessary.

- (12.14) *kazmo*
eye
'the eye' → *baw kazmo*
two eye
'two eyes'
- (12.15) *kute*
follower
'the follower' → *ten kute*
seven follower
'seven followers'

It is still possible to reduplicate while using a number. This defocuses the number, either because the number is expected or unimportant. This can also mark approximation.

- (12.16) *sala*
sandal
'the sandal' → *baw sa~sala*
two PL~sandal
'a pair of sandals'

- (12.17) *kute*
 follower
 ‘the follower’ → *tendi ku~kute*
 twelve PL~follower
 ‘a dozen followers’
- (12.18) *ron*
 woman
 ‘the woman’ → *vizrinye ro~rón*
 six dozen PL~woman
 ‘about six dozen women’

Mass nouns can also take this sort of reduplication to indicate a large quantity of substance.

- (12.19) *vara*
 water
 ‘the water’ → *va~vara*
 PL~water
 ‘a lot of water’

12.2 Collectives

The suffix *-vi* is used to derive words for collections of related things. It can be used to name groups of objects or people, an assortment of items that go together, or people associated with someone.

- (12.20) *kute*
 follower
 ‘the follower’ → *kute-vi*
 follower-COLL
 ‘religion’ OR ‘congregation’
- (12.21) *nulay*
 star
 ‘the star’ → *nulay-vi*
 star-COLL
 ‘the sky’

The collective suffix can be attached to a person’s name to refer to that person and any group that is associated with them. This use can be likened to the phrases “and company” and “et al.” as may be used in English.

- (12.22) *Rodi-vi nu~nulay ba-w-o-z-banda.*
 Rodi-COLL PL~star HAB-PL-3p>3i;IPFV-ABSTRACT-study
 ‘Rodi and her followers study the stars.’

Collective nouns do not trigger plural marking on the verb. Thus, example 12.23 is ungrammatical, while example 12.24 is acceptable.

- (12.23) * *Mowe-vi w-o-mal ketlan!*
 grass-COLL PL-be;3i;IPFV-FRO beautiful
 ‘The lawn are beautiful!’

- (12.24) *Mowe-vi o-mal ketlan!*
 grass-COLL be;3i;IPFV-FRO beautiful
 ‘The lawn is beautiful!’

Some derivational collective nouns can be made plural in the ordinary manner. However, many collectives are considered to encompass the totality of a set; plurals of these collective nouns are disallowed, thus example 12.27 is bad.

(12.25)	<i>mowe-vi</i> grass-COLL 'the lawn'	→	<i>mo~mowe-vi</i> PL~grass-COLL 'the lawns'
(12.26)	<i>kute-vi</i> follower-COLL 'the congregation'	→	<i>ku~kute-vi</i> PL~follower-COLL 'the congregations'
(12.27)	<i>nulay-vi</i> star-COLL 'the sky'	→	* <i>nu~nulay-vi</i> PL~star-COLL 'the skies'

13 Introducing new referents

In Atili, it is assumed that topics are recoverable from discourse or the present environment. If a new concept is being introduced, there are several strategies available to introduce new referents.

13.1 Indefiniteness

The most common is by the addition of a proclitic *n(e)*, which comes at the very beginning of a noun phrase.

(13.1)	<i>moza</i> fern 'the fern'	→	<i>ne=moza</i> IND=fern 'a fern'
(13.2)	<i>is-a-r-zantw=é mazi</i> 3o-3o-STAND-happy=R man 'the happy man'	→	<i>ne=ÿs-a-r-zantw=é mazi</i> IND=3o-3o-STAND-happy=R man 'a happy man'

Explicitly indefinite nouns cannot be used as grammatical subjects of unergative, labile, or transitive verbs. Thus, the following examples are ungrammatical:

- (13.3) * *Ne=mazi is-a-w-m.*
IND=man 3o-3o-FAST;VEN-come
'A man comes running over.'
- (13.4) * *Ne=moza o-rul-ëra.*
IND=fern 3i-FFO-grow
'A fern grows.'
- (13.5) * *Ne=ron aryö is-a-ov-dome.*
IND=woman bread 3o-3o>3i-FOOD-cut.
'A woman is cutting the bread.'

13.2 Sentence focus position to introduce referents

It is also possible to indicate indefiniteness by moving an indefinite or obviate patient or labile subject (see Section 10.3) into sentence focus position after the verb. Note that depending on context, this may not always indicate indefiniteness, especially when in response to a question. See section 15.2 for more uses of sentence focus position.

Notice that example 13.7 is grammatical, while the alternative indefinite form in example 13.8 is ungrammatical, as discussed above.

- | | | | |
|--------|---|---|--|
| (13.6) | <i>Wina yu-tay-vas.</i>
fish 1>3i-ANIMAL-see
‘I see the fish.’ | → | <i>Yu-tay-vas wina.</i>
1>3i-ANIMAL-see fish
‘I see a fish.’ |
| (13.7) | <i>Er~ambu w-o-b-kín.</i>
PL~potato PL-3i-BALL-cook
‘The potatoes are cooking.’ | → | <i>W-o-b-kín er~ambu.</i>
PL-3i-BALL-cook PL~potato
‘There are some potatoes cooking.’ |
| (13.8) | <i>Er~ambu w-o-b-kín.</i>
PL~potato PL-3i-BALL-cook
‘The potatoes are cooking.’ | → | * <i>N=er~ambu w-o-b-kín.</i>
IND=PL~potato PL-3i-BALL-cook
‘Potatoes are cooking.’ |

13.3 Using a copula to introduce referents

The most general strategy for introducing new referents is to use a copular construction. There are broadly two different ways to do this. The first is to use a trivial copular sentence to introduce the referent, after which it can be used ordinarily. Compare the following examples to examples 13.1–13.1:

- | | |
|---------|--|
| (13.9) | <i>Ne=mazi is-á-wm-Ø. İ̇s-a-w-m.</i>
IND=man 3o-3o-FAST;VEN-COP 3o-3o-FAST;VEN-COME
‘There’s a man. He comes running over.’ |
| (13.10) | <i>Ne=moza o-rul-Ø. O-rul-ëra.</i>
IND=fern 3i-FFO-COP 3i-FFO-grow
‘There’s a fern. It’s growing.’ |
| (13.11) | <i>Ne=ron is-a-ri-Ø. Aryo is-a-ov-dome.</i>
IND=woman 3o-3o-STAND-COP bread 3o-3o>3i-FOOD-cut.
‘There’s a woman. She is cutting the bread.’ |

A particular stylistic variation of this is to incorporate the introduced noun into the copula. This is only available for trivial copular constructions, and becomes an interjection at the start the next sentence. Contrast the following sentences with the preceding.

- | | |
|---------|--|
| (13.12) | <i>İ̇s-a-w-mazi-Ø, is-a-w-m.</i>
3o-3o-FAST;VEN-man-COP 3o-3o-FAST;VEN-COME
‘There’s a man comes running over.’ |
|---------|--|

- (13.13) *O-moza-Ø, o-rul-ëra.*
 3i-fern-COP 3i-FFO-grow
 ‘There’s a fern growing.’
- (13.14) *Ïs-a-ri-ron-Ø, aryö is-a-ov-dome.*
 3o-3o-STAND-woman-COP bread 3o-3o>3i-FOOD-cut.
 ‘There’s a woman cutting the bread.’

The second way to do this is to relativize what used to be the matrix clause and incorporate it into a copular expression. This can be unwieldy with long clauses, and also has the effect of defocusing the the action. Contrast again the following examples with the preceding.

- (13.15) *N=Ïs-a-wm-len=é mazi Ïs-á-wm-Ø.*
 IND=3o-3o-FAST;VEN-come=R man 3o-3o-FAST;VEN-COP
 ‘There’s a man who’s running over.’
- (13.16) *N=o-rul-ër=é moza o-rul-Ø.*
 IND=3i-FFO-grow=R fern 3i-FFO-COP
 ‘There’s a fern that’s growing.’
- (13.17) *N=Ïs-a-ryo-dome ron Ïs-a-ri-Ø.*
 IND=3o-3o>3i-bread-cut woman 3o-3o-STAND-COP
 ‘There’s a woman who’s cutting the bread.’

13.4 Noun incorporation to introduce low-salience referents

Low-salience objects of transitive verbs can be incorporated into the verb even if they have not been introduced in the discourse.

14 Genitives

Atili has two sorts of possessive genitive marking, which distinguish alienable and inalienable possession, as well as a third “relational genitive.” With all genitive constructions, the possessor must come before the possessum, after any relatives, but before any adjectives. Thus the examples on the left below are acceptable, but the examples on the right are not.

- | | |
|--|---|
| <p>(14.1) <i>Magret=i ranha</i>
 Magret=GEN.AL horse
 ‘Magret’s horse’</p> | <p>(14.2) *<i>Ranha Magret=i</i>
 horse Magret=GEN.AL
 ‘Horse Magret’s’</p> |
| <p>(14.3) <i>Magred=ra maman</i>
 Magret=GEN.INAL mother
 ‘Magret’s mother’</p> | <p>(14.4) *<i>Maman Magred=ra</i>
 mother Magret=GEN.INAL
 ‘Mother Magret’s’</p> |
| <p>(14.5) <i>Magret=senu kavrat</i>
 Magret=RELGEN friend
 ‘Magret’s friend’</p> | <p>(14.6) *<i>Kavrat Magret=senu</i>
 friend Magret=RELGEN
 ‘Friend Magret’s’</p> |

(14.7) *O-ye-huty=é Hudin=i zina*
 3i-LRO-sharp=R Hudin=GEN.AL sword
 ‘Hudin’s sharp sword’

(14.8) * *Hudin=i o-ye-huty=é zina*
 Hudin=GEN.AL 3i-LRO-sharp=R sword
 ‘Hudin’s sharp sword’

(14.9) *Salan=i mowe zidu*
 Salan=GEN.AL green lime
 ‘Salan’s (green) lime’

(14.10) * *Mowe Salan=i zidu*
 green Salan=GEN.AL lime
 ‘Green Salan’s lime’

14.1 Alienable possession

Alienable possession is used to show ordinary ownership, typically of inanimate objects. It is marked with an enclitic =i, which may be realized as =y after a vowel.

(14.11) *Magret=i ranha*
 Magret=GEN.AL horse
 ‘Magret’s horse’

(14.12) *Ron=i aryo*
 woman=GEN.AL bread
 ‘The woman’s bread’

For works of authorship, alienable possession is used to demonstrate ownership of the object of the work rather than the origin of the work.

(14.13) *Anseru=i ligram*
 Anseru=GEN.AL book
 ‘Anseru’s book’
(Anseru owns the book)

(14.14) *Maris=i en-wabam-am*
 Maris=GEN.AL hand-show-N
 ‘Maris’s drawing’
(Maris owns the drawing)

Similarly, for ideas, alienable possession is used whenever an idea did not originate with somebody.

(14.15) *Emanyoy=y vas-am*
 Emanyoy=GEN.AL understand-N
 ‘Emanyoy’s understanding’
(Emanyoy understands because it was explained to him by someone else)

(14.16) *Yeredoy=y zëda-m*
 Yeredoy=GEN.AL think-N
 ‘Yeredoy’s plan’
(Yeredoy endorses the plan, but did not come up with it himself)

14.2 Inalienable possession

Inalienable possession is always used with family members and body parts. It can also be used for pets to show affection, and with ideas and creative works to indicate origin. In all other cases, alienable possession is used. It is marked with an enclitic =ra.

(14.17) *Magred=ra maman*
 Magret=GEN.INAL mother
 ‘Magret’s mother’

(14.18) *Mazi=ra yodon*
 man=GEN.INAL head
 ‘The man’s head’

For works of authorship, alienable possession is used to demonstrate ownership of the object of the work rather than the origin of the work.

(14.19) *Anseru=ra ligram*
 Anseru=GEN.INAL book
 ‘Anseru’s book’
(Anseru wrote the book)

(14.20) *Mariz=ra en-wabam-am*
 Maris=GEN.INAL hand-show-N
 ‘Maris’s drawing’
(Maris made the drawing)

Similarly, for ideas, alienable possession is used whenever an idea did not originate with somebody.

(14.21) *Emanyo=ra vas-am*
Emanyo=GEN.INAL understand-N
'Emanyo's understanding'
(*Emanyo understands because he worked it out himself*)

(14.22) *Yeredo=ra zëda-m*
Yeredo=GEN.INAL think-N
'Yeredo's plan'
(*Yeredo came up with the plan himself*)

14.3 Relational genitive

A third sort of genitive is used to mark non-familial relationships between people. This is called the "relational genitive."

Syntax

15 Sentence-level syntax

While Atili is nonconfigurational, and the major components of the sentence can come in several different orders, the ordinary default word order in is SOV; that is, the subject noun phrase (SNP) comes first in the sentence, followed by the object noun phrase (ONP) if one is present, and finally the verb phrase (VP). All other orderings are marked and indicate either focusing of some component or atypical obviation.

Because of the mechanics of obviation in Atili, it is also possible to analyze the default word order as POvV; that is, the proximate noun phrase (PNP), obviate noun phrase (OvNP) if present, and finally the verb phrase (VP). This is discussed in further depth in Section 15.1.

15.1 Word order restrictions

In an Atili sentence that features both proximate- and obviate-person referents, it is required for the proximate-person referent to come first in the sentence. This is necessary because nouns are otherwise not marked for obviation. Observe that examples 15.1 and 15.2, which differ only in word order, have different meanings.

(15.1) *Maris Yeredo aw-de-vas.*
Maris Yeredo 3p>3o;IPFV-SIT-see
'Maris_{3p} sees Yeredo_{3o}.'

(15.2) *Yeredo Maris aw-de-vas.*
Yeredo Maris 3p>3o;IPFV-SIT-see
'Yeredo_{3p} sees Maris_{3o}.'

It is possible to use an inverse marker (see Section 5.3) to restore the propositional content of the sentence while leaving the referents swapped, as in example 15.3, but notice that the semantics of the sentence still differ from example 15.1.

(15.3) *Yeredo Maris kin-aw-de-vas.*
Yeredo Maris INV-3p>3o;IPFV-SIT-see
'Maris_{3o} sees Yeredo_{3p}.'

In the same way, inanimate referents must come after both proximate- and obviate-person animate referents. It is ungrammatical to place inanimate referents before animate ones, thus examples 15.5 and 15.7 are both bad.

- (15.4) *Emanyo hazo a-ho-vas.*
 Emanyo house 3p>3i;IPFV-CONTAINER-see
 ‘Emanyo_{3p} sees the house_{3i}.’
- (15.5) * *Hazo Emanyo a-ho-vas.*
 house Emanyo 3p>3i;IPFV-CONTAINER-see
 ‘Emanyo_{3p} sees the house_{3i}.’
- (15.6) *Siletu vita is-a-ho-vas.*
 Siletu jar 3o-3o>3i;IPFV-CONTAINER-see
 ‘Siletu_{3o} sees the jar_{3i}.’
- (15.7) * *Vita Siletu is-a-ho-vas.*
 jar Siletu 3o-3o>3i;IPFV-CONTAINER-see
 ‘Siletu_{3o} sees the jar_{3i}.’

15.2 Sentence focus

In certain situations, a noun or postpositional phrase may be moved after the verb in order to provide focus to that noun phrase. It is usual to use this construction in response to questions; thus, the sentence in example 15.9 would be a likely answer to the question “Where are you going?”

- (15.8) *Ehuno l' as-ti-m Magret.*
 store to 3p;PFV-RVM-go Magret
 ‘It was Magret who walked to the store.’
- (15.9) *I-ti-m ranhalo la.*
 1;IPFV-RVM-go beach to.
 ‘I am going to the beach.’
- (15.10) *Magret o-ti-yambu-dome ziwat lez.*
 Magret 3p>3i;IPFV-RVM-potato-cut knife with.
 ‘It is with the knife that Magret is cutting potatoes.’

Sentence focus position can also be used to introduce a new topic. This is discussed further in section 13.2.

15.3 Implicit referents

Atili allows some referents to be left implicit in certain cases where the referent is recoverable from the discourse. This process is called argument-dropping or pronoun-dropping. A proximate-person referent can always be dropped if it is recoverable.

- (15.11) a. *Vërun hazo l' as-ti-m.*
 Vërun house to 3p;PFV-RVM;VEN-go
 ‘Vërun_{3p} went into the house_{3i}.’
- b. *Bekhan kin-aws-ri-hëkan.*
 dog INV-3p>3o;PFV-STAND-bite
 ‘The dog_{3o} bit him_{3p}.’

Obviate-person referents can only be dropped if it is the only animate referent or if all animate referents are dropped. If there is a proximate-person referent or another obviate-person referent that is not dropped, an obviate-person referent must be left explicit, either with a full noun phrase or using the animate pronoun *vi*. Note the difference in meaning between examples 15.12b and 15.13b.

- (15.12) a. *Renya Vërun is-a-ri-vas.*
 Renya Vërun INV-3p>3o;IPFV-STAND-see
 ‘Vërun_{3o} sees Renya_{3p}.’
 b. *Luka mal vi is-a-ri-vas.*
 Luka also he INV-3p>3o;IPFV-STAND-see
 ‘He_{3o} also sees Luka_{3p}.’
- (15.13) a. *Renya Vërun is-a-ri-vas.*
 Renya Vërun INV-3p>3o;IPFV-STAND-see
 ‘Vërun_{3o} sees Renya_{3p}.’
 b. *Luka mal is-a-ri-vas.*
 Luka also INV-3p>3o;IPFV-STAND-see
 ‘Luka_{3o} also sees her_{3p}.’

15.4 Sentences with two obviate persons

15.5 Discourse particles and adverbs

16 Noun phrases

16.1 Quantifiers

17 Comparative sentences

Comparatives in Atili are formed in a couple of ways, but the primary way uses a the converb form *tosva* “being better than.”

18 Relative clauses

Relative clauses in Atili have a similar structure to the matrix clause, with one major exception: namely, that the verb must come last and takes the relative suffix *-é*. Another distinction is that it is very common to incorporate relative objects into the relativized verb. This means that many relative clauses are reduced to a single word.

- (18.1) *A-d-evin-kind-é mazi atsa-ti-vas.*
 3p;IPFV-SIT-hat-knit-R man 3p>2;PFV-RVM;AND-see
 ‘The man who is knitting a hat saw you.’

It is fairly common to nest relative clauses to convey more complex ideas.

- (18.2) *Ten honu uwasduakoyé onga okodengé ron adek unkei.*
Ten honu u-was-dua-koy-é onga o-kode-ng-é ron a-de-k
 seven string PL-3i>3i;IPFV-LFO-have-R zither 3p>3i;IPFV-song-play-R woman 3p-SIT-is
unkei.
 tall

'The woman playing the seven-stringed zither is tall.'