Chapter 1

The apprehensional domain in A'ingae (Cofán)

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This paper provides the first detailed description of the apprehensional domain in A'ingae (Cofán, ISO 639-3: con), with the cross-linguistic category of *apprehension* defined as a mixed modality encoding both undesirability and epistemic possibility. We contribute to the study of apprehensional typology by reporting on a language of a so far unattested profile: one apprehensional morpheme =*sa'ne* 'APPR' spanning robust precautioning uses (both avertive and in-case), negative-verbal complementizer uses, restricted timitive uses, and marginal apprehensive uses. Lastly, we contribute to the study of apprehensional semantics by arguing that the particular functional range of the A'ingae apprehensional clitic =*sa'ne* 'APPR' is not entirely a question of diachronic development, but rather that much of its polyfunctionality emerges from a single meaning. We propose that the situation denoted by the =*sa'ne* 'APPR' clause is contained within a possible undesirable situation. If that containment is proper (i.e. the situation denoted by the =*sa'ne* 'APPR' clause is not identical to the negative situation), the in-case function obtains. If the containment is improper (i.e. the situation denoted by the =*sa'ne* 'APPR' clause is the undesirable situation), the avertive function obtains.

1 Introduction

In this paper, we contribute to the cross-linguistic understanding of the apprehensional domain through a detailed exploration of apprehensional forms in A'ingae (or Cofán, ISO 639-3: con), an isolate language of Amazonia, spoken by approximately 1,500 speakers in Northeastern Ecuador and Southern Colombia (Repetti-Ludlow et al. 2019).

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While the domain of *apprehension* is characterized by cross-linguistic variability in both form and function, its distinguishing characteristics are high probability combined with undesirability (Vuillermet 2018). Although the category has varied and robust manifestations across languages, it has been largely overlooked by descriptive grammarians, typologists, and formal analysts alike until quite recently (for extant descriptions, see Lichtenberk 1995; Green 1989; François 2003; Dobrushina 2006; Pakendorf & Schalley 2007; Angelo & Schultze-Berndt 2016; Vuillermet 2018).

In line with the nascent understanding of the apprehensional domain emergent from cross-linguistic research (Vuillermet 2017), we distinguish four different main uses of apprehensional morphology.

First, the *apprehensive proper*[1] encodes a highly probable undesirable situation and is typically associated with matrix-clausal uses. It is often employed to convey warnings. No English construction directly corresponds to it; it can be best rendered by *beware* (possibly in combination with *lest*), *watch out* (both encoding undesirability), *might* (encoding high likelihood), or negative imperative (encoding a warning).

Second, the *precautioning*—prototypically biclausal—function hypotactically relates an apprehension-causing event to a preemptive event aimed to counteract it. Previous literature has distinguished two subtypes of the precautioning function. Following Lichtenberk (1995), we will label them *avertive* and *in-case*. The avertive subfunction refers to uses where the preemptive situation is aimed at forestalling the apprehension-causing one, while the in-case subfunction applies to uses where the preemptive situation is aimed only at mitigating its negative consequences. In English, the negative purpose constructions *in order not to* or *so as not to* express only the avertive semantics, although the largely archaic *lest* can be used to express both the avertive and in-case subfunctions.

Third, the *timitive* introduces an NP in a manner similar to case or adpositions. The timitive relates a feared entity to the matrix-clausal situation; the latter is presented as having been triggered by the former. These uses are best translated by English constructions involving *for fear of*.

Fourth, apprehensionals in *complementizer* function head the complements of certain negative verbs, most often associated with the emotion of fear. Here again, English translations are not straightforward, as the complementizer of fear predicates is most often *that* or null, although *lest* can also be archaically used.

[1]Observe the distinction between *apprehensional*, which refers to the domain of functional morphemes encoding fear and related emotions, and *apprehensive (proper)*, which refers to just one among several *apprehensional* functions.

While some languages have distinct morphological manifestations for various of these different categories, others have morphemes that can be used across several of them. So is the case in A'ingae, whose only apprehensional morpheme *=sa'ne* 'APPR' is multifunctional. It is used most robustly as a head of subordinate clauses introducing apprehension-causing situations (precautioning function, (1), and to mark complements of certain verbs (complementizer function, (2). It also occurs in a somewhat restricted fashion as a timitive (3), and even more marginally as an apprehensive (4). For clarity, constituents headed by *=sa'ne* 'APPR' and some subordinate clauses in the examples given across the paper will be bracketed. We will refer to the clauses and NPs headed by *=sa'ne* 'APPR' as the *arguments* of *=sa'ne* 'APPR.'

(1) phuraen kan-ñakha [amphi ja=sane]
touch try-ITER fall go=APPR
'He felt it with his hand so as not to fall down.'
(20170803_dyandyaccu_LC: 40)

(2) tsama ña [dañu=sane=khe] dyuju-je=ya
but 1SG be hurt=APPR=MANN.DEM be afraid-IPFV=VER
'I was afraid I would get hurt.' (20170731_yaje2_MM: 53)

(3) anae'ma=ni=ngi phi [thesi=sa'ne]
hammock=LOC=1 sit jaguar=APPR
'I'm in a hammock for fear of a jaguar.'

(4) [tsai-ye=sa'ne]
bite-PASS=APPR
'You might get bitten.'

An immediate question that arises in such cases is that of the relationship between various apprehensional functions. Is it solely diachronic? Does it arise from a uniform semantics which is more general, or from a covert ambiguity or polyfunctionality? Do some functions—or aspects of their semantics—pattern together? For example, does the availability of in-case uses of one apprehensional morpheme entail anything about its reading in an apprehensive role? Furthermore, what is the relation of apprehension to other domains, such as purpose constructions (encoded by the infinitive in A'ingae), which also tend to have prospective or irrealis modalities and a variety of formally distinct adjunct and argument uses?

Beyond providing the first detailed description of the A'ingae *=sa'ne* 'APPR,' we add to the study of the apprehensional domain a language with a previously unreported typological profile: robust precautioning and fear complement

uses, restricted timitive uses, and marginal apprehensive uses. We argue that the apprehensive uses of *=sa'ne* 'APPR' are instances of partially conventionalized uses of subordinate clauses. They occupy, therefore, an intermediate stage in the diachronic trajectory of insubordination proposed by Evans (2007). Lastly, although a proper formal semantic analysis is beyond the scope of this paper, we gesture at common threads across the different functions of *=sa'ne* 'APPR' to point out how the semantic commonalities underlying all of them are responsible for the range of functions attested.

The road map for the remainder of the paper is as follows: §2 briefly presents background on A'ingae and the data used here; §3 examines the precautioning use of *=sa'ne* 'APPR' as a subordinator; §4 examines the use of *=sa'ne* 'APPR' as a complementizer of *dyuju* 'be afraid' and other negatively valenced predicates; §5 examines the timitive use; §6 examines the apprehensive use; §7 concludes.

2 Background

A'ingae (or Cofán, ISO 639-3: con) is an indigenous language spoken by around 1,500 people in the province of Sucumbíos in northeast Ecuador as well as southern Colombia (Repetti-Ludlow et al. 2019). Despite being an isolate, a number of aspects of its grammar, both phonologically and morphosyntactically, point to membership in the Amazonian sprachbund (Fischer & Hengeveld 2023; Repetti-Ludlow et al. 2019; AnderBois & Sanker 2019; AnderBois et al. 2019).

Outside of a few brief word lists, the first contributions to the systematic study of A'ingae were made by Marlytte Bub Borman and Roberta Bobbie Borman, missionary linguists first active in the Cofán communities in 1950s. Borman (1976) provides the first (and only) substantial dictionary; Borman & Criollo (1990)—a collection of cosmological narratives. Other notable works include a grammatical sketch by Fischer & Hengeveld (2023), a traditional story collection (Blaser & Umenda 2008), and the scholarly output of the A'ingae Language Documentation Project (which includes, but is not limited to, AnderBois & Silva 2018; Repetti-Ludlow et al. 2019; AnderBois & Sanker 2019; Pride et al. 2020; Dąbkowski 2019; 2021; 2023).

An orthography for the language was first developed by the Bormans, and recently revised by members of the Cofán communities themselves. The present chapter makes use of the revised orthography. For details, see Fischer & Hengeveld (2023) and Repetti-Ludlow et al. (2019).

While phonological and orthographic details are generally not relevant here, one slight exception is the presence of glottal stops. Glottal stops are frequently

contrastive (at least in some positions) and represented by apostrophes orthographically. Nevertheless, they are not transcribed consistently by native speakers. Furthermore, glottal stops influence the position of lexical stress, and lexical stress, conversely, influences the surfacing of glottal stops: in unstressed positions, glottal stops tend to be realized suprasegmentally or not realized at all. This interplay feeds back into the orthography, as apostrophes end up being used to cue lexical stress and, therefore, morphological boundaries (Dąbkowski 2023).

Across all of its uses, the apprehensional =*sa'ne* 'APPR'—like many other morphemes—shows variation between variants with the glottal stop: =*sa'ne* 'APPR,' and without it: =*sane* 'APPR.' Since this difference does not appear to be semantically important and the phonetic/phonological reality is somewhat unclear, we retain the forms of previously published works and native speaker transcriptions in naturalistic data. We transcribe the glottal stops in elicited data.[2]

The preponderance of our data comes from the fieldwork conducted by the authors. The naturalistic interviews and elicitation sessions which form the basis of our analyses come from our work with speakers representing three Ecuadorian communities: Zábalo, Sinangoé, and Dureno. If naturalistic, the citation accompanying the example contains the identifier (file name) and line number in the collection deposited as AnderBois & Silva (2018) with the Endangered Languages Archive at SOAS University of London. If elicited, no citation is given. A minority of the data sourced from written texts is cited as such, but updated to the revised orthography.

2.1 Typological profile

A'ingae is a head-final language, with predominantly SOV basic word order. In matrix clauses, word order is largely free, though with a preference for SOV and subject to a variety of pragmatic demands (Fischer & Hengeveld 2023). Subordinate clauses are strictly verb-final, a fact which we make use of below (see §2.3 for more detail).

The language's functional morphology is dominated by enclitics, with a lesser role of suffixation. The verbal paradigm is quite complex with many verbal and clausal morphemes typically present, significant ordering restrictions between

[2]Older sources (Borman & Criollo 1990; Borman 1990; Borman 1976; and collaborators) often show glottal stops in places where modern-day transcribers do not and for which phonetic support is not immediately clear. This is especially true in unstressed positions, and is suggestive of a phonological reduction process. These complexities, however, are not at all unique to =*sa'ne* 'APPR' and we refer the interested reader to Dąbkowski (2023) for more detailed discussion and analysis.

them, as well as morphophonological interactions with stress and glottalization. Verbal morphology is discussed more fully in §2.2.

The language is consistently dependent marking; verbal dependents are marked for case with nominative-accusative alignment for core arguments. The four cases most commonly used to introduce verbal arguments include the nominative (unmarked), the dative *=nga* 'DAT,' as well as two accusatives: *=ma* 'ACC,' marking the prototypical affected object, and *=ve* 'ACC2' (nasal allomorph *=me* 'ACC2'), marking the unaffected or absent object.

Case is expressed via clitics. The clitichood of A'ingae case markings is corroborated on prosodic grounds (they stand outside of the phonological noun, Dąbkowski 2019) and by their NP-final position, regardless of its internal order (Fischer & Hengeveld 2023), as seen in (5)–(6).

(5) rande tsa'u=ma athe
large house=ACC see
'I saw a large house.'

(6) tsa'u rande=ma athe
house large=ACC see
'I saw a large house.'

2.2 Verbal template

A'ingae has several dozen inflectional morphemes that can attach to verbs across a dozen or so slots.[3] A fragment of the verbal template is given in Table 1.[4] For the full template and its justification, see Dąbkowski (2019; 2021; 2023).[5] The template captures the ordering of inflectional morphemes as well as the co-occurrence restrictions that obtain among them. As such, it is a visual representation of a generative algorithm for A'ingae conjugation. To generate a legal verbal form, go from left to right picking at most one morpheme per column along the way. Do not cross the horizontal lines.

[3] All the morphemes discussed in this section have been classified by Fischer & Hengeveld (2023) as clitics. Since the co-occurrence of these morphemes is arbitrarily restricted (Zwicky & Pullum 1983), they do not change the syntactic category of their hosts, and some display morphophonological idiosyncrasies (Dąbkowski 2019), many of them should likely be reclassified as inflectional suffixes. Nevertheless, for consistency with previous work, we gloss them with equal signs and refer to them as clitics throughout. For an extensive discussion of A'ingae suffixhood and clitichood and a different glossing convention, see Dąbkowski (2019).

[4] Only those morphemes are listed which will be relevant to the discussion of the paradigmatic status of the apprehensional clitic *=sa'ne* 'APPR.' Valence, aspect, and associated motion suffixes, which all come before the plural subject *='fa* 'PLS' number clitic, are omitted. So are the second-position clitics (the polar interrogative *=ti* 'INT' clitic, the reportative evidential *=te* 'RPRT' clitic, as well as the person subject clitics), which all come after the information structure clitics.

[5] See Fischer & Hengeveld (2023) for an alternative template.

Table 1: Verbal inflectional template, a fragment.

...	NUM	MOD	POL	TAX	INFO-STRUCTURE			...
				='ya VER				
				=pa SS				
				=si	*='yi*	*='ta*	*='khe*	
		=ya	*=mbi*	DS	EXCL	NEW	ADD	
		IRR	NEG	*='ma* FRST				
				='ni LOC				
	='fa			*=sa'ne*		*='ja*		
	PLS			APPR		CNTR		
				=ye INF				
				=ja IMP				
				=kha IMP2				
				='se IMP3				
				=jama PROH				

The number NUM slot lists the only number clitic, the plural subject =*'fa* 'PLS.' The modality MOD slot lists one modal clitic, the irrealis =*ya* 'IRR,' although other clitics (e. g. the imperatives given in the taxis TAX slot) also arguably express modal semantics. The polarity POL slot lists one negative indicative =*mbi* 'NEG,' although negativity can also be expressed in the semantics of the frustrative =*'ma* 'FRST' and the prohibitive =*jama* 'PROH.'

The TAX slot lists all the clitics which appear in a clause-final position (except when followed by the information structure clitics or a few clitics not listed in Table 1), do not co-occur with other TAX clitics, and which establish its status as independent or dependent. Parts of the table which contain subordinating clitics are colored in grey.

Among subordinating clitics figure the same subject =*pa* 'SS,' which signals identity between subjects of two clauses, the different subject =*si* 'DS,' which signals non-identity between subjects of two clauses,[6] the frustrative =*'ma* 'FRST,' which signals a frustration of otherwise anticipated consequences of the encoded clause, the locative =*'ni* 'LOC,' the apprehensional =*sa'ne* 'APPR' (our focus here), as well as the infinitive =*ye* 'INF.'

Among matrix clausal clitics figure the three imperatives =*ja* 'IMP,' =*kha* 'IMP2,' and =*'se* 'IMP3,' the semantic differences among which are not well understood, the prohibitive =*jama* 'PROH,' expressing negative commands—or prohibitions, and the elusive veridical =*'ya* 'VER,' as epithetized by Fischer & Hengeveld (2023: 35), whose semantics is likewise unclear.

The INFO-STRUCTURE slot lists the exclusive focus =*'yi* 'EXCL,' new topic =*'ta* 'NEW,' contrastive topic =*'ja* 'CNTR,' and additive focus =*'khe* 'ADD' clitics. One of the uses of topic clitics is to mark conditional antecedents.

2.3 Subordination

A *subordinate* clause forms a part of another clause. The subordinate status of an A'ingae clause can be ascertained via a number of diagnostics. Below, we present three such diagnostics, one of which is semantic, and the other two—syntactic. Although the syntactic diagnostics are proposed in Fischer & van Lier (2011), apprehensional clauses are not explicitly discussed.

[6] The same and different subject clitics =*pa* 'SS' and =*si* 'DS' can be employed in subordinate as well as co-subordinate constructions. The distinction is immaterial for our purposes. For the definition and discussion of A'ingae subordination, see Fischer (2007).

First, a subordinate clause can be identified via scopal means. For example, the negation scoping over the infinitival clause in (7) testifies to its subordinate status. A paratactic analysis here would predict a clearly incorrect meaning.[7]

(7) in'jan=mbi=gi [panza=ye]
want=NEG=1 hunt=INF
subordinate analysis: 'I don't want to hunt.'
paratactic analysis: '#I don't want to. I'm off to hunt.'

Second, the subordinate status can be corroborated by restrictions on word order. While word order in matrix clauses is quite flexible, subordinate clauses are strictly verb-final (Fischer & Hengeveld 2023; Fischer & van Lier 2011), as in (8–9).

(8) [ûnjin tûi='ni=nda] avûja=ya
rain splash=LOC=NEW rejoice=IRR
'I will be happy if it rains.'

(9) * [tûi='ni=nda ûnjin] avûja=ya
splash=LOC=NEW rain rejoice=IRR
intended: 'I will be happy if it rains.'

Third, the subordinate status can be established by a restriction on the occurrence of sentence-level clitics. These include the reportative evidential *=te* 'RPRT' (nasal allomorph: *=nde*) and the polar interrogative *=ti* 'INT' (nasal allomorph: *=ndi*), as well as the optional first person *=ngi* '1,' second person *=ki* '2,' and third person *=tsû* '3' clitics, which encode, sometimes redundantly, the sentential subject. All of the sentence-level clitics occur close to the left edge of the clause, often right after the first clausal constituent. Thus, they are second-position clitics (although information structure-dependent permutations of word order may obscure their second-position nature). In (8), the subordinate clause as a whole is treated as the first constituent in a matrix clause, whereas attaching a clitic to the first constituent within the subordinate clause is ungrammatical (10).

(10) * [ûnjin {=ngi, =tsû} tûi='ni=nda] avûja=ya
rain {=1, =3} splash=LOC=NEW rejoice=IRR
intended: 'I will be happy if it rains.'

Subordinate clauses can have the function of verbal *arguments* or *adjuncts*. Just as infinitives in a language like English have both argument and adjunct

[7] The hypothetically available adjunct reading ('I don't want it in order to hunt') is impossible or very difficult to get here.

uses, we demonstrate below that A'ingae *=sa'ne* 'APPR' clauses do too. We therefore summarize these two classes of subordinate clauses in A'ingae, noting key similarities and differences.

2.3.1 Argument clauses

In A'ingae, various types of subordinate clauses can serve as verbal arguments. All subordinate clauses carry enclitics on their main verbs which, due to the rigidly verb-final word order of subordinate clauses, are at the same time clause-final. The argument clause can appear to the left or right of the matrix clause.

One general strategy for sentential subordination involves the nominalizing subordinator *='chu* 'SBRD.' Since *='chu* 'SBRD' creates formal nominalizations, *='chu* 'SBRD' clauses can appear in all the same environments as NPs. Other sentential complementizers include the infinitival *=ye* 'INF,' the manner deictic *=khen* 'MANN.DEM,' the adverbial *=e* 'ADV,' attributive *='sû* 'ATTR,' and apprehensional *=sa'ne* 'APPR.'

The category of verbs selecting for infinitival *=ye* 'INF' clauses includes, among others, attitude verbs such as *in'jan* 'want' (11) or *chi'ga* 'not want' (12) and aspectual verbs such as *tsun* 'do' (13), prospective semantics) or *atesû* 'know' (14), habitual or acquired ability semantics, Fischer & Hengeveld 2023).

(11) in'jan=gi [panza=ye]
want=1 hunt=INF
'I want to hunt.'

(12) chi'ga=fa [thûthû=ye]
not want=PLS fell=INF
'They did not want to chop down the trees.'
(20170731_building_house_sapohe_mmemq_jc_: 15)

(13) [ya jañu=ngi asha-en=ñe] tsun-jen=fa
already now=1 beginning-CAUS=INF do-IPFV=PLS
'Now we're going to start.' (20170801_autobiography_CLC: 1)

(14) [tsa=ma tshe'tshe=pa] yaya'khashe'ye=ye [ujun=ñe] atesû
ANA=ACC mash=SS grandfather=HONR bathe=INF know
'My grandfather, having mashed it, would use it to bathe.'
(20170807_autobiography_JWC: 72)

Verba dicendi, *in'jan* 'think' (polysemous with 'want'), *tsun* 'do' and *iyikhu* 'fight' select for manner deictic *=khen* 'MANN.DEM' clauses. With verba dicendi

and *in'jan* construed cognitively (i. e. to mean 'think'), the reading is that of speech or thought report. With *tsun* 'do' and *iyikhu* 'fight,' the reading is that of desire or intention. The verb *da* 'become' selects for accusative 2 nominalized clauses *='chuve* 'SBRD.ACC2' or adverbial *=e* 'ADV' clauses. Motion verbs can select for attributive *='sû* 'ATTR' clauses to express the purpose of the motion.

Finally, verbs such as *dyu* 'be scared,' *dyuju* 'be afraid,'[8] *anse'nge* 'be ashamed,' *se'pi* 'prohibit,' and *chi'ga* 'not want,' select for *=sa'ne* 'APPR.' The complementizer function of *=sa'ne* 'APPR' is discussed more fully in §4, especially since it is not immediately clear that these are complements as opposed to adjuncts with precautioning *=sa'ne* 'APPR' (15).

(15) dyuju=ngi [thesi ña=ma mandian=sa'ne]
be afraid=1 jaguar 1=ACC chase=APPR
argument paraphrase: 'I am afraid that the jaguar would chase me.'
adjunct paraphrase: '#I would be afraid in case a jaguar would chase me.'

2.3.2 Adjunct clauses

There are many available strategies in the language for adjunction. As adjunct clauses are not selected for by the matrix verb, but rather modify the predicate or the clause, there are no particular restrictions on which types of adjunct clauses can go together with which verbs. Like argument clauses, adjunct clauses carry enclitics and can appear on either side of the matrix clause.

Common strategies for adjunction include the nominalizing *='chu* 'SBRD' with oblique case marking, the adverbializing clitic *=e* 'ADV' for circumstance clauses, the locative clitic *='ni* 'LOC'[9] to signal a temporal relation between two clauses, the infinitive clitic *=ye* 'INF' to express positive purpose semantics, the new *='ta* 'NEW' and contrastive *='ja* 'CNTR' topic clitics to signal a conditional relation between two clauses, as well as the apprehensional clitic *=sa'ne* 'APPR' for undesirable outcome clauses in precautioning sentences (16). The precautioning function of *=sa'ne* 'APPR' is discussed more fully in §3.

[8] Given the semantic relatedness and formal similarity, the verb *dyuju* 'be afraid' is presumably morphologically related to *dyu* 'be scared.' However, the semantic contribution of the unproductive formant *-ju* is not clear, as no other instances of it have been identified.

[9] The locative 'LOC' can express location in time or space, hence the gloss.

(16) pa'khu a'ta ja-je=ya tsa undikhûje=ma khani=nde
every day go-IPFV=VER ANA robe=ACC elsewhere=RPRT
tsa'u-ña=mba ambian=ña [tise khashe athe=pa ja=sane]
house-CAUS=SS have=VER 3SG old woman see=SS go=APPR
'Every day he would go to see the clothes because he had them in another house far away so that his wife does not see them.'
(20170730_kunsiana_cuento_VC2: 77-79)

3 Precautioning function

Having reviewed the landscape of other subordinate clauses in A'ingae, we turn now to our main focus, the apprehensional *=sa'ne* 'APPR'. One typologically common apprehensional function is what Lichtenberk (1995) has dubbed *precautioning*. The precautioning function involves two clauses: one *apprehension-causing* clause, which expresses a negative potential situation, and one *preemptive* clause, which expresses the precaution taken to either avert the apprehension-causing situation expressed in the other clause or else to be prepared for it, in case it should occur. Lichtenberk (1995) has labeled these two cross-linguistically attested subfunctions of precautioning morphemes the *avertive* and the *in-case* function, respectively. In English, the former may be expressed with the somewhat archaic conjunction *lest* or a negative purpose clause (17).[10] The latter can be expressed with *lest*, but not a negative purpose clause (18).

(17) I took a rifle {lest a jaguar kill me, so that a jaguar does not kill me}.

(18) I took a rifle {lest I see a jaguar, #so that I do not see a jaguar.}

The precautioning use of the apprehensional clitic *=sa'ne* 'APPR' is its most common one. In (19), *=sa'ne* 'APPR' has the avertive subfunction; we will illustrate in-cases of *=sa'ne* 'APPR' below.

(19) tse=fan khi⟨'⟩tsha=jama [khitsha thûña=sane]
ANA=PEJ.ACC pull⟨PLV⟩=PROH pull break=APPR
'Don't pull it so that you don't break it!'
(20170801_river_contamination_ARLQ: 8)

[10] The semantics literature on English dating back to Faraci (1974) typically reserves the term *purpose clause* for a very specific subtype of such clauses, ones where the clause specifically encodes the purpose of the direct object. Here, we broaden the usage in accord with its less technical sense.

In principle, the syntactic relation between the apprehension-causing and the preemptive clause could be that of parataxis, coordination, or subordination. In A'ingae, the apprehension-causing *=sa'ne* 'APPR' clauses are subordinate to the preemptive clauses, as we demonstrate below. They are adjuncts, their presence is optional—they are not selected by particular verbs and have a similar distribution to other adjuncts, as shown in §2.3.2.

3.1 Syntactic and semantic status

The apprehensional clitic *=sa'ne* 'APPR' scopes over a full clause, whose subject as well as object can be overt. Whereas some subordinators in A'ingae encode switch reference, the subject of the apprehension-causing *=sa'ne* 'APPR' clause can be the same (20) or different (21) from that of the preemptive clause.

(20) sema-'je=ngi [khiphue'sû=sa'ne]
work-IPFV=1 starve=APPR
'I am working lest I starve.'

(21) sema-'je=ngi [dû'shû=ndekhû khiphue'sû=sa'ne]
work-IPFV=1 child=PLH starve=APPR
'I am working lest my children starve.'

The apprehension-causing *=sa'ne* 'APPR' clauses are subordinate. This can be demonstrated via the diagnostics introduced in §2.3.

First, we consider the interaction between *=sa'ne* 'APPR' and scope-taking operators such as negation. A paratactic analysis of the apprehension-causing *=sa'ne* 'APPR' clauses more or less approximates the apparent meaning when no such operator is present (22). However, once we add in negation to the preemptive clause, we see that the paraphrase the paratactic analysis would provide is no longer even approximately right (23)—the constituent in scope of negation is the preemptive clause as modified by the *=sa'ne* 'APPR' clause.

(22) tise=ta=tsû tsakhû=ma guathian-'jen [iyufa jin=sa'ne]
3SG=NEW=3 water=ACC boil-IPFV worm be=APPR
subordinate analysis: 'He is boiling water lest there be germs.'
paratactic analysis: 'He is boiling water. There might be germs.'

(23) tise=ta=tsû tsakhû=ma guathian-'jen=mbi [iyufa jin=sa'ne]
3SG=NEW=3 water=ACC boil-IPFV=NEG worm be=APPR
subordinate analysis: 'He is not boiling water lest there be germs. (He is boiling it for chicha.)'
paratactic analysis: '#He is not boiling water. There might be germs.'

Second, the subordinate status of the undesirable outcome *=sa'ne* 'APPR' clauses is corroborated by strict-verb finality (24)–(25).

(24) [ña dû'shû=ndekhû khiphue'sû=sa'ne] sema-'jen
1SG child=PLH starve=APPR work-IPFV
'I am working lest my children starve.'

(25) * [khiphue'sû=sa'ne ña dû'shû=ndekhû] sema-'jen
starve=APPR 1SG child=PLH work-IPFV
intended: 'I am working lest my children starve.'

Third, we find that second-position subject clitics in the apprehension-causing clause are ungrammatical (26). In sum, precautioning *=sa'ne* 'APPR' clauses display all of the major syntactic and semantic properties associated with A'ingae subordinate clauses more generally.

(26) * [ña dû'shû=ndekhû {=ngi, =tsû} khiphue'sû=sa'ne] sema-'jen
1SG child=PLH {=1, =3} starve=APPR work-IPFV
intended: 'I am working lest my children starve.'

In addition, the apprehensional clitic *=sa'ne* 'APPR' is paradigmatically related to and in complementary distribution with other subordinating enclitics in the language (same subject *=pa* 'SS,' different subject *=si* 'DS,' frustrative *='ma* 'FRST,' and locative *='ni* 'LOC') in that it combines with subject number NUM, modal MOD,[11] and polarity POL clitics to its left; and topic TOP and focus FOC clitics to its right, as shown in Table 1.

The apprehensional clitic *=sa'ne* 'APPR' differs from the infinitive clitic *=ye* 'INF,' which does not combine with modal MOD and polarity POL clitics. The infinitive clitic *=ye* 'INF' creates purpose clauses (27), subject argument clauses, or object argument clauses when selected for by matrix verbs.

(27) yaje=ma kû'i=pa [tse='an fi'thi=ye]
ayahuasca=ACC drink=SS ANA=PEJ.ACC kill=INF
'They drank ayahuasca to kill it.' (20170807_tshararukuku_RJCL: 39)

[11]The semantic effect of coupling the apprehensional *=sa'ne* 'APPR' with the irrealis *=ya* 'IRR' is not clear (i). If any, the difference is likely very subtle.

(i) *in'jan=ngi panza(=ya)=sa'ne*
think=1 hunt(=IRR)=APPR
'I'm thinking (what to do) so that he doesn't kill it.'

Finally, the apprehensional clitic *=sa'ne* 'APPR' also stands apart from matrix clausal clitics, i. e. the veridical *='ya* 'VER' and the four directive clitics, which include the three poorly understood imperative clitics *ja* '=IMP,' *=kha* 'IMP2,' and *='se* 'IMP3,' and the prohibitive *=jama* 'PROH.' The matrix-clausal clitics do not combine with the topic TOP and focus FOC clitics.

In terms of linear order, the apprehension-causing *=sa'ne* 'APPR' clauses can appear before or after preemptive clauses (28)–(29).

(28) [ña chan=ma iyikha'ye=sa'ne]=ngi shu'khaen
1SG mother=ACC annoy=APPR=1 cook
'I cooked so that my mother does not get mad.'

(29) ka'shi=ngi apishu'thu=ma [chan ña=ma iyû'û=sa'ne]
wash=1 dish=ACC mother 1SG=ACC scold=APPR
'I washed the dishes so that my mother does not scold me.'

The content of the apprehension-causing *=sa'ne* 'APPR' clauses contributes to the sentence's 'main point,' i. e. is 'at-issue' content in the sense of Simons et al. (2010) and related work. This is demonstrated by showing that it can be directly dissented to (30). The embeddability of *=sa'ne* 'APPR' clauses further supports their at-issueness. The at-issueness was illustrated with negation above (23). In (31), it is illustrated with the antecedent of a conditional clause (cf. Tonhauser 2012).

(30) A: tise=ta=tsû tsa'khû=ma guathian-'jen [iyufa jin=sa'ne]
3SG=NEW=3 water=ACC boil-IPFV worm be=APPR
'He is boiling water in case there are germs.'
B: me'in guathian-'jen=tsû [kûnapecha=ma mandyi=ye]
no boil-IPFV=3 chicha=ACC squeeze=INF
'No, he's boiling it for chicha.'

(31) [[iyufa jin=sa'ne] tayu tsa'khû=ma gua'thian='chu=ni] khase
worm be=APPR already water=ACC boil=SBRD=LOC again
gua'thian=ñe injienge=mbi
boil=INF be important=NEG
'If the water has already been boiled in case there are germs, there is no reason to boil it again.'

Lastly, the undesirability of the apprehension-causing *=sa'ne* 'APPR' clauses is uniformly subject-oriented. In (32), the judges of undesirability are the invadees (the subject), not the invaders (the speaker). In (33), rain is undesirable to the elder (the subject), not the speaker, who overtly expresses his contrary preference.

(32) tise'pa putaen'gu=ma am'bian='fa [ingi ja='fa=sa'ne]
they rifle=ACC have=PLS we go=PLS=APPR
'They got their shotguns ready in case we come.'

(33) ûn'jin tûi=ye=ngi in'jan tsa'ma kuenza yaje=ma kûi [ûn'jin
rain splash=INF=1 want but elder ayahuasca=ACC drink rain
tûi=sa'ne]
splash=APPR
'I want it to rain, but the elder drank yaje so that it does not rain.'

3.2 Avertive and in-case subfunctions

The apprehensional clitic *=sa'ne* 'APPR' used in a precautioning fashion displays the two typologically attested subfunctions: *avertive*, with the preemptive clause expressing an action undertaken to avoid the event expressed in the apprehension-causing clause, and *in-case*, with the preemptive clause expressing an action undertaken to avoid the undesirable consequences of the event expressed in the apprehension-causing clause. Both readings are available with agentive verbs (34)–(35), non-agentive verbs (36)–(37), as well as weather verbs (38)–(39).

(34) ka'shi=ngi apishu'thu=ma [chan ña=ma iyû'û=sa'ne]
wash=1 dishes=ACC mother 1SG=ACC scold=APPR
'I washed the dishes so that my mother does not scold me.'

(35) putaen'gu=ma am'bian [tetete=ndekhû ji='fa=sa'ne]
rifle=ACC have Tetete=PLH come=PLS=APPR
'I got my rifle ready in case the Tetetes come.'

(36) upûi=ngi [cha'ndi'sû=sa'ne]
cover up=1 be cold=APPR
'I covered myself so that I don't get cold.'

(37) vasûi=ngi tsûi [iyu khûi=sa'ne]
slowly=1 walk snake lie=APPR
'I walked slowly in case snakes be there.'

(38) kuenza=ja yaje=ma kû'i [ûnjin tûi=sa'ne]
old=CNTR ayahuasca=ACC drink rain splash=APPR
'The elder drank ayahuasca for rain not to come.'[12]

[12]Felicitous weather-averting scenarios often implicate shamanic training.

(39) chaketa=ma=ngi undikhû [ûnjin tûi=sa'ne]
jacket=ACC=1 don rain splash=APPR
'I put on a jacket in case it rains.'

Undesirability associated with the precautioning *=sa'ne* 'APPR' clauses is conventional (semantic). The avertive *=sa'ne* 'APPR' clauses might contain predicates of negative (40), neutral (41), or positive (42) emotional connotation, though the subject of the matrix clause is always presented by the speaker as being the judge of the undesirability of the prospective situation expressed by the avertive *=sa'ne* 'APPR' clause (or the larger situation containing it in the in-case use). This distinguishes the in-case precautioning uses from the ostensibly similar English *in case* construction, which need not have any undesirability associated with it.[13]

(40) [ña chan=ma iyikha'ye=sa'ne]=ngi shu'khaen
1SG mother=ACC annoy=APPR=1 cook
'I cooked so that my mother does not get mad.'

(41) jûnde ja [tise faengae ji=sa'ne]
soon go 3SG together come=APPR
'I hurried up to leave so that he doesn't come with us.'

(42) pûshesû tsû tsandie aya'fa=ma phikhu [feña=sa'ne]
woman 3 man mouth=ACC cover laugh=APPR
'She covered his mouth so that he does not laugh.'

Likewise, the in-case *=sa'ne* 'APPR' clauses may appear with verbs of negative (43), neutral (44), or positive (45)–(46) emotional connotation. When the situation referred to by the *=sa'ne* 'APPR' clause is unambiguously positive, only in-case readings are pragmatically available, i. e. ones in which a larger potential situation including that described is deemed undesirable. For example, my fa-

[13] The apparent similarity between the in-case function of the A'ingae *=sa'ne* 'APPR' and the English *in case* is equivocal. On one hand, English *in case* constructions need not involve undesirability (ii), which would mean that their semantics extends beyond apprehension. On the other hand, as observed by Eva Schultze-Berndt, they admit avertive semantics in some (though not all) dialects (iii), which might testify to a permeability between the avertive and in-case functions.

(ii) I will be happy in case I win the lottery.

(iii) I put the mug out of reach in case I knock it over.

We remain agnostic about the status of English *in case* pending further evidence.

ther bringing home the tapir and there being no hot water in (45) or my friends coming and the house being dirty in (46).[14]

(43) seje'pa=ma=ngi tsun-'jen [ña dû'shû iyu=nga tsei-ye=sa'ne]
medicine=ACC=1 do-IPFV 1SG child snake=DAT bite-PASS=APPR
'I'm preparing medicine in case my son gets bitten by a snake.'

(44) jayi=mbi=ngi fiesta=nga [tsetse'pa jin=sa'ne]
go.PRSP=NEG=1 party=DAT alcohol be=APPR
'I'm not going to the party in case there is alcohol.'

(45) tsa'khû=ma=ngi guathian-'jen [ña yaya khuvi=ma i=sa'ne]
water=ACC=1 boil-IPFV 1SG father tapir=ACC bring=APPR
'I am boiling water in case my father brings a tapir.'

(46) tsa'u=ma=ngi giyaen-'jen [faengasû=ndekhû ji='fa=sa'ne]
house=ACC=1 clean-IPFV friend=PLH come=PLS=APPR
'I am cleaning my house in case my friends come.'

3.3 Precautioning and negative purpose clauses

We define *purpose clauses* as adjuncts which express the purpose of the action given by the matrix clause. In doing so, we deviate from the definition used in some previous literature (see Footnote 10). English has several constructions capable of expressing purpose semantics (47).

(47) I took a rifle {to, in order to, so as to} hunt a jaguar.

In A'ingae, positive purpose clauses are most typically introduced with the infinitive clitic *=ye* 'INF' (48).

(48) ciendo dolar=khû=ki ja=ya Lago=ni [chava=ye]
hundred dollar=INST=2 go=IRR Lago Agrio=LOC buy=INF
'You're going to Lago Agrio with $100 to buy something.'
(20170801_escuela_CLC: 194)

[14] In many cases, this larger situation can be trivially thought of as a union of the *=sa'ne* 'APPR' clause and the negation of the matrix clause. Nevertheless, hardwiring that into the semantics of *=sa'ne* 'APPR' clauses would miss the intuition that there are many things the agent can do to avoid the undesirable outcome. In other words, the undesirable situation in (45) is not that of one's father bringing home a tapir and water not having been boiled, but rather that of having to deal with a decaying tapir. The latter, in turn, can be addressed via a multiplicity of means, e.g. by boiling water, making fire, sharpening knives, etc.

The subjects of the matrix and subordinate purpose clauses may or may not be the same (49)–(50); if no subject is overtly given in the purpose clause, it is interpreted as co-referential with the subject of the matrix clause (49).

(49) sema-'je=ngi [(ña) ankhe'sû=ma a'mbian=ñe]
work-IPFV=1 1SG food=ACC have=INF
'I am working to have food.'

(50) sema-'je=ngi [dû'shû ankhe'sû=ma a'mbian=ñe]
work-IPFV=1 children food=ACC have=INF
'I am working so that my child can have food.'

There is, to a large extent, semantic parallelism between *=ye* 'INF' and *=sa'ne* 'APPR:' the infinitival *=ye* 'INF' purpose clauses are the positive counterpart to the avertive *=sa'ne* 'APPR' clauses; the purpose *=ye* 'INF' clauses express a desirable outcome which is intended to be brought about by the matrix clause, whereas the avertive *=sa'ne* 'APPR' clauses express the apprehension-causing situation that is supposed to be forestalled by the matrix clause.

This parallelism may be the reason why Fischer & Hengeveld (2023) gloss *=sa'ne* as a negative purpose clause clitic 'NEG.PURP.' Yet, although one function of the clitic *=sa'ne* 'APPR' is to head negative purpose clauses, this does not capture its versatility, as it can also head precautioning in-case clauses, complements of certain verbs (§4), and timitive adjuncts (§5). A better candidate for a properly negative purpose operator is the complex *=mbe kañe* 'NEG.ADV AUX.INF' with exclusively avertive semantics.

The complex operator *=mbe kañe* 'NEG.ADV AUX.INF' provides a periphrastic means by which to express a combination that violates the syntactic restrictions on clitic co-occurrence discussed above. As shown in Table 1, the infinitive clitic *=ye* 'INF' does not combine with the negative polarity clitic *=mbi* 'NEG' (51).

(51) * sema-'je=ngi [vana=mbi=ye]
work-IPFV=1 suffer=NEG=INF
intended: 'I'm working to not be in trouble.'

The dummy auxiliary verb *kan* 'AUX' originates as a lexical verb *kan* 'watch' (52) and simultaneously functions as a productive modal auxiliary of tentative (i. e. 'try') semantics (53). Nevertheless, its use in the complex construction *=mbe kañe* 'NEG.ADV AUX.INF' is distinct from the other two, as evidenced by the fact that encoding an infinitival negative tentative (i. e. 'not to try') requires employing both the tentative *kan* 'try' and the auxiliary *kan* 'AUX' (54).

(52) ke=ma kan=ña=mbi
2SG=ACC look=IRR=NEG
'He is not going to look for you.' (20170731_attembi_a'i: 18)

(53) me'in ña an kan=mbi=ngi ña
no 1SG eat try=NEG=1 1SG
'No, I have not tried it.' (20170801_fishing_CLC: 22)

(54) in'jan=ngi panza kan=mb=e kan=ñe
want=1 hunt try=NEG=ADV AUX=INF
'I want not to try to hunt.'

In forming *=mbe kañe* 'NEG.ADV AUX.INF,' *=mbi* 'NEG' is first combined with *=e* 'ADV' to yield the negative adverbial clitic *=mbe* 'NEG.ADV.' Aside from the periphrastic negative purpose clauses to be discussed, *=mbe* 'NEG.ADV' is used to form negative circumstance clauses, as shown in (55).

(55) tsa'kan=nda [u⟨'⟩ya=mb=e] dyai=ye
thus=NEW move⟨PLV⟩=NEG=ADV sit=INF
'Then I will sit still.'
(Fischer & Hengeveld 2023; 20170801_cuiccu_chicha_ARLQ: 206)

Second, the auxiliary *kan* 'AUX' combines with the negative adverbial clause. The dummy verb is there to carry the infinitive clitic *=ye* 'INF,' which conveys the purpose semantics.

The complex operator *=mbe kañe* '=NEG.ADV AUX.INF' is used to create negative purpose clauses proper. Negative purpose *=mbe kañe* '=NEG.ADV AUX.INF' clauses have the same interpretation as the avertive *=sa'ne* 'APPR' clauses. This is to say, in (56), the meaning is the same regardless of whether *ansa'ne* or *ambe kañe* is used. The uses of the operator *=mbe kañe* 'NEG.ADV AUX.INF' are limited to the avertive.

(56) putaen'gu=ma=ngi am'bian [thesi ña=ma {an=sa'ne, an=mb=e
rifle=ACC=1 have jaguar 1=ACC {eat=APPR, eat=NEG=ADV
kan=ñe}]
AUX=INF}
'I have a rifle so that a jaguar does not eat me.'

Negative purpose *=mbe kañe* '=NEG.ADV AUX.INF' clauses and precautioning *=sane* 'APPR' clauses diverge in contexts where *=sa'ne* 'APPR' clauses receive in-case readings. Compare (45)–(46) with the pragmatically aberrant (57)–(58), whose infelicity is readily signalled by native speakers.

(57) # tsa'khû=ma=ngi guathian-'jen [ña yaya khuvi=ma i=mb=e
water=ACC=1 boil-IPFV 1SG father tapir=ACC bring=NEG=ADV
kan=ñe]
AUX=INF
'#I am boiling water so that my father does not bring a tapir.'

(58) # tsa'u=ma=ngi giyaen-'jen [faengasû=ndekhû ji='fa=mb=e kan=ñe]
house=ACC=1 clean-IPFV friend=PLH come=PLS=NEG=ADV AUX=INF
'#I am cleaning my house so that my friends do not come.'

3.4 Relating the subfunctions

With two precautioning strategies, one capable of expressing both precautioning subfunctions (*=sa'ne* 'APPR'), the other restricted to the avertive subfunction (*=mbe kañe* 'NEG.ADV AUX.INF'), A'ingae parallels To'aba'ita exactly (Lichtenberk 1995). To'aba'ita's first strategy involves the apprehensional conjunction *ada* 'APPR,' analogous to *=sa'ne* 'APPR' (59). Its second strategy involves the purpose clause conjunction *fasi* 'PURP,' which in combination with a grammatically negative clause yields negative purpose semantics (60).

(59) To'aba'ita (Austronesian; Lichtenberk 1995: 12, glossing simplified)
nau ku agwa 'i buira fau ada [wane 'eri ka riki nau]
I hid at behind rock APPR man that he see me
'I hid behind a rock so that the man might not see me.'

(60) To'aba'ita (Austronesian; Lichtenberk 1995: 17, glossing simplified)
ngali-a kaleko 'aa'ako [fasi 'osi gwagwari 'afa rodo]
take-them clothes warm PURP you.NEG be cold at night
'Take warm clothes so that you are not cold at night.'

Discussing the two precautioning strategies in To'aba'ita, Lichtenberk 1995 raises the question of how the avertive and in-case subfunctions are related. Having considered ambiguity and polysemy, he concludes that they are polysemous ("semantically rather than pragmatically ambiguous," p. 302), thus granting the two uses equal status. His three main arguments are:

> (a) that an element used to encode negative purpose need not have an in-case function; (b) that there is a formal difference between negative-purpose and in-case clauses in at least one language; and (c) that there are differences in paraphrase possibilities between negative-purpose and in-case clauses—serve as evidence that the avertive and the in-case functions are conceptually distinct from each other. (Lichtenberk 1995: 302)

The idea that avertive and in-case clauses have equal status, with morphemes like A'ingae *=sa'ne* 'APPR' and To'aba'ita *ada* 'APPR' simply being ambiguous between the two, cannot be rejected without a more thorough typology. There are, however, reasons for skepticism. First, we can note that the one language with a formal difference between negative-purpose and in-case clauses Lichtenberk (1995) references is Martuthunira, where both avertive and in-case uses deploy the same apprehensional morpheme, *-wirri* 'APPR,' and differ only in that the avertive use combines with an accusative *-i* 'ACC' case marker, whereas the in-case use combines with a locative *-la* 'LOC' case marker or no case marker at all (Dench 1988). Without a more detailed understanding of case marking in Martuthunira, then, it is not clear how precisely to interpret this data.

More generally, there appears to be an asymmetry in the attested precautioning morphemes. While we find a number of elements like A'ingae *=sa'ne* 'APPR' and To'aba'ita *ada* 'APPR,' which have both uses, as well as elements like A'ingae *=mbe kañe* 'NEG.ADV AUX.INF' and To'aba'ita *fasi* 'PURP,' which only have avertive uses, we are not aware of precautioning morphemes which only have the in-case use, but cannot be used in avertive cases as well.[15]

In contrast to Lichtenberk (1995) and what seems to have been at least implicitly assumed in subsequent literature, we have at times above discussed the two uses in a somewhat different, asymmetrical way which we make explicit here. In our analysis, the situation denoted by the *=sa'ne* 'APPR' clause is contained within a possible undesirable situation which is contextually salient or otherwise recoverable. If the containment is proper (i. e. the undesirable situation contains, but is not identical to *=sa'ne* 'APPR's' argument), the in-case function obtains. For example, this is the case in (35), where the arrival of the Teteté is contained within a larger undesirable situation (the Teteté coming and killing the subject). If the containment is improper (i. e. the undesirable situation is identical to *=sa'ne* 'APPR's' argument), the avertive function obtains. This is, for example, the case

[15] Another component distinguishing between the avertive and in-case functions proposed in the previous literature, as Eva Schultze-Berndt (p.c.) observes, is that of control of the main clause subject over avoiding the event encoded by the precautioning clause. In the avertive uses, the subject has control over the precautioning clause, while in the in-case uses, the subject need not have control over the precautioning clause. Observe that this is not the case in A'ingae, as in-case precautioning readings are available even when the subject has full control over whether the events in the *=sa'ne* 'APPR' clause take place (iv).

(iv) *tise tsû am'bian putaen'gu=ma* [*tsampi=ni ja=sa'ne*]
(s)he 3 have rifle=ACC forest=LOC go=APPR
'He$_x$ got his shotgun in case he$_x$ goes hunting.'

in (34), where the undesirable situation of being scolded by one's mother is encoded in the *=sa'ne* 'APPR' clause. In short, elements like A'ingae *=sa'ne* 'APPR' require a salient undesirable situation containing the one they introduce, whereas elements like A'ingae *=mbe kañe* 'NEG.ADV AUX.INF' require the situation they introduce itself to be undesirable.

Since the situation explicitly stated in the *=sa'ne* 'APPR' clause is necessarily salient, this approach therefore captures the apparent typological asymmetry between the avertive and in-case uses. Moreover, it illuminates why the two subfunctions are expressed in the same way in so many languages in a way that the 'ambiguity' account does not. Finally, as we will argue in §5, the same mechanism that allows for the in-case uses also explains the semantics of the timitive.

4 Complementizer function

It has been observed in previous descriptive work that the morphemes which serve apprehensional functions might also act as complementizers with verbs of fearing (Lichtenberk 1995; Dobrushina 2017; Wiemer 2018). We refer to this as the *complementizer* function. In English, for example, *lest* can be a somewhat archaic complementizer of the predicate *fear* (61).

(61) I fear lest a jaguar eat me.

In To'aba'ita, complements of fear predicates are introduced by the apprehensional morpheme *ada* 'APPR' discussed above (62).

(62) To'aba'ita (Austronesian; Lichtenberk 1995: 8, glossing simplified)
nau ku ma'u 'asia na'a [ada laalae to'a baa ki keka lae mai
I be afraid very APPR later people that they go hither
keka thaungi kulu]
they kill us
'I am scared the people might come and kill us.'

In A'ingae, the apprehensional clitic *=sa'ne* 'APPR' can introduce complements of fear predicates as well (63).

(63) tsama ña [dañu=sane=khe] dyuju-je=ya
but 1SG be hurt=APPR=MANN.DEM be afraid-IPFV=VER
'But I didn't want to get hurt.' (20170731_yaje2_MM: 53)
literally: 'But I was afraid to get hurt.'

Nevertheless, the formal status of the so-called fear complementizer uses is often far from obvious and its analysis is fraught with difficulties. The complement status of the apprehensional clauses when used with fear predicates is difficult to discern since they can also be interpreted as in-case precautioning uses (64). The extant literature rarely provides explicit arguments for the genuine complement status of such uses.

(64) I fear it might rain. ≈ I (would) fear (it) in case it rained.

On the other hand, other researchers report apprehensional morphemes acting as complementizers of a wider range of predicates (Yallop 1997; François 2003). A'ingae fits in the latter category: the apprehensional *=sa'ne* 'APPR' clauses can function as complements and their distribution is not limited to fear predicates. Since there are strong parallelisms between the apprehensional and the infinitival constructions, this finding is not implausible. Like the apprehensional *=sa'ne* 'APPR' clauses, the infinitival *=ye* 'INF' clauses have both complement uses and purpose-like adjunct uses cross-linguistically, including in A'ingae. Furthermore, both clause types can be arguments of the switch-reference subordinating conjunction *kûintsû* 'SRCN,' possibly to the exclusion of all other clausal types.

We analyze fear complementizer uses as involving genuine complementation and argue against the other *a priori* available alternatives: the adjunct and paratactic analyses. While we argue that *=sa'ne* 'APPR' has uses as a complementizer, there are also many cases which have the superficial appearance of complements, but whose interactions with operators such as negation do not support this conclusion. Moreover, the two categories can be distinguished on semantic grounds: *=sa'ne* 'APPR' functions as a complementizer to verbs which have the component of undesirability and as an adjunct to verbs which do not.

To see how the alternative analyses yield incorrect meanings, first consider the case of negated fear predicates. Although all three paraphrases (complement, adjunct, and paratactic) are sensible semantic approximations when the polarity of the matrix clause is positive (65), the adjunct and paratactic paraphrases fail to properly reflect the meaning of A'ingae sentences when negated (66).

(65) anse'nge=ngi [ña=ma feña=sa'ne]
be ashamed=1 1SG=ACC laugh=APPR

complement paraphrase: 'I am afraid that he might laugh at me.'[16]
adjunct paraphrase: 'I am afraid in case he laughs at me.'
paratactic paraphrase: 'I am afraid. He might laugh at me.'

[16]The semantics of the A'ingae *anse'nge* 'be ashamed,' 'be afraid' differs from the English *be ashamed* in that the English predicate takes a past or present situation but not a potential future

(66) anse'nge=mbi=ngi [ña=ma feña=sa'ne]
be ashamed=NEG=1 1SG=ACC laugh=APPR
complement paraphrase: 'I am not afraid that he might laugh at me.'
adjunct paraphrase: '#I am not afraid in case he laughs at me.'
paratactic paraphrase: '#I am not afraid. He might laugh at me.'

The paratactic paraphrase of (66) asserts that the speaker is not afraid[17] and that someone might laugh at them. In this paraphrase, the negation of the first clause fails to scope over the second clause, yielding incorrect semantics.

The adjunct paraphrase of (66) asserts that the speaker is not afraid with the prospect of someone else laughing at them. Importantly, it does not assert that it is being laughed at specifically that the speaker fears, failing to adequately capture the meaning of the sentence. Further evidence against the adjunct paraphrase will be provided below with *se'pi* 'prohibit' and *chi'ga* 'not want.' These verbs do not have sensible intransitive paraphrases (one can simply be afraid but not prohibiting or not wanting), which supports the assumption about the truth conditions here.

As complements, the apprehensional *=sa'ne* 'APPR' clauses are subordinate and pass the three subordination diagnostics introduced in §2.3. They pass the first semantic test (65). They pass the second test of strict verb-finality (67)–(68). Lastly, they pass the third test of second-position clitic-shunning (69).

(67) [thesi ña=ma an=sa'ne] dyuju
jaguar 1SG=ACC eat=APPR be afraid
'I fear the jaguar might eat me.'

(68) * [ña=ma an=sa'ne thesi] dyuju
1SG=ACC eat=APPR jaguar be afraid
intended: 'I fear the jaguar might eat me.'

(69) * [ña=nda{=ngi, =tsû} tise=ma tshai=sa'ne=tsû] dyuju
1SG=NEW=1{=1, =3} 3SG=ACC hit=APPR=3 be afraid
intended: 'He's afraid I'll hit him.'

situation as a complement. Thus, the meaning of *anse'nge* can perhaps be more adequately paraphrased as 'be fearful of a situation that would cause one to feel shame.'

[17] A'ingae is a pro-drop language, where most verbal complements need not be overtly expressed if they are recoverable from context. Thus, (v) is by itself a well-formed sentence.

(v) *anse'nge=ngi*
be ashamed=1
'I am afraid/ashamed.'

As seen above, the verb *anse'nge* 'be ashamed' is one verb with fear-like semantics which can take *=sa'ne* 'APPR' complements. Two more such fear-like verbs are *dyuju* 'be afraid' (70) and *dyu* 'be scared' (71).

(70) dyuju=ngi [thesi=nga mandia-ñe=sa'ne]
be afraid=1 jaguar=DAT chase-PASS=APPR
'I'm afraid of being chased by a jaguar.'

(71) kani=ngi dyu [thesi=nga mandia-ñe=sa'ne]
yesterday=1 be scared jaguar=DAT chase-PASS=APPR
'Yesterday I got scared that a jaguar was chasing me.'

Other verbs with negative semantics which can take *=sa'ne* 'APPR' complements include *se'pi* 'prohibit,' where *=sa'ne* 'APPR' expresses the object of prohibition (72), and *chi'ga* 'not want' where it expresses the object of distaste (73).

(72) yaya=tsû se'pi [dûshû=ndekhû phi='fa=sa'ne]
father=3 prohibit child=PLS sit=PLH=APPR
'The father prohibited the children from sitting (in the hammock).'

(73) yaya=tsû chi'ga [dûshû=ndekhû phi='fa=sa'ne]
father=3 not want child=PLH sit=PLS=APPR
'The father does not want the children to sit (in the hammock).'

The complement status of the *=sa'ne* 'APPR' clauses in these cases (72)–(73) is corroborated by their semantics under negation (74)–(75).

(74) yaya=tsû se'pi=mbi [dûshû=ndekhû phi='fa=sa'ne]
father=3 prohibit=NEG child=PLS sit=PLH=APPR
'The father did not prohibit the children from sitting (in the hammock).'

(75) yaya=tsû chi'ga=mbi [dûshû=ndekhû phi='fa=sa'ne]
father=3 not want=NEG child=PLH sit=PLS=APPR
'The father does not mind the children sitting (in the hammock).'

As such, the negatively-valenced verb *chi'ga* 'not want' contrasts starkly with the positively-valenced *in'jan* 'want, think.' While we can find sentences with *in'jan* and a *=sa'ne* 'APPR' clause, careful consideration of them shows that these are in fact adjuncts headed by in-case precautioning uses of *=sa'ne* 'APPR' rather than complements. First, looking at the simple sentences, we see that—unlike in the case of intuitively negative predicates—the object of *in'jan* is coreferential with something from prior discourse rather than the content of the *=sa'ne* 'APPR'

clause, which is reflected in back-translations (76). Second, we find a quite different interaction with negation than what we have seen above for *chi'ga* 'not want' (77). Taken together, these observations confirm that whereas *=sa'ne* 'APPR' can serve as a complementizer for negative-valenced predicates, sentences that are superficially similar except for having a positive predicate have a quite different structure, one not involving complementation.

(76) yaya=tsû in'jan [dûshû=ndekhû phi='fa=sa'ne]
father=3 want child=PLH sit=PLS=APPR
'The father wants it in case the children sit (in the hammock).'

(77) yaya=tsû in'jan=mbi [dûshû=ndekhû phi='fa=sa'ne]
father=3 want=NEG child=PLH sit=PLS=APPR
'The father does not want it in case/because the children might sit (in the hammock).'

To account for the complementizer uses, we propose a pathway of diachronic development from precautioning uses. In the absence of relevant historical data, we hypothesize that this development can be attributed to the pragmatic near-equality between the two uses in simple positive unembedded statements. This is to say, we observe that being afraid in case of an event is nearly equal to being afraid of that event. This, we posit, facilitated a syntactosemantic tightening of the in-case precautioning adjuncts into proper complements of verbs of fearing, such as *dyuju* 'be afraid,' *dyu* 'be scared,' and *anse'nge* 'be ashamed.' Analogous reasoning applies to *chi'ga* 'not want' and *se'pi* 'prohibit.' As for the former, we observe that a distaste in case of an event is near equal to a distaste of that event; as for the latter—that a prohibition given lest an event occur is near equal to a prohibition of that event.

Our account is thus close to that of Lichtenberk (1995)'s account of To'aba'ita's analogous data. In relating the complementizer function to other apprehensional functions, Lichtenberk (1995: p. 305) observes that "[a]n undesirable future situation is likely to be feared" and proposes that "[t]hrough this metonymy, *ada* clauses began to be embedded under predicates of fearing." Our proposal, however, goes beyond Lichtenberk (1995)'s in that it extends to other verbs of negative emotional valence (i. e. *chi'ga* 'not want' and *se'pi* 'prohibit') and provides syntactosemantic tests for the genuine complement status of this function.[18]

[18] Given the range of predicates which we find take *=sa'ne* 'APPR' complements in A'ingae, we might wonder whether Lichtenberk (1995)'s characterization of the To'aba'ita data in terms of 'fear' specifically is correct, or whether there too, we might find other negative desire predicates in this category. If not, some further explanation would seem to be needed since undesirable future situations are also likely not wanted, or prohibited, not only feared.

5 Timitive function

A third apprehensional function proposed in previous literature is the *timitive*. The timitive function picks out a noun phrase that refers to a feared entity and relates it to the matrix-clausal situation triggered by the feared entity. Since timitive morphemes prototypically attach to NPs, this function is sometimes referred to as the timitive case marker or adposition (Vuillermet 2017; 2018). Timitive phrases can function as either adjuncts or arguments. When they convey non-essential information, they are understood to be adjuncts. When they are selected for by verbs of fearing (and other negative verbs), they are understood to be arguments. Although there is no dedicated timitive morphology in English, the timitive can often be approximated with the periphrastic *for fear of* (78).

(78) I ran for fear of the jaguar.

In A'ingae, *=sa'ne* 'APPR' can attach to nominal phrases in the function of a timitive, although it appears quite rarely in naturalistic speech (79).

(79) tuyakaen ña ambian setsani=da=tsû jin=ña ña=mbe ushachu,
and 1SG have downriver=NEW=3 be=VER 1=BEN everything
[ayafakhupi=sane] kûpakhu
mouth sore=APPR prayer plant
'I have prayer plant downriver [at my old house] in case of mouth sores.'
(20170803_garden_medicinal_plants_LC: 34)

As discussed by Vuillermet (2018), there appears to be considerable cross-linguistic variation with respect to the semantic properties of the timitive. For example, the timitive in Ese Ejja does not require that the feared entity be avoided (Vuillermet 2018), while the analogous morpheme in Marrithiyel does (Green 1989). In Ese Ejja, stand-alone uses of the timitive are not attested (Vuillermet 2018), while in Manambu, they are (Aikhenvald 2008). It is therefore desirable to outline the parametrization of the A'ingae timitive, which we will later relate to other uses of *=sa'ne* 'APPR'.

To begin with, the timitive *=sa'ne* 'APPR' can combine with non-human entities such as weather conditions (80) and with inanimate entities such as mycosis (81).

(80) tsa'u=ni=ngi jayi [ûnjin=sa'ne]
house=LOC=1 go.PRSP rain=APPR
'I'm going home for fear of rain.'

(81) tsumba tsu'the, thenangu='ki, shamandakhû=ma='khe santshe
then foot leg=2 armpit=ACC=ADD drily
san'jan=ña='chu [asapa'chu=sane]
dry=IRR=SBRD mycosis=APPR
'You must then thoroughly dry your feet, legs, and armpits to avoid mycosis.' (Pederson & Cooper 1982: p. 11)

The timitive *=sa'ne* 'APPR' can introduce the object of fear predicates (82)–(83).[19] It coexists alongside strategies with the accusative *=ma* 'ACC' marking the object of *dyuju* 'be afraid' (84) and the dative *=nga* 'DAT' marking the stimulus of *dyu* 'be scared' (85). Intriguingly, the two strategies tend to be back-translated differently. Accusative and dative objects are translated with nominal phrases; timitive objects—with full clauses.[20]

(82) dyuju=ngi [thesi=sa'ne]
be afraid=1 jaguar=APPR
'I am afraid there could be a jaguar.'
'I am afraid I'll encounter a jaguar.'

(83) dyu=ngi [thesi=sa'ne]
be scared=1 jaguar=APPR
'I got scared there would be a jaguar.'

(84) dyuju=ngi thesi=ma
be afraid=1 jaguar=ACC
'I am afraid of the jaguar.'

(85) dyu=ngi thesi=nga
be scared=1 jaguar=DAT
'I got scared of a jaguar.'

[19] Analogous to the fear complement uses discussed in §4, some or all of the *=sa'ne* 'APPR'-marked objects could potentially be best analyzed as precautioning-like adjuncts rather than arguments per se. We leave demonstrating their genuine object status to future work.

[20] The distribution and back-translation of timitive objects (discussed later in this section) suggests that the A'ingae timitive might be a result of semantic coercion of a noun phrase into a clausal reading or clausal ellipsis. While the account we propose for the timitive is consistent with semantic coercion, there are two considerations that argue against analysis with syntactic ellipsis. First, there is no tendency for the elided material to appear in previous linguistic context. Second, *=sa'ne* 'APPR' cannot attach to a case-marked DP (vi).

(vi) **kuenza=ndekhû uke='fa uvepa'chu tsau'pa=ma* [*anchan=nga=sa'ne*]
elder=PLH burn=PLS termite nest=ACC mosquito=DAT=APPR
'The elders burn termites' nests to avoid (getting stung by) mosquitoes.'

Timitive phrases are available in narratives (86), conveying the fear of the sentence subject, not speaker, and co-occur with any main sentence type, e. g. the interrogative (87).

(86) kuenza=ndekhû uke='fa uvepa'chu tsau'pa=ma [anchan=sa'ne]
elder=PLH burn=PLS termite nest=ACC mosquito=APPR
'The elders burn termites' nests to avoid mosquitoes.'

(87) kuenza=ndekhû=ti uke='fa uvepa'chu tsau'pa=ma [anchan=sa'ne]
elder=PLH=INT burn=PLS termite nest=ACC mosquito=APPR
'Do the elders burn termites' nests to avoid mosquitoes?'

A timitive phrase can stand on its own, but only when there is a strong cultural association between its object and the threat it poses and it can be interpreted elliptically in a pragmatically rich context (88)–(89).

(88) [thesi=sa'ne]
jaguar=APPR
'In case of jaguars.' [uttered upon handing in a rifle]

(89) [ûnjin=sa'ne]
rain=APPR
'In case of rain.' [uttered upon handing in an umbrella]

Nevertheless—aside from its fear-complement function (82)–(83)—the timitive clitic *=sa'ne* 'APPR' is restricted to entities which make salient a situation avoided by the main clause event, paralleling the in-case semantics of the precautioning function (90). In this respect, A'ingae *=sa'ne* 'APPR' timitive phrases differ from the English *for fear of* phrases, as the latter can also introduce the cause or stimulus of the main clause event (91).

(90) tsampi=ni ja=mbi=ngi [thesi=sa'ne]
forest=LOC go=NEG=1 jaguar=APPR
'I did not go to the forest for fear of a jaguar.'

(91) # juva=tsû {i'na, fûndu} [unkumari=sa'ne]
DIST=3 {cry, scream} bear=APPR
intended: 'He {cried, screamed} for fear of the bear.'

The timitive cannot generally combine with nouns of positive emotional connotation, such as *chan* 'mother' (92). Instead, its semantics is expressed with a precautioning *=sa'ne* 'APPR' that makes explicit the nature of the avertive situation (93) or a periphrastic *dyu* 'be scared' construction (94).

(92) # shu'khaen=ngi ña [chan=sa'ne]
cook=1 1SG mother=APPR
intended: 'I cooked for fear of my mother.'

(93) [ña chan=ma iyikha'ye-en=sa'ne]=ngi shu'khaen
1SG mother=ACC annoy-PASS=APPR=1 cook
'I cooked so that my mother does not get mad.'

(94) [ña chan=ma dyu='chu=i'khû]=ngi shu'khaen
1SG mother=ACC be scared=SBRD=INST=1 cook
'I cooked for fear of my mother.'

Finally, it can be combined with neutral nouns, such as *tsetse'pa* 'chicha,' though its distribution is restricted. Such uses are judged as felicitous only when the preceding linguistic context explicitly sets up the unwelcome situation (95). Even then, though, including a verb makes it better, with *=sa'ne* 'APPR' preferably heading a sentence, rather than a noun phrase (96).

(95) #(pûi fiesta=nga tsû tsetse'pa jin=ñe atesû.) ?jayi=mbi=ngi fiesta=nga
each party=DAT 3 chicha be=INF know go.PRSP=NEG=1 party=DAT
[tsetse'pa=sa'ne]
chicha=APPR
'There is alcohol at every party. I'm not going to the party for fear of alcohol.'

(96) pûi fiesta=nga tsû tsetse'pa jin=ñe atesû. jayi=mbi=ngi fiesta=nga
each party=DAT 3 chicha be=INF know go.PRSP=NEG=1 party=DAT
[tsetse'pa ?(jin)=sa'ne]
chicha be=APPR
'There is alcohol at every party. I'm not going to the party to avoid (for fear of) alcohol.'

We understand the avertive, in-case, and timitive functions of the apprehensional *=sa'ne* 'APPR' to be underpinned by uniform semantics: *=sa'ne* 'APPR' encodes the avoidance of a potential undesirable situation which includes the situation (or entity) expressed by its argument. That is to say, the semantics of the timitive is that laid out in §3, where the clitic *=sa'ne* 'APPR' is posited to encode the apprehension of a situation which contains its argument. This accounts for all the discussed properties of its timitive function.

First, it accounts for the timitive *=sa'ne* 'APPR's' rarity, as noun phrases do not prototypically denote situations (*=sa'ne* 'APPR' preferably combines with clauses).

Second, it accounts for its occurrences with eventive nouns, as the timitive use of *=sa'ne* 'APPR' is common with eventive nouns such as *ûnjin* 'rain' (80) or *tsanda* 'thunder' (97), which make salient such situations.

(97) chaketa=ma undikhû=ja [tsanda=sa'ne]
jacket=ACC don=IMP thunder=APPR
'Put on a jacket in case of thunder.'

Third, it accounts for its occurrences with negatively connoted nouns and events stereotypically associated with them. The timitive use of *=sa'ne* 'APPR' is likewise common with nouns such as *asapa'chu* 'mycosis' (81), *thesi* 'jaguar' (88) or *anchan* 'mosquito' (86), where an association between the noun phrase and the undesired situation is immediate (i. e. being eaten by a jaguar, ravaged by mycosis, or stung by mosquitoes). On the other hand, when such an association is lacking, as is the case with mothers not inherently perilous (92), the timitive construction is deemed infelicitous. (Thus, the timitive is different from the precautioning function where the undesirability is conventionally coded by *=sa'ne* 'APPR.')

Fourth, it accounts for its availability for complementation with negative verbs (82)–(83) and the sensitivity of back-translations to the complementation strategy used. The timitive objects tend to be rendered with full clauses, which brings in close correspondence to their situational semantics.

Fifth, it accounts for its availability in narratives and with any main sentence type (86)–(87), by analogy with precautioning uses which encode subject, not speaker, fear.

Sixth, it accounts for its occasional ability to stand on its own (88), possibly when interpretable as ellipsis in a pragmatically loaded context, by analogy with monoclausal uses elaborated in §6.

Seventh, it accounts for its restriction to entities which make salient a situation avoided by the main clause event, paralleling the in-case semantics of the precautioning function (90)–(91). The argument of *=sa'ne* 'APPR' maps to a situation avoided by the main clause event, paralleling the precautioning in-case uses.

And finally, eighth, it accounts for the amelioration of certain infelicitous examples in rich contexts (95), since making the dispreferred situation explicit makes it more easily recoverable.

6 Apprehensive function

The precautioning, complementizer, and timitive uses are the main functions of the apprehensional clitic *=sa'ne* 'APPR.' These main functions all involve subordi-

nation (with precautioning and sentential complementizer uses) or NP-complementation (with timitive uses). The last use of the A'ingae *=sa'ne* 'APPR' clitic is the apprehensive proper, although this function is attested only marginally.

The *apprehensive* function is used to mark potential undesirable future events. It is most closely rendered by the English *watch out* (98), *might* (99), or the negative imperative (100). Unlike the other apprehensional uses, the negativity with apprehensives is typically speaker-, not subject-, oriented (the situation is undesirable in the judgment of the speaker).

(98) Watch out for the curb.

(99) You might trip.

(100) Don't trip!

The apprehensive is prototypically used with warning speech acts where the speaker is worried about some potential negative situation, often but not always one the addressee can take actions to avoid (101).

(101) [tsa'khû=ma sefa-en]=sa'ne
water=ACC end-CAUS=APPR
'Don't use up all the water.' (Borman 1990: p. 37)

Although functionally independent, apprehensive uses have the formal properties of subordinate clauses and disallow second-position clitics (102).

(102) [ke(*=ki) ana=sa'ne]
2SG=2 sleep=APPR
'You might fall asleep.'

The data above suggest insubordination, defined by Evans (2007: p. 367) as "conventionalized main clause use of what, on *prima facie* grounds, appear to be formally subordinate clauses." The development of the apprehensive use out of the precautioning use is a typologically attested pathway, first proposed by Lichtenberk (1995).

While the matrix clausal apprehensive uses here discussed are attested, they are strongly dispreferred. Native speakers characterize them as most appropriate as elliptical answers, conceptualizing them within larger discourse (103). When a discourse-initial position is demanded of them, often paraphrases are offered where the lacking matrix clausal verb *in'jan'jen* 'be careful' is supplied (104).

(103) A: jungueje=ngi yuku=ma kû'i=ya
why=1 yoco=ACC drink=IRR
'Why should I drink yoco?'

B: [ke anae'sû=sa'ne]
2SG be sleepy=APPR
'Because you might fall asleep.'
'So that you don't fall asleep.'

(104) [tsai-ye=sa'ne] in'jan-'jen=jan
bite-PASS=APPR watch out-IPFV=IMP
'(Watch out) you might get bitten.'

This suggests that the insubordination is in its early stages where the elided material is recoverable, and the ellipsis is preferably altogether avoided given insufficient contextual priming.

The transitional nature of A'ingae insubordination is further evident from the fact that native speakers differ in whether they allow it. Some translate the below in a manner congruent with the insubordination hypothesis. For others, the insubordination reading is unavailable even when the context is very loaded. The translation offered by those suggests they interpret it as an ellipsis of linguistically recoverable material in a rich enough context. That is to say, for those speakers, the ellipsis has not reached the stage where it is conventionalized.

(105) [tshipa=sa'ne]
be wet=APPR
back-translation A: 'Don't get wet.' / 'Avoid getting wet.'
back-translation B: 'So that you don't get wet.' [uttered upon handing in an umbrella]

Lastly, the ongoing insubordination hypothesis is supported by the availability of third-person-oriented apprehension (106) given a sufficiently rich context.

(106) A: khuvi mingae=tsû da-'je?
tapir how=3 become-IPFV
'What's up with the tapir?' [uttered upon seeing a running tapir]
B: [thesi tise=ma fi'thi=sa'ne]
jaguar 3SG=ACC kill=APPR
'It's afraid the jaguar will kill it.'

All this testifies to the fact that insubordination in A'ingae is in its first stage, where both first-person (101) and third-person (106) monoclausal fear uses can be analyzed as "underlying subordinate clauses whose main clauses have been ellipsed but can plausibly be restored for analytic purposes" (Evans 2007: 430). Plausible restorations for (101) and (106) are given in (107) and (108), respectively.

(107) [tsa'khû=ma sefa-en=sa'ne] in'jan-'jen=jan
water=ACC end-CAUS=APPR watch out-IPFV=IMP
'Pay attention lest you use up all the water.'

(108) [thesi tise=ma fi'tti=sa'ne] dyuju
jaguar 3SG=ACC kill=APPR be afraid
'It's afraid the jaguar will kill it.'

The insubordination of the apprehensive uses has not reached its second stage, whereby "the structure itself may still be adequately described by treating it as an underlying subordinate clause," but only at the cost of "turning a blind eye to the greater semantic specificity associated with the insubordinated clause, and ignoring the fact that certain logically possible 'restored' meanings or functions are never found with the insubordinated construction" (Evans 2007: 430–431).[21] In relationship to the apprehensive function, this refers to the narrowing of the pool of potential grammatical persons towards which the apprehension is oriented. In prototypical apprehensives, it is only the speaker's fear that can be thus encoded. Since in A'ingae monoclausal uses of the *=sa'ne* 'APPR' clitics can express both first and third persons' fear, we know this stage has not been achieved.

7 Conclusions

The A'ingae apprehensional clitic *=sa'ne* 'APPR' has robust precautioning uses, both avertive and in-case, restricted timitive uses, and marginal apprehensive uses. Furthermore, it can serve as a complementizer to a number of negatively-valenced verbs. The apprehensional clitic *=sa'ne* 'APPR' thus presents us with novel typological properties, as this particular range of function has not been reported in previous literature.

For several languages, attempts have been made to explicate the ranges of usage for their respective apprehensional morphologies on diachronic grounds. (among others, Lichtenberk 1995; Dobrushina 2017; Wiemer 2018). We argue that the particular functional range of the A'ingae apprehensional clitic *=sa'ne* 'APPR', and in particular the range of available precautioning and timitive uses, should be accounted for on synchronic—both semantic and syntactic—grounds.

Semantically, *=sa'ne* 'APPR' expresses the avoidance of a possible undesirable situation which contains that of its argument. If the containment is proper (i. e.

[21] Trivially, therefore, apprehensive insubordination has not reached its third stage either, in which insubordinate "clauses have been so nativized as main clauses that the generalizations gained by drawing parallels with subordinate structures are outweighed by the artificiality of not including them in the muster of main clause types" (Evans 2007: 431).

the undesirable situation contains and is not identical to =*sa'ne* 'APPR's' argument), the in-case function obtains. If, on the other hand, the undesirable situation is identical to =*sa'ne* 'APPR's' argument, the avertive function obtains. Semantically, then, the possibility for a timitive use (at least given its semantics in A'ingae) automatically[22] follows from the presence of the in-case use.[23] The timitive use is limited due to the recoverability of the apprehensional situation from a noun phrase.

Syntactically, =*sa'ne* 'APPR' is a subordinator, a status which we have supported by both semantic evidence as well as through examining language-particular syntactic properties of subordinate clauses (see §2.3 and §3). The marginal apprehensive uses are therefore understood as contextual ellipsis or incipient insubordination of the precautioning or fear-complementation uses, given their dependence on context and their retention of A'ingae subordinate clause hallmarks.

Abbreviations

1	first person subject clitic	3PL	third person plural pronoun
1SG	first person singular pronoun	ABL	ablative case
1PL	first person plural pronoun	ACC	accusative case
2	second person subject clitic	ACC2	accusative case 2
2SG	second person singular pronoun	ADD	additive focus
2PL	second person plural pronoun	ADJ	adjectivizer
3	third person subject clitic	ADV	adverbializer
3SG	third person singular pronoun	ANA	anaphoric demonstrative
		AND	andative direction
		APPR	apprehensional marker
		ATTR	attributive marker
		AUX	dummy auxiliary verb
		BEN	benefactive case
		CAUS	causative voice
		CMP	comparative marker

[22] Of course, other languages may have precautioning morphemes with in-case uses which lack timitive uses altogether for syntactic reasons. We therefore do not predict that any precautioning morpheme with in-case uses must have timitive uses, but rather that if it lacks such uses, it is for syntactic reasons rather than semantic ones.

[23] For further elaboration of this argument, and for preliminary cross-linguistic evidence in support of our conclusions, see AnderBois & Dąbkowski (2021).

CNTR contrastive topic
DAT dative case
DMN diminutive aspect
DS different subject
ELAT elative case
EXCL exclusive focus
FOC focal clitics
FRST frustrative marker
HES hesitative particle
HONR honorific marker
IMP imperative mood
IMP2 imperative mood 2
IMP3 imperative mood 3
INF infinitive marker
INST instrumental case
INT polar interrogative
IPFV imperfective aspect
IRR irrealis mood
ITER iterative aspect
LOC locative case
MANN.DEM manner demonstrative
MOD modal clitics
NEG negative polarity
NEW new topic
NUM subject number clitics
PASS passive voice
PEJ pejorative marker
PLH human plurality
PLS subject plurality
PLV pluractionality (verbal plurality)
POL polarity clitics
PRCM precumulative aspect
PROH prohibitive mood
PROX proximal demonstrative
PRSP prospective aspect
PURP purpose clause marker
QUAL qualitative marker
RECP reciprocal voice
RPRT reportative evidential
SBRD nominal subordinator
SRCN switch-reference conjunction
SS same subject
TAX dependency (taxis clitics)
TOP topical clitics
VEN venitive direction
VER veridical mood

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