Eurasian

Complete Reference Grammar

cheklominu le noipaito yethabeo

Contents

Chapter 1

Introduction

Cheklomino, alternatively Hapano, or anglicized as Eurasian, is an agglutinative, head-final, topic prominent, pro-drop constructed language with a nominative-accusative morphosyntactic alignment. The language, is a priori, though it does adapt certain features of Asian and European languages, as well as completely unique features not found in either of those two language groups.

Cheklomino makes no lexical distinction between nouns, verbs and adjectives, instead they are all grouped into one 'noun' category, and any word in this category can be used as either an actual verb or an actual noun in a sentence or phrase, thus any 'noun' can inflect like a verb and be used as a verb, and the same for adjectives and nouns. Each word in this category is assigned a single gender, either masculine, feminine or neuter.

Nouns decline to indicate gender, case and formality/register. A noun takes a gender suffix to indicate its gender. There are six noun cases: Nominative, Accusative, Genitive, Dative, Comitative and Vocative. All cases except the Nominative and Vocative may take postpositional particles, to indicate things such as position, motion, direction, etc. The case suffixes may change to indicate formality/register.

Verbs conjugate to indicate person, tense, mood, formality/register, and often gender of the subject. There are four tenses: Past, Past-Perfective Present/Imperfective, and Future. There are four persons, First Person, Second Person, Third Person Animate and Third Person Inanimate (indicated by a zero-suffix). Additionally, there is an impersonal or literary person ending. The two main moods are the Indicative Mood and the Conditional Mood, which may change form to indicate formality. Three other moods are the Subjunctive, Optative and Imperative, of which the Imperative has a variety of forms depending on the position of the speaker and listener.

Pronouns differ greatly than those used in Indo- European languages, in that they are classified as regular nouns, and that they may be omitted if they are not needed. There are pronouns for all three persons, across three numbers: Singular, Plural and Paucal. There are no third person inanimate pronouns. Different pronouns may be used depending on formality and the position of the speaker and listener, or may be omitted or not omitted for the same reasons.

The language lacks adjectives in the traditional sense, instead there are 'adjective nouns' or 'quality nouns', which are declined to the genitive case to modify, and may be used as a

verb (like all nouns). Adverbs may be formed from adjective nouns using circumfixes, though some adverbs are not formed from adjective nouns.

There are two main registers that serve as a distinction between formal and informal (or common) speech, referred to as the formal and informal registers respectively. Several other registers exist, such as medial registers in between the two main ones, and the literary or impersonal register, whose verb and noun forms are used in highly formal and informational text.

There are three voices: Active, Passive and Middle/Reflexive. The third is named for its usage in forming reflexive statements. Voice is indicated by a suffix to the verb's stem, or in the case of the Active voice, a zero-suffix. Voice suffixes are used to form participles, of which there are twelve (for three voices across four tenses). Verbs also have two causative forms, used in several different types of causative constructions.

Chapter 2

Phonology

2.1 Consonants

Manner of Articulation	Bilabial	Alveolar	Alveolo-palatal	Palatal	Velar	Glottal
Nasal	m	n			ŋ	
Stop	pʰ b	tʰ d			kʰ g	
Affricate	p͡sʰ b͡z	t͡sʰ d͡z	t͡ɕʰ d͡ʑ		k͡sʰ g͡z	
Fricative		s z	ɕ ʑ	(ç) ʎ̥˔		h
Tap/Flap		ɾ				
Approximant				j	w	

2.1.1 Notes

- Phonemes that appear in parenthesis are found exclusively as allophones.

- ʎ̥˔ is a lowered voiceless palatal lateral fricative. It can be formed by pronouncing ɕ while the tip of the tongue is placed on the alveolar ridge.

2.2 Vowels

/a ɛ i o u/ a e i o u

2.3 Phonotactics

Below is the basic syllable structure.

(C)(A)V(C)

- C - Any stop, nasal, affricate or fricative

- A - Approximants (/j/ and /w/) and /ɾ/

- V - Any vowel or diphthong

2.3.1   Phonological rules and constraints

- All consonants except approximants, palatal consonants and alveolo-palatal consonants may be used in sequence with /j/.

- All stops may be used in sequence with /ɾ/.

- All consonants except approximants and flap/taps may be used in sequence with /w/ (labialized).

- No /h/, approximants or flap/taps in the syllable coda.

- A diphthong ending in /i/ may only be followed with an alveolar or alveolo-palatal stop, affricate or fricative.

2.4 Orthography

Phoneme (IPA)	Romanization
m	m
n	n
ŋ	ng
pʰ	p
b	b
tʰ	t
d	d
kʰ	k
g	g
p͡sʰ	ps
b͡z	bz
t͡sʰ	ts
d͡z	dz
t͡ɕʰ	ch
d͡ʑ	dzh
k͡sʰ	ks
g͡z	gz
s	s
z	z
ɕ	sh
ʑ	zh
ʎ̥˞	l
h	h
ɾ	r
j	y
ɟ	j
w	w
a	a
ɛ	e
i	i
o	o
u	u

2.5 Allophony

- A stop, affricate or sibilant fricative in the consonant coda will assimilate to the phonation (voiced or unvoiced) of the onset consonant of the syllable that follows it. This is reflected in the orthography.

- /ɛ/ has its preceding consonant palatalized whenever its syllable is stressed, unless that consonant is already palatal.

- A palatalized /h/, /h/ used in sequence with /j/ or /h/ before /i/ becomes ɕ. This is not reflected in the orthography.

- Nasals in the syllable coda assimilate to the nasal consonant of the place of articulation of the onset consonant of the following syllable. So /n/ before /b/ is realized as /m/,

/m/ before /d/ is realized as /n/, /n/ before /k/ is realized as /ŋ/, etc. This is reflected in the orthography.

Chapter 3

The Noun

Eurasian nouns are an open class and must be marked to indicate gender and case, though outside of a sentence, these rules are much more flexible. Each noun is marked for its assigned gender, either masculine, feminine or neuter, and one of six cases: nominative, accusative, genitive, dative, comitative and vocative.

Lexically, the Eurasian noun category is much broader the one of most languages. In addition to including traditional nouns, it also includes adjectives (or 'adjective nouns') and verbs (or 'action nouns'). This divides the noun category into three types.

3.1 Noun Types

- Regular Nouns (*pabro*) are the most common type. These are physical objects or abstract concepts or emotions. These nouns' gender is either masculine or feminine. Their copula is *tai*.

- Adjective Nouns (*yeido*) are less common. These describe qualities. Their gender is either masculine, feminine or neuter, though masculine and feminine are more common. Their copula is *ban*.

- Action Nouns (*gyosho*) describe actions. They are also non-finite verbs. Their gender is always neuter. Their copula is *pei*.

3.2 Root structures

Root words may be found in a variety of different phonological structures, ranging in rate of occurrence. When used as nouns, they also very greatly in rules related to how they decline.

- C - Consonant

- A - Approximants (/j/ and /w/) and /ɾ/

- V - Vowel or diphthong

CV and CAV   This structure is relatively small compared to most others. They includes most the the languages units/measure words and abbreviated forms of longer roots. They should inflect using the declension pattern of their vowel, and thus do not inflect to indicate their gender, under normal circumstances, with a few exceptions.

ka	person
da	second
so	large objects, long objects
ge	bottle
pyo	year

CVC, VC and CAVC   This structure is very large and contains most of the languages noun roots and verb roots. They should take a gender suffix that agrees with the word's gender

CVCV, CAVCV, CVCAV and CAVCAV   These structure consists almost exclusively of adjective roots. They should inflect using the declension pattern of their final vowel, and thus do not inflect to indicate their gender under normal circumstances.

CVi and CAVi   These structure, while similar to the first one listed, declines more like the second one. Here, 'V' refers exclusively to /a/, /e/, /u/ or /o/. Like the second one, it consists mainly of noun and verb roots. They should take a gender suffix that agrees with the words gender. Before taking the suffix, the final /i/ must be changed to a /j/.

sui	money
hai	eye
lei	eat

CVCCV and CAVVCV   These structures consist exclusively of noun roots. The final vowel, which is more often than not /a/, should be dropped and replaced with the gender suffix that agrees with the root's gender.

3.3   Declension

Declension in Eurasian refers to the changing of a noun's form by adding a suffix in order to indicate grammatical gender and case. Inside a sentence, nouns are almost always required to decline to both gender and case. However, outside of a sentence, nouns usually do not decline for case, and on rare occasions do not decline for gender.

3.3.1   Gender Suffix

A noun may take one gender suffix to indicate its grammatical gender. It, of course, must agree with the noun's assigned gender. Masculine nouns take the suffix *-o*. Feminine nouns take the suffix *-e*. Neuter nouns take the suffix *-a*.

3.3.2   Case Suffix

The case suffix indicates the noun's grammatical case (it specifies the role of the noun in the sentence.) Nouns may decline to one of six cases: the nominative, the accusative, the genitive, the dative, the comitative and the vocative. Depending on the noun ending, the case

suffix might be a morpheme separate than the gender suffix (such as *-an*, neuter accusative) or it might be a suffix that deletes the gender suffix entirely (such as *-u*, masculine genitive.) There are many declension classes that are used depending on the vowel that precedes the case suffix. Since the case suffix usually follows the gender suffix, (either *-o*, *-e*, or *-a*) the O-E-A declension is vastly the most common. Other declensions may be used if the case suffix follows a different vowel or consonant. This might happen if other noun suffixes are used. It is also permitted that a noun does not decline to any case, in which case no case suffix or ending is added to the noun - only a gender suffix.

O-E-A Declension

Case	Masculine	Feminine	Neuter
N	-i	-ei	-ai
A	-on	-en	-an
G	-u	-eo	-ae
D	-ots	-ets	-ats
C	-osa	-esa	-asa
V	-oya	-eya	-aya

I-Declension

N	-i
A	-in
G	-ao (m), -jo (f)
D	-its
C	-isa
V	-iya

U-Declension

N	-ui
A	-un
G	-ue
D	-uts
C	-usa
V	-uya

Consonant Declension

N	-i or zero
A	zero
G	-ia, -ie, -ja, or -je
D	-ats or zero
C	-sa
V	-ya

3.3.3 Formal Declension Classes

The Formal Register uses separate case suffixes than the common or informal register (shown above). Like the common suffixes, the O-E-A declension is still the most common.

Formal O-E-A Declension

Case	Masculine	Feminine	Neuter
N	-um	-em	-im
A	-om	-im	-am
G	-om	-ia	-ia
D	-oi	-ei	-ai
C	-obu	-ebu	-abu
V	-ero	-ere	-era

Formal I-Declension

N	-im
A	-ie
G	-ie
D	-ai
C	-ibu
V	-ari

Formal U-Declension

N	-um
A	-um
G	-ue
D	-ui
C	-ubu
V	-eru

3.3.4   Honorific Declension

The honorific noun endings are used in honorifics to raise the position of the marked nouns.

3.3.5   Honorific O-E-A Declension

Case	Masculine	Feminine	Neuter
N	-os	-es	-as
A	-osi	-esul	-asul
G	-ossu	-esul	-esul
D	-as	-is	-is
C	-uli	-esli	-isli
V	-arem	-erime	-arima

Honorific I-Declension

N	-is
A	-isi
G	-isu or -issu
D	-as
C	-ili
V	-irem

Honorific U-Declension

N	-us
A	-usi
G	-usul
D	-as
C	-uli
V	-uram

3.3.6 Extended dative cases

This group of four cases replaces the dative case in the literary register and other related registers. They are the physical dative case, the physical ablative case, the abstract dative case and the abstract ablative case.

P. dative	-oi	-ei	-ai
P. ablative	-ui	-ul	-ul
A. dative	-oye	-eye	-aye
A. ablative	-ua	-ue	-al

3.3.7 Strict topic marker

This suffix replaces the user of the vocative case in the literary register.

Topic Marker	-oyu	-eyu	-ayu

3.4 Gender

Each noun (*nyamo*) in the language is assigned a grammatical gender, either masculine, feminine or neuter, including adjective nouns (*yeido*) and action nouns (*gyosho*). There is no pattern in gender assignment, other than that all action nouns are neuter, all adjective nouns are either masculine, feminine or neuter, and all regular nouns are either masculine or feminine (with a few exceptions, see below). Thus, for most regular nouns and adjective nouns, the gender must be memorized.

3.5 Case

3.5.1 The Nominative

The nominative case marks the sentence's subject, or the noun that does the action indicated by the verb. The nominative case may not take any postpositional particles, and is the only case other than the vocative that does this.

3.5.2 The Accusative

The accusative case marks the sentence's direct object, or noun that has the action indicated by the verb done to them, usually by the subject. It may also take other functions as obliques when used with certain postpositional particles.

dang	using, by means of, with
dya	with, beside, by
hyu	by (semantic agent)
ran	compared to, against, vs.
sila	like, similar to

3.5.3   The Genitive

The genitive case marks a noun as modifying another noun. There are two main ways that this is done. In Possession, the marked noun physically owns another noun. In Apposition, the marked noun is considered a 'type' or 'variant' of another noun. The genitive case may take the following postpositional particles.

le	masculine possessive particle
te	feminine possessive particle
ta	neuter possessive particle
se	masculine apposition particle
sei	feminine apposition particle
som	neuter apposition particle
e	composition particle

The possessive and apposition particles must agree with the gender of their noun, ie: the preceding noun.

(1)   satu   le   yato
      1S.M.GEN POS.M vehicle.M

      'My vehicle.'

(2)   tsikeo   te   yato
      2S.F.GEN POS.F vehicle.M

      'Your vehicle.'

Additionally, the genitive case may take any particles the dative case takes.

Genitive Constructions

The genitive case is used to form constructions where the noun marked in the genitive case in some way modifies the noun following it. These are called genitive constructions. In Cheklomino, the method and specifics of how the marked noun modifies another noun can be determined by a particle, or by context. This relation is usually either possessive or appositional, or in some cases, compositive.

Possessive Relations   In possessive relations, the the noun marked by the genitive case owns the following noun, often physically. This is indicated by the possessive particles *le*, *te* and *ta*, for the masculine, feminine and neuter genders respectively. For example:

(3)   payu   le   lome
      city.M.GEN POS.M people.F

      'people of the city'

In this construction, the word *payo* (city) is declined to the masculine genitive case. The other noun *lome* (people) is modified by *payo*. It is indicated that the type of modification is possessive, because of the masculine possessive particle *le*.

Appositional Relations The other common type of modification done by the genitive case is appositional relations. In appositional relations, the noun being modified in some way identifies with or is otherwise related to the noun marked by the genitive case, by methods other than possession. Thus in these constructions, the modifying noun does not own the following noun. One way to simplify this is to translate these as ' type of ', showing that the noun marked by the genitive case is a 'type of' the noun it modifies. This type of relation is indicated by the appositional particles *se*, *sei* and *som*, for the masculine, feminine and neuter genders respectively. Using the above example to show the differences between possessive and appositional relations:

(4) payu   se   lome
     city.M.GEN APP.M people.F

     'city people'

In this example, it is not indicated that the city owns the people, like in the previous example. Instead, the noun marked by the genitive case 'payo' (city) modifies the following noun to indicate that the following noun identifies with or is otherwise related to the first noun. Thus, another accurate translation of this would be 'City type of people', showing that the people are 'of the city type'.

3.5.4 The Dative

The dative case marks the indirect object of a sentence. This includes all of the sentence's obliques not marked by the accusative case. The dative case is usually used to specify some sort of state, such as 'motion to', 'position at', 'motion from', etc. This state is specified by the dative case's several postpositional particles.

me	to
dom	from
lai	until
chap	at, in, on
do	when, during, at
ten	because
ku	at, in, on, about
pre	to, in order to, for

(5) kamai   makets   chap tai
     3PL.N.NOM store.F.DAT at   is.IND

     'They are at the store.'

(6) sjeikei   keiyatots   me patkusakesa
     3S.F.NOM bus.M.DAT to walk.3.F.PST.POL

     'She walked to/onto the bus.'

When the dative case is used without a postpositional particle, it can either be implied from context or cause the sentence to be ambiguous. An ambiguous sentence, however, is not ungrammatical. It just means the speaker is choosing to be ambiguous and controlling how much information they are saying.

(7) sati   chokots   chakayaton uetakesa
     1S.M.NOM house.M.DAT car.M.ACC drive.1S.PST.POL

     'I drove the car to/from the house.'

(8) kamai   makets   tai
     3PL.N.NOM store.F.DAT is.IND

     'They are at the store.'

ku, ten and *pre*

The particles *ku*, *ten* and *pre* express position at, motion from and motion to respectively. However, they differ from *chap*, *dom* and *me*, which express physical motion/position, in that they express logical or abstract motion/position. This logical/abstract and physical distinction is made throughout the language. *ten* expresses abstract motion from, ie: cause and effect. *pre* expresses abstract motion to, so this often describes a translative relationship. *ku* expresses abstract position at, so it can often be translated as 'about', 'on' or 'on the subject of'.

(9) utjelu   noshtats   ten   hjelitsen   obrokakesa
     loud.M.GEN sound.N.DAT because ear.DU.F.ACC cover.1.M.PST.POL

     'I covered my ears because of the loud sound.'

(10) dorolantats   pre mayutacheda
      violent.behavior.N.DAT to   change.FUT.IND

      'It will all change to chaos.'

3.5.5 The Comitative

The comitative case expresses a relation of 'accompaniment' between two nouns. By itself, it means 'and' or 'with'. Unlike the similar genitive case, it is possible for a comitative noun to be a head noun. The comitative case takes the following postpositional particles.

ga	'and' (entire)
in	'and' (partially)
dya	'with'

ga and *in*

The particles *ga* and *in* are used to list nouns. They differ very slightly in that *ga* lists nouns entirely and *in* lists nouns partially, implying there are others not listed.

(11) tsaikosa   chukon   tjessa
      food.M.COM water.M.ACC is.SJV.PST

      'There was food and water.'

(12) tsaikosa   ga chukon   tjesake
      food.M.COM and water.M.COM is.SJV.PST

      'There was food water. (and nothing else of importance)'

(13) tsaikosa   in   chukon   tjesake
      food.M.COM and water.M.COM is.SJV.PST

      'There was food water. (amongst other things)'

dya

The particle *dya* means 'with' or 'and'. It signifies a state of accompaniment, usually between animate things. Nouns marked with this particle may be used as the head noun.

(14) satei   honnapuli   dya pakesaketas
      1S.F.NOM teacher.M.COM.HON with speak.1.F.PST.IND

      'I spoke with my teacher.'

(15) satei   hon'yenots   idzhokesa   pamesake
      1S.F.NOM school.M.DAT friend.F.COM go.1.F.PST

      'I went to school with my friend.'

3.5.6   The Vocative

The vocative case suffix is used to bring emphasis to what/who it is marking. It serves two main functions. The first is to draw emphasis to the marked noun, for whatever reason it may be required, such as to grab one's attention in an interjection. The second is to mark a sentence's topic in topic-comment constructions

3.5.7   Extended dative cases

In the literary register, the dative case is replaced by four similar cases: the physical dative, the physical ablative, the abstract dative and the abstract ablative. Like the normal dative case, the literary dative cases indicate location at or motion to. The ablative cases indicate motion from. Physical cases indicate physical and literal motion or position, while abstract cases indicate abstract or logical motion or position. This is often used to express things such as cause and effect and translative states.

Physical dative

They physical dative case shares many similarities with it's common and formal register counterparts. One difference is that it cannot be used to express states of motion from, as that is what the ablative cases are for. 'Physical' indicates that it's physical or literal motion or position, rather than logical or abstract motion or position. Because of the physical indication, physical motion to/position at particles (*chap*, *me*, etc.) must be used.

(16) chokoi   pamusida
      house.M.PDAT go.3.F.IND

      'She goes to the house.'

Physical ablative

The physical ablative case is similar to the dative case but instead of indicating motion to or position at, it indicates motion from. 'Physical' indicates that it's physical or literal motion, rather than logical or abstract motion. Because of the physical indication, physical motion from particles (*dom*) must be used.

Abstract dative

The abstract dative case is identical to the physical dative case, except it indicates logical or abstract motion to or position at, rather than physical or literal motion to or position at. It is often used with nonfinite verbs to carry a meaning similar to 'in order to' or to give an order to severl actions. This often is used to express changes in form or state, translative relationships. Because of the abstract indication, abstract/logical motion/position particles (*ku*, *pre*, etc.) must be used.

(17)   dorolyenaye   mayutacheda
       violent.behavior.N.ADAT change.FUT.IND

       'It will all change to chaos'

Abstract ablative

The abstract ablative case indicates motion from, like the physical ablative case. However, it indicates abstract/logical motion from rather than physical or literal motion from. This often is used to express changes in form or state. Because of the abstract indication, abstract/logical motion from particles *ten* must be used.

(18)   yompjental   yuto ten
       react.N.AABL this because

       'Because of this reaction'

3.5.8   Unmarked nouns

It is not required that a noun is declined to a case, it is permitted that a noun is declined to no case. This is often done outside of a sentence, and/or when case information is not necessary.

3.6   Topic Marking

Eurasian is a topic prominent language. Thus it is often important that the sentence's topic is marked. Usually, the nominative case alone can determine if a sentence has a topic and what it is. In most constructions, the nominative case is sufficient enough to mark the topic. Though some constructions require that the topic is marked separately from the noun in the nominative case. Such constructions are have 'two subjects' and are said to be topic-comment constructions. This is done with the vocative case suffix '-o/-e/-aya'. An approximate translation of this is 'as for ' or 'regarding '. The following are examples of topic-comment constructions.

(19)   satoya   prinei   tsaikon   linisa
       1S.M.VOC orange.F.NOM food.M.ACC favorite.IND

       'My favorite food is oranges.'

(20)   sjeikeya   tenisi   lonusitas
       3S.F.VOC tennis.M.NOM skilled.IND.POL

       'She is good at tennis.'

The topic-comment construction, which utilizes the vocative topic marker suffix, is often used to state personal things about oneself or other people, in this case, the speaker's favorite food and someone's skill level in tennis. Another usage for the topic marker is as a polite and honorific way to replace genitive constructions.

(21) honnapazarem   chokos   garatas
     teacher.M.VOC.HON house.M.NOM.HON clean.IND.POL
     'My teacher's home is clean.'

3.7 Derivational morphology

In addition to the case and gender suffixes, nouns may take a variety of other prefixes and suffixes to form derived nouns. Naturally, suffixes may also be applied to titles, because these follow a personal name, even if a personal name is not present or omitted. Their position is usually after the noun stem and before the gender and case suffixes. Prefixes often consist only of one syllable, which is never stressed.

3.7.1 Intensifiers

Intensification suffixes are applied, often to adjective nouns, to enhance or give additional emotional or emphatic context to the word they modify. They correspond to words in English like 'very', 'really', 'too', etc. The primary stress of words that have an intensifier applied to them should fall on the syllable of the intensifier.

-nuit/-anuit	very
-siet/-asiet	too, too much
-sakat/-akat	very, extremely, really
-zhot	somewhat, decently

(22) nobonuitu   choko
     big.very.M.GEN house.M
     'very big house'

(23) tsaiki   parosiettas
     food.M.NOM hot.too.IND.POL
     'The food is too hot.'

(24) wanei   yumasiettas
     temperature.F.NOM cold.too.IND.POL
     'The temperature is too cold.'

3.7.2 Name suffixes

Personal names may take a variety of suffixes to indicate intimacy, social position, politeness or honorifics. Most of these suffixes further decline with a gender suffix, followed by the case suffix. Of these, *-sengko/e/a* may be used independently of a name, they do not have to be used as a suffix.

-azo/e/-mazo/e
-asota/-sota
-sengko/e/a

-azo/e/-mazo/e   The suffix *-azo/e/-mazo/e* is a very general honorific name suffix. It would be applied to the names of strangers or people one doesn't know very well. For example, two strangers speaking would likely use it to refer to each other, or a TV announcer to their audience.

-asota/-sota   The suffix *-asota/-sota* is a colloquial name suffix applied to the names of one's close friends or acquaintances in an informal situation or setting. It is used by both sexes, but does not inflect to explictly indicate gender. It should decline with the A-declension.

-sengko/e/a   The suffix *-sengko/e/a* is used to refer to people of a high status in comparison to the speaker. It is highly formal and honorific.

3.7.3   Diminutives

Diminutive suffixes causes the noun to carry a feeling of smallness, pettiness, cuteness, silliness, insignificance, etc. Such suffixes are gender specific, and are placed either after the noun root and before the gender suffix, or after the gender suffix and before the case suffix (depending on which one is used).

Masculine	Feminine	Neuter
-ndo/-ando	-nde/-ande	-nda/-anda
-tto/-atto	-tte/-atte	-tta/-atta
-osti	-esti	-asti

Diminutive verbs

Because of the nominal nature of Eurasian verbs, diminutive forms of verbs can also be formed. The most common way to do this is by declining the verb with a diminutive suffix, then the accusative case, followed by repeating the verb, using a similar verb, or in the instance of lack of volition, using the copula *pei*. The diminutive suffix *-o/-e/-asti* should almost always be used for verbs.

(25)   dantastin   danat
      walk.N.DIM.ACC walk
      'to walk a little walk'

3.7.4   Augmentatives

Augmentatives are the opposite of diminutives - they carry a feeling of greatness, largeness, might, power and significance.

-zutki/-utki

Chapter 4

The Verb

The verb is likely the most complicated category of Eurasian grammar. Because of the languages lack of a lexical distinction between 'verbs', 'nouns' and 'adjective', any one of these categories may be used as a verb. Verbs inflect to indicate person, tense, mood, and several other minor categories, such as causation.

4.1   The Copula

A copula is a very special type of verb that determines the relationship between a verb, its direct object, and its subject, of which there are three in the language. The copula *tai* means is or to be. It indicates an equative relationship between the subject and object, where the subject is the object. The copula *pei* means to do. It indicates a dynamic relationship between the subject and object, where the subject does the object. The copula *ban* means to have as a quality. It indicates an attributive relationship between the subject and object, where the subject has the object as a quality.

Copula verbs have several different forms to indicate tense, mood and to distinguish nominal forms of the copula. Other grammatical categories that can be indicated in normal verbs, such as person, cannot be indicated by copula forms. The following chart shows all of the different copula forms.

4.1.1 Finite (Verbal) Forms

Copula	Present/Imperfective	Past	Past Perfective	Future
	Indicative Mood			
tai	tai	tasata	tashtu	tasatte
pei	pei	yasata	yashtu	yatte
ban	ban	kasala	kashka	kaote
	Hypothetical Mood			
tai	tses	tsesha	tseshtu	tseshte
pei	yes	yesha	yeshtu	yeshte
ban	koses	kosesa	kosektu	koseote
	Conditional Mood			
tai	tats	tasets	tasien	tastse
pei	yuts	yusets	yusien	yasatse
ban	kats	kasats	kaname	kasatse
	Subjunctive Mood			
tai	tes	tessa	teshtu	tenashte
pei	yus	yussa	yushtu	yunushte
ban	kas	kassu	kashtu	kanashtu
	Optative Mood			
tai	tas	tassa	tasen	tanasite
pei	yan	yunsin	yangka	yanatka
ban	kiet	kiet'si	kongka	kotka

4.1.2 Non-finite (Nominal) Forms

The non-finite/nominal forms of the copulas can be formed by suffixing the neuter gender suffix -a. When this is done, any final vowel must be deleted.

4.1.3 The accusative object

A clauses accusative object is a general name for a word that gives some sort of information or tells of some sort of state with regard to the clauses subject. It is never a copula. It can be found as both a finite verb and a non-finite verb. It is name such because in the full copula form (see below), it is marked by the accusative case.

4.1.4 Syntactic arrangements with copulas

There are three possible syntactic arrangements that involve the copulas. Every predicate has a copula to determine the relationship between the verb and the direct object. The placement of that copula can come in three different forms:

1. Invisible copula (null copula form)

2. Copula in a compound with the verb (half copula form)

3. Copula taking the verb as a direct object (full copula form)

To aid one's understanding of the copula system, each form's description will have three examples, one for each copula (*tai*, *pei* and *ban*. Each example will be shown in all three copula forms for comparison.

Also provided are syntactic trees. In these trees:

- S refers to the sentence

- NP refers to a noun phrase, in this case, the subject

- VP refers to a verb phrase, in this case, the predicate

- AO refers to the accusative object, which may or may not be

- FV, which refers to a finite verb (a verb form that may take conjugation suffixes/is not nominal)

Null copula form

A verb is said to be in null copula form when the copula is completely omitted. In such a form, the predicate's verb is finite, and takes verbal suffix (conjugates). Any verb that takes finite verbal suffixes is in this form. Verbal predicates (verb in a clause that describes a dynamic relationship) and adjective predicates (verb in a clause that describes an attributive relationship) are almost always found in this form.

(26) sati   koni
      1S.M.NOM person.1.M
      'I am a person.'
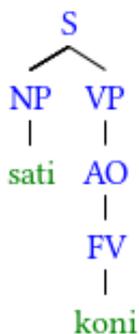
(27) sati   chatan   leiti
      1S.M.NOM this.N.ACC eat.1.M
      'I am eating this.'
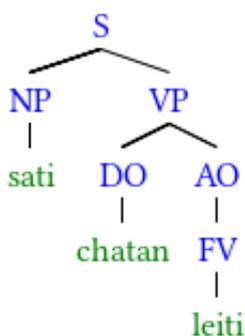
(28) chatai   kuli
      this.N.NOM blue
      'This is blue.'

```
          S
         / \
       NP   VP
        |    |
     chatai  AO
             |
             FV
             |
            kuli
```
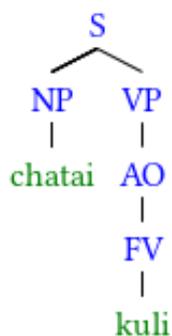
Half copula form

A verb is said to be in half copula form when the copula is visible, but used in a compound with the predicate. This form is much less commonly used, but is used to form some specific semantic constructions.

(29) sati   kantai
      1S.M.NOM person.is
      'I am a person.'

```
          S
         / \
       NP   VP
        |    |
      sati   AO
             |
             FV
             |
           kantai
```
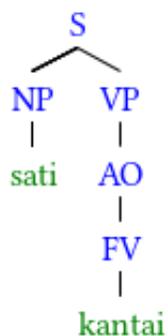
(30) sati   chatan   leipjei
      1S.M.NOM this.N.ACC eat.do
      'I am eating this.'

```
             S
           /   \
        NP      VP
         |     /  \
       sati  DO    AO
              |     |
           chatan  FV
                   |
                 leipjei
```
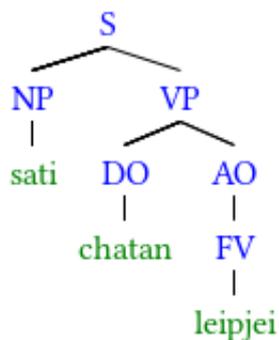
(31) chatai   kuliban
      this.N.NOM blue.have

      'This is blue.'

```
            S
          /   \
        NP     VP
         |      |
      chatai   AO
               |
               FV
               |
            kuliban
```
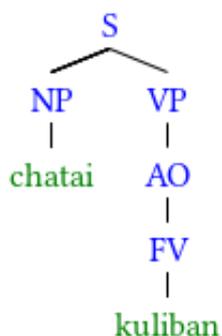
Full copula form

A verb is said to be in full copula form when the copula is not only visible, but separated from the predicate. In such a form, the predicate is declined to the accusative case, and is the direct object of the copula. If the verb that is in null copula form is a verbal root, then all of its objects and constituents become part of an embedded/subordinate clause.

(32) sati   kanon   tai
      1S.M.NOM person.M.ACC is

      'I am a person.'

```
            S
          /   \
        NP     VP
         |     / \
       sati  AO   FV
             |    |
           kanon  tai
```
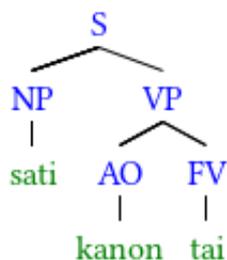
(33) sati   chatan   lejan   pjei
      1S.M.NOM this.N.ACC eat.N.ACC do

      'I am eating this.'

```
             S
           /    \
         NP      VP
          |     /  \
        sati   AO   FV
              / \    |
            DO  lejan pjei
             |
          chatan
```
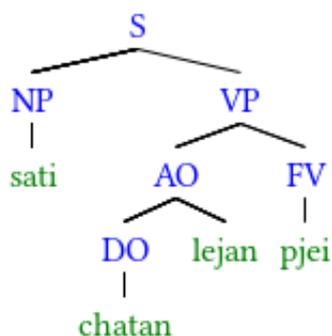
(34) chatai   kulin   ban
     this.N.NOM blue.M.ACC have

‘This is blue.’
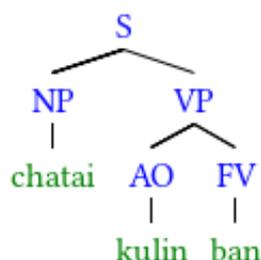
4.2 Conjugation

4.2.1 Stem formation

Root words may be found in a variety of different phonological structures. In order to take verbal suffixes, some must slightly change, and there are slightly different rules that may effect both the roots and verbal suffixes.

- C - Consonant

- A - Approximants (/j/ and /w/) and /ɾ/

- V - Vowel or diphthong

CV This structure must take conjugation II person suffixes. When taking a tense suffix without any person suffix, the tense suffixes initial /a/ is dropped.

CVC and CAVC These structures do not change at all in order to take verbal suffixes, nor do they trigger any kind of alterations to verbal suffixes

CVCVC, CAVCVC, CVCAVC and CAVCAVC These structures (so called 'triconsonantal' structures) must have their second vowel dropped, as well as their second approximant (if there is one) dropped before taking any kind of verbal suffix, unless that second vowel is /u/ or a diphthong containing /u/, or the resulting stem would be prohibited by the phonotactics.

Any root ending in -urat, -uyat or -uwat These structures have everything except the approximant (/r/, /y/ or /w/) dropped. The consonant preceding this root ending is used in sequence with the approximant. The stem must take person suffixes from person conjugation III.

Root	Stem	1st person masculine
loturat (show)	*lotr-*	*lotros*
manuyat (wake up)	*many-*	*manyos*
zaituwat (make effort, try)	*zaitw-*	*zaitwos*

4.2.2   Verb Template

The following template should be used when affixing verbs. Each slot contains one or two grammatical categories whose suffixes are placed in the order indicated by the template. No one slot may have two of its categories' suffixes used in the same verb.

I	II	III	IV	V	VI	VII	VIII
Stem	Voice	Subjunctive	Tense	Indicative	Imperative	Ending Particle	
	Causative	Optative		Conditional	Interrogative		

4.2.3   Person

First Conjugation

The first conjugation is used when the person suffix is preceded by a consonant.

Informal/Common			
Gender	First	Second	Third
Masculine	-i	-in	-u
Feminine	-es	-esin	-us
Neuter	-adya	-adyon	-uen
Formal			
Gender	First	Second	Third
Masculine	-iya	-iyon	-iyat
Feminine	-etya	-etyon	-etyat
Neuter	-ain	-anon	-umat
Honorific			
Gender	Second		Third
Masculine	-iz		-izyoto
Feminine	-izet		-izyate
Neuter	-inad		-initte

Second Conjugation

The second conjugation is used when the person suffix is preceded by a vowel.

Informal/Common			
Gender	First	Second	Third
Masculine	-ti	-tin	-tu
Feminine	-mes	-mesin	-mu
Neuter	-nate	-natye	-natyu
Formal			
Gender	First	Second	Third
Masculine	-tyo	-tyos	-tyot
Feminine	-myo	-myas	-myat
Neuter	-nte	-ntun	-ntun

Third Conjugation

The third conjugation is used when the verb stem's final consonant has an approximant (/j/ or /w/) or a flap/tap (/ɾ/).

Informal/Common			
Gender	First	Second	Third
Masculine	-os	-osin	-oi
Feminine	-as	-asin	-ai
Neuter	-uin	-uit	-usui
Formal			
Gender	First	Second	Third
Masculine	-onas	-onis	-onat
Feminine	-atya	-atyai	-atyat
Neuter	-onues	-onuis	-onuet
Honorific			
Gender	Second		Third
Masculine	-az		-azyoto
Feminine	-azan		-azyate
Neuter	-anad		-anatte

4.2.4   Tense

First Conjugation

Present/Imperfective	-
Past	-ake
Past Perfective	-aste
Future	-ache

Second Conjugation

Present/Imperfective	-
Past	-gi
Past Perfective	-gate
Future	-dzhi

4.2.5   Mood

Indicative

Politeness	Common	Formal	Literary
Polite	-sa/-isa	-damo/-idamo	-da/-ida
Nonpolite	-	-tas/-itas	

Hypothetical

Politeness	Common	Formal	Literary
Polite	-se/-e	-sesmo/-esmo	-seda/-eda
Nonpolite	-se/-e	-ses/-es	

Imperative

Politeness	Common	Superior
Polite	-nikte/-anikte/-niktemo/-aniktemo	-nde/-inde/-ndemo/-indemo
Neutral	-ni/-ani	-nikte/-anikte
Nonpolite	-ei	-o

Conditional

Common	-sh/-ash
Formal	-dash/-adash
Literary	-die/-adie

Subjunctive

Common	-nas/-anas
Formal	-sukas/-asukas
Literary	-dassu/-adassu

Copula Subjunctive				
Copula	Present/Imperfective	Past	Past Perfective	Future
tai	tes	tessa	teshtu	tenashte
pei	yus	yussa	yushtu	yunushte
ban	kas	kassu	kashtu	kanashtu

Optative

Common	-rus/-arus
Formal	-koras/-akoras
Literary	-kosa/-akosa

Copula Optative				
Copula	Present/Imperfective	Past	Past Perfective	Future
tai	tas	tassa	tasen	tanasite
pei	yan	yunsin	yangka	yanatka
ban	kiet	kiet'si	kongka	kotka

4.2.6 Voice

Active	-
Passive	-ara
Medial	-azhi

4.2.7 Causation/Valency

4.2.8 Reflexive/Reciprocal

Reflexive	-dets/-odets
Reciprocal	-prak/-aprak

4.3 Person

Person refers to the conjugation of verbs to indicate who or what did them. Eurasian is very rich in person. There are five persons: first, second, third animate, third inanimate and zero. The first person refers to the speaker, and would indicate that the speaker does the verb's action. The second person refers to the listener, and would indicate that the listener does the verb's action. The third person animate refers to an animate third party, or person not in the conversation, and would indicate that they did the verb's action. The third person inanimate is the same as the third person animate, except that it instead refers to an inanimate third

party. The zero person refers to an impersonal animate subject. It is similar to the English 'one', in 'one should watch their step here'. The person suffixes must also agree with the gender of their referent.

When person suffixes are applied to the verb, personal pronouns as the sentence's subject may be dropped. However, this is considered colloquial and informal.

4.4   Tense

Tense inflections are used to indicate when the verb takes place. Verbs may inflect to indicate four tenses: present/imperfective, past, past perfective and future. The present/imperfective tense indicates that an event happens now (at the time of speaking) or is happening now. It encodes imperfective aspect to indicate that said event is currently underway, and is incomplete. The past tense indicates that an event happened in the past (prior to speaking). The past perfective tense indicates that an event happened in the past, and said event is complete. It encodes perfective aspect to indicate a completed event, and to show the event in its entirety. The future tense refers to actions that have not yet taken place, but will, definitely or likely, happen some time in the future.

4.5   Mood

Grammatical mood deals with subjects such as truth, evidentiality, probability, possibility and permissiveness. Most verbs may inflect to indicate six moods: the indicative, the hypothetical, the imperative, the conditional, the subjunctive, and the optative. The first three (indicative, hypothetical and imperative) are generally grouped in Mood I because their suffix is placed after the person suffix, and is not nominalizable. The latter three (conditional, subjunctive and optative) are generally group in Mood II because their suffix is placed before the person suffix, and is nominalizable.

4.5.1   The Indicative

The indicative mood that a statement is true, or true as far as the speaker or source of the proposition is aware. There are five different suffixes that indicate the indicative mood: common polite, common nonpolite, formal polite, formal nonpolite and literary.

Common Polite   The common polite indicate suffix *-sa/-isa* carries politeness though not formality. It would be used to show politeness outside of a formal location, situation or setting. For example, when speaking with a superior outside of a formal setting. It would never be used when speaking to a stranger or somebody whom you don't know very well, and thus should be avoided when speaking on television or another kind of broadcast.

Common Nonpolite   The common nonpolite indicative is indicated by a null suffix and is used in the informal register. In contrast to the common polite suffix *-sa/-isa*, it is not considered more polite. The verb form is good to used in informal situations. For example, when speaking with close friends or family members.

Formal Polite   The formal polite indicative suffix *-damo/-idamo* is one of the most commonly used verb endings in the formal register. It carries a very high level of politeness. It is good to used in formal situations, locations or settings.

Formal Nonpolite The formal nonpolite indicative suffix *-tas/-itas* is a less commonly used verb ending the full formal register, and is more commonly used in a formal-informal hybrid register. While it is used in formal settings, it does not carry the politeness that *-damo/-idamo* does. This verb ending would be used, for example, by close friends speaking amongst each other in a somewhat formal location or setting.

Literary/Impersonal The literary/impersonal indicative suffix *-da/-ida* is used only in the literary register, recitation thereof, or hybrid registers of the literary. For this reason, it is commonly found in written language, especially informational text. The literary indicative is used to very neutrally and impersonally state a truth. Thus it would be used in things such as newspapers, reports, etc.

4.5.2   The Hypothetical

The hypothetical mood is used to indicate that a statement is not true, but rather a hypothetical or possible situation. Thus, it is used to describe hypothetical events or situations. It is commonly used in conjunction with the conditional mood. Like the indicative, there are five different suffixes that indicate the hypothetical mood. Their usage with regard to formality and politeness is identical to those of the indicative mood.

(35)   di   maskon   natarashi   tsiki   ratan   yutesato
       1S.M.NOM mask.M.ACC off.pull.COND.1.M 2S.M.NOM die.N.ACC do.HYP.Q

       'If I pulled that off, would you die?'

(36)   nutsanuitine
       hurt.extremely.2.M.HYP

       'It would be extremely painful.'

The past tense hypothetical is similar to 'could have' in English.

(37)   tsiki   nutsinakese
       2S.M.NOM hurt.2.M.PST.HYP

       'You could have hurt yourself!'

(38)   kucho   kagan   hjedrashin   tsiki   nutsinakese
       sharp.F.GEN thing.N.ACC touch.COND.2.M 2S.M.NOM hurt.2.M.PST.HYP

       'If you had touched the sharp thing, you could have hurt yourself!'

4.5.3   The Conditional

The conditional mood is used to mark a statement as being a condition of another statement. It is similar to the word 'if' in English. Unlike the indicative, subjunctive and imperative moods, the conditional mood suffix is placed before the person suffix.

The formal conditional often has the suffix *-mo* added to the end of the word, after any other suffix that may follow the conditional.

4.5.4   The Subjunctive

The subjunctive mood deals with various states such as possibility, probability and permissiveness. It is commonly used with specific modal verbs.

Subjunctive copula forms

The subjunctive forms of the copulas (*test*, *yus* and *kas*) are used to form existential ('there is') statements.

(39) kanon   tai
      person.M.ACC is.IND
      'It is a person.'

(40) kanon   tjes
      person.M.ACC is.SJV
      'There is a person.'

Above, the first example uses the indicative copula and the second example uses its subjunctive form.

Auxiliary verbs commonly used with the subjunctive mood

udal   promise, guarantee
byat   expect, anticipate
pol   believe, think

4.5.5   The Optative

The optative mood is used to express wishes, desires, suggestions and intentions. In the second and third person, it closely means 'may', as in 'may you be healthy'.

(41) pwontan   sabarusin
      stay.N.ACC enjoy.OPT.2.M
      'Enjoy your stay.'

The formal optative often has the suffix -*mo* added to the end of the word, after any other suffix that may follow the optative.

(42) pwontam   sabakorasimmo
      stay.N.ACC enjoy.OPT.2.M.FORM
      'Enjoy your stay.'

When the speaker uses the optative mood, they are wishing something onto another person or thing. When used in the first person, it indicates obligation on the speakers end, usually when the speaker feels something is required of them by another party, likely a superior.

(43) bodarusi
      stop.OPT.1.M
      'I should stop'

Optative mood constructions

Depending on tense, person and whether or not an optative copula is used, several different constructions can be made using the optative mood, with varying meanings.

A verb conjugated with the optative mood in the second or third person is used indicates that the speaker wishes something onto another person.

(44)   pwontan   sabarusin
       stay.N.ACC enjoy.OPT.2.M
       'Enjoy your stay.'

In the first person, the speaker states something that they should do or that should happen to them, usually for personal reasons.

(45)   bodarusi
       stop.OPT.1.M
       'I should stop'

(46)   bodakorasimo
       stop.OPT.1.M.FORM
       'I should stop'

A verb conjugated with the optative mood, in the second or third person and used with an optative copula in the future tense indicates that the speaker strongly recommends, or asserts obligation, to the addressee. The fact that the copula is used indicates that the addressee is under such an obligation because of reasons not related to them personally, often a second or third party (or the speaker).

(47)   tsikei   ketsona paman   yanatka
       2S.F.NOM quickly go.N.ACC do.OPT.FUT
       'You ought to go quickly (because of/for a second or third party/because you have to)'

When the same construction is formed without the use of a copula, it indicates that the addressee is not under any kind of obligation, but the speaker strongly recommends they do something, usually for reasons directly related to the addressee (health, safety, etc.).

(48)   tsikei   ketsona pamarusesinache
       2S.F.NOM quickly go.OPT.2.F.FUT
       'You ought to go quickly. (for yourself/it would be in your best interests)'

(49)   tsikem   ketsona pamarusesinachemo
       2S.F.NOM quickly go.OPT.2.F.FUT.POL
       'You ought to go quickly. (for yourself/it would be in your best interests)'

A verb conjugated with the optative mood in the first person and used with an optative copula in the future tense is used, often in monologue, to indicate that the speaker is under some kind of obligation. The use of the copula indicates that the speaker is under such an obligation because of a second or third person, such as a superior, and not because of reasons related to them personally.

(50)   sati   ketsona paman   yanatka
       1S.M.NOM quickly go.N.ACC do.OPT.FUT
       'I ought to go quickly. (because of/for a second or third party/because I have to)'

When the same construction is formed without the use of a copula, it indicates that the speaker is not under any kind of obligation, but still feels strongly that they ought to do something. The lack of a copula indicates that the speaker feels such an obligation for reasons unrelated to second or third parties, but for reasons directly related to the speaker personally (health, safety, etc.)

(51) sati   ketsona pamarusache
      1S.M.NOM quickly go.OPT.1.M.FUT

      'I ought to go quickly. (for myself/it would be in my best interests)'

(52) satum   ketsona pamarusachemo
      1S.M.NOM quickly go.OPT.1.M.FUT.FORM

      'I ought to go quickly. (for myself/it would be in my best interests)'

4.5.6   The Imperative

The imperative mood is used when the speaker is giving commands. It can also be used in requests in its polite forms. The superior imperative suffixes are used by superiors when commanding their subordinates.

4.6   Aspect

Grammatical aspect has to do with the internal temporal structure of a verb. For example: is the verb currently be done, already done, completed? Eurasian has no inflectional indication of grammatical aspect, other than the past-perfective tense, which encodes perfective aspect. Perfective aspect views the temporal structure of a verb in its entirety and indicates that said verb is complete.

(53) momatots   do makets   uetesake
      yesterday.M.DAT at store.F.DAT drive.1.F.PST

      'Yesterday I drove to a store.'

(54) di   kagan   ksatogashte
      1S.M.NOM item.N.ACC fall.CAUS.PPFV

      'I dropped an item.'

The present tense encodes aspect as well. Depending on the verb, it can either encode imperfective aspect or stative aspect. Imperfective aspect indicates an action is ongoing and incomplete, like the '-ing' suffix in English. Stative aspect indicates an action's state is constant and unchanging. In the present tense, verbs lexically encode one of these aspects. Verbs that encode imperfective aspect are verbs that indicate dynamic aciton, like *pam* (go), *nad* (do/make), *mek* (run), etc. Verbs that encode stative aspect are verbs that indicate static or generally unchanging actions, like *tai* (be), *pom* (love), *kuli* (be blue). This category also includes all adjective verbs.

(55) sati   mjeki
      1S.M.NOM run.1.M

      'I am running.'

(56) chatai   kuli
     this.N.NOM blue

     'This is blue.'

4.6.1   Gnomic Aspect

Gnomic aspect indicates an action is a general truth or general thing that happens, with disregard to the internal temporal structure of the verb. The gnomic aspect is formed by applying the copula *ban* (to have as a quality or attribute) to the verb, either as a compound or separately.

(57) hjenei   bonutan   ban
     bird.F.NOM fly.N.ACC have

     'Birds fly.'

Using the past tense form of *ban* indicates that an action used to happen regularly, but now does not.

(58) hjenei   chenats   bonutan   kasala
     bird.F.NOM here.N.DAT fly.N.ACC have.PST

     'Birds used to fly here.'

4.6.2   Verbs and constructions that indicate aspect

There are a small number of other verbs and constructions used to indicate various other aspects.

Inchoative and cessative

The verbs *han* and *bod* are used in a compound with another verb to indicate inchoative and cessative aspect respectively. Inchoative aspect indicates an action is started or begun, while cessative aspect indicates an action is ended, stopped, finished or completed. In a compound, *han* and *bod* should be the final verb. Another option is to nominalize the main verb, decline it to the accusative case and make it the direct object of *han* or *bod*.

(59) sati   mekhani
     1S.M.NOM run.start.1.M

     'I begin to run.'

(60) sati   mjekan   hani
     1S.M.NOM run.N.ACC start.1.M

     'I begin to run.'

(61) sati   megbodake
     1S.M.NOM run.finish.PST

     'I finished running.'

(62) sati   mjekan   bodake
     1S.M.NOM run.N.ACC finish.PST

     'I finished running.'

Quick or brief event

Durative aspect

The durative aspect indicates an action is done for a certain amount of time or a while. It is formed by reduplication of the verb, and the two identical verbs used in a compound.

(63)   satei   chuntaschuntesake
       1S.M.NOM sleep.sleep.1.F.PST
       'I slept for a while.'

4.7   Nominalization

Nominalization refers to the changing of a verb's form and function from a finite (verbal) form to a non-finite (nominal) form. Because all Eurasian verbs are technically nouns, one need only suffix a verb with the neuter gender suffix -*a* to indicate that the verb is being used as a noun. The neuter suffix is used because all 'verbs' are of the neuter gender. A nominalized verb is equivalent to all three English non-finite forms: the infinitive, the gerund and the participle.

(64)   dok
       buy
       'to buy'

(65)   doka
       buy.N
       'Buying'

In the above examples, the verb *dok* (buy) is nominalized, and thus now means 'buying', or 'to buy'. However, nominalized verbs may only inflect to indicate voice (active, passive and medial) and some moods (subjunctive and optative).

A nominalized verb may be used as the direct object of another verb. This is the equivalent of using the English infinitive ('to ...') verb form. It is used with all of the languages auxiliary and modal verbs.

A nominalized verb used as the direct object of another verb

4.7.1   Indicating other categories

Despite these limitations of the nominalized verb, there are other ways to indicate the categories a plain nominalized verb cannot. To indicate tense, the nominal past tense form of a copula may be used in a compound with the main verb. Make sure the main verb's type agrees with the copula.

(66)   dok'yasata
       buy.do.N
       'having bought'

4.7.2 Forming participles

The participial form of a verb can be formed by declining the nominalized verb to the genitive case. To indicate tense, the nominal forms of the copulas must be used in a compound with the verb. Participles are used to form relative clauses.

(67) dokae   kano
     buy.do.N.GEN person.M

     'The man who buys/is buying'

(68) dok'yasatae   kano
     buy.do.N.GEN person.M

     'The man who bought'

The passive participles can be formed by using the passive suffix *-ara* before nominalization and applying the genitive suffix.

(69) dokarae   kaga
     buy.do.PAS.N.GEN thing.N

     'The item that is bought/being bought.'

(70) dok'yasatarae   kaga
     buy.do.PAS.N.GEN thing.N

     'The item that was bought.'

4.7.3 Relative clauses

Relative clauses give information about a noun in the form of a sentence or verb. For example in English: 'The man who drove a car'. Here the subject 'man' is relativeized by the relative pronoun 'who' and further information about him is given. In Eurasian, relative pronouns are not used. Instead, on must simply use a participle.

(71) chakayaton uetayasatae   kano
     car.M.ACC drive.do.PST.N.GEN person.M

     'The man who drove a car'

If one wanted to indicate that the sentence's subject was the object of the relative clause, rather than it's subject, then a passive participle is used. In this example, the past participle is used to modify *tsaik*.

(72) leiyasatarae   tsaiko
     eat.do.PST.PAS.N.GEN food.M

     'The food that was eaten'

To indicate that the noun being relativized is the indirect object of a sentence, the middle voice is used.

(73) pam'yasatazhae   me guka
     go.do.MID.N.GEN to place.N

     'The place that was gone to'

Like all indirect objects, a participle can be used to determine 'to', 'from', etc. In this example, the particle 'me' was used.

4.7.4 Apposition particles with participles

Participial genitive constructions often use the neuter apposition particle *som* to add formality. The neuter particle is used because all verbs are neuter.

(74) chakayaton   uetayasatae   som   kano
      car.M.ACC drive.do.PST.N.GEN APP.N person.M

      'The man who drove a car'

The apposition particle may still be used even if a postpositional particle is used. In these cases, two particles are used, and the apposition particle is always last.

(75) pam'yasatazhae   me som   guka
      go.do.MID.N.GEN to   APP.N place.N

      'The place that was gone to'

4.8 Causative verb form

The causative verb form indicates that the subject causes or makes someone or something else do an action. There are two main causative verb forms: *-oro/-toro* and *-oga/-noga*.

-oro/-toro   In a general causative construction, the causee, or person who is caused to do the action, is marked by the nominative case, and the causer is marked by the accusative case, along with he postpositional particle *dang*, which is normally used to indicate how or by what means an action is done, but takes a special function in causative constructions.

(76) gekgjekai   saton   dang tjepen   dyutoraketas
      children.N.NOM 1S.M.ACC using book.F.ACC read.CAUS.PST.IND.POL

      'I made the children read books.'

The above is a very standard causative construction. It indicates that the causer was directly involved in causing the causee to do the action, and that there was little volition (choice) on the causee's end.

Another causative construction indicates that the causer's causing the causee to do an action was very natural, required little force or effort on the causer's end, and that the causer is likely in inanimate or impersonal force, like weather. Like the previous construction, the causee has little volition. In this construction, the causer is marked by the vocative case.

-oga/-noga   This causative verb form differs from the previous in that it is only used on intransitive verbs, the causee is marked by the nominative case and the use of the vocative case is not employed. This verb from is used to manipulate valency (the number of arguments a verb takes) and volition (whether the arguments intended an action or not). When the suffix is applied to intransitive verbs, their valency increases and they become transitive.

Intransitive verbs take only one argument, a subject, declined to the nominative case. This type of construction indicates the subject has full volition over the action. Since only animate objects may have volition, in some cases, an inanimate object used as the subject of an intransitive verb is ungrammatical. Whether or not a verb can take an inanimate subject varies.

4.9 Polite suffix *-mo*

The suffix *-mo* carries general politeness, and is often used as part of other, longer suffixes, such as *-damo/-idamo*, *-sesmo/-esmo*, *-niktemo/-aniktemo*, etc. It is always placed as the last suffix in a verb, so it often follows the mood suffixes. For mood suffixes that precede the person suffix, *-mo* may be found following the person suffix. This is common in conditional statements.

4.10 Affectionate suffixes *-po* and *-poi*

The suffixes *-po* and *poi* follow the same placement rules as *-mo*, but the two cannot be used in sequence. They indicate a friendly or affectionate relationship between the speaker and listener. *-poi* is generally considered more strong than *-po*. They are considered the opposite of *-mo*, which indicates politeness and social distance, as they indicate friendlyness, intimacy, camaraderie, familiarity and social closeness.

4.11 Valency

Valency refers to the number of arguments a verb may take. Intransitive verbs take only one argument: a subject. Transitive verbs take two arguments: a subject and an object. More uncommon ditransitive verbs take three arguments: a subject, a direct object and an indirect object.

4.11.1 Intransitive

Intransitive verbs take only one argument: a subject. Eurasian has a nominative-accusative morphosyntactic alignment, so the subject of an intransitive verb is marked by the nominative case. Some intransitive verbs like *pam* (go), *nai* (come) and other verbs of motion commonly take an indirect object as an oblique constituent. All verbal forms of *yeido* (adjective nouns) and *pabro* (regular nouns) are intransitive.

pam	to go
nai	to come
kon	to be a (male) person
kuli	to be blue
gabon	to jump

An intransitive verb found without a subject means that the subject can be implied from context or verbal inflections, or it means that the subject is something ambiguous, unspecified or unstated. An intransitive verb found taking a direct object is ungrammatical.

4.11.2 Transitive

Transitive verbs take two arguments: a subject and a direct object. Because of the nominative-accusative morphosyntactic alignment, like intransitive verbs, the subject is marked by the nominative case, and the direct object is marked by the accusative case. Only the verbal forms of *gyosho* (action nouns) may be transitive, though not all *gyosho* are transitive.

nad	to do/make
tai	to be
lei	to eat
lek	to drink

Transitive verbs are not required to take both a subject and an object. If a transitive verb is found taking only a subject, then the object is implied to be something ambiguous, omitted, unstated, unspecified or something that can be discerned from context or verbal inflections. If a transitive verb is found taking only a direct object, then such is true of the subject instead. If a transitive verb is found taking not a subject nor an object, then such is true of both the subject and object.

4.11.3 Ditransitive

Ditransitive verbs take three arguments: a subject, a direct object and an indirect object. Like before, the subject is marked by the nominative case, and the direct object by the accusative case. The third argument, the indirect object, is marked by the dative case.

gul	give
yai	say
zon	tell, inform
ngo	explain, teach

4.11.4 Changing valency

There are several ways to increase a verb's valency. One way is attaching the causative suffix *-oga/-noga* to an intransitive verb (see previous section). Doing so causes the intransitive verb to become transitive. Another common way is to compound (or serialize) an intransitive verb with a transitive one. The resulting verb is transitive, and this can be used to create a wide variety of verbs with different meanings. In the following examples, *doban* (to win) is an intransitive verb and *kud* (to receive) is a transitive verb.

(77) di   dobnashte
      1S.M.NOM win.PPFV

      'I've won.'

(78) di   kudashte
      1S.M.NOM receive.PPFV

      'I've received (something).'

(79) di   praizon   dobnaskudashte
      1S.M.NOM prize.M.ACC win.receive.PPFV

      'I've won a prize.' (lit. 'I've won received a prize')

(80) di   pyaton   dobnas'yappashte
      1S.M.NOM win.defeat.PPFV

      'I've won the game.' (lit. 'I've won defeated the game.')

(81) maken   pam'yomi
      store.F.ACC go.pass.1.M

      'I go past the store.'

4.12 Volition

Volition refers to whether or not an action was intended, or the amount of control that the subject had over an action. To indicate that an action is done without any volition or control on the subject's end, the full copula form with the copula *pei* is used. Thus, the verb should be declined to the accusative case and used as the direct object of *pei*.

(82) sati   kagan   kodran   yasata
      1S.M.NOM item.N.ACC drop.N.ACC do.PST

      'I dropped the item.' (accidentally)

4.13 Reflexive and reciprocal verb forms

The reflexive (marked by the suffix *-dets/-odets*) and reciprocal (marked by the suffix *-prak/-aprak*) are two very related verb forms. In the lower, informal registers, especially in fast speech in those registers, *-dets/-odets* is often shortened and realized as *-ts/-ots* and *-prak/-aprak* as *-pr/-apr*.

4.13.1 Reflexive verb form

A reflexive verb can indicate several things including: 1. that the subject of a verb does the verb to themselves (strict/pure reflexive), 2. that the subject undergoes a change of state with relation to the object (autocausative) or 3. (when the reflexive form is combined with the passive voice) that the subject has the verb done to them, with an unstated, ambiguous, unknown or impersonal semantic agent, similar to the use of the English pronoun 'they', as in 'they released a new book'

(83) nietsodetsi
      wash.1.M.REFL.1.M

      'I'm washing myself.'

(84) sati   etsondetsi
      1S.M.NOM fast.REFL.1.M

      'I became fast/sped up.'

When the reflexive verb form of an adjective root is nominalized, it can be used in certain constructions to indicate that an action resulted in the object becoming that adjective.

(85) sati   yu   chatai   kulidetson   kakaketas
      1S.M.NOM separator this.N.NOM blue.REFL.M.ACC paint.PST.POL

      'I'm painting this blue.'

4.13.2   Reciprocal verb form

A reciprocal verb indicates that two subjects (who are almost always animate) do the verb to themselves, indicated in English by the reciprocal pronoun 'each other'. It is also often used as a pseudo-plural verb form, as it indicates that an action is done mutually by two or more subjects. Because of this, it is often used when the subject head noun is accompanied with another noun, marked by the comitative case and often with the postpositional particle *dya* (with or together).

(86) kamai   pomprakad
      3P.N.NOM love.RECP.3.N

      'They love each other.'

(87) satesa   idzhokei   hon'yenots   dantapresake
      1S.F.COM friend.F.NOM school.M.DAT walk.RECP.1.F.PST

      'I walked to school with my friend.'

4.14   Verb serialization

A serial verb construction is formed when usually two verbs are used in combination to indicate concurrent or related events. Eurasian verbs may be serialized simply by placing both verbs in a compound. This is very commonly done with verbs of motion, like in English "go do ..." or "come do ...".

4.14.1   Serializing verbs of motion

Verbs of motion may be serialized to form a structure similar to the English "go do ..." or "come do ...". Unlike English, any verb of motion may be used, not just 'go' and 'come'. In these constructions, the verb of motion should always come first.

(88) satei   prinen   pandokesake
      1S.F.NOM orange.F.ACC go.buy.1.F.PST

      'I went to buy oranges.'

4.14.2   Verb serialization with *han* and *bod*

The verbs *han* and *bod* mean 'start/begin' and 'stop/end/finish' respectively. When they are serialized as the initial verb in a compound, they carry the meaning that the action indicated by the other verb in the compound was either the first/initial (for *han*) or last/final (for *bod*) in a sequence of other actions. Note that *han* and *bod* are both intransitive, so it cannot be indicated what was started or stopped with them alone.

(89) di   hammanyosake
      1S.M.NOM begin.wake-up.1.M.PST

      'I began by waking up.'

4.15   Modal Verbs

Modal verbs are used to express grammatical modality, such as desire, obligation, suggestions, possibility, permissiveness, etc.

len	want, desire to do an action
pret	need, obligated to do an action
kyei	can, be able to do
keu	like, enjoy
brat	want/desire to have/own
gon	need/obligated to have/own
chai	will/shall/intend
mun	must, will
ukoi	plan, intend
mudurat	must (deductive)

(90) cheklominots   mi pakkyeisitas
      eurasian.M.DAT in speak.can.1.F.IND.POL

      'I can speak Eurasian.'

4.15.1   Impersonal indications of modality

A way to use the modal verbs impersonally or in a literary style is to nominalize them and make them the direct object of the subjunctive copula *tjes*.

(91) cheklominots   mi pakkyejan   tjes
      eurasian.M.DAT in speak.can.N.ACC is.SJV

      'There is my ability to speak Eurasian.'

4.16   Contracting

Contracting in verbs refers to the process of shortening verb endings by removing vowels. Eurasian is an agglutinative language, meaning multiple suffixes are piled onto the end of the verb with each serving usually only one grammatical function. Thus it is often helpful to shorten the length of verb endings, as many of them can become very long when many suffixes are used. Contracting should be done whenever possible, regardless of formality or whether they are written or spoken. Contracting may only occur on the border of affixes.

There are often very specific criteria that must be met in order to form contractions. The following are general rules.

A vowel may be removed if:

- it's preceding consonant is / t d / and its succeeding consonant is / t d m n /

- it's preceding consonant is / n / and its succeeding consonant is / t d /

- it's preceding consonant is / m / and its succeeding consonant is / p b /

- it is surrounded on both sides by the same consonant, unless the vowel is / u /

Chapter 5

The Pronoun

5.1 Personal pronouns

5.1.1 General

The general personal pronouns make a distinction between singular, plural and paucal, as well as inclusive and exclusive. They are used in both common and formal speech.

Number	1	2	3
Singular	sat	tsik	seik
Plural	saya, nam (inclusive)	myen	kam
Paucal	wal	besh	trep
Mass	okra		

(92) tsiki   byemen   molistogatinakesa
     2S.M.NOM clothes.F.ACC dry.make.CAU.2.M.PST.POL
     'You dried the clothes.'

(93) seikei   byemen   molistogamakesa
     2S.M.NOM clothes.F.ACC dry.make.CAU.2.F.PST.POL
     'She dried the clothes.'

Mass pronouns are used to refer to large groups or crowds.

(94) okrai   myeitawei
     everyone.N.NOM quiet.become.IMP
     'Everybody be quiet.'

5.1.2 Honorific

The honorific personal pronouns are used to refer to somebody or a group of people of a higher status than the speaker. This group lacks first person pronouns because one should never refer to themselves with an honorific of any kind.

Number	2	3
Singular	ok	om
Plural	okat	omat
Paucal	uspsak	
Mass	dyelam	

5.1.3   Humiliative

The humiliative pronouns are used to refer to oneself in a low and humble fashion. They are often used when speaking to superiors.

Gender	Singular	Plural	Paucal
Masculine	chwen	chats	
Feminine	kyam	tsaid	ksan
Neuter	N/A	tenam	

5.1.4   Colloquial pronouns

These pronouns would only be used in the low, colloquial/informal registers.

di	1S masculine
mui	1S feminine
mai	1S feminine
non	2S both sexes
man	2S feminine
tsok	proximal nonfirst both sexes
tsak	medial nonfirst both sexes
tsuk	distal nonfirst both sexes

5.2   Demonstrative pronouns

Demonstrative pronouns are some of the few *pabro* whose gender is neuter. Their gender is always neuter, regardless of the gender of their referent. Proximal refers to objects near the speaker or first, equivalent to 'this' and 'here' in English. Medial refers to objects near the listener or second person, equivalent to 'that' and 'there' in English. Distal refers to objects distant to both the speaker and listener, or near a third person, also equivalent to 'that' and 'there' in English.

	Item	Location
Proximal	chat	chen
Medial	nat	nen
Distal	nol	nak
abstract/logical	nek	

(95)   chatai   kulu   se   kagitas
       this.N.NOM blue.M.GEN APP thing.IND.POL

'This is a blue thing.'

5.3   Time pronouns

chak	now
tswat	then (past)
tyet	then (future)

5.4 Relative pronouns

Eurasian uses extremely generic terms as relative pronouns, such as 'what', 'who', 'when', etc. in English. All reflexive pronouns are neuter, except for those that refer to animate objects, in which case they must agree with the natural gender of said animate objects.

kag	what, lit. 'thing, item'
guk	where, lit 'place, location'
kait	when, lit 'time'
kan	who, lit 'person'

5.5 Reflexive pronouns

Eurasian does not have reflexive pronouns like 'himself, themselves, etc.' in English. Instead, reflexive verb forms are used instead.

5.6 Interrogative pronouns

The interrogative pronouns are used to forms questions. Like the demonstrative pronouns, their gender is always neuter. Unlike English, the interrogative pronouns should be used as the subject in equative statements.

tel	what
nin	where
tak	who
tiedi	when (adverb)
tad	when (noun)
nangka	why (adverb)
psat	why (noun)
lieli	how (adverb)
lien	how (noun)
sez	how much
krat	to what extent

(96) nolai   tjelan   taito
      this.N.NOM what.N.ACC is.INT
      'What is that?'

(97) sabruyati   ninats   yatsyatto
      train.M.NOM where.N.DAT travel.INT
      'Where is the train going?'

(98) takas   tjesadei
      who.N.NOM.HON is.SJV.INT.POL
      'Who is it?' (answering telephone/door)

(99) kani   tiedi djelaketas
      man.M.NOM when arrive.PST.IND.POL
      'When did the man arrive?'

(100)   kani   tadats   do djelaketas
        man.M.NOM when.N.DAT at arrive.PST.IND.POL
        'When did the man arrive?'

(101)   ga, di   nangka kaman   leni
        and 1S.M.NOM why   3P.N.ACC want.1.M
        'And, why would I want them?'

5.7   Other pro-words

had (n)   a previously stated proposition

Chapter 6

The Adjective

Eurasian lacks adjectives in the traditional sense. Instead, *yeido* (adjective nouns, quality/attributive nouns) are used. *yeido* in their plain form can be thought of like 'adjective+ness' in English.

6.1 Attributive statements

The copula *ban* is used to form attributive statements, where a clauses subject has the object as a quality or attribute.

(102)   chatai   kulon   ban
        this.N.NOM blueness.M.ACC have

        'This is blue.' (lit. 'has blueness')

Of course, the copula can be omitted and the object is conjugated as a verb.

(103)   chatai   kulitas
        this.N.NOM blueness.IND.POL

        'This is blue.'

6.2 Modification

yeido must be declined to the genitive case in order to modify other nouns Optionally, the apposition particles *se*, *sei* and *som* (for masculine, feminine and neuter genders respectively) may be used. The apposition particle must agree with the gender of the adjective.

(104)   kulao   chuko
        blueness.M.GEN water.M

        'Blue water'

(105)   kulao   se   chuko
        blueness.M.GEN apposition.M water.M

        'Blue water'

6.3 Position

Most commonly, a modifier is placed before the noun that it modifies. However, it is grammatical to place it after the noun it modifies, so long as it does not cause ambiguity or other problems.

6.4   Suffixes

Adjectives may take a variety of suffixes.

The suffixes used here are specific to adjectives, and aren't found used with other words.

-d	like, -ish
-m	like, -ish
-yod	seemingly, appears to be

(106)   kulidu   kaga
        blueness.like.M.GEN thing.N

        'Blue-ish thing'

(107)   kuliyodu   kaga
        blueness.seemingly.M.GEN thing.N

        'Seemingly blue thing'

These suffixes may be found used with words other than adjectives.

-nuit/-anuit	very, really
-siet/-osiet	too much, too

Chapter 7

The Adverb

Eurasian has two types of adverbs (*tyemalo*). The first type are formed from *nyamo* (nouns/adjectives/verbs). These are adverbs like *komara* (beautifully) and *sopyaira* (fearfully/cautiously). The second type are not formed from or based off of other words. They are adverbs like *lum* (suddenly) and *dal* (first).

7.1 Position

Adverbs are generally placed after the sentence's subject. Another common place is right before the verb it describes. When they are placed before the sentence's main clause, they are conjunctions.

(108) satei   ketsona mjekes
      1S.F.NOM quickly run.1.F

      'I run quickly.'

(109) satei   yaton   ketsona uetes
      1S.F.NOM vehicle.M.ACC quickly drive.1.F

      'I drive the vehicle quickly.'

(110) ketsona, sati   yaton   uetes
      quickly   1S.F.NOM vehicles.M.ACC drive.1.F

      'Quickly, I drive the vehicle.'

Like other words, their function is emphasized when placed at the end of a sentence after the verb.

(111) sati   yaton   uetes   ketsona
      1S.F.NOM vehicles.M.ACC drive.1.F quickly

      'I drive the vehicle *quickly.*'

7.2 *nyamo*-based adverbs

Any *nyamo* (noun/adjective/verb) can be turned into an adverb. This is done using a circumfix. The circumfix *ko-a* is used for masculine and feminine words. The circumfix *so-a* is used for neuter words.

maro (beauty)	*komara* (beautifully)
etson (quickness)	*ketsona* (quickly)
mejtmai (darkness)	*komjetma* (in a dark fashion)
pyairo (fear)	*sopyaira* (fearfully)
djepa (foolishness)	*sodjepa* (foolishly)

(112)   sabruyatu   sodaga missyatai   mungtakesa
       train.M.GEN late   arrive.N.NOM annoy.PST.IND.POL

       'The train's arriving late was annoying.'

7.3   Not based off other words

The second type of adverbs usually have no way of identification with nouns. ie: they are not formed from inflecting nouns like the first group of adverbs is. This group of adverbs does not inflect in any way.

Chapter 8

The Numeral

8.1 Digits

The language has ten digits, 0-9.

0	*gan*
1	*ki*
2	*tup*
3	*yak*
4	*tal*
5	*tsa*
6	*bo*
7	*wan*
8	*tsei*
9	*pul*

Representation of numbers larger than nine is done using suffixes to indicate place value.

ten	*-im*
hundred	*-onre*
thousand	*-tsware*
ten thousand	*-meite*
hundred thousand	*-napare*
million	*-chiare*

8.2 Cardinal Numbers

Cardinal numbers are used to count. No changes are made the the numbers in order for them to be used in counting.

8.3 Multipliers

8.4   Nominal Numbers

Each numeral is grammatically neuter. Thus to form the nominal form of a number, the neuter gender suffix -*a* is used. If a number ends in a vowel, then that vowel must be deleted. The irregular number *tsei* does not follow this rule and becomes *tsena* in its nominal form. A number in its nominal form may now decline like any other noun.

(113)   ka
      1.N
      'Number one'

(114)   tupa
      2.N
      'Number two'

In order for a number to modify something, so that that thing can be represented as there being a certain number of it, the nominal form of the number must be declined to the genitive case, and the compositive particle *e* may optionally be used.

(115)   tsae   sjepso
      5.N.GEN dog.M
      'Five dogs'

(116)   tsjenae   e   kana
      8.N.GEN composition person.N
      'Eight people'

8.5   Ordinal Numbers

The ordinal numbers are words like 'first', 'second', etc. They are formed by adding the suffix -*ami* (after consonants) or -*mi* (after vowels) to the number. The ordinal numbers are nominal, but they must decline using the i-declension. The irregular number *tsei* has its final *i* dropped before the suffix is added.

zeroth	*ganami*
first	*kimi*
second	*tupami*
third	*yakami*
fourth	*talami*
fifth	*tsami*
sixth	*bomi*
seventh	*wanami*
eighth	*tsemi*
ninth	*pulami*

(117)   pulamia   kano
      9-ordinal.GEN person.M
      'Ninth person'

8.6   Iterative Numbers

The iterative number form is used to express iterations or 'times'. It is often used with verbs to indicate how many times a verb is completed. It may be used with nouns if the nouns being quantified are extremely similar if not identical. The iterative is formed by adding the suffix *-aru* (after consonants) or *-saru* (after vowels). Iterative numbers are nominal, but they must decline using the u-declension. The irregular number *tsei* has its final *i* dropped before the suffix is added.

zero times	*ganaru*
one time	*kisaru*
two times	*tuparu*
three times	*yakaru*
four times	*talaru*
five times	*tsasaru*
six times	*bosaru*
seven times	*wanaru*
eight times	*tsesaru*
nine times	*pularu*

(118)   tsasaruts   do ksatnusakesa
        5-iterative.DAT at succeed.3.F.PST.POL
        'On the fifth time, she succeeded.'

The iterative numbers should only modify nominal verbs, or nouns that are extremely similar, if not identical.

(119)   tuparue   e   doka
        2-iterative.GEN composition buy.N
        'Two buyings/buying two times'

The adverbial form of the iterative numbers can be formed by adding the prefix *u-*. This is an irregular adverb inflection.

(120)   utuparu   dokusa
        ADV.2-iterative buy.3.M.POL
        'He buys two times.'

8.7   Units

Units are special nouns that may be prefixed with numerals, including the ordinal and iterative numerals. This category includes various measurements, such as distance, time, weight, etc. The unit words that do not contain a syllable coda should not decline for their gender, but they should decline to case. This should be done using the declension class of the unit's vowel. The unit words that do contain a syllable coda should decline for case and gender normally. It should be noted that these nouns and these nouns alone may take a numeral as a prefix.

8.7.1   SI Prefixes

Eurasian borrows the SI prefixes from English.

mili-	milli-
senti-	centi-
desi-	deci-
deka-	deca-
hekto-	hecto-
kilo-	kilo-

8.7.2   Time

da (f)	second
po (m)	minute
gad (m)	hour
mat (m)	day
ket (f)	week
god (f)	month
pyo (m)	year

8.7.3   Weights and measurements

chas (m)	meter
grad (f)	gram
san (m)	liter
sam (f)	degree (temperature)

8.7.4   Other unit words

These unit words act similar to classifiers in Chinese and other languages. However, they are used to refer to things very generally, and numbers do not require that they are attached in order to modify things. They are commonly used by themselves without modifying anything at all.

ko/ke/ka (m/f/n)	person
pen (m)	piece, small item
kot (m)	floor of a building/structure
gun (f)	glass, cup, bowl
sha (f)	vehicles
so (m)	large objects, long things
gi (f)	abstract things/concepts
sai (m)	chapter, section
zai (f)	book, article, magazine, newspaper
al (m)	piece/sheet of paper
nan (m)	row
pad (m)	room
dun (f)	dose (of medicine, etc.)
la (m)	machine, computer
ge (f)	bottle
ye (f)	can

Chapter 9

Particles

Particles (*chakasjepe*) are usually short words that serve some grammatical function. They almost never inflect and are almost never stressed. The language has two major types of particles: modal and postpositional particles. Modal particles usually follow a verb and indicate some modal or emotional information. They are also commonly used as interjections. Postpositional particles are Eurasian's equivalent of English prepositions. They are placed after a noun to indicate various states, such as position, motion, etc.

9.1   Modal particles

Modal particles carry some sort of modal or emotional information. They are commonly placed after verbs, though outside of full sentences, their position is much more free. They are also used as interjections. Modal particles that begin with vowels or diphthongs may be palatalized in strange phonological situations. This is often up to the speaker's discretion.

min	uncertainty, request for confirmation
o/jo	strong assertion of details, emphasis
ba	satisfaction, fulfillment, positivity
lom	uncertainty, lack of confidence, humility
ong/jong	regret, negativity
ao/jao	excitement, surprise, anticipation
dzha	propositive ("Let's ...")
dzhaten	soft propositive ("How about...")
nei	similar to *o/jo*, assertive, emphasis
neijo	combination of *nei* and *o/jo*, masculine sounding
ko/go	equivalent to *min*, *o/jo*, *ba* and *ao/jao*, feminine sounding
kue	general feminine sounding particle
kui	feminine sounding propositive
ni	provides an explanation, reason or source

9.2   Postpositional particles

Postpositional particles follow nouns and carry information on some sort of state related to the noun. This state is often position, motion, etc. Postpositional particles may follow nouns in every case except the nominative and vocative.

9.2.1   Postpositions of the dative case

The dative case takes the largest number of postpositions. Its usages with postpositions often indicate states of motion and position. It may take the following postpositions.

chap	at, in, on
me	to, towards
dom	from, away
nat	(motion) against, opposite, across, parallel
lai	up to, until (distance, direction, location)
kad	(motion) above, over
dza	(motion) below, beneath, under
do	(time) at, during, while
mi	in, with, at (limited usage, see below)

(121)   kamai   kadzots   chap
        3P.N.NOM forest.M.DAT at

        'They are at/in the forest'

(122)   kadzots   me pamusaketas
        forest.M.DAT to   go.3.F.PST.IND.POL

        'She went to the forest.'

mi

The postpositional particle *mi* is used to determine a select few relationships.

   ... *mi pak*   speak in ...

9.2.2   Postpositions of the accusative case

The accusative's usages with postpositions often indicates manner and function. It also takes some postpositions of the dative case, but their usage with the accusative slightly changes their meaning.

ma	as, instead of, in place of
dang	with, using
dya	with, beside, by
hyu	by (semantic agent)
chap	onto, into a general area
me	into
dom	out of, out from
nat	(position) against, opposite, across, parallel
lai	up to/down to (height, depth)
kad	(position) above, higher than, over
dza	(position) below, beneath, under
meru	around, in a circle

9.2.3   Postpositions of the comitative case

The comitative's usage with postpositions often indicates accompaniment and manner.

ga	and (entirety)
in	and (partially)
dya	with, together with

9.2.4 Postpositions of the genitive case

The genitive case's particles are used to show relationships of possession or modification. Many of this case's particles agree with the gender of the noun they follow.

le	masculine possessive particle
te	feminine possessive particle
ta	neuter possessive particle
se	masculine adjective particle
sei	feminine adjective particle
som	neuter adjective particle
e	composition

9.2.5 Universal postpositional particles

This group of particles may be used with words of any case, including words unmarked for case. It also contains most of the language's determiners. If one of these particles must be used with another case-specific particle, it should be placed after such particle.

ben	only
ha	all, every
hasal	none
it	some
mui	any, some
tro	a few
chai	very few, none
yuto	this (proximal)
nuto	that (medial)
suto	that (distal)
rai	things like
su	some, any
ushine	some kind of
ze	any, all
teli	what
dali	which
telen	what kind of
dalin	which kind of
yepta	such, such a
yuten	this kind of (proximal)
nuten	that kind of (medial)
suten	that kind of (distal)
sa	no, none (negative)
gai	said, such
kai	such, previously referred to

(123)   tjepei   yuto lapetas
       book.F.NOM this heavy.IND.POL

'This book is heavy.'

(124) tjepei   ha lapetas
book.F.NOM all heavy.IND.POL
'All of the books are heavy.'

(125) tjepei   dali   lapetas
book.F.NOM which heavy.IND.POL
'Which book is heavy?'

(126) tjepei   tro lapetas
book.F.NOM few heavy.IND.POL
'A few books are heavy.'

Additionally modal particles may be attached to nouns to associate that noun with an emotion.

(127) sjeiki   jao   tjessa
3S.M.NOM surprise is.SJV.PST
'There was HIM. (of all people!)'

(128) sjeiki   lom   tjessa
3S.M.NOM uncertainty is.SJV.PST
'There was him. (I think)'

9.3 Miscellaneous particles

9.3.1 Quotation particle

The particle *su* is the spoken form of quotation marks. Two *su* particles are used, one to mark the beginning of a quotation and one to mark the end. Everything inside the *su* particles is quoted text or speech and is thus grammatically independent of the rest of the sentence (ie: it doesn't trigger any agreement). The final *su* particle should decline for case using the U-declension. *su* is the only particle that inflects.

(129) miskat'salera   chuntam   dang su   bodaintas   sum
to.more.not.N.VOC sleep.N.ACC with quotation end.1.N.IND.POL quotation.ACC
yatta
say.N
'No more; and by a sleep, to say we end'

9.3.2 Coordination particle

The coordination particle *ye* indicates that two or more phrases or constituents are equal, and do not modify each other, but rather they both modify something else. It is commonly used in noun phrases with two or more nouns modifying the head noun. Such nouns would be separated by the coordination particle to indicate that they both modify the head noun, rather than the first one modifying the second one. Notice in the next two examples how the use of the coordination particle completely changes the meaning of a noun phrase.

(130)   tasao   kanu   le   maso
important.M.GEN person.M.GEN possessive.M building.M

'The important man's building' (the man is important, the building is not)

(131)   tasao   ye   kanu   le   maso
important.M.GEN coordination person.M.GEN possessive.M building.M

'The important and man's building.' (the building is important, the man is not)

Chapter 10

Interjections

Interjections (*ispuete*) are single word phrases usually used outside of a sentence.

cho	yes
dye	no
waa	wow
o	oh
e	uh
da	go on/I'm listening
a	yes (informal)
sa/sal	no (informal)
an	yes sir (response to a command)

In addition, any modal verb ending particle may be used as an interjection.

Some English interjections may correspond to entire phrases in Eurasian.

nutsi/nutses (f)/nutsashte (PPFV)/nutsesashte	Ouch, Ow (lit. 'I'm hurt/hurting/been hurt')
myeidei/myeidinei/myeidesinei	Shh (lit. 'Become quiet.')

Chapter 11

Syntax

11.1 Sentence word order

Because Eurasian nouns are marked for case, and such a marking determines a nouns grammatical role in a sentence, the word order of a sentence is not rigid like that of English. Generally, however, sentences use a subject-object-verb (SOV) ordering, with oblique noun phrases and adverbs coming before the object.

(132) sati   prinen   leiti
      1S.M.NOM orange.F.ACC eat.1.M
      'I eat the orange.'

This order may be altered for a variety of functions. When a subject, object, oblique or adverb is moved to the end of a sentence, past the verb, it has emphasis drawn to it.

(133) sati   leiti   prinen
      1S.M.NOM eat.1.M orange.F.ACC
      'I eat the *orange*. (instead of some other food)'

(134) prinen   leiti   sati
      orange.F.ACC eat.1.M 1S.M.NOM
      '*I* (instead of some other person) eat the orange.'

Placing the verb at the beginning of a sentence sounds poetic, and is thus often used in poetry, songs and literature.

(135) leiti   sati   prinen
      eat.1.M 1S.M.NOM orange.F.ACC
      'I eat the orange.'

11.2 Noun phrases

In a noun phrase, things that modify (adjectives, other nouns, etc.) the head noun generally come before it. However, like the word order, this is not a rigid rule, especially outside of sentences. It is also not uncommon, often in titles or place names, for noun phrases with more than one modifier to place some before the noun phrase and some after it.

11.3   Yes-no question sentences

In questions that are meant to be replied with either *cho* (yes) or *dye* (no), or other phrases to confirm or deny the sentence's proposition, the sentence's verb is suffixed with the interrogative verb form.

11.4   Coordination

Coordination of clauses, phrases, and adverbs, while done commonly in English, is much less common in Eurasian. Whenever it is done, the coordination particle *ye*, including other coordination partiles, are used. The coordination particle is often not needed. However, in some noun, adjective and verb phrases, it is required as to not cause ambiguity. It is never required for verbs and adverbs, so it is rarely, if ever, used in these cases.

11.4.1   Clauses

Coordination of clauses is almost never done. It is most commonly employed in conditional statements, where one clause is marked with the conditional mood suffix and the other marked with some other mood, often the hypothetical. However, when it is done, it indicates that the two or more actions are completed or done one right after another, or otherwise close in time. In order for the verbs to be in coordination, they both must be in verbal/finite forms. A general rule regarding which moods the verbs are conjugated to is that if both verbs are in the same mood, then only the final verb should take a mood suffix. The same rule also applies to tense, however, all verbs should retain their person markings.

(136)   satei   mjekes sagbesitas
        1S.F.NOM run.1.F jump.1.F.POL

        'I run and then jump.'

Coordination of conditional statements

Coordination is most commonly done in conditional statements. In this type of construction, the "condition" is marked by the conditional mood suffix, and the other clause is marked with some other mood suffix, commonly the hypothetical mood.

(137)   satei   mjekesake   ye   sagbesaketas
        1S.F.NOM run.1.F.PST coordination jump.1.F.PST.POL

        'I ran and (afterwards) jumped.'

11.4.2   Noun, adjective and nominal verb phrases

Coordination of noun, adjective and nominal verb phrases is often necessary, whenever the use of the comitative case is either not sufficient, or causes ambiguity. Thus it is often done in genitive constructions, to indicate two things equally modify the head noun. The following examples are examples of coordinated and not coordinated noun phrases, the difference in meaning between the two and how the coordinated phrase requires the coordination particle.

(138)   tasao   kanu   le   maso
        important.M.GEN person.M.GEN possessive.M building.M

        'The important man's building' (the man is important, the building is not)

(139) tasao   ye   kanu   le   maso
       important.M.GEN coordination person.M.GEN possessive.M building.M

'The important and man's building.' (the building is important, the man is not)

11.4.3 Adverbs

Adverbs, unlike clauses and phrases, can only be coordinated. This is done by placing the adverbs next to each other - no coordination particle is needed.

11.5 Subordination

Unlike coordination, in Eurasian, subordination of clauses or phrases is much more commonly done.

11.5.1 Clauses

11.5.2 Nouns, adjectives and nominal verb phrases

11.6 Particles

Chapter 12

Conjunctions and conjunctive constructions

This chapter uses some abbreviations to stand in for different clauses:

FIN	finite clause (contains a finite verb)
COM	nonfinite clause declined to the comitative case
DAT	nonfinite clause declined to the dative case
ACC	nonfinite clause declined to the accusative case
GEN	nonfinite clause declined to the genitive case

12.1   Coordinating constructions

Coordinating conjunctions and conjunctive constructions link two independent (finite) clauses. Coordination of clauses is uncommon in Eurasian, but it is sometimes done. Coordination of phrases without the use of any kind of coordination particle indicates two actions are done one after another, or otherwise close in time.

When the coordination particle *ye* is used to link the clauses, it indicates that the two actions are done at different times, and in a certain order, but the constraints on the time of the actions is gone, so they could have been done much farther away in time. Use of coordination this way is often used to recount or describe past events.

12.2   Coordination in conditional statements

While coordination is general is rare in the language, it is very often employed in conditional statements. In a conditional statement, the condition is marked by the conditional mood, and coordinated with another clause, either in the indicative or hypothetical mood. The indicative mood should be used if the action that will be done if the condition is met is obvious or dictated by logic, while the hypothetical mood should be used if that action is less obvious or unexpected, completely speculative or hypothetical.

12.3   Subordinating constructions

Subordinating conjunctions and conjunctive constructions link a dependent (nonfinite) clause to an independent (finite) clause or link two dependent. Dependent clauses are generally placed before the main clause.

12.3.1   'and' constructions

DAT *ga* FIN	DAT and FIN
DAT *in* FIN	DAT and FIN (partial)
DAT *pa* FIN	DAT while (contrast) FIN
DAT *ga* DAT *ga*	both DAT and DAT
COM *ga* FIN	COM and FIN (at the same time)
COM *in* FIN	COM and FIN (at the same time and partial)
COM *pa* FIN	COM while (contrast) FIN (at the same time)
DAT *ga* DAT *ga*	both DAT and DAT (at the same time)
COM FIN	COM and FIN
COM *dya* FIN	COM with FIN

12.3.2   'or' constructions

COM *sen* FIN	COM or FIN
COM *sen* COM *sen*	either COM or COM
COM *drat* FIN	COM whereas FIN

12.3.3   'because' constructions

DAT *ten* FIN	FIN because DAT
GEN *(som) tsanats ten* FIN	FIN because GEN (formal/literary)

12.3.4   'in order to' constructions

DAT *pre* FIN	FIN in order to DAT
GEN *(som) zuanats pre* FIN	FIN in order to GEN (formal/literary)

12.3.5   Time constructions

DAT *do* FIN	During/while DAT, FIN
GEN *kaitats do* FIN	During/while DAT, FIN (formal/literary)
GEN *mokaitats do* FIN	Before GEN, FIN
GEN *meikaitats do* FIN	After GEN, FIN
*mo*DAT* *do* FIN	Before DAT, FIN (colloquial)
*mei*DAT* *do* FIN	After DAT, FIN (colloquial)

* the verb of the dependent clause should be prefix with *mo/mei*.

12.3.6   'but' constructions

COM *suma* FIN	FIN, but COM
ACC *suma* FIN	FIN, but COM
DAT *suma* FIN	FIN, but DAT
ACC *tagod* FIN	ACC, but FIN
DAT *tagod* FIN	DAT, but FIN

12.4   Conjunctive adverbial phrases

These are equivalent to English words like 'however', 'therefore', 'still', etc. Theoretically, any adverb or adverbial phrase can be used as a conjunctive adverbial phrase. Like English, they are commonly placed at the beginning of a sentence, but may also be placed before a verb, like other adverbial phrases.

singka	however
mashe	although
sedznai	therefore
njeikats ten	therefore
njeikae zuanats ten	therefore (formal/literary)
donda	still
njeikae kyeno	despite that
nung	furthermore, additionally
damibodu	generally, originally
yepa	however, but
dal	first, initially
moti	then, next
yuang	also, additionally
kyenosa pa	despite that, however

Chapter 13

Specific semantic functions and constructions

13.1 Source

Indicating the source of information or a proposition should be done with the dative case and the particle *dom* (from).

13.2 Instrumental

The instrumental particle *dang* is used with the accusative case to indicate what an event is done using. *dang* can thus be translated as 'using' or 'with'.

(140) udabon   dang dasen   tari
       key.M.ACC INS   door.F.ACC open.1.M
       'I open/am opening the door using a key.'

13.3 Comitative

Eurasian has a specific case to express a comitative relationship or accompaniment. By itself, this case can either mean 'and' or 'with', depending on context.

13.4 Composition

The particle *e* is used with the genitive case to express a compositive relationship. In such a relationship, the modified noun consists or is made of the modifying noun.

(141) mikeo   e   djesko
       wood.F.GEN composition desk.M
       'Wooden desk/desk made out of wood.'

13.5 Purpose

13.6 Cause

To express cause or reason for an action, like the English word 'because', the postpositional particle *ten* is used. *ten* expresses abstract motion from, i.e. cause and effect. To use it with

verbs, the reason or cause is nominalized and declined to the dative case, followed by the particle.

(142) nulei   ksakats   ten   anumen   puttaketas
       rain.F.NOM fall.N.DAT cause event.F.ACC cancel.PST.IND

       'The event was canceled because of the rain falling.'

It can also be used on nouns other than action nouns. Like the previous construction, the dative case is used. This is the equivalent of 'because of' in English.

(143) nulets   ten   anumen   puttaketas
       rain.F.DAT cause event.F.ACC canceled.PST.IND

       'The event was canceled because of the rain.'

13.7   Function

13.8   Benefactive

In a benefactive statement, an action is done for the benefit of someone. This is marked in English with the word 'for'. In Eurasian, the action done for the benefit of someone must be nominalized, declined to the accusative case and made the direct object of the verb *gul* (give). *gul* must be prefixed with either *zao-* (up) or *li-* (down). *zao-* is used if the person the action is done for the benefit of is of a higher or equal status to the subject. *li-* is used if the person the action is done for the benefit of is of a lower status to the subject. It is thus often used to indicate an undertaking by a superior. Finally, the person the action is done for the benefit of is marked by the dative case and made the indirect object of *ligul/zaogul*.

(144) sati   idokots   nantsaikon   dokan   zaogulaketas
       1S.M.NOM friend.M.DAT breakfast.M.ACC buy.N.ACC up.give.PST.IND.POL

       'I bought breakfast for my friend.'

In fast or informal speech, the main verb and *gul* may be serialized. Since *zao-* and *li-* are prefixes, they should be placed before the resulting compound (before the main verb), and not in the middle (before *gul*).

(145) sati   idokots   nantsaikon   zaodoggulaketas
       1S.M.NOM friend.M.DAT breakfast.M.ACC up.buy.give.PST.IND.POL

       'I bought breakfast for my friend.'

13.9   Essive

The essive particle *ma* is used with the accusative case to express an essive relationship. It translates to 'as', 'in place of' or 'instead of'.

(146) gjekon   ma
       child.M.ACC essive

       'as a child'

13.10   Translative

A translative relationship describes a change from one state to another. This can usually be done with the particle *pre*.

13.11   Value

One way to express the value of an object is using the verb *henak* (worth or valued at).

(147)   tjepei   yuto kindolan   hjengkitas
        book.F.NOM this   ten.dollar.ACC worth.IND.POL

        'This book costs/is worth ten dollars.'

henak and some value can be nominalized and declined to the genitive case to modify a certain item and indicate that it is worth that amount.

(148)   nolai   kindolan   hjengkae   som   tjepen   tai
        that.N.NOM ten.dollar.ACC worth.N.GEN apposition book.F.ACC is

        'That is a ten dollar book.'

In colloquial language, the verb may be omitted, and the value declined to the genitive case instead.

(149)   nolai   kindolae   som   tjepen   tai
        that.N.NOM ten.dollar.GEN apposition book.F.ACC is

        'That is a ten dollar book.'

13.12   Concessive

13.13   Distance/Extent

13.14   Inclusion

'Including' or 'excluding' can be done using the verb *rod* (to include/join). In such a construction, the noun being included is declined to either the accusative or the genitive case. To form an adverbial from this, the verb is either declined to the accusative case with the particle *dya* or the comitative case, optionally with the particle *dya*.

(150)   satu   rodasa   dya
        1S.M.GEN include.N.COM with

        'including me' (lit. 'with my inclusion')

To negate the construction, the verb is negated with the auxiliary verb *sal* (is/does/has not).

(151)   satu   rodsalasa   dya
        1S.M.GEN include.negative.N.COM with

        'excluding me' (lit. 'with my exclusion')

13.15   Mathematical operations

13.16   Time

13.16.1   Punctual time

Punctual time indicates after what amount of time will an action occur. A punctual construction can be formed by specifying the amount of time, the unit of time, applying the preffix *mei* (after) or *mo* (before), declining this to the dative case and applying the postpositional particle *do*, which marks time. The construction's verb may either be in the past or future tense.

(152)   meikimpots   do onaimesache
        after.ten.minute.M.DAT at come.1.F.FUT

        'I will come in ten minutes.'

(153)   mokimpots   do onaimesake
        before.ten.minute.M.DAT at come.1.F.PST

        'I came ten minutes ago.'

13.16.2   Duration

Duration indicates for how long an action is done or lasts. A durative construction can be formed by specifying the amount of time, the unit of time, declining this to the dative case and applying the postpositional particle *do*, which marks time.

(154)   sati   tsapots   do mjekake
        1S.M.NOM five.minute.M.DAT at run.PST

        'I ran for five minutes.'

13.16.3   Point in period

Chapter 14

Register

Register (*zute* - 'style' or *pag'zute* - 'speaking style') in Eurasian has to do with the style of speaking chosen by the speaker depending on social status, situation or setting, as well as that of their listeners. It may effect things such as pronouns, noun declensions, verb conjugations and entire words.

The registers vary greatly in formality and politeness. Below it is shown the hierarchy of registers, from most formal to least formal, and each register's native name. The literary register (*genteb'zute*), however, is not shown below in the hierarchy, because it indicates impersonal or informational language, rather than formal language.

- Formal (*swatopaka*) and Spoken literary (*pakaragenteb'zute*)

- Informal-formal mix or Common Formal (*dage'swatopaka*)

- Absolute neutral (*yoigenzute* or *genzute*)

- Informal (*dagezute*)

14.1   Informal

The formal register is used in informal or casual situations.

14.2   Formal

The formal register is used in formal situations or settings. Often casual conversations will start in the formal register and decay to a lower register over time. This register makes use of the formal case suffixes and verb endings.

14.3   Literary

The literary or impersonal register is the most neutral register. It is rarely used in spoken language, hence the name. It is highly formal, yet fast and informational. This register is used in informational texts, such as textbooks or newspapers. The literary register uses the common case suffixes, including the extended dative cases. It also uses the same verb endings as the informal register, except for the mood endings, which have special literary forms.

14.4   Medial/hybrid registers

A speaker does not have to use inflections or features of only a single register. They are permitted to used features or two or even three different registers. Doing this forms medial or hybrid registers.

14.4.1   Informal-formal mix

This register is commonly found during the decay of a conversation from the formal register to the informal register. In this register, the common noun endings are used while the formal verb endings are used. Often a formal choice of vocabulary is maintained.

14.4.2   Absolute neutral

This register uses common endings for both nouns and verbs, except for indicative and conditional suffixes. It is the most neutral register and can be used in almost any situation, thus making it useful to the novice speaker. For the indicative mood, the suffix *-tas/-itas* is almost always used. The use of formal pronouns should be maintained.

14.4.3   Spoken literary

This register, a combination of the literary and formal registers, is the most similar to a spoken form of the literary register, with the exception of direct recitation of it. It is most commonly used for information to be conveyed in a one-way, uninterrupted stream, such as speeches, lectures and journalistic things such as newscasts. As for written forms of it, a general rule is that if something informational is written with the intention of it being spoken as a primary means of transmitting the information (such as a speech, lecture, etc.), then this register should be used.

Because it is to be actually spoken, the formal register's case suffixes a verb conjugations (with the exception of mood) are used, often with honorifics. The literary register's mood suffixes should be used. Choice of words should lean towards the literary side, however, and, like the literary register, the extended dative cases should be used, and the vocative is replaced with a strict topic marker.

14.5   Colloquial registers

14.6   Quick speech

While speakers are permitted in any register to speak as fast as they wish, the lower registers employ several techniques to allow faster speech.

Chapter 15

Word formation

15.1 Nominal derivational morphology

These affixes are attached to nouns. Many of them are also found attached to verbs and adjectives.

15.1.1 Prefixes

ni- and *me-*

The suffixes *ni-* and *me-* indicates that the marked noun in some way relates to a second or third person. It is not possessive and should not be used as such. It indicates that something is specific of or related to a second or third person. *ni-* is used when such a referent is male, and *me-* when they are female.

(155)   nidhznum   maddei
      you.health.M.NOM good.Q

      'How are you?' (lit. 'Is your health good?')

so- and *si-*

These two prefixes are placed before nouns to indicate that they are specific of or otherwise related to someone of a higher status. They are the honorific forms of *ni-* and *me-*. Depending on the context, they could mean either 'your', 'his', 'her' or 'their'. *so-* is used with a male referent and *si-* is used with a female referent.

(156)   sodzhanos   madizidei
      you.HON.health.M.NOM good.N1.M.HON.Q

      'How are you?' (said to a superior, lit. 'Is your health good?')

na-

The prefix *na-* indicates motion out from or away from. Because it indicates motion from, it is commonly used with *dom* or *ten* attached as postpositional particles.

(157)   napayots   dom
      out.city.M.DAT from

      'Out from the city'

kru-

The prefix *kru-* indicates motion onto or into. It is thus commonly used with *me* or *pre* (or *chap* in the accusative case) attached as postpositional particles.

(158) krupayots   me
       into.city.M.DAT to
       'Into the city'

nai-

The prefix *nai-* means 'each', 'every' or 'all'.

   mat (day) + *nai-*   *naimat* (everyday, daily)
   po (second) + *nai-*   *naipo* (every second, by the second)

15.1.2 Suffixes

15.2 Verbal derivational morphology

These affixes are attached to verbs. Many of them are also found attached to nouns and adjectives.

15.2.1 Prefixes

o-

The prefix *o-* indicates that an action is intended in the direction of the listener or addressee. It can sometimes be used in place of an oblique indicating direction.

(159) sati   onaiti
       1S.M.NOM you.come.1.M
       'I come. (to you)'

(160) odaptes
       you.indebt.1.F
       'Thank you.' (lit. 'I'm in debt to you.')

ga-

The prefix *ga-* indicates an action is done thoroughly, intensely or deeply.

   hat (see) + *ga-*   *gahat* - stare, glare, inspect

When used with *yeido*, it can act as an intensifier and greatly increase the degree of the adjective.

(161) kagai   gakulitas
       thing.N.NOM intense.blue.IND.POL
       'The items are an intense shade of blue.'

shu-

The prefix *shu-* indicates an action happens for a very long time and is very intense

be-

The prefix *be-* indicates an action happens for a while; a medium to long amount of time.

na-

The prefix *na-* indicates an action is done in an outwards or 'away from' direction.

syat (travel by rail) + *na-*	*nasyat* - depart by rail
ton (send) + *na-*	*naton* - send out, message, communicate with
tara (pull, grab, take) + *na-*	*natara* - pull out, take out, remove

zhai-

The prefix *zhai-* indicates an action is done completely to an object.

yo-

The prefix *yo-* indicates an action is done past, beside, bypassing or around something.

do-

The prefix *do-* indicates decay to a lower, broken, smaller or devastated state.

no-

The prefix *no-* indicates the undoing, cessation, etc. of an action. It is similar to 'dis' or 'un' in English.

bai-

The prefix *bai-* indicates motion inwards, encircling, contracting or shrinking or a state of simplification.

tra-

The prefix *tra-* indicates a repeated or reoccurring action, or an action that is either completed, tried or failed multiple times.

kyo-

The prefix *kyo-* indicates an action is redone or done over, but not retried, as in the retrying of an action that previously was tried and failed.

nad (do/make) + *kyo-*	*kyonad* (redo/remake)

15.2.2   Suffixes

-ke

The suffix *-ke* carries grammatical aspect related to differentiation between actions completed once and actions done ongoing after the first action has been completed. It is used to form a large number of derived verbs.

len (learn) + *-ke*	*lengke* (know)
dok (buy) + *-ke*	*dokke* (own)
men (meet) + *-ke*	*mengke* (know a person)

15.3   Adjectival derivational morphology

These affixes are attached to adjectives.

15.3.1   Prefixes

15.3.2   Suffixes

-awa/-tawa

The suffix *-awa/-tawa* when attached to adjectives turn the adjective into a verb that means to become or be that adjective.

Chapter 16

Usage

16.1 Phrases

Note that many phrases have different forms depending on the gender of the speaking. Such will be listed with two entries, separated by a slash. The first entry is the masculine form and the second entry the feminine form.

16.1.1 Greetings

kantiyadamo/kantetyadamo	Hello - general, formal (lit. 'I greet')
kanti/kantes	Hi - short, informal
sanukantiyadamo/sanukantetyadamo	Hello - honorific (lit. 'I greet with reverence')
nidzhanum maddei/medzhanum maddei	How are you? - general, formal (lit. 'Is your health good?')
nidzhani madto/medzhani madto	How are you? - short, informal
sodzhanos madizidei/sidzhanos madizidei	How are you? - honorific

16.1.2 Farewells

16.1.3 Gratitude

odaptiyadamo/odaptetyadamo	Thank you - general, formal (lit. 'I'm in debt to you.')
odapti/odaptes	Thanks - short, informal
otasidaptiyadamo/otasidaptetyadamo	Thank you very much - general, formal
otasidapti/otasidaptes	Thank you very much - short, informal
onobodaptiyadamo/onobodaptetyadamo	Thank you very much - general, formal
onobodapti/onobodaptes	Thank you very much - short, informal
genzutets mi pakpretan saonas	You're too kind/polite. (lit. 'No need to speak in *genzute*')

16.1.4 Blessings

16.1.5 Regret/sorry

16.2 Commands

16.3 Requests

The verb *kesit* is used to issue formal requests. In these, the verb is conjugated with a conditional suffix, and the condition that determines the validity of a statement or proposition is determined by the will, intent, desire or permissiveness of the listener. A simple request construction can be formed by coordinating a conditional clause with another clause.

16.4   Permission

16.5   Interjections

16.6   Questions

16.6.1   Yes-No Questions

16.6.2   Responses

16.7   Colloquial language

16.8   Vulgar language

16.8.1   Pejoratives

16.9   Idioms

Chapter 17

Selected Lexicon

17.1 Kinship terms

pajengko	father
haengke	mother
beipajengko	grandfather
beihaengke	grandmother
baba/papa	father, dad
haha/mama	mother, mom
sotengko	older brother
sotko	younger brother
nyetengke	older sister
nyetke	younger sister

17.2 People/groups

hapako/hapake	Eurasian/Hapa person
yurashieko/yurashieke	Eurasian/Hapa person
pabiko/pabike	White/European person
yuroko/yuroke	White/European person
ashieko/ashieke	Asian person
yurobaiashiehaeko/e	WMAF Hapa
yurobaihapako/e	WMAF Hapa
ashiebaiyurohaeko/e	AMWF Hapa
ashiebaihapako/e	AMWF Hapa
hapabaihapahajiko/e	HMHF Hapa
hapabajihapako/e	HMHF Hapa
yoniko/yonike	Black person
latino/latine	Hispanic

17.3 Time words

meimat/naimat	yesterday
momat/deomat	tomorrow

17.4 Countries/regions

amerikawake/amerike	America (United States)
pozhdas'wake	United States
amerikapozhdas'wake	United States of America
kanadawake/kanade	Canada
yuropa	Europe
pozhdaskaiwake	United Kingdom
enggodoje	England
doidzhdoje	Germany
astrie	Austria
demmake	Denmark
pranse/prans'wake	France
swerige/swerigekaiwake	Sweden
italie/italiwake	Italy
ruse/rus'wake	Russia
saobie	Serbia
supeine	Spain
ashie	Asia
dzhong'wake	China (mainland)
taiwane	Taiwan
hangguke/hangguk'wake	Korea (south)
nihone/nihon'wake	Japan
taidoje	Thailand
malaidoje/malaiwake	Malaysia
indonisye/indonisyewake	Indonesia
pilipine/pilipin'wake	Philippines
singgapore	Singapore
hongkonge	Hong Kong
astralie	Australia