# A Comprehensive Diachronic Grammar of Modern ULTRAFRENCH 

## Ŷrávér Réy'ác'hraúníc'hâ Rzaúsdâ Át'hebhaú Raúl

Ætérnal, Annwan, Agma Schwa

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## 1 Phonology and Evolution from Modern Pseudo-French

|  | Labial | Coronal | Palatal | Velar | Glottal |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Stop | $\mathrm{b}, \mathrm{b}^{\text {f }}$ | d |  |  |  |
| Nasal |  | n |  |  |  |
| Fricative | $\phi \beta, \tilde{v}$ | sz, ө才 | 6 z, (ç) | x | h |
| Fric. (b-coloured) | $\beta^{\text {b }}$ | $\mathrm{s}^{\mathrm{K}} \mathrm{Z}^{\mathrm{K}}, \tilde{\mathrm{h}}^{\text {b }}$ | $6^{5} Z^{\text {b }}$ |  |  |
| Trill |  |  |  | R |  |
| Approximant |  |  | ч ${ }_{\text {u }}$, j | щ ${ }_{\underline{4}}$ |  |
| Lateral Fricative |  | $\tilde{\mathrm{B}}$ | ก |  |  |


|  | Front | Back |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Close | i 1 ũĩiy ${ }^{\text {y }}$ | u ũ u u |
| Near-close | $\tilde{\mathrm{Y}} \tilde{\tilde{\mathrm{Y}}}$ |  |
| Close-mid | e ẽ $\tilde{\text { ẽ e }}$ e $^{\text {e }}$ | O 0 |
| Mid | ә ${ }^{\text {a }}$ |  |
| Open-mid | $\varepsilon \tilde{\varepsilon} \tilde{\tilde{\varepsilon}}$ | ว $\tilde{\text { on }}$ |
| Near-open | ¢ |  |
| Open |  | a $\tilde{\tilde{a}}$ |

## Legend

$\tilde{\mathrm{V}}=$ nasalised vowel, $\tilde{\tilde{\mathrm{V}}}=$ nasal vowel, $\mathrm{V}=$ any vowel (or, in conjunction with $\tilde{\mathrm{V}} / \tilde{\tilde{\mathrm{V}}}$, oral vowel)
$\mathrm{N}=$ nasal consonant, $\tilde{\mathrm{C}}=$ nasalised consonant (e.g. / $\tilde{\mathrm{u}} /$, but not true nasals), $\mathrm{C}=$ any consonant.

## Preliminary Changes

1. $\mathrm{g}, \mathrm{w}>\mathrm{U}\langle\mathrm{r}\rangle$
2. $๓, \tilde{\propto}, \varnothing>y, \tilde{\mathrm{Y}}, \tilde{\mathrm{Y}}$
3. $\rho>0$
4. $u>v / \_o$
5. $y>j / \_(\#) V$
6. $V_{\alpha}>\emptyset / \_\# V_{\alpha}$
7. $\mathrm{lj}, \mathrm{l} \varphi>K$
8. $\mathrm{j}>\mathrm{\varphi}\left\langle\mathrm{y}^{\prime}\right\rangle$
9. $\mathrm{u}_{\mathrm{L}}>\mathrm{\varphi} /$ _i
10. кь $>\mathrm{R}$

11. $\mathrm{vb}>\mathrm{v}^{\mathrm{s}}$
12. $\mathrm{E}>$ Ч
13. $\mathrm{C}>\emptyset /$ \#_C
14. C $>\emptyset /$ C_\#
15. $\mathrm{k}>\mathrm{x}\langle\mathrm{c} h\rangle$
16. $\int, \int^{\text {b }}, 3,3^{\text {b }}>6,6^{\text {b }}, 7,7^{\text {b }}$
17. nt $>\mathrm{n} \theta$
18. $\mathrm{t}>\mathrm{d}$ [d] ('hard /d/')
19. $\mathrm{p}>\mathrm{b}$ [b] ('hard /b/')
20. f, v, vs $\rangle \phi\langle f\rangle, \beta\left\langle b^{\prime} h\right\rangle, \beta^{\mathrm{s}}\left\langle\hat{v}^{\prime}\right\rangle$

Great Nasal Shift
22. $\tilde{V} l>\tilde{u}_{\tilde{j}}\langle w\rangle$
23. $V>\tilde{\tilde{V}} /[N \tilde{C} \varphi \underline{Y}] \_N \#$

25. $\tilde{\partial}, \tilde{\tilde{a}}, \tilde{a}, \tilde{\tilde{a}}, \tilde{o}, \tilde{\tilde{o}}>\tilde{\varepsilon}, \tilde{\tilde{\varepsilon}}, \tilde{a}, \tilde{\tilde{a}}, \tilde{د}, \tilde{\tilde{j}}$
26. N, $\tilde{C}>\emptyset / V \_\#$
27. $\mathrm{n}, \mathrm{y}>\mathrm{n}$
28. $\mathrm{V}, \tilde{\mathrm{V}}>\emptyset / \mathrm{N}_{-} \mathrm{N}$
29. $\mathrm{m}, \mathrm{l}, \mathrm{K}\rangle \tilde{\mathrm{v}}\langle\mathrm{v}\rangle, \tilde{\mathrm{S}}\langle\mathrm{l}\rangle, \tilde{\mathrm{I}}\langle\mathrm{l}\rangle$
30. $\tilde{\mathrm{B}} \underset{\mathrm{G}}{ }, \mathrm{u} \tilde{\mathrm{B}}>\tilde{\mathfrak{G}}^{\mathrm{E}}\langle\mathrm{l}\rangle$

Intervocalic Lenition (/ V_V is implied)
31. $\mathrm{x}, \mathrm{s}, \mathrm{z}>\mathrm{h}$
32. $\left.\epsilon, \tilde{B_{3}}, \tilde{\Gamma}\right\rangle j\langle\dot{j}\rangle, \tilde{Y}, \tilde{u}$
33. $\mathrm{n} \theta>\mathrm{n}$
34. d, ḍ, b, ḅ $>\partial\left\langle\mathrm{d}^{\prime} \mathrm{h}\right\rangle, \theta\langle\mathrm{t} h\rangle, \beta, \mathrm{b}^{\mathrm{f}}\langle\mathrm{bh}\rangle$
35. $\phi>\beta /$ V_V $_{-}$

## Late Changes

36. $\mathrm{C}[+$ stop, -alveolar $] \mathrm{C}_{\alpha}>\mathrm{C}_{\alpha}$
37. $\mathrm{C}[+$ stop $] \mathrm{C}_{\alpha}[+$ stop $]>\mathrm{C}_{\alpha}$
38. $\mathrm{h}>\emptyset / \mathrm{hV}$
39. ә>ض / C_C
40. V[-nasalised, -nasal] > จ / _\#

### 1.1 Pronunciation, Allophony, and Stress

There is not a lot of allophony in UF, save that $/ \mathrm{x} / \mathrm{is}$ realised as $[\chi]$ around back vowels and [ 6 ] elsewhere, e.g. c'húr /xũu्q/ 'to shrink' is pronounced [ $\chi \tilde{\mathrm{u}} \cdot \mathrm{y}]$. Furthermore, /h/ is [ç] before variants of /i/ and $/ \mathrm{y} /$, and [h] elsewhere.

The vast majority PF words are stressed on the last syllable of the root, e.g. ad'hór 'to love' /a'ð̃̌u/, but b'had'hóré 'you (PL) love'/ßa'ð̃.uч $\tilde{\varepsilon} /$. The stress is not indicated in writing, neither in actual texts,
nor in this grammar or in dictionaries. The main exception to this are names, which are generally stressed on the first syllable, and receive secondary stress on the last syllable, ${ }^{1}$ e.g. Daúvnic'h /'dõ̃̃nĩx/.

The only exception to this rule are certain particles and irregular verbs, some of which have irregular stress; for instance, the forms of ed 'to be' are all stressed on the first syllable. Any such words that deviate from the norm will be pointed out in this grammar and in dictionaries.

Oral vowels before the stressed syllable are often somewhat muted or reduced, albeit still audible, and stressed vowels are lengthened if they are nasalised, e.g. the pronunciation of ad'hór, which we just transcribed as /a'ðֹ̃uq/, is actually closer to [ $\left.\underline{\rho}^{\prime} \not \partial \tilde{\jmath} \cdot \underline{\Psi}\right]$. Word-final voiceless $e$ is always / $\partial /$. Finally, non-back vowels that are followed by / $\mathrm{u} /$ or $/ \tilde{\mathrm{u}} /$ are retracted, e.g. y'ẹré, the future stem of $y$ 'ẹ 'forbid', is phonemically / чẽ'чฯẽ/, but pronounced [ч'̃'ччẽ].

Oral vowels have a nasalised and nasal counterpart. /i/ and /u/ do not vary in quality when nasalised. /a/ is normally $[\mathfrak{e}]$, but becomes [a] when nasalised or nasal. Similarly, /e/ becomes $[\varepsilon], / \mathrm{y} /$ becomes [ y$]$, and /o/ becomes [ $\mathrm{\rho}]$. Note that nasalised [ẽ] exists, but it's rare. The quality never changes when going from nasalised to nasal. The schwa has no nasal(lised) counterpart. Lastly, oral vowel also have voiceless counterparts, whose quality is the same as that of the base vowel.

The difference between nasalised vowels and nasal vowels is that the former are merely coarticulated with nasalisation, whereas the latter are completely and utterly in the nose-no air escapes through the mouth when a nasal vowel is articulated, and all the air flows just through the nose. Middle UF and some modern dialects also distinguish between sinistral and dextral nasal vowels, ${ }^{2}$ but this distinction is no longer present in the modern standard language.

Initial $/ \mathrm{u}^{\mathrm{q}} /$ is sometimes elided after words that end with / $\mathrm{u} /$.

### 1.2 Orthography

The spelling of most UF sounds is indicated above; the less exotic consonants are spelt as one might expect. In addition, UF employs a variety of diacritics-though some only in grammatical material-to differentiate its many sounds with an otherwise unsatisfactory array of symbols.

### 1.2.1 Consonants

As one might expect, /b, d, $\mathrm{n}, \phi, \mathrm{s}, \mathrm{z}, \mathrm{h} /$ are spelt $\langle\mathrm{b}, \mathrm{d}, \mathrm{n}, \mathrm{f}, \mathrm{s}, \mathrm{z}, \mathrm{h}\rangle$, respectively.
Several fricatives are spelt with an apostrophe followed by a $\langle\mathrm{h}\rangle$, viz. $/ \mathrm{x} /\langle\mathrm{c} \mathrm{h}\rangle, / \theta /\langle\mathrm{t} \mathrm{h}\rangle, / \mathrm{\partial} /\langle\mathrm{d}$ 'h $\rangle$, and $/ \beta /\langle\mathrm{b} h\rangle$. Apostrophes are also often used to mark shortened forms, e.g. t'hé, the optative negation particle, is shortened to $t$ ' $h$ ' before vowels.

Conventional letters are used for rather unconventional sounds, mostly for diachronic reasons: /l/ does not exist in UF, so $\langle\mathrm{l}\rangle$ is either $/ \tilde{\mathrm{S}} /$ or $/ \tilde{\mathbb{K}} /,\langle\mathrm{v}\rangle$ is $/ \tilde{\mathrm{v}} /,\langle\mathrm{j}\rangle$ is $/ \mathrm{z} /,\langle\mathrm{c}\rangle$ is $/ \sigma /,\langle\mathrm{r}\rangle$ is $/ \mathrm{uq} /,\langle\mathrm{w}\rangle$ is $/ \tilde{\mathrm{u}} /$. The vowel $/ \mathrm{y} /$ is spelt $\langle\mathrm{y}\rangle$, and its consonantal equivalent $/ \mathrm{\Psi} /$ as well as nasalised $/ \tilde{\mathrm{Y}} /$ are spelt with an
 respectively.

Double consonant letters indicate a lengthened consonant; these are rare, but they can occur in any position. The only exception to this is $\langle\mathrm{rr}\rangle$, which is not / ur $/$, but rather /r/. UF does not have phonemic vowel length (though recall that phonetic lengthening occurs in some situations), so a double vowel letter is always pronounced as two separate vowels.

### 1.2.2 $\quad$ Hard $b$ and $d$

The 'hard' voiced $b, d$ which are pronounced exactly like their regular counterparts, are normally also spelt $\langle\mathrm{b}\rangle$ and $\langle\mathrm{d}\rangle$. However, a dot below is commonly used in dictionaries and grammatical material to

[^0]distinguish between the two as they differ from one another in how they mutate.
In Early Modern UF (and Middle UF before it), such as in the writings of renowned poet and writer J. Y. B. Snet'h, $\underline{b}$ and $d$ sometimes retain their diachronic spellings of $\langle\mathrm{p}(\mathrm{h})\rangle$ and $\langle\mathrm{t}\rangle$-and $b h$ is sometimes spelt $\left\langle\mathrm{p}^{\prime} \mathrm{h}\right\rangle$ instead-though this is not consistent and often not applied word-internally or between vowels in general-even across multiple words-where these sounds were already voiced even at the time.

For instance, Snet'h commonly writes e.g. naut 'our' for naud, but e.g. labraúc 'they came up to' for labraúc, and not lapraúc or laphraúc, is found in the very same passage. This style is often imitated by writers who want to seem archaic, but failing to understand the pronunciation of the time, they tend to use $\langle\mathrm{t}\rangle$ and $\langle\mathrm{p}(\mathrm{h})\rangle$ everywhere, even word-internally.

### 1.2.3 Vowels

The vowels are mostly spelt as one might expect; nasalised vowels are indicated by an acute, and nasal vowels by a circumflex. The variants of $/ \mathrm{i}, \mathrm{y}, \mathrm{u}, \mathrm{a}, \mathrm{e} /$ are spelt with $\langle\mathrm{i}, \mathrm{y}, \mathrm{u}, \mathrm{a}, \mathrm{e}\rangle$ as their base letters. Nasal /ẽ/ and / $\tilde{\tilde{e}} /$ as well as Schwa are indicated by adding a dot below the $\langle e\rangle$ in grammars and dictionaries only; the vowel /o/ is spelt $\langle\mathrm{au}\rangle$ or $\langle\mathrm{o}\rangle$ for diachronic reasons; ${ }^{3}$ in the case of $\langle\mathrm{au}\rangle$, the acute and circumflex are added to the $\langle\mathrm{u}\rangle$. The diphthong /au/ is spelt $\langle a \mathrm{u}\rangle\rangle$, $\langle\mathrm{aü}\rangle$, or with accents on both vowels. Oral $/ \varepsilon /$ is rare and is spelt $\langle\grave{e}\rangle$. Word-initially and word-finally, a grave indicates that the vowel is voiceless. Word-final voiceless / // is always voiceless. ${ }^{4}$

### 1.2.4 Dot Below

A dot below or above a letter is commonly to indicate a variety of different things, depending on the letter:

- a dot below in $\underset{,}{\boldsymbol{d}} \underset{\operatorname{lin}}{ }$ indicates that they are the 'hard' variants of the letter, which are pronounced the same, but lenited differently;
- a dot below in $!$ indicates that it is palatal $/ \tilde{\Lambda} /$ instead of alveolar $/ \tilde{\zeta} /$;
- a dot below in e e indicates that it is a schwa;
- a dot below in $\grave{e}$ indicates that it is /e/f;
- a dot below nasalised é, ẹ indicates that they are /ẽ/, / $\tilde{\mathrm{e}} /$ instead of $/ \tilde{\varepsilon} /, / \tilde{\tilde{\varepsilon}} /$;
- a dot below in $c$ indicates that it is lenited $/ \mathrm{j} /$.

Thus, in non-grammatical writing, the following are indistinguishable:

- $l$ can be palatal $/ \tilde{K} /$ or alveolar $/ \tilde{\mathrm{B}} /$;
- e can be a schwa, or /e/;
- é, ê can be $/ \tilde{\varepsilon} /, \mid \tilde{\tilde{\varepsilon}} /$ or / $/ / /, / \tilde{\tilde{e}} /$;
- can be $/ 6 /$ or $/ \mathrm{j} /$.

[^1]
### 1.2.5 Other Punctuation Marks

Elided initial / $\mathrm{u} /$ is indicated by omitting the $r$ in writing and attaching the word to the previous one with a hyphen, e.g. -vá ‘alas'.

UF seldom uses hyphens to separate or join words and instead prefers to spell them as one word instead; an exception to this is that affixes that end with a vowel are typically separated from the word they are attached to with a hyphen if that word starts with (a variant of ) the same vowel. For example, the DEF NOM SG of el 'wing' is láel, but the plural is lé-el.

### 1.2.6 Lenition and Nasalisation

Certain morphological elements subject surrounding context to lenition or nasalisation. Nasalisation affects vowels, which become more nasal (that is, (voiceless) oral vowels become nasalised, and nasalised vowels become nasal; nasal vowels are unaffected), as well as $d$, which becomes $n$, unless it would directly be preceded by another $n$, in which case it is simply deleted.

Lenition is more complicated; it affects only consonants and causes a softening similar to what happened diachronically between vowels. All в-fricated consonants simply lose their ь-frication, and a number of other consonants are also affected by lenition (note the difference between $\underset{\sim}{\boldsymbol{p}} \underset{\sim}{d}$ and $b, d$ here):

| Consonant | $c^{\prime} h$ | $s$ | $z$ | $s w$ | $c$ | $b$ | $f$ | $b$ | $d$ | $d$ | $\dot{v}$ | $t$ | $\dot{s}$ | $\dot{c}$ | $j$ | $z$ |
| :--- | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Lenited |  | $h$ |  | $z$ | $c$ | $b$ | $b$ |  | $b h$ | $d ' h$ | $t^{\prime} h$ | $v$ | $l$ | $s$ | $c$ | $j$ |

Table 1: Consonants Affected by Lenition

Note that double consonants are typically unaffected by morphological lenition, e.g. dír 'to say', whose subjunctive stem is díss, forms aúdíssâ (rougly 'we should have said'), not *aúdíhhâ.

### 1.2.7 Glossing

To simplify glosses, cases are assumed to be definite and singular unless otherwise stated, and verb forms are assumed to be indicative, present tense, and active, unless otherwise stated.

### 1.3 Diachrony and Derivation

The PF infinitive endings (-ir etc.) became progressively more vestigial in Middle UF and were eventually often dropped completely in derivation, e.g. audé 'obtain' from earlier *auḅdénír, later resulting in a need for new infinitive affixes to be formed to distinguish infinitives from the base form, thus giving rise to e.g. daudé 'to obtain'.

The suffix $-t$ 'he, FUT -de, SUBJ - $t$ 'hes, is a productive derivational suffix that can be used to turn a noun ' X ' into a verb that roughly means 'to use X ', e.g. ac 'axe' $\rightarrow$ act'he 'to cut with an axe'.

## 2 Accidence

### 2.1 Noun Morphology

UF has 2 declensions. A definite declension and an indefinite declension. UF has no morphologically separate articles; rather, the old PF articles have been incorporated into the declensions. Furthermore, UF no longer has a gender distinction in nouns.

### 2.1.1 Declension

The table below shows the most common cases of the definite and indefinite declensions. UF pretty much has no adpositions and instead uses cases instead.

Many of the case prefixes cause lenition in the initial consonant of the noun, e.g. dale 'table' to DEF ACC SG s'thale; this lenition is blocked in the indef acc pl due to the presence of a hypercorrected ' $s$ ' in PF ces, e.g. s'dale 'the tables (ACC)' (not s'thale, which is the singular), as well as in less commonly used forms such as the def iness dwádale 'on the table'.

| Definite | Sg | Pl | Indefinite | Sg | Pl |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Absolutive | $\emptyset$ | l- | Absolutive | $\emptyset-N$ | $\emptyset$ - ${ }^{\text {L }}$ |
| Nominative | lá- ${ }^{L}$ | $l e ́-L$ | Nominative | $\hat{y} n{ }^{N}$ | $y^{-L}$ |
| Vocative | $\emptyset-{ }^{L}$ | $\emptyset-{ }^{N}$ | Vocative | $/$ | / |
| Partitive | $d y-{ }^{L}$ | $d e^{-L}$ | Partitive | $d \hat{y} n^{-N}$ | $d \underline{-}{ }^{L}$ |
| Accusative | $i-{ }^{\text {L }}$ | $s y^{-}{ }^{L}$ | Accusative | $s{ }^{-}$ | $s$ - |
| Genitive | á- $^{L}$ | $a b h{ }^{L}$ | Genitive | sý- ${ }^{N}$ | $s y^{-}{ }^{L}$ |
| Dative | $a s^{L}$ | $a-{ }^{\text {L }}$ | Dative | $a n^{N}$ | $a n^{L}$ |
| Essive | báá- | báa- | Essive | bárýn- | beárý- |
| Abessive | sá- ${ }^{L}$ | sá- ${ }^{N}$ | Abessive | sáhýn- | sáhý- |
| Elative | órd- | aúr- | Elative | órdŷn- | aúry- |
| Inessive | dwá- | dwé- | Inessive | dáhŷn- | dáhy- |
| Illative | ádá- | ádé- | Illative | ádŷn- | ád ${ }^{\text {y }}$ |
| Ablative | rê(d)- | rês- | Ablative | rêdýn- | rêdý- |
| Allative | b'hé- ${ }^{L}$ | b'hér- | Allative | b'hyn- ${ }^{\text {N }}$ | $b$ 'hy ${ }^{-L}$ |
| Interessive | aḍá- | adẹé | Interessive | adŷn- | $a d \hat{y}$ - |
| Superessive | sýr- | de( $h)^{-L}$ | Superessive | dẹhýn- | s $y^{\prime} \hat{y}$ - |
| Considerative | stá- | sté- | Considerative | sy'óýn- | sfóó- |
| Instrumental | b'hel- | b'he- | Instrumental | b'he(hý)(n)- | b'heh- |

Table 2: UF Declension.
The table below shows the paradigm of dale 'table' in its definite and indefinite forms; this, of course, is a rather extreme example, as the initial $d$ means that it is subject to both lenition and nasalisation.

| Definite | Sg | Pl | Indefinite | Sg | Pl |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| solutive | dale | ldale | Absolutive | dalé | dale |
| Nominative | lát'hale | lét'hal | Nominative | ynale | ýt'hale |
| Vocative | t'hale | nale | Vocative | , | / |
| Partitive | dyt'hale | det'hale | Partitive | dŷnal | dýt'hale |
| Accusative | it'hale | syt'hale | Accusative | st'hale | sdale |
| Genitive | át'hale | abht'hale | Genitive | sýnale | sýt'hale |
| Dative | ast'hal | at'hale | Dative | anale | ant'hale |
| Essive | bátdale | báạale | Essiv | bárýndale | bárýdale |
| Abessive | sát'hale | sánale | Abessiv | sáhýndale | sáhýdale |
| Elative | órddale | aúrdale | Elative | órdŷndale | aúrŷdale |
| Inessive | dwádale | dwédale | Inessive | dáhŷndale | dáhŷdale |
| Illative | ádádalẹ | ádédale | Illative | ádŷndale | ádŷdale |
| Ablative | rêdale | rêsdale | Ablative | rêdýndale | rêdýdale |
| Allative | b'hét'hale | b'hérda | Allative | b'hynale | b'hýt'hale |
| Interess | adádale | adédale | In | adyndale | adŷdale |
| Superessive | sýrdale | dett'hale | Superessiv | dehýndale | sýrŷdale |
| Considerative | stádale | stédale | Considerative | sy'óyndale | sy'óýdale |
| Instrumental | b'heldale | b'hedale | Instrumental | b'hehýdale | b'hehdale |

Table 3: Paradigm of dale.

### 2.1.2 Absolutive

The absolutive case has two main uses: First, it is used for the predicate noun of predicative sentences, i.e. ' X ' in 'to be X ', e.g. Aúsó de ráhó 'We are all fish.'

Secondly, it turns nouns into modifier nouns, e.g. árdihyl lývy'ér 'light particle (as in, a particle of light)'. In this second use, the modifier is generally placed second, after the noun it modifies, though this is only mandatory if ambiguity would arise otherwise.

Lastly, the ABS SG is also used as the citation form of a noun.

### 2.1.3 Nominative

The nominative is one of the most common cases in UF and marks the subject of an active sentence, e.g. Seb'h dwáse láraúb'he 'The robot was here'. Apart from this, the nom isn't really used in UF.

The indef nom sg $\hat{y} n$ - prefix and some other forms nasalise nouns; as a reminder, this means that in nouns starting with $d$, the $d$ is deleted, e.g. $\hat{y} n a l e$ 'a table'; it causes nasalisation in words that start with a vowel e.g. ehyó 'shield' to $\hat{y} n e ́ h y o ́ ~ ' a ~ s h i e l d . ' ~ A s ~ l e n i t i o n, ~ n a s a l i s a t i o n ~ t o o ~ i s ~ b l o c k e d ~ i n ~ r a r e r ~ f o r m s, ~$ e.g. INDEF INESS dáhŷnḍalẹ on a table’.

### 2.1.4 Vocative

The vocative is a rare case that is used to address someone or something, e.g. C̣ár! 'O Charles!'. The vocative only occurs in the definite and usually with proper nouns. ${ }^{5}$ Note that the vocative is not marked by an affix, but rather by mutation only, e.g. C̣ár from Cár.

### 2.1.5 Accusative and Partitive

These two cases, while often different in meaning, are almost identical in grammatical purpose: Their main use is to mark the direct object of a verb. While some verbs, e.g. ub'hrá 'to be able to' always

[^2]take a PART, and others always take an ACC, the difference between the two, in most contexts, is one of semantics. There is hardly a grammatical construction that admits the ACC in which the part would be ungrammatical, and vice versa.

To elaborate, the ACC indicates that an action is being or has been performed in its entirety or to completion, e.g. jlí sliv́uhé 'I peruse a book' vs jlí dŷnliv́uhé 'I read (pres) from a book' or 'I am reading a book'. Consequently, PRES ANT forms, which are mainly perfective, generally take the ACC, e.g. jlié iliv́uhé 'I've read the book', whereas PRET forms, which are mainly imperfective, generally take the PART, e.g. jlía dyliv́uhé 'I was reading (from) the book'. As most conversations generally concern matters that are relevant to the present and thus still incomplete, the part ends up being the commoner of the two cases.

Both cases are also used to express a 'passive', as UF has no traditional morphological passive in that the so-called 'active' and 'passive' affixes are really 'agent' and 'patient' affixes. As such, a 'passive' form is construed by omitting the agent affix; the 'subject', if there is any, will then be in the ACC or PART, e.g. sylí dýliv́uhé the book is being read.

Lastly, the they are also used in a construction known as the $\mathrm{ACI} / \mathrm{PCI}$ (see § 3.6).

### 2.1.6 Genitive

The gen case is used to indicate possession or belonging. The possessor can precede or follow its possessee. Typically, the gen follow the possessee, but if the possessee is qualified with adjectives, then the adjectives must follow the possessee immediately, lest they end up qualify the genitive instead, and thus, the genitive is placed first.

### 2.1.7 Dative

The dat case is used to indicate the indirect object of some verbs, jdónélẹ 'I bestow upon him.' Note that some verbs, however, may govern a different case instead, such as the allative. Unlike most other cases, there actually is a dative affix (see § 2.5.2) that can be added to a verb in some cases.

Another use of the dative is to indicate a beneficiary or recipient in a more general sense, e.g. jsyfér asve 'I did it for me/us'.

### 2.1.8 Essive

The ess case is used to mean 'as X ' or 'in the form of X ' or 'in the role of X ', e.g. lett'hiy'e dyt'hale ḅárýny'éjúré 'he uses the table as a chair.

### 2.1.9 Abessive

The abess case means 'without', e.g. sá-árb 'without the tree'.

### 2.1.10 Locatives

The inessive, interessive, superessive, ablative, and allative are collectively called 'locatives' and indicate the position of an object or movement towards or away from an object, e.g. B'hét'hebhaú 'to France'.

The $d$ in the DEF ABL sG and is omitted if the noun starts with a consonant, e.g. rêdale 'from the table'; be careful especially with words that start with $s$, whose ABL SG is often mistaken for a plural, e.g. rêsol 'from the floor', but rêssol 'from the floors'.

The $h$ in the spre def pl is omitted if the following sound is a consonant, e.g. dẹárb 'above the trees' but det'hale 'above the tables'.

### 2.1.11 Considerative

The cons case is a bit of a weird on and can be translated as 'according to', or 'in the opinion of', and is used to express the opinion of the speaker or point out something as an opinion, belief, or hypothesis of someone or something.

### 2.1.12 Instrumental

The INSTR case is used to indicate the instrument or means using or by which an action is performed, e.g. b'heac 'with an axe'.

The $h y$ in the INDEF INSTR SG may be omitted arbitrarily, particularly in literary language; there isn't really any rule as to when this happens, but it is most common in words that start with a fricative. However, the $n$ is always retained if the hý is omitted, e.g. we have b'henc'hánár or sometimes b'hehýc'hánár 'by boat', but never *b'hehýnc'hánár or *b'hec'hánár.

The $n$ in the indef instr sG is omitted according to the same rules as the $d$ in the def abl sg.

### 2.1.13 Negation

Nouns, as well as proper adjectives and adverbs (i.e. those which are not formed from an adjective verb) are negated using the particle $a \hat{u}$, which may be separated from the noun by a hyphen for clarity, e.g. aûádróid or â̂-ádróid 'non-android'.

Improper adjectives and adverbs are negated just like any other verb.

### 2.1.14 Diachronic Comments

The diachrony of these forms is mostly from the PF definite and indefinite pronouns as well as from PF prepositions, though some forms, such as the accusative, are borrowed from demonstratives instead (DEF from PF celui and INDEF from PF PF ce); the definite partitive forms are from the PF partitive article, and the indefinite forms are formed with an additional $d$-by analogy to the definite forms. The locative cases are combinations of the articles and PF prepositions. The ablative is from PF loin de 'away from. The diachrony of the genitive singular is unclear.

### 2.2 Adjectives

UF does not have many actual adjectives. Most words in UF are either nouns or verbs, and most 'adjectives' are just participles, which can always be used like adjectives. Indeed, there are a lot of verbs whose meaning is something along the lines of 'to be X ', whose present participle behaves like the adjective ' X ' e. g. bẹt'he 'to be small' to beet'hâ 'small' (literally 'being small').

Adjectives generally-but not always-follow the noun they modify and are never inflected, e.g. át'hale bẹt'hâ 'of the small table'. There is no established order of adjectives.

### 2.2.1 Adverbs

Adverbs are formed from adjectives in one of two ways. For adjectives that are not adjective verbs, (é) $v a \hat{a}$ is added, e.g. c'haú 'holy' becomes c'haúvâ 'holily'; the $e$ is only present if the adjective ends with a consonant. Adjectives that are derived from adjective verbs instead replace the $-\hat{a}$ affix with -vâ, e.g. réá 'true' becomes révâ 'truly'. This form never inserts an $e$.

### 2.2.2 Comparison

Unlike in many other languages, there are 3 comparatives in UF: The affirming comparative, so called because it affirms the positive ('better, and also good'); the denying comparative, which denies the
positive ('better, but not good'), and the neutral comparative, which does not make any statement about the positive ('better').

To illustrate the difference between the three: We might say that an ant is 'bigger' than a grain of sand, but an ant is still not big, all things considered. By contrast, an elephant may be 'smaller' than a mountain, but that doesn't mean that an elephant is small.

In UF, the comparatives are expressed by three infixes, which are prefixed directly to the stem. The affirming comparative prefix is $l e$, the denying comparative prefix is $y$ y $\hat{y}$, and the neutral comparative prefix is rê. Thus, we have beẹt'hâ 'small', lẹẹet'hâ 'smaller, and also small', y' $\hat{y} b \underline{e ̣ t}$ 'hâ 'smaller, but not small', and rêbẹt'hâ 'smaller.'

The comparative prefixes can also be applied to verbs, though they usually only make sense for the aforementioned 'adjective verbs', e.g. jy'ŷbet'he 'I am smaller, but still big. Note that these prefixes might cause a verb's forms to change from vocalic to consonantal, e.g. ebhe 'to be thick' (future stem ebhrẹ) is vocalic náy'ebhraú 'we shall be thick' in the positive, but consonantal aúnraûy' $\hat{y} e b h r a \hat{u}$ 'we shall be thicker, but not thick' in the negative comparative.

The affirming comparative can also be used absolutely, with the meaning of 'to a large degree'. Thus, we have beet'hâ 'small', and lebẹt'hâ 'tiny'; sometimes, this also leads to a slight change in meaning or perception, e.g. ebhâ 'thick', but lẹ-ebhâ 'thicc'.

The affirming and denying comparative can also mean 'too $X$ ' and 'not $X$ enough', respectively; thus, lebẹt'hâ can also mean 'too small', and y'ỵbet'hâ can also mean 'not small enough', though this meaning is somewhat uncommon in isolation and most commonly found in constructions (see below).

The superlative is formed with one of two prefixes: ré ${ }^{L}$ and $r a \hat{d} d \hat{a}$. Be careful not to confuse the former with the neutral comparative rê! The two prefixes are largely interchangeable, however, the former is more literary and also older. The latter is a more recent development to reduce potential ambiguity with the neutral comparative. Note that ré lenites, whereas râdvâ does not. Thus, we have rébhẹt'hâ or râdvâbẹt'hâ 'smallest'.

The standard of comparison (viz. the thing being compared against) is marked with the GEN case, e.g. rêrá ábhárb 'bigger than the trees'.

### 2.2.3 Constructions

The comparative can be used together with an infinitive, ACI, or PCI. The affirming comparative here has the meaning of 'too X to ...', and the denying comparative has the meaning of 'not X enough to ....' A good illustrative example of this is the following UF proverb:

## Láráhó slẹlúrá b'héd'hẹhẹ dẹnájẹ.

Lá-ráhó s-lẹ-lúr-á b'héld’hẹhẹ dẹ-nájẹ
NOM-fish 3N-AFF.COMP-bulky-3SG.PRES.ANT ALL\surface INF-swim 'The fish was too bulky to swim to the surface'6

### 2.3 Verbal Morphology

Verbs in UF are inflected for person, number, tense, aspect, mood, and voice. Verbal inflexion is mainly done by means of concatenating a vast set of affixes. This chapter details these affixes, their meanings, uses, forms, and restrictions in their use.

[^3]
### 2.3.1 Active/Passive Affixes

The most fundamental affixes in UF are a set of active/subject and passive/object affixes (often referred to as the 'active/passive affixes') which can be used on their own or in combination with one another, though at most one active and one passive affix may be combined in any one finite verb form. ${ }^{7}$ Table 4 below lists those affixes.

| Active | Sg | Pl | Passive | Sg | Pl |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 1ST | j- | aú-/r-/w--( $y^{\prime}$ )ó | 1ST | $v$ - | aú-/r-/w- |
| 2ND | $d(e)-$ | $b^{\prime} h(y)--(y) e^{\prime}$ | 2ND | $d(e)-$ | $b ' h(y)$ - |
| 3 M | $l(e)-$ | $l(e)-$ | 3M | $y$ '- | lý |
| 3F | $l l(a)-$ | $l l(e)-$ | 3F | $y^{\prime}$ - | ly |
| 3N | $s$ - | $l(a)-$ | 3 N | sy- | ly |
| INF |  | $d(e)-$ | INF |  | $\grave{a}-/ h-$ |
| PTCP |  | -â | PTCP |  | $\hat{a}-$ |

Table 4: Active (left) and passive (right) verbal affixes.
A great degree of syncretism can be observed in the third-person forms. The gender distinction in the 3SG that diachronically resulted from gendered personal pronouns is almost non-existent in the plural; the reason for this development is that those forms are derived from the old dative form, which lacked this distinction altogether.

The ACT 1PL, 2PL forms are only distinguished from their passive counterparts by the presence of additional suffixes in the former. The 3 SG N in the active and passive is derived from the PF demonstrative PF $c e$ and its variants; the 3 PL N is derived from the other 3 PL forms.

A verb can have a passive affix only if there is no other explicit direct object in the clause. In other words, while verbs do take active person marking even if there is an explicit subject e.g. lávvâ llad'hór 'the mother loves', they do not take passive person marking if there is an explicit object (unless there is no subject), e.g. lávvâ llvad'hór 'the mother loves me', vs lávvâ llad'hór iáb'há 'the mother loves the child', which has llad'hór 'she loves' instead of llsyad'hór 'she loves it'.

Every finite verb form requires at least one finite affix. A verb form without any active, passive, or dative affix whatsoever would not be a finite verb form and could thus never be the predicate of a sentence. ${ }^{8}$

Thus, if the active affix is omitted, the verb has to have at least a passive or dative marker. Such a construction would be the closest equivalent to a passive in UF, since there is no true distinct syntactical or morphological passive, e.g. y'ad'hór ivvâ 'the mother is loved. ${ }^{9}$ Furthermore, it is impossible to express the agent in the 'passive' by any means other than reintroducing an active affix, which would render the form no longer a passive. ${ }^{10}$

Lastly, ditransitive verbs and verbs governing the dative case generally take a dative affix (see § 2.5.2) iff there is no explicit indirect object.

## Usage Notes

2SG Watch out for the 2SG ACT, which in verbs that start with a vowel is indistinguishable from the INF ACT in actual writing, e.g. ḍad'hór 'you love' vs dad'hór 'to love'; since the dot is omitted in writing, both forms look the same: dad'hór. Moreover, the 2SG PASS is identical to the 2SG ACT in any case.

[^4]Which form is intended can often be inferred from context: if the clause already has a finite verb, especially one that takes an infinitive or ACI, it is more likely to be an infinitive; by contrast, if it is the only (possibly finite) verb in the clause, then it is probably a 2 sG. Whether it is active or passive can then be deduced based on whether the verb is transitive and whether there is an explicit object in the clause.
1PL The 1PL prefix varies if there is a vowel following it: if it is any vowel that is not a variant of 'o', the prefix is realised as $r$ - instead, e.g. ad'hór 'love' to rad'hóró 'we love'. If the vowel a variant of ' $o$ ', the prefix is realised as $w$-instead, e.g. aub'heir 'obey' to wob'heiró 'we obey.'. ${ }^{11}$ Note that this also leads to a change in spelling: stem-initial $\langle\mathrm{au}\rangle$ is changed to $\langle\mathrm{o}\rangle$.
$\mathbf{1 , 2} \mathbf{P L}$ The $y^{\prime}$ in the suffix parts of the 1PL, 2PL ACT are dropped if the verb ends with a consonant, e.g. $a d^{\prime} h o ́ r$ to b'hád'hóré, or if it ends with a vowel that is a variant of 'o' in the case of the 1PL and 'e' in the case of the 2PL, in which cases the vowels are contracted and a level of nasalisation is added, e.g. vvaúrihe 'to remember' to b'hyvvaúrihé 'you (pl) remember' (not *b'hyvvaúrihy'é). In all other cases, the $y$ ' is retained, e.g. aúvvaúrihey'ó 'we remember'.
INF The INF pass prefix $\grave{a}$ - coalesces with any vowel following it: it becomes $a$ if it is followed by a non-nasal variant of 'a, e.g. ad'hór to ád'hór 'to be loved'; $\hat{a}$ if it is followed by a nasal variant of 'a, e.g. ánvé 'give life to' to ânvé 'to be animated'; and $h$ - if it is followed by any other vowel, e.g. aub'heir to haub'heir' 'to be obeyed.
In the present tense, the base form-and not the INF-of the verb is inflected to form gerunds, e.g. ynád'hór 'a loving', not ${ }^{\star} \hat{y} n d a d$ 'hór. However, the INF is used as the base form for gerunds in other tenses, e.g. ŷndad'hórá 'a having loved.'
PART The participle affixes are commonly used to form adjectives since the vast majority of adjectives in UF are actually 'adjective verbs' with a meaning of 'to be X'. The participle can be used to convert such a verb back into a regular adjective, e.g. lár 'to be wide' to lárâ 'wide'. Like the passive infinitive affix, the participle affixes coalesce with vowels and always form a maximally nasal vowel, e.g. vvaúri'he 'to remember' forms vvaúrihê 'remembering', and ad'hór forms âd'hór 'being loved'. As with other coalescence rules, the -â instead replaces final or initial e, and e only: e.g. bẹt'he 'to be small' becomes beet'hâ 'being small'. Note that if the word already ends with a maximally nasal vowel, no coalescence occurs, e.g. $r \hat{e}$ 'to be triune' becomes rêâ 'triune'.
$-\boldsymbol{e}-$ The parenthesised vowels are used if the prefix is followed by a consonant, e.g. dir 'say' to lledír 'they (F) say' and b'hydiré 'you (PL) say', but ad'hór to llad'hór 'they (F) love' and b'had'hóré 'you (PL) love'. The prefixes $a u ́-$ and $\grave{a}$ - retain their main forms if followed by a consonant, e.g. dír 'say' to aúdíró 'We say' and àdír 'to be said'.
$-y$ - The exception to this is that 2PL $b$ ' $h(y)$ - drops the $y$ if followed by a glide, e.g. $y^{\prime}$ 'ir 'to hear' to b'hy'íré 'you (PL) hear' (not *b'hyy'íré).

## Combining Prefixes

When multiple prefixes are used together, active prefixes precede passive prefixes, except that infinitive and participle prefixes always come first, e.g. ad'hór 'love' to jvad'hór 'I love myself' (not *vjad'hór) and b'hy'ad'hóré 'you (pL) love him/her', but dẹvad'hór 'to love me' and àb'had'hóré 'to be loved by you (PL)'. Recall that at most one infinitive prefix and at most one participle affix may be used.

## Impersonal Forms

UF does not use the 2ND person in sentences such as 'when you consider that..., instead preferring the 1pl (lit. 'when we consider that...') to express such impersonal constructions. The 3 N is used as an expletive for verbs that do not really have a subject, such as lývá 'rain', which forms slývá 'it rains'.

[^5]
## Example Paradigms

By way of illustration, consider the paradigm of the verb ad'hór as shown in Table 5 below. Since this word starts with a vowel, the parenthesised vowels in Table 4 above are not used. Furthermore, since it starts with a non-nasal ' a '-like vowel, the $a u^{\prime}$ - prefix is realised as $r$ - and the $\grave{a}$ - prefix coalesces with the initial ' $a$ ' of the stem to form $a$.

| Active | Sg | Pl | Passive | Sg | Pl |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 1 ST | jad'hór | rad'hóró | 1ST | vad'hór | rad'hór |
| 2ND | dad'hór | b'had'hóré | 2ND | dad'hór | b'had'hór |
| 3 M | lad'hór | lad'hór | 3 M | y'ad'hór | lyad'hór |
| 3 F | llad'hór | llad'hór | 3 F | y'ad'hór | lyad'hór |
| 3 N | sad'hór | lad'hór | 3N | syad'hór | lýad'hór |
| INF | dad'hór |  | INF | ád'hór |  |
| PTCP | ad'hórâ |  | РTCP | âd'hór |  |

Table 5: Paradigm of the Verb ad'hór.
For comparison, the paradigm of the verb vvaúrihe 'remember' is shown in Table 6 below. Since it starts with a consonant, the parenthesised vowels in Table 4 are used, and any prefixes that end with a vowel remain unchanged.

| Active | Sg | Pl | Passive | Sg | Pl |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 1 ST | jvvaúríhe | aúvvaúriheyó | 1ST | vvvaúrihe | aúvvaúrihe |
| 2ND | devvaúrihe | b'hyvvórihé | 2ND | devvaúrihe | b'hyvvaúrihe |
| 3M | lẹvaúrîhe | lẹvaúríhe | 3 M | y'valuárihe | lývvaúrihe |
| 3F | llavvaúríhe | llẹvaúrihe | 3F | y'vvaúríhe | lyvvaúrihe |
| 3 N | svvaúríhe | lavvaúríhe | 3N | syvvaúrihe | lyvvaúrihe |
| INF | depvaúríhe |  | INF | àvvaúríhe |  |
| PTCP | ih'ê |  | PTCP | âvvaúrîhe |  |

Table 6: Paradigm of the Verb vvaúríhe.

### 2.4 Tense and Aspect Marking

Tense in UF is marked by additional sets of affixes that are appended to the verb in addition to the active/passive affixes. There are two broad groups of such affixes: suffixes, which are appended to the end of the verb and replace the ACT 1PL, 2PL suffixes in those persons, as well as circumfixes and prefixes, which are inserted before the active/passive markers and replace the ACT 1PL, 2PL suffixes in some cases.

### 2.4.1 Present Anterior and Preterite

The present anterior and preterite are formed by appending a set of suffixes to the verb. Table 7 below lists the suffixes for those tenses. The present anterior has a perfect or perfective aspect, while the preterite has an imperfective aspect. The former is commonly used to describe events that are completed or extend to the present-particularly events that occurred recently, hence the name-while the latter is used to describe events that are ongoing or habitual.

| Pres. Ant. | Sg | Pl | Preterite | Sg | Pl |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 1ST | - Lé | ${ }^{-}{ }^{\text {a }}$ | 1 ST | - Lá | - $y^{\prime} \hat{a} \hat{u}$ |
| 2ND | - ${ }^{\text {Láa }}$ | - Lád | 2ND | $-{ }^{L}$ é | -yé |
| 3RD | $-{ }^{\text {Láa }}$ | - Lér | 3RD | $-{ }^{L}$ é | $-^{L}$ é |
| INF |  | á | INF |  | é |
| PTCP |  |  | PTCP |  | ár |

Table 7: Present Anterior and Preterite Affixes.
Neither tense distinguishes gender in the third person. All suffixes, except for the infinitive and 1pl, 2PL PRET, lenite any consonant before them, e.g. ḅárdáḍ 'to be willing' to jọárdát'hé 'I was willing' but dẹbárdádáá to have been willing'.

Diachronically, the 1SG PRET is an interesting case; in EUF, it was originally ${ }^{*}$-é, but it later changed to -á to distinguish it from the 2SG, 3SG PRES ANT. The remaining forms-save the infinitives, which are derived from the tenses' definite endings by analogy-originated from the PF simple past tenses.

The table below lists the example paradigm of the verb ad'hór in the present anterior and preterite tenses. Observe that there is no difference between the 1PL, 2PL active and passive.

The participle suffixes coalesce with present participle affixes to form êr/ẹrr in the present anterior and $\hat{a} r$ in the preterite, where applicable, e.g. present ad'hórâ 'loving' becomes ad'hórêr 'having loved.'

In both tenses, the suffixes coalesce with vowels before them, replacing them and nasalising them if they are already nasalised, e.g. jvvaúrié 'I remembered'. If the verb form ends with a nasal vowel, the suffixes are simply appended, $j v \hat{y}$ 'I lead' to $j v \hat{y} e^{\text {' } I ~ l e d ' . ~}$

If a verb takes both and active and a passive person affix, the suffix aligns with the active affix; thus 'she loved me' is llavad'hórá and not *llavád'hóré.

| Active | Sg | Pl | Passive | Sg | Pl |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 1ST | jad’hóré | rad'hórâ | 1ST | vad'hóré | rad'hórâ |
| 2ND | dad'hórá | b'had'hórád | 2ND | dad'hórá | b'had'hórád |
| 3M | lad'hórá | lad'hórér | 3M | y'ad'hórá | lyad'hórér |
| 3 F | llad'hórá | llad'hórér | 3F | y'ad'hórá | lýad'hórér |
| 3N | sad'hórá | lad'hórér | 3N | syad’hórá | lyad'hórér |
| INF | dad’hórá |  | INF | ád'hórá |  |
| РTCP | ad'hórêr |  | PTCP | âd'hórér |  |

Table 8: Present Anterior Paradigm of the Verb ad'hór.

| Active | Sg | Pl | Passive | Sg | Pl |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 1sT | jad"hórá | rad'hóry'âu | 1sT | vad’hórá | rad'hóry'ầ |
| 2ND | dad'hóré | b'had'hóry'ẹ | 2ND | ḍad'hóré | b'had'hóry'é |
| 3M | lad'hóré | lad'hóré | 3 M | y'ad'hóré | lýad'hóré |
| 3F | llad'hóré | llad'hóré | 3 F | y'ad'hóré | lýad'hóré |
| 3N | sad'hóré | lad'hóré | 3N | syad'hóré | lyad'hóré |
| INF | dad'hóré |  | INF | ád'hóré |  |
| PTCP | ad'hórâr |  | PTCP | âd'hórár |  |

Table 9: Preterite Paradigm of the Verb ad'hór.

### 2.4.2 Preterite Anterior

The preterite anterior tense, sometimes also called the 'pluperfect', is used to describe events that happened before another event in the past, e.g. jyá ad'hórâr 'I had loved'; it is formed using coalesced
forms of the preterite participle and the preterite form of the verb av́ár 'to have.' ${ }^{12}$ The following table illustrates the underlying construction using ad'hór, though it is worth noting that these forms are not actually grammatical:

| Active | Sg | Pl | Passive | Sg | Pl |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 1ST | *jyá ad’hórâr | *ryy'aû ad'hórâr | 1ST | *vyá âd’hórár | *ryy'aû âd'hórár |
| 2ND | *dyé ad'hórâr | * b'hyy'é ad'hórâr | 2ND | *dyé ád'hórár | *b'hyy'ẹ âd'hórár |
| 3 M | *lyé ad'hórâr | *lyé ad'hórâr | 3 M | *y'yé âd'hórár | *lýyé âd'hórár |
| 3 F | *llyé ad'hórâr | *llyé ad'hórâr | 3F | *y'yé âd'hórár | *lýzé âd'hórár |
| 3N | *syé ad'hórâr | *lyé ad'hórâr | 3N | *syÿé âd'hórár | *lýyé âd'hórár |
| INF | *dyé ad'hórâr |  | INF | *hyé âd’hórár |  |
| PTCP | *yâr ad'hórâr |  | PTCP | *âyár âd'hórár |  |

Table 10: Preterite Anterior Construction.
Based on this underlying principle, the actual preterite anterior forms can be constructed using a series of coalescence rules: first, if the participle starts with a consonant (which is only possible in the active as the passive will always have the passive participle prefix $\hat{a}$ - prepended to it), or the form of avár ends with a consonant (which is only the case in the participle) the two verbs forms are simply written as one word, e.g. jyávvaúríhê ‘I had remembered'.

Otherwise, we have a collision of two vowels. The first vowel of the participle is erased. If it was nasal(ised), a level of nasalisation is added to the last vowel of the form of avár, then, the two forms concatenated as by the first rule, e.g. dyéd'hórâr 'you had loved', and ḍyêd'hórár 'you had been loved'. Thus, the actual paradigm of ad'hór in the preterite anterior is as shown in Table 11 below.

| Active | Sg | Pl | Passive | Sg | Pl |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 1sT | jyád’hórâr | ryy'aûd'hórâr | 1st | vyâd'hórár | ryy'aûd’hórár |
| 2ND | dyéd'hórâr | b'hyyẹ̆d'hórâr | 2ND | dyêd'hórár | b'hyyệd'hórár |
| 3M | lyéd'hórâr | lyéd'hórâr | 3 M | y'yêd'hórár | lýyêd'hórár |
| 3F | llyéd'hórâr | llyéd'hórâr | 3F | y'yêd'hórár | lýyèd'hórár |
| 3N | syéd'hórâr | lyéd'hórâr | 3N | sÿ̈êd'hórár | lýyèd'hórár |
| INF | dyéd'hórâr |  | INF | hyêd'hórár |  |
| PTCP | yârad'hórâr |  | PTCP | âyárâd'hórár |  |

Table 11: Preterite Anterior Paradigm of ad'hór.
Note that the active participle is used with active prefixes and the passive participle with passive prefixes. If both are present, either may be used, depending on the dialect; for example, the passive participle is preferred in literary language, whereas the active participle is more common in speech.

The subjunctive and optative paradigms can be obtained using the same construction and follow the same coalescence rules: first, construct the appropriate form of avár, and the perform the merging with the appropriate indicative participle, e.g. *jèsá ad’hórâr > jèsád’hórâr (roughly 'I should have had loved ${ }^{13}$ ).

Finally, as always, these forms are stressed on the last syllable of the stem of the actual verb; the coalesced form of avár is unstressed.

### 2.4.3 Future I

The future tenses, i.e. the Future I and II, Future Anterior (a tense similar to the future perfect), as well as the Conditional I and II, are formed by adding prefixes to the present forms. The prefix is the same

[^6]in all persons and numbers, except that there is a separate prefix for the infinitive.
In the Future, much to the UF learner's dismay, this prefix can go in two separate positions: either before the person marker(s) or inbetween the person marker(s) and the stem. The former case is more common in speech, while the later is more literary and strongly preferred in writing and poetry as well as in formal speech. But even in informal speech, the Future I alone will still not be enough to get by, as the Conditional, a very common tense, is formed using the Future II.

First, let us examine the former, simpler case, commonly called the Future I. The prefix is $a u^{\prime}$ - if the verb form after it starts with a consonant (except glides), aúr-in all other cases; e.g. aújad'hór 'I shall love', but aúrýad'hór 'it will love'. In the infinitive passive, it contracts with the initial à- or á- to aú or $a \hat{u}$, e.g. aûd'hór 'to be about to be loved. ${ }^{14}$ No contraction happens if the infinitive starts with $\hat{a}$, e.g. aúrânvé 'to be about to be animated'. Since there is little point in writing a table for just the prefixes, Table 12 instead shows the Future I paradigm of the verb ad'hór.

| Active | Sg | Pl | Passive | Sg | Pl |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 1ST | aújad'hór | aúrad'hóró | 1 ST | aúvad'hór | aúrad’hór |
| 2ND | aúdad'hór | aúb'had'hóré | 2ND | aúdad'hór | aúb'had'hór |
| 3M | aúlad'hór | aúlad'hór | 3 M | aúry'ad'hór | aúlýad'hór |
| 3 F | aúllad'hór | aúllad'hór | 3F | aúry'ad'hór | aúlýad'hór |
| 3N | aúrýad'hór | aúlad'hór | 3N | aúrýad'hór | aúlýad'hór |
| INF | aúdad'hór |  | INF |  |  |
| PTCP | aúrad'hórâ |  | PTCP | aúrâd'hór |  |

Table 12: Future I Paradigm of the Verb ad'hór.

### 2.4.4 Future II

The Future I paradigm is fairly straight-forward; unfortunately, the Future II is a lot worse: not only do the affixes vary a lot more, but they are different depending on whether verb form following them starts with a vowel or a consonant. ${ }^{15}$ The vocalic and consonantal Future II affixes are shown in Tables 13 and 14 below, respectively.

The diachrony of these forms is somewhat unclear-especially that of the participles. It would appear, however, that they result from a coalescence of the personal pronouns with forms of some auxiliary (likely PF PF avoir and PF aller) as well as the PF future. It appears that the 2 SG is derived from the formal PF 2PL pronoun, which is in line with the fact that the Future II is generally considered more formal than the almost colloquial Future I. The $v$ in the 2PL аст seems to be the result of metathesis.

| Active | Sg | Pl |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 1ST | $b^{\prime} h-$-(e) | náy'̇--aú |
| 2ND | dir--(e) | b'hay'- -(r)é |
| 3 M | $t-$-(e) | $l b ' h-$-aú |
| 3F | èt--(e) | $l b^{\prime} h$ - -aú |
| 3N | aút--(e) | $l b^{\prime} h$ - -aú |
| INF | $d-$-̀ |  |
| PTCP | $-\hat{y} r$ |  |


| Passive | Sg | Pl |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 1ST | $v$ - -é | náy'- |
| 2ND | dir | b'hay'- |
| 3M | $l-$ | $l b ' h-(r) e$ |
| 3F | $l-$ | $l b^{\prime} h-(r) e$ |
| 3N | $s$ - | $l b^{\prime} h--(r) e$ |
| INF |  | $h$ - |
| PTCP |  | á- -ýr |

Table 13: Vocalic Future II Affixes.

[^7]| Active | Sg | Pl | Passive | Sg | Pl |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 1ST | jaú- -ẹ | aúnrâu--aú | 1ST | vaú- -é | naú- |
| 2ND | b'há- -(e) | v̇aú- -e | 2ND | dá- | b'haú- |
| 3M | aúr--(e) | laú- -aú | 3 M | y'aúr- | laú- -(r)e |
| 3F | aúr--(e) | laú- -aú | 3F | y'aúr- | laú- -(r)e |
| 3N | aúr--(e) | laú- -aú | 3N | saúr- | laú- -(r)e |
| INF | $d e--\grave{e}$ |  | INF | haú- |  |
| PTCP | $-(r) \hat{y}$ |  | PTCP | á- -(r)ý |  |

Table 14: Consonantal Future II Affixes.

## Future Stem

Many verbs have a different future stem that is used in all future tenses (except the Future I); for example, the future stem of $v v a u$ ríhe 'to remember', is $v v a u$ uriźe; thus, we have jvvaúríhe 'to remember' but jaúvvaúriżée 'I shall remember'.

Note also that these forms already include the active/passive affixes, which is why it's jaúvvaúrizéé
 verbal noun; thus, vvaúríze roughly means 'the act of being about to remember. ${ }^{16}$

The future subjunctive uses a different stem; for that, see § 2.6.

## Stem-final vowel elision and -(e)

The future stem usually ends with a vowel, which is dropped if any future suffix or a suffix that starts with a vowel is added, e.g. laúvvaúriźaú 'they will remember', not *laúvvaúrízeaú. Note that in the case of future suffixes, even those that start with a consonant cause the vowel to be dropped. The only exception to this is the suffix -(e), which is found in a number of Future II forms; that suffix is dropped instead, e.g. aúrvvaúriźe 'she will remember', not *aúrvvaúriźé.

## Nasal Stems

Some future stems are nasalising, which is the case if the final vowel is a nasal vowel; in such cases, that vowel is still dropped if a suffix is added, but if that suffix starts with a vowel, nasalisation is applied to it, e.g. in the case of dír, whose future stem is dirẹ́, we have aúnraûdírâ̂ 'we shall say': the -aú suffix merges with the nasalisation of the final vowel to become $a \hat{u}$. Unlike with regular stems, the Future II -(e) does replace the final vowel and becomes -é for such verbs, e.g. aúrdíré 'he will say', and iSG FUT pass vocalic -é becomes -ê.

## $r$ - Dropping

Initial $r$ in Future II suffixes is dropped if the last consonant before the final vowel of the future stem is $w$, or an в-coloured consonant such as ź, e.g. laúvvaúríze 'they will be remembered', not *laúvvaúríźre. If the last consonant of the future stem is $r$, since any following vowel (whether nasalised or not) is deleted when a Future II suffix is added, the final $r$ of the stem and the initial $-r$ of the Future II suffixes that have one coalesce to $r r$, e.g. b'haýad'hórérre 'you (pL) will love'.

## Affix Stacking

Note that when more than one affix is used, at most one can be a future affix, e.g. jaúsyvvaúrízée 'I shall remember it' and not ${ }^{*}$ jaúsaúrvvaúrízé. Generally, the active prefix will be the future affix, but it is possible to use the passive future affixes instead for emphasis e.g. jy'aúrvvaúriźe roughly 'him, I shall remember'; often, this is also used to aid in establishing a contrast to some other part of the sentence that does not have this inversion.

Since some of the passive future affixes also have suffix parts-unlike the present affixes, where the passive forms are all prefixes-we can end up with multiple suffixes in addition to multiple prefixes, in

[^8]which case active prefixes, instead of simply preceding the passive ones, can be thought of as effectively 'wrapping' them, e.g. aúlaúvvaúrízey'ó 'we shall remember them', which contains laúvvaúriźe 'they will be remembered.

Finally, as always, infinitive prefixes come first. If combined with other affixes, it will generally be the future affix, e.g. haúlývvaúriźe roughly 'to be about to remember them' but, as with passive affixes, variations are possible for emphasis or contrastive power, e.g. dẹlaúvvaúriźe, which puts more emphasis on 'them'.

## Examples

Table 15 below shows the complete (vocalic) Future II paradigm of the verb ad'hór 'to love', and Table 16 the complete (consonantal) Future II paradigm of II vvaúrihe 'to remember'; recall that the future stems of these verbs are ad'hórérẹ́ and vvaúríźe.

| Active | Sg | Pl | Passive | Sg | Pl |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 1ST | b'had'hórérẹ́ | náýảd'hórérầ | 1sT | vad'hórérệ | náy’ad’hóréré |
| 2ND | dírad'hórérẹ | b'haýad'hórérré | 2ND | dírad'hórérẹ | b'haýad'hóréré |
| 3M | tad'hóréré | lb'had'hóréraû | 3 M | lad'hóréré | lb'had'hórérre |
| 3 F | ètad'hóréré | lb'had'hóréraû | 3 F | lad'hóréré | lb'had'hórérre |
| 3N | aútad'hóréré | lb'had'hóréraû | 3N | sad'hóréré | lb'had'hórérre |
| INF | dad'hóréré |  | INF | had'hóréré |  |
| РTCP | ad'hórérŷr |  | РTCP | ád'hórérýr |  |

Table 15: Vocalic Future II Paradigm of ad'hór.

| Active | Sg | Pl | Passive | Sg | Pl |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 1sT | jaúvvaúrizzé | aúnrâ̂vvaúriźaú | 1ST | vaúvvaúrízé | naúvvaúriźe |
| 2ND | b'hávvaúriźe | vaúvvaúrize | 2ND | ḍávvaúriźe | b'haúvvaúríze |
| 3M | aúrvvaúriźe | laúvvaúriźaú | 3 M | y ${ }^{\text {aúrvvaúriźe }}$ | laúvvaúríze |
| 3 F | aúrvvaúrize | laúvvaúriźaú | 3 F | y’aúrvvaúriźe | laúvvaúríze |
| 3N | aúrvvaúrize | laúvvaúriźaú | 3N | saúrvvaúrize | laúvvaúríze |
| INF | dẹvauúrižèvvaúriẑy |  | INF | haúvvaúrizze |  |
| PTCP |  |  | PTCP | ávvaúriž́y |  |

Table 16: Consonantal Future II Paradigm of vvaúrihe.

### 2.4.5 Future Anterior

The Future Anterior tense is formed by combining the Future II and the Present Anterior affixes. The pres ant suffixes are applied after the fut in affixes. The vocalic and consonantal affixes are shown in Tables 17 and 18.

| Active | Sg | Pl | Passive | Sg | Pl |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 1ST | b'h- - ${ }^{\text {é }}$ | náy'- -aúrâ | 1ST | $v-{ }^{L} \hat{e}$ | náá' - ${ }^{\text {L }} \hat{a}$ |
| 2ND | dír- - ${ }^{L}$ á | b'hay'--(r)ệd | 2ND | dír- - ${ }^{L}$ á | b'hay'- - Lád |
| 3M | t- - Lá | $l b ' h-$-aûr | 3M | $l-{ }^{L}{ }^{\text {L }}$ | $l b^{\prime} h$ - -(r)ér |
| 3F | èt - - ${ }^{\text {áa }}$ | $l b^{\prime} h$ - -aûr | 3F | l- - Lá | $l b^{\prime} h$ - -(r)ér |
| 3N | aút-- ${ }^{L}$ á | $l b^{\prime} h--a \hat{r}$ | 3N | $s-{ }^{L}{ }^{\text {a }}$ | $l b^{\prime} h$ - -(r)ér |
| INF |  | $d$ - -á | INF |  | - -á |
| PTCP |  | -yrér | PTCP |  | -ýrér |

Table 17: Vocalic Future Anterior Affixes.

| Active | Sg | Pl | Passive | Sg | Pl |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 1ST | jaú- - ${ }^{\text {en }}$ | aúnrâ̂- -aúrâ | 1ST | vaú- - ${ }^{L} \hat{e}$ | naú- - ${ }^{\text {a }}$ a |
| 2ND | b'há- - Lá | vaú- -éd | 2ND | dáa - - ${ }^{\text {áa }}$ | b'haú- - ${ }^{\text {a }}$ d ${ }^{\text {d }}$ |
| 3M | aúr- - ${ }^{L}$ | laú- -aûr | 3M | y'aúr - ${ }^{L}$ á | laú- -(r)ér |
| 3F | aúr- - ${ }^{L}$ | laú- -aûr | 3F |  | laú- -(r)ér |
| 3N | aúr - - ${ }^{\text {a }}$ a | laú- -aûr | 3N | saúr-- Lá | laú- -(r)ér |
| INF |  | dee- -á | INF | haú- -á |  |
| PTCP |  | $-(r) \hat{y} r$ | РTCP | á- -(r)ýr |  |

Table 18: Consonantal Future Anterior Affixes.
Note that again, nasalised stems add another level of nasalisation, and vowel-dropping still applies, but this time, there is no -e dropping, since none of the affixes end with $e$ anymore.

## Coalescence

All vowel suffixes coalesce with the final vowel of the stem; if the suffix vowel is nasal, a level of nasalisation is added, e.g. aúrvvaúrizá 'he will have remembered' from the future stem vvaúrizé. Note also that the $z$ is lenited to $z$; the quality of the suffix vowel overrides that of the stem vowel. $r$ contraction still happens as in the Future II.

Tables 19 and 20 below show the paradigm of the verbs ad'hór 'to love' and $v v a u$ úrihe 'to remember' in the Future Anterior tense. Note that both the rules for the Future Anterior tense as well as the Present Anterior tense apply here.

| Active | Sg | Pl | Passive | Sg | Pl |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 1ST | b'had'hórérệ | náẏad'hóréraûrâ | 1ST | vad'hórérệ | náýad'hórérậ |
| 2ND | dírad'hórérậ | b'haỷad'hórérrệd | 2ND | dírad'hórérậ | b'haỷad'hórérậd |
| 3M | tad'hórérậ |  | 3 M | lad'hórérậ | lb'had'hórérrér |
| 3F | ètad'hórérậ | $l b ' h a d ' h o ́ r e ́ r a u ̂ r ~$ | 3F | lad'hórérậ | lb'had'hórérrér |
| 3N | aútad'hórérậ | $l b ' h a d ' h o ́ r e ́ r a u ̂ r ~$ | 3N | sad'hórérầ | lb'had'hórérrér |
| INF | dad'hórérâ |  | INF | had'hórérậ |  |
| PTCP | ad'hórérŷrér |  | РTCP | ád'hórérýrér |  |

Table 19: Vocalic Future Anterior Paradigm of ad'hór.

| Active | Sg | Pl | Passive | Sg | Pl |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 1ST | jaúvvaúrízệ | aúnraûvvaúrízaúrâ | 1ST | vaúvvaúrizê | naúvvaúrizâ |
| 2ND | b'hávvaúrizá | vaúvvaúrizéd | 2ND | ḍávvaúrízá | b'haúvvaúrizád |
| 3 M | aúrvvaúrízá | laúvvaúriźaûr | 3 M | y ${ }^{\text {aúrvvaúrizá }}$ | laúvvaúrizzér |
| 3 F | aúrvvaúrízá | laúvvaúrízaûr | 3 F | y ${ }^{\text {aúrvvaúrizá }}$ | laúvvaúrizér |
| 3N | aúrvvaúrízá | laúvvaúriźaûr | 3N | saúrvvaúrízá | laúvvaúrizér |
| INF | dẹvaaúriźzá |  | INF | haúvvaúrízá |  |
| РTCP |  |  | РTCP | ávvaúriźźr |  |

Table 20: Consonantal Future Anterior Paradigm of vvaúríhe.

### 2.4.6 Conditional I and II

The Conditional tenses are fairly simple-so long as you know the Future II and Future Anterior, that is. Both Conditionals are formed by adding the -ss(a)-infix between the Future II stem and any suffixes.

| Active | Sg | Pl | Passive | Sg | Pl |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 1ST | jaúvvaúrízessệ | aúnraûvvaúrízessaúrâ | 1ST | vaúvvaúrízessê | naúvvaúrízessâ |
| 2ND | b’hávvaúriźessá | vaúvvaúrízesséd | 2ND | ḍávvaúrízessá | b'haúvvaúrizéssád |
| 3M | aúrvvaúrízessá | laúvvaúrízessaûr | 3M | y'aúrvvaúriżessá | laúvvaúriźessrér |
| 3 F | aúrvvaúrizessá | laúvvaúrízessaûr | 3 F | y’aúrvvaúriźessá | laúvvaúriźessrér |
| 3N | aúrvvaúriźessá | laúvvaúrízessaûr | 3N | saúrvvaúrízessá | laúvvaúriźessrér |
| INF | dẹvvaúrízessá |  | INF | haúvvaúriźesse |  |
| PTCP |  |  | PTCP | ávvaúriźessý |  |

Table 21: Consonantal Conditional II Paradigm of vvaúríhe.
The Conditional I is formed from the Future II, and the Conditional II from the Future Anterior. The $a$ in -ss(a)- is omitted if the suffix after the infix starts with a vowel, except for $e$, which it replaces. Table 21 shows the consonantal Conditional II paradigm of vvaúríhe 'to remember'. Note that the ss in this form is never lenited.

The conditional tenses are mainly used in the apodoses of conditional clauses. On their own, their meaning is similar to that of the English 'would' or 'could', e.g. jaúvvaúrízessẹ́ 'I would love'. As such, the Conditional I is used to express a future-in-the-past, whereas the Conditional II, even though it is morphologically a future tense, is used to express a hypothetical past, e.g. jaúvvaúriźessệ 'I could have loved. In reported speech, this can lead to a subjunctive conditional construction.

### 2.5 Miscellaneous Forms

### 2.5.1 The Gnomic

The gnomic tense is marked by the infix $-j(\hat{u})$ - after the stem: ad'hór 'to love' to rad'hórjô 'We love (for ever). The $u$ is omitted if the infix is followed by the vowel, in which case it causes nasalisation. The presence of the gnomic is does not affect how verbs are negated.

The gnomic is used to express general truths, habitual actions, or timeless statements. It is more common in literary language than in speech, which prefers to substitute the present tense instead. Northern dialects of UF also tend to not make use of the gnomic at all.

### 2.5.2 Dative Affixes

The dative affixes -vé 'me, us', -b'he 'you', and -le 'him, her, it, them' are used in conjunction with ditransitive verbs and are invariant to tense, gender, number, and mood. A verb can only have one dative affix, and the dative affix is always placed last after all other affixes and does not coalesce, lenite, or otherwise modify the rest of the verb, e.g. dedónẹ́ 'to bestow' to dedónẹ́le 'to bestow upon him'.

These affixes are generally not used if the dat assumes the sense of 'for someone', or 'to someone'; for instance, while fúr 'to provide' takes a Dat as its indirect object, e.g. jfúrb'he 'I provide you (with something)', the verb fér 'to do, make' does not, and thus, it is not e.g. *jsyférvé, but rather jsyfér asve 'I did it for me/us', where asvè is the Dat inflexion of the 1SG pronoun.

Lastly, which one-the dat affixes or a dat pronoun-is ultimately used often depends on the verb in question. Some speakers prefer one over the other with certain verbs, and some verbs regularly admit both, albeit with different meanings, e.g. jsydírélee 'I said it to him' vs jsydiré asle 'I said it for his sake'.

### 2.5.3 Imperative

The imperative mood exists only in the present tense, and only in the second and third person. It is formed by affixing the following suffixes to the stem.

| Active | Sg | Pl |  |  | Passive | Sg |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| Pl |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| 2nd | $c^{\prime} h(e)-$ | $c^{\prime} h e b^{\prime} h(y)-$ |  |  | 2nd | $-r a ́$ |

Table 22: Imperative Affixes.
The diachrony of these forms is likely from subjunctive constructions with pf que in the active and from suffixed pronouns in the passive. Note that imperative affixes are added in place of present active/passive affixes, e.g. c'hedir! 'speak!', not ${ }^{*}$ 'hedẹdír. As usual, the parenthesised vowels are omitted if the verb form starts with a vowel, e.g. c'had'hór! 'love!'.

Imperative affixes can be combined with active/passive affixes, though, as usual, an active imperative prefix can only be paired with a passive present affix, and vice versa. Active imperative prefixes are always placed first, e.g. c'hevad'hór! 'love me!', and passive affixes are placed last, e.g. b'had'hórérá 'be loved by us!'. The negation of the imperative uses the subjunctive and is explained in $\S$ 2.6.4.

### 2.6 Subjunctive

The UF subjunctive forms are fortunately fairly simple: they use the same affixes as the present, past, and future forms, except that each verb has a different, often irregular, subjunctive stem, which is generally formed by adding an $-s$ to the end of the corresponding indicative stem, e.g. ad'hór 'to love' to ad'hórs; thus we have, e.g. jad'hórs 'I may love', and rád'hórsó 'We may love'.

The future subjunctive stem is always regular and formed by adding the desinence -śe to the end of the future stem. For example, the future stem of ad'hór is ad'hóréré, so the future subjunctive stem is ad'hórérẹ́se; similarly, the future stem of vvaúrihe is vvaúrizé, so the future subjunctive stem is vvaúríześe. The subjunctive stem coalesces like a regular non-nasal future stem.

There are several main uses of the UF subjunctive, each of which we shall examine in more detail below:

1. in reported speech, e.g. lladírá vad'hórhé 'she said she loved me';
2. with certain subordinating conjunctions, such as b'he 'so that';
3. to express deontic modality, e.g. deḅars 'you may leave';
4. as a jussive, e.g. rad'hesó 'let's go';
5. as a negative imperative, e.g. sá dẹ̣ars 'don't leave';
6. irrealis conditionals (see § 3.7 );
7. in a serial verb construction in the future, expressing purpose;
8. in ACIS and pCIs.

### 2.6.1 Reported Speech

UF does not use backshifting in reported speech, but rather, the corresponding subjunctive form is used. For instance, jḍad’hór 'I love you' becomes jdíré jḍad'hórs 'I said I love you'. Note that the tense stays the same in this example: present indicative becomes present subjunctive. Accordingly, jdad'hóré 'I loved you' becomes jdíré jdad’hórsé 'I said I loved you'.

Consequently, the tense of the verb in reported speech is independent of the tense of the matrix clause, e.g. b'had'hrệ 'I shall go' becomes jdíré b'had'hrẹésé 'I said I would go', ${ }^{17}$ with b'had'hrẹ́sé being the Future II subjunctive form of b'had'hrẹ́.

[^9]
### 2.6.2 Dependent Clauses

The following subordinating conjunctions take the subjunctive:
áhaúr 'even though'
bas 'because'
b'he 'so that'
c'haúr 'as' (viz. 'because')
de 'once'
ráhẹ 'though'

```
rê 'although'
s 'if'(see § 3.7)
sá 'without'
sauc'h 'except that'
váté 'despite that'
```

Note that not all subordinating conjunctions take the subjunctive. For instance, the conjunction $y$ 'is 'because' takes the indicative: jḍad'hórs c'haúr 'as I love you', but jḍad'hór y'ís 'because I love you.'

### 2.6.3 Deontic Modality

The subjunctive can also be used on its own, in which case it assumes a deontic or jussive meaning; in the first person, it is generally a jussive, e.g. rad'hesó 'let's go', but the jussive sense is not restricted to the first person, e.g. lesyrét'hes 'he take care of it' (in the sense of 'let him take care of it').

The deontic sense is also apparent from that last example: lesyrét'hes can also be interpreted to mean 'he may take care of it', which can either be a statement of permission or a condescending order. Note that even though UF also has a word for 'let' (namely $l e$ ), it is mostly used in questions or commands, while the deontic subjunctive is used to grant permission.

### 2.6.4 Negation

The subjunctive is negated with the particle sá, rather than with asýýg. The particle sá is placed immediately before the verb form it negates, e.g. sá jḍad'hórs c'haúr 'as I don't love you'. It is reduced to $s^{\prime}$ before vowels, but interestingly, it does not cause nasalisation in that case, e.g. s'aúsydíssâ c'haúr 'as we didn't say it'.

On its own, the negated subjunctive is used to express a negative imperative in the second and third person, e.g. sá dẹ̣ars ‘don't leave', and a negative jussive in the first person e.g. sá rad'hesó, 'let's not go'.

### 2.6.5 Infinitive

Most curiously, UF has a subjunctive infinitive. This form is almost exclusively used to express deontic modality in ACIS and pCis. For example, the form dad'hórs, the subjunctive infinitive of ad'hór, while defying any attempt at translation on its own, ${ }^{18}$ can be translated as 'should' when combined with an ACC or PART, e.g. sráhó dad'hórs roughly means 'that fish should love', though this form can only occur as the complement of a verb.

### 2.6.6 Future Subjunctive of Intent or Purpose

The future subjunctive is used in a serial verb construction with another finite verb to express purpose or intent: a serial verb construction is a clause with two finite verbs; in this case, one combines any finite verb with a finite subjunctive Future II, e.g. jsyc'hrír jaúvvaúriźéséé 'I'm writing it down so I don't forget'; the two needn't agree in person, and word order, as ever with inflected forms, is not fixed, e.g. náýaúréśaú sybžâ 'It was needed for us to understand. ${ }^{19}$

[^10]The main semantic difference between this construction and b'he is that the latter strictly means 'in order to' or 'so that', whereas this can be a bit broader in meaning; however, the future subjunctive of intent is also sometimes used to mean 'in order to' or 'so that'.

### 2.7 Optative

The UF optative is used to express wishes, hopes, as well as in certain conditional constructions. It is formed by prefixing $y^{\prime}(e)^{L}$ to the indicative (or future) stem, ${ }^{20}$ e.g. dẹvy'ẹvvaúríhe 'may you remember me'. As ever, the (e) is omitted if the stem starts with a vowel.

In the future, this generally does not change whether the consonantal or vocalic affixes are used! If the stem was vocalic, the vocalic affixes are also used in the optative. This is because the optative is conceptually appended to the prefix rather than prepended to the stem. Moreover, some prefixes in the future end with $\hat{y}$ ', which this is dropped in the optative: e.g. náy'ad'hóraú 'we shall love' becomes náy'ad'hóraú 'may we love' (the difference is minor: $\hat{y}$ ' vs $y^{\prime}$ '). A bare optative is difficult to translate into English; a more precise explanation of what these forms actually mean will be given below. Uses of the optative include:

1. wishes, hopes, dreams, and aspirations;
2. with certain subordinating conjunctions, such as auha 'in case';
3. talking about fears;
4. counterfactual conditionals (see § 3.7).

### 2.7.1 Wishes and Hopes

The most traditional use of the optative is to express wishes and hopes, e.g. dẹvy'ẹvvaúrihe 'may you remember me'. In the present or future tense, this use indicates a wish for something to happen; in the present tense, its meaning is that of a wish for a condition to be true in the present in the face of uncertainty or lack of knowledge; thus, the actual meaning of devy'ẹvvaúrihe is roughly 'I hope that you remember me. ${ }^{21}$ In the future tense, it indicates a wish that a situation will be true in the future, e.g. b'hávy'ẹvvaúríźe 'may you remember me'.

In the past tenses, the optative indicates dismay, regret, or disappointment that something did not happen, e.g. pres ant dẹvy'ẹvvaúríhá 'if only you had remembered me'. The optative can also be combined with the Conditional I to convey uncertainty about a future wish, as well as with the Conditional II to express extreme regret over a past event; certain verbs, e.g. ub'hrá 'can, may, might', also have constructions with the optative.

### 2.7.2 Dependent Clauses

The following subordinating conjunctions take the optative:

| auha 'in case' | fahaú 'in such a way that' |
| :--- | :--- |
| $a b$ 'há 'before' | jys 'until' |
| ávrê 'unless' | sit'há 'supposing that' |
| bré 'after' | úrbh 'provided that' |

[^11]
### 2.7.3 Negation and Verbs of Fearing

As with the negated subjunctive, the negated optative also has a separate negation particle, namely $t^{\prime} h e^{N}$ ( $t$ ' $h$ ' with no nasalisation before vowels). Note that a negated optative indicates that the speaker wishes that something does or had not happened, e.g. t'hé dẹvyệvvaúríhá if only you had not remembered me.' The negation thus negates the wish, and not the act of wishing; for the latter, the indicative or subjunctive together with a verb such as sbee 'to wish' are used instead.

Verbs of fearing are typically construed with a dependent clause in the negated optative, e.g. jréd'hé t'hé b'háy'ẹbharẹ́ 'I was afraid lest you might leave'.

### 2.8 The Conjugation of the Copula ed

There is only one irregular verb in UF, namely the copula ed. All of its forms are highly irregular. The copula lacks passive forms, as well as the Future I. The preterite anterior is a periphrastic construction of the preterite participle of ed and its present tense, ${ }^{22}$ e.g. theedâ $v y^{\prime}$ ' 'I had been'. Note that only the participle is inflected for mood in this case, e.g. subjunctive therâ $v y$ 'i' 'I should have been'.

| IND | Present |  | Pres. Ant. |  | Preterite |  | Future II |  | Fut. Ant. |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | Sg | Pl | Sg | Pl | Sg | Pl | Sg | Pl | Sg | Pl |
| 1ST | vy'í | aúsó | ve | aúfý | vet'h | wedy'ó | vệhér | aúhér | vẹhér | aúfêr |
| 2ND | de | b'hed | dyf | b'hu | det'h | b'hedy'é | dyhér | b'hehér | dyfér | b'huhér |
| 3M | le | lesó | leb'h | lefýr | let'h | let'he | lehér | lẹhér | leb'hér | lefêr |
| 3 F | lle | llẹsó | lleb'h | llefýr | llet'h | llet'he | llehér | llẹhér | lleb'hér | llefêer |
| 3N | se | lasó | seb'h | lafýr | set'h | laet'h | sehér | lahér | seb'hér | lafêr |
| INF |  | éd | éfyd <br> fyḍâ |  | ét'hed <br> t'hedâ |  | éhér |  | éfér |  |
| PTCP |  | dâ |  |  | hérâ | férâ |  |

Table 23: Indicative Paradigm of ed.

| SUBJ | Present |  | Pres. Ant. |  | Preterite |  | Future II |  | Fut. Ant. |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | Sg | Pl | Sg | Pl | Sg | Pl | Sg | Pl | Sg | Pl |
| 1ST | vy'íra | aúra | vesa | aúfýs | vedra | wedra | vẹhéra | aúhéra | vẹhéra | aúfêra |
| 2ND | dera | b'hera | dys | b'hus | dedra | b'hedra | dyhéra | b'hehéra | dyféra | b'huhéra |
| 3 M | lera | lera | les | lefýs | ledra | le’thra | lehéra | lẹhéra | leb'héra | lefêra |
| 3 F | llera | llẹa | lles | llefýs | lledra | llet'hra | llehéra | llẹhéra | lleb'héra | lleffêra |
| 3N | sera | lara | ses | lafýs | sedra | laet'hra | sehéra | lahéra | seb'héra | lafêra |
| INF | édra |  | éfysa |  | ét'hera |  |  |  |  |  |
| PTCP | derâ |  | fysâ |  | t'hẹrâ |  | hérarâ |  | férarâ |  |

Table 24: Subjunctive Paradigm of ed.

[^12]| OPT | Present |  | Pres. Ant. |  | Preterite |  | Future II |  | Fut. Ant. |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | Sg | Pl | Sg | Pl | Sg | Pl | Sg | Pl | Sg | Pl |
| 1ST | víra | aúry'a | vess'a | aúfýy'a | vedraä | wedrä̈ | vẹ́ra | aúra | vera | aúfrá |
| 2ND | dy'era | b'hery'a | dysy'a | b'huy'a | dedraä | b'hedraä | dyra | b'hera | dyra | b'hura |
| 3 M | ly'era | lerya | lesy'a | lefýya | ledraä | le'thrä̈ | lera | lera | leb'hra | lefrá |
| 3F | llyera | llerry'a | llesy'a | llefýy'a | lledraä | llet'hraä | lléra | llera | lleb'hra | llefrá |
| 3N | sy'era | larya | sesya | lafýy'a | sedraä | laet'hraü | sera | lara | seb'hra | lafrá |
| INF | édy’a |  |  |  |  |  | éhérá |  | éférá |  |
| PTCP | $d y^{\prime} \hat{a}$ |  | fyy'â |  | t'hẹáá |  | héráâ |  | féráâ |  |

Table 25: Optative Paradigm of ed.

All forms of the copula are shown in Tables 23-25, except for the Conditional I and II, which are formed by infixing -ss- before the -ér, -êr desinences and -ssa-before the -ra and -rá desinences of the Future II and Future Anterior forms, respectively.

Unlike nearly every other word in the language, disyllabic forms of the copula are stressed on the first syllable, and trisyllabic forms are stressed on the second syllable-except for hérarâ, férarâ, héráâ, and féráá, which are stressed on the first syllable. All other participle forms are stressed on the last syllable. In forms of the copula, $a e$ is pronounced /aí/.

The etymology of these forms is mostly from a gradual simplification of coalesced forms of the personal pronouns with the PF copula. To compensate for the fact that PF lacks certain forms that are present in UF, some of the forms were coined by analogy. For instance, the pres ant inf éfy $y$ is derived from the pres ant stem $* f y$ and the pres inf éd, and the same is true for the pret inf ét'hẹd.

### 2.9 Numerals

UF has four sets of numerals: cardinals, e.g. $d y$ 'two'; ordinals, e.g. $d y ́ z y$ 'ê 'second'; multipliers, e.g. dub 'twice'; and fractions, e.g. déví 'half'. The numerals are shown in the table below.

| № | Cardinal | Ordinal | Multiplier | Fractional |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 1 | y | révy’é | séb | ády ${ }^{\text {é }}$ |
| 2 | $d y$ | dýzy ${ }^{\text {e }}$ | dub | déví |
| 3 | rrá | rrázy'ê | rîb | yér |
| 4 | c'had | c'hadríyê | c'hadrýb | c'hár |
| 5 | séc'h | sécé | c'hét'hy ${ }^{\text {a }}$ | c'hé |
| 6 | sis | sizy' ${ }^{\text {e }}$ | sec'hsdy ${ }^{\text {b }}$ | sic'hs |
| 7 | sèd | sèdy' ${ }^{\text {en }}$ | sèdy ${ }^{\text {b }}$ | sè |
| 8 | y'id | y'ídy ${ }^{\text {e }}$ | auc'hdy ${ }^{\text {b }}$ | auc'h |
| 9 | nýt'h | nýb'hy' ${ }^{\text {e }}$ | nýb | ny |
| 10 | dis | dizy'ê | dehy ${ }^{\text {a }}$ | deh |
| 11 | aúz | aúzy'ê | aúzyb | auz |
| 12 | duz | duzy'̂̀ | duzy ${ }^{\text {b }}$ | $d u z$ |
| 13 | réz | rézy'ê | rézy | rez |
| 14 | c'hat'haúr | c'hat'haúrzy'ê | c'hat'haúrzy? | c'hat'haurz |
| 15 | c'héz | c'hézyề | c'hézy ${ }^{\text {b }}$ | c'hez |
| 16 | sez | sezy'ê | sezyb | sez |
| 17 | dihèd | dihèdy'ê | dihèdy | dihè |
| 18 | dizy'íd | dizy'ı́dy'ê | dizy'ídy | dizy'i |
| 19 | diznýt'h | diznýb'hy'ê | diznýt'hy ${ }^{\text {a }}$ | diznyb'h |
| 20 | b'hé | b'héy'ê | b'hédy ${ }^{\text {b }}$ | b'he |
| 21 | b'héd $y^{\prime}$ | b'héd rév'yé | b'héd séb | b'héd ády'é |


| 30 | b'héd dis | b'héd dizy'ê | b'héd dehyb | b'héd deh |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 31 | b'héd aúz | b'héd aúzy'ê | b'héd aúzyb | b'héd auz |
| 40 | dýb'hé | dýb'héy'ê | dýb'hédy ${ }^{\text {b }}$ | dýb'he |
| 50 | dýb'héd dis | dýb'héd dizy'ê | dýb'héd dehy | dýb'héd deh |
| 60 | rráb'hé | rráb'héyề | ráb'hédy ${ }^{\text {a }}$ | rráb'he |
| 70 | rráb'héd dis | rráb'héd dizy ${ }^{\text {ê }}$ | rráb'héd dehy | rráb'héd deh |
| 80 | c'haḍb'hé | c'haḍb'héy'ê | c'hadb'hédy ${ }^{\text {b }}$ | c'hadb'he |
| 90 | c'hadb'héd dis | c'hadb'héd dizy'̂ | c'hadb'héd dehyb | c'hadb'héd deh |
| 100 | sá | sády ${ }^{\text {ê }}$ | sády | sád |
| 101 | sád ${ }^{\text {y }}$ | sád rév'yẹ | sád séb | säd ády ${ }^{\text {ce }}$ |
| 200 | dýsá | dýsády ${ }^{\text {e }}$ e | dýsády | dysád |
| 300 | rásá | rásády ${ }^{\text {ê }}$ | rásády ${ }^{\text {b }}$ | rásád |
| 400 | c'hasá | c'hasády'ê | c'hasády ${ }^{\text {b }}$ | c'hasád |
| 500 | sésá | sésády'ê | sésády ${ }^{\text {cou }}$ | sésád |
| 600 | sisá | sisády ${ }^{\text {êe }}$ | sisády ${ }^{\text {b }}$ | sisád |
| 700 | sèsá | sèsády'ê | sèsády ${ }^{\text {b }}$ | sèsád |
| 800 | y'issá | y'ísády'ê | y'ísády | y'ísád |
| 900 | nýsá | nýsády ${ }^{\text {ê }}$ | nýsády | nýsád |
| 1000 | víl | vily'e | vildy | vilád |
| 1001 | vil ed ${ }^{\text {y }}$ | víl ed rév'yé | vil ed séb | vil ed ády'é |
| 2000 | dy vil | dývily'ê | dy vildy ${ }^{\text {b }}$ | dývilád |
| 10000 | dis vil | dis vily' | dis vildy | dis vilád |
| $10^{6}$ | víwaú | víwaúyê | víwaúdy | víwaúd |
| $10^{12}$ | dýwaú | dýwaúy'ê | dýwaúdyb | dýwaúd |
| $10^{18}$ | ráwaú | ráwaúy’ê | ráwaúdy ${ }^{\text {a }}$ | ráwaụd |

The numbers 1-20 are irregular; after that, ordinals are formed by adding -y'e to the cardinal and multipliers by adding - $d y b$ to the cardinal; fractionals are more irregular: the tens lose nasalisation of the final vowel, e.g. $d y b^{b}$ 'hé 'forty' vs $d y b^{\prime} h e^{\text {'(a) fortieth'; in the hundreds and after, a final -(á) } d \text { is added }}$ instead. Extra syllables added by non-cardinal forms do not count as part of the stem for the purpose of stress.

After 20, numbers of different orders of magnitude are combined with the particle ed, which is solely used for this exact purpose. After a vowel, it is reduced to 'd, e.g. sád y' '101' or sád b'héd $\dot{y}$ ' 121 ' from sá ' 100 ', b'hé ' 20 ' and $y$ ' 'one'. In non-cardinals, only the last part is of ordinal, multiplier, or fractional form, e.g. sád b'héd séb ' 121 times'.

In writing, non-cardinals are frequently abbreviated, preferably with superscripts if possible. Ordinals are abbreviated with $y^{y \hat{e}}$, e.g. $27^{y \hat{e}}$ ' 27 th', except for numbers ending with révy'é 'first', which are abbreviated with ${ }^{y^{\prime}}{ }^{\prime}$ instead, e.g. $21^{y \text { yé ' }} 21 \mathrm{st}$ ', as well as numbers ending with sécé 'fifth', which are abbreviated with ${ }^{c e}$ instead, e.g. $25^{c e}{ }^{c e}$ ' 25 th'.

Multipliers are abbreviated with subscripts if possible; those ending with séb 'once' to nýb 'nine times' are abbreviated with the last two letters of that word, e.g. $23_{i b}$ ' 23 times'. All other multipliers are abbreviated with ${ }_{y b}$, e.g. $31_{y b}{ }^{\text {' }} 31$ times. $^{23}$

Fractions are typically abbreviated with the usual notation, e.g. $1 / 2,1 / 4$, etc.

### 2.10 Pronouns

Pronouns in UF are a rather complicated subject matter since they are becoming increasingly vestigial. UF has a set of personal pronouns which only exist in oblique cases; a set of simple possessive pronouns, a set of demonstrative pronouns, as well as interrogative and relative pronouns.

[^13]
### 2.10.1 Personal pronouns

Table 27 below lists all forms of the UF personal pronouns.

|  | Sg |  |  | Pl |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | 1ST | 2ND | 3 C 3N | 1ST | 2ND | 3RD |
| Absolutive | vè | t'hè | lè sè | aú | vaú | $y$ |
| Vocative |  | et'hè | / / | / | evaú | / |
| Genitive | vaú | daú | $e z / z^{\prime} / \bar{z}$ | naúd | vaúd | lýr |
| Prepositional | ve | t'he | le se | aun | vau | ly |

Table 27: UF Personal Pronouns

## Nominative and Accusative

There are a few things that need to be noted here: there are no nom and ACc pronouns; those forms have been incorporated into the verb and cannot be used without a verb. For instance, when answering a question, typically, either the same verb that was used to ask the question is repeated or an appropriate form of the verb fér 'to do' is used, e.g. if asked $U$ c'hes dẹvad'hór ra dẹy'ad'hór? 'Do you love me or him?', an UF speaker might respond with dad'hór 'I love you' or dẹfér 'you' (lit. 'I do you').

On that note, there are several ways of shortening the question itself: In sentences that contain the same verb with the same affix twice, the second occurrence of that affix may be omitted, e.g. $U$ c'hes dẹvad'hór ra y'ad'hór?; the verb fér may be used to avoid repetition, e.g. $U$ c'hes dẹvad'hór ra y'fér?; and, finally, the entire first occurrence of the verb sans the person markers may be omitted, leaving said affixes stranded in the sentence, e.g. U c'hes dẹv-ra y'ad'hór?. This last option is generally preferred since it it is the shortest option, but, of course, it is only possible if the first verb form contains only prefixes.

## Partitive

The PART forms of the personal pronoun are rather strange; generally, verbs that govern the part simply take regular passive affixes instead. However, verbs that can be formed with both the acc and part as well as pCIs employ special partitive forms of the passive affixes that are constructed by infixing - $d y$ after the prefix part of the corresponding passive affix-or before the suffix part if there is no prefix part-e.g. jsylí 'I peruse it' vs jsydylí 'I read from it' or lírá ‘be perused!’ vs lídyrá ‘be read from!! ${ }^{24}$

## Genitive

The possessees of GEN pronouns can be definite or indefinite, e.g. vaú lát'halẹ 'my table' vs vaú ŷnalẹ 'a table of mine'. Most GEN pronouns are not particularly special and behave just like regular genitives; the exception is the 3SG pronoun that is used for all three genders: its base form is ez, e.g. ez lát'hale 'his/her/its table', but after a word that ends with a vowel, the $e$ is dropped, and it is instead written 'z, e.g. devvaúríhe'z st'hale 'to remember a table of his/hers/its'. If the following word starts with a vowel, it is somtimes written $z^{\prime}$, ${ }^{25}$ e.g. devvaúrihe $z^{\prime}$ it'hale 'to remember his/her/its table', though devvaúrihe'z $i t$ hale is also common and preferred in traditional literature.

## Prepositional

The 'prepositional' form is not a case, but rather a form that case prefixes attach to to form all the other cases, e.g. the 2SG INSTR would be b'helt'he 'with you'. Note that personal pronouns use the definite case prefixes of the appropriate number. All remaining cases can be formed this way, but of course not the abs, NOM, ACC, PART, voc, and GEN. The prepositional form is never used in isolation.

[^14]
### 2.10.2 Possessive Pronouns

UF does not really have possessive pronouns; instead, it has a series of possessive adjectives, whichjust like most other 'adjectives'-are really just a series of adjective verbs: $y$ ' $\hat{e}$ 'to be mine', $d y$ ' $\hat{e}$ 'to be yours (SG), sy'é 'to be his/hers/its', naúd 'to be ours', vaud 'to be yours (PL)', and lýrd 'to be theirs'. These verbs are chiefly used as verbs, e.g. ynale sy'ê 'it is a table of mine'; for just expressing 'my' etc., the GEN of the corresponding possessive pronoun is used instead, as indicated above.

### 2.10.3 Demonstrative Pronouns

UF has three main demonstrative pronouns: swi 'the one, that one, this one', seh 'this', and sy'e 'that'. All three are normally indeclinable and precede whatever they qualify: the first generally occurs in isolation, in which case it is declined as a definite noun, or indeclinably with an adjective, e.g. swi bẹt'hâ 'the small one', the latter two always precede a definite noun, e.g. sẹh lát'hale 'this table', and are themselves never declined. It is not possible to combine demonstratives with one another.

### 2.10.4 Relative Pronoun

The UF relative pronoun is a 'which, who, that'. Its most obvious and direct use is to form relative clauses and agrees in definiteness and number with the noun it qualifies, e.g. lát'hale, ia jad'hór 'the table that I love' or ŷnale, sa jad'hór 'a table that I love'.

If the antecedent is too far away from the relative clause, it may be repeated in the relative clause, typically at the very beginning, in which case the relative pronoun follows it and is not inflected at all, e.g. lát'hale, it'hale a jad'hór 'the table, which table I love'. In literary language, this construction is generally preferred over inflecting the relative pronoun if the two are far apart.

### 2.10.5 Interrogative Pronoun

The interrogative pronoun is the same as the relative pronoun, except that it is also followed by the question particle c'hes. Unlike the relative pronoun, it is always declined. On its own, it takes indefinite case when it refers to a thing, e.g. Sa c'hes dad'hór? 'What do you love?', and definite case when it refers to a person, e.g. Ia c'hes ḍad'hór? 'Whom do you love?'

If the subject of the question is a noun phrase that contains more than just the interrogative pronoun, pronoun and question particle are added after the entire phrase, and the pronoun is not declined, e.g. Ynale a c'hes dad'hór? 'Which table do you love?'. In informal speech, the $a$ is even omitted sometimes.

A common variant spelling in older literature is to write the pronoun and question particle as one word, e.g. sac'hes instead of sa c'hes or to contract the 'e', e.g. sac'h's.

### 2.11 Summary of Coalescence Rules

When vowels collide at morpheme boundaries, though chiefly in suffixes, they often coalesce into a single vowel that depends on the qualities and nasality of the two vowels. How exactly this coalescence works depends on the morphemes in question, but generally, there are 4 overarching principles to be aware of:

1. Vowels at the end of a suffix or at the beginning of a prefix may simply be omitted instead; this is particularly common in verb forms.
2. If one of the vowels is $e$, it is dropped; the resulting vowel is the other vowel.
3. If one of the vowels is nasalised, the resulting vowel is generally also nasalised; if both vowels are nasalised or nasal, the resulting vowel will be nasal.
4. If the first vowel is part of a verb stem, it is often simply deleted or at least overridden by the second vowel in terms of quality.

The following table lists all coalescence rules in the language. For more information, see the corresponding sections in which the forms in question are introduced. Note that trivial cases of vowels being dropped entirely are not listed in this table.

Unless otherwise indicated, vowel letters, e.g. o, represent any variant of that vowel, whether oral, nasalised, or nasal. o also includes variants of au (e.g. aú, but not áu, of course, as those are two vowels and not a digraph). Subscripts may be used to track nasalisation, and a + sign indicates a level of nasalisation is added. Since glides also influence contractions in some cases, they are included in this table. In the case of the abbreviations V and G , if there is no + , nasalisation is preserved.

Rules are matched top-down: the first matching rule is applied, all others are ignored. The affix in the 2 nd column next to the vowel(s) in the 3 rd column in the same row are replaced with the letters of the 4 th column in the indicated forms at the indicated morpheme boundary in the 1 st column. The position in the hyphen in the 2nd column indicates whether it coalesces with vowels before or after it. The letters V (as well as V ') stands for 'any vowel'. The letter G stands for 'any glide'. Abbreviations may be used where applicable (e.g. $-e(r)$ for $-e$ and $-e r$ if there is no single $-e(r)$ suffix in the paradigm in question). The abbreviation -? means 'any other suffix in this paradigm, even if they start with a consonant'.

| Form | Affix | Phonemes | Result | Reference |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| PRES 1PL | aú- | $\begin{aligned} & \hline o_{\alpha} \\ & \mathrm{V} \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & w o_{\alpha} \\ & r \mathrm{~V} \end{aligned}$ | § 2.3.1 |
| PRES 1PL ACT | -y"ó | $o_{\alpha}$ | $o_{\alpha+}$ | ibid. |
| PRES 2PL | b'h(y)- | $\begin{aligned} & \mathrm{V} \\ & \mathrm{G} \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & b^{\prime} h \mathrm{~V} \\ & b^{\prime} h \mathrm{G} \end{aligned}$ | ibid. |
| PRES 2PL ACT | -y'é | $e_{\alpha}$ | $e_{\alpha+}$ | ibid. |
| PRES INF PASS | à- | $a_{\alpha}$ | $a_{\alpha+}$ | ibid. |
| PRES PART | $-\hat{a}, \hat{a}^{-}$ | $\begin{aligned} & e \\ & \hat{\hat{V}} \\ & \mathrm{~V} \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & \hat{a} \\ & \hat{\mathrm{~V}} \hat{a}, \hat{a} \hat{\mathrm{~V}} \\ & \hat{\mathrm{~V}} \end{aligned}$ | ibid. |
| PRES ANT, PRET | $\begin{aligned} & \hline \hline-e ́(r) \\ & -a ́(r),-a ́ d ̣ \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & e \\ & e_{\alpha} \\ & e \\ & e_{\alpha} \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & \hline e ́ e(r) \\ & e_{\alpha+}(r) \\ & \dot{a}(r), a ́ d \\ & a_{\alpha+}(r), a_{\alpha+} d \end{aligned}$ | $\S 2.4 .1$ <br> ibid. |
| PRES ANT 1PL ACT | - $\hat{a}$ | à, $a, a ́$ | $\hat{a}$ | ibid. |
| FUT I INF PASS | aú(r)- | $\begin{aligned} & \hline \hat{a} \\ & \mathrm{G} \\ & \dot{a} \\ & \text { á } \end{aligned}$ | aúrâ <br> aúrG <br> aú <br> $a \hat{u}$ | § 2.4.3 |
| FUT II, FUT ANT, COND I, COND II <br> GNOMIC | $\begin{aligned} & -e \\ & -V_{\alpha} \\ & \\ & -? \\ & j(u ́ u)- \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & \mathrm{V} \\ & e{ }_{\mathrm{e}} \\ & \mathrm{~V}_{\beta}^{\prime} \\ & \text { stem } e,, e e^{\prime} \\ & \mathrm{V}_{\alpha} \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & \mathrm{V} \\ & -\mathrm{V}_{\alpha} \\ & -\mathrm{V}_{\alpha+\beta} \\ & -? \\ & j \mathrm{~V}_{\alpha+} \end{aligned}$ | §§ 2.4.4-2.4.6 § 2.5.1 |

Lastly, note that the 4 principles mentioned earlier are guidelines, not rules. There are cases of affixes that do not coalesce at all, e.g. the comparative prefix le (see § 2.2.2). If a form is not listed in this table, then, unless explicitly stated where that form is introduced (in which case case we simply forgot to
include it in the table), it does not coalesce at all. Furthermore, this table only handles coalescence rules between vowels and some vowel elision rules; other elision rules are either very regular or have nothing to do with adjacent vowels. This table exists only because coalescence rules are very similar, but sometimes subtly different.

## 3 Syntax

UF syntax is unfortunately complicated in what morphological constructs are used in what situations, and the rules are not always clear. The following is a list of the most common constructions.

### 3.1 Noun Phrases

### 3.1.1 Names and Titles

Proper nouns are declined in the definite form only. Unlike other nouns, the nominative is almost always unmarked, e.g. Daúvníc’h 'Dominic', not *Ládaúvnić'h. Titles always follow the noun they qualify, e.g. Snet'h C'haúfrér 'Brother Smyth'. Titles attached to names also do not receive any marking in the nominative, and are declined instead of the name in other cases, e.g. the accusative of 'Brother Smyth' would be Snet'h Ihaúfrér, not *Ihnet'h Ihaúfrér.

### 3.2 Independent Clauses

The UF independent clause typically consists of a finite verb together with a subject perhaps several objects. The verb is conjugated to agree with the subject in person, number, and gender in some cases.

Rab'hadó iárb.
$r$-ab'haḍ-ó i-árb
1PL-fell-1PL ACC-tree
'We are felling the tree.'
The unmarked tense in UF is the present tense, which can generally be translated as either a present or present continuous tense in English. For general truths and facts, the gnomic tense is generally used instead.

Rab'hadjô sárb.
$r$-ab'had-jô $\quad s$-árb
1PL-fell-GNOMIC $\backslash 1$ PL ACC.INDEF-tree
'We fell trees.'
The object is incorporated into the verb if it is a personal pronoun, in which case there are rules for the order in which these affixes occur (see Section 2.3).

## Lerab'hat'há.

le-r-ab'ha\t'há.
3SGM-1PL.PASS-fell\3SG.PRES.ANT
'He felled us.'
Word order is rather lax due to the presence of case marking, and any constituent can be fronted for emphasis, but the default word order is SVO or SOV.

## B’hehýnác aúlýab'hat'hâ.

b’hehýn-ác aú-lý-ab’ha\t’hâ.
INSTR.INDEF-axe 1PL-3PL.PASS-fell\1PL.PRES.ANT
'With an axe, we have felled them.'

Note that words belonging to the same phrase are typically juxtaposed as adjectives are not inflected. However, this rule may sometimes be broken, particularly in poetry. Consider, for example, the following passage in alexandrine metre, written by the renowned poet J.Y. B. SNet'h, where we can find the verb positioned between a possessive pronoun and its associated noun:

## Au lýr náýacḍaúrâ sýec̣ asvaúr sýárb.

Au lýr náý-acḍ-aúrâ sý-ec̣ as-vaúr sý-árb

And their 1PL.FUT.ANT-cleave-CIRC ACC.PL-sin DAT-world ACC-tree
'And we shall indeed have revealed their sins to the world'26

### 3.3 Negated Clauses

Negation in the indicative is expressed using the particle asy'ýa 'not', which is typically appended to verbs as 'sy'ýá. For a discussion of negation in the subjunctive, optative, and ACIs/pCIs see Sections 2.6, 2.7, and 3.6. By default, the particle is placed right after the verb:

## Aúlýab'hat'hâ'sy'ýâ b'hehýnác.

aú-lý-ab'ha\t'hâ sy’ýâ b'hehýn-ác.
1PL-3PL.PASS-fell $\backslash 1$ PL.PRES.ANT not INSTR.INDEF-axe
'We have not felled them with an axe.'
In case of a fronted constituent in an independent clause (but not in dependent clauses), the particle is placed after that constituent:

## B'hehýnác asy'ýy aúlýab'hat'hâ.

b'hehýn-ác asýýâ aú-lý-ab'halt'hâ.
INSTR.INDEF-axe not 1PL-3PL.PASS-fell $\backslash 1$ PL.PRES.ANT
'It is not with an axe that we have felled them.'
Note that it is not valid to both front a constituent and not move the negation. For example, the following sentence sounds very awkward and no UF speaker would ever say or write this, save perhaps to sound extremely ironic.

```
#B'hehýnác aúlýab'hat'hâ'sy'ýâ.
b'hehýn-ác aú-lý-ab'ha\t'hâ 'sy'yá.
INSTR.INDEF-axe 1PL-3PL.PASS-fell\1PL.PRES.ANT not
Roughly: 'With an axe, we have not-felled them.'
```

UF makes frequent use of double negation in conjunction with words that create a negative context such as jávé 'never', yê̂ 'nothing', or ráv́â ‘seldom'. Typically, such words are frontend, and consequently, the negation particle then appears appended to them, e.g.:

## Rávâ’sy'’yâ st'halẹ jact’heá.

Ráv́â 'sy'ýâ s\t'hale j-ac̣the-á
seldom not ACC.INDEF\table 1SG-buy-3SG.PRES.ANT
'Rarely have I ever bought a table.'
Note that double negation is required for the sentence to make sense; UF learners often forget about that, which can lead to rather awkward constructs such as:

[^15]
## \#Rávâ st'hale jac̣t'heá.

Rávâ stt'halẹ j-ac̣t'he-á
seldom ACC.INDEF\table 1SG-buy-3SG.PRES.ANT
Roughly: 'I rarely-bought a table.'
Still, if a fronted constituent is present, the negation particle is placed after that constituent:
St'halẹ'sy'ýâ ráv́â jac̣t'heá.
stthhalẹ 'sýyâ rávâ j-ac̣t'he-á
ACC.INDEF $\backslash$ table not seldom 1SG-buy-3SG.Pres.ANT
'A table I have bought rarely.'
Foreigners often make the mistake of assuming that the negation particle is part of a word, e.g. that ráv́â's'y'yá means 'seldom'. As such, UF speakers, when imitating a foreigner, may sometimes use more than one negation particle in a single sentence. Note that this is very much not proper language; such constructions are summarily comedic and best compared to phrases such as 'it do be like that' in English:
*Rárâ'sy'ýâ st'hale jac̣t'heá'sy'ýâ
Rávâ sy'́yâ slt’hale j-actthe-á sy'yâ
seldom not ACC.INDEF\table 1sG-buy-3SG.PRES.ANT not
Roughly: 'Rarely-not I bought a table.'

### 3.4 Interrogative Clauses

In UF, questions are generally marked by one or more particles. Unlike in many other languages, the verb generally does not move, except perhaps for emphasis. The most fundamental kind of question is a yes-no question, which is marked by the interrogative particle c'hes. The particle typically occurs in second position in the sentence (that is, after the first constituent, not after the first word):

## St'hale c'hes jac̣t'heá?

| $s \backslash t$ 'hale | c'hes | $j$-actt'he-á |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| ACC.INDEF $\backslash$ table | Q | 1SG-buy-3SG.PRES.ANT |
| 'Did I buy a table?' |  |  |

The exception to this is with forms of ed 'to be', which are typically immediately preceded by the question particle, the two forming a single word, placed at the very end of the sentence:

Raúl baú c'hesse?
raúl baú c'hes se
abs-language good Q 3N.be
'Is it a good language?'
Negation is placed in the usual position. A negated question is marked by the negation particle sy'ýa, and the expected answer is 'yes':

## St'halẹ c'hes jac̣t'heásy'ýyâ?

stthale c'hes j-ac̣t'he-á 'sy'ýâ
ACC.INDEF $\backslash$ table Q 1SG-buy-3SG.PRES.ANT not
'Did I not buy a table?'
Alternatively, the particle ( $r$ )vá can be used to indicate that the speaker expects the answer to be 'no' or to indicate disbelief, surprise, or amazement. Note that this particle replaces the question particle. Attempting to use both particles in the same sentence is ungrammatical and will likely be interpreted as stuttering.

## St'halẹvá jac̣t'heá?

st'thale $\quad$ vá j-actt'he-á
ACC.INDEF $\$ table Q 1SG-buy-3SG.Pres.ANT
'I bought a table?'
Unlike c'hes, this particle remains there even if the verb is ed 'to be':
Raúlvá baú se?

| raúl | vá | baú | se |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| ABs-language | Q | good | 3N.be |

'It is a good language?'
Of course, these questions can also be negated:

## St'halẹvá jac̣t'heás'sýýâ?

stt'hale vá j-ac̣t'he-á 'sýýâ

ACC.INDEF\table Q 1SG-buy-3SG.PRES.ANT not
'I didn't buy a table?'
The precise meaning of these questions is as follows: In St'hale c'hes jact'heá? ('Did I buy a table?'), the speaker is asking whether they themselves bought a table; a plausible situation would be that they simply forgot whether they did. Its negation, St'hale c'hes jac̣t'heás's'ýâ? ('Did I not buy a table?'), could be used if the speaker is sure they bought a table sometime ago, but they can't seem to find it and are starting to doubt themselves ('Did I not buy a table? I'm sure I did.').

By contrast, the question St'halęvá jac̣t'heá?) would be an assertion of disbelief; maybe the speaker found a table in their loft, and they can't seem to remember buying it, but the price tag is still there. Finally, its negation St'halẹá jac̣t'heás sy'ýâ? would most likely be the speaker expressing their frustration over the fact that they can't seem to find their table and asserting that, in fact, they know for sure that they did indeed buy a table ('Did I not buy a table? I know I did!').

Fronting of the verb in the last two cases generally indicates confusion rather than amazement or anger and is most commonly used in response to someone else's statement so as to ask for clarification ('What do you mean "I bought a table"; what are you talking about?').

## Jac̣t'heává st'hale?

```
j-ac̣t'he-á vá slt'hale
1SG-buy-3SG.PRES.ANT Q ACC.INDEF\table
'I bought a table?!'
```

The same applies to the negated version of such a question:

## Jact'heá'sy'ýŷvá st'hale?

| j-actthe-á | 'sy'ýyâ | vá | slt'hale |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| 1SG-buy-3SG.PRES.ANT | not | Q | ACC.INDEF $\backslash$ table |
| 'I didn't buy a table?!!' |  |  |  |

Note the order of particles: negation precedes the question particle. Placing them the other way around makes it sound like you're trying to correct yourself from Jac̣t'hévá to Jactthésy'ýga.

### 3.5 Subordination and Coordination

Subordinate dependent clauses clauses as well as coordinate independent clauses are typically introduced by conjunctions or sentential particles; usually, these particles are placed in second position in the clause (i.e. after some other constituent), e.g. observe the position of vé 'but' in the following sentence:

## St'hale vé jad'hór.

stt'hale vé j-ad'hór
ACC.INDEF\table but 1 SG -love
'But I love a table.'
Note that particles may sometimes also be placed after the first word of a clause instead if the first constituent is too long; this is particularly common with conjunctions that come in pairs such as $u$... u ... '... or ...(inclusive)':

## U vé st'halẹ u sárb jad'hór.

$u$ vé stt'halẹ u s-árb j-ad'hór
or but ACC.INDEF\table or ACC.INDEF-tree 1SG-love
'But I love a table or a tree.'

### 3.6 ACI and PCI

The term AcI is Latin for accūsātīvus cum infīnītī̄o 'accusative with infinitive'. As the name would suggest, this grammatical construction consists of a dependent clause formed by an ACC noun together with an infinitive; the noun is the subject or object of the clause, and the infinitive the predicate. This construction is most well-known from Classical languages such as Latin or Ancient Greek, but it is also found in various other languages, including English and, of course, UF:

## Lácár sbhaú àfér lááéd'há.

| lálc̣ár | $s$ ¢bhaú | à-fér | l-ájéd'h\á |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| nom $\backslash$ Charles | ACC.Indef \bridge | Inf.pass-build | 3M-order\PRES.ANT |
| ‘Charles order | a bridge to be built. |  |  |

In this sentence, the matrix clause is Lácár lájéd'há 'Charles ordered', and the dependent clause is formed by the aci sbhaú àfér 'a bridge to be built'. Since 'a bridge' is the object in this case, the passive infinitive is used. Observe how this sentence's translation also uses an ACI with a passive infinitive in both English ('Charles ordered a bridge to be built') as well as Latin (Carolus pontem fierī iussit).

UF does not have a word for 'that' as in 'I think that ...' or 'I know that ...'; instead, it uses acis in these cases. Just how multiple 'that' clauses can be chained in English, so can multiple acis in UF.

## Icár sbhaú àfér dájédá jsavá.

i\c̣ár slbhaú à-fér d-ájéd-á j-savá
ACC\Charles ACC.INDEF\bridge inf.pass-build InF-order-PRES.ANT 1SG-know
'I know that Charles ordered a bridge to be built.'
Whenever a word is marked as taking an ACI in the dictionary, it may also take a PCI instead if that makes sense semantically; there are no words that syntactically may take an ACI, but not a PCI. Finally, note that 'that' is not always expressed with an ACI or PCI. Certain verbs, e.g. verbs of fearing, may take a dependent clause in the subjunctive or optative instead (see $\S \$ 2.6,2.7$ ).

### 3.6.1 Nested ACIs

When multiple Acis are chained together, they are nested such that ACC comes first and the infinitive last or vice versa, and any nested Acis are placed inbetween; observe that, in the sentence above, the ACI sbhaú àfér 'a bridge to be built' is nested inside Icár dájédá 'Charles to have ordered. The literal translation of this sentence would thus be 'I know Charles to have ordered a bridge to be built'.

Furthermore, note that the finite verb of the matrix clause of an ACI receives only a subject marker if the ACI is the object and vice versa. Thus, we have jsaváa 'I know' in the example above instead of e.g. jsysav́á 'I know it'. It would be possible to add the object marker in the example above, but it would
sound a bit strange, roughly 'I know it: that Charles ordered a bridge to be built', and the verb would probably have to be fronted for the sentence to make sense that way.

The exception, of course, is if the matrix clause is in the passive, in which case, as ever, the passive affix is added regardless, seeing as the verb would not be finite otherwise, e.g. sysavá it is known that'.

### 3.6.2 PCIs

In addition to acis, UF also has pcis, which use the part case instead. The part generally indicates that an action is incomplete (see $\S 2.1 .1$ ), and thus PCIs can be used to express something similar; for instance:

## Lácár dŷnbaú àfér láééd'há.

| lá\cár | $d \hat{y} n$-ḅaú | à-fér | l-ájéd’h\á |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| NOM\Charles | PART.INDEF-bridge | INF.PASs-build | 3M-order\PRES.ANT |
| 'Charles ordered to start building a bridge.' |  |  |  |

The translation of the sentence above isn't the best, but we start to run into a problem here, since UF uses Acis and pcis much more prolifically than English does. A somewhat literal translation of this sentence would be something along the lines of 'Charles ordered the building of a bridge to be started', but it isn't perfect either since 'building' is a gerund but in the sentence above, it's an infinitive. In modern English, there simply is no good literal translation for this sentence that preserves the passive infinitive.

### 3.6.3 Resolving Ambiguity

When dealing with ACIS and PCIS that involve verbs that also take ACC and PART arguments, respectively, or other infinitives which do, one must be careful not to construct garden-path sentences. For instance, take sḅátýr sýçahý dýbháhẹ dylí dub'hrá. Here, the PCI is marked in bold, and the intended meaning is 'for speakers to be able to read each other's thoughts'. Unfortunately, however, 'read' also takes a part here, and thus, it is possible to construct a different PCI, namely sluátýr sýçahý dýbháhẹ dylí dub'hrá 'for speakers to read each other's thoughts', and dub'hrá 'to be able to' is awkwardly left hanging at the end of the sentence.

To fix this problem, rearrange the sentence so the infinitive of the ACI or PCI is placed first and put the verbs of any enclosed verb phrases first in those phrases to indicate that any immediately following ACC or PART nouns are part of that verb rather than of the ACI or PCI: dub'hrá dylí sýcahý dýbháhẹ sḷátýr. This rule is sometimes intentionally subverted in cases where the double meaning is desirable, or in poetry, where word order is a lot looser, but it would be very awkward to do so in prose.

In speech, this problem is more readily solved via intonation by placing emphasis and separating the 'contents' of the ACI or PCI from the infinitive and noun with short pauses, e.g. sbátýr \| sýcahý dýbháhẹ dylí|| dub'hrá.

### 3.6.4 Negation

Negation of Acis and pcis uses the same particle as negation in the optative, viz. t'hé (see Section 2.7.3), attached to the verb of the aci. For example:

## Lácár sbhaú t'h'àfér lááéd'há.

$\begin{array}{llll}\text { lá } \text { ccár } & s \backslash b h a u ́ ~ & \text { t'h'-à-fér } & \text { l-ájéd’h\á } \\ \text { NOM\Charles } & \text { ACC.INDEF\bridge } & \text { INF.PASs-build } & \text { 3M-order\PRES.ANT }\end{array}$
'Charles ordered that no bridge be built.'
Note that this only applies to negating verb of the ACI itself-the verb of the matrix clause is negated
normally. Where the meaning of the two is equivalent, negating the verb of the ACI is generally preferred.

## Lácár sbhaú àfér lájéd'hásy’ýyâ.

| lálc̣ár | s\bhaú | à-fér | l-ájéd'h\á | 'sý'yáa |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| nOM\Charles | ACC.INDEF\bridge | INF.PASs-build | 3M-order\PRES.ANT | not |
| 'Charles did not order a bridge to be built.' |  |  |  |  |

### 3.6.5 Pronominal ACIs and PCIs

One of the most counterintuitive constructions in UF is the pronominal ACI, i.e an ACI that is formed using an infinitive and a pronoun. However, since separate pronouns do not exist in the acc or part case (see § 2.10.1), passive affixes are used instead, even if the form is intended to be active in meaning:

## Lácár delýbard lájéd'há.

lálc̣ár dẹ-lý-barḍ l-áéd’h\á
nom $\backslash$ Charles inf-3pl.pass-leave 3 M -order $\backslash$ pres.ant
'Charles ordered them to leave.'
If the meaning of the sentence is intended to be passive, the passive infinitive is used instead. This is one of the only cases where a verb can receive two markers of the same voice:

## Lácár àsyfér lájéd'há.

lálc̣ár à-sy-fér l-ájéd’h\á
nom\Charles inf.pass-3SG.PASs-build 3M-order\Pres.ANT
'Charles ordered it to be built.'
Thus, the voice of a pronominal ACI or PCI depends on the voice of the infinitive marker, and not that of the finite marker. Finally, a pronominal PCI is formed as expected, i.e. with the pronominal partitive infix - $d y$ - (see § 2.10.1)

## Lácár delýdybard lájéd'há.

lá|c̣ár dẹ-lý-dy-ḅarḍ l-ájéd’h\á
nom \Charles inf-3PL.PASS-part-leave 3 M -order $\backslash$ pres.ant
'Charles ordered them to get going.'

### 3.7 Conditionals

UF conditionals can broadly be divided into four categories: Simple (s), potential (p), counterfactual (c), and irrealis (I). In the examples below, the letter in brackets indicates the type of conditional.

Unlike other languages, UF does not use any form of backshifting. Thus, a past tense is used in a conditional sentence if and only if the action, from the speaker's perspective, takes place in the past. Even counterfactual conditionals, if they appertain to the present, still use present tense. There are, however, other restrictions on tense in that not all kinds of conditionals appertain to all tenses. For instance, it is impossible to construct a potential conditional in the past tense-that would have to be a counterfactual conditional instead.

### 3.7.1 Simple Conditionals

Simple conditionals indicate basic implications and logical truths. These conditionals use the indicative in both the protasis and apodosis, in the appropriate tense. The protasis is generally introduced by the particle $s$ 'if'.
$S \mathrm{r}$ sré, â̂-r sfe. (s)
$s \quad \mathrm{r} \quad s$-ré $\quad a \hat{u}-\quad \mathrm{r} \quad s$-fe
if $r \quad 3 \mathrm{~N}$-be.true non- $r \quad 3 \mathrm{~N}$-be.false
'If $r$ is true, then not $-r$ is false.'27

### 3.7.2 Potential Conditionals

Potential conditionals indicate that something is possible or could happen in the present or future (but not in the past), provided some condition is met, but which is not currently the case. These conditionals use the present indicative ( P 1 ) or the present (spoken) or Future II (literary) optative in the future ( P 2 ) in the protasis, and the Conditional I in the apodosis.
$S$ desehúrvé, aúrrzaúsdressa júrdy'í. (P1)
$s$ dẹ-sẹhúr-vé aúr-rzaúsdre-ssla júrdy’í
if 2 SG-help-DAT. 1 ST 3N.FUT.II - -be.complete-COND $\backslash$ CIRC $_{1}$ today
'If you were to help me, it could be finished today.'

$s$ vê dẹ-yệlhẹhúr-vé aúr-rzaúsḍre-ss\a aḅrdvê
if tomorrow 2 SG-OPT $\backslash$ help-DAT.1ST 3 N.FUT.II - be.complete-COND $\backslash$ CIRC $_{1}$ day.after.tomorrow 'If you were to help me tomorrow, it could be finished the day after tomorrow.'

This sentence indicates that the speaker believes that, if the addressee helps them, there is a possibility that they could finish the task. If, by contrast, the speaker is certain that they will get the task done, a simple conditional is used instead:

## $S$ desehúrvé, aúrrzaúsdre júrdy'í. (s)

$s$ dẹ-sẹhúr-vé aúr-rzaúsḍ̆ $\backslash e$ júrdy’í
if 2SG-help-dat.1sT 3 N.FUT. $I_{1}$-be.complete CIRC $_{1}$ today
'If you help me, it will (with certainty) be finished today.'

### 3.7.3 Counterfactual Conditionals

Counterfactual conditionals are conditionals whose apodosis is false. These conditionals exist only in the present and past and use the subjunctive in the present or any past tense in the protasis, and the Conditional II in the apodosis:
$S$ desehúsvé, aúrrzaúsdressá. (c)
$s$ dẹ-sẹhús-vé aúr-rzaúsdre-sslá
if 2 SG-help.sUbJ-DAT.1sT 3 N.FUT.ANT ${ }_{1}$-be.complete-COND $\backslash$ CIRC $_{1}$
'If you were helping me, it would be finished.'

## $S$ desehúhávé, aúrrzaúsdressá y'ér. (c)

$s$ dẹ-sẹhúh\á-vé aúr-rzaúsdre-ss\á yér
if 2SG-help.SUBJ $\backslash$ 3RD.PRES.ANT-DAT.1ST 3 N.FUT.ANT ${ }_{1}$-be.complete-COND CIRC $_{1}$ yesterday
'If you had helped me, it would have been finished yesterday.'

### 3.7.4 Irrealis Conditionals

Irrealis conditionals are conditionals that describe a situation that could never be true. They are distinct from potential conditionals in that they cannot possibly happen, and from counterfactuals in that the

[^16]apodosis is not 'false', either because it is not a statement, but rather a wish etc. (I1), or because it hasn't happened yet ( I 2 ). This also means that irrealis conditionals are constrained to the present and future tense and are chiefly used to describe something that the speaker knows won't happen. In a sense, they are often the opposite of potential conditionals. They use the optative in the protasis and the subjunctive in the apodosis.

## $S$ dey'ehehúrvé, srzaúsdhá y'ér! ( (11)

$s$ dẹ-yẹ̀lhẹhúr-vé s-rzaúsḍhá y'ér
if 2 SG-OPT $\backslash$ help-DAT.1ST 3 N -be.complete.SUB $\backslash$ \PRES.ANT.3SG yesterday
'If only you were helping me-it would have been finished yesterday!'

## $S v e ̂$ b'háy'ehehúrrevé, aúr-rzaúsdre-śe abrdvê. (I2)

$s$ vê b'há-y'ẹ̀lhẹhúrre-vé aúr-rzaúsḍe-śe aḅrdvê
if tomorrow 2SG.FUT.II-OPT $\backslash$ help.FUT-DAT.1ST 3 .FUT.II-be.complete.FUT-FUT.SUBJ overmorrow Roughly: 'If you had been able to help me tomorrow, it would have been finished the day after.'

The second example in particular is hard to translate since it communicates an irrealis in the future, at the same time using a morphological future in both the apodosis and the protasis. The tenses used in the translation here thus do not reflect the tense actually used in UF.

## 4 Examples

### 4.1 Simple Examples

### 4.1.1 Simple Glossing Example

## Cárvá, sráhó dwávaût'há dact'heá?

| C̣ár | vá | $s$-ráhó | dwá-vât'há | do-act'he-á |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 'jãvu | ข̃a | , suqã'hõ' |  | daj' ${ }^{\text {a }}$ e.ã |
| Charles.voc | article | Indef.acc-fish | DEF.INESS-mountain | 2SG-buy-Pres.ANT.2SG |
| Charles | ought a fis | on the mounta |  |  |

### 4.1.2 I Don't Think This Warrants Explaining

Stérá de c'hóný áb'hásy'ô, ráy'ê y'aúhý dís dyb'hóy'e sab'héy'. Ez lé-el lalebet'he z'ihór bet'hê rêsol daudé. Ýab'héy' rêd'hes lab'hóy'ejú, dŷna c'haúr debauhib sá lasusy'és ýrâhe lasyrrájú.
sté-rá de c'hóný áb’hásy'ô ráy’ê y’aúhý ḍ-ís dy-b’hóy'ẹ

s-ab'héy' ez lé-el la-le-bet'hẹ $\quad$ ' ihór bet'hê
ACC.INDEF-bee its NOM.PL-wing 3PL-AFF.COMP-be.small its ACC\body be.small\PART
rê-sol ḍ-auḍé ý-ab'héy' rêd'hes la-b'hóy'ẹ-jú dŷn-a c'haúr
ABL-soil INF-obtain NOM.PL.INDEF-bee of.course 3N.PL-fly-GN PART-what as
deẹbauhib sá la-susyéls lá-râhẹ la-sy-rrá-jú
inf-be.impossible not 3 N.PL-care.about\SUBJ NOM.PL.INDEF-human 3 N. PL-3N.PASs-believe-GN
'According to all known laws of aviation, there is no way a bee should be able to fly. Its wings are too small to get its fat little body off the ground. The bee, of course, flies anyway because bees don't care what humans think is impossible.'

Literal translation: 'According to all known laws of aviation, there is no way that a bee should be capable
of flight. ${ }^{28}$ Its wings are too small for its little body to obtain [distance] from the ground. Of course, bees fly [anyway], as they do not care about what humans believe to be impossible.

### 4.2 Copypasta Translation

Rub'hráy'ó rát'he au sré au sfêhe laut'hâ adŷbátýr Át'hebhaú Raúl dedesle, s aút'hiy'ey’ó sývéhýr dýhisdé sérdélaúây'êr; aúc'haúbrâdy'ơ'sy'ýy â védúr dyhaúbhausy'ô sehabhvisy'ô. Sýlývy'ér saúr c'hesse? Lec'hdraúvnét'hic'hâ nérje c'hesse? Árdihyl c'hesse? Sauz-aud de c'hesse? Jávé'sy'y yâ jrét'hádédedónéle dýhabhahit'he deýebhat'hic'hâ Áraúl dybhát. Aúrsáheressá. Jdír jys dub'hrá au dylí sýcahý dýbháhe au dylýáváa'é b'hýcahý sbátýr Áraúl.

Lásásc'hríd raúl révéy'ýr c'hessejú? Léraúb'he lasydír, lavâhe vésbhárde sásy'élâ Áraúl. Sráhis'sy'ýâ id'hír deb'hýlnér u b'hesaúr rêvú â̂-át'heýebhat'he u B'helfaúr sraúb'he. Jav́ár sáví lyzy'ýr ádróid. Sy'ub'hrá dahaúr isásc'hríd dwáníb'he araúl sébâ âc'hrir 'dèc'hníc'hvâ' Át'hebhaú Raúl 'desybhérýr', sjys vé delýc'hóbhár, lásásc'hríd c'haúr sýraúl âc'hrír sc'hóváhá, lévás nórâ jys 'desybál' dyhéy’é lay'ehóvâhér. Aúc'hóhid'héy’ó laúrvé Áraúl dynát'hýr rêâ, srâsirá, dwác'hóvníc'h âbát dývrê b'hehbárdihibhá â̂-ádróid, It'hebhaú Raúl abhraúl dérésdâ derâdvâvéy'ýr.

### 4.2.1 Gloss

$r$-ub'hrá-y'ó rát'he au s-ré au s-fèhẹ laut'h-â 1PL-Can-1PL you.see and ACC.PL.INDEF-ray AND ACC.PL.INDEF-beam float-PTCP
aḍ̂̀-bátýr dé-t’hebhaú raúl dẹ-deslẹ s aú-t'hiy'e-yó

INTERESS.PL.INDEF-speaker GEN-Ultrafrench.language INF-detect if 1PL-use-1PL
sý-véhýr dýlhisdé sérdé laú â-y’別r
GEN.PL.INDEF-measure PART.PL.INDEF\system certain long PTCP.PASS-forbid $\backslash$ PTCP.PRES.ANT
aú-c'haúḅrâd-y'ó 'sy'ýâ vé ḍ́r dy\haúbhausy'ô sẹh abh-visy'ô sý-lývy'ér 1PL-understand-1PL not but still Part\composition this GEN.Pl-emission gen.INDEF-light
saúr c'hes se lec'hḍraúvnẹ́t'hic'h-â nérjẹ c'hes se árḍihyl c'hes
ABS.kind Q 3N.be electromagnetic-PTCP ENERGY.ABS Q 3N.be particle.ABS Q
se sauz aud de c’hes se jávé sy'ýâ j-rét'hád-é
3N.be abs.thing other entire Q 3N.be never not 1SG-claim-Pres.ant
dẹ-dónẹ-le dýlhabhahit'he deýebhat'hic'h-â á-raúl dy\bhát
INF-endow-3.DAT PART.PL.INDEF $\backslash$ ability be.telepathic-PTCP GEN-language PART\speak
aúr-sáhere-ssla j-dír jys d-ub'hrá au dy-lí
3N.FUT.II-be.preposterous.FUT-COND\CIRC 1SG-say only INF-can and PART-read
sýlc̣ahý dýlbháhẹ au dy-lý-áv́áyé
GEN.PL.INDEF-each.other PART.PL.INDEF-thought and PART-3PL.PASS-send
b’hýlc̣ahý s-ḅátýr á-raúl lá-sásc'hríd raúl
DAT.PL.INDEF-each.other ACC.PL.INDEF-speaker GEN-language NOM-Sanskrit ABS.language
ré-véy'ýr c’hes se-jú lé-raúb'hẹ la-sy-dír la-vâhẹ vé slbhárdẹ
sup-better Q 3N.be-GN NOM.PL-robot 3PL-3N.PASS-say 3PL-miss.out but ACC.INDEF\PART

[^17]sásy'él-â á-raúl s-ráhis sy'́ŷa ild’hír dẹ-b'hýlnẹ́r u
be.essential-PTCP GEN-language 3 N -be.racist not ACC\say INF-be.unaffected or
b'hel-saúr rê-vú aû- ált'heýebhat'he u b'he-faúr s-raúb'he
INSTR.Pl-form sup-many non- GEN-telepathy or INSTR-Force ACC.PL.INDEF-robot
j-avár s-áví lyzy'ýr ádróid s-y'-ub’hrá dahaúr i-sásc'hríd
1SG-have ACC.PL.INDEF-friend several ABS.android 3N-OPT-Can sure ACC-Sanskrit
dwá-nib'hẹ a-raúl séb-â â-c'hrír dèc'hníc'hvâ
INESS-level GEN-language be.plain-PTCP PTCP.PASS.write technically

| á-t’hebhaú raúl | dee-sybhérýr | $s$-jys | vé dee-lý-c’hóbhár |  |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| GEN-Ultrafrench.language | INF-be.superior | 3N-be.unfair | but | INF-3PL.PASs-compare |


| lá-sásc'hríd | c'haúr | sý-raúl | $\hat{a}$-c'hrír | $s$-c’hóváhlá |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| NOM-Sanskrit | as | GEN.INDEF-language | PTCP.PASS-write | 3N-start.out.as.SUBJ $\backslash$ PRES.ANT |

lé-vás nór-â jys dẹ-sy-ḅát dy\héyẹ́
NOM.PL-masses be.ignorant-PTCP until INF-3N.PASS-speak PART\attempt
la-yẹ̣\hóvâh $\backslash$ ér aú-c'hóhid'héé-yó laúrvé á-raúl dy-nát'hýr

3PL-OPT\start\PRES.ANT 1PL-consider-1PL but.when GEN-language PART-nature

| rê-â | $s$-râsír-á | dwá-c'hóvníc'h | $\hat{a}$-bát | $d y ́ v r \hat{e}$ |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| be.triune-PTCP | 3N-transpire-PRES.ANT | INESS-communication | PTCP.PASS-speak | at least |


| b'heh-bárḍihibhá | âu- | ádróid | i-t’hebhaú raúl | abh-raúl |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| INSTR.PL.INDEF-participant | non | ABS.android | ACC-Ultrafrench.language | GEN.PL-language |

dérésḍ-â dẹ-râdvâ-véy'ýr
be.terrestrial-PTCP INF-SUPERL-be.better

### 4.2.2 Translation

'You see, we can detect rays and beams of energy floating between ULTRAFRENCH speakers if we use certain long-forbidden measurement systems, but we still don't understand the composition of these emissions. Are they some kind of light? Electromagnetic energy? A particle? Something else entirely?
'I've never claimed that speaking ULTRAFRENCH endows you with telepathic abilities. That would be preposterous. I'm just saying that ULTRAFRENCH speakers can read each others minds and send thoughts to each other.
'Is Sanskrit the best language? The robots tell me so. But they are missing out on an essential part of ULTRAFRENCH. It's not racist to say robots are immune to most forms of not-telepathy and the Force. I have several android friends
'Sanskrit might be "technically" "superior" to ULTRAFRENCH on the level of the plain written language. Sure, but it's unfair to compare them because Sanskrit started out as a written language until the ignorant masses started attempting to "speak" it.
'But when you consider the triune nature of ULTRAFRENCH, I think it's clear that, at least in spoken communication with non-android participants, ULTRAFRENCH is the best earth-based language.'

### 4.2.3 Literal Translation

We can, you see, detect both rays and beams of energy floating between speakers of The UF Language if we use certain systems of measurement long-forbidden; we still don't understand, however, the composition of these emissions. Is it some kind of light? Is it electromagnetic energy? Is it a particle? Is it something else entirely? I've never claimed that [the mere act of ${ }^{29}$ the speaking of The Language endows them with telepathic abilities. It would be preposterous. I'm only saying that speakers of The Language can both read each other's thoughts ${ }^{30}$ and send them to each other.

Is Sanskrit the best language? The robots are saying it, but they miss out on an essential part of The Language. The act of saying that robots are incapable of being affected by most forms of non-telepathy or ${ }^{31}$ by the Force is not racist. I have several android friends. Sure, Sanskrit might, ${ }^{32}$ on the level of the plain written language, be 'technically' 'superior' to The UF Language, but it is unfair to compare them, as Sanskrit started out as a written language, until the ignorant masses started attempting to 'speak' it. But when we consider the triune nature of The Language, it has transpired that, ${ }^{33}$ at least in spoken communication with non-android participants, UF is the best of the terrestrial languages.

[^18]
## 5 Dictionary

a pron. [pF quoi] Interrogative and relative.

1. Indef What?
2. Def Who? Whom?
3. INDEF or Def Which, who, that (see grammar).
ábhec $v$. [pF empêcher] fut ábhece, subj ábhecs. +ACC To prevent, stop (sth. from happening).
abhérś $v$. [PF apercevoir] To behold, descry.
abrâ $v$. [PF apprendre] FUT aḅrâdé, sUBJ aḅrâs. To learn.
aḅraúc $v$. [PF approcher] FUT aḅraúçé, subj aḅraúc̣s.
To approach, come near, walk up to (+all sbd./ sth.).
aḅrdvê $a d v$. [pF après-demain] The day after tomorrow. The prefix abr can be prepended as often as necessary, e.g. aḅraḅraḅrdvê would be 'in four days'.
ab'há conj. [pF avant que] +opt Before.
áb'há $n$. [PF enfant] Child.
ab'haḍ $v .[\mathrm{PF}$ abattre] FUt ab'hadrẹ́, subj ab'has.
4. To cut down, fell, knock down, shoot down.
5. To butcher, cut apart violently.
ab'hásy'ô $n$. [ PF aviation] Aviation.
ab'hèc'h $v$. [PF affecter] FUT ab'hèc'hre, subj ab'hèc'hes. +ACc To affect, influence.
ab'héy' $n$. [PF abeille] Bee.
ab'hínéb'heḅaýévrâ $v$. [PF habit ne fait pas le moine] नut ab'hínéb'heḅaýévéé, subJ ab'hínéb'heḅay'évás. To judge based on appearances.
ac $n$. [pF hache] Axe, hatchet.
ach'es $\rightarrow \mathbf{a}+$ c'hes $^{\prime}$
act'he $v$. tr. [from ac] fut acde, subj act'hes.
6. To cut or cleave with an axe.
7. +ACC To bring an end to.
8. +ACC DEF of árb intr. (other than literal) To get to the point, cut to the chase.
9. +ACC DEF of árb and ACC To bring to light, reveal. Originally, this idiom did not take a double ACC , but was instead formed with the ACC of 'tree' and the ill of the object, meaning something along the lines of 'to bring down the tree(s) on sth'一the image here being that of cutting down trees in a wood until only a clearing remains or is 'brought to light'.
ac̣t'he $v$. tr. [PF acheter] FUT ac̣drẹ́, subj ac̣t'hes. To buy.
aḍrá $v$. [PF attraper] +ACC or PART To take.
ádróid $n$. [PF androïde] Android.
ad'he $v$. [pf vader] fut $i ́$, subj al. To go.
ad'hór $v$. tr. [PF adore] FUT ad'hóréré, subj ad'hórs.
10. To love, adore.
11.     + PART To be in love with, have a crush on.
12. +GEN To desire sbd./sth.
áẹ $n$. $[\mathrm{PF}$ en-haut] Sky.
áhaúr conj. [pF encore] +subj Even though.
áhâłát'hẹ $v$. [pF ensanglanté] To be (very) bloody, bloodstained.
ahúr $v$. [PF assurer] fut ahúré, subj ahúrs. To ensure.
ânb'hé $a d v$. [pF en effet, via metathesis from *ânéb'he] Verily, indeed, in fact.
ánvé $v$. tr. [PF animer] To bring to life, animate.
árb $n$. [pF arbre] Tree.
árḍihyl $n$. [PF particule] Particle.
áríb'h $v$. [PF arriver] To arrive.
ásy'ê $v$. [pF ancien] fut ásyêr, subj ásy'ês. To be ancient.
asý'ýâ particle [pf pas absolument] Not, no. Commonly 'sý'ýâ after vowels and verbs. This particle is used only in the indicative; see also sá, t'hé.
át'hád $n$. [PF entendre] FUT át'hádé, subj át'hás.
Hear, perceive (+PART sbd./sth.).
át'hér $v$. [PF enterrer] +ACC To bury, inter.
au conj. [pF aussi]
13. And, also, as well, too.
14. au ... au ... 'both ... and ...'
aû particle [pF non] Not-. Used to negate nouns, adjectives, and adverbs; see $\$$ 2.1.13.
aub'heír $v$. (in)tr. [pF obéir] To obey.
aud adj. [PF autre] Other, another.
auḍé $v$. [PF obtenir] FUT audy'édré.
15. To obtain, get, acquire.
16. +abl To gain purchase on or height or distance from.
auha conj. [PF au cas où] +opt In case.
aujúrdy'íadv. [PF aujourd'hui] Today. Archaic, see also júrdy'í.
aúráj $n$. [pF orage]
17. (usually pl.) Storm, tempest, thunderstorm.
$\diamond$ Snet'h II. 7 phárýaúráj téríbâ 'like a terrible storm.
18. fig. Upheaval, turmoil, crisis.
av́ár $v$. irreg. [PF avoir] PRES ANT and PRET $y$, obsolete PRET ab'hé, fUT aúré, subj ès. +ACC To have (usually inalienably).
av́árḷý $v$. [PF avoir lieu] fut lav́árlýé, SUBJ lavárlýs. To take place, happen.
áv́áy'é $v$. [PF envoyer] FUT ávááyéré, subj áváyés. To send.
áví $n$. [PFami] Friend.
ávrê conj. [ PF à moins que] +opt Unless.
aýaúr conj. [pF alors] While, as (temporal).
ál $v$. [from earlier * ${ }^{\text {bał }}$ < PF parler]] To speak.
ájéd $v$. [PF enjoindre] To order, enjoin, command.
ba $v$. [pf baser] fut bare, subj bas. To base on, found on.
bá nórávíc'h n. archaic [pf Panoramix] Druid. Only the nórávíc'h is inflected; infixing of adj. is attested.
$\diamond$ SNET'H, III.2: derúb'h phá ráinórávíc'h 'to find the great druid, with infixed rá.
báhẹ $n$. [pF pensée] Thought, reflection, meditation, faculty of thinking.
baj $n$. [pF page] Page.
bará $n$. [pF parent] Parent.
barḍ $v$. [PF partir] Fut baréé, subJ bars. To leave, go away, depart.
bárḍáḍ $v$. [PF partante] (+ ACI) To be interested in, willing to, ready to, prepared for.
bárḍẹ $n$. [PF partie] Part, portion, piece, faction of a whole.
bárḍihibhá $n$. [PF participant] Participant.
báréd $v$. [PF parraitre; future stem from PF sem$b l e r]$ fut sáb. To seem, appear.
bas conj. [pf parce que] +subj Because. Often used to explain motivation rather than cause, as in e.g. 'We did that because...'
baú v. irreg. [PF bon] fut baúré, sUBJ véy'ýrs; COMP lẹvéy'ýr, y'ỳvéy'ýr, rêvéy'ýr; sup révéy'ýr, râdvâvéy'ýr.
19. To be good, well.
20. To be right, correct, appropriate.
baú $n$. [PF pont] Bridge.
bauheŷnlabhé $v$. [pf poser un lapin] Fut ḅauheŷnlabhére, subj ḅauheŷnlabhés. To forsake, abandon.
bauhib $v$. [PF impossible] FUT ḅauhibre, SUBJ ḅauhibes. To be impossible, unfeasible.
báł $\mathcal{v}$. [PF parler] fut bátérẹ́. To speak, talk. báłýr $n$. [PF parleur] Speaker, interlocutor. belbec $n$. [PF pelle + PF bêche] Shovel.
bẹt'hẹ v. irreg. [pf petit] FUT rêdé, subj bẹt'hes; comp lẹrêd, y'ŷrêd, rêrêd; sup rérêd, râdvârêd. To be small, little.
bét'hýr $v$. [PF peinture] To paint.
béy'í $n$. [pf pays] Country, land, region, nation.
bínár $n$. [PF pinard] Wine.
bír $\rightarrow$ vaúb'hẹ.
biwaú $n$. [pF billion] (obsolete) Billion (long scale, i.e. $10^{12}$ ). Replaced with modern dýwaú).
bré conj. [pF après que] +opt After.
busy'ér $n$. [pF poussière] Dust.
bźé $v$. [pF besoin] +ACC or PART To need, require.
b'hauḍ v. [PF vôtre] fut b'haudre, subj b'haus. To be yours (PL).
b'haul $v$. [pF voler] To hover, float.
b'hây'ér adv. [PF avant-hier] The day before yesterday. The prefix b'hâ can be prepended as often as necessary, e.g. b'hâb'hâb'hây'ér would be 'four days ago'.
b'he conj. [pF envers] +subj So that, so as to, to, in order to. Commonly enclitic 'b'h after vowels.
b'hé $n$. [pF vin] Grape.
b'hénvâ $n$. [ PF évènement] Event, occurrence.
b'heý'au $n$. [from archaic b'heýauhic'h] Bicycle.
b'heýauhic'h n. archaic [pF vélo-cycle] Bicycle.
b'heý'o $v$. [back-formation from b'heý'os, reanalysed as a subjunctive; from PF véloce] FUT b'heýose, subj b'hey'os. To be quick, fast.
b’hí $n$. [pF vigne] Vine.
b'hid $v$. [pF vide] To be empty.
b'hizy'ô $n$. [pF vision] Vision.
b'hóy'ẹ $v$. [pF voler] To fly. Flight.
b'hýlnẹ́r $v$. [PF invulnérable] Fut b'hýlnẹ́ré, subj
b'hýlnẹ́rs. +INSTR To be incapable of being affected by, invulnerable to.
b'hŷnnúb'hâ $a d v$. [old ALL of núb'hâ] Anew.
cah $v$. [pf chasser] fut cahe, subj cas. To hunt.
cahý pro. pl indef only; declined like a regular noun [PF chacun] Each other, one another.
Cár n. male given name, equivalent to English 'Kyle' or 'Charles'.
ce $v .[$ pF chaud $]$ To be hot.
će $v$. [PF échouer] fut ćere, subj ćes.
21.     + Part To stumble, do a bad job at.
22. +ACC or ACI To fail, flunk, not pass.
c'habhahit'hẹ. $n$. [pF capacité] Skill, capacity, ability.
c'hánár $n$. [PF canard]
23. Ship, boat.
24. instr indef By boat.
c'hánaú $n$. [ PF canot] Duck (bird).
c'háraúciḍ $v$. [PF les carrotes sont cuites] Fut c'háraúcre, subj c'háraúc. To end for good, put to a permanent end.
c'haú adj. [see sense 2]
25. Holy.
26. c'haú- ${ }^{\mathrm{L}}$ 'religious prefix', prepended in derivation to nouns that have a religous connotation; this is historically a back-formation from c'haúfrér and c'haúhýr which happen to both start with this 'prefix'.
c'haúát $n$. [c'haú + át] Prophecy.
c'haúbhárrás $n$. [c'haú + PF paroisse] Parish.
c'haúbhausy'ô $n$. [PF composition] Composition, arrangement, structure.
c'haúbhèłínáj $n$. [c'haú + PF pèlerinage] Pilgrimage.
c'haúbhýríf $n$. [c’haú + PF purifier] To purify (+ACC 2. Communication. sbd./sth.).
c'haúḅâd $v$. [PF comprendre] Fut c'haúụrâdré, sUbJ c'haúbrâs. +PART To comprehend, understan grasp.
c'haúḍrêd'hẹ $n$. [PF compte-rendu] Account, record.
$c^{\prime} h a u ́ f_{1}^{\prime} v$. [PF confiner] To contain.
c'haúfrér $n$. [PF confrère] Brother (religious). Masc. or pl. only, see also c'haúhýr.
c'haúhaúvnaút'hẹ $n$. [c'haú + PF communauté] Monastery.
c'haúhýr $n$. [pF consœur] Sister (religious). Fem. only, see also c'haúfrér.
c'haúr conj. [pF car + PF comme] +subj As, because, since.
c'haúv́ájẹ $n$. [c'haú + PF magie] Magic.
c'haúvnaút'hẹ $n$. [PF communauté] Community.
c'hd'hal adv. [pF que dalle] Naught, absolutely nothing.
C'hebèc'h $n$. [pF Québec] The Promised Land.
c'hèlc'hý pron. [pf quelqu'un] Someone, somebody, anyone, anybody.
c'hes quest. part. [pF quiest-ce que] see grammar; often c'h's in older texts.
c'hesse [contraction of c'hes + se] Is it? Also substituted for other forms of 'to be' in questions, particularly for the plural neuter; stressed on the first syllable.
c'hlýr v. [PF inclure] FUT c'hlýré, subj c'hlýrs.
27.     + Part To include.
28. +ACC To possess, have (alienably).
29. +GEN usually indef To sell, offer, have in stock.
c'hóbhár $v$. [pF comparer] FUT c'hóbhárre, subj c'hóbhárs. To compare.
c'hóhid'hẹ́ $v$. [pF considérer] Fut c'hóhid'hẹrée, subj c'hóhid'hés.
30.     + Part To consider, think about, ponder.
31. +ACC To think through.
c'hóný adj. [PF connu] Known, familiar, well-known.
c'hór $n$. [PF corps] Body.
c'hóvâ $v$. [PF commencer] fut c'hóvâré, subj c'hóvás.
32. (+ PART) To start, commence, begin.
33.     + GEN To start out as.
c'hóvníc'h $v$. [PF communiquer] fut c'hóvnic'hre, subj c'hóvníc'hes.
34. To communicate (+INSTR with sbd.).
c'hrír $v$. [pF écrire] fut c'hríré, subj c'hrís. To write.
c'hulvâ $n$. [pF écoulement] Flow.
c'húr $v$. [PF court] To shrink, reduce in size, narrow.
c'húr $v$. [PF courrir] To run.
c'hýr $n$. [pF cour ] Heart.
c'h's $\rightarrow$ c'hes.
dá $n$. PFF dent] Tooth.
ḍá conj. [pF tandis] Whereas.
ḍád $n$. [pF stand] Stand, stall, booth.
dahaúr particle [ PF d'accord] Sure, ok, agreed, fine.
dalẹ $n$. [pF tableau] Table.
dalisvâ $n$. [PF établissement] Establishment, institution.
daú(c'h) particle [pF donc] Therefore, then, thus.
daúb'hedwébhó $v$. [pF tomber dans les pommes] fut daúb'hedwébhóre, subj daúb'hedwébhós. To faint.
Daúvníc'h $n$. male or female given name, equivalent to English 'Dominic'.
daú'b'h $\rightarrow$ daú(c'h) + b'he.
db'hid'h $n$. [pF individu] Person, individual.
de conj. [pF dès que] +subj Once, when once, as soon as.
dee adj. [PF tout] All, every, whole, entire.
dec̣ír $v$. [pf déchirer] fut dec̣irre, subj decírs.
35.     + part To tear, rip, rend.
36. +ACC To rend asunder, tear to pieces.

ḍèc'hníc'hvâ $a d v$. [pF techniquement] Technically. ḍédv́ér interj. [ PF putain de merde] Fuck. Generic expletive.
dẹhẹ $n$. [pF dessus]

1. Top, upper side.
2. Surface of a body of water.

ḍèl particle [PF tel] Emphatic particle, used as an intensifier, often postpositive after the verb, but not so much intensifying the verb directly as it does the entire clause.
$\diamond$ Snet'h, II.34: lá-árb srýlé dèl 'so it was that the tree was burning' or 'the tree was burning fiercely', or 'indeed, the tree was burning.
ḍèr $v$. [PF taire] Fut déérẹ. To silence, shut up.
ḍéraúj $v$. [PF interroger] To demand.
ḍéréṣ̣ $v$. [PF terrestre] Fut déérésdreé, subJ dérésḍ.
To be terrestrial, earth-based.
dệríb $v$. [pF terrible] FUT dẹ́ríre, subj dẹ́rís. To be terrible (all senses).
dérny'é adj. [pF dernier] Last, final, ultimate.
dérsèd $v$. [PF intercéder] To intercede.
deslẹ $v$. [pF déceler] fut deslẹre, subj deslẹ. To detect, discover, uncover, reveal.
dévýr $v$. [PF demeurer]

1. To remain, stay.
2. To live, dwell (+iness somewhere).
deý'ebhat'hẹ $n$. [pF télépathie] Telepathy.
ḍeýebhat'hic'h $v$. [pF télépathique] fut deyéebhat'hic'hre, subu deýebhat'hic'hes. To be telepathic.
dír $v$. tr. [pF dire] fut díré, subj díss. +acc To say, tell (+DAT someone).
díríj $v$. [pF diriger] fut díríje, subj dírijs. +aCC To direct, run, oversee, operate (a business or establishment).
dónẹ́ $v$. [pF donner] FUT dónrẹ́, subj dónés. + DAT \& acc/part To endow, bestow. The acc is used when talking about concrete, measurable, and finite objects or sums; the partitive to talk about abstract concepts or parts of objects; the Dat is the person being endowed with.
ḍúr $a d v$. [ PF toujours]
3. (positive context) Always.
4. (negative context) Still.
duý'ýr $\boldsymbol{v}$. [ PF douleur] To suffer, be in pain.
dývrê particle [pF du moins] At least. As in e.g. 'At least, I think that ...'.
dy'ê $v$. [pF tien] fut dyêeré, subJ dy'ês. To be yours (SG).
e $n$. [pF eau] Water.
ebhẹ $v .[$ [pF épais] fut ebhrẹ, SUBj ebhes. To be thick. ec̣ $n$. [pF péché] Sin, transgression, wrongdoing. ed particle [PF et] Used in numbers, see $\S 2.9$.
eḍ v.irreg. [PF être] FORMS active only, see $\$ 2.8$. To be.
eḍrrá $v$. [PF étroit] Pointy.
Eḍy'ê $n$. male given name, equivalent to English 'Stephen'.
ehyó $n$. [pF écusson] Shield.
el $n$. [pF ailles] Wing, blade, fin.
ez- pron. [pF ses] Its, her, his, their.
F adj. [from pf fe] Logic. False, $\perp$.
fahaú conj. [pF de façon que] +opt In such a way that.
faúr $n$. [pF force]
5. Force, strength, power.
6. Faúr def (science fiction, Star Wars) The Force.
fé $n$. [pf fin] End.
fe $v .[\operatorname{pF} f a u x]$ FUT faure, subj faus. To be false, incorrect, wrong.
fẹhab $v$. [pf faisable] Fut fẹhabre, subj fẹhas. To be possible, feasible.
fèhẹ $n$. [pF faisceau]
7. Bundle, bunch, cluster.
8. Beam, ray.
fér $v$. [pf faire] fut fé, subj fés.
9. To do, make, build, construct, erect.
10. Expletive; see $\$ 2.10 .1$.
férduufraú $v$. [ PF en faire tout un fromage] FUT férdufraúré, subj férdufraús. To make a big fuss about something.
férrrásvát'h $n$. [ PF fer la grasse matinée] A long, deep sleep.
fic'h $v$. [back-formation from ${ }^{*}$ fic'hs, reinterpreted as a subjunctive stem; from PF fixer] fut fichre, subj fic'hs. To fix, set, establish.
fórvẹ́ v. [pF informer] Fut fórvé́, subj fórvẹ́s. To inform (+aCC sbd.) (+aCI of sth.).
fúr $v$. [pF fournir] To deliver, provide (+Dat sbd.) (+ ACC with sth.).
ís $\rightarrow$ ub'hrá.
Já $n$. male or female given name, equivalent to English 'John' or 'Joan'.
jávé $a d v$. [PF jamais] Never, at no time.
júrdy'í adv. [from archaic PF aujúrdy'í] Today.
jys adv. [PF juste] Just, only, merely.
jys conj. [pF jusquà ce que] +opt Until.
jys $v$. [pF injuste] fut jysre, subj jyss. To be unjust, unfair.
lá $v$. [pf planer] To fly.
Lác n.female given name, equivalent to English 'Bianca.
lár $v$. [pF large] Wide, broad.
lârdávrá $n$. [PF langue de bois] Evasive, unclear, or overly formal speech.
laú $v$. [PF long] Long. Often in compounds laú- 'long,
laúrs conj. [pF lorsque] When (temporal only).
laúrvé conj. [from laúrs + vé] (contraction) But, when. Stressed on the first syllable.
laut'h $v$. [pF flotter] Fut laut'hre, subj laut'hes. Float, hover, levitate.
le $v$. [pF laisser $>{ }^{*}$ lehe] fut lere, subj les. Chiefly in questions or imperative. To let, allow, permit.
le prefix [pF plus] Affirming comparative prefix. See grammar.
lec'hḍraúvnẹ́t'hic' $\mathrm{h} v$. [pF électromagnétique] Fut lec'hdraúvnẹ́t'hic'hre, subj lec'hḍraúvnẹ́t'hic'hes. To be electromagnetic.
lehuvud $n$. [pF coup de foudre] Love at first sight.
lí $v$. [pf lire] fut líré, subj lís.
11.     + Part To read from.
12. +ACC To peruse, read entirely.
lívnád $n$. [pF limonade] Lemonade.
liv́uhé $n$. [PF livre + PF bouquin] Book.
lúr $v$. [ PF lourd] To be bulky, oversized, heavy.
lý $n$. [pF lieu] Base of the spatial correlatives. In senses 2-5, case affixes are attached before $\sim$, e.g. sense 2 all sẹb'hélý 'hither'.
13. Place, location.
14. sẹ...~ def [from sẹh] Here, hither, hence, \&c. Proximal demonstrative (all cases).
15. sý' ${ }^{\text {L... } \sim \text { DEF [from sý'ẹ] There, thither, thence, }}$ \&c. Distal demonstrative (all cases).
16. ~hes indef [from c'hes] Where, whither, whence, \&c. Interrogative (locative cases only). 5. $s^{\prime} / s^{L}{ }^{\text {L }} .$. ~ INDEF [from sá] Nowhere, from nowhere, \&c. Negative (locative cases only).
lýr pron. [pF leur] Their.
lýrḍ $v$. [from PF leur; the 'ḍ’ was added in analogy with naúd and b’hauḍ] fut lýrdre, subj lýrs. To be theirs.
lys adv. [pF plus /plys/] No longer, not any more. The meaning of this and lee swapped at some point for unknown reasons.
lývá v. 3RD person only [pF pleuvoir] fut lýváre, subj lývás. To rain.
lývy'ér $n$. [pF lumière] Light.
lyzy'ýr adj. [pf plusieurs] Several.
nájẹ $v$. [pf nager] fut náje, subj nájes. To swim.
nát'hýr $n$. [PF nature]
17. (chiefly) indef Nature, the natural world.
18. Def The way something is.
naúḍ $v$. [pF nôtre] fut naúdre, subj naús. To be ours.
nérjẹ $n$. [pF énergie] Energy.
níb'hẹ $n$. [pF niveau]
19. Level, degree.
20. Def iness + gen On the level of.
nór $v$. [back-formation from *nórâ from PF ignorant] To be ignorant, unaware, oblivious.
nóráv $n$. [from archaic ḅá nórávíc'h] Druid.
núb'h $v$. [PF nouveau] FUT núb'he, subj núb'hs. To be new.
p- $\rightarrow$ b-
$\mathrm{ph}-\rightarrow \mathbf{b}-$.
$\mathrm{p}^{\prime} \mathrm{h}-\rightarrow$ bh-.
$\mathbf{R}$ adj. [from pF ré] Logic. True, T.
ra conj. [pF swa > *rá]
21. Or. exclusive, see also $\mathbf{u}$.
22. u/ra ... ra ... 'either ... or ...' (exclusive).
rá adj. [PF grand] Big, large, great.
rá $n$. [ PF mois] Month.
rá $n$. [pF voix] Voice.
rá $n$. [ PF loi] Law, rule, regulation.
Ráb'h $n$. [unknown; presumably the name of some celebrity or local deity]
23. indecl. DEF SG always NOM or voc Ráb'h. Main god of the ULTRAFRENCH pantheon; usually male. Old-fashioned also often all-caps RÁB'H.
$\diamond$ SNET'H, I.17: au lebálá daú RÁB'H 'and thus spake Ráb’h'
24. Ráb'h sénýr DEF SG Lord Ráb'h. Used for sense $\mathbf{1}$ in all other cases; as with all names, only sénýr is inflected. Old-fashioned often RÁB'H Sénýr $\diamond$ SNET'H, 8.1: au labraúc RÁB'H naút B'héhénýr 'and they came to our Lord Ráb'h.'
25. (rarely) The main god of another culture. Only attested figuratively. Not capitalised in this sense, and declined like a regular word.
$\diamond$ SNET'H, II.3: ledéraújáz derévôt'he láráb'h 'their god demanded they return.
ráb'h $\rightarrow$ vár.
ráb'háy' $v$. [PF travailler, FUT and subj from PF bosser] fut bohér, subj bos. To work.
rác'hánár $n$. [from ráhe $+c^{\prime}$ hánár] Airship, dirigible.
rác'hsaý’ad $v$. [pF raconter des salades] fut rác'hsaýe, subj rác'hsaýs. To lie, tell tall tales, overexaggerate.
râd $v$. [ PF prendre] +ACC or PART To grab.
râdrásôn $v$. [PF prendre ses jambe à son cou] FUT râdrásônre, subj râdrásôns. To run.
rádrénẹ́ $v .+\mathrm{ACI}$ [pF les doigts dans le nez] FUT rádrénré, subj rádrénẹ́s. To put no effort into.
râdvâ prefix [pF grandement] Superlative prefix. See grammar.
rád'hérn $n$. [from rá + dérny'é] (always definite) Last month.
rád'hsy'ô $n$. [pF traditon] Tradition, custom.
rád'hyc'hsy'ô $n$. [PF traduction] Translation.
râhaúḍ $v$. [PF recontrer] FUT râhaúḍre, SUBJ râhaús.
To meet, encounter, come face to face (+ALL with sbd.).
ráhe $n$. [pF oiseau] Bird.
ráhé $n$. [from ráhe + ráhó] Flying fish.
ráhẹ conj. [pF quoique] +SUBJ Although, though.
râhẹ $n$. [pF français] Human, person.
ráhis $v$. [pF raciste] fut ráhise, subj ráhiss. To be racist.
ráhó $n$. [pF poisson] Fish.
rál $n$. [pF toile] Canvas.
rár $v$. [pf voir] fut b'héré, subj rárs. To see (+Part sbd./sth.).
rárd $v$. [PF regarder] fut rárdre, subj rárds.
26. To watch.
27. To look at.
râsír $v$. [PF transpirer] fut râsíré, subj râsírs. +ACI.
28. To come to light, become known, transpire.
29. pres ant For it to be clear, apparent, evident that ...Lit. 'it has come to light that ...'.
rát'hẹ particle [PF vois-tu] You see, you know.
raû $n$. archaic [ PF tronc] Log (of a tree).
raúb'hẹ $n$. [pF robot] Robot.
raûd'hárb $n$. [pF tronc d'arbre] Log (of a tree).
raúl $n$. [pF parole]
30. Language, speech, word.
31. Raúl (definite only) Short for T'hebhaú Raúl. nom sG irreg. Raúl; all other forms are regular.
raúvá $n$. [pF fromage] Moon.
rávâa $a d v$. [PF rarement] Seldom, rarely (ever).
rávér $n$. [PF grammaire]
32. Grammar, the grammatical rules of a language.
33. A textbook describing the grammar of a language.
ráy’á $n$. [pF voyage] Travel, voyage, journey.
ráy'é $v$. [pF noyer] To drown.
ráy'ê $n$. [PF moyen]
34. Way, means, method.
35. ráy ê y'aúhý + ACI There is no way, that ....
36. INSTR PL b'hehráy'ê How, by what means, in this way.
ráý’̣̣ $v$. [pF râler] To complain, grumble.
ré $n$. [pF rai] Ray, beam.
ré $v$. [pF vrai] fut ré, subj rés. To be true, correct, right.
ré prefix [pF très] Superlative prefix. See grammar. rê $v$. [PF trine] fut rêrẹ́, subj rês. To be composed of three parts or people; triune.
rê $n$. [pF airain] Copper.
rê conj. [pF bien que] +subj Although, though.
rê prefix [PF moins] Neutral comparative prefix. See grammar.
rébhós $n$. [pF réponse] Answer, response, reply.
rẹ́b'h $v$. or $n$. [PF rêver] fut rệve, subj rẹ́b'hs.
37. To dream (+Gen of sth.).
38. Dream, a dreaming.
rêd $v$. [pF craindre] fut rêdré, subj rês. +sopt To fear, lest ...Construed with the negated optative.
rêd $\rightarrow$ bẹt'hẹ.
rêdrsýrśẹ $v$. [pF prendre sur soi]
39. +ACI To take upon onself to do sth.
40.     + PCI To take upon oneself to start doing sth.
rẹ́dy'í $v$. [pF réduire] fut rẹ́dy'ré, subj rẹ́dy'ís. To reduce (+ACC or pass. sbd./sth.) (+All to sth.).
rêd'hes particle [pF bien sûr] Of course, certainly, surely.
réhẹ́v $v$. [PF recevoir] fut réhẹvé, subj rẹsy. To receive.
rét'hád $v$. [PF prétendre] FUT rét'hádré, subj rét'hádes. To claim, allege.
rét'hẹ $v$. [pf traiter] fut rét'hẹre, subj rét'hes. To handle, take care of, deal with.
révôt'hẹ $v$. [pF remonter] To return, come back. ríb'hy'ér $n$. [PF rivière] River.
rjẹ $n$. [pF Hergé] Comic book.
rób'hoc'h $v$. [PF provoquer; future from PF infliger] fut flijé, subj rób'hoc'hs. +acc To cause, make happen.
rrá $v$. [pF croire] FUT rrẹ́, SUBJ rrás. Believe (something or someone).
rrád'hahánár $n$. [PF froid de canard] Coldness.
rúb'h $v$. [pF trouver] To find, discover.
rvá interj. [of unknown origin] after words that end with 'r', this is spelt -vá instead. Alas, woe, oh. Exclamation of distress, surprise, sadness, or regret.
rýçér $v$. [pF requerir] To ask, question.
rýl $v$. [pF brûler] To burn.
rzaúsḍ $v$. [pF exhaustif] fut rzaúsdre, subj rzaúsds.
41. To be exhaustive, comprehensive, complete.
42. To be finished, completed.
s conj. [PF si] If, when, whenever.
sá conj. [pF sans que] +subj Without (doing sth.).
sá particle [pF sans] Not, no. Always enclitic s' before vowels. This particle is used only in the subjunctive; see also asý'ýâ, t'hé.
sáḍy'ér $n$. [PF sanctuaire] Sanctuary, shrine.
sáhẹ $v$. [PF insensé] fut sáhere, subj sáhes. To be preposterous, absurd, nonsensical.
Sásc'hríd $n$. never lenited [pF sanskrit] The Sanskrit language.
sásy'él $v$. [PF essentiel] FUT sásy'élẹ́, subj sásy'éls. To be essential.
sauc'h conj. [pF sauf que] +subj Except that.
saul $n$. [pF sol] Sun.
saúr $n$. [pF sorte]
43. Kind, sort, type, form.
44. DEF + GEN (some) kind(s) of.
sauz $n$. [pF chose] Thing, object.
sauz-aud adj. [PF autre chose] Something else, another thing.
sauzaud $\rightarrow$ sauz-aud.
sav́á $v$. [PF savoir] fut saúr, subj sac. To know.
Sávýy'él $n$. [PF Samuel] Male given name.
sḅé $v$. [PF espérer] fut sḅérẹ́, subj sḅés.
45. To want (+ACC sth.).
46. +opt To wish, want, desire.
séb $v$. [PF simple] fut sébré, subj sébs. To be plain, simple.
sẹh det. [pf ceci] +def noun This, these. Precedes and is attached to nouns.
sehul $v$. [PF sécouler] To flow.
sẹhúr $v$. [PF secourir] FUT sẹhúrre, subj sẹhús. To help, succour, give aid (+DAT to sb.) (+ACI/ACC with sth.).
sénýr $n$. [PF seigneur]
47. Lord.
48. Short for Ráb'h sénýr.
sérdẹé det. [pF certain] Certain, particular but not specified.
sérẹ́ v. [PF serré] FUT sérrẹ́, subJ sérés.
49. To be tight, close-fitting, snug.
50. INDEF usually INSTR c'hýr sérệ A heavy heart.
sèt'h $v$. [pF sentir] fut sèt'he, subj sès. To feel.
séy'ẹ $v$. [pF essayer] fut séy'ẹrẹ́, SUBJ séyéés. + PART or inf To try, attempt.
siḍ $n$. [pF site] Facility, site.
sisḍé $n$. [pF système] System.
sit'há conj. [pF si tant est que] +opt Supposing that; if, assuming that.
Snet'h $n$. Family name, equivalent to English 'Smyth'.
sol $n$. [pF sol] Ground, floor, earth, soil.
sud'hénvâ $a d v$. [pF soudainement] Suddenly.
suf $n$. [pF souffre] Pain.
susy'é $v$. [PF soucier] FUT susy'ére, SUBJ susy'és. +PART, pCI To care about, worry about.
swi det. [ PF celui] The one, that one, this one.
sybhérýr $v$. [PF supérieur] fut sybhérýré, SUBJ sybhérýrs. intr. or +GEN To be superior to, better than, higher than.
syhyýá $v$. [pf succulent] fut syhyýáré, subj syhyýás. To be succulent, delicious.
syl $v$. [pf seul] fut syle, subj syls.
51. (chiefly) To be the only one. Often as the adjective sylâ 'only'.
52. To be alone.
sy'ê $v$. [PF sien] fut sy'èré, subj sy'ês. To be his, hers, its.
sý’ẹ det. [pf cela] +def noun That, those. Precedes and is attached to nouns; often sý' before vowels, with one apostrophe, not two.
$s^{\prime} \rightarrow$ sá.
$\mathrm{t}-\rightarrow \mathbf{\text { de. }}$
t'hé conj. [pF de peur que > *dbhýrc'h > *dýrc'h > *dc'hý > ~ ] Not, no. Always t'h'N before vowels, but does not nasalise if the 'e’ is still present. This particle is used only in the optative; see also asý'ýâ, sá.
T'hebhaú $n$. or adj. [from t'hebhaúz] (ULTRA-) France, (ULTRA-)French.
T'hebhaú Raúl n. def.sg. [from t'hebhaúz + raúl] nom sg irreg. T'hebhaú Raúl. The ULTRAFRENCH language. Only T'hebhaú is declined as
though the entire phrase were one word. In informal speech and writing, this is typically shortened to Raúl.
t'hebhaúz $v$. [PF jeter l'éponge] FUT t'hebhaúźe, SUBJ t'hebhaúśs. To be (ULTRA-)French.
t'hiy'e $v$. [from yt'hiy'ihẹ; subj via back-formation from the fut] fut thiźe, subj t'hizes. + Part To use, make use of.
u conj. [PFou]
53. Or. Inclusive, see also ra.
54. u ... u ... '.. or ...' (inclusive).
ub'h $v$. [PF ouvrir] FUt $u$ v́, sUBJ $u b^{\prime} h s$. To open.
ub'hrá $v$. [pf pouvoir] fut úré, subj ís.
55.     + Inf/aci To be able to, can. Never construed with an INF if it in and of itself is the infinitive of an ACI or PCI, in which case the variant with the part (sense 2) is used instead.
56.     + Part To be capable of ...
57. OPT COND I + ACI To be possible; may. Dynamic or epistemic, never deontic; this and sense 4 are essentially a more emphatic optative.
58. Opt COND II + ACI Might. Dynamic or epistemic, never deontic.
ulíy'ẹ v. [pF oublier] fut ulíy'ẹrẹ́, subj ulíyẹ̣s. To forget.
úrbh conj. [pf pour peu que] +opt Provided that, so long as.
urdálbhaúrḍ $n$. $[\mathrm{PF}$ avoir un oursin dans le portefeuille] A very rich person; billionaire.
úrẹ́ $\rightarrow$ ub'hrá.
uy'ed'háb'hrí $v$. [PF rouler dans la farine] FUT uy'ed'hávé, subj uy'ed'háb'hrís. To scam, cheat, swindle.
vá $\rightarrow$ rvá.
vá $n$. [PF mât] Mast.
vádłabhaud'hávúrsab'hád'háváb'hrárḍuẹ v. literary [pF vendre la peau de ours avant de avoir tué] fut vádtabhaud'hávúrsab'hád'háváb'hrárḍure, s vádtabhaud'hávúrsab'hád'háváb'hrárḍus. To depend on predictions of the future. Of disputed origin; first attested in the works of the Early UF comedian J. A. B. Snet'h.
vâhẹ $v$. [pF manquer] fut vâhéré, subj vâhés.
59. +GEN To lack, want.
60.     + part or pass To miss. The object and subject of this verb are swapped compared to English 'to miss', e.g. b'hývvâhé (2PL.ACT + 1SG.PASS) 'I miss you (PL)', lit. roughly 'you (PL) are wanting to me'). 3. +aCC To miss out on.
válḍrét'hás $n$. [ PF maltraitance] Torture.
válv́áy' $v$. [ PF malvoyant $]$ To be blind.
válvê $v$. [PF malmener] fut válvé, subj válvês. To mistreat, torture.
v́ár $v$. irreg. [PF devoir] COND I, II $d y$, FUT $d \hat{e} e$, SUBJ ráb'h.
61. PAss +aci Must, have to, be obliged to. The subject is always in the passive in this sense only.
62.     + Dat To owe sbd. (+acc sth.).
63. COND I + ACI Even if; e.g. aúrdyssa dẹće 'even if he should fail'.
vás $n$. pl def [pF masses] The masses, the people.
vaúb'hẹ v. irreg. [pF mauvais] fut bíré, subj bíres;
сомP lẹbír, y'ŷbír, rêbír; sup réb'hír, râdvâbír.
64. To be bad.
65. To be wrong, incorrect, inappropriate.
vaûd $n$. [pF monde] World.
vaût'há $n$. [ PF montagne] Mountain.
váłé conj. [pF malgré que] +subj Despite that, in spite of.
vé conj. [ PF mais] But, however, although.
vê $a d v$. [pF demain] Tomorrow.
vê $n$. [pF main] Hand.
véhýr conj. [pF dans la mesure où] Insofar as.
véhýr $v / n$. [pF mesure] FUT véhýré, subj véhýrs.
66. To measure.
67. Measurement.
vér $n$. [pF mère] (informal) Mum, mom.
vérr $n$. [pF mer] Sea, ocean.
vérs interj. [PF merci]
68. Thank you. (+Gen for sth.).
69. dyvérs fér To thank (+DAT sbd.) (+GEN for sth.). vêt'hnâ $a d v$. [from PF maintenant, lenited for unknown reasons] Now.
véy'ýr $\rightarrow$ baú.
víd'hẹ $n$. [pF midi] Noon, midday.
vísy'ô $n$. [PF émission]
70. Emission.
71. Programme, broadcast, show.
vnásdẹér n. [PF monastère] Castle.
vú adj. [pF moult] Many, much, a lot of.
vúb'hvâ $n$. [PF movement] Movement, motion. vúslihé $n$. [PF mousse + PF lichen] Moss.
vvâ $n$. [PF moment] Moment, instant.
vvâ $n$. [PF maman] Mother.
vvaúríhe $v$. (in)tr. [pF mémoriser] fut vvaúríze, subj vvaúríhes. To remember.
vŷ $v$. [pf mener] fut menre, subj mens. To lead.
ýr $v$. [pf heurter] fut $\mathfrak{y} r d$, , subj $y ́ r s$. To hit, strike.
yt'hiy'ihẹ $v$. [PF utiliser] FUT yt'hiy'iźé, SUBJ $y$ t'hiy'ihes. + Part Archaic. To use, make use of.
y'ác'hraúníc'h $v$. [pF diachronique] fut y'ác'hraúníc'hre, subj yác'hraúníc'hes. To be diachronic.
y'aúhý inconj., postpos. [PF il n'y a aucun] There is no, there are no, there is none.
ýaúhý inconj., postpos. [PF il y a aucun] There is, there are.
y'é $a d v$. [pF rien] Nothing.
y'é $v$. [PF nier] fut y'érẹ́, subj y'ẹ́s. To forbid, deny. y'ê $v$. [pF mien] fut yêeré, subJ y'ês. To be mine.
y'éjúré $n$. [PF siège + PF tabouret] Chair, seat.
y'ér $a d v$. [PF hier] Yesterday.
y'í n. [pF nuit] Night.
y'ír $v$. (in)tr. [PF ouïr] fut aúré, subj rás. To understand, listen, (rarely) hear.
y'ís conj. [pF puisque] Considering that, since, because. Unlike c'haúr, this does not take the subjunctive; it is used to indicate the (potential) cause of something.
y'úr $n$. [PF jour] Day.
y'ŷ $n$. [from y'ŷvéłáfrí] Eye.
y'̂̀ prefix [PF mieux] Denying comparative prefix. See grammar.
y'ŷvéłáfrí n. pl. archaic [PF yeux de merlan frit] Eyes.
'sý'ýâ $\rightarrow$ asý'ýâ.

[^0]:    ${ }^{1}$ That is, unless the name ends in an obvious suffix, in which case the last syllable before any such suffixes receives secondary stress; however, this is generally quite rare.
    ${ }^{2}$ Sinistral nasal vowels are articulated with the left nostril, and dextral nasal vowels with the right nostril.

[^1]:    ${ }^{3}$ As is always the case in cases like this, hypercorrection is frequent, and $\langle\mathrm{au}\rangle$ is often preferred word-initially, even if the PF root was spelt with $\langle\mathrm{o}\rangle$. In general, UF speakers seem to prefer $\langle\mathrm{au}\rangle$ over $\langle\mathrm{o}\rangle$, except word-finally and after $\langle\mathrm{w}\rangle$, except that in verb affixes, $a u$ is quite common word-finally. The sequence 〈wau〉 does not exist in UF.
     of thumb, it is usually /e/ at the end of verb stems-but not verb forms in general-and /o/ elsewhere. Fortunately they are differentiated by a dot below in dictionaries and in this grammar: vvaúríhe vs ḍalẹ.

[^2]:    ${ }^{5}$ The indefinite voc does not exist, as that would be nonsense.

[^3]:    ${ }^{6}$ This is a very common proverb (often also just láráhó slẹlúr 'The fish is too bulky') and roughly means that something has gone too far or gone on for too long ('Now you've done it' or 'Now it's too late'). Variations of it exists; in the optative, for instance, this proverb means 'Let's not overdo this'.

[^4]:    ${ }^{7}$ Doubly passive forms can occur in rare cases if infinitives are involved; see § 3.6.5.
    ${ }^{8}$ Excluding of course the fact that infinitives could be considered to function as predicates of ACIS and PCIS (see § 3.6).
    ${ }^{9}$ Note the accusative $i v v a \hat{a}$ here, and recall also that, as mentioned above, the verb takes passive marking even though there is an explicit object, simply because there is no subject at all.
    ${ }^{10}$ The closest UF gets to an 'agent in the passive' is by forming a regular active, but placing the agent last in the clause.

[^5]:    ${ }^{11}$ Diachronically, the base form of this prefix is ${ }^{\star} 0$-, whence e.g. *oad'hóró $>$ rad'hóró and ${ }^{*} o o b$ 'heíró > wob'heíró.

[^6]:    ${ }^{12}$ Note that the modern preterite stem of avár is $y$.
    ${ }^{13}$ This is another of those forms that has no real equivalent in English and is fairly untranslatable.

[^7]:    ${ }^{14}$ This too is hard to translate literally.
    ${ }^{15}$ This is not a problem in the Future I, since the prefix is never adjacent to the stem.

[^8]:    ${ }^{16}$ As noted before, infinitive and gerund forms of future tenses are difficult to translate into English.

[^9]:    ${ }^{17}$ Note the lenition here because of the present anterior suffix: b'had'hrẹ́sé, not *b'had'hrẹ́sé.

[^10]:    ${ }^{18}$ The best attempt one could make to translate this would be something along the lines of 'to should love', but that is not exactly grammatical in English.
    ${ }^{19}$ Lit. 'I write it [down]; I should-will remember' and 'It was needed, so that we should-will understand', respectively.

[^11]:    ${ }^{20}$ The use of the (future) subjunctive stem to form the optative, with no change in overall meaning, is fairly archaic and only encountered in poetry in modern UF.
    ${ }^{21}$ The context of this could be e.g. meeting someone again after a long time apart and hoping that they still remember you.

[^12]:    ${ }^{22}$ The original morphological preterite anterior tense of ed was lost in Late Middle UF.

[^13]:    ${ }^{23}$ Note that ' 31 ' in UF is not really 'thirty-one', but rather 'twenty-eleven' and thus doesn't end with 'one'.

[^14]:    ${ }^{24}$ The only passive forms that do not have prefix parts are imperatives.
    ${ }^{25}$ The apostrophe in $z^{\prime}$ makes no sense in that position, but it probably came about in imitation of similar forms that affix to the following word, e.g. the opt negation particle t'hé, which becomes $t^{\prime} h h^{\prime}$ before vowels.

[^15]:    ${ }^{26}$ See the dictionary entry for act'he, sense 4 , for more information about the use of this word here, which normally means 'cleave'. The literal meaning of this sentence is roughly: 'And we shall have brought down the trees upon their sins, to (= for the benefit of) the world'.

[^16]:    ${ }^{27}$ UF does not use the letters $p$ or $q$, and thus, discussions of propositional logic in UF tend to use $r$ and $t$ instead. $s$ is not used either so as to not confuse it with $s$ 'if'.

[^17]:    ${ }^{28}$ Note that UF here uses the verbal noun b'hóy'ẹ 'to fly' as a noun to mean 'flight'.

[^18]:    ${ }^{29}$ The speaker uses a PCI (dybhát) instead of an ACI (ibhát) for 'speaking' here; had they used an ACI, the meaning would be closer to 'the act of "fully speaking" the language', as in, speaking and understanding it in its entirety. Thus, the speaker implicates that it is not the mere act of making utterances in UF (Áraúl dybhát), but rather speaking and comprehending it in its entirety (Áraúl ibhát) that gives rise to telepathic abilities.
    ${ }^{30}$ In UF, 'to read someone's mind' is expressed as 'to read someone's thoughts'.
    ${ }^{31}$ The UF text uses $u \ldots u \ldots$ '... or ...(inclusive)'. This is for semantic reasons: the original text had a positive context ('immune to'), whereas the UF translation uses a negative context ('incapable of being affected by'); thus, by De Morgan, we have to switch from 'and' to 'or' here.
    ${ }^{32}$ 'might be X ' is generally expressed using the optative of $u b$ 'hrá + an ACI with 'to be X '.
    ${ }^{33}$ ' To become clear' is expressed with the pres ant form of 'transpire'.

