Gomain Reference Grammar

A technical description of Standard Gomain

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GOMAIN REFERENCE GRAMMAR
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For further information, visit: http://anhrush.conlang.org

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Table of abbreviations

1	First person	INF	Infinitive
2	Second person	INFML	Informal
3	Third person	INHAB	Inhabitant or follower
ACC	Accusative case	INST	Instrumental case
ACT	Active voice	INTIM	Intimate
ADJ	Adjectivizer	LOC	Location
ADV	Adverb	M	Masculine
AGT	Agentive	N	Neuter
ANIM	Animate	NEG	Negative
ATTEN	Attenuative	NMLZ	Nominalizer
CAUS	Causative aspect	NOM	Nominative case
CMP	Comparative	OBLIG	Obligative mood
COH	Cohortative mood	P	Plural (agreement)
COLL	Collective	PART	Partitive
COND	Conditional mood	PASS	Passive voice
CONT	Continuative aspect	PAT	Patientive
DAT	Dative case	PERF	Perfect aspect
DED	Deductive mood	PL	Plural
DIM	Diminutive	POSS	Possessive
DUB	Dubitative mood	POT	Potential mood
EMPH	Emphatic	PRES	Present tense
EXCL	Exclusive	PRIV	Privative
F	Feminine (agreement)	PROG	Progressive aspect
FAM	Familiar	PROT	Protractive aspect
FEM	Feminine (gender)	PST	Past tense
FREQ	Frequentative aspect	PTCP	Participle
FRM	Formal	Q	Interrogative
FUT	Future tense	REFL	Reflexive
GER	Gerund	REL	Relative pronoun
HYP	Hypothetical mood	RESULT	Verb result
IMP	Imperative	S	Singular
INCH	Inchoative aspect	SBJV	Subjunctive mood
INCL	Inclusive	SUP	Superlative
INDF	Indefinite	VOC	Vocative case

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Preface

    This reference grammar is an attempt at a scholarly treatment of Gomain, a language which is entirely invented. I first began working on Gomain in early 2002, long before I started studying linguistics in any detail. That early version of Gomain was, by the standards of the craft of language construction, very crude, largely due to my ignorance of language systems at the time. In the intervening years, as my linguistic knowledge has grown, Gomain has undergone a corresponding growth in sophistication and quality, as has this reference grammar. While some features of the early versions of the language still exist in some form in its current edition, many other features have been either added or extensively reworked to better reflect the properties of natural languages. If the past is any indication, this process will likely continue well into the future.

    Despite the fact that Gomain is a work of fiction, I have endeavored to treat it in this grammar as if it were a natural language. Consequently, this grammar consistently refers to it in its fictional setting as if that setting were real. In addition, my treatment of Gomain strives to adhere to the standards of descriptive linguistics as they are followed in reference grammars of natural languages. Prescriptive rules are avoided as much as possible, except as references to the products of (fictional) traditional grammarians within the Gomain-speaking community. Furthermore, my treatment of the various linguistic systems within Gomain aims to be as scholarly as possible, with minimal descriptions that would best belong in language-learning materials. While this approach may make this grammar difficult to read for non-linguists, it is my hope that it should satisfy other linguists and language creators with a similar depth of linguistic knowledge.

    Over the years, I have benefited tremendously from the expertise and advice of many people, as well as the encouragement of my friends and family. I am especially indebted to the faculty and teaching assisants of the UCLA Department of Linguistics, through whose instruction I earned my bachelor's degree in linguistics, and in so doing, learned a great deal that I have applied to improving Gomain. While they are too numerous to mention by name, I would like to thank the late Dr. Russell Schuh in particular, as he took time out of his busy schedule to read an earlier edition of this grammar and offer his thoughts on it. I am also indebted to the linguistics faculty at CSU Fullerton, whose instruction and guidance in my graduate studies inspired me to work more on Gomain than at any point after I received my B.A. In addition to my scholarly mentors, I would be remiss if I failed to mention the importance of the Conlangery podcast and Language Creation Conferences in improving my language creation skills, as well as in providing me with extra motivation to continue working on Gomain. Finally, I would like to thank my friends and family for their support, encouragement, and interest in Gomain.

    Thank you, and **¡krïfwoḍau oiǐ!**

1 Introduction | Nŕdombet

1.1 Genetic affiliation and geographical context

Gomain (**ḳweroiṭ Anȓüšin** "Anhrushite language" to speakers of the standard dialect and in former Anhrushite colonies; **ḳweroiṭ Gomain** "language of the Gomai clan" to other native speakers in Anhrush proper) is a language of the Ham-Hamic branch of the Yavian family, which covers a majority of the continent of Zasháve. As the family of many of the oldest civilizations on Zasháve, Yavian is one of the most-studied language families of Askath, and Proto-Yavian is one of the most confidently-reconstructed protolanguages on the planet. Originating on the Gaiar Plains east of the Sea of Punishment, speakers of the early Yavian dialect continuum spread southwest, northwest, and east beginning over 7,000 years ago. This last group then split into the ancestors of the Saruyi, Ham-Hamic, and Arailo-Bralu languages as their respective progenitors crossed the Likhrin Plateau and the desolate expanses of the Amanha Desert.

The oldest attested ancestor of Gomain is Ham-Hamic itself. Close examinations of cognate sets and shared innovations have illuminated not only the relations between the various descendants of Ham-Hamic, but the early history of the region, which was otherwise largely obscured by legend and subject to much debate in academic circles. From these studies, a picture of the tumultuous times that followed the Empire of Hām-Ham's collapse has emerged, and in turn, this understanding has further aided historical linguists. In contrast, the modern borders of the Ham-Hamic languages hide much of their ancestors' ancient diversity, as subsequent history has reshaped regional demographics.
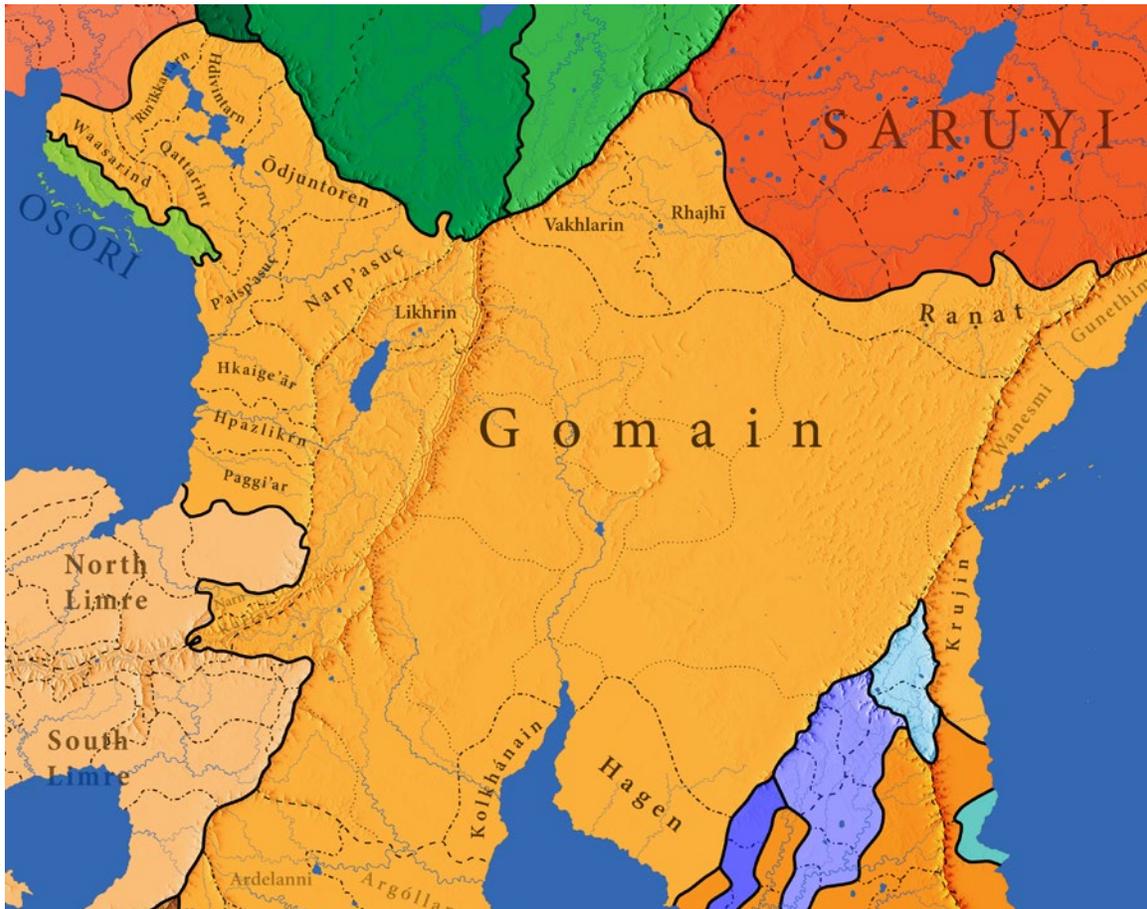
Figure 1: Gomain and the other Anhrushitic languages of Zasháve

The lingustic grouping to which Gomain and its sister languages belong, the Anhrushitic languages, is the most geographically extensive branch of the Ham-Hamic family. Figure 1 above shows the Anhrushitic languages' placement and extents in east-central Zasháve; all other languages on the map are given less prominent labels. From this map, one can get a sense of the immensity of the Anhrushite Empire at its height, although the exact borders

of the Empire and the language group do not perfectly coincide. Comparison of phoneme inventories and shared vocabulary has allowed historical linguists to piece together a detailed family tree of the Anhrushitic languages.

Among the 18 Anhrushitic languages, Hagen and Kolkhánain are the most similar to Gomain, although they are still too different to be mutually intelligible. Slightly less close are the languages of the Pagsani Plains, along with Likhrin and Krujin. Even after the fall of the Anhrushite Empire, people in these regions still had at least limited contact, and so the divergence between them was limited. The same cannot be said of the West Anhrushititc languages, all of which lie west of the Likhrin Plateau and so were isolated from the rest of the Anhrushite world even before the Empire fell. The Gaiar languages, spoken in the presumed urheimat of all Yavian languages, are the least divergent languages of this branch of the family, due in part to their being located at the crossing of many transcontinental trade routes. To their north, the Northwest Anhrushitic languages are much further removed from their desert kin. Still, among these languages, those of the P'asu Valley are similar enough to the Gaiar languages to allow for at least asymmetric mutual intelligibility in some cases. The languages of the Qaptari Lakes region in the far northwest corner of the map are the most divergent, as this region was the first part of the Anhrushite Empire to break away, and its inhabitants remained relatively isolated in the ensuing centuries.

Although its core speakers have always referred to it as Anhrushite, it helps to distinguish the language of the past 1,600 years from its most immediate ancestor, also called Anhrushite. The Anhrushite language was itself spoken from about the time of Anhrush City's settlement 4,000 years ago until the end of the Empire of Anhrush, when it evolved into Gomain and its closest relatives.

1.2   History

Gomain has long been a literary language, with a corpus of thousands of texts spanning the past four millennia. This vast corpus has proved invaluable in charting the historical development of not only the Gomain and Anhrushite languages, but all of the Anhrushitic languages, which include all the descendants of Late Anhrushite. In the process, historical linguists and sociolinguists have uncovered the previously little-known history of the languages that existed in central and eastern Zasháve prior to the political expansion of the Anhrushite city-state. Indeed, clues in some of the oldest attested toponyms and loanwords in Old Anhrushite texts point to the survival of the non-Yavian languages that were spoken in the Amanha Desert four millennia ago.

The earliest extant documents in the history of the Anhrushite language, which properly belong to the Old Anhrushite phase of the language's existence, are trading accounts and passages of holy scripture. The most famous text of this era, and perhaps the most linguistically important because of its many updates into the vernacular of successive ages, is the charter of Anhrush City, whose age is given by the very year of Anhrushite reckoning. Its oldest surviving version, commonly accepted to have been written in 0 ŴA, contains a few lexemes which have no cognates in any South or East Ham-Hamic language of similar antiquity. These lexemes, therefore, are most likely loanwords borrowed from whatever language was spoken in the western Amanha Desert before the arrival of the Ham-Hamites nearly five millennia ago, and so represent the only known non-Yavian substrate language in the Anhrushite historical record.

The first blossoming of Anhrushite literature, meanwhile, belongs to the era of Classical Anhrushite, beginning ca. 700 ŴA. Many poems, theological works, and plays date from this age, and also from the time of the Empire, when Classical Anhrushite evolved into Late Anhrushite. During this time, some of the loanwords which existed in Old Anhrushite were replaced with innovated lexemes based on native roots, as the updates of the Anhrush City charter reveal. In addition, the relative unity that the Anhrushite language had enjoyed for centuries was lost as the Empire expanded into far-flung regions of Zasháve, only to cede these new territories after sending soldiers, administrators, and colonists to settle and govern them. By the time that the Empire finally collapsed, in the late 18th century ŴA, Late Anhrushite had fractured into over a dozen separate dialects, which gradually evolved into Gomain and the the other 17 modern Anhrushitic languages.

Even for the highly chaotic period that followed the Empire's demise, linguists have been able to piece together a detailed genetic map of the descendants of Late Anhrushite by identifying phonological and morphosyntactic features shared by various language groups and linking them to the influence of local substrate languages. For instance, the fact that the Northwest Anhrushitic languages (which are spoken in the region surrounding the Qaptari Lakes) all have a variety of either pharyngealized or ejective/implosive stops suggests that the language that was once spoken in that region had a similar distinction in its phoneme inventory. Similarly, the presence of retroflex consonants in the Rhajhĩ and Ṛaṇat languages (of the Pagsani Plains, north of the Amanha Desert) indicates

that those languages were influenced by local Saruyi languages. Meanwhile, the retention of the Anhrushite aoristic aspect in the West Anhrushitic languages (which include Likhrin, among others) and the middle voice in Hagen and Kolkhánain (which are Gomain's closest relatives) suggest that speakers in those regions became isolated after the Empire's fall.

As for Gomain itself, the first texts that are generally agreed to be in Old Gomain date from the mid-20th century ŴA, during the Argóllan occupation of the desert. Even by this time, the language shows considerable influence from Imperial Argóllan, both in a simplification of inflectional morphology and the adoption of vocabulary from the ruling elite. Perhaps most significantly, the second-person pejorative pronoun **bal**, which originally meant "lord" or "master" in Argóllan, is first attested in chronicles and folk literature of the late 22nd century, during the first Anhrushite rebellions against the occupation. Following the end of the occupation, Old Gomain evolved into Middle Gomain, as the newly-liberated Anhrushites reasserted their cultural and linguistic identity. The shift toward analytic morphosyntax that had begun in the Empire's twilight years was replaced by a wave of grammaticalization, producing (among other things) the case system now present in Modern Gomain. The number and variety of written works has steadily increased since the establishment of the Second Republic 13 centuries ago; and with today's mass media, there are more examples of Gomain creativity, both on paper and online, than ever before.

1.3   Demographics and major divisions

Gomain is the first language of over 940 million **šëḍweiŋa**, the humanoid inhabitants of the planet known in Gomain as Askath. It is the national language of the Third Republic of Anhrush, the planet's chief superpower, and the population center of both the language and its most influential dialect. Gomain is also an official language in several nations which were originally Anhrushite colonies. The most significant of these nations is the Federation of Saŋgitl, on the continent of Khalsim and therefore halfway around the planet from Anhrush; Standard Saŋgitlin Gomain is consequently the language's second-most influential dialect after Anhrush. In addition, Gomain is a global lingua franca, and so about two billion **šëḍweiŋa** speak it as a second language. The largest second-language population of Gomain speakers is in the Union of Ghamaristan, also a former Anhrushite colony; this large nation in western Aħsam has adopted Gomain as its national language due to its status as a lingua franca among the country's many ethnic and linguistic groups. However, significant non-native-speaker populations exist in virtually every major city in the rest of Askath.

There are a number of dialects of this language, both in Anhrush and the various former colonies where it has become the majority language. By far, the greatest dialect diversity exists among the dialects spoken on Zasháve, where Gomain originated, and where the Republic of Anhrush is located. The overseas dialects broadly resemble one or more Zashavian dialects, the exact ones depending on where that nation's colonists first came from. Furthermore, there are numerous distinct sociolects of Gomain within every native-speaker community, especially in the highly socially-stratified society of Anhrush. A full treatment of all Gomain dialects and sociolects is beyond the scope of this grammar. I will cover the Zashavian dialects briefly at the end of this grammar; the remainder of the grammar deals specifically with the dialect of Anhrush City, which is standard throughout the Republic of Anhrush. An examination of Gomain sociolinguistics is left for future research.

1.4   Morphological and syntactic typology

Gomain is mostly agglutinative, although there are also several fusional morphemes. Nouns and adjectives, for example, use case morphemes which are distinct from the plural marker, and verbal mood affixes are separate from all other morphemes. On the other hand, the forms of the indefinite article cannot easily be segmented into multiple morphemes, and pronouns exhibit fused case and number marking. The verbal affixes encoding tense, voice and aspect have some components which could potentially be separated as independent morphemes, but due to the inconsistent ordering of the tense-marking consonants with the voice- and aspect-marking vowels, as well as the irregular use of vowels in the passive voice, it is more convenient to treat these affixes as fusional (see section 3.2.1 for the actual forms of these affixes). These irregularities were absent in the Late Anhrushite verbal paradigm, having arisen later from the irregular merger of the aoristic aspect with both the imperfective and perfect aspects, as well as the merger of the middle and passive voices. Similarly, the mismatch between the consonants of the free pronouns and their bound counterparts limits attempts to further separate the latter into distinct morphemes; the thematic vowels of the dative and instrumental prepositional pronominal suffixes pose similar problems.

Most bound morphemes in Gomain are suffixes, although both inflectional and derivational prefixes also exist. Irregular morphology often takes the form of stem modification, sometimes in combination with suffixes. Pure suppletion is rare in the modern language, aside from select finite forms of very common verbs, along with comparative and superlative forms of extremely common adjectives. A limited number of irregular morphemes also act as infixes, sometimes in tandem with ablaut or other non-concatenative morphology. A few clitics are also recognized as distinct words.

Gomain is predominantly head-initial, with SVO basic word order, prepositions, nouns preceding almost all of their modifiers and head-initial compounding. Locus is mixed, with possessive phrases most commonly showing head-marking and clauses showing double marking. While prepositions are used independently when their objects are full nouns, a system of pronominal agreement suffixes also allows prepositional phrases to be more compact than would otherwise be possible. Nevertheless, there are some puzzling exceptions to Gomain's overall head-initial nature: demonstratives and non-numeric quantifiers precede their head nouns, while intensifiers precede adjectives and verbs. The former situation raises the possibility that linguistic universals may well be limited to individual sapient species, and therefore, that there may be more than merely superficial interspecific differences in cognitive processes.

In terms of alignment, Gomain is distinctly nominative–accusative. It treats all subjects identically, with the nominative case also used with predicates. Beyond this and the accusative, a handful of oblique cases serve to distinguish various adjuncts to the verb, as well as to distinguish between uses of prepositions. While SVO is the default and most common word order, the extensive use of case marking allows Gomain word order to be as free as speakers and writers desire; the language is therefore best classified as nonconfigurational. Adverbial adjuncts are invariably in *time-manner-place* order.

2   Phonology | Praikuč

2.1   Consonants

Gomain possesses a wide variety of consonants, as shown in the following table:

	Labial	Labio-dental	Dental	Alveolar	Postalve-olar	Palatal	Velar	Glottal
Stop or Affricate					tʃ dʒ			
	p b		t d		č ǯ		k g	
Nasal								
	m		n				ŋ	
Fricative			θ ð		ʃ ʒ		x	
		f v	ṱ ḑ	s z	š ž		ḳ	h
Trill				r̥				
				r̂ r				
Lateral				l̥				
				l̂ l				
Glide	w̥							
	ŵ w					j		

<div align="center">Table 1: Consonant phonemes of Gomain</div>

Voiceless stops are lightly aspirated in the Anhrush dialect, except in the syllable coda and when they follow s; their pronunciation varies in other dialects. Additionally, t and d vary in their exact point of articulation depending on their environment; they are dental when not in any cluster and before or after n, but alveolar in clusters with other sonorants. As examples, consider the pronunciations of nt [nt̪] and dr [dr]. Ḳ is normally velar, but becomes uvular when near a back vowel, such as in the pronouns **ḳe** [xɛ] and **ḳu** [χu]. R is trilled, as in Spanish *perro*. L is always "light", as in *light*. L̂ and r̂ are simply voiceless versions of l and r, pronounced as if preceded by an h. Approximants are devoiced when they follow a voiceless obstruent. Consonants can be geminated, and geminate consonants sometimes form minimal pairs with normal-length consonants (for example, consider **šeŋen** "having been bled" vs. **šeŋŋen** "clot"), making this distinction important.

2.2   Vowels

Gomain possesses the following fourteen basic vowel phonemes, again shown with their IPA symbols:
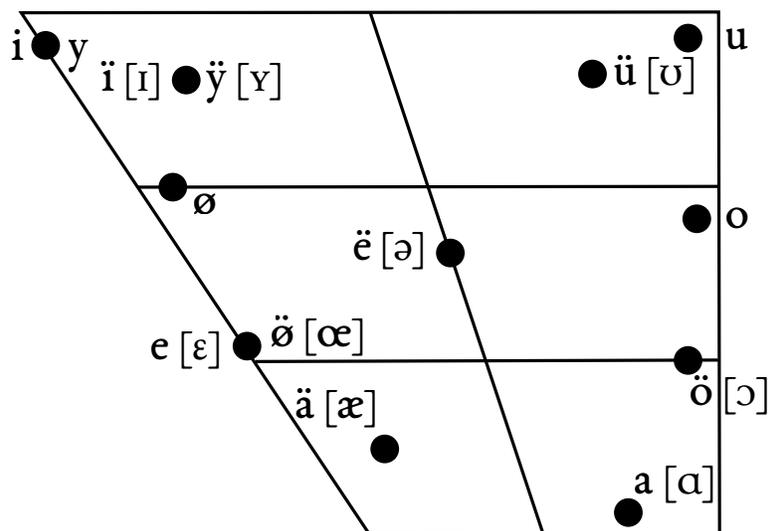
<div align="center">Figure 2: Monophthongs of Gomain</div>

In addition, there are also six diphthongs, four falling and two rising: ai /aj/, oi /oj/, au /aw/, ei /ej/, ju /ju/, and jü /jʊ/. Their exact pronunciation varies in some dialects; some speakers lower the first vowel in each of the falling diphthongs, while others raise it. Also, some dialects pronounce the rising diphthongs as falling diphthongs, specifically /iw/ and /ɪw/. The pronunciations given here are standard in the Anhrush dialect. The falling diphthongs are traditionally analyzed as VC series due to several phonotactical and morphophonemic phenomena. First, vowel hiatus is disallowed, but vowels may immediately follow diphthongs: **jaiu** ['jaju] 'faith'. Secondly, analyzing diphthongs in this manner allows all consonants to be geminated, as demonstrated by such words as **peijaḳḳei** [pej'jɑχχej] 'shepherd'. Finally, vowel-initial suffixes do not require an epenthetic consonant to be inserted between them and a stem-final diphthong: **flai-a** ['flajɑ] 'spiders', **jë-flau-oŋ** [jə'flawoŋ] 'she was hungry'.

Word-final tense vowels and diphthongs may be nasalized, a feature which contrasts with plain vowels. Nasalized vowels are written with a tilde over the vowel letter, like so: ‹ẽ ãu› [ɛ̃ ãw]. When a suffix is added after a nasalized vowel, an [n] is inserted before the suffix and the vowel denasalizes:

(1a) **šändõ** ['ʃændõ] 'drunk'
(b)   **šändončem** ['ʃændonˌtʃɛm] 'drunkenness'

Furthermore, there is also a syllabic approximant, transcribed as ŕ, which varies in exact manner of articulation depending on dialect; the two observed variants are IPA /r̩/ and /ɻ/, the former of which is used in the Anhrush dialect.

Schwa becomes [ʌ] when stressed. It is elided word-finally before a vowel-initial word, as well as when a vowel-initial suffix is added after it.

(2)   **ëmëmë** ['ʌməˌmʌ] 'gibberish'
(3a) **gäḳrë owefaug** ['gæxr owɛ'fawg] 'he is exiting the house'
(b)   **gäḳrauŋ owefaug** ['gæxrawŋ owɛ'fawg] 'he had exited the house'

2.3   Phonotactics

2.3.1   Syllable structure and constraints

The basic syllable structure of Gomain is (C)(C)V(C)(C), subject to the following constraints:

Syllables may begin with any vowel or single consonant; however, ŋ may not begin a word. Possible onset clusters include:

- a voiceless stop + r or j (as tr, kj, pr etc.; tj is not allowed here)
- b or g + l or a glide (gl, bj, gw etc.)
- d + l or r (dr, dl)
- a fricative (but not sibilant) + an approximant other than hw (fl, ṭr, ḳw etc.)
- a sibilant + a stop with the same voicing (št, žb, zg etc.)

Syllables may end with any single vowel or consonant except l̂, ŕ, w, or ŵ. However, words cannot end with h. Coda clusters include:

- a nasal + a stop pronounced at the same point of articulation (nt, mb, ŋk, etc.; ŋg [ŋg as in *finger*] is not allowed finally)
- l or r + a stop, fricative, sibilant or nasal (rd, lk, rf etc.)
- an unvoiced stop + an unvoiced sibilant (ps, kš [transcribed as x̌], ks [transcribed as x] and pš; tš becomes č; ts is not allowed here)
- a voiced stop + a voiced sibilant (gz, bz, dž [transcribed as ǯ] etc.)
- a sibilant + a stop with the same voicing (sk, zb, št etc.)
- m or n + h
- any obstruent or nasal + j

Note also that when a suffix beginning with a consonant is added to a word ending in j, an epenthetic i is inserted before the suffix.

Medially, syllable onsets may freely follow any coda; this may also result in geminates, whether on their own or as part of a cluster. However, there are a few restrictions:

- Obstruents must share the same voicing.
- With one exception (the cluster mg), nasals must share the point of articulation of a following obstruent.
- Nasals cannot precede sibilants without an intervening stop that shares voicing with the sibilant and point of articulation with the nasal.
- Sibilants cannot precede liquids without inserting an epenthetic stop sharing the voicing of the sibilant.
- Coda fricatives other than sibilants cannot precede any stop + liquid onset cluster.
- W is the only glide that can follow a liquid. Liquid + j clusters historically have elided the liquid.
- The sequence tj can only exist if preceded by a sonorant, with the t syllabified with the sonorant. In the past this cluster, on its own, palatalized to č.
- Onset obstruent + liquid clusters may only follow coda liquid + obstruent clusters if each liquid is different. Examples include rgl, lțr and rvl.
- Only voiceless liquids may immediately follow a nasal; voiced liquids require an intervening stop that is homorganic with the nasal and is permitted to precede the liquid under the onset constraints, as in mbl and ŋkr.

A note on spelling: The orthographic representation of doubled affricates is not as straightforward as that of other geminates. While geminate versions of all other phones are simply represented as double letters, the two affricates' geminates break from this pattern. Instead, the romanized version of the Gomain alphabetic representation is used, as it is both intuitive and phonetically accurate: doubled č becomes tč, and doubled ʒ becomes dʒ.
Medial clusters in compound words do not always follow the above rules, especially if the compounds are recent coinages. Most compounds coined in the Middle Gomain period and earlier, however, have clusters that have assimilated into the rules over the centuries. Additionally, certain morphological affixes do not mutate word stems to obey these constraints, while those that begin with nasals allow any obstruent of the same point of articulation to precede them.

O cannot precede r except at morpheme boundaries (it is especially common for the accusative case prefix **o-** to ignore this constraint). Vowel hiatus is not allowed, and so vowel clusters may only occur if the first vowel is ŕ or a diphthong. Consonants are added between vowels to avoid all other clusters, as follows: h follows open and open-mid unrounded vowels (a ä e ë), j follows close and close-mid front vowels (i ï y ÿ ø ö), and w follows non-open back vowels (o ö u ü).

2.3.2 Morphophonological processes

Instances often arise where simply affixing a morpheme would lead to a violation of the above constraints. To avoid such violations, the majority of affixes trigger one of several repair processes. One of these processes, which often applies with irregular or uncommon morphemes, is **vowel mutation**. This process applies when a glide (or, less often, a close vowel) follows a stem-final vowel and cannot be analyzed as the onset of a following syllable. In these situations, the stem-final vowel mutates to form a legal diphthong. Before a j, i, or ï, vowels mutate as shown in example (4):

(4)   ä, a → a
         ë, e, ọ̈, ø → e
         ö, o, ü, u → o
         ï, i, ÿ, y → i (with deletion of following segment)

Before a w, u, or ü, meanwhile, the mutations in example (5) occur:

(5)   ä, a, ë, e → a
         ọ̈, ø, ö, o, ü, u → o (with deletion of following segment)
         ï, i, ÿ, y → j (with vocalization of following w)

Another morphophonological process changes a voiced liquid (i.e. l, r) into a w when it follows a different liquid. Before a j, however, these liquids are simply deleted. This process can feed the vowel mutation process above, as demonstrated in example (6):

(6a)   **oiper** + **j** → //ojperj// → /ojpej/ **óipei** 'honor'
(b)   **samr̂ïl** + **j** → //samr̥ɪlj// → /samr̥i/ **samr̂i** 'innocence'

An especially common process is known as **stop voicing alternation.** This process changes the voicing of a stem-final stop when followed by a liquid that cannot form a legal onset cluster with it: voiced stops before r become

voiceless, and voiceless stops before l become voiced. Stop voicing alternation is most obvious with the possessive and informal imperative suffixes, all of which begin with l; example (7) demonstrates the effects of these suffixes on stems:

(7a) **koindarauk** + **leg** → //kojndarawkleg// → /kojndarawgled/ **koindaraugled** 'my computer'
(b)   **kirt** + **leit** → //kirtlejt// → /kirdlejt/ **kirdleit** 'restore!'

In situations where stop voicing alternation would produce an illegal triple cluster (specifically, one with two of the same liquid surrounding a stop), the second liquid often changes its laterality – that is, l becomes r, and vice versa. This process is therefore known as **laterality alternation** and is demonstrated by example (8):

(8)   **hwalk** + **loit** → //w̥alklojt// → /w̥alkroit/ **ŵalkroit** 'be changed!'

It is quite common for morpheme-initial obstruents to assimilate in voicing to the stem-final obstruent, and is a major feature of the allomorphy of the infinitival and gerund suffixes, as shown in example (9):

(9)   **r̂azbøķ** + **ḍi** → //r̥azbøxði// → /r̥azbøxθi/ **r̂azbøķți** 'to criticize'

When affixation would produce an illegal double consonant cluster, an epenthetic stop (most commonly t or d) is inserted to create a legal triple cluster:

(10) **ektáltoiven** + **leit** → //ektaltojvenleit// → /ektaltojvendlejt/ **ektáltoivendleit** 'rejoice!'

2.4   Stress

Stress assignment in Gomain can be considered to take place in two distinct stages: the root stage and the word stage, in that order. At the root stage, the syllable property which most heavily influences the placement of stress is weight. For the purposes of this discussion, a syllable's weight can most relevantly be measured in morae, for the most part as they are typically understood: the syllable onset generally does not count as a mora, while most vowel monophthongs count as one mora, and diphthongs count as two. Ë and ŕ are considered weak nuclei, and only count as a single mora if they are the nuclei of both of the root's first two syllables. The coda's contribution to syllable weight depends on two main factors: the number of consonants it contains and the length of the following syllable's onset. Only codas consisting of more than one consonant count as a mora, but a simple coda following a monophthong can parasitically "borrow" the first consonant of a following complex onset to be treated as a complex coda and thus count as a mora. A syllable may therefore comprise up to three morae, with the permissible rime types being: V, VV, VC, VVC, and VCC. For the remainder of this discussion, monomoraic syllables will be called "light", bimoraic syllables "heavy", and trimoraic syllables "superheavy". Within roots (along with compounds, which also participate in this stage), primary stress is preferentially assigned to the second syllable, as long as at least one of the first two syllables is heavy or superheavy. If the root's first two syllables are both light, stress is assigned to the first syllable.

Examples (11)–(13) demonstrate the effects of these root-level rules. In (11a-b), the nucleus of the root's first syllable is weak, resulting in that syllable having no morae and effectively being extrametrical. Examples (12a-c) show stress being assigned to the second syllable when it is heavy or superheavy: the following complex onset in (12b) is parasitized by the simple coda to form a superheavy syllable, while the stress in (12c) is on an inherently superheavy syllable. Finally, (13) shows that stress prefers the second syllable; all three sylables in this word are heavy.

(11a) **ŕtörķ** [r̩.ˈtɔrx] 'prison'
(b)   **hëwumbë** [hə.ˈwum.bə] 'amphibrachic meter'
(12a) **sarei** [sɑ.ˈrej] 'short'
(b)   **bleisaŋglu** [blej.ˈsaŋ.glu] 'history'
(c)   **ölfarķ** [ɔl.ˈfɑrx] 'gulf'
(13)   **moiskoion** [moj.ˈskoj.on] 'marketplace'

At the word stage of stress assignment, the root's stress position is maintained as long as it is within the first three syllables of the word. If inflectional or derivational prefixes are present, and they result in the root's stress position falling after the word's third syllable, the primary stress shifts two syllables to the left, leaving a secondary stress in its former position (and every second syllable afterwards). Example (14) demonstrates these word-level stress rules; because the stress on the root (**ķätčë**) falls on the word's fourth syllable, it shifts to the second syllable, and secondary stresses fall on the remaining even-numbered syllables.

(14)   ꙄꙖꙋꙁ...

¿Ḳ̇ëŋauekḳ̇ätčëvenoŋofil?

[xə.ˈŋaw.ɛx.ˌxæt.ʧə.ˌvɛ.no.ˌŋo.fil]

ḳ̇ë- ŋau- ek- ḳ̇ätčë -ven -oŋ   -of -ïl

3.EP- PRIV- CAUS- knot -REFL -PST.ACT -POT -Q

Were they able to untie themselves?

Where stress is irregular, the vowel of the stressed syllable is marked with an acute accent; this accent is written above the dieresis that marks lax vowels. Irregularly stressed diphthongs have an acute accent on the first vowel letter. Nasalized vowels rarely receive stress in unpredictable ways, but when they do, the acute accent is written above the tilde, such as in **ebí̃** 'cry'. Likewise, those few syllabic rhotics that receive unpredictable stress are written with a double acute accent: **ŕ̋**.

2.5   The alphabet | Pekrïf

2.5.1   Letterforms

ïtka /ɪ/	Ʒ	ƷƷƷ	il /i/	Ʒ́	Ʒ́Ʒ́Ʒ́	ög /ɔ/	⊤	⊤⊤⊤
ok /o/	T́	T́T́T́	öŋ /œ/	ℕ	ℕℕℕ	øz /ø/	ℕ́	ℕ́ℕ́ℕ́
ÿk /ɣ/	⊓	⊓⊓⊓	yv /y/	ń	ŕńŕń	äǯ /æ/	℘	℘℘℘
az /ɑ/	℘́	℘́℘́℘́	üd /ʊ/	∂	∂	uz /u/	∂	∂
ën /ə/	ꙅ	ꙅꙅꙅ	edu /ɛ/	ꙅ	ꙅꙅꙅ	ŕk /r̩/	ꙅ́	ꙅ́ꙅ́ꙅ́
čül /ʧ/	⊖	⊖	kon /k/	Ͻ	₩₩	ḳa /x/	Ͻ̣	₩₩
to /t/	Μ̄	Μ̄Μ̄Μ̄	ţi /θ/	M̂	M̂M̂M̂	sod /s/	ŋ	ŋŋŋ
šo /ʃ/	ꙍ̇	ꙍ̇ꙍ̇ꙍ̇	zan /z/	ꙍ	ꙍ	žag /ʒ/	ꙍ̇	ꙍ̇
wad /w/	Ɛ	ϹϹϵ	ŵin /w̰/	Č̆	Č̆Č̆Č̆	hal /h/	ϙ	ϙϙϙ
fad /f/	Ψ	ΨΨΨ	lör /l/	ς	ςy	l̂i /l̰/	ς	ςy̆
ǯör /ʤ/	Ϭ	Ϭ	bod /b/	ѡ	ѡ	von /v/	ѡ̈	ѡ̈ѡ̈ѡ̈
gau /g/	Ь	ЬЬЬ	raz /r/	ō꙳	ō꙳ō꙳	r̂u /r̰/	ꙷ	ꙷ
jol /j/	ꙅ	ꙅꙅꙅ	doin /d/	∕	∕ѡ	ḍo /ð/	∕	∕ѡ̈
nab /n/	Υ	ΥΥΥ	peḳ /p/	�	⊂	mek /m/	∧	∧
ëŋoi /ŋ/	ꙛ̣	ꙛ̣ꙛ̣ꙛ̣	ëxolt /ks/	ꙗ̣	ꙗ̣ꙗ̣ꙗ̣	ëẋa /kʃ/	ꙗ̣̇	ꙗ̣̇ꙗ̣̇ꙗ̣̇

Table 2: Pekrïf letters used to write Gomain

Above are all the letters used to write Gomain, with their names and IPA equivalents. This alphabet is meant to be written much like the Arabic script, with few breaks between letters; therefore, the letters are shown here in both their isolated and contextual forms. If a word-final letter follows a non-connecting letter, its isolated form is used. Otherwise, aside from name initials and a few single-letter words, isolated forms are only used to signify acronyms, in which case they are written with no spaces between them.

The Pekrïf, as it is called, is a descendant of a much older script originally used in the ancient kingdom of Hām-Ham. This progenitor script, while still an alphabet in nature, was highly ornamental, and it was frequently used as a kind of hieroglyphics. The letters' current, simplified forms arose over the centuries after Hām-Ham fell; their arrangement dates back to the middle of the First Republic, around 650-700 ŴA. The letterforms were codified, and the letters named and arranged, about this time; not coincidentally, the Great Temple of Jave was built during these years. The names were intended to not only contain the sound that letter represented, but also to be euphonious. Since then, several letters omitted from the above table have become obsolete, as the sounds they represented were lost via sound change. In addition, the ligatures **ëxolt** and **ëẍa**, representing the combinations of **kon** with **sod** and **šo**, respectively, have been appended to the end of the alphabetic sequence. The only other significant change between then and now has been the creation of new letters through the addition of diacritics; several new sounds have been added to the Gomain phoneme inventory over the centuries, often through cluster simplification. The diacritics themselves reflect these origins in clusters, as they are descended from superscript forms of the lost consonants. (Not all of the diacritics have their origins in other letters, however; the horizontal line and upward-pointing chevron descend from clusters of dots.)

Zan and **žag** form ligatures with a following **äʒ**, **az**, **öŋ**, **øz**, **ög** or **ok** as shown in Figure 3. Similarly, the lines over **raz** and **to** are commonly merged when those letters are adjacent.

Figure 3: Pekrïf ligatures

These 14 ligatures have become standard in all printed and written text. Their names are simply the syllables formed by the combinations of letters involved and are given in the above figure.

2.5.2 Punctuation

makjušak comma	،	**makjuʒ** semicolon	∧	**makjudrüš** colon	∿	**juʒëlë** period	°
ḳöstaukrïf question mark	⌠	**rodíjakrïf** exclamation point	⟨	**naugetkakrïf** interrobang	⫯	**rekrïf** uncertainty mark	⧓
gasnörḍïma quotation marks	⟊ ⟊	**vȩ̈ẗërïna** parentheses	⟩ ⟨	**vëʈukrau** hyphen	—	**juʒox** ellipsis	⦡
tatpïrki identifying mark	∗	**pratčakrïf** stress mark (lax vowels)	⊤ ̄⊤	**pratčakrïf auan** stress mark (tense vowels)	ʼ ́⊤	**nabzë** tilde (tense vowels)	˘ ̆⊤
bačakrïf name line	∿ ∿ ∿ ∿ ∿			example: **Jadÿndar**			

Figure 4: Pekrïf punctuation marks

The **makjušak** or comma is used to separate circumstantial participles, subordinate clauses, nouns in the vocative case, items in lists, and parts of large numbers.

The **makjuʒ** or semicolon indicates a greater syntactic break than the comma, similar to the proper usage of the semicolon in English. It also separates numbers in literary citations and time abbreviations, and serves as the radix point in numerals.

Similarly, the **makjudrüš** or colon indicates an even greater syntactic break than the semicolon, on a par with the use of the colon in European languages. It also prefaces a quote.

The **juʒëlë** or period marks the end of sentences.

The **ķöstaukrïf** or question mark replaces the period at the end of a question.

The **rödíjakrïf** or exclamation mark is used as in European languages, at the end of an exclamation or interjection; it also replaces the period.

The **naugetkakrïf** or interrobang is used similarly to the **ķöstaukrïf** and **rodíjakrïf** and is used to indicate passionate incredulity, much like a combination of the question and exclamation marks in English. These three marks also appear at the beginning of clauses, as in Spanish orthography.

The **rekrïf** or uncertainty mark ends a sentence where one wishes to represent a tone of uncertainty or doubt in the preceding sentence.

The **gasnörḍima** or quotation marks are used, as in English, to separate quotations from the rest of the text. Unlike English usage, however, they are only placed at the beginning and end of quotations, not at the beginning of new paragraphs within them.

The **vëţërïna** or parentheses set off asides and other statements that we would normally place within them.

The **vëţukrau** or hyphen is sometimes used in place of the comma when separating subordinate clauses. It also comes before citations, both of people and literature, and separates literary titles.

The **juʒox** or ellipsis is used to indicate the end of a long quotation, or that the source of a quote continued speaking before, during, or after the quote.

The **tatpïrki** or identifying mark serves to distinguish abbreviations from similar, fully-spelled words, as well as to alert readers to a textual note. Scientists and mathematicians use it to indicate special operations, quantities, and units of measure. In electronic media, it is often used for emphasis, similar to our own asterisk.

The **pratčakrïf** or accent mark is written above a vowel which receives irregular stress. It combines with the **auanj** that distinguishes tense vowels to form the **pratčakrïf auan**. While it is not normally used following a case prefix, it is written in situations where case-marking creates a homophone pair distinguished only by position of stress: consider **uma** (plural indefinite article) vs. **umá** (to/for many).

The **nabzë** or tilde is written above a nasalized vowel. If the vowel is also irregularly stressed, it is written above the **pratčakrïf** as well; thus the Pekrïf orthography for **ebî** is ⅏⅃.

The **bačakrïf** or proper name line is written under all proper names. It is simply a specialized underline.

Romanized transcriptions follow the Gomain usage, except where that would confuse readers. This practice includes the underlining of proper names in romanizations; the examples in this grammar do not follow this convention to avoid confusing readers. The only significant difference is the use of italics or quotation marks to indicate literary titles.

2.6   Numbers | Nagdiha

2.6.1   Numerals

0	ο	1	٩	2	V	3	ᴡ	4	⅔	5	Ꙅ
6	ℛ	7	Ǝ	8	ᴍ	9	Ⴑ		ⴺ		℘		Ꝑ
10	ꝑ	*i*	ⴲ	φ	Θ	*e*	ⴔ	π	⊘	∞	⊖
%	×	−	⸵	±	؟	°	ⴂ	f(x)	₹–₰	≈	ə
=	⊕	≠	⊗	<	ᴜ	>	ᴗ	≤	ᴊ	≥	Ꮏ
+	7	-	⟋	×	ᴗ	÷	ᴡ	∧	ⓖ	√	ᴗ
log	ᴛ	Δx	₴₰	dy/dx	ᴃ	∫	β	Σ	ⵝ	∏	θ
sin	ᴄ₎	cos	ⴓᴦ₎	tan	ᴄ̄	cot	ᴜᴄ̄ᴄ	sec	ⴄᴒ̄	csc	ᴜᴒ̄

Figure 5: Pekrïf numerals and mathematical symbols

All integers have four semantically distinct forms in Gomain: cardinal, ordinal, fractional, and multiplicative. Cardinal numbers do not take case prefixes; neither do multiplicative numbers, since they are adverbs. The Pekrïf symbols for the basic digits are shown in Figure 5 above, as is the common ligature for a one followed by a zero. The names of the cardinal numbers, along with their ordinal, fractional, and multiplicative forms, are as follows:

	Cardinal	Ordinal	Fraction	Multiple
0	zi	-	-	-
1	oi	oiš	oič	oif
2	üŋ	üǯ	üŋk	ümf
3	ŕ	ŕš	ŕč	ŕf
4	au	auš	auč	auf
5	fai	faiš	faič	faif
6	ÿr	ÿrḍ	ÿrt	ÿrf
7	ar	arţ	arḳ	arf
8	šau	šauš	šauč	šauf
9	jul	julţ	julḳ	julf
10	rö	röš	röč	röf
11	ǯai	ǯaiš	ǯaič	ǯaif
12	la	laš	lač	laf
144	jaŋŋë	jaŋŋëš	jaŋŋëč	jaŋŋëf
1,728	ittö	ittöš	ittöč	ittöf
20,736	myḍŕ	myḍŕš	myḍŕč	myḍŕf

Table 3: Number forms

The numbers 13-23 are formed by prefixing **la-** to the appropriate number, or **lah-** before those numbers that begin with a vowel. Thus the number for 13 is **lahoi**, that for 17 **lafai**, and so on. Dozens are formed by adding the suffix **-wo** to the appropriate number; this gives numbers like **üŋwo** (24), **auwo** (48), and **ǯaiwo** (132).

Higher numbers are straightforward enough: multiples of grosses, great grosses, and the like are written as two words – first comes the multiplying basic number, then the gross, great gross, etc. Thus one may construct numbers like **ŕ jaŋŋë** (300_{12}, or 432_{10}) and **šau ittö** (8000_{12}, $13,824_{10}$). Examples of other large numbers include:

(15a) **ŕwo oi** (31_{12}, 37_{10}) ⱲⱢ
(b) **faiwo šau** (58_{12}, 68_{10}) ⱫⱮ
(c) **jaŋŋë üŋ** (102_{12}, 146_{10}) Ᵽ∨
(d) **fai jaŋŋë üŋwo ar** (527_{12}, 751_{10}) Ⱬ∨Ꝫ
(e) **ittö jaŋŋë julwo fai** (1195_{12}, 1985_{10}) ⱲⱶⱫ
(f) **üŋ ittö jaŋŋë ŕwo ʒai** ($213Ɛ_{12}$, 3647_{10}) ∨ⱲⱢƄ
(g) **myḍrümf** ($1,0000,0000_{12}$, $429,981,696_{10}$) ⱣⰑ0000Ⰻ0000
(h) **lahŕ myḍrümf, rö ittö ar jaŋŋë auwo oi myḍŕ, ʒai ittö šau jaŋŋë faiwo au** ($13,ⱬ741,Ɛ854_{12}$, $6,400,000,000_{10}$) ⰔⰑⰕⰎⱣⰫ3ⱬⰎƄⰏⱫⱬ

(i) **myḍrŕf** ($1,0000,0000,0000_{12}$, $8,916,100,448,256_{10}$) ᰔ0000Ⰻ0000Ⰻ0000
(j) **myḍrauf** ($1,0000,0000,0000,0000_{12}$, $184,884,258,895,036,416_{10}$) ᰔ0000Ⰻ0000Ⰻ0000Ⰻ0000

Regardless of a number's size, its ordinal equivalent is generally formed by suffixing –**š** to it, as Table 3 demonstrates; thus the Gomain for "five dozenth" is **faiwoš**. Numbers ending with **üŋ**, **ÿr**, **ar**, or **jul** use the irregular ordinal forms of those numbers, so that the Gomain equivalent to e.g. "three dozen and second" is **ŕwo üʒ**.

Fractional numbers of arbitrary size can, likewise, be formed by adding the suffix –**č**, with the same caveat for numbers ending in **üŋ**, **ÿr**, **ar**, and **jul** having irregular fractional forms. Thus "one two-dozenth" in Gomain is **üŋwoč**, "one fiftieth" is **auwo üŋk** (after converting the base), and so forth. Following the regular word order for noun phrases (detailed in section 4.3), numerators of fractions are cardinal numbers that follow their denominators (which are pluralized and given case prefixes when appropriate), resulting in such phrases as **ÿrta fai** "five sixths" and **lahŕča ʒai** "eleven fifteenths". Spoken duodecimal equivalents of fractions typically involve the preposition **vóhein** "under" taking the place of the radix point (which is a **makjuʒ** in writing); thus the duodecimal equivalent of **ÿrta fai** is **zi; vóhein rö** "zero-point-ten, $0;ⱬ$", while the beginning of the duodecimal representation of **nagdilgör** "pi" is ⰒⰎⱮ3Ⰿᰍ **ŕ; vóhein oi-šau-au-šau…** "3;1848…"

Unlike the ordinal and fractional suffixes, the multiplicative suffix is completely regular; it is –**f** for all numbers (although it triggers place assimilation in the final nasal of **üŋ**). Thus larger multiplicative numbers include **faiwof** "five dozen times" and **ittö jaŋŋë röwo šauf** "two thousand times". Multiplicative numbers are also suffixed to **myḍŕ** "myriad" to form higher-order numbers. Such numbers are simply powers of **myḍŕ**; thus 12^8 is **myḍrümf**, 12^{12} is **myḍrŕf**, and so on.

Younger speakers sometimes apply the multiplicative suffix to **zi** "zero" as a tongue-in-cheek way of saying that an action did not happen at all, resulting in the colloquialism **zif** "never". A similar colloquial expression involving the fractional suffix is **zič** (infinitive **zitči**), whose literal meaning of "divide by zero" has come to refer to demanding or doing an impossible task. While multiplicative numbers are used to state how many times something happened, identifying a specific time that something happened involves the use of an ordinal number after the gerund **avau** "going", as in **avau ŕš** "the third time".

2.6.2 Mathematical operations

Written mathematics in Gomain uses prefix notation: the operators are written first. This notation mimics the spoken form of equations; therefore, the first of the example operations in the following paragraph would be romanized as + 2 1 = 3. Grouping symbols are not used, since expressions can be parsed unambiguously without them.

Equations are spoken using the verb forms of the respective operations. What English represents with "equals" or "is/are", Gomain represents with "becomes". Thus addition/subtraction equations follow the form "add two to one; it becomes three" (**amoleit üŋ w oi; mëveč ŕ**). Similarly, multiplication/division equations are spoken like "multiply four with two; it becomes eight" (**ganoleit au b üŋ; mëveč šau**). For exponents, the derived verb **ekbamïn** is used, resulting in spoken equations such as **ekbamïndleit fai w ŕ; mëveč röwo fai** ("raise five to the third power; it becomes 125"). In more complicated equations, the above verbs are nominalized and have the genitive suffix -**lŕ** added to them; in such expressions, the copula **ve** is used. Variables are represented with letters, as they are on Earth, with the key difference that the first variable introduced is always **ëxolt**, with all additional variables assigned the previous letter in the alphabet (i.e. the second variable is **ëŋoi**, the third is **mek**, etc.).

Taken together, the above practices lead to equations being expressed similarly to the following (which is the Gomain version of the distance formula):

(16)   ꝩ ⊕ ᴗ ⊅ ⒢ ∕ ꝗ–∨ ꝗ–ꝉ ∨ ⒢ ∕ ꛱–∨ ꛱–ꝉ ∨ ∨
$$d = \sqrt{(x_2 - x_1)^2 + (y_2 - y_1)^2}$$

Ḳäx̌et mëve vämbamïndlŕ ammäglŕ bamïndlŕ dlïʒlŕ ëxolt üʒ is ëxolt oiš, is üŋ; is bamïndlŕ dlïʒlŕ ëŋoi üʒ is ëŋoi oiš, is üŋ; is üŋ.

ḳäx̌et	mëve	vämbamïndlŕ	ammäglŕ	bamïndlŕ	dlïʒlŕ	ëxolt	üʒ	is	ëxolt	oiš	is	üŋ
distance	is	root-of	sum-of	power-of	difference-of	x	second	and	x	first	and	two

is	bamïndlŕ	dlïʒlŕ	ëŋoi	üʒ	is	ëŋoi	oiš	is	üŋ	is	üŋ
and	power-of	difference-of	y	second	and	y	first	and	two	and	two

The distance is the root of the sum of the exponentiation of the difference of x_2 and x_1 by two, and the exponentiation of the difference of y_2 and y_1 by two, by two.

3   Morphology | Ŵalgweiŋuč

3.1   Nouns | Weizäča

Modern Gomain does not mark grammatical gender, though Anhrushite had a system of inflected grammatical genders. However, when referring to females, the prefix **eis-** is added to the noun stem; the stem by itself is taken to be male. Thus one may distinguish between **šïv** 'son' and **eiššïv** 'daughter', among others. Initial sibilants in the stem assimilate the **s** at the end of the prefix, as can be seen with **eiššïv**.

Nouns add prefixes for four cases: the accusative, dative, vocative and instrumental. The accusative prefix is **o-**; the dative, **u-**; the vocative, **ai-**; and the instrumental, **e-**. The nominative case is not marked; other cases make use of prepositions or particles. The case prefixes are never stressed. Example (17) demonstrates these case markers:

(17)   �03ꞃꝑ ᖯꞁꝺꞝꞙꞏ꙼ꞝꞏꝑ ꭙꝺ ꞎꞏꞀꝹꞮ ε ꞎꞓꞏꝑꞝꝺᖯꞌꝺꝑꞝ ꝅꞇꞁꞝꞏꝺꝑꝺ ꝫᖰꞝꞝ3ꝺ∘

Kaif gëḵŕkoŋof na oḍedẽ w owefaugleg epodalega ïmr̂oi.

kaif	gë-	ḵŕk-	oŋ-	of	na	o-	ḍedẽ	w	o-	w-	efaug-	leg	e-	poda-	leg-	a	ïmr̂oi
man	3ms-	move-	PST-	POT	NEG	ACC-	rock	to	DAT-	Ø-	house-	POSS.3ms	INST-	hand-	POSS.3ms-	PL	alone

The man could not move the rock to his house with his hands alone.

In addition, the prefix **ben-** is used for the intrative case, to indicate that something is between some other things or qualities, generally two or more of the same kind of thing: **benoḵrona** 'between the waters'. It is only used with plural nouns, as in the preceding example.

Gomain possesses two nominal numbers, the singular and plural. As one might expect, the singular is unmarked; for regular nouns, the plural suffixes **-a** to consonant-final nouns and **-ha** to vowel-final ones. The six irregular plural patterns are discussed in the following section.

Three levels of magnitude are marked directly with suffixes. To indicate a small object, **-sak** is suffixed; for mid-sized objects, **-loi** is added; for large objects, the suffix is **-rüš**. The suffixes may be repeated to indicate very large or very small things. They may also be isolated and nominalized to express such concepts as bigness (**rüššem**) and smallness (**saẋem**). Likewise, the isolated adjectives can take other derivational affixes or comparative/superlative suffixes, as described below.

Two options exist for indicating possession. As demonstrated in the word **owefaugleg** in the above sentence, pronominal possessives are suffixed onto the item of possession. The following suffixes are employed in this method:

Person	Singular	Plural
First	-led	-lež
Second	-le	-lef
Third Masc.	-leg	-leḵ
Third Fem.	-lei	-leḵ
Third Neut.	-lem	-lŕ
Impersonal	-lö	-lø

Table 4: Possessive suffixes

These suffixes precede the plural suffix. Whenever any of these suffixes is added to a stem that ends in a voiceless stop, the stop becomes voiced, as in **aiedled** 'my breath'.

The other option is to put the item's possessor in the nominative case after the genitive preposition **am** 'of'.

3.1.1   Irregular plural patterns

Approximately three percent of all nouns form their plurals differently from the regular pattern detailed above. A total of six irregular plural patterns exist, employing either alternative suffixes, infixes (sometimes in combination with a suffix), stem vowel tensing, or no overt morphology at all. However, in all patterns which use a suffix, that suffix is added at the end of the noun stem, after any other suffixes (as is the case with regular nouns).

A plurality of irregular nouns use **-ï** as their plural suffix. Historically, these nouns were feminine in the Anhrushite gender system, and have retained the plural suffix of that gender. A few of these nouns are given in example (18):

(18a)   **börḍ** 'moon', **börḍï** 'moons'
(b)   **efaug** 'house', **efaugï** 'houses'
(c)   **pjöḍj** 'camel', **pjöḍjï** 'camels'
(d)   **hã** 'ax', **hãi** 'axes'
(e)   **dara** 'arm', **dárai** 'arms'
(f)   **vohe** 'bottom', **vóhei** 'bottoms'

As examples (18d-f) demonstrate, when **-ï** is added to a vowel-final noun stem, it forms a diphthong with the final vowel. When this diphthongization occurs on polysyllabic stems, the stress does not shift to the new heavy syllable, and is therefore marked on the stressed vowel, as demonstrated by (18e-f).

In some irregular nouns, an **ï** is infixed in the stem's final syllable, producing a diphthong. These nouns were also feminine in Anhrushite, but they formed a different subclass of the feminine gender.

(19a)   **jon** 'room', **join** 'rooms'
(b)   **zeš** 'field, plain', **zeiš** 'fields, plains'
(c)   **ṭük** 'mouse', **ṭoik** 'mice'
(d)   **doinen** 'tooth', **dóinein** 'teeth'
(e)   **tolvaŋ** 'herb', **tólvaiŋ** 'herbs'
(f)   **ibem** 'goat', **íbeim** 'goats'

As was the case with the previous plural pattern, infixation within the ultima of a polysyllabic stem results in an irregular stress pattern, which is correspondingly marked in writing, as it is in (19d-f). In addition, due to the merger of earlier diphthongs, stems whose final syllable's vowel is not **a**, **e**, or **o** undergo a form of vowel mutation that produces legal diphthongs, as (19c) demonstrates.

The preceding pattern occasionally combines with the regular plural suffix to produce doubly-marked plurals, with both an infixed **ï** and a suffixed -**a**. Thus the plural of **ḍaž** 'older brother' is **ḍaiža**, while that of **ḍüž** 'younger brother' is **ḍoiža**, featuring the vowel mutation that was described earlier. This pattern is mostly limited to kinship terms, including the preceding two words and others derived from them.

A fourth pattern also has a different plural suffix, namely -**ã**. Nouns with this nasalized plural suffix descend from Anhrushite neuter nouns, which actually used a final -**an** as their plural suffix; when word-final nasal consonants were lost, they left behind compensatory nasalization and lengthening on adjacent vowels, yielding this suffix. Among these nouns are the following:

(20a)   **deš** 'child', **dešã** 'children'
(b)   **näž** 'horse', **näžã** 'horses'
(c)   **ÿmegz** 'moa', **ÿmegzã** 'moas'

A small group of irregular nouns form their plurals by tensing the lax vowel in their final syllable. Examples of such nouns include **ÿd** 'fist', whose plural is **yd**, and **velïm** 'penis', whose plural is **velim**. More such nouns existed in earlier stages of the language, but over time, most of them have been regularized.

Finally, a single noun, **gaž** 'bird', has a plural which is identical to its singular form, with no overt morphology whatsoever. This word has puzzled historical linguists for decades, and there is currently no consensus on how it came to have identical singular and plural forms. A leading hypothesis is that its singular form was previously **gazj** and that it used the -**ï** plural suffix, which then merged with the final **j**, but not all linguists agree.

3.2   Verbs | Weiŋgaha

3.2.1   The regular paradigm

Verbs have four infinitive forms – simple and perfect, each with active and passive versions. All are represented with suffixes to the verb stem: -**ḍi** for the active simple infinitive, -**ḍy** for the active perfect, -**ḍe** for the passive simple, and -**ḍø** for the passive perfect. When the verb root ends in a voiceless consonant, the **ḍ** of the suffix devoices; if the verb ends in a sibilant or affricate, the suffix assimilates. It does not assimilate to the place of articulation of any preceding labial or velar consonant, for instance, as in **ŵalkṭi** 'to change'.

The finite verb in Gomain can have one inflectional prefix and up to four suffixes. Together, they form the verb template shown in Figure 6:

subject agreement-**stem**-(reflexive)-(tense/voice/aspect)-(mood)-(interrogative)

Figure 6: Finite verb template

Gomain is a null-subject language, and so its verbs have obligatory subject agreement. To this end, the following subject prefixes are used:

Person	Singular	Plural
First inclusive	dë-	žë-
First exclusive		rë-
Second formal	Îë-	së-
Second informal	ŵë-	fë-
Third masc.	gë-	ķë-
Third fem.	jë-	
Third neuter	më-	ŕ-
Impersonal	lë-	

Table 5: Subject agreement prefixes

The **ë** of these prefixes elides when they are added to a stem beginning with a vowel. When the above simple meanings are insufficient, especially in the second person and third person plural, a more precise pronoun may be used in addition to the prefix.

Verbs carry the following suffixes for tense, voice and the perfect aspect. There is no suffix for the active simple present tense.

Voice	Aspect	Past	Present	Future
Active	**Simple**	-oŋ		-oiḍ
	Perfect	-auŋ	-žau	-auḍ
Passive	**Simple**	-üŋ	-žu	-öḍ
	Perfect	-ïŋ	-žai	-aiḍ

Table 6: Tense/voice/aspect suffixes

Without any of the following suffixes, a verb is assumed to be in the indicative mood. Gomain inflects for eight other moods by suffixes that follow and mutate the tense suffixes. The basic suffixes are as follows; the uses of the moods are explained in section 4.1.2 on page 31ff:

Mood	Suffix	Example	Translation(s)
Conditional	-om	dëjündom	I would work
Subjunctive	-ḍäk	dëjünḍäk	(that) I work / may I work
Obligative	-leit	dëjündleit	I must work / I have to work
Cohortative	-ok	dëjündok	I should work / let me work
Hypothetical	-ob	dëjündob	I could work / be working
Potential	-of	dëjündof	I can work / I am able to work
Deductive	-os	dëjündos	I must be working / Presumably, I am working
Dubitative	-onh	dëjündonh	I might be working

Table 7: Mood suffixes

To comply with phonological constraints, the consonants of the tense and mood suffixes may mutate one another, depending on what they are. The **ŋ** of the past-tense suffixes inserts a **g** in the subjunctive and obligative, and remains the same in all other moods. The **ḍ** of the future-tense suffixes combines with the **ḍ** of the subjunctive, and remains the same in the other moods. The **o** of all moods containing one elides in the present tenses.

The subjunctive and obligative mood suffixes, when used without any personal or tense affixes on the verb stem, form the basis of the formal and informal imperatives, respectively: compare **ķŕkëḍäk** 'please move' and

ḵŕgleit 'move!' There are four forms each for the formal and informal imperatives, for distinguishing between active and passive commands, as well as commands to one or more people:

Voice	Formal		Informal	
	Singular	**Plural**	**Singular**	**Plural**
Active	-ḍäk	-ḍäḵ	-leit	-leič
Passive	-ḍök	-ḍöḵ	-loit	-loič

Table 8: Imperative suffixes

Like the possessive suffixes, when **-leit** is attached to a stem ending in a voiceless stop, the stop becomes voiced.

The six participles are formed with suffixes. Their forms are as follows:

	Active	**Passive**
Future	-meṭ	-mev
Present	-mez	-mex
Past	-mẽi	-men

Table 9: Participial suffixes

When the verb stem ends in a consonant, the **m** of the suffix is dropped, as in **jündez** 'working'.

Two gerunds exist in Gomain – the regular and locative. They too are represented by suffixes, respectively **-ḍau** and **-sarau**: **jünḍḍau** 'working', **jüntsarau** 'workplace'. The regular gerund suffix has the same allomorphic variations as the infinitive suffixes. In practice, the gerund locative refers to a small area – the exact spot where an action happens.

Agentives (indicating a person or thing that does the action) are also formed with suffixes: the masculine suffix **-kei**, the feminine **-keis**, and the neuter **-ki**. These suffixes can also be applied to adjectives, or to proper nouns to express affiliation or habitation. The vowels of these suffixes are lowered to change their meaning to patientives, or objects that have the action done to them; the resulting suffixes, in the same order as above, are **-kai**, **-kais** and **-kä**. When these suffixes are attached to a word ending in **ḵ**, the **k** of the suffix spirantizes to create a geminate, **ḵḵ**. When the stem ends in a sibilant preceded by a stop, the initial **k** of the agentive and patientive suffixes makes the final sibilant postalveolar and is deleted: **bahagži** 'that which is shameful'.

The interrogative suffix **-ïl** is attached at the end of the verb structure. To offer the listener an alternative, the phrase **ot na** 'or not' may be added at the end of the sentence.

Verbs are negated by the independent particle **na**, which always follows the verb. If one wishes to express the reverse of the action (e.g. like/dislike) with the same stem, the privative prefix **nau-** is added to the verb stem; the same affix reverses the meaning of nouns in the same fashion as the English prefix un-. Adjectives are reversed with the same prefix. This prefix formerly began with **ŋ**; however, sound changes replaced word-initial **ŋ** with **n**. Therefore, when verbs with **nau-** take a subject agreement prefix, its form becomes **-ŋau-**, as in **ḵ̌ëŋaunauŋ** 'they undid'. Likewise, when nouns and adjectives with **nau-** take a case prefix, this morpheme becomes **-ŋau-**, as in **uŋau-jauinkeia** 'to the ungodly'.

To express the reflexive, **-ven** is suffixed to the stem before any tense suffix. With irregular verbs this results in regularized tense paradigms, since reflexivity applies to the verb before the addition of tense; compare **dëvevenoŋ** 'I was myself' with ***dëvëŋven**.

3.2.2 Irregular verb classes

While approximately 68% of all Gomain verbs are regular, there are many verbs with irregularities in at least one part of their paradigms. Most of these irregular verbs fall into one of nine distinct classes, distinguished by the final segments of their stems. Still other verbs do not share any clear patterns in their paradigms; these verbs are among the most frequently used in the language, and their paradigms are mostly irregular. The following sections deal with each class in turn, pointing out only the irregular parts of each paradigm; all forms not shown are regular.

3.2.2.1 Class Ia (-o stems)

This and the following class are considered subtypes of a larger Class I, as there is little difference between them. The stems of Class I verbs all end in one of a handful of vowels; in the case of Class Ia verbs, that final vowel

is usually **-o**, although two Class Ia verbs end in **-ë** (specifically **erdlë** 'end' and **neglë** 'leave') and a third, **niju** 'cause', ends in **-u**. This stem-final vowel is deleted before tense suffixes, with the present-tense suffixes metathesizing their vowels and consonants. As an example, consider the tense paradigms of **kr̈ifwo** 'write':

(21)

		Past	Present	Future
Active	Simple	kr̈ifwoŋ	kr̈ifwo	kr̈ifwoiḍ
	Perfect	kr̈ifwauŋ	kr̈ifwauž	kr̈ifwauḍ
Passive	Simple	kr̈ifwüŋ	kr̈ifwuž	kr̈ifwöḍ
	Perfect	kr̈ifwïŋ	kr̈ifwaiž	kr̈ifwaiḍ

The only other irregular part of the Class Ia paradigm is participle formation, and it is limited to only a few verb stems in the class. The initial **m-** of the participial suffixes is deleted, and the **e** of the suffixes becomes an offglide to form a diphthong (**oi**) with the stem-final vowel. In addition, the nasalization of the past active participial ending shifts to the newly-formed **oi**. The participles of **törko** 'fuck' illustrate the results for all six participial forms:

(22)

	Active	Passive
Past	törkõi	törkoin
Present	törkoiz	törkoix
Future	törkoiṭ	törkoiv

In addition to **törko**, the verbs **kanr̂o** 'rise' and **zo** 'be like' (along with verbs derived from them) are the only other Class Ia verbs with irregular participles that follow this pattern. The participles of the two Class Ia verbs ending in **-ë** are also irregular in this way; their final vowels become **-ei-**, such as in **negleiṭ** 'soon to leave'.

3.2.2.2 Class Ib (-oi stems)

This class differs from Class Ia mainly in that the stem-final vowel of Class Ib verbs is **-oi** instead of **-o**. This difference results in the simple past active tense suffix being **-oiŋ** instead of the regular **-oŋ**. As an example, the tenses of **paloi** 'see' are given below:

(23)

		Past	Present	Future
Active	Simple	paloiŋ	paloi	paloiḍ
	Perfect	palauŋ	palauž	palauḍ
Passive	Simple	palüŋ	paluž	palöḍ
	Perfect	palïŋ	palaiž	palaiḍ

The only other difference in Class Ib is the use of irregular imperative forms for **paloi** and **naroi** 'choose'. The **-oi** of these verbs' stems is deleted in their imperatives, which results in the **-l** of the informal imperative suffixes becoming a **w** in naroi and disappearing altogether in **paloi**. Their imperatives, then, are of the forms **narḍäk/narweit** for the former, and **palḍäk/paleit** for the latter. These forms also appear in the subjunctive and obligative moods, respectively, the only difference being the addition of personal prefixes.

3.2.2.3 Class II (-ei stems)

Like Class I, the only irregular parts of the Class II paradigm (distinguished by a stem-final **-ei**) are the tense and participial suffixes. However, the vowels of the tense endings are irregular, as shown by the tensed forms of **krei** 'find':

(24)

		Past	Present	Future
Active	Simple	kreiŋ	krei	kreiḍ
	Perfect	kreŋ	krež	kreḍ
Passive	Simple	kryŋ	krÿž	kröḍ
	Perfect	kriŋ	kräž	kräḍ

As for the participles, the **-ei** of the stems is deleted before all of the participial suffixes. Again, consider the examples from the paradigm of **krei**:

(25)

	Active	Passive
Past	krẽi	kren
Present	krez	krex
Future	kreṭ	krev

While most Class II verbs have regular agentives, those of **praiķwei** 'say' are irregular; the verb stem is reduced to **praiķ-**, and the **k** of the agentive suffixes assimilates to this stem's final consonant. Consequently, the agentives of this verb take forms such as **praiķķei** 'he who says'.

3.2.2.4   Class III (-ïŋ stems)

Unlike the previous verb classes, the stems of all other classes end in a consonant. In Class III, this consonant is always found before an **ï**, and so the stems of this class always end in **-ïŋ**. Much more of the Class III paradigm is irregular than in Classes I and II. For example, the infinitives and gerund of each verb differ from their expected forms due to the assimilation of the consonants of the stem and suffixes; specifically, the expected **-ŋḍ-** cluster becomes **-nd-**. As an example, the simple active infinitive and gerund of **čoiŋ** 'make' are respectively **čoindi** and **čoindau**.

Tensed forms in Class III are especially irregular. To begin, they are all formed through different kinds of stem modification: the **–ïŋ** ending that distinguishes members of this class is dropped entirely in the future and present tenses (with the present tenses using a unique set of suffixes that follow the pattern **–Vnžë**, where **V** represents the vowel that is normally used in each tense suffix), while the past tense suffixes merge with it, their vowels replacing the **ï** of the stem; in the simple active past tense, this stem vowel is replaced with **ŕ**, while the **ï** of the perfect passive past tense is tensed to **i**. The tense paradigm of **öķrïŋ** 'wash' illustrates all of these forms:

(26)

		Past	Present	Future
Active	**Simple**	öķrŕŋ	öķrïŋ	öķroiḍ
	Perfect	öķrauŋ	öķraunžë	öķrauḍ
Passive	**Simple**	öķrüŋ	öķrunžë	öķrȍḍ
	Perfect	öķriŋ	öķrainžë	öķraiḍ

Čoiŋ has a somewhat different tense paradigm from the other Class III verbs. To begin, the final **-ŋ** of the stem is replaced by **-ķ** in the future tenses, while the **-ž** of the present-tense endings is absent altogether, with the present and past distinguished only by the vowels of their final syllables. The following table demonstrates all of these changes.

(27)

		Past	Present	Future
Active	**Simple**	čŕŋ	čoiŋ	čoiķ
	Perfect	čauŋ	čüŋ	čauķ
Passive	**Simple**	čuŋ	čyŋ	čøķ
	Perfect	čïŋ	čaiŋ	čaiķ

In all Class III verbs, the **-ŋ** of the verb stems becomes **-m** in the participles, while the **-m** of the participial endings strengthens to **-b**, resulting in the medial cluster **-mb-** in all participles. The participles of **čoiŋ** demonstrate these irregular forms:

(28)

	Active	Passive
Past	čoimbẽi	čoimben
Present	čoimbez	čoimbex
Future	čoimbeṭ	čoimbev

Also, the formal imperative/subjunctive forms of Class III verbs show the same assimilation as in the infinitives and gerund, with the medial cluster **-ŋḍ-** changing to **-nd-**. The base form for all of the formal imperatives, as well as the subjunctive, of **čoiŋ** is then **čoindäk**. The informal imperative forms contain the same medial cluster, followed by the **l** of the regular suffixes, resulting in such forms as **öķrïndleit** 'wash!'

3.2.2.5 Class IV (-ŋk stems)

The stems of Class IV verbs are distinguished by their final consonant cluster, **-ŋk**. This cluster combines with the **ḍ-** of the infinitival and gerund suffixes to become **-ndr-**, as illustrated by the gerund of **reŋk** 'lose, misplace', which is **rendrau**.

Tensed forms of Class IV verbs involve two processes. In the past tenses, the stem's last vowel is replaced by the vowel of the tense suffix; if the stem's vowel is **o**, the past simple active form contains an **oi** instead, as with **ymȓoiŋk** 'sang'. In the present tenses, the stem-final cluster and the initial **ž-** of the suffixes combine into the cluster **-nǯ-**. The future tenses are regular. These processes can be seen in the paradigm of **reŋk** below:

(29)

		Past	Present	Future
Active	**Simple**	roŋk	reŋk	reŋkoiḍ
	Perfect	rauŋk	renžau	reŋkauḍ
Passive	**Simple**	rüŋk	renžu	reŋköḍ
	Perfect	rïŋk	renžai	reŋkaiḍ

The only other irregular part of the Class IV paradigm is the formation of the formal imperative, in which the cluster at the morpheme boundary, which is the same **-ŋkḍ-** as would be expected in the infinitives and gerund, reduces to **-nd-**, as in the passive singular formal imperative of **reŋk**, **rendök** 'please be misplaced'. The informal imperatives undergo the regular process of voicing of voiceless stops.

3.2.2.6 Class V (-mb stems)

Like Class IV verbs, the stems in Class V all end in a cluster, namely **-mb**. When the infinitival or gerund suffixes are added to these stems, the initial **ḍ-** of the suffixes changes to a **z-**; this change gives such infinitives as **ainambzi** 'to throw'. The formal imperatives undergo the same change: **aimambzäk** 'please throw'.

Tensed forms of Class V verbs undergo the following set of changes. In the past tense, the rime of the root's final syllable is replaced with a combination of the regular vowels of the past-tense suffixes and the cluster **-nǯ**. In the present tense, the **b** of the stem and the **ž** of the suffixes are replaced with **ǯ**. Like Class IV verbs, the future forms of Class V verbs are regular. As an example, consider the tense paradigm for **ainamb**:

(30)

		Past	Present	Future
Active	**Simple**	ainonž	ainamb	ainamboiḍ
	Perfect	ainaunž	ainamžau	ainambauḍ
Passive	**Simple**	ainünž	ainamžu	ainamböḍ
	Perfect	ainïnž	ainamžai	ainambaiḍ

The above past forms cause the **-ḍ** of the subjunctive suffix to elide, resulting in such past subjunctive forms as **mainünǯäk** '(that) it might be thrown'.

Participles in Class V delete the stem-final **b**, resulting in a geminated **mm**, as in **ainammev** 'soon to be thrown'.

Agentives and patientives differ from the regular paradigm in that the **k-** of the suffixes and the **-b** of the stems are replaced with **-č-**, yielding such forms as **ainamčä** 'that which is thrown, projectile'.

3.2.2.7 Class VI (-s stems)

Class VI stems all end with the single consonant **s**. After this consonant, the **ḍ-** of the infinitives, gerund and formal imperatives devoices and becomes alveolar, resulting in such forms as **töstau** 'wearing'.

As with the preceding two classes, future-tense forms of Class VI verbs are regular; only the past- and present-tense forms are irregular. In the past tenses, the stem-final **s** is geminated, while in the present tenses, it combines with the **ž-** of those suffixes to become **-š-**. The tense paradigm for **tös** is an excellent example of a Class VI tense paradigm:

(31)

		Past	Present	Future
Active	**Simple**	tösson	tös	tösoiḍ
	Perfect	tössauŋ	töšau	tösauḍ
Passive	**Simple**	tössüŋ	töšu	tösöḍ
	Perfect	tössïŋ	töšai	tösaiḍ

The participles of Class VI verbs feature the denasalization and devoicing of the participial suffixes' initial **m-**, which thus becomes **p-**, as in **töspẽi** 'having worn'.

The only other irregularity in the Class VI paradigm is the metathesis of **-sl-** in the informal imperatives, resulting in, for example, **tölseit** 'wear!'

3.2.2.8   Class VII (-z stems)

Stems of Class VII verbs share **-z** as their final consonant. This **-z** merges with the **ḍ-** of the infinitival, gerund and formal imperative suffixes to become **-ž-**; the active perfect infinitive of **žbÿz**, then, is **žbÿžy** 'to have sworn'.

Tensed forms of Class VII verbs have the following irregularities (again using **žbÿz** as an example):

(32)

		Past	Present	Future
Active	**Simple**	žbÿzŕŋ	žbÿz	žbÿzoiḍ
	Perfect	žbÿzöŋ	žbÿzau	žbÿzauḍ
Passive	**Simple**	žbÿzÿŋ	žbÿzu	žbÿzÿḍ
	Perfect	žbÿziŋ	žbÿzai	žbÿzaiḍ

Like those of Class VI verbs, the informal imperatives of Class VII verbs show metathesis at the morpheme boundary, with **-lz-** appearing instead of the regular **-zl-**. The active singular informal imperative of **žbÿz**, then, is **žbÿlzeit** 'swear!'

The Class VII verb **ŕübz** 'wake up' is the only such verb with irregular agentives, most likely due to the awkward nature of the medial **-bzg-** cluster that would exist if its agentives were regular. To avoid forming this cluster, the agentives of this verb contain the same medial cluster as its infinitives, gerund, and formal imperatives, namely **bž**, yielding such agentives as **ŕübžeis** 'she who wakes up'. Since this process would produce a neuter agentive identical to the active simple infinitive, the former form adds a final **-k**, and is thus **ŕübžik** 'that which awakes, alarm clock'.

3.2.2.9   Class VIII (-t/d stems)

The Class VIII verb stems share a dental stop (**-t** or **-d** depending on the specific stem) as their final consonant. The **ḍ-** of the infinitival, gerund and formal imperative suffixes assimilates in voicing to this consonant and replaces it, resulting in such forms as **ølṭau** 'keeping' and **šolḍy** 'to have grown'.

In the past tenses, the final **-t** of Class VIII stems is deleted, while it causes the initial **ž-** of the present-tense suffixes to assimilate in voicing to it, resulting in **-č-** for **t**-final stems and **-ǯ-** for **d**-final stems. Consider the tense paradigms of **ølt** and **šold** as examples:

(33)

		Past	Present	Future
Active	**Simple**	øloŋ	ølt	øltoiḍ
	Perfect	ølauŋ	ølčau	øltauḍ
Passive	**Simple**	ølüŋ	ølču	øltöḍ
	Perfect	ølïŋ	ølčai	øltaiḍ

(34)

		Past	Present	Future
Active	**Simple**	šoloŋ	šold	šoldoiḍ
	Perfect	šolauŋ	šolǯau	šoldauḍ
Passive	**Simple**	šolüŋ	šolǯu	šoldöḍ
	Perfect	šolïŋ	šolǯai	šoldaiḍ

When a Class VIII verb stem ends in only a **t** or **d**, an epenthetic consonant is inserted in its place, the choice of consonant following the rules at the end of section 2.3.1. **Ød** 'load' is one such verb; its paradigm is as follows:

(35)

		Past	Present	Future
Active	**Simple**	øjoŋ	ød	ødoiḍ
	Perfect	øjauŋ	øǯau	ødauḍ
Passive	**Simple**	øjüŋ	øǯu	ødöḍ
	Perfect	øjïŋ	øǯai	ødaiḍ

The verb **ŵŕt** 'fight' deviates from the pattern in example (33 only in the simple active past tense, which is **ŵŕŋ** instead of the expected **ŵŕoŋ**. **Ŵŕt** is also the only Class VIII verb with irregular participles; its participial stem contains an inserted **n**, resulting in participles such as **ŵŕntez** 'fighting'.

Contrary to the usual pattern of assimilation for informal imperatives, those of Class VIII verbs involve the imperative suffixes' **l**- changing to an **r**-, as with **øltreit** 'keep!'

In addition, the agentives and patientives of Class VIII verbs replace the cluster **-tk-** (**-dg-** for **d**-final stems) formed by suffixation with **-č-/-ǯ-**, as demonstrated by **ølčeis** '(female) keeper', **šolǯä** 'that which is grown'.

3.2.2.10 Class IX (-k/ḳ stems)

Class IX verbs are distinguished by having either **-k** or **-ḳ** as the final consonant of their roots. Their infinitives, gerund and formal imperatives reduce the cluster formed from adding those suffixes to **-kt-**, as **glokti**, the active simple infinitive of **glok** 'drink' demonstrates.

Past-tense forms of Class IX verbs are mostly regular, with the exception of the active simple past ending, which is **-ŕŋ**. In the present tense, the **ž**- of the tense affix devoices to assimilate to the root's final consonant, resulting in the cluster **-x̌-**. The future-tense forms are notable in that they cause the root's last vowel to assimilate to that of the suffix, yielding two of the same vowel or diphthong in successive syllables. The tense paradigm of **glok** below shows all of these processes at work:

(36)

		Past	Present	Future
Active	**Simple**	glokŕŋ	glok	gloikoiḍ
	Perfect	glokauŋ	glox̌au	glaukauḍ
Passive	**Simple**	gloküŋ	glox̌u	glököḍ
	Perfect	glokïŋ	glox̌ai	glaikaiḍ

In some Class IX tense paradigms, the root's initial vowel becomes a low vowel – **ä** if the initial vowel is a front vowel, **a** if it is a back vowel. The specific root verbs with this pattern are **oilḳ** 'give', **ölk** 'send', **iḳ** 'get tired', **perḳ** 'faint', and **ilk** 'yoke'. The paradigm of **ölk** demonstrates this phenomenon:

(37)

		Past	Present	Future
Active	**Simple**	alkŕŋ	ölk	oilkoiḍ
	Perfect	alkauŋ	ölx̌au	aulkauḍ
Passive	**Simple**	alküŋ	ölx̌u	ölköḍ
	Perfect	alkïŋ	ölx̌ai	ailkaiḍ

The participles of Class IX verbs differ from regular participles in that the root's final consonant becomes **-g** and the participial suffixes' initial **m**- lenites to **w**-, resulting in the cluster **-gw-**. These changes are illustrated by the participles of **ölk**:

(38)

	Active	Passive
Past	ölgwẽi	ölgwen
Present	ölgwez	ölgwex
Future	ölgweṭ	ölgwev

Finally, the initial **l**- of the informal imperative suffixes changes to **r**- when added to Class IX stems in order to comply with phonotactical rules; consider the active plural informal imperative of **ölk**, **ölkreič** 'send! (to many)'.

3.2.2.11 Classless verbs

In total, 13 irregular root verbs in Gomain do not form a class with any others. Most of these verbs have considerably more irregular paradigms than those detailed above. Their paradigms are given for reference in Appendix A; however, one remarkable feature shared by two of these verbs is discussed below.

Almost all verbs, both regular and irregular, have only one stem for both singular and plural agreement. The only two exceptions are the two copulae, **ve** 'be' and **več** 'become'; they alone have different stems used with singular and plural subjects. In both paradigms, the plural forms differ from the singular forms only in having a different nucleus. The following tables show these unusual tense paradigms, first for **ve** and then for **več**:

	Past		Present		Future	
	Singular	**Plural**	**Singular**	**Plural**	**Singular**	**Plural**
Simple	vëŋ	vŕŋ	ve	vø	vïḍ	vŕḍ
Perfect	vejüŋ	vŕjüŋ	veju	vŕju	vewuḍ	vŕwuḍ

Table 10: Tensed forms of ve 'be'

	Past		Present		Future	
	Singular	**Plural**	**Singular**	**Plural**	**Singular**	**Plural**
Simple	veko	vøko	več	vøč	večoit	vøčoit
Perfect	vekau	vøkau	vetčau	vøtčau	večait	vøčait

Table 11: Tensed forms of več 'become'

In addition to the above forms, **ve** has a set of contracted mood forms in the present tense, again with a singular/plural distinction. These forms are also shown in Appendix A.

3.3 Adjectives | Weizgoma

Adjectives must agree with the nouns they describe in number and case. Therefore, if the noun is plural, the adjective must also have the plural ending **-a/-ha**; compare **um gälbod adda** 'a red shoe' and **uma gälboda addaha** 'red shoes'.

Adverbs are formed from adjectives via the suffix **-di**. When following a voiceless consonant, this suffix devoices to **-ti**; **lupš** 'fresh', **lupšti** 'freshly'.

Intensity of the quality is expressed with four words, three of which may be thought of as different intensities of 'very'. In order from least to greatest intensity, they are **ȝo**, **ȝö**, and **ȝoi**. The fourth word, **ȝï**, is opposite in meaning to these three, i.e. it weakens the adjective.

There are two comparative suffixes, one positive and one negative; respectively, they are **-u** and **-nu**. There are also a positive and negative superlative, respectively **-hi** and **-bi.** Finally, the neutral comparative (meaning 'as ___ as') suffix is **-ÿ**. The consonants of the superlative suffixes elide when the adjective to which they are attached ends with a consonant with different voicing, while the **n** of the negative comparative only assimilates to match the adjective's final consonant if it is nasal.

(39) štog 'green'
       štog-u 'greener'
       štog-i 'the greenest'
       štog-ÿ 'as green'
       štog-nu 'less green'
       štog-bi 'the least green'

To express excess in a quality, the noun **fega** 'top' is suffixed to the adjective in excess: **eršatfega** 'too strong'. Similarly, a deficiency in a quality is expressed by suffixing **vohe** 'bottom' to the appropriate adjective, as in **eršatvohe** 'not strong enough'. Finally, if there is enough of a quality, **og** 'even' is suffixed: **eršatog** 'strong enough'. These words are added to **naus** 'this much' and **šaus** 'that much' to make the same distinctions with nouns, resulting in expressions such as **ȝumglo nausfega** 'too much wine' and **juš šausvohe** 'not enough money'. In all three cases, neither the suffixed preposition nor the stem mutates to comply with phonological constraints, although the appropriate epenthetic consonant is inserted between **og** and an adjective ending in a vowel.

3.4   Articles | Weippuza

Only an indefinite article exists in Gomain; without it, nouns are assumed to be definite. The article must agree with its nouns in case and number: thus one may speak of **um ḍedẽ** 'a rock' or **uma ḍedena** 'rocks', but **ḍedena** without the article is assumed to mean 'the rocks'. Case marking on the article is irregular; the forms for each case are therefore given in the following table. Note that the article never appears in the vocative.

	Singular	Plural
Nom.	um	uma
Acc.	om	oma
Gen.	aum	auma
Dat.	wum	wuma
Inst.	jum	juma

Table 12: Forms of the indefinite article

3.5   Pronouns | Boweizäča

The personal pronoun paradigm for the nominative case is as follows:

Nominative	Singular	Plural
1st inclusive	zau	roi
1st exclusive		rai
2nd honorific	čïn	ķïn
2nd formal	čoi	ķoi
2nd informal	če	ķe
2nd familiar	čei	ķei
2nd pejorative	bal	bala
2nd intimate	čaio	ķaio
3rd masculine	ke	fe
3rd feminine	eiš	fei
3rd neuter	mem	fa
Impersonal	öl	ol

Table 13: Nominative forms of the personal pronouns

In the accusative case, the first vowels of the personal pronouns undergo a shift towards o, while the impersonal pronouns take d- as a prefix. Similarly, in the dative, the first vowels of the personal pronouns are shifted towards u, and the impersonal pronouns add z- as a prefix. Instrumental pronouns, meanwhile, not only shift their first vowels towards i, but also add a final -g in the second person (except for the intimate pronouns) and a final -mi in the third person; the impersonal pronouns take h- as a prefix. The resultant forms are:

Person	Singular			Plural		
	Acc.	Dat.	Inst.	Acc.	Dat.	Inst.
1st inclusive	zo	zu	zai	ro	ru	ri
1st exclusive				re	roi	rei
2nd honorific	čÿn	čün	čiŋ	ķÿn	ķün	ķiŋ
2nd formal	čo	ču	čig	ķo	ķu	ķig
2nd informal	čë	čei	čeig	ķë	ķei	ķeig
2nd familiar	čø	či	čog	ķø	ķï	ķog
2nd pejorative	böl	baul	baulg	böla	baula	baulga
2nd intimate	čeio	čoio	čeho	ķeio	ķoio	ķeho

Person	Singular					Plural			
3rd masculine	kë	kei	keimi	fë	fo	fei	foi	feimi	femi
3rd feminine	øš	iš	išmi	fø		fï		fimi	
3rd neuter	mëm	meim	meimmi	fö		fau		faumi	
Impersonal	döl	zöl	höl	dol		zol		hol	

<p align="center">Table 14: Other case forms of the personal pronouns</p>

The nominative forms can be put in the vocative case by adding the standard prefixes for that case, such as **aičei** 'oh, you'.

The correlatives add case prefixes when appropriate. They are as follows:

	Adjective	Person	Thing	Place	Time	Reason	Way	Amount	Kind
Query	julo	jukai	juhol	juzat	jufun	juja	juna	jujus	jumoin
Relative	lo	kau	ķol	za	fum	ja	nai	jüs	moin
This	noiŋ	noiŋ	noiŋ	rïŋ	gosko	noja	nowai	naus	nomoin
That	šoiŋ	šoiŋ	šoiŋ	räs	sur	šoja	šowai	šaus	šomoin
None	zim	zikai	ziho	zizai	zifu	žau	zina		zímoin
Few	sol	sol	sol					solus	
Some	mi	mikai	mihol	mize	mifun		mina		mímoin
Many	ma	maka	malo		mafu		manai	maijüs	
Most	ov	ov	ov		ovvu		ovan		
Every	baẋöp	bakai	bakol	bakëza	bakaf		bakan		bakoin
Any	bau	baukai	baulo	bauza	bauf	baujau	baunai	baujus	baumoin
Ever	glën	glëgai	glëbo	glëža	glëvu	glëjau	glëna	glëhu	glëmoin

<p align="center">Table 15: Correlatives</p>

In addition to the singular forms **noiŋ** and **šoiŋ**, plural forms corresponding to 'these' and 'those' exist for the adjective, person, and thing categories:

	These	Those
Adjective	nain	šain
Person	naik	šaik
Thing	nail	šail

<p align="center">Table 16: Plural deictic correlatives</p>

3.6   Prepositions | Weiïža

Gomain prepositions are conjugated when their objects are pronouns. The following table gives the suffixes used with prepositions:

Case	Dative		Accusative		Instrumental	
Person	Singular	Plural	Singular	Plural	Singular	Plural
First	-ed	-ež	-od	-ož	-ad	-až
Second	-e	-ef	-o	-of	-a	-af
Third Masc.	-eg	-eķ	-og	-oķ	-ag	-aķ
Third Fem.	-ei		-oi		-ai	
Third Neut.	-em	-ŕ	-om	-ör	-am	-ar

<p align="center">Table 17: Pronominal suffixes in preposition conjugation</p>

The use of these suffixes is straightforward. Example (40) illustrates the results of applying the dative suffixes to the eight simple prepositions:

(40a)   **st-ež** 'among us'
(b)   **l-eķ** 'from them'
(c)   **n-em** 'upon it'
(d)   **w-ed** 'near me'
(e)   **b-ei** 'with her'
(f)   **ŵ-e** 'without you'
(g)   **ben-eg** 'around him'
(h)   **mïš-ef** 'like you all'

The accusative and instrumental suffixes are equally straightforward:

(41a)   **st-oi** 'into her'
(b)   **ŵ-o** 'except for you'
(c)   **ben-aķ** 'about them'
(d)   **w-ag** 'through him'

The changes in the prepositions' meanings caused by use of these other cases are explained in section 4.6, "Preposition use."

3.7   Derivational morphology | Ŵalgweiŋuč tarüŋolķoin

3.7.1   Nominalization

There are two methods of nominalizing verbs. The gerund suffix **-ḍau** has already been visited; pure nouns-from-verbs (as in 'a leap of faith') are composed of the verb stem and the prefix **ë-**, with an infixed **j** if the stem begins with a vowel: **örpţi** 'to leap', **ëjörp** 'the leap'. Case prefixes replace **ë-**.

To transform an adjective into a noun expressing the quality it represents as a state of being, the suffix **-šem** is added: **adda** 'red', **addašem** 'redness'. The **š** of the suffix voices to **ž** after a final voices consonant in the stem and combines with **t** and **d** to become **č** and **ӡ**, respectively.

From any part of speech, most nominalizations are formed with **-et**, replacing any final vowel that may exist. The resulting term names abstractions, crafts, or operations: **tokra** 'free', **tokret** 'freedom'.

Instead of **-et**, some nouns are formed by suffixing **-j**, a remnant of the Anhrushite feminine gender suffix: **eib** 'resist', **eibj** 'resistance'. When added to a stem ending in a liquid or vowel, **-j** causes the liquid (if there is one) to elide and forms a diphthong with the vowel, sometimes changing the quality of the vowel to form a legal diphthong: **oiperḍi** 'to honor', **óipei** 'the honor'; **nijuḍi** 'to cause', **níjoi** 'the cause'.

The result of an action is formed from a verb and **-äg**: naroi 'choose', **naroiäg** 'choice'. The existence of both of these suffixes sometimes creates interesting doublets from the same root, such as **šerimet** 'process of judging' and **šerimäg** 'judgment, verdict'.

An instrument or other object associated with a verb is named with **lü-**: **krïfwo** 'write', **lükrïfwo** 'pen'.

The suffix **-zë** names the diminutive of any part of speech: **zïmbozë** 'wifey'.

Similarly, **-üs** names the augmentative of any part of speech: **ägjax** 'angry', **ägjaxüs** 'fury'.

In previous evolutions of Gomain, these were infixes between the stem of a noun or adjective and its declension ending; this has carried down through the millennia in a handful of irregular derivations: **burt** 'iron', **burtüš** 'steel'.

The diminutive and augmentative are largely colloquial and should not be confused with the more formal magnitude suffixes explained in section 3.1.

Collections of objects are derived by adding **pe-**: **sïnča** 'soldier', **pesïnča** 'army'; **deķë** 'island', **pedeķë** 'archipelago'. Before vowels this prefix changes to **pj-**: aug 'link', **pjaug** 'chain'.

Names of occupations are primarily formed with **-gjø**, although the masculine agentive **-kei** and present participle **-mez** are also used: **žëḍet**, **žëḍegjø** 'scientist'; **vïntai**, **vïntaikei** 'announcer'.

-gjø is also used with some place names to name its inhabitants: **Argóllagjø** 'Argollan'.

This suffix combines with the general nominalizer **-et** to become **-gjøt**, which expresses the condition of being a member of an occupation: **ökjugjøt** 'kingship'.

The inhabitant of a locality or follower of a person, god or philosophy is primarily named with **-kent** or **-ent**, depending on whether the word being modified ends with a vowel or consonant: **Javekent** 'follower of Jave';

Anr̂üšent 'Anhrushite'.

-**uč** forms the name of a field of study: **laia** 'star', **laiahuč** 'astronomy'.

The adjectival form is created with -**wøč**: **l̈imga** 'life', **l̈imgawøč** 'zoological'.

Scientists in those fields are named with -**ëči**: **gaž** 'bird', **gažëči** 'ornithologist'.

The name of an area of activity or authority is formed with -**on**: **moi is koi** 'buy and sell', **moiskoion** 'market'. This process generally refers to a physically larger area than the gerund locative.

To name a belief or philosophy associated with a noun, -**mem** is added (this may be translated -icism): **juk̦am** 'law', **juk̦ammem** 'legalism'.

An adjective relating to such a belief or philosophy is formed with -**meŋ**: **juk̦ammeŋ** 'legalistic'.

The first **m** of these suffixes strengthens to **b** after a liquid and assimilates to a different preceding nasal, doubling it: **kerpal** 'watch', **fegakerpalbem** 'paranoia', **fegakerpalbeŋ** 'paranoid'.

Governments are named with **ʒe-** (roughly translated -ocracy): **romḧik** 'represent', **ʒeromḧik** 'republic'; **ʒejau** 'theocracy'.

-**nen** adds a sense of wrongness or badness to words: **gasno** 'speak', **gasnónen** 'slander'. When suffixed to roots ending in a liquid, the first **n** of the suffix strengthens to **d**; it assimilates to the point of articulation of a root's final nasal consonant, if one is present: **zidar** 'forget', **zidarden** 'snub'.

The medical term for a disease or disorder is formed with **blün-**, with the **n** assimilating when appropriate: **ḍaš** 'hot', **blünḍaš** 'fever'.

The suffix -**ÿm** indicates that a noun's condition is no longer true, but was in the past: **zimbwÿm** 'ex-wife'; **zaikalë** 'Senate', **zaikalgjøm** 'former senator'.

Likewise, the suffix -**äṭ** indicates that a noun's condition is not yet true, but will be in the future: **zimbwäṭ** 'future wife, fiancée', **zaikalgjøṭ** 'senator-elect'.

The vowels of these two suffixes cause a stem-final back rounded vowel to become a **w**, and a stem-final close front unrounded vowel to become a **j**, unless doing so would produce an illegal consonant cluster, in which case the suffixes' vowels elide. These vowels also elide when the stem ends in a front rounded vowel or an open vowel, as demonstrated by the derivations using **zaikalgjø** 'senator'.

Many grammatical terms are formed with the suffix -**int**: **gof** 'subject', **gofint** 'nominative case'. This is the only known function of this suffix that is still productive. This suffix was borrowed from Classical Anhrushite and is, in fact, the ancestor of Modern Gomain's present adjectival suffix -**in**, on which more presently.

3.7.2   Adjectivization

Adjectival forms are generally made with -**in**: **ḍïnd** 'mountain', **ḍïndin** 'mountainous'.

This also applies to place names: **Saaruwin** 'Sāruan'. When added to a stem ending in **ai**, **ei**, **oi**, **a**, **e**, **ö** or **o**, the **i** of the suffix combines with the final vowel to form a diphthong: **Gomai**, **Gomain** 'characteristic of the Gomai family'; **Argóllain** 'Argóllan'. However, there are some exceptions to this rule, such as **jiŵaiin** 'nightly'. There are also a number of stems ending in **u** such that the **i** of this suffix combines with it to form **y**: **nék̦wu** 'guilt', **nék̦wyn** 'guilty'.

A few adjectives are formed with -**at** instead of -**in**: **dombzi** 'to open', **dompat** 'open (adj.)'; **nŕkaž** 'to tolerate', **nŕkačat** 'tolerable'. As seen in these examples, -**at** devoices a stem-final voiced obstruent.

An even rarer, and less productive, adjectival suffix is -**lau**. Adjectives formed with this suffix typically have a causative meaning, as they signify qualities that cause or make the stem: **čak̦lau** 'deadly'; **kjad** 'tradition', **kjadlau** 'habitual, conventional'. This suffix strengthens a preceding nasal to a voiced stop: **gardeŋ** 'mischief', **gardeglau** 'mischievous'. It also has two notable allomorphs: -**rau** after a voiceless stop or an **l**-obstruent cluster, and -**au** after a liquid: **ekberret** 'initiation', **ekberretrau** 'initial'; **ʒŕa** 'depend on', **ʒŕau** 'dependent'.

The prefix **vai-** carries the same meaning as our -philic: **vaižëḍet** 'scientific'; **šöž** 'harm', **vaišöž** 'sadistic'.

Similarly, our -phobic is translated with **k̦ö-**: **k̦öwŕïn** 'acrophobic'.

People who carry such loves and fears are named by adding the gender-appropriate agentive suffix.

Adjectives describing the absence of a part of speech are formed with **ŵe-**: **praik** 'sound', **ŵepraik** 'silent, soundless'; **ëgör** 'win', **ŵegör** 'winless'. As demonstrated by the last example, the **e** of the prefix replaces a stem-initial **ë**; it is dropped when the stem begins with **e** or **ei**.

Similarly, **ba-** names the abundance of something: **nÿv** 'sin', **banÿv** 'sinful'.

-**meš** describes similarity to a noun or adjective: **ainumeš** 'airy'; **ždyk̦** 'hell', **ždyk̦eš** 'hellish'. As the previous example illustrates, the **m** of the suffix elides when the suffix is added to a stem ending in a consonant.

The ability to perform a verb is formed with **-vö**: **eŋ** 'eat', **eŋvö** 'edible'; **gasnoḍi**, **naugasnovö** 'unspeakable'. Note that this suffix does not mutate to fit the stem.

3.7.3   Verbalization

Noun-to-verb verbalization is straightforward: all that is required is the use of the noun with verbal affixes: **eps** 'master, boss', **gepsoŋ** 'he bossed'.

Words with **ek-** form verbs with a causative meaning, giving the prefix a meaning similar to English '-ize' or '-en': **ḳekzimoiḍ** 'they will annihilate'. This is another prefix that does not mutate to fit the stem, at least in most cases; when affixed to a word beginning with **ḳ**, the **k** of the prefix combines with this initial consonant as a geminate **ḳḳ**: **ḳätčë** 'knot', **eḳḳätčëḍi** 'to tie someone or something up'. It also combines with a stem-initial **h** to become **ḳ**. This prefix is not stressed when it is word-initial or after a subject agreement prefix, unless the following syllabic nucleus is **ë** or **ŕ**; stress instead shifts to the third syllable of the word. In practice, this prefix tends to make intransitive verbs transitive.

The prefix **eč-** creates intransitive verbs with an inchoative meaning: **žẽi** 'bruise', **dedǯẽi ṭrozdi** 'I bruise easily'. As this example illustrates, the **č** of this prefix matches the voicing of, and merges with, a stem-initial sibilant to become a geminate affricate.

Many verbs can be formed by prefixing a preposition followed by a case prefix (which serves to specify the preposition's meaning), though one should never needlessly create substitutes for extant verbs: **dÿndraši** 'return here, come back'. When prefixing prepositions to irregular verbs, the resulting compound verbs retain their irregular paradigms.

3.7.4   Compounds

Compound creation in Gomain is rather free, and may involve only the first syllable or two of a longer constituent. Even in those compounds which keep their components largely intact, the sandhi that serves to smooth out morpheme boundaries can result in unexpected consonant mutations; consider the otherwise baffling change of **x̌** to **ŋ** in example (43d) below, **oiŋgasno**. Compound sandhi may also delete unstressed vowels, changing nearby consonants in the process (as it does in example (44b), **preskoprë**); it may even delete a word-initial stressed vowel in a second or later morpheme (as it does in examples (45a) and (46b), respectively **nagdilgör** and **ḳarbjëg**). More extreme forms of sandhi which reduce morphemes to a single syllable (typically the first one) are rarer but still attested; consider the reductions in example (42a) of **koi**(ü)**n**(d), **dar**(údë), and **auk**(aišyn). Nevertheless, reductions of this magnitude are mostly limited to longer morphemes and components of personal names; the latter is described in more detail in Appendix B.

In endocentric compounds, the head constituent comes first; by the same token, the first element of any kind of compound determines the compound's syntactic category, though not necessarily the core of its meaning. Derivational suffixes are applied last, even if the constituent they would normally modify occurs first. Below are the common patterns, with hyphens separating the parts of compounds. (They are not hyphenated in everyday writing.)

1. Adjective + noun

(42a)   **koiünd** 'machine' + **darúdë** 'logic' + **aukaišyn** 'electronic' → **koin-dar-auk** 'computer'
(b)   **sol** 'few' + ijaio 'trust' → **sol-ijaio** 'untrusting'

2. Adjective + verb

(43a)   **vïntai** 'announce' + **tarüŋ** 'new in time' + **-kei** → **vïntai-tarüŋ-kei** 'news anchorman'
(b)   **ḳobo** 'fall' + **ḍaš** 'hot' → **ḳobo-ḍaš** 'heat-falling' (first month of the year)
(c)   **ḳäk** 'far' + **ølt** 'keep' → **ḳäk-ølt** 'forbear, hold back from'
(d)   **oix̂** 'good' + **gasno** 'speak' → **oiŋ-gasno** 'compliment'

3. Noun + adjective

(44a)   **danïd** 'face' + **šynt** 'sad' + **-ez** → **danï-čynt-ez** 'sad-faced'
(b)   **presäg** 'agreement' + **oproig** 'holy' → **presk-oprë** 'covenant'
(c)   **krïf** 'letter' + **r̂eimu** 'majestic' → **krïf-reimu** 'calligraphy'
(d)   **äšmenj** 'spirit' + **erwäs** 'evil' → **äšmenj-erwäs** 'demon'
(e)   **ḍläg** 'net' + **ümf** 'double, twice' → **ḍläg-ümf** 'purse net'

4. Noun + noun

(45a)   **nagdi** 'number' + **älgör** 'circle' → **nagdi-lgör** 'pi'
(b)   **aukau** 'physical power' + **aišu** 'lightning' → **auk-aišu** 'electricity'
(c)   **kaif** 'man' + **ož** 'country' → **kaif-ož** 'countryman'
(d)   **räŋ** 'day' + **ŵök** 'year' → **räŋ-ŵök** 'birthday, anniversary'
(e)   **auxil** 'energy' + **äšmenj** → **auxil-enj** 'vigor'

5. Noun + verb

(46a)   **kaif** + **välei** 'lust' + **-kei** → **kaiv-välei-kei** 'homosexual man'
(b)   **ḳar** 'month' + **arbjëg** 'compete' → **ḳar-bjëg** 'competing month' (tenth month)
(c)   **ainu** 'air' + **praiḳwei** 'say' → **aim-praikki** 'radio'
(d)   **weiŋ** 'word' + **eppuz** 'show' → **wei-ppuz** 'grammatical article'

6. Prepositional phrase

(47a)   **wo** 'to' + **rïŋ** 'here' → **wo-rïŋ** 'hither'
(b)   **lu** 'from' + **räs** 'there' → **lu-räs** 'thence'
(c)   **bo** 'instead of' + **weizäč** 'noun' → **bo-weizäč** 'pronoun'

7. Preposition + preposition

(48a)   **wo** + **väṭïst** 'after in time' → **wo-väṭïst** 'afterwards'
(b)   **wo** + **st** 'in' → **wö-st** 'throughout'

8. Verb + noun

(49a)   **ekeiŋ** 'straighten' + **doinen** 'tooth' + **-kei** → **ekeiŋ-doin-kei** 'orthodontist'
(b)   **ŕtsa** 'promise' + **wilk** 'ritual' → **ŕts-ilk** 'oath'
(c)   **yḳald** 'curse' + **jau** 'god' → **yḳal-ʒau** 'blaspheme'
(d)   **eŋ** 'eat' + **kroiš** 'morning' → **eŋ-kroiš** 'breakfast'
(e)   **bleisau** 'tell' + **aŋglu** 'past' → **bleis-aŋglu** 'history'
(f)   **kalkë** 'hover' + **faiʒë** 'skin' + **-ki** → **kalkë-faiʒë-ki** 'hovercraft'
(g)   **indro** 'arrange' + **oistan** 'square' → **indr-oistan** 'array'

9. Verb + verb

(50a)   **rälg** 'rotate' + **rüv** 'fly' → **rälg-rüv** 'helicopter'
(b)   **niju** 'cause' + **ḳobo** → **niju-ḳobo** 'cause to fall'
(c)   **nag** 'do' + **ḍesk** 'try' → **naḍ-ḍesk** 'drill, practice'

4   Syntax | Weidarduč

4.1   Verb use | Eţedlem weiŋga

4.1.1   The temporal system

Gomain tense usage is governed by a simple rule: use the tense that fits the time frame in which the action occurred, whether that is the past, present, or future. This includes the use of perfect-aspect tenses, which generally refer to completed actions.

Multiple verbs in a given sentence will all be in the same tense, if they refer to actions occurring in the same timeframe.

(51)   **Gëpraiĸweiŋ lo geiŋ w oDalto.**

    gë-praiĸweiŋ lo   g-eiŋ   w o-Dalto

    3ms-say:PST   REL 3ms-go:PST to ACC-Dalto

    He said he was going to Dalto.

While the English tendency is to use the present tense for verbs in dependent clauses when the main verb is in the future tense, Gomain puts all verbs occurring in the future in that tense.

(52)   **Fëpaloiḍ oKr. oLaxi fum fëwoŕoiḍ b eprastaŋ.**

    fë-pal-oiḍ o-Koiper o-Laxi   fum   fë-woŕoiḍ   b e-prastaŋ

    2p-see-FUT ACC-mister ACC-Laxi   when.REL   2pl-arrive:FUT at INST-plaza

    You all will see Mr. Laxi when you arrive at the plaza.

It is common convention to use the perfect tenses to refer to events that happened before those of the main clause; these subordinate verbs agree with the main verb in tense, with perfection being the main difference.

(53)   **Argóllagjøha ĸuntïlaioiḍ unäg lo dënagauḍ mëm danïst udapalëĸa.**

    Argólla-gjø-ha   ĸ-untïlai-oiḍ   u-näg   lo   dë-nag-auḍ   mëm   danïst u-dapa-leĸ-a

    Argolla-INHAB-PL 3mfp-wonder-FUT DAT-deed REL 1s-do-FUT.PERF ACC.3ns in_front DAT-eye-POSS.3p-PL

    The Argóllans will marvel at the deed I will perform before their eyes.

When the main clause is in the past tense, other, later past events in subordinate clauses take the future tense. This is different from English usage, where the later event is in the conditional mood.

(54)   **Žëḍegjø jëpraiĸweiŋ lo jölkroiḍ an owoĸrõ ru.**

    žëḍet-gjø   jë-praiĸweiŋ lo j-ölkroiḍ   an   o-w-oĸrõ   ru

    science-INHAB   3fs-say:PST   REL 3fs-bring:FUT PART ACC-Ø-water 1p.INCL.DAT

    The scientist said she would bring us some water.

4.1.2   Mood usage

In independent clauses, the subjunctive mood is used to express a desire for the action to occur. Regardless of the subject pronoun used, this wish is always relative to the speaker; to express a desired action relative to a second or third person, the desired action must be placed in the infinitive and preceded by the appropriate conjugation of **mossi**, "to want". Compare the following examples:

(55a)   **Ŵëbalsužuḍäk ben erašiḍau is eneglëḍau.**

    ŵë-balsu-žu-ḍäk   ben e-raši-ḍau   is   e-neglë-ḍau

    2s-bless-PRES.PASS-SBJV about INST-come-GER and INST-leave-GER

    May you be blessed in coming and leaving.

(b)   **¿Ŵëmosïl st olĸoḍi ojuš ot na?**

    ŵë-mos-ïl st olĸo-ḍi   o-juš   ot   na

    2s-want-Q in receive-INF ACC-money or.EXCL NEG

    Do you want the money or not?

The subjunctive is also used as a genteelism in place of the formal imperative, to which it is related:

(56) **Dëgloktäk an ožumglo.**

    dë-gloktäk   an   o-žumglo

    1s-drink:SBJV PART ACC-wine

    I would like to drink some wine.

(57) **Oilktäk an ožumglo zu.**

    oilk-täk   an   o-žumglo zu

    give-IMP.SG.FRM PART ACC-wine 1s.DAT

    Please give me some wine.

Uses of the subjunctive in conditional sentences are covered in section 4.7.4.2, "Conditional clauses", while its uses in dependent clauses are covered in section 4.7.4.1, "Constructions requiring the subjunctive".

When used in independent clauses with non-future tenses, the conditional mood is used to express contrafactual wishes (in contrast to the independent subjunctive's use for future wishes), and so the most common translation of this use is "if only". As with the independent subjunctive, the wish expressed by the independent conditional is always relative to the speaker; wishes relative to any other person use the verb **møzer** "wish" followed by a complement clause with its verb in the conditional. Both uses are demonstrated in the following examples, in the same order.

(58a) **¡Dëšëḍom opanžëkile!**

    dë-šëḍ-om   o-panžë-ki-le

    1s-know-COND ACC-secret-AGT.NEUT-POSS.2S

    If only I knew your secret!

(b) **¿Juja ŵëmøzer aurë lo Jagälḍin gëtolowoŋom čø?**

    juja   ŵë-møzer aurë lo Jagälḍin gë-tolo-w-oŋ-om   čø

    why.Q 2s-wish   CONT REL John   3ms-call-Ø-PST-COND ACC.2S.FAM

    Why are you still wishing that John had called you?

The obligative mood is used to indicate that the action is required, and is therefore translated with the modals "must" or "have to" (although "must" can only be used in the present tense).

(59) **Deiŋgleit oičti w oDalto poi kreiḍi om oḍon owoiẍ.**

    d-eiŋ-g-leit   oič-di   w o-Dalto poi   krei-ḍi om   o-ḍon   o-w-oiẍ

    1s-go:PST-Ø-OBLIG whole-ADV to ACC-Dalto so_that find-INF ACC.INDF ACC-mug ACC-Ø-good

    I had to go all the way to Dalto to find a good mug.

In the future tense, the obligative can also be used to express a commissive meaning, translated with "shall." This usage is standard in legal documents and is commonly used in making promises in the spoken language.

(60) **Zikai gëdoḳuwöḍleit ŵ ekaipäledleḳ ekaipälkeia üŋ od ŕ.**

    zikai   gë-doḳu-w-öḍ-leit   ŵ   e-kaipal-et-leḳ   e-kaipäl-kei-a

    nobody 3ms-convict-Ø-FUT.PASS-OBLIG except INST-witness-NMLZ-POSS.3p INST-witness-AGENT-PL

    üŋ od   ŕ

    two or.INCL three

    No one shall be convicted except on the testimony of two or three witnesses.

The cohortative encourages the subject to perform the action, and is translated variously with either "should" or "let":

(61) **Is jau gëpraiḳweiŋ: "Žečoiŋok ošëḍweiŋ st umïššemblež̌."**

    is   jau gë-praiḳweiŋ žë-čoiŋ-ok   o-šëḍweiŋ st u-mïššem-b-lež̌

    and god 3ms-say:PST   1p.INCL-make-COH ACC-human in DAT-likeness-Ø-POSS.1p

    And God said, "Let Us make man in our likeness."

In questions where the main verb is in the future tense and has a first-person subject, the cohortative expresses a deliberative meaning, reflecting uncertainty about what the subject is to do. Depending on the presence of interrogative words and the social register, this usage can be variously translated within the question as "supposed to", "shall I/we", "why don't we", or similar constructions:

(62a) **¿Ojuhol žeŋoiḍok mëm?**

o-juhol ž-eŋ-oiḍ-ok   mëm

ACC-what.Q 1p.INCL-eat-fut-COH 3ns.ACC

What shall we eat?

(b) **¿Žeŋoiḍokïl owøŋgör?**

ž-eŋ-oiḍ-ok-ïl   o-w-øŋgör

1p.INCL-eat-FUT-COH-Q ACC-Ø-pizza

Why don't we eat pizza?

(c) **¿Dëkrïdeŋauḍokïl okrïdit owoič opŕŋäl?**

dë-krïdeŋ-auḍ-ok-ïl   o-krïdit o-w-oič   opŕŋäl

1s-read-FUT.PERF-COH-Q ACC-book ACC-Ø-whole beforehand

Am I supposed to have read the whole book beforehand?

The hypothetical mood is often considered a conditional form of the potential, as it expresses that the action is possible, but not factual. As such, "could" is most commonly used to translate it:

(63a) **Ḍiz uma šadza ŕgasnowob, ¿ojuhol ŕpraiķweiom mëm?**

ḍiz um-a   šadz-a ŕ-gasno-w-ob   o-juhol   ŕ-praiķwei-om mëm

if NOM.INDF-PL wall-PL 3np-speak-Ø-HYP ACC-what.Q 3np-say-COND ACC.3ns

If walls could speak, what would they say?

(b) **Dërüvob ḍiz doiḍleda ŕsakuḍäk.**

dë-rüv-ob ḍiz doiḍ-led-a   ŕ-sak-u-ḍäk

1s-fly-HYP if bone-POSS.1s-PL 3np-small-CMP-SBJV

I could fly if my bones were smaller.

Verbs following the complementizer virt when it has the meaning "in case" also occur in the hypothetical (as well as the future tense). When virt means "lest," the following verb is instead in the subjunctive, as explained in more detail in section 4.7.4.1.

(64) **Žëčoiŋvenok om obač virt žëķogøwöḍob n ozäţ owoič.**

žë-čoiŋ-ven-ok   om   o-bač   virt žë-ķogø-w-öḍ-ob

1p.INCL-make-REFL-COH ACC.INDF ACC-name lest 1p.INCL-scatter-Ø-FUT.PASS-HYP

n   o-zäţ   o-w-oič

across ACC-land ACC-Ø-whole

Let us make a name for ourselves, in case we are scattered across the whole land.

The potential indicates the ability of the subject to perform the action, and so is always translated with either the modal "can" or some form of "be able to":

(65) **Dëgetka lo dërüvof. Dëgetka lo dëpodlof owëruju.**

dë-getka lo dë-rüv-of dë-getka lo dë-podlë-of o-w-ëruju

1s-believe REL 1s-fly-POT 1s-believe REL 1s-touch-POT ACC-Ø-sky

I believe I can fly. I believe I can touch the sky.

The deductive mood is used when the speaker has concluded or assumed that the action is true, based on available evidence. It is usually translated with "must" used in its epistemic sense, or with a phrasal adverb such as "presumably":

(66)　**Jo ŵëgjämos lo ŵëgleb poi gasnoḍi ŵadi mig.**

jo	ŵë-gjäm-os	lo	ŵë-gleb	poi	gasno-ḍi	ŵa-di	mig
EMPH	2s-confident-DED	REL	2s-correct	for_purpose	speak-INF	bold-ADV	so

You must be really confident that you're right, to talk so boldly.

The dubitative expresses the speaker's reservation about the accuracy of the statement, and is commonly translated with "might" or "seems to":

(67)　**Obulgjø gëčočoŋonh ru ben ešoiŋ ejuḳam.**

obul-gjø	gë-čoč-oŋ-onh	ru	ben	e-šoiŋ	e-juḳam
police-INHAB	3ms-lie-PST-DUB	DAT.1p.INCL	about	INST-that	INST-law

The policeman might have lied to us about that law.

4.1.2.1　Serial moods and modal infinitives

While rare, serial mood constructions can exist. However, since Gomain verbs can have only one mood suffix each, such constructions rely on periphrasis. A serial mood construction will consist of **ve** used impersonally with one mood (almost always the obligative or one of the epistemic or affective moods), followed by the (semantic) main verb in a subordinate clause with the other mood. In these rules, the deductive and dubitative moods are classified as epistemic, while the subjunctive, conditional, and cohortative are classified as affective.

(68a)　**Vëŋos lo ḳëŋaueḳḳätčěvenoŋof.**

vëŋ-os	lo	ḳë-ŋau-ek-ḳätčě-ven-oŋ-of
be:PST-DED	REL	3mfp-PRIV-CAUS-knot-REFL-PST-POT

They must have been able to untie themselves.

(b)　**Väk lo ŵëpanoiḍleit na obaxïŋgle.**

väk	lo	ŵë-pan-oiḍ-leit	na	o-baxïŋk-le
be:SBJV	REL	2s.INFML-hide-FUT-OBLIG	NEG	ACC-identity-POSS.2s

May you not have to hide your identity.

In the even rarer situations where a sentence requires three moods, one of them will invariably be an epistemic or affective mood, and will therefore appear first (again, on **ve**). A second **ve** will then function as the syntactic main verb of the subordinate clause and carry one of the other moods, while the semantic main verb will become an infinitive carrying the final mood (with the infinitive suffix coming last). Such *modal infinitives* are almost exclusively used in serial mood constructions, although examples of them elsewhere do exist. A triple-mood equivalent of example (68b) follows:

(69)　**Väk lo ŵëvïḍleit na panofṭi obaxïŋgle.**

väk	lo	ŵë-vïḍ-leit	na	pan-of-ḍi	o-baxïŋk-le
be:SBJV	REL	2s.INFML-be:FUT-OBLIG	NEG	hide-POT-INF	ACC-identity-POSS.2s

May you not have to be able to hide your identity.

The other use of modal infinitives is, perhaps, the more obvious one: when a verb that would otherwise be finite and in a non-indicative mood appears as an infinitive for syntactic reasons (covered in detail in section 4.1.4). In these situations, a literal translation of the modal infinitive is usually also the most natural, and takes such forms as **paloiofṭi** "to be able to see" and **amoleiṭṭe** "to be necessary to be added".

4.1.3　Aspectual adverbs

While Gomain is a very agglutinative language, certain distinctions are expressed analytically with special adverbs. One such adverb, **aulan**, indicates the progressive aspect, when actions are, were, or will be ongoing. It immediately follows its parent verb, just like other adverbs.

(70)　**Dëbušoŋ aulan ẑamb ogakai fum dëpaloiŋ okäzač obolsihi.**

dë-buš-oŋ	aulan	ẑam-b	o-gakai	fum	dë-pal-oiŋ	o-käzač	o-bolsi-hi
1s-walk-PST	PROG	side-with	DAT-street	when.REL	1s-see-PST	ACC-thing	ACC-strange-SUP

I was walking down the street when I saw the strangest thing.

When used with a perfect tense, it can also refer to the action's habitual or repetitive nature:

(71)   **Gëjauŋ aulan b eLaia.**

    gë-jauŋ   **aulan b e-Laia**

    3ms-eat:PST PROG at INST-star

    He used to eat at the Star. *or* He had been eating at the Star.

When **aulan** is used for this purpose, it is permissible to replace it with **bakaf**, "always", as the two words mean roughly the same thing in this context.

Unlike in English, but like other Western European languages, **aulan** is used with an appropriately-tensed, simple-aspect verb to express that an action has, had or will have been going on for a certain amount of time. The preposition **väṭïst** (here meaning "since") precedes the amount of time specified, and **nauŋ** "did" used impersonally follows it (in which situation it really means "ago").

(72)   **Dëkrïdeŋ aulan väṭïst ehäŋkra oi nauŋ.**

    dë-krïdeŋ aulan väṭ-ï-st   **e-h-äŋkra**   **oi nauŋ**

    1s-read   PROG back-Ø-in INST-Ø-hour one do:PST

    I have been reading for one hour.

NB: Like the Romance languages, and unlike English, Gomain uses the progressive to make explicit or emphasize the fact that an action is, was or will be happening at the time indicated by the verb's tense. It is not used by default with all active verbs, as it is in English; instead, the simple (non-progressive) tenses may indicate the continuous nature of actions.

Gosti is used when the action occurs very close to the present. Its translation varies with different tenses: it means "just" in the past tense and "right now" in the present and future tenses.

(73a)   **Ŵëgetkahoiḍ na oḳol dëpaloiŋ gosti mëm.**

    ŵë-getka-h-oiḍ **na oḳol**   **dë-pal-oiŋ gosti**   **mëm**

    2s-believe-Ø-FUT NEG ACC-what.REL 1s-see-PST   near_now ACC.3ns

    You won't believe what I just saw.

(b)   **¡Žënegloiḍ gosti!**

    žë-neglë-oiḍ   **gosti**

    1p.INCL-leave-FUT near_now

    We're leaving right now!

To intensify the action, **jo** is added before the verb; to weaken or attenuate it, **se** is added.

(74a)   **Jo gëgasno oma očoča.**

    jo   **gë-gasno om-a**   **o-čoč-a**

    EMPH 3ms-speak ACC.INDF-PL ACC-lie-PL

    He indeed speaks lies.

(b)   **Se dex̣oṭoŋ oḍondle ovŕlahi.**

    se   **d-ek-škoṭ-oŋ**   **o-ḍon-d-le**   **o-vŕla-hi**

    ATTEN 1s-CAUS-break-PST ACC-mug-Ø-POSS.2s ACC-passive_love-SUP

    I kind of broke your favorite mug.

(c)   **St evailauleg ejau, aiJukíšjau, se mëve um fjøžendzë.**

    st   **e-vailau-leg**   **e-jau**   **ai-Jukíšjau se**   **më-ve um fjøžen-d-zë**

    for_behalf INST-intense_love-POSS.3ms INST-god VOC-Michael ATTEN 3ns-be INDF wound-Ø-DIM

    For the love of God, Michael, it's only a minor injury.

Pã conveys a sense of persistence in performing the action, and is commonly translated as a construction like "keep (on) (verb)ing".

(75a) **Gëŵŕŋ pã w owerdläg.**

    gë-ŵŕŋ   **pã**   **w** **o-w-erdl-äg**

    3ms-fight:PST keep_on to ACC-Ø-end-RESULT

    He kept on fighting until the end.

(b) **Jündleit pã poi ektokraḍi ogŕča.**

    jund-leit   **pã**   **poi**   **ek-tokra-ḍi** **o-gŕč-a**

    work-IMP.SG.INFML keep_on so_that CAUS-free-INF ACC-slave-PL

    Keep working to free the slaves.

Ŵõ gives the verb it modifies a frequentative meaning, indicating repeated action:

(76) **Jagälḍin gëbuz ŵõ poi rönjeḍi obakol st ošakálṭleg.**

    Jagälḍin gë-buz ŵõ poi   **rönje-ḍi**   **o-bakol**   **st e-šakálṭ-leg**

    John   3ms-run FREQ so_that prepare-INF ACC-everything for INST-wedding-POSS.3ms

    John is running around getting everything ready for his wedding.

Ŵõ is also occasionally used as a derivational prefix, as in **ŵønädlaḍi** 'to have an orgasm or seizure'. The protractive aspect is represented by **tühhŕ**; it is commonly translated "on and on".

(77) **Zaikalgjø gëgasnoŋ tühhŕ ben ečörwäset st užirëleg.**

    zaikal-gjø   **gë-gasn-oŋ**   **tühhŕ ben**   **e-čörwäs-et**   **st u-žir-ë-leg**

    senate-INHAB 3ms-speak-PST PROT about INST-corrupt-NMLZ in DAT-province-Ø-POSS.3ms

    The senator talked on and on about the corruption in his province.

Aurë indicates that the action is, was, or will be still going on, and so is translated as "still".

(78) **¿ŴönÎaḍïl aurë n ukoindaraugle?**

    ŵ-önÎaḍ-ïl aurë   **n** **u-koindarauk-le**

    2s-play-Q   CONT on DAT-computer-POSS.2s

    Are you still playing on your computer?

4.1.4   Derived forms

A verb that follows another verb (and any direct object it may have) is placed in the infinitive. Often, the corresponding English construction uses a gerund for the subordinate verb, whereas in Gomain, subordinate verbs are usually infinitives.

(79a) **Dëpaukaʒ ogaž ymȓondri.**

    dë-paukaʒ o-gaž   **ymȓondri**

    1s-hear   ACC-bird:PL sing:INF

    I hear the birds singing.

(b) **Jo gëfroioiḍ paloiḍe.**

    jo   **gë-froi-oiḍ**   **paloi-ḍe**

    EMPH 3ms-regret-FUT see-INF.PASS

    He is really going to regret being seen.

When the infinitive represents an aspect of purpose, it is preceded by **poi**:

(80) **Ŵekkanȓovenoiḍleit poi jünḍḍi.**

    ŵ-ek-kanȓo-ven-oiḍ-leit   **poi**   **jünd-ḍi**

    2s-CAUS-rise-REFL-FUT-OBLIG so_that work-INF

    You will have to get up [in order] to work.

Also, in some cases where either the subject or an object of the main clause syntactically controls a following relative clause (where that clause contains a silent PRO subject to fulfill the theta criterion), the infinitive verb of the relative clause is preceded by **st**:

(81)   **Dëbupaloiŋ oJagälḍin st avi bež w owoŵeič.**

   dë-bupal-oiŋ   o-Jagälḍin st avi   b-ež   w o-w-oŵeič

   1s-persuade-PST ACC-John   in go:INF with-DAT.1p to ACC-Ø-arena

   I persuaded John to go with us to the arena.

   Not all control verbs require **st** before a following infinitive. The verbs which do are: **vøk** "allow, permit", **ḳödz** "ask", **blaiŋy** "assume, presume", **ţør** "be afraid" (when used passively), **jüţi** "be worthy", **lŕt** "command", **hig** "demand", **vex** "fail", **šübu** "force, make something happen", **ţarḳ** "help", **äŋkri** "hope", **min** "need", **bupaloi** "persuade, convince", **ebeg** "plan", **øvlø** "plot", **ÿl** "proceed", **ŕtsa** "promise", **ţĩ** "require", **berras** "begin, start", **kontör** "struggle", **bleisau** "tell", **ḍesk** "try, attempt", **ända** "wait", **mos** "want", **äglam** "warn", and **møzer** "wish, desire".

   When the first verb in such a series is a conjugated form of **kaž** "have", it acts to indicate the prospective aspect for the second verb:

(82)   **Dëkauoŋ vusmïkţi ojakai dänïst fëwoŕŕŋ.**

   dë-kauoŋ   vusmïk-ḍi o-jakai   dänïst fë-woŕŕŋ

   1s-have:PST visit-INF   ACC-priest before 2p-arrive:PST

   I was going to visit the priest before you all arrived.

   Whole verb phrases can be in the infinitive, but when a reference to the subject is necessary, it must be placed in the dative and follow the verb (a helping preposition may also be used between the verb and subject).

   Participles are used just like regular adjectives, and so must be placed in the proper case and number, but only when they modify nouns; participles which do not modify any noun in the main clause of a sentence are always in the nominative singular (and so are called "nominative absolute" participles). Each of the six participles a verb can have carries a specific connotation based on its particular combination of tense and voice components, as demonstrated in the following table:

Voice	Tense	Gomain	English
	Future	paloimeţ	soon to see
Active	Present	paloimez	seeing
	Past	paloimẽi	having seen
	Future	paloimev	soon to be seen
Passive	Present	paloimex	being seen
	Past	paloimen	having been seen

Table 18: Translations of participles

   As they are verbal forms, participles can take objects with any case besides the nominative or vocative. Some such objects may reinforce the connotation of the participle, particularly if the object is in the instrumental and the participle is passive.

(83)   **Jašuwet, paloimex ehippaḳḳei, gëḍesk aulan st panḍi.**

   Jašuwet paloi-mex   e-h-ippaḳ-kei   gë-ḍesk aulan st pan-ḍi

   Joshua   see-PTCP.PRES.PASS INST-Ø-guard-AGT.MASC 3ms-try PROG in hide-INF

   Joshua, being seen by the guard, is trying to hide.

   A verb transformed into an agentive or patientive noun of any gender declines like any other noun, taking the plural suffix and case prefixes as required by the grammatical situation.

   The gerund is also a regular noun, and cannot be used as an adjective as in many other languages. In particular, the Latin gerundive expressions are roughly equivalent to the Gomain obligative mood.

4.1.5   Reflexive verbs

   When the subject and object of a verb refer to the same thing, the reflexive suffix is added to the end of the verb root, regardless of the number or person of the subject:

Person/Number	Gomain	English
1st sg.	dëfreiven	I answer myself
2nd fml. sg.	lêfreiven	You answer yourself
2nd infml. sg.	ŵëfreiven	
3rd masc. sg.	gëfreiven	He answers himself
3rd fem. sg.	jëfreiven	She answers herself
3rd neut. sg.	mëfreiven	It answers itself
1st inc. pl.	žëfreiven	You and I answer ourselves
1st exc. pl.	rëfreiven	We answer ourselves (but you don't)
2nd fml. pl.	sëfreiven	You all answer yourselves
2nd infml. pl.	fëfreiven	
3rd m. & f. pl.	ķëfreiven	They answer themselves
3rd neut. pl.	ŕfreiven	They (objects) answer themselves
Impersonal	lëfreiven	One answers oneself

Table 19: Translations of reflexives

If there is an overt direct object following a reflexive verb, the reflexive morpheme refers to an indirect object identical to the subject:

(84) **Škefa goilķvenoŋ om owoilķäg b eRäŋ am Äšmenj.**

  Škefa g-oilķ-ven-oŋ   om   o-w-oilķ-äg   b e-räŋ   am äšmenj

  Paul   3ms-give-REFL-PST ACC.INDF ACC-Ø-give-RESULT at INST-day of spirit

  Paul gave himself a gift on the Day of the Spirit.

Note that the reflexive is not used for reciprocal actions in the plural; instead, expressions meaning "each other" and "one another" are used and are discussed at the end of section 4.5.1. Also, unlike the Spanish or French reflexive, the Gomain reflexive is not used to express the passive voice, which is part of the tense inflections.

4.1.6 Transitivity

Whereas English verbs do not possess intrinsic transitivity, Gomain verbs do. If a verb is intransitive by default, it can be made transitive by putting it in the infinitive and adding the appropriately-conjugated verb **nijuḍi** "to cause" before it. Other verbs are made transitive by prefixing **ek-** to them. These derived verbs are listed in the dictionary under the verbs from which they derive. Certain verbs, meanwhile, are indifferently transitive or intransitive, and do not need any special construction to be made one way or the other.

4.1.7 Minor points

The rules of etiquette impose restrictions on which imperative forms can be used in various situations. When making requests to one's elders or equals, to God, or to vendors, the formal imperative is expected; it might also be used in requests directed to children or servants, although in these situations it is not required. The informal imperative, meanwhile, is common for giving orders to servants, children, and any group members (including soldiers and monks) under one's authority; it is also acceptable in advertisements.

When a verb has no real subject, it is simply used in the appropriate tense, with no dummy subject:

(85) **Luṭoŋ ŕlaš, kam aḍok girkin žolaķ.**

  luṭ-oŋ   ŕlaš   kam aḍ-ok   girk-in   žolaķ

  rain-PST yesterday but   go:FUT-COH please-ADJ today

  It rained yesterday, but it should be pleasant today.

To express situations where something causes something else to perform an action, **nijuḍi** follows the causer, the agent of cause is in the accusative, the main verb follows in the infinitive, and any following direct object of the main verb is in the dative:

(86) **Ŵěnijuf zifu zo judǯi valaiḍi čoio.**

ŵë-niju-of zifu zo juǯ-ḍi valai-ḍi čoio

2s-cause-POT never ACC.1s stop-INF passionate_love-INF DAT.2S.INTIM

You can never make me stop loving you.

If the main verb is ditransitive, its indirect object also appears in the dative, as it normally does. Due to the ambiguity this creates, the direct object of the main verb always comes before the indirect object.

(87) **Dënijoŋ oKairšačau oilḳti uwŕgũ uwAiet.**

dë-nijoŋ o-Kairšačau oilḳ-ti u-w-ŕgũ u-w-Aiet

1s-cause:PST ACC-Gabriel give-INF DAT-Ø-armor DAT-Ø-Eve

I made Gabriel give Eve the contraceptives.

Gomain is fond of passive constructions when no subject is to be specified, similar to German and the Romance languages. Instead of using the impersonal construction **libeisoiḍ oilait** "one will dance tomorrow," speakers are more apt to say **ibeisöḍ oilait** to mean "there will be a dance tomorrow."

4.2 Noun use | Eţedlem weizäč

4.2.1 The nominative (gofint)

Nouns are primarily used in the nominative case when they are the subject of a sentence or subordinate clause:

(88) **Um einif jëḳödzoŋ zo ufunïm.**

um einif jë-ḳödz-oŋ zo u-funïm

NOM.INDF woman 3fs-ask-PST ACC.1s DAT-time

A woman asked me the time.

The nominative is also used within analytic genitive and partitive phrases, regardless of the head noun's case:

(89) **Jëvëŋ um tušeis l uPešëḍon am Kaikol Anȓüš.**

jë-vëŋ um tuš(ëḍ)-(k)eis l u-pe-šëḍ-on am kaikol Anȓüš

3fs-be:PST NOM.INDF learn-AGT.F from DAT-COLL-know-LOC of city Anhrush

She was a student from the University of Anhrush City.

4.2.2 The vocative (tolowint)

The use of the vocative case is quite simple: it is used only in a direct address, regardless of the type of noun. If a noun phrase includes a pronoun, the vocative prefix must be applied to it as well as the head noun: **aibala aiArgóllagjøha** "O you [enemy] Argóllans."

4.2.3 Possession

Both forms of the genitive are used to show simple possession. The analytic form, which is less common than the suffixal form, follows the possessed noun. It is most frequently used after both finite and non-finite verb forms, due to their inability to take possessive suffixes; example (121) contains an example of the former usage, and is reproduced below (as example (90)).

(90) **Kam ḍiz mëväk am jau, fëköÎešöwof na mëm.**

kam ḍiz më-v-äk am jau fë-köÎešö-w-of na mëm

but if 3ns-be-SBJV of god 2p-overthrow-Ø-POT NEG ACC.3ns

But if it is of God, you cannot overthrow it.

Nevertheless, the analytic genitive is also occasionally used after a noun phrase, as it is in example (91) below. Such usage is often done to impart an archaic or poetic flavor to an utterance, or to put the possessor in focus.

(91)   **Dëpaloiŋ opoda am jau.**

         dë-pal-oiŋ o-poda   am jau

         1s-see-PST   ACC-hand of   god

         I saw the hand of God.

The suffixal form, on the other hand, is used only on the head of the noun phrase to which it attaches, not to any adjectives it may contain. The possessum is then in the same case as the possessor.

(92)   **Jukíśjau gëpalšoŋ ozäțlem oroišin oSaaru.**

         Jukíśjau gë-palšë-oŋ   o-zäț-lem   o-roiš-in   o-Saaru

         Michael   3ms-explore-PST ACC-land-POSS.3ns ACC-east-ADJ ACC-Saru

         Michael explored Sāru's eastern land.

More complicated possessive expressions may require the use of suffixes on more than one word:

(93)   **Dëdÿndar oweiŋglega oʒoska owaudled.**

         dë-dÿndar   o-weiŋ-g-leg-a   o-ʒoskë-a o-w-aud-led

         1s-remember ACC-word-Ø-POSS.3ms-PL ACC-last-PL ACC-Ø-father-POSS.1s

         I remember my father's last words.

An object's composition is expressed with the special partitive genitive, **an**. The same marker is used, oddly enough, for partitive expressions:

(94)   **Ŵëkaʒïl an onø otarüŋ?**

         ŵë-kaʒ-ïl an   o-nø   o-tarüŋ

         2s-have-Q PART ACC-grain ACC-new_time

         Do you have any (or some) new grain?

The partitive genitive refers to a portion of a group when it is used with quantifiers, thus acting as a determiner. Without it, the partitive expression does not refer to any specific group.

(95a)   **Uma ma kefa ķëtušŕau ben ekalaset am Argóllagjøha.**

         um-a   ma   kef-a   ķë-tušŕau   ben   e-kalas-et   am Argólla-gjø-ha

         NOM.INDF-PL many person-PL 3mfp-learn:PRES.PERF about INST-tyrant-NMLZ of   Argolla-INHAB-PL

         Many people have learned about the tyranny of the Argóllans.

(b)   **Ma an kefa ķëtušŕau ben ekalaset am Argóllagjøha.**

         ma   an   kef-a   ķë-tušŕau   ben   e-kalas-et   am Argólla-gjø-ha

         many PART person-PL 3mfp-learn:PRES.PERF about INST-tyrant-NMLZ of   Argolla-INHAB-PL

         Many of the people have learned about the tyranny of the Argóllans.

The group to which something belongs is used with **am**. Likewise, a person's geographical origin may be expressed using a possessive suffix, although using **l** "from" with the location in the dative is also common.

In nominalized phrases, the original subject is expressed in whichever genitive form is appropriate.

4.2.4   The instrumental (käžündint)

Direct objects of verbs in the passive voice are put in the instrumental case, as are any noun phrases that explain how, or with what, an action was done. This second usage eliminates the need to use prepositions such as "with" before such noun phrases.

4.2.5   The accusative (köțint)

The direct objects of all other transitive verbs are put in the accusative case. Some verbs take accusative objects where English has prepositional phrases; these exceptions are indicated in the dictionary.

4.2.6   The dative (wontsïmint)

Indirect objects are expressed in the dative case, which is its main function. While dative noun phrases typically follow accusative ones, the case markers make this unnecessary; it is commonplace to put the indirect object first when the speaker wants to topicalize it.

Due to their nature as indirect objects, benefactive objects are also put in the dative. This is in contrast to certain other languages which put both objects of verbs with benefactive meanings in a case such as the accusative.

(96) **Jukíšjau gëtulïmoŋ oķweroiţ oGomain udešã uSaaruwina.**

Jukíšjau gë-tulïm-oŋ o-ķweroiţ o-Gomai-in u-deš-ã u-Saaru-w-in-a

Michael 3ms-teach-PST ACC-language ACC-Gomai-ADJ DAT-child-PL DAT-Saru-Ø-ADJ-PL

Michael taught the Sāruyi children Gomain.

4.2.7 Predicate case usage

Copular verbs (such as **ve** and **več**) are not considered to have objects per se, even though a noun occurs where one would expect to find a direct object. Rather, they have predicate nominals, which identify something about the subject – either its identity, a change in its identity, or some salient property it has. Therefore, predicate nominals agree in case with their subjects. When the subject of a predicate is also the subject of a sentence, for instance, the predicate nominal is in the nominative, as it is in example (97):

(97) **Kairšačau gëve um tulïmgjø.**

Kairšačau gë-ve um tulïm-gjø

Gabriel 3ms-be INDF teach-INHAB

Gabriel is a teacher.

It is also possible for a predicate nominal (or adjective) to modify an object. In such cases, there is no copular verb; instead, the complementizer **hos** "such that" comes between the object and its predicate. Examples (98a-c) demonstrate this construction, first with a predicate nominal (a-b), and then with a predicate adjective (c):

(98a) **Aiet jekveko odokradled hos om oȓeimüs.**

Aiet j-ek-veko o-dokrad-led hos om o-ȓeimu-üs

Eve 3fs-CAUS-become.PST ACC-clay-POSS.1S such_that ACC.INDF ACC-serene-AUG

Eve turned my clay into a masterpiece.

(b) **Dëgidár oŠerimjau hos om okaiflem owóipei.**

dë-gidár o-Šerimjau hos om o-kaif-lem o-w-óipei

1S-consider ACC-Daniel such_that ACC.INDF ACC-man-POSS.3ns ACC-Ø-integrity

I consider Daniel a man of integrity.

(c) **Šïvȓlai gëḍlenoŋ oḍüŋ hos oŵelt.**

Šïvȓlai gë-ḍlẽ-oŋ o-ḍüŋ hos o-ŵelt

Benjamin 3ms-lick-PST ACC-plate such_that ACC-clean

Benjamin licked the plate clean.

4.3 The noun phrase | Peweiŋglem weizäč

The standard order of constituents within noun phrases is (with the head noun marked):

um + (quantifier) + <u>noun</u> + number + (intensifier) + adjectives + adverbs
+ genitive + prepositional phrases + relative clauses

Figure 7: Modifier order in noun phrases

Note that non-numerical quantifiers precede the head noun, while numbers follow it. Genitives and certain quantifiers make addition of **um** redundant and ungrammatical. Furthermore, the intensifiers (**žï, ʒo, ʒö,** and **ʒoi**) are the only modifiers that can precede their respective adjectives. Here are some examples:

(99a) **máķķei** "the neighbor"
(b) **um máķķei** "a neighbor"
(c) **máķķeia vu** "more neighbors"
(d) **uma sol máķķeia** "few neighbors"
(e) **máķķeia fai** "the five neighbors"
(f) **uma ma máķķeia girkina** "many pleasant neighbors"

(g)   **bau máḳḳei oi ǯo dlyvin** "any single very foul-smelling neighbor"
(h)   **máḳḳeilega ÿr podaina Ḍïndrïn** "Aaron's six adroit neighbors"
(i)   **máḳḳeiled oiẋ b ublünḍaš** "my good neighbor with a fever"
(j)   **máḳḳei oi rujuwin praikindi kau jörg stad** "the one noisily flatulent neighbor who cooks for me"

In lists, noun phrases can be joined by **is**, **od** or **ot**, with the conjunction either between all constituents, between just the last two constituents, or completely absent. Thus the list "chairs, tables, desks and beds" can be translated as **gomeča is freša is krïfwaia is trisa**; **gomeča, freša, krïfwaia is trisa**; or **gomeča, freša, krïfwaia, trisa**.

While English nouns can modify other nouns, other measures must be taken in Gomain. Instead, nouns can only be modified by adjectives or genitive expressions. As such, if one wishes to modify a noun with another noun, one must either turn the modifying noun into an adjective or make it part of a genitive clause. Compounding new nouns is also an option.

4.4   Adjective use | Eṭedlem weizgom

All adjectives agree with the nouns they modify, as stated earlier, in case and number. However, there are no predicative adjectives in Gomain; instead, adjectives are converted into verbs, taking the full range of verbal inflectional morphology. When they are used in this manner, the subject agreement prefixes are added in front of any adjectival prefixes, and the various verb suffixes are added after any adjectival suffixes.

(100)   **Jagälḍin gëkŕdzonfega; ṭarḳleit zo st ambleži kë.**

Jagälḍin	gë-kŕdzon-fega	ṭarḳ-leit	zo	st	ambleži	kë
John	3ms-heavy-top	help-IMP.SG.INFM	ACC.1s	in	carry:INF	ACC.3ms

John is too heavy; help me carry him.

The above structure eliminates the need to use **ve** "be" with adjectives. The use of **več** "become" is similarly eliminated by adding the inchoative prefix **eč-** to the adjective stem:

(101)   **Ḍrymj mečëḍlösuwoŋ žoiso ečoipsuwoŋ.**

ḍrymj	m-eč-ë-ḍlös-u-w-oŋ	žoiso	eč-oips-u-w-oŋ
puzzle	3ns-INCH-Ø-difficult-CMP-Ø-PST	while	INCH-late-CMP-Ø-PST

The puzzle got harder as it got later.

If a predicate adjective modifies the object of a verb, it cannot itself be converted into a verb. In this case, the structure parallels that used for predicate nominals: the adjective agrees in case with the object, with **hos** separating the two (as demonstrated by example (98c) in section 4.2.7 above).

While participles are adjectival in nature, they are never converted into finite verbs in the manner described above. Where an English-speaker would use a participle as a predicative adjective, Gomain-speakers instead place the original verb in whichever voice suits the context.

(102)   **Dopjenǯu ejündedle.**

d-opjen-žu	e-jünd-et-le
1s-disappoint-PRES.PASS	INST-work-NMLZ-POSS.2s

I am disappointed in your work.

(vs. *****dopjenen ejündedle**)

Adjectives may be turned into "flat" adverbs modifying verbs by making them participles. Such adverbs typically denote the condition of the subject, and the tense in which they are used indicates the time when the condition is or was true, relative to the verb's tense.

(103)   **Audleža ḳěčojyŋ tokramez; is žŕfi dešležã ḳěčojöḍ.**

aud-lež-a	ḳë-čojyŋ	tokra-mez	is	žŕfi
father-POSS.1p.INCL-PL	3mfp-give_birth:PST.PASS	free-PTCP.PRES	and	likewise

deš-lež-ã	ḳë-čojöḍ
child-POSS.1p.INCL-PL	3mfp-give_birth:FUT.PASS

Our fathers were born free; and so shall our children be.

In order to be used as substantives, an agentive suffix must be added to adjectives; the suffix must possess the appropriate gender for the desired noun, although a plural substantive uses the masculine agentive suffix regardless of the referents' sexes. Once these suffixes are applied, the substantives are used just like regular nouns, and so they must take the proper case and number for their roles.

Comparative and superlative adjectives in comparisons are converted into verbs, as with all predicate adjectives. They are then followed by the object used for comparison, which is in the dative. These rules are the same for comparative and superlative adverbs, as well as nouns followed by comparative adjectives.

(104)   **Dĕḍuʒu čĭ.**

       de-ḍuʒ-u   čĭ

       1s-tall-COMP DAT.2S.FAM

       I am taller than you.

4.5   Pronouns | Boweizäča

4.5.1   Personal pronouns

All the rules for noun usage discussed above must also be applied to pronouns. Additionally, one must be careful to use the correct second-person pronoun; the speaker's relationship to the listener must be taken into consideration, as well as the number of listeners. Often, speakers use different pronouns when referring to each other, as they frequently have different views of their relationship. An especially common situation is for a social inferior, such as a youth, to address an elder with the honorific pronoun **čĭn/čÿn**, while the elder will use the familiar pronoun **čei/čø**. Another common situation where speakers seek to be polite is with strangers, acquaintances, or their own superiors; in such situations, they use the formal pronoun **čoi/čo**. Alternatively, two social equals, especially friends, will use the informal pronoun **če/čĕ** when addressing each other. The intimate pronoun **čaio/čeio** is usually only used by close relatives and members of a couple; to use it with anyone else would imply an undue degree of familiarity and would be considered rude. The pejorative pronoun **bal/böl** is only ever used when the speaker is very angry with or hostile towards the addressee, as it is very rude to use it. NB: When addressing a group of people who may have various relationships to the speaker, one should use the plural formal pronoun **ḳoi/ḳo** (nominative/accusative forms have respectively been given throughout this paragraph).

Care must also be taken when choosing which third-person plural pronoun to use, since there are four to choose from. While the common-gender pronoun **fö/fo** can be used when speaking about any group of people, the masculine pronoun **fe/fĕ** specifies an all-male group; similarly, the feminine **fei/fø** refers only to all-female groups. The neuter pronoun **fa/fö** is only used when referring to inanimate objects or abstract concepts.

Gomain has no independent possessive pronouns such as "mine"; to express possession, the possessed object is placed in the genitive. Often such a genitive noun (or noun phrase) is fronted for emphasis. A less common option, which is largely limited to the youngest couple of generations of speakers, is to apply the appropriate possessive suffix to **käzač** "thing", so that "mine" could be expressed as **käzačled**. Even less common, and largely limited to fossilized expressions, is the use of the preposition w with an accusative object suffix, resulting in expressions such as **wod** to mean "mine". This option was common in Old Gomain and ultimately led to the formation of the modern possessive suffixes (albeit with **l** and a dative object suffix); it is rarely encountered in everyday speech, but it survives in traditional Javite wedding vows (of which part of the groom's vow is given below as example (105); the lack of copulae was common in Old Gomain, when the vows originated), and it occasionally appears in poetry when the meter requires it:

(105)   **Zau voileŋkailei is eiš wod.**

       zau   voileŋ-kai-lei   is eiš   w-od

       NOM.1S love_spouse-PAT.MASC-POSS.3fs and NOM.3fs to-ACC.1s

       I am her beloved and she is mine.

Since subject pronouns are always prefixed to the verb, independent forms are only used for focus, or when the prefix is not specific enough, as is common in the second and third persons. A subject pronoun may also be used as a disjunctive, even if it does not refer to the subject of a verb (or if no verb is present due to a copula being omitted for poetic purposes, as is the case in example (106b) below). Also, when a pronoun is one of several subjects, it

precedes any non-pronominal subjects, and the verb takes a plural subject prefix in the appropriate person.

(106a) **Zau is Jašuwet rëḍeskoŋ st østi oḍondle ovŕlahi.**

zau   is   Jašuwet rë-ḍesk-oŋ   st øs-ti o-ḍon-d-le   o-vŕla-hi

NOM.1s and Joshua   1p.EXCL-try-PST in fix-INF ACC-mug-Ø-POSS.2s ACC-passive_love-SUP

Joshua and I tried to fix your favorite mug.

(b)   **Zau eimgeilem oi jajauzled.**

zau   eim-kei-led   oi jajauz-led

NOM.1s lead-AGT.MASC-POSS.1s one soul-POSS.1s

I am the (one) captain of my soul.

Likewise, when a pronoun is one of multiple objects of a preposition, it precedes all other objects, due to prepositions being inflected:

(107)   **Dëšëḍ na ja, kam ŕsëkeia ḵödlonoŋ obakai ŵož is obolžokeia.**

dë-šëḍ na ja   kam ŕsë-kei-a   ḵ-ödlõ-oŋ   o-bakai

1s-know NEG why.REL but   rob-AGT.MASC-PL 3mfp-threaten-PST ACC-everyone

ŵ-ož   is   o-bolžo-kei-a

except-ACC.1p and ACC-foreign-AGT.MASC.PL

I don't know why, but the robbers threatened everyone except us and the foreigners.

Object pronouns always follow the verb. Accusative pronouns generally come before dative pronouns, although this order may be switched if one wishes to focus the indirect object.

Verbs with the reflexive suffix do not take direct object pronouns (since the direct object is identical to the subject), unless the reflexive object is indirect. Since genitive reflexives do not exist in Gomain, ambiguity concerning ownership of an object can only be resolved with alternative constructions. Finally, since no independent reflexive forms like "myself" exist, focus on the subject is expressed by using both the independent and prefixed subject pronouns.

Two constructions exist for expressing reciprocal subjects. When there are only two such subjects, the inherent object construction **oi uḍuŋk** "one to the other" is used to mean "each other". In cases where more than two reciprocal subjects are present, **obakai ubakai** "everyone to everyone" is used to mean "one another." Both of these are normally used as direct objects, although they can also be used in other cases, except for the nominative and vocative.

4.5.2   Impersonal pronouns

The singular impersonal pronoun **öl** is used in situations where there is no specific subject or object, and so is translated as "one". It is increasingly being used as a gender-neutral third-person singular pronoun, displacing the traditional usage of **ke** "he".

Similarly, the plural impersonal pronoun ol is used for lack of specific plural subjects or objects, much like "they" in English. However, it is never used in a gender-neutral way, unlike English "they", since mixed- and neuter-gender plural pronouns already exist in Gomain. The genitive suffix forms of these pronouns are used in the same situations as the pronouns they stand for.

4.5.3   Correlatives

The correlatives take whatever case prefix is appropriate for their usage, but they do not agree with their head nouns in number. Most are nouns, but the time correlatives are adverbs, and some others are adjectives; refer to the table of correlatives for further information. Note that relative pronouns cannot be used as constituents, but must follow a personal or impersonal pronoun, or a regular noun, as the introduction to a relative clause.

Demonstratives (the forms that translate into variations on "this," "that," "these" and "those") can be used as whole constituents and can replace noun phrases. When they so replace a subject noun phrase, the subject pronoun that would be used with the replaced noun phrase is replaced with the equivalent subject prefix, and adjectives that modify them must agree with them in number. "This" is not used to introduce something; instead, the third-person subject pronoun of the same gender and number is prefixed to the verb.

4.5.4 Adjectival anaphora

The most common adjectival anaphor is **mig** "such"; it can be used as a standalone adjective or before a prepositional phrase describing the object that is the basis of comparison.

4.5.5 Verbal anaphora

The irregular verb **nag** "do" is the most common verbal anaphor, and is used for both indefinite and specific actions. It is also used in parallel constructions, where it is followed by **wox** "also". However, unlike English, it is not used to answer questions; instead, the verb is repeated. Idiomatic, non-anaphoric uses of "do" are often not the same in Gomain, as they may or may not use any form of **nag**. They include phrases that represent single English verbs, such as **nag okaipälkei** "testify".

4.6 Preposition use | Eţedlem weiïž

Prepositions may govern any combination of the accusative, dative and instrumental cases. Their different cases governed determine the meaning of each preposition. This table gives the different meanings each preposition has when governing each case:

Case Governed	Dative	Accusative	Instrumental
st	in, among, inside of	into	in favor of, on behalf of
l	from, out of, outside of	off of	beyond, exceeding, far from
n	on, upon, across from	across, over	in exchange for
w	near, on the same side as	to, toward, until	through, during
b	with	instead of, rather than	at, by means of
ŵ	without	except for	against, despite
ben	around	between	about, concerning
mïš	like, according to		for the purpose of
danïst	in front of		before
väţïst	behind		after, since
fegan	above, on top of	onto, to the top of	
vóhein	under, below	to the bottom of	
žamb	beside, next to	along, to one side of	apart from
jörb	for, in honor of		because of
wöst	throughout		

Table 20: Preposition meanings

Certain Gomain idioms differ from their English counterparts in which prepositions they use, if any; some idioms use the dative or instrumental cases instead of a preposition. An example idiom is **w edapalöha** "in one's eyes" (literally "through one's eyes").

4.7 Sentences | Weidarda

4.7.1 Constituent order

The usual word order in Gomain sentences is SVO, though the case system allows for any order desired. Here is a more detailed sentence organization:

(subject) verb (negation) (adverbs) (direct object) (indirect objects) (instrumental object) (other prepositional phrases)

Figure 8: Basic constituent order

If one wishes to focus the pragmatic topic of the sentence, regardless of its role as subject or object, it is spoken first, retaining any case marker it may have. When the topic is the possessor of a genitive object, the possessed object is named first, retaining its possessive suffix. These constructions are used instead of clefting.

(108) **Ošabole dëpaloiŋ bei.**

      o-šabo-le   dë-pal-oiŋ b-ei

      ACC-husband-POSS.2s 1s-see-PST   with-DAT.3fs

      I saw your <u>husband</u> with her.

(109) **¿Ošabolei oFyždë ŵëkjaindïl lo ŵëpaloiŋ na?**

      o-šabo-lei   o-Fyždë   ŵë-kjaind-ïl lo ŵë-pal-oiŋ na

      ACC-husband-POSS.3fs ACC-Tamar 2s-certain-Q REL 2s-see-PST NEG

      Are you sure you didn't see <u>Tamar's</u> husband?

      VSO order is used to focus the verb, which often appears with the verbal intensifier **jo** in this situation. OSV order is normal for subordinate clauses, and to focus an object, whether direct, indirect or instrumental.

(110) **¿Jëšöfoŋïl Fyždë kë, ot se jëšöžoŋïl kë?**

      jë-šöf-oŋ-ïl   Fyždë kë   ot   se   jë-šöž-oŋ-ïl   kë

      3fs-kill_intentionally-PST-Q Tamar ACC.3ms or.EXCL ATTEN 3fs-harm-PST-Q ACC.3ms

      Did Tamar <u>kill</u> him, or did she just hurt him?

      Because they act similarly to adverbs, prepositional phrases serving as adjuncts of the verb immediately follow it, as do all adverbs. Like other constituents, they can be focused by placing them at the beginning of the sentence. The standard order of such phrases or adverbs, based on their semantic content, is *time-manner-place*, as it is in German.

(111) **Gënegloŋ ŕlaš ehäpkaur uzäʈok.**

      gë-negl-oŋ   ŕlaš   e-h-äpkaur   u-zäʈok

      3ms-leave-PST yesterday INST-Ø-hurry DAT-coast

      He left for the coast in a hurry yesterday.

      (Lit: He left yesterday in a hurry for the coast.)

      Cf. German *Gestern er verließ in einer Hast für die Küste.*

4.7.2   Negatives

      The most basic and common negation technique is putting **na** immediately after the verb being negated. **Na** is also used to negate certain complementizers, although it precedes them instead of following them, e.g. in **na jo** "not even". If one wishes to negate an adjective or adverb instead, the privative prefix is added to the word to be negated. Negative concord is not part of the standard (Anhrush) dialect, though it is employed in a couple of fringe and rural dialects; the double negative is therefore taken to be a negation of a negation. **Na** can also be used twice in a sentence to mean "neither … nor", as in **luʈ na, bulbo na** "neither rain nor snow".

      The most-used alternative to **na** is the negative conjunction **iŋŋë** "and not, nor"; it can be used to negate both clauses and whole sentences which follow a negated clause or sentence. **Iŋŋë** eliminates the need to use **na** elsewhere in the clause or sentence it introduces, due to its inherent negative polarity. Certain correlatives also carry a negative meaning and can likewise be used in place of **na** to negate sentences; all of these are in the "None" row of the table of correlatives (Table 15 on page 26), in the section on morphology. These correlatives are much more commonly used than the equivalent constructions of an "any"-type correlative followed by **na** – the Gomain equivalent of English's "not ever" sort of constructions.

4.7.3   Questions

      In most polar questions, the interrogative suffix **-ïl** is added to the verb that is being questioned. However, this is not the case when the question is formed with sentence-final tag words; in particular, those words are **krep** "true" or **šai** "yes" for negative sentences, and **lokrep** "false" or **yŋ** "no" for affirmative sentences. In addition, it is common for pitch to rise when speaking the interrogative verb or tag word, as well as at the end of the sentence. When a question is introduced by an interrogative pronoun or adverb, which is always fronted, a resumptive pronoun takes the normal place of the information being questioned, whether that involves the compulsory subject agreement on verbs or an independent object pronoun. Also, these interrogative words eliminate the need for an interrogative suffix in the question in which they occur. They take case prefixes.

(112) **¿Ojuhol ŵëmoiŋ mëm fum ŵeiŋ w omoiskoion?**

        o-juhol   ŵë-m-oiŋ   mëm   fum   ŵ-eiŋ   w   o-moiskoion

        ACC-what.Q 2s-buy-PST ACC.3ns when.REL 2s-go:PST to ACC-market

        What did you buy when you went to the market?

When multiple constituents are being questioned, the question words for all of them are fronted, similar to Bulgarian; the order they occur in is invariably *subject-direct object-indirect objects*, and the object question words take whichever case prefix is appropriate. As with other constituent questions, pronouns take the place of object question words.

(113) **¿Jukai ojuhol ujukai ķëbleisoiŋ mëm fï?**

        jukai   o-juhol   u-jukai   ķë-bleis-oiŋ mëm   fï

        who.Q ACC-what.Q DAT-who.Q 3mfp-tell-PST ACC.3ns DAT.3mfp

        Who told what to whom?

4.7.4   Subclauses

One way to form complex sentences is through the use of conjunctions. The most basic of these are **is** "and", **iŋŋë** "and not", **kam** "but", **od** "and/or" and **ot** "or (but not both)". One must be careful when deciding which "or" to use, making sure that the options spoken are all simultaneously possible or not. Conjunctions can join constituents of any length.

Those verbs that can take whole sentences as complements do so by introducing the complement clause with **lo** "which, that". **Lo** is required, unlike its English counterpart.

Relative pronouns, which are different in form from the interrogative pronouns, do not replace their referents, but rather turn them into pronouns, as is the case with interrogatives. Relative clauses cannot stand as whole constituents; instead, they require an introductory noun or verb phrase.

4.7.4.1   Constructions requiring the subjunctive

Several types of dependent clause require their verbs to be in the subjunctive mood:

Purpose clauses give the reason why an action is performed. In Gomain, they are typically introduced by **poi** "so that, in order that" or **virt** "lest". Finite verbs in purpose clauses always appear in the subjunctive, regardless of the tense of the main verb. However, it is also common to use an infinitive in a purpose clause when the subject of the purpose clause is the same as that of the main clause.

(114) **Doilķ om owoilķäg kei poi gëlünduvoiḍäk zo škoțți oḍondleg ovŕlahi.**

        d-oilķ om   o-w-oilķ-äg   kei   poi   gë-lünduv-oiḍ-ḍäk   zo

        1s-send ACC.INDF ACC-Ø-give-RESULT DAT.3ms so_that 3ms-forgive-FUT-SBJV ACC.1s

        škoț-ḍi   o-ḍon-d-leg   o-vŕla-hi

        break-INF ACC-mug-Ø-POSS.3ms ACC-passive_love-SUP

        I am sending him a gift so that he might forgive me for breaking his favorite mug.

Fear clauses serve as the direct objects of verbs of fearing, stating what action the speaker fears. They are always introduced by the complementizer **lo**. Verbs in fear clauses only appear in the subjunctive if they refer to actions subsequent to the action of the main verb. If the verb in the fear clause refers to an action simultaneous with or prior to the main verb's action, the verb in the fear clause appears in the indicative.

(115) **Dëțоržu lo ippaķķei gëpaloiḍak zo.**

        dë-țоr-žu   lo ippaķ-kei   gë-pal-oiḍ-ḍäk   zo

        1s-fear-PRES.PASS REL guard-AGT.MASC 3ms-see-FUT-SBJV ACC.1s

        I am afraid that the guard might see me.

Concessive clauses contrast the action of the main verb with that of the dependent verb or make the action of the main verb seem surprising. Concessive clauses are introduced with either **ïgbai** "although" or **jo ḍiz** "even if". Verbs in concessive clauses only appear in the subjunctive if the main verb is in a future tense; otherwise, they appear in the indicative.

(116)   **Ïgbai ŵëšöfoiḍäk zo, dënötkïŋoiḍ na owikündled.**

ïgbai   ŵë-šöf-oiḍ-ḍäk zo   dë-nötkïŋ-oiḍ na   o-w-ikünd-led

though 2s-kill-FUT-SBJV ACC.1S 1s-deny-FUT   NEG ACC-Ø-lord-POSS.1S

Though you might kill me, I will not deny my Lord.

Effort clauses serve as the direct objects of verbs of effort or striving and are introduced by the complementizer **lo**. Their verbs always appear in the subjunctive, as well as the future tense.

(117)   **Goihi lo kaikol mëḍendahöḍäk.**

g-oihi   lo   kaikol më-ḍenda-h-öḍ-ḍäk

3ms-contrive REL city   3ns-destroy-Ø-FUT.PASS-SBJV

He is contriving that the city be destroyed.

The verbal use of **jüṭi** "worthy" is treated as a verb of effort in the standard and some other dialects, and it therefore requires a subordinate verb in the future subjunctive. However, this rule does not apply when the subject of the main and subordinate clauses is the same; an infinitive preceded by st is used in such situations instead.

Proviso clauses give the condition on which the main verb's action depends. They are always introduced by the complementizer **ẽi** "on condition that, provided that". As in effort clauses, the verb in a proviso clause always appears in the future and the subjunctive.

(118)   **Dëšöfoŋ na kë ẽi gëbleisoiḍäk ozikai ḳol mëvïŵŕoŋ.**

dë-šöf-oŋ na   kë   ẽi   gë-bleis-oiḍ-ḍäk o-zikai   ḳol   më-vïŵŕ-oŋ

1s-kill-PST NEG ACC.3ms provided_that 3ms-tell-FUT-SBJV ACC-nobody what.REL 3ns-happen-PST

I didn't kill him on condition that he tell nobody what happened.

Finally, dependent clauses following an *impersonal construction* which does not feature **ve or viŵŕ** as the impersonal verb are always in the subjunctive. Such clauses are always introduced by the complementizer **lo**. The same tense is normally used in both clauses, but if the dependent clause refers to an action prior or subsequent to the time of the impersonal construction, the dependent clause's verb appears in the perfect of the appropriate tense for the time frame of that verb.

(119a) **Mininoiḍ lo gasnokei gëšŕḍḍäk nai ymȓondri.**

min-in-oiḍ   lo gasno-kei   gë-šŕḍ-ḍäk   nai   ymȓondri

need-ADJ-FUT REL speak-AGT.MASC 3ms-know:FUT-SBJV how.REL sing:INF

It will be necessary that the speaker know how to sing.

(b)   **Wänžoŋ lo žalkoŋgḍäk om oweiŋglökei ḳu.**

wänžë-oŋ   lo   ž-alkoŋ-g-ḍäk   om   o-weiŋglö-kei   ḳu

appropriate-PST REL 1p-send:PST-Ø-SBJV ACC.INDF ACC-message-AGT.MASC DAT.2p.FRM

It was right for us to send you all a messenger.

(c)   **Mïšpeḳ lo dëčohaisïŋgḍäk.**

mïšpeḳ lo   dë-čohais-ïŋ-g-ḍäk

seem   REL 1s-deceive-PST.PASS.PRF-Ø-SBJV

It seems that I was deceived.

4.7.4.2   Conditional clauses

When used in compound sentences, the conditional mood expresses a state (given in the apodosis, or "then" clause) whose factuality depends on a certain condition, which is expressed in the protasis of a conditional sentence. By using certain combinations of the indicative, subjunctive, and conditional moods, it is possible to differentiate between a few degrees of the condition's certainty. First, if the condition is either completely factual or certain, both the protasis and apodosis use the indicative, as is appropriate:

(120) **Ḍiz luṭoiḍ, dečošoiḍ.**

ḍiz luṭ-oiḍ d-eč-oš-oiḍ

if rain-FUT 1S-INCH-wet-FUT

If it rains, I will get wet.

If the condition is less certain, a non-conditional mood (the exact choice depends on the intended meaning) is used in the apodosis; the protasis appears in the subjunctive, and the verbs of both clauses use the appropriate tenses:

(121) **Kam ḍiz mëväk am jau, fëkôl̂ešöwof na mëm.**

kam ḍiz më-v-äk am jau fë-kôl̂ešö-w-of na mëm

but if 3ns-be-SBJV of god 2p-overthrow-Ø-POT NEG ACC.3ns

But if it is of God, you cannot overthrow it.

If the condition is contrafactual, the subjunctive is used in the protasis, and the conditional is used in the apodosis. Each verb in the sentence uses the tense that reflects the time of the condition or its (unreal) consequence: if the condition or consequence existed (or would have existed) in the past, the simple past tense is used for the condition (not the past perfect, as in English), and so forth.

(122) **Ḍiz jau gëmosoŋgḍäk ošëḍweiŋ st rüvḍi, gailḳŕŋom oma ogarÿŋa ru.**

ḍiz jau gë-mos-oŋ-g-ḍäk o-šëḍweiŋ st rüv-ḍi g-ailḳŕŋ-om om-a

if god 3ms-want-PST-Ø-SBJV ACC-human in fly-INF 3ms-give:PST-COND ACC.INDF-PL

o-garÿŋ-a ru

ACC-wing-PL DAT.1p.INCL

If God had wanted man to fly, He would have given us wings.

The only exception to the above rule is when the apodosis would use the potential mood if it were independent, as opposed to the indicative or some other mood. In this case, the hypothetical mood is substituted for the conditional/potential and effectively communicates the meaning of both moods at once.

(123) **Ŵëḳŕkoiḍob na ošoiŋ oḍedẽ ḍiz ŵëḍeskoiḍäk.**

ŵë-ḳŕk-oiḍ-ob na o-šoiŋ o-ḍedẽ ḍiz ŵë-ḍesk-oiḍ-ḍäk

2s-move-FUT-HYP NEG ACC-that ACC-rock if 2s-try-FUT-SBJV

You couldn't move that rock if you tried.

When an imperative depends on a condition, the indicative is used in the protasis if the condition is likely; if it isn't likely, the subjunctive is used instead.

(124) **Ḍiz ŵëminoiḍäk oṭarḳled, tololeit zo.**

ḍiz ŵë-min-oiḍ-ḍäk o-ṭarḳ-led tolo-leit zo

if 2s-need-FUT-SBJV ACC-help-POSS.1s call-IMP.SG.INFML ACC.1s

If you should need my help (but you probably won't), call me.

This is not the case when a question depends on a condition. In such sentences, the subjunctive must be used in the protasis, although it makes no judgment on the condition's likelihood.

(125) **Ḍiz Î̂oiperöḍäk na, ¿juja Î̂afu w owyṭeŋ?**

ḍiz Î̂-oiper-öḍ-ḍäk na juja Î̂-afu w o-w-yṭeŋ

if 2s.FRM-honor-FUT.PASS-SBJV NEG why.Q 2s.FRM-go to ACC-Ø-dinner

If you're not being honored, why are you going to the dinner?

If the protasis is omitted, as it can be, the conditional must be used in the apodosis. Verbs in this situation take the tense suffix appropriate for the timeframe of the action.

(126)   **Dëtössoŋom na ošail oglöxa.**

     dë-tös-oŋ-om   **na** **o-šail**   **o-glöxa**

     1s-wear-PST-COND NEG ACC-those_things ACC-pants

     I wouldn't have worn those pants (if I had known the dress code beforehand).

     The conditional cannot be used as a genteelism, which relies on the subjunctive (or the related formal imperative). In a logical "if/then" sentence, the indicative is used, as the sentence expresses no doubt. Lastly, as has been mentioned before, when the main clause is in the past tense, the future tense is used for later (but still past) events, not the conditional.

4.7.5   Sentential arguments

     When a sentence is transformed into an argument of another sentence, it always becomes a noun phrase, and its own arguments are transformed based on the verb's transitivity. In the simplest case, that of an intransitive sentence, the subject simply becomes the possessor of the nominalized verb: compare **Kairšačau gëčaķŕŋ** "Gabriel died" with **čakedleg Kairšačau** "Gabriel's death". When the verb to be nominalized is transitive, its subject appears in the instrumental, while its object appears in the analytic possessive, one of its few remaining productive uses:

(127a)   **Sïnčaha ķëḍendahoŋ okaikol.**

      sïnča-ha   **ķë-ḍenda-h-oŋ**   **o-kaikol**

      soldier-PL   3mfp-destroy-Ø-PST   ACC-city

      The soldiers destroyed the city.

(b)   **ḍendet am kaikol esïnčaha**

      ḍenda-et   **am** **kaikol** **e-sïnča-ha**

      destroy-NMLZ of   city   INST-soldier-PL

      the soldiers' destruction of the city

      The above pattern continues for ditransitive sentences, with the indirect object remaining in the dative:

(128a)   **Kairšačau gailķŕŋ om owoilķäg uwAiet.**

      Kairšačau **g-ailķŕŋ**   **om**   **o-w-oilķ-äg**   **u-w-Aiet**

      Gabriel   3ms-give:PST ACC:INDF ACC-Ø-give-NMLZ.RESULT DAT-Ø-Eve

      Gabriel gave Eve a gift.

(b)   **oilktau am oilķäg uwAiet eKairšačau**

      oilktau   **am** **oilķ-äg**   **u-w-Aiet**   **e-Kairšačau**

      give:GER of   give-NMLZ.RESULT DAT-Ø-Eve INST-Gabriel

      Gabriel's giving of a gift to Eve

5 Special lexical domains

5.1 Kinship terms

Tracing lines of ancestry is important to Anhrushites, and so Gomain has a wide array of kinship terms and derivational affixes modifying them. The most important grouping of relatives is the **Îyzgj** or clan, which consists of multiple **kolomha** or families. The basic terms are as follows:

Generation		First degree	English	Second degree	English
Third before		rodraud	great-grandfather	rodraiv	great-great-uncle
Second before		raud	grandfather	draiv	great-uncle
First before		aud/eiv	father/mother	taiv	uncle
Same	Older	ḍaž/eišaž	older brother/sister	ŕdz/ŕž̧	older cousin (from uncle/aunt)
	Younger	ḍüž/eišüž	younger brother/sister	ŕüdz/ŕüž̧	younger cousin
First after		šiv	son	erza	nephew
Second after		ž̧iv	grandson	lerza	great-nephew
Third after		rodž̧iv	great-grandson	rodlerza	great-great-nephew
By marriage					
First before		audž̧ab	father-in-law		
Same		šabo /zimbo	husband/wife	dažžab	brother-in-law
First after		šapšiv	son-in-law		

Table 21: Basic kinship terms

There are also several terms for tertiary kin, formed by compounding:

Cousin's son	šivŕdz
Cousin's husband	šabŕdz
Child's father-in-law	auž̧apšiv
Child's brother-in-law	dažžapšiv
Sibling's spouse's son	ḍaššabdaž
Sibling's father-in-law	auž̧abdaž
Sibling's cousin's husband	šaberza
Parent's brother-in-law	šaptaiv
Spouse's uncle	taiššab
Spouse's sister's husband	šaḍḍažžab
Spouse's nephew	erzašab

Table 22: Terms for certain tertiary kin

Any of these terms that is not already feminine by default (i.e. the majority) can be feminized by prefixing **eis-**, as with all other nouns; thus one's aunt is called **eistaiv**, an older female cousin is **eisŕdz**, etc.

Aside from the independent terms listed above, in-laws can be named by adding the suffix **-ölk**, although this is generally not done beyond one's **ŕdzölka** or spouses of once-removed relatives (those in either the immediately previous or next generations) except by pedants. As such, one may speak of one's **taivölk** or **eivölk** but not one's **rodraivölk**. In-laws of more distant relations are instead named with the following noun **ešaból**, "by marriage".

Relatives obtained through remarriage are named with the suffix **-už**, regardless of the degree of kinship: **eivuž** "stepmother"; **eiššivuž** "stepdaughter". For siblings or cousins who are only related through one ancestor rather than two, the suffix **-ÿč** is added: **ḍažÿč** "half-brother".

Distinction between paternal and maternal relatives is achieved with the respective prefixes **au-** and **ei-**: **auraud** "father's father"; **eieistaiv** "mother's sister".

Relatives more than two generations distant in either direction are named with the prefix **rod-**, which always precedes the feminine prefix if it is present but follows the maternal or paternal prefixes: **rodeisǯïv** "great-grand-daughter"; **aurodeisraud** "paternal great-grandmother". In practice, this prefix can only be duplicated up to three times; beyond that, generations are numbered: **eiraud faiš** "maternal great-great-great-great-great-grandfather".

It is common practice to only apply a maximum of three affixes to the basic terms, not counting reduplications of **rod-**. Thus a word such as **aueistaivÿč** "paternal half-aunt" is at the limit of acceptability; something like *__**eirodrodeisrauduž** would be both unacceptable and ridiculous. As such, there are limits on how far the Gomain kinship system can be extended. Neither independent nor derived terms for some relations, such as third cousin, exist, in which case it is common to apply the diminutive suffix to express these more distant relations.

5.2 Time and the calendar

5.2.1 The day

The Anhrushite day is divided into 24 hours; on equinoxes, then, there are 12 day hours and 12 night hours. Traditionally, the day is considered to begin at dawn; however, since it has been recognized that the time from one sunrise to the next is not fixed, the official beginning of each day has been set to the approximate time of sunrise on the equinoxes, which equates to about 6:00 AM. People typically count the absolute number of hours from this point when expressing the time:

(129a)   **¿Jujus owäŋkraha ŵëkaǯ?** "What time is it?" (lit. "How many hours do you have?")
(b)   **Dëkaǯ oseiŋŕë.** "It's sunrise."
(c)   **Dëkaǯ owäŋkraha zi.** "It's zero hour." [6:00 AM]
(d)   **Dëkaǯ owäŋkra oi.** "It's one o'clock." [7:00 AM]
(e)   **Dëkaǯ owäŋkraha jul.** "It's nine o'clock." [3:00 PM]

To use smaller numbers, time can also be counted from noon, in which case the number of hours is followed by **larenin**, the adjectival form of "noon". Night hours can be similarly counted relative to sunset (actually twelve hours after standard sunrise, or 6:00 PM), with the following adjective **jiŵaiin**. The adjective **seiŋŕein** can be used with times based on sunrise in situations where it is necessary to disambiguate such times from others: **äŋkraha jul seiŋŕein** "nine o'clock after sunrise".

For more precise times, one can say the number of **žoia** or minutes, of which there are 72 to the hour. It is also common to use fairly simple fractions of hours – up to a sixth – instead of minutes. For even greater precision, one can specify the exact **aunë**, or second, of which there are 72 per minute. In speech, it is common to omit the units entirely; the order in which they are spoken is invariably hour-minute-second:

(130a)   **üŋ is üŋwo ÿr is ŕwo** "two hours, thirty minutes and 36 seconds" [8:25:30 AM]
(b)   **fai is zi is üŋwo jiŵaiin** "five hours and 24 seconds at night" [11:00:20 PM]
(c)   **šau is auč** "eight hours and a quarter" [2:15 PM]
(d)   **šau ŵ uwauč** "eight hours less a quarter" [1:45 PM]
(e)   **šau is üŋk** "eight hours and a half" [2:30 PM]
(f)   **ŕ is la larenin** "three hours and 12 minutes in the afternoon" [3:10 PM]
(g)   **ŕ ŵ la larenin** "three hours less 12 minutes in the afternoon" [2:50 PM]
(h)   **üŋ is faiwo larenin** "two hours and 60 minutes in the afternoon" [2:50 PM]

The standard and oft-used method for abbreviating time expressions mirrors their verbal shortening. Instead of **is**, however, the semicolon is used to separate the numbers of hours, minutes, and seconds. Also, after the full time number, the abbreviations **Sn**, **Ln** and **Jn** are used for **seiŋŕein**, **larenin** and **jiŵaiin**, respectively. Thus the first of the above examples would be written ∨∧∨ℛ∧◊◦ ⌐ɤ **2;26;30 Sn**, while the last would be ∨∧Ƨ◦ ⚅ **2;50 Ln**, taking the difference between decimal and duodecimal into account.

5.2.2 The week

Before this time, one may specify the day of the week. The Anhrushite week contains seven days, which have the following names:

räŋkolomh "family day"
räŋxeiŋ "sun day"

räŋzai "dream day"
räŋgörḍ "moon day"
räŋgwoilš "pay day"
räŋŋoi "buy day"
räŋgja "Jave day"

It is common for Anhrushites to work five days, with all of **räŋgja** off to attend Javite synagogue services, along with **räŋŋoi** afternoon and **räŋkolomh** morning, respectively to go to markets and spend time with family members. In practice, however, modern Anhrushites go to the store whenever necessary (though **räŋŋoi** afternoon is still the busiest time of the week for markets).

5.2.3 The year

After the weekday and time comes the day of the month, along with the month itself, with the year number at the end. The current year (until October 29, 2019) is 3649 ŴA, an abbreviation referring to the years since the incorporation of Anhrush City and pronounced as its letters' names: **ŵïn-az**. The year is divided into twelve months; the year begins about one month after the summer solstice, when the desert temperatures have reached their maximum. Here, then, are the month names, together with their lengths and meanings.

Month Name	Meaning	Length	Season
Ḳoboḍaš	heat-falling	36	ḍaršu
Einǯë	soft	35	ḍaršu
Berraššant	fall-beginning	36	Autumn čant
Ančant	fall-planting	35	Autumn čant
Mudzin	stormy	36	Autumn čant
Ḳaiau	god-month	35	Winter ḍiŋgu
Ḳaranr̂üš	Anhrush-month	35	Winter ḍiŋgu
Zaikarḍau	electing	35	Winter ḍiŋgu
Ekauandräŋ	day-lengthening	36	Spring arrauf
Ḳarbjëg	competing-month	36	Spring arrauf
Aŋkarrauf	spring-planting	35	Spring arrauf
Oiwoiüs	great sacrifice	37	Summer

Table 23: Months of the year

One year on Askath contains 427 days in this calendar, although the actual tropical year is slightly shorter. Every four years, except those divisible by 32, a day is removed from **Berraššant** to keep the calendar in line with the tropical year. For further accuracy, this day is also removed in years divisible by 576. Even so, the year is about 7.5 seconds too long, although this discrepancy is so small that it will take many millennia before an additional correction is needed. Several of the month names are descriptive of the weather in Anhrush-province during those months; others are named for important events that occur then.

5.2.4 Additional expressions

Descriptions of age use the verb **paloi** "see" in the perfect where English uses "be":

(131a) **¿Jujus oŵöka ŵëpalauž?** "How old are you?"
(b) **Dëpalauž oŵöka lašau.** "I'm 20 years old."
(c) **Dëpalauḍ oŵöka lajul n ujaräŋ uskaǯ.** "I'll be 21 next Sunday."
(d) **Rëpalauŋ** oŵöka lahŕ sur. "We were 15 then."

The duration since something is expressed with **nag** "do" used impersonally:

(132) **räŋa üŋ nauŋ** "two days ago"

5.3 Weather

Talking about the current weather involves the impersonal use of the verb **afu** "go" as an idiomatic copula. It can also be used of past or expected future weather when the appropriate tense is used. Similarly, the verb **čoiŋ** "make" can be used impersonally to discuss what the weather is becoming. Weather adjectives following these verbs are always in the nominative case.

(133a) **Vïntaitarüŋkei gëpraiķweiŋ lo aḍ seiŋin žolaķ, kam afu ŕhonin.**
announce-new-AGT.MASC 3ms-say.PST REL go.FUT sun-ADJ today but go cloud-ADJ
The news announcer said it would be sunny today, but it's cloudy.

(b) **Juja ŵëvodli lo afu ŕhonin? Čoiķ seiŋin sëfluwogdi.**
why.Q 2s-care REL go cloud-ADJ make.FUT sun-ADJ soon-at-ADV
Why do you care that it's cloudy? It will get sunny soon enough.

Certain verbs also relate to the weather, such as **luţ** "rain". Such verbs are also always used impersonally: **luţ** thus most simply means "it's raining".

As with any other adjectives, temperature words are used as verbs when they are attributed to anything but the weather, when they are bound by the above rules.

(134) **Rašiḍäk rïŋ; ŵëḍig is vainë mëḍaš.**
come-IMP.SG.FRM here 2s-cold and fire 3ns-hot
Please, come here; you're cold and the fire is hot.

5.4 Color terms

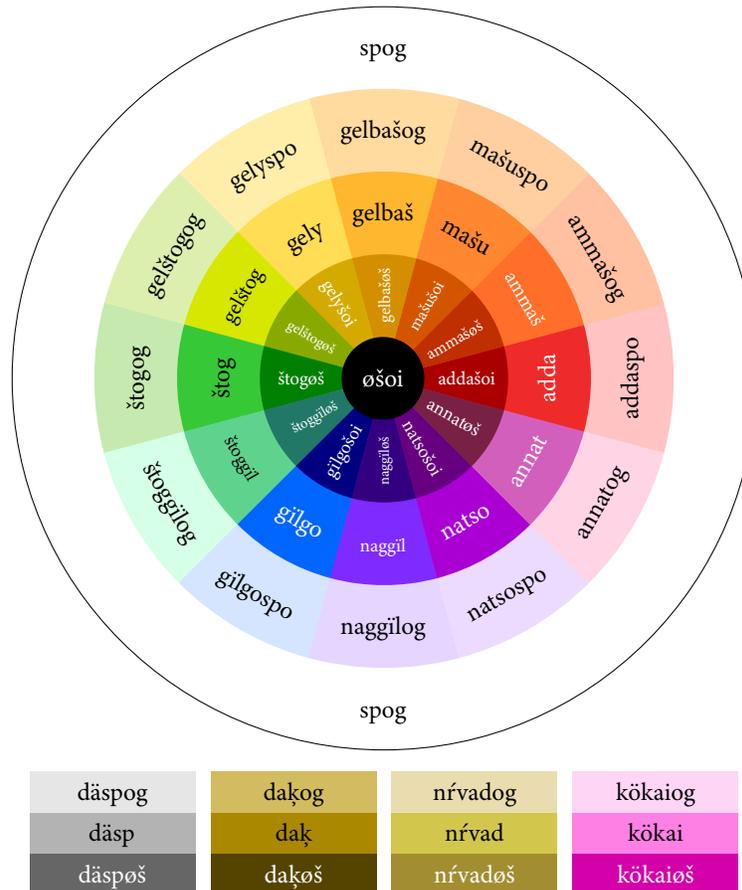The following chart illustrates the full set of Gomain color terms:

Figure 9: Gomain color terms

Of these terms, twelve are basic: **adda** 'red', **mašu** 'orange', **gely** 'yellow', **štog** 'green', **gïlgo** 'blue', **natso** 'purple', **kökai** 'pink', **nŕvad** 'tan', **daḳ** 'brown', **däsp** 'grey', **spog** 'white', and **øšoi** 'black'. The terms for tertiary colors are compounds of the primary and secondary color terms, using only the first syllables of each.

Each of these color terms, except for **spog** and **øšoi**, can be modified by adding either the beginning or end of those two terms as a suffix indicating bright and dark shades. Whether the beginning or end of **spog/øšoi** is used depends on whether the color term ends in a vowel or consonant. When it ends in a vowel, the **spo** of **spog** and the **šoi** of **øšoi** are suffixed; meanwhile, when the color term ends in a consonant, the **og** of **spog** and the **øš** of **øšoi** are added. Thus, the terms for 'light green' and 'dark green' are respectively **štogog** and **štogøš**, while the terms for 'light blue' and 'dark blue' are respectively **gïlgospo** and **gïlgošoi**.

As with any adjectives, color terms can both be attributive and stand as predicates:

(135) **Bakai ḳëšëḍ lo zörvaš mëgely st unoiŋ udešpei.**
everyone 3mfp-know REL sand 3ns-yellow in DAT-this DAT-desert
Everyone knows that sand is yellow in this desert.

(136) **¿Um ŵoig gely? Dëgloikoiḍom na mëm ḍiz dëveḍäk čë.**
NOM.INDF beverage yellow 1s-drink.FUT-COND neg ACC.3ns if 1s-be-SBJV ACC.2s.INFML
A yellow drink? I wouldn't drink it if I were you.

Also like other adjectives, color terms can be turned into substantives using agentive suffixes: **addakei** 'red man', **øšoiki** 'black thing'. Such substantives then denote membership in a class of objects of that color.

5.5   Conventional expressions

While the following expressions are quite standardized, some slight innovation is permissible. When a second-person pronoun is part of an expression, these examples use the formal one, which is normal for situations where two people have recently met; the only exception is in an initial greeting, where the honorific is invariably used. As a general rule, it is also used when speaking to people in a formal or ritual setting, as well as to superiors. Similarly, the humble and familiar pronouns are more common in casual or relaxed settings and among friends. Conversion to the pejorative and intimate pronouns is straightforward.

Pal. Kroiš oix̌. Wolëran oix̌. Yṭuŋ oix̌. Räŋ oix̌. Rašnoikti. Räŋŵök oix̌.
Hello. Good morning. Good afternoon. Good evening. Good day. Welcome. Happy birthday.

¿Juna raši ču? ¿Juna ŵënag? ¿Juhol mëtarüŋ?
How's it going? How do you do? What's new?

Oikti. Neŋgi. Neŋgi na. Oix̌ogdi, is čoi?
Well. Badly. Not badly. Well enough, and you?

Dëtoloven _____. Girkin gondoḍi čo. St ehümble. ¿Ojuhol dënaḍ mëm mïša?
My name is _____. Pleased to meet you. At your service. What can I do for you?

Šai. Yŋ. Veilk. Wo na.
Yes. No. Perhaps. None of your business.

Egirket. Dëḍøx čo. Ḍøxled. Lünduvḍäk zo. Dëfroi.
Please. Thank you. My thanks. Pardon me. I'm sorry.

Jahav. Ḳafu. Wo žëdÿmpaloiḍ. Ŵëbalsuwöḍäk.
Bye. Farewell. Until next time. Be blessed.

6   Dialects

While the dialect described in this grammar is the standard form of Gomain and that which is spoken in Anhrush City and its surroundings, as well as by the national government and media, there are plenty of other dialects of the language throughout the Republic. These esoteric dialects have persisted, despite the spread of the standard dialect through media and improved education. Additional dialects have likewise evolved in the former Anhrushite colonies, many showing significant influence from their respective areas' pre-colonial languages. A detailed description of every Gomain dialect is beyond the scope of this grammar; consequently, the descriptions that follow are only brief overviews of the dialects' main differences from Anhrush Gomain. A more thorough treatment of Gomain dialectology is left for future research.

6.1   Zashavian dialects

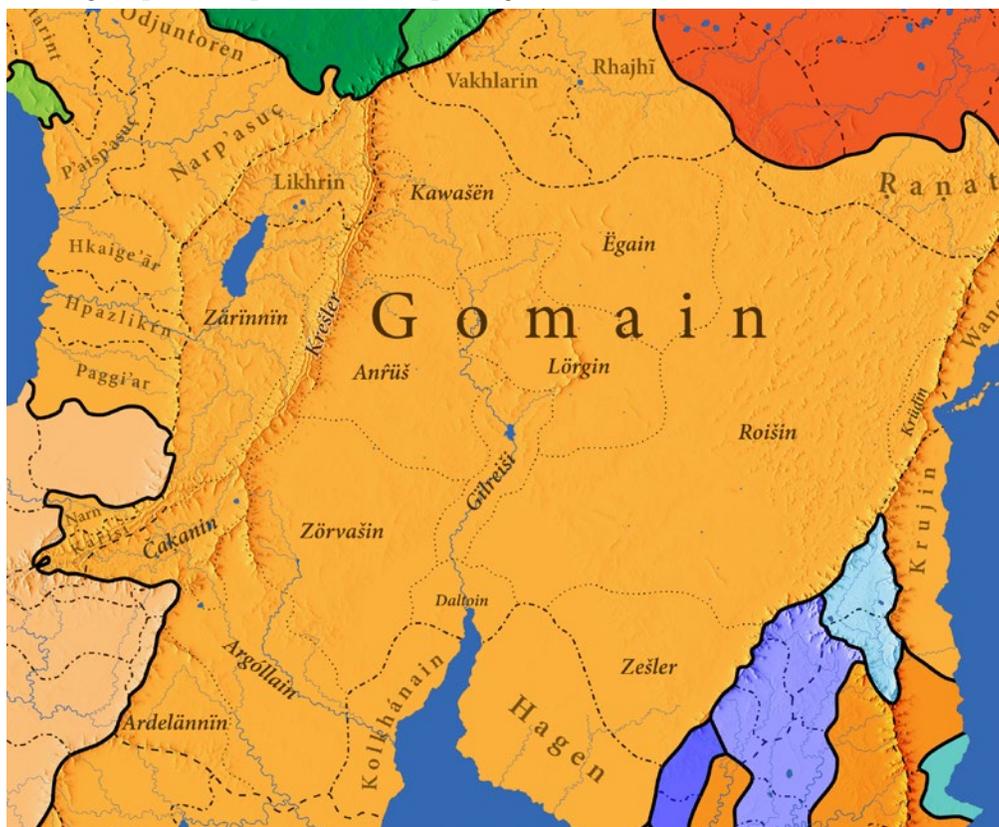The following map should prove useful in placing the dialects described in this section:

Figure 10: Locations of Zashavian Gomain dialects

6.1.1   Zärïnnïn

Zärïnnïn is spoken in the western highlands. It is one of the oldest surviving dialects of Gomain, and as such, it is among the most phonologically different from the Anhrush dialect.

- Word-initial **ŋ** has been retained (**ŋa** "not")
- **Ö** and **a** have merged into a single vowel, written as **a**
- Unstressed tense vowels are laxed
- The clusters **tj** and **dj** have been retained (**tjaŋŕ** "refuse")
- **E** is pronounced [e] in open syllables
- **Ķ** is pronounced [ç] before front vowels and [x] before back vowels
- The Anhrushite affricates [pf bv kx gɣ] have become [p b k g] instead of [f v x h]
- The medial clusters **rl** and **lr** have been retained
- **Ŕ** is an approximant instead of a trill
- The first vowel of the falling diphthongs is lowered (thus they are [ɑj ɑw ɛj ɔj])

An innovation in Zarinnin is the use of different pronouns in the dative case; these are simply the accusative pronouns with **wë**- affixed at their beginnings (except for the 3rd singular feminine pronoun, which is **weš**).

6.1.2   Krešler

Spoken in the Great Kresh Mountains between the desert and the highlands, Krešler is perhaps the most conservative of all the dialects. Its speakers are often lampooned as hillbillies, and its conservative nature has led to a popular myth that it is actually a form of Late Anhrushite.

- Word-initial **ŋ** has been retained
- **Ö** and **a** have merged into a single vowel
- Unstressed tense vowels are laxed
- The clusters **tj** and **dj** have been retained
- **E** is pronounced [e] in open syllables
- The Anhrushite affricates [pf bv kx gɣ] have become [p b k g] instead of [f v x h]
- The medial clusters **rl** and **lr** have been retained
- The clusters **sj** and **zj** have been retained (**sjandõ** "drunk")
- Nasals are allowed to follow liquids (**fegakerpalmem** "paranoia")
- Word-final **h** has been retained

Like Zärïnnïn, Krešler uses innovated dative pronouns. It also uses **am** as a definite article instead of a genitive preposition, opting instead to use the possessive suffixes.

6.1.3   Lörgin

This central dialect is the most similar to Anhrush, being neither very conservative nor very innovative. As such, many speakers of Anhrush Gomain have no trouble understanding it.

- **Ö** and **a** have merged into a single vowel
- Unstressed tense vowels are laxed
- The clusters **tj** and **dj** have been retained
- **Ģ** [ɣ] has been retained between vowels
- **Č** and **ǯ** have merged with **š** and **ž**, respectively
- The medial clusters **rl** and **lr** have been retained

6.1.4   Roišin

Speakers of Roišin, the dialect of the eastern Amanha Desert, are often considered rustics because of their mainly rural lifestyle. It is uncommon in the few cities of the region, where people instead speak Anhrush Gomain.

- **Ģ** [ɣ] has been retained between vowels
- **Č** and **ǯ** have merged with **š** and **ž**, respectively
- **H** has been lost
- Final alveolar and velar palatalized stops have further palatalized to postalveolar affricates
- **E** is pronounced [e] in open syllables
- **Ķ** is pronounced [ç] before front vowels and [x] before back vowels
- The Anhrushite affricates [pf bv kx gɣ] have become [p b k g] instead of [f v x ɣ]

While Anhrush places quantifiers before their head nouns, Roišin places them immediately after the noun. It has thus become more consistently head-initial. Roišin also is one of the dialects that use negative concord.

6.1.5   Krüḍïn

The Krüḍïn dialect is spoken in the central Krüḍïn coast, surrounding the port city of Glïndrač, as well as nearby areas of desert and scrubland. Sandwiched between two sister languages of Gomain, it shows influence from both.

- Word-initial **ŋ** has been retained
- **H** has been lost
- Final alveolar and velar palatalized stops have further palatalized to postalveolar affricates
- **E** is pronounced [e] in open syllables

- Ķ is pronounced [ç] before front vowels and [x] before back vowels
- The Anhrushite affricates [pf bv kx gɣ] have become [p b k g] instead of [f v x ɣ]
- Ģ [ɣ] has been retained
- The diphthongs **ju** and **jü** are falling diphthongs [iw ɪw]

Krüḑïn uses different past-tense suffixes from the other dialects, similar to its neighbors; its suffixes are wholly derived from the Classical Anhrushite aorist endings. Like Roišin, Krüḑïn uses negative concord.

6.1.6   Gïlreiši

Despite the fact that it is spoken in the heavily-populated Gïlrei River valley, Gïlreiši has resisted many of the changes that occurred in Anhrush. In addition, it has retained several features from late Anhrushite.

- Ģ [ɣ] has been retained between vowels
- Word-initial **ŋ** has been retained
- Unstressed tense vowels are laxed
- The clusters **tj** and **dj** have been retained
- **E** is pronounced [e] in open syllables
- The Anhrushite affricates [pf bv kx gɣ] have become [p b k g] instead of [f v x ɣ]
- The medial clusters **rl** and **lr** have been retained
- **Ŕ** is an approximant

Speakers of Gïlreiši are noteworthy for being able to drop the complementizer **lo**, unlike the other dialects.

6.1.7   Daltoin

Daltoin is the dialect of the lower Gïlrei Valley and the city of Dalto. Like neighboring Gïlreiši, Daltoin is a conservative dialect, a point of pride for its speakers.

- Ģ [ɣ] has been retained between vowels
- Word-initial **ŋ** has been retained
- **Ö** and **a** have merged into a single vowel
- The clusters **tj** and **dj** have been retained
- **E** is pronounced [e] in open syllables
- The Anhrushite affricates [pf bv kx gɣ] have become [p b k g] instead of [f v x ɣ]
- **Ŕ** is an approximant
- The first vowel of the falling diphthongs is lowered (thus they are [ɑj ɑw ɛj ɔj])

A distinct feature of Daltoin is its lack of the indefinite article; it therefore has no articles at all.

6.1.8   Ëgain

Inhabitants of the provinces of Yŕana and Wäklar, in the northern plains, speak a dialect known as Ëgain, or Northern. While less different from Anhrush than other dialects, it contains a few innovations, especially in its phonology.

- Unstressed vowels are reduced to schwa
- **Ö** and **a** have merged into a single vowel
- The clusters **tj** and **dj** have been retained
- **H** has been lost
- Ķ is pronounced [ç] before front vowels and [x] before back vowels
- The first vowel of the falling diphthongs is lowered

Ëgain has eliminated the genitive suffixes of the standard language, denoting possession only with am. Like Roišin, it uses negative concord.

6.1.9   Kawašën

Some consider Kawašën a transition zone between Gomain and one of its sister languages, Rhajhī. While it shares some features with that language, it is still fairly similar to standard Gomain.

- The dental and alveolar fricatives have merged to **s** and **z**
- Unstressed vowels are reduced to schwa

- **Ö** and **a** have merged into a single vowel
- **H** has been lost
- **Ķ** is pronounced [ç] before front vowels and [x] before back vowels
- The first vowel of the falling diphthongs is raised (thus they are [æj æw ej uj])
- Stops are unaspirated
- The diphthongs **ju** and **jü** are falling diphthongs [iw ɪw]

In addition to the standard verb subject agreement, Kawašën requires the use of subject pronouns. This is one of the features it shares with Rhajhī, in addition to negative concord.

6.1.10 Zörvašin

Spoken in the southwestern Amanha Desert, Zörvašin is somewhat of a transitional area between Anhrush to its north and Argóllain to its south.

- Word-initial **ŋ** has been retained
- **Č** and **ǯ** have merged with **š** and **ž**, respectively
- Final alveolar and velar palatalized stops have further palatalized to postalveolar affricates
- The Anhrushite affricates [pf bv kx] have been retained, while [gɣ] has become [g]
- The medial clusters **rl** and **lr** have been retained
- **Ŕ** is an approximant
- Stops are unaspirated
- The diphthongs **ju** and **jü** are falling diphthongs [iw ɪw]
- Word-final **h** has been retained

Zörvašin inverts the usual time-manner-place order of adjunct noun phrases, instead using place-manner-time order.

6.1.11 Argóllain

Argóllain, spoken in the south of the Gomain-speaking area, is sometimes incorrectly called a creole between Gomain and the Argóllan language that was originally spoken where this dialect is now spoken. This confusion is mainly due to a few similarities it shares with Argóllan, mainly in its syntax.

- Word-initial **ŋ** has been retained
- **Č** and **ǯ** have merged with **š** and **ž**, respectively
- Final alveolar and velar palatalized stops have further palatalized to postalveolar affricates
- **E** is pronounced [e] in open syllables
- The Anhrushite affricates [pf bv kx] have been retained, while [gɣ] has become [g]
- The medial clusters **rl** and **lr** have been retained
- **Ŕ** is an approximant
- Stops are unaspirated

The influence of Argóllan can be seen in this dialect's use of SOV word order in most sentences, as well as in its cliticization of those prepositions of place which begin with a consonant. This latter development came about under the influence of Argóllan's extensive case system.

6.1.12 Čaķanin

The southwestern dialect, Čaķanin, is one of the more innovative dialects. It also contains some holdovers from the time of Classical Anhrushite, including one from the original language of the region.

- The dental and alveolar fricatives have merged to s and z
- Intervocalic consonants are voiced
- Final alveolar and velar palatalized stops have further palatalized to postalveolar affricates
- E is pronounced [e] in open syllables
- The Anhrushite affricates [pf bv kx] have been retained, while [gɣ] has become [h]
- The first vowel of the falling diphthongs is raised (thus they are [æj æw ej uj])
- Stops are unaspirated
- The diphthongs ju and jü are falling diphthongs [iw ɪw]

Čaḳanin is most notable for its penultimate stress pattern, inherited from the Chakhani language of millennia ago – a major departure from the standard language and even the other dialects. Also, like Zörvašin, Čaḳanin uses place-manner-time order for adjuncts.

6.1.13   Ardelännïn

The dialect with the fewest speakers, Ardelännïn is widely considered a backwoods, rustic dialect. It shares some features with its neighbor dialects, Argóllain and Chakhanin, and is influenced by the Ardelanni language to its south.

* The dental and alveolar fricatives have merged to **s** and **z**
* Unstressed tense vowels are laxed
* Intervocalic consonants are voiced
* Final alveolar and velar palatalized stops have further palatalized to postalveolar affricates
* **E** is pronounced [e] in open syllables
* The Anhrushite affricates [pf bv kx] have been retained, while [gɣ] has become [h]
* Stops are unaspirated
* The diphthongs **ju** and **jü** are falling diphthongs

Like Argóllain, Ardelännïn has SOV word order. Also, it has the adjunct noun phrase order place-manner-time, like Chakhanin and Zörvashin.

6.1.14   Zešler

Zešler is the dialect of the southeast, and as its name (roughly meaning "plainish") implies, it is mostly spoken in the Rali Savanna. It contains several innovations, perhaps more than any other dialect.

* The dental and alveolar fricatives have merged to **s** and **z**
* **Č** and **ʒ** have merged with **š** and **ž**, respectively
* Intervocalic consonants are voiced
* **H** has been lost
* **Ḳ** is pronounced [ç] before front vowels and [x] before back vowels
* The first vowel of the falling diphthongs is raised (thus they are [æj æw ej uj])
* The diphthongs **ju** and **jü** are falling diphthongs

A minor innovation of Zešler is its tendency to slip into the present tense after a main verb in the future tense.

Appendix A: Paradigms of classless irregular verbs

Presented in this appendix are the paradigms of Gomain's 13 classless irregular verbs. Only the paradigms of stem verbs are presented here; any verbs which are derived from these verbs are listed after each verb's paradigm. For the sake of brevity, only the irregular parts of each paradigm are included; any forms not shown in a given paradigm are formed according to the regular rules discussed in section 3.2.1 on page 16.

Intransitive verbs, and verbs for which a passive interpretation would be nonsensical, list only active forms, as those are the only forms that said verbs have. Where listed, singular imperative forms precede plural ones, and both active forms precede the passive ones. In the present tenses, the active singular imperative forms are also used for the subjunctive and obligative moods.

ve "be"

Simple infinitive: **veji**
Perfect infinitive: **vejy**

Tenses

	Past		Present		Future	
	Singular	**Plural**	**Singular**	**Plural**	**Singular**	**Plural**
Simple	vëŋ	vŕŋ	ve	vø	vïḍ	vŕḍ
Perfect	vejüŋ	vŕjüŋ	veju	vŕju	vewuḍ	vŕwuḍ

Moods

		Cond.	**Cohort.**	**Hypoth.**	**Potent.**	**Deduct.**	**Dubit.**	**Subj.**	**Imp.**	**Interrog.**
Present	**Singular**	vøm	vøk	vøb	vøf	vøs	vønh	väk	veit	vïl
	Plural	vrøm	vrøk	vrøb	vrøf	vrøs	vrønh	vräk	vreit	vrïl
Present Perfect	**Singular**	vejum	vejuk	vejub	vejuf	vejus	vejunh	vejäk	vejeit	vejïl
	Plural	vŕjum	vŕjuk	vŕjub	vŕjuf	vŕjus	vŕjunh	vŕjäk	vŕjeit	vŕjïl

Participles
      Past: **vẽi**
      Present: **vez**
      Future: **veţ**

Gerund: **vejau**

Formal imperatives: **väk**, **väč**
Informal imperatives: **veit**, **veič**

Agentives
      Masculine: **vei**
      Feminine: **veis**
      Neuter: **vĭ**

več "become"

Simple infinitive: **veči**
Perfect infinitive: **večy**

Tenses

	Past		Present		Future	
	Singular	**Plural**	**Singular**	**Plural**	**Singular**	**Plural**
Simple	veko	vøko	več	vøč	večoit	vøčoit
Perfect	vekau	vøkau	vetčau	vøtčau	večait	vøčait

Participles
      Past: **čem**
      Present: **žem**
      Future: **zdem**

Gerund: večau

Formal imperatives: **vegäk**, **vegäķ**
Informal imperatives: **vjit**, **vjič**

Derived verb: **ekveč** "turn into"

nag "do"

Infinitives
      Active simple: **nei**
      Passive simple: **naje**
      Active perfect: **ny**
      Passive perfect: **nø**

Tenses

		Past	Present	Future
Active	Simple	nauŋ	nag	naḍ
	Perfect	noŋ	nau	nagauḍ
Passive	Simple	naŋ	naᶾ	niḍ
	Perfect	naiŋ	naᶾai	nagaiḍ

Participles

	Active	Passive
Past	nanẽi	nanen
Present	nëgz	nëx
Future	naţ	nav

Gerund: **nakau**
Gerund locative: **naxau**

Formal imperatives: **nakäk, nakäķ, nakök, naköķ**
Informal imperatives: **naglit, naglič, naglyt, naglyč**

Agentives
      Masculine: **naxei**
      Feminine: **nagzeis**
      Neuter: **nagi**
Neuter patientive: **nagä**

Derived verbs: **dÿnnag** "repeat", **nag okaipälkei** "testify", **nag okaipällokrep** "perjure oneself", **nag ôrikj** "disguise oneself", **ŵenag** "be a hypocrite"

kaᶾ "have"

Infinitives
      Active simple: **kaži**
      Passive simple: **kaže**
      Active perfect: **kažy**
      Passive perfect: **kažø**

Tenses

		Past	Present	Future
Active	**Simple**	kauoŋ	kaǯ	koid
	Perfect	kauauŋ	kaǯau	kaud
Passive	**Simple**	kauüŋ	kaǯu	kaid
	Perfect	kauïŋ	kaǯai	kaïd

Participles

	Active	Passive
Past	kãi	kän
Present	käz	käx
Future	käţ	käv

Gerund: **kaǯau**

Formal imperatives: **kaǯäk, kaǯäķ, kaǯök, kaǯöķ**
Informal imperatives: **kauleit, kauleič, kauloit, kauloič**

Agentives
  Masculine: **kazgei**
  Feminine: **kazgeis**
  Neuter: **kazgi**
Patientives
  Masculine: **kazgai**
  Feminine: **kazgais**
  Neuter: **kazgä**

Derived verbs: **ŵeiţkaǯ** "exclude", **stukaǯ** "include", **paukaǯ** "hear", **nŕkaǯ** "tolerate"

afu "go"

Simple infinitive: **avi**
Perfect infinitive: **avy**

Tenses

	Past	Present	Future
Simple	eiŋ	afu	aḍ
Perfect	auŋ	ahu	aţu

Participles
  Past: **aven**
  Present: **avez**
  Future: **avet**

Gerund: **avau**

Formal imperatives: **ak, aķ**
Informal imperatives: **afeit, afeič**

Neuter agentive: **affi**

Derived verbs: **oidafu** "chase", **wafu** "attend", **ŵeiţafu** "emit", **bwafu** "fit together", **wehafu** "go to waste", **nowafu** "cross", **benwafu** "circulate", **kösafu** "go to meet", **luwafu** "go away", **vohafu** "pass under", **benafu** "act as agent", **stowafu** "go into", **danafu** "go before"

šëḍ "know"

Infinitives
>   Active simple: **ši**
>   Passive simple: **še**
>   Active perfect: **šy**
>   Passive perfect: **šø**

Tenses

		Past	Present	Future
Active	**Simple**	šŕŋ	šëḍ	šŕḍ
	Perfect	šoŋ	šŕau	šoḍ
Passive	**Simple**	šüŋ	šu	šøḍ
	Perfect	šyŋ	ši	šïḍ

Participles

	Active	Passive
Past	šëwẽi	šëwen
Present	šez	šex
Future	šeit	šeib

Gerund: **šëwau**
Gerund locative: **šërau**

Formal imperatives: **štäk, štäḳ, štök, štöḳ**
Informal imperatives: **šteit, šteič, štoit, štoič**

Agentives
>   Masculine: **šei**
>   Feminine: **šeis**

Patientives
>   Masculine: **šai**
>   Feminine: **šais**
>   Neuter: **šä**

Derived verbs: **eẍëḍ** "make known", **eššëḍ** "come to know", **ŕŋälšëḍ** "foreknow", **tušëḍ** "learn", **naušëḍ** "not know"

darúd "think"

Infinitives
>   Active simple: **darúḍi**
>   Passive simple: **darúḍe**
>   Active perfect: **darúḍy**
>   Passive perfect: **darúḍø**

Tenses

		Past	Present	Future
Active	**Simple**	darŕŋ	darúd	daríḍ
	Perfect	darúŋ	darúʒau	darúḍ
Passive	**Simple**	darŕ́ŋ	darúʒu	darŕ́ḍ
	Perfect	darŕ̈ŋ	darúʒai	daraiḍ

Participles

	Active	Passive
Past	darúndẽi	darúnden
Present	darúndez	darúndex
Future	darúndeţ	darúndev

Gerund: **darúḍau**
Gerund locative: **darúdzarau**

Formal imperatives: **darúḍäk, darúḍäķ, darúḍök, darúḍöķ**

Agentives
      Masculine: **darúdgei**
      Feminine: **darúdgeis**
      Neuter: **darúdgi**
Neuter patientive: **darúdgä**

Derived verb: **mïštarúd** "listen"

eŋ "eat"

Infinitives
      Active simple: **eŋǯi**
      Passive simple: **eŋǯe**
      Active perfect: **eŋǯy**
      Passive perfect: **eŋǯø**

Tenses

		Past	Present	Future
Active	**Simple**	joŋ	eŋ	eŋoiḍ
	Perfect	jauŋ	eŋčau	eŋauḍ
Passive	**Simple**	jüŋ	eŋču	eŋöḍ
	Perfect	jïŋ	eŋčai	eŋaiḍ

Gerund: **eŋǯau**
Gerund locative: **eŋxarau**

Formal imperatives: **eŋǯäk, eŋǯäķ, eŋǯök, eŋǯöķ**
Informal imperatives: **eŋgleit, eŋgleič, eŋgloit, eŋgloič**

Derived verbs: **krideŋ** "read", **leŋ** "eat out", **steŋ** "eat in", **naueŋ** "fast"

sul "take"

Infinitives
      Active simple: **suldi**
      Passive simple: **suţe**
      Active perfect: **suldy**
      Passive perfect: **suţø**

Tenses

		Past	Present	Future
Active	Simple	sum	sul	suv
	Perfect	süŋ	sauž	sauḍ
Passive	Simple	stöŋ	sužu	sølḍ
	Perfect	sulïŋ	sušai	staiḍ

Participles

	Active	Passive
Past	stẽi	sten
Present	sunes	sunex
Future	sumeţ	sumev

Gerund: **sudlau**
Gerund locative: **sutsarau**

Agentives
       Masculine: **sugei**
       Feminine: **sugeis**
       Neuter: **ski**
Neuter patientive: **skä**

Derived verbs: **busul** "derive", **wesul** "secure", **dÿntsul** "recover", **stosul** "let in", **vosul** "take up", **bentsul** "intercept", **vämbusul** "integrate"

raši "come"

Tenses

	Past	Present	Future
Simple	rašïŋ	raši	rašiḍ
Perfect	rašëŋ	raššë	rašëḍ

Participles
       Past: **rašẽi**
       Present: **rašeiz**

Informal imperatives: **rašeit, rašeič**

Derived verbs: **dÿndraši** "return here", **bendraši** "intervene", **woraši** "approach", **buraši** "convene", **dandraši** "precede", **benuraši** "circumvent", **voraši** "come to help", **ŵeiţraši** "turn out", **luraši** "come out"

čeţ "sleep"

Simple infinitive: **čeḍḍi**
Perfect infinitive: **čeḍḍy**

Tenses

	Past	Present	Future
Simple	čeŋčë	čeţ	čeţoiḍ
Perfect	čaiŋčë	čečau	čeţauḍ

Participles
       Past: **čenčẽi**
       Present: **čenčez**

Future: **čenčeţ**

Gerund: **čeḍḍau**
Gerund locative: **čedzarau**

Informal imperatives: **četreit, četreič**

Agentives
Masculine: **četkei**
Feminine: **četkeis**
Neuter: **četki**

ërzül "steal"

Tenses

		Past	Present	Future
Active	**Simple**	ërzoŋ	ërzül	ërzüloiḍ
	Perfect	ërzauŋ	ërzülzau	ërzülauḍ
Passive	**Simple**	ërzuŋ	ërzülzu	ërzülöḍ
	Perfect	ërziŋ	ërzülzai	ërzülaiḍ

örp "leap"

Tenses

	Past	Present	Future
Simple	örpjoŋ	örp	örpoiḍ
Perfect	örpjauŋ	öršau	örpauḍ

Participles
Past: **örpjẽi**
Present: **örpjez**
Future: **örpjeţ**

Gerund: **örwau**
Gerund locative: **öpsarau**

Formal imperatives: **örwäk, örwäḳ**

Agentives
Masculine: **örkeip**
Feminine: **örkeips**
Neuter: **örkip**

Appendix B: Naming practices in Anhrushite culture

The clan system

Anhrushite society has been based on a system of **Îyzgja**, or clans, since at least the early Imperial period. The original set of clans is believed to have arisen from the families that inhabited Anhrush City and the surrounding area around the time of the city's incorporation; as these families grew, it became necessary to divide them into smaller units, which became the **kolomha** or families of today. There were originally about 25 clans in the area within 30 miles of Anhrush City, but as the city expanded its influence, more and more families in the Amanha Desert came to be considered clans. Eventually, new additions to the Anhrushite state ceased adopting the clan structure, and the number of clans became limited to the 144 clans of today.

Due to the importance of the clan system in society, the clan name is the first of an Anhrushite's traditional three names. The family name comes last, after the given name and any nicknames or patronymics the individual might have. Clan names are almost entirely of obscure origin and often are unanalyzable. Many of them are believed to have come from the lost substrate language spoken by the pre-Hamitic inhabitants of the desert, which remains undeciphered. A handful of clan names, however, can be analyzed, based on the identification of Old Anhrushite roots contained in them.

On the other hand, family names are often analyzable, as they came into existence more recently. Many are derived from toponyms, since many early families distinguished themselves from others in the same clan by their hometown or home province. Other families are named after their first patriarch, and so derive from personal names. Still others come from adjectives, which were often used by non-family members to describe families. Some family names are found in multiple clans; most of these families are unrelated to one another, their shared names arising from the families living in the same area or simply being given the same adjectival name.

Upon marriage, women customarily take their husband's family name while retaining her clan name. This practice reflects Anhrushite social views: a wife is considered part of her husband's family, but she remains part of the clan she was born into. In large part, this is due to clans being both patriarchal and patrilineal; by keeping her clan name, a woman's ancestry remains easy to trace. The couple's children then take the husband's clan and family names, in keeping with the clan's aforementioned patrilineal nature.

Personal names

When a child is born to Anhrushite parents, they typically give it a name that expresses either the circumstances of the child's birth or their hopes for its future. As such, Anhrushite personal names are very descriptive, often deriving from whole clauses or compounds. At the same time, however, they must balance this preference for descriptiveness with a need for parsimony. To accomplish these goals that are in constant tension, the phrases from which names are derived undergo a process of condensation that strips out all unnecessary sounds while keeping word stems recognizable. This process is broadly similar to that by which compounds are formed, as explained in section 3.7.4, except that the more aggressive forms of morpheme reduction are the dominant form of sandhi working to produce reasonably short names from potentially long phrases. Certain morphemes are especially subject to this process and may be reduced to as little as a single segment, if anything at all. Consider the following examples:

The copula **ve** is reduced to **v** if it is between two vowels; otherwise, it is simply omitted:

(137a)   **Jave gëve umïkailed → Ja-v-umïkai-l** "Jave is my light" (♂)
(b)   **jauled gëve wambet → Jau-v-wambet** "my God is abundance" (♀)
(c)   **efaugled mëve anh → Fau-v-anh** "my home is the spring" (♂/♀)
(d)   **audled (gëve) šerimgjø → Aud-l-eriŋ** "my father is the judge" (♂)
(e)   **ŵindled (mëve) feigoķ → Ŵin-eigoķ** "my people is (a) fountain" (♀)
(f)   **audled (gëve) šalom → Aud-ƺalom** "my father is peace" (♂)

Possessive suffixes may be reduced to **l** or **lë**, if they are retained at all:

(138a)   **Jave gëve jauled → Jav-jau-l** "Jave is my God" (♂)
(b)   **Jave gëve audled →Jav-aud-lë** "Jave is my father" (♂/♀)
(c)   **eršatedlem ŵĩ → Eršad-wĩ** "strength of the people" (♂)
(d)   **audled (gëve) táltoi → Au-táltoi** "my father is joy" (♀)

Subject agreement prefixes are omitted entirely, unless the phrase begins with one:

(139a)   **jau gëṭarḳoŋ** → **Jau-ṭarḳoŋ** "God helped" (♂)
(b)   **dëve r̂oŋga** → **Dë-r̂oŋga** "I am music" (♀)
(c)   **jëve (um) aŋkrau** → **J-aŋkrau** "she is a garden" (♀)
(d)   **jau gëkanr̂o** → **Jaukanr̂o** "God rises" (♂)

A number of derivational morphemes are severely reduced or outright omitted, but may leave traces behind:

(140a)   **gwŕfedlem ŵĭ** → **Gwŕf-wĭ** "victory of the people" (♂)
(b)   **girkedled (mëve) stei** → **Girk-e-stei** "my delight is in her" (♀)
(c)   **jau gekkalŕ** → **Jau-k-kalŕ** "God makes happy" (♀)
(d)   **Jave gektokra** → **Ja-k-tokra**"Jave sets free" (♂)
(e)   **jau gekeršat** → **Jau-k-eršat** "God strengthens" (♂)
(f)   **šĭvlem egdavöret** → **Šĭ-g-davör-t** "son of encouragement" (♂)

Astute readers have doubtless noticed the frequent appearance of **jau** "God" and the divine name **Jave** in these names. Names of this sort are quite common in Anhrushite society, even among non-Javites, due to the religion's long-running influence on national culture. In names that use it, the divine name is typically reduced to **Ja** or **Jav**, as many of the above examples show.

While phrase-based names like the above are common, some Anhrushite names are simple nouns or noun-adjective blends. Such relatively simple names have always been popular, although they tend to be more so outside Javite communities. These names often show less phonological reduction than phrasal names, although some are reduced because they would otherwise be too long. Single-word names often show no reduction at all, as is the case for the names in example (141):

(141a)   **Aiet** "breath" (♀)
(b)   **Ŕsus** "trouble" (♂)
(c)   **Freiet** "answer" (♂)
(d)   **Fyždë** "palm tree" (♀)

This lack of reduction also extends to names that include a possessive suffix:

(142a)   **Krepedled** "my truth" (♂/♀)
(b)   **Weiŋglokeiled** "my messenger" (♂)
(c)   **L̂odulei** "her silver" (♀)
(d)   **Fŕdleg** "his favor" (♀)

In noun-adjective compound names, meanwhile, the extent of morpheme reduction is generally limited to the vicinity of the morpheme boundary, unless either component is very long. Consider the names in example (143), and note the limited sandhi that takes place:

(143a)   **ḍïnd wrïn** → **Ḍïnd-rïn** "high mountain" (♂)
(b)   **ož rïnden** → **Ör-žïnden** "exalted nation" (♂)
(c)   **gwŕfet oiX̌** → **Gwŕf-oiX̌** "good victory" (♀)
(d)   **deš mosen** → **Deš-osen** "wanted child" (♀)
(e)   **umïkai ketso** → **Umï-ketso** "righteous light" (♂)
(f)   **börḍ kirb** → **Bör-girb** "bright moon" (♀)
(g)   **girkinčem einžë** → **GirX̌-enžë** "soft pleasantness" (♀)
(h)   **gasnörŋäläg krep** → **Gasnälä-krep** "true prophecy" (♂)

When a name with a given meaning already exists, it typically is only available for males. Although names may sometimes simply become unisex (as examples (137c), (138b), and (142a) above show by the gender symbols following them), the more common solution is to feminize the name in one of two ways. The preferred way is to apply the derivational suffix **-j**, which as mentioned in section 3.7.1 descends from the Anhrushite feminine ending. Examples (144a-f) demonstrate this suffix being applied to a selection of names, triggering morphophonological changes where necessary; in particular, (b) and (d) show that the suffix forms diphthongs with a final vowel, while (e-f) show the palatalizing effect it has on coronal obstruents:

(144a)   **Wambyn** (♂) → **Wambyn-j** (♀) "abundant"
(b)   **Oilḵägja** (♂) → **Oilḵägja-i** (♀) "gift of Jave"
(c)   **Javaumïk** (♂) → **Javaumïk-j** (♀) "Jave is great"
(d)   **Jaukanr̂o** (♂) → **Jaukanr̂o-i** (♀) "God rises"
(e)   **Ŵinŕkot** (♂) → **Ŵinŕkoč** [tj] (♀) "my people is noble"
(f)   **Jaubed** (♂) → **Jaubeʒ** [dj] (♀) "God is with me"

The second option is to add a form of the usual feminine prefix **eis-**, which may or may not be phonetically reduced; common reduced forms are **ei-** (as in examples (145a-c)) and **s-**, the latter voicing to **z-** when followed by a voiced obstruent (both variants of this form can be seen in examples (145d-f) below):

(145a)   **Dlog** (♂) → **Ei-dlog** (♀) "dove"
(b)   **Jašuwet** (♂) → **Ei-ašuwet** (♀) "Jave is salvation"
(c)   **Auʒa** (♂) → **Ei-auʒa** (♀) "my father is Jave"
(d)   **Ḍedẽ** (♂) → **S-tedẽ** (♀) "the rock"
(e)   **Ketso** (♂) → **S-ketso** (♀) "righteous"
(f)   **Gёšёḍ** (♂) → **Z-gёšёḍ** (♀) "he knows"

Nicknames

Even with the extensive phonological reductions which names undergo, many are not used in everyday conversation due to their length. Instead, one of various possible nicknames is preferred; the exact one used depends on familiarity with the addressee and relative social status. Among friends and close family members, a simple diminutive is preferred; such diminutives are formed from a prominent syllable in the name and the regular diminutive suffix **-zë**. This "prominent syllable" is often chosen to keep the nickname distinct but is usually either the syllable with primary stress or the heaviest syllable in the name. Example (146) gives a variety of nicknames and the names from which they derive:

(146a)   **Jauvwambet** → **Wambzë**   (g)   **Jauṭarḵoŋ** → **Ṭarzë**
(b)   **Börgirb** → **Börzë**   (h)   **Girkestei** → **Girzë**
(c)   **Šïgdavört** → **Dazë**   (i)   **Dёr̂oŋa** → **R̂oŋgzë**
(d)   **Eršadwĭ** → **Šadzë**   (j)   **Gasnäläkrep** → **Gazë**
(e)   **Auʒa** → **Auzë**   (k)   **Jaktokra** → **Toxë**
(f)   **Weiŋglokeiled** → **Weizë**   (l)   **Eidlog** → **Dlozë**

A less familiar form of nickname uses the same "prominent syllable" as these diminutives, but replaces the diminutive suffix with either the next consonant in the name or nothing at all. These nicknames are commonly-used short forms of names and are suitable for use in virtually any situation. Some shorter names do not have these short forms, simply because they are unnecessary with names that are sufficiently short. Example (147) features short-form nicknames for some of those names that have them:

(147a)   **Ŵinŕkoč** → **Ŵin**   (i)   **Jaukeršat** → **Kerš**
(b)   **Jašuwet** → **Jaš**   (j)   **Javaumïk** → **Vau**
(c)   **Jaktokra** → **Tokrë**   (k)   **Gwŕfwĭ** → **Fwĭ**
(d)   **Javumïkail** → **Vum**   (l)   **Jaukanr̂o** → **Kanr̂ë**
(e)   **Šïgdavört** → **Dav**   (m)   **Gasnäläkrep** → **Gas**
(f)   **Jauṭarḵoŋ** → **Ṭarḵ**   (n)   **Umïketso** → **Ket**
(g)   **Weiŋglokeiled** → **Wei**   (o)   **Öržïnden** → **Örž**
(h)   **Jaukkalŕ** → **Kal**   (p)   **Ŵïneigoḵ** → **Neig**

In certain uncommon circumstances, the process of forming a short-form nickname may lead to the nickname ending in an illegal coda which would make a legal onset. In such situations, a schwa is added to the end of the nickname; such schwas are subject to the allophony mentioned at the end of section 2.2 and therefore rarely pronounced (in contrast, the final schwa of the diminutives receives secondary stress to prevent its loss, which could make certain diminutives indistinguishable from their corresponding short-form nicknames). The nicknames in examples (147c) and (l) above demonstrate this extra step.

Patronymics

While Anhrushites are not required to have or use patronymics in modern times, their use has remained modestly popular due to the rise of urban populations as a means of disambiguating members of very large families. They were more commonly used during the Empire, before family names existed, and they remained especially common in the first few centuries after the introduction of family names. It was not until the Argóllan occupation that family names overtook patronymics in popularity, due in part to the occupation's effects on the social fabric and in part to their use by the Argóllans. Their use declined after family names became legally mandated, a couple of centuries after the occupation ended.

The formation of patronymics is straightforward: the derivational suffix **-ent** is added to the father's given name if it ends in a consonant, while **-gjø** is added if it ends in a vowel. Thus the patronymics in example (148), formed from a selection of male names, are representative of patronymics as a whole:

(148a)	**Fauvanh → Fauvanhent**		(i)	**Jaktokra → Jaktokragjø**
(b)	**Ḍïndrïn → Ḍïndrïnent**		(j)	**Umïketso → Umïketsogjø**
(c)	**Jaukeršat → Jaukeršatent**		(k)	**Auẑa → Auẑagjø**
(d)	**Ŵinŕkot → Ŵinŕkotent**		(l)	**Gwŕfwĩ → Gwŕfwiŋgjø**
(e)	**Javjaul → Javjaulent**		(m)	**Jaukanr̂o → Jaukanr̂ogjø**
(f)	**Gëšëḍ → Gëšëḍent**		(n)	**Oiḻk̆ägja → Oiḻk̆ägjagjø**
(g)	**Jaubed → Jaubedent**		(o)	**Ḍedẽ → Ḍedeŋgjø**
(h)	**Auẑalom → Auẑaloment**		(p)	**Audrïnẑu** "my father is exalted" → **Audrïnẑugjø**

For the purposes of this process, names ending in a nasalized vowel still count as ending in a vowel and therefore take **-gjø**, as demonstrated by examples (148l) and (o) above. These examples also show that the usual process of nasal insertion occurs here, with the resulting nasal assimilating to the **g** of the suffix.

Terms of address

The **baxïŋk** or personal name is typically only used to address Anhrushites within the immediate family, along with first cousins. In other situations, several types of formal address are preferred, the exact type depending on the individuals' relative social status. Clansfolk of similar age often call each other **kaiflyzgj** "clansman" or **einiflyzgj** "clanswoman" followed by their respective **bakkolomha** or family names. For equals of similar age, but who belong to different clans, the honorifics **Koiper** for males and **Joiper** for females are most common, followed by the **baṭlyzgj** or clan name. This pattern of using the **baṭlyzgj** with members of other clans and the **bakkolomh** with one's clansfolk repeats when addressing a social superior or inferior, with only the honorific used varying.

The honorifics used when addressing inferiors are straightforward: there are no standard ones used with members of other clans, while clansfolk typically address their inferiors with their relation (if they are also family members) or **afwakei(s)** "youngster". This latter "honorific", if it can be called one, has its origins in relative age being the primary basis for the social hierarchy, but it has been generalized to all inferiors within the clan; thus one may witness a younger authority figure address an older inferior in a manner that seems confusing at first glance. For inferiors within the same religious, academic, or government organization, a general term such as **ümbëkei** "servant" or **tušei** "student" may be used, regardless of clan membership. Otherwise, an inferior non-clansman is usually addressed with their **baṭlyzgj** alone.

When addressing superiors, the choice of honorific depends on a number of factors, including organizational rank, occupation, educational attainment, and clan role. This latter factor only matters when addressing superior clansfolk, however; a clan's **eimaud** "partiarch" and **eimeiv** "matriarch" are usually addressed with those terms, while the honorifics used for other clan leadership are also their titles. **Koiper** and **Joiper** originated as honorifics for other clan superiors before being generalized beyond clan membership; they are now often the default choice of honorific for superiors in every sector of society, besides their adoption by equals. Meanwhile, the honorific **Šëḍeif** is rarely encountered outside of academic settings, as it is reserved for those who hold various high honors bestowed by universities on their graduates and faculty. In other settings, job titles commonly double as honorifics for superiors, while superiors who are neither coworkers nor clansfolk are typically addressed as **eps** "master" or **ikünd** "lord". These honorifics date back to the imperial period, when titles of nobility were created to reward an emperor's more loyal or capable subjects, and have persisted ever since, despite the abolition of the nobility in the centuries after the Argóllan occupation ended.