

A Reference Grammar of the Iridian Language

Ircevní koštgramátik

First Edition

2020

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CONTENTS

List of Tables	xii
List of Figures	xiii
Preface	xv
Abbreviations	xvii
1. An Overview of Iridian	1
1.1. Iridia	I
1.2. The Iridian Language	I
1.3. Word Classes	I
2. Phonology	3
2.1. Introduction	3
2.2. Vowels	3
2.2.1. Oral vowels	3
2.2.2. Diphthongs	5
2.2.3. Vowel Length	5
2.3. Consonants	6
2.3.1. Plosives	6
2.3.2. Nasals	7
2.3.3. Liquids	7
2.3.4. Fricatives and Affricates	8

2.4.	Phonotactics	9
2.4.1.	Syllable structure	9
2.4.2.	Onset	10
2.5.	Suprasegmentals	11
2.5.1.	Stress	11
2.5.2.	Intonation	12
2.6.	Phonological Processes Involving Vowels	12
2.6.1.	Vowel ~ Zero Alternations	12
2.6.2.	Vowel ~ Vowel Alternations	12
2.6.3.	Compensatory vowel lengthening	13
2.7.	Phonological Processes Involving Consonants	13
2.7.1.	Voicing	13
2.7.2.	Intervocalic Lenition	14
2.7.3.	Palatalisation	14
2.8.	Orthographic representation	14
2.8.1.	Alphabet	14
2.8.2.	Orthographic Conventions	15
2.8.3.	Punctuation	15
3.	<i>Verbal morphology and syntax</i>	17
3.1.	Introduction	17
3.2.	Verb stem and order of inflectional affixes	18
3.2.1.	The verb stem	18
3.2.2.	Sound changes	18
3.2.3.	Finite verb endings	19
3.3.	Voice	19
3.3.1.	Morphophonemic changes	19
3.3.2.	Agentive voice	19
3.3.3.	Patientive voice	21
3.3.4.	Benefactive voice	21
3.3.5.	Locative voice	22
3.3.6.	Instrumental voice	22
3.3.7.	Reflexive voice	22
3.4.	Grammatical aspect	23
3.4.1.	Perfective aspect	23
3.4.2.	Retrospective aspect	24

3.4.3.	Continuous and Progressive Aspects	25
3.4.4.	Prospective aspect	26
3.4.5.	Cessative aspect	26
3.5.	Valency	26
3.5.1.	Avalent verbs	26
3.5.2.	Passive constructions	27
3.5.3.	Causative constructions	27
3.5.4.	Reflexive and reciprocal constructions	32
3.6.	Grammatical mood	33
3.6.1.	Indicative	33
3.6.2.	Imperative and hortative mood	33
3.6.3.	Subjunctive	36
3.6.4.	Conditional Mood	39
3.7.	Evidentiality	40
3.8.	Modality	42
3.8.1.	Potential modality	43
3.8.2.	Debitive modality	43
3.8.3.	Periphrastic constructions	43
3.9.	Non-finite verb forms	43
3.9.1.	Infinitive	43
3.9.2.	Nominalised forms and gerunds	44
3.9.3.	Converbs	45
3.9.4.	Supine	46
3.10.	Stative verbs	48
3.10.1.	Copulative and attributive forms	48
3.10.2.	Nominative form	49
3.10.3.	Stative verbs and voice	50
3.11.	Derivational morphology	50
3.11.1.	External derivation	50
3.11.2.	Internal Derivation	51
4.	Nominal morphology	53
4.1.	Grammatical categories	53
4.2.	Number	53
4.3.	Definiteness	57

4.4.	The case system	57
4.4.1.	Declension patterns	57
4.4.2.	Irregular declensions	57
4.4.3.	Uninflected form	57
4.4.4.	Agentive case	57
4.4.5.	Patientive case	58
4.4.6.	Genitive Case	59
4.4.7.	Instrumental case	62
4.4.8.	Vocative Case	62
4.5.	Personal Pronouns	62
4.5.1.	Grammatical person	62
4.5.2.	Strong form	63
4.5.3.	Weak form	63
4.5.4.	Clitic form	63
4.5.5.	Third-Person Pronouns and Demonstratives	63
4.5.6.	Ellipsis	63
4.5.7.	The Reflexive <i>se</i>	63
4.6.	Demonstratives	64
4.7.	Use of Personal Pronouns	67
4.7.1.	T-V Distinction	67
4.8.	Indefinite pronouns and quantifiers	67
4.9.	Interrogative pronouns	67
4.10.	Negative and Universal Pronouns	67
4.11.	Names	68
5.	Minor word classes	69
5.1.	Conjunctions	69
5.1.1.	Connective conjunctions	69
5.2.	Prepositions	70
5.2.1.	<i>na</i>	70
5.2.2.	<i>še</i>	70
5.2.3.	<i>vo</i>	70
5.2.4.	<i>za</i>	70
5.3.	Demonstratives	70
5.4.	Quantifiers	70
5.5.	Interjections	71

5.6.	Discourse particles	72
5.6.1.	Yes and no	72
5.7.	Numerals	72
5.7.1.	Ordinal numbers	74
5.7.2.	Fractions and decimals	75
5.7.3.	Date and time	75
6.	<i>Derivational morphology</i>	77
6.1.	Introduction	77
6.2.	Nominal Derivation	78
6.2.1.	Diminutives and Augmentatives	78
6.2.2.	Nouns from nouns	79
6.2.3.	Nouns From verbs and adjectives	81
6.3.	Verbal Derivation	81
6.4.	Compounding	81
6.5.	Linguistic Borrowing	81
6.5.1.	German and Other Germanic Languages	81
7.	<i>Clause structure</i>	83
7.1.	Introduction	83
7.2.	Topic-predicate constructions	83
7.3.	The noun phrase	85
7.3.1.	Nuclear constructions	85
7.3.2.	With adjectival clauses	85
7.3.3.	With prepositional phrases	85
7.3.4.	With relative clauses	85
7.4.	Topicless sentences	85
7.5.	Definiteness	85
7.6.	Coordination	87
7.7.	Apposition	91
7.8.	Syntax of event and participant nominals	91
7.9.	Subordinate clauses in general	95
7.10.	Clause-linking strategies	95
7.10.1.	Clause-linking with <i>ŕ</i>	95
7.10.2.	Temporal succession and causality	95

7.11. Converbial constructions	96
7.11.1. In general	96
7.11.2. Adverbial converbs	96
7.11.3. Temporal constructions	97
7.11.4. Causal clauses	97
7.11.5. Transgressive clauses	97
7.11.6. In fixed expressions	98
7.12. Quotative constructions and evidentiality	99
7.12.1. Quotative construction in general	99
7.12.2. Quotative constructions and reported speech	100
7.12.3. Bare quotatives and clause linking	103
7.12.4. Epistemic extensions	104
7.13. Relative and comparative constructions	106
7.14. Specific construction types	108
7.14.1. Questions	108
7.14.2. Negation	113
7.14.3. Existential construction	115
7.14.4. Copular constructions	118
8. Semantics and usage	121
8.1. Register	121
8.2. Politeness and forms of address	121
8.2.1. Politeness and formality in Iridian	121
8.2.2. Forms of address, titles, and honorifics	126
8.2.3. Salutations and valedictions in the written language	127
8.3. Phatic Expressions and Social Formulas	129
8.4. Idiomatic Expressions	129
8.5. Punctuation	129
A. Spoken Iridian	133
B. The Dialects of Iridian	135
B.1. Dialects Outside of Iridia	135
B.1.1. Ukrainian Dialects	135

C. Lexicon	137
C.1. Kinship Terms	137
C.1.1. Nuclear Family	137
C.2. Place Names	138
C.2.1. European Countries and Capitals	138
C.3. Medical Terms	139
C.3.1. Parts of the Body	139
D. Sample Texts	141
D.1. The <i>Pater Noster</i>	141
D.2. Milan Kundera, 'A Kidnapped West or the Tragedy of Central Europe'	141
D.3. From the <i>Little Prince</i>	142
D.3.1. Text and translation	142
D.3.2. Glosses	142
D.4. Written Correspondence	142
D.4.1. Formal Business Letter	142
D.4.2. Formal E-mail	142
D.4.3. Informal Letter	142
E. A Brief History of Iridia	143
Bibliography	149
Index	154

LIST OF TABLES

2.1.	Vowel inventory of standard Iridian.	3
2.2.	Orthographic representation of vowels.	4
2.3.	Vowel length and quality.	5
2.4.	Full consonant inventory of standard Iridian.	6
2.5.	Blevin’s criteria as they apply to Iridian.	9
2.6.	Allowed word-initial CC clusters	11
2.7.	The Iridian alphabet.	15
2.8.	Correspondence between the Iridian Latin and Cyrillic scripts.	16
3.1.	Suffixes used to mark grammatical voice.	20
3.2.	Aspect markers in the indicative mood.	23
3.3.	Causative forms of the verb <i>sbradá</i> , ‘to die.’	28
3.4.	Conjugation of the verb <i>piáštá</i> in the imperative and prohibitive moods.	34
3.5.	Conjugation of the verb <i>piáštá</i> in the hortative mood.	36
3.6.	Conjugation of the verb <i>piáštá</i> in the subjunctive.	37
3.7.	Conjugation paradigm in the conditional mood for regular verbs, the copula and the existential particle <i>ješ</i>	39
3.8.	Sound changes used in deriving quotative form of verbs	41
3.9.	Verbal affixes to express modality.	42
3.10.	Endings used for the supine.	46
3.11.	Conjugation pattern for stative verbs	49
3.12.	Verbal Derivational Affixes	51

4.1.	Paradigm endings for the six declension classes.	57
4.2.	Personal pronouns in Iridian	63
4.3.	Declension of the reflexive pronoun <i>se</i>	64
4.4.	Demonstrative pronouns in Iridian.	64
4.5.	Declension of demonstratives.	65
4.6.	Interrogative pronouns in Iridian.	67
4.7.	Correspondence of interrogative, negative and universal pronouns.	68
5.1.	Iridian numerals from 1 to 20.	73
5.2.	Iridian numerals from 30 to 100.	73
5.3.	Iridian numerals from 200 to one billion.	74
5.4.	Months of the year.	76
C.1.	Kinship terms, nuclear family.	137



LIST OF FIGURES

3.1. Voice markings as valence operations in stative verbs. . . . 30

7.1. Nuclear structure of sentences 83



PREFACE

ABBREVIATIONS

Glossing abbreviations

1	first person	DIM	diminutive
2	second person	DUB	dubitative**
3	third person*	EXST	existential particle
ABL	ablative	FOC	focus
ACC	accusative	GEN	genitive
ADE	adessive	GER	gerund
AFFRM	affirmative**	HON	honorific
AGT	agent	HORT	hortative
ATT	attributive	INCEP	inceptive
AV	active voice	INFER	inferential**
BEN	benefactive	INS	instrumental
CAUS	causative	IPF	imperfect
COM	comitative	LAT	lative
COMP	comparative	LNK	linking particle
CONT	continuous	LOC	locative
COP	copula	LV	locative voice
CTPV	contemplative	M	masculine
CV	converb	MED	medial
DEB	debitive	N	negative
DEM	demonstrative	NEG	negative

NOM	nominative*	REFL	reflexive
NZ	nominalizer	REL	relative
OBL	oblique	REP	reportative**
PF	perfective	RET	retrospective aspect
PFV	perfective*	RZ	relativizer
PL	plural	SBJ	subjunctive mood
POT	potential mood	SG	singular
PROG	progressive	STR	strong form
PROX	proximal	SUBJ	subjunctive
PV	passive voice	SUP	supine
Q	question particle	SUP.N	supine of necessity
QP	quotative particle	SUP.P	supine of purpose
QT	quotative	WK	weak form
REC	reciprocative		

* These are glosses for grammatical terms seen in examples from other languages that are not in use in Iridian.

** These do not represent grammatical categories used in Iridian but were chosen *hanc ob causam* to approximate the grammatical function of various particles.

Abbreviation of language names

CZ	Czech	EN	English
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Abbreviation of language names

Cz.	Czech
Eng.	English
Fr.	French
Ger.	German
Gk.	Greek
Hu.	Hungarian
It.	Italian
Lat.	Latin
OCS	Old Church Slavonic
Pol.	Polish
Rus.	Russian
Sl.	Common Slavic/Slavonic
Slk.	Slovakian
Uk.	Ukrainian

Other Symbols

C	consonant
Cʲ	palatalized consonant
D	voiced stop
N	nasal consonant
P	stop
T	unvoiced stop
V	vowel
Ť	nasalized vowel
V _u	unstable vowel
< >	orthographic representation
//	phonemic transcription
[]	phonetic transcription
~	alternates with

AN OVERVIEW OF IRIDIAN

1.1 Iridia

1.2 The Iridian Language

1.3 Word Classes

Traditional Iridian grammar classifies words into three types: **lóihnelý** (verbs), **zesztelý** (nouns), and **múisztelý** (function words)

PHONOLOGY

2.1 Introduction

This chapter provides an overview of the phonology of Iridian. The phonetic descriptions provided here are in IPA based on the standard dialect of Iridian (as spoken in Roubže and surrounding areas),

2.2 Vowels

2.2.1 Oral vowels

Iridian has five pairs of corresponding long and short vowels. With the exception of /a a:/, long vowels are tenser than their short counterparts. In addition standard Iridian also features the high central vowel [ɨ] as an allophone of /ɛ/ and /ɪ/ and the low central [ɐ] as an allophone of /a/, in unstressed positions. As in Czech,

Table 2.1. Vowel inventory of standard Iridian.

	FRONT	CENTRAL	BACK
Close	ɪ i	(ɨ)	ʊ u:
Mid	ɛ e:		ɔ o:
Open		(ɐ)	a a:

Phonetic realisation is generally consistent with orthography as seen in Table 2.2 below. There are a few observations worth noting, nevertheless.

Table 2.2. Orthographic representation of vowels.

	SHORT	LONG		SHORT	LONG
/a/	a	á	/o/	o	ó
/ɛ/	e	é	/u/	u	ú
/i/	i, y	í, ý			

Both ⟨i⟩ and ⟨y⟩ and their long counterparts ⟨í⟩ and ⟨ý⟩ represent the high front vowel /i/. ⟨y/ý⟩ originally represented the high front rounded vowel /y/ (with the short /y/ realised as the tenser near-close near-front rounded vowel [ɥ]) but the pronunciation gradually shifted to the central front vowel [i] before finally settling to /i/ in the 14th or 15th century. As in Czech orthography, ⟨i, í⟩ causes the palatalisation of the preceding consonant. The same distinction is found between the palatalising ⟨ě⟩ (another Czech loan originally written in Old Irish as ⟨je⟩) and the normal ⟨e⟩. This is discussed further in the orthography section (§ 2.8).

The short vowels /ɛ/ and /ɪ/ are reduced to [i] in unstressed positions. In less careful speech, this could cause the elision of the vowel and the formation of consonant clusters or the realisation of the preceding consonant as syllabic (especially if it is a liquid). Final /ɛ/ is not reduced in a word-final position if preceding a pause.

- (1) *a mert*, ‘and the dead one’ [ˈʔämirt̪] or [ˈʔämɪrt̪] but
akuzace, ‘accusation’ [ˈʔäxuzɛtsɛ]

The low vowel /a/ is realised as the open central unrounded vowel /ä/. Stressed /a/ is realised as [æ] between palatal consonants, further reduced to [i] when unstressed, e.g., *piastá* [ˈpʲæstä:] vs. *nepiastá* [ˈnɛpʲistä:]. Elsewhere /a/ is pronounced [ɐ] when in an unstressed position, although some dialects may further reduce it to a [ə].

2.2.2 Diphthongs

Iridian has three phonemic oral diphthongs: *au* /au̯/, *ei* /ei̯/ and *ou* /ou̯/. In addition, the diphthongs *oi* /ɔi̯/ and *ui* /ui̯/ also occur phonetically, but their occurrence is marginal, normally appearing only in fixed expressions (mostly interjections and expletives), such as *Avui*, ‘Damn it!’ [ʔv̯ʷui̯ʔ], *pšehui*, ‘annoying’ [ʔpʰɛxu̯ʔ] and *Oi*, ‘Hey!’ [ʔɔi̯ʔ].

In most dialects the diphthong /ei̯/ has almost completely merged with *é* /e:/, although some divergent dialects in the south may realise the diphthong as [i:] (e.g., *neite*, ‘word’ /ne̯tɛ/ but realised as [ˈne:tɛ] or [ˈni:tɛ]).

2.2.3 Vowel Length

Vowel length is phonemic in Iridian. Length is represented by an acute accent over the long vowel. The short-long vowel pairs differ in quality as well as length, with the short vowels being more lax and the long vowels being tenser in addition to being longer.

Table 2.3. Vowel length and quality.

ARCHIPHONEME	LAX/SHORT	TENSE/LONG
/a/	[ä]	[ä:]
/e/	[ɛ]	[e:]
/i/	[ɪ]	[i:]
/o/	[ɔ]	[o:]
/u/	[ʊ]	[u:]
/y/	[ʏ]	[y:]

Sample minimal pairs featuring long and short vowels are listed below:

- (2) a. /ä/ and /ä:/
sam, ‘barn’ [sä̯m] *sám*, ‘frog’ [sä:m]
mate, ‘spoon’ [ˈmä̯tɛ] *máte*, ‘check mate’ [ˈmä:tɛ]
- b. /ɛ/ and /e:/

2.3 Consonants

Table 2.4 shows a complete list of consonant phonemes in Standard Iridian, with the allophones appearing in parentheses. In total, Iridian has 19 consonant phonemes but with 21 additional allophonic variants.

Table 2.4. Full consonant inventory of standard Iridian.

	LABIAL	ALVEOLAR	PALATAL	VELAR
Plosive	p b	t d	c ʃ	k g
Nasal	m (m̃)	n	ɲ	(ŋ)
Liquid		r (ʁ) l	ʎ	
Sib. Fric.		s z	ç ʒ	
Non-Sib. Fric.	v		(ç)	x ɣ
Sib. Affricate		t͡s (d͡z)	t͡ɕ (d͡ʒ)	
Non-Sib. Aff.				(k͡x g͡ɣ)
Approximant	(β)	(ð)	j	(w)

2.3.1 Plosives

Initial velar stops are affricated when following a pause, so that the pair /k g/ is often realised as [k͡x g͡ɣ]. Some Southeastern dialects, however, normally realise initial velar stops as aspirated [k^h g^h] instead. This sound change can be traced to the initial aspirated stops *k^h, *g^h, *t^h and *d^h in Old Iridian weakening to affricates.¹ The labial stops /p b/ are unaffected by this process as most instances of *p^h and *b^h have merged to /b/ or /v/ in modern Iridian.

The velar stops /k g/ are lenited to the velar fricatives [x ɣ] intervocalically, before a voiceless stop, after a vocalised l if followed by another vowel or a voiceless stop, or before the nasal consonants /n/ or /m/ if following a vowel immediately. This lenition also occurs word-finally unless followed by a voiced

1. Old Iridian *t^h and *d^h became the Middle Iridian [t͡θ d͡ð] but both have since simplified to /t d/ in modern Iridian.

obstruent, in which case, subject to word-final devoicing, they merge to [x]. The voiced /g/ itself has a limited distribution, mostly appearing in consonant clusters with liquids or nasals.

This lenition can also be observed with the voiced stops /b/ and /d/ which become the approximants [β] and [ð] (written without the diacritic hereafter) intervocalically or between a vocalised /l/ and another vowel. Both /b/ and /d/ and the marginal /g/ are realised with a nasal release at the beginning of a word when following a pause, i.e., as [ᵐb], [ᵐd] and [ŋg], respectively.

The glottal stop [ʔ] is often not regarded as a separate phoneme. It can occur in three cases: (1) before an onset vowel when following a pause, e.g., *avt*, ‘car’ [ʔäft]; (2) between two vowels that do not form a diphthong, e.g., *naomá*, ‘laundry’ [ʔnäʔomä:]; or (3) emphatically, especially in interjections, e.g., *Oi*, ‘Hey!’ [ʔoiʔ], *Káp!*, ‘Look out!’ *lit.*, ‘danger’ [kxäpʔ].

2.3.2 Nasals

Iridian has three nasal consonants /m n ɲ/. /n/ cannot appear before bilabials and similarly /m/ cannot appear before velars. Both /m/ and /n/ are realised as [m] before either /v/ or /f/. Before velars /n/ is consistently realised as [ŋ], although [n] is also possible in emphatic pronunciation or in word boundaries.

The velar [ŋ] is not phonemic in Iridian but can sometimes be observed, especially in loanwords, where it can be realised as nasalisation of the preceding vowel when in the syllable coda or as [ŋ] intervocalically, although [ŋg] or [ŋk] is also common. Thus, for example, *anglevni*, ‘English’ can be realised as either [ˈẽw̃lɛvni:] or [ˈäŋlɛvni:] or [ˈäŋglɛvni:] in order of currency.

2.3.3 Liquids

Iridian has three liquids: the rhotic /r/ and the lateral /l/ and /l/.

The rhotic /r/ is realised in one of three ways. Word-initially it is pronounced as the uvular fricative [ʁ] (or as the uvular trill fricative [ʀ], depending on the speaker, but both transcribed here simply as [ʁ]). The realisation as [ʁ] is also often used when pronouncing words emphatically. When in the coda position and before a pause /r/ is realised as [rʒ] or simply as [ʒ]. This pronunciation was originally that of a voiceless alveolar trill [ɾ] but this has simplified to [r] and finally to [rʒ] or [ʒ] in Standard Iridian. The pronunciation as [ɾ]

or [r] may nevertheless persist in some southern dialects, primarily due to Czech influence. Note that [rʒ] or [z] is not affected by word-final devoicing. Elsewhere /r/ is realised as the flap [r]. Palatal /rj/ is in general more stable, realised simply as [rʲ], although when in the coda position and if not followed by a vowel, it may be realised as [rʒ] or [z].

The lateral /l/ is actually the velarised alveolar lateral approximant [ɭ]. Nonetheless the sound has been transcribed throughout as /l/. In the coda position /l/ is completely vocalised and is transcribed here as [w] in standard Iridian; most southern dialects nevertheless retain the pronunciation as [ɭ]. The palatalised /lʲ/ is the palatal lateral approximant [ɭʲ] and is transcribed as such.

2.3.4 Fricatives and Affricates

The palatal sibilants /ɕ z/ can be realised as either the palatal [ɕ z] or the post-alveolar [ʃ ʒ] with the former being more common. The same is true with the palatal affricates /tɕ dʒ/, realised as either [tɕ dʒ] or [tʃ dʒ], with the former also being more prevalent.

The sequence /tɕi/ and /tɕi:/ are realised as [tɕi] and [tɕi:] respectively (viz., *cigra*, ‘tiger’ is realised as [tɕiɾɐ] and not [tʃiɾɐ]). The stop fricative sequence [tɕ] can occur in syllable boundaries, although as form of hyper-correction most speaker may lengthen the initial stop to [tɕ:] or aspirate it (becoming [tʰ.ɕ]) to further distinguish it from /tɕ/ (cf. e.g., *otša*, ‘cart’ [ʔot.ɕɐ] vs *oča*, ‘bear’ [ʔotɕɐ]).

The voiced affricates /dʒ/ and /dʒ/, written ⟨dz⟩ and ⟨dž⟩, respectively, are both marginal phonemes. They normally occur as voiced allophones of /tɕ/ and /tɕ/ before voiced obstruents. They do occur phonemically in a few words, though, mostly in loanwords. Nonetheless, in spoken Iridian loanwords containing [dʒ] or [dʒ] (mostly from English) are realised by speakers as [z] (e.g., *džins*, ‘jeans’ [dzi:ns] or more commonly just [zi:ns]).

The voiceless labial fricative /f/ is another marginal phoneme, appearing usually as an allophone of /v/. Loanwords containing /f/ generally assimilate to /v/, although most recent borrowings tend to keep the marginal /f/ (cf. *Vranca*, ‘France’ [vrɛwtɕɐ] vs. *Feizbuk*, ‘Facebook’ [fe:zbox]).

The approximant /v/ is realised as [v] in onsets before vowels and voiced obstruents (e.g., *vdinice*, ‘I thought I saw.’ [vʲnitɕɐ]), as [f] in onsets before

voiceless obstruents (e.g., *vternou*, ‘bicycle’ [ʼftɛrnou]), and as [v] or [ʉ] in coda and elsewhere (e.g., *pilav*, ‘pilaʼ [ʼpʰɪʔäv] or [ʼpʰɪʔäʉ]). The sequence /kv/ and /gv/ is further lenited to the labialised velar fricatives [xʷ ɣʷ]. The voiceless [xʷ] (from both ⟨kv⟩ and ⟨hv⟩) is in free variation with [ɬ], with the latter being the more common pronunciation, especially among younger speakers. For simplicity both [xʷ] and [ɬ] will be transcribed as [ɬ].

Modern Iridian has lost the distinction between /h/ and /x/, with both ⟨ch⟩ and ⟨h⟩,² historically representing /x/ and /h/, respectively, merging to the velar fricative /x/. This becomes /ç/ before voiceless stops word-initially or when following a front vowel, or before the front vowels /i/ and /ɪ/. The sequence ⟨hl⟩ and ⟨kl⟩ are realised as /tʃ/.

2.4 Phonotactics

2.4.1 Syllable structure

Ignoring the possible complexity of the onset, nucleus or coda, the basic structure of an Iridian syllable is CV(C), with C representing a consonant and V a vowel.³ Iridian has relatively few phonotactic constraints, allowing, at a maximum, syllables of the form CCCCVCCC. Nevertheless, most syllables fall in either of the five groups CV, CVC, CCV, CCVC and CVCC

Table 2.5. Blevin’s criteria as they apply to Iridian.

	PARAMETER
Obligatory onset	Yes
Coda	No
Complex onset	Yes
Complex nucleus	Yes*
Complex coda	Yes
Edge effect	

2. Most instances of ⟨ch⟩ have been replaced with ⟨h⟩ following various spelling reforms.

3. An alternative view, founded upon the status of the glottal stop as a non-phoneme in Iridian, would be to consider the basic structure as (C)V(C) instead of CV(C), thus allowing for a null onset. This treats the addition of a glottal stop in word-initial syllables starting with a vowel as mere prothesis.

2.4.2 Onset

All consonant and vowel phonemes can appear in a syllable's onset. Iridian does not allow a null onset (vowel in the syllable onset), i.e., the most basic Iridian syllable should be of the form CV. Words that superficially appear as having a null onset syllable in the initial position are actually preceded by a glottal stop. An epenthetic glottal stop is also added between vowels in a sequence that do not otherwise form diphthongs, or before a vowel in a word-initial position in loanwords. Despite this, vowel-words are significantly rarer in comparison to consonant-initial ones.

- (3) Prothetic [ʔ] in native Iridian words:

a, 'and' [ʔä]

umiälä, 'to get drunk' [ʔomʲilä:]

eg, 'eyes' [ʔɛx]

- (4) Prothetic [ʔ] in loanwords:

America, 'Amerika' [ʔämiɾʲit͡sɛ]

autobus, 'bus' [ʔaʊtɔβɔs]

elefant, 'elephant' [ʔɛli.fänt]

In some eastern dialects, a prothetic [m] is added instead of [ʔ] on words that begin with vowels after a pause. This never occurs on loanwords or before the front vowels /e/ and /i/ and has been largely in decline, especially among younger speakers. With some speakers, the prothetic [m] may be realised as [mw].

- (5) *umiälä*, 'to get drunk' [ʔomʲilä:] or [mwomʲilä:]

očat, 'bug' [ʔmɔt͡ɕɛt] or [mwɔt͡ɕɛt]

A more widespread pattern in colloquial Iridian is the addition of a prothetic /j/ before the front vowels /e/ and /i/. This phenomenon could be observed in both native words and loans.

- (6) *Evrope*, 'Europe' [ʔɛvrɔpɛ], colloq. [jɛvrɔpɛ]

eg, 'eyes' [ʔɛx], colloq. [jɛx]

ěšte, 'of course' [ʔe:ɕtɛ], colloq. [ʲje:ɕtɛ]

The following CC clusters are allowed to be in onset position:

- (7) a. Stop followed by a liquid:

/pr/: *pragy*, 'sand' [präc]; *pramou*, 'petal' [prämoʊ]

/tr/: *trava*, 'bread' [trävɛ]; *truk*, 'ball' [trɔx]

Table 2.6. Allowed word-initial CC clusters

	p	b	t	d	k	g	m	n	r	l	s	z	š	ž	v	č	dc	c	dz	h
p			+					+	+	+	+		+							
b										+	+									
t								+		+	+					+				
d								+	+	+	+									+
k			+	+				+	+	+	+		+			+				
g								+	+	+										+
m								+												
n										+										
r																				
l																				
s																				+
z		+		+				+	+	+	+					+				
š	+		+		+			+	+	+	+					+	+		+	+
ž																				
v			+	+	+			+	+	+	+		+						+	
č			+		+						+									
c			+		+			+	+	+										+
h			+						+	+						+				

+ allowed cluster

/kr/: *krova*, ‘egg’ [ˈkrɔvɛ]; *kramy*, ‘toe’ [krämj]/pl/: *plán*, ‘plan’ [plä:n]; *plúka*, ‘knot’ [ˈplu:xɐ]/kl/: *kluk*, ‘foot’ [ˈt̪ux]; *klúbe*, ‘club’ [ˈt̪u:βɛ]/br/: *bírok*, ‘female teenager’ [bʲi:rɔx]; *bremy*, ‘prise’ [brɛmj]

/dr/:

/gr/: *grec*, ‘flag’ [ɣrɛts̪]; *greny*, ‘peace’ [ɣrɛɲ]/bl/: *bloht*, ‘mud’ [blɔxt̪]; *blau*, ‘neck’ [blau]

/dl/:

2.5 Suprasegmentals

2.5.1 Stress

Iridian words generally have a single primary stress, falling on the first syllable, no matter if the word is simple (e.g., *študent*, ‘student’), derived (e.g., *študenta*, ‘student, pat.’) or compound (e.g., *študentrád*, ‘dormitories’). Most

loanwords follow this general pattern, although more recent borrowings, especially those referring to proper names, show a greater tendency to keep the phonology of the source language and not fully assimilate to Iridian's initial stress rule.

- (8) a. Loanwords showing assimilation to word-initial stress:
aristókrat ['äristo:xræt] 'aristocrat'
koruna ['kɔɔronä] 'crown'

- b. Loanwords

Clitics are not considered phonologically distinct and are treated as belonging to the same phonological word as the one after them. These include:

- (a) Most monosyllabic and some disyllabic prepositions
- (b) Most conjunctions:
- (c) The pluralizing particle *nie* and the negative particle *zám:*
- (d) Demonstratives and the weak form of personal pronouns

2.5.2 Intonation

2.6 Phonological Processes Involving Vowels

2.6.1 Vowel ~ Zero Alternations

A vowel ~ zero alternation occurs when a vowel alternates with zero (i.e., gets deleted) in certain morphological contexts. We call this deleted vowel 'unstable' (cf. Siptár and Törkenczy 2000, Gussmann 2007). The most common type of vowel ~ zero alternation can be observed in stems of the type (C)VCVC containing a final short /e/ (and to a lesser extent /i/ and /o/).

- (9) Janek — Janka

2.6.2 Vowel ~ Vowel Alternations

Vowel ~ vowel alternations (also called 'ablaut') occurs when one vowel is substituted for another in some morphophonological contexts. Vowel ~ vowel alternations in Iridian can be broadly classified into two types: [ɛ] substitution and vowel raising.

Roots of the type $-C^j a C(C)$ and $-C^j o C(C)$ become $-C^j e C(C)$ in the presence of palatalizing suffixes:

- | | | | |
|------|--------------------------|-------------------------|------------------------|
| (10) | <i>bial</i> , ‘money’ | <i>bieli</i> , ‘gen.’ | <i>biala</i> , ‘pat.’ |
| | <i>šviak</i> , ‘soldier’ | <i>šviecti</i> , ‘gen.’ | <i>šviaka</i> , ‘pat.’ |
| | <i>pion</i> , ‘nest’ | <i>pieni</i> , ‘gen.’ | <i>piona</i> , ‘pat.’ |
| | <i>kážol</i> , ‘threat’ | <i>káželi</i> , ‘gen.’ | <i>kážola</i> , ‘pat.’ |

Vowel-raising alternations can be further grouped into two: (1) those triggered by the deletion of an unstable vowel in the final syllable of the root and (2) those caused by an open coda being closed off by the addition of a suffix. The front vowels [e:], [ei] and [jɛ] are subject to both types of alternations, merging with the high front vowel [i:]. As for back vowels, [ɔ ~ ʊ] is an example of the first type while [ou ~ o:] of the latter.

- (11) a. Vowel-raising triggered by deletion of an unstable vowel in the root:
- | | | |
|---------------------------|------------------------------|-----------------------|
| <i>lobek</i> , ‘apple’ | <i>lubka</i> , ‘pat.’ | not * <i>lobka</i> |
| <i>kostel</i> , ‘fish’ | <i>kustlár</i> , ‘fisherman’ | not * <i>kostlár</i> |
| <i>pieštel</i> , ‘falcon’ | <i>pištlár</i> , ‘falconer’ | not * <i>pieštlár</i> |

2.6.3 Compensatory vowel lengthening

2.7 Phonological Processes Involving Consonants

Iridian consonants are generally affected by two systems of phonological opposition: a primary distinction between voice and unvoiced consonants, and a secondary distinction between hard and soft consonants (i.e., normal and palatalised consonants).

2.7.1 Voicing

Consonant voicing is phonemic. Voiced consonants are called muddy or dark (*mierkní*) while unvoiced consonants are called clear (*bezki*). Most of the obstruents in Iridian come in pairs distinguished only by voicing: /k/ *kapa* [k̄xäpɛ] ‘cape’ vs /g/ *gapa* [ḡyäpɛ] ‘liquor’; /p/ *pac* [pät̄s] ‘stick’ vs /b/ *bac* [bät̄s] ‘underside’; /t/ *tám* [tä:m] ‘more’ vs /d/ *dám* [dä:m] ‘by me’

Another basic rule of consonant voicing is that in a cluster the last consonant usually determines whether the preceding ones are voiced or not. Note however that although the liquids /r/ and /l/ and the nasals /m/ and /n/ are intrinsically voiced, they do not cause the preceding consonant to assimilate.

- (12) *nazek* [ˈnäzɛx] ‘powder’ *nazka* [ˈnäskɛ] ‘powder, pat.’

2.7.2 Intervocalic Lenition

2.7.3 Palatalisation

Iridian consonants can either be hard or soft. Consonants are hard by default but become soft when followed by the vowels ⟨i⟩ or ⟨ī⟩. The vowel **y** is normally used to indicate non-palatalizing /i/, although it is used to indicate palatalisation word-finally or before **i**.

The use of -y is a remnant of word final short *i from Old Iridian that has since disappeared. The same process has caused the shortening of long *i to /ɪ/. This sound change did not distinguish between palatalizing and non-palatalizing *i so that *seni ‘tooth’ and *seny ‘blanket’ both merged to modern Iridian *seny* /sɛɲ/.

Softening involves palatal articulation of labial consonants (e.g., **be** [bɛ] vs **bie** [bʲɛ]) or the change to a palatal consonant for non-labials (e.g., **te** [tɛ] vs **tie** [tɕɛ]). Table ?? shows how non-labials are affected by palatalisation in Iridian.

2.8 Orthographic representation

2.8.1 Alphabet

The Iridian language uses the Latin script with the following 29 letters: **a, b, c, č, d, e, f, g, h, i, j, k, l, m, n, o, p, q, r, s, š, t, u, v, w, x, y, z, ž**.

The language was originally written in its own script but after the Latin alphabet has been adapted and has been in use since the First Bohemian Union in the 14th century. Due to the historical ties with the Kingdom of Bohemia and its historical successors, Czech orthography has had a great influence on the orthography of Iridian.

The Cyrillic script coexisted with the Iridian Latin alphabet from the 12th until the early 16th century. Today Cyrillic is still used to write the Ukrainian dialects of Iridian.

In addition to the caron (ˇ) found in č, š and ž used to indicate palatalisation, Iridian also uses two additional diacritics over vowels: the acute accent (´), which is used to mark long vowels, and the ogonek (ł) used to mark nasal vowels. Accented vowels are not considered as separate letters but as alternative forms of the same vowel.

Table 2.7. The Iridian alphabet.

SYM-BOL	NAME	IPA	SYM-BOL	NAME	IPA
A a	á	/a/	O o	ó	/o/
B b	bé	/b/	P p	pé	/p/
C c	cét	/t͡s/	Q q	kvé	–
Č č	ča	/t͡ʃ/	R r	er	/r/
D d	dé	/d/	S s	es	/s/
E e	é	/e/	Š š	ěš	/ɛ/
F f	fí	/f/	T t	té	/t/
G g	gé	/g/	U u	ú	/u/
H h	há	/x/	V v	vé	/v/
I i	í	/i/	W w	vének	–
J j	jýt	/j/	X x	iks	–
K k	ká	/k/	Y y	ýpsýlon	/y/
L l	el	/l/	Z z	zet	/z/
M m	em	/m/		žes	/ʒ/
N n	en	/n/			

2.8.2 Orthographic Conventions

Iridian spelling is fairly regular.

2.8.3 Punctuation

The use of the full stop (.), the colon (:), the semicolon (;), the question mark (?) and the exclamation mark (!) is similar to their use in other central European languages.

The full stop is also used to separate dates written numerically (e.g., 21.09.2019) or to denote ordinal numbers, often followed by an em-dash (e.g., 3.— ór, ‘third hour, i.e., 3 A.M.’)

Iridian uses reverse guillemets (*citácrám*) to set off quotations:

(13) *Dálek*: »To «

Table 2.8. Correspondence between the Iridian Latin and Cyrillic scripts.

LATIN	CYRILLIC	LATIN	CYRILLIC
A a	А а	O o	О о
B b	Б б	P p	П п
C c	Ц ц	Q q	–
Č č	Ч ч	R r	Р р
D d	Д д	S s	С с
E e	Е е	Š š	Ш ш
F f	Ф ф	T t	Т т
G g	Г г	U u	У у
H h	Х х	V v	В в
I i	И и	W w	–
J j	–	X x	–
K k	К к	Y y	Ы ы
L l	Л л	Z z	З з
M m	М м	Ž ž	Ж ж
N n	Н н		
<i>Letters unique to the Cyrillic script</i>			
Dz dz	С с	Dž dž	Ц ц
/ja/	Я я	/je/	Є є
/jo/	Ю ю		
Ȧ ȧ	Ж ж	Ғ ғ	

VERBAL MORPHOLOGY AND SYNTAX

3.1 Introduction

Verbs in Iridian are heavily marked. There is a tendency to encode most of the information contained in the sentence on the verb leaving the noun or noun phrase unmarked if possible.

Finite verbs are marked for the following grammatical categories:

1. *Aspect*. Iridian has three primary aspects: perfective, imperfective and contemplative; and two secondary ones: retrospective and prospective.
2. *Voice*. Iridian has a strong tendency to leave the topic of the sentence unmarked, instead encoding the primary information on the verb. Due to this, voice must be explicitly marked on the verb. Iridian has the following grammatical voices: agentive, patientive, benefactive, instrumental, locative and reflexive.
3. *Mood and modality*. Besides the unmarked indicative, Iridian has the following grammatical moods: subjunctive, conditional, hortative, optative, abilitative, permissive and non-volitive. In addition, secondary prefixes are used to express what would otherwise could be considered as moods: inceptive, causative and reciprocative.
4. *Evidentiality*

Verbs are also marked for person, although this is done by the addition of clitic pronouns and not through a separate conjugation paradigm. In most cases, however, this is left out, especially if clear from the context. Iridian verbs are not marked for tense, gender, or number.

Iridian verbs have four classes of non-finite forms: the gerund, the converb, the supine and the generic nominal formed with **-ou**. The non-finite verb forms are derived from the uninflected verb stem except the generic nominal in **-ou** which can only be formed from a fully-inflected verb stem. A fifth class exists—the infinitive—but this form is largely defunct and is only used in certain compound constructions. Infinitives end in **-á** and is used as the citation form of a verb.

3.2 Verb stem and order of inflectional affixes

3.2.1 The verb stem

The CITATION FORM (OR DICTIONARY FORM OR LEMMA) of a verb is the uninflected INFINITIVE, a fossilised form rarely used outside of a very few periphrastic and historical constructions (see § 3.9.1). The infinitive ends with the vowel **-á**, and removing this ending will produce the VERB STEM. The final consonant of the stem is called the thematic consonant and determines the conjugation paradigm the verb follows. The verb stem is a bound form and must always appear with at least one inflectional suffix.

3.2.2 Sound changes

Verb stems are normally classified into five groups (called CLASSES) based on how their thematic consonant changes in unstable positions; specifically, since the verb stem most often interacts with the suffixes used in marking grammatical voice, these classes are based on how the stem changes when followed by a sibilant suffix (as in the active voice) or a palatalising suffix (as in the passive voice). The five classes are as follows:

1. Class I verbs include verbs with a thematic **-t**, **-k**, **-c** and **-č**. They all merge to **-č** in the active voice (*pišt-* → *pišč-*) but remain stable when followed by a palatalising suffix, except **-c** and **-č** which merge to [tɕ] although this is not reflected orthographically.
2. Class II verbs include verbs with a thematic **-s** or **š**, which both merge to [ɕ] in oth the active and passive voice, although only the former is reflected orthographically.
3. Class II-A (or Class IV) verbs are the smallest group and include verbs with a thematic **-l** or **-p**. They use the suffix **-š** in the active voice (*dal-* → *dalš-*) and are stable elsewhere.

4. Class III verbs include verbs with a thematic *-d, -g, -b, -j, -z* and *-ž*. They all merge to *-ž* in the active voice (*vad-* → *váž-*); they remain stable when followed by a palatalising suffix, except *-z* and *-ž* which merge to [z] although this is again not reflected orthographically.
5. Class III-A (or Class V) verbs include those ending with the remaining thematic consonants. They use the suffix *-ž* in the active voice (*ščen-* → *ščenž-*) and are stable elsewhere.

This classification is notwithstanding the fact that if the thematic consonant is immediately after one or more consonants (except a lateral) an epenthetic *-a-* is added and the suffix *--š* is used to form the active root regardless of the actual thematic consonant. As such we get *parkaš-* from *parká*, ‘to park’ but *pálč-* from *palká*, ‘to punch.’ Moreover German loanwords whose infinitives end in *-irná* behave as if they have a thematic *-r* and so the the active root for *télévonirná*, ‘to call (on the phone)’ is *télévonirž-* instead of **télévonirnaš-*.

The suppletion of the original thematic consonant in the first to third classes with the class ending causes the preceding vowel to be lengthened in compensation if the root would have ended in an open syllable or a lateral had the thematic consonant been removed; thus we have, e.g., *dúš-* from *dušá*, ‘to bathe’ but *piašč-* and not **piášč-* from *piaštá*, ‘to eat.’ If the remnant vowel is *ě* or the diphthong *ei*, the compensatory lengthening also involves the reduction of the vowel to *-í* as in *zdič-* from *zděká*, ‘to blow.’

3.2.3 Finite verb endings

3.3 Voice

Iridian often prefers to encode information on the verb instead of through case marking on nouns. As such, all verbs must be explicitly marked for voice.

3.3.1 Morphophonemic changes

3.3.2 Agentive voice

The agentive voice is used if the subject of the verb is the agent of the action.

- (1) *Sa piašček.*
 already eat-AV-PF
 ‘(I) already ate.’

Table 3.1. Suffixes used to mark grammatical voice.

	ENDING
Agentive	<i>-aš-</i>
Patientive	<i>-in-</i>
Benefactive	<i>-ěb-</i>
Locative	<i>-oun-</i>
Instrumental	<i>do-oun-</i>
Reflexive	-
Reciprocal	-

The affix *-aš-* assimilates to the consonant ending the root, with the vowel /e/ normally dropped, subject to the following rules:

- č: for roots ending with c, č, k, t
 - *jelcá + -aš- → jelč-*, ‘to dance’
 - *zďěká + -aš- → zďíč-*, ‘to blow’
 - *piáštá + -aš- → piašč-*, ‘to eat’
- z: for roots ending with b, l, m, n, r¹
- ž: for roots ending with d, g, z, ž
 - *baž- + -aš- → báž-*, ‘to give’
 - *stojá + -aš- → stóž-*, ‘to go’
- š: for all other endings²

Where the assimilation involves the deletion of the final consonant in the root, the preceding vowel is lengthened in compensation if the resulting root would then end in an open syllable.

1. This change does not involve the deletion of the final consonant in the root.
 2. *-h + -aš-*, *-s + -aš-* and *-š + -aš-* both simplify to *-š-*, while the rest retain the final consonant.

- (2) *Udušek.*
 (instead of **udušek*)
 ‘(I) took a shower.’
- (3) *Piašček.*
 (not **piášček.*)
 ‘(I) ate.’

If the remnant vowel is the i-glide *-ě-* or the diphthongs *-ei-* and *-ou-*, the remaining vowel would simplify to *í, í* and *ú, ú*, respectively. Consider for example the verb *zděká* ‘to blow’:

- (4) *Lest zdičime.*
 wind blow-AV-PROG
 ‘The wind is blowing.’

Nevertheless the vowel [ɛ] in the root resurfaces in the following cases:

- Verbs ending in *-irná*:
- Verb root ending in a consonant cluster with a final liquid, nasal, or *v*

3.3.3 Patientive voice

A verb in the patient focus (glossed ACC) indicates that the topic of the sentence is the patient of the verb.

- (5) *Marek vindekem.*
 Marek <PV>see-PF-1 S
 ‘I saw Marek.’

3.3.4 Benefactive voice

The benefactive focus (glossed BEN) is used when the subject of the sentence is the benefactor or director object of the verb. Verbs often change meaning when used in the benefactive focus.

- (6) *Mač sega nazděbik.*
 mother flower-ACC buy-BEN-PF
 ‘(I) bought my mother flowers.’
- (7) *Kova piaštěbime.*
 cow eat-BEN-PROG
 ‘(I am) feeding the cows.’

The benefactive is also used idiomatically with verbs of judgment including *nověťá* ‘to like’

- (8) *Dá čebóvám zánovitébime.*
 1SG sports-AGT NEG-like-BEN-PROG
 ‘I don’t like sports.’

3.3.5 Locative voice

- (9) *Jé kopnažalíc.*
 you laugh-LOC-PROG-3S.ANIM
 ‘He is laughing at you.’

3.3.6 Instrumental voice

3.3.7 Reflexive voice

The reflexive voice (glossed REFL) is used when the patient of the verb is also the agent of the action. Morphologically, the reflexive voice is not a separate voice but is derived from the agentive form of the verb and the addition of the prefix *u(d)*-.

- (10) *Na šarta uvižek.*
 LOC mirror-Pat REFL-see-AV-PF
 ‘I saw myself in the mirror.’

The use of the reflexive voice is more extensive in Iridian than in English, and is somehow similar to how the reflexive construction is used in Romance languages.

- (11) *Uštižek.*
 REFL-take:a:bath-AV-PF
 ‘(I) took a bath.’

- (12) *Umúšime.*
 REFL-comb-AV-PROG
 ‘(I) am combing my hair.’

Below is a non-exhaustive list of verbs that are normally used in the reflexive voice:

dušá ‘to take a shower’
mušá ‘to comb’

šašta ‘to sit down’

Some verbs may change meaning when used in the reflexive voice.

The reflexive voice is also used to imply that an action happened accidentally or involuntary or that the agent of the action is unknown or unimportant.

The reflexive voice may also be used emphatically, especially in spoken Iridian, to express that the action has been performed for the benefit of the actor/agent of the verb.

- (13) *Kávéa ušranzqcem.*
 coffee-ACC REFL-drink-AV-CTPLV-1S
 ‘I’ll drink coffee.’ (literally, I’ll drink myself coffee)

- (14) *Pulša uvošček.*
 soup-ACC REFL-cook-AV-PF
 ‘(I) cooked (me) some soup.’

The differences

3.4 Grammatical aspect

Table 3.2. Aspect markers in the indicative mood.

ASPECT	AFFIX
Perfective	<i>-ek</i>
Retrospective	<i>-aní</i>
Imperfective	<i>-eví</i>
Progressive	<i>-ime</i>
Contemplative	<i>-ach/-ab³</i>
Prospective	<i>-ujám</i>
Cessative	<i>-óví</i>

3.4.1 Perfective aspect

The perfective aspect (glossed PF) indicates an action that has been completed at some specific point in time. The thematic ending for the perfective aspect is *-ek*, but the initial ⟨e⟩ is rather unstable and often changes depending on the environment. The initial ⟨e⟩ becomes ⟨i⟩ when used with *-in* (the suffix

- (19) a. *Vděšek še neicezuštalašaním.*
 see-2S-PF with INCEP-be.happy-AV-RET-1S
 ‘I became happy when I saw you.’
- b. *Do pacezuštalnikoš.*
 1SG.WK CAUS-be.happy-PV-PF-2S
 ‘You made me happy.’
- (20) *Váz noprizaní.*
 vase break-REF-RET
 ‘The vase broke (accidentally).’

3.4.3 Continuous and Progressive Aspects

Iridian uses the continuous and progressive aspects to denote actions that have not been completed yet and/or are in the process of happening/occurring. The continuous aspect (glossed CONT) is used to mark a state of being while the progressive aspect (glossed PROG) is used to mark a dynamic activity.

- (21) *Nau urištneví.*
 clothes REFL-wear-PV-CONT
 ‘(I’m) wearing clothes.’
- (22) *Nau urištņime.*
 clothes REFL-wear-PV-PROG
 ‘(I’m) putting on clothes.’

The continuous aspect is also used to denote a habitual action.

- (23) *Šholu de gnaža stoževí.*
 daily-INS ILL school-ACC go-AV-CONT
 ‘(We) go to school everyday.’
- (24) *Dá na Praha možleví.*
 1S.STR LOC Prague-ACC live-CONT
 ‘I live in Prague.’

To emphasize the habitual nature of an action, a nominalised construction is often used.

- (25) *Nažem řacenzívou.*
 friend-1SG smoke-AV-CONT-NZ
 ‘My friend is a smoker.’

3.4.4 Prospective aspect

The prospective aspect (glossed *PROSP*) is primarily used in secondary clauses to indicate actions that are about to be started in relation to another action. It can also be used in the main clause to indicate an action in the immediate future.

3.4.5 Cessative aspect

The cessative aspect

3.5 Valency

Valency (or valence) is the number of overt arguments a verb can take in a sentence. Tesnière (1965: 239), in one of the earliest descriptions of the concept, likens valency by comparing it to bonds between atoms:

The verb may therefore be compared to a sort of atom, susceptible to attracting a greater or lesser number of actants,⁴ according to the number of bonds the verb has available to keep them as dependents. The number of bonds a verb has constitutes what we call the verb's valency.

More rigorous treatments⁵ have of course been published in the years since but we should content ourselves with this definition in our present treatment of Iridian grammar. Instead our primary focus would e

3.5.1 Avalent verbs

Avalent verbs are verbs that have zero core arguments. In Iridian they are limited to a small set of verbs that describe meteorological phenomena, traditionally referred to as 'weather verbs' (*plodní sládek*). This term is not wholly

4. In his work Tesnière used the term *actants* to refer to what we would call here the verb's 'arguments.'

5. Tesnière's (1959) definition of valency as 'nombre d'*actants* qu'un verbe est susceptible de régir' ('number of *actants* which a verb is capable of governing') essentially frames valency as a function of the verb. More recent definitions however consider valency not just as a property of verbs alone but of any lexical item (cf., e.g., Matthews 1997; Trask 1993). In addition, in his glossary, he has provided voice (Fr. *voix*) as a synonym for valency; these two terms however we consider as distinct items both in this work and in what I think is the usage of both terms in scholarly literature over the topic.

accurate, however, as the class includes not just meteorological phenomena but more general natural phenomena as well. When used this way they are marked in the agentive voice and essentially forms topicless sentences (cf. § 7.4). Some common weather verbs in Iridian are listed below.

- (26) *bravá*, ‘to have the sun shine’
žužá, ‘to snow’
pozbešá, ‘to rain’
nešá, ‘to rain lightly, to drizzle’
boboržá, ‘to have thunder’
kopriká, ‘to have lightning’
dozbuhá, ‘to have an earthquake’

3.5.2 Passive constructions

3.5.3 Causative constructions

Causatives may either be lexical, analytical or morphological. Lexical causatives involve the encoding of the causation on the verb itself leading the causative form of the verb to be a different form altogether. An analytical causative, on the other hand uses a different verb (usually a verb like *to do* or *to make*) in conjunction with the main verb, to express the idea of causation (e.g., English ‘make someone do something.’) Finally, morphological causatives involve morphologically changing the main verb to express the notion of causation. Iridian causative constructions are primarily morphological, formed using the prefix *-ne*.

Due to this suppletive nature, lexical causatives imply a more direct causation, or a tighter link between cause and event⁶, than analytical or morphological causatives (Velupillai 2012; Haiman 1983). Consider for example the three sentences in English below:

6. Haiman (1983) offers a thorough discussion of how the linguistic distance exhibited by the forms of causative constructions existing in a language (e.g., *to cause to die* on one end of the spectrum versus *to kill* on the other) correspond to the conceptual distance between the action of the causer and the result of the action to the causee. In a purely synthetic construction like *kill*, for example, where the linguistic distance is the least, the conceptual distance between the action and the resulting state is also the smallest, with the opposite being true in purely analytical constructions like *to cause to die*.

Table 3.3. Causative forms of the verb *sbradá*, ‘to die.’

	CAUSATIVE	REGULAR MEANING	CAUSATIVE MEANING
Unmarked	<i>neshradá</i>	to die, to be dead	(<i>defective</i>)
Asgentive	<i>nesbražá</i>	to kill	to cause someone to kill
Patientive	<i>nesbradíná</i>	to be killed	to be caused to be killed
Benefactive	<i>nesbraděbá</i>	to have someone die for oneself	to have someone be killed for oneself
Locative	<i>nesbradouná</i>	to have someone related die	(<i>defective</i>)
Instrumental	<i>donesbradouná</i>	to be the reason for dying	to to be used for killing
Reflexive	<i>unesbražá</i>	to kill oneself	to cause one to commit suicide

- (27) a. Joseph *died*.
 b. Joseph *killed* the man.
 c. Joseph *made* the man *die*.

The suppletive *kill* in example (27b) implies more agency on the part of the subject than the more indirect-sounding (27c). In (27b) the *death* of the patient (‘the man’) is the goal of the act while (27c) it might be inferred that the *dying* was an indirect consequence of an unmentioned second act.

Iridian does not employ lexical causatives as in English; instead causatives are formed morphologically by adding the prefix *ne-* (glossed as CAUS) to the verb stem. Although *ne-* is required to form the causative morphologically, some verbs, particularly stative verbs like *sbradá*, ‘to die, to be dead’ in table 3.3 may already contain the notion of causation in some of its regular conjugated forms. This is because by default stative verbs are intransitive (i.e., the only argument required is the actor/agent) while some verbal voices like the patientive and benefactive inherently imply the existence of a second and a third argument of a verb respectively.

Of course Iridian’s definition of which verbs are stative and which ones are dynamic does not neatly align with the definition those classes have in English

(v. § 3.10). For instance the verbs *to stand* and *to eat* are both dynamic verbs in English, while in Iridian *zdvá*, ‘to stand, to be standing’ is stative and only *piáštá*, ‘to eat’ is dynamic. This is why as we see in example (28a) below, some forms of the verb *zdvá* already contain the notion of causation in some of its regular conjugated forms.

- (28) a. *zdvá*, ‘to be standing’
zdvžá, ‘to stand’
zdváná, ‘to be made standing, to erect’
nezdavžá, ‘to make so./sth. stand’
nezdavná, ‘to be made to make so./sth. standing’
- b. *piáštá*, ‘to eat’
piáštíná, ‘to be eaten’
nepiáščá, ‘to make someone eat’

Since causative constructions in Iridian are purely morphological⁷ the degree of agency of the causer can be implied from other incidental properties of the verb such as aspect or voice markings.

We pay particular attention first on the interaction of the causative prefix *ne-* with the patientive voice marker *-in* and the benefactive voice marker *-čb*. We begin with stative verbs, since as mentioned earlier and in § XX, most stative verbs will have a causative reading when used with the agentive or benefactive voice. Stative verbs encode the state of the subject and cannot therefore express the idea of an agent nor that of a patient. By conjugating stative verbs for voice, their stative nature is therefore lost; that is why a causative cannot be derived from the unmarked form of a stative verb: a causative construction precludes the existence of a causer and a causee, which at times may be different from the subject, while the unmarked stative only that of the subject itself.

7. To contrast, consider Japanese which also forms causative constructions morphologically (using the suffix *-(sa)se*) but which in addition also has synthetic but not fully suppletive forms for some verbs (e.g., *agaru*, ‘to rise’ and *ageru*, ‘to raise’).

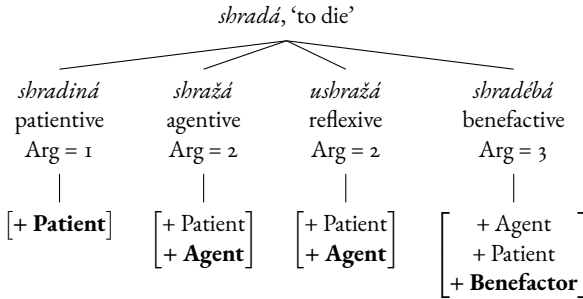


Figure 3.1. Voice markings as valence operations in stative verbs. The number of elements includes all those required to create a well-formed sentence notwithstanding Iridian’s tendency to drop elements that can be implied from context, with the element in bold representing whichever element is most likely to surface in speech.

We see in figure 3.1 that this causative reading of the patientive voice with stative verbs is due to properties of stative verbs and not of the patientive voice. We know this is true since this causative reading of the patientive does not exist with non-stative verbs, which are transitive by default in Iridian.

- (29) a. **Mámka preblavnik.*
 mother buy-PV-PF
 ‘*I bought my mother.’
- b. *Mámka zušťalnik.*
 mother happy-PV-PF
 ‘I made my mother happy.’

The patientive voice only requires a patient as argument; however since this argument does not exist in stative constructions, the role of an agent must first be created for the subject of the stative construction to be able to occupy the role of the patient in the patientive voice. Essentially this means that conjugating a stative verb for the patientive voice is equivalent to creating a biclausal causative construction where the subject becomes the causee and the state the action brought about by the (optionally named) causer. This reading is not possible with dynamic verbs because the patientive voice would only shift the role of the patient to that of the topic without having to create a new role for an agent.

As could have been predicted from Haiman's (1983) theory, these indirect forms of the causative express a more direct link between the causer and the action. True morphological causatives, i.e., those formed using the prefix *ne-*, imply that the caused action was brought about by an intermediary.

- | | | | | |
|------|----|---|----|--|
| (30) | a. | <i>Váz nopriznek.</i>
vase break-PV-PF
'I broke the vase.' (on purpose) | b. | <i>Váz nenopriznek.</i>
vase CAUS-break-PV-PF
'I made someone break the vase.' |
|------|----|---|----|--|

If the intermediary appears in the sentence it can be marked either in the genitive or in the patientive. Marking the causee in the genitive is the 'neutral' configuration; using the patientive case on the other hand forms what can be called a *coercive* causative (Shibatani 1990; Lehmann 2006), which in Iridian⁸ could imply either of two things: (i) that the act was made without or against the consent of the causee or (ii) the causer had direct control over the action and/or the causee. Such distinction however is not possible if the main verb is in the agentive voice since the patientive marking is reserved for the patient of the verb (and thus marking the causee in the patientive will essentially produce a situation where both the agent and the patient of the verb is marked for the same role, which in this case is the patient.)

- | | | |
|------|----|---|
| (31) | a. | <i>Váz Jancě nenopriznek.</i>
vase Janek-GEN CAUS-break-PV-PF
'(I) made John break the vase.' |
|------|----|---|

8. We can compare this to a similar distinction between a dative causative (formed with the clitic *ni*) and the accusative causative (formed with *o*) in Japanese. Lehmann (2006) calls the former a *coercive* causative construction while the latter a *permissive* causative construction. There are two main differences between the Japanese and Iridian systems however. First the *coercive* causative in Iridian also implies that the agent has effective control over the action or the causee or both, something not necessarily expressed by the Japanese *o*-form; and second, both the patientive and the genitive forms of the causative in Iridian allow 'permissive' readings, as we illustrate later in this section.

More importantly however the genitive form is considered the default or neutral form in Iridian, with the patientive form considered as more 'marked.' The patientive is often used for emphasis, with the genitive construction replacing it where possible, especially in spoken Iridian, even in places where the use of the patientive would have been in better order.

- b. *Váz Janka nenopriznek.*
 vase Janek-ACC CAUS-break-PV-PF
 ‘(I) made John break the vase.’

Nevertheless the degree of control exerted by the causer over the action itself may vary between these constructions.

A common way to formally mark the causer’s control or lack thereof in Iridian is the opposition between the retrospective aspect and the perfective aspect. Consider for example the two sentences in Iridian below, both of which have the same general translation in English.

- (32) a. *Martin nésta najevec sbražek.*
 Martin deer-ACC drive-CV die-AV-PF
 ‘Martin ran over a deer.’ (He did it on purpose)
- b. *Martin nésta najevec sbražaní.*
 Martin deer-ACC drive-CV die-AV-RET
 ‘Martin ran over a deer.’ (It was an accident.)

3.5.4 Reflexive and reciprocal constructions

The reciprocative prefix *so-* is used with the agentive voice to indicate that an action is performed by the agent and the patient on each other.

- (33) *Karlu sodalšaržím še Marek ščenžek.*
 Karel-INS REC-talk-AV-PROG-IS with Marek arrive-AV-PF
 ‘Karel and I were talking when Marek arrived.’

The use of the reciprocative inherently implies plurality on the part of the subject since there are always at least two elements involved (cf. Tesnière 1965: 255). Since Iridian does not often grammaticalize plurality, this means the reciprocative usually won’t require additional consideration as to the agreement of the constituents of the sentence; it does, however, mean that this form cannot be used singly with the singular form of pronouns (since pronouns—at least in the first and second persons—formally distinguish between singular and plural) and that most countable nouns would require the use of the particle *ně* or an explicit quantifier.

- (34) *To na bruma borka sokonížek.*
 DEM LOC church-ACC parents REC-wed-AV-PF
 ‘(My) parents were married in this church.’

- (35) *Nie senátor sožubalžime to na televiza vižek.*
 PL= senator REC-shout-AV-PROG RZ LOC television-ACC see-AV-PF
 ‘(I) saw the senators shouting at each other on tv.’

Where both elements of the agent-patient pair are present in the sentence, one of them is treated as the agent and left unmarked while the other is marked in the comitative (i.e., *še* + instrumental). However, since the action itself is reciprocal, which gets marked as the agent is purely a pragmatic choice. Where one of the members of the agent-patient pair is a pronoun, preference is given to marking the pronoun as the agent (in which case *še* is normally omitted, but with the patient remaining in the instrumental case).

- (36) *Mišek še Martinu sobévoržime.*
 Mišek COM Martin-INS REC-know-AV-PROG
 ‘Mišek and Martin know each other.’

- (37) *Já Mišku sobévoržani no?.*
 2S.STR Mišek-INS REC-know-AV-RET Q
 ‘You and Mišek already met each other right?’

3.6 Grammatical mood

3.6.1 Indicative

3.6.2 Imperative and hortative mood

To form commands and requests, the imperative (glossed IMP) and hortative (HORT) moods are used in Iridian.

The imperative is formed by replacing the infinitive ending *-á* with the voice marker and the imperative ending *-ím*. The imperative cannot be negated with the prefix *zá-*; instead, to form a negative command the prohibitive mood is used (glossed PROH), formed with the suffix *-éma* instead of *-ím*.

The imperative is used to issue a direct command and the prohibitive to “signal a prohibition” (SIL). Verbs in the imperative mood do not require an explicit referent, with the addressee or addressees assumed to be the recipient of the command or prohibition. When the addressee is included, it appears in the vocative case if appearing before the verb or unmarked otherwise.⁹ Note

9. A comma is placed between the verb and the addressee if the addressee appears after the verb in the sentence but none if it appears before.

Table 3.4. Conjugation of the verb *pišťa* in the imperative and prohibitive moods.

	IMPERATIVE	PROHIBITIVE
Agentive	<i>piščím</i>	<i>piščeňa</i>
Patientive	<i>pištním</i>	<i>pištněňa</i>
Benefactive	<i>pištěbím</i>	<i>pištěbima</i>
Locative	<i>pištouním</i>	<i>pištouněňa</i>
Instrumental	<i>dopiaštouním</i>	<i>dopiaštounima</i>
Reflexive	<i>upiaščím</i>	<i>upiaščěňa</i>

that both the imperative and the prohibitive do not distinguish number; thus the same form of the verb will be used when giving a command to multiple addressees and to a single one.

(38) *To hračním.*

DEM listen-PV-IMP

‘Listen to this.’

(39) a. *To hračním, Marek.*

DEM listen-PV-IMP Marek

‘Listen to this, Marek.’

b. *Marku to hračním.*

Marek-VOC DEM listen-PV-IMP

‘Listen to this, Marek.’

(40) *Papír švirouněňa.*

paper write-LV-PROH

‘Do not write anything on this sheet of paper.’

When used with verbal adjectives, the suffixes can attach directly to the root without any need for an explicit marker for voice and the addition of a voice marker will in fact change the meaning of the sentence. (The first two sentences below are rather unhelpful given how morphophonemic changes has rendered the imperative form with the voice marker and the one without of the verb *sloubatá*, ‘to be quiet’ identical, but cases like this are common and merit attention.)

- (41) a. *Nie byló sloubáčím.*
 PL= child be:quiet-IMP
 ‘Keep quiet, children.’
- b. *Nie byló usloubáčím.*
 PL= child REFL-be:quiet-AV-IMP
 ‘Keep quiet, children.’
- (42) a. *Pitár zuštalebím.*
 Pitár be:happy-BEN-IMP
 ‘Make Pitár happy!’
- b. *Zuštalím.*
 be:happy-IMP
 ‘Be happy!’

Due to its directness, the use of the imperative or the prohibitive is considered impolite in most settings, and is often used only when speaking with friends, family or children. This distinction does not exist in the written language, where the imperative is used almost exclusively for these functions. However in signs that give orders or warnings (i.e., ‘Stop,’ ‘Do not enter’) where English may sometimes use imperative constructions, Iridian uses modal constructions (cf. § 3.8) as they are not treated as direct commands or prohibitions.

- (43) *Tak sloubatalneví.*
 here be:quiet-DEB-CONT
 ‘Keep quiet.’ *Lit.*, ‘One must be quiet here.’
- (44) *Tak zahranéčneví.*
 here enter-NPOT-CONT
 ‘Do not enter.’ *Lit.*, ‘One cannot enter here.’

In spoken Iridian, it is more common and considered more polite to use the hortative and the negative hortative forms instead of the direct imperative or prohibitive.

- (45) *Mina návílastníka.*
 door open-PV-HORT
 ‘Open the door.’

Table 3.5. Conjugation of the verb *piášťá* in the hortative mood.

	HORTATIVE	NEG. HORTATIVE
Agentive	<i>piáščká</i>	<i>piáščku</i>
Patientive	<i>piáštniká</i>	<i>piáštniku</i>
Benefactive	<i>piáštébká</i>	<i>piáštéčku</i>
Locative	<i>piášťómká</i>	<i>piášťómku</i>
Instrumental	<i>dopiašťómká</i>	<i>dopiašťómku</i>
Reflexive	<i>upiaščká</i>	<i>upiaščku</i>

To further soften command, the expression *am luhninká* (from the hortative form of the verb *luhná*, ‘to give thanks’, now obsolete except for this specific usage) and its equivalent negative form *am luhninku* can be used, with the main verb marked as a perfective converb.¹⁰

- (46) *Mina se návilastu am luhninka.*
 door REFL open-CV.PF because thank-PV-HORT
 ‘Please open the door.’

The adhortative (‘Let’s’) is formed using *lidovká* with the imperfective converb form of the main verb. *Lidovká* can also be used by itself where the main verb may be implied from context, or as a reply to the request if the speaker wants to express agreement or assent.

- (47) *Piaštiec lidovká.*
 eat-CV.IPF because
 ‘Please open the door.’

3.6.3 Subjunctive

The subjunctive mood (glossed SBJ) is used for actions or events that are not or are not known to be true or factual. The subjunctive is formed using the suffix *-il*

10. Cf. the use of the perfective converb with the *merci de* + infinitive construction in French. The use of *am luhninká* presupposes that the action being requested has already been done although in fact it hasn’t, for which therefore the speaker is giving thanks. Thus, a simple request like ‘Please close the door’ is expressed in Iridian as ‘May you be thanked for having closed the door.’

Table 3.6. Conjugation of the verb *pišťa* in the subjunctive.

	IMPERFECTIVE	PERFECTIVE
Agentive	pišćílá	pišćíš
Patientive	pišćnílá	pišćníš
Benefactive	pišćébílá	pišćebíš
Locative	pišćounílá	pišćouníš
Instrumental	dopišćébílá	dopišćebíš
Reflexive	upišćílá	upišćíš

In addition, the copula has two subjunctive forms, the non-negative *niec* and the negative *vaše*.

Note that the Iridian subjunctive makes neither temporal nor aspectual distinction.

The following are some specific uses of the subjunctive mood in Iridian:

3.6.3.1 Subjunctive of purpose

Dependent clauses expressing purpose are marked in the subjunctive and normally end in *te*, ‘in order to’ and *az*, ‘lest’

- (48) *Trávi preblavnilá te traumašt stojnik.*
 bread-GEN buy-PV-SUBJ.IPF so:that bakery go-LV-PF
 ‘(I) went to the bakery to buy some bread.’

- (49) *Hrešćílá te pišćeví.*
 be:alive-AV-SUBJ.IPF so:that eat-LV-CONT
 ‘We eat to live.’

- (50) a. *Se vđinílá az varšek.*
 REFL see-PV-SUBJ.IPF lest leave-AV-PF
 ‘(I) left so as not to be seen.’
- b. *Vđinílá az varšek.*
 see-PV-SUBJ.IPF lest leave-AV-PF
 ‘(I) left so that (it) may not be seen.’

3.6.3.2 *jussive/desiderative*

The subjunctive is used in indirect constructions of verbs for issuing orders, commanding, exhorting, etc.

- (51) *Martin na America žnožil to čeznašálic.*
 Martin LOC America-ACC study-AV-SBJ RZ want-AV-CONT-3S.ANIM
 ‘He wants Martin to study in America.’

- (52) *Beatles-že »Yesterday« Marką zašnil to Tunek dálek.*
 Beatles-GEN “Yesterday” Marek-AGT sing-PV-SBJ RZ Tunek say-PF
 ‘Tunek told Marek to sing.’

3.6.3.3 *dubitative*

The subjunctive is used with verbs expressing doubt, uncertainty or disbelief.

- (53) *še*
 Beatles-GEN
 ‘Tunek told Marek to sing.’

3.6.3.4 *with verbs expressing emotion*

- (54) *Marek zašnil to Tunek dálek.*
 Marek sing-SBJ.IPF RZ Tunek say-PF
 ‘Tunek told Marek to sing.’

3.6.3.5 *with the conditional mood*

The subjunctive is used in the main clause if the verb in the dependent clause is in the conditional *irrealis* mood.

- (55) *Dá prezident jenem,*
 a
 a

3.6.3.6 *expressing judgment*

- (56) *Zavnočiláš to tévét*
 respond-AV-SBJ.IPF-2S RZ important
 ‘It is important that you respond.’

3.6.3.7 *irrealis*

3.6.4 Conditional Mood

The conditional mood is used for conditional or hypothetical clauses. The table below shows the conjugation paradigm for the conditional mood for both regular verbs and the copula. The Iridian conditional mood is not a true conditional mood grammatically, since it is marked on the verb in the dependent clause (protasis), instead of the main clause.

Table 3.7. Conjugation paradigm in the conditional mood for regular verbs, the copula and the existential particle *ješ*.

	REGULAR VERBS	COPULA	EXISTENTIAL
<i>Realis</i>	<i>-ič</i>	víne	jako
Neg. <i>Realis</i>	<i>-čnie</i>	ve	neko
<i>Irrealis</i>	<i>-išče</i>	jenem	jenem
Neg. <i>Irrealis</i>	<i>-iščenie</i>	jet	nét

3.6.4.1 *Conditional Realis*

The conditional *realis* mood (glossed COND.RL) is used in two ways:

1. In sentences that express a factual implication rather than a hypothetical situation or a potential future event, e.g., ‘If you heat water to 100 C, it will boil.’
2. In ‘predictive’ constructions, i.e., those that concern probable future events.

The conditional *realis* mood requires the verb in the main clause to be in the indicative.

- (57) *Nebo 100 céntigrádu nékrasěbič ustručnaševí.*
 water 100 Celcius-INS CAUS-heat-BEN-COND.RL REFL-boil-AV-CONT
 ‘If you heat water to 100 C, it will boil.’
- (58) *To projekt blupnič kurvem započneví.*
 this project fail-PV-COND.RL job-1SG lose-PV-CONT
 ‘If we lose this project, I will lose my job.’
- (59) *Nahte štanžič upíčeví.*
 too:much drink-AV-COND.RL REFL-get:drunk-AV-CONT
 ‘If you drink too much, you will get drunk.’
- (60) *Mém na prezna víne, dekání byróva stóžka.*
 name LOC list-ACC COP.COND.RL dean-GEN office-ACC go-AV-HORT
 ‘If your name is on the list, please go to the dean’s office.’

3.6.4.2 *Conditional Irrealis*

The conditional *irrealis* mood (glossed COND.IRR) is used with hypothetical, typically counterfactual, events. The *irrealis* mood requires the main clause to be in the subjunctive.

3.7 Evidentiality

Iridian marks EVIDENTIALITY as a separate grammatical category, distinguishing between a marked QUOTATIVE or REPORTATIVE representing second-hand information or hearsay (or more idiomatically when the speaker wishes distance themselves from the statement by saying that the information is not coming directly from them) and an unmarked form representing ‘everything else’ (cf. Aikhenvald 2004: 31–33). The quotative form of a finite verb (and of some non-finite verb forms) is seen in Table 3.8. The syntax of quotative constructions is discussed in detail in § 7.12.2.

3.7.0.1 *Quotative forms of the copula*

Copula Indicative *neví* *hvem* Subj *nehlí* *niec*

Existential Indicative *jeho* *nežní* Subj *houve* *hvaš*

Table 3.8. Sound changes used in deriving quotative form of verbs

VERBAL FORM	SOUND CHANGE	EXAMPLE
INDICATIVE		
Perfective	<i>-ek</i> → <i>ice</i>	<i>piašček</i> → <i>piaščice</i>
Retrospective	<i>-aní</i> → <i>áně</i>	<i>piaščaní</i> → <i>piaščánie</i>
Continuous	<i>-eví</i> → <i>evíje</i>	<i>piaščeví</i> → <i>piaščevíje</i>
Progressive	<i>-íme</i> → <i>imejí</i>	<i>piaščíme</i> → <i>piaščimejí</i>
Contemplative	<i>-ách</i> → <i>áže</i>	<i>piaščách</i> → <i>piaščáže</i>
Prospective	<i>-ujám</i> → <i>-ujime</i>	<i>piaščujám</i> → <i>piaščujime</i>
Cessative	<i>-óvíť</i> → <i>-óvíce</i>	<i>piaščóvíť</i> → <i>piaščóvíce</i>
SUBJUNCTIVE		
Imperfective	<i>-ilá</i> → <i>-elě</i>	<i>piaščóvíť</i> → <i>piaščóvíce</i>
Perfective	<i>-iš</i> → <i>išejí</i>	<i>piaščóvíť</i> → <i>piaščóvíce</i>
IMPERATIVE, &C.		
Imperative	<i>-ím</i> → <i>-ímení</i>	<i>piaščóvíť</i> → <i>piaščóvíce</i>
Prohibitive	<i>-éma</i> → <i>-ěmně</i>	<i>piaščóvíť</i> → <i>piaščóvíce</i>
Hortative	<i>-ká</i> → <i>-kaje</i>	<i>piaščóvíť</i> → <i>piaščóvíce</i>
Neg. Hortative	<i>-ku</i> → <i>-kajení</i>	<i>piaščóvíť</i> → <i>piaščóvíce</i>
OTHER FORMS		
Supine of purpose	<i>-it</i> → <i>-itejí</i>	<i>piaščóvíť</i> → <i>piaščóvíce</i>
Supine of necessity	<i>-áš</i> → <i>-áše</i>	<i>piaščóvíť</i> → <i>piaščóvíce</i>
Nominalised form	<i>-ou</i> → <i>-uje</i>	<i>piaščóvíť</i> → <i>piaščóvíce</i>

3.8 Modality

Iridian can express modality either through verbal morphology, using the affixes listed in table 3.9, or through a periphrastic construction. In general a periphrastic construction is preferred when the verb is non-dynamic, i.e., the sentence is merely descriptive or stative in nature (compare, for example English ‘Mary can sing’ vs. ‘Mary was able to finish baking the cake’), while the morphological method is used otherwise.

Table 3.9. Verbal affixes to express modality.

MODALITY	POSITIVE	NEGATIVE
Debitive	<i>-aln-</i>	<i>-išk-</i>
Desiderative	<i>-án-</i>	<i>-ušb-</i>
Potential	<i>-ét-</i>	<i>-évn-</i>

The affixes used to mark modality as listed in table 3.9 attach directly to the verb stem, subject to the usual morphophonemic rules.

- (61) a. *piaštá*, ‘to eat’
 b. *piaštálná*, ‘to need to eat’
 c. *piaštišká*, ‘to not need to eat’
 d. *piaštáná*, ‘to want to eat’
 e. *piaštušhá*, ‘to not want to eat’
 f. *piaštétá*, ‘to be able to eat’
 g. *piaštévná*, ‘to not be able to eat’

As in most languages, modal constructions in Iridian exhibit significant POLYSEMY (i.e. a single construction can have one or more interpretation depending on the context). For example consider the following sentence:

- (62) *Tomáš rušku zabviržétách.*
 Tomáš Russian-INS speak-AV-POT-CTPV
 ‘Tomáš will be able to speak Russian’

The following translations are all equally possible without any further contextual clues:

by the gerund and the infinitive is only used as the citation form of verbs. All infinitives in Iridian end in the vowel *-á* and the consonant immediately preceding it is called the verb's thematic consonant..

3.9.2 Nominalised forms and gerunds

Nouns can be routinely derived from verbs and verb phrases using the nominalising suffix *-ou* (glossed as NZ). Linguists generally recognize three types of nominalisation: event nominals, which describe an event the same way the parent verb does, and which could either be (1) simple or (2) complex, with COMPLEX EVENT NOMINALS (CENs) allowing internal arguments and SIMPLE EVENT NOMINALS (SENs) not; and (3) RESULTANT NOMINALS, which describe an event similar but not exactly corresponding to the even described by the main verb (Grimshaw 1990; Moulton 2014). In English, for example, where verbs can be nominalised using a variety of derivational affixes or with zero derivation, these types are not distinguished, as we see below:

- (66) a. The examination of the students lasted a long time. CEN
 b. The examination lasted a long time. SEN
 c. The examination was photocopied on green paper. RN
 (Alexiadou and Grimshaw 2008: 2)

Some verbs in Iridian allow the formation of RNs using the suffix *-ou* and the uninflected verb root (e.g., *piáštou*, 'food' from *piáštá*, 'to eat'). For the vast majority, however, RNs are produced by lexical suppletion, i.e., the RNs are not morphologically derived (or explicitly so, at least) using the nominalising suffix (see § 6.2.3). As in English, SENs and CENs are not morphologically distinct in Iridian, and are formed with the suffix *-ou* used in conjunction with the prefix *po(d)*-. We call this form the GERUND.

In addition to these three types of nominalization introduced in Grimshaw (1990), Iridian recognises a fourth type, which produces a nominal that refers not to the event itself but one of the event's participants, i.e., one of the verbs arguments. We will call this type a PARTICIPANT NOMINAL (PN) (cf. Schackow 2015: 400-5; Pearson 2013: 297-8).

- (67) a. Nominalised forms of *piáštu*, ‘to eat’ showing a productive morphological RN:

Infinitive:	<i>piášta</i> , ‘to eat’
Morphological RN:	<i>piáštu</i> , ‘food’
Gerund (SEN/CEN):	<i>popiáštu</i> , ‘the act of eating’
PN:	<i>piáščkou</i> , ‘the person/thing who ate’

- b. Nominalised forms of *vadá*, ‘to think’ showing a defective morphological RN and the alternative lexical RN:

Infinitive:	<i>vadá</i> , ‘to think’
Morphological RN:	* <i>vadou</i> (ungrammatical)
Lexical RN:	<i>vied</i> , ‘thought (n.)’
Gerund (SEN/CEN):	<i>povadou</i> , ‘the act of thinking’
PN:	<i>vadnikou</i> , ‘that which was thought’

Event nominals (viz., gerunds) are therefore inherently abstract and active in meaning; in addition, they are also understood to be tenseless and aspectless

Gerunds have an active meaning. The suffix *-ál*, used to mark the continuous aspect, may be infix to the gerund to indicate that the action is repetitive.

- (68) a. *Jan nidek.*
 Jan stand.up-PF
 ‘Jan stood up.’
- b. *Janí ponidálou buvec.*
 Jan-GEN GER-stand.up-CONT-NZ annoying
 ‘Jan’s standing up again and again is annoying.’

The syntax of event and participant nominals is discussed in further detail in § 7.8.

3.9.3 Converbs

Converbs (glossed CV) are a non-finite verb form often used for adverbial constructions. There are two converb forms in Iridian: the imperfective *iec* (glossed CV.IPF) and the perfective *-u* (glossed CV.PF).

- (69) *Tereza kravněc nóví palžek.*
 Tereza cry-CV.IPF room-GEN leave-AV-PF
 ‘Tereza left the room crying.’

- (70) *Nóví palzu Tereza neikravnašek.*
 room-GEN leave-CV.PF Tereza INCHO-cry-PF
 ‘Having left the room, Tereza started to cry.’

The syntax of converbial constructions and the specific uses of the perfective and imperfective converb form are discussed in detail in § 7.11.

3.9.4 Supine

The SUPINE is a non-finite verb form formed used to indicate necessity or purpose. Both usage has a nominal and a non-nominal form (used similar to an adverb or an adjective), giving the supine a total of four forms, as shown below:

Table 3.10. Endings used for the supine.

	PURPOSE	NECESSITY
Nominal	<i>-it</i>	<i>-áš</i>
Non-nominal	<i>-ice</i>	<i>-ášce</i>

These four forms are invariable. The endings attach to the verb after the root has been conjugated for voice. The use of the non-nominal forms, in addition, does not require the use of the linking particle *ko*.

- (71) »*Ána Karenina*« *za gnaža oštinašce tóm.*
 Anna Karenina for school-ACC read-PV-SUP.N book
 ‘I have to read *Anna Karenina* for school.’

Although the usage of the supine has evolved to include various other constructions not related to its origins as a verbal noun indicating motion, the supine is still used in Modern Iridian in this original sense, accompanying a main verb (often a verb of motion) to indicate purpose. Both the nominal and the non-nominal form can be used in this construction, with the nominal form (despite being a more recent syntactic innovation) being more common and the non-nominal form considered more archaic, but still more prevalent in literary and formal usage. This usage roughly corresponds to the English infinitive, as in the sentence ‘I came here *to bury* Cæsar.’ When using the nominal form the clause containing the main verb is first transformed into

a *to*-clause and then equated to the nominal supine; when using the non-nominal form, on the other hand, the supine is simply added before the main verb.

- (72) a. *Tóm beblenik to ošnit.*
 book buy-PV-PF RZ read-PV-SUP.P
 ‘I bought the book to read.’
- b. *Tóm oščice beblenik.*
 book read-AV-SUP.P buy-PV-PF
 ‘I bought the book to read.’

Especially when using the non-nominal construction, the grammatical voice used for the supine does not need to be the same as the one used in the main verb, as we see in example (72b). The supine can only take one argument, an object, which is always marked in the genitive regardless of its grammatical voice used to mark the supine governing it.

- (73) a. *Marjám [těží probemí vednice] stožek.*
 Mary god-GEN sepulchre-GEN see-PV-SUP.P go-AV-PF
 ‘Mary went to see the Lord’s sepulchre.’
- b. *Marjám [těží probemí vižice] stožek.*
 Mary god-GEN sepulchre-GEN see-AV-SUP.P go-AV-PF
 ‘Mary went to see the Lord’s sepulchre.’

In addition to this original usage, and to their use in indicating purpose or necessity, the supine is quite heavily employed idiomatically in Iridian. In colloquial speech, the supine of purpose is often used to express future or probable events as a substitute to the contemplative aspect. In both colloquial and literary registers, it may also be used to indicate a habitual action or a general truth (instead of the continuous or progressive aspect) when the verb implies some sort of purpose or consequentiality, especially in relation to another verb.

- (74) *Dá to tómi oščit.*
 1SG this book-GEN read-AV-SUP.P
 ‘I will be reading this book.’ *Lit.*, ‘I am someone whose purpose is the reading of this book.’

- (75) *Méva dousa ješ me bylu dnou má nemel toba*
 all adult-ACC EXST as child-INS front but few:people this.ACC
oblečit.
 remember-AV-SUP.P

‘All grown-ups were children once but only a few remember it.’

Another common construction involves the supine of necessity with the words *sblac*, ‘now’ *mál*, ‘time’ (or less frequently *ór*, ‘hour’). This construction is somehow similar to English ‘It’s time we left’ or ‘It’s time for us to go.’ When used this way, the supine is conjugated in the locative voice.

- (76) *Sblac himatí palzounášce mál.*
 now homeland-GEN leave-LV-SUP.N time
 ‘It’s time (we) left our homeland.’

- (77) *Sa tet. Sblac zdalounášce mál.*
 already noon now have:breakfast-LV-SUP.N time
 ‘It’s already late (*lit.*, noon). It’s time (we) had breakfast.’

3.10 Stative verbs

Iridian lacks a distinct class of adjectives.¹¹ Instead, a special class of verbs called **STATIVE VERBS** are used to modify noun or noun-like classes. Unlike most verbs, however, stative verbs can only be marked for aspect, and optionally for voice. In addition to this base form (called the **COPULATIVE**), stative verbs also have an **ATTRIBUTIVE** form (used when the verb is preceding the noun or noun phrase) and **NOMINATIVE** form (representing a concrete nominalization of the verb), both of which are absent in non-attributives verbs. Consider for example the verb *ušihná* ‘to be angry’:

3.10.1 Copulative and attributive forms

The copulative form of stative verbs is used when the verb is the predicate of the sentence. This form is only conjugated for aspect, and optionally for voice. Unlike normal verbs, however, stative verbs cannot be conjugated in

11. There is however a small class of attributives, which includes deictics and quantifiers among others, which can function as modifiers. They are different in that these words cannot be used as the predicate of a sentence. They are discussed in detail on Chapter 5.

Table 3.11. Conjugation pattern for stative verbs

	ENDING	EXAMPLE
Copulative	varies	varies
Attributive	- <i>í</i>	<i>všihní</i>
Nominative	- <i>ou</i>	<i>všihnou</i>

the agentive voice since Iridian grammar does not distinguish between agency in an actor and the description of a state in stative verbs, both of which are encoded in the definition of this class.

- (78) *Mamka všihneví* (not **všihnaševí*)
 mother-DIM be:angry-CONT not be:angry-AV-CONT
 ‘My mother is angry.’

The attributive form is derived by replacing the infinitive marker -*á* with -*í*. Other than its conjugated comparative form ending in -*ení*, the attributive form is invariable. The comparative form is often used, especially in colloquial speech, as an intensifier, even if the stative verb is not actually used in a comparison.

- (79) *Všihnění mamka tčlčvoniržek.*
 be:angry-COMP-ATT mother-DIM call-AV-PF
 ‘Mother was fuming (*lit.*, angrier) when she called us.’

Because of the invariability of the attributive form, the copulative form may sometimes be used as a modifier, similar to a normal verb, separated from the noun it modifies with the particle *ko*. Note, however, that when conjugated in the continuous aspect (except when marked explicitly for voice), such usage is not grammatical, with Iridian only allowing the attributive.

- (80) *Všihninek ko tiebo snov upročilžách.*
 be:angry-PV-PF ATT god soon REFL-avenge-AV-CTPV
 ‘God whom you have angered will seek vengeance soon.’

3.10.2 Nominative form

The nominative form is derived by replacing the infinitive marker -*á* with the nominalizing suffix -*ou*. This is the same nominalizing suffix used to form

nouns from regular verbs, the only difference being that stative verbs allow the suffix to be attached directly on the verb's root.

The copulative form may also be nominalised with *-ou*. However, as with the attributive form, if the copulative stative verb is conjugated in the continuous aspect and is unmarked for voice, the nominal form is used instead of the nominalised copulative form.

3.10.3 Stative verbs and voice

In general, stative verbs can also be conjugated for voice, with two main differences: first, as mentioned earlier in this section, the agentive voice cannot be used with stative verbs as Iridian does not distinguish between stative and agentive verbs and such information is considered to be encoded by default in the stative form; and second, in view of the first point, the benefactive gains an “agentive” interpretation, as it is used when the subjective is the agent of the action leading to the state being described by the verb, as in the example below:

- (81) *Zuštalébkou houba.*
 be:happy-BEN-PF-NZ gift
 ‘What made me happy was (your) gift.’

3.11 Derivational morphology

3.11.1 External derivation

Loanwords ending in **-ace** from the Latin change the final e to á:

administrace	→	administracá	‘to administrate’
akuzace	→	akuzacá	‘to accuse’
diferenzace	→	diferenzacá	‘to differentiate’
separace	→	separacá	‘to separate’

Some Latin loanwords are borrowed first from German. Loanwords ending in **-ieren** become **-irná**.

akzeptieren	→	akceptirná	‘to accept’
konservieren	→	koncervirná	‘to conserve’
produzieren	→	producirná	‘to produce’
vandalieren	→	vandalirná	‘to deface’

3.11.2 Internal Derivation

Table 3.12. Verbal Derivational Affixes

AFFIX	EXAMPLES
nie- + ADJ 'to cause something to become ADJ'	loš 'new' → nielošá 'to renew' preseh 'young' → nieprehá 'to rejuvenate' avic 'long' → nieavicá 'to lengthen' gem 'soft' → niegemá 'to soften' vyne 'dry' → nievyneá 'to dry'
ce- ¹² + ADJ 'to cause oneself to become ADJ'	kdavidy 'clean' → cekdavicá 'to take a bath' rum 'old' → cerumá 'to grow old' šeznom 'big' → cešeznomá 'to grow up' vyne 'dry' → cevyneá 'to dry oneself'
hó- + NOUN 'to use N in a particular way'	tvem 'tongue' → hótvemá 'to lick' kov 'hammer' → hóková 'to hammer' šeznom 'big' → cešeznomá 'to grow up' vyne 'dry' → cevyneá 'to dry oneself'
deš- + NOUN 'to act in the manner of N'	tvem 'tongue' → hótvemá 'to lick' rum 'old' → cerumá 'to grow old' šeznom 'big' → cešeznomá 'to grow up' vyne 'dry' → cevyneá 'to dry oneself'
má-iv + NOUN 'to so something usually done in NOUN'	mrc 'market' → mámrcivá 'to shop' gnazsa 'school' → mágnazsivá 'to study in' šeznom 'big' → cešeznomá 'to grow up' vyne 'dry' → cevyneá 'to dry oneself'
sen-/sem- + VERB 'to VERB incorrectly'	oštá 'to read' → senoštá 'to misread' rum 'old' → cerumá 'to grow old' šeznom 'big' → cešeznomá 'to grow up' vyne 'dry' → cevyneá 'to dry oneself'

12. Verbs in **ce-** cannot be in the reflexive focus.

NOMINAL MORPHOLOGY

Nominal morphology in Iridian is relatively simpler compared to the corresponding process with verbs. Where possible, Iridian sentences are generally constructed to leave the noun or noun phrase unmarked.

4.1 Grammatical categories

4.2 Number

Nouns in Iridian are not formally marked for number. Thus the word *byl*, for example, can mean either ‘child’ or ‘children’ depending on the context. The same form is used when the noun is preceded by a numeral.

- (1) *broná byl*
 three child
 ‘three children’

Nevertheless, Iridian can express semantic plurality by using quantifiers, numerals, pluralizing particles or even through context alone. One such particle is *ně¹*. *Ně* is a proclitic and attaches to the left-most part of the noun phrase or the verb phrase it modifies.

- (2) *ně ša zuštali byl*
 PL= DEM.PROX be:happy-ATT child
 ‘these happy children’

1. Cf. Schachter and Otnes’s (1983) treatment of Tagalog pluralizing particle *mga*.

Ně however could be understood to have three distinct uses. The first, as mentioned above, is to mark plurality. Alternatively, *ně* could also be used as an approximative (roughly equivalent to English ‘about’) when used with cardinal numbers or time expressions or as a honorific expletive to show politeness when used with proper names or with some nouns (mostly related to kinship terms). In its use for approximation, *ně* is interchangeable with *u*, ‘about’, although it is common in spoken speech to combine the two as an intensified construction. Preference is given to *ně*, however, if the noun being modified is the topic of the sentence and must therefore remain unmarked.

(3) *Ně mlazka-no scenžek?*
 HON= brother-DIM=Q arrive-AV-PF
 ‘Was my brother the one who arrived?’

(4) *Ně mlazka-no scenžek?*
 HON= brother-DIM=Q arrive-AV-PF
 ‘Was my brother the one who arrived?’

- (5) a. *Ně hroná byl*
 APPROX= three child
 ‘about three children’
- b. *u hroná byl*
 about three child-INS
 ‘about three children’
- c. *u ně hroná byl*
 about APPROX= three child-INS
 ‘about three children’

Note that when used with a cardinal number, *ně* can only be understood to signify approximation, i.e., (5a) can only mean ‘about three children’ and not ‘three children’, as the latter would only be translated as *hroná byl* without the clitic *ně*.

As has been earlier mentioned, *ně* is a proclitic and attaches to the left-most part of the noun phrase or verb phrase it modifies, including any modifier no matter how complex but excluding any proposition. In some cases, as can be seen in (b) and (c) below, the use of *ně* to pluralize a noun can imply definiteness.

- (6) a. *ně za byla tóm*
 PL= for child-ACC child
 ‘books for children’
- b. *za ně byla tóm*
 for PL= child-ACC child
 ‘a book for (these) children’
- c. *ně za ně byla tóm*
 PL= for PL= child-ACC child
 ‘books for (these) children’

The use of *ně*, however, is largely optional and where plurality can be implied from context, this particle is seen as redundant and is therefore dropped.

- (7) *Ně byl zapóček.*
 PL child laugh-AV-PF
 ‘The children jumped.’

Ně cannot be used with mass and uncountable nouns, as well as with abstract nouns.

- (8) a. **Na дума ně ješ piaštou.*
 LOC house PL EXST food
 ‘There is food in the house.’
- b. *Na дума toble ješ piaštou.*
 LOC house much EXST food
 ‘There is a lot of food in the house.’

The particle *ně* always precedes the noun it modifies, except in existential clauses where it comes before the existential particle *ješ*². *Ně* can obviously not be used with the negative particle *nibo*.

- (9) a. *ně bžę*
 PL bee
 ‘bees’
- b. *Ně ješ bžę.*
 PL EXST bee
 ‘There are bees.’

2. The sequence is pronounced as if written *niješ* [ˈnixjɛɕ]

- c. **Ně niho bžę.*
 PL EXST.NEG bee
 ‘There are no bees.’

Ně cannot be used with a limited number of nouns, mostly referring to paired body parts and related objects, which in the base form is understood to refer to the pair itself and thus cannot be pluralized. If the speaker wishes to explicitly refer to one piece of the pair, the noun *noma* (an obsolete form of the word for one-half, now surviving only in this construction) and the genitive form of the body part.

- (10) *Eg zaronnek.*
 eyes close-PV-PF
 ‘(He) closed (his) eyes.’
- (11) *Pohár dévit.*
 eyeglasses dirty
 ‘(Your) eyeglasses are dirty.’
- (12) *Obví noma utieščál.*
 shoe-GEN half REFL-lose-AV-CONT
 ‘The other pair of (his) shoe is missing.’

The base form is also used in generic statements where English would normally use the plural.

When used with a proper noun *ně* can be translated with the English construction ‘and others’. Note that this is different from the usage of *ně* as a honorific.

- (13) *Ně Jančě gnaž uprubížice.*
 PL= Janek-GEN school REFL-burn-AV-PF-QT
 ‘I heard Janek’s school burned down.’

- (14) *Ně Marek zázdalšek..*
 PL= Marek NEG-have:breakfast-AV-PF
 ‘Marek and the others did not eat breakfast.’

4.3 Definiteness

Iridian does not have definite or indefinite articles; instead a noun or a noun phrase’s definiteness is often expressed syntactically. This is discussed in detail in § 7.5.

4.4 The case system

4.4.1 Declension patterns

There are four basic declension classes (or simply declensions) in Iridian, distinguished from one another by the final letter of the stem. Most Iridian words end with the stem final vowels -a, -e, -o, -ó or -i, or with a consonantal stem.

Table 4.1. Paradigm endings for the six declension classes.

CASE	I	II	III	IV	V	VI
Agentive	-ám	-em	-am	-óvam	-ínam	-ám
Patientive	-e	-ína	-ie	-óva	-ína	-a
Genitive	-í	-ení	-ení	-óví	-ení	-í
Instrumental	-u	-emu	-u	-óvím	-imu	-u
Vocative	-u	-emu	-ou	-ou	-imu	-ou

4.4.2 Irregular declensions

4.4.3 Uninflected form

4.4.4 Agentive case

- (15) *Dá Marką tám stroja.*
 1S.STR Marek-AGT COMP tall
 ‘Marek is taller than me’

4.4.5 Patientive case

4.4.5.1 *Direct object*

The patientive case is used to mark the direct object of a verb that is in the agentive voice. Note that this usage implies that the direct object is indefinite unless the noun is further qualified (except through a demonstrative).

- (16) a. *Vaška piaščem.*
 cake-ACC eat-AV-PF-1S
 ‘I ate cake.’
- b. *Jedá vaška piaščem.*
 that cake-ACC eat-AV-PF-1S
 ‘I ate from that cake.’
- c. *Vaško piaštnikem.*
 cake eat-PV-PF-1S
 ‘I ate the cake.’
- d. *Jedá vaško piaštnikem.*
 that cake eat-PV-PF-1S
 ‘I ate that cake.’
- e. *Hroná vaške vatá piaščem.*
 three cake-GEN slice-ACC eat-PV-PF-1S
 ‘I ate three slices of cake.’

The patientive is also used to mark the direct object when the verb is in the benefactive voice.

- (17) *Ša vitamina piaštebik.*
 3S.ANIM vitamin-ACC eat-BEN-PF
 ‘(She) made him take (his) vitamins.’

4.4.5.2 *Locative*

The patientive is used with the particle *na* to form a compound locative case, which is itself used to indicate a general location.

- (18) *Tomáš na byra.*
 Tomáš LOC office-ACC
 ‘Tomáš is at the office.’

4.4.5.3 *Patientive of purpose*

The patientive is used with the particle *za* to indicate

4.4.5.4 *Lative*

The lative is a compound case indicating movement into or to the direction of something. It is formed using the particle *de* and a noun or noun phrase in the patientive case.

4.4.5.5 *Adessive*

The adessive is formed when the particle *u* is used with the patientive. This compound case indicates that the noun being modified by the noun in the adessive is near or in the vicinity of the noun in the adessive. The adessive case behaves syntactically in the same manner as the locative case with *na* in all cases.

- (19) *Tomáš u byra.*
 Tomáš ADE office-ACC
 ‘Tomáš is somewhere near the office.’

The adessive case is also used to approximate time.

- (20) *Ovaž u 19 óra.*
 dinner ADE 19 hour-ACC
 ‘Dinner is around seven.’

4.4.6 Genitive Case

The genitive (glossed GEN) is formed by appending the suffix *-e* to the root of a noun.

Due the palatalizing nature of the suffix, the following sound changes must be noted:

- Roots ending in k, h, and t change the final consonant to c and append the glide *-ie* instead: *Marek – Marcie* ‘Marek’, *avt – avcie* ‘car’, *dub – ducie* ‘head’
- Roots ending in d and g change the final consonant to ž and append the suffix *-e* instead: *vod – vože* ‘sister’, *seg – seže* ‘flower’
- Roots ending in the sibilants s, z, š, ž and the sibilant affricates c and č append *e* as well:
- Roots ending with a palatalized consonant lose the final y (there only for orthographic reasons in any case) before appending the *-í*: *kraštolý – kraštolí*
- Roots ending in a or o replace the vowel with e, while those ending in á and ó replace the root with í
- Roots ending in au, ou, or u replace the vowel with *-óví*: *dnou – dnóví* ‘front’
- Roots ending in áu, or ú replace the vowel with *-óvie*
- Roots ending in e, i or ý replace the vowel with *-eví*
- Roots ending in é, ei, í or ý replace the vowel with *-éví*
- Nouns derived from Latin or Greek ending in *-us* drop *-us* and replace it with *-í*: *komunižmus – komunižmí*

4.4.6.1 Genitive of Possession

The simplest use of the genitive case is to indicate ownership or possession. When used this way, the noun marked in the genitive must always precede the noun it modifies.

- (21) *Marcě dum*, ‘Marek’s house’
mámčě hašek, ‘my mother’s bag’
ša študencě tóm, ‘this bb’

Demonstratives and other modifiers must always come before the whole noun phrase and cannot split the possessor from the possessee. An exception to this rule is the clitic *ně*, which comes immediately before the noun it pluralizes.

- (22) a. *ša študencě tóm*, ‘the/a book of this student’
to študencě tóm, ‘this book of the student’
- b. *ně študencě tóm*, ‘the students’ book’
študencě ně tóm, ‘the student’s books’

4.4.6.2 *Partitive Genitive*

4.4.6.3 *Genitive of material*

- (23) *kuní prosc*, ‘silver spoon’
 ,⁶

4.4.6.4 *Genitive of the whole*

The genitive can also be used to indicate

- (24) *na kraštolí dnóva*
 LOC train:station-GEN front
 ‘in front of the train station’

Note that the patientive and not the genitive case is used when quantifying a part of the whole.

- (25) a. **žnouboušce broná*
 student-GEN three
 ‘three of the students’
- b. *na žnouboušca broná*
 LOC student-GEN three
 ‘three of the students’

Nevertheless when quantifying a noun per se, and not in relation to a whole, the uninflected form of the quantifier is used (mostly using indefinite quantifiers such as ‘many’, ‘a lot’, etc.). If however, the quantification involves a countable unit or division of the noun, the genitive is used, but such unit or division must be further quantified by a numeral or an indefinite quantifier.

- (26) a. *Na kroumašta po zma ješ pivo.*
 LOC refrigerator-ACC still few EXST beer
 ‘There’s still some beer left in the refrigerator.’

- b. *Ona pive štava unarižčem.*
 one beer-GEN mug-ACC REFL-order-AV-PV-1S
 ‘I ordered a mug of beer.’

4.4.6.5 Genitive of movement

The genitive is also used to indicate movement away from somewhere.

- (27) a. *Dumí palžek.*
 house-GEN leave-AV-PF
 ‘I left the house.’
- b. *Dum palzinek.*
 house leave-PV-PF
 ‘I left the *house*.’

4.4.7 Instrumental case

The instrumental case (glossed INS)

The following prepositions take the instrumental case: *še* ‘with’

- (28) *Za bolta še Janu stóžac.*
 for party-ACC with Jan-INS go-AV-CTPV
 ‘(I am) coming to the party with Jan.’

4.4.8 Vocative Case

4.5 Personal Pronouns

Personal pronouns are a special class of nouns used to refer and/or replace other nouns or noun phrases. Personal pronouns are marked for person, number and case, and partially for animacy, although third-person forms are more properly analyzed as demonstratives. In addition, personal pronouns have three forms: (1) an invariable strong form, used when the pronoun is the topic of the sentence; (2) a weak form; and (3) a clitic form.

4.5.1 Grammatical person

Iridian pronouns

Table 4.2. Personal pronouns in Iridian

FORM	1S	2S	1PL	2PL
<i>Strong form</i>	dá	já	mé	tová
<i>Weak form</i>				
Agentive	dám	jám	mám	tám
Patientive	do	jí	mně	te
Genitive	že	jení	mneví	teví
Instrumental	du	jemu	mo	tve
<i>Clitic form</i>	-em	-eš	-ic	-ak

4.5.2 Strong form

The strong form of a personal pronoun (glossed STR) is used when the pronoun is used as the topic of the sentence. The strong form is indeclinable.

4.5.3 Weak form

4.5.4 Clitic form

4.5.5 Third-Person Pronouns and Demonstratives

4.5.6 Ellipsis

Iridian is an extremely pro-drop language, with pronouns supplied only if not inferrable from context.

4.5.7 The Reflexive *se*

The reflexive *se* is used to refer back to the topic of the sentence. *Se* is often used with the reflexive voice, although the use of *se* often implies a greater disjunction between the actor and the patient. Where the reflexive voice has a primarily sociative meaning, as in verbs with a defunct active voice, *se* is used to form a true reflexive construction. In cases where the use of the reflexive is not syntactically required, *se* may nevertheless still be used as a form of emphasis, similar to the use of ‘own’ in English.

Table 4.3. Declension of the reflexive pronoun *se*.

Unmarked	<i>se</i>
Agentive	<i>snám</i>
Patientive	<i>sní</i>
Genitive	<i>si</i>
Instrumental	<i>sem</i>

Table 4.4. Demonstrative pronouns in Iridian.

	ANIMATE	INANI- MATE	LOCATIVE
Proximal	ša	to	tak
Medial	ón	ján	jení
Distal	dní	jón	joní

- (29) a. *Udušek*, ‘I took a bath.’
 b. *Se udušek*, ‘I bathed myself.’
- (30) a. *Guláše upiašček*, ‘I ate some goulash.’
 b. *?Se upiašček*, ‘I ate myself.’

4.6 Demonstratives

Iridian does not have a separate class of third-person pronouns. Instead it uses a set of demonstrative pronouns, whose deictic function is both spatial and anaphoric. Iridian makes a three-way distinction among demonstratives, similar to French or Portuguese for example, distinguishing between proximal (near the speaker), medial (near the addressee) and distal (far from both speaker and addressee) forms. In addition, Iridian makes an animacy distinction with demonstratives, with one set of demonstratives used with human referents and another with non-human referents, as seen in Table 4.4, but are unmarked for either number or gender.

Table 4.5. Declension of demonstratives.

	ša	ón	dní	to	ján	jón
Agentive	šem	nám	dněm	etom	ján	jón
Patientive	šá	ona	dná	toha	jina	jinóva
Genitive	ci	oní	dní	cie	ně	nohe
Instrumental	svou	nu	dnu	etu	nu	nohu

Demonstratives can be used adnominally, to modify a noun phrase, or pronominally, to replace one.

- (31) a. *ša byl*
 DEM.PROX.ANIM child
 ‘this child’
- b. *ša bylem*
 DEM.PROX.ANIM child-1SG
 ‘this child of mine’
- c. *Ša bylem.*
 DEM.PROX.ANIM child-1SG
 ‘This (person) is my child.’
- d. **To bylem*
 DEM.PROX.INAN child-1SG
 ‘This (thing) is my child.’

Unlike true personal pronouns, demonstratives do not have a separate strong form and clitic form. They are fully declined however, with the declined forms being highly irregular, as can be seen in Table 4.5.

- (32) a. *ci mlaz a dní maty*
 ‘this person’s brother and that person’s mother’
- b. *Dá je svou je dnu zapreví.*
 ‘I am as old as either this person or that person.’

The three-way distinction between demonstratives allows Iridian to disambiguate between an obviative third person and a proximate third person, using the distal and the proximal demonstrative respectively. Consider for example the two sentences in English below:

- (33) a. He saw his dog.
 b. He saw his own dog.

distinction is not optional, and the following sentence, for example, would be considered ungrammatical:

- (36) **Dá je svou je svou zapreví.*
'I am as old as either him or him.'

4.7 Use of Personal Pronouns

4.7.1 T-V Distinction

Iridian has three forms of address: the informal, the polite, and the formal.

The second person singular pronoun *já* is used to address friends, relatives or children. When addressing a stranger or an acquaintance with whom you want to maintain social distance or be polite without being too formal, the second person plural pronoun *tévit* is used. The polite form is also used when addressing God/gods. In more formal settings, the third-person plural pronoun *ože* is used.

4.8 Indefinite pronouns and quantifiers

4.9 Interrogative pronouns

Table 4.6. Interrogative pronouns in Iridian.

	ENGLISH		ENGLISH
jede	who	jach	which
ježe	what	zajehu	why
jehát	whom	jiká	how many
jehu	how	jišká	how much
jemí	when	jeně	to where
jena	where	jení	from where

4.10 Negative and Universal Pronouns

Negative pronouns are historically formed by attaching the prefix *že* before interrogative pronouns, and universal pronouns by attaching the prefix *ní-*

Table 4.7. Correspondence of interrogative, negative and universal pronouns.

INTERROGATIVE		NEGATIVE		UNIVERSAL	
jede	who	neíže	no one	něť	everyone
ježe	what	niho	nothing	níže	everything
jehu	how	žehu	by no means	něhu	by all means
jemí	when	žemie	never	nimie	always
jena	where	žena	nowhere	nina	everywhere
jach	which	žé	not one	nách	each

4.11 Names

MINOR WORD CLASSES

5.1 Conjunctions

5.1.1 Connective conjunctions

Sentences of the type

- (1) It is [ADJECTIVE] that[SUBORDINATE CLAUSE].

are normally translated in Iridian using an expletive-*a* construction, with the adjective in the attributive form at the start of the phrase, followed by *a*, and then by the rest of the main clause. Normally this construction is used for sentences that pass judgment to the action or state described in the main clause, although in some cases the adjective is simply used for description.

- (2) *Interезní a tékník znohouštnílá te prádelník.*
 interesting-ATT and engineering study-PV-SBJ.IPF RZ choose-PV-PF

‘It is interesting that you chose to study engineering.’

- (3) *Komí a já ščenžek.*
 good-ATT and 2S.STR arrive-AV-PF

‘Good you’re here now!’

Another common use of the expletive *a* is with the word *šblac*, ‘now’ (pronounced [sxlát] instead of the more intuitive [sxlátš]) to form the phrase *šblac a*¹, which is used to introduce a subordinate clause, similar to ‘now that’ in English.

1. This is therefore pronounced [‘sxlátš].

- (4) *Shlac a provisor ščenžek, kurs šelčinách.*
 now and professor arrive-AV-PF class begin-PV-CTPV
 ‘Now that the professor is here, we will begin our class.’

5.2 Prepositions

5.2.1 *na*

5.2.2 *še*

5.2.3 *vo*

Vo can be translated as ‘because of’ or ‘due to.’ This preposition takes the agentive case.

- (5) *Vo transitám lienu zászcnžčem.*
 because traffic-AGT on:time-INS NEG-arrive-AV-PF-IS
 ‘I didn’t arrive on time because of the traffic.’

5.2.4 *za*

5.3 Demonstratives

5.4 Quantifiers

Iridian has a wide variety of non-numerical/indefinite quantifiers. Most are actually nouns that used in adjectival or adverbial constructions.

- *ošč* ‘many’ (countable)

- (6) *Marka ješ naže ošč.*
 Marek-ACC EXST friend-GEN many
 ‘Marek has many friends.’

- (7) *Za kursa mén ješ ošč oudinášce ko vilm.*
 for class-ACC 1PL.INC.WK EXST many watch-SUP ATT film.
 ‘We have a lot of movies we need to watch for our class.’

- *nave* ‘too many’ (countable)

- (8) *Marka ješ naže ošš.*
 Marek-ACC EXST friend-GEN many
 ‘Marek has many friends.’

- *toble* ‘many’ (uncountable)
- *nabte* ‘too many, too much’ (uncountable)

- (9) *Do ješ nabte kurváš*
 1S.WK EXST too:much work-SUP.NOM
 ‘I have so much work to do.’

5.5 Interjections

An interjection is a word or an expression used to express a spontaneous reaction or feeling. We will use the term ‘interjection’ to refer both to the part of speech and to the utterance type that has the same pragmatic function as this part of speech (cf. Ameka 1992).

Interjections can be classified into two main categories: *primary* interjections, which refer to a word or an utterance that can only be used as an interjection and *secondary* interjections, which refer to forms belonging a different word class but which through its usage, has acquired a new meaning as an interjection.

Although interjections can function as exclamations, not all exclamatory utterances can be considered as interjections by themselves. As Jovanović (2004) notes, any word in a language can theoretically become an exclamation. Consider for example this conversation:

- (10) (adapted from Jovanović 2004).

— *Martin mlaza boulešik.*
 — ***Martinám?***

‘I heard Martin killed his brother.’
 ‘Martin?!’

5.6 Discourse particles

5.6.1 Yes and no

Iridian has several words for yes and no but their usage in responding to yes-no questions does not exactly align with that of English. This is discussed in detail in § 7.14.1.4.

There are two main words for ‘yes’ in Iridian: the affirmative *dé* (‘Did you see it?’ ‘Yes, I did.’) and the contrastive *če* (‘Did you not see it?’ ‘Yes, I did.’). The distinction is similar as that between the French *oui* and *si*. Both *dé* and *če* generally appear at the end of a sentence. In colloquial spoken Iridian it is also common to see the form *ja* (most likely from the Czech, and ultimately from the German *ja*) and the more informal *jó*. These forms however are not cliticized to the verb and appear at the start of a sentence, set off from the rest with a comma. Both *ja* and *jó* cannot be used contrastively like *če*. It is also common to use both *ja/jó* at the same time as *dé*.

- (11) —*Tò vđinice?* —*Ja vđinek dé.*
 this see-PV-PF-QT yes see-PV-PF yes
 “‘Did you see it?’ “‘Yes, I did.’”

When used by themselves, both *ja* and *jó* are often repeated twice or thrice (e.g., *Ja ja ja.*)² even when the usage is not emphatic. *Dé* and *če* cannot be used this way.

5.7 Numerals

Iridian has a vigesimal number system. Table 5.1 shows Iridian numerals from 1 to 20. Numbers from 1 to 10 are given their own name while numbers from 11 to 19 are formed by appending the numbers from one to nine to the clitic *-niem* with the preposition *še* (with). The clitic *-niem* is derived from the word for number 10, *nau*, which itself comes from the Old Iridian **nagu*, ‘half.’

For numbers 11 to 19, the words are formed by appending the numbers from one to nine to the suffix *-niem* with the preposition *še*, ‘with’.

2. Commas are not used to separate each *ja* or *jó* in standard orthography.

Table 5.1. Iridian numerals from 1 to 20.

NUMBER	IRIDIAN	NUMBER	IRIDIAN
1	ona	11	onšeniem
2	mÿ	12	myšeniem
3	hroná	13	hronašeniem
4	drou	14	drušeniem
5	jed	15	jecniem
6	vou	16	vušeniem
7	ščę	17	ščęceniem
8	pieš	18	pięceniem
9	cam	19	camzeniem
10	nau	20	tydná

Numbers from 21 to 99 are first expressed as multiples of 20. Thenceforth, the number system has largely become decimal, due primarily to the influence of surrounding Indo-European languages. Old Iridian, however, had a vigesimal system up to the number 8000.

Table 5.4 shows multiples of 10 from 30 to 100. The numbers are formed by the numeral followed by *tydná*. For bases that are not multiples of 20, the word *nau*, ‘ten’ is added first, followed by the conjunction *še*, ‘with’.

Table 5.2. Iridian numerals from 30 to 100.

NUMBER	IRIDIAN	NUMBER	IRIDIAN
30	naušetydná	70	naušehronutydná
40	mytydná	80	drohutydná
50	naušemytydná	90	naušedrohutydná
60	hronutydná	100	miesy

Iridian counting starts from the smallest component of the number to the largest. Each component can be simply appended with the conjunction *še*. Only the numerals in Tables 5.1 and 5.4, and the first ten numbers after 100, 500, 1000, etc. appear as single words. Below are some illustrations:

- (12) a. *ječemiesy*
 ‘five with hundred,’ i.e., 105
- b. *cam še drobutydná*
 ‘nine with four twenties,’ i.e., 89
- c. *pięceniem še hronutydná*
 ‘eighteen with three twenties,’ i.e., 78

Table 5.3. Iridian numerals from 200 to one billion.

NUMBER	IRIDIAN
200	<i>mach</i>
300, 400, etc.	<i>hronumiesy, drohumiesy, etc.</i>
1000	<i>nic</i>
2000, 3000, etc.	<i>myniec, hronuniec, etc.</i>
10.000	<i>ohle</i>
20.000, etc.	<i>tydnuniec, etc.</i>
100.000	<i>hazlek</i>
200.000 etc	<i>mehdeniec, hronuniec, etc.</i>
1.000.000	<i>miliám</i>
1.000.000.000	<i>milár</i>
1.000.000.000.000	<i>biliám</i>

5.7.1 Ordinal numbers

Except for the first three cardinal numbers that have irregular ordinal forms, ordinals are mostly regular, formed with the suffix *-šle* (or *-išle* after consonants). The ordinal form of the numbers one, two and three are *bezka*, *dviec* and *cebra*, respectively. When written as numerals, a full stop is used as in German (e.g., *camišle*, ‘ninth’ would be written 9.).

The letter n has its own ordinal form (cf. English ‘nth’ for example), *enišle*, as do the rest of the other letters. These ordinal forms are generally regular. Their usage is confined to mathematical literature, however, with the clear exception of *enišle*, which is often used idiomatically (cf. French *pour la centième fois*).

5.7.2 Fractions and decimals

As with most languages in Europe, Iridian uses the comma (Iridian *kvá*) to separate whole number from decimals. Numbers after the comma are read in pairs of two, with the first number read separately in case there is an odd number of numerals after the comma (e.g., 3,34 is read as *broná kvá drušením še tydná* while 3,346 is read *broná kvá broná vou še mytydná*). If there are seven or more numbers following the come, each is read separately instead.

Fractional forms are also regularly formed using the suffix *-izmek*. The word for half, *niet*, however is irregular. Fractional forms are sometimes used together with the regular decimal forms when dealing with currency. For example, 5,50 kr. can be read as either *jed kvá naušemytydná korun* or more commonly *jed še niet korun*.

5.7.3 Date and time

Dates are written with the year first, followed by the month, and ultimately by the date. When written in numerals, the numbers are separated by a full stop. When spoken or when written in full, the number representing the year is followed by the word *blet*, ‘year’, often in the instrumental case. When followed by the name of the month, *blet* is declined in the genitive. When the date is included, the ordinal form is used, followed by the word *ráz*, ‘day,’ although the latter may be dropped in casual speech. The inclusion of the date also requires the name of the month to be in the genitive case.

- (13) a. 1992 *bletí* *julí* 15. *rázu* *veštašik*
 1992 year-GEN july-GEN 15th day-INS be:born-AV-PF
 ‘I was born on 5 July 1992.’

Table 5.4. Months of the year.

MONTH	IRIDIAN	MONTH	IRIDIAN
January	jenvár	July	jul
February	fevrár	August	augošť
March	merc	September	seĩtembár
April	april	October	oktobár
May	mai	November	novembár
June	jón	December	dicábár

DERIVATIONAL MORPHOLOGY

6.1 Introduction

In § 1.3 we discussed how Iridian words can be classified into two broad groups: content words and function words. Due to their very nature, function words are largely invariable in form; content words, on the other hand, vary constantly and their form reflect the grammatical information they carry. We call this system of variation **INFLECTION**, and it is one of the ways languages like Iridian form new words from pre-existing ones.¹

In this chapter we will discuss two more ways to form new words in Iridian: **DERIVATION** and **COMPOUNDING** (cf. Booij 2005; Velupillai 2012: 115). Compounding involves the amalgamation of multiple words to form a new word; this is discussed in detail in section § 6.4. Derivation, on the other hand, involves modifying a word with affixes (in a similar way to inflection) to change its meaning. Unlike inflectional affixes, however, derivational affixes do not carry any grammatical information

1. By “new” here we mean a form different from the original word; but since inflection is primarily a grammatical operation, the difference in meaning occasioned by inflection is often not significant.

6.2 Nominal Derivation

6.2.1 Diminutives and Augmentatives

Unlike English, but similar to most Slavic and Romance languages, Iridian frequently employs DIMINUTIVES (and to a lesser degree AUGMENTATIVES). The most basic form of the diminutive is formed with the suffix *-ka* (or *-cka* after vowels), which most linguists agree is a non-native morpheme, and is most likely borrowed from Slavic.

- (1) *jec*, ‘dog’ → *jecka*, ‘doggy, little dog’
papír, ‘paper’ → *papírka*, ‘piece of paper’
dum, ‘house’ → *dumka*, ‘little house’
kávė, ‘coffee’ → *kávėcka*, ‘espresso’

Diminutives are used to express that something is small or insignificant. In the spoken language, however, it is more common to use the diminutive to express endearment or affectation. This same usage makes it possible to use the diminutive patronizingly, to belittle or to be dismissive. With mass nouns, the diminutive is also often used to refer to a small quantity of something.

- (2) a. To express affection:
Jecka do vezdálnik.
 dog-DIM 1S.PAT to:gift-PV-PF
 ‘This dog was given to me as a gift.’
- b. To dismiss or belittle:
To na provízorká niho zabor.
 this LOC professor-DIM-PAT NEXST knowledge
 ‘This so-called “professor” doesn’t know a thing.’
- c. To express a small quantity of something:

When referring to members of one’s own family, that of a friend’s, or of the person being addressed, the diminutive form is also used. Most kinship terms have irregular forms and are listed in § C.1.1. In colloquial Iridian proper names are also often marked as diminutives, with the variant suffix *-ik/-k* being more common. The first-person plural clitic *-óm*, ‘our’ is often used in conjunction with the diminutive. In addition to this, most names also have irregular diminutive forms and variants which are discussed in detail in § 4.1.1.

- (3) *Janek* → *Jančík*, *Jančíkóm*
Marek → *Marčík*, *Marčíkóm*
Tomáš → *Tomášík*, *Tomášíkóm*
Tereza → *Terežík*, *Terežíkóm*
Agáta → *Agáčik*, *Agáčíkóm*

Double and triple diminutives are also common, formed using *-(i)ška* and *-(i)sička*, respectively. Quadruple and quintuple diminutives are also possible (formed using *-(i)nisička* *-(i)nižesička*, respectively), although their usage is not as neutral, and would often be used to mock or to exaggerate.²

Augmentatives are also used, although their usage is not as common as diminutives and their usage is often limited as pejoratives. Augmentatives are formed with the suffixes *-(ž)ulám* or *-(ž)urnám* or *-(ž)ulábmaš*. These forms are not interchangeable and in general the longer the augmentative suffix is, the more pejorative is its connotation.

6.2.2 Nouns from nouns

The suffix *-(e)vnice* is used in deriving nouns from proper nouns. When used with names of places it generally has the meaning ‘resident of’ or ‘native of’. Countries whose name end in the suffix *-óma* drop the suffix first before adding *-(e)vnice*. The variant *-evnik* has the same meaning as *-(e)vnice* but can only be used derogatorily.

- | | |
|----------------------------------|-------------------------------------|
| (4) <i>ircevnice</i> , ‘Iridian’ | <i>néviorčevnice</i> , ‘New Yorker’ |
| <i>mažarevnice</i> , ‘Hungarian’ | <i>turčevnice</i> , ‘Turk’ |
| <i>čiževnice</i> , ‘Czech’ | <i>ruževnice</i> , ‘Russian’ |
| <i>polševnice</i> , ‘Polish’ | <i>američevnice</i> , ‘American’ |
| <i>mušbounvice</i> , ‘Muscovite’ | <i>anglevnice</i> , ‘English’ |

The suffix *-(h)ár* from the Czech *-ár/-ář* indicates agency. It is often used to form nouns relating to professions, although it may appear with Latinate loanwords as the assimilated form of the French *-aire*.

- (5) *revolucebár*, ‘revolutionary’ fr. *revoluce*, ‘revolution’
milionár, ‘millionaire’ fr. *milion*, ‘million’
travár, ‘baker’ fr. *trava*, ‘bread’

2. The suffixes *-(i)ška* and *-(i)sička* are of Slavic origin while *-(i)nisička* *-(i)nižesička* are Iridian innovations.

kostlár, 'fisherman' fr. *kostel*, 'fish'
známebár, 'smith' fr. *známe*, 'metal'
zakár, 'sailor' fr. *zak*, 'sea'
bašketbólar, 'basketball player' fr. *bašketból*, 'basketball'
mištár, 'warrior' fr. *mišt*, 'war'
ákcehár, 'shareholder' fr. *ákce*, 'share of stock'
nepodár, 'bureaucrat' fr. *nepod*, 'position, rank'

Variants of *-(h)ár* include *-(h)er* and *-(h)or*, although their usage is much more limited.

- (6) *senátor*, 'senator' fr. *senát*, 'senate'
aviátor, 'aviator' fr. *aviace*, 'aviation'
belder, 'salaryman' fr. *beld*, 'wage, salary', itself from German *Geld*

Another common suffix used to form agent nouns is *-ist*. This suffix is often used on nouns ending in *-ižmus*.

- (7) *komunist*, 'communist' fr. *komunizmus*, 'communism'
modernist, 'modernist' fr. *modernizmus*, 'modernism'
avtist, 'cabdriver' fr. *avt*, 'car'
mašinist, 'engineer' fr. *mašina*, 'machine, engine'
bankist, 'banker' fr. *bank*, 'bank'
žurnálist, 'journalist' fr. *žurnál*, 'magazine'

The most common way of forming abstract nouns is through the suffix *-(i)žnám*.

- (8) *vidližnám*, 'slavery' fr. *videl*, 'slave'
tiebožnám, 'divinity' fr. *tiebo*, 'god'
teškižnám, 'membership' fr. *teške*, 'member'
stultižnám, 'puberty' fr. *stólet*, 'teenager'

The suffix *-(i)mašt* forms a place or location associated to a noun.

- (9) *piaštoumašt*, 'dining room, pantry' fr. *piaštou*, 'food'
traumašt, 'bakery' fr. *trava*, 'bread'
jakomašt, 'woods' fr. *jako*, 'tree'
jelcimašt, 'jungle' fr. *jelec*, 'forest'
dílmašt, 'nursery' fr. *diel*, 'infant'
dobzámašt, 'paradise' fr. *dobáz*, 'bliss'

6.2.3 Nouns From verbs and adjectives

6.3 Verbal Derivation

6.4 Compounding

6.5 Linguistic Borrowing

A significant portion of the vocabulary of Iridian comes from loanwords from neighbouring languages, especially German, Czech and Polish, and to a lesser extent Hungarian. Like most languages from the area, Iridian also has a notable portion of its vocabulary derived from French and Latin, mostly scientific and academic terms. In addition, after the advent of the internet, there has been an increasing amount derived from English and other world languages as well. Most loanwords are assimilated to conform with Iridian phonological rules, although most recent loanwords generally maintain the phonology of the language they were originally borrowed from.

In most cases, the loanwords or their assimilated forms coexist with their native Iridian counterparts. Often their usage is interchangeable

6.5.1 German and Other Germanic Languages

Like its neighboring Czech Republic and Slovakia, Iridia has had significant contact with the German-speaking peoples of Central Europe throughout the centuries, leading to a significant German influence on the language's vocabulary. Most of the words of German origin now in Iridian entered the language in the 16th century when the Duchy of Iridia (then a part of the Crown of Bohemia) was absorbed into the Habsburg Monarchy, with the influence continuing into the late 19th century. Starting the 1880s³ however (in large part due to the spread of Romanticism and nationalism in the region), and until the collapse of the Austro-Hungarian Empire, attempts have been made to 'de-Germanize' Iridian vocabulary by replacing German vocabulary with words from the native stock or more often with calques. This 'de-Germanization' continued well into the first half of the 20th century, as a result of which, German loanwords in Iridian in constant use have significantly

3. Some sources point to the defeat of Austria and the Peace of Prague in 1866 as the beginning of the 'de-Germanization' of Iridia. Nevertheless it was not until the Edict of Julmonc (then Olmütz) was issued in March 1882 that the de-Germanization of the Iridian language was formalized by Iridian state authorities.

decreased from what they have been in the 16th to the 18th centuries, with most words of Germanic origin now considered archaic and are used primarily as an affectation (cf. English *thou*, *shew* and *methinks*, for example).

Assimilation of German phonemes that do not exist in Iridian is generally consistent, and is subject to the rules discussed in this section.

German has three falling diphthongs (Wiese 1996): /aɪ/, /aʊ/ and /ɔʏ/, none of which have exact equivalents in Iridian. Nonetheless /aʊ/ assimilates to Iridian /aʊ̯/ (both spelled ⟨au⟩). /aɪ/ does occur marginally in Iridian, but most instances of /aɪ/ in German become either /a:z/ or /eɪ̯/.⁴ Finally /ɔʏ/ is never assimilated to the marginal /ɔɪ̯/ but becomes either /eɪ̯/ or /aʊ̯/.

(10) Assimilation of German diphthongs:

Karlštán, ‘Charles Castle’ fr. *Karlstein*

Bérna, ‘Bayern’ fr. *Bayern*

bedautum, ‘significance, importance’ fr. *Bedeutung*

Freid, ‘Freud’ fr. *Freud*

The raised vowels ⟨ä⟩ and ⟨ö⟩ become /e:z/ ⟨é⟩ (or sometimes /ɪ/ ⟨i⟩) in Iridian while ⟨ü⟩ become /y/ ⟨y⟩.

4. Or just [ä:] and [e:] given the monophthongization of /eɪ̯/ in most dialects.

CLAUSE STRUCTURE

7.1 Introduction

The constituent word order of Iridian sentences is SOV, but the agglutinative nature of the language and the presence of case-marking on nouns makes word order typically flexible, with the only universal rule being that the main verb should appear at the end of a sentence.

7.2 Topic-predicate constructions

The Iridian sentence can be divided primarily into a topic part and a predicate or comment part. The topic is what the sentence is about, while the predicate or comment represents the information presented in the sentence about the topic. While both the topic and the predicate are pragmatic constructs, the topic-predicate construction is important as it determines how the rest of the sentence is structured.

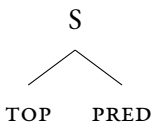


Figure 7.1. Nuclear structure of sentences

The topic of the sentence does not necessarily coincide with the subject of the sentence. This is true as well in English, as we see in example (1); although where English allows the topic to appear anywhere in the sentence, as long as the subject is placed first, Iridian, typical of topic-prominent languages, requires the topic to always be introduced first, leaving the rest of the information afterwards.

- (1) a. Martha saw John.
 b. A dog bit *Martha*.
 c. It is raining *today*,
- (2) a. [*Janek*]_{TOP} [*mlaza boulešik*]_{PRED}
 ‘As for Janek, he killed his brother’.
 b. [*Tereza*]_{TOP} [*ječám nalečnik*]_{PRED}
 ‘As for Tereza, she was bitten by a dog’
 c. [*Šbléd*]_{TOP} [*zniepšalí*]_{PRED}
 ‘As for today, it is raining.’

More importantly, the topic of the sentence determines how the main verb, and thus all the other constituents of the sentence, are marked.

- (3) a. *Tereza ječám nalečnik*.
 ‘As for Tereza, she was bitten by a dog’
 b. *Jec Tereze nalčešik*.
 ‘As for the dog, it bit Tereza.’

As Kiss (2004: 9) notes:

We tend to describe events from a human perspective, as statements about their human participants – and subjects are more often [+HUMAN] than objects are. In the case of verbs with a [-HUMAN] subject and a [+HUMAN] accusative or oblique complement, the most common permutation is that in which the accusative or oblique complement occupies the topic position [.] When the possessor is the only human involved in an action or state, the possessor is usually topicalized[.]

7.3 The noun phrase

Iridian is a strongly head-final language.

7.3.1 Nuclear constructions

7.3.2 With adjectival clauses

7.3.3 With prepositional phrases

7.3.4 With relative clauses

7.4 Topicless sentences

7.5 Definiteness

Iridian lacks a specific class of articles such as English ‘a’ or ‘the’ to mark the opposition between definite and indefinite nouns. For example, the word *ječ* can mean both ‘a dog’ or ‘the dog’ depending on the context (or in some environments the same word can be interpreted as ‘dogs,’ ‘some dogs’ or ‘the dogs’).

A common way to specify the definiteness of a noun is to promote it to the topic position in the sentence. As discussed in § 7.2, the topic of a sentence must be specific and referential, and therefore it is often, but not always, definite. Consider for example the two sentences below.

- | | | | | |
|-----|----|--|----|--|
| (4) | a. | <i>Pitár pižmo.</i>
Pitár farmer
‘Pitar is a farmer.’ | b. | <i>Pižmo Pitár.</i>
farmer Pitár
‘Pitár is the farmer.’ |
|-----|----|--|----|--|

This can be extended to non-copular constructions.

- | | | | | |
|-----|----|---|----|--|
| (5) | a. | <i>Vličě štanžice.</i>
milk-GEN drink-AV-PF-QT
‘(I) drank some milk.’ | b. | <i>Vliko štanimce.</i>
milk drink-PV-PF-QT
‘(I) drank the milk.’ |
|-----|----|---|----|--|

If the topic is quantified by a numeral, indefiniteness can be expressed by nominalizing the main verb and promoting it to topic.

- (6) a. *Jaro okrád za propozícia nebidček.*
 five district for proposal-ACC vote:against-AV-PF
 ‘The five districts voted against the proposal.’
- b. *Za propozícia nebidčkou jaro okrád.*
 for proposal-ACC vote:against-AV-PF-NZ five district
 ‘Five districts voted against the proposal.’
- c. *Za propozícia nebidčkou ko okrád jaro.*
 for proposal-ACC vote:against-AV-PF-NZ RZ district five
 ‘Five is the number of districts that voted against the proposal.’

The number one (*oní*)

- (7) a. *Tóm onaževí.*
 book be:lost-CONT
 ‘The book is missing.’
- b. *Oní tóm onaževí.*
 one book be:lost-CONT
 ‘One of the books is missing.’
- c. *Onaživou pni tóm.*
 one book be:lost-CONT
 ‘One of the books is missing.’
- d. *Onaživou pni tóm.*
 one book be:lost-CONT
 ‘One of the books is missing.’

Note that this rule is not universal and the topic of a sentence does not necessarily have to be definite, especially where the sentence is merely expressing a fact or a general truth:

- (8) *Jec hvárem.*
 dog animal
 ‘Dogs are animals.’
- (9) *To »jec« hvárem že: to robot*
 DEM dog animal NCOP DEM robot
 ‘The “dog” is not a real animal but a robot.’

- (15) *a plocem a plocěš.*
 and family-1SG and family-2S
 ‘both my family and yours’
- (16) *a bastu a še zmenu zověc hloubižách.*
 and suffering- and COM happiness-INS remain-CV love-AV-CTPF
 ‘Til death do us part.’ *Lit.*, ‘I will love you through both suffering and joy.’

With multiple nouns or noun phrases, especially in serial lists, the coordinating conjunction is often simply dropped.

- (17) *Ivan, Jarek, Elena na meza.*
 Ivan Jarek Elena LOC room-ACC
 ‘Ivan, Jarek, and Elena are in the room.’
- (18) *Morkve, blepost, ruk, molec hladniževí.*
 carrot asparagus broccoli cabbage to:displease-AV-CONT
 ‘I don’t like carrots, asparagus, broccoli or cabbage.’

A or *še* however is required when two adjectives are used to modify a noun, with *še* used when the two adjectives describe the same noun and *a* (or often *a še*) when describing two distinct objects.¹

- (19) a. *Sodoví še lidí kobera tabatnik.*
 black with white shirt bring-PV-PF
 ‘I brought the black-and-white shirt.’
- b. *Sodoví a (še) lidí kobera tabatnik.*
 black and with white shirt bring-PV-PF
 ‘I brought the black shirt as well as the white one.’

Other common uses of *a* and *še* are described in detail in section § 5.1.1

The particle *nebí*, ‘also’ may take a conjunctive meaning when attached to multiple elements in a sentence, similar to *a... a...*, ‘both... and...’ but more emphatic.

- (20) *Lukáš nebí Marek nebí naž*
 Lukáš also Marek also friend
 ‘Lukáš and Marek are also my friends.’

1. When used this way, the noun preceding *še* or *a še* is not declined in the instrumental case.

Má and *ozná* are used to express contrast, like the English ‘but’. *Ozná* however is more restrictive, and can only be used if the first clause is in the negative and the second clause directly contradicts (or provides an alternative to) the first. The clause introduced by *ozná* must directly correspond to the element in the first clause being negated. Where the initial element is inflected, such inflection must also be reflected on the alternative presented in the *ozná* clause.²

(21) *Stožek má na duma niho čast.*
 GO-AV-PF but LOC house-ACC NEXST person
 ‘I went but no one was home.’

(22) *Zám bięc češčeví ozná jec.*
 NEG cat to:please-AV-CONT but dog
 ‘(I) don’t like cats but I do like dogs.’

Ozná does not allow a negative argument. If the main clause is positive and the secondary clause is negative, *má* is used instead.

(23) *To jako odpizdnounilá to hrebe češčeví,*
 DEM.PROX tree to:grow-LOC-SUBJ.IPF RZ mushroom-ACC to:please-AV-CONT
má zám ján.
 but NEG DEM.MED
 ‘Mushrooms love to grow under this tree, but not under that one.’

Má or its variant *a má* (literally ‘and but’) is also used to introduce exclamatory sentences. This usage is purely idiomatic and does not require for there to be an actual contrastive meaning in the sentences.

(24) *A má duma nahće ašteví!*
 and but house too:much be:pretty-CONT
 ‘Your house is very beautiful!’

Finally, the disjunctive conjunctions *je*, *li*, and *ni* are used to join phrases or sentences that are seen as alternatives to each other. *Je*, ‘or’ may be used to separate the alternatives proposed, or reduplicated, preceding each of the components of the sentence (i.e., *je X je Y*, ‘either X or Y’); this latter use often

2. The syntax of the main clause does not necessarily correspond to how the sentence would have otherwise been constructed in isolation. For instance, the neutral syntax for example (22) without the *ozná* would be: *Bięc záčesčeví*.

means that the options being presented are the only ones available. *Ni*³ is the inverse of *je* and must always be used in pairs (*ni X ni Y*, ‘neither X nor Y’) as when used alone it functions as an adverb (similar to English ‘not even’ or ‘at all’). An obvious exception, however, would be in a conversation, when a speaker would provide a negative alternative response to an already negative statement (see example (26c) below).

- (25) *Ni ircevní ni ruševní malnovím zabviržéteví.*
 nor Iridian-ATT nor Russian-ATT tongue-INS speak-AV-POT-CONT
 ‘I can’t speak neither Iridian nor Russian.’
- (26) a. *Dá ircevní malnovím ni zazabviržéteví.*
 1SGSTR Iridian-ATT tongue-INS not:even speak-AV-POT-CONT
 ‘I can’t speak any Iridian at all.’
- b. *Ni ircevní ni ruševní malnovím zabviržéteví.*
 nor Iridian-ATT nor Russian-ATT tongue-INS speak-AV-POT-CONT
 ‘I can’t speak neither Iridian nor Russian.’
- c. — *Dá ruševní malnovím zabviržéteví.* ‘I don’t speak Russian.’
 — *Ni dá.* ‘Neither do I.’

Le (another possible Slavic borrowing, adopted from Common Slavic *li* or *ili*) has a more emphatic and contrastive meaning than *je*. It is used when the speaker thinks that the option being presented is counterfactual or doubtful. Unlike *je* or *ni*, *le* is added to the end of the word or phrase. *Le* is most often used in parenthetical statements or in responses; it cannot be used by itself when both alternatives are present and must be introduced instead by either *je* or *a*.

- (27) a. *Marek-le ruševní malnovím zabviržéteví.*
 Marek=or Russian-ATT tongue-INS speak-AV-POT-CONT
 ‘Or maybe Marek can speak Iridian.’
- b. *Já Karlu je Terezu-le de Rume sostožit.*
 2SG.STR Karel-INS or Tereza-INS=or LAT Rome-ACC REC-go-AV-SUP
 ‘Karel — or maybe even Tereza — can come with you to Rome.’

3. *Ni* is an Indo-European, possibly Slavic, borrowing.

7.7 Apposition

Appositive constructions in Iridian involve the juxtaposition of two or more noun phrases that have a single referent. An apposition can be non-restrictive if the appositive can be removed freely without changing the meaning of a sentence, or restrictive otherwise.

Formally both non-restrictive and restrictive appositives are treated as modifier phrases but only the latter is grammaticalized. The restrictive appositive must always precede the noun phrase it modifies, linked together by the particle *ko*. Non-restrictive appositives on the other hand are simply juxtaposed together, although a comma is often inserted around the appositive if it consists of more than one word.

- (28) a. *Óto mlazka na Mnibe znobouševí.*
 Óto brother-DIM LOC Munich-ACC study-AV-CONT
 ‘My brother Otto is studying in Munich.’
- b. *Óto ko mlazka na Mnibe znobouševí.*
 Óto LNK brother-DIM LOC Munich-ACC study-AV-CONT
 ‘My brother Otto is studying in Munich.’

Examples (28a) and (28b) shows two different translations of the English phrase ‘My brother Óto is studying in Munich.’ Example (28a) is non-restrictive and can be interpreted as ‘I have a brother named Óto who is studying in Munich’ while (28b) being restrictive can be translated more on the lines of ‘Among my brothers, it is Óto who is studying in Munich.’ The restrictive appositive implies specificity and by extension the existence of a group where this specificity holds true; in (28b) this is taken to mean that a set of brothers exists and Óto is a member of this set.

7.8 Syntax of event and participant nominals

As we have established in § 3.9.2, Iridian has three forms of nominalisation: (1) the mainly non-productive usage of the nominalising *-ou* with the verbal stem to form resultant nominals; (2) the use of *-ou* in conjunction with the gerund-forming prefix *po(d)-* to form a verbal noun (which we call an event nominal or gerund) and which may either include the internal arguments of the parent verb or not; and (3) the formation of a participant nominal (cf. Pearson 2013) which nominalises not the event described by the verb but its participants.

Since gerunds represent the nominalisation of the event described by the verb, they are therefore inherently abstract and active in meaning. Since the nominalised forms are abstract, it follows that they are also tenseless and aspectless. Iridian gerunds, however, may be optionally marked for their lexical aspect or *aktionsart* using the continuous aspect suffix *-eví* (which subsequently becomes *-ív-* through sound change). It is important to note though that although a marker for grammatical aspect is used, what is being marked is lexical and not grammatical aspect; specifically, the addition of *-ív-* only signifies that the action is iterative in nature and thus the gerund itself remains tenseless and aspectless.

- (29) a. *nidá* → *nidou*
 ‘(my) standing up’
- b. *nidá* → *ponidívou*
 ‘(my) standing up repeatedly’

In CENs, both the agent and the patient are marked in the genitive.⁴ If both are present, the agent must always appear first. This construction is quite common cross-linguistically, as we see in the examples below.

- (30) a. *Mlazců* *pravi* *na* *Mnibe* *poznobouštou* *na*
 brother-DIM-GEN law-GEN LOC Munich-ACC GER-study-NZ LOC
zabrana *nemniček.*
 beginning-ACC surprise-AV-PF
 ‘My brother’s studying law (i.e., my brother’s decision to study law) in Munich surprised us at first.’
- b. Lithuanian (Šereikaitė 2020: 1)
Jono *augalų* *sunaikinimas.*
 Jonas-GEN plants-GEN PFV-destroy-CAUS-NZ-NOM.M.SG
 ‘Jonas’ destruction of plants’

4. Šereikaitė (2020) argues that although (in the case of Lithuanian, at least) the agent and the theme from the original sentence both become marked in the genitive in the resulting complex event nominal, the superficially identical genitives are actually two distinct cases: a higher genitive (GEN.H) assigned to agents and possessors and a lower genitive (GEN.L) assigned to grammatical objects. Although this argument is interesting and probably holds true as well in Iridian CENs, we will not make an effort to ascertain whether there is an actual difference in the two genitive cases in Iridian as this is not needed for the purpose of this grammar.

- c. Tagalog (Hsieh 2019: 22)
 (Ang) *Pagluluto ni Harvey (ng manok) ang nangyari.*
 NOM GER~cook GEN Harvey GEN chicken NOM happen.PFV
 ‘What happened was Harvey’s cooking (of chicken).’

The use of the genitive to mark both the actor and the theme in the original sentence is of course a recipe for ambiguity. When only one of either the actor or the theme is present in the CEN, the ambiguity is on whether the noun marked represents the one or the other, as, e.g., the phrase *Jancě podobletou* which can be interpreted to mean either ‘the act of remembering Janek’ or ‘Janek’s act of remembering’ without any further information. A second ambiguity arises when both the actor and the theme are in the sentence as it is unclear, without any context, the genitive is actually being used to mark their thematic role in the originally or is in fact a possessive. The same is true in, for example, Lithuanian where as Šreikaitė (2020) points out, sentence (30b) can also be alternatively translated as ‘[the] destruction of Jonas’s plants’.

The first type of ambiguity is resolved in English by using word order: in general, a prepositive genitive (i.e., using the clitic *’s* or the possessive form of a pronoun) is used when the noun in the genitive case in the CEN represents the actor (e.g., ‘John’s remembering’) while a postpositive genitive is used when the noun in the genitive represents the theme (e.g., ‘the remembering of John’). This in turn, can be extended to the second type, e.g., ‘John’s remembering of Margaret’. However, the obligatorily head-final nature of Iridian syntax means that such strategy is not possible. Instead, the strategy used in Iridian is more similar to the one found in Tagalog where the theme may be marked using the oblique *sa*⁵ instead of the genitive *ng*.⁶ Thus we can restate (30c) as follows:

- (31) Tagalog (modified from Hsieh 2019: 22)
 (Ang) *Pagluluto ni Harvey sa manok ang nangyari.*
 NOM GER~cook GEN Harvey OBL chicken NOM happen.PFV
 ‘What happened was Harvey’s cooking of *the* chicken.’

An immediate consequence of replacing the genitive *ng* with the oblique marker *sa/kay* is that the theme is now interpreted as definite (cf. Kaufman

5. This becomes *kay* before proper nouns.

6. To call *ng* (pronounced [nɛŋ]) as a genitive marker is simplistic (even erroneous) but should be enough for the purpose of our discussion.

2009: 3, 40). The use of the oblique to mark the theme can be used even when only one element is present in the event nominal; in fact, when the theme is known as definite for a fact (e.g., if it is a person), the choice between the oblique and the genitive is what distinguishes the actor and the theme. Thus we have

- (32) a. Choice between OBL and GEN distinguishing actor from theme
- *pagtawag kay* [OBL] *Harvey*
‘the act of calling Harvey’
 - *pagtawag ni* [GEN] *Harvey*
‘Harvey’s act of calling’
- b. Resolving ambiguity by obligatory replacement of GEN by OBL in the theme:
- *pagtawag ni* [GEN] *Harvey sa* [OBL] *kasama*
‘Harvey’s act of calling his colleague’
 - *pagtawag ni* [GEN] *Harvey ng* [GEN] *kasama*
‘Harvey’s act of calling a colleague’
- c. New ambiguity introduced by changing the word order:
- *pagtawag ng* [GEN] *kasama ni* [GEN] *Harvey*
‘Harvey’s act of calling a colleague’ or ‘The act of calling Harvey’s colleague’
- d. Ungrammatical form, with both the theme and actor marked in the oblique:
- **pagtawag kay* [OBL] *Harvey sa* [OBL] *kasama*,
‘Harvey’s act of calling a colleague’
- e. Double genitive, with both indefinite actor and theme:
- *pagtawag ng* [GEN] *tao ng* [GEN] *kasama*,
‘a person’s act of calling a colleague’ or ‘a colleague’s act of calling of a person’

In Iridian, the *a na* clause corresponds to the Tagalog use of the oblique to indicate a definite theme in a CEN.

cf. Pearson 2013: 297–8

7.9 Subordinate clauses in general

7.10 Clause-linking strategies

7.10.1 Clause-linking with *še*

7.10.2 Temporal succession and causality

Iridian has three main conjunctions used in linking clauses to indicate causality and temporal sequency: *vele*, *dito*, and *děla*.⁷ One might think that the three conjunctions would correspond neatly with the three levels in which we could interpret the causation, as we have discussed above, but that is not the case. Indeed, as in any other language, there exists a significant overlap in their usage.

Vele/vělně and *dito* are used in a propositional level causation. They are often interchangeable but, in case of ellipsis (i.e., the omission of either parts of the causational pair), both *vele/vělně* and *dito* may only appear with the protatic clause (the ‘cause’ in the cause-effect pair), although *dito* must be fronted first, appearing immediately before the verb, which movement is only optional for *vele/vělně*. Although both clause-initial and clause-final *vele/velně* have the same meaning, the latter would often be characterized as informal.

- (33) a. *Zabola ce zákupinenik vele byl kravnašime.*
 ice:cream DEM-ACC NEG-buy-PV-PF because child cry-AV-PROG
 ‘The child is crying because (they) did not buy him ice cream.’
- b. *Zabola ce zákupinenik dito byl kravnašime.*
 ice:cream DEM-ACC NEG-buy-PV-PF because child cry-AV-PROG
 ‘The child is crying because (they) did not buy him ice cream.’
- c. *Zabola ce zákupinenik vele.*
- d. **Zabola ce zákupinenik dito.*
- e. *Zabola ce vele zákupinenik.*
- f. *Zabola ce dito zákupinenik.*

7. A fourth one exists, *vělně*, in fact exists, but it is essentially the same as *vele*, but there is no real difference between it and *vele*, and one can use the one or the other without changing the meaning of the sentence. Nevertheless, one would find *vele* as the more common variant.

Another example illustrating the non-interchangeability of *vele/vělně* and *dito* is the unembeddability of *vele/vělně* under semantic operators such as negation.

- (34) a. *Mamka těchto zám dito záščenžaní.*
 mother-DIM sick NEG because NEG-arrive-AV-RET
 ‘It wasn’t because (his) mother was sick that (he) was unable to come.’
- b. **Mamka těchto zam vele záščenžek.*

Děla, on the other hand, is often used in framing epistemic level causality. In addition, *děla*, unlike *vele/vělně* and *dito*, govern the apodotic clause (the ‘effect’ in the cause-effect pair) and should thus be translated more correctly as ‘thus/therefore’. Consequently, *děla* can appear in the same sentence with *vele/vělně*, but not with *dito*; this latter usage has a greater explanatory force than the simple use of either *děla* or *vele/vělně*.

- (35) *Pozběšilá děla doja suměněví.*
 rain-AV-SUBJ.IPF therefore street be:wet-CONT
 ‘It is must be raining since the streets are wet.’
- (36) *Ame ža brupkašek děla na mlane spro.*
 sun already set-AV-PF therefore LOC exterior-ACC darkness
 ‘The sun has set so it must be dark outside.’
- (37) *Já Marka naž has vele děla na večera*
 2SG.STR Marek-ACC friend COP.NEG because therefore LOC party-ACC
záprezitník.
 NEG-invite-PV-PF
 ‘It is because you are not Marek’s friend that you were not invited.’

7.11 Converbial constructions

7.11.1 In general

7.11.2 Adverbial converbs

A common type of compound verb construction involves the main verb preceded by the imperfective converbial form of a secondary verb. The secondary verb normally specifies the manner or the means by which the action described by the main verb is performed.

7.11.3 Temporal constructions

A converbial construction is often used in temporal clauses, with the imperfective converbial form used when the action is unfinished or continuing and the perfective otherwise. When used in a temporal clause, the converb may sometimes be separated from the main clause by the particle *si*.⁸

- (38) *Otvěc (si) na Varšave možlašani.*
 be:young-CV.IPF when LOC Warsaw-ACC understand-AV-RET
 ‘When I was young, we used to live in Warsaw.’

7.11.4 Causal clauses

Clauses expressing reason are usually expressed by a converbial construction. The antecedent and the main clause may be connected with *am*, ‘because,’ although this is often dropped in casual speech.

- (39) *Za prove záznobouštu Martin meštnašek.*
 for exam-ACC NEG-study-CV.PF Martin fail-AV-PF
 ‘Martin failed the exam because he didn’t study.’
- (40) *Kinoteka stožilá to všihněc mámka zachovažek.*
 cinema-ACC go-AV-SBJ.IPF RZ be:angry-CV.IPF mother-DIM allow-AV-PF
 ‘Since she was still mad at us, Mum did not let us go to the movies.’

7.11.5 Transgressive clauses

Converbs in Iridian have parallel usage as the transgressive conjugations in Czech and Slovak. It is the consensus among scholars of the languages, though, that the converbial forms in Iridian and the transgressive forms in Czech and Slovak, developed independently of each other; although to what extent one influenced the other is still the subject of debate. The converbial forms in Iridian have more varied uses than the transgressives in Czech (Slovak having kept only the present transgressive form), and whereas the latter forms have largely fallen in disuse (relegated to the literary register) in both Czech and Slovak, converbial forms are still widely used in Iridian.

Although Czech grammarians use the terms ‘past’ and ‘present’ to distinguish between the two forms used in the language, the distinction is actually

8. *Si* is virtually never used in the spoken language.

one of aspect, as in Iridian. In general, the past transgressive form corresponds with the perfect converbial form, and may be used to indicate a foregoing action; the present transgressive, on the other hand, corresponds to the imperfect converb and is used to indicate a coincident/contemporaneous action.

This correspondence is not complete, however. For example, consider this sentence in Czech: *Děti, vidouce babičku, vyběhly ven*, ‘The children, seeing their grandmother, ran outside.’ The verb in the transgressive clause is in the present tense in this case, while in Iridian, the same sentence will be translated with the perfective as follows:

- (41) *Šášlika* *vedu* *byl* *naladěc* *mnilžek*.
 grandmother-DIM-PAT see-CV.PF children run-CV.IPF go:out-AV-PF
 ‘The children, having seen their grandmother, ran outside.’

The Czech sentence above can alternatively be translated using the imperfective converbial form, but this would put a stronger emphasis on the two actions happening at the same time and so the original construction can be considered as the more idiomatic one.

7.11.6 In fixed expressions

The past converbial form is used in expressing gratitude, approbation or condolence, or in asking for forgiveness. This usage is idiomatic and the actions do not necessarily need to have been completed. The main clause is often in the hortative mood and separated from the converb clause with *am*, ‘because.’ Moreover, this usage, unlike most converbial constructions, allow the verb of the converb clause to have a different subject as long as such subject is marked explicitly in the agentive case. However, since the converbial form of verbs are invariable, if the subordinate clause requires further complexity when it comes to the verb in the converb clause, a dependent *še* clause may be used instead of a converb.

- (42) a. Expressing gratitude:
Stranu am lubninká.
 help-CV.PF because thank-PV-HORT
 ‘Thank you for helping.’
- b. Asking for forgiveness:
Lěnu záščenu am rozvedniká.
 on:time-INS NEG-arrive-CV.PF because forgive-PV-HORT
 ‘Sorry for being late.’
- c. Expressing condolences:⁹
Pápkám shradu am množniká.
 father-DIM-AGT die-CV.PF because console-PV-HORT
 ‘I’m sorry for your father’s death.’
- d. Expressing approbation:
Prove vlastnu am prehodniká.
 exam-ACC pass-CV.PF because praise-PV-HORT
 ‘Congratulations for passing the exam!’

7.12 Quotative constructions and evidentiality

7.12.1 Quotative construction in general

EVIDENTIALITY is a grammatical category that is concerned in the explicit encoding of a source of information or knowledge (i.e. evidence) which the speaker claims to have made use of for producing the primary proposition of the utterance (Diewald and Smirnova 2010: 1-2). Iridian is unique among languages of Central Europe (and of Europe in general) in possessing a grammaticalised evidentiality system. Even non-Indo European languages in the region such as Hungarian (cf. author) or Basque (cf. Alcázar 2010) do not possess an overt evidential. Of course a speaker’s source of information may be expressed through other methods

The Iridian evidentiality system more or less falls under Aikhenvald’s (2004) A₃ category, where the distinction is between the marked quotative form for

9. Compare this example to the following, where a converb clause cannot be used:

- (i) *Páпка na puvode shradniš to množniká.*
 father LOC war-ACC die-PV-SUBJ.PF RZ with
 ‘I’m sorry to hear your father died (*lit.*, was killed) in the war.’

reported speech/hearsay and the unmarked ‘everything else’ category which is evidentiality-neutral

7.12.2 Quotative constructions and reported speech

The principal use of the quotative is to explicitly mark reported speech. The reported clause is separated from the rest of the sentence by the particle *to-že*.¹⁰

- (42) *Koleč sní upolšice to-že Lukáš žiček.*
 key REFL.ACC REFL-lose-AV-PF-QT REL=QT (:=QP) Lukáš say-AV-PF
 ‘Lukáš said he lost his keys.’

The particle *to-že* is in fact made up of two separate clitics: the particle *to* which is used to mark relative clauses, and *-že* which is the primary quotative particle. This is made more evident in nested quotations, where *-že* can only be attached to the rightmost reported clause:

- (43) *Dá dněm vednice to Marek žičice to-že Lukáš*
 ISG DEM.AGT see-PV-PF-QT REL Marek say-AV-PF-QT QP Lukáš
žiček.
 say-AV-PF
 ‘Lukáš said Marek said he (Marek) saw me.’

Direct quotations do not require the quotative, although they are still separated from the main clause by *to-že*.

- (44) „*Dá záščenžit*” *to-že žiček.*
 ISG NEG-come-AV-SUP.P QP say-AV-PF
 ‘“I won’t be coming,” (he) said.’

The use of pronouns in quoted clauses is similar to English, with the main exception being the use of the reflexive *se* if the subject of the quoted clause is the same as the subject of the main clause. This is true even if the subject of the main clause is a pronoun.

- (45) *Se to obru na večera záščenžitejí to-že Marek*
 REFL DEM night-INS LOC party-ACC NEG-come-AV-SUP.P-QT QP Marek
(dá) žiček.
 ISG say-AV-PF
 ‘Marek/I said he/I won’t be coming to the party tonight.’

10. In colloquial speech, *to-že* is often reduced to *če*, or less commonly *dže*.

The verb *žeká*, ‘to say’ is called a *verbum dicendi* from the Latin meaning ‘verb of speech/speaking.’ Other *verba dicendi* in Iridian include *vadá*, ‘to think’; *kvuštá*, ‘to hear’; *vidá*, ‘to see’; *bloupá*, ‘to ask’; *obletá*, ‘to remember’; *sehová*, ‘to recount, to tell a story’. Note that although they are called verbs “of speaking” they do not necessarily introduce speech as much as function as grammaticalized tags marking the quotative, which is more properly analyzed to mark not just speech but inferentiality and evidentiality as well.

More complex *verba dicendi* can be formed by using an imperfect converbial construction (the converb form in *-ěc*) with a canonical *verbum dicendi*. To illustrate this consider the following sentences in English:

- (46) a. She said no.
 b. She whispered no.
 c. She said no in a whisper.
 d. ?She said **in a whisper** no.
 e. ??She said **whisperingly** no.

We see that both *said* (46a) and *whispered* (46b) are *verba dicendi* in English. Nonetheless it’s also obvious how 46b is simply a function of (46a), i.e., we can express (46b) in terms of (46a), in this case using an adverbial construction (‘in a whisper’) as we see in 46c or the more affected 46d. Finally using a simple adverbial is theoretically allowed in English (46e), although as we see the resulting construction is rather unwieldy or unnatural-sounding.

In Iridian, however, constructions like (46b) are not permitted, with preference given to adverbial (or more correctly, converbial) constructions. Thus we translate (46b) as:

- (47) *Ne to-že mišlec žiček.*
 no QP whisper-CV say-AV-PF
 ‘(She) whispered no.’

It should be noted as well how the verb *vadá*, ‘to think’ and its derived forms, due to their inherent meanings, require the subjunctive to be used in the reported clause. This is true whether or not the subjunctive would have been used had the reported clause been a regular dependent clause.

- (48) *Já mnou neblí to-že Martin spouvěc váževí.*
 you correct COP.SBJ.QT QP Martin agree-CV.IPF think-AV-CONT
 ‘Martin agrees that you are right.’

We see from that when it comes to reported speech and similar constructions in Iridian, the *verbum dicendi* is not necessary to create a well-formed sentence. The same is true with the quotative particle *to-že*. Both can be omitted without making the sentence grammatically incorrect since the quotative particle is enough to identify the reported clause..

In most instances, however, removing either the main verb or the main verb and the quotative particle can cause the resulting sentence to acquire a new meaning. This is especially true when the quotative mood is used not to report speech but to imply a certain unsureness on the part of the speaker about the information being presented, or for the speaker to distance themselves by implying through the use of the quotative that the information is secondhand and not theirs. Generally *to-že* is kept when the speaker is quoting themselves, to repeat or emphasize what they have said, or expletively, to express their frustration or affirmation.

Interestingly, commands and requests are not treated as reported speech but as regular subordinate clauses governed by *to* and not by *to-že*.

When the quoted clause is a question, whether a direct one or not, the quoted clause is preceded by the particle *a*, ‘and’ and the word *ane*, ‘whether’ is used instead of *to-že*. The word *ane* is also used for verba dicendi that are interrogative in nature, such as *préhoustá*, ‘to ask’,

- (49) *A Janek zdalešice ane přehoustček.*
 and Janek have:breakfast-AV-PF-QT whether ask-AV-PF
 ‘(He) asked (me) whether Janek has had breakfast yet.’

- (50) *A tó m to mládu hodinaže ane, ně svad*
 and book this year-INS finish-PV-CTPV-QUOT whether PL fan
postupeví.
 be:excited-CONT
 ‘His fans are excited to know if he’ll finish his book this year.’

The quotative is also triggered by phrases introduced with *ty*, ‘according to’ or *záty*, ‘contrary to,’ with the latter requiring the subjunctive.

- (51) *Messi a ty Marku debil neví.*
 Messi and according:to Marek-INS spaz COP.SBJ
 ‘Marek thinks Messi is a spaz.’

- (52) *Na Vrešlove a záty mamčě čestu*
 LOC Wrocław-ACC and NEG-according:to mother-DIM-GEN desire-INS
papčě vednice stožišejí.
 father-GEN see-PV-SUP.P go-AV-SUBJ.PF-QT
 ‘Against my mother’s wishes, I went to Wrocław to see my father.’

7.12.3 Bare quotatives and clause linking

Quoted clauses in Iridian may also appear without an overt predicate, as well as without being signalled by the quotative particle *to-že*. We will call this construction a BARE QUOTATIVE after the terminology in Tomioka and Kim (2019) in reference to embedded quotative constructions in Japanese and Korean without overt predicates. The term as originally used by these authors refer only to embedded quotatives in Japanese and Korean, but we will be using it to refer to both an unselected (i.e., predicateless) quotative in a subordinate clause (which we will call SYNTACTIC) and in the main clause (which we will call SEMANTIC).

The choice to call the second type a semantic bare quotative is motivated by the fact that an unselected quotative in the main clause is often used not to mark a speech act but to indicate the epistemic value of (viz., to pass the speaker’s judgement on) a proposition. Nevertheless, we can still see it used as a true quotative, as when the omission of the predicate or the quotative particle is through mere ellipsis.

The first type, on the other hand, is mostly used as a clause-linking strategy. The quotative construction is still considered as a speech act, but, like converbial constructions or *še* clauses, the relationship between the main clause and the reported clause becomes interpreted as being one of causality, or at least of dependency, although of course this causality or dependency is only indirect, as we see in the examples below, where the embedded quotative and the simple *še* clause present to different interpretations.

- (53) a. (adapted from Tomioka and Kim 2019: 3)
Pizba rážice še sad Markám nakdavebik.
 rain stop-AV-PF-QT COM garden Marek-AGT INCEP-clean-BEN-PF
 ‘Marek began cleaning the garden, (saying/thinking) it finally stopped raining.’
- b. *Pizba razek še sad Markám nakdavebik.*
 rain stop-AV-PF COM garden Marek-AGT INCEP-clean-BEN-PF
 ‘The rain having stopped, Marek began cleaning the garden.’

7.12.4 Epistemic extensions

As in most other languages with an overt evidential system, the Iridian quotative has secondary epistemic extensions. This may be realised either by using the quotative by itself or through auxiliary epistemic markers. As we have established in the previous sections, the quotative can be used by a speaker both to distance themselves from the statement on the one hand and to assert their belief in its truthfulness on the other; the use of a secondary epistemic marker eliminates this possible confusion in what would otherwise have been a contradictory usage of the same grammatical category. These auxiliary particles, nonetheless, may of course be left out in discourse if the speaker thinks the epistemic usage of the quotative is clear enough from the context.

A speaker’s judgement of the truthfulness of a statement may be made clear by the dubitative *bude* or the affirmative *toleto*. When using the quotative to quote oneself, *bude* expresses a disbelief predicated upon surprise rather than on a judgement of a statement’s veracity; used the same way, *toleto* acquires a secondary meaning of insistence, even annoyance.

- (54) *Sól bude tabatnitejí.*
 peace DUB bring-PV-SUP.P-QT
 ‘They say they come in peace but I don’t believe it.’
- (55) *Ma já bude ža konědnitejí to!*
 but 2.SG DUB already marry-PV-SUP.P-QT REL
 ‘I still can’t believe you’re already getting married!’
- (56) *Marek toleto poslem všihněbice.*
 Marek AFFRM message-AGT be:angry-BEN-PF-QT
 ‘I’m telling you the message really made Marek angry.’

- (57) *Méva toleto sehovnaně!*
 all AFRM recount-PV-RET-QT
 ‘But I’ve told you everything I know already!’

A speaker’s uncertainty may also be expressed using the quotative even when the statement directly came from the speaker. The uncertainty may refer to both the factuality of the statement or to its source. This strategy is used to signal the speaker’s emotional or cognitive distance from the event. This may be further complemented by the particle *iz* which we will glossing here as REP for reportative but only for the sake of convenience, in order to distinguish the various auxiliary particles we have introduced here, as the “reportative” does not exist as a true grammatical category in Iridian for our purposes. *Iz* implies a greater degree of disjunction between the speaker and the statement than the plain quotative. Although it does not pass a judgement on the truth value of the statement as do *dube* or *toleto*, *iz* makes it clear that the statement did not come from the speaker and that the responsibility for the statement does not lie on them. *Iz* is particularly common in newscasts or in other formal settings where the speaker is communicating statements from another speaker or group and the identity of the speaker or group has already been established earlier in the conversation and is thus known to everyone.

Uncertainty on the truthfulness of the statement may also be expressed using the inferential particles *bylo* and *atole*. Whereas *iz* raises the question of the character of the source and is neutral as to the speaker’s commitment to it (although one can be understood simply by pointing out the fact that the source is something other than oneself to be effectively passing judgement) both *bylo* and *atole* reflect the speaker’s judgement. *Bylo* in general is used when the proposition is coming from the speaker themselves while *atole* is used when the speaker thinks that the statement can be inferred from the surrounding facts.

- (58) *Na Hospode bylo milestunitejí.*
 LOC Hospoda-ACC perhaps have:dinner-LV-SUP.P-QT
 ‘Maybe we can have dinner at the *Hospoda* tonight?’
- (59) *Ně ruševní šar atole na Roubžina ščenžáně.*
 PL Russian-ATT tank INFER LOC Roubže-ACC arrive-AV-RET-QT
 ‘The Russian tanks must have reached Roubže by now.’

7.13 Relative and comparative constructions

The clitic *tám* is used to form simple comparative and relative constructions. *Tám* is often omitted where the comparison can be implied from context. In this construction, the standard of comparison (the noun preceded by ‘than’ in English) is unmarked and the noun being compared marked in the agentive if it is a positive/negative comparison, or in the instrumental if it is a correlation.

- (60) a. *Janek(-tám) Markám nestaževí.*
 Janek Marek-AGT tall-CONT
 ‘Marek is taller than Janek.’
- b. *Janek(-tám) Marku nestaževí.*
 Janek Marek-INS tall-CONT
 ‘Marek is as tall as Janek.’

Note that *tám* can only be used with the copulative form of the stative verb, as the attributive and nominal forms have separate conjugated comparative forms. When using these forms, however, the standard of comparison is marked in the genitive. In relative constructions, the instrumental is also replaced with the genitive, but the modifier *zní*, ‘same’ is added before the stative verb.

- (61) a. *Janí nestažení bloc mlazka.*
 Janek-GEN tall-COMP-ATT boy brother-DIM
 ‘The boy who is taller than Janek is my brother’ (*Lit.*, ‘The taller-than-Janek boy is my brother.’)
- b. *Janí zní nestažení bloc mlazka.*
 Janek-GEN same tall-COMP-ATT boy brother-DIM
 ‘The boy who is as tall as Janek is my brother.’

Tám can be relativized by appending the clitic *to*. When used with *tám-to* the standard of comparison is marked in the patientive case. The use of *tám-to* in relative clauses is discussed in further detail in the next chapter.

- (62) *Viktor na shlopa tám-to nestažek.*
 Viktor LOC siblings-ACC COMP=RZ be:tall-AV-PF
 ‘Among the siblings, Viktor grew up to be the tallest.’
- (63) *Jankám Marka tám-to zušťalévik ko Tereza*
 Janek-AGT Marek-ACC COMP=RZ be:happy-BEN-PF LNK Tereza
 ‘Tereza, whom Janek made happier than Marek’

- (64) *Marka tám-tóví zušťalébtik ko oblaš*
 Marek-ACC COMP=RZ-GEN= be:happy-BEN-PF LNK pet
 ‘the pet [of the person who was made happier than Marek]’

Iridian does not have a morphologically distinct superlative construction. For example, *pizdení* (from *pizdá*, ‘to be big’) can either mean ‘bigger’ or ‘biggest’ depending on context. Where the meaning cannot be easily implied from context, the word *obnu* (derived from the word *obna*, ‘first’ in the instrumental case) is often used as quantifier.

- (65) a. *Univerzitet na razmeka pizdenou.*
 university LOC city-ACC be:big-COMP-NZ
 ‘(This) university is the biggest in the city.’
- b. *Univerzitet na razmeka obnu pizdenou.*
 university LOC city-ACC first-INS be:big-COMP-NZ
 ‘(This) university is the biggest in the city.’

When using an adverbial construction with the instrumental case to modify or quantify the comparison, the adverbial phrase must immediately precede the stative verb if in the attributive or nominal form, or the particle *tám* otherwise. The same is true with invariable modifiers like *nahte*, ‘too much’, *dnu*, ‘a bit’, etc.

- (66) *To bagáž jánám u 10 kilogramu tám*
 DEM.PROX baggage DEM.MED-AGT around 10 kilogram-INS COMP=
prékeví.
 heavy-CONT
 ‘This baggage is heavier by about 10 kilograms than that one.’

- (67) *u 10 kilogramu prékeví bagáž*
 around 10 kilogram-INS heavy-COMP-ATT baggage
 ‘the baggage, which is heavier by about 10 kilograms’

- (68) *Nabte pizdenou zmažnikovéš.*
 too:much big-COMP-NZ make-PV-PF-NZ-2SG
 ‘The much bigger one is the one you made.’

7.14 Specific construction types

7.14.1 Questions

There are two main categories of interrogative sentences in Iridian: yes-no and question-word questions (or *wh*-questions).

7.14.1.1 *Yes-no questions*

A declarative sentence can be made into a question by a simple rise in intonation at the end of the phrase:

- (69) a. *Janek ža uzdravšek.*
 Janek already REFL-sleep-AV-PF
 ‘Janek has fallen asleep.’
- b. *Janek ža uzdravšek?*
 Janek already REFL-sleep-AV-PF
 ‘Has Janek fallen asleep yet?’

Yes-no questions, especially longer ones, may also be formed using the clitic *no*, which immediately follows the element of the sentence being questioned. To question the sentence as a whole, *no* sentence-initially. *No* may also appear after other elements of the sentence, but the resulting word order is generally more emphatic and often includes promoting the element where *no* to the topic position and the nominalisation of the resulting verb phrase if possible.

- (70) a. Sentence-initial *no*:
No Balžaróma Europevní Uniji čelina?
 Q Bulgaria European-ATT Union-GEN member
 ‘Is Bulgaria a member of the European Union?’
- b. Cliticised *no*:
Janek zmačime-no?
 Janek run-AV-PROG=Q
 ‘Is it running that Janek is doing now?’

- c. Cliticised *no* triggering topicalisation of questioned element:

Janek-no zmáčí mou?

Janek=Q run-AV-PROG-NZ

‘Is it Janek who is running now?’

Ane, ‘whether’ may also be used instead of *no* to indicate uncertainty on the part of the speaker, or in polite or formal speech, to avoid asking a direct question. *Ane* functions the same way as *no* and may be used sentence initially or as a clitic.

- (71) a. *Ane Stám Kovářz niebu na sésta o leguánu*

whether mister Kovářz later-INS LOC convention-ACC about iguana-INS

hvaružnašách?

give:a:speech-AV-CTPV

‘Would Mr Kovářz be giving a speech about iguanas later at the convention?’

- b. *Stám Kovářz-ane niebu na sésta o leguánu*

mister Kovářz=whether later-INS LOC convention-ACC about iguana-INS

hvaružnašít?

give:a:speech-AV-SUP

‘Would it be Mr Kovářz who will be giving a speech about iguanas later at the convention?’

To make an existential sentence a yes-no question, it is first transformed to the negative and the particle *no/ane* is then attached to the word *nihó*. If however, the theme of the sentence is quantified, the word *ješ* is kept (but shifted to the front of the quantifier), and *no* is attached to the quantifier. The form *ješ-no* is ungrammatical. A sentence-initial *no/ane* cannot be used in transforming an existential construction.

- (72) *Marka nihó-no oblašc?*

Marek-ACC NEXST=Q pet

‘Does Marek have a pet?’

- (73) a. *Co bibliotěc Marka broná ješ kupěneník ko tóm.*

ABL library-GEN Marek-ACC three EXST borrow-PV-PF LNK book

‘Marek borrowed three books from the library.’

- b. *Co bibliotěc Marka ješ broná-no kupěneník ko tóm?*

ABL library-GEN Marek-ACC EXST three=Q borrow-PV-PF LNK book

‘Did Marek borrow three books from the library.’

Tag questions may be formed by appending the phrase *no/ane zám let*, ‘isn’t it the truth’ (cf. Russian *не правда ли*) to the end of the sentence. In colloquial speech, it is also common to simply use *da*, ‘yes’ instead.

- (74) *Traví kupénžek, no zám let? /da?*
 bread-GEN buy-AV-PF Q= NEG= truth yes
 ‘You bought some bread, didn’t you? /right?’

7.14.1.2 Content questions

Content questions, also known as *wh*-questions, are formed using the interrogative pronouns *jede*, ‘who,’ *ježe*, ‘what,’ *jena*, ‘where,’ etc.¹¹ Iridian requires the *wh*-phrase to be moved to the beginning of the sentence, thus causing it to occupy the topic position. This *wh*-fronting consequently causes the voice of the main verb to be reframed to accommodate the new topic. More commonly, especially colloquial Iridian, this also means the nominalisation of the main verb phrase, essentially making the question an equational sentence.

- (75) a. *Karel na Roubžení verštáta možlaševí.*
 Karel LOC Roubže-GEN suburbs-ACC live-AV-CONT
 ‘Karel lives in the suburbs of Roubže.’
 b. *Jena Karlám možlouneví? /možlounívou?*
 where Karel-AGT live-LV-CONT live-LV-CONT-NZ
 ‘Where does Karel live?’

Alternatively, the element being questioned may be replaced with a question word without changing the original word order, in which case the addition of the clitic *no* is required. Note that questions formed this way generally have a more emphatic meaning.

- (76) *Karel jena-no možlaševí?*
 Karel where=Q live-AV-CONT
 ‘Where did you say Karel lived?’

Wh-fronting may sometimes cause peripheral elements of a phrase to be moved together with the *wh*-item to the beginning of the sentence, a phenomenon linguists call ‘pied-piping’ (Ross 1967: 263-4). When this occurs, Iridian is more conservative than English in that it usually keeps the

11. A full list of interrogative pronouns can be found in § 4.9.

same question word instead of replacing it with a specialized one (in English, normally, 'which'); it may, however, use *jak*, 'which' if the expected answer to the question is an element of a class, i.e., not unique. Consider, for example, the two questions below:

- (77) a. *Jena zuscve možlounívou?*
 where neighborhood live-LV-CONT-NZ
 'Which (*lit.*, where) neighborhood do you live in?'
 b. *Jak kvartír možlounívou?*
 which apartment live-LV-CONT-NZ
 'Which of these apartments is the you live in?'

In cases where there are multiple *wh*-elements in the sentences, they are normally all fronted, with the main question word first followed by the rest in order of importance. Interestingly, too, any or all of the fronted *wh*-items may be pluralised with *ně* if the speaker expects that the answer is plural.

- (78) a. *Jede ježe jena hloupskou?*
 who what where ask-AV-PF-NZ
 'Who asked what where?'
 b. *Ně jede ježe jena hloupskou?*
 PL= who what where ask-AV-PF-NZ
 'Which persons asked what where?'
 c. *Jede ně ježe jena hloupskou?*
 who PL= what where ask-AV-PF-NZ
 'Who asked what things where?'

In the case of more complex *wh*-questions involving the movement of a *wh*-item from an embedded clause, Iridian is similar to Bulgarian¹² in requiring all the *wh*-items to be fronted (cf. Rudin 1988: 450).

12. Rudin's (1988) description on the nature of multiple *wh*-fronting in Bulgarian involves the movement of the *wh*-item to closest interrogative SpecCP, which does not necessarily need to occupy the topic position in the sentence. Compare, for example the following sentences in Bulgarian and Iridian.

- (ii) Bulgarian (*ibid.*, 451)
Boris na kogo kakvo kaza [če šte dade — —]?
 Boris to whom what said that will give-3SG
 'What did Boris say that (he) would give to whom?'

- (79) *Ježe jehát dejatnách to zíknu?*
 what to:whom give-PV-CTPV RZ say-PV-PF-NZ
 ‘What did she say that she will give to whom?’

7.14.1.3 *Indirect questions*

Indirect questions are constructed in the subjunctive, with the addition of the particle *aš*.

- (80) *Nú aš bošezila.*
 tomorrow Q_IND rainAV-SBJ.IPF.
 ‘I wonder if it’s gonna rain tomorrow.’

7.14.1.4 *Answering questions*

Most yes-no questions may be answered by repeating the focal word or phrase in the original question or echoing the syntax of the question itself.

- (81) — *Kartuški tak slouveževí?* ‘Do they sell potatoes here?’
 — *Slouveževí?* ‘They do.’

Alternatively, the question may be answered by *da*, ‘yes’ or *ne*, ‘no,’ both of which have been adapted from Common Slavic. In colloquial speech it is also common to use *já* or *jó* for ‘yes’ (most likely borrowings from German). These polarity words may be used alone or in combination with the echo response. In general, the order does not matter, although it is more common for the polarity word to appear after the echo response. Unlike English ‘yes,’ *da* is used when confirming the question posed by the speaker, whether or not it is in the affirmative or in the negative. When denying or negating a question, Iridian uses *ne* is used when the original question was framed in the negative and *ale* otherwise.

-
- (iii) *Ježe jehát Borisám dejatnách to zíknu?*
 what to:whom Boris-AGT give-PV-CTPV RZ say-PV-PF-NZ
 ‘What did Boris say that (he) would give to whom?’

- (82) — *Lošní Nolaní vilm ža oudnenik?*
 — *Ža oudnenik, da. Má záčesčik.*
 — *Ne, po zoudnenik.*
 ‘Have you seen Nolan’s new film?’
 ‘I’ve seen it, yes. But I didn’t like it.’
 ‘No, I haven’t seen it yet.’
- (83) — *No daní treblo za banka podarníla to-že Janek záléháček?*
 — *Léháček, ale. Má avtem bych hebo.*
 — *Záléháček, da.*
 ‘Weren’t you advised by Janek to submit your tax return to the bank?’
 ‘He did, yes. But my car broke down yesterday.’
 ‘No, he didn’t advise me to.’

Da (or sometimes *a da*) may also preface answers to questions as a form of intensifier, or to indicate that the speaker considers the answer to the question as an obvious truth.

- (84) — *Na muzla ješ vdenikou.* ‘I saw someone at the mall today.’
 — *Jede?* ‘Who?’
 — *Da Janek.* ‘Well, Janek, of course.’

The answer does not need to be positive for *da* or *a da* to be used.

- (85) — *Šabatu de koncerta stožit?*
 — *A da ne. To kapela šem záčesčeví.*
 ‘Are you coming to the concert on Saturday?’
 ‘Well no, I don’t even like that band.’

As for questions involving existential constructions

7.14.2 Negation

In Iridian sentences, negation is performed by the particle *zám*, which attaches to the beginning of the word or phrase it negates. The default position of the negative particle is usually before the main verb where it surfaces as *z-* before vowels, *ž-* before *i*-glides, and *zá-* elsewhere.

- (86) a. *Janek Martina Markám zábévoržebik.*
 Janek Martin-ACC Marek-AGT NEGknow-BEN-PF
 ‘Marek did not introduce Janek to Martin.’

- b. *Zám Janek Martina Markám bévoržebik.*
 NEG Janek Martin-ACC Marek-AGT know-BEN-PF
 'It was not Janek whom Marek introduced to Martin.'
- c. *Janek zám Martina Markám bévoržebik.*
 Janek NEG Martin-ACC Marek-AGT know-BEN-PF
 'It was not Martin whom Marek introduced Janek to.'
- d. *Janek Martina zám Markám bévoržebik.*
 Janek Martin-ACC NEG Marek-AGT know-BEN-PF
 'It was not Marek who introduced Janek to Martin.'

It is also common, especially in spoken Iridian, to append the clitic *-te* after the word being negated by *zám* (i.e., if the negative clitic is not in the default position before the main verb) to provide more emphasis on the negation.

- (87) a. *Zám Janek-te Martina Markám bévoržebik.*
 NEG Janek=FOC Martin-ACC Marek-AGT know-BEN-PF
 'It was not Janek whom Marek introduced to Martin.'
- b. *Janek zám Martina-te Markám bévoržebik.*
 Janek NEG Martin-ACC=FOC Marek-AGT know-BEN-PF
 'It was not Martin whom Marek introduced Janek to.'
- c. *Janek Martina zám Markám-te bévoržebik.*
 Janek Martin-ACC NEG Marek-AGT=FOC know-BEN-PF
 'It was not Marek who introduced Janek to Martin.'

The different constituents of the sentence can be negated simultaneously; thus, for example, the sentence below is grammatically permitted:

- (88) *Zám Janek zám Martina zám Markám zábévoržebik.*
 NEG Janek NEG Martin-ACC NEG Marek-AGT NEG-know-BEN-PF
 'It was not Janek who was not introduced to someone who is not Martin by someone who is not Marek.'

Nonetheless, due to their general unwieldiness, forms like this are extremely rare (both in the spoken and the written language), with preference given to single and double negation instead. Since *-te* can only appear in a sentence once, where there are more than one negate constituent in a sentence, *-te* is appended to the element which has the most significance (usually the topic); or, if there are two constituents negated and one of them is the main verb, *-te* is appended to that other element.

position¹³ in the sentence, and unlike in regular sentences, must be explicitly marked in the patientive.

- (92) a. **Ješ tiebo.*
 EXST god
 ‘There is a God.’
- b. *Sní ješ tiebo.*
 REFL.ACC EXST god
 ‘There is a God.’

The use of *sní* as a placeholder is not required however if the noun or noun phrase whose existence is the subject of the sentence is quantified, either by a numeral or otherwise by an indefinite quantifier.

Statements expressing location use a copular construction, although an existential construction is used in the negative.

- (93) *Dá na duma.*
 IS.STR LOC house-ACC
 ‘I’m at home.’
- (94) *Na duma niho dá.*
 LOC house-ACC NEXST IS.STR
 ‘I’m not at home.’

The particles *ješ* and *niho* must always precede the noun whose presence or existence is being expressed.

- (95) *Na ránema ona ješ btoš.*
 LOC desk-IS-PAT one EXST book
 ‘There is one book on my desk.’
- (96) *Mj ješ mulaž.*
 two EXST door
 ‘There are two doors.’

13. Although this location (often surfacing as a *na* clause) appears where the topic of the sentence normally would, it would be more correct to analyze an existential construction as an inversion of the regular topic-predicate word order in Iridian. Viewed this way, we can think of *ješ* or *niho* as a pseudoverb, and the phrase consisting of the first half of the sentence and ending with this pseudoverb is the predicate while the unmarked second half is the topic. This approach has the benefit of keeping the predicate with a verb-final internal word order and the topic as unmarked, both in accordance with the basic rules of Iridian syntax; however, this does not account for the use of the dummy *sní* in true existential clauses.

7.14.3.2 *Possession*

Existential constructions are also used to indicate possession, with the possessor marked in the patientive case.

- | | |
|---|--|
| (97) <i>Marka ješ oblašč.</i>
Marek-ACC EXST pet
'Marek has a pet.' | (98) <i>Tomáša niho mlaz.</i>
Tomáš-ACC NEXST brother
'Tomáš does not have a brother.' |
|---|--|

7.14.3.3 *Impersonal constructions*

Iridian prefers using existential constructions where English and other Indo-European languages would use indefinite pronouns. More formally, sentences of this type are called impersonal constructions.¹⁴ In general an impersonal construction in Iridian is produced by nominalizing a verb phrase which would otherwise have been the predicate of an indefinite pronoun. We can illustrate this in English as follows:

- (99) a. Sentence with an indefinite pronoun as subject:
Somebody told me to come here to pick up the dress.
- b. Impersonal construction:
? *There is somebody* who told me to come here to pick up the dress.

Sentences of the first type do not exist in Iridian. Instead sentences with an indefinite element (not necessarily the subject of the sentence) are reframed as existential constructions. To further illustrate the primacy of impersonal constructions over indefinite pronouns in Iridian, we can replace the subject of (99a) with a definite noun:

- (100) a. *Tak muž nedvačernilá te Tereza ziček.*
here dress CAUS-get-PV-SUBJ.IPF so:that Tereza say-AV-PF
'Tereza told me to come here to pick up the dress.'
- b. *Do ješ tak muž nedvačernilá te zičkou.*
1SG.ACC EXST here dress CAUS-get-PV-SUBJ.IPF so:that say-AV-PF-NZ
'Somebody told me to come here to pick up the dress.' (*Lit.*, I have someone who said (I) should come pick up the dress.)

14. See, for example, Law (2010) where the discussion in this section is largely based.

(101) *Martina ješ trešnikou na tropa.*
 Martin-ACC EXST write-PV-PF-NZ LOC wall-ACC
 ‘Martin wrote something on the wall.’

(102) *Voštnikouva ža ješ piaščkou?*
 cook-PV-PF-NZ-PAT already EXST eat-AV-PF-NZ
 ‘Did somebody eat what (I) cooked?’

7.14.4 Copular constructions

7.14.4.1 *Null copula*

Copular sentences are a minor sentence type where the predicate is not a verb. For the purposes of this grammar, we narrow down our definition of copular constructions to the following:

- (103) a. *Equative*: Marek is the doctor (we are talking about).
 b. *Inclusive*: Marek is a doctor.
 c. *Attributive*: Marek is tall.
 d. *Locative*: Marek is in the hospital.

Iridian does not make a distinction between equative, inclusive and attributive clauses. Locative clauses on the other hand, may be expressed using a copular or an existential construction, as will be discussed in this section.

Iridian is a superficially a zero-copula language and the most common way to form copular sentences is mere juxtaposition.

(104) *Marek doktor.*
 Marek doctor
 ‘Marek (is a/the) doctor.’

The above example could either be taken to mean (1) Marek is a doctor (inclusive), or (2) Marek is the doctor (equative). Generally, though, Iridian uses word order to distinguish between equative and inclusive clauses.

- (105) a. *Inclusive*: {item in class}_N ∅ {class}_P
 b. *Equative*: {class}_N ∅ {item class}_P

To avoid ambiguity, Example 104 can be reformulated to either of the following sentences:

- (106) a. *Marek doktor.*
 Marek doctor
 'Marek is a doctor.'
- b. *Doktor Marek.*
 doctor Marek
 'Marek is the doctor.'

The inversion of word order is not strongly grammaticalized with NP-NP sentences, i.e., both sentences in Example 106 can still be used interchangeably without a change in meaning and preference is given on the one over the other when there is an ambiguity. This is not the case with attributive clauses, i.e., sentences with adjective or adjective phrase predicates. Consider for example the sentence below:

- (107) *Marek rózým.*
 Marek tall
 'Marek is tall.'

Inverting the word order of the sentence above would change the adjective to a substantive since modifiers cannot occupy the topic position.

- (108) *Rózým Marek.*
 tall Marek
 'The tall one is Marek.'

Iridian also distinguishes between attributive clauses expressing permanent conditions and clauses expressing temporary conditions, with the latter being expressed using existential constructions in certain adjectives.

- (109) **Marek morec.*
 Marek hungry
 'Marek is hungry'
- (110) *Marka ješ morec.*
 Marek-ACC EXST hunger
 'Marek is hungry'

A full list of adjectives/modifiers that use the existential construction can be found in the section 7.14.3.

The copula, however, cannot be omitted in grammatical moods other than the indicative.

7.14.4.2 *Negative copula*

Iridian has the negative copula *česná*.

(111) *Marek doktor česná.*

Marek doctor COP.NEG

‘Marek is not (a/the) doctor.’

The inversion of word order may also be used when one wants to avoid ambiguity:

(112) *Doktor Marek česná.*

doctor Marek COP.NEG

‘Marek is not the doctor.’

7.14.4.3 *Conjugation paradigm*

SEMANTICS AND USAGE

8.1 Register

8.2 Politeness and forms of address

8.2.1 Politeness and formality in Iridian

Although not as complex and as pervasive as the politeness/formality system found in Japanese or Korean, Iridian formally encodes more sociolinguistic information than its neighbouring languages such as Czech or Hungarian.

Broadly speaking, Iridian distinguishes between three levels of speech:¹ (1) *polite* speech, which serves more or less as the “default” level of politeness, as this is the speech level most often used by, say, strangers when talking to each other; (2) *formal* speech, which is used in more formal settings, where the speaker wants to distance themselves from the listener or explicitly signal their politeness, such as in a conversation among business associates or when talking to a divinity; and (3) *casual* speech, which is used between close friends and family members, or to or among children. These levels of speech are not

1. The English names are of course imperfect. It would perhaps be more correct,—if not more illustrative of their differences,—to call the polite speech level *formal* and the formal speech level *honorific*. What we call above as polite is more close to what linguists would call ‘formal’ mainly because the strategy is one of distance and not deference. Moreover, although the formal speech level may be used to signal respect and shows a strong tendency to use honorifics and titles, the main usage remains that of showing an even greater detachment on the part of the speaker than would have otherwise have been possible when using the polite speech level.

definite, of course, and politeness is more properly viewed as a spectrum (cf., e.g., Hanson 2018) as speakers would often switch from one level of speech to another even when speaking to the same person, or within a single conversation.

The distinction between politeness (which for the purpose of this grammar we can define as the psychological or social distance between speakers) on the one hand, and formality (which we can define as situational distance) on the other, is not always one made (or kept) in Iridian. Indeed, more often than not, these categories are often viewed by most speakers as essentially being the same. This is further complicated by the fact that the distinction between the various speech levels is not morphologically marked but is facilitated instead by the preference for certain constructions and forms of address.

The choice of which speech level to use with which speaker and in which scenarios is influenced by a lot of factors. It would be helpful, however, to analyse these factors as being influenced by two main considerations: the relationship—more specifically, the familiarity,—between the speakers, and the social setting in which the conversation or interaction is taking place.²

The first consideration, the relationship between speakers, divides the levels of speech into two groups: FAMILIAR SPEECH, which consists of the casual speech level and DISTANT SPEECH which consists of both the formal and polite speech levels. This distinction is perhaps of greater actual importance than that introduced earlier between the levels of speech, as the differences between familiar speech and distant speech are more pronounced than the differences between formal speech and polite speech, which are often more subtler. Distant speech is characterized by a preference to indirect speech acts where possible. For example, direct imperatives or prohibitives are virtually

2. One could take a look as well at the dimensions (or ‘semantics,’ to use the authors’ term) that influence the formality/politeness distinctions made in a language, proposed by Brown and Gilman (1960) in their study on the development of second-person pronouns and address forms. Although on the surface, the politeness distinction in Iridian is not dual, we see (as discussed *infra*) that we can in fact classify the speech levels as either familiar (T) and distant (V). Where most Indo-European languages, however, predicate this distinction on the power semantic (i.e., the T-V distinction is made initially when a speaker of one power group speaks to a member of another), Iridian bases this initially on the solidarity semantics, thus creating a T-V distinction first when there is no solidarity (perceived or otherwise) between speakers, and only secondarily on the basis of the power semantic.

unused in distant speech, replaced instead with hortative constructions, or in more formal situations with questions or optative constructions. Consider for example the following:

- (1) a. Imperative in familiar speech:
Mina návilastním. ‘Open the door!’
- b. Alternative constructions in distant speech:
- Neutral, using the hortative:
Mina návilastníká. ‘Please open the door.’
 - More polite, using *am lubnínká*:
Mina se návilastu am lubnínká
 ‘May (you) be thanked because the door was closed.’
 - More formal and more polite, using a question:
Mina návilastníš to mužnalit?
 ‘Is it possible that the door will be closed?’

Perhaps a direct consequence of this preference for indirect speech acts over direct ones is the strategy of PRONOUN AVOIDANCE so heavily employed in distant speech. Pronoun avoidance as it applies to Iridian include not only Velupillai’s (2012: 371–2) narrow definition of it as the omission and sometimes replacement with a title or other form of address of a pronoun, when addressing or referring to a person, but also the indirect result of Iridian’s heavy reliance on context and the resulting tendency to drop elements of the sentence when they can be easily inferred, including pronouns.

In general, familiar speech is indifferent on the use of personal pronouns, with the use or omission dictated by context and not by politeness/formality. Thus both of the following sentences are equally probable in familiar speech:

- (2) a. *Avtem bych hebo.* ‘My car broke down yesterday’
 b. *Avt bych hebo.* ‘(My) car broke down yesterday’

In distant speech, however, sentence (2a) would be largely avoided, or even considered disrespectful or incorrect. When speaking in the polite speech level, the omission of the personal pronoun is often enough; in the formal speech level, especially in writing, this is often complemented by the explicit addition of a referent honorific, even when the context is clear.

- (3) a. Casual and polite speech:
*Marek záščenžěvník. Avt ce bych hebo.*³
 ‘Marek couldn’t come yesterday. His car broke down.’
- b. Formal speech:
Stám Zakár záščenžěvník. Stámí avt bych hebo.
 ‘Mr Zakár couldn’t come yesterday. His car broke down.’

The persistence of pronoun avoidance means a person’s title or an equivalent honorific will be used in formal speech even when addressing that person directly. Nevertheless, when addressing a listener directly, the formal speech level does allow the use of the distal animate demonstrative *dní* (a stand-in for the third person pronoun, since Iridian does not have one); this is parallel in the polite speech level which allows the use of the second person plural pronoun *tová*⁴ in direct addresses. Both ultimately correspond to the use of the second person singular pronoun *já* in casual speech. The use (or omission) of any of these pronouns is as always dependent on actual context.

- (4) a. Formal speech, using honorifics:
Stám Zakár bych záščenžěvníce to kvušček. Stám jevitébilá te ceščeví?
 ‘I heard you were not able to come yesterday. Would you like me to catch you up on what happened?’
- Formal speech, using *dní*:
Stám Zakár bych záščenžěvníce to kvušček. Dní jevitébilá te ceščeví?
 ‘I heard you were not able to come yesterday. Would you like me to catch you up on what happened?’⁵
- b. Polite speech, using *tová*:
Tová bych záščenžěvníce to kvušček. Jevitébilá te ceščeví?
 ‘I heard you were not able to come yesterday. Would you like me to catch you up on what happened?’
- c. Casual speech, using *já*:
Já bych záščenžěvníce. Jevitébilá te ceščeví?

3. The ethical dative as seen in this example is emphatic and can be used in both casual and polite speech.

4. The use of the plural *tová* has perhaps the closest Iridian is to a true T-V distinction.

5. Note that even when using *dní* instead of honorifics, a honorific would still be used when addressing the listener for the first time, and only on subsequent occurrences would the substitution be made.

‘I heard you were not able to come yesterday. Would you like me to catch you up on what happened?’

The use of bare honorifics instead of an actual formal/polite second person may seem unwieldy at first, but it is in fact not uncommon. We see similar systems, for example in European Portuguese and Tagalog.

- (5) a. European Portuguese
- Explicit V form, honorific used:
O senhor sabe onde é que está? ‘Do you know where you are?’
 - Implicit V form, pronoun omitted:
Sabe onde é que está? ‘Do you know where you are?’
 - Superficially an explicit V form, but may be interpreted as informal or even rude⁶:
Você sabe onde é que está? ‘Do you know where you are?’
 - Explicit T form:
(Tu) sabes onde é que estás? ‘Do you know where you are?’
- b. Tagalog
- Explicit V form, 2nd person plural:
Alam ba ninyo kung nasaan kayo? ‘Do you know where you are?’
 - Explicit V form, 3rd person plural:
Alam ba nila kung nasaan sila? ‘Do you know where you are?’
 - Explicit T form. 2nd person singular:
Alam mo ba kung nasaan ka? ‘Do you know where you are?’

The preference in distant speech for indirect speech acts is also manifested in the extensive use of

6. Cf. Lara and Guilherme (2018). The peculiar nature of *você* in European Portuguese (EP) is quite interesting. Whereas in Brazilian Portuguese (BP) *você* has almost completely displaced *tu* as the prevalent T form, in EP it occupies a linguistic limbo between *tu* (T) and *o senhor/a senhora* (V), leading to it having quite disparate uses depending on the speaker and the dialect.

Etymologically, *você* shares the same historical development as the Spanish *usted*. They are syncope versions of the original forms of address *vossa mercê* and *vuestra merced*, respectively, both of which translate to ‘your mercy/grace’. The original pronouns *vossa/vuestra* persist in both language but are no longer the standard V forms, supplanted instead by developments from the forms of address originally containing them. (Cf., e.g., Hummel 2019, which provides an extensive analysis of the diachronic development of both the Spanish *usted* and the Portuguese *você*.)

8.2.2 Forms of address, titles, and honorifics

A HONORIFIC is a form of address used to indicate respect or courtesy. The most common honorifics in Iridian are the masculine *Stám* equivalent to the English ‘Sir’ and the feminine *Nau* equivalent to the English ‘Madame/Ma’am.’ When addressing a person of an unknown gender, the term *Obečne*, ‘mercy/grace’ is used.

Both *Stám* and *Nau* may be followed by the addressee’s last name. They should never be used with the first name as it would be considered sarcastic or rude. In writing, these are abbreviated as *S.* and *N.*, respectively. If the name of the person being addressed is not known, the placeholders *vieda*, ‘man’ and

In most Spanish dialects, *usted* remains the standard V form. In Portuguese, however, *ocê* has itself been supplanted by another form of address used as a pronoun, *o senhor/a senhora*. In BP, this change coincided (or perhaps caused) *ocê* to change from being an intermediate V form to the default T form, with *tu* (the original T form) and *vós* (the original V form, and later, intermediate T form) falling out of use. In EP, on the other hand, the T forms (both the original *tu* and the intermediate *vós*) were retained and instead it is *ocê* that fell out of use. (This historical shift of the V form displacing the existing T form and the consequent loss of this original T form, and the grammaticalization of a polite form of address as a new V form, is quite common; in Rioplatense Spanish, one of the more divergent dialects of Spanish, for example, we see the V→T shift started by the grammaticalization of *usted* completed by the eventual displacement of the original T form *tú* with the original V form *vos* as the prevalent T form. What is interesting in EP, however, is that V→T shift was completed, not by the displacement of the original T form *tu*, but by the loss—or more properly, *obsolescence*—of the intermediate V form *ocê*).

Você remains, superficially at least in EP, a V form (cf. Ganho and McGovern 2004: 85); its actual use, however, is not as clearly defined. As Lara and Guilherme (2018) remarks, ‘not even Portuguese speakers agree in determining the contexts where it can be employed.’ The most important development in modern EP with regards to the use of *ocê* is that of conveying anger, sarcasm or annoyance, especially in asymmetric relations, similar to the older *vós*, the use of V forms between speakers who normally would use T forms to indicate annoyance (cf. Hummel 2019). This has led to the ambiguous use of *ocê* both as a polite and an impolite form of address.

Although this V→T shift does not directly reflect Iridian’s own historical development, it is helpful to understand the fluidity and the inherent arbitrariness of T-V labels in any language. In Iridian, too, this V of annoyance exists marginally both between people who regularly use T forms (i.e., familiar speech) with each other, to indicate sarcasm or displeasure; and those who use V forms (i.e., distant speech) among themselves, to openly signal disrespect.

buzak, ‘woman’ are used, thereby producing *Stám Vieda* and *Nau Huzak*. When writing, these are often abbreviated to s.v. and n.h., respectively. The usage of *Stám Vieda* and *Nau Huzak* is similar to how the third person may sometimes be used in English to politely address someone (e.g., saying, ‘Will the gentleman yield?’) but while it may sometimes appear dated or overly formal in English, this practice is still commonly observed in Iridian, especially when addressing strangers.

Other common titles include *Doktor* used when addressing physicians, *Majestet* or *Kopižnosť* when addressing members of the royalty (with the latter reserved for reigning monarchs), *Eselenc* when addressing certain high-ranking officials such as senators, governors, and ambassadors, *Eminenc* when addressing cardinals of the Catholic Church, *Obečne* or *Prac* when addressing judges and magistrates, and *Tiebožnosť* or *Hildažnosť* or *Hildentí Tát*⁷ when addressing the Pope or the religious leaders from other traditions.

When addressing or referring to multiple individuals the term *maše* (originally meaning ‘crowd’ but now exclusively employed as a honorific) is used. This is often preceded, both in the written and spoken forms, by the non-nominal supine *prehodašce*, ‘esteemed/praiseworthy.’

8.2.3 Salutations and valedictions in the written language

The general salutation in most formal correspondence uses the honorific *Stám*, ‘Sir’ or *Nau*, ‘Madame’. The last name of the addressee may also follow, although more often than not, the simple honorific should suffice. When addressing a collegiate entity or a collection of people, the term *Maše*, ‘crowd’ or *Prehodašce maše*, ‘Esteemed/praiseworthy crowd’ is used instead.

If the addressee holds a specific title, the title is included in the salutation. In some cases, the wife of the title-holder may be addressed using *Nau* followed by the title, although this practice is slowly falling out of use, except in most diplomatic correspondence, where it is still considered standard. Below are some examples:

- *Stám/Nau Prezident*, ‘Mister/Madame President’
- *Stám/Nau Brac*, ‘Mister/Madame Member of the Parliament’
- *Stám/Nau Kanclár*, ‘Mister/Madame Chancellor’

7. This form of address, meaning ‘Holy Father’ or more commonly its abbreviation h.t., is used in writing when referring to the Pope in the third person.

- *Stám/Nau Holva*, ‘Mister/Madame Chairman/Chairwoman’
- *Stám/Nau Provízor*, ‘Mister/Madame Professor’

Where the addressees are multiple individuals who hold specific titles, the honorific *Stám* or *Nau* is replaced with *prehodašce*, ‘esteemed, praiseworthy’. When used this way, the title is normally not capitalised. Note also that *prehodašce* will only be used in a salutation when there are multiple addressees.

- *Prehodašce brac*, ‘Esteemed members of the Parliament’
- *Prehodašce provízor*, ‘Esteemed members of the faculty’

When the addressee is a medical doctor, the salutation *Doktor*, ‘doctor’ is used. When writing to members of the clergy, it is customary to use *Páпка*, ‘My father’ or *Mlazka*, ‘My brother.’

It is considered rude to use a person’s first name by itself in the salutation. A more common way is to add the suffix *-óm*, ‘our’ or *-(e)m*, ‘my’ to the name or the diminutive form of the name. Alternatively the terms *kamarád*, ‘colleague, comrade’ or *naž*, ‘friend’ or their diminutives may also be used. This approach is particularly common in e-mail correspondence between work colleagues.

Standard valedictions used in formal written correspondence in Iridian tend to be more complex than the ones used in English. Below is

- *(Stám/Nau) oblostnení mavac/respekt akceptírníká*, ‘Sir/Madame, please accept my sincerest regards (*lit.*, wishes)/respect.’
- *Dá zespodeni/spietnení pokári biležit*, ‘I will remain your most humble/loyal servant.’
- *Dá zespodeni/spietnení byli biležit*, ‘I will remain your most humble child.’⁸
- *Oblostnení mavacu/respektu še hrozník.*, ‘With the sincerest regards/respect has this letter been sent.’

Increasingly, especially in e-mail correspondence, it has become more common to use the following valedictions instead:

- *Mavac/Še mavacu*, ‘Regards/with wishes/regards.’
- *Oblostnení*, ‘Most sincere’

In more informal situations, such as between close friends and family, the following are used:

- *Dá*, ‘I/me’
- *Bes/Mach bes/Nic bes*, ‘Hug/Two hundred hugs/A thousand hugs’

8. This is often used among religious people when writing to members of the clergy.

- *Beska/Mach beska/Nic beska*, ‘Little hug/Two hundred little hugs/A thousand little hugs’
- *Še hloubu/Hloubževí*, ‘With love/Loving’
- *Žuž/Mach žuž/Nic žuž*, ‘Kiss/Two hundred kisses/A thousand kisses’

As mentioned earlier, specific examples of written correspondence in Iridian can be found in § D.4.

8.3 Phatic Expressions and Social Formulas

8.4 Idiomatic Expressions

8.5 Punctuation

Appendices

A



SPOKEN IRIDIAN

B

THE DIALECTS OF IRIDIAN

B.1 Dialects Outside of Iridia

B.1.1 Ukrainian Dialects

The Ukrainian dialects of Iridian (*bokránževní mieva*), known locally as *зукр́анжєвнї мнїва* is spoken in the borderlands of Ukraine and Iridia. It forms a dialect continuum with the southeastern dialects of the country and is the dialect with the most number of speakers outside the country. Within the dialect group itself, variations can be observed from the forms spoken from one town to another, mainly because until very recently the language had no official status in Ukraine¹ and its relative isolation from the mainstream dialects of Iridian made it take a path of its own.

As could be expected from its location, this group of dialects has had significant influence from the Ukrainian language (and to a lesser extent, from Russian) and its vocabulary contains more Slavic-derived words than Standard Iridian. These dialects are also written entirely in the Cyrillic script (based on the Iridian Cyrillic alphabet with some spelling conventions adapted from Ukrainian) although in recent years the use of Latin alphabet is becoming more common (primarily due to the rise of text messaging and the internet).

Phonologically, the Ukrainian dialects are perhaps the most divergent. One of the most notable difference is the replacement of nasal vowels with a sequence of an oral vowel and a nasal consonant homorganic with the

1. It was recognized as a minority language in 2003.

following stop, or if the nasal vowel was in coda, with an oral vowel and /m/. This also meant that coda /m/ and /n/ no longer nasalizes the preceding vowel (and diphthongize it in case it is an /a/ or an /e/).

- (1) Loss of nasal vowels in Ukrainian Iridian:

biçc, 'cat' → *бiнц* [bi:nts̃]

laça, 'flatiron' → *ланица* [lãnts̃ɐ]

bžç, 'bee' → *бжцм* [bžɛm]

- (2) Non-nasalization of vowels before /m/ and /n/:

biçcem, 'my cat' [bʲiɛw̃ts̃ɐw̃] → *бiнццм* [bi:nts̃im]

C

LEXICON

C.1 Kinship Terms

C.1.1 Nuclear Family

The diminutive form of the nouns relating to the nuclear family are presented here as well since, as discussed in § XX, it is common to use the diminutive instead of the regular form of nouns when referring to one's own family or that of a socially close one (e.g., a friend's).

Table C.1. Kinship terms, nuclear family.

NOUN	DIMINUTIVE	TRANSLATION
<i>ploc</i>	<i>pluška</i>	family
<i>hor</i>	<i>horka</i>	parents
<i>maty</i>	<i>mámka</i>	mother
<i>táty</i>	<i>pápka</i>	father
<i>hrešt</i>	<i>hrištka</i>	sibling
<i>mlaz</i>	<i>mlačka</i>	brother
<i>vod</i>	<i>vodka</i>	sister
<i>proud</i>	<i>prudka</i>	oldest sibling/child
<i>zneibo</i>	<i>zníbka</i>	youngest sibling/child
<i>rohoš</i>	<i>ruzka</i>	son
<i>jája</i>	<i>jájka</i>	daughter
<i>vremou</i>	<i>vremóvka</i>	child

C.2 Place Names

C.2.1 European Countries and Capitals

COUNTRY	TRNSLATION	CAPITAL	DEMONYM	ADJECTIVE
Albania	Albánie	Tirana	albanice	albanevní
Andorra	Andóra	Andóra la Vella	andórževnice	andórževní
Austria	Ježiróma	Vína	ježirževnice	ježirževní
Belarus	Bielaruz	Minsk	bielaruščevnice	bielaruščevní
Belgium	Belžóma	Brushla	belževnice	belževní
Bosnia and Herzegov- ina	Bošna a Herce- govina	Sarajevo	boševnice	boševní
Bulgaróma	Bulháróma	Sofía	bulhárvenice	bulhárevní
Croatia	Horvacema	Zahreb	horvacevnice	horvacevní
Czech Repub- lic	Čestóma	Prah	češvcevnice	češvcevní
Denmark	Dancema	Kudiena	dancevnice	dancevní
Estonia	Hištuna	Tálim	hištunevnice	hištunevní
Finland	Vínžóma	Helsinki	vínževnice	vinževní
France	Vranca	Pariž	vrancevnice	vrancevní
Georgia	Hroužema	Tablise	hrouževnice	hrouževní
Germany	Némiecema	Berlim	némiecevnice	némiecevní
Greece	Hiržóma	Atína	hirževnice	hirževní
Hungary	Mažaróma	Budapešt	mažarevnice	mažarevní
Iceland	Išlám	Rejkjavik	išlevnice	išlevní
Ireland	Irlám	Doublina	irlevnice	irlevní
Italy	Itálie	Ruma	italevnice	italevní
Latvia	Lutišema	Rika	lutiševnice	lutiševní
Liechtenstein	Liktánštán	Vaduz	liktánštevnic	liktánštevni
Lithuania	Litóma	Vilnius	litevnice	litevní
Malta	Malta	Valeta	malčevnice	malčevní
Moldova	Moldávie	Kišíniev	moldaževnice	moldaževní
Monaco	Monáko	Monákoštát	monacevnice	monacevní
Montenegro	Sodoví Mel	Podgorica	sodovím- levnice	sodovímlevní
Netherlands	Kuzní Prava	Amsterdam	nerlanževnice	nerlanževní
Northern Macedonia	Roce Makedóma	Skopie	(roce)make- donževnic	(roce)make- donževni
Norway	Nurváž	Ušla	nurževnic	nurževni
Poland	Pulžóma	Varšáva	polščevnic	polščevni
Portugal	Portugál	Ližbánie	portoževnic	portoževni
Romania	Rumiena	Buhurešt	rumínevnic	rumínevni
Russia	Ružóma	Mošhou	ruščevnic	ruščevni

San Marino

Samarino

Samarino

samarinevnice

samarinevní

C.3 Medical Terms

C.3.1 Parts of the Body

D

SAMPLE TEXTS

D.1 The *Pater Noster*

D.2 Milan Kundera, 'A Kidnapped West or the Tragedy of Central Europe'

The translation is based on the French text of Kundera's essay 'Un Occident kidnappé: ou la tragédie de l'Europe centrale' first published in *Le Débat* in 1983. The full text is available online at various websites, with the link I used in the references. Due to copyright considerations, a translation has not been provided, although interlineal glosses and explanatory notes have been added where I believe they are needed, in addition to the lexicon at the end. The text itself contains its own footnotes however and to distinguish Kundera's notes from those I have added, I have included his name at their end.

I.

1956 svemí Septembru Mažarevní Znova Byroví direktorám, byró nastolám jednočnil ko obieni vniho minutu, ruščevnie uráž po Budapešta šelčice to-že télexu laska mieta kudní expedica pashvalévik. Expedice to nie neitu uhožnek: » Mé za Mažaróma a za Evropa shražach«.

Nie neite ježe-no prónesčeví? Mažaróma a še laska Evropu ruščevní šarám zbavujinalu to žvotu prónesčeví. Ma Evropa zbavujinalo to ježe prónestu?

Ma žená — »za bláha a za Evropa shražá« — to že Leningrada že Mušhóva závadnéteví to neite, ma če je Budapešta, če je Varšáva.

2.

Vade, Evropa-te ježe-no za ona mažarevna, ona češčevna, ona polščevna?

D.3 From the *Little Prince*

D.3.1 Text and translation

Za Léon Wertha

Tóm za dousa hledniš to bylám množniká.

D.3.2 Glosses

- (1) *Tóm za dousa hledniš to bylám množniká.*
 book for adult-ACC dedicate-PV-SBJ.PF RZ child-AGT forgive-PV-HORT
 ‘I apologise to children for having dedicated this book to a grown-up.’

D.4 Written Correspondence

D.4.1 Formal Business Letter

Roubže
 2019 h. Mercí 14. r.

Marek Zakár
 Ledeman Direkt M/H
 Husplac, № 177
 Osthbár
 86332 Roubže RB

D.4.2 Formal E-mail

D.4.3 Informal Letter

E



A BRIEF HISTORY OF IRIDIA

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INDEX

- abilitative, 43
acute accent, 5
adjectives, 48
affect, 78
agent, 28
agentive case, 57, 70, 106
agentive of comparison, 57
agentive voice, 19, 27
aktionsart, 92
alphabet, 15, 16
anaphora, 64
animacy, 62
apposition, 91
approximation, 54
argument of a verb, 26, 28
articles, 85
aspect, 17, 23, 92, 98
assimilation of loanwords, 82
augmentative, 78, 79
avalent verb, 26
- benefactive focus, 21
benefactive voice, 28
borrowing, 78
Brazilian Portuguese, *see* Portuguese
Bulgarian, 111
- calque, 81
causative, 27
- citation form, 18, 44
clitic, 12, 106
clitic form, 63
colloquial Iridian, 78, 110, 115
comitative, 33
commands, 33
Common Slavic, 112
comparative construction, 49, 106
comparison, 49, 57
compensatory lengthening, 20
compound word, 77, 81
compounding, 81
conditional mood, 39
consonants, 6
content question, *see* *wh*-question
content word, 77
converb, 36, 45, 96, 97, 101
coordination, 87
copular construction, 115
correspondence, *see* written correspondence
- courtesy, *see* honorific
Czech, 4, 8, 81, 97, 98, 121
- debitive modality, 43
definiteness, 54, 57, 85
deictic, 87
deictics, 48

- deixis, 64
 demonstrative, 60, 62
 demonstratives, 64, 70
 derivation, 77
 derivational morphology, 77
 dictionary form, *see* citation form
 diminutive, 78, 137
 diphthong, 5
 disjunctive conjunction, 89
 distant speech, 122
 dynamic verb, 28
- e-mails, 128
 English, 22, 27–29, 32, 35, 42, 44, 48, 78,
 87, 93, 106, 117, 126, 127
 European Portuguese, *see* Portuguese
 event nominal, *see* nominalisation, event
 nominal, 92
 evidentiality, 40, 99
 existential construction, 55, 109, 115
 expletive, 54
- familiar speech, 122
 form of address, 121, 122, 126
 formality, 121
 forms of address, 67
 French, 36, 64, 81
 function word, 77
- gender, 126
 generic statements, 56
 genitive, 59–61, 92, 93
 genitive case, 106
 German, 81, 82, 112
 German loanwords, 81
 gerund, 44, 45, 91, 92
 grammatical aspect, *see* aspect
 grammatical categories, 17
 grammatical mood, *see* mood
 grammatical number, 53
- honorific, 54, 125–127
 hortative, 33
 hortative mood, 98
 Hungarian, 81, 121
- idiomatic expressions, 129
 imperative, 33
 imperative mood, 33
 impersonal construction, 117
 indirect speech, *see* reported speech
 infinitive, 18, 43
 inflection, 77
 information question, *see* *wh*-question
 instrumental case, 106
 interjection, 71
 interrogative pronoun, 67
 intonation, 12
 instrumental case, 87
- Japanese, 29, 31, 121
 ješ, 55
 ješ, 109
- kinship terms, 54, 78, 137
 Korean, 121
- lemma, *see* citation form
 level of speech, 121
 lexical aspect, *see* *aktionsart*
 linguistic borrowing, 90
 Lithuanian, 92, 93
 loanword, 81
 locative, 115
 long vowel, *see* vowel length
- markedness, 17, 121, 122
 Middle Iridian, 43
 minor word classes, 69
 modality, 35, 42, 43
 mood, 17, 33
- name, 68
 negation, 43, 89, 113
 negative pronouns, 67
 niho, 55
 nominalisation, 44, 50, 91, 110
 event nominal, 44, 91
 resultant nominal, 44
 nominalization, 85, 115, 117
 numeral, 85

- obviation, 65
- Old Iridian, 43
- partitive, 61
- patientive, 116
- patientive case, 106
- patientive voice, 28
- pejorative, 78, 79
- periphrasis, 18
- permissive, 43
- person, grammatical, 62
- personal pronouns, 62
- phonotactics, 9
- plural, 32, 53, 60
- pluralia tantum, 56
- Polish, 81
- politeness, 67, 121, 122
- polysemy, 42
- Portuguese, 64, 125, 126
- possessive, 60
- potential modality, 43
- predicate, 48, 83, 115
- proclisis, 54
- prohibitive mood, 33
- pronouns, 62
- proper names, 54
- quantifier, 85
- quantifiers, 48, 70
- questions
 - syntax of, 108
 - yes-no, 108
- quotative, 40
- reciprocal construction, 32
- reflexive construction, 32
- reflexive voice, 32
- reported speech, 99, 102
- requests, 33
- resultant nominal, *see* nominalisation, resultant nominal
- Romance languages, 78
- Russian, 110
- salutation, 127
- Slavic, 90
- Slavic languages, 78, 79
- Slovak, 97
- Spanish, 125, 126
- spatial deixis, *see* deixis
- spoken Iridian, 78
- standard of comparison, 106
- stative verb, 28, 48–50, 106
- stress, 11
- strong form, 63
- supine, 43, 46–48, 127
- suprasegmentals, 11
- syllable structure, 9
- T-V distinction, 67
- Tagalog, 53, 93, 94, 125
- temporal clause, 97
- tense, 92
- terms of courtesy, *see* honorific
- thematic consonant, 18, 44
- topic, 43, 83, 115
- topicless sentence, 27, 85
- transgressive, 97
- universal pronouns, 67
- universals, 56
- valediction, 127
- valency, 26
- verb stem, 18
- verbal adjective, *see* stative verb
- verbum dicendi, 101, 102
- vo, 70
- voice, 17, 19, 28, 50
- vowel, 3
 - inventory, 3
 - oral, 3
- vowel length, 5
- weather verb, 26
- wb*-fronting, 110
- wb*-question, 110
- wb*-question, 67
- word, 77
- word formation, 77
- written correspondence, 127, 142

