

A Comprehensive Diachronic Grammar of Modern ULTRAFRENCH

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nor in this grammar or in dictionaries. The main exception to this are names, which are generally stressed on the first syllable, and receive secondary stress on the last syllable,¹ e.g. *Daúvníc'h* /'dãũnĩx/.

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

Oral vowels before the stressed syllable are often somewhat muted or reduced, albeit still audible, and stressed vowels are lengthened if they are nasalised, e.g. the pronunciation of *ad'hór*, which we just transcribed as /a'dõũ/, is actually closer to [ã'dõũ̃]. Word-final voiceless *ę* is always /ə̃/.

Oral vowels have a nasalised and nasal counterpart. /i/, /y/—which is actually [ɣ]—and /u/ do not vary in quality when nasalised. /a/ is normally [ɐ], but becomes [ɑ] when nasalised or nasal. Similarly, /e/ becomes [ɛ], and /o/ becomes [ɔ]. Note that nasalised [ẽ] exists, but it's rare. The quality never changes when going from nasalised to nasal. The schwa has no nasal(lised) counterpart. Lastly, oral vowel also have voiceless counterparts, whose quality is the same as that of the base vowel.

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

Furthermore, as indicated in that same example, word-final /ɥ/ is often realised as velarisation of the preceding vowel; the same, however, is not the case for /ũ̃/. Initial /ɥ/ is sometimes elided after words that end with /ɥ/, particularly in particles (e.g. *rvá* 'alas').

Lenition causes the changes marked above as 'Intervocalic Lenition' to be applied to a consonant; furthermore, *ɣ*-coloured consonants are replaced with their regular counterparts, and *h* disappears completely.

1.2 Orthography

The spelling of most UF sounds is indicated above; the less exotic consonants are spelt as one might expect. That is, /b, d, n, ɸ, s, z, h/ are spelt ⟨b, d, n, f, s, z, h⟩, respectively.

Several fricatives are spelt with an apostrophe followed by a 'h', viz. /x/ ⟨c'h⟩, /θ/ ⟨t'h⟩, /ð/ ⟨d'h⟩, and /β/ ⟨b'h⟩. Conventional letters are used for rather unconventional sounds, mostly for diachronic reasons: /l/ does not exist in UF, so ⟨l⟩ is either /l̃/ or /l̥/, ⟨v⟩ is /ũ̃/, ⟨j⟩ is /z/, ⟨r⟩ is /ɥ/, ⟨w⟩ is /ũ̃̃/. The vowel /y/ is spelt ⟨y⟩, and its consonantal equivalent /ɥ/ as well as nasalised /ũ̃/ are spelt with an apostrophe, that is ⟨y'⟩ and ⟨y'̃⟩. The *ɣ*-fricated fricatives /β̥̃, l̥̃, s̥̃, z̥̃, ɸ̥̃, ɸ̥̃/ are spelt ⟨ṽ, l̃, s̃, z̃, f̃, f̃̃⟩, respectively.

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

The vowels are mostly spelt as one might expect; nasalised vowels are indicated by an acute, and nasal vowels by a circumflex. The variants of /i, y, u, a, e/ are spelt with ⟨i, y, u, a, e⟩ as their base letters. Nasal /ẽ/ and /ẽ̃/ as well as Schwa are indicated by adding a dot below the ⟨e⟩ in grammars and dictionaries only; the vowel /o/ is spelt ⟨au⟩ or ⟨o⟩ for diachronic reasons;³ in the case of ⟨au⟩, the acute and circumflex are added to the ⟨u⟩. The diphthong /au/ is spelt ⟨äü⟩, ⟨aü⟩, or with accents on

¹ That is, unless the name ends in an obvious suffix, in which case the last syllable before any such suffixes receives secondary stress; however, this is generally quite rare.

² Sinistral nasal vowels are articulated with the left nostril, and dextral nasal vowels with the right nostril.

³ As is always the case in cases like this, hypercorrection is frequent, and ⟨au⟩ is often preferred word-initially, even if the PF root was spelt with ⟨o⟩. In general, UF speakers seem to prefer ⟨au⟩ over ⟨o⟩, except word-finally and after ⟨w⟩, except that in verb affixes, *au* is quite common word-finally. The sequence ⟨wau⟩ does not exist in UF.

both vowels. Oral /ɛ/ is rare and is spelt ⟨è⟩. Word-initially and word-finally, a grave indicates that the vowel is voiceless. Word-final voiceless /ə/ is always voiceless.⁴

The ‘hard’ voiced *b*, *d* which are pronounced exactly like their regular counterparts, are normally also spelt ⟨b⟩ and ⟨d⟩. However, the dot is commonly used in dictionaries and grammatical material to distinguish between the two as they differ from one another in how they are lenited. Furthermore, a dot below or above a letter is commonly to indicate a variety of different things, depending on the letter:

- a dot below in *b*, *d* indicates that they are the ‘hard’ variants of the letter, which are pronounced the same, but lenited differently;
- a dot below in *l* indicates that it is palatal /*l̥*/ instead of alveolar /*l̥*/;
- a dot below in *e* indicates that it is a schwa;
- a dot below nasalised *é*, *ê* indicates that they are /*ẽ*/, /*ẽ*/ instead of /*ẽ*/, /*ẽ*/;
- a dot above in *ç* indicates that it is lenited /*ç*/.

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

- *l* can be palatal /*l̥*/ or alveolar /*l̥*/;
- *e* can be a schwa, or /*e*/;
- *é*, *ê* can be /*ẽ*/, /*ẽ*/ or /*ẽ*/, /*ẽ*/;
- *c* can be /*ç*/ or /*ç*/.

Elided initial /*uɣ*/ is indicated by omitting the *r* in writing and attaching the word to the previous one with a hyphen, e.g. -*vá* ‘alas’.

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

1.2.1 Lenition and Nasalisation

Certain morphological elements subject surrounding context to lenition or nasalisation. Nasalisation affects vowels, which become more nasal (that is, (voiceless) oral vowels become nasalised, and nasalised vowels become nasal; nasal vowels are unaffected), as well as *d*, which becomes *n*.

Lenition is more complicated; it affects only consonants and causes a softening similar to what happened diachronically between vowels. All *ɣ*-fricated consonants simply lose their *ɣ*-frication. Furthermore, the following consonants are also affected by lenition:

Consonant	<i>x</i>	<i>s</i>	<i>z</i>	<i>c</i>	<i>l</i>	<i>l̥</i>	<i>b</i>	<i>f</i>	<i>b̥</i>	<i>d</i>	<i>d̥</i>
Lenited		<i>h</i>		<i>ç</i>	<i>y̥</i>	<i>w</i>	<i>b̥h</i>		<i>bh</i>	<i>d̥h</i>	<i>t̥h</i>

Table 1: Consonants Affected by Lenition

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

1.2.2 Glossing

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

⁴Thus, a word-final ⟨e⟩ can be /*e*/, such as in *vvaúríhe* /*ũ:ũuĩhe*/ ‘to remember’, or /*ə*/, such as in *dale* /*daɫə*/ ‘table’. As a rule of thumb, it is usually /*e*/ at the end of verb stems—but not verb forms in general—and /*ə*/ elsewhere. Fortunately they are differentiated by a dot below in dictionaries and in this grammar: *vvaúríhe* vs *ɫale*.

2 Accidence

2.1 Verbal Morphology

Verbs in UF are inflected for person, number, tense, aspect, mood, and voice. Verbal inflexion is mainly done by means of concatenating a vast set of prefixes onto a verb, with the occasional suffix and circumfix making its appearance. This chapter details these affixes, their meanings, uses, forms, and restrictions.

2.1.1 Active/Passive Affixes

UF has a set of active/subject as well as passive/object prefixes which can be used on their own or in combination with one another, though at most one active and one passive prefix may be combined with a verb.⁵ Table 2 below lists those prefixes, two of which are actually circumfixes.

Active	Sg	Pl	Passive	Sg	Pl
1st	<i>j-</i>	<i>aú-/r-/w- -(y')ó</i>	1st	<i>v-</i>	<i>aú-/r-/w-</i>
2nd	<i>d(ẹ)-</i>	<i>b'h(y)- -(y')é</i>	2nd	<i>d(ẹ)-</i>	<i>b'h(y)-</i>
3rd m	<i>l(ẹ)-</i>	<i>l(ẹ)-</i>	3rd m	<i>y'-</i>	<i>lý-</i>
3rd f	<i>ll(a)-</i>	<i>ll(ẹ)-</i>	3rd f	<i>y'-</i>	<i>lý-</i>
3rd n	<i>s-</i>	<i>l(a)-</i>	3rd n	<i>sy-</i>	<i>lý-</i>
Infinitive	<i>d(ẹ)-</i>		Infinitive	<i>à-/h-</i>	
Participle	<i>-â</i>		Participle	<i>â-</i>	

Table 2: Active (left) and passive (right) verbal affixes.

A great degree of syncretism can be observed in the third-person forms. The gender distinction in the 3SG that diachronically resulted from gendered personal pronouns is almost non-existent in the plural; the reason for this development is that those forms are derived from the old dative form, which lacked this distinction altogether.

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

Usage Notes

- 1PL** The 1PL prefix varies if there is a vowel following it: if it is any vowel that is not a variant of 'o', the prefix is realised as *r-* instead, e.g. *ad'hór* 'love' to *rad'hóró* 'we love'. If the vowel is a variant of 'o', the prefix is realised as *w-* instead, e.g. *aub'heír* 'obey' to *wob'heíró* 'we obey'.⁶ Note that this also leads to a change in spelling: stem-initial ⟨au⟩ is changed to ⟨o⟩.
- 1,2 PL** The *y'* in the suffix parts of the 1PL, 2PL ACT are dropped if the verb ends with a consonant, e.g. *ad'hór* to *b'hád'hóré*, or if it ends with a vowel that is a variant of 'o' in the case of the 1PL and 'é' in the case of the 2PL, in which cases the vowels are contracted and a level of nasalisation is added, e.g. *vvaúríhe* 'to remember' to *b'hvvaúríhé* 'you (PL) remember' (not **b'hvvaúríhyé*). In all other cases, the *y'* is retained, e.g. *aúvvaúríheyó* 'we remember'.
- INF** The INF PASS prefix *à-* coalesces with any vowel following it: it becomes *á* if it is followed by a non-nasal variant of 'a', e.g. *ad'hór* to *ád'hór* 'to be loved'; *â* if it is followed by a nasal variant of 'a', e.g. *ánvé* 'give life to' to *ânvé* 'to be animated'; and *h-* if it is followed by any other vowel, e.g. *aub'heír* to *haub'heír* 'to be obeyed'.

⁵ Irrespective of whether they are personal or infinitive prefixes. For instance, it would also be illegal to combine e.g. the active infinitive prefix with the first person active singular prefix.

⁶ Diachronically, the base form of this prefix is **o-*, whence e.g. **oad'hóró* > *rad'hóró* and **oob'heíró* > *wob'heíró*.

PART The participle affixes are commonly used to form adjectives since the vast majority of adjectives in UF are actually ‘adjective verbs’ with a meaning of ‘to be X’. The participle can be used to convert such a verb back into a regular adjective, e.g. *lár* ‘to be wide’ to *lárâ* ‘wide’. Like the passive infinitive affix, the participle affixes coalesce with vowels and always form a maximally nasal vowel, e.g. *vvaúríhe* ‘to remember’ forms *vvaúríhê* ‘remembering’, and *ad’hór* forms *âd’hór* ‘being loved’. As with other coalescence rules, the *-â* instead *replaces* a word-final *ê*, and *ê* only: e.g. *bêt’hê* ‘to be small’ becomes *bêt’hâ* ‘being small’.

-*ê*- The parenthesised vowels are used if the prefix is followed by a consonant, e.g. *dír* ‘say’ to *lledír* ‘they (F) say’ and *b’hydírê* ‘you (PL) say’, but *ad’hór* to *llad’hór* ‘they (F) love’ and *b’had’hóré* ‘you (PL) love’. The prefixes *aú-* and *à-* retain their main forms if followed by a consonant, e.g. *dír* ‘say’ to *aúdíró* ‘We say’ and *àdí* ‘to be said’.

-*y*- The exception to this is that 2PL *b’h(y)-* drops the *y* if followed by a glide, e.g. *y’ír* ‘to hear’ to *b’hy’íré* ‘you (PL) hear’ (not **b’hyy’íré*).

Combining Prefixes

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

Example Paradigms

By way of illustration, consider the paradigm of the verb *ad’hór* as shown in Table 3 below. Since this word starts with a vowel, the parenthesised vowels in Table 2 above are not used. Furthermore, since it starts with a non-nasal ‘a’-like vowel, the *aú-* prefix is realised as *r-* and the *à-* prefix coalesces with the initial ‘a’ of the stem to form *á*.

Active	Sg	Pl	Passive	Sg	Pl
1st	<i>jad’hór</i>	<i>rad’hóró</i>	1st	<i>vad’hór</i>	<i>rad’hór</i>
2nd	<i>đad’hór</i>	<i>b’had’hóré</i>	2nd	<i>đad’hór</i>	<i>b’had’hór</i>
3rd m	<i>lad’hór</i>	<i>lad’hór</i>	3rd m	<i>y’ad’hór</i>	<i>lýad’hór</i>
3rd f	<i>llad’hór</i>	<i>llad’hór</i>	3rd f	<i>y’ad’hór</i>	<i>lýad’hór</i>
3rd n	<i>sad’hór</i>	<i>lad’hór</i>	3rd n	<i>y’ad’hór</i>	<i>lýad’hór</i>
Infinitive	<i>dad’hór</i>		Infinitive	<i>ád’hór</i>	
Participle	<i>ad’hórâ</i>		Participle	<i>âd’hór</i>	

Table 3: Paradigm of the Verb *ad’hór*.

For comparison, the paradigm of the verb *vvaúríhe* ‘remember’ is shown in Table 4 below. Since it starts with a consonant, the parenthesised vowels in Table 2 are used, and any prefixes that end with a vowel remain unchanged.

Active	Sg	Pl	Passive	Sg	Pl
1st	<i>jvvaúríhe</i>	<i>aúvvaúríhey’ó</i>	1st	<i>vvvaúríhe</i>	<i>aúvvaúríhe</i>
2nd	<i>đevvaúríhe</i>	<i>b’hyvvóríhé</i>	2nd	<i>đevvaúríhe</i>	<i>b’hyvvvaúríhe</i>
3rd m	<i>ļevvaúríhe</i>	<i>ļevvaúríhe</i>	3rd m	<i>y’vvaúríhe</i>	<i>lývvaúríhe</i>
3rd f	<i>llavvaúríhe</i>	<i>llvvaúríhe</i>	3rd f	<i>y’vvaúríhe</i>	<i>lývvaúríhe</i>
3rd n	<i>y’vvaúríhe</i>	<i>lavvaúríhe</i>	3rd n	<i>y’vvaúríhe</i>	<i>lývvaúríhe</i>
Infinitive	<i>đevvaúríhe</i>		Infinitive	<i>àvvaúríhe</i>	
Participle	<i>vvaúríhê</i>		Participle	<i>âvvaúríhe</i>	

Table 4: Paradigm of the Verb *vvaúríhe*.

2.2 Tense and Aspect Marking

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

2.2.1 Suffixed Tenses

The present anterior and preterite are formed by appending a set of suffixes to the verb. Table 5 below lists the suffixes for those tenses. The present anterior has a perfect or perfective aspect, while the preterite has an imperfective aspect. The former is commonly used to describe events that are completed or extend to the present—particularly events that occurred recently, hence the name—while the latter is used to describe events that are ongoing or habitual.

Present Anterior	Sg	Pl	Preterite	Sg	Pl
1st	^L é	^L â	1st	^L á	-y'âû
2nd	^L á	^L áḍ	2nd	^L é	-y'ě
3rd	^L á	^L ér	3rd m	^L é	^L é
Infinitive	-á		Infinitive	-é	
Participle	-ér		Participle	-ár	

Table 5: Present Anterior and Preterite Affixes.

Neither tense distinguishes gender in the third person. All suffixes, except for the infinitive and 1PL, 2PL PRET, lenite any consonant *before* them, e.g. *bárḍáḍ* ‘to be willing’ to *jḇárḍát'hé* ‘I was willing’ but *deḇárḍáḍá* ‘to have been willing’.

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

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

The participle suffixes coalesce with present participle affixes to form *êr* in the present anterior and *âr* in the preterite, where applicable, e.g. present *ad'hórâ* ‘loving’ becomes *ad'hórêr* ‘having loved’.

In both tenses, the suffixes coalesce with vowels before them, replacing them and nasalising them if they are already nasal, e.g. *jvvaúríé* ‘I remembered’.

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

Active	Sg	Pl	Passive	Sg	Pl
1st	<i>jad'hóré</i>	<i>rad'hórâ</i>	1st	<i>vad'hóré</i>	<i>rad'hórâ</i>
2nd	<i>ḍad'hórá</i>	<i>b'had'hóráḍ</i>	2nd	<i>ḍad'hórá</i>	<i>b'had'hóráḍ</i>
3rd m	<i>lad'hórá</i>	<i>lad'hórér</i>	3rd m	<i>y'ad'hórá</i>	<i>lýad'hórér</i>
3rd f	<i>llad'hórá</i>	<i>llad'hórér</i>	3rd f	<i>y'ad'hórá</i>	<i>lýad'hórér</i>
3rd n	<i>y'ad'hórá</i>	<i>lad'hórér</i>	3rd n	<i>y'ad'hórá</i>	<i>lýad'hórér</i>
Infinitive	<i>dad'hórá</i>		Infinitive	<i>ád'hórá</i>	
Participle	<i>ad'hórêr</i>		Participle	<i>âd'hórér</i>	

Table 6: Present Anterior Paradigm of the Verb *ad'hór*.

Active	Sg	Pl	Passive	Sg	Pl
1st	<i>jad'hórá</i>	<i>rad'hóry'au</i>	1st	<i>vad'hórá</i>	<i>rad'hóry'au</i>
2nd	<i>ḍad'hóré</i>	<i>b'had'hóry'ě</i>	2nd	<i>ḍad'hóré</i>	<i>b'had'hóry'ě</i>
3rd m	<i>lad'hóré</i>	<i>lad'hóré</i>	3rd m	<i>y'ad'hóré</i>	<i>lyad'hóré</i>
3rd f	<i>llad'hóré</i>	<i>llad'hóré</i>	3rd f	<i>y'ad'hóré</i>	<i>lyad'hóré</i>
3rd n	<i>y'ad'hóré</i>	<i>lad'hóré</i>	3rd n	<i>y'ad'hóré</i>	<i>lyad'hóré</i>
Infinitive	<i>dad'hóré</i>		Infinitive	<i>ád'hóré</i>	
Participle	<i>ad'hórâr</i>		Participle	<i>âd'hórâr</i>	

Table 7: Preterite Paradigm of the Verb *ad'hór*.

2.2.2 Future I

The future tenses, that is, the Future, Future Anterior (a tense similar to the future perfect), as well as the Conditional, are formed by adding prefixes to the present forms. The prefix is the same in all persons and numbers, except that there is a separate prefix for the infinitive.

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

First, let us examine the former, simpler case, commonly called the Future I. The prefix is *aú-* if the verb form after it starts with a consonant (except glides), *aúr-* in all other cases; e.g. *aújad'hór* 'I shall love', but *aúry'ad'hór* 'it will love'. In the infinitive passive, it contracts with the initial *â-* or *á-* to *áu* or *au*, e.g. *au'd'hór* 'to be about to be loved'.⁷ No contraction happens if the infinitive starts with *â*, e.g. *aúrânvé* 'to be about to be animated'. Since there is little point in writing a table for just the prefixes, Table 8 instead shows the Future I paradigm of the verb *ad'hór*.

Active	Sg	Pl	Passive	Sg	Pl
1st	<i>aújad'hór</i>	<i>aúrad'hóró</i>	1st	<i>aúvad'hór</i>	<i>aúrad'hór</i>
2nd	<i>aúḍad'hór</i>	<i>aúb'had'hóré</i>	2nd	<i>aúḍad'hór</i>	<i>aúb'had'hór</i>
3rd m	<i>aúlad'hór</i>	<i>aúlad'hór</i>	3rd m	<i>aúry'ad'hór</i>	<i>aúlyad'hór</i>
3rd f	<i>aúllad'hór</i>	<i>aúllad'hór</i>	3rd f	<i>aúry'ad'hór</i>	<i>aúlyad'hór</i>
3rd n	<i>aúry'ad'hór</i>	<i>aúlad'hór</i>	3rd n	<i>aúry'ad'hór</i>	<i>aúlyad'hór</i>
Infinitive	<i>aúdad'hór</i>		Infinitive	<i>au'd'hór</i>	
Participle	<i>aúrad'hórâ</i>		Participle	<i>aúrâd'hór</i>	

Table 8: Future I Paradigm of the Verb *ad'hór*.

2.2.3 Future II

The Future I paradigm is fairly straight-forward; unfortunately, the Future II is a lot worse: not only do the affixes vary a lot more, but they are different depending on whether verb form following them starts with a vowel or a consonant.⁸ The vocalic and consonantal Future II affixes are shown in Tables 9 and 10 below, respectively.

The diachrony of these forms is somewhat unclear—especially that of the participles. It would appear, however, that they result from a coalescence of the personal pronouns with forms of some auxiliary (likely PF *avoir* and *aller*) as well as the PF future. It appears that the 2SG is derived from the

⁷This form has no direct equivalent in English and is fairly hard to translate on its own.

⁸This is not a problem in the Future I, since the prefix is never adjacent to the stem.

formal PF 2PL pronoun, which is in line with the fact that the Future II is generally considered more formal than the almost colloquial Future I. The *ʷ* in the 2PL ACT seems to be the result of metathesis.

Active	Sg	Pl	Passive	Sg	Pl
1st	<i>b'h-</i> -(ə)	<i>náy'-aú</i>	1st	<i>v-</i> -é	<i>náy'-</i>
2nd	<i>dír-</i> -(ə)	<i>b'hay'-</i> -(r)é	2nd	<i>dír-</i>	<i>b'hay'-</i>
3rd m	<i>l-</i> -(ə)	<i>lb'h-</i> -aú	3rd m	<i>l-</i>	<i>lb'h-</i> -(r)e
3rd f	<i>èl-</i> -(ə)	<i>lb'h-</i> -aú	3rd f	<i>l-</i>	<i>lb'h-</i> -(r)e
3rd n	<i>aút-</i> -(ə)	<i>lb'h-</i> -aú	3rd n	<i>s-</i>	<i>lb'h-</i> -(r)e
Infinitive	<i>d-</i> -è		Infinitive	<i>h-</i>	
Participle	<i>-ýr</i>		Participle	<i>á-</i> -ýr	

Table 9: Vocalic Future II Affixes.

Active	Sg	Pl	Passive	Sg	Pl
1st	<i>jaú-</i> -é	<i>aúnraû-</i> -aú	1st	<i>vaú-</i> -é	<i>naú-</i>
2nd	<i>b'há-</i> -(ə)	<i>vaú-</i> -e	2nd	<i>dá-</i>	<i>b'haú-</i>
3rd m	<i>aúr-</i> -(ə)	<i>laú-</i> -aú	3rd m	<i>y'aúr-</i>	<i>laú-</i> -(r)e
3rd f	<i>aúr-</i> -(ə)	<i>laú-</i> -aú	3rd f	<i>y'aúr-</i>	<i>laú-</i> -(r)e
3rd n	<i>aúr-</i> -(ə)	<i>laú-</i> -aú	3rd n	<i>saúr-</i>	<i>laú-</i> -(r)e
Infinitive	<i>də-</i> -è		Infinitive	<i>haú-</i>	
Participle	<i>-(r)ý</i>		Participle	<i>á-</i> -(r)ý	

Table 10: Consonantal Future II Affixes.

Future Stem

Many verbs have a different future stem that is used in all future tenses (except the Future I); for example, the future stem of *vvaúríhe* 'to remember', is *vvaúríze*; thus, we have *jvvaúríhe* 'to remember' but *jaúvvvaúrízé* 'I shall remember'. Note also that these forms already include the active/passive affixes, which is why it's *jaúvvvaúrízé* and not **jaújvvaúrízé* or **jjaúvvvaúrízé*. As in the present, the dictionary form of the future stem is a verbal noun; thus, *vvaúríze* roughly means 'the act of being about to remember'.⁹

Stem-final vowel elision and -(ə)

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

Nasal Stems

Some future stems are nasalising, which is the case if the final vowel is a nasal vowel; in such cases, that vowel is still dropped if a suffix is added, but if that suffix starts with a vowel, nasalisation is applied to it, e.g. in the case of *dír*, whose future stem is *díré*, we have *aúnraûdíraû* 'we shall say': the -aú suffix merges with the nasalisation of the final vowel to become *aû*. Unlike with regular stems, the Future II -(ə) does replace the final vowel and becomes -é for such verbs, e.g. *aúrdíré* 'he will say', and 1SG FUT PASS vocalic -é becomes -ê.

r- Dropping

Initial *r* in Future II suffixes is dropped if the last consonant before the final vowel of the future stem is *w*, or an *ɣ*-coloured consonant such as *z*, e.g. *laúvvvaúríze* 'they will be remembered', not **laúvvvaúrízre*.

⁹As noted before, infinitive and gerund forms of future tenses are difficult to translate into English.

If the last consonant of the future stem is *r*, since any following vowel (whether nasalised or not) is deleted when a Future II suffix is added, the final *r* of the stem and the initial *-r* of the Future II suffixes that have one coalesce to *rr*, e.g. *b'hay'ad'hórérre* 'you (PL) will love'.

Affix Stacking

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

Since some of the passive future affixes also have suffix parts—unlike the present affixes, where the passive forms are all prefixes—we can end up with multiple suffixes in addition to multiple prefixes, in which case active prefixes, instead of simply preceding the passive ones, can be thought of as effectively 'wrapping' them, e.g. *aúlaúvvaúrízeyó* 'we shall remember them', which contains *laúvvaúrízé* 'they will be remembered'.

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

Examples

Table 11 below shows the complete (vocalic) Future II paradigm of the verb *ad'hór* 'to love', and Table 12 the complete (consonantal) Future II paradigm of *vvaúríhe* 'to remember'; recall that the future stems of these verbs are *ad'hóréré* and *vvaúrízé*.

Active	Sg	Pl	Passive	Sg	Pl
1st	<i>b'had'hóréré</i>	<i>náy'ad'hóréraû</i>	1st	<i>vad'hóréré</i>	<i>náy'ad'hóréré</i>
2nd	<i>đírad'hóréré</i>	<i>b'hay'ad'hórérré</i>	2nd	<i>đírad'hóréré</i>	<i>b'hay'ad'hóréré</i>
3rd m	<i>lad'hóréré</i>	<i>lb'had'hóréraû</i>	3rd m	<i>lad'hóréré</i>	<i>lb'had'hórérré</i>
3rd f	<i>èlad'hóréré</i>	<i>lb'had'hóréraû</i>	3rd f	<i>lad'hóréré</i>	<i>lb'had'hórérré</i>
3rd n	<i>aúlad'hóréré</i>	<i>lb'had'hóréraû</i>	3rd n	<i>sad'hóréré</i>	<i>lb'had'hórérré</i>
Infinitive	<i>dad'hóréré</i>		Infinitive	<i>had'hóréré</i>	
Participle	<i>ad'hóréryr</i>		Participle	<i>ád'hóréryr</i>	

Table 11: Vocalic Future II Paradigm of *ad'hór*.

Active	Sg	Pl	Passive	Sg	Pl
1st	<i>jaúvvaúrízé</i>	<i>aúnraûvvaúrízáú</i>	1st	<i>vaúvvaúrízé</i>	<i>naúvvaúrízé</i>
2nd	<i>b'hávvaúrízé</i>	<i>vaúvvaúrízé</i>	2nd	<i>đávvaúrízé</i>	<i>b'haúvvaúrízé</i>
3rd m	<i>aúrvvaúrízé</i>	<i>laúvvaúrízáú</i>	3rd m	<i>y'aúrvvaúrízé</i>	<i>laúvvaúrízé</i>
3rd f	<i>aúrvvaúrízé</i>	<i>laúvvaúrízáú</i>	3rd f	<i>y'aúrvvaúrízé</i>	<i>laúvvaúrízé</i>
3rd n	<i>aúrvvaúrízé</i>	<i>laúvvaúrízáú</i>	3rd n	<i>saúrvvaúrízé</i>	<i>laúvvaúrízé</i>
Infinitive	<i>de'vvaúrízé</i>		Infinitive	<i>haúvvaúrízé</i>	
Infinitive	<i>vvaúrízy</i>		Infinitive	<i>ávvaúrízy</i>	

Table 12: Consonantal Future II Paradigm of *vvaúríhe*.

2.2.4 Future Anterior

The Future Anterior tense is formed by combining the Future II and the Present Anterior affixes. The PRES ANT suffixes are applied after the FUT II affixes. The vocalic and consonantal affixes are shown in Tables 13 and 14.

Active	Sg	Pl	Passive	Sg	Pl
1st	<i>b'h-^Lé</i>	<i>náy'-aúrá</i>	1st	<i>v-^Lê</i>	<i>náy'-^Lâ</i>
2nd	<i>đír-^Lá</i>	<i>b'hay'-^L(r)êđ</i>	2nd	<i>đír-^Lá</i>	<i>b'hay'-^Láđ</i>
3rd m	<i>l-^Lá</i>	<i>lb'h-^Laûr</i>	3rd m	<i>l-^Lá</i>	<i>lb'h-^L(r)ér</i>
3rd f	<i>èl-^Lá</i>	<i>lb'h-^Laûr</i>	3rd f	<i>l-^Lá</i>	<i>lb'h-^L(r)ér</i>
3rd n	<i>aúl-^Lá</i>	<i>lb'h-^Laûr</i>	3rd n	<i>s-^Lá</i>	<i>lb'h-^L(r)ér</i>
Infinitive	<i>d-^Lá</i>		Infinitive	<i>h-^Lá</i>	
Participle	<i>-ýrér</i>		Participle	<i>á-ýrér</i>	

Table 13: Vocalic Future Anterior Affixes.

Active	Sg	Pl	Passive	Sg	Pl
1st	<i>jaú-^Lê</i>	<i>aúnraû-^Laúrá</i>	1st	<i>vaú-^Lê</i>	<i>naú-^Lâ</i>
2nd	<i>b'há-^Lá</i>	<i>vaú-^Léđ</i>	2nd	<i>đá-^Lá</i>	<i>b'haú-^Láđ</i>
3rd m	<i>aúr-^Lá</i>	<i>laú-^Laûr</i>	3rd m	<i>y'aúr-^Lá</i>	<i>laú-^L(r)ér</i>
3rd f	<i>aúr-^Lá</i>	<i>laú-^Laûr</i>	3rd f	<i>y'aúr-^Lá</i>	<i>laú-^L(r)ér</i>
3rd n	<i>aúr-^Lá</i>	<i>laú-^Laûr</i>	3rd n	<i>saúr-^Lá</i>	<i>laú-^L(r)ér</i>
Infinitive	<i>dê-^Lá</i>		Infinitive	<i>haú-^Lá</i>	
Participle	<i>-(r)ýr</i>		Participle	<i>á-^L(r)ýr</i>	

Table 14: Consonantal Future Anterior Affixes.

Note that again, nasalised stems add another level of nasalisation, and vowel-dropping still applies, but this time, there is no *-ê* dropping, since none of the affixes end with *ê* anymore.

Coalescence

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

Tables 15 and 16 below show the paradigm of the verbs *ad'hór* 'to love' and *vvaúríhe* 'to remember' in the Future Anterior tense. Note that both the rules for the Future Anterior tense as well as the Present Anterior tense apply here.

Active	Sg	Pl	Passive	Sg	Pl
1st	<i>b'had'hórérê</i>	<i>náy'ad'hóréraûrâ</i>	1st	<i>vad'hórérê</i>	<i>náy'ad'hórérá</i>
2nd	<i>đírad'hórérá</i>	<i>b'hay'ad'hórérrêđ</i>	2nd	<i>đírad'hórérá</i>	<i>b'hay'ad'hórérráđ</i>
3rd m	<i>lad'hórérá</i>	<i>lb'had'hóréraûr</i>	3rd m	<i>lad'hórérá</i>	<i>lb'had'hórérrér</i>
3rd f	<i>èlad'hórérá</i>	<i>lb'had'hóréraûr</i>	3rd f	<i>lad'hórérá</i>	<i>lb'had'hórérrér</i>
3rd n	<i>aúlad'hórérá</i>	<i>lb'had'hóréraûr</i>	3rd n	<i>sad'hórérá</i>	<i>lb'had'hórérrér</i>
Infinitive	<i>dad'hórérá</i>		Infinitive	<i>had'hórérá</i>	
Participle	<i>ad'hórérrér</i>		Participle	<i>ád'hórérrér</i>	

Table 15: Vocalic Future Anterior Paradigm of *ad'hór*.

Active	Sg	Pl	Passive	Sg	Pl
1st	<i>jaúvvaúrízê</i>	<i>aúnraûvvaúrízáúrâ</i>	1st	<i>vaúvvaúrízê</i>	<i>naúvvaúrízâ</i>
2nd	<i>b'hávvaúrízá</i>	<i>vaúvvaúrízéđ</i>	2nd	<i>đávvaúrízá</i>	<i>b'haúvvaúrízáđ</i>
3rd m	<i>aúrvvaúrízá</i>	<i>laúvvaúrízáúr</i>	3rd m	<i>y'aúrvvaúrízá</i>	<i>laúvvaúrízér</i>
3rd f	<i>aúrvvaúrízá</i>	<i>laúvvaúrízáúr</i>	3rd f	<i>y'aúrvvaúrízá</i>	<i>laúvvaúrízér</i>
3rd n	<i>aúrvvaúrízá</i>	<i>laúvvaúrízáúr</i>	3rd n	<i>saúrvvaúrízá</i>	<i>laúvvaúrízér</i>
Infinitive	<i>đevvaúrízá</i>		Infinitive	<i>haúvvaúríze</i>	
Infinitive	<i>vvaúrízýr</i>		Infinitive	<i>ávvaúrízý</i>	

Table 16: Consonantal Future Anterior Paradigm of *vvaúríhe*.

2.2.5 Conditional I and II

The Conditional tenses are fairly simple—so long as you know the Future II and Future Anterior, that is. Both Conditionals are formed by adding the *-ss(a)-* infix between the Future II stem and any suffixes. As always, the vowel is omitted if the suffix after the infix starts with a vowel. For instance, Table 17 below shows the consonantal Conditional II paradigm for *vvaúríhe* ‘to be able to’. Note that the *ss* in this form are *never* lenited:

Active	Sg	Pl	Passive	Sg	Pl
1st	<i>jaúvvaúrízessê</i>	<i>aúnraûvvaúrízessaúrâ</i>	1st	<i>vaúvvaúrízessê</i>	<i>naúvvaúrízessâ</i>
2nd	<i>b'hávvaúrízessá</i>	<i>vaúvvaúrízesséđ</i>	2nd	<i>đávvaúrízessá</i>	<i>b'haúvvaúrízessáđ</i>
3rd m	<i>aúrvvaúrízessá</i>	<i>laúvvaúrízessaur</i>	3rd m	<i>y'aúrvvaúrízessá</i>	<i>laúvvaúrízessrér</i>
3rd f	<i>aúrvvaúrízessá</i>	<i>laúvvaúrízessaur</i>	3rd f	<i>y'aúrvvaúrízessá</i>	<i>laúvvaúrízessrér</i>
3rd n	<i>aúrvvaúrízessá</i>	<i>laúvvaúrízessaur</i>	3rd n	<i>saúrvvaúrízessá</i>	<i>laúvvaúrízessrér</i>
Inf	<i>đevvaúrízessá</i>		Inf	<i>haúvvaúrízesse</i>	
Inf	<i>vvaúrízessýr</i>		Inf	<i>ávvaúrízessý</i>	

Table 17: Consonantal Conditional II Paradigm of *vvaúríhe*.

2.3 Miscellaneous Tenses

2.3.1 The Gnomic

The gnomic tense is marked by the infix *-j(ú)-* after the stem: *ad'hór* ‘to love’ to *rad'hórjô* ‘We love (for ever)’. The *ú* is omitted if the infix is followed by the vowel, in which case it causes nasalisation.

2.4 Imperative

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

Active	Sg	Pl	Passive	Sg	Pl
2nd	<i>c'h(e)-</i>	<i>c'heb'h(y)-</i>	2nd	<i>-rá</i>	<i>-nú</i>
3rd	<i>c'hel(ê)-</i>		3rd	<i>-lẹ</i>	<i>-b'hẹ</i>

Table 18: Imperative affixes.

The diachrony of these forms is likely from subjunctive constructions w/ PF **que* in the active and from suffixed pronouns in the passive. Note that imperative affixes are added *in place* of present active/passive affixes, e.g. *c'hedír!* ‘speak!’, not **c'hedédír*. As usual, the parenthesised vowels are omitted if the verb form starts with a vowel, e.g. *c'had'hór!* ‘love!’.

Imperative affixes can be combined with active/passive affixes, though, as usual, an active imperative prefix can only be paired with a passive present affix, and vice versa. Active imperative prefixes are always placed first, e.g. *c'hevad'hór!* 'love me!', and passive affixes are placed last, e.g. *b'had'hórérá* 'be loved by us!'. The negation of the imperative uses the subjunctive and is explained in § 2.5.4.

2.5 Subjunctive

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

The future subjunctive stem is formed by adding the desinence *-sé* to the end of the future stem. For example, the future stem of *ad'hór* is *ad'hóréré*, so the future subjunctive stem is *ad'hórérésé*; similarly, the future stem of *vvaúríhe* is *vvaúríze*, so the future subjunctive stem is *vvaúrízése*. There are several main uses of the UF subjunctive, each of which we shall examine in more detail below:

1. in reported speech, e.g. *lladírá vad'hórhé* 'she said she loved me';
2. with certain subordinating conjunctions, such as *b'he* 'so that';
3. to express deontic modality, e.g. *deḃars* 'you may leave';
4. as a jussive, e.g. *rad'hesó* 'let's go';
5. as a negative imperative, e.g. *sá deḃars* 'don't leave';
6. irrealis conditionals (see § 3.5).
7. in ACIs and PCIs.

2.5.1 Reported Speech

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

Consequently, the tense of the verb in reported speech is independent of the tense of the matrix clause, e.g. *b'had'hré* 'I shall go' becomes *jdíré b'had'hrésé* 'I said I would go',¹⁰ with *b'had'hrésé* being the Future II subjunctive form of *b'had'hré*.

2.5.2 Dependent Clauses

The following subordinating conjunctions take the subjunctive:

áhaúr 'even though'

ḃas 'because'

b'he 'so that'

c'haúr 'as' (viz. 'because')

daúc'h 'therefore'

de 'once'

ráhe 'though'

rê 'although'

s 'if' (see § 3.5)

sá 'without'

sauc'h 'except that'

váté 'despite that'

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

¹⁰Note the lenition here because of the present anterior suffix: *b'had'hrésé*, not **b'had'hrésé*.

2.5.3 Deontic Modality

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

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

2.5.4 Negation

The subjunctive is negated with the particle *sá*, rather than with *asý'ýâ*. The particle *sá* is placed immediately before the verb form it negates, e.g. *sá jđad'hórs c'haúr* 'as I don't love you'. It is reduced to *s'* before vowels, but interestingly, it does not cause nasalisation in that case, e.g. *s'áuśydíssâ c'haúr* 'as we didn't say it'.

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

2.5.5 Infinitive

Most curiously, UF has a *subjunctive infinitive*. This form is almost exclusively used to express deontic modality in ACIs and PCIs. For example, the form *dad'hórs*, the subjunctive infinitive of *ad'hór*, while defying any attempt at translation on its own,¹¹ can be translated as 'should' when combined with an ACC or PART, e.g. *sráho dad'hórs* roughly means 'that fish should love', though this form can only occur as the complement of a verb.

2.6 Optative

The UF optative is used to express wishes, hopes, as well as in certain conditional constructions. It is formed by affixing *y'(e)^L* to the verb stem, e.g. *đevy'evvaúríhe* 'may you remember me'. Some prefixes in the future end with *y'*; this is dropped in the optative: e.g. *náy'ad'hóraú* 'we shall love' becomes *náy'ad'hóraú* 'may we love'. Note that the bare optative is difficult to translate into English; a more precise explanation of what these forms actually mean will be given below. Uses of the optative include:

1. wishes, hopes, dreams, and aspirations;
2. with certain subordinating conjunctions, such as *auha* 'in case';
3. talking about fears;
4. counterfactual conditionals (see § 3.5).

2.6.1 Wishes and Hopes

The most traditional use of the optative is to express wishes and hopes, e.g. *đevy'evvaúríhe* 'may you remember me'. In the present or future tense, this use indicates a wish for something to happen; in the present tense, its meaning is that of a wish for a condition to be true in the present in the face of uncertainty or lack of knowledge; thus, the actual meaning of *đevy'evvaúríhe* is roughly 'I hope that

¹¹ The best attempt one could make to translate this would be something along the lines of 'to should love', but that is not exactly grammatical in English.

you remember me'.¹² In the future tense, it indicates a wish that a situation will be true in the future, e.g. *b'hávy'evvaúríze* 'may you remember me'.

In the past tenses, the optative indicates dismay, regret, or disappointment that something did not happen, e.g. PRES ANT *devy'evvaúríhá* 'if only you had remembered me'.

2.6.2 Dependent Clauses

The following subordinating conjunctions take the optative:

auha 'in case'

ab'há 'before'

ávrê 'unless'

bré 'after'

fahaú 'in such a way that'

jys 'until'

sit'há 'supposing that'

úrbh 'provided that'

2.6.3 Negation and Verbs of Fearing

As with the negated subjunctive, the negated optative also has a separate negation particle, namely *t'hé* (spelt *t'h^N* before vowels). Note that a negated optative indicates that the speaker wishes that something does or had not happened, e.g. *t'hé devy'evvaúríhá* 'if only you had not remembered me'. The negation thus negates the wish, and not the act of wishing; for the latter, the indicative or subjunctive together with a verb such as *shé* 'to wish' are used instead.

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

2.7 Irregular Verbs

2.7.1 The Conjugation of *ed* 'to be'

Present	Sg	Pl	Pres. Ant.	Sg	Pl	Preterite	Sg	Pl
1st	<i>vy'í</i>	<i>aúsó</i>	1st	<i>vę</i>	<i>aúfý</i>	1st	<i>vet'h</i>	<i>wedy'ó</i>
2nd	<i>de</i>	<i>b'hed</i>	2nd	<i>dyf</i>	<i>b'hu</i>	2nd	<i>det'h</i>	<i>b'hedy'é</i>
3rd m	<i>le</i>	<i>lesó</i>	3rd m	<i>leb'h</i>	<i>lefýr</i>	3rd m	<i>let'h</i>	<i>let'he</i>
3rd f	<i>lle</i>	<i>llesó</i>	3rd f	<i>lle'bh</i>	<i>llefýr</i>	3rd f	<i>llet'h</i>	<i>llet'he</i>
3rd n	<i>s</i>	<i>lasó</i>	3rd n	<i>seb'h</i>	<i>lafýr</i>	3rd n	<i>set'h</i>	<i>laet'h</i>
Infinitive	<i>éd</i>		Infinitive	<i>éfyđ</i>		Infinitive	<i>ét'hed</i>	

Table 19: Paradigm of the verb *ed*.

The etymology of these forms is mostly from a gradual simplification of coalesced forms of the personal pronouns with the PF copula. To compensate for the fact that PF lacks certain forms that are present in UF, some of the forms were coined by analogy. For instance, the PRES ANT INF *éfyđ* is derived from the PRES ANT stem **fy* and the PRES INF *éd*, and the same is true for the PRET INF *ét'hed*.

For obvious reasons, the copula lacks passive forms. At the same time, the first person forms are manifestly derived from the first person passive pronoun, for unknown reasons.

Unlike nearly every other word in the language, all forms of the copula are summarily stressed on the first syllable.

¹²The context of this utterance could be meeting someone again after a long time apart and hoping that they still remember you.

2.8 Noun Morphology

UF has 4 declensions. A definite and indefinite vocalic declension, and a definite and indefinite consonantal declension. As their names might suggest, the former two are used for nouns that start with a vowel, and the latter two for nouns that start with a consonant. UF has no morphologically separate articles; rather, the old PF articles have been incorporated into the declensions. Furthermore, UF no longer has a gender distinction in nouns.

2.8.1 Declension

The table below shows the affixes of the definite and indefinite declensions. The declensions are mostly identical, except that, as with the conjugation of verbs, the consonantal prefixes often end in a vowel (marked below with parentheses), which are not present in the vocalic declension.

Definite	Sg	Pl	Indefinite	Sg	Pl
Absolutive	∅	<i>l-</i>	Absolutive	∅ ^{-N}	∅ ^{-L}
Nominative	<i>lá^{-L}</i>	<i>lé^{-L}</i>	Nominative	<i>ýn^{-N}</i>	<i>ý^{-L}</i>
Vocative	∅ ^{-L}	∅ ^{-L}	Vocative	/	/
Partitive	<i>dý^{-L}</i>	<i>dé^{-L}</i>	Partitive	<i>dýn^{-N}</i>	<i>dý^{-L}</i>
Accusative	<i>i^{-L}</i>	<i>sý^{-L}</i>	Accusative	<i>s^{-L}</i>	<i>s-</i>
Genitive	<i>á^{-L}</i>	<i>abh^{-L}</i>	Genitive	<i>sý^{-N}</i>	<i>sý^{-L}</i>
Dative	<i>as^{-L}</i>	<i>a^{-L}</i>	Dative	<i>an^{-N}</i>	<i>an^{-L}</i>
Inessive	<i>dwá-</i>	<i>dwé-</i>	Inessive	<i>dáhýn-</i>	<i>dáhý-</i>
Ablative	<i>rê(d)-</i>	<i>rês-</i>	Ablative	<i>rêdýn-</i>	<i>rêdý-</i>
Allative	<i>b'hé^{-L}</i>	<i>b'hér-</i>	Allative	<i>b'hýn^{-N}</i>	<i>b'hý^{-L}</i>
Considerative	<i>slá-</i>	<i>slé-</i>	Considerative	<i>sýóýn-</i>	<i>sýóý-</i>
Instrumental	<i>b'hel-</i>	<i>b'he-</i>	Instrumental	<i>b'hehý(n)-</i>	<i>b'heh-</i>
...					

Table 20: UF Declension.

Most of these forms cause lenition in the initial consonant of the noun, e.g. *ḍale* ‘table’ to DEF ACC SG *s'thale*; this lenition is blocked in the INDEF ACC PL due to the presence of a hypercorrected ‘s’ in PF *ces, e.g. *sḍale* ‘the tables (ACC)’ (not *s'thale*, which is the singular), as well as in less commonly used forms such as the DEF inessive *dwáḍale* ‘on the table’.

The INDEF NOM SG *ýn-* prefix and some other forms nasalise nouns; as a reminder, this means that in nouns starting with *ḍ*, the *ḍ* is deleted, e.g. *ýnale* ‘a table’; it causes nasalisation in words that start with a vowel e.g. *ehyó* ‘shield’ to *ýnéhyó* ‘a shield’. The indefinite vocative does not exist, as that would make little sense. As lenition, nasalisation too is blocked in rarer forms, e.g. INDEF inessive *dáhýnḍale* ‘on a table’.

The absolutive case is used for the predicate noun of predicative sentences, e.g. *Aúsó ḍe ráhó* ‘We are all fish’.

The considerative case can be translated as ‘according to’, or ‘in the opinion of’, and is used to express the opinion of the speaker or point out something as an opinion, belief, or hypothesis of someone or something.

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

The diachrony of these forms is mostly from the PF definite and indefinite pronouns, though some forms, such as the accusative, are borrowed from demonstratives instead (DEF from PF *celui and INDEF from PF *ce); the definite partitive forms are from the PF partitive article, and the indefinite forms are formed with an additional *d-* by analogy to the definite forms. The locative cases are combinations of

the articles and PF prepositions. The ablative is from PF **loin de* ‘away from’. The diachrony of the genitive singular is unclear.

Definite	Sg	Pl	Indefinite	Sg	Pl
Nominative	<i>lát’halẹ</i>	<i>lét’halẹ</i>	Nominative	<i>ýnalẹ</i>	<i>ýt’halẹ</i>
Vocative	<i>t’halẹ</i>	<i>t’halẹ</i>	Vocative	/	/
Partitive	<i>dýt’halẹ</i>	<i>dẹt’halẹ</i>	Partitive	<i>dýnalẹ</i>	<i>dýt’halẹ</i>
Accusative	<i>it’halẹ</i>	<i>sýt’halẹ</i>	Accusative	<i>st’halẹ</i>	<i>sđalẹ</i>
...					
Inessive	<i>dwáđalẹ</i>	<i>dwéđalẹ</i>	Inessive	<i>dáhýnđalẹ</i>	<i>dáhýđalẹ</i>

Table 21: Consonantal declension of *đalẹ*.

2.9 Adjectives

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

Adjectives generally follow the noun they modify and are never inflected, e.g. *át’halẹ ḃet’hâ* ‘of a small table’. There is no established order of adjectives.

2.9.1 Comparison

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

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

In UF, the comparatives are expressed by three infixes, which are prefixed directly to the stem. The affirming comparative prefix is *lẹ*, the denying comparative prefix is *y’ý*, and the neutral comparative prefix is *rê*. Thus, we have *ḃet’hâ* ‘small’, *lẹḃet’hâ* ‘smaller, and also small’, *y’ýḃet’hâ* ‘smaller, but not small’, and *rêḃet’hâ* ‘smaller’.

The comparative prefixes can also be applied to verbs, though they usually only make sense for the aforementioned ‘adjective verbs’, e.g. *jy’ýḃet’hẹ* ‘I am smaller, but still big’. Note that these prefixes might cause a verb’s forms to change from vocalic to consonantal, e.g. *ebhẹ* ‘to be thick’ (future stem *ebhrẹ*) is vocalic *náy’ebhraú* ‘we shall be thick’ in the positive, but consonantal *aúnraúy’ýebhraú* ‘we shall be thicker, but not thick’ in the negative comparative.

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

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

The superlative is formed with one of two prefixes: *rê^L* and *râdvâ*. Be careful not to confuse the former with the neutral comparative *rê*! The two prefixes are largely interchangeable, however, the former is more literary and also older. The latter is a more recent development to reduce potential ambiguity with the neutral comparative. Note that *rê* lenites, whereas *râdvâ* does not. Thus, we have *rêḃet’hâ* or *râdvâḃet’hâ* ‘smallest’.

2.9.2 Constructions

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

Láráhó sɛlúrǎ b'héd'hẹhẹ dẹnájẹ.

Lá-ráhó s-lẹ-lúr-á b'héd'd'hẹhẹ dẹ-nájẹ
NOM-fish 3N-AFF.COMP-bulky-3SG.PRES.ANT ALL\surface INF-swim
‘The fish was too bulky to swim to the surface’¹³

3 Syntax

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

3.1 Independent Clauses

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

Rab'hadó iárb.

r-ab'haḍ-ó i-árb
1PL-fell-1PL ACC-tree
‘We are felling the tree.’

The unmarked tense in UF is the present tense, which can generally be translated as either a present or present continuous tense in English. For general truths and facts, the gnomic tense is generally used instead.

Rab'hadjô sárb.

r-ab'haḍ-jô s-árb
1PL-fell-GNOMIC\1PL ACC.INDEF-tree
‘We fell trees.’

The object is incorporated into the verb if it is a personal pronoun, in which case there are rules for the order in which these affixes occur (see Section 2.1).

Lerab'hat'há.

lẹ-r-ab'ha\ť'há.
3SGM-1PL.PASS-fell\3SG.PRES.ANT
‘He felled us.’

Word order is rather lax due to the presence of case marking, and any constituent can be fronted for emphasis, but the default word order is SVO or SOV.

B'hehýnác aúlyab'hat'hâ.

b'hehýn-ác aú-lý-ab'ha\ť'hâ.
INSTR.INDEF-axe 1PL-3PL.PASS-fell\1PL.PRES.ANT
‘With an axe, we have felled them.’

¹³ This is a very common proverb (often also just *láráhó sɛlúr* ‘The fish is too bulky’) and roughly means that something has gone too far or gone on for too long (‘Now you’ve done it’ or ‘Now it’s too late’). Variations of it exists; in the optative, for instance, this proverb means ‘Let’s not overdo this.’

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

Au lyr náý'acđaurâ sýec asvaúr sýarb.

Au lyr náý'-acđ-aúrâ sý-ec as-vaúr sý-árb
And their 1PL.FUT.ANT-cleave-CIRC ACC.PL-sin DAT-world ACC-tree
'And we shall indeed have revealed their sins to the world'¹⁴

3.2 Negated Clauses

Negation in the indicative is expressed using the particle *asý'yâ* 'not', which is often appended to verbs as *'sý'yâ*. For a discussion of negation in the subjunctive and optative, see Sections 2.5 and 2.6. By default, the particle is placed right after the verb:

Aúlyab'hat'hâ'sý'yâ b'hehýnác.

aú-ly-ab'ha't'hâ 'sý'yâ b'hehýn-ác.
1PL-3PL.PASS-fell\1PL.PRES.ANT not INSTR.INDEF-axe
'We have not felled them with an axe.'

In case of a fronted constituent in an independent clause (but not in dependent clauses), the particle is placed after that constituent:

B'hehýnác asý'yâ aúlyab'hat'hâ.

b'hehýn-ác asý'yâ aú-ly-ab'ha't'hâ.
INSTR.INDEF-axe not 1PL-3PL.PASS-fell\1PL.PRES.ANT
'It is not with an axe that we have felled them.'

Note that it is not valid to both front a constituent and not move the negation. For example, the following sentence sounds very awkward and no UF speaker would ever say or write this, save perhaps to sound extremely ironic.

#B'hehýnác aúlyab'hat'hâ'sý'yâ.

b'hehýn-ác aú-ly-ab'ha't'hâ 'sý'yâ.
INSTR.INDEF-axe 1PL-3PL.PASS-fell\1PL.PRES.ANT not
Roughly: 'With an axe, we have not-felled them.'

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

Rávâ'sý'yâ st'halẹ jact'hé.

Rávâ 'sý'yâ s't'halẹ j-act'h'é
seldom not ACC.INDEF\table 1SG-buy\3SG.PRES.ANT
'Rarely have I ever bought a table.'

Note that double negation is required for the sentence to make sense; UF learners often forget about that, which can lead to rather awkward constructs such as:

¹⁴ See the dictionary entry for *act'he*, sense 4, for more information about the use of this word here, which normally means 'cleave'. The literal meaning of this sentence is roughly: 'And we shall have brought down the trees upon their sins, to (= for the benefit of) the world'.

#Rávâ st'halə jačt'hé.

Rávâ s\l'halə j-áčt'h'é
seldom ACC.INDEF\table 1SG-buy\3SG.PRES.ANT
Roughly: 'I rarely-bought a table.'

Still, if a fronted constituent is present, the negation particle is placed after that constituent:

St'halə'sý'ýâ rávâ jačt'hé.

s\l'halə 'sý'ýâ rávâ j-áčt'h'é
ACC.INDEF\table not seldom 1SG-buy\3SG.PRES.ANT
'A table I have bought rarely.'

Foreigners often make the mistake of assuming that the negation particle is part of a word, e.g. that *rávâ'sý'ýâ* means 'seldom'. As such, UF speakers, when imitating a foreigner, may sometimes use more than one negation particle in a single sentence. Note that this is very much not proper language; such constructions are summarily comedic and best compared to phrases such as 'it do be like that' in English:

*Rávâ'sý'ýâ st'halə jačt'hé'sý'ýâ

Rávâ 'sý'ýâ s\l'halə j-áčt'h'é 'sý'ýâ
seldom not ACC.INDEF\table 1SG-buy\3SG.PRES.ANT not
Roughly: 'Rarely-not I bought a table.'

3.3 Interrogative Clauses

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

St'halə c'hes jačt'hé?

s\l'halə c'hes j-áčt'h'é
ACC.INDEF\table Q 1SG-buy\3SG.PRES.ANT
'Did I buy a table?'

Negation is placed in the usual position. A negated question is marked by the negation particle *sý'ýâ*, and the expected answer is 'yes':

St'halə c'hes jačt'hé'sý'ýâ?

s\l'halə c'hes j-áčt'h'é 'sý'ýâ
ACC.INDEF\table Q 1SG-buy\3SG.PRES.ANT not
'Did I not buy a table?'

Alternatively, the particle (*r*)vá can be used to indicate that the speaker expects the answer to be 'no' or to indicate disbelief, surprise, or amazement. Note that this particle *replaces* the question particle. Attempting to use both particles in the same sentence is ungrammatical and will likely be interpreted as stuttering.

St'haləvá jačt'hé?

s\l'halə vá j-áčt'h'é
ACC.INDEF\table Q 1SG-buy\3SG.PRES.ANT
'I bought a table?'

Of course, these questions can also be negated:

St'haləvá jačt'hé'sý'yâ?

s\ť'halə vá j-ačť'h\é 'sý'yâ
ACC.INDEF\table Q 1SG-buy\3SG.PRES.ANT not
'I didn't buy a table?'

The precise meaning of these questions is as follows: In *St'halə c'hes jačt'hé?* ('Did I buy a table?'), the speaker is asking whether they themselves bought a table; a plausible situation would be that they simply forgot whether they did. Its negation, *St'halə c'hes jačt'hé'sý'yâ?* ('Did I not buy a table?'), could be used if the speaker is sure they bought a table sometime ago, but they can't seem to find it and are starting to doubt themselves ('Did I not buy a table? I'm sure I did.').

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

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

Jačt'hé'vá st'halə?

j-ačť'h\é vá s\ť'halə
ACC.INDEF\table Q 1SG-buy\3SG.PRES.ANT
'I bought a table?!'

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

Jačt'hé'sý'yâ'vá st'halə?

j-ačť'h\é 'sý'yâ vá s\ť'halə
ACC.INDEF\table not Q 1SG-buy\3SG.PRES.ANT
'I didn't buy a table?!'

Note the order of particles: negation precedes the question particle. Placing them the other way around makes it sound like you're trying to correct yourself from *Jačt'hé'vá* to *Jačt'hé'sý'yâ*.

3.4 ACI and PCI

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

Lácár sbhaú àfér lájéd'há.

Lá\çár s\bhaú à-fér l-ájéd'h\á
NOM\Charles ACC.INDEF\bridge INF.PASS-build 3M-order\PRES.ANT
'Charles ordered a bridge to be built.'

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

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

Icár sbhaú àfér dájédá jsavá.

<i>I\cár</i>	<i>s\bhaú</i>	<i>à-fér</i>	<i>d-ájéd-á</i>	<i>j-savá</i>
ACC\Charles	ACC.INDEF\bridge	INF.PASS-build	INF-order-PRES.ANT	1SG-know

‘I know that Charles ordered a bridge to be built.’

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

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

In addition to ACIs, UF also has PCIs, which use the *partitive* case instead. The partitive generally indicates that an action is incomplete, and thus PCIs can be used to express something similar; for instance:

Lácár dýnbaú àfér lájéd’há.

<i>Lá\cár</i>	<i>dýn-baú</i>	<i>à-fér</i>	<i>l-ájéd’h\á</i>
NOM\Charles	PART.INDEF-bridge	INF.PASS-build	3M-order\PRES.ANT

‘Charles ordered to start building a bridge.’

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

Finally, note that ‘that’ is not always expressed with an ACI or PCI. Certain verbs, e.g. verbs of fearing, may take a dependent clause in the subjunctive or optative instead (see §§ 2.5, 2.6).

3.5 Conditionals

Notes: - Simple indicative conditional use the indicative ‘If X, then Y’, ‘If it rains, the ground is wet’; ‘If A is 2 and B is 3, then A + B is 5’.

- Irrealis conditionals (conditionals that describe a situation that is not true, and could never be true) use the subjunctive ‘If it were raining right now, we would be wet’.

- Potential conditionals, which describe a situation that could happen, and which the speaker considers plausible use the optative ‘If we were to go left now, we’d fall off a cliff’. These conditionals are only possible in the present and future.

- Counterfactual conditionals, which describe a situation that could be true, but isn’t. These conditionals exist only in the present and past and also use the optative ‘If we had gone left, we would have fallen off a cliff’.

4 Examples

4.0.1 Simple Glossing Example

Cárvá, srá hó dwávaût'há dact'heá?

Ćár	vá	s-rá hó	dwá-vaût'há	ḍ-act'he-á
'jãːʷ	ũã	ˌsɯã'hõ	duãũũ'θã	ḍãʝ'θe.ã
Charles.VOC	PARTICLE	INDEF.ACC-fish	DEF.INESS-mountain	2SG-buy-PRES.ANT.2SG

'Charles, you bought a fish on the mountain?'

4.0.2 I Don't Think This Warrants Explaining

Stérá de c'hóný áb'hásý'ô, ráy'ê y'aúhý dí s dyb'hóy'e sab'héy'. Ez lé-el lalebet'he z'ihór bet'hê rêsol daudé. Ýab'héy' rêd'hes lab'hóy'ejú, dýna c'haúr debauhib sá lasusy'és ýrâhe lasyrrájú.

sle-rá	ḍe	c'hóný	áb'hásý'ô	ráy'ê	y'aúhý	ḍ-ís	dy-b'hóy'e
CONS.PL-law	all	well.known	GEN\aviation	way	there.is.no	INF-SUBJ\can	PART-to.fly
s-ab'héy'	ez	lé-el	la-lebet'hê	z'	ihór	bet'hê	
ACC.INDEF-bee	its	NOM.PL-wing	3PL-AFF.COMP-be.small	its	ACC\body	be.small\PART	
rê-sol	ḍ-audé	y-ab'héy'	rêd'hes	la-b'hóy'ejú	dýn-a	c'haúr	
ABL-soil	INF-obtain	NOM.PL.INDEF-bee	of.course	3N.PL-fly-GN	PART-what	as	
ḍe-ḅauhib	sá	la-susy'é's	y-râhê	la-sy-rrá-jú			
INF-be.impossible	not	3N.PL-care.about\SUBJ	NOM.PL.INDEF-human	3N.PL-3N.PASS-believe-GN			

'According to all known laws of aviation, there is no way a bee should be able to fly. Its wings are too small to get its fat little body off the ground. The bee, of course, flies anyway because bees don't care what humans think is impossible.'

Literal translation: 'According to all known laws of aviation, there is no way that a bee should be capable of flight.¹⁵ Its wings are too small for its little body to obtain [distance] from the ground. Of course, bees fly [anyway], as they do not care about what humans believe to be impossible.

¹⁵Note that UF here uses the verbal noun *b'hóy'e* 'to fly' as a noun to mean 'flight'.

5 Dictionary

- a** *pron. indef.* [PF *quoi*] What, which, that (*relative pronoun*).
- á** *conj.* [PF *tandis*] Whereas.
- ab'há** *conj.* [PF *avant que*] +OPT Before.
- ab'had** *v.* [PF *abattre*] FUT *ab'hadré*, SUBJ *ab'has*. 1. To cut down, fell, knock down, shoot down. 2. To butcher, cut apart violently.
- ab'hásy'ô** *n.* [PF *aviation*] Aviation.
- ab'héy'** *n.* [PF *abeille*] Bee.
- ab'hínéb'heḃay'évrâ** *v.* [PF *habit ne fait pas le moine*] FUT *ab'hínéb'heḃay'évé*, SUBJ *ab'hínéb'heḃay'évás*. To judge based on appearances.
- ac** *n.* [PF *hache*] Axe, hatchet.
- act'he** *v. tr.* [from *ac*] FUT *acḁe*, SUBJ *act'hes*. 1. To cut or cleave with an axe. 2. +ACC To bring an end to. 3. +ACC DEF of *árb* *intr.* (*other than literal*) To get to the point, cut to the chase. 4. +ACC DEF of *árb* and ACC To bring to light, reveal (*originally, this idiom did not take a double ACC, but was instead formed with the ACC of 'tree' and the ILL of the object, meaning something along the lines of 'to bring down the tree(s) on sth'—the image here being that of cutting down trees in a wood until only a clearing remains or is 'brought to light'*).
- act'he** *v. tr.* [PF *acheter*] FUT *acḁré*, SUBJ *act'hes*. To buy.
- ad'he** *v.* [PF *vader*] FUT *ad'hré*, SUBJ *ad'hes*. To go.
- ad'hór** *v. tr.* [PF *adore*] FUT *ad'hóré*, SUBJ *ad'hórs*. 1. To love, adore. 2. +PART To be in love with, have a crush on. 3. +GEN To desire (someone).
- áhaúr** *conj.* [PF *encore*] +SUBJ Even though.
- ánb'hé** *adv.* [PF *en effet*, via metathesis from **âné-b'he*] Verily, indeed, in fact.
- ánvé** *v. tr.* [PF *animer*] To bring to life, animate.
- árb** *n.* [PF *arbre*] Tree.
- asý'yâ** *particle* [PF *pas absolument*] Not, no. Commonly *'sý'yâ* after vowels. This particle is used only in the indicative; see also *sá*, *t'hé*.
- au** *conj.* [PF *aussi*] And, also, as well, too.
- aub'heír** *v. (in)tr.* [PF *obéir*] To obey.
- audé** *v.* [PF *obtenir*] FUT *audy'édré*. 1. To obtain, get, acquire. 2. +ABL To gain purchase on or height or distance from.
- aúfý** → *eḁ*.
- auha** *conj.* [PF *au cas où*] +OPT In case.
- aúsó** → *eḁ*.
- ávrê** *conj.* [PF *à moins que*] +OPT Unless.
- ay'aúr** *conj.* [PF *alors*] While, as (*temporal*).
- ájéd** *v.* [PF *enjoindre*] To order, enjoin, command.
- ḃarḁ** *v.* [PF *partir*] FUT *ḃaré*, SUBJ *ḃars*. To leave, go away, depart.
- ḃárdád** *v.* [PF *partante*] (+ACI) To be interested in, willing to, ready to, prepared for.
- ḃas** *conj.* [PF *parce que*] +SUBJ Because (*often used to explain motivation rather than cause as in 'We did that because...'*).
- ḃaú** *n.* [PF *pont*] Bridge.
- ḃauheýnlabhé** *v.* [PF *poser un lapin*] FUT *ḃauheýnlabhére*, SUBJ *ḃauheýnlabhés*. To forsake, abandon.
- ḃauhib** *v.* [PF *impossible*] FUT *ḃauhibre*, SUBJ *ḃauhibes*. To be impossible, unfeasible.
- ḃál** *v.* [PF *parler*] FUT *ḃátéré*. To speak, talk, say.
- ḃet'hé** *v.* [PF *petit*] To be small, little.
- ḃré** *conj.* [PF *après que*] +OPT After.
- b'he** *conj.* [PF *envers*] +SUBJ To, so as to, in order to, so that. Commonly enclitic *'b'h* after vowels.
- b'heḁ** → *eḁ*.
- b'heḁy'é** → *eḁ*.
- b'hóy'ḁ** *v.* [PF *voler*] To fly. Flight.
- b'hu** → *eḁ*.
- Cár** *n.* [PF] male given name, equivalent to English 'Kyle' or 'Charles'.
- c'hánár** *n.* [PF *canard*] Ship, boat.
- c'háraúciḁ** *v.* [PF *les carottes sont cuites*] FUT *c'háraúcre*, SUBJ *c'háraúc*. To end for good, put to a permanent end.
- c'haúr** *conj.* [PF *car + comme*] +SUBJ As, because, since.
- c'hd'hal** *adv.* [PF *que dalle*] Naught, absolutely nothing.
- C'hebèc'h** *n.* [PF *Québec*] The Promised Land.
- c'hes** *part.* [PF *qu'est-ce que*] interrogative particle.
- c'hóný** *adj.* [PF *connu*] Known, familiar, well-known.
- c'hór** *n.* [PF *corps*] Body.
- c'húr** *v.* [PF *court*] To shrink, reduce in size, narrow.
- c'hýr** *n.* [PF *corps*] Heart.
- ḁale** *n.* [PF *tableau*] Table.
- daúb'hedwébhó** *v.* [PF *tomber dans les pommes*] FUT *daúb'hedwébhóre*, SUBJ *daúb'hedwébhós*. To faint.
- daúc'h** *conj.* [PF *donc*] +SUBJ So, therefore, thus.

- Daúvnic'h** *n.* [PF] *male or female given name, equivalent to English 'Dominic'.*
- de** *conj.* [PF *dès que*] +SUBJ Once, when once, as soon as.
- de** → *ed.*
- dehe** *n.* [PF *dessus*] 1. Top, upper side. 2. Surface of a body of water.
- dír** *v. tr.* [PF *dire*] FUT *díré*, SUBJ *díss*. To say, tell.
- e** *n.* [PF *eau*] Water.
- ē** *adj.* [PF *tout*] All, every, whole, entire.
- ebhe** *v.* [PF *épais*] FUT *ebhre*, SUBJ *ebhes*. To be thick.
- ec** *n.* [PF *péché*] Sin, transgression, wrongdoing.
- ed** *v. irreg.* [PF *être*] *active only.* **PRES:** SG *vy'í, de, le, lle, s*; PL *aúsó, b'heđ, lēsó, llesó, lasó*; **INF** *éd.* **PRES ANT:** SG *ve, dyf, leb'h, lleb'h, seb'h*; PL *aúfý, b'hu, lefýr, llefýr, lafýr*; **INF** *éfyđ.* **PRET:** SG *vet'h, det'h, let'h, llet'h, set'h*; PL *wedy'ó, b'hedy'é, let'he, llet'he, laet'h*; **INF** *ét'hed.* To be.
- éd** → *ed.*
- edrrá** *v.* [PF *étroit*] Pointy.
- Edy'ē** *n.* [PF] *male given name, equivalent to English 'Stephen'.*
- éfyđ** → *ed.*
- ehyó** *n.* [PF *écusson*] Shield.
- el** *n.* [PF *ailles*] Wing, blade, fin..
- ēr** *v.* [PF *taire*] FUT *đeré.* To silence, shut up.
- et'h** → *ed.*
- ét'hed** → *ed.*
- ez-** *pron.* [PF *ses*] Its, her, his, their.
- fahaú** *conj.* [PF *de façon que*] +OPT In such a way that.
- fēhab** *v.* [PF *faisable*] FUT *fēhabre*, SUBJ *fēhas*. To be possible, feasible.
- fér** *v.* [PF *faire*] FUT *fé*, SUBJ *fés*. To do, make, build, construct, erect.
- férđufraú** *v.* [PF *en faire tout un fromage*] FUT *férđu-fraúré*, SUBJ *férđufraús*. To make a big fuss about something.
- férrrásvát'h** *n.* [PF *fer la grasse matinée*] A long, deep sleep.
- ís** → *ub'hrá.*
- Já** *n.* [PF] *male or female given name, equivalent to English 'John' or 'Joan'.*
- jávė** *adv.* [PF *jamais*] Never, at no time.
- jys** *conj.* [PF *jusqu'à ce que*] +OPT Until.
- Lác** *n.* [PF] *female given name, equivalent to English 'Bianca'.*
- laet'h** → *ed.*
- lafýr** → *ed.*
- lár** *v.* [PF *large*] Wide, broad.
- lârdávrá** *n.* [PF *langue de bois*] Evasive, unclear, or overly formal speech.
- lasó** → *ed.*
- laú** *v.* [PF *long*] Long.
- laúrs** *conj.* [PF *lorsque*] When (temporal only).
- le** → *ed.*
- le** *v.* [PF *laisser* > **lehe*] FUT *lere*, SUBJ *les*. (*chiefly in questions or imperative*) To let, allow, permit.
- le** *prefix* [PF *plus*] Denying comparative prefix. See grammar.
- leb'h** → *ed.*
- lefýr** → *ed.*
- lehuved** *n.* [PF *coup de foudre*] Love at first sight.
- lēsó** → *ed.*
- let'h** → *ed.*
- let'he** → *ed.*
- lle** → *ed.*
- lleb'h** → *ed.*
- llefýr** → *ed.*
- llesó** → *ed.*
- llet'h** → *ed.*
- llet'he** → *ed.*
- lúr** *v.* [PF *lourd*] To be bulky, oversized, heavy.
- lýr** *pron.* [PF *leur*] Their.
- náje** *v.* [PF *nager*] FUT *náje*, SUBJ *nájes*. To swim.
- rá** *v.* [PF *grand*] Big, large, great.
- rá** *n.* [PF *loi*] Law, rule, regulation.
- rác'hsay'ad** *v.* [PF *raconter des salades*] FUT *rác'hsay'é*, SUBJ *rác'hsays*. To lie, tell tall tales, overexaggerate.
- râdrásôn** *v.* [PF *prendre ses jambe à son cou*] FUT *râdrásônre*, SUBJ *râdrásônre*. To run.
- râdrénė** *v.* + ACI [PF *les doigts dans le nez*] FUT *râdrénrė*, SUBJ *râdrénės*. To put no effort into.
- râdvâ** *prefix* [PF *grandement*] Superlative prefix. See grammar.
- râhe** *n.* [PF *oiseau*] Bird.
- râhé** *n.* [from *râhe* + *râhó*] Flying fish.
- râhe** *conj.* [PF *quoique*] +SUBJ Although, though.
- râhe** *n.* [PF *Français*] Human, person.
- râhó** *n.* [PF *poisson*] Fish.
- raúl** *n.* [PF *parole*] 1. Language, speech, word 2. **Rául** *definite only* Short for *T'hebhaú Rául* (NOM SG *irreg. Rául*; *all other forms are regular*).
- rávâ** *adv.* [PF *rarement*] Seldom, rarely (ever).
- ráy'é** *v.* [PF *noyer*] To drown.
- ráy'ē** *n.* [PF *moyen*] 1. Way, means, method. 2. *ráy'ē yáuhy* + ACI There is no way, that...
- ráy'ē** *v.* [PF *râler*] To complain, grumble.
- ré** *prefix* [PF *très*] Superlative prefix. See grammar.

- rê** prefix [PF moins] Neutral comparative prefix. See grammar.
- rê** conj. [PF bien que] +SUBJ Although, though.
- rêd** v. [PF craindre] FUT rêdré, SUBJ rês. +sopt To fear, lest ... (construed with the negated optative).
- rêd'hes** particle [PF bien sûr] Of course, certainly, surely.
- rét'hé** v. [PF traiter] FUT rét'hère, SUBJ rét'hes. To handle, take care of, deal with.
- rrá** v. [PF croire] FUT rré, SUBJ rrás. Believe (something or someone).
- rrád'hahánár** n. [PF froid de canard] Coldness.
- rvá** interj. [of unknown origin] after words that end with 'r', this is spelt '-vá' instead. Alas, woe, oh. Exclamation of distress, surprise, sadness, or regret.
- s** → **ed**.
- s** conj. [PF si] If, when, whenever.
- sá** conj. [PF sans que] +SUBJ Without (doing sth.).
- sá** particle [PF sans] Not, no. Always *s'* before vowels. This particle is used only in the subjunctive; see also **asý'yâ**, **t'hé**.
- sauc'h** conj. [PF sauf que] +SUBJ Except that.
- sauz** n. [PF chose] Thing, object.
- savá** v. [PF savoir] FUT saúr, SUBJ sac. To know.
- shé** v. [PF espérer] FUT shéré, SUBJ shés. +OPT To wish, want, desire.
- seb'h** → **ed**.
- set'h** → **ed**.
- sit'há** conj. [PF si tant est que] +OPT Supposing that; if, assuming that.
- sol** n. [PF sol] Ground, floor, earth, soil.
- susy'é** v. [PF soucier] FUT susy'ére, SUBJ susy'és. +PARTY'é adv. [PF rien] Nothing.
- s'** → **sá**.
- t'hé** conj. [PF de peur que > *dbhýrc'h > *dýrc'h > *dc'hý > *t'hé] Not, no. Always *t'h^N* before vowels. This particle is used only in the optative; see also **asý'yâ**, **sá**.
- T'hebhaú** n. or adj. [from *t'hebhaúz*] France, French.
- T'hebhaú Raúl** n. def. sg. (only *T'hebhaú* is declined as though the entire phrase were one word) [from *t'hebhaúz* + *rául*] NOM SG *T'hebhaú Raúl* (regular in all other cases). The Ultrafrench language (in informal speech and writing, this is typically shortened to **Raúl**).
- t'hebhaúz** v. [PF jeter l'éponge] FUT t'hebhaúze, SUBJ t'hebhaús. To be French.
- ub'hrá** v. [PF pouvoir] FUT úré, SUBJ ís. 1. To be able to, can. 2. +PART Capable of ...
- úrbh** conj. [PF pour peu que] +OPT Provided that, so long as.
- urdálbhaúrd** n. [PF avoir un oursin dans le porte-feuille] A very rich person; billionaire.
- úré** → **ub'hrá**.
- uy'ed'háb'hrí** v. [PF rouler dans la farine] FUT uy'e-d'háve, SUBJ uy'ed'háb'hrís. To scam, swindle, cheat.
- vá** → **rvá**.
- vádlabhaud'hávúrsab'hád'háváb'hrárðue** v. literary [PF vendre la peau de ours avant de avoir tué] FUT *vádlabhaud'hávúrsab'hád'háváb'hrárðure*, *vádlabhaud'hávúrsab'hád'háváb'hrárðus*. To depend on predictions of the future (of disputed origin; first attested in the works of the Early UF comedian J. A. B. Smyth).
- vaúd** n. [PF monde] World.
- vaût'há** n. [PF montagne] Mountain.
- valé** conj. [PF malgré que] +SUBJ Despite that, in spite of.
- ve** → **ed**.
- véhýr** conj. [PF dans la mesure où] Insofar as.
- vet'h** → **ed**.
- vvaúríhe** v. (in)tr. [PF mémoriser] FUT *vvaúríze*. To remember.
- vy'í** → **ed**.
- wedy'ó** → **ed**.
- yf** → **ed**.
- y'áuhý** inconj., postpos. [PF il n'y a aucun] There is no, there are no, there is none.
- y'áuhý** inconj., postpos. [PF il y a aucun] There is, there are.
- y'ý** adv. [PF rien] Nothing.
- y'ír** v. (in)tr. [PF ouïr] To hear, understand, listen.
- y'ís** conj. [PF puisque] Considering that, since, because (unlike **c'haúr**, this does not take the subjunctive; it is used to indicate the (potential) cause of something).
- y'ý** n. [from *y'ývéláfrí*] Eye.
- y'ý** prefix [PF mieux] Affirming comparative prefix. See grammar.
- y'ývéláfrí** n. pl. archaic [yeux de merlan frit] Eyes.
- 'sý'yâ** → **asý'yâ**.