

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,<sup>1</sup> 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 *ed* 'to be' are all stressed on the first syllable. Any such words that deviate from the norm will be pointed out in this grammar and in dictionaries.

Oral vowels before the stressed syllable are often somewhat muted or reduced, albeit still audible, and stressed vowels are lengthened if they are nasalised, e.g. the pronunciation of *ad'hór*, which we just transcribed as /a'dõũ/, is actually closer to [ã'dõũ]. Word-final voiceless *ɛ* is always /ə/. Finally, non-back vowels that are followed by /u/ or /ũ/ are retracted, e.g. *y'éré*, the future stem of *y'é* 'forbid', is phonemically /yẽ'uẽ/, but pronounced [yẽ'uẽ].

Oral vowels have a nasalised and nasal counterpart. /i/ and /u/ do not vary in quality when nasalised. /a/ is normally [æ], but becomes [ɑ] when nasalised or nasal. Similarly, /e/ becomes [ɛ], /y/ becomes [ɣ], 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,<sup>2</sup> but this distinction is no longer present in the modern standard language.

Initial /u/ is sometimes elided after words that end with /u/.

## 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 /ṽ/, ⟨j⟩ is /z/, ⟨c⟩ is /ɕ/, ⟨r⟩ is /r̥/, ⟨w⟩ is /ũ/. The vowel /y/ is spelt ⟨y⟩, and its consonantal equivalent /ɣ/ as well as nasalised /ɣ̃/ are spelt with an apostrophe, that is ⟨y'⟩ and ⟨y'̃⟩. The ɣ-fricated fricatives /βʁ̥, l̃ʁ̥, sʁ̥, ɕʁ̥, zʁ̥/ are spelt ⟨ṽ, l̃, s̃, c̃, z̃⟩, 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 /r̥r̥/, but rather /r̥/. 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;<sup>3</sup> 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 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.<sup>4</sup>

<sup>1</sup> 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.

<sup>2</sup> Sinistral nasal vowels are articulated with the left nostril, and dextral nasal vowels with the right nostril.

<sup>3</sup> 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.

<sup>4</sup> Thus, a word-final ⟨e⟩ can be /e/, such as in *vvaúríhe* /ṽ:ũũĩ'he/ 'to remember', or /ə/, such as in *dale* /dãl̃ə/ '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

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 *ḅ*, *ḍ* indicates that they are the ‘hard’ variants of the letter, which are pronounced the same, but lenited differently;
- a dot below in *ḷ* indicates that it is palatal /*ɫ̪*/ instead of alveolar /*ɫ̥*/;
- a dot below in *ə̣* indicates that it is a schwa;
- a dot below nasalised *ẹ́*, *ệ* indicates that they are /*ẽ*/, /*ẽ̃*/ instead of /*ẽ̃*/, /*ẽ̃̃*/;
- a dot below in *ç̣* indicates that it is lenited /*ʃ̪*/.

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

- *l* can be palatal /*ɫ̪*/ or alveolar /*ɫ̥*/;
- *e* can be a schwa, or /*e*/;
- *é*, *ê* can be /*ẽ*/, /*ẽ̃*/ or /*ẽ̃̃*/, /*ẽ̃̃̃*/;
- *c* can be /*ç̪*/ or /*ʃ̪*/.

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

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

### 1.2.1 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 *ḍ*, which becomes *n*, unless it would directly be preceded by another *n*, in which case it is simply deleted.

Lenition is more complicated; it affects only consonants and causes a softening similar to what happened diachronically between vowels. All *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>sw</i>	<i>c</i>	<i>b</i>	<i>f</i>	<i>ḅ</i>	<i>d</i>	<i>ḍ</i>
Lenited		<i>h</i>		<i>ž</i>	<i>ç</i>	<i>b'h</i>		<i>bh</i>	<i>d'h</i>	<i>t'h</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.

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differentiated by a dot below in dictionaries and in this grammar: *vvaúríhe* vs *ḍale*.

### 1.3 Diachrony and Derivation

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

The suffix *-t’he*, FUT *-ḍe*, SUBJ *-t’hes*, is a productive derivational suffix that can be used to turn a noun ‘X’ into a verb that roughly means ‘to use X’, e.g. *ac* ‘axe’ → *act’he* ‘to cut with an axe’.

## 2 Accidence

### 2.1 Noun Morphology

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

#### 2.1.1 Declension

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

Definite	Sg	Pl	Indefinite	Sg	Pl
Absolutive	∅	<i>l-</i>	Absolutive	∅ <sup>-N</sup>	∅ <sup>-L</sup>
Nominative	<i>lá<sup>-L</sup></i>	<i>lé<sup>-L</sup></i>	Nominative	<i>ýn<sup>-N</sup></i>	<i>ý<sup>-L</sup></i>
Vocative	∅ <sup>-L</sup>	∅ <sup>-N</sup>	Vocative	/	/
Partitive	<i>dy<sup>-L</sup></i>	<i>de<sup>-L</sup></i>	Partitive	<i>dýn<sup>-N</sup></i>	<i>dý<sup>-L</sup></i>
Accusative	<i>i<sup>-L</sup></i>	<i>sý<sup>-L</sup></i>	Accusative	<i>s<sup>-L</sup></i>	<i>s-</i>
Genitive	<i>á<sup>-L</sup></i>	<i>abh<sup>-L</sup></i>	Genitive	<i>sý<sup>-N</sup></i>	<i>sý<sup>-L</sup></i>
Dative	<i>as<sup>-L</sup></i>	<i>a<sup>-L</sup></i>	Dative	<i>an<sup>-N</sup></i>	<i>an<sup>-L</sup></i>
Inessive	<i>dwá-</i>	<i>dwé-</i>	Inessive	<i>dáhýn-</i>	<i>dáhý-</i>
Interessive	<i>aḍá-</i>	<i>aḍé-</i>	Inessive	<i>aḍýn-</i>	<i>aḍý-</i>
Ablative	<i>rê(d)-</i>	<i>rês-</i>	Ablative	<i>rêdýn-</i>	<i>rêdý-</i>
Allative	<i>b’hé<sup>-L</sup></i>	<i>b’hér-</i>	Allative	<i>b’hýn<sup>-N</sup></i>	<i>b’hý<sup>-L</sup></i>
Considerative	<i>slá-</i>	<i>slé-</i>	Considerative	<i>sý’óýn-</i>	<i>sý’óý-</i>
Instrumental	<i>b’hel-</i>	<i>b’he-</i>	Instrumental	<i>b’hehý(n)-</i>	<i>b’heh-</i>

Table 2: UF Declension.

Most of these forms cause lenition in the initial consonant of the noun, e.g. *ḍale* ‘table’ to DEF ACC SG *s’tħale*; this lenition is blocked in the INDEF ACC PL due to the presence of a hypercorrected ‘s’ in PF *\*ces*, e.g. *s’ḍale* ‘the tables (ACC)’ (not *s’tħale*, which is the singular), as well as in less commonly used forms such as the DEF INESS *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’. Names in UF are always definite, so the indefinite VOC does not exist, as that would be nonsense. As lenition, nasalisation too is blocked in rarer forms, e.g. INDEF INESS *dáhýnḍale* ‘on a table’.

The ABS case is used for the predicate noun of predicative sentences, e.g. *Aúsó ḍe ráhó* ‘We are all fish’ and to turn nouns into modifier nouns, e.g. *árḍihyl lývyér* ‘light particle (as in, a particle of light)’.

The CONS 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.

Both the PART and the ACC can be used to mark the direct object of a verb; some verbs, e.g. *ub’hrá* ‘to be able to’ always take a PART, and some always take an ACC, but for most verbs, the difference is semantic: the ACC indicates that an action is being or has been performed in its entirety or to completion, e.g. *jlí slivuhé* ‘I peruse a book’ vs *jlí dýnliuvuhé* ‘I read (PRES) from a book’ or ‘I am reading a book’. Consequently, PRES ANT forms, which are mainly perfective, generally take the ACC, e.g. *jlíé ilivuhé* ‘I’ve read the book’, whereas PRET forms, which are mainly imperfective, generally take the PART, e.g. *jlíá dylivuhé* ‘I was reading (from) the book’.

A GEN can precede or follow their possessee. Typically, the GEN follow the possessee, but if the possessee is qualified with adjectives, then the adjectives must follow the possessee immediately, lest they end up qualify the genitive instead, and thus, the genitive is placed first.

The *d* in the DEF ABL SG and the *n* in the INDEF INSTR SG are 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 as well as from PF prepositions, though some forms, such as the accusative, are borrowed from demonstratives instead (DEF from PF \**celui* and INDEF from PF \**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
Absolutive	<i>ḍale</i>	<i>lḍale</i>	Absolutive	<i>ḍale</i>	<i>ḍale</i>
Nominative	<i>lát’halẹ</i>	<i>lét’halẹ</i>	Nominative	<i>ýnale</i>	<i>ýt’halẹ</i>
Vocative	<i>t’halẹ</i>	<i>nalẹ</i>	Vocative	/	/
Partitive	<i>dýt’halẹ</i>	<i>ḍet’halẹ</i>	Partitive	<i>dýnale</i>	<i>dýt’halẹ</i>
Accusative	<i>it’halẹ</i>	<i>sýt’halẹ</i>	Accusative	<i>st’halẹ</i>	<i>sḍale</i>
Genitive	<i>át’halẹ</i>	<i>abht’halẹ</i>	Genitive	<i>sýnale</i>	<i>sýt’halẹ</i>
Dative	<i>ast’halẹ</i>	<i>at’halẹ</i>	Dative	<i>annale</i>	<i>ant’halẹ</i>
Inessive	<i>dwáḍale</i>	<i>dwéḍale</i>	Inessive	<i>dáhýnḍale</i>	<i>dáhýḍale</i>
Interessive	<i>aḍáḍale</i>	<i>aḍéḍale</i>	Inessive	<i>aḍýnḍale</i>	<i>aḍýḍale</i>
Ablative	<i>rêḍale</i>	<i>rêḥḍale</i>	Ablative	<i>rêdýnḍale</i>	<i>rêdýḍale</i>
Allative	<i>b’hét’halẹ</i>	<i>b’hérḍale</i>	Allative	<i>b’hýnnale</i>	<i>b’hýt’halẹ</i>
Considerative	<i>sláḍale</i>	<i>sléḍale</i>	Considerative	<i>sýóýnḍale</i>	<i>sýóýḍale</i>
Instrumental	<i>b’heḍale</i>	<i>b’heḍale</i>	Instrumental	<i>b’hehýḍale</i>	<i>b’hehḍale</i>

Table 3: Example Declension of *ḍale*.

## 2.2 Adjectives

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

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



### 2.2.1 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'y*, and the neutral comparative prefix is *rê*. Thus, we have *hẹt'hâ* 'small', *lẹhẹt'hâ* 'smaller, and also small', *y'yhẹt'hâ* 'smaller, but not small', and *rêhẹt'hâ* 'smaller'.

The comparative prefixes can also be applied to verbs, though they usually only make sense for the aforementioned 'adjective verbs', e.g. *jj'y'hẹt'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 *aúnraây'yebhraú* '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 *hẹt'hâ* 'small', and *lẹhẹt'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, *lẹhẹt'hâ* can also mean 'too small', and *y'yhẹt'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<sup>L</sup>* 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 *rêbhẹt'hâ* or *râdvâhẹt'hâ* 'smallest'.

### 2.2.2 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 s-lẹ-lúr-á b'héd'hẹhẹ dẹ-nájẹ.*

<i>Lá-ráhó</i>	<i>s-lẹ-lúr-á</i>	<i>b'héd'hẹhẹ</i>	<i>dẹ-nájẹ</i>
NOM-fish	3N-AFF.COMP-bulky-3SG.PRES.ANT	ALL\surface	INF-swim
'The fish was too bulky to swim to the surface' <sup>5</sup>			

## 2.3 Verbal Morphology

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

<sup>5</sup>This is a very common proverb (often also just *láráhó s-lẹ-lúr* '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'.

### 2.3.1 Active/Passive Affixes

The most fundamental affixes in UF are a set of active/subject and passive/object affixes (often referred to as the ‘active/passive affixes’) which can be used on their own or in combination with one another, though at most one active and one passive affix may be combined with any one verb form.<sup>6</sup> Table 4 below lists those affixes.

A verb can have a passive affix only if there is no other explicit direct object in the clause. However, a verb always has an active affix, unless there is no subject at all. Ditransitive verbs and verbs governing the dative case take a dative affix (see § 2.5.2) iff there is no explicit indirect object.

Every finite verb form requires at least one finite affix. A verb form without any active, passive, or dative affix whatsoever would not be a finite verb form and could thus never be the predicate of a sentence.<sup>7</sup> Thus, if the active affix is omitted, the verb has to have at least a passive or dative marker. Such a construction would be the closest equivalent to a passive in UF, since there is no true distinct syntactical or morphological passive, and it is impossible to express the agent in the ‘passive’ by any means other than reintroducing an active affix, which would render the form no longer a passive.

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(ę)-</i>	<i>b'h(y)- -(y')é</i>	2ND	<i>d(ę)-</i>	<i>b'h(y)-</i>
3M	<i>l(ę)-</i>	<i>l(ę)-</i>	3M	<i>y'-</i>	<i>lý-</i>
3F	<i>ll(a)-</i>	<i>ll(ę)-</i>	3F	<i>y'-</i>	<i>lý-</i>
3N	<i>s-</i>	<i>l(a)-</i>	3N	<i>sy-</i>	<i>lý-</i>
INF		<i>d(ę)-</i>	INF		<i>à-/h-</i>
PTCP		<i>-â</i>	PTCP		<i>â-</i>

Table 4: Active (left) and passive (right) verbal affixes.

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

The ACT 1PL, 2PL forms are only distinguished from their passive counterparts by the presence of additional suffixes in the former. The 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 a variant of ‘o’, the prefix is realised as *w-* instead, e.g. *aub'heír* ‘obey’ to *wob'heíró* ‘we obey’.<sup>8</sup> 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'hylvvaúríhé* ‘you (PL) remember’ (not *\*b'hylvvaúríhyé*). In all other cases, the *y'* is retained, e.g. *aúvvaúríheyó* ‘we remember’.

<sup>6</sup> Irrespective of whether they are personal or infinitive affix. For instance, it would also be illegal to combine e.g. the active infinitive affix with the first person active singular affix.

<sup>7</sup> Excluding of course the fact that infinitives could be considered to function as predicates of ACIS and PCIS (see § 3.5).

<sup>8</sup> Diachronically, the base form of this prefix is *\*o-*, whence e.g. *\*oad'hóró* > *rad'hóró* and *\*oob'heíró* > *wob'heíró*.

**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’.

In the present tense, the base form—and not the INF—of the verb is inflected to form gerunds, e.g. *ýnád’hór* ‘a loving’, not *\*ýndad’hór*. However, the INF is used as the base form for gerunds in other tenses, e.g. *ýndad’hórá* ‘a having loved’.

**PART** The participle affixes are commonly used to form adjectives since the vast majority of adjectives in UF are actually ‘adjective verbs’ with a meaning of ‘to be X’. The participle can be used to convert such a verb back into a regular adjective, e.g. *lár* ‘to be wide’ to *lárâ* ‘wide’. Like the passive infinitive affix, the participle affixes coalesce with vowels and always form a maximally nasal vowel, e.g. *vvaúríhe* ‘to remember’ forms *vvaúríhê* ‘remembering’, and *ad’hór* forms *ád’hór* ‘being loved’. As with other coalescence rules, the *-â* instead replaces final or initial *ê*, and *ê* only: e.g. *hêt’hê* ‘to be small’ becomes *hêt’hâ* ‘being small’. Note that if the word already ends with a maximally nasal vowel, no coalescence occurs, e.g. *rê* ‘to be triune’ becomes *rêâ* ‘triune’.

**-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 *àdír* ‘to be said’.

**-y-** The exception to this is that 2PL *b’h(y)-* drops the *y* if followed by a glide, e.g. *y’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 *devad’hór* ‘to love me’ and *àb’had’hóré* ‘to be loved by you (PL)’. Recall that at most one infinitive prefix and at most one participle affix may be used.

## Impersonal Forms

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

## Example Paradigms

By way of illustration, consider the paradigm of the verb *ad’hór* as shown in Table 5 below. Since this word starts with a vowel, the parenthesised vowels in Table 4 above are not used. Furthermore, since it starts with a non-nasal ‘a’-like vowel, the *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>ḍad’hór</i>	<i>b’had’hóré</i>	2ND	<i>ḍad’hór</i>	<i>b’had’hór</i>
3M	<i>lad’hór</i>	<i>lad’hór</i>	3M	<i>y’ad’hór</i>	<i>lýad’hór</i>
3F	<i>llad’hór</i>	<i>llad’hór</i>	3F	<i>y’ad’hór</i>	<i>lýad’hór</i>
3N	<i>sad’hór</i>	<i>lad’hór</i>	3N	<i>y’ad’hór</i>	<i>lýad’hór</i>
INF	<i>dad’hór</i>		INF	<i>ád’hór</i>	
PTCP	<i>ad’hórâ</i>		PTCP	<i>âd’hór</i>	

Table 5: Paradigm of the Verb *ad’hór*.

For comparison, the paradigm of the verb *vvaúríhe* ‘remember’ is shown in Table 6 below. Since it starts with a consonant, the parenthesised vowels in Table 4 are used, and any prefixes that end with a vowel remain unchanged.

Active	Sg	Pl	Passive	Sg	Pl
1ST	<i>jvvaúríhe</i>	<i>aúvvaúríhey’ó</i>	1ST	<i>vvvaúríhe</i>	<i>aúvvaúríhe</i>
2ND	<i>ḑevvaúríhe</i>	<i>b’hyvvórihé</i>	2ND	<i>ḑevvaúríhe</i>	<i>b’hyvvvaúríhe</i>
3M	<i>lẹvvaúríhe</i>	<i>lẹvvaúríhe</i>	3M	<i>y’vvaúríhe</i>	<i>lývvaúríhe</i>
3F	<i>llavvaúríhe</i>	<i>lẹvvaúríhe</i>	3F	<i>y’vvaúríhe</i>	<i>lývvaúríhe</i>
3N	<i>y’vvaúríhe</i>	<i>lavvaúríhe</i>	3N	<i>y’vvaúríhe</i>	<i>lývvaúríhe</i>
INF	<i>ḑevvaúríhe</i>		INF	<i>àvvaúríhe</i>	
PTCP	<i>vvaúríhê</i>		PTCP	<i>âvvaúríhe</i>	

Table 6: Paradigm of the Verb *vvaúríhe*.

## 2.4 Tense and Aspect Marking

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

### 2.4.1 Suffixed Tenses

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

Pres. Ant.	Sg	Pl	Preterite	Sg	Pl
1ST	<sup>L</sup> é	<sup>L</sup> â	1ST	<sup>L</sup> á	-y’âû
2ND	<sup>L</sup> á	<sup>L</sup> áḑ	2ND	<sup>L</sup> é	-y’ḑ
3RD	<sup>L</sup> á	<sup>L</sup> ér	3RD	<sup>L</sup> é	<sup>L</sup> é
INF	-á		INF	-é	
PTCP	-ér		PTCP	-ár	

Table 7: Present Anterior and Preterite Affixes.

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

Diachronically, the 1SG PRET is an interesting case; in EUF, it was originally \*<sup>L</sup>-é, but it later changed to <sup>L</sup>-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/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’hórâ* 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’hórâ</i>	<i>b’had’hórâḍ</i>	2ND	<i>ḍad’hórâ</i>	<i>b’had’hórâḍ</i>
3M	<i>lad’hórâ</i>	<i>lad’hórér</i>	3M	<i>y’ad’hórâ</i>	<i>lýad’hórér</i>
3F	<i>llad’hórâ</i>	<i>llad’hórér</i>	3F	<i>y’ad’hórâ</i>	<i>lýad’hórér</i>
3N	<i>y’ad’hórâ</i>	<i>lad’hórér</i>	3N	<i>y’ad’hórâ</i>	<i>lýad’hórér</i>
INF	<i>dad’hórâ</i>		INF	<i>ád’hórâ</i>	
PTCP	<i>ad’hórêr</i>		PTCP	<i>âd’hórér</i>	

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

Active	Sg	Pl	Passive	Sg	Pl
1ST	<i>jad’hórâ</i>	<i>rad’hórýâû</i>	1ST	<i>vad’hórâ</i>	<i>rad’hórýâû</i>
2ND	<i>ḍad’hóré</i>	<i>b’had’hórýḙ</i>	2ND	<i>ḍad’hóré</i>	<i>b’had’hórýḙ</i>
3M	<i>lad’hóré</i>	<i>lad’hóré</i>	3M	<i>y’ad’hóré</i>	<i>lýad’hóré</i>
3F	<i>llad’hóré</i>	<i>llad’hóré</i>	3F	<i>y’ad’hóré</i>	<i>lýad’hóré</i>
3N	<i>y’ad’hóré</i>	<i>lad’hóré</i>	3N	<i>y’ad’hóré</i>	<i>lýad’hóré</i>
INF	<i>dad’hóré</i>		INF	<i>ád’hóré</i>	
PTCP	<i>ad’hórâr</i>		PTCP	<i>âd’hórâr</i>	

Table 9: Preterite Paradigm of the Verb *ad’hór*.

#### 2.4.2 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 *à-* or *á-* to *aú* or *aû*, e.g. *aûd’hór* ‘to be about to be loved’.<sup>9</sup> 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 10 instead shows the Future I paradigm of the verb *ad’hór*.

<sup>9</sup>This form has no direct equivalent in English and is fairly hard to translate on its own.

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>
3M	<i>aúlad'hór</i>	<i>aúlad'hór</i>	3M	<i>aúry'ad'hór</i>	<i>aúly'ad'hór</i>
3F	<i>aúllad'hór</i>	<i>aúllad'hór</i>	3F	<i>aúry'ad'hór</i>	<i>aúly'ad'hór</i>
3N	<i>aúry'ad'hór</i>	<i>aúlad'hór</i>	3N	<i>aúry'ad'hór</i>	<i>aúly'ad'hór</i>
INF	<i>aúḍad'hór</i>		INF	<i>aúḍ'hór</i>	
PTCP	<i>aúrad'hórâ</i>		PTCP	<i>aúrád'hór</i>	

Table 10: Future I Paradigm of the Verb *ad'hór*.

### 2.4.3 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.<sup>10</sup> The vocalic and consonantal Future II affixes are shown in Tables 11 and 12 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 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 *ú* in the 2PL ACT seems to be the result of metathesis.

Active	Sg	Pl	Passive	Sg	Pl
1ST	<i>b'h- -(e)</i>	<i>náy'- -aú</i>	1ST	<i>v- -é</i>	<i>náy'-</i>
2ND	<i>ḍír- -(e)</i>	<i>b'hay'- -(r)é</i>	2ND	<i>ḍír-</i>	<i>b'hay'-</i>
3M	<i>l- -(e)</i>	<i>lb'h- -aú</i>	3M	<i>l-</i>	<i>lb'h- -(r)e</i>
3F	<i>èl- -(e)</i>	<i>lb'h- -aú</i>	3F	<i>l-</i>	<i>lb'h- -(r)e</i>
3N	<i>aúl- -(e)</i>	<i>lb'h- -aú</i>	3N	<i>s-</i>	<i>lb'h- -(r)e</i>
INF	<i>d- -è</i>		INF	<i>h-</i>	
PTCP	<i>-ýr</i>		PTCP	<i>á- -ýr</i>	

Table 11: Vocalic Future II Affixes.

Active	Sg	Pl	Passive	Sg	Pl
1ST	<i>jaú- -é</i>	<i>aúnraû- -aú</i>	1ST	<i>vaú- -é</i>	<i>naú-</i>
2ND	<i>b'há- -(e)</i>	<i>vaú- -e</i>	2ND	<i>ḍá-</i>	<i>b'haú-</i>
3M	<i>aúr- -(e)</i>	<i>laú- -aú</i>	3M	<i>y'aúr-</i>	<i>laú- -(r)e</i>
3F	<i>aúr- -(e)</i>	<i>laú- -aú</i>	3F	<i>y'aúr-</i>	<i>laú- -(r)e</i>
3N	<i>aúr- -(e)</i>	<i>laú- -aú</i>	3N	<i>saúr-</i>	<i>laú- -(r)e</i>
INF	<i>dε- -è</i>		INF	<i>haú-</i>	
PTCP	<i>-(r)ý</i>		PTCP	<i>á- -(r)ý</i>	

Table 12: 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 *jaúvvaúrízé* 'I shall remember'. Note also that these forms already include the active/passive affixes,

<sup>10</sup>This is not a problem in the Future I, since the prefix is never adjacent to the stem.

which is why it's *jaúvvaúrízé* and not *\*jaújvvaúrízé* or *\*jjaúvvaúrízé*. 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'.<sup>11</sup>

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

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

### 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 -(e) 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 *ɤ*-coloured consonant such as *z*, e.g. *laúvvaúríze* 'they will be remembered', not *\*laúvvaúrízre*. 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'haý'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'aúrvvaúríze* 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. *aúlaúvvaúrízey'ó* 'we shall remember them', which contains *laúvvaúríze* '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. *haúlyvvaúríze* roughly 'to be about to remember them' but, as with passive affixes, variations are possible for emphasis or contrastive power, e.g. *deḷaúvvaúríze*, which puts more emphasis on 'them'.

### Examples

Table 13 below shows the complete (vocalic) Future II paradigm of the verb *ad'hór* 'to love', and Table 14 the complete (consonantal) Future II paradigm of *vvaúríthe* 'to remember'; recall that the future stems of these verbs are *ad'hóréré* and *vvaúríze*.

<sup>11</sup> As noted before, infinitive and gerund forms of future tenses are difficult to translate into English.

Active	Sg	Pl	Passive	Sg	Pl
1ST	<i>b'had'hóréřé</i>	<i>náy'ad'hóréraû</i>	1ST	<i>vad'hóréřé</i>	<i>náy'ad'hóréřé</i>
2ND	<i>đírad'hóréřé</i>	<i>b'hay'ad'hórérré</i>	2ND	<i>đírad'hóréřé</i>	<i>b'hay'ad'hóréřé</i>
3M	<i>lad'hóréřé</i>	<i>lb'had'hóréraû</i>	3M	<i>lad'hóréřé</i>	<i>lb'had'hórérré</i>
3F	<i>èlad'hóréřé</i>	<i>lb'had'hóréraû</i>	3F	<i>lad'hóréřé</i>	<i>lb'had'hórérré</i>
3N	<i>aúlad'hóréřé</i>	<i>lb'had'hóréraû</i>	3N	<i>sad'hóréřé</i>	<i>lb'had'hórérré</i>
INF	<i>dad'hóréřé</i>		INF	<i>had'hóréřé</i>	
PTCP	<i>ad'hóréřýr</i>		PTCP	<i>ád'hóréřýr</i>	

Table 13: Vocalic Future II Paradigm of *ad'hór*.

Active	Sg	Pl	Passive	Sg	Pl
1ST	<i>jaúvvaúrířé</i>	<i>aúnraûvvaúrířaú</i>	1ST	<i>vaúvvaúrířé</i>	<i>naúvvaúrířé</i>
2ND	<i>b'hávvaúrířé</i>	<i>vaúvvaúrířé</i>	2ND	<i>đávvaúrířé</i>	<i>b'haúvvaúrířé</i>
3M	<i>aúrvvaúrířé</i>	<i>laúvvaúrířaú</i>	3M	<i>y'aúrvvaúrířé</i>	<i>laúvvaúrířé</i>
3F	<i>aúrvvaúrířé</i>	<i>laúvvaúrířaú</i>	3F	<i>y'aúrvvaúrířé</i>	<i>laúvvaúrířé</i>
3N	<i>aúrvvaúrířé</i>	<i>laúvvaúrířaú</i>	3N	<i>saúrvvaúrířé</i>	<i>laúvvaúrířé</i>
INF	<i>đevvaúrířé</i>		INF	<i>haúvvaúrířé</i>	
PTCP	<i>vvaúrířý</i>		PTCP	<i>ávvaúrířý</i>	

Table 14: Consonantal Future II Paradigm of *vvaúríře*.

#### 2.4.4 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 15 and 16.

Active	Sg	Pl	Passive	Sg	Pl
1ST	<i>b'h-<sup>L</sup>é</i>	<i>náy'-<sup>L</sup>aúrá</i>	1ST	<i>v-<sup>L</sup>ê</i>	<i>náy'-<sup>L</sup>â</i>
2ND	<i>đír-<sup>L</sup>á</i>	<i>b'hay'-<sup>L</sup>(r)êđ</i>	2ND	<i>đír-<sup>L</sup>á</i>	<i>b'hay'-<sup>L</sup>áđ</i>
3M	<i>ł-<sup>L</sup>á</i>	<i>lb'h-<sup>L</sup>aûr</i>	3M	<i>ł-<sup>L</sup>á</i>	<i>lb'h-<sup>L</sup>(r)ér</i>
3F	<i>èł-<sup>L</sup>á</i>	<i>lb'h-<sup>L</sup>aûr</i>	3F	<i>ł-<sup>L</sup>á</i>	<i>lb'h-<sup>L</sup>(r)ér</i>
3N	<i>aúł-<sup>L</sup>á</i>	<i>lb'h-<sup>L</sup>aûr</i>	3N	<i>s-<sup>L</sup>á</i>	<i>lb'h-<sup>L</sup>(r)ér</i>
INF	<i>d-<sup>L</sup>á</i>		INF	<i>h-<sup>L</sup>á</i>	
PTCP	<i>-ýrér</i>		PTCP	<i>á-<sup>L</sup>ýrér</i>	

Table 15: Vocalic Future Anterior Affixes.

Active	Sg	Pl	Passive	Sg	Pl
1ST	<i>jaú-<sup>L</sup>ê</i>	<i>aúnraû-<sup>L</sup>aúrá</i>	1ST	<i>vaú-<sup>L</sup>ê</i>	<i>naú-<sup>L</sup>â</i>
2ND	<i>b'há-<sup>L</sup>á</i>	<i>vaú-<sup>L</sup>éđ</i>	2ND	<i>đá-<sup>L</sup>á</i>	<i>b'haú-<sup>L</sup>áđ</i>
3M	<i>aúr-<sup>L</sup>á</i>	<i>laú-<sup>L</sup>aûr</i>	3M	<i>y'aúr-<sup>L</sup>á</i>	<i>laú-<sup>L</sup>(r)ér</i>
3F	<i>aúr-<sup>L</sup>á</i>	<i>laú-<sup>L</sup>aûr</i>	3F	<i>y'aúr-<sup>L</sup>á</i>	<i>laú-<sup>L</sup>(r)ér</i>
3N	<i>aúr-<sup>L</sup>á</i>	<i>laú-<sup>L</sup>aûr</i>	3N	<i>saúr-<sup>L</sup>á</i>	<i>laú-<sup>L</sup>(r)ér</i>
INF	<i>đe-<sup>L</sup>á</i>		INF	<i>haú-<sup>L</sup>á</i>	
PTCP	<i>-(r)ýr</i>		PTCP	<i>á-<sup>L</sup>(r)ýr</i>	

Table 16: 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 -*ɛ* dropping, since none of the affixes end with *ɛ* 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 *vvaúríže*. Note also that the *ž* 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 17 and 18 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’hórérâ</i>
2ND	<i>đírad’hórérâ</i>	<i>b’hay’ad’hórrérêđ</i>	2ND	<i>đírad’hórérâ</i>	<i>b’hay’ad’hórérâđ</i>
3M	<i>lad’hórérâ</i>	<i>lb’had’hóréraûr</i>	3M	<i>lad’hórérâ</i>	<i>lb’had’hórrérér</i>
3F	<i>èlad’hórérâ</i>	<i>lb’had’hóréraûr</i>	3F	<i>lad’hórérâ</i>	<i>lb’had’hórrérér</i>
3N	<i>aúlad’hórérâ</i>	<i>lb’had’hóréraûr</i>	3N	<i>sad’hórérâ</i>	<i>lb’had’hórrérér</i>
INF	<i>dad’hórerâ</i>		INF	<i>had’hórerâ</i>	
PTCP	<i>ad’hórerýrér</i>		PTCP	<i>ád’hórerýrér</i>	

Table 17: Vocalic Future Anterior Paradigm of *ad’hór*.

Active	Sg	Pl	Passive	Sg	Pl
1ST	<i>jaúvvvaúrížê</i>	<i>aúnraûvvvaúrížaurâ</i>	1ST	<i>vaúvvvaúrížê</i>	<i>naúvvvaúrížâ</i>
2ND	<i>b’hávvaúrížá</i>	<i>vaúvvvaúrížéđ</i>	2ND	<i>đávvaúrížá</i>	<i>b’haúvvvaúrížáđ</i>
3M	<i>aúrvvaúrížá</i>	<i>laúvvvaúrížaur</i>	3M	<i>y’aúrvvaúrížá</i>	<i>laúvvvaúrížér</i>
3F	<i>aúrvvaúrížá</i>	<i>laúvvvaúrížaur</i>	3F	<i>y’aúrvvaúrížá</i>	<i>laúvvvaúrížér</i>
3N	<i>aúrvvaúrížá</i>	<i>laúvvvaúrížaur</i>	3N	<i>saúrvvaúrížá</i>	<i>laúvvvaúrížér</i>
INF	<i>đevvaúrížá</i>		INF	<i>haúvvvaúrížá</i>	
PTCP	<i>vvaúrížýr</i>		PTCP	<i>ávvaúrížýr</i>	

Table 18: Consonantal Future Anterior Paradigm of *vvaúríhe*.

### 2.4.5 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.

Active	Sg	Pl	Passive	Sg	Pl
1ST	<i>jaúvvvaúrížessê</i>	<i>aúnraûvvvaúrížessaurâ</i>	1ST	<i>vaúvvvaúrížessê</i>	<i>naúvvvaúrížessâ</i>
2ND	<i>b’hávvaúrížessá</i>	<i>vaúvvvaúrížesséđ</i>	2ND	<i>đávvaúrížessá</i>	<i>b’haúvvvaúrížessáđ</i>
3M	<i>aúrvvaúrížessá</i>	<i>laúvvvaúrížessaur</i>	3M	<i>y’aúrvvaúrížessá</i>	<i>laúvvvaúrížessrér</i>
3F	<i>aúrvvaúrížessá</i>	<i>laúvvvaúrížessaur</i>	3F	<i>y’aúrvvaúrížessá</i>	<i>laúvvvaúrížessrér</i>
3N	<i>aúrvvaúrížessá</i>	<i>laúvvvaúrížessaur</i>	3N	<i>saúrvvaúrížessá</i>	<i>laúvvvaúrížessrér</i>
INF	<i>đevvaúrížessá</i>		INF	<i>haúvvvaúrížesse</i>	
PTCP	<i>vvaúrížessýr</i>		PTCP	<i>ávvaúrížessý</i>	

Table 19: Consonantal Conditional II Paradigm of *vvaúríhe*.

The Conditional I is formed from the Future II, and the Conditional II from the Future Anterior. As always, the vowel is omitted if the suffix after the infix starts with a vowel, except for *ɛ*, which it replaces.

For instance, Table 19 shows the consonantal Conditional II paradigm of *vvaúríhe* ‘to remember’. Note that the *ss* in this form is *never* lenited.

The conditional tenses are mainly used in the apodoses of conditional clauses. On its own, their meaning is similar to that of the English ‘would’ or ‘could’, e.g. *jaúvvvaúrízessê* ‘I would love’; the Conditional II, even though it is morphologically a future tense, is used to express a hypothetical past, e.g. *jaúvvvaúrízessê* ‘I would have loved’.

## 2.5 Miscellaneous Forms

### 2.5.1 The Gnostic

The gnostic 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.

### 2.5.2 Dative Affixes

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

### 2.5.3 Imperative

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

Active	Sg	Pl	Passive	Sg	Pl
2nd	<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>-lê</i>	<i>-b’hê</i>

Table 20: Imperative Affixes.

The diachrony of these forms is likely from subjunctive constructions with PF *\*que* in the active and from suffixed pronouns in the passive. Note that imperative affixes are added *in place* of present active/passive affixes, e.g. *c’hedír!* ‘speak!’, not *\*c’heđedír*. 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 § 2.6.4.

## 2.6 Subjunctive

The UF subjunctive forms are fortunately fairly simple: they use the same affixes as the present, past, and future forms, except that each verb has a different 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 may love’, and *rad’hórsó* ‘We may 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’hórérê*, so the future subjunctive stem is *ad’hórérêsé*; 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’hórhê* ‘she said she loved me’;

2. with certain subordinating conjunctions, such as *b'he* 'so that';
3. to express deontic modality, e.g. *ḏeḃars* 'you may leave';
4. as a jussive, e.g. *rad'hesó* 'let's go';
5. as a negative imperative, e.g. *sá ḏeḃars* 'don't leave';
6. irrealis conditionals (see § 3.6).
7. in ACIS and PCIS.

### 2.6.1 Reported Speech

UF does not use backshifting in reported speech, but rather, the corresponding subjunctive form is used. For instance, *jḏad'hór* 'I love you' becomes *jḏíré jḏad'hórs* 'I said I love you'. Note that the tense stays the same in this example: present indicative becomes present subjunctive. Accordingly, *jḏad'hóré* 'I loved you' becomes *jḏíré jḏad'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 *jḏíré b'had'hrésé* 'I said I would go',<sup>12</sup> with *b'had'hrésé* being the Future II subjunctive form of *b'had'hré*.

### 2.6.2 Dependent Clauses

The following subordinating conjunctions take the subjunctive:

<i>áhaúr</i> 'even though'	<i>ráhe</i> 'though'
<i>ḃas</i> 'because'	<i>rê</i> 'although'
<i>b'he</i> 'so that'	<i>s</i> 'if' (see § 3.6)
<i>c'haúr</i> 'as' (viz. 'because')	<i>sá</i> 'without'
<i>daúc'h</i> 'therefore'	<i>sauc'h</i> 'except that'
<i>de</i> 'once'	<i>válé</i> 'despite that'

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

### 2.6.3 Deontic Modality

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

### 2.6.4 Negation

The subjunctive is negated with the particle *sá*, rather than with *asy'yâ*. The particle *sá* is placed immediately before the verb form it negates, e.g. *sá jḏad'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 ḏeḃars* 'don't leave', and a negative jussive in the first person e.g. *sá rad'hesó*, 'let's not go'.

<sup>12</sup>Note the lenition here because of the present anterior suffix: *b'had'hrésé*, not *\*b'had'hrésé*.

### 2.6.5 Infinitive

Most curiously, UF has a *subjunctive infinitive*. This form is almost exclusively used to express deontic modality in ACIS and PCIS. For example, the form *dad'hórs*, the subjunctive infinitive of *ad'hór*, while defying any attempt at translation on its own,<sup>13</sup> 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.

## 2.7 Optative

The UF optative is used to express wishes, hopes, as well as in certain conditional constructions. It is formed by affixing *y'(e)<sup>L</sup>* to the verb stem, e.g. *děvy'ěvvaúríhe* '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 § 3.6).

### 2.7.1 Wishes and Hopes

The most traditional use of the optative is to express wishes and hopes, e.g. *děvy'ěvvaúríhe* '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 *děvy'ěvvaúríhe* is roughly 'I hope that you remember me'.<sup>14</sup> In the future tense, it indicates a wish that a situation will be true in the future, e.g. *b'hávy'ěvvaúríže* 'may you remember me'.

In the past tenses, the optative indicates dismay, regret, or disappointment that something did not happen, e.g. PRES ANT *děvy'ěvvaúríhá* 'if only you had remembered me'. The optative can also be combined with the Conditional I to convey uncertainty about a future wish, as well as with the Conditional II to express extreme regret over a past event.

### 2.7.2 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'

<sup>13</sup>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.

<sup>14</sup>The context of this utterance could be meeting someone again after a long time apart and hoping that they still remember you.

### 2.7.3 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<sup>N</sup>* before vowels). Note that a negated optative indicates that the speaker wishes that something does or had not happened, e.g. *t'hé dɛvy'ɛvvaúríhá* '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'háyɛbharé* 'I was afraid lest you might leave'.

## 2.8 The Conjugation of the Copula *eɖ*

There is only one irregular verb in UF, namely the copula *eɖ*. All of its forms are highly irregular. The copula lacks passive forms, as well as the Future I.

IND	Present		Pres. Ant.		Preterite		Future II		Fut. Ant.	
	Sg	Pl	Sg	Pl	Sg	Pl	Sg	Pl	Sg	Pl
1ST	<i>vy'í</i>	<i>aúsó</i>	<i>vɛ</i>	<i>aúfý</i>	<i>vet'h</i>	<i>wedy'ó</i>	<i>vêhér</i>	<i>aúhér</i>	<i>vêhér</i>	<i>aúfêr</i>
2ND	<i>ɖe</i>	<i>b'hed</i>	<i>ɖyf</i>	<i>b'hu</i>	<i>ɖet'h</i>	<i>b'hedy'é</i>	<i>dyhér</i>	<i>b'hehér</i>	<i>ɖyfér</i>	<i>b'huhér</i>
3M	<i>le</i>	<i>lɛsó</i>	<i>leb'h</i>	<i>lɛfýr</i>	<i>let'h</i>	<i>let'he</i>	<i>lehér</i>	<i>lɛhér</i>	<i>leb'hér</i>	<i>lɛfêr</i>
3F	<i>lle</i>	<i>lɛsó</i>	<i>leb'h</i>	<i>lɛfýr</i>	<i>llet'h</i>	<i>llet'he</i>	<i>llehér</i>	<i>lɛhér</i>	<i>lleb'hér</i>	<i>lɛfêr</i>
3N	<i>se</i>	<i>lasó</i>	<i>seb'h</i>	<i>lafýr</i>	<i>set'h</i>	<i>laet'h</i>	<i>sehér</i>	<i>lahér</i>	<i>seb'hér</i>	<i>lafêr</i>
INF	<i>éɖ</i>		<i>éfyɖ</i>		<i>ét'hed</i>		<i>éhér</i>		<i>éfér</i>	
PTCP	<i>ɖâ</i>		<i>fyɖâ</i>		<i>t'hedâ</i>		<i>hérâ</i>		<i>férâ</i>	

Table 21: Indicative Paradigm of *eɖ*.

SUBJ	Present		Pres. Ant.		Preterite		Future II		Fut. Ant.	
	Sg	Pl	Sg	Pl	Sg	Pl	Sg	Pl	Sg	Pl
1ST	<i>vy'íra</i>	<i>aúra</i>	<i>vɛsa</i>	<i>aúfýs</i>	<i>vedra</i>	<i>wedra</i>	<i>vêhéra</i>	<i>aúhéra</i>	<i>vêhéra</i>	<i>aúfêra</i>
2ND	<i>ɖera</i>	<i>b'hera</i>	<i>ɖys</i>	<i>b'hus</i>	<i>ɖedra</i>	<i>b'hedra</i>	<i>dyhéra</i>	<i>b'hehéra</i>	<i>ɖyféra</i>	<i>b'huhéra</i>
3M	<i>lera</i>	<i>lera</i>	<i>les</i>	<i>lɛfýs</i>	<i>ledra</i>	<i>le'thra</i>	<i>lehéra</i>	<i>lɛhéra</i>	<i>leb'héra</i>	<i>lɛfêra</i>
3F	<i>llera</i>	<i>lɛra</i>	<i>lles</i>	<i>lɛfýs</i>	<i>lledra</i>	<i>llet'hra</i>	<i>llehéra</i>	<i>lɛhéra</i>	<i>lleb'héra</i>	<i>lɛfêra</i>
3N	<i>sera</i>	<i>lara</i>	<i>ses</i>	<i>lafýs</i>	<i>sedra</i>	<i>laet'hra</i>	<i>sehéra</i>	<i>lahéra</i>	<i>seb'héra</i>	<i>lafêra</i>
INF	<i>éɖra</i>		<i>éfyra</i>		<i>ét'héra</i>		<i>éhéra</i>		<i>éféra</i>	
PTCP	<i>ɖerâ</i>		<i>fysâ</i>		<i>t'hérâ</i>		<i>hérarâ</i>		<i>férarâ</i>	

Table 22: Subjunctive Paradigm of *eɖ*.

OPT	Present		Pres. Ant.		Preterite		Future II		Fut. Ant.	
	Sg	Pl	Sg	Pl	Sg	Pl	Sg	Pl	Sg	Pl
1ST	<i>víra</i>	<i>aúryà</i>	<i>vɛsyà</i>	<i>aúfýyà</i>	<i>vedraä</i>	<i>wedraä</i>	<i>véra</i>	<i>aúra</i>	<i>vera</i>	<i>aúfrá</i>
2ND	<i>ɖy'era</i>	<i>b'heryà</i>	<i>ɖysyà</i>	<i>b'huyà</i>	<i>ɖedraä</i>	<i>b'hedraä</i>	<i>dyra</i>	<i>b'hera</i>	<i>ɖyra</i>	<i>b'hura</i>
3M	<i>ly'era</i>	<i>leryà</i>	<i>lesyà</i>	<i>lɛfýyà</i>	<i>ledraä</i>	<i>le'thraä</i>	<i>lera</i>	<i>lera</i>	<i>leb'hra</i>	<i>lɛfrá</i>
3F	<i>lly'era</i>	<i>lleryà</i>	<i>llesyà</i>	<i>lɛfýyà</i>	<i>lledraä</i>	<i>llet'hraä</i>	<i>lléra</i>	<i>lɛra</i>	<i>lleb'hra</i>	<i>lɛfrá</i>
3N	<i>sy'era</i>	<i>laryà</i>	<i>sesyà</i>	<i>lafýyà</i>	<i>sedraä</i>	<i>laet'hraä</i>	<i>sera</i>	<i>lara</i>	<i>seb'hra</i>	<i>lafrá</i>
INF	<i>éɖyà</i>		<i>éfyýà</i>		<i>ét'hëä</i>		<i>éhérá</i>		<i>éférá</i>	
PTCP	<i>ɖy'à</i>		<i>fyy'à</i>		<i>t'hëää</i>		<i>héráâ</i>		<i>féráâ</i>	

Table 23: Optative Paradigm of *eɖ*.

All forms of the copula are shown in Tables 21–23, except for the Conditional I and II, which are formed by infixing *-ss-* before the *-ér*, *-êr* desinences and *-ssa-* before the *-ra* and *-rá* desinences of the Future II and Future Anterior forms, respectively.

Unlike nearly every other word in the language, disyllabic forms of the copula are stressed on the first syllable, and trisyllabic forms are stressed on the second syllable—except for *hérarâ*, *férarâ*, *hérââ*, and *férââ*, which are stressed on the first syllable. All other participle forms are stressed on the last syllable. In forms of the copula, *ae* is pronounced /aj/.

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 *éfyð* is derived from the PRES ANT stem *\*fy* and the PRES INF *éd*, and the same is true for the PRET INF *ét'hed*.

## 2.9 Numerals

UF has four sets of numerals: cardinals, e.g. *dý* ‘two’; ordinals, e.g. *dýzyê* ‘second’; multipliers, e.g. *dub* ‘twice’; and fractions, e.g. *déví* ‘half’. The numerals are shown in the table below.

Nº	Cardinal	Ordinal	Multiplier	Fractional
1	<i>y</i>	<i>révyê</i>	<i>sêb</i>	<i>ádyê</i>
2	<i>dý</i>	<i>dýzyê</i>	<i>dub</i>	<i>déví</i>
3	<i>rrá</i>	<i>rrázyê</i>	<i>rîb</i>	<i>yér</i>
4	<i>c'hað</i>	<i>c'haðríyê</i>	<i>c'hadryb</i>	<i>c'hár</i>
5	<i>séc'h</i>	<i>sécé</i>	<i>c'hét'hyb</i>	<i>c'hé</i>
6	<i>sis</i>	<i>sizyê</i>	<i>sec'hsdyb</i>	<i>sic'hs</i>
7	<i>sèð</i>	<i>sèdyê</i>	<i>sèdyb</i>	<i>sè</i>
8	<i>y'íd</i>	<i>y'ídyê</i>	<i>auc'hdyb</i>	<i>auc'h</i>
9	<i>nýt'h</i>	<i>nýb'hyê</i>	<i>nýb</i>	<i>ny</i>
10	<i>dis</i>	<i>dizyê</i>	<i>dehyb</i>	<i>deh</i>
11	<i>aúz</i>	<i>aúzyê</i>	<i>aúzyb</i>	<i>auz</i>
12	<i>duz</i>	<i>duzyê</i>	<i>duzyb</i>	<i>duz</i>
13	<i>réz</i>	<i>rézyê</i>	<i>rézyb</i>	<i>rez</i>
14	<i>c'hat'haúr</i>	<i>c'hat'haúrzyê</i>	<i>c'hat'haúrzyb</i>	<i>c'hat'haurz</i>
15	<i>c'héz</i>	<i>c'hézyê</i>	<i>c'hézyb</i>	<i>c'hez</i>
16	<i>sez</i>	<i>sezyê</i>	<i>sezyb</i>	<i>sez</i>
17	<i>dihèð</i>	<i>dihèdyê</i>	<i>dihèdyb</i>	<i>dihè</i>
18	<i>dizy'íd</i>	<i>dizy'ídyê</i>	<i>dizy'ídyb</i>	<i>dizy'i</i>
19	<i>diznýt'h</i>	<i>diznýb'hyê</i>	<i>diznýt'hyb</i>	<i>diznyb'h</i>
20	<i>b'hé</i>	<i>b'héyê</i>	<i>b'hédyb</i>	<i>b'he</i>
21	<i>b'héd ý</i>	<i>b'héd rév'yé</i>	<i>b'héd sêb</i>	<i>b'héd ádyê</i>
30	<i>b'héd dis</i>	<i>b'héd dizyê</i>	<i>b'héd dehyb</i>	<i>b'héd deh</i>
31	<i>b'héd aúz</i>	<i>b'héd aúzyê</i>	<i>b'héd aúzyb</i>	<i>b'héd auz</i>
40	<i>dýb'hé</i>	<i>dýb'héyê</i>	<i>dýb'hédyb</i>	<i>dýb'he</i>
50	<i>dýb'héd dis</i>	<i>dýb'héd dizyê</i>	<i>dýb'héd dehyb</i>	<i>dýb'héd deh</i>
60	<i>rráb'hé</i>	<i>rráb'héyê</i>	<i>rráb'hédyb</i>	<i>rráb'he</i>
70	<i>rráb'héd dis</i>	<i>rráb'héd dizyê</i>	<i>rráb'héd dehyb</i>	<i>rráb'héd deh</i>
80	<i>c'haðb'hé</i>	<i>c'haðb'héyê</i>	<i>c'haðb'hédyb</i>	<i>c'haðb'he</i>
90	<i>c'haðb'héd dis</i>	<i>c'haðb'héd dizyê</i>	<i>c'haðb'héd dehyb</i>	<i>c'haðb'héd deh</i>
100	<i>sá</i>	<i>sádyê</i>	<i>sádyb</i>	<i>sáð</i>
101	<i>sá'd ý</i>	<i>sá'd rév'yé</i>	<i>sá'd sêb</i>	<i>sá'd ádyê</i>
200	<i>dýsá</i>	<i>dýsádyê</i>	<i>dýsádyb</i>	<i>dýsáð</i>

300	<i>rásá</i>	<i>rásády'è</i>	<i>rásádyb</i>	<i>rásáḍ</i>
400	<i>c'hasá</i>	<i>c'hasády'è</i>	<i>c'hasádyb</i>	<i>c'hasáḍ</i>
500	<i>sésá</i>	<i>sésády'è</i>	<i>sésádyb</i>	<i>sésáḍ</i>
600	<i>sisá</i>	<i>sisády'è</i>	<i>sisádyb</i>	<i>sisáḍ</i>
700	<i>sèsá</i>	<i>sèsády'è</i>	<i>sèsádyb</i>	<i>sèsáḍ</i>
800	<i>y'ísá</i>	<i>y'ísády'è</i>	<i>y'ísádyb</i>	<i>y'ísáḍ</i>
900	<i>nýsá</i>	<i>nýsády'è</i>	<i>nýsádyb</i>	<i>nýsáḍ</i>
1 000	<i>víl</i>	<i>víly'è</i>	<i>víldyb</i>	<i>víláḍ</i>
1 001	<i>víl ed ý</i>	<i>víl ed révy'è</i>	<i>víl ed séb</i>	<i>vil ed ády'è</i>
2 000	<i>dý víl</i>	<i>dý víly'è</i>	<i>dý víldyb</i>	<i>dý víláḍ</i>
10 000	<i>dis víl</i>	<i>dis víly'è</i>	<i>dis víldyb</i>	<i>dis víláḍ</i>
10 <sup>6</sup>	<i>víwaú</i>	<i>víwaúy'è</i>	<i>víwaúdyb</i>	<i>víwaúḍ</i>
10 <sup>9</sup>	<i>dýwaú</i>	<i>dýwaúy'è</i>	<i>dýwaúdyb</i>	<i>dýwaúḍ</i>
10 <sup>12</sup>	<i>ráwaú</i>	<i>ráwaúy'è</i>	<i>ráwaúdyb</i>	<i>ráwaúḍ</i>

The numbers 1–20 are irregular; after that, ordinals are formed by adding *-y'è* to the cardinal and multipliers by adding *-dyb* to the cardinal; fractionals are more irregular: the tens lose nasalisation of the final vowel, e.g. *dýb'hé* ‘forty’ vs *dýb'he* ‘(a) fortieth’; in the hundreds and after, a final *-(á)ḍ* is added instead. Extra syllables added by non-cardinal forms do not count as part of the stem for the purpose of stress.

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

In writing, non-cardinals are frequently abbreviated, preferably with superscripts if possible. Ordinals are abbreviated with *y'è*, e.g. *27<sup>y'è</sup>* ‘27th’, except for numbers ending with *révy'è* ‘first’, which are abbreviated with *y'è* instead, e.g. *21<sup>y'è</sup>* ‘21st’, as well as numbers ending with *séçé* ‘fifth’, which are abbreviated with *çé* instead, e.g. *25<sup>çé</sup>* ‘25th’.

Multipliers are abbreviated with subscripts if possible; those ending with *séb* ‘once’ to *nyb* ‘nine times’ are abbreviated with the last two letters of that word, e.g. *23<sub>nb</sub>* ‘23 times’. All other multipliers are abbreviated with *y<sub>b</sub>*, e.g. *31<sub>y<sub>b</sub></sub>* ‘31 times’.<sup>15</sup>

Fractions are typically abbreviated with the usual notation, e.g.  $\frac{1}{2}$ ,  $\frac{1}{4}$ , etc.

## 2.10 Pronouns

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

### 2.10.1 Personal pronouns

Table 25 below lists all forms of the UF personal pronouns.

	Sg				Pl		
	1ST	2ND	3C	3N	1ST	2ND	3RD
Absolutive	<i>vè</i>	<i>t'hè</i>	<i>lè</i>	<i>sè</i>	<i>aú</i>	<i>vaú</i>	<i>y</i>
Vocative	/	<i>et'hè</i>	/	/	/	<i>evaú</i>	/
Genitive	<i>vaú</i>	<i>daú</i>	<i>ez/z'z</i>		<i>naúḍ</i>	<i>vaúḍ</i>	<i>lýr</i>
Prepositional	<i>vẹ</i>	<i>t'hẹ</i>	<i>lẹ</i>	<i>sẹ</i>	<i>aun</i>	<i>vau</i>	<i>ly</i>

Table 25: UF Personal Pronouns

<sup>15</sup>Note that ‘31’ in UF is not really ‘thirty-one’, but rather ‘twenty-eleven’ and thus doesn’t end with ‘one’.

## Nominative and Accusative

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

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

## Partitive

The PART forms of the personal pronoun are rather strange; generally, verbs that govern the PART simply take regular passive affixes instead. However, verbs that can be formed with both the ACC and PART as well as PCIS employ special partitive forms of the passive affixes that are constructed by infixing *-dy-* after the prefix part of the corresponding passive affix—or before the suffix part if there is no prefix part—e.g. *jslí* ‘I peruse it’ vs *jsdylí* ‘I read from it’ or *lírá* ‘be perused!’ vs *lídyrá* ‘be read from!’.<sup>16</sup>

## Genitive

The possessors of GEN pronouns can be definite or indefinite, e.g. *vaú lát’halẹ* ‘my table’ vs *vaú ýnalẹ* ‘a table of mine’. Most GEN pronouns are not particularly special and behave just like regular genitives; the exception is the 3SG pronoun that is used for all three genders: its base form is *ez*, e.g. *ez lát’halẹ* ‘his/her/its table’, but after a word that ends with a vowel, the *e* is dropped, and it is instead written *’z*, e.g. *devvaúríhe’z st’halẹ* ‘to remember a table of his/hers/its’. If the following word starts with a vowel, it is instead written *z’*,<sup>17</sup> e.g. *devvaúríhe z’it’halẹ* ‘to remember his/her/its table’.

## Prepositional

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

### 2.10.2 Possessive Pronouns

UF does not really have possessive pronouns; instead, it has a series of possessive adjectives, which—just like most other ‘adjectives’—are really just a series of adjective verbs: *yě* ‘to be mine’, *dyě* ‘to be yours (SG)’, *syě* ‘to be his/hers/its’, *naúd* ‘to be ours’, *vaud* ‘to be yours (PL)’, and *lýrd* ‘to be theirs’. These verbs are chiefly used as verbs, e.g. *ýnalẹ syě* ‘it is a table of mine’; for just expressing ‘my’ etc., the GEN of the corresponding possessive pronoun is used instead, as indicated above.

### 2.10.3 Demonstrative Pronouns

UF has three main demonstrative pronouns: *swi* ‘the one, that one, this one’, *seh* ‘this’, and *syě* ‘that’. All three are normally indeclinable and precede whatever they qualify: the first generally occurs in isolation, in which case it is declined as a definite noun, or indeclinably with an adjective, e.g. *swi*

<sup>16</sup> The only passive forms that do not have prefix parts are imperatives.

<sup>17</sup> The apostrophe in *z’* makes no sense in that position, but it probably came about in imitation of similar forms that affix to the following word, e.g. the OPT negation particle *t’hé*, which becomes *t’h* before vowels.



*bət'hâ* ‘the small one’, the latter two always precede a definite noun, e.g. *səh lát'halə* ‘this table’, and are themselves never declined. It is not possible to combine demonstratives with one another.

#### 2.10.4 Relative Pronoun

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

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

#### 2.10.5 Interrogative Pronoun

The interrogative pronoun is the same as the relative pronoun, except that it is also followed by the question particle *c'hes*. Unlike the relative pronoun, it is always declined. On its own, it takes indefinite case, e.g. *Sa c'hes đad'hór?* ‘Whom/what do you love?’.

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

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

### 2.11 Summary of Coalescence Rules

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

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

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

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

Rules are matched top-down: the first matching rule is applied, all others are ignored. The affix in the 2nd column next to the vowel(s) in the 3rd column in the same row are replaced with the letters

of the 4th column in the indicated forms at the indicated morpheme boundary in the 1st column. The position in the hyphen in the 2nd column indicates whether it coalesces with vowels before or after it. The letters V (as well as V') stands for 'any vowel'. The letter G stands for 'any glide'. Abbreviations may be used where applicable (e.g.  $-e(r)$  for  $-e$  and  $-er$  if there is no single  $-e(r)$  suffix in the paradigm in question). The abbreviation  $-?$  means 'any other suffix in this paradigm, even if they start with a consonant'.

Form	Affix	Phonemes	Result	Reference
PRES 1PL	$aú-$	$o_\alpha$ V	$wo_\alpha$ $rV$	§ 2.3.1
PRES 1PL ACT	$-y'ó$	$o_\alpha$	$o_{\alpha+}$	ibid.
PRES 2PL	$b'h(y)-$	V G	$b'hV$ $b'hG$	ibid.
PRES 2PL ACT	$-y'é$	$e_\alpha$	$e_{\alpha+}$	ibid.
PRES INF PASS	$\grave{a}-$	$a_\alpha$ V	$a_{\alpha+}$ $hV$	ibid.
PRES PART	$-\hat{a}, \hat{a}-$	$\epsilon$ $\hat{V}$ V	$\hat{a}$ $\hat{V}\hat{a}, \hat{a}\hat{V}$ $\hat{V}$	ibid.
PRES ANT, PRET	$-\acute{e}(r)$ $-\acute{a}(r), -\acute{a}\grave{d}$	$\epsilon$ $e_\alpha$ $\epsilon$ $a_\alpha$	$\acute{e}(r)$ $e_{\alpha+}(r)$ $\acute{a}(r), \acute{a}\grave{d}$ $a_{\alpha+}(r), a_{\alpha+}\grave{d}$	§ 2.4.1 ibid.
PRES ANT 1PL ACT	$-\hat{a}$	$\grave{a}, a, \acute{a}$	$\hat{a}$	ibid.
FUT I INF PASS	$aú(r)-$	$\hat{a}$ G $\grave{a}$ $\acute{a}$	$aúrá$ $aúrG$ $aú$ $aú$	§ 2.4.2
FUT II, FUT ANT, COND I, COND II	$-\epsilon$ $-V_\alpha$  $-?$	V $\epsilon$ $V'_\beta$ stem $\epsilon, \acute{\epsilon}$	V $-V_\alpha$ $-V_{\alpha+\beta}$ $-?$	§§ 2.4.3–2.4.5
GNOMIC	$j(ú)-$	$V_\alpha$	$jV_{\alpha+}$	§ 2.5.1

Lastly, note that the 4 principles mentioned earlier are guidelines, not rules. There are cases of affixes that do not coalesce at all, e.g. the comparative prefix  $l\epsilon$  (see § 2.2.1). If a form is not listed in this table, then, unless explicitly stated where that form is introduced (in which case case we simply forgot to include it in the table), it does not coalesce at all. Furthermore, this table only handles coalescence rules between vowels and some vowel elision rules; other elision rules are either very regular or have nothing to do with adjacent vowels. This table exists only because coalescence rules are very similar, but sometimes subtly different.

### 3 Syntax

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

### 3.1 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'haḏ-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'haḏ-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 2.3).

**Lerab'hat'há.**

*le-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-ly-ab'ha\ť'hâ.*

INSTR.INDEF-axe 1PL-3PL.PASS-fell\1PL.PRES.ANT

‘With an axe, we have felled them.’

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

**Au lyr náý'acḏaúrâ sýeç asvaúr sýárb.**

*Au lyr náý'-acḏ-aúrâ sý-eç 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’<sup>18</sup>

### 3.2 Negated Clauses

Negation in the indicative is expressed using the particle *asý'ýâ* ‘not’, which is typically appended to verbs as *ýý'ýâ*. For a discussion of negation in the subjunctive and optative, see Sections 2.6 and 2.7. By default, the particle is placed right after the verb:

<sup>18</sup> 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.’

**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', *yě* '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'heá.**

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

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

**#Rávâ st'halẹ jact'heá.**

Rávâ                      s\t'halẹ                      j-act'he-á  
seldom    ACC.INDEF\table    1SG-buy-3SG.PRES.ANT  
Roughly: 'I rarely-bought a table.'

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

**St'halẹ'sý'yâ rávâ jact'heá.**

s\t'halẹ                      'sý'yâ    rávâ                      j-act'he-á  
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'yâ* 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'yâ st'halẹ jact'heá'sý'yâ**

Rávâ                      'sý'yâ    s\t'halẹ                      j-act'he-á                      'sý'yâ  
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 (that is, after the first *constituent*, not after the first word):

*St'halə c'hes jaçt'heá?*

*s\|t'halə*                      *c'hes*    *j-açt'he-á*  
ACC.INDEF\table    Q            1SG-buy-3SG.PRES.ANT  
'Did I buy a table?'

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

*Raúl baú c'hese?*

*raúl*                      *baú*    *c'hes*    *se*  
ABS-language    good    Q            3N.be  
'Is it a good language?'

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

*St'halə c'hes jaçt'heásý'yâ?*

*s\|t'halə*                      *c'hes*    *j-açt'he-á*                      *'sý'yâ*  
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 jaçt'heá?*

*s\|t'halə*                      *vá*    *j-açt'he-á*  
ACC.INDEF\table    Q            1SG-buy-3SG.PRES.ANT  
'I bought a table?'

Unlike *c'hes*, this particle remains there even if the verb is *eđ* 'to be':

*Raúlvá baú se?*

*raúl*                      *vá*    *baú*    *se*  
ABS-language    Q            good    3N.be  
'It is a good language?'

Of course, these questions can also be negated:

*St'haləvá jaçt'heásý'yâ?*

*s\|t'halə*                      *vá*    *j-açt'he-á*                      *'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 jaçt'heá?* ('Did I buy a table?'), the speaker is asking whether they themselves bought a table; a plausible situation would be that they simply forgot whether they did. Its negation, *St'halə c'hes jaçt'heásý'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'halevá jačt'heá?* would be an assertion of disbelief; maybe the speaker found a table in their loft, and they can't seem to remember buying it, but the price tag is still there. Finally, its negation *St'halevá jačt'heá'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'heává st'hale?*

*j-ačt'he-á*                      *vá*    *s\thale*  
1SG-buy-3SG.PRES.ANT    Q    ACC.INDEF\table  
'I bought a table?'

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

#### *Jačt'heá'sý'yâvá st'hale?*

*j-ačt'he-á*                      *'sý'yâ*    *vá*    *s\thale*  
1SG-buy-3SG.PRES.ANT    not    Q    ACC.INDEF\table  
'I didn't buy a table?'

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

### 3.4 Subordination and Coordination

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

#### *St'hale vé jad'hór.*

*s\thale*                      *vé*    *j-ad'hór*  
ACC.INDEF\table    but    1SG-love  
'But I love a table.'

Note that particles may sometimes also be placed after the first word of a clause instead if the first constituent is too long; this is particularly common with conjunctions that come in pairs such as *u ...* '... or ... (inclusive)':

#### *U vé st'hale u sárb jad'hór.*

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

### 3.5 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 ACC noun together with an infinitive; the noun is the subject or object of the clause, and the infinitive the predicate. This construction is most well-known from Classical languages such as Latin or Ancient Greek, but it is also found in various other languages, including English and, of course, UF:

*Lácár sbhaú àfér lájéd'há.*

lá\cár            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 jsává.*

i\cár            s\bhaú            à-fér            d-ájéd-á            j-sává  
 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 ACC comes first and the infinitive last or vice versa, and any nested ACIs are placed inbetween; observe that, in the sentence above, the ACI *sbhaú àfér* 'a bridge to be built' is nested inside *Icár dájédá* 'Charles to have ordered'. The literal translation of this sentence would thus be 'I know Charles to have ordered a bridge to be built'.

Furthermore, note that the finite verb of the matrix clause of an ACI receives only a subject marker if the ACI is the object and vice versa. Thus, we have *jsává* 'I know' in the example above instead of e.g. *jssává* '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 PART case instead. The PART generally indicates that an action is incomplete (see § 2.1.1), and thus PCIs can be used to express something similar; for instance:

*Lácár dýnbaú àfér lájéd'há.*

lá\cár            dýn-baú            à-fér            l-ájéd'h\á  
 NOM\Charles    PART.INDEF-bridge    INF.PASS-build    3M-order\PRES.ANT  
 'Charles ordered to start building a bridge.'

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

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

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

In speech, this problem is more readily solved via intonation by placing emphasis and separating the ‘contents’ of the ACI or PCI from the infinitive and noun with short pauses, e.g. *shátyr || sýcháy dýbháhę dylí || dub’hrá*.

Whenever a word is marked as taking an ACI in the dictionary, it may also take a PCI instead if that makes sense semantically; there are no words that syntactically may take an ACI, but not a PCI. Finally, note that ‘that’ is not always expressed with an ACI or PCI. Certain verbs, e.g. verbs of fearing, may take a dependent clause in the subjunctive or optative instead (see §§ 2.6, 2.7).

### 3.6 Conditionals

UF conditionals can broadly be divided into four categories: Simple, potential, irrealis, and counterfactual. Simple conditionals indicate basic implications and logical truths. These conditionals use the indicative in both the protasis and apodosis, in the appropriate tense. The protasis is generally introduced by the particle *s* ‘if’.

*S r sré, aû-r sfe.*

*s r s-ré aû- r s-fę*  
if *r* 3N-be.true non- *r* 3N-be.false  
‘If *r* is true, then not-*r* is false.’<sup>19</sup>

## 4 Examples

### 4.1 Simple Examples

#### 4.1.1 Simple Glossing Example

*Cárvá, sráho dwávaût’há dact’heá?*

<i>Çár</i>	<i>vá</i>	<i>s-ráho</i>	<i>dwávaût’há</i>	<i>ḍ-açt’he-á</i>
ʃã:uɥ	ũã	ˌsuɣã'hõː	duɣãũõ'θãː	daɣ'θe.ã
Charles.VOC	PARTICLE	INDEF.ACC-fish	DEF.INESS-mountain	2SG-buy-PRES.ANT.2SG

‘Charles, you bought a fish on the mountain?’

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

*Slérá de c’hóný áb’hásý’ò, ráý’ê y’aúhý díś dyb’hóý’ê sab’héý’. Ez lé-el lalebet’he z’ihór bet’hê rêsol daudé. Ýab’héý’ rêd’hes lab’hóý’êjú, dýna c’haúr debauhib sá lasusy’és ýrâhe lasyrrájú.*

<i>slé-rá</i>	<i>ḍe</i>	<i>c’hóný</i>	<i>áb’hásý’ò</i>	<i>ráý’ê</i>	<i>y’aúhý</i>	<i>ḍ-ís</i>	<i>dy-b’hóý’ê</i>
CONS.PL-law	all	well.known	GEN\aviation	way	there.is.no	INF-SUBJ\can	PART-to.fly

<i>s-ab’héý’</i>	<i>ez</i>	<i>lé-el</i>	<i>la-lę-bet’hę</i>	<i>z’</i>	<i>ihór</i>	<i>bet’hê</i>
ACC.INDEF-bee	its	NOM.PL-wing	3PL-AFF.COMP-be.small	its	ACC\body	be.small\PART

<i>rê-sol</i>	<i>ḍ-audé</i>	<i>y-ab’héý’</i>	<i>rêd’hes</i>	<i>la-b’hóý’ê-jú</i>	<i>dýn-a</i>	<i>c’haúr</i>
ABL-soil	INF-obtain	NOM.PL.INDEF-bee	of.course	3N.PL-fly-GN	PART-what	as

<i>ḍe-ḥauhib</i>	<i>sá</i>	<i>la-susy’ê\ś</i>	<i>y-râhe</i>	<i>la-sy-rrá-jú</i>
INF-be.impossible	not	3N.PL-care.about\SUBJ	NOM.PL.INDEF-human	3N.PL-3N.PASS-believe-GN

<sup>19</sup> UF does not use the letters *p* or *q*, and thus, discussions of propositional logic in UF tend to use *r* and *t* instead. *s* is not used either so as to not confuse it with *s* ‘if’.



‘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.<sup>20</sup> Its wings are too small for its little body to obtain [distance] from the ground. Of course, bees fly [anyway], as they do not care about what humans believe to be impossible.’

## 4.2 Copypasta Translation

*Rub’hráy’ó rát’he au sré au sfêhe laut’hâ adýbátýr Át’hebhaú Raúl dedesle, s aút’hiy’ey’ó sývéhýr dýhisde sérdé laúây’êr; aúc’haúbrâdy’ô’sý’yâ vé dúr dyhaúbhausy’ô sehabhvísý’ô. Sýlývy’ér saúr c’hesse? Lec’hdraúvnét’hic’hâ nérje c’hesse? Árdihyl c’hesse? Sauz-aud de c’hesse? Jávésý’yâ jrét’hádé dedónéle dýhabhahit’he deýebhat’hic’hâ Áraúl dybhát. Áúrsáheressá. Jdír jys dub’hrá au dylí sýcahy dýbháhe au dylýáváy’é b’hýcahy sbátýr Áraúl.*

*Lásasc’hríd raúl révéy’ýr c’hessejú? Léraúb’he lasydír, lavâhe vé sbháarde sásý’élâ Áraúl. Sráhis’sý’yâ id’hír deb’hýlnér u b’hesaúr rêvú aú-át’hey’ebhat’he u B’helfaúr sraúb’he. Jávár sáví lyzy’ýr ádróid. Sy’ub’hrá dahaúr isásc’hríd dwáníb’he araúl sébâ âc’hrír ‘dèc’hníc’hvâ’ Át’hebhaú Raúl ‘desybhérýr’, sjys vé delýc’hóbhár, lásasc’hríd c’haúr sýraúl âc’hrír sc’hóváhá, lévás nórâ jys ‘desybál’ dyhéy’é la-y’ehóváhé. Aúc’hóhid’héy’ó laúrvé Áraúl dynát’hýr rêâ, srâsírâ, dwác’hóvníc’h âbát dývrê b’hehbár-dihibhá aú-ádróid, It’hebhaú Raúl abhraúl dérédâ derâdvâvéy’ýr.*

### 4.2.1 Gloss

<i>r-ub’hrá-y’ó</i>	<i>rát’he</i>	<i>au</i>	<i>s-ré</i>	<i>au</i>	<i>s-fêhe</i>	<i>laut’h-â</i>
1PL-can-1PL	you.see	and	ACC.PL.INDEF-ray	AND	ACC.PL.INDEF-beam	float-PTCP
<i>adý-bátýr</i>	<i>á-t’hebhaú raúl</i>	<i>dè-desle</i>	<i>s</i>	<i>aú-t’hiy’e-y’ó</i>		
INTERESS.PL.INDEF-speaker	GEN-Ultrafrench.language	INF-detect	if	1PL-use-1PL		
<i>sý-véhýr</i>	<i>dý\hisde</i>	<i>sérdé</i>	<i>laú</i>	<i>â-y’\êr</i>		
GEN.PL.INDEF-measure	PART.PL.INDEF\system	certain	long	PTCP.PASS-forbid\PTCP.PRES.ANT		
<i>aú-c’haúbrâd-y’ó</i>	<i>’sý’yâ</i>	<i>vé</i>	<i>dúr</i>	<i>dy\haúbhausy’ô</i>	<i>seh</i>	<i>abh-vísý’ô</i>
1PL-understand-1PL	not	but	still	PART\composition	this	GEN.PL-emission
<i>saúr</i>	<i>c’hes</i>	<i>se</i>	<i>lec’hdraúvnét’hic’h-â</i>	<i>nérje</i>	<i>c’hes</i>	<i>se</i>
ABS.kind	Q	3N.be	electromagnetic-PTCP	ENERGY.ABS	Q	3N.be
<i>se</i>	<i>sauz</i>	<i>aud</i>	<i>dè</i>	<i>c’hes</i>	<i>se</i>	<i>jávè</i>
3N.be	ABS.thing	other	entire	Q	3N.be	never
<i>dè-dóné-le</i>	<i>dý\habhahit’he</i>	<i>dèyebhat’hic’h-â</i>	<i>á-raúl</i>	<i>dy\bhát</i>		
INF-endow-3.DAT	PART.PL.INDEF\ability	be.telepathic-PTCP	GEN-language	PART\speak		
<i>aúr-sáhere-ss\â</i>	<i>j-dír</i>	<i>jys</i>	<i>d-ub’hrá</i>	<i>au</i>	<i>dy-lí</i>	
3N.FUT.II-be.preposterous.FUT-COND\CIRC	1SG-say	only	INF-can	and	PART-read	
<i>sý\cahy</i>	<i>dý\bháhe</i>	<i>au</i>	<i>dy-lý-áváy’é</i>			
GEN.PL.INDEF-each.other	PART.PL.INDEF-thought	and	PART-3PL.PASS-send			
<i>b’hý\cahy</i>	<i>s-bátýr</i>	<i>á-raúl</i>	<i>lá-sásc’hríd</i>	<i>raúl</i>		
DAT.PL.INDEF-each.other	ACC.PL.INDEF-speaker	GEN-language	NOM-Sanskrit	ABS.language		

<sup>20</sup> Note that UF here uses the verbal noun *b’hóy’e* ‘to fly’ as a noun to mean ‘flight’.

*ré-véý'yr c'hes se-jú lé-raúb'hę la-sy-dír la-vâhę vé s\bhárđę*  
 SUP-better Q 3N.be-GN NOM.PL-robot 3PL-3N.PASS-say 3PL-miss.out but ACC.INDEF\PART  
*sásý'él-â á-raúl s-ráhis 'sý'ýâ i\đ'hír đę-b'hýlnęr u*  
 be.essential-PTCP GEN-language 3N-be.racist not ACC\say INF-be.unaffected or  
*b'hel-saúr rê-vú aû- á\t'heýebhat'hę u b'he-faúr s-raúb'he*  
 INSTR.PL-form SUP-many non- GEN-telepathy or INSTR-Force ACC.PL.INDEF-robot  
*j-avár s-áví lyzy'ýr ádróid s-y'-ub'hrá dahaúr i-sásc'hríd*  
 1SG-have ACC.PL.INDEF-friend several ABS.android 3N-OPT-can sure ACC-Sanskrit  
*dwá-níb'hę a-raúl séb-â â-c'hrír đęc'hnic'hvâ*  
 INESS-level GEN-language be.plain-PTCP PTCP.PASS.write technically  
*á-t'hebhaú raúl đę-sybhęýr s-jys vé đę-lý-c'hóbhár*  
 GEN-Ultrafrench.language INF-be.superior 3N-be.unfair but INF-3PL.PASS-compare  
*lá-sásc'hríd c'haúr sý-raúl â-c'hrír s-c'hóvâh\á*  
 NOM-Sanskrit as GEN.INDEF-language PTCP.PASS-write 3N-start.out.as.SUBJ\PRES.ANT  
*lé-vás nór-â jys đę-sy-bát dy\héýę*  
 NOM.PL-masses be.ignorant-PTCP until INF-3N.PASS-speak PART\attempt  
*la-y'ę\hóvâh\ér aû-c'hóhid'hę-yó laúrvé á-raúl dy-nát'hýr*  
 3PL-OPT\start\PRES.ANT 1PL-consider-1PL but.when GEN-language PART-nature  
*rê-â s-râsír-á dwá-c'hóvnic'h â-bát dývrê*  
 be.triune-PTCP 3N-transpire-PRES.ANT INESS-communication PTCP.PASS-speak at least  
*b'heh-bárdihibhá aû- ádróid i-t'hebhaú raúl abh-raúl*  
 INSTR.PL.INDEF-participant non ABS.android ACC-Ultrafrench.language GEN.PL-language  
*đerésđ-â đę-râdvâ-véý'yr*  
 be.terrestrial-PTCP INF-SUPERL-be.better

#### 4.2.2 Translation

'You see, we can detect rays and beams of energy floating between ULTRAFRENCH speakers if we use certain long-forbidden measurement systems, but we still don't understand the composition of these emissions. Are they some kind of light? Electromagnetic energy? A particle? Something else entirely?

'I've never claimed that speaking ULTRAFRENCH endows you with telepathic abilities. That would be preposterous. I'm just saying that ULTRAFRENCH speakers can read each others minds and send thoughts to each other.

'Is Sanskrit the best language? The robots tell me so. But they are missing out on an essential part of ULTRAFRENCH. It's not racist to say robots are immune to most forms of not-telepathy and the Force. I have several android friends

'Sanskrit might be "technically" "superior" to ULTRAFRENCH on the level of the plain written language. Sure, but it's unfair to compare them because Sanskrit started out as a written language until the ignorant masses started attempting to "speak" it.

'But when you consider the triune nature of ULTRAFRENCH, I think it's clear that, at least in spoken communication with non-android participants, ULTRAFRENCH is the best earth-based language.'

### 4.2.3 Literal Translation

We can, you see, detect both rays and beams of energy floating between speakers of The UF Language if we use certain systems of measurement long-forbidden; we still don't understand, however, the composition of these emissions. Is it some kind of light? Is it electromagnetic energy? Is it a particle? Is it something else entirely? I've never claimed that [the mere act of]<sup>21</sup> the speaking of The Language endows them with telepathic abilities. It would be preposterous. I'm only saying that speakers of The Language can both read each other's thoughts<sup>22</sup> and send them to each other.

Is Sanskrit the best language? The robots are saying it, but they miss out on an essential part of The Language. The act of saying that robots are incapable of being affected by most forms of non-telepathy or<sup>23</sup> by the Force is not racist. I have several android friends. Sure, Sanskrit might,<sup>24</sup> on the level of the plain written language, be 'technically' 'superior' to The UF Language, but it is unfair to compare them, as Sanskrit started out as a written language, until the ignorant masses started attempting to 'speak' it. But when we consider the triune nature of The Language, it has transpired that,<sup>25</sup> at least in spoken communication with non-android participants, UF is the best of the terrestrial languages.

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<sup>21</sup>The speaker uses a PCI (*dybhát*) instead of an ACI (*ibhát*) for 'speaking' here; had they used an ACI, the meaning would be closer to 'the act of "fully speaking" the language', as in, speaking and understanding it in its entirety. Thus, the speaker implicates that it is not the mere act of making utterances in UF (*Áraúl dybhát*), but rather speaking and comprehending it in its entirety (*Áraúl ibhát*) that gives rise to telepathic abilities.

<sup>22</sup>In UF, 'to read someone's mind' is expressed as 'to read someone's thoughts'.

<sup>23</sup>The UF text uses *u ... u ... '... or ...* (inclusive). This is for semantic reasons: the original text had a positive context ('immune to'), whereas the UF translation uses a negative context ('incapable of being affected by'); thus, by De Morgan, we have to switch from 'and' to 'or' here.

<sup>24</sup>'might be X' is generally expressed using the optative of *ub'hrá* + an ACI with 'to be X'.

<sup>25</sup>'To become clear' is expressed with the PRES ANT form of 'transpire'.

## 5 Dictionary

**a** *pron. indef.* [PF *quoi*] What, which, that (*interrogative and relative pronoun*).

**ab'há** *conj.* [PF *avant que*] +OPT Before.

**ab'haḍ** *v.* [PF *abattre*] FUT *ab'haḍré*, 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'hèc'h** *v.* [PF *affecter*] FUT *ab'hèc'hre*, SUBJ *ab'hèc'hes*. +ACC To affect, influence.

**ab'héy'** *n.* [PF *abeille*] Bee.

**ab'hínéb'heḃay'évrâ** *v.* [PF *habit ne fait pas le moine*] FUT *ab'hínéb'heḃay'évé*, SUBJ *ab'hínéb'heḃay'évâs*. To judge based on appearances.

**ac** *n.* [PF *hache*] Axe, hatchet.

**ach'es** *contraction of a (rel. pron.) + c'h'es (quest. part.)*.

**act'he** *v. tr.* [from *ac*] FUT *acḍe*, 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'*).

**aç'the** *v. tr.* [PF *acheter*] FUT *açḍré*, SUBJ *aç'thes*. To buy.

**ádrôid** *n.* [PF *androïde*] Android.

**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.

**ânb'hé** *adv.* [PF *en effet*, via metathesis from *\*ânéb'he*] Verily, indeed, in fact.

**ánvé** *v. tr.* [PF *animer*] To bring to life, animate.

**árb** *n.* [PF *arbre*] Tree.

**árdihyl** *n.* [PF *particule*] Particle.

**asý'yâ** *particle* [PF *pas absolument*] Not, no. Commonly *'sý'yâ* after vowels and verbs This particle is used only in the indicative; see also *sá*, *t'hé*.

**au** *conj.* [PF *aussi*] 1. And, also, as well, too 2. *au ... au ...* 'both ... and ...'

**aû** *particle* [PF *non*] Not- (*used to negate nouns*).

**aub'heír** *v. (in)tr.* [PF *obéir*] To obey.

**aud** *adj.* [PF *autre*] Other, another.

**auḍé** *v.* [PF *obtenir*] FUT *auḍy'éḍré*. 1. To obtain, get, acquire. 2. +ABL To gain purchase on or height or distance from.

**auha** *conj.* [PF *au cas où*] +OPT In case.

**aúráj** *n.* [PF *orage*] 1. Storm, tempest, thunderstorm. 2. *fig.* Upheaval, turmoil, crisis.

**avár** *v. irreg.* [PF *avoir*] (*stems irreg.*) PRES ANT *y*, PRET *ab'hé*, FUT *aúré*, SUBJ *ès*. +ACC To have, possess.

**áváy'é** *v.* [PF *envoyer*] FUT *áváy'ére*, SUBJ *áváy'és*. To send.

**áví** *n.* [PF *ami*] Friend.

**ávрэ** *conj.* [PF *à moins que*] +OPT Unless.

**ay'aúr** *conj.* [PF *alors*] While, as (*temporal*).

**ájéd** *v.* [PF *enjoindre*] To order, enjoin, command.

**ba** *v.* [PF *baser*] FUT *bare*, SUBJ *bas*. To base on, found on.

**ḃáhe** *n.* [PF *pensée*] Thought, reflection, meditation, faculty of thinking.

**ḃarḍ** *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.

**ḃárḍe** *n.* [PF *partie*] Part, portion, piece, faction of a whole.

**ḃárdihibhá** *n.* [PF *participant*] Participant.

**ḃas** *conj.* [PF *parce que*] +SUBJ Because (*often used to explain motivation rather than cause as in 'We did that because...'*).

**baú** *v. irreg.* [PF *bon*] FUT *baúré*, SUBJ *véy'yrs*; COMP *lēvéy'y'r*, *y'yvéy'y'r*, *rēvéy'y'r*; SUP *rēvéy'y'r*, *râdvâvéy'y'r*. 1. To be good, well. 2. To be right, correct, appropriate.

**ḃaú** *n.* [PF *pont*] Bridge.

**ḃauheýnlabhé** *v.* [PF *poser un lapin*] FUT *ḃauheýnlabhé*, SUBJ *ḃauheýnlabhés*. To forsake, abandon.

**ḃauhib** *v.* [PF *impossible*] FUT *ḃauhibre*, SUBJ *ḃauhibes*. To be impossible, unfeasible.

**ḃál** *v.* [PF *parler*] FUT *ḃáléré*. To speak, talk, say.

**ḃálýr** *n.* [PF *parleur*] Speaker, interlocutor.

**ḃet'he** *v. irreg.* [PF *petit*] FUT *rêḍé*, SUBJ *ḃet'hes*; COMP *lērêḍ*, *y'y'rêḍ*, *rêrêḍ*; SUP *rêrêḍ*, *râdvârêḍ*. To be small, little.

**bír** → **vaúb'he**.

- biwaú** *n.* [PF *billion*] (*obsolete, replaced with modern dýwaú*) Billion.
- bré** *conj.* [PF *après que*] +OPT After.
- b'haud** *v.* [PF *vôtre*] FUT *b'haudre*, SUBJ *b'haus*. To be yours (PL).
- b'he** *conj.* [PF *envers*] +SUBJ To, so as to, in order to, so that. *Commonly enclitic 'b'h after vowels.*
- b'hóy'è** *v.* [PF *voler*] To fly. Flight.
- b'hýlnér** *v.* [PF *invulnérable*] FUT *b'hýlnéré*, SUBJ *b'hýlnérs*. +INSTR To be incapable of being affected by, invulnerable to.
- cahý** *pro.* PL INDEF *only*; *declined like a regular noun* [PF *chacun*] Each other, one another.
- Cár** *n.* *male given name, equivalent to English 'Kyle' or 'Charles'.*
- c'habhahit'hè** *n.* [PF *capacité*] Skill, capacity, ability.
- c'hánár** *n.* [PF *canard*] Ship, boat.
- c'háraúcið** *v.* [PF *les carottes sont cuites*] FUT *c'háraúcre*, SUBJ *c'háraúc*. To end for good, put to a permanent end.
- c'haúbhausy'ò** *n.* [PF *composition*] Composition, arrangement, structure.
- c'haúbhrâd** *v.* [PF *comprendre*] FUT *c'haúbhrâdré*, SUBJ *c'haúbhrâs*. +PART To comprehend, understand, grasp.
- 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'hèlch'ý** *pron.* [PF *quelqu'un*] Someone, somebody, anyone, anybody.
- c'hes** *quest. part.* [PF *qu'est-ce que*] *see grammar; often c'h's in older texts.*
- c'hesse** *contraction of c'hes + se* Is it? (*Also substituted for other forms of 'to be' in questions, particularly for the plural neuter; stressed on the first syllable*).
- c'hóbhár** *v.* [PF *comparer*] FUT *c'hóbhárre*, SUBJ *c'hóbhárs*. To compare.
- c'hóhid'hé** *v.* [PF *considérer*] FUT *c'hóhid'héré*, SUBJ *c'hóhid'hés*. 1. +PART To consider, think about, ponder. 2. +ACC To think through.
- c'hóný** *adj.* [PF *connu*] Known, familiar, well-known.
- c'hór** *n.* [PF *corps*] Body.
- c'hóvâ** *v.* [PF *commencer*] FUT *c'hóvâré*, SUBJ *c'hóvâs*. 1. (+PART) To start, commence, begin. 2. +GEN To start out as.
- c'hóvníc'h** *v.* [PF *communiquer*] FUT *c'hóvníc'hre*, SUBJ *c'hóvníc'hes*. 1. To communicate (+INSTR with ...). 2. Communication.
- c'hrír** *v.* [PF *écrire*] FUT *c'hríré*, SUBJ *c'hrís*. To write.
- c'húr** *v.* [PF *court*] To shrink, reduce in size, narrow.
- c'hýr** *n.* [PF *corps*] Heart.
- c'h's** → **c'hes**.
- dá** *conj.* [PF *tandis*] Whereas.
- dahaúr** *particle* [PF *d'accord*] Sure, ok, agreed, fine.
- ðale** *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.
- Daúvníc'h** *n.* *male or female given name, equivalent to English 'Dominic'.*
- de** *conj.* [PF *dès que*] +SUBJ Once, when once, as soon as.
- ðe** *adj.* [PF *tout*] All, every, whole, entire.
- ðeçír** *v.* [PF *déchirer*] FUT *ðeçirre*, SUBJ *ðeçírs*. 1. +PART To tear, rip, rend. 2. +ACC To rend asunder, tear to pieces.
- ðec'hnic'hvâ** *adv.* [PF *techniquement*] Technically.
- ðehè** *n.* [PF *dessus*] 1. Top, upper side. 2. Surface of a body of water.
- ðer** *v.* [PF *taire*] FUT *ðéré*. To silence, shut up.
- ðérésð** *v.* [PF *terrestre*] FUT *ðérésðré*, SUBJ *ðérésðs*. To be terrestrial, earth-based.
- ðeríb** *adj.* [PF *terrible*] FUT *ðeríre*, SUBJ *ðerís*. To be terrible (*all senses*).
- ðerný'é** *adj.* [PF *dernier*] Last, final, ultimate.
- desle** *v.* [PF *déceler*] FUT *deslere*, SUBJ *desles*. To detect, discover, uncover, reveal.
- ðey'ebhat'hè** *n.* [PF *télépathie*] Telepathy.
- ðey'ebhat'hic'h** *v.* [PF *télépathique*] FUT *ðey'ebhat'hic'hre*, SUBJ *ðey'ebhat'hic'hes*. To be telepathic.
- ðír** *v. tr.* [PF *dire*] FUT *ðiré*, SUBJ *ðíss*. To say, tell.
- dóné** *v.* [PF *donner*] FUT *dónré*, SUBJ *dónés*. +DAT & ACC/PART To endow, bestow (*the ACC is used when talking about concrete, measurable, and finite objects or sums; the partitive to talk about abstract concepts or parts of objects; the DAT is the person being endowed with*).
- ður** *adv.* [PF *toujours*] 1. (*in positive context*) Always. 2. (*in negative context*) Still.
- dývrê** *particle* [*du moins*] At least (*as in e.g. 'At least, I think that...'*).
- dy'è** *v.* [PF *tenir*] FUT *dy'èré*, SUBJ *dy'ès*. To be yours (SG).

e *n.* [PF *eau*] Water.

ebhɛ *v.* [PF *épais*] FUT ebhre, SUBJ ebhes. To be thick.

ec *n.* [PF *péché*] Sin, transgression, wrongdoing.

ed *particle* [PF *et*] used in numbers, see § 2.9).

ed *v. irreg.* [PF *être*] FORMS active only, see § 2.8. To be.

edrrá *v.* [PF *étroit*] Pointy.

Edy'è *n.* male given name, equivalent to English 'Stephen'.

ehyó *n.* [PF *écusson*] Shield.

el *n.* [PF *ailles*] Wing, blade, fin.

ez- *pron.* [PF *ses*] Its, her, his, their.

F *adj.* [from *fɛ*] (logic) False, ⊥.

fahaú *conj.* [PF *de façon que*] +OPT In such a way that.

faúr *n.* [PF *force*] 1. Force, strength, power. 2. DEF (science fiction) The Force.

fɛ *v.* [PF *faux*] FUT faure, SUBJ faus. To be false, incorrect, wrong.

fɛhab *v.* [PF *faisable*] FUT fɛhabre, SUBJ fɛhas. To be possible, feasible.

fɛhɛ *n.* [PF *faisceau*] 1. Bundle, bunch, cluster. 2. Beam, ray.

fér *v.* [PF *faire*] FUT fé, SUBJ fés. 1. To do, make, build, construct, erect 2. (expletive, see § 2.10.1).

férɖufraú *v.* [PF *en faire tout un fromage*] FUT fér-ɖufraúré, SUBJ férɖufraús. To make a big fuss about something.

férrrásvát'h *n.* [PF *fer la grasse matinée*] A long, deep sleep.

fic'h *v.* [back-formation from \*fic'hs, reinterpreted as a subjunctive stem; from PF *fixer*] FUT fic'hre, SUBJ fic'hs. To fix, set, establish.

ís → ub'hrá.

Já *n.* male or female given name, equivalent to English 'John' or 'Joan'.

jávɛ *adv.* [PF *jamais*] Never, at no time.

jys *conj.* [PF *jusqu'à ce que*] +OPT Until.

jys *adv.* [PF *juste*] Just, only, merely.

jys *v.* [PF *injuste*] FUT jysre, SUBJ jyss. To be unjust, unfair.

Lác *n.* female given name, equivalent to English 'Bianca'.

lár *v.* [PF *large*] Wide, broad.

lârdávrá *n.* [PF *langue de bois*] Evasive, unclear, or overly formal speech.

laú *v.* [PF *long*] Long (often in compounds laú-'long-').

laúrs *conj.* [PF *lorsque*] When (temporal only).

laúrvé *conj.* [from *laúrs* + *vé*] (contraction) But when (stressed on the first syllable).

laut'h *v.* [PF *flotter*] FUT laut'hre, SUBJ laut'hes. Float, hover, levitate.

le *v.* [PF *laisser* > \*lehe] FUT lere, SUBJ les. (chiefly in questions or imperative) To let, allow, permit.

lɛ *prefix* [PF *plus*] Denying comparative prefix. See grammar.

lec'hɖraúvnɛt'hic'h *v.* [PF *électromagnétique*] FUT lec'hɖraúvnɛt'hic'hre, SUBJ lec'hɖraúvnɛt'hic'hes. To be electromagnetic.

lehuvud *n.* [PF *coup de foudre*] Love at first sight.

lí *v.* [PF *lire*] FUT líré, SUBJ lís. 1. +PART To read from. 2. +ACC To peruse, read entirely.

livuhé *n.* [PF *livre* + *bouquin*] Book.

lúr *v.* [PF *lourd*] To be bulky, oversized, heavy.

lýr *pron.* [PF *leur*] Their.

lýrɖ *v.* [from PF *leur*; the *ɖ* was added in analogy with *naúɖ* and *b'hauɖ*] FUT lýrɖre, SUBJ lýrs. To be theirs.

lývá *v.* 3RD person only [PF *pleuvoir*] FUT lýváre, SUBJ lývás. To rain.

lývy'ér *n.* [PF *lumière*] Light.

lyzy'ýr *adj.* [PF *plusieurs*] Several.

náɛ *v.* [PF *nager*] FUT náɛ, SUBJ náɛs. To swim.

nát'hýr *n.* [PF *nature*] 1. (chiefly) INDEF Nature, the natural world. 2. DEF The way something is.

naúɖ *v.* [PF *nôtre*] FUT naúɖre, SUBJ naús. To be ours.

néɛɛ *n.* [PF *énergie*] Energy.

níb'hɛ *n.* [PF *niveau*] 1. Level, degree. 2. DEF INESS + GEN On the level of.

nór *v.* [back-formation from \*nórâ FROM PF *ignorant*] To be ignorant, unaware, oblivious.

R *adj.* [from *ré*] (logic) True, ⊤.

ra *conj.* [PF *swa* (> \*rá)] 1. Or (exclusive, see also u). 2. u/ra ... ra ... 'either ... or ...' (exclusive).

rá *n.* [PF *loi*] Law, rule, regulation.

rá *n.* [PF *mois*] Month.

rá *v.* [PF *grand*] Big, large, great.

rác'hɛsáɖ *v.* [PF *raconter des salades*] FUT rác'h-sáɖe, SUBJ rác'hɛsáɖs. To lie, tell tall tales, overexaggerate.

râdrásôn *v.* [PF *prendre ses jambe à son cou*] FUT râdrásônre, SUBJ râdrásônre. To run.

râdrénɛ *v.* + ACI [PF *les doigts dans le nez*] FUT râdrénɛré, SUBJ râdrénɛs. To put no effort into.

râdvâ *prefix* [PF *grandement*] Superlative prefix. See grammar.

râd'hérn *n.* [from *râ* + *dérny'é*] Last month.

**ráhe** *n.* [PF oiseau] Bird.  
**ráhé** *n.* [from *ráhe* + *ráhó*] Flying fish.  
**ráhe** *conj.* [PF *quoique*] +SUBJ Although, though.  
**râhe** *n.* [PF *Français*] Human, person.  
**râhis** *v.* [PF *raciste*] FUT *râhise*, SUBJ *râhiss*. To be racist.  
**ráhó** *n.* [PF *poisson*] Fish.  
**rár** *v.* [PF *voir*] FUT *b'héré*, SUBJ *rárs*. To see.  
**rárd** *v.* [PF *regarder*] FUT *rárdre*, SUBJ *rárds*. 1. To watch. 2. To look at.  
**râsír** *v.* [PF *transpirer*] FUT *râsírê*, SUBJ *râsírs*. +ACI 1. To come to light, become known, transpire. 2. PRES ANT For it to be clear, apparent, evident that ... (*lit.* 'it has come to light that ...').  
**rát'hê** *particle* [PF *vois-tu*] You see, you know.  
**raúb'hê** *n.* [PF *robot*] Robot.  
**raúl** *n.* [PF *parole*] 1. Language, speech, word. 2. **Raúl** *definite only* Short for *T'hebhaú Raúl* (NOM SG irreg. **Raúl**; all other forms are regular).  
**rávâ** *adv.* [PF *rarement*] Seldom, rarely (ever).  
**rávér** *n.* [1. Grammar (the grammatical rules of a language). 2. A textbook describing the grammar of a language] .  
**ráy'é** *v.* [PF *noyer*] To drown.  
**ráy'ê** *n.* [PF *moyen*] 1. Way, means, method. 2. *ráy'ê y'aúhý* + ACI There is no way, that...  
**ráy'ê** *v.* [PF *râler*] To complain, grumble.  
**ré** *n.* [PF *rai*] Ray, beam.  
**ré** *prefix* [PF *très*] Superlative prefix. See grammar.  
**ré** *v.* [PF *vrai*] FUT *rê*, SUBJ *rés*. To be true, correct, right.  
**rê** *prefix* [PF *moins*] Neutral comparative prefix. See grammar.  
**rê** *conj.* [PF *bien que*] +SUBJ Although, though.  
**rê** *v.* [PF *trine*] FUT *rêré*, SUBJ *rês*. To be composed of three parts or people; triune.  
**rêb'h** *v.* [PF *rêver*] FUT *rêvé*, SUBJ *rêb'hs*. To dream.  
**rêd** *v.* [PF *craindre*] FUT *rêdrê*, SUBJ *rês*. +sopt To fear, lest ... (*construed with the negated optative*).  
**rêd** → **bêthê**.  
**rêd'hes** *particle* [PF *bien sûr*] Of course, certainly, surely.  
**rét'hád** *v.* [PF *prétendre*] FUT *rét'hádrê*, SUBJ *rét'h-ádes*. To claim, allege.  
**rét'hê** *v.* [PF *traiter*] FUT *rét'hêre*, SUBJ *rét'hes*. To handle, take care of, deal with.  
**rrá** *v.* [PF *croire*] FUT *rrê*, 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.  
**rzaúsd** *v.* [PF *exhaustif*] FUT *rzaúsdre*, SUBJ *rzaúsd*. To be exhaustive, comprehensive, complete.  
**s** *conj.* [PF *si*] If, when, whenever.  
**sá** *particle* [PF *sans*] Not, no. Always *s'* before vowels. This particle is used only in the subjunctive; see also *asý'yâ*, *t'hé*.  
**sá** *conj.* [PF *sans que*] +SUBJ Without (doing sth.).  
**sâhe** *v.* [PF *insensé*] FUT *sâhere*, SUBJ *sâhes*. To be preposterous, absurd, nonsensical.  
**Sâsc'hríd** *n.* (*never lenited*) [PF *Sanskrit*] The Sanskrit language.  
**sâsy'él** *v.* [PF *essentiel*] FUT *sâsy'élê*, SUBJ *sâsy'éls*. To be essential.  
**sauc'h** *conj.* [PF *sauf que*] +SUBJ Except that.  
**saúr** *n.* [PF *sorte*] 1. Kind, sort, type, form 2. DEF + GEN (some) kind(s) of.  
**sauz** *n.* [PF *chose*] Thing, object.  
**sauz-aud** *adj.* [PF *autre chose*] Something else, another thing.  
**sauzaud** → **sauz-aud**.  
**saává** *v.* [PF *savoir*] FUT *saúr*, SUBJ *sac*. To know.  
**shê** *v.* [PF *espérer*] FUT *shêré*, SUBJ *shês*. +OPT To wish, want, desire.  
**sêb** *v.* [PF *simple*] FUT *sêbrê*, SUBJ *sêbs*. To be plain, simple.  
**seh** *det.* [PF *ceci*] +DEF noun This, these (*precedes and is attached to nouns*).  
**sêrdê** *det.* [PF *certain*] Certain, particular but not specified.  
**séy'ê** *v.* [PF *essayer*] FUT *séy'êré*, SUBJ *séy'ês*. +PART or INF To try, attempt.  
**sisdê** *n.* [PF *système*] System.  
**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'ês*. +PART, PCI To care about, worry about.  
**swi** *det.* [PF *celui*] The one, that one, this one.  
**sybhéryr** *v.* [PF *supérieur*] FUT *sybhéryré*, SUBJ *sybhéryrs*. *intr.* or +GEN To be superior to, better than, higher than.  
**sy'ê** *v.* [PF *sien*] FUT *sy'êré*, SUBJ *sy'ês*. To be his, hers, its.  
**sy'ê** *det.* [PF *cela*] +DEF noun That, those (*precedes and is attached to nouns; generally sy' before vowels, with one apostrophe, not two*).  
*s' → sá.*

- t'hé conj.** [PF *de peur que* > \**dbhýrc'h* > \**dýrc'h* > \**dc'hý* > \**t'hé*] Not, no. Always *t'h<sup>N</sup>* 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* + *raúl*] 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.
- t'hiy'e v.** [from *yt'hiy'ihę*] FUT *t'hiže*, SUBJ (via back-formation from the FUT) *T'HZES*. +PART To use, make use of.
- u conj.** [PF *ou*] 1. Or (inclusive, see also **ra**). 2. **u ... u ... '... or ...'** (inclusive).
- ub'hrá v.** [PF *pouvoir*] FUT *úré*, SUBJ *ís*. 1. +INF To be able to, can. 2. +PART Capable of .. (**ub'hrá** is never construed with an INF if it in and of itself is the infinitive of an ACI or PCL, in which case the variant with the PART is used instead). 3. OPT COND I + ACI to be possible; may (dynamic or epistemic, never deontic). 4. OPT COND II + ACI might (dynamic or epistemic, never deontic).
- ulíy'ę v.** [PF *oublier*] FUT *ulíy'ęré*, SUBJ *ulíy'ęs*. To forget.
- úrbh conj.** [PF *pour peu que*] +OPT Provided that, so long as.
- urdálbhaúrd n.** [PF *avoir un oursin dans le portefeuille*] A very rich person; billionaire.
- úré → ub'hrá.**
- uy'ed'háb'hrí v.** [PF *rouler dans la farine*] FUT *uy'ed'háve*, SUBJ *uy'ed'háb'hrís*. To scam, swindle, cheat.
- vá → rvá.**
- vádlabhaud'hávúrsab'hád'háváb'hrárđue v. literary** [PF *vendre la peau de ours avant de avoir tué*] FUT *vádlabhaud'hávúrsab'hád'háváb'hrárđure*, s *vádlabhaud'hávúrsab'hád'háváb'hrárđus*. To depend on predictions of the future (of disputed origin; first attested in the works of the Early UF comedian J. A. B. SNET'H).
- vâhe v.** [PF *manquer*] FUT *vâheré*, SUBJ *vâhés*. 1. +GEN To lack, want. 2. +PART or PASS To miss (the object and subject of this verb are swapped compared to English 'to miss', e.g. **b'hývvâhé** (2PL.ACT + 1SG.PASS) 'I miss you (PL)', lit. roughly 'you (PL) are wanting to me'). 3. +ACC To miss out on.
- vás n. PL DEF** [PF *masses*] The masses, the people.
- vaúb'he v. irreg.** [PF *mauvais*] FUT *bíré*, SUBJ *bíres*; COMP *lēbír*, *y'ýbír*, *rēbír*; SUP *rēb'hír*, *rādvâbír*. 1. To be bad 2. To be wrong, incorrect, inappropriate.
- vaûd n.** [PF *monde*] World.
- vaût'há n.** [PF *montagne*] Mountain.
- válé conj.** [PF *malgré que*] +SUBJ Despite that, in spite of.
- vé conj.** [PF *mais*] But, however, although.
- véhýr conj.** [PF *dans la mesure où*] Insofar as.
- véhýr v/n.** [PF *mesure*] FUT *véhýré*, SUBJ *véhýrs*. 1. To measure, 2. Measurement.
- vérs interj.** [PF *merci*] 1. Thank you. (+GEN for sth.). 2. **dyvérs fér** To thank (+DAT sbd.) (+GEN for sth.).
- véy'ýr → baú.**
- vísy'ô n.** [PF *émission*] 1. Emission. 2. Programme, broadcast, show.
- vú adj.** [PF *moult*] Many, much, a lot of.
- vvaúríhe v. (in)tr.** [PF *mémoriser*] FUT *vvaúríže*. To remember.
- yt'hiy'ihę v.** [PF *utiliser*] FUT *yt'hiy'ize*, SUBJ *yt'hiy'ihęs*. +PART (archaic) To use, make use of.
- y'ác'hraúníc'h v.** [PF *diachronique*] FUT *y'ác'hraúníc'hre*, SUBJ *y'ác'hraúníc'hes*. To be diachronic.
- y'aúhý inconj., postpos.** [PF *il n'y a aucun*] There is no, there are no, there is none.
- y'aúhý inconj., postpos.** [PF *il y a aucun*] There is, there are.
- y'é adv.** [PF *rien*] Nothing.
- y'ę v.** [PF *nier*] FUT *y'ęré*, SUBJ *y'ęs*. To forbid, deny.
- y'ę v.** [PF *mien*] FUT *y'ęré*, SUBJ *y'ęs*. To be mine.
- 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 prefix** [PF *mieux*] Affirming comparative prefix. See grammar.
- y'ý n.** [from *y'ývéláfrí*] Eye.
- y'ývéláfrí n. pl. archaic** [*yeux de merlan frit*] Eyes.
- 'sý'yâ → asý'yâ.**