A Grammar of Üvjolihu

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Contents • Xuluŋôį

Summary	4
1.1 Introduction	4
1.2 About this Grammar	4
Sentence Structure	5
2.1 Word Order and Structure	5
2.1.1 Transitive Sentences	5
2.1.2 Intransitive Sentences	5
2.1.3 Ditransitive Sentences	6
2.1.4 Impersonal Sentences	7
2.2 Grammatical Relations	7
2.2.1 Ergative Marking	7
2.2.2 Other Grammatical Relations and Marking	8
2.2.3 Use of GRs	8
2.3 Extra Arguments	8
2.4 Discourse	8
Basic Verb Systems	9
3.1 Tense	9
3.2 Complex Tense	10
3.2.1 Relative Clauses in Tense	11
3.2.2 Infinitely Variable Referential Tense	11
3.3 Aspect	11
3.4 Modality	11
3.5 Agreement	11
3.6 Connections	11
3.7 Objectivity	11
3.4.2 Verb and Phrase Objectivity Rules	11
3.4.3 Circumventing Objectivity Rules	11
3.8 Other Verb Systems	12
Clause Relation	13
4.1 Negation	13
4.2 Causality and Reference	13
4.3 Relative Clauses	13
4.4 Evidentials	13

A Grammar of Üvįolihu

4.5 Existentials and Predicate Nominal Constructions	15
4.5.1 Possessive Predicate Nominals	15
4.5.2 Adjectival Predicate Nominals	15
Morphology and Derivation	17
5.1 Pronouns	17
5.2 Genitives	17
5.2.1 Alienable Item Possession	18
5.2.2 Alienable Range Possession	18
5.2.3 Alienable Mass Possession	18
5.2.4 Alienable Nonphysical Possession	18
5.2.5 Alienable Former Possession	18
5.2.6 Inalienable Bodily Possession	19
5.2.7 Inalienable Vital Possession	19
5.2.7 Inalienable Familial Possession	19
5.3 Sentence Particles	19
5.4 Conjunctions	19
Nominal Properties	20
6.1 Number	20
6.1.1 Singular Number	20
6.1.2 Plural Number	20
6.1.3 Paucal Number	20
6.1.4 Unitary Number	20
6.1.5 Collective Number	20
6.1.6 Specific Number	21
6.1.7 Other Number Systems	21
6.2 Case	21
6.2.1 Locative Cases	21
6.3 Person	22
6.4 Speaker's Role	22
Phonology	23
7.1 Inventory	23
7.1.1 Consonants	23
7.1.2 Vowels	24
7.2 Syllable Rules and Names	24

The Gitiidhnâe Writing System	30
Evolution	29
Complex Systems	28
8.4 Systematic Change	27
8.3 Other Variation	27
8.2 Verb Variation	27
8.1 Noun Variation	27
Regularity and Variation	27
7.5 Historical Change	26
7.4 Intonation	26
7.3 Stress	26

Summary

1.1 Introduction

Úviolihu is an Aeðrhu language of the Uvyx subfamily, spoken primarily by the Úvio peoples of Újandôrul. It was created as part of a large worldbuilding project and is related to several other languages.

 \dot{U} vįolihu, or *lihu* for short, exhibits a beautiful phonology and syllable structure with agglutinative elements. \dot{U} vįolihu is always a work in progress, and thus this document may also be updated regularly. The version number can be seen at the top.

1.2 About this Grammar

This grammar is a full reference grammar of the language, and should be taken as a definitive source. [citation needed]

Sentence Structure

2.1 Word Order and Structure

Úviolihu uses several word orders, based on context and format of the sentence. The most common word order is SOV, versions of which manifest in many areas.

2.1.1 Transitive Sentences

In transitive sentences, the word order is SOV, where the subject (Agent-like, A) is in the ergative case and the object (Patient-like, P) is in the absolutive case. Here is an example:

(2.1.1 #1) <u>Tâlıqhaidh</u> riŋa tekhaφô "The campfire boiled the water":

Subject: *Tâlıqha* "campfire" (Ergative, suffixed -*udh*)

Object: rina "water (as a material)" (Absolutive)

Verb: *tekhaφô* "to boil (past)"

(Section 2.2 will be useful here; it describes grammatical relations such as the Ergative case)

Objects are not marked in transitive sentences as subjects are, though there are markers for the absolutive case in other instances.

In longer sentences, and if the object is a pronoun, the word order is switched to OSV. The object pronoun can then receive the absolutive suffix $-q\hat{o}$ if it is not a (default) first person pronoun. This suffix also serves as an indicator of the alternate word order.

2.1.2 Intransitive Sentences

In intransitive sentences, the core argument (a subject) is usually labeled as absolutive, and receives the suffix *-itxe* (gloss: PRM), which acts as a prominence-indicator article in intransitive sentences. VS order is used.

(2.1.2 #1) Hevâlaughme phiitxe tha.
anonymous-PRS-BSC 2p-PRM ~TONE
"You (singular) are unknown/not famous (neutral tone)"

If the core argument is considered to be intentionally partaking in the activity (such instances are usually not phrased to be intransitive), the core argument is in the ergative, suffixed

A Grammar of Üvjolihu

or infixed with *-udh-*, the word order is SOV, and the position of an object is filled with $a\dot{u}$ (gloss: [DOBJ]), a direct object placeholder. This $a\dot{u}$ is seen as an inactive patient (iP).

(2.1.2 #2) Phiudh aų hevâlaugh. 2p-ERG [DOBJ] anonymous-PRS "You (singular) are intentionally anonymous"

2.1.3 Ditransitive Sentences

True ditransitive sentences are rare in Uviolihu, and are often phrased as an alternate-word-order transitive sentence with a simple agglutinated noun-verb phrase as the object.

Despite this, there is relatively standard grammar for ditransitivity, an artifact of the older language's influence with the ditransitive-phrase-rich Aarnor Iirisis. These sentences thus have a similar syntax to ditransitives in Aarnor Iirisis.

Like in transitive sentences, the subject (Agent) is labeled with *-udh-* while the object (Active Patient) is unlabeled. The indirect object (such as the gift argument of the verb *to give*) is labeled with $-q\hat{o}$, the same suffix used on object pronouns.

However, this suffix is *subabsolutive* (gloss: SAB), a relative of Aarnor Iirisis's *-ko* dative case, and causes the verb to agree with the direct object instead of the subject (because both objects are now promoted) with a suffix dealing with the object's person:

```
1p: -ie (gloss: DT1)
2p: -ob (gloss: DT2)
3p: -ekh (gloss: DT3)
```

The word order is fairly normal: SOOV, where the noun forms are A aP iP V, and the second object is indirect.

(2.1.3 #1) *Mavudhu ħureni uzâıqhzimaqô eviônuekh.*mother-ERG child-IFP star-UNI-and-sky-SAB teach-DT3
"The mother taught her child about the stars and the sky"

Here, "child" is absolutive (but not marked for absolutivity), "stars and sky" is subabsolutive, "mother" is ergative, and the verb agrees in the third person.

The aforementioned "alternate-word-order transitive sentence with a simple agglutinated noun-verb phrase" is phrased as follows:

```
[verb][subject] "and" [indirect object (causative)][direct object][joiner]
or (somewhat archaically)
```

[verb][direct object] "and" [indirect object (causative)][subject][joiner]

The last argument, containing both objects, acts as a single object for the sentence. The joiner (gloss: VPJ) is a simple a, indicating a reference to the verb of the sentence. This particle is not reduced to [a], even though it features a final a, except in some idiolects.

(2.1.3 #2) Sıleugh miżô imelij z ikijani rośodheli a
give-PRS REL1 temple and 1p-PLU-CAU food offering VPJ
"vesterday (at this time) we left an offering of food at the temple"

Here the verb is "to give", interpreted as "to leave". *İkiṇaŋū rośodheli* means "an offering of food caused (CAU) by us", and is the last argument of the verb.

This form of sentence is often used when the subject, like "temple" here, is not directly meaning the thing receiving the action of the verb, or in informal speech describing a single event (where sometimes the whole phrase is interpreted as a causative for the preceding sentence).

2.1.4 Impersonal Sentences

2.2 Grammatical Relations

Úviolihu is an ergative-absolutive language. Those basic cases are marked as follows, depending on word order and transitivity.

2.2.1 Ergative Marking

The basic ergative case is marked with the affix ~udh~, which usually is a suffix. The sound can change (as seen in example 2.1.1 #1 in the section above).

Often the affix -udh- will replace another similar sound. Fort example, the ergative form of $\dot{U}v_i$ olihu is $\dot{U}v_i$ olihu, with the close vowel ι an approximation of the correct u, and the h being replaced with an aspirated dh. However, some words use a variant form of the affix, closer to -it-. The major words that deviate in this way are shown below:

- *Tirine* "god": *tirinite* "god (ergative)"
- Kiilpeâ "card": kiilpeât "card (ergative)"
- Ghośani "double line": ghośanıti "double line (ergative)"
- *Xôalnazaur* "spite": *xôalnazaurits* "spite (ergative)"

The *-udh-* affix is also replaced by a related *-it-* when the word belongs to either of the following (as well as the exceptions above):

A Grammar of Üvjolıhu

- All words ending with a "harsh" -q, -qh, -x, and sometimes $-\hbar$
 - Examples: Saraφôax, İnaq
- - o Examples: Umâegh, Aothigâe
 - o Exceptions: Eâkh, Tiukijraeg, Bhirâex

2.2.2 Other Grammatical Relations and Marking

2.2.3 Use of GRs

2.3 Extra Arguments

2.4 Discourse

Basic Verb Systems

This chapter is about the systems of verbs and their arguments.

Also, verbs are such headaches. Please, anything, anything but more verbs.

3.1 Tense

Ùviolihu has more grammatical tenses than English, and in fact more syntactic complexity, unique features, and words to deal with time than it does for space. The following sections explain Ùviolihu's complex tense system.

Basic verbs are in the past tense (like in J'er), and the basic present tense (gloss: PRS) is indicated with a suffix -ugh. The future tense is indicated with the prefix da- and the suffix -qim for non-objective verbs.

Perfect forms are adverbial affixes, with the table below illustrating their forms:

V represents a verb. The perfect component of the affix is underlined.

		Time of reference								
Time of speech	Action after FPRF	Action before PPRF	Action near PRF							
Action after	Future tense, Future perfect: da-V-mida(qiim)	Future tense, Past perfect: da-V- <u>nohu(qi</u> im)	Future tense, Present perfect: da-V- <u>ôt(qium)</u>							
Action before	Past tense, Future perfect: V- <u>mida</u>	Past tense, Past perfect: <i>V-<u>nohu</u></i>	Past tense, Present perfect: V- <u>ôt</u>							
Action near	Present tense, Future perfect: V-midaugh	Present tense, Past perfect: V- <u>no</u> ugh	Present tense, Present perfect: V-ôtugh							
	<i>V-<u>bhô</u>,</i> r	General perfect V- <u>bhô</u> , replace final vowel of verb with <i>i</i>								

Verb perfect forms are further indicated with subject affixing and alternate forms of the perfect affix. As an example, take the following complex sentence:

3.2 Complex Tense

Tense can be incredibly complicated. The example below shows one way multiple events can be connected in a complex way:

(3.2 #1) İıjadhu thıjoфiraka śolajamidameki jü ılka xonôveqô alvezithaħula.

1p-ERG perform. worry-FPRF-HAB VSA [SBJ] 3p:INAN-SAB-OR cancel-BCU-CES
"I had been worrying about the upcoming performance, until it was canceled."

The construction of this sentence works like this:

İųadhu is the second person singular animate pronoun "I", and is in the ergative case (this is the subject). *Thijoφiraka* means "performance" and is the object.

Śolaja means "to worry"; it is in the past tense (the default) and occurs at a time before the object argument (the performance), which by default is the time of reference for perfects on temporal-causative verbs. Because of this, it takes the future perfect suffix *-mida* (gloss: FPRF). Śolaja also has the suffix *-meki* for finite habituation, turning it from "was worrying" to "had been (repeatedly) worrying".

Next comes the required arguments for said habituation. Because it is finite (it ends), it needs a time to end. The particle *jū* indicates a verb system argument, one required by the system of the verb but not necessarily directly pertaining to its participants (*jū* is also a valence changer).

The placeholder *ılka* indicates that the upcoming clause acting as a verb system argument has no subject—the agent that canceled the performance is not specified—this particle can be used as a subject placeholder anywhere.

 $Xonôveq\^o$ is an inanimate third person singular pronoun marked for the accusative case with $-q\^o$. Because it has the $xon\^o$ - prefix (gloss: AOR), it references the object of the main clause and is in the absolutive case in the relative clause. See section 5.1 for more on the pronoun usage here. The verb of this clause is alvezi, "to cancel".

Thus, the overall structure is a sentence whose verb requires an extra argument due to its tense and aspect. The extra argument is a relative clause with the object of the main clause as its object, indicated by a pronoun, and the verb of the clause is marked to indicate the clause's role as an extra argument.

Verbs that require this type of argument in their basic form are rare, but the aspects and tenses described here use them *a lot*. They are also one rare example of a necessary verbal argument being placed after the verb in a sentence, although they could be considered their own clauses and thus separate.

3.2.1 Relative Clauses in Tense

3.2.2 Infinitely Variable Referential Tense

3.3 Aspect

3.4 Modality

3.5 Agreement

3.6 Connections

3.7 Objectivity

3.4.2 Verb and Phrase Objectivity Rules

Objective verbs are a dominant class of verbs in Uviolihu, referring to verbs that describe actions that can be witnessed and then attested as true of not. Objective verbs are verbs such as *speak*, *run*, *eat*, and *be*, as opposed to verbs such as *think*, *feel*, *want*, and *hurt*. Objective verbs are not just for the purpose of debate; they serve a grammatical purpose as well and are often distinguished.

3.4.3 Circumventing Objectivity Rules

Sometimes the verb objectivity requirements can be avoided (although this can be seen as a fallacy of the "logical structure" of the language) by applying another phrase before uttering the one to be circumvented. This phrase is usually one of these two:

- (3.4.3 #1) Maôxaφmi iųaŋitxe va... wonder-BSC 1p-PRM that "I wonder if (lit. that)..."
- (3.4.3 #2) Maôxaфugh vaiṇaŋ?

A Grammar of Üvjolıhu

wonder-PRS that-1Q3P "Do I know [if...]?"

The first phrase is commonly used for distinctly subjective verbs, ones that are not objective at all. The second is more commonly used for semi-objective verbs, whose truthfulness is dependent on the actions of the speaker as well as those of the performer. Take this example from the \dot{U} vjolihu epic poem $V\hat{o}$ ainere ϕi :

(3.4.3 #3) Dhijaxa: Phiudh iya gehu thâtirikunumi ôjlaqe q vahurough.

2p-ERG 1p-AMP army-CAU war can win-PRS

"With my army, you can win the war."

wonder-PRS that-1Q3P 1p-ERG 2p-CAU 2p can trust

"I don't know if I can trust you."

(lit. Do I know this?—that I can trust you.)

3.8 Other Verb Systems

Clause Relation

This chapter is about the relation between clauses and how they can be described, as well as describing adjectives and other similar systems.

4.1 Negation

Negation is almost always done with < m > (gloss: NEG). M can be placed before a verb, before an adjective, or after a noun.

If it is seen as an affix (for phrase shortening), it will usually manifest as *ma*- and not be used on verbs.

4.2 Causality and Reference

4.3 Relative Clauses

Relative clauses are phrases (following the noun they relate to) whose verbs are prefixed with *er*- (Gloss: RCV). Relative clauses end with *ea* (gloss: VTJ, related to the VPJ) and begin with a pronoun that agrees with the related noun in person, number, and ergativity.

Here's an example relative clause (in parentheses; modifying noun underlined):

(4.3 #1) *Qharaxiugh igniâsxu (va erhazijo m Laŋareledhu ea) Sıdanidh qipi!* look-PRS person 3p work-RCV NEG conlang relay VTJ Sidney-ERG !TONE "Sidney's that person who didn't work on the conlang relay!"

Here, *igniâsxu* "person" is followed by *va erhazijo m Laŋareledhu* "they didn't work on the conlang relay", with the verb *hazijo* indicated to be part of a relative clause with the prefix *er*-. That along with use of *ea* and the pronoun should indicate that the phrase is a relative clause.

4.4 Evidentials

Full-verb phrases can optionally have evidential marking. Evidentials initially manifested as separate phrases occurring after the phrase they modify, but eventually became more similar to syntactically complex adjectives.

A Grammar of Üvjolihu

Most evidential particles, *unless noted otherwise below*, are marked after the verb in any sentence, unless the verb is not after the last agent or patient argument, in which case it comes before the verb.

The list of all evidential particles is hard to put in one place; most evidentials are only used in specific ways due to their old separate-phrase form. However, the main evidentials are listed in the table below:

Particle	IPA	Meaning	Morphology	Position and Use	Gloss
iųamiśâ	[iɰ.a.mi.ɛæ]	I believe (as an opinion)	iųa "I" + miśa "think"	Everywhere, normal position	eBEL
ių́akhemi	[iɰ.a.kʰɛ.mi]	I hope	iųa "I" + kheke "hope" + miśa "think"	Only on objective verbs, normal position	еНОР
ių́akhexôįo	[iɰ.a.kʰe.xo.jɔ]	I know (through research or expertise)	<i>iųa</i> "I" + <i>kheke</i> "true" + <i>xôjo</i> "know"	Only on objective verbs, normal position	eKNO

Evidentials can be prefixed with pronouns to indicate a user other than the speaker performing them (e.g. someone else believing a statement to be true).

4.5 Existentials and Predicate Nominal Constructions

Existentials are constructed in strange ways in Üviolihu. A simple existential might look like this:

In this example, an object ("it") is referenced, and then a valid pronoun is used to assert its existence. A more adaptive example might look like this:

(4.5 #2) *Mavū ħureni va.*

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mother child-IFP 3p "The mother has a child." (lit.: "the mother's child they")
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Here, the mother's child exists because it is referenced by a pronoun va.

Those among you who have been taking notes (as you should be) will have noticed that the words *Ve* and *Mavii* here are not in the ergative case, even though they would be in a normal sentence. This is because existentials do not function like verbs in most respects.

4.5.1 Possessive Predicate Nominals

Possessive predicate nominals are no different from nouns in the genitive cases followed by the aforementioned existential pronoun (see example 4.5 #2 above).

4.5.2 Adjectival Predicate Nominals

Adjectives can, of course, be applied to nouns in a predicate nominal format, but the result is not always useful:

(4.5.2 #1) *Ųolôdha sikâveaŋ avıx?*apple-ERG color-QE form:is:PRS
"What color is the apple?"

Khe ųolôtha ve. red apple 3p:INAN "[A] red apple exists."

Because of this inability to specify *which* apple is being referenced (and the normal systems to do so don't work here), Üviolihu speakers formed a grammatically strange but universally-recognised way to indicate a property of an object in a predicate nominal construction:

(4.5.2 #2) *Qolôdha sikâveaŋ avıx?*apple-ERG color-QE form:is:PRS
"What color is the apple?"

*Ųolôtha ve ae khe.*apple 3p:INAN VTJ red
"[The] apple is red." (lit.: apple exists like red)

By placing the adjective after the "verb" pronoun, with a VTJ joiner *ae* acting as morphological glue, an aspect of definiteness is expressed.

A Grammar of Üvjolihu

Emphasis (intonation) is usually placed on the adjective, and, more so, on the VTJ joiner when such constructions are used.

4.5.3 Other Existential Forms

Existential particles and constructions are often a smaller piece of a larger construction, as seen in English and othe languages. Üvjolihu dosen't have the useless *do* particle that English uses, but the word *iśli* "is" can be used for some constructions.

İśli can also be a prefix indicating truth or state of being (almost like a perfective). It can be used in conjunction with the reflexive verb suffix -ke to incicate a complex meaning, essentially "because of their (the agent's/subject's) own existence". This is also a valence reducing operation (because it's reflexive)! Wow! The circumfix *iśli-V-ke* does it all!

The best example is probably this (affixes underlined):

İgnıâdhxuphe ıroi z theijaśu ve âoφxı z dhiħe ea iślirôniluke.
 human-ERG-COL dignity and rights as free and equal VTJ is:born-REF-PST
 "All human beings are born free and equal in dignity and rights (because of their own existence)"

Or maybe this:

(4.5.3 #2) Lidhu lii veqô <u>iśli</u>baqhiim<u>ke</u>.

1p-ERG 1p 3p:INAN-SAB is:give-REF

"I gave it [a gift] to myself (because I wanted/deserved it)"

In example #2, the idea "because I wanted it" is implied by the affixes. In example #1, the word *İgnıâdhxuphe* "all human beings" is in the ergative case, even though they are not the ones *giving birth* in the sentence—and the reflexive -*ke* also implies that they are giving birth to themselves. While this sytem is obviously imperfect, it works to communicate meaning.

Morphology and Derivation

This chapter is about the derivation of words and morphology in a sentence and how various systems are constructed with morphology.

5.1 Pronouns

This is the pronoun table:

Case	Number	1	p	20	3p	
	Number	Actor	Identity	2p		
Erantivo	Singular	ių́adhu	lüdhu	dhuphı	vadha	
Ergative	Plural ikių́adhu		iklüdhu	ikdhuphı	ikvadhu	
Absolutive	Singular ių́a		lü	phı	va	
Ausolutive	Plural	ikių́a	iklü	ikphı	ikva	

Pronouns are assumed to be animate. Inanimate versions, which only exist in the third person, are:

Case	Number	3p
Erantivo	Singular	vedha
Ergative	Plural	ikvedhu
Ahaalutiya	Singular	ve
Absolutive	Plural	ikve

An inanimate pronoun may be used as an insult, while speaking about the subject in a passive or indirect way.

A Grammar of Üvjolihu

5.2 Genitives

The genitive case in Üviolihu distinguishes, like some other languages, between alienable and inalienable possession. For the layperson, alienable possessions are ones that can be (practically) taken away (e.g. food, money, etc.), as opposed to inalienable possessions, which can not be taken away (e.g. family, body parts, etc.).

In Uviolihu, specific distinction is made between nouns that can be alienably or inalienably possessed, and this distinction also takes one of several forms depending on the method of possession. Below is a list of the forms:

Genitives can be in any order, with either the possessor or the possesse coming first, but they must be adjacent to one another.

5.2.1 Alienable Item Possession

Alienable item possession (Gloss: AIP) is for inanimate, small possessions in singular or small numbers. Examples include *knife*, *fruits*, *drum*, and *arrows*.

AIP possession is indicated with -mi suffixed to the possessee.

5.2.2 Alienable Range Possession

Alienable range possession (Gloss: ARP) is for possessions possessed by connection or as "territory". Examples include *land*, *home*, *domain*, and *space*.

ARP possession is indicated with -mi suffixed to the possessee and kani after the possessor.

5.2.3 Alienable Mass Possession

Alienable mass possession (Gloss: AMP) is for inanimate, small possessions in large amounts where the number does not matter. Examples include *bricks*, *rice*, and *money*.

AMP possession is indicated with -mi suffixed to the possessee and gahu after the possessor

5.2.4 Alienable Nonphysical Possession

Alienable nonphysical possession (Gloss: ANP) is for any alienable possession without physical manifestation (or one "technically" owned in the legal sense). Examples include *idea*, *thought*, *design*, and *art*.

ANP possession is indicated with -dala suffixed to the possessee or the possessee followed by mi tala.

5.2.5 Alienable Former Possession

Alienable former possession (Gloss: AFP) is for any alienable possession no longer owned by the grammatical possesser. AFP possession is indicated with -mi suffixed to the possessee and the possessor followed by tâjo.

5.2.6 Inalienable Bodily Possession

Inalienable bodily possession (Gloss: IBP) is for external body parts in singular or small numbers. Examples include *head*, *hands*, and *ear*, as well as *tongue* and *tooth*. *Eye* and *hair* are not included, using IVP and AMP possession, respectively.

IBP possession is indicated with -mi suffixed to the possessee and neie- prefixed to the possessor.

5.2.7 Inalienable Vital Possession

Inalienable vital possession (Gloss: IVP) is for internal organs and body parts usually in small or singular numbers. Examples include *heart*, *veins*, *liver*, and *cells*, as well as *eye*, and *bones*.

IVP possession is indicated with *-mijav* suffixed to the possessee and *neije-* prefixed to the possessor.

5.2.7 Inalienable Familial Possession

Inalienable familial possession (Gloss: IFP) is for living family members (also: friends, other loved ones, pets) of the possessor. Examples include *mother*, *siblings*, and *child*.

IFP possession is indicated with $-mi \ r\hat{o}$ suffixed to the possessee and $haa\dot{u}$ - prefixed to the possessor or -ni suffixed to the possessee.

Both alienable and inalienable possessions are differentiated from attributional possessions, which are similar to adjectives but act more as "fields" that can be inhabited by adjectives. These possessions are the "fields" themselves, not their values—in Úvjolihu, one can grammatically "have" age, but not an age of 15 years. That 15 years instead acts as the object of a full-verb phrase, where the subject is age as a "field", and the verb is the genitive itself (another version of to have)

5.3 Sentence Particles

5.4 Conjunctions

Nominal Properties

This chapter is about the properties of nouns: number, case, person, and the like, as well as how nouns can relate to one another in a sentence or clause.

6.1 Number

Ùviolihu's grammatical number system is simple, but then it also uses six different prefixes for the basic plural form. Simple.

6.1.1 Singular Number

Singular number, the basic form for most nouns, is not normally marked. On nouns that are not normally singular, *ghūtū*- can be applied as a singulative.

6.1.2 Plural Number

Plural number is the next most common, indicating any number other than one. The plural gloss is PLU. It is marked with:

- *i* (most nouns)
- e(n)- (some nouns)
- o(m)- (few nouns)
- *el-* (some vowel-initial nouns)
- *ek* (some vowel-initial nouns)
- *ik* (pronouns)

6.1.3 Paucal Number

Paucal number, meaning "several" or "some" (in Úvįolihu, a range from 2 to 4) is marked with i- and $-ath\hat{o}$ on most nouns, and uo- and $-ath\hat{o}$ on pronouns and some nouns. Its gloss is PAU.

6.1.4 Unitary Number

Unitary number, rarely different from singular and only used on mass nouns, is marked with \dot{u} - or uo(k)-, and means "one of" or "a unit of". Its gloss is UNI.

6.1.5 Collective Number

Collective number is marked with *-phe* and sometimes also i(k)-. It means "all of" and its gloss is COL.

6.1.6 Specific Number

6.1.7 Other Number Systems

6.2 Case

6.2.1 Locative Cases

Locatives are applied like adjectives, in relative clause form. Other similar cases (comitative, benefactive, distributive, adjectives themselves, &c.) are encoded similarly. The locatives are as follows:

Case	Suffix or Postposition	Meaning	Gloss	Notes
Locative X-huli		at/on/in X	LOC	Only used when another case won't work
Antilocative	X-quli	far from X	ALC	Quli can be used on its own (sometimes)
Superessive	X-xilo	above X	SUP	
Subessive X-xela		below X	SUB	
Adessive/Adjacent	X-hu thivâ	in/at X	ADJ	Usually "in" as opposed to "at"
Ablative	X-įomihe	away from X	ABL	
Allative	X-įarixa	to the X , towards X	ALL	
Prolative	X-qü qhüśü	via X	PRO	Considered poetic
Perlative	X-qizeiźiį	across X, over X	PER	

A Grammar of Üvįolihu

Pertingent	X xijo	around X , surrounding X , touching X	PRT	
Comitative	X X X X X X X X		СОМ	
Benefactive	X khâṇu	for X , to X	BEN	Not "to" as in the sense of a gift
Instrumental	X-ôtoŋ	with X, using X	INST	

6.3 Person

6.4 Speaker's Role

Phonology

7.1 Inventory

Üviolihu has a relatively large phonological inventory with several strange sounds. The entire inventory, in IPA and a romanization, is shown below.

7.1.1 Consonants

This is a table of the consonants of Uviolihu, including archaic ones not heard for hundreds of years. A list of notes explaining the asterisks and daggers is below the table.

		Bilabial	Labio dental	Alveolar	Palatal	Velar	Uvular	Glottal
Plosive	Aspirated	b ^h <bh> ‡ p^h <ph></ph></bh>		$\begin{array}{c} d^{\rm fi} <\!\! dh\!\!> \\ t^{\rm h} <\!\! th\!\!> \end{array}$		$\begin{array}{c} g^{\rm fi} <\!\! gh\!\!> \\ k^{\rm h} <\!\! kh\!\!> \end{array}$	q ^h <qh></qh>	? <'> ^*
TIOSIVE	Not Aspirated	b p		d <d> t <t></t></d>		g <g> k <k></k></g>	q <q></q>	
Na	sal	m <m></m>		n <n></n>	ŋ <ṇ> ‡	ŋ <ŋ>	$_{N} < \mathfrak{g} > B$	
	Sibilant			z <z> s <s></s></z>	z <ź> * c <ś>			
Fricative	Non Sibilant	□ <β> A	v <v> f <f></f></v>		ç <*> *	x <x></x>	χ <x>*</x>	h <h></h>
	Whistled			Ţ < ∑ >		× <×>		ḥ <ħ>
Lat	eral			1<1>	λ <įl> Α			
Lateral 1	Fricative			{ <{>>/ <hl></hl>				
Fl	ap			€ c/>				
Trill				r <r> †*</r>				
	Labial				ų <į> A	w <ų> ^A		
Glide	Not Labial				j <į>	щ <ų́>		

A Grammar of Üvjolıhu

- Non-distinguished
- * Non-distinguished in writing system
- † Only after another consonant
- ‡ Rare in non-loanwords
- A Archaic
- B Only before an uvular

7.1.2 Vowels

Here is the vowel table of all dialects of Uvjolihu:

	Front	Front-Central	Central	Back-Central	Back
Close	i <i>> i <₁> °</i>				u <ù>
Near-Close		I <i></i>		υ <u>></u>	
Close-Mid	e <e> B*</e>				o <ô>
Mid			ə <ə> A		
Open-Mid	ε <e></e>				o> c
Near-Open	æ <â>				
Open	a <a>				

^{*} Non-distinguished

- A Archaic
- B Word-final
- ^C Informal

7.2 Syllable Rules and Names

Úviolihu lacks CVC syllables, but unlike other languages with this property, its reliance on the CV alternation comes across as a strong rhythm that keeps consistency across words.

Úviolihu has several kinds of non-CVC syllables, listed below in increasing order of rarity:

CV—make up the bulk of words and retain the aforementioned rhythm.

VC—slightly rarer, and create incidental diphthongs and double consonants.

V—break up the difficult consonants of long words and create diphthongs.

C—only found in isolated words, such as m, z, and q.

Of course, not every syllable or syllable group is possible, even with the rules above. You'll never find a word like $oohasxaup\phi a$, for reasons both obvious and less so. I've created a table of all the possible consonants in Uviolihu (reference this to decide if a compound word is valid!).

Here each column is divided into columns for CV and VC order.

	-	A		1	Â	Б		Idea			į	(Ô		U		ij
	С	CV	VC	CV	VC	CV	VC	CV	VC	CV	VC	CV	VC	CV	VC	CV	VC	CV	VC
-																			
В																			
Bh																			
D																			
Dh																			
F																			
ф																			
G																			
Gh																			
K																			
Kh																			
L																			
M																			
N																			
Ŋ																			
n																			
P																			
Ph																			
Q																			

A Grammar of Üvjolıhu

	-	A		Â		Е		I		İ		О		Ô		U		Ú	
	С	CV	VC	CV	VC	CV	VC	CV	VC	CV	VC	CV	VC	CV	VC	CV	VC	CV	VC
Qh																			
R																			
S																			
Ś																			
Т																			
Th																			
V																			
X																			
X																			
Z																			
Ź																			
Z																			

7.4 Intonation

7.5 Historical Change

Regularity and Variation

8.1	Noun Variation
8.2	Verb Variation
8.3	Other Variation
8.4	Systematic Change

Complex Systems

Evolution

The Gitiidhnâe Writing System

This chapter is about Gitiidhnâe, an abugida writing system used by Üvjolıhu speakers. It was created in about 780 AE and has evolved in the years since.

11.1 Basic Letters and Syllable Formation

Below is a table of the phonetic glyphs of Gitiidhnâe:

f	
g	
gh	
k	
kh	
φ	
q	
qh	Œ
v	
x	\odot
X	

į	
ų	
n	G
m	
t	
d	Ð
th	
dh	

11 2	Complex Writing Rules
11.3 ——	Writing, Punctuation, and Format
11.4	Spelling